adenocarcinomas [52] and also in 50% of BOP-induced pancreatic tumors in hamsters [53]. In addition, DCC expression is reduced or lost in poorly differentiated or undifferentiated pancreatic cancer cell lines, whereas it is conserved in the more differentiated ones [52,37].

p53 is the most frequently altered tumor suppressor gene in various cancers, its protein being a transcription factor which regulates cell cycle and apoptosis. p53 is located at chromosome 17p and frequently inactivated by LOH and mutations in 40 to 75% of pancreatic adenocarcinomas in humans [34,45,54-56]. Overexpression of p53 protein can be detected in the nuclei of p53-mutated cells [54,55]. On the other hand, there is no evidence of p53 mutations in primary tumors in BOP-treated hamsters [57].

FHIT gene is a putative tumor suppressor gene located at chromosome 3p14, which is expressed in normal pancreatic ductular cells and is altered in pancreatic cancers [58]. Exogenous expression of FHIT in human pancreatic cancer cells causes cell cycle arrest and apoptosis [59] and loss of full length transcripts is frequent in primary pancreatic cancers of humans (62%) [58] and BOP-treated hamsters (73%) [60].

In addition to these gene alterations, increased protein expression, such as telomerase [61,62], midkine [63,64], cyclooxygenase-2 (COX-2) [65], metalloproteinase (MMP)-2, MMP-9 and membrane type 1-MMP [66,67] are shown in hamsters as in humans.

These findings indicate that multiple gene alterations and changes in protein expression observed in human pancreatic cancers are similarly involved in the BOP-induced hamster pancreatic ductal carcinogenesis model, underlining its utility for studying methods for pancreatic cancer prevention.

3. Modifying Factors in the Experimental Pancreatic Carcinogenesis Models

In addition to cigarette smoking, a well-known cause of pancreatic cancer, epidemiological studies have shown that chronic pancreatitis, obesity and diabetes mellitus are risk factors [68]. Using experimental animal models including mainly the BOP-induced pancreatic carcinogenesis model in hamsters, these and other possible promotive and suppressive factors in pancreatic carcinogenesis have been studied.

3.1. Obesity and Diabetes

Dietary fat has modifying effects on pancreatic carcinogenesis. It has been shown that a high-corn oil diet increased pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma development in BOP-treated hamsters as compared with a low-corn oil diet [69]. Furthermore, a diet containing beef tallow has been shown to increase pancreatic cancer development compared with a diet containing corn oil [70]. Type and composition of fat are considered to be important. Fish oil rich in n-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids has been demonstrated to reduce pancreatic tumor incidences and hepatic metastasis in the BOP-treated hamster model [71]. Enhancing effects of high fat diet and suppressive influence of n-3 polyunsaturated fatty acid-rich fish oil on development of precancerous lesions, PanINs, in K-ras mutated GEM models have also been reported [72,73]. Obesity-mediated enhancement of PanIN lesion development is associated with increased inflammation, and abrogation of TNFR1 signaling blocks tumor promotion [72]. On the other hand, n-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids ameliorate

inflammation through inactivation of the NF-κB signaling pathway and inhibit cell proliferation through induction of cell cycle arrest and apoptosis [73,74].

Streptozotocin is known to induce diabetes through damage to islet cells and its modifying effects on pancreatic carcinogenesis have been studied in the BOP-treated hamster model, though the results are somewhat controversial. It has been reported that administration of streptozotocin alone caused islet cell tumors (44%), pseudoductules (40%), and ductular adenomas (12%), while simultaneous treatment with streptozotocin (single i.v. injection, 30 mg/kg body weight) and BOP (single s.c. injection, 10 mg/kg body weight) resulted in a significantly higher incidence of ductular carcinomas than induced by BOP alone [75]. On the other hand, pretreatment with streptozotocin at a diabetogenic dose (50 mg/kg body weight, three-times i.p. injection) prevented pancreatic cancer development when BOP was subsequently administered [76]. These inhibitory effects of pretreatment were dependent on the severity of the diabetes and could be blocked with nicotinamide [77]. These findings indicate that streptozotocin has a tumorigenic activity at relatively low dose, but when administered before BOP treatment, streptozotocin-induced diabetes/loss of insulin production could prevent BOP-induced pancreatic cancer development through killing islet cells. However, enhancing effects of diabetes and insulin-resistance observed in obesity on growth of transplantable pancreatic cancer cells are nevertheless convincing [78-80].

3.2. Pancreatitis

Cerulein is an analogue peptide of cholecystokinin, and its chronic intraperitorial injection causes pancreatic hypertrophy, characterized by increased pancreatic weight, increased amylase content and acinar cell hyperplasia. Moreover, cerulein augments the carcinogenicity of *N*-nitrobis(2-hydroxypropyl)amine (BHP) in the hamster pancreas [81]. It is also reported that chronic pancreatitis caused by cerulein induces development of pancreatic ductal adenocarcinomas in GEM mice expressing K-ras^{G12V} in acinar/centroacinar cells [31]. On the other hand, pancreatitis caused by common duct ligation before BOP injection decreased carcinoma development, while repeated induction of pancreatitis by common duct ligation after BOP administration resulted in enhanced development of carcinomas, with reference to both number and size [82].

Heavy alcohol drinking and cigarette smoking are major causes of pancreatitis in humans [83]. Epidemiological studies have shown that smoking and chronic pancreatitis are risk factors, whereas alcohol consumption itself has no direct relation [83,84]. However, in a transplacental induction model of pancreatic ductal cancer featuring NNK and EtOH treatment in the Syrian golden hamster, EtOH alone caused pancreatitis and hyperplasia, while NNK alone did not induce either [8], indicating a strong enhancing effect of pancreatitis on pancreatic carcinogenesis. It has also been reported that EtOH and nicotine promote pancreatic carcinogenesis in the DMBA-implanted mouse model [85,86].

In addition, repeated induction of pancreatitis with choline-deficient diet combined with DL-ethionine and L-methionine after initiation with BOP has been demonstrated to cause rapid production of pancreatic carcinomas in hamsters [87].

3.3. Others

There is limited evidence suggesting that red meat is a cause of pancreatic cancer [88,89]. In addition to total intake, the method of meat preparation is also important. Grilled red meat is a risk factor [90]. Effects of mutagenic heterocyclic amines (HCA) formed during cooking of meat on pancreatic carcinogenesis were studied in the BOP-treated hamster model. Among HCAs, 3-amino-1,4-dimethyl-5*H*-pyrido[4,3-*b*]indole (Trp-P-1) and 2-amino-3,4,8-trimethylimidazo[4,5-*f*]quinoxaline (4,8-DiMeIQx) caused increase in pancreatic carcinoma development in BOP-treated hamsters [91]. Dietary intake of DiMeIQx has also been shown to be associated with pancreatic cancer risk in man [92].

High intake of fruits, vitamin C and vitamin E are suggested to protect against pancreatic cancer [88,93,94] and both vitamins have been found to exert protective effects on BOP-induced pancreatic cancer development in hamsters [95].

4. Cancer Prevention Targets for Humans and Evaluation in Experimental Pancreatic Carcinogenesis Models

From the etiology of pancreatic cancer, possible methods for prevention are: (1) avoiding carcinogenic *N*-nitrosoamine exposure such as cigarette smoke; (2) body weight control by diets and physical activity; (3) use of anti-hyperlipidemic and/or anti-diabetic agents; (4) use of anti-inflammatory agents.

Epidemiological studies have suggested that several agents having anti-hyperlipidemic, antidiabetic or anti-inflammatory activities may have chemopreventive potential against pancreatic cancer [96]. Statins are cholesterol-lowering agents and also inhibit membrane-binding of the Ras protein, and are reported to reduce pancreatic cancer cell invasion and metastasis [97]. A casecontrol study of half a million veterans demonstrated a significant reduction of pancreatic cancer risk in statin users (adjusted OR = 0.37) [98], while meta-analysis of 12 studies showed no evidence of association between statin use and pancreatic cancer risk (RR = 0.88) [99]. Aspirin is a most frequently used nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drug (NSAID) and has been reported to reduce cancer risk in several organs such as in the colon [100]. In the pancreas, epidemiological data on aspirin use are controversial [101,102]. A cohort study of post-menopausal women has shown that current use of aspirin is associated with a reduced risk of pancreatic cancer (adjusted RR = 0.57) [103], whereas another cohort study of nurses demonstrated that more than 20 years of regular aspirin use is associated with increased risk (RR = 1.58) [104]. Metformin, an anti-diabetic drug, activates AMP-activated protein kinase (AMPK) and inhibits pancreatic cancer growth [105,106]. A hospitalbased case-control study has shown that metformin use is associated with reduced risk (OR = 0.38), while insulin or insulin secretagogue use is associated with increased risk (OR = 1.78) of pancreatic cancer in diabetic patients [107]. However, there is still no report of cohort study or randomizedcontrol trial on metformin use. Since incidence of pancreatic cancer is relatively low compared with colon, breast and prostate cancers, prospective studies need quite a large population. In addition, randomized control studies are difficult, because the diseases such as hyperlipidemia and diabetes should be properly cared for. Therefore, evidences provided by preclinical studies including in vivo carcinogenesis studies using animal models are considered to be very important to evaluate the

chemopreventive efficacy and mechanisms of these agents. Factors related to insulin resistance and inflammation are candidate targets for pancreatic cancer prevention. Table 2 shows chemopreventive agents evaluated in BOP-induced pancreatic carcinogenesis.

Table 2. Chemopreventive agents of *N*-nitrosobis(2-oxopropyl)amine (BOP)-induced pancreatic carcinogenesis in hamsters.

Compounds	Mechanistic categories	Ref.
Anti-hyperlipidemic/diab		
Pioglitazone	PPARy ligand	[113]
Metformin	AMPK activator	[114]
Anti-inflammatory ag	gents matter our	and the second
Indomethacin	NSAID	[119]
Phenylbutazone	NSAID	[119]
NO-ASA	NO-NSAID	[121]
Nimesulide	COX-2 inhibitor	[118]
Celecoxib/Zileuton	COX-2/5-LOX inhibitors	[127]
ONO-1714	iNOS inhibitor	[131]
Others ()		
OPB-3206	MMP-2 inhibitor	[66]
Protochatechuic acid	Antioxidant	[135]
GTE	Antioxidant	[136]
BHA	Antioxidant	[137]
Sarcophytol A	Anti-tumor promoter	[138]
Methionine	Essential amino acid	[139]
PEITC	Cytochrome P450 suppressor	[140]
PPITC	Cytochrome P450 suppressor	[143]
PBITC	Cytochrome P450 suppressor	[144]
BITC	Cytochrome P450 suppressor	[145]
Sulforaphane	Anti-oxidative enzyme inducer	[145]
Aloe arborescens	Detoxyfiying enzyme inducer	[146]
Oltipraz	Nrf2 activator	[147]

4.1. Anti-Hyperlipidemic/Diabetic Agents

It has been reported that high cholesterol intake is associated with an increased risk of pancreatic cancer [108]. Smoking is associated with metabolic syndrome, and nicotine elevates serum triglyceride levels [109,110]. Obesity and diabetes are also closely associated with hyperlipidemia and hyperinsulinemia [111,112]. Interestingly, Syrian golden hamsters are in a hyperlipidemic state even under normal diet conditions, and pioglitazone, a ligand of peroxizome proliferator-activated receptor (PPAR) γ , has demonstrated to improve hyperlipidemia and suppress development of ductal adenocarcinomas in BOP-treated hamsters; the ductal adenocarcinoma incidences in the BOP + 800 ppm pioglitazone group and the BOP alone group were 38% vs. 80% (P < 0.01) and the multiplicities were 0.55 \pm 0.15 vs. 1.37 \pm 0.22 (P < 0.01), respectively [113]. In addition, the incidences of bile duct tumors in BOP-treated hamsters were clearly suppressed by pioglitazone [113]. Metformin, an activator of AMPK, has also been shown to decrease serum insulin levels and suppress development of

hyperplastic, dysplastic and malignant ductal lesions in the pancreas of BOP-treated hamsters on a high fat diet condition [114]. Pioglitazone and metformin are both anti-diabetic drugs which improve insulin resistance [115].

4.2. Anti-inflammatory Agents

Expression of COX-2 is up-regulated in PanIN and adenocarcinomas in humans and BOP-treated hamsters [64,116-118] and inhibition of prostanoid synthesis by NSAIDs, such as indomethacin and phenylbutazone, has been shown to reduce the development of precancerous lesions (atypical hyperplasia) and adenocarcinoma in the hamster model [119,120]. Whereas suppressive effects of aspirin were not significant, nitric oxide (NO)-donating aspirin, NO-ASA, has potent activity to prevent pancreatic cancer, especially arresting the transition from PanIN2 to PanIN3 and carcinoma, in BOP-treated hamsters [121]. It has also been reported that another COX-inhibitor, ibuprofen, reduces pancreatic cancer development in the hamster transplacental model with NNK + EtOH [122]. In GEM models, aspirin treatment has been shown to delay progression of PanINs in LsL- Kras^{G12D}; Pdx1-Cre mice and to partially inhibit development of invasive cancers in LsL- Kras G12D; LsL-Trp53^{R172H}; Pdx1-Cre mice [123]. Furthermore, a selective COX-2 inhibitor, nimesulide, has been demonstrated to suppress development of precancerous lesions (atypical hyperplasia) and adenocarcinoma in BOP-treated hamsters [118]. In addition, inhibition of COX-2 by nimesulide delayed the appearance of PanIN-2 and PanIN-3 lesions in a conditional Kras^{G12D} mouse model, indicating the importance of prostaglandin synthesis by COX-2 in the early stage of pancreatic carcinogenesis [124]. In addition to COX-2, 5-LOX is also up-regulated in the ductal cells of PanIN and adenocarcinomas in humans, BOP-treated hamsters and Elastase-Kras mice [125,126]. Receptors of the downstream 5-LOX metabolite, leukotriene B4, have been reported to be expressed in human pancreatic cancer tissues [125] and combination of COX-2-inhibition by Celebrex and 5-LOXinhibition by Zyflo has shown to significantly decrease liver metastasis by pancreatic cancers in BOPtreated hamsters [127]. MK886, an inhibitor of 5-LOX activating protein FLAP, also reduced pancreatic cancer development in the hamster transplacental model with NNK + EtOH [122].

Increased expression of iNOS is also observed in pancreatic adenocarcinomas in humans and hamsters [128-131], perhaps involving K-ras activation [132]. Inhibition of iNOS by a selective iNOS inhibitor ONO-1714 suppressed development of precancerous lesions (atypical hyperplasia) and invasive adenocarcinomas in BOP-treated hamsters [131].

4.3. Others

Expression of MMP-2 is increased in precancerous lesions and adenocarcinomas, and proMMP-2 is highly activated in pancreatic carcinomas in humans and hamsters [133,66]. Inhibition of proMMP-2 activation by the MMP inhibitor OPB-3206 has been demonstrated to suppress pancreatic cancer development in BOP-treated hamsters under a rapid production protocol [66]. Another MMP inhibitor, RO 28-2653, has been reported to inhibit liver metastasis in the BOP-induced pancreatic carcinogenesis model, directly indicating roles for MMP-2 in cancer progression [134].

Protochatechuic acid, green tea extracts (GTE) and butylated hydroxyanisole (BHA) are antioxidative agents which have demonstrated inhibitory effects on pancreatic cancer development during

the post-initiation stage of the BOP-initiated hamster model [135-137]. Sarcophytol A, which is known to be an anti-tumor promoter, and methionine, which is an essential amino acid and associated with anti-oxidation, have also been shown to suppress pancreatic carcinogenesis in the BOP-treated hamster model [138,139].

Phenethyl isothiocyanate (PEITC), a natural constituent of cruciferous vegetables, has been demonstrated to be a potent chemopreventive agent in the initiation phase of pancreatic carcinogenesis in hamsters initiated with BOP [140,141], while not affecting the post-initiation phase [142]. Synthetic analogues of PEITC, such as 3-phenylpropyl isothiocyanate (PPITC), 4-phenylbutyl isothicyanate (PBITC) and benzyl isothicianate (BITC), and sulforaphane, Aloe arborescens and oltipraz have also been shown to suppress the initiation phase of BOP-induced pancreatic carcinogenesis through inhibition of activating (phase I) enzymes or activation of detoxifying (phase II) enzymes related to metabolism of BOP [143-147].

Nicotine-derived nitrosamine NNK stimulates release of noradrenaline/adrenaline by binding to alpha7 nicotinic acetylcholine receptors and activates beta-adrenergic receptors, resulting in proliferation of human pancreatic epithelial cells through cAMP-dependent signaling [148,149]. A beta-blocker propranolol has been shown to suppress the development of pancreatic cancer induced in the hamster transplacental model with NNK + EtOH [150].

Angiotensin-I-converting enzyme (ACE) and angiotensin II type 1 receptor are upregulated in human pancreatic cancer tissues and co-localized with vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) in malignant ducts and in stromal cells [151]. The ACE inhibitor enalapril has been demonstrated to delay progression of PanINs in LsL- Kras^{G12D}; Pdx1-Cre mice and to partially inhibit development of invasive cancer in LsL- Kras^{G12D}; LsL-Trp53^{R172H}; Pdx1-Cre mice [123].

An epidermal growth factor receptor inhibitor, gefitinib, has been demonstrated to suppress development of PanINs and cancer in *LsL- Kras*^{G12D}; *p48-Cre* mice [152]. Furthermore, a src kinase inhibitor, dasatinib, has been shown to suppress metastasis in *LsL- Kras*^{G12D}; *LsL-Trp53*^{R172H}; *Pdx1-Cre*; *Z/EGFP* mice, although there are no effects on proliferation and no survival advantage [153]. In addition, synthetic oleanane triterpenoids CDDO-methyl ester or CDDO-ethyl amide, the rexinoid LG100268, or the combination have been shown to increase survival in *LsL- Kras*^{G12D}; *LsL-Trp53*^{R172H}; *Pdx1-Cre* mice [154].

5. Conclusions

As shown above, the BOP-induced pancreatic carcinogenesis model in Syrian golden hamsters has genotypic and phenotypic similarities to the human case, and is a useful animal model for investigation of cancer prevention, even though the mechanistic analyses are a little difficult due to its limited genetic information. In this model, both precancerous lesions and advanced ductal carcimomas are assessable, and most of the BOP-treated hamsters develop pancreatic ductal carcinomas within six months. On the other hand, DMBA-induced pancreatic carcinogenesis models in rats and mice are considered to be not suitable for prevention studies, from the viewpoints of pathological origin of cancers and technical difficulty with neoplastic lesions developing only where carcinogen is implanted. GEM models are powerful for verifying the oncogenic mechanisms, but the process of carcinogenesis is pathologically different from the vast majority of human cases. Recently, several

chemoprevention studies using GEM models have been reported [73,123,124,126, 152-154], mainly of two types. One focuses on suppression of PanIN development in *LsL- Kras*^{G12D}; *Pdx1-Cre* mice or *LsL- Kras*^{G12D}; *p48-Cre* mice. In this system, incidences of pancreatic cancer are low (~20% at one year) [155], and therefore, it is difficult to obtain statistically significant results for cancer development. The PanIN lesions in GEM mice have similar phenotypes to humans, such as COX-2 [124] and LOX-5 [126] expression, but the pathological process of development of early lesions is quite different from human cases. Thus, the usefulness of this model may be limited regarding early detection and prevention of human pancreatic cancer. In suppression studies on cancer development or prolonged survival with *LsL- Kras*^{G12D}; *LsL-Trp53*^{R172H}; *Pdx1-Cre* mice, the GEM animals mimic the genetics of human pancreatic cancer and quickly develop pancreatic ductal carcinomas. This model may be more suitable for therapeutic studies than for prevention.

In humans, a number of epidemiological studies have suggested reduced pancreatic cancer risk with use of anti-hyperlipidemic/diabetic or anti-inflammatory agents. However, this is difficult to prove in randomized-control studies, because of the relatively low incidence of pancreatic cancer in humans and the absence of early biomarkers to predict pancreatic cancer. Thus, *in vivo* carcinogenesis studies using animal models are important to support the epidemiological findings and provide direct evidence. Some anti-hyperlipidemic and anti-inflammatory agents have indeed been shown to exert suppressive effects on pancreatic carcinogenesis in animal models including that with BOP-initiation in the hamster, indicating that factors related to hyperlipidemia, insulin resistance and inflammation are candidate targets for pancreatic cancer prevention.

Acknowledgements

The work performed in our laboratory was supported in part by: Grants-in-Aid for Cancer Research from the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare of Japan and Management Expenses Grants from the Government to the National Cancer Center (21-2-1); a grant of the Research Grant of the Princess Takamatsu Cancer Research Fund (08-24009); a Grant-in-Aid for Scientific Research from the Japan Society for the Promotion of Science (J.S.P.S.); and a grant of the Third-Term Comprehensive 10-Year Strategy for Cancer Control from the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare of Japan.

M. Hori is an Awardee of Research Resident Fellowship from the Foundation for Promotion of Cancer Research (Japan) for the Third-Term Comprehensive 10-Year Strategy for Cancer Control.

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BASIC—ALIMENTARY TRACT

Loss of Adiponectin Promotes Intestinal Carcinogenesis in *Min* and Wild-type Mice

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BACKGROUND & AIMS: Metabolic syndrome- and obesity-associated cancers, including colon cancer, are common in Western countries. Visceral fat accumulation and decreased levels of plasma adiponectin (APN) have been associated with development of human colorectal adenoma. We investigated the function of APN in intestinal carcinogenesis. METHODS: APN+/+, APN+/-, or APN^{-/-} mice (C57BL/6J) were given injections of azoxymethane (AOM), which led to development of intestinal tumors; these strains of mice were also crossed with Min mice to assess polyp formation. Adipocytokine levels and phosphorylation/activation of AMP-activated protein kinase (AMPK) were evaluated to investigate the mechanisms of APN in tumor growth. RESULTS: The total number of polyps in the intestines of male APN+/- Min and APN-/-Min mice increased 2.4- and 3.2-fold, respectively, by the age of 9 weeks and 3.2- and 3.4-fold, respectively, by 12 weeks, compared with those of $APN^{+/+}Min$ mice. Similar results were obtained from female mice. AOM induced colon tumor formation in 40% of $APN^{+/+}$, 50% of $APN^{+/-}$, and 71% of $APN^{-/-}$ (P < .05) mice, respectively; mean values for tumor multiplicity of each genotype were 0.5, 0.6, and 1.1 (P < .05), respectively. Phosphorylation of AMPK decreased in intestinal epithelial cells of $APN^{-/-}$ mice compared with $APN^{+/+}$ mice. Among serum adipocytokines, plasminogen activator inhibitor-1 levels increased in APN-/-Min mice and *APN*^{-/-} mice that received injections of AOM. Activation of AMPK suppressed expression of plasminogen activator inhibitor-1 in Min mice. CONCLUSIONS: Mice with disruptions in APN develop more intestinal tumors and have decreased activation (phosphorylation) of AMPK and increased levels of plasminogen activator inhibitor-1, compared with wild-type mice. APN and its receptor might be developed as targets for cancer chemopreventive agents.

Keywords: Apc-Deficient Mice; Adipokine; Colorectal Cancer; Chemoprevention

The criteria for metabolic syndrome include obesity, ▲ hyperlipidemia, type 2 diabetes, and hypertension. Several cancers, including colon cancer, are demonstrated to be associated with metabolic syndrome. 1-5 Obesityassociated cancers are common in Western countries, and they are currently increasing in Eastern countries as well. However, the mechanisms underlying how metabolic syndrome is associated with carcinogenesis remain to be fully understood. Insulin resistance, with hyperinsulinemia, hyperlipidemia, and hyperglycemia, are suggested to be involved in the promotion of colon cancer growth. In addition, dysregulation of adipocytokines, such as adiponectin (APN), leptin, plasminogen activator inhibitor-1 (PAI-1), and tumor necrosis factor $-\alpha$ (TNF α) has been shown to play a crucial role in the pathogenesis of the metabolic syndrome and postulated to promote carcinogenesis.6 In human clinical studies, it has been reported that the amount of visceral fat positively correlates with colon adenoma risk, and serum APN levels show a negative correlation.7

APN is present at high levels in plasma (range, 3–30 μ g/mL) as multimers. Both plasma APN and APN messenger RNA (mRNA) in adipose tissue are inversely correlated with body mass index and whole-body adipose mass. Furthermore, a decrease in plasma APN levels is associated with insulin resistance, type 2 diabetes, and coronary artery disease. Physiological functions of APN are elicited through 2 isoforms of its receptor, Adipo-R1 and Adipo-R2, stimulating AMP-activated protein kinase

Abbreviations used in this paper: ACF, aberrant crypt foci; AMPK, AMP-activated protein kinase; AOM, azoxymethane; APN, adiponectin; CK2 β , casein kinase 2 β ; IL-1 β , interleukin-1 β ; MCP-1, monocyte chemotactic protein-1; mRNA, messenger RNA; Pai-1, plasminogen activator inhibitor—1; PCR, polymerase chain reaction; RACK1, receptor for activated protein C kinase 1; TG, triglyceride; TNF α , tumor necrosis factor— α .

© 2011 by the AGA Institute 0016-5085/\$36.00 doi:10.1053/j.gastro.2011.02.019

(AMPK) and peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor-α, respectively.8

Recently, we reported an age-dependent hypertriglyceridemic state with low expression levels of hepatic and intestinal lipoprotein lipase mRNA in Apc-deficient Min and Apc1309 mice, animal models of familial adenomatous polyposis.9,10 Lipoprotein lipase catalyzes the hydrolysis of triglyceride (TG). Moreover, adipocytokines including plasminogen activator inhibitor-1 (Pai-1) were found to be remarkably overexpressed in the livers of Min mice as compared to wild-type mice. 11 In addition, hepatic APN mRNA levels were down-regulated in Min mice. Administration of Pai-1 blockers, SK-216 or SK-116, demonstrated the involvement of Pai-1 in the production of number of intestinal polyps.

It is assumed that adipocytokines have an impact on carcinogenesis. However, little is known about how their altered regulation is related to the development and progression of colon cancers. Thus, in the present study, we mated APN-deficient C57BL/6J mice with Min mice to investigate the effect of genetic inactivation of APN on intestinal carcinogenesis. APN deficiency resulted in increased intestinal polyp development. Moreover, a similar contribution was evident when APN-deficient C57BL/6J mice were treated with azoxymethane (AOM) to induce colon cancer. Reduced phosphorylated(p)-AMPK levels and increased p-Akt levels were suggested to be involved in the accelerated development of intestinal tumors. Moreover, the mechanistic consequences derived from the altered adipicytokines, APN and Pai-1, were demonstrated.

Materials and Methods Animals

APN-deficient mice (C57BL/6J mice background) were generated as described previously and their genotypes were confirmed by polymerase chain reaction (PCR).12 Both sexes were used at 6 weeks of age. Female C57BL/6-ApcMin/+ mice (Min mice), 5 weeks of age, were purchased from The Jackson Laboratory (Bar Harbor, ME) and genotyped by the method reported previously. Heterozygotes of the female Min mice were mated with $APN^{-/-}$ C57BL/6J males to generate $APN^{+/-}Min$ mice. Such males were crossed again with APN+/- C57BL/6J females to give APN-/-Min mice. Offspring were genotyped by PCR.9 In all the animal experiments in the present study, a maximum of 5 animals were housed per plastic cage, with sterilized softwood chips as bedding, in a barrier-sustained animal room, air-conditioned at 24 \pm 2°C and 55% humidity, on a 12-hour light-to-dark cycle. AIN-76A powdered basal diet (CLEA Japan, Tokyo, Japan) and water were available ad libitum. The animals were observed daily for clinical signs and morbidity, and body weights and food consumption were measured weekly. At the sacrifice time point, mice were anesthe-

tized with ether, and blood samples were collected from the abdominal vein. The experiments were conducted according to the Guidelines for Animal Experiments in the National Cancer Center and were approved by the Institutional Ethics Review Committee for Animal Experimentation in the National Cancer Center.

Experimental Protocol for APN-Deficient Min and C57BL/6JMice

Both sexes of Min mice (n = 7) with $APN^{+/+}$, $APN^{+/-}$, and $APN^{-/-}$ genotypes or C57BL/6J mice (n = 4) with APN+/+, APN+/-, and APN-/- genotypes were used for examination at the ages of 9 and 12 weeks. The levels of serum TG and total cholesterol were measured as reported previously.10 The liver, kidneys, heart, and spleen were weighed and tissue samples from the liver and intestine were rapidly deep-frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C.

The stomach and intestinal tract were removed, filled with 10% buffered formalin, and separated into the stomach, small intestine, cecum, and colon. The small intestine was divided into the proximal segment (4 cm in length), and proximal (middle) and distal halves of the remainder. All segments were opened longitudinally and fixed flat between filter paper in 10% buffered formalin. The numbers and sizes of polyps, and their distributions in the intestine were assessed with a stereoscopic microscope. Slices of the liver, kidneys, heart, and spleen were embedded in paraffin, sectioned, and stained with H&E.

Experimental Protocol for APN^{+/-}Min Mice With APN Treatment

Recombinant full-length murine APN was produced and purified as described previously^{13,14} and dissolved in saline at a concentration of 300 μ g/mL for use. APN+/-Min mice of both sexes were divided into an APN-injected group (n = 10 each) and saline-injected control group (n = 10 each). Their body weight was measured and 1.5 mg/kg APN or the same volume of saline was intraperitoneally injected once a week from the age of 6 weeks to 12 weeks (6 times) following the method used in the previous report.15 The numbers and sizes of polyps, and their distributions in the intestine were examined.

AOM-Induced Colon Tumor Development in APN-Deficient C57BL/6J Mice

Six-week-old male APN+/+, APN+/-, and APN-/-C57BL/6J mice (n = 30 each) received AOM at a dose of 10 mg/kg body weight intraperitoneally once a week for 6 weeks. Male $APN^{+/+}$ and $APN^{-/-}$ C57BL/6J mice (n = 10 each) without AOM treatment were used for evaluating sporadic colorectal cancer development. After laparotomy at 55 weeks of age, the entire intestines were resected and opened longitudinally and the contents