

Systematic Review **Immune Checkpoint Inhibitors in Glioblastoma IDHwt Treatment: A Systematic Review**

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Simple Summary: We present a systematic review of the clinical trials of immune checkpoint inhibitors in GBM. This collates a substantial amount of data in a fashion that is manageable for the reader. It is anticipated that this will have value for the clinician managing this patient population, the clinical trialist contemplating the next therapeutic trials, and the scientist considering future investigations in immunotherapy.

Abstract: Purpose: A glioblastoma (GBM) is a primary brain tumor with significant unmet therapeutic needs. Immune checkpoint inhibitors (ICIs) have marked therapeutic benefits in many different cancers but have yet to show benefit for most GBM patients in phase III trials. Methods: A systematic review querying ClinicalTrials.gov for prospective clinical trials investigating ICI in GBM between 1950 and July 2024 was performed. Search terms comprised 11 distinct ICIs. Data abstracted include clinical trial NCT numbers with study titles and status, enrollment information, interventions, and more. Clinical trial identifying information, interventions, and outcomes were extracted. Results: One hundred and seventeen clinical trials were identified; four were phase 3. Most involved PD-1 or CTLA-4 blockade as monotherapy or in combination with standard-of-care. The large, randomized trials included CHECKMATE 143, CHECKMATE 498, CHECKMATE 548, and NRG BN007. These showed no improvement in median overall survival or progression-free survival in unselected patients. Biomarker-directed analyses suggest that a subset of GBM patients may benefit. Conclusions: ICI for the treatment of GBM has not demonstrated clear evidence of efficacy thus far. This review serves as a quick reference of ICI trial results in GBM. Biomarker-driven patient selection and/or novel approaches to overcome resistance mechanisms remain areas of viable inquiry.

Keywords: CTLA4; PD1; PD-L1; PD-L2; LAG3; glioblastoma; immune checkpoint inhibition

1. Introduction

Glioblastoma IDH wild-type (GBM) is a primary central nervous system (CNS) tumor characterized by diffuse infiltration, high cellular proliferation, and heterogeneity of genomic features. Fc-enhanced anti-CTLA-4, anti-PD-1, doxorubicin, and ultrasoundmediated BBB opening are novel combinatorial immunotherapy regimens for gliomas. The current standard of care involves maximum safe surgical resection, radiation, temozolomide, and tumor-treating fields in the newly diagnosed setting [\[1](#page-19-0)[,2\]](#page-19-1). In progressive

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disease, the optimal management is less clearly defined, but the nitrosourea CCNU is commonly used [\[3\]](#page-19-2).

We review the mechanisms whereby immune checkpoints regulate and impede antitumor immune responses. This is followed by a systematic review of the clinical trials in which immune checkpoint inhibitors (ICIs) have been evaluated in patients with a GBM that predominantly focused on cytotoxic T lymphocyte-associated protein 4 (CTLA-4) and programmed death 1 (PD-1). A comprehensive understanding of what has been clinically evaluated informs rational decision-making on future strategies. Finally, we briefly review potential mechanisms that have impeded the success of ICIs for the treatment of GBMs and biomarkers that may be selected for responsive patients.

1.1. T Cell Activation and Inhibitory Pathways

T cells contribute to the primary adaptive anti-tumor response. Antigen-presenting cells (APCs) present antigens on major histocompatibility complexes (MHCs) located on the cell surface. Broadly, MHC class I (MHC I) presents endogenous peptides, while MHC class II (MHC II) presents antigens phagocytosed by the APCs. When an APC presents an antigen on the MHC complex that has sufficient affinity for a T cell receptor (TCR), additional signals determine the activation status of the T cell [\[4\]](#page-19-3). Co-stimulation of T cells can lead to cytokine release and cytotoxicity; however, insufficient co-stimulation or expression of immune checkpoints triggers T cell anergy. With subsequent rounds of stimulation, immune checkpoints become upregulated to generate a state of immune exhaustion that down-regulates immune responses. CTLA-4 on the T cell signals through the immunoreceptor tyrosine-based inhibitory motif domain when it binds to B7 on other cells, thereby suppressing function [\[5\]](#page-19-4). The endogenous function of PD-1 is to act as a negative regulator of the immune response by binding to its ligands, PD-L1 or PD-L2, which are expressed on various cells, including cancer cells, normal non-immune cells, and some immune cells, including dendritic cells and B-cells. This binding leads to the inhibition of T cell activation and proliferation. T cell exhaustion is a state in which antitumor effector responses cannot be re-invigorated with ICI and is particularly problematic in GBM [\[6\]](#page-20-0). Blocking CTLA-4 and/or PD-1 increases net T cell activation [\[7\]](#page-20-1). There have been several pivotal trials that have demonstrated the efficacy of ICIs by improving overall survival (OS), progression-free survival (PFS), and landmark survival in the treatment of non-CNS cancers [\[8](#page-20-2)[–15\]](#page-20-3).

An overview of current Food and Drug Administration (FDA)-approved ICIs within the United States is displayed in Figure [1.](#page-1-0) In 2011, ipilimumab became the first CTLA-4 inhibiting drug to receive regulatory approval [\[16\]](#page-20-4). Many other ICIs subsequently followed. More recently, other checkpoints have gained interest, including lymphocyte activation gene 3 (LAG-3) [\[17\]](#page-20-5), which is targeted with relatlimab and is now approved to treat advanced melanoma in combination with nivolumab [\[18\]](#page-20-6). This checkpoint, however, has limited expression in GBMs and is even less frequently expressed in lower-grade infiltrating gliomas [\[19\]](#page-20-7).

[,] FDA, United States Food and Drug Administration; CTLA-4, cytotoxic-T-lymphocyte associated protein 4; PD1, programmed death 1; PD-L1, programmed death ligand 1; PD-L2
programmed death ligand 2; LAG3, lymphocyte activatio

Figure 1. Immune checkpoint inhibitor molecular targets and FDA approval timeline. **Figure 1.** Immune checkpoint inhibitor molecular targets and FDA approval timeline.

1.2. Role of Myeloid Cells in GBM Tumor Microenvironment

The role of myeloid cells, such as macrophages, is central to the tumor microenvironment. Even compared to T cells, as mentioned prior, myeloid cells may play a more prominent role in GBMs. Their role is more extensively elaborated upon in the Discussion section of this paper.

2. Materials and Methods

A systematic review was conducted utilizing ClinicalTrials.gov and queried for all relevant clinical trials corresponding to the designated search terms. Search terms were limited to therapeutic agents with regulatory approval in the United States. None of these agents have regulatory approval for GBM. All studies published between 1950 and April 2024 were screened, and applicable studies underwent data abstraction and analysis. Unique searches were run for each of the following terms corresponding to the appropriate ICI, with the search yielding the following number of articles:

- 1. "nivolumab "AND "glioblastoma"—39 articles;
- 2. "pembrolizumab" AND "glioblastoma"—38 articles;
- 3. "ipilimumab" AND "glioblastoma"—19 articles;
- 4. "avelumab" AND "glioblastoma"—5 articles;
- 5. "durvalumab" AND "glioblastoma"—4 articles;
- 6. "tislelizumab" AND "glioblastoma"—4 articles;
- 7. "cemiplimab" AND "glioblastoma"—3 articles;
- 8. "tremelimumab" AND "glioblastoma"—1 article;
- 9. "dostarlimab" AND "glioblastoma"—0 articles;
- 10. "toripalimab" AND "glioblastoma"—0 articles;
- 11. "relatlimab" AND "glioblastoma"—3 articles.

The data were extracted by three independent reviewers (AB, OK, and OV) who conducted individual searches on <clinicaltrials.gov> using the search strategy described above. After completing the search, the authors convened to discuss whether the identified studies met the inclusion criteria. The criteria were as follows: (1) articles published after 1950, (2) studies involving patients diagnosed with glioblastoma multiforme, and (3) trials involving FDA-approved immune checkpoint inhibitors. Initial trials were retrieved for further analysis, as illustrated in the flowchart in Figure [1.](#page-1-0) RL subsequently reviewed and independently verified that all articles met the inclusion criteria, performing an additional quality check to ensure that all identified clinical trials involved immune checkpoint inhibitors currently used in clinical practice. The search strategy, along with the number of relevant articles identified through each search term, is outlined in the Section [2.](#page-2-0) Of note, each study had an assigned designation, such as active, recruiting, not recruiting, etc. Some studies were designated withdrawn or suspended for a variety of reasons, including lack of patient recruitment or sufficient funding.

Data abstracted from individual articles included clinical trial identifying information such as NCT numbers, study titles, study status, agents investigated, and conditions investigated that were filtered by 'glioblastoma', interventions, study phase, enrollment population, and start date. Additional information abstracted by reviewers included study sponsor, primary outcomes, and secondary outcomes data where relevant, along with molecular mechanisms of various agents utilized in the clinical trials. We have created and included a flow chart detailing our methodology for study selection. Please see the flowchart in Figure [2.](#page-3-0)

Figure 2. PRISMA flow diagram for systematic reviews, which included searches of databases and **Figure 2.** PRISMA flow diagram for systematic reviews, which included searches of databases and registers only. registers only.

3. Results 3. Results

the flowchart in Figure 2.

In total, the search yielded 117 clinical trials. They are compiled in Table 1. Following this initial search, an additional search was performed to inspect the descriptions or biblithis initial search, an additional search was performed to inspect the descriptions or bib-ographies of articles for other studies, and none were identified. All 117 articles represented liographies of articles for articles for and none were identified. All 117 articles represents represented to the studies of α relevant clinical trials. In total, the search yielded 117 clinical trials. They are compiled in Table [1.](#page-3-1) Following

Table 1. Compilation of the agent(s) investigated with their identifying clinical trial number, phase, enrollment, study status, and timeline information.

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Agent Name NCT Number Study Title Study Status Interventions Phase Enrollment Start Date Durvalumab NCT02866747 A Study Evaluating the Association of Hypofractionated Stereotactic Radiation Therapy and Durvalumab for Patients with Recurrent Glioblastoma [\[104\]](#page-24-13) Active (not recruiting) Radiation Therapy, Durvalumab $1/2$ 108 17 January 2017 Durvalumab NCT04521686 Study of LY3410738 Administered to Patients with Advanced Solid Tumors With IDH1 or IDH2 Mutations [\[105\]](#page-24-14) Active (not recruiting) LY3410738, Gemcitabine, Cisplatin, Durvalumab 1 200 16 October 2020 Ipilimumab NCT02017717 A Study of the Effectiveness and Safety of Nivolumab Compared to Bevacizumab and of Nivolumab with or Without Ipilimumab in Glioblastoma Patients [\[20\]](#page-20-8) Active (not recruiting) Nivolumab, Bevacizumab, Ipilimumab 3 529 7 February 2014 Ipilimumab NCT02311920 Ipilimumab and/or Nivolumab in Combination with Temozolomide in Treating Patients with Newly Diagnosed Glioblastoma or Gliosarcoma [\[23\]](#page-20-11) Completed Ipilimumab, Nivolumab, Temozolomide 1 32 16 April 2015 Ipilimumab NCT02794883 Tremelimumab and Durvalumab in Combination or Alone in Treating Patients with Recurrent Malignant Glioma [\[103\]](#page-24-12) Completed Durvalumab, Durvarumab, 2 36
Tremelimumab 1 November 2016 Ipilimumab NCT03233152 Intra-tumoral Ipilimumab Plus Intravenous Nivolumab Following the Resection of Recurrent Glioblastoma [\[30\]](#page-21-3) Unknown Ipilimumab, Nivolumab, 1 110 17 November 2016 Ipilimumab NCT03879512 Autologous Dendritic Cells, Metronomic Cyclophosphamide and Checkpoint Blockade in Children with Relapsed HGG [\[31\]](#page-21-4) Recruiting Dendric cells, Cyclophosphamide, Ipilimumab $1/2$ 25 7 February 2018 Ipilimumab NCT03367715 Nivolumab, Ipilimumab, and Short-course Radiotherapy in Adults with Newly Diagnosed, MGMT Unmethylated Glioblastoma [\[32\]](#page-21-5) Completed Nivolumab, Ipilimumab, Radiation therapy 2 10 7 February 2018 Ipilimumab NCT03493932 Cytokine Microdialysis for Real-Time Immune Monitoring in Glioblastoma Patients Undergoing Checkpoint Blockade [\[37\]](#page-21-10) Completed Nivolumab, BMS-986016 1 21 24 September 2018 Ipilimumab NCT03422094 Neoantigen-based Personalized Vaccine Combined with Immune Checkpoint Blockade Therapy in Patients with Newly Diagnosed, Unmethylated Glioblastoma [\[39\]](#page-21-12) Terminated NeoVax, Nivolumab, Ipilimumab 1 3 31 October 2018

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Table 1. *Cont.*

Among the late-stage clinical trials identified, one was phase 2/3, and three were phase 3, of which progression-free survival (PFS) and median overall survival (mOS) are compiled in Table [2.](#page-15-0)

Table 2. Phase 3 Trials of Immune Checkpoint Inhibitors for Glioblastoma.

Limitations

Limitations include the fact that the search strategy was limited to agents with U.S. FDA regulatory approval for cancer. This allowed a focus on agents extensively studied

for safety and have demonstrated efficacy in other malignancies. If efficacious, these ICIs could be rapidly implemented for routine use in GBM. This narrow focus avoids the pitfall of including less extensively studied ICI while inadvertently not including others, creating an imbalanced perspective. Nonetheless, such an approach has the potential to highlight agents with substantial promise for patients with GBM.

4. Discussion

4.1. Summary of Clinical Outcomes in GBM

Several studies have examined the role of ICIs in the treatment of GBM. The majority of these have focused on PD-1 blockade in both the newly diagnosed and recurrent settings. Treatment ranged from monotherapy to multi-modality regimens incorporating surgery, radiation therapy, chemotherapy, tumor treating fields, and other immunotherapies.

The largest of these studies utilized the PD-1 antibody, nivolumab, with or without the CTLA-4 antibody, ipilimumab. CHECKMATE 143 was a multi-arm randomized phase 3 trial with cohorts for newly diagnosed and recurrent GBM. A variety of therapeutic regimens were investigated. One cohort for recurrent GBM compared nivolumab vs. bevacizumab, but the mOS was similar (9.8 vs. 10.0 months, hazard ratio (HR) = 1.04, *p* = 0.76) [\[115\]](#page-25-1). Another smaller cohort ($n = 40$) of recurrent GBM patients compared nivolumab (3 mg/kg) vs. nivolumab $(1 \text{ mg/kg}) +$ ipilimumab (3 mg/kg) and found the combination to have worse tolerability. A non-randomized cohort using alternate dosing of nivolumab $(3 \text{ mg/kg}) + \text{ipilimumab}$ (1 mg/kg) was found to be better tolerated $[116]$ and influenced the subsequent dosing regimen of the combination in the NRG BN007 trial. This same CHECKMATE 143 trial also included a large (*n* = 136) exploratory phase 1 component evaluating nivolumab + radiotherapy +/− temozolomide in newly diagnosed GBM. This cohort demonstrated no new safety signals and promising OS in the various subgroups [\[116\]](#page-25-2), leading to further exploration of ICI-based approaches in two definitive phase 3 trials for newly diagnosed GBM. CHECKMATE 548 evaluated the efficacy of nivolumab, radiation, and temozolomide in MGMT promoter methylated newly diagnosed GBM [\[117\]](#page-25-3). Simultaneously, CHECK-MATE 498 evaluated the efficacy of nivolumab and radiation (omitting temozolomide from the regimen) in MGMT promoter unmethylated newly diagnosed GBM [\[118\]](#page-25-4). Both large, randomized trials were negative without significant improvement in OS or PFS relative to standard of care. Neither study allowed for tumor-treating fields, which had previously been shown to improve OS when added to standard-of-care, and for which there are suggestions of possible synergy with ICI [\[119,](#page-25-5)[120\]](#page-25-6). The NRG BN007 phase 2/3 trial evaluated the combination of nivolumab and ipilimumab using the better-tolerated dosing regimen explored in CHECKMATE 143 and allowing the use of tumor-treating fields at the treating physicians' discretion in newly diagnosed MGMT promoter unmethylated GBM. However, this study also showed no improvement PFS after completion of the phase 2 component [\[121\]](#page-25-7). OS data are still pending at this time of manuscript completion.

There is an incomplete understanding of the prevalence of the aforementioned markers' prevalence of expression (for example, PD-1, PD-L1, CTLA-4, and ligands CD80 or CD86) in different GBM stages or subtypes (as defined by methylation class), be it newly diagnosed or recurrent/progressive, or after specific treatments (post-radiation vs. post-chemotherapy). This is due to a combination of the dynamic expression of these checkpoints and the difficulty in obtaining repeated tumor tissue samples (particularly when not clinically indicated). However, it has been shown that expression of the markers such as PD-L1 can vary broadly (0–87% of cells in human GBM samples) with a median near \sim 3% (viewed as "positive" PD-L1 expression in other cancers). PD1 and PD-L1 expression in human gliomas appears to be predominantly present on CD8+ and CD4+ T cells, with minimal expression on glioma cells [\[122\]](#page-25-8). In turn, it is unsurprising that the overall PD1/PDL1 expression in these tumors is low as lymphocytes comprise only a very small portion of the tumor mass.

Furthermore, upon further examination, it is not reliably reported for each study how many patients with IDH wt GBM specifically were included in each trial. This is related to

the differing inclusion/exclusion criteria for each study. For example, one trial may specify "initial diagnosis of unmethylated glioblastoma", and another may simply list "stage IV glioblastoma" without further detail. Therefore, we are not able to decisively report this for all studies in Table [1.](#page-3-1)

4.2. Potential Predictive Biomarkers

There may be subsets of patients who selectively benefit from ICI. Considering several negative trials, it will be difficult to justify embarking on similarly sized studies in select subgroups. Nonetheless, biomarker studies may help inform how immunotherapeutic approaches could be advanced in GBM patients. Potential predictive biomarkers assessed for ICI benefit in GBM patients include tumor PD-L1/2 expression, CTLA-4 expression, mismatch repair deficiency (MMRd), tumor mutation burden (TMB), tumor-infiltrating lymphocytes, tumor-specific antibodies, and T cell functional markers [\[123\]](#page-25-9). In contrast to other malignancies, TMB is not a predictor of response to ICI in GBM [\[124\]](#page-25-10). Thus far, no biomarker has been prospectively validated in this setting.

Since standard immune biomarkers have not been useful in GBM, researchers have searched for other indicators to identify responses to immunotherapy. In one such example, we reported longitudinal genomic and transcriptomic analysis of recurrent GBM patients, including long-term responders. Our group found that non-responders were significantly enriched for immunosuppressive phosphatase and tensin homolog (PTEN) mutations, while responders were more likely to have mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) pathway aberrancies including protein tyrosine phosphatase non-receptor type 11 (PTPN11) and B rapidly accelerated fibrosarcoma (BRAF) mutations [\[125\]](#page-25-11). Responders had greater T cell infiltration, and there was evidence of selection against neoepitopes in responders. Our subsequent study attempted to interrogate the mechanism by which BRAF and PTPN11 mutations might promote a response to ICIs in recurrent GBM [\[125\]](#page-25-11). We hypothesized that activation of MAP/ERK signaling downstream of BRAF and PTPN11 would be associated with an improved response to a PD-1 inhibitor. Immunohistochemistry for phosphorylated ERK1/2 (p-ERK) was predictive of OS in recurrent GBM patients treated with adjuvant PD-1 inhibition in two separate independent patient cohorts. sc-RNA-seq showed that p-ERK localized to tumor cells with an associated robust microglial infiltration, which exhibited antigen-presenting phenotype, that the investigators hypothesized contributes to the favorable response [\[126\]](#page-25-12). More recently, a Reporting Recommendations for Tumor Marker Prognostic Studies (REMARK)-criteria blinded analysis of p-ERK established that this biomarker predicted OS from a trial in which recurrent GBM patients underwent administration of cavitary and systemic anti-CTLA-4 and anti-PD1 treatments [\[127\]](#page-25-13). Previously, using murine models, our same group revealed that if glioma formation takes place in the absence of T cells, MAPK becomes activated in the resulting tumors, supporting that this signaling cascade promotes tumor immunogenicity [\[128\]](#page-25-14).

The aforementioned biomarkers could be leveraged in future clinical trials to enable more optimal personalized immunotherapeutic approaches and outcomes for patients with GBM. For example, prospective use of markers such as MAPK pathway activation (such as pERK) MMRd, CTLA-4, and PD-L1 or PD-L2 expression in clinical trials may help elucidate which patients may benefit from different ICI agents alone or as components of combinatorial regimens. It should be reinforced, however, that to date, prospective studies have yet to validate any single biomarker in this context, as noted previously. However, the incorporation of biomarkers in future trials remains a valuable area of investigation.

4.3. Neoadjuvant Monotherapy

In addition to patient selection, therapeutic timing may be a criterion for benefit. Two small studies have evaluated the role of ICIs in the neoadjuvant setting. One compared neoadjuvant and adjuvant pembrolizumab vs. adjuvant pembrolizumab monotherapy and showed a survival benefit in the neoadjuvant arm with a mOS of 14 months vs. 7.5 in the adjuvant-only arm. The results were hypothesized to be mediated by IFN- γ -mediated

T cell activation based on the results of single-cell RNA sequencing of tissue [\[129\]](#page-25-15). These findings may be due to imbalances in STING expression between the two arms. The second study from de Groot et al. studied therapeutic targeting with pembrolizumab monotherapy in GBM patients during a set "window-of-opportunity" for intervention, ultimately concluding that despite timely treatment, PD-1 monotherapy alone is not sufficient to mount an efficient anti-tumor immunologic response [\[130\]](#page-25-16).

4.4. Strategies for Reprogramming the GBM Tumor Microenvironment

GBM utilizes multiple redundant mechanisms of immune evasion to develop and thrive. These include the promotion of a relatively immunologically cold microenvironment, alteration of the peripheral immune system via lymphosuppression, genomic heterogeneity, and the blood-brain barrier (BBB) [\[131\]](#page-25-17). Immune checkpoint expression is one of several mechanisms for how GBM evades the immune system and contributes to the lack of success with ICI.

T cell exhaustion is characterized by the upregulation of multiple immune checkpoints and is not reversible [\[132\]](#page-25-18). Exhaustion is a significant mode of T cell dysfunction across cancers, especially in GBM, and highlights the need to address underlying mechanisms that contribute to tumor-imposed exhaustion to formulate effective immunotherapies [\[133\]](#page-25-19). Beyond direct effects on the T cells, other elements such as sequestration of the T cells outside the CNS [\[134\]](#page-25-20), diffuse immunosuppression throughout the CNS, which worsens with aging or treatments such as radiation therapy [\[135,](#page-26-0)[136\]](#page-26-1), and an overabundance of myeloid-derived immune cells with immunosuppressive polarization may serve as potential therapeutic targets.

Najem et al. studied the neoadjuvant STING agonist 8803 in multiple preclinical models, first as monotherapy in ICI-resistant models of mice with QPP8 tumors and second as combination therapy with STAT3 inhibitors or PD-1 inhibitors [\[137\]](#page-26-2). The 8803 molecule was administered directly into the GBM to circumvent the blood-brain barrier. In the study, 100% of mice with QPP8 tumors treated with 8803 were cured, demonstrating increased median overall survival. Mice treated with combination 8803 therapy with anti-PD-1 blockade demonstrated increased survival. In contrast, 8803 combination therapy with STAT3 inhibitors did not amplify the effects of STING agonism [\[137\]](#page-26-2). This may be unsurprising as STING agonism and STAAT3 inhibition can be viewed as complementary components of the same immune mechanism. This is somewhat analogous to a lack of additive benefit from combining PD-1 and PD-L1 blockade. Altogether, these findings demonstrate the potential for clinical translation of STING agonism in combination with PD-1/PD-L1 blockade in preclinical models and clinical trials.

4.5. Myeloid Cells

Myeloid cells, including macrophages and microglia, play a role in the immune evasion of GBM. Their role in creating an immunosuppressive tumor microenvironment in GBMs is of substantial importance and contributes to the attenuation of ICI.5 This may help to explain the results observed in many of the trials discussed above. Microglia/macrophages are the predominant type of immune cells that infiltrate GBM, and their capacity to be stimulated and activate antitumor effector T cells is not sufficient to initiate immune responses [\[138\]](#page-26-3). These myeloid cells are also a prominent type of immune cell that accounts for up to 50% of total cells in GBM, and their context-dependent interactions within GBM are pivotal for tumor growth and progression. Macrophage infiltration is closely correlated with vascular density in human gliomas [\[139\]](#page-26-4). These may prove to be a valid target in combinatorial regimens, which also either provide direct tumor cell cytotoxicity or immune stimulation in addition to abrogation of the immunosuppressive microenvironment.

Several groups have reported that a small dose of doxorubicin can have immunemodulating properties, activate the STING pathway [\[140](#page-26-5)[–142\]](#page-26-6), and enhance the response of cancer to ICI. Indeed, a recent clinical trial showed that compared to other induction regimens, low-dose doxorubicin doubled the response rate of breast cancer patients to antiPD1 [\[143\]](#page-26-7). Doxorubicin as an immune modulator has also been studied in GBM, including a recent report where we showed that in a cohort of GBM treated with doxorubicin, anti-PD1 ICI, and ultrasound-based blood-brain barrier opening, doxorubicin promoted the expression of MHC antigen-presenting molecules the tumor cells tumor-associated microglia and IFN-gamma expression by microglia infiltrating T cells [\[144\]](#page-26-8).

5. Conclusions

ICI has demonstrated success across a variety of malignancies. To date, similar results have not been observed in patients with GBM. An understanding of previous clinical investigations and their results, paired with an understanding of correlative and preclinical studies, can help guide the next steps in the investigation. Future approaches that use ICI in high-grade glioma may focus on using these agents as an adjunct in mechanistically rational combinations. Due to the well-understood mechanism of action, reasonable safety profile, and substantial experience with these agents in the neuro-oncology field, ICI may be easily incorporated into investigations of other therapeutic treatment approaches for glioblastoma.

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