



EDITORIAL COMMENT

Proton pump inhibitors and adverse kidney outcomes during immune checkpoint blockade: time to sound the alarm?

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ABSTRACT

Immune checkpoint inhibitors (ICIs) have significantly altered the treatment landscape for cancer in the last decade. However, their benefits are often offset by therapy-limiting immune-related adverse events (irAEs). Acute interstitial nephritis (AIN) is the most common renal irAE, but the exact mechanisms underlying its development are poorly understood. ICI-induced immune activation against drug-derived antigens, leading to an inflammatory response within the kidney interstitium, has been postulated, evidenced by current observations of a higher incidence of ICI-associated AIN in patients receiving AIN-inducing drugs such as proton pump inhibitors (PPIs). The role of PPIs in this specific context has garnered significant attention, given their ubiquitous use and sometimes misuse. In this issue of CKJ Miao *et al.* summarise and synthesize the best available evidence to clarify the interactions of PPIs with ICIs in the development of AIN and other adverse kidney outcomes. The sum of evidence provided appear to implicate PPIs in the development of clinically significant short- and long-term kidney-related adverse effects in patients on immune checkpoint blockade, although causality cannot be proven. In this editorial we discuss the key practical implications of these findings and emphasize the need for further quality studies to delineate the true relationship of ICIs and PPIs in the development of AIN.

Keywords: acute interstitial nephritis, immune checkpoint inhibitors, proton pump inhibitors

Immune checkpoint inhibitors (ICIs) have significantly altered the treatment landscape for cancer in the last decade and are now the standard of care for multiple cancers. Their widespread use has resulted in the emergence of a myriad of immune-mediated toxicities that can affect any organ system at variable time points during therapy and are collectively termed immune-related adverse events (irAEs). Acute interstitial nephritis (AIN) is the most frequently observed kidney irAE, with glomerular diseases and electrolyte/acid-base disturbances being increas-

ingly reported [1, 2]. Exact mechanisms underlying the development of irAEs, including AIN occurring during ICI use are poorly defined. They are broadly understood to be off-target adverse effects caused by the ICI-induced disruption of homeostatic peripheral tolerance, a process normally regulated by the CTLA-4 and PD-1/PD-L1 pathways. This leads to consequent activation of the immune system towards itself and other non-tumour environmental antigens. Potential sources of the latter may include diet, viruses and, more importantly, drugs [3].

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In this issue of *Clinical Kidney Journal*, Miao *et al.* [4] review and summarise the evidence evaluating the link between PPIs and ICIs in the development of AIN and revisit the role of PPIs in adverse kidney outcomes. Growing evidence from observational studies appears to suggest a potential association between PPIs and ICI-associated AIN (ICI-AIN), evidenced by an increased risk of ICI-related acute kidney injury (AKI) [5–8] as well as a more rapid onset of AKI [9] in patients concurrently on PPIs and ICIs. Reported risk can be as significant as 3-fold and has been consistently reported in larger studies [5, 10]. Recurrence of ICI-AIN is also more likely when PPI is continued at the time of ICI rechallenge. More recently, a meta-analysis evaluating 27 studies has reported PPIs to be a significant risk factor for AKI in patients receiving ICIs [pooled odds ratio 2.23 [95% confidence interval (CI) 1.88–2.64], $P < .001$, $I^2 = 0.0\%$, $n = 8$ studies] [11]. Interestingly, adverse long-term kidney outcomes, defined as a composite of new-onset chronic kidney disease (CKD) or significant (>30%) estimated glomerular filtration rate (eGFR) decline sustained for >90 days, have also been reported in a single study of ICI-treated patients, where PPI was identified as the only other significant risk predictor besides age [12]. Although causality cannot be proven due to the observational nature of these studies, the sum of evidence provided by these findings implicates PPIs in the development of clinically significant short- and long-term kidney-related adverse effects in patients on immune checkpoint blockade.

Several pathomechanisms have been postulated in AIN occurring during ICI use. These include the perturbation of immune tolerance to self or haptenized kidney antigens as a result of checkpoint inhibition, reactivation of latent drug-specific T cells, production of kidney-specific autoantibodies and induction of inflammatory cytokines, all of which may occur in combination or isolation [13]. Although the direct contributions of PPIs and their interactions with these mechanisms in ICI-AIN remain speculative and have yet to be addressed by quality basic or translational studies, several observations from published reports lend reasonable support to the hypothesized interaction between drug-derived antigens, drug-specific T cells primed to these antigens and the broader role of immune tolerance in the pathogenesis of AIN. The presence of circulating T cells demonstrating reactivity to the PPI lansoprazole has been seen using the drug lymphocyte stimulation test in the context of ICI-AIN, supporting the existence of drug-specific T cells, although it is understood that their presence alone does not automatically equate to disease [14]. However, when the immune activation threshold is consequently lowered by checkpoint inhibition, antigenic rechallenge could conceivably trigger reactivation of these drug-specific T cells, best evidenced by anecdotal reports of AIN recurring with inadvertent PPI re-exposure in both ICI- [8] and non-ICI-treated patients [15].

Miao *et al.* [4] reviewed and found few clinical or histological features that reliably distinguish between classic AIN induced by non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs) and/or antibiotics, PPI-AIN and ICI-AIN, perhaps owing to the non-specific clinical presentation of AIN in general. Of note, perceived differences relating to the timing of onset of AKI in relation to drug exposure has been described among classic AIN, PPI-AIN and ICI-AIN [16], but overlap appears to exist. Reasons for this heterogeneity in temporality are presently unaddressed by available studies. However, the highly variable onset of ICI-AIN ranging from hyperacute to delayed presentations [10, 17, 18], together with our understanding of immune checkpoint inhibition, would argue against a direct tubulointerstitial toxic effect of ICIs. Several translational studies have since indicated

the role of chemokine C-X-C motif ligand (CXCL9) in promoting kidney tubulointerstitial inflammation in various settings [19, 20], including those occurring during ICI use [21–23]. More recently, Moledina *et al.* [24] observed significantly higher urine CXCL9 levels in patients with biopsy-confirmed AIN of diverse aetiologies, including those induced by drugs (antibiotics, NSAIDs, PPIs, ICIs), compared with non-AIN controls. Patients exhibiting higher levels of urine CXCL9 were also more likely to have received ICI. Although comparison of CXCL9 levels between different drug classes was regrettably not performed in this study due to limited sample size, these data taken in aggregate suggest that AINs, regardless of aetiology, are likely to share fundamental similarities in disease biology.

Consistent with this hypothesis, Adam *et al.* [23] found significant molecular overlap in the gene expression signatures of ICI-AIN, ICI-associated T cell-mediated rejection and drug-induced AIN and, interestingly, with a predominant hypersensitivity fingerprint in these entities. We postulate that all AINs have both unique and shared immunologic origins and are caused by cumulative pathological ‘hits’, with the loss of immune tolerance playing a central role in their pathogenesis. However, unlike in ICI-AIN, where the breach of immune tolerance can be reasonably attributed to checkpoint inhibition, the origins of the loss of renal tolerance may be less readily identified in other forms of AIN, including PPI-AIN. The diversity of kidney irAEs, which includes *de novo* glomerular diseases [1, 25], further supports the presence of an underlying systemic immune dysregulation unmasking their development.

The emerging association of PPI with ICI-AIN and the extensive use of PPI makes its potential for theoretical harm in the context of ICI use difficult to disregard, although it is unclear how the evidence presented should inform clinical practice. The risk of kidney irAEs may theoretically be lessened by avoiding implicated external antigens such as PPIs. As pointed out by the authors, current evidence is insufficiently robust to recommend a complete avoidance of PPIs. As any PPI exposure may hypothetically result in the sensitization and development of drug-specific T cells, this risk exposure may be difficult to modify unless the drug is strictly avoided during ICI use. As AIN-inducing medications are not limited to PPIs alone, it is neither feasible nor practical for cancer patients to avoid all classes of AIN-inducing drugs indefinitely. However, as PPIs are more frequently associated with inappropriate use or overuse compared with NSAIDs and antibiotics, emphasizing their rational use in cancer patients receiving ICIs remains a sensible approach to mitigating the risk of adverse kidney outcomes while maximizing benefits.

Although it has been suggested that the decision to discontinue PPIs should be based on the lack of an indication for continued PPI use, rather than on the sole concern for PPI-associated adverse events [26], in specific high-stakes situations like ICI rechallenge, it may be prudent to avoid PPIs, along with other AIN-associated medications. A gastroenterology consult should be obtained for patients with definitive indications for long-term use of PPIs for consideration of suitable alternatives. Otherwise, we propose that PPI use and indication should be routinely reviewed in all ICI-treated patients at each clinical opportunity, with dose and duration limited to the minimum required for those with indications, and PPIs should be actively deprescribed when deemed non-essential, in accordance to current best practices [26]. Benefits of indicated use arguably outweigh the potential risks of ICI-AIN given the relative rarity of kidney irAEs, with short courses with rapid taper or on-demand use additionally justified, as the risk of AIN appears to be graded according to the

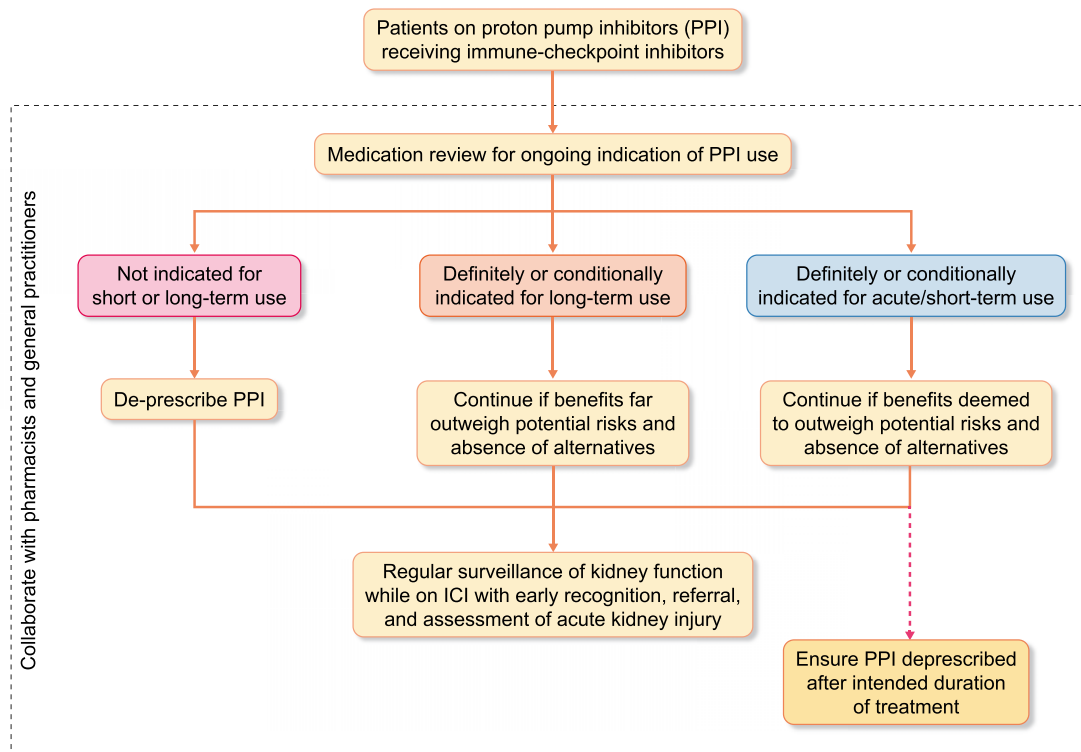


Figure 1: Suggested work flow on promoting responsible use of PPIs in patients treated with ICIs.

dose and duration of PPI use [27]. Whether merits of these proposed strategies outweigh the alternative use of H2 antagonists in reducing ICI-AIN is unknown.

Facilitating these practice changes would ultimately require oncopharmacologists to raise community awareness and provide practical guidance on why and how responsible use of PPIs should be encouraged in this context. This should be performed in tandem with stakeholder engagement with the oncology and other relevant medical communities for effective dissemination and sustained implementation. Practically, these medication interventions may be integrated into the medication reconciliation and review process as potential quality initiatives [27] (Fig. 1) and supported or led by oncology pharmacists, who are increasingly recognised as integral members of multidisciplinary oncological care teams [28]. Meanwhile, continued efforts should be made to evaluate the real-world incidence of AIN in patients on concurrent ICI and PPI therapy, as well as the role of PPI in the pathogenesis of ICI-AIN. This is undoubtedly challenging due to the relative paucity of high-quality, prospectively controlled studies, as well as animal models to replicate human disease seen in kidney irAEs. Experimental models of AIN exist [29] but have not been formally investigated in the setting of ICI. Nonetheless, the collection of detailed drug exposure inclusive of ever and current exposure of AIN-inducing drugs in ICI users, together with detailed, longitudinal blood and organ immune analyses such as drug-specific T cells and/or other relevant biomarkers collected at various time points of treatment and at the time of kidney irAEs and T cell subsets within kidney interstitial infiltrates, may help to clarify the relationship between ICI-AIN, PPI-AIN and AIN-inducing medications. These may be facilitated through the use of well-designed ICI patient registries and

biobanking and championed by concerted, multi-institutional efforts.

While pending further quality studies to clarify the interaction of PPIs with ICIs in AIN development, multidisciplinary approaches that focus on early recognition, referral and assessment of all AKIs occurring in the context of ICIs remain crucial for optimal outcomes. Poorer kidney prognosis seen in PPI-AIN without concurrent ICI therapy may be related to delayed diagnosis due to a lack of active surveillance, leading to chronic interstitial inflammation and fibrosis. Conversely, the regular surveillance of kidney function in patients on ICI therapy, together with heightened awareness of irAEs, may allow earlier recognition and treatment, and consequently better outcomes. The ability to rapidly diagnose ICI-AIN with the use of non-invasive, point-of-care diagnostics is highly desirable and may be possible in the future should promising biomarkers such as urinary CXCL9 become sufficiently validated for routine use. Despite the lack of randomised controlled studies, corticosteroids have been utilised successfully to treat ICI-AIN occurring with or without concurrent PPI, especially when commenced in a timely fashion, and are accepted as first-line treatment [10]. In cases of ICI-AIN where PPI has been implicated, rechallenge with the same or a different PPI is understandably discouraged, especially if ICI rechallenge is considered [30]. However, there remains a paucity of data guiding the safety and use of other AIN-predisposing medications in the setting of ICI-AIN, with trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole being a drug of particular relevance, being the most common option for *Pneumocystis carinii* pneumonia prophylaxis during prolonged steroid therapy. Its avoidance has been suggested in this specific setting [4] on the basis of AIN-risk minimisation in general rather than a recommendation rooted in evidence.

The epidemiological evidence presented in the review by Miao et al. [4] signals yet another potential association of PPIs with adverse kidney outcomes, with emerging data from a specific population of cancer patients receiving ICIs. Prospective studies are warranted to delineate the true relationship of ICIs and PPIs in the development of AIN, but careful and appropriate use of PPI in ICI-treated patients should be strongly encouraged on the basis of precautionary principles. Future studies looking at the long-term effectiveness in reducing AIN and adverse kidney outcomes in this subpopulation and sustainability of this proposed strategy are additionally required.

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AUTHORS' CONTRIBUTIONS

Authors contributed equally to the article.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT

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