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H. 知的財産権の出願・登録状況(予定を含む)

1. 特許取得

なし

2. 実用新案登録

なし

3. その他

なし

Table 1 *IL-10* genotyping in stomach cancer and control groups

Sites Genotypes	Case n(%)	Control n(%)	OR	95%CI
<i>IL-10A TT</i>	130(86.7)	275(91.7)	Ref	
<i>TC</i>	18(12.0)	24(8.0)	1.59	0.832-3.03
<i>CC</i>	2(1.3)	1(0.3)	4.23	0.380-47.1
Fr. of <i>T</i> allele	0.927	0.957		P=0.029
<i>IL-10B AA</i>	54(36.0)	137(45.7)	Ref	
<i>AG</i>	70(46.7)	135(45.0)	1.32	0.858-2.02
<i>GG</i>	26(17.3)	28(9.3)	2.36	1.27-4.38
Fr. of <i>A</i> allele	0.593	0.682		P=0.004
<i>IL-10C TT</i>	54(36.0)	136(45.3)	Ref	
<i>TG</i>	70(46.7)	137(45.7)	1.29	0.840-1.97
<i>GG</i>	26(17.3)	27(9.0)	2.43	1.23-4.53
Fr. of <i>T</i> allele	0.593	0.682		P=0.004
<i>IL-10D TT</i>	54(36.0)	138(46.0)	Ref	
<i>TC</i>	70(46.7)	134(44.7)	1.34	0.871-2.05
<i>CC</i>	26(17.3)	28(9.3)	2.37	1.28-4.41
Fr. of <i>A</i> allele	0.593	0.683		P=0.004
<i>IL-10E AA</i>	54(36.0)	137(45.7)	Ref	
<i>AG</i>	70(46.7)	135(45.0)	1.32	0.858-2.02
<i>GG</i>	26(17.3)	28(9.3)	2.36	1.27-4.38
Fr. of <i>T</i> allele	0.593	0.682		P=0.004

Fig. 1 Plasma *IL-10* levels by *IL-10* haplotypes in controls

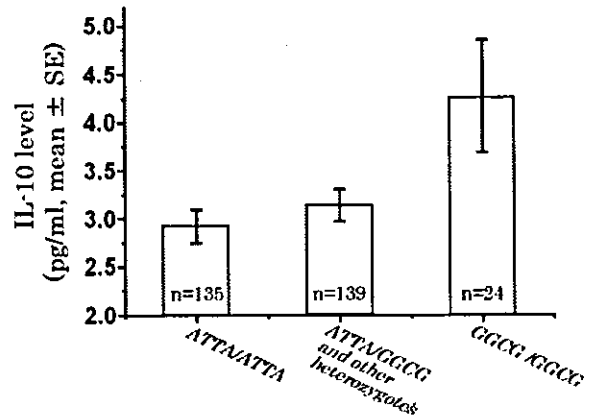


Table 2 Haplotype allele frequency estimated for stomach cancer and control groups

Haplotype alleles	Haplotype allele frequency		
	Control (600 chrs)	Cancer (300 chrs)	P values (χ^2 values)
<i>IL10-ATTA</i>	0.677 (homozygote, 135 persons)	0.593 (54)	0.012 (6.09)
<i>IL10-GGCC</i>	0.313 (26)	0.407 (26)	0.002 (7.72)

Table 3 Risk of stomach cancer incidence for *IL-10* haplotypes

Haplotypes	Control n(%)	Case n(%)	OR	95%CI
<i>IL10-ATTA/ATTA</i>	135 (45%)	54 (36%)	Ref	—
<i>IL10-ATTA/GGCC and other heterozygotes</i>	139 (46.3)	70 (46.7)	1.26	0.822-1.93 (P=0.290)
<i>IL10- GGCG/GGCC</i>	26 (8.7)	26 (17.3)	2.50	1.33-4.69 (P=0.004)

大腸がんにおけるBORIS/CTCF mRNA発現意義と直接核酸増幅法によるリンパ節微小がん転移検出の有用性についての検討

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RT-PCRによる検討では、BORIS/CTCF mRNAは、進行大腸がん症例のがん組織および非がん部組織に高頻度で認められた。In-situ hybridizationによる検討にて、BORIS mRNAは腺腫、早期がんでは認められず、進行がんのがん細胞、線維芽細胞に発現していた。また、非がん部組織では、少数のリンパ球にも発現が認められた。BORISは大腸がんの進展に関与していると考えられた。また、直接核酸増幅法によるリンパ節微小がん転移検出は、HE標本による病理学的がん転移検出より検出率が高い上に短時間で完了することから、臨床的に有用と考えられた。

A. 研究目的

近年増加している大腸がんの発育、進展、転移のメカニズムを明らかにし、新たな治療方法開発へと展開するために、1) BORIS/CTCF mRNA発現と臨床病理学的諸因子との関連性およびBORIS mRNA発現細胞の検索、2) 直接核酸増幅法によるリンパ節微小がん転移検出法の有用性、について検討を行った。

B. 研究方法

1) BORIS/CTCF mRNA ; 切除直後に凍結保存された大腸がん74例のがん部、非がん部組織からTotal RNAを精製し、BORIS/CTCF特異的primerを用いたRT-PCRを行った。その結果と各症例の臨床病理学的諸因子との関連性を検討した。また、上記症例の中から早期がん2例、進行がん3例を抽出し、さらに切除後ホルマリン固定パラフィン包埋されていた腺腫10例、早期がん7例を加えた総計22例の代表的標本に対してBORIS probeを用いたin-situ

hybridization (ISH)を行い、BORIS mRNA発現細胞の同定を行った。

2) 直接核酸増幅法(One step nucleic acid amplification: OSNA)によるリンパ節微小がん検出 ; 7人のがん患者から提出された46個のリンパ節を対象とした。2人は胃がん(pT1)、口腔がん(pTx)であり、術中迅速診断用に提出されたリンパ節各1個を用いた。他の5人は大腸がん(pT3)患者であり、術中に廓清されたリンパ節計44個を用いた。胃がん、口腔がんのリンパ節2個と大腸がん患者の症例3における9個のリンパ節は2分割され、片方から通常の凍結HE標本が作製された。残りの片方からOSNA法によるCK19 mRNA検出が行われた。他の大腸がん患者の35個のリンパ節は、細分割されて凍結HE標本が作製され、鏡検された後に、それらの全てを用いてOSNA法によるCK19 mRNA検出が行われた。

(倫理面への配慮)

全症例で術前に、研究に対する同意書を書面で得た。

C. 研究結果

1) BORIS/CTCF mRNA発現 ; RT-PCRによる検討では、大腸がん74症例中、BORIS mRNAは大腸がん(T)-55例(74.3%)、非がん部組織(N)-52例(70.3%)で認められ、その発現がT>N-30例(40.5%)、T=N-22例(29.8%)、T<N-19例(25.7%)であった。一方、CTCF mRNAは、T-73例(98.6%)、N-73例(98.6%)で認められ、T>N-12例(16.4%)、T=N-53例(72.6%)、T<N-8例(11.0%)であった。BORIS mRNA発現と患者の性、年齢、がん発生部位との関連は認められなかったが、BORIS mRNA発現腫瘍の大きさは平均46.5mmであり、同非発現腫瘍の大きさ平均60.2mmに比べて有意(p=0.013)に小さかった。

RT-PCRによるBORIS mRNA発現検索が行われた早期がんは2例(pT1, pT1)であり、いずれもTにおけるBORIS mRNA発現は軽微であった。同2例とTでBORIS mRNA発現が強度であった進行がん2例(pT2, pT4)、陰性進行がん1例(pT3)に腺腫10例、早期がん7例(pTis-5例、pT1-3例)を加えた22症例を対象としたISHでは、BORIS mRNAは、RT-PCRにて発現陽性の進行がん組織において一部のがん細胞やがん周囲繊維芽細胞、リンパ球に発現していた(図 1)。また、非がん部組織においても一部のリンパ球に発現が認められた。他方、早期がんと腺腫においては、腫瘍細胞や線維芽細胞はすべて陰性であり、一部の症例において少数のリンパ球に軽度の発現が認められた。

2) OSNA法によるリンパ節微小がん検出 ; 凍結HE標本による病理学的検索では、46個のリンパ節中3個(6.5%)でがん転移が認められた。一方、OSNA法による検索では、CK19 mRNAは6個(13.0%)で検出され、そのコピー数は0.026~2250であった(図 2)。

リンパ節を2分割しHE標本とOSNA法検

索に分けた9個のリンパ節では、HE標本上でがん転移が認められた2個中1個でCK19 mRNAが検出されなかった。また、細分割された同じ材料からHE標本とOSNA検索がなされた35個のリンパ節では、HE標本上でがん転移が1個に認められた。同リンパ節を含む3症例5個のリンパ節でCK19 mRNAが検出され、その結果、3症例はn1+→n2+, n0→n1+, n0→n3+とリンパ節転移群が上昇した。HE標本とOSNA法のいずれでもがん転移が認められたリンパ節2個のCK19 mRNAコピー数は1070、2250であったが、HE標本にてがん転移が認められなかった4個のリンパ節のCK19 mRNAコピー数は0.026~450であった。また、細分割して凍結HE標本を作製した後、同じ材料を用いたOSNA法による検索は、1リンパ節当たり約40分で完了した。

D. 考察

BORISは、脱メチル化作用を有してCTCFと共にImprint部位の調節因子と考えられている。CTCFは広く発現していることが知られているが、BORISは睾丸のみに発現すると報告されている。しかし、それぞれのmRNAの発現を詳細に検討した報告は未だ無い。今回の研究において、CTCF mRNAは大腸がん、非がん部組織のいずれにも高頻度に発現しており、従来の報告に一致したが、BORIS mRNAも高頻度に認められたことは新たな発見である。また、その発現が、患者年齢、性やがん発生部位と関連性がなく、腫瘍径と関連したことから、がんの深部浸潤性への関与が疑われた。

また、ISHにおいてBORIS mRNA発現は睾丸精上皮の一部に認められたことは、従来の報告に一致したが、進行がんのがん細胞とその周囲線維芽細胞やリンパ球に発現が

認められたことは他に報告がない新たな知見である。早期がんや腺腫の腫瘍細胞とその周囲線維芽細胞に発現が認められないことを併せ考えると、BORIS発現ががん細胞と間質の相互依存に関連し、がんの進展に強く関与している可能性が考えられた。他方、非がん部組織では、一部のリンパ球に発現が認められた。このことの意義については、今後の検討が必要であるが、BORIS mRNAは何らかの刺激によって随時発現する可能性を示唆している。

2) OSNA法によるリンパ節微小がん検出；Stage IIの大腸がん患者において、微小がん転移は予後不良因子と報告されているが、非定量的RT-PCR法による検出頻度は大腸がん再発率に比較して高いことが知られている。一方、定量的RT-PCRは微量なmRNAを検出しないことから、がん転移検出の信頼性は高いとされているものの、検出を短時間で終えることは困難であり、術中迅速診断に対応することはできない。OSNA法によるCK19 mRNA検出値は、通常の定量的RT-PCRとほぼ同様であるが、その検出下限は、細胞のCK19 mRNAコピー数が300で細胞径が10 μ mの場合、一片0.1mmの細胞塊であることを報告している。ただし、リンパ節を2分割する従来の方法では、HE標本用材料とOSNA法用材料にがん細胞の含まれる量が異なる場合があり、両者は同一材料で検討される必要がある。また、CK19 mRNA自体に予後因子としての意義を認めた報告が最近なされている。OSNA法による定量的CK19 mRNA検出の臨床的意義は今後の検索を待たなければならないが、術中迅速に対応可能な手技であることとごく微量ながん細胞は検出しない定量的測定法であることから、臨床的に有用ながん転移検出法と考えられる。

E. 結論

BORISは、大腸がんの進展において、がん細胞—間質相互依存とがんの進展に関連する重要な因子であり、何らかの刺激により随時発現する可能性が示唆された。また、OSNA法によるCK19 mRNA検出は、術中迅速に対応できる手技であり、術中診断に用いられることによって大腸がんの手術治療成績向上に寄与する可能性が考えられた。

F. 健康危険情報

なし

G. 研究発表

1. 論文発表

なし

2. 学会発表

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H. 知的財産権の出願・登録状況（予定を含む）

1. 特許取得

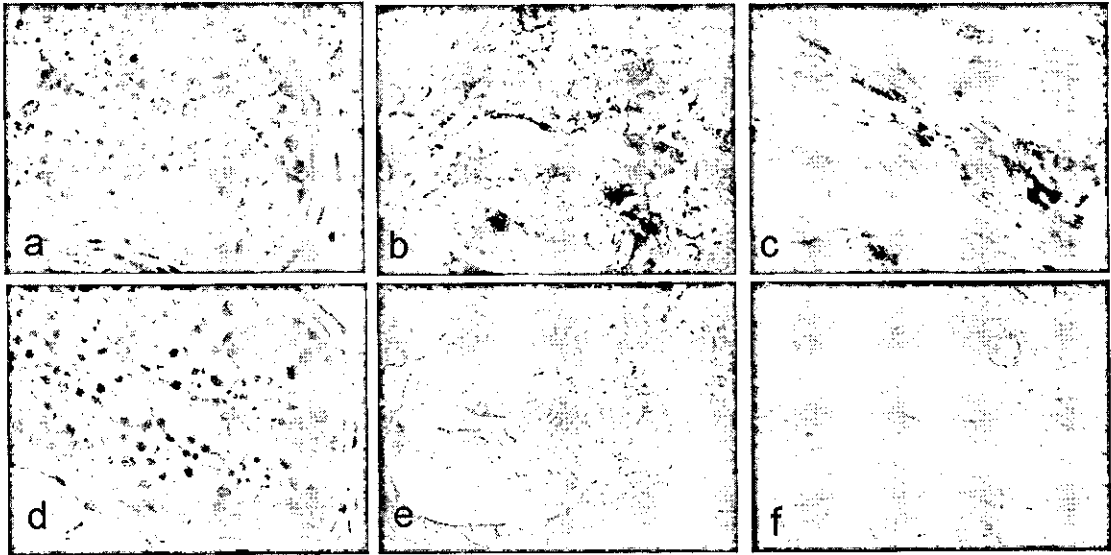
なし

2. 実用新案登録

なし

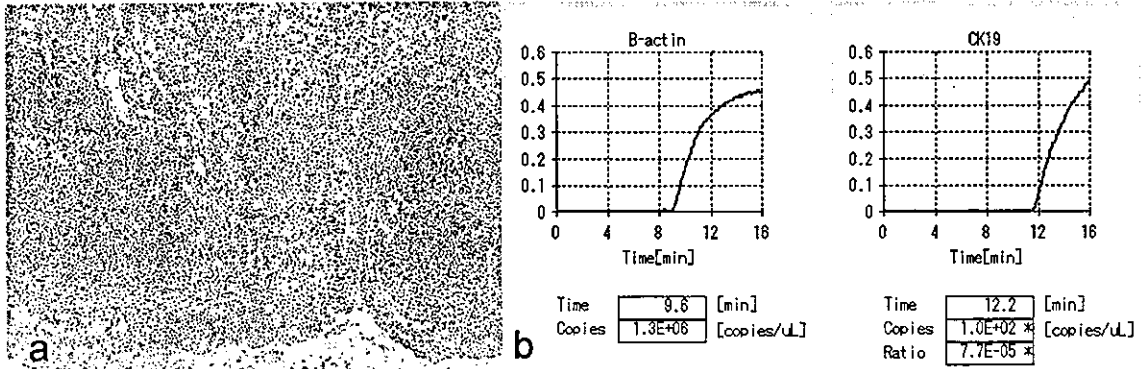
3. その他

なし



a,b,c: anti-sense probe and d,e,f: sense probe for BORIS mRNA
 a,d: testis b,e; adenocarcinoma cells c,f; fibroblasts

Figure 1



No carcinoma cells on HE specimen (a) and detectable CK19 mRNA by OSNA (b) in the same lymph node

Figure 2

〈研究成果の刊行に関する一覧表〉

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Encyclopedia of Molecular Cell Biology and Molecular Medicine

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Second Edition

Volume 6

**Growth Factors and Oncogenes in Gastrointestinal Cancers to
Informatics (Computational Biology)**



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Growth Factors and Oncogenes in Gastrointestinal Cancers

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1	Introduction	3
2	Genetic and Epigenetic Alterations and Abnormal Growth Factor/Cytokine Network in Esophageal Cancer	4
2.1	Genetic and Epigenetic Alterations in Esophageal SCC	4
2.2	Abnormal Growth Factor/Cytokine Network in Esophageal SCC	6
3	Genetic and Epigenetic Alterations and Abnormal Growth Factor/Cytokine Network in Gastric Cancer	8
3.1	Genetic and Epigenetic Alterations in Gastric Cancer	8
3.2	Factors Associated with Increased Incidence of Gastric Cancer	13
3.3	Abnormal Growth Factor/Cytokine Network in Gastric Cancer	16
4	Genetic and Epigenetic Alterations and Abnormal Growth Factor/Cytokine Network in Colorectal Cancer	18
4.1	Genetic and Epigenetic Alterations in Colorectal Cancer	19
4.2	Factors Associated with Increased Incidence of Colorectal Cancer	21
4.3	Abnormal Growth Factor/Cytokine Network in Colorectal Cancer	22
5	Conclusion	23
	Bibliography	24
	Books and Reviews	24
	Primary Literature	25

Keywords

Cell Adhesion Molecules

Surface ligands, usually glycoproteins, that mediate cell to cell adhesion. Their functions include the assembly and interconnection of various vertebrate systems, as well as maintenance of tissue integration, wound healing, morphogenic movements, cellular migration, and metastasis.

Cell Cycle Regulators

Proteins that regulate the cell division cycle. This family of proteins involves a wide variety of classes, including cyclin-dependent kinases, mitogen-activated kinases, cyclins, and phosphoprotein phosphatases as well as their putative substrates, such as chromatin-associated proteins, cytoskeletal proteins, and transcription factors.

Cytokines

Polypeptides secreted by inflammatory leukocytes, macrophages and lymphocytes in response to microbes and other antigens that mediate and regulate immune and inflammatory reactions. They generally act locally in a paracrine or an autocrine manner rather than in an endocrine manner.

Growth Factors

Signal molecules that act to control cell growth and differentiation in the receptor-dependent fashion. The alterations of these proteins lead to transformation and the accompanying loss in growth control. Some of the growth factors and their receptors are involved in the products of oncogenes.

Oncogenes

Genes that can convert cells to cancerous growth by attacking crucial cellular machinery. They encode for growth factors, growth-factor receptors, protein kinases, signal transducers, nuclear phosphoproteins, and transcription factors. These genes are constitutively expressed after structural and /or regulatory changes, resulting in uncontrolled cell proliferation. They can be classified into viral oncogenes (v-oncogenes) and cellular oncogenes (proto-oncogenes).

Telomerase

Essential ribonucleoprotein reverse transcriptase that adds telomeric DNA to the ends of eukaryotic chromosomes. Telomerase is expressed in the testis and ovary, but repressed in normal human somatic tissues. Telomerase activity is seen in more than 90% of human cancers.

Tumor-suppressor Genes

Genes inhibit expression of the tumorigenic phenotype. They are normally involved in holding cellular growth in check. When tumor-suppressor genes are inactivated or lost, a barrier to normal proliferation is removed, leading to unregulated growth.

A large number of molecular events are involved in the development and progression of gastrointestinal carcinomas. Among them, common and distinct events of genetic and epigenetic alterations in oncogenes, tumor-suppressor genes, cell adhesion molecules, DNA repair genes, and genetic instability as well as telomerase activation are observed in esophageal, gastric, and colorectal cancers. In gastric cancer, the pattern of genetic and epigenetic alterations also differs depending on the two histological types, intestinal type or well-differentiated type and diffuse type or poorly differentiated type, indicating that there are two distinct major genetic pathways for gastric carcinogenesis.

In addition to these events, gastrointestinal cancer cells express a broad spectrum of the growth factor/cytokine receptor systems that organize complex cancer-stromal interaction, which confer cell growth, apoptosis, morphogenesis, angiogenesis, progression, and metastasis. However, these abnormal growth factor/cytokine networks also are different among esophageal, gastric, and colorectal cancers, respectively. Importantly, NF- κ B activation induced by inflammation may act as a key player for induction of growth factor/cytokine network in gastrointestinal cancers.

1

Introduction

Multiple genetic and epigenetic alterations in oncogenes, tumor-suppressor genes, cell cycle regulations, cell adhesion molecules, DNA repair genes and genetic instability as well as telomerase activation are responsible for the multistep process of human gastrointestinal carcinogenesis. However, a scenario or particular combination of these alterations differs in esophageal, gastric, and colorectal cancers. Namely, common and distinct molecular events are observed in esophageal, gastric, and colorectal cancers, respectively. Moreover, two types of gastric cancer, well-differentiated or intestinal type, and poorly differentiated or diffuse-type carcinomas also exhibit a distinct pattern of genetic pathways.

Besides these genetic and epigenetic events, gastrointestinal cancer cells express a broad spectrum of growth

factors, cytokine or both, including epidermal growth factor (EGF) family, transforming growth factor (TGF)- β , heparin binding (HB)-EGF, PDGF, IGF, basic fibroblast growth factor (FGF), interleukin (IL)-1 α , IL-6, IL-8 and osteopontin (OPN). These growth factors and cytokines act as autocrine, paracrine, and juxtacrine modulators of the growth of cancer cells, and then organize complex interplay between cancer cells and stromal cells, which plays an important role in cell growth, apoptosis, morphogenesis, angiogenesis, progression and metastasis. Interestingly, the expression of these growth factors, cytokines or both by cancer cells is also different among esophageal, gastric, and colorectal cancers.

This article will provide an overview of the molecular machinery that underlies gastrointestinal carcinogenesis and focuses on abnormal growth factor/cytokine network in gastrointestinal cancers.

2

Genetic and Epigenetic Alterations and Abnormal Growth Factor/Cytokine Network in Esophageal Cancer

Esophageal cancer is the third most frequent gastrointestinal cancer in the world. The most recent estimates are that esophageal cancer is the sixth most common cancer in men (212 600 new cases, 4.9% of all cancers) and the ninth most common in women (103 200 new cases, 2.7% of all cancers). The two main histological types of esophageal cancer are squamous cell carcinoma (SCC) and adenocarcinoma, but SCC is the more prevalent type worldwide. The development of esophageal SCC exhibits a multistep, progressive process. An early indicator of this process is an increased proliferation of esophageal epithelial cells including basal cell hyperplasia, dysplasia, and carcinoma *in situ*. This multistep process requires the accumulation of multiple genetic and epigenetic alterations and overexpression of growth factors/cytokine receptor systems, leading to the evolution of clonal cell populations that possess growth advantages over other cells as demonstrated in the progression model of head and neck cancer. This paragraph thus will describe recent advances in molecular dissection of multistep tumorigenesis of esophageal SCC and abnormal growth factor/cytokine network that contributes to the development and progression of esophageal SCC.

2.1

Genetic and Epigenetic Alterations in Esophageal SCC

Numerous genetic and epigenetic alterations are implicated in the development and progression of esophageal SCC

Tab. 1 Genetic and epigenetic alterations found in esophageal SCC.

<i>Genetic and epigenetic alterations</i>	<i>Incidence [%]</i>
<i>Tumor suppressors</i>	
P53 LOH, mutation	40–60
APC LOH	60–70
DCC LOH	20–40
Rb LOH	40–50
BRCA1 LOH	60
3p LOH	40–100
5p LOH	62
9p LOH	45–76
9q LOH	60
13q LOH	57
14q LOH	65
17p LOH	43–65
17q LOH	62
RAR β loss	40–50
<i>Cell cycle regulators</i>	
p16 loss, mutation	45–76
Cyclin D ₁ amplification	40–50
<i>Oncogenes</i>	
EGFR amplification	10–15
Telomerase activity	86
TERT expression	96

(Table 1). This cancer is frequently associated with loss of heterozygosity (LOH) at multiple chromosomal loci including 3p, 5q, 9p, 9q, 13q, 17p, 17q, and 18q. No significant differences have been found in the prevalence of LOH at various loci in SCC and adenocarcinoma of the esophagus.

Among these alterations, LOH and mutation of the *p53* gene at chromosome 17p13 occur at an early stage of esophageal carcinogenesis, such as dysplasia and carcinoma *in situ*. About 50% of esophageal SCC harbor mutations of the *Tp53* gene, most of which are missense mutations leading to amino acid changes within exons 5–8, which encode the entire DNA binding domain of the *p53* molecule and the flanking splice sites. Considering the

base substitution spectrum, G:C to T:A transversion is common in esophageal carcinoma, similar to that in carcinomas of the lung and liver. This situation is different from the finding that colorectal carcinomas frequently contain G:C to A:T transitions at CpG dinucleotides. This evidence suggests that different environmental and intrinsic factors may affect the tumorigenesis of esophageal and colorectal carcinomas. It is of interest that LOH of the *APC*, *DCC*, and *Rb* genes shows high frequency but these genes are very rarely or never mutated in esophageal SCC.

The retinoic acid receptor (*RAR*) β gene is a putative tumor-suppressor gene on chromosome 3p24, where a high frequency of LOH is found in many human cancers, including esophageal cancer. The human *RAR* β has three isoforms ($\beta 1$, $\beta 2$, $\beta 4$). Overexpression of *RAR* $\beta 2$ induces inhibition of tumor cell growth and apoptosis in human cancer cell lines including esophageal cancer cells. Moreover, induction of *RAR* $\beta 2$ suppresses cyclooxygenase-2 (*COX2*) expression in esophageal cancer cells. More importantly, DNA methylation of *RAR* $\beta 2$ promoter CpG sites has been reported to cause the loss of *RAR* $\beta 2$ expression in many human cancers including lung, breast, prostate, stomach, head and neck, and esophageal cancers. *RAR* β is expressed in 90% of normal esophageal mucosa, while it is detected in only 60% of dysplastic lesions and in 50% of SCC. These findings indicate that loss of *RAR* β , or more specifically, the isoform $\beta 2$, is an early event associated with esophageal carcinogenesis and the status of squamous differentiation.

p16, an inhibitor of cyclin D1/cyclin-dependent kinase, is located on chromosome 9p21. It is inactivated by 9p21LOH

with *de novo* p16 promoter hypermethylation in the majority of esophageal SCC. Recent molecular analysis of precancerous laryngeal lesions suggests that loss of p16 protein is an early step toward malignant transformation in head and neck tissues. This protein forms binary complexes with CDK4 and CDK6, inhibiting their ability to phosphorylate the Rb protein. Loss of the p16 protein may bring about increased Rb phosphorylation and allow cells to enter into S-phase. In fact, we have confirmed that homozygous deletion of the *p16* gene is closely correlated with the increased expression of cyclin D1, CDK4 and phosphorylated Rb protein in esophageal SCC cell lines.

In 1989, we discovered the coamplification of *hst-1* and *int-2*, both of which are located on chromosome 11q13, in about 50% of primary tumors and in 100% of metastases of esophageal SCC. Gene amplification, however, was not accompanied by overexpression of the two genes. Subsequently, Jiang et al. found that the cyclin D1, which is located on the same locus as *hst-1* and *int-2* genes, was amplified in 32% of SCC, associated with overexpression. The amplification of the cyclin D1 is closely correlated with tumor staging, depth of tumor invasion, and metastasis. In the esophagus, 71% of SCC and 64% of adenocarcinoma are positive for increased cyclin D1 nuclear staining, indicating that overexpression of cyclin D1 is common in both types of cancer. Cyclin D1 binds to Rb protein and stimulates its phosphorylation. Hyperphosphorylation of Rb in response to overexpressed cyclin D1 may lead to uncontrolled cell cycling and increased cell proliferation.

As for oncogene activation, amplification of the EGF receptor (*EGFR*) gene occurs in 10–15% of advanced cases of