Review Article
AMERICAN JOURNAL OF PHARMACY AND HEALTH RESEARCH
www.ajphr.com
2025, Volume 13, Issue 03
ISSN: 2321–3647(online)

Revolutionizing Cancer Treatment: Advances and Challenges in Immunotherapy

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ABSTRACT
Cancer encompasses more than 277 distinct diseases, each influenced by multiple genetic mutations that drive abnormal cell proliferation. These mutations may arise due to hereditary or environmental factors, significantly contributing to uncontrolled cell growth. Traditional cancer treatments such as chemotherapy, radiotherapy, and surgery have long been the standard of care. However, the emergence of immunotherapy has dramatically transformed cancer treatment, offering improved survival rates and enhanced quality of life for many patients. Immunotherapy has now become a fundamental component of cancer care, spanning from metastatic settings to adjuvant and neoadjuvant therapies across various cancer types. This review explores the historical breakthroughs in cancer immunotherapy that have shaped modern treatment strategies. Additionally, it examines the limitations of current checkpoint inhibitor therapies and the ongoing research aimed at overcoming these challenges. Emerging approaches, including personalized cancer vaccines, modulation of the tumour microenvironment, microbiome-targeted therapies, and metabolomics, are being investigated to enhance treatment efficacy. Immunotherapies such as checkpoint inhibitors and adoptive cell therapies harness the body's immune system to identify and destroy cancer cells, showing remarkable potential in treating both solid tumours and blood cancers. Despite their effectiveness, these therapies present unique toxicities that differ from conventional cancer treatments, necessitating specialized management strategies. Proper diagnosis and treatment of immune-related adverse effects—often requiring corticosteroids and immune-modulating therapies—are critical for patient safety. This review focuses on the mechanisms, clinical impact, and management of side effects associated with checkpoint inhibitors and chimeric antigen receptor (CAR) T-cell therapies, offering insights into the evolving landscape of cancer immunotherapy.

Keywords: Immunotherapy, checkpoint inhibitors, CAR-T therapy, microbiome studies, metabolomics.

*Corresponding Author Email: vamsimathakala@gmail.com
Received 10 February 2025, Accepted 19 March 2025

Please cite this article as: Vamsi M *et al*., Revolutionizing Cancer Treatment: Advances and Challenges in Immunotherapy. American Journal of Pharmacy & Health Research 2025.

INTRODUCTION

Cancer remains one of the most serious threats to human health, claiming nearly 10 million lives worldwide in 2020 alone [1]. Despite advancements in medical research, the disease continues to pose a significant challenge due to its complexity and high adaptability. Traditionally, cancer treatment has relied on surgery, radiotherapy, and chemotherapy, but these approaches have inherent limitations. Many of these treatments are associated with severe side effects, limited targeting ability, and the development of drug resistance [2]. Furthermore, clinical evidence suggests that conventional therapies often fail to provide long-term survival benefits, particularly for patients with advanced solid tumours [3].

With the rapid progress in tumour immunology, cell biology, and molecular technologies, researchers have identified the tumour microenvironment (TME) as a key factor contributing to cancer progression. Studies indicate that an immunosuppressive TME plays a crucial role in cancer development and metastasis [4]. Immunotherapy, which harnesses the body's immune system to recognize and eliminate tumour cells, has emerged as a promising alternative to traditional cancer treatments [5]. In recent years, thousands of clinical trials have explored various immunotherapeutic strategies, demonstrating that cancer immunotherapy is becoming an effective approach for cancer management [6].

Despite the remarkable progress in immunotherapy, its clinical application still faces significant challenges in terms of efficacy and safety. Some patient's exhibit limited responses to immunotherapy, and adverse effects related to immune system activation remain a concern [7]. This article explores recent advances in cancer immunotherapy, with a focus on cancer vaccines, and discusses the challenges and opportunities in this evolving field.

Cancer Vaccines: A New Frontier in Immunotherapy

Cancer vaccines are designed to stimulate the immune system by targeting tumour-associated antigens (TAAs) or tumour-specific antigens (TSAs) [8]. These vaccines enhance the immune response, particularly by activating CD8+ T cells, which play a critical role in inhibiting tumour growth, metastasis, and recurrence [9]. Currently, cancer vaccines are developed using different platforms, including cell-based, RNA-based, DNA-based, and protein/peptide-based preparations [10].

Based on their clinical application, cancer vaccines are classified into two main categories: **preventive** and **therapeutic** [11].

Preventive cancer vaccines aim to stimulate an immune response before cancer develops, reducing the risk of malignancy. A prime example is the human papillomavirus (HPV) vaccine,

which has significantly lowered the incidence of cervical cancer in vaccinated populations [12]. The widely approved vaccines, Gardasil and Cervarix, have played a crucial role in decreasing the prevalence of cervical intraepithelial neoplasia among young women when administered during adolescence [13]. However, these vaccines are ineffective in patients who have already developed cancer or have chronic HPV infections [14].

Therapeutic cancer vaccines, on the other hand, focus on treating existing cancers by enhancing tumour-specific immune responses. One of the most notable examples is Sipuleucel-T (Provenge), an autologous cellular immunotherapy designed for metastatic hormone-resistant prostate cancer [15]. Clinical studies have shown that Sipuleucel-T can extend the overall survival of patients by an average of three months [16]. However, despite promising preclinical and early clinical results, the overall response rate of therapeutic cancer vaccines remains relatively low. Studies indicate that the partial remission (PR) or complete remission (CR) rate for most therapeutic cancer vaccines is below 10%, and in many cases, even below 5% [17].

To date, apart from Sipuleucel-T, no other therapeutic cancer vaccine has demonstrated significant clinical efficacy in phase 3 randomized trials [18]. Nonetheless, continued research into vaccine formulations, delivery mechanisms, and combination strategies with other immunotherapies, such as immune checkpoint inhibitors, is expected to enhance the effectiveness of cancer vaccines in the future [19, 20].

Figure 1: Future of Cancer therapy

Cancer Immunotherapy Guidelines – Renal Cell Carcinoma

The Cancer Immunotherapy Guidelines for Renal Cell Carcinoma (RCC) were developed by a specialized subcommittee comprising nineteen members, including thirteen medical oncologists, three urologists, one nurse, one nurse practitioner, and one patient advocate. All clinical

subcommittee members had prior experience or knowledge in the application of immunotherapy for treating advanced RCC (aRCC).

In February 2019, the subcommittee convened following the protocols set by the National Academy of Medicine and the Society for Immunotherapy of Cancer (SITC). The meeting focused on evaluating the progress of guideline development and analyzing responses from a previously distributed questionnaire. This survey gathered insights into members' roles in patient care, their clinical focus areas, and their experience with FDA-approved immunotherapy agents. The final consensus document was later opened for review and feedback from the entire SITC membership.

Tumour Immunity Cycle and Response to Immunotherapy

The effectiveness of immunotherapy is largely influenced by the tumour immunity cycle. Tumour cell death initiated by immunotherapy can lead to the release of secondary, non-targeted tumour antigens, which subsequently prime new immune responses. This phenomenon, known as antigen spread or epitope spread, expands the immune response to additional tumour antigens, thereby strengthening the treatment's effectiveness over time. Immunotherapy approaches such as cancer vaccines and immune checkpoint inhibitors have been associated with antigen spread, contributing to their long-term efficacy.

Antigen Spread in Cancer Immunotherapy

Antigen spread has been a subject of research for over three decades in the context of autoimmune diseases and infectious conditions. In cancer immunotherapy, antigen spread occurs when an immune response to a specific tumour antigen broadens over time to target additional tumour-associated antigens (TAAs). This process enhances the overall effectiveness of immunotherapy.

Mechanism of Antigen Spread

Antigen spread is believed to occur when an initial anti-tumour immune response - triggered by therapeutic vaccines or T-cell reactivation via immune checkpoint inhibitors - induces the destruction of tumour cells. This destruction releases additional TAAs, which antigen-presenting cells (APCs) such as dendritic cells and macrophages process and present to immune cells, thereby generating a broader immune response.

Alternative mechanisms suggest that an immune response against a primary antigen may suppress inhibitory factors in the tumour microenvironment, allowing for the amplification of pre-existing antibody responses. Additionally, conventional treatments such as chemotherapy

and radiation therapy can induce immunogenic cell death, exposing tumour antigens to the immune system and further promoting antigen spread.

Systemic Chemotherapy and Immunotherapy Integration

Systemic chemotherapy remains a cornerstone of cancer treatment. Most cytotoxic chemotherapeutic agents exert their effects by disrupting the cell cycle, leading to the eradication of cancer cells. These agents are typically administered at maximum tolerated doses (MTD) to maximize tumour cell destruction. While MTD regimens have achieved success in certain malignancies such as pediatric acute lymphoblastic leukemia (ALL) and Hodgkin's lymphoma - additional strategies are required to enhance treatment outcomes.

Pre-Clinical and Clinical Studies on Metronomic Chemotherapy with Immunotherapy

Immunotherapy aims to enhance the immune system's ability to recognize and eliminate cancer cells. However, due to the immunosuppressive nature of the tumour microenvironment, achieving significant clinical benefits through immunotherapy alone remains a challenge.

Studies indicate that low-dose cytotoxic agents can exert immunomodulatory effects, suggesting that combining chemotherapy with immunotherapy could yield more effective treatment strategies. Research in this field continues to explore optimal drug combinations and dosing regimens to maximize efficacy while minimizing adverse effects.

Types of Cancer Immunotherapy

Cancer immunotherapy comprises several approaches, each targeting different aspects of the immune system to combat malignancies effectively.

1. Monoclonal Antibodies

Monoclonal antibodies are laboratory-designed molecules that specifically target tumour antigens. These antibodies can block tumour growth signals, deliver cytotoxic agents to cancer cells, or flag malignant cells for immune destruction.

2. Checkpoint Inhibitors

Checkpoint inhibitors enhance the immune system's ability to recognize and attack cancer cells by blocking immune checkpoint proteins such as PD-1, PD-L1, and CTLA-4, which tumours exploit to evade immune surveillance.

3. Cancer Vaccines

Cancer vaccines stimulate the immune system to recognize and destroy tumour cells. They can be preventive (e.g., HPV vaccines for cervical cancer) or therapeutic (e.g., sipuleucel-T for prostate cancer).

4. Adoptive T-Cell Therapy

This approach involves extracting a patient's T cells, modifying them to enhance their cancer-fighting capabilities, and reinfusing them into the body. T-cell receptor (TCR) therapy and tumour-infiltrating lymphocyte (TIL) therapy are examples of this technique.

5. Immunomodulators

Immunomodulatory agents, such as cytokines and interleukins, help regulate immune responses to improve the effectiveness of immunotherapy.

6. Oncolytic Virus Therapy

Oncolytic viruses selectively infect and lyse cancer cells while stimulating immune responses against tumours. Talimogene laherparepvec (T-VEC) is an FDA-approved oncolytic virus therapy for melanoma.

7. CAR-T Cell Therapy

Chimeric antigen receptor (CAR)-T cell therapy involves engineering T cells to express synthetic receptors that recognize and attack specific tumour antigens. This therapy has shown remarkable success in treating certain blood cancers.

8. Dendritic Cell Therapy

Dendritic cell therapy enhances the ability of antigen-presenting cells to stimulate tumour-specific immune responses. Sipuleucel-T, used for prostate cancer, is an example of this approach.

9. Interleukin-2 (IL-2) Therapy

IL-2 therapy boosts immune activity by stimulating the proliferation and activation of T cells. High-dose IL-2 has been used to treat metastatic melanoma and renal cell carcinoma.

10. Cancer Stem Cell Therapy

Targeting cancer stem cells aims to prevent tumour relapse and resistance by eradicating the subpopulation of tumour cells responsible for continuous growth and metastasis**.**

Immunotherapy Side Effects

Positive Effects

1. Cancer Regression: Immunotherapy can help shrink tumours and alleviate cancer-related symptoms.
2. Enhanced Immune Response: It stimulates the immune system to identify and attack cancer cells more effectively.
3. Targeted Treatment: Immunotherapy specifically targets cancer cells, minimizing damage to healthy tissues.

Negative Effects

1. Inflammation: Some patients experience inflammation in different parts of the body as an immune response.
2. Skin Reactions: Immunotherapy may cause skin rashes, varying from mild to severe.
3. Gastrointestinal Issues: Patients might experience diarrhoea, which can range from mild to severe.
4. Endocrine Disorders: Conditions such as hypothyroidism and hyperthyroidism can result from immune responses.
5. Neurological Symptoms: Some individuals may experience headaches, seizures, or confusion as a side effect of treatment.

Classifications of Immunotherapy

(Immunotherapy can be categorized into various approaches, each with unique mechanisms and applications.)

Common Symptoms of Immunotherapy

1. Fatigue
2. Pain in different body parts
3. Skin rash or itching
4. Nausea and vomiting
5. Gastrointestinal issues such as diarrhoea or constipation
6. Abdominal pain or cramping
7. Fever or chills
8. Muscle or joint pain
9. Swollen lymph nodes
10. Loss of appetite
11. Unintentional weight loss or gain
12. Mood changes (e.g., anxiety, depression)
13. Sleep disturbances
14. Headaches
15. Cognitive changes, including confusion

Cellular Immunotherapy

Chimeric Antigen Receptor (CAR) T-cell Therapy

CAR-T cell therapy is a revolutionary approach where a patient's T cells are genetically modified to recognize and attack cancer cells.

- FDA and EMA Approvals: Tisagenlecleucel and Axicabtagen-ciloleucel were the first CAR-T cell therapies approved in 2017 and 2018 for treating acute lymphoblastic leukaemia (ALL) and diffuse large B-cell lymphoma (DLBCL), respectively.
- Clinical Trials: Major trials like ELIANA, JULIET, and ZUMA-1 demonstrated high response rates for CAR-T cell therapy.
- Process: Patients undergo leukapheresis, followed by genetic engineering of T cells to express an anti-CD19 receptor. After lymph depleting chemotherapy, the modified T cells are rein fused, enhancing the immune response against cancer cells.

Monoclonal Antibody Therapy

Monoclonal antibodies (mAbs) are engineered proteins that mimic the immune system's ability to fight cancer.

Mechanisms of Action

1. Complement-Dependent Cytotoxicity (CDC): mAbs activate the complement system, leading to cancer cell destruction.
2. Antibody-Dependent Cellular Cytotoxicity (ADCC): mAbs bind to immune cells like NK cells, enhancing their ability to attack cancer cells.
3. Antibody-Dependent Cellular Phagocytosis (ADCP): Macrophages recognize and eliminate antibody-bound tumour cells.
4. Blocking Growth Signals: Some mAbs, like those targeting VEGF, prevent the growth of blood vessels that nourish tumours.
5. Antibody-Drug Conjugates (ADCs): These combine mAbs with cytotoxic agents to deliver targeted chemotherapy to cancer cells.

FDA-Approved Monoclonal Antibodies

Monoclonal antibodies target specific cancer-related proteins such as CD19, HER2, VEGFA, EGFR, and CD52. Some ADCs, like trastuzumab deruxtecan for HER2-positive breast cancer, show promising results in clinical trials.

Current Clinical Challenges

Despite its success, immunotherapy presents several clinical challenges:

- Determining the optimal dose, schedule, and duration of treatment
- Identifying reliable biomarkers for patient selection
- Developing new therapeutic combinations to overcome resistance

Adaptive Immune Resistance

In some cancers, tumours evade immune attacks despite the presence of tumour-specific T cells.

- Melanoma and NSCLC: 40% of melanoma cases and 20% of non-small cell lung cancer cases show tumour-infiltrating T cells.
- Mechanism: Tumours produce inhibitory molecules such as PD-L1 in response to immune system attacks, preventing effective T-cell action.
- Checkpoint Inhibitors: Blocking PD-1/PD-L1 interactions can restore immune function and enhance tumour cell destruction.
- Additional Targets: Other inhibitory receptors, including TIM3, LAG3, and TIGIT, are also involved in immune resistance.

Mechanisms of Immune Resistance

1. Adaptive Immune Resistance

Triggered by the tumour microenvironment in response to immune attacks:

- PD-1/PD-L1 Expression: Tumours upregulate PD-L1 to evade immune destruction.
- Tryptophan Metabolism: IDO enzyme depletes tryptophan, suppressing T-cell function.
- Regulatory T Cells (Tregs): Tumours recruit Tregs to dampen the immune response.

2. Primary Immune Resistance

Driven by genetic and metabolic changes in cancer cells:

- Oncogene Activation: Mutations in BRAF, NRAS, and PTEN promote immune evasion.
- Copy Number Alterations: Genetic changes like aneuploidy contribute to resistance.
- TGF-β and Tumour Microenvironment: Creates a suppressive environment that hinders immune cell penetration.

3. Acquired Immune Resistance

Develops after an initial response to treatment:

- Loss of HLA Class-I: Prevents immune recognition by cytotoxic T cells.
- Loss of IFN-γ Sensitivity: Mutations in JAK1/2 reduce immune activation.
- Resistance Due to Targeted Therapy: Some tumours develop resistance mechanisms post-treatment, altering their immune landscape.

Immunosuppressive Metabolism in Tumours

The alteration of metabolic processes in tumours plays a crucial role in immune resistance. Cancer cells predominantly rely on glycolysis for ATP production and for generating essential molecules like nucleic acids required for cell division. This metabolic shift, known as the Warburg effect, also reduces mitochondrial activity to minimize the production of reactive oxygen species (ROS), aiding cancer cell survival.

Effector CD8+ T cells depend on glycolysis and glutaminolysis for their immune functions, whereas regulatory T cells (Tregs) primarily utilize fatty acid oxidation (FAO). This metabolic competition within the tumour microenvironment (TME) impairs the metabolic efficiency of anti-tumour T cells. Studies have demonstrated that increased glycolysis in melanoma cells correlates with reduced CD8+ T cell infiltration, resistance to T cell-mediated lysis, and diminished efficacy of adoptive T cell therapy. This resistance is partially attributed to the accumulation of immunosuppressive lactate. Oncogenes such as MYC and AKT further enhance glycolysis, while hypoxic conditions within tumours hinder mitochondrial function in effector T cells.

Modulators of energy metabolism, including the diabetes drug metformin and hyperlipidaemia drugs like fibrates, have been found to improve the function of anti-tumour T cells. These agents enhance glycolysis and mitochondrial activity, support memory T cells, and have shown synergy with PD-1/PD-L1 inhibitors in preclinical models. Since metformin and PD-1 inhibitors enhance glycolysis in CD8+ T cells through different mechanisms, their combined use has demonstrated increased anti-tumour efficacy.

Additionally, altered metabolism of amino acids, lipids, and nucleic acids contributes to immune resistance. For example, the depletion of tryptophan and increased production of its immunosuppressive metabolite kynurenine, mediated by indoleamine 2, 3-dioxygenase (IDO) in cancer and stromal cells, suppresses immune responses. Similarly, the depletion of arginine by arginase-expressing myeloid-derived suppressor cells (MDSCs), M2-like tumour-associated macrophages (TAMs), and neutrophils contributes to immune evasion. Prostaglandin E2 (PGE2), produced by cyclooxygenase-2 (COX-2) in tumour and stromal cells, inhibits anti-tumour T cell activity.

Adenosine, generated from extracellular ATP through CD39 and CD73 enzymatic activity, also suppresses immune responses by engaging the A2a receptor (A2aR). Elevated levels of soluble CD73 in the bloodstream have been linked to poor responses to PD-1 inhibitors. Several metabolic modulators, including IDO inhibitors, A2aR antagonists, COX-2 inhibitors, and therapies targeting TAMs and MDSCs, are being evaluated in clinical trials in combination with PD-1/PD-L1 blockade.

Immunotherapy Agents and Approaches

Monoclonal Antibodies

The discovery of antibodies in the late 19th century by Paul Ehrlich, Emil von Behring, and Kitasato Shiba Saburo revolutionized medicine. In the 1970s, Milstein and Köhler pioneered

monoclonal antibody (mAb) technology through the hybridoma technique, which involved fusing lymphocytes with myeloma cell lines to produce targeted antibodies. The first clinical trial using mAb therapy for cancer was conducted in 1980 on a lymphoma patient.

Monoclonal antibodies recognize specific antigens on tumour cells, triggering their destruction through various mechanisms. One approach involves inhibiting growth factor receptor signalling, disrupting pro-tumour pathways by blocking receptor activation or ligand binding. Additionally, monoclonal antibodies activate immune responses through complement-dependent cytotoxicity (CDC), antibody-dependent cellular phagocytosis (ADCP), and antibody-dependent cellular cytotoxicity (ADCC).

- **CDC Mechanism:** This process involves the complement system, a set of proteins that, when activated by antibodies binding to target cells, initiates a cascade that leads to cell lysis via membrane attack complexes (MACs).
- **ADCC Mechanism:** This response is mediated by immune cells like natural killer (NK) cells, which recognize the Fc region of antibodies attached to target cells. NK cells then release cytotoxic granules containing perforin and granzymes, inducing apoptosis.

Several monoclonal antibodies have been approved for cancer treatment. Rituximab, targeting CD20, was the first FDA-approved mAb for hematologic malignancies. Trastuzumab, a HER2-targeting antibody, effectively treats HER2-positive breast cancer by inhibiting tumour growth and enhancing ADCC. Bevacizumab, an angiogenesis inhibitor, prevents tumour progression by disrupting vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) signalling.

Recent studies highlight mechanisms through which tumours evade immune surveillance despite mAb therapy. These include antigen loss, downregulation of antigen presentation, activation of immune checkpoint pathways, and immune cell exhaustion.

General Immune Modulators

Non-specific immune modulators function via two key mechanisms: stimulating effector cells to enhance anti-tumour responses and inhibiting immunosuppressive pathways. Examples include alpha interferon, IL-2, imiquimod, and the BCG vaccine. Another major category includes immune checkpoint inhibitors (ICIs), such as CTLA-4 and PD-1/PD-L1 inhibitors, which counteract immunosuppressive mechanisms within the TME.

PD-L1/PD-1 Inhibitors

The PD-L1/PD-1 signalling axis is a major contributor to the immunosuppressive tumour microenvironment, facilitating tumour growth and immune evasion. PD-L1, expressed on tumour cells and activated immune cells, interacts with PD-1 on T cells, B cells, and NK cells to

suppress immune responses. TAMs, particularly the M2 subtype, also express high levels of PD-L1, contributing to T cell suppression.

By blocking PD-1/PD-L1 interactions, monoclonal antibodies can restore immune responses against tumours. These therapies enhance T cell function, improve anti-tumour immunity, and show promise in treating triple-negative breast cancer (TNBC), which has high PD-L1 expression.

Clinical Trials and KEYNOTE Series

Extensive clinical trials have evaluated PD-1/PD-L1 inhibitors in TNBC. The KEYNOTE series has investigated pembrolizumab in various cancers, including breast cancer. Several studies have demonstrated its efficacy:

- **KEYNOTE-012:** Demonstrated pembrolizumab's efficacy in advanced TNBC, showing good safety and anti-tumour activity.
- **KEYNOTE-086:** Showed that pembrolizumab alone is beneficial for advanced TNBC.
- **KEYNOTE-119:** Compared pembrolizumab with chemotherapy in metastatic TNBC but did not show significant survival benefits.
- **KEYNOTE-173:** Examined pembrolizumab in combination with chemotherapy for early-stage TNBC, revealing higher pathologic complete response (PCR) rates.
- **KEYNOTE-355:** Demonstrated improved survival in TNBC patients with high PD-L1 expression (CPS >10) when pembrolizumab was combined with chemotherapy.
- **KEYNOTE-522:** Highlighted the superior clinical efficacy of pembrolizumab plus chemotherapy for early-stage TNBC compared to chemotherapy alone.

Additionally, the I-SPY trial showed that pembrolizumab combined with neoadjuvant chemotherapy increased PCR rates in high-risk early-stage breast cancer patients.

These findings underscore the potential of PD-L1 inhibitors in TNBC treatment, offering new strategies for therapeutic intervention.

CONCLUSION

Immunotherapy has revolutionized cancer treatment, offering promising approaches to overcoming immune resistance in tumors. The metabolic alterations in the tumor microenvironment play a critical role in suppressing anti-tumor immune responses, particularly affecting CD8+ T cells. Strategies to modulate these metabolic pathways, such as using metformin and fibrates, have shown potential in improving immune cell function and enhancing the effectiveness of immune checkpoint inhibitors like PD-1/PD-L1 antibodies.

Monoclonal antibodies have emerged as a crucial tool in targeted cancer therapy, leveraging mechanisms such as complement-dependent cytotoxicity (CDC) and antibody-dependent cellular cytotoxicity (ADCC) to eliminate tumor cells. Advancements in understanding immune evasion mechanisms have led to the development of novel antibody-based therapies, including PD-1/PD-L1 inhibitors, which have demonstrated remarkable success in cancers like triple-negative breast cancer (TNBC).

The KEYNOTE clinical trials have provided substantial evidence supporting the efficacy of PD-L1 inhibitors in TNBC, highlighting their potential in both early and advanced disease stages. While challenges remain, including immune resistance and tumor heterogeneity, ongoing research and combination therapies hold promise for improving patient outcomes.

Overall, the integration of metabolic modulators, immune checkpoint inhibitors, and monoclonal antibodies continues to shape the future of cancer immunotherapy. With further advancements and clinical trials, immunotherapy is poised to become an even more effective and personalized treatment approach, offering hope for patients with aggressive and hard-to-treat cancers.

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