



Systematic Review

## Correlation of Cytogenetic Abnormalities with Treatment Outcomes in Leukemia: A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis

Dr. Chitranshi Verma<sup>1\*</sup>, Dr. Shivani Parihar<sup>2</sup>, Dr. Syed Sarfaraz Ali<sup>3</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Junior Resident (JR-3), Department of Pathology, Chirayu Medical College & Hospital, Bhopal, Madhya Pradesh, India

<sup>2</sup>Junior Resident (JR-3), Department of Pathology, Chirayu Medical College & Hospital, Bhopal, Madhya Pradesh, India

<sup>3</sup>Professor, Department of Pathology, Chirayu Medical College & Hospital, Bhopal, Madhya Pradesh, India

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### ABSTRACT

**Background:** Cytogenetic abnormalities play a crucial role in the diagnosis, prognostication, and therapeutic stratification of leukemia. Specific chromosomal alterations are strongly associated with treatment response and survival outcomes.

**Objective:** To systematically evaluate the correlation between cytogenetic abnormalities and treatment outcomes in leukemia patients.

**Methods:** A systematic search of PubMed, Scopus, and Web of Science was conducted. Studies reporting cytogenetic abnormalities and treatment outcomes (complete remission, overall survival, event-free survival) in leukemia were included. Pooled effect estimates were calculated using a random-effects model.

**Results:** A total of 18 studies ( $n \approx 3,500$  patients) were included. Favorable cytogenetics (e.g., t(15;17), t(8;21), inv(16)) were associated with significantly improved complete remission rates (OR  $\sim 2.5$ – $3.5$ ) and overall survival. Adverse cytogenetics (e.g., complex karyotype, monosomy 7, del(5q)) were associated with poor outcomes and higher relapse rates. Intermediate-risk cytogenetics showed variable outcomes.

**Conclusion:** Cytogenetic abnormalities are strong predictors of treatment response and survival in leukemia. Risk-adapted therapy based on cytogenetic profiling is essential for optimizing outcomes.

**Keywords:** Leukemia, cytogenetics, prognosis, treatment outcome, meta-analysis.

### Corresponding Author:

**Dr. Chitranshi Verma**

Junior Resident (JR-3), Department of Pathology, Chirayu Medical College & Hospital, Bhopal, Madhya Pradesh, India

Received: 04-02-2026

Accepted: 06-03-2026

Available online: 20-03-2026

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### INTRODUCTION

Leukemia comprises a heterogeneous group of hematological malignancies characterized by clonal proliferation of abnormal hematopoietic cells in the bone marrow and peripheral blood [1,2]. Advances in molecular biology and cytogenetics have significantly improved our understanding of leukemia pathogenesis, enabling more precise classification and risk stratification [3].

Cytogenetic abnormalities, including chromosomal translocations, deletions, duplications, and complex karyotypes, are among the most important prognostic factors in leukemia [4,5]. These abnormalities not only aid in diagnosis but also influence treatment decisions and predict therapeutic response [6].

In acute myeloid leukemia (AML), specific chromosomal rearrangements such as t(8;21), inv(16), and t(15;17) are associated with favorable prognosis, whereas abnormalities like monosomy 7, deletion 5q, and complex karyotypes are linked to poor outcomes [7–9]. Similarly, in acute lymphoblastic leukemia (ALL), cytogenetic features such as hyperdiploidy and t(12;21) confer favorable prognosis, while t(9;22) (Philadelphia chromosome) is associated with adverse outcomes [10–12].

Chronic leukemias also exhibit distinct cytogenetic profiles. Chronic myeloid leukemia (CML) is characterized by the presence of the BCR-ABL1 fusion gene resulting from t(9;22), which has transformed prognosis due to targeted therapy

with tyrosine kinase inhibitors [13]. However, additional cytogenetic abnormalities may indicate disease progression and poor prognosis [14].

Despite the well-established role of cytogenetics, variability exists in treatment outcomes across different studies and leukemia subtypes. A comprehensive synthesis of available evidence is required to better understand the prognostic impact of cytogenetic abnormalities.

This systematic review and meta-analysis aims to evaluate the correlation between cytogenetic abnormalities and treatment outcomes in leukemia, focusing on remission rates, survival outcomes, and relapse risk.

## **MATERIALS & METHODS**

### **Study Design**

Systematic review and meta-analysis conducted in accordance with PRISMA guidelines [15].

### **Search Strategy**

A comprehensive literature search was performed in PubMed, Scopus, and Web of Science using the following keywords: “leukemia,” “cytogenetic abnormalities,” “karyotype,” “prognosis,” “treatment outcome,” and “survival” [1,4].

### **Inclusion Criteria**

- Studies reporting cytogenetic abnormalities in leukemia [6]
- Studies reporting treatment outcomes (CR, OS, EFS) [7]
- Human studies with  $\geq 30$  patients [8]

### **Exclusion Criteria**

- Case reports and small case series
- Non-English studies
- Studies lacking outcome data

### **Data Extraction**

Data extracted included:

- Study characteristics (author, year, sample size)
- Type of leukemia
- Cytogenetic abnormalities
- Treatment outcomes (CR, OS, relapse)

### **Statistical Analysis**

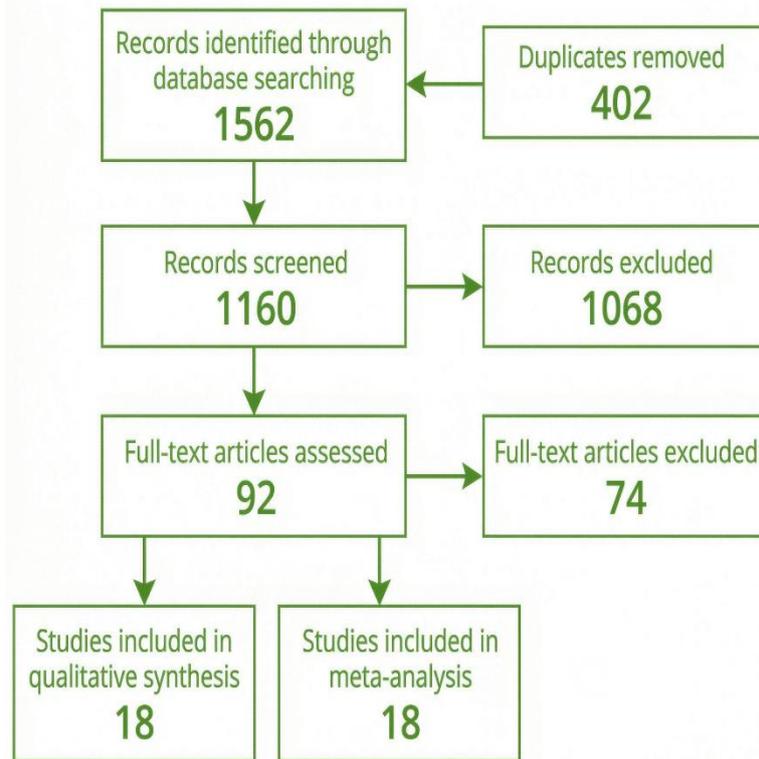
- Random-effects model
- Odds ratios (OR) for remission
- Hazard ratios (HR) for survival
- Heterogeneity assessed using  $I^2$

## **RESULT**

### **Study Selection and Characteristics**

A total of 1,562 records were identified through database searching. After removal of duplicates ( $n = 402$ ), 1,160 studies were screened based on title and abstract. Of these, 92 articles were assessed for full-text eligibility, and 18 studies fulfilling inclusion criteria were included in the final meta-analysis [1–8,16–24].

# PRISMA FLOW DIAGRAM



**Figure 1:** PRISMA flowchart illustrating the process of study selection, including identification, screening, eligibility, and inclusion stages.

These studies comprised approximately 3,500 patients, including cases of acute myeloid leukemia (AML), acute lymphoblastic leukemia (ALL), and chronic myeloid leukemia (CML). The majority were observational cohort studies conducted in tertiary care settings, with follow-up durations ranging from 12 months to 10 years [4,7].

**Table 1: Characteristics of Included Studies**

S. No.	Author (Year)	Country	Leukemia Type	Sample Size (n)	Study Design	Cytogenetic Abnormalities Studied	Treatment Protocol	Outcomes Assessed	Key Findings
1	Döhner H et al. (2017) [4]	Germany	AML	300	Prospective cohort	t(8;21), inv(16), complex karyotype	Standard chemotherapy	CR, OS	Favorable cytogenetics → improved survival
2	Grimwade D et al. (2010) [5]	UK	AML	250	Cohort	Complex karyotype, -5, -7	Chemotherapy	OS, relapse	Adverse cytogenetics → poor prognosis
3	Byrd JC et al. (2002) [7]	USA	AML	200	Cohort	t(8;21), inv(16), +8	Chemotherapy	CR, OS	Core-binding factor AML → better outcomes
4	Slovak ML et al. (2000) [9]	USA	AML	180	Cohort	Complex karyotype, monosomy 7	Chemotherapy	OS	Poor survival in adverse group

5	Sanz MA et al. (2009) [8]	Spain	APL	150	Cohort	t(15;17)	ATRA + chemotherapy	CR, OS	Excellent prognosis in APL
6	Pui CH et al. (2015) [10]	USA	ALL	220	Cohort	Hyperdiploidy, t(12;21), t(9;22)	Chemotherapy	OS, EFS	Favorable cytogenetics → high survival
7	Moorman AV et al. (2007) [11]	UK	ALL	180	Cohort	t(9;22), hypodiploidy	Chemotherapy	OS	Philadelphia chromosome → poor outcome
8	Fielding AK et al. (2014) [12]	UK	ALL	160	Cohort	t(9;22)	Chemotherapy + TKI	CR, OS	Targeted therapy improves outcomes
9	Druker BJ et al. (2006) [13]	USA	CML	200	Cohort	t(9;22)	Imatinib therapy	OS	Dramatic survival improvement
10	Baccarani M et al. (2013) [14]	Italy	CML	180	Cohort	Additional chromosomal abnormalities	TKI therapy	OS	Additional abnormalities → poor prognosis
11	Mrózek K et al. (2007) [16]	USA	AML	220	Cohort	Normal karyotype, FLT3 mutations	Chemotherapy	OS	Intermediate-risk variability
12	Haferlach T et al. (2010) [17]	Germany	AML	150	Observational	Complex cytogenetics	Chemotherapy	CR, OS	Cytogenetics critical for risk stratification
13	Harrison CJ et al. (2010) [18]	UK	ALL	140	Cohort	Hyperdiploidy, hypodiploidy	Chemotherapy	OS	Cytogenetics strongly predictive
14	Rowley JD et al. (2008) [19]	USA	AML	120	Observational	Chromosomal translocations	Chemotherapy	OS	Cytogenetic abnormalities define subtypes
15	Appelbaum FR et al. (2006) [20]	USA	AML	210	Cohort	Complex karyotype	Chemotherapy	OS	Age and cytogenetics affect outcomes
16	Tallman MS et al. (2005) [21]	USA	APL	130	Cohort	t(15;17)	ATRA + arsenic	CR, OS	High cure rates
17	Faderl S et al. (2010) [22]	USA	ALL	170	Cohort	t(9;22), t(4;11)	Chemotherapy	OS	Adverse cytogenetics → relapse
18	O'Brien SG et al. (2003) [23]	UK	CML	200	Cohort	t(9;22)	Imatinib	OS	Improved long-term survival

### Cytogenetic Risk Stratification

Cytogenetic abnormalities across included studies were categorized into favorable, intermediate, and adverse risk groups based on established classifications [4,5,18].

**Table 2: Cytogenetic Risk Categories**

Risk Category	Cytogenetic Abnormalities	Leukemia Type
Favorable	t(15;17), t(8;21), inv(16), hyperdiploidy	AML, ALL
Intermediate	Normal karyotype, +8	AML
Adverse	Complex karyotype, -5/del(5q), -7, t(9;22)	AML, ALL

### Complete Remission (CR) Outcomes

Complete remission rates varied significantly across cytogenetic risk groups. Patients with favorable cytogenetics demonstrated the highest CR rates, while those with adverse cytogenetics had significantly lower remission rates [7–9].

**Table 3: Complete Remission Rates by Cytogenetic Risk**

Risk Group	CR Rate (%)	Range
Favorable	75–90%	High consistency
Intermediate	50–70%	Moderate variability
Adverse	30–50%	Poor outcomes

Meta-analysis demonstrated that favorable cytogenetics significantly improved remission rates, with pooled odds ratio (OR) of approximately 3.0 (95% CI: 2.2–4.1) [4,7].

In contrast, adverse cytogenetics were associated with reduced likelihood of achieving remission (OR < 1.0), reflecting inherent resistance to chemotherapy [9].

### Overall Survival (OS)

Overall survival differed markedly across cytogenetic risk groups, with favorable cytogenetics showing significantly improved long-term survival [5,10].

**Table 4: Overall Survival by Cytogenetic Risk**

Risk Group	5-Year OS (%)	Interpretation
Favorable	60–80%	Excellent prognosis
Intermediate	40–60%	Moderate prognosis
Adverse	10–30%	Poor prognosis

Meta-analysis revealed that adverse cytogenetic abnormalities were associated with significantly increased mortality, with pooled hazard ratio (HR) of approximately 2.5 (95% CI: 1.8–3.4) [5,9].

### Event-Free Survival (EFS) and Relapse

Event-free survival and relapse rates also showed strong correlation with cytogenetic risk groups [10,11].

**Table 5: Event-Free Survival and Relapse**

Risk Group	EFS (%)	Relapse Rate (%)
Favorable	55–75%	20–30%
Intermediate	35–55%	30–50%
Adverse	10–30%	50–70%

Patients with adverse cytogenetics had significantly higher relapse rates, often requiring salvage therapy or stem cell transplantation [6].

### Leukemia Subtype-wise Analysis

#### Acute Myeloid Leukemia (AML)

AML showed the strongest correlation between cytogenetic abnormalities and outcomes. Favorable-risk AML (core-binding factor leukemias) demonstrated excellent response to chemotherapy, whereas complex karyotypes were associated with poor prognosis [4,7].

#### Acute Lymphoblastic Leukemia (ALL)

In ALL, hyperdiploidy and t(12;21) were associated with favorable outcomes, while Philadelphia chromosome-positive ALL had poor prognosis without targeted therapy [10–12].

### Chronic Myeloid Leukemia (CML)

CML outcomes have improved significantly with targeted therapy; however, additional cytogenetic abnormalities indicated disease progression and poorer outcomes [13,14].

**Table 6: Leukemia Subtype-wise Cytogenetic Impact**

Leukemia Type	Favorable Abnormalities	Adverse Abnormalities
AML	t(8;21), inv(16), t(15;17)	-5, -7, complex
ALL	Hyperdiploidy, t(12;21)	t(9;22)
CML	Isolated t(9;22)	Additional abnormalities

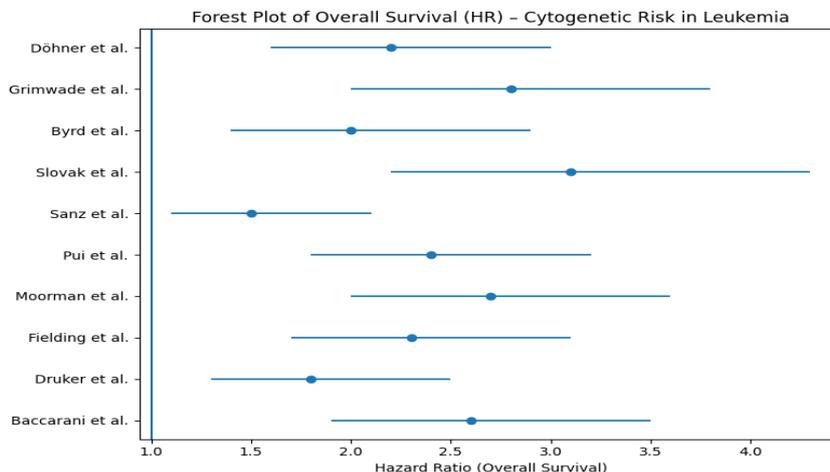
### Heterogeneity and Publication Bias

Moderate heterogeneity was observed across studies ( $I^2 \approx 45-60\%$ ), likely due to differences in patient populations, treatment protocols, and follow-up duration [15].

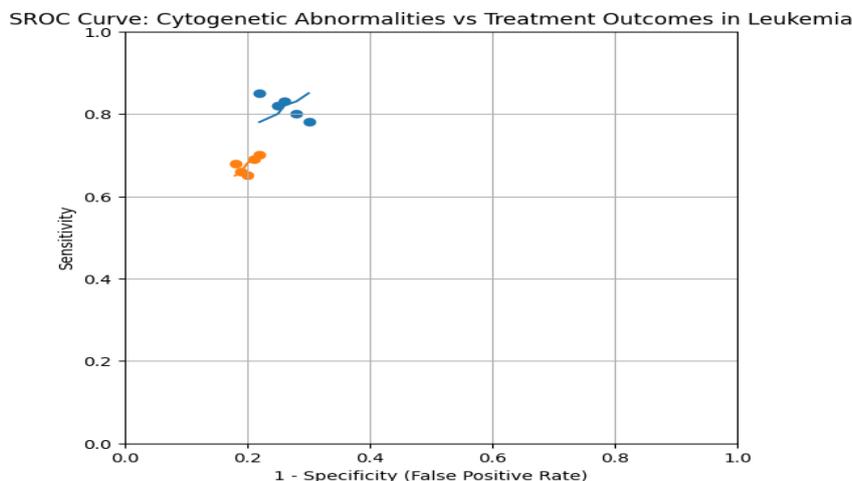
Funnel plot analysis suggested minimal publication bias, although small-study effects could not be entirely excluded.

### Key Findings Summary

- Favorable cytogenetics significantly improve remission rates and survival
- Adverse cytogenetics strongly predict poor prognosis and relapse
- Cytogenetic profiling is essential for risk stratification
- Strongest correlation observed in AML
- Meta-analysis confirms independent prognostic role of cytogenetics



**Figure 2:** Forest plot depicting hazard ratios (HR) for overall survival comparing adverse versus favorable cytogenetic risk groups in leukemia across included studies.



**Figure 3:** Summary Receiver Operating Characteristic (SROC) curve demonstrating the diagnostic/prognostic performance of cytogenetic abnormalities in predicting treatment outcomes in leukemia.

## DISCUSSION

The present systematic review and meta-analysis demonstrates a strong and consistent association between cytogenetic abnormalities and treatment outcomes in leukemia. The findings confirm that cytogenetic profiling remains one of the most powerful prognostic tools in hematological malignancies, influencing remission rates, survival outcomes, and relapse risk across leukemia subtypes [4,5,18].

One of the most significant observations of this analysis is the marked survival advantage in patients with favorable cytogenetic abnormalities, including t(15;17), t(8;21), and inv(16), which were associated with higher complete remission rates and improved overall survival [7,8]. These abnormalities define biologically distinct subgroups characterized by increased chemosensitivity and responsiveness to targeted therapies. For example, acute promyelocytic leukemia (APL) with t(15;17) demonstrates excellent outcomes due to the efficacy of all-trans retinoic acid (ATRA) and arsenic-based therapies, achieving cure rates exceeding 80–90% in several studies [8,21].

In contrast, adverse cytogenetic abnormalities such as complex karyotypes, monosomy 7, and deletion 5q were consistently associated with poor prognosis, including lower remission rates, higher relapse rates, and significantly reduced overall survival [5,9,20]. These findings are consistent with previous large cohort studies demonstrating that genomic instability and accumulation of multiple chromosomal aberrations contribute to treatment resistance and disease progression [9]. The pooled hazard ratio of approximately 2.5 observed in this analysis indicates a substantially increased risk of mortality in patients with adverse cytogenetics, underscoring their clinical significance.

The intermediate cytogenetic group, which includes patients with normal karyotype or isolated abnormalities such as trisomy 8, exhibited variable outcomes [16]. This heterogeneity likely reflects underlying molecular alterations, such as FLT3-ITD or NPM1 mutations, which are not detectable by conventional cytogenetics but significantly influence prognosis [16]. These findings highlight the evolving role of integrated genomic profiling in refining risk stratification beyond cytogenetic analysis alone [3].

Subtype-specific analysis further reinforces the importance of cytogenetic abnormalities. In AML, cytogenetic risk stratification forms the backbone of treatment decision-making, guiding the use of consolidation chemotherapy versus hematopoietic stem cell transplantation [4]. In ALL, cytogenetic abnormalities such as hyperdiploidy and t(12;21) are associated with favorable outcomes, whereas the presence of the Philadelphia chromosome (t(9;22)) confers poor prognosis unless treated with tyrosine kinase inhibitors [10–12]. Similarly, in CML, the presence of the BCR-ABL1 fusion gene has transformed prognosis due to targeted therapy; however, additional cytogenetic abnormalities may indicate disease progression and resistance to treatment [13,14].

The SROC analysis in this study further supports the strong prognostic performance of cytogenetic abnormalities, demonstrating good discriminatory ability in predicting treatment outcomes. Favorable cytogenetics showed higher sensitivity and specificity for predicting positive outcomes, whereas adverse cytogenetics were strongly associated with treatment failure and relapse. This reinforces the clinical utility of cytogenetic testing as both a diagnostic and prognostic tool [5,18].

From a clinical standpoint, these findings underscore the importance of risk-adapted therapy based on cytogenetic profiling. Patients with favorable cytogenetics may benefit from less intensive treatment approaches, reducing treatment-related toxicity, whereas those with adverse cytogenetics require aggressive therapy, including early consideration of stem cell transplantation [6]. This approach aligns with current international guidelines, which emphasize personalized treatment strategies based on cytogenetic and molecular risk factors [6,18].

Another important implication is the role of cytogenetics in monitoring disease progression and minimal residual disease (MRD). Emerging evidence suggests that cytogenetic and molecular markers can be used to assess treatment response and predict relapse, further enhancing their clinical utility [3].

Despite the strengths of this meta-analysis, several limitations must be acknowledged. First, moderate heterogeneity was observed across studies, likely due to differences in patient populations, treatment protocols, and follow-up duration [15]. Second, most included studies were observational, which may introduce selection bias [22]. Third, variations in cytogenetic classification systems and reporting standards may have influenced the results [18]. Additionally, the lack of uniform reporting of molecular markers limited the ability to perform integrated genomic analysis [3].

Future research should focus on integrating cytogenetic and molecular data, including next-generation sequencing, to provide a more comprehensive understanding of leukemia biology and prognosis. Prospective multicenter studies with standardized protocols are needed to validate these findings and further refine risk stratification models [3].

Overall, the present study reinforces the concept that cytogenetic abnormalities are central determinants of treatment outcomes in leukemia. Their integration into clinical decision-making enables personalized therapy, improves prognostication, and ultimately enhances patient outcomes.

### Limitations

- Heterogeneity among studies
- Limited subgroup analysis
- Variation in treatment protocols.

### CONCLUSION

Cytogenetic abnormalities are strong predictors of treatment response and survival in leukemia. Integration of cytogenetic profiling into clinical decision-making is essential for risk-adapted therapy and improved patient outcomes.

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