

Title:**Bad to the Bone: The Role of the Insulin-Like Growth Factor Axis in Osseous Metastasis****Authors:**

Guillaume Rieunier¹, Xiaoning Wu¹, Valentine M. Macaulay¹, Adrian V. Lee², Ulrike Weyer-Czernilofsky³, Thomas Bogenrieder^{4,5}

Affiliations:

¹Department of Oncology, University of Oxford, Oxford, UK.

²Department of Pharmacology and Chemical Biology, UPMC Hillman Cancer Center, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, PA, USA.

³Pharmacology Translational Research, Boehringer Ingelheim RCV, Vienna, Austria.

⁴RCV Medicine, Boehringer Ingelheim RCV, Vienna, Austria.

⁵Department of Urology, University Hospital Grosshadern, Ludwig-Maximilians-University, Munich, Germany.

Running title:

The IGF axis in bone metastasis

Abbreviations:

BMP, bone morphogenetic protein; CXCL12; Wnt, stromal cell-derived factor 1;
CXCR4, C-X-C chemokine receptor-type 4; EMT, epithelial mesenchymal transition;
FGF, fibroblast growth factor; HSC, hematopoietic stem cell; HIFs, hypoxia inducible factors;
IGF, insulin-like growth factor; IGF-1, insulin-like growth factor-1; IGF-2, insulin-like growth factor-2;
IGF-1R, IGF receptor 1; IL-8, interleukin 8; OS, overall survival; INSR, insulin receptor;
INSR-A, insulin receptor isoform A; INSR-B, insulin receptor isoform B;
IRS-2, insulin receptor substrate 2; RANKL, receptor activator of NF- κ B ligand;
PI3K, phosphoinositide 3-kinase; PTH, parathyroid hormone; PDGF; platelet-derived growth factor;
SREs, skeletal-related events; TGF- β , transforming growth factor β ; TKI; tyrosine kinase inhibitor;
TNF- α , tumor necrosis factor alpha;

Corresponding Author:

Dr Valentine Macaulay, MD, PhD, FRCP
IGF Group, Department of Oncology,
Oxford Cancer and Haematology Centre,
University of Oxford, Oxford, OX3 7DQ, UK
Phone: [01865 617337]
Email: valentine.macaulay@oncology.ox.ac.uk

Conflicts of interest

Valentine Macaulay has been a consultancy board member for Boehringer Ingelheim. Ulrike Weyer-Czernilofsky and Thomas Bogenrieder are employees of Boehringer Ingelheim RCV. Thomas Bogenrieder has stock ownership in Roche, Seattle Genetics, Celgene, Gilead, and Immunogen. Guillaume Rieunier, Adrian V. Lee, and Xiaoning Wu have no conflicts of interest to declare.

Disclosure of financial support:

Financial support for editorial assistance was provided by Boehringer Ingelheim.

Keywords:

Insulin-like growth factor; bone; metastasis; breast cancer; prostate cancer

Abstract

Bone metastases are a frequent complication of cancer that are associated with considerable morbidity. Current treatments may temporarily palliate the symptoms of bone metastases, but often fail to delay their progression. Bones provide a permissive environment because they are characterized by dynamic turnover, secreting factors required for bone maintenance but also stimulating the establishment and growth of metastases. Insulin-like growth factors (IGFs) are the most abundant growth factors in bone and are required for normal skeletal development and function. Via activation of the IGF-1 receptors (IGF-1R) and variant insulin receptors, IGFs promote cancer progression, aggressiveness, and treatment resistance. Of specific relevance to bone biology, IGFs contribute to the homing, dormancy, colonization, and expansion of bone metastases. Furthermore, preclinical evidence suggests that tumor cells can be primed to metastasize to bone by a high insulin-like growth factor-1 (IGF-1) environment in the primary tumor, suggesting that bone metastases may reflect IGF-dependency. Therapeutic targeting of the IGF axis may therefore provide an effective method for treating bone metastases. Indeed, anti-IGF-1R antibodies, IGF-1R tyrosine kinase inhibitors, and anti-IGF-1/2 antibodies have demonstrated antitumor activity in preclinical models of prostate and breast cancer metastases, either alone or in combination with other agents. Several studies suggest that such treatments can inhibit bone metastases without affecting growth of the primary tumor. While previous trials of anti-IGF-1R drugs have generated negative results in unselected patients, these considerations suggest that future clinical trials of IGF-targeted agents may be warranted in patients with bone metastases.

Introduction

Bone metastases are a frequent complication of cancer, and the skeleton is the site of the most significant tumor burden in many patients with advanced disease (1). Prognosis after the development of bone metastases varies by tumor type, but in most cases, bone metastases lead to considerable morbidity, with devastating consequences including intractable bone pain, pathological fractures, hypercalcemia, and spinal cord compression (2). Existing treatments for bone metastases are not curative, but may slow progression and provide symptom palliation. Consequently, there is an unmet need for new therapeutic interventions (2).

Over the last few decades, extensive research has identified some of the molecular mechanisms that promote bone metastases, including bone-derived growth factors such as the insulin-like growth factors (IGFs) (3). Research suggests that IGFs play a fundamental role in bone development, remodeling, and repair, and contribute to key hallmarks of primary cancers, via alteration of stem-cell renewal/differentiation, epithelial mesenchymal transition (EMT), and treatment resistance (4). In this review, we discuss the clinical significance of bone metastases, review the normal physiologic role of IGFs in bone development and homeostasis, and consider the potential role of the IGF axis in the metastasis of primary tumors to bone. Lastly, we evaluate the available evidence suggesting that targeting this signaling network may lead to potential therapeutic strategies for the prevention and/or treatment of bone metastases.

Prevalence, Clinical Relevance, and Treatment of Bone Metastases

Bone metastases are a common feature of solid tumors, and in one US study, were found to affect almost 7% of patients overall; the highest incidence of bone metastases was in prostate cancer (18–29%), followed by lung (up to 13%), renal (up to 10%), and breast cancers (up to 8%) (5). In some tumor types such as hepatocellular carcinoma, the incidence of bone metastases is increasing, likely due to improved tumor control at other disease sites (6,7). Bone metastases can

cause severe bone pain, which can be treated with palliative radiotherapy but is often difficult to control (8). Further, by promoting bone resorption, bone metastases can lead to bone fragility and skeletal-related events (SREs), including pathological fracture, spinal cord compression, and hypercalcemia (1,9,10). SREs are typically associated with reduced quality of life and substantially higher healthcare costs (11). Tumors that have metastasized to bone are generally incurable (11); survival varies with primary cancer type and is lower if patients have skeletal complications (11). Indeed, in a large population-based cohort study, the median overall survival (OS) for breast cancer patients with bone metastases was 16 months, but only 7 months for patients with bone metastases and an SRE (11).

The main goals of treatment are to palliate bone pain, alleviate and prevent bone complications, maintain quality of life, and slow metastatic progression (12,13). Symptom palliation can be achieved using analgesia, endocrine therapy, chemotherapy, localized radiation, and surgery. However, the only agents specifically designed to treat bone metastases are bone-targeting agents, including the bisphosphonates, zoledronate and pamidronate, the targeted alpha therapy, radium-223 dichloride, and the receptor activator of NF- κ B ligand (RANKL)-inhibiting antibody, denosumab (9,12). While radium-223 has been shown to prolong survival and delay time to first symptomatic skeletal event in metastatic prostate cancer, a recent Phase III trial was prematurely unblinded due to an increase of fractures and deaths in patients treated with radium-223 in combination with abiraterone and prednisone (14). Bisphosphonates reduce skeletal morbidity in advanced breast cancer and can also decrease the number of bone metastases (15-17). However, 30–50% of patients treated with bone-targeting agents develop new bone metastases, skeletal complications, and disease progression, highlighting the need for more effective therapies (6).

The Role of IGF in Normal Bone Development and Remodeling

The IGF system is critical for skeletal growth and maintenance (18). All skeletal cells express IGF-1 and its receptor, IGF-1R, and require IGF-1 for normal development and function (19). IGF-1 and IGF-2 play an important role in regulating growth and development of normal human tissues by promoting cellular proliferation and differentiation via activation of IGF-1R and IGF-1R/insulin receptor (INSR) hybrids (4,20). In addition, IGF-2 binds to the A isoform of the INSR (INSR-A), a fetal variant of the classical metabolic INSR (INSR-B), which is frequently overexpressed in tumors (4).

Bone development and remodeling are driven by the coordinated activity of osteoclasts and osteoblasts, which regulate bone resorption and formation, respectively (21,22). Osteoblast proliferation is promoted by IGFs, transforming growth factor β (TGF- β), fibroblast growth factors (FGFs), and platelet-derived growth factor (PDGF), and osteoclast apoptosis by TGF- β (1). Of these, IGF-1 and IGF-2 are the most abundant growth factors in bone (18,23) and have been shown to directly influence both osteoclasts and osteoblasts (24). In particular, the IGF-1 molecular pathway is thought to play a critical role in regulating osteoblast function (25). IGF-1 also helps maintain the normal interaction between osteoblasts and osteoclasts to support osteoclastogenesis (26), and in vitro data suggest that IGF-1 stimulates osteoclastic bone resorption by supporting the generation, differentiation, and activation of osteoclasts (26-29). IGF-2 also promotes differentiation and function of primary human osteoblasts and osteoclasts, but is less potent than IGF-1 (27,28).

The liver is the major source of circulating IGF-1, producing approximately 75% of plasma IGF-1 (30). IGF-1 is also produced locally by bone cells such as osteoblasts, chondrocytes, osteoclasts, and osteocytes, thereby functioning as an autocrine/paracrine effector to regulate bone turnover (19,21,24,30,31). Additionally, an inactive form of IGF-1 is stored within the bone matrix, and is activated and released during osteoclast-mediated bone resorption (18). Data from human biopsies suggest that bone volume is positively associated with the IGF-1 content of bone matrix, but not IGF-

2 content or serum IGF-1 (32). Notably, IGF-2 is nine times more abundant in adult human bone than IGF-1, unlike in mice, where IGF-1 content is higher postnatally (23).

Biology of Bone Metastases

Bones undergo constant and dynamic cell growth and turnover, and so provide a permissive environment for proliferation of tumor cells (1). A growth-factor-rich environment contributes to the tropism of primary tumor cells for bone or bone marrow (22). For bone metastasis to occur, circulating cancer cells must arrest in the bone marrow cavity before migrating into the marrow stroma where they generate their own blood supply (1). Consistent with the seed and soil hypothesis proposed by Paget in 1889 (33), primary tumor cells (seeds) prime the bone microenvironment (soil) for metastasis by secreting factors that stimulate osteoblast activity and bone formation, thus enriching the bone microenvironment with osteoblast-derived growth factors that support the local growth of tumor cells (34). Consequently, both tumor cells and bone cells produce factors that promote malignant growth (13).

Interaction between tumor cells and the bone microenvironment occurs via sequential stages: tumor-cell homing, dormancy, colonization, and expansion (6). Tumor cells preferentially home and adhere to bone marrow endothelium, enabling their invasion into the bone marrow microenvironment via extravasation. Metastatic tumor cells then compete for occupancy of the hematopoietic stem cell (HSC) niche in bone marrow. Tumor cells may subsequently remain dormant in the HSC niche, or begin growth and colonization. Metastatic colonization may be delayed for years, resulting in relapse many years after diagnosis of the primary tumor (11,13,35,36). Upon recovery from dormancy, tumor cells colonize bone and induce differentiation, recruitment, and activation of osteoclasts and/or osteoblasts (6,37). Secretion of pro-osteoclastogenic factors such as tumor necrosis factor alpha (TNF- α), interleukin 8 (IL-8), and parathyroid hormone (PTH) leads to osteoclast-mediated bone resorption and further release of bone matrix-stored growth factors

including IGFs, TGF- β , FGFs, and bone morphogenetic proteins (BMPs). This sets up a vicious cycle of bone colonization and metastasis, known as the expansion stage (6,22,36). Such osteolytic bone metastases are frequently associated with breast and lung tumors (36). Conversely, the release of bone morphogenetic proteins such as TGF- β and fibroblast growth factor, in addition to the IGFs, enhances osteoblast differentiation and activity; the resulting osteoblastic bone metastases are commonly seen in prostate cancer (36,38). Regardless of the mechanism, this reciprocal crosstalk between tumor and bone cells creates an environment ripe for metastatic growth (6,37).

While not all the key players in the development of bone metastases are yet known, multiple molecules and signaling pathways appear to be important for metastasis. Indeed, in addition to the IGF pathway, NF- κ B, matrix metalloproteases, and the Wnt, stromal cell-derived factor 1 (CXCL12)/C-X-C chemokine receptor type 4 (CXCR4) and phosphoinositide 3-kinase (PI3K)/AKT signaling axes may also play key roles in the development and progression of bone metastases (39-46).

The Role of the IGF Axis in Bone Metastases

Altered IGF axis signaling is thought to contribute to the pathogenesis of primary bone tumors including Ewing Sarcoma (47) and osteosarcoma, with evidence of IGF axis activation due to downregulation of IGF-binding proteins observed in osteosarcomas as compared with osteoblasts and mesenchymal stem cells (48). Another osteosarcoma study identified recurrent mutations of IGF axis genes that were predicted to result in activation of IGF-1R signaling in 7%, and *IGF1R* gene amplification in 14% of tumors (49).

The IGFs can also encourage metastasis by promoting anchorage-independent growth, motility, and invasion (50,51). In particular, IGF-1R signaling via insulin receptor substrate 2 (IRS-2) has been implicated in mediating invasion and metastasis versus proliferation (51,52). Interestingly, IGF-1R inhibition via dominant negative IGF-1R, or an IGF-1R blocking antibody, inhibits metastasis without affecting primary tumor growth (53,54).

IGFs have been implicated in each of the key stages of bone metastasis: homing, dormancy, colonization, and expansion (6). In triple-negative breast cancer, stromal cancer-associated fibroblasts were identified as the source of IGF-1 and CXCL12, which were shown to prime cells to home to the CXCL12- and IGF-1-rich bone microenvironment, in a process dependent on CXCR4 and IGF-1R expression by cancer cells (55). IGF-1 also enhances homing of myeloma cells to bone marrow, and acts as a chemo-attractant that increases adherence to the extracellular matrix via activation of beta integrin and PI3K/AKT (56). IGF-1R upregulation was shown to promote adherence of neuroblastoma cells to human bone marrow endothelial cells, and trans-endothelial migration was decreased by IGF-1R inhibition (57).

IGF-1 and IGF-2 have been shown to mediate tumor cell dormancy in bone in models of pancreatic cancer and osteosarcoma (58,59). In a murine pancreatic cancer model, activation of IGF-1/AKT signaling was a common survival mechanism in dormant cancer cells that had survived ablation of the oncogenic drivers KRAS and MYC (58). In clinical osteosarcomas and a mouse model of MYC-driven osteosarcoma, IGF-2 expression increased following chemotherapy, and prolonged IGF-2 exposure induced a dormancy-like state, characterized by attenuated responsiveness of the IGF axis to IGF-2, with low levels of AKT-mTOR activity, cell cycle arrest, and autophagy (59).

Lastly, IGF-1 and -2 appear to play important roles in bone colonization and expansion by metastasizing tumor cells. In one study, bone-derived IGFs stimulated metastasis of breast cancer to bone by increasing cancer cell proliferation and survival, via AKT activation and recruitment of NF- κ B (60). Further, culture medium from cells stimulated to undergo bone resorption was found to contain high concentrations of IGF-1; notably, the anchorage-independent growth of human breast cancer cells cultured in this medium was inhibited by the IGF-1R neutralizing antibody α IR3, but not by antibodies against TGF- β , fibroblast growth factor-1 or -2 (FGF-1 or FGF-2), or PDGF-BB (60). Reflecting cross-talk between the IGF axis and hypoxia signaling, IGF-1 released during RANKL-

induced bone resorption was shown to co-operate with tumor cell-derived hypoxia inducible factors (HIFs) in the hypoxic bone microenvironment, to promote bone marrow colonization and establishment of osteoblastic bone metastases in a murine osteosarcoma model (61). Similarly, growth of human breast cancer cells in a human adult bone model was facilitated by active osteoclasts induced by RANKL, and IGFs released following bone resorption (62). The IGF axis may also be involved in bone invasion in oral squamous cell carcinoma, with depletion of IGF-2 mRNA binding protein-3 inhibiting regional bone destruction in a xenograft mouse model (63).

Could the IGF Axis be Targeted for the Treatment of Bone Metastases?

Given the apparent involvement of the IGF axis in the generation and growth of bone metastases, targeting key molecules involved in this pathway represents a rational approach to help prevent and/or manage bone metastases. Indeed, considerable preclinical evidence supports this hypothesis, with most available evidence coming from models of metastatic prostate and breast cancer.

Several preclinical studies have investigated the effects of antibodies or tyrosine kinase inhibitors (TKIs) directed at IGF-1R, the results of which suggest that IGF axis inhibition can at least partially prevent the establishment and progression of bone tumors (Table 1). Furthermore, whole genome expression analysis of bone metastasis biopsies from patients with prostate cancer suggested an inverse relationship between IGF-1R expression and immune cell function, (64) suggesting that IGF-1R inhibition has the potential to stimulate an anti-tumor response from endogenous immune cells, a concept that is also supported by models of other tumor types (65-68).

Therapeutic targeting of the ligands IGF-1 and IGF-2 has been investigated in preclinical models of prostate and breast cancer metastasis (Table 1). KM1468, an anti-IGF-1/2 antibody, suppressed metastatic development and progression of prostate cancer cells into implanted human adult bone (69). Using the same model, the specific anti-IGF-2 antibody m610 significantly reduced the growth of prostate cancer cells after injection into human bone implanted in the mammary fat pad, but not

when the same cells were injected without human bone. These data support the importance of IGF-2 in promoting progression of bone metastases, and reinforce the relevance of paracrine IGF signaling in bone metastases (23). Similarly, KM1468 reduced the growth of human breast cancer cells in human adult bone implanted into mice, but had no effect on growth of the same cells subcutaneously injected in the absence of bone. In some models, IGF inhibition reduced the growth of primary tumor cells in bone, but not when the same cells were implanted without human bone (53,54,62,69), consistent with reports that IGF-1R inhibition can inhibit metastases without affecting the primary tumor (53,54,62). Likewise, transfection of human breast cancer cells with dominant-negative IGF-1R markedly inhibited development of osteolytic bone metastases, while lung metastases were largely unaffected (60). Such findings suggest that IGF inhibition may have more impact in the bone microenvironment (where IGFs play an important role in the normal homeostatic functioning of the tissue) than in the primary tumor.

It should be noted that while the findings from these studies are encouraging, the IGF system of mice is substantially different from that in humans; thus, in contrast to mouse bone cells, human bone cells produce less IGF-1 than IGF-2 (23,70). Thus, the roles of the IGFs and the effects of their inhibition may also differ between species. Indeed, since IGF-2 also induces proliferative/anti-apoptotic signaling via INSR-A (4), the contribution of IGF-1R-mediated signaling may be less important in humans than in mice.

Clinical Studies of IGF Axis Inhibition and Implications for Future Studies

To date, no clinical trials have specifically examined the impact of IGF inhibition on the development and/or progression of bone metastases. Previous studies of monoclonal antibodies and TKIs targeting IGF-1R in patients with a range of solid tumors have yielded mixed, mostly negative, results, both as monotherapy and when combined with established therapies (see Supplementary Table 1 for details). Objective responses have been low and mainly limited to studies in osteosarcoma, Ewing sarcoma, and other soft tissue sarcomas (71-75). The failure of IGF-1R

inhibitory drugs to impact tumor growth in unselected patients may be attributable to compensatory activation of other signaling pathways, including those involving the epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR) (76) and Wnt (77), and by the lack of a validated biomarker for patient selection (4). Further, IGF-1R inhibitors are commonly associated with hyperglycemia, due to co-inhibition of INSR-B (71,72,78-85), which may preclude their use at therapeutic doses; consequently, most agents targeting IGF-1R are no longer in clinical development.

Despite these limitations, there remains considerable interest in therapeutic targeting of the IGF axis, particularly in view of the recent development of IGF-ligand neutralizing antibodies. The issue of dose-limiting hyperglycemia may have been overcome by the development of such antibodies, which do not interfere with glucose metabolism (86,87). These agents inhibit proliferative/anti-apoptotic signaling via both IGF-1R and INSR-A, without interference with the metabolic INSR-B isoform (4). Given the disappointing clinical results with the IGF-1R-targeted agents, it is possible that IGF-1R is activated and critically involved in oncogenic signaling pathways in only a minority of patients (88). However, the evidence summarized herein supports a clear role of the IGF axis in bone metastasis development, which suggests that the presence of bone metastases could potentially indicate involvement of an IGF-dependent process.

Summary

Bones are sites of dynamic cell turnover that provide a supportive environment for the establishment and growth of tumor metastases (1). Bone metastases are a frequent complication in patients with advanced cancer and a significant cause of morbidity (5,8). The IGF axis plays an important role in bone development and remodeling (18), and is implicated in metastasis of primary tumors to bone. Preclinical data demonstrate that inhibition of IGF-axis signaling can suppress metastasis and tumor cell proliferation in bone (23,60,62,64). Most evidence related to the value of targeting IGF comes from models of breast and prostate cancer bone metastases, probably because these cancers are commonly associated with metastatic spread to the bone (5). Preliminary evidence

suggests that IGF inhibition may also be relevant to the treatment of bone metastases from other primary tumors, such as oral squamous cell carcinoma (63). As yet, there is no clinical evidence to support the use of IGF-targeted therapies as specific treatments for bone metastasis, and there are differences in IGF production between human and rodent bone cells (70) that may impact clinical relevance. Nevertheless, given the known involvement of the IGF axis in bone metastasis (6,60,61), and initial preclinical data supporting the utility of IGF blockade in this context (23,60,62,64), we suggest that exploration of the potential benefits of IGF inhibition may be warranted in patients with bone metastases, particularly for breast and prostate cancers.

Acknowledgements

Medical writing assistance, supported financially by Boehringer Ingelheim, was provided by Katharine Williams, of GeoMed, an Ashfield company, part of UDG Healthcare plc, during the preparation of this manuscript. The authors were fully responsible for all content and editorial decisions, were involved at all stages of manuscript development, and have approved the final version for submission.

References

1. Mundy GR. Metastasis to bone: causes, consequences and therapeutic opportunities. *Nat Rev Cancer* **2002**;2(8):584-93 doi 10.1038/nrc867.
2. Macedo F, Ladeira K, Pinho F, Saraiva N, Bonito N, Pinto L, *et al.* Bone metastases: An overview. *Oncol Rev* **2017**;11(1):321 doi 10.4081/oncol.2017.321.
3. Casimiro S, Ferreira AR, Mansinho A, Alho I, Costa L. Molecular mechanisms of bone metastasis: which targets came from the bench to the bedside? *Int J Mol Sci* **2016**;17(9):1415 doi 10.3390/ijms17091415.
4. Simpson A, Petnga W, Macaulay VM, Weyer-Czernilofsky U, Bogenrieder T. Insulin-like Growth Factor (IGF) pathway targeting in cancer: role of the IGF axis and opportunities for future combination studies. *Target Oncol* **2017**;12(5):571-97 doi 10.1007/s11523-017-0514-5.
5. Hernandez RK, Wade SW, Reich A, Pirolli M, Liede A, Lyman GH. Incidence of bone metastases in patients with solid tumors: analysis of oncology electronic medical records in the United States. *BMC Cancer* **2018**;18(1):44 doi 10.1186/s12885-017-3922-0.
6. Weilbaecher KN, Guise TA, McCauley LK. Cancer to bone: a fatal attraction. *Nat Rev Cancer* **2011**;11(6):411-25 doi 10.1038/nrc3055.
7. Fukutomi M, Yokota M, Chuman H, Harada H, Zaitzu Y, Funakoshi A, *et al.* Increased incidence of bone metastases in hepatocellular carcinoma. *Eur J Gastroenterol Hepatol* **2001**;13(9):1083-8.
8. Coleman RE. Metastatic bone disease: clinical features, pathophysiology and treatment strategies. *Cancer Treat Rev* **2001**;27(3):165-76 doi 10.1053/ctrv.2000.0210.
9. Hernandez RK, Adhia A, Wade SW, O'Connor E, Arellano J, Francis K, *et al.* Prevalence of bone metastases and bone-targeting agent use among solid tumor patients in the United States. *Clin Epidemiol* **2015**;7:335-45 doi 10.2147/CLEP.S85496.
10. Coleman RE. Clinical features of metastatic bone disease and risk of skeletal morbidity. *Clin Cancer Res* **2006**;12(20 Pt 2):6243s-49s doi 10.1158/1078-0432.CCR-06-0931.
11. Coleman R, Body JJ, Aapro M, Hadji P, Herrstedt J, on behalf of the ESMO Guidelines Working Group. Bone health in cancer patients: ESMO clinical practice guidelines. *Ann Oncol* **2014**;25(suppl_3):iii124-iii37 doi 10.1093/annonc/mdu103.
12. Zheng H, Li W, Kang Y. Tumor-stroma interactions in bone metastasis: molecular mechanisms and therapeutic implications. *Cold Spring Harb Symp Quant Biol* **2016**;81:151-61 doi 10.1101/sqb.2016.81.030775.
13. Steeg PS. Targeting metastasis. *Nat Rev Cancer* **2016**;16(4):201-18 doi 10.1038/nrc.2016.25.

14. Parker C, Heidenreich A, Nilsson S, Shore N. Current approaches to incorporation of radium-223 in clinical practice. *Prostate Cancer Prostatic Dis* **2018**;21(1):37-47 doi 10.1038/s41391-017-0020-y.
15. Fromigue O, Kheddoumi N, Body JJ. Bisphosphonates antagonise bone growth factors' effects on human breast cancer cells survival. *Br J Cancer* **2003**;89(1):178-84 doi 10.1038/sj.bjc.6601009.
16. Tang X, Zhang Q, Shi S, Yen Y, Li X, Zhang Y, *et al.* Bisphosphonates suppress insulin-like growth factor 1-induced angiogenesis via the HIF-1 α /VEGF signaling pathways in human breast cancer cells. *Int J Cancer* **2010**;126(1):90-103 doi 10.1002/ijc.24710.
17. Rizzoli R, Body JJ, Brandi ML, Cannata-Andia J, Chappard D, El Maghraoui A, *et al.* Cancer-associated bone disease. *Osteoporos Int* **2013**;24(12):2929-53 doi 10.1007/s00198-013-2530-3.
18. Kawai M, Rosen CJ. The insulin-like growth factor system in bone: basic and clinical implications. *Endocrinol Metab Clin North Am* **2012**;41(2):vi323-33 doi 10.1016/j.ecl.2012.04.013.
19. Bikle DD, Wang Y. Insulin-like growth factor-I and bone. *IBMS BoneKEy* **2011**;8(7):328-41.
20. Chitnis MM, Yuen JS, Protheroe AS, Pollak M, Macaulay VM. The type 1 insulin-like growth factor receptor pathway. *Clin Cancer Res* **2008**;14(20):6364-70 doi 10.1158/1078-0432.CCR-07-4879.
21. Sheng MH, Lau KH, Baylink DJ. Role of osteocyte-derived insulin-like growth factor I in developmental growth, modeling, remodeling, and regeneration of the bone. *J Bone Metab* **2014**;21(1):41-54 doi 10.11005/jbm.2014.21.1.41.
22. Roodman GD. Mechanisms of bone metastasis. *N Engl J Med* **2004**;350(16):1655-64 doi 10.1056/NEJMr030831.
23. Kimura T, Kuwata T, Ashimine S, Yamazaki M, Yamauchi C, Nagai K, *et al.* Targeting of bone-derived insulin-like growth factor-II by a human neutralizing antibody suppresses the growth of prostate cancer cells in a human bone environment. *Clin Cancer Res* **2010**;16(1):121-9 doi 10.1158/1078-0432.CCR-09-0982.
24. Crane JL, Cao X. Function of matrix IGF-1 in coupling bone resorption and formation. *J Mol Med (Berl)* **2014**;92(2):107-15 doi 10.1007/s00109-013-1084-3.
25. Govoni KE. Insulin-like growth factor-I molecular pathways in osteoblasts: potential targets for pharmacological manipulation. *Curr Mol Pharmacol* **2012**;5(2):143-52.

26. Wang Y, Nishida S, Elalieh HZ, Long RK, Halloran BP, Bikle DD. Role of IGF-I signaling in regulating osteoclastogenesis. *J Bone Miner Res* **2006**;21(9):1350-8 doi 10.1359/jbmr.060610.
27. Bosetti M, Sabbatini M, Nicoli E, Fusaro L, Cannas M. Effects and differentiation activity of IGF-I, IGF-II, insulin and preptin on human primary bone cells. *Growth Factors* **2013**;31(2):57-65 doi 10.3109/08977194.2013.770392.
28. Xian L, Wu X, Pang L, Lou M, Rosen CJ, Qiu T, *et al.* Matrix IGF-1 maintains bone mass by activation of mTOR in mesenchymal stem cells. *Nat Med* **2012**;18(7):1095-101 doi 10.1038/nm.2793.
29. Mochizuki H, Hakeda Y, Wakatsuki N, Usui N, Akashi S, Sato T, *et al.* Insulin-like growth factor-I supports formation and activation of osteoclasts. *Endocrinology* **1992**;131(3):1075-80 doi 10.1210/endo.131.3.1505451.
30. Bikle DD, Tahimic C, Chang W, Wang Y, Philippou A, Barton ER. Role of IGF-I signaling in muscle bone interactions. *Bone* **2015**;80:79-88 doi 10.1016/j.bone.2015.04.036.
31. Tahimic CG, Wang Y, Bikle DD. Anabolic effects of IGF-1 signaling on the skeleton. *Front Endocrinol (Lausanne)* **2013**;4:6 doi 10.3389/fendo.2013.00006.
32. Seck T, Scheppach B, Scharla S, Diel I, Blum WF, Bismar H, *et al.* Concentration of insulin-like growth factor (IGF)-I and -II in iliac crest bone matrix from pre- and postmenopausal women: relationship to age, menopause, bone turnover, bone volume, and circulating IGFs. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* **1998**;83(7):2331-7 doi 10.1210/jcem.83.7.4967.
33. Paget S. The distribution of secondary growths in cancer of the breast. *The Lancet* **1889**;133(3421):571-73 doi [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(00\)49915-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(00)49915-0).
34. Logothetis CJ, Lin SH. Osteoblasts in prostate cancer metastasis to bone. *Nat Rev Cancer* **2005**;5(1):21-8 doi 10.1038/nrc1528.
35. Zhang XH, Wang Q, Gerald W, Hudis CA, Norton L, Smid M, *et al.* Latent bone metastasis in breast cancer tied to Src-dependent survival signals. *Cancer Cell* **2009**;16(1):67-78 doi 10.1016/j.ccr.2009.05.017.
36. D'Oronzo S, Brown J, Coleman R. The role of biomarkers in the management of bone-homing malignancies. *J Bone Oncol* **2017**;9:1-9 doi 10.1016/j.jbo.2017.09.001.
37. Peinado H, Zhang H, Matei IR, Costa-Silva B, Hoshino A, Rodrigues G, *et al.* Pre-metastatic niches: organ-specific homes for metastases. *Nat Rev Cancer* **2017**;17(5):302-17 doi 10.1038/nrc.2017.6.

38. Sohail A, Sherin L, Butt SI, Javed S, Li Z, Iqbal S, *et al.* Role of key players in paradigm shifts of prostate cancer bone metastasis. *Cancer Manag Res* **2018**;10:1619-26 doi 10.2147/CMAR.S162525.
39. Tong HB, Zou CL, Qin SY, Meng J, Keller ET, Zhang J, *et al.* Prostate cancer tends to metastasize in the bone-mimicking microenvironment via activating NF-kappaB signaling. *J Biomed Res* **2018**;32(5):343-53 doi 10.7555/JBR.32.20180035.
40. Jin R, Sterling JA, Edwards JR, DeGraff DJ, Lee C, Park SI, *et al.* Activation of NF-kappa B signaling promotes growth of prostate cancer cells in bone. *PLoS One* **2013**;8(4):e60983 doi 10.1371/journal.pone.0060983.
41. Chen X, Pei Z, Peng H, Zheng Z. Exploring the molecular mechanism associated with breast cancer bone metastasis using bioinformatic analysis and microarray genetic interaction network. *Medicine (Baltimore)* **2018**;97(37):e12032 doi 10.1097/MD.00000000000012032.
42. Tseng JC, Lin CY, Su LC, Fu HH, Yang SD, Chuu CP. CAPE suppresses migration and invasion of prostate cancer cells via activation of non-canonical Wnt signaling. *Oncotarget* **2016**;7(25):38010-24 doi 10.18632/oncotarget.9380.
43. Campbell JP, Karolak MR, Ma Y, Perrien DS, Masood-Campbell SK, Penner NL, *et al.* Stimulation of host bone marrow stromal cells by sympathetic nerves promotes breast cancer bone metastasis in mice. *PLoS Biol* **2012**;10(7):e1001363 doi 10.1371/journal.pbio.1001363.
44. Tauro M, Lynch CC. Cutting to the chase: how matrix metalloproteinase-2 activity controls breast-cancer-to-bone metastasis. *Cancers (Basel)* **2018**;10(6) doi 10.3390/cancers10060185.
45. Sun YX, Wang J, Shelburne CE, Lopatin DE, Chinnaiyan AM, Rubin MA, *et al.* Expression of CXCR4 and CXCL12 (SDF-1) in human prostate cancers (PCa) in vivo. *J Cell Biochem* **2003**;89(3):462-73 doi 10.1002/jcb.10522.
46. Jinnah AH, Zacks BC, Gwam CU, Kerr BA. Emerging and established models of bone metastasis. *Cancers (Basel)* **2018**;10(6) doi 10.3390/cancers10060176.
47. Gorlick R, Janeway K, Lessnick S, Randall RL, Marina N. Children's Oncology Group's 2013 blueprint for research: bone tumors. *Pediatr Blood Cancer* **2013**;60(6):1009-15 doi 10.1002/pbc.24429.
48. Yang R, Piperdi S, Zhang Y, Zhu Z, Neophytou N, Hoang BH, *et al.* Transcriptional profiling identifies the signaling axes of IGF and transforming growth factor-b as involved in the pathogenesis of osteosarcoma. *Clin Orthop Relat Res* **2016**;474(1):178-89 doi 10.1007/s11999-015-4578-1.

49. Behjati S, Tarpey PS, Haase K, Ye H, Young MD, Alexandrov LB, *et al.* Recurrent mutation of IGF signalling genes and distinct patterns of genomic rearrangement in osteosarcoma. *Nat Commun* **2017**;8:15936 doi 10.1038/ncomms15936.
50. Samani AA, Yakar S, LeRoith D, Brodt P. The role of the IGF system in cancer growth and metastasis: overview and recent insights. *Endocr Rev* **2007**;28(1):20-47 doi 10.1210/er.2006-0001.
51. Brook N, Brook E, Dharmarajan A, Dass CR, Chan A. Breast cancer bone metastases: pathogenesis and therapeutic targets. *Int J Biochem Cell Biol* **2018**;96:63-78 doi 10.1016/j.biocel.2018.01.003.
52. Chan BT, Lee AV. Insulin receptor substrates (IRSs) and breast tumorigenesis. *J Mammary Gland Biol Neoplasia* **2008**;13(4):415-22 doi 10.1007/s10911-008-9101-9.
53. Sachdev D, Hartell JS, Lee AV, Zhang X, Yee D. A dominant negative type I insulin-like growth factor receptor inhibits metastasis of human cancer cells. *J Biol Chem* **2004**;279(6):5017-24 doi 10.1074/jbc.M305403200.
54. Sachdev D, Zhang X, Matise I, Gaillard-Kelly M, Yee D. The type I insulin-like growth factor receptor regulates cancer metastasis independently of primary tumor growth by promoting invasion and survival. *Oncogene* **2010**;29(2):251-62 doi 10.1038/onc.2009.316.
55. Zhang XH, Jin X, Malladi S, Zou Y, Wen YH, Brogi E, *et al.* Selection of bone metastasis seeds by mesenchymal signals in the primary tumor stroma. *Cell* **2013**;154(5):1060-73 doi 10.1016/j.cell.2013.07.036.
56. Vishwamitra D, George SK, Shi P, Kaseb AO, Amin HM. Type I insulin-like growth factor receptor signaling in hematological malignancies. *Oncotarget* **2017**;8(1):1814-44 doi 10.18632/oncotarget.12123.
57. van Golen CM, Schwab TS, Kim B, Soules ME, Su Oh S, Fung K, *et al.* Insulin-like growth factor-I receptor expression regulates neuroblastoma metastasis to bone. *Cancer Res* **2006**;66(13):6570-8 doi 10.1158/0008-5472.CAN-05-1448.
58. Rajbhandari N, Lin WC, Wehde BL, Triplett AA, Wagner KU. Autocrine IGF1 signaling mediates pancreatic tumor cell dormancy in the absence of oncogenic drivers. *Cell Rep* **2017**;18(9):2243-55 doi 10.1016/j.celrep.2017.02.013.
59. Shimizu T, Sugihara E, Yamaguchi-Iwai S, Tamaki S, Koyama Y, Kamel W, *et al.* IGF2 preserves osteosarcoma cell survival by creating an autophagic state of dormancy that protects cells against chemotherapeutic stress. *Cancer Res* **2014**;74(22):6531-41 doi 10.1158/0008-5472.CAN-14-0914.

60. Hiraga T, Myoui A, Hashimoto N, Sasaki A, Hata K, Morita Y, *et al.* Bone-derived IGF mediates crosstalk between bone and breast cancer cells in bony metastases. *Cancer Res* **2012**;72(16):4238-49 doi 10.1158/0008-5472.CAN-11-3061.
61. Kuchimaru T, Hoshino T, Aikawa T, Yasuda H, Kobayashi T, Kadonosono T, *et al.* Bone resorption facilitates osteoblastic bone metastatic colonization by cooperation of insulin-like growth factor and hypoxia. *Cancer Sci* **2014**;105(5):553-9 doi 10.1111/cas.12391.
62. Sangai T, Fujimoto H, Miyamoto S, Maeda H, Nakamura M, Ishii G, *et al.* Roles of osteoclasts and bone-derived IGFs in the survival and growth of human breast cancer cells in human adult bone implanted into nonobese diabetic/severe combined immunodeficient mice. *Clin Exp Metastasis* **2008**;25(4):401-10 doi 10.1007/s10585-008-9144-8.
63. Hwang YS, Ahn SY, Moon S, Zheng Z, Cha IH, Kim J, *et al.* Insulin-like growth factor-II mRNA binding protein-3 and podoplanin expression are associated with bone invasion and prognosis in oral squamous cell carcinoma. *Arch Oral Biol* **2016**;69:25-32 doi 10.1016/j.archoralbio.2016.05.008.
64. Nordstrand A, Bergstrom SH, Thysell E, Bovinder-Ylitalo E, Lerner UH, Widmark A, *et al.* Inhibition of the insulin-like growth factor-1 receptor potentiates acute effects of castration in a rat model for prostate cancer growth in bone. *Clin Exp Metastasis* **2017**;34(3-4):261-71 doi 10.1007/s10585-017-9848-8.
65. Liu X, Turbyville T, Fritz A, Whitesell L. Inhibition of insulin-like growth factor I receptor expression in neuroblastoma cells induces the regression of established tumors in mice. *Cancer Res* **1998**;58(23):5432-8.
66. Schillaci R, Salatino M, Cassataro J, Proietti CJ, Giambartolomei GH, Rivas MA, *et al.* Immunization with murine breast cancer cells treated with antisense oligodeoxynucleotides to type I insulin-like growth factor receptor induced an antitumoral effect mediated by a CD8⁺ response involving Fas/Fas ligand cytotoxic pathway. *J Immunol* **2006**;176(6):3426-37.
67. Durfort T, Tkach M, Meschaninova MI, Rivas MA, Elizalde PV, Venyaminova AG, *et al.* Small interfering RNA targeted to IGF-IR delays tumor growth and induces proinflammatory cytokines in a mouse breast cancer model. *PLoS One* **2012**;7(1):e29213 doi 10.1371/journal.pone.0029213.
68. Gvozdenovic A, Boro A, Born W, Muff R, Fuchs B. A bispecific antibody targeting IGF-IR and EGFR has tumor and metastasis suppressive activity in an orthotopic xenograft osteosarcoma mouse model. *Am J Cancer Res* **2017**;7(7):1435-49.
69. Goya M, Miyamoto S, Nagai K, Ohki Y, Nakamura K, Shitara K, *et al.* Growth inhibition of human prostate cancer cells in human adult bone implanted into nonobese diabetic/severe

- combined immunodeficient mice by a ligand-specific antibody to human insulin-like growth factors. *Cancer Res* **2004**;64(17):6252-8 doi 10.1158/0008-5472.CAN-04-0919.
70. Avnet S, Sciacca L, Salerno M, Gancitano G, Cassarino MF, Longhi A, *et al.* Insulin receptor isoform A and insulin-like growth factor II as additional treatment targets in human osteosarcoma. *Cancer Res* **2009**;69(6):2443-52 doi 10.1158/0008-5472.CAN-08-2645.
 71. Tap WD, Demetri G, Barnette P, Desai J, Kavan P, Tozer R, *et al.* Phase II study of ganitumab, a fully human anti-type-1 insulin-like growth factor receptor antibody, in patients with metastatic Ewing family tumors or desmoplastic small round cell tumors. *J Clin Oncol* **2012**;30(15):1849-56 doi 10.1200/JCO.2011.37.2359.
 72. Schwartz GK, Tap WD, Qin LX, Livingston MB, Undevia SD, Chmielowski B, *et al.* Cixutumumab and temsirolimus for patients with bone and soft-tissue sarcoma: a multicentre, open-label, phase 2 trial. *Lancet Oncol* **2013**;14(4):371-82 doi 10.1016/S1470-2045(13)70049-4.
 73. Anderson PM, Bielack SS, Gorlick RG, Skubitz K, Daw NC, Herzog CE, *et al.* A phase II study of clinical activity of SCH 717454 (robatumumab) in patients with relapsed osteosarcoma and Ewing sarcoma. *Pediatr Blood Cancer* **2016**;63(10):1761-70 doi 10.1002/pbc.26087.
 74. Juergens H, Daw NC, Geoerger B, Ferrari S, Villarroel M, Aerts I, *et al.* Preliminary efficacy of the anti-insulin-like growth factor type 1 receptor antibody figitumumab in patients with refractory Ewing sarcoma. *J Clin Oncol* **2011**;29(34):4534-40 doi 10.1200/JCO.2010.33.0670.
 75. Pappo AS, Patel SR, Crowley J, Reinke DK, Kuenkele KP, Chawla SP, *et al.* R1507, a monoclonal antibody to the insulin-like growth factor 1 receptor, in patients with recurrent or refractory Ewing sarcoma family of tumors: results of a phase II Sarcoma Alliance for Research through Collaboration study. *J Clin Oncol* **2011**;29(34):4541-7 doi 10.1200/JCO.2010.34.0000.
 76. Liu C, Zhang Z, Tang H, Jiang Z, You L, Liao Y. Crosstalk between IGF-1R and other tumor promoting pathways. *Curr Pharm Des* **2014**;20(17):2912-21.
 77. Rota LM, Albanito L, Shin ME, Goyeneche CL, Shushanov S, Gallagher EJ, *et al.* IGF1R inhibition in mammary epithelia promotes canonical Wnt signaling and Wnt1-driven tumors. *Cancer Res* **2014**;74(19):5668-79 doi 10.1158/0008-5472.CAN-14-0970.
 78. Schoffski P, Adkins D, Blay JY, Gil T, Elias AD, Rutkowski P, *et al.* An open-label, phase 2 study evaluating the efficacy and safety of the anti-IGF-1R antibody cixutumumab in patients with previously treated advanced or metastatic soft-tissue sarcoma or Ewing family of tumours. *Eur J Cancer* **2013**;49(15):3219-28 doi 10.1016/j.ejca.2013.06.010.

79. Pappo AS, Vassal G, Crowley JJ, Bolejack V, Hogendoorn PC, Chugh R, *et al.* A phase 2 trial of R1507, a monoclonal antibody to the insulin-like growth factor-1 receptor (IGF-1R), in patients with recurrent or refractory rhabdomyosarcoma, osteosarcoma, synovial sarcoma, and other soft tissue sarcomas: results of a Sarcoma Alliance for Research Through Collaboration study. *Cancer* **2014**;120(16):2448-56 doi 10.1002/cncr.28728.
80. Reidy-Lagunes DL, Vakiani E, Segal MF, Hollywood EM, Tang LH, Solit DB, *et al.* A phase 2 study of the insulin-like growth factor-1 receptor inhibitor MK-0646 in patients with metastatic, well-differentiated neuroendocrine tumors. *Cancer* **2012**;118(19):4795-800 doi 10.1002/cncr.27459.
81. Hanna NH, Dahlberg SE, Kolesar JM, Aggarwal C, Hirsch FR, Ramalingam SS, *et al.* Three-arm, randomized, phase 2 study of carboplatin and paclitaxel in combination with cetuximab, cixutumumab, or both for advanced non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC) patients who will not receive bevacizumab-based therapy: An Eastern Cooperative Oncology Group (ECOG) study (E4508). *Cancer* **2015**;121(13):2253-61 doi 10.1002/cncr.29308.
82. Chiappori AA, Otterson GA, Dowlati A, Traynor AM, Horn L, Owonikoko TK, *et al.* A randomized phase II study of linsitinib (OSI-906) versus topotecan in patients with relapsed small-cell lung cancer. *Oncologist* **2016**;21(10):1163-4 doi 10.1634/theoncologist.2016-0220.
83. Schmitz S, Kaminsky-Forrett MC, Henry S, Zanetta S, Geoffrois L, Bompas E, *et al.* Phase II study of figitumumab in patients with recurrent and/or metastatic squamous cell carcinoma of the head and neck: clinical activity and molecular response (GORTEC 2008-02). *Ann Oncol* **2012**;23(8):2153-61 doi 10.1093/annonc/mdr574.
84. Abou-Alfa GK, Capanu M, O'Reilly EM, Ma J, Chou JF, Gansukh B, *et al.* A phase II study of cixutumumab (IMC-A12, NSC742460) in advanced hepatocellular carcinoma. *J Hepatol* **2014**;60(2):319-24 doi 10.1016/j.jhep.2013.09.008.
85. Becerra CR, Salazar R, Garcia-Carbonero R, Thomas AL, Vazquez-Mazon FJ, Cassidy J, *et al.* Figitumumab in patients with refractory metastatic colorectal cancer previously treated with standard therapies: a nonrandomized, open-label, phase II trial. *Cancer Chemother Pharmacol* **2014**;73(4):695-702 doi 10.1007/s00280-014-2391-2.
86. Friedbichler K, Hofmann MH, Kroez M, Ostermann E, Lamche HR, Koessl C, *et al.* Pharmacodynamic and antineoplastic activity of BI 836845, a fully human IGF ligand-neutralizing antibody, and mechanistic rationale for combination with rapamycin. *Mol Cancer Ther* **2014**;13(2):399-409 doi 10.1158/1535-7163.MCT-13-0598.
87. Haluska P, Menefee M, Plimack ER, Rosenberg J, Northfelt D, LaVallee T, *et al.* Phase I dose-escalation study of MEDI-573, a bispecific, antiligand monoclonal antibody against IGFI and

- IGFII, in patients with advanced solid tumors. Clin Cancer Res **2014**;20(18):4747-57 doi 10.1158/1078-0432.CCR-14-0114.
88. Sclafani F, Kim TY, Cunningham D, Kim TW, Tabernero J, Schmoll HJ, *et al.* A randomized phase II/III study of dalotuzumab in combination with cetuximab and irinotecan in chemorefractory, KRAS wild-type, metastatic colorectal cancer. J Natl Cancer Inst **2015**;107(12):djv258 doi 10.1093/jnci/djv258.
89. Nordstrand A, Lundholm M, Larsson A, Lerner UH, Widmark A, Wikström P. Inhibition of the insulin-like growth factor-1 receptor enhances effects of simvastatin on prostate cancer cells in co-culture with bone. Cancer Microenviron **2013**;6(3):231-40 doi 10.1007/s12307-013-0129-z.

Table 1. In-vitro and in-vivo studies investigating inhibition of the IGF/IGF-R1 axis for bone metastases and osteosarcoma

Tumor type	Inhibitor	Target	Model	Results	Reference
PC – bone metastases	NVP-AEW541 (TKI) ± castration	IGF-R1	Rat PC cell line (Dunning) injected into tibial bone of immune-competent rats. NVP-AEW541 given 4 weeks later, then by castration / sham castration	Tumor cell proliferation significantly reduced independently of growth site (inside or outside bone marrow cavity); maximum decrease (24%) within bone marrow cavity when combined with castration	(64)
PC – bone metastases	NVP-AEW541 (TKI) ± simvastatin	IGF-R1	Human PC cells (PC-3 and 22Rv1) co-cultured with neonatal mouse calvarial bones (to simulate the bone microenvironment)	Significant increase in apoptotic cells; most pronounced when combined with simvastatin	(89)
BC – bone metastases	486STOP (dominant-negative IGF-R1)	IGF (competitive inhibition of binding to IGF-R1)	Mice inoculated with human BC cells (MDA-MB-231) stably transfected with 486STOP	Reduction in bone metastases in 486STOP-transfected cells versus controls	(60,61,64)
BC – bone metastases	KM1468 (anti-human mAb)	IGF-1, IGF-2	Human BC cells (MCF-7) injected into human adult bone, implanted into mice; mice treated for 4 weeks with KM1468 immediately after injection of BC cells	Tumor area of MCF-7 cells in the implanted bone decreased to about 30% of the tumor area in controls. No effect on growth of subcutaneously injected MCF-7 cells	(62)
PC – bone metastases	KM1468 (anti-human mAb)	IGF-1, IGF-2	Human PC cells (MDA PCa 2b) injected into human adult bone, implanted into mice; KM1468 given for 4 weeks immediately before or 4 weeks after injection of PC cells	KM1468 markedly suppressed development of new bone tumors and progression of established tumor foci	(69)
PC – bone metastases	m610 (anti-human mAb)	IGF-2	Human PC cells (MDA PCa 2b) injected into human adult bone, implanted into mice; m610 given for 4 weeks immediately after injection of PC cells	m610 significantly, but not completely, suppressed growth of bone tumors via suppression of tumor cell proliferation. No inhibition in prostate cancer cells not implanted in bone.	(23)
Osteosarcoma	R1507 (anti-IGF-1R mAb), cetuximab (anti-EGFR mAb), XGFR (bispecific IGF-1R/EGFR Ab)	IGF-1R ± EGFR	Human osteosarcoma cells injected into mouse tibia; mice then treated with R1507, cetuximab, R1507 + cetuximab or XGFR for 3 weeks	Primary tumor growth significantly inhibited by cetuximab and XGFR; R1507 had no effect, alone or in combination with cetuximab. Mice treated with XGFR, but not other agents, had significantly fewer lung metastases than controls.	(68)

BC, breast cancer; EGFR, epidermal growth factor receptor; IGF-1, insulin-like growth factor-1; IGF-1R, insulin-like growth factor 1 receptor; mAb, monoclonal antibody; PC, prostate cancer; TKI, tyrosine kinase inhibitor

Supplementary Table 1. Phase 2 and 3 clinical studies of therapeutic agents targeting the IGF axis

Tumor type	Inhibitor^a	Phase	Key efficacy results	Reference^b
Osteosarcoma, Ewing sarcoma	Robatumumab	2	ORR 10% in resectable osteosarcoma; no response in unresectable osteosarcoma; 7% PR and 27% SD in Ewing sarcoma (six responding patients remained in remission for >4 years)	Anderson et al 2016 (1)
Ewing family tumors, desmoplastic small round tumors	Ganitumumab	2	ORR 6%, SD 49%	Tap et al 2012 (2)
Ewing sarcoma, soft-tissue sarcoma	Cixutumumab	2	Some evidence of efficacy in adipocytic sarcoma (12-week PFS 32%); limited in other tumor types	Schoffski et al 2013 (3)
Ewing sarcoma	Figitumumab	2	ORR 14%, SD 24%	Juergens et al 2011 (4)
Ewing sarcoma	R1507	2	ORR 10%; 10/11 responses were in patients with primary bone tumors	Pappo et al. 2011 (5)
Bone and soft tissue sarcoma	Cixutumumab + temsirolimus	2	PR 5%	Schwartz et al 2013 (6)
Rhabdomyosarcoma, osteosarcoma, synovial sarcoma, other soft tissue sarcomas	R1507	2	ORR 2.5%	Pappo et al 2014 (7)
Neuroendocrine tumors	Dalotuzumab	2	No objective responses	Reidy-Lagunes et al. 2012 (8)
Non-small cell lung cancer	Paclitaxel, carboplatin, bevacizumab ± cixutumumab	2	ORR 59% with cixutumumab vs 46% without (p = 0.15); median OS 16.1 vs 16.2 months	Argiris et al 2017 (9)
Non-small cell lung cancer	Paclitaxel, carboplatin + cixutumumab OR cixutumumab-cetuximab	2	ORR 22% for both arms	Hanna et al 2015 (10)
Non-small cell lung cancer	Erlotinib ± linsitinib		ORR 48% with linsitinib vs 75% without	Leighl et al 2017 (11)
Small cell lung cancer	Linistininib	2	SD 3%	Chiappori et al. 2016 (12)
Head and neck SCC	Figitumumab	2	SD 12%	Schmitz et al. 2012 (13)
Head and neck SCC	Cixutumumab ± cetuximab	2	Clinical benefit rate 15.3% with cetuximab + cixutumumab vs 5.9% with cixutumumab alone	Ferrarotto et al 2018 (14)
Hepatocellular carcinoma	Cixutumumab	2	No objective responses	Abou-Alfa et al. 2014 (15)
Colorectal cancer	Figitumumab	2	No objective responses	Becerra et al. 2014 (16)
Colorectal cancer	Cixutumumab ± cetuximab	2	No objective responses with monotherapy; 1 response with cixutumumab + cetuximab	Reidy et al 2010 (17)

Tumor type	Inhibitor ^a	Phase	Key efficacy results	Reference ^b
Colorectal cancer	Robatumumab ± chemotherapy	2	12% SD among all patients treated with robatumumab	Lin et al 2014 (18)
Colorectal cancer (<i>KRAS</i> wild type)	Cetuximab, irinotecan ± dalotuzumab	2/3	ORR 22% with dalotumumab vs 26% without; median OS 10.8 vs 14.0 months	Sclafani et al 2015 (19)
Colorectal cancer (<i>KRAS</i> mutant)	Cetuximab, irinotecan ± dalotuzumab	2/3	ORR 6% with dalotumumab vs 5% without; median OS 7.8 vs 7.8 months	Sclafani et al 2017 (20)
Pancreatic cancer	Gemcitabine, erlotinib ± cixutumumab	1b/2	ORR 12% with cixutumumab vs 15% without; median OS 7.0 vs 6.7 months	Philip et al 2014 (21)
Prostate cancer	Linsitinib	2	ORR 6%; SD 47%	Barata et al 2018 (22)
Prostate cancer	ADT ± cixutumumab	2	Undetectable PSA rate 40% with cixutumumab vs 32% without	Yu et al 2015 (23)
Breast cancer	Cixutumumab	2	No objective responses to monotherapy	Gradishar et al. 2016 (24)
Breast cancer	Exemestane or fulvestrant ± ganitumumab	2	Median OS worse with ganitumumab than without (HR 1.78; p = 0.025)	Robertson et al 2013 (25)
Ovarian cancer	Ganitumumab	2	ORR 7%	Ray-Coquard et al 2013 (26)

^aCixutumumab, dalotuzumab, figitumumab, ganitumumab, robatumumab, and R1507 are monoclonal antibodies against insulin-like growth factor-1 receptor (IGF-1R); linsitinib is a small molecule inhibitor of the tyrosine kinase activity of IGF-1R and insulin receptor

^bReference numbers relate to the list of supplementary references (see next page)

ADT, androgen-deprivation therapy; ORR, objective response rate; OS, overall survival; PR, partial response; PSA, prostate-specific antigen; SCC, squamous cell carcinoma; SD, stable disease

Supplementary references

1. Anderson PM, Bielack SS, Gorlick RG, Skubitz K, Daw NC, Herzog CE, et al. A phase II study of clinical activity of SCH 717454 (robatumumab) in patients with relapsed osteosarcoma and Ewing sarcoma. *Pediatr Blood Cancer* 2016;63:1761-70.
2. Tap WD, Demetri G, Barnette P, Desai J, Kavan P, Tozer R, et al. Phase II study of ganitumab, a fully human anti-type-1 insulin-like growth factor receptor antibody, in patients with metastatic Ewing family tumors or desmoplastic small round cell tumors. *J Clin Oncol* 2012;30:1849-56.
3. Schoffski P, Adkins D, Blay JY, Gil T, Elias AD, Rutkowski P, et al. An open-label, phase 2 study evaluating the efficacy and safety of the anti-IGF-1R antibody cixutumumab in patients with previously treated advanced or metastatic soft-tissue sarcoma or Ewing family of tumours. *Eur J Cancer* 2013;49:3219-28.
4. Juergens H, Daw NC, Geoerger B, Ferrari S, Villarroel M, Aerts I, et al. Preliminary efficacy of the anti-insulin-like growth factor type 1 receptor antibody figitumumab in patients with refractory Ewing sarcoma. *J Clin Oncol* 2011;29:4534-40.
5. Pappo AS, Patel SR, Crowley J, Reinke DK, Kuenkele KP, Chawla SP, et al. R1507, a monoclonal antibody to the insulin-like growth factor 1 receptor, in patients with recurrent or refractory Ewing sarcoma family of tumors: results of a phase II Sarcoma Alliance for Research through Collaboration study. *J Clin Oncol* 2011;29:4541-7.
6. Schwartz GK, Tap WD, Qin LX, Livingston MB, Undevia SD, Chmielowski B, et al. Cixutumumab and temsirolimus for patients with bone and soft-tissue sarcoma: a multicentre, open-label, phase 2 trial. *Lancet Oncol* 2013;14:371-82.
7. Pappo AS, Vassal G, Crowley JJ, Bolejack V, Hogendoorn PC, Chugh R, et al. A phase 2 trial of R1507, a monoclonal antibody to the insulin-like growth factor-1 receptor (IGF-1R), in patients with recurrent or refractory rhabdomyosarcoma, osteosarcoma, synovial sarcoma, and other soft tissue sarcomas: results of a Sarcoma Alliance for Research Through Collaboration study. *Cancer* 2014;120:2448-56.
8. Reidy-Lagunes DL, Vakiani E, Segal MF, Hollywood EM, Tang LH, Solit DB, et al. A phase 2 study of the insulin-like growth factor-1 receptor inhibitor MK-0646 in patients with metastatic, well-differentiated neuroendocrine tumors. *Cancer* 2012;118:4795-800.
9. Argiris A, Lee JW, Stevenson J, Sulecki MG, Hucec V, Choong NW, et al. Phase II randomized trial of carboplatin, paclitaxel, bevacizumab with or without cixutumumab (IMC-A12) in patients with advanced non-squamous, non-small-cell lung cancer: a trial of the ECOG-ACRIN Cancer Research Group (E3508). *Ann Oncol* 2017;28:3037-43.
10. Hanna NH, Dahlberg SE, Kolesar JM, Aggarwal C, Hirsch FR, Ramalingam SS, et al. Three-arm, randomized, phase 2 study of carboplatin and paclitaxel in combination with cetuximab, cixutumumab, or both for advanced non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC) patients who will not receive bevacizumab-based therapy: An Eastern Cooperative Oncology Group (ECOG) study (E4508). *Cancer* 2015;121:2253-61.
11. Leighl NB, Rizvi NA, de Lima LG, Jr., Arpornwirat W, Rudin CM, Chiappori AA, et al. Phase 2 study of erlotinib in combination with linsitinib (OSI-906) or placebo in chemotherapy-naïve patients with non-small-cell lung cancer and activating epidermal growth factor receptor mutations. *Clin Lung Cancer* 2017;18:34-42 e2.
12. Chiappori AA, Otterson GA, Dowlati A, Traynor AM, Horn L, Owonikoko TK, et al. A randomized phase II study of linsitinib (OSI-906) versus topotecan in patients with relapsed small-cell lung cancer. *Oncologist* 2016;21:1163-64.
13. Schmitz S, Kaminsky-Forreth MC, Henry S, Zanetta S, Geoffrois L, Bompas E, et al. Phase II study of figitumumab in patients with recurrent and/or metastatic squamous cell carcinoma of the head and neck: clinical activity and molecular response (GORTEC 2008-02). *Ann Oncol* 2012;23:2153-61.
14. Ferrarotto R, William WN, Jr., Tseng JE, Marur S, Shin DM, Murphy B, et al. Randomized phase II trial of cixutumumab alone or with cetuximab for refractory recurrent/metastatic head and neck squamous cell carcinoma. *Oral Oncol* 2018;82:83-90.

15. Abou-Alfa GK, Capanu M, O'Reilly EM, Ma J, Chou JF, Gansukh B, et al. A phase II study of cixutumumab (IMC-A12, NSC742460) in advanced hepatocellular carcinoma. *J Hepatol* 2014;60:319-24.
16. Becerra CR, Salazar R, Garcia-Carbonero R, Thomas AL, Vazquez-Mazon FJ, Cassidy J, et al. Figitumumab in patients with refractory metastatic colorectal cancer previously treated with standard therapies: a nonrandomized, open-label, phase II trial. *Cancer Chemother Pharmacol* 2014;73:695-702.
17. Reidy DL, Vakiani E, Fakih MG, Saif MW, Hecht JR, Goodman-Davis N, et al. Randomized, phase II study of the insulin-like growth factor-1 receptor inhibitor IMC-A12, with or without cetuximab, in patients with cetuximab- or panitumumab-refractory metastatic colorectal cancer. *J Clin Oncol* 2010;28:4240-6.
18. Lin EH, Lenz HJ, Saleh MN, Mackenzie MJ, Knost JA, Pathiraja K, et al. A randomized, phase II study of the anti-insulin-like growth factor receptor type 1 (IGF-1R) monoclonal antibody robatumumab (SCH 717454) in patients with advanced colorectal cancer. *Cancer Med* 2014;3:988-97.
19. Sclafani F, Kim TY, Cunningham D, Kim TW, Tabernero J, Schmoll HJ, et al. A randomized phase II/III study of dalotuzumab in combination with cetuximab and irinotecan in chemorefractory, KRAS wild-type, metastatic colorectal cancer. *J Natl Cancer Inst* 2015;107:djv258.
20. Sclafani F, Kim TY, Cunningham D, Kim TW, Tabernero J, Schmoll HJ, et al. Dalotuzumab in chemorefractory KRAS exon 2 mutant colorectal cancer: Results from a randomised phase II/III trial. *Int J Cancer* 2017;140:431-39.
21. Philip PA, Goldman B, Ramanathan RK, Lenz HJ, Lowy AM, Whitehead RP, et al. Dual blockade of epidermal growth factor receptor and insulin-like growth factor receptor-1 signaling in metastatic pancreatic cancer: phase Ib and randomized phase II trial of gemcitabine, erlotinib, and cixutumumab versus gemcitabine plus erlotinib (SWOG S0727). *Cancer* 2014;120:2980-5.
22. Barata P, Cooney M, Tyler A, Wright J, Dreicer R, Garcia JA. A phase 2 study of OSI-906 (linsitinib, an insulin-like growth factor receptor-1 inhibitor) in patients with asymptomatic or mildly symptomatic (non-opioid requiring) metastatic castrate resistant prostate cancer (CRPC). *Invest New Drugs* 2018;36:451-57.
23. Yu EY, Li H, Higano CS, Agarwal N, Pal SK, Alva A, et al. SWOG S0925: a randomized phase II study of androgen deprivation combined with cixutumumab versus androgen deprivation alone in patients with new metastatic hormone-sensitive prostate cancer. *J Clin Oncol* 2015;33:1601-8.
24. Gradishar WJ, Yardley DA, Layman R, Sparano JA, Chuang E, Northfelt DW, et al. Clinical and translational results of a phase II, randomized trial of an anti-IGF-1R (cixutumumab) in women with breast cancer that progressed on endocrine therapy. *Clin Cancer Res* 2016;22:301-9.
25. Robertson JF, Ferrero JM, Bourgeois H, Kennecke H, de Boer RH, Jacot W, et al. Ganitumab with either exemestane or fulvestrant for postmenopausal women with advanced, hormone-receptor-positive breast cancer: a randomised, controlled, double-blind, phase 2 trial. *Lancet Oncol* 2013;14:228-35.
26. Ray-Coquard I, Haluska P, O'Reilly S, Cottu PH, Elit L, Provencher DM, et al. A multicenter open-label phase II study of the efficacy and safety of ganitumab (AMG 479), a fully human monoclonal antibody against insulin-like growth factor type 1 receptor (IGF-1R) as second-line therapy in patients with recurrent platinum-sensitive ovarian cancer. 2013;31:5515-15.