

Tumour Review

Interleukin-8: a tumor-agnostic biomarker integrating cancer biology and host response across solid tumors



Ilaria Mariangela Scaglione^{a,1}, Chiara Bazzichetto^{b,c,1}, Michele Borghesani^a,
 Francesca Zacchi^a, Serena Eccher^a, Marco Sposito^a, Jessica Insolda^a, Elena Giontella^a,
 Elena Trevisani^a, Alice Avancini^d, Daniela Tregnago^a, Sara Cingarlini^a, Sara Pilotto^a,
 Fabiana Conciatori^{b,c,*}, Lorenzo Belluomini^{a,2}, Michele Milella^{a,2,**}

^a Section of Oncology, Department of Engineering for Innovation Medicine (DIMI), University of Verona School of Medicine and Verona University Hospital Trust, Verona, Italy

^b Preclinical Models and New Therapeutic Agents Unit, IRCCS Regina Elena National Cancer Institute, 00144 Rome, Italy

^c Medical Oncology 1, IRCCS Regina Elena National Cancer Institute, 00144 Rome, Italy

^d Department of Neurosciences, Biomedicine and Movement, University of Verona, Verona, Italy

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ABSTRACT

Interleukin-8 (IL-8/CXCL8) drives tumor progression via CXCR1/2 signaling, promoting proliferation, invasion, angiogenesis, and recruitment of pro-tumoral immune and stromal cells. Accumulating clinical evidence indicates that elevated circulating or intratumoral IL-8 levels are consistently associated with adverse prognosis and reduced therapeutic benefit across principal solid tumors. In particular, IL-8 has emerged as a promising prognostic and predictive biomarker of resistance to immune checkpoint inhibitors. This review highlights its prognostic and predictive value across gastrointestinal, genitourinary, lung, melanoma, breast, ovarian, and head and neck cancers, and discusses strategies targeting IL-8 and the need for standardized, clinically actionable assays.

Introduction

Interleukin-8 (IL-8, CXCL8) is a pro-inflammatory chemokine originally identified for its role in neutrophil chemotaxis and activation [1]. Strategically positioned at the tumor/host interface, IL-8 regulates multiple aspects of tumor biology and therapeutic resistance across a spectrum of different malignancies [2]. Once released as a soluble factor in the tumor microenvironment (TME), IL-8 acts in an autocrine and paracrine fashion by binding to the CXCR1 and CXCR2 receptors on the surface of tumor, stromal, and immune cells; downstream-activated

pathways, like the canonical MAPK and PI3K cascades, in turn, orchestrate many biological functions in the tumor and stromal/immune compartments, resulting in an aggressive cancer behaviour [3] (Fig. 1).

The *IL-8* gene, located at 4q12-q13, presents over 700 single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs), such as – 251 T/A (rs4073), +781C/T (rs2227306), +1633C/T (rs2227543) and + 2767 A/T (rs1126647), occurring in both coding and non-coding regions. Although results are not always consistent across studies, non-coding IL8 variants are generally associated with altered susceptibility or outcome in inflammatory, infectious, and neoplastic diseases (Table 1), through altered

* Corresponding author at: Preclinical Models and New Therapeutic Agents Unit, IRCCS Regina Elena National Cancer Institute, 00144 Rome, Italy.

** Corresponding author at: Section of Innovation Biomedicine - Oncology Area, Department of Engineering for Innovation Medicine (DIMI), University of Verona, P. le L.A. Scuro 10, 37134 Verona, Italy.

E-mail addresses: ilariascaglione90@gmail.com (I.M. Scaglione), chiara.bazzichetto@ifo.it (C. Bazzichetto), borghesanimichele@gmail.com (M. Borghesani), francesca.zacchi@univr.it (F. Zacchi), sr.eccher@gmail.com (S. Eccher), marcosposito91@gmail.com (M. Sposito), jessica.insolda@univr.it (J. Insolda), giontelena@gmail.com (E. Giontella), elenatrevisani@gmail.com (E. Trevisani), alice.avancini@univr.it (A. Avancini), daniela.tregnago_01@univr.it (D. Tregnago), sara.cingarlini@aovr.veneto.it (S. Cingarlini), sara.pilotto@univr.it (S. Pilotto), fabiana.conciatori@ifo.it (F. Conciatori), lorenzo.belluomini@univr.it (L. Belluomini), michele.milella@univr.it (M. Milella).

¹ Equally contributed (these authors share first co-authorship).

² Equally contributed (these authors share last co-authorship).

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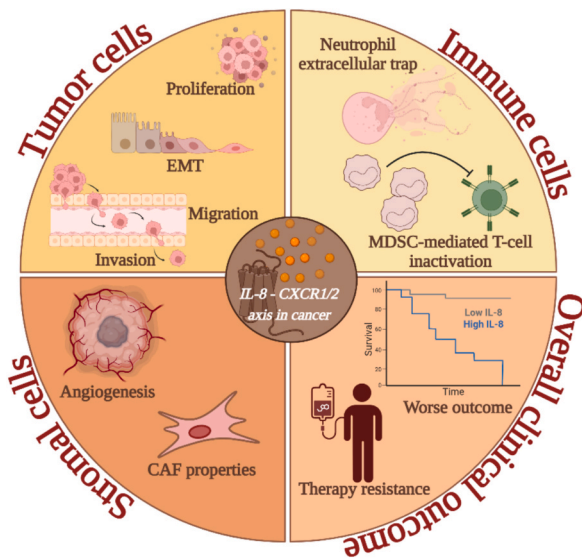


Fig. 1. IL-8 CXCR1/2 axis in cancer – IL-8, released into the tumor microenvironment, acts in an autocrine and paracrine manner through CXCR1/2 receptors on tumor, stromal, and immune cells, activating MAPK and PI3K pathways and promoting aggressive tumor behavior. EMT = Epithelial–mesenchymal transition; CAF =Cancer-Associated Fibroblasts; MDSC = Myeloid-Derived Suppressor Cells.

Table 1
Examples of genetic variants in *IL-8*, *CXCR1* and *CXCR2* genes.

Genetic variants	Reference SNP cluster ID	Biological effect	Cancer type	Ref
IL8				
+781C/T	rs2227306	Protective role	HCC	Zhang M, 2016 [12]
-251 T/A	rs4073	Cancer susceptibility	Breast cancer, Gastric cancer, NPC	Wang N, 2012 [13]
CXCR1				
+860C > G	rs2234671	Decreased DFS, CSS and OS	pCCA	Lurje I, 2022 [14]
-1566C/G	rs3138060	Cancer susceptibility	Breast cancer	Gallegos-Arreola MP, 2020 [15]
CXCR2				
+1208C/T	rs2227532	Cancer susceptibility	Breast cancer, Gastrointestinal cancers, Genitourinary cancers	Zhou J, 2021 [16]
+1208 TT	rs1126579	Cancer susceptibility	Breast cancer	Snoussi K, 2010 [17]

Legend. CSS = cancer-specific survival; DFS = disease-free survival; OS = overall survival, HCC = hepatocarcinoma, NPC = nasopharyngeal carcinoma, pCCA = perihilar cholangiocarcinoma.

regulation of IL-8 expression [4]. IL-8 expression is mostly regulated at the transcriptional and mRNA stability level, while protein turnover contributes less prominently. As a member of the ELR + chemokine family, IL-8 acts by binding and activating the selective CXCR1 (recognizing both IL-8 and GCP-2/CXCL6) and the more promiscuous CXCR2 (recognizing several ELR + chemokines, such as CXCL5 and CXCL7) receptors, within the context of partial functional redundancy across this chemokine family [5]. Despite redundancy, IL-8 retains a distinctive biological relevance, also due to its ability to engage both CXCR1 and CXCR2 and remains the most extensively investigated family member. Genetic variants have also been described in the *CXCR1* and *CXCR2*

genes and potentially correlate with cancer prognosis. Some examples, reported in Table 1, include + 860C > G (rs2234671) and -1566C/G (rs3138060) for *CXCR1*, and + 1208 TT (rs1126579) and + 1208C/T (rs2227532) for *CXCR2*.

From a functional standpoint, IL-8 can contribute to a more aggressive biological and clinical tumor behaviour by acting at several levels. In cancer cells, it stimulates cell proliferation, epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition (EMT), migration and invasion, and promotes metastatic spread [6,7]. In the TME, IL-8 promotes angiogenesis and the recruitment of inflammatory cells, such as neutrophils, to induce the formation of tumor-promoting neutrophil extracellular traps (NET) [8,9]. Furthermore, IL-8 also enhances pro-tumoral properties of cancer-associated fibroblasts (CAF) [10] and immune-suppressive activities of myeloid derived suppressor cells (MDSC) [11].

In this review, we focus on the prognostic and/or predictive potential of IL-8 across different tumor types, potentially supporting its role as a tumor-agnostic biomarker (Table 2). We also discuss recent clinical evidence and mechanistic insights supporting the development of IL-8–targeted strategies to overcome resistance and improve treatment outcomes.

Interleukin-8 as a Prognostic/Predictive biomarker across different tumor types

Gastrointestinal cancers

Colorectal cancer (CRC)

Among GI cancers, the potential role of IL-8 has been most intensively investigated in CRC. We and others have demonstrated that the genetic/molecular background of CRC cells (BRAF mutations, PTEN loss, etc.) dictates their ability to produce IL-8, through modulation of specific transcription factors, such as NF-κB, AP-1, and CHOP [64,65]. IL-8 can affect several aspects of CRC cell behaviour, including stemness, plasticity, and metastatic ability [66,67]. From a clinical standpoint, several studies demonstrate a strong, statistically significant correlation between high IL-8 expression (particularly as measured in plasma or serum) and worse outcome, in terms of both overall survival (OS) and progression free survival (PFS), with a more than doubled risk of death for patients with high circulating levels of IL-8 detected in recent meta-analyses [65,68]; such prognostic effect appears to be independent of the type of systemic treatment applied (chemotherapy ± anti-angiogenic agents), thus suggesting a prognostic, rather than predictive, impact. Moreover, the IL-8–251 A/A polymorphism is related to a greater risk of tumor recurrence in resected, stage III CRC patients [69].

Esophago-gastric cancers. The prognostic/predictive relevance of IL-8 expression has been less studied in other GI tumors. In oesophageal cancer (both squamous cell carcinoma and adenocarcinoma), IL-8 and its receptor CXCR2 are overexpressed, as compared to healthy subjects or non-tumoral tissue, and have been reported to correlate with local invasion, nodal involvement, disease stage, and prognosis [70–72]. Selected IL-8 polymorphisms (–251 A/T, +781C/T, –353 A/T) appear to be involved in gastric cancer susceptibility [73]; one of these polymorphisms (–251 T > A) is also significantly associated with time to relapse (TTR; P = 0.003) and OS (P = 0.049, after adjusting for covariates), in localized gastric adenocarcinoma [74].

Pancreatic and liver cancers

In pancreatic cancer, IL-8 is upregulated downstream of TGFβ-activated kinase 1 (TAK1) and the IL-8/CXCR2 axis promotes MMP-2 activity, thereby promoting invasion and metastasis [75]. Expression levels of IL-8 and CXCR2 (together with IL-6 and IL-10) are higher in cancer patients, as compared to healthy subjects or non-tumoral tissue, and correlate with lymph node metastases [76], therapeutic resistance, and poor survival [77,78]. Although IL-8 polymorphisms do not appear to confer increased risk of developing hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) in a Chinese population [79], preclinical data suggest that IL-8 promotes

Table 2
Overview of key clinical trials on the prognostic role of IL-8.

First author, year	Study design	Study sample (N)	Histology	Stage	Type of treatment	Pts with IL-8 data	IL-8 detection	IL-8 cut-off	Results
Gastrointestinal cancers									
Suenaga M, 2020 [18]	Pooled analysis	125	CRC	IV	BEV vs TKI	125	Serum	15.1	OS HR 4.31 (95%CI 2.11–8.79, P < 0.001)
Marisi G, 2018 [19]	Prospective	376	CRC	IV	CT + BEV	58	Serum	145	OS HR 7.68 (95% CI: 2.59–22.77, P = <0.001) PFS HR 7.39 (95% CI: 1.9–9.7, P = <0.001)
Taberero J, 2015 [20]	Prospective	760	CRC	IV	TKI	611	Plasma	NA	OS HR 3.48 (95% CI: 2.39–5.06, P = <0.001) PFS HR 1.63 (95% CI: 1.22–2.18, P = <0.001)
Hamilton TD, 2014 [21]	Prospective	69	CRC	IV	Surgery	69	Serum	NA	mOS HR 4.96 (95% CI: 1.35–17.6, P = 0.014)
Liu Y, 2013 [22]	Prospective	38	CRC	IV	CT + BEV	38	Plasma	NA (Range baseline 17.3–415.7)	OS HR 2.2 (95% CI: 1.06–4.4, P = 0.0304)
Spencer SKM, 2013 [23]	Retrospective	207	CRC	IV	CT vs CT + TKI	207	Serum	NA	High IL-8 levels associated with poor PFS and OS
Bruhn MA, 2013 [24]	Retrospective	471	CRC	IV	BEV	196	Tissue	NA (Range baseline 0.05–9.74)	mPFS (IL-8 ≤ 1.21) HR 0.51 (95% CI: 0.27–0.98, P = 46) mPFS (IL-8 ≥ 1.21) HR 0.76 (95% CI: 0.46–1.24, P = 46)
Genitourinary cancers									
Carril-Ajuria L, 2025 [25]	Prospective	353	RCC	IV	Nivolumab	353	Plasma	17.918 pg/mL	OS HR 2.11 (95% CI, 1.60–2.80).
Lin Y, 2025 [26]	Pooled analysis	2740	RCC + UC	IV	IO/TKI/BEV/mTORinh	2740	Plasma	Different in each study	OS HR 1.86; 95% CI: 1.72–2.02 PFS HR 1.59; 95%CI: 1.25–2.03.
Powles T, 2021 [27]	Prospective	316	RCC	IV	Cabozantinib	NA	Plasma	4.601 pg/mL	OS HR 1.77 95% CI: 1.25–2.5 PFS HR 1.03 95%, CI: 0.76–1.4
Powles T, 2021 [27]	Prospective	305	RCC	IV	EVE	NA	Plasma	5.049 pg/mL	OS HR 1.67, 95% CI: 1.23–2.27. PFS HR 1.33, 95% CI: 1.01–1.76
Maynard JP, 2020 [28]	Retrospective	38	PCa	Localized	Not treated	38	Tissue	Continuous value	High IL-8 levels associated with high grade PCa (p = 0.005)
Yuen KC, 2020 (Imvigor210-Cohort 1) [29]	Prospective	119	mUC	IV	Atezo	88	Plasma	Median IL8 (NA)	OS HR 2.7, 95% CI: 1.48–4.87, p = 0.022
Yuen KC, 2020 (Imvigor210-Cohort 2) [29]	Prospective	310	mUC	IV	Atezo	241	Plasma	Median IL8 (NA)	OS HR = 1.84, 95% CI: 1.8, 2.26, P = 4.74E-05
Yuen KC, 2020 (Imvigor211-Cohort Atezo) [29]	Prospective	467	mUC	IV	Atezo	443	Plasma	Median IL8 (NA)	OS HR 1.84, 95% CI: 1.66–2.52, p = 7.19E-09
Yuen KC, 2020 (Imvigor211-Cohort CT) [29]	Prospective	464	mUC	IV	CT	425	Plasma	Median IL8 (NA)	OS HR 1.67, 95% CI: 1.38–2.03, p = 1.08E-07
Yuen KC, 2020 (IMmotion150) [29]	Prospective	103	mRCC	IV	Atezo	80	Plasma	Median IL8 (NA)	OS HR 2.55, 95% CI: 1.8–5.5, p = 0.017
Yuen KC, 2020 (IMmotion150) [29]	Prospective	101	mRCC	IV	ATEZO + BEV	82	Plasma	Median IL8 (NA)	OS HR 1.25, 95% CI 0.61–2.6, p = 0.535
Yuen KC, 2020 (IMmotion150) [29]	Prospective	101	mRCC	IV	sunitinib	79	Plasma	Median IL8 (NA)	OS HR 1.48, 95% CI: 0.69–3.2, p = 0.314

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Table 2 (continued)

First author, year	Study design	Study sample (N)	Histology	Stage	Type of treatment	Pts with IL-8 data	IL-8 detection	IL-8 cut-off	Results
Harshman LC, 2020 [30]	Prospective	233	PCa	mHNPC	ADT+-docetaxel	233	Plasma	9.3 pg/ml	mOS HR 1.7 (95% CI: 1.2, 2.4, p = 0.007) time to CRPC HR 1.8 (95% CI: 1.3, 2.5, P < 0.001)
Schalper KA, 2020 [31]	Retrospective	392	RCC	IV	Nivolumab	392	Plasma	23 pg/mL	OS HR: 2.56 95% CI: 1.89–3.45 PFS HR: 1.36 95% CI: 1.07–1.772
Schalper KA, 2020 [31]	Retrospective	348	RCC	IV	EVE	348	Plasma	23 pg/mL	OS HR: 2.4; 95% CI: 1.78–3.2
Msaouel P, 2017 [32]	Retrospective	37	RCC (ccRCC + nccRCC)	IV	sunitinib versus EVE	37	Plasma	3.70 pg/mL sunitinib 5.18 pg/mL EVE	OS HR 3.55, 95% CI: 1.55–8.14 PFS HR 3.13 95% CI: 1.41–6.92
Bilen MA, 2015 [33]	Prospective	53	RCC (ccRCC + nccRCC)	IV	sunitinib	53	Plasma	22.32 pg/mL	OS HR: 2.61, 95% CI: 1.03–6.58 PFS HR: 1.54, 95% CI: 0.87–2.72
Sharma J, 2014 [34]	Retrospective	122	PCa	mHNPC	ADT	122	Plasma	0.97 log10 pg/mL	mOS HR 1.9 (95% CI: 1.0, 3.5, P = 0.04) time to CRPC HR 1.4 (95% CI: 0.9, 2.2, p = 0.13)
Harmon CS, 2014 [35]	Prospective	33	RCC	IV	sunitinib	NA	Plasma	7 pg/mL	OS HR 1.11, 95% CI: 1.022–1.2
Harmon CS, 2014 [35]	Prospective	30	RCC	IV	IFN- α	NA	Plasma	9.5 pg/mL	OS HR 1.013 95% CI: 0.969–1.06; PFS HR 1.018 95% CI: 0.964–1.08
Lung cancer									
Rice SJ, 2021 (Cohort 1) [36]	Prospective	184	NSCLC	NA	IO/CT/ target therapy	184	Plasma	NA	OS HR 1.3 (95% CI 1.1–1.5, p = 0.004) PFS HR 1.2 (95% CI 1.00–1.4, p = 0.019)
Rice SJ, 2021 (Cohort 2) [36]	Prospective	51	SCLC	NA	IO/CT	51	Plasma	NA	OS HR 1.00 (95% CI 0.88–1.2, p = 0.806) PFS HR 1.1 (95% CI 0.92–1.2, p = 0.407)
Shi Y, 2021 [37]	Cohort study	59	NSCLC	III-IV	IO	59	Plasma	4.9 pg/ml	PFS HR 1.590 (95% CI: 0.744–3.398, p = 0.231) OS HR 1.816 (95% CI: 0.699–4.718, p = 0.221)
Kauffmann-Guerrero, 2021 [38]	Prospective	29	NSCLC	IV	IO	29	Plasma	16.9 pg/ml	PFS (95% CI 2.71–5.29, P = 0.030)
Zhou J, 2021 [39]	Retrospective	156	All histologies (including SCLC)	IV	IO	42	Plasma	7 pg/ml	PFS HR 0.32 (95% CI 0.07–1.36, p = 0.087)
Sui X, 2021 [40]	Prospective	31	NSCLC	IIB – IIIB	CT/RT	31	Plasma	4.34 pg/ml	PFS HR 0.79 (95% CI 0.630–0.985, p = 0.036)
Gu L, 2021 [41]	Retrospective	232	NSCLC	I – IIIA	Surgery	232	Tissue	IHC > 3	OS HR 1.27 (95% CI 0.908–1.763, p = 0.164) DFS HR 1.19 (95% CI 0.882–1.602, p = 0.256)
Schalper KA, 2020 (Cohort 1) [31]	Retrospective	135	Squamous NSCLC	IV	IO	108	Plasma	23 pg/ml	OS HR 1.84 (95% CI 1.19–2.83, p = 0.0051) PFS HR 1.28 (95% CI 0.81–2.00)
Schalper KA, 2020 (Cohort 2 – IO) [31]	Retrospective	292	Non-squamous NSCLC	IV	IO	255	Plasma	23 pg/ml	OS HR 1.90 (95% CI 1.42–2.53, p = <0.0001) PFS HR 1.60 (95% CI 1.19–2.15)
Schalper KA, 2020 (Cohort 2 – CT) [31]	Retrospective	290	Non-squamous NSCLC	IV	CT	253	Plasma	23 pg/ml	OS HR 2.98 (95% CI 2.12–3.98, P = <0.0001)

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Table 2 (continued)

First author, year	Study design	Study sample (N)	Histology	Stage	Type of treatment	Pts with IL-8 data	IL-8 detection	IL-8 cut-off	Results
Hardy Werbin, 2019 (Cohort 2) [42]	Cohort study	37	SCLC	IV	IO	37	Plasma	13.82 pg/ml	PFS 6.9 m OS 17 m (P = 0.031)
Fidler MJ, 2017 (Cohort 1) [43]	Prospective	32	NSCLC	IIIB – IV	CT	32	Plasma	10 vs 90th percentile	OS HR 5.11 (95% CI 1.86–14.03, p = 0.002) PFS HR 4.94 (95% CI 1.77–13.76, p = 0.002)
Fidler MJ, 2017 (Cohort 2) [43]	Prospective	79	NSCLC	IIIB – IV	Target therapy	79	Plasma	10 vs 90th percentile	OS HR 1.18 (95% CI 0.92–1.51, p = 0.205) PFS HR 0.92 (95% CI 0.78–1.09, p = 0.339)
Cheng D, 2013 [44]	Prospective	71	All histologies, including SCLC	IV	CT	71	Pleural effusion	1693 pg/ml	OS HR 2.84 (95% CI 1.987–3.689, p = 0.001) DFS HR 2.38 (95% CI 1.245–3.555, p = 0.001)
Ryan BM, 2014 [45]	Retrospective	548	All histologies (including SCLC)	I – IV	NA	548	Plasma	75th percentile	OS HR 1.23 (95% CI 1.00–1.52, p = 0.047)
Seike M, 2007 [46]	Retrospective	80	NSCLC	I	Surgery	30	Tissue	6.4 pg/mg	OS HR 2.66 (95% CI 1.04–6.82, p = 0.03)
Orditura M, 2002 [47]	Prospective	60	NSCLC	III – IV	CT	60	Plasma	79.5 pg/ml	OS HR 2.89 (95% CI 1.40–5.97, p = 0.0025)
Melanoma Madsen CO, 2025 [48]	Pooled analysis of prospective trials	47	Melanoma	IV	TIL-ACT	47	Plasma	Continuous value	Post Treatment IL-8 significantly higher among non-responders (p = 0.0016)
Levati L, 2024 [49]	Prospective	70	Melanoma	IV	BRAF ⁱ + MEK ⁱ	70	Plasma	4.32 pg/ml	Mortality HR 3.98 (95% CI 2.13–7.45, p = <0.0001) Progression HR 2.38 (95% CI 1.38–4.09, p = <0.002) IL-8 levels trend correlates with Best Response (p = 0.04) and Progression (p = 0.046).
Pedersen JG, 2020 [50]	Prospective	16	Melanoma	IV	anti-PD1/anti-CTLA4	16	Plasma	Median value	No difference in PFS
Schalper KA, 2020 (Cohort 2) [31]	Retrospective	316	Melanoma	IV	Nivo	292	Plasma	23 pg/ml	OS HR 2.58 (95% CI 1.82–3.66, p = <0.0001)
Schalper KA, 2020 (Cohort 2) [31]	Retrospective	315	Melanoma	IV	Ipi	298	Plasma	23 pg/ml	OS HR 2.06 (95% CI 1.52–2.80, p = <0.0001)
Schalper KA, 2020 (Cohort 2) [31]	Retrospective	314	Melanoma	IV	Nivo + Ipi	297	Plasma	23 pg/ml	OS HR 3.06 (95% CI 2.13–4.41, p = <0.0001)
Lim S.Y, 2019 [51]	Prospective	58	Melanoma	IV	anti-PD1 + anti-CTLA4	58	Plasma	Median value	OS HR 5.14 (95% CI 1.11–23.84, p = <0.0197)
Jamal R, 2017 [52]	Prospective	30	Melanoma	IV	Ipilimumab + CBDCa-TXL	30	Plasma	76 pg/ml	OS HR 3.52 (95% CI 1.43–8.7, p = <0.0037)
Sanmamed MF, 2017 [53]	Prospective	29	Melanoma	IV	anti-PD1	29	Plasma	Concentration trend	IL-8 concentration trend correlates with Best Response (p = 0.001) and Progression (p = 0.004).
Sanmamed MF, 2017 [53]	Prospective	15	Melanoma	IV	anti-PD1 + anti-CTLA4	15	Plasma	Concentration trend	IL-8 concentration trend correlates with Best Response (p = 0.001).
Sanmamed MF, 2014 [54]	Prospective	27	Melanoma	IV	BRAF inhibitor	16	Plasma	60 pg/ml	OS (IL-8 low) HR 0.21 (95% CI 0.05–0.92, p = 0.038) IL-8 levels correlate with Best Response (p = 0.001)

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Table 2 (continued)

First author, year	Study design	Study sample (N)	Histology	Stage	Type of treatment	Pts with IL-8 data	IL-8 detection	IL-8 cut-off	Results
Sanmamed MF, 2014 [54]	Prospective	27	Melanoma	IV	Ipilimumab	8	Plasma	Concentration trend	= 0.01) and Disease Progression (p = 0.05) IL-8 increase correlates with Disease Progression OS correlates inversely with IL-8 variations (p = 0.035)
Breast cancer									
Hutajulu SH, 2025 [55]	Prospective	168	Breast	I-IV	Naive	168	Plasma	6.77 pg/mL	OS HR 1.70 (95% CI 1.01–2.84, p = 0.044) PFS HR 1.42 (95% CI 0.71–2.84, p = 0.320) DFS HR 0.88 (95% CI 0.48–1.61, p = 0.690) OS HR 1.63 (95% CI 1.33–1.98, p < 0.0001) PFS HR 1.44 (95% CI 1.18–1.76, p 0.00034) OS HR 1.65 (95% CI 0.82–3.34, p = 0.159) PFS HR 1.32 (95% CI 0.58–3.00, p = 0.493)
Gunnarsdottir FB, 2023 [56]	Prospective	156	Breast	IV	OT/CT/HER2-targeted/missing	136	Serum	NA	Overall postrelapse survival: significantly shorter in pts with IL-8 levels above cut-off value, p = 0.0045
Tiainen L, 2019 [57]	Secondary analysis of a prospective phase 2 trial	65	Breast	IV	Taxane + bevacizumab +/- ET	58	Plasma	9.4 pg/mL	
Benoy IH, 2004 [58]	Prospective	77	Breast	I-IV	Naive	77	Serum	17.2 pg/mL	
Ovarian cancer									
Dobrzycka B, 2013 [59]	Prospective	118	EOC, all histologies	I-IV	cytoreductive surgery +/- platinum-based adjuvant CT	118	Serum	32.19 pg/mL	OS HR 2.32 (95%CI 1.53–3.64, p = 0.014) DSF HR = 0.94 (95%CI 0.86–3.58, p = 0.001)
Aune G, 2012 [60]	Retrospective	113	EOC, all histologies	I-IV	Surgery	113	Plasma	59 pg/ml	Potential prognostic factors HR 1.004 (95% CI 1.000–1.009, p = 0.029)
Merritt WM, 2008 [61]	Retrospective	102	EOC, all histologies	I-IV	cytoreductive surgery +/-paclitaxel- and platinum-based adjuvant CT	102	Tissue	IHC score: low (overall score 0–2) / high (3–4)	Disease-specific survival: HR 3.7 (95% CI 2.0–6.8, p = 0.001)
Head and Neck cancers									
Röhl L, 2023 [62]	Prospective	25	HNSCC	I-IV	IO	25	Serum Plasma	30 pg/ml 12 pg/ml	OS p = 0.106
Fujita Y, 2014 [63]	Prospective	50	OSCC	I-IV	Surgery	50	Serum Tissue	7.5 pg/ml IHC: positive expression > 5% of tumor and stromal cell	DFS longer in the Stage I/II OSCC patients with low serum IL-8 (p = 0.001)

Note. For all, but one (Sanmamed MF, 2014[54]), studies the hazard ratio (HR) for the comparison of patients with high IL-8 levels to those with low IL-8 levels (reference: 1).

Legend. CRC = colon rectal cancer; Atezo = Atezolizumab; ADT = androgen deprivation therapy; BEV: bevacizumab; CI = confidence interval; CRPC = castration resistance prostate cancer; CT = ChemoTherapy; HR= Hazard ratio; IL-8 = InterLeukin-8; IO = Immunotherapy; mOS = median overall survival; N = number; NA = Not Available; RCC = Renal Cell Carcinoma; UC = Urothelial Carcinoma; PCa= Prostate Cancer; mUC = metastatic Urothelial Carcinoma; mRCC = metastatic Renal Cell Carcinoma; ccRCC = clear cell Renal Cell Carcinoma; nccRCC = non-clear cell Renal Cell Carcinoma, NSCLC = Non-Small Cell Lung Cancer; OS = overall survival; PCa = prostate cancer; PFS = progression-free survival; pts = patients; RT = RadioTherapy; SCLC = Small Cell Lung Cancer. OSCC = Oral squamous cell carcinoma; HNSCC = head and neck squamous cell carcinoma; ET = endocrine therapy; IHC = immunohistochemistry.

an aggressive behaviour of malignant hepatocytes in terms of proliferation, migration and apoptosis. Indeed, in HCC, IL-8 is upregulated in cancer versus non-cancer tissue and correlates with tumor invasiveness and advanced stage [80]; moreover, high IL-8 levels, combined with ERK2 activation, are predictive of advanced stage, poor differentiation, and worse prognosis in terms of disease-free survival (DFS) and OS in resected HCC [81]. In intrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma, the IL-8—251 T/A or A/A polymorphisms are associated with shorter OS [82]; moreover, the + 860C > G polymorphism in the gene coding for the CXCL6 (GCP-2)/IL-8 receptor CXCR1 is an independent prognostic factor for

DFS (p = 0.008), cancer specific survival (CSS; p = 0.001), and OS (p = 0.001) at multivariate analysis in resected perihilar cholangiocarcinoma [5,14].

Lung and thoracic cancers

Lung cancer (LC)

Numerous studies have suggested a potential correlation between IL-8 levels and worse prognosis in both small cell and non-small cell lung cancer (SCLC and NSCLC, respectively). As already discussed for CRC,

IL-8 production in LC depends on the tumor genetic background: IL-8 is transcriptionally upregulated by oncogenic KRAS in NSCLC [83,84], resulting in tumor-associated inflammation and neovascularization and correlating with adverse clinical factors (such as older age, smoking history, pleural and vascular invasion [83] and significantly reduced DFS and OS in resected patients [85]. Second, IL-8 promotes an immunosuppressive TME by recruiting MDSC and neutrophils, both of which inhibit cytotoxic T cell function and impair effective anti-tumor immune responses [5]. Additionally, IL-8 is associated with EMT, increased tumor cell plasticity, and angiogenesis, and modulates immune checkpoint expression, thereby indirectly and directly affecting the efficacy of immune checkpoint inhibitors (ICI) [5]. Third, IL-8 promotes stem-like traits, which are lost upon IL-8 knockdown, and suppresses drug-induced apoptosis in EGFR-mutant lung adenocarcinoma cells, resulting in reversible resistance to EGFR inhibitors in preclinical models and shorter PFS in gefitinib-treated patients [86]. Fourth, IL-8 produced by stromal cells, such as CD248⁺ CAFs, may contribute to cisplatin resistance by activating the NF- κ B signaling pathway and upregulating ABCB1 expression in mouse models *in vivo* [87]. Finally, IL-8 expression is deeply connected with chronic inflammation in NSCLC: in the context of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, low circulating baseline levels of IL-8 and IL-2R result in longer PFS to ICI [39]; in cachectic NSCLC patients, muscle loss correlate with increased mRNA expression of pro-inflammatory cytokines, such as IL-8 and IL-6, which, in turn, cause muscular atrophy in preclinical models *in vitro* and are associated with reduced survival [88].

Overall, several lines of evidence support the use of IL-8 as a prognostic/predictive biomarker in NSCLC. Zou et al. conducted a systematic review and meta-analysis of 24 datasets from 14 pan-tumor studies (including NSCLC), showing that elevated IL-8 is consistently associated with lower objective response rates (ORR), reduced PFS, and less benefit from ICI treatment [2]; longitudinal changes in circulating IL-8 levels correlate with response to anti-PD-1 therapy [53]; in particular, a decrease greater than 9.2% from baseline in circulating IL-8 within the first 2–3 weeks of treatment demonstrates high sensitivity and specificity in predicting objective response to ICI in both melanoma and NSCLC cohorts [53]. A recent systematic review and meta-analysis conducted by our group and encompassing 14 patient cohorts (accounting for over 2,600 subjects) treated with chemotherapy, immunotherapy, targeted therapy, and surgery, demonstrates that elevated serum IL-8 levels are significantly associated with poorer OS [pooled hazard ratio (HR): 1.75; 95% CI: 1.36–2.26] [89]. Although with a high degree of heterogeneity among studies, pooled analysis shows no significant difference in PFS between patients with high and low IL-8 levels, supporting a prognostic, rather than predictive, role of IL-8 in lung cancer [89]. Sensitivity analysis of OS data, however, shows a more prominent prognostic impact for circulating IL-8 in patients treated with chemotherapy or ICI, as compared with other treatments (encompassing targeted therapy and surgery) [89].

Malignant pleural mesothelioma (MPM) and thymoma

Although less established as a biomarker, IL-8 may play a role in other thoracic malignancies in addition to LC. In MPM, an autocrine circuitry involving Wnt, IL-1 β , and IL-8 controls ABCB5 expression and tumor cell stemness, resulting in chemoresistance and worse time-to-progression (TTP) and OS on first-line chemotherapy [90]. In thymoma, IL-8 has been proposed as an auxiliary biomarker for diagnosis and monitoring, as its levels in naïve T cells are markedly elevated in patients with thymoma (as compared to those with other thymic tumors), decrease after surgical removal, and rise again when thymoma recurs [91].

Genitourinary cancers

Prostate cancer (PCa)

Preclinical evidence identifies IL-8 as a key orchestrator of immune

suppression via polymorphonuclear (PMN)-MDSC recruitment in PCa models: castration leads to increased expression of IL-8, resulting in the recruitment of PMN-MDSCs and promotion of an immunosuppressive TME [92], PCa-derived exosomes transport IL-8, which impairs tumor-infiltrating CD8⁺ T cells' activity by interfering with energy metabolism [93]. Such preclinical insights highlight the IL-8/CXCR2 axis as a biomarker of immune resistance and possibly a promising therapeutic target in PCa. From a clinical point of view, elevated circulating IL-8 levels at androgen deprivation therapy (ADT) initiation have been consistently associated with a shorter time to castration resistance and reduced OS in advanced PCa [34]. These findings were confirmed in the CHARTED trial, enrolling patients with metastatic hormone-naïve PCa and comparing ADT alone versus ADT in combination with docetaxel chemotherapy: elevated circulating IL-8 correlated with worse survival and shorter time to castration-resistance, irrespective of docetaxel administration, metastatic burden, and metachronous versus *de novo* metastatic presentation [30]. IL-8 expression in the TME of PCa patients correlates with aggressive disease and androgen receptor loss in metastatic disease, correlating with more aggressive tumor phenotypes and poorer clinical outcomes [28].

Urothelial and Renal cell carcinoma

In metastatic urothelial carcinoma (mUC) and metastatic renal cell carcinoma (mRCC), elevated baseline IL-8 levels in plasma, peripheral blood mononuclear cells, and tumor tissue are significantly associated with worse OS and reduced efficacy of atezolizumab across three pivotal clinical trials (IMvigor210, IMvigor211, IMmotion150; n = 1,445 patients). Moreover, a significant association between high IL-8 levels and OS was evident for chemotherapy (mUC), but not for anti-angiogenic agents containing (mRCC) treatment arms, while dynamic changes in on-treatment IL-8 levels were significantly associated with OS in mUC receiving ICI [29]. Elevated baseline circulating IL-8 has also been associated with worse outcomes in a real-world study assessing the activity of nivolumab in pretreated advanced RCC [25]. Collectively these data support high circulating IL-8 as a biomarker of poor prognosis and resistance to ICI in mUC and mRCC [29]. In the ABACUS trial comparing neoadjuvant ICI with or without chemotherapy in muscle-invasive bladder cancer, high pre-treatment IL-8 signature predicted better response to neoadjuvant ICI as compared with ICI alone, supporting the hypothesis that chemotherapy may mitigate IL-8 driven immune resistance [94]. A recent meta-analysis encompassing both mUC and mRCC tumor types demonstrated a significant correlation between circulating high IL-8 levels and OS and PFS in patients with both urologic malignancies [26]. Notably, subgroup analyses revealed that this negative prognostic was more pronounced in patients treated with ICI than in those receiving tyrosine kinase inhibitors (TKIs). Consistently, analysis of TCGA RNA seq data confirmed that high tumor CXCL8 expression correlated with reduced OS and DFS in patients with urologic malignancies [26]. Our recently published meta-analysis, involving over 1,700 RCC patients in six clinical trials, confirmed the independent prognostic value of circulating IL-8. Elevated IL-8 levels were significantly associated with reduced OS ([HR] 1.85; 95% [CI] 1.21–2.84; p = 0.001) and PFS (HR 1.27; 95% CI 1.01–1.59; p = 0.037) [95]. Subgroup analyses revealed that such negative prognostic impact was particularly pronounced in patients treated with ICI or mTOR inhibitors (HR 2.57 and HR 2.01, respectively), while the association was weaker or absent in those receiving TKIs (HR 1.47) [95]. These findings support IL-8 as a robust prognostic biomarker in RCC and suggest its potential utility for guiding treatment selection; publicly available tissue-based IL-8 transcriptomic data show a qualitatively similar trend towards association with poorer survival outcomes in resected clear-cell and non-clear cell RCC, again suggesting that the prognostic/predictive impact of IL-8 is independent from either the source of assessment or the histological subtype [95].

Testicular and penile cancer

Although data remain limited in testicular and penile cancers, preliminary studies suggest that intratumoral IL-8 is upregulated alongside other pathways involved in cell proliferation [96]. However, further research is needed on these rarer genitourinary tumor types to draw definitive conclusions regarding the prognostic and potentially predictive role of IL-8.

Melanoma

IL-8 is overexpressed in melanoma compared to normal melanocytes and appears to be positively regulated by hypoxia-dependent transcriptional mechanisms [97]; IL-8 is also secreted by endothelial cells, which predominantly secrete a specific IL-8 isoform, IL-8₇₇, that has twice the chemotactic potency of the IL-8₇₂ isoform secreted by melanoma cells [98]. As for CRC, BRAF mutations are a major driver of IL-8 transcription in melanoma [99,100]. CXCR1 and CXCR2 have also been found to be constitutively expressed and upregulated under hypoxic conditions in melanoma [101–103], with higher levels observed in more aggressive cell lines [104]. IL-8 and CXCR2 expression levels exhibit a linear correlation and are associated with both Clark level and tumor thickness (Breslow > 0.75 mm); moreover, lower levels of the long non-coding RNA Lnc-PKNOX1-1, which negatively regulates IL-8 expression, are found in melanoma patients with greater tumor depth, and higher IL-8 mRNA levels are found in metastatic lesions, as compared to primary tumors [105,106] and may contribute to maintaining melanoma cell stemness [107]. From a clinical perspective, serum IL-8 levels have been associated with adverse outcomes in patients receiving ICI. In a large cohort derived from pivotal phase III clinical trials involving melanoma, NSCLC, and RCC, elevated serum IL-8 concentrations were significantly correlated with reduced OS across tumor histologies, with the most pronounced effect observed in melanoma patients treated with the combination of nivolumab and ipilimumab [31]. Such negative prognostic association was independent of PD-L1 expression and tumor mutational burden (TMB). Furthermore, higher serum IL-8 levels were linked to increased peripheral monocyte and neutrophil counts, while intratumoral IL-8 expression was associated with enhanced monocyte and neutrophil infiltration and diminished IFN- γ - and T-cell-related transcript signatures, indicating a more immunosuppressive TME [31]. Consistently, a meta-analysis by Zou et al. confirmed the unfavourable prognostic impact of elevated IL-8 levels across multiple tumor types and ICI regimens [2]. High circulating IL-8 levels has also been shown to predict poorer outcomes in patients receiving adoptive cell therapy and changes in IL-8 levels post-treatment also correlate with response or failure to such treatment [48]. In terms of treatment monitoring, several studies have demonstrated a correlation between IL and 8 levels and therapeutic response, with IL-8 levels declining in responders to ICI and rising in those with progressive disease (possibly allowing to distinguish true progression from pseudo-progression) [53,54,108]. Levati et al. corroborated these findings, showing that IL-8 plasma levels dropped after two months of targeted therapy and that elevated baseline IL-8 levels were associated with shorter PFS and OS [49]. Taken together, this body of evidence highlights a central role of IL-8 in melanoma growth, progression, migration, stemness, and its strong negative prognostic value, independent of treatment modality. IL-8 is also emerging as a promising biomarker for treatment monitoring, particularly in the context of immunotherapy, where it may help interpret ambiguous clinical responses.

Breast, head and Neck, and ovarian cancer

Breast cancer (BC)

In BC, IL-8 is secreted by both tumor cells and components of the TME [109,110]. Preclinical studies show that abnormal IL-8 expression increases BC cell invasiveness and metastatic potential [111] and sustains stem cell survival [112]. Moreover, silencing IL-8 via siRNA in

preclinical models of ER-negative BC enhances docetaxel efficacy by inducing cell cycle arrest and reducing proliferation [113]; inhibiting endogenous IL-8 also sensitizes multidrug-resistant MCF-7 cells to doxorubicin [114]. In triple-negative BC (TNBC), high IL-8 expression cells are associated with paclitaxel sensitivity but doxorubicin resistance, via an NF- κ B feedback loop promoting survival, Akt/mTOR signaling, and autophagy suppression [115]. Moreover, a large bioinformatics analysis confirmed that IL-8 promotes an immunosuppressive TME, positively correlating with M0 macrophages and activated mast cells, and negatively correlating with CD8 + T cells and resting mast cells; IL-8 expression also correlates with markers of immune escape, including EMT, checkpoint gene expression, high TMB, and poor immunophenoscore [116]. In luminal A BC, elevated IL-8 correlates with reduced tumor-infiltrating lymphocytes, again suggesting an immunosuppressive effect [117]. Clinically, IL-8 expression is higher in aggressive, triple-negative and HER2-enriched tumors, as compared to estrogen receptor (ER)-positive cases [118]; circulating IL-8 also tends to be elevated in these subtypes, where its prognostic value seems greater [119]. High circulating IL-8 levels correlate with more advanced disease [120,121] and independently predict OS and, albeit less consistently, DFS or PFS [55,56]. Of note, IL-8 expression within the TME also appears to be linked to shorter relapse-free survival (RFS)/PFS [122,123], possibly through an inverse correlation with ER expression [123] and a positive association with MMP-9 [124]; in other studies low IL-8 expression by IHC was linked to increased metastasis and recurrence, while high IL-8 was more common in patients who died during follow-up [125]. High IL-8 mRNA levels in tissues of BC patients are also linked to aggressive, poorly differentiated features and associate with worse RFS and OS [126,127]. In TNBC, IL-8 gene signatures predict poor prognosis, while B-cell signatures predict better outcomes; patients with low IL-8 and high B-cell expression exhibit better 5-year EFS, even without systemic therapy [128]. In the neoadjuvant TNBC setting, correlation of circulating IL-8 levels at baseline and at the time of surgery were inconsistently associated with pathologic complete response [129,130]; however, CXCR1/2 expression was an independent prognostic factor for DFS [130]. Persistently high or increasing IL-8 levels during treatment correlate with treatment resistance and worse outcomes [57,131–133]. Overall, preliminary evidence suggests IL-8 as a prognostic/predictive biomarker in BC, albeit with some inconsistencies, related to heterogeneity in patient populations, treatment regimens, and assay methodologies, and with a possible discrepancy between the prognosis-modulating impact of circulating and tissue IL-8 levels.

Head and neck squamous cell carcinoma (HNSCC)

Preclinical evidence suggests a pivotal role for IL-8 in HNSCC progression. HNSCC cell lines show higher IL-8 mRNA and protein levels, as compared to normal epithelial cells [134]. Through CXCR1/2 activation, IL-8 enhances proliferation and clonogenicity, invasion, metastasis, chemoresistance, and EMT [135]. IL-8 is also secreted by TME components [136], recruits tumor-promoting neutrophils [136], inhibits FOXP3 expression [137], promotes monocyte differentiation into CD206⁺ TAMs [138], and activates STAT3 in fibroblasts. This leads to extracellular matrix degradation and increased tumor invasiveness [10]. IL-8 is overexpressed in HNSCC tumor tissues versus healthy mucosa [139] and correlates with more advanced disease [134]. Circulating IL-8 levels are usually higher in HNSCC patients than in healthy controls [140], including those with dysplasia [141] or in remission [142], although with some inconsistencies [143,144]. Notably, HPV-negative HNSCC cell lines secrete more IL-8 and an HPV + status correlates with lower IL-8 levels [139]. Serum IL-8 is variably associated with HNSCC outcomes: while some studies found no correlation [140,145], a biomarker analysis of 498 stage III-IV HNSCC patients treated with chemo/radiotherapy reported that high baseline IL-8 independently predicted worse OS (HR 1.55, $p = 0.007$) [146]. Longitudinal data indicated that relapsing patients had higher IL-8 circulating levels 7

weeks after treatment start [147], while low serum IL-8 correlated with longer DFS in stage I/II patients, but not in later-stage oral SCC [63], tumor IL-8 expression and M2 CD163 + macrophage infiltration at the invasive front correlated with elevated serum IL-8 and worse DFS in full cohort, suggesting that serum IL-8 may reflect TME composition [63]. High IL-8 expression within the HNSCC TME associates with poor prognosis in oral SCC [138], while elevated IL-8 levels by RT-PCR predicted a 4.1-fold increased risk of local recurrence in stage I-IV HNSCC patients treated with radiotherapy or chemoradiotherapy [148]. Notably, Jing et al. reported better OS with low IL-8 in HPV+, but not in HPV-, patients [149]. Transcriptomic analyses also link high IL-8 mRNA with worse OS [150]. Dynamic IL-8 changes in HNSCC show a non-significant trend towards the association of increased circulating IL-8 levels during therapy and suboptimal treatment response [151]. During ICI therapy increasing or persistently elevated IL-8 levels predict lack of response, disease progression, and worse OS [62,152]. Overall, in HNSCC circulating IL-8 appears to reflect tumor burden and immune microenvironment composition and function, and may predict response, especially in patients treated with immunotherapy.

Epithelial ovarian cancer (EOC)

IL-8 is a key mediator in EOC progression, promoting cell survival and proliferation, migration and metastasis, EMT, angiogenesis, cancer stem cell-like traits, and immune evasion [153]. Several mechanistic studies, highlight the therapeutic potential of the inhibition of the IL-8-CXCR1/2 axis in EOC models, where it enhances cisplatin sensitivity and reverses resistance [154], and reduces tumor growth, survival, migration, microvascular density, and cell proliferation [155]. Moreover, IL-8/CXCR2 signaling blockade reduces M2 macrophage polarization, thereby decreasing both tumor growth and M2 macrophage infiltration [156].

From a clinical standpoint, evidence suggests that elevated IL-8 levels – both circulating and in tumor tissue – are associated with poor prognosis in EOC, although with some inconsistencies [157]. High baseline circulating IL-8 has been linked to lower 5-year OS in surgical patients [60], and with poorer OS and DFS in cohorts treated with platinum-based adjuvant chemotherapy [61], or anti-angiogenic treatment [158]; similarly, a prospective study of 24 patients across stages I-IV found that high tissue IL-8 expression correlated with poor survival [159]. Dynamic changes in IL-8 levels show potential as a biomarker for predicting chemotherapy response [160,161], with decreasing levels correlating with response and increasing levels correlating with drug-resistance [162,163]. Overall, IL-8 acts as a pleiotropic mediator in EOC and its association with aggressive tumor behaviour, poor prognosis, and chemoresistance highlights its potential as a biomarker and a therapeutic target.

Circulating versus tissue IL-8 levels

Circulating IL-8 levels may reflect overall tumor burden and/or a tumor-induced systemic inflammatory response. Sanmamed et al. showed that circulating IL-8 levels correlate with tumor burden in multiple histotypes [53,54]. Due to its short half-life and renal clearance, circulating IL-8 levels accurately reflect even small variations in tumor burden [164], making its standardized, minimally-invasive, detection an ideal tool to dynamically monitor treatment response, particularly to immunotherapy [31,165,166]. Selective variations in serum IL-8, not associated with variations in other inflammatory biomarkers, in NSCLC patients responding or not to immunotherapy are suggestive of increasing tumor burden upon treatment failure [53]. On the other hand, serum IL-8 levels may represent a general inflammatory biomarker. In healthy conditions IL-8 gene expression is repressed, and serum IL-8 increases in response to several inflammatory processes not related to cancer [167,168], such as immunological, cardiovascular and neurological diseases, dermatitis, infections, autoimmune responses and environmental stress [164,169–172]. As a pro-inflammatory mediator,

IL-8 is also involved in inflammaging, a persistent low-grade systemic inflammatory condition occurring during aging. Persistent DNA damage and immunosenescence in aging activate transcription factors like NF- κ B and C/EBP β , upregulating IL-8 along with other inflammatory cytokines such as IL-6 and IL-1 α . Elderly individuals show overproduction of IL-8 by monocytes, as compared to younger people, fueling systemic inflammation [173–175]. Elevated IL-8 levels, in turn, promote neutrophil chemotaxis, oxidative stress, and tissue damage, exacerbating inflammaging and linking it to age-related diseases including neurodegeneration and cancer [176]; indeed, inflammaging may also serve as a prognostic tool in cancer patients [177]. While the source of IL-8 production (tumor versus inflammatory cells) may help dissect whether its variations are rather the result or the cause of tumor response or progression in cancer patients, it is very difficult to separate these two deeply intertwined aspects. Most likely, IL-8 is part of a self-amplifying loop linking high tumor burden to a pro-tumoral inflammatory state, angiogenesis, neutrophil infiltration, immune suppression, and metastasis, in turn worsening tumor burden.

In the prognostic/predictive analyses described here, there is a general concordance between serum and tissue IL-8 levels in different tumor histotypes. For example, recent evidence shows that early and sustained variations in circulating IL-8 levels reflect tissue variations, predicting response to cemiplimab in cutaneous squamous cell carcinoma [178]. However, discrepancies can be observed in the prognostic/predictive impact of circulating versus tissue IL-8 expression, particularly in CRC [65]. Methodological biases could potentially explain the relative discrepancies between different sources of IL-8 detection (for example, imbalance in tissue versus serum samples – 1761 versus 82 gastric cancer patients [179]). Methodological biases notwithstanding, some observations in CRC raise the interesting biological hypothesis that local production of IL-8 may actually result in immune activation and control of tumor growth. For example, Li et al. identified a high-ImmuneScore population highly expressing IL-8 mRNA, which correlated with better CRC survival; IL-8 was associated with dendritic cell (DC) activation markers (CD80, CD83, CD86), suggesting an active antitumor immune response; CXCR2 blockade resulted in reduced local DC activation and decreased expression of IFN- γ or granzyme B by CD8⁺ T cells, thereby fostering CRC progression *in vivo* [180]. Consistent with this hypothesis, IL-8 expression in tumor-infiltrating mononuclear cells correlates with earlier disease stage ($P < 0.001$) and improved ($P < 0.001$) relapse-free survival [181]. In a series of 168 CRC specimens, PTEN-loss in cancer cells [65], a prognostically unfavorable molecular trait [182], significantly correlated with the lack of tumor-infiltrating IL-8⁺ mononuclear cells.

Analysis of the potential prognostic/predictive value of IL-8 receptors (CXCR1/CXCR2) is even more complex, due to the specific relationships between receptor expression and IL-8 activity and to the fact that circulating CXCR1/2 levels may not accurately reflect the signal transduction mechanisms occurring in tumor tissue; in addition, CXCR1/2 are pleiotropic receptors with multiple ligands, whose activity may reflect not only stimulation by IL-8. As a result, at a difference with IL-8 expression, which linearly increases in serum and tissue with tumor grading, CXCR1/2 levels show different trends in serum and tissue, regardless of the stage of disease progression, in an EOC dataset [183].

Discussion

Several studies reviewed herein have evaluated the prognostic role of IL-8 in various types of cancer. High IL-8 expression has generally been associated with poor prognosis in GI, thoracic, and GU malignancies, as well as in melanoma (Fig. 2).

In particular, IL-8 has emerged as a useful predictive biomarker for identifying patients who are more likely to benefit from ICI, as lower plasma levels of this chemokine are associated with improved immunotherapy responses and enhanced clinical outcomes [5]. While these findings, supported by well-established mechanistic explanations

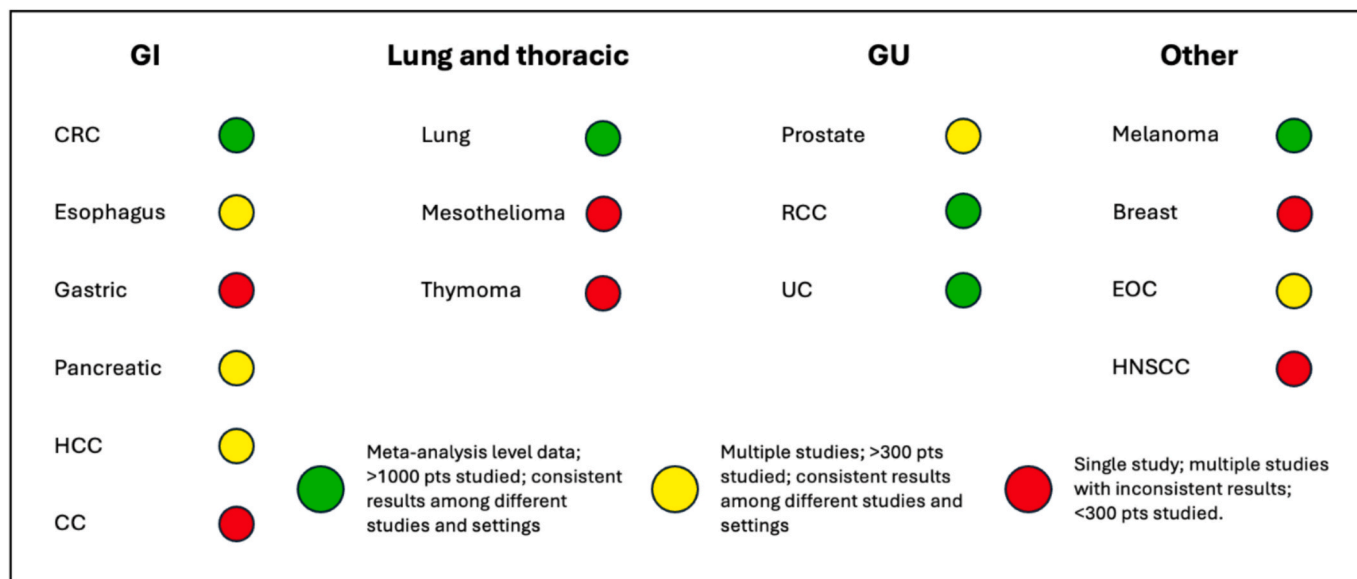


Fig. 2. Clinical relevance of IL-8 across solid tumors. Schematic overview of the strength and consistency of the available clinical evidence on the prognostic and/or predictive role of IL-8 across different solid tumor types. Overall, elevated circulating and/or intratumoral IL-8 is most consistently associated with poor clinical outcome, higher tumor burden, and treatment resistance, although the level of evidence varies across tumor settings. Legend. GI = gastrointestinal; GU = genitourinary; CRC = colorectal cancer; HCC = hepatocellular carcinoma; CC = cholangiocarcinoma; RCC = renal cell carcinoma; UC = urothelial carcinoma; EOC = epithelial ovarian cancer; HNSCC = head and neck squamous cell carcinoma.

linking IL-8 production to an immunosuppressive TME and JAK2/STAT3-mediated PD1 expression and T-cell exhaustion, support IL-8 as a prognostic/predictive biomarker across multiple cancer types, heterogeneity of the studies analysed, in terms of patient populations, source (circulating versus tissue), quantification methods, and IL-8 cut-off values, limits the consistency of the conclusions and highlights the need for prospective and standardized investigations. Of note, IL-8 and its receptors CXCR1/2 have emerged as promising therapeutic targets in oncology, with strategies ranging from neutralizing antibodies to small-

molecule antagonists and RNA-based approaches (Fig. 3). Preclinical models confirm this rationale: in OSCC, IL-8 blockade reduces invasion, migration, and cisplatin resistance by suppressing NF-κB-driven EMT [135], while in EOC models, IL-8 neutralization/knockdown limits invasion and reverses cisplatin resistance [154,184,185]. CXCR1/2 inhibition has shown comparable promise, with agents such as SX-682 and navarixin reprogramming the TME, reducing MDSC infiltration, and enhancing PD-1/PD-L1 blockade in glioma, lung, and pancreatic models [186]. Dual targeting approaches, including combined CXCR1/2 and

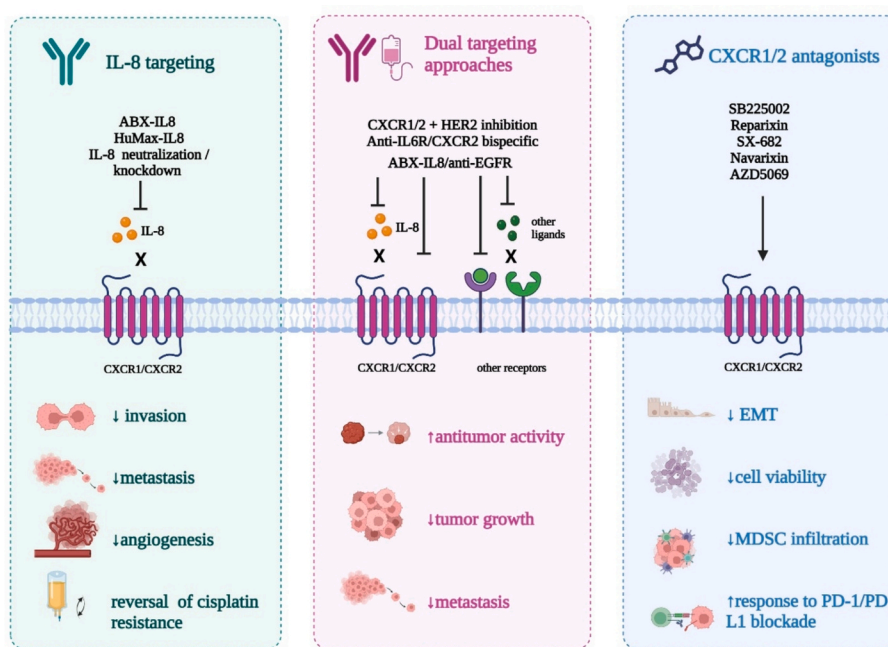


Fig. 3. Therapeutic intervention strategies. Targeting the IL-8/CXCR1/2 axis through ligand neutralization (e.g., anti-IL-8 antibodies) or CXCR1/2 antagonists (e.g., SB225002, reparixin, SX-682, navarixin, AZD5069) inhibits downstream signaling, reducing EMT, tumor cell viability, and immunosuppressive cell infiltration, while enhancing therapeutic responses. Combination strategies further improve antitumor efficacy. Legend. IL-8 = interleukin 8; EMT = Epithelial–mesenchymal transition; MDSC = Myeloid-Derived Suppressor Cells.

HER2 inhibition [187] or bispecific antibodies against IL-6R and CXCR2 [188], further support the axis as a potential target to reverse resistance and metastasis. In TNBC, CXCR2 antagonists like SB225002 reduce cell viability, EMT, and metastasis both *in vitro* and *in vivo*, outperforming reparixin in suppressing 4 T1 cell colonization in murine models [189,190]. Interestingly, in preclinical CRC models the CXCR2 antagonist SB225002 reduces cell viability via apoptotic and non-apoptotic mechanisms in CRC cells and normal fibroblasts, respectively, in a CXCR2-independent fashion [191]. The anti-IL-8 antibody (ABX-IL8) reduced metastasis, angiogenesis, and enhanced apoptosis in melanoma mouse models, while *in vitro* it inhibited capillary formation and MMP2 activity [192]; its combination with the anti-EGFR antibody (ABXEGFR) further improved survival, decreased tumor growth and metastasis in SCID mice, and reduced MMP activity in breast carcinoma cells (MDA-231) [5,193]. Clinical translation is ongoing. HuMax-IL8 (BMS-986253), a human monoclonal antibody, has demonstrated safety and preliminary activity in phase I trials and is now being tested in combination with nivolumab in NSCLC, HCC, and prostate cancer [3]. Multiple CXCR2 antagonists, including AZD5069, Navarixin, and SX-682, are under clinical evaluation, often in combination with immunotherapy [3,194]. In PCa, AZD5069 combined with enzalutamide showed a favorable safety profile and clinical activity in mCRPC patients resistant to AR pathway inhibitors [195]. Similarly, reparixin plus paclitaxel was tested in HER2-negative metastatic breast cancer, achieving an ORR of 29.6% with acceptable tolerability [196] (Fig. 3).

Despite this robust preclinical rationale and promising signals from early-phase studies, it must be acknowledged that the clinical translation of IL-8/CXCR1-2 pathway inhibition has so far yielded limited benefit for cancer patients, and few agents targeting this axis have advanced beyond Phase I trials. Available Phase II data are largely negative: the combination of the CXCR2 antagonist navarixin with pembrolizumab failed to demonstrate meaningful clinical activity in a randomised Phase II trial across multiple advanced solid cancer previously treated [197]; the CXCR1/2 inhibitor reparixin combined with paclitaxel did not meet its primary endpoint in untreated TNBC [198]; the addition of anti-IL-8 monoclonal antibody BMS-986253 to ipilimumab and nivolumab failed to improve ORR and PFS over placebo in patients with advanced melanoma resistant to PD-(L)1 blockade [199]. It is also important to consider that preclinical models, largely based on syngeneic or xenograft systems, may fail to fully recapitulate the complexity of the human tumor microenvironment or the heterogeneity of clinical disease. The study of biological IL-8 functions in preclinical models *in vivo* is hampered by the fact that rodents lack a homologue of human IL-8; instead, mice have the functional homologues *CXCL1/KC*, *CXCL2/MIP-2* and *CXCL5-6/LIX*, belonging to the same clusters of cytokines involved in neutrophils migration [200]. Organization and function of the mouse homologues of human IL-8 also sheds light how compensatory mechanisms and built-in redundancy within TME are likely to limit the impact of IL-8/CXCR1/2 blockade as a single immunomodulatory intervention, suggesting that more effective strategies will require rational combination approaches capable of broader TME reprogramming. Indeed, as highlighted above, CXCR1 binds IL-8 plus CXCL6/7, while CXCR2 binds a broader set (CXCL1-3, CXCL5-8), allowing compensatory signaling when one is inhibited [201,202]. Moreover, CXCR2 compensates for CXCR1 blockade (e.g., repertaxin or reparixin, as both drive angiogenesis, neutrophil recruitment, and MDSC infiltration; dual inhibition is often needed but still incomplete due to low-affinity agonists [139]. In response to monotherapies with anti-IL-8 monoclonal antibodies or CXCR2 inhibitors, tumors upregulate alternative ELR + CXCL ligands via NF- κ B, sustaining protumoral inflammation, thus requiring pan-CXCR1/2 or sequential combo strategies, as single agents would likely fail to interfere with such a robust chemokine network [203]. Furthermore, patient selection has been largely unrefined in Phase II trials. Given the well-documented prognostic role of baseline IL-8 levels, and its emerging potential as a predictive biomarker, enrichment strategies based on circulating or tumor-

associated IL-8 expression may be necessary to identify patients most likely to benefit from pathway inhibition. Overall, these considerations underscore the need for biomarker-driven clinical trial designs, as well as a more refined understanding of the tumor contexts in which IL-8 signalling represents a functional dependency, before the therapeutic potential of this axis can be fully realised in the clinic.

Conclusion

IL-8 represents a promising predictive and prognostic biomarker in solid tumors, particularly in CRC, NSCLC, RCC, and melanoma, where IL-8 measurement has the potential to guide personalized therapeutic decisions and open new targeted therapeutic avenues; well designed, prospective studies are required to promote full integration of IL-8 (and possibly CXCR1/2) measurement into standard oncology practice in wider array of solid malignancies.

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Declaration of competing interest

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