Breast Cancer Risk Associated With CHEK2 Mutations

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ost efforts to identify individuals who have a hereditary predisposition for developing breast cancer had focused on the BRCA1 and BRCA2 genes. Less common susceptibility genes also are associated with increased risk for developing breast cancer, but until recently have often gone undetected. With the advent of next generation sequencing (NGS), many families with suspected hereditary risk are undergoing testing for multiple genes associated with increased cancer risk (Mahon, 2013a). One gene that is commonly included on NGS hereditary breast cancer panels is CHEK2. Increasingly, oncology nurses will encounter patients and families affected with mutations on this gene and need to understand the implications it has for screening and treatment.

Biology of the CHEK2 Gene

The official name of *CHEK2* is checkpoint kinase 2 (Shannon & Chittenden, 2012). The cytogenetic location of *CHEK2* is 22q12.1, which means it is located on the long (q) arm of chromosome 22 at position 12.1 from base pair 28,687,742 to base pair 28,741,833. *CHEK2* was first linked to breast cancer susceptibility in 2002, and commercial testing is now readily available (Narod, 2010). This gene is passed from generation to generation through autosomal dominant transmission.

The CHEK2 gene provides instructions for making a protein called checkpoint kinase 2, which interacts directly with BRCA1. That protein acts as a tumor suppressor and regulates cell division by keeping cells from growing and dividing too rapidly or in an uncontrolled way. The CHEK2 protein can be activated when either DNA

becomes damaged or when breakage of the DNA strands occurs during replication processes when chromosomes exchange genetic material. DNA damage occurs for multiple reasons, including exposure to toxic chemicals, radiation, or ultraviolet light. The CHEK2 gene is activated by the ATM gene, in response to double stranded breaks (Gage, Wattendorf, & Henry, 2012). CHEK2 is in the middle of a pathway that functions to detect and then determine the cellular response to DNA damage (Tung & Silver, 2011). CHEK2 interacts with several other proteins, including the TP53 gene. Together, the CHEK2, TP53, and other proteins in the pathway halt cell division and determine whether a cell will repair the damage or undergo apoptosis. Ultimately, this process prevents cells with mutated DNA from dividing and forming tumors.

Cancer Risks Associated With CHEK2

Inherited mutations in the CHEK2 gene have been identified in some cases of breast cancer, particularly in European populations. The most commonly seen CHEK2 mutation is associated with the deletion of a single nucleotide at position 1100, known as 1100delC. This is considered a founder mutation and is most commonly found in Caucasian individuals of Northern and Eastern European origin, including descendants of Europeans, such as French Canadians, Jews, and Brazilians (Apostolou & Fostira, 2013; Bodmer & Tomlinson, 2010; Narod, 2010). The 1100delC mutation is known to lead to the production of an abnormally short, nonfunctional version of the CHEK2 protein. Without this protein, cells are unable to regulate cell division properly. The CHEK2 variant 1100delC is estimated to account for about 5% of cases of non-BRCA breast cancer in German populations (Márquez-Rodas, Solís, Cobo, & Martín, 2012). Three other founder variants of CHEK2, IVS2_1G_A, del5395, and I157T, are associated with increased breast cancer risk and also have been associated with breast cancer in Eastern European populations. Two of these (IVS2_1G_A and del5395) are protein-truncating mutations, and one (I157T) is a missense variant (Cybulski et al., 2011).

Penetrance of the various *CHEK2* mutations is variable and usually incomplete (Maxwell & Nathanson, 2013). Mutations in *CHEK2* are considered of medium penetrance and occur with medium frequency for genetic mutations associated with hereditary breast cancer (Gage et al., 2012). *CHEK2* mutations are associated with almost a 3-fold increase (25%) in the risk of breast cancer in women and a 10-fold increase in the risk of breast cancer in men (Narod, 2010). The risk is higher when more family members are affected with breast cancer.

For carriers of a mutation in *CHEK2*, the risk of breast cancer for females with a positive family history of breast cancer is greater than that for a carrier of the same mutation who has no family history of breast cancer (Narod, 2010). Women who are homozygous for this mutation have a significantly higher six-fold risk of developing breast cancer (Lalloo & Evans, 2012). This finding has led to the reasoning that *CHEK2* is a modifier of other (possibly unidentified) susceptibility genes for breast cancer. For this reason, during genetic counseling, a relatively higher risk of breast cancer

ONF, 41(6), 692–694. doi: 10.1188/14.ONF.692-694 will be estimated for a carrier of a *CHEK2* mutation if the patient's family history is strong. Limited data suggest that *CHEK2* mutations may be protective against lung cancer (Narod, 2010).

Implications for Nurses

Identification of individuals and families at risk for hereditary breast cancer includes a comprehensive family history of three generations that documents age at onset for a diagnosis of all cancers. Key indicators of hereditary risk include early age of onset of breast cancer, multiple affected generations, multiple family members affected with breast cancer, an excess of bilateral breast cancer, and a diagnosis of male breast cancer. Such families, where hereditary risk is suspected, should be referred to credentialed genetics professionals for further evaluation. Such professionals include master's-prepared genetics counselors and advance practice nurses with an advance practice nurse in genetics (APNG) credential (Mahon, 2013b).

Oncology nurses should anticipate that, following genetic risk assessment and counseling, many of these families will undergo genetic testing. The norm is now to order NGS panel testing, which includes high-penetrance, high-risk genes such as the BRCA1 and BRCA2, as well as moderate-risk, moderatepenetrance genes such as CHEK2. Such testing will continue to identify more and more families affected with deleterious mutations in the CHEK2 gene. Once a mutation is detected in a family, singlesite testing can identify other family members who potentially have increased risk for developing breast cancer.

Mutations in CHEK2 are associated with moderate penetrance and risk of developing breast cancer. The risk of developing breast cancer is variable and probably less than 50% in most families (Narod, 2010). With this level of risk, increased surveillance with more frequent professional examinations (ideally by a breast surgeon), as well as earlier mammography and breast magnetic resonance imaging, are appropriate surveillance recommendations (Cybulski et al., 2011). In general, prevention strategies, such as prophylactic mastectomies, cannot be recommended with current data (Apostolou & Fostira, 2013; Hollestelle, Wasielewski, Martens, & Schutte, 2010). Offering prophylactic surgery to women is very controversial when they have less than a 50% lifetime risk of developing breast cancer for which reasonable screening is associated with early detection when treatment is most likely to be effective (Cybulski et al., 2011).

Women without cancer could be considered to be candidates for tamoxifen, although no randomized trials have been conducted to assess the effectiveness of tamoxifen in *CHEK2* carriers. The age at which to begin prophylaxis is not clear and consideration should be given to the woman's family history because it may be associated with early onset breast cancer. This recommendation is based on the observation that about 70% of *CHEK2* cancers are estrogen and progesterone positive (Narod, 2010; Tung & Silver, 2011).

At present, it is difficult to predict the clinical course of CHEK2-related breast cancer or provide the patient with information about the prognosis and natural history of such a cancer. Some anecdotal evidence shows that a breast cancer associated with a CHEK2 mutation may have a poorer prognosis and be associated with decreased survival (Narod, 2010). For those individuals diagnosed with breast cancer, an estimated risk of about 1% per year exists for a second primary breast cancer (Narod, 2010). No clinical trials have been conducted to determine if breast cancers associated with CHEK2 mutations have a better response to specific chemotherapy agents. For this reason, women with breast cancer are treated with conventional chemotherapy protocols based on the histologic and pathologic characteristics of the tumor. Because CHEK2 carriers with breast cancer have an increased risk of a second primary breast cancer, it is reasonable to consider tamoxifen for prevention following their definitive treatment for breast cancer (Cybulski et al., 2011).

Deleterious *CHEK2* mutations have also been associated with an increased risk of developing prostate cancer (Narod, 2010). If a man has a *CHEK2* mutation and a first-degree relative with prostate cancer, prostate screening should be considered based on the age of onset in the family and should include both digital rectal examination and prostate specific antigen testing.

The full range of cancers associated with *CHEK2* mutations has not yet been fully identified, but evidence shows that *CHEK2* increases the risk for thyroid and kidney cancers (Narod, 2010). Providers

should be aware of these possible increased risks, but no formal recommendations for screening have been made.

Conclusion

Genetic counseling for CHEK2 is very challenging and associated with uncertainty for the patient because the risk of cancer depends not only on whether or not the individual has the mutation, but also on the patient's family history of breast cancer. Families need support as they try to understand these findings. Early identification of individuals at increased risk of breast cancer because of CHEK2 mutations may lead to enhanced screening and prevention strategies and potentially improved overall survival for this group of patients. Genetic counseling for most of these moderate-risk, moderate-penetrance new genes can be complicated. Further evaluation and genetic analysis in large series of patients will determine actual cancer risks and optimal management strategies. Patients with known mutations should be instructed to check with their healthcare provider and genetics professional on a regular basis to determine if there are changes in the recommendations for surveillance or prevention.

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Genetics & Genomics

This feature aims to educate oncology nurses about the emerging role of genetics and genomics in cancer care. Possible submissions include, but are not limited to, application of genetics and genomics in clinical practice, screening and surveillance, case studies to present new ideas or challenge current notions, and ethical issues. Manuscripts should clearly link the content to the impact on cancer care. Manuscripts should be 1,000–1,500 words, exclusive of tables and figures, and accompanied by a cover letter requesting consideration for this feature. For more information, contact Associate Editor Lisa B. Aiello, RN, MSN, AOCNS®, APN-C, at lba34@ drexel.edu.