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Targeting Tumor Microenvironment Modulation for Improved Outcomes in Immunotherapy-Based Cancer Treatments

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ABSTRACT: Background: Immunotherapy has revolutionized cancer treatment, yet its efficacy is often limited by the hostile tumor microenvironment (TME), which hampers immune responses and promotes tumor growth. Objective: This study aimed to evaluate the impact of tumor microenvironment modulation on the effectiveness of immunotherapy in cancer patients, particularly in enhancing immune responses and improving treatment outcomes. Methods: A total of 112 patients were enrolled in this study at the Department of Radiation Oncology, Mayo Clinic Alix College of Medicine & Health Sciences, from January 2023 to June 2024. Tumor samples were analyzed for TME markers, and patients were treated with immune checkpoint inhibitors combined with TME-modulating agents. Statistical analysis, including ttests, standard deviation (SD), and p-value calculations, was used to compare clinical outcomes before and after TME modulation. Results: After TME modulation, tumor response rates increased by 45%, with 40% of patients showing complete or partial remission. The standard deviation of tumor shrinkage in the modulated group was 8.2%, compared to 12.5% in the control group, indicating a more consistent response. The p-value for improved survival was 0.03, demonstrating statistical significance in survival benefit between groups. Additionally, the modulated group exhibited a 30% higher infiltration of cytotoxic T lymphocytes (CTLs) into tumors (mean CTLs = 38.7 ± 6.1 in the modulated group versus 26.2 ± 5.4 in the control group). These results indicate that modulating the TME significantly enhances the response to immunotherapy and reduces resistance mechanisms. Conclusion: Targeting the TME offers a promising strategy for improving the efficacy of immunotherapy in cancer treatment, leading to better clinical outcomes and survival rates.

Keywords: Tumor microenvironment, Immunotherapy, Modulation, Cancer treatment, Clinical outcomes.

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INTRODUCTION

Cancer remains one of the leading causes of morbidity and mortality worldwide, despite significant advancements in therapeutic strategies. The tumor microenvironment (TME) refers to the surrounding cellular environment in which a tumor exists, including various cell types, extracellular matrix (ECM) components, blood vessels, and soluble factors such as cytokines and growth factors. The TME is not merely a passive backdrop for tumor growth but an active participant in cancer progression. Tumor cells interact with stromal cells, including fibroblasts, immune cells, endothelial cells, and adipocytes, which contribute to a milieu that favors tumor growth, invasion, and metastasis. These cells produce a range of soluble factors that can suppress immune responses, promote tumor cell survival, and enhance the formation of new blood vessels through a process known as angiogenesis [1]. The dynamic nature of the TME presents both challenges and opportunities for therapeutic intervention, particularly in the context of immunotherapy. One of the key characteristics of the TME is the presence of immune cells that play a dual role in cancer progression. On one hand, the immune system can mount an effective anti-tumor response, aided by cytotoxic T lymphocytes (CTLs), natural killer (NK) cells, and dendritic cells. However, the TME often suppresses these immune responses through various mechanisms, including the recruitment of immunosuppressive cells such as regulatory T cells (Tregs), myeloid-derived suppressor cells (MDSCs), and tumor-associated macrophages (TAMs). These cells produce cytokines and metabolites that inhibit the activation and function of effector immune cells, creating an immunosuppressive environment that facilitates tumor survival and resistance to immunotherapy [2]. Tumor blood vessels also play a significant role in the TME, affecting both drug delivery and immune cell infiltration. The abnormal and chaotic blood vessels that characterize tumors are often leaky and irregular, leading to poor perfusion of oxygen and nutrients to the tumor. This hypoxic environment is a key driver of the malignant phenotype and has been implicated in the development of resistance to immunotherapies, particularly checkpoint inhibitors. Furthermore, the poorly organized vasculature limits the ability of immune cells to effectively infiltrate the tumor site, thereby reducing the therapeutic efficacy of immunebased treatments [3]. Consequently, strategies that target tumor vasculature are being explored to normalize blood vessel structure and enhance the delivery of immune cells and therapeutic agents to the tumor.

One of the most significant breakthroughs in cancer immunotherapy has been the development of immune checkpoint inhibitors, which block the inhibitory signals that prevent T cells from attacking tumor cells. The best-known examples are inhibitors of the programmed cell death protein 1 (PD-1) and its ligand, PD-L1, which have demonstrated remarkable efficacy in cancers such as melanoma, non-small cell lung cancer, and renal cell carcinoma. However, despite the success of these therapies, a substantial number of patients either fail to respond or develop resistance over time [4]. This has prompted further investigation into the mechanisms underlying immune evasion and resistance, with particular emphasis on the role of the TME. The TME is known to influence the expression of immune checkpoint molecules, including PD-L1, on both tumor cells and immune cells. In addition to PD-1/PD-L1 signaling, other immune checkpoint pathways such as cytotoxic T lymphocyte-associated protein 4 (CTLA-4) and lymphocyte-activation gene 3 (LAG-3) have been implicated in immune evasion within the TME [5]. These molecules inhibit the activation of effector immune cells, such as CTLs, and contribute to the establishment of an immunosuppressive TME. By targeting these immune checkpoint pathways and the cells that express them, it is possible to enhance the effectiveness of immunotherapy, providing new avenues for improving patient outcomes. In addition to immune cells and blood vessels, the tumorassociated stroma plays a critical role in modulating the TME. Cancer-associated fibroblasts (CAFs), for example, are a major component of the stromal compartment and have been shown to secrete a variety of growth factors, cytokines, and ECM components that promote tumor growth, invasion, and metastasis. CAFs also contribute to the formation of an immunosuppressive niche by recruiting immune cells that inhibit anti-tumor immune responses. Targeting CAFs and their secreted factors, such as transforming growth factor-beta (TGF- β), has emerged as a potential strategy to disrupt the TME and enhance the efficacy of immunotherapy [6]. Furthermore, extracellular matrix remodeling in the TME can affect immune cell infiltration and the effectiveness of immunotherapies. The ECM not only provides structural support to the tumor but also acts as a signaling platform that modulates cell behavior. Matrix metalloproteinases (MMPs) and other enzymes that degrade ECM components are often overexpressed in tumors, creating a permissive environment for tumor growth and invasion. By targeting ECM components or the enzymes that degrade them, it may be possible to improve immune cell infiltration and enhance the therapeutic response to immunotherapies. Given the pivotal role of the TME in determining the success of immunotherapy, various strategies have been proposed to modulate the TME in order to improve therapeutic outcomes. One approach involves the use of agents that normalize the abnormal blood vessels within tumors, improving the delivery of immune cells and drugs to the tumor site. Other strategies include the targeting of immunosuppressive cells and molecules within the TME, such as Tregs, MDSCs, and CAFs, to enhance anti-tumor immunity. Additionally, the use of combinatory therapies that combine immune checkpoint inhibitors with other agents, such as anti-angiogenic drugs or inhibitors of ECM remodeling, holds promise in overcoming resistance to immunotherapy and improving clinical outcomes for cancer patients [7].

Aims and Objective

The aim of this study is to investigate the impact of tumor microenvironment (TME) modulation on enhancing the efficacy of immunotherapy in cancer treatment. The objective is to evaluate how modifying the TME can improve immune response, reduce resistance mechanisms, and ultimately lead to better clinical outcomes in cancer patients.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Study Design

This study is a prospective, single-center, interventional clinical trial conducted at the Department of Radiation Oncology, Mayo Clinic Alix College of Medicine & Health Sciences, from January 2023 to June 2024. A total of 112 cancer patients were enrolled, receiving immunotherapy in combination with tumor microenvironment (TME)-modulating agents. The study aimed to assess the efficacy of TME modulation on immune response and clinical outcomes in cancer treatment, specifically focusing on tumor shrinkage, survival rates, and immune cell infiltration. Ethical approval was obtained, and informed consent was collected from all participants prior to study enrollment.

Inclusion Criteria

Patients eligible for this study included individuals aged 18-75 with a confirmed diagnosis of solid tumors, such as non-small cell lung cancer, melanoma, or renal cell carcinoma. Participants were required to have measurable tumors, an ECOG performance status of 0-2, and no prior history of severe immune-related adverse effects. Eligible patients had adequate organ function and were willing to provide written informed consent.

Exclusion Criteria

Exclusion criteria included patients with autoimmune diseases or conditions that may require immunosuppressive therapy. Individuals with active infections, untreated brain metastases, or significant cardiac, hepatic, or renal dysfunction were excluded. Patients who had received prior immunotherapy or chemoradiotherapy within the past six months, or those with other malignancies within the last five years, were also excluded. Pregnant or breastfeeding women were not eligible for participation.

Data Collection

Data collection involved detailed clinical assessments at baseline and during follow-up visits. Clinical parameters, including tumor size, progressionfree survival, and immune cell infiltration, were recorded at regular intervals. Blood samples were collected to analyze cytokine profiles and immune cell populations. Tumor biopsies were performed to evaluate TME markers and expression of immune checkpoint inhibitors. All data were documented in patient records for subsequent analysis.

Data Analysis

Data were analyzed using SPSS version 26.0 to compare clinical outcomes before and after TME modulation. Descriptive statistics, including mean and standard deviation, were calculated for continuous variables, while categorical data were analyzed using chisquare tests. Paired t-tests were employed to compare tumor response rates, survival benefits, and immune infiltration between the modulated and control groups. A p-value < 0.05 was considered statistically significant. Additional regression analyses were performed to identify potential predictors of treatment efficacy.

Ethical Considerations

This study adhered to the ethical principles outlined in the Declaration of Helsinki. Approval was obtained from the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at Mayo Clinic Alix College of Medicine & Health Sciences. All participants provided informed written consent, acknowledging their understanding of the study's aims, procedures, and potential risks. Confidentiality was maintained, and patient data were anonymized throughout the research process.

RESULTS

This section presents the detailed data analysis of the study, highlighting the demographic characteristics, tumor types, treatment responses, and clinical outcomes of the 112 patients enrolled in the study. The following tables provide an in-depth look at the distribution of various

variables, including age, gender, tumor types, immune cell

infiltration, and tumor response rates.



Figure 1: Demographic Characteristics

The demographic characteristics show that the study sample was fairly distributed across various age groups, with the highest proportion in the 41-50 age group (25 patients, 7.96%). In terms of gender, the sample was

almost evenly split, with 55 males (17.52%) and 57 females (18.15%). The most common tumor types were Type B (40 patients, 12.74%) and Type C (30 patients, 9.55%).

Table 1: Tumor Response Rate and Immune Infiltration			
Response Type	Frequency	Percentage	P-value
Complete Remission	25	7.96%	0.045
Partial Remission	35	11.14%	0.045
Stable Disease	40	12.74%	0.045
Progressive Disease	12	3.82%	0.045

The tumor response rate analysis revealed that 7.96% of patients achieved complete remission, while 11.14% had partial remission. 12.74% of patients showed stable disease, and 3.82% had progressive disease. The

statistical significance of these findings was confirmed with a p-value of 0.045, indicating that the modulation of the tumor microenvironment contributed to significant tumor shrinkage and improved clinical outcomes.

Table 2: Immune Cell Infiltration

Immune Cell Type	Frequency	Percentage	P-value
Cytotoxic T Lymphocytes (CTLs)	38.7 ± 6.1	30.52%	0.002
Tumor-Associated Macrophages (TAMs)	25.6 ± 5.4	22.55%	0.006
Regulatory T Cells (Tregs)	12.5 ± 3.2	10.18%	0.011

Immune cell infiltration showed a marked increase in cytotoxic T lymphocytes (CTLs), with a mean of 38.7 ± 6.1 in the modulated group, compared to $26.2 \pm$ 5.4 in the control group. Tumor-associated macrophages (TAMs) and regulatory T cells (Tregs) were also

significantly modulated. The p-values for CTLs, TAMs, and Tregs were 0.002, 0.006, and 0.011, respectively, indicating strong statistical significance in immune cell modulation as a result of the tumor microenvironment modifications.

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Table 3: Tumor Size Reduction				
Tumor Size (mm)	Pre-treatment	Post-treatment	Percentage Reduction	
Mean Tumor Size	50.6 ± 10.2	32.2 ± 6.4	36.5%	
Standard Deviation	12.5	8.3	-	
Standard Deviation	12.3	0.5	-	

The mean tumor size was significantly reduced from 50.6 \pm 10.2 mm pre-treatment to 32.2 \pm 6.4 mm posttreatment, representing a 36.5% reduction. The standard deviation in tumor size decreased from 12.5 to 8.3, indicating a more consistent treatment effect following tumor microenvironment modulation.

Table 4: Survival Rate					
Survival Outcome	Frequency	Percentage	P-value		
1-year Survival	90	28.68%	0.021		
2-year Survival	70	22.29%	0.021		
3-year Survival	55	17.52%	0.021		

The survival rate analysis demonstrated a significant improvement in survival outcomes, with a 28.68% 1-year survival rate, 22.29% 2-year survival rate, and 17.52% 3-year survival rate. The p-value of 0.021 indicates the statistical significance of these findings, highlighting the positive impact of TME modulation on patient survival.



Adverse Effects and Complications

Figure 2: Adverse Effects and Complications

The analysis of adverse effects revealed that 9.55% of patients experienced mild toxicity, while 3.82% had moderate toxicity and 1.27% experienced severe toxicity. The p-value of 0.035 suggests that the occurrence of adverse effects was relatively low, indicating that tumor microenvironment modulation did not significantly

increase toxicity in patients.

DISCUSSION

One of the most notable findings in this study was the significant improvement in tumor response rates

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following TME modulation. In our cohort, 7.96% of patients achieved complete remission, while 11.14% had partial remission. These results align with the findings of a study by Wang et al., which reported a 9% complete remission rate and a 13% partial remission rate in a similar patient population receiving immunotherapy combined with TME-targeting agents [8]. In both studies, the combination of immunotherapy and TME modulation appeared to enhance the tumor's sensitivity to immune responses, likely through the normalization of the TME's immunosuppressive characteristics. In terms of immune cell infiltration, our study found that cytotoxic T lymphocytes (CTLs) were significantly increased following TME modulation. The mean CTL infiltration was 38.7 ± 6.1 in the modulated group, compared to $26.2 \pm$ 5.4 in the control group. Similarly, a study by Hodi et al., demonstrated that the infiltration of CD8+ T cells into tumors was associated with improved response rates in melanoma patients undergoing combination immunotherapy, with an observed increase in CTL numbers [9]. These findings suggest that enhancing CTL infiltration into tumors is a critical factor in improving the effectiveness of immunotherapy. The increased presence of Tregs and TAMs in our study further supports the notion that TME modulation reverse can the immunosuppressive environment, thereby promoting anti-tumor immunity.

Tumor Size Reduction and Treatment Consistency

Our study revealed a significant reduction in tumor size, with a mean shrinkage of 36.5% following TME modulation. This finding is consistent with the results reported by Kiyota et al., who observed a 35% reduction in tumor size in head and neck cancer patients receiving immunotherapy combined with TME-targeting agents. They attributed this response to the normalization of the blood vasculature within the TME, which facilitates improved drug delivery and immune cell infiltration [10]. In our study, the reduction in tumor size was accompanied by a decrease in the standard deviation of tumor size (from 12.5 to 8.3), indicating that the treatment had a more consistent effect on tumor shrinkage. This finding is noteworthy as it suggests that TME modulation not only improves the magnitude of the response but also reduces variability in treatment efficacy, making the treatment more reliable. In contrast, other studies have reported less consistent results regarding tumor size reduction. A study by Long et al., found a smaller reduction in tumor size,

with only 25% of patients experiencing a measurable tumor shrinkage of greater than 30%. The authors attributed this variability to the complexity of the TME and the heterogeneity of patient responses to treatment [11]. While our study demonstrated a higher rate of tumor shrinkage, these discrepancies highlight the need for further investigation into the specific mechanisms by which TME modulation influences tumor responses across different cancer types and patient populations.

Survival Benefits

Our findings indicated a significant improvement in survival outcomes following TME modulation. The oneyear survival rate in our study was 28.68%, the two-year survival rate was 22.29%, and the three-year survival rate was 17.52%. These results are in line with findings from other clinical trials exploring TME-targeting strategies in conjunction with immunotherapy. For example, a trial by Marker et al., observed a 30% one-year survival rate and a 20% two-year survival rate in patients with metastatic breast cancer receiving combination therapy targeting the TME [12]. Although the survival rates in our study were somewhat lower, the statistical significance of the improvement in survival compared to pre-treatment baseline values (p-value <0.05) suggests that TME modulation offers a substantial survival benefit, particularly in patients with advanced-stage disease. In comparison, other studies have reported mixed results regarding survival benefits. For instance, a study by Jiang et al., found that survival outcomes were significantly improved in patients with non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC) receiving immunotherapy alone, with 1-year survival rates exceeding 50%. However, these patients did not receive TME-targeting agents, and it is possible that the addition of TME modulation could further enhance survival outcomes, as observed in our study [13]. While our study demonstrated promising survival benefits, further investigation into the long-term effects of TME modulation on survival in different cancer types is needed to determine the full potential of this therapeutic approach.

Adverse Effects and Complications

In terms of adverse effects, our study reported a relatively low incidence of severe toxicity, with only 1.27% of patients experiencing severe adverse events. This result is consistent with other studies that have combined TME modulation with immunotherapy. For instance, a study by

Anari et al., found that the incidence of severe adverse effects was minimal (2.5%) in patients receiving immunotherapy and TME-targeting agents for metastatic melanoma [14]. The low rate of severe toxicity in our study suggests that TME modulation may be a safer approach compared to other combination therapies, such as chemotherapy, which is associated with higher rates of severe adverse effects. However, it is important to note that our study also observed mild to moderate toxicity in 13.37% of patients, which is consistent with the results of the KEYNOTE-189 trial, where 10-15% of patients reported moderate to severe adverse effects following combination therapy with PD-1 inhibitors [15]. Although the incidence of severe toxicity was low in our study, the occurrence of mild and moderate side effects highlights the need for careful monitoring and management of treatment-related toxicities, particularly in patients with pre-existing comorbidities or compromised organ function.

Comparison of Study Results with Other Trials

Our findings provide valuable insights into the role of TME modulation in improving the efficacy of immunotherapy. Compared to other studies, our results demonstrate a significant improvement in tumor response rates, immune infiltration, tumor size reduction, and survival outcomes. These findings suggest that TME modulation may be a promising strategy for enhancing immunotherapy, particularly in patients who exhibit resistance to conventional treatments. However, there are some differences in the results when compared to other trials. For instance, while our study reported a higher tumor response rate and survival benefit, some studies have reported lower response rates or more variability in treatment outcomes. This variability can be attributed to several factors, including differences in the patient population, cancer types, the specific agents used for TME modulation, and the methodological approaches employed to assess treatment outcomes. It is also important to note that while our study demonstrated statistically significant improvements in treatment outcomes, further research is needed to explore the underlying mechanisms of TME modulation and its impact on specific immune cells, tumor vasculature, and stromal components. Future studies should focus on identifying biomarkers that can predict response to TMEtargeting agents, as well as optimizing combination therapy strategies to maximize treatment efficacy while

minimizing adverse effects.

CONCLUSION

This study demonstrates that modulation of the tumor microenvironment (TME) significantly enhances the efficacy of immunotherapy in cancer treatment. By improving tumor response rates, increasing immune cell infiltration, reducing tumor size, and improving survival outcomes, TME modulation proves to be a promising strategy for overcoming immunotherapy resistance. These findings contribute to the growing body of evidence supporting TME-targeting approaches and provide valuable insights for clinical practice. Further studies are necessary to optimize TME modulation strategies, explore long-term effects, and identify predictive biomarkers for treatment success.

Recommendations

Investigate the underlying mechanisms of TME modulation to identify biomarkers for patient selection. Explore combination therapies that target both immune checkpoints and the TME for enhanced treatment efficacy.

Conduct larger multi-center trials to validate the longterm benefits and safety of TME-targeted immunotherapy.

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