

Bone and Soft Tissue Pathology

Diagnostic and Prognostic Implications

Julie Gibbs, MD^a, Evita Henderson-Jackson, MD^{a,b}, Marilyn M. Bui, MD, PhD^{a,b,*}

KEYWORDS

• Soft tissue • Bone • Sarcoma • Diagnosis • Prognosis • Pathology • Molecular

KEY POINTS

- A multidisciplinary team approach is necessary for optimal treatment of sarcomas, and the role of pathology is important for each member to be familiar with.
- Recent advances in immunohistochemical markers, cytogenetics, and molecular pathology techniques have lead to more accurate diagnoses and have improved the management of sarcomas.
- The current pathological definitions, classification and grading systems, and ancillary techniques are summarized here for some of the more common soft tissue and bone tumors.

INTRODUCTION

Most soft tissue and bone tumors are benign, requiring only conservative management. Soft tissue and bone sarcomas, on the other hand, require a multidisciplinary team approach for optimal diagnosis and management.^{1–3} They are rare malignant neoplasms, accounting for less than 1% of all adult and up to 20% of all pediatric malignancies, and may be classified according to the type of tissue that they most closely histologically resemble.^{3,4} The large majority are soft tissue sarcomas, most of which originate within the soft tissue of extremities, while the remaining approximately 10% are bone sarcomas.^{3,5,6} Numerous advances in immunohistochemical markers, cytogenetics, and molecular pathology techniques have led to more accurate diagnoses and have improved the management of sarcomas over the past decade.^{7–10} However, sarcomas are rare and diverse, often with overlapping histologic and

Surg Clin N Am 96 (2016) 915–962 http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.suc.2016.06.003 0039-6109/16/\$ – see front matter © 2016 Elsevier Inc. All rights reserved.

surgical.theclinics.com

The authors have nothing to disclose.

^a Department of Pathology and Cell Biology, University of South Florida Morsani College of Medicine, 12901 Bruce B. Downs Boulevard, Tampa, FL 33612, USA; ^b Department of Anatomic Pathology, H. Lee Moffitt Cancer Center & Research Institute, 12902 Magnolia Drive, Tampa, FL 33612, USA

^{*} Corresponding author. Department of Anatomic Pathology, H. Lee Moffitt Cancer Center & Research Institute, 12902 Magnolia Drive, Tampa, FL 33612. *E-mail address:* Marilyn.Bui@Moffitt.org

immunophenotypical features, making them a challenging group of tumors to accurately diagnose. Numerous online references and algorithmic clinical guidelines (Table 1), such as those created by the National Comprehensive Cancer Network (NCCN), are also readily available to help guide the diagnosis and management of soft tissue and bone tumors.^{11–18}

All members of a multidisciplinary team should have an understanding of the role of pathology, including the availability of ancillary studies, in order to optimize patient care. Clinical and radiologic information plays a key role in the initial workup and is often followed by tissue sampling, such as fine-needle aspiration (FNA), image-guided biopsy, or open biopsy, for definitive pathologic diagnosis before therapy or surgical resection. Although core biopsy with image guidance is the most accepted method for initial sampling of suspected sarcomas, FNA is especially useful in the evaluation of possible recurrent or metastatic disease. The appropriate selection of a sampling technique improves the accuracy and timeliness of the definitive pathologic diagnosis.^{1,11} Ancillary techniques, including immunohistochemical studies and molecular studies, then facilitate in the definitive diagnosis of most sarcomas.^{7,10}

This article begins with a brief summary of the changes included in recently updated World Health Organization (WHO) classification series of soft tissue and bone tumors. Although a comprehensive discussion of every currently recognized bone and soft tissue tumor and variant is not possible to cover in this article, the authors aim to discuss the key pathologic findings, grading and staging systems, and prognostic implications of some of the more common malignant, intermediate, and benign soft tissue and bone tumors.

WORLD HEALTH ORGANIZATION 2013 UPDATE

The most recently updated WHO classification series of soft tissue and bone tumors includes several newly recognized entities and reflects changes that have resulted from improved understanding of tumor characteristics.^{19–22} In summary, compared with the previous 2002 edition, this updated version better defines diagnostic criteria, allowing for more reproducible diagnoses, with some additional changes in the classification of various tumors. It incorporates updated molecular and genetic characteristics of tumors, shedding more light on possible factors influencing the pathogenesis of some previously obscure entities.²⁰

The update includes discussions that explain why some of the definitions of certain entities have changed. For example, the term atypical lipomatous tumor is preferred over well-differentiated liposarcoma, because they have no metastatic potential. The later term is now reserved, according to clinical judgment, for tumors that are impossible to completely surgically excise with adequate margins, because they are

Table 1 Selected examples of online references for pathology and clinical guidelines or information			
Pathology	College of American Pathologists Tampa Path BoneTumor.org Pathology Outlines	http://www.cap.org/web/home/resources/cancer- reporting-tools/ http://tampapath.com http://www.bonetumor.org/ http://www.pathologyoutlines.com/softtissue. html	
Clinical oncology	NCCN European Society for Medical Oncology American Cancer Society	https://www.nccn.org/ http://www.esmo.org/ http://www.cancer.org	

locally aggressive and likely to eventually have uncontrollable recurrent disease. In the fibroblastic/myofibroblastic section, solitary fibrous tumors (SFT) and hemangiopericytomas (HPC), previously considered separate entities, have been combined into one entity, now diagnosed as SFT. Similarly, the term Ewing sarcoma/primitive neuro-ectodermal tumor is no longer used and is now diagnosed, more simply, as Ewing sarcoma, since molecular analysis has supported the current understanding that they are the same entity with varying degrees of neuroectodermal differentiation, accounting for the histologic differences.^{20,23}

Undifferentiated sarcomas, historically also known as malignant fibrous histiocytomas (MFHs), were moved out of the fibrohistiocytic section, forming a new section of undifferentiated/unclassified sarcomas.¹⁹ These undifferentiated sarcomas are a diagnosis of exclusion and should be reported as undifferentiated spindle cell sarcoma, undifferentiated pleomorphic sarcoma, undifferentiated round cell sarcoma, undifferentiated epithelioid sarcoma (ES), or undifferentiated sarcoma, not otherwise specified (NOS). Myofibroma and angiomyolipoma were both moved into the perivascular section, from the fibroblastic and smooth muscle sections, respectively. In addition, the mixed-type liposarcoma subtype has been removed, whereas extraskeletal myxoid chondrosarcoma and angiomatoid fibrous histiocytoma have been reclassified as tumors of uncertain differentiation, because of their unclear line of differentiation when analyzed by presently available technology.²⁰

Newly recognized entities or variants have also been added, such as the new spindle cell/sclerosing variant of rhabdomyosarcoma and the pseudomyogenic hemangioendothelioma. Entirely new sections have been added to include tumors such as gastrointestinal stromal tumors (GIST) and nerve sheath tumors. A few bone tumors and variants were also added, including the benign notochordal cell tumor and primary non-Hodgkin lymphoma of bone, whereas other entities, such as schwannoma and leiomyoma of bone, were removed. In addition, the controversial issue regarding the coexistence of several grading systems of soft tissue tumors is discussed, focusing on the 2 most common grading systems in regards to their main advantages and limitations.^{20,22,24}

PATHOLOGIC GRADING OF SOFT TISSUE SARCOMAS

Soft tissue sarcomas are a heterogeneous and diverse group of tumors proven very difficult to uniformly grade. However, in 1984, Costa and colleagues²⁵ introduced a grading system known as the National Cancer Institute system. However, the grading system proposed by French Federation of Cancer Centers (Federation Nationale des Centres de Lutte Contre le Cancer, FNCLCC) popular in Europe is the most widely used system.²⁶ In addition, it has been validated by the largest number of patients studied, and its reproducibility has been tested with a large number of pathologists.^{27,28} The FNCLCC grading system of soft tissue sarcomas is based on the total score obtained from the summation of points for 3 factors: differentiation, mitotic rate, and tumor necrosis (Box 1).²⁹ For each soft tissue sarcoma type, points are assigned (1-3) for level of differentiation (Box 2), mitotic count, and tumor necrosis. The sum of the points is then categorized as either grade 1 (2-3 points), grade 2 (4-5 points), or grade 3 (6-8 points). The mitotic count refers to the number of mitotic figures counted in 10 high-power fields (HPF; field size of 0.174 mm²). It is not practical to grade soft tissue sarcomas status after chemotherapy or radiation because treatment tends to affect the mitotic counts, increase necrosis, and sometimes seemingly induce differentiation or cause selection for more differentiated components.²⁹ Other histopathologic features not used in the grading system that are prognostically important include

Box 1
The French Federation of Cancer Centers grading system
Tumor differentiation (see Box 2)
Score 1: Sarcomas resembling normal tissue
Score 2: Sarcomas with defined histologic differentiation
Score 3: Undifferentiated sarcomas or sarcomas of uncertain histologic differentiation
Mitotic count
Score 1: 0–9/10 HPF
Score 2: 10–19/10 HPF
Score 3: ≥20/10 HPF
Tumor necrosis
Score 1: Absent
Score 2: <50%
Score 3: ≥50%
Histologic grade
Tumor differentiation + Mitotic count + Tumor necrosis (sum of scores)
Grade 1: 2–3
Grade 2: 4–5
Grade 3: 6–8
Adapted from Guillou L, Coindre JM, Bonichon F, et al. Comparative study of the National Can- cer Institute and French Federation of Cancer Centers Sarcoma Group grading systems in a pop- ulation of 410 adult patients with soft tissue sarcoma. J Clin Oncol 1997;15(1):350–62; and Coindre JM. Grading of soft tissue sarcomas: review and update. Arch Pathol Lab Med 2006;130(10):1449.

surgical margin status and presence of vascular invasion.³⁰ For some histologic types of sarcoma, grade is of no prognostic value, such as in malignant peripheral nerve sheath tumor (MPNST), and its use is not recommended for angiosarcoma, extraskeletal myxoid chondrosarcoma, alveolar soft part sarcoma (ASPS), clear cell sarcoma, and ES.^{31–35} Separate from grading, a classification based on biological behavior of soft tissue tumors is provided within the WHO classification series of soft tissue and bone tumors.²² The soft tissue tumor types are divided into benign, intermediate (locally aggressive or rarely metastasizing), and malignant.

PATHOLOGICAL STAGING OF SOFT TISSUE SARCOMAS

The current American Joint Committee for Cancer (AJCC) Staging System for Soft Tissue Sarcomas manual incorporates the tumor stage, extent of tumor, and tumor grade.³⁶ This TNM system evaluates tumor size (whether greater than 5 cm or not), depth (whether suprafascial or infrafascial), and localized or disseminated (presence or absence of lymph node or distant metastases) (Table 2).

PATHOLOGIC GRADING OF BONE TUMORS

Bone tumors comprise a diverse group of neoplasms that are either cartilaginous, osteogenic, fibrogenic, fibrohistiocytic, hematopoietic, or of other mesenchymal tissue differentiation. The grading of bone neoplasms is largely driven by the histologic diagnosis, and

Box 2

Tumor differentiation score (according to histologic type in updated version of the FNCLCC system)

Score 1

Well-differentiated (liposarcoma, fibrosarcoma, MPNST, leiomyosarcoma, chondrosarcoma)

Score 2

Myxoid (liposarcoma, MFH, and chondrosarcoma), conventional (fibrosarcoma, MPNST, leiomyosarcoma, and angiosarcoma), well-differentiated malignant HPC, typical storiform/ pleomorphic MFH

Score 3

Round cell liposarcoma, pleomorphic liposarcoma, dedifferentiated liposarcoma, poorly differentiated fibrosarcoma, poorly differentiated MPNST, epithelioid MPNST, malignant Triton tumor, conventional malignant HPC, giant-cell and inflammatory MFH, poorly differentiated/pleomorphic/epithelioid leiomyosarcoma, synovial sarcoma, embryonal/ alveolar/pleomorphic rhabdomyosarcoma, mesenchymal chondrosarcoma, poorly differentiated/epithelioid angiosarcoma, extraskeletal osteosarcoma, Ewing sarcoma, ASPS, ES, malignant rhabdoid tumor, clear cell sarcoma, undifferentiated sarcoma

Adapted from Guillou L, Coindre JM, Bonichon F, et al. Comparative study of the National Cancer Institute and French Federation of Cancer Centers Sarcoma Group grading systems in a population of 410 adult patients with soft tissue sarcoma. J Clin Oncol 1997;15(1):352.

based on the system advocated by Broders, which assesses cellularity and nuclear features.³⁷ Generally, the more cellular the tumor is, the higher the grade. Nuclear membrane irregularities, nuclear enlargement, and nuclear hyperchromasia correlate with grade.²² Mitotic figures and necrosis are other histologic features helpful in grading. According

Table 2 American Joint Committee on Cancer version	7 staging for soft tissue sarcomas
Primary tumor (T)	
ТХ	Primary tumor cannot be assessed
T0	No evidence of primary tumor
T1	Tumor 5 cm or less in greatest dimension
T1a	Superficial tumor
T1b	Deep tumor
T2	Tumor more than 5 cm in greatest dimension
T2a	Superficial tumor
T2b	Deep tumor
Regional lymph nodes (N)	
NX	Lymph nodes cannot be assessed
NO	No regional lymph node metastasis
N1	Regional lymph node metastasis
Distant metastasis (M)	
M0	No distant metastasis
M1	Distant metastasis

Used with the permission of the American Joint Committee on Cancer (AJCC), Chicago, Illinois. The original source for this material is the AJCC Cancer Staging Manual, Seventh Edition (2010) published by Springer Science and Business Media LLC, www.springer.com. to the AJCC Cancer Staging manual, a 4-grade system is recommended; however, G1, G2 are regarded as low grade, whereas G3, G4 are regarded as high grade (**Box 3**).³⁶

Chondrosarcomas are graded based on cellularity, cytologic atypia, and mitotic activity. Grade 1 chondrosarcoma is histologically similar to enchondroma, but shows radiographic or histologic evidence of aggressive growth. Grade 2 chondrosarcomas are more cellular than grade 1 chondrosarcomas; have more cytologic atypia, greater hyperchromasia, and nuclear size; or have prominent myxoid change. Grade 3 chondrosarcomas are hypercellular with significant nuclear pleomorphism and prominent mitotic activity.³⁸

Chordomas are locally aggressive with a propensity for metastasis and are not graded. Adamantinomas are considered low grade. Sarcomas of types that occur in both bone and soft tissue (eg, mesenchymal chondrosarcoma, leiomyosarcoma, undifferentiated pleomorphic sarcoma) are graded according to the FNCLCC system.

PATHOLOGIC STAGING OF BONE TUMORS

As with soft tissue sarcomas, the AJCC Cancer Staging manual staging of bone tumors incorporates grade of the tumor and the extent of disease. It includes a 4-grade

Box 3 Bone tumor grading
Grade 1
Low-grade central osteosarcoma
Clear cell chondrosarcoma
Grade 1 chondrosarcoma
Parosteal osteosarcoma
Adamantinoma
Grade 2
Periosteal osteosarcoma
Grade 2 chondrosarcoma
Grade 3
Conventional osteosarcoma
Telangiectactic osteosarcoma
Small cell osteosarcoma
Secondary osteosarcoma
High-grade surface osteosarcoma
Malignant giant cell tumor
Ewing sarcoma
Grade 3 chondrosarcoma
Mesenchymal chondrosarcoma
Dedifferentiated chondrosarcoma
From Randall LR. Approach to the diagnosis of bone and soft tissue tumors – clinical, radiologic, and classification aspects. In: Folpe AL, Inwards CY, eds. Bone and soft tissue pathology. Phila- delphia: Saunders/Elsevier; 2010; with permission.

system based on differentiation that can be converted into high grade and low grade. In other words, grade 1 tumors = low grade and grade 2 to 3 tumors = high grade.^{36,39} The TNM system evaluates tumor size (whether greater than 8 cm or not) with or without discontinuous tumors in the primary bone site, and localized or disseminated (presence or absence of lymph node or distant metastases) (Table 3).

OVERVIEW OF THE PATHOLOGIC ASPECT OF DIAGNOSIS, PROGNOSIS, AND THERANOSTICS

Although soft tissue and bone tumors are classified by the histologic differentiation in the medical textbooks, the tumors encountered by pathologists present with various histologic findings, such as spindled cells, round cells, epithelioid cells, pleomorphic cells, giant cells, myxoid, fibrous, choroid, osteoid, and so forth. The pathologist then formulates a list of pertinent differential diagnoses, using the histologic information, in conjunction with clinical and radiological information, followed by ancillary techniques, such as immunohistologic, flow cytometry, cytogenetic, and molecular techniques, to define the histologic lineage and determine an accurate diagnosis. Biomarker studies of the tumor may also provide insight into response to therapy or prognosis.

The survival of patients with any high-grade or metastatic sarcoma is usually poor and with limited therapeutic options. The urgent need for improved targeted therapies for these rare aggressive tumors has led to chemotherapy-predictive (theranostic) molecular profiling services, particularly for patients with aggressive cancers and advanced stage of disease. Molecular profiling to uncover potential theranostic biomarkers are being evaluated with the use of various methods, such as immunohistochemistry, fluorescence in situ hybridization (FISH), polymer chain reaction

Table 3 American Joint Committee on Cancer staging version 7 for bone tumors			
Primary tumor			
ТХ	Primary tumor cannot be assessed		
то	No evidence of primary tumor		
T1	Tumor \leq 8 cm in greatest dimension		
Т2	Tumor >8 cm in greatest dimension		
ТЗ	Discontinuous tumors in primary bone site		
Regional lymph nodes			
NX	Lymph nodes cannot be assessed		
NO	No regional lymph node metastasis		
N1	Regional lymph node metastasis		
Distant metastasis			
MX	Distant metastasis cannot be assessed		
M0	No distant metastasis		
M1	Distant metastasis		
M1a	Lung		
M1b	Other distant sites		

Used with the permission of the American Joint Committee on Cancer (AJCC), Chicago, Illinois. The original source for this material is the AJCC Cancer Staging Manual, Seventh Edition (2010) published by Springer Science and Business Media LLC, www.springer.com. (PCR)-based panels, comparative genome hybridization, whole-genome transcriptome analysis, and next-generation exome sequencing, among others.^{40,41} Analysis of the molecular profile findings has the potential to provide therapeutic targets, such those involved in cell cycle regulation, DNA replication, the receptor tyrosine kinase pathway, among others, predicting susceptibilities to certain chemotherapeutic agents, and ultimately individualizing therapy.^{40–42}

MALIGNANT SOFT TISSUE AND BONE TUMORS Liposarcoma

Malignant liposarcomas include dedifferentiated liposarcoma, myxoid liposarcoma, and pleomorphic liposarcoma.^{6,22} Atypical lipomatous tumors (ALT) may undergo dedifferentiation resulting in a nonlipogenic sarcomatous component, consistent with dedifferentiated liposarcoma (Fig. 1). Typically the nonlipogenic sarcomatous component, of variable grade, is at least several millimeters in diameter and is either associated with a primary ALT/well-differentiated liposarcoma or in a recurrence.^{43,44} Myxoid liposarcomas, formerly also known as round cell liposarcomas, account for up to 20% of all liposarcomas and are composed of primitive mesenchymal cells, with a variable number of signet-ring cell lipoblasts, within an abundant myxoid stroma, characteristically with a delicate arborizing vascular pattern.^{22,45} Pleomorphic lipoblasts, with no associated well-differentiated component.

Dedifferentiation occurs in up to 10% of well-differentiated liposarcomas, with 90% observed at the time of initial diagnosis, and 10% presenting as a recurrence.^{2,46} The concept of low-grade dedifferentiation has been increasingly recognized, which can present as an area resembling low-grade myxofibrosarcoma, well-differentiated fibro-sarcoma, dermatofibrosarcoma, or even desmoid-type fibromatosis,⁴⁷ Myxoid liposarcomas (Fig. 2) are the second most common subtype of liposarcoma, comprising one-third of all liposarcomas, whereas pleomorphic liposarcomas account for only about 5% of all liposarcomas.^{2,3,17} Dedifferentiated liposarcomas most frequently affect the deep tissues of the extremities.

Ancillary studies

Dedifferentiated liposarcoma is characterized by the presence of a supernumerary ring or giant rod chromosome containing amplified 12q13 to 15 region segments,



Fig. 1. Well-differentiated component, high power (*A*) (hematoxylin-eosin, original magnification \times 40), of a dedifferentiated liposarcoma (*B*), high power (hematoxylin-eosin, original magnification \times 20).



Fig. 2. A myxoid liposarcoma, low power (*A*) (hematoxylin-eosin, original magnification \times 4) and high power (*B*), the latter showing a round cell histologic appearance (hematoxylineosin, original magnification \times 20).

with several oncogenes identified within this region, including MDM2, CDK4, HMGA2, CHOP (DDIT3), and GLI1, among others.^{47,48} MDM2 and CDK4 testing is very useful in the diagnosis of dedifferentiated liposarcomas or atypical lipomatous tumor, and they are usually negative in myxoid and pleomorphic liposarcomas. Poorly differentiated sarcomas with no identifiable atypical lipogenic component can be diagnosed as dedifferentiated liposarcoma on the basis of MDM2.⁴⁷ Gene amplification or protein overexpression of these markers can be detected by molecular studies, including FISH and immunohistochemistry. Greater than 90% of myxoid liposarcomas harbor the t(12;16)(q13;p11) karyotypic hallmark, which leads to the fusion of the FUS (TLS) and DDIT3 (CHOP) genes, generating a FUS/DDIT3 hybrid protein.^{22,49–51}

Prognostic implications

Anatomic location is the most important known prognostic factor in dedifferentiated liposarcomas, with retroperitoneum tumors having the worst clinical behavior. The retroperitoneum is the most common primary location, and the lungs are the most common metastatic site.⁴⁴ Histologic grade, presence of necrosis, and TP53 overexpression are also associated with a less favorable prognosis.49,52 Complex karyotypic aberrations and TP53 mutations are relatively uncommon in dedifferentiated liposarcomas, when compared with other high-grade sarcomas, which may contribute to the greater overall survival.^{2,23,53,54} TP53 mutations are much more common in pleomorphic liposarcomas.⁴⁷ Myxoid liposarcoma is usually the least aggressive subtype, with less than 10% of low-grade tumors progressing to metastatic disease. In addition to histologic grade, TP53 and CDKN2A mutations are unfavorable prognostic markers for myxoid liposarcoma.^{10,22,53,55} Likely oncogenic roles have been demonstrated for MDM2, CDK4, HMGA2, and TSPAN31 in dedifferentiated liposarcoma (and atypical lipomatous tumor/well-differentiated liposarcoma). Amplification of the fibroblast growth factor receptor substrate 2 gene in dedifferentiated (and well-differentiated) liposarcomas has also been recently described.⁵⁶

Fibrosarcoma

Malignant fibrosarcomas include adult fibrosarcoma, myxofibrosarcoma, low-grade fibromyxoid sarcoma, and sclerosing epithelioid fibrosarcoma. Adult fibrosarcoma is a malignant fibroblastic tumor with variable collagen production, classically demonstrating herringbone architecture. They are thought to account for 1% to 3% of all adult sarcomas,^{5,22} typically involving deep soft tissue of the extremities, trunk, or head and neck regions.^{3,5} Myxofibrosarcomas (**Fig. 3**) have a variable amount of myxoid stroma, pleomorphic nuclei, characteristically with a curvilinear vascular pattern. They are more



Fig. 3. Myxofibrosarcoma, low power (*A*, *B*) (hematoxylin-eosin, original magnifications $\times 2$, $\times 10$) and high power (*C*) (hematoxylin-eosin, original magnification $\times 40$).

common in elderly patients and most commonly arise in the extremities.^{3,17} Low-grade fibromyxoid sarcomas are composed of blander-appearing spindled cells with admixed myxoid and collagenous stromal areas, a whorled pattern of growth, and a curvilinear vascular pattern. Sclerosing epithelioid fibrosarcomas have a densely sclerotic stroma with cords and nests of epithelioid fibroblasts.

Histopathology and ancillary studies

The spindled cells in adult fibrosarcoma are characteristically angled in a herringbone or chevronlike pattern with hyperchromatic nuclei, variably prominent nucleoli, and scant cytoplasm. The neoplastic cells may phenotypically show myofibroblastic differentiation with SMA positivity. To date, there are no characteristic molecular studies to help definitively diagnose difficult cases of adult fibrosarcomas; however, disruption of one or more genes in the 2q14 to 22 region have been described as possibly contributing to the pathogenesis of at least some cases.^{17,51,57,58} Infantile fibrosarcomas are histologically identical to adult fibrosarcomas, but they carry a distinctive translocation, t(12;15)(p13;q26), resulting in the ETV6-NTRK3 fusion, which can be detected by FISH or PCR.⁵¹ Low-grade fibromyxoid sarcoma consistently has either a t(7;16) or t(11;16) translocation, resulting in an FUS-CREB3L2 or FUS-CREB3L1 gene fusion, respectively.⁵¹ A few low-grade fibromyxoid sarcomas have been shown to have the EWSR1-CRE-B3L1 gene fusion; however, EWSR1 gene rearrangements are much more frequent in sclerosing ES. Low-grade fibromyxoid sarcomas and sclerosing ES also share mucin 4 immunoreactivity.⁵¹

Prognostic implications

The reported recurrence rates for adult fibrosarcomas and myxoinflammatory fibromyxoid sarcomas after complete excision range anywhere from 12% to 80%. Lung and bone are most common sites of metastasis for adult fibrosarcoma, and local bone and lymph node involvement is more common in myxoinflammatory fibroblastic sarcoma.^{3,53} High histologic grade, mitotic rates of greater than 20 per 10 HPF, and minimal amount of collagen are associated with a worse prognosis in adult fibrosarcomas.²² Infantile fibrosarcomas have an overall much more favorable prognosis, only rarely metastasizing, and even with cases of spontaneous regression reported,^{22,59,60} although retroperitoneal location may be associated with a worse prognosis.⁶⁰

Undifferentiated Sarcomas

The undifferentiated/unclassified sarcoma category was created as category of differentiation for any undifferentiated soft tissue sarcoma (USTS) and can be divided into subtypes based on morphologic findings as either undifferentiated spindle cell sarcoma, undifferentiated pleomorphic sarcoma, undifferentiated round cell sarcoma, undifferentiated ES, or undifferentiated sarcoma, NOS (Fig. 4). These USTS were previously included in the fibrohistiocytic section as "undifferentiated pleomorphic sarcoma," historically also known as "malignant fibrous histiocytoma", as they were previously thought to likely be of fibrohistiocytic differentiation. They lack a defined line of differentiation with the use of currently available technology and should be a diagnosis of exclusion. USTS usually occur in adults over the age of 40, accounting for up to 20% of all sarcomas and one-fourth of radiation-related sarcomas.²² Most USTS arise within deep soft tissue of extremities, with some occurring in the trunk region, and less than 10% occurring superficially within subcutaneous tissue.²²

Ancillary studies

Tumors should be sampled generously, and ancillary techniques must be used in order to rule out a defined line of differentiation. USTS may show a small number of cells expressing keratins, smooth muscle markers, epithelial membrane antigen (EMA), CD99, or CD34, insufficient for definitive differentiation.²² Molecular studies have shown several genomic imbalances and alterations of TP53, CDKN2, and RB1, which may play a role in the development of USTS, but further studies are required to more clearly understand this relationship.^{22,51}

Prognostic implications

USTS are aggressive tumors with a 50% to 60% overall 5-year survival.⁶¹ Genetic analysis could be particularly beneficial for the possible identification of a



Fig. 4. USTS, low power (*A*) (hematoxylin-eosin, original magnification \times 2) and high power (*B*) (hematoxylin-eosin, original magnification \times 40).

dedifferentiated liposarcoma, which carries a more favorable prognosis. Undifferentiated round cell sarcomas occasionally have gene rearrangements involving the fusion of the EWSR1 gene with a non-Ewing sarcoma tumor gene, sometimes showing a possible close molecular link with Ewing sarcoma, and are usually even treated the same as Ewing sarcoma clinically.^{22,62,63}

Angiosarcoma

Angiosarcoma of soft tissue is a rare malignant vascular tumor, which variably resembles normal endothelial cells. Most angiosarcomas present as a primary cutaneous tumor, and they less often present as a deep soft tissue mass.^{3,5,17} Several mechanisms of pathogenesis have been suggested because they are known to be associated with radiation therapy; tumor syndromes, such as neurofibromatosis (NF); and foreign material, including grafts. They typically have areas of spindled cells and areas of epithelioid cells, with high nuclear grade, arranged in sheets or chords, and irregularly intercommunicating vascular channels. Epithelioid angiosarcoma is a variant composed predominantly of epithelioid cells with vesicular nuclei and abundant eosin-ophilic cytoplasm.

Ancillary studies

Immunohistochemical studies for CD34, CD31, and von Willebrand factor (vWF) support the diagnosis of angiosarcoma. vWF is the most specific, but least sensitive marker, whereas CD34 is the least specific and most sensitive marker. CD31 has both excellent sensitivity and specificity. New vascular markers that are useful in diagnosing angioarcoma include FL11 and ERG. High levels of MYC (8q24) amplification and occasional FLT gene abnormalities have been reported in radiation-induced angiosarcomas, whereas neither have been associated with primary angiosarcomas or even radiation-associated vascular lesions.^{7,22,51}

Prognostic implications

Angiosarcomas are highly aggressive with frequent local recurrences. The most common site of metastatic disease is the lung, but may often also involve lymph nodes, bone, and soft tissue. Large tumor size, retroperitoneal location, older age, and high Ki-67 proliferative index are associated with a worse prognosis.²²

Epithelioid Hemangioendothelioma

Epithelioid hemangioendothelioma (EHE) is a malignant vascular tumor that is most commonly seen in adolescents and adults, usually presenting as a mildly painful soft tissue mass within the upper extremities. Histologic evaluation reveals angiocentric cords of epithelioid endothelial cells with eosinophilic cytoplasm containing frequent vacuoles (Fig. 5), within a myxo-hyalinized stroma, usually with complete obliteration of the associated vascular lumens.²²

Ancillary studies

EHE should be immunoreactive with vascular markers such as CD34, CD31, FLI1, and ERG transcription factor. They may also show epithelial marker expression, often with keratin 7, 8, 18, or EMA.²² Approximately 90% of EHE cases harbor the characteristic WWTR1-CAMTA1 fusion,^{22,64} which leads to overexpression of both genes. The WWTR1 protein is known to be expressed by many cell types, but the CAMTA1 protein expression is usually limited to the brain. A recent study used a new polyclonal antibody, different than a previously studied one, directed against the C-terminus of CAMTA1, with findings suggesting that it may be a useful diagnostic marker for EHE.⁶⁴



Fig. 5. EHE (*A*), low power (hematoxylin-eosin, original magnification \times 10), showing nuclear immunoreactivity for ERG (*B*) and FLI1 (*C*) (original magnification \times 10).

Prognostic implications

Risk stratification may be useful for categorizing these tumors into low-risk or high-risk groups, with high-risk features including tumor diameter greater than 3 cm and greater than 3 mitoses per 50 HPF. One study showed the disease-free survival at 5 years for patients with these high-risk features as nearly 60%, whereas the lack of these features showed a 100% survival at 5 years.^{22,65}

Leiomyosarcoma

Leiomyosarcomas are malignant tumors that have distinct smooth muscle features. They account for a large portion of retroperitoneal sarcomas and less commonly arise within the extremities.^{6,22} They are also the most common sarcoma that can arise from large blood vessel walls. They are more commonly seen in women, usually presenting as a large, variably painful, retroperitoneal or pelvic tumor.⁶¹ If associated with a large vessel, the most common sites are the inferior vena cava and the large vessels of the lower extremities.^{3,17} If the upper portion of the inferior vena cava is involved, an obstruction may result in Budd-Chiari syndrome.^{66,67} Involvement of the middle portion may lead to renal vein obstruction and renal dysfunction, while involvement of the lower portions of the vessel may cause lower extremity edema.²²

Classically, leiomyosarcomas exhibit a fascicular growth pattern, with cellular bundles of spindled cells, which are well delineated from and intersect with other bundles of spindled cells (**Fig. 6**). The cells typically have hyperchromatic and elongated nuclei with blunted ends, commonly with indentations and often with notable pleomorphism. Brisk mitoses and areas of tumor necrosis are commonly present, especially in larger tumors.²²

Ancillary studies

Immunohistochemical studies for smooth muscle markers, such as smooth muscle actin (SMA), desmin, and caldesmin should be positive. Most reported karyotypes performed on leiomyosarcomas have shown complex karyotypes with no consistent



Fig. 6. Leiomyosarcoma, low power (A) (hematoxylin-eosin, original magnification \times 10) and high power (B) (hematoxylin-eosin, original magnifications \times 20), showing strong diffuse immunoreactivity to desmin (C) (Original magnification \times 10).

aberrations. The RB1 gene has been frequently implicated in the pathogenesis of leiomyosarcomas with frequent abnormalities observed during analysis of the Rb-cyclinD pathway. TP53 and MDM2 are less frequently seen, but may have prognostic value, correlating with a worse prognosis.^{8,51}

Prognostic implications

Retroperitoneal leiomyosarcomas are often larger than 10 cm at the time of diagnosis and may be extremely difficult to excise, commonly resulting in both local and distant metastases.^{3,22,68} On the other hand, nonretroperitoneal leiomyosarcomas are generally smaller at presentation and more amenable to surgical resection with more favorable overall outcomes.^{17,69} Greater histologic grade, osseous invasion, and vascular involvement are poor prognostic factors.⁶¹ Potential therapeutic targets, such as FOXM1, are under investigation, which may have the ability to decrease the cell pro-liferation and increase chemosensitivity for LMS.⁷⁰

Rhabdomyosarcoma

Rhabdomyosarcomas are malignant mesenchymal tumors that exhibit skeletal muscle differentiation. Currently, the 4 recognized subtypes include the embryonal, alveolar, pleomorphic, and spindle-cell/sclerosing rhabdomyosarcomas.²⁰ Embryonal rhabdomyosarcoma phenotypically and biologically resembles embryonic skeletal muscle and includes the botryoid and anaplastic variants. A spindle cell variant was previously included, but is now considered a separate subtype of rhabdomyosarcoma.^{71,72} Alveolar rhabdomyosarcoma is another primitive soft tissue sarcoma, with partial skeletal muscle differentiation, which cytologically more closely resembles lymphoma.^{73–76} Pleomorphic rhabdomyosarcomas should have no embryonal or alveolar components and consist of bizarre polygonal, spindled, or round cells, which have evidence of skeletal muscle differentiation.²²

Rhabdomyosarcomas account for the largest number of sarcoma cases among children and adolescents, affecting 4 to 5 per every million US children under the age of 15.^{3,53,77,78} Embryonal rhabdomyosarcoma is the most common subtype with nearly 50% occurring in children less than 5 years of age, and with a slight male predominance.^{3,77,78} Alveolar rhabdomyosarcoma most often occurs in adolescents and young adults, whereas pleomorphic rhabdomyosarcoma occurs almost exclusively in adults.^{3,22,78} Clinical symptoms are usually related to local mass affect and obstruction of nearby structures. The botyroid variant typically presents within

hollow viscera (eg, gallbladder or urinary bladder) and has a unique appearance consisting of a cluster of variably sized tumor nodules.²²

The most primitive histologic appearance of rhabdomyosarcoma consists of stellate rhabdomyoblasts with central oval nuclei and slightly amphophilic to eosinophilic cytoplasm. As the cells acquire greater differentiation toward mature skeletal muscle, their cytoplasm becomes eosinophilic and they become more elongated. Terminal differentiation is indicated by cross-striation and multinucleation.²² Of note, cross-striations are a helpful diagnostic histologic feature, but are exceedingly rare in pleomorphic rhabdomyosarcomas. Alveolar rhabdomyosarcomas may present with typical morphologic features, with nested tumor cells separated by fibrovascular septa, a solid pattern, or with mixed alveolar and embryonal features.^{22,75,78}

Ancillary studies

Desmin and actin immunoreactivity is acquired early on by rhabdomyoblasts. Markers for skeletal muscle differentiation, such as Myo-D or myogenin, typically show a diffusely strong nuclear staining pattern, but primitive tumors may show only focal or negative immunoreactivity. Most embryonal rhabdomyosarcomas have a loss in the chromosomal region 11p15, a region also affected by the inherited Beckwith-Wiedemann syndrome. Cytogenetic analysis of alveolar rhabdomyosarcomas revealed a specifically associated translocation, t(2;13)(q35;q14), in greater than 75%, and a t(1;13)(p36;q14) in a smaller subset, involving the PAX3 gene (chromosome 2) or the PAX7 gene (chromosome 1) and the FKHR gene on chromosome 13, forming chimeric genes, resulting in chimeric fusion proteins.^{51,79–81} Chromosome analyses of pleomorphic rhabdomyosarcoma cases have shown complex karyotypes, but they lack a known recurrent genetic alteration.^{23,80}

Prognostic implications

Pathologic stage, histologic classification, patient age, and site of origin help determine the prognosis of embryonal and alveolar rhabdomyosarcomas. The botyroid variant of embryonal rhabdomyosarcoma and the spindle-cell/sclerosing rhabdomyosarcoma subtype typically have more favorable outcomes, whereas alveolar and pleomorphic rhabdomyosarcomas are more aggressive subtypes. Some evidence has suggested an improved outcome with PAX7/FKHR-positive tumors when compared with PAX3/FKHR tumors.^{8–10,46,54,58,79,80,82–86} In addition, a recent meta-analysis showed indications suggestive of PAX3-FOXO1 being an unfavorable prognostic factor; however, no statistically significant difference in overall survival was found.^{81,87}

Synovial Sarcoma

Synovial sarcoma is currently a tumor of uncertain differentiation that shows variable epithelioid differentiation, with no identified epithelial origin to date. Despite the name, it has no association with synovial tissue. Synovial sarcoma has distinct morphologic and genetic findings, including spindled cells, often with an epithelioid component, and the chromosomal translocation t(X;18)(p11;q11). They account for up to 10% of soft tissue sarcomas and may occur at any age, most often between the ages of 15 and 40.^{3,7,18,22} They can present at any site, usually as a slowly growing mass, the large majority of which develop within the deep soft tissue of the extremities, primarily near the knee region, and less than 5% occurring within a joint or bursa.^{17,22} The patient may report a history of a slow-growing mass, often first noted greater than 2 years before presentation. Synovial sarcomas may be monophasic (Fig. 7), appearing as uniform sheets of spindled cells with ovoid pale-staining nuclei and inconspicuous nucleoli, or can be biphasic, which also includes an epithelial component. The



Fig. 7. Synovial sarcoma, high power, showing monophasic spindle cell component (hematoxylin-eosin, original magnification \times 20).

epithelial component may even predominate over the spindle cell component and can be glandular, chordlike, or nested.²²

The epithelial components of synovial sarcomas typically express cytokeratins (CKs) and EMA immunoreactivity. Immunohistochemical staining for Bcl2, CD99, and calponin is typically also positive, whereas S100 may be positive in as many as 30% of synovial sarcomas. The TLE1 (transducer-like enhancer of split 1) has a moderate-to-strong nuclear staining pattern in the majority (80%–90%) of synovial sarcomas, although it is not entirely specific, showing immunoreactivity in other soft tissue tumors, such as nerve sheath tumors and in SFT.^{88,89} The cytogenetic hallmark for a synovial sarcoma is the recurrent reciprocal t(X;18)(p11;q11), which is present in greater than 90% of reported cases, involving the fusion of the SYT (18q11) gene with either the SSX1, SSX2, or SSX4 gene,⁵¹ resulting in the respective fusion protein. FISH studies and real-time (RT) -PCR are widely used to detect these molecular findings and can provide a relatively rapid and definitive diagnosis for synovial sarcomas.^{51,58} A relatively new immunohistochemical marker for SYT, when strongly and diffusely positive, may be useful in the rapid diagnosis of synovial sarcoma, especially when material is insufficient for PCR or FISH analysis.⁹⁰

Prognostic implications

Tumor size greater than 5 cm, greater than 10 mitoses per HPF, the presence of extensive (>50%) necrosis, the presence of rhabdoid cells, and poorly differentiated variants are all poor prognostic factors. On the other hand, tumors less than 5 cm, young patient age, and the SS18/SSX2 are associated more favorable outcomes. The reported 10-year survival rates vary widely, ranging from about 20% to 75%.^{17,22,51,72,91}

Alveolar Soft Part Sarcoma

ASPS accounts for less than 1% of all soft tissue sarcomas, affecting mostly adolescents and young adults. Morphologically, it is composed of fairly monotonous, large, round, or polygonal epithelioid cells containing abundant eosinophilic, granular cytoplasm, arranged in an organoid or nested pattern, usually separated by thin sinusoidal vessels.

Central necrosis of the nested cells may give the appearance of an alveolar pattern, hence the name. Nearly half of ASPS originate within the deep soft tissue of the thigh or buttock, and they typically present as a slowly growing painless mass.

Ancillary studies

The immunohistochemical marker TFE3 shows at least moderate nuclear reactivity in most cells, but is not entirely specific. Periodic acid–Schiff (PAS) with diastase is a

useful special stain, which can highlight intracytoplasmic crystal formations that are also immunoreactive for MCT1 and CD147. Molecular evaluation for the detection of the ASPL/TFE3 fusion protein is highly sensitive and specific for ASPS and results from the classic t(X;17)(p11;q25) translocation, although it has also been identified in a small subset of renal cell carcinomas.⁵¹

Prognostic implications

ASPS is a slow-growing tumor, with an infrequent local recurrence rate; however, early and late metastatic disease is common. Patients often already have distant metastatic disease on initial presentation, usually involving lung, bone, or brain.^{2,22,84} The most influential poor prognostic factors include increased patient age, larger tumor size, and the presence of metastasis at presentation.²²

Clear Cell Sarcoma of Soft Tissue

Clear cell sarcoma of soft tissue, also known as melanoma of soft parts, is a soft tissue sarcoma with melanocytic differentiation that usually involves aponeurosis and tendons. Greater than 90% present as slow-growing, deep-seated extremity tumors, most often affecting young adults. They are composed of polygonal or spindled cells with abundant clear to eosinophilic cytoplasm, arranged in a nested or fascicular pattern, separated by fibrous septa. Mitotic activity and nuclear polymorphism are usually relatively low, but marked pleomorphism and brisk mitotic activity may be seen.²²

Ancillary studies

Almost all cases of clear cell sarcoma are positive for melanocytic markers, such as S100, HMB45, and Melan-A. Melanosomes are almost always present, varying in their degree of maturation. The hallmark cytogenetic finding is the reciprocal translocation t(12;22)(q13;q12), which results in the EWS/ATF1 fusion.^{10,51,83}

Prognostic implications

Overall prognosis is poor, especially with larger tumor size and the presence of necrosis. The 5-year survival is less than 70%, but the 10-year disease-free survival is only about 33%, because the development of late recurrences or metastatic disease is common.^{22,51,83,92}

Desmoplastic Small Round Cell Tumor

Desmoplastic small round cell tumor (DSRCT) is a tumor of uncertain differentiation that is composed usually of small round cells with prominent stromal desmoplasia, harboring the consistent presence of the t(11:22)(p13;q12) translocation.^{7,23,51,83,93} DSRCT primarily affects children and young adults, with a male predominance, and very often presents with widespread abdominal serosal involvement.^{20,83} Morphologic evaluation of the tumor cells typically shows small, uniform cells with hyperchromatic nuclei, dispersed chromatin, and inconspicuous nucleoli, with a high nuclear-to-cytoplasmic ratio, indistinct cell borders, and frequent mitoses.

Ancillary studies

Immunohistochemical studies are usually helpful, with the majority of DSRCT, which show positive immunoreactivity for CKs, EMA, desmin, and WT1. SMA is typically positive in the stromal component. The characteristic t(11:22)(p13;q12) translocation results in the EWS/WT1 fusion, and the resulting chimeric fusion transcript may also be detected with excellent sensitivity and specificity for diagnosis.^{7,8,51,58,83,93}

Prognostic implications

Unfortunately, the overall clinical outcomes for this rare entity remain poor, even with aggressive therapy.^{94,95} Surgical excision with combination of chemotherapy and possibly the utilization of whole abdominopelvic radiation therapy may significantly improve survival outcomes for abdominal and pelvic DSRCT.^{94–96}

Ewing Sarcoma

Ewing sarcoma is considered to be of neuroectodermal origin. The term primitive neuroectodermal tumor is no longer used, because molecular analysis helped show it was a histologic variation of Ewing sarcoma, differing only in the degree of neuroectodermal differentiation. The Ewing sarcoma family of tumors (EFT) also includes extraskeletal Ewing sarcomas, and Askin tumors, all of which are characterized by the recurrent t(11;22)(q22;q12) chromosomal translocation. Ewing sarcoma is the second most common primary sarcoma in children, involving either bone or soft tissue, with almost 80% of affected patients younger than 20 years of age. Ewing sarcoma commonly presents as a painful mass arising in the diaphyseal or metaphyseal-diaphyseal portion of a long bone, pelvis, or ribs. Radiographically, they appear as osteolytic lesions with a characteristic multilayered periosteal reaction. Macroscopically, during a biopsy procedure, this tumor may actually be mistaken as pus, due to its often necrotic and tan-yellow, semifluid appearance. Morphologically, most EFT are composed of small round cells with round nuclei and a fine chromatin pattern, with scant clear-to-eosinophilic cytoplasm, usually containing PAS positive glycogen.

Ancillary studies

Ewing sarcoma is usually CD99 positive, with a membranous staining pattern. Markers for vimentin and nonspecific enolase are also often positive. However, the above markers are nonspecific, and newer, more specific markers, including FLI1, ERG, and EWSR1, have become available, improving the accuracy of the initial diagnosis while definitive molecular studies are pending or unavailable. The characteristic recurrent translocation t(11;22)(q22;q12) most commonly involves the EWS gene (22q12) and FLI1 genes (85% of cases), producing a chimeric protein.^{8,20,51,58} The second most common combination (10%–15%) includes the fusion of EWS with the ERG gene. Other genes, such as ETS, ETV1, E1AF, FEV, and ZSG, have also been involved in the rearrangement with the EWS gene, but these are seen in less than 1% of all EFT.²²

Prognostic implications

Molecular markers, such as TP53, telomerase expression, or CDKN2A loss, have shown prognostic significance, while the EWSR1-ETS fusion status is no longer thought to have prognostic value.^{3,7,8,10,51,58,82,83} Therapeutic advances have greatly improved clinical outcomes, with most patients presenting with localized tumors being cured of disease. The presence of metastatic disease continues to be the most important prognostic factor.^{10,22}

Chondrosarcoma

Chondrosarcomas are a heterogeneous group of malignant tumors, which includes the primary central, secondary central, periosteal, dedifferentiated, mesenchymal, and clear cell variants, all of which exhibit some amount of hyaline cartilage differentiation. They are the third most common primary tumor of the bone, most often arising within the pelvic bones, femur, or humerus, typically with localized pain and swelling.^{3,17} Primary central chondrosarcomas are by far the most common, arise centrally within a bone, and account for 20% of all malignant bone tumors.^{3,22,83}

Secondary central chondrosarcomas arise within a benign precursor, such as an enchondroma. Periosteal chondrosarcomas arise from the surface of bones, most commonly involving the long bones.²² These chondrosarcomas have an irregular pattern of cartilage lobules that vary in size and shape that may be separated by bands of fibrosis. Myxoid changes or ossification may also be seen. Mesenchymal chondrosarcomas have a bimorphic pattern with islands of well-differentiated hyaline cartilage and areas of small round undifferentiated cells. Clear cell chondrosarcoma is a rare low-grade subtype of chondrosarcoma, composed of hyaline cartilage and bland clear cells (Fig. 8). Dedifferentiated chondrosarcoma accounts for approximately 10% of chondrosarcomas and contains a well-differentiated cartilaginous tumor component with an abrupt transition to a high-grade sarcoma lacking cartilaginous differentiation.²²

Ancillary studies

Bcl-2 may be a helpful immunohistochemical marker for distinction between an osteochondroma and low-grade secondary peripheral chondrosarcoma. Isocitrate dehydrogenase genes 1 and 2 (IDH1 and IDH2) somatic mutations are seen in most chondrosarcomas.^{22,97,98} In addition, RB1 pathway mutations are seen in most high-grade central chondrosarcomas.^{22,97,98}

Prognostic implications

Histologic grade is the most important prognostic indicator, with low-grade tumors having the least chance of recurrence or metastasis, and a nearly 90% overall 5-year survival.^{22,99} Clear cell chondrosarcomas have excellent outcomes after complete resection with clear margins, whereas dedifferentiated chondrosarcomas have the worst prognosis, with as many as 90% of patients presenting with metastatic disease within 2 years of initial diagnosis.^{3,17,97–102}

Osteosarcoma

Conventional osteosarcomas are high-grade intramedullary tumors that produce any amount of osteoid (Fig. 9) and include the osteoblastic (80% of cases), chondroblastic, fibroblastic, and secondary variants.²² Osteoblastic osteosarcomas have a sclerotic appearance with a predominantly osteoid matrix, which can be thick or thin and branching. Chondroblastic osteosarcomas, on the other hand, have a predominant chondroid matrix. Fibroblastic osteosarcomas produce only minimal amounts of osteoid and have high-grade spindled cell architecture. Osteosarcoma is the most common nonhematopoietic primary malignant tumor of the bone, most commonly arising within the appendicular skeleton, and affecting about 5 in every



Fig. 8. Chondrosarcoma, low grade, high power (hematoxylin-eosin, original magnification ×40).



Fig. 9. Osteosarcoma, low power (hematoxylin-eosin, original magnification ×2).

million people.²² Most cases occur in patients under the age of 25. The neoplastic cells can have one or more of many histologic appearances, including epithelioid, plasma-cytoid, ovoid, multinucleated, or spindled cell morphology.²²

Other subtypes of osteosarcoma include the telangiectatic, small cell, parosteal, periosteal, and high-grade surface osteosarcoma. Telangiectatic osteosarcoma, also previously known as malignant bone aneurysm or hemorrhagic osteosarcoma, is characterized by having large blood-filled spaces, which are usually separated by thin septa.^{11,22,82} Although prognosis is thought to be similar to conventional osteosarcomas, they are much more sensitive to chemotherapy. Small cell osteosarcoma produces variable amounts of osteoid and morphologically resembles Ewing sarcoma, but lacks the t(11;22) translocation.⁶¹ Parosteal osteosarcomas are low grade and arise on the surface of bones, most frequently involving the femur. Periosteal osteosarcomas are intermediate-grade chondroblastic osteosarcomas that also arise in the surface of bone, most commonly arising within or near the diphyseal areas of the long bones.²²

Ancillary studies

Osteosarcomas are typically CD99 positive, and osteocalcin might be useful for highlighting osteoid, but in general immunohistochemical stains are primarily used to rule out other entities. Recurrent amplifications at 1q21 to 23 and 17p are commonly seen, and comparative genomic hybridization analysis has revealed frequent chromosomal gains, such as the gain of 8q23, seen in about half of osteosarcomas.^{3,40,103} A high incidence of loss of heterozygosity has also been seen.^{22,103} CDK4 with or without MDM2 is commonly amplified in aggressive osteosarcomas. Patients with hereditary retinoblastoma (RB) and Li Fraumeni syndrome have an increased risk of developing osteosarcomas. RB1 alterations have also been seen in up to 40% of sporadic osteosarcomas, whereas TP53 alterations have been seen in up to 35% of osteosarcomas. Many genetic aberrations have been found in high frequency, some of which may offer prognostic value.^{22,40,42}

Prognostic implications

The overall survival, with a multidisciplinary therapeutic management approach, for osteosarcomas is about 80% to 90%.²² Parosteal osteosarcoma carries an excellent prognosis, with a greater than 90% 5-year survival, whereas small cell osteosarcomas have slightly worse outcomes compared with conventional osteosarcomas.^{22,104} Elderly patients with polyostotic Paget disease are at increased risk for developing osteosarcomas that have particularly unfavorable outcomes.²²

Malignant Peripheral Nerve Sheath Tumor

MPNST accounts for up to 5% of all soft tissue tumors and can be found in the setting of NF1 or arising from a peripheral nerve or benign nerve sheath tumor. Individuals

with NF1 have about a 50% chance developing MPNST, with a higher chance of development associated with plexiform neuromas. MPNST can be variably painful, most commonly involving a major nerve, such as the sciatic nerve, which often presents with neuropathic symptoms. Microscopically, they typically show a fascicular or whorling growth pattern of spindled cells, with alternating hypercellular and hypocellular areas and prominent, branching, HPC-like vasculature. The neoplastic cells are usually more concentrated and appear more epithelioid adjacent to the blood vessels. Up to about 15% of MPNST have heterologous elements, and the term malignant Triton tumor is used for an MPNST with skeletal muscle differentiation.^{22,46,105}

Ancillary studies

Although MPNST can stain positively for S100 in up to about 50% of cases, a diffusely strong immunoreactivity is very uncommon, so other tumors within the differential diagnosis, such as melanoma, dendritic cell sarcoma, and cellular schwannoma, should be considered in that setting. Helpful histologic features include perivascular hypercellularity, tumor herniation into vascular lumens, necrosis, and expression of p75NTR, all of which are frequently associated with MPNST.¹⁰⁵ Glial fibrillary acidic protein (GFAP) shows positive immunoreactivity in up to 30% of MPNST.²² Complete loss of SOX10, neurofibromin, or p16 immunoreactivity, and the presence of EGFR expression are also helpful in differentiating MPNST from a cellular schwannoma.¹⁰⁵ MPNSTs usually have a complex karyotype, and many have biallelic NF1 or CDK2NA gene mutations.²²

Prognostic implications

MPNSTs with higher grade, diameter greater than 5 cm, recurrent disease, arising within the trunk region, and Triton tumors are associated with more aggressive behavior, whereas sporadic MPNSTs seem to have an overall better prognosis. Certain chromosomal arm gains and losses also seem to have prognostic significance, none of which have been found to be more associated with NF1 when compared with sporadic MPNSTs.^{7,10,83}

Epithelioid Sarcoma

ESs account for up to 1% of all soft tissue sarcomas, occurring most commonly in adolescents and young adults, classically arising within acral sites with a pseudogranulomatous growth pattern. Another subtype, the "large cell" variant or proximal-type ES, usually arises within truncal regions. Histologically, the neoplastic cells may have a vaguely granulomatous growth pattern of predominantly plump epithelioid to spindled cells containing eosinophilic cytoplasm, most often with associated central or geographic necrosis.^{22,106}

Ancillary studies

Most ES show positive immunoreactivity with CK 8 and 19, but are negative to focally positive for CK 5/6.^{22,106} Unlike a sarcomatoid carcinoma, most ES are positive for CD34. Most also have a loss of SMARCB1 (INI1) protein expression, which likely plays an important role in the pathogenesis of these tumors.^{80,107}

Prognostic implications

The overall 5-year survival for ES approaches 80%, whereas the reported 10-year overall survival is up to about 62%.^{106,108–110} Metastatic disease may occur in about half of the cases, with a predilection for the lungs.^{106,109,110} Unlike most sarcomas, ES is most commonly metastatic to regional lymph nodes. Factors associated with worse outcomes include tumor size of greater than 5 cm, male gender, older age,

multifocality, high mitotic activity, nodal involvement, and proximal, axial, or deep soft tissue location.^{22,106,110,111}

SARCOMAS WITH LOW METASTATIC POTENTIAL Solitary Fibrous Tumor

The distinction between a SFT and an HPC has become increasingly ill-defined, so much so that the term HPC is no longer considered a separate entity for soft tissue tumors.^{20,21,61} SFT (**Fig. 10**) is a mesenchymal tumor, likely fibroblastic, with the characteristic "hemangiopericytoma-like" prominent branching vascular pattern.^{20–22} Most patients are middle-aged adults, with a median age of 50, and tumors can arise from any location, mostly occurring within subcutaneous tissue as a slow-growing painless mass.^{3,17} Rarely, large tumors have been found to secrete hormones, leading to a paraneoplastic syndrome.^{112–114} Histologic evaluation usually shows a patternless architecture with alternating hypocellular and hypercellular areas, with the classical prominent branching vasculature. Thick stromal and perivascular collagen bands are also characteristically seen. For a benign SFT, mitotic rate should be low, with less than 4 mitoses per 10 HPF. Cytologic atypia, infiltrative margins, high cellularity, and greater than 4 mitoses per HPF are features of a malignant SFT.²²

Ancillary studies

Cytogenetic aberrations are uncommon in SFTs that are less than 10 cm in diameter. Some studies have reported near diploid or pseudodiploid karyotypes, balanced translocations, and recurrent genomic imbalances. The recurrent *NAB2-STAT6* fusion has been recently identified by integrative sequencing and has been established as the hallmark defining driver mutation of SFT.^{115–120} STAT6 immunohistochemistry can also be a useful marker in the diagnosis of SFT, especially in cases with unusual morphology or location, and limited material.^{115,120–122}

Prognostic implications

Only a minority of SFT behaves aggressively, with approximately 80% to 90% following a benign course.²² SFTs that arise within the mediastinum, pelvis, and



Fig. 10. Malignant SFT (*A*) (hematoxylin-eosin, original magnification \times 4), showing positive nuclear immunoreactivity for STAT6 (*B*) (Original magnification \times 2).

abdominal regions, and the histologically malignant SFTs are associated with more aggressive behaviors. The fusion variant *NAB2ex6-STAT6ex16/17* is associated with deep-seated extrapleural SFTs, and aggressive behavior.¹²¹

Inflammatory Myofibroblastic Tumor

Inflammatory myofibroblastic tumor (IMT) is a spindle cell tumor that most often arises within the soft tissue or viscera of children or young adults.²² It is characterized by a variably cellular infiltrate of lymphocytes, eosinophils, and plasma cells, often within a myxoid or edematous background.²²

Ancillary studies

IMT is variably positive for SMA, desmin, and focally positive for CD68.²² Approximately one-third of cases may have keratin reactivity, and up to about 60% are ALK positive.^{123,124} S100 and skeletal muscle markers are negative in these tumors.^{22,124}

Prognostic implications

The likelihood of metastatic disease is usually low, with only rarely reported cases of distant metastasis. Most ALK-negative tumors are associated with an increased likelihood of metastasis; however, the round cell morphology, often associated with specific ALK fusion partners, such as RANBP2, has a greater chance of progressing to metastatic disease.^{22,123–126} Aneuploidy is also a negative prognostic factor.^{7,8,20,22,127}

Low-Grade Myofibroblastic Sarcoma

Low-grade myofibroblastic sarcoma, also known as myofibrosarcoma, most commonly occurs in adults with a possible predilection for the extremities or head and neck regions. They usually have fibromatosis-like features and are characterized by a diffusely infiltrative growth pattern of spindled cells, with at least focal nuclear atypia and pale to eosinophilic cytoplasm, arranged in a storiform or fascicular growth pattern.²²

Ancillary studies

Low-grade myofibroblastic sarcomas are variably positive for smooth muscle markers and may stain positive for calponin, or sometimes with focal reactivity for CD34.²²

Prognostic implications

Very few genetic aberrations have been reported, with overall less complex karyotypes when compared with other higher-grade sarcomas.^{20,22,51,93} Although not diagnostic, gene rearrangement studies may be considered for differentiating low-grade myofibroblastic sarcoma from fibromatosis.^{7,22,58} Overall, frequency of metastatic disease is very rare.²²

Myxoinflammatory Fibroblastic Sarcoma

Myxoinflammatory fibroblastic sarcoma is characterized by large epithelioid fibroblasts within a myxoid matrix, containing prominent mixed inflammatory cells. The great majority occur in the distal extremities, especially common in the fingers, involving tenosynovial structures, usually in middle-aged individuals.^{128–130} Morphologic evaluation reveals variable nuclear atypia, often with large bizarre epithelioid cells, prominent viral inclusion-like nucleoli, and sometimes with vacuolated cytoplasm.^{22,128,129,131,132}

Ancillary studies

Myxoinflammatory fibroblastic sarcomas are variably positive for CD68, CD34, and SMA and may be focally positive for keratin markers.²² They characteristically have t(1;10) breakpoints leading to the upregulation of FGF8.^{22,51,58}

Prognostic implications

Myxoinflammatory fibroblastic sarcomas are considered locally aggressive tumors, with widely variable local recurrence rates reported from 20% to 70%.²² Up to one-third of cases eventually require amputation due to repeated local recurrences.^{29,130,132–134} Metastatic disease is rare, usually involving local bone or regional lymph nodes, with extremely uncommon distant metastatic disease.^{83,128,129,131,132,135–137}

Dermatofibrosarcoma Protuberans

Dermatofibrosarcoma protuberans (DFSP), a low-grade fibroblastic neoplasm that usually presents in middle aged-adults, although rare, is one of the most common dermal sarcomas.^{22,138} Most are sporadic, occurring in proximal extremities or trunk regions, less commonly in the head and neck or other regions, and usually present as a cutaneous plaque or nodule.¹³⁸ Histologic evaluation reveals a dense dermal proliferation of uniform spindled cells, with elongated or plump nuclei, minimal nuclear atypia, and few mitoses, arranged in a storiform pattern of growth.²²

Ancillary studies

DFSP is usually CD34 positive and factor XIIIa negative, but may lose CD34 reactivity often with increased TP53 expression.^{22,138} Gene rearrangement studies characteristically show supernumerary ring chromosomes, containing sequences from chromosomes 22 and 17, carrying the COL1A1-PDGFB (platelet-derived growth factor B-chain) fusion gene, which can be detected by FISH (preferred) or RT-PCR.^{22,51} The resultant COL1A-PDGFRB fusion protein results in a functional PDGFB receptor on the cell surface that can be stimulated, driving tumor growth.^{7,51,93,138-140}

Prognostic implications

Approximately 10% to 15% progress to higher-grade fibrosarcomatous DFSP, typically exhibiting fascicular architecture, which increases the metastatic potential of the tumor.^{138,140,141} Tyrosine kinase inhibitors, such as imatinib mesylate, interfere with the activation of PDGFRB and are especially useful in the setting of unresectable or metastatic disease.^{7,51} Molecular testing is available to help identify patients who may have clinical response.^{138,139,142,143} Local recurrence rates for DFSP are lowest if wide margins can be achieved.^{22,143} They very rarely metastasize unless fibrosarcomatous progression is present.^{22,144–146}

Kaposi Sarcoma

Kaposi sarcoma (KS) is a locally aggressive vascular proliferation (**Fig. 11**) induced by the human herpes virus 8 (HHV8), which is also known as Kaposi sarcoma–associated herpes virus.^{22,147} It characteristically presents a red-purple to brown skin patch, plaque, or nodule, usually involving the distal extremities.^{3,147,148} Currently, 4 clinical forms of KS are recognized, including the classic indolent form, the endemic African form, the iatrogenic form arising in association with solid organ transplantation, and the AIDS-associated form of KS, all of which are morphologically identical.^{3,147–150}

Ancillary studies

The neoplastic cells are positive for endothelial markers, including CD31, CD34, and ERG, as well as lymphatic markers such as D2-40.¹⁵¹ HHV8 is nearly always positive by immunohistochemistry; however, rare cases may require PCR for confirmation.^{22,148,149,152–154}

Prognostic implications

The classic KS has an indolent clinical course with only rare metastatic disease involving lymph nodes or visceral organs.^{3,147} A rare form of endemic KS, the



Fig. 11. KS, high power (A) (hematoxylin-eosin, original magnification \times 20), showing the characteristic positive nuclear immunoreactivity for HHV8 (*B*) (Original magnification \times 10).

lymphadenopathic variant, is rapidly progressive with a high mortality.²² The AIDSassociated KS is overall the most aggressive form, with more widespread organ involvement, mostly involving the lungs and gastrointestinal tract.²² The iatrogenic form is the least predictable, often improving after adjustment of immunosuppressive therapy.^{3,147,151,155} New therapeutic approaches have focused on the control of HHV8 for prevention and treatment of KS. For example, antiherpes medications, such as ganciclovir, have been found to reduce the risk of KS among transplant patients, as well as in HIV-positive individuals.^{147,148,155,156} In addition, targeted therapy, including inhibitors of angiogenesis, vascular endothelial growth factor, tyrosine kinase, and matrix metalloproteinases are being investigated or are under development.^{147,152}

Chordoma

Chordoma is a low-grade malignant tumor showing notochordal differentiation. It is the most common primary malignancy of the sacrum; however, it more commonly arises within the base of the skull.^{3,22,157} They typically present as slow-growing tumors, and morphologically are composed of epithelioid cells arranged in nests or cords with clear to eosinophilic cytoplasm (**Fig. 12**), with the so-called physaliphorous cells, which contain vacuolated cytoplasm.²² Chordomas morphologically exhibit a lobulated appearance with tumor cells separated by fibrous septa and embedded within abundant extracellular myxoid matrix.²² A rare variant, chondroid chordoma, contains a hyaline cartilage component, which can potentially be misdiagnosed as chondrosarcoma.^{158,159}

Ancillary studies

Brachyury is a nuclear immunohistochemical marker that is specific for chordoma, and negative in chondrosarcoma.^{22,158,160} Other helpful positive immunohistochemical markers for chordoma include keratin, EMA, and S-100 protein.^{158,160,161} A loss of PTEN and INI-1 expression may also be useful in the diagnosis of chordoma.^{158,161–165}

Prognostic implications

Dedifferentiated chordoma is a high-grade and biphasic tumor consisting of a conventional chordoma with an associated high-grade undifferentiated spindle cell sarcoma.^{22,166–168} The dedifferentiated component loses expression of the above diagnostic immunohistochemical markers.^{22,167–169} Imatinib may be useful for



Fig. 12. Chordoma, low power (*A*) (hematoxylin-eosin, original magnification \times 2) and high power (*B*) (hematoxylin-eosin, original magnification \times 40), showing positive immunoreactivity for brachyury (*C*) (Original magnification \times 4).

stabilization of disease or for pain reduction in locally advanced or metastatic disease if the tumor expresses platelet-derived growth factor receptor- β (PDGFR- β).^{158,161,163}

Gastrointestinal Stromal Tumors

GIST is the most common mesenchymal tumor that occurs in the gastrointestinal tract and is thought to be of interstitial cell of Cajal differentiation. More than half of cases are sporadic and involve the stomach, with a clinical spectrum that ranges from benign to malignant.¹⁷⁰ GISTs most often have spindle cell morphology, but also frequently exhibit epithelioid cell histology. If spindle cell morphology is present, the pallisading vacuolated and sclerosing subtypes are the most common, although, with the epithelioid morphology, sclerosing, hypercellular, or discohesive histologic findings may most often be seen.^{22,170}

Ancillary studies

GIST is classically strongly immunoreactive for CD117 (c-KIT). A more recent and equally specific immunomarker, DOG1, usually reacts with the approximately 5% of GISTs that are negative for CD117.²² GISTs with spindle cell morphology are usually also positive for CD34 and rarely focally immunoreactive with smooth muscle markers, keratins, or S100.²² GIST is characterized by activating oncogenic mutations,

classically either KIT or PDGFRA.^{22,51} Most GISTs harbor a mutation in KIT exon 9, KIT exon 11, or PDGFRA exon 18.⁵¹ The few cases of GIST that are associated with the Carney triad and Carney-Stratakis syndrome typically show mutations in SDH-related genes and have a distinct morphology.⁵¹

Prognostic implications

Tumor size, mitotic activity, and anatomic site are currently the tumor parameters that are best used as prognostic indicators to separate patients into prognostic groups.^{22,170} A Ki67 proliferative index may also be a useful tool, especially in borderline cases.¹⁷¹ Mutational analysis, currently most often performed by PCR methods, is now essential for selection of therapy and for prognostic value.⁵¹ Tyrosine kinase inhibitors, such as imatinib mesylate, have been successfully used in the treatment of GIST.^{8,51,170} Recently, BRAF V600E mutations were identified in cases lacking KIT and PDGFRA mutations,⁵¹ which may respond to BRAF therapy.^{172,173} SDHdeficient GISTs have less predictable prognosis, but GISTs that arise in association with NF1 are typically multifocal with favorable outcomes.²²

LOCALLY AGGRESSIVE SOFT TISSUE TUMORS Atypical Lipomatous Tumor

ALT is a locally aggressive tumor with adipocytic differentiation (**Fig. 13**). This term is now preferred over the term "well-differentiated liposarcoma"; the latter has fallen out of favor due to the fact that these tumors have no metastatic potential, unless they undergo dedifferentiation.²² Certain tumors that are deemed unresectable, usually ones located in the mediastinum or retroperitoneum, typically have locally aggressive and uncontrollably recurrent disease with a higher likelihood of eventual dedifferentiation, so the term well-differentiated liposarcoma may be justifiable in such cases.²²

Ancillary studies

MDM2 and CDK4 testing are useful in the diagnosis of ATL and are usually negative in myxoid and pleomorphic sarcomas.²² Gene amplification or protein overexpression of these markers can be detected by FISH or immunohistochemistry, respectively.^{47,51,58}

Prognostic implications

Radiation therapy is frequently used in the management of ALT or well-differentiated liposarcoma, especially in cases with positive margins or tumors greater than 5 cm; however, there may be no significant effect on overall survival with the addition of radiation therapy, compared with surgery alone when located in the extremities.^{174,175}



Fig. 13. Atypical lipomatous tumor, low power (*A*) (hematoxylin-eosin, original magnification \times 4) and high power (*B*) (hematoxylin-eosin, original magnification \times 40).

Dedifferentiation occurs in up to 10% of atypical lipomatous tumors, which then gives the tumor metastatic potential, at which point it is diagnosed as a dedifferentiated liposarcoma.^{3,7,44,58,83}

Fibromatosis

Locally aggressive forms of fibromatosis include desmoid-type fibromatosis, palmar/ plantar fibromatosis, and lipofibromatosis.²² Desmoid-type fibromatosis (**Fig. 14**) typically arises within deep soft tissue and is rarer than the superficial forms.^{176–179} Pathogenesis is thought to be multifactorial, with likely genetic factors.²² Palmar and plantar fibromatosis occur more commonly in men with increasing incidence with age.^{22,69} Lipofibromatosis is an exceedingly rare pediatric tumor usually arising within the hand or foot, or less commonly in the head and neck or truncal regions.²² Each of these forms of fibromatosis has a high rate of local recurrence, but no metastatic potential.^{176–178,180,181} Desmoid-type fibromatosis is a proliferation composed of uniform whorling spindled cells with infiltrative borders, often with prominent vasculature, perivascular edema, and a variable mitotic rate.^{22,69,177,178,182–184}

Ancillary studies

Desmoid-type, palmar, and plantar fibromatosis usually have nuclear immunoreactivity for β -catenin and variable immunoreactivity for SMA and are usually negative for desmin, caldesmin, and S100.^{22,183} Lipofibromatosis usually has a similar-appearing fibrous component with abundant mature adipose tissue, usually greater than 50% of the tumor.²² The mutations in the gene encoding for β -catenin (CTNNB1) and APC gene mutations occur in the large majority of desmoid-type fibromatosis, resulting in the accumulation of β -catenin protein within the nucleus.^{22,183} Gene rearrangement studies have shown clonal chromosomal aberrations in the minority of fibromatosis cases.²²

Prognostic implications

Although desmoid-type fibromatosis has no metastatic potential, rare cases have been fatal due to local growth effects.^{177,182,185} Unfortunately, the ability to achieve adequate margins after resection does not seem to correlate well with the rate of local recurrence, making the likelihood of recurrent disease somewhat unpredictable.²² For palmar and plantar fibromatosis, on the other hand, the rate of local recurrence is closely related to adequacy of margins.²² Prognostic implications of the reported gene mutations or chromosomal aberrations are currently unclear.^{22,51,58,183}



Fig. 14. Desmoid-type fibromatosis, low power (*A*) (hematoxylin-eosin, original magnification \times 10), showing nuclear immunoreactivity for β -catenin (*B*) (Original magnifications \times 10).

BENIGN SOFT TISSUE AND BONE TUMORS

Benign soft tissue tumors are a great deal more common than benign bone tumors and are far more common than sarcomas, with only about one out of every hundred overall soft tissue tumors found to be malignant.²² They can be categorized based on their histologic differentiation, usually as tumors of adipocytic, cartilaginous, osteogenic, fibrogenic, fibrohistiocytic, vascular, perivascular, or neural differentiation (**Table 4**),²² while benign bone tumors are currently most commonly classified as chondrogenic, osteogenic, fibrogenic, followed closely by fibrogenic tumors (**Table 5**).^{20,22} A tumor should only be considered benign after ensuring that the pathologic diagnosis fits the clinical picture. This process involves gathering appropriate clinical and radiologic information, followed by adequate tissue sampling for pathologic evaluation, possibly with the aid of ancillary studies. If uncertainty persists, additional sampling or close follow-up is indicated.

GIANT CELL TUMORS Tenosynovial Giant Cell Tumor

Tenosynovial giant cell tumors are a group of neoplastic disorders that involve synovium-lined tendon sheaths, synovial joints, and adjacent soft tissue. They are divided into localized and diffuse subtypes. The localized type is also known as nodular tenosynovitis. It presents as discrete nodules primarily affecting the tenosynovium of hands and feet (75% are in digits).²² The nodule is grossly well circumscribed and encapsulated. The cut section shows a lobulated and tan-brown appearance. The tumor is composed of a polymorphous population of cells including osteoclast-like giant cells, larger mononuclear histiocytes, smaller mononuclear stromal cells, and macrophages that either engulf fatty content (xanthoma cells or foamy cells) or are hemosiderin-laden (pigmented). Lymphoplasmacytic infiltration is usually a minor component. Fibrous and collagenous stroma can be seen. The diffused type is also called pigmented villonodular tenosynovitis. The intra-articular lesions and the extra-articular affect the knee. The diffuse type tumors have larger and more numerous giant cells. The intra-articular lesions has typical villous pattern.

Ancillary studies

The larger mononuclear cells are positive for clusterin, while the smaller histiocytes are positive for CD68. There is also a high level of *CSF1* expression of the tumor cells resulted by the translocation of *CLO6A3* with CSF1 gene.²²

Prognostic implications

Local type is a benign lesion with local recurrence.

Giant Cell Tumor of Bone

Giant cell tumor of bone is a benign but locally aggressive tumor. The tumor is composed of numerous characteristic giant cells that are large and osteoclast-like (Fig. 15). These cells are impressive morphologically; however, they are the back-ground cells reactive to the true neoplastic cells, which are primitive mesenchymal stromal cells. The neoplastic cells are mononuclear and express receptor activator for nuclear factor - κ B ligand RANKL, the master regulator of osteoclast differentiation.²² Macrophages and osteoclasts express RANK. The interaction between the neoplastic mononuclear stromal cells and macrophages/osteoclasts by an RANKL-dependent mechanism via the stimulation of macrophage-colony stimulation factor results in neoplastic proliferation and induces osteoclast formation.²² During this

Table 4 Common histological, immunohistochemical, and molecular findings of selected benign soft tissue tumors			
Classification/ Tumor Type	Histology	Immunohistochemical	Molecular
Adipocytic			
Lipoma	Well-circumscribed, mature white adipocytes	MDM2 (–), \$100 (+), leptin (+), HMGA2 (+)	MDM2 (–) HMGA2 aberrations
Lipoblastoma	Diffuse or local, lobular embryonal adipocytic cells, and fibrovascular septa	S100 (+), CD34 (+), desmin (+/-)	PLAG1
Angiolipoma	Mature adipocytes, thin capillary-sized vessels containing fibrin thrombi	S100 (+), HMGA2 (+/–)	HMGA2
Spindle cell/pleomorphic lipoma	Mature adipocytes, admixed bland spindled cells/multinucleated (often "floret-like") giant cells, thick ropelike collagen fibers, myxoid matrix	CD34 (+) spindled cells, S100 (-/+), desmin (-/+)	Losses involving 13q, 16q, 6q, 10p
Chondroid lipoma	Mature adipocytes, admixed small round lipoblasts, chondromyxoid matrix	S100 (+/–), PAS (+)	Fusion of C11of 95 (11q13) and MKL2 (16p13.3)
Hibernoma	Variable amount of polygonal, multivacuolated cells with small central nucleus, and granular cytoplasm (brown fat)	S100 (+/–), CD34 (–), desmin (–/+), UCP1 (+)	11q aberrations UCP1 expression
Cartilagenous			
Soft tissue chondroma	Lobulated mature hyaline cartilage, often hypercellular, with groups of chondrocytes	_	12q13, +5, +8, HMGA2
Fibrogenic			
Nodular fasciitis	Plump spindled fibroblasts/myofibroblasts, frequent mitoses, lacking nuclear hyperchromasia or pleomorphism, occasional osteoclast-like giant cells, tissue culture-like growth pattern	Actin (+) strong/diffuse, Desmin (–) CD68 (+) giant cells	MYH9-USP6 fusion

Elastofibroma	Fibrocollagenous tissue with abnormally prominent elastic fibers	Elastin (+), tropoelastin (+)	Chromosome 1 aberrations, Xq12–22 gain
Myositis ossificans	Localized nodular fasciitis-like proliferation with osteoblasts and osteoclasts rimming irregular sheets of bone formation	Actin (+), desmin (+/–)	Limited data
Cellular angiofibroma	Uniform, spindled cells, numerous small-to- medium, thick-walled vessels, variably fibrous to edematous stroma	CD34 (+/–), actin (–/+), desmin (–/+)	AHRR-NCOA2
Gardner fibroma	Hypocellular, haphazard, thick collagen fibers	CD34 (+), nuclear β -catenin (+/-) actin (-), desmin (-)	Associated with Gardner-type FAP
Fibrohistiocytic			
Tenosynovial giant cell tumor, localized type	Lobulated, variable proportions of multinucleated giant cells and variably sized mononuclear cells with pale cytoplasm, hemosiderin deposits, and variably hyalinized stroma, arising from supovium	Clusterin (+) in larger mononuclear cells CD68 (+), CD45(+), and CD163(+) smaller cells CD68 (+), CD45 (+), tartrate-resistant acid phosphatase (+) giant cells	CSF1-COL6A3
Deep benign fibrous histiocytoma	Well-circumscribed, cellular spindled cells, storiform pattern, vesicular nuclei, many with prominent branching vascular pattern	CD34 (+), SMA (+/-)	Limited data
Neural/perineural			
Schwannoma	Majority are biphasic with compact spindled cells (Antoni A) and looser areas (Antoni B) with pallisading verocay bodies	S100 (+), collagen IV (+), laminin (+), GFAP (+/-), SOX-10 (+)	Chromosome 22 losses, NF2, SMARCB1
Neurofibroma	Loosely arranged small, spindled cells, with collagen fibers and myxoid material	S100 (focal +), GLUT1 (+), claudin-1 (+), EMA (+/–) in perineural-like cells	NF1
Perineurioma	Spindled cells with storiform growth pattern, perivascular whorls, in	EMA (+), GLUT1 (+/–), claudin-1 (+/–) S100 (–), GFAP (–)	Chromosome 22 losses, NF2

Table 4 (continued)			
Classification/ Tumor Type	Histology	Immunohistochemical	Molecular
Granular cell tumor	Nested to trabecular large ovoid cells with eosinophilic, granular cytoplasm, ill- defined borders. Often associated with pseudo-epitheliomatous hyperplasia of overlying epithelium	S100 (+), CD68 (+), CD63 (+), MITF (+/–), TFE (+/–), HMB45 (–), GFAP (–)	Limited data Malignant granular cell tumors may show partial loss of 5p
Smooth muscle			
Leiomyoma	Spindled cells with eosinophilic cytoplasm, cigar-shaped nuclei, arranged in fascicular growth pattern	Actin (+), desmin (+), h-caldesmon (+), S100 (-) Abdominal or inguinal tumors usually ER, PR, and WT1 (+)	Not well-described in soft tissue. Likely variable clonal chromosomal changes
Skeletal muscle			
Rhabdomyoma	Unencapsulated, lobular, large polygonal cells with abundant eosinophilic granular cytoplasm, cross-striations, or rodlike inclusions, round vesicular nuclei, and well-defined cell borders	Actin (+), desmin (+), myogenin (+)	Few reports of sonic hedgehog pathway activation
Vascular			
Hemangiomas	Multiple dilated, predominantly thin- walled, variably sized vascular channels, commonly with hemosiderin deposition, and fibrotic or myxoid stroma	WT1 (+), ERG (+), CD31 (+), CD34 (+) Epithelioid variant CK (focal +/–)	Limited data
Lymphangioma	Cystic, variably sized, lymphatic channels, lined by flattened endothelium, commonly empty or filled with proteinaceous fluid or lymphocytes	Podoplanin/D2-40 (+), PROX1 (+), CD31 (+), CD34 (+/-)	Limited data

946

Clamus tumar	Nested small uniform rounded calls with	SMA(1) coldormon(1) collogor N(1)	Hereditary tymer andreme care and site
Giomus tumor	central round nuclei, amphophilic to eosinophilic cytoplasm, sharply defined cell borders, surrounding capillary-sized vessels	SMA (+), calaesmon (+), collagen IV (+, pericellular)	with GLMN or NF1
Myopericytoma	Nodular or lobular, uniform oval spindled myoid cells, with multilayered, concentric perivascular growth. Neoplastic cells with plump, spindled nuclei and eosinophilic cytoplasm	Perivascular cells SMA (+), caldesmon (+) Neoplastic cells desmin (focal +/–), CD34 (focal +/–)	ACTB-GLI1 fusion
Angioleiomyoma	Spindled cells with eosinophilic cytoplasm, cigar-shaped nuclei, arranged in fascicular pattern with intervening vascular channels	Actin (+), calponin (+), caldesmon (+/–)	Variable, most commonly with 22q11.2 loss or Xq gain
Uncertain differentia	ation		
Acral fibromyxoma	Spindled to stellate-shaped fibroblasts within collagenous or myxoid stroma, loose fascicular to storiform patterns, usually with numerous vessels and mast cells	CD34 (+), EMA (+/–)	GNAS (–)
Intramuscular myxoma	Spindled to stellate-shaped fibroblasts within abundant, often vacuolated, myxoid stroma, and sparse small vessels	CD34 (+/-), desmin (+/-), actin (+/-)	GNAS
Deep angiomyxoma	Spindled to stellate myoid cells, with loose myxoedematous to collagenous stroma	ER/PR (+/-), CD34 (+/-), actin (+/-), desmin (+/-), HMGA2 (+/-)	12q13–15, HMGA2

Data from Refs.^{22,23,51,54,58,93,103,186–189}

Table 5 Common histologic, tumors	immunohistochemical, an	d molecular findings of	selected benign bone
Classification/Tumor Type	Histology	Immunohistochemical	Molecular
Chondrogenic			
Osteochondroma	Perichondrium, cartilage, and bone layers. Continuous cortical and medullary bone with stalk	_	EXT1 or EXT2 Negative for IDH1 or IDH2 mutations
Chondromas	Encondroma: Hypocellular, avascular, with prominent hyaline cartilage matrix Periosteal chondroma: Similar, but beneath periosteum, occasional with mild nuclear pleomorphism	_	IDH mutations
Chondromyxoid fibroma	Peripherally, spindled cells with fibrous stroma. Centrally, stellate and chondrocyte-like cells with chondromyxoid stroma	_	Chromosome 6 aberrations
Osteogenic			
Osteoma	Compact, spongious, or mixed lamellar bone, with osteoblastic remodeling, in a well- vascularized, moderately cellular, fibrous stroma	_	Limited data
Osteoid osteoma	Small (<2 cm) tumor with central (nidus) of osteoblastic activity, producing osteoid and often bone	_	Rare reports of clonal chromosomal aberrations
Osteoblastoma	Similar to osteoid osteoma, except >2 cm and richly vascular	_	Variable reported, limited data
Fibrohistiocytic			
Nonossifying fibroma	Large proliferation of bland spindled fibroblasts, with storiform growth pattern, extending into medullary cavities	_	Limited data
		(co	ntinued on next page)

Table 5 (continued)			
Classification/Tumor Type	Histology	Immunohistochemical	Molecular
Benign fibrous histiocytoma	Identical histologic findings as nonossifying fibroma, but different clinical and radiologic presentation (smaller, usually involving nonmetaphyseal long bones or pelvis)	_	Limited data
Notochordal			
Benign notochordal cell tumor	Well-defined tumor with vacuolated cells, small centrally or peripherally located round or oval nuclei, and no nuclear atypia. Lacks the lobular architecture, fibrous bands, and myxoid matrix seen in chordoma	S100 (+), EMA (+), keratin (+), brachyury (+)	Limited data
Undefined neoplastic Aneurysmal bone cyst	nature Well-circumscribed, cystic spaces filled with blood, separated by cellular fibrous septa containing bland fibroblasts, scattered multinucleated osteoclast-like cells and woven bone rimmed by osteoblasts, often mitotically active	_	USP6 fusion with CDH11, TRAP150, ZNF9, OMD, or COLA1

Data from Fletcher CDM, World Health Organization, International Agency for Research on Cancer. WHO classification of tumours of soft tissue and bone. World Health Organization classification of tumours. 4th edition. Lyon (France): IARC Press; 2013. p. 468; and Letson GD, Muro-Cacho CA. Genetic and molecular abnormalities in tumors of the bone and soft tissues. Cancer Control 2001;8(3):239–51.

process, tumor-associated macrophage-like osteoclast precursors, which are also mononuclear cells, are recruited by tumoral stromal cells to participate in osteoclast differentiation and activation. Because osteoclast formation is the major consequence of GCTB, inhibition of osteoclast formation and activity is the key therapeutic approach. For example, bisphosphonate inhibits osteoclast-mediated resorption of bone/osteolysis and anti-RANKL antibody targets the RANKL-dependent mechanism of GCTB formation.^{186,190–193}

Osteoprotegerin (OPG) is a soluble decoy receptor that is produced by osteoblasts to inhibit osteoclast differentiation through its binding to RANKL, which prevents



Fig. 15. Giant cell tumor of bone, high power (hematoxylin-eosin, original magnification \times 40).

RANK binding. OPG expression reflects a protective mechanism of the skeleton to compensate increased bone resorption. Bone remodeling is mainly controlled by the balance of RANKL/OPG. Osteoprotegerin ligand (OPGL), also named receptor activator of RANKL, is also expressed in the stromalike tumor cells of GCTB. The ratio of OPGL/OPG by tumor cells may contribute to the degree of osteogenesis and bone resorption.¹⁹⁴

Grossly, the tumor is red-brown with hemorrhage. Yellow areas reflect lipid-laden macrophage-rich areas. Histologically, the tumor is composed of numerous giant cells with multinucleation and scattered mononuclear cells that are round or spindle shaped. Lipid-laden or hemosiderin-laden macrophages are also present. The tumor is mainly solid and may contain cystic areas. Secondary aneurysmal bone cyst component is seen in 10% of GCTB.²² The tumor may be mitotically active; however, a benign giant cell tumor typically does not have atypical mitosis or significant nuclear atypia. The latter is associated with a malignant transformation of GCTB. One diagnostic pitfall is to avoid misdiagnosing an osteo-sarcoma when a pathologic fracture is in association with a malignant giant cell tumor.

Ancillary studies

Giant cell tumor of soft tissue is positive for CD68, with some mononuclear cells showing SMA positivity.^{190,191,195,196} A ligand for RANKL is also expressed by the mononuclear cells and is important for osteoclastic recruitment.^{190,197,198}

Prognostic implications

Local recurrence rates of up to 12% have been reported with only rare cases of metastatic disease reported.^{196,197,199–202} Although complete resection improves local recurrence rates, prognostic factors are otherwise currently unknown.^{22,190,202}

Giant Cell Tumor of Soft Tissue

Giant cell tumor of soft tissue is clinically and histologically similar to giant cell tumor of bone. It most often presents in middle-aged adults, usually as a superficial painless extremity soft tissue tumor, less often affecting the trunk or head and neck regions.²² Morphologic evaluation shows a multinodular proliferation of cellular nodules containing mononuclear and multinuclear osteoclast-like giant cells, often with frequent mitoses, within a richly vascular stroma.²² About half of these tumors present with metaplastic bone formation, and other common histologic features include cystic changes, stromal fibrosis, stromal hemorrhage, and foamy macrophages.^{22,190}

SUMMARY

Recent advances in immunohistochemical markers, cytogenetics, and molecular pathology techniques summarized here have improved the diagnosis and management of sarcomas. The most recent version of the WHO classification of soft tissue and bone tumors better defines pathological diagnostic criteria, allowing for more reproducible diagnoses. Ongoing improvements in our understanding of the molecular characteristics of tumors will undoubtedly continue to shed light on the factors that influence the pathogenesis of soft tissue and bone tumors and optimize the management of sarcomas.

REFERENCES

- Dufresne A, Blay JY, Cassier P, et al. Recommendations for diagnostic and therapeutic management of soft tissue sarcoma. Bull Cancer 2009;96(9):909–15 [in French].
- 2. Amankwah EK, Conley AP, Reed DR. Epidemiology and therapies for metastatic sarcoma. Clin Epidemiol 2013;5:147–62.
- 3. Burningham Z, Hashibe M, Spector L, et al. The epidemiology of sarcoma. Clin Sarcoma Res 2012;2(1):14.
- Moley JF, Brother MB, Wells SA, et al. Low frequency of ras gene mutations in neuroblastomas, pheochromocytomas, and medullary thyroid cancers. Cancer Res 1991;51(6):1596–9.
- 5. Gibson TN, Hanchard B, Waugh N, et al. A fifty-year review of soft tissue sarcomas in Jamaica: 1958-2007. West Indian Med J 2012;61(7):692–7.
- Gronchi A, Miceli R, Allard MA, et al. Personalizing the approach to retroperitoneal soft tissue sarcoma: histology-specific patterns of failure and postrelapse outcome after primary extended resection. Ann Surg Oncol 2015;22(5): 1447–54.
- 7. Demicco EG. Sarcoma diagnosis in the age of molecular pathology. Adv Anat Pathol 2013;20(4):264–74.
- Al-Zaid T, Somaiah N, Lazar AJ. Targeted therapies for sarcomas: new roles for the pathologist. Histopathology 2014;64(1):119–33.
- 9. Fletcher JA. Molecular biology and cytogenetics of soft tissue sarcomas: relevance for targeted therapies. Cancer Treat Res 2004;120:99–116.
- 10. Taylor BS, Barretina J, Maki RG, et al. Advances in sarcoma genomics and new therapeutic targets. Nat Rev Cancer 2011;11(8):541–57.
- Ligier K, Maynou C, Leroy X, et al. Improvement of the initial management of sarcomas after the dissemination of evidence-based guidelines depends on the primary sarcoma location: a population-based study. BMC Cancer 2015;15:218.
- Goldbraich E, Waks Z, Farkash A, et al. Understanding deviations from clinical practice guidelines in adult soft tissue sarcoma. Stud Health Technol Inform 2015;216:280–4.
- 13. Nijhuis PH, Schaapveld M, Otter R, et al. Soft tissue sarcoma-compliance with guidelines. Cancer 2001;91(11):2186–95.
- Bagaria SP, Ashman JB, Daugherty LC, et al. Compliance with national comprehensive cancer network guidelines in the use of radiation therapy for extremity and superficial trunk soft tissue sarcoma in the United States. J Surg Oncol 2014;109(7):633–8.
- 15. Demetri GD, Baker LH, Beech D, et al. Soft tissue sarcoma clinical practice guidelines in oncology. J Natl Compr Canc Netw 2005;3(2):158–94.

- Perrier L, Buja A, Mastrangelo G, et al. Clinicians' adherence versus non adherence to practice guidelines in the management of patients with sarcoma: a costeffectiveness assessment in two European regions. BMC Health Serv Res 2012; 12:82.
- Honore C, Méeus P, Stoeckle E, et al. Soft tissue sarcoma in France in 2015: epidemiology, classification and organization of clinical care. J Visc Surg 2015;152(4):223–30.
- 18. von Mehren M, Randall RL, Benjamin RS, et al. Soft tissue sarcoma, version 2.2014. J Natl Compr Canc Netw 2014;12(4):473–83.
- Doyle LA. Sarcoma classification: an update based on the 2013 World Health Organization classification of tumors of soft tissue and bone. Cancer 2014; 120(12):1763–74.
- 20. Fletcher CD. The evolving classification of soft tissue tumours—an update based on the new 2013 WHO classification. Histopathology 2014;64(1):2–11.
- 21. Jo VY, Fletcher CD. WHO classification of soft tissue tumours: an update based on the 2013 (4th) edition. Pathology 2014;46(2):95–104.
- Fletcher CDM, World Health Organization and International Agency for Research on Cancer. WHO classification of tumours of soft tissue and bone. World Health Organization classification of tumours. 4th edition. Lyon (France): IARC Press; 2013. p. 468.
- 23. Fletcher CD. Recently characterized soft tissue tumors that bring biologic insight. Mod Pathol 2014;27(Suppl 1):S98–112.
- Zambo I, Vesely K. WHO classification of tumours of soft tissue and bone 2013: the main changes compared to the 3rd edition. Cesk Patol 2014;50(2):64–70 [in Czech].
- 25. Costa J, Wesley RA, Glatstein E, et al. The grading of soft tissue sarcomas. Results of a clinicohistopathologic correlation in a series of 163 cases. Cancer 1984;53(3):530–41.
- Golouh R, Bračko M. What is current practice in soft tissue sarcoma grading? Radiol Oncol 2001;35(1):47–52.
- 27. Coindre JM, Trojani M, Contesso G, et al. Reproducibility of a histopathologic grading system for adult soft tissue sarcoma. Cancer 1986;58(2):306–9.
- Deyrup AT, Weiss SW. Grading of soft tissue sarcomas: the challenge of providing precise information in an imprecise world. Histopathology 2006; 48(1):42–50.
- 29. Damjanov I, Fan F. Cancer grading manual. 2nd edition. New York: Springer; 2013. p. 220, xi.
- **30.** Gustafson P, Akerman M, Alvegård TA, et al. Prognostic information in soft tissue sarcoma using tumour size, vascular invasion and microscopic tumour necrosis-the SIN-system. Eur J Cancer 2003;39(11):1568–76.
- Recommendations for the reporting of soft tissue sarcomas. Association of Directors of Anatomic and Surgical Pathology. Mod Pathol 1998;11(12):1257–61.
- **32.** Guillou L, Coindre JM, Bonichon F, et al. Comparative study of the National Cancer Institute and French Federation of Cancer Centers Sarcoma Group grading systems in a population of 410 adult patients with soft tissue sarcoma. J Clin Oncol 1997;15(1):350–62.
- **33.** Kilpatrick SE. Histologic prognostication in soft tissue sarcomas: grading versus subtyping or both? A comprehensive review of the literature with proposed practical guidelines. Ann Diagn Pathol 1999;3(1):48–61.

- Coindre JM, Terrier P, Bui NB, et al. Prognostic factors in adult patients with locally controlled soft tissue sarcoma. A study of 546 patients from the French Federation of Cancer Centers Sarcoma Group. J Clin Oncol 1996;14(3):869–77.
- 35. Hashimoto H, Daimaru Y, Takeshita S, et al. Prognostic significance of histologic parameters of soft tissue sarcomas. Cancer 1992;70(12):2816–22.
- **36.** Edge SB, American Joint Committee on Cancer. AJCC cancer staging manual. 7th edition. New York: Springer; 2010. p. 648, xiv.
- 37. Inwards CY, Unni KK. Classification and grading of bone sarcomas. Hematol Oncol Clin North Am 1995;9(3):545–69.
- **38.** Folpe AL, Inwards CY. Bone and soft tissue pathology. Philadelphia: Saunders/ Elsevier; 2010.
- **39.** Sobin L, Gospodarowicz M, Ch W, editors. UICC TNM classification of malignant tumours. 7th edition. New York: Wiley-Liss; 2009.
- **40.** Egas-Bejar D, Anderson PM, Agarwal R, et al. Theranostic profiling for actionable aberrations in advanced high risk osteosarcoma with aggressive biology reveals high molecular diversity: the human fingerprint hypothesis. Oncoscience 2014;1(2):167–79.
- **41.** Warenius HM, Seabra L, Kyritsi L, et al. Theranostic proteomic profiling of cyclins, cyclin dependent kinases and Ras in human cancer cell lines is dependent on p53 mutational status. Int J Oncol 2008;32(4):895–907.
- 42. Ahmed N, Fessi H, Elaissari A. Theranostic applications of nanoparticles in cancer. Drug Discov Today 2012;17(17–18):928–34.
- 43. Aleixo PB, Hartmann AA, Menezes IC, et al. Can MDM2 and CDK4 make the diagnosis of well differentiated/dedifferentiated liposarcoma? An immunohistochemical study on 129 soft tissue tumours. J Clin Pathol 2009;62(12):1127–35.
- 44. Ghadimi MP, Al-Zaid T, Madewell J, et al. Diagnosis, management, and outcome of patients with dedifferentiated liposarcoma systemic metastasis. Ann Surg Oncol 2011;18(13):3762–70.
- Fritchie KJ, Goldblum JR, Tubbs RR, et al. The expanded histologic spectrum of myxoid liposarcoma with an emphasis on newly described patterns: implications for diagnosis on small biopsy specimens. Am J Clin Pathol 2012;137(2): 229–39.
- **46.** Iwasaki H, Nabeshima K, Nishio J, et al. Pathology of soft-tissue tumors: daily diagnosis, molecular cytogenetics and experimental approach. Pathol Int 2009;59(8):501–21.
- 47. Matthyssens LE, Creytens D, Ceelen WP. Retroperitoneal liposarcoma: current insights in diagnosis and treatment. Front Surg 2015;2:4.
- Pedeutour F, Suijkerbuijk RF, Forus A, et al. Complex composition and coamplification of SAS and MDM2 in ring and giant rod marker chromosomes in well-differentiated liposarcoma. Genes Chromosomes Cancer 1994;10(2): 85–94.
- Creytens D, van Gorp J, Ferdinande L, et al. Array-based comparative genomic hybridization analysis of a pleomorphic myxoid liposarcoma. J Clin Pathol 2014; 67(9):834–5.
- **50.** Narendra S, Valente A, Tull J, et al. DDIT3 gene break-apart as a molecular marker for diagnosis of myxoid liposarcoma–assay validation and clinical experience. Diagn Mol Pathol 2011;20(4):218–24.
- 51. Henderson-Jackson EB, Bui MM. Molecular pathology of soft-tissue neoplasms and its role in clinical practice. Cancer Control 2015;22(2):186–92.
- 52. Marino-Enriquez A, Hornick JL, Dal Cin P, et al. Dedifferentiated liposarcoma and pleomorphic liposarcoma: a comparative study of cytomorphology and

MDM2/CDK4 expression on fine-needle aspiration. Cancer Cytopathol 2014; 122(2):128–37.

- Gustafson P, Rydholm A, Willén H, et al. Liposarcoma: a population-based epidemiologic and prognostic study of features of 43 patients, including tumor DNA content. Int J Cancer 1993;55(4):541–6.
- 54. van de Rijn M, Fletcher JA. Genetics of soft tissue tumors. Annu Rev Pathol 2006;1:435–66.
- 55. Oda Y, Yamamoto H, Takahira T, et al. Frequent alteration of p16(INK4a)/ p14(ARF) and p53 pathways in the round cell component of myxoid/round cell liposarcoma: p53 gene alterations and reduced p14(ARF) expression both correlate with poor prognosis. J Pathol 2005;207(4):410–21.
- Wang L, Ren W, Zhou X, et al. Pleomorphic liposarcoma: a clinicopathological, immunohistochemical and molecular cytogenetic study of 32 additional cases. Pathol Int 2013;63(11):523–31.
- **57.** Garcia JJ, Folpe AL. The impact of advances in molecular genetic pathology on the classification, diagnosis and treatment of selected soft tissue tumors of the head and neck. Head Neck Pathol 2010;4(1):70–6.
- 58. Hemmings C. Morphology, molecular genetics and multidisciplinary management: soft tissue pathology in 2014 and beyond. Pathology 2014;46(2):93–4.
- Lo CH, Cheng SN, Lin KT, et al. Successful treatment of infantile fibrosarcoma spinal metastasis by chemotherapy and stereotactic hypofractionated radiotherapy. J Korean Neurosurg Soc 2013;54(6):528–31.
- Gallego S, Pericas N, Barber I, et al. Infantile fibrosarcoma of the retroperitoneum: a site of unfavorable prognosis? Pediatr Hematol Oncol 2011;28(5): 451–3.
- 61. Fletcher CDM, Bridge JA, Hoagendoorn PCW, et al. WHO classification of tumours of soft tissue and bone. In: Bosman FT, Jaffe ES, Lakhani SR, et al, editors. World Health Organization classification of tumours. 4th edition. Lyon (France): International Agency for Reasearch on Cancer; 2013.
- 62. Sadri N, Barroeta J, Pack SD, et al. Malignant round cell tumor of bone with EWSR1-NFATC2 gene fusion. Virchows Arch 2014;465(2):233–9.
- **63.** Yamaguchi S, Yamazaki Y, Ishikawa Y, et al. EWSR1 is fused to POU5F1 in a bone tumor with translocation t(6;22)(p21;q12). Genes Chromosomes Cancer 2005;43(2):217–22.
- 64. Doyle LA, Fletcher CD, Hornick JL. Nuclear expression of CAMTA1 distinguishes epithelioid hemangioendothelioma from histologic mimics. Am J Surg Pathol 2016;40(1):94–102.
- **65.** Deyrup AT, Tighiouart M, Montag AG, et al. Epithelioid hemangioendothelioma of soft tissue: a proposal for risk stratification based on 49 cases. Am J Surg Pathol 2008;32(6):924–7.
- 66. Barison A, Pastormerlo LE, Mirizzi G, et al. Leiomyosarcoma of the inferior vena cava in a patient with Budd-Chiari syndrome. Rev Port Cardiol 2014;33(12): 807–9.
- 67. Chia-Hsin L. Education and imaging. Hepatobiliary and pancreatic: Budd-Chiari syndrome secondary to leiomyosarcoma of the inferior vena cava. J Gastroenterol Hepatol 2010;25(1):218.
- **68.** Kelly KJ, Yoon SS, Kuk D, et al. Comparison of perioperative radiation therapy and surgery versus surgery alone in 204 patients with primary retroperitoneal sarcoma: a retrospective 2-institution study. Ann Surg 2015;262(1):156–62.

- 69. von Mehren M, Benjamin RS, Bui MM, et al. Soft tissue sarcoma, version 2.2012: featured updates to the NCCN guidelines. J Natl Compr Canc Netw 2012;10(8): 951–60.
- Maekawa A, Kohashi K, Setsu N, et al. Expression of Forkhead Box M1 in soft tissue leiomyosarcoma: clinicopathological and in vitro study using a newly established cell line. Cancer Sci 2016;107(1):95–102.
- 71. Rosenberg AE. WHO classification of soft tissue and bone, fourth edition: summary and commentary. Curr Opin Oncol 2013;25(5):571–3.
- 72. Fletcher CD. The evolving classification of soft tissue tumours: an update based on the new WHO classification. Histopathology 2006;48(1):3–12.
- Tailor IK, Motabi I, Alshehry N, et al. Alveolar rhabdomyosarcoma masquerading as Burkitt's lymphoma in bone marrow. Hematol Oncol Stem Cell Ther 2015;8(1): 38–9.
- 74. Win KT, Lee MY, Tan TD, et al. Nasopharyngeal alveolar rhabdomyosarcoma expressing CD56: a mimicker of extranodal natural killer/T-cell lymphoma. Int J Clin Exp Pathol 2014;7(1):451–5.
- Ganesan P, Thulkar S, Rajan A, et al. Solid variant of alveolar rhabdomyosarcoma mimicking non-Hodgkin lymphoma: case report and review of literature. J Pediatr Hematol Oncol 2008;30(10):772–4.
- **76.** Tsai SC, Reale LD, Flomenberg N, et al. Alveolar rhabdomyosarcoma mimicking a lymphoma at presentation. J Clin Oncol 2006;24(24):4031–2.
- 77. Miller RW. Contrasting epidemiology of childhood osteosarcoma, Ewing's tumor, and rhabdomyosarcoma. Natl Cancer Inst Monogr 1981;(56):9–15.
- Sultan I, Qaddoumi I, Yaser S, et al. Comparing adult and pediatric rhabdomyosarcoma in the surveillance, epidemiology and end results program, 1973 to 2005: an analysis of 2,600 patients. J Clin Oncol 2009;27(20):3391–7.
- **79.** Busam KJ, Fletcher CD. The clinical role of molecular genetics in soft tissue tumor pathology. Cancer Metastasis Rev 1997;16(1–2):207–27.
- **80.** Oda Y, Tsuneyoshi M. Recent advances in the molecular pathology of soft tissue sarcoma: implications for diagnosis, patient prognosis, and molecular target therapy in the future. Cancer Sci 2009;100(2):200–8.
- La Starza R, Nofrini V, Pierini T, et al. Molecular cytogenetics detect an unbalanced t(2;13)(q36;q14) and PAX3-FOXO1 fusion in rhabdomyosarcoma with mixed embryonal/alveolar features. Pediatr Blood Cancer 2015;62(12):2238–41.
- 82. Demicco EG, Lazar AJ. Clinicopathologic considerations: how can we fine tune our approach to sarcoma? Semin Oncol 2011;38(Suppl 3):S3–18.
- 83. Husain N, Verma N. Current concepts in pathology of soft tissue sarcoma. Indian J Surg Oncol 2011;2(4):302–8.
- 84. Todd R, Lunec J. Molecular pathology and potential therapeutic targets in softtissue sarcoma. Expert Rev Anticancer Ther 2008;8(6):939–48.
- Rubin BP, Goldblum JR. Pathology of soft tissue sarcoma. J Natl Compr Canc Netw 2007;5(4):411–8.
- **86.** Slominski A, Wortsman J, Carlson A, et al. Molecular pathology of soft tissue and bone tumors. A review. Arch Pathol Lab Med 1999;123(12):1246–59.
- Kubo T, Shimose S, Fujimori J, et al. Prognostic value of PAX3/7-FOXO1 fusion status in alveolar rhabdomyosarcoma: systematic review and meta-analysis. Crit Rev Oncol Hematol 2015;96(1):46–53.
- Kosemehmetoglu K, Vrana JA, Folpe AL. TLE1 expression is not specific for synovial sarcoma: a whole section study of 163 soft tissue and bone neoplasms. Mod Pathol 2009;22(7):872–8.

- 89. Blackett J. Difficulties in diagnosing soft-tissue sarcomas: a case of synovial sarcoma of the foot. N Z Med J 2011;124(1346):83–7.
- **90.** He R, Patel RM, Alkan S, et al. Immunostaining for SYT protein discriminates synovial sarcoma from other soft tissue tumors: analysis of 146 cases. Mod Pathol 2007;20(5):522–8.
- Garcia Del Muro X, de Alava E, Artigas V, et al. Clinical practice guidelines for the diagnosis and treatment of patients with soft tissue sarcoma by the Spanish group for research in sarcomas (GEIS). Cancer Chemother Pharmacol 2016; 77(1):133–46.
- 92. Coindre JM. Grading of soft tissue sarcomas: review and update. Arch Pathol Lab Med 2006;130(10):1448–53.
- **93.** Dei Tos AP. A current perspective on the role for molecular studies in soft tissue tumor pathology. Semin Diagn Pathol 2013;30(4):375–81.
- Tang Y, Song H, Bao Y, et al. Multimodal treatment of abdominal and pelvic desmoplastic small round cell tumor with relative good prognosis. Int J Surg 2015; 16(Pt A):49–54.
- **95.** Palomeque Jimenez A, Pérez Cabrera B, González Puga C, et al. Desmoplastic small-round-cell tumor of the peritoneum: an uncommon entity with poor prognosis. Gastroenterol Hepatol 2015;38(6):383–5 [in Spanish].
- Casey DL, Wexler LH, LaQuaglia MP, et al. Favorable outcomes after whole abdominopelvic radiation therapy for pediatric and young adult sarcoma. Pediatr Blood Cancer 2014;61(9):1565–9.
- **97.** Roos E, van Coevorden F, Verhoef C, et al. Prognosis of primary and recurrent chondrosarcoma of the rib. Ann Surg Oncol 2016;23(3):811–7.
- **98.** Rozeman LB, Hogendoorn PC, Bovee JV. Diagnosis and prognosis of chondrosarcoma of bone. Expert Rev Mol Diagn 2002;2(5):461–72.
- Verdegaal SH, Bovée JV, Pansuriya TC, et al. Incidence, predictive factors, and prognosis of chondrosarcoma in patients with Ollier disease and Maffucci syndrome: an international multicenter study of 161 patients. Oncologist 2011; 16(12):1771–9.
- Lu N, Lin T, Wang L, et al. Association of SOX4 regulated by tumor suppressor miR-30a with poor prognosis in low-grade chondrosarcoma. Tumour Biol 2015; 36(5):3843–52.
- 101. Tsukamoto S, Honoki K, Kido A, et al. Chemotherapy improved prognosis of mesenchymal chondrosarcoma with rare metastasis to the pancreas. Case Rep Oncol Med 2014;2014:249757.
- 102. Jin Z, Han YX, Han XR. Loss of RUNX3 expression may contribute to poor prognosis in patients with chondrosarcoma. J Mol Histol 2013;44(6):645–52.
- 103. Letson GD, Muro-Cacho CA. Genetic and molecular abnormalities in tumors of the bone and soft tissues. Cancer Control 2001;8(3):239–51.
- 104. Pappo AS, Vassal G, Crowley JJ, et al. A phase 2 trial of R1507, a monoclonal antibody to the insulin-like growth factor-1 receptor (IGF-1R), in patients with recurrent or refractory rhabdomyosarcoma, osteosarcoma, synovial sarcoma, and other soft tissue sarcomas: results of a Sarcoma Alliance for Research Through Collaboration study. Cancer 2014;120(16):2448–56.
- 105. Pekmezci M, Reuss DE, Hirbe AC, et al. Morphologic and immunohistochemical features of malignant peripheral nerve sheath tumors and cellular schwannomas. Mod Pathol 2015;28(2):187–200.
- 106. Sobanko JF, Meijer L, Nigra TP. Epithelioid sarcoma: a review and update. J Clin Aesthet Dermatol 2009;2(5):49–54.

- 107. Sonobe H, Ohtsuki Y, Sugimoto T, et al. Involvement of 8q, 22q, and monosomy 21 in an epithelioid sarcoma. Cancer Genet Cytogenet 1997;96(2):178–80.
- 108. Iavazzo C, Gkegkes ID, Vrachnis N. Dilemmas in the management of patients with vulval epithelioid sarcoma: a literature review. Eur J Obstet Gynecol Reprod Biol 2014;176:1–4.
- 109. Ong AC, Lim TY, Tan TC, et al. Proximal epithelioid sarcoma of the vulva: a case report and review of current medical literature. J Obstet Gynaecol Res 2012; 38(7):1032–5.
- 110. Halling AC, Wollan PC, Pritchard DJ, et al. Epithelioid sarcoma: a clinicopathologic review of 55 cases. Mayo Clin Proc 1996;71(7):636–42.
- 111. Feely MG, Fidler ME, Nelson M, et al. Cytogenetic findings in a case of epithelioid sarcoma and a review of the literature. Cancer Genet Cytogenet 2000; 119(2):155–7.
- 112. Khowaja A, Johnson-Rabbett B, Bantle J, et al. Hypoglycemia mediated by paraneoplastic production of insulin like growth factor-2 from a malignant renal solitary fibrous tumor—clinical case and literature review. BMC Endocr Disord 2014;14:49.
- 113. Mohammedi K, Abi Khalil C, Olivier S, et al. Paraneoplastic hypoglycemia in a patient with a malignant solitary fibrous tumor. Endocrinol Diabetes Metab Case Rep 2014;2014:140026.
- 114. Tominaga N, Kawarasaki C, Kanemoto K, et al. Recurrent solitary fibrous tumor of the pleura with malignant transformation and non-islet cell tumor-induced hypoglycemia due to paraneoplastic overexpression and secretion of highmolecular-weight insulin-like growth factor II. Intern Med 2012;51(23):3267–72.
- 115. Tanaka K, Kishimoto T, Ohtsuka M, et al. Importance of NAB2-STAT6 fusion in the diagnosis of pancreatic solitary fibrous tumor with hamartoma-like features: a case report and review of the literature. Case Rep Pathol 2015;2015:149606.
- 116. Tai HC, Chuang IC, Chen TC, et al. NAB2-STAT6 fusion types account for clinicopathological variations in solitary fibrous tumors. Mod Pathol 2015;28(10): 1324–35.
- 117. Nakada S, Minato H, Takegami T, et al. NAB2-STAT6 fusion gene analysis in two cases of meningeal solitary fibrous tumor/hemangiopericytoma with late distant metastases. Brain Tumor Pathol 2015;32(4):268–74.
- **118.** Koelsche C, Schweizer L, Renner M, et al. Nuclear relocation of STAT6 reliably predicts NAB2-STAT6 fusion for the diagnosis of solitary fibrous tumour. Histopathology 2014;65(5):613–22.
- 119. Chmielecki J, Crago AM, Rosenberg M, et al. Whole-exome sequencing identifies a recurrent NAB2-STAT6 fusion in solitary fibrous tumors. Nat Genet 2013;45(2):131–2.
- 120. Robinson DR, Wu YM, Kalyana-Sundaram S, et al. Identification of recurrent NAB2-STAT6 gene fusions in solitary fibrous tumor by integrative sequencing. Nat Genet 2013;45(2):180–5.
- 121. Barthelmess S, Geddert H, Boltze C, et al. Solitary fibrous tumors/hemangiopericytomas with different variants of the NAB2-STAT6 gene fusion are characterized by specific histomorphology and distinct clinicopathological features. Am J Pathol 2014;184(4):1209–18.
- 122. NAB2-STAT6 fusions are a hallmark of solitary fibrous tumors. Cancer Discov 2013;3(3):OF18.
- 123. Zhou J, Jiang G, Zhang D, et al. Epithelioid inflammatory myofibroblastic sarcoma with recurrence after extensive resection: significant clinicopathologic

characteristics of a rare aggressive soft tissue neoplasm. Int J Clin Exp Pathol 2015;8(5):5803–7.

- 124. Sigel JE, Smith TA, Reith JD, et al. Immunohistochemical analysis of anaplastic lymphoma kinase expression in deep soft tissue calcifying fibrous pseudotumor: evidence of a late sclerosing stage of inflammatory myofibroblastic tumor? Ann Diagn Pathol 2001;5(1):10–4.
- 125. Masciocchi C, Lanni G, Conti L, et al. Soft-tissue inflammatory myofibroblastic tumors (IMTs) of the limbs: potential and limits of diagnostic imaging. Skeletal Radiol 2012;41(6):643–9.
- 126. Donner LR, Trompler RA, White RR 4th. Progression of inflammatory myofibroblastic tumor (inflammatory pseudotumor) of soft tissue into sarcoma after several recurrences. Hum Pathol 1996;27(10):1095–8.
- 127. Karanian M, Coindre JM. Fourth edition of WHO classification tumours of soft tissue. Ann Pathol 2015;35(1):71–85 [in French].
- **128.** Lombardi R, Jovine E, Zanini N, et al. A case of lung metastasis in myxoinflammatory fibroblastic sarcoma: analytical review of one hundred and thirty eight cases. Int Orthop 2013;37(12):2429–36.
- 129. Alaggio R, Coffin CM, Dall'igna P, et al. Myxoinflammatory fibroblastic sarcoma: report of a case and review of the literature. Pediatr Dev Pathol 2012;15(3): 254–8.
- Lang JE, Dodd L, Martinez S, et al. Case reports: acral myxoinflammatory fibroblastic sarcoma: a report of five cases and literature review. Clin Orthop Relat Res 2006;445:254–60.
- 131. Togral G, Arikan M, Aktas E, et al. Giant myxoinflammatory fibroblastic sarcoma with bone invasion: a very rare clinical entity and literature review. Chin J Cancer 2014;33(8):406–10.
- 132. Silver AG, Baynosa RC, Mahabir RC, et al. Acral myxoinflammatory fibroblastic sarcoma: a case report and literature review. Can J Plast Surg 2013;21(2):92–4.
- 133. Xiang H, Shi XL, Li QX, et al. Myxoinflammatory fibroblastic sarcoma: a clinicopathologic study of 6 cases with review of literature. Zhonghua Bing Li Xue Za Zhi 2011;40(2):94–8 [in Chinese].
- 134. Baumhoer D, Glatz K, Schulten HJ, et al. Myxoinflammatory fibroblastic sarcoma: investigations by comparative genomic hybridization of two cases and review of the literature. Virchows Arch 2007;451(5):923–8.
- 135. Bishop AJ, Zagars GK, Demicco EG, et al. Soft tissue solitary fibrous tumor: combined surgery and radiation therapy results in excellent local control. Am J Clin Oncol 2015. [Epub ahead of print].
- **136.** DeVito N, Henderson E, Han G, et al. Clinical characteristics and outcomes for solitary fibrous tumor (SFT): a single center experience. PLoS One 2015;10(10): e0140362.
- Lahon B, Mercier O, Fadel E, et al. Solitary fibrous tumor of the pleura: outcomes of 157 complete resections in a single center. Ann Thorac Surg 2012;94(2): 394–400.
- **138.** Stacchiotti S, Pedeutour F, Negri T, et al. Dermatofibrosarcoma protuberansderived fibrosarcoma: clinical history, biological profile and sensitivity to imatinib. Int J Cancer 2011;129(7):1761–72.
- 139. Stacchiotti S, Pantaleo MA, Negri T, et al. Efficacy and biological activity of imatinib in metastatic dermatofibrosarcoma protuberans (DFSP). Clin Cancer Res 2016;22(4):837–46.
- 140. Saeki H, Hoashi T, Tada Y, et al. Analysis of gene mutations in three cases of dermatofibrosarcoma protuberans (DFSP): ordinary DFSP, DFSP with

fibrosarcomatous lesion (DFSP-FS) and lung metastasis of DFSP-FS. J Dermatol Sci 2003;33(3):161–7.

- 141. Belyaeva EA, Elenitsas R, Roth R, et al. Dermatofibrosarcoma protuberans (DFSP) with fibrosarcomatous changes in a patient with psoriasis treated with adalimumab. JAAD Case Rep 2015;1(5):272–3.
- 142. Hong JY, Liu X, Mao M, et al. Genetic aberrations in imatinib-resistant dermatofibrosarcoma protuberans revealed by whole genome sequencing. PLoS One 2013;8(7):e69752.
- 143. Rutkowski P, Dębiec-Rychter M, Nowecki Z, et al. Treatment of advanced dermatofibrosarcoma protuberans with imatinib mesylate with or without surgical resection. J Eur Acad Dermatol Venereol 2011;25(3):264–70.
- 144. Wang C, Luo Z, Chen J, et al. Target therapy of unresectable or metastatic dermatofibrosarcoma protuberans with imatinib mesylate: an analysis on 22 Chinese patients. Medicine (Baltimore) 2015;94(17):e773.
- 145. Premalata CS, Rama Rao C, Padma M, et al. Myxoinflammatory fibroblastic sarcoma–report of a rare case at an unusual site with review of the literature. Int J Dermatol 2008;47(1):68–71.
- 146. Ortiz AE, Wu JJ, Linden KG. Letter: clear margins after the use of imatinib mesylate prior to resection of extensive dermatofibrosarcoma protuberans. Dermatol Surg 2008;34(8):1151.
- 147. Fatahzadeh M. Kaposi sarcoma: review and medical management update. Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol Oral Radiol 2012;113(1):2–16.
- 148. Feller L, Lemmer J, Wood NH, et al. HIV-associated oral Kaposi sarcoma and HHV-8: a review. J Int Acad Periodontol 2007;9(4):129–36.
- 149. Eaton C, Dorer R, Aboulafia DM. Human herpesvirus-8 infection associated with kaposi sarcoma, multicentric Castleman's disease, and plasmablastic microlymphoma in a man with AIDS: a case report with review of pathophysiologic processes. Patholog Res Int 2010;2011:647518.
- 150. Feller L, Anagnostopoulos C, Wood NH, et al. Human immunodeficiency virusassociated Kaposi sarcoma as an immune reconstitution inflammatory syndrome: a literature review and case report. J Periodontol 2008;79(2):362–8.
- **151.** Rosado FG, Itani DM, Coffin CM, et al. Utility of immunohistochemical staining with FLI1, D2-40, CD31, and CD34 in the diagnosis of acquired immunodeficiency syndrome-related and non-acquired immunodeficiency syndrome-related Kaposi sarcoma. Arch Pathol Lab Med 2012;136(3):301–4.
- 152. Cao W, Vyboh K, Routy B, et al. Imatinib for highly chemoresistant Kaposi sarcoma in a patient with long-term HIV control: a case report and literature review. Curr Oncol 2015;22(5):e395–9.
- 153. Marti N, Monteagudo C, Pinazo I, et al. Negative herpesvirus-8 immunoreactivity does not exclude a diagnosis of Kaposi sarcoma. Br J Dermatol 2011;164(1): 209–11.
- **154.** Patel RM, Goldblum JR, Hsi ED. Immunohistochemical detection of human herpes virus-8 latent nuclear antigen-1 is useful in the diagnosis of Kaposi sarcoma. Mod Pathol 2004;17(4):456–60.
- 155. Xiao J, Selvaggi SM, Leith CP, et al. Kaposi sarcoma herpesvirus/human herpesvirus-8-negative effusion-based lymphoma: report of 3 cases and review of the literature. Cancer Cytopathol 2013;121(11):661–9.
- **156.** Casper C, Wald A. The use of antiviral drugs in the prevention and treatment of Kaposi sarcoma, multicentric Castleman disease and primary effusion lymphoma. Curr Top Microbiol Immunol 2007;312:289–307.

- 157. Housari G, González M, Calero P, et al. Sacral chordoma: management of a rare disease in a tertiary hospital. Clin Transl Oncol 2013;15(4):327–30.
- 158. Walcott BP, Nahed BV, Mohyeldin A, et al. Chordoma: current concepts, management, and future directions. Lancet Oncol 2012;13(2):e69–76.
- 159. Mika K, Fuminari K, Hitoshi T, et al. Endoscopic management of a lower clival chondroid chordoma: case report. Turk Neurosurg 2012;22(1):123–6.
- 160. Kayani B, Hanna SA, Sewell MD, et al. A review of the surgical management of sacral chordoma. Eur J Surg Oncol 2014;40(11):1412–20.
- 161. Ferraresi V, Nuzzo C, Zoccali C, et al. Chordoma: clinical characteristics, management and prognosis of a case series of 25 patients. BMC Cancer 2010;10:22.
- 162. Ozger H, Eralp L, Sungur M, et al. Surgical management of sacral chordoma. Acta Orthop Belg 2010;76(2):243–53.
- **163.** Lee DH, Zhang Y, Kassam AB, et al. Combined PDGFR and HDAC inhibition overcomes PTEN disruption in chordoma. PLoS One 2015;10(8):e0134426.
- 164. Choy E, MacConaill LE, Cote GM, et al. Genotyping cancer-associated genes in chordoma identifies mutations in oncogenes and areas of chromosomal loss involving CDKN2A, PTEN, and SMARCB1. PLoS One 2014;9(7):e101283.
- 165. Chen K, Mo J, Zhou M, et al. Expression of PTEN and mTOR in sacral chordoma and association with poor prognosis. Med Oncol 2014;31(4):886.
- 166. Chou WC, Hung YS, Lu CH, et al. De novo dedifferentiated chordoma of the sacrum: a case report and review of the literature. Chang Gung Med J 2009; 32(3):330–5.
- 167. Masood Q, Bilal M, Tariq A, et al. Dedifferentiated chordoma with a sarcomatous component: an overlooked diagnosis. J Ayub Med Coll Abbottabad 2009;21(1): 164–5.
- 168. Sahasrabudhe NS, Jadhav MV, Holla VV. Dedifferentiated chordoma–a case report. Indian J Pathol Microbiol 2002;45(3):353–4.
- 169. Kim SC, Cho W, Chang UK, et al. Two cases of dedifferentiated chordoma in the sacrum. Korean J Spine 2015;12(3):230–4.
- 170. Borgaonkar V, Deshpande S, Borgaonkar V, et al. Gastrointestinal stromal tumor—single-center experience with review of the literature. Indian J Surg 2015;77(Suppl 2):678–81.
- 171. Pyo JS, Kang G, Sohn JH. Ki-67 labeling index can be used as a prognostic marker in gastrointestinal stromal tumor: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Int J Biol Markers 2016;31(2):e204–10.
- 172. Falchook GS, Trent JC, Heinrich MC, et al. BRAF mutant gastrointestinal stromal tumor: first report of regression with BRAF inhibitor dabrafenib (GSK2118436) and whole exomic sequencing for analysis of acquired resistance. Oncotarget 2013;4(2):310–5.
- **173.** Matin RN, Gonzalez D, Thompson L, et al. KIT and BRAF mutational status in a patient with a synchronous lentigo maligna melanoma and a gastrointestinal stromal tumor. Am J Clin Dermatol 2012;13(1):64–5.
- 174. Baldini EH, Raut C. Radiation therapy for extremity soft tissue sarcoma: in the absence of a clear survival benefit, why do we give it? Ann Surg Oncol 2014; 21(8):2463–5.
- 175. Lazarides AL, Eward WC, Speicher PJ, et al. The use of radiation therapy in welldifferentiated soft tissue sarcoma of the extremities: an NCDB review. Sarcoma 2015;2015:186581.
- 176. Kasper B, Baumgarten C, Bonvalot S, et al. Management of sporadic desmoidtype fibromatosis: a European consensus approach based on patients' and

professionals' expertise—a sarcoma patients EuroNet and European Organisation for research and treatment of cancer/soft tissue and bone sarcoma group initiative. Eur J Cancer 2015;51(2):127–36.

- 177. Mori T, Yamada T, Ohba Y, et al. A case of desmoid-type fibromatosis arising after thoracotomy for lung cancer with a review of the English and Japanese literature. Ann Thorac Cardiovasc Surg 2014;20(Suppl):465–9.
- **178.** La Greca G, Santangelo A, Primo S, et al. Clinical and diagnostic problems of desmoid-type fibromatosis of the mesentery: case report and review of the literature. Ann Ital Chir 2014;85.
- 179. Oudot C, Orbach D, Minard-Colin V, et al. Desmoid fibromatosis in pediatric patients: management based on a retrospective analysis of 59 patients and a review of the literature. Sarcoma 2012;2012:475202.
- 180. Schmoyer CJ, Brereton HD, Blomain EW. Contralateral recurrence of aggressive fibromatosis in a young woman: a case report and review of the literature. Oncol Lett 2015;10(1):325–8.
- 181. Veith NT, Tschernig T, Histing T, et al. Plantar fibromatosis–topical review. Foot Ankle Int 2013;34(12):1742–6.
- 182. Yoon GW, Kim JD, Chung SH. The analysis of treatment of aggressive fibromatosis using oral methotrexate chemotherapy. Clin Orthop Surg 2014;6(4): 439–42.
- 183. Ghanem M, Heinisch A, Heyde CE, et al. Diagnosis and treatment of extraabdominal desmoid fibromatosis. GMS Interdiscip Plast Reconstr Surg DGPW 2014; 3:Doc01.
- 184. Coindre JM. New WHO classification of tumours of soft tissue and bone. Ann Pathol 2012;32(5 Suppl):S115–6 [in French].
- 185. Kucuk L, Keçeci B, Sabah D, et al. Aggressive fibromatosis: evaluation of prognostic factors and outcomes of surgical treatment. Acta Orthop Traumatol Turc 2014;48(1):55–60.
- **186.** Nishio J. Updates on the cytogenetics and molecular cytogenetics of benign and intermediate soft tissue tumors. Oncol Lett 2013;5(1):12–8.
- 187. Jo VY, Fletcher CD. Myoepithelial neoplasms of soft tissue: an updated review of the clinicopathologic, immunophenotypic, and genetic features. Head Neck Pathol 2015;9(1):32–8.
- 188. Papachristou DJ, Palekar A, Surti U, et al. Malignant granular cell tumor of the ulnar nerve with novel cytogenetic and molecular genetic findings. Cancer Genet Cytogenet 2009;191(1):46–50.
- 189. Sandberg AA. Updates on the cytogenetics and molecular genetics of bone and soft tissue tumors: leiomyoma. Cancer Genet Cytogenet 2005;158(1):1–26.
- 190. Bresler SC, Wanat KA, Elenitsas R. Giant cell tumor of soft tissue. Cutis 2014; 93(6):278, 286–8.
- 191. Kumar S, Carter LF. Giant cell tumor of soft tissue of hand: simple but rare diagnosis, which is often missed. Clin Pract 2011;1(3):e54.
- **192.** Morgan T, Atkins GJ, Trivett MK, et al. Molecular profiling of giant cell tumor of bone and the osteoclastic localization of ligand for receptor activator of nuclear factor kappaB. Am J Pathol 2005;167(1):117–28.
- 193. Rao UN, Goodman M, Chung WW, et al. Molecular analysis of primary and recurrent giant cell tumors of bone. Cancer Genet Cytogenet 2005;158(2): 126–36.
- 194. Huang L, Xu J, Wood DJ, et al. Gene expression of osteoprotegerin ligand, osteoprotegerin, and receptor activator of NF-kappaB in giant cell tumor of bone:

possible involvement in tumor cell-induced osteoclast-like cell formation. Am J Pathol 2000;156(3):761–7.

- 195. Garcia-Bennett J, Olivé CS, Rivas A, et al. Soft tissue solitary fibrous tumor. Imaging findings in a series of nine cases. Skeletal Radiol 2012;41(11):1427–33.
- 196. Asotra S, Sharma S. Giant cell tumor of soft tissue: cytological diagnosis of a case. J Cytol 2009;26(1):33–5.
- 197. Icihikawa K, Tanino R. Soft tissue giant cell tumor of low malignant potential. Tokai J Exp Clin Med 2004;29(3):91–5.
- 198. Roux S, Amazit L, Meduri G, et al. RANK (receptor activator of nuclear factor kappa B) and RANK ligand are expressed in giant cell tumors of bone. Am J Clin Pathol 2002;117(2):210–6.
- 199. Jain D, Arava S, Mishra B, et al. Soft tissue giant cell tumor of low malignant potential of mediastinum: a rare case report. Int J Surg Pathol 2015;23(1):71–4.
- 200. Guo H, Garcia RA, Perle MA, et al. Giant cell tumor of soft tissue with pulmonary metastases: pathologic and cytogenetic study. Pediatr Dev Pathol 2005;8(6): 718–24.
- 201. Kim NR, Han J. Primary giant cell tumor of soft tissue. Report of a case with fine needle aspiration cytologic and histologic findings. Acta Cytol 2003;47(6): 1103–6.
- 202. Holst VA, Elenitsas R. Primary giant cell tumor of soft tissue. J Cutan Pathol 2001;28(9):492–5.