Src tyrosine kinase as a chemotherapeutic target: is there a clinical case?

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Src tyrosine kinase was the first protooncogene described. It has been found to be overexpressed and activated in a large number of different cancers. Cellular Src has been shown to activate a number of different effectors that are involved in different aspects of cancer biology such as metastasis, cell cycle regulation and cell survival. Despite this, Src inhibitors have not entered the regular arsenal of chemotherapeutics. This article reviews some of the biology, rationale, in vitro and in vivo preclinical evidence, and some very early clinical trials demonstrating efficacy of Src inhibitors. Anti-Cancer Drugs 17:123-131 © 2006 Lippincott Williams & Wilkins.

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Introduction

Src tyrosine kinase was the first characterized protooncogene. Pioneering work on the Rous sarcoma virus, for which Src is named, and the viral derivative (v-src) of the cellular src gene (c-src) has yielded two Nobel prizes [1].

Like its viral counterpart, c-srr encodes a non-receptor tyrosine kinase, c-Src [2,3]. In normal cells c-Src kinase activity is tightly regulated. For the most part, c-Src exists in an inactive state and becomes transiently activated during certain cellular events, including mitosis and neural development [4,5]. Cellular Src is a key element in various signaling pathways (Fig. 1) involved in proliferation, maintenance of normal intercellular contacts and cell motility [6]. The c-Src protein consists of a C-terminal tail, four Src homology (SH) domains and a unique Nterminal domain. Positive regulation of c-Src is accomplished through autophosphorylation of Tyr419 (Tyr416 in chickens), which is necessary for optimal activity. The negative regulation of c-Src involves intramolecular interactions between the C-terminal domain and SH2/SH3 domains. When Tyr530 in the human c-Src protein (Tyr527 in chicken) is phosphorylated it binds to its own SH2 domain and the protein assumes a closed, inactive conformation (Fig. 2). When this tyrosine is displaced from the SH2 domain and dephosphorylated the protein assumes an open configuration, exposing the kinase domain, SH1 [7]. This active configuration also allows association with other signaling molecules through the SH2 and SH3 domains [8]. The SH4 domain is required for myristylation of the protein, allowing membrane localization, which is considered essential for cellular transformation [9,10].

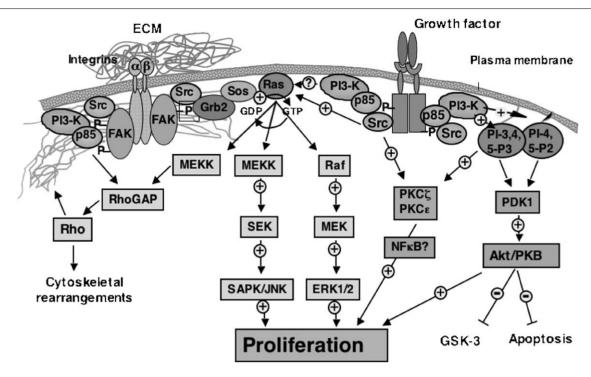
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Src in cancer

Src family kinases, in general, and c-Src, specifically, act at points of integration, relaying signals from cell surface receptors to the nucleus. As such, c-Src mediates many different cell fate decisions. c-Src activation has been associated with proliferation, survival, differentiation and motility (Fig. 1) in both normal and transformed cells [6,11,12].

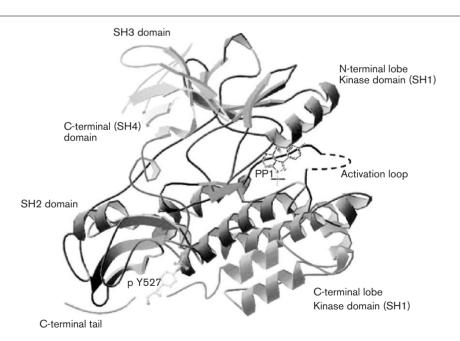
Activating c-Src mutations have been described in a small subset of colon [13] and endometrial [14] cancers; however, these seem to be relatively rare. Rather, a far more common observation is the overexpression and increased activity of c-Src. Increased c-Src expression and/or activity has been described for many different cancers, including colorectal [15,16], breast [17,18], hepatocellular [19], pancreatic [20], prostate [21,22], lung [23] and ovarian [24] carcinomas. Several possible explanations have been proposed for the increased activity of c-Src in human cancers. These include activation by receptor tyrosine kinases, including epidermal growth factor (EGF) receptor [25], platelet-derived growth factor (PDGF) receptor [26], ErbB2 [27], fibroblast growth factor (FGF) receptor [28], colonystimulating factor-1 [29] and hepatocyte growth factor receptor [30]; insufficient activity of Csk or Csk homologous kinase (Chk), which phosphorylate c-Src at Tyr530, negatively regulating c-Src activity [31]; and increased phosphatase activity, such as protein tyrosine phosphatase (PTP)-α [32] and PTP-1B [33], leading to removal of the c-Src C-terminal negative regulating phosphate group.

Fig. 1



Selected signaling pathways involving Src tyrosine kinase.

Fig. 2



Ribbon structure of Tyr527 phosphorylated inactive Src tyrosine kinase [129] in complex with the Src selective inhibitor PP1.

Studies using v-Src or activated c-Src to model c-Src overexpression and activation have demonstrated that increased c-Src activity is associated with various

oncogenic characteristics, including disruption of the cell cycle, protection from apoptotic stimuli, increased cellular motility, and invasive capacity and stimulation of angiogenesis. Increased c-Src activity is associated with decreased expression of the cyclin-dependent kinase (CDK) inhibitor, p27 [34], and a concomitant increase in expression of cyclins A, D and E, and CDK2, as well as a hyperphosphorylation of the tumor suppressor retinoblastoma (pRb) [8]. The end result is rapid, unchecked progression through G₁ phase to the S phase of the cell cycle [35].

Epithelial cells transformed by v-src are protected from death due to detachment from the extracellular matrix (ECM) (or anoikis), through activation of the phosphotidylinositol-3-kinase/Akt pathway [36]. Increased c-Src activity also results in focal adhesion kinase (FAK) activation, inducing increased focal adhesion disassembly and disruption of the associated actin filaments, ultimately increasing cell motility [37] and protection from anoikis [38]. Additionally, c-Src activation induces phosphorylation of β_3 integrin and a decrease of $\alpha_v \beta_3$ adhesion to fibronectin [39] as well as p190 RhoGAP, p120 RasGAP and cortactin, all of which play roles to increase cellular motility [40]. c-Src activation affects cellular adhesion to the ECM by inducing phosphorylation of R-Ras, a member of the Ras GTPase superfamily. R-Ras and c-Src form a complex that suppresses integrin activity and reduces cell-matrix adhesion [41]. c-Src has been shown to suppress E-cadherin localization and function at adherens junctions [42], perhaps by phosphorylation and ubiquitylation of E-cadherin complexes [43] resulting in decreased homotypic adhesion and increased invasion [44]. Finally, there is evidence that c-Src may regulate matrix metalloproteinases (MMPs) and inhibitors of MMPs [45,46], increasing the degradation of the ECM, and further enhancing cell motility and invasive capacity.

In addition to cellular motility and invasion, c-Src also regulates molecules that are associated with angiogenesis, an important component of tumor growth. For example, c-Src has been shown to activate STAT3, which results in increased vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) expression [47,48]. It has also been demonstrated that c-Src is required for hypoxia-induced VEGF production [49]. Independent of angiogenesis, activation of STAT-3 by c-Src has other consequences important for cancer progression, including cell growth and survival, as well as tumor cell immune evasion [50].

Given that c-Src plays such a pivotal role in so many aspects of the oncogenic process, it may seem surprising that c-Src has not been seen as a primary chemotherapeutic target. The lack of enthusiasm may stem from the ubiquitous expression of c-Src leading to the supposition that c-Src inhibition would result in major side-effects. However, the relatively mild phenotype of src knockout mice argues against this [51]. In fact, the impaired bone resorption associated with c-Src inhibition

may be beneficial [52,53]. The apparent dearth of documentation of activating mutations may have also led investigators to discount or underestimate the role of c-Src in tumor progression. The realization of significant c-Src activation in many types of cancers has prompted a resurgence in the interest of c-Src as a target [54,55]. A major challenge is the design of small molecules with suitable specificity and bioavailability.

Src inhibitors

Src inhibitors may be categorized into three major classes, including ATP-competitive inhibitors, SH2/SH3-blocking inhibitors and c-Src-destabilizing agents (Table 1).

ATP-competitive Src kinase inhibitors

ATP-competitive inhibitors bind to the ATP-binding pocket, thus blocking ATP binding and phosphotransferase activity. However, due to significant homology in the primary sequence and three-dimensional structure in the ATP-binding pockets of many different kinases [54,56]. few ATP-competitive inhibitors have suitable specificity [57,58].

PP1 and PP2

4-Amino-5-(4-methylphenyl)-7-(t-butyl)pyrazolo[3,4-d] pyrimidine (PP1) and 4-amino-5-(4-chlorophenyl)-7-(tbutyl)pyrazolo[3,4-d]pyrimidine (PP2) were originally identified as selective, ATP-competitive inhibitors of Src family kinases [59]. The selectivity of PP1 and PP2 for Src family kinases over ZAP-70 and Jak2 has been reported [59], while some reports showed that PP1 also directly inhibited PDGF receptor tyrosine kinase [60] and Ret tyrosine kinase activity [61]. PP2 has been widely used to study the role of c-Src kinase in various

Table 1 Selected Src tyrosine kinase inhibitors

	Src kinase IC ₅₀ (nmol/l)	Inhibition of other kinases (nmol/l)
ATP-competitive Src kinase inhibitors		
PP1	170	Lck 5, Abl 250, Jak2 >1000
PP2		Lck 4, EGF receptor 480, Jak2 >50
SU6656	280	Lyn 130, Lck 6880, Abl1740, PDGF receptor >1000
CPG76030	47	Lyn 121, Abl 101, EGF receptor 160
PD173955	22	PDGF receptor 1660, FGF receptor 1250
AZM475271	10	Lck 30, Yes 80, KDR 700
SKI-606	1.2	Abl 1, ErbB2 2600
SH2/SH3 inhibitors AP22408	300	NR
UCS15A	3000 (bone resorption assay)	NR
Src-destabilizing agents	3000 (bone resorption assay)	INIX
geldanamycin herbimycin A	8 (bone resorption assay) 70 (bone resorption assay)	

cellular events. PP2 has been demonstrated to completely block tyrosine phosphorylation of Raf-1 [62], a direct substrate of c-Src kinase. It has also been reported that c-Src inhibition with PP2 prevented constitutive ERK activity and abolished Akt phosphorylation [63]. Another study demonstrated that treatment of ovarian cancer cells with PP2 resulted in loss of FAK, Akt and FOXO1 phosphorylation and decreased the amount of GTPbound Ras [64]. In the same study, small interfering RNA (siRNA) knockdown of c-Src protein expression demonstrated that the effects of PP2 could largely be attributed to Src inhibition.

SU6656

2-Oxo-3-(4.5.6.7-tetrahydro-1*H*-indol-2-vlmethylene)-2,3-dihydro-1*H*-indole-5-sulfonic acid dimethylamide (SU6656) is a small-molecular inhibitor that displays selective activity against Src kinase family members and does not appear to have significant PDGF receptor inhibitory activity [65]. SU6656 acts as a competitive inhibitor with respect to ATP and inhibits tyrosine phosphorylation of the c-Src substrates Cbl and protein kinase C (PKC) δ.

CGP77675 and CGP76030

The CGP compounds are two substituted 5,7-diphenylypyrrolo[2,3-d]pyrimidines [66,67]. CGP77675 shows significant selectivity against c-Src activity in comparison to the Src family members Lck and Yes [66]. Most of the effects of CGP76030 have been attributed to inhibition of Src family members and not inhibition of the closely related Abl kinase [68].

PD173955

The pyrido[2,3-d]pyrimidine PD173955 acts as an ATPcompetitive inhibitor. Selectivity for both c-Src and c-Yes inhibition has been reported with an IC₅₀ of 22 nmol/l [69]. Inhibition of α l-FGF receptor and PDGF receptors was reported to be 1.6 µmol/l and no activity against the insulin receptor or PKC was observed.

AZM475271

AZM475271 is of the anilinoquinazoline class of compounds. AZM475271 has been reported to be selective for c-Src inhibition as compared to kinase insert domain receptor (KDR), which has a similar ATP-binding pocket structure [70]. AZM475271 dose-dependently inhibits c-Src tyrosine kinase activity in human pancreatic carcinoma cells [71]. A particular advantage of this compound is that it is orally deliverable.

SKI-606

4-Anilino-3-quinolinecarbonitrile (SKI-606) is another orally available compound with inhibitory activity against Src family kinases and Abl tyrosine kinase [72]. This dual inhibitory activity may be especially valuable for chronic myeloid leukemia (CML; see below).

SH2/SH3 inhibitors

The SH2 and SH3 are protein recognition domains. The SH2 domain recognizes specific sequences containing phosphotyrosine and the SH3 domain binds to specific proline-rich sequences [6]. These domains guide Src to its substrates; thus, drugs designed to sterically block SH2- or SH3-mediated interactions will inhibit specific subsets of Src protein-protein interactions.

The SH2 and SH3 inhibitors include both peptidomimetic and non-peptide inhibitors [73]. SH2 peptidomimetics contain a phosphotyrosine or a phosphotyrosine mimic. Unfortunately, phosphotyrosine-containing inhibitors demonstrate poor transport and uptake properties, and are susceptible to phosphatase activity [74,75]. Phosphotyrosine mimics, however, tend to have lower affinity and decreased specificity [76]. These limitations have led to the search for non-peptide SH2 and SH3 inhibitors. Shakespeare et al. have described a non-peptide inhibitor AP22408, which inhibited c-Src SH2 ligand binding with an IC_{50} of $0.30 \,\mu\text{mol/l}$ [77]. However, AP22408 was designed to have bone-targeting properties and thus may not be suitable for cancer chemotherapy.

A non-peptide small molecule that inhibits SH3mediated interactions has also been described [78,79]. UCS15A has been reported to inhibit the Src specific tyrosine phosphorylation of numerous proteins in v-srctransformed cells without inhibiting Src tyrosine kinase activity [78]. It was subsequently found that UCS15A disrupted SH3-mediated protein-protein interactions, but not SH2-mediated interactions, probably by targeting the proline-rich sequences of the substrate proteins rather than the SH3 domain itself [79]. The inhibition of only a subset of c-Src protein-protein interactions may limit the oncological clinical efficacy of this class of inhibitor.

Src-destabilizing agents

Destabilizing inhibitors interfere with the association between c-Src and its associated molecular chaperone, heat shock protein (Hsp) 90. Geldanamycin and herbimycin A are benzenoid ansamycin antibiotics [80]. It has been reported that geldanamycin reverted the transformed morphology of v-src-transformed fibroblasts without inhibiting Src kinase activity [80,81]. The same study also found that both geldanamycin and herbimycin A could bind Hsp90 and inhibited the formation of Src-Hsp90 heteroprotein complexes, leading to the increased degradation of v-Src protein. This mechanism of action of the benzoquinone ansamycins is relatively non-specific, and results in the disruption of many HSP interactions and increased degradation of client proteins [82]. This feature may therefore result in significant side-effects [83].

Src inhibition: in-vitro effects

Many of the reported roles of c-Src tyrosine kinase in regulating cell growth, motility, invasive potential and sensitivity to stressors have been discerned from in-vitro pharmacologic Src inhibition using various different cancer cell lines.

Inhibiting cell growth

The effect of c-Src inhibition on cell growth has been demonstrated in many reports using various different inhibitors. Herbimycin A (50 ng/ml) decreased growth of human pancreatic carcinoma cells overexpressing c-Src, but had little effect on cells with low levels of c-Src expression [84]. Similarly, the ATP competitive c-Src inhibitor PD173955 has been reported to have significant antiproliferative activity due to an arrest of mitotic progression [85]. MDA-MB-468 breast cancer cells treated with PD173955 (5 µmol/l) resulted in a dramatic accumulation of cells in the G₂/M phase of the cell cycle [85]. Treatment of leukemic cell lines with SU6656 (2.5 µmol/l) resulted in rapid terminal differentiation and cessation of cell division [86]. SU6656 induced polyploidization, morphologic changes indicative of megakaryocytic maturation, and expression of the specific differentiation markers CD41 and CD61.

Apoptotic effect

On the flip side of mitosis is apoptosis (programmed cell death). For tumor regression to occur cells must die. In-vitro Src inhibition in various cancer cell lines has been shown to enhance apoptosis in various cancer cell lines under various conditions. In the Caki-2 renal carcinoma cell line the Src inhibitor PP1 induced greater cytotoxicity with connexin 32 (Cx32) expression than without Cx32. This was accompanied by a decrease in the antiapoptotic Bcl-2 and Bcl-X_L molecules [87]. In the 70Z/3 murine B cell leukemia cell line c-Src inhibition with PP2 was associated with suppressed proliferation and increased apoptosis [88]. It has also been reported that PP2 reduced DNA synthesis, decreased Akt phosphorylation and increased apoptosis in medullary thyroid cancer cells [89]. In ovarian cancer cells, c-Src activation has been associated with Akt phosphorylation [90] – a pro-survival signal. c-Src inhibition, however, decreased Akt phosphorylation [64].

Impairing chemoresistance

Chemoresistance is a major clinical challenge. Interestingly, c-Src inhibition appears to be associated with resensitization of cancer cells to different classes of chemotherapeutics. Inhibition of c-Src with PP2 resensitized pancreatic adenocarcinoma cells with both inherent and acquired resistance to gemcitabine - a deoxycytidine analog [91]. The effects of PP2 are most likely the result of Src inhibition as expression of a Src dominant-negative and knockdown of Src expression by siRNA had a similar effect [91,92]. In paclitaxel-resistant ovarian cancer cells,

c-Src inhibition with either PP2 or SU6656 has been reported to restore sensitivity to paclitaxel and cisplatin to which the cells were cross-resistant [64,93]. Expression of a Src dominant-negative also restored sensitivity, again suggesting the effects of the inhibitors can be attributed to c-Src or Src family member inhibition [93]. These studies suggest that Src family kinase inhibitors may be useful agents in the treatment of drug-resistant cancers.

Preclinical and clinical studies CML

CML is manifested by the malignant expansion of bone marrow stem cells. Approximately 90% of CML patients carry a t(9;22)(q34;q11) reciprocal chromosomal translocation, producing a 9q⁺ and small 22q⁻, the so-called Philadelphia chromosome, Ph + [94]. The result of this translocation is a fusion gene encoding the Bcr-Abl protein, a misregulated tyrosine kinase that has been shown to be sufficient and necessary for the CML phenotype [95,96]. The Bcr-Abl small-molecule inhibitor, imatinib mesylate (Gleevec, STI-1571), has shown great clinical efficacy in chronic phase CML [97]. However, imatinib is relatively ineffective against B cell acute lymphoblastic leukemia (B-ALL) and the blast phase crisis of CML [98]. The lack of effect is due to acquired resistance to imatinib resulting from gene amplification, upregulation and overexpression of Bcr-Abl [99,100] or through the accumulation of mutations in the kinase domain [101–103].

Bcr-Abl activates several downstream kinases including Src family kinases [68,104]. This has prompted investigation into the use of dual Src-Abl inhibitors. SKI-606 has both c-Src and Abl inhibitory activity [72]. *In vitro* studies with various CML cell lines demonstrated that SKI-606 was an order of magnitude more potent than imatinib at inhibiting CML cell proliferation [72]. Furthermore, oral administration of the compound for 5 days led to complete regression of large K562 CML xenografts in nude mice [72]. SKI-606 has since been shown to have in vitro activity against CML Ph + imatinib-resistant cells from patients in blast crisis [105].

Another Src-Abl dual inhibitor, BMS-354825, has entered phase I trials [106,107]. BMS-354825 is orally available and was well tolerated at doses up to 180 mg/day for 5-7 days/week for up to 9 months. Preliminary assessment of clinical activity of 26 Ph + CML patients (22 with imatinib resistance, four with intolerance and average CML duration of 6.1 years) followed for greater than 4 weeks has been reported [106]. Bcr-Abl kinase domain mutations were detected in 22 patients prior to start of treatment. All 26 patients have had clinical benefit, including 19 (73%) with complete hematologic responses. Of the seven partial responders, two have had disease

progression, one of whom had expansion of a CML subclone harboring a T315I mutation in Bcr-Abl, a mutation that confers resistance to imatinib as well as multiple Src-Abl inhibitors [108,109]. A second phase I trial with BMS-354825 has been reported in accelerated phase and blast phase CML patients [107]. Of the 11 blast phase patients, seven have had hematologic response, including three with complete response, two 'no evidence of leukemia' and two 'return to chronic phase'. In the accelerated phase cohort, three of six patients showed hematologic response including two complete hematologic responses and two 'no evidence of leukemia'. Thus Src-Abl dual inhibitors appear to have a good safety profile and early clinical evaluation demonstrate efficacy for imatinib-resistant, blast phase CML.

A mouse model of Ph + B-ALL has provided preclinical evidence that the Src family inhibitor CGP76030 prolonged survival of mice with B-ALL, but not CML. Combination treatment with CGP76030 and imatinib showed even greater prolongation of survival than either agent alone. Interestingly, the study did not examine combination therapy in the mouse model of CML [68].

Overall, these studies suggest that dual inhibition of Src family kinases and Bcr-Abl may be a useful strategy for treatment of Ph + acute leukemia.

Colon cancer

Increased c-Src activity in colon cancer has been associated with disease progression and poor patient survival [110,111], thus raising the possibility that c-Src may be a potential therapeutic target.

In a preclinical evaluation, the orally available Src-Abl inhibitor SKI-606 was shown to decrease c-Src autophosphorylation, an indicator of c-Src activation, in human HT29 and Colo205 tumor xenografts. Once daily oral administration of SKI-606 decreased HT29 tumor growth. Twice daily administration was required to produce a similar decrease of Colo205, HCT116 and DLD1 tumor growth [112]. Additionally, the Src inhibitor PP2 has been demonstrated to decrease HT29 tumor growth and liver metastasis in a SCID mouse model [113]. There appear to be no published reports of clinical trials in colon cancer patients.

Pancreatic cancer

Pancreatic cancer presents a particularly difficult clinical challenge with 5-year survival rates at roughly 4% [114]. Though few studies have been carried out, one published report demonstrated c-Src overexpression in 13 of 13 pancreatic carcinoma tissues and 14 of 17 cell lines [84]. Two studies report that c-Src inhibition enhances gemcitabine chemosensitivity in mouse xenograft models of human pancreatic cancer [91,115]. In an orthotopic xenograft model with Panc1 gemcitabine-resistant pancreatic carcinoma cells, i.p. injection of the Src inhibitor PP2 (2 mg/kg, 3 times per week) in combination with gemcitabine (100 mg/kg, 3 times per week) produced a tumor growth inhibition of 98% compared with 25% for PP2 alone and 5% for gemcitabine alone. Furthermore, hepatic metastasis was completely blocked in the combination treated mice [91]. The orally available Src inhibitor, AZM475271, when administered daily at 50 mg/ kg in combination with twice weekly administration of gemcitabine (100 mg/kg) reduced tumor growth by 91%. As with PP2, hepatic metastasis was completely inhibited [115]. These results provide compelling evidence that c-Src may be a viable target in pancreatic cancer, especially when used in combination with current chemotherapeutics.

Prostate cancer

There are no reported trials with Src inhibitors for prostate cancer. In-vitro studies have demonstrated that c-Src inhibition with either CGP77675 or CPG76030 decreased proliferation and invasive capacity of PC-3 cells [116]. PP2 has been demonstrated to decrease migration is PC-3 and DU145 prostate cancer cell lines [22]. Given the propensity of prostate cancers to metastasize to bone, it has been proposed that the anti-osteoclastic activity of Src inhibitors may decrease bone metastases in a clinical setting [116].

Future directions

While newer generation small-molecule inhibitors show great promise with better specificity and potency, the experience with Imatinib/Gleevec/STI-571 demonstrates that cancers can develop multiple mechanisms of resistance to even the most effective small-molecule inhibitors [117–120]. Furthermore, overexpressed kinases such as c-Src may have oncogenic activities that are independent of kinase activity [121]. Thus, new methods to interfere with c-Src or other oncogenic kinases need to be explored.

Antisense phosphorodiamidate morpholino oligomers (AS-PMO) are a newer generation RNA antisense technology that can be designed and relatively easily synthesized for virtually any message [122]. AS-PMOs have been through phase I clinical trials and they do not appear to cause any untoward toxicity. In addition, they do not produce the hematological side-effects seen with the phosphorothiote-based antisense agents [123]. Stability and good bioavailability by multiple routes of administration, including oral [124] and i.p. [125,126], have been reported. Finally, there do not appear to be any reports that AS-PMOs are substrates for MDR proteins, thus AS-PMOs may provide a new means of silencing individual proteins with great specificity, few side effects and in a drug resistant context.

siRNA technology, much like AS-PMO, provides a means to target specific mRNA for silencing. A very recent publication reported the use of cholesterol-conjugated siRNAs to knockdown apolipoprotein B by systemic i.v. injection in mice [127]. The modified siRNAs showed significant in-vitro cellular uptake in the absence of transfection reagent and wide bioavailability in vivo. This report provides compelling evidence that siRNA may be a valuable tool for gene knockdown in a therapeutic setting.

Conclusion

As c-Src overexpression itself is not transforming and does not appear to be a primary lesion in any particular tumor type, it is unlikely that c-Src inhibition on its own will be an effective therapeutic option. Rather, it is more likely that c-Src inhibition will be used in conjunction with standard chemotherapy or as part of a small-molecule cocktail targeting multiple oncogenic kinases. With the recent observation that non-small cell lung cancers carrying EGF receptor-activating mutations are more sensitive to the EGF receptor inhibitor Iressa than cancers without the mutations [128], it is likely that therapy in the future will be much more individualized, based upon the tumor profile. One of the many bullets in the anti-tumor arsenal should be aimed at Src tyrosine kinase.

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