Review

Veronique Bataille MD PhD FRCP Senior Research Fellow, Kings College, London; Consultant Dermatologist, West Hertfordshire Hospitals NHS Trust

The genetics of skin cancer

Like all cancers, melanoma can cluster in some families, with 10% of melanoma cases reporting a family history. The hunt for melanoma genes started in the early nineties, when it was observed that many melanomas lost similar chromosomal regions. This article describes progress in our understanding of the genetics of melanoma.

Germline mutations in rare high-penetrance genes

Early cytogenetic studies documenting regions of chromosomal loss in melanomas, in conjunction with linkage analyses based on melanoma families led to the discovery, in 1994, of a major tumour suppressor gene, p16 (also known as CDKN2A) on chromosome 9p21.¹ In melanoma families, p16 is mutated in the germline, so it is transmitted down generations, by comparison with most other cancers where this gene is only altered in the tumour. The pl6 is a crucial cell cycle gene that controls senescence in all cells. The Melanoma Genetics Consortium, established in 1996, has recruited melanoma families from all over the world, and it is now estimated that around 40% of melanoma families have p16 germline mutations.² The prevalence of p16 mutations in sporadic melanoma is very low - around 1-2.5%.3 The increased melanoma risk in relation to p16 mutations is observed in most Caucasian populations in Europe, the USA and Australia, but appear to be more common in Europe compared with Australia.⁴ The prevalence of p16 mutations in families depends on the number of melanomas within the family.⁵ Individuals with multiple primary melanomas are also more likely to have p16 mutations, with up to 15% being positive.³

There are more than 60 different types of p16 mutations reported in the world.² However, most melanomas are not attributed to germline p16 mutations, especially in the non-familial setting, and many other common, low penetrance melanoma genes remain to be discovered. Testing for p16 mutations is not clinically indicated in melanoma patients with a positive family history, as the chance of detecting a mutation is small, especially in families with only two melanomas. The mutation status does not change the management of the patient as the decision to follow up is made on the basis of the family history and the presence of multiple atypical naevi.5 Furthermore, this test only screens the coding region of p16, so is not completely sensitive. Melanoma can also be found



Coloured scanning electron micrograph of a skin cancer cell

in family cancer syndromes, with a susceptibility to pancreatic tumours, osteosarcoma, brain tumours, breast cancers and many other cancers. Therefore, melanoma is likely to share susceptibility genes with other tumours.⁶

Common low-penetrance genes

Collaborative studies pooling thousands of melanoma samples have recently identified common low penetrance genes that predict melanoma risk.⁷⁻¹⁰ These genes are mostly involved in pigmentation, but two new genes have also been discovered, which confer a risk of melanoma by predisposing to large numbers of naevi.⁹ These discoveries are important, as these gene variants are much more common and, therefore, may be more useful for screening. However, the risk of melanoma associated with these genes is smaller than the risks associated with p16, with relative risks compared with the general population in the order of 1.5. Many more genes are likely to be involved, and the search continues.

Somatic mutations

Loss of the 9p21 locus where the tumour suppressor gene p16 lies can also be found in a large proportion of sporadic melanomas, and this increases

with the progression of the disease. The frequency of mutations in p16 in these tumours is not high, so other mechanisms of p16 inactivation, such as methylation, may explain this, or it may be that other tumour suppressor genes remain to be discovered in the same region.¹¹ The BRAF oncogene is also commonly mutated, affecting over 70% of melanomas.¹² Mutated BRAF melanomas are more likely to be tumours present on intermittently exposed body sites in association with multiple naevi, but with little sun damage. Mutations in p53 are also found in melanoma, but these are more common in lentigo maligna or melanoma on sun-exposed sites in older patients with sun damage and very few naevi.13 Other somatic mutations in genes such as c-kit have been linked to melanoma of the mucosa or the palms and soles.¹⁴

The genetics of risk factors for melanoma

Naevi

An excess number of naevi is the most powerful predictor of risk for melanoma with odds ratios for more than 100 naevi, or more than two atypical naevi, in the order of five-ten, which is far greater than any relative risks associated with sun exposure^{15,16} The atypical mole syndrome phenotype, characterised by multiple common and atypical naevi, is found in 15% of sporadic melanoma cases and 2% of controls, and is an important risk factor in all caucasian populations irrespective of levels of sun exposure.^{16,17}

Naevi are benign melanocytic tumours, which start to appear in childhood, increase in number steadily in early adulthood, then start to decrease gradually from age 40 to 50 onwards. Therefore, naevi senesce with age, and the speed at which this occurs varies greatly between individuals.18 Why naevi decrease in number with age is unknown, but it appears that in subjects with a high number of common and atypical naevi this decrease with age occurs later, reflecting a delayed senescence. A recent study has shown

Atypical naevi can be indicative of melanoma risk

that excess numbers of naevi are associated with longer telomeres in white blood cells, so persistent naevi may be a marker of delayed aging.¹⁸ Twin studies in the UK and Australia have shown that 60% of the variation in naevus number is explained by genes, and that the contribution of additive genetic effects increases with age.¹⁹⁻²¹ Recent collaborations between Australia and the UK, using genome-wide association studies based on more than 4,000 healthy individuals, have led to the discovery of new gene variants that predict naevus numbers, and these were replicated in very large melanoma case-control studies. This is the first time that common low penetrance genes for melanoma acting via naevus number have been discovered.9

The atypical mole syndrome is found in 2–6% of the normal population and is predictive of an increased risk of melanoma. This phenotype can also be found in individuals belonging to kindreds with rare cancer syndromes in the family, such as neurofibromatosis, retinoblastoma and Li-Fraumeni syndrome, but is also found in fam-

ilies with an excess of cancers, such as breast cancer, cancer of the pancreas, brain tumours and osteosarcoma. This suggests that multiple atypical naevi may be a marker of cancer susceptibility in

An excess number of naevi is the most powerful predictor of risk for melanoma

general, and not just of melanoma.^{6,22} Therefore, it is important to take a family history of all cancers in patients with the atypical mole syndrome, as this may change the follow-up strategy. It is not possible to follow all atypical mole syndrome patients, but a personal or family history of melanoma, or an excess of cancers in the family, is associated with an increased risk of melanoma. and these patients should be followed up as well as educated about self-examination.

Genetics of skin pigmentation

Having fair skin, fair hair and blue eyes makes an individual more prone to melanoma, with an odds

ratio of 2.23 However, research in skin and hair pigmentation has revealed that the link with melanoma may not be explained by pigmentation alone. Fair skin types are more likely to have several variants in the MC1R melanocortin 1 receptor (MC1R) gene, but variants are very common and do not always predict skin colour. Melanoma patients are more likely to have one or two MC1R variants

compared with controls; these increase the risk of melanoma up to threefold, depending on the number of variants.²⁴ Patients with more MC1R variants also appear to have their melanoma at a younger age, compared with those with the wild type gene. The presence of both MC1R variants and p16 mutations increases the risk of melanoma even further.²⁴ MC1R variants are more likely to be found in melanoma with somatic BRAF mutations, which would imply there are interactions between pigmentation genes and the BRAF pathway.²⁵ Recent genome-wide analyses looking for common single-nucleotide polymorphism variants associated with melanoma have mainly found associations with pigmentation genes such as MC1R, ASIP, TYR, TYRP1 and Agouti, among others.^{78,10}

Research into melanocyte stem cells and new targets for melanoma treatment

Progress has been made in the research on melanocyte stem cell biology. These cells are present in the hair bulge (part of the developing hair follicle), but, more recently, have also been found in the dermis. Undifferentiated melanocytes are one of the most pluripotent cells, as they can also differentiate into adipocytes, chondrocytes, osteoblasts or endothelial cells, depending on the micro-environment during embryogenesis, which, via different signals, directs the cells to different lineage.²⁶ Genes such as MITF, SOX9 and SOX1O, among many, are important for melanocyte differentiation, and MITF has recently been associated with melanoma susceptibility.^{27,28} It is well known that melanoma can behave very differently in terms of its potential to grow quickly and/or metastasize, and research into these pluri-potent cells, and the micro-environment that decides their fate, may lead to important discoveries with potential therapeutic targets.^{29,30} Multiple pathways are activated in melanoma differentiation, involving the CDKN2A, CDK4, AKT3, p53, c-kit, GAB2, NRAS, BRAF and PTEN pathways, as well as many others.³¹ New therapeutic targets based on these path-

Key points

- Up to 40% of melanoma families with two or more melanomas may carry a p16/CDKN2A mutation.
- Melanoma in the familial setting is more likely to present at a younger age, be associated with a large number of naevi and be a superficial spreading melanoma type.
- Testing for p16 mutations in melanoma families does not change the follow-up strategy, so is not recommended outside the research setting.
- Melanoma can be caused by rare, high-risk and highpenetrance genes such as p16/CDKN2A, but the prevalence of these mutations is rare outside the familial setting.
- Common low penetrance genes conferring a risk of melanoma have now been identified and mainly involve pigmentation genes.
- New common low-penetrance genes associated with high naevus counts have recently been identified and these genes are also melanoma genes.

ways are currently being tested in melanoma. Various types of melanomas are being targeted differently, with melanoma of the palms and soles with cKIT mutations being treated with cKIT inhibitor, and other types of melanomas being targeted with new specific BRAF mutant V600E inhibitors.³¹ Therefore, it is likely that looking at genetic changes in the tumour may, in the future, be an important step towards delivering the best targeted therapy for this type of tumour

Declaration of interest. None declared.

References

1. Kamb A, Shattuck-Eidens D, Eeles R *et al.* Analysis of the p16 gene (CDKN2) as a candidate for the chromosome 9p melanoma susceptibility locus. *Nat Genet* 1994; **8:** 23–26.

2. Goldstein AM, Chan M, Harland M *et al.* Features associated with germline CDKN2A mutations: a GenoMEL study of melanoma-prone families from three continents. *J Med Genet* 2007; **44**: 99–106.

 Berwick M, Orlow I, Hummer AJ et al. The prevalence of CDKN2A germ-line mutations and relative risk for cutaneous malignant melanoma: an international population-based study. Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev 2006; 15: 1520–1525.
Harland M, Goldstein AM, Kukalizch K et al. A comparison of CDKN2A mutation detection within the Melanoma Genetics Consortium (GenoMEL). Eur J Cancer 2008; 44: 1269–1274.

5. Newton Bishop JA and Gruis NA. Genetics: What advice for patients who present with a family history of melanoma? *Semin Oncol* 2007; **34**: 452–459.

6. Goldstein AM, Chan M, Harland M *et al.* High-risk melanoma susceptibility genes and pancreatic cancer, neural system tumors and uveal melanomas across GenoMEL. *Cancer Res* 2006; **15**: 9818–9828.

7. Gudbjartsson DF, Sulem P, Stacey SN *et al.* ASIP and TYR pigmentation variants associate with cutaneous melanoma and basal cell carcinoma. *Nat Genet* 2008; **40**: 886–891.

8. Brown KM, Macgregor S, Montgomery GW *et al.* Common sequence variants on 20q11.22 confer melanoma susceptibility. *Nat Genet* 2008; **40**: 838–840.

9. Falchi M, Bataille V, Hayward NK et al. Genome-wide association study identifies variants at 9p21 and 22q13 associated with development of cutaneous nevi. Nat Genet 2009; 41: 915–919. (correct?)

10. Bishop DT, Demenais F, Iles MM *et al.* Genome-wide association study indentifies three loci associated with melanoma risk. *Nat Genet* 2009; **41**: 920–925. 11. Ohta M, Berd D, Shimizu M *et al.* Deletion mapping of chromosome region 9p21-

 Onta M, Berd U, Shimizu M et al. Deletion mapping of chromosome region 9p21p22 surrounding the CDKN2 locus in melanoma. *Int J Cancer* 1996; **65**: 762–2767.
Davies H, Bignell GR, Cox C *et al*. Mutations of the BRAF gene in human cancer. *Nature* 2000; **27**: 949–954.

 Whiteman DC, Watt P, Purdie DM *et al.* Melanocytic nevi, solar keratoses, and divergent pathways to cutaneous melanoma. *J Natl Cancer Inst* 2003; **95:** 806–812.
Curtin JA, Busam K, Pinkel D, Bastian BC. Somatic activation of KIT in distinct subtypes of melanoma. *J Clin Oncol* 2007; **24:** 4340–4346.

 Gandini S, Sera F, Cattaruzza MS et al. Meta-analysis of risk factors for cutaneous melanoma: I. Common and atypical naevi. Eur J Cancer 2005; 41: 28–44.
Chang YM, Newton-Bishop JA, Bishop DT et al. A pooled analysis of melanocytic naevus phenotype and the risk of cutaneous melanoma at different latitudes. Int J Cancer 2009: 124: 420–428.

 Bataille V, Grulich A, Sasieni P et al. The association between naevi and melanoma in population with different levels of sun exposure: a joint case-control study of melanoma in the UK and Australia. Br J Cancer 1998; 77: 505–510.

18. Bataille V, Kato BS, Falchi M *et al.* Nevus size and number are associated with telomere length and represent potential markers of a reduced senescence in vivo. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev* 2007; **16:** 1499–1502.

19. Zhu G, Duffy DL, Eldridge A *et al*. A major quantitative-trait locus for mole density is linked to the familial melanoma gene CDKN2A: a maximum-likelihood combined linkage and association in twins and their sibs. *Am J Hum Genet* 1999; **65**: 483–492. 20. Bataille V, Snieder H, MacGregor AJ, Sasieni P, Spector TD. Genetics of risk factors for melanoma: an adult twin study of nevi and freckles. *J Natl Cancer Inst* 2000; **92**: 457–463.

21. Wachsmuth RC, Gaut RM, Barrett JH *et al.* Heritability and gene-environment interactions for melanocytic nevus density examined in a U.K. adolescent twin study. *J Invest Dermatol* 2001; **117**: 348–352.

22.- Bataille V. Genetic Epidemiology of melanoma. *Eur J Cancer* 2003; **39**: 1341–1347.

23. Bliss JM, Ford D, Swerdlow AJ *et al.* Risk of cutaneous melanoma associated with pigmentation characteristics and freckling: systematic overview of 10 casecontrol studies. The International Melanoma Analysis Group (IMAGE). *Int J Cancer* 1995; **62**: 367–376.

24. Raimondi S, Sera F, Gandini S *et al.* MC1R variants, melanoma and red hair color phenotype: a meta-analsysis. *Int J Cancer* 2008; **122**: 2753–2760.

25. Landi MT, Bauer J, Pfeiffer RM *et al*. MC1R germline variants confer risk for BRAF-mutant melanoma. *Science* 2006; **313**: 521–522.

26. Grichnik MJ. Melanoma, nevogenesis and stem cell biology. *J Invest Dermatol* 2008; **128**: 2365–2380.

 Cook AL, Smith AG, Smit DJ, Leonard JH, Sturm RA. Co-expression of SOX9 and SOX10 during melanocytic differentiation in vitro. *Exp Cell Res* 2005; **308**: 222–235.
Bertolotto C, Lesueur F, Giuliano S *et al*. A SUMOylation-defective MITF germline mutation predisposes to melanoma and renal carcinoma. *Nature* 2011; **480**: 94–98.
Postovit LM, Margayan NV, Seftor EA, Hendrix MJ. Role of nodal signaling and the microenvironment underlying melanoma plasticity. *Pigment Cell Melanoma Res* 2008; **21**: 348–357.

30. Horst B, Gruvberger-Saal SK, Hopkins DB *et al.* Gab2-mediated signalling promotes melanoma metastases. *Am J Path* 2009; **174:** 1524–1533.

31. Herlyn M. Driving in the melanoma landscape. *Exp Dermatol* 2009; **18:** 506–508.