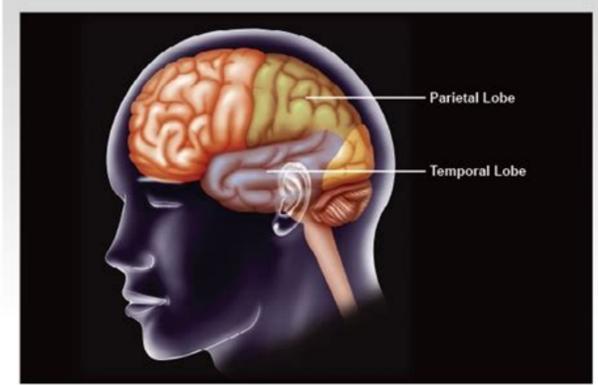
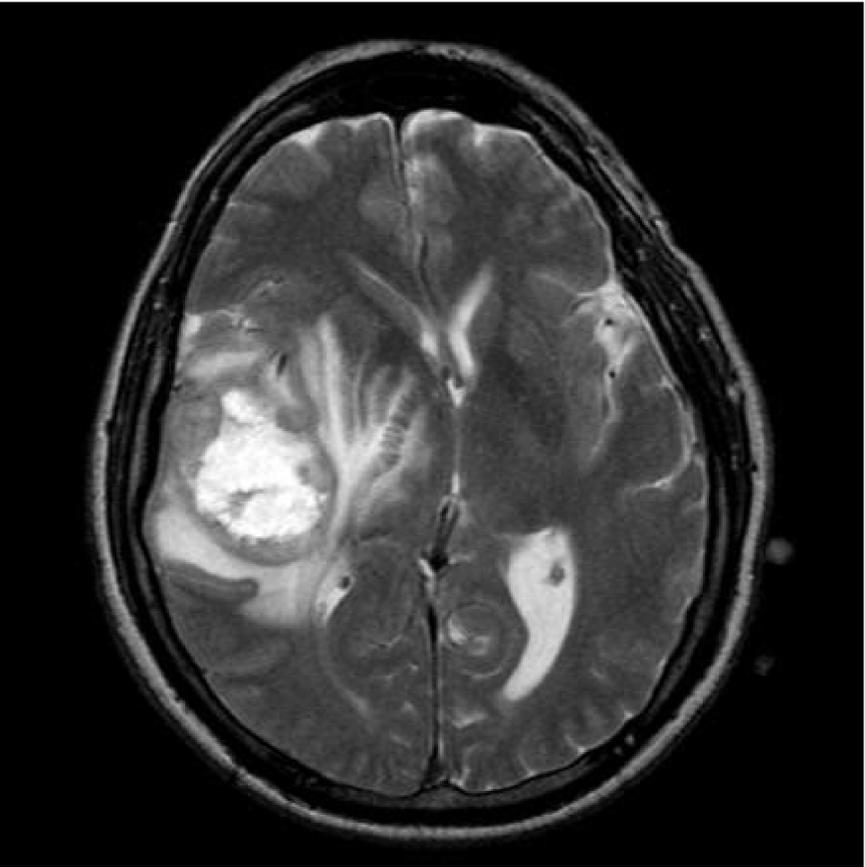
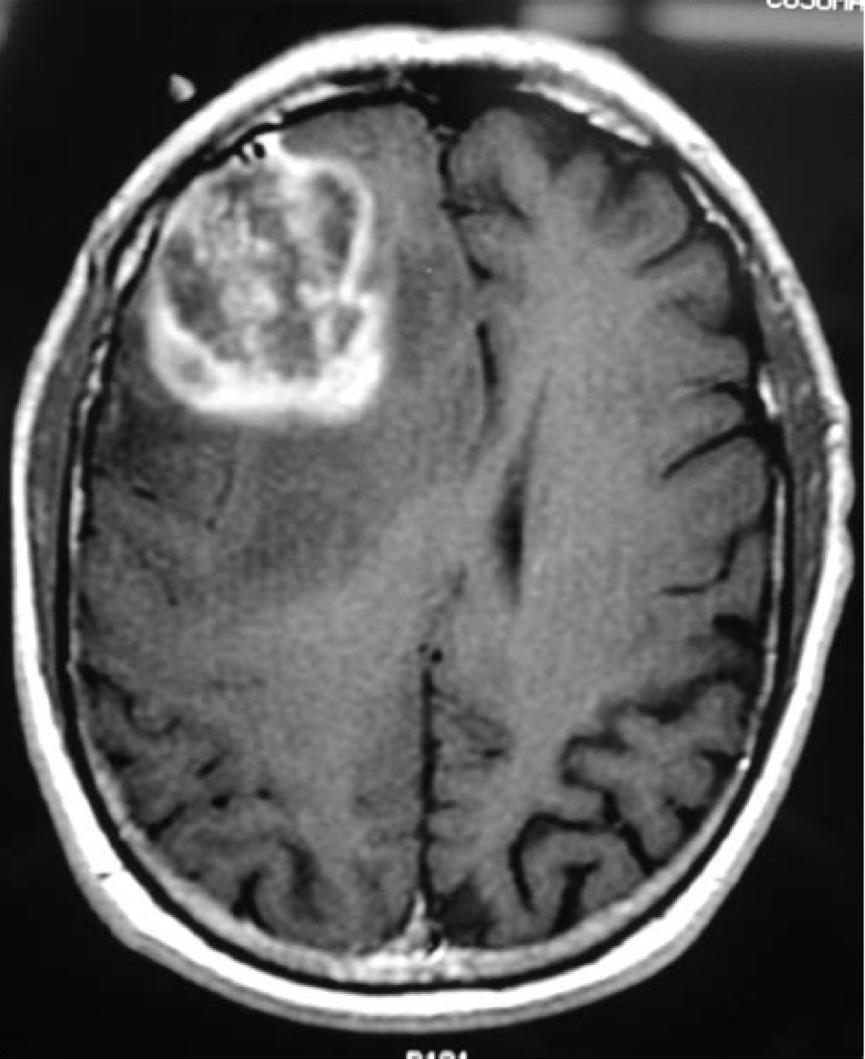
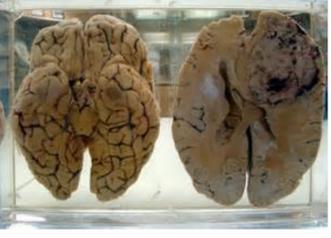
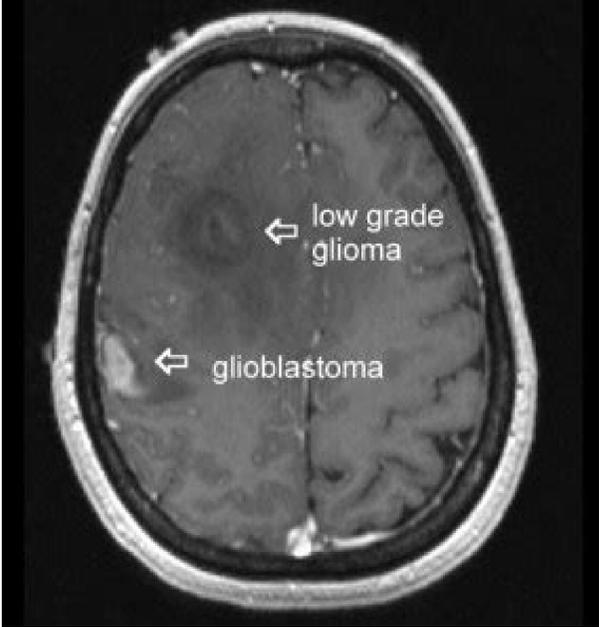


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Glioblastoma adalah. Glioblastoma multiforme pdf. Glioblastoma multiforme adalah. Glioblastoma pdf.

Normally, astrocytes are responsible for a variety of roles, including providing nutrients to neurons, maintaining the blood-brain barrier, and modulating neurotransmission (how neurons communicate with each other). Glioblastomas often develop in the cerebral hemispheres of the brain, but may occur in almost any area of the brain or spinal cord. They are especially malignant, given that the tumor cells proliferate quickly, and are supported by an extensive network of blood vessels. Glioblastomas are the most malignant type of astrocytoma, and also belong to the broader category of gliomas – tumors that arise from glial cells. This is because astrocytes are a type of glial cell. For this reason, glioblastomas may also be called a “grade IV glioma.” Doctors often use the letters “T,” “N,” and “M” to help describe the stage of your lung cancer. Here’s what the letters mean: “T” stands for “tumor.” It describes your tumor’s size and where it’s located. “N” stands for “node.” It reveals if the cancer has spread to your lymph nodes. “M” stands for “metastasis.” It’s used to tell doctors if the cancer has spread to other parts of your body, such as the liver, bones, or brain. These letters are often used along with the numbers (0, 1, 2, 3, and 4) to stage your tumor. The most common way to stage lung cancer is using a letter followed by a number. Non-Small-Cell Lung Cancer Stages The numerical system for staging lung cancers includes: Occult Stage This stage is often referred to as stage “X” or a “hidden cancer.” It means your tumor can’t be seen on imaging scans or a biopsy, but cancer cells show up in your mucus. Stage 0 A stage 0 lung cancer is very small and hasn’t spread into deeper lung tissues or outside the lungs. It’s sometimes known as “carcinoma in situ.” Stage 1 Stage 1 lung cancer means you have cancer in your lung tissues, but it hasn’t spread to your lymph nodes. The tumor is usually smaller than 2 inches across. Stage 2 Stage 2 lung cancers have spread to nearby lymph nodes. Stage 3 Stage 3 tumors have grown large and spread further into your lymph nodes and chest. Stage 4 Stage 4 lung cancer has spread outside the lung and lymph nodes, occasionally causing pleural effusions – a collection of fluid around the lung – or to more distant sites in your body, such as the liver, bones, and brain. Typically, the lower the number, the better your prognosis. Substages A and B Sometimes, stages of lung cancer are further subdivided into categories “A,” “B,” or “C.” For example, your doctor might say you have a lung cancer that’s “stage 2A” or “stage 2B.” The letters offer a more specific way to classify the cancer. Stage A is usually used to describe a cancer that’s slightly less aggressive within a certain category. Stage B typically refers to cancer that’s more aggressive. Small-Cell Lung Cancer Stages There are two stages for small-cell lung cancer: Limited The cancer is found on one side of the chest only and may include nearby lymph nodes. Extensive The cancer has spread to both lungs or to organs outside the chest. Understanding Lung Cancer Stages The lung cancer staging process is complex and may be difficult to understand. There are many letters and numbers involved, and it can get confusing. Some medical professionals even have trouble figuring it out. Talk to your doctor if you have any questions. Lung Cancer Stages and Survival Rates Often, survival rates are calculated based on the stage of the cancer. The National Cancer Institute’s most recent statistics show: For people with stage 1A non-small-cell lung cancer (NSCLC), the five-year survival rate is about 49 percent. For stage 1B NSCLC, the five-year survival rate is about 45 percent. For those with stage 2A lung cancer, the five-year survival rate is about 30 percent. It’s about 31 percent for stage 2B. The five-year survival rate for stage 3A NSCLC is about 14 percent. For stage 3B cancers, it’s about 5 percent. For metastatic, or stage 4 NSCLC, the five-year survival rate is about 1 percent. It’s important to remember that survival rates are only estimates. They can’t be used to predict what will happen to you specifically. They are also based on data from over a decade ago, and there have been many new therapies approved to treat lung cancer in the last decade that will likely improve these numbers. A glioblastoma is the most common high grade primary brain tumor in adults. It rarely occurs in children. It’s normal to feel shocked if you or someone you know has recently been diagnosed with a glioblastoma. Our Support and Information team can help you answer any questions you may have or provide a listening ear if you need one. Glioblastomas are grade 4 brain tumors and are sometimes called glioblastoma multiforme, GBM, GBM4 or a grade 4 astrocytoma. They’re fast growing and diffuse – meaning they have threadlike tendrils that extend into other parts of the brain. It’s unlikely to spread within the brain, but it may come back, even if intensively treated. Sometimes called malignant or cancerous, glioblastomas are a type of glioma, which is a brain tumour that grows from a glial cell. Back to the top If you’ve just been diagnosed with a glioblastoma and are about to have treatment, you may want to see what other people’s first treatment was. Use the First Treatment insight in BRIAN, which you can personalise to make it relevant to you. BRIAN is our trusted online app where you can track your experience, compare it with others who’ve been there and get the knowledge you need to make informed decisions. Download our BRIAN app on the App Store. Download our BRIAN app on Google Play Click here to visit the BRIAN website What are the symptoms of a glioblastoma? Different parts of the brain control different functions, so the symptoms you experience will depend partly on where the tumour is within your brain. It will also depend on the treatment you receive. Find out more Back to the top Generally, if you’re well enough, neurosurgery will be performed to remove as much of the tumour as possible. Once your wound has healed, you may also receive chemotherapy, radiotherapy or both. Before surgery, you may want to ask your healthcare team about: 5-ALA. A surgical aid that can help surgeons remove more of a tumour biobanking. A method of storing a sample of your tumour for future research, clinical trials. Experiments into new ways of treating brain tumours. Find out more Back to the top As with most brain tumours, it’s not known why glioblastomas start growing, although we do understand some of the risk factors involved. It’s important to know that there is nothing you could have done, or avoided doing, that would have caused you or somebody you know to develop a brain tumour. Back to the top Read about the research we are funding to help our understanding of how and why this tumour type forms and develop new, effective treatments. Nobody can be absolutely certain about what will happen to you following a diagnosis of a brain tumour. Your healthcare team may give you a prognosis, which is an estimate based on your tumour type and current situation. However, they won’t be able to predict other factors, such as how well you might respond to treatment. Glioblastoma prognosis Back to the top Our glioblastoma factsheet gives you an overview of glioblastomas in adults and answers some of the questions you may have about this type of tumour. Our clear print fact sheet gives you an overview of glioblastomas in adults and answers some of the questions you may have about this type of tumour. If you have further questions, need to clarify any of the information on this page, or want to find out more about research and clinical trials, please contact our team: Glioblastoma Multiforme | American Association of Neurological Surgeons Vikram C. Prabhu, MD, FAANS Your browser does not support the audio element. Glioblastoma (GBM), also referred to as a grade IV astrocytoma, is a fast-growing and aggressive brain tumor. It invades the nearby brain tissue, but generally does not spread to distant organs. GBMs can arise in the brain de novo or evolve from lower-grade astrocytoma. In adults, GBM occurs most often in the cerebral hemispheres, especially in the frontal and temporal lobes of the brain. GBM is a devastating brain cancer that can result in death in six months or less, if untreated; hence, it is imperative to seek expert neuro-oncological and neurosurgical care immediately, as this can impact overall survival. GBMs present unique treatment challenges due to: Localization of tumors in the brain Inherent resistance to conventional therapy Limited capacity of the brain to repair itself Migration of malignant cells into adjacent brain tissue The variably disrupted tumor blood supply, which inhibits effective drug delivery Tumor capillary leakage, resulting in an accumulation of fluid around the tumor, (peritumoral edema) and intracranial hypertension Tumor-induced seizures The resultant neurotoxicity of treatments directed at gliomas Glioblastoma is the most common malignant brain and other CNS tumors accounting for 47.7% of all cases. Glioblastoma has an incidence of 3.21 per 100,000 population. Median age of diagnosis is 64 years and it is more common in men as compared to women. Survival is poor with approximately 40% survival in the first year post diagnosis and 17% in the second year. Factors associated with glioblastoma risk are prior therapeutic radiation, decreased susceptibility to allergy and impaired immune response. Several hereditary cancer syndromes greatly increase the risk of glioblastoma, including Li-fraumeni syndrome and Lynch syndrome. Symptoms vary depending on the location of the brain tumor, but may include any of the following: Sophisticated imaging techniques can accurately pinpoint the location of brain tumors. Diagnostic tools include computed tomography (CT or CAT scan) and magnetic resonance imaging (MRI). Intraoperative MRI may also be useful during surgery to guide tissue biopsies and tumor removal. Magnetic resonance spectroscopy (MRS) is used to examine the tumor’s chemical profile. Figure 1. Axial T1-weighted MRIs after IV gadolinium administration. Conventional MRI: Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) is the most important imaging study for astrocytoma. Usually, images are acquired both before and after the administration of IV contrast. As a rule of thumb, if the tumor picks up the contrast (i.e. becomes bright on images) is an indication of a higher-grade astrocytoma. Other imaging sequences provide clues as to tumor cellularity, brain swelling and brain infiltration. Low-grade tumors usually do not show much contrast enhancement, while GBMs display strong contrast enhancement and frequent central necrosis (Figure 1). Figure 2. MRI spectroscopy of normal brain (sampled voxels are represented on the right side of the panel). The NAA peak is the most prominent. MRI spectroscopy (MRS): This is an imaging tool, based on MRI, that provides information on the chemical composition of the tumor and works based on the fact that certain chemicals are abundant in the normal brain, while others are abundant in tumors (for example, choline). The output of this imaging modality is a diagram where it is possible to see the amount of each chemical in an area of the brain under analysis: If the amount of NAA is more than choline, that would suggest a normal brain (Figure 2). The opposite raises suspicion of a tumor. This technique can be considered as a non-invasive tissue sampling, although it is not as accurate or definitive as a standard biopsy. Figure 3. fMRI with BOLD imaging during object naming. Functional MRI (fMRI): fMRI is a useful technique to find which parts of the brain become activated when the patient is asked to perform a certain task (for example, talking or moving one arm or leg). This is fundamental to define the regions of the brain which, if damaged, would cause problems to the patient. Activated brain is shown as a yellow/red signal (Figure 3) superimposed to an otherwise standard MRI. For tumors that are localized in the proximity of critical areas (speech centers, motor cortex or visual cortex), fMRIs provide an important adjunct, particularly in regards to surgical planning. The yellow/red signal displays significant activation in the left temporo-parietal region, in the expected anatomical area for language production and in close proximity to the location of a glioblastoma. After a brain tumor is detected on a CT or MRI scan, a neurosurgeon obtains tumor tissue for a biopsy and the tissue is examined by a neuropathologist. The analysis of tumor tissue is used to assign the tumor a name, grade and to provide answers to the following questions: What is the type of tumor and how is it classified based on the WHO tumor classification? Are there signs of rapid growth in the tumor cells? What is the tumor grade? Histologic Grading GRADE II Cytologic atypia (variation in nuclear shape and size + hyperchromasia) GRADE III Anaplasia and increased mitotic activity (increased cellularity) GRADE IV Microvascular proliferation and necrosis Are there any specific genetic mutations within the tumor that can help with prognosis, help predict response to therapy and assess presence of experimental therapeutic targets? Next generation sequencing aids molecular analysis and in profiling brain tumors to improve diagnostic accuracy and predict prognosis. A few important alterations are in the table below. Important Molecular Alterations in Glioblastoma IDH mutation Prognostic value, potential therapeutic target MGMT methylation status Prognostic value, predictive value for response to temozolomide EGFR mutation Diagnostic maker for glioblastoma, potential therapeutic target TERT promoter mutation Diagnostic maker for glioblastoma Gain for 7p and loss of 10q Diagnostic maker for glioblastoma H3F3A Diagnostic marker for a subset of gliomas (H3 K27M-mutant and H3 G34 mutant), therapeutic target FGFR fusion Therapeutic target NTRK fusion Therapeutic target The mainstay of treatment for GBMs is surgery, followed by radiation and chemotherapy. The primary objective of surgery is to remove as much of the tumor as possible without injuring the surrounding normal brain tissue needed for normal neurological function. However, GBMs are surrounded by a zone of migrating, infiltrating tumor cells that invade surrounding tissues, making it impossible to ever remove the tumor entirely. Surgery provides the ability to reduce the amount of solid tumor tissue within the brain, remove those cells in the center of the tumor that may be resistant to radiation and/or chemotherapy and reduce intracranial pressure. Surgery, by providing a debulking of the tumor, carries the ability to prolong the lives of some patients and improve the quality of remaining life. In most cases, surgeons perform a craniotomy, opening the skull to reach the tumor site. This is done frequently with computer-assisted image-guidance and at times using intra-operative mapping techniques to determine the locations of the motor, sensory and speech/language cortex. Intraoperative mapping often involves operating on a patient while they are awake and mapping the anatomy of their language function during the operation. The doctor then decides which portions of the tumor are safe to resect. After surgery, when the wound is healed, radiation therapy can begin. The goal of radiation therapy is to selectively kill the remaining tumor cells that have infiltrated the surrounding normal brain tissue. In standard external beam radiation therapy, multiple sessions of standard-dose “fractions” of radiation are delivered to the tumor site as well as a margin in order to treat the zone of infiltrating tumor cells. Each treatment induces damage to both healthy and normal tissue. By the time the next treatment is given, most of the normal cells have repaired the damage, but the tumor tissue has not. This process is repeated for a total of 10 to 30 treatments, usually given once a day, five days a week; depending on the type of tumor. The use of radiation therapy provides most patients with improved outcomes and longer survival rates compared to surgery alone or the best supportive care. Radiosurgery is a treatment method that uses specialized radiation delivery systems to focus radiation at the site of the tumor, while minimizing the radiation dose to the surrounding brain. Radiosurgery may be used in select cases for tumor recurrence, often using additional information derived from MRS or PET scans. It is rarely used in the initial treatment of GBM. Patients undergoing chemotherapy are administered special drugs designed to kill tumor cells. Chemotherapy with the drug temozolomide is the current standard of treatment for GBM. The drug is generally administered every day during radiation therapy and then for six cycles after radiation during the maintenance phase. Each cycle lasts for 28 days, with temozolomide given the first five days of each cycle, followed by 23 days of rest. Tumor treating fields is a different modality of treatment that is introduced during the maintenance phase of treatment. It creates alternating electrical fields, which prevents growth and division of cancer cells. Lumistine (chemotherapy) and bevacizumab (targeted therapy) are largely used when the tumor progresses. AANS Patient Pages are edited by neurosurgical professionals. This page has been edited by: Jigisha P Thakkar, MDPIer Paolo Peruzzi, MD, PhD, FAANS Vikram C Prabhu, MD, FAANS Important: The AANS does not endorse any treatments, procedures, products or physicians referenced in these patient fact sheets. This information provided is an educational service and is not intended to serve as medical advice. Anyone seeking specific neurosurgical advice or assistance should consult his or her neurosurgeon, or locate one in your area through the AANS’ Find a Board-certified Neurosurgeon online tool.

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