

Editorial

Chemotherapy, a Double Agent in Respect of Immune Functions

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1. Cancer chemotherapy is generally considered to be immunosuppressive (Clarysse et al., 1976), and it was this action which led to the discovery of transplantation chemotherapy (Schwartz and Dameshek, 1959).

1.1. This side effect of cancer chemotherapy has been considered important, and in several experimental models, such as L1210 leukaemia, treatment with cyclophosphamide (CPM) alone or combined with ATS (Mathé et al., 1977), the curative effect of treatment was greatly reduced when a single chemotherapy was associated with an immunodepressive manipulation, as against being applied alone.

A modality of application of a given chemotherapy which is immunodepressive, as shown by a parallel allogeneic skin graft experiment, such as CPM in a dose of 403 mg/kg, is less effective in curing L1210 leukaemia than a smaller dose (134 mg/kg), which does not appear to be immunodepressive in the skin graft experiment (Mathé et al., 1977).

It has even been shown that some modalities of chemotherapy may decrease specific tumour immunity: studying mice carrying plasmocytoma MOPC 10⁴ E and treated with CPM, Lubet and Carlson (1977) observed that high doses, although curative, left significantly less residual tumour immunity (measured by the ability to reject graded numbers of viable cells) than low doses.

1.2. In man, all authors agree on the fact that cancer chemotherapy, even without corticosteroids, can diminish immune responses (Clarysse et al., 1976).

Lymphopenia, or its aggravation by chemotherapy, has been found by most authors, including Jones et al. (unpublished).

Humoral immunity has been shown to decrease after chemotherapy in Hodgkin's disease, in contrast to that measured in untreated patients, in whom it was normal (Weitzman et al., 1977). According to Leventhal et al.

(1974), B-lymphocyte function is almost constantly depressed during chemotherapy, but this depression has no significant effect.

For this author, T-lymphocyte depression is, on the contrary, important: a decrease of T-cell response in the phase of induction chemotherapy of acute leukaemia is associated with a poor prognosis.

T-lymphocyte depression under chemotherapy has been shown with many tests.

Delayed hypersensitivity has very often been shown to be decreased (Schneider, 1968; Simmler et al., 1976).

Several workers (Hersh and Oppenheim, 1967; Cheema and Hersh, 1971; Cardozo, 1970; Al Sarraf et al., 1972; Schneider, 1968; Simmler et al., 1976) have mentioned depression of PHA responses in patients subjected to different types of chemotherapy for different neoplasias.

Monocyte functions, especially phagocytosis and bactericidal capacity, have been shown to be impaired by chemotherapy (McVie et al., 1977).

The total number of null cells has been shown to be decreased in our acute lymphoid leukaemic patients subjected to post-remission induction chemotherapy (Joseph et al., 1976).

2. Despite many reports, immunosuppression caused by cancer chemotherapy may have been too generalized, and overestimated.

2.1. Many chemotherapies reported as immunosuppressive included corticosteroids, and Hersh and Oppenheim (1967) noted that the inclusion of these hormones makes immunosuppression more severe.

2.2. There are differences with different tumours, not only between leukaemias and solid tumours, but between different neoplasias within these two groups (Bolton et al., 1975).

2.3. The time factor plays an important role, as we have shown and emphasized (Mathé et al., 1970): intermittent chemotherapies, even with high doses, are less immunosuppressive than continuous chemotherapies, even at low dose levels. However, the immunosuppressive effect of continuous cyclophosphamide was shown to be dose-related (Winkelstein et al., 1972).

2.4. There are differences according to the drugs used. We have seen that corticosteroids, particularly, are strongly immunosuppressive (Hersh and Oppenheim, 1967). There are cytostatics, such as 6-mercaptopurine, methotrexate, cyclophosphamide, adriamycin, and BCNU, that are often strongly immunosuppressive, and there are some that, with certain modes of application and under certain conditions, might not be immunosuppressive, such as imidazole carboxamide, bleomycin, vincristine, 5-fluorouracil, and cytosine arabinoside (Hersh, 1978).

Differences have also been demonstrated in animals with the use of different drugs, even different drugs of the same chemical family: a) we found that (chloro-2-ethyl)-1-ribofuranosylisopropylidene-2'-3'-paranitrobenzoate-5'-3 nitroso-urea or RFCNU, a sugar derivative of nitroso-urea, is less immunosuppressive in the hemolytic plaque-forming test than BCNU, and has a longer maximally efficient dose interval in L1210 leukaemia in mice (Imbach et al., 1975). b) Adriamycin (ADM) was found to affect antitumour immune effector mechanisms in an allogeneic system less than daunorubicin (DRB) (Mantovani et al., 1976), and to be less toxic for macrophages than DRB (Mantovani, 1977); these differences, according to the authors, could explain the superiority of ADM over DRB in antitumour effectiveness.

According to Ezdinli et al. (1977), the combination chemotherapies most often used cause a more profound and persistent depression of both T and B lymphocytes than single drug treatment.

2.5. Chemotherapies do not always inhibit all immune functions, and dissociation of alterations in different tests occurs frequently.

For Simmler et al. (1976), delayed skin hypersensitivity responses are more often decreased than in vitro mitogen-stimulated lymphocyte transformation in patients subjected to chemotherapy.

Jones et al. (unpublished) observed in breast cancer patients that a chemotherapy combining cyclophosphamide, methotrexate, vincristine or vinblastine, and 5-fluorouracil, when administered for 1 year or more, causes further lymphopenia but no increased depression of responsiveness in the remaining lymphocytes.

3. Chemotherapy-induced immunosuppression may be followed by a rebound, which might be the equivalent of

immunostimulation. Such a rebound was described by Harris et al. (1973) in chemotherapy responses, and it could be interpreted as the consequence of the favourable effect of chemotherapy on the tumour. Jones et al. (unpublished) found that it was not related to clinical response but occurred in a random fashion.

The two mechanisms might be effective together or separately. As a matter of fact, such a rebound has been seen after a maintenance chemotherapy applied for the minimal residual disease left by remission-induction chemotherapy in acute lymphoid leukaemic patients (Borella et al., 1972).

4. Moreover, chemotherapy may, in contrast to its usual immunosuppressive action, restore depressed immunity in cancer patients. We have observed an effect of this type in patients in whom chemotherapy was strongly effective in the reduction of the tumour volume; immunorestitution was detectable before chemotherapy was stopped, and we attributed this effect to the action of chemotherapy on the neoplastic disease (Mathé, 1976).

But this mechanism might not be the only one. In fact, it has been shown that tumour-bearing animals (Fujimoto et al., 1976a and b; Kirchner et al., 1974; Gorczynski and Norbury, 1975; Geffard and Orbach-Arbouys, 1976; Lespinats and Poupon, 1976) and cancer patients (Goodwin et al., 1977) may present an increase of suppressor cells, and it was shown by Polak and Turk (1974), Mitsuoka et al. (1976), and Sy et al. (1977) that cyclophosphamide, and by Orbach-Arbouys et al. (1978), in our laboratory, that methotrexate may block the effect of suppressor cells.

This may be a similar phenomenon to that observed in animals by Maguire (1977), who showed that CPM administration can enhance T cell-mediated immunity to tumours.

5. Agents used in cancer chemotherapy may not act only as direct cytostatics on tumour cells; they may also increase their sensitivity to immune reactions by increasing immunogenicity. This mechanism of action has been suggested for imidazole carboxamide (DTIC) (Bonmassar et al., 1975; Campanile et al., 1975), which seems to select more immunogenic cells. This hypothesis is not incompatible with that suggesting that they increase immunogenicity by a haptenic process. According to Houchens et al. (1976), tumour cells treated with DTIC not only retain their original antigenicity, but acquire antigenic properties during treatment.

Another purine precursor, 3(or 5)-aminopyrazole-4-carboxamide, which is not active against L1210 leukaemia, was shown to alter the immunogenicity of L1210 cells (Nicolin et al., 1973).

Mustards containing haptenic functional groups

were synthesized by Wright et al. (1977), and these may be bound covalently to cell surfaces. The preliminary results of their study in the treatment of tumours with such agents are promising.

This antigenic alteration of tumour cells might, according to Goldin and Houchens (1978), be related to so-called collateral sensitivity, a phenomenon in which the origin of tumour-cell resistance to a drug leads to increased response to a second therapeutic agent (Venditti and Goldin, 1964). The increase of antigenicity induced by a given drug seems to be related to resistance to it as shown by antibody studies (Nicolin et al., 1972) and by cell-mediated cytotoxicity assays (Nicolin et al., 1974).

6. Hence, one should no longer envisage chemotherapy solely as a cancer treatment working to the patient's good by its toxicity against the tumour target cells, but should bear in mind that at the same time, it exerts an unfavourable effect by the inhibition of the immune machinery *largo sensu*.

Not only can one avoid the strong immunodepressive effect that some chemotherapies induce, by careful selection of agents and combinations, but one can restore immunity by reducing the tumour volume and possibly by an action on suppressor cells; in certain circumstances, one can induce a kind of immunotherapy by realizing an immune rebound after interrupting chemotherapy. Moreover, the knowledge of these notions might lead to a double manipulation by chemotherapy: direct destruction of tumour target cells on one hand, and enhanced immunity on the other. This knowledge will lead to a more scientific approach to the combination of chemotherapy and immunotherapy, which has been shown to be efficient in man and now has an experimental basis (Mathé, 1977a). We even know that one of the side effects of active immunotherapy may be immunosuppression (Mathé, 1977b) via the possible induction of suppressor cells in certain conditions, as shown in our laboratory by Orbach-Arbouys and Poupon (1978). We may be able to kill suppressor cells with chemotherapy when they appear (Orbach-Arbouys et al., 1978). Thus, not only may immunotherapy amplify the effect of chemotherapy, but chemotherapy appears to be able to amplify that of immunotherapy. Hence the interest in developing immunological as well biochemical pharmacology in cancer therapy, which is necessary not only for immunotherapy, but also for chemotherapy.

Finally, the possibility of increasing tumour cell immunogenicity with certain cytostatics should be the object of further studies with other compounds and models, as should attempts to induce immunogenicity in the tumour cells which, it is suspected, do not carry tumour-associated antigens, especially in metastases (Fidler, 1978, *in press*).

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