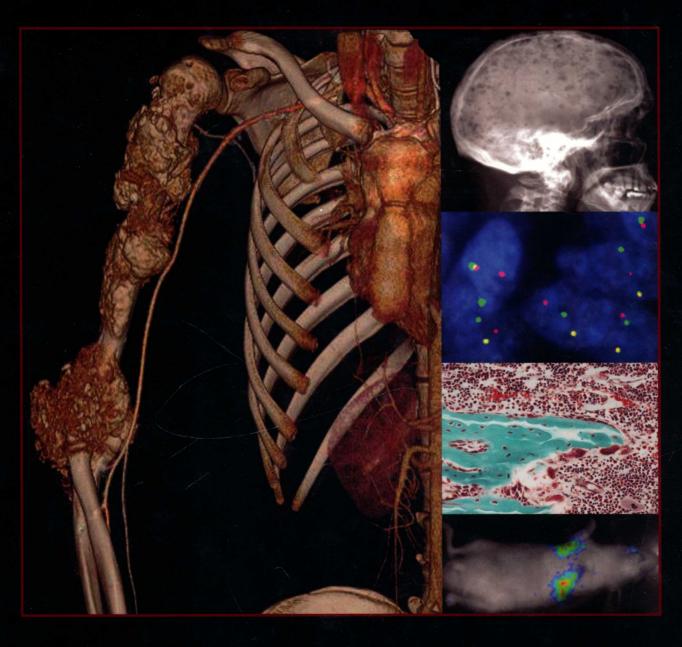
BONE CANCER

PROGRESSION AND
THERAPEUTIC APPROACHES



EDITED BY

DOMINIQUE HEYMANN

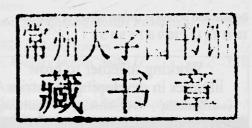




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DOMINIQUE HEYMANN







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Our understanding of bone malignancies is following, with only a slight delay, that of the molecular bases of cell differentiation and function in the skeleton. As a result, it is increasing steadily and rapidly. What this timely book (edited by Dr. Heymann) does is to set the records straight and to define the questions and problems that bone biologists can now tackle through the use of modern molecular approaches and appropriate model organisms.

Most of the bone metastases are osteolytic, the main exception being prostate cancer bone metastases that form new bones. Thus, understanding the pathogenesis of bone metastases relies, to a very large extent, on understanding osteoclast differentiation. As very well illustrated in this volume, our knowledge of this aspect of bone biology has greatly progressed through the identification of RANKL as a master osteoclast differentiation factor, through the identification of its receptor, and of the complex signal transduction pathways it triggers in osteoclast progenitor cells. This body of work has also greatly advanced our understanding of bone metastases. This alone, however, would not have been enough. What is allowing us to get a better understanding of bone metastases is the more and more generalized ability to perform cell-specific and sometimes time-specific gene deletion in mice. These two types of advances, molecular and genetic, also supported by the progress of bioinformatics, are the pillar of the modern study of bone metastases. Going forward, it is likely that

new aspects of molecular biology, such as the emerging biology of small RNAs, will join the group.

Molecules like RANKL, osteoprotegerin and PTHrP, tumor suppressor genes such as p53 and Rb are now central players in the study of osteoclast differentiation and proliferation. Furthermore, what is progressively emerging, beyond these genes and their functions are partial but nevertheless useful genetic pathways. In the face of this steady increase in knowledge one can ask: what is the use of such a book? As a matter of fact, and as a bone biologist not working directly on metastases, such a volume is extremely timely for several reasons. Firstly, it provides a very good picture of the state of the knowledge on this part of bone biology in 2009; secondly, and just as importantly, in doing so it also puts together a list of questions and problems that are now facing the field. It was always humbling and difficult to make a statement, as a book is, about a field that is still developing rapidly. In that respect, what Dr. Heymann and his co-workers have done is outstanding and certainly very useful. They deserve congratulations for this work which, I am sure, will generate a lot of interest in our community.

> Professor Gérard Karsenty, MD PhD Department of Genetics and Development College of Physicians and Surgeons Columbia University New York, New York, USA



The past decade has witnessed an explosion in the field of bone biology. The topic of bone biology over this period has been marked by significant advances that have opened up entirely new areas for investigation. Indeed, the molecular mechanisms that control bone remodeling have been extensively investigated and some scientific fields have emerged. This is the case for osteoimmunology after identification of a set of molecules, allowing communication between bone cells (ostoclasts, osteoblasts) and immune cells (monocytes, lymphocytes, dendritic cells). Similarly, concepts based on the neuronal regulation of bone mass have emerged. Unfortunately, genetic or environmental deregulations lead to the development of bone cancer diseases such as primary bone tumors (osteosarcoma, Ewing's sarcoma, chondrosarcomas, giant cell tumors, etc.) that originate from bone cells or from mesenchymal stem cells. Bone is also a privileged site for metastases due to the migration and development of tumor cells derivating from non-bone cells such as breast cancer cells or prostate carcinomas cells. Some tumor cells such as myeloma cells initially proliferate in bone sites and then induce a deregulation of the bone apposition and resorption balance in favor of an osteolytic process.

This book gives an overview of the most up-to-date epidemiological data of these tumors and their biology including molecular aspects (protein and gene) allowing clear identification of new therapeutic targets and approaches. As well as the biological aspects of bone tissue, primitive bone tumors and bone metastases well described in this book, the clinical aspects are also addressed: histopathology, imaging of bone tumors, management of bone pain and conventional therapeutic care. Finally, better understanding of biological mechanisms associated with the development of many pre-clinical models allows the emergence of new therapeutic approaches of bone tumors. Therefore, this book, describing bone tumors, from their fundamental aspects to their clinical aspects, is specifically dedicated to medical students and scientists, to health professionals, researchers and teachers working in the osteo-articular domain and interested in the more recent data available. This review book consists of 38 chapters resulting from the work of 26 professional teams from 11 countries and who are specializing in the pathophysiology of bone. I would like to thank the authors for the work performed and to give their expertise to the students, to our colleagues and to all readers.

> Professor Dominique Heymann, PhD Nantes University Faculty of Medicine INSERM Nantes, France



List of Contributors

Kosei Ando, MD

Department of Orthopaedic Surgery, Shiga University of Medical Science, Shiga, Japan

Coskun Arslandemir, MD

Department of Nuclear Medicine, University Hospital, Kiel, Germany

Walter C. Bell, MD

University of Alabama at Birmingham, Birmingham, AL, USA

Ariane Berdal, Professor, DDS-PhD

Centre de Recherche des Cordeliers, Oral Facial Biology and Pathology, Paris, France

Dominik Berthold, MD

Centre Phiridisciplinaire d'Oncologie—Centre Hospitalier Universitaire Vaudois, Lausanne, Switzerland

Bheem M. Bhat, PhD

Women's Health and Musculoskeletal Biology, Wyeth Research, Collegeville, PA, USA

Ramesh A. Bhat, PhD

Women's Health and Musculoskeletal Biology, Wyeth Research, Collegeville, PA, USA

Sudeepa Bhattacharyya, PhD

Center of Orthopaedic Research, Department of Orthopaedic Surgery and Physiology and Biophysics, UAMS College of Medicine, University of Arkansas for Medical Sciences, Little Rock, AR, USA

Julia Billiard, PhD

Women's Health and Musculoskeletal Biology, Wyeth Research, Collegeville, PA, USA

Frederic Blanchard, PhD

INSERM, Université de Nantes, Nantes Atlantique Universités, Laboratoire de Physiopathologie de la Résorption Osseuse et Thérapie des Tumeurs Osseuses Primitives, EA3822, Nantes, France

Peter V.N. Bodine, PhD

Women's Health and Musculoskeletal Biology, Wyeth Research, Collegeville, PA, USA

Tom Böhling, MD

Department of Pathology, Haartman Institute, University of Helsinki, Finland

Aymann Bouattour, DDS

Centre de Recherche des Cordeliers, Oral Facial Biology and Pathology, Odontology Department, Pitié-Salpêtrière Hospital, Paris, France

Corinne Bouvier, MD, PhD

Service d'Anatomie et Cytologie Pathologiques, Hôpital La Timone, Faculté de Médecine de Timone, Marseille, France

Bénédicte Brounais, PhD student

INSERM, Université de Nantes, Nantes Atlantique Universités, Laboratoire de Physiopathologie de la Résorption Osseuse et Thérapie des Tumeurs Osseuses Primitives, Nantes, France

Giacomina Brunetti, PhD

Department of Human Anatomy and Histology, University of Bari Medical School, Bari, Italy

Stephanie Byrum, PhD

Center of Orthopaedic Research, Department of Orthopaedic Surgery and Physiology and Biophysics, UAMS College of Medicine, University of Arkansas for Medical Sciences, Little Rock, AR, USA

Daniel Chappard, MD, PhD

INSERM, U922-LHEA, Bone Remodeling and Biomaterials, Faculté de Médecine, Angers, France

Edward Chow, MBBS, PhD, FRCPC

Department of Radiation Oncology, University of Toronto, Rapid Response Radiotherapy Program, Odette Cancer Centre, Sunnybrook Health Sciences Centre, Toronto, Ontario, Canada

Philippe Clezardin, PhD

INSERM, Laennec School of Medicine, Lyon, France

Gregory A. Clines, MD

Division of Endocrinology and Metabolism, Department of Medicine, University of Virginia, Charlottesville, VA, USA

Denis R. Clohisy, MD

Department of Orthopedic Surgery and Cancer Center, School of Medicine, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, MN, USA

Silvia Colucci, MD

Department of Human Anatomy and Histology, University of Bari Medical School, Bari, Italy

Emmanuelle David, PharmD

INSERM, Université de Nantes, Nantes Atlantique Universités, Laboratoire de Physiopathologie de la Résorption Osseuse et Thérapie des Tumeurs Osseuses Primitives, Nantes, France

Gonzague de Pinieux, MD, PhD

Service d'Anatomie et Cytologie Pathologiques, Hôpital Trousseau, Faculté de Médecine, Université François Rabelais, Tours, France

Vianney Descroix, DDS, PharmD, PhD

Centre de Recherche des Cordeliers, Oral Facial Biology and Pathology, Odontology Department, Pitié-Salpêtrière Hospital, Paris, France

Sara DeDosso, MD

Oncology Institute of Southern Switzerland, Medical Oncology, Bellinzona, Switzerland

William C. Dougall, PhD

Amgen Washington, Seattle, WA, USA

Lauren K. Dunn, MD

Division of Endocrinology and Metabolism, Department of Medicine, University of Virginia, Charlottesville, VA, USA

Alysa Fairchild, BSc, PGDip (Epi), MD, FRCPC

Department of Radiation Oncology, University of Alberta, Cross Cancer Institute, Alberta, Canada

Stefano Ferrari, MD

Chemotherapy unit, Department of Musculoskeletal Oncology, Istituti Orthpedici Rizzoli, Bologna, Italy

Luis Filgueira, MD

University of Western Australia, Crawley, WA, Australia

Adrienne M. Flanagan, MB, PhD

University College London, Department of Histopathology, Royal National Orthopaedic Hospital, Middlesex, United Kingdom

Yannick Fortun, PhD

INSERM, Université de Nantes, Nantes Atlantique Universités, Laboratoire de Physiopathologie de la Résorption Osseuse et Thérapie des Tumeurs Osseuses Primitives, Nantes, France, Université d'Angers, IUT, France

Pierrick Fournier, PhD

Division of Endocrinology and Metabolism, Department of Medicine, University of Virginia, Charlottesville, VA, USA

Sonia Ghoul-Mazgar, DDS-PhD

Laboratoire d'Histologie-Embryologie, Faculté de Médecine Dentaire de Monastir, Tunisia

Panagiotis D. Gikas, BSc(Hons), MBBS(Hons), MRCS(Engl)

Academic Clinical Fellow, Trauma and Orthopaedic Surgery, Royal National Orthopaedic Hospital, Stanmore, Middlesex, United Kingdom

Georg Gosheger, MD

Klinik and Poliklinikfür Allgemeine Orthopädie Universitätsklinikum Münster, Münster, Germany

François Gouin, MD, PhD

INSERM, Physiopathologie de la Résorption Osseuse et Thérapie des Tumeurs Osseuses Primitives, Faculté de Médecine, Nantes, France

Maria Grano, PhD

Department of Human Anatomy and Histology, University of Bari Medical School, Bari, Italy

Theresa A. Guise, MD

Division of Endocrinology and Metabolism, Department of Medicine, University of Virginia, Charlottesville, VA, USA

Jendrik Hardes, MD

Klinik and Poliklinikfür Allgemeine Orthopädie Universitätsklinikum Münster, Münster Germany

Esther I. Hauben, MD, PhD

Department of Pathology, University of Leuve, Leuven, Belgium

Eric J. Heffernan, MD

Vancouver General Hospital, Department of Radiology, Vancouver, BC, Canada

Monica Herrera, MD

Department of Pharmacology, College of Medicine, University of Arizona, Tucson, AZ, USA

Fernanda G. Herrera, MD

Oncology Institute of Southern Switzerland, Radiation Oncology, Bellinzona, Switzerland

Dominique Heymann, PhD

INSERM, Physiopathologie de la Résorption Osseuse et Thérapie des Tumeurs Osseuses Primitives Faculté de Médecine, Nantes, France

David G. Hicks, MD

Department of Pathology and Laboratory Medicine, University of Rochester, Rochester, NY, USA

Amanda Hird, BSc

Rapid Response Radiotherapy Program, Odette Cancer Centre, Sunnybrook Health Sciences Centre, Toronto, Ontario, Canada

Pancras C.W. Hogendoorn, MD, PhD

Department of Pathology, Leiden University Medical Center Leiden, The Netherlands

Ingunn Holen, PhD

Academic Unit of Clinical Oncology, School of Medicine and Biomedical Sciences, University of Sheffield, Sheffield, United Kingdom

Juan Miguel Jimenez-Andrade, MD

Department of Pharmacology, College of Medicine, University of Arizona, Tucson, AZ, USA

Robert G. Jones, MRCP(UK), FRCR

Vancouver General Hospital, Department of Radiology, Vancouver, BC, Canada

Joseph Khoury, MD

Department of Pathology, Nevada Cancer Institute, Las Vegas, NV, USA

Sakari Knuutila, MD

Department of Pathology, Haartman Institute, University of Helsinki, Finland

Udo Kontny, MD

Division of Pediatric Hematology and Oncology, Center for Pediatrics and Adolescent Medicine, University Medical Center, Freiburg, Germany

François Lamoureux, PhD

INSERM, Physiopathologie de la Résorption Osseuse et Thérapie des Tumeurs Osseuses Primitives, Faculté de Médecine, Nantes, France

Ching C. Lau, MD, PhD

Texas Children's Cancer Center, Baylor College of Medicine, Huston, TX, USA

Nathan Lawrentschuk, MD

University of Melbourne, Department of Surgery, Urology Unit, Austin Hospital; Heidelberg, Melbourne, Australia

Michelle A. Lawson, PhD

Academic Unit of Bone Biology, School of Medicine and Biomedical Sciences, University of Sheffield, Sheffield, United Kingdom

Jiyun Lee, MD

Genetics Laboratory, Department of Pediatrics at the University of Oklahoma Health Sciences Center, Oklahoma City, OK, USA

Frederic Lezot, DDS-PhD

Centre de Recherche des Cordeliers, Oral Facial Biology and Pathology, Paris, France

Shibo Li, MD

Genetics Laboratory, Department of Pediatrics at the University of Oklahoma Health Sciences Center, Oklahoma City, OK, USA

Robert D. Loberg, PhD

Department of Internal Medicine and Urology, University of Michigan Comprehensive Cancer Center, The University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI, USA

Tsz-Kwong Man, PhD

Texas Children's Cancer Center, Baylor College of Medicine, Huston, TX, USA

Patrick W. Mantyh, PhD

Department of Pharmacology, College of Medicine, University of Arizona, Tucson, AZ, USA

Mallory Martin, MD

Genetics Laboratory, Department of Pediatrics at the University of Oklahoma Health Sciences Center, Oklahoma City, OK, USA

Yoshitaka Matsusue, MD

Department of Orthopaedic Surgery, Shiga University of Medical Science, Shiga, Japan

Mario Mercuri, MD

Fifth Division of Orthopaedic Surgery, Department of Musculoskeletal Oncology, Istituti Orthpedici Rizzoli, Bologna, Italy

Kanji Mori, MD, PhD

Department of Orthopaedic Surgery, Shiga University of Medical Science, Shiga, Japan

Peter L. Munk, MD

Vancouver General Hospital and University of British Columbia, Department of Radiology, Vancouver, BC, Canada

Richard J. Murrills, PhD

Women's Health and Musculoskeletal Biology, Wyeth Research, Collegeville, PA, USA

Marc Padrines, PhD

INSERM, Faculté de Médecine, Nantes, France

Emanuela Palmerini, MD

Chemotherapy Unit, Department of Musculoskeletal Oncology, Istituti Orthpedici Rizzoli, Bologna, Italy

Paul C. Park, MD, PhD

Department of Pathology and Molecular Medicine, Richardson Labs, Queen's University, Kingston, Ontario, Canada

Alexander HG Paterson, MD

Department of Medicine, Tom Baker Cancer Centre, University of Calgary, Alberta, Canada

Gaëlle Picarda, Engineer

INSERM, Physiopathologie de la Résorption Osseuse et Thérapie des Tumeurs Osseuses Primitives, Faculté de Médecine, Nantes, France

Kenneth J. Pienta, MD

Department of Internal Medicine and Urology, University of Michigan Comprehensive Cancer Center, The University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI, USA

Nieroshan Rajarubendra, MD

University of Melbourne, Department of Surgery, Urology Unit, Austin Hospital; Heidelberg, Melbourne, Australia

Pulivarthi H. Rao, PhD

Texas Children's Cancer Center, Baylor College of Medicine, Houston, TX, USA

Faisal Rashid, MD

Vancouver General Hospital, Department of Radiology, Vancouver, BC, Canada

Françoise Rédini, PhD

INSERM, Physiopathologie de la Résorption Osseuse et Thérapie des Tumeurs Osseuses Primitives, Faculté de Médecine, Nantes, France

Carl D. Richards, PhD

Professor, Department of Pathology and Molecular Medicine, McMaster University, Hamilton, Ontario, Canada

John A. Robinson, PhD

Women's Health and Musculoskeletal Biology, Wyeth Research, Collegeville, PA, USA

Julie Rousseau, PhD student

INSERM, Physiopathologie de la Résorption Osseuse et Thérapie des Tumeurs Osseuses Primitives, Faculté de Médecine, Nantes, France

Blandine Ruhin, MD, PhD

Centre de Recherche des Cordeliers, Oral Facial Biology and Pathology, Stomatology and Maxillofacial Surgery Department, Pitié-Salpêtrière University Hospital, Pierre et Marie Curie University, Paris, France

Velasco C. Ruiz, MD

INSERM, Université de Nantes, Nantes Atlantique Universités, Laboratoire de Physiopathologie de la Résorption Osseuse et Thérapie des Tumeurs Osseuses Primitives, Nantes, France

Ma'Ann C. Sabino, DDS, PhD

Division of Oral and Maxillofacial Surgery, School of Dentistry, University of Minnesota, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, MN, USA

Suvi Savola, MD

Department of Pathology, Haartman Institute, University of Helsinki, Finland

Holger Schirrmeister, MD

Department Head, Department of Nuklearmedicine Westküstenklinikum Heide, Heide, Germany

Markus J. Seibel, MD, PhD

PhD, FRACP, ANZAC Research Institute, The University of Sydney, Concord Campus, Sydney, Australia

Shamini Selvarajah, PhD

Center for Medical Oncologic Pathology, Dana-Farber Cancer Institute, Boston, MA, USA

Gene P. Siegal, MD, PhD

Robert W. Mowry Endowed Professor of Pathology and Director, Division of Anatomic Pathology, Exec. Vice-Chair of Pathology – UAB Health System, Sr. Scientist, UAB Comprehensive Cancer Center and the Gene Therapy Center, Department of Pathology, University of Alabama at Birmingham, Birmingham, AL, USA

Eric R. Siegel, MS

Center of Orthopaedic Research, Department of Biostatistics, UAMS College of Medicine, University of Arkansas for Medical Sciences, Little Rock, AR, USA

David Smyth, MD

Professor, Department of Pathology and Molecular Medicine, McMaster University, Hamilton, Ontario, Canada

Jeremy A. Squire, PhD

Director of Translational Laboratory Research, NCIC-Clinical Trials Group, Research Chair in Molecular Pathology, Kingston General Hospital, Department of Pathology and Molecular Medicine, Queen's University, Kingston, ON, Canada

Eric L. Staals, MD

Fifth Division of Orthopaedic Surgery, Department of Musculoskeletal Oncology, Istituti Orthpedici Rizzoli, Bologna, Italy

Arne Steitbueger, MD

Klinik and Poliklinikfür Allgemeine Orthopädie Universitätsklinikum Münster, Münster, Germany

Larry J. Suva, PhD

Center of Orthopaedic Research, Department of Orthopaedic Surgery and Physiology and Biophysics, UAMS College of Medicine, University of Arkansas for Medical Sciences, Little Rock, AR, USA

Ping Tang, MD, PhD

Department of Pathology and Laboratory Medicine, University of Rochester, Rochester, NY, USA

Roberto Tirabosco, MD, FRCPath

Royal National Orthopaedic Hospital, Stanmore, Middlesex, United Kingdom

Valérie Trichet, PhD

INSERM, Physiopathologie de la Résorption Osseuse et Thérapie des Tumeurs Osseuses Primitives, Faculté de Médecine, Nantes, France

Marina Vardanyan, MD

Department of Pharmacology, College of Medicine, University of Arizona, Tucson, AZ, USA

Maria Zielenska, PhD

Genetics and Genome Biology, Department of Pediatric Laboratory, Medicine and Pathobiology, The Hospital for Sick Children, Toronto, Ontario, Canada, Kingston General Hospital, Department of Pathology and Molecular Medicine, Queen's University, Kingston, ON, Canada



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Section I. Epidemiology and Economical Aspects of Bone Cancer



Epidemiology of Primary Bone Tumors and Economical Aspects of Bone Metastases

ESTHER I. HAUBEN¹ AND PANCRAS C.W. HOGENDOORN²

¹Department of Pathology, University of Leuven, Leuven, Belgium

²Department of Pathology, Leiden University Medical Center, Leiden, The Netherlands

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Primary bone tumors are rare and as such they form a difficult category of tumors for appropriate recognition and classification both for clinicians as well as pathologists. They account for less than 0.2% of the malignancies registered in the SEER database [1]. The occurrence of bone sarcomas ranges between 0.8 and 2 cases per person per year [1]. However, particularly children and adolescents are affected, which means that bone tumors have a major impact on the life of patients and their immediate surroundings. The incidence of benign bone tumors may be considerably higher, but a number of these are asymptomatic and often missed by patients and their doctors. Therefore, benign bone tumors are most likely underreported. But nevertheless they are, like other benign tumors, a rare event. Another confounding factor is the high discrepancy rate at histological review of bone tumors, which make most population-based series somewhat unreliable [2]. On the other hand, consultation series or expert center series are likely to over-report difficult/unusual cases.

Bone tumors can occur spontaneously. However, a substantial number of them do occur in the context of a

hereditary disorder thus implicating a detailed family history in every new case. If a hereditary context is suspected, then a proper follow-up, often in close collaboration with clinical geneticists, is mandatory [3,4]. This hereditary aspect might explain the higher incidences in some regional populations.

A subgroup of primary bone malignancies occurs secondary to benign precursor lesions in the bone such as in a case of Ollier disease, fibrous dysplasia or Paget's disease of bone [5–9], so the incidence adds up to the occurrence of the primary condition in the population. For instance, there is a well-known regional incidence difference for Paget's disease of bone.

Both benign as well as malignant primary tumors of bone are greatly outnumbered by metastases to the bone from epithelial cancers or melanoma and hematological disorders like multiple myeloma/plasmacytoma.

I. INCIDENCES OF PRIMARY BONE TUMORS

The incidence of bone tumors—especially primary bone sarcomas compared to malignant tumors—in general is very low. Review of large series revealed that approximately 0.2% of all neoplasms are bone sarcomas [10-12]. In Europe about two new primary bone sarcomas arise per 100,000 persons a year. Interestingly, at childhood there is a steep shift in frequency of occurrence over the age span [13]. From the first year of life the incidence increases from 3.9 per 100,000 to a peak of 142.9 per 100,000 at the age of fifteen [13]. The archives of the Netherlands Committee of Bone Tumors hold details of over 14,000 cases of bone tumors and tumor-like lesions where the percentages of the sarcomas are given in decreasing order of frequency for malignant bone tumors: osteosarcoma (37%), chondrosarcoma (23.6%), Ewing sarcoma (12.2%), fibrosarcoma/malignant fibrous histiocytoma (10.9%), Non-Hodgkin's lymphoma of bone (3.3%), malignancy in giant cell tumor (2.3%), Paget's sarcoma 1%, and adamantinoma (0.8%) [10].

Fibrosarcoma and malignant fibrous histiocytoma are diagnoses which are infrequently encountered these days. This is reflected by a change of methods used to classify these tumors, which in practice commonly appear to be poorly differentiated osteosarcoma, or dedifferentiated chondrosarcoma. For benign tumors, enchondroma is the most frequent (27.7%) followed by giant cell tumors (21.5%), osteochondroma (14%), osteoid osteoma (10.5%), chondroblastoma (9%) and osteoblastoma (5.7%) [10]. However, an age-dependent frequency difference is present [13], as discussed below.

II. AGE

Bone tumors have an age-related presentation. There are two age-specific peaks in frequency in bone sarcomas. The first peak occurs in the second decade of life and consists of osteosarcoma and Ewing's sarcoma in cases of malignant tumors and osteochondroma in the benign group [13]. The second peak, slightly increasing from the fourth decade, peaks after the sixth decade and includes chondrosarcomas, MFH, chordoma and osteosarcoma, including Paget's and radiation-induced sarcomas. Chondrosarcomas are somewhat equally distributed over all decades, although rarely found in someone younger than 20, and slightly increasing thereafter. Malignant progression of osteochondroma, as in multiple osteochondroma, only presents itself a number of years after closure of the growth plate and can be recognized by a regrowth of the cartilaginous cap of a pre-existent osteochondroma [14].

The majority of benign bone tumors and tumor-like lesions in young patients are seen in the first and second decades of life. In about half, the median age occurs in the second decade (solitary bone cyst, aneurysmal bone cyst, non-ossifying fibroma, fibrous cortical defect, enchondroma, Langerhanscell histiocytosis, osteochondroma, chondroblastoma, osteoblastoma and osteoid osteoma). The median age incidence of the rest is not specifically age-related and may be seen in the first decade of life, extending even into the sixth or seventh decade (i.e. juxtacortical chondroma, parosteal osteosarcoma, desmoplastic fibroma). Giant cell tumors occur almost exclusively after closure of the epiphysial plate.

III. GENDER

The male–female ratio has little diagnostic contribution for most bone tumors, as in general there is no striking difference and both sexes are roughly equally affected. In osteo-sarcoma the male–female ratio is 1:1. In Ewing's sarcoma, Paget's sarcoma, chordoma and primary osseous non-Hodgkin lymphoma there is a higher prevalence in males (2:1). There

is some male predominance seen in a number of benign lesions like osteochondroma, chondroblastoma, osteoid osteoma, solitary bone cyst, or osteoblastoma. Whether this correlates to a higher incidence of trauma in males which attracts attention to an underlying, previously asymptomatic tumor, is unknown.

IV. RACIAL DIFFERENCES IN INCIDENCES OF PRIMARY BONE TUMORS

While there are some differences reported in incidences between different national registries in the frequency of occurrence, most striking racial differences are reported with regard to Ewing's sarcoma [15] and giant cell tumor of the bone [16]. There is, as yet, an unexplained, extremely low, incidence of Ewing's sarcoma in those of African descent; while giant cell tumors of the bone tend to occur more frequently in the Asian population.

V. SITE DISTRIBUTION

Bone tumors have a preference for the long bones of the extremities. The metaphysis is the preferred site for malignant bone tumors; especially the metaphysis of the distal and proximal femur, the proximal tibia and proximal humerus, which are the affected sites in more than 80% of instances of osteosarcoma. Depending on the extent of the tumor, the epiphysis, and even diaphysis, might be affected as well.

The majority of central chondrosarcoma are restricted to the long bone marrow space, mostly in metaphysial and diaphysial locations. Malignant fibrous histiocytomas arise and extend mostly in the metaphysis, like osteosarcoma, prompting us to question whether this should be regarded as a poorly differentiated form of osteosarcoma. Ewing's sarcoma tends to arise more frequent in the diaphysis but may also extend in the metaphysis. Chordomas are sited exclusively in the sacrum, vertebra and skull, except for very rare casuistic presentations in the long bones. Sites other than the long bones for sarcomas are the flat bones like pelvis, scapula and ribs (chondrosarcoma and Ewing's sarcoma) and craniofacial bones (osteosarcoma). Adamantinoma is almost pre-eminently sited in the tibia and sometimes the fibula.

In benign tumors the epiphysial location is restricted for chondroblastoma, osteoblastoma and dysplasia epiphysialis hemimelica. Solitary and aneurysmal bone cysts occur metaphysically, usually close to the epiphysis. All osteochondroma originate in the metaphysis of long bones and increase the distance to the epiphysis during growth. Fibrous dysplasia can occur at all sites in all bones. Lesions