

doi: 10.3978/j.issn.2095-6959.2019.04.033

View this article at: <http://dx.doi.org/10.3978/j.issn.2095-6959.2019.04.033>

放射治疗联合免疫疗法在癌症治疗中的研究进展

白睿¹, 袁程¹, 龚奕² 综述 谢丛华¹ 审校

(武汉大学中南医院 1. 肿瘤放化疗科; 2. 生物样本库, 武汉 430071)

[摘要] 放射治疗除具有杀伤肿瘤细胞的作用外, 还具有有效的免疫刺激特性, 有助于刺激免疫系统产生抗癌免疫反应。放射治疗可诱导恶性肿瘤细胞中的各种促免疫原性和表型的变化, 并重新校准肿瘤微环境的免疫背景, 导致先天免疫系统激活, 并引发肿瘤特异性T细胞免疫。放射疗法的免疫依赖性为组合治疗策略的发展提供了合理的理论基础, 由此可以利用放射的免疫调节性质来增强免疫治疗剂的活性。最近成功的突破性疗法如免疫检查点封闭, 以及大量实验数据, 均证明了放射疗法和免疫疗法组合的显著功效。目前, 很多研究者正在进行大量实验对这种方法的临床潜力进行探索。放射治疗和免疫疗法的成功结合依赖于最合适的辐射剂量和分级, 以及免疫疗法的选择。癌症的免疫控制现在正成为临床现实。人们相当乐观地认为, 有效的放射治疗和免疫治疗结合能够诱导持久的全身免疫, 这将进一步增强患者的治疗效果并改变癌症的未来管理。

[关键词] 联合治疗; 免疫检查点; 免疫治疗; 放射疗法

Research progress of radiotherapy combined with immunotherapy in cancer treatment

BAI Rui¹, YUAN Cheng¹, GONG Yan², XIE Conghua¹

(1. Department of Radiation and Medical Oncology; 2. Department of Biological Repositories, Zhongnan Hospital of Wuhan University, Wuhan 430071, China)

Abstract Besides its direct effects to kill tumor cells, radiotherapy was recognized to have potent immunostimulatory properties that contribute to the development of anti-cancer immune response. Radiotherapy was reported to induce various pro-immunogenic and phenotypic changes in malignant cells, and recalibrated the immune background of the tumor microenvironment, leading to activation of the innate immune system and triggering tumor-specific T cell immunity. The immune dependence of radiotherapy provides a rational for the development

收稿日期 (Date of reception): 2018-11-05

通信作者 (Corresponding author): 谢丛华, Email: chxie_65@whu.edu.cn

基金项目 (Foundation item): 国家自然科学基金 (81572967, 81372498, 81800429); 国家重点临床专科建设项目 [No. (2013) 544]; 湖北省自然科学基金 (2013CFA006); 武汉市黄鹤英才 (250000200); 武汉大学中南医院科技创新培育基金 (znp2016050, znp2017001, znp2017049); 中央高校基本科研业务费专项资金资助 (2042018kf0065)。This work was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation (81572967, 81372498, 81800429), National Key Clinical Speciality Construction Program [No. (2013) 544], Hubei Provincial Natural Science Foundation (2013CFA006), Wuhan City Huanghe Talents Plan and Medical Physics Teaching and Research Foundation of Elekta & Wuhan University (250000200), Zhongnan Hospital of Wuhan University Science, Technology and Innovation Seed Foundation (znp2016050, znp2017001, and znp2017049), and the Fundamental Research Foundation for the Central Universities (2042018kf0065), China.

of combination therapy, whereby the immunomodulatory properties of radiation can be utilized to enhance the activity of immunotherapy. Recently successful strategies, such as immunological checkpoint blockade, and extensive experimental data demonstrated the efficacy of the combination of radiotherapy and immunotherapy. The clinical potential of this approach is currently being explored in a number of clinical trials. A successful combination requires careful consideration of the most appropriate radiation dose and fractionation, as well as immunotherapy options. The immune control of cancer is now becoming a clinical reality. It is quite optimistic that effective combination of radiotherapy and immunotherapy can induce long-term systemic immunity, which will further enhance the patient's therapeutic effect and change the future management of cancer.

Keywords combination therapy; immune checkpoint; immunotherapy; radiotherapy

利用免疫疗法展开内源性免疫监视并驱动抗癌免疫反应是根除恶性肿瘤一个有吸引力的主张。近年来最为成功的方法是针对免疫检查点的治疗,其在包括黑色素瘤和非小细胞肺癌等一系列恶性肿瘤治疗中取得了显著的临床效果,使该领域重新焕发活力^[1]。该方法在复发性或难治性疾病中也被证实其有效性。尽管这种治疗方法在一部分患者中能够观察到持久的效应,并显示机体受到长期免疫介导的控制,但目前的试验数据表明仍有超过一半的患者对检查点阻滞未能表现出显著的反应^[2]。因此,将免疫疗法与其他能够改变表型、基因组和微环境以增强免疫反应的治疗相结合是一种有更有效的策略。在这方面,放射疗法(radiotherapy, RT)已成为主要候选者。RT是许多恶性肿瘤的主要治疗选择,无论是作为单一疗法还是作为多模式方法的一部分,超过50%的癌症患者接受RT作为其临床治疗计划的一部分。从历史上来看,RT的主要目的是通过诱导DNA损伤和肿瘤细胞死亡来减少或根除疾病。尽管RT的放射生物学效应已显示出很好的表征,但由于RT已知的免疫抑制不良反应,如可促进免疫逃逸^[3],使得人们对免疫佐剂特性的关注程度降低。但是,这种忽视正在得到改善,因为人们逐渐发现RT可以参与诱导抗肿瘤免疫应答的引发和效应阶段,进而诱发局部和全身免疫反应。这将为RT方案与免疫疗法结合治疗的策略提供可靠的依据。大量的临床前期数据表明:RT可以增强各种免疫治疗的活性,包括树突状细胞(dendritic cell, DC)疫苗接种^[4]、Toll样受体(TLR)激动剂^[5-7]、过继性T细胞转移^[8]、细胞因子^[9-11]、共刺激抗体^[12-14]和检查点阻滞^[15-18]。鉴于这些实验证据,越来越多的临床试验^[19]正在进一步检测不同恶性肿瘤的RT和免疫治疗组合效果。研究^[20]表明:局部RT可能引发免疫原性,从而引

起肿瘤表型和环境变化来创造“完美风暴”,这将有利于其结合免疫疗法共同诱导机体抗肿瘤免疫。放疗的免疫调节作用见图1。

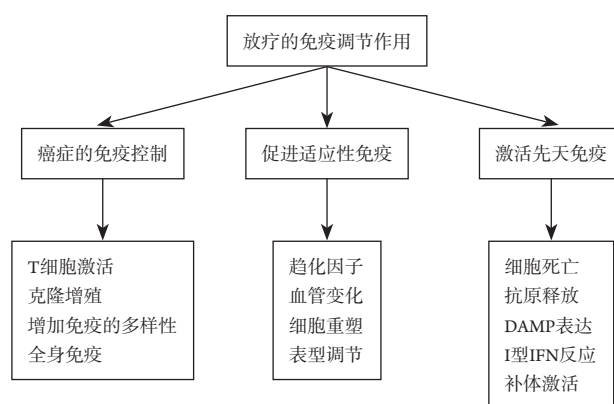


图1 放疗的免疫调节作用

Figure 1 Immunomodulatory effects of radiotherapy

1 放射治疗作为抗癌免疫反应的驱动因素

RT不仅可以杀伤肿瘤细胞还可以直接促进免疫介导的肿瘤排斥。许多研究^[21-23]结果证明:RT对于抗癌反应具有多个方面的影响,包括可增强肿瘤抗原加工和交叉呈递的总效应;使肿瘤细胞对免疫识别和攻击敏感,同时改变肿瘤微环境(tumor microenvironment, TME)的免疫背景,这将有利于T细胞的募集、激活和发挥效应。由于RT过程中伴随着肿瘤相关抗原(tumor-associated antigen, TAA)以及可刺激DC成熟和活化的炎症介质的释放,从而增强了抗原呈递DC的交叉启动能力,而这些效应大部分是以先天免疫系统为基础。实验模型研究^[24-25]发现:当使用单次消融剂量(10~25 Gy),RT可以诱导肿瘤内DC的活化,并促进肿瘤抗原特

异性DC在引流淋巴结中迁移和积累。RT这一作用能增强抗原呈递能力^[26], 促进TAA特异性淋巴细胞的有效交叉形成。这些现象背后的分子通路机制正逐渐被阐明。

2 激活先天免疫系统

经放射治疗死亡的肿瘤细胞出现免疫原性细胞死亡(immunogenic cell death, ICD)的标志, ICD是一种通过caspase激活, 发生氧化、内质网应激(ER stress)以及肿瘤细胞自噬, 从而引发细胞死亡的形式^[27]。最初被定义为某些化学治疗药物的属性^[28]。肿瘤细胞发生ICD时, 一系列信号分子和细胞因子参与其中, 包括异位表面钙网蛋白表达^[29-30], 以及细胞外释放ATP^[31]、高迁移率族蛋白-1(high mobility group box chromosomal protein 1, HMGB1)^[32], 这一系列分子介质被称为损伤相关分子模式(damage associated molecular patterns, DAMP)。DAMP的主要功能作为免疫的“危险信号”, 协同工作以促进TME内特异性CD11b+CD11c+DC募集、分化, 进而有效获取、处理和呈递肿瘤抗原^[33]。随后的研究^[34]进一步证明了RT的免疫原性调节存在于人细胞系中, 当其与促免疫原性化疗结合时可以增强其调节作用。

坏死细胞释放的HMGB1和热休克蛋白70(heat shock protein 70, HSP70)这些危险信号激活抗原呈递细胞, 促进抗原加工并呈递给T细胞^[35]。其中, HMGB1与其受体TLR4(主要表达在树突细胞上)的结合将促进树突细胞活化。通过TLR4及其接头MyD88的信号传导途径, 经树突状细胞吞噬并通过主要组织相容性复合物(major histocompatibility complex, MHC)I类和II类分子交叉呈递致瘤抗原^[36]。细胞外Hsp70则通过细胞表面结合受体如CD14, CD40, CD91, Lox1, TLR2和TLR4以DAMP起作用, 并激活单核细胞、巨噬细胞和树突细胞^[37]。因此, 细胞外基质释放的危险信号如HMGB1和HSP70分子在抗原呈递细胞活化以及增加对肿瘤细胞的免疫应答中起重要作用。

ICD的另外一个功能是通过在TME中产生I型干扰素(type I interferon, IFN)来进一步编排通过RT诱导的适应性免疫的过程, 即激活先天免疫系统, 促进有效的抗原交叉呈递并诱导肿瘤特异性CD8⁺T细胞聚集^[34,38]。RT诱导IFN β 的产生依赖于通过环GMP-AMP合酶(cGAS)和干扰素刺激基因(STING)的信号级联反应检测泄漏到细胞质中的DNA^[34]。此外, 最近已证实该通路能被DNA核酸

外切酶Trex1以辐射剂量依赖的方式削弱^[39]。单剂量高于12~18 Gy能诱导Trex1, 低于该阈值的分级剂量能促进IFN β 产生, 进而导致Batf3转录因子阳性的DC达最佳活化状态并启动肿瘤特异性免疫。I型IFN具有广泛的作用, 它可有助于启动肿瘤特异性T细胞发挥效应, 且在通过局部RT诱导产生IFN β 经信号传导途径反应后可增加MHC I的表达, 这些效应可以恢复对于抗程序性细胞死亡蛋白-1(programmed death 1, PD-1)无效肿瘤的治疗效果^[40]。

此外, 放疗还可以促进T细胞激活, 肿瘤细胞的一些辅助蛋白分子如MHC I/II类识别分子、B7-1、细胞间黏附分子-1(intercellular adhesion molecule 1, ICAM-1)和淋巴细胞功能相关抗原3(LFA-3)共刺激分子^[41]等, 能加速细胞毒性T淋巴细胞(cytotoxic T lymphocyte, CTL)活化。T细胞通过其T细胞受体(T cell receptor, TCR)识别肿瘤细胞表面MHC呈递的肿瘤相关抗原。电离辐射也可能激活NF- κ B/IFN- β /MHC I信号轴, 导致肿瘤抗原通过MHC I呈递表达升高, 从而增强细胞毒性T淋巴细胞对肿瘤细胞的杀伤作用。这可能是放射免疫致敏潜在的机制^[42]。越来越多的证据表明肿瘤的局部照射也可以改变肿瘤微环境, 并改变炎症性细胞因子的表达水平, 从而增强免疫应答^[43]。

RT后DC的成熟也已经显示出依赖于补体级联组分的瞬时激活。TME局部产生促炎性C3a和C5a过敏毒素是由于RT诱导的肿瘤细胞死亡的结果, 而毒素的产生对于获得最佳治疗效果是必需的^[44]。尽管与作为细胞凋亡亚型的ICD相反, 坏死似乎是产生补体蛋白的主要细胞死亡方式^[44]。

3 免疫检查点及其免疫治疗剂的封锁

T细胞活化和反应受免疫检查点调节, 免疫检查点是在生理条件下预防自身免疫性疾病的检查和平衡系统。当免疫系统对外来病原体产生适当的防御反应时, 能保护组织免受过度损害^[45-46]。肿瘤可以抑制免疫检查点蛋白的表达, 这是肿瘤免疫中“免疫逃避”机制的一部分, 也是肿瘤形成后产生抗性的机制。在肿瘤免疫疗法中研究最多的2种免疫检查点受体是细胞毒性T淋巴细胞相关抗原4(cytotoxic T lymphocyte associated antigen 4, CTLA-4)和PD-1。

CTLA-4是限制活化的抑制性T细胞受体, 它能拮抗刺激性T细胞受体CD28。CD28通过结合位于抗原呈递细胞上的B7配体而活化。MHC呈递抗

原后, 协同CD28刺激T细胞活化。CTLA-4也能与相同的B7配体结合并被激活(且具有比CD28更大的亲和力), 但由于它是抑制性受体, 与配体结合后具有相反的作用, 会抑制T细胞应答。在肿瘤免疫抑制环境中, 会利用这种机制, 通过持续呈递肿瘤抗原导致CTLA-4过度刺激, 最终造成T细胞衰竭。肿瘤也能通过聚集T-regs引起CTLA-4表达, 这将抑制T细胞的功能并减少IL-10的产生。

PD-1是一种抑制性T细胞受体, 一旦T细胞被激活就会诱导PD-1的产生。其主要功能是充当“停止信号”^[46], 限制外周组织的免疫反应, 以保护它们免受损害^[47]。其他活化的非T淋巴细胞亚群也可以诱导PD-1的产生, 包括B细胞和自然杀伤细胞^[48]。PD-L1和PD-L2是抑制性PD-1受体的配体。研究^[48]证实: PD-L1在实体瘤中表达上调, 并且表达程度的增加与患者较差的预后成正相关。因此, 通过阻断PD-1/PD-L1通路逆转免疫抑制环境, 促使抗肿瘤免疫反应占优势。

研究^[49]表明: PD-1/PD-L1靶向治疗方法在转移性膀胱癌、头颈癌、霍奇金淋巴瘤、非小细胞肺癌和肾细胞癌取得了重大临床进展。抗PD-1疗法的单抗Pembrolizumab和Nivolumab目前已被批准用于治疗不可切除或转移性黑素瘤, 以及作为化疗后非小细胞肺癌的一线 and 二线治疗。Nivolumab最近也被批准用于自体造血干细胞移植后复发性或进展的霍奇金淋巴瘤以及转移性肾细胞癌。Atezolizumab和Durvalumab是单克隆抗PD-L1抗体, 目前正处于临床试验研究阶段。在前期临床研究中, RT和靶向PD-1/PD-L1治疗的组合已被证实可激活细胞毒性T细胞, 降低髓样抑制细胞水平, 并诱导远隔效应^[18,50]。

免疫检查点阻断和RT效应都是通过靶向PD-L1和PD-L2, CTLA-4, 抗原呈递B7细胞上的配体(CD80, CD86)。基于此, 出现了抗PD-1/PD-L1(诸如Atezolizumab, Nivolumab, Pembrolizumab之类的药剂)和抗CTLA-4(Ipilimumab)药物。另一方面, RT的作用是增强抗原呈递和CD8⁺T细胞浸润, 刺激远端部位的肿瘤特异性细胞毒性T淋巴细胞活化, 导致远隔效应^[51]。

目前, 有关联合RT和免疫检查点阻断的临床试验研究有限, 其中大多数是使用抗CTLA-4单克隆抗体。其中一项临床前期研究^[15]表明: RT与抗CTLA-4抗体具有协同作用, 其在抗CTLA-4单药物治疗难以治愈的免疫原性较差的肿瘤中能够诱导全身抗肿瘤反应。

4 辐射诱导细胞死亡的免疫学后果

除杀死肿瘤细胞外, 放疗还会刺激肿瘤微环境的变化, 产生免疫抑制作用^[52]。定位放射治疗能聚集免疫抑制性骨髓细胞, 直接促进肿瘤生长^[53], 并通过介导T细胞功能失调从而促进免疫抑制环境的形成^[54]。放射疗法还上调肿瘤微环境中的PD-L1表达, 它能激活T细胞上的抑制性PD-1受体, 抑制T细胞抗肿瘤反应^[18]。然而, 近期研究^[55]证实放疗也可能表现出免疫调节作用, 产生有效的肿瘤特异性免疫应答。由于电离辐射导致肿瘤细胞死亡, 肿瘤抗原释放并呈递给树突状细胞, 激活适应性免疫系统, 刺激T细胞增殖, 引发肿瘤特异性免疫反应^[56-57]。

“远隔效应”即未照射的转移性病灶对治疗有反应也可能是免疫介导的^[58-59]。该理论认为, 辐射会触发抗肿瘤T细胞反应, 杀死远离辐射部位的肿瘤细胞^[58]。电离辐射引起的免疫反应并不持久, 不足以根除辐射的肿瘤和已经形成的转移灶^[60]。通过将放射疗法与全身免疫疗法相结合, 利用电离辐射的远隔效应和免疫调节作用, 目前正处于临床研究阶段。

5 优化用于临床应用的RT和免疫疗法组合

具有治疗目的的常规放射疗法是数周内以每日2 Gy小剂量照射, 这是否有利于最佳的免疫刺激仍是一个有争议的问题。因为担心反复放疗, 肿瘤区域的淋巴细胞可能会被消除, 从而抵消任何有益的治疗效果^[6,16]。随着图像传导技术的进步, 目前临床上已实现了高度准确的定位, 可在较短的时间段内对局部区域实施更高剂量的照射。高剂量RT似乎较易引起针对肿瘤的免疫原性调节^[61], 且由于照射传递能量的过程较短, 可以避免放疗消除效应淋巴细胞的不良反应。

实验数据^[62]表明, 使用高剂量的RT方案在增强免疫疗法方面非常有效。治疗小鼠乳腺癌时应用放疗结合CTLA-4阻断疗法, 以每日8 Gy连续照射3 d的大分割RT方案能够诱导抗肿瘤免疫和远隔效应^[62]。当使用该方案与抗PD-1或CD137抗体联合治疗时能观察到显著反应^[63]。用单剂量12 Gy RT治疗乳腺癌或结直肠癌能导致肿瘤浸润性髓源性抑制细胞(MDSC)减少, 通过加入抗-PD-1药物能增强这种效应^[18]。MDSC的消耗依赖于CD8⁺T细胞产生的TNF, 由联合疗法激活。局部单次或

2次累计12 Gy RT与抗-CTLA-4抗体结合疗法也能够诱导依赖T细胞的转移性乳腺癌清除。在使用10 Gy单剂量RT联合TLR-7激动剂^[6]和20 Gy单剂量RT联合抗-CTLA-4和PD-L1/PD-1阻断剂治疗淋巴瘤后观察到类似的免疫调节作用^[17]。为进一步评估SBRT联合免疫治疗所提供的高剂量RT的疗效,并了解这种方法是否可以转化为更有效的临床结果,相关的临床试验正在进行中。同样,新兴的RT治疗如质子治疗也能诱导临床前肿瘤模型的免疫调节变化^[64],尽管质子束治疗与免疫治疗相结合可以有效增强肿瘤特异性免疫反应,但疗效仍有待观察。

虽然RT修饰抗癌免疫应答和增强免疫疗法的潜力很明显,但是我们仍然不清楚如何最优化地整合这两种方式来实现最大化的临床效应。最佳的原位疫苗的产生可能取决于所用RT的剂量和分级,并受诸如辐射范围、受辐射的肿瘤体积、受累区域淋巴结和转移负荷等因素的影响。肿瘤本身的固有特性包括解剖位置、分级、放射敏感性、免疫原性和免疫状态,这些特性也可能潜在地影响RT诱导有利免疫应答的能力。化疗已被证明可以影响肿瘤内突变异质性,推动肿瘤的进化并增强与不良反应相关的亚克隆新抗原的表达^[65]。RT对克隆多样性的影响及其与检查点阻滞联合治疗可能产生的潜在影响仍有待确定。慎重选择合适的患者、RT参数以及与免疫治疗合理的整合是成功的关键。

6 结语

RT与免疫疗法的结合为产生有效的免疫介导的癌症治疗提供了巨大的潜力。后期免疫疗法的发展以及放射疗法的进步将能够提供更加有力的数据,并展示出相当乐观的前景,有望将临床前期观察将转化为临床实践。然而,目前我们仍然需要了解如何最大程度地利用这些方法使患者获得最大的利益。正确的RT剂量、分割和调度之间的关系将为创新临床试验的进一步研究提供保障。进一步阐明RT对患者肿瘤免疫调节作用的程度,可以指导如何选择最合适的免疫疗法并帮助优化整合两种治疗组分。我们也需要在临床上对新兴RT模式(如质子治疗)诱导癌细胞表型和免疫原性变化的能力进行探索。挖掘适当的具有预测性和预后性的生物标志物,并协同免疫谱分析技术对于适宜的患者进行选择 and 分层、确定治疗效果的免疫学相关性,以及帮助制定个性化组合方

案以提高疗效都至关重要。RT结合免疫疗法能够增强持久的、系统性的、具有肿瘤特异性免疫的能力,目前正在大量临床试验研究,其将为癌症治疗的未来发展提供有效依据。

参考文献

1. Honeychurch J, Cheadle EJ, Dovedi SJ, et al. Immuno-regulatory antibodies for the treatment of cancer[J]. *Expert Opin Biol Ther*, 2015, 15(6): 787-801.
2. Postow MA, Callahan MK, Wolchok JD. Immune checkpoint blockade in cancer therapy[J]. *J Clin Oncol*, 2015, 33(17): 1974-1982.
3. Wennerberg E, Lhuillier C, Vanpouille-Box C, et al. Barriers to radiation-induced in situ tumor vaccination[J]. *Front Immunol*, 2017, 8: 229.
4. Teitz-Tennenbaum S, Li Q, Rynkiewicz S, et al. Radiotherapy potentiates the therapeutic efficacy of intratumoral dendritic cell administration[J]. *Cancer Res*, 2003, 63(23): 8466-8475.
5. Dewan MZ, Vanpouille-Box C, Kawashima N, et al. Synergy of topical toll-like receptor 7 agonist with radiation and low-dose cyclophosphamide in a mouse model of cutaneous breast cancer[J]. *Clin Cancer Res*, 2012, 18(24): 6668-6678.
6. Dovedi SJ, Melis MH, Wilkinson RW, et al. Systemic delivery of a tlr7 agonist in combination with radiation primes durable antitumor immune responses in mouse models of lymphoma[J]. *Blood*, 2013, 121(2): 251-259.
7. Milas L, Mason KA, Ariga H, et al. Cpg oligodeoxynucleotide enhances tumor response to radiation[J]. *Cancer Res*, 2004, 64(15): 5074-5077.
8. Ward-Kavanagh LK, Zhu J, Cooper TK, et al. Whole-body irradiation increases the magnitude and persistence of adoptively transferred T cells associated with tumor regression in a mouse model of prostate cancer[J]. *Cancer Immunol Res*, 2014, 2(8): 777-788.
9. Chang AY, Keng PC. Potentiation of radiation cytotoxicity by recombinant interferons, a phenomenon associated with increased blockage at the g2-m phase of the cell cycle[J]. *Cancer Res*, 1987, 47(16): 4338-4341.
10. van den Heuvel MM, Verheij M, Boshuizen R, et al. Nhs-il2 combined with radiotherapy: Preclinical rationale and phase ib trial results in metastatic non-small cell lung cancer following first-line chemotherapy[J]. *J Transl Med*, 2015, 13: 32.
11. Zegers CM, Rekers NH, Quaden DH, et al. Radiotherapy combined with the immunocytokine l19-il2 provides long-lasting antitumor effects[J]. *Clin Cancer Res*, 2015, 21(5): 1151-1160.
12. Honeychurch J, Glennie MJ, Johnson PW, et al. Anti-cd40 monoclonal antibody therapy in combination with irradiation results in a CD8 T-cell-dependent immunity to b-cell lymphoma[J]. *Blood*, 2003,

- 102(4): 1449-1457.
13. Yokouchi H, Yamazaki K, Chamoto K, et al. Anti-ox40 monoclonal antibody therapy in combination with radiotherapy results in therapeutic antitumor immunity to murine lung cancer[J]. *Cancer Sci*, 2008, 99(2): 361-367.
 14. Shi W, Siemann DW. Augmented antitumor effects of radiation therapy by 4-1bb antibody (bms-469492) treatment[J]. *Anticancer Res*, 2006, 26(5A): 3445-3453.
 15. Demaria S, Kawashima N, Yang AM, et al. Immune-mediated inhibition of metastases after treatment with local radiation and ctla-4 blockade in a mouse model of breast cancer[J]. *Clin Cancer Res*, 2005, 11(2 Pt 1): 728-734.
 16. Dovedi SJ, Adlard AL, Lipowska-Bhalla G, et al. Acquired resistance to fractionated radiotherapy can be overcome by concurrent pd-1l blockade[J]. *Cancer Res*, 2014, 74(19): 5458-5468.
 17. Twyman-Saint Victor C, Rech AJ, Maity A, et al. Radiation and dual checkpoint blockade activate non-redundant immune mechanisms in cancer[J]. *Nature*, 2015, 520(7547): 373-377.
 18. Deng L, Liang H, Burnette B, et al. Irradiation and anti-pd-1l treatment synergistically promote antitumor immunity in mice[J]. *J Clin Invest*, 2014, 124(2): 687-695.
 19. Kang J, Demaria S, Formenti S. Current clinical trials testing the combination of immunotherapy with radiotherapy[J]. *J Immunother Cancer*, 2016, 4: 51.
 20. Levy A, Chargari C, Cheminant M, et al. Radiation therapy and immunotherapy: Implications for a combined cancer treatment[J]. *Crit Rev Oncol Hematol*, 2013, 85(3): 278-287.
 21. Hu ZI, Ho AY, McArthur HL. Combined radiation therapy and immune checkpoint blockade therapy for breast cancer[J]. *Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys*, 2017, 99(1): 153-164.
 22. Demaria S, Golden EB, Formenti SC. Role of local radiation therapy in cancer immunotherapy[J]. *JAMA Oncol*, 2015, 1(9): 1325-1332.
 23. Shiao SL, Coussens LM. The tumor-immune microenvironment and response to radiation therapy[J]. *J Mammary Gland Biol Neoplasia*, 2010, 15(4): 411-421.
 24. Gupta A, Probst HC, Vuong V, et al. Radiotherapy promotes tumor-specific effector CD8+ T cells via dendritic cell activation[J]. *J Immunol*, 2012, 189(2): 558-566.
 25. Lee Y, Auh SL, Wang Y, et al. Therapeutic effects of ablative radiation on local tumor require CD8+ T cells: Changing strategies for cancer treatment[J]. *Blood*, 2009, 114(3): 589-595.
 26. Lugade AA, Moran JP, Gerber SA, et al. Local radiation therapy of b16 melanoma tumors increases the generation of tumor antigen-specific effector cells that traffic to the tumor[J]. *J Immunol*, 2005, 174(12): 7516-7523.
 27. Kepp O, Senovilla L, Vitale I, et al. Consensus guidelines for the detection of immunogenic cell death[J]. *Oncoimmunology*, 2014, 3(9): e955691.
 28. Casares N, Pequignot MO, Tesniere A, et al. Caspase-dependent immunogenicity of doxorubicin-induced tumor cell death[J]. *J Exp Med*, 2005, 202(12): 1691-1701.
 29. Obeid M, Tesniere A, Ghiringhelli F, et al. Calreticulin exposure dictates the immunogenicity of cancer cell death[J]. *Nat Med*, 2007, 13(1): 54-61.
 30. Obeid M, Panaretakis T, Joza N, et al. Calreticulin exposure is required for the immunogenicity of gamma-irradiation and uvc light-induced apoptosis[J]. *Cell Death Differ*, 2007, 14(10): 1848-1850.
 31. Ghiringhelli F, Apetoh L, Tesniere A, et al. Activation of the nlrp3 inflammasome in dendritic cells induces il-1beta-dependent adaptive immunity against tumors[J]. *Nat Med*, 2009, 15(10): 1170-1178.
 32. Apetoh L, Ghiringhelli F, Tesniere A, et al. Toll-like receptor 4-dependent contribution of the immune system to anticancer chemotherapy and radiotherapy[J]. *Nat Med*, 2007, 13(9): 1050-1059.
 33. Ma Y, Adjemian S, Mattarollo SR, et al. Anticancer chemotherapy-induced intratumoral recruitment and differentiation of antigen-presenting cells[J]. *Immunity*, 2013, 38(4): 729-741.
 34. Gerber SA, Sedlacek AL, Cron KR, et al. Ifn-gamma mediates the antitumor effects of radiation therapy in a murine colon tumor[J]. *Am J Pathol*, 2013, 182(6): 2345-2354.
 35. Hodge JW, Guha C, Neefjes J, et al. Synergizing radiation therapy and immunotherapy for curing incurable cancers. Opportunities and challenges[J]. *Oncology (Williston Park)*, 2008, 22(9): 1064-1070.
 36. Kono K, Mimura K, Kiessling R. Immunogenic tumor cell death induced by chemoradiotherapy: Molecular mechanisms and a clinical translation[J]. *Cell Death Dis*, 2013, 4: e688.
 37. Binder RJ, Vatner R, Srivastava P. The heat-shock protein receptors: Some answers and more questions[J]. *Tissue Antigens*, 2004, 64(4): 442-451.
 38. Burnette BC, Liang H, Lee Y, et al. The efficacy of radiotherapy relies upon induction of type i interferon-dependent innate and adaptive immunity[J]. *Cancer Res*, 2011, 71(7): 2488-2496.
 39. Vanpouille-Box C, Alard A, Aryankalayil MJ, et al. DNA exonuclease trex1 regulates radiotherapy-induced tumour immunogenicity[J]. *Nat Commun*, 2017, 8: 15618.
 40. Wang X, Schoenhals JE, Li A, et al. Suppression of type i ifn signaling in tumors mediates resistance to anti-pd-1 treatment that can be overcome by radiotherapy[J]. *Cancer Res*, 2017, 77(4): 839-850.
 41. Driessens G, Hoffmann P, Pouwels M, et al. Synergy between dendritic cells and gm-csf-secreting tumor cells for the treatment of a murine renal cell carcinoma[J]. *J Immunother*, 2009, 32(2): 140-144.

42. Wan S, Pestka S, Jubin RG, et al. Chemotherapeutics and radiation stimulate mhc class i expression through elevated interferon-beta signaling in breast cancer cells[J]. PLoS one, 2012, 7(3): e32542.
43. McBride WH, Chiang CS, Olson JL, et al. A sense of danger from radiation[J]. Radiat Res, 2004, 162(1): 1-19.
44. Surace L, Lysenko V, Fontana AO, et al. Complement is a central mediator of radiotherapy-induced tumor-specific immunity and clinical response[J]. Immunity, 2015, 42(4): 767-777.
45. Buchbinder EI, Desai A. Ctl4 and pd-1 pathways: Similarities, differences, and implications of their inhibition[J]. Am J Clin Oncol, 2016, 39(1): 98-106.
46. Pardoll DM. The blockade of immune checkpoints in cancer immunotherapy[J]. Nat Rev Cancer, 2012, 12(4): 252-264.
47. Freeman GJ, Long AJ, Iwai Y, et al. Engagement of the pd-1 immunoinhibitory receptor by a novel b7 family member leads to negative regulation of lymphocyte activation[J]. J Exp Med, 2000, 192(7): 1027-1034.
48. Benson DM Jr, Bakan CE, Mishra A, et al. The pd-1/pd-l1 axis modulates the natural killer cell versus multiple myeloma effect: a therapeutic target for ct-011, a novel monoclonal anti-pd-1 antibody[J]. Blood, 2010, 116(13): 2286-2294.
49. Gangadhar TC, Salama AK. Clinical applications of pd-1-based therapy: A focus on pembrolizumab (mk-3475) in the management of melanoma and other tumor types[J]. Onco Targets Ther, 2015, 8: 929-937.
50. Sharabi AB, Nirschl CJ, Kochel CM, et al. Stereotactic radiation therapy augments antigen-specific pd-1-mediated antitumor immune responses via cross-presentation of tumor antigen[J]. Cancer Immunol Res, 2015, 3(4): 345-355.
51. Koo T, Kim IA. Radiotherapy and immune checkpoint blockades: a snapshot in 2016[J]. Radiat Oncol J, 2016, 34(4): 250-259.
52. Zeng J, Harris TJ, Lim M, et al. Immune modulation and stereotactic radiation: Improving local and abscopal responses[J]. Biomed Res Int, 2013, 2013: 658126.
53. Kalbasi A, Komar C, Tooker GM, et al. Tumor-derived ccl2 mediates resistance to radiotherapy in pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma[J]. Clin Cancer Res, 2017, 23(1): 137-148.
54. Seifert L, Werba G, Tiwari S, et al. Radiation therapy induces macrophages to suppress T-cell responses against pancreatic tumors in mice[J]. Gastroenterology, 2016, 150(7): 1659-1672.e5.
55. Formenti SC, Demaria S. Systemic effects of local radiotherapy[J]. Lancet Oncol, 2009, 10(7): 718-726.
56. Schuler G, Steinman RM. Dendritic cells as adjuvants for immune-mediated resistance to tumors[J]. J Exp Med, 1997, 186(8): 1183-1187.
57. Albert ML, Sauter B, Bhardwaj N. Dendritic cells acquire antigen from apoptotic cells and induce class i-restricted CTLs[J]. Nature, 1998, 392(6671): 86-89.
58. Demaria S, Ng B, Devitt ML, et al. Ionizing radiation inhibition of distant untreated tumors (abscopal effect) is immune mediated[J]. Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys, 2004, 58(3): 862-870.
59. Zeng J, See AP, Phallen J, et al. Anti-pd-1 blockade and stereotactic radiation produce long-term survival in mice with intracranial gliomas[J]. Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys, 2013, 86(2): 343-349.
60. Demaria S, Formenti SC. Role of T lymphocytes in tumor response to radiotherapy[J]. Front Oncol, 2012, 2: 95.
61. Filatenkov A, Baker J, Mueller AM, et al. Ablative tumor radiation can change the tumor immune cell microenvironment to induce durable complete remissions[J]. Clin Cancer Res, 2015, 21(16): 3727-3739.
62. Dewan MZ, Galloway AE, Kawashima N, et al. Fractionated but not single-dose radiotherapy induces an immune-mediated abscopal effect when combined with anti-CTLA-4 antibody[J]. Clin Cancer Res, 2009, 15(17): 5379-5388.
63. Rodriguez-Ruiz ME, Rodriguez I, Garasa S, et al. Abscopal effects of radiotherapy are enhanced by combined immunostimulatory mabs and are dependent on CD8 T cells and crosspriming[J]. Cancer Res, 2016, 76(20): 5994-6005.
64. Gameiro SR, Malamas AS, Bernstein MB, et al. Tumor cells surviving exposure to proton or photon radiation share a common immunogenic modulation signature, rendering them more sensitive to T cell-mediated killing[J]. Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys, 2016, 95(1): 120-130.
65. McGranahan N, Furness AJ, Rosenthal R, et al. Clonal neoantigens elicit T cell immunoreactivity and sensitivity to immune checkpoint blockade[J]. Science, 2016, 351(6280): 1463-1469.

本文引用: 白睿, 袁程, 龚堯, 谢丛华. 放射治疗联合免疫疗法在癌症治疗中的研究进展[J]. 临床与病理杂志, 2019, 39(4): 879-885. doi: 10.3978/j.issn.2095-6959.2019.04.033

Cite this article as: BAI Rui, YUAN Cheng, GONG Yan, XIE Conghua. Research progress of radiotherapy combined with immunotherapy in cancer treatment[J]. Journal of Clinical and Pathological Research, 2019, 39(4): 879-885. doi: 10.3978/j.issn.2095-6959.2019.04.033