

Forum Review

Regulation of Nrf2, NF- κ B, and AP-1 Signaling Pathways by Chemopreventive Agents

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ABSTRACT

The inhibition of carcinogenesis by chemopreventive agents has been demonstrated in many tumorigenesis animal models. The chemopreventive mechanisms of those phytochemicals have been investigated extensively, though mostly in *in vitro* cell culture systems. The cellular signaling cascades mediated by transcription factors, including nuclear factor E2-related factor 2 (Nrf2), nuclear factor- κ B (NF- κ B), and activator protein-1 (AP-1), have been shown to play pivotal roles in tumor initiation, promotion, and progression processes. Thus, as demonstrated by previous substantive mechanistic studies, they appear to be ideal targets for cancer chemoprevention. In this review, we discuss the current progress and future challenges on our understanding of the molecular mechanisms in cancer chemoprevention by phytochemicals, focusing on the regulation of Nrf2, NF- κ B, and AP-1 signaling pathways. *Antioxid. Redox Signal.* 7, 1648–1663.

INTRODUCTION

DESPITE THE TREMENDOUS IMPROVEMENTS of medical technologies and chemotherapeutic approaches, cancer has recently overtaken heart disease as the leading cause of death in many parts of the world. Although there are more than 200 types of cancer, research using animal models has produced better basic understanding of cancer development in recent decades. Cancer development is believed to be a multiple-step process including initiation, promotion, and progression (117). The initiation step is a relatively short and irreversible process triggered by carcinogens or ionizing radiation in normal cells. In contrast, promotion, and progression processes are much longer processes that are considered relatively reversible. By using various animal cancer models (14, 23, 101), scientists have found that natural or synthetic chemicals can intervene at all three cancer development stages (Fig. 1). Epidemiological evidence or population studies have also demonstrated the correlation between incidence of cancer and consumption of certain types of food (121, 132). In 1976,

Dr. Michael B. Sporn first coined the term “chemoprevention” and advocated a cancer chemoprevention strategy to decrease the incidence of cancer. The basic concept of chemoprevention is to block or slow the onset of premalignant tumors by using relatively nontoxic chemical substances. Most of the nontoxic chemical substances used in cancer chemoprevention studies are natural phytochemicals found in food (117). Based on the cancer development stage targeted by a chemopreventive agent, the chemopreventive agent can be categorized either as a cancer-blocking agent that blocks the cancer initiation step or as a cancer-suppressing agent that halts or retards the promotion and progression of precancerous cells into malignant ones. If the phytochemical can act on all stages of cancer development, then it falls into both categories, and this happens quite frequently (Fig. 1).

Numerous cancer cell lines and animal cancer models have been utilized to evaluate the chemopreventive effects of phytochemicals as well as to elucidate their mechanisms of cancer prevention. These studies have resulted in the discovery of several new phytochemicals that possess cancer preventive

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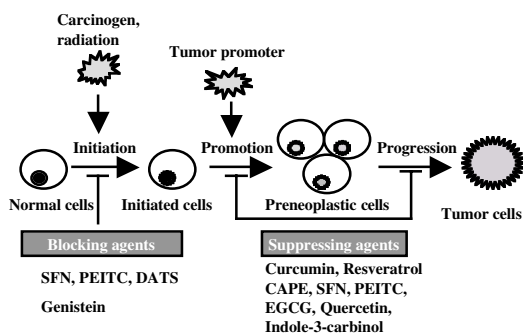


FIG. 1. Intervention of tumor development processes by chemopreventive agents. Cancer development is a multi-step process including initiation, promotion, and progression. The initiation step is started by carcinogen addition and irradiation in normal cells. Many phytochemicals can block this step by inducing the detoxification and antioxidant enzyme systems that protect cells from the damage caused by initiators. Chemopreventive agents can also block or retard the progress of tumor promotion and progression by modulating the key signaling pathways elicited by tumor promoters, inflammatory cytokines, growth factors, etc. It should be mentioned that a single chemopreventive agent could act as both tumor blocking and suppressing agent. DATS, diallyl trisulfide; SFN, sulforaphane.

effects, such as flavonoids from soybeans, isothiocyanates from cruciferous vegetables, and polyphenol from green and black tea (Fig. 2) (117). Besides the discovery of new chemopreventive agents, understanding of the mechanisms by which these chemopreventive agents inhibit cancer development is also improved. Although some chemicals elicit unique signal transduction pathways, most chemicals trigger common cellular or molecular events in the cells. For example, it has been shown that cellular exposure to dietary phytochemicals can generate reactive oxygen species (ROS) and electrophiles that lead to mild oxidative or electrophilic stress (19, 71, 95). By modulating cellular signaling pathways,

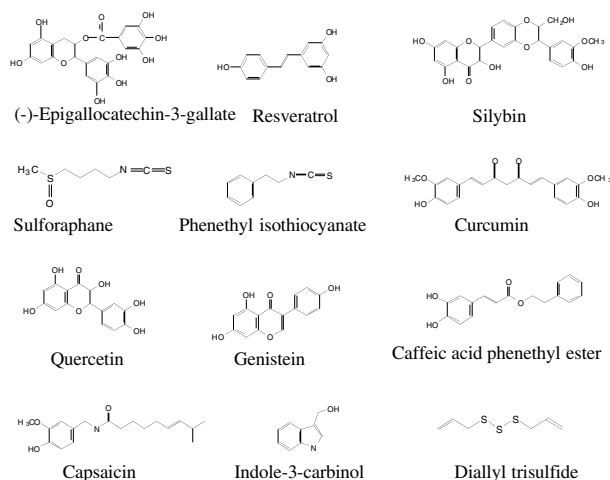


FIG. 2. Chemical structures of representative chemopreventive agents discussed in the article.

these stresses can trigger a wide variety of cellular events such as increasing expression of detoxifying enzymes and/or antioxidant enzymes, inhibiting cell cycle progression and cell proliferation, inducing differentiation and apoptosis, inhibiting expression and functional activation of oncogenes, increasing expression of tumor-suppressor genes, and inhibiting angiogenesis and metastasis (45, 117). Although the study of signal transduction pathways responsible for sensing oxidative and/or electrophilic stress has been performed extensively in recent decades, our understanding of this area is still limited. This review will focus on recent progress in the study of modulation of nuclear factor E2-related factor 2 (Nrf2), nuclear factor- κ B (NF- κ B), and activator protein-1 (AP-1) signaling pathways by chemopreventive agents.

REGULATION OF NRF2 SIGNALING PATHWAYS

To survive under a variety of environmental or intracellular stresses, eukaryotic cells have developed cellular defensive systems to protect themselves from oxidative or electrophilic challenges (52, 75). Among these defensive enzymes are the Phase II drug-metabolizing enzymes, such as glutathione *S*-transferase and UDP-glucuronosyltransferase (40), and antioxidant enzymes, such as heme oxygenase-1 (HO-1) (4), NADP(H):quinone oxidoreductase, and γ -glutamylcysteine synthetase (129). Many of these enzyme genes are coordinately regulated through a consensus *cis*-element at the 5'-flanking promoter region such as the antioxidant responsive element (ARE) or the electrophile response element (EpRE). ARE/EpRE-mediated gene induction plays a pivotal role in the cellular defense against the cellular damage caused by electrophiles and ROS.

Nrf2, which belongs to the Cap'n'Collar family of basic region-leucine zipper transcription factors, has been shown to be an essential component of the ARE-binding transcriptional machinery (53). Its important role in regulating the expression of many mammalian detoxifying and antioxidant enzymes under oxidative or electrophilic stress has been verified in various Nrf2-deficient mice experiments, in which the enzyme expression was dramatically abolished and the Nrf2 knockout mice were much more susceptible to carcinogen-induced carcinogenesis (7, 33, 100).

As described above, many phytochemicals exert their chemopreventive effects by blocking the initiation stage of cancer development. For a subset of these compounds, chemoprotection mainly derived from the induction of Nrf2/ARE-regulated genes. For example, the Phase II glutathione *S*-transferase gene can be induced by the phenolic antioxidant butylated hydroxyanisole and ethoxyquin (40) or by isothiocyanate (86). The redox-sensitive stress gene *HO-1* can be induced by curcumin and caffeic acid phenethyl ester (CAPE) through an Nrf2 signaling pathway (10). In oligonucleotide microarray studies (77, 120), the comparison of the change of the global gene expression profiles elicited by the chemopreventive agents sulforaphane and dithiolethiones in wild-type mice and Nrf2 knockout mice revealed that Phase II and antioxidant genes are the major group of target genes being regulated.

By inducing the Phase II detoxifying and antioxidant enzyme genes, phytochemicals increase the detoxification of pro-carcinogens or carcinogens and protect normal cells from the damages of electrophiles and reactive oxygen intermediates, thus decreasing the incidence of initiation and reducing the risk of cancer. This hypothesis is supported by the study of Kensler *et al.* (69) in which the chemoprotective effect of oltipraz was investigated in human subjects with a high incidence of liver cancer in China. In their study, oral administration of oltipraz significantly enhanced the urinary excretion of the Phase II conjugation product of the carcinogen aflatoxin, and furthermore higher doses of oltipraz significantly reduced the excretion of the primary oxidative metabolite of aflatoxin M1. Another supportive example is the study of the tumor-blocking effects of sulforaphane, which is an isothiocyanate present abundantly as a glucosinolate precursor in cruciferous vegetables. It has been shown that it could block benzo[*a*]pyrene-induced forestomach tumors in ICR mice (34). This protection was resulted from induction of Phase II detoxification and antioxidant enzymes since the blocking effect was abrogated in the Nrf2 knockout mice.

Considering the great structural diversity of the inducers that regulate the Nrf2 signaling pathway (99), a mechanism of activation requiring the interaction of phytochemical Nrf2 inducers with a structurally complementary receptor appears to be quite unlikely. Therefore, many phytochemicals might regulate Nrf2-mediated gene transcription by different mechanisms. It is important to note that many chemopreven-

tive agents have pro-oxidant properties, meaning they can generate oxidative/electrophilic stress by themselves in the cells. The stress generated by chemopreventive agents appears to be dose-dependent and mild at low concentrations but strong enough to activate the cellular defense mechanisms that lead to coordinated activation of the Nrf2 signaling pathway. However, this “low stress” is believed to be at a subtoxic level that would not cause adverse effects such as DNA damage, mutagenicity, and degeneration of tissues as caused by carcinogens.

As a sensor regulating ARE-mediated gene expression in response to oxidative stress, Nrf2 resides mainly in the cytoplasm bound to a cytoskeleton-related protein called Kelch-like ECH-associated protein 1 (Keap1) (55) (Fig. 3). Keap1 is a cysteine-rich protein that interacts with the ETGE motif within the N-terminal Neh2 domain of Nrf2 (72). Many studies have shown that challenges with chemopreventive agents can lead to the nuclear accumulation of Nrf2, thereby activating Nrf2-dependent gene transcription (10, 40, 100, 120). However, the exact mechanisms by which these phytochemicals or the generated exogenous/endogenous oxidative/electrophile stress trigger the Nrf2 transactivation are still unclear. The binding of Keap1 to Nrf2 represses Nrf2-mediated gene transcription under homeostatic conditions. Upon exposure to above threshold levels of chemopreventive chemicals or oxidative stress, Nrf2 is able to escape Keap1-mediated repression, translocate to the nucleus, and activate expression of its target genes. Several mechanisms have been proposed for the ability of Nrf2 to escape the Keap1-medi-

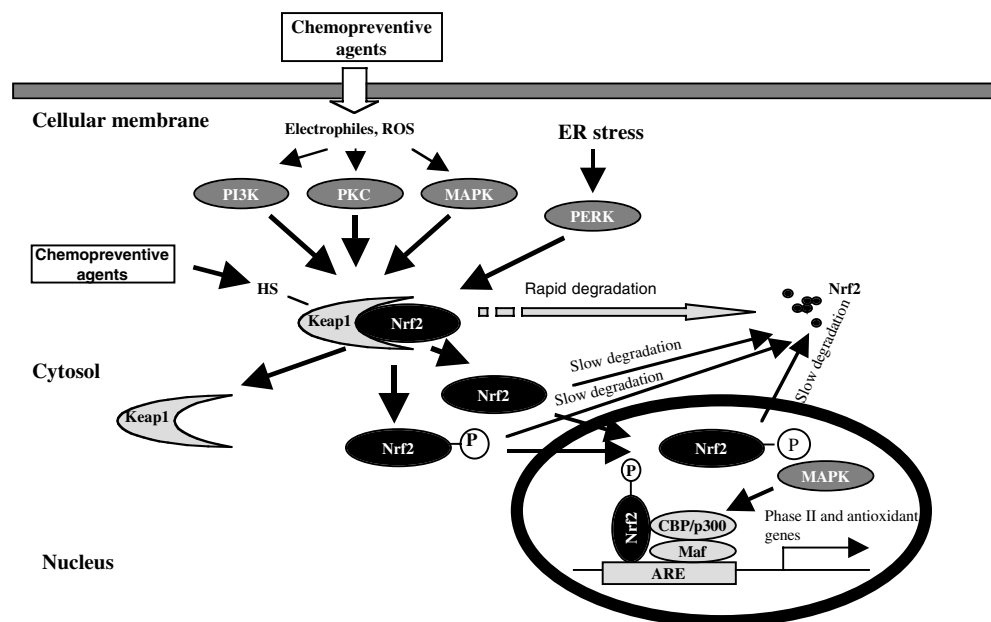


FIG. 3. Regulation mechanism of Nrf2-mediated gene transcription by chemopreventive agents. Under homeostatic condition, Nrf2 is retained in the cytoplasm by Keap1 protein. Chemopreventive agents can interact directly with the cysteine residues of Keap1 to trigger the release of Nrf2 from the complex. Alternatively, chemopreventive agent-generated electrophiles or ROS can activate a wide variety of kinase signaling pathways, including PI3K, PKC, and MAPK cascades, which can also trigger the release and nuclear translocation of Nrf2. ER stress-activated PERK kinase is also involved in the phosphorylation of Nrf2 and causes Nrf2 release, though its activation is not related to chemoprevention. MAPK kinases such as Raf may also regulate Nrf2-mediated transcription by modulating the activity of Nrf2-interacting co-activators such as CBP/p300.

ated repression after cellular exposure to the Phase II enzyme inducers.

The first proposed mechanism involves the cysteine-rich Keap1 protein directly sensing oxidative stress *via* thiol modification on its cysteine residues, which may cause a conformational change and thereby release Nrf2 from the complex. In an *in vitro* purified Keap1–Nrf2 interacting system (27), researchers found direct evidence that the most reactive cysteine residues of Keap1 (C257, C273, C288, C297) can be modified by an irreversible modifier of thiols, [³H]dexamethasone mesylate. The chemopreventive agent sulforaphane showed a concentration-dependent disruption effect on the interaction between Keap1 and the Neh2 domain of Nrf2 in a native gel electrophoresis assay. Since the Neh2 domain of Nrf2 lacks cysteine residues and sulforaphane reacts rapidly but reversibly with thiols to give rise to a dithiocarbamate, the above observations suggest that sulforaphane might also trigger the release of Nrf2 from the Keap1–Nrf2 complex *in vivo* by targeting the cysteines on Keap1. Subsequent studies by the same group showed that mutation of both C273 and C288 could disrupt the repressive effect of Keap1 on Nrf2 (125), suggesting that modification of these two cysteines is critical for the repression of Nrf2.

Under homeostatic conditions, Keap1 not only sequesters Nrf2 in the cytoplasm, but also actively targets Nrf2 for ubiquitination and degradation by the 26S proteasome (92). Furthermore, Keap1-dependent Nrf2 degradation is faster than the Keap1-independent degradation process; therefore the second mechanism proposed involves release of Nrf2 from Keap1 in response to chemopreventive agents or oxidative/electrophilic stress. This may dramatically increase its protein stability, resulting in accumulation of Nrf2 in the cells and enhancement of Nrf2-dependent transcription activity. In addition to their potential to react with thiol-specific chemopreventive agents *in vivo*, the cysteines C273 and C288 of Keap1 are also required for Keap1-dependent ubiquitination of Nrf2. In pulse-chase labeling experiments conducted by Zhang and Hannink (137), mutations of these cysteines increased the half-life of Nrf2 up to twofold compared to wild type. These two cysteines may assist Nrf2 degradation by allowing binding of Keap1 to either an E2 ubiquitin conjugating enzyme or another component of a multisubunit E3 ubiquitin ligase complex. Alternatively, C273 and C288 may actively participate in ubiquitin transfer from the E2 protein to Nrf2. Interestingly, cysteine C151 was found to be uniquely required for inhibition of Keap1-dependent degradation of Nrf2 by sulforaphane and oxidative stress since sulforaphane has no effect on the stability of Nrf2 in the presence of the Keap1–C151S mutant protein. Thus, prior modification of Keap1 at C151 by chemopreventive agents may induce a conformational change that either alters the accessibility of C273 and C288 to the cytoplasmic environment to inhibit the Keap1 degradation or facilitates further thiol modification on these residues by chemical inducers. The results reported in this article, in conjunction with a number of other recent reports that the Nrf2 protein is stabilized by chemical inducers of Nrf2-dependent transcription, have provided one important mechanism for Keap1-mediated repression as well as the ability of chemical inducers to allow Nrf2 to escape Keap1-mediated repression.

Additional regulatory mechanisms are likely to co-operate with Keap1-dependent ubiquitination of Nrf2 to achieve precise regulation of Nrf2-dependent transcription. One possibility is that inhibition of Keap1-dependent degradation simply stabilizes Nrf2 and that additional posttranslational modifications to the Nrf2/Keap1 complex are required for dissociation of Nrf2 from Keap1. Phosphorylation of the Nrf2/Keap1 complex, triggered by kinase signaling pathways, might be another possibility for the release of Nrf2 from the complex. Mitogen-activated protein kinases (MAPKs) can be regulated by a wide variety of chemopreventive agents *in vitro* and *in vivo*. MAPKs have been shown to be involved in Nrf2-mediated gene regulation elicited by chemopreventive agents (73, 135). The activation of extracellular signal-regulated kinase (ERK) is required for the nuclear translocation of Nrf2 during the pyrrolidine dithiocarbamate induction of glutamate cysteine ligase modulatory gene expression in HepG2 cells (140). Huang *et al.* (46) first showed that protein kinase C (PKC) was involved in the activation of Nrf2 in response to antioxidants such as *tert*-butylhydroquinone (tBHQ) and β -naphthoflavone by showing that PKC inhibitors such as staurosporine could block Nrf2 activation. Further studies demonstrated that PKC could directly phosphorylate Nrf2 at Ser⁴⁰ in response to tBHQ challenge, and that the phosphorylation of Nrf2 by PKC decreased the affinity of Nrf2 to Keap1, thus releasing Nrf2 from the complex and translocating it to the nucleus (13, 47). By using chemical inhibitors to investigate signaling pathways, phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase (PI3K) was shown to be involved in the activation of Nrf2-mediated gene expression triggered by antioxidants such as tBHQ or by oxidative stress, and treatment with PI3K inhibitors, such as LY294002 or wortmannin, significantly decreased the nuclear translocation of Nrf2 (63, 80). However, there is no evidence that activation of the PI3K signaling pathway leads to the phosphorylation of Nrf2. One hypothesis is that activation of the PI3K signaling pathway by antioxidants or by oxidative stress regulates the rearrangement of actin microfilaments and that the depolymerization of actin disrupts the Nrf2–Keap1 complex and increases the nuclear translocation of Nrf2 (63).

Agents that affect calcium homeostasis and protein glycosylation as well as physiological stresses such as hypoxia and glucose deprivation can disrupt the proper protein folding within the endoplasmic reticulum (ER). The unfolded protein response or ER stress can specifically activate PERK-like ER eIF2 α kinase (PERK), which belongs to the eIF2 α family and phosphorylates its putative substrate, eIF2 α . Interestingly, Cullinan and Diehl (24) and Cullinan *et al.* (25) demonstrated that Nrf2 is a direct PERK substrate and that PERK-dependent phosphorylation is both necessary and sufficient to trigger dissociation of the Nrf2/Keap1 complex, thereby promoting Nrf2 nuclear import. Furthermore, the Nrf2 nuclear translocation activated by PERK is independent of the phosphorylation of eIF2 α and is unlikely to result from the generation of ROS following ER stress since the antioxidant *N*-acetylcysteine did not block Nrf2 nuclear translocation.

Once in the nucleus, Nrf2 can bind not only to the specific ARE sequence on the target genes but also to other *trans*-acting factors that can coordinately regulate gene transcription with Nrf2. Among these *trans*-acting factors, the small

Maf proteins such as MafG and MafK have been reported to dimerize specifically with Nrf2 to regulate its transcriptional activity negatively (54, 84, 91). Recent studies indicated that cyclic AMP responsive element binding protein (CBP) can bind directly to the Nrf2 transactivation domain or to another member of the p160 protein family, ARE-binding protein-1 (68, 139). Furthermore, previous reports have shown that CBP can be phosphorylated by MAPK and that phosphorylation of the C-terminal activation domain of CBP by the MAPK cascades leads to enhanced transcriptional activity. Recently, MAPK signaling molecules, *e.g.*, Raf, have been shown to up-regulate Nrf2 transactivation synergistically with CBP in the reporter transient transfection systems (109), suggesting another role of MAPK in the regulation of Nrf2-mediated gene transcription.

The last proposed mechanism of regulating the Nrf2 signaling pathway involves Nrf2 autoregulation through an ARE-like element located in the proximal region of its promoter, leading to persistent nuclear accumulation of Nrf2 and subsequent induction of phase II genes. Using murine keratinocyte PE cells, Kwak *et al.* (76) found that Nrf2 mRNA levels increased approximately twofold at 6 h after treatment of the anticarcinogen ³H-1,2-dithiole-3-thione. Further studies identified two ARE-like sequences in the promoter region of the Nrf2 gene, and a chromatin immunoprecipitation assay demonstrated the direct binding of Nrf2 to its own promoter.

In summary, chemopreventive agents activate Nrf2-mediated gene expression either by directly modifying the cysteine residues on Keap1 to disrupt the Nrf2-Keap1 complex, or by activating kinase signaling pathways such as MAPKs, PKC, and PI3K to phosphorylate the Nrf2/Keap1 complex and facilitate the release of Nrf2, or to increase the nuclear translocation of Nrf2 and regulate the transcriptional activity of Nrf2 nuclear co-activators. Although there is no direct evidence that chemopreventive agents can interact with the PERK signaling pathway, the identification of the PERK regulation pathway provided additional insight into the complexity of the cellular kinase signaling pathways that regulate Nrf2-mediated gene expression. It should also be noted that there are controversial results regarding the role of specific kinase signaling pathway. Because most studies use kinase inhibitors to perform the experiments, it is possible that some kinase inhibitors themselves may directly affect the regulation of Phase II or antioxidant gene transcription in addition to blocking kinase activation (64).

REGULATION OF NF- κ B SIGNALING PATHWAYS

NF- κ B is a family of transcription factors originally recognized in regulating gene expression in B cell lymphocytes. The basic characteristics and regulation mechanisms of NF- κ B have been extensively reviewed elsewhere (37, 106). The NF- κ B/Rel family includes six members: NF- κ B1 (p50 and its precursor p105), NF- κ B2 (p52 and its precursor p100), RelA (p65), RelB (p68), c-Rel (p75), and v-Rel. Although all the members can bind DNA, only p65, c-Rel, and RelB contain a transactivation domain. Except for RelB, all NF- κ B

members can form homodimers as well as heterodimers with each other; however, the most prevalent activated form found in eukaryotes is the p50/p65 (NF- κ B1/RelA) heterodimer. All RelA family members share the 300-amino acid Rel homology domain that is involved in dimerization, nuclear translocation, sequence-specific consensus DNA recognition, and interaction with inhibitory- κ B (I κ B) proteins (I κ B α , I κ B β , I κ B ϵ). In resting or unstimulated cells, the NF- κ B heterodimer, composed mainly of NF- κ B1 (p50) and RelA (p65), is sequestered in the cytoplasm by the binding of inhibitor I κ Bs (Fig. 4). The binding of I κ Bs to NF- κ B masks the nuclear localization sequence on NF- κ B, retaining it in the cytosol. When cells receive the signals that activate NF- κ B signaling pathways, I κ B α is phosphorylated by the I κ B kinase (IKK) complex (consisting of two catalytic subunits, IKK α and IKK β , and a regulatory subunit, IKK γ) at its Ser/Thr residues, causing subsequent ubiquitination and proteolytic degradation (50, 60). The exposure of the nuclear localization sequence of the NF- κ B complex results in nuclear translocation mediated by the nuclear import machinery, leading to activation of transcription of NF- κ B target genes.

Although the role of NF- κ B signaling pathways in regulating immunoregulatory functions has been well accepted, accumulated evidence has also indicated the involvement of NF- κ B signaling pathways in tumorigenesis/carcinogenesis (12, 106). In addition, inappropriate regulation of NF- κ B is also involved in neurodegenerative diseases, ataxia telangiectasia, arthritis, and asthma (66). Activation of NF- κ B has been associated with apoptotic cell death, either promoting or inhibiting apoptosis depending on the cell type and conditions (8, 15). In most cells, however, activation of NF- κ B is believed to protect cells from apoptotic stimuli, presumably *via* the induction of survival genes (66). Therefore, the NF- κ B pathway has become an important target of cancer therapeutic/chemopreventive approaches. Inhibition of this pathway by some phytochemicals and synthetic drugs can either prevent cancer development or inhibit cancer cell growth in animal models (12).

Regulation of NF- κ B is a complicated process. In addition to being activated by canonical cytokine-mediated pathways, NF- κ B can also be activated by other stimuli such as tumor necrosis factor (TNF- α), T and B cell mitogens, bacterial lipopolysaccharide (LPS), viruses, ultraviolet (UV) light, γ -rays, and oxidative stress (66, 89). Many of these stimuli trigger the NF- κ B cascade primarily by activating the IKK complex and largely through signaling cross-talk involving the MAPK pathway (56, 105), PKC pathway (87), TNF- α receptor (94), and G-protein-coupled receptor signaling pathway (110). Moreover, there are other signaling factors that act more directly *via* the I κ Bs or phosphorylation of the NF- κ B subunit p65 (123). Finally, some signaling pathways achieve their regulatory effects by modulating the interaction of NF- κ B and its co-activators, such as CBP/P300, on the promoter of target genes (138). In many cell lines derived from human cancers, such as leukemia (39), prostate (49), breast (70), and pancreatic (126) cancer, the NF- κ B signaling pathway is constitutively activated. All the above observations suggest that NF- κ B could be a promising target for cancer chemopreventive agents. In trying to elucidate the mechanism by which dietary constituents exert their chemopreventive effects, re-

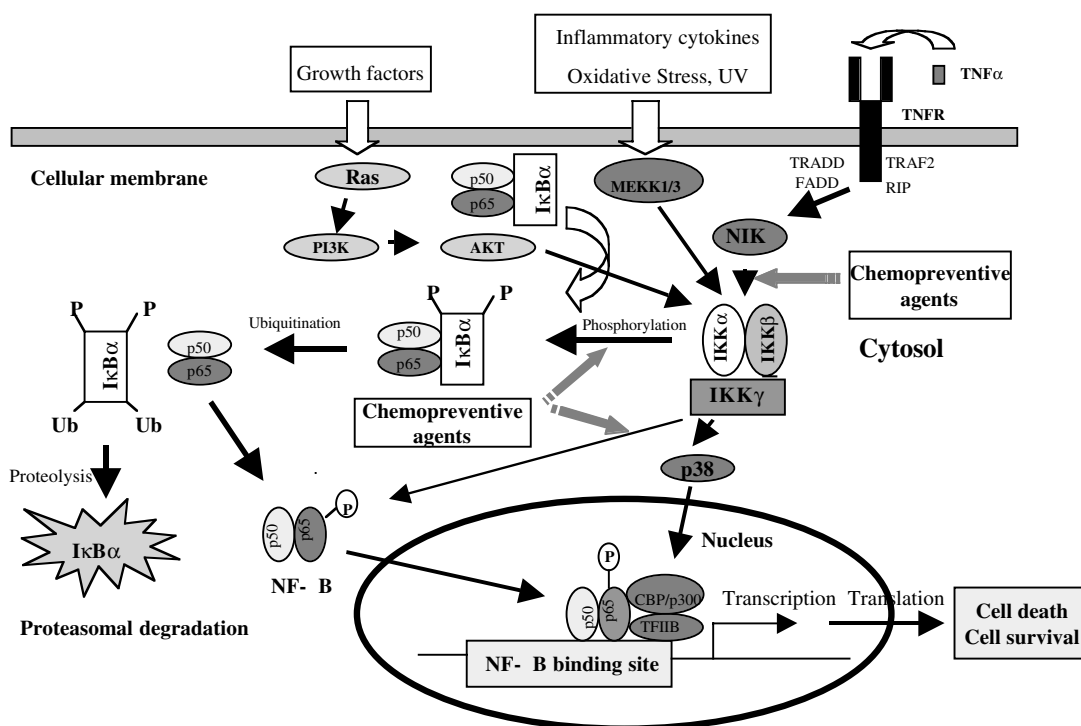


FIG. 4. Regulation of NF-κB signaling pathway by chemopreventive agents. NF-κB activation can be induced by the binding of TNF-α to its receptor, the inflammatory cytokine- and oxidative stress-triggered MAPK cascade, and the growth factor-activated PI3K cascade. Activation of the IκB kinase (IKK) complex by NF-κB-inducing kinase (NIK) and MEK kinases (MEKKs) results in the phosphorylation and degradation of IκBα and the release of the NF-κB dimer. The NF-κB then translocates into the nucleus and activates the transcription of target genes involved in cell survival or death events. IKKs can also modulate NF-κB activity by directly phosphorylating the Rel/p65 subunit. Chemopreventive agents can suppress the activation of NF-κB by blocking the activation of IKKs, blocking phosphorylation of IκBα and the direct phosphorylation of p65 subunit. Alternatively, chemopreventive compounds by themselves might activate the NF-κB pathway, especially at low concentrations. FADD, Fas-associated death domain; RIP, regulated intramembrane proteolysis; TNFR, TNF receptor; TRADD, TNF receptor-associated death domain; TRAF2, TNF receptor-associated factor 2; Ub, ubiquinone.

searchers have noted that several chemopreventive phytochemicals can either abrogate the activation of NF-κB signaling induced by carcinogens or tumor-promoting agents or suppress the basal level of NF-κB activity in many cancer cell lines (12). Most interestingly, these chemopreventive agents can sensitize tumors to chemotherapeutic drugs by blocking the activation of NF-κB elicited by chemotherapeutic agents (12). However, since the NF-κB pathway may involve many converging signaling pathways, it is important to understand how different chemopreventive agents differentially modulate the NF-κB pathway. Below, we discuss our current knowledge and understanding of the modulatory activities of natural chemopreventive agents on NF-κB pathways.

Of the natural chemopreventive agents, isothiocyanates and phenolic compounds have gained much attention. Isothiocyanates such as sulforaphane, phenylethyl isothiocyanate (PEITC), and allyl isothiocyanate (AITC) are a group of dietary phytochemicals derived from cruciferous vegetables. These compounds are well known for their ability to induce Phase II enzymes and chemopreventive effects. Our study (58) has shown these three isothiocyanates dose-dependently inhibited the LPS-induced NF-κB-luciferase reporter activity in HT-29 cells stably expressing the NF-κB-luciferase re-

porter. Specifically, this inhibition was associated with the blocking of LPS-induced IκBα phosphorylation. Studies by another group have produced similar results with sulforaphane, confirming its ability to reduce DNA binding of NF-κB in macrophages without interfering with LPS-induced degradation of the IκBα or with nuclear translocation of NF-κB (41). However, benzyl isothiocyanate (BITC) at 25 μM increases NF-κB binding to its binding site in unstimulated HT-29 cells, reaching a maximum at around 6 h (97).

Studies have shown that green tea, black tea, or tea polyphenol preparations have inhibitory effects on carcinogenesis in rodent animal models (67, 131). A major component of green tea extracts is (–)-epigallocatechin gallate (EGCG). EGCG is an antioxidant that efficiently scavenges $\cdot\text{OH}$ and O_2^- radicals (111), and it is also well known for its cancer chemopreventive effects. Many *in vitro* studies have shown that EGCG can modulate cell cycle progression and induce apoptosis (3, 19). The anti-promoting effects of EGCG have been attributed to its ability to modulate the NF-κB signaling pathway. Nomura *et al.* (93) demonstrated that EGCG and theaflavins inhibit 12-*O*-tetradecanoylphorbol 13-acetate (TPA)-induced NF-κB activity by blocking the TPA-induced phosphorylation of IκBα at Ser³². Moreover,

the NF- κ B and target DNA binding activity induced by TPA was also blocked by tea-derived polyphenols in the JB6 mouse epidermal cell line. In HT-29 cells, EGCG was shown to diminish the LPS-induced I κ B α phosphorylation and cause dramatic activation of caspase-3 (58). In this study, however, tea catechins including epicatechin, epicatechin gallate, epigallocatechin, and EGCG had little effect or slightly stimulatory effects on the LPS-induced NF- κ B-luciferase activity at concentrations up to 100 μ M.

Resveratrol, derived from grape skin, has been studied for its role in the regulation of NF- κ B in several experimental systems. In female Sprague-Dawley rats (11), receiving a resveratrol-supplemented diet in addition to 7,12-dimethylbenz[*a*]anthracene significantly reduced tumor incidence as well as average number of tumors compared with those treated with 7,12-dimethylbenz[*a*]anthracene alone. The latency to onset of tumor development was prolonged by 3 weeks relative to the control animals. Gel shift assay of the mammary tissue indicated resveratrol significantly suppresses the NF- κ B activity. An *in vitro* study using human breast MCF-7 cells indicated that resveratrol could suppress TNF-induced NF- κ B activation. Like most NF- κ B inhibitors, resveratrol blocks the phosphorylation and degradation of I κ B α (44). More directly, resveratrol also blocks the phosphorylation of the p65 subunit, which is required for transactivation function (83). It has been postulated that activation of NF- κ B expression may be associated with the progression of epithelial cells to a malignant phenotype (70), and aberrant expression of NF- κ B in human breast cancer specimens has been reported (115). Resveratrol may attenuate the early critical steps involved in carcinogen-driven transformation of mammary epithelial cells. In another study, resveratrol was shown to protect SKH-1 hairless mice from UVB-mediated cutaneous damage. Mechanistic studies in normal epidermal keratinocytes indicated that resveratrol blocked the UVB-mediated activation of NF- κ B in a dose- and time-dependent manner, probably by inhibiting UVB-mediated phosphorylation and degradation of I κ B α and activation of IKK α (1). However, our *in vitro* studies using the stable human colon carcinoma HT-29 cells expressing an NF- κ B-luciferase reporter indicated that resveratrol treatment dramatically induced the LPS-induced NF- κ B-luciferase at doses between 25 and 100 μ M and showed an inhibition of LPS-induced phosphorylation of I κ B α at 50 μ M. This suggests the involvement of other mechanism(s) that might be independent of I κ B α phosphorylation (58). This result was supported in part by the inability of resveratrol to reduce cell viability at 50 μ M, indicating the involvement of a protective mechanism due to activation of NF- κ B by resveratrol at the given concentration.

Curcumin, the main yellow coloring component of turmeric, has displayed anticarcinogenic effects in many animal models (118). In human non-small cell lung carcinoma H1299 cells, pretreatment with curcumin abolished DNA binding of NF- κ B, I κ B α kinase activation, and I κ B α phosphorylation and degradation induced by cigarette smoke, a major cause of malignancies including esophageal and lung cancers (112). In the study performed by Chun *et al.* (21), curcumin treatment attenuated NF- κ B activation following topical application of TPA in ICR mouse skin by blocking the phosphorylation and degradation of the inhibitory protein

I κ B α . The curcumin treatment also decreased the NF- κ B DNA binding activity as indicated by gel shift assay. Further study indicated that the MAPK ERK pathway positively regulated NF- κ B activity by inhibiting the phosphorylation of I κ B α , and that curcumin blocked the activation of ERK induced by TPA. Therefore, curcumin might exert its inhibitory effect on NF- κ B activity by inhibiting the degradation of I κ B α as well as the activation of the ERK.

Quercetin, a major flavonoid present in the human diet, has been widely studied for its protective role in cardiovascular systems. In human aortic smooth muscle cells (85), quercetin potentially inhibited NF- κ B binding activities to repress TNF- α -induced matrix metalloproteinase-9 expression and induced G1 cell cycle arrest. Baicalein and wogonin are flavonoids isolated from the root of the Chinese herb *Scutellaria baicalensis*, which exert anti-inflammatory and antioxidant effects. In the studies performed by Lee *et al.* (79) and Suk *et al.* (116), both baicalein and wogonin inhibited LPS-induced nitric oxide production and suppressed inducible NO synthase induction and NF- κ B activation in BV-2 microglial cells. Although the exact mechanism by which baicalein and wogonin inhibit NF- κ B activation was not elucidated in these two studies, the authors suggested that the antioxidant properties of the two flavonoids might contribute to the blocking effect.

Silymarin is another polyphenolic flavonoid mixture known to have hepatoprotective, anti-inflammatory, and anticarcinogenic effects. In the murine macrophage-like cell line RAW 264, silymarin blocked the LPS-induced DNA binding activity of NF- κ B/Rel (62), and this effect was mediated by inhibiting the degradation of the inhibitory factor I κ B α . Further study showed that silymarin suppressed the production of ROS generated by H₂O₂. Thus, the radical-scavenging activity of silymarin may explain its inhibitory effect on NF- κ B/Rel activation.

CAPE is a natural honeybee product exhibiting a wide variety of biological effects including antioxidant and antitumor functions. CAPE has chemopreventive effects in intestinal, colon, and skin cancer models. CAPE also protects against the induction of γ -glutamyl transpeptidase-positive altered hepatic foci during promotion in hepatocarcinogenesis. Additionally, CAPE decreases the nuclear localization of the p65 subunit of NF- κ B by up to 85%. While this decrease was independent of I κ B α phosphorylation or degradation, the mechanism of the down-regulation of p65 subunit in the nucleus by CAPE remains unclear (17).

Lupeol is a triterpene found in common fruits such as olive and mango. It has been recognized as a chemopreventive agent because of its biological properties, including strong antioxidant, antimutagenic, and anti-inflammatory effects. In a mouse skin tumorigenesis model (102), topical application of lupeol significantly reduced TPA-mediated tumor incidence and tumor body burden as well as delayed the latency period for tumor appearance. These effects were associated with the inhibition of TPA-induced activation of NF- κ B and IKK α and degradation and phosphorylation of I κ B α .

Capsaicin is a pungent component of red pepper that exhibits profound anticarcinogenic and antimutagenic activities. Topical application of capsaicin onto the dorsal skin of female ICR mice prior to TPA application significantly attenuates TPA-induced NF- κ B activation in the skin (119). Capsaicin can also block the TNF-mediated activation of NF- κ B

in human myeloid ML-1a cells and block the degradation of I κ B (113).

Vitamin C (ascorbic acid) is one of the most important physiological antioxidants. When administered at high doses, vitamin C has been suggested to have both a preventative and therapeutic role in a number of pathologies including cancer, atherosclerosis, and viral infections such as those with human immunodeficiency virus. Vitamin C was shown to block interleukin-1- and TNF-mediated degradation and phosphorylation of I κ B α by inhibiting IKK activation (16). Inhibition of TNF-driven IKK activation is mediated by the rapid and sustained activation of p38 MAPK. Moreover, inhibition of NF- κ B activation by vitamin C is probably not due to an antioxidant effect because redox-insensitive pathways to NF- κ B are also blocked (16).

Carnosol is a phytopolyphenol found in rosemary that accounts for most of the herb's antioxidant activities. Carnosol inhibited the binding of benzo[a]pyrene to epidermal DNA, tumor initiation by 7,12-dimethylbenz[a]anthracene and tumor promotion by TPA in the mouse skin experimental model (48, 114). Treatment of mouse macrophage RAW 264.7 cell line with carnosol remarkably reduced LPS-stimulated NF- κ B activation by blocking NF- κ B subunit translocation and NF- κ B DNA binding activity. Similar to vitamin C, carnosol also inhibited LPS-induced phosphorylation, degradation of I κ B α , and p38 kinase activation (82). The contradictory role of p38 kinase in the regulation of NF- κ B activation in the vitamin C and carnosol studies suggests that the effects of p38 in NF- κ B signaling pathways may be cell line dependent, stimuli dependent, and time dependent.

Schubert *et al.* (104) investigated the mechanism of the inhibition of NF- κ B activation in vascular endothelial cells by the natural antioxidants pomegranate, red winem and *N*-acetylcysteine. Although these antioxidants could potentially inhibit TNF- α -induced NF- κ B activation by blocking NF- κ B nuclear translocation and by inhibiting DNA binding activity, pomegranate and *N*-acetylcysteine were unable to inhibit TNF- α -induced Ser^{32/36} phosphorylation and degradation of I κ B α . Surprisingly, these antioxidants alone could induce the phosphorylation of I κ B α at sites other than Ser^{32/36}, and this phosphorylation did not affect the degradation of I κ B α or NF- κ B nuclear translocation. Additionally, *N*-acetylcysteine could block the TNF- α -induced direct phosphorylation of p65 on Ser⁵³⁶. Further studies would be needed in the future.

Taken together, NF- κ B signaling involves several complex mechanisms, and different chemopreventive agents differentially regulate this signaling pathway. Additional intensive studies on the regulation of NF- κ B and other signaling pathways by these compounds are required. In addition, the biological consequences elicited by these natural agents need further elucidation of the chemopreventive mechanisms and functions that are involved.

REGULATION OF AP-1 SIGNALING PATHWAYS

Although AP-1 was one of the first mammalian transcription factors identified, its physiological function has yet to be fully understood. AP-1 activity can be regulated by a large va-

riety of stimuli including pro-inflammatory cytokines, growth factors, oxidative stress, and tumor promoters (6). AP-1-mediated gene transcription is involved in a wide range of cellular events such as cell proliferation, cell cycle control, apoptosis, differentiation, and tumorigenesis. AP-1 is a dimeric transcription factor which composed basic leucine-zipper family members including Jun (c-Jun, JunB, and JunD), Fos (c-Fos, FosB, Fra1, and Fra2), ATF (ATF2, B-ATF, JDP1, and JDP2), and Maf (MafA, MafB, c-Maf, and MafG/F/K) protein families (31, 108). The AP-1 dimer complex can recognize the TPA response element or cyclic AMP response element within the promoter region of target genes. AP-1 dimer activity is regulated by transcriptional regulation of individual subunits, dimer composition, post-translational modification of the subunits, and the interactions between the dimer and other proteins (Fig. 5). Two of the components, Jun and Fos, are the most common members in this group. Unlike Jun proteins, Fos proteins cannot homodimerize but form heterodimers with Jun proteins to enhance their DNA binding activities. Among the Fos protein subfamilies, only c-Fos and FosB contain transcriptional activation domains, while Fra1 and Fra2 do not. c-Jun, c-Fos, and FosB are very potent mammalian transcription factors, and their roles in tumorigenesis have been widely investigated. Studies based on cell culture models indicate that all of them can efficiently transform cells (6, 59) and that the activation of AP-1 is important in traversing tumor promotion and/or progression stages (30). Inhibition of Fos and Jun expression in mouse fibroblasts and erythroleukemia cells has demonstrated their requirement for proliferation and cell cycle progression (107). In mice overexpressing c-Fos, Wang *et al.* (127) demonstrated the correlation between c-Fos expression levels and chondrogenic tumor development. c-Jun was shown to be more important in the development of skin and liver tumors (28). For example, down-regulation of c-Jun/AP-1 activity using a dominant-negative c-Jun (TAM67) in basal keratinocytes or conditional inactivation of c-Jun in the liver interferes with the development of chemically induced papillomas and liver tumors, respectively (32, 134). However, some Jun (JunB and JunD) and Fos family proteins suppress tumor formation (26, 96, 98). Whether AP-1 is oncogenic or anti-oncogenic depends on the cell type, its differentiation state, its tumor stage, and the genetic background of the tumor (5, 81).

With regards to the signaling pathways that regulate AP-1 activity in response to pro-inflammatory cytokines or exogenous stress, the major MAPK signaling pathways that include ERK, c-Jun NH₂-terminal kinase (JNK) and p38 cascades appear to be critical (18). For instance, once activated, JNKs translocate to the nucleus where they phosphorylate c-Jun and ATF2 to potentiate their transcription activities. The increased activity of c-Jun and ATF2 may result in the induction of c-Jun transcription as well as that of AP-1 target genes. Induction of AP-1 activity by the p38 MAPK pathway is mediated by its direct phosphorylation and activation of ATF2. The ERK pathway is also involved in the regulation of AP-1 activity since constitutive expression of activated oncogenes such as Ha-*ras* results in elevated AP-1 activity (43, 103). PI3K has also been shown to cross-talk with JNK to regulate AP-1 activity in response to interleukin-1 (36). MAPK cascades can also directly modulate the expression of c-Fos. c-Fos contains a serum response element in the

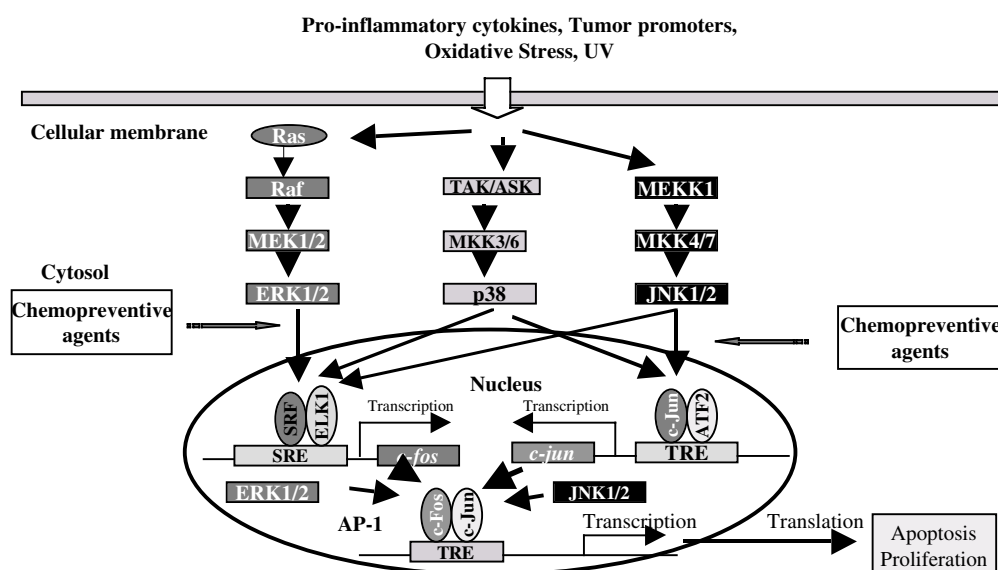


FIG. 5. The AP-1 signaling pathway and possible modulation by chemopreventive agents. MAPK signaling pathways such as ERK, JNK, and p38 cascades can phosphorylate and regulate the transcriptional activities of transcription factors such as ELK1, c-Jun, and ATF2 that are involved in the transcription of AP-1 genes, including *c-fos* and *c-jun*. Activation of ERK and JNK pathways can also increase the activities of the AP-1 proteins c-Fos and c-Jun, respectively. By blocking the activation of the MAPK cascades elicited by tumor promoters, oxidative stress, or UV irradiation, chemopreventive agents can suppress the resulting AP-1 activation. Nevertheless, some chemopreventive compounds by themselves can also activate the AP-1 signaling pathway at low concentrations. MKK, MEK kinase; SRE, serum response element; SRF, serum response factor; TAK/ASK, transforming growth factor- β -activated kinase/apoptosis signal-regulating kinase; TRE, transforming growth factor- β response element.

promoter region that interacts with a transcription factor complex containing dimeric serum response factor and ELK1. The MAPKs can phosphorylate and activate ELK1, thereby inducing the expression of c-Fos (65, 128). Activation of MAPK pathways also appears to stimulate the transcriptional activities of AP-1 components as well as to increase the abundance of their proteins (128). Since regulation of the AP-1 pathway is highly complicated and activation of AP-1 can contribute to cell survival or cell death by regulating different set of genes involved in cell proliferation, differentiation, apoptosis, angiogenesis, and tumor invasion, many researchers are currently extensively studying the modulation of AP-1 activity by various chemopreventive agents.

Several isothiocyanates have been studied for their regulatory effects on AP-1. BITC treatment at 25 μ M in HT-29 cells results in increased AP-1 DNA binding activity and induction of AP-1 activity associated with an earlier activation of JNK (97). This result is consistent with our recent study showing that PEITC and sulforaphane induced AP-1-luciferase activity, though induction only occurs at lower concentrations in HT-29 C-4 cells (57). Interestingly, AITC dose-dependently increased AP-1-luciferase activity at concentrations up to 50 μ M. In addition, the expression of endogenous cyclin D1, a gene under the control of AP-1, positively correlated with AP-1 luciferase activity induced by these isothiocyanates. Since some of the Phase II genes such as NAD(P)H:quinone reductase have AP-1 binding sites in the promoter region, the induction of AP-1 activity by low concentrations of isothiocyanates may be involved in the induction of Phase II or antioxidant enzymes such as HO-1 (74). A recent study on

N-acetylcysteine conjugates of BITC and PEITC compounds, which inhibit lung tumorigenesis in A/J mice after administration of the carcinogen benzo[*a*]pyrene, provided the first possible *in vivo* evidence that activation of MAPKs and AP-1 transcription factors may be involved in the chemopreventive activity of these compounds.

EGCG and theaflavins inhibit TPA- and epidermal growth factor-induced transformation of JB6 mouse epidermal cells at doses of 5–25 μ M (29). This finding correlates with the inhibition of AP-1 DNA binding and transcriptional activity. The inhibition of AP-1 activity by EGCG was associated with inhibition of JNK activation but not ERK activation. Interestingly, in another study where EGCG blocked the UVB-induced c-Fos activation in a human keratinocyte cell line HaCaT (20), inhibition of p38 activation was suggested as the major mechanism underlying the effects of EGCG. The role of MAPK pathways in the regulation of AP-1 activity by EGCG was further investigated in the Ha-*ras*-transformed JB6 cell line (22). Treatment of 30.7b Ras 12 cells (*Ras*-transformed mouse epidermal cells) with EGCG resulted in decreased levels of phosphorylated ERK1/2 and MAPK kinase (MEK) 1/2 without affecting JNK phosphorylation or p38 pathways. EGCG was also found to inhibit the association between Raf-1 (an upstream protein kinase) and MEK1. Similarly, treatment of Ha-*ras*-transformed human bronchial cells (21BES) with EGCG was shown to inhibit c-Jun and ERK1/2 phosphorylation as well as the phosphorylation of ELK1 and MEK1/2 (133). In contrast to these reports, EGCG has been shown to markedly increase AP-1 factor-associated responses through an MAPK signaling mechanism in normal

human keratinocytes, suggesting that the signaling mechanism of EGCG action could be markedly different in different cell types (9). Similarly, we found that EGCG treatment resulted in a dose-dependent increase in AP-1-luciferase activity at concentrations ranging from 20 to 100 μ M, and both 46- and 54-kDa isoforms of phospho-JNKs were activated by EGCG treatment in HT-29 C-4 cells (19, 57). Antioxidants, such as glutathione and *N*-acetyl-L-cysteine, can block the activation of the three MAPKs including JNK, ERK, and p38, suggesting that EGCG-induced oxidative stress might activate MAPK cascades as well as AP-1 activity (19). While *in vitro* studies showed that regulation of MAPKs by EGCG is highly cell line dependent, *in vivo* studies showed UVB-induced phosphorylation of ERK, JNK, and p38 can be blocked by EGCG treatment in the SKH-1 hairless mouse skin model (2, 122). This suggests that EGCG might inhibit the tumor initiator/promoter-induced AP-1 activity by blocking the activation of all three MAPK cascades.

Lagarigue *et al.* (78) showed that the flavonoid quercetin could inhibit the transformation of the rat liver epithelial (REL) cell line overexpressing c-Fos, suggesting that regulation of c-Fos/AP-1 complexes might be involved in the anti-transforming mechanism of quercetin. Pretreatment of RAW 264.7 macrophages with quercetin blocked LPS-induced TNF- α transcription. This effect of quercetin was mediated by inhibiting the phosphorylation and activation of JNK/stress-activated protein kinase, by suppressing AP-1 DNA binding, and by down-regulating the TNF- α transcription. Although quercetin can block the LPS-induced activation of ERK and p38, it has been suggested that these kinase pathways might not be involved in the quercetin-mediated inhibition of TNF- α transcription and AP-1 activity (124). Quercetin and other flavonoids, such as chalcone, flavone, and apigenin, stimulate AP-1 activity in AP-1-luciferase stable human endometrial adenocarcinoma Ishikawa cells and human embryonic kidney 293 cells. Further study using the GAL4 transcriptional activation system of c-Jun demonstrated that basal c-Jun activity is not strongly stimulated by flavonoids such as apigenin and that the phorbol 12-myristate-13-acetate-induced Gal4-c-Jun activity can be strongly blocked by apigenin (35). Interestingly, we found that low concentrations (<50 μ M) of flavonoids such as quercetin and apigenin increased AP-1 activity in a prostate cancer cell line stably expressing AP-1-luciferase reporter (authors unpublished data); however, at high flavonoid concentrations, the luciferase activity of the AP-1 reporter was inhibited. These studies suggest that regulation of basal AP-1 activity by flavonoids is also dependent on the concentration and chemical structure. Further *in vitro* and *in vivo* studies would be needed.

Resveratrol has been shown to inhibit the activity of AP-1 as demonstrated by several studies. One of the earliest reports used a gel shift assay to show that resveratrol inhibits TNF-dependent AP-1 activation in U-937 cells, and that pretreatment with resveratrol strongly attenuates TNF-activated JNK and MEK kinases (83). We have previously reported that pretreatment of HeLa cells with resveratrol inhibits the AP-1-luciferase reporter activity as well as the activation of ERK, JNK, and p38 kinases elicited by UVC and phorbol 12-myristate 13-acetate (136). Furthermore, the effects of resveratrol

on MAPK and AP-1 may involve the inhibition of both protein tyrosine kinases and PKC. More recently, Woo *et al.* (130) also reported that in CaSki cells resveratrol inhibited phorbol 12-myristate 13-acetate-induced matrix metalloproteinase-9 expression, which is mediated by the regulation of transcription factor AP-1. Moreover, resveratrol inhibited the activation of the kinases JNK and PKC- δ , which regulate matrix metalloproteinase-1 expression and converge at AP-1 signaling pathways. In the HT-29 model, AP-1-luciferase activity following treatment with resveratrol increased in a dose-dependent manner (1–50 μ M) but decreased at higher doses (75–100 μ M), while JNK activity was unaffected (57). The effects of resveratrol on AP-1 may appear to be cellular dependent, external stimuli dependent, as well as concentration dependent.

Curcumin has been shown to suppress the activation of TPA-induced AP-1 in HL-60 cells and Raji DR-LUC cells (38, 42). Curcumin treatment also suppresses constitutive AP-1 activity in the prostate cancer cell line LNCaP, PC-3 DU145 (88, 90). In our recent study (57), curcumin increased AP-1-luciferase activity dose-dependently and then decreased it at higher doses in the presence or absence of TPA stimulation in a HT-29 cell line stably transfected with a AP-1 luciferase reporter. Inhibition of AP-1 transcriptional activity by curcumin administration also correlated with inhibition of Lewis lung carcinoma (LLC) invasion in the orthotopic implantation model (51). More recently, curcumin was reported to suppress LPS-induced cyclooxygenase-2 gene expression by inhibiting AP-1 DNA binding in BV2 microglial cells (61).

SUMMARY

Chemopreventive agents derived from the human diet have gained much attention recently, as the cancer incidence remains high and the concept of cancer intervention by phytochemicals is more widely accepted. Because of the rapid progress in our understanding of the genetic and epigenetic mechanisms of tumorigenesis at the signal transduction level, more molecular targets have been identified for intervention at the initiation, promotion, and progression steps of tumor development. Among these are transcription factors such as Nrf2, NF- κ B, and AP-1. The signaling pathways mediated by these transcription factors in response to pro-inflammatory cytokines, growth factors, xenobiotics, oxidative stress, and tumor promoters can regulate a wide array of genes involved in many cellular events such as cell cycle control, differentiation, transformation, apoptosis, and tumorigenesis. Because of their potential role in preventing cancer development, the mechanisms by which phytochemicals regulate signaling pathways have been extensively studied. While many chemopreventive agents directly act on the Nrf2/ARE signaling pathway to induce detoxification and antioxidant enzyme systems, which may block tumor initiation in normal cells, others may exert anti-promotion or anti-progression effects by modulating the NF- κ B and AP-1 signaling pathways that are usually des-regulated in initiated or pre-cancerous cells.

Although experimental data from cell culture models provide valuable information about the molecular and cellular

mechanisms involved in the modulation of Nrf2, NF- κ B, and AP-1 signaling pathways, the signal transduction cascades between phytochemicals and transcription factors are still not fully understood both in cell culture models, and, more importantly, in *in vivo* tumor models. For instance, diametrically opposite theories exist in the current understanding of the relationship between regulation of these signaling pathways and tumorigenesis, especially the regulation of NF- κ B and AP-1 signaling pathways. One explanation for the observed difference in the literature could be related to the use of different cell lines or animal models and different concentration and type of chemopreventive agents; therefore different stimuli would have impinged upon the system. In the final analysis, it is quite likely that the roles of NF- κ B and AP-1 signaling pathways in response to chemoprevention are cell type and signal dependent and that the level and duration of inhibition and/or activation may also be important. While chemoprevention studies using animal models certainly provide promising results for the chemopreventive agents discussed in this article, future affirmative human clinical trials as well as epidemiological data would be needed to support their eventual chemopreventive potentials.

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ABBREVIATIONS

AITC, allylisothiocyanate; AP-1, activator protein-1; ARE, antioxidant response element; BITC, benzyl isothiocyanate; CAPE, caffeic acid phenethyl ester; CBP, cyclic AMP responsive element binding protein binding protein; EGCG, (–)-epigallocatechin-3-gallate; EpRE, electrophile response element; ER, endoplasmic reticulum; ERK, extracellular signal-regulated kinase; HO-1, heme oxygenase-1; I κ B, inhibitory- κ B; IKK, I κ B kinase; JNK, c-Jun NH₂-terminal kinase; Keap1, kelch-like ECH-associated protein-1; LPS, lipopolysaccharide; MAPK, mitogen-activated protein kinase; MEK, mitogen-activated protein kinase kinase; NF- κ B, nuclear factor- κ B; Nrf2, nuclear factor E2-related factor 2; PEITC, phenylethyl isothiocyanate; PERK, PKR-like ER eIF α kinase; ROS, reactive oxygen species; PI3K, phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase; PKC, protein kinase C; tBHQ, *tert*-butylhydroquinone; TNF, tumor necrosis factor; TPA, 12-*O*-tetradecanoylphorbol 13-acetate; UV, ultraviolet.

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