

Review on Car-T Cell Therapy for Cancer Treatment

Ms.Shubhangi Bajirao Suryawanshi*,Mr.Rahul D Khaire

PRES College Of Pharmacy, Chincholi, Nashik-422102, Maharashtra, India

Submitted: 16-03-2023

Accepted: 28-03-2023

ABSTRACT

A set of illnesses known as cancer involve abnormal cell proliferation and have the ability to invade or spread to different bodily regions. These stand in contrast to benign tumours, which remain stationary. A lump, unusual bleeding, a persistent cough, unexplained weight loss, and a change in bowel habits are all potential warning signs and symptoms. Chimeric antigen receptors (CARs), often referred to as chimeric immunoreceptors or artificial T cell receptors, are receptor proteins that have been modified so that T cells now have the ability to target a particular antigen. Because they integrate antigen-binding and T cell activation functions into a single receptor, the receptors are chimeric. CAR T cell treatment is a form of treatment in which the patient's immune cells, called T cells, are altered in a lab so that they will adhere to and kill cancer cells. An apheresis machine receives blood from a vein in the patient's arm through a tube, filters out all white blood cells—including T cells—and returns the remaining blood back to the patient.

The T cells are then genetically modified in the lab to contain the gene for a unique receptor known as a chimeric antigen receptor (CAR). The CAR T cells are multiplied in a lab before being infused into the patient in large numbers. In order to destroy cancer cells, the CAR T cells can connect to an antigen on the cancer cells.

Keywords

CAR - Chimeric antigen receptor

TCR - T cell receptor

MHC - Major histocompatibility complex

TAG - Tumor-associated glycoprotein

IL2 - Interleukin 2

I. INTRODUCTION

Therapy with chimeric antigen receptor (CAR)-T cells has been revolutionary since it has led to surprisingly positive and long-lasting therapeutic outcomes. CARs are created synthetic receptors that drive lymphocytes—most often T cells—to

identify and destroy cells that are overexpressing a particular target antigen. Strong T cell activation and potent anti-tumor responses are brought about by CAR binding to target antigens produced on the surface of cells, which occurs independently of the MHC receptor. There are significant drawbacks to CAR-T cell therapy, though, that still need to be resolved. These drawbacks include potentially fatal side effects linked to CAR-T cells, a lack of effectiveness against solid tumours, inhibition and resistance in B cell malignancies, antigen emigration, poor persistence, poor trafficking and tumour infiltration, and the immunosuppressive microenvironment.^[1,2,3]

Car structure

CARs are modular synthetic receptors that consist of Four main components:

(1) Binding domain-

The part of the CAR that imparts target antigen specificity is the antigen binding domain. The variable heavy (VH) and light (VL) chains of monoclonal anti-bodies were used to create the antigen-binding domains. These chains were then joined by a flexible linker to create a single chain variable fragment^[4].

(2) a hinge region-

The extracellular structural area known as the "hinge" or "spacer region" is what extends the binding units from the transmembrane domain. The antigenbinding domain needs access to the targeted epitope, therefore the hinge contributes to length and serves to offer flexibility to overcome steric hindrance. The chosen hinge is significant because variations in the length and makeup of the hinge region can impact flexibility, CAR expression, signalling, epitope recognition, strength of activation output, and epitope recognition.^[5,6]

(3) a transmembrane Domain-

The transmembrane domain of CARs is presumably the region with the least amount of characterization. The transmembrane domain's primary job is to hold the CAR to the T cell membrane, but it

here is evidence that it may also be important for CAR-T cell activity.^[7,8]

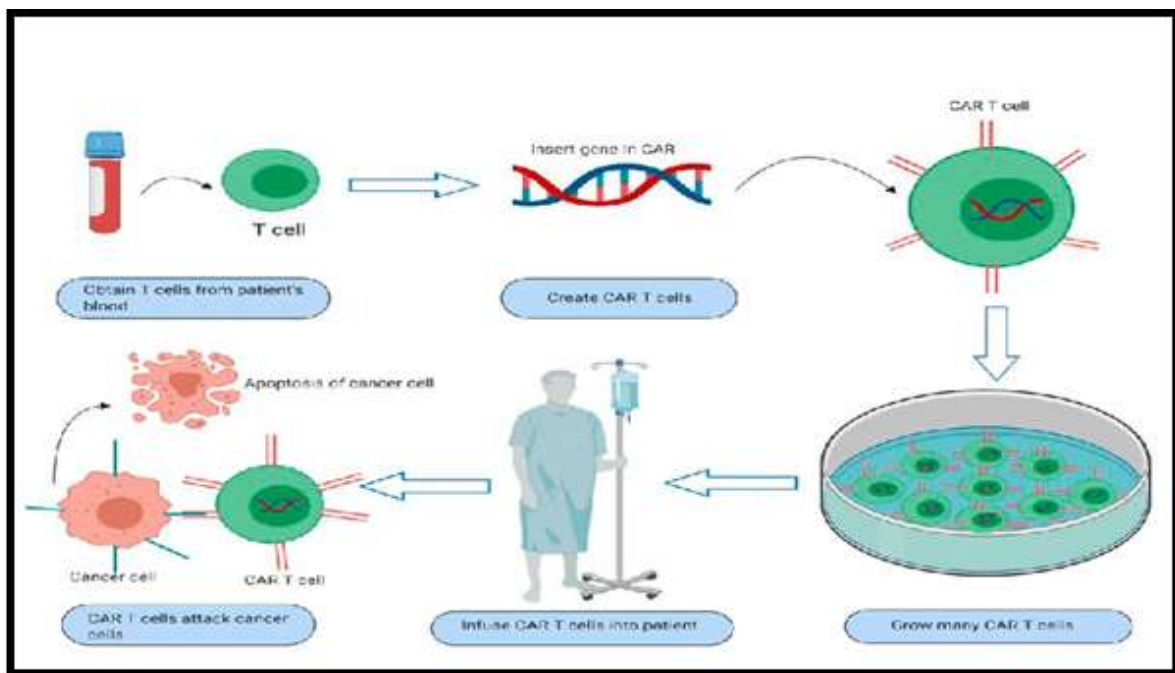
(4) intracellular signaling-

Understanding the effects of CAR co-stimulation in order to produce CAR constructs with the best endodomain has arguably received the greatest attention in CAR engineering. Second generation CARs were created with one co-stimulatory domain in sequence with the CD3 intracellular signalling domain. The first generation CARs were created in the late 1990s. Third generation CARs did not outperform second generation CARs in models for leukaemia or pancreatic cancer and did not provide any benefits for in vivo treatment.^[9,10,11]

Process of car t cell therapy

A molecule called an antigen, which is present on the surface of particular cancer cells, is what CAR T cell therapy instructs T cells to concentrate their attention toward. To help the T cells acquire this focus during CAR T cell production, a protein is introduced

to their surface. Chimeric antigen receptors, also known as CARs, are the name of this protein. Actually, there are 3 additional proteins in this CAR protein. Two proteins are involved in signalling the T cell to become activated when the first protein binds to an antigen on the cancer cell, which is recognised by one protein on the cancer cell. Adding a CAR to a T cell makes it a "CAR T cell," as the name suggests. "CAR T cells search for cells that carry the antigen encoded into the CAR protein, such as specific cancer cells, as they float around the body. A CAR T cell becomes activated when it comes into touch with an antigen on a cancer cell. CAR T cells that have been activated proliferate and alert other immune system components to travel to the cancer cell's location. Cytokines are the name given to these signalling proteins. Following considerable inflammation concentrated on the cancer cell brought on by all of these cytokines and activated T cells, the cancer cell eventually perishes. The cancer may go into remission, which indicates that it has either temporarily or permanently disappeared, if all of the cancer cells are eliminated.



Process of CAR-T cell therapy

Car t cell therapy for cancer treatment

1.Ovarian cancer

The surprising rate of recurrence of ovarian cancer (OC) following surgery and multi-agent chemotherapy necessitates the prompt develop

ment of novel therapeutic approaches. CAR-Tcell treatment has been used to target tumor associated

glycoprotein 72 (TAG72), which is expressed at a high level on the surface of ovarian cancer.^[12]

2. Breast Cancer

According to studies, HRG1-based CAR-T cells effectively stop the growth of breast cancer cells through the HER family of receptors and can provide a tempting therapeutic strategy to overcome cancer resistance to HER2-based targeted therapy^[13].

3. prostate cancer

Targeting chimeric antigen receptors to achieve the desired treatment effects in prostate cancer generally involves using prostate stem cell antigen and prostate-specific membrane antigen^[14].

4. Renal cancer

Various forms of renal malignancies express carbonic anhydrase IX, which has been identified as a novel target for CAR T cell treatment. Normally, the metalloprotease (CAIX) catalyses the hydration of carbon dioxide, however it also functions as a key antigen in renal cell cancer. And it is mildly expressed in the duodenum, small intestine, stomach mucosa, and biliary tree, among other normal tissues^[15,16,17].

5. Gastric cancer

Recent research demonstrated that the use of CAR T cells, either alone or in conjunction with the chemotherapy drug Paclitaxel or CAR T cells modified INTERLEUKIN-12 release, is a promising strategy that significantly improves the quality of life for patients with ICA M-1 high-advanced gastric cancer^[18].

Limitations of car-t cell therapy

1. Antigen escape

Tumor resistance to single antigen targeting CAR constructions is one of the most difficult limitations of CAR-T cell therapy. The malignant cells of a sizable fraction of patients treated with these CAR-T cells show either partial or complete loss of target antigen expression, despite the fact that single antigen targeting CAR cells initially have the potential to produce high response rates. Antigen escape is this phenomenon's scientific name. Many approaches currently rely on targeting numerous antigens to decrease the relapse rate in CAR T cell treatment of both haematological malignancies and solid tumours^[19,20,21].

2. On-target off-tumor effects

The fact that solid tumour antigens are frequently found at varied degrees expressed on normal tissues makes it difficult to target solid tumour antigens. Antigen selection is therefore essential in CAR design to prevent "on-target off-tumor" harm and to guarantee therapeutic efficacy. The targeting of tumor-specific post-translational changes represents a potential strategy to circumvent the targeting of solid tumour antigens that are also present on normal tissues. There have been studies on four primary CAR-T cell targets, including (TAG7228, B7-H3, MUC16 and MUC16) In order to increase the clinical usage of CAR-T cell therapies, additional creative ways to stop antigen escape and choose antigens capable of producing a significant antitumor activity while minimizing safety issues would be required^[22,23].

3. Immunosuppressive microenvironment

Numerous immunosuppressive cell types, such as myeloid-derived suppressor cells, tumor-associated macrophages, and regulatory T cells, can infiltrate solid tumours in the tumour microenvironment. Growth factors, cytokines, and chemokines that promote tumour growth are produced as a result of these infiltrates and tumour cells. Poor T cell multiplication and T cell persistence are two of the key reasons for no response or a subpar response to CAR-T cell treatment. It has been proposed that coinhibitory mechanisms are what start the development of this T cell fatigue. Due to the fact that it offers the two components required for potent immune responses, combination immunotherapy using CAR-T cells and checkpoint blockade is considered to be the next step in immunotherapy^[24,25,26].

4. CAR-T cell trafficking and tumor infiltration

Solid tumour CAR-T cell therapy is more limited than CAR-T cell therapy for haematological malignancies because CAR-T cells can only travel to and enter solid tumours through physical tumour barriers such as the tumour stroma and an immunosuppressive tumour microenvironment. Utilizing delivery methods other than systemic delivery is one way to address these drawbacks since local administration (1) decreases the requirement for CAR-T cells to travel to disease areas and (2) reduces toxicities that occur when CAR-T cells treat tumours but do not directly target normal tissues. The expression of chemokine receptors that are compatible with and responsive

to tumor-derived chemokines on CAR-T cells is one recently discovered method that looks to dramatically improve CAR-T cell trafficking^[27,28].

Advantages of car - t cell therapy

The sudden early impact and single CAR T cell injection are CAR T cell therapy's most prominent advantages over other cancer therapies. Furthermore, the patient only needs good care and surveillance for two to three weeks. CAR T cell therapy is referred to as a "medicine of the present day" and its effectiveness may last for decades due to the cells' long-term survival in the host body and ongoing capacity to identify and eradicate cancer cells upon recurrence. For individuals for whom transplantation has not been curative and who relapse after transplant, CAR T cell treatment is currently approved for use.

It is anticipated that CAR T cell treatment would replace various transplants. Clinical trials on blood cancer have demonstrated that CAR T cell therapy was effective in totally curing the disease, even in individuals with a refractory condition in which cancer relapsed after multiple transplants (118). Patients can also live a normal life free from the threat of relapse and gain access to curative treatments like stem cell transplants thanks to CAR T cells. As a result, CAR T cell treatment is sometimes called a "living medication."^[29-33]

Future perspective

Blood malignancies that express CD19 seem to respond best to CAR-T cell therapy for a number of well-explained reasons. The distinctive characteristics of CD19 as a target include its high levels of tumour antigen expression, ease of physical access to tumour cells via the blood and lymphatics, and the tolerance of the on-target off-tumor effect of B cell aplasia. The technical design of CAR-T cells has undergone a number of advancements, though, in an effort to boost effectiveness and lessen toxicity in haematological malignancies and address the problems associated with solid tumours. Multiple antigen targeting is one strategy gaining attention with the goal of increasing specificity, catching different tumour clones, and lowering antigen-negative relapse. The best documented example of this secretes IL-12 upon encountering the target antigen, altering the tumour microenvironment in favour of immune activation and tumour cell death. Cytokine release b

y T cells guided for universal cytokine killing. With the addition of chemokine receptors to facilitate trafficking or components to detect and activate in the presence of hypoxia, further advancements have made it possible to use the hostile tumour microenvironment to guide and activate CAR-T cells^[34-36].

II. DISCUSSION

Blood malignancies that express CD19 seem to respond best to CAR-T cell therapy for a number of well-explained reasons. The distinctive characteristics of CD19 as a target include its high levels of tumour antigen expression, ease of physical access to tumour cells via the blood and lymphatics, and the tolerance of the on-target off-tumor effect of B cell aplasia. The technical design of CAR-T cells has undergone a number of advancements, though, in an effort to boost effectiveness and lessen toxicity in haematological malignancies and address the problems associated with solid tumours.

REFERENCES

- [1]. June, C. H., O'Connor, R. S., Kawalekar, O. U., Ghassemi, S. & Milone, M. C. C. A. R. T cell immunotherapy for human cancer. *Science*. 359, 1361–1365 (2018).
- [2]. Sadelain, M., Brentjens, R. & Rivière, I. The basic principles of chimeric antigen receptor design. *Cancer Discov.* 3, 388–398 (2013).
- [3]. Sterner, R. M. et al. A graduate-level interdisciplinary curriculum in CAR-T cell therapy. *Mayo. Clin. Proc. Innov. Qual. Outcomes.* 4, 203–210 (2020)
- [4]. Zhang, G. et al. Anti-melanoma activity of T cells redirected with a TCR-like chimeric antigen receptor. *Sci. Rep.* 4, 1–8 (2014).
- [5]. Hudecek, M. et al. The non-signaling extracellular spacer domain of chimeric antigen receptors is decisive for in vivo antitumor activity. *Cancer Immunol. Res.* 3, 125–135 (2015).
- [6]. Jensen, M. C. & Riddell, S. R. Designing chimeric antigen receptors to effectively and safely target tumors. *Curr. Opin. Immunol.* 33, 9–15 (2015).
- [7]. Bridgeman, J. S. et al. The optimal antigen response of chimeric antigen receptors harboring the CD3zeta transmembrane domain is dependent upon incorporation of the receptor into the endogenous

- TCR/CD3 complex. *J. Immunol.* 184, 6938–6949 (2010).
- [8]. Guedan, S. et al. Enhancing CAR T cell persistence through ICOS and 4-1BB costimulation. *JCI Insight* 3, 1 (2018).
- [9]. Gross, G., Waks, T. & Eshhar, Z. Expression of immunoglobulin-T-cell receptor chimeric molecules as functional receptors with antibody-type specificity. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA.* 86, 10024–10028 (1989).
- [10]. Maher, J., Brentjens, R. J., Gunset, G., Rivière, I. & Sadelain, M. Human T lymphocyte cytotoxicity and proliferation directed by a single chimeric TCR ζ /CD28 receptor. *Nat. Biotechnol.* 20, 70–75 (2002).
- [11]. Abate-Daga, D. et al. A novel chimeric antigen receptor against prostate stem cell antigen mediates tumor destruction in a humanized mouse model of pancreatic cancer.
- [12]. Murad JP, Kozłowska AK, Lee HJ, Ramamurthy M, Chang WC, Yazaki P, Colcher D, Shively J, Cristea M, Forman SJ, Priceman SJ. Effective targeting of TAG72(+) peritoneal ovarian tumors via regional delivery of CAR-engineered T cells. *Front Immunol.* 2018;9:226
- [13]. Zuo BL, Yan B, Zheng GX, Xi WJ, Zhang X, Yang AG, Jia LT. Targeting and suppression of HER3-positive breast cancer by T lymphocytes expressing a heregulin chimeric antigen receptor.
- [14]. Hillerdal V, Essand M. Chimeric antigen receptor-engineered T cells for the treatment of metastatic prostate cancer.
- [15]. Bagley SJ, O'Rourke DM. Clinical investigation of CAR T cells for solid tumors: lessons learned and future directions.
- [16]. Bui MH, Seligson D, Han KR, Pantuck AJ, Dorey FJ, Huang Y, Horvath S, Leibovich BC, Chopra S, Liao SY, Stanbridge E, Lerman MI, Palotie A, Figlin RA, Belldegrun AS. Carbonic anhydrase IX is an independent predictor of survival in advanced renal clear cell carcinoma: implications for prognosis and therapy.
- [17]. Yeku O, Li X, Brentjens RJ. Adoptive T-cell therapy for solid tumors
- [18]. Jung M, Yang Y, McCloskey JE, Zaman M, Vedvyas Y, Zhang X, Stefanova D, Gray KD, Min IM, Zarnegar R. Chimeric antigen receptor T cell therapy targeting ICAM-1 in gastric cancer.
- [19]. Majzner, R. G. & Mackall, C. L. Tumor antigen escape from CAR T-cell therapy. *Cancer Discov.* 8, 1219–1226 (2018). 43.
- Maude, S. L., Teachey, D. T., Porter, D. L. & Grupp, S. A. CD19-targeted chimeric antigen receptor T-cell therapy for acute lymphoblastic leukemia.
- [20]. Maude, S. L., Teachey, D. T., Porter, D. L. & Grupp, S. A. CD19-targeted chimeric antigen receptor T-cell therapy for acute lymphoblastic leukemia.
- [21]. Rafiq, S., Hackett, C. S. & Brentjens, R. J. Engineering strategies to overcome the current roadblocks in CAR T cell therapy.
- [22]. Koneru, M., O’Cearbhaill, R., Pendharkar, S., Spriggs, D. R. & Brentjens, R. J. A phase I clinical trial of adoptive T cell therapy using IL-12 secreting MUC-16 (ecto) directed chimeric antigen receptors for recurrent ovarian cancer.
- [23]. Chekmasova, A. A. et al. Successful eradication of established peritoneal ovarian tumors in SCID-Beige mice following adoptive transfer of T cells genetically targeted to the MUC16 antigen.
- [24]. Quail, D. F. & Joyce, J. A. Microenvironmental regulation of tumor progression and metastasis.
- [25]. Yin, Y. et al. Checkpoint blockade reverses anergy in IL-13R α 2 Humanized scFv-Based CAR T cells to treat murine and canine gliomas.
- [26]. June, C. H., O’Connor, R. S., Kawalekar, O. U., Ghassemi, S. & Milone, M. C. C. A. R. T cell immunotherapy for human cancer.
- [27]. Peter P. Lee (eds.) *Tumor Microenvironment*
- [28]. Whilding, LM. et al. CAR T-cells targeting the integrin α v β 6 and co-expressing the chemokine receptor cxcr2 demonstrate enhanced homing and efficacy against several solid malignancies
- [29]. Galluzzi L and Martin P: CARs on a highway with roadblocks.
- [30]. Perales MA, Kebriaei P, Kean LS and Sadelain M: Building a safer and faster CAR: Seatbelts, airbags, and CRISPR.
- [31]. Ren J, Zhang X, Liu X, Fang C, Jiang S, June CH and Zhao Y: A versatile system

- for rapid multiplex genome-edited CAR T cell generation.
- [32]. Grupp SA, Laetsch TW, Buechner J, Bittencourt H, Maude SL, Verneris MR, Myers GD, Boyer MW, Rives S, De Moerloose B, et al: Analysis of a global registration trial of the efficacy and safety of CTL019 in pediatric and young adults with relapsed/refractory acute lymphoblastic leukemia
- [33]. Zhao Z, Chen Y, Francisco NM, Zhang Y and Wu M: The application of CAR-T cell therapy in hematological malignancies: Advantages and challenges
- [34]. Chmielewski M, Kopecky C, Hombach AA, et al. IL-12 release by engineered T cells expressing chimeric antigen receptors can effectively Muster an antigen-independent macrophage response on tumor cells that have shut down tumor antigen expression.
- [35]. Craddock JA, Lu A, Bear A, et al. Enhanced tumor trafficking of GD2 chimeric antigen receptor T cells by expression of the chemokine receptor CCR2b.
- [36]. Juillerat A, Marechal A, Filhol JM, et al. An oxygen sensitive selfdecision making engineered CAR T-cell.