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Review

The race to target MET exon 14 skipping alterations in non-small cell lung cancer: The Why, the How, the Who, the Unknown, and the Inevitable



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ABSTRACT

A number of small molecule tyrosine kinase inhibitors (TKIs) have now been approved for the treatment of non-small cell lung cancers (NSCLC), including those targeted against epidermal growth factor receptor, anaplastic lymphoma kinase, and ROS1. Despite a wealth of agents developed to target the receptor tyrosine kinase, MET, clinical outcomes have as yet been disappointing, leading to pessimism about the role of MET in the pathogenesis of NSCLC. However, in recent years, there has been a renewed interest in MET exon 14 alterations as potential drivers of lung cancer.

MET exon 14 alterations, which result in increased MET protein levels due to disrupted ubiquitin-mediated degradation, occur at a prevalence of around 3% in adenocarcinomas and around 2% in other lung neoplasms, making them attractive targets for the treatment of lung cancer. At least five MET-targeted TKIs, including crizotinib, cabozantinib, capmatinib, tepotinib, and glesatinib, are being investigated clinically for patients with MET exon 14 altered-NSCLC. A further two compounds have shown activity in preclinical models. In this article, we review the current clinical and preclinical data available for these TKIs, along with a number of other potential therapeutic options, including antibodies and immunotherapy. A number of questions remain unanswered regarding the future of MET TKIs, but unfortunately, the development of resistance to targeted therapies is inevitable. Resistance is expected to arise as a result of receptor tyrosine kinase mutation or from upregulation of MET ligand expression; potential strategies to overcome resistance are proposed.

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Contents

1.	. Introduction (the Why)			
	1.1. METex14 splicing mutations in NSCLC			
2.	2. Clinical trial design considerations of a MET TKI trial targeting METex14+ NSCLC (the How)			
3. MET TKI in METex14 skipping alterations in NSCLC (the Who)				
	3.1. Type la inhibitors			
	51.1 Type 14 minusions			

Abbreviation: ALK, anaplastic lymphoma kinase; CNS, central nervous system; EGFR, epidermal growth factor receptor; FDA, food and drug administration; GCN, gene copy number; HGF, hepatocyte growth factor; IC₅₀, half inhibitory concentration; IHC, immunohistochemistry; mAb, monoclonal antibody; METex14, METex014; NSCLC, METex14 altered NSCLC; NSCLC, non-small cell lung cancer; ORR, overall response rate; PD-1, programmed cell death protein 1; RTK, receptor tyrosine kinase; SqCC, squamous cell carcinoma; TKI, tyrosine kinase inhibitor; TMB, tumor mutational burden; VEGFR, vascular endothelial growth factor receptor.

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		3.1.1.	Crizotinib (Xalkori, PF-02341066)	31
	3.2.	Type Ib	inhibitors	31
		3.2.1.	Capmatinib (INC280)	31
		3.2.2.	Tepotinib (MSC2156119], EMD 1214063)	32
		3.2.3.	Savolitinib (AZD6094, volitinib, HMPL-504)	32
		3.2.4.	AMG-337	32
	3.3.	Type II i	nhibitors	32
		3.3.1.	Cabozantinib (Cometriq, XL184)	32
		3.3.2.	Glesatinib (MGCD265)	32
		3.3.3.	Merestinib (LY2801653)	32
4.	Clinic	opatholog	gic characteristics of METex14+ NSCLC patients (the Unknown)	32
5. Potential strategies to overcome resistance to MET TKIs (the Inevitable)				
	5.1.	Switchi	ng from type I to type II inhibitors or vice versa for acquired resistance mutations	33
	5.2.	5.2. "Total" MET signaling axis blockade		
		5.2.1.	Combination with antibodies against MET	33
		5.2.2.	Combination with antibodies against HGF	
		5.2.3.	Combination with antibody drug conjugates	
	5.3.	Combin	ation with immunotherapy	33
6.	Concl	usions		34
			erest	34
Acknowledgments				35
	Refere	ences		35

1. Introduction (the Why)

Orally available small molecule tyrosine kinase inhibitors (TKIs) have now been approved for epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR)-mutated, anaplastic lymphoma kinase (ALK)-rearranged, and ROS1-rearranged non-small cell lung cancers (NSCLC), altering the treatment landscape of NSCLC [1]. Alterations (point mutations, amplifications, protein overexpression, and fusions) in another receptor tyrosine kinase (RTK), the hepatocyte growth factor (HGF) receptor (MET), have been identified in NSCLC, and a plethora of MET-targeted agents (small molecular TKIs and antibodies against HGF or MET) have been investigated in this disease type [2]. Disappointingly, despite the wide spectrum of MET alterations in NSCLC, randomized trials with MET inhibitors have not resulted in clinical benefit [3-5]. These disappointing results have led to pessimism about the role of MET in the pathogenesis of NSCLC and the validity of MET as a targetable driver in NSCLC. This review will concentrate on the recent re-emergence of MET exon 14 (METex14) splicing alterations in NSCLC that has led to renewed optimism of METex14 alteration as a targetable mutation that may lead to the approval of MET-specific inhibitors in NSCLC.

1.1. METex14 splicing mutations in NSCLC

The MET signaling pathway has recently been reviewed in detail [6]. The timeline of events leading to the recognition of METex14 alteration as an important driver in lung cancer is summarized in Fig. 1. In 1994, an alternatively spliced MET RTK with deletion of the 47-amino acid juxtamembrane region of the MET receptor was reported [7], followed by the demonstration that mutation of a tyrosine residue at position 1001 in this juxtamembrane region led to a partial gain of function [8]. In 2001, Peschard and colleagues reported that mutation of tyrosine residue 1003 in the binding domain of the E3 ubiquitin-protein ligase, c-CBL, abolished c-CBL binding to MET, disrupting c-CBL-mediated degradation and leading to MET oncogenic activity [9]. Y1003 is located in the juxtamembrane region of MET and is encoded by exon 14 [6]. Subsequently, mutations in the METex14 splice sites were reported by Ma and colleagues in small cell lung cancer in 2003 and NSCLC in 2005 [10,11]. The significance of these splice site mutations was further characterized by Kong-Beltran and colleagues in 2006, when they identified both single nucleotide substitutions and small

deletions in the 5' and 3' splice sites around METex14 in lung tumor samples, and demonstrated that these mutations resulted in METex14 skipping. The exon 14-spliced protein had abolished c-CBL E3 ligase binding, resulting in decreased ubiquitination, and leading to a relative increase in MET protein levels. Additionally, MET Y1003 mutation was shown to result in decreased ubiquitination and increased stability of the MET protein. Both METex14-spliced and MET Y1003-mutated proteins were transforming in vitro and in a xenograft model that was inhibited by an anti-MET antibody [12]. Since then, sporadic case series have reported the incidence of METex14 alterations in NSCLC to be around 2-4% [13-15]. It was not until 2015 that large scale molecular profiling of METex14 alterations in 38,028 tumor samples by Frampton and colleagues led to renewed focus on METex14 alterations in lung carcinomas [16]. Among the 221 tumor samples harboring METex14 alterations, 193 were in lung carcinomas, including 131 lung adenocarcinoma samples. No other common solid tumor malignancies harbored METex14 alterations to the same degree as lung neoplasms [16]. Furthermore, in 2015, an in vitro model using the CRISPR/Cas9 system in HEK293 cell lines demonstrated that METex14 deletion resulted in higher MET protein expression levels, enhanced MET phosphorylation, prolonged MET activation, and enhanced cellular growth, colony formation, and MET inhibitor sensitivity [17]. Contemporaneously, case reports and case series have reported that patients with METex14 altered NSCLC (METex14+ NSCLC) respond to MET TKIs [18–22].

Since late 2015, reports characterizing patients with METex14+ NSCLC have been published in rapid succession in the literature (Table 1) [16,23-31]. To date, it can be summarized that METex14 alterations are found in a relatively elderly population of patients with NSCLC, and are enriched in sarcomatoid histologies, with a prevalence ranging from 8 to 22% [25,31]. On average, METex14 alterations occurred at a prevalence of about 3% in lung adenocarcinoma, and notably, at a prevalence of slightly higher than 2% in squamous cell carcinoma (SqCC) [31]. Available data on the overlap between METex14 alterations, MET amplification, and MET point mutations are sparse, but concurrent MET amplification has been reported in 15–21% of METex14+ NSCLC [24,26,31], and MET Y1003X mutations account for around 2% of the METex14 alterations in NSCLC [31]. Based on 28 patients, Awad and colleagues showed that Stage IV METex14-mutated NSCLCs were significantly more likely to have concurrent MET genomic amplification and

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