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Kinome directed target discovery and validation in unique ovarian clear cell carcinoma models

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CHAPTER 7

Summary and discussion

SUMMARY

Ovarian clear cell carcinoma (OCCC) is the second most common subtype of epithelial ovarian cancer (EOC). EOC has historically been considered one entity, and therefore all subtypes are uniformly treated with optimal cytoreductive surgery and platinum-based chemotherapy (1, 2). Advanced stage diagnosed (FIGO III/ IV) OCCC patients have a worse survival compared to stage matched high-grade serous ovarian carcinoma, which is explained by low response rates towards platinum-based chemotherapy (3-8). Efforts to improve OCCC chemotherapy responses have focused on combining platinum with other chemotherapeutic agents or targeted therapies, but have unfortunately not led to higher survival rates (9-11). Accordingly, there is an urgent need to identify novel therapeutic targets and chemotherapy combinations to improve survival of OCCC patients. SWI/SNF chromatin remodeling complexes are important regulators of chromatin structure and gene transcription. Multiple SWI/SNF subunits are genetically altered in cancer. The SWI/SNF DNA targeting subunit ARID1A is frequently mutated with the highest mutation frequency found in OCCC (12, 13).

The research presented in this thesis aimed to identify new therapeutic targets for the treatment of OCCC. To this end, we searched for specific kinase vulnerabilities in OCCC with and without deleterious mutations in *ARID1A*.

The high prevalence of ARID1A deleterious mutations in OCCC (40-57%) provides an excellent opportunity for synthetic lethal approaches in this ovarian cancer subtype. Synthetic lethality describes a relation between two genes where cells are still viable after loss of one gene but a lethal phenotype occurs after artificial loss of

both genes. In chapter 2, we reviewed recent studies that performed synthetic lethality screens in an ARID1A mutant background in OCCC and other cancers. Advantages and drawbacks of these studies and the clinical relevance of the identified targets were discussed. We focused on synthetic lethal strategies in ARID1A mutant OCCC and, in addition, evaluated targets with synthetic lethal effects in other ARID1A mutant cancers for their applicability to OCCC. Inhibition of the epigenetic regulators EZH2, HDAC2. HDAC6 and BRD2 was found to be specifically lethal in ARID1A mutant OCCC and may be exploited clinically. The DNA repair proteins PARP and ATR were verified as lethal hits in other ARID1A mutant cancers and drugs targeting these proteins are currently being investigated in various clinical trials. However, PARP and ATR remain to be assessed as synthetic lethal targets in ARID1A mutant OCCC.

Since ARID1A mutations are found in around 50% of OCCCs, we pursued a rational approach to specifically target OCCC cell lines with ARID1A mutations. Therefore, in **chapter 3**, shRNA based synthetic lethality screens were performed in a large panel of ARID1A wild-type and mutant OCCC cell lines (n=14). Given that over half of the human kinases (kinome) are chemically druggable, specifically explored we kinomecentered lethality screens to maximize the chance to identify therapeutically actionable targets (14). Knockdown of the epigenetic reader BRD2 proved to be predominantly lethal in ARID1A mutant OCCC cells. Importantly, small molecule inhibitors of the BET bromodomain protein family, to which BRD2 belongs, specifically inhibited proliferation in ARID1A mutant OCCC cell lines, both in vitro and in xenografts, and in patientderived xenografts (PDX) of OCCC. BET inhibition reduced the expression of ARID1A's mutual exclusive partner ARID1B and other SWI/SNF subunits. presenting causal evidence for the observed lethal interaction with ARID1A mutated OCCC. Our data indicate that BET inhibition may represent a novel treatment strategy for a subset of ARID1A mutated OCCC.

In chapter 4, we aimed to identify new kinase mutations and copy number alterations (CNAs) in tumors from a large set of OCCC patients (n=124) and cell lines (n=17) and we subsequently tested the druggability of downstream affected pathways in vitro and in PDX models of OCCC. The human kinome (518 kinases) and additional cancer related genes were sequenced and CNAs were determined by SNP array analysis. Several putative low-frequency driver mutations in kinases not previously annotated in OCCC were identified. The PI3K/AKT/mTOR pathway, MAPK pathway or ERBB family of receptor tyrosine kinases were affected in 91% of all tumors and the DNA repair pathway in 82% of all tumors, as determined from combined mutation and CNA data. Strong p-S6 staining in OCCC patients suggested high activity of mTORC1/2, a key regulator that acts downstream of the PI3K/AKT/mTOR pathway, MAPK pathway and ERBB family of receptor tyrosine kinases. The majority of OCCC cell lines were exceptionally sensitive to mTORC1/2 inhibition by AZD8055 whereas drugs targeting ERBB family of receptor tyrosine kinases or DNA repair signaling had low efficacy. Conforming demonstrated these findings, we efficacy of mTORC1/2 inhibition in our three unique OCCC PDX models. These preclinical data strongly indicate inhibition of mTORC1/2 as an effective treatment strategy, which should be further explored clinically in OCCC.

Sequencing studies by ourselves and other groups presented a heterogeneous mutation pattern in OCCC across PI3K/ AKT/mTOR and MAPK proliferation pathways converging into mTORC1/2 activation. Accordingly, in **chapter 5**,

we searched for effective combinations of PI3K/AKT/mTOR and MAPK kinase inhibitors in low-dose concentrations to simultaneously target key kinases in OCCC. Small molecule inhibitors of mTORC1/2 (AZD8055), PI3K (GDC0941) **MEK1/2** (selumetinib), and were combined at monotherapy IC₂₀ doses in a panel of genetically diverse OCCC cell lines (n=7) to determine an optimal lowdose combination. IC₂₀ combinations of AZD8055, GDC0941² and selumetinib effectively inhibited proliferation in all seven cell lines. This triple combination reduced kinase activity in PI3K/AKT/ mTOR and MAPK pathways, prevented sinale inhibitor induced feedback mechanisms and inhibited short and Furthermore, long-term proliferation. this low-dose triple drug combination treatment significantly reduced tumor growth in two genetically characterized OCCC patient-derived xenograft (PDX) models without resulting in weight loss in these mice. The effectiveness and tolerability of this combined therapy in PDX models also warrants clinical exploration of this treatment strategy for OCCC.

In chapter 3, 4 and 5 we have used PDX models that may help to improve the predictive value of in vivo testing of novel treatment strategies. These models are thought to better represent patient characteristics compared to cell line based xenografts. In chapter 6, we describe the establishment of seven OCCC PDX models and compared histopathology, mutation status, and copy number profiles between paired patient and PDX OCCC tumors to determine the level of similarity. Successful engraftment of OCCC patient tumors was obtained for seven patients (50%). Primary implantation (F1) showed a higher engraftment with fresh patient tumor tissue (five/seven) versus vitrified tumor tissue (two/seven). Success rate of implanted tumor pieces in F2 was higher than those in F1. In addition, latency time

was 50% shorter and, in agreement with Ki67 staining results, tumor growth rate was faster in F2. Mutations in the OCCCrelated genes ARID1A. PIK3CA. PTEN. ATM and BRCA1 were retained during Morphological engraftment. features and tumor copy number alterations were also comparable between paired tumor and F2 PDXs. Furthermore, several proliferative pathways were enriched both in paired tumors and F2 PDXs. Accordingly, these PDXs may serve as relevant preclinical models for future translational research in OCCC.

DISCUSSION AND FUTURE CONSIDERATIONS

Approaches used for target identification and validation

In this thesis we aimed to discover druggable proteins in OCCC by 1) kinome directed synthetic lethality screening and 2) by kinome sequencing and copy number analysis. The first approach, implemented in chapter 3, was designed to uncover druggable genes that are synthetic lethal with ARID1A mutations in OCCC. Accordingly, we screened a library of shRNAs in ARID1A mutant versus wild-type OCCC cell lines that specifically target the human kinome. Approximately half of the kinome is chemically druggable and many kinase targeting compounds are in clinical development (14). The enrichment of druggable kinases compared to the amount of druggable genes in the whole genome would increase the probability to find therapeutically actionable targets when specifically screening for kinases. The kinome screening strategy appeared to be successful with the identification of the synthetic lethal and druggable hit BRD2. BRD2 was a hit in five out of nine ARID1A mutant cell lines in our shRNA kinome synthetic lethality screen. Re-validation of two BRD2 shRNAs showed substantial but not full

knockdown of BRD2 expression (chapter) 3, Fig. S3A). Recently, CRISPR-Cas9 knockout screening became available by uncovering a higher number of genes essential for survival across all and subgroups of cancer cell lines tested. CRISPR-Cas9 based screens introduce aene knockouts that assure total abolishment of protein function and are therefore a robust alternative to shRNA synthetic lethality screens, especially for genes where full loss of protein function is required to identify a synthetic lethal hit (15-17). Notably, CRISPR-CAS9 mediated knockout of BRD2 was lethal in most OCCC cell lines, including ARID1A wild-type and mutant cell lines (data not shown). This indicates that, although BRD2 expression level dependency is higher in ARID1A mutant OCCC cell lines, some expression is essential for cell survival of both ARID1A wild-type and mutant OCCC cells. Downregulation of expression to a minimum activity threshold by shRNAs or chemical inhibition of protein function may therefore be a superior method for identification of synthetic lethal hits, such as BRD2, for which a minimum expression level is essential in all cells. Still, it will be interesting to perform genome-wide CRISPR-Cas9 knockout screening to find additional synthetic lethal hits in ARID1A mutant OCCC cell lines and in OCCC cell lines with other frequently mutated genes in OCCC, such as PIK3CA, KRAS and TP53.

The synthetic lethal effect of BRD2 inhibition in *ARID1A* mutant OCCC cells can be mechanistically explained by the transcriptional regulatory role of BRD2 on *ARID1B* and possibly two other SWI/SNF complex members, as demonstrated with chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP) sequencing (18). These findings follow a previous report, which demonstrated that *ARID1B* is essential for survival of *ARID1A* mutant cells (19). However, because BRD2 is a broad transcriptional regulator, it is possible that it regulates the transcription of additional essential factors in an *ARID1A* mutant context. These factors can be explored by a genome-wide comparison of already available BRD2 ChIP-sequencing data of *ARID1A* mutant (HAC2) versus wild-type (OVCA429) OCCC cells and more importantly in future ChIP-sequencing experiments using isogenic *ARID1A* mutant cell line pairs.

In the second approach to discover druggable genes in OCCC, as described in chapter 4, we performed sequencing and copy number analysis of the kinome and determined novel significantly mutated kinases and kinase regulatory components in OCCC including AKT1, PIK3R1. ERBB3 and ATM. These novel mutations and CNAs in combination with other re-validated high and lowfrequency alterations in OCCC led us to screen for vulnerabilities towards PI3K/AKT/mTOR inhibitors of the pathway, DNA repair pathway and ERBB family of receptor tyrosine kinases which revealed abundant mTORC1/2 inhibition sensitivity. By specifically sequencing regulatory kinases and kinase components obtained accurate we sequencing results (i.e. high read coverage) and simultaneously increased the possibility to find chemically druggable targets.

SNP array analysis identified 324 significantly amplified genes and 118 significantly deleted genes. During CNAs analysis we focused on significantly amplified and deleted kinases and other cancer related genes included in kinome sequencing. This list consisted of 12 amplified kinases (3.7%) and 5 deleted kinases (4.2%), leaving a large number of copy number altered genes to be further studied. For example, the most significant amplified region 2q14.2 contains the zinc finger transcription factor GLI2 and is amplified in 40 OCCC tumors (37%). GLI2 is described to act as an oncogenic transcription factor activated downstream of sonic hedgehog

signaling and the TGF- β and SMAD family and could be a prominent target in OCCC (20). Besides, GLI2 can be activated non-canonically via the PI3K/ AKT/mTOR pathway (21). It is promising that the GLI2 targeting agent GANT61 recently demonstrated in vitro and in vivo efficacy in colorectal cancer (22).

Our data set can be expanded by whole-genome sequencing that is becoming an affordable method and equally robust to targeted sequencing. This may reveal additional OCCC mutations and signatures of nucleotide substitutions in OCCC (23). In contrast to targeted sequencing, whole-genome seauencina can uncover tumor mutational load and thereby predict the frequency of neoepitopes and putative responsiveness of OCCC towards immune checkpoint therapy (24). If sufficient tumor tissue is available. analysis of mRNA expression and the proteome will add valuable information sequencing and copy number to analysis of the OCCC genome-wide. The downstream effects of copy number gains or losses and specific mutations will be uncovered by mRNA expression. Furthermore, a phosphorylation specific phase protein array reverse may point out kinases that are truly overactivated in OCCC and will allow a more powerful prediction of which genetically deregulated kinases are significant targets in OCCC.

We aimed to effectively target OCCC by low-dose inhibitor combinations, as described in chapter 5. In this respect, three inhibitors targeting PI3K/AKT/ mTOR pathway nodes (the mTORC1/2 inhibitor AZD8055 and PI3K inhibitor GDC0941 and) and a MAPK pathway node (the MEK1/2 inhibitor selumetinib) were selected to find combinations that effectively repress proliferation in OCCC cells irrespective of mutation status. The mTORC1/2, PI3K and MEK1/2 inhibitors were selected because mutations and CNAs in *PIK3CA*, *PIK3R1*, *AKT*, *KRAS*,

NRAS and BRAF were ubiquitously found in OCCC. Both pathways promote mTORC1/2 activation and can crossactivate each other, which provided a rational to find synergistic effects of combined suboptimal inhibition of these signaling pathway nodes (25). An alternative and unbiased strategy would be to screen inhibitor libraries in combination with AZD8055. the compound with high efficacy in all OCCC cell lines. Such a 'chemical synthetic lethality' screen could identify unanticipated synergistic effects of inhibitor combinations with AZD8055 and reveal druggable pathway interactions in OCCC. Small molecule inhibitor libraries have been successfully used on cancer cell lines, but are expensive and require careful titration and robotic plate handling (26).

In chapter 6 we established and characterized seven OCCC PDX models. Three PDX models (an ARID1A mutant, a PIK3CA mutant and a PIK3CA and ARID1A wild-type PDX), that reflect the most frequent mutations in OCCC, were used for preclinical drug testing along chapters 3, 4 and 5. Still, expansion of our PDX panel will be crucial to obtain a better coverage of the broad spectrum of mutations and CNAs in OCCC. To that end, it will be important to freshly implant OCCC patient tumors given that fresh implantation provides higher take rates compared to implantation from vitrified tumors. Evaluation of treatment efficacy in OCCC PDX models is time consuming and costly and should therefore be considered as a final step in preclinical testing. OCCC primary cultures and organoids could bridge the gap between cell line based analysis and in vivo analysis in OCCC PDX models. Compared to cancer cell lines, tumor primary cultures and organoids are thought to more closely resemble the patient tumor and they can faster be implemented in drug screens compared to PDXs (27, 28). High-grade

serous ovarian carcinoma (HGSOC) organoids have been established from primary cultures (29). However, organoids of OCCC are unfortunately lacking and OCCC primary cultures have only been described in small numbers. The establishment of OCCC organoids from PDX models of OCCC could be an alternative approach, but will most likely require different growth conditions (growth factors) compared to HGSOC. These differences underscore the importance to invest in research to establish specific protocols for OCCC primary cultures and organoids, besides OCCC PDX models, that can be used for preclinical evaluation of drugs (30, 31).

Challenges to improve mechanistic understanding and treatment of OCCC

ARID1A Mutations in are mutual exclusive with TP53 mutations in OCCC. as shown by us and others (32, 33). The TP53 mutant OCCC tumors were enriched for high FIGO stage, suggesting that mutations in this gene most likely are not early onset alterations in the development of OCCC. Surprisingly, nine of the 13 TP53 mutant tumors did not have additional mutations in the genes we had analyzed (chapter 4, Fig. 3). HGSOC, besides being TP53 mutant, generally has a low percentage of mutations. Even though the morphology of these TP53 mutant-ARID1A wild-type OCCC tumors was not associated with HGSOC, it can be of interest to investigate if these nine tumors are a subclass of OCCC that approximates HGSOC. Alternatively, the high percentage of TP53 wild-type tumors (80-95%) provides an opportunity to re-activate p53 protein in TP53 wildtype OCCC, ultimately resulting in p53mediated apoptosis. An extensively studied approach to induce p53 activity is by preventing the interaction of MDM2 with p53, thereby preventing proteasomal degradation of p53 via MDM2 (34). Inhibitors of the MDM2-p53

interaction, such as nutlin-3a and more recently idasanutlin (RG7388), showed synergistic activity in combination with cisplatin in TP53 wild-type ovarian cancer cell lines (OCCC was not included) (35. 36). Nutlin-3a upregulated p53 levels in OCCC but the combination with cisplatin remains to be tested (37). In a study by Bitler et. al. p53-mediated apoptosis (through p53-lysine120 acetylation) was specifically induced in ARID1A mutant OCCC cells after treatment with the HDAC6 inhibitor ACY1215, as discussed in chapter 2 (30). Future research in OCCC may focus on combining ACY1215 with cisplatin to activate p53 and on combinations of ACY1215 with inhibitors of the MDM2-p53 interaction. Additionally, targeting of other DNA repair genes is of interest in light of our data as presented in chapter 4, in which we described mutations and CNAs in DNA repair proteins in 82% of OCCC tumors. Although DNA repair alterations (including BRCA1 mutations) were also prominent in OCCC cell lines. low efficacy of the PARP1/2 inhibitor olaparib was observed in these cell lines (n=17). Another study identified efficacy of the PARP trapping agent talazoparib in OCCC cell lines (38). Here, OCCC cell lines with a low IC₅₀ for talazoparib more often lacked homologous recombination (HR) capacity, suggesting a rationale to treat HR deficient OCCC with PARP trapping inhibitors. The frequency of HR deficiency in OCCC, however, is low compared to HGSOC, indicating that only a small subset of OCCC patients may benefit from PARP inhibition (39). The broad spectrum of mutations in the DNA repair pathway in OCCC suggests that other DNA repair proteins (e.g. ATM or ATR) or regulators of the cell cycle (e.g. CHECK1/2 or WEE1 for TP53 mutant OCCC) are putative targets to respectively abolish DNA repair or force detrimental mitosis in the presence of DNA damage.

The pervasive overexpression

of $HNF1\beta$, a transcription factor that promotes glycogen metabolism, aerobic glycolysis and lactate production, is frequently found in OCCC (40, 41). HNF1B overexpressing OCCC cells highly express genes typically involved in the Warburg effect, such as HK1 and LDHA (42). Although the exact mechanisms through which HNF1^β stimulates these processes remain elusive, the therapeutic targeted. Till now. only a limited number of studies have investigated HNF1β as a therapeutic druggability has been evaluated in OCCC. Buthionine sulphoxamine, an inhibitor that acts downstream of HNF1B, re-sensitized ES2 cells to carboplatin (43). Another study found HNF1^β to regulate transcription of the Na⁺/K⁺-ATPase modulating subunit FXYD2. Digoxin and digitoxin, two cardiac glycosides that inhibit Na⁺/K⁺-ATPase activity, had therapeutic efficacy in TOV21G cells in vitro and in vivo (44). Altogether, these studies indirectly support the druggability of HNF1_β. Direct targeting of HNF1β has been described using calcineurin inhibitors but requires evaluation in OCCC models (45).

In chapter 3, we showed that inhibition of the BET bromodomain protein BRD2 is synthetic lethal with ARID1A mutations in OCCC. Other established ARID1A mutant OCCC synthetic lethal targets are the epigenetic regulators EZH2, HDAC2 and HDAC6 and the SRC family protein YES1 that were discussed in chapter 2. Combined targeting of these proteins, known to be synthetic lethal in ARID1A mutant OCCC, can be used to further enhance efficacy. Simultaneous inhibition of these targets at suboptimal dose, in a large panel of OCCC cell lines to resemble the heterogeneous spectrum of mutations in OCCC, similar to the approach described in chapter 5, might be useful to generate synergistic lethality in ARID1A mutant OCCC and concurrently prevent systemic toxicity.

OCCC shares a number of

pathological characteristics and genomic alterations with clear cell renal cell carcinoma (CCRC) and endometrial clear cell carcinoma (ECCC), albeit mutation frequencies vary. TP53 mutations are found at a lower frequency in CCRC (2.2%) and at a higher frequency in ECCC (46%) compared to OCCC (11%) (46, 47). In all three cancer subtypes the majority of tumors have high HNF1B expression (48, 49). ARID1A mutations are less frequently found in CCRC (4.6%) and ECCC (21%) compared to 46% in OCCC (47, 50). Moreover, overlap with OCCC PI3K/AKT/mTOR pathway mutations is found in CCRC (PTEN, 11%) and ECCC (PIK3CA, 36%; FBXW7, 25% and PIK3R1, 18%) (47, 50). The transcription factor GLI2, strongly amplified in OCCC, is also frequently overexpressed in CCRC. High expression levels of GLI2 correlated with worse overall survival in CCRC patients, which may guide studies in OCCC patients (21). Considering these commonalities, future research in OCCC could take advantage from studies performed in CCRC and ECCC.

Improvements in therapy options for OCCC patients

The results presented in chapter 3, 4 and 5 aim towards clinical evaluation of BET bromodomain inhibition, mTORC1/2 inhibition and combined low-dose mTORC1/2, PI3K and MEK1/2 inhibition in OCCC, respectively.

BET bromodomain inhibition is extensively being studied in the clinic. There are 17 compounds in ongoing trials (chapter 2, Table 1) from which iBET-762 (GSK525762) is currently tested in a phase II combination trial with fulvestrant in ER⁺ breast cancer (NCT02964507). BET bromodomain inhibition and the ER degrader fulvestrant acted synergistic in preclinical ER⁺ breast cancer models (51). Intermediate results from a phase I/II trial with iBET-762 in acute myeloid leukemia described two dose limiting toxicities on a total of 46 patients. The authors conclude that iBET-762 treatment related adverse events in AML subjects were manageable and reversible (52). These preliminary clinical data further support the evaluation of BRD2 inhibition by iBET-762 in *ARID1A* mutant OCCC patients in a future phase II trial.

Treatment with the mTORC1/2 AZD8055 **OSI-027** inhibitors and provided anti-tumor efficacy only above maximum tolerated dose, resulting in discontinuation of these two drugs in patients (53, 54). Phase II evaluation of MLN0128 (sapanisertib), a novel mTORC1/2 inhibitor, is ongoing in CCRC endometrial and cancer (NCT02724020 and NCT02725268). Efficacy determination of MLN0128 alone remains to be performed in OCCC patients. Interestingly, a new phase II trial combining MLN0128 with standard of care paclitaxel is scheduled in epithelial ovarian cancer, including all subtypes (NCT03648489). Probably, some OCCC patients will be included, which may demonstrate the added value of MLN0128 combined with paclitaxel in this ovarian cancer subtype.

Α low-dose combination of mTORC1/2, PI3K and MEK1/2 inhibitors could be assessed with MLN0128 and new generation PI3K and MEK1/2 inhibitors. No clinical trials have been performed combining three kinase inhibitors. Accordingly, a careful doseescalation of mTORC1/2, PI3K and MEK1/2 inhibitors in OCCC patients will be crucial to find maximum efficacy of this strategy while minimizing systemic toxicity.

The molecular distinction between OCCC and other ovarian cancer subtypes and the genetic heterogeneity between OCCC patients, as demonstrated in this thesis, indicate that future targeted therapy clinical trials in ovarian cancer should be subtype specific. Given the infrequency of OCCC multicenter (international) trials will be necessary to obtain adequate numbers of patients in OCCC directed clinical trials. Currently ongoing multicenter trials that focus on OCCC are directed against the immune modulatory receptors TIM1 (NCT02837991), PD-1 (NCT03355976) and CTLA4 and PD-L1 combined with chemotherapy (NCT03405454). For clinical evaluation of BRD2 inhibition in ARID1A mutant OCCC, a basket trial can be performed in order to reach sufficient patient numbers. In this approach ARID1A mutant OCCC would be included together with *ARID1A* mutant tumors from a different origin (for example *ARID1A* mutant CCRC and ECCC). However, the effectiveness of targeting BRD2 in CCRC and ECCC first needs to be proven preclinically.

CONCLUSION

In this thesis, new therapeutic targets in OCCC have been identified and a lowdose treatment strategy was preclinically tested in unique OCCC models. These results may advance the treatment of OCCC.

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