NEOPLASIA 3

0

Fe A. Bartolome, MD, FPASMAP Department of Pathology Our Lady of Fatima University

Fundamental Changes in Cell Physiology That Determine Malignant Phenotype

- 1. Self-sufficiency in growth signals
- 2. Insensitivity to growth-inhibiting signals
- 3. Evasion of apoptosis
- 4. Limitless replicative potential
- 5. Sustained angiogenesis
- 6. Ability to invade and metastasize
- 7. Defects in DNA repair

Review of Apoptosis

- Programmed cell death
- Triggers: range from DNA damage to loss of adhesion to the basement membrane ("anoikis")
- Two pathways: extrinsic (via death receptor CD95/Fas) and intrinsic (mitochondrial)

Extrinsic Pathway

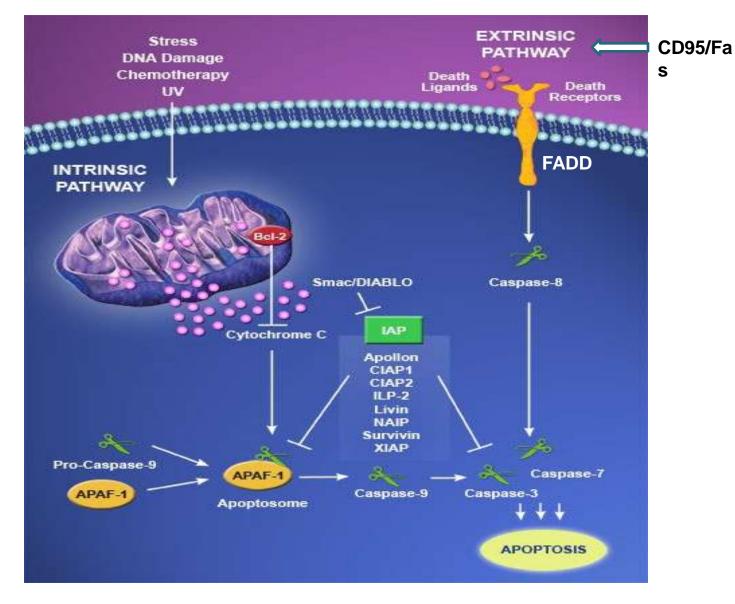
- 1. Binding of CD95/Fas to CD95L/FasL
- Trimerization of receptor and its cytoplasmic *death domain* → attract FADD
- Recruitment of procaspase 8 by FADD → formation of deathinducing signalling complex
- 4. Generation of caspase 8
- Activation of caspase 3 (executioner caspase) → cell death

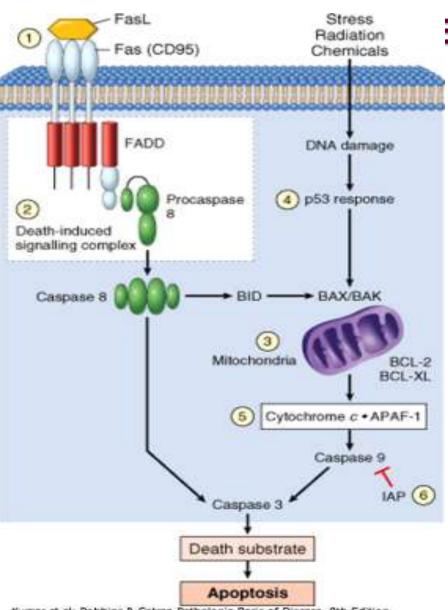
Intrinsic Pathway

- 1. Cleavage and activation of BH3only protein BID by caspase 8
- 2. Permeabilization of mitochondrial membrane
- 3. Release of cytochrome c
- 4. Binding of cytochrome c to APAF-1

 → activation of caspase 9 →
 cleavage and activation of
 executioner caspases

- Integrity of mitochondrial outer membrane regulated by antiapoptotic proteins BCL2 & BCL-XL
- Pro-apoptotic proteins: BAX & BAK
- BH3-only proteins (BAD, BID, PUMA) → regulate the balance between pro- and antiapoptotic proteins







CD95 receptor-induced and DNA damage-triggered pathways of apoptosis and mechanisms used by tumor cells to evade cell death.

(1) Reduced CD95 level. (2) Inactivation of death-induced signaling complex by FLICE protein (caspase 8; apoptosisrelated cysteine peptidase). Reduced (3) egress of cytochrome С from mitochondrion as a result of up-regulation of BCL2. (4) of Reduced levels proapoptotic BAX resulting from (5) Loss of loss of p53. apoptotic peptidase activating factor 1 (APAF1). (6) Upregulation of inhibitors of apoptosis (IAP). FADD, Fasassociated via death domain

- Reduced levels of CD95/Fas → decreased susceptibility of tumor cells to apoptosis
- Some tumors with high FLIP levels → prevent activation of caspase 8
- Overexpression of BCL2 → inhibit apoptosis

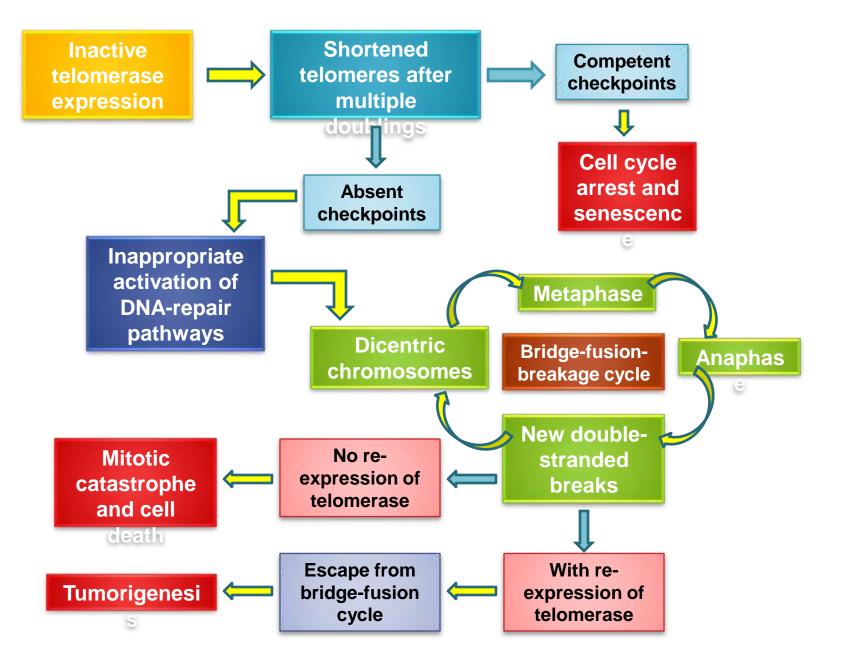
Fundamental Changes in Cell Physiology That Determine Malignant Phenotype

- 1. Self-sufficiency in growth signals
- 2. Insensitivity to growth-inhibiting signals
- 3. Evasion of apoptosis
- 4. Limitless replicative potential
- 5. Sustained angiogenesis
- 6. Ability to invade and metastasize
- 7. Defects in DNA repair

Limitless replicative potential

- Most normal human cells with capacity of 60 – 70 doublings → after doublings, cell lose ability to divide → become senescent → due to shortening of telomeres at ends of chromosomes
- Short telomeres → recognized by DNA-repair machinery → cell cycle arrest mediated by p53 and RB

- Cells with disabled checkpoints → nonhomologous end-joining pathway activated → fusion of shortened ends of two chromosomes → dicentric chromosomes → (+) genomic instability
- 2. Reactivation of telomerase → bridgefusion-breakage cycle cease → cell survives despite genomic instability → accumulation of numerous mutations → malignancy



- Telomerase active in normal stem cells but normally absent, or expressed at very low levels in most somatic cells
- 85% 95% of cancers with upregulation of enzyme telomerase → lengthening of telomeres → no cell cycle arrest or senescence

Fundamental Changes in Cell Physiology That Determine Malignant Phenotype

1. Self-sufficiency in growth signals

- 2. Insensitivity to growth-inhibiting signals
- 3. Evasion of apoptosis
- 4. Limitless replicative potential
- 5. Sustained angiogenesis
- 6. Ability to invade and metastasize
- 7. Defects in DNA repair

- Solid tumors cannot enlarge beyond 1 to 2 mm in diameter unless they are vascularized
- Cancer cells can stimulate:
 - 1. Neoangiogenesis new vessels from previously existing capillaries
 - 2. Vasculogenesis endothelial cells recruited from bone marrow

- Tumor vasculature abnormal
 - Leaky and dilated
 - Haphazard pattern of connection
- Effects of neovascularization on tumor growth:
 - 1. Supply of nutrients and oxygen
 - 2. (+) secretion of growth factors (e.g. IGFs, PDGF, granulocytemacrophage colony stimulating factor) → stimulation of growth of adjacent tumor cells

- Angiogenesis is required for:
 - 1. Continued tumor growth
 - Access to the vasculature → metastasis
- Angiogenesis is a necessary biologic correlate of malignancy

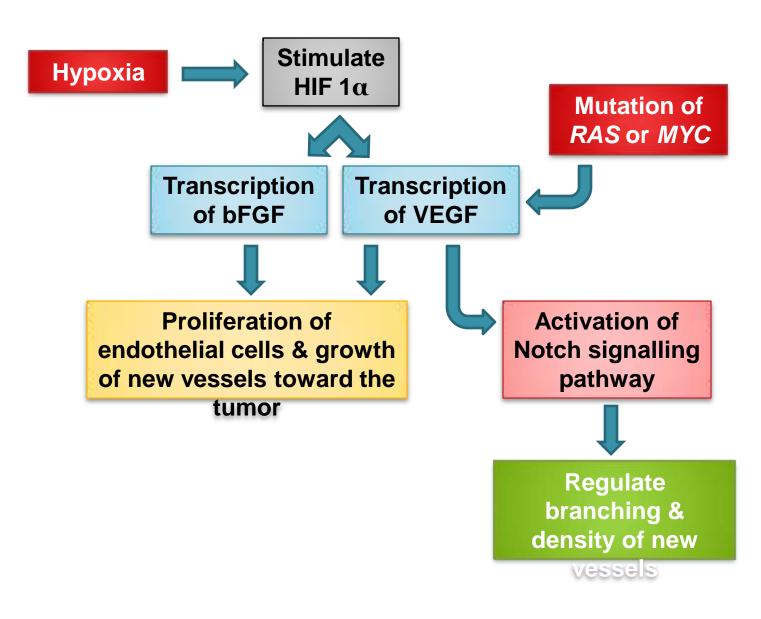
Anti-angiogenesis factors

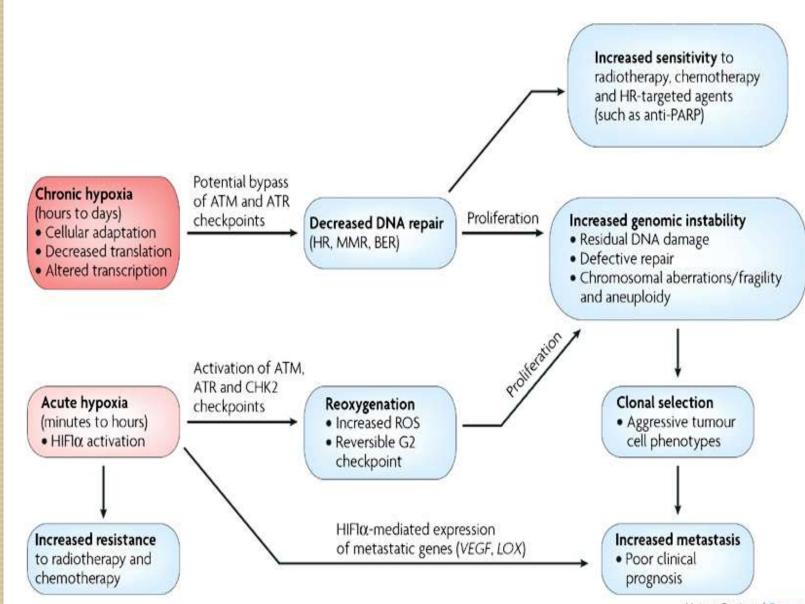
- 1. Thrombospondin
 - Platelet factor 4; regulated by p53
- 2. Angiostatin
 - Cleavage product of plasminogen
- 3. Endostatin
 - Cleavage product of collagen type XVIII
- 4. Vasostatin
 - Cleavage product of transthyretin

- Tumor angiogenesis is controlled by a balance between angiogenesis promoters and inhibitors → involves proteases secreted by tumor cells or inflammatory cells
 - Increased production of angiogenic factors and/or loss of angiogenic inhibitors
- Angiogenic switch controlled by physiologic stimuli such as hypoxia

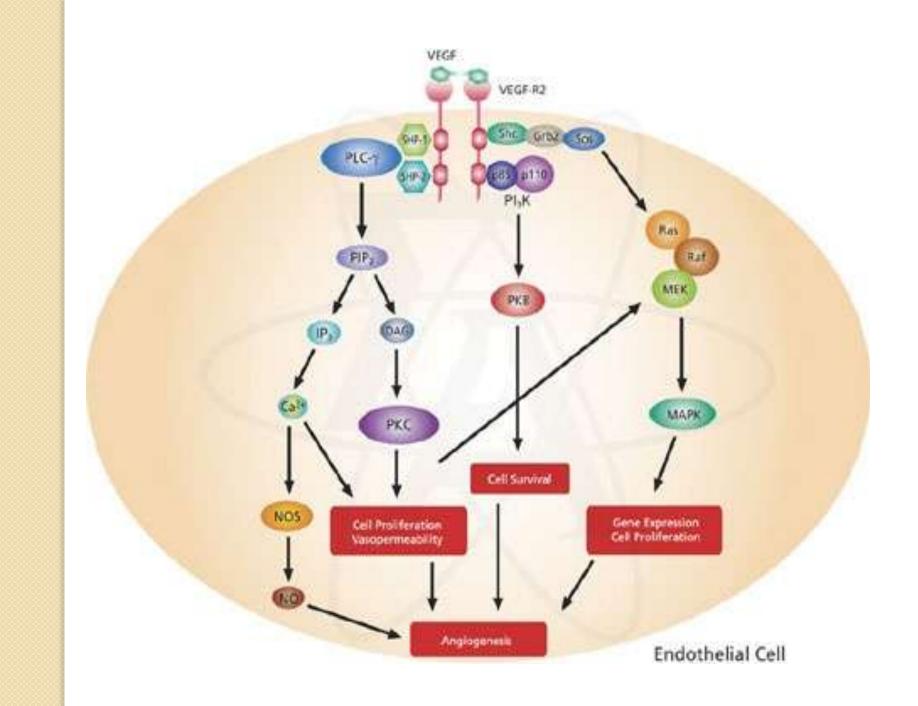
Μ 0 L E C U L A R B A S I S

Sustained angiogenesis





Nature Reviews | Cancer



- Angiogenesis factors produced by tumor cells include:
 - 1. Vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF)
 - 2. Basic fibroblast growth factor (bFGF)
 - 3. Angiopoietin (Ang)

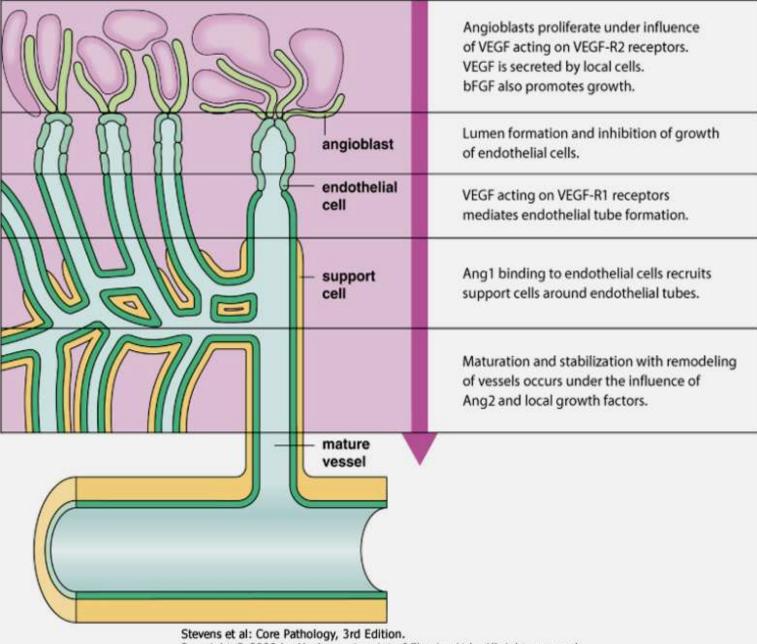
Angiopoietins (Ang)

a) Ang 1

 Promotes stabilization and growth of vessels from capillary types to larger types by recruiting peri-endothelial cells

b) Ang 2

 Promotes remodelling and maturation of developing vascular networks



Copyright © 2009 by Mosby, an imprint of Elsevier, Ltd . All rights reserved.

Fundamental Changes in Cell Physiology That Determine Malignant Phenotype

- 1. Self-sufficiency in growth signals
- 2. Insensitivity to growth-inhibiting signals
- 3. Evasion of apoptosis
- 4. Limitless replicative potential
- 5. Sustained angiogenesis
- 6. Ability to invade and metastasize
- 7. Defects in DNA repair

Ability to invade and metastasize

- Biologic hallmarks of malignant tumors
- Metastatic cascade divided into two phases:
 - 1. Invasion of extracellular matrix (basement membrane & interstitial connective tissue)
 - 2. Vascular dissemination, homing of tumor cells, and colonization

Invasion of Extracellular Matrix: Steps

- 1. Dissociation of cells from one another
 - Down regulation of E-cadherin due to mutation in the gene for Ecadherin or gene for catenins → reduced ability of cells to adhere to each other → facilitate detachment from primary tumor

Invasion of Extracellular Matrix: Steps

Μ

0

LEC

U

L A

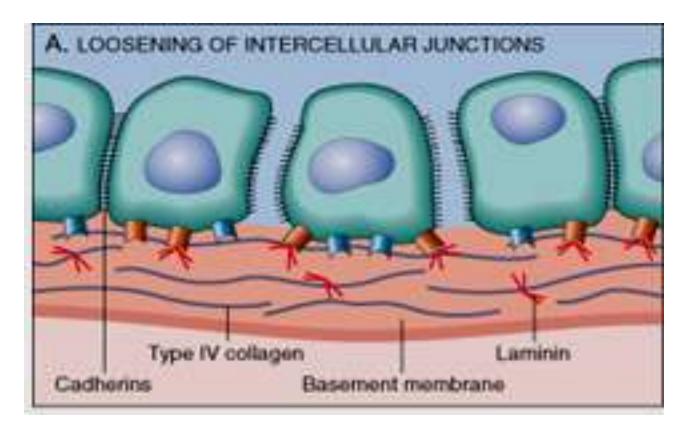
R

B

A S

S

1. Dissociation of cells from one another



- 2. Local degradation of the basement membrane and interstitial connective tissue
 - Tumor cells:
 - a) Secrete proteolytic enzymes
 - ✓ Matrix metalloproteinases (MMPs)
 → remodel insoluble components of basement membrane & release
 ECM-sequestered growth factors
 - cathepsin D, urokinase plasminogen activator
 - ✓ MMP9 → cleave type IV collagen of epithelial and vascular basement membrane & stimulate release of VEGF

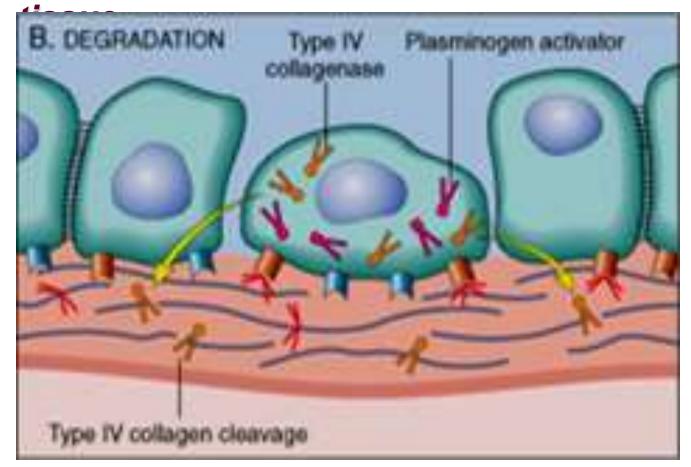
- 2. Local degradation of the basement membrane and interstitial connective tissue
 - Tumor cells:
 - a) Secrete proteolytic enzymes
 - b) Induce stromal cells (e.g.
 - Fibroblasts, inflammatory cells) to elaborate proteases

2. Local degradation of basement membrane and interstitial connective tissue

- Tumor cells can adopt a second mode of invasion called amoeboid migration
 - ✓ Tumor cells squeeze through spaces in the matrix → utilize collagen fibers as high-speed "railways"



2. Local degradation of basement membrane and interstitial connective



Μ

0

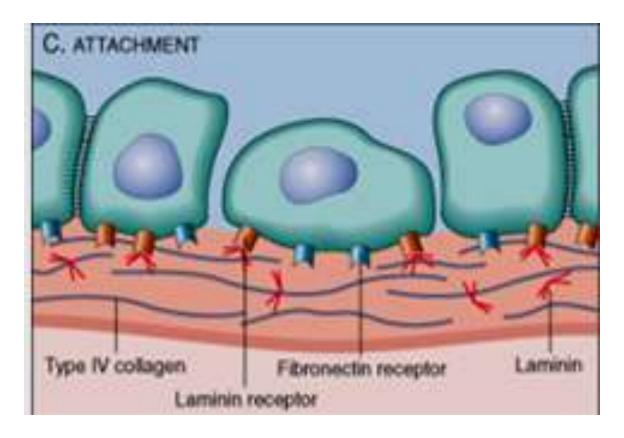
- 3. Changes in attachment of tumor cells to ECM proteins
 - Normal epithelial cells with receptors such as integrins for basement membrane laminin and collagen → help maintain cells in a resting, differentiated state
 - Loss of adhesion in normal cells → induction of apoptosis but tumor cells resistant

3. Changes in attachment of tumor cells to ECM proteins

 Cleavage of basement membrane proteins collagen IV and laminin by MMP2 or MMP9 → generate novel sites → bind to receptors on tumor cells → stimulate migration

Local Invasion

3. Changes in attachment of tumor cells to ECM proteins



Local Invasion

4. Locomotion

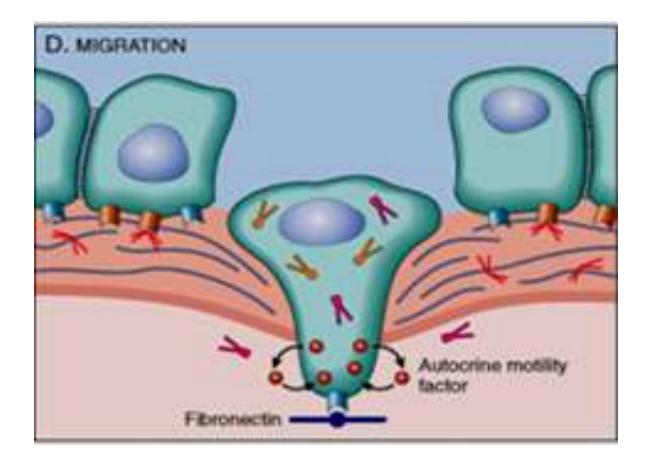
- Final step in invasion
- Tumor cells attach to the matrix at the leading edge → detach from matrix at trailing edge → contract the actin cytoskeleton to ratchet forward
- Movement potentiated and directed by tumor-derived cytokines
 - Autocrine motility factors

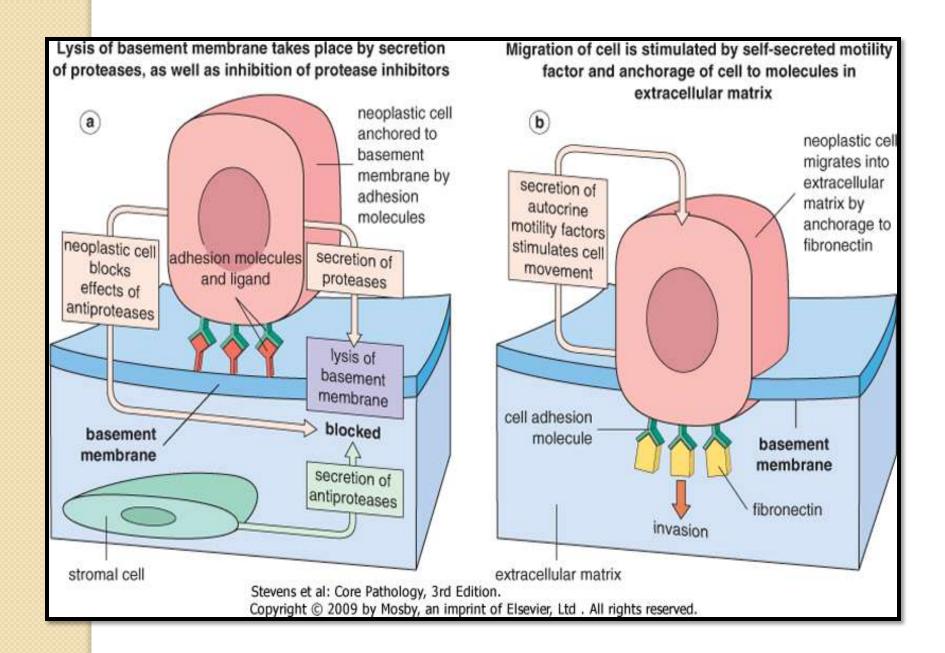
4. Locomotion

- Cleavage products of matrix components (collagen, laminin) and some growth factors (IGFs I and II) → with chemotactic activity for tumor cells
- Stromal cells → produce paracrine effectors of cell motility (e.g. Hepatocyte growth factor-scatter factor) → bind to receptors on tumor cells

Local Invasion

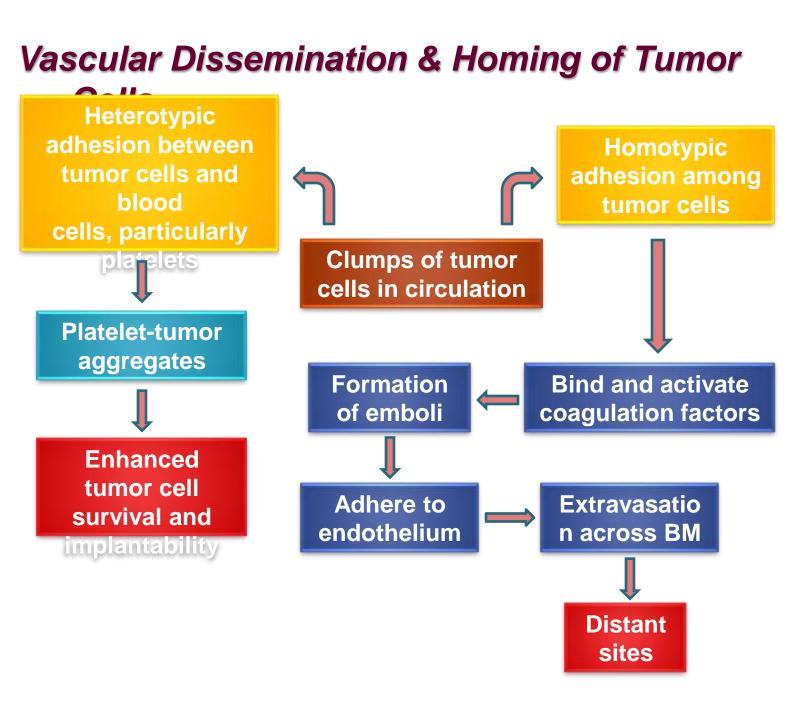
4. Locomotion





Local Invasion

- In the circulation, tumor cells are vulnerable to destruction by the following mechanisms:
 - 1. Mechanical shear stress
 - 2. Apoptosis stimulated by loss of adhesion
 - 3. Innate and adaptive immune defenses
- Within the circulation, tumor cells tend to aggregate in clumps



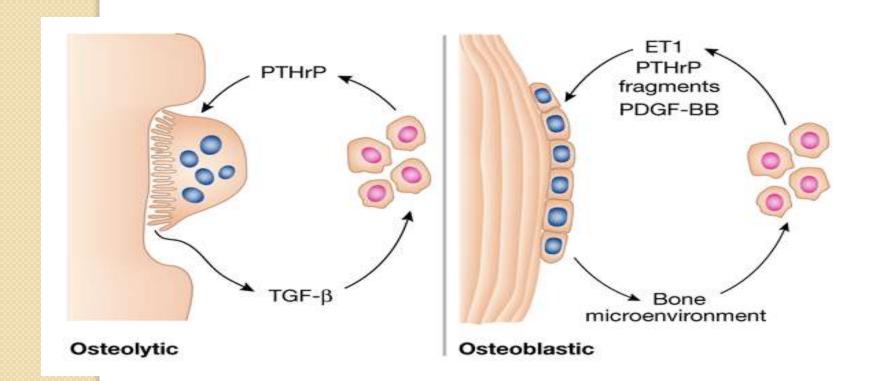
- Involvement of adhesion molecules (integrins, laminin receptors) & proteolytic enzymes
 - CD44 adhesion molecule
 - Expressed on normal T cells
 - Bind to hyaluronate on high endothelial venules
 - Overexpression → favor metastatic spread
- Most metastases occur in the first capillary bed available to the tumor

- Certain tumors with organ tropism for spread not explained by natural pathways of drainage, which may be related to the following mechanisms:
 - 1. Preferential expression of ligands for tumor cell-adhesion molecules on the endothelial cells of the target organ.

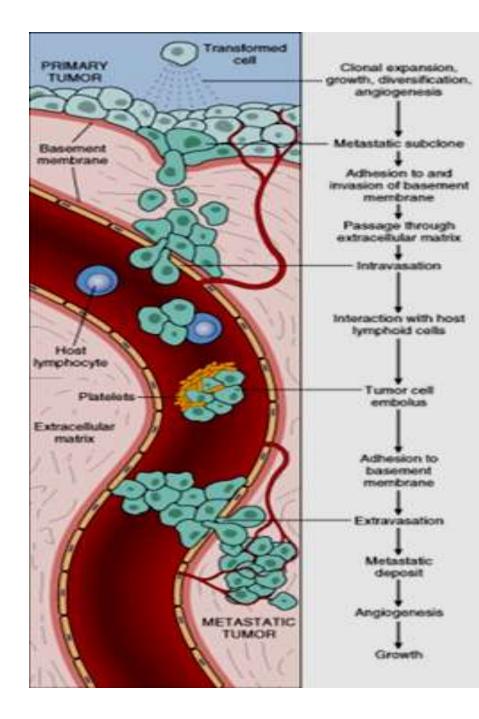
- 2. Chemokines have an important role in determining the target tissues for metastasis.
 - Breast cancer cells express the chemokine receptors CXCR4 and CCR7 → chemokines highly expressed in tissues to which breast cancers commonly metastasize
 - Some target organs liberate chemo- attractants that recruit tumor cells to the site (e.g. IGFs I

- 3. In some cases, the target tissue may be a non-permissive environment for the growth of tumor seedlings
 - Skeletal muscles are rarely the site of metastases

- Tumor cells secrete cytokines, growth factors, and ECM molecules that act on resident stromal cells → make the metastatic site habitable for the cancer cells
 - ✓ Breast cancer cells secrete parathyroid hormone-related protein (PTHRP) → stimulate osteoblasts to make RANK ligand → activate osteoclasts → breast cancer metastases to bone osteolytic

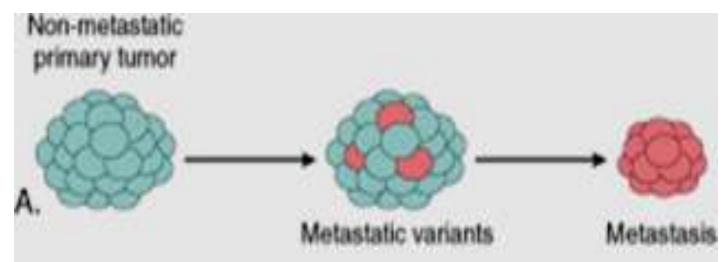


Tumour-bone paracrine interactions. Left-hand side, an osteolytic interaction in which parathyroid-hormone-related protein (PTHrP), which is produced by tumour cells, stimulates the activity of bone-eating osteoclasts (multinucleate cell). Osteoclasts in turn produce transforming growth factor- (TGF-), which stimulates the tumour cells. Right-hand side, osteoblastic interactions. Tumour cells produce many factors, including endothelin 1 (ET1), PTHrP and platelet-derived growth factor (PDGF)-BB, which stimulate the activity of bone-producing osteoblasts (blue nuclei). Osteoblasts in turn produce factors that stimulate the growth of the tumour cells.



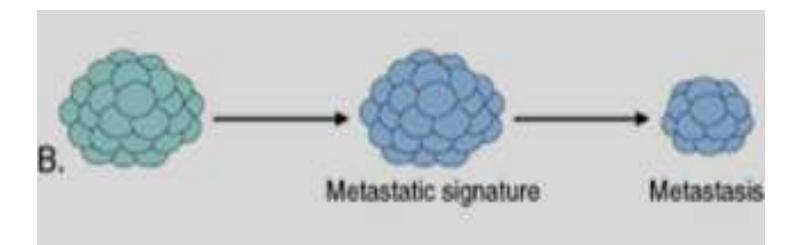
The metastatic cascade. Sequential steps involved in the hematogenous spread of a tumor.

- 1. Clonal evolution model
 - Metastasis is caused by rare variant clones that develop in the primary tumor.

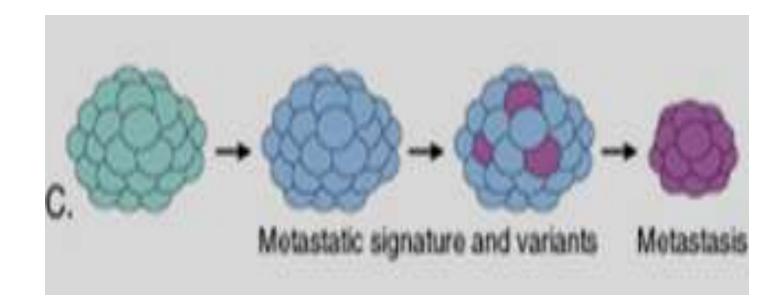


2. Expression of metastasis signature

 Metastasis is caused by multiple abnormalities that occur in most cells of the primary tumor early in the development of the tumor

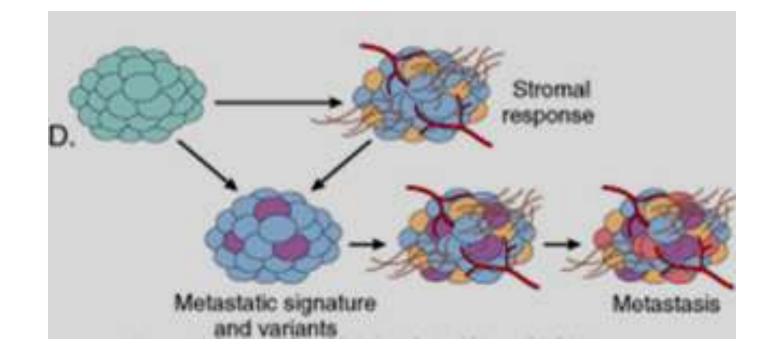


3. Appearance of metastatic variants in a tumor with a metastatic gene signature



- 4. Corollary of tumor stem cell hypothesis
 - Metastasis development is greatly influenced by the tumor stroma, which may regulate angiogenesis, local invasiveness, and resistant to immune elimination → allow cells of the primary tumor to become metastatic

4. Corollary of tumor stem cell hypothesis



Genes implicated in control of metastasis

Metastatic suppressor gene

- A gene whose loss promotes the development of metastasis without an effect on the primary tumor
- Examples: mir335 and mir126 → suppress metastasis in breast cancer

Genes implicated in control of metastasis

Metastatic oncogene

- A gene that favors the development of metastasis without effect upon the primary tumor
- Examples:
 - / Mir10b
 - ✓ SNAIL & TWIST → promote epithelial-to-mesenchymal transistion (EMT) → down-regulate
 E-cadherin expression in breast carcinoma

Fundamental Changes in Cell Physiology That Determine Malignant Phenotype

- 1. Self-sufficiency in growth signals
- 2. Insensitivity to growth-inhibiting signals
- 3. Evasion of apoptosis
- 4. Limitless replicative potential
- 5. Sustained angiogenesis
- 6. Ability to invade and metastasize
- 7. Defects in DNA repair

- Individuals born with inherited defects in DNA-repair proteins are at a higher risk of developing cancer.
- Defects in repair mechanisms are present in sporadic human cancers.
- DNA-repair genes are not oncogenic

 → abnormalities allow mutations in
 other genes during the process of
 normal cell division.

- Three types of DNA-repair systems:
 - 1. Mismatch repair
 - 2. Nucleotide excision repair
 - 3. Recombination repair
- Genomic instability occurs when both copies of the DNA-repair genes are lost.

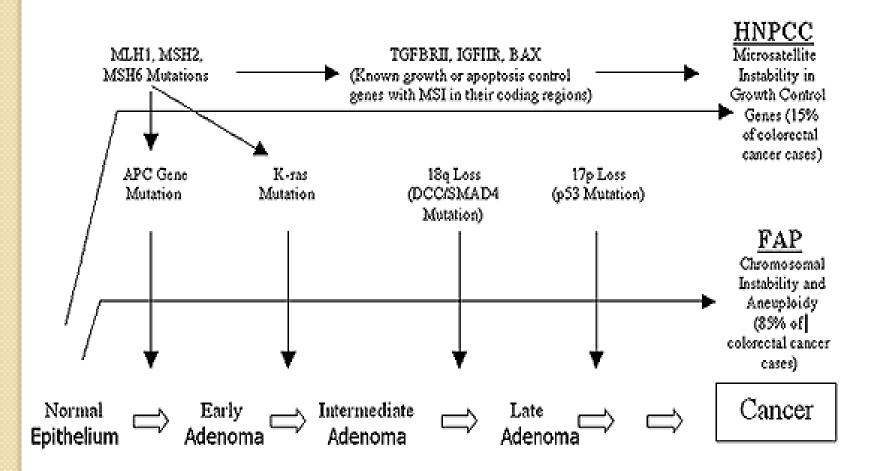
Defects in genes involved in mismatch repair

Hereditary Nonpolyposis Colon Cancer Synd.

- Familial carcinomas of the colon affecting predominantly the cecum and proximal colon
- Result of error in "proofreading"
- Hallmark is microsatellite instability
 - Microsatellites tandem repeats of one to six nucleotides; length constant in normal people
 - In HNPCC, length varies in tumor cells

Defects in genes involved in mismatch repair Hereditary Nonpolyposis Colon Cancer Synd.

- Affected individuals inherit one defective copy of a DNA mismatchrepair gene → "second hit" occurs in colonic epithelial cells
- Involves mutations in the growth regulating genes encoding TGF-ß receptor II, TCF component of ßcatenin pathway, BAX



Defects in nucleotide excision repair

Xeroderma pigmentosum

- Increased risk for cancers of the skin, particularly after exposure to UV radiation from sunlight
- UV radiation → cross-linking of pyrimidine residues → inhibit DNA replication



Defects in recombination repair

Bloom syndrome, Ataxia telangiectasia, Fanconi anemia

- Characterized by hypersensitivity to other DNA-damaging agents such as:
 - Ionizing radiation (Bloom synd. and ataxia telangiectasia)
 - DNA cross-linking chemotherapeutic agens (Fanconi anemia)

Defects in recombination repair

Bloom Syndrome (BS)

Bloom syndrome

- Defective gene on chromosome 15
- Predisposition to cancer + developmental defects

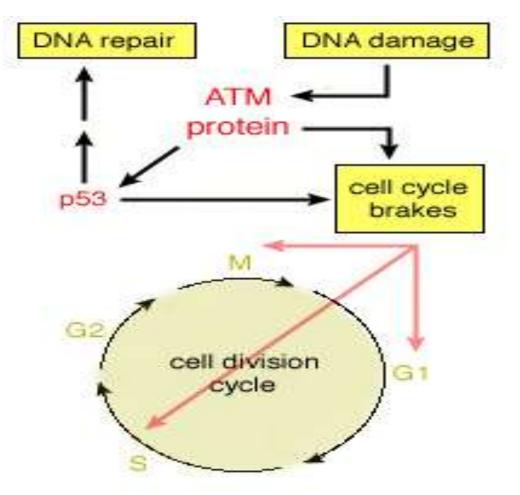


- * sun-sensitive skin
- * dwarfism
- * immune deficiencies
- male infertility
- * female subfertile
- cancer as primary cause of death before age of 30

Defects in recombination repair

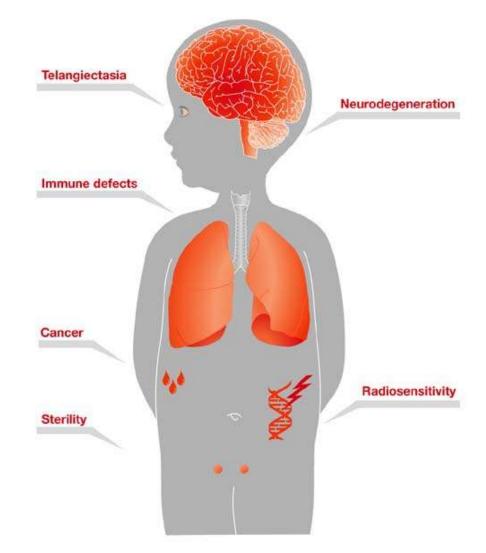
Ataxia telangiectasia

- Predisposition to cancer + neural symptoms
- Mutation of ATM gene → gene product important in recognizing and responding to DNA damage caused by ionizing radiation



The ATM protein mediates responses to DNA damage, in particular those that control progression through the cell cycle.



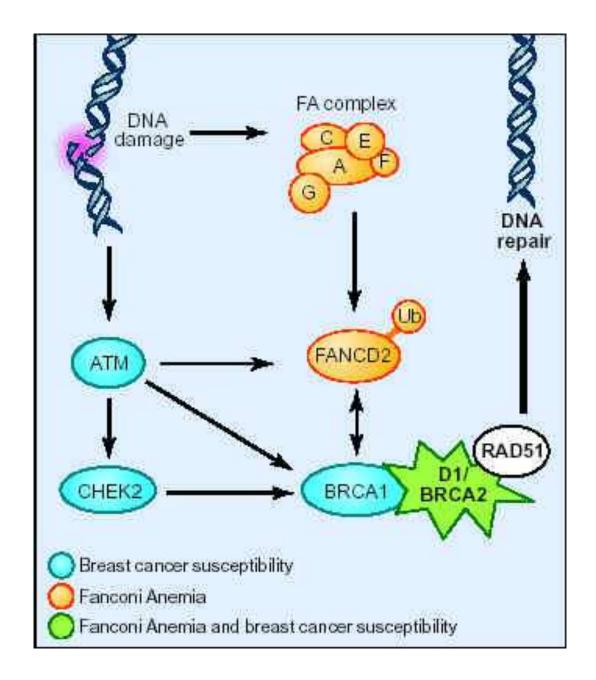


Ataxia telangiectasia. The hallmark of clinical presentation is a debilitating progressive neurodegeneration. Other characteristics are extreme radiosensitivity, immun odeficiency, a predisposition to cancer (haematopoietic malignancy) and sterility due to defective meiotic recombination. Ocular and facial telangiectasia are also associated with AT.

Defects in recombination repair

Fanconi anemia

- Predisposition to cancer + bone marrow aplasia
- Fanconi anemia proteins and the BRCA proteins form a DNAdamage response network → resolve and repair intrastrand and interstrand cross-links induced by chemical agents



Warburg effect (aerobic glycolysis)

- Glycolysis that occurs in the face of adequate oxygen for oxidative phosphorylation
- Eighth hallmark of cancer

Warburg effect: Hypotheses

- 1. Altered metabolism confers a growth advantage in the hypoxic tumor microenvironment.
 - Hypoxia → HIF 1α → stimulate angiogenesis and up-regulate expression of enzymes for glycolysis
- 2. Continuous rounds of hypoxia followed by normoxia select for tumor cells that constitutively upregulate glycolysis.

Warburg effect: Hypotheses

- 3. Mutations in oncogenes and tumor suppressors that favor growth (e.g. RAS, p53, and PTEN) also stimulate metabolic changes in the cell.
 - Alterations in signalling pathways in cancer can also stimulate the uptake of glucose and other nutrients → favor glycolysis

Warburg effect: Hypotheses

- 4. Tumor cells are able to grow under marginal environmental conditions without triggering autophagy
 - Mutation or epigenetic silencing of genes involved in autophagy, most notably PTEN

- Change in chromosome number (aneuploidy) and chromosomal instability may be the initiating events in tumor growth
- Two types of chromosomal rearrangements that can activate protooncogenes: translocations (more common) and inversions

- Mechanisms of activation by translocation:
 - Swapping of regulatory elements with those of another gene → overexpression of proto-oncogene (e.g. lymphoid tumors - Burkitt's lymphoma)

- Mechanisms of activation by translocation:
 - Recombination of unrelated sequences from two different chromosomes → form hybrid fusion genes → e.g. Philadelphia chromosome of CML; hematopoietic tumors, sarcomas

- Deletions
 - Second most common structural abnormality in tumor cells
 - More common in nonhematopoietic solid tumors
 - Associated with loss of particular tumor suppressor genes
 - e.g. Retinoblastoma (deletion of chr. 13q14)

Gene Amplification

- Reduplication and amplification of DNA sequences of proto-oncogenes
 → over-expression of products
- Examples:
 - Amplification of N-MYC in neuroblastoma
 - *ERBB2* amplification in breast cancers
 - C-MYC, L-MYC, N-MYC amplification in small cell lung CA

Epigenetic Changes

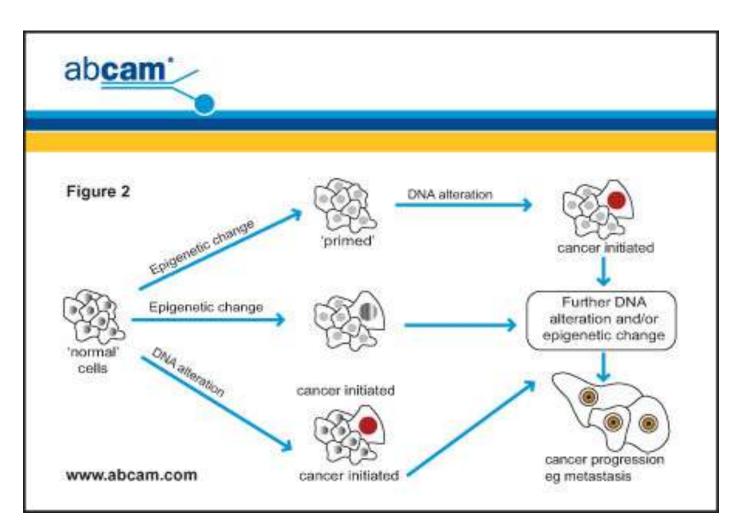
- Reversible, heritable changes in gene expression that occur without mutation
- Involve post-translational modifications of histones and DNA methylation

Epigenetic Changes

- Normal cells:
 - ✓ Majority of genes not expressed → silenced by DNA methylation and histone modification →

heterochromatin formation

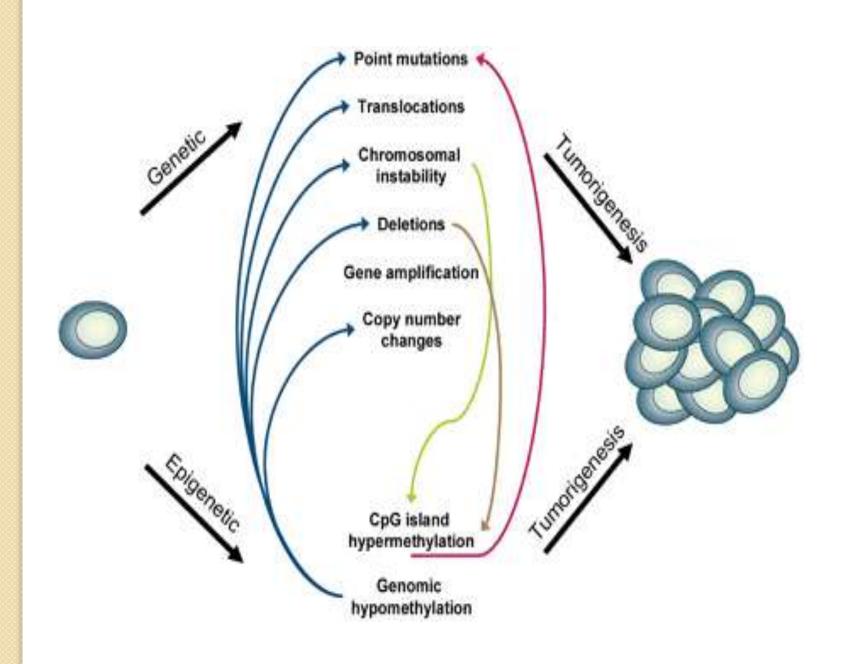
- Cancer cells:
 - Characterized by global hypomethylation and selective promoter-localized hypermethylation



How genetic and epigenetic alterations may cooperate in the genesis of cancer. Potential pathways are shown indicating how genetic change may precede epigenetic change, and vice versa, as the cause of cancer.

Epigenetic Changes

Tumor suppressor genes are sometimes silenced by hypermethylation of promoter sequences rather than mutation \checkmark Example: CDKN2A \rightarrow codes for tumor suppressors p14/ARF and p16/INK4a \rightarrow affect p53 and Rb → inhibit two checkpoints ✓ BRCA 1 (breast cancer) and VHL (renal cell CA)



- Small, non-coding, single-stranded RNAs (~22 nucleotides long) that are incorporated into the RNA-induced silencing complex
- Mediate sequence-specific
 recognition of mRNAs and mediate
 post-transcriptional gene silencing
- Control cell growth, differentiation, and cell survival

- If a miRNA inhibits the translation of an oncogene → acts as a tumor suppressor
- If a miRNA inhibits a tumor suppressor gene → acts as an oncogene

- Frequent amplifications and deletions of miRNA loci identified in many cancers
- Reduced activity of a miRNA that inhibits translation of an oncogene → excess oncoprotein
- Overactivity of miRNA that targets a tumor suppressor gene

 decreased production of tumor suppressor
 protein

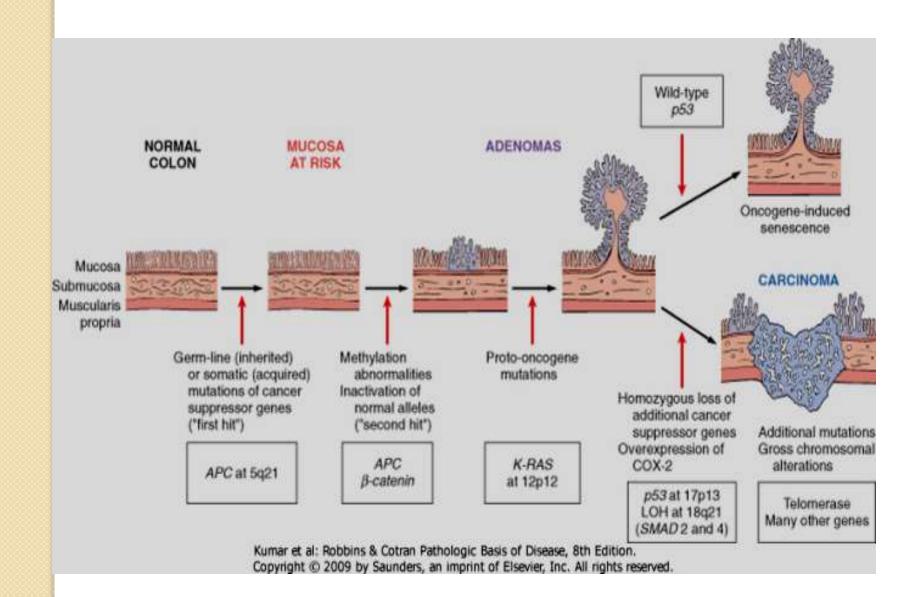
- Down-regulation or deletion of certain miRNAs in some leukemias and lymphomas → increased expression of BCL2 → decreased apoptosis
- miRNA-mediated up-regulation of RAS (lung tumors) and MYC (B-cell leukemias) oncogenes

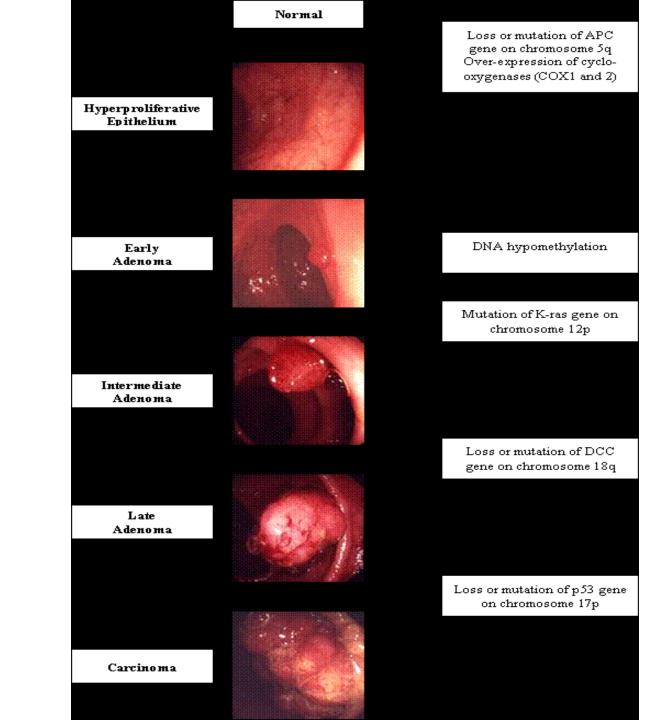
Multistep Carcinogenesis

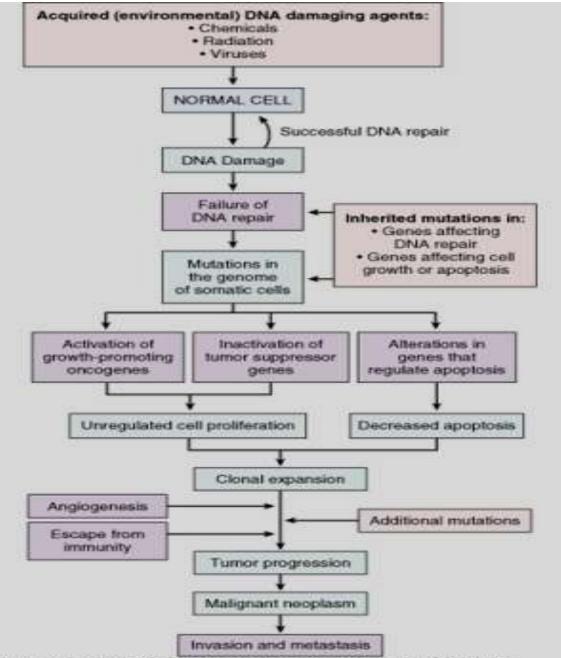
- Each cancer must result from the accumulation of multistep mutations
 - Individual tumors accumulate an average of 90 mutant genes
- No single oncogene can fully transform non-immortalized cells in vitro
- Cells can generally be transformed by combinations of oncogenes

Multistep Carcinogenesis

- "intrinsic tumor-suppressive mechanisms" thwart the actions of growth-promoting mutations
 - In cells with competent checkpoints, oncogenic signalling leads to senescence or apoptosis rather than transformation
 - Emergence of malignant tumors requires mutational loss of many genes, including those that regulate apoptosis and senescence







Kumar et al: Robbins & Cotran Pathologic Basis of Disease, 8th Edition. Copyright © 2009 by Saunders, an imprint of Elsevier, Inc. All rights reserved.



E Ν D of P A R т 3