

## Review Article

# Molecular markers and targeted therapy in central nervous system metastases of ovarian cancer: a review

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**Abstract:** Brain metastases of ovarian cancer are a rare occurrence, most often presenting in advanced stages of disease. The incidence of brain metastases of ovarian cancer appears to be increasing in recent years, prompting the search for markers that predict metastatic disease in the brain and development of more effective treatment methods. Current treatment methods include surgical resection, systemic therapy, and radiation, and studies show that a combination of treatment methods is most effective in treating brain metastases. Targeted therapy has become increasingly important in the treatment of brain metastases across various tumor types. Identification of driver genetic alterations, or differential RNA and protein expression involved in ovarian cancer brain metastases would allow for the development of individualized treatment methods with improved intracranial access. Genetic analysis of primary ovarian tumors that metastasized to the brain provides information on the molecular profile of the tumor itself as well as tumor microenvironment that predispose some ovarian cancers to more likely metastasize to the brain.

**Keywords:** Ovarian cancer, brain metastasis, targeted therapy, blood-brain barrier

## Introduction

Ovarian cancer is the fifth leading cause of cancer deaths among women, and accounts for more deaths than any other gynecologic cancer. An estimated 1.3% of women will be diagnosed with ovarian cancer at some point in their lifetime [1]. It was previously estimated that in 2016 there would be 22,280 new cases of ovarian cancer in the United States, and 14,240 disease-related deaths [2]. The disease can present itself with a number of symptoms, including bloating, abdominal pain, frequent urination, and difficulty eating [3]. Awareness of symptoms is important, as early diagnosis significantly increases survival. Unfortunately, upon diagnosis the majority of cases (85%) present with advanced stage III/IV disease [4]. Treatment typically consists of surgical debulking, followed by platinum and taxane chemotherapy. After completing primary treatment, the average progression-free survival is approximately 18 months, and 75% of patients then experience a recurrence. The five-year

overall survival for advanced stage ovarian cancer is approximately 30% [5].

Ovarian cancer metastases tend to be localized in the abdomen or pelvis, with up to 85% of cases presenting with local recurrence [6]. Distal metastases are less frequent, most commonly occurring in the pleura, liver, and lung [7]. Brain metastases (BM) of ovarian cancer are a rare and late occurrence, with recent estimates of 0.5-12% of cases [7]. Difficulty in establishing true incidence is largely due to the fact that brain imaging is not a part of routine follow-up for ovarian cancer patients. Brain metastases most commonly occur in advanced stage, platinum-sensitive serous ovarian cancer, and most patients present with extracranial metastases at time of diagnosis [8-10]. Ovarian cancer brain metastases may present with isolated or multiple lesions, with symptoms depending on the site of the lesion. They most commonly present in the brain parenchyma, with a small percentage of cases (8%) presenting with leptomeningeal spread [11]. Sites of ovarian cancer

brain metastasis most commonly include the cerebellum (30%), followed by frontal, parietal, and occipital lobes [12]. Notably, the incidence of brain metastases appears to be rising in recent years, most likely due to prolonged survival as a result of improved treatment methods such as surgical resection combined with platinum-based chemotherapy [13, 14].

Brain metastases most frequently occur within 1-2 years following diagnosis of ovarian cancer, and, as reported by past literature, median survival after diagnosis of brain metastasis is 4-5 months [14]. However, as treatment and diagnosis methods have improved over the years, the patient survival after diagnosis of brain metastasis of ovarian cancer has significantly increased. Due to the rarity of brain metastasis in ovarian cancer, treatment options are limited, and defined treatment methods have not been established. Treatment is particularly challenging for a number of reasons, including the difficulty of overcoming the blood-brain barrier, genetic divergence of brain metastases from the primary tumor and other extracranial metastases, and the build-up of chemotherapy resistance from repeated exposure to chemotherapy [15]. These factors make brain metastases of special interest, particularly in the era of molecularly targeted agents. By characterizing the molecular composition of the primary tumor and tumor microenvironment of ovarian cancers that metastasize to the brain, one can establish prognostic biomarkers and develop individualized treatments for patients with brain metastasis. The development of future targeted molecular therapy agents involves identifying clinically actionable genetic mutations and proteins associated with metastasis to the brain, and improving the penetration of small molecule agents across the blood-brain barrier.

In addition to ovarian brain metastases, increased incidence of brain metastases has been noted across various other cancer types, due largely to increased efficacy of systemic therapies [14-16]. Patient survival has significantly improved, and CNS involvement becomes increasingly likely in later stages of disease progression [17]. Introduction of targeted therapy and immunotherapy has increased survival with metastatic melanoma, and it is expected that the incidence of melanoma brain metastases will increase in upcoming years as the patients live longer with the primary disease

[18, 19]. In non-small cell lung cancer, the use of EGFR tyrosine kinase inhibitors has resulted in significantly prolonged survival. Interestingly, it has been found that patients with an *EGFR* mutation have a significantly higher incidence of brain metastasis [16, 20, 21]. Recently, newly developed ALK inhibitors with increased intracranial efficacy have further improved overall survival in non-small cell lung cancer [22, 23]. A mutated *ALK* gene is present in 5% of NSCLC cases, and can be treated more successfully with an ALK inhibitor such as crizotinib [24]. However, the lack of penetration of the blood-brain barrier by crizotinib, and development of resistance to treatment has resulted in frequent cases of brain metastasis [24-26]. The use of newly developed ALK inhibitors post-crizotinib therapy significantly increases overall survival, with a median overall survival of 89.6 months after diagnosis of metastatic disease, compared to 28.2 months with other therapeutic agents [27, 28].

### Blood-brain barrier (BBB) disruption

The difficulty of treatment of ovarian brain metastases can be attributed to the lack of blood brain barrier penetration by systemic therapy, as well as the molecular divergence of brain metastases from the primary tumor and other extracranial metastases. The efficacy of BBB disruption in treatment of ovarian brain metastasis has been studied in clinical trials and animal models. One method for the treatment of ovarian carcinoma brain metastases is intraarterial delivery (IA) of chemotherapy agents in combination with temporary blood brain barrier disruption [29]. Of the five ovarian cancer patients with brain metastases, four received IA with BBB disruption, while one received IA without BBB disruption [29]. Four patients had complete response, and two of the five patients with complete response remained in complete response after 34.1 and 27.8 months [29]. Another study involving a mouse model examined the effects of multi-drug efflux transporters BRCP and P-gp on the oral availability and brain penetrance of rucaparib, a PARP inhibitor recently approved for the treatment of advanced breast and ovarian cancer [30]. ABC transporters such as P-gp and BRCP have high expression in the blood-brain barrier, and affect the intracranial availability of therapeutic agents [31, 32]. The results of the study showed that rucaparib is a substrate of the ATP-binding cassette transporters BRCP

(breast cancer resistance protein) and P-glycoprotein, and that P-gp and BRCP significantly restrict brain penetrance of the PARP inhibitor [30]. Blocking specific multidrug efflux transporters at the blood brain barrier, may temporarily permeate the BBB to allow entry of targeted molecular agents or chemotherapy agents.

### **Blood-brain barrier circumvention**

To increase the intracranial availability of small molecules or chemotherapy agents, drug delivery can be combined with a method of blood brain barrier circumvention. Various strategies of BBB circumvention have been studied in clinical trials and animal models. A study done on mice investigated the selective permeation of the blood brain barrier at sites of brain metastases by using tumor necrosis factor (TNF) to transiently permeate tumor vasculature [33]. TNFR1 and TNFR2 are endogenous receptors of TNF that are found in tumor vasculature and the tumor microenvironment, but do not appear in normal brain tissue [33]. TNFR1 staining was found to be concentrated on the vascular endothelium, while TNFR2 was co-localized with microglia and leukocytes in the tumor microenvironment [33]. Results showed that applying TNF caused significant blood-brain barrier permeation at sites of brain metastases, but not in other regions of the brain [33]. In six cases of human brain metastases, similar expression of TNFR1 and TNFR2 was found, although no clinical trials have been conducted with TNF [33]. Other methods for BBB circumvention include delivering focused ultrasound in combination with microbubbles directly to the site of brain metastasis, and coupling receptor-mediated uptake mechanisms at the blood-brain barrier to a therapeutic agent [34]. Future strategies for blood brain barrier circumvention may involve identifying specific targetable surface proteins at the BBB vasculature that can be used for transcytosis of molecular agents [35].

Current treatment approaches for metastatic disease in the brain depend on tumor number, location and size, and can include radiation therapy, systemic therapy, surgical resection, and stereotactic radiosurgery [9]. *Marcetti et al.* reported that survival rates improved with multimodal vs. unimodal treatment, with median survival rates of 22 months vs. 5 months, respectively [10].

### **Whole-brain radiation therapy (WBRT)**

WBRT, with or without chemotherapy, is commonly used for treatment of multiple brain metastases. However, it is associated with neurocognitive deterioration and decline in quality of life [36, 37]. One study found that whole-brain radiation markedly reduces hippocampal neurogenesis, and hippocampal avoidance during radiotherapy may be effective in reducing negative consequences of radiation to the brain [38]. The hippocampus is involved in memory formation, spatial navigation, and mood, and its proper function is critical to cognitive health.

### **Systemic therapy**

Though chemotherapy is largely ineffective in treating brain metastases due to difficulty of overcoming the blood-brain barrier, newly developed small-molecule targeted agents and immunotherapies are increasingly effective in treating brain metastases and systemic disease. Targeted therapies have been effective in treating systemic cancer, and show increased intracranial efficacy compared to standard chemotherapy [39]. Currently used targeted therapy and immunotherapy in melanoma includes BRAF and MEK inhibitors, as well as anti-PD-1 and anti-CTLA-4 therapy [40, 41]. In non-small cell lung cancer, targeted therapy includes EGFR inhibitors and ALK inhibitors [23, 24, 42]. The use of BRAF inhibitors in the treatment of melanoma brain metastases has resulted in improved survival of 7.9 months after diagnosis of brain metastasis, compared to 2-4 months without targeted therapy [19, 43]. The delivery of targeted therapy in conjunction with radiotherapy has also shown promising results [44]. In one study, non-small cell lung cancer and breast cancer patients were treated with WBRT in combination with lapatinib, an EGFR and HER2 tyrosine kinase inhibitor that has been shown to be active in brain metastases, and sensitizes tumor cells to radiation [45]. Of the 43 patients with volumetric assessment before and after treatment, 62.8% has partial responses, and 32.9% had stable disease post-treatment [45].

### **Driver mutations in ovarian cancer brain metastases**

The development of targeted agents for treatment of brain metastasis of ovarian cancer

## Molecular markers of ovarian cancer brain metastases

**Table 1.** Ovarian cancer driver mutations

| Primary ovarian cancer              | Gene alterations   | Brain metastasis Gene alterations            |
|-------------------------------------|--|--|
| Low grade, endometrioid, borderline | <i>BRAF</i><br><i>KRAS</i><br><i>ERBB2</i>   |  |
| High grade                          | PI3K/AKT pathway<br><i>CDKN2A/B</i><br><i>RB1</i><br><i>BRCA1/2</i><br><i>AKT2</i> | <i>BRCA1/2</i><br><i>ATM</i><br><i>CHEK2</i> |

Modified from: Lengyel [5].

begins with identifying driver genetic alterations or proteins that can be successfully targeted with a molecular agent. Potentially actionable mutations may be selected from previously identified driver mutations of primary ovarian cancer, as well as driver genetic alterations in intracranial metastases of ovarian cancer (**Table 1**). Literature on the brain metastasis of ovarian cancer does not typically specify whether the brain metastasis developed from a high-grade or low-grade ovarian carcinoma. Although brain metastases are known to more frequently develop from high-grade ovarian carcinoma, there are likely cases of brain metastasis from low-grade ovarian cancer. Next-generation sequencing of samples of ovarian cancer brain metastases has identified frequent mutations in DNA repair genes *BRCA1/2*, *ATM*, and *CHEK2*, *BRCA1* being the most commonly altered gene [46]. Other studies comparing primary ovarian cancer and brain metastases have found differential expression in *MDR-1*, *FGFR-1*, and *MYC* [47]. Another gene of interest is *ERBB2*, which was found to have increased expression in the brain metastases of an ovarian cancer patient [47]. *ERBB2* is also notable for its significantly increased expression in breast cancer brain metastases [48]. Due to the limitation of small sample size in studies of ovarian cancer brain metastases, additional studies are needed to determine if these molecules are significant biomarkers.

### RNA sequencing

Differential RNA expression has been identified in various cancers that commonly metastasize to the brain, including melanoma, lung cancer, and breast cancer [49, 50]. RNA sequencing of non-small cell lung cancer brain metastases

has identified a critical gene for the process of brain metastasis [51] Expression of *ACTN4*, which has been found to promote metastasis and chemoresistance across various histologies, including ovarian cancer, was found to have significantly increased expression in the brain metastases of a lung cancer patient [51-53].

### Differential protein expres-

#### sion

On a protein level, androgen receptors (AR) and estrogen receptors have been found to have significantly decreased expression in brain metastases compared to primary tumor samples of ovarian cancer [7]. Patients with AR-negative ovarian cancer were almost ten times more likely to develop brain metastasis [7]. In addition, one study found differential expression in *ENO1*, *TPI-1*, and *TAGLN2*, when comparing primary and metastatic ovarian tumors [54]. *ENO1* and *TPI-1* are enzymes involved in the glycolytic pathway, while *TAGLN2* acts to suppress the metastatic activity of tumors [54]. Yet another study showed that increased expression of *CD133* in primary ovarian cancer is associated with poorer survival and greater risk of developing intracranial metastases [55].

With limited information on the development on brain metastases of ovarian cancer, it is useful to analyze the brain metastases of cancers that more frequently metastasize to the brain. Genes and proteins frequently implicated in the brain metastasis of lung cancer, melanoma, and breast cancer are generally involved with blood-brain barrier penetration, angiogenesis, cell migration/motility, and cell adhesion [56]. Pathways and gene networks frequently implicated in the development of BM across various histologies include the PI3K-AKT-mTOR pathway, HER2- and GABA-receptor signaling, CDK pathway, and DNA double-strand break repair [56, 57] (**Table 2**). In a clinical example, a patient with *ERBB2*-amplified brain metastases who was initially determined to be HER2-negative, was offered HER2-targeted treatment and is now alive with stable metastatic disease [57]. Other commonly altered genes include

## Molecular markers of ovarian cancer brain metastases

**Table 2.** Brain metastasis (BM) driver mutations

| BM primary cancer | Mutated genes                                   | Genes with greater expression in BM                                     | Genes with decreased expression in BM   |
|-------------------|---|---|---|
| NSCLC             | <i>AKT1</i><br><i>PI3KCA</i>                    | <i>C-MET</i>  |   |
| Breast            | <i>PI3KCA</i><br><i>MAP3K4</i><br><i>COL5A1</i> | <i>ERBB2</i><br><i>PI3KCA</i><br><i>ST6GALNAC5FOXMI</i><br><i>FGFR1</i> | <i>PTEN</i><br><i>ITPR1</i><br><i>ESR1</i>  |
| Melanoma          | <i>NRAS</i><br><i>KIT</i><br><i>BRAF</i>        | PI3K pathway  | <i>CDKN2A</i><br><i>PTEN</i>  |
| Lung              | <i>KRAS</i><br><i>NRAS</i><br><i>BRAF</i>       | <i>PI3KCA</i><br><i>FGFR1</i><br><i>BRAF</i><br><i>KRAS</i>             | <i>KRAS</i><br><i>CDKN2A</i><br><i>CDK6</i><br><i>EGFR</i><br><i>MET</i><br><i>AKT1</i> |
| Ovarian           | <i>BRCA1/2</i><br><i>ATM</i><br><i>CHEK2</i>    | <i>ERBB2</i>  |   |

Modified from: [46, 48, 56, 57, 61-64].

HER3 and HER4, which were highly expressed in brain metastasis from multiple primary cancer types [57].

### Response assessment/imaging

Following the delivery of treatment, the next step for successful treatment of brain metastases is accurate assessment of response to treatment. Response assessment for brain metastasis post-treatment is composed of brain imaging and measurement of patient cognitive performance. Common challenges encountered during brain imaging include differentiating between pseudo-progression or pseudo-response caused by chemotherapy or radiation, and true tumor growth or response [58, 59]. Pseudo-progression is an increase in contrast enhancement that is observed in 10-30% of patients immediately after chemotherapy treatment [58]. Other agents may cause pseudo-response, characterized by a decrease in contrast enhancement immediately after initiation of therapy [58]. To address these issues, a group of physicians have established the Response Assessment in Neuro-Oncology (RANO) criteria, which may help to eliminate discrepancies and to increase agreement between observers [58]. Discrepancies in

assessment are also encountered during clinician observation of patient performance. The standard method for measurement of functional performance during routine follow-up is the Karnofsky performance test. The new Neurologic Assessment in Neuro-Oncology (NANO) scale is a quantifiable assessment of patient performance, that improves consistency and accuracy in assessment between observers [58, 60].

### Conclusion

Treatment of brain metastasis of ovarian cancer is particularly difficult due to the challenge of crossing the blood-brain barrier, as well as the molecular divergence of brain metastases from the primary tumor and other metastatic sites. A multimodal treatment approach has been shown to be most effective in treating brain

metastases, though better response may be achieved through targeted therapy, with or without blood-brain barrier circumvention. Recently, genetic alterations and differential protein expression have been shown to be associated with ovarian cancer brain metastasis. However, due to the rarity of intracranial metastasis in ovarian cancer, there is limited information on the molecular profile of brain metastasis and why some ovarian cancers metastasize to the brain. With information on driver genetic alterations associated with brain metastasis of cancers that more frequently metastasize to this site, some insight may be gained on pathways or genes likely to be involved in brain metastasis of ovarian cancer. Genotyping and RNA sequencing of ovarian cancer primary tumor and corresponding brain metastases may also reveal up-regulated or down-regulated proteins that can be targeted with a small molecule agent. Additional molecular analysis of ovarian cancer intracranial metastases as well as the molecular profile of the primary tumor and tumor microenvironment is necessary for the development of individualized therapy for patients who face this devastating prognosis. Methods of blood-brain barrier circumvention may be combined with targeted therapy to improve the access of systemic therapy to the brain.

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