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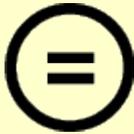
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의학박사 학위논문

Radiation-induced change of PD-1/PD-L1 immune checkpoint in mouse and human colorectal cancer models

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PD-1/PD-L1 면역 관문의 변화에 관한 연구

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ABSTRACT

Radiation-induced change of PD-1/ PD-L1 immune checkpoint in mouse and human colorectal cancer models

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Introduction: Recent progress in immunotherapy has introduced programmed death-1 (PD-1)/ programmed death-ligand 1 (PD-L1) blockade as a novel target to eradicate tumors, but its use has been mainly confined to recurrent or metastatic settings. Radiotherapy (RT), a major part of anti-cancer treatment, directly kills tumor cells, and subsequent anti-tumor immune responses are up-regulated. However, immunologic impacts of RT on PD-1/PD-L1 immune checkpoint activity has not been much investigated. This study evaluated RT-induced alterations of the PD-1/PD-L1 checkpoint molecules based on a murine colon carcinoma and human rectal cancer treated with preoperative chemoradiotherapy (CRT).

Methods: CT26 colon carcinoma cell line was subcutaneously inoculated on the right hind leg of BALB/c mice. Based on tumor growth curves after irradiation of 15 Gy x 1 fx or 5 Gy x 3 fx, mouse tumors were surgically resected on 4 different time points: “Pre-RT”, non-irradiated status just prior to initiation of RT; “Early”, the early phase of RT response; “Nadir”, representing minimal tumor volume; and “Regrowth”, with regrown tumors after RT. Defining the Day 1 as an initiation of RT, tumor tissues were obtained on Day 1, 6, 12, and 22, and Day 1, 6, 10, and 20, with single ablative and fractionated dose regimen, respectively. PD-L1 expression on tumor cells, PD-1 expression on tumor-infiltrating CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells, and proportions of tumor-infiltrating CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cell populations were estimated using flow cytometry analysis. Considering human data, we conducted paired analysis using pre-CRT biopsies and the corresponding post-CRT resected tissues of 123 rectal cancer patients undergoing preoperative CRT followed by surgery between 2005 and 2012. Immunohistochemistry of PD-L1, PD-1, and CD8 was analyzed along with other clinicopathologic features and survival outcomes.

Results: PD-L1 expression on mouse tumor cells surged within a few days after completion of RT, followed by abrupt decreases on the “Nadir” and “Regrowth” phases ($P < .001$ and equal to $.002$ for single ablative and fractionated RT, respectively). PD-1-positivity (%) on CD4⁺ T cells was not significantly different according to different time points ($P = .656$ and $.223$ for single ablative and fractionated RT, respectively). On the contrary, PD-1-

positive proportions (%) in CD8⁺ T cells sharply increased, and the high-level was sustained until the “Regrowth” phase ($P < .001$ for all paired comparisons between “Pre-RT” and others). During RT response of “Early” and “Nadir” time points, CD4⁺ T cells decreased, but CD8⁺ T cells increased. The alterations were reversed at “Regrowth” phase, with increasing and decreasing again in CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cell populations, respectively ($P < .001$ all paired comparisons between “Pre-RT” and others).

In the immunohistochemistry of rectal cancer, PD-L1 expression levels and density of CD8⁺ tumor-infiltrating lymphocytes (TILs) increased after CRT ($P < .001$ for both). Considering PD-1 expression, its pre-CRT intensity was scanty, but markedly increased after CRT. With cutoffs using each median value, sustained higher expression of PD-L1 at pre- and post-CRT (high-to-high) was associated with less increase in the density of CD8⁺ TILs ($P = .020$). Patients with sustained high-to-high PD-L1 expression had poorer overall survival (OS) and disease-free interval (DFI) in univariate Kaplan-Meier analysis ($P = .018$ and $.029$, respectively), with inferior DFI in low-to-low density CD8⁺ TILs ($P = .010$). In multivariate analysis, two subgroups with high baseline PD-L1 expression level showed worse OS, but the highest risk was observed with the high-to-high alteration (hazard ratio [HR] 8.34, 95% confidence interval [CI] 1.85–37.53 and HR 11.03, 95% CI 2.33–52.29 for high-to-low and high-to-high, respectively).

Conclusions: This study verified radiation-induced immunologic shift toward increases of the PD-1/PD-L1 checkpoint activity and density of CD8⁺ TILs.

However, the change was maximal at the early phase of RT response, which highlights the need of concurrent combinatory strategy of PD-L1 blockade and RT. The alteration profiles of checkpoint-related molecules identified the subset of patients with poor prognosis, suggesting potential candidates who can benefit from combining checkpoint inhibitors.

Keywords: PD-L1, PD-1, CD8, radiotherapy, mouse tumor model, rectal cancer, chemoradiotherapy

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CONTENTS

| | |
|--|-----|
| Abstract | i |
| Contents..... | v |
| List of tables and figures | vii |
| List of abbreviations..... | ix |
| | |
| Introduction | 1 |
| Materials and methods | 4 |
| Cell line and animals | 4 |
| Preliminary experiments | 4 |
| Mouse tumor model | 6 |
| Single cell suspension of mouse tumors | 8 |
| Flow cytometry analysis..... | 8 |
| Patient population..... | 11 |
| Treatment of patients..... | 11 |
| Immunohistochemistry..... | 12 |
| Pathologic evaluation | 13 |
| Statistical analysis | 14 |
| Results | 16 |
| Tumor growth curve after irradiation | 16 |
| PD-L1 expressions on tumor cells | 17 |
| PD-1 expression on CD4 ⁺ and CD8 ⁺ T cells | 18 |

| | |
|---|----|
| Proportions of CD4 ⁺ and CD8 ⁺ T cell subsets..... | 20 |
| Clinicopathologic characteristics of rectal cancer patients | 23 |
| Change of PD-L1, CD8 ⁺ and PD-1 ⁺ TILs before and after CRT | 26 |
| Survival analysis | 37 |
| Discussion | 44 |
| References | 53 |
| 국문 초록..... | 61 |

LIST OF TABLES AND FIGURES

| | |
|---|----|
| Table 1. Characteristics of rectal cancer patients | 24 |
| Table 2. Associations between patient characteristics and the expression level of PD-L1 before and after CRT..... | 31 |
| Table 3. Associations between patient characteristics and the expression level of CD8 ⁺ TILs before and after CRT..... | 34 |
| Table 4. Multivariate analysis for overall survival and disease-free interval according to pre- and post-CRT alterations of PD-L1 and CD8 ⁺ TILs..... | 42 |
| | |
| Figure 1. Immobilization and irradiation of mouse tumors..... | 5 |
| Figure 2. Preliminary experiments for tumor growth curves after irradiation | 6 |
| Figure 3. Four different time points for evaluation of PD-1/PD-L1 immune checkpoint activity on mouse tumor tissues..... | 7 |
| Figure 4. Gating method for evaluation of PD-1 expression in subsets of CD45 ⁺ CD3 ⁺ cells | 9 |
| Figure 5. Gating method for evaluation of PD-L1 expression on tumor cells | 10 |
| Figure 6. Positive control of immunohistochemistry | 13 |
| Figure 7. Change of CT26 tumor volume with irradiation..... | 16 |
| Figure 8. Alterations in median fluorescence intensity of PD-L1 on tumor cells before and after RT | 17 |
| Figure 9. PD-L1 expression on tumor cells according to different time points before and after RT | 18 |
| Figure 10. PD-1 expression on CD4 ⁺ and CD8 ⁺ T cells with single ablative and fractionated RT..... | 19 |
| Figure 11. Representative histograms of PD-1 expression on CD4 ⁺ and CD8 ⁺ T cells according to different time points after RT | 20 |

| | |
|--|----|
| Figure 12. Altered proportions of CD4 ⁺ and CD8 ⁺ T cell subsets relative to CD45 ⁺ CD3 ⁺ cells after irradiation..... | 21 |
| Figure 13. Change of CD4 ⁺ and CD8 ⁺ T cell populations according to different time points | 22 |
| Figure 14. Immunohistochemistry of PD-1 expression at pre- and post-CRT status..... | 26 |
| Figure 15. Representative slide views of pre- and post-CRT low and high, and pre- and post-CRT low and high density of CD8 ⁺ TILs..... | 27 |
| Figure 16. Increased PD-L1 expression and density of CD8 ⁺ TILs after CRT | 28 |
| Figure 17. Representative slide views of two cases with CRT-induced increases in the levels of PD-L1 and CD8 ⁺ TILs | 29 |
| Figure 18. Pre- and post-CRT difference of the density of CD8 ⁺ TILs according to the alteration of PD-L1 expression level, high-to-high vs. others..... | 29 |
| Figure 19. Kaplan-Meier curves according to pre- and post-CRT PD-L1 alteration patterns | 38 |
| Figure 20. Kaplan-Meier curves according to the CRT-induced alteration of the density of CD8 ⁺ TILs | 39 |
| Figure 21. Kaplan-Meier curves according to the existence or non-existence of each of the risk factors: high-to-high PD-L1 level and low-to-low density of CD8 ⁺ TILs..... | 40 |

LIST OF ABBREVIATION

PD-1, programmed death-1
PD-L1, programmed death-ligand 1
MSI, microsatellite instability
MSS, microsatellite-stable
RT, radiotherapy
CRT, chemoradiotherapy
IHC, immunohistochemistry
BED, biologically effective dose
HBSS, Hank's Balanced Salt Solution
IRB, Institutional Review Board
MSI-H, microsatellite instability-high
MSI-L, microsatellite instability-low
TILs, tumor-infiltrating lymphocytes
SD, standard deviation
OS, overall survival
DFI, disease-free interval
LRFI, locoregional relapse-free interval
DMFI, distant metastasis-free interval
MFI, median fluorescence intensity
HR, hazard ratio
CI, confidence interval

INTRODUCTION

Cancer immunotherapy has been one of the major anti-cancer modalities to suppress or eradicate tumors. In the function of T cell-mediated anti-cancer immunity, regulation of co-stimulatory or inhibitory signals is an important underlying mechanism (1). Immune checkpoints are molecules that either up-regulate or down-regulate cascade immune reactions, which has been increasingly considered as a novel target for cancer treatment (2).

Programmed death-1 (PD-1) (known as CD279) is a cell surface receptor expressed on T cells and pro-B cells (3). Programmed death-ligand 1 (PD-L1) (known as B7-H1 or CD274) is its main ligand widely expressed on antigen-presenting cells, normal epithelial or endothelial tissues, and tumor cells (3). PD-1/PD-L1 is one of the prominent immune checkpoints, well-known as inhibitory mechanisms of immune responses (4). Their molecular interaction under pro-inflammatory conditions induces co-inhibitory signal of immune responses with down-regulation of cytokine levels and effector T cells (5). Although the PD-1/PD-L1 immune checkpoint plays a physiologic function in down-regulating harmful inflammation reactions, the inhibitory effect leads to immune evasion and further tumor progression in the tumor microenvironment (6). The advent of PD-1/PD-L1-inhibiting strategy has highlighted the critical role of anti-tumor immunity in a variety of human cancers.

Colorectal cancer is the third most common cancer worldwide (7). Despite

technical advances and development of targeted therapies, this malignancy is the second to third leading cause of cancer-related deaths (7). Post-treatment failure with metastatic tumor spread still needs to be overcome (8). Although the use of the PD-1/PD-L1 checkpoint inhibitors has been considered a possible anti-cancer treatment option, previous clinical trials could not demonstrate a clear benefit in colorectal cancer (9). At baseline for colorectal cancer, PD-L1 expression in tumor cells is not often directly linked to their response to the checkpoint blockade therapy, whereas the checkpoint inhibitor is more effective in tumors of microsatellite instability (MSI) status, rather than microsatellite-stable (MSS) status (10, 11). Therefore, determining an optimal indication of the immunotherapeutic approach has been of interest to treatment of colorectal cancer.

With regard to the immunologic equilibrium, it has been known that cytotoxic therapies, such as chemotherapy, radiotherapy (RT), and chemoradiotherapy (CRT), develop a pro-inflammatory tumor microenvironment, releasing danger signals and allowing the activation of tumor-specific adaptive immunity (12, 13). In addition to previous investigations demonstrating the effect of RT as an immune adjuvant (14-17), recent preliminary results have supported combining PD-1/PD-L1 inhibitors with chemotherapy or CRT (18-20). To expand the discussion more in clinics, the potential for shifting the PD-1/PD-L1 activity through cytotoxic anti-cancer treatment needs to be explored.

In this study, we hypothesized that: 1) PD-1/PD-L1 expressions undergo alterations through the time course after RT based on syngeneic murine tumor

model; 2) Pre- and post-treatment change of PD-1/PD-L1 status of human cancer tissues is in accordance with that of mouse tumors; 3) PD-1/PD-L1 expression levels before and/or after treatment are associated with patients' prognosis. Since tumor tissues are not routinely obtained after RT in clinics, CT26 murine colon carcinoma model was used for post-RT consecutive monitoring of the checkpoint activity. To validate the alteration tendency regarding its prognostic associations in human cancer, we performed a paired comparison analysis using immunohistochemistry (IHC) of initial biopsies and post-CRT surgical tissues of rectal cancer undergoing preoperative CRT followed by surgery. Our results would provide knowledge for an optimal schedule and indication of combining strategy of conventional cytotoxic therapy and immune checkpoint inhibitors.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

1. Cell line and animals

CT26 cell line, a murine colon carcinoma of BALB/c mouse, was purchased from American Type Culture Collection. The cells were maintained in Roswell Park Memorial Institute medium (Welgene, Gyeongsan-si, Gyeongsangbuk-do, Korea) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (Gibco, Grand Island, NY, USA) and antibiotic-antimycotic (100x) (Gibco, Grand Island, NY, USA), and grown in an incubator with humidified atmosphere of 95% air and 5% CO₂ at 37.5 °C.

Male 6-week old BALB/c mice were used in this study. The animal experiment was approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of Seoul National University Hospital (approval number: 15-0199-C1A0). All experimental procedures were conducted under the regulations and standards of the institution.

2. Preliminary experiments

To determine details of mouse tumor model, such as tumor cell counts, inoculation methods, radiation dose, energy, and initial tumor volume at the start of irradiation, other prior CT26 murine model-based protocols were considered (17, 21). In the pilot study, 2×10^5 CT26 cells were subcutaneously inoculated at right lower hind leg of mice. Mouse tumors were irradiated with 6-MV X-ray photon energy once daily using a linear accelerator (Varian Medical systems, Palo Alto, CA). A custom-made acrylic device was used to immobilize the body and leg tumors (Figure 1).

Tumor size was measured every other day using a vernier caliper without treatment information. Individual tumor volume was calculated with the formula of $1/2 \times \text{length} \times \text{width}^2$ (mm^3)



Figure 1. Immobilization and irradiation of mouse tumors

Regarding that dose regimens used in the two reference studies are converted to biologically effective dose (BED) of 7.5–8 Gy_{10} , our pilot study explored single and fractionated radiation dose schemes: 7.5 Gy x 1 fx, 2.5 Gy x 3 fx, 15 Gy x 1 fx, and 5 Gy x 3 fx. Tumor growth curves of control (no radiation) and the above 4 experimental groups were compared (Figure 2). To evaluate immunologic effects of radiation-induced tumor cell killing, 15 Gy x 1 fx and 5 Gy x 3 fx, showing definite increasing, decreasing, and regrowth patterns after irradiation, were selected.

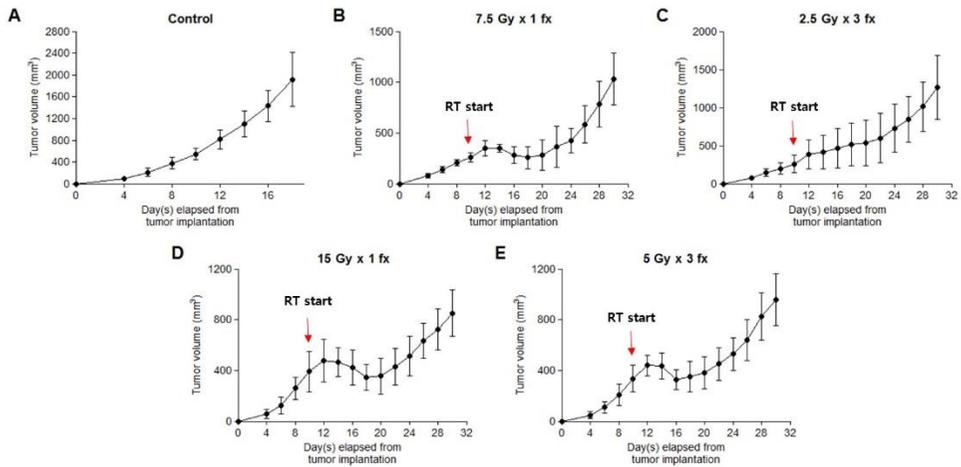


Figure 2. Preliminary experiments for tumor growth curves after irradiation: (A) Control (no RT), (B) 7.5 Gy x 1 fx, (C) 2.5 Gy x 3 fx, (D) 15 Gy x 1 fx, (E) 5 Gy x 3 fx. *Red arrows* indicate the start of irradiation. Representative data (mean \pm standard deviation) (mm³) of 5 mice per each RT dose regimen.

From comprehensive review of the preliminary results, other experimental protocols were determined: tumor cell count of 5×10^5 , right lower hind leg as the subcutaneous injection site with a fixation device, and initial tumor volume at least 200 mm³. The same researchers (Y.J.L. and S.R.J.) consistently performed the tumor inoculation and irradiation to obtain reproducible results.

3. Mouse tumor model

Based on tumor growth curves with irradiation, four different time points for resection of tumor tissues were determined for each of single ablative and

fractionated dose regimen: “Pre-RT”, non-irradiated status just prior to initiation of RT; “Early”, the early phase of RT response; “Nadir”, representing minimal tumor volume; and “Regrowth”, with regrown tumors after RT (Figure 3). Defining the day 1 as an initiation of RT with 15 Gy x 1 fx or 5 Gy x 3 fx, the “Early”, “Nadir”, and “Regrowth” phases were in accordance with day 6, 12, and 22, or day 6, 10, and 20, respectively. Every four mice were sacrificed at each time point for tumor resection, and expressions of the immune checkpoint-related molecules were evaluated.

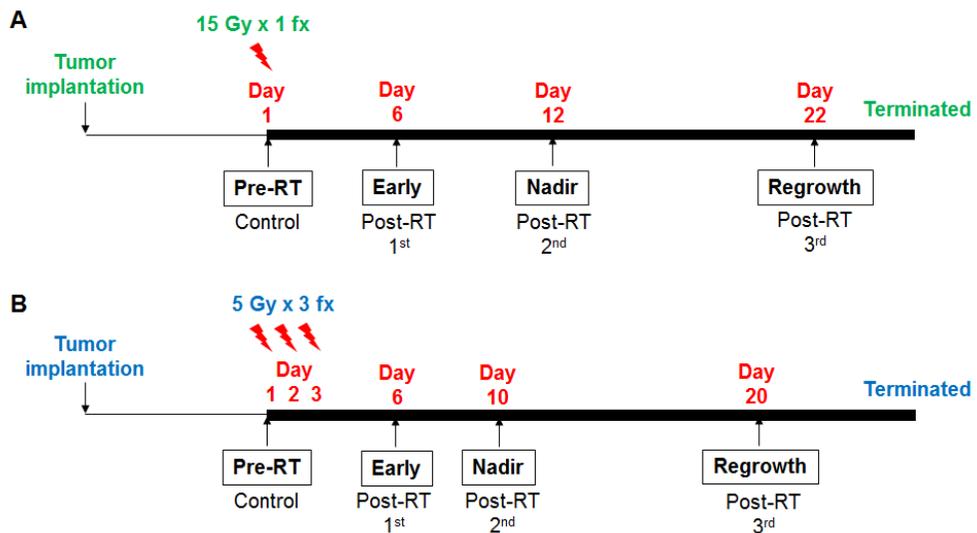


Figure 3. Four different time points for evaluation of PD-1/PD-L1 immune checkpoint activity on mouse tumor tissues. (A) Single ablative dose (15 Gy x 1 fx) and (B) fractionated (5 Gy x 3 fx) irradiation: “Pre-RT”, non-irradiated status just prior to initiation of RT; “Early”, the early phase of RT response; “Nadir”,

representing minimal tumor volume; and “Regrowth”, with regrown tumors after RT.

4. Single cell suspension of mouse tumors

Tumor tissues were cut up into small pieces and minced using scalpels. For digestion, 10x triple enzyme stock solution, consisting of 10 mg/ml collagenase IV, 200 mg/ml DNase I, 1 mg/ml hyaluronidase, and Hank’s Balanced Salt Solution (HBSS) (all Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA), was added. The sample was incubated under 37°C for 30 min, and passed through 70 µm nylon mesh cell strainer (Corning, Corning, NY, USA). After repeated washing in HBSS, cells were resuspended with plating media.

5. Flow cytometry analysis

Prepared cells were initially blocked with anti-FcR (BD Biosciences, San Jose, CA, USA), and then stained with antibodies against CD45, CD3, CD4, CD8, PD-1 (BioLegend, San Diego, CA, USA), and PD-L1 (BD Biosciences unless otherwise stated). Live cells were gated using a fixable viability stain reagent (BD Biosciences, San Jose, CA, USA). Phenotypes of tumor cells and lymphocytes were evaluated. Figure 4 and 5 represent gating strategies to discriminate CD45⁺CD3⁺ and CD45⁻ cells, respectively.

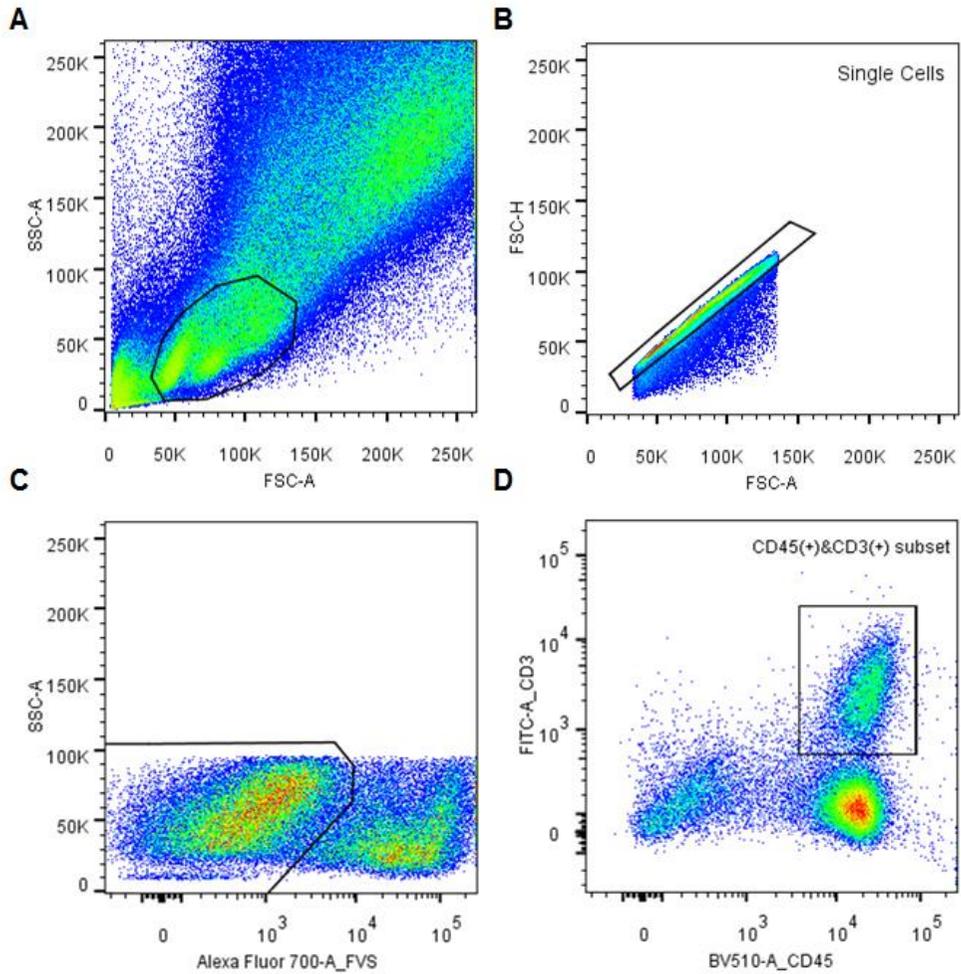


Figure 4. Gating method for evaluation of PD-1 expression in subsets of CD45⁺CD3⁺ cells. (A, B) Selection based on size and granularity information, (C) gating for viable cells based on vital dye exclusion pattern, and (D) discrimination of CD45⁺ and CD3⁺ cell population.

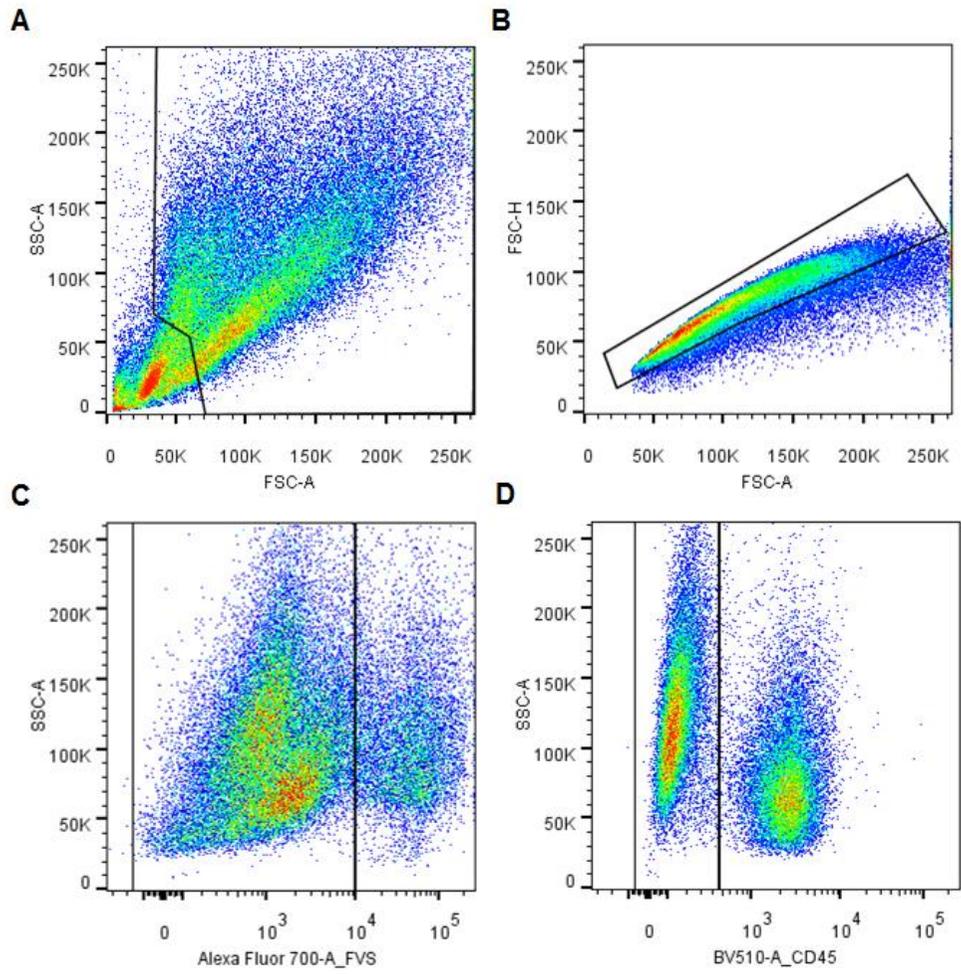


Figure 5. Gating method for evaluation of PD-L1 expression on tumor cells. (A, B) Selection based on size and granularity information, (C) gating for viable cells based on vital dye exclusion pattern, and (D) discrimination of CD45⁻ cell population.

6. Patient population

Rectal cancer patients undergoing preoperative CRT plus total mesorectal excision between 2005 and 2012 at our hospital were reviewed, and a total of 123 patients were finally analyzed. The eligibility criteria included: 1) both biopsy and postsurgical tumor tissues obtained; 2) clinicopathologic information fully available; 3) initial cM0 stage; 4) preoperative CRT with conventional fractionation; and 5) completion of planned course of CRT plus total mesorectal excision. This study was approved by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) of our institution (IRB No. 1503-039-654). The Declaration of Helsinki principles were followed throughout the present analysis.

Clinical and pathologic tumor stages were classified according to the 7th edition of the American Joint Committee on Cancer staging system. The pathologic regression grade was based on the Dworak system, from 0 of no regression to 4 of complete pathological regression (22). The MSI analysis was performed using fluorescent multiplex polymerase chain reaction with the five markers recommended by the National Cancer Institute workshop: BAT-25, BAT-26, D5S346, D17S250, and D2S123. Using DNA analysis, samples with two or more of the markers were considered as MSI-high (MSI-H). The presence of one marker corresponded to MSI-low (MSI-L), and the MSS status was diagnosed when all of the markers represented stability.

7. Treatment of patients

Patients with rectal adenocarcinoma of clinically T3–4 and/or node-positive status were referred for preoperative CRT. With a daily fraction size of 1.8 Gy, the median total radiation dose was 50.4 Gy (range, 50.4–55.8). The concurrent chemotherapy regimen included intravenous 5-fluorouracil (500 mg/m² for 3 days during the first and fifth week of radiation) and oral capecitabine (1,650 mg/m² daily during the course of radiation). Following the preoperative CRT, the patients underwent total mesorectal excision, with the median time interval of 52 days (range, 38–82). Most patients (92%) received postoperative maintenance chemotherapy.

8. Immunohistochemistry

Tissue specimens from initial biopsies (pre-CRT) and total mesorectal excision (post-CRT) were retrieved from the pathology archive of our institution. The cases were reviewed and histologically confirmed as adenocarcinoma. A tissue microarray was made with 4-mm cores from formalin-fixed paraffin-embedded tissue blocks, with two representative cores of invasive front of tumors for each case. For the immunohistochemical staining of PD-L1, PD-1, and CD8, rabbit anti-PD-L1 antibody Q9NZQ7 (Abcam, Cambridge, MA, USA; 1:700), mouse anti-PD-1 antibody NAT105 (Cell Marque, Rocklin, CA, USA; 1:100), and rabbit anti-CD8 antibody SP57 (Roche, Indianapolis, IN, USA; ready-to-use) were used. For the immunohistochemical staining, Ventana BenchMark XT autostainer (Ventana Medical Systems, Tucson, AZ, USA) was used. Human placenta and tonsil tissues

were used for positive control of anti-PD-L1, and PD-1 or CD8 staining, respectively (Figure 6).

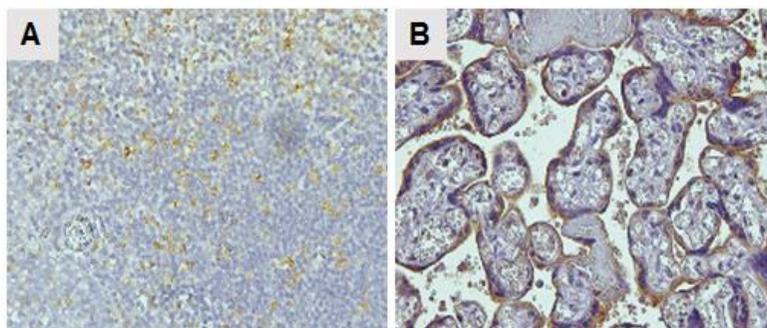


Figure 6. Positive control of immunohistochemistry. Slide views of human (A) tonsil and (B) placenta tissues stained with anti-PD-1 and PD-L1 antibody, respectively (x200).

9. Pathologic evaluation

PD-L1 expression in tumor tissues was assessed semi-quantitatively on a 0–3 scale (0, no; 1, weak; 2, moderate; and 3, strong expression). H-score was calculated using the formula, the representative staining intensity of each case \times the percentage of expressed tumor cells. Although the PD-L1 molecule is expressed on both tumor and tumor-infiltrating immune cells, such as macrophages and lymphocytes, the expression on lymphocytes was not sufficiently observed in our paraffin-embedded tissues. Then, we designed our study focusing on the altered PD-L1 expression based on membranous staining of tumor cells.

The CD8-stained slides were scanned using an AperioScanScope (Aperio Technologies, Vista, CA, USA). Based on the Aperio nuclear IHC algorithms of spectral differentiation between brown (positive) and blue (counter) staining, total positivity percentage was scored as 1+ through 3+ for each case. The density of CD8⁺ tumor-infiltrating lymphocytes (TILs) was automatically enumerated, which was defined as the total number of 1+ to 3+ cells divided by the total area (mm²). Two pathologists (J.K. and S.K.) reviewed the staining results without any clinical information of each patient.

10. Statistical analysis

Tumor growth curve data of CT26 mouse tumor model were presented as mean \pm standard deviation (SD) of absolute tumor volume (mm³). To evaluate differential expression of immunologic markers among the four kinds of time points, one-way analysis of variance method was used. The relationships between baseline characteristics of rectal cancer patients and PD-L1 expression on tumor cells were evaluated by the Pearson's chi-square or Fisher's exact test, and the Wilcoxon signed-rank test was used for the analysis of CD8⁺ TILs. In survival analysis, the primary outcome of interest was overall survival (OS), which was defined as the time period between the start date of CRT and overall death events. Disease-free interval (DFI), locoregional relapse-free interval (LRFI), and distant metastasis-free interval (DMFI) were estimated based on the overall, locoregional, and distant metastatic recurrence events, respectively. Kaplan-Meier analysis with a log-rank

test and a Cox proportional hazards model were used to evaluate prognostic factors. Statistically significant factors indicating *P*-values less than 0.05 were considered statistically significant. All analyses were conducted with SPSS 22 (IBM, Armonk, NT, USA).

RESULTS

Tumor growth curve after irradiation

Figure 7 represents the change of absolute tumor volume before and after irradiation using the CT26 murine tumor model. When tumors were irradiated with a single ablative dose of 15 Gy x 1 fx, the tumor growth delay comprising of descending and regrowth change was observed. The consecutive phase of RT response with 5 Gy x 3 fx was also characteristic, but tumor regrowth appeared earlier than with single ablative dose regimen.

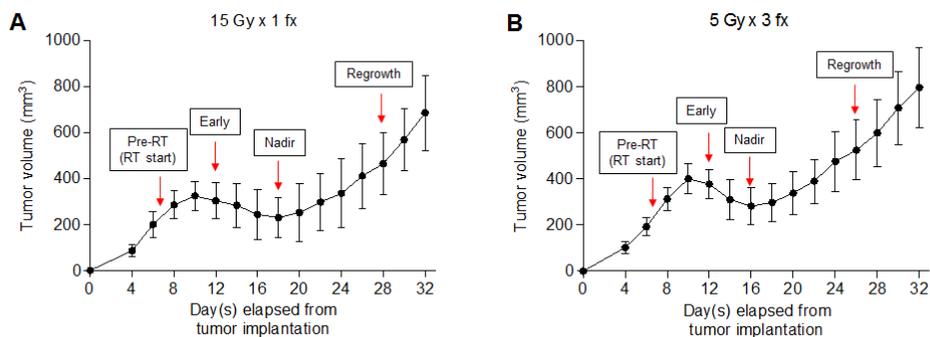


Figure 7. Change of CT26 tumor volume with irradiation. Black dot symbols and error bars indicate mean and SD values from 5 mice per each dose regimen, respectively, with (A) single ablative (15 Gy x 1 fx) and (B) fractionated (5 Gy x 3 fx) RT. Red arrows indicate the time points of tumor resection. Experiments were repeated twice, and the representative data are shown here.

PD-L1 expressions on tumor cells

Compared to baseline status, irradiated tumors at “Early” phase showed a sharp increase of PD-L1 expression on tumor cells. The mean \pm SD values of median fluorescence intensity (MFI) at “Pre-RT” and “Early” were 1188.8 ± 549.2 and 4923.0 ± 633.6 , and 969.5 ± 187.2 and 4604.8 ± 2021.8 with single ablative and fractionated RT, respectively. However, the intensity abruptly decreased again through the “Nadir” and “Regrowth” time points, with 1525.5 ± 211.4 and 845.5 ± 253.9 , and 1859.0 ± 326.4 and 1584.0 ± 282.1 , respectively. All paired comparisons between the maximum at “Early” phase and the other time points were statistically significant (Figure 8). Representative histograms are presented in Figure 9.

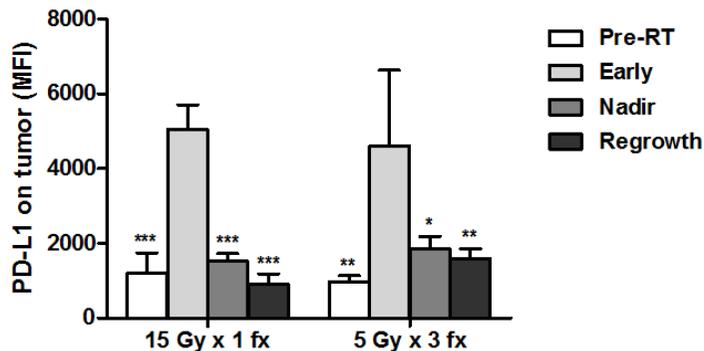


Figure 8. Alterations in median fluorescence intensity of PD-L1 on tumor cells before and after RT. * $P < .05$, ** $P < .01$, and *** $P < .001$ in comparison with the “Early” status. Mean \pm SD values are represented from 4 mice per each time point

after 15 Gy x 1 fx and 5 Gy x 3 fx, respectively. Experiments were repeated twice, and the representative data are shown here.

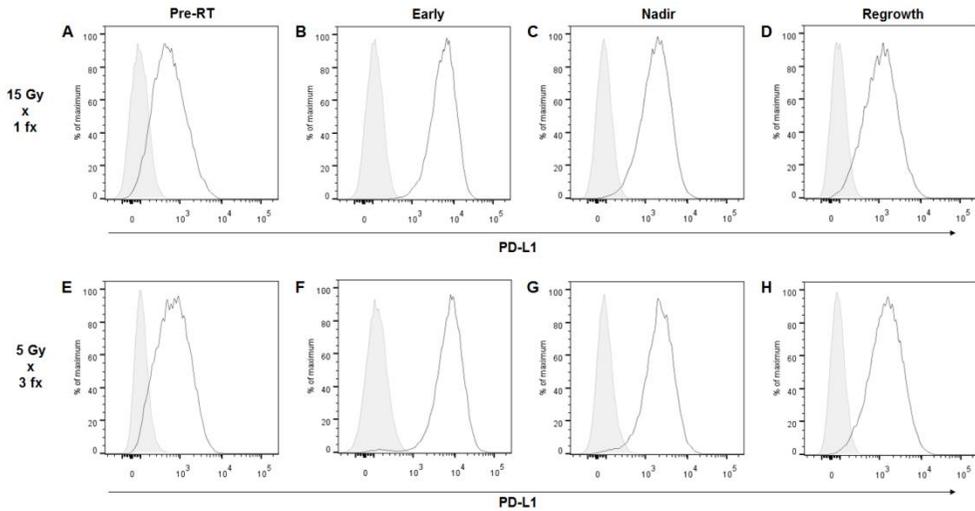


Figure 9. PD-L1 expression on tumor cells according to different time points before and after RT. Representative results of isotype control (*grey shadow*) and PD-L1 (*black solid line*) with (A–D) single ablative and (E–H) fractionated RT are presented, respectively.

PD-1 expression on CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells

Figure 10 represents comparisons of PD-1 expression on CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells at the different time points. The mean \pm SD values of PD-1⁺ proportions (%) relative to CD4⁺ T cell population at “Pre-RT”, “Early”, “Nadir”, and “Regrowth” phase were 57.4 ± 12.6 , 63.7 ± 6.4 , 57.1 ± 7.5 , and 60.0 ± 4.3 , and 55.1 ± 15.3 , $67.4 \pm$

11.9, 70.6 ± 9.5 , and 57.2 ± 8.7 with single ablative and fractionated RT dose, respectively ($P = .656$ and $.223$, respectively). Considering the expression level of PD-1 on $CD8^+$ T cells, the proportions of positive cells increased much sharply, and the high-level was sustained until the “Regrowth” phase. The mean \pm SD values of PD-1-positivity (%) among the $CD8^+$ T cells at the aforementioned 4 time points were 23.4 ± 8.9 , 95.5 ± 0.7 , 93.8 ± 6.2 , and 88.0 ± 10.0 , and 35.8 ± 7.2 , 96.4 ± 2.8 , 96.8 ± 2.0 , and 88.3 ± 6.2 , with single ablative and fractionated RT dose, respectively ($P < .001$ for both). Figure 11 shows representative histogram data of PD-1 expression on $CD4^+$ and $CD8^+$ T cells.

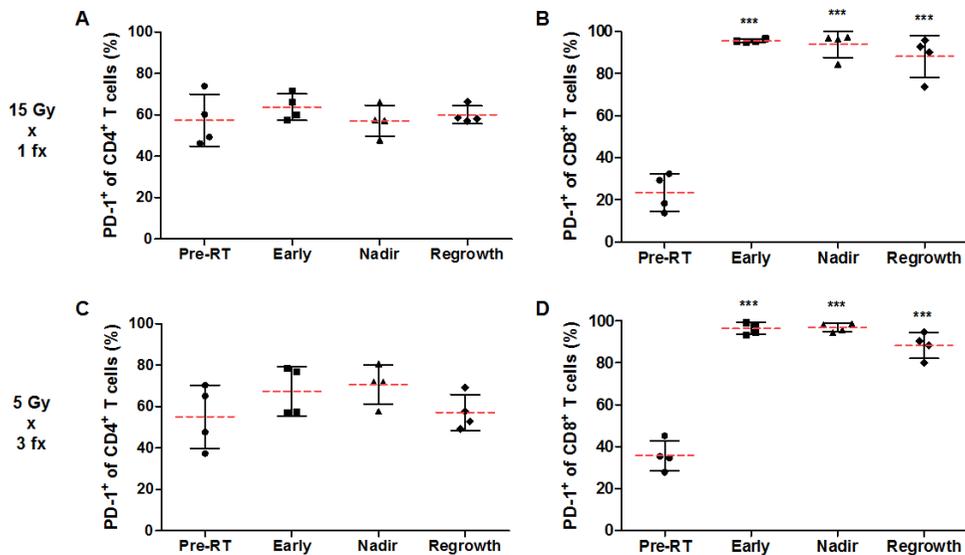


Figure 10. PD-1 expression on (A, C) $CD4^+$ and (B, D) $CD8^+$ T cells with single ablative (*upper panel*) and fractionated RT (*lower panel*). Proportions of PD-1-positive cells relative to $CD4^+$ and $CD8^+$ subsets are represented as mean (*red*

dotted line) \pm SD (*error bars of black solid line*) values from 4 mice per each time point after 15 Gy x 1 fx and 5 Gy x 3 fx, respectively. Experiments were repeated twice, and the representative data are shown here.

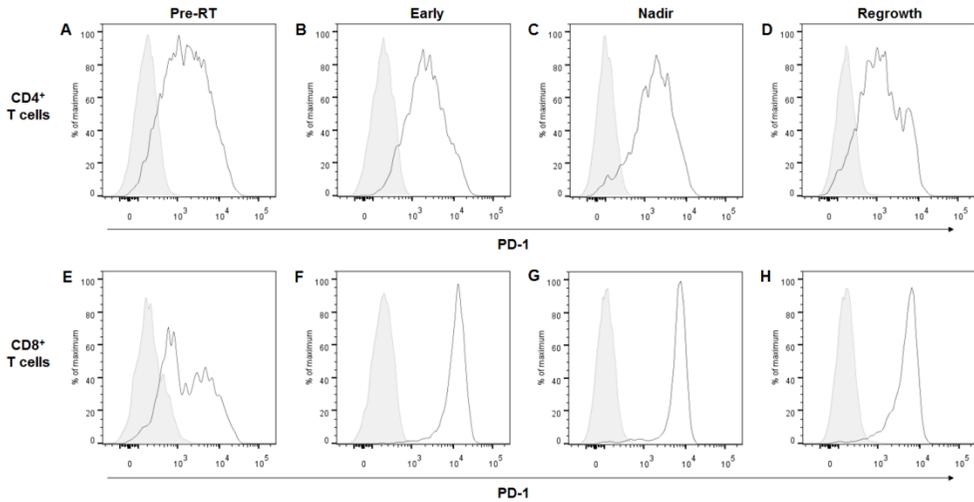


Figure 11. Representative histograms of PD-1 expression on (A–D) CD4⁺ and (E–H) CD8⁺ T cells according to different time points after RT. Results of isotype control (*grey shadow*) and PD-1 (*solid line*) are presented.

Proportions of CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cell subsets

CD4⁺ subset decreased after RT, and then increased again at “Regrowth” phase. The CD4⁺ proportions (%) among the T cells at “Pre-RT”, “Early”, “Nadir”, and “Regrowth” were 76.7 ± 2.5 , 18.0 ± 6.0 , 21.7 ± 11.5 , and 42.4 ± 5.5 , and 89.3 ± 6.9 , 27.2 ± 17.6 , 20.4 ± 6.7 , and 39.3 ± 7.9 with single ablative and fractionated RT, respectively (mean \pm SD values) ($P < .001$ for all paired comparisons between the

“Pre-RT” and others) (Figure 12). On the contrary, the CD8⁺ T cell population sharply increased after RT, and subsequently decreased at “Regrowth” phase. The mean ± SD values of CD8-positivity (%) relative to T cell population at the aforementioned 4 time points were 8.3 ± 2.5, 66.1 ± 7.6, 67.5 ± 10.8, and 47.2 ± 5.8, and 8.8 ± 4.4, 71.9 ± 17.0, 75.6 ± 9.1, and 53.1 ± 15.9 with single ablative and fractionated RT, respectively ($P < .001$ for all paired comparisons between the “Pre-RT” and others). Figure 13 shows representative contour dot plots of CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cell populations according to different time points.

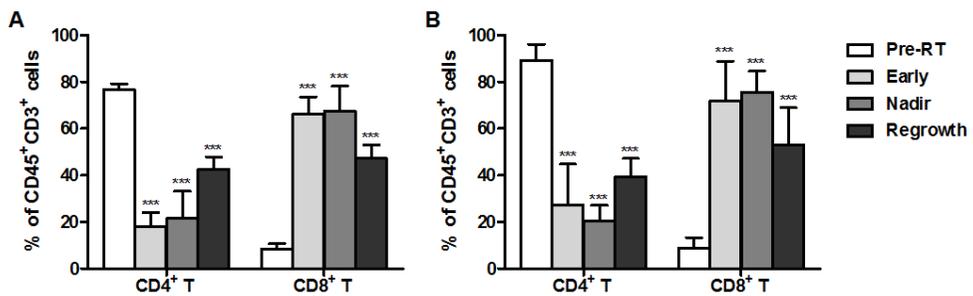


Figure 12. Altered proportions of CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cell subsets relative to CD45⁺CD3⁺ cells after irradiation. (A) Single ablative and (B) fractionated dose regimen. Mean ± SD values are represented from 4 mice per each time point after 15 Gy x 1 fx and 5 Gy x 3 fx, respectively. *** $P < .001$ in comparison with the “Pre-RT” status. Experiments were repeated twice, and the representative data are shown here.

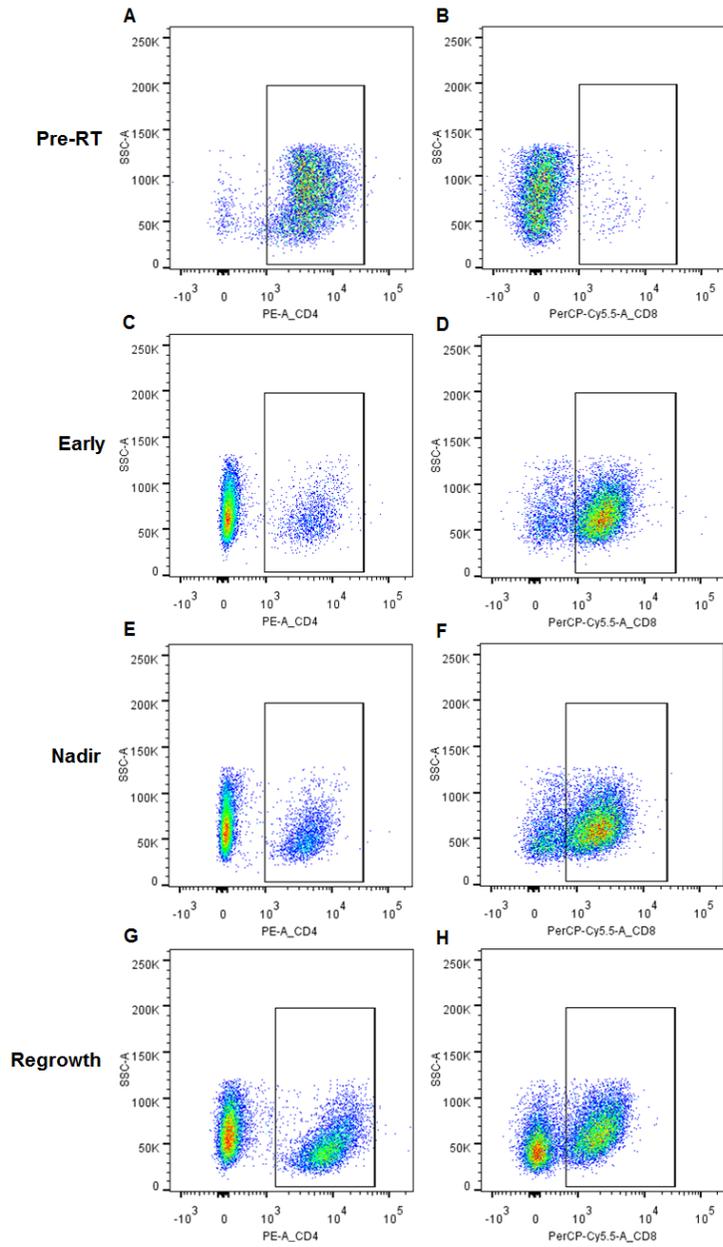


Figure 13. Change of $CD4^+$ (left panel) and $CD8^+$ (right panel) T cell populations according to different time points: (A, B) “Pre-RT”, (C, D) “Early”, (E, F) “Nadir”, and (G, H) “Regrowth”, respectively.

Clinicopathologic characteristics of rectal cancer patients

Baseline patient and tumor-related characteristics are summarized in Table 1. The median age was 62 years (range, 29–86), and 86 (70%) patients were men. Most patients (86%) had cT3 tumors, and 18 (15%), 41 (33%), and 64 (52%) patients were diagnosed as pT1, pT2, and pT3 in surgical specimens, respectively. Clinically node-positive disease was diagnosed in 106 (86%) patients, and 31 (25%) patients had pathologically positive nodal status. Pathologic down-staging of T and N was observed in 63 (51%) and 81 (66%) patients, respectively. Based on the Dworak's system (21), pathologic tumor regression of grade 2 or higher was reported in 62 (51%) patients. The MSI-L or MSI-H status was observed in 9 (7%) patients. Concurrent 5-fluorouracil and capecitabine were administered to 90 (73%) and 33 (27%) patients, respectively.

Table 1. Characteristics of rectal cancer patients

| Variables | No. of patients (%) |
|----------------------------------|---------------------|
| Age (years) | |
| Median (range) | 62 (29–86) |
| < 62 | 60 (49) |
| ≥ 62 | 63 (51) |
| Sex | |
| Male | 86 (70) |
| Female | 37 (30) |
| Tumor location from anal verge* | |
| < 6cm | 71 (58) |
| ≥ 6cm | 52 (42) |
| Tumor grade (biopsy) | |
| Well differentiated | 18 (15) |
| Moderately/Poorly differentiated | 105 (85) |
| cT stage | |
| T2 | 7 (6) |
| T3 | 106 (86) |
| T4 | 10 (8) |
| cN stage | |
| N0 | 17 (14) |
| N1 | 91 (74) |
| N2 | 15 (12) |
| Tumor grade (resected) | |
| Well differentiated | 9 (7) |
| Moderately/Poorly differentiated | 114 (93) |
| pT stage | |
| T1 | 18 (15) |
| T2 | 41 (33) |
| T3 | 64 (52) |
| pN stage | |
| N0 | 92 (75) |
| N1 | 26 (21) |
| N2 | 5 (4) |
| Downstage of T | |
| Yes | 63 (51) |
| No | 60 (49) |
| Downstage of N | |
| Yes | 81 (66) |
| No | 25 (20) |
| cN0 | 17 (14) |
| Dworak regression grade | |

| | |
|----------------------------------|----------|
| 0 | 5 (4) |
| 1 | 53 (43) |
| 2 | 49 (40) |
| 3 | 13 (11) |
| Not reported | 3 (2) |
| Lymphatic invasion | |
| No | 103 (84) |
| Yes | 18 (14) |
| Unknown | 2 (2) |
| Vascular invasion | |
| No | 116 (94) |
| Yes | 5 (4) |
| Unknown | 2 (2) |
| Perineural invasion | |
| No | 107 (87) |
| Yes | 14 (11) |
| Unknown | 2 (2) |
| Microsatellite instability (MSI) | |
| Microsatellite-stable | 91 (74) |
| MSI-low | 4 (3) |
| MSI-high | 5 (4) |
| Unknown | 23 (19) |
| Concurrent chemotherapy regimen | |
| 5-Fluorouracil | 90 (73) |
| Capecitabine | 33 (27) |
| Maintenance chemotherapy | |
| Yes | 113 (92) |
| No | 10 (8) |

*Distance from anal verge.

Change of PD-L1, CD8⁺ and PD-1⁺ TILs before and after CRT

The median H-score at pre- and post-CRT was 0 (range, 0–70) and 100 (range, 0–270), respectively, and the median density of pre- and post-CRT CD8⁺ TILs was 319.66 (range, 20.76–978.08) and 787.05 cells/mm² (range, 101.39–2100.85), respectively. PD-1 staining intensity at initial biopsy was scanty, but increased in post-CRT surgical tissues with the median density value of 2.61 cells/mm² (range, 0–27.53) (Figure 14).

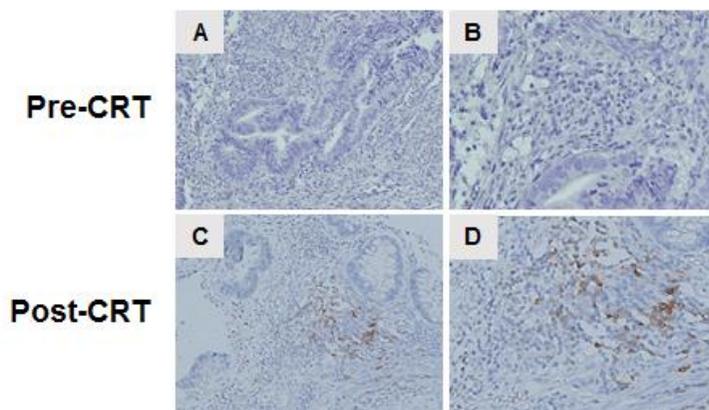


Figure 14. Immunohistochemistry of PD-1 expression at (A, B) pre- and (C, D) post-CRT status (x200 for A and C, and x400 for B and D, respectively).

Each of the median values was used as a cutoff stratifying high or low expression level before and after CRT. Figure 15 shows the representative IHC slide views of PD-L1 and CD8. The scatter dot and before-and-after correspondence plots indicate increased PD-L1 expression after CRT ($P < .001$), and the density of CD8⁺ TILs

was also significantly increased ($P < .001$) (Figure 16). Figure 17 shows the two representative cases with post-CRT increases of the PD-L1 expression and density of CD8⁺ TILs. The post-CRT change in the level of CD8⁺ TILs for each patient was calculated from the formula, $\Delta\text{CD8}^+ \text{ TILs} = \text{density of post-CRT} - \text{pre-CRT CD8}^+ \text{ TILs}$. Patients with a sustained high PD-L1 level both with pre- and post-CRT status (high-to-high) showed significantly lower $\Delta\text{CD8}^+ \text{ TILs}$ than the others ($P = .020$) (Figure 18).

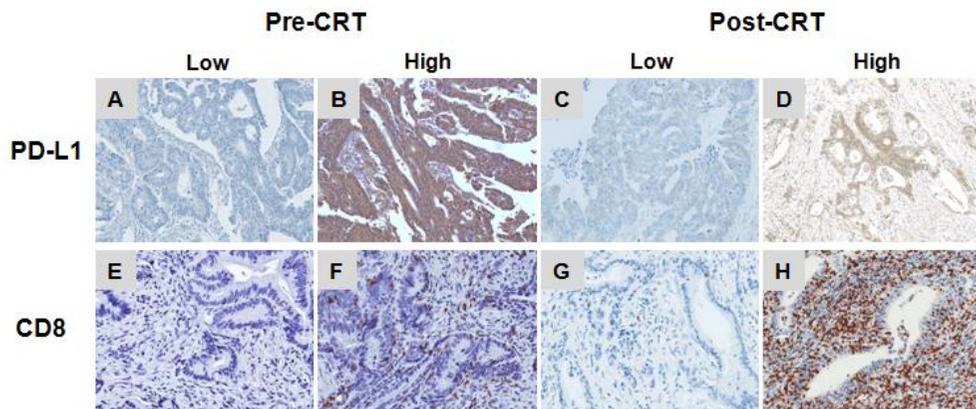


Figure 15. Representative slide views of pre-CRT (A) low and (B) high and post-CRT (C) low and (D) high PD-L1 expressions (*upper panel*) (x200). Pre-CRT (E) low and (F) high and post-CRT (G) low and (H) high density of CD8⁺ TILs (*lower panel*) (x200).

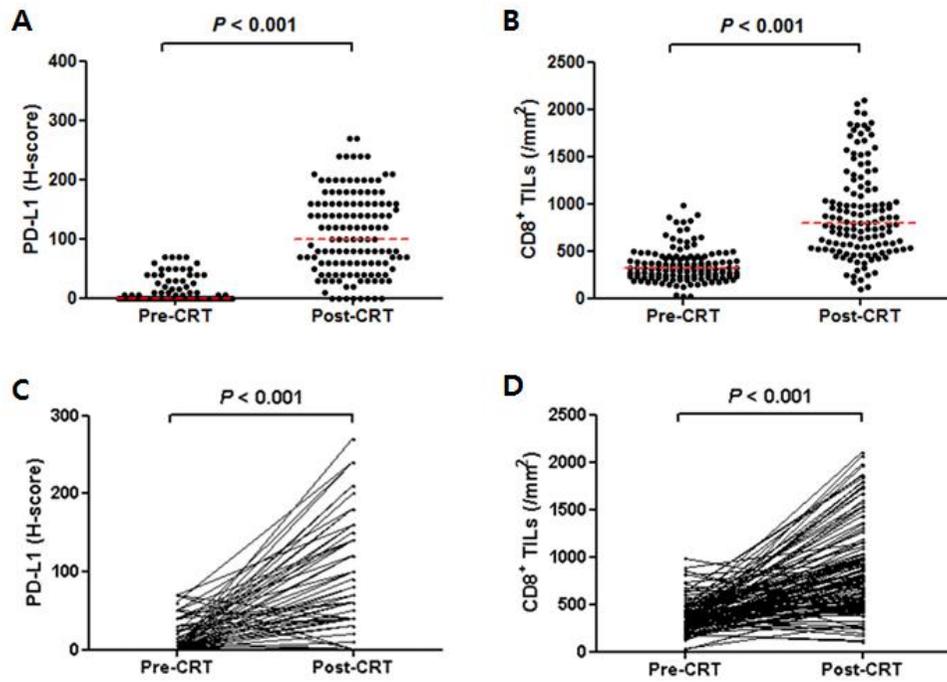


Figure 16. Increased PD-L1 expression and density of CD8⁺ TILs after CRT. Scatter dot and correspondence plots of (A, C) PD-L1 H-score and (B, D) CD8⁺ TILs level, respectively.

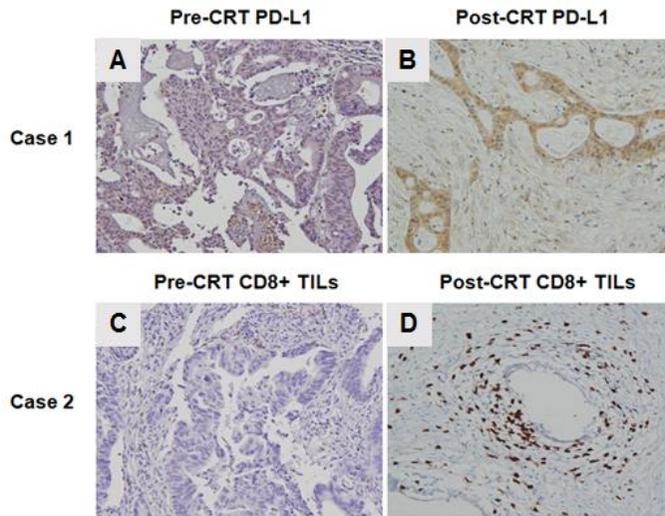


Figure 17. Representative slide views of two cases with CRT-induced increases in the levels of (A, B) PD-L1 and (C, D) CD8⁺ TILs, respectively (x200).

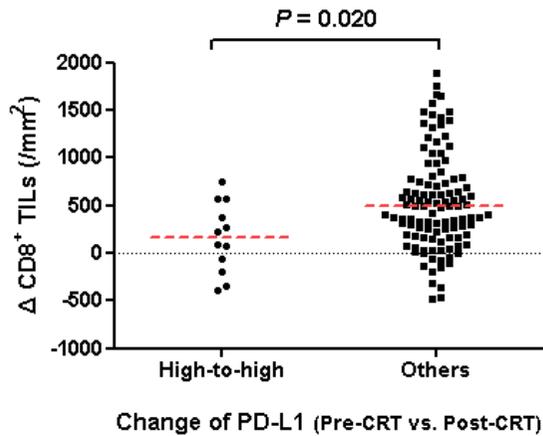


Figure 18. Pre- and post-CRT difference of the density of CD8⁺ TILs according to the alteration of PD-L1 expression level, high-to-high vs. others. *Red* dotted lines indicate the median values.

Table 2 and 3 represent the association between clinicopathologic characteristics and the expression level of PD-L1 and CD8⁺ TILs, respectively. Tumor location \geq 6cm from the anal verge was associated with higher pre-CRT PD-L1 expression and post-CRT CD8⁺ TILs density ($P = .035$ for both). Women showed significantly higher density of post-CRT CD8⁺ TILs ($P = .013$). Otherwise, there was no statistical significance.

Table 2. Associations between patient characteristics and the expression level of PD-L1 before and after CRT

| Variables | N | Pre-CRT [N (%)] | | <i>P</i> | Post-CRT [N (%)] | | <i>P</i> |
|----------------------------------|-----|-----------------|-------------|----------|------------------|-------------|----------|
| | | Low (N=88) | High (N=35) | | Low (N=66) | High (N=57) | |
| Age (years) | | | | | | | |
| <62 | 60 | 46 (52) | 14 (40) | .219 | 32 (48) | 28 (49) | .944 |
| ≥62 | 63 | 42 (48) | 21 (60) | | 34 (52) | 29 (51) | |
| Sex | | | | | | | |
| Male | 86 | 62 (70) | 24 (69) | .837 | 47 (71) | 39 (68) | .736 |
| Female | 37 | 26 (30) | 11 (31) | | 19 (29) | 18 (32) | |
| Tumor location* | | | | | | | |
| < 6cm | 71 | 56 (64) | 15 (43) | .035 | 43 (65) | 28 (49) | .073 |
| ≥ 6cm | 52 | 32 (36) | 20 (57) | | 23 (35) | 29 (51) | |
| Tumor grade (biopsy) | | | | | | | |
| Well differentiated | 18 | 13 (15) | 5 (14) | .945 | 11 (17) | 7 (12) | .493 |
| Moderately/Poorly differentiated | 105 | 75 (85) | 30 (86) | | 55 (83) | 50 (88) | |
| cT stage | | | | | | | |
| T2-3 | 113 | 81 (92) | 32 (91) | .910 | 62 (94) | 51 (89) | .511 |
| T4 | 10 | 7 (8) | 3 (9) | | 4 (6) | 6 (11) | |
| cN stage | | | | | | | |
| N0 | 17 | 15 (17) | 2 (6) | .148 | 10 (15) | 7 (12) | .645 |
| N1-2 | 106 | 73 (83) | 33 (94) | | 56 (85) | 50 (88) | |
| Tumor grade (surgical) | | | | | | | |
| Well differentiated | 9 | 8 (9) | 1 (3) | .443 | 6 (9) | 3 (5) | .502 |
| Moderately/Poorly differentiated | 114 | 80 (91) | 34 (97) | | 60 (91) | 54 (95) | |
| pT stage | | | | | | | |

| | | | | | | | |
|-----------------------------|-----|---------|---------|------|---------|---------|------|
| T1 | 18 | 11 (13) | 7 (20) | .394 | 11 (17) | 7 (12) | .776 |
| T2 | 41 | 32 (36) | 9 (26) | | 21 (32) | 20 (35) | |
| T3 | 64 | 45 (51) | 19 (54) | | 34 (51) | 30 (53) | |
| pN stage | | | | | | | |
| N0 | 92 | 67 (76) | 25 (71) | .587 | 54 (82) | 38 (67) | .054 |
| N1-2 | 31 | 21 (24) | 10 (29) | | 12 (18) | 19 (33) | |
| Downstage of T | | | | | | | |
| Yes | 63 | 46 (52) | 17 (49) | .711 | 35 (53) | 28 (49) | .666 |
| No | 60 | 42 (48) | 18 (51) | | 31 (47) | 29 (51) | |
| Downstage of N ^s | | | | | | | |
| Yes | 81 | 56 (77) | 25 (76) | .915 | 47 (84) | 34 (68) | .054 |
| No | 25 | 17 (23) | 8 (24) | | 9 (16) | 16 (32) | |
| Dworak regression grade | | | | | | | |
| 0-1 | 58 | 43 (50) | 15 (44) | .561 | 26 (41) | 32 (57) | .071 |
| ≥ 2 | 62 | 43 (50) | 19 (56) | | 38 (59) | 24 (43) | |
| Lymphatic invasion | | | | | | | |
| No | 103 | 72 (84) | 31 (89) | .584 | 56 (86) | 47 (84) | .732 |
| Yes | 18 | 14 (16) | 4 (11) | | 9 (14) | 9 (16) | |
| Vascular invasion | | | | | | | |
| No | 116 | 83 (96) | 33 (94) | .626 | 64 (98) | 52 (93) | .181 |
| Yes | 5 | 3 (4) | 2 (6) | | 1 (2) | 4 (7) | |
| Perineural invasion | | | | | | | |
| No | 107 | 76 (88) | 31 (89) | .975 | 60 (92) | 47 (84) | .151 |
| Yes | 14 | 10 (12) | 4 (11) | | 5 (8) | 9 (16) | |
| Microsatellite instability | | | | | | | |
| No | 91 | 67 (92) | 24 (89) | .699 | 44 (90) | 47 (92) | .738 |
| Yes | 9 | 6 (8) | 3 (11) | | 5 (10) | 4 (8) | |

*Distance from anal verge.

§cN0 patients were excluded.

Table 3. Associations between patient characteristics and the expression level of CD8⁺ TILs before and after CRT

| Variables | N | Pre-CRT | | Post-CRT | |
|----------------------------------|-----|------------------------------------|----------|------------------------------------|----------|
| | | Median (cells/mm ²) | <i>P</i> | Median (cells/mm ²) | <i>P</i> |
| Age (years) | | | | | |
| <62 | 60 | 319.66 | .752 | 783.47 | .816 |
| ≥62 | 63 | 320.61 | | 787.05 | |
| Gender | | | | | |
| Men | 86 | 314.87 | .133 | 721.15 | .013 |
| Women | 37 | 352.27 | | 935.34 | |
| Tumor location* | | | | | |
| < 6cm | 71 | 321.29 | .302 | 729.60 | .035 |
| ≥ 6cm | 52 | 313.67 | | 862.04 | |
| Tumor grade (biopsy) | | | | | |
| Well differentiated | 18 | 416.98 | .060 | 625.96 | .052 |
| Moderately/Poorly differentiated | 105 | 308.76 | | 844.10 | |
| cT stage | | | | | |
| T2 | 7 | 318.31 | .291 | 902.79 | .202 |
| T3 | 106 | 324.79 | | 765.01 | |
| T4 | 10 | 272.53 | | 1222.75 | |
| cN stage | | | | | |
| N0 | 17 | 318.31 | .512 | 749.02 | .224 |
| N1-2 | 106 | 320.48 | | 795.94 | |
| Tumor grade (surgical) | | | | | |
| Well differentiated | 9 | 416.98 | .836 | 625.96 | .641 |
| Moderately/Poorly differentiated | 114 | 308.76 | | 844.10 | |

| | | | | | |
|-----------------------------|-----|--------|------|--------|------|
| pT stage | | | | | |
| T1 | 18 | 357.83 | .187 | 659.74 | .316 |
| T2 | 41 | 326.66 | | 888.33 | |
| T3 | 64 | 301.15 | | 749.96 | |
| pN stage | | | | | |
| N0 | 92 | 322.92 | .283 | 800.56 | .284 |
| N1-2 | 31 | 304.13 | | 606.32 | |
| Downstage of T | | | | | |
| Yes | 63 | 332.50 | .165 | 854.84 | .175 |
| No | 60 | 299.45 | | 732.75 | |
| Downstage of N ^s | | | | | |
| Yes | 81 | 327.14 | .400 | 844.10 | .146 |
| No | 25 | 304.13 | | 586.42 | |
| Dworak regression grade | | | | | |
| 0-1 | 58 | 302.56 | .331 | 780.41 | .625 |
| ≥ 2 | 62 | 327.63 | | 797.79 | |
| Lymphatic invasion | | | | | |
| No | 103 | 328.48 | .004 | 793.17 | .382 |
| Yes | 18 | 225.65 | | 551.47 | |
| Vascular invasion | | | | | |
| No | 116 | 320.48 | .260 | 780.41 | .649 |
| Yes | 5 | 176.99 | | 915.67 | |
| Perineural invasion | | | | | |
| No | 107 | 329.33 | .027 | 793.17 | .296 |
| Yes | 14 | 250.83 | | 585.22 | |
| Microsatellite instability | | | | | |
| No | 91 | 319.66 | .559 | 798.71 | .061 |

| | | | |
|-----|---|--------|--------|
| Yes | 9 | 380.80 | 935.34 |
|-----|---|--------|--------|

*Distance from anal verge.

§cN0 patients were excluded.

Survival analysis

The five-year rates of OS and DFI were 83.4% and 79.2%, respectively, with a median follow-up time of 57.4 months (range, 6.2–134.7). By defining a low or high expression level for PD-L1, as well as the density of CD8⁺ TILs based on the median values, subgroups with low-to-low, low-to-high, high-to-low, and high-to-high alterations before and after CRT could be specified for each of the markers (n = 44, 44, 22, and 13 for PD-L1; n = 33, 29, 29, and 32 for CD8⁺ TILs, respectively). The high-to-high PD-L1 group exhibited poorer OS, DFI, and DMFI ($P = .018, .029,$ and $.023,$ respectively) (Figure 19), and patients with a low-to-low CD8⁺ TIL density had an inferior DFI, LRFI, and DMFI ($P = .010, .014,$ and $.025,$ respectively) (Figure 20). Considering post-CRT density of PD-1⁺ TILs, there were no differences in OS, DFI, LRFI, and DMFI between low vs. high expression level ($P = .927, .472, .799,$ and $.613,$ respectively).

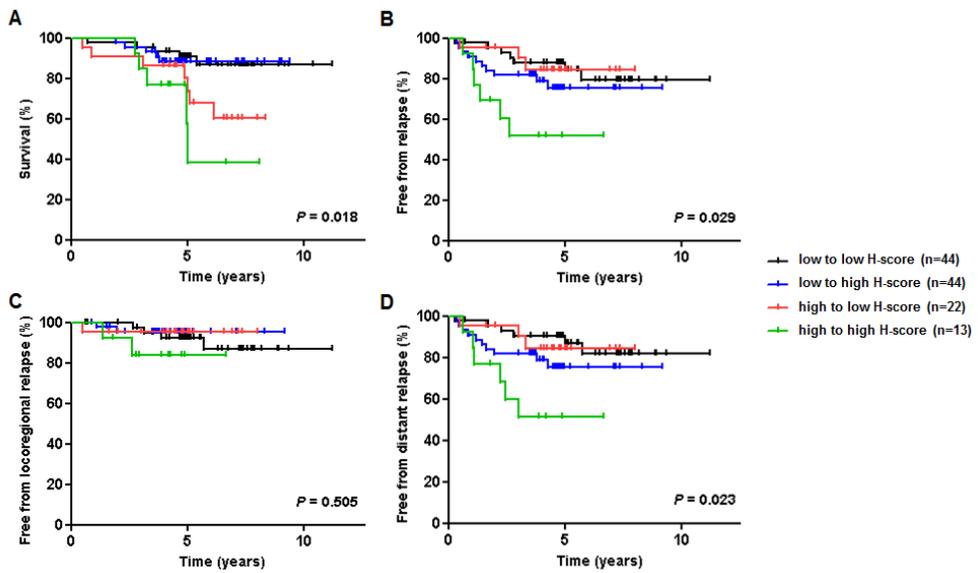


Figure 19. Kaplan-Meier curves according to pre- and post-CRT PD-L1 alteration patterns. (A) Overall survival, (B) disease-free interval, (C) locoregional relapse-free interval, and (D) distant metastasis-free interval.

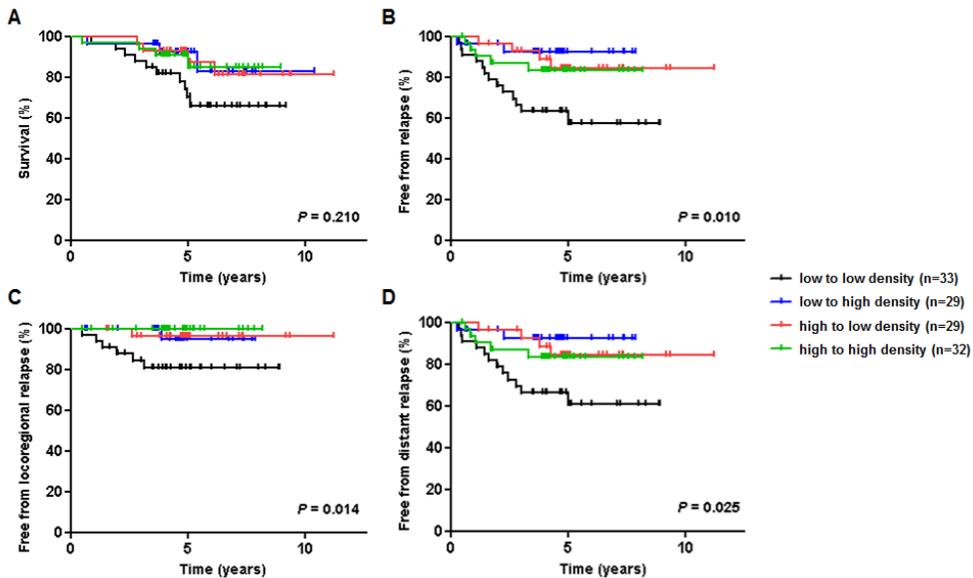


Figure 20. Kaplan-Meier curves according to the CRT-induced alteration of the density of CD8⁺ TILs. (A) Overall survival, (B) disease-free interval, (C) locoregional relapse-free interval, and (D) distant metastasis-free interval.

Under the assumption that high-to-high PD-L1 expression and low-to-low density of CD8⁺ TILs are immunologic risk factors, the study population was classified into two groups: one consisting of subjects with neither risk factor and the other consisting of subjects with at least one risk factor. Patients devoid of risk factors had superior OS, DFI, LRFI, and DMFI ($P = .020, .002, .017, \text{ and } .004$, respectively) (Figure 21). Subgroup analysis for patients with high-to-high PD-L1 expression revealed differences in the 5-year rates of OS, DFI, LRFI, and DMFI with respect to the relative density of post-CRT CD8⁺ TILs (low vs. high), as follows: 47.6% vs. 83.3%, 28.6% vs. 83.3%, 28.6% vs. 83.3%, 71.4% vs. 100%, and 28.6% vs. 83.3%, respectively.

However, none of them was statistically significant, due to limited sample size within each subgroup.

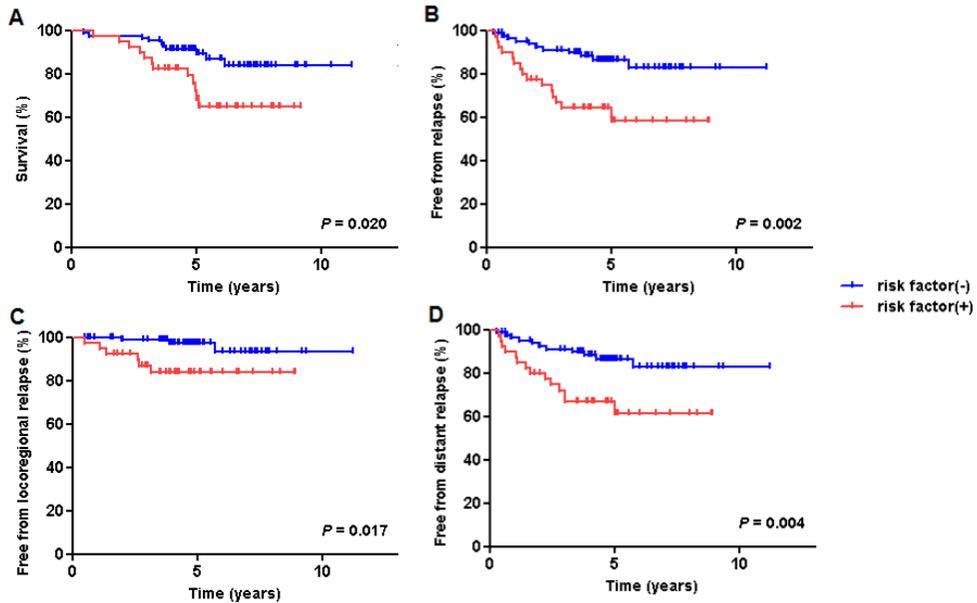


Figure 21. Kaplan-Meier curves according to the existence or non-existence of each of the risk factors: high-to-high PD-L1 level and low-to-low density of CD8⁺ TILs. (A) Overall survival, (B) disease-free interval, (C) locoregional relapse-free interval, and (D) distant metastasis-free interval.

Table 4 shows the results of multivariate analysis. In OS, two subgroups with high baseline PD-L1 expression level, the high-to-low and high-to-high alterations, showed poor prognosis (hazard ratio [HR] 8.34, 95% confidence interval [CI] 1.85–37.53 and HR 11.03, 95% CI 2.33–52.29, respectively). Due to a relationship

between PD-L1 expression and the density of CD8⁺ TILs alterations (23), two Cox regression models were utilized to assess prognostic factors of DFI. There was a marginally significant association indicating inferior outcome of tumor recurrence in high-to-high PD-L1 expression (vs. low-to-low PD-L1 expression; HR 3.81, 95% CI 0.96–15.12).

Table 4. Multivariate analysis for overall survival and disease-free interval according to pre- and post-CRT alterations of PD-L1 and CD8⁺ TILs

| Variables* | Overall survival | | | Disease-free interval (I) | | | Disease-free interval (II) | | |
|-----------------------------|------------------|------------|----------|---------------------------|------------|----------|----------------------------|------------|----------|
| | HR | 95% CI | <i>P</i> | HR | 95% CI | <i>P</i> | HR | 95% CI | <i>P</i> |
| Sex | | | | | | | | | |
| Male | 1 | | | | | | | | |
| Female | 0.46 | 0.12–1.80 | .265 | | | | | | |
| Tumor location [†] | | | | | | | | | |
| ≥ 6cm | 1 | | | | | | | | |
| < 6cm | 3.85 | 1.24–11.99 | .020 | | | | | | |
| pT stage | | | | | | | | | |
| T1-2 | 1 | | | 1 | | | 1 | | |
| T3 | 0.31 | 0.08–1.26 | .102 | 0.71 | 0.19–2.61 | .606 | 0.74 | 0.19–2.88 | .669 |
| pN stage | | | | | | | | | |
| N0 | 1 | | | 1 | | | 1 | | |
| N1-2 | 2.42 | 0.82–7.17 | .111 | 1.36 | 0.52–3.58 | .529 | 1.13 | 0.43–3.01 | .803 |
| Downstaging | | | | | | | | | |
| Yes | 1 | | | 1 | | | 1 | | |
| No | 6.92 | 0.96–49.91 | .055 | 4.75 | 1.09–20.61 | .037 | 3.57 | 0.73–17.32 | .115 |
| Dworak regression grade | | | | | | | | | |
| 0-1 | 1 | | | 1 | | | 1 | | |
| 2-3 | 0.44 | 0.16–1.18 | .102 | 0.53 | 0.19–1.46 | .217 | 0.34 | 0.12–0.91 | .033 |
| Lymphatic invasion | | | | | | | | | |
| No | 1 | | | 1 | | | 1 | | |
| Yes | 4.46 | 1.58–12.60 | .005 | 4.16 | 1.67–10.34 | .002 | 3.04 | 1.23–7.48 | .016 |
| Vascular invasion | | | | | | | | | |

| | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|-------|------------|------|------|------------|------|--|------|------------|------|
| No | | | | 1 | | | | 1 | | |
| Yes | | | | 3.90 | 0.94–16.14 | .061 | | 5.69 | 1.24–26.11 | .025 |
| Perineural invasion | | | | | | | | | | |
| No | 1 | | | 1 | | | | 1 | | |
| Yes | 1.39 | 0.42–4.60 | .595 | 1.63 | 0.61–4.39 | .330 | | 2.06 | 0.80–5.28 | .134 |
| PD-L1 (pre and post) [§] | | | | | | | | | | |
| Low-to-low | 1 | | | 1 | | | | | | |
| Low-to-high | 1.21 | 0.26–5.56 | .807 | 1.23 | 0.41–3.74 | .714 | | | | |
| High-to-low | 8.34 | 1.85–37.53 | .006 | 1.15 | 2.82–4.71 | .844 | | | | |
| High-to-high | 11.03 | 2.33–52.29 | .002 | 3.81 | 0.96–15.12 | .057 | | | | |
| CD8 ⁺ TILs (pre and post) [§] | | | | | | | | | | |
| High-to-high | | | | | | | | 1 | | |
| High-to-low | | | | | | | | 1.18 | 0.31–4.46 | .812 |
| Low-to-high | | | | | | | | 0.31 | 0.06–1.70 | .177 |
| Low-to-low | | | | | | | | 1.53 | 0.51–4.55 | .447 |

*Clinico-pathological variables with *P*-values <0.05 in univariate analysis were included.

†Distance from anal verge.

§Cutoff values were determined by the median values at pre- and post-CRT.

DISCUSSION

This study explored the RT-induced alterations of PD-1/PD-L1 immune checkpoint based on the CT26 murine tumor model and human rectal cancer tissues. When mouse tumors were irradiated with single ablative and fractionated dose regimen, PD-L1 expression on CT26 tumor cells was highest at the post-RT early phase of descending tumor volume, but abruptly decreased through the “Nadir” and “Regrowth” phases. With a significant increase of CD8⁺ T cell population, PD-1 expression level on CD8⁺ T cells was significantly elevated after RT, but not on CD4⁺ T cells. In rectal cancer patients treated with preoperative CRT, the expression level of PD-1/PD-L1 checkpoint and the density of CD8⁺ TILs markedly increased after the treatment. Classifying the patient population according to alteration profiles of PD-L1 or CD8⁺ TIL levels, either a high-to-high H-score of PD-L1 or low-to-low density of CD8⁺ TILs was associated with worse survival outcomes than those of other groups. Multivariate analysis showed a significant association between high baseline PD-L1 expression and poor OS, with the highest risk observed in the high-to-high PD-L1 subgroup.

From our results of murine tumor model and rectal cancer analysis, more prominent tumor-specific immune responses after RT could be expected. Irradiation of tumor tissues up-regulates tumor-associated antigens and death receptors, such as Fas cell surface death receptor, major histocompatibility complex molecules, and other adhesion-related molecules, and this is an important underlying mechanism of

immunogenic tumor cell death (24). In particular, a surge of tumor antigen loading increases inflammatory cytokines and effector T cells, thereby shifting the immunologic equilibrium of the tumor microenvironment (25, 26). However, the immune system functions with a dynamic balance between stimulatory and inhibitory forces, so this up-shift in anti-tumor immunity is a well-known trigger for inhibitory immune checkpoints (1). The simultaneous up-regulation of immune checkpoint activity and cytotoxic CD8⁺ T cells in both murine and human models is suggestive of this aspect.

There have been several preclinical studies to investigate how RT affects PD-1/PD-L1 activity in tumors. In an initial research by Deng et al (16), the expression level of PD-1/PD-L1 checkpoint molecules was evaluated using TUBO cell line. Three days after 12 Gy-single dose RT, PD-L1 expression on tumor cells increased, whereas PD-1 expression level was not significantly different compared to non-irradiated tumors. The radiation-induced effect on PD-1/PD-L1 molecules has also been explored using CT26 tumor, but the effect was not monitored through the time course after irradiation (17).

In this study, more prolonged tumor growth delay after 15 Gy x 1 fx than 5 Gy x 3 fx is related to differential level of BED. Nevertheless, either single ablative or fractionated RT up-regulated the PD-L1 expression on tumor cells and PD-1 on CD8⁺ T cells. A landmark preclinical study using murine melanoma cells also stated that single dose RT of 20 Gy x 1 fx dramatically increased T-cell priming in a CD8⁺

T cell-dependent fashion (27). However, tumors irradiated with 5 Gy x 4 fx rapidly relapsed, which was analogous to another mouse model of CD8-depleted 20 Gy x 1 fx. The most important factors for these contradictory results might be differences in intrinsic biologic character of tumor cells and radiation-induced tumor cell-killing effect. The B16 melanoma cell line is characterized to be immunogenic and relatively resistant to irradiation (28). Additionally, the fractionated RT regimen of 5 Gy x 4 fx was delivered over 2 weeks, not for 4 consecutive days, suggesting higher potential of damage repair process. In a recent study by Sato et al, depletion of BRCA2 or Ku80 up-regulated PD-L1 expression, highlighting the regulatory role of double-strand break repair in the immunologic tumor microenvironment (29). Therefore, the aforementioned results indicating little immunologic impact of fractionated irradiation need to be interpreted with caution.

However, the RT-induced immediate increase and subsequent decrease of PD-L1 expression within a few days were remarkable, whereas the high-level PD-1-positivity on CD8⁺ T cells was maintained over the “Nadir” and “Regrowth” phase. This discordance in altered profile of PD-1 and PD-L1 might be because of differential induction of expression as a receptor and ligand, respectively, and this aspect suggests that the receptor-ligand binding activity and related cascade responses would be higher during the early response of RT than a later time. Thus, our results highlight the need of concurrent combination of RT and PD-1/PD-L1 blockade to obtain therapeutic effect to a larger extent.

Several previous syngeneic mouse tumor models have been used to evaluate synergistic effect of combinatory treatment of PD-L1 blockade and irradiation. When CT26 tumors were treated with anti-PD-L1 inhibitor and RT (2 Gy x 5 fx) together (17), the degree of anti-cancer effect was greater and more long-lasting. Three different combinatory schedules were compared, and combining PD-L1 blockade at the first day of RT concurrently resulted in greater tumor-cell killing. Our study of tracking PD-1/PD-L1 activity through the post-RT time course supports the superiority of concurrent initiation of the combinatory treatment, rather than other sequential methods.

Nevertheless, the results from animals cannot be directly extrapolated to clinics. Most of the immunocompetent tumor models were based on subcutaneous tumor tissues. Subcutaneous tumors represent a relatively hypoxic tumor microenvironment compared to that of orthotopic organ sites (30). Considering the potential relationship between oxygen concentration and PD-1/PD-L1 activity, more elevated PD-L1 expression level under hypoxic status has been demonstrated (31). Although preclinical data from mouse models are needed for developing immunotherapy, whether the murine immune system can explain the tumor microenvironment of human cancers is not clear (32). From this study consisting of both murine colon carcinoma model and human rectal cancer tissues, we could obtain comprehensive data of the RT-induced effects on PD-1/PD-L1 axis.

Until recently, there have been a few IHC-based investigations to evaluate the impact of cytotoxic anti-cancer treatments on PD-L1 expression and CD8⁺ TIL levels (33-37). Similar to our results, a recent study reported up-regulated PD-L1 expression after CRT for rectal cancer (33). However, pre- and post-CRT IHC results were matched and compared only in a small number of patients (n = 63), and there was no further information on TILs in the tumor microenvironment. There was a paired analysis of CD8⁺ TILs (n = 93), but PD-L1 expression levels were not evaluated (34). Other studies did not assess the potential prognostic significance of CRT-induced alterations in immunologic biomarkers (35-37). Ironically, some previous studies reported a statistically significant and better prognosis in patients with higher PD-L1 expression (33, 38). These contradictory results might be due to inherent confounding factors, such as various kinds of antibodies, inconsistent cutoff values, assay conditions, tumor heterogeneity, and dynamic immune responses. Nevertheless, the prognostic impact of checkpoint molecules has been announced, which suggests that immune checkpoints are clinically relevant in human cancers. Since this study is the largest paired IHC analysis of PD-L1 expression and density of CD8⁺ TILs to date, it is able to offer useful clinical and prognostic information.

Approximately 15% of colorectal cancer cases are diagnosed as MSI-L or MSI-H status. In contrast to MSS status, MSI tumors inflict a higher mutational load with an elevated level of tumor-specific neo-antigens (38, 39). In this study, the different

MSI statuses did not have significant relationships with PD-L1 expression, pre- and post-CRT, and the density of CD8⁺ TILs at pre-CRT, but MSI-H or MSI-L tumors had higher numbers of CD8⁺ TILs at post-CRT with a marginal significance. This lack of statistical significance might be attributable to a relatively low incidence of MSI-H in a study population with only rectal tumors, not proximal or mid-colon cancer (40), as well as incomplete MSI information for a part of the patients. Nevertheless, the CRT-induced immunologic shift might be helpful in expanding the indication and potential applicability of checkpoint inhibitors, even in MSS colorectal tumors. However, further mechanistic investigations are needed.

Regarding clinicopathologic factors in relation to the density of CD8⁺ TILs, women patients showed a higher level of post-CRT CD8⁺ TILs. The impact of gender difference on tumor immunity has not been much studied yet, but this point of view has been discussed recently (41, 42). Wesa et al. observed higher frequencies of tumor-associated antigen-specific T cells in female as compared to male patients in melanoma (41). The gender difference might suggest the potential relationships between tumor immunity and hormonal or endocrine status (43, 44). However, in contrast to melanoma, little knowledge has been known in colorectal cancer. Although the gender factor was not associated with differential OS in multivariate analysis in this study, a large-scale population-based analysis of rectal cancer suggested better prognosis in women than men (45). Considering the

potential effects of gender on tumor-specific immune responses, further studies will provide useful information.

Although the high-to-high PD-L1 group did not show a significant difference in LRFI, low-to-low CD8⁺ TIL level was associated with higher locoregional tumor recurrence. This conflicting result might be explained by the differential biologic role of CD8⁺ TILs and PD-L1-expressing tumor cells. The CD8⁺ TILs are the main aggressors involved in killing tumor cells, but PD-1/PD-L1 is one of the immune checkpoints underlying immunologic evasion of tumors (6). In regard to functional relationships among the immune checkpoints (46, 47), we suggest that more comprehensive analysis with other kinds of immune checkpoints would provide additional information.

In recent years, post-treatment failures have also been addressed when treating patients with PD-1/PD-L1 checkpoint inhibitors (48, 49). In turn, potential combinatory strategies using PD-1/PD-L1-inhibiting drugs and other modalities, such as chemotherapy, RT, and CRT, have been proposed to enhance the long-term anti-tumor effects of checkpoint inhibitors (18-20). Cytotoxic treatment with CRT can increase the loading of tumor antigens, their related receptor molecules, and danger-related signal molecules, followed by cascading immune responses (50). Our results indicate that CRT-induced increases in CD8⁺ TIL density support the principle of an immunologic shift via interferon gamma release. In response to the up-regulation of anti-cancer immunity, PD-L1 expression on tumor cells may be

correspondingly elevated (51). The elevated number of CD8⁺ TILs would enhance the degree of anti-tumor immune responses (17, 52), whereas pre-existing CD8⁺ T cells are also required to obtain therapeutic efficacy of anti-PD-1/PD-L1 inhibitors (51). Therefore, this study provides initial insights into the feasibility of such combinatory strategies.

It should be noted, though, that our results are incomplete. PD-L1 expression on infiltrating immune cells could not be assessed in the human cancer specimens, and we evaluated membranous staining intensity of PD-L1 on tumor cells. Kinds of primary tumor tissues, selection of antibody, and assay conditions can affect the staining patterns of each specimen. Although there have been a variety of antibodies for the IHC of PD-L1, some controversies have existed in regard to the standard staining results and antibody validation (53). Given that PD-L1 expression on tumor cells plays a critical role in suppressing T cell responses, and is useful for predicting responses to PD-L1 blockade treatment (54), this study focused on membranous staining results of PD-L1 on tumor cells. Time-matched comparisons between irradiated and non-irradiated mouse tumors might provide useful information, but rapidly growing tumor burden without any treatment and the potential of a consequent ethical problem restricted further analysis. Since the IHC of rectal cancer tissues was retrospectively reviewed in the era of CRT, not RT alone, combined chemotherapeutic effect needs to be considered together in human data.

Our matched analysis of PD-1/PD-L1 axis at pre- and post-irradiation status highlights the immunologic impact of the cytotoxic treatment on the immune checkpoint activity and demonstrates its prognostic associations in clinics. The RT-induced immunologic shift resulted in a sharp increase of PD-L1 expression intensity on tumor cells and PD-1-positive proportions of CD8⁺ T cell subset. However, PD-L1 expression subsequently decreased within a few days from the time point of maximum, suggesting the need of considering concurrent combinatory strategy of PD-1/PD-L1 blockade and RT. A strong prognostic impact of baseline PD-L1 expression was observed, with the highest risk of deaths observed in the high-to-high PD-L1 alteration group. This comprehensive analysis of syngeneic mouse tumor model and patients' data would provide useful knowledge to optimize the combinatory treatment of PD-L1 blockade and RT in colorectal cancer. Further mechanistic studies are needed to elucidate functional role of RT in tumor immunity.

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국문 초록

서론: 최근 면역 치료의 발전으로 PD-1/PD-L1 억제제가 암 치료의 새로운 표적으로 소개되었지만, 대부분 재발성이나 전이성 암에 국한하여 활용되어 왔다. 방사선 치료는 주된 암 치료의 한 부분으로서 직접적으로 세포를 죽이는데, 이를 통해 항종양 면역 반응이 상향 조절된다. 하지만 방사선 치료의 PD-1/PD-L1 면역 관문에 대한 면역학적 영향에 대해서는 현재까지 많이 논의되지 않았다. 이 연구는 마우스 대장암 종양 모델과 수술 전 항암방사선 치료를 받은 직장암 환자 정보를 기반으로 방사선 치료에 의해 유도되는 PD-1/PD-L1 면역 관문 분자들의 발현 변화에 대해 알아보았다.

방법: CT26 대장암 세포주를 BALB/c 마우스 우측 뒷다리에 피하 주입했다. 15 Gy x 1 fx 또는 5 Gy x 3 fx의 방사선 조사 후 얻어진 종양 용적 변화 곡선 추세를 기반으로, 마우스 종양을 총 4 가지의 개별 시점에서 외과적으로 절제했다. “방사선 치료 전 (Pre-RT)”은 방사선 치료 시작 직전 방사선 조사가 이뤄지지 않은 상태를 의미, “초기 (Early)”은 방사선 치료 반응의 초기 단계, “최저 (Nadir)”는 종양 용적의 최소값을 나타내는 시점, 그리고 “재성장 (Regrowth)”은 방사선 치료 후 종양이 다시 성장하는 시기를 의미한다. 방사선 조사 시작일을 Day 1 으로 정의했을 때, 단일 절제 선량 하에서는 Day 1, 6, 12, 22, 분할 선량 방식 하에서는 Day 1, 6, 10, 20 에 각각의 시점에

해당하는 개별 종양 조직을 얻었다. 종양 세포에서의 PD-L1 발현, 종양 침윤 CD4⁺ 및 CD8⁺ T 세포군의 분율, 그리고 CD4⁺ 및 CD8⁺ T 세포에서의 PD-1 발현 등을 유세포 분석 방식으로 측정했다. 사람 데이터와 관련하여, 2005 년부터 2012 년에 걸쳐 수술 전 항암방사선 치료 후 수술을 시행 받은 직장암 환자 123 명을 대상으로 항암방사선 치료 전 조직 검사 시 획득한 검체와 이에 대응하는 항암방사선 치료 후 절제된 조직을 활용한 짝지은 분석을 시행했다. 환자들의 임상병리학적 인자 및 생존 결과 데이터와 함께 PD-L1, PD-1, CD8 의 면역조직화학염색을 시행했다.

결과: 마우스 종양 세포에서의 PD-L1 발현은 방사선 치료 종료 후 수일 내에 급격히 증가했으며, 이후 “최저 (Nadir)” 및 “재성장 (Regrowth)” 시기에 가파른 감소를 보였다 (단일 절제 선량 및 분할 선량 별로 각각 $P < .001$ 및 $.002$). 방사선 치료 효과 기간에 해당하는 “초기 (Early)” 및 “최저 (Nadir)” 시점에서 CD4⁺ T 세포는 감소했지만 CD8⁺ T 세포는 증가했다. 이러한 변화 경향은 “재성장 (Regrowth)” 기간에 뒤바뀌었는데, CD4⁺ T 세포는 다시 증가, CD8⁺ T 세포는 다시 감소하는 추세를 보였다. 이러한 시점별 차이는 통계적으로 유의했다 (모든 비교에서 $P < .001$). CD4⁺ T 세포에서의 PD-1 양성률(%)은 시점 별로 유의한 차이가 없었다 (단일 절제 선량 및 분할 선량 별로 각각 $P = .590$ 및 $.238$). 대조적으로, CD8⁺ T 세포

에서의 PD-1 양성 비율(%)은 가파르게 증가했고, 이 높은 수준은 “재성장 (Regrowth)” 단계까지도 유지되었다 (모든 비교에서 $P < .001$).

직장암의 면역조직화학염색에서는 항암방사선 치료 후 PD-L1 발현 수준과 CD8⁺ 종양 침윤 림프구 밀도가 증가한 것으로 나타났다 (두 비교에서 $P < .001$). PD-1의 경우, 항암방사선 치료 전 발현 강도는 매우 미약했으나, 항암방사선 치료 후 눈에 띄게 증가했다. 각 발현도의 중앙값을 기준으로 치료 선정했을 때, 치료 전 후에 걸쳐 지속적으로 높은 PD-L1 발현(높음-높음)을 보이는 것이 치료 후 CD8⁺ 종양 침윤 림프구 밀도의 보다 적은 증가로 이어졌다 ($P = .020$). 치료 전 후 높은 PD-L1 발현(높음-높음)을 보이는 환자들이 전체 생존율과 무질환 기간에서 더 나쁜 성적을 나타냈으며 (각각 $P = .018$ 및 $.029$), 치료 전 후 지속적으로 낮은 CD8⁺ 종양 침윤 림프구 밀도(낮음-낮음)를 보이는 경우에 무질환 기간 성적이 더 나쁜 것으로 관찰되었다. 다변량 분석에서 치료 전 높은 기저 PD-L1 발현을 보이는 두 그룹이 유의하게 좋지 않은 전체 생존율을 보였는데, 치료 전 후 지속적으로 PD-L1 이 발현이 높은(높음-높음) 그룹이 가장 높은 위험도를 나타냈다 (치료 전 후 각각 높고 낮은 PD-L1 발현(높음-낮음)을 보이는 그룹: 위험도 8.34, 95% 신뢰구간 [CI]; 치료 전 후 모두 높은 PD-L1 발현(높음-높음)을 보이는 그룹: 위험도 11.03, 95% 신뢰구간 2.33–52.29).

결론: 본 연구는 방사선 조사에 의해 유도되는 PD-1/PD-L1 면역 관문 활성화도와 CD8⁺ 종양 침윤 림프구 밀도를 증가시키는 방향의 면역학적 변화를 확인했다. 하지만 이러한 변화가 오래 지속되지는 않았고 방사선 치료 효과가 끝난 후에 다시 회복하는 경향을 보였는데, 이는 PD-L1 억제와 방사선 조사를 시간적으로 동시에 병합하는 치료 방침의 필요성을 강조하는 것이라고 볼 수 있다. 이러한 면역 관문 관련 분자들의 발현 변화를 통해 나쁜 예후를 보이는 환자 집단을 확인할 수 있었고, 항암방사선 치료와 면역관문 억제 병합 치료의 이득이 기대되는 잠재적인 후보 환자군을 제시했다.

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주요어 : PD-L1, PD-1, CD8, 방사선 치료, 마우스 종양 모델, 직장암, 항암방사선 치료

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