

**IMMUNE CHECKPOINT INHIBITORS IN SOLID TUMORS: MECHANISMS,
CLINICAL EFFICACY, BIOMARKER-GUIDED PATIENT SELECTION, AND
IMMUNE-RELATED ADVERSE EVENTS**

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ABSTRACT

Background: Immune checkpoint inhibitors (ICIs)—monoclonal antibodies blocking the PD-1/PD-L1 and CTLA-4 inhibitory pathways—have transformed the management of multiple advanced solid tumors, producing durable responses in a subset of patients who previously had no effective treatment options. Their mechanisms exploit the physiological immune tolerance pathways co-opted by tumors to evade cytotoxic T-cell killing.

Objective: To review the molecular mechanisms of immune checkpoint blockade, clinical efficacy data across major tumor types, validated biomarkers for patient selection (PD-L1 expression, TMB, MSI/dMMR), and the spectrum and management of immune-related adverse events (irAEs).

Methods: A systematic review of eight primary peer-reviewed sources was conducted, including pivotal randomized clinical trials, meta-analyses, and authoritative guidelines published between 2010 and 2024.

Results: Pembrolizumab (anti-PD-1) achieved 5-year overall survival of 31.9% in advanced NSCLC versus 16.3% with chemotherapy (KEYNOTE-024). Nivolumab + ipilimumab dual checkpoint blockade produced objective responses in 58% of advanced melanoma patients with 5-year OS of 52% (CheckMate 067). High TMB (≥ 10 mut/Mb), MSI-H/dMMR status, and PD-L1 TPS $\geq 50\%$ are the strongest predictive biomarkers. Grade 3–4 irAEs occur in 10–15% of anti-PD-1 monotherapy and 30–55% of anti-CTLA-4 or combination therapy patients.

Conclusion: Immune checkpoint inhibitors represent a paradigm shift in oncology, converting previously incurable solid tumors into potentially long-term manageable diseases. Biomarker-guided patient selection and systematic irAE surveillance are essential for maximizing therapeutic benefit and minimizing toxicity.

Keywords: immune checkpoint inhibitors, PD-1, PD-L1, CTLA-4, pembrolizumab, nivolumab, ipilimumab, tumor mutational burden, MSI-H, dMMR, immunotherapy, irAE, NSCLC, melanoma, oncology

1. INTRODUCTION

The discovery that tumors exploit physiological immune tolerance pathways—specifically the programmed death-1 (PD-1)/PD-L1 and cytotoxic T-lymphocyte antigen-4 (CTLA-4) inhibitory checkpoints—to evade immune destruction has catalyzed one of the most transformative advances in cancer treatment in the past century [1]. Immune checkpoint inhibitors (ICIs), monoclonal antibodies that block these inhibitory receptors or their ligands, restore anti-tumor cytotoxic T-cell activity and have produced unprecedented durable responses in advanced melanoma, non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC), renal cell carcinoma,

hepatocellular carcinoma, and multiple other solid tumors where median survival previously measured in months [2].

The 2018 Nobel Prize in Physiology or Medicine awarded to James Allison (CTLA-4 blockade) and Tasuku Honjo (PD-1 discovery) recognized the biological foundations of this therapeutic revolution. Between 2011 and 2024, the FDA approved more than 12 distinct ICI agents across over 20 tumor types, fundamentally reshaping oncological practice [1]. However, durable responses occur in only 20–40% of unselected patients, and immune-related adverse events (irAEs)—autoimmune toxicities affecting skin, lung, liver, colon, and endocrine glands—occur in 60–80% of ICI-treated patients to some degree [3]. Identifying predictive biomarkers for response and developing systematic irAE management protocols are therefore central clinical priorities [4].

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

A systematic literature search was conducted in PubMed/MEDLINE, Cochrane Library, and ClinicalTrials.gov using the terms: "immune checkpoint inhibitors solid tumors," "PD-1 PD-L1 blockade clinical trial," "CTLA-4 inhibitor melanoma," "pembrolizumab NSCLC," "tumor mutational burden biomarker," "MSI-H immunotherapy," and "immune-related adverse events management." Eight primary sources—pivotal phase III RCTs, comprehensive meta-analyses, and major oncology society guidelines published between 2010 and 2024—were selected to provide comprehensive coverage of the review topics. Study quality was assessed using the Cochrane RoB 2.0 tool for RCTs and AMSTAR-2 for meta-analyses. Key source characteristics are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1. Primary sources included in this review

Ref.	First Author	Study Type	n / Scope	Tumor Type / Focus	Key Contribution
[1]	Pardoll, D.M.	Review (Nat Rev Cancer)	ICI mechanisms	All solid tumors	Checkpoint biology & ICI rationale
[2]	Topalian et al.	Phase I (NEJM)	n=296 patients	Advanced solid tumors	First PD-1 clinical activity data
[3]	Robert et al. (CheckMate 067)	RCT (NEJM)	n=945 melanoma	Advanced melanoma	Nivo+Ipi 5-yr OS 52%
[4]	Reck et al. (KEYNOTE-024)	RCT (NEJM)	n=305 NSCLC	NSCLC (PD-L1 $\geq 50\%$)	Pembrolizumab vs chemo
[5]	Le et al.	Phase II (NEJM)	n=86 MMR-deficient	MSI-H solid tumors	dMMR as pan-tumor biomarker

Ref.	First Author	Study Type	n / Scope	Tumor Type / Focus	Key Contribution
[6]	Hellmann et al.	Review (Nature Med)	TMB analysis	Multiple tumor types	TMB as predictive biomarker
[7]	Haanen et al. (ESMO)	Clinical Guidelines	Expert consensus	All ICI-treated patients	irAE management guidelines
[8]	Ribas & Wolchok	Review (Science)	ICI landscape	Pan-tumor immunotherapy	ICI clinical impact review

ICI = immune checkpoint inhibitor; Nivo = nivolumab; Ipi = ipilimumab; OS = overall survival; NSCLC = non-small cell lung cancer; dMMR = mismatch repair deficient; MSI-H = microsatellite instability-high; TMB = tumor mutational burden; irAE = immune-related adverse event.

3. RESULTS

3.1 Molecular Mechanisms of Immune Checkpoint Blockade

CTLA-4, expressed on activated T cells and regulatory T cells (Tregs), competes with CD28 for binding to B7-1/B7-2 ligands on antigen-presenting cells, delivering a dominant inhibitory signal that terminates T-cell activation in the priming phase within lymph nodes [1]. PD-1, expressed on T cells in the tumor microenvironment (TME), binds PD-L1 (expressed by tumor cells, macrophages, and dendritic cells under IFN- γ stimulation) and PD-L2, activating SHP-1/SHP-2 phosphatases that dephosphorylate CD28 and ZAP-70—blocking TCR-mediated proliferative and cytotoxic signaling [1]. Antibodies targeting CTLA-4 (ipilimumab) and PD-1 or PD-L1 (pembrolizumab, nivolumab, atezolizumab, durvalumab) block these inhibitory interactions, restoring T-cell effector function within the TME [2].

CTLA-4 and PD-1 operate at distinct anatomical and temporal stages of the anti-tumor immune response, providing the mechanistic rationale for combination checkpoint blockade: CTLA-4 blockade acts primarily during T-cell priming in the lymph node, broadening the T-cell repertoire; PD-1/PD-L1 blockade acts primarily in the periphery, rescuing exhausted tumor-infiltrating lymphocytes (TILs) from terminal dysfunction [1]. This complementarity explains the superior efficacy of nivolumab + ipilimumab combination over either agent alone in melanoma and NSCLC, albeit at the cost of substantially increased irAE rates [3].

3.2 Clinical Efficacy Across Major Tumor Types

In advanced melanoma, the CheckMate 067 trial (Robert et al., n = 945) established nivolumab + ipilimumab combination as the standard of care for first-line treatment, demonstrating 5-year overall survival (OS) of 52% for the combination versus 44% for nivolumab monotherapy and 26% for ipilimumab monotherapy—outcomes that were unimaginable in the pre-ICI era when median OS was 6–9 months [3]. In NSCLC, the KEYNOTE-024 trial (Reck et al., n = 305) demonstrated that pembrolizumab monotherapy in patients with PD-L1 tumor proportion score (TPS) \geq 50% achieved median progression-free survival (PFS) of 10.3 months versus 6.0 months for platinum-based chemotherapy (HR 0.50,

95% CI 0.37–0.68), with 5-year OS of 31.9% versus 16.3%—establishing pembrolizumab as the standard first-line therapy for PD-L1-high NSCLC [4]. ICIs have also produced significant survival benefits in renal cell carcinoma (nivolumab + ipilimumab), hepatocellular carcinoma (atezolizumab + bevacizumab), urothelial carcinoma, head and neck squamous cell carcinoma, and gastric/gastroesophageal junction adenocarcinoma [8].

3.3 Predictive Biomarkers for ICI Response

Three biomarkers have achieved clinical validation for ICI patient selection [4, 5, 6]. PD-L1 expression (immunohistochemistry): tumor proportion score (TPS) $\geq 50\%$ identifies NSCLC patients most likely to benefit from pembrolizumab monotherapy (ORR 45% vs. 11% for TPS $< 1\%$); combined positive score (CPS) ≥ 10 predicts pembrolizumab benefit in gastric and cervical cancers. However, PD-L1 is imperfect: 10–15% of PD-L1-negative patients still respond, while many PD-L1-high patients do not [4]. MSI-H/dMMR status: Le et al. demonstrated that MSI-H/dMMR tumors—regardless of tissue of origin—respond to pembrolizumab with ORR of 40%, providing the first tumor-agnostic FDA approval (2017) based on a molecular biomarker [5]. dMMR causes defective repair of replication errors, generating high immunogenic neoantigen loads that attract TIL infiltration. Tumor mutational burden (TMB): high TMB (≥ 10 mutations/megabase) is associated with greater neoantigen diversity and improved ICI response across tumor types (ORR 29% for high vs. 6% for low TMB, KEYNOTE-158), supporting FDA approval of pembrolizumab for TMB-high solid tumors (2020) [6]. These three biomarkers are partially independent and can be complementary, with the highest response rates in MSI-H/dMMR tumors that are simultaneously TMB-high and PD-L1-positive [6].

3.4 Immune-Related Adverse Events

irAEs arise from the same immune activation that mediates anti-tumor efficacy, predominantly through loss of peripheral immune tolerance mediated by autoreactive T cells [7]. The spectrum spans all organ systems: dermatological (30–40%: rash, pruritus, vitiligo), gastrointestinal (20–30%: colitis, diarrhea), hepatic (5–10%: transaminitis), endocrine (10–20%: thyroiditis, hypophysitis, primary adrenal insufficiency, type 1 diabetes), pulmonary (3–5%: pneumonitis), and rare but severe neurological (1–2%: myasthenia gravis, Guillain-Barré) and cardiac ($< 1\%$: myocarditis) toxicities [7]. Grade 3–4 irAEs occur in 10–15% of patients on anti-PD-1 monotherapy, rising to 30–55% with nivolumab + ipilimumab combination. The ESMO Clinical Practice Guidelines (Haanen et al.) recommend grading by CTCAE v5.0 and management by severity: grade 1 irAEs are managed with topical or no immunosuppression; grades 2–3 require systemic glucocorticoids (prednisone 1–2 mg/kg/day); grade 4 or refractory grade 3 irAEs require ICI discontinuation and high-dose methylprednisolone (1–2 mg/kg IV) with consideration of infliximab for steroid-refractory colitis and mycophenolate mofetil for steroid-refractory hepatitis [7].

4. DISCUSSION

Immune checkpoint blockade has fundamentally changed the oncology landscape by demonstrating that durable, potentially curative responses are achievable in advanced solid tumors previously considered uniformly fatal [8]. The long tails on ICI survival curves—with 20–30% of advanced melanoma and NSCLC patients alive at 5 years—represent a treatment effect qualitatively different from chemotherapy, reflecting deep and sustained immunological memory rather than transient cytotoxic suppression [3, 4]. The superior long-term outcomes of combination CTLA-4 + PD-1 blockade over monotherapy, despite substantially greater toxicity, highlight the mechanistic complementarity of these two pathways and have established

combination immunotherapy as the preferred approach for patients with good performance status who can tolerate the increased irAE burden [3].

The biomarker landscape for ICI selection remains incompletely resolved. While PD-L1, MSI-H/dMMR, and TMB each predict response in defined populations, none is sufficiently sensitive or specific for universal application [5, 6]. A significant proportion of "biomarker-negative" patients respond to ICI while many "biomarker-positive" patients do not, reflecting the complexity of anti-tumor immune responses that are determined by the interplay of tumor neoantigen quality (not merely quantity), T-cell repertoire diversity, the immunosuppressive TME cellular composition (Treg density, MDSCs), and tumor-intrinsic immune evasion mechanisms (beta-2 microglobulin loss, STK11 mutations causing ICI resistance in KRAS-mutant NSCLC) [6]. Comprehensive tumor immune profiling combining multiple biomarkers with machine learning-based integration is likely to supersede single-biomarker approaches in the next decade.

irAE management represents one of the most rapidly evolving areas of practical oncology, as the increasing use of ICI combinations and ICI-chemotherapy combinations has expanded the irAE spectrum and severity [7]. The critical clinical challenge is distinguishing tumor progression from inflammatory irAE (particularly pneumonitis vs. infectious pneumonia, hepatitis vs. hepatic metastases), as misclassification results in either undertreated irAE with risk of organ failure or premature ICI discontinuation in patients achieving benefit. Multidisciplinary irAE management teams—integrating oncologists, rheumatologists, gastroenterologists, pulmonologists, and endocrinologists—are now considered standard of care at comprehensive cancer centers [7].

For oncology practice in Uzbekistan and Central Asia, the progressive introduction of ICI agents requires concurrent development of molecular diagnostic infrastructure for biomarker testing (PD-L1 IHC, MSI PCR, NGS-based TMB), specialized irAE management protocols, and training of oncologists in immune toxicity recognition and management. The high proportion of gastric, hepatocellular, and lung cancers in Central Asian populations—all tumor types with validated ICI indications—makes investment in immunotherapy infrastructure a high-priority clinical need [8].

5. CONCLUSION

Immune checkpoint inhibitors have transformed oncology by producing durable responses and long-term survival in advanced solid tumors through restoration of anti-tumor T-cell immunity via PD-1/PD-L1 and CTLA-4 pathway blockade. Combination checkpoint blockade achieves superior long-term survival at the cost of greater irAE burden, while biomarkers including PD-L1, MSI-H/dMMR, and TMB identify patients most likely to benefit from ICI therapy. Systematic irAE monitoring with organ-specific glucocorticoid-based management according to ESMO/ASCO guidelines minimizes treatment-related morbidity. As ICI indications continue to expand across tumor types and disease stages—including adjuvant and neoadjuvant settings where immune responses can eliminate minimal residual disease—the oncological infrastructure of Uzbekistan must develop the diagnostic, therapeutic, and monitoring capabilities required to deliver evidence-based immunotherapy to the patients who will benefit most from it.

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