

Expanding Germline Genetic Testing in Breast Cancer: Universal versus ASCO-Guided Approaches

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ABSTRACT

A notable fraction of breast cancer occurrences stems from hereditary pathogenic mutations. Germline genetic testing (GGT), especially focused on BRCA1 and BRCA2, is an indispensable component of precision oncology, enabling tailored risk classification and the formulation of individualized treatment plans. Within this report, we investigate the practicality of performing blanket testing on all freshly diagnosed breast cancer patients, without regard for age, personal or familial cancer background, in a setting marked by resource constraints. Consecutive patients newly presenting with breast cancer who satisfied the criteria for GGT under the most current American Society of Clinical Oncology (ASCO) recommendations were included. Across the study timeframe, 1,570 individuals were recruited, with a median age of 51 (range 22-96) years, of whom 1,352 (86.1%) were of Jordanian nationality. According to age-related benchmarks, 1,346 (85.7%) patients qualified for testing. A further 134 (8.5%) were deemed eligible owing to other indications, such as a personal or familial background of breast and other malignancies (n = 121, 7.7%), triple-negative pathology (n = 9, 0.57%), and male sex (n = 4, 0.25%). Cumulatively, 1,480 (94.3%) patients met the GGT eligibility requirements set by ASCO recommendations, resulting in merely 90 (5.7%) patients who were not candidates. Pathogenic or likely pathogenic alterations were uncovered in 23 (7.8%) patients. Adopting a universal GGT policy for every newly diagnosed breast cancer case, without consideration of age or risk determinants, would marginally broaden the pool of qualifying patients. This added load is warranted by its potential to boost referral completion rates.

Keywords: Germline genetic testing, GGT, Breast cancer, BRCA1, BRCA2, Resource-limited settings

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Introduction

Breast cancer persists as the predominant malignancy diagnosed in women across the globe [1, 2]. The median age at diagnosis is substantially lower in low-resource nations than in Western populations [3, 4]. Within countries such as Jordan, close to half of all breast cancer cases are identified at or before the age of 50, whereas only a minor segment receives a diagnosis past age 65 [5].

Pathogenic or likely pathogenic (P/LP) germline variants (PGVs) situated within cancer-susceptibility genes, most prominently BRCA1 and BRCA2, have been tied to the causation of breast and various other tumors. Spotting carriers of PGVs can diminish the cancer load on the patients themselves, while relatives at heightened risk may profit from rigorous screening protocols and prophylactic measures [6].

The fraction of breast cancer patients harboring BRCA1 or BRCA2 mutations fluctuates based on the detection tactic and the demographic under study. In non-selected breast cancer series, the reported prevalence of BRCA1 and BRCA2 P/LP variants typically ranges from 1.8% to 2.6% for BRCA1 and 1.3% to 2.1% for BRCA2 [7-9]. Crucially, these alterations are concentrated in specific subsets, such as those possessing a familial background of breast or ovarian cancer, those exhibiting particular breast cancer subtypes like triple-negative disease [10], and in defined ethnicities such as women of Ashkenazi Jewish heritage, where frequency can be elevated [11, 12].

The amplified uptake of multigene panel assays has facilitated the detection of additional variants; some, like PALB2, correlate with a higher breast cancer likelihood and may sway decisions surrounding risk-reduction tactics and surveillance schedules. Other alterations in genes, including CHEK2, BARD1, ATM, RAD51C, and RAD51D, are implicated in breast and other tumor types [13, 14].

Patients are offered germline genetic testing guided by international consensus, inclusive of the National Comprehensive Cancer Network (NCCN) [15] and ASCO [8, 16]. These protocols undergo periodic revision, and a considerable portion of practitioners, including both medical and surgical oncologists, may not keep abreast of these ongoing changes—a circumstance that could account for a diminished referral of eligible individuals for testing and counseling. Over the last several years, the NCCN-designated age threshold for commencing testing, independent of personal or familial cancer history, has been incrementally raised from 40 to 45, then to 50, and most recently to 65 by ASCO and the Society of Surgical Oncology (SSO). Conversely, certain professional bodies, exemplified by The American Society of Breast Surgeons, champion blanket testing for all women diagnosed with breast cancer, irrespective of age or risk factors. This emerging standpoint is supported by contemporary studies showing elevated missed-opportunity rates when testing is constrained to guideline-specified candidates [17, 18].

Routine universal germline genetic testing (GGT) using multigene panels (MGP) is not unfamiliar in oncology care; this approach is currently endorsed for patients with ovarian, pancreatic, and metastatic prostate cancers [15].

The convoluted nature of prevailing guidelines, their incessant updates, the deficiency of specialized cancer genetics services, and the paucity of genetic counselors collectively erect obstacles that curtail access to genetic assessment for qualifying oncology patients [19]. Within this report, we investigate the practicality of performing blanket testing on all freshly diagnosed breast cancer patients, without regard for age, personal or familial cancer background, in a setting marked by resource constraints.

Materials and Methods

Study design

This investigation is structured as a retrospective cohort analysis gauging the deployment of universal GGT across all patients receiving a breast cancer diagnosis within a resource-constrained environment. The study was conducted at King Hussein Cancer Center (KHCC) following Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval.

Study population

All successive adult patients, aged 18 and above, newly diagnosed with breast cancer, were recruited between 1 January 2023 and 30 April 2024. Information compilation was concluded by 15 May 2024, which functioned as the data analysis closure date. Individuals with both invasive and non-invasive breast carcinoma, including ductal carcinoma in situ (DCIS), qualified for inclusion. Grounds for exclusion comprised past receipt of genetic testing for hereditary cancer syndromes. Given the study's retrospective design and the omission of identifiable details, informed consent was waived for enrollment; however, every patient had consented to GGT testing at the time it was conducted. The research was conducted in alignment with ethical norms for human investigations. All records were stripped of identifiers, and patient confidentiality was rigorously maintained.

Germline genetic testing

Subjects meeting testing criteria per NCCN or ASCO guidelines received GGT using next-generation sequencing (NGS) platforms that screen for recognized breast cancer-linked genes, including BRCA1, BRCA2, TP53, CHEK2, PALB2, and ATM. Analyses were performed at an overseas reference facility using an authenticated, clinically accepted platform, and the results were delivered within 2 to 4 weeks. Testing was performed on DNA obtained from peripheral blood specimens procured within 4 weeks after the breast cancer diagnosis. A proportion of relatives of patients identified with P/LP variants were offered cascade screening after suitable counseling and were omitted from this cohort.

Clinical data collection

Demographic and clinical parameters were recorded at baseline, encompassing age, sex, nationality, familial cancer status, and tumor histopathology. For those who proceeded with genetic testing, supplementary information on the eligibility framework used (NCCN or ASCO criteria) was collected.

Data analysis

The principal endpoint of the study is to determine the proportion of breast cancer patients who meet GGT eligibility criteria under the latest ASCO recommendations. Secondary endpoints cover the detection rates of P/LP variants within the tested cohort, juxtaposing those qualifying under NCCN parameters against those under ASCO parameters. Additionally, an evaluation of P/LP variant frequency stratified by age was undertaken. Descriptive metrics were applied to outline demographic and clinical profiles, while Chi-square analyses were used to contrast reported P/LP variant outcomes across divergent genetic test eligibility classifications.

Results and Discussion

Throughout the enrollment period, a total of 1,570 subjects were identified with breast cancer; the median age at presentation was 51 years (spanning 22 to 96), and the preponderance (n = 1,346, 85.7%) fell within the 65-or-younger bracket. The stratification by age category is portrayed in **Figure 1**.

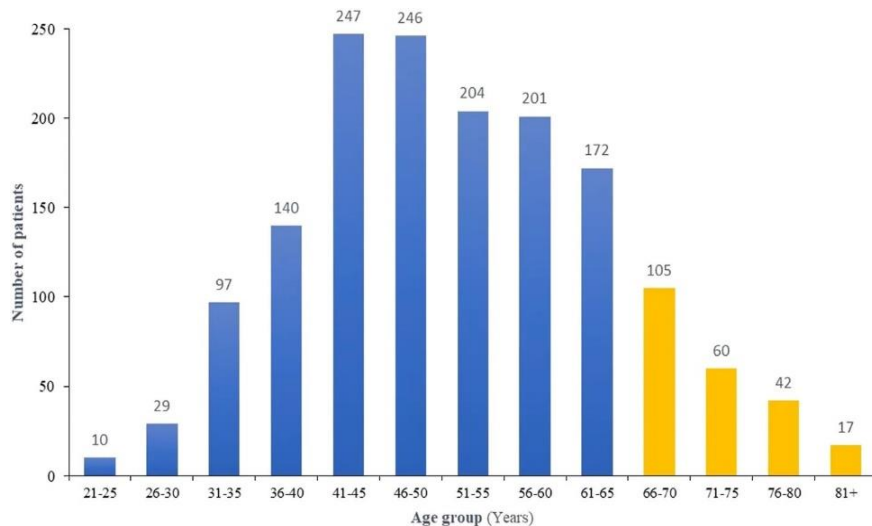


Figure 1. Age distribution of enrolled patients.

Barring 11 individuals (0.7%), the cohort was entirely female. The dominant share (n = 1,352, 86.1%) held Jordanian citizenship, while the remaining portion (n = 218, 13.9%) consisted of Arabs from bordering states or long-term residents in Jordan. Invasive ductal carcinoma (IDC) stood as the most frequently recorded histology, accounting for 1,253 cases (79.8%), followed by invasive lobular carcinoma (ILC) in 150 (9.6%) and ductal carcinoma in situ (DCIS) in 102 (6.5%), as compiled in **Table 1**.

Table 1. Patients' characteristics (n = 1,570).

Characteristic	n (%)
Age (years)	
Median (range)	51 (22–96)
≤ 65 years	1,346 (85.7%)
> 65 years	224 (14.3%)
Sex	
Female	1,559 (99.3%)
Male	11 (0.7%)
Nationality	
Jordanian	1,352 (86.1%)
Other nationalities	218 (13.9%)
Histopathology	

Invasive ductal carcinoma (IDC)	1,253 (79.8%)
Invasive lobular carcinoma (ILC)	150 (9.6%)
Ductal carcinoma in situ (DCIS)	102 (6.5%)
Others	65 (4.1%)
Genetic testing	
Performed	1,142 (72.7%)
Not performed	428 (27.3%)
Eligibility assessment guidelines	
ASCO 2024	309 (19.7%)
NCCN	1,261 (80.3%)

Abbreviations: IDC = invasive ductal carcinoma; ILC = invasive lobular carcinoma; DCIS = ductal carcinoma in Situ; NCCN = National Comprehensive Cancer Network; ASCO = American Society of Clinical Oncology.

Of the 1,570-person cohort, genetic testing was performed on 1,142 (72.7%). The determination of testing suitability relied on NCCN frameworks for those 1,261 (80.3%) patients whose diagnoses were made through January 2024, after which point the refreshed 2024 ASCO standards were adopted for the subsequent 309 (19.7%) patients. Within the ASCO-evaluated subset, 293 individuals (94.8%) met the threshold for testing, whereas the corresponding figure under NCCN-based appraisal was 849 (67.3%) ($P < 0.001$). Among the 1,142 qualified patients who received testing, P/LP alterations were identified in 23 cases (7.8%) under ASCO-directed assessment and in 77 cases (9.1%) under NCCN-directed assessment ($P = 0.524$), as shown in **Table 2**.

Table 2. ASCO guidelines-based versus NCCN guidelines-based germline genetic testing.

Variable	ASCO (n = 309)	NCCN (n = 1,261)	P-value
Eligibility			
Eligible	293 (94.8%)	849 (67.3%)	$< 0.001^{**}$
Not eligible	16 (5.2%)	412 (32.7%)	
Test results among eligible#			
Negative	270 (92.2%)	772 (90.9%)	0.524
Pathogenic/likely pathogenic variants	23 (7.8%)	77 (9.1%)	

Testing suitability was judged per NCCN guidelines for 1,261 patients diagnosed through January 2024, with the updated 2024 ASCO guidelines taking effect for the 309 patients diagnosed afterward.

Pearson's Chi-squared test.

#

1142 eligible patients.

All enrolled patients' records were re-examined irrespective of which guideline had initially been applied, and their candidacy was recalculated using ASCO benchmarks. Solely by virtue of age (i.e., being ≤ 65 years old), 1,346 (85.7%) patients would have been deemed eligible. Scrutiny of the clinical files for the remaining 224 (14.3%) revealed additional triggers for GGT beyond the early age of onset. An additional 134 subjects (8.5%) met eligibility criteria based on a personal or familial history of breast cancer and other neoplasms ($n = 121$, 7.7%), a triple-negative subtype ($n = 9$, 0.57%), or male sex ($n = 4$, 0.25%). Summing these figures, 1,480 patients (94.3%) would have satisfied the latest ASCO stipulations, leaving a small minority of 90 (5.7%) who would not have been testing candidates under the updated rules, as captured in **Table 3**. When disaggregated by age bracket, the yield of P/LP variants was markedly richer in the younger age strata. The rate of variant detection reached 13.9% among those aged ≤ 39 years, dropped to 8.0% in the 40–65 years band, and fell further to 4.0% in the over-65 group ($P = 0.005$).

Table 3. Indications for germline genetic testing ($n = 1,570$).

Indication	Number (n)	Percentage (%)	Cumulative n (%)
Age ≤ 65 years	1,346	85.7	1,346 (85.7)
Family history of cancer	121	7.7	1,467 (93.4)
Triple-negative breast cancer	9	0.57	1,476 (94.0)
Male breast cancer	4	0.25	1,480 (94.3)
Not eligible for testing	90	5.7	1,570 (100)

Carrying a BRCA1 or BRCA2 mutation weighs heavily on the therapeutic trajectory of breast cancer, largely because these tumors possess discrete biological behaviors and react distinctively to certain classes of drugs. BRCA1/2-deficient cancers display pronounced susceptibility to agents that inflict DNA injury, especially poly (ADP-ribose) polymerase (PARP) inhibitors like olaparib and talazoparib, both of which have garnered evidence of extending progression-free survival (PFS) in BRCA-mutated, HER2-negative breast cancer across early-stage [20-23] and late-stage scenarios [24-26]. Clinical practice guidelines codify the integration of PARP inhibitors into routine care and have become a standard component of therapeutic protocols for BRCA-altered breast cancer [27]. Recent data have additionally documented an overall survival (OS) advantage [28]. Platinum-salt chemotherapeutics also retain notable activity in BRCA-mutated malignancies, attributable to their mode of action—creating interstrand DNA crosslinks that prove catastrophic to cells already handicapped in homologous recombination repair [29]. These drugs are commonly deployed in the preoperative window to boost pathologic complete response (pCR) figures, most conspicuously in triple-negative breast cancer (TNBC) harboring BRCA defects [29, 30]. Beyond pharmacotherapy, the confirmation of a BRCA alteration shapes surgical consultations and prophylactic interventions. Affected individuals frequently contemplate bilateral mastectomy or salpingo-oophorectomy as a means to curtail the likelihood of metachronous primary tumors [31].

Several global professional organizations, among them the NCCN, have put forward guidance endorsing GGT for breast cancer patients classified as high-risk. The algorithms currently in force are arguably convoluted for a sizeable segment of the clinical workforce to consistently apply, a circumstance that arguably fuels the suboptimal frequency with which qualifying patients are actually referred for GGT. Such under-referral is by no means unique to low-resource environments. Investigators working with California-derived pooled cross-sectional data from the National Health Interview Survey identified eligible respondents as women with a personal history of either breast or ovarian cancer who fulfilled specified 2017 NCCN eligibility thresholds predicated on age at diagnosis and family pedigree. Within this weighted sample of 47,218 women, 2.7% reported a prior breast cancer diagnosis. More than one-third (35.6%) were adjudged eligible for GGT according to NCCN standards; among those eligible, only 29.0% recalled discussing GGT with a healthcare professional, 20.2% were actively advised to get tested, and only 15.3% ultimately underwent the procedure [32].

A variety of models have been piloted to widen the reach of and shorten waiting times for genetic evaluation. A policy of universal germline testing—whereby every woman newly diagnosed with breast cancer is offered a panel irrespective of her age or family background—constitutes a transformative shift. Yet obstacles to uptake persist, spanning expense, logistical deployment, the nuanced task of variant interpretation, and ethical quandaries surrounding unsolicited findings [33]. Whereas the NCCN currently endorses routine universal testing for epithelial ovarian, metastatic prostate, and exocrine pancreatic carcinomas, it has not extended this recommendation to breast cancer [34, 35].

The recently published ASCO–Society of Surgical Oncology Guideline now advises BRCA1/2 testing for all newly presenting breast cancer patients up to the age of 65, with selective testing beyond 65 dictated by personal oncologic history or familial clustering. This roadmap is straightforward and can be operationalized via either dedicated genetics clinics or mainstream oncology pathways [8].

In Western contexts, such as the United States (US) and much of Europe, the median age at breast cancer discovery approximates 63 years. By contrast, resource-limited settings routinely report a median onset that lags by at least a decade [36-38]. Such geographic variation in the age at diagnosis stems from disparities in population age structure, hereditary background, and environmental/lifestyle exposures [39, 40]. Jordan exhibits a markedly youthful demographic profile, with over 95% of its population under 65 years old. Our dataset confirms that 85% of incident breast cancer cases in countries with this demographic profile meet the testing bar based solely on chronological age (per ASCO guidelines), as illustrated in **Figure 1** [5]. A supplemental proportion of elderly individuals (> 65 years) enters the eligible pool when factoring in personal or familial cancer burden, triple-negative receptor status, or male sex, bringing the cumulative total close to 95%.

A paramount barrier to the rollout of universal testing in low- and middle-income countries (LMICs) is the prohibitive cost of commercial sequencing assays, which often place them beyond the reach of individual payers and overburdened public health budgets. Compounding this is the downstream financial toxicity associated with follow-on care, including post-test counseling, cascade genotyping of first-degree kin, and ensuing therapeutic interventions—all of which impose a layered economic burden on patients in such regions.

Several investigations have sought to evaluate the economic viability of a universal testing strategy, predominantly within Western health systems. One analysis, conducted in the United Kingdom (UK) and the

United States (US), aimed to assess the cost-effectiveness of panel-based universal testing for all breast cancer patients compared with the existing model of genetic testing driven by family history or clinical thresholds (guideline-based). In the universal arm, every breast cancer patient received testing for BRCA1, BRCA2, and PALB2. In the guideline-driven arm, testing was restricted to those meeting predefined criteria. The economic model accounted for contralateral prophylactic mastectomy among carriers of BRCA/PALB2 P/LP variants, as well as risk-reducing salpingo-oophorectomy (RRSO) for those with BRCA1/2 mutations. The evaluation also incorporated the cost of cascade screening for at-risk relatives, along with corresponding prophylactic measures, including surveillance via magnetic resonance imaging or mammography, chemoprevention, and risk-reducing mastectomy or RRSO. The investigators determined that panel-based universal testing for all breast cancer patients stands as highly cost-effective when set against guideline-directed testing within both the UK and US healthcare frameworks [41]. Researchers reached a similar conclusion when examining universal testing in a Canadian population. However, the same conclusion might not translate to settings with constrained resources [42].

The dearth of clinical geneticists and genetic counselors represents an additional obstacle—a gap that has spurred the uptake of mainstream cancer genetic testing—a model in which non-genetics clinicians, such as oncologists and surgeons, are empowered to request genetic assays without a mandatory genetics counselor referral [43-46]. Still, uneven execution and reduced testing volumes persist, fueled by intricate, rapidly evolving guidelines and the demand for specialized instruction in hereditary cancer risk evaluation for those without formal genetics training.

Emerging data from low- and middle-income countries (LMICs) reveal that unselected germline testing yields substantial numbers of actionable BRCA and other pathogenic alterations, with over half of carriers eluding detection by conventional selection criteria [47]. Extensive cohorts from Brazil and Mexico likewise show that many mutation carriers lack so-called “high-risk” clinical features, resulting in considerable under-detection when selective guidelines are enforced [48]. Economic appraisals from upper-middle-income contexts underscore additional affordability hurdles, demonstrating that, while expanded testing can be cost-effective in Upper MICs, its rollout in LMICs requires meticulous resource evaluation and planning [49].

An increased rate of variants of uncertain significance (VUS) poses yet another difficulty [50]. The frequency of VUS varies across populations, rising notably as testing indications broaden and the number of genes interrogated in a multigene panel increases [51]. The management of patients harboring a VUS fundamentally rests on a watchful, well-informed stance, as such variants lack clinical actionability and must not, on their own, redirect medical management. Affected individuals ought to be counseled that a VUS may undergo reclassification with time, and scheduled reassessments are warranted to revisit the variant’s status [52].

This work carries several constraints. To begin with, its retrospective, single-institution nature may introduce selection bias and curtail the broader applicability of the results. Second, downstream outcomes and cascade testing were not tracked, and over time, certain VUS may be reclassified, a shift that could influence the interpretation of findings. Third, a formal cost-effectiveness analysis was not undertaken, as the financial data fell outside the IRB’s remit for approval. These elements warrant consideration when concluding the data.

Conclusion

Implementing universal germline genetic testing for all newly diagnosed breast cancer patients, without regard to age, tumor features, or personal and familial oncologic history (universal testing), is a practicable strategy that enlarges the eligible candidate pool by only a few percentage points. This added load is justified by its capacity to boost referral rates and reduce reliance on genetic counselors.

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