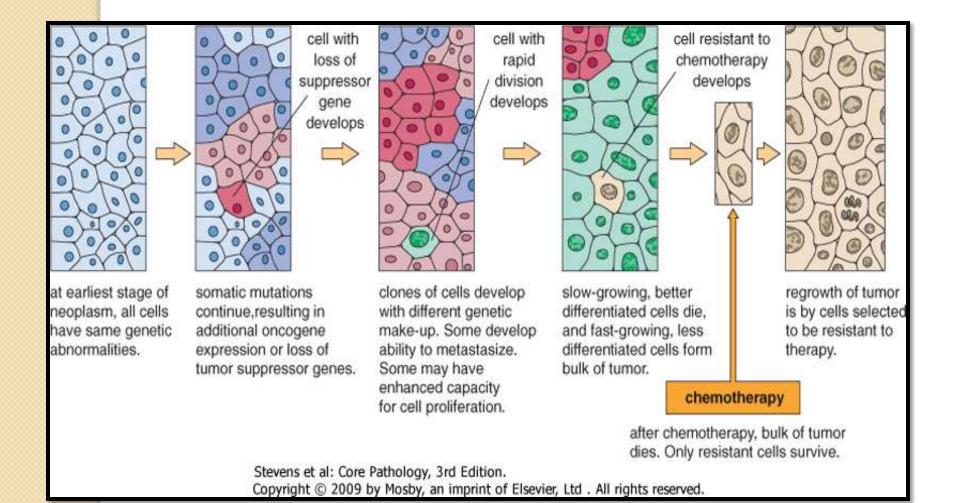
NEOPLASIA 2

0

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

- 1. Non-lethal genetic damage lies at the heart of carcinogenesis.
 - May be acquired (environmental agents or viruses) OR inherited in the germ line
 - Environmental exogenous agents or endogenous products of cell metabolism

- 2. A tumor is formed by the clonal expansion of a single precursor cell that has incurred the genetic damage → tumors are monoclonal
 As tumors develop they undergo further somatic mutation → tumor
 - As tumors develop they undergo further somatic mutation → tumor composed of a set of slightly different cells (tumor heterogeneity) → growth control more abnormal and facilitate metastasis



Μ

0

3. Four classes of regulatory genes are the principal targets of genetic damage.

a) Protooncogenes (*p-oncs*)

- Genes that code for proteins involved in the control of cell growth (e.g. Growth factors, growth factor receptors, signal transducers)
- Mutant alleles dominant → transform cells despite presence of normal counterpart → phenotype affected even if one allele is present

Μ

0

3. Four classes of regulatory genes are the principal targets of genetic damage.

b) Tumor suppressor genes

- Genes that produce products that inhibits cell growth → control G₁ to S phase of cell cycle & nuclear transcription
- Both normal alleles must be damaged for transformation to occur → recessive oncogenes → malignant phenotype only develops if both alleles fail to suppress growth

3. Four classes of regulatory genes are the principal targets of genetic damage.

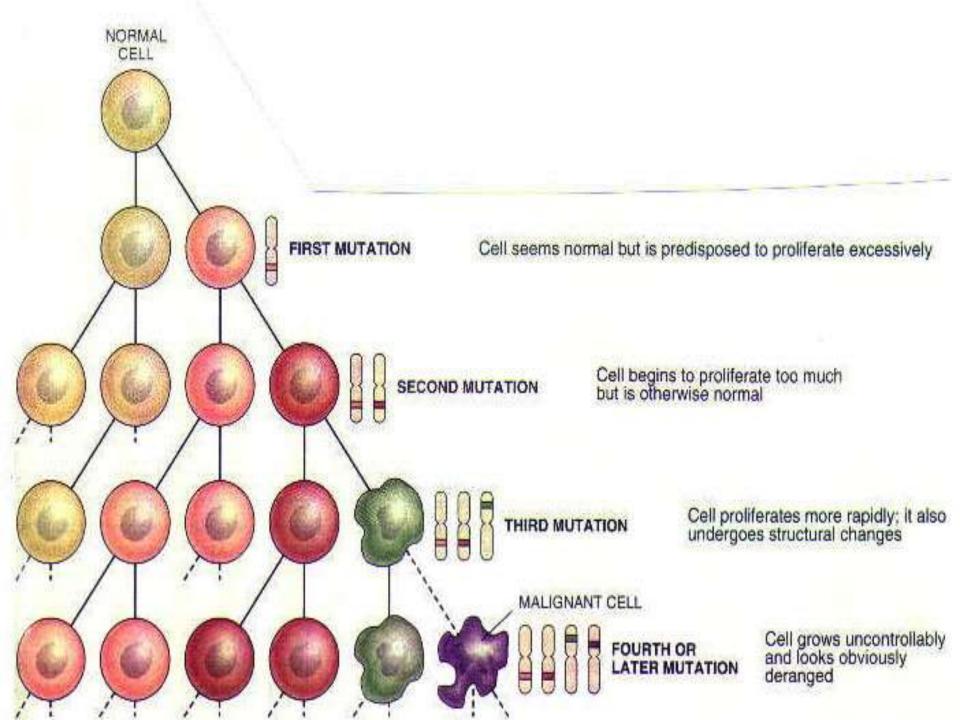
- c) Apoptosis genes
 - Regulate programmed cell death
 - Example: BAX apoptosis gene
 - Activated by TP53 if DNA damage is excessive
 - ✓ BAX protein inactivates the BCL2 anti-apoptosis gene
 - ✓ Mutation of TP53 → inactivate
 BAX → no apoptosis

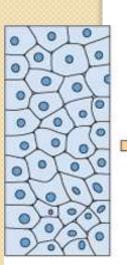
 Four classes of regulatory genes are the principal targets of genetic damage.
 Genes involved in DNA repair

- Loss of activity → DNA instability → somatic mutations in oncogenes or tumor suppressor genes
- Both alleles must be inactivated

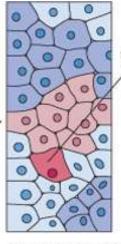


- 4. Carcinogenesis is a multistep process at both the phenotypic and the genetic levels
 - Phenotypic attributes of malignant neoplasms are acquired in a stepwise fashion → called tumor progression
 - Progression results from accumulation of genetic lesions (multiple mutations)





at earliest stage of neoplasm, all cells have same genetic abnormalities.

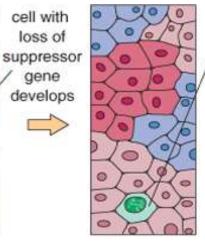


cell with

loss of

gene develops

somatic mutations continue, resulting in additional oncogene expression or loss of tumor suppressor genes.



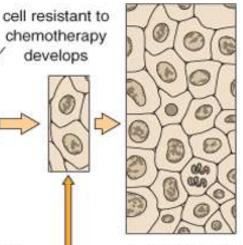
clones of cells develop with different genetic make-up. Some develop ability to metastasize. Some may have enhanced capacity for cell proliferation.

develops

cell with

rapid division

> slow-growing, better differentiated cells die. and fast-growing, less differentiated cells form bulk of tumor.



regrowth of tumor is by cells selected to be resistant to therapy.

chemotherapy

develops

after chemotherapy, bulk of tumor dies. Only resistant cells survive.

Stevens et al: Core Pathology, 3rd Edition.

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Tumor progression and genetic heterogeneity. As tumors develop they undergo further somatic mutation, which causes abnormalities in other oncogenes. Mutations may also lead to cell death. A mutation that puts a cell at a survival disadvantage will cause that clone to be eliminated. A tumor will ultimately consist of many different subclones of cells, those with greater growth potential gradually coming to dominate the lesion.

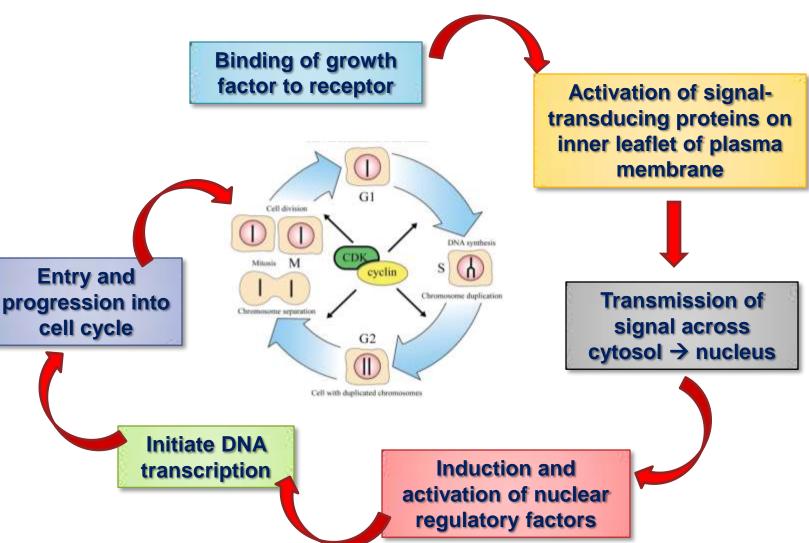
Fundamental Changes in Cell Physiology That Determine Malignant Phenotype

- 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

A. Oncogenes

- Genes that promote autonomous growth in cancer cells
- Unmutated counterparts called proto-oncogenes
- Created by mutations in protooncogenes
- Products similar to normal counterparts but lacks important internal regulatory elements → endow the cell with self-sufficiency in growth

Normal Cell Proliferation



- 1. Growth factors
 - Most soluble growth factors made by one cell type and act on a neighboring cell to stimulate proliferation → paracrine action
 - Most cancer cells able to synthesize the same growth factors to which they are responsive in an autocrine loop

- 2. Growth factor receptors
 - Normal transmembrane receptors: cytoplasmic tyrosine kinase transiently activated → followed by receptor dimerization and tyrosine phosphorylation
 - Oncogenic version: with constitutive dimerization and activation without binding to the growth factor → continuous mitogenic signal to cell even in the absence of growth factors in the environment

Role of Oncoproteins

2. Growth factor receptors

- Mechanisms of constitutive activation of GFRs:
 - a) Mutations and gene rearrangements
 - ✓ RET protein → normally expressed in neuroendocrine cells
 - Point mutation in extracellular domain → MEN 2A (thyroid, adrenal, and parathyroid tumors)
 - Point mutations in cytoplasmic domain → MEN 2B (thyroid and adrenal tumors)

- 2. Growth factor receptors
 - Mechanisms of constitutive activation of GFRs:
 - a) Mutations and gene
 - rearrangements
 - ✓ FLT3 gene → code for FMS-like tyrosine kinase 3 receptor
 - Point mutation → myeloid leukemias

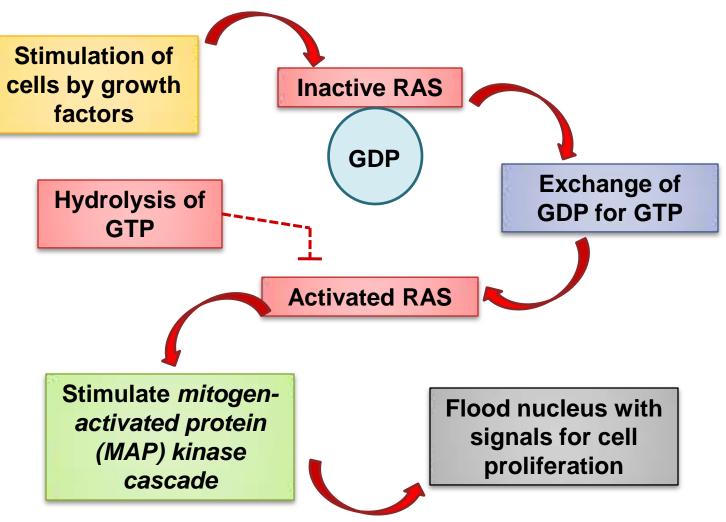
- 2. Growth factor receptors
 - Mechanisms of constitutive activation of GFRs:
 - b) Overexpression of normal forms of GFRs
 - More common
 - ✓ ERBB1 (EGF receptor gene) →
 80% of squamous cell Ca of
 lungs
 - ✓ ERBB2 (HER-2/NEU) → breast
 Ca, adenocarcinoma of ovary

- 3. Signal-Transducing Proteins
 - Located on inner leaflet of the plasma membrane → receive signals from outside the cell → transmit to cell's nucleus
 - Most well studied is RAS family of GTP-binding proteins (G proteins)

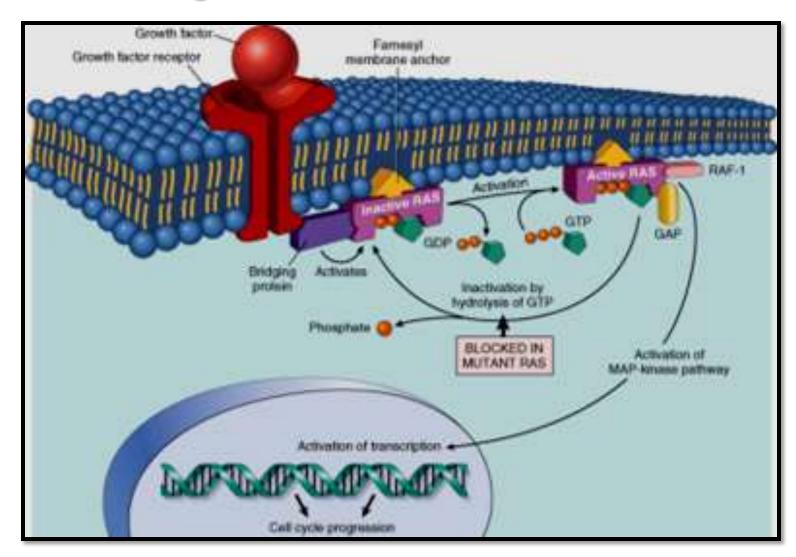
RAS Oncogone (HRAS, KRAS, NRAS)

- Point mutation of proto-oncogene the single most common abnormality in human tumors
- Located at cytoplasmic aspect of plasma membrane as well as membranes of ER and Golgi
- RAS proteins bind guanosine nucleotides

RAS Oncogone



RAS Oncogone



Cyclin D CDK4

NK4

ARF

MDM2

p53

RB

Senescence

Apoptosis

RAS Oncogone

Activation of oncogenic RAS leads to upregulation of INK4A \rightarrow blocks cyclin-D–CDK4-mediated hyperphosphorylation (P) of RB \rightarrow

RAS signalling might also feed into the ARF-p53 pathway to promote apoptosis as well as reinforce cellular senescence.

Nature Reviews | Cancer

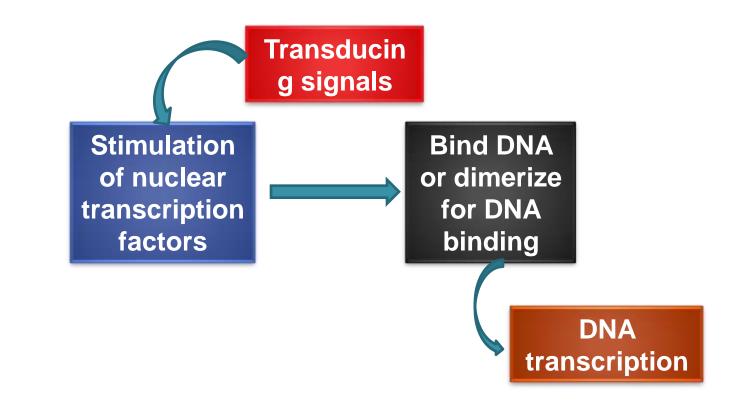
RAS Oncogone

- Mutated RAS trapped in its activated GTP-bound form due to inactivation of GTP hydrolysis → cell forced into a continuous proliferative state
- Mutations of KRAS

 Carcinomas of colon and pancreas
- Mutations of HRAS → bladder tumors
- Mutations of NRAS
 → hematopoietic tumors

Role of Oncoproteins

4. Transcription factors



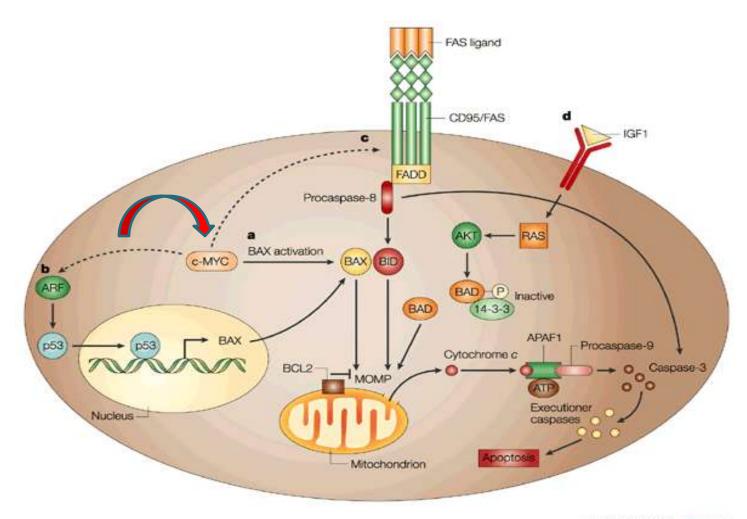
- 4. Transcription factors
 - Ultimate consequence of signalling through oncogenes is inappropriate and continuous stimulation of nuclear transcription factors
 - Growth autonomy occurs as a consequence of mutations affecting genes that regulate transcription (e.g. MYC)

- Proto-oncogene expressed in all eukaryotic cells → immediate response genes → rapidly induced when quiescent cells receive signal to divide
- Target genes of oncogene: include ornithine decarboxylase and cyclin D2
 → associated with cell proliferation

- Range of activities modulated by MYC:
 - 1. Histone acetylation
 - 2. Reduced cell adhesion
 - 3. Increased cell motility
 - 4. Increased telomerase activity
 - 5. Increased protein synthesis
 - 6. Decreased proteinase activity

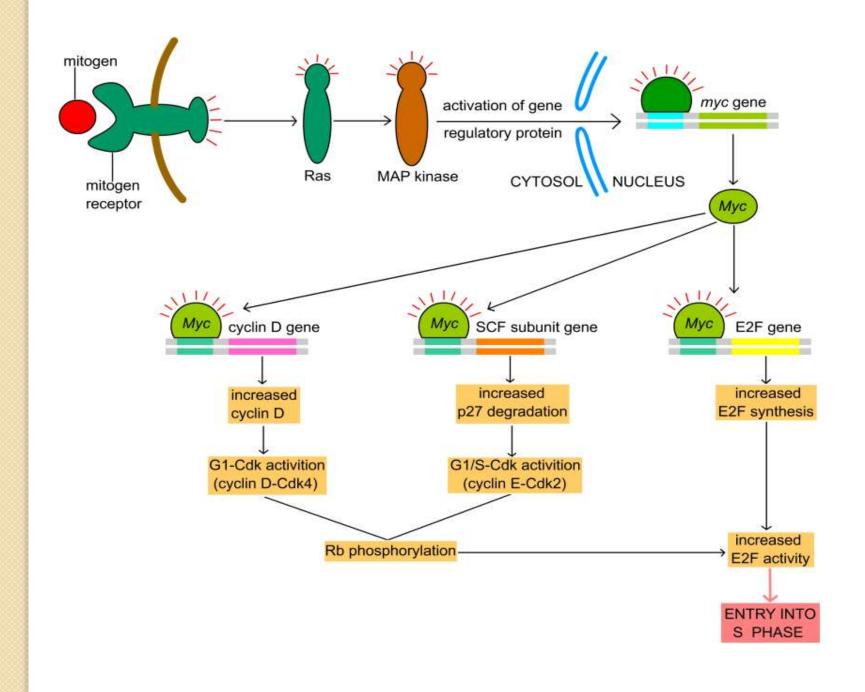
- Range of activities modulated by MYC:
 - 7. Selection of origins of replication overexpression → more origins of replication needed for normal cell replication
 - 8. Bypass checkpoints involved in replication
 - 9. Re-programming of cells into pluripotent stem cells
 - 10. Enhance self-renewal, block differentiation or both

- Persistent expression commonly found in tumors
- Translocation → Burkitt's lymphoma
- Amplification
 Amplification Amplification Amplification



Nature Reviews | Cancer

c-MYC sensitizes cells to a wide range of pro-apoptotic stimuli. During apoptosis, c-MYC induces release of cytochrome c from the mitochondria into the cytosol, possibly through activation of the pro-apoptotic molecule BAX



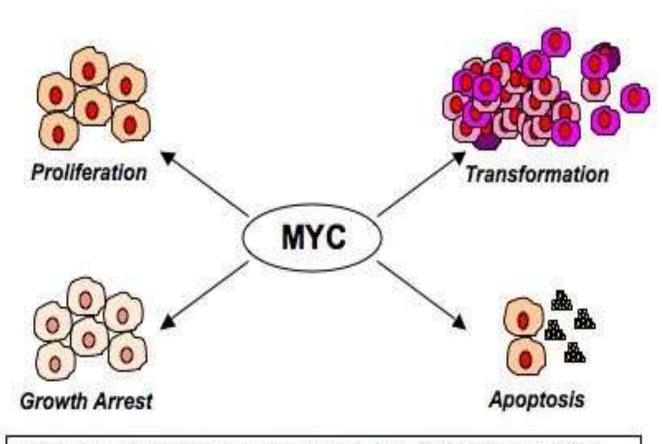
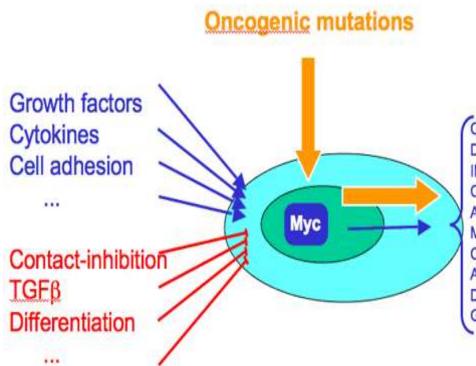


Figure 1. c-Myc induces cell proliferation, cell transformation, growth arrest and apoptosis. The biological response to c-Myc is dependent on the cell lineage and environment.

Myc is an intracellular sensor and transducer of extracellular stimuli



CELL GROWTH & PROLIFERATION DIFFERENTIATION BLOCK IMMORTALIZATION CELLULAR TRANSFORMATION ANGIOGENESIS MIGRATION, METASTASIS CELL FATE TRANSITIONS APOPTOSIS or SENESCENCE DNA DAMAGE RESPONSES GENOMIC INSTABILITY

B. Dysregulated activity of cyclins & CDKs

Normal Cell Cycle:

- Orderly progression of cells through cell cycle orchestrated by CDKs bound to cyclins
- CDK-cyclin complexes phosphorylate crucial target proteins that drive the cell through the cell cycle
- Cyclins D, E, A, and B appear sequentially during the cell cycle and bind to one or more CDKs

B. Dysregulated activity of cyclins & CDKs

- Inhibitors of CDKs (CDKIs)
 - CIP/WAP family → inhibit CDKs broadly
 - p21, p27, p57
 - INK4 family → with selective action on cyclin D/CDK4 and cyclin D/CDK6
 - p15, p16, p18, p19

B. Dysregulated activity of cyclins & CDKs

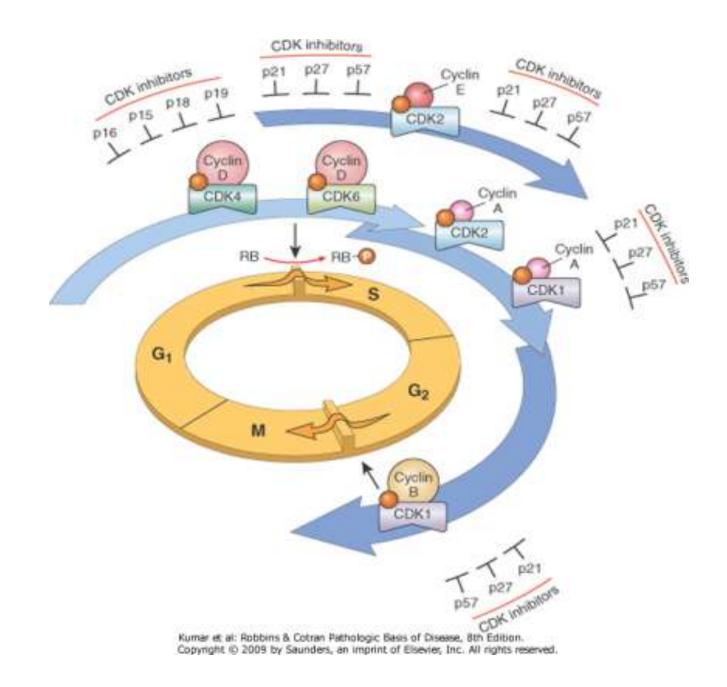
- Cell cycle checkpoints
 - 1. G₁/S checkpoint
 - Checks for DNA damage → prevent replication of cells with defects in DNA
 - 2. G₂/M checkpoint
 - Monitors completion of DNA & checks whether cell can safely initiate mitosis → important in cells exposed to ionizing radiation

B. Dysregulated activity of cyclins & CDKs

- Cell cycle checkpoints
 - ✓ Require:
 - 1. Sensors of DNA damage
 - Proteins of RAD family & ataxia telangiectasia mutated (ATM)
 - 2. Signal transducers
 - CHK kinase family

B. Dysregulated activity of cyclins & CDKs

- Cell cycle checkpoints
 - ✓ Require:
 - 3. Effector molecules
 - > $G_1/S \rightarrow p53$ and p21
 - G₂/M → p53-dependent and p53-independent mechanisms



B. Dysregulated activity of cyclins & CDKs

- Mutations that dysregulate activity of cyclins and CDKs favor cell proliferation
- Mutations affecting expression of cyclin D or CDK4 common in neoplastic transformation
 - ✓ Cyclin D overexpression → Ca of breast, esophagus, liver, lymphomas
 - ✓ Amplification of CDK4 → melanomas, sarcomas,

B. Dysregulated activity of cyclins & CDKs

- CDKIs frequently mutated or otherwise silenced in many human malignancies
 - ✓ Somatically acquired deletion or inactivation of p16 → pancreatic Ca, glioblastomas, esophageal cancers, ALL, bladder cancers
 - ✓ Germline mutations of p16 → melanoma

B. Dysregulated activity of cyclins & CDKs

 Defects in cell cycle checkpoint components are a major cause of genetic instability in cancer cells.

Insensitivity to growth inhibition & escape from senescence

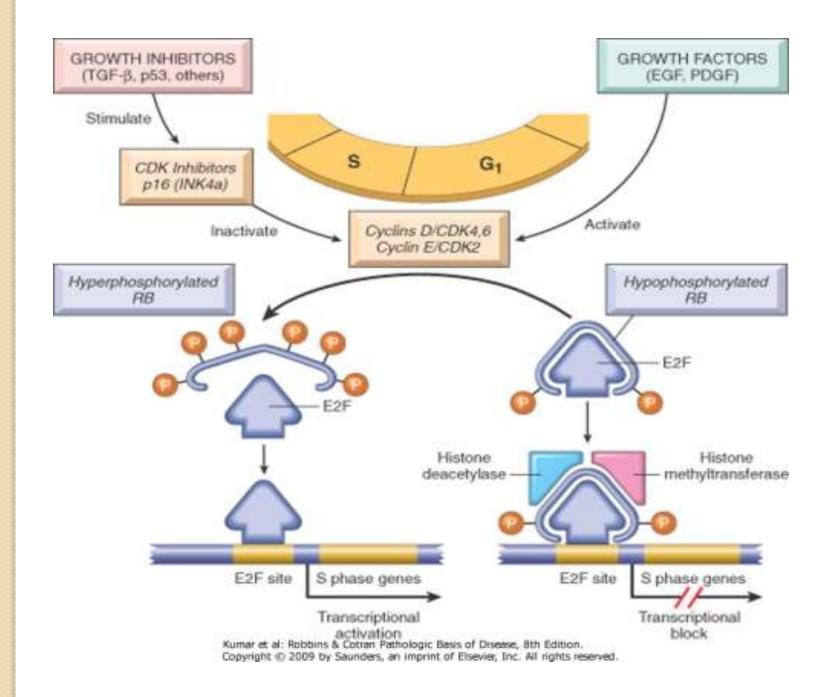
- Apply breaks to cell proliferation → prevent uncontrolled growth
- Recognize genotoxic stress → shut down cell proliferation
- Expression of oncogene in a normal cell → lead to quiescence or permanent cell cycle arrest (oncogene-induced senescence)

- RB protein a ubiquitously expressed nuclear phosphoprotein
- Exists in an active hypophosphorylated state in quiescent cells and an inactive hyperphosphorylated state in the G₁/S cell cycle transition

- Important in its enforcement of G₁ → cells can exit the cell cycle either temporarily (quiescence), or permanently (senescence) → induce senescence
- RB also controls stability of the cell cycle inhibitor p27

- Blocks E2F-mediated transcription by:
 - E2F sequestration → prevent E2F from interacting with other transcriptional activators
 - Recruitment of chromatinremodelling proteins (histone deacetylases & histone methyltransferases) → bind to E2Fresponsive genes (e.g. Cyclin E)

- Hypophosphorylated (active) RB → binds to and inhibits E2F → no cyclin E transcription → progression to S phase inhibited
- Hyperphosphorylated RB → inactive RB → release of E2F → (+) transcription of cyclin E → (+) DNA replication and progression through cell cycle



 Absent RB due to gene mutation → no regulation of E2F transcription factors → (+) DNA replication and continuous progression through cell cyle

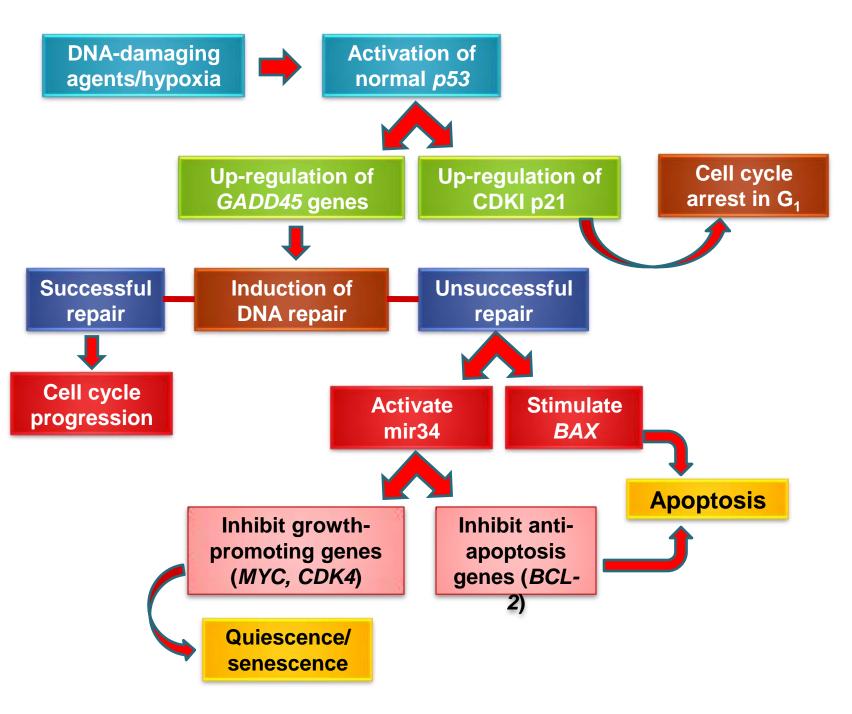
- Mutations in other genes that control RB phosphorylation can mimic the effect of RB loss
 - ✓ Mutational activation of cyclin D or CDK4 → facilitate RB phosphorylation
 - ✓ Mutational inactivation of CDKIs → unregulated activation of cyclins and CDKs

- Loss of normal cell cycle control is central to malignant transformation.
- At least one of the following regulators of the cell cycle is dysregulated in majority of human cancers:
 - 1. p16/INK4a 3. CDK4
 - 2. cyclin D 4. RB

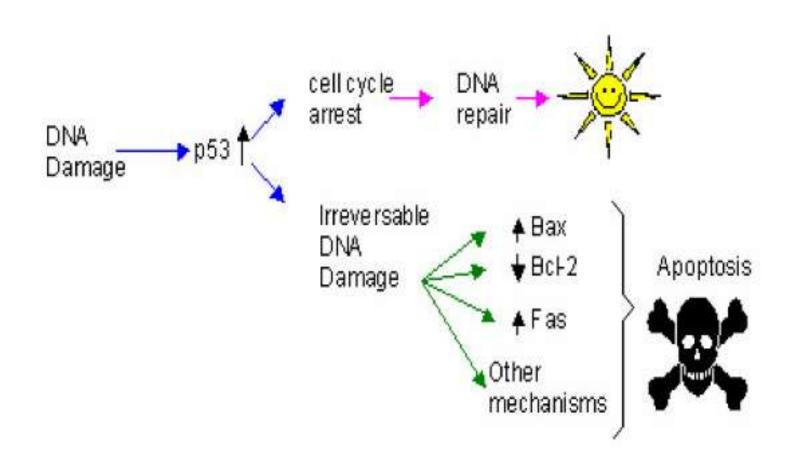
- TP53 gene located at chr. 17p13.1
- Most common target for genetic alterations in human tumors
- Sense cellular stress, such as DNA damage, shortened telomeres, and hypoxia
- Functions as a critical gatekeeper against the formation of cancer → "molecular policeman" or "guardian of the genome"

- p63 and p73 → p53 collaborators ✓ p53 ubiquitously expressed while p63 and p73 with more tissue specificity
 - p63 essential for differentiation of stratified squamous epithelia
 - p73 with strong pro-apoptotic effects after DNA damage from chemotherapeutic agents

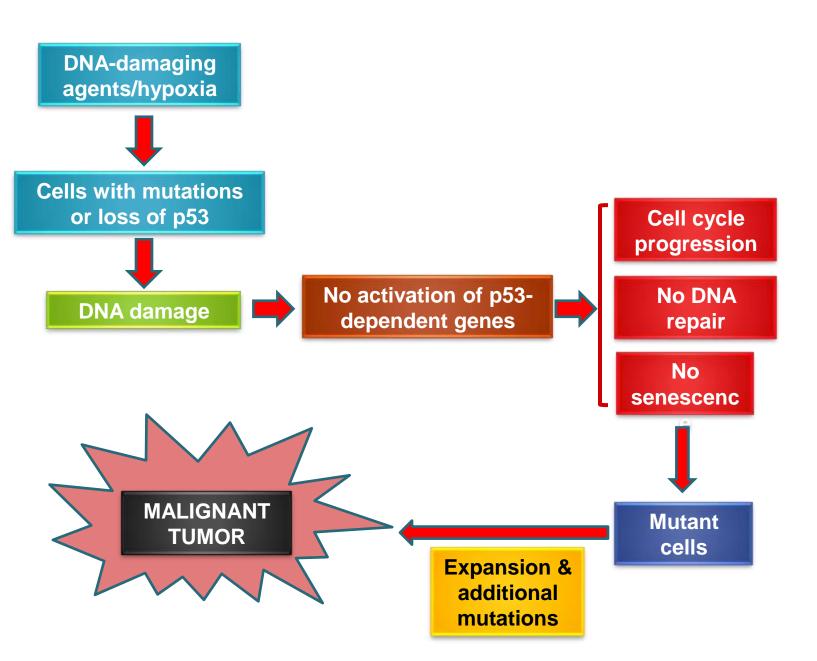
- Prevents malignant transformation by:
 - 1. Activation of temporary cell cycle arrest (quiescence)
 - 2. Induction of permanent cell cycle arrest (senescence)
 - 3. Triggering of programmed cell death (apoptosis)



Μ 0 LEC U L A R B A S I S



Summary of the mechanism of action of the tumor suppressor protein, p53.



- Homozygous loss of p53 occurs in virtually every type of cancer
 ✓ In most cases, inactivating mutations affect both p53 alleles and are acquired in somatic cells.
- Approximately 80% of p53 point mutations present in human cancers are located in the DNA-binding domain of the protein

- In the majority of tumors without p53 mutations, the function of the p53 pathway is blocked by mutation in another gene that regulates p53 function
 - ✓ MDM2 and MDMX → stimulate degradation of p53 → overexpressed in malignancies

- mir34 microRNAs important to p53
 response

 targets include pro proliferative genes such as cyclins
 and anti-apoptotic genes (BCL-2)
 - ✓ Inhibition or blockage of mir34 → impaired p53 response
 - ✓ Ectopic expression of mir34 without p53 activation → growth arrest and apoptosis

Tumor Suppressor Genes: APC/ß-Catenin Pathway

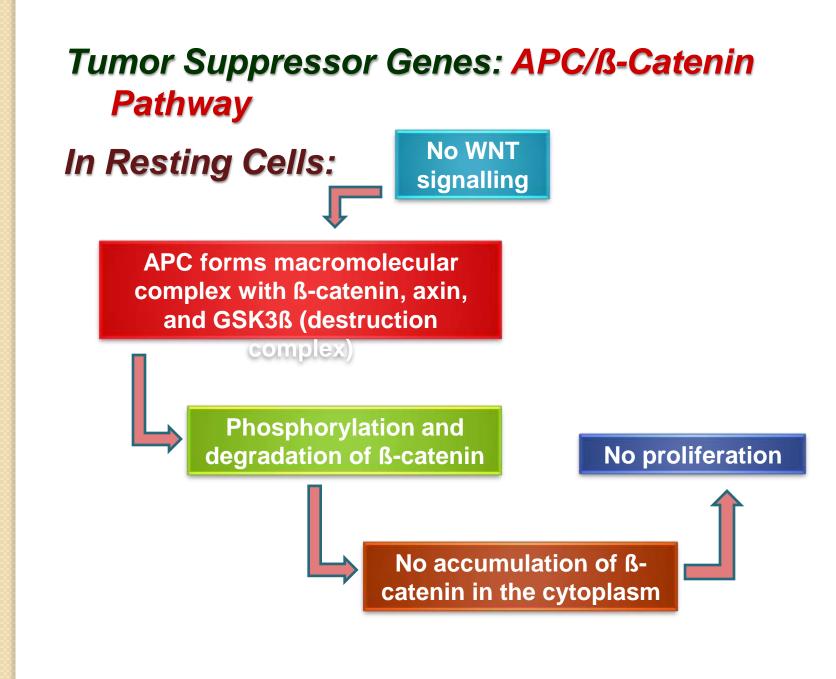
Adenomatous polyposis coli genes (APC)

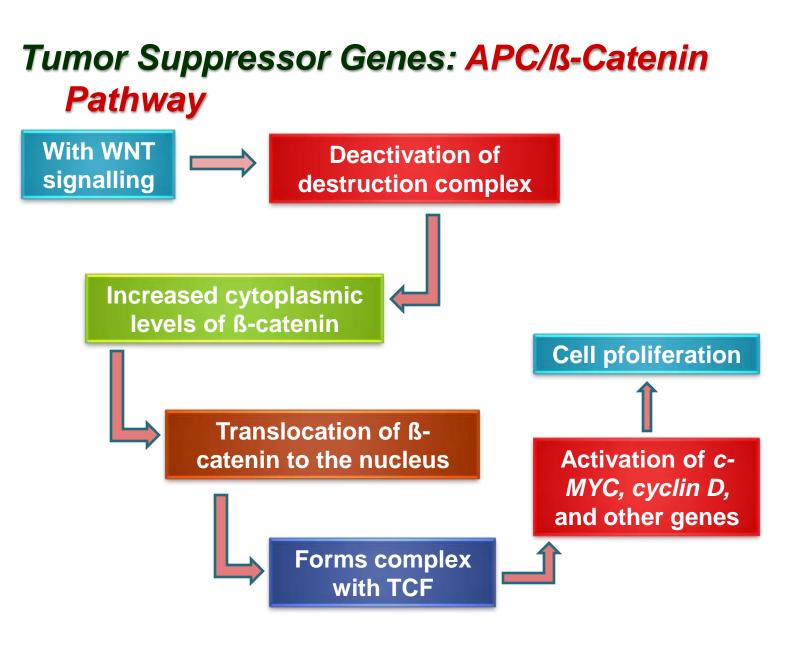
- Main function is down-regulation of growth-promoting signals
- Loci found at chr. 5q21
- Component of WNT signalling
 pathway
- Important function of the APC protein is to down-regulate
 ß-catenin

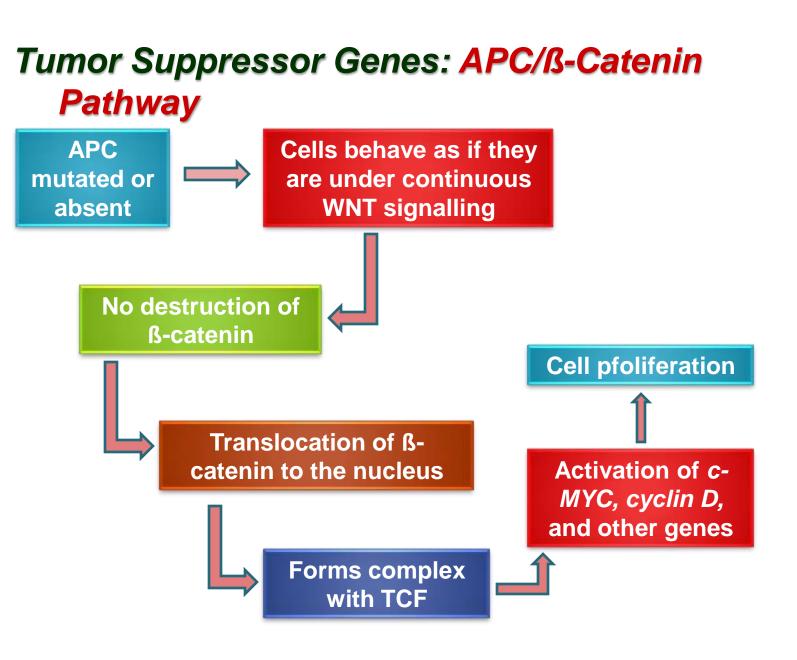
Tumor Suppressor Genes: APC/ß-Catenin Pathway

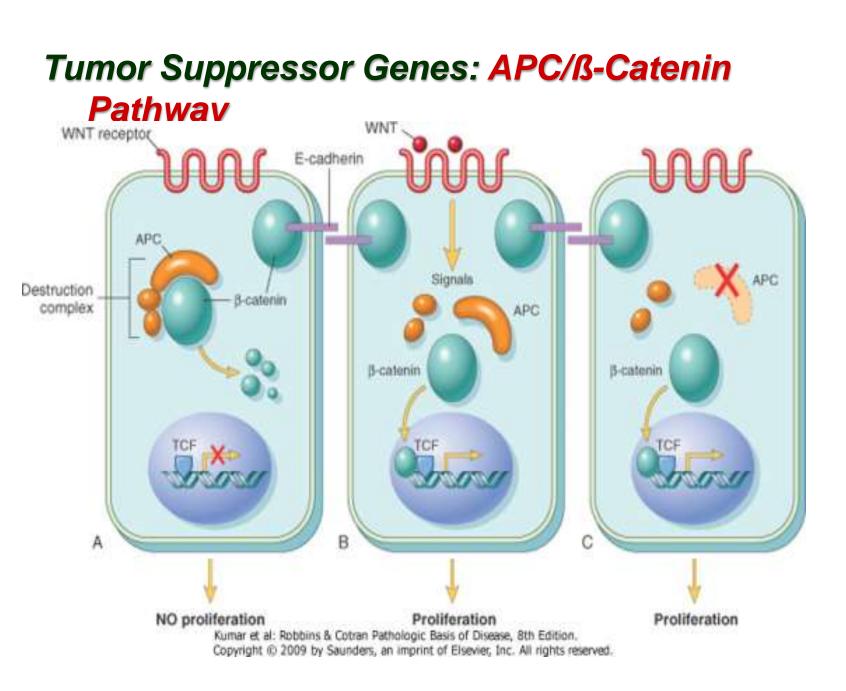
WNT Signalling Pathway

- Major role in controlling cell fate, adhesion, and cell polarity during embryonic development
- Required for self-renewal of hematopoietic stem cells
- Signals through cell surface receptors called frizzled (FRZ)









Tumor Suppressor Genes: APC/ß-Catenin Pathway

Significance:

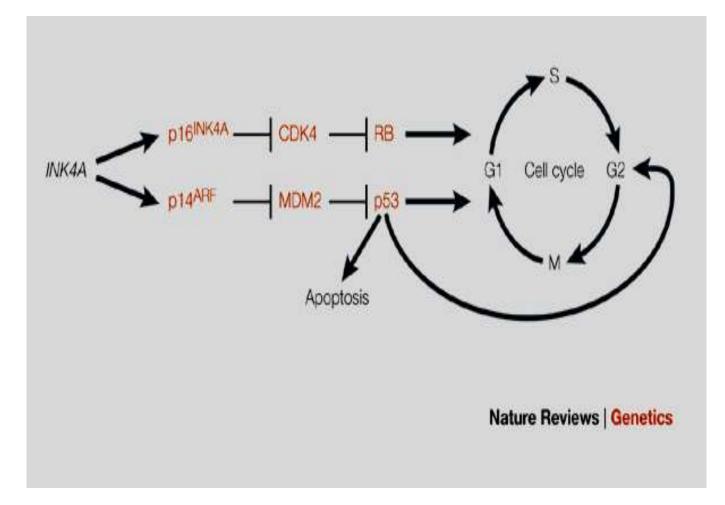
- Colon tumors → normal APC genes with mutations in ß-catenin → no destruction of ß-catenin by APC
- Mutations in ß-catenin gene present in more than 50% of hepatoblastomas and approx. 20% of hepatocellular carcinoma

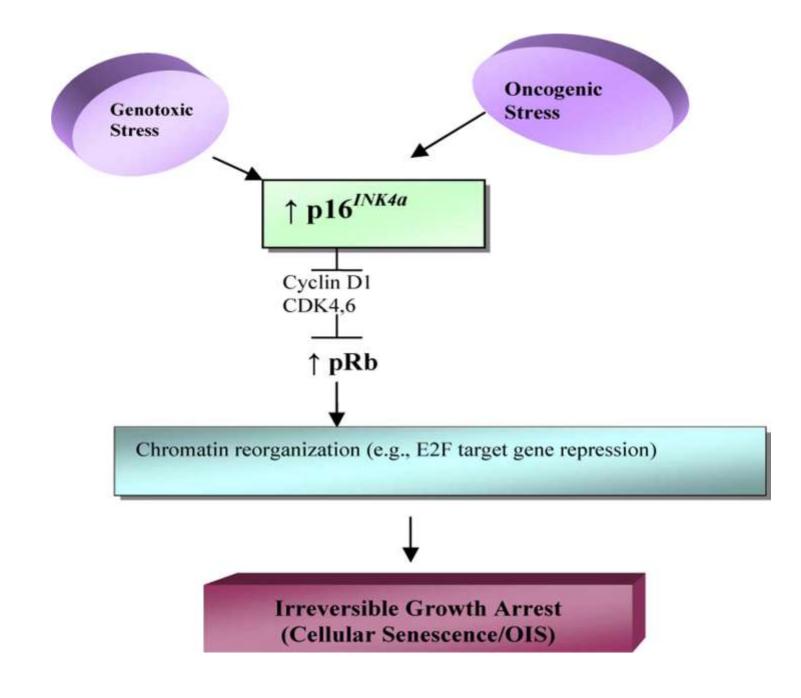
Tumor Suppressor Genes: APC/ß-Catenin Pathway Significance:

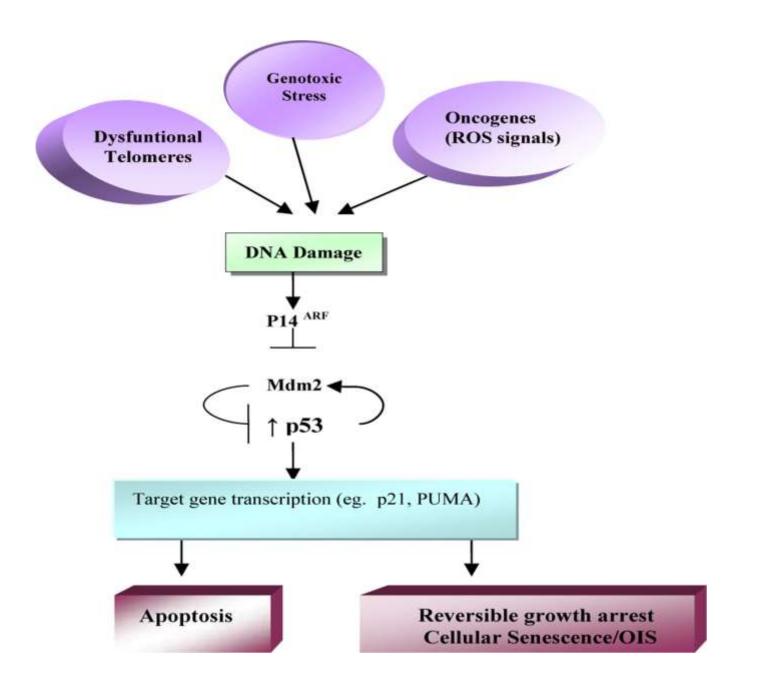
B-catenin normally binds to the cytoplasmic tail of E-cadherin \rightarrow maintain intercellular adhesiveness Mutation of ß-catenin/E-cadherin axis \rightarrow loss of contact inhibition \rightarrow easy disaggregation of cells \rightarrow favor malignant phenotype ✓ Mutation of ß-catenin/E-cadherin axis \rightarrow B-catenin translocates to nucleus \rightarrow cell proliferation

Other Genes That Function as Tumor Suppressors INK4a/ARF

- Also called CDKN2A gene locus
- Two protein products:
 - p16/INK4a CDKI → block cyclin D/ CDK2-mediated phosphorylation of RB; crucial for induction of senescence; silenced by hypermethylation of the genes
 - 2. $p14/ARF \rightarrow$ inhibit MDM2 \rightarrow prevent destruction of p53

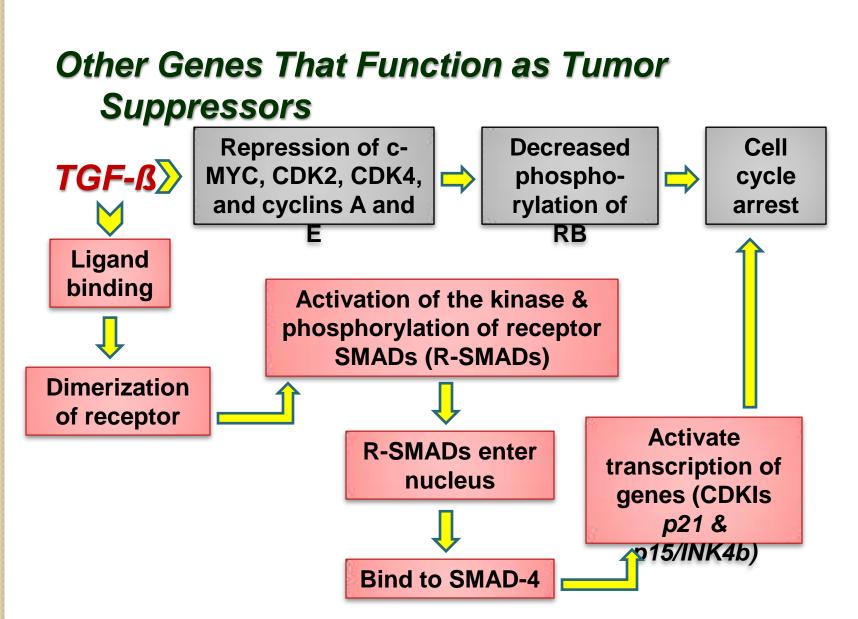






TGF-ß

- Potent inhibitor of proliferation in most normal epithelial, endothelial, and hematopoietic cells
- Regulates cellular processes by binding to a serine-threonine kinase complex composed of TGF-ß receptors I and II



- Can prevent or promote tumor growth depending on the state of other genes in the cell
- Mutations affecting type II TGF-ß receptor → cancer of colon, stomach, endometrium
- Mutational inactivation of SMAD4 → pancreatic cancer

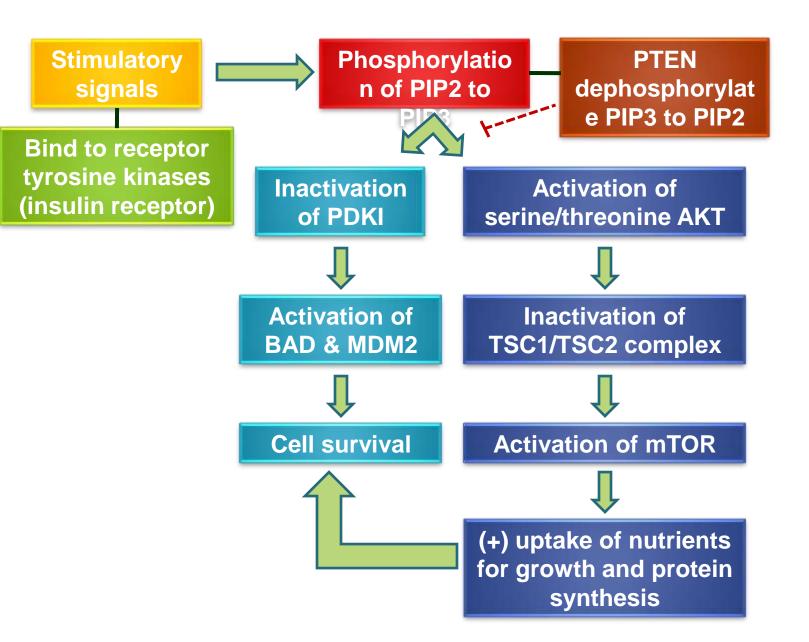
PTEN (Phosphatase and tensin homologue)

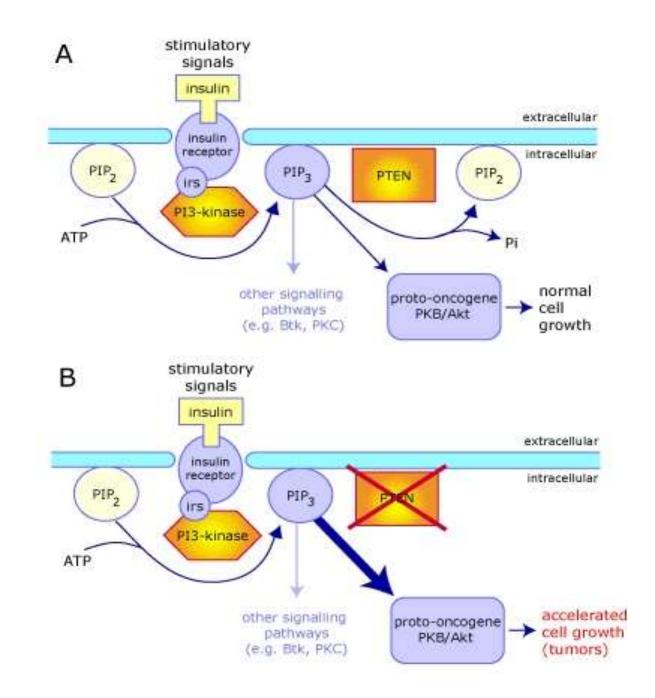
- Gene on chr. 10q23
- Membrane-associated phosphatase

 → acts as a brake on the pro-survival/ pro-growth PI3K/AKT pathway → most commonly mutated pathway in human cancer

PTEN (Phosphatase and tensin homologue)

 Mutated in Cowden syndrome → autosomal dominant; frequent benign growths (tumors of skin appendages) and increased incidence of epithelial cancers (breast, endometrium, thyroid)

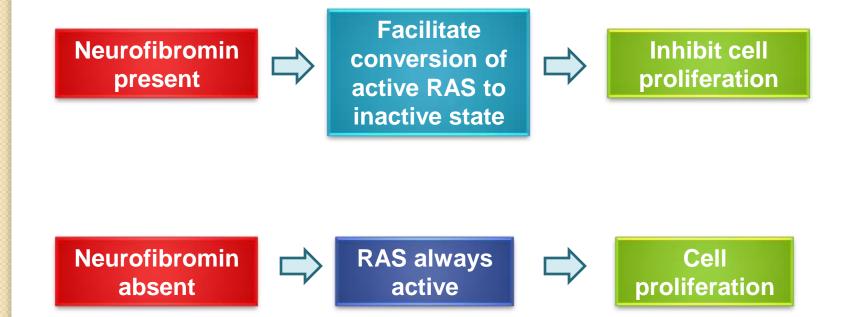




NF1 (Neurofibromatosis 1)

- Inheritance of one mutant allele → benign neurofibromas and optic nerve glioma → neurofibromatosis type 1
- Protein product called
 neurofibromin

Other Genes That Function as Tumor Suppressors NF1 (Neurofibromatosis 1)



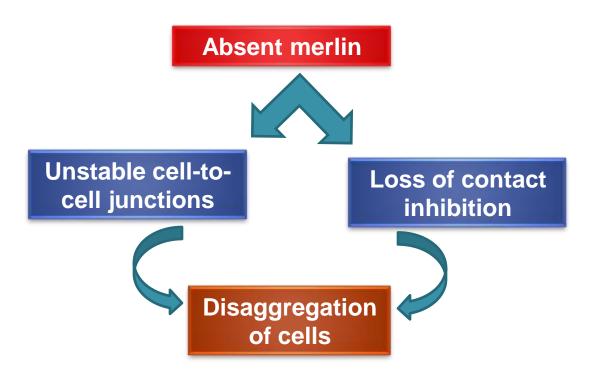
NF2 (Neurofibromatosis 2)

- Germline mutation → benign bilateral schwannomas of acoustic nerve → neurofibromatosis type 2
- Somatic mutations of both alleles
 → sporadic meningiomas and
 ependymomas

NF2 (Neurofibromatosis 2)

- Protein product: neurofibromin 2 or merlin → part of Salvador-Warts-Hippo (SWH) tumor suppressor pathway
- Homologous to red cell membrane cytoskeletal protein

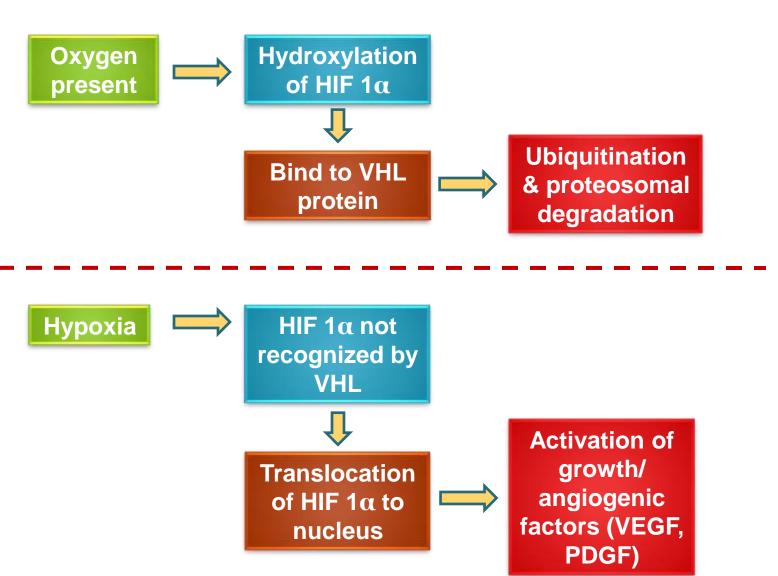
Other Genes That Function as Tumor Suppressors NF2 (Neurofibromatosis 2)

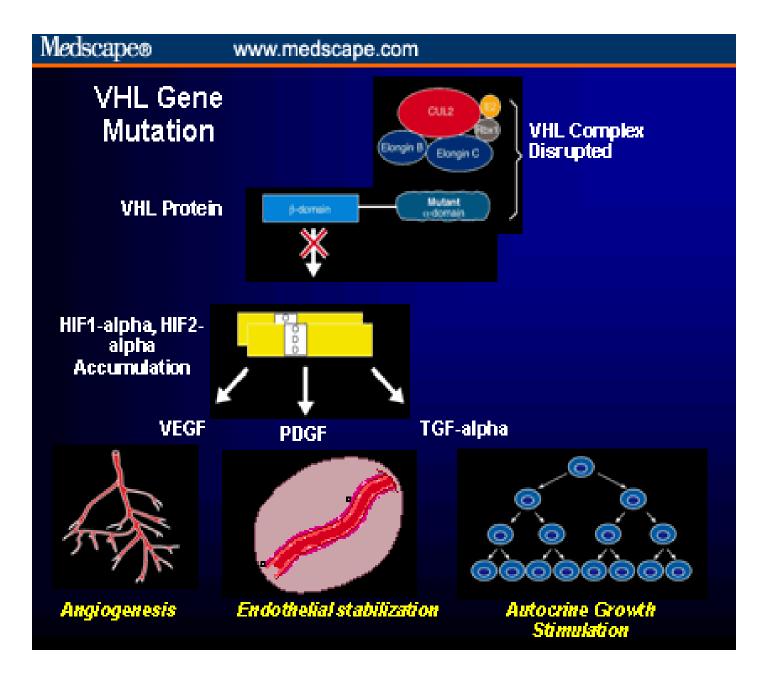


VHL (von Hippel-Lindau gene)

- Chromosome 3p
- VHL protein part of ubiquitin ligase complex → critical substrate is hypoxia-inducible transcription factor 1α (HIF 1α)
- Germline mutation → hereditary renal cell cancers, retinal angioma, renal cyst, pheochromocytoma, hemangioblastomas of CNS





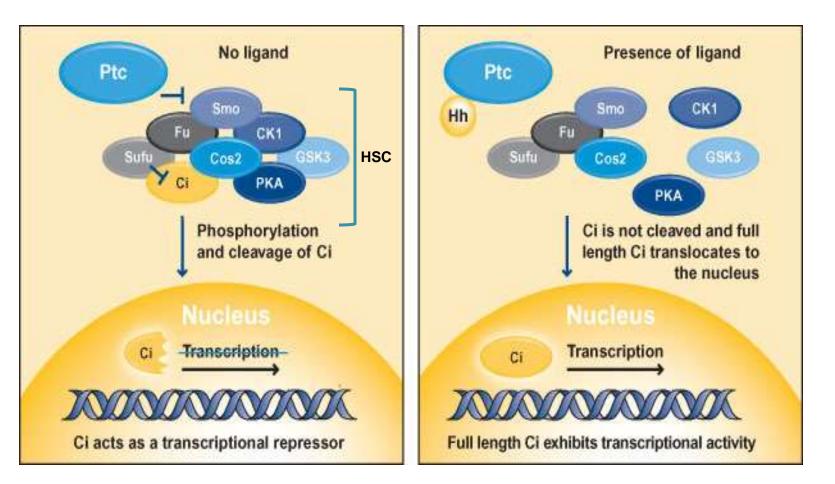


WT-1 (Wilms' Tumor-1 gene)

- Chromosome 11p13
- Protein product a transcriptional activator of genes involved in renal and gonadal differentiation
- Overexpression → Wilms' tumor and a variety of adult cancers (leukemias and breast Ca)

Patched (PTCH-1 & PTCH-2)

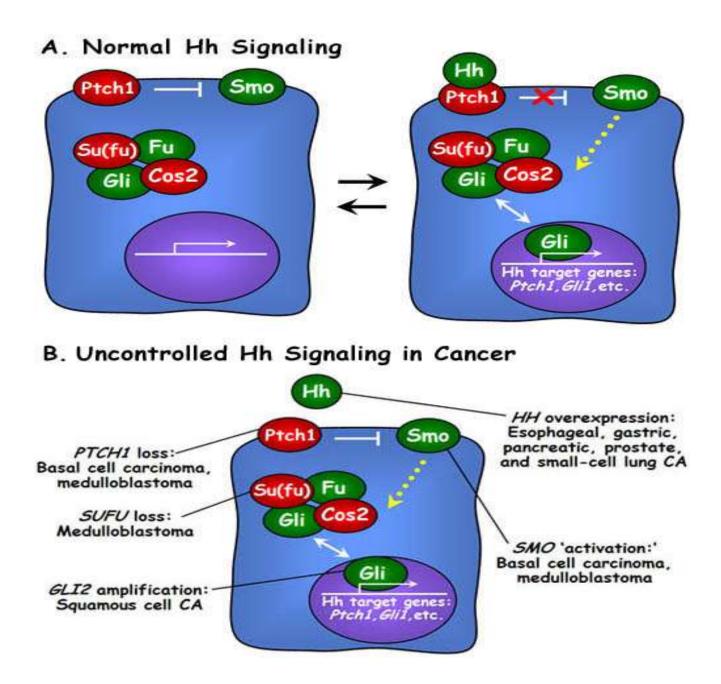
- Protein product (PTCH) is a cell membrane protein → functions as receptor for family of proteins called *hedgehog*
- Hedgehog/PATCHED pathway regulates *TGF-ß*, *PDGFRA and PDGFRB* genes



Ptc – Patched; Hh – hedgehog; Smo – smoothened; Ci – cubitus interruptus (transcription factor); Fu – fused (serine/threonine kinase); Cos2 – costal 2 (kinesin-like molecule); PKA – protein kinase A; CK 1 – protein kinase CK 1; Sufu – suppressor of fused; GSK3 – glycogen synthase kinase 3; HSC – hedgehog signalling complex

Patched (PTCH-1 & PTCH-2)

- Mutations in *PTCH* → Gorlin synd.
 → nevoid basal carcinoma synd.
- PTCH mutations present in 20% to 50% of sporadic cases of basal cell carcinoma
- 50% of mutations caused by UV exposure





"The brain tumor's incurable, but let me give you something for that dandruff."