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Radioiodine-refractory thyroid cancer: a complex challenge

Running Title: Radioiodine-refractory thyroid cancer

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3 Differentiated thyroid cancer (DTC) accounts for more than 90% of thyroid cancers and has a
4 typically favourable prognosis (10-year survival rate above 85%). During the last decades, the
5 diagnosis of this tumor has made huge strides with the widespread use of neck ultrasonography, fine
6 needle aspiration biopsy and genetic testing.¹⁻³ Indeed, DTC is the most frequent endocrine cancer
7 and represents the most rapidly increasing human cancer worldwide.

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10 Thyroidectomy is the mainstay of treatment for this disease. Postoperative radioactive iodine (RAI)
11 therapy represents the “magic bullet” for a targeted treatment of DTC. RAI is used to ablate residual
12 thyroid tissue, eliminate suspected micrometastases or known advanced disease. However, about 60-
13 70% of patients with metastatic disease are or will become refractory to RAI. In patients with RAI-
14 refractory DTC (RR-DTC) the 10-year survival rate drops to 10-20%.^{4,5} Although the management
15 and follow-up of patients with DTC is quite well-standardized,⁶ the occurrence of RAI resistance
16 represents a complex challenge.⁷

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19 In patients with RR-DTC and single lesion or few metastatic lesions within the same organ, loco-
20 regional therapies (surgery, external-beam radiation therapy, radiofrequency ablation, and ethanol
21 ablation or embolization) are suggested.^{7,8}

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24 In patients with progressive or symptomatic plurimetastatic disease, medical therapy with multi-
25 kinase inhibitors (MKIs) has been recently adopted. Sorafenib is a protein kinase inhibitor with
26 activity against vascular endothelial growth factor receptor (VEGFR), platelet derived growth factor
27 receptor (PDGFR), rearranged during transfection (RET) and BRAF. Lenvatinib is a MKI targeting
28 VEGFRs, fibroblast growth factor receptor (FGFR), PDGFR, stem cell factor receptor (KIT), and
29 RET. Both sorafenib and lenvatinib prolonged progression-free survival compared with placebo in
30 randomized phase 3 trials enrolling patients with RR-DTC. Indeed, sorafenib and lenvatinib are
31 approved and used in daily clinical practice in several countries for patients with RR-DTC.
32 Unfortunately, the toxicity of these compounds could have a detrimental effect on the quality of life
33 of patients. Although randomized controlled trials comparing sorafenib with lenvatinib are not

1 available in patients with RR-DTC, their efficacy and side effect profiles appear comparable.
2
3 However, the optimal timing of MKIs initiation and drugs selection have long been controversial.
4
5 Future studies will need to better define the indications and timing for these systemic therapies in RR-
6
7 DTC. In addition, the response of MKIs are not durable once patients stop taking the medications.
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9 Furthermore, resistance to MKIs has been reported after long-term use.^{4,9}
10
11 Several other MKIs (cabozantinib, vandetanib, pazopanib, axitinib, anlotinib, etc) are available and
12
13 have been recently adopted with encouraging results in phase I/II clinical trials in patients with RR-
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15 DTC.^{4,9} This arsenal could be also used as a second line therapy in patients resistant to sorafenib or
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17 lenvatinib. Brose et al. reported a randomised, double-blind, placebo-controlled, phase 3 trial,
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19 enrolling 187 patients with RR-DTC who showed disease progression while taking prior MKIs. They
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21 were then administered cabozantinib (n=125) or placebo (n=62) with a significant improvement in
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23 progression-free survival after cabozantinib over placebo.¹⁰
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26 One mechanism involved in the development RR-DTC is impairment of the sodium-iodine symporter
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28 through genetic alterations of the RTK/BRAF/MAPK/ERK and PI3K/AKT/mTOR pathways.⁹
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30 Indeed, BRAF is the most prevalent genetic alteration in metastatic RR-DTC patients. BRAF V600E
31
32 mutant DTCs are more aggressive tumors and less responsive to RAI. Starting from these
33
34 assumptions, strategies to re-sensitize tumors to RAI utilizing BRAF and MEK inhibitors (dabrafenib,
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36 vemurafenib and selumetinib) have been recently evaluated in small series of patients with RR-DTC,
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38 showing a direct antitumor-activity and an increase in RAI uptake in about 40-60% of patients.^{9, 11}
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40 Preliminary data are also available about the use of new compounds (pralsetinib, RXDX-105,
41
42 selpercatinib, pioglitazone and larotrectinib) targeting chimeric kinases resulting by fusions or
43
44 rearrangements in thyroid cancer cells, particularly RET fusions, PAX8/PPAR γ , NTRK or ALK
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46 rearrangements. Interestingly, pralsetinib and selpercatinib showed an objective response in 89% and
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48 79% of patients with RET fusion-positive thyroid cancer, respectively.^{12, 13}
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51 DTC has one of the lowest cancer mutational burdens. This renders DTC poorly immunogenic and
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53 less responsive to immunotherapy.⁸
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1 In conclusions, the clinical management of RR-DTC represents a complex challenge requiring a
2 multidisciplinary approach for the decision making of these patients by an expert panel. A precision
3 medicine perspective could result in major improvements in RR-DTC, especially due to its
4 complexity and interpatient variability. Future efforts should be dedicated:
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- 9 - to clearly identify which drug to be used first and when a targeted therapy should be started
10 on the bases of predictive biomarkers. These factors are strongly needed to customize
11 treatment strategies. With the wide-spread application of genomic sequencing and greater
12 understanding of predictive biomarkers this aim will hopefully be achieved.¹⁴
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- 18 - to discover new potential targets.
19
- 20 - to the development of new animal models for RR-DTC, as recently achieved in other
21 endocrine tumors, to perform high-throughput screening of novel anti-cancer drugs, as well
22 as to test multi-targeted agents and combination therapies.¹⁵
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