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Hereditary GI Cancer Syndromes: Keys to identify high risk patients

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March 24, 2012
OSGNA Educational Conference

Objectives

- Recognize the characteristics suggestive of hereditary cancer syndromes.
- Distinguish between various hereditary cancer syndromes based on family history.
- Become familiar with the management of hereditary cancer syndromes for the patient and their relatives.

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Why is this important?

- Knowledge about how genomics impacts cancer development, prevention, and treatment is rapidly increasing.
- Number of genetic tests continue to increase
- Increasing interest from patients and their families

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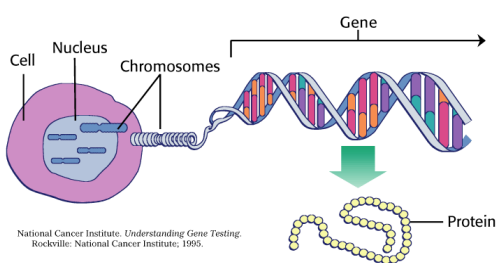
Why is this important for nurses?

“Informed nurses can identify genetic cancer risk factors, educate patients about cancer risks and risk management/treatment strategies, and refer appropriate patients to a cancer genetics professional.”

Aiello-Laws, L. 2011 Seminars in Oncology Nurses; 27:13-20



Genetics Review



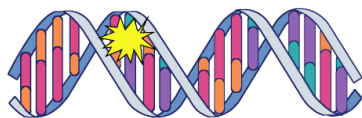
National Cancer Institute. Understanding Gene Testing. Rockville: National Cancer Institute, 1995.



Modified from ASCO education slides

Gene mutations cause cancer

- A mutation is a change in the normal base pair sequence that affects the function of that gene's protein



- Many types of genes are important in the development of cancer including tumor suppressor genes, mismatch repair genes and oncogenes



Gene mutations cause cancer

Germline mutations

Mutation in egg or sperm → All cells affected in offspring

- Present in egg or sperm
- Are heritable
- Cause cancer family syndromes

Somatic mutations

Somatic mutation (eg, breast)

- Occur in nongermline tissues
- Are nonheritable
- Acquired alterations common for all cancers

TriHealth Modified from ASCO education slides

Autosomal Dominant Inheritance

- Equally affects men and women
- 50% chance offspring will inherit mutation

Normal
 Affected

ASCO

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Distribution of Cancer Etiology

Etiology	Percentage
Sporadic	75-80%
Familial	10-15%
Hereditary	5-10%

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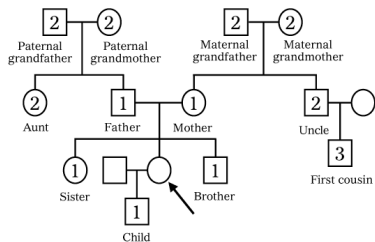
When to suspect a Hereditary Cancer Syndrome

- Early onset
- Bilateral or multifocal disease
- Multiple primary cancers in one individual
- Cluster of cancer in a family
- Certain patterns of cancer in the family, usually multiple generations affected
- Rare cancers
- Precursor lesions



Family History

- Often the key to identifying a hereditary cancer family




Family History

- At least 3 generations
- Both maternal and paternal lineages
- Living and deceased
- Affected and unaffected
- Info to include for the patient :
 - Current age, cancer history, precursor lesions/biopsy results, surveillance practices, cancer risk factors




Family History

Affected Relatives:	Unaffected Relatives
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Current age & screening practices• Age at and date of diagnosis/ death• Type and location of primary cancer(s), stage and laterality• Second cancer: metastasis or new primary?• Environmental exposures (eg, smoking, sun, radiation)• Other medical conditions associated with cancers (ulcerative colitis, pancreatitis, diabetes, etc.)	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Current age• Health status and history of significant illnesses• Presence of other physical findings associated with cancer syndromes (benign tumors)• Screening practices• If deceased, cause of and age at death




Family History Caveats

- Accuracy is key
- Family history is dynamic
- “No family history” is different than “negative family history”
 - Adoption, small family, lack of females, estranged relatives
- Hereditary cancer syndrome does not always lead to cancer in all relatives.



GI Cancer Syndromes

- Hereditary Gastric Cancer
- Hereditary Pancreatic Cancer
- Hereditary Colorectal Cancer
 - Familial Adenomatous Polyposis
 - Lynch Syndrome



Hereditary Gastric Cancer

- Genetic contribution
 - Mostly sporadic, some familial cases
 - 1-3% of gastric cancers are inherited
- Gastric cancers are part of many distinct hereditary cancer syndromes including Lynch syndrome, FAP, Peutz-Jeghers syndrome, Li Fraumeni
- Hereditary Diffuse Gastric Cancer



Hereditary Diffuse Gastric Cancer

- Clinical Criteria:
 - 2 or more cases of DGC in first or second degree relatives, with at least one diagnosed before the age of 50
 - 3 or more cases of documented DGC in first/ second degree relatives, regardless of age of onset.



Oliveira et al. Hum Mutat 2002;19:510-17.

Hereditary Diffuse Gastric Cancer


- 25-50% of families that meet clinical criteria will have an identified mutation
- *CDH1* gene, autosomal dominant inheritance
- Cancer Risks
 - Up to 80% risk of gastric cancer, average age of dx 37 yrs
 - Up to 60% risk of lobular breast cancer
 - Possible risk for colorectal and prostate cancers



Fitzgerald et al. J Med Genet 2010;47:436-44


Management of HDGC

- Should include families with confirmed *CDH1* mutations and/or those that meet clinical criteria but have negative genetic testing.
- Surveillance
 - Annual endoscopy with random biopsies
 - Biannual clinical breast exam
 - Annual mammogram
 - Annual breast MRI
- Prophylactic Surgery
 - Consider prophylactic gastrectomy




HDGC Criteria for further evaluation

- Single case of DGC dx <40 yrs of age.
- Two cases of DGC, one diagnosed less than 50 years of age.
- Three cases of DGC dx at any age.
- Combination of DGC and lobular breast cancer, one dx <50 yrs



Hereditary Pancreatic Cancer


- May account for 15% of pancreatic adenocarcinomas
 - Genes responsible are largely unknown
 - Primarily autosomal dominant
- Hereditary Causes
 1. Hereditary cancer syndrome with PC as a feature along with other characteristics, usually other cancers
 2. Hereditary pancreatitis
 3. Familial pancreatic cancer



Hereditary Syndromes and PC			
	Gene	Relative Risk for PC	Additional Cancers
Breast and Ovarian cancer	BRCA1, BRCA2	3.5-10x	Breast, ovarian, prostate
Familial Atypical Multiple Mole Melanoma Syndrome (FAMM)	P16	15-65x	Melanoma
Peutz-Jeghers syndrome	STK11	130x	Esophageal, stomach, sm bwl, colon, lung, breast, ovarian
Lynch syndrome	MMR genes	2-8x	Colon, endometrial
Hereditary Pancreatitis	PRSS1, SPINK1	50x	—
PALB2 related-cancer	PALB2	Increased	Breast


Familial Pancreatic Cancer

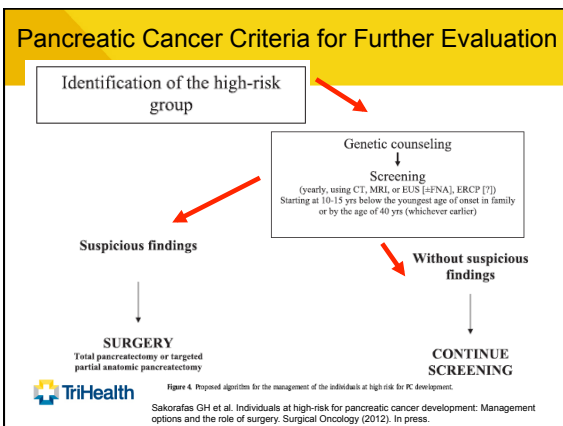
- 2 or more FDR with pancreas cancer
- 1 FDR with pancreas cancer, <50 yrs old
- 2 or more second degree relatives with pancreas cancer, one at any early age
- Cancer risk for relatives
 - 4.6-32 fold increase depending on fam hx

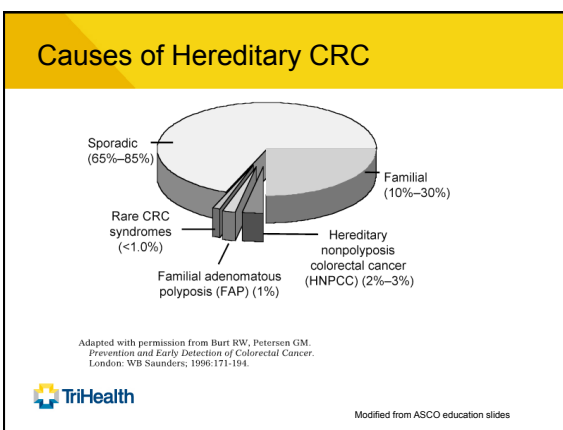


Screening high-risk population

- No standard screening protocol
- Clinical trials underway to evaluate the use of EUS, CT and/or MRI with the goal of early detection in this high risk population.
- Who to screen?
 - Individual having a >10 fold increased risk
 - Lifetime risk is >16%

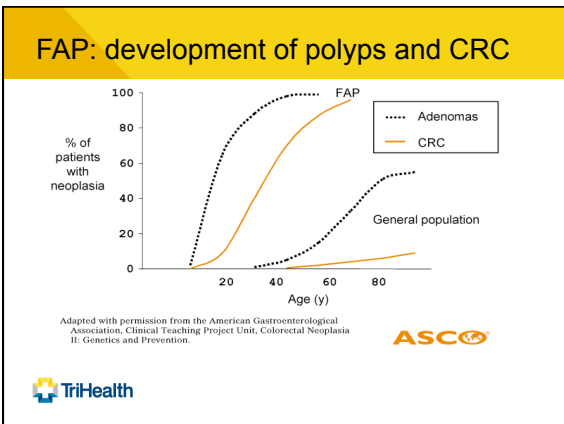






Familial Adenomatous Polyposis (FAP)

- 1% of all colorectal cancers
- Main feature
 - >100 polyps throughout entire colon, often thousands
 - Avg onset of polyps is 16 (range <10–30's)
- Cancer risk is ~100% if left untreated
 - Average age of colon cancer is 39 years.



- ### FAP: Other Cancer Risks
- Small bowel: 4%-12%
 - Pancreas (adenocarcinoma): ~1%
 - Thyroid (papillary): 1%-2%
 - CNS (medulloblastoma): <1%
 - Liver (hepatoblastoma): 1.6%
 - Bile duct: <1%
 - Stomach (adenocarcinoma): <1% in Western cultures
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- ### Attenuated FAP
- Fewer polyps
 - Average of 30
 - Cancer dx later onset compared to classic FAP (average age 50-55 yrs)
 - Can look like Lynch syndrome
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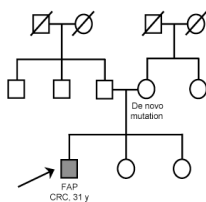
FAP Clinical Variants

- Turcot Syndrome
 - Colon polyposis with CNS tumors, often medulloblastomas
- Gardner Syndrome
 - Colon polyposis
 - Desmoid tumors (10%)
 - Osteomas
 - Dental anomalies
 - Congenital hypertrophy of the retinal pigment epithelium (CHRPE)
 - Soft tissue skin tumors



FAP Genetics

- APC gene; tumor suppressor
- Autosomal dominant inheritance
- 20-25% of individuals with FAP have no family history



Management of FAP

- Individuals with known FAP or at risk but not tested
- Birth-5 years: serum AFP and abdominal U/S, 3-6 mo
 - 10-12 years: flexible sigmoidoscopy, 1-2 y
 - Upper endoscopy by age 25, every 1-3 y
 - Small bowel imaging when duodenal adenomas are detected or prior to colectomy, 1-3 y
 - Physical palpation of thyroid annually, beginning late teens
 - Annual physical exam



NCCN. Colorectal Screening 2.2011

Management of FAP

Once polyps/cancer is detected:

- Proctocolectomy or colectomy
- If ileorectal anastomosis, then endoscopic rectum exam every 6-12 months
- If ileal pouch or ileostomy, then endoscopic evaluation every 1-3 years



NCCN. Colorectal Screening 2.2011

FAP: Criteria for further evaluation

- >10 cumulative colon polyps
- CRC dx <50 yrs, regardless of family history
- CRC with a second primary (colon or non-colon)
- Presence of CRC and non-cancer features such as small bowel adenomas, desmoid tumors, osteomas, etc.



Lynch Syndrome

- Formerly Hereditary Nonpolyposis Colon Cancer (HNPCC)
- ~3% of colorectal cancers
- Autosomal dominant inheritance
- Germline mutations in:
 - *MLH1, MSH2, MSH6, PMS2, EPCAM*
 - Mismatch repair genes



Lynch Syndrome Cancer Risk

Cancer Type	General Population	Lifetime Risk
Colon	5%	54-74% (male) 30-52% (female)
Average age of dx	71 yrs	42-61 yrs
Endometrial	2%	28-60%
Average age of dx	62 yrs	47-62 yrs

Modified from Weissman et al. J Genet Counsel 2011;20:5-19

Lynch Syndrome Cancer Risk (Cont)

Cancer type	General Population	Lifetime Risk with Lynch Synd
Stomach	<1%	6-9%
Ovarian	1%	6-7%
Urinary tract	Rare	3-8%
Small bowel	<1%	3-4%
Brain/CNS	<1%	2-3%
Pancreatic	1%	1-4%
Hepatobiliary	Rare	1%
Sebaceous skin	Rare	1-9%

Modified from Weissman et al. J Genet Counsel 2011;20:5-19

Lynch Syndrome Cancer Risk (Cont)


- Second primary CRC
 - 30% after 10 years
 - 50% after 15 years

- Muir-Torre Syndrome
 - Lynch cancers AND sebaceous gland tumors or keratoacanthomas

- Turcot Syndrome
 - Lynch cancers AND CNS tumors (glioblastoma)

Features of Lynch Syndrome

- Excess of right-sided tumors
- Histopathology
 - Mucinous/signet ring, poorly differentiated, medullary growth pattern, tumor infiltrating lymphocytes and Crohn's like lymphocytic reaction
- Progression from polyp to cancer occurs more quickly




Lynch Syndrome Management

Surveillance

Intervention	Onset (age)	Interval (years)
Colonoscopy	20-25*	1-2
Endometrial sampling	30-35*	Annual
Transvaginal US	30-35*	Annual
Urinalysis with cytology	25-35*	Annual
Physical exam	21	Annual

* Or 10 years prior to earliest diagnosis in the family
Lindo et al. JAMA 2006;12:1507-17




Lynch Syndrome Management

Surveillance

- After 15 years of follow-up:
- Surveillance decreased mortality by 65% (9 deaths in control group; 0 in case group)
- Decreased CRC by 63% (CRC rate 41% in controls, 18% in cases)
- Colonoscopy ever 1-3 years leads to earlier detection and improved survival

Jarvinen et al. Gastroenterology 2000;118:829-34




Lynch Syndrome Management

Prophylactic Surgery

- Colon
 - Limited role for prophylactic colectomy
- Uterus and ovaries
 - Consider total abdominal hysterectomy and bilateral salpingo-oophorectomy


Therapeutic Surgery

- Adenoma—polypectomy, option of prophylactic colectomy
- CRC—consider subtotal colectomy instead of segmental resection



Identifying patients at risk for Lynch syndrome

- Clinical criteria (Family History)
- Tumor Studies
 - Immunohistochemistry (IHC)
 - Microsatellite Instability (MSI)




Identifying patients at risk for Lynch syndrome

Amsterdam Criteria II Vasen et al. Gastroenterology, 1999;116:1453.

- 3 or more relatives with verified Lynch-associated cancer
 - Includes CRC, endometrial, small bowel, ureter or renal pelvis
 - one is a first degree relative of the other two
- 2 or more successive generations
- 1 cancer dx <50 yrs
- FAP excluded

• Caveat: At least 50% of patients with Lynch syndrome will be missed by using this criteria.



Challenges with a Family History

- Family sizes are getting smaller
- Wider use of colonoscopies likely prevent many colon cancers
- Some gene mutations may have lower cancer risks
- Inaccurate information: patient recall, poor communication, adoption, estrangement



Identifying patients at risk for Lynch syndrome

Tumor testing

- Not dependent on family history

Two options for tumor testing

- | | |
|---|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none">• MSI testing<ul style="list-style-type: none">– Abnormal in >90% with LS– Abnormal in 10-15% of sporadic CRC• Abnormal MMR genes allow mismatch errors during DNA replication → variable lengths of DNA segments. | <ul style="list-style-type: none">• IHC<ul style="list-style-type: none">– Abnormal in >90% of LS– Abnormal in up to 20% of sporadic CRC• Absence of protein expression suggests a mutation in the respective gene. |
|---|--|



Microsatellite Instability



Revised Bethesda Criteria Guidelines

Tumors from individuals should be tested for MSI in the following situations

1. CRC dx <50 years of age
2. Presence of synchronous or metachronous CRC, or other Lynch related cancer, regardless of age
3. CRC with MSI-H histology diagnosed in a patient who is less than 60 years of age
4. CRC diagnosed in a patient with one or more first degree relative with Lynch related cancer, with one of the cancers being diagnosed under age 50 years
5. CRC dx in a patient with 2 or more first/second degree relatives with Lynch related cancers, regardless of age.



Umar et al. J Natl Canc Inst 2004;96:261-268

Moving towards Universal Screening

- IHC and/or MSI screening of all colorectal cancers (and endometrial cancers), regardless of age of dx or family history has been implemented at some centers.
 - Based on recommendations by the Evaluation of Genomic Applications in Prevention and Practice group from the CDC. EGAPP. Genet in Med 2009:11:35-41.
 - Tumor screening has also been shown to be beneficial to patients and their at-risk relatives, and cost effective.
- ∞ Family History is not the only tool to use in screening for high risk families.



Conclusions

- Obtaining a family history is a crucial first step in identifying high-risk families.
- An accurate family history makes all the difference
- Enhanced knowledge about the biology of hereditary cancers will allow for new and improved screening methods in the future.
- Appropriate identification of high-risk families can lead to prevention and early detection of cancer.



Questions?
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