



Clinical Impact of Constitutional Genomic Testing on Current Breast Cancer Care

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Abstract

The most commonly diagnosed cancer in women worldwide is cancer of the breast. Up to 20% of familial cases are attributable to pathogenic mutations in high-penetrance (BRCA1, BRCA2, tumor protein p53 [TP53], partner and localizer of breast cancer 2 [PALB2]) or moderate-penetrance (checkpoint kinase 2 [CHEK2], Ataxia-telangiectasia mutated [ATM], RAD51C, RAD51D) breast-cancer-predisposing genes. Most of the breast-cancer-predisposing genes are involved in DNA damage repair via homologous recombination pathways. Understanding these pathways can facilitate the development of risk-reducing and therapeutic strategies. The number of breast cancer patients undergoing testing for pathogenic mutations in these genes is rapidly increasing due to various factors. Advances in multigene panel testing have led to increased detection of pathogenic mutation carriers at high risk for developing breast cancer and contralateral breast cancer. However, the lack of long-term clinical outcome data and incomplete understanding of variants, particularly for moderate-risk genes limits clinical application. In this review, we have summarized the key functions, risks, and prognosis of breast-cancer-predisposing genes listed in the National Health Service (NHS) England National Genomic Test Directory for inherited breast cancer and provide an update on current management implications including surgery, radiotherapy, systemic treatments, and post-treatment surveillance.

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Key words: Genomic testing; breast cancer predisposing genes; germline variants

Introduction

Breast cancer is the most diagnosed cancer in women worldwide. It is now estimated that about 20% of breast cancers are familial, with high-penetrance inherited cancer-predisposing genes such as BRCA1/2 (*BRCA1/2*), tumor protein p53 (*TP53*), and partner and localizer of breast cancer 2 (*PALB2*), accounting for approximately 30% of heritable breast cancer cases [1], or around 6% overall [2]. The remaining familial cases are attributable to moderate-penetrance (e.g., checkpoint kinase 2 [*CHEK2*], Ataxia-telangiectasia mutated (*ATM*), *RAD51C/D*) and low-penetrance genes or single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) [3,4].

Recognition that specific breast cancer phenotypes are associated with underlying high-risk gene mutations [5] has increased referrals for testing. The evolution and

refinement of carrier probability models and the increased capacity and reduced costs of genomic testing have lowered the UK risk threshold for *BRCA* mutation testing from 20% to 10% [6]. Establishment of *BRCA* status as a biomarker of response to platinum chemotherapy and poly-ADP ribose polymerase (PARP) inhibitors is driving testing of more patients who could benefit from these treatments [7,8].

Recent advances in sequencing technologies and multigene panel testing have resulted in more comprehensive testing of increasing numbers of genes than performed historically [9]. Therefore, it is important to consider retesting with modern methods in patients who have previously tested negative but have been diagnosed with a new breast cancer with clinical features suggestive of an underlying high-penetrance cancer-predisposing gene.

In this review, we focus primarily on the genes currently listed in the UK National Health Service (NHS) National Genomic Test Directory R208 for inherited breast cancer (*BRCA1*; *BRCA2*; *PALB2*; *CHEK2*; *ATM*; *RAD51C*; *RAD51D*) and provide an update on current management implications of pathogenic mutations in these genes including surgery,

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radiotherapy (RT), systemic treatments (Table 1), and post-treatment surveillance [10]. The surgical management of inherited cancer-predisposing genes in patients without personal history of cancer is discussed elsewhere [11]. Other rare high-penetrance genes associated with hereditary cancer predisposition syndromes (e.g., *PTEN*, *STK11*, *CDH1*) have been excluded from this review, with the exception of *TP53*.

BRCA1 and BRCA2

BRCA1 and *BRCA2* were the first genes to be associated with hereditary breast cancer [12,13]. They are autosomal dominantly inherited tumor-suppressor genes involved in double-stranded DNA (dsDNA) break repair by homologous recombination (HR) (Figure 1). Population frequency of pathogenic mutation carriers is estimated at 0.2–0.3% rising to 2% in the Ashkenazi Jewish population [14].

Compared to sporadic cancers, *BRCA1*-associated tumors tend to be higher-grade, hormone-receptor, and HER2-negative [15,16]. While 15–20% of all breast cancers are triple-negative, up to 60–70% of *BRCA1*-associated tumors exhibit this phenotype [17]. *BRCA2*-associated tumors are less distinct, typically high-grade ductal; however, several studies have noted the higher proportion of tumors that have a lobular-type histology and are human epidermal growth factor receptor 2 (HER2)-negative compared with noncarriers [16,18–20]. *BRCA*-associated breast cancers are more frequently multifocal/multicentric than sporadic cancers, more so in *BRCA2*-associated than in *BRCA1*-associated cancers [21].

BRCA mutation carriers have an estimated lifetime breast cancer risk of 60–80% [22–25]. Multiple published retrospective studies have yielded inconsistent oncological outcomes in *BRCA1/2* mutation carriers, showing same, better, and worse outcomes than sporadic cancer patients. A meta-analysis involving 35,972 breast cancer patients, including 3402 *BRCA1/2* mutation carriers, showed worst survival outcomes in *BRCA* mutation carriers (*BRCA1* overall survival [OS]; hazard ratio [HR]: 1.2; 95% confidence interval [CI]: 1.08–1.33; $p < 0.001$) (*BRCA2* disease-free survival [DFS]; HR: 1.35; 95% CI: 1.1–1.67; $p = 0.0049$) [26]. Studies included have significant limitations including survivor bias and failure to adjust for age, treatment, or pathological factors. The UK POSH study, one of the largest prospective population-based cohort studies, showed no significant difference in OS or distant DFS between *BRCA1/2* carriers and noncarriers for young breast cancer patients (age: 40 and younger) diagnosed with early breast cancer at a median follow-up of 8.2 years [27,28]. There appeared to be an early survival advantage for *BRCA* carriers diagnosed with triple-negative breast cancer (TNBC).

Most published studies conclude that *germline BRCA* mutation (*gBRCA*) carriers have higher rates of in-breast tumor events (local recurrences or new primary cancers) and contralateral breast cancer (CBC) but no increased radiation toxicity [29–33]. Thus, *gBRCA* patients opting for breast-conserving surgery (BCS) can be offered RT, provided they are well informed about the significantly elevated risks

of in-breast tumor events and CBC compared to noncarriers with a similar cancer. RT is usually, but not always, recommended after BCS, whereas RT to the chest wall is recommended for some, but not all, patients after mastectomy. It is therefore possible that some patients who, based on their personal and tumor characteristics, would be recommended RT as part of BCS but not postmastectomy, might opt for immediate risk-reducing surgery at the time of their cancer oncological surgery to avoid RT and the consequent impact of this on any breast reconstruction and reconstructive options planned. Patients choosing BCS should be offered more intensive surveillance imaging corresponding to their individual risk [6].

With increased access to *BRCA1/2* testing, the shared decision-making process should ensure that patients fully understand the benefits and risks associated with different management approaches. The timing of risk-reducing options should consider the context (e.g., primary breast cancer prognosis, age, and comorbidities) for each individual. The discussion can be influenced by *BRCA*-testing turnaround time [34]. Cancer patients without family history offered immediate genetic testing and opting for risk-reducing surgery may experience more decisional regret and require additional psychological support [35]. The POSH study showed that immediate risk-reducing mastectomy (RRM) for symptomatic breast cancer was not associated with short-term/medium-term survival benefit; therefore, patients may choose to delay surgery until they are better prepared for the biopsychosocial consequences [28]. There is currently no evidence on the appropriate end date for surveillance post BCS. This, coupled with the lack of evidence to support continued surveillance following RRM may influence patient decision-making [36].

Recognition of the role of *BRCA* in dsDNA repair led to the hypothesis that *BRCA*-associated tumors are particularly sensitive to platinum-based chemotherapies that directly bind DNA. The randomized-controlled TNT (triple negative tumour) trial demonstrated that *BRCA* mutation carriers with metastatic triple-negative breast cancer (mTNBC) responded significantly better to carboplatin than to noncarriers [37]. However, in the neoadjuvant setting, all patients with TNBC benefit from platinum-based chemotherapy, regardless of *BRCA* status [38]. Currently, there is no consensus on the use of platinum chemotherapy in the neo-/adjuvant treatment of non-triple-negative breast tumors in *BRCA1/2* carriers [39].

Poly ADP ribose polymerase inhibitors (PARPis) such as olaparib/talazoparib are targeted cancer therapies designed to exploit the dsDNA-repair deficiency associated with *gBRCA* mutations. The OlympiAD and EMBRACA trials have demonstrated the benefit of olaparib and talazoparib, respectively, in treating metastatic breast cancer patients with *gBRCA* mutations, with improved progression-free survival compared to treatment of physician's choice [40,41]. Additionally, the OlympiA trial demonstrated the efficacy of adjuvant olaparib in early high-risk breast cancer with an improved DFS [42]. This led to UK NICE approval and subsequent amendment of the UK National Genomic Test Directory to allow testing in patients who do not meet

Table 1
Characteristics and management strategy for germline mutations associated with hereditary breast cancer

Gene	Function	Tumor phenotype	Population frequency	Estimated lifetime risk of breast cancer	Screening recommendations	Surgical implications	RT implications	Systemic therapy implications
<i>BRCA1</i>	Combines with other tumor suppressors to form the <i>BRCA</i> complex, repair of dsDNA breaks by HR	Strongly associated with TNBCs	0.2–0.3% (up to 2% in Ashkenazi Jewish populations)	60–80%	Annual screening from age 30	High risk of in-breast tumor events. Discuss RRM.	No contraindications to use.	Evidence of PARPi efficacy in HER2-negative disease in early/metastatic setting. Platinum-based chemotherapeutic agents effective in triple-negative disease.
<i>BRCA2</i>	Interact with <i>BRCA1</i> , <i>PALB2</i> , and <i>RAD51</i> to form <i>BRCA</i> complex	Association with HER2-negative and lobular cancers	0.2–0.3% (up to 2% in Ashkenazi Jewish populations)	60–80%	Annual screening from age 30	High-risk of in-breast tumor events. Discuss RRM.	No contraindications to use.	Evidence of PARPi efficacy in HER2-negative disease in early/metastatic setting. Platinum-based chemotherapeutic agents effective in triple-negative disease.
<i>PALB2</i>	Major <i>BRCA2</i> -binding partner, connecting <i>BRCA</i> complex and facilitate <i>RAD51</i> function	ER-positive, HER2-negative; triple-negative cancers	0.12%	33–58%	Annual screening from age 30	High-risk of in-breast tumor events. Discuss RRM.	No contraindications to use.	Ongoing PARPi trials. Case series showing good response to carboplatin in metastatic setting.
<i>CHEK2</i>	Cell cycle checkpoint regulation, interacts downstream with <i>BRCA1</i> , p53 and Cdc25c	ER-/PR-receptor positive; HER2-positive	0.5–1% (In Northern European populations)	20–37%	Annual screening from age 40	Insufficient evidence for RRM, manage based on individual risk/family history.	No contraindications to use. Limited data showing increased contralateral BC from prior RT use. Decision for use to be based on conventional clinical and pathological factors.	No difference between anthracycline and non-anthracycline-based chemotherapy. Ongoing PARPi trial.

(continued on next page)

Table 1 (continued)

Gene	Function	Tumor phenotype	Population frequency	Estimated lifetime risk of breast cancer	Screening recommendations	Surgical implications	RT implications	Systemic therapy implications
<i>ATM</i>	Initiates signaling cascade for HR repair	ER-positive, HER2-negative	0.4–1%	25–35%	Annual screening from age 40	Insufficient evidence for RRM, manage based on individual risk/family history.	Avoid in homozygous carriers due to profound sensitivity. Contralateral breast cancer risk possibly increased due to prior RT use in rare missense variants. No strong evidence to suggest contraindication in more common pathogenic variants.	Ongoing PARPi trial. Limited number showing worst survival and progression-free survival with CDK4/6 use.
<i>RAD51</i>	Forms complex with paralogs and interact with <i>BRCA1/2</i> at site of DNA damage	TNBCs	0.04–0.05%	15–20% (up to 40% with positive family history)	Annual screening from age 40 (can differ depending on individual risk)	Insufficient evidence for RRM, manage based on individual risk/family history	No reported contraindications.	Ongoing PARPi trial.
<i>TP53</i>	Encodes tumor suppressor which acts as an important cell cycle checkpoint regulator, suppressing proliferation or inducing apoptosis	HER2-positive and mixed ductal and lobular cancers	0.005%	40–80%	Annual screening from age 20	Mastectomy preferred over BCS due to high risk associated with RT. High-risk of in-breast tumor events. Discuss RRM	High risk of radiation-induced secondary malignancies. Avoid use where possible.	Limited data showing potential efficacy of carboplatin-based chemotherapy over anthracycline or taxane-based chemotherapy in neoadjuvant setting.

Abbreviations: *TP53* = tumor protein p53; RRM = risk-reducing mastectomy; HR = homologous recombination; BCS = breast-conserving surgery; TNBC = triple-negative breast cancer; CHEK2 = checkpoint kinase 2; *BRCA1/2* = Breast Cancer gene 1/2; *ATM* = Ataxia-telangiectasia mutated; ER = estrogen receptor; PR = progesterone receptor; *PALB* = partner and localizer of breast cancer; dsDNA = double-stranded DNA; PARPi = poly ADP ribose polymerase inhibitor; HER = human epidermal growth factor receptor.

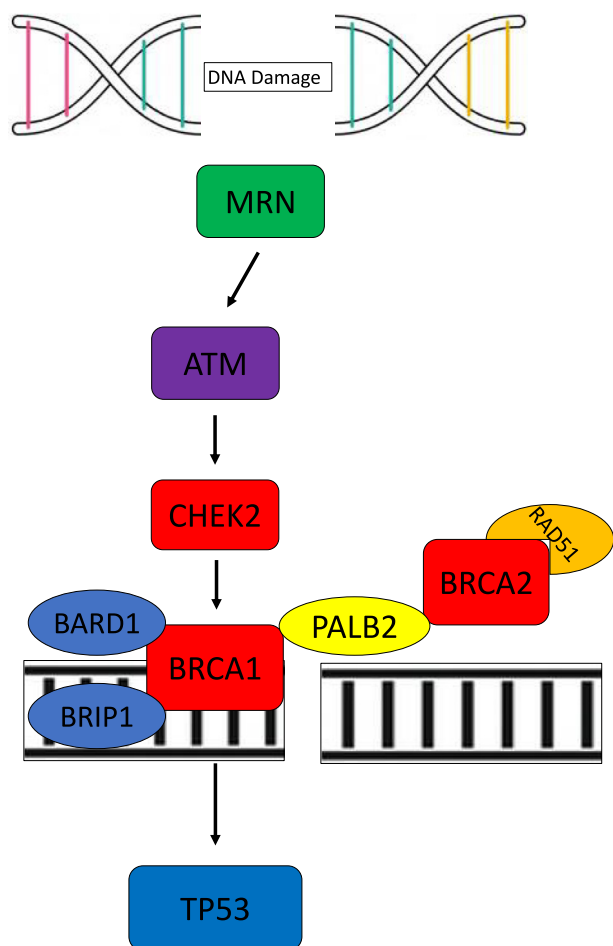


Fig 1. The relationship of homologous recombination (HR) genes in response to DNA damage. Double-stranded DNA breaks are recognized by the Mre11-RAD50-Nbs1 (MRN) complex, which recruits and activates ATM. ATM initiates the HR signaling cascade involving downstream proteins including CHEK2, BRCA1, and p53. CHEK2 phosphorylates >20 proteins that interact with BRCA1. Phosphorylated BRCA1 activates HR, in cooperation with BRCA2 and RAD51, and interacts with numerous proteins including BARD1 and BRIP1 to modulate DNA repair. PALB2 serves as a major binding partner of BRCA2, forming the BRCA complex and facilitating RAD51-mediated strand exchange.

Abbreviations: *BRCA1/2* = *BR*east *C*ancer gene 1/2; *PALB* = *p*artner and *l*ocalizer of breast cancer; *ATM* = *A*taxia-*t*elangiectasia mutated; *CHEK2* = *c*heckpoint kinase 2.

the R208 criteria, but would be eligible for olaparib if they tested positive for a *gBRCA1/2* mutation, under the R444 criteria [10,43].

Partner and Localizer of Breast Cancer 2

PALB2 is a tumor-suppressor gene involved in the HR repair pathway serving as a *BRCA2*-binding partner, connecting the *BRCA* complex (*BRCA1*-*PALB2*-*BRCA2*-*RAD51*) and facilitating *RAD51* function (Figure 1) [44]. Biallelic mutations in *PALB2* result in recessively inherited Fanconi anemia, whereas monoallelic mutations predispose carriers to various cancers including breast, ovarian, and pancreatic

cancers [45,46]. Over 600 distinct *PALB2* variants have been identified; however, only approximately 140 of them are pathogenic, leaving >400 missense variants of unknown significance (VUSs), which presents challenges in variant interpretation and genetic counseling [47,48].

Pathogenic *PALB2* variants are identifiable in approximately 0.66–2% of breast cancer cases worldwide, higher in familial cases [49]. *PALB2* carriers are considered to have a high–moderate breast cancer risk (≥ 4 -fold higher risk than base population) [50]. An international study involving 524 families, including familial and unselected breast cancer cases, determined an absolute breast cancer risk of 52.8% (95% CI: 43.7%–62.7%) by the age of 80 [51].

PALB2 mutations are associated with larger, high-grade, advanced-stage estrogen receptor (ER)-positive, HER2-negative cancers than are sporadic cases (odds ratio [OR]: 9.43; 95% CI: (6.24–14.25) resembling the pattern in *BRCA2* carriers, possibly reflecting the closely associated functions of these genes.

Population screening in China revealed a shorter OS for *PALB2*-mutation carriers than that for noncarriers (adjusted HR: 8.38; 95% CI: 2.19–32.11; $p = 0.002$) [52]. Intriguingly, a prospective study focusing on CBC risks showed that the 10-year cumulative incidence of CBC in *PALB2* carriers was 7.9% (3.8–16.1) compared to *BRCA1* at 23.1% (16.4–32.6) and *BRCA2* at 16.9% (11.8–24.3), but among *PALB2* carriers whose initial breast cancer was ER-negative, the CBC risk was estimated at 19.7% (9.4–41.1) [53].

There is a lack of clinical studies reporting surgical outcomes in *PALB2*-mutation carriers. Due to the high lifetime and CBC risk, bilateral (prophylactic) mastectomy or contralateral RRM may be considered, especially in high-risk families. However, the patient–clinician discussion should be clear that while risk-reducing surgery may reduce the risk of future primary breast cancers, there is currently no evidence that it improves OS compared to enhanced surveillance (annual magnetic resonance imaging [MRI] and/or mammography). The decision to discontinue surveillance (post-BCS) should be based on individual factors including breast density, comorbidities, and patient adherence to the surveillance protocol [36].

Despite the role of *PALB2* in DNA repair, there are no reports of adverse outcomes or toxicity with the use of RT, and the decision-making process for RT should be based on standard clinicopathological characteristics. However, given the known association of radiation hypersensitivity in Fanconi anemia patients, any occurrence of acute radiation toxicities in a *PALB2* pathogenic mutation carrier should prompt a medical review of the patient to assess whether there are any clinical features of Fanconi anemia and further interrogation of germline DNA sequence to look for a pathogenic *PALB2* variant in the opposite allele.

The close relationship between *PALB2* and the *BRCA* genes has triggered studies of the efficacy of platinum chemotherapy and PARPi in *PALB2* carriers [54]. A series of two patients with germline *PALB2* mutations showed excellent response to adjuvant platinum-based agents in the metastatic setting [55]. Several Phase II trials are underway to evaluate PARPi (olaparib/talazoparib) in mTNBC

patients with non-*BRCA* germline HR genes, including *PALB2*. PARPi are not currently licensed for use in non-*BRCA* patients for breast cancer.

Checkpoint Kinase 2

The checkpoint kinase 2 (*CHEK2*) gene is a tumor-suppressor gene that encodes a protein kinase that phosphorylates >20 proteins and interacts downstream with the *BRCA1*, *p53*, and *Cdc25c* pathways involved in cell cycle checkpoint regulation, inhibition of cellular proliferation, and activation of DNA repair pathways [56].

Several *CHEK2* pathogenic protein-truncating variants have been linked to a moderate increased breast cancer risk (two- to three-fold above population baseline risk). There are many VUSs commonly reported in multigene panels; however, that does not significantly increase breast cancer susceptibility [57,58]. Pathogenic variants, such as the c.1100delC loss-of-function variant, are most prevalent in individuals of European ancestry, with a population frequency of 0.5–1% in Northern Europe [59]. The cumulative lifetime risk of breast cancer in *CHEK2* carriers varies between 20 and 37% by the age of 70, depending on family history [60,61].

CHEK2 variants are mostly associated with hormone-receptor-positive and HER2-positive breast cancer and more aggressive breast cancers compared to sporadic cancers, with a tendency toward younger onset, multifocality, higher degree of nodal involvement, and bilateral disease at presentation [17,58,62]. Intriguingly, the relative risk of *CHEK2*-associated breast cancers decreases significantly with age [58,59,63].

Data from the Breast Cancer Association Consortium (BCAC) revealed a significantly elevated risk of breast-cancer-specific death (HR: 1.63; 95% CI: 1.24–2.15; $p < 0.001$) in *CHEK2* carriers compared to that in noncarriers [64]. Similarly, *CHEK2* carriers also had worse OS (at 10 years, 60.7%, 95% CI: 42.5–74.8) than noncarriers (OS: 70.2%; 95% CI: 67.8–72.5) in a young-onset early breast cancer cohort [62]. Several studies have demonstrated an approximately two-fold risk of CBC in *CHEK2* carriers (a 10-year cumulative incidence of 7.9%) [53,64,65]. Since most *CHEK2*-associated breast cancers are ER-positive, adjuvant endocrine therapy is associated with a reduced incidence in CBC, with an effect size similar to that of sporadic ER+ breast cancers [66].

Limited case series have shown similar locoregional recurrence rates after BCS+RT for *CHEK2* carriers compared to that for noncarriers [67]. It is still recommended, however, that *CHEK2* carriers undergo an enhanced surveillance programme with annual mammography/MRI post BCS [36]. Currently, RRM is recommended only for high-risk individuals whose risk of developing breast cancer exceeds 30%; considering factors such as age at diagnosis, family history, menopausal status, hormonal receptors of initial cancer, cosmesis and patient preference, and motivation to adhere to an enhanced surveillance programme [6].

There are no reports of distinct radiosensitivity in *CHEK2* mutations or long-term complications except for one study

of 233 bilateral breast cancer patients including 15 *CHEK2**1100delC-mutation carriers, reporting an increased risk of CBC in the irradiated *CHEK2* carriers (OR: 6.5; 95% CI: 1.5–28.8; $p = 0.005$) [68]. This has not yet been substantiated, and the use of RT in *CHEK2* carriers should be based on conventional clinicopathological factors.

Some studies have investigated the chemosensitivity of *CHEK2*-associated cancer. Studies including patients with the *CHEK2* c.1100delC mutation showed no difference in response to anthracycline/non-anthracycline-based regimens compared with non-carriers [69,70]. Currently, there are no published studies of platinum-based agents in *CHEK2*-associated breast cancer. A Phase II study evaluating olaparib in HR-related genes including *CHEK2* failed to observe a response in the metastatic setting, although this was limited by sample size [71]. Overall, the sensitivity of *CHEK2*-associated breast cancer to specific treatment regimens remains unclear and warrants further development of clinical trials stratified by *CHEK2* status.

Ataxia-telangiectasia Mutated

The Ataxia-telangiectasia mutated (*ATM*) gene encodes a serine threonine kinase that initiates the signaling cascade for HR repair involving downstream effector proteins including *BRCA1/2*, *PALB2*, *CHEK2*, and *p53* in response to dsDNA breaks (Figure 1) [72,73]. Biallelic mutations cause the autosomal recessive Ataxia-telangiectasia (AT) neurodegenerative disorder, characterized by cerebellar ataxia, oculomotor abnormalities, increased malignancies, and profound radiosensitivity.

Monoallelic pathogenic heterozygous *ATM* mutations are present in approximately 0.4–1% of the general population. They are associated with a moderately increased breast cancer risk of two- to three-fold above the population level, with an estimated lifetime risk of 25–35% [74,75]. Data from the CARRIERS consortium of >15,104 patients, including 116 *ATM* carriers, concluded that *ATM* pathogenic variants were not significantly associated with CBC (a 10-year cumulative incidence of 4.0%) [53]. One missense pathogenic variant c.7271T > G appears to confer a higher risk than do other variants (OR: 3.76; 95% CI: 2.76–5.12), with estimates of cumulative lifetime risk similar to *BRCA2* [76].

The large-scale sequencing study, BRIDGES, revealed a strong association between *ATM* mutations and ER-positive, HER2-negative high-grade tumors (OR: 4.99; 95% CI: 3.68–6.76) compared to sporadic cases, although ER-positive, HER2-negative low-grade tumors were the most common [17].

There is a lack of survival and surgical outcome data on *ATM*-associated breast cancers. Currently, there is insufficient evidence to recommend RRM, and the decision should be guided by family history. An exception is the c.7271T > G variant, where RRM should be discussed, in line with other high-penetrance genes. *ATM* carriers are recommended to adhere to an enhanced surveillance program post BCS with annual mammogram/MRI [36].

Concerns regarding potential excess toxicity of RT in *ATM* heterozygous carriers have been investigated. The WECARE population-based case–control study reported on a small number of patients in the cohort with *ATM* pathogenic/likely pathogenic variants showing an increase in CBC risk for carriers that was slightly higher in those receiving RT (cumulative 10-year incidence: 7.4% [2.0–27.8] versus 10.5% [3.9–28.2]) [77]. Another study, including 91 *ATM* carriers (23 pathogenic and 68 VUSs), found no evidence of increased toxicity or secondary/contralateral cancers (a median follow-up of 32 months) [78]. Among the seven patients diagnosed with CBC at a median 8 years after RT, six were VUS carriers. Overall, current evidence suggests that RT is safe for pathogenic *ATM* mutation carriers [79].

There are currently no published reports on platinum-based agents in *ATM*-associated breast cancer. The effectiveness of PARPi in *ATM*-associated metastatic breast cancer is under investigation [71]. Limited retrospective data from a study evaluating cyclin-dependent kinase (CDK) 4/6 inhibitors in four patients with *ATM* mutations showed that HR gene carriers with advanced ER-positive, HER2-negative breast cancer had the worst survival and progression-free survival outcomes compared to noncarriers [80].

RAD51C/RAD51D

The *RAD51* gene is another important DNA-repair gene in the HR pathway. *RAD51C/D* encodes a key protein that forms a complex with accessory paralog proteins that interact with *BRCA1* and *BRCA2* to facilitate DNA repair at the damage site. *BRCA2* contains *RAD51*-binding domains and promotes *RAD51*-dependent strand exchange [81].

A population analysis study involving 60,466 breast cancer patients and 53,461 controls detected pathogenic variants of *RAD51C* and *RAD51D* in 0.11% and 0.10% of breast cancer patients and 0.05% and 0.04% in controls (OR: 1.93; $p = 0.0070$ and 1.80; $p = 0.018$), respectively [82]. Pathogenic variants, such as *RAD51D* c.270_271dupTA, are estimated to confer a moderately increased lifetime breast cancer risk of 15–40%, which can vary significantly depending on family history [83]. Current UK guidelines recommend using risk-prediction tools such as CanRisk to determine age-specific risks for directing screening and management strategies [84].

The tumor subtype distribution of *RAD51C* and *RAD51D* is similar. *RAD51C/D* mutations are strongly associated with TNBC (OR range: 5.71–6.19) as opposed to ER-positive, HER2-negative tumors (OR range: 1.17–1.52) [17,82]. *RAD51D* carriers tend to have a more aggressive profile, including positive axillary lymph nodes, high-grade tumors, and earlier onset of breast cancer (mean age: 45.4 years), similar to *BRCA1/2*-carriers, than noncarriers (51.3 years) [85]. *RAD51D* carriers also had worse survival outcomes in terms of recurrence-free survival (unadjusted HR: 3.00; 95% CI: 1.56–5.80; $p = 0.001$) than noncarriers.

Despite the lack of data on surgical outcomes and CBC risk in *RAD51C/D* carriers, the substantial lifetime risk of breast cancer associated with a positive family history supports discussion of RRM. Following a UK-wide

consensus meeting, the UK Cancer Genetics Group (UKCGG) issued guidelines recommending clinicians discuss RRM if the lifetime risk exceeds 30% following an individualized risk assessment and appropriate counseling in *RAD51C/D* pathogenic variant carriers without personal history of breast cancer [84,86]. The role of contralateral RRM in improving OS for high-penetrance genes remains controversial despite being effective in reducing CBC risk, perhaps even more so with respect to moderate-penetrance genes such as *RAD51C/D*.

There are limited data on the use of RT in *RAD51C/D* mutations. However, the *RAD51* genes form part of the *BRCA* complex (*BRCA1-PALB2-BRCA2-RAD51*) and despite their role in DNA repair, there are no reported toxicities in the other genes of the complex [87]. Therefore, the use of RT in breast cancer patients with *RAD51C/D* mutations should be individualized and based on classic clinical and pathological factors.

There are currently no published clinical reports on use of platinum-based agents in *RAD51C/D*-associated breast cancer. *RAD51C/D* mutations are hypothesized to exhibit similar sensitivity to PARPi [88]. A Phase II trial (ClinicalTrials.gov NCT02401347) is underway evaluating the use of the PARPi talazoparib in non-*BRCA1/2* HR pathway genes including *RAD51C/D*.

Tumor Protein p53

Tumor protein p53 (*TP53*) is a crucial tumor-suppressor gene that regulates cell cycle checkpoints by regulating the transcription of numerous genes that subsequently suppress proliferation or induce apoptosis following DNA damage [89]. Pathogenic *gTP53* variants are associated with Li–Fraumeni syndrome (LFS), a rare autosomal, dominantly inherited cancer predisposition syndrome associated with various early-onset primary cancers, including central nervous system tumors, bone and soft tissue sarcomas, adrenocortical carcinomas, gastrointestinal, and lung, prostate and breast cancers [90,91].

Breast cancer is the most frequent cancer in adult female *TP53*-carriers. While the frequency of pathogenic *TP53* variants in the general population is estimated at 1 in 20,000 (0.005%), data from the CARRIERS consortium and BCAC identified pathogenic *TP53* variants in 19 of 32,247 (0.06%) and 7 of 48,826 (0.01%) unselected breast cancer patients [82,83,92]. *TP53* pathogenic variants confer a 20- to 40-fold increased breast cancer risk between ages 20 and 40, with an estimated cumulative incidence of approximately 85% by the age of 60 [92,93].

A unique study comparing LFS patients with a pathogenic *TP53* mutation to a cohort of early young onset breast cancer showed that *TP53* carriers were more likely to have hormone-receptor and HER2-positive (triple-positive) breast tumors (42% vs 8%; $p = 9.3 \times 10^{-5}$) [94]. Furthermore, data from BRIDGES also demonstrated that *TP53* carriers were more likely to develop HER2-positive tumors (45% of cases), and mixed lobular and ductal tumors rather than pure ductal carcinoma subtypes [17]. Given the association of *TP53* with HER2-positive and YOBC, patients aged <30

(or <35 for HER2-positive breast cancer) who test negative for other breast-cancer-predisposing genes are eligible for LFS testing under the UK National Genomic Testing Directory R216 [10].

There are limited studies on clinical outcomes of *gTP53* mutation carriers. A Chinese study of 10,053 early-stage breast cancer patients, including 50 *gTP53* patients, revealed worse survival outcomes in terms of relapse-free survival (HR: 2.24; 95% CI: 1.15–4.33; $p = 0.02$) and OS (HR: 4.6; 95% CI: 2.26–9.41; $p < 0.001$) than sporadic and wild-type *TP53* cases [95]. Studies assessing the risk of developing CBC have shown significantly elevated 10-year cumulative risks, ranging from 17.9–53%, depending on population selection [96,97].

Several studies have shown a significantly elevated risk of radiation-induced secondary malignancies, up to 30%, in *TP53* carriers receiving adjuvant RT [98–100]. Secondary malignancies documented include sarcomas and thyroid cancers. Therefore, current guidelines recommend avoiding RT whenever possible, favoring mastectomy over BCS [101]. Use of RT should be considered on an individualized basis, following a multidisciplinary team discussion, for cases with a significant risk of locoregional recurrence post mastectomy in pathogenic *gTP53* carriers.

The European Reference Network GENTURIS has issued guidelines recommending the use of nongenotoxic chemotherapies due to the potential risk of developing new malignancies with genotoxic chemotherapies, as demonstrated in an LFS mouse model [102,103]. A Chinese study including 50 *TP53*-carriers in an unselected breast cancer population showed a higher rate of pathological complete response in *TP53*-carriers treated with taxane–carboplatin–based neoadjuvant chemotherapy compared to anthracycline- or taxane-based chemotherapy (50% vs 0%; $p = 0.006$) [95]. There are currently no published reports on the treatment response to targeted therapy despite the association of *TP53* with HER2-positive breast cancers.

Conclusion

Knowledge of the relevance of inherited pathogenic variants for treatment and surveillance decisions is increasing and for selected patients, and early germline genetic testing at the time of breast cancer diagnosis may contribute to optimal treatment planning. However, the very small number of less frequently identified germline pathogenic variants often result in a lack of certainty regarding effect sizes and wide confidence intervals around risk estimates. More large-scale prospective long-term outcome data are needed, particularly on a national basis, with linkage to genetic data to enable very large cohort studies for assessing risks and clinical outcomes.

Author contribution

Dr. Wilson Pui Fui CHEAH: writing—original draft.
Prof. Ramsey I CUTRESS: writing—review and editing.

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Conflict of interest

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