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Effectiveness and safety of COVID-19 vaccines in patients with oncological diseases:
State-of-art

Ivanov N et al COVID-19 vaccines in oncological patients

#### Abstract

Although the coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) pandemic was declared to be no longer "a public health emergency of international concern" with its wide range of clinical manifestations and late complications, severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 infection proved to be a serious threat, especially to the elderly and patients with comorbidities. Patients with oncologic diseases are vulnerable to severe infection and death. Indeed, patients with oncohematological diseases have a higher risk of severe COVID-19 and impaired post-vaccination immunity. Unfortunately, cancer patients are usually excluded from vaccine trials and investigations of postvaccinal immune responses and the effectiveness of the vaccines. We aimed to elucidate to what extent patients with cancer are at increased risk of developing severe COVID-19 and what is their overall case fatality rate. We also present the current concept and evidence on the effectiveness and safety of COVID-19 vaccines, including boosters, in oncology patients. In conclusion, despite the considerably higher mortality in the cancer patients group than the general population, countries with high vaccination rates have demonstrated trends toward improved survival of cancer patients early and late in the pandemic.

**Key Words:** COVID-19; COVID-19 vaccines; RNA vaccines; Cancer; Oncological; Safety; efficacy; Immunogenicity

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Core Tip: The coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) pandemic had an enormous impact on the lives of cancer patients. Medical care for them has been challenging, given the competing risks of death from cancer and serious complications from severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2). Cancer patients are at high risk for severe complications from COVID-19 and mortality. Protective SARS-CoV-2 antibodies and cellular immune response are induced after infection or/and COVID-19 vaccination. Vaccines decrease the risk of hospitalization and death from COVID-19, including for cancer patients. There are evidence that the virus can persist in people with compromised immune system, which may lead to the rise of new variants. Therefore, vaccination of specific vulnerable groups, such as oncological patients, and all people in general, will slow the virus spread and save lives.

#### 24 INTRODUCTION

The coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) pandemic has considerably impacted cancer patients' lives. Medical care for them has been challenging because of the competing risks of death from cancer or serious complications from severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) and the likely higher lethality in immunocompromised hosts<sup>[1,2]</sup>. Furthermore, patients diagnosed with malignancies are at higher risk for developing severe COVID-19<sup>[3]</sup> and fatal outcomes due to the disease. Studies have demonstrated variable mortality rates among subjects with hematological cancers and solid tumors, with some reporting fatality cases of as much as 40% of the infected subjects<sup>[4]</sup>. Despite this considerably higher mortality than the one observed in the general population, trends towards improved survival during the evolution of the pandemic have already been demonstrated in Europe, and much of this could be a direct result of the rigorous COVID-19 vaccination in this region<sup>[5]</sup>.

Since the beginning of the pandemic, hundreds of different therapeutic options have been studied: Well-known in the treatment of other diseases reoriented drugs. Amongst them are remdesivir, initially developed for hepatitis C treatment; tocilizumabrheumatoid arthritis, hydroxychloroquine-malaria, lupus, etc.), corticosteroids, plasma from donors who have recovered from COVID-19, monoclonal antibodies (casirivimab + imdevimab, bamlanivimab, sotrovimab, cilgavimab + tixagevimab, etc.), JAK inhibitors (baricitinib), even mesenchymal stem cells<sup>[6,7]</sup>. Targeting both the virus itself and the host's immune response with variable effectiveness during the different stages of the disease. However, prevention in the form of COVID vaccines remains the most desirable option for the general population both in long-term health-related and financial terms. Cancer patients are no exception in this regard. But exactly how effective are vaccines in cancer patients compared to the general population? This is the question we will try to answer.

In this review, we aimed to elucidate to what extent patients with cancer are at increased risk of developing severe COVID-19 and what is their overall case fatality rate. We also present the current concept and evidence on the effectiveness and safety of COVID-19 vaccines, including boosters, in oncology patients.

#### <sup>5</sup> SEARCH STRATEGY

We performed a modified form of a biomedical narrative review according to recent recommendations for writing<sup>[8]</sup>. First, we thoroughly searched scientific bibliographic databases Medline (PubMed) and Scopus. We used relevant free-text and MeSH terms, as follows: ("COVID-19" OR "SARS-CoV-2") AND ("cancer patients" OR "oncological patients") AND ("COVID-19 vaccine" OR "mRNA vaccine"). We confined the search from January 1, 2020, to June 20, 2023. Secondly, we identified additional papers using the search engine Google Scholar. Information from advisory committee meetings was also added.

## COVID-19 AND PATIENTS WITH ONCOLOGICAL DISEASES

Patients with oncologic diseases are affected by SARS-CoV-2 in many different ways. Like many other infections, COVID-19 poses an additional risk of a fatal outcome for cancer patients. However, it is challenging to say to what extent patients with

malignancies are threatened by complications of severe infections. As oncological diseases and treatment protocols are extremely diverse, it can be expected that the course of SARS-CoV2 infection would also be quite different<sup>[9-11]</sup>.

The stage of the disease, the type of malignancy, and the sort and the phase of the applied treatment modalities (surgery, chemotherapy, radiation therapy, and immunotherapy) introduce even more variables, respectively-more superimposing confounding factors and make this group of patients even more heterogeneous and difficult for overall risk assessment. Studies show that cancer patients who have recently undergone surgery or chemotherapy (especially during the induction phase with high-dose intensive regimens) are at a dramatically increased risk of death from COVID<sup>[12,13]</sup>. Side effects of chemotherapy, such as secondary immunodeficiency due to severe leukopenia and specific tissue toxicity due to some chemo- and immunotherapeutics, can significantly alter the course of COVID-19 infection, from worsening the patient's overall condition and increasing the risk of complications and death to masking or mimicking the radiological pulmonary signs (e.g., immune checkpoint related pneumonitis)<sup>[13]</sup>. Finally, another confounding factor is the various therapeutic regimens used to treat infection in hospitals and intensive care units worldwide. Cancer patients are treated as high-risk by default, which carries a risk (polypharmacy, drug interactions, adverse drug effects, acute kidney or liver failure, etc.)[14].

Below we present data from several studies that attempt to measure and objectify this risk. The first large-scale meta-analysis by 2020 done by Zhang *et al*<sup>[11]</sup> of 15 studies involving a total of 3019 patients from Europe, the United Kingdom, the United States, Canada, and Asia detects 22.4% circulating free RNAs (CFR) in cancer patients with COVID-19, compared to 5.9% in non-cancer patients. As in other patients, risk factors influencing the course and mortality are age over 65, male sex, and comorbidities (especially hypertension and diabetes). No significant difference in mortality was found between different continents. The study found that mortality in patients with lung

cancer and hematological malignancies was highest, although the incidence of complications did not differ<sup>[11]</sup>.

A study by Yang *et al*<sup>[15]</sup> involving 1575 patients, of whom 52 with various cancers (lung, colorectal, breast, cervical, thyroid, *etc.*) showed that oncologic patients are at higher risk to present as severe/critical cases and are more likely to develop acute respiratory distress syndrome. Also, other life-threatening complications such as myocardial infarction and shock are significantly increased in frequency. Lower lymphocyte count, as well as higher concentrations of C-reactive protein, D-dimer, procalcitonin, IL-6, and lactate dehydrogenase, were reported to reach P < 0.05. It is also noted that cancer patients are more likely to have comorbidities, which, as it becomes clear in this study, contributes seriously to the overall higher CFR<sup>[15]</sup>.

A meta-analysis of 122 papers and 9 studies, including a total of 805 patients by Afshar *et al*<sup>[16]</sup>, demonstrated how heterogeneous the data on mortality in cancer patients are. They showed that cancer patients were more likely to be admitted to intensive care units, needed invasive ventilation, and were more likely to die. The published CFR in the analyzed studies ranged from 5.5% to 60.0%, with a pooled CFR of 21%. However, the authors warn that these data should be interpreted cautiously due to the high heterogeneity and the small number of patients in most studies<sup>[16]</sup>.

Large-scale survival analysis by Li *et al*<sup>[9]</sup> based on data from UK Biobank followed 4606 cancer patients (288 positives) and 4606 non-cancer patients (275 positives) for 21 mo after the SARS-CoV2 test. The cumulative CFR of the positive cancer patients was six times higher than the negative ones. The hazard ratio was assessed for each specific malignancy in the study, and the results showed that hematological malignancies, melanoma, kidney, and uterine cancer had particularly high CFRs (up to 10 times higher than the non-cancer controls). The authors emphasize the importance of timely vaccination in these groups of patients<sup>[9]</sup>.

In contrast to the data above, a study by Brar *et al*<sup>[17]</sup> included 585 patients, 117 with active malignancies. It showed no statistically significant difference in morbidity or mortality in cancer patients vs the general population. Furthermore, the authors argue

that the studies claiming the opposite did not consider confounding factors like age, sex, and comorbidities. According to this study, cytotoxic treatment within 90 d of admission is not associated with worse outcomes<sup>[17]</sup>.

A team from London published a study in onco-hematology patients, where 40% (14 of 35) of patients hospitalized with COVID-19 had succumbed to the infection<sup>[18]</sup>. In general, COVID-19 appears to have an increased risk of complications and mortality in a large proportion of cancer patients. In addition, besides the virus itself, the pandemic and the restrictive measures were associated with disrupted access to medical care, hindered timely diagnosis and treatment, and the lack of follow-up of many patients and lower quality of life<sup>[19]</sup>. Studies show that since the beginning of the pandemic, the total number of newly diagnosed cancers has dropped substantially<sup>[20]</sup>. As many authors warned, this inevitably led to an increased frequency of advanced cancers at diagnosis. Delaying diagnosis and treatment resulted in lower chances of survival<sup>[21]</sup>. Yong *et al*<sup>[22]</sup> conducted a study in Canada using microsimulation models, which estimated that for colorectal cancers, only a suspension of primary screening for six months will increase cancer incidence by about 2200 cases, of which about 960 will be lethal over time. Consequences that otherwise would be prevented by the screening program and early detection.

Furthermore, there are many other indirect ways the COVID-19 pandemic affects cancer patients' quality of life and mortality<sup>[13]</sup>. At the same time, the standard of living, the structure and stability of the health care system, and even political factors in connection with dealing with the pandemic play a role that should not be underestimated<sup>[23]</sup>. Knowing risk factors for the severity and mortality of COVID-19, cancer patients have their unique risk factors. They may include active and progressing cancer, type of cancer, administration of cytotoxic chemotherapy; radiation therapy; impaired immune system due to leukocytopenia, low immunoglobulin levels, long-lasting immunosuppression, comorbidities, and others.

Malignancies reported as comorbidities in patients hospitalized with confirmed COVID-19 are in different countries: (1) Malignancies in 7.2% in a cohort study with 138

adults with confirmed COVID-19 pneumonia in Wuhan, China, in January 2020<sup>[24]</sup>; (2) malignancies in 8% at admission in a cohort study with 1591 patients with laboratory-confirmed COVID-19 in Lombardy, Italy, between February 20 and March 18, 2020<sup>[25]</sup>; and (3) malignancies reported in 5.6% at admission in a cohort study with 5700 patients with confirmed COVID-19 infection hospitalized in 12 New York City hospitals between March 1 and April 4, 2020<sup>[26]</sup>.

In a cohort study of 928 adults with COVID-19 and current or past cancer diagnosis, were established solid tumors in 82%, including breast (21%), hematologic (22%), prostate (16%), gastrointestinal (12%), thoracic (10%), gynecologic (5%), and renal cell carcinoma (5%)<sup>[27,28]</sup>. The estimated overall mortality in the research was 13%: 20% for patients with multiple cancers, 18% for patients with hematological malignancies, and 12% for patients with solid tumors<sup>[27]</sup>.

Zhang *et al*<sup>[11]</sup> showed the COVID-19 fatality rates in subgroup analysis: (1) By cancer type: 32.9% in patients with lung cancer; 34.2% in patients with hematologic cancer; 17.2% in patients with solid cancer; and (2) by cancer treatment: 25.6% in patients with chemotherapy, 27.6% in patients with surgery, 24.3% in patients with immunotherapy, 21.3% in patients with targeted therapy, and 20.5% in patients with radiation therapy<sup>[11]</sup>.

Children with cancer and positive for COVID-19 are at more risk for severe illness than children without cancer. The cohort study found that about 20% of pediatric cancer patients with COVID-19 experienced a severe infection, compared to 1%-6% of children in the general population<sup>[29]</sup>. Among patients with hematologic malignancy and laboratory-confirmed COVID-19, mortality was reported in 34% of adults and 4% of children<sup>[4]</sup>.

We can summarize that the main challenges in cancer patients regarding COVID-19 are the often immunocompromised state (*i.e.*, due to leukocytopenia, low immunoglobulin levels, long-lasting immunosuppression), the treatment (*i.e.*, severe chemotherapy, radiation therapy, *etc.*), progression of cancer, comorbidities, and others.

#### IMMUNE RESPONSE IN CANCER PATIENTS

Cancer cells induce an immune suppressive microenvironment and use various mechanisms to "escape" the body's immune response. As a systemic disease, cancer causes a wide range of functional and compositional changes in the immune system and can affect the body's defenses against various pathogens<sup>[30,31]</sup>.

Dendritic cells (DCs) are antigen-presenting cells with an essential role in originating and directing cellular and humoral immune responses, converging innate and adaptive immunity. DCs have been recognized as the most potent professional antigen-presenting cells<sup>[32]</sup>.

Tumors use different strategies to alter DC maturation and function, such as: (1) The ability to influence the capacity of hematopoietic progenitor cells to differentiate into functional DCs<sup>[33,34]</sup>; (2) production of various immunosuppressive factors that block the maturation of CD34+ stem cells into DCs<sup>[35]</sup>; and (3) spontaneous apoptosis of DCs in peripheral blood of patients with breast cancer has been reported<sup>[36]</sup>. Quantitative and functional DCs deficiencies have been widely observed in patients with several types of cancer, including breast cancer<sup>[37,38]</sup>, prostate cancer<sup>[38]</sup>, non-small cell lung cancer<sup>[39,40]</sup>, colon cancer<sup>[41]</sup>, and melanoma<sup>[42]</sup>, etc.

Data reveal that tumors disrupt normal hematopoiesis, leading to extramedullary hematopoiesis and myeloid skewing. The three branches of terminally differentiated myeloid cells (macrophages, dendritic cells and granulocytes) are essential for normal innate and adaptive immune response functioning. The tumor microenvironment alters myeloid cells and can convert them into potent immunosuppressive cells<sup>[43,44]</sup>. Lymphopenia caused by disease or treatment is frequent in oncology patients and affects their prognosis<sup>[45,46]</sup>.

T cells, one of the primary arms of the adaptive immune response, are also affected in oncology patients. Cancer cells express various membrane and soluble T-cell inhibitory signals. For example, programmed cell death protein-ligand 1 linking to programmed cell death protein 1 on T cells results in decreased activation, proliferation, survival and cytotoxicity<sup>[47]</sup>. The last discovery led to the development of checkpoint inhibitors, a breakthrough in immune-oncology and won the 2018 Nobel Prize for Physiology or

Medicine. Indoleamine 2,3-dioxygenase, a soluble enzyme physiologically expressed in many tissues, is overproduced in some cancers leading to tryptophan depletion in the tumor microenvironment. T cells, being highly sensitive to tryptophan deprivation, suffer a significant functional impairment, promoting tumor growth<sup>[48]</sup>. An increased rate of CD4+CD25+ regulatory T cells with potent immunosuppressive properties in the peripheral blood of individuals with cancer diseases has been reported<sup>[49,50]</sup>.

Additionally, regulatory B cells (Bregs) are a newly designated subset of B cells that have been found to play a central role in regulating immune responses associated with inflammation, autoimmunity, and cancer. Increased Bregs have been reported to express immunosuppressive properties in gastric cancer through the secretion of antiinflammatory molecules, such as IL-10, and facilitating the conversion of T cells to regulatory T cells[44,51,52]. Additionally, tumor progression is associated with the dysfunction of NK cells due to the combined action of tissue-specific and systemic factors<sup>[53]</sup>. All these immune alterations in cancer patients contribute to the differences in the immune response after vaccination, including after COVID-19 vaccine administration. Before the COVID-19 pandemic, we had an experience with influenza vaccine administration in patients with oncological diseases. Infectious complications resulting from bacterial, fungal, and viral (often due to reactivation of latent disease, primarily in patients with hematological malignancies) diseases are a severe cause of morbidity and mortality in cancer patients<sup>[54]</sup>. Oncology patients receiving chemotherapy are at increased risk for influenza virus infection and serious postinfluenza complications. Cancer patients are eligible for influenza vaccination, although their response may be suboptimal due to immunosuppression associated with cancer itself and/or its treatment<sup>[55,56]</sup>. Data shows that cancer patients receiving chemotherapy can respond to influenza vaccination<sup>[57]</sup>.

Breast cancer patients receiving influenza vaccination during FEC (5-fluorouracil, epirubicin, and cyclophosphamide)-containing treatment regimens have exhibited significantly lower responses to influenza virus vaccination than healthy controls. Vaccination early during the chemotherapy cycle (day 4) induces better responses than

vaccination on day 16<sup>[58]</sup>. The summary of the available evidence reveals that immunization of individuals with malignancies is critical to their care and may protect them from significant morbidity and mortality associated with vaccine-preventable diseases<sup>[59]</sup>.

# COVID-19 VACCINES FOR PATIENTS WITH ONCOLOGICAL DISEASES-DATA ON OUTCOMES AND EFFECTIVENESS

Several available COVID-19 vaccines are now in use all over the world. Moderate or severely immunocompromised people should receive a vaccination to protect them from severe COVID-19 disease<sup>[60,61]</sup>.

The efficacy of COVID-19 vaccines in cancer patients is a question of continuous research, with most studies using immunological parameters as surrogate endpoints for clinical outcomes. Clinical trials investigating immune response after COVID-19 vaccination often use seroconversion to SARS-CoV-2 spike (S) protein as an endpoint for vaccine efficacy. Other parameters like anti-Spike antibody titers, detection of neutralizing antibodies, and cellular immune response are usually explored as secondary endpoints<sup>[62]</sup>. Some authors, however, underscore the role of neutralizing antibodies as the immunological parameter, which probably best correlates with the level of protection after COVID-19 vaccination<sup>[63-65]</sup>.

Both humoral and cellular immune responses to COVID-19 vaccines differ in patients with malignancies compared to non-cancer patients, and this is being attributed not only to the immunosuppressive nature of the oncologic disease but to the anti-tumor therapy itself and its direct impact on immune cells. While patients with solid tumors have seroconversion rates similar to the general population, the most significant concern regarding post-vaccination and post-infectious COVID-19 immunity lies with hematological malignancies, especially those where lymphocyte-depletion therapy is used. In support of this is the research of Monin *et al*<sup>[66]</sup>, who presented interim results of a prospective observational study that explores the immunogenicity of one compared to receiving two doses of the COVID-19 vaccine in patients with cancer by assessing the

humoral immune response between 151 patients (95 with solid tumors and 56 with hematological malignancies) and 54 healthy controls. Authors reported efficacy after the first dose in 94%, 38%, and 18% of control subjects, patients with solid tumors and hematological cancer, respectively. After the second dose, the response increased to 100% in controls, 95% in patients with solid cancers, and only 60% in the group with hematological malignancies<sup>[66]</sup>.

When considering post-vaccination immunity in patients with cancer, we should consider that those with hematological malignancies are expected to show different levels of antibody response to COVID-19 vaccines compared to patients with solid tumors. One of the most substantial pieces of evidence in corroboration came from the CAPTURE trial<sup>[67]</sup>. This prospective clinical study assessed the humoral response after COVID-19 vaccination in more than 700 subjects with solid tumors or hematologic neoplasms, 585 of whom did not have previous SARS-CoV-2 infection. The trial demonstrated 85% and 54% seroconversion rates for anti-Spike antibodies after the second dose in patients with solid tumors and hematological, respectively. However, the response observed among participants was not the same for all SARS-CoV-2 variants<sup>[68]</sup>.

The authors announced substantial differences in neutralizing antibodies concerning viral genotypes from the CAPTURE trial: 83% of patients developed detectable levels of the original SARS-CoV-2 and only 54% of the delta variant. And while nearly two-thirds (62%) of patients with solid tumors elicit humoral response against delta variant, only 31% of those with hematologic malignancies did sol<sup>[67]</sup>. The prospective cohort study of immune response to COVID-19 vaccination in cancer patients CAPTURE (NCT03226886) also showed that among 585 patients, the antibody rates after two doses of BNT162b2 or AZD1222 vaccines given over 12 wk were assessed. The results showed that seroconversion was 85% and 59% after two doses in patients with solid and hematological malignancies, respectively. Neutralizing antibodies against SARS-CoV-2 VOCs were detected in a small proportion of patients, mainly with solid cancers.

Vaccine-induced T-cell responses were found in 80% of patients regardless of the vaccine or type of cancer<sup>[67]</sup>.

In an attempt to overcome this relatively low rate of seroconversion in patients with blood cancers, Greenberger  $et~al^{[69]}$  conducted a large prospective cohort trial on nearly 700 patients vaccinated with three doses of the COVID-19 vaccine. It was estimated that antibody response indeed increased with the 3<sup>rd</sup> (booster) dose, so 43% of those without detectable antibodies after the 2<sup>nd</sup> dose demonstrated humoral response after the booster. However, about 20% of all hematological patients still failed to achieve a response even with 3 doses of vaccine<sup>[69]</sup>. In contrast to the plethora of research on humoral immunity after COVID-19 vaccination in cancer patients, the cellular immune response in this setting is considerably less studied. In a review article by Rüthrich  $et~al^{[70]}$ , the authors tried to summarize what is currently known about the issue in patients with solid tumors and hematological malignancies, comparing data from COVID-19 vaccines and other "classical" vaccines. Although the assessment of T-cell immune response in the reviewed studies varied, most research used methods based on quantifying and characterizing pathogen-specific T-cells and/or estimating the T-cell function by cytokine measurement<sup>[70]</sup>.

Observations on immune response in patients with hematological malignancies revealed that although this population may lack adequate levels of neutralizing viral antibodies, especially after treatment with B-cell depleting agents such as anti-CD20 monoclonal antibodies, COVID-19 vaccines are still able to produce protective cellular immunity. One of the best evidence for the sufficient efficacy of T-cell response comes from a trial in patients with agammaglobulinemia who demonstrated improved COVID-19 infection outcomes after vaccination. However, cellular immunity could also be impaired in this specific patient population, and some of the significant factors for this are age, disease activity, immunosuppressive treatment, and low lymphocyte counts in circulation<sup>[70]</sup>.

This discordance between humoral and cellular immune response could also be seen In patients with solid tumors. In this population, T-cell response varies among different cancer subtypes and is determined mainly by the type of systemic anti-tumor treatment. Various studies demonstrate wide ranges in terms of cellular immunity achieved after COVID-19 vaccination ranging from about half to nearly 90% of the vaccinated cases<sup>[71,72]</sup>.

However, despite being generally higher than those observed in blood cancer patients, T-cell response in those with solid tumors remains significantly lower than in healthy controls. One of the most extensive trials reporting data on immune response in patients with solid tumors receiving systemic anti-cancer treatment is the VOICE study<sup>[73]</sup>. After recruiting nearly 800 subjects (240 without cancer), the authors assessed cellular immunity by measuring SARS-CoV-2 spike-specific IFNy T-cell response after two vaccine doses. They reported cellular response in 67%, 66%, and 53% of patients treated with chemotherapy, immunotherapy, or chemoimmunotherapy, respectively. Another interesting trial finding was that more than 40% of patients who did not elicit a humoral immune response could develop a T-cell response, highlighting the vaccine's 'double-edge sword' efficacy in this specific population. Similar to the model observed with the humoral response, whether the cellular response is affected by booster dose is still an open question since there exist conflicting data on this. Some studies report significant enhancement of T-cell response after 3<sup>rd</sup> dose, while others refute such assertions<sup>[73]</sup>.

So far, most trials reporting COVID-19 vaccine efficacy in cancer rely on immunological endpoints and not so much on clinical outcomes. However, a recent study on infection rate and outcomes in vaccinated patients with solid tumors and hematologic malignancies raised concern that despite vaccination, these patients remain at risk of worse outcomes compared to the general population<sup>[74]</sup>. Among fully vaccinated cancer patients, who experienced breakthrough SARS-CoV-2 infection, the hospitalization rate, intensive care unit admission (or required mechanical vaccination), and death rate are 65%, 19%, and 13%, respectively. This is mainly attributed to patients' comorbidities and the much worse COVID-19 prognosis in those with hematological malignancies.

In a prospective study conducted by Goshen-Lago *et al*<sup>[75]</sup>, it was shown that patients with solid tumors demonstrated short-term efficacy and safety of the BNT162b2 vaccine. A follow-up study aimed to evaluate these outcomes six months after vaccination<sup>[76]</sup>. Participants were 154 patients with solid tumors and 135 controls (health workers). Six months after vaccination, 122 patients were seropositive compared with 114 controls, and the serologic titers dramatically decreased almost equally in both cohorts. Efficacy and safety evidence of BNT162b2 vaccines shows that the serological profile in cancer patients after six months resembles that of the general population<sup>[76]</sup>.

A similar study was conducted by Barrière *et al*<sup>[77]</sup>, who evaluated the immunogenicity of the BNT162b2 vaccine in patients with solid tumors. Serological analyses were performed during the first vaccination, during the booster dose (w3-w4), and 3-4 wk after the booster dose (w6-w8). The study reported the results for 122 of 194 evaluable patients with solid tumors who had at least two doses from January 2021 to March 2021. In the first analysis (w3-w4), 58 patients had neutralizing antibodies, although the median levels were significantly lower than in the control group. In the following analysis (w6-w8), the data showed the same anti-S seroconversion rate, demonstrating impaired immunogenicity of the BNT162b2 vaccine in cancer patients<sup>[77]</sup>.

Shroff *et al*<sup>[78]</sup> also compared anti-S seroconversion to the BNT162b2 mRNA vaccine in patients with solid tumors on active cytotoxic anti-cancer therapy with healthy control participants. Neutralizing antibodies were found in 67% of cancer patients after the first immunization, and a follow-up analysis found a threefold increase in titers after the second or third doses. A study with EudraCT Number 2021-000291-11 was conducted in patients with solid cancers, multiple myeloma, and inflammatory bowel disease<sup>[79]</sup>. The study is a prospective, open-label, phase four trial to monitor vaccine-specific antibody and cellular responses after booster vaccination with mRNA-1273 or BNT162b2. The data show that booster vaccination against SARS-CoV-2 reverses the lack of response and early antibody weakening in immunocompromised patients.

Another study on the efficacy and safety of heterologous booster vaccination with Ad26.COV2.S after BNT162b2 mRNA vaccine in cancer patients without antibody

response was conducted in 2022<sup>[80]</sup>. The assessment was done directly before vaccination and four weeks after. Ad26.COV2.S booster vaccination resulted in a serological response in 31% of non-responders after a double dose of BNT162b2. Clinical trials with the number NCT04368728 reported results from individuals with a history of past or active neoplasms and up to 6 mo of follow-up after dose 2 of a placebo-controlled, observer-blinded trial of the BNT162b2 vaccine<sup>[81]</sup>. In participants with past or active neoplasms, two doses of the BNT162b2 vaccine improved efficacy and safety profile as in the overall trial population. No vaccine-related deaths were reported.

One of the first evaluations of the effectiveness of vaccination against breakthrough SARS-CoV-2 infections in cancer patients at a population level was done by Lee *et al*<sup>[82]</sup>. Analysis was performed in the cancer cohort by vaccine type (BNT162b2, ChAdOx1 nCov-19, or mixed and other), cancer type and subtype, stage, date of cancer diagnosis, and anti-cancer treatment or radiotherapy. Data show that vaccination with different COVID-19 vaccines is effective in people with cancer, providing varying levels of protection against SARS-CoV-2 infection. However, it is lower in cancer patients than in the general population<sup>[82]</sup>.

A single-arm prospective clinical trial was conducted with 106 cancer patients by Thakkar *et al*<sup>[83]</sup>. They received two doses of mRNA followed by one dose of AD26.CoV2.S vaccine or a third dose of mRNA vaccine. The results showed that a third dose induced immunity in cancer patients. Seroconversion was also assessed in 57% of patients who did not respond to primary vaccination. A fourth dose boosted the immune response by two-thirds. Some patients have neutralizing activity against the Omicron variant<sup>[83]</sup>.

In conclusion, all these studies confirm that people with cancer are at increased risk of severe COVID-19 disease, hospitalization, and death after SARS-CoV-2 infection compared to the general population. The above data show that cancer patients have impaired overall vaccine effectiveness to the approved COVID-19 vaccines. Seroconversion in them decreases faster than in the control population. Although

vaccination provides different levels of protection, there should be a global prioritization of the programs to boost vaccination for cancer people, considering the impact of other treatments.

There is still a lack of data on vaccine efficacy in cancer patients concerning novel virus variants like Omicron<sup>[68]</sup>. Table 1 presents the studies on the effectiveness and safety of COVID-19 vaccination with different approved COVID-19 vaccines in oncological patients with solid tumors<sup>[5,63,66,67,69-71,73,75-84,84]</sup>.

#### **COVID-19 VACCINES AND CHEMOTHERAPY INTERACTIONS**

People with cancer often have an increased susceptibility to infections due to various factors, including cancer itself and/or, in some cases, the applied therapy, poor nutrition, and damaged physiological barriers. In addition, the incidence of neoplasia is highest in individuals aged 65 and over. When the immune system's effectiveness is weakened, the elderly often have concomitant diseases for which they can also take medications<sup>[54,85]</sup>.

Regarding cancer chemotherapy, conventional antitumor chemotherapeutic agents kill actively proliferating cells, including bone marrow cells, and myelosuppression is one of clinical oncology's most common side effects[86]. Chemotherapy-induced neutropenia is a significant cause of hematological and dose-limiting toxicities of chemotherapy[87]. Some currently available anti-cancer drugs, such as methotrexate and cyclophosphamide, express immunosuppressive effects and impair peripheral T cells' proliferative and/or effector functions. Methotrexate is an antimetabolite of the antifolate type developed in 1947 and is included in the World Health Organization's List of Essential Medicines. Nowadays, it is widely used not only in clinical oncology (in the treatment of acute lymphoblastic leukemia, acute myeloid leukemia, meningeal leukemia and lymphoma, osteosarcomas, non-Hodgkin's lymphoma, breast and bladder cancer, etc.) but also as a first-line treatment in autoimmune, inflammatory diseases such as rheumatoid arthritis, psoriasis and Crone's disease<sup>[88-90]</sup>. Methotrexate has been found to disturb antibody response after pneumococcal vaccination<sup>[91,92]</sup>; the

drug reduces circulating Th17 cells and impairs plasmablast and memory B cell expansions following pneumococcal conjugate immunization in patients with rheumatoid arthritis<sup>[93]</sup>.

Cyclophosphamide is an alkylating agent synthesized in 1958 and used for decades in clinical practice in the therapy regimens of neoplasms (malignant lymphomas, multiple myeloma, sarcoma, breast cancer, disseminated neuroblastomas, retinoblastoma, ovarian adenocarcinoma, etc.) and as an immunosuppressive agent for the treatment of autoimmune and immune-mediated diseases multiple such sclerosis. Cyclophosphamide shows selectivity for T cells and is an immunosuppressant to prevent transplant rejection and graft-vs-host complications[94]. Cyclophosphamide has been associated with suppressing helper Th1 activity and enhancing helper Th2 responses[95]. This drug inhibits Th1/Th17 responses and increases the cells secreting anti-inflammatory cytokines such as interleukin (IL) IL-4, IL-10, and TGF-b[96]. A single administration of low-dose cyclophosphamide selectively suppresses regulatory T cells (Tregs). The low-dose cyclophosphamide promotes anti-tumour immunity by selectively depleting regulatory T cells and enhancing effector T cell function. However, cyclophosphamide can also increase the number of myeloid-derived suppressor cells<sup>[97,98]</sup>.

Treatment with tyrosine kinase inhibitors imatinib, dasatinib, and nilotinib applied in the treatment of chronic myeloid leukemia is associated with loss of memory B-cell subsets and impaired humoral immune responses to 23-valent polysaccharide pneumococcal vaccine, likely due to the off-target kinase inhibitory activity of these drugs<sup>[99]</sup>.

### **CONCLUSION**

Data so far show that patients with cancer are at increased risk of severe COVID-19 and developing various complications mainly due to their immunocompromised state, type of treatment and comorbidities. Although cancer patients were excluded from vaccine trials, the investigations of post-vaccinal immune responses and the effectiveness of the

vaccines showed that both humoral and cellular immune responses to COVID-19 vaccines differ in patients with malignancies compared to non-cancer patients, and this is being attributed not only to the immunosuppressive nature of the oncologic disease but to the anti-tumor therapy itself and its direct impact on immune cells.

The evidence indicates that the efficacy of vaccinations could be impaired in cancer patients in line with a reduced rate of seroconversion and shorter duration compared to healthy controls. Despite these data, when focusing on the clinical outcomes instead of immunological endpoints regarding vaccine efficacy, COVID-19 vaccines demonstrated high effectiveness in preventing severe COVID-19 and infection-related death, and safety profile with comparable to healthy controls adverse effects in patients with solid tumors and hematological malignancies.

Despite the considerably higher mortality in the cancer patients group from COVID-19 than the general population, countries with high vaccination rates have demonstrated trends toward improved survival of cancer patients early and late in the pandemic. Nevertheless, vaccination of these patients and overall vaccination of the population has proven to significantly reduce the risk of complications and mortality of COVID-19 and should be promoted worldwide.

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Table 1 Some of the more significant studies conducted on the efficacy and safety of COVID-19 vaccination with different approved COVID-19 vaccines in oncological patients with solid tumors

l study	1,	10			
study	vaccine		specific characteristics)		(main side effects)
[	NA	A multicenter	All PTs included $n = 2634$	The difference in the necessity of	NA
group		observational	(100%); PTs with advanced	(100%); PTs with advanced hospitalization due to COVID-19,	
		registry-based	tumor stage $n = 1244 (46\%)$ ;	oxygen therapy requirement,	
		study	PTs with receipt of anti-	mechanical ventilation	
			cancer therapy within 4 wk requirement,	requirement, and 14-d CFR	
			of COVID-19 diagnosis $n =$	between PTs stratified across time	
			1305 (51.8%); malignancy	5 phases and 2 major outbreaks of	
			type: Breast $n = 493 (18.9\%)$ ;	type: Breast $n = 493$ (18.9%); the pandemic; hospitalization	
			gastrointestinal $n = 476$	requirement: 1st phase-64.7% to 5th	
			(18.2%);	phase-42.7% ( $P < 0.01$ ); proportion	
			gynecologic/genitourinary n	ot PTs requiring O2: therapy,	
			= 530 (20.3%); hematologic $n$	phase 1-62.6%, to phase 5-46.0% ( <i>P</i>	
			= 357 (13.7%)	< 0.001); mechanical ventilation:	
				Phase 1-12.1% to phase 5-11.8% (P	
				= 0.01); CFR: 1st outbreak-25.6%	
				to- $2^{nd}$ outbreak $16.2\%$ ( $P < 0.001$ )	
Khoury et al <sup>[63]</sup> , mRNA	nRNA and			20.2% of subjects had (95%CI) 50%	NA
2021 a	adenoviral			protective neutralization level	
,	vector				
7	vaccines				

Injection-site within 7 d ing the first in: 23 of 65 patients with ; 12 of 25 healthy ls; no e-related	
AE: Injection-site pain within 7 d following the first dose in: 23 of 65 (35%) patients with cancer; 12 of 25 (48%) healthy controls; no vaccine-related deaths were	A/X
Surrogate marker of efficiency: AE: Injection-site Seroconversion after 1st dose: 32 of pain within 7 d 34 (94%) HCs, 21 of 56 (38%), PTs following the first with solid cancer, 8 of 44 (18%), dose in: 23 of 65 PTs with hematologic (35%) patients with malignancies; after 2nd dose: 12 of cancer; 12 of 25 12 (100%) HC; 18 of 19 (95%), PTs (48%) healthy with solid, 3 of 5 (60%), PTs with controls; no hematologic malignancies deaths were reported	pTs with hematologic malignancies, $n = 3300$ PTs with cancer, $n = 524$ , of Seropositivity rate for anti-S IgG whom: 201 (38%) with solid 36 d after vaccination: PTs with cancer; 323 (62%) with solid cancer 187 of 201 (93%); PTs hematologic cancer; 524 with hematologic cancer 215 of (100%) had a blood sample 323 (66%); seropositivity rate for drawn at a median of 36 d anti-S IgG 3 mo after vaccination: after the second dose of PTs with solid cancer-86%, PTs vaccine; and 247 (47%) had a with hematologic cancer-53%; second blood sample drawn anti-S IgG titers; between 36-d and
PTs with oncologic disease $n$ = 151: With solid cancer $n$ = 95; with hematological malignancy $n$ = 56; and healthy controls $n$ = 54	rudy malignancies, $n = 3300$ tive PTs with cancer, $n = 524$ , of Seropositivity rate for study whom: 201 (38%) with solid 36 d after vaccination cancer; 323 (62%) with solid cancer 187 of 21 hematologic cancer; 524 with hematologic cancer; 524 with hematologic cancer; 323 (66%); seropositit drawn at a median of 36 d anti-S IgG 3 mo after the second dose of PTs with solid canneies; after the second dose of PTs with hematologic healthy vaccine; and 247 (47%) had a with hematologic
Prospective observational study	Retrospective cohort study Cohort study (comparison between groups with different malignancies; no healthy controls)
mRNA	mRNA and adenoviral vector vaccines mRNA
Monin <i>et al</i> [66], mRNA 2021	Greenberger et mRNA all <sup>69</sup> ], 2021 adenov vector vaccine Ehmsen et al <sup>[71</sup> , mRNA 2021

cohort); cohort B: PTs with vaccination; at 28th d, 6 mo after 12 solid tumors, regardless of mo after a spike-specific T-cell

non-inferiority

2021

N/AIndividuals Presence of SARS-CoV-2-binding T cells, 26 (18%) only elicited a seronegative patients did not elicit seronegative PTs elicited a T cell response; PTs with hematologic cancer: 28 of 108 (26%) patients Student's t-test); T-cell reactivity: (76%) mounted both CD4+ and elicited only a CD8+ T cell response, PTs with hematologic cancer-144 (45%), 81% were positive for both CD4+ and CD8+ CD8+ T cell response, 76% of the a T cell response; PTs with solid without cancer (control antibodies after the second median of 139 BAU/mL (P = 0.03, PTts with solid cancer-92 (46%), 70 cancer: only 1 of the 14 (7%) CD8+ T cell responses, 21 (23%) median of 429 BAU/mL to elicited T cell response Α: the vaccine Cohort Prospective, multicentre, Oosting et al<sup>[73]</sup>, mRNA

3 mo after the second dose of 3-mo samples declined from a

	Systemic AEs: (1)	Fatigue (34%-51%);	(2) headache (25%-	39%); fever (11%);	injection	reactions; (4) pain	(71%-83%); (5)	redness	swelling (< 7%);	and (6) serious AE	< 4%	N/A					
stage and histology, treated response was defined as a two with immunotherapy; cohort times or more significant increase C: PTs treated with in the number of spot-forming chemotherapy; and cohort D: cells  PTs treated with chemotherapy	2 95% efficacy (9 vaccinated <i>vs</i> 169	controls with COVID-19); 10 cases	of severe COVID-19 infection vs 9	in the placebo group; Flares: NR								the After two doses of BNT162b2 N/A	or AZD1222 vaccines given	over 12 wk, seroconversion was	85% and 59% in patients with	solid and hematological	malignancies, respectively;
stage and histology, treated with immunotherapy; cohort tC: PTs treated with ichemotherapy; and cohort D: PTs treated with chemoimmunotherapy	All patients included $n = 0$	43548; patients with liver	disease $n = 217 (0.6\%)$									585 patients, the	seroconversion rates after	two doses of BNT162b2 or	AZD1222 vaccines given over	12 wk were assessed	
	Placebo-	es controlled,	observer-	blinded,	pivotal efficacy	trial	(randomized	1:1 vaccine vs	placebo)			2b2 or Prospective	222 cohort study	Se	URE,	NCT03226886)	
	Polack et al <sup>[84]</sup> , mRNA	2020 vaccines										Fendler et al <sup>[67]</sup> , BNT162b2	2021 AZD1222	vaccines	(CAPTURE,	NCT03	

decreased

dramatically

				N/A																
vaccine-induced T-cell	responses were found in 80% of	patients regardless of the	vaccine or type of cancer	fifty-four In patients with cancer with N/A	patients with solid tumors active intravenous treatment,	and 135 controls (health 79% ( $n = 122$ ) of the patients	had positive serologic test	results, compared with 84% (n	= 114) in the control group;	analysis by age, sex, or disease	stage has no significant	differences within the patient	cohort; 15% of the seropositive	patients became seronegative	after six months, comparable to	the control group	Six months postvaccination	79% of patients and 84% of	healthy controls were	seropositive $(P = 0.32)$ ;
				One hundred fifty-four	patients with solid tumors	and 135 controls (health	workers)										154 patients with solid	tumors and 135 controls		
				Prospective	study												Prospective	study		
				t BNT162b2	vaccine												et BNT162b2	vaccine		
				Goshen-Lago et BNT162b2	al <sup>[75]</sup> , 2021												Waldhorn e	al <sup>[76]</sup> , 2021		

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	events	mild:	re,	headache,		on the ite															
	Adverse	were	Temperature,	fever, h		swelling or injection site	had N/A										N/A				
	Neutralizing antibodies were Adverse	detected in 67% of patients were	the first	ed by a	median	lose		antibodies,	n levels	wer than	roup; the	impaired	of the	ie in	patients;	orted	efficacy was 94.4% N/A	om od			
S.	antibod	90 %29	r after	n, follow	crease in	e second	patients		e media	cantly lo	control g	ıstrating		vaccine	promised	is not rep	icacy wa	er up to	st-dose 2		
serology titer	eutralizing	tected in	with cancer after the first	immunization, followed by a	threefold increase in median	titers after the second dose	fty-eight	utralizing	although the median levels	were significantly lower than	those in the control group; the	data demonstrating impaired	immunogenicity	BNT162b2	immunocompromised patients;	% of efficacy is not reported	Vaccine eff	(95%CI) after up to 6 mo of	follow-up post-dose 2		
35	cohort 53 patients with solid tumors N	on active cytotoxic anti-	cancer therapy and 50 w	healthy cohort ir	The state of the s	ţ.		solid tumors and 31 healthy neutralizing	controls al	M	4	þ	ï	В	i	%	3813 participants had a	history of neoplasm: Most (9	common malignancies were for	breast $(n = 460)$ , prostate $(n =$	362), and melanoma ( $n = 223$ )
	Phase 1 cohort	trial					VMO for	vaccinated	patients under	active	treatment in	the Department	or Oricorogy or the Saint Tean	Polyclinic,	Nice, France		Phase 3	randomized	clinical trial		
	BNT162b2						BNT162b2										BNT162b2	mRNA			
	Shroff et al <sup>[78]</sup> , BNT162b2	2021					Barrière et al™, BNT162b2	2021									Thomas et al <sup>[81]</sup> , BNT162b2	2022			

₹ Z	N/A
A month after the two-dose primary vaccination, the highest non-responder rate was found in MM patients (17%); six months after the second dose, 18% of patients with MM, 10% with SOT and 4% with IBD became seronegative compared to the control group; the vaccination with mRNA-1273 led to higher antibody levels than with BNT162b2; booster vaccination increased antibody levels and induced responses in those with undetectable pre-booster antibody levels	Overall vaccine effectiveness was 69.8% in the control population and 65.5% in the cancer cohort; vaccine
tumors: (SOT, $n = 63$ ), multiple myeloma (MM, $n = 70$ ), inflammatory bowel diseases (IBD, $n = 130$ ) and 66 controls	Cancer cohort comprised 377194 individuals, of whom 42882 had breakthrough SARS-CoV-2
Prospective, open-label, phase four trail	Population- based test- negative case- control study
Wagner <i>et al</i> <sup>[79]</sup> , mRNA-1273 or 2022 BNT162b2	BNT162b2, ChAdOx1 nCov-19, or mixed and
Wagner <i>et al</i> <sup>[79]</sup> , 2022	Lee et al <sup>[82]</sup> , 2022

					Mainly mild local	and systemic	reactions		N/A												
effectiveness at 3-6 mo was lower in the cancer cohort	28010955 individuals, of (47.0%) than in the control	population (61.4%)			non- The overall response rate was Mainly mild local	31%			A third dose of the COVID-19 N/A	vaccine induces durable	immunity in cancer patients,	leading to seroconversion in	57% of natients who did not		respond to primary	vaccination; eighteen patients	with blood cancer and severe	immune suppression had no	response after three doses; and	the fourth dose boosted the	immune response by 2/3 of
infections; the control population consisted of	28010955 individuals, of	whom 5748708 had SARS- population (61.4%)	CoV-2 breakthrough	infections	32 oncological non-	responders to double-dose	BNT162b2		106 cancer patients												
other					Reimann et Ad26.COV2.S	al <sup>[80]</sup> , 2022 after	BNT162b2	RNA	Thakkar et al <sup>[83]</sup> , Two doses of Single-arm	2023 mRNA or one prospective	dose of clinical trial	AD26.CoV2.S	vaccine and	administered a	third dose of	mRNA vaccine					

patients, with neutralizing activity against the Omicron

VMO: Vaccine monitoring observatory; N/A: Not applicable.; 95%CI: confidence interval; AE: PT: variant

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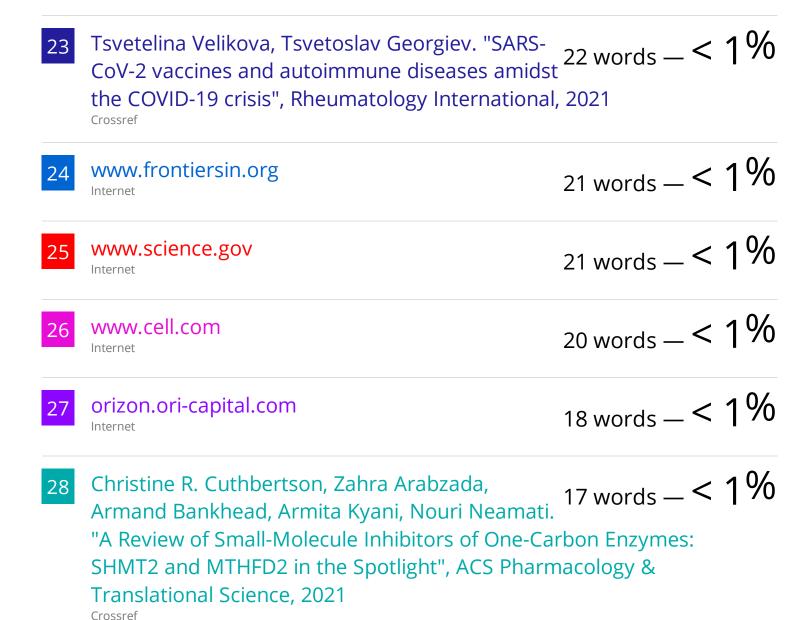
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