

RAS-GAP activity [13]. Oncogenic point mutations impair the intrinsic GTPase activity of RAS and confer resistance to GAPs, thereby causing RAS to accumulate in its active GTP-bound state, which sustains the activation of RAS signaling [14]. GTP-bound active RAS binds to more than 20 effector proteins and stimulates downstream signaling cascades (Fig. 1a, b).

To acquire their biological and transforming activities, RAS proteins must be bound to the inner surface of the plasma membrane by appropriate posttranslational modification [15–17]. Briefly, farnesyltransferase (FTase) catalyzes the reaction that adds a farnesyl isoprenoid lipid to the C-terminal CAAX (where C is cysteine, A is an aliphatic amino acid, and X is any amino acid) motif of RAS, which induces the association between RAS and the intracellular membrane via the farnesyl group. After several other processing steps, one or two palmitic acids are finally added to HRAS, NRAS, or KRAS-4A by palmitoyltransferase just upstream of the CAAX motif [18]. By contrast, the C-terminal electropositive Lys residues in KRAS-4B are sufficient to anchor it in the membrane without being modified by palmitic acid. KRAS-4A and -4B are two splice variants of KRAS protein that are produced by alternative splicing at the C-terminal region of KRAS. The transforming effect of mutant KRAS during lung carcinogenesis *in vivo* is thought to be mediated primarily through Kras-4A because transgenic mice that express only Kras-4B are highly resistant to urethane- or *N*-methyl-*N*-nitrosourea-induced lung tumor formation [19, 20].

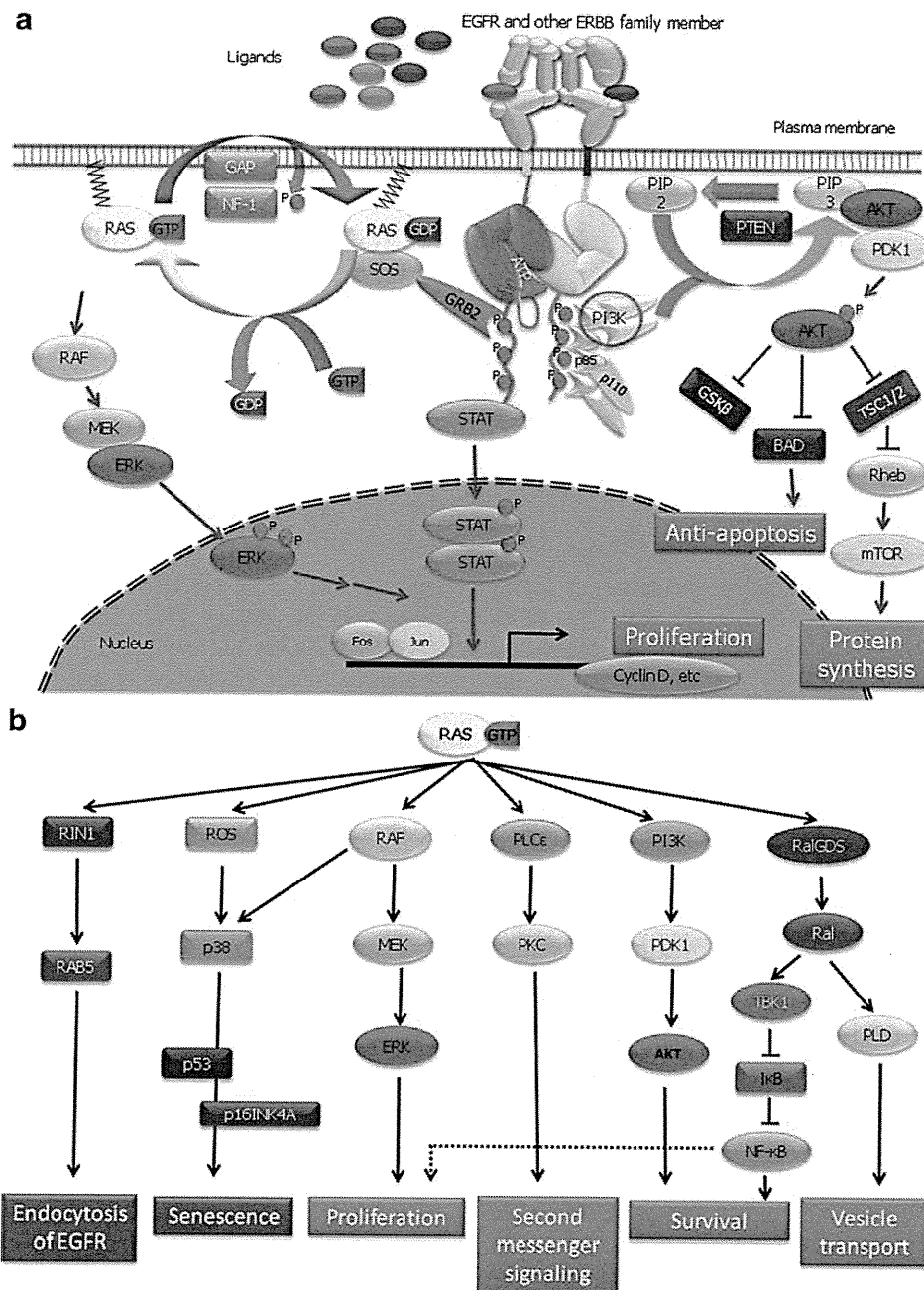
Although mutated *RAS* transforms immortalized cell lines such as NIH3T3, it cannot transform primary rat embryo fibroblasts. However, in cooperation with so-called “immortalizing genes”, such as *MYC*, *simian virus 40 large T*, or *adenovirus E1A* oncogene, mutated *RAS* can transform cells in primary culture [21–23]. This observation is relevant to the finding that oncogenic RAS has been shown to cause senescence or cell-cycle arrest in primary cells through activation of the TP53 and/or p16INK4A-RB tumor-suppressor pathways [24]. It is thought that p16 is the key factor in determining whether cells become senescent or are transformed in response to RAS activation [25]. The RAS-induced RAF-mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) pathway might also feed into the TP53 pathway by activating the p38 MAPK pathway. RAS activation may also cause p38 activation by increasing the reactive oxygen species level [26] (Fig. 1b). However, *in vivo* expression of oncogenic Kras at levels comparable to those of its endogenous counterparts causes cellular transformation [27], developing multiple lung adenomas (pre-malignant tumors) and a few lung adenocarcinomas. One solution of this discrepancy is that moderate activation of Ras, such as that mimicked in the endogenous Kras mouse models, does not cause an acute p16 response,

Fig. 1 EGFR- and KRAS-signaling pathways. **a** Binding of specific ligands to the extracellular domain of the EGFR leads to formation of a dimer with another EGFR or another ERBB family member. Dimerization consequently stimulates intrinsic tyrosine kinase activity of the receptors and triggers autophosphorylation of specific tyrosine residues within the cytoplasmic regulatory domain. These phosphorylated tyrosines serve as specific binding sites for several adaptor proteins such as GRB2 and p85 (catalytic subunit of PI3K). Several signal transducers then bind to these adaptors to initiate multiple signaling pathways. The GRB2/SOS complex, brought into the vicinity of the plasma membrane, catalyzes guanine nucleotide exchange of membrane-binding RAS, and GTP-bound RAS activates its downstream signaling cascades presented by the RAS–RAF–MAPK/ERK kinase (MEK)–extracellular signal-regulated kinase (ERK) pathway. Activated ERK is recruited into the nucleus and, finally, a Fos–Jun dimer that makes up the AP1 transcription factor is activated to simulate gene transcription-related cell proliferation such as expression of Cyclin D. The other important downstream pathways are the PI3K–AKT, STAT3, and STAT5 pathways, which mainly confer antiapoptotic effects. **b** RAS-GTP binds to more than 20 effector proteins and stimulates downstream signaling cascades. In addition to the RAF–MEK–ERK pathway, the PI3K–AKT pathway is activated by RAS through the direct interaction of the PI3K catalytic subunit with RAS. Then, 3-phosphoinositide-dependent protein kinase-1 (PDK1) and AKT are activated to transmit antiapoptotic signals. Other effectors include Ral guanine nucleotide-dissociation stimulator (RALGDS) and phospholipase C ϵ (for review see [75, 96–98]). By contrast, the RAS downstream pathways also include effectors with reported tumor-suppressor activities. We have mentioned the senescence and cell-cycle arrest effects of RAS in the text. Another RAS effector protein RIN1 is reported to trigger endocytosis of growth factor receptors, such as the EGFR, thereby inhibiting RAS signaling (**b**). This figure is based on modifications of figures from Schubert et al. [99], Downward et al. [100], and Karnoub et al. [25]

contrasting with high level Ras ectopic expression in cultured cells, allowing Ras-induced transformation [25]. On the other hand, Collado et al. reported the existence of senescence cells in premalignant tumors but not in malignant ones of Kras transgenic mouse models, suggesting that substantial number of cells in pre-malignant tumors undergo oncogene-induced senescence, but that cells in malignant tumors are unable to do this owing to the loss of oncogene-induced senescence effectors such as p16INK4A or TP53 [28].

3 RAS gene activation in lung cancer

Frequent somatic mutation of the *KRAS* gene in lung cancer was first identified in 1984 [29]. Mutation of the *RAS* gene usually occurs in adenocarcinoma [30], rarely in squamous cell carcinoma, and never in small cell lung cancer [31]. *KRAS* mutation in lung cancer usually occurs at codon 12, occasionally at codon 13 and rarely at codon 61 [30]. Rare instances of *HRAS* or *NRAS* mutations have been reported in lung cancers [31]. *KRAS* mutations occur predominantly in Caucasian patients rather than in East Asians; the incidence of *KRAS* mutation is ~30% in Caucasian patients

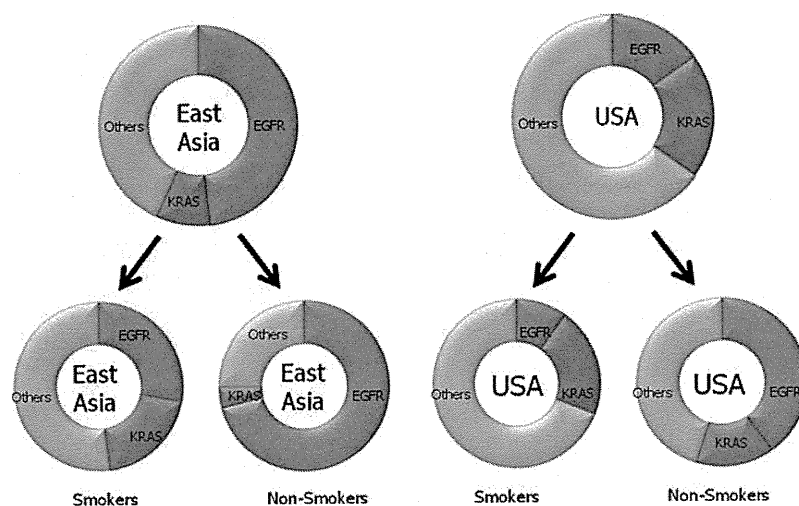


and ~10% in East Asian patients with adenocarcinoma [32, 33] (Fig. 2).

Although adenocarcinoma of the lung is thought to be associated less with smoking than is squamous or small cell carcinoma of the lung, a possible association between *KRAS* mutations and smoking exposure was reported in 1991 [34]. We categorized Japanese patients according to the amount of smoke exposure (0, <20, 20–50, and >50 pack-years (PY)) and found that the incidence

of *KRAS* mutations increased as smoke exposure increased (6%, 5%, 18%, and 18%, respectively) [35]. This trend was similar to that for *TP53* mutations (29%, 40%, 65%, and 66%, respectively) [35]. Recent large-scale analysis of somatic mutations in lung adenocarcinoma also confirmed the association between *KRAS* mutations and smoking status [36]. By contrast, three studies restricted to Caucasian populations failed to show a significant association between smoking status and *KRAS* mutation,

Fig. 2 Incidence of *EGFR* or *KRAS* mutations according to ethnicity and smoking status. Data on ethnicity are from Shigematsu et al. [33]. Data on smoking in Asia are from Kosaka et al. [35] and Tam et al. [101], and those on smoking in the USA are based on Rudin et al. [102]



although a trend toward a higher incidence of *KRAS* mutations was observed in smokers [37–39]. The *KRAS* mutation at codon 12 in lung cancer is characterized by the frequent G-to-T transversions, in contrast to the frequent G-to-A transitions found in colorectal cancer [40]. These transversion mutations of the *KRAS* gene are associated strongly with smoking status even when restricted to Caucasian populations, whereas the transition mutations occur in both former or current and never smokers [39].

Mutant allele specific imbalance (MASI) is a genetic aberration observed often in tumors harboring mutations in proto-oncogenes. The *KRAS* chromosomal locus at 12p12.1 or the *epidermal growth factor receptor* (*EGFR*) locus at 7p11.2 have both been identified as frequent regions of gene amplification in lung cancer by two independent genome-wide studies [41, 42]. Soh et al. reported recently that MASI is frequently (58%) observed in lung cancer with *KRAS* mutation [43]. Of interest, MASI in *KRAS* occurs mainly because of uniparental disomy resulting from the complete loss of the wild-type allele without copy number gain (CNG), whereas MASI in *EGFR* occurs mainly because of CNG [43]. These differences in MASI mechanisms may be relevant to the observation that the wild-type RAS acts like a tumor suppressor in some models [44–46]. *KRAS* mutations or MASI are significantly associated with increased GTP-bound active RAS protein [43].

In terms of histological types, *KRAS* mutations are associated more with mucinous bronchioloalveolar cell carcinoma (BAC) or lung cancer with goblet cell morphology than with non-mucinous BAC [47–50]. For example, Marchetti et al. found *KRAS* mutations in ten of ten mucinous BACs, but in only 34 of 98 non-mucinous adenocarcinomas [49]. Yatabe et al. demonstrated further that a subset of lung adenocarcinomas frequently shows

expression of CK20 and CDX2, *KRAS* mutations, and/or goblet cell morphology [50]. These phenotypes are observed commonly in colorectal, pancreatobiliary, and ovarian mucinous carcinomas, suggesting that adenocarcinomas with these features represent one prototype that is independent of the organ of origin [50].

4 Discovery of the *EGFR* mutation in lung cancer

In 2004, activating mutations of the *EGFR* gene were found in a subset of non-small cell lung cancers (NSCLCs), and tumors harboring *EGFR* mutations were shown to be highly sensitive to EGFR tyrosine kinase inhibitors (TKIs) [51–53]. *EGFR* mutations are present mainly in the first four exons of the tyrosine kinase domain of the *EGFR* gene. About 90% of *EGFR* mutations are either small deletions encompassing five amino acids from codons 746 through 750 (ELREA) or missense mutations resulting in leucine-to-arginine substitution at codon 858 (L858R) [54]. There are >20 variant types of deletion: larger deletion, deletion plus point mutation, deletion plus insertion, etc. About 3% of *EGFR* mutations occur at codon 719 and cause substitution of glycine to cysteine, alanine, or serine (G719X) [54]. In addition, about 3% are in-frame insertion mutations in exon 20. It is unusual for more than one type of the common forms of mutation to be present in an individual carcinoma, although there are many examples of rare point mutations, some of which occur with L858R mutation.

EGFR mutations are found predominantly in female, non-smoking patients of East Asian origin with adenocarcinoma. Data on 2,880 patients compiled from the literature show that the presence of *EGFR* mutations is highly dependent on ethnicity (East Asians, 32% compared with

Caucasians, 7%), sex (male, 10% compared with female, 38%), smoking history (never smoked, 47% compared with ever smoked, 7%), and histological type (adenocarcinoma, 30% compared with other types of lung cancer, 2%) [54]. A recent report also showed that African Americans are significantly less likely to harbor *EGFR* mutations (2%), whereas the frequency of *KRAS* mutations (23%) does not differ from that in Caucasians [55].

Although *EGFR* and *KRAS* are both proto-oncogenes associated with lung adenocarcinoma, lung cancer harboring *EGFR* mutations and those harboring *KRAS* mutations differ markedly (Table 1 and Fig. 2). Our group and others have reported that the occurrence of *EGFR* and *KRAS* mutations is strictly mutually exclusive [33, 35]. This finding may be relevant to the fact that the *KRAS*–MAPK pathway is an important downstream signaling pathway of *EGFR*.

It is of particular interest that *EGFR* mutations are the first molecular aberrations found predominantly in lung cancers in never-smoking patients than those in smoking patients. In contrast to *KRAS* mutations, *EGFR* mutations are frequently inversely associated with cumulative smok-

ing dosage. Our analysis, mentioned earlier, showed that the incidence of *EGFR* mutations decreases as smoking dose increases (68%, 55%, 27%, and 22%, for 0, <20, 20–50, and >50 PY, respectively) [35]. These findings should not be construed to mean that smoking has a preventive effect on *EGFR* mutations; rather, they suggest that *EGFR* mutations are caused by carcinogen(s) other than those contained in tobacco smoke and that the apparent negative correlation with smoking dose results from diluting the number of tumors with *EGFR* mutations with an increasing number of tumors without these mutations as smoking dose increases. This idea is supported by our case-control study [56], in which we enrolled 152 NSCLC patients harboring *EGFR* mutations, 283 NSCLC patients without *EGFR* mutations, and 2,175 age- and sex-matched controls. When cumulative smoking exposure was classified into three groups, the cumulative amount showed a linear increased risk for lung cancer only in patients without *EGFR* mutations (trend $P < 0.001$). The odds ratios (OR) for 1–40 PY and >40 PY were 2.72 (1.79–4.14; $P < 0.001$) and 10.0 (6.33–15.8; $P < 0.001$), respectively [56]. By contrast, the risk did not increase in patients harboring *EGFR*

Table 1 Summary of recent studies comparing gefitinib with chemotherapy in patients according to *EGFR* mutational status

Study	Design	Line	<i>EGFR</i> mutated				<i>EGFR</i> wild-type			
			PFS		OS		PFS		OS	
			G	CTx	G	CTx	G	CTx	G	CTx
Takano (64)	Retrospective	All	–	–	27.2	13.6	–	–	13.2	10.4
	Japanese, observational, no crossover									
I-CAMP ^a (92)	P II	1st	10.7	6.0	27.7	25.7	–	–	–	–
	Nonrandomized, pooled analysis, crossover CTx→G 100%, G→CTx?									
INTEREST ^b (93)	P III	2nd	7.0	4.1	14.2	16.6	1.7	2.6	6.4	6.0
	Global, gefitinib vs. docetaxel, crossover CTx→G 37%, G→CTx 46%									
V15-32 ^b (94)	P III	2nd	~8	~9	–	–	~3	~3	–	–
	Japanese, gefitinib vs. docetaxel, crossover CTx→G 53%, G→CTx 60%									
IPASS (66)	P III	1st	9.5	6.3	~20	~20	~1.5	~5.5	~13	~13
	Asians, gefitinib vs. carboplatin-paclitaxel, crossover CTx→G 39%, G→CTx 49%									
NEJ002 (67)	P III	1st	10.4	5.5	28.0	23.6				
	Japanese, gefitinib vs. carboplatin-paclitaxel, patients selected by activating mutation of <i>EGFR</i> , crossover CTx→G 94%, G→CTx 73%									
WJTOG3405 (68)	P III	1st	9.2	6.3	N/A	N/A				
	Japanese, gefitinib vs. cisplatin-docetaxel, activating mutation of <i>EGFR</i>									

G Gefitinib, CTx chemotherapy, P II phase II, P III phase III.

^aI-CAMP is the pooled analyses from seven Japanese phase II studies that prospectively evaluated the efficacy of gefitinib for patients with *EGFR* mutations. Gefitinib was administered to 87 patients as the first-line therapy and to 61 patients as the second-line or later therapy [92].

^bThe INTEREST and V15-32 studies are comparative studies of gefitinib versus docetaxel as second-line or later treatment for advanced or recurrent non-small cell lung cancer. The non-inferiority of gefitinib was not demonstrated in the V15-32 study conducted in Japan [93], but was demonstrated in the INTEREST study conducted overseas [94]. The subset analysis of the INTEREST study showed that *EGFR* mutation-positive patients had longer PFS with gefitinib than with chemotherapy, but no difference in OS was observed [94]. By contrast, in the V15-32 study, patients with *EGFR* mutations had a favorable prognosis overall, but no differences were demonstrated between docetaxel and gefitinib [93]. Interpretation of these analyses is difficult because only a portion of the patients were analyzed retrospectively.

mutations (OR, 0.68 (0.42–1.12, $P=0.134$) for 1–40 PY; OR, 0.79 (0.42–1.46, $P=0.45$) for > 40 PY) [56].

5 Clinical significance of *KRAS* and *EGFR* mutations in lung cancer

5.1 Prognostic implications

In 1990, Slebos et al. reported that the presence of a *KRAS* mutation is a significant poor prognostic marker in patients with adenocarcinoma of the lung who underwent potential curative surgery [57]. Masciaux et al. performed a meta-analysis of 53 published studies that assessed the prognostic value of mutations in the *KRAS* gene. They identified *KRAS* mutations as a negative prognostic factor with a hazard ratio for death of 1.50 (95% confidence interval (CI), 1.26–1.80) in lung adenocarcinoma [58]. In our recent analysis, *KRAS* mutations were associated with poor prognosis, whereas *EGFR* mutations were associated with good prognosis by univariate analysis. However, multivariate analysis revealed that smoking status and stage were significant predictors, whereas none of the mutations, *EGFR*, *KRAS*, or *TP53*, was an independent prognostic factor [59].

On the other hand, Soh et al. found that gene dosage is associated with prognostic impact [43]. In the paper mentioned earlier, *KRAS* mutations ($P=0.2$) or CNG ($P=0.1$) alone showed a non-significant trend for poor prognosis. However, of 237 lung adenocarcinoma patients, six patients who harbored both a *KRAS* mutation and CNG had significantly shortened survival ($P=0.04$) [43].

5.2 Predictive implications

Small molecules with an anilino-quinazoline structure that specifically inhibit the tyrosine kinase activity of the EGFR, such as gefitinib and erlotinib, are the first molecular targeted drugs for lung cancer. It became evident that non-smoking Asian women with adenocarcinoma are highly likely to respond to EGFR-TKIs during early clinical development of the drugs [60, 61]. In 2004, somatic mutations of the *EGFR* gene were found in a subset of patients with lung cancer predominantly with the above-mentioned clinical backgrounds; it was also found that tumors with *EGFR* mutations are highly sensitive to EGFR-TKIs [51–53], providing a molecular basis for the earlier clinical observations. Activating mutations of the *EGFR* gene increase and sustain the phosphorylation of EGFR and other human EGF receptor (HER) family proteins without ligand stimulation [62]. Mutant EGFR selectively activates the AKT- and signal-transducer and activator of transcription protein (STAT)-signaling pathways, which promote

cell survival [62]. These cells become highly dependent on these aberrant signals, and when the oncogenic activated protein is inhibited by short hairpin RNA (shRNA) or EGFR-TKIs, they undergo extensive apoptosis [62].

About 70–80% of patients harboring *EGFR* mutations respond to EGFR-TKIs, whereas 10% of patients without *EGFR* mutations do so [54]. Patients with *EGFR* mutations have a significantly longer survival than those without *EGFR* mutations when treated with EGFR-TKIs [63, 64]. However, the clinical significance of *EGFR* mutation as a predictor of survival in patients treated with EGFR-TKIs was initially controversial. Some investigators claimed that *EGFR* mutations are not predictive of better survival upon EGFR-TKI treatment but are prognostic only (i.e. *EGFR* mutation defines a subset of patients with good prognosis irrespective of the treatment) [65]. Instead, it was thought that the *EGFR* gene copy number is more important [65]. This controversy continued until the molecular subset analysis of the IPASS study was reported [66].

IPASS is a phase III trial that compared gefitinib with standard chemotherapy as a first-line treatment for Asian patients with lung adenocarcinoma and with no smoking history or only light use [66]. The progression-free survival (PFS) was significantly better in patients in the gefitinib group, although the PFS curves crossed at six months (chemotherapy was better initially but later the gefitinib therapy was better), suggesting the presence of two or more qualitatively different subgroups. Molecular subset analysis showed that the benefit was limited to the patients with *EGFR* mutations and that gefitinib therapy was even detrimental in those without mutations [66]. Two recent Japanese phase III trials (NEJ002 and WJTOG3405) that compared gefitinib with platinum-doublet chemotherapy for patients selected according to the presence of *EGFR* mutations confirmed the predictive impact of these mutations in patients treated with EGFR-TKIs [67, 68].

However, the overall survival in the gefitinib group and in the chemotherapy group did not differ significantly in the IPASS trial or in NEJ002, although the final analyses have not been reported yet. This lack of effect is probably related to a high rate of crossover of the treatment; i.e. a considerable fraction of patients in the chemotherapy arm had been given gefitinib after disease progression and vice versa. Takano et al. classified lung cancer patients into those treated from 1999 to 2001, which was before approval of gefitinib in Japan, and those treated from 2002 to 2004. Gefitinib was administered to only 15% of the former group, but to 91% of the latter group. When the prognosis was examined according to the presence or absence of *EGFR* mutations, the median survival time was 27.2 months in the 2002–2004 cohort with *EGFR* mutations but only about 1 year in the other three groups [64]. Although this is not a randomized trial, it indicates

clearly that gefitinib treatment doubled the survival of lung cancer patients harboring *EGFR* mutations. Table 1 summarizes the recent clinical studies that compared gefitinib with standard chemotherapy in patients with lung cancer according to *EGFR* mutational status.

In addition, for patients treated with carboplatin/paclitaxel chemotherapy in the IPASS trial, the response rate was higher (47.3% vs. 23.5%) and PFS was longer (6.3 vs. 5.5 months) in patients with *EGFR* mutations than in those without *EGFR* mutations. This result suggests that *EGFR* mutations may also be predictive for the response to cytotoxic chemotherapy [66].

By contrast, lung cancers harboring *KRAS* mutations are resistant to EGFR-TKIs. The response rate for patients with *KRAS* mutations to EGFR-TKIs is virtually zero [69]. A recent meta-analysis of data on 165 patients with *KRAS* mutations from 17 studies confirmed that the presence of *KRAS* mutations is significantly associated with an absence of response to TKIs [70]. In the analysis, the pooled estimate of the specificity (number of *KRAS* wild-type patients / number of patients with objective response by RECIST) was 0.94 (95% CI, 0.89–0.97). However, because an *EGFR* mutation is a strong predictor of the response to EGFR-TKI therapy and because *EGFR* mutations and *KRAS* mutations have a mutual exclusionary relationship, it is not clear whether the response to EGFR-TKIs differs between tumors harboring *KRAS* mutations and those harboring neither *KRAS* nor *EGFR* mutations. In an analysis of 223 patients from five studies who were treated with EGFR-TKIs as a first-line therapy, Jackman et al. found no impact of *KRAS* mutations on the overall survival in patients without *EGFR* mutations [71]. The presence of a *KRAS* mutation in a given tumor may merely indicate that the tumor does not have an *EGFR* mutation. In addition, the role of *KRAS* mutations as a negative predictor of the response of lung cancer to treatment with anti-EGFR antibody, cetuximab, is not clear [72, 73], in contrast to the established role of anti-EGFR antibody in the treatment of colorectal cancer [74].

6 Novel strategies to circumvent *KRAS*-mutated tumors

Because *RAS* genes are the most frequently mutated oncogenes in various types of human cancers, researchers and clinicians are interested in developing efficient treatment strategies for tumors harboring mutant *RAS*. The first strategy was to inhibit farnesylation of RAS, which is essential for membrane localization and thus for RAS function. Some of these farnesyltransferase inhibitors (FTIs) are active *in vitro* or in animal models; however, all clinical trials failed mainly because alternative geranylgeranylation of the *KRAS* protein occurs, which can also support the biological activity of *KRAS* [75]. The concur-

rent inhibition of farnesyltransferase and geranylgeranyltransferase was too toxic [75].

Cancer cells usually contain multiple genetic and epigenetic abnormalities. For example, about 40% of adenocarcinomas harboring an *EGFR* mutation also have a *TP53* mutation [35]. Despite this complexity, their growth and survival can often be impaired by the inactivation of a single oncogene, the phenomenon known as “oncogene addiction” [76]. A typical example is the effect of EGFR-TKIs, as described above. However, not all cancers with *RAS* mutations are addicted to mutant RAS. Upon treatment of shRNAs to deplete *KRAS* in lung cancer cell lines harboring *KRAS* mutations, half of the cell lines maintained viability without expressing *KRAS*, whereas the cell density of the other half was reduced to one-fourth at most [77]. Even this sole observation illustrates the difficulties of RAS-targeted therapy. Comparing *KRAS*-independent and *KRAS*-dependent cancer cells reveals that *KRAS*-dependency is correlated with *KRAS* CNG and *KRAS* protein overexpression [77]. In addition, a gene-expression signature reveals that well-differentiated epithelial phenotype is also correlated with *KRAS*-dependency [77], showing that epithelial–mesenchymal transition (EMT) is associated with RAS independence. In this respect, it is noteworthy that RAS and transforming growth factor (TGF) β -Smad signaling cooperate selectively in the induction of Snail, a transcription factor that represses the expression of E-cadherin and induces EMT when overexpressed [78].

Because inhibition of *KRAS* by itself was insufficient to kill cancer cells with a *KRAS* mutation in the experiments mentioned above, one alternative approach might be to use the combined inhibition of two main downstream pathways of the RAS-RAF-MAPK/ERK kinase (MEK)-extracellular signal-regulated kinase (ERK) pathway and the phosphatidylinositol 3 kinase (PI3K)-AKT pathway. When an artificial mutation was introduced to the RAS-binding domain of the *PIK3CA* gene, tumor formation was inhibited in a *Kras* 12D mouse model [79], showing the importance of PI3K in the RAS-signaling pathway. Another study also showed that the PI3K inhibitor, PX866, blocks both the development of new *Kras* G12D-induced tumors and the growth of *Kras* G12D-driven AAHs and early adenomas [80]. However, NVP-BEZ235, a potent dual pan-PI3K–mammalian target of rapamycin (mTOR) inhibitor, could not shrink established *Kras* G12D-driven tumors, suggesting that suppression of PI3K signaling is insufficient [81]. Although treatment of *Kras* G12D mice with the MEK inhibitor, ARRY-142886, alone led to only modest tumor regression, the combination of MEK and PI3K inhibitors led to marked synergistic tumor regression, and pathological analysis at the completion of treatment revealed only scant remnants of tumor nodules [81]. A recent cell line-based study revealed that *KRAS* gene-mutant cancers

exhibit variable responses to MEK inhibition and that PI3K pathway activation strongly influences the sensitivity of *KRAS* gene-mutant cells to MEK inhibitors. Activating mutations in the *PIK3CA* gene reduces the sensitivity to MEK inhibition, whereas *PTEN* mutations cause complete resistance [82]. In this study, the dual inhibition of the PI3K and MEK pathways was required for complete inhibition of the downstream mTOR and induction of cell death [82].

The second approach is the systematic prediction of drug activity using a genomically validated large cohort of cell lines [83]. In that study, 84 genomically validated cell lines were treated with erlotinib and with 11 other inhibitors that were under either clinical or preclinical evaluation [83], and they found that *KRAS* mutations conferred enhanced heat shock protein (HSP) 90 dependency. This finding was validated in mice with *Kras*-driven lung adenocarcinoma, showing these mice exhibited dramatic tumor regression when treated with an HSP90 inhibitor, 17-(dimethylamino-ethylamino)-17-demethoxygeldanamycin (17-DMAG).

The most recent approach is to identify synthetic lethal interactions in cancer cells harboring *KRAS* mutations using genome-wide RNA interference screening. In other words, this approach investigates which genes that, when silenced, kill cells harboring mutant *RAS* genes but not cells without this mutation. Using this approach, Scholl et al. identified serine threonine kinase, STK33 [84]. On the other hand, Luo et al. identified a diverse set of proteins whose depletion selectively impaired the viability of *RAS* mutant cells. In particular, they observed a strong enrichment of genes with mitotic functions including a mitotic kinase, polo-like kinase 1 [85]. More recently, Barbie et al. showed

that TBK1, an upstream regulator of the nuclear factor- κ B (NF- κ B) pathway, was most effective in selectively killing *RAS* gene mutant cells [86]. TBK1 activates NF- κ B by inhibiting I κ B, an inhibitor of NF- κ B. TBK1 also plays an important role downstream of RAS (Fig. 1b) [87]. In addition, inhibition of NF- κ B by treatment with a non-phosphorylatable, dominant-negative form of I κ B (I κ B-DR) markedly decreased both the number and the size of lung tumors induced by concomitant loss of *TP53* and expression of oncogenic *Kras* (G12D) [88]. These findings provide support for the development of novel strategies to explore targeted therapies for the treatment of patients with mutated *RAS* gene.

7 Conclusion

We have described the clinical and biological significance of *KRAS* and *EGFR* mutations in lung cancer. The two mutant proto-oncogenes contrast sharply in terms of their epidemiological, pathological, biological, and clinical aspects in lung cancer (Table 2). Although *EGFR* mutation testing almost becomes a must for selecting patients who would most benefit from treatment with EGFR-TKIs, the role of *KRAS* mutations and their clinical applications are unclear. Specific treatment strategies that target activated *KRAS* are awaited eagerly. In addition to *KRAS* and *EGFR*, recent evidence suggests that some adenocarcinomas of the lung are dependent on or addicted to the HER2 [89] or anaplastic lymphoma kinase pathway [90, 91] although the incidence is low.

Table 2 Comparison of *KRAS* with *EGFR* mutations in human lung cancer

	<i>KRAS</i>	<i>EGFR</i>
Discovery of mutation	1982	2004
Biochemical function	Small GTP-binding protein	Receptor tyrosine kinase
Common mutation	Missense mutation at codons 12, 13 or 61	Exon 19 deletion, missense mutation at codon 858 (L858R) in tyrosine kinase domain
Allele-specific imbalance	Present (uniparental disomy common)	Present (copy number gain common)
Mutation in tumors other than lung cancer	Common (pancreas, colon, bile duct, etc.)	Absent ^a
Smoking status	Smokers	Non-smokers
Ethnicity	Caucasians>East Asians	East Asians>Caucasians
Sex	Male>female	Female>male
Histology	Adenocarcinoma (mucinous BAC ^b)	Adenocarcinoma (non-mucinous BAC ^b)
Prognostic impact	Poorer	Better
Response rate for EGFR-TKI therapy	0%	70–80%

^a Mutations in the extracellular domain are reported in glioblastomas [95]

^b Peripheral arising adenocarcinomas with partial or complete bronchiolealveolar growth component

We have treated NSCLC as one disease, although it is actually an aggregate of many genetically different diseases. Development of translational science involving close cooperation among clinicians, researchers, and pharmaceutical companies should make it possible to personalize lung cancer treatment, to turn this fatal disease into a chronic disorder and, eventually, to cure it.

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Analysis of *ERBB4* Mutations and Expression in Japanese Patients with Lung Cancer

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Abstract: Only the kinase domain of *ERBB4* has been analyzed in East Asian populations, but a recent large-scale mutation analysis has indicated a higher incidence of mutations in the extracellular domain. Mutations in the extracellular and kinase domains of *ERBB4* were examined by direct sequencing in 72 patients with primary lung cancer and 8 cell lines. In addition, *ERBB4* expression was determined in 60 patients by quantitative real-time polymerase chain reaction. We investigated the relationship between *ERBB4* expression and clinicopathologic characteristics including prognosis. One patient possessed Q793Q polymorphism in the kinase domain. However, we detected no mutations in extracellular or kinase domains of *ERBB4*. There was no significant difference in the clinicopathologic characteristics including prognosis of patients with high or low expression of *ERBB4*. The clinical significance of *ERBB4* in lung cancers is negligible.

Key Words: *ERBB4* mutation, Extracellular domain, Lung cancer, Expression, Prognosis.

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The ERBB family of tyrosine kinase receptors consists of four members: epidermal growth factor receptor (*EGFR*), *ERBB2*, *ERBB3*, and *ERBB4*.¹ According to the NCBI database, the sequences of the kinase domains of *EGFR* and *ERBB4* are 79% identical, and *EGFR* and *ERBB4* have common ligands: heparin-binding epidermal growth factor, betacellulin, and epiregulin.¹ *EGFR* mutation has been revealed to play an important role in non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC).

Two mutation analyses of the *ERBB4* kinase domain in East Asian patients with NSCLC have been reported: 5 of 217 (2.3%) in Korean patients² and none of 105 in Japanese patients.³ Conversely, a large-scale mutation analysis in 188 patients with lung adenocarcinoma detected nine *ERBB4* muta-

tions: two in the kinase domain, one in the transmembrane domain, and six in the extracellular domains (Figure 1A).⁴

The extracellular domains of the *ERBB* family are consisted of four distinct protein domains. There are two homologous large (L) domains and two cysteine-rich (CR) domains, which occur in the order L1–CR1–L2–CR2 (Figure 1A).⁵ The L1 and L2 domains form the ligand binding pocket and the CR1 and CR2 domains are deeply involved in receptor dimerization.⁵ Mutations in the *ERBB4* gene are more frequently present in the extracellular domain, especially the CR1 domain, than in the kinase domain.⁴ However, only the kinase domain has been analyzed in East Asian populations.^{2,3} We considered that analysis of mutations in the extracellular domains and the kinase domain of *ERBB4* would be of value.

In this study, we searched for mutations in the CR1 domain and kinase domain of *ERBB4*. We also analyzed *ERBB4* mRNA expression by real-time polymerase chain reaction and examined the relationship between the expression and clinicopathologic characteristics including prognosis.

PATIENTS AND METHODS

Cell Lines

Eight lung cancer cell lines were available. These comprised six adenocarcinomas (NCI-H23, NCI-H358, NCI-H3255, HCC78, A549, and ACC-LC-319), one adenosquamous cell carcinoma (NCI-H596), and one large cell carcinoma (ACC-LC-91). ACC-LC-319 and ACC-LC-91 were established in our institution. A549 and NCI-H596 were purchased from the American Type Culture Collection (Manassas, VA). The others were gifts from Dr. Adi F. Gazdar.

Patients

We studied 72 Japanese patients with lung cancer who underwent pulmonary resection at our institution. Tumor samples were rapidly frozen, and total RNA were extracted and genomic DNA was extracted from the blood sample using the Gene Tapping by Liquid Extraction kit (TAKARA BIO Inc., Otsu, Japan) after obtaining appropriate approval from the review board and written informed consent from the patients. The clinicopathologic characteristics of the patients were as follows: 44 were men and 28 were women, and the median age was 67 years at diagnosis (range, 38–85 years). Thirty-nine patients had pathologic stage I disease, 7 had stage II, 23 had stage III, and 3 had stage IV (TNM Classification of Malignant tumor, 6th Edition). There were 55 adenocarcinomas, 10 squamous cell

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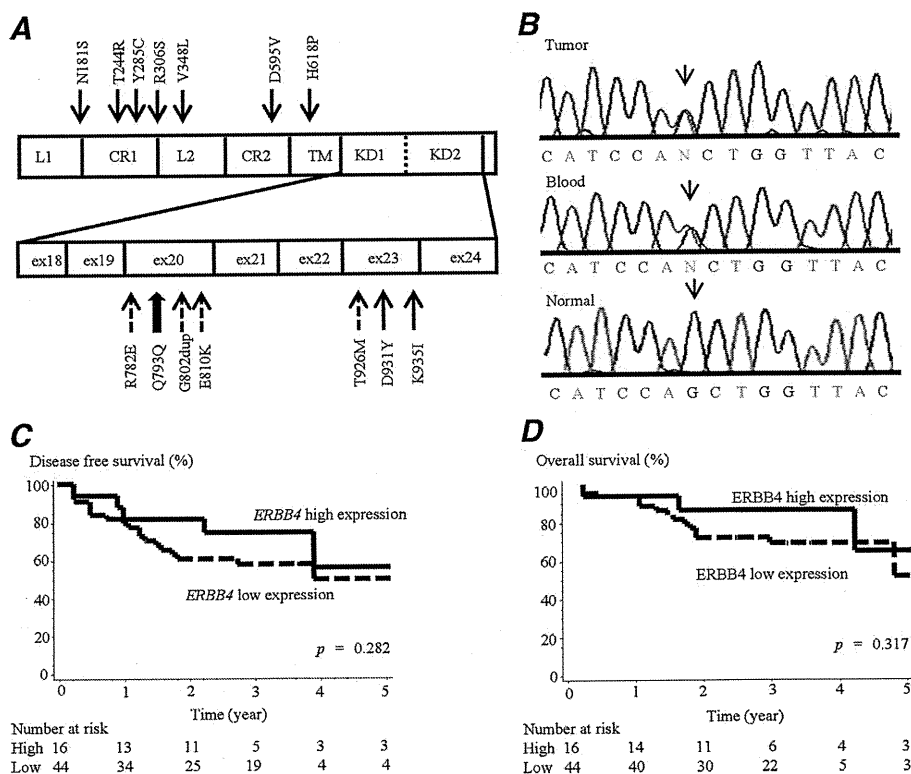
Disclosure: The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

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FIGURE 1. *A*, *ERBB4* mutations from the previous reports of Ding et al.⁴ (arrow) and Soung et al.² (dotted arrow) and the Q793Q polymorphism identified in this study (thick arrow) are illustrated. *ERBB4* consists of four extracellular domains, a transmembrane domain (TM), and a kinase domain. The kinase domain is divided into two regions. L1, 2: large domain 1, 2; CR1: 2; CR domain 1, 2. *B*, Sequencing chromatograms for the synonymous mutation identified in exon 20 of *ERBB4* in the tumor and blood from the same patient. The nucleotide change was c.2379G>A, which did not lead to substitution of glutamine at position 793. *C* and *D*, Kaplan–Meier estimates of disease-free survival and overall survival in patients with high and low *ERBB4* expression. The median disease-free survival time and overall survival time were not significantly different among the two groups.



carcinomas, 1 adenosquamous cell carcinomas, 5 large cell carcinomas, and 1 small cell carcinoma. Twenty-four patients had never smoked, and 48 were current or former smokers.

Analysis of *ERBB4* Mutations

The *ERBB4* extracellular region and kinase domain, which was divided into C-terminal side (KD1) and N-terminal side (KD2; Figure 1A), were analyzed for mutations. By using total RNA or genomic DNA, *ERBB4* was analyzed by direct. Primer sequences were as follows: extracellular region, 5'-TCCTT-TGTTATGCAGACACCAT-3' and 5'-TTGTAAGGGTCCCC-ATGAATAC-3'; KD1, 5'-GGTGAACCATTAACCTCCAGT-3' and 5'-CAATGCTGATGGAGGAAAGATG-3'; and KD2, 5'-CAATGCTGATGGAGGAAAGATG-3' and 5'-TGATCG-TATGAAGCTTCCCAG-3'.

Analysis of *ERBB4* Expression

Total RNA from 60 patients and 2 normal lung tissue samples were reverse transcribed using the High Capacity cDNA Reverse Transcription kit (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA). We analyzed *ERBB4* expressions according to the protocol of the TaqMan Gene Expression assay, using 18S rRNA as the internal reference gene. The primer IDs for *ERBB4* and 18S rRNA were Hs00171783_m1 and Hs99999901_s1 (Applied Biosystems), respectively. The 60 patients were divided into 2 groups on the basis of the average *ERBB4* expression value of 2 normal lung tissue samples.

Statistical Analysis

For comparison of proportions, a χ^2 test or Fisher's exact test was applied. For quantitative variables, Student *t* test was

used. Disease-free survival (DFS) was measured from the date of first operation until the date of radiologic recurrence or death. Overall survival (OS) was measured from the date of first operation until the date of death. The Kaplan–Meier method was used to estimate the probability of survival as a function of time, and survival differences were analyzed by the log-rank test. We defined the significance level at $p < 0.05$.

RESULTS

In the *ERBB4* mutation analysis, one patient with adenocarcinoma had a c.2379G>A synonymous genetic change resulting in Q793Q in the *ERBB4* kinase domain (exon 20). The synonymous change was confirmed as a polymorphism by DNA sequencing a matched blood sample (Figure 1B). However, somatic mutation of *ERBB4* was not detected in this study.

The average *ERBB4* expression level was not significantly different between tumor samples and normal lung tissue samples ($p = 0.384$). The high- and low-expression groups were 27% (16 of 60 patients) and 73% (44 of 60 patients), respectively. The two groups were compared for clinicopathologic characteristics (Table 1), but we did not identify any significant difference. In the survival analysis, the median DFS and OS time was not significantly different between the patients with high and low *ERBB4* expression (Figures 1C, D).

DISCUSSION

We have previously analyzed *EGFR*, *KRAS*, *MET*, and *ERBB2* mutations and *MET* amplification, which are mutually

TABLE 1. Clinicopathologic Data for 60 Patients with Lung Cancer

Characteristic	ERBB4 Expression (%)		p
	High (n = 16)	Low (n = 44)	
Age (yr)			
>67	7 (43.8)	23 (52.3)	0.559
≤67	9 (56.2)	21 (47.7)	
Sex			
Male	8 (50.0)	31 (70.5)	0.142
Female	8 (50.0)	13 (29.5)	
Pathologic stage			
I, II	13 (81.3)	25 (56.8)	0.130
III, IV	3 (18.7)	19 (43.2)	
Smoking			
Never	6 (37.5)	12 (27.3)	0.445
Current or former	10 (62.5)	32 (72.7)	
Tumor size (cm)			
>3	6 (43.8)	28 (63.6)	0.071
≤3	10 (56.2)	16 (36.4)	
Histology			
Adenocarcinoma	11 (68.9)	32 (72.7)	0.763
Nonadenocarcinoma	5 (31.1)	12 (27.3)	

exclusive, in lung cancers.^{6,7} The aims of this study were to identify mutations of the *ERBB4* extracellular and kinase domains in lung cancers and to confirm their mutual exclusivity with mutations in the above genes. Recently, activating point mutations at the *EGFR* extracellular domains were found in 12.9% of glioblastoma.⁸ Mutations of the *ERBB4* extracellular domain also have been reported in NSCLC.⁴ We considered that there was need for analysis of mutations of the *ERBB4* extracellular domain in East Asian patients with lung cancer. In this mutation analysis, only a Q793Q polymorphism was detected in the *ERBB4* kinase domain. The *ERBB4* polymorphism was analogous to the Q787Q polymorphism of *EGFR*. In East Asia, two mutation analyses of *ERBB4* have been reported.^{2,3} Considering those together with this study, 5 of 394 patients with lung cancer (1.3%) harbored *ERBB4* mutations, all of which were present in the *ERBB4* kinase domain.

Gene amplification and expression of the *ERBB* family have been reported in lung cancer. *EGFR* gene amplifications are frequently observed in squamous cell carcinoma with poor prognosis.^{9,10} Synchronous protein overexpression of *EGFR* and *ERBB2* significantly predicted increased recurrence risk and decreased survival.¹¹ In *ERBB4* expression assays of lung cancers, the expression levels are remarkably lower than those of other members of the *ERBB* family, and there is no relationship between *ERBB4* expression and metastasis.¹² Conversely, Starr et al.¹³ reported that the proliferation of the *ERBB4*-transfected human adenocarcinoma cell line H1299 was 2-fold higher than that of the parental cells, and in mice injected with the *ERBB4*-transfected cells, the tumors were larger,¹³ suggesting that *ERBB4* is associated with metastasis and inferior survival.¹³

As indicated earlier, opinions vary concerning the relationship of *ERBB4* expression with metastasis and prognosis in

lung cancers. In this study, the patients with regional lymph node or distant metastasis at diagnosis made up 40% (6 of 16 patients) of the *ERBB4* high-expression group and 44% (20 of 44 patients) of the *ERBB4* low-expression group ($p = 0.582$). The DFS and OS were not significantly different between the high- and low-expression groups. There was no significant relationship between *ERBB4* expression and metastasis or prognosis, and we did not detect a significant relationship between *ERBB4* expression and any clinicopathologic factors.

In conclusion, mutation of the *ERBB4* kinase domain and CR1 domain were not detected. High *ERBB4* expression was infrequent in Japanese patients with lung cancer, and the clinical significance of *ERBB4* was negligible.

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科学評論社

特集

肺がん診療のPro & Con

EGFR遺伝子変異陽性非小細胞 肺がんに対するEGFR-TKIによる 術後補助療法の臨床試験*

—Pro—

多田 弘人**

Key Words: EGFR mutation, tyrosine kinase inhibitor, adjuvant chemotherapy, non small cell lung cancer

はじめに

がんの発生メカニズムは最近少しずつ明らかになってきた。その中で、一部の細胞シグナルが活性化されることもがんの発生に関与していることが判明してきた。たとえば、乳がんにおけるher2/neuの増幅や、rasの点突然変異はシグナル伝達としてがんの発生に関与していると考えられている。慢性骨髄性白血病では、フィラデルフィア染色体という転座によって生じた染色体が古くから知られており、その転座部分で遺伝子が融合してde novoの新しいBCR-ABLという蛋白が誘導されている。このBCR-ABL蛋白が細胞周期を規定するシグナル伝達の始動となり、細胞の自己増殖が生じて白血病が発症していると考えられている。この蛋白を抑制する薬剤としてimatinibが開発され、固形がんのGISTにも効果があることが判明している。また、乳がんではher2蛋白に対する抗体薬が作られ、ハーセプチンとして使用されている。こういったものが分子標的薬の典型といえよう。これら2つの薬剤は、それぞれher2陽性乳がんとgastrointestinal stromal tumor (GIST) に対して術後補助療法の有効性が証明されている。

術後補助化学療法全般

非小細胞肺がんに対する術後補助化学療法は、長い間多くの臨床試験が行われてきたが、いくつかの理由により最近まで有効性について証明することができなかった。最大の理由は臨床比較試験のサンプルサイズが小さすぎることによるパワー不足であった。1995年のBritish Medical Journal (BMJ)¹⁾に投稿された論文によると、メタアナリシスで非小細胞肺がんの補助化学療法の有効性はhazard rate (HR)が0.87であり、有効である可能性はあるものの症例総数が約1,800例であり、統計学的有意差を証明することはできなかった。その後行われた補助化学療法の比較試験では、大規模試験と第3世代抗がん剤の使用で術後化学療法の効果が示された²⁾。さらに、第3世代抗がん剤だけを用いた試験では、HRが0.7前後の効果が示され、症例数が400~800例でも有効性を証明することができた³⁾。これらの第3世代抗がん剤を用いた試験であるにもかかわらず、治療関連死亡が1%前後観察されている。この第3世代抗がん剤は、従来の第2世代抗がん剤と比べてその奏効率が約10%向上し、30~40%の奏効率が得られており、試験は少ししかないにもかかわらず術後化学療法を標準治療とすることが世界中で受け入れられている。

* Clinical trial of adjuvant EGFR-TKI in patients with completely resected non small cell lung cancer harbouring EGFR activating mutations - Pro -

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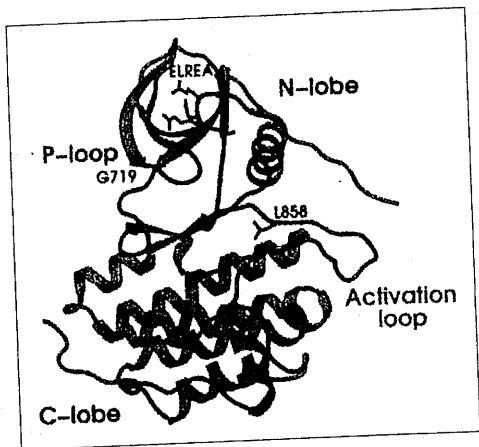


図1 TKIの効果を示したEGFRの遺伝子変異部分 (文献⁹⁾より)

EGFRに対する薬剤

Epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR)は、EGFにより刺激され細胞増殖シグナルを伝える。この部分はシグナル伝達の最初にあたり、大きな割合を占めている。これに対する薬剤開発としてEGFRに対する抗体が開発された。他方でシグナル伝達の主要な役割を行っているチロシンキナーゼを阻害する薬剤 (EGFR-TKI)の開発が行われた。抗体薬としてはErbix[®]とpanitumumabという2つの薬剤が上梓されているが、いずれもEGFRの遺伝子変異との関連性についての報告はなく、KRASの野生型にのみ化学療法の効果を増強することが証明されている。

チロシンキナーゼの阻害剤としてはgefitinibとTarceva[®]という2つの薬剤が開発されている。これらはともにEGFRのATP binding siteに遺伝子変異を有する非小細胞肺癌に対して高い有効率を示すことが報告されている⁵⁾⁶⁾(図1)。これらの薬剤は、シグナル伝達を抑制するだけであるため、細胞が死滅することなく薬剤の投与を終了すればすぐに増殖が再開すると考えられてきた。しかし、その効果は劇的であるため oncogene addiction という概念が提唱されるようになり、これをブロックすることで apoptosis により細胞が死滅するという機序が考えられている⁷⁾⁸⁾。

EGFR-TKIの一次治療における比較試験

EGFRの遺伝子変異の検出が当初には困難であったため、喫煙歴の少ない腺がんを対象にcarboplatin + paclitaxelとgefitinibを比較する試験が行われた。この試験の結果は生存曲線がクロスするという奇妙な結果であった。対象症例1,217例のうち、36%の437人にEGFRの遺伝子変異の検索が行われた。約60%が変異陽性で、40%が陰性であった。変異陽性群ではgefitinibが無再発生存期間において良好な結果であったが、変異陰性群ではcarboplatin + paclitaxel群が無増悪生存期間において良好な結果であった⁹⁾。変異陽性症例のcarboplatin + paclitaxel群では増悪後に大半の症例でgefitinibが投与されていたため、全生存で見ると両治療群間に差を見出すことはできなかった。

わが国で、EGFR遺伝子変異だけを対象にしたgefitinibと化学療法の一治療の比較試験が2つ報告されている¹⁰⁾¹¹⁾。いずれも無増悪生存期間においてはgefitinib群が良好な結果を示した。全生存については、carboplatin + paclitaxel群では増悪後に大半の症例でgefitinibが投与されており、全生存で見ると両治療群間に差を見出すことはできなかった¹¹⁾。

EGFR-TKIによる術後補助療法

EGFR-TKIによる術後化学療法は過去に2つ行われた。一つは本邦で企画され、gefitinib認可直後に術後化学療法としてプラセボコントロール試験として、治験で開始された。認可直後に間質性肺炎が多発して社会問題となったときと重なり、治療中間質性肺炎が1例発生し、かつ死亡に至ったため治験は中止された。もう一つはカナダで、2002年から術後プラセボとの比較試験として開始された。コードネームはJBR. 19である。この試験は、2003年にInternational Adjuvant Lung Cancer Trial (IALT)の補助化学療法の有効性が大規模試験で証明されたため、術後化学療法を施行することを許容することにして、化学療法投与された場合には投与終了後に無作為化割り付けをするというプロトコルの改定が行われた。2004年4月には前述のgefitinibの

効果とEGFR遺伝子変異との相関があったという報告⁵⁾⁶⁾がなされたが、試験はそのままで行われた。一方で、2004年にはIressa Survival Evaluation in Lung Cancer (ISEL) study¹²⁾というセカンドラインでのgefitinibとプラセボの比較試験でgefitinibがプラセボを上回ることができなかった。また、SWOG0023¹³⁾という局所進行非小細胞肺癌に対する放射線化学療法+consolidation docetaxel治療のあとの維持療法としてgefitinibとプラセボを比較する試験が行われた。2005年にSWOG0023の中間解析が行われ、gefitinib群がプラセボ群より生存で有意に下回ったため、SWOG0023は早期中止された。この中止勧告に同調してJBR. 19の中止勧告がFood and Drug Administration (FDA)から出され、試験は2005年4月に突如中止された。この時点で予定登録数の過半まで来ていたため、登録終了から4年後に生存解析を行うことが決定された。

2010年のAmerican Society of Clinical Oncology (ASCO) annual meetingで、その結果が報告された¹⁴⁾。結果はgefitinibにより生存率の向上は得られなかった。遺伝子変異が7割の症例で確認され、76症例で遺伝子異常が確認された。遺伝子異常が確認された症例だけでgefitinibの効果を比較したが、両群間に有意差を認めなかった。ただし、割合としてはgefitinib投与群の方が生存において下回っていた。

一方で、Memorial Sloan Ketteringにおいて、切除症例のうちEGFR遺伝子異常の判明している症例が167例あり、それらに対して術後化学療法としてEGFR-TKIが56例に行われていた。TKIが投与された群と、TKIが投与されなかった群の無再発生存と全生存を比較したところ、統計学的有意差は認めなかったが、投与群の予後が良好であった¹⁵⁾。

かたや途中で中断された試験であり、他方は後ろ向き研究であり、いずれも術後補助療法としてgefitinibを投与することの可否について結論は得られない。

Gefitinibによる術後補助療法の意義

術後補助療法は、化学療法の中で非常に特殊な位置にある。通常の化学療法では薬剤の効果

があるかどうかはResponse Evaluation Criteria in Solid Tumors (RECIST)によって判定される。しかし、術後化学療法では測定可能病変はそもそも存在しない。そのため、薬剤の使用に関しては毒性試験で危険性のない投与量を決定し、RECISTで腫瘍の縮小効果、もしくは腫瘍の増大を抑制する効果があるかどうかを判定し、局所治療が不可能な症例で生存に寄与することが証明された薬剤を用いて術後補助療法の有効性を検証するというステップを踏んで、術後補助療法が認知されるに至るものと考ええる。

現在EGFR-TKIは、従来の抗がん剤よりも早い段階で投与することで全生存について、従来の薬剤に劣らないことが証明された。その上で副作用のプロファイルからしてquality of life (QOL)では従来の薬剤よりも良好であることが証明されている。そうである以上、術後化学療法として有効である可能性は否定できない。

前述した2つの試験はいずれも不十分な試験であり、これらの試験で結論を出せる状況ではない。そのため、相反するトレンドを示しているとはいえ、いずれも推奨にしかすぎないデータである以上gefitinibとcisplatin+vinorelbineの術後補助療法の比較試験をEGFR遺伝子変異陽性群に行うことは当然の流れであると考ええる。

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呼吸困難で発症した中枢気道の腫瘍性病変に対する二期的手術

—硬性気管支鏡下 core out の有用性—

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