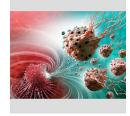


Mini Review

A Review on Malignant Transformation

ISSN: 2637-773X

NACS Novel Approaches in Cancer Study



*Corresponding author: Prakash Chandra Gupta, Department of Pharmaceutical Sciences, Chhatrapati Shahu Ji Maharaj University, Kanpur, India

Submission:
June 02, 2023
Published:
June 27, 2023

Volume 7 - Issue 4

How to cite this article: Prakash Chandra Gupta*, Sweta Rai and Nisha Sharma. A Review on Malignant Transformation. Nov Appro in Can Study. 7(4). NACS. 000670. 2023. DOI: 10.31031/NACS.2023.07.000670

Copyright@ Prakash Chandra Guptax, This article is distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License, which permits unrestricted use and redistribution provided that the original author and source are credited.

Prakash Chandra Gupta*, Sweta Rai and Nisha Sharma

Department of Pharmaceutical Sciences, Chhatrapati Shahu Ji Maharaj University, India

Abstract

Multiple genetic alterations must accumulate within a cell in order for it to become malignant throughout the development and growth of a tumour. One must identify as many of the genetic changes that occur during cancer development in order to comprehend the biology that underlies the disease. Our current understanding of the chromosomal basis of cancer was built on that chromosome aberrations play a crucial role in the malignant transformation of a normal cell. Numerous genomic tools, the transcriptional activity of protein-coding genes is regulated by these tiny non-coding RNA molecules in mammals. When present in amounts above a particular threshold, the heavy metals cadmium, arsenic, and nickel are all cancer-causing.

Keywords: Malignant transformation; Genetic; Chromosome; Genomics transformation; Heavy metals

Introduction

Malignant transformation is the process by which cancerous characteristics are acquired by cells. This might happen either directly as a primary process in healthy tissue or indirectly as the malignant degeneration of an earlier benign tumour.

Primary malignant transformation, often known as tumorigenesis, has a wide range of reasons. The majority of human malignancies in the United States are brought on by outside sources, most of which can be avoided [1-3]. These components were assembled by Doll & Peto [1] in 1981and represent prevalent underlying causes of cancer symptoms.

Mutations

Cancers are caused by genetic mutations acquired either by inheritance or somatic DNA over time [4]. These mutations alter protein coding genes (exome) and confer no selective growth advantage. Cancers also have genome instability, with an average number of DNA sequence mutations in the entire genome of breast cancer tissue of 20,000 [5] and 80,000 in an average melanoma [6].

Epigenetic alterations

Transcription silencing: Cancers have a higher frequency of epigenetic transcription silencing (caused by promoter hypermethylation of CpG islands) than mutations [7]. In colon tumours, there are 600 to 800 heavily methylated CpG islands in promoters of genes, which fully silence gene expression, just as a mutation would [7]. In addition, the promoters of several hundred genes are hypomethylated (under-methylated), which makes these genes active when they should be inactive [8].

Post-transcriptional silencing: MicroRNAs (miRNAs) are also involved in epigenetic modifications. The transcriptional activity of protein-coding genes is regulated by these tiny non-coding RNA molecules in mammals to a degree of about 60% [9]. In cancer cells, abnormal DNA methylation of the promoter regions governing miRNA genes' expression results in their epigenetic suppression or overexpression [10-12]. In breast cancer cells, it was discovered that about one-third of the miRNA promoters active in healthy mammary cells

were hypermethylated, while other microRNA promoters were hypomethylated [13-14]. BRCA1 is generally produced in breast and other tissue cells, where it aids in the repair of broken DNA or, in the event that DNA repair is not possible, the destruction of cells [15-16].

Only 3-8% of all breast cancer patients have a BRCA1 or BRCA2 mutation. The majority of high grade, ductal breast tumours exhibit diminished or undetectable BRCA1 expression [17]. Additionally, BRCA1 is inhibited by miR-182, miR-146a, and/or miR-146b-5p, whose overexpression renders BRCA1 inactive [18]. The target mRNA is either translated into silence or degraded as a result of complementary binding to specific sequences in the target gene's three primary untranslated regions. This process is known as post-transcriptional regulation by microRNA [19]. The RNA-Induced Silencing Complex (RISC) implements the mechanism of target mRNA degradation or translational silencing.

DNA repair gene silencing: The RNA-Induced Silencing Complex (RISC) implements the mechanism of target mRNA degradation or translational silencing. Cancers of the colon, head and neck, stomach, prostate, breast, thyroid, non-Hodgkin lymphoma, chondrosarcoma, and osteosarcoma all have WRN hypermethylation, which ranges from 11% to 38%.

Similar to a germ-line mutation in a DNA repair gene, such silence probably predisposes the cell and any offspring to developing cancer [20]. Another review [21] notes that DNA repair is likely to be insufficient and DNA damage can build up when a gene required for DNA repair is epigenetically silenced. Increased DNA damage can result in more mistakes being made during DNA synthesis, which can result in cancer-causing mutations.

Induced by heavy metals

When present in amounts above a particular threshold, the heavy metals cadmium, arsenic, and nickel are all cancer-causing [22]. It is well known that cadmium causes cancer, presumably through slowing down DNA repair. Five DNA repair genes were examined in rats by Lei et al. [23] after the rats were exposed to low amounts of cadmium. They discovered that three DNA repair genes-XRCC1, OGG1, and ERCC1-necessary for base excision repair, nucleotide excision repair, and nucleoside excision repair-were repressed by cadmium. The methylation of these genes' promoters did not cause their repression.

Bhattacharjee et al. [24] reviewed the carcinogenicity of arsenic. They provided an overview of how arsenic and its metabolites contribute to oxidative stress and DNA damage. Arsenic not only damages DNA, but it also suppresses a number of DNA repair enzymes in the base excision repair route as well as the nucleotide excision repair pathway. Further reviews of the involvement of arsenic in telomere dysfunction, mitotic arrest, faulty apoptosis, changed promoter methylation, and altered miRNA expression were provided by Bhattacharjee et al. Each of these modifications may have a role in the development of cancer caused by arsenic. Because nickel compounds are cancer-causing, occupational exposure to nickel is linked to a higher risk of developing lung and nasal malignancies [25]. Nickel compounds have only modest mutagenesis potential, but they significantly change the transcriptional landscape of exposed people's DNA [26]. Eight employees of a nickel refinery and ten non-exposed employees' peripheral blood mononuclear cells were studied by Arita et al. [27]. With 770 up-regulated genes and 1986 down-regulated genes, they discovered 2756 genes that were differentially expressed [28]. DNA repair genes were repressed in nickel refinery workers, whereas two were over expressed. DNA repair genes were significantly overrepresented among the differentially expressed genes. The changes in gene expression seem to be caused by histone epigenetic modifications, methylation of gene promoters, and at least hypermethylation of microRNA miR-152 [24-28].

Clinical signs

Malignant transformation of cells in a benign tumour may be detected by pathologic examination of tissues. Often the clinical signs and symptoms are suggestive of a malignant tumor. The physician, during the medical history examination, can find that there have been changes in size or patient sensation and, upon direct examination, that there has been a change in the lesion itself.

Risk evaluations are possible and well-known for specific benign tumour forms that are known to change into malignant tumours. One of the better-known examples of this phenomenon is the progression of a nevus to melanoma.

Conclusion

Tumour formation requires numerous genetic changes within cells for malignant growth. Understanding the biology behind cancer requires identifying these genetic alterations. Chromosome abnormalities are crucial in malignant transformation, and chromosomal basis of cancer is based on these abnormalities. In mammals, RNA molecules control protein-coding gene transcription through genomic tools. Heavy metals like Cadmium, arsenic, and nickel can cause cancer when present above a specific threshold.

References

- 1. Doll R, Peto R (1981) The causes of cancer: quantitative estimates of avoidable risks of cancer in the United States today. J Natl Cancer Inst 66(6): 1191-308.
- Blot WJ, Tarone RE (2015) Doll and Peto's quantitative estimates of cancer risks: Holding generally true for 35 years. J Natl Cancer Inst 107(4): 044.
- Song M, Giovannucci EL (2015) Re: doll and peto's quantitative estimates of cancer risks: Holding generally true for 35 years. J Natl Cancer Inst 107(10): 240.
- 4. Vogelstein B, Papadopoulos N, Velculescu VE, Zhou S, Diaz LA, et al. (2013) Cancer genome landscapes. Science 339(6127): 1546-1558.
- Yost SE, Smith EN, Schwab RB, Bao L, Jung H, et al. (2012) Identification of high-confidence somatic mutations in whole genome sequence of formalin-fixed breast cancer specimens. Nucleic Acids Res 40(14): e107.

- 6. Berger MF, Hodis E, Heffernan TP, Deribe YL, Lawrence MS, et al. (2012) Melanoma genome sequencing reveals frequent PREX2 mutations. Nature 485: 502-506.
- 7. Illingworth RS, Gruenewald-Schneider U, Webb S, Kerr AR, James KD, et al. (2010) Orphan CpG islands identify numerous conserved promoters in the mammalian genome. PLoS Genet 6(9): e1001134.
- Saxonov S, Berg P, Brutlag DL (2006) A genome-wide analysis of CpG dinucleotides in the human genome distinguishes two distinct classes of promoters. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 103(5): 1412-1417.
- Friedman RC, Farh KK, Burge CB, Bartel DP (2009) Most mammalian mRNAs are conserved targets of microRNAs. Genome Res 19(1): 92-105.
- 10. Vrba L, Muñoz-Rodríguez JL, Stampfer MR, Futscher BW (2013) miRNA gene promoters are frequent targets of aberrant DNA methylation in human breast cancer. PLoS One 8(1): e54398.
- 11. Bernstein C, Bernstein H, Payne CM, Garewal H (2002) DNA repair/proapoptotic dual-role proteins in five major DNA repair pathways: fail-safe protection against carcinogenesis. Mutat Res 511(2): 145-178.
- 12. Friedenson B (2007) The BRCA1/2 pathway prevents hematologic cancers in addition to breast and ovarian cancers. BMC Cancer 7: 152.
- 13. Wilson CA, Ramos L, Villaseñor MR, Anders KH, Press MF, et al. (1999) Localization of human BRCA1 and its loss in high-grade, non-inherited breast carcinomas. Nat Genet 21(2): 236-240.
- 14. Brody LC, Biesecker BB (1998) Breast cancer susceptibility genes. BRCA1 and BRCA2. Medicine (Baltimore) 77(3): 208-226.
- 15. Esteller M, Silva JM, Dominguez G, Bonilla F, Matias-Guiu X, et al. (2000) Promoter hypermethylation and BRCA1 inactivation in sporadic breast and ovarian tumors. J Natl Cancer Inst 92(7): 564-569.
- 16. Krishnan K, Steptoe AL, Martin HC, Wani S, Nones K, et al. (2013) MicroRNA-182-5p targets a network of genes involved in DNA repair. RNA 19(2): 230-242.
- 17. Moskwa P, Buffa FM, Pan Y, Panchakshari R, Gottipati P, et al. (2011) MiR-182-mediated downregulation of BRCA1 impacts DNA repair and sensitivity to PARP inhibitors. Mol Cell 41(2): 210-220.

- 18. Garcia AI, Buisson M, Bertrand P, Rimokh R, Rouleau E, et al. (2011) Down-regulation of BRCA1 expression by miR-146a and miR-146b-5p in triple negative sporadic breast cancers. EMBO Mol Med 3(5): 279-290.
- 19. Hu W, Coller J (2012) What comes first: translational repression or mRNA degradation? The deepening mystery of microRNA functions. Cell Res 22(9): 1322-1324.
- 20. Jin B, Robertson KD (2013) DNA methyltransferases, DNA damage repair, and cancer. Adv Exp Med Biol 754: 3-29.
- Bernstein C, Nfonsam V, Prasad AR, Bernstein H (2013) Epigenetic field defects in progression to cancer. World J Gastrointest Oncol 5(3): 43-49.
- 22. Nawrot TS, Martens DS, Hara A, Plusquin M, Vangronsveld J, et al. (2015) Association of total cancer and lung cancer with environmental exposure to cadmium: The meta-analytical evidence. Cancer Causes Control 26(9): 1281-1288.
- Cohen SM, Arnold LL, Beck BD, Lewis AS, Eldan M (2013) Evaluation of the carcinogenicity of inorganic arsenic. Crit Rev Toxicol 43(9): 711-752.
- 24. Bhattacharjee P, Banerjee M, Giri AK (2013) Role of genomic instability in arsenic-induced carcinogenicity. A Review. Environ Int 53: 29-40.
- 25. Ji W, Yang L, Yuan J, Yang L, Zhang M, et al. (2013) MicroRNA-152 targets DNA methyltransferase 1 in NiS-transformed cells via a feedback mechanism. Carcinogenesis 34(2): 446-453.
- 26. Lei YX, Lu Q, Shao C, He CC, Lei ZN, et al. (2015) Expression profiles of DNA repair-related genes in rat target organs under subchronic cadmium exposure. Genet Mol Res 14(1): 515-524.
- 27. Arita A, Muñoz A, Chervona Y, Niu J, Qu Q, et al. (2013) Gene expression profiles in peripheral blood mononuclear cells of Chinese nickel refinery workers with high exposures to nickel and control subjects. Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev 22(2): 261-269.
- Sun H, Shamy M, Costa M (2013) Nickel and epigenetic gene silencing. Genes (Basel) 4(4): 583-695.