



Problem Solving Through Precision Oncology

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RUTH E BOARD, GORDON COOK,
PETER SELBY

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Preface

We have seen remarkable progress in the management of cancer. More than half of cancer patients can now expect to achieve long-term survival and cure in the UK, and slightly more in countries with the very best cancer outcomes. This progress, however, has been achieved at the cost of toxicity for cancer patients and financial cost to their healthcare economies. Oncology has historically been an imprecise medical discipline that has relied heavily on empirical evidence. We generally have not been able to predict with accuracy which patients will benefit and which have the best chance of cure. Treatments are associated with toxicity as well as efficacy because we cannot precisely target the cancer. Our choice of treatment has been determined by historical probabilities and clinical characteristics because we generally lacked the means to test a cancer to determine which treatments will work and which will not. This background makes the advent of precision medicine as precision oncology especially exciting for cancer patients and cancer professionals. The dramatic advances that we have seen in our knowledge of the fundamental biology of cancer, genomics, the transcriptome and other aspects of the phenotype are now genuinely informing the tests that tell us how a cancer is likely to behave, and the treatments that we can use to influence that behaviour.

Discussions of precision oncology are often couched in highly scientific terms, bringing molecular biology, molecular genetics, proteomics and sophisticated imaging to bear on the diagnosis, prognosis and selection of treatment for a cancer. The challenges to delivering precision oncology, however, lie not only at the cutting edge of modern science but also in the way we provide cancer care and how we organize ourselves to do so. We need to communicate effectively with patients in order to personalize their care and provide them with clear choices. Organization and logistics are important themes in precision oncology. We have a growing portfolio of molecular tests to determine the behaviour of a cancer and to predict its response to therapy. We need to look carefully, however, at how they can be deployed in a hard-pressed healthcare system to bring benefits to the maximum number of patients, in the quickest time, and in the most cost-effective way. We need to be careful that the intuitive appeal of molecular testing to guide therapy does not lead us to exaggerate the potential benefits, and keep a clear-eyed view of the evidence.

This most recent book in the Association of Cancer Physicians' prize-winning *Problem Solving* series seeks to bring out in an accessible way the potential of precision oncology and its challenges and pitfalls. Fifteen chapters are written by leading authorities in the field to give an overview of the development of precision oncology at a molecular, clinical and patient-centred level. The 21 individual case histories are then used to illustrate how precision oncology can and should be woven into the practice of cancer medicine and the organization of healthcare services. The approach is broad and inclusive and covers all currently topical aspects of precision oncology. This is a fast-moving field and the principles that are described will be enduring, although the individual tests and the individual treatments are likely to evolve rapidly in the coming decade.

Precision oncology offers to patients the prospect of more effective treatments and the avoidance of unnecessary toxicity from treatments that do not work. Patients and patient advocates see this as a vitally important goal for oncology. The potential for improving the well-being and outcomes of treatment for cancer patients through precision oncology, and the challenge of delivering it effectively and quickly, are immense.

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Ellen R. Copson, Peter Hall, Ruth E. Board, Gordon Cook and Peter Selby

Association of Cancer Physicians

The *Problem Solving* series of cancer-related books is developed and prepared by the Association of Cancer Physicians, often in partnership with one or more other specialist medical organizations. As the representative body for medical oncologists in the UK, the Association of Cancer Physicians has a broad set of aims, one of which is education of its own members and of non-members, including interested clinicians, healthcare professionals and the public. The *Problem Solving* series is a planned sequence of publications that derive from a programme of annual scientific workshops initiated in 2014 with 'Problem Solving in Acute Oncology', followed by 'Problem Solving in Older Cancer Patients', 'Problem Solving Through Precision Oncology' and, most recently, 'Problem Solving in Patient-Centred and Integrated Cancer Care'.

The publications involve considerable work from members and other contributors; this work has been done without remuneration, as an educational service. The books have been well received and we are delighted with their standard. *Problem Solving in Older Cancer Patients* was awarded the 2016 BMA prize for best oncology book of the year.

The Association of Cancer Physicians wishes to thank all the contributors to this and previous books, and to those yet to come.

Johnathan Joffe, Chairman, Association of Cancer Physicians

Abbreviations

ABC	Activated B cell	CTLA-4	Cytotoxic T lymphocyte-associated protein 4
ABL	Abelson murine leukaemia viral oncogene homologue 1	CXCL12	C-X-C motif chemokine 12
AFP	Alpha-fetoprotein	CYP	Cytochrome P450
AGO	Arbeitsgemeinschaft Gynäkologische Onkologie [German Gynaecological Oncology Working Group]	DCIS	Ductal carcinoma <i>in situ</i>
Akt	Protein kinase B	DEC	Diagnostic Evidence Co-operative
ALK	Anaplastic lymphoma kinase	DLBCL	Diffuse large B cell lymphoma
ALL	Acute lymphoblastic leukaemia	DOG-1	Discovered on GIST-1
ASCT	Autologous stem cell transplant	DRE	Digital rectal examination
ATP	Adenosine triphosphate	ECX	Epirubicin, cisplatin, capecitabine
BCL	B cell lymphoma protein	EFS	Event-free survival
BCR	Breakpoint cluster region	EGFR	Epidermal growth factor receptor
BEP	Bleomycin, etoposide, cisplatin	ELF	Enhanced Liver Fibrosis
BiTE	Bi-specific T cell engager	EPOCH-R	Rituximab, etoposide, prednisolone, vincristine, cyclophosphamide, doxorubicin
BRAF	Serine/threonine-protein kinase B-Raf	ER	Oestrogen receptor
BSO	Bilateral salpingo-oophorectomy	ERK	Extracellular signal-regulated kinase
BTK	Bruton's tyrosine kinase	EZH2	Enhancer of zeste homologue 2
CA9	Carbonic anhydrase 9	FDG	Fluorodeoxyglucose
CD	Cluster of differentiation	FFPE	Formalin-fixed paraffin-embedded
CDF	Cancer Drugs Fund	FISH	Fluorescence <i>in situ</i> hybridization
CEA	Carcinoembryonic antigen	FOLFIRI	Fluorouracil, folinic acid, irinotecan
CK-7	Cytokeratin 7	FOLFOX	Fluorouracil, folinic acid, oxaliplatin
CMI	Caris Molecular Intelligence	5-FU	Fluorouracil
CODOX-M	Cyclophosphamide, vincristine, doxorubicin, methotrexate	GCB	Germinal centre B cell
CPET	Cardiopulmonary exercise test	GERCOR	Groupe Coopérateur Multidisciplinaire en Oncologie
CRAF	RAF proto-oncogene serine/threonine-protein kinase C-Raf	GIST	Gastrointestinal stromal tumour
CRP	C-reactive protein	GOJ	Gastro-oesophageal junction
CSF	Cerebrospinal fluid	GWAS	Genome-wide association study
CSG	Cancer susceptibility gene	hCG	Human chorionic gonadotrophin
ctDNA	Circulating tumour DNA	HER2	Human epidermal growth factor receptor 2

HGBL	High-grade B cell lymphoma	mTOR	Mechanistic target of rapamycin
HGSOC	High-grade serous ovarian carcinoma	NAC	Neoadjuvant chemotherapy
HIF	Hypoxia-inducible factor	NACRT	Neoadjuvant chemoradiotherapy
HNPPC	Hereditary non-polyposis colorectal cancer	NCI	National Cancer Institute
HPF	High-powered field	NFκB	Nuclear factor kappa B
HPV	Human papillomavirus	NGS	Next generation sequencing
IAP	Immunosuppressive acidic protein	NIHR	National Institute for Health Research
IGF-1R	Insulin-like growth factor 1 receptor	NLR	Nucleotide-binding domain and leucine-rich repeat containing receptor
IGFBP	Insulin-like growth factor binding protein	NMP	Nuclear matrix protein
IgG	Immunoglobulin G	NOS	Not otherwise specified
IPI	International Prognostic Index	NRAS	NRAS proto-oncogene
IRS	Intergroup Rhabdomyosarcoma Study Group	NSCLC	Non-small-cell lung carcinoma
ISH	<i>In situ</i> hybridization	NSTGCT	Non-seminomatous testicular germ cell tumour
ISS	International Staging System	NT-proBNP	N-terminal prohormone of brain natriuretic peptide
IVA	Ifosfamide, vincristine, dactinomycin	OPSCC	Oropharyngeal squamous cell carcinoma
IVAC	Ifosfamide, etoposide, cytarabine	OS	Overall survival
IVD	<i>In vitro</i> diagnostics	p53	Tumour protein p53
JAK2	Janus kinase 2	PARP	Poly (adenosine diphosphate-ribose) polymerase
KIM-1	Kidney injury molecule-1	pCR	Pathological complete response
KRAS	KRAS proto-oncogene	PCR	Polymerase chain reaction
LDH	Lactate dehydrogenase	PD-1	Programmed cell death protein 1
LFS	Li–Fraumeni syndrome	PDGF	Platelet-derived growth factor
LS	Lynch syndrome	PDGFR	Platelet-derived growth factor receptor
MAPK	Mitogen-activated protein kinase	PD-L1	Programmed death-ligand 1
MDT	Multidisciplinary team	PFS	Progression-free survival
MEK	Mitogen-activated protein kinase kinase	PI3K	Phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase
miRNA	MicroRNA	PI3KCA	Phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase catalytic subunit alpha
MLH	MutL protein homologue	PKC	Protein kinase C
MMP	Matrix metalloproteinase	PMBL	Primary mediastinal B cell lymphoma
MMR	Mismatch repair	PMS2	Postmeiotic segregation 1 homologue 2
mRCC	Metastatic renal cell carcinoma	POG	Personalized Oncogenomics
MRD	Minimal residual disease		
MSH	MutS protein homologue		
MSI	Microsatellite instability		

PR	Progesterone receptor	VAF	Variant allele frequency
PS	Performance status	VEGF	Vascular endothelial growth factor
PSA	Prostate-specific antigen	VEGFR	Vascular endothelial growth factor receptor
PTEN	Phosphatase and tensin homologue	VHL	von Hippel–Lindau
QALY	Quality-adjusted life year	VUS	Variant of unknown significance
QOL	Quality of life	Wnt	Wingless/Int-1
QTc	Corrected QT interval		
RAF	Rapidly accelerated fibrosarcoma		
RAS	Rat sarcoma		
RCC	Renal cell carcinoma		
R-CHOP	Rituximab, cyclophosphamide, doxorubicin, vincristine, prednisolone		
R-CODOX-M	Cyclophosphamide, vincristine, doxorubicin, methotrexate, cytarabine, rituximab		
RCT	Randomized controlled trial		
RFS	Recurrence-free survival		
R-IPI	Revised International Prognostic Index		
R-IVAC	Rituximab, ifosfamide, etoposide, cytarabine		
RTK	Receptor tyrosine kinase		
SAA	Serum amyloid A		
SCC	Squamous cell carcinoma		
SHH	Sonic hedgehog		
SLAMF7	Signalling lymphocytic activation molecule F7		
SNP	Single nucleotide polymorphism		
STAT3	Signal transducer and activator of transcription 3		
SYK	Spleen tyrosine kinase		
TB	Tuberculosis		
TdT	Terminal deoxynucleotidyl transferase		
TGCT	Testicular germ cell tumour		
TGF	Transforming growth factor		
TKI	Tyrosine kinase inhibitor		
TNF	Tumour necrosis factor		
TNT	Triple-negative tumour		
TTF-1	Thyroid transcription factor 1		

PERSPECTIVE

15 Ethical Issues in Precision Oncology/Cancer Genetics

Angela Fenwick, Anneke Lucassen

Introduction

Precision medicine promises treatments that are tailor-made to the individual. An individual's genetic make-up, or the particular genetic changes in the cancer they have, may allow targeting of treatments to individual genomic variations. Such precision tailoring has been made more affordable and feasible by the advent of new, rapid genomic technologies such as whole genome sequencing. These new technologies bring a sea change in medicine, but they also bring ethical challenges. Whilst none of these is unique to genomics, there are some that merit special attention as the technical advances continue at an astounding pace.

In this chapter we outline some key issues and some of the questions raised by new genomic technologies. In particular, we focus on some of the familial tensions that may arise from germline genomic information; genomic information from analysis of the tumour itself does not generally raise these issues.

Confidentiality

Germline genomic information is to some extent both familial (i.e. it is information shared by, and therefore of potential relevance to, other family members) and personal to an individual. Much like in the medical management of infectious diseases, there may be times when healthcare professionals want to alert relatives to the risk they have discovered in an individual. This may never be a problem if individuals are willing to share relevant information with family members, and do so effectively. An example might be the discovery of a *BRCA1/BRCA2* mutation in one person, which confers a high risk of cancer: issues can arise if a patient is not willing, or able, to share the information with relatives, or where a healthcare professional has information but is unsure whether relatives are aware of their risk.

Although UK General Medical Council guidance gives genomic information as one example where confidentiality is not absolute and where it may be appropriate to share information without consent with at-risk relatives, there are still many situations in which professionals may be very unsure as to what their responsibilities to family members are; for example, with whom should the onus lie for such communication? When should healthcare professionals feel obliged to inform others, or even to breach their patient's confidentiality? Given that different inherited mutations may result in different lifetime risks of cancer, what level of risk would sway the balance? Do healthcare professionals have more of a responsibility to ensure the information is communicated when there are surveillance or treatment options that could potentially prevent harm to at-risk relatives? Furthermore, do family members have a right to know that they are at risk even if no interventions are available? If they do, who has an obligation to ensure this right is realized?

Traditional approaches to patient care, which view confidentiality as a principle applicable to individuals, can raise difficulties for healthcare professionals when they know the information

(potentially) applies to more than one person. Arguably, this situation may be reinforced if genomic medicine is described as ‘personalized’ medicine. One way around this tension might be to distinguish genomic and clinical information, even though the two may be closely related; for example, clinical information about an ovarian cancer is individual, whilst the inherited gene mutation that predisposes is familial. If genomic confidentiality is viewed at a familial, rather than an individual, level it is possible to start with the premise that information should be shared with at-risk relatives unless there are compelling reasons not to do so. This is the reverse of the individualized approach, where the default position is that information should be held in confidence unless serious harm can be prevented by breaching such confidence. Information may be able to be shared (‘there is an inherited tendency of breast cancer in your family’) without revealing personal information (‘Jane has breast cancer’), even if, as a consequence, inferences between the two could be made.

Incidental findings

The possibility of genetic tests revealing incidental findings (not related to the original reason for the test) is not new, but, with the advent of whole genome sequencing, its likelihood is increased and, indeed, depending on the level of interrogation of a genome sequence, incidental findings may come to be seen as expected rather than unexpected. Incidental findings range from risk factors with varying degrees of evidence, or available intervention, to certain predictions or diagnoses. Some may only be confirmed after additional testing, following which they may still have uncertain clinical significance. They can complicate consent and disclosure practices; for example, to what extent can patients give valid consent to a test if they do not have detailed information about what the test might reveal, and when should findings then be disclosed?

The debate about incidental findings has often assumed that the finding itself is clear and highly predictive, but currently much genomic information is often far from this, raising questions about how high the risk, or how certain the risk, needs to be before such information should be communicated to patients. The ‘fully informed consent’ mantra of recent years is not realistic in genomics, so what type of consent is possible and acceptable? Some have suggested consent to broad categories of findings, such as those with ‘clinical utility’, but this type of approach also has problems, as patients and professionals may disagree as to what this constitutes. Furthermore, if a decision is made not to disclose information that has no currently known clinical utility, should healthcare professionals have an obligation to follow up patients and disclose at some future point if the information is found to have utility?

Testing children

Genetic testing of children might be undertaken to diagnose and treat inherited cancers that manifest in childhood, but whole genome sequencing may also predict risks of cancer with an onset in adulthood. Determining adult-onset risks in children, before they are able to decide for themselves whether and when they wish to know about their inheritance (about which nothing can be done until adulthood), raises its own ethical concerns. There is well-established professional consensus that unless testing has current medical benefit, or is in the child’s best interest, it should be deferred until a child is old enough to make his or her own decision about whether and when testing should be done.

Predictive information about adult-onset cancer predispositions is more likely to be revealed from whole genome sequencing than from targeted genetic testing. For example, in a child who has whole genome sequencing for current unrelated problems, it might reveal an adult risk of

breast cancer. Should the result be disclosed to parents or kept somewhere for the child to access in the future? Who has responsibility to follow up the future adult, if and when the information has clinical utility? Given recommendations to delay testing for adult-onset conditions, should such risks always be excluded from the analysis in the first place? But what if this type of result could prevent harm to an adult family member from whom the child has inherited the condition? Some have argued that the potential disadvantage to the child is offset by the advantage to the parent who may not yet be aware of his or her own risk.

Prenatal and preconception screening

Genomic testing is also possible before birth: during pregnancy, before implantation or even before conception. In families with strongly inherited cancer predispositions, pre-implantation genetic diagnosis is sometimes requested so that difficult decisions about termination of an affected pregnancy can be avoided. The costs and success rates, and the fact that some inherited predispositions have a less than full penetrance, mean, however, that these remain difficult decisions for individuals or couples.

Prenatal genomic tests may provide diagnostic information about abnormalities (e.g. high-risk cancer genes detected in a pregnancy). The broader the testing the greater the possibility of finding variants in a fetus where the health risk is uncertain, raising similar questions, as with incidental findings, about valid consent. Women who undergo broad prenatal testing will receive information about the fetus which they may want to use to make decisions about terminating a pregnancy. They may be faced with information that gives the fetus an increased risk of cancer, but it may be hard to know what to do with this information, especially if the earliest onset is not until adulthood. Alternatively, the information may be difficult to interpret or is easily misunderstood (e.g. being seen as having more predictive power, and so more anxiety provoking, than is the case), leading to unnecessary terminations of pregnancy. Other ethical issues include: what should happen to the information and to whom should it be disclosed, and when? How should it be stored for future use, and can current health systems cope with such long-term storage and recall?

More generally, systems will need to be set in place for referral to the appropriate specialists, at the right time, especially if the genomic test is instigated by a professional who has little expertise in the particular genomic finding (such as a community paediatrician discovering an adult-onset bowel cancer predisposition).

Conclusion

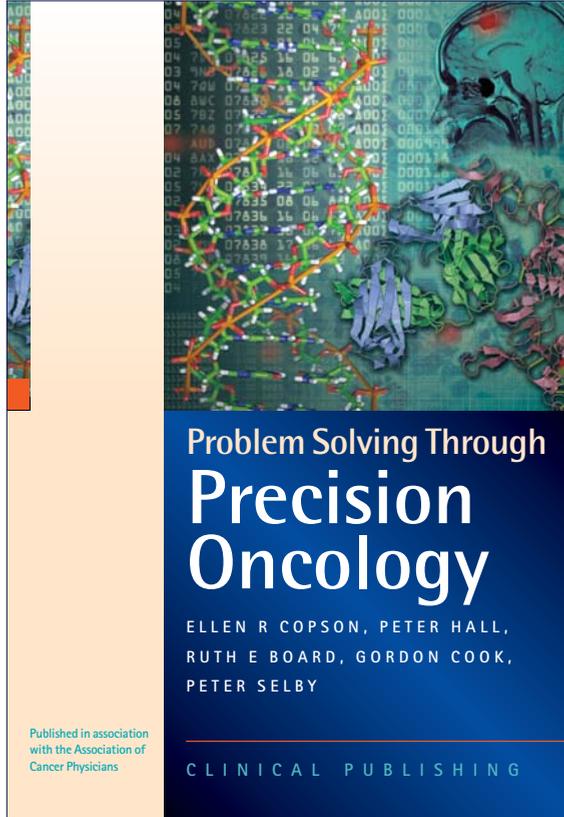


Precision medicine using genomic technologies hails advances in diagnosis and treatment in a range of cancers. At the same time, the technological advances leave in their wake ethical issues that require further careful consideration if the promises of these advances are to be realized.

Further reading



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