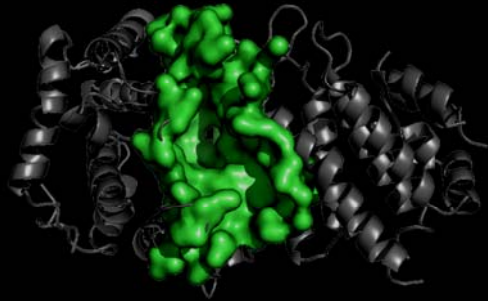


The Multiple Endocrine Neoplasias and the success of positional cloning?



Duncan Bassett
Molecular Endocrinology Group, Imperial College London

MEN1 and MEN2

Rare autosomal dominant familial cancer syndromes

Prevalence 1 per 100,000
Presentation 5 to 81 years

Prevalence 1 per 500,000
High penetrance

MEN1

Parathyroid tumours
Pancreatic islet cell tumours
Anterior pituitary tumours
Adrenal cortical tumours
Carcinoids
Angiofibromas, lipoma
collagenomas, meningiomas

Isolated familial syndromes
Hyperparathyroidism
Prolactinomas/Acromegaly
Carcinoids

MEN 2A (60%)

Medullary thyroid carcinoma
Pheochromocytoma
Parathyroid hyperplasia

MEN 2B (5%)

Medullary thyroid carcinoma
Pheochromocytoma
Marfanoid habitus
Mucosal neuromas
Ganglioneuromatosis/megacolon

Isolated familial syndromes (35%)
Familial MTC
Familial Phaeo

Complex Multiple Endocrine Neoplasias

McCune Albright
(GNAS1)

Thyroid nodular hyperplasia (TTX)
Adrenal hyperplasia (Cushing's)
Somatotrophinomas (Acromegaly)
Hyperprolactinaemia

Neurofibromatosis I
(Neurofibromin)

Pheochromocytoma
Hyperparathyroidism
Carcinoids
(Medullary thyroid carcinoma)

Von Hippel-Lindau
(VHL)

Pheochromocytoma
Pancreatic Islet cell tumour

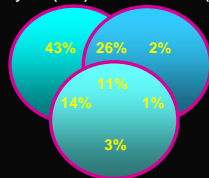
Carney's Complex
(PRKAR1A)

Thyroid tumours
Parathyroid tumours
Adrenal tumours
Pituitary tumours

Multiple Endocrine Neoplasia Type 1

Multiple Endocrine Neoplasia Type 1

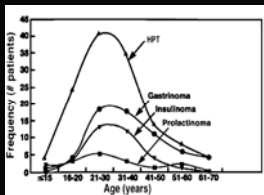
Parathyroid (94%) Pancreas (40%)



Pituitary (29%)

Associated tumours

Carcinoid 4%
Adrenocortical 5%
Pheochromocytoma 0.5%



Cutaneous tumours

Angiofibromas 88%
Collagenomas 72%
Lipomata 30%

(Jensen RT 2008 Cancer 113:1807-1843; Verges B 2002 JCEM 87:457-465)

1^o Hyperparathyroidism

1^o Hyperparathyroidism (95%)

Frequently the first presenting feature
Differs from sporadic disease

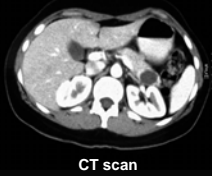
Early age of presentation peak 20-25 years
Multiple gland hyperplasia rather than adenoma
High recurrence rate (50% by 10 years)

Presentation

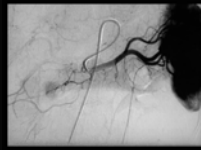
Hypercalcaemia
Polyuria, polydipsia, nephrocalcinosis, renal stones
Abdominal pain, N/V, constipation
Dyspepsia, peptic ulceration, pancreatitis
Osteofibrosacystica
Psychiatric disturbance

Pancreatic endocrine tumours

Single/multiple, benign/malignant, functional/non-functional



CT scan



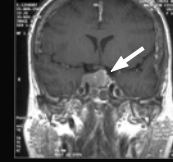
Angiography

Pancreatic endocrine tumours (50-100%)		
Non-functional (PPomas)	asymptomatic can metastasize if >3cm	(80-100%)
Gastrinoma (ZE)	Peptic ulceration, diarrhoea and steatorrhea	(48%)
Co-secreting	Mixed symptoms	(22%)
Insulinoma	Hypoglycaemic symptoms, Hunger, Wt gain	(14%)
Glucagonoma	NME, DM, Wt loss, diarrhoea, DVT/PE	(5%)
VIPoma	Severe watery diarrhoea	(2%)
Somatostatinomas		(Rare)

(Jensen RT 2008 Cancer 113:1807-1843)

Anterior pituitary tumours

Acromegaly



Cushing's



Pituitary Adenomas (40%)

Mean age of onset 40 years (5-83)
Initial lesion in 17% and more frequent in females
More aggressive than sporadic disease
85% macroadenomas and 37% invasive

Clinical features of pituitary adenomas

Lactotrophinomas (Prolactinomas) (Prolactin producing 63%)
Menstrual irregularity, galactorrhoea, reduced libido, impotence, infertility

Somatotrophinomas (Acromegaly) (GH producing 23%)
Headache, sweating, ↑soft tissue, ↑hands and feet, prognathism, nerve compression, cutaneous fibromas, acanthosis nigricans, HT, LVH, cardiomyopathy, arrhythmias, colonic malignancy

ACTHomas (Cushing's disease) (ACTH producing 4%)
Hirsutism, centripetal obesity, buffalo hump, purple striae, HT, glucose intolerance, proximal myopathy, infertility, psychiatric problems

Non Functional tumours (15%)
Headache, bitemporal hemianopia, hypopituitarism, cranial nerve palsies, menstrual irregularity, galactorrhoea, reduced libido, impotence, infertility

Co-secreatory (9%)

Other MEN1 associated tumours

Adrenocortical (20-50%)

Clinically silent adrenal adenomas or hyperplasia rarely carcinomas

Carcinoid Syndrome (15%)

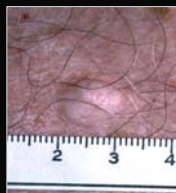
70% foregut; gastric (70%), thymic (15%), and bronchial (15%)
Flushing, palpitations, wheezing, diarrhoea, tricuspid insufficiency and pulmonary stenosis

Dermatological features of MEN1

Benign lesions no treatment required



Multiple facial angiofibromas (5-88%)



Hypopigmented collagenomas (0-72%)



Lipomas (3-34%)

2001 Consensus screening schedule

If possible identify mutant gene carriers

Clinical screening from 5 years

Biochemical evidence may occur 10 years before clinical disease

Tumour	From Age	Annual	3 yearly
1 ^o HPT	8	Ca, PTH	None
Insulinoma	5	Insulin, fasting Glu	None
Gastrinoma	20	Gastrin	None
Other pancreatic	20	CgA, glucagon, proins	CT/MRI/SRS
Anterior pituitary	5	PRL, IGF1	MRI pit
Carcinoids	20	None	CT

Annual
Ca/PTH
Gut hormones
PRL/IGF1
Fasting Glu
(?EUS/CT thorax)

3 yearly
Abdo MRI/CT
SRS/
Pit MRI
CT thorax

(Brandt ML 2001 JCEM 86:5658-5671; Engelen AM 2003 Euro J Endocrinol 149:577-582)

MEN1 is caused by loss of function mutations in a tumour suppressor gene that encodes MENIN

The MEN1 gene

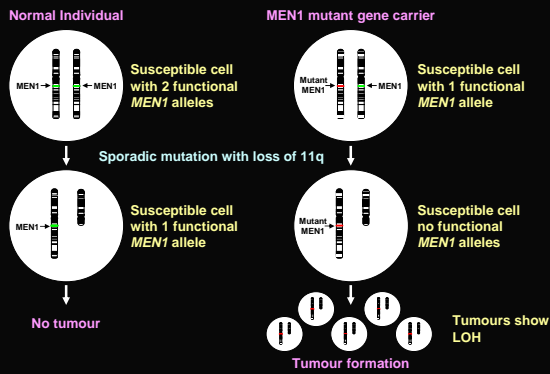
Chr 11



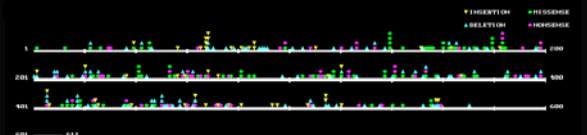
Located at chromosome 11q13
 10 exons
 2.8Kb mRNA transcript
 610 amino acids protein Menin
 6 alternative splice variants (5' UTR)

Menin is a tumour suppressor gene
 MEN1 is caused by Menin loss of function mutations
 80% predict truncated or absent protein
 Rapid proteasome-degradation of mutant Menin
 Tumour specific loss of the normal MEN1 allele (LOH)
 "Knudsons two hit hypothesis"
 Over-expression of Menin in Ras-transformed cell lines reverts the transformed phenotype

Tumour suppressor genes and tumour formation



Mutations are scattered throughout MEN1 gene



More than 500 different germ line mutations identified
 ¼ predict a truncated or absent protein
 No hot spots, scattered throughout coding region

Nonsense	23%
Frameshift deletion/insertion	41%
Large deletions	1%
In frame deletion/insertion	6%
Missense	20%

10% occur *de novo*
 5-10% of patients do not have mutations in coding region

(Thakker RV 2010 Best Pract Clin Endo Metab 24:355; Human Gene Mutation Database Cardiff)

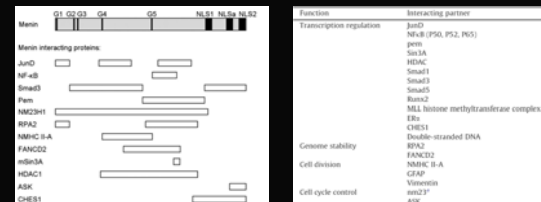
The MENIN protein



MENIN is a 67kDa protein, 3x NLS and binds DNA
 Nuclear localisation but cytoplasmic in dividing cells
 No homology or functional motifs
 Conserved from man to molluscs
Drosophila 70% identity
 Expressed from earliest stages of embryogenesis
 Expressed ubiquitously in all adult tissues
 Expression inversely correlated with proliferation (cell cycle)
 Expression varies with the cell type
 Menin negatively regulates its own expression
 Somatostatin induces Menin expression
 Multiple protein interactions have been identified
 Precise cellular function of Menin remains uncertain

The pattern of MENIN expression cannot explain the endocrine nature of associated tumours

MENIN interactions and function



Two hybrid screening, co-immunoprecipitation GST-pull-down studies

(Chandrasekharappa SC 2003 J Int Med 253:606 ;Thakker RV 2010 Best Pract Clin Endo Metab 24:355)

Transcriptional regulation by Menin

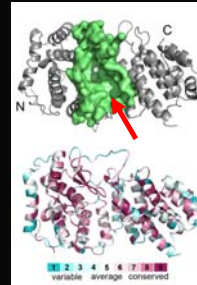
Interacts with JunD and C-Jun to suppresses transcription
 JunD/mSin3A/HDAC histone deacetylase recruitment
 Binds NFκB (p50, p52 and p65) suppressing transcriptional activation
 Inhibits TGFβ and BMP-2 signally by binding Smad3 and Smad1/5
 Menin is component of MLL histone methyltransferase complex
 Activates gene transcription by H3-K4-timethylation
 Menin binds and act as co-activator for ERα, VDR and PPARγ
 Menin binds β-catenin
 Effects β-catenin cellular location and Wnt signalling

“Menin may act as an adapter protein regulating many molecular complexes involved in tumorigenesis, proliferation, differentiation, apoptosis, growth factor and stress responses, DNA repair and epigenetic modification”

(Balogh K 2010 Mol Cell Endo 326:80; Thakker RV 2010 Best Pract Clin Endo Metab 24:355)

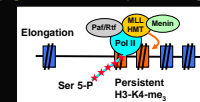
Mixed lineage leukaemia histone methyltransferase complex

Menin MLL binding pocket



Sea anemone menin

Menin is key component of MLL-HMT complex
 Trimethylation (H3-K4-me₃)
 Epigenetic transcriptional regulation



Menin dependent MLL-HMT activity regulates
 CDK inhibitor expression (*p18* and *p27*)
 Hox gene expression (*Hoxa9*, *Meis1*)

Acute leukaemia
 MLL fusion proteins have poor prognosis
 Menin is a critical oncogenic cofactor

(Ng HH 2003 Mol Cell 11:709; Hughes CM 2004 Mol Cell 13:587; Murai MJ 2011 JBC 286:31742)

Importance of CDK inhibitors p27^{Kip} and p18^{ink4c}

p27^{Kip} and p18^{ink4c} double KO mice (3 month old) (Franklin Ds 2000 MCB 20:6147)

Parathyroid and pituitary adenomas, Islet cell and duodenal hyperplasia
 Thyroid c-cell hyperplasia and Phaeochromocytomas

MenX rats: spontaneously occurring AR disorder (Pellegata 2006 NS PNAS 103:15559)

Homozygous frameshift mutation of p27^{Kip} (8nt duplication exon 2)
 Parathyroid adenomas, pancreatic islet cell hyperplasia,
 Thyroid C-cell hyperplasia,
 Bilateral phaeochromocytomas and paragangliomas

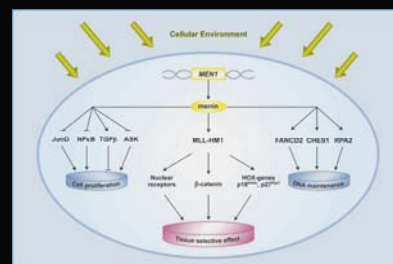
Analysis of *CDKN1B/p27* in MEN1 mutation negative families

2% heterozygous for germline mutations of *CDKN1B* (5 identified)
 Parathyroid, pituitary (GH and ACTH), pancreatic (Gastrin and NF)
 Adrenal tumours and renal angiomyolipoma
 Small cell cervical carcinoma (show LOH)

p27^{Kip} and p18^{ink4c} have key roles in preventing neoplasia in endocrine tissues
 There regulation by MLL-HMT may help explain the phenotype of MEN1

(103:15558; Georgtisi M JCEM 2007 92:3321; Agawar1 SK JCEM 94:1826)

Summary of MENIN's function



The pattern of tumorigenesis in MEN1 is likely to be a consequence of the specific inability of endocrine cells to compensate for the loss of Menin

(Gracian A 2009 Cancer Res 69:6371-6374)

Animal models of MEN1

Global *Men1* knockout mice

Men1^{+/+} die in utero E11.5-13.5

Craniofacial, neural, cardiac and hepatic abnormalities

Men1^{+/+} (deletion of exon 3-8) (Crabtree JS 2001 PNAS 98:1118)

Parathyroid, pancreatic (Ins), pituitary (PrI) and adrenocortical tumours
 LOH in tumours
 Hyperplasia is nonclonal in some tissues (islet cells)

Men1^{+/+} (deletion of exon 3) (Bertolino P 2003 Mol Endo 17:1880)

Parathyroid, pancreatic (Ins/Gast/Glu), pituitary (PrI/GH) and adrenal
 Thyroid, Leydig, ovarian and mammary tumours

Men1^{+/+} (deletion of exon 1 and 2)

(Loffler KA 2007 Int J Cancer 120:259; Harding B 2009 Endo Related Cancer 16:1313)

Parathyroid, pancreatic, pituitary tumours
 Thyroid, adrenal and gonadal tumours

Endocrine tissues in humans and mice have different abilities to compensate for the loss of menin

Animal models of MEN1

Conditional *Men1* knockout mice

β cell specific deletion of *Men1* by E11.5 (*Men1*^{ΔRip/ΔRip} mice)

Normal islet cell architecture

100% islet hyperplasia at 2 months

88% insulinomas at 8 months

Loss of one *Men1* allele leads to hyperplasia, 2 alleles to atypical hyperplasia but further somatic events are required for adenoma formation

Hepatocyte specific deletion of *Men1* (*Men1*^{ΔAlb/ΔAlb} mice)

Normal livers no tumours

89% and 63% reduction CDK inhibitors p18^{ink4c} and p27^{Kip1} respectively

Tamoxifen inducible deletion (Cre-ER x *Men1*^{fllox/fllox})

Pancreatic hyperplasia and islet enlargement within 14d

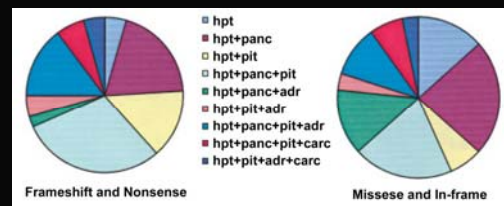
Decreased expression of CDK inhibitors p18^{ink4c} and p27^{Kip1}

Accelerated S phase entry in cell cycle

(Crabtree JS MCB 2003 98:1118; Bertolino P Can Res 2003 4836; Scacheri PC Mam Gen 15:872; Schnepf RW Can Res 2006 66:5707)

Genotype phenotype correlation and genetic testing in MEN1

Genotype phenotype correlation in MEN1



There is no evidence of a phenotype genotype correlation in MEN1
 Wide phenotypic variation within families
 Menin is a tumour suppressor
 Mutations are scattered with no hot spots
 75% of mutations predict absent or truncated protein
 Mutant Menin proteins are rapidly degraded

(Wautot V. 2020 Hum Mut 20:35)

Genetic testing in MEN1 (Exeter and Oxford)

Genetic testing should be offered to

- Sporadic cases (2 of 3 main MEN1 tumours)
- Familial cases (2 of 3 main MEN1 tumours + 1st degree relative with 1)
- Suspicious/atypical cases with 2 or more MEN1 related tumours
- Multiple/recurrent parathyroid tumours (<30y) or familial 1^oHPT
- Gastrinoma or multiple islet cell tumours
- Family members at risk (<10 years)

MEN1 mutation screening is by direct sequencing

Screening <i>MEN1</i> exons 2 to 10	£350
Dosage analysis (MLPA)	£100
Known <i>MEN1</i> mutation in family member	£100

If no *MEN1* mutation identified and likely to be familial

Linkage analysis	£245
<i>CDKN1B</i> 1-2	£105

(Brandt ML 2001 JCEM 86:5658; Ozawa A 2007JCEM 92:1948)

Genetic testing for MEN1

Probability of identifying a germline *MEN1* mutation

- 75-95% of familial *MEN1* probands
- 30-45% of sporadic *MEN1*
- 10% of familial 1^oHPT probands
- 1% familial pituitary tumours

Benefits of *MEN1* genetic screening

- Confirms the diagnosis in the proband
- Targets biochemical screening to mutant gene carriers
- Prevents unnecessary screening of unaffected family members

MEN1 genetic screening DOES NOT

- Prevent cancer
- Predict phenotype
- Alter clinical management

(Ellard S 2005 Clin Endo 62:169; Ozawa A 2007JCEM 92:1948)

MEN1 Summary

MENIN is a tumour suppressor and oncogenic cofactor in leukaemia

MEN1 due to inactivating mutations throughout the coding region

Many cellular functions have now been ascribed to *MENIN*

- Transcriptional regulation
- Chromatin modification
- Cell cycle control
- Genome stability, DNA replication and repair
- Apoptosis regulation

No phenotype genotype correlation in *MEN1*

Genetic testing confirms diagnosis and identifies mutant gene carriers

Target deletion in mice suggest

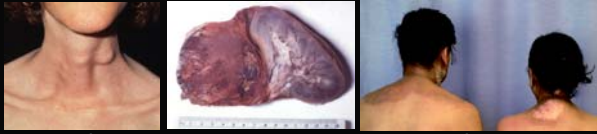
- Menin induces expression of cell cycle inhibitors p18 and p27
- Susceptible tissues

- Are unable to compensate for reduced P18 and P27 levels
- Menin haploinsufficiency predisposes to hyperplasia
- Menin loss leads to atypical hyperplasia
- Additional somatic events required for tumour formation

Multiple Endocrine Neoplasia Type 2

MEN2A and FMTC

MEN2 AD disease, high penetrance, prevalence >1/500,000



MTC	Phaeochromocytoma	CLA
MEN 2A (60%) (5-10% de novo)	Medullary thyroid carcinoma 90-100%	
	Phaeochromocytoma 50%	
	Parathyroid hyperplasia 20-30%	
MEN2A with Hirschsprungs	(25 families)	
MEN2A with cutaneous lichen amyloidosis	(30 families)	
FMTC (35%) (5-10% de novo)	Medullary thyroid carcinoma (Requires >10 carriers and multiple >50y)	

Multiple Endocrine Neoplasia Type 2A (Sipple's Syndrome)

C-cell hyperplasia or MTC (100% by 30 years)
Thyroid nodule or mass uni/bilateral, diarrhoea in late stages
First presenting feature of MEN2

Phaeochromocytoma (20-50% uni or bilateral)
Sweating, anxiety, palpitations, HT, headaches, stroke,
glucose intolerance
Often occurs 10y after MTC

Parathyroid hyperplasia/adenomas (5-20%)
Symptoms as in MEN1
Frequently late onset

MEN2B only 5% of MEN2 and 50% Denovo



Marfanoid habitus Mucosal neuromas

Medullary thyroid carcinoma (100%)
More aggressive than in MEN 2A, < 2y
Total thyroidectomy at the earliest age 4-5y
Phaeochromocytoma (50%)
As for MEN2A
Mucosal neuromas (>90%)
Tongue, lips and sub conjunctival and GI tract
Marfanoid habitus, pes cavus, scoliosis (>90%)
Pectus excavatum, slipped femoral epiphysis
GI ganglioneuromatosis / megacolon
Diarrhoea, colic, colonic obstruction and dilation

Biochemical Screening in MEN2

If possible identify family members with mutation
Clinical screening from the age of 1 to 2 years for life

Tumour	Age Start	Annual
MTC	Prophylactic thyroidectomy	
MTC	1 to 2	Calcitonin, Pentagastrin
Phaeochromocytoma	8-20y	3x Urinary catacholamines
1 ⁰ HPT	8-20y	Ca, PTH, VitD

Rapid further investigation of any abnormality

MEN2 is caused by gain-of-function mutations in the *RET* proto-oncogene

(REarranged during Transfection)

The *RET* proto-oncogene

Chr 10



Trans-membrane tyrosine kinase receptor
Expressed in cells derived from the neural crest

Chromosome 10

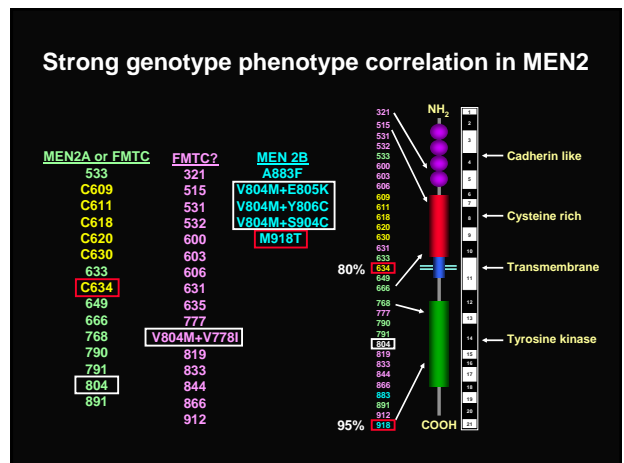
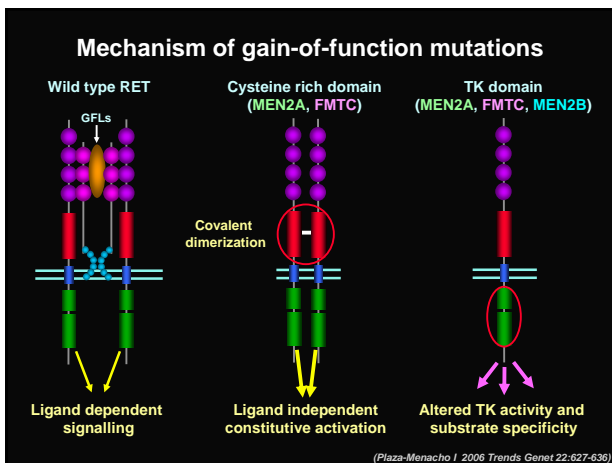
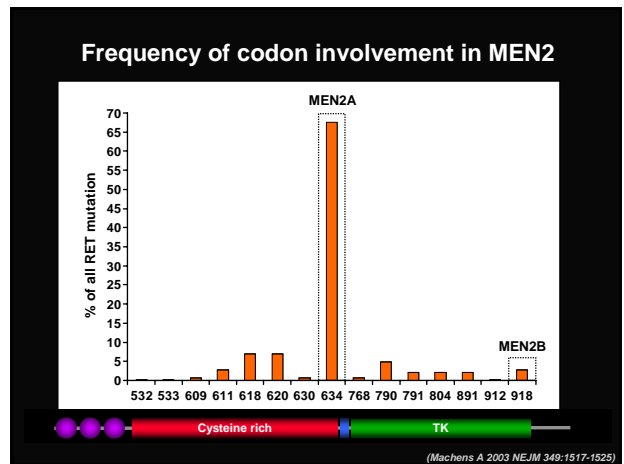
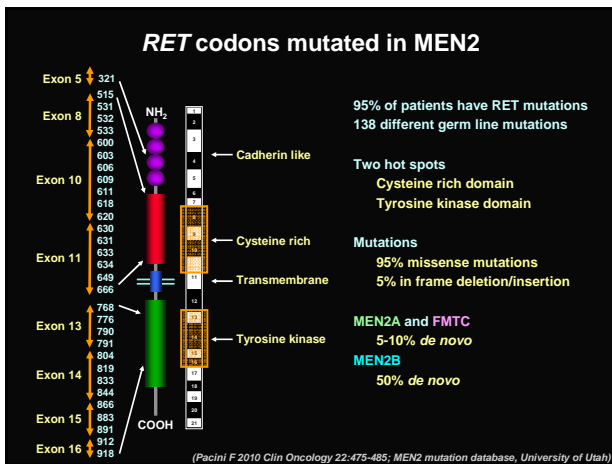
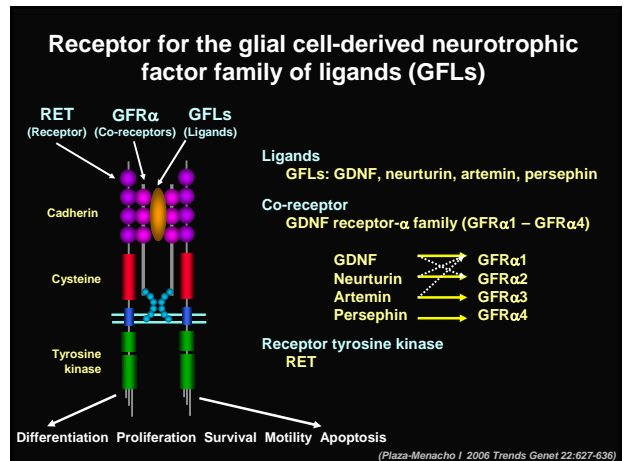
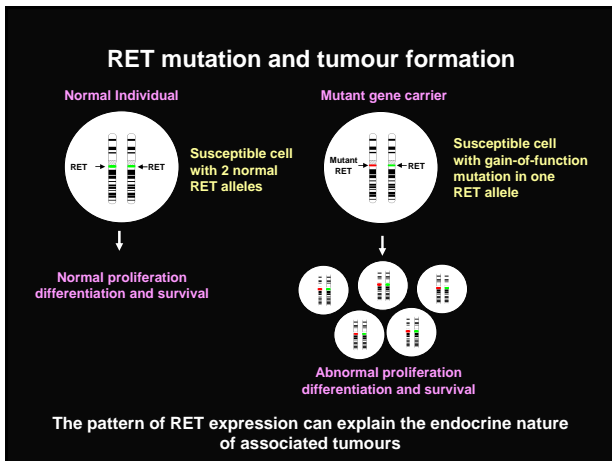
21 exons (1072-1114 amino acids)
3' alternative splicing (RET9, RET43 and RET51)

Expression during embryogenesis

Developing excretory system
Peripheral nervous system
CNS neurons
C-cells of the thyroid

Essential function

Development enteric nervous system
Kidney organogenesis
Spermatogenesis



Animal models of MEN2

Mouse models of MEN2A

Transgenic rCGRP/CT promoter driven **RET9-C634R** (Michiels *FM PNAS* 1997 94:3330)
Multifocal bilateral MTC (similar to MEN2)
From 3 weeks of age to 14 months (variable penetrance)

Transgenic hCALC promoter driven **RET51-C634R** (Reynolds L 2001 *Oncogene* 20:3986)
MTC by 6 months, PTC and abnormal thyroid development
MTC frequency increased with time and background dependent

Mouse models of MEN2B

Transgenic hCALC promoter driven **RET9-M918T** (Acton DS 2000 *Oncogene* 19:3121)
C-cell hyperplasia from 8 months
Bilateral MTC from 20 months (variable penetrance and latency)

RET M919T knock-in mouse (Smith-Hicks CL 2000 *EMBO* 19:612)

RET(+M919T) only CCH and pheochromocytoma at 12 months
RET(M919T/M919T) more severe CCH and male infertility

Genetic background, *RET* dosage and *RET* isoform effect tumours
Additional oncogenic events are required for tumorigenesis

Genotype phenotype correlation and genetic testing in MEN2

Genetic testing in MEN2 and MTC (Exeter, Oxford and Cambridge)

Genetic testing should be offered in all patients with MEN2 and MTC
Proband and then family members at 50% risk (<5y)

RET mutation screening is by direct exon sequencing

MEN2A/FMTC (exons 5,8,10,11,13,14,15 and 16)	£245
MEN2B (exons 15 and 16)	£105
Known RET mutation in family member	£100

If no common RET mutation and likely to be familial
Sequence all 21 exons £600

(BTA/RCP 2007 Management of medullary thyroid cancer 41-48)
(Kloos RT 2009 ATA MTC Management Guidelines, Thyroid 19:565-612)

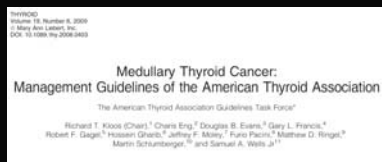
RET genetic testing

Probability of identifying a germline *RET* mutation
95% MEN2A and MEN2B
88% of FMTC
1-7% apparently sporadic MTC cases

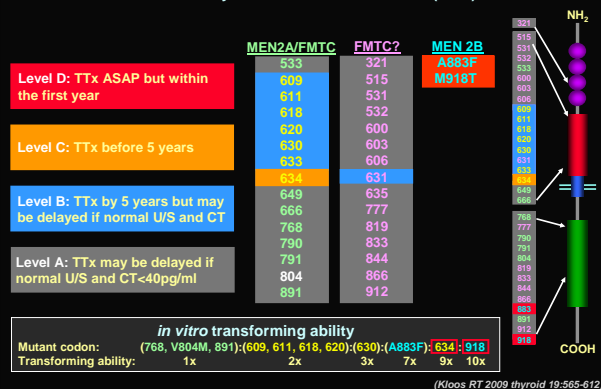
Benefits of *RET* genetic testing
Distinguish sporadic from familial MTC
Early diagnosis of carrier state
Guides timing of prophylactic thyroidectomy
Directs surveillance for Phaeo, PHPT
PREVENTS CANCER

(BTA/RCP 2007 Management of medullary thyroid cancer 41-48)
(Kloos RT 2009 ATA MTC Management Guidelines, Thyroid 19:565-612)

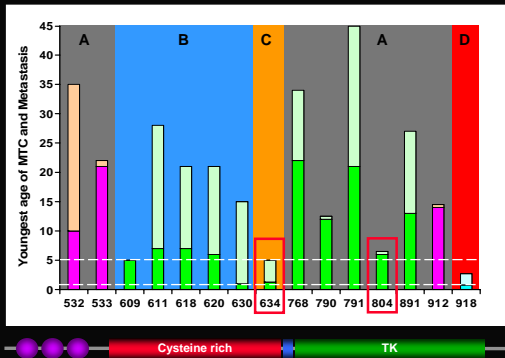
A codon based approach risk stratification in MEN2



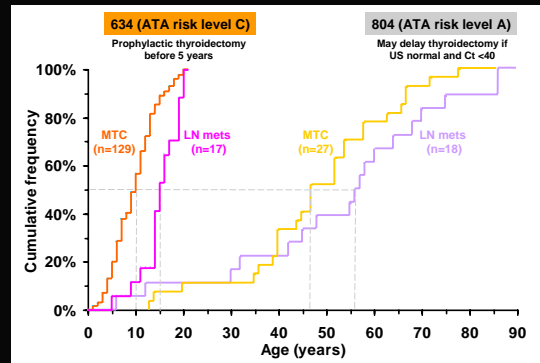
Risk stratification for MTC American Thyroid Association risk levels (2009)



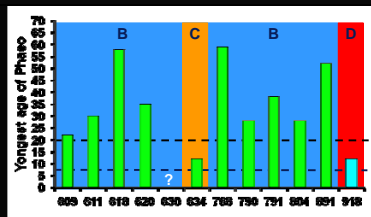
Youngest age of MTC and LN metastasis



RET Cys634 and Val804 mutations age of MTC and LN metastasis



Risk stratification for pheochromocytoma

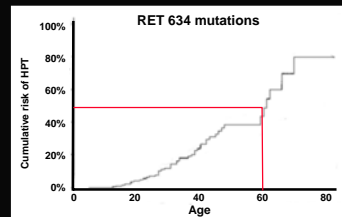


2009 ATA recommendation for pheochromocytoma screening

Level D	883 and 918	Annual screening from 8 years of age
Level C	634	Annual screening from 8 years of age
Level B	630	Annual screening from 8y
	Others	Annual screening from 20 years
Level A		Periodical screening from 20 years

(Kloos RT 2009 thyroid 19:565)

Risk stratification for hyperparathyroidism



2009 ATA recommendation for 1°HPT screening

Level D	883 and 918	Screening not required in MEN2B
Level C	634	Most frequently associated with 1°HPT Annual screening from 8y
Level B	630	Annual screening from 8y
	Others	Annual screening from 20 years
Level A		Periodical screening from 20 years

(Kloos RT 2009 thyroid 19:565)

Limitations of a codon based approach to risk

Timing of thyroidectomy by mutant codon

- Earliest reported incidence of MTC
- Average age at which MTC occurs
- Earliest reported incidence of metastasis
- Average age at which metastasis occurs
- Role of annual US and calcitonin measurement

Limitations of codon based approaches

- Influence of genetic background and modifier genes
- MEN2A and FMTC families have the same mutations
- Phenotype of RET mutant mice is background dependent
- Variation within families less than between families
- Additional stochastic events are required for tumour progression
- Lack of sufficient clinical data for many rare mutations

Early thyroidectomy in a specialist centre has low risk of complications and cures cancer

MEN2 Summary

- RET is a proto-oncogene and a receptor tyrosine kinase
- Signalling via MAPK, AKT, JNK, PKC and JAK/STAT pathways
- Roles in differentiation, proliferation, survival, motility and apoptosis
- Expression pattern explains clinical phenotype
- MEN2 caused by gain-of-function mutations
- Mutations hotspots in cysteine rich and TK domains
- Strong phenotype genotype correlation
- In vivo* and *in vitro*
- Genetic screening
- Confirms diagnosis and identify mutant gene carriers
- Guides clinical management and prevents cancer

- Target mutation in mice suggest that phenotype
- Phenotype is depends on genetic background
- Phenotype dependent on RET isoform and gene dosage
- Additional somatic events required for tumour formation

Contrasting molecular genetics in MEN1 and MEN2

Multiple Endocrine Neoplasia Type 1 (MEN1)

Loss-of-function mutations in a tumour suppressor gene
Further loss of the normal allele in tumours

Highly conserved protein with no known homology
Ubiquitously expressed but its function remains uncertain
No phenotype genotype correlation

Genetic screening

Confirms the diagnosis in the proband
Targets screening to mutant gene carriers
Does not prevent cancer

Multiple Endocrine Neoplasia Type 2 (RET)

Gain-of-function mutations in a proto-oncogene
Role as tyrosine kinase receptor already well established
Expression pattern consistent with clinical phenotype
Strong phenotype genotype correlation

Genetic screening

Confirms diagnosis and identifies mutant gene carriers
Directs clinical management and prevents cancer
