

Genomics, Epigenetics and Molecular Considerations in Esophageal Adenocarcinoma: What You Need to Know?

Schizas D^{1,2}, Mylonas KS^{2,3}, Patelis N^{1*}, Sioulas A⁴ and Liakakos T¹

¹First Department of Surgery, Laiko General Hospital, National and Kapodistrian University of Athens, Athens, Greece

²Surgery Working Group, Society of Junior Doctors, Athens, Greece

³Department of Surgery, Massachusetts General Hospital, Harvard Medical School, Boston, MA, USA

⁴Department of Gastroenterology, Hygeia Hospital, Athens, Greece

Abstract

Esophageal malignancies are usually encountered in patients over 50 years old and are associated with significant morbidity and mortality. Efforts to improve patient outcomes are slowly shifted towards unravelling the molecular basis of esophageal cancer as this approach could lead to designing individualized treatment protocols and implementing precision medicine paradigms. Our aim was to present recent advances in esophageal adenocarcinoma genomics, epigenetics and molecular biology with regards to their role on disease pathophysiology, patient outcomes and applications to clinical care. Disease progression is correlated with missense mutations and in-frame deletions of EGFR, as well as with upregulation of a variety of genes (*CXCL1*, *CXCL3*, *GATA6* and *DMBT1*), microsatellite instability and telomerase overexpression. On the other hand, p53 loss of heterozygosity as well as *HER2* and *c-MYC* amplifications tend to develop in later stages of the disease and are associated with poor prognosis. Downregulation of *CDKN2A*, e-cadherin, *SMAD4*, *RUNX3* and aneuploidy/tetraploidy are also correlated with unfavorable outcomes. Lastly, p53 immunohistochemistry and methylation panels are already being applied in clinical practice.

Keywords: Esophageal cancer; Esophageal adenocarcinoma; Genomics; Epigenetics

Introduction

Esophageal malignancies are mostly seen in patients over 50 years old and constitute the eighth leading cause of cancer-related deaths worldwide [1,2]. Esophageal cancer (EC) is classified in two major histologic types, namely esophageal adenocarcinoma (EAC) and esophageal squamous cell carcinoma (ESCC) [3]. Gastroesophageal reflux disease is the main risk factor for development of Barrett's esophagus which is a precursor lesion of EAC, while tobacco smoking and alcohol abuse have been found to predispose to ESCC [2]. In recent years, significant progress has been made in increasing our understanding regarding the genetic aberrations that contribute to the development of esophageal carcinomas and account for their unfavorable prognosis. Interestingly, efforts to improve patient outcomes are slowly shifted towards uncovering the molecular basis of EC as this approach could lead to designing individualized treatment protocols and implementing precision medicine paradigms [4]. The aim of this short review article was to present recent advances in EAC genomics and epigenetics with regards to their role on disease pathophysiology, patient outcomes and applications to clinical care.

First of all, it has been long known that genetic mutations at the receptor level result in dysregulation of cell signaling pathways and aberrant cellular proliferation. The most common receptor mutations seen in early stages of EAC are activating missense mutations and in-frame deletions of the Epidermal Growth Factor Receptor (EGFR) [5]. On the other hand, *HER2* and *c-MYC* amplifications tend to develop in later stages of the disease and are associated with poor prognosis [6,7]. Interestingly, recent data seem to suggest that *HER2* and *EGFR* are frequently amplified synchronously and preferentially dimerize with one another [8]. As a result, it is not surprising that target therapy with *HER2* and *EGFR* inhibitors have showed promising results as adjuvant treatment options in EC [9,10].

Furthermore, EAC have been associated with inactivating mutations and under-expression of the *TGF-β1* receptor type II, which prevent cell cycle arrest and promote tissue invasion [11]. Notably,

downregulation of specific members of the *TGF-β* family, namely the *SMAD4* and *RUNX3* genes, has been correlated with high tumor recurrence and observed mortality rates [12,13].

Similarly, to numerous other malignancies, inactivation of the tumor suppressor *TP53* gene is also seen in EC leading to dysregulated cell cycle checkpoints and subsequent accumulation of unrepaired DNA damages. Although mutations resulting in p53 loss of heterozygosity (LOH) may develop even in premalignant stages of esophageal carcinoma, whole-genome and amplicon sequencing have revealed that these genetic aberrations occur more frequently in high grade tumors [14,15]. Interestingly, the British Society of Gastroenterology currently recommends p53 immunohistochemistry as part of routine assessment of Barrett esophagus and EAC as this has been shown to diminish diagnostic variability between pathologists [1,16]

EC has also been associated with loss of function of the *CDKN2A* gene, which encodes the regulator p16. These molecules inhibit the cyclin-dependent kinases *CDK4* and *CDK6* which in turn regulate progression from phase G to phase S of the cell cycle. *CDKN2A* under-expression seems to mainly occur through epigenetic modifications, particularly hypermethylation; while inactivating mutations tend to develop less commonly [17]. E-cadherin silencing usually occurs due to epigenetic changes as well, and is associated with high tumor grade and poor survival rates [18]. Furthermore, activation of the Wnt signaling pathway, which downregulates e-cadherins, usually occurs due to

***Corresponding author:** Dr. Nikolaos Patelis, First Department of Surgery, Laiko General Hospital, National and Kapodistrian University of Athens, Athens, Greece, Tel: 302132060800; E-mail: patelisin@me.com

Received February 16, 2017; **Accepted** March 03, 2017; **Published** March 07, 2017

Citation: Schizas D, Mylonas KS, Patelis N, Sioulas A, Liakakos T (2017) Genomics, Epigenetics and Molecular Considerations in Esophageal Adenocarcinoma: What You Need to Know? J Mol Genet Med 11: 252 doi:10.4172/1747-0862.1000252

Copyright: © 2017 Schizas D, et al. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited

over-expression of *cyclin D1*, *Sox-9*, *c-MYC* and the *WNT2* ligand [19]. Considering that *e-cadherins* are required for the maintenance of the adherens junction, under-expression of these molecules through the aforementioned mechanisms leads to the disruption of the adherens junction, loss of contact inhibition and, ultimately, aberrant cellular proliferation [18].

In addition to point mutations, large-scale chromosomal alterations also occur in EAC and influence their prognosis. Firstly, flow cytometry studies have showed strong correlation between aneuploidy/tetraploidy and low survival rates in patients with EAC [20]. Secondly, microsatellite instability appears to be a significant mechanism favoring progression from Barrett esophagus to invasive adenocarcinoma and seems to be encountered in approximately 7% of EAC cases [21]. Furthermore, the expression of telomerase, the enzyme responsible for telomere maintenance, is intensified as the disease progresses from metaplasia to full-blown EAC. Considering that telomere shortening is correlated with apoptosis, overexpression of this enzyme enables cancer cells to escape programmed death and provides unlimited replicative and proliferative potential [22].

Discussion

Upregulation of certain homeostatic genes, such as *CXCL1* and *CXCL3* (chemokine ligands), *GATA6* (transcription factor) and *DMBT1* (regulator protein of the immune system) has also been associated with progression from Barrett esophagus to invasive adenocarcinoma. Furthermore, methylation of number of other genes including *p16*, *RUNX3*, *HPPI*, *NELL1*, *TAC1*, *SST*, *AKAP12*, and *CDH13* has also been linked with progression to malignancy. Notably, methylation panels of the aforementioned genetic loci are currently being clinically used as biomarkers of EAC in certain high volume centers [23]. Interestingly, hypomethylation of noncoding DNA regions have been correlated with disease progression as well [24]. Last but not least, investigations regarding the role of microRNAs (miRNAs) in EC are also gaining traction. Particularly there are data suggesting that miR-25, miR-99a, miR-133a, and miR-133b have diagnostic potential, while miR-21, miR-27b, miR-126, miR-143, and miR-145 as a panel may be valuable as both diagnostic markers and predictors of disease progression [25].

Conclusion

In conclusion, genetic research in EC has yielded several promising results, with p53 immunohistochemistry and methylation panels already being applied in clinical practice. Future studies should focus not only on identifying more biomarkers, but also need to thoroughly assess target therapy as a means of improving patient outcomes.

References

1. Pusung M, Zeki S, Fitzgerald R (2016) Genomics of esophageal cancer and biomarkers for early detection. *Adv Exp Med Biol* 908: 237-263.
2. Spechler SJ (2013) Barrett esophagus and risk of esophageal cancer: A clinical review. *JAMA* 310(6): 627-636.
3. Kaz AM, Grady WM, Stachler M, Bass AJ (2015) Genetic and epigenetic alterations in Barrett's Esophagus and esophageal adenocarcinoma. *Gastroenterol Clin North Am* 44(2): 473-489.
4. Guo XT, He J (2016) Current status and prospect of treatment for esophageal cancer in the era of precision medicine. *Zhonghua Zhong Liu Za Zhi* 38(9): 641-645.
5. Kwak EL, Jankowski J, Thayer SP, Lauwers GY, Brannigan W, et al. (2006) Epidermal growth factor receptor kinase domain mutations in esophageal and pancreatic adenocarcinomas. *Clin Cancer Res* 12: 4283-4287.
6. Langer R, Rauser S, Feith M, Nahrig JM, Feuchtinger A, et al. (2011) Assessment of ErbB2 (Her2) in oesophageal adenocarcinomas: Summary of a revised immunohistochemical evaluation system, bright field double *in situ* hybridisation and fluorescence *in situ* hybridisation. *Mod Pathol* 24(7): 908-916.
7. Sarbia M, Arjumand J, Wolter M, Reifemberger G, Heep H, et al. (2001) Frequent *c-myc* amplification in high-grade dysplasia and adenocarcinoma in Barrett esophagus. *Am J Clin Pathol* 115(6): 835-840.
8. Kim J, Fox C, Peng S, Pusung M, Pectasides E, et al. (2014) Preexisting oncogenic events impact trastuzumab sensitivity in ERBB2-amplified gastroesophageal adenocarcinoma. *J Clin Invest* 124(12): 5145-5158.
9. Davidson M, Starling N (2016) Trastuzumab in the management of gastroesophageal cancer: Patient selection and perspectives. *Onco Targets Ther* 9: 7235-7245.
10. Zhang L, Ma J, Han Y, Liu J, Zhou W, et al. (2016) Targeted therapy in esophageal cancer. *Expert Rev Gastroenterol Hepatol* 10(5): 595-604.
11. Garrigue-Antar L, Souza RF, Vellucci VF, Meltzer SJ, Reiss M (1996) Loss of transforming growth factor-beta type II receptor gene expression in primary human esophageal cancer. *Lab Invest* 75(2): 263-272.
12. Singhi AD, Foxwell TJ, Nason K, Cressman KL, Mc-Grath KM, et al. (2015) Smad4 loss in esophageal adenocarcinoma is associated with an increased propensity for disease recurrence and poor survival. *Am J Surg Pathol* 39(4): 487-495.
13. Wang Y, Qin X, Wu J, Qi B, Tao Y, et al. (2014) Association of promoter methylation of *RUNX3* gene with the development of esophageal cancer: A meta-analysis. *PLoS One* 9(9): e107598.
14. Reid BJ, Prevo LJ, Galipeau PC, Sanchez CA, Longton G, et al. (2001) Predictors of progression in Barrett's esophagus II: baseline 17p (p53) loss of heterozygosity identifies a patient subset at increased risk for neoplastic progression. *Am J Gastroenterol* 96(10): 2839-2848.
15. Weaver JM, Ross-Innes CS, Shannon N, Lynch AG, Forshew T (2014) Ordering of mutations in preinvasive disease stages of esophageal carcinogenesis. *PLoS One* 9(8): 837-843.
16. Carlson DA, Pandolfino JE (2013) High-resolution manometry and esophageal pressure topography: filling the gaps of convention manometry. *Gastroenterol Clin North Am* 42(1): 1-15.
17. Hardie LJ, Darnton SJ, Wallis YL, Chauhan A, Hainaut P, et al. (2005) p16 expression in Barrett's esophagus and esophageal adenocarcinoma: association with genetic and epigenetic alterations. *Cancer Lett* 217(2): 221-230.
18. Krishnadath KK, Tilanus HW, Van Blankenstein M, Hop WC, Kremers ED, et al. (2006) Reduced expression of the cadherin-catenin complex in oesophageal adenocarcinoma correlates with poor prognosis. *J Pathol* 182(3): 331-338.
19. Moyes LH, Mc-Ewan H, Radulescu S, Pawlikowski J, Lamm CG, et al. (2012) Activation of Wnt signalling promotes development of dysplasia in Barrett's oesophagus. *J Pathol* 228(1): 99-112.
20. Flejou JF, Doublet B, Potet F, Metayer J, Hemet J (1990) DNA ploidy in adenocarcinoma of Barrett's esophagus. *Ann Pathol* 10(3): 161-165.
21. Dulak AM, Stojanov P, Peng S, Lawrence MS, Fox C, et al. (2013) Exome and whole-genome sequencing of esophageal adenocarcinoma identifies recurrent driver events and mutational complexity. *Nat Genet* 45(5): 478-486.
22. Morales CP, Lee EL, Shay JW (1998) *In situ* hybridization for the detection of telomerase RNA in the progression from Barrett's esophagus to esophageal adenocarcinoma. *Cancer* 83(4): 652-659.
23. Sato F, Jin Z, Schulmann K, Wang J, Greenwald BD, et al. (2008) Three-tiered risk stratification model to predict progression in Barrett's esophagus using epigenetic and clinical features. *PLoS One* 3(4): e1890.
24. Alvarez H, Opalinska J, Zhou L, Sohal D, Fazzari MJ, et al. (2011) Widespread hypomethylation occurs early and synergizes with gene amplification during esophageal carcinogenesis. *PLoS Genet* 7(3): e1001356.
25. Sakai NS, Samia-Aly E, Barbera M, Fitzgerald RCB (2013) A review of the current understanding and clinical utility of miRNAs in esophageal cancer. *Semin Cancer Biol* 23: 512-521.