Principles of Neoplasia

NEOPLASIA

I. BASIC PRINCIPLES

- A. Neoplasia is new tissue growth that is unregulated, irreversible, and monoclonal; these features distinguish it from hyperplasia and repair.
- B. Monoclonal means that the neoplastic cells are derived from a single mother cell.
- C. Clonality can be determined by glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase (G6PD) enzyme isoforms.
 - 1. Multiple isoforms (e.g., $G6PD_A$, $G6PD_B$, and $G6PD_C$) exist; only one isoform is inherited from each parent.
 - 2. In females, one isoform is randomly inactivated in each cell by lyonization (G6PD is present on the X chromosome).
 - 3. Normal ratio of active isoforms in cells of any tissue is 1:1 (e.g., 50% of cells have G6PD₄, and 50% of cells have G6PD_p).
 - 4. 1:1 ratio is maintained in hyperplasia, which is polyclonal (cells are derived from multiple cells).
 - 5. Only one isoform is present in neoplasia, which is monoclonal.
 - 6. Clonality can also be determined by androgen receptor isoforms, which are also present on the X chromosome.
- D. Clonality of B lymphocytes is determined by immunoglobulin (Ig) light chain phenotype.
 - 1. Ig is comprised of heavy and light chains.
 - 2. Each B cell expresses light chain that is either kappa or lambda.
 - 3. Normal kappa to lambda light chain ratio is 3:1.
 - 4. This ratio is maintained in hyperplasia, which is polyclonal.
 - 5. Ratio increases to > 6:1 or is inverted (e.g., kappa to lambda ratio = 1:3) in lymphoma, which is monoclonal.
- E. Neoplastic tumors are benign or malignant.
 - 1. Benign tumors remain localized and do not metastasize.
 - 2. Malignant tumors (cancer) invade locally and have the potential to metastasize.
- F. Tumor nomenclature is based on lineage of differentiation (type of tissue produced) and whether the tumor is benign or malignant (Table 3.1).

Table 3.1: Examples of Tumor Nomenclature

LINEAGE OF DIFFERENTIATION	BENIGN	MALIGNANT (CANCER)
Epithelium	Adenoma	Adenocarcinoma
	Papilloma	Papillary carcinoma
Mesenchyme	Lipoma	Liposarcoma
Lymphocyte	(Does not exist)	Lymphoma/Leukemia
Melanocyte	Nevus (mole)	Melanoma

II. EPIDEMIOLOGY

- A. Cancer is the 2nd leading cause of death in both adults and children.
 - 1. The leading causes of death in adults are (1) cardiovascular disease, (2) cancer, and (3) cerebrovascular disease.
 - 2. The leading causes of death in children are (1) accidents, (2) cancer, and (3) congenital defects.
- B. The most common cancers by incidence in adults are (1) breast/prostate, (2) lung, and (3) colorectal.
- C. The most common causes of cancer mortality in adults are (1) lung, (2) breast/ prostate, and (3) colorectal.

III. ROLE OF SCREENING

- A. Cancer begins as a single mutated cell.
- B. Approximately 30 divisions occur before the earliest clinical symptoms arise.
- C. Each division (doubling time) results in increased mutations.
 - 1. Cancers that do not produce symptoms until late in disease will have undergone additional divisions and, hence, additional mutations.
 - 2. Cancers that are detected late tend to have a poor prognosis.
- D. Goal of screening is to catch dysplasia (precancerous change) before it becomes carcinoma or carcinoma before clinical symptoms arise.
- E. Common screening methods include
 - 1. Pap smear—detects cervical dysplasia (CIN) before it becomes carcinoma
 - 2. Mammography—detects in situ breast cancer (e.g., DCIS) before it invades or invasive carcinoma before it becomes clinically palpable
 - 3. Prostate specific antigen (PSA) and digital rectal exam—detects prostate carcinoma before it spreads
 - 4. Hemoccult test (for occult blood in stool) and colonoscopy—detect colonic adenoma before it becomes colonic carcinoma or carcinoma before it spreads

CARCINOGENESIS

I. BASIC PRINCIPLES

- A. Cancer formation is initiated by damage to DNA of stem cells. The damage overcomes DNA repair mechanisms, but is not lethal.
 - 1. Carcinogens are agents that damage DNA, increasing the risk for cancer. Important carcinogens include chemicals, oncogenic viruses, and radiation (Table 3.2).
- B. DNA mutations eventually disrupt key regulatory systems, allowing for tumor promotion (growth) and progression (spread).
 - 1. Disrupted systems include proto-oncogenes, tumor suppressor genes, and regulators of apoptosis.

II. ONCOGENES

- A. Proto-oncogenes are essential for cell growth and differentiation; mutations of proto-oncogenes form oncogenes that lead to unregulated cellular growth.
- B. Categories of oncogenes include growth factors, growth factor receptors, signal transducers, nuclear regulators, and cell cycle regulators (Table 3.3).
 - 1. Growth factors induce cellular growth (e.g., PDGFB in astrocytoma).
 - 2. Growth factor receptors mediate signals from growth factors (e.g., *ERBB2* [*HER2/neu*] in breast cancer).
 - 3. Signal transducers relay receptor activation to the nucleus (e.g., ras).
 - i. Ras is associated with growth factor receptors in an inactive GDP-bound state.

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