

Genomically Driven Tumors and Actionability across Histologies: *BRAF*-Mutant Cancers as a Paradigm

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Abstract

The diagnosis, classification, and management of cancer are traditionally dictated by the site of tumor origin, for example, breast or lung, and by specific histologic subtypes of site-of-origin cancers (e.g., non-small cell versus small cell lung cancer). However, with the advent of sequencing technologies allowing for rapid, low cost, and accurate sequencing of clinical samples, new observations suggest an expanded or different approach to the diagnosis and treatment of cancer—one driven by the unique molecular features of the tumor. We discuss a genomically driven strategy for cancer treatment using *BRAF* as an example. Several key points are highlighted: (i) molecular aberrations can be shared across cancers; (ii) approximately

15% of all cancers harbor *BRAF* mutations; and (iii) *BRAF* inhibitors, while approved only for melanoma, have reported activity across numerous cancers and related disease types bearing *BRAF* aberrations. However, *BRAF*-mutated colorectal cancer has shown poor response rate to *BRAF* inhibitor monotherapy, striking a cautionary note. Yet, even in this case, emerging data suggest *BRAF*-mutated colorectal cancers can respond well to *BRAF* inhibitors, albeit when administered in combination with other agents that impact resistance pathways. Taken together, these data suggest that molecular aberrations may be the basis for a new nosology for cancer. *Mol Cancer Ther*; 15(4); 533–47. ©2016 AACR.

Introduction

A wealth of data now suggests that molecular aberrations may be shared across multiple histologies (1). As an example, *BRAF* mutations can be detected in melanoma, colorectal tumors, lung and ovarian cancers, hairy cell leukemia, histiocytosis and many other related disease types (2; Fig. 1; Table 1). Indeed, a small subset of almost all types of malignancies may harbor a *BRAF* mutation (3, 4). Of special importance in this regard is the fact that several drugs that effectively target the *BRAF*-mutant protein product have been developed (Table 2). For instance, the *BRAF* inhibitors, vemurafenib and dabrafenib, have both been approved for *BRAF*-mutant melanoma based on results from the phase III BRIM-3 study (5) and the phase III BREAK-3 study (6), respectively.

A key conundrum now debated in the cancer community is whether or not targeted drugs approved for one type of histology should be administered to other histologies harboring the cognate aberration. For instance, should a *BRAF* inhibitor

approved for *BRAF*-mutant melanoma be given to a patient with a *BRAF*-mutant tumor other than melanoma? A corollary to this question is the precise criteria needed in order to extrapolate predictive data on a biomarker for a given targeted therapy in one cancer to another cancer. These questions are of tremendous importance for the following reasons: (i) molecular aberrations, in particular amplifications, loss, and mutations, do not appear to segregate well by histology (1, 2, 4); (ii) numerous targeted drugs are becoming clinically available and they have been developed to inhibit a specific cancer signal that may be found in multiple tumor types, hence their rational application would be in tumors bearing the cognate target (3); and (iii) molecular anomalies are found in a very small percentage of diverse cancers (7), and the rarity in each histologic type presents a near-impossible challenge for classic randomized or even nonrandomized trials to determine efficacy histology by histology.

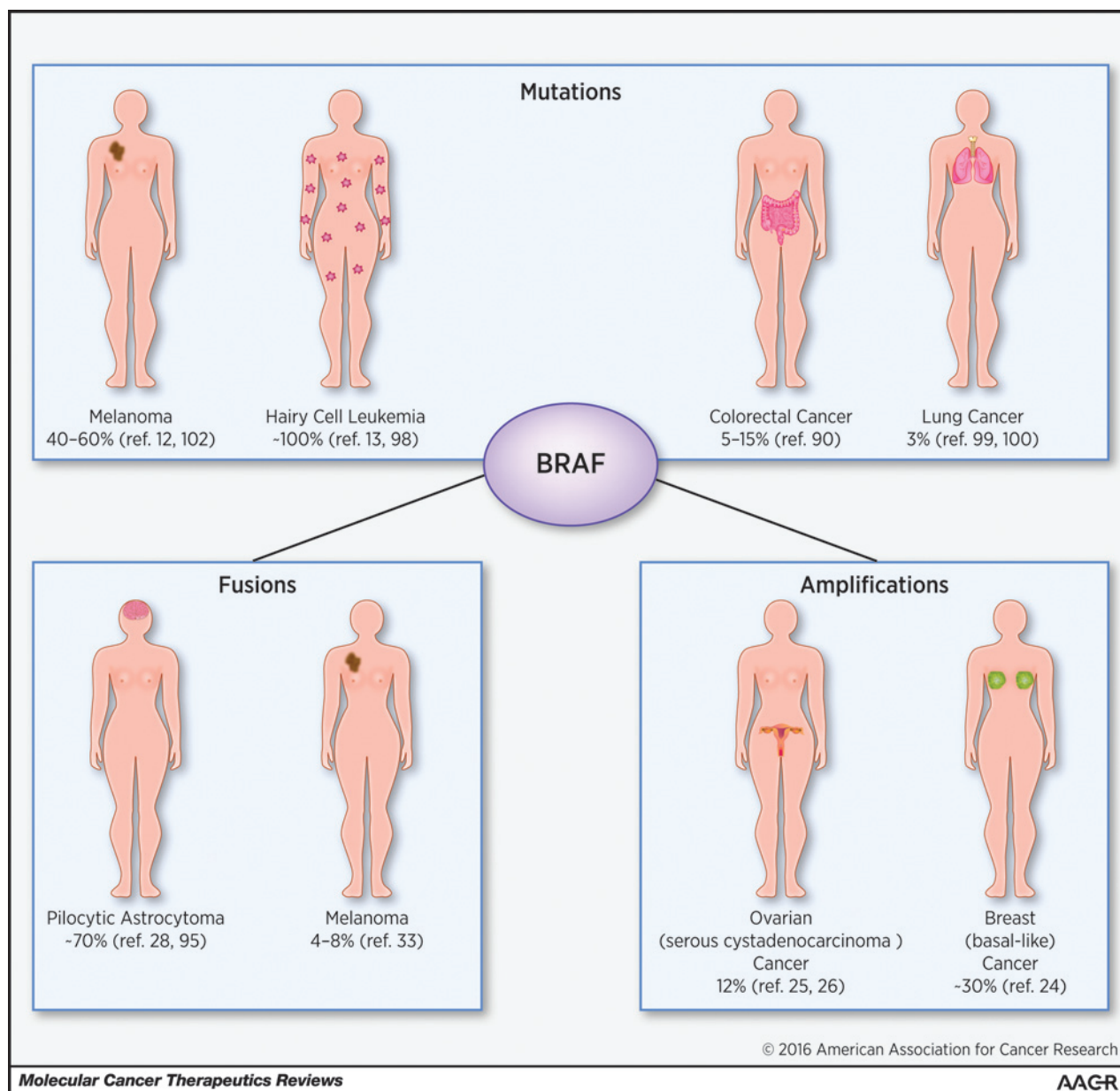
Newer study designs are beginning to accommodate these challenges. For instance, histology-agnostic trials (so-called bucket or basket trials) might include patients with a wide variety of histologies as long as they all harbor the cognate aberration. As an example, a histology-agnostic trial of the *BRAF* inhibitor vemurafenib can include diverse types of cancers, providing that they carry *BRAF* mutation (e.g., VE BASKET study; 8). However, these types of trials are still often perceived as signal finding. If a variety of histologies respond, what should be the next steps to approval and/or pay or coverage? To what extent can we be certain or do we need to be certain that each histology bearing the mutation will respond before it is acceptable to administer drugs across cancers based on their molecular, rather than histologic, classification? Does molecular classification actually represent a biology-based nosology?

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**Figure 1.**

Examples of organ of origin tumors that have different types of *BRAF* aberrations. For a comprehensive list of tumor types having *BRAF* aberrations, please refer to Table 1.

Herein we review this topic, using *BRAF*-mutant malignancies as a paradigm. The choice of *BRAF* was considered apt for the following reasons: (i) *BRAF* mutations as well as other *BRAF* anomalies (amplifications, fusions) have been described in a wide variety of tumors; (ii) two *BRAF* inhibitors and a MEK inhibitor have already been approved for *BRAF*-mutant melanoma; and (iii) there is a rich literature demonstrating responses, albeit at times in small numbers of patients, with the use of *BRAF* inhibitors in a variety of *BRAF*-mutation bearing cancers (9, 10). On the other hand, *BRAF*-mutant colorectal cancers have proved more resistant to *BRAF* inhibitor monotherapy, hence striking a cautionary note. The observations in *BRAF*-mutant tumors may

therefore inform future conceptualization of genomically driven treatment.

***BRAF* Mutations in Diverse Cancers**

BRAF is mutated in about 15% of all cancers (3, 11) and *BRAF* mutations can be found in solid tumors, hematologic malignancies, and related disease types (Table 1). For some cancers, *BRAF* mutations are very frequently detected: melanoma [40%–60% of patients (12)] and hairy cell leukemia [~100% (13)].

The predominant mutation detected in *BRAF*-mutated cancers is the V600E mutation, representing approximately 70% to 90%

Table 1. *BRAF* mutations in diverse cancers^a

Cancer	<i>BRAF</i> mutation frequency	Source	Comments
Cholangiocarcinoma	3%–22%	Goeppert et al (93) Tannapfel et al (94)	<i>BRAF</i> V600E (60%) <i>BRAF</i> V600D (13%) Other codons (27%)
Chronic lymphocytic leukemia	2.8%	Jebaraj et al (95)	
Colorectal cancer	5%–15%	Pakneshan et al (96)	<i>BRAF</i> V600E
MSI unstable	27.8%–51.8%	Domingo et al (97)	
MSI stable	5%–7.5%	Samowitz et al (98)	
Erdheim-Chester disease	54%	Benlloch et al (99)	
Ganglioglioma	43%	Haroche et al (100)	<i>BRAF</i> V600E
GIST	2%–13%	Gupta et al (101) Hostein et al (102)	<i>BRAF</i> V600E
Glioblastoma	1.7%	Miranda et al (103)	<i>BRAF</i> V600E
Hairy cell leukemia	~100%	cBioPortal (25,26) Sakata-Yanagimoto (104)	<i>BRAF</i> V600E
Kidney cancer	3%	Tiacci et al (13) COSMIC (23)	<i>BRAF</i> V600E (85%) Other codons (5%)
Lung cancer adenocarcinoma	3%	Cooper et al (105) Paik et al (106)	<i>BRAF</i> V600E (50%) <i>BRAF</i> G469A (39%) <i>BRAF</i> D594G (11%)
Langerhans cell histiocytosis	25%–38%	Go et al (107)	<i>BRAF</i> V600E
Melanoma	~60%	Haroche et al (100) Davies et al (12) Hodis et al (108)	<i>BRAF</i> V600E (80%) <i>BRAF</i> V600K (8%) <i>BRAF</i> V600R (1%) Other codons (10%)
Multiple myeloma	~6%	Lohr et al (109)	<i>BRAF</i> V600E (38%) Other codons (62%)
Ovarian cancer	35%–60%	Grisham et al (110)	<i>BRAF</i> V600E
Serous borderline	44.6%–71%	Bosmuller et al (111)	
Low-grade serous	5.3%–14%		
Pancreatic cancer	1%–16%	Schultz et al (112) COSMIC (23)	Schultz et al reported all mutations detected were non- <i>BRAF</i> V600E (112). COSMIC reported ~55% of <i>BRAF</i> mutations were <i>BRAF</i> V600E.
Pilocytic astrocytoma	70%–80%	Korshunov et al (28) Gupta et al (101)	<i>BRAF</i> - <i>KIAA1549</i> fusion
Pleomorphic xanthoastrocytoma	66%	Schindler et al (113)	<i>BRAF</i> V600E
Prostate cancer	1.6%	COSMIC (23)	<i>BRAF</i> V600E (<1%) <i>BRAF</i> V600X (84%)
Papillary thyroid cancer	30%–80%	Xing (114)	<i>BRAF</i> V600E

^aMultiple other tumors may have a small incidence of *BRAF* mutations not described here. Additionally some tumors may have *BRAF* amplification or fusions as noted in the comments column or as discussed in the section entitled "Abnormalities in the *BRAF* gene other than Mutations".

of all mutations in *BRAF* (12, 14–16). Substitution of glutamic acid (E) for valine (V) at codon 600 of the *BRAF* protein affects the activation segment of the protein by mimicking the phosphorylation of the kinase domain, causing a change in structure that favors the active conformation (14, 17). Experimental studies have confirmed that the *BRAF* V600E mutations are activating, resulting in increased *BRAF* kinase activity in *in vitro* studies, as well as activation of downstream effectors and oncogenic transformation in cell-based studies (12, 18, 19).

Other activating mutations in *BRAF* include additional mutations affecting codon 600 that result in substitutions other than glutamic acid. In *BRAF*-mutated melanoma, the *BRAF* V600K mutation is found at a frequency of approximately 7% to 19% (16, 20). Other rare mutations affecting codon 600 include *BRAF* V600D (0.1%), *BRAF* V600R (1%), and *BRAF* V600M (0.3%; 20). Furthermore, activating mutations in *BRAF* that affect codons other than 600 include L597 substitutions (0.5%), and K601E (0.7%; 20). Table 1 lists several other non-V600 mutations in *BRAF* and their frequencies in detected cancers (for responsiveness

of non-V600E mutations to *BRAF* inhibitors, see section entitled "*BRAF* mutations other than V600E").

In addition, inactivating or "low-activity" mutations in *BRAF* have been identified and characterized; they typically involve substitutions at codon 594 (19, 21), although missense mutations at other codons (including codon 466) have also been shown to result in *BRAF* kinase inactivation or reduced activation (18).

Abnormalities in the *BRAF* Gene Other Than Mutations

In addition to mutations, other types of *BRAF* aberrations are found in cancer, including amplification and *BRAF* fusions. *BRAF* amplification involving either the wild-type gene or mutant versions of the gene is predicted to result in increased *BRAF* activity in tumor cells (22). In some cases where *BRAF* mutations are rare, *BRAF* amplifications dominate. For example, while mutations in *BRAF* are found in only 1% of breast cancers (23), *BRAF* amplification has been reported in 30% of basal-like

Table 2. Examples of clinically available BRAF inhibitors and their applications

Drug name	Target(s)	Approximate IC₅₀ for BRAF	Development status	Indications/Stage of development^a	Comments	Refs
Vemurafenib	BRAF V600E, BRAF, RAF1, ARAF, SRMS, TNK2, FGR, MAP3K5	31 nmol/L (BRAF V600E) 100 nm (BRAF)	Approved for BRAF V600E	Unresectable or metastatic melanoma with BRAF V600E mutation		FDA label (115) Bollag et al (116)
Dabrafenib	BRAF V600E, BRAF V600D, BRAF V600K, BRAF, RAF1	1.84 nm (BRAF V600E) 3.2 nmol/L (BRAF)	Approved for BRAF V600E	-Single agent for unresectable or metastatic melanoma with BRAF V600E mutation -In combination with trametinib for unresectable or metastatic melanoma with BRAF V600E/K mutation		FDA label (117)
Trametinib	MAP2K1, MAP2K2	N/A	Approved for BRAF V600E/K	Single agent or in combination with dabrafenib for unresectable or metastatic melanoma with BRAF V600E/K mutation		FDA label (62,118)
Sorafenib	BRAF, KDR, PDGFRA, PDGFRB, KIT, FLT4, FLT3, RET, RAF1, FLT1	38 nmol/L (BRAF V600E) 25 nmol/L (BRAF)	Approved but not related to BRAF aberrations	-Unresectable hepatocellular carcinoma -Advanced renal cell carcinoma -Locally recurrent, or metastatic, progressive, differentiated thyroid carcinoma	-Also in phase II trial for BRAF-mutant (excluding BRAF V600 mutations) solid tumors (NCT02029001) -Not validated clinically as an effective BRAF inhibitor	Wilhelm et al (119)
Regorafenib	BRAF, FLT1, KDR, FLT4, KIT, TEK, PDGFRA, PDGFRB, FGFR1, FGFR2, NTRK1, MAPK1, ABL1	19 nmol/L (BRAF V600E) 28 nmol/L (BRAF)	Approved but not related to BRAF aberrations	-Metastatic colorectal cancer -Locally advanced, unresectable, or metastatic GIST	-Also in phase II trial for BRAF- or RAS-mutant colorectal cancer (NCT02175654) -Not validated clinically as an effective BRAF inhibitor	Wilhelm et al (120)
Pazopanib	BRAF, FLT1, KDR, FLT4, PDGFRA, PDGFRB, KIT, FGFR1, FGFR3, CSF1R, LCK, ITK	410 nmol/L (BRAF)	Approved but not related to BRAF aberrations	-Advanced renal cell carcinoma -Advanced soft tissue sarcoma	-Also in phase I trial in combination with dabrafenib for BRAF-mutant advanced malignant tumors (NCT01713972) -Less effective at inhibition of BRAF V600E; at 1 μmol/L can achieve ~80% inhibition of wild-type BRAF versus only ~40% inhibition of BRAF V600E -Not validated clinically as an effective BRAF inhibitor	Kitagawa et al (121)
ARQ 736	BRAF, RAF1	2.7 nmol/L (BRAF V600E) 2.6 nmol/L (BRAF) ^b	Investigational	Phase I		Chen et al (122)
CEP-32496	BRAF V600E, BRAF, ABL1, BCR-ABL1, RET, EPHA2	60 nmol/L (BRAF V600E) >2,000 nmol/L (BRAF) ^c	Investigational	Phase I/II		James et al (123)

(Continued on the following page)

Table 2. Examples of clinically available BRAF inhibitors and their applications. (Cont'd)

Drug name	Target(s)	Approximate IC ₅₀ for BRAF	Development status	Indications/Stage of development ^a	Comments	Refs
LGX818	BRAF V600E, BRAF	4 nmol/L (BRAF V600E) ^c	Investigational	Phase III	-In phase III trial for BRAF V600E-mutated melanoma (NCT01909453) -In a phase II trial for solid tumors (excluding melanoma and colorectal cancer) and hematologic malignancies with BRAF V600 mutation (NCT01981187)	Stuart et al (124)
MLN2480	BRAF, ARAF, RAF1	Information not available	Investigational	Phase I	-Clinical testing in solid tumors and melanoma (NCT01425008) -Not yet featured in trials with BRAF mutation requirements	
PLX8394	BRAF V600E, BRAF, RAF1	Information not available	Investigational	Phase I/II	Phase II portion of trial selecting for BRAF-mutated solid tumors and hairy cell leukemia (NCT02012231)	
PLX3603	BRAF V600E, BRAF	Information not available	Investigational	Phase I	In phase I trial for solid tumors with BRAF V600E mutation (NCT01143753)	
RAF265	BRAF, RAF1, KDR	<100 nmol/L (BRAF V600E, BRAF 140 nmol/L (BRAF V600E) ^c	Investigational	Phase II	In a phase I trial (now completed) in combination with MEK162 for patients with solid tumors containing BRAF V600E or NRAS or KRAS mutations (NCT01352273)	Stuart et al (125)
RO5126766	BRAF, RAF1, MAP2K1, MAP2K2	8.2 nmol/L (BRAF V600E) 160 nmol/L (BRAF)	Investigational	Phase I	-In phase I trial (now completed) for patients with solid tumors (NCT00773526) -Not yet featured in trials with BRAF mutation requirements	Martinez-Garcia (126)
XL281	BRAF, RAF1	Information not available	Investigational	Phase I/II	In phase I/II trial as monotherapy or in combination with cetuximab for colorectal cancer with BRAF V600E mutation or with KRAS codon 12 or 13 mutations (NCT01086267)	

^aRelevant examples of development are given.

^bIC₅₀ values presented are for ARQ 680, which is the active moiety of the prodrug ARQ 736.

^cCellular IC₅₀ value.

breast tumors (24). Other cancers where *BRAF* amplification is more frequent than *BRAF* mutations include ovarian serous cystadenocarcinoma (12% vs. 0.6%, respectively; 25, 26) as well as prostate adenocarcinoma (~5% vs. 1.6%, respectively; 25, 26).

BRAF fusions such as *KIAA1549-BRAF* and *FAM131B-BRAF* are frequently found in gliomas with the *KIAA1549-BRAF* fusion detected in up to 70% of pilocytic astrocytomas (27, 28). The *KIAA1549-BRAF* is an arrangement created by a tandem duplication event, while *FAM131B-BRAF* is generated by a large deletion event; however, both result in constitutive activation of *BRAF* through duplication of the *BRAF* activation domain, but with deletion of the N-terminal inhibitory domain (29, 30). The *KIAA1549-BRAF* fusion has been reported in preclinical studies to be resistant to PLX4720, the research analog of vemurafenib, due to *RAF* dimerization, but remains sensitive to a second-generation *BRAF* inhibitor (31). In addition, one case study described a patient with a spindle cell neoplasm harboring the *KIAA1549-BRAF* fusion as well as a homozygous deletion of *PTEN*, and frameshift mutations in *CDKN2A*, *SUFU*, and *MAP3K1* who had a 25% reduction in tumor volume following a combination therapy consisting of sorafenib (a weak *BRAF* inhibitor), temsirolimus, and bevacizumab, suggesting that the *KIAA1549-BRAF* fusion may be responsive to certain *BRAF* inhibitors in the clinic, though the precise reason for response is confounded by the other drugs in the regimen (32). The responsiveness of *FAM131B-BRAF* is currently not reported in the literature. While infrequent as compared with mutations, *BRAF* fusions have also been observed in melanoma in anywhere from 4% to 8% of "pan-negative" cases (defined as tumors negative for mutations in *BRAF*, *NRAS*, *KIT*, *GNAQ*, and *GNA11*). Two *BRAF* fusions, *PAPSS1-BRAF* and *TRIM24-BRAF*, were both shown to result in activation of the *MAPK* pathway, and were both reported to be sensitive to the *MEK* inhibitor trametinib but not the *BRAF* inhibitor vemurafenib as assessed by inhibition of *MEK1/2* phosphorylation (33).

In summary, multiple alterations in the *BRAF* gene can occur. The sensitivity or lack thereof to *BRAF* or *MEK* inhibitors may vary depending on the alteration.

Clinically Available *BRAF* Inhibitors and Their Applications

The connection between *BRAF*-mutant, specifically *BRAF* V600E-mutant, cancers and response to *BRAF* inhibitors was first established in melanoma patients, where it was observed that anywhere from 50% to 60% of melanomas harbor the activating *BRAF* V600E mutation (12, 34). A phase I study reported that, in comparison with the 10% to 20% response rates for nontargeted therapies approved for the treatment of melanoma, a response rate of up to 81% was observed for *BRAF* V600E-mutated melanoma patients given the *BRAF* inhibitor vemurafenib (35). Furthermore, matched targeted therapy in heavily pretreated melanoma patients in the phase I setting (using mainly *BRAF* and *MEK* inhibitors), showed longer PFS as compared with each patient's first-line standard therapy (36). The phase II BRIM-2 study reported a best overall response rate of 53% and median duration of response of 6.8 months from treatment with dabrafenib for previously treated melanoma patients whose tumor harbored the *BRAF* V600E mutation (37, 38). Finally, on the basis of a phase III trial comparing vemurafenib to dacarbazine, in which it was reported that the

response rate for vemurafenib was 48% as compared with the 5% response rate for dacarbazine (5), vemurafenib received FDA approval for treatment of patients with melanoma whose tumors harbor the *BRAF* V600E mutation (39).

On the heels of vemurafenib, another *BRAF* inhibitor that proved to be efficacious in treating *BRAF* V600E-mutated melanoma patients was dabrafenib (6, 40), which received FDA approval for the treatment of patients with melanoma having the *BRAF* V600E mutation (41). Vemurafenib and dabrafenib are perfect examples of the superior efficacy that can be achieved by employing drugs that target a biomarker that drives oncogenesis; in patients with *BRAF* V600E-mutated melanoma, *BRAF*-directed therapy results in substantially better outcomes as compared with nontargeted therapy approaches.

Other approved drugs that act as *BRAF* inhibitors but are not specifically approved for *BRAF*-mutant cancers include regorafenib, which is approved for colorectal cancer and gastrointestinal stromal tumors (GIST); it is also currently in a phase II trial recruiting for colorectal cancer patients with any *BRAF* or *RAS* mutation (42).

Additional *BRAF* inhibitors that are either approved or currently in clinical development are summarized in Table 2. Some of these drugs are in trials selecting for *BRAF*-mutant cancers. For example, LGX818 is in a phase III trial for *BRAF* V600E- or *BRAF* V600K-positive melanoma (43) and in a phase II trial for *BRAF* V600-positive cancers (44).

Clinically Available *MEK1/2* Inhibitors and Their Applications

Trametinib is currently the only approved *MEK1/2* inhibitor. However, there are several other investigational *MEK1/2* inhibitors being evaluated in clinical trials, including binimetinib (*MEK162*), cobimetinib (GDC-0973, XL518), pimasertib, refametinib, selumetinib (AZD6244), and PD-0325901.

Melanoma

Another drug approved for melanoma with *BRAF* V600E or *BRAF* V600K mutations is the *MEK1/2* inhibitor trametinib (GSK1120212). Trametinib was approved on the basis of results from a phase III trial (NCT01245062) of 322 melanoma patients who harbored either *BRAF* V600E, *BRAF* V600K, or both mutations that were randomized to receive either a chemotherapy regimen (paclitaxel or dacarbazine) or trametinib. Patients receiving trametinib had a superior PFS as compared with patients receiving chemotherapy, with a median PFS of 4.8 months versus 1.5 months, respectively (45). Trametinib in combination with dabrafenib for melanoma with *BRAF* V600E or *BRAF* V600K mutations was subsequently approved on the basis of a trial of 162 melanoma patients who harbored either the *BRAF* V600E or *BRAF* V600K mutations, who were randomized to either trametinib 2 mg daily in combination with dabrafenib, trametinib 1 mg daily in combination with dabrafenib, or single-agent dabrafenib. The trametinib 2 mg daily in combination with dabrafenib yielded superior objective response rates and response duration (76% and 10.5 months, respectively, as compared with 54% and 5.6 months, respectively, in the single-agent dabrafenib arm; $P < 0.05$; 46).

Colorectal cancer

In colorectal cancer, dabrafenib and trametinib combinations have also shown activity in *BRAF*-mutated disease (47). Of 43

Table 3. Predictive value of *BRAF* mutations for BRAF and/or MEK inhibitor therapy in diverse cancers

Cancer	% BRAF mutated	Treatment regimen	Reported outcomes	Comments	Reference
Cholangiosarcoma	3%-22%	Vemurafenib	12.5% with PR (1 of 8) or SD \geq 6 months. All patients with either PR or SD had tumors with <i>BRAF</i> V600E mutations.	Phase II	Hyman et al (8)
Erdheim-Chester disease (ECD)	54%	Vemurafenib	Rapid clinical and biological improvement with tumor response ($N = 4$). All 4 patients had <i>BRAF</i> V600E mutations.	Case reports	Haroche et al (10) Tzoulis et al (127)
Langerhans histiocytosis (LCH)	25%-38%	Vemurafenib	One patient with SD and almost complete metabolic remission. Disease positive for <i>BRAF</i> V600E mutation.	Case report	Bubolz et al (128)
ECD/LCH	N/A	Vemurafenib	7% CR (1 of 14); 36% PR (5 of 14); 29% with SD \geq 6 months (4 of 14). All patients with V600E.	Phase II	Hyman et al (8)
Ganglioglioma	43%	Vemurafenib	2 patients with PR (2 months PFS in one patient; 20+ months PFS in another; $N = 2$). 1 patient had radiological and clinical response sustained after 6 months from vemurafenib ($N = 1$). All patients had <i>BRAF</i> V600E mutant tumors.	Case reports	Bautista et al (55) del Bufalo et al (129)
Glioma	Varies depending on type of glioma	Vemurafenib	1 of 8 patients had SD \geq 6 months. Patient had V600E.	Phase II	Hyman et al (8)
GIST	2%-13%	Dabrafenib	One patient with tumor regression (PFS = 8 months). One SD with 17% decrease in tumor volume ($N = 1$). Both tumors positive for <i>BRAF</i> V600E.	Case report and phase I study	Falchook et al (53) Falchook et al (40)
Glioblastoma	1.7%	Vemurafenib	CR (PFS = 6+ months). Tumor positive for <i>BRAF</i> V600E.	Case report	Robinson et al (54)
Hairy cell leukemia	~100%	Dabrafenib; Vemurafenib	CR ($N = 3$) and PR ($N = 2$) in dabrafenib studies. 38% CR (19 of 50) and 60% with PR (30 of 50). All patients in clinical reports had <i>BRAF</i> V600E mutation.	Case reports for dabrafenib; phase II study for vemurafenib	Vergote et al (130) Samuel et al (56) Munoz et al (9) Follows et al (131) Dietrich et al (57) Tiacchi et al (132) Andrulis et al (133)
Multiple myeloma	~6%	Vemurafenib	Case: 1 PR in patient with <i>BRAF</i> V600E mutation.		
NSCLC	3%	Vemurafenib; dabrafenib	Phase II study: 42% with PR (8 of 19) and (3 of 19) with SD \geq 6 months; all patients except one who was <i>BRAF</i> V600 unknown had the V600E mutation. Phase I study: 1 PR ($N = 1$) with 83% decrease in tumor volume from dabrafenib.	Phase II for vemurafenib; phase I study for dabrafenib	Hyman et al (8) Falchook et al (40)
Ovarian cancer	35%-60%	Selumetinib; dabrafenib; vemurafenib	No patients demonstrated a tumor response to selumetinib ($N = 2$). 1 SD ($N = 1$) with 28% decrease in tumor volume from treatment with dabrafenib in phase I study. 1 PR in a serous ovarian cancer patient ($N = 1$) in phase II vemurafenib study. All patients in these studies had <i>BRAF</i> V600E disease.	Phase II for selumetinib study; phase II for vemurafenib; phase I for dabrafenib	Farley et al (134) Falchook et al (40) Hyman et al (8)
Pilomyxoid astrocytoma	Rare	Vemurafenib	Tumor regression. Tumor was <i>BRAF</i> V600E mutation positive.	Case report	Skrypek et al (135)
Anaplastic pleomorphic xanthoastrocytoma	66%	Vemurafenib	Phase II: 75% PR (3 of 4). Case report: near clinical response ($N = 1$). Case report: 1 PR and 1 SD \geq 6 months ($N = 4$). Patients in all studies had <i>BRAF</i> V600E	Phase II and case reports	Hyman et al (8) Lee et al (136) Chamberlain (137)

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Table 3. Predictive value of *BRAF* mutations for BRAF and/or MEK inhibitor therapy in diverse cancers (Cont'd)

Cancer	% BRAF mutated	Treatment regimen	Reported outcomes	Comments	Reference
Papillary thyroid cancer	30%-80%	Selumetinib; dabrafenib; vemurafenib	Phase II: Longer PFS on selumetinib observed in <i>BRAF</i> V600E-mutated patients versus <i>BRAF</i> wild-type patients (33 vs. 11 weeks, respectively, $P = 0.3$). Phase I: 1 PR and 2 SD reported in one dabrafenib study ($N = 3$). 33% (3 of 10) with PR and 10% (1 of 10) with PD in another dabrafenib study. Phase I: 3 of 5 evaluable with CR or PR from vemurafenib; remaining 2 had SD. All patients in these studies had <i>BRAF</i> V600E-positive disease.	Phase II for selumetinib study; Phase I for dabrafenib studies; Phase I for vemurafenib study	Hayes et al (138) Kim et al (52) Falchook et al (40) Flaherty et al (35)
Anaplastic thyroid cancer	23% (139)	Vemurafenib	14% CR (1 of 7) and 14% PR (1 of 7); both patients with V600E	Phase II	Hyman et al (8)
Pancreatic cancer	1%-16%	Vemurafenib	One V600E-positive patient with SD lasting ~7 months (1 of 1)	Phase II	Hyman et al (8)
Thoracic clear cell sarcoma	4.5% (140)	Vemurafenib	One V600E-positive patient with CR (1 of 1)	Phase II	Hyman et al (8)
Salivary gland cancer	7% (141)	Vemurafenib	One V600E-positive patient with CR (1 of 1)	Phase II	Hyman et al (8)

NOTE: Key to drug actions: Dabrafenib = BRAF inhibitor; Selumetinib = MEK inhibitor; Vemurafenib = BRAF inhibitor. Abbreviations: CR, complete response; PR, partial response; SD, stable disease; PD, progressive disease.

patients, five (12%) achieved a partial response or better, including one (2%) complete response, with duration of response > 36 months; 24 patients (56%) achieved stable disease as best confirmed response. Ten patients (23%) remained in the study > 6 months.

Companion Diagnostics for *BRAF* Detection

There exist FDA-approved companion diagnostics for vemurafenib (COBAS 4800 BRAF V600 Mutation Test) to identify those melanoma patients harboring the *BRAF* V600E mutation (39, 48) and for the approved combination regimen of dabrafenib and trametinib (THxID BRAF kit) for those melanoma patients harboring the *BRAF* V600E or *BRAF* V600K mutation (41). However, these diagnostics, while well validated, are limited by their inability to detect other mutations, as well as amplifications and rearrangements in *BRAF*. They also cannot detect additional genomic abnormalities that coexist in most patient tumors. Other technologies such as next-generation sequencing are better suited to the more comprehensive analysis that is often needed (49).

Predictive Value of *BRAF* Mutations for BRAF and/or MEK Inhibitor Therapy in Diverse Cancers and Related Conditions

BRAF V600E mutation

Since the approval of vemurafenib for *BRAF* V600E-mutated melanoma, accumulating evidence presented in published reports supports the idea that what works for *BRAF* V600E-mutated melanoma is often also effective for other cancers characterized by the *BRAF* V600E aberration (Table 3). Dabrafenib was granted the Breakthrough Therapy designation for treatment of patients with metastatic *BRAF* V600E mutation-positive non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC; 50) based on a phase II study that reported a response rate of 54% for *BRAF* V600E mutation—positive, pre-

treated NSCLC patients receiving treatment with dabrafenib (51). A phase I study reported three papillary thyroid cancer patients whose disease was characterized by *BRAF* V600E, had either a partial response or stable disease in response to treatment with dabrafenib (52), a gastrointestinal stromal tumor patient whose tumor harbored the *BRAF* V600E mutation experienced continuing tumor regression while being treated with dabrafenib (53), a child with glioblastoma multiforme harboring the *BRAF* V600E aberration had complete clinical regression from treatment with vemurafenib (54), glioma patients whose tumors carried the *BRAF* V600E mutation were reported to respond to treatment with vemurafenib (55), and several case studies have reported clinical benefit from treatment with vemurafenib for *BRAF* V600E-mutated hairy cell leukemia patients (9, 56–58). One study consisting of three *BRAF* V600E-mutated multisystemic and refractory Erdheim-Chester disease patients reported substantial and rapid clinical and biologic improvement from treatment with vemurafenib lasting 4 months (10, 59). In addition, a phase II trial of vemurafenib in *BRAF* V600-mutated Erdheim-Chester disease (a non-Langerhans histiocytosis) and Langerhans cell histiocytosis reported an overall response rate (defined as percentage of patients with either complete or partial response) of 36.4%, with one patient achieving a complete response (9.1%) and three patients with partial response (27.3%); none of the 11 evaluable patients had progressive disease (60).

Of interest, a basket study of vemurafenib reported clinical activity of vemurafenib in predominantly *BRAF* V600E-mutated nonmelanoma cancers. Complete or partial responses, tumor regression and prolonged disease stabilization were observed in several tumor types including NSCLC, Erdheim-Chester disease or Langerhans' histiocytosis, anaplastic thyroid cancer, pleomorphic xanthoastrocytoma, cholangiocarcinoma, salivary-duct cancer, ovarian cancer, clear-cell sarcoma, glioblastoma, anaplastic ependymoma, pancreatic cancer, and carcinoma of unknown primary types, and among patients with colorectal cancer who received vemurafenib and cetuximab (8). This study confirms that multiple histologic types of cancer with *BRAF* mutations respond to

BRAF inhibitors, though precise response rates may differ (and were hard to elucidate exactly in this study since numbers of patients in each group were small). In some types of tumors (e.g., colorectal cancer), BRAF inhibitors need to be given with other drugs that impact resistance pathways.

BRAF mutations other than V600E

BRAF mutations affecting codon 600 have generally been associated with sensitivity to BRAF inhibitors, with the drugs vemurafenib and dabrafenib being approved for melanoma patients with the BRAF V600E mutation (39, 61), and trametinib approved for melanoma patients with the BRAF V600E and BRAF V600K mutation (62). The BRIM7 and coBRIM studies have reported mutations at codon 600 to be sensitive to combination therapies of the MEK inhibitor cobimetinib with vemurafenib (63, 64).

In addition, there are a few clinical reports on the responsiveness of BRAF mutations other than those affecting codon 600. A melanoma patient harboring the BRAF K601E aberration was reported to have prolonged partial response to the MEK inhibitor trametinib (65); however, two other melanoma patients harboring this aberration were reported to not derive clinical benefit from treatment with dabrafenib (40). Resistance to treatment, though, may not necessarily be due to insensitivity of the mutation, but rather to other unrelated molecular drivers that may be present in patients and supplant the role of BRAF. One patient with BRAF L597R-harboring melanoma was reported to derive clinical benefit after treatment with vemurafenib (66); however, L597R was also associated with disease progression in a melanoma patient with brain metastases who received BRAF inhibitor treatment (67). Again, it is plausible that the brain is a sanctuary in this patient, and that resistance may not be due to insensitivity to the drug. Similarly, a melanoma patient with the BRAF L597Q aberration had disease progression within 2 months of treatment with a BRAF inhibitor (67), but another melanoma patient with this aberration had a partial response to treatment with trametinib (68). Finally, a BRAF L597S-positive melanoma patient was reported to derive clinical benefit after treatment with the MEK inhibitor, TAK-733 (69).

Other activating mutations in BRAF affecting codons other than 600 that have been shown to be sensitive to either MEK inhibitors or BRAF inhibitors in preclinical studies include BRAF L597R, BRAF L597Q, BRAF L597S, and BRAF K601E (69). However, some activating mutations in BRAF have been shown to be less sensitive or even resistant to BRAF inhibitors in preclinical studies. For example, the activating BRAF L505H mutation appears to be resistant to vemurafenib (70). In addition, some mutations in BRAF, including substitutions at codon 466, are inactivating (18); BRAF inhibitors are predicted to be ineffective for such mutations.

BRAF Inhibitors in BRAF-Mutant Colorectal Cancer

Despite the evidence that BRAF inhibitors are efficacious in melanoma and several other different cancers characterized by the BRAF V600E mutation, at least one cancer type seems more resistant to these drugs—colorectal cancer. Fewer than 10% of BRAF V600E-mutated colorectal cancers have responded to BRAF inhibitor monotherapy in early-phase trials (40, 71). The underwhelming response of BRAF V600E-mutated colorectal

cancer patients to BRAF inhibitors initially may seem to provide evidence that biomarker-driven approaches to the treatment of cancers are not sufficient unless taken within histologic context. However, a deeper analysis of the literature appears to suggest otherwise.

Role of EGFR

Preclinical studies initially discovered that, in BRAF V600E-positive colorectal cancer cells, inhibition of BRAF V600E by vemurafenib results in decreased negative feedback of the EGFR pathway (72, 73). Therefore, the attenuated clinical response to vemurafenib in BRAF V600E-mutated colorectal cancer compared with BRAF V600E-mutated melanoma could be attributable to differences in the importance of the EGFR signal present in these two cancer types (74). Specifically, these studies reported that melanoma cells express low levels of EGFR and as such are not poised, as high EGFR-expressing colorectal cancer cells are, for vemurafenib-stimulated EGFR pathway activation. Both studies demonstrated that a combination of vemurafenib with an EGFR inhibitor, such as cetuximab, erlotinib, or gefitinib, in BRAF V600E-mutated colorectal cancer cells, inhibited vemurafenib-induced feedback activation of EGFR and increased therapeutic efficacy *in vitro* and in tumor xenografts (72, 73).

The therapeutic efficacy of a BRAF inhibitor in combination with an EGFR inhibitor observed in preclinical models has subsequently translated into clinical efficacy seen in patients. One case study described a patient with colorectal cancer whose tumor had both the BRAF V600E mutation and EGFR amplification, with a partial remission from the combination of vemurafenib and panitumumab (an EGFR antibody; 75). Another case study reported a patient with colorectal cancer whose tumor carried the BRAF V600E mutation and proved to be refractory to treatment with several drugs including cetuximab monotherapy, but achieved symptom stabilization from the combination of cetuximab and vemurafenib (76). Another case report described a BRAF V600E-mutated colorectal cancer patient who had a 7-month long PFS and mixed response to combination therapy of sorafenib, a weak BRAF inhibitor, and cetuximab, with some areas showing dramatic improvement and other areas showing stable disease (77). Recently, a vemurafenib basket study confirmed that, in colorectal cancer, salutary effects can be attained with the combination of vemurafenib and an EGFR inhibitor in BRAF-mutated colorectal cancer (8). Studies are now ongoing with these combinations [NCT01719380 (78), NCT01791309 (79), NCT01750918 (80)], with early promising results from NCT01719380 recently being presented at the 2014 and 2015 ASCO Annual Meeting. This phase I study of the BRAF inhibitor LGX818 in combination with cetuximab, with or without the PIK3CA inhibitor BYL719, in advanced BRAF-mutated and KRAS wild-type colorectal cancer patients reported no complete responses but 7 (~30%) partial responses from the dual combination of LGX818 with cetuximab and 6 (~30%) partial responses from the triple combination of LGX818, cetuximab, and BYL719 (81). Finally, preliminary results from a phase Ib trial of vemurafenib in combination with irinotecan and cetuximab in BRAF-mutated advanced cancers and colorectal cancer patients reported that 6 of 17 evaluable BRAF V600E-mutated colorectal cancer patients achieved a partial response Hong and colleagues (82).

Role of the PI3K/AKT/mTOR axis

Another perspective for this issue derives from studies showing that, in colorectal cancer patients, aberrations in the KRAS/BRAF

Table 4. Predictive value of *BRAF* mutations for BRAF and/or MEK inhibitor therapy in colorectal cancer

Type of study	Treatment regimen	Reported outcomes ^a	Reference
Phase II	Vemurafenib + cetuximab	0 CR, 0 PR, although one nonconfirmed patient had ~70% reduction target lesion size. 11 SD (65%). 6 PD (35%; <i>N</i> = 17).	Tabernero et al (142)
Phase II	Dabrafenib + trametinib	1 (3%) CR, 3 (9%) PR, 18 (53%) SD. Median PFS = 3.5 months (<i>N</i> = 34).	Corcoran et al (51)
Phase II	Vemurafenib + cetuximab	4% PR (1 of 26) and 19% with SD disease ≥ 6 months (5 of 26). 90% of patients had <i>BRAF</i> V600E and the other 10% were <i>BRAF</i> V600 unknown.	Hyman et al (8)
Phase ?	Vemurafenib + panitumumab + trametinib Dabrafenib + trametinib	26% (9 of 35) with CR or PR. 2% CR (1 of 43), 10% PR (4 of 43), 56% SD (24 of 43). 23% (10 patients) remained on study greater than 6 months. All patients with <i>BRAF</i> V600X.	Atreya et al (88) Corcoran et al (47)
Phase I/II	Dabrafenib + trametinib	1 (5%) PR, 10 (50%) SD. Minor responses (>10% to <30% tumor shrinkage) were observed in 4/10 patients (40%) with stable disease (<i>N</i> = 20).	Corcoran et al (143)
Phase I/II	Dabrafenib + trametinib	1 (2%) CR, 4 (9%) PR, 22 (51%) SD of which 11 (26%) patients had a minor response (10% to 30% tumor reduction; <i>N</i> = 43).	Corcoran et al (144)
Phase I/II	Vemurafenib + cetuximab; vemurafenib + cetuximab + trametinib	2 PR and 11 SD for vemurafenib + cetuximab combinations (<i>N</i> = 15). 1 CR, 5 PR, and 6 SD for vemurafenib + cetuximab + trametinib (<i>N</i> = 15).	Bendell et al (145)
Phase I	LGX818 + cetuximab +/- BYL719	7 PR (~30%) and 6 PR (30%) in dual and triple combinations, respectively.	Van Geel et al (81)
Phase I	Vemurafenib	1 PR and 4 SD (≥10% shrinkage). 5 patients showed a mixed response pattern (i.e., with both regressing and progressing lesions). Median PFS = 3.7 months (<i>N</i> = 19).	Kopetz et al (71)
Phase I	PLX3603	No PR, no SD > 16weeks (<i>N</i> = 3).	Dienstmann et al (146)
Phase I	Dabrafenib	1 PR with 72% decrease in tumor volume. 7 SD. (<i>N</i> = 9)	Falchook et al (40)
Phase Ib	Vemurafenib + cetuximab + irinotecan	35% PR (6 of 17).	Hong et al (82)

Abbreviations: CR, complete response; PR, partial response; SD, stable disease; PD, progressive disease.

^aKey to drug actions: Dabrafenib = BRAF inhibitor; Vemurafenib = BRAF inhibitor; PLX3603 = BRAF inhibitor; trametinib = MEK inhibitor; cetuximab = EGFR inhibitor; panitumumab = EGFR inhibitor.

axis often coexist with aberrations in the PI3K/AKT/mTOR axis (83–85), with each being a resistance pathway for the other (86, 87). These co-mutations occur in other cancers as well, but not as frequently.

Role of combinations of BRAF and MEK inhibitors

Finally, CRAF activation may occur as a resistance mechanism. Recently, *BRAF*-mutated colorectal cancer has been shown to respond to combinations of a BRAF inhibitor dabrafenib together with the MEK inhibitor trametinib. Of 43 patients, five (12%) achieved a partial response or better, including one (2%) complete response, with duration of response > 36 months; 24 patients (56%) achieved stable disease as best confirmed response. Ten patients (23%) remained in the study > 6 months (47).

Targeting multiple resistance pathways

Targeting multiple pathways of resistance in *BRAF*-mutated colorectal cancer may be the most efficacious route as suggested by recent preliminary results from a phase II study of the triple combination of vemurafenib, anti-EGFR antibody panitumumab, and trametinib versus dual combination therapy of vemurafenib with trametinib. The triple combination had acceptable tolerability and improved response rate as compared with doublet therapy in *BRAF* V600E-mutated colorectal cancer patients, with 9 (26%) of patients treated with the triple combination achieving either a partial or complete response as compared with 2 (10%) treated with the doublet combination (88). Table 4 summarizes clinical studies using BRAF and/or MEK inhibitors in the treatment of *BRAF*-mutated colorectal cancer.

BRAF in colorectal cancer summary and implications for resistance in other tumors

Taken together, it appears likely that *BRAF* mutations may indeed be actionable in colorectal cancers, but that a more complete picture of the molecular portfolio of the patient needs to be taken into account, and customized combinations created, a situation that is almost certainly relevant to other tumor types in which resistance pathways in addition to BRAF are also activated. These observations may also be relevant to *BRAF*-mutated melanoma, in that, patients who relapse or are resistant upfront to BRAF inhibitors may still need such a drug in their treatment regimen, albeit in combination with other drugs that target molecular aberrations that coexist and mediate resistance. Indeed, even melanoma patients whose tumors are sensitive to BRAF inhibitors probably need customized combinations, since most do not achieve complete remissions, and relapse after a few months is routinely observed. Several pre-clinical reports have identified mechanisms of resistance to BRAF inhibitors in *BRAF*-mutated melanoma that would suggest the use of specific BRAF inhibitor-containing combinations. These include but are not limited to generation of drug-tolerant microenvironments characterized by high integrin β1/FAK/Src signaling via paradoxical BRAF inhibitor-mediated activation of melanoma-associated fibroblasts (89; suggestive of use of BRAF inhibitor in combination with FAK or Src inhibitor), upregulation of many ERBB pathway genes in response to BRAF inhibition (90; suggestive of use of BRAF inhibitor in combination with ERBB inhibitors), and BRAF inhibitor-induced activation of cryoprotective autophagy (91;

suggestive of use of BRAF inhibitor in combination with autophagy inhibitor).

Final Perspectives

A key question for the treatment of cancer in the emerging genomics era is whether or not we can extrapolate predictive data on a biomarker for a given targeted therapy in one cancer to another cancer. In this scenario, clinical research-informed treatment options from one histology with that biomarker are applied to another cancer type with that same biomarker where such research is not available or limited in scope. The corollary to this question is whether or not the biomarker defines the tumor and represents a nosology in and of itself. Herein, we have used *BRAF*-mutant cancers as one example in support of such a restructuring of cancer classification, but others have proposed a similar genetic-centric nosology such as ALKomas for tumors encompassing multiple organs but harboring aberrations in ALK that have either been shown to or are likely to respond to ALK inhibitors (92). While not clear-cut, increasingly the data show that the presence of certain genomic drivers, such as *BRAF* aberrations, predicts response to cognate inhibitors across multiple (though not all) tumor types. Even in tumors such as colorectal cancer that are considered an important exception, emerging data suggest that *BRAF* is a relevant target, but must be prosecuted in the context of combination therapy (e.g., a *BRAF* inhibitor together with a *EGFR* or *MEK* inhibitor) that impacts pertinent coactivated pathways. Indeed, an important lesson from the "resistance" of *BRAF*-mutant colon cancer may be extrapolated to "sensitive" tumors such as melanoma, in that most patients with *BRAF*-mutant melanoma do not achieve complete remissions on *BRAF* inhibitors and they often relapse within months; these "sensitive" tumors, like "resistant" *BRAF*-mutant colorectal cancer, may require combination regimens to overcome the therapeutic plateau.

It seems that the current research points to a fork in the road. On the one hand, the approach might be to continue to explore and approve genomic marker-driven treatments histology by histology. The advantage to this strategy is more definitive data in each defined histology. The disadvantages, however, are substantial. Most importantly, it will be nearly impossible from the point of view of resources to perform studies for each biomarker within each histology or each organ of origin for a tumor. Therefore, one of the key points that should be established is the overall response rates in bucket, histology-agnostic biomarker driven trials, and whether these response and benefit rates suggest that patients are better off being treated on the basis of the biomarker, regardless of histology, or by classic treatments. A related alternative is to approve the targeted therapy across tumor types, but require post-approval outcome collection, perhaps within a phase IV setting such that indications can be refined if needed. The basic principle of clinical

research should be maintained, that is, showing that, overall, patients have improved outcomes with a certain approach. Importantly, nonresponding patients regardless of histology may have additional genetic drivers, be it co-mutations in a given biomarker, or alterations in other biomarkers, that may provide a biologic rationale for their lack of response and suggest new drug development opportunities or combinations therapies that may be more effective for these patients, with *BRAF*-mutated colorectal cancer being an emerging example of the latter.

In conclusion, it is increasingly clear that many oncogenic drivers do not segregate by organ of tumor origin. In these cases, a new method of classifying cancers on the basis of the genomic aberration itself may be useful. New trial designs, such as histology-agnostic, genomically defined bucket trials are being used more frequently. Using the example of *BRAF* aberrations, the literature shows that this powerful driver is present in multiple tumor types and that the use of cognate inhibitors can be effective across many, even if not all, tumor types. Touted exceptions such as colorectal cancer, however, may still be responsive to *BRAF* inhibitors, albeit at lower rates. Furthermore, when important coexisting pathways such as *EGFR* or *CRAF* that drive innate resistance are taken into consideration, and combination therapy given (e.g., combine *BRAF* and *EGFR* inhibitor regimens or *BRAF* and *MEK* inhibitors in colorectal cancer), impressive responses can be seen. By the same token, even in histologic types with high response rates, there are nonresponders as well as a large numbers of patients that relapse after *BRAF* inhibitor monotherapy. In order to abrogate resistance, these tumors may require combination strategies that include a *BRAF* inhibitor and a drug that impacts other concomitantly activated driver pathways. Indeed, in melanoma, the combination of a *BRAF* and *MEK* inhibitor is associated with outcomes superior to *BRAF* inhibitor therapy alone (46). Taken together, these observations suggest that consideration for genomically based approval strategies are rational and merit consideration.

Disclosure of Potential Conflicts of Interest

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