Academic lectures for general medicine students – 3rd Year 2004 - 2015 DENTISTRY PATHOPHYSIOLOGY

NEOPLASMS

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Epidemiology

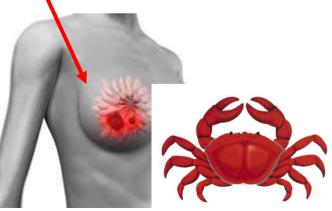
Incidency of neoplasmsNew variants of tumors

Neoplasms - history

- Evidences of bone tumors were found in prehistoric remains of homo sapiens and predestors. Description of disease found in early writings from *India, Egypt, Babylonia,* and *Greece*.
- Hippocrates distinguished benign from malignant growths; introduced the term *karkinos* (in Latin *cancer*) presumably because a cancer adheres to any part that it seizes upon in an obstinate manner like the crab.
- Hippocrates described in detail cancer of the breast, and in the 2nd century AD, Paul of Aegina commented on its frequency.
- Over the decades paleoarchaeologists have made about 200 possible cancer sightings dating to prehistoric times. The oldest known case of metastasizing prostate cancer was found in Scythian burial mound in the Russian region of Tuva.
- Terminology comes form greek and latin words:
- Neoplasia the process of "new growth," and a new growth called a neoplasm.
- Tumor originally applied to the swelling caused by inflammation. Neoplasms also may induce swellings. Nonneoplastic usage of tumor has passed; the term is now equated with neoplasm.
- Oncology (Greek oncos = tumor) the study of tumors. Cancer is the common term for all malignant tumors.



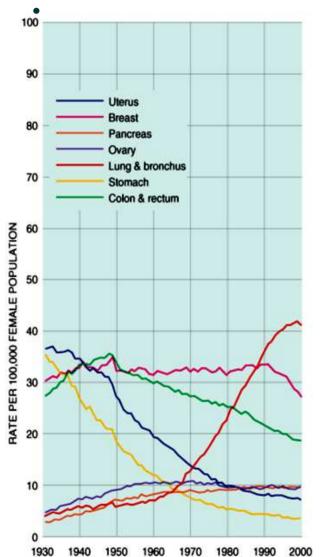
Karkinos was giant crab which came to the aid of the hydra in battle against Hérakles

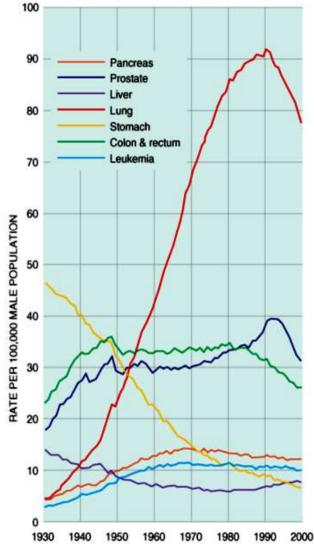


Incidency of neoplasms in US

Conclusions

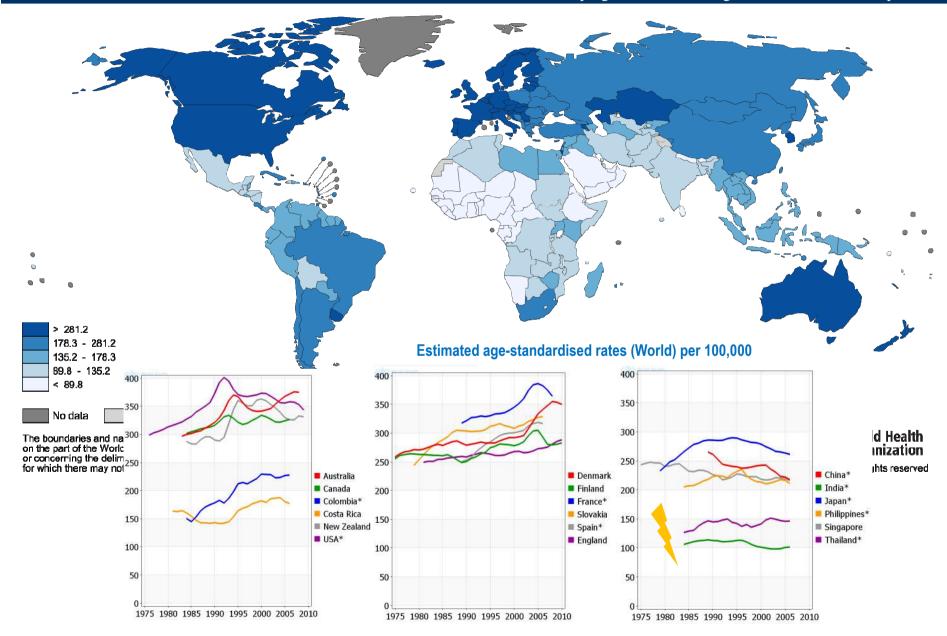
- Incidence of neoplastic disease increases with age. But there are age-related specific tumors
- Overall incidence of cancer increased because of greater longevity in modern times
- In past humans died mostly from infectious diseases, did not live long enough to develop cancers of middle and old age
- Spectrum of cancers remains likely the same over the time
- Occurrence of particular forms of cancer change with age
- Tumors of uterus, stomach, liver decresed over half-century other other like ovary, prostate breast, pancreas remain little changed, tumour of liver and leukemia returned. Lung cancer is clearly on the sustained rise mainly in women.





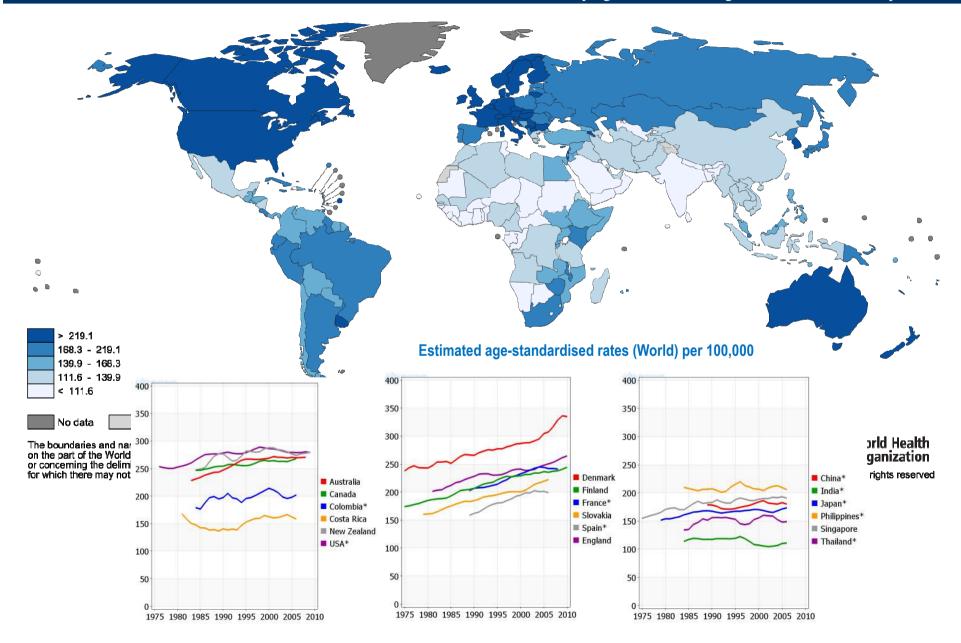
Estimated Cancer Incidence Worldwide : Men

Resource : http://globocan.iarc.fr/Pages/fact_sheets_cancer.aspx

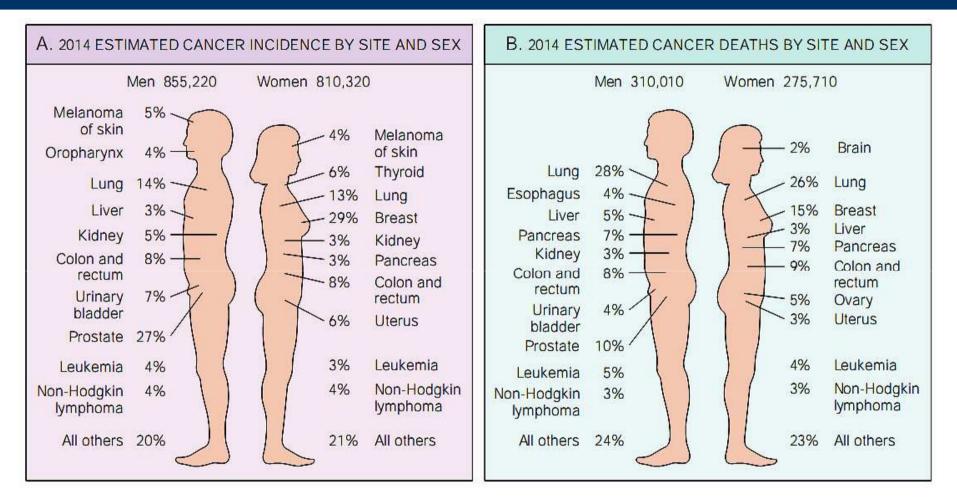


Estimated Cancer Incidence Worldwide : Women

Resource : http://globocan.iarc.fr/Pages/fact_sheets_cancer.aspx



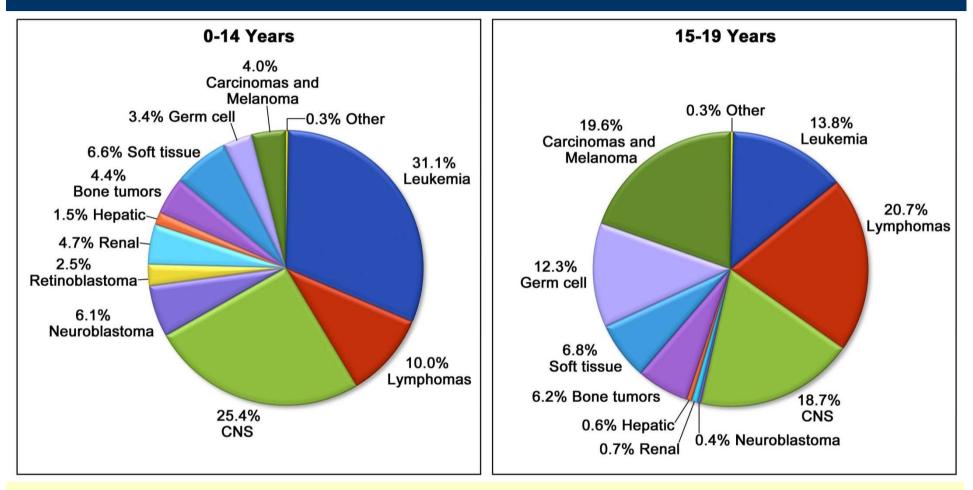
Cancer incidency and death rate by site and sex



- No increase in age-adjusted cancer death rate in men in the past 50y. Continually decreasing rate in women.
- Death rate of lung cancer in humans (women and men in average) is ~ 2x higher than any other cancer

The incidence of breast cancer is ~ 2x higher than any other cancer in women; incidence of prostate cancer is ~ 2x higher than any other cancer in men.

Occurence of tumors before 20th year of life



- Up to 40% of tumors in childhood are haematological leukemias and lymphomas; cca 30 % are tumors of CNS (brain and spinal cord; 6-7% from that is neuroblastoma, kidney tumors 5-6%, tumors of bones 5%, tunmors from muscles (rhamdomyosarcoma) 4%, retinoblastoma 3%.
- Cancer of testes and ovaries represent 13 % in postpubertal age, melanomas and skin carcinoma up to 20%, around 30% are hematological and 19% brain tumors.

Oral cancer

- Oral cancer (mouth cancer) is a type of head and neck cancer and is any cancerous tissue growth located in the oral cavity
- Oral cancers may originate in any of the tissues of the mouth, and may be of varied histologic types: teratoma, adenocarcinoma derived from a major or minor salivary gland, lymphoma from tonsillar or other lymphoid tissue, or melanoma from the pigment-producing cells of the oral mucosa. 90% are squamous cell carcinomas less commonly other types of oral cancer occur, such as Kaposi's sarcoma.
- In the US oral cancer accounts for ~8% percent of all malignant growths. Men are affected 2x as often as women, particularly men older than 40y. in 2013 oral cancer resulted in 135,000 deaths as compared to 84,000 deaths in 1990; five-year survival rates in the United States are 63%
- Early stage symptoms can include persistent red or white patches, a non-healing ulcer, progressive swelling or enlargement, unusual surface changes
- Late stage symptoms can include an indurated area, paresthesia or dysesthesia of the tongue or lips, airway obstruction, chronic serous otitis media, otalgia, trismus, dysphagia, cervical lymphadenopathy

Risk factors for development of oral cancer

75 % of oral cancers are linked to modifiable risk factors

1. Smoking. Cigarette, cigar, or pipe smokers are ~**6x more likely** to develop oral cancers than nonsmokers.

2. Smokeless tobacco use. Users of dip, snuff, or chewing tobacco products are ~50x more likely to develop cancers of the cheek, gums, and lining of the lips.

2. Excessive consumption of alcohol. Oral cancers are ~ **6x more common** in drinkers than in nondrinkers.

Family history of cancer.

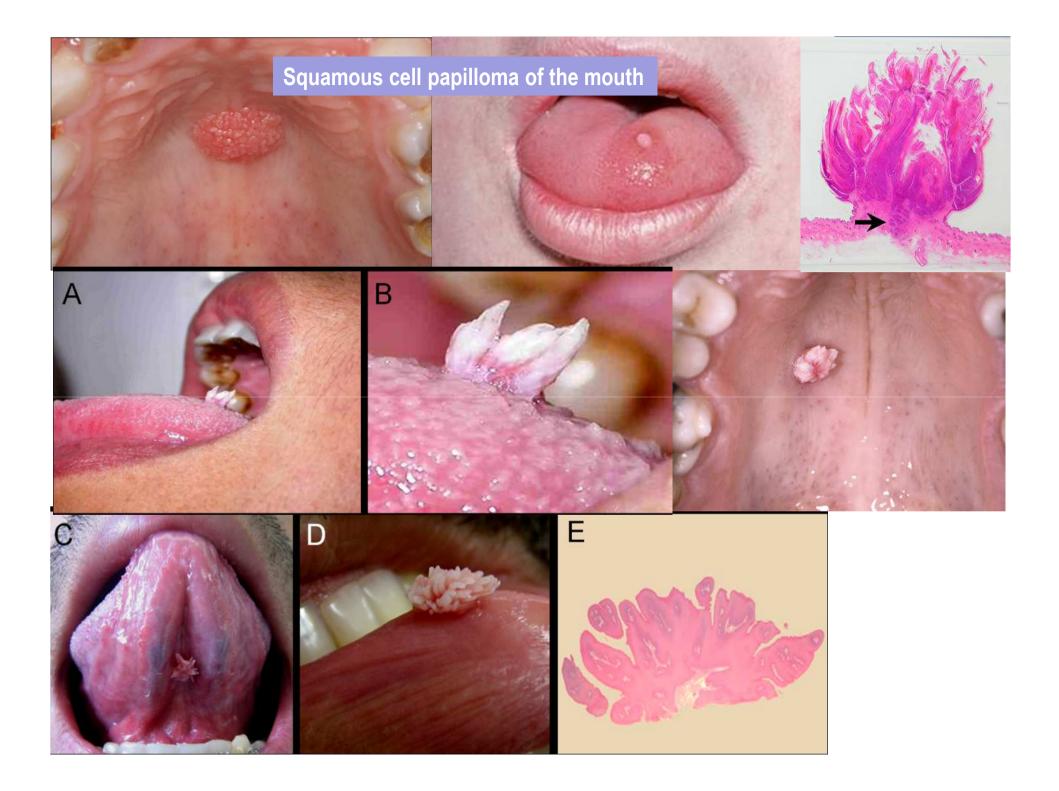
3. Excessive sun exposure, especially at a young age.

4. Human papillomavirus (HPV). Certain HPV strains are etiologic risk factors for Oropharyngeal Squamous Cell Carcinoma (OSCC) Infection with human papillomavirus (HPV), particularly type 16 (there are over 180 types), is a known risk factor and independent causative factor for oral cancer
5. Other factors include poor oral hygiene, irritation caused by ill-fitting dentures and other rough surfaces on the teeth, poor nutrition and chronic infections caused by fungi, bacteria or viruses.
6. Chewing betel, paan and Areca is known to be a strong risk factor for developing oral cancer. In India where such practices are common, oral cancer represents up to 40% of all cancers,

Oral tumours

Squamous cell papilloma of the mouth

- 4th-most common oral mucosal mass; benign tumor that do not generally mutate to cancerous .
- people between the 30 and 50y, 3–4% of all biopsied oral soft tissue lesions; most usually a result of the infection with types HPV-6 and HPV-11 (human papilloma virus)
- well circumscribed pedunculated tumor with a roughened, verrucous or 'cauliflower like' surface; consists of finger like projections mostly few millimeters in diameter; multiple or clustered individual lesions measure from several mm to cm; appears white due to considerable surface keratin, sometimes pink in color
- found most commonly on the tongue, inside of lips, buccal mucosa, gingiva and palate, particularly that area adjacent to the uvula
- usually painless unless they interfere with eating or are causing pain



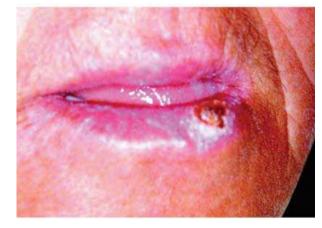
Keratoacanthoma

- owgrade "self-healing malignancy" originating in the pilosebaceous glands (variant of invasive squamous cell carcinoma).
- Occ:relatively common; all age groups, increases with age; 2:1 = M.F less common in darker skinned individuals
- Etio: cause unclear; sunlight important, chemical carcinogens (smokers, workers exposed to pitch and tar), trauma, human papilloma virus (specifically types 9, 11, 13, 16, 18, 24, 25, 33, 37, and 57), genetic chromosomal aberrations such as gains on 8q, 1p, and 9q with deletions on 3p, 9p, 19p, and 19q.
- Clin: sun-exposed areas face as, neck, upper extremities are common sites;
 8.1% on the lips, inside mouth rare
- solitary firm, round, reddish papules that rapidly progress (six- to eightweek) to dome-shaped nodules with a smooth shiny surface and a central crateriform ulceration or keratin plug that may project like a horn; 1.0 to 1.5 cm in diameter.
- persists 4-8 weeks, then undergoes spontaneous regression



Keratoacanthoma









Premalignant lesions of oral cavity

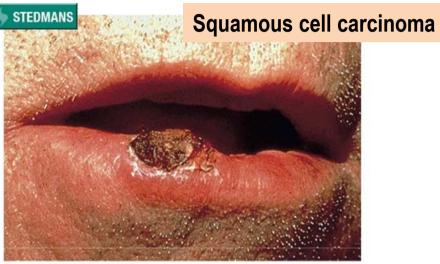
- A premalignant (or precancerous) lesion benign, morphologically altered cells, tissues that has a greater than normal risk of malignant transformation. There are several different types of premalignant lesion that occur : common premalignant lesions in the mouth include
- Lichen planus/lichenoid lesions were the most common lesions (1.8%)
- Leukoplakia (0.48%; white patches, erythroplakia ((0.096%; red patches) or erythroleukoplakia or "speckled leukoplakia (mixed red and white patches).
- Oral lichen planus (particularly the erosive type), actinic cheilitis, and oral submucous fibrosis (occurs almost exclusively in India and Indian communities living abroad, limited opening of mouth and burning sensation on eating of spicy food).
- Chronic hyperplastic candidiosis (0.38%)

Malignant tumors of oral cavity



Kaposi sarcoma



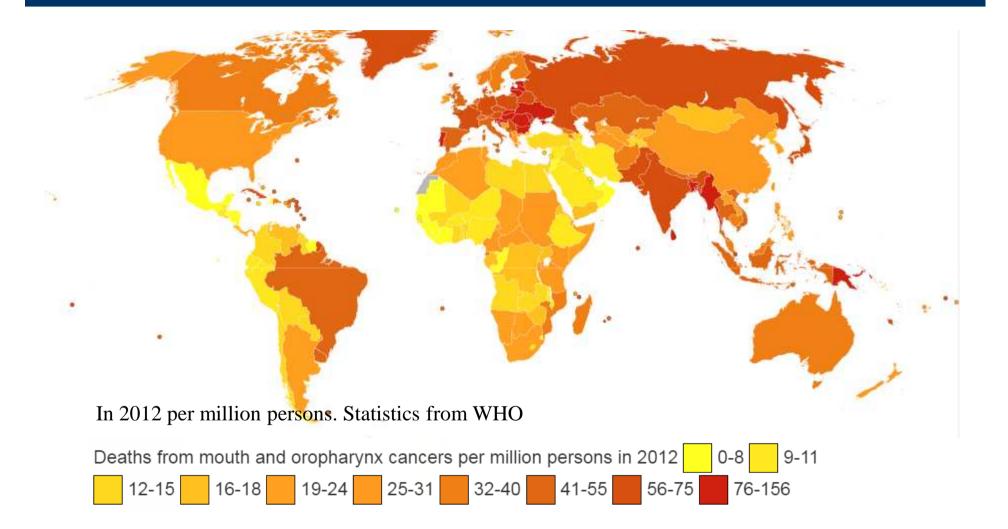


squamous cell carcinoma (lip)



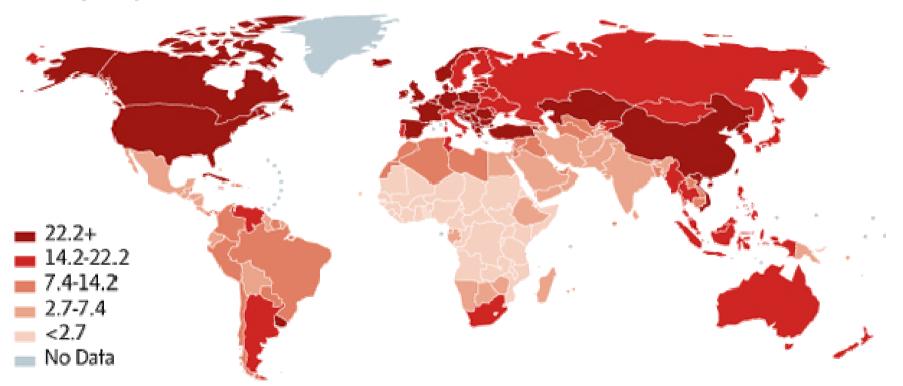
FIGURE 3: Squamous cell carcinoma of the lip: shallow ulcer with infiltrated border and covered with scales and crusts. Borderline ulcerated lesion (ulcerated actinic cheilitis, histologically)

Deaths from mouth and oropharynx cancers



Lung cancer

Mortality rate per 100,000, both sexes



- most common and deadliest cancer in the world, with an estimated 1.8 million new cases and 1.59 million deaths in 2012.
- going up for women and down for men
- smoking rates is highest in Central and Eastern Europe (53.5 new cases per 100,000 people in 2012), and lowest in West Africa (1.7 new cases per 100,000)

Characteristics of the tumor cells

Benign tumorsMalignant tumors

General considerations

- Tumors are genetic, mostly non-hereditary disorders, which develop due to specific mutations in the specific genes of the somatic cells (less commonly in germ cells)
- These specific genes those regulating cell growth (cell cycle movement in response to mitogenic signals, DNA repair and apoptosis) Tumorigenic mutations must render them the capacity to grow and multiply in excess of other cell, and to do that autonomously, irrespective of body needs.
- Not every mutation in these genes is tumorigenic (neoplastic); actually, most of them are out of effect or, on contrary, they induce degradation, or atrophy
- Neoplasms are derived from cells that normally maintain a proliferative capacity (i.e. mature neurons and cardiac myocytes do not give rise to tumors). In general, neoplasms are irreversible.
- Tumours do not develop overnight; it is rather long term progress. Unfortunately, we are not aware of that, only in time when tumor is manifested clinically.
- Many tumor are likely developing w/o our notice. These are eradicated by immunological control.
- A tumor may express varying degrees of differentiation, from relatively mature structures that mimic normal tissues to a collection of cells so primitive that the cell of origin cannot be identified.
- The stimulus (exact reason) responsible for the uncontrolled proliferation may not be identifiable; in fact, it is not known for most human neoplasms.

Benign and malignant tumours

- Benign tumors are histologically and cytologically similar to their tissues of origin.
- The gross structure of a benign tumor may depart from the normal and/or papillary or polypoid configurations (papillomas of the bladder and skin and adenomatous polyps of the colon). Lining epithelium of a benign tumor resembles that of the normal tissue.
- Capsule. Many benign tumors are circumscribed by a connective tissue capsule, many benign neoplasms are not encapsulated (papillomas and polyps of the visceral organs, hepatic adenomas, many endocrine adenomas, and hemangiomas.
- Definition of a benign tumor resides above all in its inability to invade adjacent tissue and inability to metastasize.

- Malignant neoplasms range from well differentiated to undifferentiated.
- Lack of differentiation anaplasia
 ("to form backward,") = reversion
 from a high level of differentiation to
 a lower level

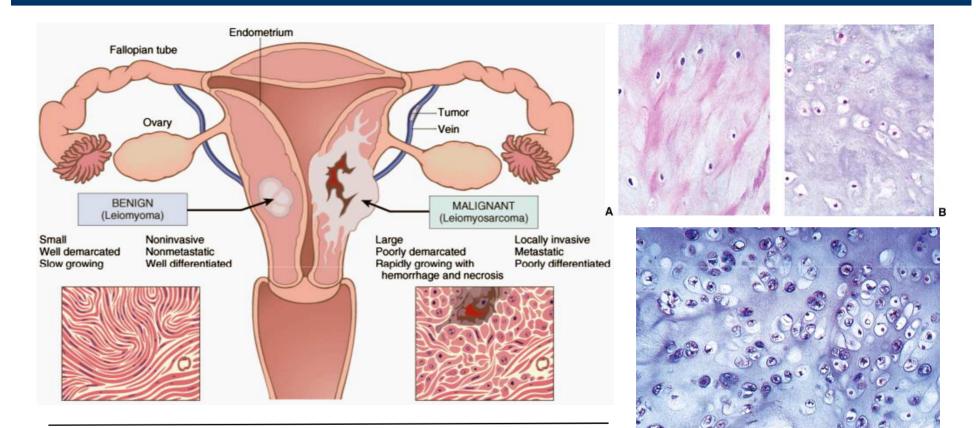
(A) *well-differentiated cancer* - evolves from maturation or specialization of undifferentiated cells as they proliferate

(B) *undifferentiated malignant tumor* (anaplastic) derives from proliferation without complete maturation of the transformed cells. most cancers arise from stem cells that are present in all specialized tissues and do not represent "reverse differentiation" of mature normal cells

Terminology

Tissue of Origin	Benign	Malignant
Connective tissue and derivatives	Fibroma Lipoma Chondroma Osteoma	Fibrosarcoma Liposarcoma Chondrosarcoma Osteogenic sarcoma
Endothelial and related tissues	Hemangioma Lymphangioma	Angiosarcoma Lymphangiosarcoma Synovial sarcoma, Mesothelioma
Brain coverings	Meningioma	Invasive meningioma
Blood cells and related cells		Leukemias, Lymphomas
Muscles	Leiomyoma Rhabdomyoma	Leiomyosarcoma Rhabdomyosarcoma
Tumors of epithelial origin	Squamous cell papilloma Adenoma Papilloma Cystadenoma Bronchial adenoma Renal tubular adenoma Liver cell adenoma Transitional cell papilloma Hydatidiform mole	Squamous cell carcinoma Adenocarcinoma Papillary carcinomas Cystadenocarcinoma Bronchogenic carcinoma Renal cell carcinoma Hepatocellular carcinoma Transitional cell carcinoma Choriocarcinoma

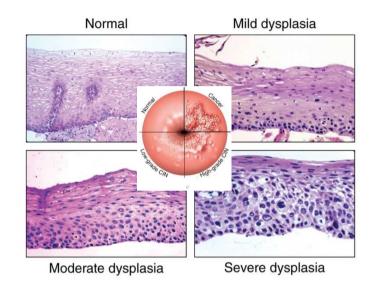
Comparison of benign and malignant tumor

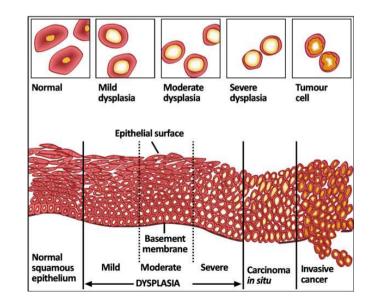


Hyperplasia (proliferation of cells)
Metaplasia (conversion in cell type)
Dysplasia (change in cell or tissue phenotype)
Anaplasia (structural differentation loss within cell or group of cells)
Neoplasia (abnormal proliferation)

Proliferative changes in cellular population

- **METAPLASIA** reversible replacement of one differentiated cell type with another **mature differentiated cell type** more suited to the new environment
- part of normal maturation process or caused by some sort of abnormal stimulus.
- secretory columnar epithelium with stratified squamous epithelium (squamous metaplasia)
- **DYSPLASIA** expansion of immature cells, with a decrease in the number and location of mature cells. Indicative of an early neoplastic process
- epithelial dysplasia of the cervix (cervical intraepithelial neoplasia) – detected by an abnormal pap smear) an increased population of immature (basal-like) restricted to the mucosal surface, vaginal intraepithelial dysplasia, vulvar intraepithelial dysplasia.
- Myelodysplastic syndromes, or dysplasia of bloodforming cells, show increased numbers of immature cells in the bone marrow, and a decrease in mature, functional cells in the blood.





Malignant tumour growth (cont)

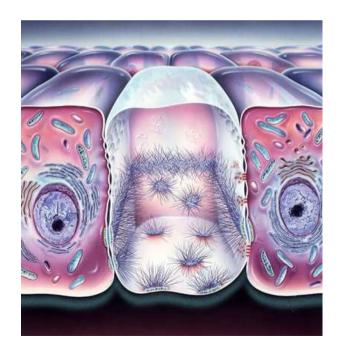
ANAPLASIA - is marked by a number of morphologic changes:

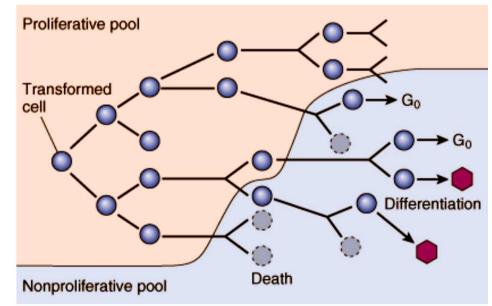
- Pleomorphism variation in size and shape of the cells and the nuclei (may be many times larger than their neighbors or extremely small and primitive appearing)
- Nuclear abnormalities shape is very variable from cell to cell, chromatin is often coarsely clumped and distributed along the nuclear membrane, the nuclei are disproportionately <u>large</u>, nucleoli are usually <u>large</u>; nucleus-to-cytoplasm ratio may approach 1:1 (instead of the normal 1:4 or 1:6)
- Large numbers of mitoses some well-differentiated malignancies and most of undifferentiated tumours usually possess higher mitotic rate and proliferative activity (mitoses does not prove a tumor: 1. normal tissues with rapid turnover (bone marrow); 2. non-neoplastic - hyperplasias
- Atypical, bizarre mitotic figures sometimes tripolar, quadripolar, or multipolar spindles; (the most important morphologic feature of malignancy)
- Loss of polarity disorientation; masses of tumor cells grow in an anarchic, disorganized fashion
- Formation of *tumor giant cells*, some possessing only a single huge polymorphic nucleus and others having two or more nuclei; nuclei are hyperchromatic and large in relation to the cell. Inflammatory Langhans or foreign body giant cells are derived from macrophages and contain many small, normal-appearing nuclei. In the cancer giant cell, the Although growing tumor cells obviously require a blood

- teratoma benign tumors arising from germ cells; contain derivatives of different germ layers (skin, neurons, glial cells, thyroid, intestinal epithelium, and cartilage) occur principally in the gonads, mediastinum
- hamartoma tumor-like non-neoplastic mass containing mess of normal tissue (cartilage, ducts or bronchi, connective tissue, blood vessels, and lymphoid tissue); arising due to altered differentiation in embryogenesis
- choristoma small ectopic islands of normal tissue (e.g pancreatic tissue in the wall of the stomach or intestine, adrenal rests under the renal capsule, and nodules of splenic tissue in the peritoneal cavity.
- **benign** tumors not truly neoplastic represent overgrowth of normal tissue (e.g vocal cord polyps, skin tags, and hyperplastic polyps of the colon).
- Secondary description
 - *papillary* describes a frondlike structure
 - *medullary* signifies a soft, cellular tumor with little connective tissue stroma,
 - *scirrhous* or desmoplastic implies a dense fibrous stroma
 - *colloid carcinomas* secrete abundant mucus, in which float islands of tumor cells
 - comedocarcinoma is an intraductal neoplasm in which necrotic material can be expressed from the ducts

Functional changes in tumor cells

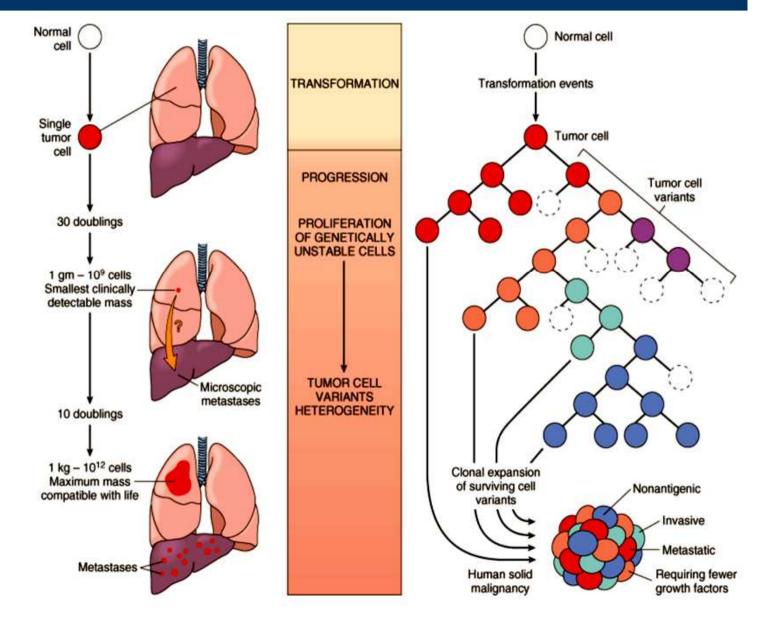
- Loss of adhesivity to other cells and support tissue (loss of ADCG)
 - Alterations in surface charge changes in content of polysaccharides, lectins
 - Loss of gap junction gap junctions komunikácie medzi bunkami
- Changes in superfitial antigens
 - alteration or loss of normal ones and presence of new ones (receptors, transporters, channels, etc)
- Biochemical changes in cells changes in intensity of metabolism metabolizmu
- Formation of new clones of cells





Tumor growth - gradual multistep process

- Trasformation
- Progression
- Proliferation
- Independent clonal development
- Invasion into tissues
- Establishment of colonies



Etiology of cancer

- Genetic factors
- Carcinogens chemical factors
- Physical factors
- Oncoviruses

1. Hereditary predisposition to cancer

1. Inherited Cancer Syndromes (Autosomal Dominant)		
Gene	Inherited Predisposition	
RB	Retinoblastoma	
<i>p</i> 53	Li-Fraumeni syndrome (various tumors)	
p16INK4A	Melanoma	
APC	Familial adenomatous polyposis/colon cancer	
NF1, NF2	Neurofibromatosis 1 and 2	
BRCA1, BRCA2	Breast and ovarian tumors	
MEN1, RET	Multiple endocrine neoplasia 1 and 2	
MSH2, MLH1, MSH6	Hereditary nonpolyposis colon cancer	
PATCH	Nevoid basal cell carcinoma syndrome	
2. (Familial clustering of cancer cases (Familial Cancers)		
Variable	Breast cancer, Ovarian cancer, Pancreatic cancer	
3. Inherited Syndromes of Defective DNA Repair (Autosomal Recessive)		
Many	Xeroderma pigmentosum, Ataxia-telangiectasia	
	Bloom syndrome, Fanconi anemia	

2. Carcinogens

1. Direct-Acting Carcinogens

Alkylating Agents

- β-Propiolactone
- Dimethyl sulfate
- Diepoxybutane
- Anticancer drugs (cyclophosphamide, chlorambucil, nitrosoureas, and others)

Acylating Agents

- 1-Acetyl-imidazole
- Dimethylcarbamyl chloride
- 2. Procarcinogens That Require Metabolic Activation

Polycyclic and Heterocyclic Aromatic Hydrocarbons

- Benz(a)anthracene
- Benzo(a)pyrene
- Dibenz(a,h)anthracene
- 3-Methylcholanthrene
- 7,12-Dimethylbenz(a)anthracene

- Aromatic Amines, Amides, Azo Dyes
 - 2-Naphthylamine (ß-naphthylamine)
 - Benzidine
 - 2-Acetylaminofluorene
 - Dimethylaminoazobenzene (butter yellow)

Natural Plant and Microbial Products

- Aflatoxin B
- Griseofulvin
- Cycasin
- Safrole
- Betel nuts
- Others
 - Nitrosamine and amides
 - Vinyl chloride, nickel, chromium
 - Insecticides, fungicides
 - Polychlorinated biphenyls

Carcinogens (cont')

- Direct-Acting Alkylating Agents activation independent weak
 - anticancer drugs (e.g., cyclophosphamide, chlorambucil, busulfan, and melphalan) lymphoid neoplasms, leukemia, etc. (interacting, damaging DNA)
 - immunosuppressive drugs cyclophosphamide (rheumatoid arthritis and Wegener granulomatosis).
- Polycyclic Aromatic Hydrocarbons require metabolic activation, most potent
 - tumors in a wide variety of tissues and species (skin skin cancers; subcutaneously sarcomas;
 - polycyclic hydrocarbons (combustion of tobacco, particularly with cigarette smoking lung and bladder cancers),
 - animal fats smoked, fied meats and fish

Aromatic Amines and Azo Dyes

- carcinogenic in liver; "ultimate carcinogen" is formed by cytochrome P-450 oxygenase
- acetylaminofluorene (hepatocellular carcinomas)
- B-naphthylamine (bladder cancer) aniline dye and rubber industries; excreted in the urine, split by the urinary glucuronidase (humans)
- azo dyes food coloring (e.g., butter yellow, scarlet red).

Naturally Occurring Carcinogens.

mycotoxin aflatoxin B1 (Aspergillus flavus) - improperly stored corn, rice, and peanuts (hepatocellular carcinoma in Africa and China)

Carcinogens (cont')

Nitrosamines and Amides (nitrate preservatives)

formed in the gastrointestinal tract of humans (induction of gastric carcinoma); derived in the stomach from the reaction of nitrostable amines and nitrate used as a preservative, which is converted to nitrites by bacteria.

Miscellaneous Agents

- asbestos bronchogenic carcinomas, mesotheliomas, and gastrointestinal cancers
- vinyl chloride (monomer of polyvinyl chloride) hemangiosarcoma of the liver
- Chromium, nickel, and other metals -cancer of the lung when volatilized and inhaled.
- arsenic skin cancer associated
- insecticides (aldrin, dieldrin, and chlordane and the polychlorinated biphenyls) carcinogenic in animals

Promoters of Chemical Carcinogenesis.

- exogenous agents, such as cigarette smoke or viral infections tissue damage and reactive hyperplasia.
- endogenous promoters bile salts (dietary fat colon cancer), hormones (estrogens liver tumors; diethylstilbestrol - postmenopausal endometrial carcinoma; alcohol (cancers of the mouth, pharynx, larynx by more 10x

3. Physical factors in carcinogenesis

Ultraviolet radiation

- Type of cancer: Tumours: squamose cell carconoma, malignant melanoma
- <u>Cases</u>: increased rate of tumours in people with white skin and close to equator (Queensland, Australia)
- damage depends on the type and intensity of UV radiation: UVA (320 to 400 nm), UVB (280 to 320 nm), and UVC (200 to 280 nm; absorbed in ozone layer) and melanin content
- <u>Effects:</u> inhibition of cell division, inactivation of enzymes, DNA mutations (pyrimidine dimers in DNA), necrosi; mechanism of damage: exhaustion of NER (nucleotide excision repair)
- increased rate of DNA damage w/o repair xeroderma pigmentosum (AR) extreme photosenzitivity, 2000-x higher risk of tumors after sunbathing
- UVB mutant forms of RAS and p53 gens in animals and man

• **Ionizing radiation** (practically any tumor), synergic effect together with carcinogens

- Hiroshima a Nagasaki acute & chronic myeloid leukemia; later solid tumors (e.g., mammary Ca, Ca of colon, Ca of thyroid gland, bronchogenic carcinoma
- Marshall islands 90% of the children under age 10 years on Rongelap Island developed thyroid nodules within 15 years, and about 5% of these nodules proved to be thyroid Ca
- Tchernobyl 2000 cases of thyroid cancers have been recorded in children living in the area.
- <u>Types of cancer</u>: Thyroidal cancer kids; 9% of kids with s X- ray scans of the neck and face done 2x per year; Leucaemia 10 to 12-fold rise after therapeutical irradiation (CLL never occurs after irradiation); Mammary carcinoma, lung cancer, salivary gland cancers (GIT cancer is rare)

3. Physical factors in carcinogenesis

THYROID

¹³¹I (beta (gamma), 8 days)

SKIN

¹⁴C (beta, 5600 years) ³⁵S (beta, 87 days)

LYMPH NODES

⁵⁹Fe, ¹⁹⁸Au ³²P (beta, 14 days)

LIVER

⁶⁰Co (gamma, 5 years) ⁵⁹Fe, ¹⁹⁸Au

OVARIES (TESTIS)

²³⁹Plutonium (alpha, 24 000 years)
⁸⁵Krypton (beta (gamma), 10 years)
⁶⁰Cobalt (gamma, 5 years)
¹³¹Iodine (beta (gamma), 8 days)
¹⁰⁶Rutenium (gamma (beta), 1year)
⁶⁵Zinc (beta (gamma), 245 days)
¹³⁷Cesium (gamma, 30 years)
⁴²Pottasium (gamma, 12 hours)
¹⁴⁰Baryum (gamma, 13 days)

MUSCLES

¹³¹I (beta (gamma), 8 days)⁴²P (gamma, 12 hours)

LUNGS

²²²Ra (alpha, 3,8 days)+ body
²³³U (alpha, 162 000 years)
²³⁹Pl (alpha, 24 000 years)
⁸⁵Kr (beta (gamma), 10 years)

SPLEEN

²¹⁰Po (alpha, 138 days), ⁵⁹Fe

KIDNEY

¹⁰⁶Ru (gamma (beta), 1year) ¹⁹⁸Au, ⁶⁰Co (gamma, 5 years)

BONES, BONE MARROW

²²⁶Ra (apha, 1620 years)
²³⁹Pl (alpha, 24 000 years)
⁶⁵Zn (beta (gamma), 245 days)
⁹⁰Sr (beta, 28 years)
⁹⁰Y (beta, 64 hours)
¹⁴⁷Pr (beta, 2 years)
¹⁴⁰Ba (beta (gamma), 13 days)
²³⁴Th (beta, 24 days)
³²P (beta, 14 days)
¹⁴C (beta, 5600 years)

Radiosensitive organs - lymphatic tissue, intestine mucosa, bone marrow, gonads Radioresponsive organs - connective tissue, bones, epithelium, endothelium Radioresistent organs - brain, muscles, liver, endocrine glands

Molecular basis of cancer transformation

Tumors are genetic disorders

Care takers

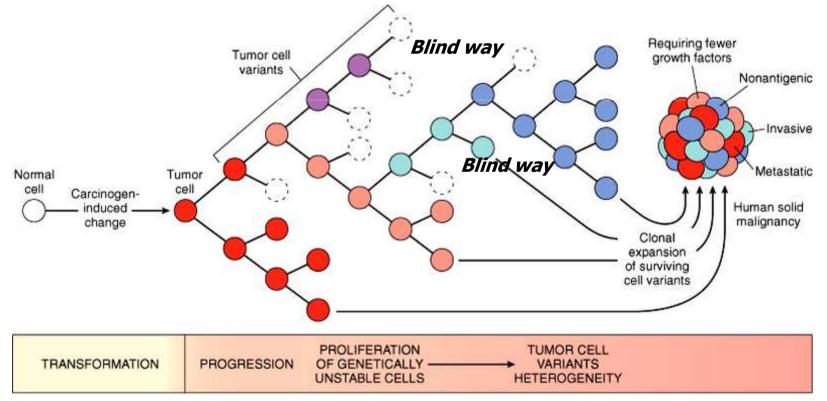
Gate keepers

Principles of tumor formation

- Tumors arise due to nonlethal genetic damage (external factors chemicals, radiation, viruses, or inherited in the germ line), i.e. genetic mutation (mostly single gene missence mutations, ans chromsomal abberations).
- Tumor is formed up by the **clonal expansion** of a **"single precursor cell**" that has incurred the genetic damage (i.e., tumors are monoclonal).
- Carcinogenesis is a multistep process at both the phenotypic and the genetic levels. A malignant neoplasm has several phenotypic attributes, such as excessive growth, local invasiveness, and the ability to form distant metastases. These characteristics are acquired in a stepwise fashion = tumor progression.
- Four classes of normal regulatory genes are altered: protooncogenes important for growth, tumor suppressor genes - inhibite the growth-, genes regulating apoptosis, genes involved in DNA repair
 - Oncogenes are considered dominant; one mutant allele is enough to promote neoplasia despite the presence of a normal counterpart
 - Tumor suppressor genes (recessive oncogenes) both normal alleles must be damaged for transformation to occur, loss of function of a recessive gene caused by damage of a single allele is called *haploinsufficiency*.
 - Genes that regulate apoptosis may be dominant, as are protooncogenes, or they may behave as tumor suppressor genes
 - Genes involved in DNA repair

Principles of tumor formation (cont)

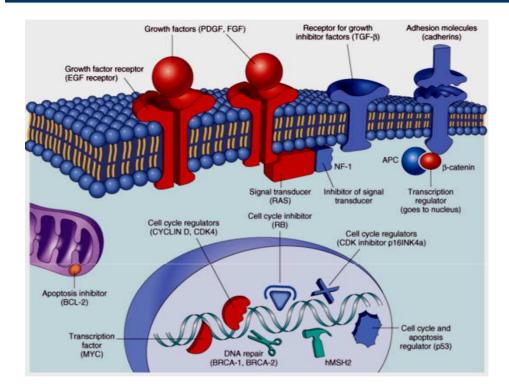
- Typically, the phenotypic attributes characteristic of malignancy develop when multiple mutations involving multiple genes accumulate.
- The stepwise accumulation of mutations and increasing malignancy is referred to as tumor progression



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Genes associated with cancer



Subcellular localization and functions of major classes of cancerassociated genes. The protooncogenes (red), cancer suppressor genes (blue), DNA repair genes (green), and genes that regulate apoptosis (purple).

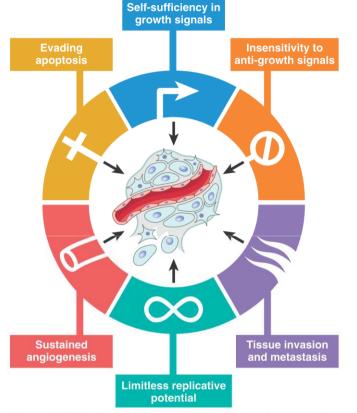


Figure 5-18 Six hallmarks of cancer. Most cancer cells acquire these

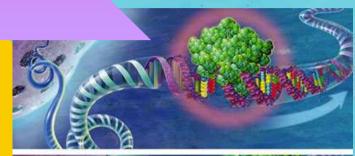
Common oncogenes types

Category	Proto- oncogene	Mode of Activation	Associated Human Tumor
1. Growth Factors			
PDGF-ß chain	SIS	Overexpression	Astrocytome Osteosarcoma
Fibroblast growth factors	HST-1 INT-2	Overexpression Amplification	Stomach cancer Bladder cancer Breast cancer Melanoma
TGFalfa	TGFalfa	Overexpression	Astrocytomas Hepatocellular carcinomas
HGF	HGF	Overexpression	Thyroid cancer
2. Growth Factor Recepto	rs		
EGF-receptor family	ERB-B1 ERB-B2	Overexpression Amplification	Squamous cell carcinomas of lung, Breast and ovarian cancers
CSF-1 receptor	FMS	Point mutation	Leukemia
Receptor for neurotrophic factors	RET	Point mutation	Multiple endocrineneoplasia 2A and B, familial medullary thyroidcarcinomas
PDGF receptor	PDGF-R	Overexpression	Gliomas
Receptor for stem cell (steel) factor	KIT	Point mutation	Gastrointestinal stromal tumors and other soft tissue tumors

Common oncogenes



3. Proteins Involved in Signal Transduction				
GTP-binding	K-RAS	Point mutation	Colon, lung, and pancreatic tumors	
	H-RAS	Point mutation	Bladder and kidney tumors	
	N-RAS	Point mutation	Melanomas, hematologic malignancies	
Nonreceptor tyrosine kinase	ABL	Translocation	Chronic myeloid leukemia Acute lymphoblastic leukemia	
RAS signaling	BRAF	Point mutation	Melanomas	
WNT signal transduction	ß-catenin	Point mutation Overexpression	Hepatoblastomas, hepatocellular carcinoma	
4. Nuclear Regulatory Pro	teins			
Transcriptional activators	C-MYC N-MYC L-MYC	Translocation Amplification Amplification	Burkitt lymphoma Neuroblastoma Small cell carcinoma of lung	
5. Cell-Cycle Regulators	5. Cell-Cycle Regulators			
Cyclins	CYCLIN D	Translocation Amplification	Mantle cell lymphoma, Breast and esophageal cancers	
	CYCLIN E	Overexpression	Breast cancer	
Cyclin-dependent kinase	CDK4	Amplification or point mutation	Glioblastoma, melanoma, sarcoma	





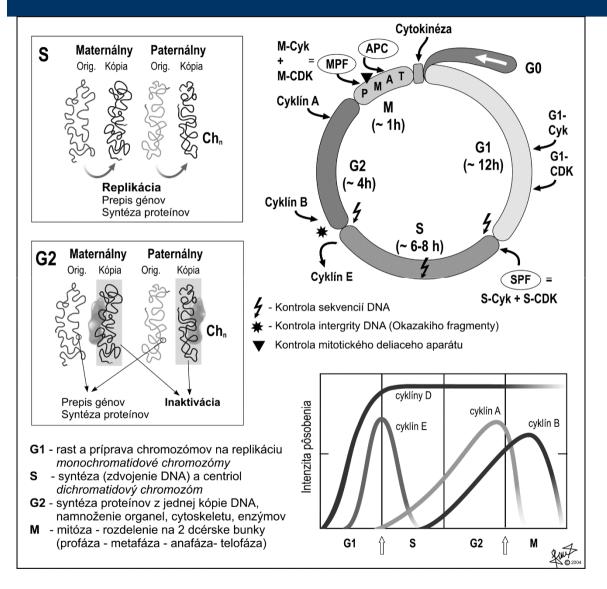


TUMOR SUPRESSORS

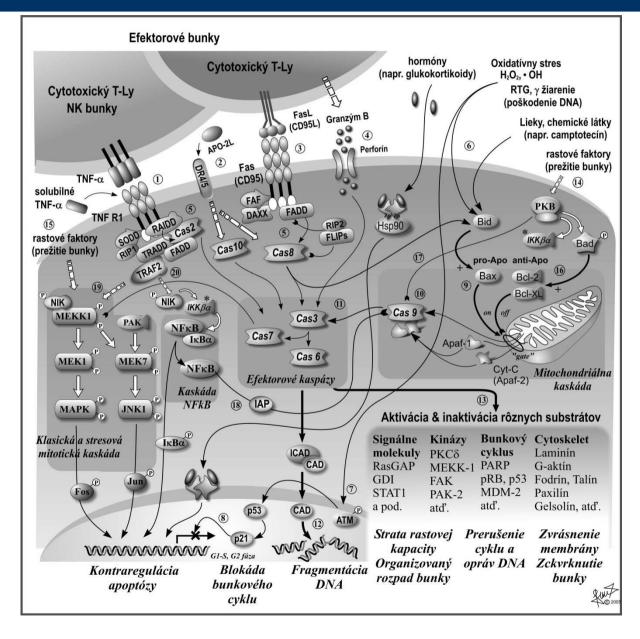
Tumor supressor genes

Location	Gene	Function	Somatitic mutation	Germinative mutation
Cell surface	TGF-beta receptor	Growth inhibition	Ca colon	Unknown
	E-cadherin	Cell adhesion	Ca stomach	Familial gastric cancer
Inner plasma membrane	NF-1	Inhibition of RAS sign. p21 cell-cycle inhibitor	Neuroblastomas	Neurofibromatosis type 1 and sarcomas
Cytoskeleton	NF-2	Cytoskeletal stability	Schwannomas and meningiomas	Neurofibromatosis type 2, acoustic schwannomas
Cytosol	beta-catenin/ APC	Inhibition of signal transduction	Carcinomas of stomach, colon, pancreas; melanoma	Familial adenomatous polyposis coli/ Ca colon
	PTEN	PI-3 kinase signal transduction	Endometrial and prostate cancers	Unknown
	SMAD 2,SMAD 4	TGF-ß signal transd.	Colon, pancreas tumors	Unknown
Nucleus	RB	Regulation of cell cycle	Retinoblastoma; osteosarcoma	Retinoblastomas, Ca breast, colon, lung
	p53	Cell-cycle arrest; apoptosis	Most human cancers	Li-Fraumeni sy., multiple Ca
	WT-1	Nuclear transcription	Wilms tumor	Wilms tumor
	p16 (INK4a)	Regulation of cell cycle by inhibition of CDK	Pancreatic, breast, and esophageal cancers	Malignant melanoma
	BRCA-1, BRCA-2	DNA repair	Unknown	Ca breast, ovary, male breast
	KLF6	Transcription factor	Prostate	Unknown

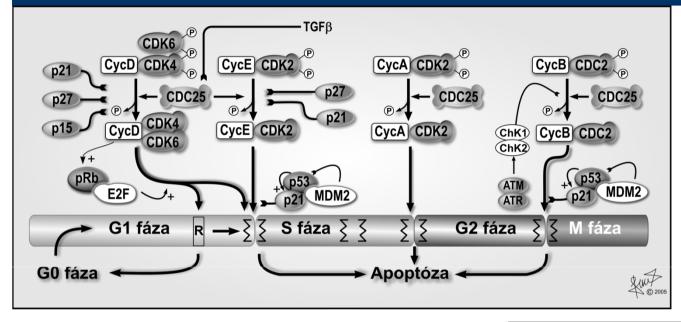
1. Factors controlling cell cycle

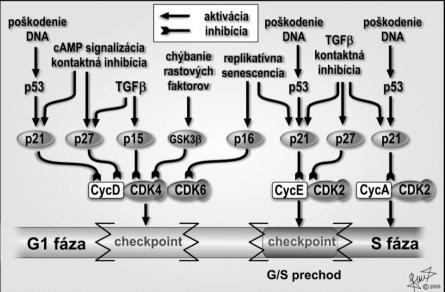


Apoptosis

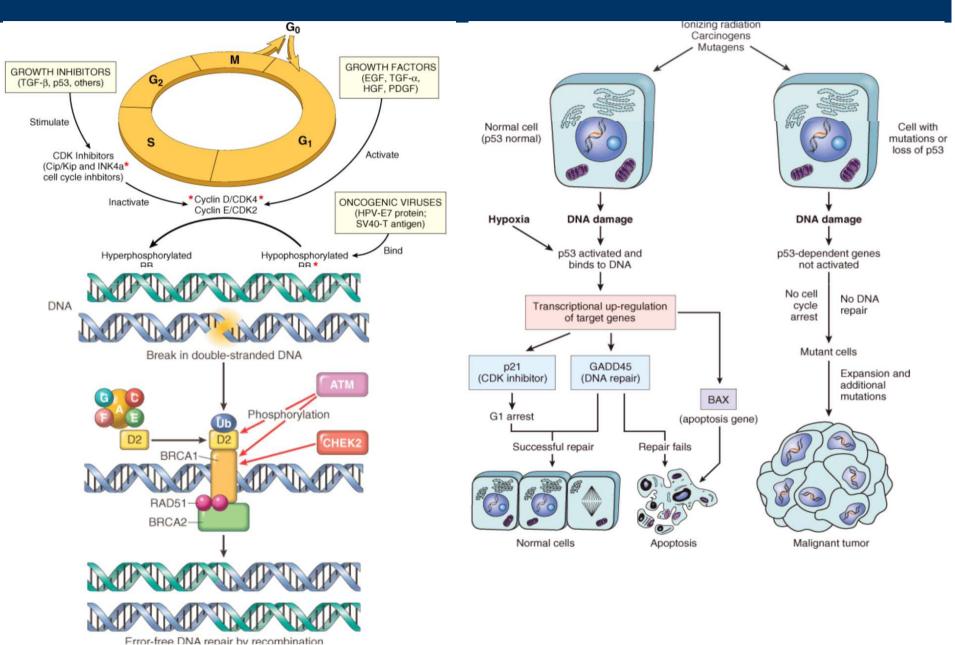


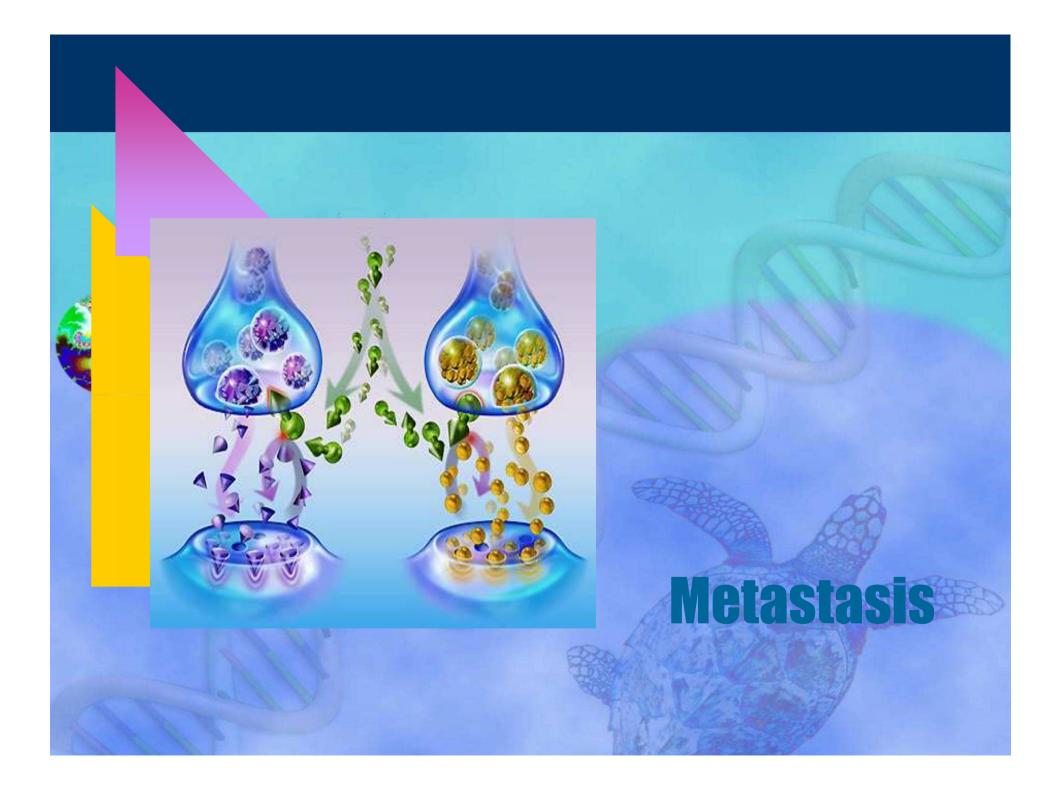
Role of some TSGs in control of cell cycle



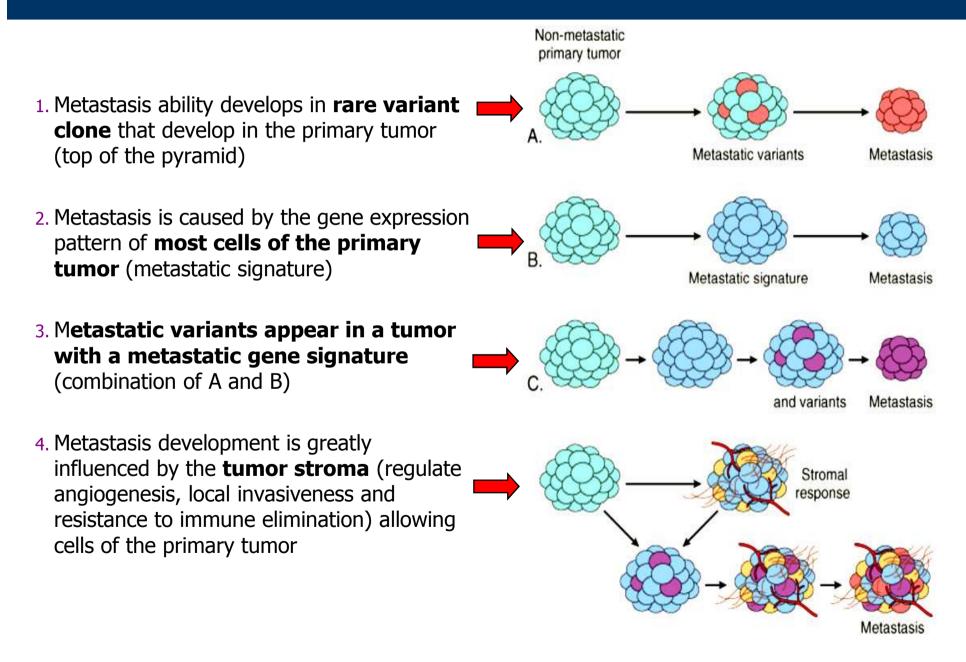


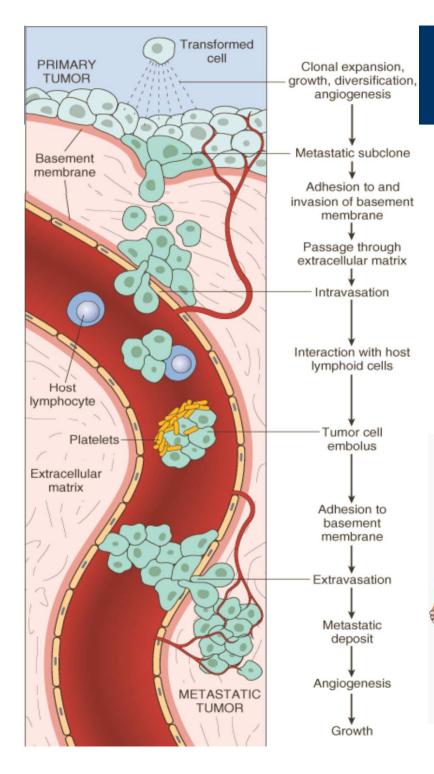
Role of RB, BRCA a p53





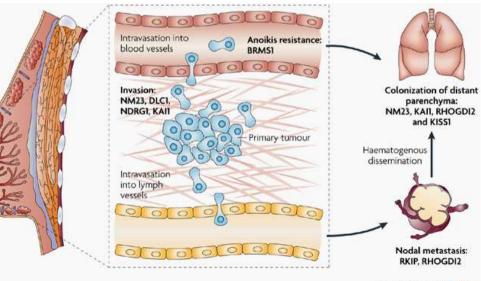
Models of metastasis within the primary tumor





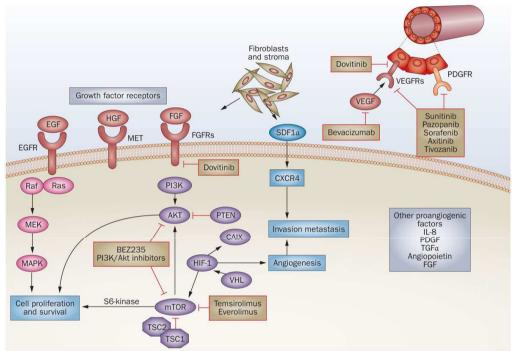
Steps in metastasis

- 1. Break through basal membrane
- 2. Movement through loose connective tissue
- 3. Intravasation getting into
 - Lymph vesels
 - Blood vessels
- 4. Survival in circulation (attack by NK, T-Ly, Ig)
- 5. Adhesion to endothelium and extravasation
- 6. Building up the colony neovascularisation



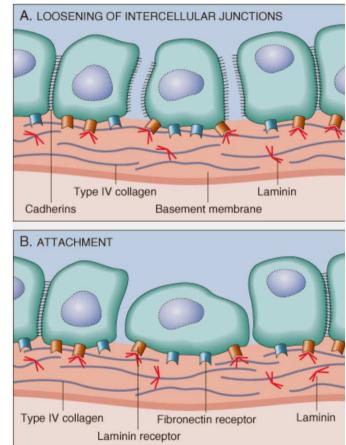
Smith S. C., Theodorescu, D:Learning therapeutic lessons from metastasis suppressor proteins. Nature Reviews Cancer 9. 253-264 (April 2009)

Signalling pathways involved in, angiogenesis and metastasis



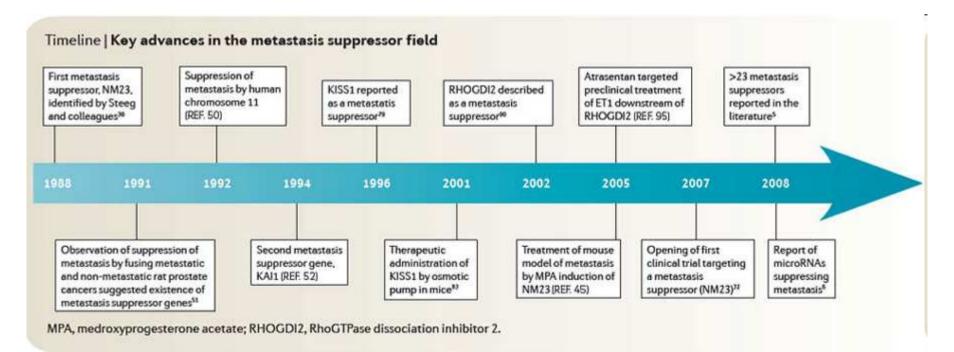
Tumor cells detach from each other because of reduced adhesiveness, and cells then attach to the basement membrane via the laminin receptors and secrete proteolytic enzymes, including type IV collagenase and plasminogen activator.

Degradation of the basement membrane and tumor cell migration follow.



Metastasis supressor genes + metastasis supressors

- Metastasis supressor genes Metastasis is one of the most lethal attributes of cancer (90% of human cancer deaths)
- Metastasis supressors (MS) : proteins that acts to slow or prevent metastases by altering of signal transduction
- dozen such proteins are known in humans and other animals;
- have no effect on primary tumors
- act by different mechanisms than tumor (growth) suppressors: these also block metastasis, since metastasis is last stage dependent on tumorigenicity.



Metastasis supressor genes

Symbol	Alias(es)	Function(s)	Potential targeting strategy
BMP4	BMP2B	Soluble cytokine	Direct therapeutic administration of suppressor protein*
BRMS1	None	Chromatin and transcriptional regulation; regulation of gap junctions	None published at present
CTGF	CCN2, IGFBP8	Soluble cytokine	None published at present
DLC1	ARHGAP7	Regulation of RhoGTPase signalling	Re-induction of endogenous gene through HDAC inhibition ⁶⁹
KAI1	CD82, kangai 1	Inhibition of EGFR signaling; induction of senescence through interaction with DARC	Therapeutic re-induction of endogenous gene by plant extracts ⁶⁰ ; viral ⁶² and non-viral ⁶¹ gene therapy
KISS1	KiSS-1, metastin	Soluble ligand for G-protein-coupled receptor	Direct therapeutic administration of suppressor protein ⁸³ ; possibly small molecule mimetics ⁸⁴
MKK4	MAP2K4	Signal transduction	Antibody-mediated activation pathway upstream of MKK4 (REF. 122)
NDRG1	CAP43, DRG1, RTP	Unknown	Induced by iron chelators ¹²³ , p53 (REF. 124) and PTEN expression ¹²⁵
NM23	NME1, NM23-H1	Histidine kinase activity to KSR1, decreasing Ras signalling: regulation of downstream gene expression	Re-induction of endogenous gene ^{42,47,48} ; viral gene therapy ⁴⁹ ; inhibition of downstream genes ⁴⁰
RHOGD12	ARHGDIB, LyGDI, GDID4	Regulation of Rho family member activation; regulation of downstream gene expression	Inhibition of downstream genes ⁹⁵
RKIP	PEBP1	Binds to and inhibits Raf kinase activity and downstream signalling	Epigenetic re-induction of endogenous gene ⁵⁷

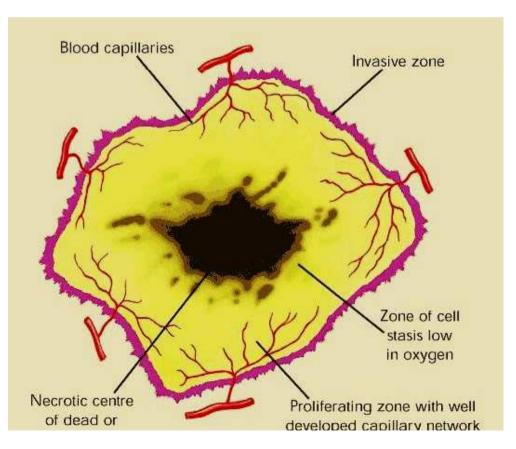
*R. Anderson, unpublished data, also presented at the 2008 Meeting of the American Association for Cancer Research-Metastasis Research Society, Vancouver, Canada. BMP4, bone morphogenetic protein 4; BRMS1, breast cancer metastasis suppressor 1; DARC, Duffy chemokine receptor; EGFR, epidermal growth factor receptor; HDAC, histone deacetylase; MKK4, MAPK kinase 4; RHOGDI2, RhoGTPase dissociation inhibitor 2; RKIP, Raf kinase inhibitory protein.

Angiogenesis

Protein	MW
FGF-b	18
FGF-a	16.4
Angiogenin	14.1
Transforming growth factor-a	5.5
Transforming growth factor-b	25
Tumor necrosis factor-a	17
Vascular endothelial growth	40
factor(VPF/VEGF)	45
Platelet-derived endothelial growth factor	45
Granulocyte colony-stimulating factor	17
Placental growth factor	25
Interleukin-8	40
Hepatocyte growth factor	92
Proliferin	35
Angiopoietin-1	70
Leptin	16

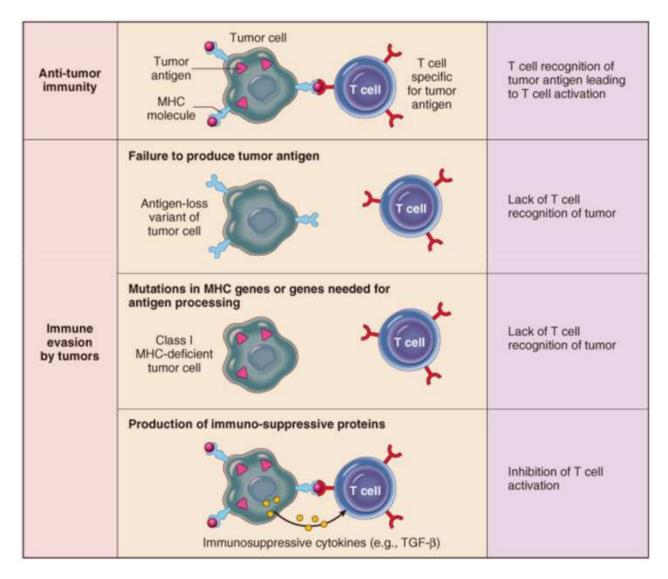
Angiogenesis is the principal step in the tumorigenesis

- Endothelial cells are the most quiescent cells of the body (turnover hundreds of days) ; endothelial proliferation 6 billion cell divisions/ hour
- Degradation of basement membrane, sprouting from preexisting microvessels,
- Invasion into extracel. matrix, forming of tubes, cubs; nutrification of tumour from **outside-in**



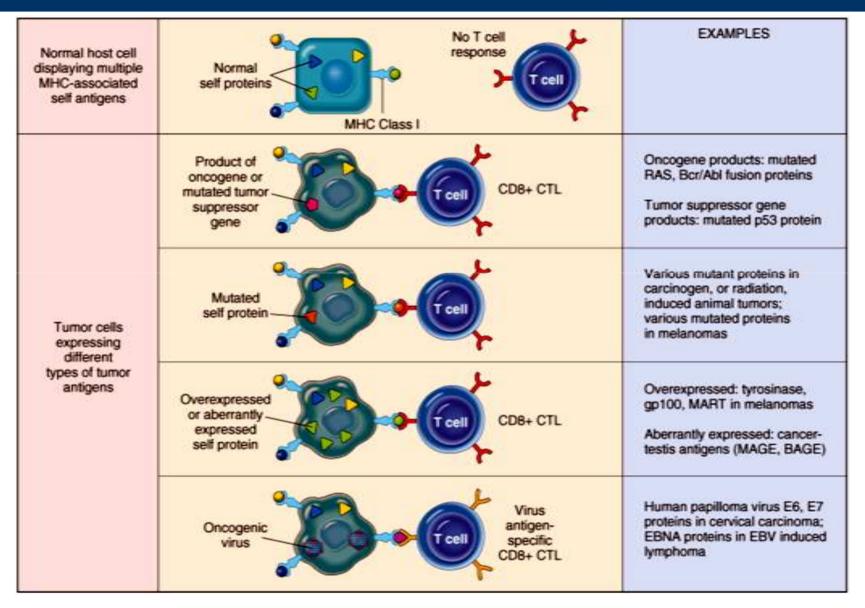
Immunologic control over tumours

Tumor evasion of the immune system.



Abbas AK, Lichtman AH: Cellular and Molecular Immunology, 5th ed. WB Saunders, 2003

Tumor antigens recognized by CD8+ T cells



Abbas AK, Lichtman AH: Cellular and Molecular Immunology, 5th ed. WB Saunders, 2003

Clinical considerations Diagnostics

Staging and grading

A. Grading of a cancer

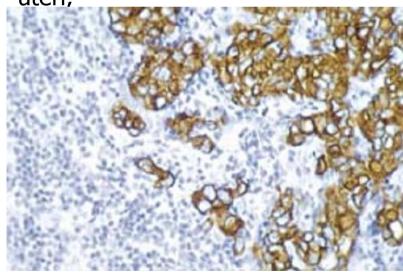
- degree of differentiation of the tumor cells + the number of mitoses within the tumor -> correlates of the neoplasm's aggressiveness.
- grades I to IV spurious histologic quantification of changes between anaplasia and normal counterparts

B. Staging of cancer

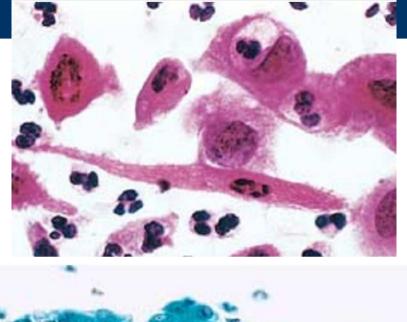
- size of the primary lesion + extent of spread to regional lymph nodes + the presence or absence of blood-borne metastases
- Union Internationale Contre Cancer (UICC) TNM system
 - T for primary tumor (T0 in situ lesion; T1 to T4),
 - N for regional lymph node involvement (N0 no, N1 to N3 increasing number and range of nodes)
 - M for metastases (M0 signifies no distant metastases, M1 M2 the presence of blood-borne metastases and some judgment as to their number)
- American Joint Committee (AJC) on Cancer Staging stages 0 to IV
 - incorporating within each of these stages the size of the primary lesions as well as the presence of nodal spread and distant metastases.

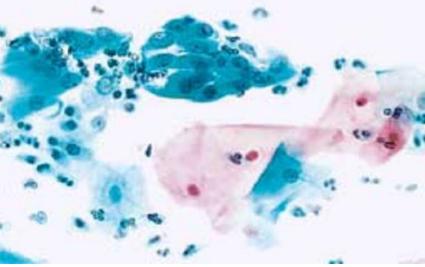
Histology and cytology

- Excision or biopsy per-surgery "quick-frozen section" (in large tumors margins may not be representative and the center may be largely necrotic)
- Fine-needle aspiration –palpable lesions (breast, thyroid, lymph nodes)
- Cytologic (Pap) smears cervix uteri,



Anticytokeratin immunoperoxidase stain of a tumor of epithelial origin (carcinoma).





Abnormal cervicovaginal smear - numerous malignant cells that have pleomorphic, hyperchromatic nuclei

Common tumor markers

Markers	Associated Cancers	
Hormons		
Human chorionic gonadotropin	Trophoblastic tumors, nonseminomatous testicular tumors	
Calcitonin	Medullary carcinoma of thyroid	
Catecholamine and metabolites	Pheochromocytoma and related tumors, Ectopic hormones	
Oncofetal Antigens		
Alfa-Fetoprotein (AFP)	Liver cell cancer, nonseminomatous germ cell tumors of testis	
Carcinoembryonic antigen (CEA)	Carcinomas of the colon, pancreas, lung, stomach, and heart	
Isoenzymes		
Prostatic acid phosphatase (AP)	Prostate cancer	
Neuron-specific enolase (NSE)	Small cell cancer of lung, neuroblastoma	
Specific Proteins		
Immunoglobulins	Multiple myeloma and other gammopathies	
Prostate-specific antigen, prostate- specific membrane antigen	Prostate cancer	
Mucins and Other Glycoproteins		
CA-125	Ovarian cancer	
CA-19-9	Colon cancer, pancreatic cancer	
CA-15-3	Breast cancer	

Markers	Associated Cancers	Associated Cancers	
Mutated gene products			
p53, APC, RAS	Colon cancer (stool and serum)	Colon cancer (stool and serum)	
p53 and RAS	Pancreatic cancer (stool and serum)	Pancreatic cancer (stool and serum)	
	Lung cancer (sputum and serum)	Lung cancer (sputum and serum)	
<i>p53</i>	Bladder cancer (urine)	Bladder cancer (urine)	

Paraneoplastic syndromes

Clinical Syndromes	Major Forms of Cancer	Causal Mechanism		
Endocrinopathies	Endocrinopathies			
Cushing syndrome	Small cell carcinoma of lung Pancreatic carcinoma Neural tumors	ACTH or ACTH-like substance		
Syndrome of inappropriate antidiuretic hormone	Small cell carcinoma of lung; intracranial neoplasms	Antidiuretic hormone or atrial natriuretic hormones		
Hypercalcemia	Squamous cell carcinoma of lung Breast carcinoma Renal carcinoma Adult T-cell leukemia/lymphoma Ovarian carcinoma	Parathyroid hormone-related protein (PTHRP), TGF-a, TNF, IL-1		
Hypoglycemia	Fibrosarcoma Mesenchymal sarcomas Hepatocellular carcinoma	Insulin or insulin-like substance		
Carcinoid syndrome	Bronchial adenoma (carcinoid) Pancreatic carcinoma Gastric carcinoma	Serotonin, bradykinin		
Polycythemia	Renal carcinoma Cerebellar hemangiom Hepatocellular carcinoma	Erythropoietin		

Paraneoplastic syndromes (cont'd)

Clinical Syndromes	Major Forms of Cancer	Causal Mechanism	
CNS, PNS and Muscle Syndromes			
Myasthenia	Bronchogenic carcinoma	Immunologic cross reaction	
Neuropathies, cortical cerebellar deg., polymyositis - like	Breast carcinoma, others	Neural antigens ectopically expressed by visceral cancers	
Dermatologic Disorders Ossee	ous, Articular, and Soft Tissue	Changes	
Acanthosis nigricans	Gastric, Lung, Uterine Ca	Immunologic; epidermal growth factor	
Dermatomyositis	Bronchogenic, breast carcinoma	Immunologic	
Hypertrophic osteoarthropathy	Bronchogenic carcinoma (10%)	Unknown	
Vascular and Hematologic Changes			
<i>Venous thrombosis (Trousseau phenomenon)</i>	<i>Pancreatic carcinoma Bronchogenic carcinoma Other cancers</i>	<i>Tumor products (mucins that activate clotting)</i>	
Nonbacterial thrombotic endocarditis	Advanced cancers	Hypercoagulability	
Anemia	Thymic neoplasms, Others	Unknown	
Nephrotic syndrome	Various cancers	Tumor antigens, immune complexes	