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REVIEW

Hereditary cancer syndromes

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Abstract

Hereditary cancer syndromes (HCSs) are arguably the most frequent category of Mendelian genetic diseases, as at least 2% of presumably healthy subjects carry highly-penetrant tumor-predisposing pathogenic variants (PVs). Hereditary breast-ovarian cancer and Lynch syndrome make the highest contribution to cancer morbidity; in addition, there are several dozen less frequent types of familial tumors. The development of the majority albeit not all hereditary malignancies involves two-hit mechanism, *i.e.* the somatic inactivation of the remaining copy of the affected gene. Earlier studies on cancer families suggested nearly fatal penetrance for the majority of HCS genes; however, population-based investigations and especially large-scale next-generation sequencing data sets demonstrate that the presence of some highly-penetrant PVs is often compatible with healthy status. Hereditary cancer research initially focused mainly on cancer detection and prevention. Recent studies identified multiple HCS-specific drug vulnerabilities, which translated into the development of highly efficient therapeutic options.

Key Words: Hereditary cancer syndromes; Germline pathogenic variants; Cancer predisposition; Cancer treatment; Next-generation sequencing

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Core Tip: There are many reviews describing particular types of hereditary cancer syndromes (HCSs) (e.g., hereditary breast-ovarian cancer, Lynch syndrome, Li-Fraumeni syndrome, etc.). However, for the last 15-20 years there were no publications providing a general overview on familial cancers. Our paper describes mechanisms underlying genetic cancer predisposition, lists major types of HCSs, and comments on therapeutic advances in the management of hereditary tumors.

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INTRODUCTION

Hereditary cancer syndromes (HCSs) are a heterogeneous group of genetic diseases, which are associated with significantly increased risk of tumor development. There is a number of severe inborn disorders characterized by profound multiorgan failures, where cancer susceptibility constitutes only a part of clinical presentation of the disease (e.g., Bloom syndrome, Fanconi anemia, Nijmegen breakage syndrome, ataxia-telangiectasia, etc.). Most of these syndromes involve biallelic inactivation of genes involved in DNA repair and are characterized by severe immune deficiency [1,2]. Subjects affected by "genuine" HCSs usually do not have any detectable phenotypic malfunctions, they differ from truly healthy people only by a highly elevated propensity to develop malignant disease in certain organs.

Hereditary cancers apparently represent the most common category of vertically transmitted disorders. Indeed, while the occurrence of the best known genetic diseases, e.g., cystic fibrosis or phenylketonuria, usually falls below 1:10000, the population frequency of BRCA1/2-associated hereditary breast-ovarian cancer (HBOC) or MLH1/MSH2-linked Lynch syndrome is about 25-30 times higher and approaches approximately 1:300–1:400[3-6]. Collectively, at least 2% of presumably healthy subjects carry germline PVs associated with highly increased and often a nearly-fatal risk of a certain cancer type, and these estimates can be significantly higher in populations with pronounced founder effect[5,7].

Earlier studies on HCSs usually assumed that almost all carriers of pathogenic alleles are destined to develop cancer, *i.e.* they considered mainly families and genes with almost 100% disease penetrance. The development of genetic technologies and the availability of large collections of cancer patients and healthy subjects resulted in the discovery of genes, whose alteration is associated with less pronounced but still medically relevant (2-3-fold) increase of cancer risk. These moderately penetrant alleles rarely cause familial clustering of malignancies and present a challenge for defining disease-preventive strategies. Furthermore, unbiased case-control studies revealed that earlier family-based HCS investigations overestimated disease risks for the majority of cancer genes; in fact, seemingly none of the wellestablished HCS genes has a complete penetrance, with the most of estimates falling within 40%–80% probability of tumor development for germline pathogenic variant (PV) carriers[4-6,8,9].

Virtually all HCSs are more or less organ-specific, *i.e.* they mainly manifest by cancers arising in particular anatomic sites or tissues. However, the development of hereditary cancer registries and large data sets led to the understanding that many HCSs are associated with a wider spectrum of cancers than was initially suggested, although most of the newly added tumor types are characterized only by a marginal increase of their lifetime risk. For example, BRCA1 and BRCA2 were discovered as breastovarian cancer genes. Recent data indicate that carriers of BRCA1/2 PVs may have a borderline elevation of the probability of development for almost all major cancer types[10-16].

MECHANISMS OF HEREDITARY CANCER PREDISPOSITION

The acquisition of a single mutation in oncogene or suppressor gene is usually fully tolerable for a human cell due to the existence of multiple cancer-protecting biological mechanisms. The process of malignant transformation ultimately requires accumulation of several cancer-driving events in the same cell clone. Consequently, when a single cancer-associated PV is inherited from the parents, its carrier remains phenotypically healthy despite the presence of the pathogenic allele in every cell of the body. However, the number of additional events necessary for cancer manifestation decreases by one, therefore the probability of tumor development in this subject is manifold higher as compared to general population (Figure 1).

The majority of known HCS genes are suppressor genes, which require biallelic inactivation to exert their action. When inactivating PV in a single allele is inherited, the remaining copy of the gene retains its function and the normal health status is preserved. The process of malignant transformation is



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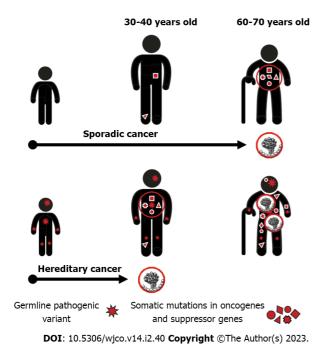


Figure 1 Mechanisms of hereditary cancer predisposition. Single cancer-driving mutation is usually fully compensated, therefore carriers of germline pathogenic variants may remain healthy during a prolonged period of time. However, since every cell in the target organ already contains one alteration in cancer gene, the probability of accumulation of a critical mass of additional oncogenic mutations in any given cell clone is high, and cancer manifestation often occurs at a relatively young age.

usually triggered by the "second hit", *i.e.* by a somatic inactivation of the remaining allele occurring in any cell located within the target organ. This mechanism is highly characteristic for the best known HCS genes, *e.g.*, *RB1*, *BRCA1*, *BRCA2*, *MLH1*, *MSH2*, *etc*[4,17-19]. There are examples of mutated suppressor genes, which contribute to the development of hereditary cancers without mandatory inactivation of the remaining gene copy. It is suggested that the reduced gene dosage, so-called haploinsufficiency, is a primary cause of malignant transformation in these situations. Interestingly, some genes, *e.g.*, *PALB2* and *CHEK2*, may utilize both mechanisms: Indeed, instances of both monoallelic and biallelic inactivation of these genes in human tumors have been described in the literature, and there are clear biological differences between carcinomas associated with haploinsufficiency *vs* second-hit loss-of-function of the above genes[20,21].

A few human cancers are caused by the inheritance of activated oncogene. The best known example is the syndrome of multiple endocrine neoplasia (MEN) type 2A and 2B (now sometimes classified as MEN2 and MEN3, respectively), which is associated with gain-of-function PVs in *RET* receptor tyrosine kinase[22].

HCSs have a Mendelian mode of inheritance. Most of currently described hereditary cancers are transmitted by autosomal-dominant mechanisms. Recessive inheritance of cancer predisposition is more difficult to study, especially for common tumor types, therefore only a few examples of biallelic cancer-predisposing gene defects have been identified so far[23,24]. There are also reports describing instances of oligogenic inheritance, *i.e.* the combination of genetic variants resulting in significant increase of cancer risks[25-28].

Hereditary cancers usually have peculiar phenotypic characteristics attributed to their mechanisms of development[29]. Most of HCSs arising in adults manifest after the peak of reproductive activity, so cancer predisposition is transmitted through generations virtually without negative selection and HCS patients often describe multiple instances of the same disease in their relatives. Presence of the first cancer-predisposing mutation in every cell of the human organism ensures highly increased risk of cancer disease as long as target organs or their parts remain in the body. Consequently, HCSs often manifest by multiple primary malignancies[30]. Furthermore, given that the cancer development in PV carriers requires less additional somatic events as compared to genetically healthy subjects, hereditary cancers commonly demonstrate younger age at onset. The development of HCS usually involves genespecific pathways, therefore these cancers are often distinguished by predetermined molecular portrait and histological appearance. For example, *BRCA1*-associated breast carcinomas are usually triple-negative, chromosomally unstable and carry somatic mutation in the *TP53* suppressor gene[31-34]. All these features, *i.e.*, family cancer history, presence of multiple primary tumors, young age at onset, and especial phenotypic characteristics, represent well-recognized clinical signs of HCSs[29].

MAJOR TYPES OF HCSs

Breast and ovarian carcinomas

It is difficult to discuss hereditary breast cancer (BC) and hereditary ovarian cancer (OC) as two separate disease entities, because the best known and the most frequent genetic causes for these diseases are represented by PVs located within the same genes, BRCA1 and BRCA2 (Figure 2). Nevertheless, there are essential differences between BC and OC, which may critically affect genetic investigations of these diseases. The lifetime risk for BC in Western countries is around 1:8, therefore about 1 out of 60-70 mother-daughter or sister-sister pairs would share this disease just by chance [35,36]. OC is significantly less common, with population occurrence approaching close to 1:60-1:70; therefore, the probability of "random" co-occurrence of OC in two female first-degree relatives is very low, falling within 1:3500–1:5000[36,37]. Furthermore, while two-thirds of OC cases belong to its major histological entity, *i.e.* high-grade serous ovarian carcinoma, breast carcinomas are characterized by significant biological diversity manifested by differences in their receptor status and other essential tumor features [38,39]. It appears that hereditary BC research has more confounding factors as compared to the analysis of OC familial clustering.

The causes of HBOC syndrome are considerably better understood than the genetic basis of hereditary BC alone. There are two major contributors to BC and OC predisposition, BRCA1 and BRCA2 (Table 1). Both these genes are involved in double-strand DNA repair by homologous recombination. BRCA2-associated cancers tend to have older age at onset as compared to BRCA1-driven malignancies. PVs in both BRCA1 and BRCA2 genes confer approximately 70% lifetime risk for BC; the cumulative risk for OC is estimated to be 44% and 17% for BRCA1 and BRCA2 genes, respectively[40]. Importantly, these collective calculations may somehow be misleading, because some PVs located within these genes predispose preferentially to BC, while others are associated with more pronounced OC risk; in fact, there are so-called BC and OC cluster regions located within these genes[41]. There are multiple genetic and non-genetic factors, which modify the risk of cancer disease in BRCA1/2 PV carriers[42]. BRCA1/2 make significant contribution to cancer morbidity: These PVs are observed in approximately 2%-5% of BC patients and up to 25%-30% of women diagnosed with high-grade serous OC[5,6,43-46]. In addition to BRCA1 and BRCA2, some RAD51 paralogs, namely RAD51C and RAD51D, predispose both to BC and OC[5,47,48]. Recent data also suggest the involvement of RAD51B germline PVs in breast- OC susceptibility^[49]. The occurrence of PVs in newly described HBOC genes is an order of magnitude lower as compared to BRCA1/2[5,47].

PALB2 is the third most important BC-predisposing gene after BRCA1 and BRCA2[50]. Its penetrance towards BC is similar to BRCA2, while the data regarding the role of PALB2 PVs in OC predisposition are conflicting[47,51]. There are two middle-penetrance genes, ATM and CHEK2, which are associated with 2-3-fold elevation of the risk of BC development but are unlikely to contribute to increased OC susceptibility[47]. Moderate BC predisposing roles were also suggested for NBN (NBS1), BLM, RECQL, FANCM, BARD1 and several other genes, but, contrary to the evidence obtained for ATM and CHEK2, these observations have not been uniformly reproduced across distinct data sets [5,6,47,52-54]. BRIP1 is the only known gene, which is associated with hereditary OC but not with hereditary BC[47]. There are no mechanistic explanations, why some genes predispose to BC, others to OC, and a few to both BC and OC.

Many "novel" BC/OC-predisposing loci were discovered by candidate gene approach, where genes with similar to BRCA1/2 functions, i.e., the participants of DNA repair pathways, were selected for DNA testing in case-control studies. These functional considerations also influenced the interpretation of whole-exome studies, i.e., the priority was given to genes involved in the maintenance of cellular genome[55,56]. Overall, exome sequencing studies largely failed to reveal novel BC predisposing genes whose contribution to BC morbidity is comparable with the impact of BRCA1/2, PALB2 or CHEK2 germline PVs[53,57,58].

BC may arise as a part of multiorgan cancer syndrome. Germline TP53 PVs predispose to Li-Fraumeni syndrome, which is manifested by a wide spectrum of tumors. TP53 PVs are particularly common in very young patients with BC[59]. Recent large-scale next-generation sequencing (NGS) studies suggest that mutated TP53 can be found in non-selected BC patients, which do not have personal or family history of non-breast tumors[60-63]. A rare BC subtype, lobular BC, is associated with *CDH1* germline PVs predisposing to diffuse stomach cancer [47,64].

There are convincing data indicating that patients with Lynch syndrome, *i.e.*, hereditary predisposition to colorectal and endometrial cancer, develop OC more often than in general population[46,65-69]. Unlike BRCA1/2-driven tumors, Lynch syndrome associated OCs often have non-serous histology [68]. Several other multiorgan cancer syndromes also render marginally increased OC risk[46,70].

Exome sequencing studies of OC families identified several promising OC-predisposing candidates, e.g., ANKRD11 and POLE genes [71]. Some data indicate that protein-truncating germline PVs in the ERCC3 gene may confer increased OC risk^[72]. Validation of these findings is complicated due to rarity of BRCA1/2-independent familial OC clustering.

Small cell carcinomas of the ovary, hypercalcemic type (SCCOHTs) constitute a rare variety of OC. SCCOHTs are associated with germline PV in the SMARCA4 gene, which plays a role in chromatin remodeling[70].



Table 1 Health impact of major hereditary cancer genes: Frequency of pathogenic variants in non-selected subjects and oncological patients

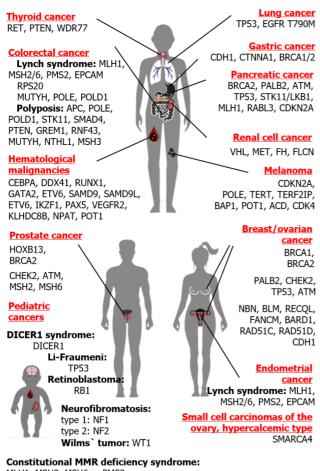
Gene	Frequency of pathogenic variants in population	Contribution in cancer morbidity	Ref.
BRCA1	Approximately 0.1%; > 1% in some founder populations	Breast cancer: 1%-3%; High-grade serous ovarian cancer: 15%- 30%	[5,6,45,230- 233]
BRCA2	Approximately 0.3%; > 1% in some founder populations	Breast cancer: 1%-3%; High-grade serous ovarian cancer: 7%- 12%; Prostate cancer: 2%-4%; Pancreatic cancer: 2%-3%	[5,6,45,99,102, 112,232,233]
PALB2	Approximately 0.1%	Breast cancer: Approximately 0.5%-1%	[5,6,45]
CHEK2	0.5%-0.7%	Breast cancer: 0.5%-2%; Moderately elevated frequencies across several cancer types	[5,6,25,113, 234,235]
ATM	0.3%-0.5%	Breast cancer: 0.5%-0.8%; Moderately elevated frequencies across several cancer types	[5,6,45,99,102, 113]
MLH1, MSH2, MSH6, PMS2, EPCAM	0.02%-0.05% for MLH1, MSH2, MSH6, EPCAM each; approximately 0.1% for PMS2	Colorectal cancer: 1%-6%; Endometrial cancer: 2%-6%	[5,6,76,236- 238]
CDH1	< 0.005%	Diffuse gastric cancer: 7%; Lobular breast cancer: 0.3%	[5,6,92]
TP53	< 0.01%	Breast cancer in women < 30 years old: 2%-6%; Pediatric cancers: 8%; Osteosarcoma: 4%	[161,239,240]
HOXB13	0.2%-0.4%	Prostate cancer: Approximately 1%	[112,117,241]

Colorectal tumors

The accumulation of multiple cases of colorectal cancer (CRC) in pedigrees was systematically described in 1967 by Lynch et al[73]. Lynch syndrome, also called hereditary non-polyposis colorectal cancer (HNPCC), is the best-known genetic cause of CRC predisposition. HNPCC is associated with heterozygous germline inactivation of genes involved in DNA mismatch repair (MMR), namely MLH1, MSH2, MSH6 or PMS2 (Table 1). In addition, some Lynch syndrome patients carry deletion of the last portion of epithelial cell adhesion molecule (EPCAM), a gene located upstream to the MSH2 genomic segment. This deletion results in the loss of transcription of the termination polyadenylation signal at the end of EPCAM and consequent emergence of the read-through EPCAM-MSH2 fusion RNA message; furthermore, cells expressing the EPCAM-MSH2 chimera demonstrate methylation of the MSH2 promoter and failure to produce functional MSH2 protein[74]. The genetic causes of Lynch syndrome are apparently limited to the germline inactivation of MLH1, MSH2, MSH6 or PMS2 genes, as attempts to link this disease with PVs in other participants of MMR were unsuccessful[4]. The lifetime risk of CRC for the carriers of pathogenic alleles falls within 40%-70% for MLH1 and MSH2 genes, however it reaches only 10%-20% for MSH6 and PMS2 heterozygous individuals. Lynch syndrome contributes approximately to 3% of CRC morbidity in Western countries, however this estimate is significantly lower in some other populations[3,4,75-79]. In addition to CRC, Lynch syndrome is associated with a highly elevated risk of endometrial cancer as well as increased susceptibility to gastric, small bowel, biliary, urothelial, ovarian, brain, and some other malignancies. The spectrum and the risk of extracolonic and extraendometrial cancers varies depending on the gene involved [4,77,80]. The development of tumors in Lynch syndrome patients involves somatic second-hit inactivation of the remaining copy of the disease-causing gene^[4].

Malfunction of MMR in HNPCC-associated tumors results in a high tumor mutation burden (TMB). Short repetitive sequences, so-called microsatellites, are particularly prone to MMR defects. Consequently, Lynch syndrome tumors have high-level microsatellite instability (MSI-H) diagnosed by electrophoretic detection of multiple changes in the length of mononucleotide repeats. Electrophoretic equipment is not a component of the standard morphological laboratory; therefore, many hospitals chose to use immunohistochemical (IHC) detection of MMR deficiency (MMR-D). Indeed, tumors arising in carriers of MLH1 PVs lack the expression of MLH1 and PMS2 proteins, while MSH2-related CRCs show concomitant loss of MSH2 and MSH6 staining. Germline heterozygosity for MSH6 or PMS2 genes is accompanied by tumor-specific IHC negativity for MSH6 or PMS2, respectively[77,81]. Importantly, only a minority of tumors with MSI-H/MMR-D phenotype are hereditary cancers. MSI-H/MMR-D is also highly characteristic for sporadic colorectal, gastric and endometrial carcinomas, especially for malignancies occurring in elderly patients. Inactivation of MMR in sporadic tumors is usually attributed to the down-regulation of the *MLH1* gene via promoter hypermethylation[81]. For the time being, MSI-H/MMR-D screening is recommended for all patients with CRC[82]. The selection of patients with MSI-H/MMR-D phenotype for subsequent germline testing may include consideration of age, family history of cancer, tumor location, and, in some instances, molecular characteristics of cancer cells. For example, Lynch syndrome related CRCs usually do not have mutation in the BRAF oncogene and demonstrate lack of methylation in the MLH1 gene promoter[81]. Increasing availability of NGS is





MLH1, MSH2, MSH6 or PMS2

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Figure 2 Main hereditary cancer genes and organs at risk. This figure illustrates major hereditary cancer types observed in females, males, adults of both genders, and children.

> likely to result in the acceptance of uniform germline testing for all patients with microsatellite unstable colorectal and endometrial cancer, therefore the significance of procedures applied for the patient selection may diminish in the near future.

> CRC familial clustering commonly occurs irrespective of MSI-H/MMR-D and Lynch syndrome. Surprisingly, the attempts to identify other than Lynch syndrome hereditary CRC genes were largely unsuccessful. Besides MLH1, MSH2, MSH6, PMS2 and EPCAM, there is only one hereditary CRC gene with proven significance, RPS20. However, RPS20 is altered only in a minority of multi-case CRC families and its impact is limited to a few selected populations[4,76,79].

> Some germline PVs predispose to polyposis of gastrointestinal tract and increased risk of malignant transformation. There is a number of polyposis-related genes, which are associated with several scenarios of the disease development, e.g., either the emergence of CRC in combination with the presence of multiple polyps, or, alternatively, the appearance of CRC in the absence of benign colon lesions. Some polyposis syndromes are transmitted by autosomal-dominant mode (APC, POLE, POLD1, STK11, SMAD4, BMPR1A, PTEN, GREM1, RNF43), while others involve recessive inheritance and biallelic gene inactivation in affected patients (MUTYH, NTHL1, MSH3, MBD4)[23,24,83].

> The most known polyposis gene, adenomatous polyposis coli (APC), is associated with very severe impairment of gastrointestinal tract, although some hypomorphic APC variants cause an attenuated form of this disease. APC is a tumor suppressor gene, its inactivation results in up-regulation of the WNT signaling pathway. The incidence of APC is around 1:10000, and approximately 30% of detected APC PVs are de novo mutations. In addition to colon polyposis and CRC, there are some common extracolonic features of this disease, in particular, duodenal polyps and carcinomas, stomach polyps, osteomas, desmoid tumors and congenital hypertrophy of the retinal pigmented epithelium[84].

> MUTYH-associated polyposis (MAP) has a somewhat lower incidence than APC, with estimates approaching approximately 1:20000. MUTYH gene is involved in base excision repair (BER), therefore its biallelic deficiency is associated with increased risk of accumulation of oncogenic mutations. MAP is usually characterized by a moderate number of polyps and relatively late disease onset. However, the probability of CRC development in MAP patients is high and approaches approximately 80%. MUTYH-



driven CRCs often contain KRAS G12C substitution. Approximately 5% of patients with KRAS G12Cmutated CRC are biallelic carriers of MUTYH pathogenic alleles, therefore somatic KRAS status may be used as an indicator for MAP screening in CRC patients. Extracolonic manifestations of MAP are relatively uncommon, with the exception of highly increased risk for kidney cancer [83]. Most patients of European ancestry with genetic MAP diagnosis are homozygotes or compound heterozygotes for founder *MUTYH* alleles, *Y165C* and/or *G382D*[3,84-86].

NTHL1-related polyposis is similar to MAP, as it is caused by germline biallelic inactivation of the gene involved in BER. It is exceptionally rare, with estimated incidence falling below 1:100000. Various extracolonic tumors are highly characteristic for this syndrome, with a particularly elevated risk for BC [24]. A recent study identified *MBD4*, another participant of BER pathway, as a genetic cause of polyposis and multiorgan cancer predisposition[83].

Heterozygous germline PVs in POLE and POLD1 genes predispose to gastrointestinal polyposis, CRC, endometrial carcinomas and some other malignancies. Inactivation of these genes results in failure of proofreading activities of DNA polymerases, therefore tumors arising in carriers of POLE and POLD1 pathogenic alleles contain ultrahigh number of somatic mutations[24,76,85,87].

Gastric cancer

Gastric cancer (GC) is among the most common malignancies worldwide. Its incidence is highly influenced by environmental and behavioral factors: GC risk is significantly associated with Helicobacter pylori infection, low hygienic standard, high consumption of salt, "Northern" diet, alcohol abuse, etc.[88]. Consequently, family clustering of GC is not necessarily attributed to genetic factors, but may also be observed due to sharing of some GC-predisposing attitudes.

Strong evidence for the role of heredity is obtained only for diffuse GC, a histological variety of GC characterized by poor differentiation and presence of signet-ring cells[9,89]. The causative gene, CDH1, was initially discovered in New Zealand Maori families characterized by an exceptionally high incidence of diffuse GC[90]. CDH1 encodes E-cadherin, a protein involved in cell adhesion. CDH1 germline PVs are uncommon in the majority of analyzed populations, with the frequency being around 1:5000-1:20000[5,6,91], while the proportion of CDH1 heterozygotes in consecutive series of GC patients approaches approximately 7% for diffuse GC and 2% for non-selected GC[92]. A few hundred CDH1related GC pedigrees have been described worldwide. Presence of CDH1 germline PVs is also associated with high risk of lobular BC, a peculiar and relatively uncommon variety of BC disease. Family studies estimated penetrance of CDH1 PVs to be around 70% for GC and 40% for BC[9]. Unbiased NGS data sets revealed instances of CDH1 germline PVs unrelated to clinically diagnosed diffuse GC, therefore, there are yet unknown factors modifying phenotypic consequences of CDH1 heterozygosity[5,6,91]. Genetic analysis of CDH1 PV-negative diffuse GC families led to the identification of subjects with inactivating PVs in CTNNA1 gene, which encodes alpha-catenin and interacts with beta-catenin and E-cadherin[9].

There are studies suggesting the role of PVs in double-strand DNA repair genes in GC predisposition. For example, contribution of PALB2 PVs has been suggested in some investigations [93,94], however the analysis of PALB2-related families did not confirm these findings[95]. GC is likely to be a part of BRCA1/2 syndrome, as some GCs arise on BRCA1/2-mutated background and demonstrate somatic loss of the remaining allele of the involved gene[13,96,97]. Lynch syndrome and some hereditary polyposis syndromes may involve malignant transformation of stomach epithelia. The lifetime GC risk in carriers of MLH1 or MSH2 PVs approaches 7%-8%. Specific nucleotide substitutions located in the promoter 1B region of the APC gene cause a condition, which is called gastric adenocarcinoma and proximal polyposis of the stomach (GAPPS). GAPPS is attributed to down-regulation of APC transcription in gastric mucosa; interestingly GAPPS patients do not have extensive involvement of the colon because APC expression in colonic epithelium is regulated by the promoter 1A[9,23,24,84,98].

Pancreatic cancer

Predisposition to pancreatic cancer (PanCa) is usually inherited as a part of multi-organ HCS. BRCA2 is the best-established PanCa-predisposing gene (Table 1). PVs in BRCA2 confer approximately 5%-10% lifetime risk of developing PanCa, which is an order of magnitude higher than in general population[99-102]. In contrast to BRCA2, the data on the contribution of BRCA1 in PanCa morbidity are controversial [103]. It is safe to state that if BRCA1 indeed plays a role in PanCa susceptibility, its penetrance towards this cancer type is significantly lower as compared to BRCA2[99-101].

The association of the PALB2 gene with familial PanCa was initially demonstrated by exome sequencing analysis of a PanCa patient whose sister also suffered from this disease[104]. Family-based studies of PALB2-related pedigrees have confirmed this association, although the risk of PanCa associated with PALB2 PVs is moderate[95]. Moderate-to-high elevation of PanCa risk is also characteristic for ATM heterozygotes[99,105-108].

PanCa may emerge as a part of Li-Fraumeni syndrome, a disease caused by TP53 germline PVs, as well as a manifestation of Lynch syndrome [99,101,107]. Peutz-Jeghers syndrome (PJS) (attributed to PVs in STK11/LKB1) and CDKN2A-driven familial melanoma syndrome are associated with 20%-25% lifetime risk of PanCa[101,107,109].



Whole-genome sequencing study of a PanCa family revealed segregation of this disease with RABL3 truncating PV[110]. RABL3 is involved in the prenylation of KRAS protein. However, PVs in the RABL3 gene appear to be exceptionally rare and are unlikely to significantly contribute to overall PanCa morbidity^[111].

Prostate cancer

PVs in two genes, HOXB13 and BRCA2, are associated with more than 5-fold elevation of prostate cancer (PrCa) risk, and, therefore, with almost 1:2 probability of developing this disease during lifetime. HOXB13 is the only known gene specifically associated with PrCa (Table 1). It encodes a prostatespecific homeobox transcription factor. Its PVs are represented by several ethnicity-specific missense mutations, which affect the interaction between HOXB13 protein and MEIS homeobox cofactor. HOXB13 PVs contribute to approximately 1% of PrCa incidence[112-114].

BRCA2 is apparently the most frequent cause of hereditary PrCa. Its penetrance towards PrCa in men is comparable to the risk estimates observed for BC in female BRCA2 PV carriers[103,112,114,115]. Similar to pancreatic cancer, evidences regarding the contribution of BRCA1 in PrCa morbidity are controversial, and associated risks are at best low-to-moderate[103,115,116]. The role of ATM PVs in PrCa predisposition is well established; ATM-heterozygous men have an approximately 2-fold elevation of the probability of PrCa development[112,114,117]. The impact of PALB2 PVs has been suggested in some studies, although systematic investigations failed to validate these findings[95]. Lynch syndrome associated with PVs in MSH2 and MSH6 genes may also render an increased PrCa risk[118].

Renal cell cancer

Next-generation sequencing of DNA obtained from renal cell carcinoma (RCC) patients revealed an unexpectedly high frequency of germline PVs: Pathogenic or likely pathogenic alleles were detected in 41/254 (16%) analyzed subjects[119]. Approximately 5% of RCC incidence is associated with RCCpredisposing syndromes[119]. Von-Hippel-Lindau syndrome caused by germline PVs in the von Hippel-Lindau (VHL) gene renders approximately 30%-40% lifetime risk of RCC and is also associated with the development of pancreatic neuroendocrine tumors, pheochromocytomas and hemangioblastomas. PVs in the *fumarate hydratase (FH)* gene are responsible for hereditary leiomyomatosis and renal cell cancer. Germline PVs in MET receptor tyrosine kinase confer a fatal risk of papillary RCC. RCC is also characteristic for Birt-Hogg-Dubé syndrome, a disease caused by PVs in the FLCN gene and associated with slowly progressing renal lesions, skin fibrofolliculomas and lung cysts[120]. The risk of various types of RCC is increased in patients with tuberous sclerosis syndrome^[121].

Lung cancer

Genuine hereditary lung cancer (LC) is an exceptionally rare disease. The best-described cause of familial LC is the inheritance of the epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR) T790M variant[122,123]. EGFR T790M was initially discovered as a secondary somatic mutation acquired during the course of therapy by EGFR inhibitors[124,125]. Subsequent studies demonstrated that some subjects carry this missense substitution in germline. Inborn EGFR T790M allele is associated with the development of lung tumors, which contain tyrosine kinase inhibitor sensitizing mutations in exons 19 and 21 of the EGFR gene[126]. Only a few dozen subjects carrying germline EGFR T790M allele have been described worldwide[123]. The frequency of the EGFR T790M allele in consecutive LC series is vanishingly low[127,128]. In addition to EGFR T790M, a few unique LC families with other germline pathogenic EGFR variants have been described [123,128]. LC may also arise as a part of Li-Fraumeni syndrome, being attributed to germline *TP53* pathogenic allele[8,129].

Melanoma

Germline PVs in the CDKN2A gene have been detected in 20%-40% of families with multiple instances of cutaneous melanoma. CDKN2A PV carriers are at risk of development of other tumor types, particularly pancreatic cancer [130,131]. CDKN2A pathogenic alleles are associated with a more aggressive superficial spreading subtype, however there are controversial data with regard to their impact on melanoma-specific survival[132]. There are several described pedigrees where melanoma incidence is segregated with pathogenic alleles in CDK4, POT1 or TERT genes[133].

Multiple endocrine neoplasia

Multiple endocrine neoplasia (MEN) type 1 affects parathyroid glands, pancreatic islet cells and the anterior pituitary. It is caused by heterozygous inactivation of the MEN1 tumor suppressor gene, which encodes menin, a protein involved in regulation of a spectrum of biological processes. The prevalence of MEN1 syndrome is approximately 1:30000[22], although the population frequency of MEN1 PVs may be slightly higher[5]. Most of MEN1 patients demonstrate primary hyperparathyroidism caused by parathyroid hyperplasia. This condition is accompanied by hypercalcemia with varying degrees of its consequences. Duodeno-pancreatic neuroendocrine tumors of pancreas are represented by gastrinomas, non-functioning tumors, insulinomas, glucagonomas and vasoactive intestinal peptide producing tumors. Anterior pituitary neoplasms include prolactinomas as well as somatropin-, adrenocorticotropic



hormone- and gonadotropin-secreting adenomas. In addition to the above three organs, MEN1 may manifest by adrenocortical, bronchopulmonary and thymic neuroendocrine tumors as well as by a number of non-endocrine neoplasms[134]. Unexpectedly, a strong association between MEN1 heterozygosity and highly increased risk of acute pancreatitis has been demonstrated in a recent study [108]. Some patients, who have MEN1-related phenotype, but lack PVs in the MEN1 gene, carry CDNK1B pathogenic alleles. CDNK1B-related MEN is now classified as MEN4 syndrome[22].

MEN2A (MEN2) and MEN2B (MEN3) syndromes are caused by activating PVs in RET receptor tyrosine kinase. Both these conditions are strongly associated with the development of medullary thyroid carcinoma (MTC). MTC is a relatively rare subtype of thyroid cancer, however germline RET pathogenic alleles make a very significant contribution to the incidence of this disease being detected in about a quarter of MTC patients. Besides MTC, approximately half of subjects with MEN2A syndrome develop pheochromocytomas, and up to a third of MEN2A cases are characterized by hyperparathyroidism. The prevalence of MEN2A is similar to the one for MEN1. MEN2A is caused by RET PVs in codon 634, or less, frequently, in codons 609, 611, 618, 620 or 630. These PVs, being located in the extracellular domain and resulting in replacements of cysteines, induce conformational changes in RET protein, which facilitate dimerization and cross-phosphorylation of this receptor. There are some other point mutations, which do not affect cysteines and generally cause a milder disease phenotype, *i.e.* the development of MTC in the absence of other endocrine tumors; isolated MTC may also be associated with cysteine mutations involving other than 634 codons of the RET oncogene. MEN2B (MEN3), being an order of magnitude less common than MEN2A, is a significantly more aggressive disease manifested in the first or second decade of life with highly metastatic and potentially fatal MTC. Patients with MEN2B also often develop pheochromocytomas as well as some non-endocrine features, e.g., neuromas and musculoskeletal abnormalities. MEN2B is usually caused by RET M918T allele or, in less than 5% of cases, A883F substitution. These amino acid substitutions are located in the kinase domain and render dimerization-independent activation of RET receptor. Overall, the distinction between familial MTC, MEN2A and MEN2B may look counter-intuitive, as these maladies are all related to RET activating alleles and differ from each other mainly by the disease severity but not by underlying biological mechanisms[22,135,136].

Carney complex manifests with adrenocortical disease, pituitary adenomas, gonadal and thyroid tumors, spotty skin pigmentation, cardiac and cutaneous myxomas, and some other non-endocrine neoplasms. This condition is caused by *PRKAR1A* germline PVs[137]. There is a number of genes, associated with isolated endocrine cancers. Germline PVs in the WDR77 gene have been recently shown to predispose to papillary subtype of thyroid cancer. WDR77 is a component of a transmethylase complex responsible for posttranslational modification of histone H4[138]. Genetic susceptibility to pheochromocytoma and/or paraganglioma may be rendered by PVs affecting SDHAF2, SDHB, SDHC, SDHD, MAX, TMEM127 or some other genes[139]. There are instances of familial pituitary adenoma associated with AIP germline PVs[140,141].

Li-Fraumeni syndrome

Li-Fraumeni syndrome is caused by PVs in the TP53 gene. TP53 is apparently the best-studied tumor suppressor gene, which is involved in the regulation of DNA damage response, programmed cell death, cell cycle and several other biological processes. Population occurrence of TP53 germline heterozygosity is well below 1:10000, although some communities demonstrate a noticeable frequency of founder hypomorphic TP53 variants[5,6,142]. Earlier family-based studies suggested nearly-fatal penetrance for TP53 germline PVs, although recent data indicate that some carriers of TP53 pathogenic alleles manage to achieve late adulthood without being affected by cancer disease[8].

TP53 PVs render a highly increased risk of childhood cancers. Li-Fraumeni syndrome-associated pediatric malignancies include adrenal cortical carcinomas, choroid plexus carcinomas, rhabdomyosarcomas and medulloblastomas. Adult cancers are mainly represented by very-young-onset BC in females as well as lung carcinomas, osteosarcomas, soft-tissue sarcomas and brain tumors [8,63,143]. Breast carcinomas arising in TP53 PV carriers frequently carry HER2 amplification[144]. Li-Fraumeni syndrome related lung carcinomas are characterized by an exceptionally high frequency of EGFR somatic mutations[129,145]. Carriers of TP53 PVs also have highly elevated risk of hematological malignancies [146]. The analysis of specific groups of consecutive patients revealed that Li-Fraumeni syndrome is a significant contributor to the incidence of pediatric cancers, very-young-onset breast carcinomas and osteosarcomas[142,146-150].

PTEN hamartoma tumor syndrome

PTEN hamartoma tumor syndrome (PHTS) is manifested by multiple benign and malignant tumors affecting breast, thyroid, endometrium, skin, kidney, colon and some other organs[151-153]. It is caused by heterozygous inactivating PVs in the PTEN gene, which is involved in the negative regulation of phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase/AKT/mechanistic target of rapamycin (mTOR) pathway and plays a role in the regulation of cell survival, proliferation, apoptosis and various metabolic processes[152,154]. PTEN-related syndrome is commonly known as Cowden syndrome, however the PHTS is a more preferable definition as it includes some other PTEN-associated maladies, e.g., Bannayan-Riley-Ruvalcaba syndrome and Lhermitte-Duclos disease[151,152]. Patients with PHTS often have a wide



range of skin and mucosal manifestations and frequently present with macrocephaly[151]. Based on clinical considerations, the reported frequency of PHTS is approximately 1:200000[154], although unbiased NGS studies suggest that approximately 1:10000 healthy people are *PTEN* heterozygotes [5,6]. Activating germline PVs in the WWP1 gene, which encodes E3 ubiquitin ligase and negatively regulates PTEN, were detected in some PTEN-wild-type patients with PHTS-associated tumors[155].

PJS

PJS manifests via characteristic mucocutaneous pigmentations and various polyp-related complications. Multiple gastrointestinal hamartomatous polyps in the affected patients are located mainly in the small bowel. The disease is caused by heterozygous inactivating PVs in tumor suppressor kinase STK11/LKB1. STK11/LKB1 is involved in the regulation of cell cycle, apoptosis and cell metabolism. Population occurrence of PJS is estimated to be within 1:50000-1:200000, however as many as 1 out of 10000 apparently healthy subjects may carry STK11/LKB1 PVs[5,156]. STK11/LKB1 is a highly-penetrant cancer-predisposing gene. This genetic condition is associated with highly elevated risk of breast, colon, stomach, pancreatic and some other malignancies[156]. In addition, there are rare tumor subtypes specifically linked to PJS, e.g., so-called sex cord tumors with annular tubules affecting ovaries[157]. Clinical presentation of PJS may depend on the type of STK11/LKB1 PVs[158].

Gorlin syndrome

Gorlin syndrome [nevoid basal cell carcinoma (BCC) syndrome] is characterized by the appearance of BCCs and the development of odontogenic keratocysts. This disease is also associated with increased risk of medulloblastoma. In addition, various developmental abnormalities are frequently seen in patients with this condition. Gorlin syndrome is a rare disease, being observed in approximately 1:30000-1:300000 subjects. The most frequent cause of Gorlin syndrome is a heterozygous inactivating PV in the PTCH1 gene. SUFU or PTCH2 pathogenic alleles have been identified in the affected subjects, who are mutation-negative for PTCH1. Tumor development in Gorlin syndrome patients involves upregulation of the Hedgehog signaling pathway due to loss of its negative regulation by PTCH1, SUFU or PTCH2[159]. BCC predisposition may also be rendered by heterozygous inactivating PVs in the *PTPN14* tumor suppressor gene[160].

Pediatric cancers

It is difficult to draw a strict distinction between "pediatric" and "adult" hereditary cancers because many HCSs may present with various manifestations both in childhood and in the middle of life. Relevant examples include Li-Fraumeni syndrome, Cowden syndrome, PJS, neurofibromatosis, RETrelated malignancies, etc. Expectedly, NGS analysis of non-selected patients with pediatric cancers revealed elevated frequency of PVs in known cancer-predisposing genes[161,162].

Retinoblastoma was the first pediatric tumor for which the genetic origin was convincingly established and the causative gene was identified. Hereditary retinoblastoma is caused by germline inactivation of the RB1 gene. RB1, being the first cloned tumor suppressor gene, is implicated in the negative regulation of the cell cycle^[19]. RB1 germline alterations are observed in all patients with familial and/or bilateral retinoblastoma as well as in 14% of subjects with sporadic unilateral appearance of this disease[163]. Retinoblastoma survivors are at high risk of developing other neoplasms, particularly sarcomas[164]. Spliceosome dysfunction has been recently shown to underlie the emergence of bone malignancies in *RB1* heterozygotes[165].

Wilms` tumor (nephroblastoma, WT) is a relatively common pediatric cancer. The most frequent genetic cause of WT is a mutation in the WT1 gene, which can be associated either with isolated WT, or with its combination with aniridia, nephrotic syndrome and/or abnormal genitalia. WT can also be a part of so-called overgrowth syndromes (Beckwith-Wiedemann syndrome, Sotos syndrome, Simpson-Golabi-Behmel syndrome, Perlman syndrome) or several syndromes associated with a wide spectrum of cancers (Li-Fraumeni syndrome, Bloom syndrome, Fanconi anemia, etc.)[166].

Neurofibromatosis type 1 is caused by inactivating heterozygous PVs in the NF1 gene. NF1 is a negative regulator of the RAS signaling pathway. NF1 heterozygosity is estimated to occur in 1:3500 newborns and is manifested by *cafe au lait* spots, axillary freckles, Lisch nodules and neurofibromas. This syndrome is associated with a high risk of development of gliomas, hematological malignancies, pheochromocytomas and some other tumors. Neurofibromatosis type 2 is ten times less common than the type 1 disease. The NF2 gene encodes merlin, its inactivation is associated with the development of schwannomas and meningiomas in adolescence or adulthood[167].

DICER1 syndrome has been described relatively recently [168]. It is associated with heterozygous germline inactivation of the DICER1 gene. DICER1, a ribonuclease III family enzyme, is responsible for the maturation of microRNA. The pathogenesis of DICER1-related malignancies usually involves somatic alteration of the remaining gene allele. DICER1 PVs are characterized by incomplete penetrance. Carriers of DICER1 PVs are at risk of developing pleuropulmonary blastomas, gynandroblastomas, sarcomas, Sertoli-Leydig cell tumors and some other neoplasms[169,170].

PVs in the SMARC family genes, which regulate chromatin remodeling, are responsible for the rhabdoid tumor predisposition syndrome[171]. SMARCB1 pathogenic alleles are associated with the



development of malignant rhabdoid tumors of the central nervous system and kidneys. Hypomorphic SMARCB1 PVs are also implicated in familial schwannomatosis where the development of schwannomas involves concomitant down-regulation of both SMARCB1 and NF2 genes[172]. SMARCE1 PVs predispose to the development of meningiomas. SMARCA4 pathogenic alleles are associated with rhabdoid tumors as well as small-cell OC, hypercalcemic type[171].

Constitutional mismatch repair deficiency syndrome (CMMRD) is an autosomal-recessive disorder caused by biallelic inactivation of MMR genes[4]. This condition has characteristic cutaneous manifestations and renders a high probability of developing brain, gastrointestinal and hematological malignancies at a young age[173].

Hematological malignancies

Hematological malignancies often manifest as a part of a syndromic condition. Various abnormalities of hematopoiesis resulting in the depletion of some cell lineages are frequently accompanied by myeloidderived neoplasms. Immune deficiencies render an increased risk of development of lymphomas[174]. Familial clustering of acute myeloid leukemia may be attributed to germline PVs in CEBPA, DDX41, RUNX1, GATA2, ETV6, SAMD9, SAMD9L and some other genes. Hereditary acute lymphoblastic leukemia is related to germline PVs in ETV6, IKZF1 or PAX5 genes and may as well be a part of clinical manifestation of Li-Fraumeni syndrome^[175]. Alterations in the KDR (vascular endothelial growth factor 2) receptor tyrosine kinase are the most frequent cause of hereditary Hodgkin lymphoma; high risk of this disease may also be rendered by germline PVs located in KLHDC8B, NPAT or POT1 genes [176].

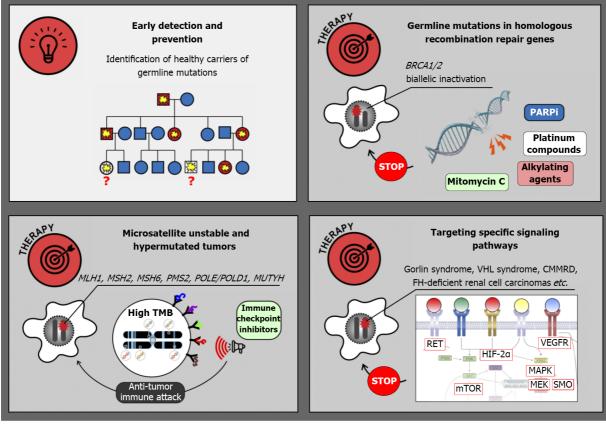
MANAGEMENT OF HEREDITARY TUMORS

Cancer detection and prevention

The research on HCSs was initially viewed mainly as a part of prophylactic medicine. Indeed, there is a strong emphasis on the identification of yet healthy people, who are carriers of tumor-predisposing PVs and may significantly benefit from early cancer detection and prevention (Figure 3). Diagnostic surveillance strategies have been articulated for all major cancer syndromes. For example, female carriers of BRCA1, BRCA2 and some other pathogenic alleles are advised to start breast self-examination from 18 years old; regular clinical breast examination and magnetic resonance imaging are usually added beginning from 25 years, and they are supplemented by annual mammography in women aged 30-75 years. OC screening includes annual transvaginal ultrasound examination and CA-125 serum marker measurement starting at 30–35 years[84]. Clinical efficacy of surveillance is considerably higher in patients with Lynch syndrome. The adherence to colonoscopy performed every 1–2 years beginning from 20–25 years of age, upper endoscopy every 3–5 years starting at 30–35 years as well as endometrial cancer screening, significantly reduces individual risk of cancer death[84]. Effective surveillance is more complicated in subjects with multiorgan cancer predisposition. In particular, carriers of TP53 germline PVs are advised to begin cancer screening in early childhood and, wherever possible, to abstain from potentially mutagenic diagnostic procedures, e.g., X-ray examination[146]. The development of screening recommendations for subjects with HCSs is a continuous process, which is usually coordinated by international and national healthcare professional societies or initiative groups, involves interaction of a high number of experts working in different areas of medicine, requires significant research efforts aimed at collection of real-world data and is a subject of regular updates[84,146,177, 178]. There is a multitude of published guidelines, which generally suggest similar diagnostic algorithms but differ from each other in many nuances. The detailed discussion on existing recommendations is beyond the scope of this review.

Prophylactic risk-reducing surgery has become a standard medical intervention, being particularly well investigated in subjects with the HBOC syndrome, hereditary diffuse GC, hereditary medullary thyroid cancer, etc. [9,22,146,179-181]. It is self-explanatory that surgical removal of the organ(s) at-risk may be applied only in situations when this procedure is not associated with life-threatening adverse effects or disproportional decrease of the quality of life, and only for syndromes with insufficient reliability of early cancer diagnosis. Carriers of highly-penetrant BC-predisposing PVs (BRCA1, BRCA2, PALB2, TP53, etc.) are encouraged to undergo risk-reducing breast surgery, given that even high compliance with diagnostic check-ups does not fully warrant cancer detection at early stage or good treatment outcome[182]. BRCA1/2 heterozygous women are strongly recommended to opt for prophylactic salpingo-oophorectomy at the age of 35–45 years (or after the completion of childbearing)[177,178, 183]. This procedure is justified by the poor clinical efficacy of OC screening and dispensability of ovaries for women entering their second half of life. Prophylactic gastrectomy in CDH1 PV carriers is associated with severe impairment of the quality of life, however the abstinence from this procedure is associated with a significant risk of death due to diffuse GC[9]. Risk-reducing thyroidectomy followed by hormone replacement therapy is a standard option for carriers of RET high-risk PVs. This surgery is usually performed in childhood, and the recommended age for intervention varies depending on the type of *RET* PV[184,185].





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Figure 3 Management of hereditary cancer syndromes. PARPi: Poly (ADP-ribose) polymerase inhibitors; TMB: Tumor mutation burden; HIF-2a: Hypoxia inducible factor-2α; VHL: von Hippel-Lindau; mTOR: Mechanistic target of rapamycin; MAPK: Mitogen-activated protein kinase signaling pathway; MEK: Mitogenactivated protein kinase; VEGFR: Vascular endothelial growth factor receptor; SMO: Smoothened; CMMRD: Constitutional mismatch repair deficiency syndrome.

> Benefit from risk-reducing surgeries has been confirmed by real-world data, however this experience is mainly limited to healthy relatives of cancer patients, who were found to be heterozygous for a highly-penetrant pathogenic allele[184,186,187]. Recent large-scale genetic investigations have identified some carriers of tumor-predisposing variants, who do not have a family history of cancers associated with their genetic findings[5,6]. Apparently, these individuals should be advised to undergo full-scale diagnostic surveillance, whereas great caution must be taken while considering prophylactic surgical interventions in subjects with favorable pedigree data^[23].

Advances in cytotoxic and targeted therapy

Despite substantial advances in early detection and prevention of malignant diseases, cancer genetics remained an "exotic" discipline for many practicing oncologists until the second decade of this century. This was due to relative rarity of familial tumors and limited impact of germline DNA testing on the treatment strategies. Several discoveries, which were made within the past 10-15 years and resulted in the recognition of specific drug vulnerabilities in hereditary cancers, have moved familial cancer studies to the frontline of medical oncology [188,189].

BRCA1/2-driven breast and ovarian carcinomas arise due to somatic inactivation of the remaining allele of the involved gene (Figure 3 and Table 2). Consequently, these tumors are deficient in DNA double-strand break repair and demonstrate pronounced sensitivity to platinum compounds, mitomycin C, bifunctional alkylating agents and poly (ADP-ribose) polymerase (PARP) inhibitors (PARPi). Several clinical studies involving cisplatin or carboplatin suggested that platinum-based regimens are highly effective in women with breast or ovarian BRCA1/2-associated cancer[190-192]. Combined administration of cisplatin and mitomycin C resulted in a remarkable improvement of treatment outcomes in patients with BRCA1-mutated carcinomas[193,194]. There are a number of successful clinical investigations, which resulted in the approval of PARPi for the treatment of hereditary breast, ovarian, pancreatic and prostate malignancies^[195]. Interestingly, non-breast/ovarian carcinomas arising in BRCA1/2 PV carriers often retain the second BRCA1/2 allele and therefore do not have this drug vulnerability. Findings obtained on BRCA1/2 PV carriers may or may not be applicable to other genes involved in homologous recombination, as not all of the latter trigger tumor development by the two-hit mechanism, and even biallelic defects in some genes, e.g., ATM or CHEK2, are not



Table 2 Cytotoxic and targeted therapy for tumors arising in carriers of cancer-predisposing alleles					
Tumor type	Target	Drugs	Ref.		
BRCA1/2-driven carcinomas and their phenocopies	<i>BRCA1/2</i> inactivation resulting in the deficiency of DNA repair by homologous recombination	Platinum derivatives, Mitomycin C, Bifunctional alkylating agents, PARPi	[190- 193, 195]		
Hypermutated cancers (Lynch syndrome associated microsatellite unstable tumors; <i>POLD1/POLE</i> -deficient cancers; <i>MUTYH</i> -associated colorectal carcinomas; tumors in patients with CMMRD syndrome)	High tumor mutation burden resulting in excessive number of neoantigens	Immune checkpoint inhibitors	[199- 206]		
RET-associated malignancies	RET tyrosine kinase	RET inhibitors	[207- 209]		
Neurofibromatosis, type 1	Upregulation of RAS/RAF/MEK pathway due to NF1 inactivation	MEK inhibitors	[210, 211]		
Basal cell carcinomas in patients with Gorlin syndrome	Hedgehog pathway	SMO inhibitors	[213]		
Tumors arising in patients with tuberous sclerosis	mTOR pathway	mTOR inhibitors	[214, 215]		
Renal cell carcinomas associated with von Hippel-Lindau syndrome	Up-regulation of HIF-2 α due to <i>VHL</i> gene inactivation	HIF-2α inhibitors	[216]		

HIF-2α: Hypoxia inducible factor-2α; PARPi: Poly (ADP-ribose) polymerase inhibitors; CMMRD: Constitutional mismatch repair deficiency syndrome; MEK: Mitogen-activated protein kinase; SMO: Smoothened; mTOR: Mechanistic target of rapamycin; VHL: von Hippel-Lindau.

necessarily associated with platinum or PARPi sensitivity[21,196-198].

Microsatellite-unstable cancers, including tumors arising due to Lynch syndrome, are characterized by an excessive number of somatic mutations, and, consequently, high tumor antigenicity. These malignancies can be managed by the administration of so-called immune checkpoint inhibitors, the drugs which antagonize immune suppressor molecules and restore proper antitumor immunity[199]. Clinical studies on microsatellite-unstable cancers involved both patients with Lynch syndrome and subjects with sporadic carcinomas. Pembrolizumab has been approved for the treatment of MSI-H tumors irrespective of their organ localization [200]. Interestingly, a small study comparing hereditary vs sporadic microsatellite-unstable endometrial carcinomas revealed that tumors associated with a germline pathogenic allele have higher TMB and are more responsive to this drug[201]. The results of available clinical trials support the use of pembrolizumab or a combination of nivolumab and ipilimumab in the first-line therapy of metastatic MSI-H CRC[199-202]. There are instances of successful utilization of immune checkpoint inhibitors for the treatment of POLE/POLD1- and MUTYH-related malignancies[203,204]. Several case studies reported clinical benefit from immune therapy in patients with CMMRD-associated tumors [205,206].

Some hereditary cancers are associated with the upregulation of specific signaling pathways. A multikinase inhibitor vandetanib, which has activity towards RET and several other tyrosine kinases, has demonstrated significant clinical activity in patients with hereditary MTCs[207]. Clinical studies on selective RET inhibitors, selpercatinib and pralsetinib, included subjects with both hereditary and sporadic *RET*-driven thyroid tumors, and demonstrated remarkable benefit from these drugs[136,208, 209

Tumors arising in patients with neurofibromatosis type 1 are characterized by inactivation of NF1 gene, which is a negative regulator of RAS/RAF/MEK pathway. Consequently, these malignancies are potentially sensitive to MEK inhibition [210,211]. MEK inhibitor selumetinib has been evaluated in 25 children with recurrent, refractory, or progressive pediatric low-grade NF1-related gliomas, which failed at least one prior therapy. Objective response was documented in 10 (40%) cases, and 24 (96%) patients experienced no progression of the disease within 2 years [210]. Another study included children with NF1-associated symptomatic inoperable plexiform neurofibromas. Objective responses were observed in 37/50 (70%) patients, with 28 instances of response lasting more than 1 year[211]. Activating mutations in RAS/RAF/MEK pathway are also characteristic for hypermutated cancers arising in CMMRD patients. Pronounced efficacy of selumetinib or trametinib has been demonstrated in several patients with heavily pretreated CMMRD-related brain tumors[212].

Gorlin syndrome related BCCs can be managed by down-regulation of G-protein coupled receptor smoothened (SMO), which is involved in the activation of the Hedgehog pathway. Vismodegib, a selective SMO inhibitor, has been evaluated in placebo-controlled trial involving 46 patients, who had at least ten tumors each. All subjects receiving this drug experienced the decrease of existing tumor burden. Furthermore, the use of vismodegib slowed the emergence of new cancer lesions in patients with Gorlin syndrome^[213].

Cancers associated with tuberous sclerosis are responsive to mTOR targeted drugs. Clinical efficacy of everolimus has been repeatedly demonstrated in angiomyolipomas and subependymal giant cell astrocytomas associated with this syndorme[214,215]. There are promising results of the treatment of



VHL syndrome related tumors by hypoxia-inducible factor- 2α inhibitor belzutifan[216]. FH-deficient RCCs often respond to the combination of anti-vascular endothelial growth factor therapy and mTOR antagonists or to multitargeted tyrosine kinase inhibitors[217,218].

Drug vulnerabilities detected in hereditary cancer often have clinical relevance to their sporadic phenocopies. For example, platinum/PARPi sensitivity was initially described in *BRCA1*/2-driven carcinomas, but subsequent research revealed that tumors with *BRCA1*/2-like (BRCAness) properties, *e.g.*, a specific pattern of chromosomal instability, are also sensitive to these compounds[219,220].

CONCLUSION

Increasing involvement of healthy people in whole exome or multigene sequencing will certainly identify a huge number of subjects, who have a potentially severe disease according to a genetic test, but continue to remain unaffected until the elderly age. We are already witnessing that virtually all updated penetrance estimates are significantly lower than the ones observed by earlier studies, and, *vice versa*, the population frequency of some presumably "fatal" germline PVs is manifold higher than the observed incidence of corresponding genetic diseases[4-6,8,9]. The distinction between genetic health and disease is likely to be reconsidered in the near future.

Earlier cancer genetic studies produced rather straightforward gene-disease interactions, where all relevant genes and associated diseases could be easily presented in a table-like format. Systematic large-scale investigations carried out in the last decade revealed substantial promiscuity in genotype-phenotype interactions, thus complicating the clinical diagnosis of HCSs and interpretation of genetic findings[4,17,103,108,119,149,161,162,221]. The unbiased cataloging of patient data may help to account for the diversity of HCS manifestations.

Most of the known non-cancer genetic diseases are recessive, while most of the already identified cancer predisposition syndromes are dominant. This difference is unlikely to be related to genuine biological reasons, but is rather attributed to difficulties in the genetic studies of common cancer types. Virtually all "classic" genetic pathologies are orphan maladies (*e.g.*, cystic fibrosis or phenylketonuria), so the appearance of even 2-3 patients with a unique phenotype in the same family/pedigree, or in the same neighborhood, is immediately recognizable by practicing physicians or clinical investigators. However, if we consider a recessive mechanism for say, conventional breast, lung, or colorectal carcinomas, *i.e.*, the situation when both parents are asymptomatic heterozygous carriers of a recessive tumor-predisposing allele, and the disease is manifested only in subjects with biallelic gene involvement, there is little if any chance to distinguish these subjects from sporadic phenocopies[222]. Indeed, already known recessive tumor-predisposing syndromes include mainly rare diseases with very characteristic phenotypic manifestation, *e.g.*, some hereditary polyposis syndromes[84]. Systematic germline sequencing of cancer patients and the analysis of accumulated "big data" may eventually identify some examples of recessive predisposition to common cancer types. Focus on large communities with pronounced founder effect may facilitate the research in this direction.

The critical mass of advances in clinical genetics, including studies on HCSs, has been achieved due to efforts of scientists working mainly in North America, Western Europe, Japan, and several other parts of the world distinguished by the combination of an exceptionally high level of technological development and strong dedication to biomedical research. Consequently, current knowledge on pathogenic alleles and corresponding familial diseases mainly reflects the genetic background of Western European populations and some Eastern Asian communities. It is self-explanatory that each ethnic group has its own ancestors, who have a unique composition of pathogenic gene variants. Consequently, the distribution of genetic diseases is a subject of major interethnic variations, with a number of maladies observed only in selected populations. It is important to encourage ethnicity-specific cataloging of pathogenic alleles and corresponding phenotypes in order to support proper practical implementation of gene-based tests. Furthermore, analysis of "novel" populations is likely to result in the discovery of new medically relevant genes and corresponding genetic diseases[36,223-226].

Most of cancer studies rely mainly on the identification of protein-truncating variants. The clarification of functional/pathogenic significance for missense mutations is complicated, and there is a need for robust bioinformatic and laboratory pipelines supporting the distinction between disease-causing and neutral amino acid substitutions[227,228]. Current research is mainly focused on the coding regions of the genome; however other genetic loci, to be studied by whole genome cataloging, are also very likely to be a source of disease-predisposing variations[229].

Identification of cancer-predisposing genes is an example of triumph of translational medicine. The development of methods of non-surgical prevention of tumor progression in carriers of disease-associated pathogenic alleles is an obvious priority for future studies in this field.

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FOOTNOTES

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REVIEW

Significance of music therapy in treating depression and anxiety disorders among people with cancer

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Abstract

Globally, cancer cases and mortality have recently escalated and have attracted global concern. The clinical diagnosis and manifestation of cancer can result in significant mental health issues like depression and anxiety disorders. The tendency of people with cancer to suffer from psychological disorders such as anxiety and depression is usually high. A significant number of deaths related to cancer may likely not be from the killer disease but from psychological disorders associated with the illness. The utilization of music as a remedial approach to healing mental disorders cannot be overstated. Thus, identifying the impacts of music therapy in dealing with depression and anxiety disorders among people with cancer is relevant, as the majority of methods used in treating cancer have some side effects which may trigger psychological disorders in cancer patients. Ultimately, this study explored the significance of music therapy in treating depression and anxiety disorders among people with cancer. To achieve the aim of this study, the authors employed a narrative literature review to investigate the significance of music therapy in addressing depression and anxiety disorders among people with cancer. The type of literature review employed in this study is to provide an understanding of the selected research papers. The review found that music therapy significantly reduces depression and anxiety disorders among breast cancer, lung cancer, prostate cancer, and colorectal cancer patients. It is needful for healthcare providers to incorporate music therapy interventions while treating people with cancer. This will help reduce cancer deaths resulting from psychological disorders rather than the killer disease, cancer. However, the standardized procedures and evaluation criteria for applying music-based intervention strategies in oncology medicine still need to be further established and improved.

Key Words: Anxiety disorders; Breast cancer; Cancer; Cancer patients; Colorectal cancer;



Depression; Lung cancer; Music therapy; Prostate cancer

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Core Tip: People diagnosed with cancer and receiving treatment experience anxiety and depression, which may influence their healing process. Most cancer patients may die from depression, anxiety, and other psychological disorders. The mental health of cancer patients is important as their physical health. Therefore, addressing the psychological needs of people with cancer is necessary to improve their health status. In this review, we demonstrate music therapy as a significant treatment approach for reducing depression and anxiety disorders among patients with breast cancer, lung cancer, prostate cancer, and colorectal cancer.

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INTRODUCTION

A health condition known as cancer occurs when a small percentage of the cells in the body develop abnormally and disseminate to other bodily regions. Cancer can develop from any body part that accommodates trillions of cells^[1]. The dissemination of cancerous cells to other parts of the body system is known as metastasizing, which mainly results in death from cancer. Whereas the 21st century has witnessed an improved performance of public nutrition, social behavior, and personal hygiene, as well as the methods adopted in preventing, controlling, and treating infectious diseases, which have all contributed to the current rise in the average lifespan of people, there is still an upsurge of cancerrelated cases and deaths[2]. Globally, cancer has had a remarkable impact on the physical and psychological well-being and finances of individuals, family relations, communities, and the healthcare sector. Most of the healthcare system in resource-limited areas is poorly equipped. Thus, many cancer patients in these locations lack access to prompt, effective detection and subsequent medical therapy. The availability of early detection, effective therapy, and post-treatment care in nations with robust health systems have improved the survival rates of many different malignancies[3,4]. However, cancer prevalence and its common occurrence in emerging economies have continued to vary globally. Thus, in 1975, limited-resource areas accounted for over half (51%) of all cancer cases globally. By 2007, this number had risen to 55%, it has been predicted to rise to 61% by 2050[5,6]. Lung, breast, colorectal, and prostate cancers primarily associated with advanced economics have become a global concern. Diagnosing cancer induces mental stress, which may result in depression, fear, and anxiety [7,8].

Approximately 50% to 85% of cancer patients experiencing late-stage treatment report anxiety and depression[7]. Depression and anxiety negatively influence all aspects of cancer malignancy and its development, the efficacy of given therapy, and the patient's quality of life[9]. The practice of using music to aid recovery and improve the quality of life by medical and music experts is known as music therapy. Music therapy can have several advantages when used in conjunction with traditional cancer treatment^[10]. Music therapy is referred to as the most widely used supportive and creative method of treating psychosocial-related impacts of cancer disease[11]. Music therapy is further defined as a systematic method of using music as a therapeutic means of rejuvenating, maintaining, and improving individuals' psychological and physical well-being[12]. Music therapy aims to reduce or eliminate psychological discomfort and improve the health status of individuals suffering from cancer-related health issues. Studies on people living with chronic cancer cases and those in palliative care have revealed that music therapy has drawn massive attention in research and medical treatment [13,14].

Further, the utilization of music as a remedial approach to healing mental disorders dates back to the olden days. Music is referred to as a healer as it aids in the reduction of anxiety and improves relaxation in patients suffering from chronic illness^[15]. In the same vein, the realization of music as a contemporary psychotherapeutic approach in medical practice started after the second world war in the 20th century, which witnessed the introduction of courses and training sections and the establishment of national bodies around the globe[16]. The primary objective of this study is to examine depression and anxiety disorders' reports in cancer patients, give a narrative review of related studies and assess the significance of music interventions or music therapy in addressing depression and anxiety disorders among people suffering from the most common types of cancer diseases such as cancer of the breast, lung, prostate, and colorectal cancer^[17]. In other words, the study focuses on the need to address the mental health of cancer patients using music therapy. Furthermore, the study aimed to enhance



awareness among medical practitioners providing oncological support and care regarding the significance of music therapy in treating the psychiatric conditions that may emanate from cancer diagnosis.

METHODOLOGY

This study employed a narrative literature review of studies to ascertain the significance of music therapy in treating depression and anxiety disorders among people with cancer. Since the study is a narrative literature review, ethical approval and informed consent are not required. Through a literature search on electronic databases, the authors could access published reviews and research articles, which were analysed using narrative syntheses. A narrative literature review provides informative educational materials as it draws ideas from a variety of papers and transforms these ideas into a readable resource. Thus, a narrative review provides a broader perspective on the topic of discussion. The authors conducted an extensive literature search and were able to find papers on depression and anxiety disorders in relation to people with various cancer malignancies, music therapy in caring for patients with cancer, and the effects of music therapy in treating depression and other psychosocial disorders from varieties of electronic databases such as Google Scholar, Lens, DOAJ, Scilit, Reference Citation Analysis, Dimensions, Scopus, PubMed Central, and SciElo. Also, searches through the references of the articles retrieved for the study were conducted to access more resources, peer-reviewed papers, and authoritative texts. The literature search terms were limited to depression and anxiety disorders, music therapy, people with cancer or cancer patients, music intervention, colorectal cancer, breast cancer, lung cancer, prostate cancer, psychological disorders, and cancer treatment. This study included relevant qualitative and quantitative research and review papers published in English.

DISCUSSION

Depression and anxiety disorders among people with cancer

Recently, cancer has been considered the primary cause of death, resulting in about a 10 million mortality rate in 2020, accounting for 1 in 6 deaths globally. The most prevalent cancer affecting the human race include breast cancer which accounts for 2.26 million cancer manifestations. This is followed by lung cancer with about 2.21 million recorded victims, colon and rectum with 1.93 million, and prostate with about 1.20 million cases. Lung cancer led to about 1.80 million deaths, while colorectal and breast cancer accounted for 916000 and 685000, respectively, in 2020[5]. Hence, the mortality rate from chronic diseases such as cancer has recently increased. The most significant psychological disorders affecting people with this chronic disease are depression and anxiety disorders. Depression is characterized by sadness, emptiness, or irritating moods, along with mental and physical abnormalities that negatively impact an individual's functioning, which may be attributed to environmental factors [18]. Anxiety disorder is an emotional state associated with excessive fear of uncertainty, lack of concentration, insomnia, and restlessness^[19]. Globally, about 154 million people are affected by this disorder, and it is ranked as the most common cause of the severe impact of the disease. Depression is predicted to surpass all other causes by 2030[20]. According to estimates, the likelihood of early death will be higher for 40% to 60% of those with this condition than for the general population^[21]. According to a research finding, about 75% of cancer patients are reported to develop depression and anxiety disorders. At the same time, 50% and 85% of cancer patients suffer acute depression and anxiety simultaneously [7, 22]. Depression and anxiety disorders are common psychiatric conditions that are often disregarded. These neglected psychiatric conditions are some of the impacts of cancer that affect the physical and mental well-being, adherence to therapy, the rate of surviving cancer, and cost of care among people with cancer^[23].

Depression and anxiety disorders resulting from an individual being diagnosed with cancer at the initial stage is further exacerbated during therapeutic cancer management, which may have an unfavourable impact on the cancer patient. Studies revealed that a significant number of people living with cancer and receiving treatment have suffered from psychological distress, such as depression and anxiety disorders; between 15% and 54% of cancer patients experience these psychological conditions [24-27]. There are perhaps some variables that may be attributed to having caused depression and anxiety among cancer patients. Some of the variables that may lead to depression and anxiety at the individual level include demographic variables like age, sex, location, gender, and religion. Also, social and economic barriers like the inability to secure paid employment, low-level educational attainment, and inadequate social support are contributing factors[27]. The interaction between two or more of these factors often results in some mental health conditions among people with cancer[26].

Cancer management has a significant financial burden on patients. Thus, a psychological disorder affecting people with cancer can be linked to structural-level indicators such as availability, access, and utilization of healthcare services for the treatment of cancer, as well as the provision of welfare packages



for people with cancer [28,29]. This is because of the potential financial consequences of cancer. Psychological factors such as distinctiveness of the severe mental illness have been identified as one of the variables. Studies have also revealed that people with a high tendency to mental illness occurrence and subsequently diagnosed with cancer constitute the more significant percentage of cancer deaths. This can also be due to the severity of the cancer disease, late clinical diagnosis, poor therapeutic procedures, and a substantial decline in good healthcare-seeking behavior [30,31]. Also, people with cancer tend to suffer from depression and anxiety disorders due to factors such as a lack of adequate coping skills and neuroticism[32]. Another risk associated with cancer patients is suicide. People with cancer have a high probability of committing suicide when compared to the general population. Individuals who had suicidal thoughts in the past are more vulnerable, especially in the first six months of being diagnosed with such malignancy [33,34]. Another factor worthy of mention is how people with cancer deal with a cancer diagnosis using psychological coping strategies. An individual diagnosed with cancer may be susceptible to grief which could, in turn, affect how well the individual accepts their condition, especially if the diagnosis was delayed and the cancer cells have developed to a large extent[35].

However, despair, helplessness, and uncertainty about survival and death may also have detrimental effects on the mental health of people diagnosed with cancer. In addition, the distress associated with receiving a positive cancer diagnosis can interfere with sleep, which reduces the ability to concentrate, thereby increasing the risk of depression and anxiety[36]. People living with cancer may suffer from feelings of guilt and shame which often results from the stigma associated with being mentally ill and having some cancers, such as lung cancer. Depression and anxiety may be triggered by this event[35]. For example, women who develop cervical cancer due to promiscuity may blame themselves for their health condition and tend to feel isolated if they remember the activity that led to the manifestation of cervical cancer.

Additionally, during cancer management, the development of depression and anxiety disorders can also be attributed to the following variables-type of cancer an individual is diagnosed with, the stage of cancer, and the future outcome of the malignancy. The inability to recognize depression and anxiety among individuals with cancer can also potentially impair their quality of life. The treatment of cancers using chemotherapy, corticosteroids, and immunotherapy can also cause depression and anxiety among people with cancers as it involves biochemical procedures which result in inflammatory cytokines. Further, most of the medication used during chemotherapeutic procedures causes nausea, affecting dopamine receptors' neurotransmitter process. This action gives rise to depressive feelings among people with cancer^[37]. Research has demonstrated that steroid treatment and androgen deprivation therapy is associated with depression and an increased risk of anxiety disorders in patients with cancer [38,39]. Among people with prostate cancer, depression may also be exacerbated by the clinical manifestations of some malignancies, such as leakage and erectile problems linked to prostate cancer [40]. Research on the psychological condition of people with cancer and the stages or survival rate has recently become a significant and expanding clinical research focus. Research has shown that many variables, including the kind and stage of the cancer malignancy, contribute to the declining mental health of people with cancer. In comparison with the general population, cancer patients are more likely to suffer from anxiety and depression[26].

Treatment of depression and anxiety disorders among people with cancer using music therapy

Music has psychological and physiological impacts and, as such, provides support in improving the mental and physical health of people with depression and anxiety disorders[21]. Musical stimuli are associated with the large production of endorphins and hormones secreted in the brain and nervous system. This hormone has many psychological functions. It activates enthusiasm, vital energy, excitement, and confidence in individuals. Therefore, the endorphins produced during musical display aid in lessening pain perception, stress, depression, and anxiety and increasing well-being[41]. Furthermore, music therapy (MT) is a significant contributor to the psychological well-being of cancer patients at all stages of their treatment^[12].

Music therapy research indicates that people with cancer have benefitted from music expression and experience^[42]. Music therapy is a simple, affordable, effective, and convenient method of treating depression and anxiety disorders [22,43]. As such, music therapy is highly recommended to be incorporated into healthcare services for people with cancer. The use of music therapy among cancer patients is helpful and supportive in ameliorating the depressive symptoms and anxiety exhibited by people with cancer[44].

Depression and anxiety disorders are often linked to non-compliance with proper treatment and poor cancer survival and health outcome among people with cancer. It is pertinent to note that cancer patients have an elevated risk of committing suicide [45,46]. Thus, adequate attention is required to address the resulting psychological disorders among cancer patients. Treating depression and anxiety disorders using music therapy involves qualified music therapists employing music as a supplementary or holistic therapeutic solution to help cancer patients cope with their sickness and reduce symptoms related to their condition or treatment procedures[47]. There is growing evidence that supports the use of MT in cancer patients. According to studies, music therapy aids in reducing anxiety levels in cancer patients undergoing major surgery [48,49]. Also, MT reduces depression, as revealed by studies [22,50]. Thus, cancer patients who undergo music therapy have been shown to benefit from its treatment of



depression and anxiety disorders.

The result of a meta-analysis on the effectiveness of music therapy for addressing psychological disorders among cancer patients shows that, compared to other conventional treatments, music therapy is more efficient in addressing depression and anxiety disorders[51]. The study found that music therapy can significantly improve the mental health of patients suffering from depression and anxiety disorders. Cancer patients are recommended to receive music therapy sessions for 1-2 mo to improve their quality of life^[51]. Chen *et al*^[52] stated that cancer treatment using music therapy reduces depressed mood, neuroticism, despair, and hopelessness. The therapeutic use of music therapy in managing depression and anxiety disorders and treatments carried out in surgery departments, and medical oncology should be encouraged among healthcare professionals^[53]. Literature indicate that in addition to music interventions, it is also crucial for patients to receive social support, exercise, and relaxation interventions to minimize the mental health problems associated with a cancer diagnosis and the financial and emotional consequences of the disease^[54-69].

Significance of music therapy in managing depression and anxiety disorders in people with various kinds of cancer

This section is dedicated to reviewing papers that examined the significant results of applying music therapy in treating mental health issue in patients with breast cancer, lung cancer, prostate cancer, and colorectal cancer (see also Table 1).

Breast cancer

Women are more likely to develop breast cancer than any other cancer malignancy. There are approximately 685000 cancer deaths in women worldwide caused by this type of cancer [54], resulting in the largest share of all cancer deaths in women [3,54]. Globally, about 2261419 new breast cancer occurrences were recorded in 2020, constituting 12.5% of all cancer recorded in 2020[55]. Despite the medical advancement in cancer treatment and prevention, which has resulted in an increased survival rate, breast cancer has a long-term negative mental and physical impacts^[56]. Breast cancer patients often express a worse quality of life, experience cancer-related tiredness, and struggle to manage their condition and therapeutic tasks[57-59].

Women diagnosed with breast cancer may experience severe psychological and physical trauma, including altered body views, sleeplessness, exhaustion, discomfort, sadness, and other distressful feelings[60]. Depression and anxiety disorders are regarded to be most prevalent at the acute stage of cancer therapy^[61]. The decision of people with cancer to receive cancer treatment may be influenced by depressive symptoms, including feelings of helplessness. It is estimated that approximately half (50%) of all breast cancer patients suffer from depression or anxiety. There is a possibility of experiencing severe depression during conventional chemotherapy, particularly with taxane-based chemotherapies. This condition may last for as long as 18 mo following the conclusion of the chemotherapy treatment[62,63].

Improving the depression and anxiety conditions of women diagnosed with breast cancer involves many interventions ranging from muscle relaxation training, music therapy, exercise, and laughter therapy[64-67]. Research has shown that they might also have unforeseen consequences and adverse implications that could affect breast cancer patients' mental health conditions [68]. Also, the chemotherapeutic session has been reported to be stressful and may negatively impact the mental state of breast cancer patients. Integrating music therapy and emotional expression could help reduce the negative psychological consequences of the treatment[69]. Music therapy is a distraction tool aimed at managing emotions and diverting an individual's attention from an unpleasant condition to a more pleasant and happy moment thereby reducing the risk of mental stress associated with an unpleasant or lifethreatening health condition like breast cancer. This distraction method involves the breast cancer patient listening to music regulated by the music therapist[70,71].

Additionally, adopting music therapy in the treatment of depression and anxiety disorders among female patients with breast cancer fosters the reduction of the psychiatric consequences of cancer during and after an oncology treatment session[72]. Kievisiene et al[73] stated that music therapy helps reduce adverse psychological effects resulting from the clinical manifestation and treatment of breast cancer. Similarly, music therapy intervention could assist people with breast cancer to ease the cardiotoxicity pain resulting from chemotherapy treatment consisting of anthracycline[74]. Thus, music therapy is efficient and recommended for the treatment of psychological disorders like depression and anxiety as well in people with breast cancer.

Lung cancer

Lung cancer is among the most prevalent type of cancer affecting people, with an estimated 1.8 million recorded cases as of 2012 and 2.21 million new cases, according to recent reports [3,75]. Patients with severe lung cancer experience excruciating pain. About 75% and 80% of these patients reported that pain management is inefficient in reducing the painful consequence of lung cancer [76]. Lung cancer is majorly treated using a chemotherapeutic approach which also has side effects. About 25% of 50% of people with small cell lung cancer were reported to experience psychological distress after chemotherapy[77]. The physical pains and psychological trauma associated with post-surgery and



Table 1 Results on the significance of music therapy on people with the most common types of cancer					
Ref.	Objective of the study	Research designs/Methods	Findings/Results		
Romito <i>et al</i> [69]	To measure the effects of music therapy and emotional expression on the reduction of negative emotions in patients undergoing chemotherapy for breast cancer	62 breast cancer patients were randomly recruited into the experimental and control group	The combination of music therapy and emotional expression was identified to help reduce anger and depression that impacts the mental health of women with breast cancer		
Zhou <i>et al</i> [72]	To examine the effects of music therapy and muscle relaxation training on depression and anxiety, as well as the length of hospitalization	An intervention group of 170 patients was randomly selected and assigned to the study; a randomized controlled trial was conducted	Depression and anxiety level reduction using music therapy		
Kievisiene <i>et al</i> [73]	To explore the available reports on the effects of music therapy and art therapy interventions among breast cancer patients	A systematic literature search was conducted in PubMed, EBSCO, and the Cochrane Central database. A total of 20 randomized controlled trials were systematically reviewed	Music therapy is commonly used for anxiety reduction during and after oncological treatment sessions		
Wang et al [<mark>83</mark>]	To examine the effect on hemodynamics and analgesia of postoperative intravenous sufentanil combined with music therapy in patients with lung cancer in comparison to sufentanil alone	60 lung cancer patients were randomly distributed to a music therapy group and a control group	After lung cancer surgery, patients in the music therapy group were reported to have significantly low anxiety rate, heart rate, blood pressure <i>etc</i> . which would have resulted in a psychological disorder		
Mou et al [84]	To examine the effects of passive music therapy on patients with lung cancer during the initial peripherally implanted central catheter implantation operation on their anxiety levels and vital signs	304 lung cancer patients participated in the randomized controlled trial	Blood pressure, heart rate, and anxiety decreased significantly among lung cancer patients in the experimental group. The findings indicate that music therapy is beneficial for lung cancer patients when they are undergoing central catheter insertion		
Tang <i>et al</i> [<mark>86</mark>]	To determine if six-step music therapy is effective in reducing pain and anxiety in patients with lung cancer receiving platinum-based chemotherapy and whether it improves sleep	Two groups-music treatment and a control group-each consisting of 100 patients with small cell lung cancer, were chosen at random	Patients with lung cancer who receive music therapy report less discomfort, less worry, and better sleep		
Mishra et al [93]	To explore how music therapy affects patients having a RALP after surgery	18 yr and older men (40 patients) undergoing RALP were randomly assigned to music and control group	Music facilitates the comfort and reduction of narcotic usage among prostate cancer patients		
Yung et al [94]	To ascertain how music therapy affects Chinese males having transurethral prostate resections in terms of pre- operative anxiety	A quasi-experimental design involving 30 patients with TURP	Music intervention is associated with a significant reduction in anxiety levels		
Smolen <i>et al</i> [99]	To investigate the impact of music therapy on physiological and self- reported indicators of anxiety	32 adult patients scheduled for ambulatory colonoscopy were involved in the study	Patients who are having colonoscopies benefit from music therapy as it reduces the level of anxiety		
Tanriverdi <i>et al</i> [100]	To determine how music therapy affects patients with early-stage colorectal cancer in terms of anxiety and chemotherapy-related nausea	A randomized controlled trial involving 62 patients	Music therapy was identified to be associated with a decrease in anxiety levels		
Li <i>et al</i> [<mark>101</mark>]	To investigate the effects of music therapy on patients suffering from breast cancer in terms of their mental and physical state	25 to 65 years old female patients with breast cancer and receiving mastectomy were grouped into intervention and control groups	Music therapy was found to be useful and significant in improving the mental and physical health of women with breast cancer		
Chirico <i>et al</i> [102]	To access the efficacy of virtual reality and compare its effects with music therapy	30 breast cancer patients were recruited into VR and MT groups respectively and 34 who were receiving standard chemotherapeutic care were assigned to a control group	Music intervention was discovered to be useful in addressing anxiety and facilitating the mental well- being of breast cancer patients		

RALP: Robotically assisted laparoscopic prostatectomy; TURP: Transurethral resection of the prostate.

chemotherapy often harm the physical and psychosocial well-being of the lung cancer patient. While it is pertinent to provide adequate pain relief therapy for patients with lung cancer after surgery [78,79], the analgesia known as opioids which are commonly used to provide relief, has adverse side effects[80].

Music therapy is employed as an alternative intervention in managing pains associated with lung cancer that could lead to psychological distress, such as depression and anxiety disorders[81,82]. The aim is to enhance the patient's quality of life, promote longevity, and maintain the patient's mental health. The combination of music therapy with other care given to lung cancer patients after surgery helps reduce blood pressure, stress, anxiety disorder, and other psychological problems associated with lung cancer pain and trauma[83] and improves the general well-being of people living with lung cancer.



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Music therapy is highly suggested for lung cancer patients undergoing any invasive clinical surgery^[84] as it aids in improving the psychological issues resulting from both preoperative and postoperative surgery interventions. Studies have revealed that music therapy efficiently reduces adverse physical and psychological effects associated with terminal illnesses like cancer [77,85,86]. Music therapy, according to Tang et al[86], helps treat anxiety among patients with lung cancer. It is an efficient form of cancer care support that can be employed as a therapeutic means of improving lung cancer patients' psychological well-being[86] during chemotherapy or other treatment procedures.

Prostate cancer

Prostate cancer is the leading cause of death for men in 48 countries and the most common cancer affecting men in 112 countries[55]. Similarly, prostate cancer is among men's most prevalent diagnosed cancer in 2022, accounting for 27% of diagnosed cases[17]. Death resulting from this type of cancer malignancy accounts for 37.5 per 100000 and 11.3 per 100000 in higher and lower Human Development Index countries, respectively^[87]. Prostate cancer is treated using radical prostatectomy^[88]. Although the use of robotic-assisted laparoscopic prostatectomy has contributed to the reduction of postoperative pain among prostate cancer patients, there is a need for further advancement in managing pain and other psychological issues associated with prostate cancer[89]. During the perioperative stage, anxiety and pain are commonly associated with cancer patients. According to Kühlmann et al[90], about 75% of surgery patients experience anxiety, increasing postoperative pain. Prostate cancer patients often develop severe anxiety due to concern over the diagnosed cancer and its impact on their sexual life[91, 92]. Music therapy has been identified as a helpful approach in supporting prostate cancer patients and reducing anxiety^[93]. Also, for prostate cancer patients undergoing transurethral resection of the prostate (that is, a surgical procedure aimed at treating an enlarged prostate-related urinary issues), music therapy intervention efficiently reduces preoperative anxiety during surgery [94]. Therefore, research evidence has revealed that music therapy can be used to treat psychological problems such as anxiety disorder and depression associated with prostate cancer diagnosis and should be introduced during preoperative and postoperative care.

Colorectal cancer

Men are highly susceptible to colorectal cancer, one of the leading causes of cancer death. In 2020, about 1.9 million people had colorectal cancer, and 935000 deaths were predicted to occur. Thus, accounting for one-tenth of all cancer cases and mortalities[55]. Colorectal cancer ranks second for death and third for incidence in men and accounts for 29 per 100000 on the higher Human Development Index (that is, an indicator of a country's performance in three of the major aspects of human development, namely health, education, and standard of living)[87,95,96]. Music therapy is used in addressing the psychological problems of colorectal cancer patients. A review of related research shows that a colorectal cancer patient listening to preferred music while having a sigmoidoscopy significantly lowers anxiety and increases comfort during surgery [97,98]. When music therapy was used, according to Palakanis et al [98], the patient's preferred music led to a decrease in the level of anxiety during sigmoidoscopy operations. Music therapy can potentially reduce anxiety and other indicators of psychological disorders among colorectal cancer patients undergoing colonoscopy [99]. Music therapy also reduces anxiety levels among patients with colorectal cancer during chemotherapy sessions[100]. Thus, music therapy intervention is efficient in supporting patients with colorectal cancer to adjust to psychological issues like depression and anxiety associated with a cancer diagnosis. Conversely, research on the effectiveness of using music as a kind of therapy to help people with colorectal cancer cope better with procedures like sigmoidoscopy or colonoscopy and to lessen their anxiety has been fragmentary.

RESEARCH IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Music therapy improves the mental and physical state of people with cancer [101,102]. While cancer diagnosis and treatment procedures are linked to substantial financial costs[103], music therapy's cheap costs, absence of side effects, and significant benefits in reducing stress are crucial for the prevention and treatment of psychological issues caused by cancer and its diagnosis[104]. People with various kinds of cancer tend to suffer from psychological disorders like depression and anxiety, as stated earlier in this paper. Most cancer patients, as well as their families, music therapists, and medical experts feel optimistic about the remedies provided by music therapy[105]. Because the use of music therapy significantly lessens anxiety and depressive symptoms associated with cancer [106], it is vital for practitioners to continue to examine the significance of music therapy in addressing these psychiatric disorders among patients with various types of cancer malignancy.

A large percentage of cancer mortality could be attributed to depression and anxiety disorders resulting from cancer diagnosis and treatment. However, accessing the psychological state of people with cancer before and after clinical diagnosis and treatment is essential to reducing cancer death. The findings of this review are essential to medical practice and policy concerning oncological disease and treatment procedures. It is, therefore, pertinent to investigate and address the psychological disorders



observed in people with cancer. Because music therapy has been found to be significant in treating depression and anxiety in people with cancer, music therapists should be among the medical team treating cancer patients.

Medical practitioners who provide medical care to people with cancer should endeavor to examine the psychological health of cancer patients under their care. Given the significance of music therapy in reducing anxiety levels and treating depression in people with breast cancer, lung cancer, prostate cancer and colorectal cancer, it is therefore pertinent for the oncologist collaborate with qualified music professionals in order employ music therapy during the treatment of cancer patients. Music therapy should also be incorporated into medical, radiation, and surgical oncology curriculum. A further empirical study should be conducted to obtain more research on this issue.

CONCLUSION

Identifying the symptoms of mental illness in cancer patients is essential for managing their mental health. Cancer deaths may occur due to the inability to address the psychological disorders associated with cancer diagnosis among people with any of the most common cancer types. Music therapy has been identified to be significant in treating psychological issues like depression and anxiety that many cancer patients experience. It is needful for healthcare providers to incorporate music therapy interventions while treating people with cancer. This will help reduce cancer deaths resulting from psychological disorders rather than the killer disease, cancer. However, the standardized procedures and evaluation criteria for applying music-based intervention strategies in oncology medicine still need to be further established and improved.

FOOTNOTES

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MINIREVIEWS

Therapeutic challenge for immunotherapy targeting cold colorectal cancer: A narrative review

Shi-Xun Ma, Li Li, Hui Cai, Tian-Kang Guo, Lei-Sheng Zhang

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Abstract

Cold colorectal tumors are not likely to trigger a robust immune response and tend to suppress the immune response. There may be three reasons. First, the complex tumor microenvironment of cold colorectal cancer (CRC) leads to tolerance and clearance of immunotherapy. Second, the modification and concealment of tumor-specific targets in cold CRC cause immune escape and immune response interruption. Finally, the difference in number and function of immune cell subsets in patients with cold CRC makes them respond poorly to immunotherapy. Therefore, we can only overcome the challenges in immunotherapy of cold CRC through in-depth research and understanding the changes and mechanisms in the above three aspects of cold CRC.

Key Words: Cold colorectal cancer; Immunotherapy; Tumor microenvironment; Immune targets; Immune cells

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Core Tip: Advanced colorectal tumors are poorly treated, and immunotherapy has improved these patients' outcomes. However, cold colorectal tumors are less likely to trigger a robust immune response and tend to suppress it. To address this phenomenon, we discuss the role of the tumor microenvironment, immune targets, and immune cells in the treatment of cold colorectal tumors.



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INTRODUCTION

Colorectal cancer (CRC) has the third highest incidence and fourth mortality (after lung cancer, hepatic carcinoma, and stomach cancer) worldwide, which also serves as a biological and genetic paradigm for dissecting the evolutionary paths of solid tumors[1]. The risk factors of CRC are advanced age, dietary habits, obesity, lack of physical activity, constipation, chronic enteritis, intestinal polyps, alcohol consumption, and smoking[2]. With the robust advancement of fundamental research and medical technology, the treatment options for CRC have gradually formed a personalized and comprehensive treatment schedule led by surgery (e.g., manual surgery, robotic surgery)[3]. Current treatment options include local endoscopic resection, radical surgical resection, local radiotherapy, systemic chemotherapy, palliative surgery, radiofrequency ablation of metastases, targeted therapy, and immunotherapy[4]. Of note, the survival benefit of patients with various tumors has increased significantly due to the rapid development of immunotherapy and the combined utilization with surgery, chemotherapy, radiotherapy, and targeted therapy. Generally, cancer immunotherapy can be divided into monoclonal antibodies, cytokines, immune checkpoint inhibitors (ICIs), tumor vaccines, and immune cells (e.g., natural killer cells, tumor-infiltrating cells, T lymphocytes)[5]. Despite the increase in overall survival of patients with advanced CRC, new challenges have continuously emerged in treating "cold" CRC due to the current strategies in triggering a robust immune response and suppressing cancer^[6].

To manage this phenomenon, we discuss the role of the tumor microenvironment (TME), immune targets, and immune cells in treating colorectal tumors.

LITERATURE SEARCH AND REVIEW

For the purpose, we primarily searched the literature on CRC immunotherapy published in the last 5 years through PubMed and Google Scholar databases. After importing them into the literature management software EndNote and de-duplicating them, we double-checked their titles, abstracts, and texts one-by-one to screen out the literature related to cold CRC treatment. The article was written according to a pre-planned framework, and the references were added by selecting the National Library of Medicine mode.

IMMUNOLOGICAL SIGNATURE-BASED CRC CLASSIFICATION

Accurate monomolecular typing is essential to screen CRC patients who may benefit from immunotherapy and whose TME needs reprogramming for beneficial immune-mediated responses[5]. Based on the degree of immune infiltration, tumors can be classified as "hot tumors" with high infiltration, "variable tumors" with rejection and immunosuppression, and "cold tumors" without infiltration[7]. Overall, the subsets of the aforementioned cancers have variations in pathological features, genetic mutations, immune cell composition, immune phenotypes, cytokines, clinical outcomes, and responses to immunotherapy[5]. CRC patients with a resistant "cold" phenotype are extremely challenging to treat with immunotherapy due to the low tumor mutation rate and lack of immune cell infiltration^[5]. Approximately 80%-85% of CRC patients are considered to have "cold" tumors with microsatellite stability (MSS) or low microsatellite instability (MSI-L) (referred to as MSS/MSI-L CRC), which lack response to ICIs[8-10]. Immunosubtype classification can identify altered immune microenvironments in CRC patients. In addition, immune subtyping can guide personalized CRC immunotherapy and tumor prognosis[11-15].

RELATED STUDIES BASED ON THE TME

CRC is a highly heterogeneous disease, and mutant gene polymorphisms create a diversity of tumor subtypes and their corresponding TME. Sobral et al[16] demonstrated, in a study of genetic and microenvironmental intra-tumor heterogeneity affecting the evolution and metastatic development of CRC, that the diversity of CRC is caused by asynchronous forms of molecular alterations in which



mutations and chromosomal instability collectively contribute to the genetic and microenvironmental intra-tumor heterogeneity. Studies have shown that the greater the genetic mutation and TME differences, the lower the ability of tumors to metastasize. By contrast, advanced tumor gene mutations exploit tumor proliferation and metastasis. Wang et al^[17] employed methionine enkephalin to inhibit colorectal carcinogenesis by reshaping the immune status of the TME. It has been shown that methionine enkephalin promotes antitumor immune responses, remodels the immune state of the tumor immune microenvironment in CRC, inhibits tumor development, and is a potential therapeutic agent for CRC, especially useful for improving the efficacy of immunotherapy. Chen *et al*[18] further proposed that metabolic changes in the TME were closely related to the development of CRC. In details, tumor cells secrete carriers beneficially utilized by surrounding cells in the TME to induce metabolic changes and cancer transformation. At the same time, tumor cells secrete pages that provide energy for their proliferation, metastasis, and drug resistance.

The tumor immune microenvironment is highly variable and extremely complex, and many immunosuppressive pathways have been identified in microsatellite-stabilized CRC[19]. Regorafenib, a tyrosine kinase inhibitor, is one of two drugs approved for treating MSS CRC[20]. The REGONIVO study showed a 36% response rate for regorafenib in metastatic MSS CRC[23]. Cabozantinib is another drug being investigated for the treatment of MSS CRC. Toll-like receptor (TLR) modulators are a new class of immunomodulatory drugs[24]. REVEAL is a phase 2 trial investigating TLR7/8 agonists in combination with nivolumab against tumors. Keynote-559 is a phase 1/2 trial investigating C-X-C motif chemokine ligand 12 (CXCL12) antagonists in combination with pembrolizumab for mCRC and metastatic pancreatic cancer. The chemokine CXCL12 promotes tumor proliferation, metastasis and angiogenesis by inducing signals, which can recruit B cells, plasma cells, and regulatory T cells to induce an immunosuppressive environment[25]. Investigators are devoted to developing multidisciplinary approaches to increase immune-mediated responses, improve the TME, and convert "cold" tumors into "hot" tumors to promote immunotherapy[15].

RELATED STUDIES BASED ON IMMUNE TARGETS

ICIs typically respond to CRCs with defective mismatch repair (dMMR) or high MSI (MSI-H). Approximately 85% of CRCs do not respond to immunotherapy or eventually become resistant due to MMR resistance or MSS^[10]. MMR/MSS CRCs typically have low tumor mutational load, low chemotherapy response rates, low tumor-infiltrating lymphocytes, and poor prognosis compared to dMMR/MSI CRCs. Ros *et al*[26] verified that inhibition of transforming growth factor beta (TGF- β) could play a vital role in the development and metastasis of CRC by enhancing T-cell action. He et al^[27] used in situforming albumin corpuscles to target liposomes and reshape the "cold" tumor immune microenvironment through epigenetic-based therapy. It was found that *in situ*-forming albumin corpuscles further enhanced tumor-targeted delivery, and that targeted liposome treatment effectively inhibited the effects between tumor metabolism and immune evasion by inhibiting glycolysis and immune normalization. Janssen et al^[28] explained the available evidence for the potential impact of RAS mutations on the microenvironment of CRC in a study of mutated RAS and TME as dual therapeutic targets in advanced CRC[29]. Takahashi et al[30] showed that the combination of stromal programmed death ligand 1 (PD-L1)+ immune cells and nuclear β-catenin⁺ tumor budding might contribute to tumor progression in CRC and resistance to neoadjuvant chemotherapy in locally advanced rectal cancer. Dmitrieva-Posocco et al [31] found that the ketogenic diet exhibited strong tumor suppressive effects. The ketone body β hydroxybutyric acid reduced colonic crypt cells proliferation and effectively inhibited intestinal tumor growth. It is suggested that oral or systemic interventions using a single metabolite could complement current CRC prevention and treatment strategies. High PD-L1 expression in tumors is a sign of poor prognosis, which also shows good responsiveness to ICIs and immunomodulatory drugs such as C-X-C motif chemokine receptor 4, poly (ADP-ribose) polymerase or TGF- β inhibitors in combination[6]. Li *et* al[32] investigated the relationship between genetic changes in CRC and intercellular transformation in cancer cell biology and TME. Key advances in the development of effective therapeutic approaches for this cancer were analyzed from immunological and single-cell perspectives[33]. Long-noncoding RNAs (lncRNAs) are important regulators of microRNA expression in CRC and might be promising biomarkers and potential therapeutic targets in CRC research. For example, Lv et al[34] provided insights into the pathogenesis, diagnosis, and development of therapeutic strategies for CRC by studying lncRNAs.

RELATED STUDIES BASED ON IMMUNE CELLS

The current therapeutic strategies have limited efficacy in CRC[35-38]. Approximately one-quarter of CRC patients are diagnosed with a combination of distant metastases[39-41], and of these, another onequarter recurs or metastasizes within 5 years. The 5-year survival rate for CRC patients with combined metastases is approximately 15% [42-44]. Therefore, there is an urgent need for new approaches to treat



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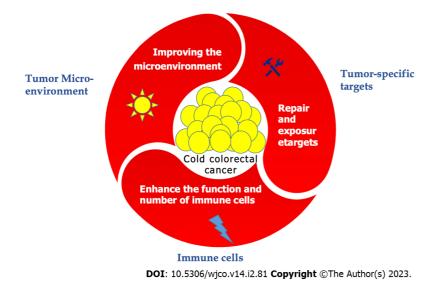


Figure 1 Pattern of immunotherapy strategies for cold colorectal cancer.

CRC using immunotherapy[28,45]. The current cancer classification is based on the American Joint Committee on Cancer/Union for International Cancer Control - Tumor Node Metastasis (TNM) system, and the prediction of the effect of immunotherapy cannot be assessed[35]. Relevant evidence suggests that the prognosis of CRC patients correlates with the type, density, and function of immune cells within the tumor[46]. Galon *et al*[35] developed an immunohistochemical and digital pathology-based assay named Immunoscore, which quantified two tumor regions (core and invasive margin of the tumor) in two T-cell subsets (cluster of differentiation 3 [CD3] and [CD8]). Immunoscore is an immune function-based scoring system that is more valuable than the traditional TNM score in determining the predictive value of patients with CRC[47-50]. Relative studies have also demonstrated the predictive value of Immunoscore for the prognosis of patients with colon cancer[51-53], which is conducive to classify tumors and guide clinical decisions[54-58]. Tumor lysis virus is a novel antitumor agent that both lyses tumor cells and modulates the TME, which can convert "cold" tumors into "hot" tumors and thus allows ICIs to work. For example, Ren *et al*[36] recently investigated the status of tumor lysing viruses and ICIs for treating CRC. The feasibility of combining tumor lysis virus for tumor treatment.

FUTURE DIRECTIONS

For cold CRC, immunotherapy strategies focus on converting "cold" tumors to "hot" tumors through various approaches[6,59-62]. Various immunotherapies or chemotherapy can be used to modulate the patient's immune status[63-66]. Regulation of the number and function of *Escherichia coli* in the patient's intestine can improve the role of the patient's immune microenvironment[67-69]. Therapies that enhance the operation and number of immune cells may also improve treatment outcomes[70-72]. Further functional and mechanistic studies of mutated genes could identify new targets for cold CRC therapy [73-75].

CONCLUSION

In summary, the fundamental reasons for the challenge of immunotherapy for cold CRC are the low tumor mutational load and lack of immune cell infiltration. To conquer this phenomenon, we should conduct comprehensive research on the TME, immune targets and immune cells to warm up CRC (Figure 1). Meanwhile, we should also combine the aforementioned cancer immunotherapy with traditional tumor treatment remedies such as surgery, radiotherapy, and chemotherapy. Only personalized, comprehensive treatment plans for CRC, and a good prognosis for patients are the ultimate goals we pursue.

FOOTNOTES

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MINIREVIEWS

New trends in the surgical management of soft tissue sarcoma: The role of preoperative biopsy

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Abstract

Soft tissue sarcoma (STS) accounts for 1% of all malignant neoplasms in adults. Their diagnosis and management constitute a challenging target. They originate from the mesenchyme, and 50 subtypes with various cytogenetic profiles concerning soft tissue and bones have been recognized. These tumors mainly affect middle-aged adults but may be present at any age. Half of the patients have metastatic disease at the time of diagnosis and require systemic therapy. Tumors above 3-5 cm in size must be suspected of potential malignancy. A thorough history, clinical examination and imaging that must precede biopsy are necessary. Modern imaging techniques include ultrasound, computed tomography (CT), new magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), and positron emission tomography/CT. MRI findings may distinguish low-grade from high-grade STS based on a diagnostic score (tumor heterogeneity, intratumoral and peritumoral enhancement). A score \geq 2 indicates a high-grade lesion, and a score \leq 1 indicates a lowgrade lesion. For disease staging, abdominal imaging is recommended to detect early abdominal or retroperitoneal metastases. Liquid biopsy by detecting genomic material in serum is a novel diagnostic tool. A preoperative biopsy is necessary for diagnosis, prognosis and optimal planning of surgical intervention. Core needle biopsy is the most indicative and effective. Its correct performance influences surgical management. An unsuccessful biopsy means the dissemination of cancer cells into healthy anatomical structures that ultimately affect resectability and survival. Complete therapeutic excision (R0) with an acceptable resection margin of 1 cm is the method of choice. However, near significant structures, *i.e.*, vessels, nerves, an R2 resection (macroscopic margin involvement) preserving functionality but having a risk of local recurrence can be an acceptable choice, after informing the patient, to prevent an unavoidable amputation. For borderline resectability of the tumor, neoadjuvant chemo/radiotherapy has a place. Likewise, after surgical excision, adjuvant therapy is indicated, but chemotherapy in nonmetastatic disease is still debatable. The five-year survival



rate reaches up to 55%. Reresection is considered after positive or uncertain resection margins. Current strategies are based on novel chemotherapeutic agents, improved radiotherapy applications to limit local side effects and targeted biological therapy or immunotherapy, including vaccines. Young age is a risk factor for distant metastasis within 6 mo following primary tumor resection. Neoadjuvant radiotherapy lasting 5-6 wk and surgical resection are indicated for highgrade STS (grade 2 or 3). Wide surgical excision alone may be acceptable for patients older than 70 years. However, locally advanced disease requires a multidisciplinary task of decision-making for amputation or limb salvage.

Key Words: Soft tissue sarcoma; Soft tissue tumors; Sarcomas; Oncology; Preoperative biopsy; Surgical management

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Core Tip: The diagnosis and treatment of soft tissue sarcoma are multidisciplinary tasks, and wide surgical resection is an absolute necessity. Modern imaging, especially magnetic resonance imaging, is valuable, and preoperative core needle biopsy is the most indicated and effective diagnostic tool. Its correct planning affects surgical management because the opposite means dissemination of cancer cells into healthy anatomical structures influencing resectability and survival. New therapeutic modalities, including chemoradiation, biological agents and immunotherapy, can improve the outcomes of the main surgical management. In any case, the management policy is personalized.

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INTRODUCTION

Soft tissue sarcomas (STSs) are rare tumors that originate from the mesenchyme (embryonic mesoderm) and affect children more often than adults[1]. They represent aggressive lesions accounting for approximately 1% of all adult malignancies and 7% of pediatric neoplasms[2,3]. Their incidence is calculated to affect 4-5 individuals per 100000 per year in Europe[4]; annually in the United States, there have been approximately 10000 new cases of soft tissue and bone sarcomas^[5]. Likewise, in 2019, approximately 13000 new cases of ST and bone sarcomas were recognized in the United States with a main location (60%) in the limbs and trunk[6]. A French nationwide registry showed a continuing increase in incidence that is higher than reported and varies among different countries; however, the pathology evaluation should be made by sarcoma experts to avoid misdiagnosis which can occur in up to 30% of cases[7].

Limb STS has a rather better prognosis than retroperitoneal or pelvic STS. The most predominant pathologic type of STS is liposarcoma and leiomyosarcoma in adults and rhabdomyosarcoma in children[4]. Overall, 50 histopathologic subtypes with various cytogenetic profiles concerning soft tissue and bones have been recognized. The location in the vast majority concerns limbs, trunk, head and less often retro peritoneum and abdominal cavity^[2]. These tumors mainly affect middle-aged adults but may be present at any age. Half of the patients have metastatic disease (first in the lungs and second in the liver) and intermediate-high grade STS at the time of diagnosis and require systemic therapy. The 5year overall survival is approximately 55%[7-9].

Tumors above 3-5 cm in size, fast growing, deeply located, solid, cumbersome, possibly accompanied by palpable lymph nodes and causing or not causing pain must be suspected of potential malignancy. Then, an imaging evaluation [ultrasound (US), computed tomography (CT), magnetic resonance imaging (MRI)] is required and must precede biopsy[10]. Preoperative biopsy (percutaneous core needle, preferably) is a crucial diagnostic tool since there has been progress in planning multimodality management, which ensures improved outcomes[6,11]. The Ki-67 proliferation index has been proposed as a prognostic biomarker that, in addition to survival prediction, may determine the indication for lung or liver metastasectomy in carefully selected patients, improving the treatment[12].

Surgical intervention constitutes the cornerstone of management aiming at therapeutic wide excision with adequate margins[2]. Recurrence occurs in up to 50% of cases after surgery, mainly in the lungs[6]. Any effort must be made for limb salvage to avoid amputation. Neoadjuvant or adjuvant radiotherapy or chemotherapy has contributed to current progress^[2]. Likewise, immunotherapy is a promising novel



therapeutic option[1]. Young age is the only known risk factor for distant metastasis within 6 mo following curative resection^[13]. Diabetes mellitus has a negative influence on the clinical outcome after therapeutic excision of STS[14].

Modern imaging, including positron emission tomography (PET)/CT and regular follow-up (every 3 mo for the first 3 years, every 6 mo for the following 2 years and then once every year for the next 10 years), nomograms and artificial intelligence for local recurrence or distant metastasis after surgery, have assisted further and improved the outcome [4,12].

In this narrative review, we highlight the current data on the diagnosis and treatment of STS, providing comprehensive, complete and modern knowledge to manage them.

DIAGNOSIS

A thorough history, clinical examination and imaging are necessary requirements. Modern imaging techniques include US, CT, new MRI, and PET/CT. Imaging findings of limb STS correlate with the histopathologic findings[15]. According to the United Kingdom guidelines for the management of STS, any soft tissue lump more than 5 cm in size and, most importantly, increasing rapidly in size or painful must be considered malignant until assessed otherwise on imaging. Therefore, immediate US is mandatory. If the lesion seems to be benign, then the investigation will be terminated. Otherwise, a CT will follow and then MRI if it is indicated. When positive for malignancy or equivocal imaging findings exist, a preoperative biopsy will always be performed to confirm the diagnosis of STS[8], as described in detail below.

However, MRI is currently the method of choice. It provides accurate location, architecture, and vascularization of the tumor and determines the relationships with neighboring vital anatomic structures to plan the operative strategy and the extent of resection[16]. MRI findings may also distinguish low-grade from high-grade STS based on a diagnostic score (tumor heterogeneity, intratumoral and peritumoral enhancement). A score of 2 or 3 indicates a high-grade lesion, and a score of 0 or 1 indicates a low-grade lesion[16]. MRI radiomics and machine learning may accurately predict the tumor grade^[17]. MRI is useful not only because it can guide preoperative biopsy^[6] but also because high-grade sarcomas need neoadjuvant chemoradiation therapy[16]. It is known that preoperative biopsy may underassess the real grade of the definite complete specimen pathology due to the heterogeneity of STS[17]. Additionally, novel multiparametric MRI has provided promising results for the selection of patients who need neoadjuvant radiotherapy [9]. Preoperative imaging assessment of margin infiltration degree is essential for STS prognosis. MRI using the radiomics mode is a novel promising tool[18]. In addition, MRI using a deep learning radiomics nomogram can accurately predict preoperative lung metastases[19].

Preoperative imaging, pathologic subtypes and molecular findings are crucial. Mutations in the tumor suppressor genes, *i.e.*, the *Rb1* gene (retinoblastoma 1) and *TP53* gene (tumor protein 53) can exist [12]. Liquid biopsy by detecting genomic material in serum is a novel diagnostic, prognostic and staging tool. Genetic material mainly from blood but also from other body fluids (cerebrospinal fluid, saliva, urine, or feces) may be useful for the discovery of circulating tumor cells, cell-free DNA, exosomes, or metabolites^[2]. These biomarkers provide valuable information regarding the tumor genetic profile and the status of the disease to ensure optimal monitoring and to identify the mechanisms implicating treatment resistance. The preliminary results are promising despite the technical difficulties, and liquid biopsy could replace invasive tissue biopsy in the future[20]. The heterogeneity of sarcomas poses further prognostic limitations. Furthermore, circulating tumor noncoding RNAs are promising biomarkers. However, all the above research efforts are in the preclinical stage for sarcomas[21]. In addition, the genomic profile may determine the adjuvant treatment choices[22].

For disease staging, the following imaging is necessary: (1) CT chest to detect lung metastases, since they are the most common metastatic involvement; and (2) CT abdomen to detect early hepatic or pelvic metastasis, particularly for the lower limb location of the primary focus to detect retroperitoneal lymph node involvement[4,8]. Based on relevant indications, the following imaging is recommended: (1) Whole-body scintigraphy for possible bone metastases; (2) CT or preferably MRI brain for possible metastases; (3) Whole-body MRI may be useful for occult metastases[8]; and (4) Likewise, for this reason, 18F-Fluoro-2-deoxyglucose PET/CT is currently more often in use[3]. However, it is absolutely indicated before making decisions for amputation or after postoperative recurrence[8]. After neoadjuvant radiation therapy, approximately 20% of patients with limb and trunk STS require a change in the management strategy because of distant lung metastases. The followed scheme includes a total dose of 50 Gy in 25 sessions of 2 Gy within a period of five weeks and then surgical intervention after an elapse of approximately ten weeks. Therefore, chest CT is reasonable for restaging after such a long time of 15 wk[23].

Histopathologic diagnosis is based on morphological, immunohistochemical and molecular pathologic features[10]. It should be made according to the latest World Health Organization classification of soft tissue tumors. Liposarcoma, leiomyosarcoma, myxofibrosarcoma, pleomorphic undifferentiated sarcoma and synovial sarcoma constitute 75% of all STSs[15]. A second opinion of a



pathologist expert may be valuable. There are three malignancy grades based on differentiation, necrosis and mitotic rate according to the Federation of the French Cancer Centres histological grading criteria for STS[8,10]. These parameters are scored 1 to 3 for differentiation and mitotic index and 0 to 2 for necrosis. A 3-grade system is obtained by summing the scores obtained for each of these 3 parameters, as shown in Table 1[8]. The Ki-67 proliferation index grading system may be useful for the evaluation of the histological grade of STS[24]. The staging of STS is based on the Tumor-Node-Metastasis classification system according to the American Joint Committee on Cancer 8th edition, as shown in Table 2[25].

PREOPERATIVE BIOPSY

Diagnosis and management of STS should be performed by experienced centers[26]. A preoperative biopsy is necessary to establish the diagnosis after the imaging evaluation. Imaging should be performed first to avoid any interference with the anatomical integrity of the region by the biopsy manipulations. The biopsy ensures diagnosis of histological type and staging, predicts the biological behavior of the tumor, indicates the need for preoperative (neoadjuvant) or even intraoperative radiation treatment, and neoadjuvant systemic chemotherapy, determines the best planning of the operative strategy and offers better patient information (reassuring) by weighing the risks and expectations[8,10,11,27]. A preoperative frozen section for immediate diagnosis is not recommended. It has no practical value since the regular review of a core needle biopsy (CNB) will safely establish the diagnosis [10].

The primary method of the first choice is CNB with needles of 14-18 gauges. Several needle samples (4-10) are required to increase the maximum chance of a correct diagnosis[6,8,10,28]. It was performed under imaging guidance (US, CT) and achieved adequate specimens for complete histopathologic evaluation along with immunohistochemical assays. Most cases are performed under local anesthesia, but sedation may be required in some cases. The complications (hemorrhage or infection) are minimal [11]. A large series from Royal Marsden Hospital United Kingdom including 530 cases of CNB performed under local anesthesia showed that it was diagnostic in 93% of cases, needed to be repeated in 7% of cases, had a complication rate of 0.4%, had a diagnostic accuracy rate of 97.6% in distinguishing STS from benign lesions (sensitivity of 96.3%, specificity of 99.4%, positive predictive value of 99.5%, negative predictive value of 95.1%) and had a grade accuracy rate of 86.3% [29]. Adequate tissue samples must be obtained in different directions within the tumor through a single skin incision; to avoid rare needle tract recurrence, the selection of the biopsy site should be planned so that it is included in the subsequent resection, if required[29].

Preoperative CT-guided CNB is accurate and valuable for intraabdominal and retroperitoneal sarcomas^[30]. A recent study from the United States based on the National Cancer Database including 2620 patients who underwent surgery for nonmetastatic retroperitoneal sarcoma showed that preoperative biopsy (performed in 42.4% of cases) was proven useful with better outcomes and improved survival^[31].

Fine needle aspiration does not provide tissue samples and offers cytologic rather than histologic information. Its utility is limited only to recurrence cases of an already known STS[11]. Open biopsy techniques include incisional biopsy by removing a small part of the tumor. It is associated with a 2% possibility of complications (inflammation, hematoma) but most importantly dissemination of malignant cells and delay in the treatment. Its rare indication is limited to failure of CNB. Excisional biopsy by whole tumor removal does not have any place in suspected STS but only in superficial small soft tissue tumors (less than 2 cm in size), which have minimal malignant potential. The basic principles of open biopsy are meticulous hemostasis and avoidance of drain placement[8,11].

MANAGEMENT

The management of abdominal STS at an experienced center with a multidisciplinary approach provides improved outcomes and better prognosis[32]. The initial referral, even based on suspicion, to such a center is of great importance to ensure the optimal chance in accurate diagnosis and proper management^[22]. Surgery is the standard treatment and must be performed by an experienced surgeon. Wide excision with adequate margins at least 1 cm or even 2 cm, free of involvement, constitutes the operative target to achieve a residual zero (R0) resection[2,33-35]. However, vital neighboring anatomical structures may sometimes restrict the resection margin, and microscopic infiltration may be found within it (R1 resection). Further treatment is needed for positive resection margins to restrict recurrence[36]. It has been reported that high-grade tumors have a negative effect on overall survival, but resection margins do not. The 5-year overall survival was 71.1% for R0 resection and 70.2% for R1 resection[37]. Lymph node metastases are rare in STS, and sentinel lymph node biopsy and lymphadenectomy are limited and debatable[38]. Neoadjuvant radiotherapy and wide excision have been widely used but are associated with wound complications^[39], reaching up to 39%^[40]. This rate is limited to



Table 1 Federation of the French Cancer Centres histological grading criteria				
Differentiation (score)	Necrosis (score)	Mitotic count (score)		
Well (1)	Absent (0)	$n < 10^1 (1)$		
Moderate (2)	< 50% (1)	$n = 10 - 19^1$ (2)		
Poor (anaplastic) (3)	≥ 50% (2)	$n \ge 20^1 (3)$		

¹Number of mitoses per 10 high power fields.

After summing the three scores, grade 1 is defined as a total score of 2 or 3; grade 2 as a total score of 4 or 5; and grade 3 as a total score of 6 to 8.

Table 2 American Joint Committee on Cancer classification and staging for soft tissue sarcoma, 8th Edition			
TNM classification	Stage		
T1: Tumor ≤ 5 cm	IA: T1; N0; M0; G1		
T2: Tumor > 5 cm and ≤ 10 cm	IB: T2, T3, T4; N0; M0; G1		
T3: Tumor > 10 cm and \leq 15 cm	II: T1; N0; M0; G2/3		
T4: Tumor > 15 cm	IIIA: T2; N0; M0; G2/3		
N0: No regional lymph node metastasis or unknown lymph node status	IIIB: T3, T4; N0; M0; G2/3		
N1: Regional lymph node metastasis	IV: Any T; N1; M0; any G Any T; any N; M1; any G		
M0: No distant metastasis			
M1: Distant metastasis			

G expresses the histological grading sum score. TNM: Tumor-Node-Metastasis.

half at experienced centers[40]. Neoadjuvant radiotherapy tends to replace adjuvant radiotherapy and is strongly recommended [41,42]. Concurrent neoadjuvant chemoradiation therapy increases the chance of R0 resection[43]. For high-grade deep tumors, T2 or more (stage II or III), wide excision and adjuvant radiation therapy (external beam 60-76 Gy) for local control is the indicated policy[2,10,44,45]. Limb sparing surgery combined with radiotherapy is the current preferable method for such tumors of limbs [46]. It must precede preoperative traditional fractioned radiotherapy of 50-50.4 Gy with a daily dose of 1.8-2 Gy over 5-6 wk[47-49]. Generally, a daily dose > 2.2 Gy is usually hypofractionated radiotherapy [47]. Novel techniques for radiotherapy, including intensity-modulated radiation therapy, proton beam therapy, intraoperative electron radiotherapy and postoperative brachytherapy (via catheters in the surgical field), promise to decrease the side effects of standard radiotherapy while achieving better local control[2,8,10,50].

Chemotherapy with doxorubicin alone or in combination with ifosfamide is the basic scheme as a neo-adjuvant or adjuvant[2]. However, there have been conflicting aspects for adjuvant chemotherapy after R0 resection[51]. Tyrosine-kinase inhibitors (pazopanib, sunitinib, imatinib) have been indicated in some specific types^[2]. In advanced metastatic cases, gemcitabine has been used in combination with docetaxel, vinorelbine, or dacarbazine, but with limited results^[2]. Isolated hyperthermic limb perfusion (IHLP) with tumor necrosis factor-alpha and melphalan is another proposed option for limb STS[2,52]. A recent nationwide multicenter study from the Netherlands showed that in unresectable limb STS, preoperative IHLP or neoadjuvant radiotherapy avoided both amputations with acceptable oncological outcomes[53]. Wide surgical excision alone without neoadjuvant or adjuvant chemotherapy may be acceptable for patients over 70 years of age, providing comparable survival [54]. Frail very elderly patients (more than 80 years old) can tolerate an operative intervention for limb STS well[55,56].

Overall, unplanned excisions were 18.2% among 2187 primary operations for STS in the Netherlands Cancer Registry database^[57]. It is known that unplanned surgical excision is related to an increased risk of local recurrence despite any adjuvant oncologic therapy[58]. For this reason, reresection is an option after positive or uncertain resection margins, but it is associated with increased morbidity and residual disease, which requires complete information for the patient [59]. However, a recent large study from Japan including 4483 operations (4128 planned excisions and 355 unplanned excisions) for limb STS showed that additional excision after unplanned excision was not associated with increased mortality and local recurrence compared to planned excision[60]. Furthermore, in the case of R1 or even R2 resection, reresection in combination with perioperative radiotherapy must be considered[61]. Surgical resection of lung metastases has improved overall survival (49 mo median and 42% 5-year). However, R1 resection of the primary tumor and ≥ 2 metastases decrease it [62]. Pulmonary metastasectomy

improves the prognosis compared to conservative treatment^[63].

The comprehensive assessment of recurrence risk has led to an increasing number of personalized management tools[64], including surgical operation, radiotherapy, novel promising targeted biological agents and immunotherapy (monoclonal antibodies, cellular therapies with modified T cells and natural killer cells, or vaccines)[1,2,12,65,66]. For retroperitoneal STS, aggressive surgical management has been recommended, since it showed satisfactory results for primary tumors but not for recurrence[67-70]. Likewise, for abdominal STS, surgery is the standard treatment^[71]. Operative intervention and radiotherapy maximize local control^[72]. For abdominal wall STS, extensive surgery is indicated for local control despite the rate but acceptability of incisional hernia^[73]. For metastatic STS, systemic therapy and local control by surgical resection, usually or recently by stereotactic body radiation therapy, have been recommended [74]. MRI-guided radiotherapy is another recent alternative modality [75]. For advanced retroperitoneal liposarcoma, the most common subtype of retroperitoneal STS, treatment based on targetable molecular pathways may be the future perspective [76].

A recent systematic review showed that patients with hepatic, abdominal or retroperitoneal metastasis undergoing metastasectomy have a survival benefit for a long period of time compared with those undergoing chemotherapy [4]. A multicenter retrospective cohort study from the United States using the National Cancer Database including 8953 cases showed that younger adult patients under 40 years old had a notable proportion (14.3%) of limb STS and more challenging management. They received chemotherapy more often than radiotherapy vs older patients[77]. A study including 1124 patients with distant metastases at diagnosis, stage IV STS, from the United States National Cancer Database showed that metastasectomy after resection of the primary site increased survival [78]. In any case, regardless of the subsequent kind of metastasis management, primary tumor resection is necessary to improve survival[79].

Visceral obesity is common in retroperitoneal and trunk sarcoma, and it has a negative effect on surgical results but not on oncologic outcomes[80]. A recent international multicenter study using clinical data as prognostic factors of 493 patients with STS found that increased modified Glasgow prognostic score (used in various malignancies and based on preoperative C-reactive protein and albumin levels to calculate a score from 0 to 2), tumor size, grade, neutrophil/lymphocyte ratio, and recurrence were associated with reduced survival[81]. Likewise, another study found a predictive effect on survival of retroperitoneal STS using body mass index, total protein serum levels and blood white cell count by performing prognostic models[82].

The 5-year survival for limb and trunk STS was found to be 71.6% in local recurrence-free patients, 75.7% in metastasis-free and 84.7% in disease-specific[83]. The 3-year overall survival for head and neck STS was 68%, for disease specific 71% and recurrence free 61%. Higher tumor grade and tumor size greater than 5 cm were associated with reduced disease-specific survival^[26].

CONCLUSION

Any suspected soft tissue lump above 5 cm in size must be investigated thoroughly, first by US and CT. For further detailed information, if needed, modern MRI prevails among the imaging modalities and constitutes the method of the first option. Preoperative CNB, always after imaging, is essential in confirming the diagnosis and determining the staging with prognosis and the optimal planning of the management policy. Liquid biopsy and genomic profiling will likely be useful in diagnosis, prognosis and treatment. A multidisciplinary approach is valuable and mandatory. Wide surgical excision with an acceptable healthy margin of 1 cm is the method of choice in management. In locally borderline tumors affecting limb vessels or nerves, modern neoadjuvant or adjuvant chemoradiation therapy may ensure limb savings by downstaging the tumor, thus avoiding amputation. Additionally, this therapy in the advanced metastatic stage improves surgical outcomes after mandatory primary tumor excision. Novel targeted biological agents and immunotherapy may contribute further. Detailed follow-up for a long time is recommended because of the outstanding possibility of recurrence, in which the chance of reresection or stereotactic radiotherapy exists. However, in any case, the management of STS should be personalized and performed by an expert team.

FOOTNOTES

Author contributions: Pavlidis TE designed research, contributed new analytic tools, analyzed data and review; Pavlidis ET performed research, analyzed data review and wrote the paper.

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