

Indications and timing for genetic testing in ovarian cancer

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ABSTRACT

Modern management of ovarian cancer (OC) relies on molecular diagnostics, with genetic testing playing a central role in therapeutic decisions. High-grade serous ovarian cancer (HGSOC) is frequently associated with mutations in the *BRCA1* and *BRCA2* genes, as well as other alterations within the homologous recombination repair (HRR) pathway. The identification of pathogenic variants is critical for selecting patients eligible for treatment with poly (ADP-ribose) polymerase inhibitors (PARPi), which significantly improve progression-free survival, especially in individuals with *BRCA* mutations and homologous recombination deficiency (HRD).

Current guidelines recommend *BRCA* testing at diagnosis for all patients with HGSOC, followed by HRD testing. Various techniques are used to assess genetic alterations and HRD status. Commercial tests assess mutations in genes in HRR pathways, genomic instability, or HRR functional status to quantify HRD.

Despite the availability of these assays, challenges remain regarding test standardisation, predictive accuracy, and cost-effectiveness. Moreover, emerging research highlights the potential for artificial intelligence (AI) to enhance molecular profiling, utilising whole-slide imaging (WSI) and deep learning to predict homologous recombination deficiency (HRD) and other tumour characteristics.

The integration of molecular subtypes, as defined by The Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA), into routine clinical practice holds promise for tailoring therapy beyond *BRCA* or homologous recombination deficiency (HRD) status. As the field advances, comprehensive genetic testing combined with AI-driven analytics may become the cornerstone of precision oncology in ovarian cancer.

Introduction

The aetiology of ovarian cancer (OC) involves a combination of genetic, reproductive, hormon-

al, and environmental factors. Genetic predispositions, particularly mutations in the *BRCA1* and *BRCA2* genes, play a significant role in its development [1]. High-grade serous epithelial ovarian

cancer (HGSOC) is the most common and aggressive subtype. Characteristic molecular abnormalities in HGSOC include germline and somatic mutations in the *BRCA1* or *BRCA2* genes, *BRCA1* promoter methylation, and alterations in other genes involved in DNA repair through homologous recombination (HR) [2,3]. *TP53* gene mutations are found in up to 96% of HGSOC cases [4]. Among many identified genes whose alterations are related to OC pathogenesis are *NF1*, *CDK12*, *RB1*, *CHEK2*, *RAD51*, *BRIP1*, *PALB2*, and *CCNE1* [5–11]. Alterations in *BRCA* and other genes associated with homologous recombination play a crucial role in determining appropriate adjuvant therapy [12] and genetic counselling for affected individuals' families [13].

Modern OC treatment is not possible without genetic diagnostics. Recent targeted therapies, such as PARP inhibitors (PARPi), exploit genetic disorders associated with *BRCA* mutations

and other genes involved in DNA repair through homologous recombination [14,15]. This underscores the importance of research on molecular disorders in OC and the ongoing efforts to integrate these findings into clinical practice. This study aims to summarise the genetic diagnostics used in managing OC.

Relevance of molecular testing in treatment planning

The management of OC depends on the stage of the disease. Primary debulking surgery is performed for operable tumours, followed by adjuvant chemotherapy, potentially combined with an antiangiogenic agent – bevacizumab. If complete cytoreduction is not possible, treatment begins with neoadjuvant chemotherapy, followed by interval debulking surgery [16,17]. Patients with

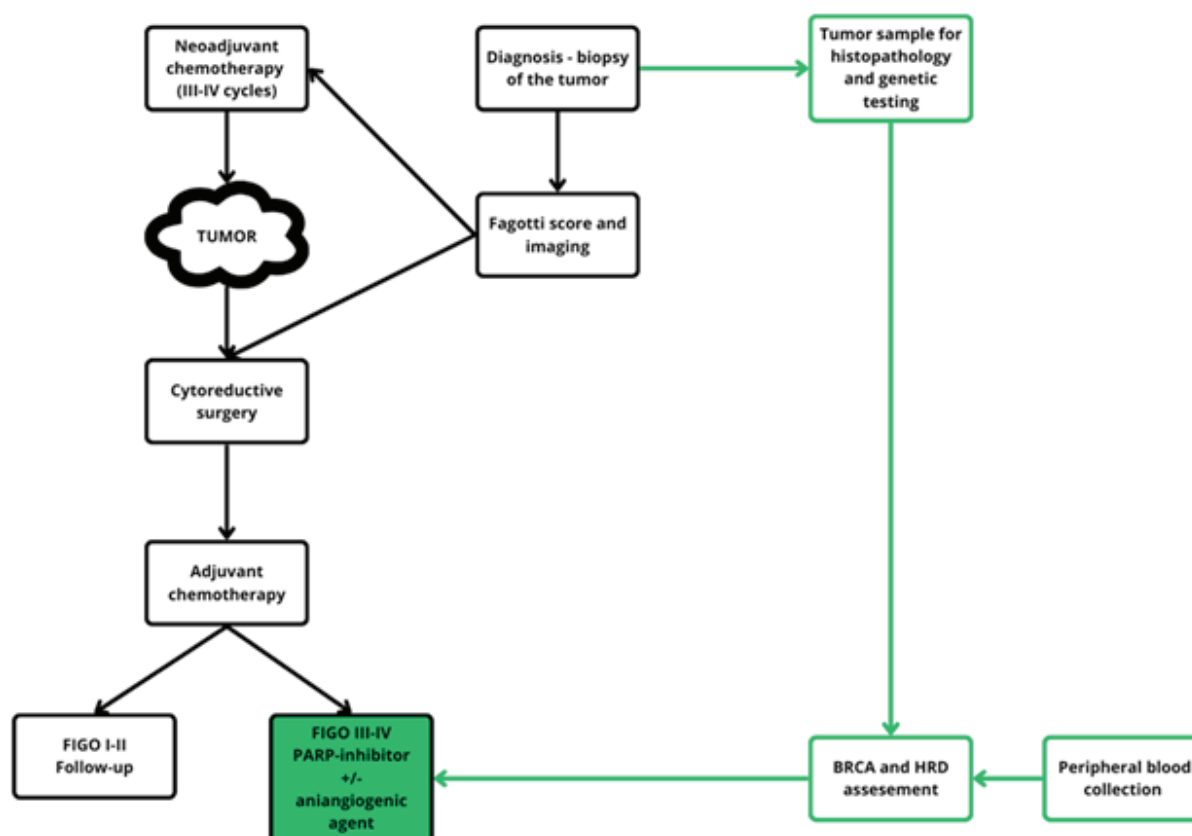


Figure 1. Ovarian cancer treatment algorithm including molecular diagnostics. Treatment of ovarian cancer must be preceded by histopathological confirmation. Molecular diagnostics should be performed on the initial biopsy, which should contain a sufficient amount of tumour tissue—at least 30% tumour cells—to ensure material for analysis. This enables the assessment of eligibility for PARP inhibitor therapy. The result should ideally be available by the third cycle of chemotherapy, as this is when the decision is made regarding the use of the PAOLA-1 treatment regimen. Peripheral blood analysis is used to determine whether the detected mutations are of somatic or germline origin.

advanced disease (FIGO III, IV) who have responded to platinum-based chemotherapy are eligible for maintenance therapy with poly (ADP-ribose) polymerase (PARP) inhibitors [14,15]. Patients with *BRCA1/2* mutation or another HR deficiency benefit more from PARPi than from maintenance therapy with bevacizumab. Therefore, genetic testing results are necessary for the treatment decision process. For this reason, every patient diagnosed with OC should be tested for *BRCA1/2* gene variants. The assessment should determine whether the abnormality is somatic or germline in origin. In the case of a typical *BRCA1/2* sequence, a homologous recombination deficit (HRD) status evaluation is required [18].

BRCA1 and BRCA2 genes

The *BRCA* genes belong to the class of tumour suppressor genes. Germline mutations in these genes significantly increase the familial risk of developing breast and OC, known as hereditary breast and ovarian cancer syndrome (HBOC) [19]. A mutation in the *BRCA1* gene increases the lifetime risk of developing OC to 39–58%, while a *BRCA2* mutation raises this risk to 13–29% [20]. *BRCA1/2* gene mutations are present in approximately one-quarter of patients with OC [21]. Approximately three-quarters of these mutations are germline, while the remaining one-quarter are somatic [22].

In clinical practice, detecting a pathogenic *BRCA* gene variant enables the implementation of PARP inhibitor therapy [4,14]. Based on the results of the SOLO-1 trial, olaparib is indicated as a first-line maintenance treatment in women with somatic or germline *BRCA*-mutated advanced OC after first-line platinum-based chemotherapy [23]. The SOLO-2 trial demonstrated the benefits of olaparib for second-line maintenance treatment in patients with germline *BRCA* mutations who had responded to platinum-based chemotherapy [24]. The PRIMA trial showed the benefit of niraparib across all patient populations, including those with HR proficiency, though the effect was moderate in this group [25].

It is worth noting that mutations in other genes that interact with the *BRCA* genes may also be associated with an increased risk of ovarian cancer. *BRIP1*, also referred to as *BACH1* (*BRCA1*-

Associated C-Terminal Helicase), was identified during investigations of *BRCA1* gene functions. The BRCT domain of *BRIP1* is essential for its interaction with *BRCA1*, forming a protein complex that facilitates the repair of double-stranded DNA breaks through, among others, HR pathways. Mutations affecting the BRCT domains disrupt this interaction, thereby impairing DNA repair processes [26,27]. *BRIP1* pathogenic variants have been related to hereditary breast and ovarian cancers that are independent of *BRCA1/2* mutations. Individuals carrying heterozygous deleterious variants in *BRIP1* have an elevated risk of developing ovarian cancer [26]. The carriers have an estimated 5–15% lifetime risk, significantly higher than the approximate 2% risk observed in the general population [28]. The PALB2 protein (Partner And Localizer of *BRCA2*) plays a crucial role in HR. Its primary function is to act as a molecular bridge linking the *BRCA* complex, comprising *BRCA1*, *PALB2*, *BRCA2*, and *RAD51*, and to support the activity of *RAD51*, a key protein involved in strand invasion during HR [29]. Women harbouring *PALB2* mutations face a lifetime ovarian cancer risk of approximately 5% [30]. Given shared mechanisms, carriers of *BRIP1* and *PALB2* pathogenic variants should be included in *BRCA1/2*-based therapies and trials as they can potentially benefit from them [31,32].

BRCA variants testing

The diagnosis of pathogenic variants in the *BRCA* genes can be performed using various techniques. Classical methods, such as Sanger sequencing or quantitative polymerase chain reaction (qPCR), are used as a first step in population-based screening or for confirming variants identified through next-generation sequencing (NGS) [33–36]. A key limitation of these techniques is their ability to detect only selected pathogenic variants, typically those most common in a given population, including so-called founder mutations [36]. Hence, some less common but pathogenic variants remain undetected. A negative result from those methods should prompt further diagnostic evaluation using NGS. This approach allows the comprehensive analysis of the entire coding sequence of the *BRCA* genes. This is particularly important given their

large size. Moreover, clinically significant variants can be distributed throughout the whole coding region [36–38]. Another advantage of NGS is the possibility of analysing other genes associated with OC pathogenesis in panel sequencing that, in addition to *BRCA1/2*, may include *RAD51C/D*, *BRIP1*, and *PALB2* [39,40]. Multiplex ligation-dependent probe amplification (MLPA) is typically employed to detect large chromosomal rearrangements in *BRCA* genes [41].

The clinical relevance of specific *BRCA* gene variants is classified. These include pathogenic or likely pathogenic variants (*BRCAmut*) and the absence of such variants, referred to as wild type (*BRCAwt*) [26]. Further diagnostic steps determine whether the mutation is somatic (*sBRCAmut*) or germline (*gBRCAmut*) [27]. Tumour-only testing (*tBRCAmut*) [28] cannot determine the somatic or germline nature of the mutation. Molecular testing of the host genome, typically from peripheral blood, is required to identify the germline nature of the variant. According to The American College of Medical Genetics and Genomics and the Association for Molecular Pathology (ACMG/AMP) guidelines, variants are classified using a five-tier scale as benign (B, class 1), likely benign (LB, class 2), variant of unknown significance (VUS, class 3), likely pathogenic (LP, class 4), and pathogenic (P, class 5) [29]. Pathogenic variants (PVs) in the *BRCA1* and *BRCA2* genes are detected in 10–15% of unselected epithelial OC cases [42]. Patients with likely pathogenic and pathogenic variants are eligible for treatment with PARP inhibitors [30]. It should be noted, however, that specific variants of unknown significance may be considered pathogenic in the future as the number of patients with such a variant grows. Therefore, those patients and their families may require increased monitoring, especially if other cases appear to suggest a hereditary syndrome.

Homologous recombination deficit

From a practical perspective, detecting HRD allows qualifying patients for PARPi therapy [14,15]. Based on the results of the PRIMA trial, niraparib can be used as maintenance therapy for all patients, including those with HRD and HRP tumours [25]. The PAOLA-1 trial demonstrated

the efficacy of olaparib in combination with bevacizumab compared to bevacizumab monotherapy. Based on the results of this study, the drug combination has been approved for HRD-positive patients who respond to first-line platinum-based chemotherapy [43].

The detection of recombination defects remains a significant challenge. Identification of patients, beyond carriers of *BRCA1/2* gene mutations, who may benefit from maintenance therapy remains ineffective [44]. HRD test results are often inconclusive due to differences between available tests and the lack of standardised criteria for defining HRD [18]. Studies involving niraparib, olaparib, and veliparib utilised the *myChoice* test developed by Myriad Genetic Laboratories [45–47]. This test detects mutations in the *BRCA1/2* genes. It determines the Genomic Instability Score (GIS), which is based on the extent of loss of heterozygosity, the number of subchromosomal regions with allele imbalance extending to the telomere, and the number of large-scale genomic rearrangements. [44]. Different clinical trials have applied varying threshold values for the GIS determined by the *myChoice* test to define the presence of homologous recombination deficiency (42 in the PAOLA-1 trial and 33 in the VELIA trial), highlighting the lack of clarity in patient stratification based on this metric [45,47]. Another test, *FoundationFocus CDxBRCA* by Foundation Medicine, is based on the assessment of subchromosomal loss of heterozygosity and the detection of *BRCA1/2* mutations in tumour tissue [44] and was utilised in the clinical trial evaluating the efficacy of rucaparib [48]. In contrast, the PRIME clinical trial of niraparib employed the *BGI Genomics* test [49]. There are substantial differences among these assays, and their negative predictive value remains low [44]. Consequently, accurately identifying patients who will not respond to treatment remains challenging.

The currently used methods rely on so-called genomic "scars" (indicators of genomic instability), which are static and may not accurately reflect the current status of DNA repair in the tumour. These genetic features may change throughout the disease and in response to applied treatments [50]. Tests may yield false-positive or false-negative results (estimated in 10–15% of cases). Moreover, the heterogeneity within tumour cells

can lead to different classifications of the same tumour depending on the biopsy site [51].

HRD testing should be performed as early as possible following the diagnosis of OC, ideally at the time of primary diagnosis. A stepwise diagnostic approach is also acceptable if molecular testing of the *BRCA* genes is conducted first. If the tumour is *BRCA* wild type (*BRCAwt*), HRD testing is subsequently performed. Economic considerations primarily justify this approach. However, current reports on cost-effectiveness are inconsistent [52–54].

HRD testing methods

The currently used tests for HRD status assessment can be categorised into three main groups – assessing mutations in genes in HRR pathways, genomic instability, or HRR functional status by nuclear RAD51 tests [18,55–57].

The first group is based on the detection of typical causes of HRD. They assess the loss of function of germline and somatic mutations in the HRR pathway genes, including *BRCA1/2* [18] and *BRCA1* promoter methylation [57]. However, it is worth noting that the lack of mutations in those genes should not be considered equivalent to HRP status.

The second group determines the HRD by calculating the genomic instability (GI) score [58]. It is calculated as the sum of events collectively referred to as “genomic scars”. These are loss of heterozygosity (LOH), large-scale state transition (LST), and telomere allele imbalance (TAI) [18,55,58]. These disorders reflect the abnormalities occurring in HRD cells.

LOH is a frequent genetic condition in cancer cells [59]. It occurs when a heterozygous genetic locus loses one of its parental alleles, resulting in homozygosity. The remaining allele's dysfunction can lead to a neoplastic transformation. LOH can be categorised into two primary types: LOH with copy number loss (CNL-LOH) and copy number neutral LOH (CNN-LOH). During cancer progression, tumour cells may experience the loss of an allele due to partial chromosomal deletion, which characterises CNL-LOH. Subsequently, CNL-LOH may undergo recombination, utilising the homologous chromosome as a template for repair, leading to copy number neutral LOH (CNN-LOH) [18,59,60].

Large-scale transitions (LST) refer to significant chromosomal modifications, including translocations, inversions, and deletions resulting from chromosomal breakage events. These alterations involve chromosomal gains or losses of at least 10 megabases (Mb) in size [61,62].

In cells with proficient DNA repair mechanisms, double-strand breaks are accurately repaired through homologous recombination, using the identical sister chromatid as a template, thereby preventing telomeric allelic imbalance (TAI). However, error-prone pathways are utilised when DNA repair is impaired in HRD, resulting in chromosomal rearrangements and abnormal radial chromosome formations. After mitotic division, this defective repair leads to TAI, characterised by an unequal contribution of parental telomeric chromosome segments in the daughter cells [63].

The third group of tests assesses the HRR status by nuclear RAD51 functional tests [55,18]. The RAD51 family comprises five paralogous proteins (RAD51B, RAD51C, RAD51D, XRCC2, and XRCC3) that mediate DNA damage signalling to facilitate break repair. RAD51 is the key protein in homologous recombination, playing a crucial role in cellular damage sensing and checkpoint signalling pathways [64,65]. Consequently, cell phenotypes resembling those of *BRCA*-mutated cells can also result from other, less common alterations, such as mutations in *PALB2*, *RAD51C*, and *RAD51D* or the epigenetic silencing of HR genes [66]. When homologous recombination repair functions correctly, RAD51 assembles into nuclear foci, indicating HRR proficiency (HRP). Conversely, the absence of nuclear foci signifies HRR deficiency [64].

Numerous commercial tests are available to assess HRD in OC patients. *MyChoice® CDx Plus* and *FoundationOne® CDx* were the first tests approved by the FDA for this purpose. *MyChoice® CDx Plus* is based on sequencing 15 HRR genes and a genome-wide single-nucleotide polymorphism-based assay (GW-SNP). HRD is determined based on a *BRCAMut* result or a genome instability score (GIS) ≥ 42 . GIS is evaluated as a combined score of LOH, TAI, and LST [67]. *FoundationOne® CDx* analyses 324 genes using next-generation sequencing (NGS) and a genome-wide single-nucleotide polymorphism-based assay (GW-SNP). HRD is defined by the presence of a *BRCAMut*

variant or a genome-wide loss of heterozygosity (gLOH) score of $\geq 16\%$ [67,68].

Several other commercially available tests are designed to assess homologous recombination deficiency (HRD). *OncoDEEP®* utilises next-generation sequencing (NGS) to assess 638 genes and an RNA-based 20-gene panel for detecting gene fusions and splicing events. The test evaluates *BRCA* status and determines the genome instability score (GIS) based on a developed algorithm [67,69]. *SeqONE HRD* utilises NGS and shallow whole genome sequencing (sWGS) to assess *BRCA* and HRD status, which is based on a composite score of LOH and LGA (large genomic alterations) and genes *CCNE1* and *RAD51B* amplification at two specific locations [67,70]. *SOPHiA DDM™ Dx HRD CE-IVD* performs next-generation sequencing (NGS) analysis of 324 selected genes and shallow whole-genome sequencing (sWGS). HRD assessment is conducted based on a proprietary algorithm [67,71]. *HRD Focus* utilises next-generation sequencing (NGS) to detect *BRCA* gene mutations and assess genomic instability using a genome-wide single-nucleotide polymorphism-based assay (GW-SNP). HRD is defined by the presence of *BRCAMut* or a genome scar score (GSS) ≥ 50 [67,72]. *Caris HRD Status* determines the presence of *BRCA* mutations and assesses a GSS based on gLOH and LST [67]. *The AmoyDx® HRD Complete Panel* detects genetic alterations in 20 HRR genes and determines overall HRD status. Its proprietary GIS algorithm, based on machine learning, evaluates

genomic instability by analysing multiple types of copy number variations across the genome [73]. In addition to the tests described above, several established assays are currently used for academic purposes. These include the *Geneva HRD Test*, *NOGGO GIS Assay*, *GIScar*, *Leuven HRD test*, *Shallow HRDv2*, and *BRCA-Like Classifier* [67].

Molecular subtypes of ovarian cancer according to TCGA analysis – potential expansion of genetic diagnostics

The TCGA (The Cancer Genome Atlas) database and its analysis have significantly benefited gynecologic oncology by identifying molecular subtypes of endometrial cancer, which now directly influence clinical decision-making [74,75]. Given these advancements, it is no surprise that gynecologic oncologists are increasingly interested in further utilising the resources of this database. Based on the analysis of data from TCGA, four molecular subtypes of OC have been identified: mesenchymal, proliferative, immunoreactive, and differentiated [4]. The mesenchymal subtype is characterised by high expression of *HOX* genes (a group of genes responsible for the morphological development of specific body parts during early embryonic stages) and markers suggesting increased stromal components (such as *FAP*, *ANGPTL2*, and *ANGPTL1* genes). The proliferative

Table 1 – Summary of commercial and academic tests for assessing HRD based on "Homologous recombination deficiency in ovarian cancer: Global expert consensus on testing and a comparison of companion diagnostics" [67].

Tests for assessing HRD			
Approved Commercial Tests	HRD definition	Academic Tests	HRD definition
MyChoice® CDx Plus	BRCAM and/or GIS ≥ 42	Geneva HRD Test	GIS ≥ 15
OncoDEEP®	GIS > 39	NOGGO GIS Assay	NOGGO GIS ≥ 83
SeqONE HRD	BRCAM and/or HRD status (probability $\geq 50\%$; based on composite score and gene amplification at two locations)	GIScar	GIScar score ≥ 0.48
SOPHiA DDM™ Dx HRD CE-IVD	GII > 0	Leuven HRD test	BRCAM and/or GIS ≥ 56
FoundationOne® CDx	BRCAM and/or gLOH score $\geq 16\%$	Shallow HRDv2	> 20 LGAs
HRD Focus	BRCAM and/or a GSS ≥ 50	BRCA-Like Classifier	Posterior probability > 0.5
Caris HRD Status	BRCAM or high GSS		

BRCAM, *BRCA* mutation; CDx, companion diagnostic; GI, genome instability; GII, genome instability index; GIS, genome instability score; gLOH, genomic loss of heterozygosity; GSS, genome scar score; HRD, homologous recombination deficiency; HRR, homologous recombination repair; indel, insertion or deletion; LGA, large genomic alterations

subtype exhibits high expression of transcription factors such as HMGA2 and SOX11 and proliferation markers like MCM2 and PCNA. However, it shows low expression of OC markers, including MUC1 and MUC16.

Additionally, this subtype is associated with a reduced frequency of *MYC* amplification and *RB1* deletion. The presence of T-cell ligands CXCL11 and CXCL10, along with their receptor CXCR3, defines the immunoreactive subtype. Moreover, 3q26.2 amplification (MECOM) occurs more frequently in this subtype. The differentiated subtype is characterised by higher differentiation features, including increased expression of MUC1, MUC16, and the secretory fallopian tube marker SLPI [4].

The current standard of care does not use information on molecular subtypes of OC defined in the TCGA project. It has been demonstrated that patients with mesenchymal and proliferative subtypes derive more significant benefits from bevacizumab treatment [76–78]. Furthermore, the mesenchymal subtype is more responsive to dose-dense taxane chemotherapy, which suggests that the preferred treatment regimen should be dose-dense paclitaxel with carboplatin (ddTC) [79,80]. The possibility of routine molecular subtype profiling could be helpful in clinical decision-making. The main obstacles include costs and technical challenges, particularly those related to standardising the methodology [79,81]. Conducting specialised tests, such as using microarrays solely for this purpose, may be challenging [82]. Attempts have been made to histopathologically profile ovarian tumours based on their molecular subtypes, which could facilitate access to knowledge about specific tumour biology [80].

Artificial intelligence in molecular profiling of ovarian cancer

Artificial intelligence (AI), particularly machine learning, is increasingly utilised in medicine to support diagnostics and treatment planning. Learning algorithms can identify patterns that may be imperceptible to human experts. These techniques are applied in areas such as radiological image analysis, disease progression prediction, and personalised therapy [83,84]. Several studies have integrated genomics, epigenomics, transcriptomics, and clinical or pathological data

to enhance the diagnosis, prognosis, and prediction of treatment response in OC. Approaches using machine learning and deep learning demonstrated that multiomics models outperform single-omics models in tasks such as survival prediction, subtype classification, and response to therapy [85,86]. AI techniques have the potential to effectively surpass classical methods of identifying patients with HRD.

An example of this is DeepHRD, a platform trained to predict HRD from hematoxylin and eosin (H&E)-stained histopathological slides. Compared to four standard molecular tests, this model identified more tumours exhibiting HRD-related features [87]. AI utilises the analysis of histopathological images obtained through Whole Slide Imaging (WSI), which involves scanning and digitising entire histology slides [88–90]. Algorithms identify morphological patterns associated with HRD, such as hemorrhagic necrosis at tumour margins, lymphocytic infiltration, fibrosis, and high tumour cell density [89]. There are also ongoing efforts to apply machine learning and neural networks for classifying ovarian cancers into distinct subgroups and for analysing data derived from single-cell image analysis [91–93]. It is essential to emphasise the critical role of building large-scale databases that include macroscopic and microscopic images and omics data, such as TCGA.

Conclusions

Molecular diagnostics are now essential for planning the treatment of patients diagnosed with OC. Molecular profiling is crucial for implementing maintenance therapy as part of first-line treatment. *BRCA* and HRD testing are fundamental in guiding treatment decisions, particularly in selecting patients for PARP inhibitor therapy. *BRCA1* and *BRCA2* mutations and homologous recombination deficiency (HRD) are key predictive biomarkers that determine responsiveness to targeted therapies.

Focusing on alternative molecular pathways is equally essential as targeting *BRCA* mutations and HRD-related alterations in OC. This is particularly relevant for patients who are resistant to PARP inhibitors or do not meet the criteria for this treatment. Additionally, research into

OC subtypes other than HGSOC is crucial, as BRCA mutations and HRD are less prevalent in these tumours. Targeted therapies tailored to the unique molecular characteristics of non-HGSOC remain underdeveloped, highlighting the need for further studies. AI models play an increasingly important role in the diagnosis, prognosis, and personalisation of OC treatment, particularly by integrating omics, imaging, and clinical data.

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Conflict of interest statement

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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