Extraskeletal Ewing Sarcoma/Primitive Neuroectodermal Tumor

Rania Shamekh, Vicky Pham, and Marilyn M. Bui

Introduction

 Ewing sarcoma (ES)/primitive neuroectodermal tumor (PNET) is the most common bone tumor between the age of 0–4 years [1], the second most common bone malignancy in children and adolescents $[2-5]$, and the third most common bone sarcoma among adults [5]. ES/PNET is a family of tumor that shares hallmark molecular signature and varying degrees of neuroectodermal differentiation, which is now designated as ES by the 2013 *WHO Classification of Tumours of Soft Tissue and Bone* [3]. ES is more common among males compared to females with a male to female ratio of $3.4:1.6$ [1]. The incidence of ES is higher among white population and is low among black and Asian populations [1]. Eighty to 90 % of ES affect the bony skeleton, commonly involving the diaphysis and metaphysis of long bones [3]. ES can also be seen in the pelvis, scapula, ribs, and skull. The remaining 10–20 % are extraskeletal. ES have been described in the lung $[6]$, gastrointestinal tract $[7]$, pancreas $[8]$, breast $[9]$, uterus $[10]$, cervix $[11]$, and pineal gland $[12, 13]$ $[12, 13]$ $[12, 13]$.

R. Shamekh, MD

M.M. Bui, MD, PhD (\boxtimes)

Department of Anatomic Pathology, Moffitt Cancer Center, Tampa, FL 33612, USA

Department of Sarcoma, Moffitt Cancer Center, Tampa, FL 33612, USA

Department of Cell Biology and Pathology , University of South Florida Morsani College of Medicine, Tampa, FL 33612, USA

V. Pham. MS

Research Scholar Concentration Program, University of South Florida Morsani College of Medicine, Tampa, FL 33612, USA

Department of Cell Biology and Pathology , University of South Florida Morsani College of Medicine, Tampa, FL 33612, USA

Departments of Oncological Sciences, University of South Florida, Tampa, FL 33612, USA e-mail: Marilyn.Bui@Moffitt.org

Pathogenesis

 ES shows neuroectodermal differentiation with a pathognomonic translocation of the *EWSR1* gene on chromosome 22 with one of the ETS transcription factors. This specific translocation results in fusion oncogenes that is very characteristic for the Ewing/PNET (ES/PNET) pathogenesis [3], which is summarized in Table 1.

Microscopic Appearance

 ES is mostly composed of small, blue, round cells with scant cytoplasm and indistinct cytoplasmic membrane. The nuclei are uniform and round with finely granular chromatin $[3]$. Ewing sarcoma is divided into several subtypes: (1) Classic Ewing sarcoma, which is the most common subtype. It is comprised of nests or sheets of small uniform cells with round nuclei, smooth nuclear contours, fine granular chromatin, and inconspicuous nucleoli. The cytoplasm is scant and eosinophilic. Mitosis and necrosis are infrequent. (2) PNET is composed of Ewing sarcoma with various degrees of neuroectodermal differentiation (confirmed by immunohistochemistry) together with true and pseudorosettes rendering the diagnosis of Ewing/PNET. (3) Atypical Ewing sarcoma is composed of large cells with large pleomorphic nuclei, irregular nuclear contour, coarse chromatin, and prominent nuclei. Mitosis and necrosis are common $[4, 14]$. Other rare ES subtypes include: (4) Adamantinoma Ewing sarcoma, which consists of nests of pleomorphic, hyperchromatic cells with peripheral palisading within a desmoplastic stroma [14, 15]. (5) Spindle cell Ewing sarcoma, this subtype is characterized by greater degree of spindling admixed with branching vasculature, reminiscent of a spindle

 Table 1 Chromosomal rearrangement and fusion genes of ES [3]

cell sarcoma. (6) Sclerosing Ewing sarcoma, the neoplastic cells resembled the cells of typical ES but is distinguished by the presence of abundant, hyalinized, eosinophilic matrix [14].

Immunophenotype

 The classic Ewing, which lacks neuroendocrine differentiation, expresses strong membranous staining for CD99 $[3-16]$. The FLI-1 protein expression, resulting in fusion of the *EWS* gene on chromosome 22 to the *FLI-1* gene on chromosome 11 (*EWSR1-FLI-1*), is another diagnostic marker of the classic Ewing sarcoma [16– [18](#page-7-0)] (representative case shown in Fig. 1). FLI-1 has been expressed in more than 70 % of ES/PNET with greater than 90 % specificity $[15]$. Therefore, FLI-1 is useful for the diagnosis of ES/PNET. *NKX2* , a member of the NK2 family of

 Fig. 1 A Ewing sarcoma in the right posterior shoulder of a 71-year-old man. (**a**) HE stain of the tumor exhibiting blue round cell tumor with epithelioid morphology. 200×. (**b**) CD99 immunostain reveals strong membrane reactivity. (**c**) FLI-1 immunostain is positive in the tumor nuclei. (**d**) The tumor harbors an EWSR1/FLI fusion transcript, type II, by RT-PCR confirming the diagnosis. Lane 1 and 4 DNA, size controls. Lane 3, positive control. Lane 4, patient sample

transcription, has an essential role in neuronal differentiation [\[19 \]](#page-7-0). The *NKX2.2* gene has been recently identified as another important factor, similar to EWS/FLI in Ewing sarcoma oncogenesis [20]. For ES with *EWS-ERG* rearrangement, ERG protein expression, using the newly discovered anti-ERG antibody, is helpful for the diagnosis $[21]$.

 The PNET differentiation can be assessed by the expression of all classes of intermediate filament proteins $[22]$, as well as synaptophysin, chromograin, CD56, CD57, CD99, neuron-specific enolase (NSE) [23].

Classic ES Versus ES/PNET

 In 1991, a report by Schmidt and colleagues stated that neuroectodermal differentiation in ES (ES/PNET) has the worst prognosis and a significant decrease in diseasefree survival compared to classic ES [\[24](#page-7-0)]. However, recent articles found that neuroectodermal differentiation in Ewing sarcoma (ES/PNET) had no prognostic impact when compared to classic ES $[25]$. These contradicting results may be due to the use of modern, more effective combined multiagent chemotherapy, radiation, and/or surgery which has improved the prognosis and outcome of ES/PNET dramatically $[26]$. Therefore, histological classification of ES is not neither necessary nor essential for proper management.

Differential Diagnosis

 As small, blue, round cell tumors that may express neuroendocrine differentiation, ES overlaps morphologically and histologically with a group of malignant neoplasms that can occur in both children and adults. These tumors include neuroblastoma (NB), rhabdomyosarcoma (RMS), poorly differentiated synovial sarcomas (PDSS), lymphoblastic lymphoma (LBL), esthesioneuroblastoma (ENB), and desmoplastic round cell tumor (DRCT), mesenchymal chondrosarcoma (MCS), and blastemal predominant Wilms' tumor (WT). These tumors are histologically similar and can only be distinguished by their immunohistochemical profile and molecular profile [15, [27](#page-7-0)]. Useful immunohistochemical and molecular profiles for the above tumors are summarized in Table [2](#page-4-0).

 ES may present as a diagnostic pitfall mimicking a neuroendocrine carcinoma when neuroendocrine differentiation is expressed in conjunction with cytokeratin aberrant expression. In fact, ES can express the high molecular weight cytokeratin AE1/AE3 in almost 40 $%$ of cases [31]. Therefore, in the proper histological and molecular setting, the expression of cytokeratin does not exclude the diagnosis of ES.

Diagnosis	Translocation/molecular characteristics	Immunohistochemical positivity
Ewing-like sarcomas (undifferentiated round cell sarcomas)	$CIC-DUX4$, t(4:19)(q35;q13) or $t(10;19)(q26;q13)$ CIC -FOXO4, $t(X;19)$ (q13; q13.3)	CD 99 (patchy) Variable stains for CD34 Keratin, EMA, actin, and desmin
Alveolar rhabdomyosarcoma	$PAX3-FOXO1, t(2,13)$ (q35; q14) <i>PAX7-FOXO1</i> , t(1;13) (p36; q14)	Desmin Myoglobin Myogenin Actin
Desmoplastic small round cell tumor	WTI -EWSR1, t(11;22) (p13;q12)	Multilineage markers such as: EMA and cytokeratin Vimentin and desmin NSE Desmin (dot-like) WT-1 carboxy-terminus
Extraskeletal myxoid chondrosarcoma	<i>NR4A3-EWSR1</i> , t(9:22) (q22;q12) $NR4A3-TAF15$, t(9;17) (q22;q11)	$$100(20\%)$ CD117 (CKIT) (30 %) Synaptophysin and NSE Loss of INI (tumors with rhabdoid features)
Clear cell sarcoma	$ATF1$ -EWSR1, t(12;22) (q13; q12)	S ₁₀₀ $HMB-45$ MITF1 Other melanocytic markers

Table 2 Immunohistochemical and molecular characteristics of tumors mimic ES [3, [28](#page-7-0)–30]

Management and Some Biomarkers

Five-year survival rates of ES were 68 % in males and 65 % in females $[2, 32]$. Decrease in survival rate can be due to tumor size (>8 cm) and presence of metastatic disease $[32]$. Management of localized disease includes wide surgical excision +/− chemotherapy to irradiate disease and prevent recurrence. Management of metastatic disease include chemotherapy, radiotherapy, and possible resection of limited metastasis [32].

 Studies of additional biomarkers are underway to discover diagnostic, prognostic, and predictive information. Interestingly, the M3 and M5 subtypes of muscarinic acetylcholine receptor as well as the alpha 7 subunit of nicotinic acetylcholine receptor have been expressed in a significant number of ES/PNET family of tumors $[33]$. However, the clinical significance of these findings is yet to be determined. It was recently suggested that the expression of the gap junction protein connexin 43 in EWS/PNETs is reminiscent of a more aggressive clinical behavior [34].

Genomic technologies have identified genes that are modulated by EWS/FLI in Ewing sarcoma. The study of various chromosomes copy number alterations in Ewing sarcoma using karyotyping, comparative genomic hybridization, and single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) microarray technologies has been previously reported. The summary of chromosomal aberration in Ewing sarcoma has been reviewed [35].

 Tumor cells can be detected in the peripheral blood and/or bone marrow where they circulate. Circulating tumor cell (CTC) detection has been reported in epithelial neoplasms such as breast and colorectal carcinoma $[36-39]$; however, only few studies have been reported regarding CTC in ES. Analysis of bone marrow (BM) and peripheral blood (PB) of patients with ES using RT-PCR showed positive CTC in metastatic (46 % in BM and 22 % in PB) and nonmetastatic disease (19 % in BM and 20 % in PB) $[40]$. MicroRNAs (miRNAs) are short noncoding RNA which regulate gene expression, promote proliferation and differentiation, and may predispose to various human malignancies $[41]$. The role of microRNAs in ES pathogenesis has been investigated in the last few years. Studies have been targeted and aimed at microRNAs mediated by the *EWS-FLI-1* translocations. In vitro studies on human pediatric mesenchymal cell lines (hpMSCs) expressing EWS-FLI-1 showed that repression of miRNA-145 and the *SOX2* gene modulation induced ES pathogenesis [\[42](#page-8-0)]. Another in vitro study showed that hsa-miR-145 suppresses EWS-FLI-1 translation and therefore has a major role in ES pathogenesis [43]. In vivo studies on an ES mouse model showed that the *EWS-FLI-1* translocation induces CD99 expression by the inhibition of miRNA-30a-5p expression $[44]$. These new data may propose the utilization of miRNA as a future therapeutic target in the management of Ewing sarcoma.

Conclusion

 ES should be considered as a rare but important differential diagnosis when working up a blue round cell tumor of soft tissue with neuroendocrine differentiation. Hallmark genetic marker can confirm the diagnosis, while some new immunostains are also helpful. New biomarkers are under investigation.

Abbreviations

- RMS Rhabdomyosarcoma
- WT Blastemal predominant Wilms' tumor

References

- 1. Parkin DM, Stiller CA, Nectoux J. International variations in the incidence of childhood bone tumours. Int J Cancer. 1993;53(3):371–6.
- 2. Linabery AM, Ross JA. Childhood and adolescent cancer survival in the US by race and ethnicity for the diagnostic period 1975-1999. Cancer. 2008;113(9):2575–96.
- 3. Fletcher CDM, Bridge JA, Hogendoorn PCW, Mertens F, editors. WHO classification of tumours of soft tissue and bone. 4th ed. Lyon Cedex: International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) Press; 2013. International Agency for Research on Cancer. Fred T. Bosman ESJ, Sunii R. Lakhani, Hiroko Ohgaki, ed.
- 4. Choi EY, Gardner JM, Lucas DR, McHugh JB, Patel RM. Ewing sarcoma. Semin Diagn Pathol. 2014;31(1):39–47.
- 5. Herzog CE. Overview of sarcomas in the adolescent and young adult population. J Pediatr Hematol Oncol. 2005;27(4):215–8.
- 6. Kahn AG, Avagnina A, Nazar J, Elsner B. Primitive neuroectodermal tumor of the lung. Arch Pathol Lab Med. 2001;125(3):397–9.
- 7. Stockman DL, Miettinen M, Suster S, et al. Malignant gastrointestinal neuroectodermal tumor: clinicopathologic, immunohistochemical, ultrastructural, and molecular analysis of 16 cases with a reappraisal of clear cell sarcoma-like tumors of the gastrointestinal tract. Am J Surg Pathol. 2012;36(6):857–68.
- 8. Movahedi-Lankarani S, Hruban RH, Westra WH, Klimstra DS. Primitive neuroectodermal tumors of the pancreas: a report of seven cases of a rare neoplasm. Am J Surg Pathol. 2002;26(8):1040–7.
- 9. Potier B, Arnaud D, Paillocher N, Darsonval V, Rousseau P. Primitive neuroendocrine cancer of the breast. Post-traumatic discovery of a man. Ann Chir Plast Esthet. 2012;57(6):630–3.
- 10. Akbayir O, Gungorduk K, Rafioglu G, et al. Primary primitive neuroectodermal tumor of the uterus: a case report. Arch Gynecol Obstet. 2008;277(4):345–8.
- 11. Tsao AS, Roth LM, Sandler A, Hurteau JA. Cervical primitive neuroectodermal tumor. Gynecol Oncol. 2001;83(1):138–42.
- 12. Saab R, Rodriguez-Galindo C, Matmati K, et al. p18Ink4c and p53 Act as tumor suppressors in cyclin D1-driven primitive neuroectodermal tumor. Cancer Res. 2009;69(2):440–8.
- 13. Schwartz AM, Ghatak NR, Laine FJ. Intrasellar primitive neuroectodermal tumor (PNET) in familial retinoblastoma: a variant of "trilateral retinoblastoma". Clin Neuropathol. 1990;9(2):55-9.
- 14. Pinto A, Dickman P, Parham D. Pathobiologic markers of the ewing sarcoma family of tumors: state of the art and prediction of behaviour. Sarcoma. 2011;2011:856190.
- 15. Folpe AL, Hill CE, Parham DM, O'Shea PA, Weiss SW. Immunohistochemical detection of FLI-1 protein expression: a study of 132 round cell tumors with emphasis on CD99-positive mimics of Ewing's sarcoma/primitive neuroectodermal tumor. Am J Surg Pathol. 2000;24(12):1657–62.
- 16. Olsen SH, Thomas DG, Lucas DR. Cluster analysis of immunohistochemical profiles in synovial sarcoma, malignant peripheral nerve sheath tumor, and Ewing sarcoma. Mod Pathol. 2006;19(5):659–68.
- 17. Rossi S, Orvieto E, Furlanetto A, Laurino L, Ninfo V, Dei Tos AP. Utility of the immunohistochemical detection of FLI-1 expression in round cell and vascular neoplasm using a monoclonal antibody. Mod Pathol. 2004;17(5):547–52.
- 18. Bui MM, Zhang P. Ewing sarcoma: molecular characterization and potential molecular therapeutic targets. In: Coppola D, editor. Mechanisms of oncogenesis – an update on tumorgenesis, vol. 12. Dordrecht/London: Springer; 2010.
- 19. Yoshida A, Sekine S, Tsuta K, Fukayama M, Furuta K, Tsuda H. NKX2.2 is a useful immunohistochemical marker for Ewing sarcoma. Am J Surg Pathol. 2012;36(7):993–9.
- 20. Smith R, Owen LA, Trem DJ, et al. Expression profiling of EWS/FLI identifies NKX2.2 as a critical target gene in Ewing's sarcoma. Cancer Cell. 2006;9(5):405–16.
- 21. Wang WL, Patel NR, Caragea M, et al. Expression of ERG, an Ets family transcription factor, identifies ERG-rearranged Ewing sarcoma. Mod Pathol. 2012;25(10):1378-83.
- 22. Gould VE, Jansson DS, Molenaar WM, et al. Primitive neuroectodermal tumors of the central nervous system. Patterns of expression of neuroendocrine markers, and all classes of intermediate filament proteins. Lab Invest. $1990;62(4):498-509$.
- 23. Wick MR. Immunohistology of neuroendocrine and neuroectodermal tumors. Semin Diagn Pathol. 2000;17(3):194–203.
- 24. Schmidt D, Herrmann C, Jurgens H, Harms D. Malignant peripheral neuroectodermal tumor and its necessary distinction from Ewing's sarcoma. A report from the Kiel Pediatric Tumor Registry. Cancer. 1991;68(10):2251–9.
- 25. Parham DM, Hijazi Y, Steinberg SM, et al. Neuroectodermal differentiation in Ewing's sarcoma family of tumors does not predict tumor behavior. Hum Pathol. 1999;30(8):911–8.
- 26. Wexler LH, Meyer WH, Parham DM, Tsokos M. Neural differentiation and prognosis in peripheral primitive neuroectodermal tumor. J Clin Oncol. 2000;18(10):2187–8.
- 27. Wei S, Siegal GP. Round cell tumors of bone: an update on recent molecular genetic advances. Adv Anat Pathol. 2014;21(5):359–72.
- 28. Henderson-Jackson EB, Conley A, Bui MM. Molecular pathology of bone and soft tissue neoplasms and potential targets for novel therapy. In: Coppola D, editor. Molecular pathology and diagnostics of cancer – cancer growth and progression, vol. 16. Dordrecht: Springer; 2014.
- 29. Henderson-Jackson EB, Bui MM. Molecular pathology of soft-tissue neoplasms and its role in clinical practice. Cancer Control. 2015;22(2):186–92.
- 30. Dodd LG, Bui MM. Atlas of soft tissue and bone pathology: with histologic, cytologic, and radiologic correlations. New York: Demos Medical; 2015.
- 31. Elbashier SH, Nazarina AR, Looi LM. Cytokeratin immunoreactivity in Ewing sarcoma/ primitive neuroectodermal tumour. Malays J Pathol. 2013;35(2):139–45.
- 32. Ludwig JA. Ewing sarcoma: historical perspectives, current state-of-the-art, and opportunities for targeted therapy in the future. Curr Opin Oncol. 2008;20(4):412–8.
- 33. Schlauder SM, Steffensen TS, Morgan M, et al. Assessment of muscarinic and nicotinic acetylcholine receptor expression in primitive neuroectodermal tumor/ewing family of tumor and desmoplastic small round cell tumor: an immunohistochemical and Western blot study of tissue microarray and cell lines. Fetal Pediatr Pathol. 2008;27(2):83–97.
- 34. Bui MM, Han G, Acs G, et al. Connexin 43 is a potential prognostic biomarker for ewing sarcoma/primitive neuroectodermal tumor. Sarcoma. 2011;2011:971050.
- 35. Toomey EC, Schiffman JD, Lessnick SL. Recent advances in the molecular pathogenesis of Ewing's sarcoma. Oncogene. 2010;29(32):4504–16.
- 36. Leung CT, Brugge JS. Tumor self-seeding: bidirectional flow of tumor cells. Cell. 2009;139(7):1226–8.
- 37. Luo M, Clouthier SG, Deol Y, et al. Breast cancer stem cells: current advances and clinical implications. Methods Mol Biol. 2015;1293:1–49.
- 38. Maltoni R, Fici P, Amadori D, et al. Circulating tumor cells in early breast cancer: a connection with vascular invasion. Cancer Lett. 2015;367(1):43–8.
- 39. van Dalum G, Stam GJ, Scholten LF, et al. Importance of circulating tumor cells in newly diagnosed colorectal cancer. Int J Oncol. 2015;46(3):1361–8.
- 40. Schleiermacher G, Peter M, Oberlin O, et al. Increased risk of systemic relapses associated with bone marrow micrometastasis and circulating tumor cells in localized ewing tumor. J Clin Oncol. 2003;21(1):85–91.
- 41. Mallanna SK, Rizzino A. Emerging roles of microRNAs in the control of embryonic stem cells and the generation of induced pluripotent stem cells. Dev Biol. 2010;344(1):16–25.
- 42. Riggi N, Suva ML, De Vito C, et al. EWS-FLI-1 modulates miRNA145 and SOX2 expression to initiate mesenchymal stem cell reprogramming toward Ewing sarcoma cancer stem cells. Genes Dev. 2010;24(9):916–32.
- 43. Ban J, Jug G, Mestdagh P, et al. Hsa-mir-145 is the top EWS-FLI1-repressed microRNA involved in a positive feedback loop in Ewing's sarcoma. Oncogene. 2011;30(18):2173–80.
- 44. Franzetti GA, Laud-Duval K, Bellanger D, Stern MH, Sastre-Garau X, Delattre O. MiR-30a- 5p connects EWS-FLI1 and CD99, two major therapeutic targets in Ewing tumor. Oncogene. 2013;32(33):3915–21.