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Forum

Cancer Is Not (Only) a Senescence Problem

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Age is one of the strongest predictors of cancer and risk of death from cancer. Cancer is therefore generally viewed as a senescence-related malady. However, cancer also exists at subclinical levels in humans and other animals, but its earlier effects on the body are poorly known by comparison. We argue here that cancer is a significant but ignored burden on the body and is likely to be a strong selective force from early during the lifetime of an organism. It is time to adopt this novel view of malignant pathologies to improve our understanding of the ways in which oncogenic phenomena influence the ecology and evolution of animals long before their negative impacts become evident and fatal.

Cancer defines a family of potentially lethal diseases occurring when host cells lose their normal cooperative behavior, proliferate at greater rates than would normal cells, spread, and hence become malignant. In most cases (i.e., 90% in humans and domestic animals [1]),

deaths due to cancer are not attributed to locally confined tumors but rather to metastases (i.e., disseminated tumor spread). Advancing age being indisputably the most significant risk factor (in terms of incidence) for the development of metastatic cancer, the generally accepted concept is that cancer is a form of age-dependent, often senescent, pathology [2]. This view is valid in several cases when, for example, aging predisposes cells to accumulate oncogenic mutations. The role of senescence on malignant progression can, however, also be indirect; that is, cancer is not *per se* a senescence phenomenon but a byproduct of the organism's senescence. For instance, according to Rozhok and DeGregori [3] carcinogenesis should be viewed as a function of physiological aging whereby aging and the resulting altered tissue microenvironments lead to selection on previously accumulated random mutations, some of which gain a fitness advantage. Invasive cancers can also indirectly result from the senescence of the mechanisms that normally hold *in situ* tumors in check (e.g., the progressive decline of the immune system with age, also termed immunosenescence).

Senescence has different meanings in different realms of study. Cell biologists usually use senescence to refer to the loss of cellular proliferative potential. Clinical experts use it to refer to age-related deterioration. Even in evolutionary biology, senescence can be defined broadly or narrowly. Besides the more-or-less direct links with senescence-associated processes (*sensu* deterioration that occurs in old age), cancer also displays a range of characteristics that are not found in classical age-related diseases, suggesting that malignancies should not be simply assimilated under the umbrella of senescence. This is not a semantic problem but rather an important issue, particularly in ecology and evolution, where

late-onset diseases are frequently overlooked compared with those occurring earlier in life, as they have limited effect on the evolutionary trajectory of species due to their impact manifesting only post-reproduction. Thus, mistakenly viewing cancer as a senescence disease leads to a potential under-appreciation of its ecological and evolutionary importance.

There is a long list of cancer attributes that should motivate scientists to consider cancer as a disease differing from a 'senescence problem'. The first obvious attribute is that cancer ironically relies on the bypassing of cellular senescence. A second attribute is that, although rare, several forms of cancer are not restricted to occurring only in the elderly but also develop from early childhood and/or in young adults (e.g., gliomas, leukemia, testicular cancer). In addition, accumulated mutational damage from environmental exposures does not qualify as senescence. For example, the scenario of a 5-year-old person with high UV-light exposure developing cancer at age 8 years would not be classified as senescence. It is therefore important to distinguish between continual damage caused by environmental exposures and senescence. In the latter, the evolutionary framework is based on the weakness of selection during the post reproductive lifespan, whereas accumulated damage can occur at any time during an individual's lifespan if the environmental exposure is sufficiently frequent. An increasing number of studies have also shown that even if malignancies do not necessarily lead to metastatic cancers, oncogenic phenomena in general (e.g., precancerous lesions, *in situ* carcinoma) are highly prevalent in animal populations and occur not just in post-reproductive individuals as previously believed [4]. This is also true in humans, as illustrated by several recent studies indicating that most, if not all, individuals harbor and accumulate

119 precancerous lesions and *in situ* tumors
120 during their life in various organs (e.g.,
121 prostate, lung, thyroid, breast, pancreas)
122 (see [5]). Another major reason for con-
123 sidering cancer as a disease that differs
124 from a senescence problem is that the
125 dynamics of malignant transformations
126 and progression follow Darwinian princi-
127 ples. Somatic cellular selection and evo-
128 lution are the fundamental processes
129 leading to malignancy, with its many man-
130 ifestations including immune system evo-
131 lution, neoangiogenesis, metastasis, and
132 resistance to therapies. In only a few
133 months or years, these selective pro-
134 cesses can favor the transformation of a
135 single cell into a complexly organized col-
136 lection of interacting cells (i.e., the solid
137 tumor). Thus, although the initiation of
138 cancers might have links with senes-
139 cence-related processes, malignant pro-
140 gression itself relies on processes that
141 differ from those directly linked to aging.
142 Cancer is therefore not like most degen-
143 erative age-relative diseases (e.g., neuro-
144 degenerative diseases, several aspects of
145 cardiovascular disease, macular degen-
146 eration, osteoporosis, sarcopenia), which
147 are loss-of-function ailments. Rather, it is
148 an example of a much smaller category of
149 gain-of-function diseases (i.e., gain of
150 cells, new cellular functions).

151 Also remarkably, eight naturally occurring
152 transmissible contagious cancers [one
153 lineage in dogs, two lineages in the Tas-
154 manian devil (*Sarcophilus harrisi*), and five
155 lineages in bivalves] have so far been
156 recorded [6]. Tasmanian devil facial tumor
157 disease (DFTD) illustrates how cancer can
158 act as an evolutionary force. The recent
159 epidemic of DFTD has caused a massive
160 (>85%) population decline in Tasmanian
161 devils since the disease emerged in 1996
162 and is a significant selective force and a
163 key threat to the long-term survival of this
164 species.

165 Other cancers are not directly contagious
166 but have (as in other chronic diseases;

see [7]) infectious causations not related
to senescence. These include Epstein–
Barr virus, hepatitis B and C viruses,
the bacterium *Helicobacter pylori*, human
papilloma virus, and the trematodes
Schistosoma haematobium, *S. japoni-*
cum, and *S. mansoni*, which have been
shown to be likely causal triggers of can-
cers of the lymph nodes, liver, stomach,
cervix, bladder, colon, and liver, respec-
tively (see [8]). In addition, the complete
list of oncogenic pathogens is probably
far from being fully known. Finally, it has
long been known that in some cases a
cancer can spontaneously regress and
even disappear without treatment in both
humans and animals. All of these features
are not classical attributes of senescence
pathologies, suggesting that cancer
should thus be considered separately.

Why cancer has been predominantly
viewed as a senescence pathology and
thus been ignored or considered as noise
by ecologists is due to at least two rea-
sons: (i) an understandable focus on met-
astatic forms, which have obvious and
serious impacts on the patient/host and
usually occur late in life; and (ii) when
performance in fitness-related traits
varies between individuals in nonhuman
animals, they are likely to be attributed to
reasons other than malignancies, such as
intraspecific variability, infectious dis-
eases, or bad genes *sensu lato*. The rea-
son for this is that cancer is not something
that many ecologists consider as one of
the many selective pressures acting on
animals, although it is likely to be perva-
sive, and this may lead to individual differ-
ences in condition or performance. That
is, a part of the variation in individual phe-
notypes is likely, at any time point, to be
influenced by the state of the oncobiota
(i.e., malignant cell communities) [9].

The importance of cancer (long before
metastasis) in ecology and evolution is
presently unknown despite it being likely
to be highly relevant, since a reduction in

body condition, even small, is usually asso-
ciated with higher risk of predation and/or
infection, and reduced competitiveness/
attractiveness in sexual selection processes
in the wild [10]. Over half a billion years ago,
multicellular organisms evolved several
cancer suppression mechanisms (e.g.,
apoptosis, effective DNA repair, epigenetic
modifications, telomere shortening, tissue
architecture, immune surveillance). How-
ever, assuming that cancer, because of
these protective mechanisms, is no longer
a problem for reproducing animals is, at
least in our opinion, a naive view. Cancer,
like all diseases, is usually associated with
tradeoffs at some level [11], and at least for
this reason the mechanisms employed by
hosts to cope with cancer cannot be con-
sidered in isolation from other functions that
govern living organisms. Moreover, recent
work suggests that, in addition to resistance
mechanisms to cancer, selection has also
favored adjustment of life history traits and
tolerance mechanisms [12]. Because these
mechanisms allow hosts to alleviate the
fitness costs of cancer without preventing
its progression, this suggests that tumor-
bearing individuals in populations could be
more frequent than currently predicted.

Although metastatic cancers primarily
cause major pathological manifestations
at later life stages in laboratory animals,
we should not underestimate the adapta-
tion-invoking role of this disease in shap-
ing the ecology and evolution of animals
throughout the lifespan. Also, even when
invasive cancer is apparently absent in an
organism, we cannot ignore the potential
cost paid by this organism to maintain
such a cancer-free status. It is time
to adopt a novel perspective on cancer,
especially its contribution to what
evolutionary ecologists describe as
interindividual variability [9]. Another rea-
son for considering cancer is that most, if
not all, ecosystems on our planet are now
polluted by mutagenic substances to a
greater extent than ever before, to an
extent that the incidence of cancers in

264 wildlife is likely to increase significantly in
 265 the near future. Directing our attention to
 266 the effects of noninvasive (sublethal) can-
 267 cer should help to change the general
 268 concept of the impact of cancer on fit-
 269 ness. Currently the main limitation for sci-
 270 entists is methodology, primarily the lack
 271 of noninvasive diagnostic techniques to
 272 evaluate the oncobiote state of individu-
 273 als. Promising tools are, however, emerg-
 274 ing (e.g., detection of circulating tumor
 275 cells or tumor DNA). Making the distinc-
 276 tion between ‘cancer’ and ‘malignancies’
 277 can help in understanding how the great
 278 majority of cancers occur in old age even
 279 while more common malignancies in
 280 youth can still impair fitness. After having
 281 acknowledged the importance of para-
 282 sites and then microbiota, it is time to
 283 open the black box of oncobiota.

284 Acknowledgments

285 This work was supported by the ANR (Blanc project
 286 EVOCAN), the CNRS (INEE), an International Associ-
 287 ated Laboratory Project France/Australia, the

Montpellier Hérault Sport Club M.H.S.C, and André
 Hoffmann (Fondation MAVA).

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<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.trecan.2018.01.002>

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