

# Immune Resistance in Prostate Cancer

Subjects: Allergy

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Utilizing the immune system to treat cancer has been a revolutionary development and has quickly become the standard treatment for many cancer types, superseding other targeted and systemic therapies. By targeting cancer cells and avoiding the toxicities of chemotherapy and radiation, immunotherapy offers a less toxic, yet, in many types of cancers, highly efficacious alternative. With regard to PCa, the interaction between prostatic epithelial cells and the immune and non-immune cells that make up the tumor microenvironment (TME) have been shown to have an important role in the complex changes that occur and ultimately result in disease progression, development of resistant metastases, and the overall resistance to both conventional and experimental therapies.

Keywords: immunotherapy ; metastatic castration resistant prostate cancer ; tumor microenvironment ; immune resistance ; combination therapies ; immune checkpoint inhibitors

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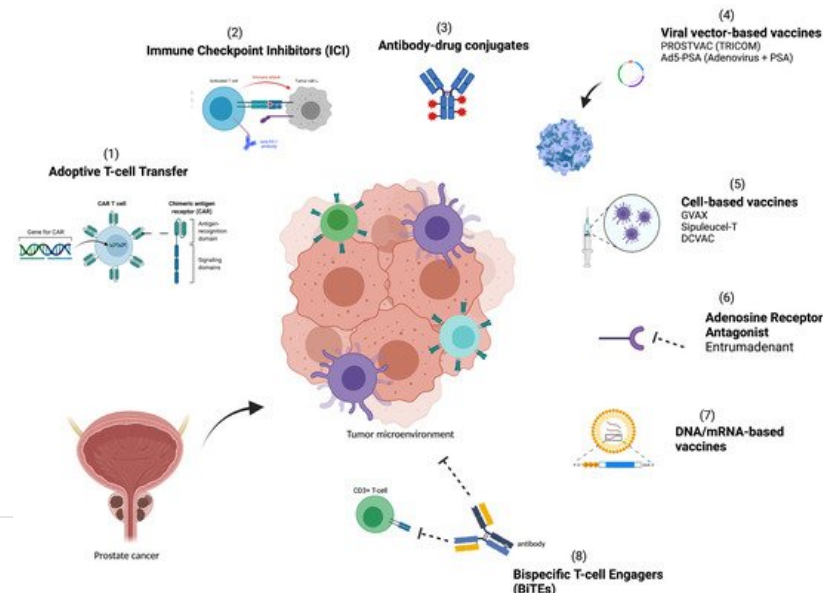
## 1. Introduction

Androgens have a key role in the pathogenesis of prostate cancer (PCa), and treatment modalities altering androgen receptor signaling pathways are the standard of care for advanced and disseminated disease. However, despite the initial effectiveness of androgen deprivation therapy (ADT), resistance to therapy occurs in approximately 30–50% of patients, resulting in castration-resistant prostate cancer (CRPC) for which there are very limited, generally not curative, systemic treatment options <sup>[1][2]</sup>.

Utilizing the immune system to treat cancer has been a revolutionary development and has quickly become the standard treatment for many cancer types, superseding other targeted and systemic therapies <sup>[3]</sup>. By targeting cancer cells and avoiding the toxicities of chemotherapy and radiation, immunotherapy offers a less toxic, yet, in many types of cancers, highly efficacious alternative <sup>[4]</sup>. With regard to PCa, the interaction between prostatic epithelial cells and the immune and non-immune cells that make up the tumor microenvironment (TME) have been shown to have an important role in the complex changes that occur and ultimately result in disease progression, development of resistant metastases, and the overall resistance to both conventional and experimental therapies <sup>[1][5]</sup>.

To date, however, patients with advanced PCa have not yet benefited to the same extent as those with more “immunologically hot” or “responsive” tumors such as melanoma, lung cancer, renal cell carcinoma or urothelial carcinoma <sup>[3][6][7]</sup>. In fact, PCa has been classified as a “cold tumor” with minimal response to immune-related treatment modalities <sup>[8]</sup> <sup>[9][10]</sup>. Low tumor-associated antigen expression, decreased major histocompatibility complex (MHC) presentation of tumor antigens, tumor suppressor and DNA repair enzyme defects, and poor immune-modulating signaling are some key processes that have a role in this complex tumor environment, altering the overall anti-tumor response <sup>[8][11]</sup>. Efforts have been made to target these immune evasion mechanisms in CRPC. Currently ongoing preclinical and clinical trials are reporting encouraging results on combination-based therapies. However, other than pembrolizumab, which was approved for advanced solid tumors from the US Food and Drug Administration (FDA) in 2017 for high microsatellite instability (MSI) and in 2020 for high tumor mutational burden (TMB), sipuleucel-T, an immunotherapy based on the infusion of antigen presenting cells (APCs) which has demonstrated improvements in survival without a significant response rate, remains the only FDA-approved immunotherapy for mCRPC <sup>[12][13]</sup>.

A greater understanding of the TME and methods for utilizing the host immune system to halt and eliminate tumor growth is needed to improve therapies. In this review, we set out to identify and explore key immune resistance mechanisms that lead to treatment failure in the immunosuppressive TME of PCa, and focus on therapeutic strategies ( **Figure 1** ) and approaches that target the immunosuppressive TME and seek to overcome these resistance mechanisms.



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In most solid tumors, effective immune responses within the TME rely on an increased infiltration and activation of immune cells, increased mutational burden within the cancer cells, expression of these tumor antigens on the cell surface, functional immune signaling pathways, and appropriate tumor suppressor functions [14,15]. Mechanisms that bypass these coordinated cellular functions ultimately result in immune evasion and subsequent malignant disease progression, and are thought to be critical factors in limiting the response to immune therapies [6].

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Agent (s)	Mechanism	Clinical Phase	Indication	Clinical Trial ID
Entrumadenant/zimberelimab/enzalutamide/docetaxel/AB680	Adenosine receptor antagonist + ICI + CD73 inhibitor + ADT + chemotherapy	I/II	mCRPC	NCT04381832 (ARC-6)
AMG160/pembrolizumab	PSMA-targeting Bispecific T-cell Engager + ICI	I	mCRPC	NCT03792841
HPN424	PSMA-targeting Bispecific T-cell Engager	I/II	mCRPC	NCT03577028
PROSTVAC/Ipilimumab/Nivolumab/Neoantigen DNA vaccine	Viral vector-based vaccine + ICI+ DNA vaccine	I	HSPC	NCT03532217
Pembrolizumab/enzalutamide/docetaxel/olaparib/abiraterone/prednisone	ICI + ADT + PARP inhibitor + chemotherapy	I/II	mCRPC	NCT02861573 (KEYNOTE-365)
Atezolizumab/Sipuleucel-T	ICI + DC Vaccine	Ib	mCRPC	NCT03024216
Ipilimumab/Sipuleucel-T	ICI + DC Vaccine	II	mCRPC	NCT01804465
Sipuleucel-T/CT-011/Cyclophosphamide	DC Vaccine + ICI + chemotherapy	I	mCRPC	NCT01420965
Nivolumab/Ipilimumab/Cabazitaxel/Prednisone	ICI + chemotherapy	II	mCRPC	NCT02985957 (CheckMate 650)

mCRPC metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer; ICI immune checkpoint inhibitor; HSPC hormone-sensitive prostate cancer; PSA prostate-specific antigen; PSMA prostate-specific membrane antigen; DC dendritic cell; ADT androgen deprivation therapy; CAR T chimeric antigen receptor T cells; PARP poly ADP ribose polymerase.