



SPECIAL ARTICLE

Cancer of unknown primary: ESMO Clinical Practice Guideline for diagnosis, treatment and follow-up $\stackrel{\sim}{\sim}$

A. Krämer^{1,2}, T. Bochtler^{1,2,3}, C. Pauli^{4,5}, G. Baciarello⁶, S. Delorme⁷, K. Hemminki^{8,9}, L. Mileshkin¹⁰, H. Moch^{4,5}, K. Oien¹¹, T. Olivier^{12,13}, A. Patrikidou¹⁴, H. Wasan¹⁵, G. Zarkavelis¹⁶, G. Pentheroudakis¹⁷ & K. Fizazi¹⁴, on behalf of the ESMO Guidelines Committee^{*}

¹Clinical Cooperation Unit Molecular Haematology/Oncology, German Cancer Research Center (DKFZ) Heidelberg; ²Department of Internal Medicine V, University of Heidelberg; ³Department of Medical Oncology, National Center for Tumor Diseases (NCT), University of Heidelberg, Heidelberg, Germany; ⁴Department of Pathology and Molecular Pathology, University Hospital Zurich (USZ), Zurich; ⁵Medical Faculty, University of Zurich (UZH), Zurich, Switzerland; ⁶Medical Oncology Department, Azienda Ospedaliera San Camillo Forlanini, Rome, Italy; ⁷Division of Radiology, German Cancer Research Center (DKFZ), Heidelberg; ⁸Division of Cancer Epidemiology, German Cancer Research Center (DKFZ), Heidelberg, Ferupublic; ¹⁰Department of Medical Oncology, Peter MacCallum Cancer Centre, Melbourne, Australia; ¹¹Institute of Cancer Sciences, University of Glasgow, Glasgow, UK; ¹²Department of Oncology, Geneva University Hospital, Geneva, Switzerland; ¹³Department of Epidemiology and Biostatistics, University of California San Francisco, San Francisco, USA; ¹⁴Department of Cancer Medicine, Institute Gustave Roussy, University of Paris Saclay, Villejuif, France; ¹⁵Department of Cancer Medicine, Hammersmith Hospital, Imperial College Healthcare NHS Trust, London, UK; ¹⁶Department of Medical Oncology, Lugano, Switzerland

Available online XXX

Key words: Classification, ESMO Clinical Practice Guideline, diagnosis, risk assessment, treatment, unknown primary neoplasm

INCIDENCE AND EPIDEMIOLOGY

Definition

Cancer of unknown primary (CUP) is defined as a carcinoma or undifferentiated neoplasm for which a standardised diagnostic work-up fails to identify the primary tumour responsible for metastatic seeding.

Incidence

CUP accounts for <5% of cancers but, because of its high mortality rate, its relative contribution to cancer deaths is higher.¹ The incidence of CUP has been declining, probably due to improving success in localising primary tumours.² The incidence increases with age and is higher in men compared with women. Adenocarcinoma is the most common histology. Approximately 50% of CUP cases can be categorised as well-differentiated to moderately differentiated adenocarcinomas, ~ 30% as poorly differentiated adenocarcinomas or undifferentiated carcinomas, ~ 15% as squamous-cell carcinomas and ~ 5% as undifferentiated neoplasms.^{2,3} Sarcomas, melanomas,

germ cell tumours, neuroendocrine tumours and haematological malignancies whose exact site of origin is not established are not included in the CUP definition. Many patients present with metastases in multiple organs, such as the liver (most common), respiratory system, lymph nodes, abdominal cavity, bone and brain.¹ The decrease in CUP incidence has been noted for most metastatic locations and histologies.¹

Subsequent primary cancers after CUP

CUP diagnostics include a meticulous search for the hidden primary cancer, which explains why no new primaries are diagnosed soon after a CUP diagnosis.⁴ The majority of patients with CUP will not have a primary lesion identified during the course of the disease. However, some survivors of CUP may develop (i) initially hidden primary tumours responsible for their metastatic disease or (ii) second primary cancers. Elevated risks for the development of several types of second primaries have been reported,⁵ with the highest risks observed for cancers of the small intestine, male genital organs and aerodigestive tract. Significant risks have also been observed for the development of non-Hodgkin's lymphoma and squamous-cell skin cancer, which are known hallmarks of dysregulated immunity, suggesting a contribution of suppressed immune function as a feature of CUP.

Risk factors

Smokers are at risk of developing CUP and this risk correlates with the level of tobacco exposure: from 1.8-fold for smokers

^{*}Correspondence to: ESMO Guidelines Committee, ESMO Head Office, Via Ginevra 4, 6900 Lugano, Switzerland

E-mail: clinicalguidelines@esmo.org (ESMO Guidelines Committee).

^ANote: Approved by the ESMO Guidelines Committee: April 2002, last update November 2022. This publication supersedes the previously published version—*Ann Oncol.* 2015;26(suppl 5):v133-v138.

^{0923-7534/} $\ensuremath{\mathbb{G}}$ 2022 European Society for Medical Oncology. Published by Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

of 1-15 cigarettes/day up to 3.5-fold for 16-25 cigarettes/day and 4.1-fold for >25 cigarettes/day.⁶ The likelihood of being a smoker was higher in patients with CUP and respiratory system metastases (4.9-fold) than in those with CUP and liver metastases (2.0-fold).⁷ Type 2 diabetes (1.8-fold)⁸ and autoimmune disorders are also associated with an increased risk of CUP; the relative risks were 3.5 for polymyositis/ dermatomyositis, 1.8 for primary biliary cirrhosis and 1.7 for Addison disease.⁹ Familial predisposition to CUP is another established risk factor.¹⁰ High body mass index, waist circumference, low socioeconomic status and black ethnic background may be additional risk factors.^{6,11}

Survival

The probability of survival after a diagnosis of CUP has remained at ~20% at 1 year and has not improved much over time.^{1,2} Around half of the observed deaths occur within the first 3 months following diagnosis, i.e. median survival is ~3 months. Survival is worse for adenocarcinoma and undifferentiated carcinoma compared with squamous-cell carcinoma (1-year survival of <20% and 36%, respectively).¹² Increasing age is associated with a survival disadvantage. Patients with CUP manifestations restricted to lymph nodes have a better prognosis than those with extranodal disease.^{1,12}

In a comparison of survival outcomes for patients with CUP versus those with metastatic cancer of known primary and matched location of metastases, in general, patients with CUP had a poorer survival, with the exception of those with brain and respiratory system metastases.¹³

CUP DIAGNOSIS

Histology and immunohistochemistry

Histology and immunohistochemistry (IHC) on good quality tissue specimens are required. A morphological patternbased approach is first applied to differentiate between epithelial, round, spindle-shaped and anaplastic cancers to identify the pattern of tissue organisation regarding entity and tissue of origin.

For undifferentiated neoplasms or cells of unclear lineage, an initial IHC screening is carried out,¹⁴ typically comprising a broad-spectrum keratin to identify an epithelial phenotype (e.g. AE1/AE3, OSCAR), cluster of differentiation 45 (CD45) for haematolymphoid origin (be aware of downregulation of CD45 expression in immature B-cell neoplasms) and SOX10 and/or S100 for melanoma. In case of a triple-negative screen, a mesenchymal origin must be considered. There is no single screening marker for sarcoma (see Supplementary Table S1, available at https://doi. org/10.1016/j.annonc.2022.11.013).

After lineage classification, a stepwise approach, using additional marker assessments navigated by the clinical work-up results, must be undertaken (see Supplementary Table S2, available at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annonc. 2022.11.013). For carcinomas, cytokeratin (CK)7 and CK20 staining patterns may provide an indication of primary localisation (see Supplementary Table S3, available at

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annonc.2022.11.013). For male patients, metastatic prostate cancer must be ruled out using prostate-specific membrane antigen (PSMA) and/or NKX3.1 as markers. For female patients, GATA3 should be used to screen for breast cancer and SOX10 for triple-negative breast cancer.

Lung cancer. Only ~60% of poorly differentiated and metastatic lung adenocarcinomas stain positive for thyroid transcription factor 1 (TTF1).¹⁵ In the setting of CK7 positivity and TTF1 negativity but suspicion of a lung primary, SWI/SNF-related, matrix-associated, actin-dependent regulator of chromatin, subfamily A, member 4 (SMARCA4) staining should be considered as many TTF1-negative lung adenocarcinomas show loss of SMARCA4 nuclear staining.¹⁶ Napsin A can be useful in a panel together with TTF1 in the diagnostic work-up of lung adenocarcinoma but it has limited value when TTF1 is negative (see Supplementary Table S3, available at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annonc. 2022.11.013).

Gastrointestinal carcinomas. For analysis of biopsies including an adenocarcinoma in the liver, the initial IHC panel should include CK7, CK20, caudal type homeobox 2 (CDX2) and TTF1 (plus GATA3 and/or SOX10 in women) to screen for metastatic tumours of breast, lung, gastrointesand/or pancreaticobiliary (GI) origin tinal (see Supplementary Table S3, available at https://doi.org/10. 1016/j.annonc.2022.11.013). At least 80% of colorectal cancers (CRCs) show the classic CK7-negative, CK20positive, CDX2-positive immunophenotype, with CK20 and CDX2 staining usually being diffuse and strong. Occasional upper GI and rare pancreaticobiliary adenocarcinomas also demonstrate a colorectal immunophenotype. In this setting, special AT-rich sequence-binding protein 2 (SATB2) positivity is fairly specific for tumours of lower GI origin.¹⁷ The differential diagnosis of intrahepatic cholangiocarcinomas (CCAs) by IHC remains difficult due to the lack of specific markers. Immunohistochemical loss of BRCA1-associated protein 1 (BAP1) or AT-rich interactive domain-containing protein 1A (ARID1A) can support the diagnosis but the final decision can only be made in conjunction with clinical and radiological findings.¹⁸

Neuroendocrine tumours. In order to identify neuroendocrine tumours, a synaptophysin and/or INSM1 staining must be carried out in tumours with a solid, trabecular, gyriform or regular glandular growth pattern, uniform nuclei and coarsely stippled ('salt and pepper') chromatin. Likewise, synaptophysin and/or INSM1 staining should also be carried out in high-grade tumours that resemble small-cell carcinomas or large-cell neuroendocrine tumours of the lung. Positivity for CDX2 and ISLET 1 may hint towards primary locations of neuroendocrine tumours in the GI tract and pancreas, respectively (see Supplementary Table S3, available at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annonc.2022.11.013).

Mesothelioma. Specific caveats in the CUP work-up exist for mesotheliomas, which are typically positive for keratins and

A. Krämer et al.

therefore might be misclassified as carcinomas. Mesothelioma should be considered in biopsies originating from the pleura, pericardium and peritoneum. Immunostaining with calretinin should be carried out in these cases and, upon positivity, should be complemented with Wilms tumour 1 (WT1), CK5/6, D2-40 and BAP1 (loss) (see Supplementary Table S1, available at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annonc. 2022.11.013).

Sarcoma. Expression of broad-spectrum epithelial markers by mesenchymal tumours is focal in most cases. However, in cases with an epithelioid morphology, expression of these markers can be diffuse, and strong keratin positivity (e.g. synovial sarcoma, epithelioid sarcoma) often leads to erroneous classification as carcinoma. Keratin positivity might also be seen in small round blue cell sarcomas (e.g. desmoplastic round cell tumour, Ewing's sarcoma).¹⁹ Regardless of broad-spectrum epithelial marker positivity, sarcoma should always be considered in the mediastinum, retroperitoneum and soft tissue, particularly in cases with spindle cell morphology (see Supplementary Table S1, available at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annonc.2022.11.013).

Haematopoietic malignancies. Broad-spectrum keratins can be expressed by haematolymphoid tumours such as plasma cell neoplasms, anaplastic large-cell and mantle-cell lymphomas.²⁰ Useful immunohistochemical markers for screening are listed in Supplementary Table S1, available at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annonc.2022.11.013.

Clinical work-up

The minimal mandatory work-up for all patients should comprise the following tests:

- Thorough patient history and physical examination.
- Blood draw with basic blood and biochemical analyses.
- Either computed tomography (CT) with intravenous (i.v.) contrast agent infusion or magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) scans of the neck, thorax, abdomen and pelvis.
- Mammography in females.

Beyond this minimal diagnostic work-up, further tests are indicated according to the clinical and pathological results. This includes the tumour markers α -fetoprotein (AFP) and β -human chorionic gonadotropin (β -hCG) in males with a suspected germ cell tumour; prostate-specific antigen (PSA) in males with a possible prostate cancer; cancer antigen (CA)15-3 and CA125 in females with a suspected gynaecological primary and carcinoembryonic antigen (CEA), carbohydrate antigen 19-9 (CA19-9) and CA72-4 when a GI primary is suspected and chromogranin A in patients with a possible neuroendocrine malignancy. Despite frequent nontumour type-specific elevations of CEA, CA19-9, CA15-3 and CA125, these markers may be used to determine the disease course and monitor treatment response. Gastroscopy and colonoscopy are generally recommended whenever a putative GI primary is deemed possible. In contrast, bronchoscopy may be withheld unless IHC or the clinical picture for lung lesions and/or mediastinal lymph nodes implies a lung primary. Diagnostic and staging guidelines for patients with an anticipated CUP diagnosis are summarised in Supplementary Table S4, available at https://doi.org/10. 1016/j.annonc.2022.11.013, and include both the minimal mandatory and additional results-driven tests.

MRI is recommended for suspected head and neck tumours, brain metastases and for suspected pelvic neoplasms. Dedicated protocols are needed for some primary tumours, such as breast or prostate cancers, or for differentiating adenoma from metastasis in case of enlarged adrenal glands.

Whole-body [¹⁸F]2-fluoro-2-deoxy-D-glucose (FDG) positron emission tomography (PET)—CT is optional in the routine CUP diagnostic work-up. Although it is excellent for depicting the true extent of disease and identifying lesions that are otherwise difficult to detect, it is only able to identify a primary in around a third of cases.²¹ However, it is generally recommended in the following situations that warrant radical locoregional treatment:

- For patients with single-site/oligometastatic CUP, FDG— PET—CT should be carried out to rule out additional manifestations.²²
- For patients with cervical lymph node metastases suspicious for head and neck cancer.^{23,24}

In these cases, FDG—PET—CT may be carried out early during the diagnostic work-up, ahead of panendoscopy with biopsies and tonsillectomy, to avoid false-positive findings.²³ Furthermore, when clinically suspected, specific tumour entities can be diagnosed if special tracers are used, such as DOTATOC for neuroendocrine tumours or PSMA ligands for prostate cancer.

Differential diagnosis of CUP

With pathological and clinical diagnostic tests complete, the diagnosis of CUP relies on the multidisciplinary team's interpretation of the clinical, pathological and radiographic findings in order to decide whether the tumour manifestations represent a primary cancer or metastases compatible with CUP. The most important diagnostic tool for this purpose is sound clinical reasoning. In the absence of a clearly identifiable primary tumour or an entity-specific genomic alteration (see Supplementary Table S5, available at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annonc.2022.11.013), it must be decided whether one of the visible lesions is likely to represent a primary tumour. Radiological clues in the diagnosis are (i) size and location of lesions and their imaging features, (ii) associated phenomena (see Supplementary Tables S6 and S7, available at https://doi. org/10.1016/j.annonc.2022.11.013), (iii) invasion patterns into adjacent structures and (iv) the distribution of haematogenic and lymphogenic metastases. Specifically, tumours that metastasise along the preformed lymphatic pathways may be surrounded by lymphatic metastases in typical locations, with the closest adjacent lymph node groups usually being the most heavily involved. In the presence of widespread disease, the absence of lymph node

Annals of Oncology

metastases in typical sites may refute the presence of a primary tumour in a suspected location.

In order to standardise the interpretation of findings in ambiguous cases, following established diagnostic algorithms to delineate CUP from cancer entities with a known primary is generally recommended.¹⁸ The respective decision algorithms are based on histology and IHC, metastatic pattern and radiographic criteria, and may be applied, particularly in clinical trials, to ensure the integrity of the study cohorts and to harmonise the eligibility process among different trials for the sake of comparability.

Lung cancer. The differential diagnosis between CUP and non-small-cell lung cancer (NSCLC) poses a recurrent diagnostic dilemma. Since 40% of lung cancers are negative for TTF1, patients presenting with neoplastic pulmonary lesions may either have metastases from an unknown primary tumour to the lung, or one of the lung lesions may be the primary itself, usually an NSCLC, with extrapulmonary as well as pulmonary metastases. The respective decision algorithms are based on pathological and radiographic features of the lung mass, hilar and mediastinal lymph node involvement and the pattern of distant metastases (see Figures 1 and 2). Radiographic features to support the discrimination are shown in Supplementary Table S6, available at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annonc.2022.11.013.

CCA. The presence of intrahepatic lesions and histological proof of adenocarcinoma constitute a recurrent problem in discriminating between primary CCA (with or without additional intrahepatic metastases) and hepatic metastases due to an unknown extrahepatic primary tumour (with or



Figure 1. Differential diagnostic algorithm to discriminate between CUP and TTF1-negative NSCLC.

Brain, bone, liver, adrenal glands and pleura are the most common sites of metastatic disease in NSCLC.

Purple: general categories or stratification; white: other aspects of management.

CK, cytokeratin; CUP, cancer of unknown primary; IHC, immunohistochemistry; LN, lymph node; NSCLC, non-small-cell lung cancer; TTF1, thyroid transcription factor 1.

A. Krämer et al.

Annals of Oncology



Figure 2. Differential diagnostic algorithm to discriminate between CUP and TTF1-positive NSCLC.

Purple: general categories or stratification; white: other aspects of management.

CK, cytokeratin; CUP, cancer of unknown primary; LN, lymph node; NSCLC, non-small-cell lung cancer; TTF1, thyroid transcription factor 1.

without additional extrahepatic metastases).^{25,26} The decision algorithm to differentiate CUP with liver metastases from intrahepatic CCA relies on (I)HC, radiological morphology, size and number of hepatic lesions and the overall metastatic pattern (see Figure 3). Radiologically, the criteria shown in Supplementary Table S7, available at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annonc.2022.11.013, suggest intrahepatic CCA.

Other cancer types. Further algorithms have been established for the differential diagnosis between CUP and ovarian, renal, salivary gland and breast primaries (see Figures 4-7).

For the detection of salivary gland carcinoma, additional studies may be needed. Ultrasound may be sufficient, with contrast-enhanced MRI of the neck as a reliable alternative

Volume xxx ■ Issue xxx ■ 2022

method. CT is less suitable due to its lower soft-tissue contrast. Although a negative imaging result is sufficient to rule out a primary salivary gland tumour, a positive finding may be more difficult to interpret due to the possibility of lymph nodes located inside the gland that may be involved by metastatic spread. In unclear cases, targeted biopsies of the lesion may be carried out.

Differential diagnosis to relapse of prior malignancy

About 25% of patients with presumed CUP have had a prior malignancy.²⁷ In these cases, a relapse of the prior malignancy should always be considered. In dubious cases, comparative sequencing of tissue from the prior malignancy and presumed CUP is recommended to identify any clonal

Annals of Oncology



Figure 3. Differential diagnostic algorithm to discriminate between CUP and intrahepatic CCA.

Purple: general categories or stratification; white: other aspects of management.

CCA, cholangiocarcinoma; CK, cytokeratin; CUP, cancer of unknown primary; GI, gastrointestinal; LN, lymph node.

relationships and therefore corroborate or refute a new CUP diagnosis. $^{\rm 27}$

Next-generation sequencing

Given the potential treatment options with targeted therapies or immune checkpoint inhibitors (ICIs), panel nextgeneration sequencing (NGS) may be carried out routinely in CUP using a pan-cancer panel covering relevant molecular targets across different entities. However, randomised trial data to assess the clinical utility of NGS-based approaches in CUP are pending.²⁸ In individual cases, the molecular profile might also clarify or provide clues regarding the putative primary, e.g. when anaplastic lymphoma kinase (ALK), ROS proto-oncogene 1 (ROS1; in NSCLC), transmembrane serine protease 2 (TMPRSS2; in prostate cancer) or nuclear protein in testis (NUT) midline carcinoma family member 1 (NUTM1; in NUT carcinoma) rearrangements are detected or when genomic signatures point towards ultraviolet light or tobacco exposure. A list of genomic aberrations supporting the diagnosis of specific primary tumour entities that can be used in conjunction with the differential diagnostic algorithms depicted in Figures 1-7 is provided in Supplementary Table S5, available at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annonc.2022.11.013. In addition, analysis of the microsatellite instability (MSI) status may be routinely carried out. Testing for tumour mutational burden (TMB) and programmed death-ligand 1 (PD-L1) expression should be considered at least at progression.

Recommendations

Histology, IHC and molecular biology

- Histology and IHC on good quality tissue specimens are required [III, A].
- After lineage classification, a stepwise approach using further IHC markers, navigated by the clinical work-up results, is recommended [III, A].
- NGS may be carried out routinely in CUP [IV, B].
- The clinical utility of gene expression profiling to help elucidate the likely primary is not currently supported by high-level evidence. Consequently, it is not generally recommended outside of clinical research [II, D].

Clinical work-up

- The minimal clinical work-up should consist of a thorough patient history, physical examination, basic blood analyses, CT or MRI imaging of neck, thorax, abdomen and pelvis for all patients, with additional mammography in females [IV, A].
- Further tests may be indicated according to the clinical and pathological picture [V, B].
- FDG—PET—CT imaging is generally recommended for single-site/oligometastatic cases that warrant ablative locoregional treatment as well as for patients with head and neck CUP [IV, B].

ARTICLE IN PRESS

A. Krämer et al.

Annals of Oncology



Figure 4. Differential diagnostic algorithm to discriminate between CUP and ovarian cancer. Purple: general categories or stratification; white: other aspects of management. CUP, cancer of unknown primary; LN, lymph node.

• FDG—PET—CT imaging is optional in all other cases [III, C]. Differential diagnosis

- Diagnostic algorithms to delineate CUP from specific cancer entities with known primaries can be used [V, B].
- In patients with a prior malignancy, a relapse of this cancer should always be considered [IV, A].
- In individual cases, mutational profiles can provide clues regarding the putative primary [IV, B].

RISK ASSESSMENT

Clinical parameters

Several independent clinical risk factors in CUP have been identified consistently across different studies; first and foremost among them is poor Eastern Cooperative Oncology Group (ECOG) performance status (PS), which reached the highest statistical significance in multivariate risk factor analyses.²⁹⁻³³ Other independent adverse prognostic factors include male sex,^{32,33} unfavourable CUP subtype,^{32,34} a higher number of metastatically involved organs,^{32,33} the presence of liver metastases^{30,35} or visceral metastases³¹ and adenocarcinoma histology.³³ Significant independent adverse laboratory parameters comprise elevated alkaline phosphatase (ALP), elevated lactate dehydrogenase (LDH),^{30,35} low serum albumin and lymphopenia³⁰ or elevated neutrophil versus lymphocyte ratio (NLR) as a reflection of the inflammatory state.^{31,33} Based on these adverse prognostic factors, numerous clinical risk scores have been proposed.^{30,31,33,35} For risk assessment of unfavourable CUP, the authors recommend an easy-to-use two-factor score that combines ECOG PS, as the most robust clinical risk factor, with LDH at first diagnosis (good prognostic group: ECOG PS 0 or 1 and normal LDH; poor prognostic group: ECOG PS >1 or elevated LDH).35

Annals of Oncology



Figure 5. Differential diagnostic algorithm to discriminate between CUP and RCC. Purple: general categories or stratification: white: other aspects of management.

CT, computed tomography; CUP, cancer of unknown primary; IHC, immunohistochemistry; MRI, magnetic resonance imaging; RCC, renal-cell carcinoma.

Molecular prognostic and predictive markers

Kirsten rat sarcoma virus (*KRAS*) or neuroblastoma RAS viral oncogene homologue (*NRAS*) activation and cyclindependent kinase inhibitor 2A (*CDKN2A*) deletion have been shown to confer an independent adverse prognosis by multivariate analysis.³² Chromosomal copy number losses and deleterious tumour suppressor protein p53 (*TP53*) mutations or deletions of chromosome 17p are associated with poor prognosis in single-site/oligometastatic CUP amenable to localised therapy.^{36,37} Neurotrophic tyrosine receptor kinase (*NTRK*) rearrangements predict response to NTRK inhibitors irrespective of the tissue of origin, therefore including CUP.^{38,39} Similarly, high TMB and MSI have been established as predictive markers for response to ICI treatment in a tissue-agnostic manner.⁴⁰⁻⁴³ In CUP, higher levels of PD-L1 expression and higher TMB are also associated with better response rates and longer survival in previously treated patients who received nivolumab monotherapy.⁴⁴ Therefore, beyond panel NGS and MSI status at initial diagnosis, PD-L1 and TMB may be determined when ICI treatment is considered.

Recommendations

- In patients with unfavourable CUP, prognosis should be assessed by a risk score combining ECOG PS and serum LDH levels [IV, A].
- Determination of MSI, PD-L1 and TMB status is generally recommended when ICI treatment is considered [III, B].

A. Krämer et al.

Annals of Oncology



Figure 6. Differential diagnostic algorithm to discriminate between CUP and salivary gland carcinoma.

Purple: general categories or stratification; white: other aspects of management.

2D, two dimensional; CT, computed tomography; CUP, cancer of unknown primary; ENT, ear nose and throat; FPS, frames per second; IHC, immunohistochemistry; MRI, magnetic resonance imaging; US, ultrasound.

^aHigh specification includes: broad band linear array transducer with a frequency range of 5-20 MHz suitable for vascular superficial, superficial small parts and elastography applications; electronic phased array colour Doppler system with minimum 50 000 digital processing channels and \geq 256 grey shades for sharp contrast resolution; frame rate of \geq 500 FPS; gain control for an additional level of flexibility to image quality control; real-time high-frequency 2D imaging for higher resolution and low-frequency Doppler for higher sensitivity; tissue harmonic imaging in power Doppler imaging mode for improved sensitivity and specificity in differentiating blood from tissue.

CLASSIFICATION AND MANAGEMENT OF CUP

Classification and management of favourable CUP

Besides single-site and oligometastatic CUP, favourable CUP is defined by obvious analogies to certain cancers with a known primary. It is generally recommended that these patients receive site-specific treatment tailored to the presumed primary site as this is associated with a more favourable prognosis compared with the vast majority of patients with CUP who are collectively grouped as 'unfavourable'.⁴⁵ Around 20% of patients belong to one of the favourable CUP subtypes. The following favourable subtypes should be recognised (see also Supplementary Table S8, available at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annonc. 2022.11.013):

- Single metastatic deposit or oligometastatic disease amenable to local ablative treatment (single-site or oligometastatic CUP)
- Women with isolated axillary lymph node metastases (breast-like CUP)

- Women with peritoneal carcinomatosis of a serous papillary adenocarcinoma (ovary-like CUP)
- Squamous-cell carcinoma involving non-supraclavicular cervical lymph nodes (head and neck-like CUP)
- Men with blastic bone metastases and/or IHC or serum PSA expression (prostate-like CUP)
- Adenocarcinoma with colorectal IHC (CK7-negative, CK20-positive, CDX2-positive) or molecular profile (colon-like CUP)
- Carcinoma with renal-cell histological and immunohistochemical profile (renal-like CUP)

The formerly recognised favourable neuroendocrine carcinoma subtypes⁴⁵ are not considered in the current guideline. This is because in neuroendocrine malignancies, an elusive primary is a common finding. Neuroendocrine carcinomas should therefore be classified according to the increasingly sophisticated and therapy-relevant subclassification of neuroendocrine malignancies, irrespective of the presence of an obvious primary tumour.

Annals of Oncology



Figure 7. Differential diagnostic algorithm to discriminate between CUP and breast cancer.

Purple: general categories or stratification; white: other aspects of management.

CUP, cancer of unknown primary; IHC, immunohistochemistry; LN, lymph node; MRI, magnetic resonance imaging.

The former favourable subtype known as 'poorly differentiated carcinoma with midline distribution', which was already absent from the 2015 European Society for Medical Oncology (ESMO) CUP guideline, should not be used anymore. Historically, many of these patients actually had extragonadal germ cell tumours. Also, some of these young patients may have an underdiagnosed and aggressive NUT midline carcinoma. Thus, full consideration should be given to these differential diagnoses in male patients with young age and midline metastatic distribution with or without elevated β -hCG and/or AFP.

Likewise, 'squamous-cell carcinoma with inguinal lymph nodes' has not been acknowledged as a distinct favourable subtype since it belongs to the subgroup of single-site and/ or oligometastatic CUP, whose therapeutic principles equally apply. Single metastatic deposit or oligometastatic disease amenable to local ablative treatment (single-site and/or oligometastatic CUP). In the 2015 ESMO guideline, 'CUP with a single metastatic deposit' was already recognised as a distinct favourable CUP subtype.⁴⁵ However, patients with oligometastatic disease exceeding the 'single metastatic deposit' definition, who are still potentially amenable to ablative surgery and/or radiotherapy (RT), also seem to benefit from this treatment strategy.³⁶ The authors have therefore redefined localised CUP by substitution of 'single metastatic deposit' with 'single metastatic deposit or oligometastatic disease amenable to local ablative treatment' as a distinct favourable CUP subtype. In view of the need for standardisation and despite the scarcity of data in CUP, the authors suggest the following oligometastasis definition analogous to other cancer entities:^{22,46}

- Local ablative treatment of all lesions by surgery and/or radiotherapy is deemed feasible.
- Oligometastatic state has been confirmed by imaging including PET-CT and brain MRI.
- Number of metastases does not exceed five.
- No involvement of a diffuse organ such as malignant pleural, pericardial, peritoneal or leptomeningeal carcinomatosis.

Local treatment strategies have proven beneficial, with long-term survival observed in a few distinct clinical scenarios.³⁴ Accordingly, localised treatment is generally recommended as the standard of care in the following situations: single brain metastases,^{47,48} squamous-cell carcinoma involving cervical lymph nodes (excluding supraclavicular nodes)⁴⁹ as well as inguinal and iliac lymph nodes.⁵⁰

Furthermore, beyond these well-defined scenarios, the use of local surgery and/or RT has opened up the prospect of long-term remission or even cure.³⁶ Therefore, in singlesite or oligometastatic disease, localised treatment is generally recommended when technically feasible and after a careful benefit-risk assessment, irrespective of histology and organs involved by metastases. Limited data suggest that patients with two or more metastases might also benefit from local ablative treatment.³⁶ The acceptable upper limit regarding the number of metastases, metastatically involved organs and metastasis size is elusive but should not exceed the definition of oligometastatic disease described previously. In order to comply with this definition, it is suggested that local ablative treatment is preceded by a search for additional metastatic sites, which should include the use of PET-CT and brain MRI.²² There is insufficient evidence to provide recommendations regarding the treatment modality (surgery versus RT) or the administration of (neo)adjuvant chemotherapy (ChT) or immunotherapy. Local recurrences and newly arising metastases at other sites are observed at a similar frequency following local ablative treatment. Local recurrences are frequently amenable to further local ablative treatment.³⁶

Women with isolated axillary lymph node metastases (breast-like CUP). This favourable subtype is defined as isolated axillary lymph node metastases in females, an (immuno)histology pattern compatible with breast cancer and the absence of an ipsilateral mammary carcinoma. In several retrospective analyses, breast MRI has been shown to identify the primary in around two-thirds of patients with negative clinical examination and negative mammography,⁵¹ and is therefore mandatory before reaching the diagnosis of breast-like CUP. The lymph node metastasis specimen should be tested for estrogen receptor (ER), progesterone receptor (PgR) and human epidermal growth factor receptor 2 (HER2) status.⁵²

Patients with breast-like CUP should be managed under the presumption of an occult breast primary and thus receive treatment according to primary breast cancer protocols.⁵³ There is broad consensus regarding axillary lymph

node dissection. Additional ipsilateral breast-targeting treatment with either mastectomy or RT has been shown to reduce the risk of recurrence and improve survival and is therefore recommended. However, there is no definitive consensus regarding whether surgery or RT should be the preferred local treatment. Breast RT after axillary lymph node dissection appears to be at least equivalent to mastectomy with respect to locoregional recurrence and recurrence-free survival, implying that patients could be spared surgery.⁵⁴⁻⁵⁷ When RT is chosen, there is also no consensus as to whether the supraclavicular or internal mammary regional lymph nodes should be included in the radiation field.^{55,57} Systemic therapy should be given analogous to the equivalent nodal-positive breast cancer. Given the rapid evolution of systemic therapy in breast cancer, the authors recommend that systemic therapy use in patients with breast-like CUP should be aligned with the current treatment standards for breast cancer.

Women with peritoneal carcinomatosis of a serous papillary adenocarcinoma (ovary-like CUP). This favourable subtype is defined as (isolated) peritoneal carcinomatosis in females with serous or undifferentiated adenocarcinoma histology; the absence of an ovary, fallopian tube or uterine primary cancer⁵⁸ and possibly identical to primary peritoneal serous carcinoma.⁵⁹ IHC serum and genetic analysis frequently reveals elevated CA125 and BRCA1/2 mutations consistent with the profile of ovarian cancer.⁶⁰ Thus, analogous to ovarian cancer, germline and somatic BRCA1/2 mutation testing should be carried out.⁶¹ Treatment may be similar to that for stage III/IV ovarian cancer, including surgical debulking for cytoreduction⁶² followed by carboplatin-paclitaxel ChT (the addition of bevacizumab is optional)⁶¹ and poly (ADP-ribose) polymerase (PARP) inhibitor maintenance therapy in responding patients.⁶³

Squamous-cell carcinoma involving non-supraclavicular cervical lymph nodes (head and neck-like CUP). This favourable subtype is defined as squamous-cell carcinoma in non-supraclavicular cervical lymph nodes without a detectable mucosal primary. Attempts to identify the primary tumour should include flexible endoscopy, contrastenhanced CT and/or-preferably-MRI of the head and neck as well as FDG-PET. In cases where the primary has remained elusive after these examinations, panendoscopy with biopsies of the naso-, hypo- and oropharynx, as well as bilateral tonsillectomy, should be carried out. Carcinoma tissue should be tested for p16 expression and, in case of positivity, for human papillomavirus (HPV) status.⁶⁴ The Epstein-Barr virus (EBV) status should also be determined, and PD-L1 expression may be analysed in patients with relapsed disease or distant metastases.⁶⁴ Based on expert consensus, treatment recommendations for head and necklike CUP have already been described and should be considered as the therapeutic standard.^{24,64} Broadly, primary surgery by neck dissection and/or RT \pm ChT are recommended as first-line treatment in non-distant metastatic

disease. Patients with small-volume neck disease should receive either surgery or RT \pm ChT, whereas both options should be combined in large-volume disease.

Men with blastic bone metastases and/or IHC or serum PSA expression (prostate-like CUP). Blastic bone metastases in the pelvis and lower spine and/or high serum concentrations or IHC expression levels of PSA in males are quite similar to findings in metastatic prostate cancer. It is therefore suggested to align the diagnostic procedures and therapy for prostate-like CUP to metastatic prostate cancer guidelines.⁶⁵

Adenocarcinoma with colorectal IHC (CK7-negative, CK20positive, CDX2-positive) or molecular profile (colon-like CUP). Colon-like CUP is defined as adenocarcinoma histology compatible with a GI primary, predominant intraabdominal metastases, a CK7-negative, CK20-positive, CDX2-positive IHC signature characteristic of CRC and negative colonoscopy.^{66,67} Gene expression-based colon-like prediction appears to be less strict than IHC criteria.⁶⁷ Retrospective data suggest that patients with colon-like CUP treated with site-specific CRC ChT regimens [i.e. 5-fluorouracil—leucovorin—oxaliplatin (FOLFOX) or 5-fluorouracil-leucovorin-irinotecan (FOLFIRI)] achieve response and survival rates similar to those observed in patients with metastatic CRC.^{66,67} However, these data are from small patient numbers and additional prospective validation is necessary to substantiate these findings. Nevertheless, treatment analogous to metastatic CRC is generally recommended in colon-like CUP. Accordingly, in patients with microsatellite-stable (MSS) tumours, 5-fluorouracil (5-FU)-based regimens (i.e. FOLFOX or FOL-FIRI) may be administered, which can be combined with bevacizumab or, alternatively, an anti-epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR) antibody in patients with unmutated KRAS or NRAS. Patients receiving 5-FU should be tested for the lack of dihydropyrimidine dehydrogenase (DPD) before starting treatment.⁶⁸ In patients with MSI-high (MSI-H) tumours, ICIs should be used.⁶⁹ As CK20 expression is reduced or absent in MSI-H CRCs,⁷⁰ the diagnosis of colon-like CUP may also be considered in patients with CK20-negative, MSI-H CUP otherwise fitting colon-like criteria.

Carcinoma with renal-cell histological and immunohistochemical profile (renal-like CUP). The diagnostic algorithm shown in Figure 5 outlines the differential diagnosis between kidney cancer and CUP in patients with renal lesions. However, a small subset of patients appear to display a histological and immunohistochemical profile truly compatible with renal-cell carcinoma in the absence of any renal lesion, with documented responses to renal-specific treatment supporting the accuracy of the presumption of a renal primary.^{71,72} In view of the far-reaching therapeutic consequences of applying only tyrosine kinase inhibitor (TKI)- and ICI-based treatments, this subgroup may constitute a novel and distinct favourable CUP subset. Its definition relies on a histology and IHC profile strictly aligned with kidney cancer, such as clear cell or papillary histology (which appears overrepresented) with comprehensive immunostaining for the renal markers PAX8, PAX2, racemase and CD10. Optionally, treatment according to the rapidly evolving kidney cancer protocols may be justifiable,^{71,72} with ICIs offering a broader coverage across the malignancy spectrum in particularly ambiguous cases.

Management of unfavourable CUP

ChT. Patients with unfavourable CUP are defined as those who do not belong to any of the aforementioned favourable subgroups and constitute $\sim 80\%$ of all patients with CUP. According to data from small clinical studies, they have a dismal prognosis despite treatment with a variety of combination ChTs.²⁹ Platinum-based doublet ChT is generally recommended as the standard of care, although no randomised trials have been conducted to demonstrate superiority over best supportive care.⁷³ Modest survival benefit and symptom palliation with preservation of quality of life are currently the only realistic aims of therapy for these patients, although rare cases of cure have been reported.⁷⁴ Consequently, low-toxicity patient-convenient ChT regimens should be administered to reasonably fit, poor-risk patients (see Supplementary Table S9, available at https://doi.org/ 10.1016/j.annonc.2022.11.013).

Clinical trials conducted to-date (mostly randomised phase II trials) have evaluated regimens comprising platinum salts, taxanes, gemcitabine, vinca alkaloids or irinotecan, with no evidence of statistically significant superior efficacy demonstrated for any of the protocols.73,75-79 Generally, platinum-based doublets combined with either a taxane or gemcitabine are widely accepted as the gold standard. Better outcomes were reported with cisplatingemcitabine compared with cisplatin alone, although this was not assessed in a large and adequately powered randomised phase III trial.⁷⁶ Cisplatin-gemcitabine has also shown a superior efficacy-toxicity ratio compared with cisplatin-irinotecan in a randomised phase II trial.⁷⁷ Carboplatin-paclitaxel has demonstrated meaningful activity in CUP as well,⁷⁹ although superiority over gemcitabine-vinorelbine did not reach statistical significance with respect to survival or remission in a randomised phase II trial.⁷⁸ A prospective, randomised phase III trial of 198 patients comparing gemcitabine-irinotecan with paclitaxel-carboplatin-etoposide reported significantly less toxicity and equal survival rates with the two-drug regimen.⁷³ As such, doublet ChT regimens are generally recommended as the standard of care, whereas triplet ChT regimens are considered to confer excessive toxicity and are not recommended.

There are no available data regarding the efficacy of different ChT regimes for unfavourable squamous-cell versus adeno-CUP. When extrapolating from other common squamous-cell carcinoma entities, including cervical, head and neck, non-small-cell lung and oesophageal cancer, platinum-based doublet ChT is generally recommended for unfavourable CUP independent of histology.

A. Krämer et al.

Annals of Oncology

Although only a few non-ChT drugs have been tested in patients with unfavourable CUP, neither belinostat nor cetuximab have improved on the results demonstrated with carboplatin—paclitaxel in randomised trials and are therefore not recommended.^{80,81}

No clinical trial data are available for second-line ChT. Switching between established CUP ChT protocols in progressing patients appears reasonable. Molecular targeted therapy and ICIs may be considered as alternatives. The combination of bevacizumab—erlotinib has shown activity in CUP, with a substantial rate of disease stabilisation also seen in ChT-pre-treated patients, but only 10% of patients reached a partial response.⁸²

Site-directed therapy by molecular tissue of origin prediction. Several clinical studies in CUP have used RNA expression- or DNA methylation-based molecular techniques to predict the putative primary, a strategy termed 'tissue of origin' prediction, with subsequent administration of 'site-specific' therapy according to the predicted primary. Despite a promising pilot study,⁸³ two randomised trials failed to demonstrate superiority of gene expression profiling-based 'site-specific' therapy over standard empiric ChT with either carboplatin—paclitaxel or cisplatin gemcitabine, respectively.^{84,85} Consequentially, no recommendation for the use of gene expression profiling-based 'site-directed' therapy can currently be provided.

Molecular targeted therapy. The mutational profile of unfavourable CUP has been assessed in numerous panel NGS studies to identify targets for molecular therapies.^{32,86-90} Beyond TP53 as the most abundant mutation present in around half of patients, these studies have consistently shown a very heterogeneous mutational landscape with a diverse set of potentially actionable genetic alterations. Discussion of NGS findings in a molecular tumour board is therefore advised. The use of molecular targeted therapies is strongly recommended when the respective compound has received cancer type-agnostic approval, as is currently the case for larotrectinib and entrectinib in NTRK fusion-positive cancers.^{38,39} Likewise, BRAF V600E and RET proto-oncogene (RET) can be considered as cancer type-agnostic targets in patients with relapsed or refractory CUP.⁹¹⁻⁹³ Targeted therapies are also strongly recommended in patients with tumours harbouring a genetic alteration suggestive of a putative primary in which molecular guided therapies are licensed and are the standard of care (Supplementary Table S5, available at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annonc. 2022.11.013). For example, this currently applies to EGFRmutant as well as ALK and ROS1 fusion-positive tumours, which strongly imply NSCLC as the primary and for which TKIs represent the treatment of choice.⁴⁶

Beyond these recommendations, molecular targeted therapy may be considered in patients harbouring molecular alterations for which approved compounds are available in other cancer entities. Here, ranking of molecular guided therapy depends on the evidence from known primary cancer entities and the respective putative primary. Accordingly, first-line targeted therapy with a BRAF inhibitor appears justified for *BRAF V600E* mutations when lung is the putative primary. Further compounds licensed in non-CUP entities are available for various genetic targets, although evidence in CUP is limited to anecdotal cases.^{32,88} Examples include fibroblast growth factor receptor (*FGFR*) fusions, actionable v-erb-b2 avian erythroblastic leukaemia viral oncogene homologue 2 (*ERBB2*) alterations (activating mutations or amplifications), deleterious mutations of *BRCA1/2* or DNA damage repair genes including RAD51 recombinase (*RAD51*) and partner and localiser of *BRCA2* (*PALB2*), activating *KRAS G12C* and phosphatidylinositol-4, 5-bisphosphate 3-kinase catalytic subunit alpha (*PIK3CA*) mutations as well as MET proto-oncogene, receptor tyrosine kinase (*MET*) amplification. The spectrum of molecular targets is likely to grow in the future.

ICIs. ICI treatment has not yet been established in the general CUP population, although an overall response rate of 22% has been reported in patients with unfavourable CUP who have relapsed or are refractory to first-line ChT.⁴⁴ ICIs may be considered for the indications described below.

MSI-H or mismatch repair-deficient CUP. The responsiveness of MSI-H or mismatch repair-deficient (dMMR) tumours to ICIs has been shown across different cancer entities.^{41,94-96} Accordingly, pembrolizumab has been granted tumour-agnostic approval from the Food and Drug Administration (FDA) for the second-line treatment of MSI-H or dMMR cancers,⁹⁷ which also includes CUP. Accordingly, ICI treatment might be considered as the second-line therapy at the latest for this group.

Based on the superior progression-free survival (PFS) of pembrolizumab over standard-of-care ChT in MSI-H or dMMR CRC,⁹⁸ pembrolizumab has been approved by the European Medicines Agency (EMA) and FDA as the first-line treatment in this setting.⁶⁷ As it is suggested that treatment of colon-like CUP follows CRC treatment guidelines, pembrolizumab may be used as the first-line treatment in MSI-H or dMMR colon-like CUP.

TMB-high CUP. High TMB represents an established predictor for response to ICI treatment across different cancer entities.^{96,99} Accordingly, pembrolizumab is FDA approved for the second-line treatment of TMB-high (TMB-H) cancers [defined as \geq 10 mutations per megabase (mut/Mb)]. Likewise, nivolumab was more effective in CUP with a high TMB (defined as \geq 7.75 mut/Mb).⁴⁴ Thus, ICI treatment may be considered as the second-line therapy at the latest in TMB-H CUP.

PD-L1-high CUP. High PD-L1 expression has been associated with improved outcomes following ICI treatment across some, but not all, cancer entities.^{96,100,101} Similar to other tumour entities, patients with PD-L1-positive CUP tended to achieve a better PFS and overall survival, although this did not reach statistical significance.⁴⁴ Accordingly, ICI treatment may be considered as an option in relapsed or refractory unfavourable CUP with high-level PD-L1 expression and no alternative treatment options. It is, however, still unclear

whether the cancer cell-based tumour proportion score (TPS) or the cancer plus cancer environment-based combined positive score (CPS) should be used, and whether cutoffs used should be at 1%, 10% or 50%.

Additional scenarios highly suggestive of a primary cancer in which ICI treatment is established. ICIs may be considered as an option when clinicopathological features imply analogy to a known primary cancer where immunotherapy is an established treatment option, as is the case with NSCLC, head and neck squamous-cell, urothelial or gastroesophageal carcinomas, among others. So far, no data are available to evaluate the benefit—risk profile for the addition of an anti-cytotoxic T-lymphocyte-associated protein 4 (CTLA-4) antibody, such as ipilimumab, to anti-PD-(L)1 antibodies.

Peritonectomy

Isolated peritoneal carcinomatosis is, in principle, amenable to cytoreductive surgery \pm hyperthermic intraperitoneal ChT (HIPEC) as local therapy. Recommendations in CUP mostly rely on cross-entity analogies^{102} and are hampered by the uncertainty of a potentially undetected primary persisting after local peritoneal treatment.

A randomised study conducted in patients with colon cancer and peritoneal carcinomatosis treated with cytoreductive surgery showed a lack of therapeutic benefit and excessive toxicity with the addition of HIPEC.¹⁰³ However, outcomes with cytoreductive surgery alone were considered encouraging. Likewise, cytoreductive surgery is standard in ovarian cancer, with some data pointing to a possible beneficial effect for the addition of HIPEC in this entity both in the first-line¹⁰⁴ and relapsed settings.¹⁰⁵ In patients with (i) ovary-like CUP and (ii) mucin-producing or signet ring adenocarcinoma suggesting colon-like CUP and isolated peritoneal carcinomatosis, small retrospective analyses on a total of 40 patients and a few additional case reports suggest prolonged survival times after cytoreductive surgery with peritonectomy.¹⁰⁶⁻¹⁰⁸ Accordingly, for patients with ovary- or colon-like CUP and isolated peritoneal carcinomatosis, assessment for peritonectomy might be an option, whereas additional HIPEC is not recommended as there are no data available for this procedure in CUP. Also, peritonectomy is not recommended in unfavourable CUP.

In view of the associated morbidity and mortality risks, candidates for cytoreductive surgery should be carefully and strictly selected in experienced referral centres based on a good PS, a low burden of peritoneal involvement [as assessed by the peritoneal cancer index (PCI)] and the exclusion of any additional, extraperitoneal metastases.^{102,105} The principles of completeness of cytoreduction as the decisive step should be meticulously adhered to, as done in other cancer entities.

Recommendations

Classification and management of favourable CUP

 The formerly recognised favourable CUP subtypes with neuroendocrine differentiation are no longer viewed as CUP subtypes and should be treated according to guidelines for neuroendocrine malignancies [IV, B].

- The formerly recognised favourable CUP subtype termed 'poorly differentiated carcinoma with midline distribution' is no longer viewed as a CUP subtype. Historically, many of these patients actually had extragonadal germ cell tumours [IV, B]. Also, some of these young patients may have an underdiagnosed and aggressive NUT midline carcinoma [IV, B].
- The former favourable subtype of 'localised CUP' has been redefined to also include oligometastatic disease amenable to local ablative treatment [IV, B].
- In patients with single-site or oligometastatic CUP, localised treatment with ablative surgery and/or RT is suggested [IV, B].
- Before localised treatment, patients with single-site or oligometastatic CUP should receive PET-CT and brain MRI [IV, B].
- In general, patients with one of the six favourable CUP subtypes defined by analogy to cancers with a known primary should be treated with site-specific therapy [III, B].
- Breast MRI should be carried out and demonstrate negative results before reaching the diagnosis of breast-like CUP [IV, A].
- In addition to systemic therapy, breast treatment with RT (or alternatively surgery) is recommended in breast-like CUP [IV, A].
- Renal-like CUP may constitute a novel favourable CUP subset that benefits from TKI and ICI treatments [V, C].

Management of unfavourable CUP

- For patients with newly diagnosed unfavourable CUP and adequate PS, platinum-based doublet ChT is generally recommended as the standard of care [III, B].
- There is currently no high-level evidence that gene expression profiling-directed therapy leads to an improvement in patient outcomes. Consequently, such strategies are not recommended outside of clinical trials [II, D].
- For patients with ovary-like and colon-like CUP and isolated peritoneal carcinomatosis, assessment for peritonectomy without HIPEC might be an option [IV, C].
- In view of the ongoing poor prognosis and lack of highlevel clinical evidence in patients with CUP, inclusion in clinical trials is encouraged [V, A].

Molecular targeted treatment

- In patients with NTRK fusion-positive CUP, treatment with an NTRK inhibitor is recommended [III, A].
- In EGFR-mutant as well as ALK and ROS1 fusion-positive CUP, treatment with the respective TKI is recommended [II, A].
- For patients with *BRAF V600E* mutations, treatment with a BRAF inhibitor from second-line onwards may be an option; BRAF inhibitors may be considered for first-line treatment when lung is the putative primary [III, C].
- Limited evidence suggests that compounds targeting additional genetic alterations licensed in non-CUP

entities may be an option for patients with CUP harbouring these genetic alterations [III, C].

- If no clinical trials are available in the second-line setting, molecular targeted treatments and ICIs may be considered as alternative options [V, C].
- Immunotherapy
- Patients with MSI-H or dMMR unfavourable CUP may receive ICI treatment in the second-line setting [III, B].
- Patients with MSI-H or dMMR colon-like CUP may receive ICI treatment in the first-line setting [III, B].
- Patients with TMB-H unfavourable CUP may be considered for ICI treatment in the second-line setting [III, B].
- For patients with PD-L1-high unfavourable CUP, secondline ICI treatment may be an option [III, C].

FOLLOW-UP AND LONG-TERM SURVIVORSHIP

In patients with unfavourable CUP who are receiving treatment, and after treatment discontinuation, restaging and follow-up by CT or MRI should be carried out at 3-month intervals provided that the patient is deemed fit for further therapy.

Long-term survivors exist among patients with single-site or oligometastatic CUP who have received ablative surgery/ RT and those with other favourable CUP subtypes such as women with isolated axillary nodal metastases.³⁴ Long-term survival for up to 50 months has also been documented among patients with unfavourable CUP, although this is rare.³⁴

For patients with single-site or oligometastatic CUP who have received local ablative treatment, no consensus guidelines for routine follow-up have been established. Since early diagnosis of local relapse might enable additional local ablative treatment,³⁵ follow-up with CT or MRI should be carried out at 3-6 month intervals during the first 2 years, followed by 6-12 month intervals in years 3-5.

In view of the elevated risk for secondary malignancies, long-term CUP survivors may adhere to cancer screening guidelines recommended for the general population, which includes screening for colon, breast, prostate and skin cancer. If family history and/or molecular work-up have raised the suspicion of a germline cancer-predisposing mutation, genetic counselling and testing should be offered. If confirmed, a germline cancer-predisposing mutation should warrant additional screening.

Recommendation

• Follow-up by CT or MRI may be carried out at 3-month intervals, provided that the patient is deemed fit for further therapy [IV, B].

METHODOLOGY

This Clinical Practice Guideline (CPG) was developed in accordance with the ESMO standard operating procedures for CPG development (https://www.esmo.org/Guidelines/

Annals of Oncology

ESMO-Guidelines-Methodology). The relevant literature has been selected by the expert authors. The FDA/EMA or other regulatory body approval status of new therapies/ indications is reported at the time of writing this CPG. Levels of evidence and grades of recommendation have been applied using the system shown in Supplementary Table S10, available at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annonc. 2022.11.013.^{109,110} Statements without grading were considered justified standard clinical practice by the authors. Future updates to this CPG will be published on esmo.org as a Living GL version or an eUpdate, to be made available at: https://www.esmo.org/guidelines/guidelines-by-topic/cancers-of-unknown-primary-site.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Kari Hemminki was supported by the European Union's Horizon 2020 research and innovation programme, No 856620. Manuscript editing support was provided by Claire Bramley (ESMO Guidelines staff) and Angela Corstorphine of Kstorfin Medical Communications Ltd (KMC); this support was funded by ESMO.

FUNDING

No external funding has been received for the preparation of this guideline. Production costs have been covered by ESMO from central funds.

DISCLOSURE

AK reports personal fees as an invited speaker from Roche: fees paid to his institution for advisory board membership from Roche; institutional funding from Bristol Myers Squibb (BMS); non-remunerated role as a principal investigator for Roche. TB reports fees paid to his institution as a study oncologist, for expert testimony and study-related travel expenses from Roche. CP reports fees paid to her institution as an invited speaker from Roche; institutional funding as a coordinating principal investigator from Roche. GB reports personal fees for advisory board membership from Gensenta; institutional funding as a Steering Committee member from Bayer; non-remunerated roles as a principal investigator for Eli Lilly, Merck Sharp & Dohme (MSD) and Roche; member of the American Society of Clinical Oncology (ASCO). SD reports personal fees as an invited speaker from Bracco Germany; non-remunerated leadership role as President (2010-2012) and Vice-President (2012-2014) of DEGUM (German Ultrasound Society); non-remunerated role as member and chairman of the 'Radiation Protection in Medicine' (2017-2020) working group for the Radiation Protection Commission (SSK) at the German Federal Ministry of Environmental Protection. KH has reported no potential conflicts of interest. LM reports a non-remunerated role as co-chair of the Steering Committee for the CUPISCO trial from Roche. HM reports personal fees as an invited speaker from Amgen and Roche; personal fees for advisory board membership from AstraZeneca, Janssen and Merck; institutional funding from Roche. KO

reports institutional funding from BioClavis, BioTheranostics and Leica; non-remunerated advisory role as member of Steering Group for Early Detection and Diagnosis of Cancer Roadmap for Cancer Research UK and as member of Innovation Expert Advisory Group (EAG) for NHS England Cancer Innovation Programme; co-author of the RCPath dataset on CUP and malignancy of unknown origin for the Royal College of Pathologists; Cancer Research UK affiliate at the Beatson Institute; member of the National Cancer Research Institute (UK). AP reports personal fees for a congress subscription from Amgen: personal fees for advisory board membership in urothelial cancer from Basilea; personal fees for congress expenses from Janssen. HW reports personal fees as an invited speaker and for advisory board membership from Array BioPharma, Bayer, BMS, Celgene, Erytech, Incyte, Merck KGaA, Pierre Fabre, Servier Sirtex Medical and Roche/Genentech; personal fees for consultancy from OnoSil; personal fees for an advisory role and as a Trial Steering Committee member from Zymeworks; personal fees and institutional funding for an advisory role, as a coordinating principal investigator and member of Trial Steering Committee from Sirtex Medical; non-remunerated advisory roles with Bayer, Pfizer and Pierre Fabre. GZ reports personal fees as an invited speaker from Amgen, Ipsen, Leo Pharma and Merck. GP is the Chief Medical Officer for ESMO and member of ASCO and the Hellenic Cooperative Oncology Group and the Hellenic Society of Medical Oncology (HeCOG). KF reports personal fees for advisory board membership from Curevac and Orion; fees paid to his institution as an invited speaker from Astellas, AstraZeneca, Bayer, Janssen, MSD, Novartis, Pfizer and Sanofi; fees paid to his institution for advisory board membership from AAA, Astellas, AstraZeneca, Bayer, Janssen, MSD, Novartis/AAA and Pfizer; institutional funding as trial chair from AstraZeneca, Bayer, BMS, Janssen, MSD, Orion and Pfizer; non-remunerated role as principal investigator and trial chair for Bayer, BMS, Merck, Novartis/AAA and Orion. TO has declared no conflicts of interest.

REFERENCES

- Brewster DH, Lang J, Bhatti LA, et al. Descriptive epidemiology of cancer of unknown primary site in Scotland, 1961-2010. *Cancer Epidemiol.* 2014;38(3):227-234.
- Binder C, Matthes KL, Korol D, et al. Cancer of unknown primary-Epidemiological trends and relevance of comprehensive genomic profiling. *Cancer Med.* 2018;7(9):4814-4824.
- Pavlidis N, Briasoulis E, Hainsworth J, et al. Diagnostic and therapeutic management of cancer of an unknown primary. *Eur J Cancer*. 2003;39(14):1990-2005.
- Hemminki K, Liu H, Heminki A, et al. Power and limits of modern cancer diagnostics: cancer of unknown primary. *Ann Oncol.* 2012;23(3):760-764.
- Shu X, Liu H, Ji J, et al. Subsequent cancers in patients diagnosed with cancer of unknown primary (CUP): etiological insights? *Ann Oncol.* 2012;23(1):269-275.
- Kaaks R, Sookthai D, Hemminki K, et al. Risk factors for cancers of unknown primary site: results from the prospective EPIC cohort. Int J Cancer. 2014;135(10):2475-2481.

- 8. Hemminki K, Försti A, Sundquist K, et al. Cancer of unknown primary is associated with diabetes. *Eur J Cancer Prev.* 2016;25(3):246-251.
- 9. Hemminki K, Sundquist K, Sundquist J, et al. Risk of cancer of unknown primary after hospitalization for autoimmune diseases. *Int J Cancer.* 2015;137(12):2885-2895.
- Hemminki K, Ji J, Sundquist J, et al. Familial risks in cancer of unknown primary: tracking the primary sites. J Clin Oncol. 2011;29(4): 435-440.
- 11. Urban D, Rao A, Bressel M, et al. Cancer of unknown primary: a population-based analysis of temporal change and socioeconomic disparities. *Br J Cancer.* 2013;109(5):1318-1324.
- Hemminki K, Bevier M, Hemminki A, et al. Survival in cancer of unknown primary site: population-based analysis by site and histology. *Ann Oncol.* 2012;23(7):1854-1863.
- Riihimäki M, Thomsen H, Hemminki A, et al. Comparison of survival of patients with metastases from known versus unknown primaries: survival in metastatic cancer. *BMC Cancer*. 2013;13:36.
- Selves J, Long-Mira E, Mathieu MC, et al. Immunohistochemistry for diagnosis of metastatic carcinomas of unknown primary site. *Cancers* (*Basel*). 2018;10(4):108.
- **15.** Noh S, Shim H. Optimal combination of immunohistochemical markers for subclassification of non-small cell lung carcinomas: a tissue microarray study of poorly differentiated areas. *Lung Cancer.* 2012;76(1):51-55.
- Herpel E, Rieker RJ, Dienemann H, et al. SMARCA4 and SMARCA2 deficiency in non-small cell lung cancer: immunohistochemical survey of 316 consecutive specimens. *Ann Diagn Pathol.* 2017;26:47-51.
- Lugli A, Tzankov A, Zlobec I, et al. Differential diagnostic and functional role of the multi-marker phenotype CDX2/CK20/CK7 in colorectal cancer stratified by mismatch repair status. *Mod Pathol.* 2008;21(11):1403-1412.
- **18.** Pauli C, Bochtler T, Mileshkin L, et al. A challenging task: identifying patients with cancer of unknown primary (CUP) according to ESMO guidelines: the CUPISCO trial experience. *Oncologist.* 2021;26(5): e769-e779.
- Bahrami A, Gown AM, Baird GS, et al. Aberrant expression of epithelial and neuroendocrine markers in alveolar rhabdomyosarcoma: a potentially serious diagnostic pitfall. *Mod Pathol.* 2008;21(7): 795-806.
- Adams H, Schmid P, Dirnhofer S, et al. Cytokeratin expression in hematological neoplasms: a tissue microarray study on 866 lymphoma and leukemia cases. *Pathol Res Pract.* 2008;204(8):569-573.
- Kwee TC, Kwee RM. Combined FDG-PET/CT for the detection of unknown primary tumors: systematic review and meta-analysis. *Eur Radiol.* 2009;19(3):731-744.
- 22. Lievens Y, Guckenberger M, Gomez D, et al. Defining oligometastatic disease from a radiation oncology perspective: an ESTRO-ASTRO consensus document. *Radiother Oncol.* 2020;148:157-166.
- Albertson M, Chandra S, Sayed Z, et al. PET/CT evaluation of head and neck cancer of unknown primary. *Semin Ultrasound CT MR*. 2019;40(5):414-423.
- Maghami E, Ismaila N, Alvarez A, et al. Diagnosis and management of squamous cell carcinoma of unknown primary in the head and neck: ASCO guideline. J Clin Oncol. 2020;38(22):2570-2596.
- 25. Bridgewater J, Galle PR, Khan SA, et al. Guidelines for the diagnosis and management of intrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma. *J Hepatol.* 2014;60(6):1268-1289.
- 26. Conway AM, Morris GC, Smith S, et al. Intrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma hidden within cancer of unknown primary. Br J Cancer. 2022;127(3):531-540.
- Bochtler T, Endris V, Leichsenring J, et al. Comparative genetic profiling aids diagnosis and clinical decision making in challenging cases of CUP syndrome. *Int J Cancer.* 2019;145(11):2963-2973.
- 28. Ross JS, Sokol ES, Moch H, et al. Comprehensive genomic profiling of carcinoma of unknown primary origin: retrospective molecular

classification considering the CUPISCO study design. *Oncologist*. 2021;26(3):e394-e402.

- **29.** Bugat R, Bataillard A, Lesimple T, et al. Summary of the Standards, Options and Recommendations for the management of patients with carcinoma of unknown primary site (2002). *Br J Cancer.* 2003;89(suppl 1):S59-S66.
- **30.** Seve P, Ray-Coquard I, Trillet-Lenoir V, et al. Low serum albumin levels and liver metastasis are powerful prognostic markers for survival in patients with carcinomas of unknown primary site. *Cancer.* 2006;107(11):2698-2705.
- Huang CY, Lu CH, Yang CK, et al. A simple risk model to predict survival in patients with carcinoma of unknown primary origin. *Medicine* (*Baltimore*). 2015;94(47):e2135.
- Bochtler T, Reiling A, Endris V, et al. Integrated clinicomolecular characterization identifies RAS activation and CDKN2A deletion as independent adverse prognostic factors in cancer of unknown primary. Int J Cancer. 2020;146(11):3053-3064.
- Raghav K, Hwang H, Jácome AA, et al. Development and validation of a novel nomogram for individualized prediction of survival in cancer of unknown primary. *Clin Cancer Res.* 2021;27(12):3414-3421.
- **34.** Pavlidis N, Petrakis D, Golfinopoulos V, et al. Long-term survivors among patients with cancer of unknown primary. *Crit Rev Oncol Hematol*. 2012;84(1):85-92.
- **35.** Culine S, Kramar A, Saghatchian M, et al. Development and validation of a prognostic model to predict the length of survival in patients with carcinomas of an unknown primary site. *J Clin Oncol.* 2002;20(24):4679-4683.
- **36.** Pouyiourou M, Wohlfromm T, Kraft B, et al. Local ablative treatment with surgery and/or radiotherapy in single-site and oligometastatic carcinoma of unknown primary. *Eur J Cancer.* 2021;157:179-189.
- Bochtler T, Wohlfromm T, Hielscher T, et al. Prognostic impact of copy number alterations and tumor mutational burden in carcinoma of unknown primary. *Genes Chromosomes Cancer*. 2022;61(9): 551-560.
- Ardini E, Siena S. Entrectinib approval by EMA reinforces options for ROS1 and tumour agnostic NTRK targeted cancer therapies. *ESMO Open*. 2020;5(5):e000867.
- **39.** Farago AF, Demetri GD. Larotrectinib, a selective tropomyosin receptor kinase inhibitor for adult and pediatric tropomyosin receptor kinase fusion cancers. *Future Oncol.* 2020;16(9):417-425.
- 40. Marabelle A, Fakih M, Lopez J, et al. Association of tumour mutational burden with outcomes in patients with advanced solid tumours treated with pembrolizumab: prospective biomarker analysis of the multicohort, open-label, phase 2 KEYNOTE-158 study. *Lancet Oncol.* 2020;21(10):1353-1365.
- Marabelle A, Le DT, Ascierto PA, et al. Efficacy of pembrolizumab in patients with noncolorectal high microsatellite instability/mismatch repair-deficient cancer: results from the phase II KEYNOTE-158 study. *J Clin Oncol.* 2020;38(1):1-10.
- Samstein RM, Lee CH, Shoushtari AN, et al. Tumor mutational load predicts survival after immunotherapy across multiple cancer types. *Nat Genet.* 2019;51(2):202-206.
- Le DT, Durham JN, Smith KN, et al. Mismatch repair deficiency predicts response of solid tumors to PD-1 blockade. *Science*. 2017;357(6349):409-413.
- Tanizaki J, Yonemori K, Akiyoshi K, et al. Open-label phase II study of the efficacy of nivolumab for cancer of unknown primary. *Ann Oncol.* 2022;33(2):216-226.
- Fizazi K, Greco FA, Pavlidis N, et al. Cancers of unknown primary site: ESMO Clinical Practice Guidelines for diagnosis, treatment and followup. Ann Oncol. 2015;26(suppl 5):v133-v138.
- Planchard D, Popat S, Kerr K, et al. Metastatic non-small cell lung cancer: ESMO Clinical Practice Guidelines for diagnosis, treatment and follow-up. Ann Oncol. 2018;29(suppl 4):iv192-iv237.
- Rudà R, Borgognone M, Benech F, et al. Brain metastases from unknown primary tumour: a prospective study. J Neurol. 2001;248(5): 394-398.

- Bartelt S, Lutterbach J. Brain metastases in patients with cancer of unknown primary. J Neurooncol. 2003;64(3):249-253.
- **49.** Galloway TJ, Ridge JA. Management of squamous cancer metastatic to cervical nodes with an unknown primary site. *J Clin Oncol.* 2015;33(29):3328-3337.
- Matsuyama S, Nakafusa Y, Tanaka M, et al. Iliac lymph node metastasis of an unknown primary tumor: report of a case. *Surg Today*. 2006;36(7):655-658.
- de Bresser J, de Vos B, van der Ent F, et al. Breast MRI in clinically and mammographically occult breast cancer presenting with an axillary metastasis: a systematic review. *Eur J Surg Oncol.* 2010;36(2):114-119.
- Pentheroudakis G, Lazaridis G, Pavlidis N. Axillary nodal metastases from carcinoma of unknown primary (CUPAx): a systematic review of published evidence. *Breast Cancer Res Treat*. 2010;119(1):1-11.
- Gennari A, André F, Barrios CH, et al. ESMO Clinical Practice Guideline for the diagnosis, staging and treatment of patients with metastatic breast cancer. *Ann Oncol.* 2021;32(12):1475-1495.
- Walker GV, Smith GL, Perkins GH, et al. Population-based analysis of occult primary breast cancer with axillary lymph node metastasis. *Cancer.* 2010;116(17):4000-4006.
- 55. Rueth NM, Black DM, Limmer AR, et al. Breast conservation in the setting of contemporary multimodality treatment provides excellent outcomes for patients with occult primary breast cancer. Ann Surg Oncol. 2015;22(1):90-95.
- Macedo FI, Eid JJ, Flynn J, et al. Optimal surgical management for occult breast carcinoma: a meta-analysis. *Ann Surg Oncol.* 2016;23(6): 1838-1844.
- 57. Kim H, Park W, Kim SS, et al. Prognosis of patients with axillary lymph node metastases from occult breast cancer: analysis of multicenter data. *Radiat Oncol J.* 2021;39(2):107-112.
- Pentheroudakis G, Pavlidis N. Serous papillary peritoneal carcinoma: unknown primary tumour, ovarian cancer counterpart or a distinct entity? A systematic review. *Crit Rev Oncol Hematol*. 2010;75(1):27-42.
- 59. Kim J, Park EY, Kim O, et al. Cell origins of high-grade serous ovarian cancer. *Cancers (Basel)*. 2018;10(11):433.
- 60. Finch A, Beiner M, Lubinski J, et al. Salpingo-oophorectomy and the risk of ovarian, fallopian tube, and peritoneal cancers in women with a BRCA1 or BRCA2 Mutation. JAMA. 2006;296(2):185-192.
- Colombo N, Sessa C, du Bois A, et al. ESMO-ESGO consensus conference recommendations on ovarian cancer: pathology and molecular biology, early and advanced stages, borderline tumours and recurrent disease. Ann Oncol. 2019;30(5):672-705.
- **62.** Ben-Baruch G, Sivan E, Moran O, et al. Primary peritoneal serous papillary carcinoma: a study of 25 cases and comparison with stage III-IV ovarian papillary serous carcinoma. *Gynecol Oncol.* 1996;60(3): 393-396.
- **63.** Ray-Coquard I, Pautier P, Pignata S, et al. Olaparib plus bevacizumab as first-line maintenance in ovarian cancer. *N Engl J Med.* 2019;381(25):2416-2428.
- 64. Machiels JP, René Leemans C, Golusinski W, et al. Squamous cell carcinoma of the oral cavity, larynx, oropharynx and hypopharynx: EHNS-ESMO-ESTRO Clinical Practice Guidelines for diagnosis, treatment and follow-up. *Ann Oncol.* 2020;31(11):1462-1475.
- **65.** Parker C, Castro E, Fizazi K, et al. Prostate cancer: ESMO Clinical Practice Guidelines for diagnosis, treatment and follow-up. *Ann Oncol*. 2020;31(9):1119-1134.
- **66.** Varadhachary GR, Raber MN, Matamoros A, et al. Carcinoma of unknown primary with a colon-cancer profile-changing paradigm and emerging definitions. *Lancet Oncol.* 2008;9(6):596-599.
- **67.** Hainsworth JD, Schnabel CA, Erlander MG, et al. A retrospective study of treatment outcomes in patients with carcinoma of unknown primary site and a colorectal cancer molecular profile. *Clin Colorectal Cancer*. 2012;11(2):112-118.
- **68.** Hodroj K, Barthelemy D, Lega JC, et al. Issues and limitations of available biomarkers for fluoropyrimidine-based chemotherapy toxicity, a narrative review of the literature. *ESMO Open.* 2021;6(3): 100125.

Annals of Oncology

- **69.** Trullas A, Delgado J, Genazzani A, et al. The EMA assessment of pembrolizumab as monotherapy for the first-line treatment of adult patients with metastatic microsatellite instability-high or mismatch repair deficient colorectal cancer. *ESMO Open.* 2021;6(3):100145.
- McGregor DK, Wu TT, Rashid A, et al. Reduced expression of cytokeratin 20 in colorectal carcinomas with high levels of microsatellite instability. *Am J Surg Pathol.* 2004;28(6):712-718.
- Greco FA, Hainsworth JD. Renal cell carcinoma presenting as carcinoma of unknown primary site: recognition of a treatable patient subset. *Clin Genitourin Cancer.* 2018;16(4):e893-e898.
- 72. Overby A, Duval L, Ladekarl M, et al. Carcinoma of unknown primary site (CUP) With metastatic renal-cell carcinoma (mRCC) histologic and immunohistochemical characteristics (CUP-mRCC): results from consecutive patients treated with targeted therapy and review of literature. *Clin Genitourin Cancer.* 2019;17(1):e32-e37.
- 73. Hainsworth JD, Spigel DR, Clark BL, et al. Paclitaxel/carboplatin/etoposide versus gemcitabine/irinotecan in the first-line treatment of patients with carcinoma of unknown primary site: a randomized, phase III Sarah Cannon Oncology Research Consortium Trial. *Cancer J.* 2010;16(1):70-75.
- 74. Levy A, Massard C, Gross-Goupil M, et al. Carcinomas of an unknown primary site: a curable disease? Ann Oncol. 2008;19(9):1657-1658.
- 75. Golfinopoulos V, Pentheroudakis G, Salanti G, et al. Comparative survival with diverse chemotherapy regimens for cancer of unknown primary site: multiple-treatments meta-analysis. *Cancer Treat Rev.* 2009;35(7):570-573.
- 76. Gross-Goupil M, Fourcade A, Blot E, et al. Cisplatin alone or combined with gemcitabine in carcinomas of unknown primary: results of the randomised GEFCAPI 02 trial. *Eur J Cancer.* 2012;48(5):721-727.
- 77. Culine S, Lortholary A, Voigt JJ, et al. Cisplatin in combination with either gemcitabine or irinotecan in carcinomas of unknown primary site: results of a randomized phase II study–trial for the French Study Group on Carcinomas of Unknown Primary (GEFCAPI 01). J Clin Oncol. 2003;21(18):3479-3482.
- 78. Huebner G, Link H, Kohne CH, et al. Paclitaxel and carboplatin vs gemcitabine and vinorelbine in patients with adeno- or undifferentiated carcinoma of unknown primary: a randomised prospective phase II trial. Br J Cancer. 2009;100(1):44-49.
- 79. Lee J, Hahn S, Kim DW, et al. Evaluation of survival benefits by platinums and taxanes for an unfavourable subset of carcinoma of unknown primary: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Br J Cancer*. 2013;108(1):39-48.
- **80.** Hainsworth JD, Daugaard G, Lesimple T, et al. Paclitaxel/carboplatin with or without belinostat as empiric first-line treatment for patients with carcinoma of unknown primary site: a randomized, phase 2 trial. *Cancer.* 2015;121(10):1654-1661.
- Folprecht G, Trautmann K, Stein A, et al. Adding cetuximab to paclitaxel and carboplatin for first-line treatment of carcinoma of unknown primary (CUP): results of the Phase 2 AIO trial PACET-CUP. Br J Cancer. 2021;124(4):721-727.
- 82. Hainsworth JD, Spigel DR, Farley C, et al. Phase II trial of bevacizumab and erlotinib in carcinomas of unknown primary site: the Minnie Pearl Cancer Research Network. *J Clin Oncol.* 2007;25(13):1747-1752.
- **83.** Hainsworth JD, Rubin MS, Spigel DR, et al. Molecular gene expression profiling to predict the tissue of origin and direct site-specific therapy in patients with carcinoma of unknown primary site: a prospective trial of the Sarah Cannon research institute. *J Clin Oncol.* 2013;31(2):217-223.
- 84. Fizazi K, Maillard A, Penel N, et al. 3562 A phase 3 trial of empiric chemotherapy with cisplatin and gemcitabine or systemic treatment tailored by molecular gene expression analysis in patients with carcinomas of an unknown primary (CUP) site (GEFCAPI 04). Ann Oncol. 2019;30(suppl 5):v851-v934.
- **85.** Hayashi H, Kurata T, Takiguchi Y, et al. Randomized phase II trial comparing site-specific treatment based on gene expression profiling with carboplatin and paclitaxel for patients with cancer of unknown primary site. *J Clin Oncol.* 2019;37(7):570-579.
- Tothill RW, Li J, Mileshkin L, et al. Massively-parallel sequencing assists the diagnosis and guided treatment of cancers of unknown primary. *J Pathol*. 2013;231(4):413-423.

- 87. Gatalica Z, Millis SZ, Vranic S, et al. Comprehensive tumor profiling identifies numerous biomarkers of drug response in cancers of unknown primary site: analysis of 1806 cases. *Oncotarget*. 2014;5(23): 12440-12447.
- Ross JS, Wang K, Gay L, et al. Comprehensive genomic profiling of carcinoma of unknown primary site: new routes to targeted therapies. JAMA Oncol. 2015;1(1):40-49.
- **89.** Löffler H, Pfarr N, Kriegsmann M, et al. Molecular driver alterations and their clinical relevance in cancer of unknown primary site. *Oncotarget*. 2016;7(28):44322-44329.
- Clynick B, Dessauvagie B, Sterrett G, et al. Genetic characterisation of molecular targets in carcinoma of unknown primary. J Transl Med. 2018;16(1):185.
- Adashek JJ, Menta AK, Reddy NK, et al. Tissue-agnostic activity of BRAF plus MEK inhibitor in BRAF V600-mutant tumors. *Mol Cancer Ther.* 2022;21(6):871-878.
- **92.** Subbiah V, Wolf J, Konda B, et al. Tumour-agnostic efficacy and safety of selpercatinib in patients with RET fusion-positive solid tumours other than lung or thyroid tumours (LIBRETTO-001): a phase 1/2, open-label, basket trial. *Lancet Oncol.* 2022;23(10):1261-1273.
- **93.** Subbiah V, Cassier PA, Siena S, et al. Pan-cancer efficacy of pralsetinib in patients with RET fusion-positive solid tumors from the phase 1/2 ARROW trial. *Nat Med.* 2022;28(8):1640-1645.
- 94. Le DT, Uram JN, Wang H, et al. PD-1 Blockade in tumors with mismatch-repair deficiency. *N Engl J Med*. 2015;372(26):2509-2520.
- **95.** Overman MJ, McDermott R, Leach JL, et al. Nivolumab in patients with metastatic DNA mismatch repair-deficient or microsatellite instability-high colorectal cancer (CheckMate 142): an open-label, multicentre, phase 2 study. *Lancet Oncol.* 2017;18(9):1182-1191.
- 96. Luchini C, Bibeau F, Ligtenberg MJL, et al. ESMO recommendations on microsatellite instability testing for immunotherapy in cancer, and its relationship with PD-1/PD-L1 expression and tumour mutational burden: a systematic review-based approach. Ann Oncol. 2019;30(8): 1232-1243.
- **97.** Marcus L, Lemery SJ, Keegan P, et al. FDA approval summary: pembrolizumab for the treatment of microsatellite instability-high solid tumors. *Clin Cancer Res.* 2019;25(13):3753-3758.
- **98.** Diaz LA Jr, Shiu KK, Kim TW, et al. Pembrolizumab versus chemotherapy for microsatellite instability-high or mismatch repair-deficient metastatic colorectal cancer (KEYNOTE-177): final analysis of a randomised, open-label, phase 3 study. *Lancet Oncol.* 2022;23(5):659-670.
- Hellmann MD, Ciuleanu TE, Pluzanski A, et al. Nivolumab plus ipilimumab in lung cancer with a high tumor mutational burden. N Engl J Med. 2018;378(22):2093-2104.
- 100. Reck M, Rodríguez-Abreu D, Robinson AG, et al. Pembrolizumab versus chemotherapy for PD-L1-positive non-small-cell lung cancer. *N Engl J Med.* 2016;375(19):1823-1833.
- **101.** Sati N, Boyne DJ, Cheung WY, et al. Factors modifying the associations of single or combination programmed cell death 1 and programmed cell death ligand 1 inhibitor therapies with survival outcomes in patients with metastatic clear cell renal cell carcinoma: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *JAMA Netw Open*. 2021;4(1):e2034201.
- **102.** Granieri S, Bonomi A, Frassini S, et al. Prognostic impact of cytoreductive surgery (CRS) with hyperthermic intraperitoneal chemotherapy (HIPEC) in gastric cancer patients: a meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. *Eur J Surg Oncol.* 2021;47(11):2757-2767.
- 103. Quénet F, Elias D, Roca L, et al. Cytoreductive surgery plus hyperthermic intraperitoneal chemotherapy versus cytoreductive surgery alone for colorectal peritoneal metastases (PRODIGE 7): a multicentre, randomised, open-label, phase 3 trial. *Lancet Oncol.* 2021;22(2):256-266.
- **104.** van Driel WJ, Koole SN, Sikorska K, et al. Hyperthermic intraperitoneal chemotherapy in ovarian cancer. *N Engl J Med*. 2018;378(3):230-240.
- 105. Huo YR, Richards A, Liauw W, et al. Hyperthermic intraperitoneal chemotherapy (HIPEC) and cytoreductive surgery (CRS) in ovarian cancer: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Eur J Surg Oncol.* 2015;41(12):1578-1589.
- 106. Delhorme JB, Ohayon J, Gouy S, et al. Ovarian and peritoneal psammocarcinoma: results of a multicenter study on 25 patients. *Eur J Surg Oncol.* 2020;46(5):862-867.

A. Krämer et al.

Annals of Oncology

- **107.** Sebbag G, Shmookler BM, Chang D, et al. Peritoneal carcinomatosis from an unknown primary site. Management of 15 patients. *Tumori*. 2001;87(2):67-73.
- **108.** Mugerwa S, Lekharaju V, Kiire CF. Management of peritoneal carcinomatosis secondary to metastatic cancer of unknown primary in men. *Eur J Cancer Care (Engl)*. 2009;18(1):22-27.
- **109.** Dykewicz CA. Summary of the guidelines for preventing opportunistic infections among hematopoietic stem cell transplant recipients. *Clin Infect Dis.* 2001;33(2):139-144.
- **110.** Gross PA, Barrett TL, Dellinger EP, et al. Purpose of quality standards for infectious diseases. Infectious Diseases Society of America. *Clin Infect Dis.* 1994;18(3):421.