



**ROLE OF RADIOLOGY IN DIAGNOSIS OF LUNG ADENOCARCINOMA:
A REVIEW ARTICLE**

*Dr. Sanjay Kumar Verma, Prof. Dr. Huang Yuan Yi, Dr. Sashi Kumar Yadav, Dr. Roshan
Kumar Yadav and Dr. Deepika Dhakal

*Department of nuclear medicine and medical imaging, clinical medical college of Yangtze university, Jingzhou
central hospital, province- hubei, PR china*

ABSTRACT

Lung cancers are tumours arising from cells lining the airways of the respiratory system. Adenocarcinoma of the lung is one of the main types of lung cancers. Adenocarcinoma of the lung arises from the secretory (glandular) cells located in the epithelium lining the bronchi. Lung cancer is more than twice as common in men as in women. Geographically, the tumour is found worldwide, but it is especially common in countries with a high tobacco consumption. Adenocarcinoma of the lung is the commonest type of lung cancer, accounting for 32% of all cases of lung cancer.

Key words: adenocarcinoma, glandular, bronchi, tobacco

INTRODUCTION

Adenocarcinoma of the lung is the most common type of lung cancer, and like other forms of lung cancer, it is characterized by distinct cellular and molecular features.[1] Lung cancer is the leading cause of cancer-related death for both men and women[2]. The signs and symptoms of this specific type of lung cancer are similar to other forms of lung cancer, and patients most commonly complain of persistent cough and shortness of breath. Like many lung cancers, adenocarcinoma of the lung is often advanced by the time of diagnosis. Once a lesion or tumor is identified with various imaging modalities, such as computed tomography or X-ray, a biopsy is required to confirm the diagnosis. This cancer usually is seen peripherally in the lungs, as opposed to small cell lung cancer and squamous cell lung cancer, which both tend to be more centrally located, [3] although it may also occur as central lesions. [4] The peripheral location of adenocarcinoma in the lungs may be due to the use of filters in cigarettes which prevent the larger particles from entering the lung. [5]

Signs and symptoms:

The symptoms that the patient exhibits usually reflect the extent of the cancer's spread. Smoking cigarettes is by far the leading risk factor for lung cancer. In fact, cigarette smokers are 13 times more likely to develop lung cancer than nonsmokers. Cigar and pipe smoking are almost as likely to cause lung cancer as cigarette smoking. However, lung cancer that is advanced will cause patients to experience additional signs and symptoms secondary to the cancer spreading to other organ systems. [6]

Most common signs include:

- ❖ Cough that does not go away or gets worse
- ❖ Hemoptysis (coughing up blood or rust-colored phlegm) [7]
- ❖ Weight loss (0-68%)
- ❖ Bone pain
- ❖ Clubbing
- ❖ Fever
- ❖ Superior vena cava obstruction- facial, neck, upper torso swelling. This is caused by compression of vasculature by the lung tumor that restricts blood return from the upper body. [8]

Imaging:

Chest x-ray:

Lung cancer may be seen on chest x-ray as a solitary pulmonary nodule or mass. As many as 80% of solitary pulmonary nodules (<4cm diameter) in the over-50 age group are cancer. Chest x-ray may also be used to evaluate the size of the tumour and possible involvement of lymph nodes in the chest. A chest x-ray is often the first imaging test performed when a person presents with cough or chest pain, particularly in the primary

care setting. A chest radiograph may detect a lung nodule/mass that is suggestive of cancer, although sensitivity and specificity are limited.

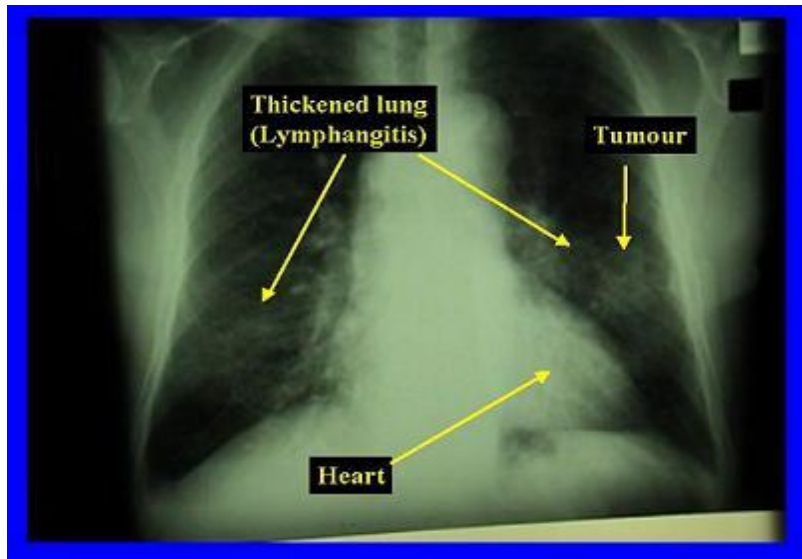


Figure1: Chest x-ray showing tumour

CT imaging:

Provides better evaluation of the lungs, with higher sensitivity and specificity for lung cancer compared to chest radiograph (although still significant false positive rate. [9] CT is more accurate than chest x-ray, and may be particularly useful in identification of lymph node involvement.

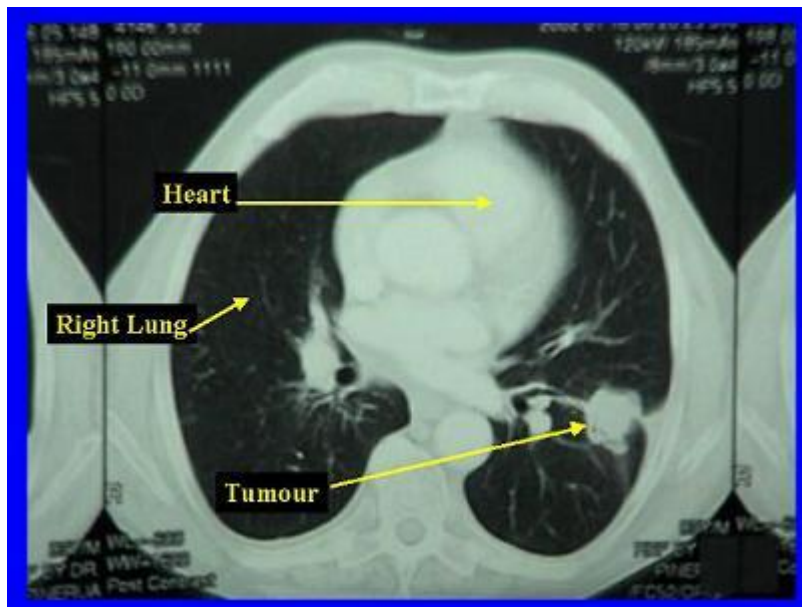


Figure2: CT showing tumour in left lower lobe of lungs

Nuclear medicine imaging, such as PET/CT and bone scan, may also be helpful to diagnose and detect metastatic disease elsewhere in the body. [10] PET/CT uses a metabolically active tracer that allows clinicians to identify areas of the body that are hypermetabolic. Increased uptake of the tracer occurs in malignant cells and areas of inflammation or infection. Integrating the imaging reflective of metabolic activity with normal CT imaging allows for higher sensitivity and specificity compared to PET alone. [11]

MRI is reserved for patients with advanced disease where intracranial, or brain, involvement is likely. It is also helpful for evaluating the extent of chest wall, diaphragmatic, brachial plexus (such as in the case of superior sulcus tumors), or spine involvement.

CONCLUSION

Adenocarcinomas tend to be slow-growing. In this article I have focused mainly on radiological findings of adenocarcinoma of lungs. Treatment of this lung cancer is based upon the specific subtype and the extent of spread from the primary tumor. Chemotherapy, radiation, and surgical resection are used in attempt to eradicate the cancerous cells based upon these factors.

REFERENCES

1. Travis WD, Brambilla E, Müller-Hermelink HK, Harris CC, eds. (2004). Pathology and Genetics of Tumours of the Lung, Pleura, Thymus and Heart(PDF). World Health Organization Classification of Tumours. Lyon: IARC Press. ISBN 978-92-832-2418-1. Archived from the original (PDF) on 2009-08-23. Retrieved 27 March 2010.
2. Siegel RL, Miller KD, Jemal A. Cancer statistics, 2017. *CA Cancer J Clin.* 2017;67(1):7–30.
3. Travis WD, Travis LB, Devesa SS (January 1995). "Lung cancer". *Cancer.* **75** (1 Suppl): 191–202. doi:10.1002/1097-0142(19950101)75:1+<191::AID-CNCR2820751307>3.0.CO;2-Y. PMID 8000996.
4. Mitchell RS, Kumar V, Abbas AK, Fausto N (2007). "Chapter 13, box on morphology of adenocarcinoma". *Robbins Basic Pathology* (8th ed.). Philadelphia: Saunders. ISBN 978-1-4160-2973-1.
5. Marugame T, Sobue T, Nakayama T, Suzuki T, Kuniyoshi H, Sunagawa K, Genka K, Nishizawa N, Natsukawa S, Kuwahara O, Tsubura E (February 2004). "Filter cigarette smoking and lung cancer risk; a hospital-based case--control study in Japan". *British Journal of Cancer.* **90** (3): 646–51. doi:10.1038/sj.bjc.6601565. PMC 2409609. PMID 14760379.
6. Horn L, Pao W, Johnson DH (2012). "Chapter 89". In Longo DL, Kasper DL, Jameson JL, Fauci AS, Hauser SL, Loscalzo J. *Harrison's Principles of Internal Medicine* (18th ed.). McGraw-Hill. ISBN 978-0-07-174889-6.
7. "Tests for Non-Small Cell Lung Cancer". American Cancer Society. June 23, 2017. Retrieved March 11, 2018.
8. editor., Grippi, Michael A.,. *Fishman's pulmonary diseases and disorders.* ISBN 9780071807289. OCLC 898053564.

9. Gossner J (April 2014). "Lung cancer screening-don't forget the chest radiograph". *World Journal of Radiology*. 6 (4): 116–8. doi:10.4329/wjr.v6.i4.116. PMC 4000607. PMID 24778773.
10. "Tests for Non-Small Cell Lung Cancer". American Cancer Society. June 23, 2017. Retrieved March 11, 2018.
11. editor, Grippi, Michael A., *Fishman's pulmonary diseases and disorders*. ISBN 9780071807289. OCLC 898053564.