Oncogenetics

Clinical genetics

Department of Medical Genetics Medical University of Warsaw



Neoplasm (a reminder) basic facts :

- overproliferating group of cells (neoplasm, cancer)
 - autostimulation of cell division
 - decreased sensivity to growth-inhibition signals
 - crippled apoptosis
 - induction of angiogenesis

• cell migration:

migration:	no	\leftrightarrow	local	\leftrightarrow	distant
			(invasion)	(metastasis)
tumor:	benign	\leftrightarrow		\leftrightarrow	malignant

Neoplasms – pathomorphologic classification:



Benign Malignant

- from epithelial tissue carcinoma
- from connective tissue sarcoma
- from lymphocyte precursors lymphoma
- from leukocyte precursors leukaemia
- from glial cells glioma and alikes
- from fetal tissue hamartoma



Etiology of neoplasms: cells, chromosomes

abnormal cells

- in a blood of leukemic patient (Virchow 1845, Bennett 1845)
- in a bone marrow of leukemic patient (Neumann 1855)

chromosomal abnormalities

- abnormalities of mitotic spindle (Hanseman 1890)
- neoplasm originates from a single cell with chromosomal abnormalities

Etiology of neoplasms: viruses

- Rous and epidemic chicken neoplasm
 - tissue homogenate transmits neoplasm
 - filtration does not prevent
 - cause is an 'oncogenic' virus (1911; Nobel 1966)
- isolation of RSV virus (retrovirus)
 - neoplasms are virally transmitted?
 - 'oncogenic' viruses transfer oncogenes first discovery: src from RSV (Duesberg 1970, Wang 1976);
 neoplasms are 'genetic' diseases?
 - the oncogene itself is sufficient, virus is dispensable

Etiology of neoplasms: heritable susceptibility (1)

Lynch syndrome

• 1913 – Aldred Warthin

a case of his tailor, who succumbed to depression, convinced that she would inevitably perish to cancer of reproductive organs or colon, as everybody in her family – indeed, she soon died of uterine cancer

• 1962 – Henry Lynch

his alcohol-addicted patient explained that he would not stop drinking, because his fate is dim – all his relatives are dying of cancer, mostly colorectal. He actually died soon of adrenal neoplasm.

Lynch described two such families in 1966.



Etiology of neoplasms: environmental factors

some environmental factors may cause cancer

- scrotum cancer in chimney sweepers (Pott 1775)
 contact with soot
- lung cancer in smokers (Müller 1939, Wynder 1950)
- skin cancer and ultraviolet confirmed in mice studies

these environmental factors are mutagenic

- soot contains polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) known to damage DNA
- cigarette smoke also contais PAHs
- ultraviolet directly and indirectly damages DNA



Etiology of neoplasms - conclusion: underlying genetic changes !

- chromosomal abnormalities lead to gene fusions and/or copy number alterations
- 'oncogenic' viruses appear as such, because they carry transforming genes (oncogenes)
- susceptibility to cancer formation can be heritable
- some environmental factors are mutagenic
 THUS:
- <u>cancer is due to genetic abnormalities</u>, <u>inherited or acquired</u>

Etiology of neoplasms: genetic abnormalities – what is affected?

Genes related to cancer fall into one of two classes: •<u>oncogene</u> (1969): a gene (viral gene?!) that can transform a normal cell into a cancerous one

- oncogene is a modified cellular gene (protooncogene) (Stehelin 1976), stolen by a virus and subjected to an activating mutation (that increases its function)
- differentiating between oncogene and protooncogene is no longer critical, since in some cases there is really no difference (explanation in a moment)

•<u>tumor suppresor gene</u>: gene, whose <u>in</u>activation supports carcinogenesis



Genetics of neoplasms: milestones of molecular biology

- heritability of traits (~1866)
- DNA as a carrier of genetic information (1944)
- structure of DNA (Crick & Watson 1953)
- genetic code, mRNA (Crick, Brenner, Watts-Tobin, Leder, Nirenberg 1961)
- sequencing of RNA (Friers 1972)
- hybridization of NA (Southern 1975)
- sequencing of DNA (Sanger 1977)
- polymerase chain reaction (PCR) (Mullis 1984)
- human genome decoded (2001)

Genetics of neoplasms: (proto)oncogenes – activation mechanisms

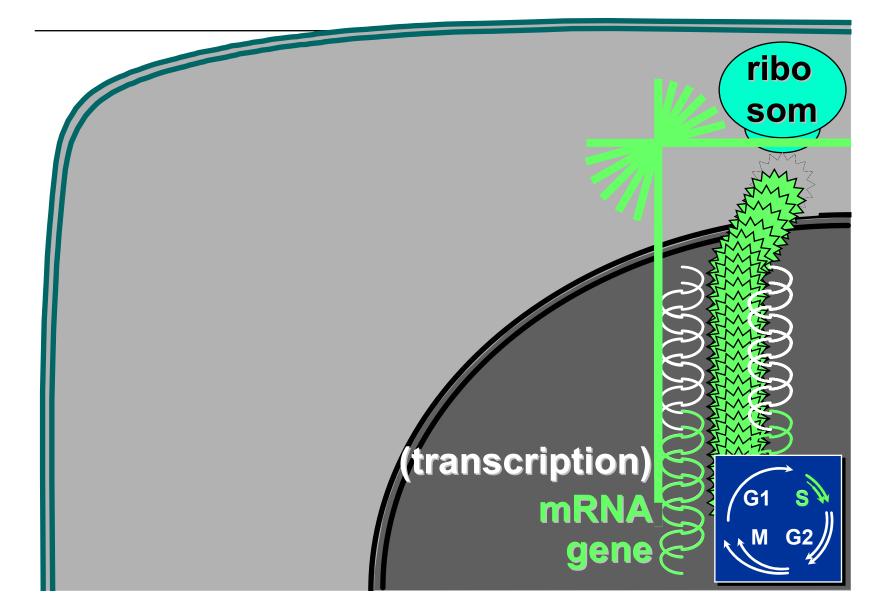
Change increases the activity of encoded protein: •increase the amount of normal protein

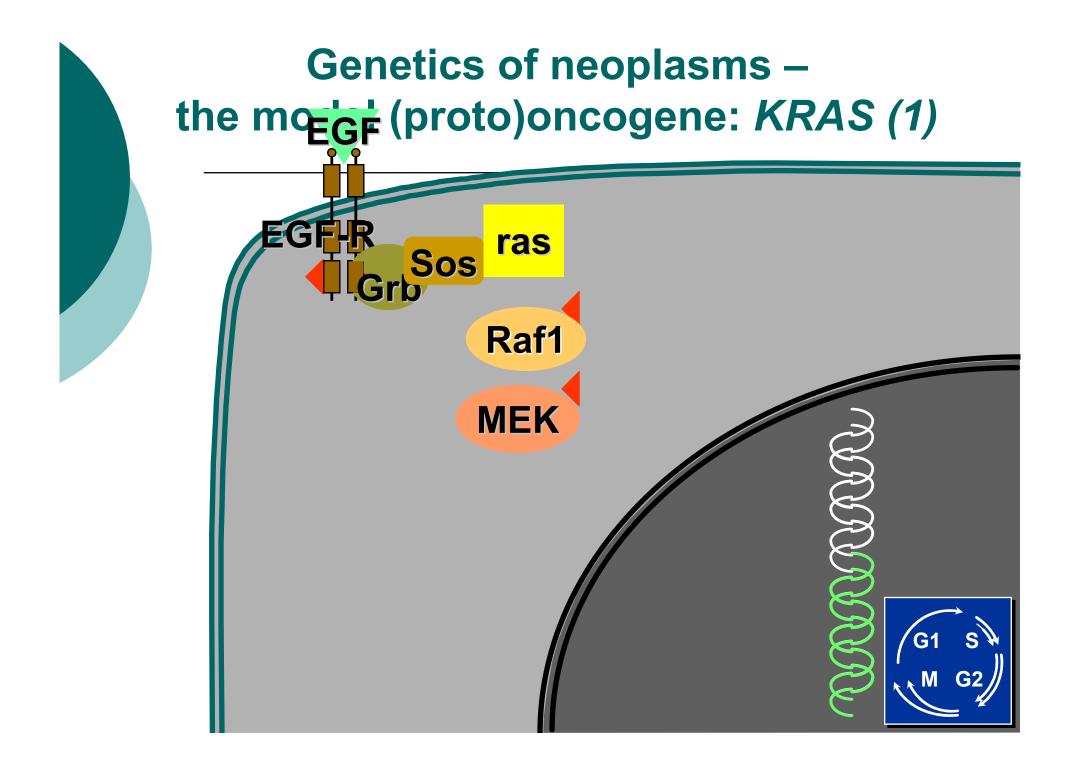
- gene amplification (even >100 copies)
- gene translocation into another chromosomal region (i.e., under influence of a very powerful promoter)
- mutation increasing stability of a protein or mRNA

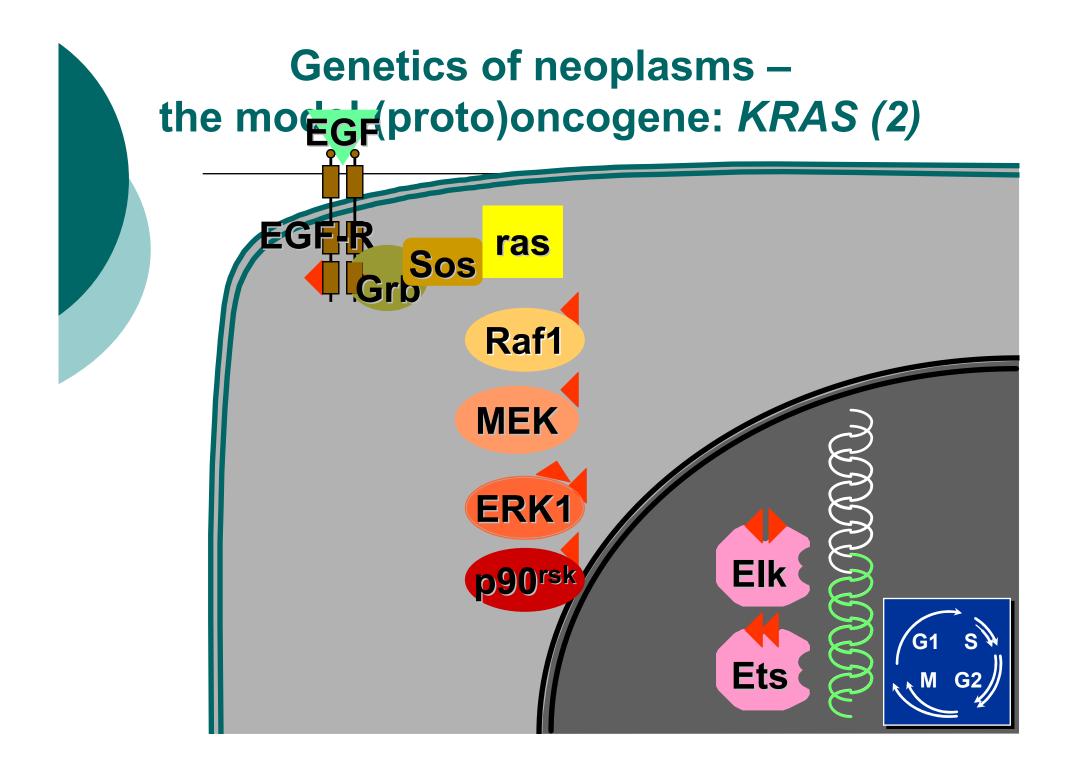
transform the molecule into a more active one

- single nucleotide substitutions (SBS) only missense ones, those that change the sense of a code
- deletions or nonsense mutations leading to a loss of an autoinhibitory domain (if such one exists)
- fusions of the oncogene with another gene

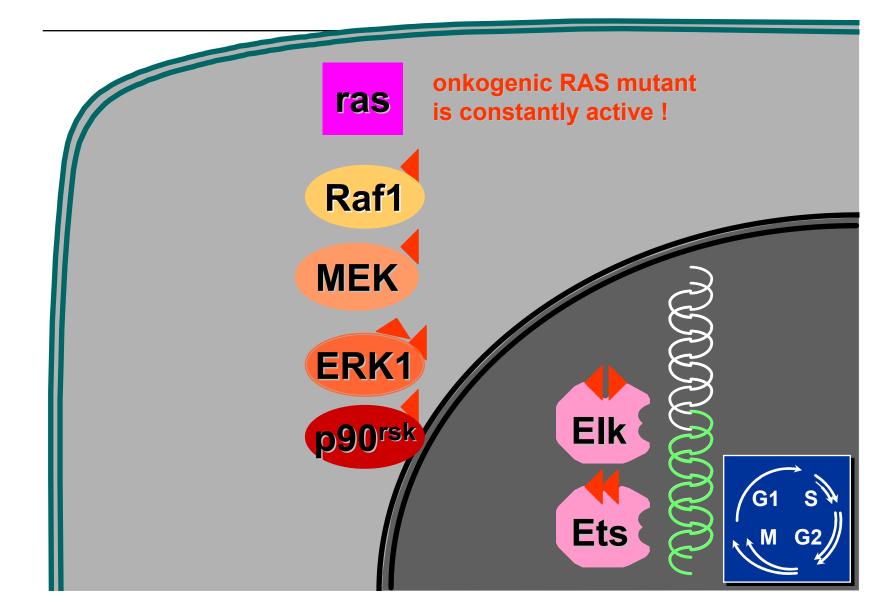
Genetics of neoplasms – the model (proto)oncogene: KRAS (0)







Genetics of neoplasms – the model (proto)oncogene: KRAS (3)



Genetics of neoplasms: functions of (proto)oncoges

Mostly encode elements of pathways conveing the signal from growth factors into the cell nucleus

growth factors

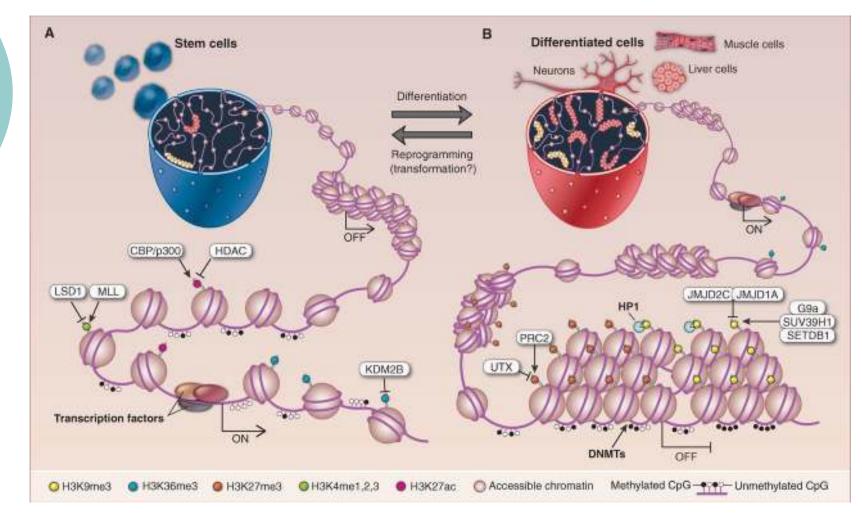
- Epidermal Growth Factor (EGF), Nerve Growth Factor (NGF), Patelet-derived Growth Factor (PGDF), Insulin-like Growth Factor (IGF-1), Transforming Growth Factor β (TGFβ)
- receptors for growth factors (protein kinases) such as: EGFR, PDGFR, TGFBR
- cooperating proteins, such as GTPases, i.e.: RAS
- cytoplasmic protein kinases, such as: SRC
- trascription factors, such as: MYC

Genetics of neoplasms: tumour suppressor genes – INactivation

Change decreases the activity of encoded protein

- gene silencing
 - epigenetic change, not a mutation!
 - <u>reversible</u> that's exceptional!

Genetics of neoplasms: tumour suppressor genes – INactivation



 DNA methylation and histone modification -> tightly packed DNA -> inaccessible ('silenced') genes

[Suva, Science 2013]

Genetics of neoplasms: tumour suppressor genes – INactivation

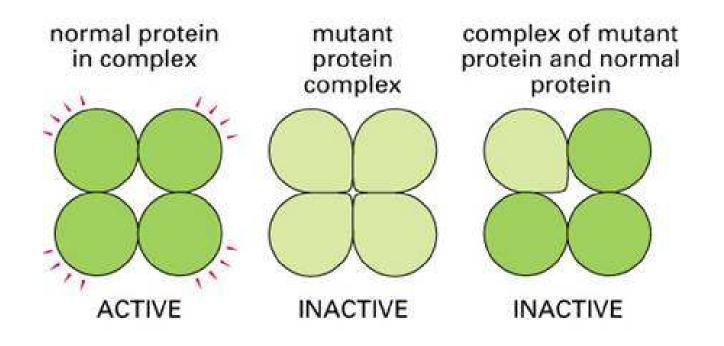
Change decreases the activity of encoded protein

- gene silencing
 - epigenetic change, not a mutation!
 - <u>reversible</u> that's exceptional!
- deletion of the gene or its fragment
- nonsense mutation

Must affect both alleles – 'two hit' theory (Knudson 1971) – exceptions:

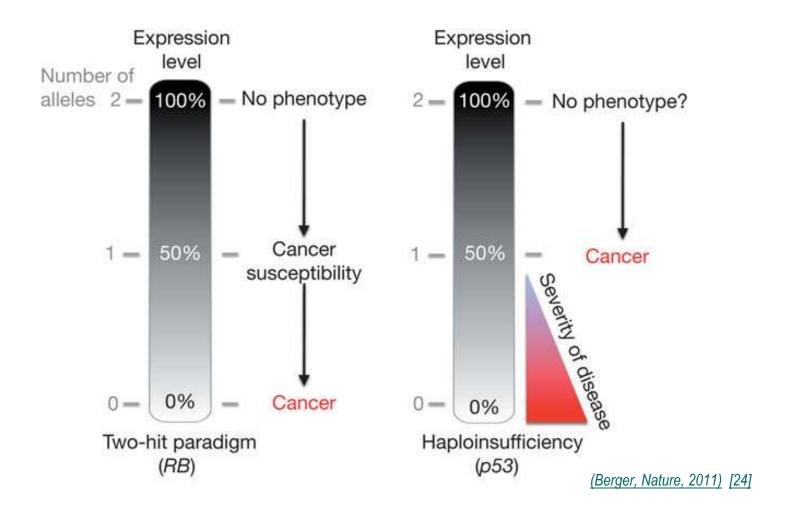
- dominant negative mutation
- haploinsufficiency

Knudsona theory – exeptions (1) **Dominant negative mutation**

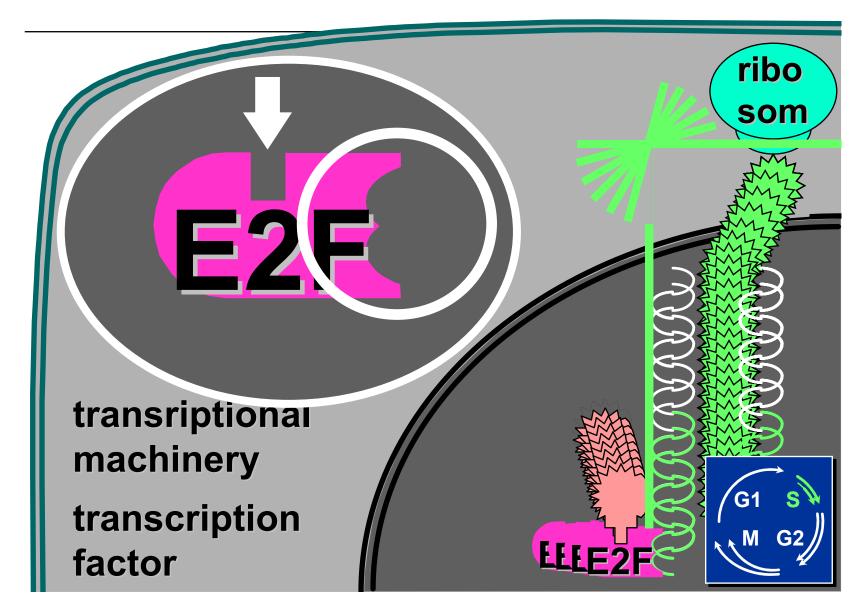


Molecular Biology of the Cell, 4th edition

Knudsona theory – exeptions (1) Haploinsufficiency



Genetics of neoplasms: suppressor genes – *RB (1)*



Genetics of neoplasms: suppressor genes – *RB (2)*

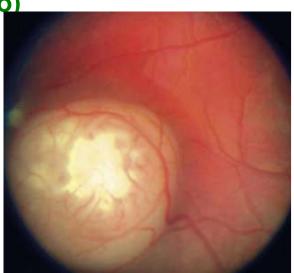
One of RB functions is to inhibit activity of E2F transcription factor that participates in preparing the cell for a subsequent division

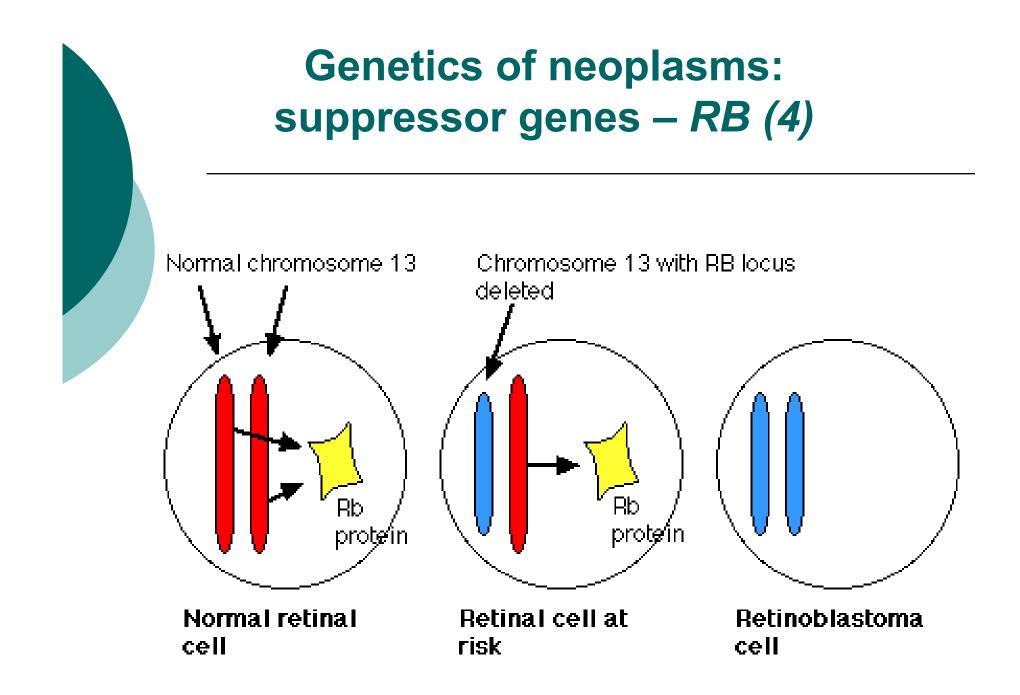


Genetics of neoplasms: suppressor genes – *RB (3)*

- defect of RB leads to retinoblastoma
- 1/25 000
- white reflection (leukocoria)
- 250 new cases yearly in US
 - 25-30% bilateral (average age 12 mo)
 - unilateral (average age 21 mo)









Genetics of neoplasms: suppressor genes – *RB (5)*

- 30% germinal mutation in unilateral cases
- control examinations until 7 y. old
- bilateral cases:
 - 50% risk of passing an affected allele
 - 45% risk of developing a disease (high risk of a second somatic mutation)
- unilateral cases:
 - 7-15% risk of passing an affected allele (germinal mutation is possible !)
 - 90% of children are first cases in the family



Genetics of neoplasms: tumor suppressor functions

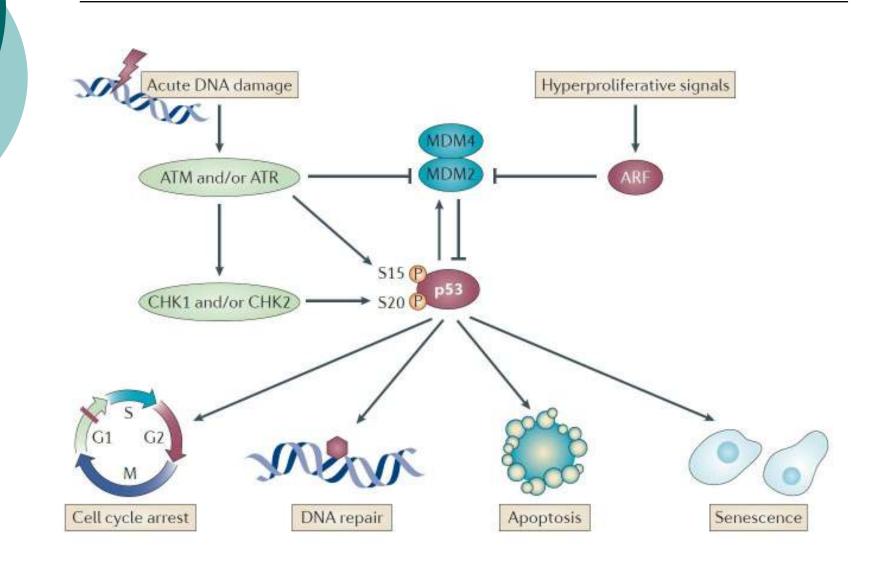
- braking the cell cycle progress: RB
- DNA integrity control: ATM, CHK1
- chromatin state: SMARCA4, ARID1A, ARID1B, PBRM1, ARID2
- stopping the cell cycle in case of DNA damage: TP53
- DNA repair: BRCA1



Genetics of neoplasms: tumor suppressor – *TP53*

- transcription factor (many interactions)
- regulates cell cycle, apoptosis, supervises genome integrity
- basic role: gatekeeper of entry into S phase
- "guardian of the genome"
- active in tetrameric form
- inherited mutations => Li-Fraumeni syndrome (sarcoma, leukemia, brain tumors, breast cancer; hypersensitivity to ionizing radiation)

Genetics of neoplasms: tumor suppressor – *TP53*





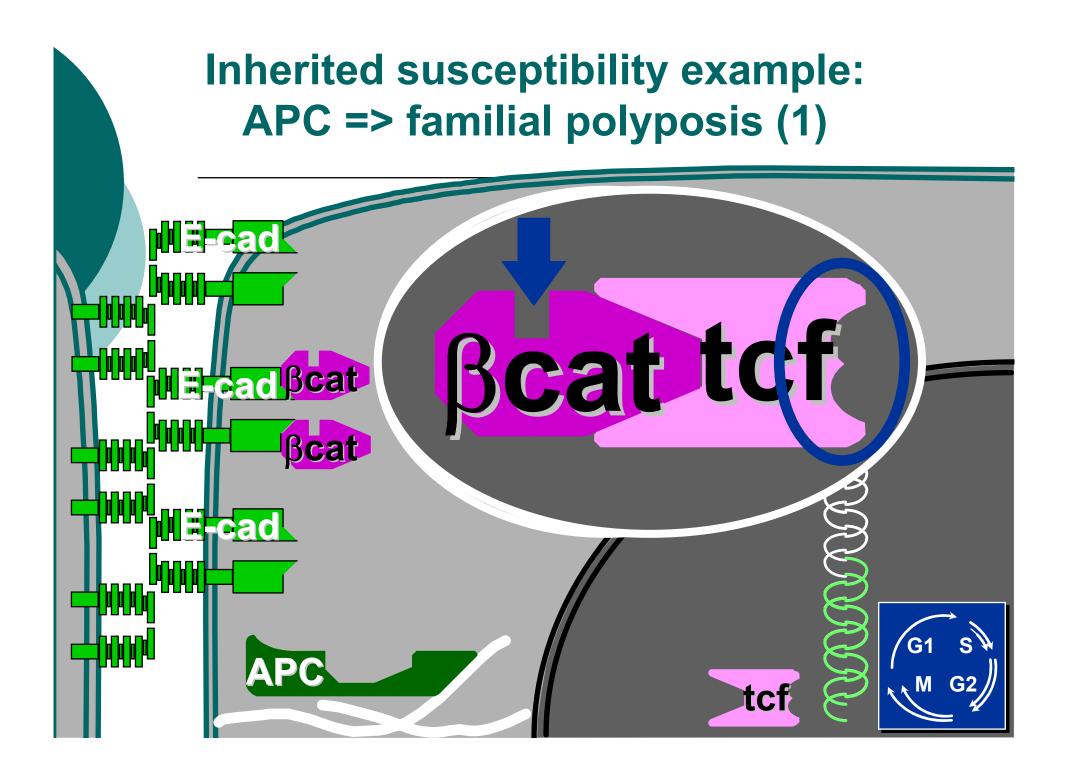
Etiology of 'inherited' neoplasms: defect of a one of a hundred genes

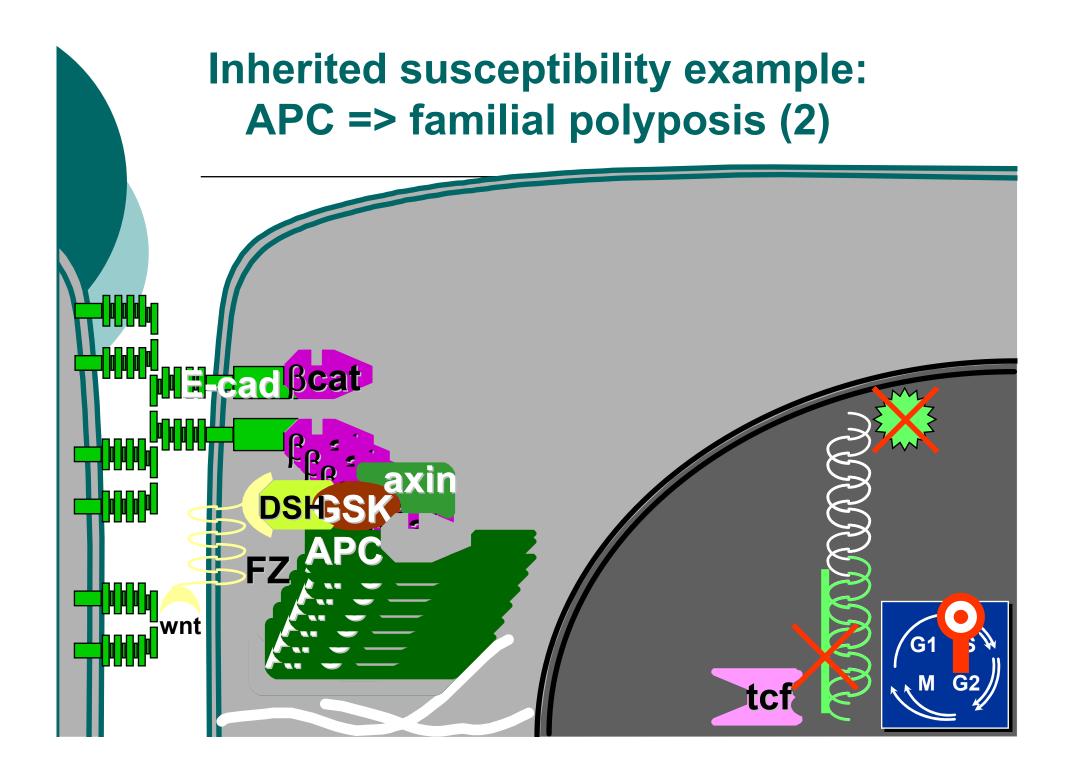
- inherited mutations of certain genes determine a substantial increase of cancer susceptibility
- susceptibility vary depending on type of cancer and type of mutation
- predisposing genes:
 - COSMIC: 89 genes

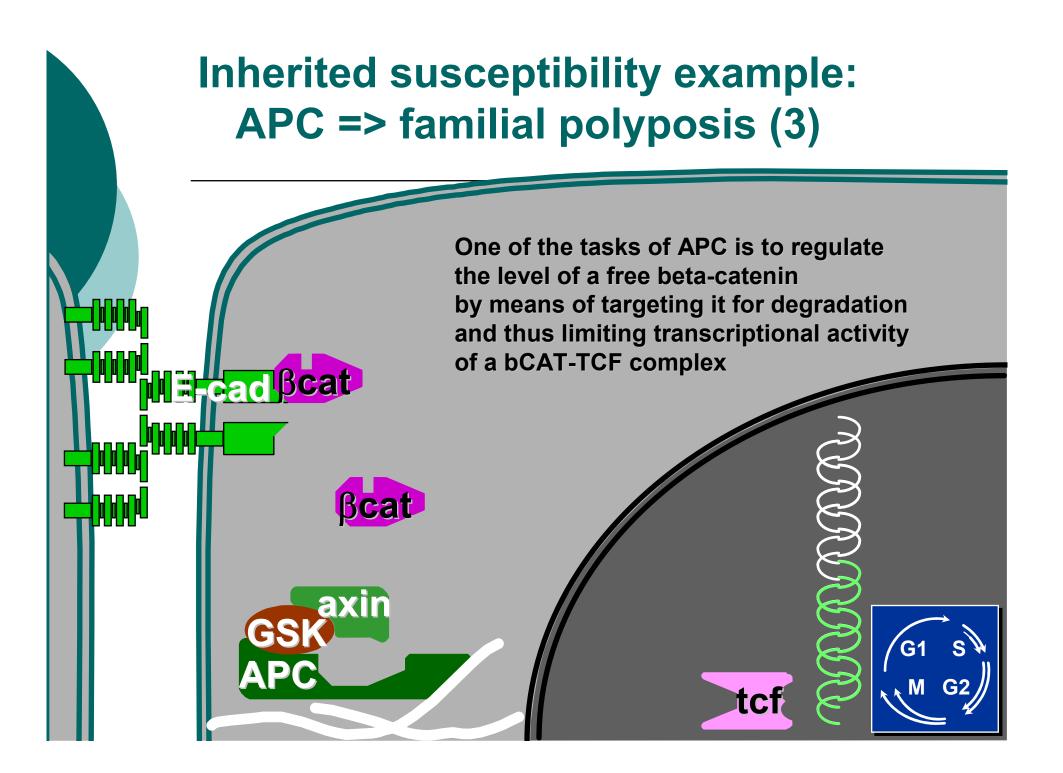
[http://cancer.sanger.ac.uk/cosmic/census/tables?name=gmuts]

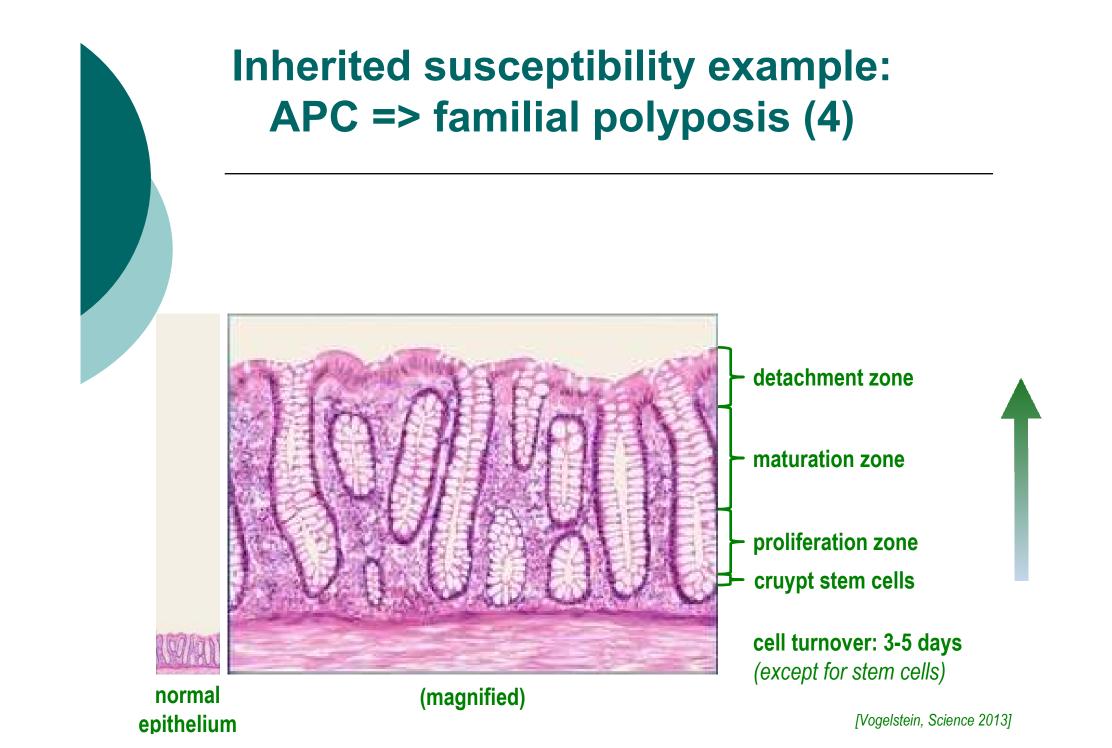
Rahman: 115 genes
 IBahman, Natura 20141

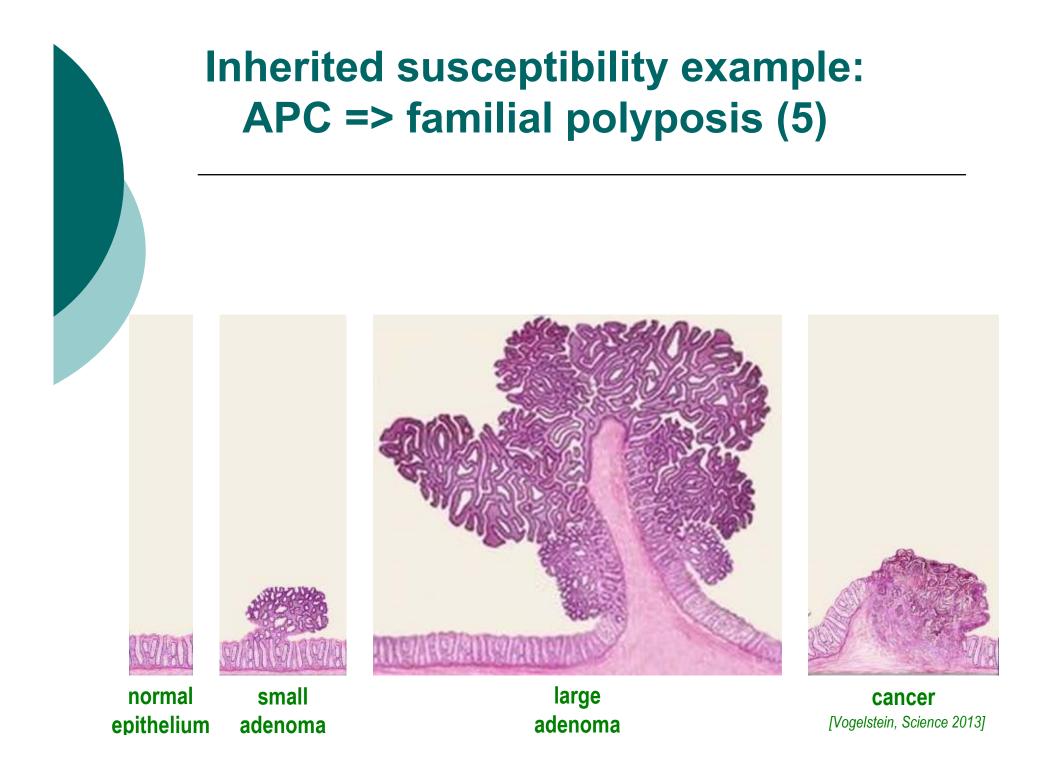
[Rahman, Nature 2014]













Inherited susceptibility example: APC => familial polyposis (6)

- APC 5q21
- inherited mutations: 2-3/10 000 newborns
- hundreds (or more) polyps in colorectum
- inherited mutations are responsible for ~1% cases of colorectal cancer
- somatic mutations in APC are present in ~80% cases of colorectal cancer





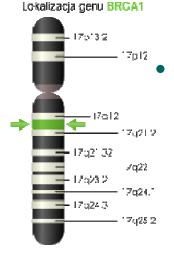
Inherited susceptibility example: susceptibility to breast cancer

- BRCA1 and BRCA2
- Both encode proteins participating (among others) in:
 - homologous recombination and DNA repair
 - cell cycle control
 - developmental processes



Inherited susceptibility example: breast cancer susceptibility – *BRCA1:*

- chromosome 17, 24 exons,
- protein 1863 AA
- 5 functional domains
 - N-terminus Zn finger interaction protein–DNA
 - C-terminus activation of transcription & DNA repair



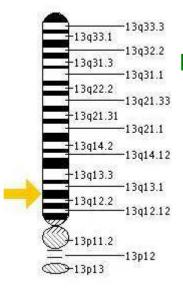
Chromosom 17

55% of mutations in exon11



Inherited susceptibility example: breast cancer susceptibility – *BRCA1:*

- chromosome 13, 27 exons,
- protein 3418 AA
 - N-terminus transcription activation domain
 - C-terminus nuclear localisation signal



mutations mostly at both terminal parts

Inherited susceptibility example: breast cancer susceptibility – *BRCA1&2:*

- expression in all cells, the highest in thymus and testicles
- both genes active in mammary gland through pregnancy and
- inherited *BRCA1* mutations in women cause:
 - 50-80% lifetime risk of breast cancer (average age: ~40 y)
 - 40% lifetime risk of ovarian cancer
- inherited BRCA2 mutations in men :
 - 200× increase of risk of breast cancer



Inherited susceptibility example: chromosomal instability syndromes

- Breaks and rearrangements of various chromosomes – increased susceptibility to neoplasmsm
 - Bloom syndrome
 - Fanconi anaemia
 - ataxia-teleangiectasia (Louis–Bar syndrome)





Chromosomal instability syndromes: Bloom syndrome

- cause: mutation of BLM (15q26.1),
- heritability: autosomal recessive
- funtion of protein: DNA helicase
 - unwinds double helix of DNA (during transcription, probably also participates in DNA repair)
 - patients also overproduce superoxide radical
- molecular consequences of mutation:
 - 10× increase in frequency of sister chromatid exchange, breaks and rearrangements of chromosomes
- effects:
 - neoplasms in up to 20% of patients; acute leukemias and lymphoproliferative diseases at an age below 25 y,



Chromosomal instability syndromes: Fanconi anaemia

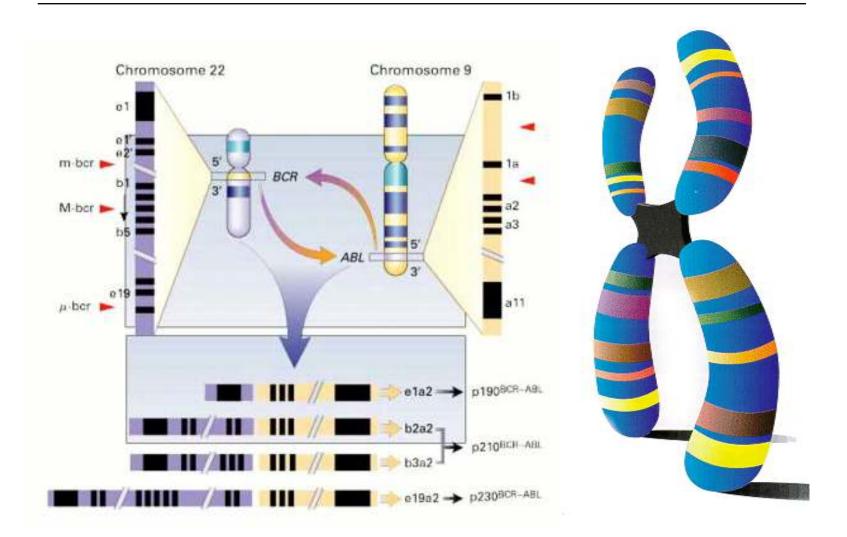
- A type of an inherited aplastic anaemia with accompanying skeletal malformations and predisposition to cancer (60% of cases: mutation of FAA gene)
- mutation impairs the repair of crosslink DNA damage

Chromosomal instability syndromes: ataxia-teleangiectasia

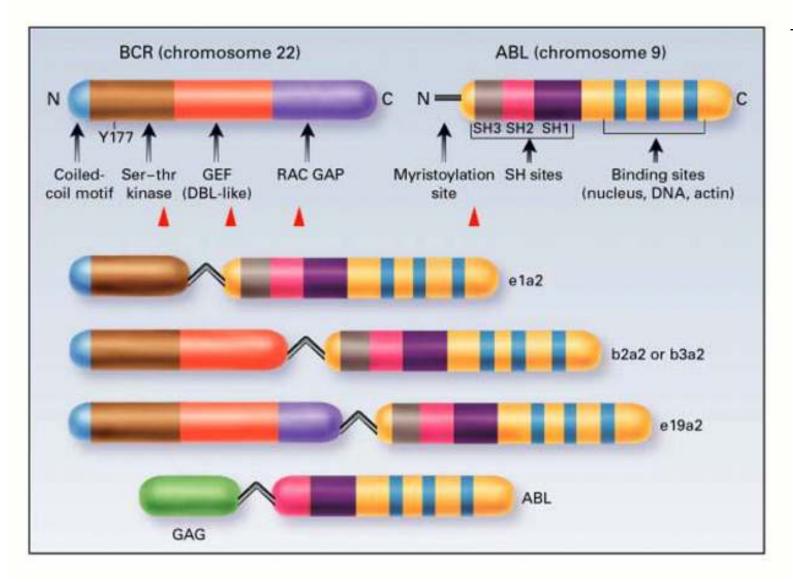
- translocation 7-14 (breakage of 7p14), defect of ATM
- the gene codes for a kinase participating in DNA repair, cooperating with TP53 (among others)
- impaired cell cycle blockage normally resulting from DNA damage
- effects:
 - cerebellar abnormalities
 - immunodeficiency,
 - oversensitivity to radiation, chromosomal instabilities



'Single gene' carcinogenesis - Bcr-Abl example (1)



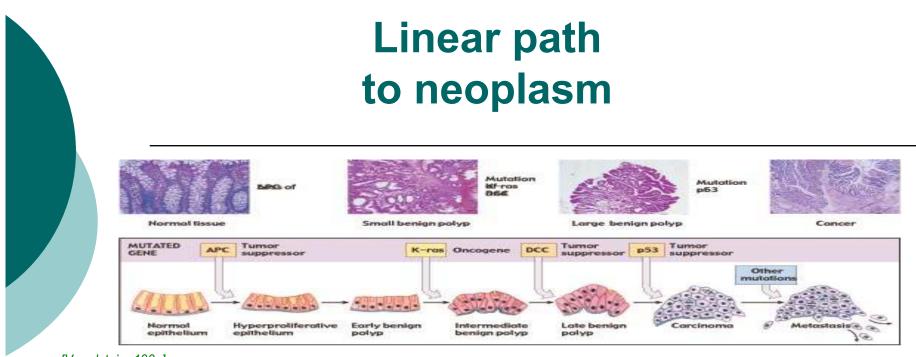
'Single gene' carcinogenesis – Bcr-Abl example (2)



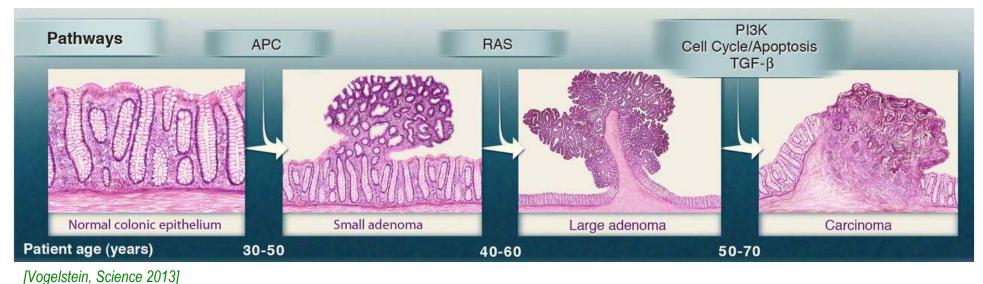


'Single gene' carcinogenesis – Bcr-Abl example (3)

- genetic modification of mice: introduction of the switchable *Bcr-Abl* gene fusion under tetracycline-regulated promoter
- switching the *Bcr-Abl* expression on resulted in rapid increase of blast cells in blood
 - turning the expression off in the early stage of leukemia resulted in full regression
 - turning on again caused leukemia to re-appear
 - turning the expression off in late stages of leukemia often had no effect



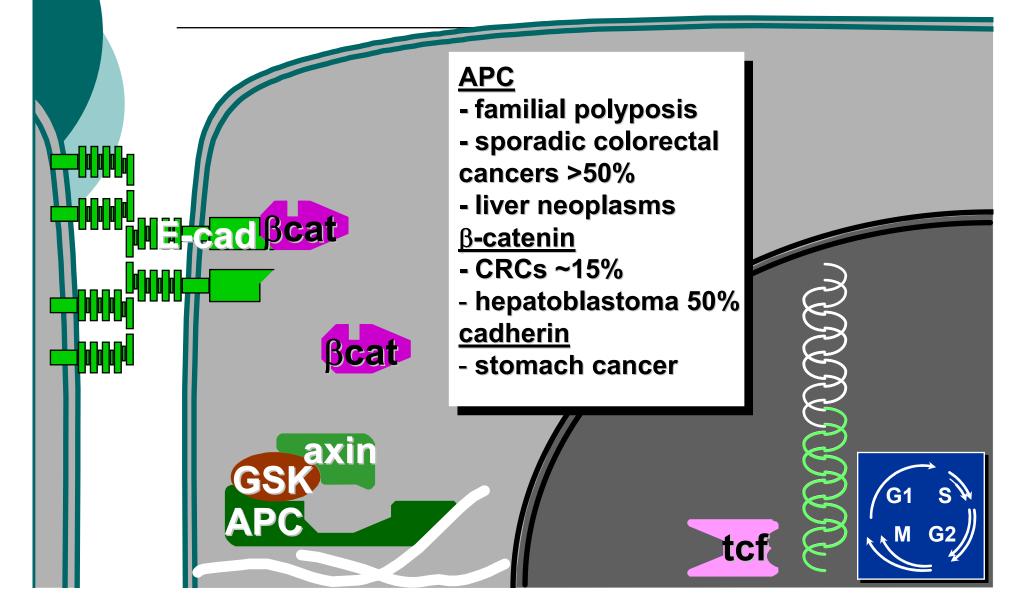
[Vogelstein, 199x]

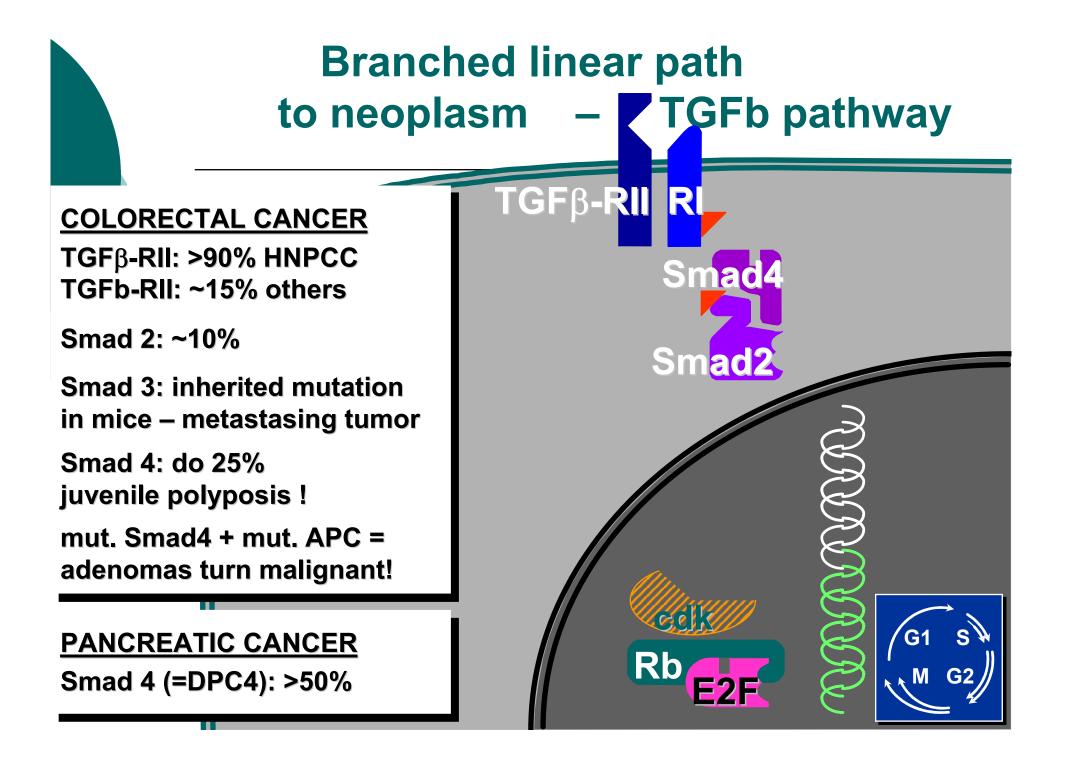


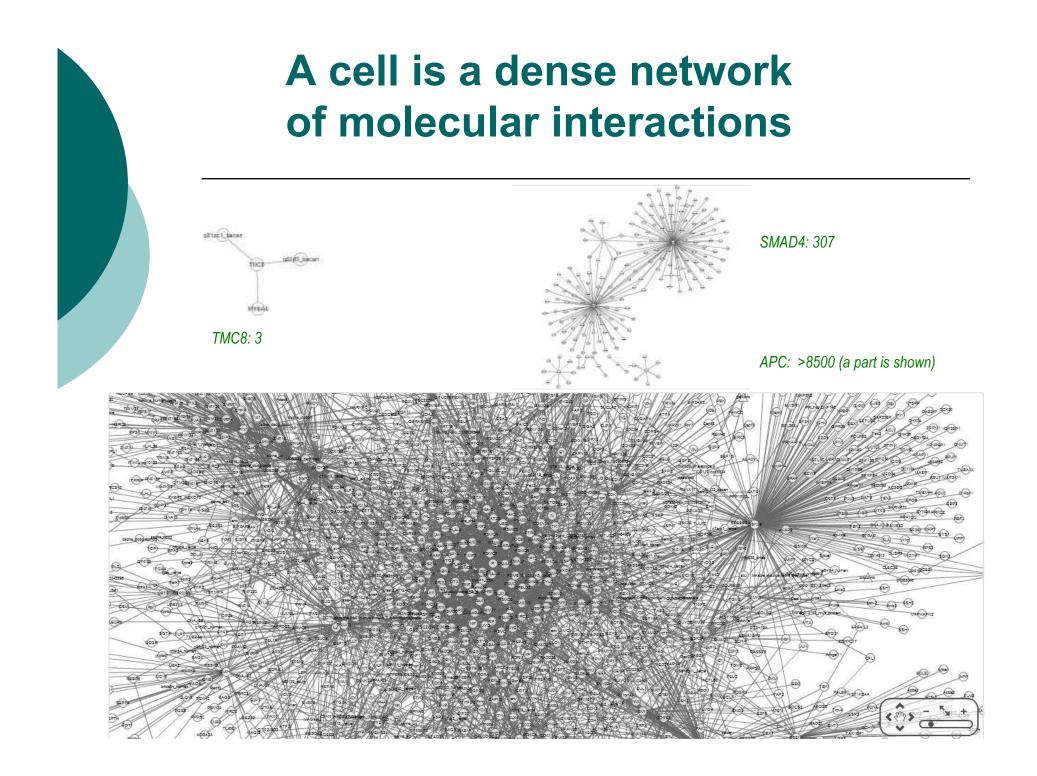
tumors with this set of mutations?

<10%!!

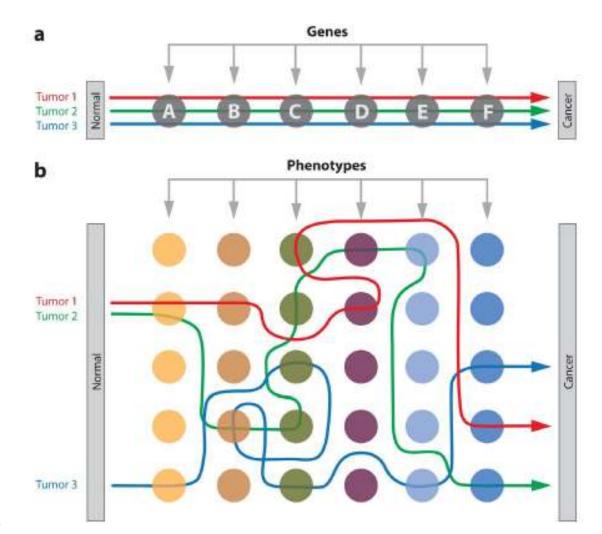
Branched linear path to neoplasm – APC







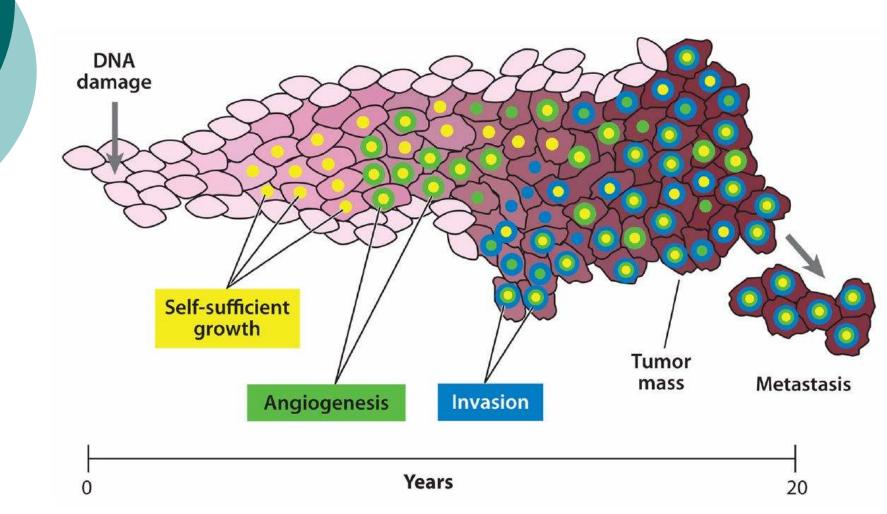
Multidirectional path to cancer



[Salk Annu Rev Pathol 2010]

Multidirectional path to cancer A Linear evolution Normal haemopoiesis Frank leukaemia > B Branching evolution 2 10.00

Neoplasm heterogeneity



[Salk, Annu Rev Pathol 2010]



Genetics of cancer – stages of research (1)

random probing stage

- identification of oncogenes (in viral DNA) and protooncogenes (in cellular DNA)
- identification of tumor suppressors (linkage studies)
- search for mutations in (proto)onkogenes and suppressor genes in various cancers (hit-or-miss)
- **studying interaction networks** (searching for genes yet unknown to harbour cancerous mutations)

Genetics of cancer – stages of research (2)

complex studies (-omics studies)

microarrays

(transciptome, gene copy number variation (CNV), gene panels (sets), methylation arrays)

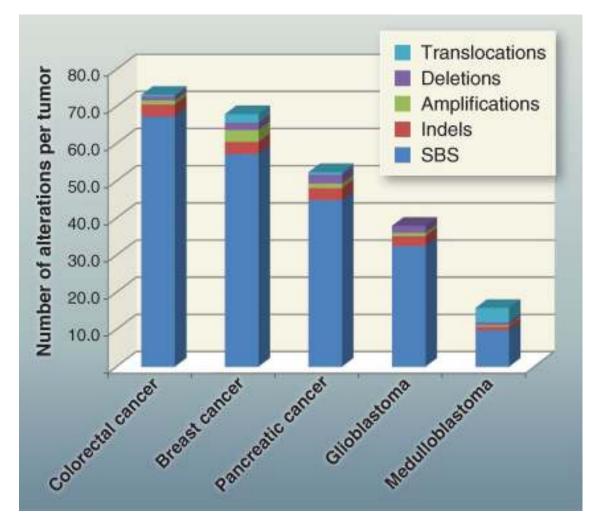
new generation sequencing
 (transcriptome, gene panels, exome, genome, methylome)

technology advances finally allowed us

- to perform in-depth studies of cancer genetics
- to study 'sporadic' (non-familial) cases (>70%) and unexplained familial cases (~25?)



Cancer <u>genomics</u> - mutation types



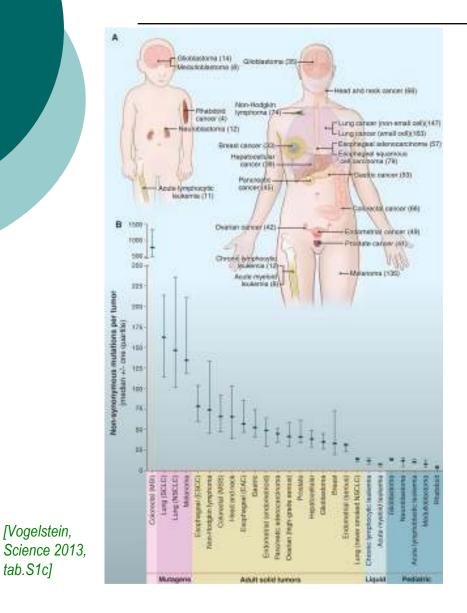
 neoplasms differ in their mutation profiles

 single base substitutions are dominant

Cancer <u>genomics</u> - frequency of all SBS

type	mut:	/Mb	/genome
medulloblastoma	0.1	5÷0.6	~1 000
 acute lymph. leukemia from T-cell p chronic lymphocytic leukemia (CLL) multiple myeloma 		s 0.3 lo 1.0 2.9	<1 000 <3 250 9 400
 prostate cancer breast cancer hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) colorectal cancer (CRC) small cell lung cancer (SCLC) non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC) 		0.9 2÷1.7 4.2 5.0 7.4 17.7	3 000 ~4 700 <13 650 ~16 250 ~24 050 ~57 500
• melanoma (hairless skin) • melanoma (hair) • melanoma from UV exposure	5.0 ⁻	÷14.0 ÷55.0 111.0	<45 500 <160 000 360 000

Cancer genomics - frequency of nonsynonymous SBS



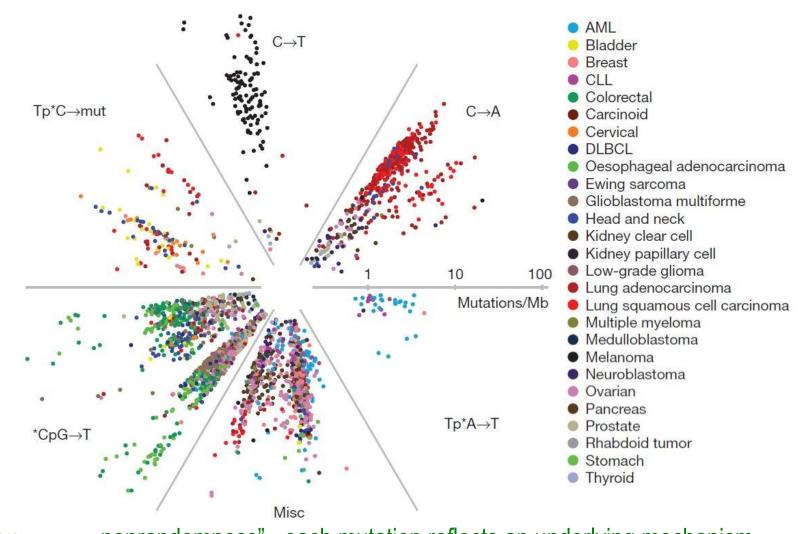
tab.S1c]

mut./genom type medulloblastoma do 1 000 chronic lymphocytic leukemia do 3 000 breast cancer ~ 4 500 hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) ~13 500 colorectal cancer(CRC) ~15 000 small cell lung cancer (SCLC) ~24 000 non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC) ~57 000 ~24 000 melanoma

Less than 1% mut. = nonsynonymous!



Distribution of SBS in neoplasms – not quite random!



[Lawrence, Nature 2013]

"nonrandomness" - each mutation reflects an underlying mechanism



Distribution of SBS in neoplasms – context matters

- each substitution (such as C->T) can be further divided into subgroups according to its context (neighbour bases):
 - aCa -> aTa aCc -> aTc aCg -> aTg aCt -> aTt
 - c**C**a -> c**T**a
 - g**C**a -> g**T**a
 - t**C**a -> t**T**a

etc.

 distribution of contexts can be studied in various types of cancer

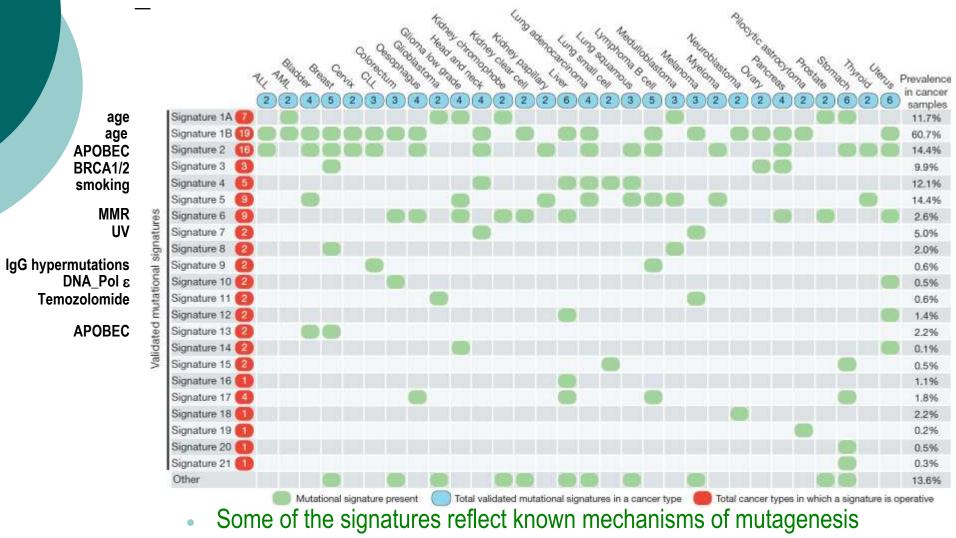


Distribution of SBS in neoplasms – ~21 signatures



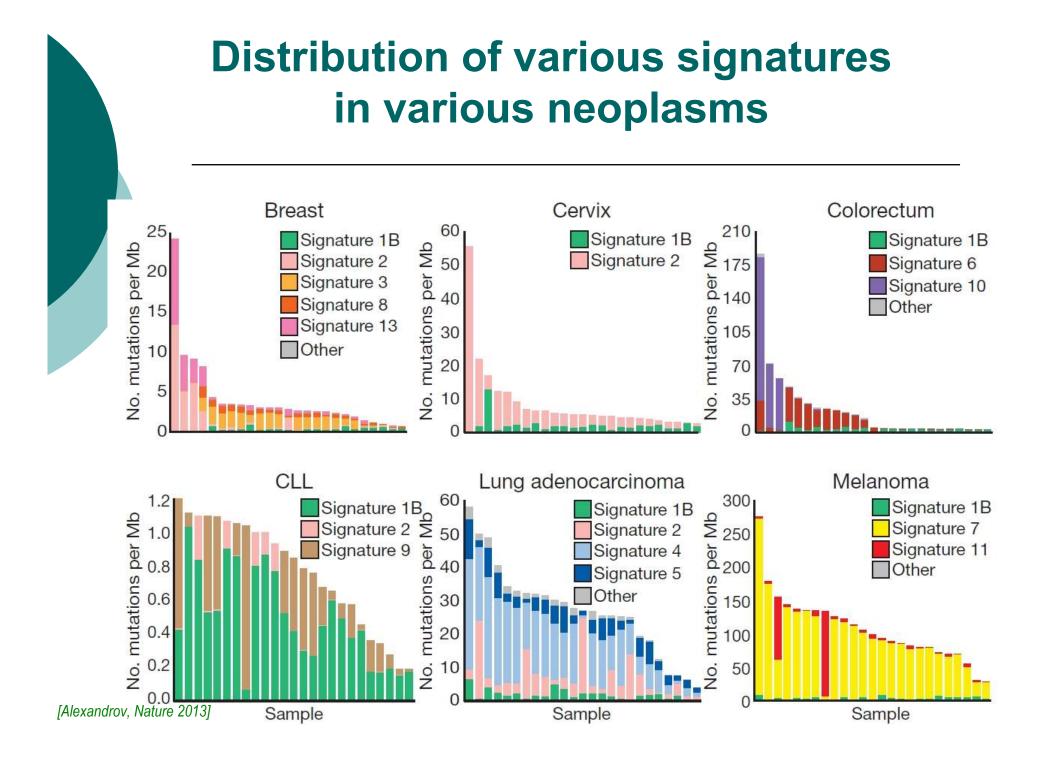
[Alexandrov, Nature 2013]

Distribution of SBS in neoplasms – ~21 signatures



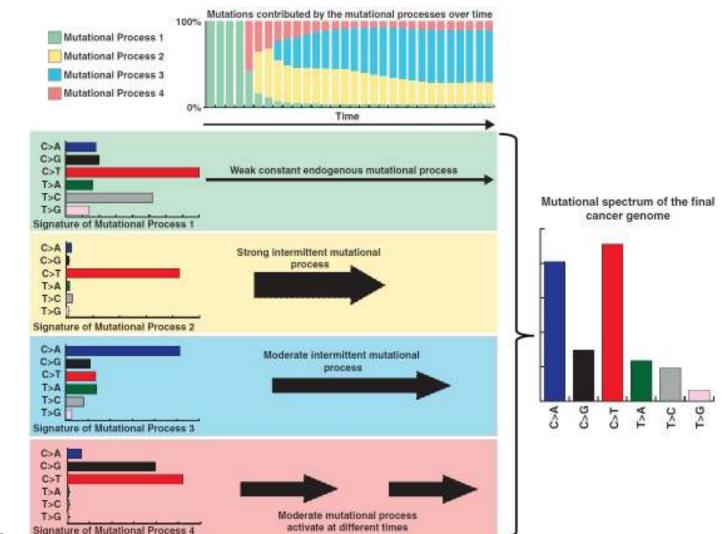
• Others point towards yet-undiscovered ones ?

[Alexandrov, Nature 2013]





Distribution of SBS in neoplasms – timing



[Alexandrov, Curr Opin Gen Dev 2014]



Multitude of mutations – drivers ↔ passengers

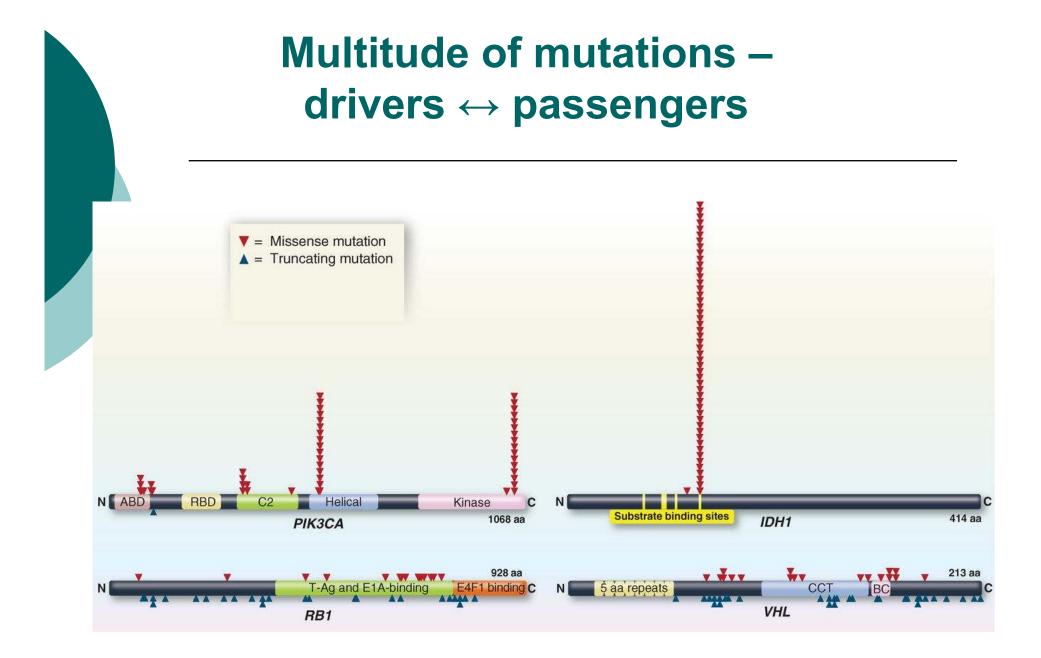
- many genes mutated accidentally, with no importance for neoplasm growth => passengers
- how to tell the passenger from the driver?
- 20/20 rule [Vogelstein, Science 2013]: Mut-driver is a gene that can be classified as either oncogene or suppressor based on 20/20 rule



Multitude of mutations – drivers ↔ passengers

- 20/20 rule [Vogelstein, Science 2013]:
 - oncogene: >20% of small mutations cause missense changes and tend to focus in hot spots along the gene
 - suppressor: >20% of small mutations
 cause inactivation (mostly nonsense mutations)
 and tend to spread along the gene

vast majority of known genes related to carcinogenesis easily fulfill these criteria





Multitude of mutations – drivers

- how many drivers (at present)
 - ~500 (COSMIC database) (20/20 rule not aplied)
 - 138 (Vogelstein Science 2013) (20/20 rule aplied)
- What is important?

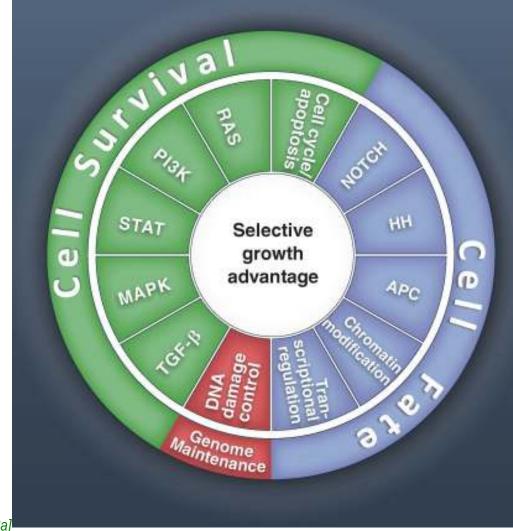
that number is still increasing, but clearly approaches plateau (studies of new cancers result in 'discovering' already-known mutations)

Multitude of mutations – functional spectrum – DNA integrity



DNA control and repair: •TP53, ATM; •STAG2 •MLH1, MSH2, MSH6 •BRCA1, BRCA2;BAP;

Multitude of mutations – functional spectrum – DNA integrity



DNA control and repair: (plus susceptibilities: •TP53, ATM; CHEK2 •STAG2 •MLH1, MSH2, MSH6 PMS1, PMS2 BRCA1, BRCA2; BAP; BRIP1, PALB; FANCA, FANCC, FANCD2, FANCE, FANCF, FANCG •ERCC2, ERCC3, ERCC4, ERCC5; XPA, XPC; •BLM; NBS; •WRN, RECQL4;

Multitude of mutations – functional spectrum – cell cycle, apoptosis



cell cycle and apoptosis: •CDKN2A •RB1, TP53 •BCL2, CASP8, DAXX •TRAF7, ABL1, CARD11, CDC73, CYLD, FUBP1, MYD88, NFE2L2, NPM1, PPP2R1A, SETBP1, TNFAIP3, MED12

f





RAS etc.:

•ALK, CSF1R, EGFR, ERBB2, FGFR2, FGFR3, FLT3, KIT, MET (HGFR), PDGFRA, **RET(GDNF-R)** •HRAS, KRAS, NRAS •GNA11,GNAQ,GNAS, NF1 •BRAF, MAP3K11, MAP2K1 **•PTPN11** •CIC, CBL, B2M, CEBPA •VHL

Multitude of mutations – functional spectrum – PI3K pathway



PI3K etc.: •ALK, CSF1R, EGFR, ERBB2, FGFR2, FGFR3, FLT3, KIT, MET (HGFR), PDGFRA, RET(GDNF-R), TSHR •HRAS, KRAS, NRAS GNA11, GNAQ, GNAS, NF1, <u>TSC1, PTEN</u> •BRAF, MAP3K11, MAP2K1, PIK3, AKT, •PTPN11 •CIC, <u>CBL</u>, <u>B2M</u>, <u>CEBPA</u>

•VHL,

Multitude of mutations – functional spectrum – MAPK pathway



MAPK etc.:

•ALK, CSF1R, EGFR, ERBB2, FGFR2, FGFR3, FLT3, KIT, MET (HGFR), PDGFRA, RET (GDNF-R), TSHR •HRAS, KRAS, NRAS •GNA11, GNAQ, GNAS, NF1 •BRAF, MAP3K11, MAP2K1, <u>MAP3K1</u> •PTPN11 •CIC, CBL, <u>B2M, CEBPA</u> •VHL, TNFAIP3

Multitude of mutations – functional spectrum – STAT pathway



STAT etc.:

•ALK, CSF1R, EGFR, ERBB2, FGFR2, FGFR3, FLT3, KIT, MET (HGFR), PDGFRA, RET(GDNF-R), CRLF2 •HRAS, KRAS, NRAS •GNA11, GNAQ, GNAS, NF1 •BRAF, MAP3K11, MAP2K1, JAK1-JAK3 •PTPN11 •CIC, CBL, B2M, CEBPA •VHL, MPL, SOCS



Multitude of mutations – functional spectrum – TGFb



TGFB path: •ACVR1B •GNAS •SMAD2, SMAD4 •MED12 •EP300, FOXL2, GATA1, GATA2

(in inherited also: •BMPR1A)



Multitude of mutations – functional spectrum – Notch i HH



NOTCH1, NOTCH2 •FBXW7 •GATA1, GATA2 •EP300

HH itp. : •PTCH1 •SMO •SPOP

(in inherited susceptib.:•EXT1, EXT2, SUFU)

Multitude of mutations – functional spectrum – APC pathway



APC path: •CDH1, CTNNB1,

- APC, AXIN1;
- •FAM123B, GNAS, NF2;
- •RNF43, EP300, HNF1A, SOX9,

(inherited susceptibility: •PRKAR1A)

Multitude of mutations – functional spectrum – transcription factors



Transcription factors: •AR **•BCOR** •GATA3 •PHF6 •RUNX1 •SF3B1, SRSF2, **U2AF1** •CREBBP •KLF4

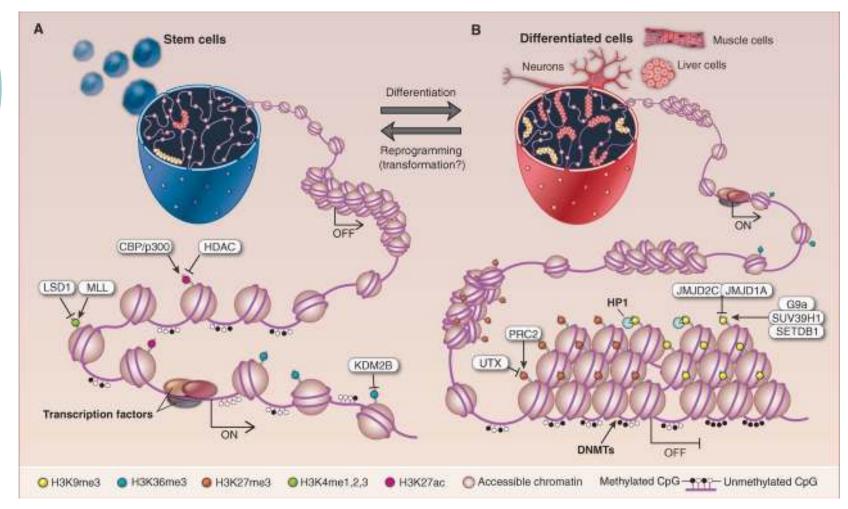
(inherited susceptibility:•DICER1, PHOX2B, SBDS)

Multitude of mutations – functional spectrum – chromatin state



 More than half of newly discovered drivers is related to regulation of chromatin structure (histone modification, DNA methylation)

Multitude of mutations – functional spectrum – chromatin state



 methylation of DNA & modification of histones -> 'packed' DNA -> inaccessible ("silenced") genes

[Suva, Science 2013]

Multitude of mutations – functional spectrum – chromatin state

B

0

Transcription factors

SOX2

A

Esophageal squamous cell carcinoma Lung carcinoma Glioblastoma Breast carcinoma Ewing sarcoma

KLF4

Breast carcinoma Skin malignancies

NANOG

Hepatocellular carcinoma Glioblastoma Colon carcinoma Prostate carcinoma Ewing sarcoma

OCT4 Germ cell tumors

O C-MYC Multiple malignancies

O LIN28 Multiple malignancies

Chromatin regulators

SUV39H1* Acute promyelocytic leukemia (APL)

A SETDB1* Melanoma

▲ G9a* Lung carcinoma Breast carcinoma

<mark>∆ UTX</mark>

Multiple myeloma Clear cell renal cell carcinoma Transitional cell carcinoma of bladder Medulloblastoma

▲ PRC2

Follicular and large B-cell lymphomas Myelodysplastic syndromes T-cell acute lymphoblastic leukemia Overexpressed in multiple malignancies

ARID1A

Ovarian clear cell carcinoma Endometriod carcinoma Renal cell carcinoma Neuroblastoma Medulloblastoma Lung carcinoma Breast carcinoma

* Barrier to reprogramming.

▲ MLL1

Acute myeloid leukemia (AML) Acute lymphoblastic leukemia (ALL) Transitional cell carcinoma of bladder

MLL2

Large B cell and follicular lymphoma Medulloblastoma Prostate carcinoma Renal carcinoma

MLL3

Medulloblastoma Transitional cell carcinoma of bladder Breast carcinoma Pancreatic adenocarcinoma

△ LSD1

Acute myeloid leukemia (AML) Breast carcinoma Prostate carcinoma

▲ DOT1L*

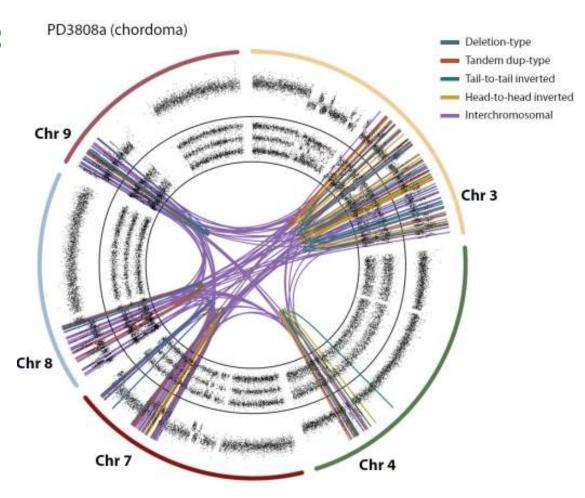
Mixed lineage leukemia (MLL)

- Acute myeloid leukemia (AML)
- **DNMT3A/B**
 - Acute myeloid leukemia (AML) Breast carcinoma Lung carcinoma



Mechanisms of carcinogenesis – large mutations – chromothripsis (1)

chromothripsis : shattering of chromosome(s) (or its part) followed by glueing of pieces at random (Stephens, Cell 2011)



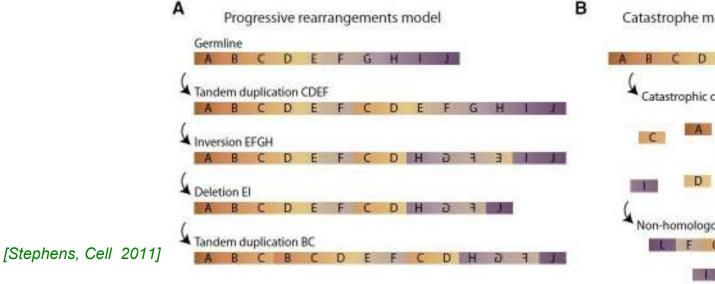
[Stephens, Cell 2011]



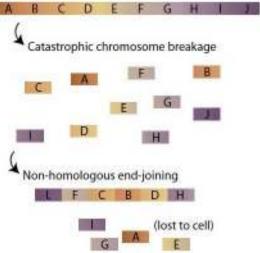
Mechanisms of carcinogenesis – large mutations – chromothripsis (2)

chromothripsis:

sudden mupltiple changes (B), not a gradual accumulation of changes (A)



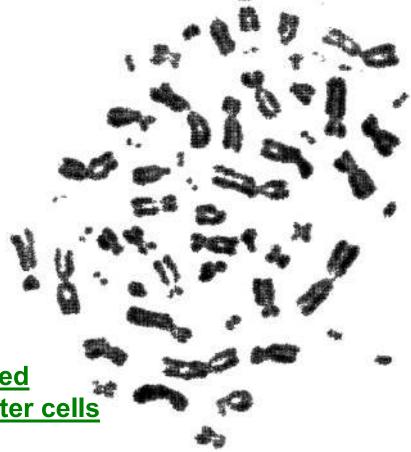






Mechanisms of carcinogenesis – large mutations – chromothripsis (4)

- double minute chromosomes
 - small chromosome-like entities
 - discovered in neoplasms of children (Cox, Lancet 1965)
 - no centromeres
 - no telomeres
 - during cell division <u>separated</u>
 <u>randomly between daughter cells</u>



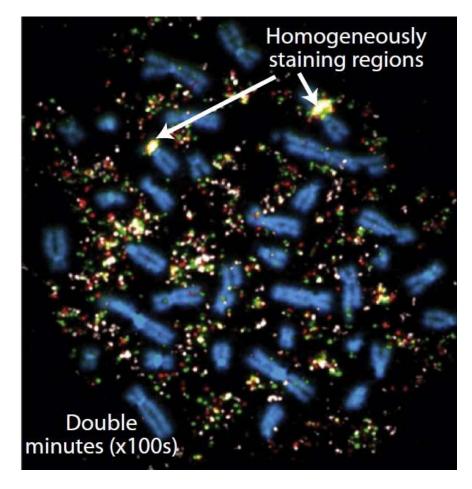


Mechanisms of carcinogenesis – large mutations – chromothripsis (5)

double minute chromosomes after chromothripsis (example)

Read more:

- o Korbel, Cell 2013; 152(6): 226
- Li, Nature 2014; 508(7): 494 rob(15;21)(q10;q10)c
 2500× increased risk of ALL





Oncogenetics – usage

- diagnosis, prophylaxis and follow-up
- treatment
 - selecting from existing drugs (convent. / targeted)
 - **new indications for known drugs** (repurposing)
 - discovering new targets => new drugs
 - (synthetic lethality)
 - methabolic vulnerabilities

Oncogenetics in diagnostics – inherited predispositions

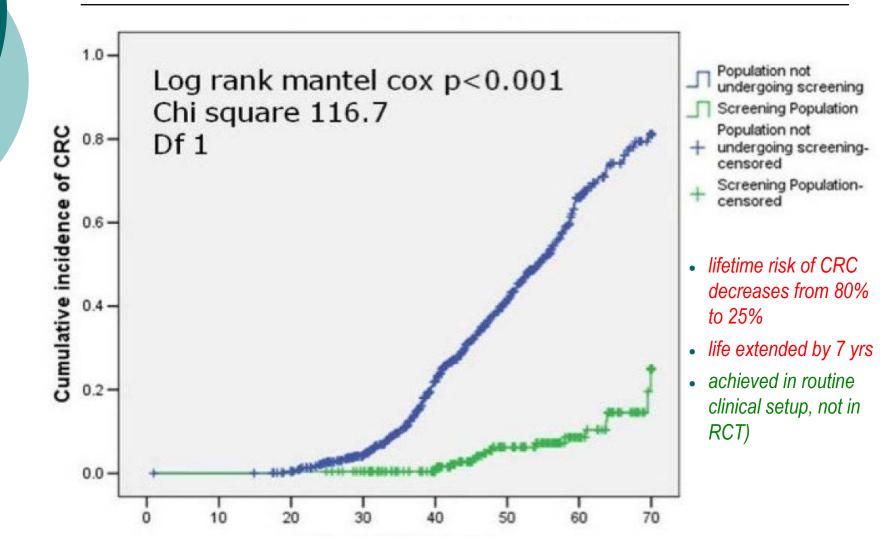
- if the background of susceptibility is known, then screening is at present:
 - possible
 - relatively cheap
- BUT it may be indicated only if:
 - disease runs in the family (or the cost of test further drops down)
 - early detection will change the fate of the patient (efficient prophylactic/therapeutic interventions exist)
 - **cost is adequate** (HTA) (some syndromes are simply too infrequent to)

Oncogenetics in prophylaxis – Lynch syndrome (1)

• risk of cancer (lifelong cumulated) :

- colon & rectum (30÷70%), small intestine, stomach, pancreas (4%), bile ducts
- uterus (30÷60%), ovary (4-12%)
- bladder (8%)
- known genetic basis (possible to study)
- prophylaxis and follow up (ESMO 2013)
 - aspirin 600mg/d => 60% decrease of CRC (Burn, Lancet 2011)
 - colonoscopy every 2y since 25 y => decrease of incidence of CRC from ~70% to ~10% (Jarvinen, Gastroenterology 2000)
 - ginecologic examinations, biopsy, USG, Ca125 level in blood yearly since 30–35 y old

Oncogenetics in prophylaxis – Lynch syndrome (2)



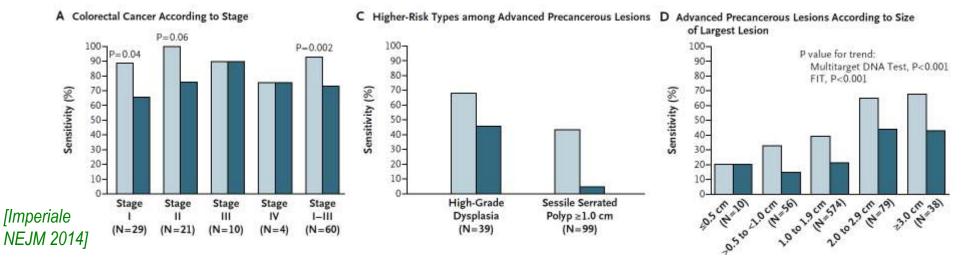


Oncogenetics in diagnostic – CRC (sporadic) (not inherited)

- traditional screening: for 50y old and above
 - FIT (fecal immunochemical test), colonoscopy
- new test DNA in stool (FDA 2014):
 - methylation of NDRG4 & BMP3, mutations KRAS & CATB
 - among 9989 pers: 65 (0.7%) cancers

757 (7.6%) precancerous conditions

test DNA detected CRC in 92.3%, FIT in 73.8%, p=0.002





Oncogenetics in therapy – targeted therapy

Targeted:

- directed at the molecular level
- aiming at the molecule (not the disease!)

target shoud be a molecule playing major role in pathogenesis

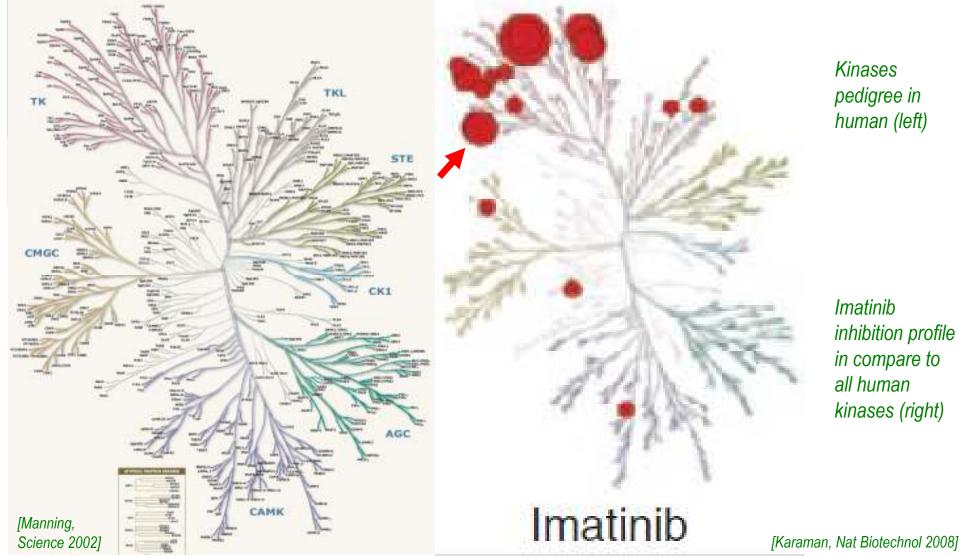
- protein (most of the time)
- gene or RNA (potentially; rarely used)



Oncogenetics in therapy – targeted therapy: <u>**oncogenes**</u>

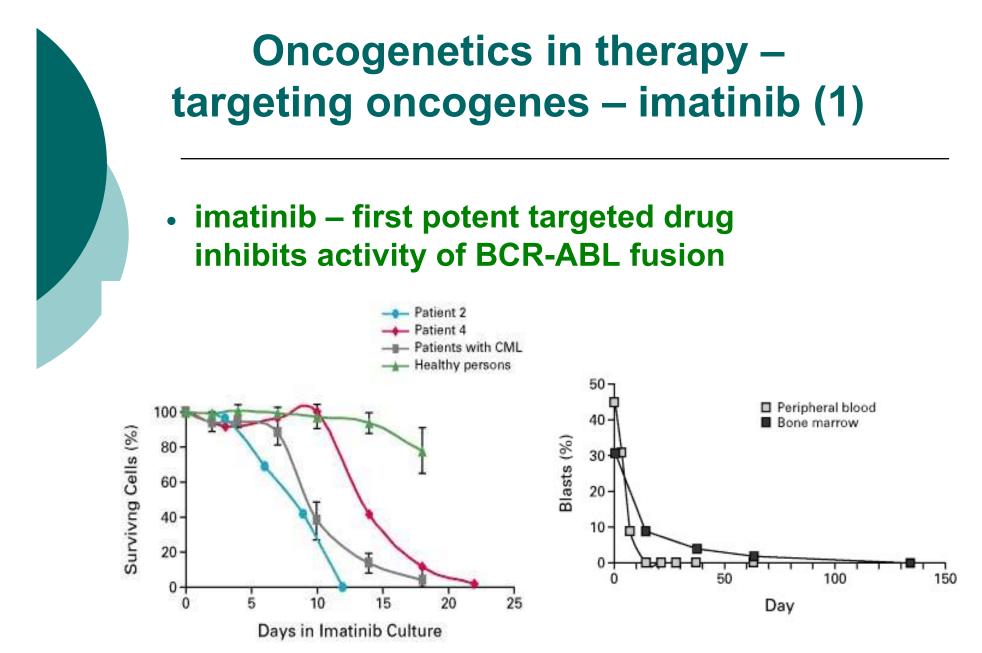
- target: mRNA or protein encoded by an oncogene
 - mostly protein kinases
- aim: decreasing activity
- formula:
 - inhibitor of enzyme
 - small molecule inhibitors (-inib)
 - antibody inhibitors (-umab)
 - others

Oncogenetics in therapy – targeted therapy: kinase inhibitors

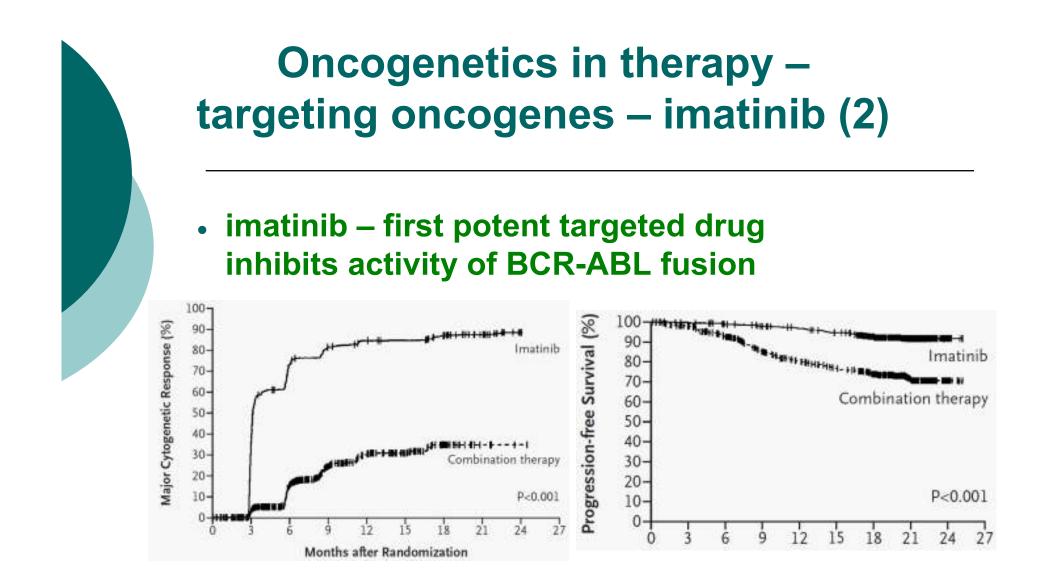


Kinases pedigree in human (left)

inhibition profile in compare to all human kinases (right)



Blast cell survival rate after imatinib treatment, in vitro (left), blood and bone marrow (right)



Oncogenetics in therapy – targeting oncogenes – imatinib (4)

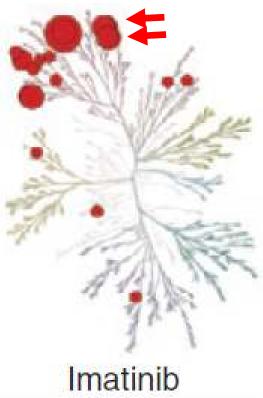


(before and after treatment)

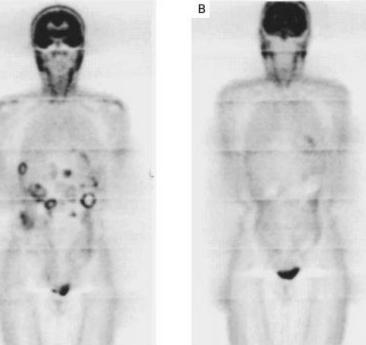


Oncogenetics in therapy – expanding the drug indications

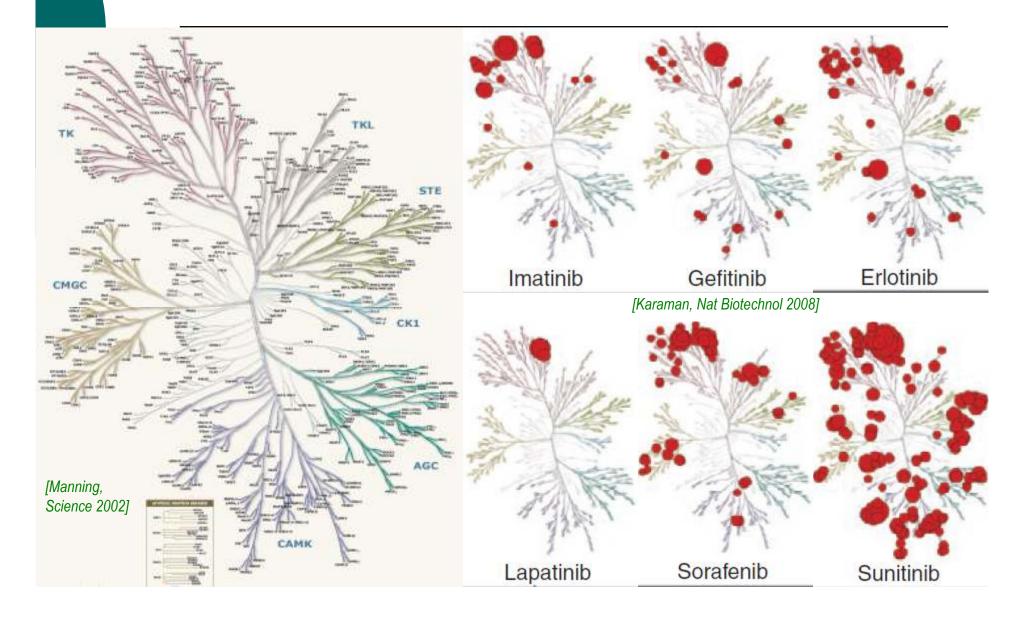
 imatinib inhibits also
 KIT mutations are PDGF-R and KIT:
 frequent in GIST to



KIT mutations are frequent in GIST tumors - imatinib administered:

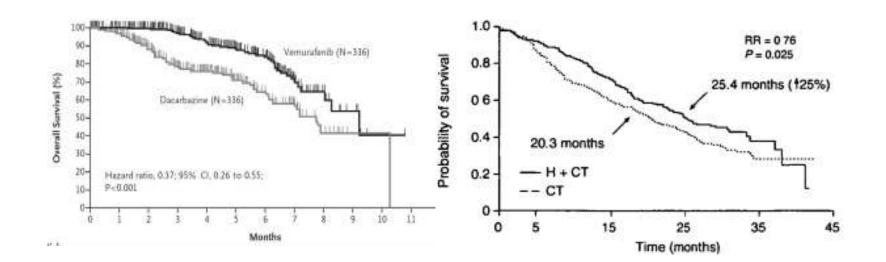


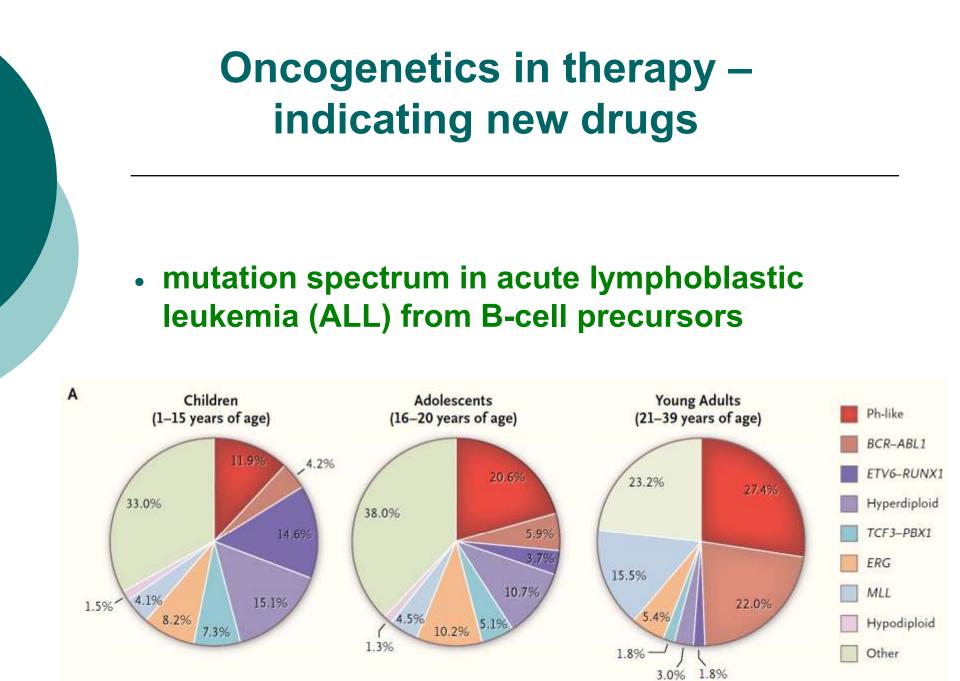
Oncogenetics in therapy – pointing at new possible targets



Oncogenetics in therapy – effectiveness of other kinase inhibitors

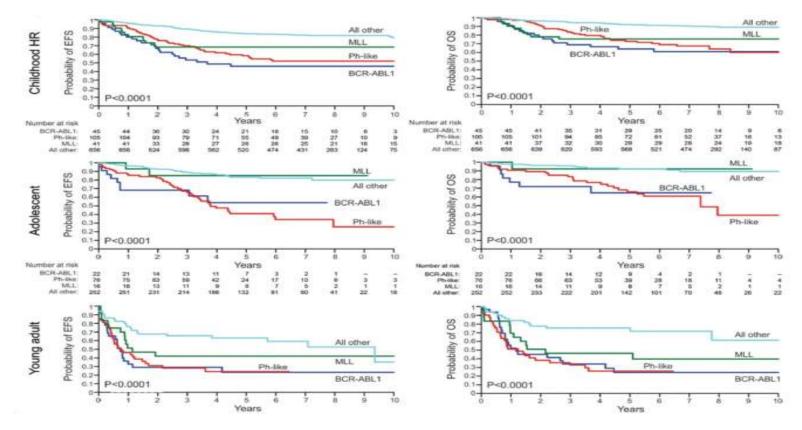
- BRAF (Raf1) mutations
 EGFR mutations in breast cancer
 - V600E => vemurafenib (Chapman, NEJM 2011)
- trastuzumab (Herceptin) (Eiermann, Ann Oncol 2001)





Oncogenetics in therapy – indicating new drugs

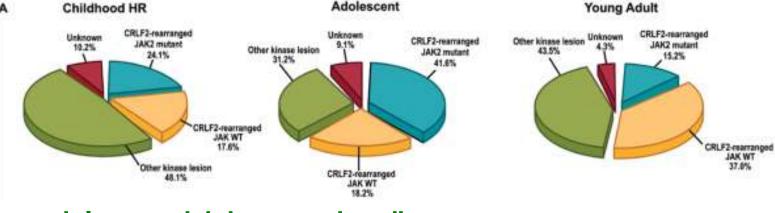
 acute lymphoblastic leukemia (ALL) from B-cell precursors – prognosis





Oncogenetics in therapy – indicating new drugs

 mutation spectrum in acute lymphoblastic leukemia (ALL) from B-cell precursors

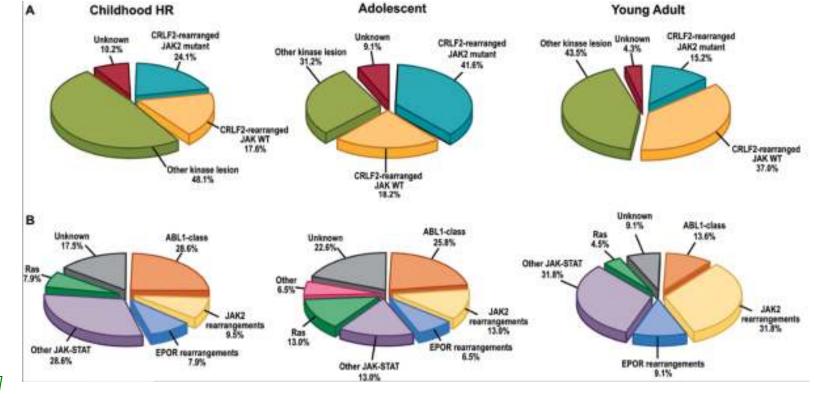


dalszy podział grupy "inne":



Oncogenetics in therapy – indicating new drugs

 mutation spectrum in acute lymphoblastic leukemia (ALL) from B-cell precursors





Oncogenetics in therapy – indicating new drugs

mutation spectrum in ALL from B-cell precursors (154 patients) – konkluzje:

•91% patients: mutations of kinase genes

 drug effect – prognozed and verified on animals and cells:

- ABL1, ABL2, CSF1R, PDGFRB fusions: dasatinib
- EPOR or JAK2 rearrangements: ruxolitinib
- ETV6–NTRK3 fusions: crizotinib

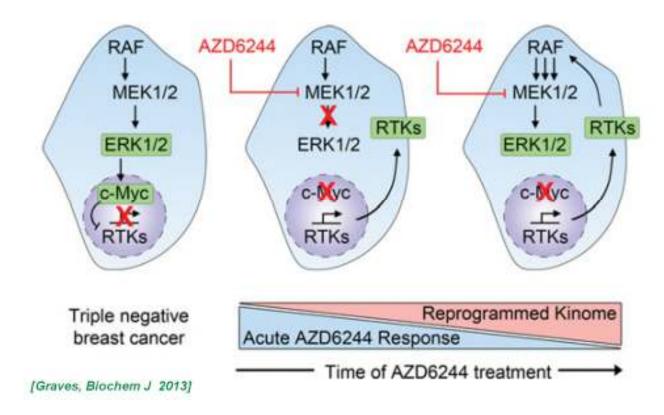
•clinically:

• 11 of 12 most serious cases – stable remission



Oncogenetics in therapy : alternative pathways

effect of inhibitors is decreasing quickly



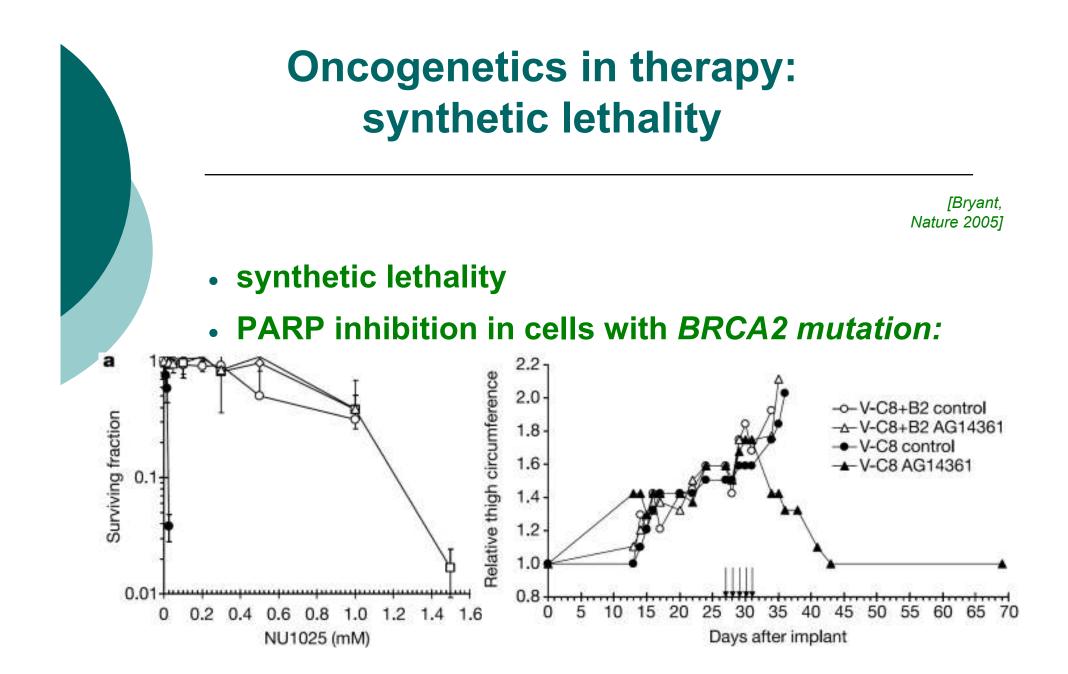


Oncogenetics in therapy: synthetic lethality

- synthetic lethality <u>two distinct defects</u> are:
 - separately: harmless
 - together: lethal [Bridges, 1922; Dobzhansky 1946]
- redundancy of metabolic pathways
- usage in oncology: [Hartwell, Science 1997]

• first success:

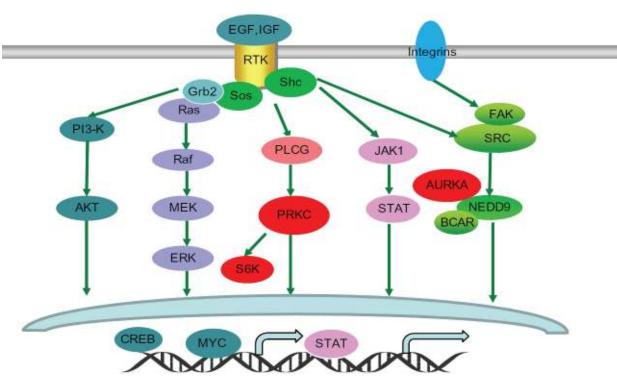
PARP inhibition in tumors with BRCA2 mutation [Bryant, Nature 2005; Farmer, Nature 2005] ()





Oncogenetics in therapy: synthetic lethality

 prognosed synthetic lethality in RAS (red = lethal (?) together with EGFR blockade)

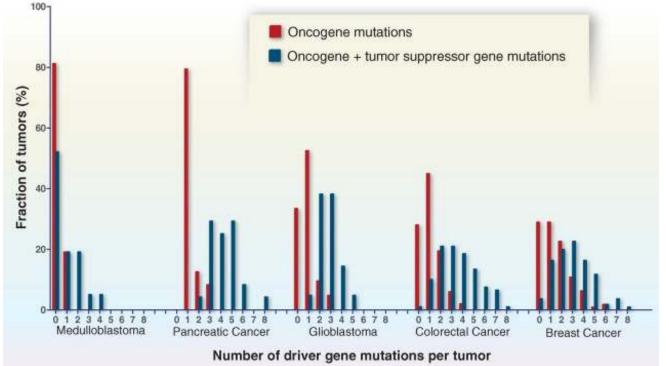




Oncogenetics in therapy: mutations in oncogenes are rare!

leczenie celowane – głównie w onkogeny

problem: z reguły mało mutacji w onkogenach!
 (wąski repertuar dostępnych terapii, trudno o leczenie skojarzone)



[Vogelstein, Science 2013]



Oncogenetics in therapy – targeted therapy: passengers (1)

passenger mutations:

- no contribution to neoplastic transformation (apparently useless in therapy)
- remain in the genome of the clonal expansion (probability of reversing mutation ~0)
- may destroy genes coding elements of crucial metabolic pathways
- BUT

most of crucial metabolic pathways in mammals is <u>at least duplicated (backup system</u>)



Oncogenetics in therapy – targeted therapy: passengers (2)

metabolic vulnerability [Muller, Nature 2012]

- If a major metabolic pathway is damaged by a passenger, cancer cell survival depends on metabolic pathway backup system
- Pharmacological inhibition of backup system may cause :
 - no difference in nomal cells
 - (main pathway is working well)
 - death of cancer cells



Oncogenetics in therapy – targeted therapy: passengers (3)

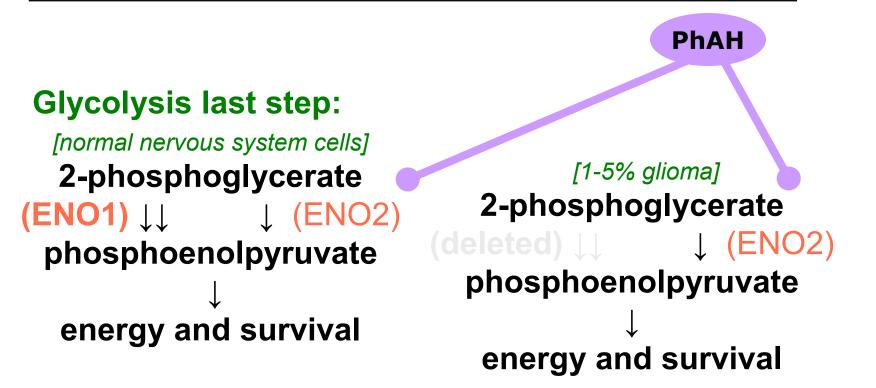
Glycolysis last step: [normal nervous system cells] 2-phosphoglycerate (ENO1) ↓↓ ↓ (ENO2) phosphoenolpyruvate

energy and survival

[1-5% glioma] 2-phosphoglycerate deleted) ↓↓ ↓ (ENO2) phosphoenolpyruvate ↓ energy and survival



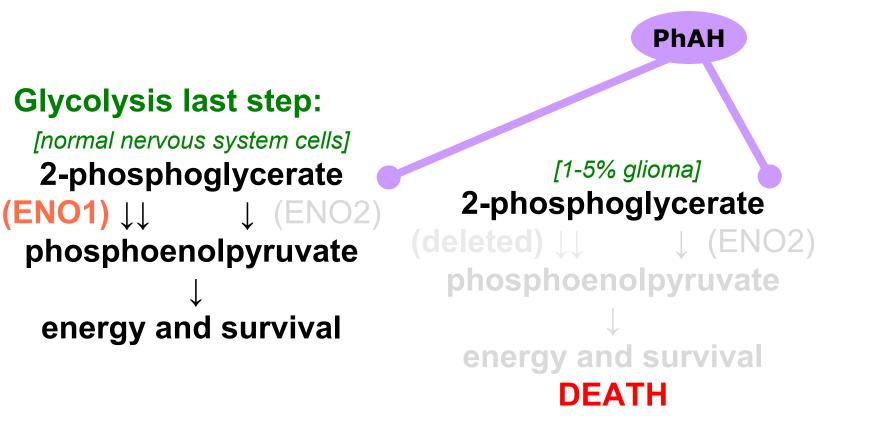
Oncogenetics in therapy – targeted therapy: passengers (4)



[Muller, Nature 2012]

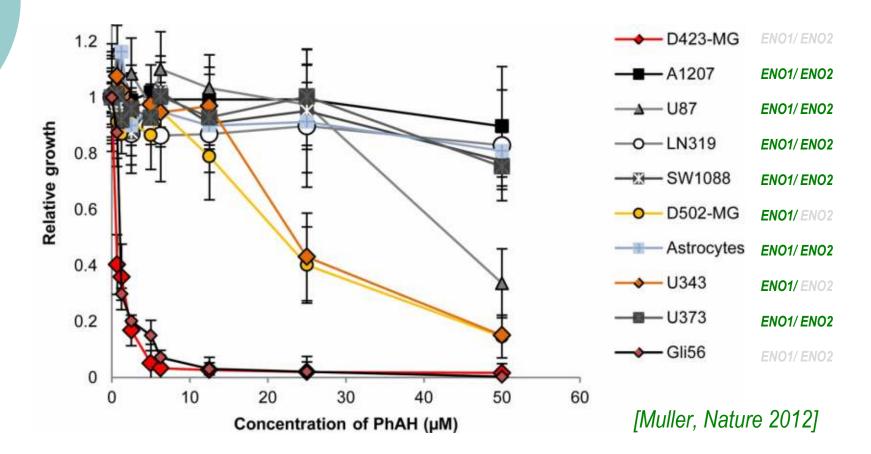


Oncogenetics in therapy – targeted therapy: passengers (5)



Oncogenetics in therapy – targeted therapy: passengers (6)

ENO inhibition in vitro





Oncogenetics in therapy – targeted therapy: passengers (7)

Prospects for usage [Aksoy 2014]:

- homozygous deletions of genes coding for crucial metabolic enzymes:
 - 482 z 972 of cancerous cell lines
 - 1019 z 5971 cancers
 - overall 4104 metabolic vulnerabilitese
- ~45% of alternative enzymes could be inhibited by at least one drug already accepted by FDA



Oncogenetics in therapy – targeted therapy: passengers (8)

Most frequent vulnerabilities [Aksoy 2014]:

non-oncologic drugs:

- EXTL2, EXTL3 173/5971 (3%) UDP-N-acetylglicosamine
- CPT1C, CPT1B, CPT2, CPT1A 90/5971 (1.5%) L-carnithine
- GOT1, GOT2, GOT1L1 65/5971 (1%) maleic
- ATP2C1, ATP2C2 57/5971 (1%) halotane
- ACAT1, ACAT2 39/5971 (0.7%) sulphasalazin
- anticancer drugs:
- TOP2B, TOP2A 70/5971 (1%) np. doxorubicin, etoposide
- DHFR, DHFRL1 68/5971 (1%) np. methotrexate
- IKBKE, TBK1, IKBKB, CHUK 46/5971 (0.8%) AsO₃
- LIG1, LIG3, LIG4 43/5971 (0.8%) bleomycin

CONCLUSION: no universal method (applicability <<1%)