



## Review: Ewing Sarcoma Predisposition

Pablo Gargallo<sup>1</sup> · Yania Yáñez<sup>1</sup> · Antonio Juan<sup>2</sup> · Vanessa Segura<sup>1</sup> · Julia Balaguer<sup>2</sup> · Bárbara Torres<sup>2</sup> · Silves Oltra<sup>3,4</sup> · Victoria Castel<sup>2</sup> · Adela Cañete<sup>2</sup>

Received: 28 June 2019 / Accepted: 10 October 2019 / Published online: 26 October 2019  
© Arányi Lajos Foundation 2019

### Abstract

Ewing sarcoma is a rare tumor developed in bone and soft tissues of children and teenagers. This entity is biologically led by a chromosomal translocation, typically including *EWS* and *FLI1* genes. Little is known about Ewing sarcoma predisposition, although the role of environmental factors, ethnicity and certain polymorphisms on Ewing sarcoma susceptibility has been studied during the last few years. Its prevalence among cancer predisposition syndromes has also been thoroughly examined. This review summarizes the available evidence on predisposing factors involved in Ewing sarcoma susceptibility. On the basis of these data, an integrated approach of the most influential factors on Ewing sarcoma predisposition is proposed.

**Keywords** Ewing sarcoma · Cancer predisposition · Genetic susceptibility · Polymorphism

### Abbreviations

ES	Ewing sarcoma
CNV	Copy number variations
CPS	Cancer predisposing syndromes
MSC	Mesenchymal Stem Cell
AACR	American Association of Cancer Research
LFS	Li-Fraumeni Syndrome
WGS	whole genome sequencing
WES	Whole exome sequencing
NGS	Next generation sequencing
<i>RB1</i>	RB transcriptional corepressor 1
<i>BLM</i>	Bloom Syndrome RecQ Like Helicase gene; Bloom syndrome gene
<i>RET</i>	RET Proto-Oncogene
GENESIS	Genetics of Ewing Sarcoma International study

### Introduction

Ewing sarcoma (ES) is an aggressive and rare tumor developed usually in bone, but sometimes in soft tissues as well [1], whose incidence is estimated to be 1.2 cases/million in U.S. [2]. White people have higher incidence than black and Asian people [3, 4], and there is a peak between 5 and 24 years old [1, 5–13].

Chromosomal translocation between *TET* and *ETS* genes is the best known and the most important molecular event in ES. Most of cases present a balanced reciprocal chromosomal translocation (t(11;22)(q24;q12)), which results in *EWS/FLI1* oncogenic gene fusion [14]. Fusion protein *EWS/FLI1* acts as a pathogenic transcription factor and determines tumor development [15–22]. The chromatin remodeling event mediated by *EWS/FLI1* leads to gene activation and repression [22]. *GGAA* microsatellite regions are the binding site of *EWS/FLI1* [23–27]. The oncogenic transcription program mediated by *EWS/FLI1* up-regulates and down-regulates thousands of genes [15, 16].

Some copy number variations (CNV) (gain of chromosome 1q, 8, 12 and loss of 9p21 and 16q) [28–30] and gene mutations (in *STAG2*, *TP53* and *Rb1* genes) are recurrent in ES [31, 32], but not as unifying as the chromosomal translocation. Thus, single nucleotide variants in genes commonly related to cancer have a minor role in ES. Interestingly, this fact coincides with the remarkable absence of ES among pediatric cancer predisposing syndromes (CPS). In the same line, the genes implicated in classic CPS have been rarely related to ES

✉ Pablo Gargallo  
gargallo\_pabtat@gva.es

<sup>1</sup> Clinical and Translational Oncology Research Group, La Fe Hospital, Av. Fernando Abril Martorell 106 Postal Code, 46026 Valencia, Spain

<sup>2</sup> Pediatric Oncology and Hematology Unit, La Fe Hospital, Valencia, Spain

<sup>3</sup> Genetics Unit, La Fe Hospital, Valencia, Spain

<sup>4</sup> Genetics Department, Valencia University, Valencia, Spain

predisposition. Additionally, no clear ES incidence clustering has been reported among families [33]. However, an increased risk of several cancers besides ES, among patients and their relatives (first, second and third relatives), has been described [34].

Ewing's sarcoma cell of origin is not well described and consensus about it is lacking. However, the Mesenchymal Stem Cell (MSC) has been proposed as the most acceptable possibility [35–40]. Amaral et al. described that MSC in ES patients did not carry either *EWSR1-FLII* gene fusion, or other *EWSR1* gene rearrangements [41]. Therefore, this study did not support the presence of pre-malignant clones in the cell of origin, as happens with MLL rearranged pediatric leukemia, which could be present pre-birth [42]. Moreover, the debate about the existence of a microenvironment that promotes tumor development from MSC is still in course. Furthermore, the molecular steps that conditions tumor development until achieving a complete ES phenotype have not been described [43]. Therefore, ES origin cell uncertainty and the confusion about initial steps of tumor development, make the study of environmental and molecular events that conferring ES risk, difficult. In fact, not much is known about environment influences on ES susceptibility. Environment suspected contributions are also here reviewed.

Ethnic distribution and family cancer aggregation among ES patient and their relatives, have inspired the study of contributing polymorphisms to ES risk. Several collaborative groups are focused on the study of GGAA microsatellite polymorphic heterogeneity among ethnicities. A correlation between the number of GGAA repeats in concrete genomic regions and ES susceptibility and prognosis have been proposed. Other common polymorphisms (*CD86* rs1129055-A) and their role in ES risk have been studied as well. Intriguing results are available in this field and will be discussed below.

In summary, there is an intense discussion around the risk factors for ES development and predisposition. The lack of awareness about them, limits a directed screening to detect predisposed children. Thus, the following questions are still on the stand: *Are there predisposing gene mutations? If yes, which are them? Do genetic predisposing polymorphisms really exist in Ewing sarcoma? How much influence do they have? What do we know about environmental risk factors? Must we discard their role?* This fascinating field is reviewed. Fig. 1.

## Ewing Sarcoma Predisposition

### Are there Predisposing Gene Mutations?

ES is not part of cancer predisposition syndromes. Nevertheless, some of them develop sarcomas, an exceptionally, Ewing sarcoma family of tumors. During the past few

years, a compilation guide of cancer predisposing syndromes has been published in *Clinical Cancer Research* journal. This was an effort developed under the shelter of American Association of Cancer Research (AACR) [44–59].

Some classic cancer predisposing syndromes deserve a special attention because of ES or other sarcomas were reported previously among them. Moreover, heterozygous rare variants in genes associated to recessive inheritance syndromes, can condition an increased cancer of risk. Relation between these mono-allelic variants and ES is also here considered. Common genes which require deeper investigation about their implication in ES predisposition are reviewed through next lines.

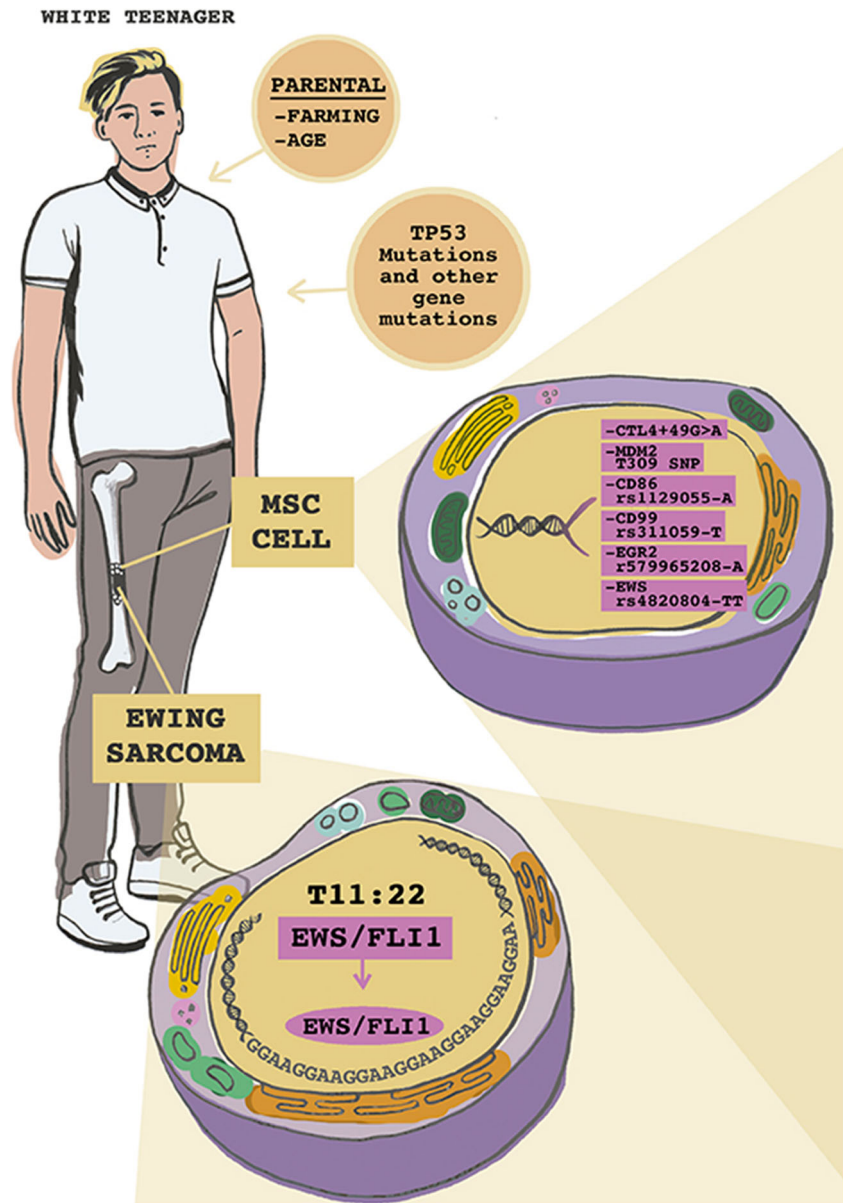
## Ewing Sarcoma and Cancer Predisposition Syndromes

### Li Fraumeni Syndrome (LFS)

Li-Fraumeni Syndrome (LFS) is an uncommon predisposing cancer disease transmitted by autosomal dominant inheritance. Mutations in *TP53* are responsible for most of cases. *CHEK2* and *POT1* mutations have also been implicated in LFS [60–68]. Association among soft-tissue sarcomas, breast cancer, and other neoplasm was firstly described by Li and Fraumeni in 1969 [69]. The most frequent tumors in LFS are soft tissue sarcomas, osteosarcoma, breast cancer, brain tumors, leukemia and adrenocortical carcinoma (#151623 OMIM) [70, 71]. In spite of the large spectrum of tumors described in Li-Fraumeni syndrome, ES has been rarely reported, and consequently, based on large cohorts, ES would not be considered part of Li-Fraumeni clinical spectrum [70, 71].

Curiously, in the current context of next generation sequencing technologies development, germline genetic variants from ES patients have been studied around the world. Personalized medicine projects in pediatric oncology studied somatic and germline variants in relapsed patients during these past years. These studies included ES patients, and found new mutations which probably predispose this and other pediatric cancers [72–79]. Moreover, St Jude Research Hospital led germline studies in pediatric oncology patients and published their results [80] and Brohl et al. reported germline sequencing results in a large Ewing sarcoma cohort in 2017 [81]. Therefore, the knowledge derived from all these studies did not come from Li-Fraumeni family cohorts but from ES patients whose *TP53* gene was sequenced in blood, and in most cases, without clinical suspicion of Li Fraumeni syndrome. From St Jude, Zhang et al. studied germline of 46 ES patients, and four of them carried *TP53* germline pathogenic variants (8,7%) [80]. In addition, Brohl et al. studied germline from 175 patients affected by ES and sequenced whole genomes or exomes (WGS/WES). They detected pathogenic or likely pathogenic germline mutations in 13.1% of

**Fig. 1** multifactorial predisposition to Ewing sarcoma. Ewing sarcoma typically arises in bone and soft tissues of white teenagers and is less prevalent between other ethnicities and ages. Polymorphic variability in GGAA microsatellite repeats has been proposed responsible of this. Moreover, many other polymorphic variants among populations could be predisposing. The presence of these variants or maybe their interaction may facilitate the Ewing sarcoma development from progenitor cell. Environment and parental age might be conditioning offspring epigenomics. Epigenomic marks in specific genome regions could increase ES risk. *TP53* and other genes could be mutated among few Ewing sarcoma patients and predispose to Ewing sarcoma family of tumors.



their cohort. Concretely, only one patient carried a pathogenic variant in *TP53* (*TP53* p. R151C) [81]. The most relevant Personalized Medicine projects in pediatric oncology did not report *TP53*, *CHEK2* or *POT1* germline mutations among the studied Ewing sarcoma patients [72–79].

In conclusion, information coming from large cohorts of Li-Fraumeni families and recent data from NGS studies is controversial, so this field requires more research. Hence, although *TP53* mutations could be present in around 5–10% Ewing sarcoma tumors, their role in ES predisposition is not well characterized [82]. In fact, if some ES patients carried on deleterious *TP53* variants which may be predisposed to ES, why there are not any families affected by ES in successive generations? Why ES does not appear repeatedly among Li-Fraumeni patients? We must keep in mind that ES is a rare

entity, exceptionally associated with *TP53* pathogenic variants. We should consider that few of them arrived healthy to reproductive ages and transmitted a genetic syndrome (whose penetrance is not complete, and its clinical story is very heterogeneous). Therefore, we cannot discard a predisposing role of *TP53* in ES.

Li-Fraumeni phenotype is modified by several genetic and epigenetic marks. In addition, some polymorphic variants in *TP53* or *MDM2* genes were proved to be important for LFS phenotype [83–91]. Based on this knowledge, Thurow et al. studied the influence of *TP53* Arg72Pro and *MDM2* T309G SNPs in ES risk, but independently of Li Fraumeni presence. They found a significant association between the G allele of *MDM2* T309G SNP and ES risk [92]. No associations regarding the Arg72Pro SNP were found in their work. *MDM2*

T309G SNP should be prospectively studied among ES patients, independently of *TP53*, *CHEK2* or *POT1* mutational status.

Studying *TP53* is mandatory when considering ES germline approximations. Although not enough scientific data associates *TP53* mutations with ES risk, the study of germline *TP53* deleterious variants should be translated to ES patients/parents for genetic counseling adapted to family risk.

### Retinoblastoma Predisposition Syndrome

Hereditary retinoblastoma patients carry on a germline mutation in *Rb1* gene. This predisposes Retinoblastoma, but also, increases the risk of developing a second primary tumor [56]. *Rb1* is recurrently mutated among ES tumors [31, 32], and therefore, it justified the study of ES incidence among *Rb1* mutated carriers. The study of large patients cohorts have demonstrated that patients with *Rb1* mutations presented an increased risk of soft tissue sarcomas, even in not irradiated patients [93]. Leiomyosarcoma was proved the most frequent second primary sarcoma in these patients [93]. In addition, the risk of developing Osteosarcoma and other soft tissue sarcomas as second primary tumors is higher in *Rb1* mutation carriers. However, Ewing sarcoma was an exception in these series [94]. Therefore, *RB1* gene has not been related to Ewing sarcoma family of tumors predisposition up to now. It would not be routinely studied in germline among ES patients.

### Bloom Syndrome

Bloom syndrome is an autosomal recessive disorder due to *BLM* (Bloom Syndrome RecQ Like Helicase gene; Bloom syndrome gene) mutations [47, 95]. Leukemia and lymphoma are the most frequent cancers in Bloom Syndrome. The cancer distribution is similar to the general population, but cancer occurs at younger ages. Sarcomas were as well described, but significant increased risk has not been demonstrated among patients [95]. Additionally, no data support an increased risk of cancer among heterozygous *BLM* mutated carriers [96]. However, Brohl et al. detected 1 pathogenic or probably pathogenic variant in *BLM* among sequenced Ewing patients [32]. More contrasted data are necessary on this variant. We consider important discard pathogenic variants in this gene when studying ES germline.

### Fanconi Anemia

Fanconi anemia is an autosomal recessive disorder has been associated, until now, with 19 genes that encode Fanconi anemia complementation group proteins (*FANCA*, *FANCB*, *FANCC*, *BRCA2*, *FANCD2*, *FANCE*, *FANCF*, *FANCG*, *FANCI*, *BRIP1*, *FANCL*, *FANCM*, *PALB2*, *RAD51C*, *SLX4*, *ERCC4*, *RAD51*, *BRCA1*, *UBE2T*) [47, 97]. Besides,

pathogenic variants in *FANCB* conditions X-linked recessive inheritance and *FANCR* mutations an autosomal dominant heredity. Fanconi Anemia predisposes to hematologic disorders through childhood and to solid cancers (mainly oral carcinomas) afterwards. Solid tumors have been reported in childhood only exceptionally [98]. ES is not a frequent cancer in Fanconi.

Interesting data derived from next generation sequencing studies revealed ES carriers of heterozygous mutations in Fanconi anemia genes. Parson et al. reported a *BRCA2* mutation in a patient affected by ES. Short stature, thrombocytopenia and mild anemia were present in this patient as well [75]. Brohl et al. reported pathogenic or likely pathogenic heterozygous germline variants in *BRCA1*, *FANCC*, *FANCM* genes [32]. More information is needed to draw definite conclusions on the implication of Fanconi genes in ES predisposition.

### Constitutional Mismatch Repair Deficiency Syndrome (CMMRD)

Constitutional mismatch repair deficiency syndrome depends on biallelic mutations in any of the four mismatch repair genes *MSH2*, *MSH6*, *MLH1*, or *PMS2* [48]. This disease has many phenotypic similarities with NF1. The spectrum of CMMRD-associated childhood malignancies includes high-grade Glioma, Acute Myeloid Leukaemia and Rhabdomyosarcoma, all of them also described in NF1 [99–101]. Real impact in Ewing predisposition is not yet known [32, 80]. Zhang et al. and Brohl et al. reported one heterozygous germline variant in *PMS2* among ES patients. No other information on heterozygous carriers and ES risk has been previously described. More details about this field are required.

### Multiple Endocrine Neoplasia Type 2A (MEN2A)

MEN2A syndrome is an inherited cancer syndrome, usually caused by an oncogenic *RET* protein activation. In contrary, *RET* mutation carriers do not develop ES, Zhang et al. and Brohl et al. detected the same germline *RET* variant (*RET* p.L790F) among Ewing patients [32, 80]. MEN2A patients develop Medullary Thyroid Carcinoma, Pheochromocytoma, and parathyroid hyperplasia but no other tumors.

Kawai et al. found tissue specificity for tumor development in a transgenic mice model expressing mutated *RET* Proto-Oncogene. Mice developed only tumors described in MEN2A patients. The study demonstrated failed *RET* dimerization in no affected tissues. Despite this knowledge, we cannot rule out that *RET* variant (*RET* p.L790F) could have an effect Ewing predisposition [102].

To conclude, ES has not been considered part of predisposing cancer syndromes. Nevertheless, next generation



sequencing studies are opening new questions that demand more attention. At least, pathogenic variants in *TP53* and Fanconi anemia genes should be studied prospectively in ES patients.

### Do Genetic Predisposing Polymorphisms Really Exist in Ewing Sarcoma?

The relationship between polymorphic variants in genes implicated in ES biology and their role in susceptibility have been studied. Positive relation between some polymorphisms and Ewing sarcoma risk has been reported. CD99 is a cell surface molecule with critical relevance for the pathogenesis of ES. High expression of CD99 is a common and distinctive feature of ES cells [103]. The CD99 rs311059-T variant was significantly associated with ES onset in Italian pediatric patients (odds ratio [OR] = 3.9  $p = 0.0029$ ) [103]. Furthermore, single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) in *EWS* breaking region were studied, in order to analyze ES's susceptibility. The rs4820804-TT SNP was proposed as a candidate marker in ES risk. This polymorphism increases the chance of having a chromosome break, and thus, increases the chances for a translocation to occur [104].

Other gene polymorphisms were previously related to cancer risk, and based on that, several groups looked for their role in ES susceptibility. CD86 (B7-2) may affect cancer susceptibility by modulating T cell response. *CD86* rs1129055-A (*CD86* 1057G > A) allele has been associated to ES risk in Chinese population (odds ratio [OR] = 2.12;  $p = 0.021$ ) [105]. Additionally, *CTLA-4* + 49G > A gene variant has been strongly associated with Ewing's sarcoma and Osteosarcoma risk (for ES odds ratio [OR] = 1.36  $p = 0.000$ ) [106].

Genome-wide association studies have identified ES susceptibility variants in different loci during past years. Postel-Vinay et al. reported in 2012 an increased ES risk associated with 1p36.22, 10q21 and 15q15 loci. They found positive correlation between rs9430161 (upstream of *TARDBP*), rs224278 (upstream of *EGR2*) and rs4924410 polymorphism at 15q15 and ES risk. These major risk haplotypes were less prevalent in Africans [107]. *EGR2* has been proposed as a target gene for *EWSR1-FLI1*. In fact, *EGR2* knockdown inhibits proliferation, clonogenicity and spheroidal growth in vitro and induced regression of ES xenografts [108]. Based on this information, Grunewald et al., evidenced that the A-allele of rs79965208 in *EGR2* is significantly associated with ES risk [108]. The *EWSR1-FLI1* oncogenic transcription factors binds DNA at GGAA motifs, and therefore, the number of GGAA motifs near *EGR2* may condition *EWSR1-FLI1/EGR2* interaction. Interestingly, the A-allele of rs79965208 in *EGR2* increases the number of consecutive GGAA motifs and thus the *EWSR1-FLI1*-dependent enhancer activity [108]. That might partially explain prevalence differences between populations (Table 1).

More recently, Machiella et al. performed a genome-wide study in ES cases and controls of European ancestry. They replicated the susceptibility loci reported by Postel-Vinay et al. at 1p36.22, 10q21.3 and 15q15.1 and identified new loci at 6p25.1, 20p11.22 and 20p11.23. The 20p11.22 locus is near *NKX2-2*. Interestingly, most loci reside near GGAA repeat sequences (binding site of *EWS/FLI* transcription factor). Therefore, these variants may condition the *EWSR1-FLI1* binding on GGAA motifs [109].

Other important contributions about polymorphic GGAA motifs, were reported by COG-group. They studied polymorphic microsatellite regions GGAA in both *NROB1* and *CAVI* genes. Their results demonstrated that the *NROB1* and *CAVI* GGAA microsatellites were highly polymorphic in both European and African populations. The *NROB1* microsatellite was substantially more polymorphic in both populations, whose number of GGAA motifs ranged from 16 to 60 and 14–72 in Europeans and Africans, respectively. This study concluded that efficient occupancy of *EWS/FLI* and associated co-factors were more optimal across microsatellites containing 21–25 or 55–60 GGAA motifs next to *NROB1* gene than other GGAA repeats [110, 111]. Therefore, polymorphic differences in genomic locations where *EWS/FLI* fusion protein binds, could explain the prevalence of particularities among populations.

On the other hand, *Alu* elements are a type of transposon (a type of SINE or Short INterspersed Element) and it was proposed that *Alu* elements are preferential sites for genetic recombination in cancer [112]. Due to *EWSR1-FLI1* importance in ES biology, it was hypothesized that polymorphism in *Alu* elements could have a role in ES susceptibility. Zucman-Rossi et al. looked for polymorphic differences in *Alu* repeats in *EWS* gene. They reported interethnic polymorphism differences in intron 6 of *EWS*. This intron (near the molecular common *EWS* breakpoint region), is at least 50 % smaller, due to diminished interspersed repeat sequences (*Alu* elements), in about 10% of the African population [113]. Large-scale studies on germline DNA from Ewing's sarcoma patients need to be performed for supporting this hypothesis [114].

### What we Know about Environmental Risk Factors?

Environmental factors have probably a minor role in pediatric cancer predisposition, but we cannot discard their contribution. Epidemiological Ewing sarcoma studies suggested five external factors which occurred more often among Ewing sarcoma patients than in healthy population: taking anti-nausea medications by mother during pregnancy, umbilical and inguinal hernias, heart conditions, parental smoking, and father's occupation in farming. Nevertheless, none of them have been significantly more frequent in ES patients compared to either siblings or general population controls [33]. Following reports

**Table 1** Genes or genetic variants related to Ewing susceptibility. Some well characterized genes and polymorphic variants may be related to Ewing susceptibility. Due to the fact that not enough information is available about these hypothesized contributing factors, collaborative groups should study these genes or polymorphic variants among all ES patients, in order to integrate more information

Genes or genetic variants related to Ewing susceptibility	Influence	Reference
<i>TP53</i> gene mutations	Probable	•Zhang et al. [80] Brohl et al. [81]
<i>MDM2</i> T309G SNP	Possible	•Thurrow et al. [92]
<i>BLM</i> gene mutations	Improbable	•Brohl et al. [81]
Fanconi Anemia genes mutations	Doubtful	•Brohl et al. [81]
CMMRD genes mutations	Doubtful	•Zhang et al. [80] •Brohl et al. [81]
<i>RET</i> gene mutations	Improbable	•Zhang et al. [80] •Brohl et al. [81]
<i>CD99</i> rs311059 -T SNP	Possible (in caucasian)	•Martinelli et al. [103]
<i>EWS</i> rs4820804-TT SNP	Possible	•Silva et al. [104]
<i>CD86</i> rs1129055 -A SNP	Possible (in Chineses)	•Wang et al. [105]
<i>CTLA-4</i> 49G > A SNP	Possible	•Zhang et al. [106]
<i>EGR2</i> rs79965208-A SNP	Possible	•Grünewald [108]

have suggested the association of Ewing's sarcoma and parental exposure to pesticides, solvents, and farming or agricultural occupation [115–118]. Holly et al. detected that ES risk was elevated in children whose fathers were engaged in agricultural occupations during the period from 6 months prior to the conception of subject up to the time of ES diagnosis (relative risk (RR) = 8.8, 95% confidence interval (CI) 1.8–42.7) and for children whose fathers had occupational exposure to herbicides, pesticides, or fertilizers (RR = 6.1, 95% CI 1.7–21.9,  $p = 0.002$ ) [115]. Valery et al. have studied expositions that confer ES susceptibility in Australia. The meta-analysis results supported the hypothesis of an association between ES and parental occupation in farming [118].

A concrete *mutational sign* has not been described in ES tumors, and therefore, a clear environmental triggering is probably not present. However, environmental exposures may condition the individual epigenetic signature. For example, arsenic exposure is associated to DNA hypermethylation of several genes, including *CDKN2A*, *RASSF1A* and *PRSS3* (curiously *CDKN2A* is a gene commonly deleted in ES) [119]. These influences on the epigenome appear mainly during key periods, like first states of intrauterine life and the fetal period of gonadal sex determination. Therefore, during periods of extensive epigenetic reprogramming, epigenome is sensible to environmental influences [120–123]. Interestingly, some of the epigenetic marks established in germ cell lineage members (ovule and spermatozoon) could be transmitted to subsequent generations [120, 124]. Trans-generational inheritance of epigenetic marks supposes that the epigenetic reprogramming state during embryonic and fetal period do not remove these heritable marks [120, 121]. Curiously, these inherited epimutations cluster in concrete genome regions [125]. Therefore, not only maternal environmental

exposures during pregnancy, but also both paternal and maternal exposures several years before, may condition the offspring epigenome. Even expositions in forebear many years ago might collaborate in ES predisposition.

Ewing's sarcoma risk was also found associated with increasing both maternal and paternal age by Johnson et al. [126] and it might be related with epigenetic marks. Epigenomics role in pediatric cancer risk has been understudied, and its interaction with genetics, age and cancer predisposition is unknown.

### Other Molecular Events Have a Predisposing Role?

Copy number variations are commonly detected among ES tumors [28–30], but few studies have been focused on its effect on ES risk. Krepischi et al. detected rare deletions and duplications in germline of pediatric patients (none patient suffered Ewing sarcoma). They concluded that constitutive CNVs contribute to the etiology of pediatric cancer. Further studies including ES patients should be performed [127].

### Discussion

In this work we have reviewed the main contributing factors to ES predisposition. An important body of work allows us to hypothesize a genetic contribution to ES susceptibility. Firstly, incidence's differences through ethnicities. The significant variations among ethnicities might be related to environmental factors, but their scarce role in pediatric cancer, and particularly in ES, suggest a remarkable genetic contribution. Secondly, the peak of ES incidence throughout adolescence also draws attention to genetic predisposition above

environmental repercussion. However, despite environmental contribution to ES predisposition is mild, it could explain, in part, some ES cases.

Since ES is not part of cancer predisposition syndromes and family aggregation is not frequently described, probably heritable genetic alterations are not highly damaging in this tumor. Nevertheless, increased cancer rates between ES patients and their relatives point out at least to a minor genetic contribution. In this sense, the presence of *MDM2* T309G and many other polymorphic variants have an effect on ES risk. Germline next generation sequencing studies have revealed pathogenic variants in *TP53*, Facioni anemia related genes as well as in mismatch repair genes suggesting that in a small percentage of ES patients, highly pathogenic variants could be predisposing this disease. Systematic studies analyzing all these genetic variants simultaneously are lacking, thus large prospective cohort studies are required.

The integrating analysis of genetic and environmental factors affecting parents and ancestors would be necessary to draw conclusions. Only collecting all this information through large international consortiums would help us to clarify ES predisposition. On this matter, GENESIS (Genetics of Ewing Sarcoma International study; AEPI10N5), a COG clinical trial, is working in this way [128], but many other efforts are necessary.

**Acknowledgments** Arash Javadinejad (Health Institute La Fe, Valencia, Spain): English review and editing. Loreto Sales Triguero: graphic design of Fig. 1.

## Compliance with Ethical Standards

**Conflict of Interest** The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

## References

- Horowitz M, Malawer M, Woo S, et al. Ewing's Sarcoma Family of Tumors: Ewing's Sarcoma of Bone and Soft Tissue and the Peripheral Primitive Neuroectodermal Tumors. Pizzo, PA.; Poplack, DG., editors. Principles and Practice of Pediatric Oncology. Philadelphia: Lippincott-Raven Publishers; 1997. p. 831–863
- Young IL, Percy CL, Asire AI (1981) Surveillance, epidemiology, and end results: incidence and mortality data, 1973–1977. *Nat I Cancer Inst Monogr* 57:149
- Worch J, Cyrus J, Goldsby R, Matthay KK, Neuhaus J, DuBois SG (2011) Racial differences in the incidence of mesenchymal tumors associated with EWSR1 translocation. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomark Prev* 20(3):449–453
- Nakata K, Ito Y, Magadi W, Bonaventure A, Stiller CA, Katanoda K et al (2018) Childhood cancer incidence and survival in Japan and England: a population-based study (1993–2010). *Cancer Sci* 109(2):422–434
- Polednak AP (1985) Primary bone cancer incidence in black and white residents of New York State. *Cancer (Phila)* 55:2883–2888
- Glass AG, Fraumeni JF (1970) Epidemiology of bone cancer in children. *J Natl Cancer Inst* 44(1):187–199
- Fraumeni JF, Glass AG (1970) Rarity of Ewing's sarcoma among U.S. Negro children. *Lancet* 1:366–367
- Jensen RD, Drake RM (1970) Rarity of Ewing's tumour in negroes. *Lancet*. 1:777
- Linden G, Dunn IE (1970) Ewing's sarcoma in negroes. *Lancet* 1: 1171
- Eddington GM, Bohrer SP, Middlemass IH (1970) Ewing's sarcoma in negroes. *Lancet*. 1:1171–1172
- Oyemade GA, Abioye AA (1982) Primary malignant tumors of bone: incidence in Ibadan, Nigeria. *I Natl Med Assoc* 74:65–68
- Kramer S, Meadows AT, Jarrett P, Evans AE (1983) Incidence of childhood cancer: experience of a decade in a population-based registry. *I Natl Cancer Inst* 10:49–55
- Li FP, Tu JT, Liu FS, Shiang EL (1980) Rarity of Ewing's sarcoma in China. *Lancet*. 1:1255
- Savita S, Stephen L (2011) Promiscuous partnerships in Ewing's sarcoma. *Cancer Genet*. 204(7):351–365
- Hancock JD, Lessnick SL (2008) A transcriptional profiling meta-analysis reveals a core EWS-FLI gene expression signature. *Cell Cycle* 7:250–256
- Sankar S, Bell R, Stephens B, Zhuo R, Sharma S, Bearss DJ et al (2013) Mechanism and relevance of EWS/FLI-mediated transcriptional repression in Ewing sarcoma. *Oncogene*. 32:5089–5100
- Lessnick SL, Ladanyi M (2012) Molecular pathogenesis of Ewing sarcoma: new therapeutic and transcriptional targets. *Annu Rev Pathol* 7:145–159
- Takigami I, Ohno T, Kitade Y, Hara A, Nagano A, Kawai G et al (2011) Synthetic siRNA targeting the breakpoint of EWS/Fli-1 inhibits growth of Ewing sarcoma xenografts in a mouse model. *Int J Cancer* 128:216–226
- Maksimenko A, Malvy C (2005) Oncogene-targeted antisense oligonucleotides for the treatment of Ewing sarcoma. *Expert Opin Ther Targets* 9:825–830
- Mateo-Lozano S, Gokhale PC, Soldatenkov VA, Dritschilo A, Tirado OM, Notario V (2006) Combined transcriptional and translational targeting of EWS/FLI-1 in Ewing's sarcoma. *Clin Cancer Res* 12:6781–6790
- Stoll G, Surdez D, Tirode F, Laud K, Barillot E, Zinovyev A et al (2013) Systems biology of Ewing sarcoma: a network model of EWS-FLI1 effect on proliferation and apoptosis. *Nucleic Acids Res* 41(19):8853–8871
- Riggi N, Knoechel B, Shawn M, Rheinbay E, Boulay G, Suvà M et al (2014) EWS-FLI1 utilizes divergent chromatin remodeling mechanisms to directly activate or repress enhancer elements in Ewing sarcoma. *Cancer Cell* 26(5):668–681
- Bilke S, Schwentner R, Yang F, Kauer M, Jug G, Walker RL et al (2013) Oncogenic ETS fusions deregulate E2F3 target genes in Ewing sarcoma and prostate cancer. *Genome Res* 23:1797–1809
- Gangwal K, Close D, Enriquez CA, Hill CP, Lessnick SL (2010) Emergent properties of EWS/FLI regulation via GGAA microsatellites in Ewing's sarcoma. *Genes Cancer* 1:177–187
- Gangwal K, Sankar S, Hollenhorst PC, Kinsey M, Haroldsen SC, Shah AA et al (2008) Microsatellites as EWS/FLI response elements in Ewing's sarcoma. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 105:10149–10154
- Guillon N, Tirode F, Boeva V, Zynovyev A, Barillot E, Delattre O (2009) The oncogenic EWS-FLI1 protein binds in vivo GGAA microsatellite sequences with potential transcriptional activation function. *PLoS One* 4:e4932
- Patel M, Simon JM, Iglesia MD, Wu SB, McFadden AW, Lieb JD, Davis IJ (2012) Tumor-specific retargeting of an oncogenic transcription factor chimera results in dysregulation of chromatin and transcription. *Genome Res* 22:259–270



28. Roberts P, Burchill SA, Brownhill S, Cullinane CJ, Johnston C, Griffiths MJ et al (2008) Ploidy and karyotype complexity are powerful prognostic indicators in the Ewing's sarcoma family of tumors: a study by the United Kingdom cancer cytogenetics and the children's cancer and leukaemia group. *Genes Chromosomes Cancer* 47:207–220
29. Mackintosh C, Ordóñez JL, García-Domínguez DJ, Sevillano V, Lombart-Bosch A, Szuhai K et al (2012) 1q gain and CDT2 overexpression underlie an aggressive and highly proliferative form of Ewing sarcoma. *Oncogene* 31:1287–1298
30. Hattinger CM, Pötschger U, Tarkkanen M, Squire J, Zielenska M, Kiuru-Kuhlefelt S et al (2002) Prognostic impact of chromosomal aberrations in Ewing tumours. *Br J Cancer* 86:1763–1769
31. Kan Z, Jaiswal BS, Stinson J, Janakiraman V, Bhatt D, Stern HM et al (2010) Diverse somatic mutation patterns and pathway alterations in human cancers. *Nature* 466:869–873
32. Brohl AS, Solomon DA, Chang W, Wang J, Song Y, Sindiri S et al (2014) The genomic landscape of the Ewing sarcoma family of tumors reveals recurrent STAG2 mutation. *PLoS Genet* 10(7): e1004475
33. Winn DM, Li FP, Robison LL, Mulvihill JJ, Daigle AE, Fraumeni JF (1992) A case-control study of the etiology of Ewing's sarcoma. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomark Prev* 1(7):525–532
34. Abbott D, Randall RL, Schiffman J, Lessnick S, Cannon-Albright LA. A population-based survey of excess cancers observed in Ewing's sarcoma and in their first-, second-, and third-degree relatives. *Cancer Res* 2015; 75(15 Suppl): Abstract nr 2748. <https://doi.org/10.1158/1538-7445>
35. Riggi N, Cironi L, Provero P, Suva ML, Kaloulis K et al (2005) Development of Ewing's sarcoma from primary bone marrow-derived mesenchymal progenitor cells. *Cancer Res* 65:11459–11468
36. Riggi N, Suva ML, De Vito C, Provero P, Stehle JC et al (2010) EWS-FLI-1 modulates miRNA145 and SOX2 expression to initiate mesenchymal stem cell epigenetic programming toward Ewing sarcoma cancer stem cells. *Genes Dev* 24:916–932
37. Tirode F, Laud-Duval K, Prieur A, Delorme B, Chabord P et al (2007) Mesenchymal stem cell features of Ewing tumors. *Cancer Cell* 11:421–429
38. Toomey EC, Schiffman JD, Lessnick SL (2010) Recent advances in the molecular pathogenesis of Ewing's sarcoma. *Oncogene* 29: 4504–4516
39. Von Levetzow C, Jiang X, Gwey Y, von Levetzow G, Hung L et al (2011) Modeling initiation of Ewing sarcoma in human neural crest cells. *PLoS One* 6:e19305
40. Ross KA, Smyth NA, Murawski Kennedy JG (2013) The biology of Ewing sarcoma. *ISRN Oncol* 759725
41. Amaral AT, Manara MC, Berghuis D, Ordóñez JL, Biscuola M, Lopez-García MA et al (2014) Characterization of human Mesenchymal stem cells from Ewing sarcoma patients. Pathogenetic Implications. *Plos One* 9:e85814
42. Johnson JJ, Chen W, Hudson W, Yao Q, Taylor M et al (2003) Prenatal and postnatal myeloid cells demonstrate stepwise progression in the pathogenesis of MLL fusion gene leukemia. *Blood* 101:3229–3235
43. Kovar H, Amatruda J, Brunet E, Burdach S, Cidre-Aranaz F, de Alava E et al (2016) The second European interdisciplinary Ewing sarcoma research summit—a joint effort to deconstructing the multiple layers of a complex disease. *Oncotarget* 7(8):8613–8624
44. Brodeur GM, Nichols KE, Plon SE, Schiffman JD, Malkin D (2017) Pediatric Cancer predisposition and surveillance: an overview, and a tribute to Alfred G. Knudson Jr. *Clin Cancer Res* 23:1–5
45. Greer MC, Voss SD, States LJ (2017) Pediatric Cancer predisposition imaging: focus on whole-body MRI. *Clin Cancer Res* 23:6–13
46. Porter CC et al (2017) Recommendations for surveillance for children with leukemia-predisposing conditions. *Clin Cancer Res* 23: 14–22
47. Walsh MF et al (2017) Recommendations for childhood Cancer screening and surveillance in DNA repair disorders. *Clin Cancer Res* 23:23–31
48. Tabori U et al (2017) Clinical management and tumor surveillance recommendations of inherited mismatch repair deficiency in childhood. *Clin Cancer Res* 23:32–37
49. Evans DGR et al (2017a) Cancer and central nervous system tumor surveillance in pediatric Neurofibromatosis 1. *Clin Cancer Res* 23:46–53
50. Evans DGR et al (2017b) Cancer and central nervous system tumor surveillance in pediatric Neurofibromatosis 2 and related disorders. *Clin Cancer Res* 23:54–61
51. Foulkes WD et al (2017) Cancer surveillance in Gorlin syndrome and Rhabdoid tumor predisposition syndrome. *Clin Cancer Res* 23:62–67
52. Rednam SP et al (2017) Von Hippel-Lindau and hereditary pheochromocytoma/Paraganglioma syndromes: clinical features, genetics, and surveillance recommendations in childhood. *Clin Cancer Res* 23:68–75
53. Schultz KAP et al (2017) PTEN, DICER1, FH, and their associated tumor susceptibility syndromes: clinical features, genetics, and surveillance recommendations in childhood. *Clin Cancer Res* 23:76–82
54. Villani A et al (2017) Recommendations for Cancer surveillance in individuals with RASopathies and other rare genetic conditions with increased Cancer risk. *Clin Cancer Res* 23:83–90
55. Druker H et al (2017) Genetic counselor recommendations for Cancer predisposition evaluation and surveillance in the pediatric oncology patient. *Clin Cancer Res* 23:91–97
56. Kamihara J et al (2017) Retinoblastoma and Neuroblastoma Predisposition and Surveillance. *Clin Cancer Res* 23:98–106
57. Achatz MI et al (2017) Cancer screening recommendations and clinical Management of Inherited Gastrointestinal Cancer Syndromes in childhood. *Clin Cancer Res* 23:107–114
58. Kalish JM et al (2017) Surveillance recommendations for children with overgrowth syndromes and predisposition to Wilms tumors and Hepatoblastoma. *Clin Cancer Res* 23:115–122
59. Wasserman JD et al (2017) Multiple endocrine Neoplasia and Hyperparathyroid-jaw tumor syndromes: clinical features, genetics, and surveillance recommendations in childhood. *Clin Cancer Res* 23:123–132
60. Etzold A, Schröder JC, Bartsch O, Zechner U, Galetzka D (2015) Further evidence for pathogenicity of the TP53 tetramerization domain mutation p.Arg342Pro in Li-Fraumeni syndrome. *Fam Cancer* 14(1):161–165
61. Macedo GS, Araujo Vieira I, Brandalize AP, Giacomazzi J, Inez Palmero E, Volc S (2016) Rare germline variant (rs78378222) in the TP53 3' UTR: evidence for a new mechanism of cancer predisposition in Li-Fraumeni syndrome. *Cancer Genet* 209(3):97–106
62. Calvete O, Martínez P, García-Pavía P, Benítez-Buelga C, Paumard-Hernández B, Fernández V et al (2015) A mutation in the POT1 gene is responsible for cardiac angiosarcoma in TP53-negative Li-Fraumeni-like families. *Nat Commun* 6:8383
63. Calvete O, García-Pavía P, Domínguez F, Bougeard G, Kunze K, Braeuning A et al (2017) The wide spectrum of POT1 gene variants correlates with multiple cancer types. *Eur J Hum Genet* 25(11):1278–1281
64. Siddiqui R, Onel K, Facio F, Nafa K, Diaz LR, Kauff N (2005) The TP53 mutational spectrum and frequency of CHEK2\*1100delC in Li-Fraumeni-like kindreds. *Familial Cancer* 4(2):177–181



65. Varley J (2003) TP53, hChk2, and the Li-Fraumeni syndrome. *Methods Mol Biol* 222:117–129
66. Vahteristo P, Tamminen A, Karvinen P, Eerola H, Eklund C, Altonen LA et al (2001) *p53*, *CHK2*, and *CHK1* Genes in Finnish Families with Li-Fraumeni Syndrome: Further Evidence of *CHK2* in Inherited Cancer Predisposition. *Cancer Res* 61(15): 5718–5722
67. Manoukian S, Peissel B, Frigerio S, Lecis D, Bartkova J (2011) RoversiG, et al. two new CHEK2 germline variants detected in breast cancer/sarcoma families negative for BRCA1, BRCA2, and TP53 gene mutations. *Breast Cancer Res Treat* 130(1):207–215
68. Ruijs MW, Broeks A, Menko FH, Ausems MG, Wagner A, Oldenburg R et al (2009) The contribution of *CHEK2* to the TP53-negative Li-Fraumeni phenotype. *Hered Cancer Clin Pract* 7(1):4
69. Li FP, Fraumeni JF Jr (1969) Soft-tissue sarcomas, breast cancer, and other neoplasms. A familial syndrome? *Ann Intern Med* 71(4):747–752
70. Mai PL, Best AF, Peters JA, De Castro RM, Khincha PP, Loud JT et al (2016) Risks of first and subsequent cancers among TP53 mutation-carriers in the NCI LFS cohort. *Cancer*. 122(23):3673–3681
71. Birch JM, Alston RD, McNally RJ, Evans DG, Kelsey AM, Harris M et al (2001) Relative frequency and morphology of cancers in carriers of germline TP53 mutations. *Oncogene*. 20(34):4621–4628
72. Mody RJ, Wu YM, Lonigro RJ, Cao X, Roychowdhury S, Vats P et al (2015) Integrative clinical sequencing in the management of refractory or relapsed cancer in youth. *JAMA* 314:913–925
73. Harris MH, DuBois SG, Glade Bender JL, Kim A, Crompton BD, Parker E et al (2016) Multicenter feasibility study of tumor molecular profiling to inform therapeutic decisions in advanced pediatric solid tumors: the individualized Cancer therapy (iCat) study. *JAMA Oncol* 2:608–615
74. Oberg JA, Glade Bender JL, Sulis ML, Pendrick D, Sireci AN, Hsiao SJ et al (2016) Implementation of next generation sequencing into pediatric hematology-oncology practice: moving beyond actionable alterations. *Genome Med* 8:133
75. Parsons DW, Roy A, Yang Y, Wang T, Scollon S, Bergstrom K et al (2016) Diagnostic yield of clinical tumor and germline whole-exome sequencing for children with solid tumors. *JAMA Oncol*. 2:616–624
76. Worst BC, van Tilburg CM, Balasubramanian GP, Fiesel P, Witt R, Freitag A et al (2016) Next-generation personalised medicine for high-risk paediatric cancer patients – the INFORM pilot study. *Eur J Cancer* 65:91–101
77. Harttrampf AC, Lacroix L, Deloger M, Deschamps F, Puget S, Auger N et al (2017) MOlecular screening for Cancer Treatment optimization (MOSCATO-01) in pediatric patients: a single institutional prospective molecular stratification trial. *Clin Cancer Res* 23:6101–6112
78. Chang W, Brohl AS, Patidara R, Sindiria S, Shern JF, Wei JS et al (2016) Multi-dimensional Omics for precision therapy of children and adolescent Young adults with relapsed and refractory Cancer: report from pediatric oncology branch. *NCI Clin Cancer Res* 22(15):3810–3820
79. Pincez T, Clément N, Lapouble E, Pierron G, Kamal M, Bieche I et al (2017) Feasibility and clinical integration of molecular profiling for target identification in pediatric solid tumors. *Pediatr Blood Cancer* 64:e26365
80. Zhang J, Walsh MF, Wu G, Edmonson MN, Gruber TA, Easton J et al (2015) Germline mutations in predisposition genes in pediatric Cancer. *N Engl J Med* 373(24):2336–2346
81. Brohl AS, Patidar R, Tumer CE, Wen X, Song YK, Wei JS (2017) Frequent inactivating germline mutations in DNA repair genes in patients with Ewing sarcoma Germline mutations in Ewing sarcoma. *Genet Med* 19(8):955–958
82. Lerman D, Monument M, McIlvaine E, Liu X, Huang D, Monovich L et al (2015) Tumoral TP53 and/or CDKN2A alterations are not reliable prognostic biomarkers in patients with localized Ewing sarcoma: a report from the Children's oncology group. *Pediatr Blood Cancer* 62(5):759–765
83. Id Said B, Kim H, Tran J, Novokmet A, Malkin D (2016) Supertransactivation TP53 variant in the Germline of a family with Li-Fraumeni syndrome. *Hum Mutat* 37(9):889–892
84. Marcel V, Palmero EI, Falagan-Lotsch P, Martel-Planche G, Ashton-Prolla P, Olivier M (2009) TP53 PIN3 and MDM2 SNP309 polymorphisms as genetic modifiers in the Li-Fraumeni syndrome: impact on age at first diagnosis. *J Med Genet* 46(11): 766–772
85. Sagne C, Marcel V, Bota M, Martel-Planche G, Nobrega A, Palmero EI et al (2014) Age at cancer onset in germline TP53 mutation carriers: association with polymorphisms in predicted G-quadruplex structures. *Carcinogenesis*. 35(4):807–815
86. Bougeard G, Baert-Desurmont S, Tournier I, Vasseur S, Martin C, Brugieres L (2006) Impact of the MDM2 SNP309 and p53 Arg72Pro polymorphism on age of tumour onset in Li-Fraumeni syndrome. *J Med Genet* 43(6):531–533
87. Ponti F, Corsini S, Gnoli M, Pedrini E, Mordenti M, Sangiorgi L (2016) Evaluation of TP53 Pro72Arg and MDM2 SNP 285-SNP309 polymorphisms in an Italian cohort of LFS suggestive patients lacking identifiable TP53 germline mutations. *Familial Cancer* 15(4):635–643
88. Wu CC, Krahe R, Lozano G, Zhang B, Wilson CD, Jo EJ et al (2011) Joint effects of germ-line p53 mutation, MDM2 SNP309, and gender on Cancer risk in family studies of Li-Fraumeni syndrome. *Hum Genet* 129(6):663–673
89. Ruijs MW, Schmidt MK, Nevanlinna H, Tommiska J, Aittomäki K, Prunel R (2007) The single-nucleotide polymorphism 309 in the MDM2 gene contributes to the Li-Fraumeni syndrome and related phenotypes. *Eur J Hum Genet* 15(1):110–114
90. Macedo GS, Vieira IA, Vianna FSL, Alemar B, Giacomazzi J, Brandalize APC et al (2018) P53 signaling pathway polymorphisms, cancer risk and tumor phenotype in TP53 R337H mutation carriers. *Familial Cancer* 17(2):269–274
91. Renaux-Petel M, Sesboüé R, Baert-Desurmont S, Vasseur S, Fourniaux S, Bessenay E, et al. The MDM2 285G–309G haplotype is associated with an earlier age of tumour onset in patients with Li-Fraumeni syndrome. *Fam Cancer*. 2014; (1):127–30
92. Thurrow HS, Hartwig FP, Alho CS, Silva DS, Roesler R, Abujamra AL et al (2013) Wing sarcoma: influence of TP53 Arg72Pro and MDM2 T309G SNPs. *Mol Biol Rep* 40(8):4929–4934
93. Kleinerman RA, Tucker MA, Abramson DH, Seddon JM, Tarone RE, Fraumeni JF Jr (2007) Risk of soft tissue sarcomas by individual subtype in survivors of hereditary retinoblastoma. *J Natl Cancer Inst* 99(1):24–31
94. MacCarthy A, Bayne AM, Brownbill PA, Bunch KJ, Diggens NL, Draper GJ et al (2013) Second and subsequent tumours among 1927 retinoblastoma patients diagnosed in Britain 1951–2004. *Br J Cancer* 108:2455–2463
95. Cunniff C, Bassetti JA, Ellis NA (2017) Bloom's syndrome: clinical Spectrum, molecular pathogenesis, and Cancer predisposition. *Mol Syndromol* 8(1):4–23
96. Laitman Y, Boker-Keinan L, Berkenstadt M, Liphshitz I, Weissglas-Volkov D, Ries-Levavi L et al (2016) The risk for developing cancer in Israeli ATM, BLM, and FANCC heterozygous mutation carriers. *Cancer Genet*. 209(3):70–74
97. Dong H, Nebert DW, Bruford EA, Thompson DC, Joenje H, Vasiliou V (2015) Update of the human and mouse Fanconi anemia genes. *Hum Genomics* 9:32

98. Malric A, Defachelles AS, Leblanc T, Lescoeur B, Lacour B, Peuchmaur M (2015) Fanconi anemia and solid malignancies in childhood: a national retrospective study. *Pediatr Blood Cancer* 62(3):463–470
99. Wimmer K, Rosenbaum T, Messiaen L (2017) Connections between constitutional mismatch repair deficiency syndrome and neurofibromatosis type 1. *Clin Genet* 91(4):507–519
100. Bakry D, Aronson M, Durno C, Rimawi H, Farah R, Alharbi QK et al (2014) Genetic and clinical determinants of constitutional mismatch repair deficiency syndrome: report from the constitutional mismatch repair deficiency consortium. *Eur J Cancer* 50(5):987–996
101. Lavoine N, Colas C, Muleris M, Bodo S, Duval A, Entz-Werle N (2015) Constitutional mismatch repair deficiency syndrome: clinical description in a French cohort. *J Med Genet* 52(11):770–778
102. Kawai K, Iwashita T, Murakami H, Hiraiwa N, Yoshiki A, Kusakabe M et al (2000) Tissue-specific carcinogenesis in transgenic mice expressing the RET proto-oncogene with a multiple endocrine neoplasia type 2A mutation. *Cancer Res* 60(18):5254–5260
103. Martinelli M, Parra A, Scapoli L, De Sanctis P, Chiadini V, Hattinger C et al (2016) CD99 polymorphisms significantly influence the probability to develop Ewing sarcoma in earlier age and patient disease progression. *Oncotarget*. 7(47):77958–77967
104. Silva DS, Sawitzki FR, De Toni EC, Graebin P, Picanco JB, Abujamra AL, de Farias CB, Roesler R, Brunetto AL, Alho CS (2012) Ewing's sarcoma: analysis of single nucleotide polymorphism in the EWS gene. *Gene*. 509(2):263–266
105. Wang J, Zhou Y, Feng D, Yang H, Li F, Cao Q, Wang A, Xing F (2012) CD86 +1057G/a polymorphism and susceptibility to Ewing's sarcoma: a case-control study. *DNA Cell Biol* 31(4):537–540
106. Zhang C, Hou WH, Ding XX, Wang X, Zhao H, Han XW, Wang WJ (2016) Association of Cytotoxic T-lymphocyte Antigen-4 polymorphisms with malignant bone tumor risk: a meta-analysis. *Asian Pac J Cancer Prev* 17(8):3785–3791
107. Postel-Vinay S, Véron AS, Tirode F, Pierron G, Reynaud S, Kovar H et al (2012) Common variants near TARDBP and EGR2 are associated with susceptibility to Ewing sarcoma. *Nat Genet* 44(3):323–327
108. Grünewald TG, Delattre O (2015) Cooperation between somatic mutations and germline susceptibility variants in tumorigenesis - a dangerous liaison. *Mol Cell Oncol* 3(3):e1086853
109. Machiela MJ, Grünewald TGP, Surdez D, Reynaud S, Mirabeau O, Karlins E et al (2018) Genome-wide association study identifies multiple new loci associated with Ewing sarcoma susceptibility. *Nat Commun* 9(1):3184
110. Monument MJ, Johnson KM, Grossmann AH, Schiffman JD, Randall RL, Lessnick SL (2012) Microsatellites with macro-influence in Ewing sarcoma. *Genes (Basel)* 3(3):444–460
111. Monument MJ, Johnson KM, McIlvaine E, Abegglen L, Watkins WS, Jorde LB et al (2014) Clinical and biochemical function of polymorphic NR0B1 GGAA-microsatellites in Ewing sarcoma: a report from the Children's oncology group. *PLoS One* 9(8):e104378
112. Kolomietz E, Meyn MS, Pandita A, Squire JA (2002) The role of Alu repeat clusters as mediators of recurrent chromosomal aberrations in tumors. *Genes Chromosomes and Cancer* 35(2):97–112
113. Zucman-Rossi J, Batzer MA, Stoneking M, Delattre O, Thomas G (1997) Interethnic polymorphism of EWS intron 6: genome plasticity mediated by Alu retroposition and recombination. *Hum Genet* 99(3):357–363
114. Randall RL, Lessnick SL, Jones KB, Gouw LG, Cummings JE, Cannon-Albright L (2010) Is there a predisposition gene for Ewing's sarcoma? *J Oncol* 2010:397632
115. Holly EA, Aston DA, Ahn DK, Kristiansen JJ (1992) Ewing's bone sarcoma, paternal occupational exposure, and other factors. *Am J Epidemiol* 135(2):122–129
116. Valery PC, Mc Whirter W, Sleight A, Williams G, Bain C (2002) Farm exposures, parental occupation, and risk of Ewing's sarcoma in Australia: a national case-control study. *Cancer Causes Control* 13(3):263–270
117. Valery PC, Mc Whirter W, Sleight A, Williams G, Bain C (2003) A national case-control study of Ewing's sarcoma family of tumours in Australia. *Int J Cancer* 105(6):825–830
118. Valery PC, Williams G, Sleight A, Holly EA, Kreiger N, Bain C (2005) Parental occupation and Ewing's sarcoma: pooled and meta-analysis. *Int J Cancer* 115(5):799–806
119. Kovar H, Jug G, Aryee DN, Zoubek A, Ambros P, Gruber B et al (1997) Among genes involved in the RB dependent cell cycle regulatory cascade, the p16 tumor suppressor gene is frequently lost in the Ewing family of tumors. *Oncogene*. 15:2225–2232
120. Cortessis VK, Thomas DC, Levine AJ, Breton CV, Mack TM, Siegmund KD et al (2012) Environmental epigenetics: prospects for studying epigenetic mediation of exposure–response relationships. *Hum Genet* 131:1565–1589
121. Hanson MA, Skinner MK. Developmental origins of epigenetic transgenerational inheritance. *Environ Epigenet*. 2016;2(1)
122. Nilsson E, Skinner M (2015) Environmentally induced epigenetic Transgenerational inheritance of disease susceptibility. *Transl Res* 165(1):12–17
123. Adkins RM, Thomas F, Tylavsky FA, Krushkal J (2011) Parental ages and levels of DNA methylation in the newborn are correlated. *BMC Med Genet* 12:47
124. Joo JE, Dowty JG, Milne RL, Wong EM, Dugué PA, English D et al (2018) Heritable DNA methylation marks associated with susceptibility to breast cancer. *Nat Commun* 9(1):867
125. Haque MM, Nilsson EE, Holder LB, Skinner MK (2016) Genomic clustering of differential DNA methylated regions (epimutations) associated with the epigenetic transgenerational inheritance of disease and phenotypic variation. *BMC Genomics* 17:418
126. Johnson KJ, Carozza SE, Chow EJ et al (2009) Parental age and risk of childhood cancer. *Epidemiology*. 20(4):475–483
127. Krepischki AC, Capelli LP, Silva AG, de Araújo ES, Pearson PL, Heck B et al (2014) Large germline copy number variations as predisposing factor in childhood neoplasms. *Future Oncol* 10(9):1627–1633
128. Hingorani P, Janeway K, Crompton BD, Kadoch C, Mackall CL, Khan J et al (2016) Current state of pediatric sarcoma biology and opportunities for future discovery: a report from the sarcoma translational research workshop. *Cancer Genet*. 209(5):182–194

**Publisher's Note** Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.