REVIEW ARTICLE

Deciphering the Molecular Mechanisms of Cancer: Role of Proto-Oncogenes and Targeted Therapies

S. Hari Hara Sudhan[1], K. Poshavi[2], K. Ankitha Sai[2], B. Hema Latha[2], P. Jyothika Bai[2]

[1]Department of Pharmaceutics, College of Pharmacy, Haridwar University, Roorkee, Uttarakhand, India, [2]Department of Pharmacy, Raghavendra Institute of Pharmaceutical Education and Research Autonomous, Anantapur, Andhra Pradesh, India

Abstract

Cancer is a multifaceted disease characterized by uncontrolled cell growth, invasion, and metastasis. At the molecular level, proto-oncogenes play a critical role in normal cell growth and differentiation. However, their conversion into oncogenes due to mutations or overexpression can drive tumorigenesis. This review delves into the molecular transformation of proto-oncogenes into oncogenes and the underlying causes, including genetic mutations, chromosomal abnormalities, and viral infections. In addition, we explore the significance of tumor suppressor genes in counteracting oncogenic signals and their role in maintaining cellular integrity. Advancements in cancer research have led to the development of targeted therapies that specifically inhibit oncogene-driven malignancies. Initially, oncogene-targeted drugs such as Herceptin, gefitinib, and STI-571, along with monoclonal antibodies, have revolutionized cancer treatment by disrupting tumor-promoting pathways while minimizing damage to normal cells. Furthermore, recent developments in oncogene-directed therapies are paving the way for precision medicine in oncology. By understanding the molecular basis of cancer, researchers can develop innovative therapeutic strategies to combat malignancies at their roots. This review highlights the importance of proto-oncogene regulation, oncogene inhibition, and emerging targeted therapies in the fight against cancer, offering insights into future directions in molecular oncology.

Key words: Proto-oncogenes, Oncogenes, Tumor suppressor genes, Targeted therapy, Molecular oncology, Tumorigenesis

INTRODUCTION

Molecular basis of cancer: Oncogenes and tumor suppressor genes

Cancer is a complex disease characterized by uncontrolled cell growth, tissue invasion, and potential metastasis to distant organs. It originates in various tissues and is categorized into four main types: Carcinomas (from epithelial cells, e.g., breast, lung, and colon cancer), sarcomas (from connective tissues such as bone and muscle), lymphomas (affecting the immune system's lymphocytes), and leukemias (blood cancers disrupting normal blood cell production). Promo-oncogenes are essential genes that regulate normal cell growth and differentiation, ensuring controlled cell division. However, mutations or overexpression of proto-oncogenes can convert them into oncogenes, leading to uncontrolled cell proliferation and tumor formation. Proto-oncogenes typically function in signal transduction pathways and mitogenic signaling, playing crucial roles in cell cycle progression. Examples of proto-oncogenes include RAS, WNT, MYC, ERK, and TRK, which are involved in various cellular functions such as cell division, differentiation, and survival. Oncogenes can function through multiple mechanisms, including growth factor stimulation, receptor activation, and signal transduction. For instance, sis and PDGF act as growth factors that promote cell proliferation, whereas ErbB and EGF receptors function as growth factor receptors, amplifying mitogenic signals. In addition, oncogenes such

Address for correspondence:
S. Hari Hara Sudhan, Department of Pharmaceutics, College of Pharmacy, Haridwar University, 5 Km Canal Road, Bajuheri, Roorkee - 247667, Uttarakhand, India.
E-mail: sudhankrnt@gmail.com

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as RAS play a key role in intracellular signal transduction, leading to excessive cellular division when mutated. Nuclear transcription factors such as c-Myc also contribute to oncogenic transformation by driving gene expression changes that support continuous cell growth.[1,2]

The activation of proto-oncogenes into oncogenes can occur through different mechanisms, including mutations, increased gene expression, or chromosomal alterations. Mutations can cause changes in protein structure, leading to increased enzymatic activity or loss of regulatory control. Gene amplification results in an overproduction of oncogene products, enhancing tumorigenic potential. Chromosomal translocations, commonly seen in leukemias, can place oncogenes under the control of highly active promoters or result in fusion proteins with continuous activity. In addition, dysregulation of microRNAs (miRNAs) can lead to oncogene activation by failing to suppress oncogenic gene expression. Advances in cancer research have identified numerous oncogenes responsible for different malignancies, and targeted therapies have been developed to inhibit their function. Many cancer drugs specifically target oncogenic pathways, aiming to block tumor cell growth and proliferation.[3]

In contrast, tumor suppressor genes act as critical safeguards against abnormal cell growth and cancer development by regulating cell cycle progression, repairing DNA damage, and inducing apoptosis when necessary. When tumor suppressor genes are inactivated due to mutations or deletions, cells lose control over growth, leading to tumor formation. One of the most well-known tumor suppressors is p53, often referred to as the "guardian of the genome," as it plays a pivotal role in preventing cancer by inducing cell cycle arrest or apoptosis in response to DNA damage. Mutations in p53 are found in a wide range of cancers, including colon, breast, and lung cancer, contributing significantly to their pathogenesis. Similarly, the retinoblastoma protein (RB) regulates the cell cycle by preventing excessive cell proliferation. Loss of RB function disrupts the normal regulatory mechanisms, allowing unchecked cell division. Other tumor suppressor genes, such as PTEN, APC, and CD95, are also essential in maintaining normal cellular function. PTEN negatively regulates the PI3K/AKT pathway, which is crucial for cell survival and growth, whereas APC plays a role in Wnt signaling and is frequently mutated in colorectal cancer. CD95, also known as the Fas receptor, is involved in programmed cell death, and its dysfunction can contribute to tumor survival by evading apoptosis.

Tumor suppressor genes can also act as metastasis suppressors, preventing cancer cells from spreading to distant organs. These genes help maintain cell adhesion and inhibit invasive properties that allow cancer metastasis. The discovery of tumor suppressor genes has paved the way for therapeutic interventions that aim to restore their function or counteract their loss. Understanding the balance between oncogenes and tumor suppressor genes is fundamental in cancer biology, as both play crucial roles in tumor initiation, progression, and response to treatment. As research advances, new therapeutic strategies, including gene therapy and targeted molecular drugs, continue to emerge, offering hope for more effective cancer treatments.[4,5]

Genetic and environmental causes of cancer

Cancer development is a multifaceted process influenced by both genetic mutations and environmental factors. Mutagens – agents that induce DNA mutations – play a pivotal role in this process. Chemical carcinogens such as tobacco smoke, asbestos, and alcohol have been extensively studied for their mutagenic properties. Tobacco smoke, for instance, contains over 70 known carcinogens, including polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons and nitrosamines, which can directly damage DNA and promote cancer formation. Similarly, prolonged exposure to asbestos fibers is associated with mesothelioma, a cancer affecting the lining of the lungs. Alcohol consumption has also been linked to various cancers, including those of the breast, mouth, and throat, with risks increasing proportionally to the amount consumed.[6,7]

Ionizing radiation, such as ultraviolet (UV) rays from the sun and radon gas exposure, is another significant mutagenic factor. UV radiation can lead to skin malignancies, such as melanoma, by causing direct DNA damage. Radon gas, a naturally occurring radioactive substance, has been implicated in lung cancer development, particularly among individuals with prolonged exposure.[8]

Infectious agents also contribute to cancer risk. Certain viruses, including human papillomavirus (HPV), hepatitis B virus (HBV), hepatitis C viruses (HCV), and Epstein–Barr virus (EBV), have been identified as carcinogenic. For example, HPV infection is a well-established cause of cervical cancer, while chronic hepatitis infections can lead to liver cancer. In addition, the bacterium *Helicobacter pylori* has been linked to gastric cancer, highlighting the role of bacterial infections in oncogenesis.[9]

Hereditary factors further influence cancer susceptibility. Inherited mutations in specific genes can markedly elevate the risk of certain cancers. Mutations in the *BRCA1* and *BRCA2* genes,[10] for instance, significantly increase the likelihood of developing breast and ovarian cancers. Similarly, mutations in the *APC* gene are associated with familial adenomatous polyposis,[11] a condition predisposing individuals to colon cancer. The *TP53* gene, when mutated, leads to Li-Fraumeni syndrome, characterized by a heightened risk for various cancers, including sarcomas and breast cancer.[12] Moreover, individuals with Down syndrome, resulting from an extra chromosome 21, have an increased incidence of leukemia, underscoring the complex interplay between genetics and cancer risk.[13]

Pathophysiology and mechanisms of cancer progression

Cancer progression is driven by multiple genetic alterations that disrupt the normal regulation of cell growth and division. These genetic changes can take various forms, including point mutations, deletions, insertions, chromosomal translocations, and aneuploidy.

Point mutations involve the alteration of a single nucleotide within a gene, which can either activate oncogenes – genes that promote cancer – or inactivate tumor suppressor genes, which normally prevent excessive cell proliferation. An example of oncogene activation through point mutation is KRAS, which is frequently mutated in pancreatic, lung, and colorectal cancers, leading to constitutive activation of cell signaling pathways.[14] On the other hand, tumor suppressor genes such as TP53 can undergo mutations that disable their function in regulating cell cycle arrest and apoptosis, contributing to cancer progression.[12]

Deletions and insertions can also play a crucial role in cancer development by disrupting the normal coding sequence of critical genes, leading to the production of dysfunctional proteins or complete loss of gene function. A well-known example of gene deletion is CDKN2A (p16INK4a), a tumor suppressor frequently deleted in melanomas, resulting in uncontrolled cell cycle progression.[15] Insertions, such as those observed in BRCA1, can lead to frameshift mutations that impair the gene's function, significantly increasing the risk of breast and ovarian cancer.[10]

Chromosomal translocations, where segments of one chromosome break off and attach to another, can result in the fusion of genes, producing abnormal proteins that drive cancer progression. A prominent example is the BCR-ABL fusion protein in chronic myeloid leukemia, which results from a translocation between chromosomes 9 and 22, leading to the production of a constitutively active tyrosine kinase that drives uncontrolled cell proliferation. Other examples include the EWS-FLI1 fusion in Ewing sarcoma, caused by a translocation between chromosomes 11 and 22, and the MYC-IgH translocation in Burkitt lymphoma (t[8;14]), which places the MYC oncogene under the control of the immunoglobulin heavy chain promoter, leading to excessive cell proliferation.[15]

Beyond these mutations, aneuploidy – an abnormal number of chromosomes – also plays a significant role in cancer development. Errors in mitosis can lead to the gain or loss of entire chromosomes, disrupting the balance of oncogenes and tumor suppressor genes. For instance, chromosome gain often leads to amplification of oncogenes such as MYC, which is commonly observed in aggressive cancers such as neuroblastoma and breast cancer. Conversely, chromosome loss can result in the deletion of crucial tumor suppressor genes, such as RB1, which is frequently lost in RB and other malignancies. Furthermore, genes involved in mitotic checkpoint control, such as TP53, BUB1, and AURKA, contribute to chromosomal instability; their dysfunction leads to widespread aneuploidy, which is commonly observed in aggressive cancers where chromosomal imbalances contribute to drug resistance and rapid tumor progression.[16]

miRNA dysregulation is a key mechanism in oncogene activation and cancer progression. These small non-coding RNA molecules regulate gene expression by binding to messenger RNAs and preventing their translation into proteins. In cancer, certain tumor-suppressive miRNAs, such as let-7 and miR-34, are often underexpressed, leading to unchecked oncogene activation. For example, reduced levels of let-7 have been linked to increased expression of the oncogene RAS, driving tumor growth. Conversely, some oncogenic miRNAs, such as miR-21, become overexpressed, inhibiting tumor suppressor genes such as PTEN and TP53, which promotes malignancy. Research suggests that targeting specific miRNAs could be a promising therapeutic strategy, with clinical trials currently investigating miRNA-based therapies for cancers such as lung, breast, and liver cancer.[17-20]

Viral infections are a significant factor contributing to genetic alterations in cancer, as certain viruses introduce oncogenes into host cells or integrate their DNA near proto-oncogenes, triggering uncontrolled cell division. HBV and HCV are well-known for causing liver cancer (hepatocellular carcinoma) by integrating viral DNA into the host genome, leading to mutations in key regulatory genes such as TP53 and activation of oncogenic pathways such as Wnt/β-catenin signaling.

HPV, particularly high-risk strains such as HPV-16 and HPV-18, produces viral oncoproteins E6 and E7, which inactivate tumor suppressor genes *TP53* and *RB1*, significantly increasing the risk of cervical, head and neck, and anogenital cancers. EBV has been linked to lymphomas, nasopharyngeal carcinoma, and gastric cancer by expressing LMP1, an oncoprotein that constitutively activates the nuclear factor kappa B (NF-κB) and JAK/STAT pathways, promoting cell survival and proliferation.

In addition, human T-cell leukemia virus type 1 causes adult T-cell leukemia/lymphoma by expressing the Tax protein, which disrupts cell cycle regulation and enhances oncogenic signaling via NF-κB activation. Merkel cell polyomavirus has been implicated in Merkel cell carcinoma by integrating into the host genome and expressing the large T antigen, which inhibits RB1, driving uncontrolled cell proliferation. Kaposi's sarcoma-associated herpesvirus contributes to Kaposi's sarcoma and certain lymphomas by expressing viral proteins such as vFLIP, which activates the NF-κB pathway, preventing apoptosis and promoting tumor growth.[21-23] Table 1 summarizes key genetic alterations driving cancer progression and also highlights how these

Table 1: Genetic alterations and their impact on cancer progression

Genetic alteration	Examples	Impact on cancer progression
Point Mutations	-KRAS (oncogene activation in pancreatic, lung, and colorectal cancer) -TP53 (tumor suppressor inactivation)	-KRAS: Constitutive activation of signaling pathways -TP53: Loss of cell cycle arrest and apoptosis
Deletions & Insertions	-CDKN2A (p16INK4a) (deleted in melanomas) -BRCA1 (insertions cause frameshift mutations)	-CDKN2A: Uncontrolled cell cycle progression -BRCA1: Increased breast and ovarian cancer risk
Chromosomal Translocations	-BCR-ABL (CML, t[9;22]) -EWS-FLI1 (Ewing sarcoma, t[11;22]) -MYC-IgH (Burkitt lymphoma, t[8;14])	-BCR-ABL: Constitutively active tyrosine kinase -MYC-IgH: Increased MYC expression leading to excessive cell proliferation
Aneuploidy	-MYC amplification (neuroblastoma and breast cancer) -RB1 loss (retinoblastoma)	-MYC amplification: Aggressive tumor growth -RB1 loss: Increased malignancy risk
MicroRNA Dysregulation	-let-7 downregulation (↑RAS expression) -miR-21 overexpression (↓PTEN, ↓TP53)	-let-7 loss: Unchecked oncogene activation -miR-21 upregulation: Enhanced malignancy
Viral-Induced Genetic Alterations	-HBV, HCV (liver cancer through TP53 mutation and Wnt/β-catenin activation) -HPV (E6/E7) (cervical cancer through TP53, RB1 inactivation) -EBV (LMP1) (lymphomas and nasopharyngeal cancer)	-HPV E6/E7: Loss of tumor suppression -EBV LMP1: NF-κB activation, uncontrolled proliferation

HBV: Hepatitis B virus, HCV: Hepatitis C viruses, HPV: Human papillomavirus, EBV: Epstein–Barr virus, NF-κB: Nuclear factor kappa B

changes disrupt normal cellular functions, leading to malignancy.

ADVANCEMENTS AND CHALLENGES IN ONCOGENE-DIRECTED CANCER THERAPIES

Between 2015 and 2025, significant advancements in oncogene-directed cancer therapies have revolutionized the treatment landscape, providing highly specific and effective options tailored to individual genetic profiles. These therapies target key genetic mutations and signaling pathways that drive tumor progression, improving patient outcomes while reducing the toxicity associated with conventional chemotherapy. The decade has seen remarkable progress in targeted therapy, monoclonal antibodies, antibody-drug conjugates (ADCs), and combination treatment strategies that leverage precision medicine to inhibit oncogenic drivers more effectively.

Targeting oncogenes and restoring tumor suppressor gene function presents significant challenges. Many oncogenes, such as MYC and RAS, are difficult to target directly due to their intracellular localization and lack of suitable binding pockets for small-molecule inhibitors. RAS mutations, in particular, have long been considered "undruggable" due to the high affinity of RAS for GTP and the absence of allosteric sites for inhibitor binding. Although drugs such as sotorasib (Lumakras) and adagrasib (Krazati) have been developed to target KRAS G12C mutations, other RAS variants remain challenging to inhibit. MYC, a key oncogenic transcription factor, lacks well-defined pockets for small molecules to bind, making direct inhibition difficult. Instead, researchers are exploring indirect approaches, such as BET inhibitors (JQ1) and synthetic lethality strategies, to suppress MYC-driven cancers.[24-29]

Another major hurdle is the restoration of tumor suppressor gene function. Unlike oncogenes, which can be inhibited by drugs, tumor suppressors require functional reactivation, a far more complex task. *p53* gene therapy approaches, such as adenoviral p53 vectors (Gendicine) and small-molecule reactivators such as APR-246 (Eprenetapopt), have shown promise, but their clinical success is limited by tumor heterogeneity and resistance mechanisms. *RB* gene loss leads to uncontrolled proliferation, and while direct restoration is not feasible, CDK4/6 inhibitors (palbociclib, ribociclib, and abemaciclib) help reinstate cell cycle control. PTEN loss, commonly observed in cancers, has prompted the development of PI3K inhibitors (alpelisib and buparlisib) and mTOR inhibitors (everolimus and temsirolimus), but overcoming resistance remains a significant challenge.[24,29]

Despite these obstacles, the past decade has witnessed transformative breakthroughs in targeted cancer therapies. The approval of sotorasib (Lumakras) in May 2021 was a landmark achievement, as it was the first Food and Drug Administration (FDA)-approved drug targeting the KRAS G12C mutation, a key oncogenic driver in non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC). Following its success, additional KRAS inhibitors, including adagrasib (Krazati), have been developed for colorectal and pancreatic cancers.[24]

In human epidermal growth factor receptor 2 (HER2)-positive metastatic breast cancer, trastuzumab deruxtecan (Enhertu) was approved in December 2019 as a major advancement in ADCs. This therapy links trastuzumab

Table 2: Recent advances in targeted and immunotherapies for cancer: FDA approvals and clinical developments (2015–2025)

Category	Therapy/drug	Target	Approval status	Key benefits/challenges
EGFR-targeted therapies	Osimertinib (Tagrisso)	EGFR T790M mutation (NSCLC)	February 2024	Effective against resistance mutations; combo with chemo improves progression-free survival.
	Amivantamab+lazertinib	EGFR mutations (Advanced NSCLC)	August 2024	>40% improved progression-free survival vs. standard therapy
HER2-targeted therapies	Trastuzumab deruxtecan (Enhertu)	HER2-positive breast cancer	December 2019	ADC improves targeted drug delivery; better outcomes in HER2-positive breast cancer.
	Zanidatamab (Ziihera)	HER2 (Biliary Tract Cancer)	November 2024	Addresses unmet need in HER2-positive BTC.
	Pembrolizumab+ trastuzumab+chemo	HER2-positive gastric and GEJ cancer	March 2025	Combines immunotherapy and HER2-targeted therapy for improved outcomes.
KRAS-targeted therapies	Sotorasib (Lumakras)	KRAS G12C mutation (NSCLC, CRC)	May 2021 (NSCLC), January 2025 (CRC)	First FDA-approved KRAS inhibitor; resistance remains a key issue.
	Adagrasib (Krazati)	KRAS G12C mutation (CRC, Pancreatic)	December 2024	Expands options for KRAS G12C-driven cancers.
	Sotorasib+panitumumab (Vectibix)	KRAS G12C mutation (mCRC)	January 2025	Combo therapy improves tumor response in metastatic CRC
CDK4/6 inhibitors	Palbociclib, ribociclib, abemaciclib	Cell cycle regulation (RB loss)	Clinically available	Reinstate cell cycle control in HR+cancers; manageable toxicity profile.
PI3K/mTOR pathway inhibitors	Alpelisib, buparlisib	PI3K pathway (PTEN loss)	Clinically available	Targeted therapy for PI3K alterations; resistance limits long-term efficacy.
	Everolimus, temsirolimus	mTOR pathway (PTEN loss)	Clinically available	Same pathway target; similar resistance-related challenges.
Gene and RNA therapies	siRNA-based therapies	Oncogenic fusion genes (e.g., NTRK fusions)	Emerging in clinical trials	Utilizes RNA interference (RNAi) to selectively silence fusion oncogenes, offering high target specificity. Currently under clinical investigation, with challenges including delivery efficiency, stability, and off-target effects.
Tumor suppressor reactivation	APR-246 (Eprenetapopt)	p53 reactivation	Limited clinical success	Innovative mechanism but limited by tumor heterogeneity and emerging resistance.
TROP2-targeted therapies	Datopotamab deruxtecan (Datroway)	TROP2 (HR+, HER2- breast cancer)	March 2025	New ADC option; side effect management remains important.
NRG1 fusion therapies	Zenocutuzumab (Bizengri)	*NRG1* gene fusion (NSCLC, pancreatic)	December 2024	First-in-class NRG1 fusion-targeted agent; rare mutation focus.

(*Contd*...)

Table 2: (*Continued*)

Category	Therapy/drug	Target	Approval status	Key benefits/challenges
Leukemia therapies	Revumenib (Revuforj)	KMT2A translocation (acute leukemia)	November 2024	First, menin inhibitors offer an option for relapsed/ refractory leukemia.
Gastroesophageal therapies	Zolbetuximab (Vyloy)	Claudin 18.2 (gastric and GEJ cancer)	October 2024	Novel target in GI cancers; provides a new advanced-stage option.
Urothelial cancer therapies	Erdafitinib (Balversa)	FGFR3 genetic alterations	January 2024	Personalized treatment for FGFR3-altered urothelial cancer.
Immunotherapy (cell-based)	Axicabtagene ciloleucel (Yescarta)	CD19 (large B-cell lymphoma)	April 2022	CAR-T therapy with a durable response, as well as CRS and neurotoxicity, are challenges.
	Lifileucel (Amtagvi)	Autologous TILs (melanoma)	February 2024	Personalized TIL-based immunotherapy, manufacturing, and patient selection are complex.

NSCLC: Non-small cell lung cancer, FDA: Food and Drug Administration, HER2: Human epidermal growth factor receptor 2

(Herceptin) to a potent cytotoxic agent, ensuring targeted chemotherapy delivery to HER2-overexpressing cancer cells while minimizing systemic toxicity. Enhertu has significantly improved progression-free survival in patients with heavily pretreated HER2-positive breast cancer, paving the way for further ADC innovations.[30]

Osimertinib (Tagrisso), initially approved for EGFR T790M mutation-positive NSCLC, was expanded in February 2024 to be used in combination with platinum-based chemotherapy for locally advanced or metastatic NSCLC harboring EGFR mutations. This combination therapy enhances progression-free survival by overcoming EGFR resistance mechanisms, underscoring the importance of multi-targeted approaches in precision oncology.[31]

For gastric and gastroesophageal junction adenocarcinoma, the combination of pembrolizumab (Keytruda) with trastuzumab, fluoropyrimidine, and platinum-containing chemotherapy received full FDA approval in March 2025. By targeting HER2-positive tumors while activating the immune system, this combination therapy has significantly improved patient survival, demonstrating the effectiveness of immunotherapy and targeted therapy combinations.[31]

In colorectal cancer, oncogene-directed strategies have advanced with the January 2025 FDA approval of sotorasib (Lumakras) and panitumumab (Vectibix) for KRAS G12C-mutated metastatic colorectal cancer. Panitumumab, an anti-EGFR monoclonal antibody, works synergistically with sotorasib to enhance tumor response rates, highlighting the shift toward rational combination therapies that address resistance mechanisms.[32,33]

Beyond small-molecule inhibitors and monoclonal antibodies, gene therapies and RNA-based treatments are emerging as the next frontier in cancer treatment. siRNA-based therapies targeting oncogenic fusion genes (such as NTRK fusions) have demonstrated promising clinical trial success, marking a paradigm shift in precision medicine by leveraging RNA interference (RNAi) technology to silence oncogenic drivers.[24] Table 2 provides an overview of key FDA-approved therapies and promising clinical developments from 2015 to 2025. It categorizes treatments based on molecular targets and mechanisms of action—such as KRAS, EGFR, HER2, and CD19 – and highlights innovations such as ADCs, CAR-T cell therapy, RNAi, and menin inhibitors. Each entry summarizes the therapy's indication, approval timeline, and its clinical advantages or challenges, offering a snapshot of how precision medicine is reshaping cancer care.

CONCLUSION

The advancements in oncogene-directed cancer therapies between 2015 and 2025 have significantly reshaped the oncology landscape, offering more precise and effective treatment options tailored to individual genetic profiles. Despite the inherent challenges in targeting oncogenes such as MYC and RAS and restoring tumor suppressor functions such as p53 and RB, substantial progress has been made in developing targeted inhibitors, monoclonal antibodies, ADCs, and combination therapies. The approval of KRAS inhibitors (sotorasib and adagrasib), HER2-targeting ADCs (trastuzumab deruxtecan), and combination regimens integrating immunotherapy (pembrolizumab with trastuzumab and chemotherapy) underscores the power

of precision medicine in overcoming drug resistance and improving patient outcomes.

Moreover, the emergence of gene therapies and RNA-based treatments, including siRNA-based strategies targeting oncogenic fusion genes, marks a new frontier in cancer therapeutics, further enhancing the potential for personalized interventions. While resistance mechanisms and tumor heterogeneity continue to pose significant hurdles, ongoing research in synthetic lethality, epigenetic modulation, and immune-oncology combinations provides promising avenues for future breakthroughs.

As precision oncology continues to evolve, the integration of multi-omics approaches, artificial intelligence-driven drug discovery, and real-time genomic profiling will be crucial in refining treatment strategies. The progress achieved in this decade highlights the shift from conventional cytotoxic chemotherapy to a more targeted, patient-centric approach, ultimately improving the quality of life and survival rates for cancer patients. The continued collaboration between academic research, pharmaceutical industries, and regulatory agencies will be vital in accelerating the translation of novel oncogene-targeted therapies from bench to bedside, ensuring broader accessibility and efficacy across diverse patient populations.

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