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Research Article

Investigation of the Prevalence and Number of Aberrant Crypt Foci Associated with Human Colorectal Neoplasm

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Abstract

Background: Aberrant crypt foci (ACF) are considered to be useful as surrogate biomarker for colorectal cancer (CRC), but the biological significance of ACF remains controversial. We attempted to investigate the relationship between the presence of ACF and human colorectal carcinogenesis using a relatively large sample size.

Methods: We carried out high-magnification chromoscopic colonoscopy to identify ACFs in 861 subjects undergoing a diagnostic endoscopy at the Yokohama City University Hospital. The present study compared the prevalence and number of ACFs in three subject groups (normal subjects, adenoma cases, and CRC cases). The correlations between the demographic and behavioral characteristics of the subjects and the prevalence of ACFs were also assessed.

Results: The prevalence of ACF was 64%, 88%, and 95%, and the mean number of ACF was 3.6, 6.2, and 10.1, in normal subjects, adenoma cases, and CRC cases, respectively. When differences in the prevalence and number of ACFs among age- and sex-stratified subject groups were examined, significant stepwise increments from normal subjects to adenoma cases to CRC cases were apparent ($P < 0.001$). Moreover, an age- and sex-adjusted multiple logistic regression analysis revealed that smoking and alcohol habits had a synergistic effect, increasing the prevalence of ACFs as well as the risk of CRC ($P < 0.001$).

Conclusions: These results suggested that ACF may serve as a reliable surrogate biomarker for human colorectal carcinogenesis.

Impact: The use of ACF as an endpoint may enable the size, duration, and cost of CRC chemoprevention studies to be reduced. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev; 20(9); 1918–24. ©2011 AACR.*

Introduction

Despite recent advances in therapeutic modalities, colorectal cancer (CRC) remains one of the most common causes of cancer-related death in developed countries (1). Currently, chemoprevention for CRC has attracted much attention. The purpose of chemoprevention is to reduce the future mortality of CRC using oral agents that can prevent the occurrence of cancer. Although the occurrence of CRC is the most reliable endpoint, such an endpoint is unsuitable for chemoprevention trials because the occurrence of CRC in the general population is relatively infrequent (1) and such trials would require long-term observation periods. Therefore, to evaluate the efficacy of chemopreventive agents in CRC chemoprevention trials, a more common surrogate biomarker that is robustly associated with CRC is required.

Colorectal carcinogenesis is based on the adenoma–carcinoma sequence, wherein adenomas, spurred by acquired genetic mutations, evolve into CRC. Adenomas have been established as premalignant lesions and are characterized by the presence of genetic and histologic changes. Endoscopic screening and the removal of adenomas can reduce the incidence of CRC by as much as 90% (2, 3). Despite retrospective and prospective studies supporting the use of adenomas as a surrogate biomarker of CRC in chemoprevention trials (4), the use of adenomas as a surrogate endpoint biomarker for CRC has some limitations. The most obvious limitation is that using adenoma formation as an efficacy endpoint requires hundreds of subjects and a very long observation period. Furthermore, to assess the effects of chemopreventive agents, the regression or loss of adenomas must be evaluated (5); therefore, a total colonoscopy is necessary. Unfortunately, these limitations result in poor compliance and a high frequency of dropouts over time, preventing a reasonable rate of

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progress for clinical research on CRC prevention. Moreover, large adenomas possibly contain cancer cells; therefore, the assessment of chemopreventive efficacy in patients with large adenomas would involve ethical problems. To overcome these problems, a more useful surrogate biomarker that is reliably correlated with the clinical response, that can be modulated by chemopreventive agents or behavioral characteristics (such as diet changes and smoking cessation) within a short period of time, and that is relatively simple to measure is needed.

Aberrant crypt foci (ACF) were discovered as the earliest microscopic lesions to appear in the colonic mucosa of mice treated with azoxymethane (6). Many studies have shown a dose–response relationship between carcinogens, such as azoxymethane and dimethylhydrazine, and the number of ACF induced (7–11). Moreover, in recent studies, numerous chemopreventive agents have been shown to reduce the number of ACFs in animal models of chemical colonic carcinogenesis. Importantly, many agents that block ACF growth were also shown to prevent tumor development in these carcinogen-treated rodent models (11). Thus, in rodent models, ACFs have been established as a precursor of CRC. Shortly after such descriptions in rodent models were made, ACFs were discovered in pathologic specimens of human colonic mucosa (12–14). ACFs were subsequently identified in the colonic mucosa *in vivo* using high-magnification chromoscopic colonoscopy (HMCC) with methylene blue staining (15). Although several previous epidemiologic studies have revealed significant associations between the prevalence and/or number of ACFs and the synchronous presence of advanced neoplasms, including both adenoma and CRC (15–22), most of the sample sizes in these studies were relatively small. Consequently, the findings were somewhat conflicting. In addition, these studies had limited data about other personal characteristics, such as smoking habit, alcohol habit, and obesity—all of which are related to an increased risk of CRC. If ACFs are indeed a surrogate biomarker for CRC, the epidemiology of ACFs would likely be similar to that of CRC. Therefore, we attempted to investigate the relationship between the presence of ACFs and colorectal carcinogenesis using a larger sample size. Here, we compared the prevalence and number of ACFs in 3 subject groups (normal subjects, adenoma cases, and CRC cases). Moreover, we evaluated the association between the presence of ACFs and the adenoma history. The correlations between the demographic and behavioral characteristics in relation to colorectal carcinogenesis and the prevalence and number of ACFs were also assessed. Our results may help to further evaluations of the potential utility of ACF as a surrogate biomarker for CRC.

Materials and Methods

Subjects

The study protocol was approved by the Yokohama City University Hospital Ethics Committee. Between 2004 and 2009, we enrolled 861 subjects who underwent diagnostic endoscopy at the Yokohama City University Hospital, Japan: of the 861 subjects, 383 had no apparent lesions of the colorectum on colonoscopy (normal subjects), 372 had colorectal adenoma(s), and 106 had CRC. Subjects were excluded if they had undergone previous surgical or endoscopic excision of colonic adenomas and/or cancer or if they had familial adenomatous polyposis, inflammatory bowel disease, or radiation colitis. Written informed consent was obtained from all the subjects prior to their participation in the study. Data on the demographic and behavioral characteristics of the subjects pertaining to the risk of the development of CRC, including smoking habit, alcohol habit, and body mass index (BMI), were obtained from the subjects prior to the performance of the colonoscopy.

HMCC

A Fujinon EC-490ZW5/M colonoscope was used for the magnifying colonoscopy (Fujinon Toshiba ES Systems Co., Ltd.). All the subjects were subjected to bowel preparation using a polyethylene glycol–based solution and underwent a total colonoscopy before rectal ACF imaging. Any detected adenomas were biopsied and the histopathologic appearance was analyzed. Advanced adenoma was defined as an adenoma lesion measuring 1 cm or greater in diameter and/or exhibiting a villous histology and/or high-grade dysplasia. Subsequently, 0.25% methylene blue was applied to the mucosa using a spray catheter. On the basis of the results of a previous study, the ACFs were counted in the lower rectal region, from the middle Houston valve to the dentate line (15). To guard against double counting, the ACFs were counted in a sequential fashion during a single withdrawal of the endoscope. We evaluated the presence of ACFs and the category of the subject (normal subjects, adenoma cases, and CRC cases) simultaneously.

Criteria used for the endoscopic diagnosis

ACFs were defined as lesions in which the crypts were larger in diameter and showed a darker staining with methylene blue than normal crypts, often with oval or slit-like lumens and a thicker epithelial lining (ref. 15; Fig. 1).

Statistical analysis

Data were expressed as the mean ± SD for continuous variables and as a proportion (%) for categorical variables. The prevalence of ACFs among the normal subjects, adenoma cases, and CRC cases were compared using age- and sex-adjusted logistic regression analyses. The numbers of ACFs among these 3 groups were also compared using the Kruskal–Wallis test or an age- and sex-adjusted linear regression analysis. The χ^2 test and the Mann–Whitney U test were used to investigate the association between the presence of ACFs and the adenoma status as well as the association between the presence of ACFs and the location of adenoma(s)/CRC. In addition, univariate and multivariate logistic regression

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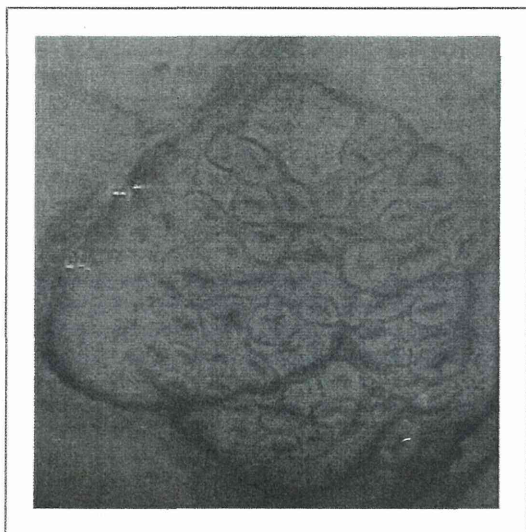

Figure 1. Typical endoscopic appearance of human ACF. This photograph was obtained using a Fujinon EC-490ZW5/M colonoscope after the rectal mucosa had been stained with 0.2% methylene blue.

analyses were used to identify variables with significant independent effects on the prevalence of ACFs among normal subjects. Univariate and multivariate linear regression analyses were also conducted to identify significant variables influencing the number of ACFs. The variables entered in the model included age, sex, smoking habit, alcohol habit, and BMI. Unless otherwise specified, a value of $P < 0.05$ was considered statistically significant. All the analyses were conducted using the SPSS statistical package (version 11.0 for Mac OS X).

Results

Characteristics of the subjects

The characteristics of the subjects according to study group (normal subjects, adenoma cases, and CRC cases) are shown in Table 1. The subjects ranged in age from 19 to 89 years (62.2 ± 12.4): normal subjects, 19 to 85 years (59.3 ± 13.8); adenoma cases, 31 to 88 years (64.2 ± 10.9); and CRC cases, 34 to 89 years (65.6 ± 9.4). A total of 4,742 ACFs were visualized endoscopically in 861 subjects: 1,382 in normal subjects, 2,288 in the adenoma cases, and 1,072 in the CRC cases. The prevalence of ACFs was 64%, 88%, and 95% for the normal subjects, adenoma cases, and CRC cases, respectively. The mean number of ACFs was 3.6 ± 5.2, 6.2 ± 7.0, and 10.1 ± 7.9 in the normal subjects, adenoma cases, and CRC cases, respectively.

Prevalence and number of ACF in the three subject groups stratified according to age and sex

The prevalence and number of ACFs in the 3 subject groups according to age and sex are shown in Table 2. The prevalence of ACF was as high as 51% to 74% even in normal subjects. The prevalence of ACFs in the CRC cases was as high as 91% to 100%, whereas that in the adenoma cases was intermediate. An age-adjusted logistic regression analysis for the 3 subject groups stratified according to sex showed that the differences of the prevalence of ACFs among the 3 subject groups (normal subjects, adenoma cases, and CRC cases) were significant ($P < 0.001$ and $P < 0.001$ for men and women, respectively). In addition, an age-adjusted linear regression analysis for the 3 subject groups stratified according to sex showed that the differences of the number of ACF among the 3 subject groups (normal subjects, adenoma cases, and CRC cases) were significant ($P < 0.001$ and $P < 0.001$ for men and women, respectively).

Differences in the presence of ACFs between subjects with nonadvanced and advanced adenomas

The relationship between the presence of ACFs and the adenoma history is shown in Table 3. The prevalence of ACFs in subjects with advanced adenoma(s) did not differ significantly from that of subjects with nonadvanced adenoma(s) (89% and 87%, respectively; $P = 0.41$). However, the number of ACFs in subjects with

Table 1. Characteristics of the subjects

	Normal subjects	Adenoma cases	CRC cases
Number of subjects	383	372	106
Age, y			
Mean ± SD	59.3 ± 13.8	64.2 ± 10.9	65.6 ± 9.4
Median	62	64.5	66
Sex (M/F)	211/172	265/107	73/33
Number of subjects with ACF	246	326	101
ACF prevalence, %	64	88	95
Total number of ACF	1,382	2,288	1,072
ACF number, mean ± SD	3.6 ± 5.2	6.2 ± 7.0	10.1 ± 7.9

NOTE: Normal subjects were defined as subjects with no apparent lesions of the colorectum on total colonoscopy.

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Table 2. Prevalence and number of ACFs among the 3 subject groups stratified according to age and sex

	Male				Female			
	<60 y	60–69 y	≥70 y	Total	<60 y	60–69 y	≥70 y	Total
ACF prevalence[a]								
Normal subjects								
Number of subjects	89	62	60	211	78	52	42	172
Prevalence, %	62	74	67	67	51	71	67	61
Adenoma cases								
Number of subjects	79	92	94	265	29	44	34	107
Prevalence, %	89	88	95	91	76	82	82	80
CRC cases								
Number of subjects	15	34	24	73	9	11	13	33
Prevalence, %	93	94	96	95	100	91	100	97
ACF number,[b] *mean ± SD*								
Normal subjects	2.6 ± 3.2	5.3 ± 7.1	4.6 ± 6.2	3.9 ± 5.6	1.8 ± 2.6	3.8 ± 5.0	5.0 ± 6.5	3.2 ± 4.7
Adenoma cases	5.0 ± 5.5	6.8 ± 7.9	8.1 ± 8.0	6.7 ± 7.4	4.7 ± 5.9	3.8 ± 4.1	6.1 ± 7.8	4.8 ± 6.0
CRC cases	8.7 ± 8.4	10.5 ± 7.4	10.0 ± 7.3	10.0 ± 7.5	10.9 ± 11.6	8.5 ± 9.3	11.8 ± 6.0	10.5 ± 8.7
P	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001[‡]	<0.001	0.19	<0.005	<0.001[c]

[a]$P < 0.001$ and $P < 0.001$ (men and women, respectively), calculated using an age-adjusted logistic regression analysis for the 3 subject groups stratified according to sex.
[b]Differences among the age-stratified subject groups (<60, 60–69, and ≥70 years) were analyzed using the Kruskal–Wallis test.
[c]An age-adjusted linear regression analysis was conducted to evaluate the differences among the 3 subject groups stratified according to sex.

advanced adenoma(s) was larger than that in subjects with nonadvanced adenoma(s) (7.8 ± 8.2 and 5.1 ± 6.0, respectively; $P < 0.005$).

Relationship between the presence of ACFs and the location of adenoma/CRC

The relationship between the presence of ACFs and the location of adenoma/CRC is shown in Table 4. Sixty-eight of the 372 adenoma cases (18%) had adenoma(s) only in the proximal colon. No significant differences were observed between the prevalence and number of ACFs and the location of the adenoma(s) ($P = 0.86$ and $P = 0.73$, respectively). Twenty-nine of the 102 CRC cases (28%) had proximal CRC. No significant differences were observed between the prevalence and number of ACFs and the location of the CRC ($P = 0.52$ and $P = 0.26$, respectively).

Correlations between the presence of ACFs and demographic and behavioral characteristics pertaining to the risk of colorectal carcinogenesis

To investigate the risk factors for the prevalence of ACF, univariate and multivariate logistic regression analyses were conducted in normal subjects (Table 5). We defined smoking habit as positive for subjects with more than 10 pack-years who were still smoking or who had quit within the past 10 years; alcohol habit was defined as positive for subjects with alcohol consumption in excess

Table 3. Differences in the presence of ACFs between subjects with nonadvanced and advanced adenoma(s)

	N	ACF prevalence,[a] %	ACF number,[b] mean ± SD
Nonadvanced adenoma	230	87	5.1 ± 6.0
Advanced adenoma	142	89	7.8 ± 8.2
P		0.41	<0.005

NOTE: Advanced adenoma was defined as an adenoma lesion measuring 1 cm or greater in size and/or exhibiting a villous histology and/or high-grade dysplasia.
[a]P values were calculated using the χ^2 test.
[b]P values were calculated using the Mann–Whitney U test.

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Table 4. Relationship between the presence of ACFs and the location of adenoma/CRC

Location	*N*	ACF prevalence,[a] %	ACF number,[b] mean ± SD
Adenoma cases			
Including distal colon	304	88	6.1 ± 6.9
Only in proximal colon	68	88	6.4 ± 7.6
P		0.87	0.73
CRC cases			
Distal colon	77	96	10.4 ± 7.6
Proximal colon	29	93	9.3 ± 8.6
P		0.52	0.26

NOTE: The distal colon was defined as the region of colonic lesion from the splenic flexure to the dentate line. The proximal colon was defined as the region of colonic lesion from the cecum to the splenic flexure.
[a]*P* values were calculated using the χ^2 test.
[b]*P* values were calculated using the Mann–Whitney *U* test.

of 45 g/d. Both of these factors are reported to associate with an increased risk of adenoma and CRC (23–28). Age- and sex-adjusted multivariate analyses revealed that smoking habit [odds ratio (OR) = 1.6; 95% CI = 0.9–3.1] and alcohol habit (OR = 2.0; 95% CI = 0.8–5.0) were not independent risk factor for the prevalence of ACFs (P = 0.12 and P = 0.15, respectively); however these 2 factors (OR = 5.4; 95% CI = 2.3–13.0) synergistically increased the prevalence of ACFs (P < 0.001). Obesity was also reported to associate with an increased risk of adenoma and CRC (28). We defined obesity as positive for subjects with a BMI of 25 or grater. Obesity (OR = 1.5; 95% CI = 0.8–2.6) was also not an independent risk factor for the prevalence of ACFs (P = 0.17). We also conducted univariate and age- and sex-adjusted multivariate linear regression analyses to evaluate the correlations between the number of ACFs and these factors. Smoking and alcohol habits also synergistically increased the number of ACFs, but this trend was only borderline significant (P = 0.06; Supplementary Table S1).

Discussion

In our study, significant stepwise increments in both the prevalence and the number of ACFs were observed from normal subjects to adenoma cases to CRC cases. In addition, the mean number of ACF was significantly higher in the subject group with advanced adenoma than in the subject group with nonadvanced adenoma. These results indicate that ACF may serve as a reliable surrogate biomarker of human colorectal carcinogenesis.

Most previous studies (15–18, 20–22) have evaluated ACF in the lower rectal region because HMCC is technically easier to conduct at this location, is suitable for use as a follow-up examination, and is well tolerated by patients. Therefore, we evaluated the ACFs in the lower rectal region, similar to previous studies. To evaluate whether the rectal ACF reflects the total colonic adenoma/CRC, we examined associations between the presence of rectal ACFs and the locations of the adenoma/CRC. In our study, no significant differences were observed between the prevalence and the number of ACFs in subjects who had only proximal colonic adenoma/CRC and subjects who had at least 1 distal colonic adenoma/CRC. This result indicates that rectal ACF examinations may be useful as a biomarker not only for distal colonic neoplasia but also for proximal colonic neoplasia.

The development of CRC is influenced by several acquired risk factors including dietary factors and lifestyle factors. If ACFs are indeed a surrogate biomarker of CRC, then their epidemiology is likely to be similar to that of CRC. If risk factors influence colorectal carcinogenesis at an early stage, then they may also be associated with the formation of ACFs. Therefore, we evaluated whether risk factors which associate with the development of CRC were independently associated with the presence of ACFs in normal subjects. In our study, smoking habit

Table 5. Age- and sex-adjusted multiple logistic regression analysis of behavioral characteristics and the prevalence of ACFs in normal subjects

Variable	Proportion, %	ACF prevalence, %	OR (95% CI)			
			Univariate	*P*	Multivariate	*P*
Smoking (−), alcohol (−)	63	58	1 (reference)	–	1 (reference)	–
Smoking (+), alcohol (−)	16	67	1.5 (0.8–2.7)	0.17	1.6 (0.9–3.1)	0.12
Smoking (−), alcohol (+)	7	73	2.0 (0.8–4.9)	0.13	2.0 (0.8–5.0)	0.15
Smoking (+), alcohol (+)	14	87	4.8 (2.1–11.1)	<0.001	5.4 (2.3–13.0)	<0.001

NOTE: Smoking habit was defined as positive if the subject had more than 10 pack-years and was still smoking or had quit within the past 10 years. Alcohol habit was defined as positive if the subject's alcohol consumption exceeded 45 g/d. The multivariate logistic regression analysis was adjusted for age and sex.

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and alcohol habit synergistically increased the prevalence of ACFs in a significant manner. Interestingly, recent studies have revealed that cigarette smoking and heavy alcohol intake also interact in an additive manner, increasing the risk of CRC, similar to results seen in the aerodigestive tract (29, 30). Tobacco contains a large number of carcinogens that may bind to DNA and form adducts, potentially causing irreversible genetic damage to the normal colonic mucosa (31). On the other hand, alcohol is metabolized to acetaldehyde, which binds to DNA and forms carcinogenic adducts (32). Therefore, these 2 factors may share a common pathway in promoting colorectal carcinogenesis at an early stage and initiating ACF formation. On the other hand, obesity was not strongly associated with the prevalence of ACFs because only a few patients were regarded as obese in our study. In contrast to our hypothesis, no significant associations were observed between the number of ACFs and these factors, although smoking and alcohol habits tended to increase the number of ACFs in a synergistic manner. A not insignificant number of subjects exhibited an extremely high density of ACFs (as high as 30), even in normal subjects; therefore, the wide variance in the number of ACFs might have extinguished the statistical significance (Supplementary Fig. S1).

Although most previous epidemiologic studies of ACFs have shown a significant correlation between the presence of ACFs and synchronous advanced neoplasia (15–22), a recent multicenter study raised serious questions about whether ACFs can be used as a surrogate biomarker for CRC (33). However, their subject groups were determined 8 years, on average, prior to the actual ACF examination. In addition, they determined the subject group on the basis of the results of flexible sigmoidoscopy; thus, proximal adenomas may have been missed. These facts suggest that their control group may have contained a not insignificant number of subjects with adenoma. Therefore, their study may not actually show an association between the presence of ACFs and the adenoma status. However, such considerations are inadequate to explain this discrepancy. Differences in participant characteristics, such as race, age and behavioral factors, may be associated with this discrepancy. Variations in the criteria used to detect ACFs and the method used to visualize ACFs may also affect this discrepancy. A large prospective and cross-sectional study would be useful for resolving this discrepancy.

Recently, several prospective studies have been conducted using the presence of ACF as a surrogate biomarker for CRC in chemoprevention trials in humans (34–36). ACFs are considered to be a heterogeneous group of lesions, some, but not all, of which may be robustly associated with the risk of CRC, as the prevalence of ACF was as high as 70% even in normal subjects. Interestingly, our results suggested that even if a very small subset or none of the ACFs may progress to CRC, ACF may still be useful as a surrogate biomarker for CRC. In humans, Shpitz and colleagues showed that the proliferating cell nuclear antigen (PCNA) labeling indices for ACFs were significantly higher than those for normal mucosa (14). In addition, we previously showed that metformin, which inhibits the mTOR pathway through the activation of AMPK, suppresses cellular proliferation and ACF formation (35). These results suggested that ACF may be a marker for epithelial proliferation. Importantly, previous studies have showed that a high proliferative activity in the colon mucosa is associated with an increased risk of CRC (37).

In conclusion, we confirmed that the prevalence and mean number of ACFs significantly increased with the stage of the adenoma–carcinoma sequence using age- and sex-adjusted analyses of a relatively large sample. We also showed that smoking and alcohol habits synergistically increased the prevalence of ACFs as well as the risk of CRC. These results suggested that ACFs may be useful as a reliable surrogate biomarker for human colorectal carcinogenesis.

Disclosure of Potential Conflicts of Interest

No potential conflicts of interest were disclosed.

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Leptin acts as a growth factor for colorectal tumours at stages subsequent to tumour initiation in murine colon carcinogenesis

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ABSTRACT

Background and aims Obesity increases the risk of colorectal cancer (CRC). Serum leptin levels are markedly elevated in obese individuals, but the involvement of leptin in CRC growth remains unclear. We explored the hypothesis that leptin signalling regulates the growth of CRC, by examining the effects of leptin deficiency on murine colon tumour growth.

Methods We used genetic (leptin-deficient and leptin receptor-deficient) models of obesity and investigated carcinogen-induced colon polyp formation and cell proliferation in the colonic epithelium. Colonic tissues and cell lines were analysed by histopathology and molecular-biology methods.

Results A significant increase in the proliferative activity of normal colonic epithelial cells was observed in the obesity model; on the other hand, significant decrease of tumour cell proliferation was observed in leptin-deficient tumours, and tumour growth was dramatically inhibited in leptin-deficient and leptin-receptor-deficient mice despite the animals exhibiting severe obesity. Notably, a marked increase of the leptin receptor (ObR) expression levels was observed in colon tumours as compared to the normal epithelium. Nuclear β-catenin staining was pronounced in all tumours, irrespective of leptin deficiency, whereas altered cellular localisation of β-catenin was not observed in the normal colonic epithelial cells. In vitro, β-catenin knockdown decreased ObR expression, and stimulation of recombinant Wnt increased ObR expression. In addition, the proliferative and survival effects of leptin were found to be mediated by the ObR/signal transducer and activator of transcription 3 (STAT3) signalling in colon tumours.

Conclusions Our findings indicate that leptin is important for CRC growth in obesity, and acts as a growth factor for CRC at stages subsequent to tumour initiation in colorectal carcinogenesis. Thus, inhibition of leptin signalling may be an effective strategy for therapy and prevention of colonic adenoma and cancer, which show activation of Wnt signalling.

Significance of this study

What is already known about this subject?

- Epidemiological studies have revealed that obesity raises the risk of colon adenoma and colorectal cancer (CRC), and the results of animal experiments suggest a link between obesity and CRC.
- Obesity is strongly associated with adipose tissue dysfunction and altered serum levels of adipokines, including leptin.
- Data concerning the effect of leptin on CRC development are still contradictory.

What are the new findings?

- The proliferative activity of the normal colonic epithelial cells was significantly increased in the obese model, but tumour cell proliferation was significantly lower in leptin-deficient tumour, and tumour growth was dramatically inhibited in the leptin-deficient and leptin receptor-deficient mice despite their severe obesity.
- Leptin receptor (ObR) expression levels were increased markedly in colon tumours as compared with the normal epithelium, and, in vitro, β-catenin knockdown decreased ObR expression and stimulation of recombinant Wnt increased ObR expression.
- The ability of leptin to regulate CRC growth was mediated by colonic leptin signalling via the ObR/signal transducer and activator of transcription 3 (STAT3) pathway.

How might it impact on clinical practice in the foreseeable future?

- Leptin acts as a growth factor for CRC at stages subsequent to tumour initiation in colon carcinogenesis.
- Our findings suggest that leptin signalling is a direct pathway that is crucial for CRC growth, which is a reasonable explanation for the tendency of CRC to be more aggressive in obese individuals known to show elevated serum leptin levels.
- Inhibition of leptin signalling may be efficacious for therapy and prevention of colonic adenoma and cancer with Wnt signalling activation.

INTRODUCTION

Obesity increases the risk of not only cardiovascular disease and type 2 diabetes mellitus,[1] but also of various types of cancers.[2 3] In particular, obesity has been shown to be associated with advanced progression of colorectal cancer (CRC).[4] For a number of cancers, including CRC, the risk of the disease is also elevated in individuals with obesity.[5]

Epidemiological studies have revealed that obesity, especially visceral adipose tissue, raises the risk of colon adenoma[6] and CRC,[7] and the results of

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animal experiments suggest a link between obesity and CRC.[7] Obesity is strongly associated with adipose tissue dysfunction and altered serum levels of adipokines, which might underlie the risk of CRC, but no definitive conclusions have been reached. Leptin, a 16-kDa product of the *ob* gene involved in energy balance and regulation of food intake,[8] is secreted predominantly in adipose tissue and is correlated with the percentage of body fat.[9] Serum leptin levels are markedly elevated in obese individuals,[10] and thus we hypothesised an association between this adipokine and increased risk of CRC.

Data concerning the effect of leptin on CRC development are contradictory and difficult to interpret.[11–20] In humans, several case–control studies have shown an elevated risk of CRC associated with high serum leptin level,[11 12] although in some studies, no elevation of the serum leptin levels were found in patients with CRC.[13 14] In experimental studies, although there has been general agreement that leptin acts as a growth factor for colon cancer cells in vitro,[15–17] conflicting results have been reported from in vivo studies that have investigated the effects of leptin on rodent colonic epithelial cell proliferation[15 18] and colon carcinogenesis.[19 20] Overall, the role of leptin in CRC induction and growth remains unclear.

Here, we explored the hypothesis that leptin signalling might regulate the growth of CRC to account for the clinical observation that obesity correlates with increased progression of CRC. We confirmed that ablation of leptin or leptin receptor (ObR) markedly inhibited the growth of colon tumours. Furthermore, we found that the ability of leptin to regulate CRC growth was mediated by colonic leptin signalling via the ObR/signal transducer and activator of transcription 3 (STAT3) pathway. This suggests that leptin signalling is a direct pathway that is crucial for CRC growth, which is a reasonable explanation for the tendency of CRC to be more aggressive in obese individuals who are known to show elevated serum leptin levels.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Animals and tumour induction

Six-week-old male C57BL/6J-*ob/ob* mice, C57BL/KsJ-*db/db* mice, and their respective control C57BL/6J and C57BL/KsJ mice (wild-type; WT) were obtained from the Jackson Laboratory (Bar Harbor, Maine, USA). The animals were fed either a normal diet (ND) or high-fat diet (HFD) until the end of the study (Supplementary figure 1). The compositions of the ND (MF; Oriental Yeast Co., Tokyo, Japan) and the HFD (High Fat Diet 32; CLEA Japan Inc., Tokyo, Japan) have been described previously.[21]

The protocols for azoxymethane (AOM)-induced aberrant crypt foci (ACF) or the tumour model were essentially as described previously.[22] Briefly, mice were given 2- or 6-weekly intraperitoneal (i.p.) injections of 10 mg/kg AOM (Sigma, St. Louis, Missouri, USA) and were killed at 6 or 21 weeks following the initiation of AOM injection (Supplementary figure 1). Macroscopic tumours were counted and measured with a caliper. To facilitate the small tumour counting, the colons were stained with 0.2% methylene blue solution and were observed using stereomicroscopy. The number of ACF was counted as described previously.[22] We repeated each experiment three times to confirm the reproducibility of our results.

Leptin treatment

Ob/ob mice were divided into two groups of eight mice each, injected with either leptin or vehicle. Leptin-treated mice received daily i.p. injections of 2 μg murine recombinant leptin protein (Peprotech, Rocky Hill, New Jersey, USA) per gram of body weight for 6 weeks. Vehicle-treated mice received a 0.9% saline endotoxin-free solution for 6 weeks, which was also used for leptin injection.

Assay for proliferation and apoptosis

The entire colon was removed, gently flushed with saline to remove any faecal contents, opened longitudinally, and fixed in 10% neutralised formalin. Paraffin sections were prepared at 3 μm thickness, and stained with H&E. We evaluated the 5-bromo-2-deoxyuridine (BrdU) (BD Biosciences, Franklin Lakes, New Jersey, USA) labelling index to determine the proliferative activity of the colonic epithelial cells as described previously.[21] The apoptotic tumour cells were stained using a transferase deoxytidyl uridine end labelling (TUNEL) staining kit according to the manufacturer's instructions (Wako Pure Chemical, Osaka, Japan).

Immunohistochemistry, immunofluorescence and immunoblotting

Paraffin-embedded sections were deparaffinised and subjected to immunohistochemical staining with primary antibodies using a Histofine kit (Nichirei, Tokyo, Japan) in accordance with the manufacturer's instructions. Nuclear counterstaining was performed with haematoxylin. In the negative controls, the primary antibody was replaced by non-specific, non-immune immunoglobulin of the same isotype at an equivalent final concentration. For immunofluorescence of the cells, the cells grown on coverslips were paraformaldehyde-fixed and permeabilised with 100% ethanol at −20°C. Fixed cells were incubated with the primary antibodies and stained with Alexa Fluoro-conjugated secondary antibodies (Molecular Probes, Eugene, Oregon, USA). Nuclei were stained by 4′-diamidine-2′-phenylindole hydrochloride (DAPI; Molecular Probes). Confocal laser scanning microscopic images were then generated (Olympus, Tokyo, Japan).

Protein extracts were separated using SDS/PAGE, and the separated proteins were transferred to a polyvinylidene difluoride (PVDF) membrane (Amersham, London, UK). The membranes were probed with primary antibodies and glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH; Trevigen, Gaithersburg, Maryland, USA). Horseradish-peroxidase-conjugated secondary antibodies and the enhanced chemiluminescence (ECL) detection kit (Amersham) were used for the detection of specific proteins.

Antibodies used were anti-p-ObR, anti-ObR (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Santa Cruz, California, USA), anti-p-STAT3, anti-STAT3, anti-cleaved caspase-3 (Cell Signaling Technology, Danvers, Massachusetts, USA), and anti-β-catenin (BD PharMingen, San Diego, California, USA).

RT-PCR analysis

Total RNA was extracted from the colonic epithelium using the RNeasy Mini Kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany). For real-time reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR), total RNA was reverse-transcribed into cDNA and amplified using real-time quantitative PCR using the ABI PRISM 7700 System (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, California, USA). Probes and primer pairs specific for ObRb and β-actin were purchased from Applied Biosystems. The concentrations of the target genes were determined using the delta-delta Ct method and the values were normalised to those of the internal control. Primer sequences are listed in the Supplementary Methods.

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Cell culture and transfection

Colon cancer cell line SW480 cells were cultured in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS), while human embryonic kidney cells HEK 293 cells were grown in DMEM. Transfection of siRNA was performed by using Lipofectamine 2000 (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, California, USA). The cells transfected with β-catenin siRNA (Invitrogen) were harvested at 48 h after transfection, and immunoblotting and RT-PCR analysis were performed. To confirm the Wnt3a requirement for ObR expression, the cells were grown under recombinant Wnt3a protein (Stem Cell Technologies, Vancouver, British Columbia, Canada) supplementation.[23] The cells stimulated with 160 ng/ml of Wnt3a were harvested at 48 h, and RT-PCR and immunofluorescence analyses were performed.

Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis for comparisons of the number of ACF, the number and size of colon polyps, the BrdU labelling index, and the blood test results were conducted using the Mann–Whitney U test. Other statistical analyses were performed using the Student t test. Values of $p<0.05$ were regarded as denoting statistical significance.

RESULTS

Leptin regulates colorectal tumour growth, but does not stimulate the formation of ACF

To investigate the impact of leptin on obesity-related colorectal carcinogenesis and to determine whether it might act as a tumour promoter, we examined the formation of chemically induced ACF, as a marker of experimental colorectal carcinogenesis,[24] and of polyps in the colon specimens. The experimental protocol based on AOM treatment is shown in Supplementary figure 1. We used both dietary (HFD) and genetic (leptin-deficient; *ob/ob*) models of obesity for comparison with lean controls. To avoid the possibility that the differences in tumourigenecity of AOM could be due to the effects of dietary alterations on AOM metabolism, we examined the ACF model by alternating the diet 1 week after the last injection of AOM (Supplementary figure 2). The body weights and visceral fat were much higher in the *ob/ob* and WT mice fed a HFD than in the WT mice fed a ND (Supplementary figure 3). As expected, HFD exposure increased the serum leptin levels in WT mice; meanwhile, the levels of insulin and cholesterol were significantly higher in *ob/ob* mice than in WT mice, and there was no significant difference in the serum adiponectin level between the WT and *ob/ob* mice (figure 1A). We found that BrdU labelling index of the normal mucosa was significantly higher in the obese than in lean WT mice (figure 1B,C). The number of ACF in the obesity model was also significantly higher than in lean controls (figure 1D,E, Supplementary figure 3). These results suggest that obesity enhanced the development of early-stage colorectal carcinogenesis irrespective of leptin signalling.

Therefore, we focused on the later stages of cancer progression and observed that leptin deficiency dramatically decreased the tumour sizes despite *ob/ob* mice developing overt obesity (figure 2A–C,E). These findings were closely correlated with the serum levels of leptin, but were not associated with the dietary conditions. It was noteworthy that the absence of leptin had a stronger effect on colonic tumour growth than either HFD exposure or hyperinsulinaemia, which have also been reported to increase the risk of CRC.[25 26] Tumour multiplicity was also reduced more in *ob/ob* than in WT mice, but was comparable under HDF conditions (figure 2A,D). Supplementary table 1 summarises the histological findings of the tumours in WT and *ob/ob* mice.

Next, we analysed cell proliferation and apoptosis in WT and leptin-deficient tumours to explain the differences in tumour growth. We found that BrdU incorporation was significantly lower in tumours of *ob/ob* mice than WT mice (figure 2F,G), which was consistent with decreased tumour growth in the absence of leptin. Interestingly, TUNEL and cleaved caspase-3 revealed a reciprocal increase in the apoptotic response of the colon tumours between WT and *ob/ob* mice (Supplementary figure 4), which suggests that tumour cell survival also relies on leptin signalling. Taken together, these data indicate that leptin enhances tumour proliferation, but it might not exert the same effects on normal mucosa and premalignant lesions.

Leptin receptors are required for colorectal tumour growth

To clarify why the effects of leptin are limited to tumour cells, we investigated the roles of ObR in colon. We found strong ObR expression in tumour cells, but little expression in normal epithelial cells of the colonic mucosa (figure 3A,B). Expression of the long form of ObR (ObRb) mRNA was found to be significantly higher in colon tumours than in normal mucosa (figure 3C). Therefore, differences in cell proliferation dependence on leptin between tumours and normal mucosa might be explained by altered expression of ObRb.

Furthermore, to elucidate the contribution of ObRb to colonic tumourigenesis, we used mice with ObRb deletion (*db/db* mice).[27] As expected, *db/db* mice, which exhibited the same obese phenotype as the *ob/ob* mice (Supplementary figure 5), were devoid of ObRb mRNA in colonic mucosa, whereas WT mice expressed ObRb (figure 3D). In the tumour experimental protocol (Supplementary figure 1B), we observed a significant increase in the frequency and size of tumours in WT mice as compared to *db/db* mice (figure 3E–G); meanwhile, there was no significant difference in tumour size and multiplicity between the *db/db* mice fed ND and those fed a HFD (Supplementary figure 6). Supplementary table 2 summarises histological findings of tumours in WT and *db/db* mice. On the other hand, the number of ACF in *db/db* mice was significantly higher than in WT mice (Supplementary figure 7). These results suggest that epithelial ObRb is required for transduction of tumour-promoting signals from leptin.

Wnt signalling stimulates expression of ObRb

We explored the mechanism of ObRb expression in tumours. Expression of ObRb was strong in the tumour epithelium where Wnt signalling was activated. Frequent gene mutations of β-catenin and altered cellular localisation of the protein are features of AOM-induced colon tumours in mice.[28 29] Using immunohistochemical analysis, we examined the expression of β-catenin in colon tumours induced by AOM in comparison with that in the adjacent normal mucosa. Cytoplasmic and nuclear β-catenin staining was pronounced in all tumour tissues of WT and *ob/ob* mice, whereas antibody binding was limited to the membranes at the intercellular borders in normal epithelial cells (Supplementary figure 8). Importantly, the stabilised β-catenin in the nuclei was observed in tumour, irrespective of leptin deficiency. To elucidate the roles of Wnt signalling activation in the regulation of leptin/ObRb signalling, we examined the effects of β-catenin knockdown on leptin/ObRb pathway in the human SW480 colon cancer cell line. Transfection of siRNA for the β-catenin gene markedly reduced the protein expression level (figure 4A). Notably, Wnt signalling inhibition by β-catenin