VENTANA pan-TRK(EPR17347) Assay

**References**

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Hemangioblastoma is a benign, highly vascularized neoplasm of the central nervous system (CNS). This tumor is associated with loss of function of the \( VHL \) gene and demonstrates frequent occurrence in von Hippel-Lindau (VHL) disease. While this entity is designated CNS World Health Organization (WHO) grade 1, due to its predilection for the cerebellum, brainstem, and spinal cord, it is still an important cause of morbidity and mortality in affected patients. Recognition and accurate diagnosis of hemangioblastoma is essential for the practice of surgical neuropathology. Other CNS neoplasms, including several tumors associated with VHL disease, may present as histologic mimics, making diagnosis challenging. We outline key clinical and radiologic features, pathophysiology, treatment modalities, and prognostic information for hemangioblastoma, and provide a thorough review of the gross, microscopic, immunophenotypic, and molecular features used to guide diagnosis.

**Key Words:** Hemangioblastoma; von Hippel-Lindau disease; Neuropathology; Cerebellar neoplasms; Brain

Hemangioblastomas are uncommon in the general population, with an overall incidence of 0.141 per 100,000 person-years in the United States [3]. They account for less than 2% of all CNS neoplasms but comprise an estimated 11% of primary posterior fossa tumors [4-6]. Some studies suggest a slightly higher incidence in male than in female patients, while others report no significant sex predilection [3,7,8]. Approximately 70% of cases are believed to be sporadic with the remaining 30% representing VHL-associated familial cases [9,10]. An estimated 60%–80% of patients with VHL disease develop CNS hemangioblastoma during their lifetime [11,12]. The average patient age at presentation varies by genetic subgroup, with VHL-associated tumors presenting on average two decades earlier than sporadic tumors; the mean age of onset is approximately 29 years in VHL-associated hemangioblastomas compared to 47 years in sporadic cases [9]. A comparison of epidemiologic data for sporadic and hereditary hemangioblastomas is summarized in Table 1.

**EPIDEMIOLOGY**

Hemangioblastomas are uncommon in the general population, with an overall incidence of 0.141 per 100,000 person-years in the United States [3]. They account for less than 2% of all CNS neoplasms but comprise an estimated 11% of primary posterior fossa tumors [4-6]. Some studies suggest a slightly higher incidence in male than in female patients, while others report no significant sex predilection [3,7,8]. Approximately 70% of cases are believed to be sporadic with the remaining 30% representing VHL-associated familial cases [9,10]. An estimated 60%–80% of patients with VHL disease develop CNS hemangioblastoma during their lifetime [11,12]. The average patient age at presentation varies by genetic subgroup, with VHL-associated tumors presenting on average two decades earlier than sporadic tumors; the mean age of onset is approximately 29 years in VHL-associated hemangioblastomas compared to 47 years in sporadic cases [9]. A comparison of epidemiologic data for sporadic and hereditary hemangioblastomas is summarized in Table 1.

**LOCALIZATION**

Hemangioblastomas may arise throughout the CNS, most commonly involve the cerebellum, brainstem, and spinal cord, in
order of descending frequency [3]. Less common sites of involvement include the supratentorial compartment and spinal nerve roots [13]. Cases of extraneural hemangioblastomas are rare [14,15]. While the cerebellum is still the most common site of hemangioblastoma in VHL patients, a higher proportion of extra-cerebellar sites are seen in VHL-associated cases, including retinal involvement in 28%–50% [16,17]. Patients with VHL disease are more likely to present with multiple hemangioblastomas [10,13,18]. Other VHL-associated neoplasms and their common sites of involvement include clear cell renal cell carcinoma (CCRCC) of the kidneys, paragangliomas of the head and neck, pheochromocytoma of the adrenal gland, neuroendocrine islet cell tumors of the pancreas, endolymphatic sac tumors of the inner ear, and cystadenomas of the epididymis and broad ligament [19].

ETIOPATHOGENESIS

Loss of function of the VHL tumor suppressor gene is implicated in most cases of hemangioblastoma, both familial and sporadic. VHL disease is an autosomal dominant tumor predisposition syndrome resulting from inactivating germline mutation in the VHL tumor suppressor gene [19,20]. This gene is located on the short arm of chromosome 3 (3p25-26) [21]. Biallelic inactivation of VHL is frequently found in familial cases of hemangioblastoma, according to Knudson’s “two-hit” hypothesis [22,23]. Under this system, a germline loss of function variant inactivates one copy of the VHL—the first hit—and loss of function of the remaining functional copy—the second hit—occurs prior to tumorigenesis [22]. The normally functioning VHL protein (pVHL) is involved in multiple cellular functions, including cell cycle regulation, apoptosis, and extracellular matrix formation [24-26]. pVHL also regulates cellular hypoxia signaling via the hypoxia-inducible factor (HIF) complex. Under normoxic conditions, the HIFα subunit undergoes hydroxylation creating a high affinity pVHL binding site [27,28]. As part of a multi-subunit ubiquitin ligase complex, pVHL facilitates HIFα polyubiquitylation and targeting for degradation [27-29]. In contrast, under hypoxic conditions, the HIF complex avoids hydroxylation and ubiquitin-associated degradation [30]. The stabilized complex serves as a transcription factor, upregulating the transcription of multiple growth factors to promote cell survival [31].

While hemangioblastoma pathogenesis is not yet fully understood, the pseudohypoxia hypothesis proposes a mechanism by which VHL loss promotes downstream tumorigenesis. Under this proposed pathway, VHL loss of function leads to loss of regulation of the HIF complex, which in turn promotes increased expression of growth factors in the absence of hypoxia, resulting in increased angiogenesis and conditions suitable for neoplastic growth [32].

HIF-independent pathways may also contribute to VHL disease and hemangioblastoma formation. VHL protein has been implicated in several other cellular functions, including regulation of apoptosis, microtubule stabilization, extracellular matrix formation, and cell-cell adhesion; loss of these functions could also contribute to tumorigenesis [33].

While the majority of familial cases demonstrate germline VHL loss, most studies indicate a smaller proportion of sporadic cases show VHL loss of function [34-36]. Historical studies of sporadic hemangioblastomas demonstrated VHL alterations in a minority of cases, although more recent investigation places the rate as high as 78% [36]. Older studies of sporadic hemangioblastoma may have shown erroneously low proportions of VHL loss due to low tumor purity. Since only the neoplastic stromal cells harbor the genetic alterations in sporadic cases, some alterations may evade detection when the stromal cells comprise a small fraction of the sampled tissue [36].

Epigenetic suppression may play a more prominent role in sporadic hemangioblastoma than in familial cases. One investigation found VHL promoter hypermethylation in 33% of sporadic hemangioblastomas but none of the VHL disease-associated cases [37]. Further studies are needed on sporadic cases without demonstrable VHL alterations to elucidate whether VHL loss is present but has not yet been detected, or if alternative pathways are responsible.

Table 1. Summary of epidemiologic data for sporadic and hereditary hemangioblastomas

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sporadic</th>
<th>Hereditary</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Proportion of total cases (%)</td>
<td>~70</td>
<td>~30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean age of onset (yr)</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex (M:F)</td>
<td>1–1.25:1</td>
<td>1–1.25:1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of tumors</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>Multiple</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Localization</td>
<td>Cerebellum most common</td>
<td>Higher proportion of extracerebellar sites (e.g. spine)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Molecular alterations</td>
<td>Somatic loss of VHL detected in subset of cases</td>
<td>VHL loss of function with germline mutation and somatic alteration</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

VHL, von Hippel-Lindau.
CLINICAL FEATURES

Clinical signs and symptoms of hemangioblastoma are mainly attributed to the tumor’s mass effect on adjacent regions, generalized increase in intracranial pressure, or obstruction of cerebrospinal fluid flow. General symptoms may include manifestations of increased intracranial pressure such as headaches, nausea, and emesis [10,38]. Secondary polycythemia may occur in approximately 5%–40% of cases, owing to ectopic production of erythropoietin [39,40].

Clinical presentation may vary widely based on anatomic localization of the tumor. Cerebellar tumors often present with dysmetria and ataxia [38]. In contrast, patients with spinal hemangioblastomas often present with symptoms associated with radiculopathy and myelopathy, including hypesthesia, weakness, hyperreflexia, pain, and incontinence [41,42]. Patients with brainstem hemangioblastomas may show evidence of cranial nerve impingement as well as increased intracranial pressure [43].

Some radiographic findings appear to correlate with symptomatology. Peritumoral cysts frequently underlie the clinical findings associated with hemangioblastomas, with at least 72% of symptomatic tumors but only 13% of asymptomatic tumors containing cysts [43]. In rare cases, hemangioblastomas may present with intraparenchymal, subarachnoid, or ventricular hemorrhage [44-46].

RADIOLOGIC FEATURES

Radiologic studies of hemangioblastoma generally show a well-demarcated enhancing mass ranging from solid to cystic, frequently presenting as a cyst with an enhancing mural nodule (Fig. 1) [47]. Tumors in the spinal cord are often associated with syrinx formation [48]. Computed tomography imaging demonstrates isodense signal compared to brain within the solid component [49]. Calcification is usually absent [49]. On magnetic resonance imaging, hemangioblastomas tend to appear as a T1 hypointense to isointense, T2 hyperintense nodule (Fig. 1) with serpentine flow voids in the nodular portion [47]. These tumors are often seen abutting the pia [50]. If a cystic component is present, the cyst wall rarely enhances [50].

MACROSCOPIC FEATURES

Grossly, hemangioblastomas appear as solid and/or cystic masses, often seen as a cyst with a mural nodule [43]. The tumors tend to be well-circumscribed and surrounded by a pseudocapsule [43]. Given the highly vascular nature of the neoplasm, cut surfaces may appear red in color, with yellow and orange variegation attributed to the high lipid content in neoplastic cells [51].
MICROSCOPIC FEATURES

Cytologic examination via direct smear or squash preparation can be a useful diagnostic aid at the time of intraoperative consultation. Unfortunately, hemangioblastoma samples are frequently resistant to squash preparation, resulting in thick clumps of tissue which may obfuscate cytologic detail (Fig. 2A) [52]. In the case of a successful cytologic smear preparation (or frozen section) with clearly visualized cells, the cytoplasm of neoplastic cells should demonstrate a characteristic foamy or finely vacuolated appearance (Fig. 2B) [52]. Cytoplasmic borders often appear indistinct, and nuclei may be mildly pleomorphic with hyperchromatic, speckled chromatin and occasional nuclear grooves [52]. Hemosiderin deposition is frequently seen, indicative of prior hemorrhage or red blood cell extravasation within these highly vascularized tumors [52].

On histologic sections, hemangioblastomas demonstrate compact, generally non-infiltrative growth patterns with variable lobularity [51]. The neoplastic component of these tumors are the stromal cells which are arranged within a rich network of thin-walled vessels (Fig. 3A) [51]. In these highly vascular tumors, there may be larger branching type vessels (Fig. 3B) and/or areas of hemorrhage (Fig. 3C). The neoplastic stromal cells classically contain clear, foamy cytoplasm with lipid-containing vacuoles (Fig. 3D) [51]. Nuclei may show mild pleomorphism, particularly in cases with degenerative atypia (Fig. 3E). Rare cytoplasmic hyaline globules may also be found [53,54].

Two histologic variants of hemangioblastoma have been described. The first is the more common reticular variant, characterized by a predominance of capillary vessels over stromal cells, and the second and less common variant is the cellular variant, marked by a preponderance of stromal cells and a less prominent vascular component [55].

If present, adjacent neural parenchyma maintains a well-demarcated border with the neoplasm (Fig. 3F), and may show marked reactive changes, including piloid gliosis with Rosenthal fibers [56]. Other helpful but non-essential features include the presence of intratumoral hemorrhage, mast cells, and cyst-like spaces. Extramedullary hematopoiesis may be found in approximately 15% of cases [57]. Mitotic figures are rare to absent.

IMMUNOHISTOCHEMICAL AND ANCILLARY STUDIES

Immunohistochemistry provides a useful and in some cases essential role in the diagnosis of hemangioblastoma and discrimination from histologic mimics.

Positive stains

Hemangioblastoma stromal cells classically show positive staining for inhibin alpha (Fig. 4A), NCAM1 (CD56), S100, and carbonic anhydrase IX & XII (Fig. 4B) [58-64]. Brachyury expression has been reported in 91% of cases and vimentin in 86–100% of cases [65,66]. Other positive stains include aquaporin 1, TFE3, and oil red O [61,62,67]. The background vascular component stains for endothelial cell markers such as CD31 (Fig. 4C) and CD34, while reticulin highlights vessel walls [62].

Negative stains

By immunohistochemistry, the neoplastic cells are typically negative for AE1/AE3, CAM5.2, renal cell carcinoma (RCC) marker, and PAX8 (Fig. 4D) [58,60-62]. Other generally nega-

![Fig. 2](https://jpatholtm.org/)
Central nervous system hemangioblastoma

- Positive stains include PAX2 (positive in up to 5%), CD10 (positive in 0%–12%), epithelial membrane antigen (EMA; positive in 0%–36%), neuron-specific enolase (positive in 33%), and glial fibrillary acidic protein (GFAP; positive in scattered individual cells in up to 18%) [58,60,61,63,68].

**Electron microscopy**

Reports of electron microscopic studies of hemangioblastoma parallels histologic findings, with lipid-laden stromal cells occupying spaces between background capillaries [69].

**Molecular and cytogenetic testing**

Biallelic inactivation of the VHL tumor suppressor gene is present in many hemangioblastomas arising in VHL syndrome patients, with the majority of VHL-associated hemangioblastomas showing loss of heterozygosity of chromosome 3 [34,37]. VHL inactivation has been found in a large proportion of sporadic cases as well, with up to 78% of sporadic cases found to have loss
or inactivation of VHL [34-37].

When a suspected hemangioblastoma shows ambiguous histopathologic and immunophenotypic features, newer ancillary studies such as DNA methylation testing and even microRNA (miRNA) analysis could aid diagnostic decision making. Studies of genome-wide DNA methylation array profiling report a distinctive epigenetic classifying signature for hemangioblastoma [69]. In addition, distinctive miRNA signatures have been described in hemangioblastomas, which show elevated miRNA-9 and decreased miRNA-200a expression compared to CCRCCs [70]. At present, these methodologies are not used in routine clinical practice, nor are they intended to replace histologic evaluation. However, there is a potential for more widespread use of these supplemental tests in the future as the technology becomes more accessible.

**DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS**

Several entities must be considered in the differential diagnosis of hemangioblastoma on a histopathologic basis. In the VHL disease patient, special care must be taken to exclude certain histologic mimics that are of greater risk due to genetic predisposition.

**Clear cell renal cell carcinoma**

One of the most common diagnostic challenges is differentiating hemangioblastoma from metastatic CCRCC, both due to the histologic overlap of vascular neoplasms with clear cytoplasm, as well as the increased risk of these entities in the setting of VHL syndrome. In contrast to the benign hemangioblastoma, CCRCC may demonstrate more noticeable cytologic atypia with prominent anaplasia and large nucleoli, although such features may be absent [60]. Other aggressive features that may be seen in CCRCC include mitotic activity and necrosis. Metastatic CCRCC cells typically show clear to eosinophilic cytoplasm but lack the foamy or vacuolated cytoplasm of hemangioblastoma stromal cells. By immunohistochemistry, CCRCC is usually positive for AE1/AE3, CAM5.2, EMA, CD10, PAX2, PAX8, and RCC marker, while negative for inhibin alpha, brachyury, and NCAM1 [59-62,65,71-73].

**Meningioma**

Certain histologic subtypes of meningioma may be mistaken
for hemangioblastoma, particularly the clear cell, microcystic, and angiomatous variants which may demonstrate prominent vasculature and/or clear cytoplasm. In contrast to hemangioblastomas, meningiomas are typically positive for EMA in a weak, patchy, cytoplasmic pattern, along with SST2A in a membranous and cytoplasmic pattern [73,74]. Lower grade meningiomas, which would be more easily mistaken for a benign hemangioblastoma, often express nuclear progesterone receptor, although higher grade meningiomas are less likely to show expression [73]. Meningiomas should not express the hemangioblastoma markers inhibit alpha or brachyury [65,73].

**Solitary fibrous tumor**

Solitary fibrous tumors (SFT) are fibroblastic tumors with variable histologic patterns. Like hemangioblastoma, it is a mesenchymal neoplasm with prominent vasculature. SFT may occur in a wide range of anatomic sites, although in neuropathologic practice, the intracranial dura is most often affected [75,76]. SFT is genetically defined by a NAB2 and STAT6 gene fusion due to inversion at the 12q13 locus [77-79]. This genomic alteration results in STAT6 nuclear immunoreactivity, which is a highly sensitive and specific marker [73,80,81]. SFT is negative for inhibit alpha [73].

**Glial neoplasms**

Glial neoplasms may occasionally need to be considered in the differential diagnosis of hemangioblastoma given the overlapping sites of disease within the CNS. Some glial neoplasms may also show circumscribed growth. While well preserved and well differentiated examples may be more easily distinguished from one another, pathologists may face greater challenges in the setting of small tissue samples, obscuring artifact, or poor differentiation. Cytologic smear preparations may be especially useful in the case of a well-differentiated glial neoplasm showing elongated glial fibrillary processes and poorly cohesive cells. However, caution must be exercised in interpretation of smears, as reactive astrocytes in gliotic neural parenchyma adjacent to a hemangioblastoma could show similar fibrillary glial processes. Histologic and immunophenotypic features vary more widely by glial tumor type.

Ependymomas generally show circumscribed growth, similar to hemangioblastomas, and may even show clear cell morphology in some cases [82]. In contrast, ependymomas may demonstrate characteristic perivascular pseudorosettes, ependymal rosettes, and ependymal canals. By immunohistochemistry, ependymomas show variable GFAP staining, often with accentuation of cell processes within perivascular pseudorosettes [83]. Of note, hemangioblastomas may also show rare GFAP immunoreactivity in a small number of cells [68]. While not an entirely specific feature, ependymomas may demonstrate paranuclear dot-like or ring-like staining with EMA [83].

Pilocytic astrocytomas, like hemangioblastomas, typically show circumscribed growth patterns. In contrast, pilocytic astrocytomas are characterized by a biphasic appearance, with compact fibrillar portions containing Rosenthal fibers and loose microcystic areas containing eosinophilic granular bodies. Pilocytic astrocytomas are generally positive for GFAP and Olig2 by immunohistochemistry and demonstrate characteristic mitogen-activated protein kinase pathway activating genetic alterations, of which KIAA1549-BRAF fusion is the most common [84-86].

Diffuse gliomas encompass a broad spectrum of low- and high-grade neoplasms, now organized into adult and pediatric types in the most recent iteration of the WHO classification of CNS tumors [2]. While the clinical presentation and genomic features of diffuse gliomas vary widely, they are characterized by individual neoplastic glial cells infiltrating through background brain parenchyma. Entrapped neurons and axons may be detected by histology or by immunohistochemistry in regions with dense neoplastic growth. In contrast to hemangioblastomas, diffuse gliomas are generally positive for GFAP and Olig2 [85,87].

**Paraganglioma/pheochromocytoma/cauda equina neuroendocrine tumor**

Paragangliomas are circumscribed neuroendocrine neoplasms derived from the paranglia of the sympathetic and parasympathetic nervous systems classically characterized by nested to organoid architecture of chief cells surrounded by sustentacular cells. Pheochromocytoma is the histologic correlate arising in the adrenal gland. While similar appearing neuroendocrine neoplasms of the cauda equina region have long been designated as paragangliomas, recent data suggests that these cauda equina neuroendocrine neoplasms are biologically distinct from paragangliomas elsewhere in the body based on DNA methylation profiling as well as the lack of SDH mutations [88,89]. Therefore, this entity has been renamed “cauda equina neuroendocrine tumor” in the fifth edition of the WHO classification of CNS tumors [2].

Paragangliomas, pheochromocytomas and cauda equina neuroendocrine tumors may show overlapping cytomorphologic features with hemangioblastomas. All these tumors may contain cells with clear to vacuolated cytoplasm in a richly vascular background [90]. The potential for confusion between these two entities is compounded by the fact that VHL patients are at increased risk of hemangioblastomas, parasympathetic paragangliomas, and...
pheochromocytomas. The organoid, “zellballen” architecture of paragangliomas, as well as their neuroendocrine nuclear features with uniform, round nuclei and salt and pepper chromatin may help to differentiate the entities, if these features are well preserved. On immunohistochemistry, paragangliomas and related entities are diffusely positive for synaptophysin and chromogranin, with intervening sustentacular cells staining for S-100 [90].

**Hemangioma**

Hemangioblastomas share some histologic features in common with hemangiomas, which are benign vascular neoplasms consisting of densely arranged capillaries and cavernous vessels. The tightly packed vessels contain plump endothelial cells which can impart the appearance of solid growth in areas. In the neuropathologic setting, hemangiomas are usually intraosseous, involving the spine and less frequently the skull, but have also been reported in CNS parenchyma [91-93]. If a suspected hemangioma involves the CNS parenchyma, adequate sampling and immunohistochemical workup should be undertaken to exclude the presence of neoplastic stromal cells.

**TREATMENT AND PROGNOSIS**

Hemangioblastoma is assigned a CNS WHO grade of 1, as complete excision is curative in most cases [2]. Surgical resection is considered the standard of care [94]. However, depending on the location of the tumor, excision may not be feasible. In the case of a symptomatic nonresectable tumor, stereotactic radiosurgery may provide some short-term control, but data on safety and long-term efficacy is currently limited [95-97].

Prospective natural history studies reveal unpredictable growth patterns in CNS hemangioblastoma. The predominant pattern is saltatory with intermittent periods of growth and quiescence [13,98]. Since it is difficult to predict the timeline of tumor growth, and because surgical intervention is not without risk of morbidity and mortality, treatment is often reserved for symptomatic tumors [94,98].

CNS hemangioblastoma carries a good prognosis with complete surgical excision, with significantly longer overall survival observed in patients who underwent gross total resection versus those who did not [96]. Compared to sporadic cases, outcomes are poorer in VHL patients; in this population, CNS hemangioblastomas remain the primary cause of mortality [99,100].

**CONCLUSION**

CNS hemangioblastoma is an important cause of morbidity and mortality in patients with VHL disease. Further studies are needed to clarify the pathogenesis of this disease, particularly in sporadic cases. Recognizing the basic clinical, radiographic, and pathologic features and considering a relevant differential diagnosis is crucial for making a correct diagnosis and guiding disease management.

**Ethics Statement**

Not applicable.

**Availability of Data and Material**

Data sharing not applicable to this article as no datasets were generated or analyzed during the study.

**Code Availability**

Not applicable.

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clear-cell renal cell carcinoma in the brain: utility of aquaporin1


Frequency of \textit{PIK3CA} mutations in different subsites of head and neck squamous cell carcinoma in southern Thailand

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\textbf{Background:} Phosphatidylinositol-4,5-bisphosphate 3-kinase catalytic subunit alpha (\textit{PIK3CA}) mutations have been reported in many cancers, including head and neck squamous cell carcinoma (HNSCC). The frequency of these mutations varies among tumor locations and might be relevant to treatment outcomes among HNSCC. In this study, we examined the frequency of \textit{PIK3CA} mutations in the different subsites of HNSCC. \textbf{Methods:} Ninety-six fresh biopsy specimens were investigated for mutations in \textit{PIK3CA} exons 4, 9, and 20 using allele-specific real-time polymerase chain reaction. Patient characteristics and survival were analyzed and compared between specimens with or without \textit{PIK3CA} mutations. \textbf{Results:} The study included primary tumors originating from the oral cavity (n=63), hypopharynx (n=23), and oropharynx (n=10). We identified mutations in 10.4\% of patients (10 of 96 specimens). The overall mutational frequency was 17.4\% (4/23) and 9.5\% (6/63) in the hypopharynx and oral cavity, respectively. No patients with oropharyngeal carcinoma had mutations. Among the 10 mutant specimens, five were missense mutations (exon 9 \[E545K\] in two samples and exon 20 \[H1047R\] in three samples) and five were silent mutations in exon 20 (T1025T). Mutations were not found in exon 4. Among 84 patients with available clinical data, we found no significant differences in clinical characteristics and survival based on the presence or absence of \textit{PIK3CA} mutations. \textbf{Conclusions:} The results indicate that \textit{PIK3CA} mutations are involved in HNSCC carcinogenesis, and the hypopharynx should be considered a primary site of interest for future studies, particularly in Southeast Asian populations.

\textbf{Key Words:} \textit{PIK3CA} mutations; Head and neck squamous cell carcinoma; Oral cavity carcinoma; Hypopharyngeal carcinoma; Oropharyngeal carcinoma

Head and neck cancer includes all tumors that arise from various anatomical subites, including the oral cavity, oropharynx, nasopharynx, hypopharynx, larynx, paranasal sinuses, and salivary glands. Although histologic subtypes are diverse, malignancies of the epithelial lining, namely squamous cell carcinoma, are the most common [1].

Head and neck squamous cell carcinoma (HNSCC) is the sixth most common malignancy worldwide, with approximately 890,000 new cases diagnosed and 450,000 deaths reported in 2008. Among all HNSCC, the oral cavity is the most common subsite of a primary tumor [2]. The burden of HNSCC varies across regions of the world. In Thailand, HNSCC is one of the most common cancers, with approximately 10,000 new cases diagnosed annually. The age-standardized incidence rates of HNSCC in males and females are 15.7 and 10.7, respectively [3]. The dominant tumor locations of HNSCC in males are the oral cavity, nasopharynx, and larynx; and the most common location in females is the oral cavity [3].

At the time of diagnosis, most patients with HNSCC have locally advanced, unsectetable tumors. Despite advanced multidisciplinary treatments, including surgery with either or both radiotherapy and chemotherapy, only modest improvements in outcomes have been achieved over the past 20 years. HNSCC molecular profiling and biomarker studies have provided infor-
mation regarding rapid diagnosis, prognosis, and surveillance for recurrence and metastasis. However, biomarkers that serve as potential targets of novel therapies to improve survival outcomes are important. Among the signaling pathways associated with tumor proliferation and survival, the phosphoinositide 3-kinase/ AKT/mammalian target of rapamycin (PI3K/AKT/mTOR) pathway is the most frequently altered oncogenic pathway in HNSCC [4,5].

The phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase gene (PI3K) encodes PI3K enzymes (PI3Ks), which ultimately trigger various downstream signaling pathways that result in cell survival, apoptosis, transformation, metastasis, and cell migration. PI3Ks are classified into three major subclasses (class I, II, and III) that are determined based on PI3K structure and substrate specificity. Phosphatidylinositol-4,5-bisphosphate 3-kinase catalytic subunit alpha (PIK3CA) is a 34-kb gene located on chromosome 3q26.3 that consists of 20 exons coding for 1,068 amino acids, yielding a protein with a molecular weight of 124 kDa (p110α catalytic subunit protein, class I) [6]. Several studies previously reported alterations in PIK3CA in many cancers. The presence of PIK3CA mutations is associated with prognosis and might predict response to PI3K inhibitors [6,7]. In HNSCC, the frequency of PIK3CA mutations varies among primary tumor locations [6,8-15]; hence, the frequency of these mutations from different tumor subtypes might be relevant to determine treatments and outcomes among HNSCCs. Furthermore, the mutation rate in PIK3CA might be diverse among ethnicities [15,16]; the mutation rate is unknown in Southeast Asian populations, including the Thai population. Therefore, in the present study, we evaluated the frequency of PIK3CA mutations in patients with squamous cell carcinoma of the oral cavity, oropharynx, and hypopharynx in southern Thailand. Furthermore, the clinical characteristics and survival between patients with or without PIK3CA mutations were analyzed and compared.

**MATERIALS AND METHODS**

**Patients and specimens**

During 2002–2003, 96 fresh tissues (63 from the oral cavity, 10 from the oropharynx, and 23 from the hypopharynx) were obtained from patients registered at the head and neck clinic of Songklanagarind Hospital. The tissue samples were obtained from a biopsy or sampling of surgical resection specimen, after which they were snap frozen and stored at −80°C until DNA extraction. All collected tissues were subsequently reviewed to ensure cancer site and pathological diagnosis of cancer by a pathologist (P.T.). All cases were primary tumors that had not been treated with radiation or chemotherapy.

Clinicopathological parameters of the patients were retrieved from medical records. The patient information extracted from the database was date of birth, sex, vital status, history of smoking and alcohol consumption, date of diagnosis, stage, and treatment. Pathological information was obtained from pathological reports. Date of death was obtained from the national civil registration system.

**Mutation detection using conventional polymerase chain reaction and DNA sequencing**

Genomic DNA was extracted from fresh tissue using an E.Z.N.A Tissue DNA Kit (Omega Bio-Tek Inc., Norcross, GA, USA), and the procedures were performed according to the manufacturer’s instructions. PIK3CA gene analysis was performed in exons 4, 9, and 20; 100 ng of DNA was amplified using polymerase chain reaction (PCR) with the following primer sets: PIK3CA-exon 4 forward (5’-CATCTTATCCAGGCGATTCTC-3’), PIK3CA-exon 4 reverse (5’-AGATTACTGTAGTACCTGAGA AAA-3’), PIK3CA-exon 9 forward (5’-CCAGAGGGAAAAA TATGACA-3’), PIK3CA-exon 9 reverse (5’-CATTTTAGCCT TACCTGTGAC-3’), PIK3CA-exon 20 forward (5’-CATTGGC TCCAAACTGACCA-3’), and PIK3CA-exon 20 reverse (5’-TG AGCCTTTCAATTCTCAGTTATCTTTTC-3’). The PCR conditions for PIK3CA exons 4 and 9 were denaturation at 95°C for 3 minutes; amplification for 45 cycles at 95°C for 30 seconds, 58°C for 30 seconds, and 72°C for 45 seconds; and extension at 72°C for 7 minutes. The PCR conditions for PIK3CA exon 20 were denaturation at 95°C for 3 minutes; amplification for 45 cycles at 95°C for 30 seconds, 58°C for 30 seconds, and 72°C for 45 seconds; and extension at 72°C for 7 minutes. All gene sequencing was performed with an ABI PRISM 3730xl Genetic Analyzer (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA). DNA sequences were analyzed to ascertain point mutations in PIK3CA exons 4, 9, and 20. The conventional PCR technique was performed in certain samples to determine the reference point mutations. Then, allele-specific real-time PCR was performed for the remaining tissue samples.

**Allele-specific real-time PCR**

Reference point mutations were used to design allele-specific probes (dual-labeled fluorogenic probes) to develop a real-time PCR technique. The allele-specific probes were composed of short DNA sequences covering the mutational areas. The probes were labeled with two fluorescent dyes: HEX for the PIK3CA

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wild-type allele and FAM for the mutated allele (Sigma-Aldrich, Singapore). BHQ-1 was used as a quencher. For all samples, 20 ng of DNA was obtained and subjected to real-time PCR using previously described primer sets and allele-specific probe sets (Table 1). PCR mixtures contained 10 μL of 2 × FastStart Essential DNA Probes Master buffer (Roche Diagnostics, Mannheim, Germany), 0.5 μL forward primer, 0.5 μL reverse primer, 0.25 μL wild-type probe, 0.25 μL mutated probe, 6.5 μL molecular grade water, and 20 ng DNA in a final volume of 20 μL. The real-time PCR conditions for PIK3CA exon 9 were 95°C, 3 minutes and (95°C, 10 seconds; 58°C, 30 seconds) × 45 cycles. The real-time PCR conditions for PIK3CA exon 20 were 95°C, 3 minutes and (95°C, 10 seconds; 72°C, 30 seconds) × 45 cycles. Template controls were not included in each real-time PCR run. All samples were subsequently subjected to real-time PCR using the probes. Five mutant specimens served as positive controls.

**Statistical analysis**

Descriptive statistics were used to compare the data between the two groups of patients. The chi-square test or Fisher exact test was used to compare proportional data, and Student’s t test or the Mann-Whitney U test was used to assess the differences in continuous data. Descriptive results are presented as the median (continuous variable) and percentage (categorical variable).

Duration of follow-up and overall survival (OS) time were calculated from the date of diagnosis until the date of last follow-up or date of death from any cause, respectively. The data of patients who were alive at the last date of follow-up, December 20, 2021, were censored. The survival curve was calculated using the Kaplan-Meier method. Comparisons of survival curve among groups were performed using the log-rank test.

Stata/MP ver. 17.0 (StataCorp, College Station, TX, USA) was used to perform all analyses. p-values < .05 were considered statistically significant.

**Table 1. Allele-specific probes**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Probe name</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Sequence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PIK3CA exon 9 G&gt;A</td>
<td>Wild-type probe</td>
<td>5’-(HEX) CTCTCTGAAATATCGACAGGCAGAAGAA (BHQ-1)-3’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PIK3CA exon 9 G&gt;A</td>
<td>Mutated probe</td>
<td>5’-(FAM) CTCTCTGAAATACCTAAGCCAGGAGAAGAA (BHQ-1)-3’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PIK3CA exon 20 A&gt;G</td>
<td>Wild-type probe</td>
<td>Anti-sense 5’-(HEX) AGCCACCATGATGTGCATCATTC (BHQ-1)-3’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PIK3CA exon 20 A&gt;G</td>
<td>Mutated probe</td>
<td>Anti-sense 5’-(FAM) AGCCACCATGAGCAGTGCATCATTC (BHQ-1)-3’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PIK3CA exon 20 C&gt;T</td>
<td>Wild-type probe</td>
<td>5’-(HEX) ACATTCGAAAGACTCTAGCCTTAGAT (BHQ-1)-3’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PIK3CA exon 20 C&gt;T</td>
<td>Mutated probe</td>
<td>5’-(FAM) ACATTCGAAAGACCTACGCTTCATGAT (BHQ-1)-3’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PIK3CA, phosphatidylinositol-4,5-bisphosphate 3-kinase catalytic subunit alpha.

**Table 2. Patient demographics and baseline characteristics**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Total (n=84)</th>
<th>Wild-type PIK3CA (n=74)</th>
<th>Mutant PIK3CA (n=10)</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age [yr]</td>
<td>68 ± 12.6</td>
<td>68 ± 12.8</td>
<td>70 ± 9.7</td>
<td>.100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>49 (58.3)</td>
<td>65 (88.4)</td>
<td>57 (57.0)</td>
<td>.307</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>35 (41.7)</td>
<td>19 (25.6)</td>
<td>23 (23.0)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smoking</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.324</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>47 (56.0)</td>
<td>44 (59.5)</td>
<td>3 (30.0)</td>
<td>.182</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>47 (54.0)</td>
<td>30 (40.5)</td>
<td>7 (70.0)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alcohol drinking</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.380</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>44 (52.4)</td>
<td>22 (30.0)</td>
<td>22 (22.0)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>40 (47.6)</td>
<td>52 (70.0)</td>
<td>28 (28.0)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tumor location</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.628</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oral cavity</td>
<td>57 (67.9)</td>
<td>52 (70.8)</td>
<td>5 (50.0)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tongue</td>
<td>14 (16.7)</td>
<td>5 (6.8)</td>
<td>9 (90.0)</td>
<td>.057</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gums</td>
<td>13 (15.4)</td>
<td>10 (13.5)</td>
<td>1 (10.0)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buccal mucosa</td>
<td>11 (13.1)</td>
<td>10 (13.5)</td>
<td>1 (10.0)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Floor of mouth</td>
<td>6 (7.1)</td>
<td>5 (6.8)</td>
<td>1 (10.0)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lip</td>
<td>5 (6.0)</td>
<td>3 (4.1)</td>
<td>2 (20.0)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hard palate</td>
<td>4 (4.8)</td>
<td>3 (4.1)</td>
<td>1 (10.0)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retromolar area</td>
<td>2 (2.4)</td>
<td>2 (2.7)</td>
<td>0 (0.0)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oral cavity (unspecified)</td>
<td>2 (2.4)</td>
<td>2 (2.7)</td>
<td>0 (0.0)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oropharynx</td>
<td>6 (7.1)</td>
<td>6 (8.1)</td>
<td>0 (0.0)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Base of tongue</td>
<td>6 (7.1)</td>
<td>6 (8.1)</td>
<td>0 (0.0)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hypopharynx</td>
<td>21 (25.0)</td>
<td>17 (23.0)</td>
<td>4 (40.0)</td>
<td>.628</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pyriform sinus</td>
<td>21 (25.0)</td>
<td>17 (23.0)</td>
<td>4 (40.0)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Clinical stage

| I | 16 (19.0) | 14 (19.8) | 2 (20.0) |
| II| 17 (20.3) | 13 (17.6) | 4 (40.0) |
| III| 19 (22.6) | 18 (24.3) | 1 (10.0) |
| IVa| 29 (34.5) | 26 (35.1) | 3 (30.0) |
| IVb| 1 (1.2)  | 1 (1.4)   | 0 (0.0)  |
| IVc| 2 (2.4)  | 2 (2.7)   | 0 (0.0)  |

Treatment

| Surgery | 23 (27.4) | 18 (24.3) | 5 (50.0) |
| Surgery followed by RT | 42 (50.0) | 38 (51.4) | 4 (40.0) |
| RT | 13 (15.5) | 12 (16.2) | 1 (10.0) |
| Best supportive care | 6 (7.1) | 6 (8.1) | 0 (0.0) |

Values are presented as number (%) unless otherwise indicated. PIK3CA, phosphatidylinositol-4,5-bisphosphate 3-kinase catalytic subunit alpha; SD, standard deviation; RT, radiotherapy.
RESULTS

The samples used in this study comprised 96 HNSCC samples diagnosed from 2002–2003. The study included primary tumors originating from the oral cavity (n = 63), hypopharynx (n = 23), and oropharynx (n = 10). The patient demographics and their baseline clinical characteristics were available for 84 cases and are shown in Table 2; 49 cases were male, and the median age at diagnosis was 68 years.

We initially identified three PIK3CA point mutations using conventional PCR (Fig. 1A–C): one in exon 9 and two in exon 20. Mutations were not detected in exon 4. We then applied these known mutations as a reference to design allele-specific probes (dual-labeled fluorogenic probes) as shown in Table 1.

We found PIK3CA mutations in 10 of 96 samples (10.4%) with all heterozygous mutations. When the patients were classified based on mutational events in the primary tumor location, 17.4% (4/23) with hypopharyngeal squamous cell carcinoma (HPSCC) and 9.5% (6/63) with oral cavity squamous cell carcinoma (OCSCC) had PIK3CA mutations. No patient (0/10) with oropharyngeal squamous cell carcinoma (OPSCC) had PIK3CA mutations (Table 3). Clinical characteristics between patients with or without PIK3CA mutations were not statistically significantly different (Table 2). The patient characteristics and details of PIK3CA mutations are shown in Table 4. Two patients had exon 9 mutations (Fig. 2A) and eight had exon 20 mutations (Fig. 2B, C). The 10 mutations were categorized as five missense and five silent mutations, which corresponded to E545K in exon 9 and T1025T and H1047R in exon 20. E545K (GAG1633AAG) and H1047R (CAT3140CGT) are missense mutations, and T1025T (ACC3075ACT) is a silent mutation.

The majority of patients with wild-type PIK3CA (51.4%) underwent surgery followed by adjuvant radiotherapy; however, patients with PIK3CA mutations underwent only surgery (50.0%), as shown in Table 2. The median duration of follow-up was 2.11 years (95% confidence interval [CI], 1.21 to 3.26). The 5-year OS rates in the wild-type PIK3CA and mutant PIK3CA were 35%

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**Table 3. Frequency of PIK3CA mutations in HNSCC by subsite**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subsites of HNSCC</th>
<th>PIK3CA mutation</th>
<th>Overall PIK3CA mutations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Exon 9</td>
<td>Exon 20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oral cavity</td>
<td>0/63(0)</td>
<td>6/63(9.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oropharynx</td>
<td>0/10(0)</td>
<td>0/10(0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hypopharynx</td>
<td>2/23(8.7)</td>
<td>2/23(8.7)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Values are presented as number (%).

PIK3CA, phosphatidylinositol-4,5-bisphosphate 3-kinase catalytic subunit alpha; HNSCC, head and neck squamous cell carcinoma.
Table 4. Mutational status of PIK3CA in HNSCC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample No.</th>
<th>Age at diagnosis (yr)</th>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Tumor location</th>
<th>Exon</th>
<th>Nucleotide</th>
<th>Codon change</th>
<th>Amino acid change</th>
<th>Type of mutation</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PS212</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Pyriform sinus</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>G1633A</td>
<td>GAG to AAG</td>
<td>E545K</td>
<td>Missense</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PS220</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Pyriform sinus</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>G1633A</td>
<td>GAG to AAG</td>
<td>E545K</td>
<td>Missense</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PS243</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Pyriform sinus</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>A3140G</td>
<td>CAT to CGT</td>
<td>H1047R</td>
<td>Missense</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PS251/1</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Pyriform sinus</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>C2073T</td>
<td>ACC to ACT</td>
<td>T1025T</td>
<td>Silent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OR183</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Buccal mucosa</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>C2073T</td>
<td>ACC to ACT</td>
<td>T1025T</td>
<td>Silent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OR214</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Tongue</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>C2073T</td>
<td>ACC to ACT</td>
<td>T1025T</td>
<td>Silent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OR378</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Gums</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>C2073T</td>
<td>ACC to ACT</td>
<td>T1025T</td>
<td>Silent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OR391</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Floor of mouth</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>C2073T</td>
<td>ACC to ACT</td>
<td>T1025T</td>
<td>Silent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OR205</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Lip</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>A3140G</td>
<td>CAT to CGT</td>
<td>H1047R</td>
<td>Missense</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OR209</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Lip</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>A3140G</td>
<td>CAT to CGT</td>
<td>H1047R</td>
<td>Missense</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PIK3CA, phosphatidylinositol-4,5-bisphosphate 3-kinase catalytic subunit alpha; HNSCC, head and neck squamous cell carcinoma.

(95% CI, 24 to 46) and 58% (95% CI, 23 to 82), respectively (Fig. 3). There was no statistically significant difference in OS rate between the two groups (p = .625).

**DISCUSSION**

In HNSCC, the PI3K/AKT/mTOR pathway is the most frequently altered oncogenic pathway associated with tumor proliferation and survival [4,5]. Reportedly, PIK3CA mutations are associated with advanced stage of HNSCC, particularly in subjects with oral squamous cell carcinoma, indicating that PIK3CA mutations play an important role in the carcinogenesis of HNSCC [9,15]. In the present study, we evaluated the frequency of PIK3CA mutations in the different subsites of HNSCC in the Thai population.

When divided by primary tumor location, we detected a higher mutation rate in HPSCC than in OCSCC (17.4% vs. 9.5%). We also found a slightly higher PIK3CA mutation rate in HPSCC than reported in a study in the Chinese population (13.6%) [16]. The frequency of PIK3CA mutations in OCSCC in the present study (9.5%) was slightly higher than the 7.4% frequency reported in the Japanese population [9]. Notably, Kommineni et al. [15] reported a substantially high PIK3CA mutation rate of 52% in OCSCC tumor samples from Indian patients. Taken together, these findings might highlight the effect of diverse mutation rates even among Asian populations.

Human papillomavirus (HPV) infection is a well-known risk factor associated with OPSCC. Nichols et al. [17] reported a higher frequency of PIK3CA mutations in HPV-related OPSCC than HPV-negative tumors (28% vs. 10%). In the present study, we found no PIK3CA mutation in any patient with OPSCC. This result was discordant from those of a study by Beaty et al. [18] showing a PIK3CA mutation rate of 21% in patients with HPV-associated OPSCC. The reason for the discordance might be the small sample cohort in the OPSCC subgroup in the present study. Furthermore, information regarding HPV status in these patients was unknown due to the lack of sufficient specimens. However, in previous studies, the proportion of HPV-related OPSCC in Thai patients was remarkably low (15%–20%) [19,20] compared with 40%–60% reported in Western patients [21]. Thus, the correlation between PIK3CA mutations and HPV status should be further explored in Asian populations.

In the present study, PIK3CA mutations in exon 4 were not detected. In contrast, a previous study reported mutations in exon 4, with a rate of 2.6% in an oral cavity carcinoma cell line (primary tumor originated in the tongue) [8]. In the present study, the overall 10.4% mutation rate of PIK3CA, which included 2.1% in exon 9 (E545K) and 8.3% in exon 20 (H1047R and T1025T), was not significantly different from previous studies (9%–13% in non-nasopharyngeal carcinoma), as shown in Table 5. However, a higher mutation rate of 21% in pharyngeal carcinoma and 21% in oropharyngeal carcinoma were reported in two studies [11,18]. In those studies, a more advantageous technique, a novel mutant-enriched sequencing method, was used for analysis, which could explain the difference in results.

We found two of the three types of PIK3CA mutations, E545K and H1047R, which have been previously reported as hotspot mutations [22-24]. E545K is located on exon 9 in the helical domain of PIK3CA, and H1047R and T1025T are encoded by exon 20 within the kinase domain [25]. The E545K mutation disrupts an inhibitory charge–charge interaction between p110α and the N-terminal SH2 domain of the p85 regulatory subunit, and the H1047R mutation increases the binding affinity between p110α and the negatively charged phosphatidylinositol substrate [26-28]. The functional effect of these two hotspot mutations has been well established in many studies, showing the gain-of-function PI3K activity and downstream signaling via the AKT/mTOR pathway [22,23]. Furthermore, the benefit of PIK3CA mutations
PIK3CA mutations in HNSCC

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As a predictive marker for novel targeted therapies has been demonstrated. Alpelisib, an oral selective PI3K inhibitor, has been implemented in current practice for patients with advanced breast cancer harboring PIK3CA mutations [29,30]. The efficacy and safety of PI3K or mTOR inhibitors are being evaluated in several clinical trials for patients with advanced HNSCC [31]. In contrast to the previously mentioned two hotspot mutations, T1025T is categorized as a silent mutation. Notably, we detected the T1025T mutation, which was significantly high in OCSCC, in 4 of 5 mutant cases in the present study. This was concordant with a previous study in which the T1025T mutation was reportedly prominent in OCSCC [15]. However, whether the T1025T silent mutation is the oncogenic driver in HNSCC remains controversial. Kommineni et al. [15] reported a significantly higher frequency of T1025T silent mutation in patients with HNSCC (41.0%) than in healthy controls (16.7%, p < .001). In contrast, Dogruluk et al. [28] identified T1025T as a genetic variant in the human germline.

In the present study, clinical significance was not observed based on the presence or absence of PIK3CA mutations. This finding was similar to a previous study in which significant difference was not observed in clinical characteristics between patients with wild-type PIK3CA or mutant PIK3CA OPSCC [18]. However, the presence of a PIK3CA mutation in that study was associated with poorer disease-free survival among patients receiving de-intensified definitive chemoradiotherapy for HPV-related OPSCC [18]; survival did not differ between the two groups in the present study. This contradictory finding might be explained by the small sample cohort in the present study. A larger study in which PIK3CA mutations are investigated as a potentially prognostic

**Fig. 2.** Amplification plot of allele-specific real-time PCR showing PIK3CA mutations in exon 9 and exon 20 and the HEX (green, wild-type PIK3CA allele) and FAM (blue, mutated PIK3CA allele) signals. (A) A missense mutation in sample No. PS212 at position 1633, G>A (E545K) in exon 9. (B) A missense mutation in sample No. PS243 at position 3140, A>G (H1047R) in exon 20. (C) A silent mutation in sample No. PS251/1, C>T (T1025T) in exon 20. PCR, polymerase chain reaction.

**Fig. 3.** Kaplan-Meier survival curves of overall survival for patients with wild-type PIK3CA or mutant PIK3CA. PIK3CA, phosphatidylinositol-4,5-bisphosphate 3-kinase catalytic subunit alpha.
factor in patients with OPSCC and non-OPSCC is warranted. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first study to report the frequency of PIK3CA mutations in HNSCC in Thailand. However, the limitations of the study included small sample size, particularly in the OPSCC subgroup, and lack of available data regarding HPV status. The absence of PIK3CA mutations in OPSCC might be due to the smaller number of samples tested than those at other subsites. Furthermore, testing for PIK3CA mutations in normal tissue from these patients was not performed; hence, conclusions cannot be drawn regarding involvement of the T1025T silent mutation in the pathogenesis of HNSCC or its involvement as a genetic variant in the human germline.

In conclusion, our study showed a higher frequency of PIK3CA mutations in HPSCC than in OCSCC. The results suggest that these mutations are involved in carcinogenesis and could serve as biomarkers for novel targeted therapies as well as immunomodulators in the era of immune checkpoint inhibitors. Furthermore, the hypopharynx is suggested as a primary site of interest for further studies, particularly in Southeast Asian populations.

**Ethics Statement**

This study was approved by the Institutional Review Board of Faculty of Medicine, Prince of Songkla University (REC 56-498-14-1) with a waiver of informed consent.

**Availability of Data and Material**

All data generated or analyzed during the study are included in this published article (and its supplementary information files).

**Code Availability**

Not applicable.

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Table 5. Previous studies of PIK3CA mutations in HNSCC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Authors (year)</th>
<th>Location of HNSCC</th>
<th>PIK3CA mutations (%)</th>
<th>Type of mutation</th>
<th>Exons</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Qiu et al. (2006) [8]</td>
<td>HNSCC</td>
<td>11 (4/38)</td>
<td>Point mutation</td>
<td>4, 9, and 20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Murugan et al. (2008) [12]</td>
<td>HNSCC</td>
<td>13 (7/54)</td>
<td>Point mutations, frameshift</td>
<td>9 and 20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kommineni et al. (2015) [15]</td>
<td>HNSCC</td>
<td>60.46</td>
<td>Point mutation</td>
<td>9 and 20</td>
</tr>
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<td>13.6</td>
<td>Point mutation</td>
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</tr>
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<td>Beatty et al. (2020) [18]</td>
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<td>21 (16/77)</td>
<td>Point mutation</td>
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<td>Lui et al. (2013) [32]</td>
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<td>Point mutation</td>
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PIK3CA, phosphatidylinositol-4,5-bisphosphate 3-kinase catalytic subunit alpha; HNSCC, head and neck squamous cell carcinoma.

**Author Contributions**


**Conflicts of Interest**

The authors declare that they have no potential conflicts of interest.

**Funding Statement**

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**References**

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1. 133

Expression of prostate-specific membrane antigen in the neovascularization of primary tumors and lymph node metastasis of laryngeal squamous cell carcinomas

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Departments of ¹Pathology and ²Otorhinolaryngology, Süleyman Demirel University, Çünür/Isparta, Turkey

Background: Prostate-specific membrane antigen (PSMA) expression is encountered in tumor-associated neovascularization. Methods: PSMA-antibody was applied to the paraffin blocks of 51 patients who were diagnosed with squamous cell carcinoma of the larynx and underwent laryngectomy and one who underwent lymph node dissection. The percentage of vascular expression in tumoral and extratumoral stroma and lymph nodes and intensity score in tumoral epithelium were evaluated and divided into groups according to the level of PSMA expression. Final PSMA expression was determined by multiplying intensity and percentage scores. Results: The mean age was 61 ± 10 years. Patients with perineural invasion, cartilage invasion, and local invasion exhibited higher PSMA expression scores. Age, tumor differentiation, tumor diameter, perineural invasion, tumor localization, capsular invasion, depth of invasion, surgical margin status, local invasion, nodal metastasis, TNM classification, and stage were similar in high and low PSMA expression groups. There was no PSMA expression in extratumoral vascular stroma. Significantly higher PSMA expression was observed in the vascular endothelium of metastatic lymph nodes compared with reactive lymph nodes. Patients with advanced-stage disease exhibited higher PSMA vascular expression scores compared to those with earlier stages (p < .001). Conclusions: Our study suggests that higher PSMA expression is associated with cartilage invasion, local invasion, and advanced-stage of disease. PSMA expression can be utilized for detection of lymph node metastasis and has some predictive role in cases of neck metastasis.

Key Words: Prostate-specific membrane antigen; Larynx; Lymph nodes; Neovascularization; Immunohistochemistry

The prevalence and incidence of laryngeal cancers, mostly constituted of squamous cell carcinoma (SCC), have increased by 23.8% and 12%, respectively, in the last 30 years, and the survival of patients with advanced-stage disease remains low [1]. Despite developments in diagnostic and therapeutic techniques, novel and more effective treatment strategies are needed to increase survival, particularly for patients with advanced-stage disease. The microvascular intensity of tumors is positively correlated with T/N category, T/N relapse, and tumor radiosensitivity. Treatment modalities targeting the antigens of active vascular endothelial cells can be beneficial when combined with conventional chemotherapies [2]. Angiogenesis is the formation of new vessels from existing vessels as a response to changes in the circulatory system such as hypoxia. The term neangiogenesis is also used to define the pathologic angiogenesis of different vessels in the presence of a tumor and other diseases [3]. The relationship between angiogenesis and prognosis in SCC of the larynx (SCCL) was determined in the 1990s [4]. Tumor vessels can be targeted for treatment and prevention of recurrence to protect normal vascular structures from deterioration due to continuous growth and abnormality of tumor vessels. For instance, target-oriented anti–epidermal growth factor receptor treatment has been approved by the United States Food and Drug Administration for treatment of head-neck SCCs [5].

Prostate-specific membrane antigen (PSMA), also known as glutamate carboxypeptidase, is a type 2 transmembrane glycoprotein with a molecular weight of 100 kDa including both intracellular and extracellular domains that have been demonstrated
to be expressed in prostate cancers and commonly researched in the field of target-oriented treatment [6,7]. There are several complete, ongoing, and interrupted studies on numerous different clones of PSMA (e.g., ADC 2301, ADC BrUOG 263, ADC 1301) within the context of phase 1 and phase 2 trials conducted to investigate the availability of PSMA for use in treatment and imaging procedures. PSMA expression has been confirmed by RNAse protection assay, western blot analysis, and immunohistochemical methods [8].

PSMA expression was demonstrated in the neovascularized foci of solid organ tumors (e.g., breast, lung, kidney, brain, thyroid, hepatocellular carcinoma, urothelial carcinoma). PSMA is more commonly encountered in tumor-associated new blood vessels and is not detected in the normal vascular endothelium in solid tumors [9]. The specificity of PSMA for tumor-associated endothelium suggests it as a potential target for treatment of malignancies.

We aimed to evaluate PSMA expression in the vascular endothelium of primary tumors and lymph nodes in patients with SCCL.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Patients and tissue samples

This study included 51 patients with SCCL who underwent total or partial laryngectomy and neck dissection between January 2010 and January 2020. The hematoxylin and eosin (H&E)-stained sections obtained from all the formalin-fixed paraffin blocks of the patients were re-examined, and appropriate blocks were selected from 17 patients with lymph node metastasis and 34 patients without lymph node metastasis. Neck dissection was performed in patients with clinical and/or radiologic findings suspicious for positive lymph nodes in the neck.

All cases were histopathologically confirmed according to the 4th edition of the World Health Organization (WHO) classification of head and neck tumors [10]. The Protocol for the Examination of Specimens from Patients with Cancers of the Larynx 2017 of the College of American Pathologists was used to identify histopathologic subtype, tumor location, tumor size, tumor differentiation, tumor spread, surgical margins, lymphovascular invasion, perineural invasion, and lymphatic spread for SCCL [11]. Tumor stage was determined retrospectively for all patients according to the TNM Classification System of the American Joint Committee on Cancer [11]. Data such as clinical information, age, sex, presence of metastasis, and survival data including disease-free survival (DFS), overall survival (OS), disease-specific survival (DSS), and recurrence were obtained from the hospital database.

Immunohistochemistry

PSMA antibodies were applied to the blocks that represented tumors, and blocks were selected from metastatic lymph nodes or tumor-negative lymph nodes in the absence of metastatic lymph nodes using an immunohistochemical method in the H&E-stained sections (Fig. 1A). PSMA antibodies (clone 3E6, isotype: IgG1, kappa, DAKO flex ready-to-use monoclonal mouse antibody (Carpinteria, CA, USA) provided in liquid form in a buffer containing stabilizing protein and 0.015 mol/L sodium azide) were prepared according to the manufacturer’s instructions as expressed in the datasheet. The tissue samples were processed together with prostate tissue samples as an antibody-positive control and a negative control in an automated immunohistochemistry device.

Evaluation of immunohistochemical staining

Immunohistochemically stained slides were evaluated by two pathologists who were experienced in head and neck pathology, with each being blinded to the cases. PSMA immunohistochemically stained slides were examined under a light microscope and accepted as having positive cytoplasmic staining and/or positive cytoplasmic membrane staining.

The percentage of vascular endothelial cells that stained positive for PSMA was stratified as: 0, 0%–5%; 1, 6%–25%; 2, 26%–50%; and 3, >50%. The intensity score was stratified as: 1, weak; 2, moderate; and 3, strong. PSMA expression was scored according to the intensity of the tumor epithelium as: 1, none-weak; 2, moderate; and 3, strong. Final PSMA expression was determined by multiplying intensity and percentage scores. The cases were grouped according to stage and lymph node metastasis. The groups were compared by PSMA expression scores [12,13].

Statistical analysis

The normality of continuous data distribution was tested using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test or the Shapiro-Wilk test. Continuous data were compared using the independent sample t test or the Mann-Whitney U test. Categorical data were compared using Pearson’s chi-square test. Fisher’s exact test was used when expected value problems occurred. Kaplan-Meier survival analysis was conducted to predict survival estimates according to PSMA expression score. Receiver operator curve (ROC) analysis was performed to determine the cut off value for PSMA expression in assessing the event of death during follow-up. Patients were classified into two groups according to cut off value as high and low expression of PSMA. A p-value <.05 was regarded as statistically significant.

The SPSS ver. 21 software package (IBM Corp., Armonk, NY, 135) was used for the statistical analysis.
Fig. 1. Hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) and immunohistochemistry (IHC) staining of tumoral and nontumoral tissues. (A) Primary squamous cell carcinoma and respiratory epithelium (arrow) in the neighborhood of the tumor (H&E). (B) High prostate-specific membrane antigen (PSMA) expression score in the epithelium of the primary squamous cell carcinoma, no PSMA expression in the normal respiratory epithelium (arrow). (C) CD34 expression in the vessels of the tumoral stroma (red arrow) and non-tumoral stroma (black arrow). (D) High PSMA expression score in the vessels of the tumoral stroma (red arrow) and no expression of PSMA in the vessels of the normal tissue (black arrows). (E) PSMA expression in the vessels of the primary tumor (F) and expression in the vessels of the metastatic lymph node. (G) CD31 expression in the stromal vessels of the metastatic focus (red arrows) and non-metastatic focus (black arrow) of the same lymph node. (H) PSMA expression in the stromal vessels of the metastatic focus (red arrows) and no expression in the vessels of the non-metastatic focus (black arrow) of the same lymph node.
USA) was used for statistical analysis.

**RESULTS**

All but one patient were male (98%). The mean age was 61 ± 10 years. Of the primary tumors, 37.3%, 43.1%, and 19.6% were well-differentiated, moderately differentiated, and poorly differentiated, respectively. Fifty (29.4%), 12 (23.5%), one (2%), six (11.8%), eight (15.7%), and nine (17.6%) tumors were located in the supraglottic, glottic, infraglottic, supraglottic+glottic, glottic+infraglottic, and transglottic regions, respectively. Table 1 shows the demographic data of the patients. Age was similar between the high and low vascular expression groups. Tumor differentiation was similar between the high and low vascular expression score groups. Tumor diameter and perineural invasion was similar between the groups. Supraglottic localization was more frequent in the low vascular score group compared to the high group. Transglottic localization was more frequent in the high vascular score group. Capsular invasion, depth of invasion, lymphovascular invasion, surgical margin positivity, and local spread nodal metastasis were similar between the groups. The presence of T4 tumors and stage 4 disease was more frequent in the high vascular PSMA expression group. Comparison of the high and low vascular PSMA expression groups is shown in Table 2.

We evaluated the expression of PSMA in tumoral epithelium and divided the patients according to expression levels. Age, tumor differentiation, tumor diameter, perineural invasion, tumor localization, capsular invasion, depth of invasion, surgical margin status, local invasion, nodal metastasis, TNM classification, and stage were similar in the high and low intratumoral PSMA expression groups. PSMA expression in tumoral epithelium is shown in Table 3.

ROC analysis revealed that PSMA was a significant marker of death. A PSMA cut off value of 3 exhibited the highest sensitivity and specificity (area under the curve, 0.705; sensitivity, 81%; specificity, 51%). Patients were divided into two groups according to PSMA expression as high (≥3) and low (<3).

PSMA expression in the vascular epithelium of lymphatic metastasis was significantly higher compared with that in patients with tumor-negative lymph nodes (p < .001) (Table 4). Most patients with lymphatic metastasis exhibited higher primary tumoral PSMA expression. However, no significant difference was found between patients with and without lymph node metastasis in terms of PSMA expression.

A higher vascular expression score of PSMA was observed in pT4 tumors. Similarly, higher vascular PSMA scores were observed in stage 4 tumors. No significant correlation with pN was detected for PSMA score.

PSMA expression in the epithelium of the primary SCCL is

### Table 1. Clinical findings, histopathological findings, and clinical stages of the cases

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>No. (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age, mean ± SD (yr)</td>
<td>61 ± 10</td>
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<tr>
<td>Tumor differentiation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Well</td>
<td>19 (37.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderately</td>
<td>22 (43.1)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>10 (19.9)</td>
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<td>Tumor diameter (cm), median (range)</td>
<td>2.5 (0.6–8.5)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Perineural invasion</td>
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<td>No</td>
<td>46 (90.2)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>5 (9.8)</td>
</tr>
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<td>Tumor localization</td>
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<tr>
<td>Supraglottic</td>
<td>15 (29.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Glottic</td>
<td>12 (23.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infraglottic</td>
<td>1 (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Glottic + supraglottic</td>
<td>6 (11.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Glottic + infraglottic</td>
<td>8 (15.7)</td>
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<td>Transglottic</td>
<td>9 (17.6)</td>
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<tr>
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<td>44 (88.3)</td>
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<td>Depth of invasion, mean ± SD, cm</td>
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<tr>
<td>Surgical margin</td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>32 (62.7)</td>
</tr>
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</table>

SD, standard deviation; T, tumor; N, node.
Table 2. The correlative evaluation between clinical findings, histopathological findings, and clinical stages of the cases and PSMA expression scores in the intratumoral vessels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age (yr)</th>
<th>PSMA score &lt; 3 (%)</th>
<th>PSMA score ≥ 3 (%)</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tumor differentiation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Well</td>
<td>8 (44.4)</td>
<td>11 (33.3)</td>
<td>.744</td>
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<tr>
<td>Moderately</td>
<td>6 (33.3)</td>
<td>16 (48.5)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>4 (22.2)</td>
<td>6 (18.2)</td>
<td></td>
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<td>Tumor diameter (cm)</td>
<td>2.5 ± 1.6</td>
<td>3 ± 1.6</td>
<td>.367</td>
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<td>Perineural invasion</td>
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<td>18 (100)</td>
<td>28 (84.8)</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>5 (15.2)</td>
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<td>Tumor localization</td>
<td>Supraglottic</td>
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<td>6 (18.2)</td>
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<td>8 (24.2)</td>
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<td>3 (9.1)</td>
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<td>Transglottic</td>
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<td>2 (11.1)</td>
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<td>Cartilage invasion</td>
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<td>5 (27.8)</td>
<td>27 (81.8)</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Values are presented as mean ± SD or number (%).
PSMA, prostate-specific membrane antigen; T, tumor; N, node; SD, standard deviation.

Table 3. The correlative evaluation between clinical findings, histopathological findings, and clinical stages of the cases and PSMA expression scores in the tumoral epithelium

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age (yr)</th>
<th>PSMA score &lt; 3 (%)</th>
<th>PSMA score ≥ 3 (%)</th>
<th>p-value</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tumor differentiation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>Well</td>
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<td>1 (12.5)</td>
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<td>Moderately</td>
<td>17 (39.5)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>8 (18.6)</td>
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<td>2.6 ± 1.5</td>
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<td>7 (18.6)</td>
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<td>4 (9.3)</td>
<td>1 (12.5)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tumor localization</td>
<td>Supraglottic</td>
<td>12 (27.9)</td>
<td>3 (37.5)</td>
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<td>Glottic</td>
<td>12 (27.9)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Infraglottic</td>
<td>1 (2.3)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>&gt;.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Glottic + supraglottic</td>
<td>5 (11.6)</td>
<td>1 (2.3)</td>
<td>&gt;.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Glottic + infraglottic</td>
<td>5 (11.6)</td>
<td>3 (37.5)</td>
<td>.099</td>
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<td>Transglottic</td>
<td>8 (18.6)</td>
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<td>&gt;.99</td>
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<td>Capsular invasion</td>
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<td>36 (83.7)</td>
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<td>Yes</td>
<td>7 (16.3)</td>
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<td>Depth of invasion</td>
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<td>1.3 ± 0.9</td>
<td>.997</td>
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<td>Lymphovascular invasion</td>
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<td>7 (87.5)</td>
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<td>8 (18.6)</td>
<td>1 (12.5)</td>
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<td>Cartilage invasion</td>
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<td>15 (34.9)</td>
<td>4 (50.0)</td>
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<td>Yes</td>
<td>28 (65.1)</td>
<td>4 (50.0)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Surgical margin</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>41 (95.3)</td>
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<td>7 (87.5)</td>
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Values are presented as mean ± SD or number (%).
PSMA, prostate-specific membrane antigen; T, tumor; N, node; SD, standard deviation.

https://doi.org/10.4132/jptm.2022.02.22
https://jpatholtm.org/
shown in Fig. 1B. Staining with CD34 demonstrated the difference between normal and tumoral vessels as shown in Fig. 1C. PSMA expression in the vessels of the tumoral stroma are shown on Fig. 1D. PSMA expression in the vessels of a primary tumor (Fig. 1E) and PSMA expression in the vessel cells of the metastatic focus are shown in Fig. 1F. CD31 expression in stromal vessels of the metastatic focus and non-metastatic focus of the same lymph node are shown in Fig. 1G, and PSMA expression in the stromal vessels of the metastatic focus are shown in Fig. 1H. The intratumoral vascular PSMA percentage scores are shown in Fig. 2A–C. Intratumoral PSMA intensity scores are shown in Fig. 2D–F.

No distant organ metastasis was detected in any of the cases. Vascular PSMA expression in metastatic lymph nodes and primary tumors was similar (p = .383). No significant correlation was detected between PSMA expression scores in the tumoral vessels and OS, DSS, and DFS (p > .05) (Figs. 3, 4).

**DISCUSSION**

We separately analyzed the expression of PSMA in the stroma of primary tumors, metastatic lymph nodes, non-metastatic lymph nodes, vascular endothelium in the stroma of extratumoral foci, and tumoral epithelium of SCCLs. Many studies have evaluated PSMA expression in intratumoral neovascularized foci [9,14-16]. However, no study has reported PSMA expression in SCCL, and we also compared PSMA expression in metastatic lymph nodes and vascular endothelium in the primary tumoral stroma.

Abnormal stromal cells and neovascularized dysfunctional angiogenic vessels continuously contribute to the microenvironment of the tumor. Certain cancer types that metastasize through hematogenous and lymphatic patterns were reported to be affected by tumor neovascularization [17]. The metastasis, growth, and progression of solid tumors require angiogenesis. In addition to tumoral nutrition, angiogenesis plays an important role in obtaining treatment responsiveness from chemoradiotherapy depending

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Lymph node</th>
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<th>Score 1</th>
<th>Score 2</th>
<th>Score 3</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>Reactive lymph node</td>
<td>21 (61.8)</td>
<td>13 (38.2)</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>&lt; .001</td>
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<tr>
<td>Metastatic lymph node</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2 (11.8)</td>
<td>9 (52.9)</td>
<td>6 (35.3)</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Values are presented as number (%).
on the quality of the intratumoral vessels. Therefore, a balance between pro- and anti-angiogenic factors should be established [18]. Our study included patients with SCCL who underwent cervical lymph node dissection, and metastatic lymph nodes were detected in 17 of 51 patients, about one-third of the cases.

Angiogenesis is crucial in tumor metastasis [19]. In this respect, it is proposed that antiangiogenic treatment will be of importance in treatment of tumor metastases in the future [20]. In our study, none of the cases exhibited diffuse strong staining with PSMA in the extratumoral normal vascular structures. New investigations of PSMA-ligated treatment strategies could be attempted in cases of advanced tumors when surgical treatment options are impossible.

A proangiogenic microenvironment is considered to increase lymphatic metastatic risk. Even though the 5-year survival rate is commonly high in patients with low T-category and without metastatic lymph nodes, detection of high vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) expression has been interpreted to be high risk for poor prognosis and recurrence. Therefore, it is anticipated that these patient groups will benefit from targeted treatment modalities [20]. In our study, the percentage and intensity scores of PSMA expression in intratumoral vessels were significantly high in cases with advanced T-category. PSMA expression scores were 0 and 1 in vessels with a non-metastatic focus in lymph nodes that main-

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**Fig. 3.** Overall survival analysis in patients with high and low prostate-specific membrane antigen (PSMA) expression scores according to disease stage. (A) Comparison of overall survival in stage 1 patients according to PSMA expression. (B) Comparison of overall survival in stage 2 patients according to PSMA expression. (C) Comparison of overall survival in stage 3 patients according to PSMA expression. (D) Comparison of overall survival in stage 4 patients according to PSMA expression.
tained normal lymph node morphology, whereas PSMA expression scores were significantly higher at scores 2 and 3 in neovascularized vessels in metastatic foci. Therefore, PSMA seems to be a new key factor in the specific target-oriented treatment of both primary tumors and lymph node metastatic foci, but further studies are necessary to confirm this hypothesis.

A significant level of VEGF expression was encountered, whereas no expression was detected in intratumoral stromal cells in another study that investigated the relationship of VEGF expression with angiogenesis in SCCL. Those authors concluded that progression of SCC was compliant with VEGF expression [21]. By contrast, in another study, no correlation was observed between prognosis and angiogenesis in SCCL [22]. In our study, PSMA expression in tumoral vascular endothelium was associated with poor clinical parameters including cartilage invasion, local invasion, and advanced-stage disease.

PSMA positivity was observed in 151 of 779 tumors in a study that evaluated PSMA expression in bone and soft tissue tumors in tumor-associated vascular structures. A higher concentration of PSMA expression was observed in high-grade tumors compared to intermediate and low-grade tumors. However, it was reported that false-negative expression might be present because a tissue microarray system was used in the study [23]. Similarly, in another study, it was reported that neovascular PSMA expression was significantly higher in malignant tumors of the thyroid gland compared to benign lesions, and that expression rates increased in poorly differentiated and undifferentiated tumors [24]. In our study, we identified no correlation between PSMA expression score and differentiation of SCCL.

Our study showed that the intensity and percentage scores of PSMA expression in the vascular endothelium of primary tumor stroma were significantly higher in cases with cartilage and local tumor invasion. It was additionally noted that PSMA expression scores were significantly high with scores 2 and 3 in the intratumoral vessels of pT4 tumors. However, we found no correlation between the expression scores of PSMA in intratumoral vessels and OS, DSS, and DFS.

Specific target-oriented molecular therapies present a crucial necessity for treatment of tumor-associated vessels [25]. Vascular PSMA expression was determined to be correlated with several cancer types with respect to clinicopathologic and prognostic features. No PSMA expression was identified in 24 of 96 patients with SCC of the oral cavity, whereas PSMA expression was observed in less and more than 50% of tumor-associated vessels in 24 and 24 cases, respectively. Therefore, high vascular expression of PSMA was correlated with poor prognosis in oral SCC [13]. Vascular PSMA expression was correlated with the Ki67 proliferation index, which has prognostic importance in breast cancer [12]. PSMA expression in the vascular endothelium was determined to be significantly correlated with TNM, the Ki67 proliferation index, tumor differentiation, and positivity of lymph node metastasis in 103 patients with hepatocellular carcinoma [25]. Similarly, PSMA expression has been evaluated in gynecologic cancers and was encountered in the neovascular foci of specific and high-grade tumors in endometrial, ovarian, and cervical SCC, while vulval SCC exhibited no such phenomenon [13].

PSMA expression was identified in tumor-associated vessels in 46% (31/68) of patients with breast cancer and metastasis.
The relationship of PSMA expression with distant organ metastasis could not be analyzed in our study because no distant organ metastasis was present in any of our patients. Early diagnosis and treatment of tumors are important to avoid surgery with high comorbidity for patients such as laryngectomy. Researchers have found that the use of nitric oxide synthase blockers is a promising tool in the scope of antiangiogenic therapy in SCCL [26]. Similarly, PSMA can be considered a target in early-stage tumors because it exhibits specific expression in the vessels of the neoplastic foci.

The limitation of this study was that our study was retrospective, observational, and included patients who underwent neck dissection for SCCL, limiting the number of cases. Heterogeneity of sex was another limitation, which was caused by the male dominance of larynx tumors. In our study, there was only one female patient. Therefore, the relationship between expression of PSMA and sex could not be evaluated. Our study included patients that were followed for a period between 12 and 120 months. The survival analysis revealed no difference between the groups in terms of PSMA expression. However, this might be due to the limited follow-up of the patients that were included in the study in recent years.

Both proangiogenic and antiangiogenic drugs will be introduced in the near future as alternative treatment options to suppress tumor blood circulation and halt tumor progression [24]. Numerous preclinical animal studies and case reports of patients with cancer have supported the validity of antiangiogenic therapy [27-29]. The rapidly increasing amount of information on tumor angiogenesis, current information on the biologic behavior of cancer, and implementation of imaging studies to display clinical interventions and tumoral vascularity support antiangiogenic therapy as a new treatment method by facilitating its development. Novel developments will be achieved using innovative molecular analysis technologies to display neovascularization using imaging techniques such as positron emission tomography, computed tomography and magnetic resonance imaging to confirm tumor mass. We anticipate that PSMA will be used as a target of alternative or adjuvant treatment options to surgical procedures for treatment of cancer and metastases. However, this anticipation will only be realized with further prospective studies.

PSMA expression in tumoral vascular endothelium was associated with poor clinical parameters including cartilage invasion, local invasion, and advanced stage. PSMA expression can be used for detection of lymph node metastasis. PSMA seems to be a mediator for novel diagnostic and treatment options in the targeted therapy of advanced-stage laryngeal tumors and their metastases.

**Ethics Statement**

The study protocol was approved by the institutional review board (258-11.09.2020). The study was designed as a retrospective study; therefore, informed consent was not obtained from the patients.

**Availability of Data and Material**

The datasets generated or analyzed during the study are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

**Code Availability**

Not applicable.

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**Conflicts of Interest**

The authors declare that they have no potential conflicts of interest.

**Funding Statement**

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**References**

8. Bradbury R, Jiang WG, Cui YX. The clinical and therapeutic uses of MDM2 and PSMA and their potential interaction in aggressive


Prognostic and clinicopathological significance of *Fusobacterium nucleatum* in colorectal cancer: a systemic review and meta-analysis

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1Laboratory of Epigenetics, Cancer Research Institute, Seoul National University College of Medicine, Seoul; 2Department of Pathology, Seoul National University College of Medicine, Seoul, Korea

**Background:** *Fusobacterium nucleatum* has been identified to promote tumor progression in colorectal cancer (CRC). However, association between *F. nucleatum* and prognostic or clinicopathological features has been diverse among studies, which could be affected by type of biospecimen (formalin-fixed paraffin-embedded or fresh frozen [FF]). **Methods:** Articles were systematically reviewed for studies that included the correlation between *F. nucleatum* and prognosis or clinicopathological features in CRC. **Results:** Ten articles, eight studies with survival-related features involving 3,199 patients and nine studies with clinical features involving 2,655 patients, were eligible for the meta-analysis. Overall survival, disease-free survival, and cancer-specific survival were all associated with worse prognosis in *F. nucleatum*-high patients (*p* < .05). In subgroup analysis, only studies with FF tissues retained prognostic significance with *F. nucleatum*. In meta-analysis of clinicopathological variables, *F. nucleatum* level was associated with location within colon, pT category, MLH1 hypermethylation, microsatellite instability status, and *BRAF* mutation regardless of type of biospecimen. However, lymph node metastasis and *KRAS* mutation was only associated with *F. nucleatum* level in FF-based studies. **Conclusions:** In conclusion, type of biospecimen could affect the role of *F. nucleatum* as a biomarker associated with clinicopathological features and prognosis.

**Key Words:** Fusobacteria; Colorectal neoplasms; Prognosis

In recent years, it has been established that gut microbiota is closely linked to various intestinal human disease including colorectal cancer (CRC) via microbiome dysbiosis [1-3]. Among the heterogeneous microbiota, *Fusobacterium nucleatum*, an anaerobic, gram-negative bacteria, has been enriched in CRC tumor tissues and stool specimen compared with normal tissues [4,5]. Abundance of *F. nucleatum* is gradually increased from normal to precancerous adenomatous lesions to carcinoma in CRC and suggests a significant role of *F. nucleatum* in tumor progression of CRC [6,7].

*F. nucleatum* has various mechanisms that influence carcinogenesis which includes promoting of E-cadherin/β-catenin signaling via adhesion protein FadA [8], adhering to cancer cells, colonizing, and inhibiting immunity by leptin Fap2 [2,9], inducing development of CRC by mircoRNA-21–mediated pathway [10], and increasing chemo-resistance via autophagy [11,12]. Recently, it has been reported that *F. nucleatum* is positive in CRC cells in liver metastases, which suggests that *F. nucleatum* may also act as an integral component in CRC metastasis [13]. Furthermore, in xenograft tumor model, treating *F. nucleatum* with antibiotics resulted in reduction of tumor growth.

Even though *F. nucleatum* plays a key role in CRC progression and metastasis, studies that report the characteristics of *F. nucleatum* in prognosis and clinicopathological features by using CRC tissues, nevertheless, has shown conflicting results. Several studies considered *F. nucleatum* level as a suitable biomarker for worse survival [14-16] in CRC patients while other studies did not detect correlation between *F. nucleatum* level and prognosis in overall CRC patients [17,18]. Similar discrepancies between studies arise from other clinicopathological studies such as *KRAS* mutation,
tumor location, and microsatellite instability (MSI) status. Although the reason for discordance could be due to heterogeneity in CRC patient populations [19], this could also be affected by the type of biospecimen used for each study, namely formalin-fixed paraffin-embedded (FFPE) tissue or fresh frozen (FF) tissue. A recent article addresses differences between paired FFPE and FF samples when detecting F. nucleatum in CRC [20], but a systematic review that discuss the impact of biospecimen in detecting F. nucleatum has not been available.

In this study, we conducted a systematic review and meta-analysis to determine the prognostic and clinicopathological significance of F. nucleatum in CRC. Our aim is to clarify how the selection of biospecimen could allocate different roles of microbiome of CRC by affecting the association between F. nucleatum level and survival or clinicopathological features.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Literature search strategy

Articles relevant with the subject were retrieved from electronic databases, PubMed, Embase, and Web of Science until December 3 of 2020. Search terms were, “Fusobacterium nucleatum”, Fusobacterium, Fusobacteria, or F. nucleatum” and “colorectal cancer, colon cancer, rectal cancer, colorectal carcinoma, or CRC”. Each article was examined carefully to determine studies with identical patient population. When multiple studies present overlapping patient data, we selected the studies with the largest patient cohort for clinical data and survival data, respectively.

Inclusion and exclusion criteria

Studies that were eligible for the inclusion in this meta-analysis were as follows: (1) full length articles published in English that detected Fusobacterium nucleatum from human tumor samples derived from CRC tissue, (2) studies with CRC samples divided into high and low (or high and low/negative) according to F. nucleatum level, (3) studies that included clinicopathological, molecular, or survival-associated data that were correlated with F. nucleatum level. Studies that only contain abstract or posters, studies could not be arranged as dichotomized F. nucleatum level data, studies with insufficient data, studies that used more than one type of biospecimen to detect F. nucleatum level, and studies that detected F. nucleatum level in stools were excluded.

Data extraction and quality assessment

Two reviewers (Y.K. and G.H.K.) independently collected data from eligible articles according to the criteria. Newcastle-Ottawa Scale was used to evaluate study quality. A score higher than six out of nine criteria was defined as qualified. Name of author, year of publication, number of total patients, number of F. nucleatum positive patients, type of biospecimen (FFPE or FF), method of F. nucleatum level detection, survival data, and clinicopathological data associated with F. nucleatum level were collected from each study. Survival data were extracted as hazard ratio [HR] and 95% confidence intervals [CIs] from univariate Cox analysis. When only Kaplan-Meier curves were presented for survival analysis, HR and 95% CIs were estimated by using Engauge Digitizer V9.8 (http://digitizer.sourceforge.net) and spreadsheets provided by Tierney et al. [21]. When a three-tier survival was given (negative, low, and high) we pooled negative and low as reference to calculate HR and 95% CIs for high and rearranged it into two-tier (low/negative and high).

Statistical analysis

Meta-analysis was conducted using R software ver. 3.5.3 (https://cran.r-project.org/). Pooled HR and 95% CIs for overall survival (OS), disease-free survival (DFS), and cancer-specific survival (CSS) and pooled odds ratio and 95% CIs for clinicopathological features were analyzed via R package ‘meta’ and ‘dmetar’. Subgroup analysis was performed if multiple types of biospecimen existed within a pooled analysis. Statistic heterogeneity was determined by Cochran’s Q and I². When heterogeneity was observed (p < .05 or I² > 50%) random effect model was used for the analysis instead of fixed effect model. A graphical funnel plot was used to evaluate publication bias.

RESULTS

Literature search and study characteristics

Four hundred and thirty-two records were collected from PubMed, Embase, and Web of Science (Fig. 1). After removing 76 duplications, 356 records were screened by abstract and 32 records were categorized as being relevant with the subject. These records were reviewed in detail and 10 articles, eight studies with survival-related features involving 3,199 patients [14-18,22-24] and nine studies with clinical features involving 2,655 patients [14-17,22-25], were selected eligible for the meta-analysis (Table 1). Seven studies were included in the meta-analysis for both survival-related and clinical features [14-17,22-24]. Two studies had overlapping patients but were used for meta-analysis of either clinical or survival-related features, respectively [18,25]. Six out of the 10 articles assessed F. nucleatum level with FFPE tissues [6,16-18,24,25] and four articles used FF tissues
to detect *F. nucleatum* [14,15,22,23].

**Meta-analysis between *F. nucleatum* level and survival**

The meta-analysis between *F. nucleatum* level and prognostic values of OS (Fig. 2A), DFS (Fig. 2B), and CSS (Fig. 2C) in CRC has shown that high *F. nucleatum* level is associated with poor OS, DFS, and CSS (OS: HR, 1.58; 95% CI, 1.28 to 1.94; *p* < .001; DFS: HR, 1.76; 95% CI, 1.06 to 2.93; *p* = .030; CSS: HR, 1.72; 95% CI, 1.05 to 2.83; *p* = .031, respectively). In subgroup analysis, studies with FF samples (*p* < .001), but not those with FFPE samples (*p* = .168) retained prognostic significance between *F. nucleatum* level and OS (Table 2, Supplementary Fig. S1). Furthermore, studies with FFPE samples did not show significant correlation between *F. nucleatum* level and DFS (*p* = .214). Analyzing studies with stage I though IV CRC did not affect prognostic significance between *F. nucleatum* level and OS (HR, 1.41; 95% CI, 1.11 to 1.80; *p* = .005).

**Meta-analysis between *F. nucleatum* level and clinicopathological features**

Meta-analysis for correlation between *F. nucleatum* level and clinicopathological features of CRC are assessed in Table 3. High *F. nucleatum* level was associated with proximal colon location (*p* < .001), worse tumor differentiation (*p* = .002), high pT category (*p* < .001), presence of distal metastasis (*p* = .007), MLH1 hypermethylation (*p* < .001), and MSI-high CRC (*p* = .001) when all studies were considered. In subgroup analysis (Table 4), studies with FFPE samples showed significant correlation between high *F. nucleatum* level and proximal colon location (*p* = .001), worse tumor differentiation (*p* = .015), high pT category (*p* < .001), MLH1 hypermethylation (*p* < .001), CpG island methylator phenotype (CIMP)–high status (*p* < .001), and MSI-high status (*p* < .001). Studies with FF samples, on the other hand, demonstrated that high *F. nucleatum* level is significantly correlated with high pT category (*p* = .001), presence of lymph node metastasis (*p* = .001), and presence of *KRAS* mutation (*p* = .007), which showed borderline significance with high *F. nucleatum* level in overall studies (*p* = .052).

**Publication bias**

Begg’s funnel plot was evaluated for presence of potential publication bias in meta-analysis associated with survival (Fig. 3). Visible asymmetry was observed with Egger’s test reporting p-
value of .006 for OS but not for DFS (p = .935).

**DISCUSSION**

*F. nucleatum* has been associated with cancer development and progression of CRC, as well as a potential target of cancer treatment. *F. nucleatum* is abundant in CRC tissues from patients with metastasis than those from non-metastatic CRC patients [26]. Presence *F. nucleatum* was essential in establishment of CRC patients-derived xenografts in mice [13]. Not only does infection of *F. nucleatum* has promoted metastasis in CRC cells via autophagy but also is found in distant metastasis sites including liver, lung, and lymph nodes, although the mechanism is yet to be unveiled [9,13,26,27]. Moreover, previous studies have suggested that *F. nucleatum* provoke chemoresistance inhibiting caspase cascade and activating autophagy pathway to prevent apoptosis in CRC cells [11,28].

It is still unclear if *F. nucleatum* is a significant driver of tumor initiation and *F. nucleatum* level detected from CRC tissues and association with prognosis and clinicopathological variables has not been consistent among studies. Herein, we hypothesized that this could be partially caused by different type of biospecimen being used for each study and investigated its affect by a systemic review and meta-analysis with the difference between FFPE and FF into consideration.

High *F. nucleatum* level was associated with worse survival in

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Survival</th>
<th>Specimen</th>
<th>Study</th>
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<th>95% CI</th>
<th>p-value</th>
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<tr>
<td>Overall survival</td>
<td>FFPE</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.43</td>
<td>0.85-2.42</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FF</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.84</td>
<td>1.36-2.48</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
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<tr>
<td>Disease-free survival</td>
<td>FFPE</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.52</td>
<td>0.76-3.04</td>
<td>.214</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig. 2. Forest plot for the correlation between *Fusarium nucleatum* and survival in colorectal cancer [14-18,22-24]: (A) overall survival, (B) disease-free survival, and (C) cancer-specific survival. HR, hazard ratio; CI, confidence interval.
OS, DFS, and CSS in overall meta-analysis. Subgroup analysis revealed that studies with FF show a significant correlation between \textit{F. nucleatum} level and OS. However, studies with FFPE tissues show that a significant correlation between \textit{F. nucleatum} and OS or DFS is not observed.

Association between \textit{F. nucleatum} level and clinicopathological features are much more diverse. A pooled analysis of FFPE and FF studies together shows that high \textit{F. nucleatum} level samples

### Table 3. Meta-analysis associated with clinical features

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clinical feature</th>
<th>Study</th>
<th>OR</th>
<th>95% CI</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<td>Age</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.993</td>
<td>0.787–1.254</td>
<td>.954</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex (female/male)</td>
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<td>1.087</td>
<td>0.910–1.299</td>
<td>.356</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proximal/Distal colon</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.642</td>
<td>1.252–2.153</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
</tr>
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<td>Rectum/Colon</td>
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<td>1.184</td>
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<td>Tumor size</td>
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<td>1.022</td>
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<td>1.308</td>
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<td>Distant metastasis</td>
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<td>2.852</td>
<td>1.987–4.095</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSI status</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.982</td>
<td>2.175–4.086</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KRAS mutation</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.248</td>
<td>0.998–1.561</td>
<td>.052</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BRAF mutation</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.869</td>
<td>1.273–2.745</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pik3ca mutation</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.440</td>
<td>0.965–2.147</td>
<td>.074</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

OR, odds ratio; CI, confidence interval; FFPE, formalin-fixed paraffin-embedded; CIMP, CpG island methylator phenotype; MSI, microsatellite instability.

### Table 4. Subgroup analysis for clinical features

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clinical feature</th>
<th>Specimen</th>
<th>Study</th>
<th>OR</th>
<th>95% CI</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>FFPE</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.158</td>
<td>0.871–1.539</td>
<td>.312</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex</td>
<td>FF</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.720</td>
<td>0.478–1.086</td>
<td>.117</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proximal/Distal colon</td>
<td>FFPE</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.096</td>
<td>0.891–1.349</td>
<td>.386</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rectum/Colon</td>
<td>FF</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.063</td>
<td>0.753–1.501</td>
<td>.727</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Differentiation</td>
<td>FFPE</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.676</td>
<td>1.220–2.303</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pT category</td>
<td>FF</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.554</td>
<td>0.925–2.612</td>
<td>.096</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lymph node metastasis</td>
<td>FFPE</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.259</td>
<td>0.841–1.884</td>
<td>.263</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distant metastasis</td>
<td>FF</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.120</td>
<td>0.767–1.636</td>
<td>.557</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage</td>
<td>FFPE</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.513</td>
<td>1.083–2.112</td>
<td>.015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pT category</td>
<td>FF</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.632</td>
<td>0.958–2.778</td>
<td>.071</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lymph node metastasis</td>
<td>FFPE</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.187</td>
<td>1.437–3.329</td>
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<tr>
<td>MSI status</td>
<td>FF</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.354</td>
<td>1.428–3.880</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>KRAS mutation</td>
<td>FFPE</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.832</td>
<td>0.549–1.262</td>
<td>.387</td>
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<tr>
<td>MSI status</td>
<td>FF</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.009</td>
<td>1.337–3.017</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage</td>
<td>FF</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.869</td>
<td>0.863–3.228</td>
<td>.128</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MLH1 hypermethylation</td>
<td>FFPE</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.917</td>
<td>0.673–1.251</td>
<td>.586</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSI status</td>
<td>FF</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.389</td>
<td>0.993–1.943</td>
<td>.055</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MLH1 hypermethylation</td>
<td>FFPE</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.210</td>
<td>2.208–4.667</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSI status</td>
<td>FF</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.757</td>
<td>1.987–3.824</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KRAS mutation</td>
<td>FFPE</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.125</td>
<td>0.881–1.436</td>
<td>.345</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSI status</td>
<td>FF</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.220</td>
<td>1.246–3.954</td>
<td>.007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BRAF mutation</td>
<td>FFPE</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.882</td>
<td>1.260–2.811</td>
<td>.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pik3ca mutation</td>
<td>FFPE</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.464</td>
<td>0.960–2.233</td>
<td>.076</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

OR, odds ratio; CI, confidence interval; FFPE, formalin-fixed paraffin-embedded; FF, fresh frozen; MSI, microsatellite instability.
are significantly enriched in proximal colon, but on subgroup analysis, only studies using FFPE samples retain statistical significance for the same variable. Similar findings could be observed for correlation between *F. nucleatum* level and distant metastasis. On the contrary, pT category, *MLH1* hypermethylation, and MSI status remained its positive correlation with *F. nucleatum* level regardless of the biospecimen being used. Lymph node metastasis and *KRAS* mutation were only significant in FF tissues and *MLH1* hypermethylation was only significant in FFPE tissues but not in its amalgamated state. Interestingly, the aforementioned features are all considered as hallmark characteristics of MSI-high CRC [29]. These findings emphasize that regardless of type of specimen, high *F. nucleatum* level is strongly indicative of MSI-high status.

There are several putative explanations for discrepancy of results between biospecimen. Mean patient number for studies with FFPE tissue (515.4 patients per study) is more than three times larger than the mean patient number for studies with FF tissues (155.5 patients per study). On the contrary, *F. nucleatum* positivity is significantly higher in studies with FF tissues compared with those of FFPE tissue (41.8% and 24.4%, respectively) which may be a result of a lower threshold in studies with FF tissues to compensate for smaller sample size. This may allude to the fact that features with relatively low incidence such as *KRAS* mutation, could have a higher chance of being categorized as high *F. nucleatum* level sample in studies with FF compared with studies with FFPE.

As an alternative explanation, lower *F. nucleatum* positivity in FFPE tissues may reflect the inherited nature of FFPE samples rather than inflation of threshold in studies with FF tissues. In a study that measured *F. nucleatum* level in paired FFPE and FF tissues of CRC, FF tissues had higher detection rate of overall *F. nucleatum* resulting in difference in survival and clinicopathological features from FFPE-measured samples [20]. Furthermore, concordance between *F. nucleatum* positive cases in FF and those in FFPE samples were low. Discrepancy between DNA results of FFPE and FF samples has also been reported in other paired tumor tissues [30]. This was in part due to inter-strand crosslink between complementary DNA strands which could be aggravated by prolonged fixation [31]. Other potential factors of low *F. nucleatum* detection in FFPE samples includes fragmentation and degeneration of DNA, paraffin embedding, and storage process.

![Funnel plot for studies included in meta-analysis between *Fusarium nucleatum* level and survival: (A) overall survival, (B) disease-free survival, and (C) cancer-specific survival.](https://jpatholtm.org/https://doi.org/10.4132/jptm.2022.03.13)
Recently, two articles analyzed the correlations between *F. nucleatum* level and prognosis in CRC with meta-analysis [33,34]. Both articles showed a significant correlation between *F. nucleatum* level and OS, but only one study showed a significant correlation between *F. nucleatum* level and DFS. Herein, we suggest that type of biospecimen that was included in each meta-analysis could have affected the discrepancy between the articles.

Limitation of our study is that we cannot identify pathological and molecular discrepancies between FF and FFPE tissues such as correlation between *F. nucleatum* level and T cell density, CIMP, and various immunohistochemical results due to lack of studies with FF that obtain related data. Moreover, although meta-analysis provides evidence that discordance between FF and FFPE samples are present in detecting *F. nucleatum*, we could not narrow down the cause of the misalignment between the two biospecimen.

In conclusion, *F. nucleatum* level is significantly associated with pathological and molecular features including pT category, MLH1 hypermethylation, and MSI status regardless of biospecimen, but other survival, clinical, and molecular features, such as location of tumor within the colon, distant metastasis, and KRAS mutation, could be affected by type of biospecimen in CRC. Therefore, although a strong association between MSI and *F. nucleatum* is always evident, selection of biospecimen could affect the role of *F. nucleatum* as a biomarker in CRC to predict and monitor tumor progression and prognosis as well as evaluate treatment effect.

**Supplementary Information**
The Data Supplement is available with this article at https://doi.org/10.4132/jptm.2022.03.13.

**Ethics Statement**
Not applicable.

**Availability of Data and Material**
All data generated or analyzed during the study are included in this published article (and its supplementary information files).

**Code Availability**
Not applicable.

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**Conflicts of Interest**
The authors declare that they have no potential conflicts of interest.

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Yolk sac tumors (YSTs), which are also called endodermal sinus tumors, are malignant tumors of germ cell origin. These tumors usually occur in the gonads, but 20% of cases have been reported at extragonadal sites. The head and neck is a rarely affected region that accounts for just 1% of all malignant tumors of germ cell origin. In addition, YSTs arise mostly in childhood. We present a rare pathologically pure case of primary adult YST in the sinonasal area. A 45-year-old male patient presented with a rapidly growing mass in the nasal cavity, which caused nasal obstruction and bloody post-nasal drip. The histopathologic features indicated pure YST, and immunohistochemical analysis revealed positive reactivity for Sal-like protein 4 and alpha-fetoprotein. Herein, we discuss the clinical, radiologic, and histologic features of this YST and review other cases of sinonasal YST in adults.

Key Words: Yolk sac tumor; Endodermal sinus tumor; Paranasal sinus; Nasal cavity; Adult

A sinonasal yolk sac tumor in an adult

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Yolk sac tumors (YSTs), which are also called endodermal sinus tumors, are malignant tumors of germ cell origin. These tumors usually occur in the gonads, but 20% of cases have been reported at extragonadal sites. The head and neck is a rarely affected region that accounts for just 1% of all malignant tumors of germ cell origin. In addition, YSTs arise mostly in childhood. We present a rare pathologically pure case of primary adult YST in the sinonasal area. A 45-year-old male patient presented with a rapidly growing mass in the nasal cavity, which caused nasal obstruction and bloody post-nasal drip. The histopathologic features indicated pure YST, and immunohistochemical analysis revealed positive reactivity for Sal-like protein 4 and alpha-fetoprotein. Herein, we discuss the clinical, radiologic, and histologic features of this YST and review other cases of sinonasal YST in adults.

Key Words: Yolk sac tumor; Endodermal sinus tumor; Paranasal sinus; Nasal cavity; Adult

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CASE REPORT

A 45-year-old man was referred to the Department of Otorhinolaryngology at Asan Medical Center in Seoul for persistent right nasal obstruction, bloody rhinorrhea, and post-nasal drip. He reported a history of bloody post-nasal drip for the past four months, facial pain for the last three months, visual disturbance in the right lower field, and diplopia. An endoscopic examination showed a 3-cm-sized mass obstructing the right nasal cavity with partially necrotic tissue.

Initial computed tomography and magnetic resonance imaging revealed a mass that obstructed the right nasal cavity and caused bone destruction of the bilateral frontal and ethmoidal sinuses with intracranial extension. Destruction of the bilateral superomedial orbital wall and invasion of the right medial orbital wall and right nasolacrimal duct and sac were also identified (Fig. 1).

Endoscopic excisional biopsy was carried out. The specimen was removed in three pieces measuring up to $4 \times 3 \times 1.5$ cm, with a pinkish brown color and a fleshy gelatinous texture. The submitted specimen was processed for histopathologic examination and revealed typical YST features. The tumor showed mostly reticular and microcystic growth patterns with loose myxoid stroma, but there were also areas of glandular, solid sheet-like, and polyvesicular vitelline patterns. Some Schiller-Duval bodies were noted. Intra- and extra-cytoplasmic hyaline globules were identified (Fig. 2). No other tumor components were seen.

Immunohistochemical staining showed diffuse strong nuclear positivity for Sal-like protein 4 and diffuse strong cytoplasmic positivity for $\alpha$-fetoprotein (Fig. 3). P40 was negative, but integrase interactor 1 (INI1) and Brahma-related gene-1 (BRG1)
Sinonasal yolk sac tumor in adult

Fig. 1. Coronal (A) and transverse (B) magnetic resonance imaging shows a mass in the right nasal cavity and bilateral frontal sinus.

Fig. 2. Histopathologic findings of a sinonasal yolk sac tumor. (A) Reticular and microcystic growth patterns are observed with loose myxoid stroma. (B) A polyvesicular vitelline pattern is occasionally observed. (C) Schiller-Duval bodies are noted focally. (D) Intra- and extra-cytoplasmic hyaline globules are observed.
were both positive (Fig. 4). Therefore, the final diagnosis was pure YST. The patient was started on chemotherapy with a bleomycin, etoposide, and cisplatin regimen and palliative radiation therapy but showed a poor response. He died from the YST at 13 months after diagnosis.

**DISCUSSION**

YST usually occurs in the gonads and is primarily found in infants and children. Extragonadal sites have included the sacrococcygeal region, retroperitoneum, mediastinum, brain, and very rarely, the head and neck area [2]. In addition, YST is usually accompanied by other germ cell tumor components, like teratoma or embryonal cell carcinoma. For example, the pure form YST of the testis accounts for just 2.4% of the reported adult testicular YSTs [3].

Definite diagnosis of YST can be made by biopsy. Upon microscopy, several histological patterns have been described. The most common is a reticular/microcystic pattern, which is a meshwork of anastomosing spaces and cysts lined by a single layer of tumor cells [4]. Other patterns include endodermal sinus, solid, myxomatous, papillary, glandular, macrocystic, and polyvesicular vitelline [4]. Our case demonstrated reticular, microcystic, and polyvesicular vitelline growth patterns and Shiller-Duval bodies. Shiller-Duval bodies are specific for YST, but they are not essential for diagnosis. The differential diagnoses of this case include sinonasal nonintestinal-type adenocarcinoma, SMARCB1-deficient sinonasal carcinoma with pure yolk sac differentiation, and SMARCA4-deficient teratocarcinosarcoma. Clear cytoplasm, an occasional fibrovascular core, and cytokeratin 7 negativity exclude sinonasal nonintestinal-type adenocarcinoma. SMARCB1-deficient sinonasal carcinoma usually shows high-grade histologic features, including prominent necrosis and mitoses, but relatively uniform cytology [5]. In our case, INI1 positivity excluded the possibility of SMARCB1-deficient sinonasal carcinoma with pure yolk sac differentiation, and BRG1 positivity ruled out the possibility of SMARCA4-deficient teratocarcinosarcoma.

Eight adult-onset YSTs have been reported in the sinonasal...
area in the English literature (Table 1) [6-12]; four cases were accompanied by a transitional cell carcinoma component. Choriocarcinoma, poorly differentiated carcinoma, teratocarcinosarcoma, and SMARCB1 (INI1)-deficient carcinoma components were present in the remaining four cases, respectively. The reason for the common coexistence of a transitional cell carcinoma component in sinonasal YST remains uncertain. In our case, a transitional cell carcinoma component was not observed, as confirmed by p40 negativity. There are two theories about the origin of extragonadal YST. In the first theory, primordial germ cells are arrested or misplaced during migration from the cranial space to a gonadal site and consequently arrest in the cranial cavity [13]. The second theory holds that extragonadal tumors arise as a result of aberrant somatic differentiation [14]. Previous reports support the second theory. In contrast to previous cases, our case showed histologically pure YST features, which have never been reported. Our case therefore supports the first theory because its histologic features included pure YST not accompanied by other tumor components.

Surgical resection, combined chemotherapy, and radiotherapy are available treatments for YST. Generally, YST is sensitive to chemotherapy. However, the head and neck region, including the sinonasal area as in our case, is very complex and difficult for R0 resection. As a result, the anatomic location seems to affect the prognosis, although the number of sinonasal YST cases is very small [15]. In addition, increasing age is known to negatively affect clinical behavior, and this trend is consistent with our case findings [16].

In conclusion, although adult-onset sinonasal pure YST is extremely rare, differential diagnosis is important. YST can present with many various scenarios in the sinonasal area, so YST should be considered if the clinical findings are histologically suspicious.

**Table 1.** Previously reported cases of adult-onset yolk sac tumor in the sinonasal area

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Age (yr)/Sex</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Follow-up</th>
<th>Associated tumor components</th>
<th>Study</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>34/M</td>
<td>Nasopharynx</td>
<td>1 yr (deceased)</td>
<td>Transitional cell carcinoma</td>
<td>Manivel et al. [6]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>43/M</td>
<td>Orbit, maxillary, ethmoid and frontal sinuses</td>
<td>1.5 yr (pulmonary metastasis)</td>
<td>Transitional cell carcinoma</td>
<td>Manivel et al. [6]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>48/M</td>
<td>Nasal cavity, ethmoid sinus, cribiform plate</td>
<td>5 yr (disease-free)</td>
<td>Choriocarcinoma</td>
<td>Filho et al. [7]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>59/M</td>
<td>Orbit, maxillary, ethmoid and frontal sinuses</td>
<td>1 yr (disease-free)</td>
<td>Poorly differentiated carcinoma</td>
<td>Mishra et al. [8]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>51/F</td>
<td>Nasal cavity, cribiform plate, anterior cranial fossa, and frontal sinus</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Teratocarcinosarcoma</td>
<td>Thomas et al. [9]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>58/F</td>
<td>Nasal cavity, ethmoidal sinus, cribiform plate, and nasopharynx</td>
<td>0.8 yr (disease-free)</td>
<td>Transitional cell carcinoma</td>
<td>Mei et al. [10]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>44/F</td>
<td>Nasal cavity, nasopharynx, ethmoid, sphenoid and maxillary sinuses</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>SMARCB1 (INI1) deficient carcinoma</td>
<td>Zamecnik et al. [11]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>58/F</td>
<td>Nasal cavity, ethmoid sinus, nasopharynx</td>
<td>3 yr (disease-free)</td>
<td>Transitional cell carcinoma</td>
<td>Wang et al. [12]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>45/M</td>
<td>Nasal cavity, orbit, frontal and ethmoidal sinuses</td>
<td>13 mo (deceased)</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Present case</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

INI1, integrase interactor 1.

**Ethics Statement**

This case was deemed exempt by the Asan Medical Center Institutional Review Board (IRB #2019-0598). Patient consent waiver was obtained for this study.

**Availability of Data and Material**

The datasets generated or analyzed during the study are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

**Code Availability**

Not applicable.

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**Conflicts of Interest**

The authors declare that they have no potential conflicts of interest.

**Funding Statement**

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**References**


Chondromyxoid fibroma (CMF) is a rare, benign neoplasm of the bones, mostly affecting people in the second or third decade of life, with a slight male predominance. Long bones, especially the proximal tibia, are the most frequently affected sites, followed by the distal femur, pelvis, and small bones of acral sites [1,2]. The typical CMF eccentrically arises in the medulla of the metaphysis, with sharply circumscribed margins. Infrequent cases of juxtacortical subtypes have been documented in long bones, but only three of the short tubular bones have been reported in the English literature (Table 1). Here we present two new cases of juxtacortical CMF in the small bones. One was an intracortical osteolytic lesion of the metatarsal bone of the foot with degenerative atypia that histologically should be differentiated from chondrosarcoma. The other was a phalangeal mass protruding into the interphalangeal joint of the hand, which had been labeled mistakenly as a soft tissue mass preoperatively. These cases illustrated that chondromyxoid fibromas have various the manifestations and should be included in the differential diagnosis of an osteolytic lesion or an exophytic mass in the small bones.

**Key Words:** Chondromyxoid fibroma; Small bones; Juxtacortical

Chondromyxoid fibroma (CMF) is a rare, benign neoplasm of the bones, mostly affecting people in the second or third decade of life, with a slight male predominance. Long bones, especially the proximal tibia, are the most frequently affected sites, followed by the distal femur, pelvis, and small bones of acral sites [1,2]. The typical CMF eccentrically arises in the medulla of the metaphysis, with sharply circumscribed margins. Infrequent cases of juxtacortical subtypes have been documented in long bones, but only three of the short tubular bones have been reported in the English literature (Table 1). Here we present two new cases of juxtacortical CMF in the hand and foot, respectively.

**CASE REPORT**

**Case 1**

A 43-year-old man presented with a swelling on the dorsum of the right foot for more than one year. He complained of intermittent pain for a few months. Plain films demonstrated a well-marginated osteolytic lesion on the second metatarsal bone of the right foot (Fig. 1A). Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) showed a 2 × 1.7 cm intracortical mass with expansive growth (Fig. 1B). Medullary bone was partially involved. T1-weighted images revealed an intermediate signal, while T2-weighted images showed a heterogeneous signal with some areas of high intensity. Preoperative diagnosis was a benign bone tumor such as simple bone cyst, and curettage with bone graft was performed.

Histological examination of the lesion showed a lobular architecture on the low-power view (Fig. 2A). Lobules demonstrated hypocellular centers with hypercellular peripheries. Center of the lobules consisted of stellate or spindle-shaped cells with eosinophilic cytoplasmic processes in a myxoid background (Fig. 2B). Cellular areas in the periphery contained round cells with enlarged, hyperchromatic, and pleomorphic nuclei (Fig. 2C). Vacuolization was observed. The nucleocytoplasmic ratio of these cells, however, was low, and no mitosis was found, which implied degeneration rather than malignancy. Overall histologic features rendered a diagnosis of chondromyxoid fibroma. There has been no recurrence for seven months after the surgery.
Table 1. Reported cases of juxtacortical chondromyxoid fibroma in the small bones

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study</th>
<th>Age (yr)/Sex</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Clinical presentation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Baker et al. [2]</td>
<td>65/M</td>
<td>Foot; metacarpal; NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slotcavage et al. [9]</td>
<td>29/F</td>
<td>Hand; metacarpal, proximal phalanx; epiphysis, metacarpophalangeal joint</td>
<td>Pain, swelling, movement limitation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Han et al. [7]</td>
<td>17/M</td>
<td>Foot; metatarsal; diaphysis</td>
<td>Pain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present case 1</td>
<td>43/M</td>
<td>Foot; metatarsal; diaphysis</td>
<td>Pain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present case 2</td>
<td>43/M</td>
<td>Hand; middle phalanx; epiphysis, interphalangeal joint</td>
<td>Pain, movement limitation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

M, male; NA, not available; F, female.

**Fig. 1.** Radiologic images of the case 1. (A) Oblique radiograph of the foot shows an intracortical lytic lesion (arrow) in the right second metatarsal neck. (B) Sagittal magnetic resonance image shows a hyperintense mass (arrow) with an intact shell of cortical bone.

**Fig. 2.** Histologic findings of the case 1. (A) Low-power view of the tumor shows a prominent lobular pattern. (B) The lobules consist of a hypocellular center with abundant myxoid matrix and condensation of tumor cells toward the periphery. (C) The tumor cells in the hypercellular periphery reveal degenerative features including bizarre nuclei, hyperchromasia, and vacuolization.

**Case 2**

A 43-year-old man presented with dull pain and limitation of movement on the right index finger without any precipitating trauma or injury. Physical examination revealed a soft tissue swelling in the volar aspect of the proximal interphalangeal joint.

Radiographs of the right hand revealed a soft tissue shadow in the proximal interphalangeal joint of the index finger with a small osteolytic lesion in the middle phalanx (Fig. 3A). Multiple calcific deposits were observed. MRI showed a soft tissue mass with high signal intensity in the proximal interphalangeal joint (Fig. 3B). The lesion eroded the epiphysial cortex of the adjacent middle phalanx and was excised under preoperative diagnosis of synovial chondromatosis. In the surgical field, the mass protruded from the head of the middle phalanx and extended toward the soft tissue. A low-magnification view revealed a lobular pattern of tumor cells with zonal architecture (Fig. 3C). The center of the lobules was hypocellular with round and spindle cells, and the periphery was hypercellular containing round cells and multinucleated giant cells (Fig. 3D). One characteristic feature was numerous spotty calcifications, which corresponded to the preoperative radiographs. The histologic diagnosis was juxtacortical chondromyxoid fibroma.
Juxtacortial chondromyxoid fibroma

DISCUSSION

CMF is a rare benign bone tumor, first described by Jaffe and Lichtenstein in 1948 [3]. It accounts for less than 1% of all bone tumors and shows slight male predominance in the second and third decades of life [1]. CMF has a predilection for the metaphysis of a long bone, most often the proximal tibia. Small bones of the feet or flat bones of the ilium are also commonly involved. However, vertebrae, ribs, scapula, skull, and jawbones are rarely involved.

The tumor typically has eccentric location in the bones, with a few cases of juxtacortical subtypes [2,4-9]. Juxtacortical CMFs encompass all surface-type tumors including cortical, subperiosteal, periosteal, or parosteal lesions, and the exact origin is not always identified [2]. Of these juxtacortical cases, most involve long bones, with only three cases affecting small bones of the hands or feet (Table 1) [2,7,9]. Four of five cases including ours involved metacarpal or metatarsal bones. Interestingly, two cases involving the hand appeared in the form of an exophytic mass that involved the joint space; the second current case was mistaken for a soft tissue mass invading the bone on the preoperative radiologic examination.

Pain is the most common symptom in CMFs, as is true of the juxtacortical type of small bones. In addition, soft tissue swelling can manifest due to the thin musculature of hands and feet, and range of motion can be limited when joints are involved.

Histologic features of CMF show a characteristic lobular architecture of a hypocellular center with condensation of tumor cells toward the periphery. The center consists of chondroid and myxoid matrix, containing stellate or spindle-shaped cells often with eosinophilic cytoplasmic process. The lobule is surrounded by fibrous periphery with round cells and scattered multinucleated giant cells. CMFs rarely are accompanied by calcification, but
juxtacortical types can show calcification in the coarse pattern [2]. Tumor cells in CMF are pleomorphic with large nuclei in approximately 20% of cases [10]. Such pleomorphism can be prominent, as in one of our cases, and should be distinguished from chondrosarcoma. The differential findings of CMF are no alteration of nucleocytoplasmic ratio and absence or rarity of unequivocal mitoses.

The main differential diagnosis of CMF is chondrosarcoma, especially with accompanying pleomorphism. The radiologic findings of chondrosarcoma differ markedly from sharply defined CMF even when it slightly erodes the bone. Histologically, chondrosarcoma reveals hypercellularity without zonal architecture. The CMF also differs from chondrosarcoma, with the latter usually producing a large amount of well-differentiated hyaline cartilage and entrapping the pre-existing lamellar bone trabeculae with permeation [11].

Juxtacortical CMFs, especially on the long bones, should be differentiated from the other omissive cartilage-containing neoplasms such as periosteal osteosarcoma and parosteal osteosarcoma [2]. Although the clinical and radiographic features of such neoplasms are usually distinctive, they can show some resemblance to those of CMFs. The most important histologic features of these entities are ostoid formation, which is coarse, lace-like bone present in periosteal osteosarcoma, and well-formed woven bone trabeculae surrounded by cellular fascicles of spindle cells in parosteal osteosarcoma, respectively.

Another benign lesion to differentiate is juxtacortical chondroma or synovial chondromatosis, especially when CMF involves the joint space, as in the current two cases. Juxtacortical chondroma consists of mature chondrocytes lying in lacunae with intervening chondroid matrix. Synovial chondromatosis exhibits nodules of hyaline cartilage, often surrounded by a rim of synovial lining. Juxtacortical chondroma and synovial chondromatosis lack a typical zonal pattern of CMF and show clustering of mature chondrocytes in hyaline cartilage matrix.

En-bloc resection is the mainstay of treatment in CMFs because curettage imposes about 25% risk of recurrence [1]. The prognosis after en-bloc resection is relatively good, though rare cases of recurrence and malignant transformation have been reported [2].

In summary, this study reported two rare presentations of juxtacortical CMFs in the small bones of the hands or feet. Our study indicates that juxtacortical CMFs, although rare, should be considered in the differential diagnosis of a surface-type osteolytic lesion that has well-circumscribed scalloped margins in the short tubular bones or an exophytic lesion radiologically misdiagnosed as soft tissue tumor in the interphalangeal joint.

Ethics Statement
This study was approved by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) of Kosin University Gospel Hospital with a waiver of informed consent (IRB No. 2021-09-030).

Availability of Data and Material
The datasets generated or analyzed during the study are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

Code Availability
Not applicable.

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Conflicts of Interest
The authors declare that they have no potential conflicts of interest.

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References
Adrenal hemangioblastoma

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Hemangioblastoma (HB) is a rare benign tumor that most commonly occurs in the cerebellum. HB is composed of neoplastic stromal cells and abundant small vessels. However, the exact origin of stromal cells is controversial. Extraneural HBs have been reported in a small series, and peripheral HBs arising in the adrenal gland are extremely rare. Herein, we report a case of sporadic adrenal HB in a 54-year-old woman. The tumor was a well-circumscribed, yellow mass measuring 4.2 cm in diameter. Histologically, the tumor was composed of small blood vessels and vacuolated stromal cells with clear cytoplasm. On immunohistochemical stain, the stromal cells were positive for S-100 protein, neuron-specific enolase, and synaptophysin. The tumor did not reveal mutation of VHL alleles. We herein present a case of HB of the adrenal gland and review of the literature.

Key Words: Hemangioblastoma; Adrenal glands; von Hippel-Lindau disease; Immunohistochemistry; Sequencing

CASE REPORT

An adrenal mass was incidentally detected in a 54-year-old woman during a regular medical check-up. She did not have a history of pancreatic tumor, renal tumor, or adrenal tumor. Her family members had no history of such diseases. Laboratory investigations were performed, and 24-hour urinary metanephrine (0.4 mg/day), vanillylmandelic acid (3.3 mg/day), homovanillic acid (4.1 mg/day), and 17-ketosteroi level (16.8 mg/day) were within normal limits. Plasma aldosterone concentration (PAC) was 10.5 ng/dL, plasma renin activity (PRA) was 0.42 ng/mL per hour, and PAC/PRA ratio was 25 ng/dL per ng/mL/hr. Magnetic resonance imaging revealed a 4.2×4.2×3.6 cm well-defined mass in the left adrenal gland, which was suspected to be a hemangioma (Fig. 1A). The patient underwent partial adrenalectomy. Macroscopic examination revealed that the nodular mass weighed 21 g and displayed a brown-colored cut surface with hemorrhage (Fig. 1B).

On histological examination, the tumor was well encapsulated by a fibrous wall. At low magnification, hypocellular and hypercellular area were present. The tumor was composed of abundant small blood vessels admixed with stromal cells. The blood vessels were lined by thin endothelial cells. The stromal cells had clear and vacuolated or pale eosinophilic cytoplasm (Fig. 2). Their nuclei were round to ovoid, with occasional nuclear atypia. There was no evidence of necrosis. On immunohistochemical stain, the stromal cells were positive for S-100 protein, synaptophysin, and neu-
ron-specific enolase (NSE). The endothelial markers, CD34 and CD31, highlighted blood vessels (Fig. 3). The stromal cells were negative for inhibin-α, epithelial membrane antigen (EMA), carbonic anhydrase 9 (CA-9), CD10, glial fibrillary acidic protein (GFAP), GATA3, and chromogranin A. The tumor was diagnosed as HB based on the histological and immunohistochemical findings. The adrenal tissue surrounding the tumor was not submitted.

Targeted sequencing was performed using the ONCOaccuPanel (NGeneBio, Seoul, Korea) which covers 323 genes. Capicua transcriptional repressor (CIC), folliculin (FLCN), fms related receptor tyrosine kinase 1 (FLT1), poly (ADP-ribose) polymerase 1 (PARP1), and polybromo 1 (PBRM1) were mutated. However, VHL was not mutated (Table 2). The patient survived with no evidence of tumor recurrence at 1-year follow-up.

**DISCUSSION**

HB is a rare benign tumor that generally occurs in the cere-

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Age (yr)/Sex</th>
<th>Clinical feature</th>
<th>Size/Weight</th>
<th>Microscopic findings</th>
<th>Immunohistochemical or special stain/EM</th>
<th>Association with VHL syndrome</th>
<th>Follow-up</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Burns et al.</td>
<td>23/F</td>
<td>Erythrocytosis (hematocrit, 58%)</td>
<td>5.0 cm</td>
<td>Abundant thin-walled blood vessels; stromal cells, large cells with vacuolated clear cytoplasm</td>
<td>Stromal cell with fat vacuole</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Itoh et al.</td>
<td>49/M</td>
<td>Incidentally found; elevated noradrenaline (187.4 μg/day) and dopamine (2,308 μg/day) in urine</td>
<td>2.7 cm</td>
<td>Abundant capillary structures; stromal cells, large ovoid</td>
<td>NSE (+), fat stain (+)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nonaka et al.</td>
<td>30/F</td>
<td>Cerebellar and spinal HB, bilateral adrenal HB</td>
<td>0.9 cm; 0.5 cm</td>
<td>Focal cavernous vascular spaces; stromal cells, vacuolated large with amphophilic cytoplasm, round to oval nuclei</td>
<td>S-100 protein (+, focal), chromogranin (+), CD31 (-), CD34 (-)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Browning and Parker</td>
<td>30/M</td>
<td>Bilateral adrenal HB, spinal and cerebellar HB, pancreatic and renal cysts, cystic renal cell carcinoma (suspicious)</td>
<td>Not identified (12.5 g; 8.3 g)</td>
<td>Abundant capillaries; stromal spindled cells. Stromal cells; large, intimately connected with vascular walls</td>
<td>Chromogranin (+), vimentin (+), S-100 protein (-)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current case</td>
<td>54/F</td>
<td>Incidentally found</td>
<td>4.2 cm</td>
<td>Abundant capillaries; stromal cells, vacuolated or amphophilic cytoplasm</td>
<td>CD34 (-), CD31 (-), inhibin-alpha (-), EMA (-), CK (-), CA-9 (-), CD10 (-), S-100 protein (+), synaptophysin (+), NSE (+)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Alive (1 yr)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

EM, electron microscopy; VHL, von Hippel-Lindau; F, female; NA, not available; M, male; NSE, neuron-specific enolase; HB, hemangioblastoma; EMA, epithelial membrane antigen; CK, cytokeratin; CA-9, carbonic anhydrase 9.
A case of adrenal hemangioblastoma

Fig. 2. The tumor is encapsulated by a fibrous wall (A) and is composed of alternating hypercellular and hypocellular areas (B). Vascular structures with vacuolated stromal cells (C, D) are observed.

bellum in adults. In rare cases, HB has been reported to occur at extracerebellar sites. The unusual anatomical locations and histopathological features of HB may pose a diagnostic challenge. HB has been considered as a vascular neoplasm because of the histological findings of its vascular structure. However, various cell lineages such as glial (GFAP), neural (S-100 protein and NSE), vascular, endothelial (factor XIIIa), mesenchymal (vimentin), epithelial (cytokeratin), and smooth muscle/myofibroblastic (desmin and calponin) have been proposed on the bases of immunohistochemical findings [9-12]. Until now, their cell lineage remains unknown.

Somatic inactivation of both VHL alleles and the subsequent loss of VHL protein are found in patients with HBs and nonhereditary clear cell renal cell carcinomas (RCCs) [13]. The present case revealed wild-type VHL alleles in targeted sequencing. However, mutations of CIC, FLCN, FLT1, PARP1, and PBRM1 were found (Table 2). CIC is a member of the high-mobility-group-box superfamily of transcriptional repressors. Mutation of CIC is associated with oligodendrogliomas [14], and fusions of CIC with DUX4 (double homeobox 4) and FOXO4 (forkhead box O) genes have been reported in patients with round cell sarcomas [15]. FLCN mutation is associated with Birt-Hogg-Dubé syndrome, which is characterized by benign skin tumors, lung cysts, and kidney lesions [16]. FLT1 encodes a member of the vascular endothelial growth factor receptor family, which plays an important role in angiogenesis and vasculogenesis. PARP1 encodes poly(ADP-ribosyl)transferase, which is involved in cell differentiation, proliferation, recovery from DNA damage, and tumor transformation. PARP1 mutation is associated with Fanconi anemia [17]. PBRM1 encodes a subunit of ATP-dependent chromatin-remodeling complexes, and PBRM1 mutation is associated with clear cell RCC [18] and epithelioid sarcoma [19]. It is unclear whether these mutations are specific for HB, and further studies on these mutations in patients with HBs are needed to clarify this issue.

HB should be distinguished from their morphological mimickers, such as pheochromocytomas, perivascular epithelioid cell tumors (PEComas), other vascular tumors, and metastatic RCCs. In cases where vacuolated stromal cells are scant and prominent vascular structures are noted, HB may resemble capillary hem-
Fig. 3. Immunohistochemical staining shows that the vascular endothelial cells are positive for CD31 (A). The stromal cells are positive for NSE (B), S-100 protein (C), and synaptophysin (D). However, they are negative for chromogranin A (E) and GATA3 (F).

Table 2. The mutated genes found in the targeted sequencing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gene symbol</th>
<th>RefSeq</th>
<th>Amino acid</th>
<th>Nucleotide</th>
<th>No. of variants/Total</th>
<th>VAF (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CIC</td>
<td>NM_015125.3</td>
<td>Pro911Gln</td>
<td>2732C&gt;A</td>
<td>160/365</td>
<td>43.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FLCN</td>
<td>NM_144997.5</td>
<td>Ser575Leu</td>
<td>1724C&gt;T</td>
<td>165/347</td>
<td>47.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FLT1</td>
<td>NM_002019.4</td>
<td>Ala673Val</td>
<td>2018C&gt;T</td>
<td>348/734</td>
<td>47.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PARP1</td>
<td>NM_001618.3</td>
<td>Val691Ala</td>
<td>2972T&gt;C</td>
<td>297/555</td>
<td>53.51</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

RefSeq, Reference sequence; VAF, variant allele frequency.
angioma. However, capillary hemangioma lacks vacuolated or clear stromal cells, and therefore, careful examination is necessary to make a definitive diagnosis. The distinction of RCC from adrenal HB is considered as one of the most difficult differential diagnostic challenges, because RCC can spread to the adrenal gland, and their histological findings may mimic those of HB. Usually, RCC reveals a nested architecture with thin capillaries. Immunohistochecmically, RCC is positive for EMA and paired-box gene 8, and negative for inhibin-alpha and S-100 protein. Furthermore, CA-9 is a marker for clear cell RCC, which is the most common subtype of RCC. Pheochromocytoma may arise in the adrenal medulla. Because of their anatomical location and histological findings of microvascular structure and presence of some vacuolated cells, it should be considered as a differential diagnosis of HB. However, the present case did not display a Zellballen pattern, a characteristic feature of pheochromocytomas. Other histological and immunohistochemical features were not consistent with those of pheochromocytomas. PEComa is a mesenchymal tumor with perivascular epithelioid clear cells that generally develop in the kidney, uterus, and soft tissue. Primary PEComa of the adrenal gland is extremely rare and displays a nested growth pattern of epithelioid cells. PEComa typically expresses both smooth muscle and melanocytic markers such as human melanoma black 45 and Melan-A, whereas HB does not express these markers.

In summary, adrenal HB is a rare tumor, and its usual anatomical location and histopathological features may pose a diagnostic challenge. HB should be distinguished from their morphological mimickers, such as pheochromocytoma, PEComa, other vascular tumors, and metastatic RCC. Considering the rarity of adrenal HB, we present a case report of adrenal HB to provide recommendations for its accurate diagnosis and increased awareness of this disease.

**Ethics Statement**
This case report was approved by the IRB of Chonnam Natinal University Hwasun Hospital (CNUHH-2021-240). Informed consent was obtained from the participant included in the study.

**Availability of Data and Material**
The datasets generated or analyzed during the study are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

**Code Availability**
Not applicable.

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**Author Contributions**
Conceptualization: CC. Data curation: JYK, KHL, JHC. Investigation: JYK. Methodology: JYK, KHL, HSC. Supervision: CC. Visualization: JYK. Writing—original draft: JYK. Writing—review & editing: CC, JHC. Approval of final manuscript: all authors.

**Conflicts of Interest**
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**References**
14. Cahill DP, Louis DN, Cairncross JG. Molecular background of oligodendroglioma: 1p/19q, IDH, TERT, CIC and FUBP1. CNS On-
Vascular Ehlers-Danlos syndrome with distinct histopathologic features

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EHlers-Danlos syndrome is a connective tissue disorder that presents with heterogeneous manifestations depending on the involved genes. Vascular Ehlers-Danlos syndrome (vEDS), also known as Ehlers-Danlos syndrome type IV, is caused by a heterozygous mutation in the COL3A1 gene that encodes the pro-α1 chains of type III collagen, which attenuates the structural integrity of type III collagen-enriched tissues, such as skin, lung, liver, intestine, and blood vessel. vEDS can result in fatal complications such as arterial or intestinal rupture, but its clinical diagnosis is often challenging. Here, we present a case of vEDS that was diagnosed based on histopathologic and confirmatory genetic examinations.

**CASE REPORT**

A 19-year-old male was admitted to our hospital for recurrent episodes of spontaneous pneumothorax (6 times), which started about 8 months ago. His father had a history of recurrent pneumothorax and also suffered from spontaneous intra-abdominal bleeding due to aneurysmal rupture of the common hepatic artery 7 years ago. The patient had undergone wedge resection of the lung at another hospital, after which he experienced a secondary pneumothorax, but no specific pathologic diagnosis was made. Thoracic computed tomography at our hospital showed multiple parenchymal cystic lesions with surrounding ground-glass opacity and several small nodular lesions in both lungs (Fig. 1A), suggesting vasculitis with hemorrhage, infected cystic lung disease, or paragonimiasis. However, neither serum anti-nuclear antibody nor anti-*Paragonimus Westermani* antibody titer was elevated. No abnormality in the thoracic greater vessels was identified. Abnormalities of the extrathoracic organs were not evaluated at the time of the admission. Pathological examination of the wedge-resected lung specimen slides sent from an external pathology laboratory revealed intra-alveolar accumulation of red blood cells and hemosiderin-laden macrophages (Fig. 1B, C), indicating recurrent episodes of intra-alveolar hemorrhage. The most diagnostic histologic finding was the presence of several round fibro-osseous nodules scattered in a hemorrhagic background of lung parenchyma (Fig. 1D, E). Disruption of the vascular wall was not identified, even in the examination under van Gieson elastic staining. Due to suspicion of vEDS based on the patient’s familial history and the histopathologic findings, COL3A1 gene sequencing was performed. The sequencing test revealed a heterozygous germline mutation in the spliceosome acceptor site in intron 23 of the COL3A1 gene (COL3A1 c. 1662 + 1G > A [p. Gly537_Pro554del]) (Fig. 1F), a known pathogenic mutation in the ClinVar database (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/clinvar/variation/101269/). Hence, the patient was diagnosed with vEDS.

**DISCUSSION**

vEDS comprises about 4%–5% of Ehlers-Danlos syndrome cases and has a high rate of fatal complications related to cardiovascular and gastrointestinal systems, such as cerebrovascular hemorrhage or intestinal rupture. In addition, pregnancy can be fatal in patients with vEDS who might develop ruptures in the uterus or uterine vessels [1]. Therefore, prompt diagnosis is the mainstay of medical management of vEDS to lower the rate of such fatal complications [2]. However, the rarity of vEDS makes its diagnosis challenging, frequently leading to delayed diagnosis. The pathologic diagnosis of vEDS is challenging because the characteristic histopathologic findings of vEDS are not widely...
recognized. Abrupt caliber changes in the muscularis propria with diverticular formation have been identified in colon resection specimens of vEDS patients [3]. Kawabata et al. [4] reported that fragile lung parenchyma with spontaneous laceration, acute hemorrhage and/or hematoma, and fibro-osseous nodules, which are hypothesized to be a consequence of the organization of hematomas, are frequently identified in surgical lung biopsy specimens of vEDS patients, findings which serve as clues for pathologic diagnosis. In line with these findings, a previous report described a case of vEDS that was diagnosed based on identification of fibro-osseous nodules and vascular disruption in the lung parenchyma, suggesting the potential of histopathologic features in clinical diagnosis of vEDS [5]. Therefore, the distinct histopathologic features of vEDS should be considered when assessing surgical lung biopsy specimens from patients with recurrent spontaneous pneumothorax and/or hemorrhagic lung parenchymal cysts.

In conclusion, identifying characteristic histopathologic features in surgical lung biopsy samples, such as parenchymal fragility, spontaneous laceration, parenchymal hemorrhage, and fibro-osseous nodules, can contribute to early clinical diagnosis and proper management of vEDS.

Ethics Statement
This case study was approved by the Institutional Review Board of Asan Medical Center (2020-1889), which waived the requirement for informed consent.

Availability of Data and Material
Data sharing not applicable to this article as no datasets were generated or analysed during the study.

Code Availability
Not applicable.

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Conflicts of Interest
The authors declare that they have no potential conflicts of interest.

Funding Statement
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What’s new in breast pathology 2022: WHO 5th edition and biomarker updates

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Abstract

The 5th edition WHO Classification of Breast Tumours (2019) has introduced changes to our practices. Highlights are presented below, with a focus on modifications to morphological subtype categorization. In addition, we summarize important updates to ER and PR testing made in the 2020 ASCO/CAP guidelines, and briefly discuss PD-L1 and Ki-67 testing in breast cancer.

INVASIVE BREAST CARCINOMA WITH MEDULLARY PATTERN

- Medullary carcinoma, atypical medullary carcinoma, and carcinoma with medullary features were listed as special subtypes of breast carcinoma in the prior WHO. This diagnostic category has poor interobserver reproducibility; these tumors also show overlapping histologic features with carcinomas that have basal-like molecular profiles and carcinomas with BRCA1 mutations.
- Tumor infiltrating lymphocytes (TILs) may explain the good prognosis of these cancers.

NEUROENDOCRINE TUMORS

- True primary neuroendocrine (NE) neoplasms of the breast are rare. They are classified as well-differentiated NE tumors (carcinoid-like and atypical carcinoid-like) and poorly differentiated NE carcinomas (small cell neuroendocrine carcinoma and large cell neuroendocrine carcinoma).
- Distinct NE features and expression of NE markers by IHC are needed for diagnosis, since varying degrees of NE differentiation may be seen in IBC-NST, mucinous carcinomas, solid papillary carcinomas, and others.
- Metastasis must be ruled out before considering a primary breast NE tumor.
- Routine staining on IBC-NST that lacks characteristic NE morphological features is not recommended, due to the lack of clinical relevance.

WELL-DIFFERENTIATED LIPOSARCOMA IN PHYLLODES TUMOR

- Malignant heterologous elements are among the diagnostic criteria for malignant phyllodes tumor.
- Adipocytic differentiation in the stromal...
component of phyllodes tumor, that is morphologically indistinguishable from well-differentiated liposarcoma of soft tissue, has been found to lack the characteristic MDM2 and CDK4 amplifications seen in well-differentiated liposarcoma (Fig. 2).

- Based on recent molecular findings and evidence supporting low metastatic risk, the single criterion of well-differentiated liposarcomatous differentiation is no longer recommended for establishing the diagnosis of malignant phyllodes tumor.

**MUCINOUS CYSTADENOCARCINOMA**

- This recently described, rare, invasive breast cancer subtype is characterized by cystic spaces lined by neoplastic columnar epithelium with papillae and abundant intracellular and extracellular mucin.
- The tumor border is rounded/encapsulated but there is lack of myoepithelium throughout.
- Coexistent DCIS may be present and is helpful in supporting a breast origin.

**TALL CELL CARCINOMA WITH REVERSE POLARITY (TCCRP)**

- This recently described, rare, invasive breast cancer subtype has characteristic features that include solid nests of tumor, set in fibrous stroma, that have delicate fibrovascular cores lined by bland columnar epithelial cells (Fig. 3).
- Cells have abundant eosinophilic cytoplasm with nuclei present at the apical poles (i.e., reverse polarity) that may have grooves and inclusions.
- Despite low grade morphology, these tumors are positive for CK 5/6 and are triple negative for ER, PR, and HER2. IDH2 p.Arg172 hotspot mutations have been reported in 84% of tumors studied.

### PROGNOSTIC AND PREDICTIVE BIOMARKERS UPDATE

**PD-L1 (clone 22C3)**
- On July 26, 2021, the United States Food and Drug Administration (FDA) approved pembrolizumab for high-risk early-stage triple-negative breast cancer (TNBC) in combination with chemotherapy as neoadjuvant treatment; subsequently it was approved as a single agent adjuvant treatment.
- The FDA converted the accelerated approval of pembrolizumab, in combination with chemotherapy, for the treatment of locally recurrent unresectable or metastatic TNBC tumors that express PD-L1 (clone 22C3) with a combined positive score (CPS) ≥ 10.
- CPS is the number of PD-L1 staining cells (tumor cells, lymphocytes, macrophages) divided by the total number of viable tumor cells, multiplied by 100.

\[
\text{CPS} = \frac{\text{Total number of viable tumor cells}}{\text{Total number of PD-L1 staining cells}} \times 100
\]

**PD-L1 (clone SP142)**
- On August 27, 2021, Genentech withdrew its accelerated indication for atezolizumab plus nab-paclitaxel for the treatment of PD-L1 (clone SP142) positive advanced/metastatic TNBC.
**Ki-67 (clone MIB-1)**
- On October 13, 2021, the FDA approved abemaciclib plus endocrine therapy for hormone receptor positive, HER2 negative, node positive early breast cancer patients with a Ki-67 index ≥ 20%, who are at high risk for recurrence.
- The FDA approved companion diagnostic to abemaciclib is Ki-67 using the MIB-1 PharmDX/Dako Omnis antibody clone.

- 2020 ASCO/CAP ER/PR Guideline Update Highlights [1]
  - ER low-positive new reporting recommendation: “The cancer in this sample has a low level (1%–10%) of ER expression by IHC. There are limited data on the overall benefit of endocrine therapies for patients with low level (1%–10%) ER expression, but they currently suggest possible benefit, so patients are considered eligible for endocrine treatment. There are data that suggest invasive cancers with these results are heterogeneous in both behavior and biology and often have gene expression profiles more similar to ER-negative cancers.”
  - PR testing is optional in DCIS.
  - There is a new recommendation for laboratories to establish a specific protocol to ensure the validity of ER low-positive (1–10%) or negative (0 or < 1%) interpretations and results.

### Reference

Nuclear Features of Follicular Patterned Thyroid Tumors