

## PROSPECTS

# Tissue Fibrosis and Carcinogenesis: Divergent or Successive Pathways Dictate Multiple Molecular Therapeutic Targets for Oligo Decoy Therapies

Kenneth R. Cutroneo,<sup>1\*</sup> Sheryl L. White,<sup>2</sup> Jen-Fu Chiu,<sup>3</sup> and H. Paul Ehrlich<sup>4</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Biochemistry, College of Medicine, 89 Beaumont Avenue, University of Vermont, Burlington, Vermont 05405

<sup>2</sup>Departments of Anatomy and Neurobiology, College of Medicine, University of Vermont, Burlington, Vermont 05405

<sup>3</sup>Department of Anatomy, University of Hong Kong, School of Medicine, Hong Kong, Peoples Republic of China

<sup>4</sup>Division of Plastic Surgery, Penn State University College of Medicine, Hershey, Pennsylvania 17033

**Abstract** The extracellular matrix (ECM) is composed of several families of macromolecular components: fibrous proteins such as collagens, type I collagen (COL1), type III collagen (COL3), fibronectin, elastin, and glycoconjugates such as proteoglycans and matrix glycoproteins. Their receptors on the cell membrane, most of which in the case of the ECM belong to the integrins, which are heterodimeric proteins composed of  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  chains. COL1 is the major fibrous collagen of bone, tendon, and skin; while COL3 is the more pliable collagen of organs like liver. Focus will not only be given to the regulation of synthesis of several fibrogenic parameters but also modulation of their degradation during growth factor-induced tissue fibrosis and cancer development. Evidence will be provided that certain tissues, which undergo fibrosis, also become cancerous. Why does there exist a divergency between tissues, which undergo frank fibrosis as an endpoint, and those tissues that undergo fibrosis and subsequently are susceptible to carcinogenicity; resulting from the etiological factor(s) causing the initial injury? For example, why does a polyvinyl alcohol (PVA) sponge implant become encapsulated and filled with fibrous tissue then fibrosis tissue growth stops? Why does the subcutaneous injection of a fibrogenic growth factor cause a benign growth and incisional wounding results in fibrosis and ultimately scarring? There are many examples of tissues, which undergo fibrosis as a prerequisite to carcinogenesis. Is there a cause-effect relationship? If you block tissue fibrosis in these precancerous tissues, would you block cancer formation? What are the molecular targets for blocking fibrosis and ultimately carcinogenesis? How can oligo decoys may be used to attenuate carcinogenesis and which oligo decoys specifically attenuate fibrogenesis as a prelude to carcinogenesis? What are other molecular targets for oligo decoy therapy in carcinogenesis? *J. Cell. Biochem.* 97: 1161–1174, 2006. © 2006 Wiley-Liss, Inc.

**Key words:** fibrosis; cancer; oligo decoys

### TISSUE FIBROSIS AND CARCINOGENESIS

Figure 1 shows the fibrosis pathway involving the initial tissue injury due to an etiological factor(s). For example infection is followed by inflammation, angiogenesis, proliferation of fibroblasts, the transition of fibroblasts into

myofibroblasts, the migration of smooth muscle cells into the injured area, and an increase in ECM synthesis. A decrease in ECM degradation results in increased ECM deposition, which are orchestrated by numerous profibrotic growth factors including transforming growth factor- $\beta$  (TGF- $\beta$ 1), connective tissue growth factor (CTGF), insulin-like growth factor (IGF), and platelet-derived growth factor (PDGF).

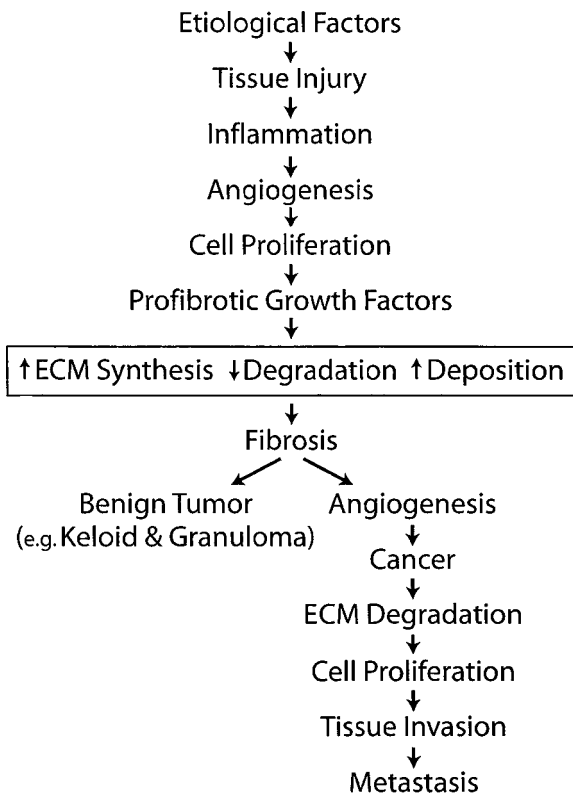
Fibrosis is common in the establishment of benign tumors and cancers. What is the biological signal(s) to divert a benign outcome to cancer? In spontaneous mouse C<sub>3</sub>H tumors [Cutroneo et al., 1972], there are increases of both prolyl hydroxylase (PH) activity and collagen synthesis. TGF- $\beta$ 1 is the most predominant profibrotic

\*Correspondence to: Kenneth R. Cutroneo, Department of Biochemistry, College of Medicine, 89 Beaumont Avenue, University of Vermont, Burlington, VT 05405.  
E-mail: kenneth.cutroneo@uvm.edu

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**Fig. 1.** Schematic diagram of the biochemical and molecular mechanisms of some tissues to form benign fibrous tumors and divergent stages of other tissues to undergo carcinogenesis.

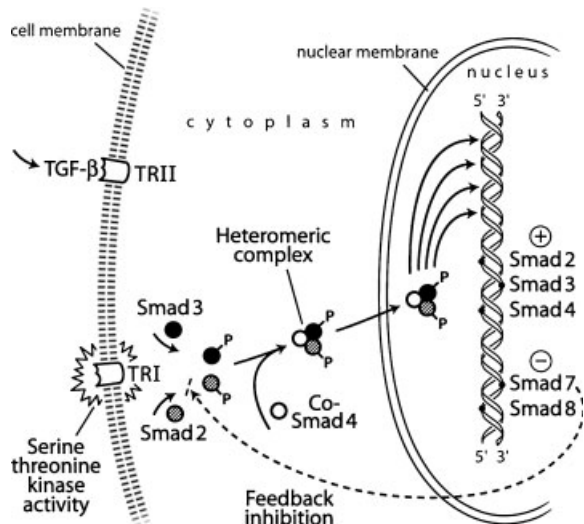
growth factor, causing tissue fibrosis as well as both pro-apoptotic signals and survival signals depending on the type of cancer cell.

A recent review reports various transacting factors, which bind to the promoter(s) of the type I collagen  $\alpha$  (*COL1A1*) and/or the *COL1A2* genes that activate the transcription of the gene(s) as molecular targets for oligo decoy gene therapy [Cutroneo, 2005]. Nuclear factor-kappa B (NF-KB) decoy therapy has led to the amelioration of collagen-induced arthritis in rats [Tomita et al., 1999]. ODN (oligo deoxynucleotide) decoy treatment has also proven to be a novel therapeutic in various cardiovascular diseases [Morishita et al., 2001; Kume et al., 2002; Tomita et al., 2003]. Phosphorothioate ODNs containing the TGF- $\beta$  element found in the distal promoter of the *COL1A1* gene are demonstrated as novel nonsteroidal antifibrotics to inhibit the early progression of schistosomiasis liver fibrosis [Cutroneo and Boros, 2002; Boros et al., 2005].

## TGF- $\beta$ AND SMAD MECHANISMS OF SIGNAL TRANSDUCING GENE EXPRESSION AND CARCINOGENESIS

A comprehensive overview of TGF- $\beta$ /SMAD signaling pathway is presented diagrammatically in Figure 2. Active TGF- $\beta$  binds to the TGF- $\beta$ II receptor that causes activation of the TGF- $\beta$ I receptor's intrinsic serine threonine activity. As a result Smad 2 and Smad 3 are phosphorylated. These phosphorylated Smads then form a heterometric complex with the unphosphorylated Co-Smad 4. This activated complex translocates into the nucleus, where in combination with certain co-activators turn on TGF- $\beta$ /SMAD sensitive genes. The Smad 6, 7, and 8 are Smad proteins that feedback and inhibit the TGF- $\beta$ /SMAD signaling pathway.

Focus will be on the regulation of Smads in relation to carcinogenesis and the regulation of these transcription factor proteins by TGF- $\beta$  treatment. TGF- $\beta$  plays a key role in breast cell carcinogenesis, where interfering with TGF- $\beta$ -induced Smad 3 nuclear accumulation suppresses certain genes involved in tumor invasiveness [Lindemann et al., 2003]. In pancreatic carcinomas, there is a strong correlation between defects in Co-Smad 4 and malignancy [Ramachandra et al., 2002]. In malignant choriocarcinoma cells, there is a resistance to TGF- $\beta$  signaling and a loss of Smad 3 expression [Xu et al., 2002]. The loss of Smad 3 expression also increases tumorigenicity in human gastric cancers and these tumors



**Fig. 2.** The TGF- $\beta$ 1/SMAD signaling pathway. Positive (+) and negative (-) Smad protein transcription factor regulators.

do not respond to growth inhibition by TGF- $\beta$ 1 treatment [Han et al., 2004]. However, when Smad 3 is introduced into gastric cancer cells, the responsiveness to TGF- $\beta$ 1 is restored. The overall intact SMAD signaling pathway appears necessary for TGF- $\beta$  inhibition of the expression of oncogenic genes and the arrest of tumor cell growth [Nicolas and Hill, 2003]. However, in another study, the TGF- $\beta$ /SMAD signaling pathway was shown functional in primary human ovarian cancer cells [Dunfield et al., 2002]. Therefore, if abnormalities in ovarian cancer cells' response to TGF- $\beta$  signaling exist, they must be downstream from the Smad proteins. As an example, the loss of c-Myc repression in ovarian cancer is related to TGF- $\beta$  growth arrest independent of the TGF- $\beta$ /SMAD signaling pathway [Baldwin et al., 2003].

A prelude to metastasis that is a multi-step process involves local tumor cell tissue invasion and the establishment of cancerous cell invasion at distant sites. Activated Smad 2 and H-ras become elevated when a differentiated squamous carcinoma changes from an epithelial cell type to a migratory mesenchymal tumor cell [Oft et al., 2002]. These findings pinpoint molecular targets for gene therapy in the prevention of tumor metastasis. A dominant negative Smad 2 mutation results in TGF- $\beta$  resistance in a human carcinoma cell line [Tsang et al., 2002]. The defective Smad 2 protein is not phosphorylated in response to TGF- $\beta$ 1, shows a decrease in forming a complex with Smad 3 and does not associate with Co-Smad 4. Smad 2 is mutated in the G2 human hepatoma cell line which is responsible for its cancerous phenotype [Dumont et al., 2003]. The mutant Smad 2 avoids ubiquitination and proteasome degradation and thus leads to dysregulated cell proliferation during tumorigenesis. Generally mutations in the Smad proteins produce a lack of TGF- $\beta$  signaling tumor growth arrest. Mutations of Smad 2 and Co-4 are common features in human cervical cancers [Maliekal et al., 2003]. There is a divergent effect of TGF- $\beta$  2/3 SMAD signaling in various breast cancer cell lines [Tian et al., 2003]. A reduction of Smad 2/3 signaling enhances tumorigenesis.

Depending on the hepatoma cells species, the TGF- $\beta$ 1 effects on cell-cycle arrest and apoptosis are different [Buenemann et al., 2001]. There is also cross-talk with the cellular stress death pathway, which ultimately leads to apoptosis

[Kim et al., 2004]. Activin receptor-like kinase-7 induces apoptosis through activation of the TGF- $\beta$  pathway components that results in the transcription of JNK and p38 activation. Smad 7, an inhibitory Smad, is a member of one of the super families of Smad proteins. The JNK cascade is essential for the potentiation of apoptosis by Smad 7 [Mazars et al., 2001]. TGF- $\beta$  involvement with Smad 7 plays an active role in causing apoptosis in prostatic carcinoma cells [Landstrom et al., 2000]. Inhibiting Smad 7 expression by ODN antisense in several cell lines eliminated TGF- $\beta$ 1 induction of apoptosis. TGF- $\beta$ 1-mediated prostate cancer cell apoptosis through Smad 7 is observed in several cell lines. The specific activation of the p38 mitogen-activated protein kinase pathway is by TGF- $\beta$ -activated kinase and mitogen-activated protein kinase 3 [Edlund et al., 2003]. TGF- $\beta$ 1 signaling is blunted by mutant Co-Smad 4 in SNU-216 gastric cancer cells, in which TGF- $\beta$ 1 does not cause an upregulation of TGF- $\beta$  receptors [Ju et al., 2003]. In pancreatic carcinomas, TGF- $\beta$  tumor suppressor activity is lost by an inactivation of Co-Smad 4, although Co-Smad 4-deficient cancer cells are partially driven by endogenous TGF- $\beta$  signaling [Subramanian et al., 2004]. Therefore, TGF- $\beta$  receptor RI may be a novel therapeutic target for this cancer. Co-Smad 4 deletion in pancreatic adenocarcinoma cells results in tumor invasion. Gene therapy for the restoration of Co-Smad 4 is a powerful tool to reverse this invasive phenotype [Duda et al., 2003]. The expression of Smad 7 in hepatocellular carcinomas (HCC) acts as a resistant mechanism to increased TGF- $\beta$ 1 in late stage hepatocarcinogenesis in advanced HCC without reducing TGF- $\beta$ II receptors [Park et al., 2004]. Co-Smad 4 expression in stellate cells of HCCs is involved in the host's resistance to hepatocarcinogenesis.

In cell lines derived from thyroid carcinoma, Co-Smad 4 expression is deleted. In addition, Smad 7, the inhibitory Smad protein, blocks the receptors and interrupts the phosphorylation of Smads 2/3. The inhibition of the TGF- $\beta$  response to Smad 7 overexpression may be a mechanism for tumor aggressiveness observed in undifferentiated thyroid tumors [Cerutti et al., 2003]. A Smad 8 gene alteration detected in a third of breast and colon cancers makes this inhibitory Smad protein a novel tumor marker as well as a potential therapeutic target [Cheng et al., 2004]. Epigenetic silencing of Smad 8

expression by promoter DNA hypermethylation in these cancers directly correlates with a loss of Smad 8 expression.

### INFLAMMATION, FIBROSIS, AND CARCINOGENESIS

The inflammatory response to liver injury caused by hepatitis type C and/or B viral infection leads to liver cirrhosis and eventually to HCC [Cutroneo and Chiu, 2003]. This inflammatory response is associated with an increase of the inducible cyclooxygenase-2 (COX-2) enzyme, which catalyzes the conversion of arachidonic acid to prostaglandins. These lipids inhibit apoptosis and promote tumor growth by increasing neoangiogenesis. The COX-2 enzyme is elevated in various tumors (Table I). Non-steroidal anti-inflammatory therapeutics, for example COX-2 inhibitors, are potent anti-carcinogenic agents (Table II). Prostaglandins are reduced in pulmonary fibrosis due to a decrease expression of the COX-2 enzyme by fibroblasts [Wilborn et al., 1995; Petkova et al., 2003], suggesting the utility of exogenous prostaglandins to suppress the fibrotic response of lung fibrosis.

Increased collagen synthesis is associated with spontaneous mouse mammary gland neoplasms [Cutroneo et al., 1972] and a cloned mouse mammary tumor cell line [Roesel et al., 1978]. PH activity has also been shown to be increased in Reuber hepatomas as compared to normal livers [Cutroneo and Scott, 1979]. Rats with liver cirrhosis that were fed an inhibitor of PH showed reduced fibrosis but the development of neoplasms [Sakaida et al., 1994].

Fibrosis is promoted by an immune response [Vaage, 1992]. The fibrous capsule may halt

tumor growth, resulting in the development of a benign tumor, which is shielded from systemic immune mechanisms [Vaage, 1992a,b]. In human breast cancer, fibrotic foci are found in some intraductal carcinomas but not in others [Hasebe et al., 1998]. Fibrotic foci are associated with high tumor aggressiveness. Intraductal carcinomas with diffuse fibrosis are associated with a myoepithelial immunophenotype carcinoma cells [Tamiolakis et al., 2002]. Fibrotic foci in invasive breast carcinomas correlate with carbonic anhydrase, hypoxia, and hypoxia inducible factor (HIF)-driven angiogenesis [Colpaert et al., 2003]. Fibrotic foci may be an indicator of tumor angiogenesis and an independent indicator of early metastasis in lymph node negative breast cancer patients [Colpaert et al., 2001]. However, in another inflammatory breast cancer report, there was a lack of angiogenesis and fibrosis [Shirakawa et al., 2001].

TGF- $\beta$ -mediated growth inhibition of metastatic mammary carcinoma cells is observed. On the other hand, TGF- $\beta$  signaling through the SMAD pathway is required for tumor invasion and metastasis [McEarchern et al., 2001]. Both neoplastic and stromal cells of lung adenocarcinomas with stromal fibrosis are invasive cancers with metastatic activity that show the expression of MMP-7 (gelatinase A) and tissue inhibitor of metalloproteinase-2 (TIMP-2) [Kitamura et al., 1999]. A section on matrix metalloproteinases (MMPs), TIMPs, and carcinogenesis will be presented later.

A strong correlation was found between pancreatic fibrosis and pancreatic cancer [for rev. see Menke and Adler, 2002]. The expression and occurrence of fibrotic foci in advanced pancreatic ductal cancers correlates closely to

**TABLE I. The Cox-2 Enzyme in Various Cancer Types**

Cancer type	References
Pancreatic	Kokawa et al., <i>Cancer</i> 91:333 (2001)
Esophageal	Shirvani et al., <i>Gastroenterol.</i> 118:487 (2000)
Bladder	Yoshimura et al., <i>J. Urology</i> 165:1468 (2001)
Gastric	Ohno et al., <i>Cancer</i> 91:1876 (2001)
Lung	Brabender et al., <i>Ann. Surgery</i> 235:440 (2002)
Colon	Cianchi et al., <i>Gastroenterol.</i> 121:1339 (2001)
Breast	Soslow et al., <i>Cancer</i> 89:2637 (2000)
Head and neck squamous cell carcinomas	Jaekel et al., <i>Arch. Otolaryngology—Head &amp; Neck Surg.</i> 127:1253 (2001)
Prostate	Yoshimura et al., <i>Cancer</i> 89:589 (2000)
Retinoblastoma	Karim et al., <i>J. Ophthalmol.</i> 129:398 (2000)
Thyroid	Nose et al., <i>Am. J. Clin. Pathol.</i> 117:546 (2002)
Ovarian	Denkert et al., <i>Am. J. Pathol.</i> 160:893 (2002)
Cervix	Sales et al., <i>J. Clin. Endocrinol &amp; Metab.</i> 86:2243 (2001)
Endometrial	Ferrandina et al., <i>Cancer</i> 95:801 (2002)

**TABLE II. The Effect of Nonsteroid Drugs as Cox-2 Inhibitors on Various Cancer**

Cancer type	Nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drug	References
Hepatocellular carcinoma	NS-398	Cheng et al., <i>Int. J. Cancer</i> 99:755 (2002)
Colon	Celecoxib	Reddy et al., <i>Cancer Res.</i> 60:293 (2000)
Breast	SC-236	Connolly et al., <i>Brit. J. Cancer</i> 87:231 (2002)
Lung	Nimesulide	Hida et al., <i>Clin. Cancer Res.</i> 6:2006 (2000)
Skin	Celecoxib	Orengo et al., <i>Arch. Dermatol.</i> 138:751 (2002)
Prostate	NS-398	Liu et al., <i>J. Urology</i> 164:820 (2000)
Leukemia	NS-398, Nabumetone	Nakanishi et al., <i>Eur. J. Cancer</i> 37:1570 (2001)
Tongue	Nimesulide	Shiotani et al., <i>Cancer Res.</i> 61:1451 (2001)
Oral	Celecoxib	Wang et al., <i>Laryngoscope</i> 112:839 (2002)
Bladder	Celecoxib	Grubbs et al., <i>Cancer Res.</i> 60:5599 (2000)
Neuroectodermal	Celecoxib	Patti et al., <i>Cancer Lett.</i> 189:13 (2002)
Brain	SC-236	Portnow et al., <i>Neuro-Oncol.</i> 4:22 (2002)

poor patient survival. Proteinase-activator receptor-2 expression is presumably related to pancreatic fibrosis and cancer cell invasion of the pancreas [Ikeda et al., 2003].

TGF- $\beta$ 1 is secreted by gastric precancer cells, which causes an increase of collagen production by fibroblasts and the transition of fibroblasts into myofibroblasts [Mahara et al., 1994]. Therefore, a close correlation of fibrosis of various tissues and their potential oncological transformation exists. The induction of fibrosis by profibrotic growth factors (Fig. 1) and most importantly by TGF- $\beta$ 1, can produce apoptosis, cause ECM encapsulation, and the development of a benign tumor or promote cancerous under the control of increased HIF-1 or possibly other factors.

#### GROWTH FACTORS AND A TRANSCRIPTION FACTOR INVOLVED IN CARCINOGENESIS

Benign prostatic hyperplasia is characterized by proliferation of both epithelial cells and fibroblasts. Fibroblast growth factors (FGF)-2, 7, 9, and 17 [Polnaszek et al., 2004] are expressed in this hyperplastic tissue. There may be a cause-effect relationship between increased FGF-17 and increased epithelial cell proliferation. Is there another factor that is a marker for the benign or the malignant state? Progranulin, a novel autocrine growth factor, is not expressed in benign breast tissue but is expressed in human breast cancers, in which it correlates with the clinicopathological parameters of tumor grade, proliferation index, and to altered p53 expression [Serrero and Ioffe, 2003]. Progranulin offers a potential therapeutic target for gene therapy of human breast cancers.

Cancers thrive in an acidic, hypoxic stress environment, where oxygen tension and glucose levels are low. HIFs are activated in response to hypoxia because of reduced activity of a new class of 2-oxoglutarate dependent oxygenases presumably located in nuclei. Activation of HIFs occurs in various neoplasms. HIFs induce tumor growth and metabolism through maintaining angiogenesis, anaerobic glycolysis, an acidic pH microenvironment, cellular proliferation, differentiation, cell viability, apoptosis, and regulating ECM metabolism. The HIF pathway is a new target(s) for an understanding the oncological state of cells in culture or cancerous tissues in vivo.

The transcription of HIF-1  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  subunits, the transcription of which is regulated by 3' hypoxia-responsive elements,  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ , which are found in an enhancer region of the hypoxia-inducible genes like erythropoietin. This glycoprotein hormone, which is expressed in fetal liver and in adult kidney, is involved in red blood cell production [Percy et al., 1997]. The hypoxia-inducible genes are critically dependent on HIF-1 in endothelial and breast cancer cells [Sowter et al., 2003]. Increased expression of erythropoietin and its receptor play a significant role in cervical carcinogenesis, tumor progression, and aggressiveness [Acs et al., 2003]. In endometrial carcinomas, erythropoietin expression is a prognostic and predictive factor of tumor progression and increased aggressiveness [Acs et al., 2004]. Phosphorylation of HIF-1 stabilizes this transcription factor. SiRNA inhibition of mitogen-activated protein kinase phosphatase-1 expression enhances HIF-1 alpha phosphorylation. This increases the transcription of active HIF-1 as well as induces erythropoietin expression [Liu et al., 2003]. Stabilization of

HIF-1 promotes hypoxia-induced gene expression. HIF-1 is destabilized by hydroxylation of the proline residue-564. Prolyl hydroxylation is inhibited by hypoxia and ferrous iron chelators such as desferrioxamine [Chan et al., 2002]. An intriguing paradox is that during tumorigenesis HIF-1 transactivates many genes involved with tumor growth pathways, which were discussed earlier. However, HIF-1 also upregulates anti-proliferative and pro-apoptotic genes [Bacon and Harris, 2004]. A molecular mechanism(s) for these divergent functions may provide a better understanding of the progression of cancer and the development of cancer therapeutics. Perhaps the paradox lies in HIF's actions from different cell types.

An analysis of the promoter region of PH  $\alpha$ -1 identified a similar motif to the hypoxia-responsive element found in hypoxia-inducible genes which is within a 120-base pair sequence upstream from the start site of the transcription of the *PH $\alpha$ -1* gene. Under hypoxia the HIF-1 is stimulated and bound to the PH  $\alpha$ -1 hypoxia response element [Takahashi et al., 2000]. Therefore, PH $\alpha$ -1 is not only essential for collagen synthesis but is also a target gene for HIF-1. Under oxygen, HIF- $\alpha$  subunits of the HIF transcriptional complex are rapidly destroyed by ubiquitylation via the von Hippel-Lindau tumor suppressor ligase complex and the proteasome pathway. This degradation process is inhibited by hypoxia and iron chelators and is enhanced by HIF-prolyl hydroxylation [Jaakkola et al., 2001]. Since there is an absolute requirement for molecular oxygen and the cofactor iron, HIF-PH is a functional cellular oxygen sensor. Cells respond to a mild decline in oxygen tension by undergoing an anaerobic state of respiration and generating lactic acid. The decrease in environmental pH triggers sequestration of von Hippel-Lindau tumor suppressor gene into the nucleolus thereby neutralizing its ability to degrade HIF-1 [Mekhail et al., 2004a,b]. In contrast to these findings, it has been shown that a down-regulation of HIF-1 may be obtained by FOXO 4, a member of the forkhead transcription factor super family independent of the von Hippel-Lindau pathway [Tang and Lasky, 2003]. Recent studies suggest that small molecular inhibitors for each class of PHs are possible for individual HIFs [Hirsila et al., 2003]. Inhibitors of HIF-PH may be used as model compounds for the downstream targets, vascular endothelial

growth factor (VEGF), and other hypoxia-inducible genes [Ivan et al., 2002]. This would induce adaptive responses to hypoxia, including angiogenesis [Warnecke et al., 2003] and red blood cell production.

There are nuclear factors, hormones, vitamins, and pharmacological agents that regulate HIFs. HIF-1 regulation of erythropoietin production is under the control of NF-KB [Figuerola et al., 2002]. Histone deacetylase 7 is a transcription activator of HIF-1- $\alpha$  [Jeong et al., 2002; Kato et al., 2004]. Vitamin A, an antioxidant, increases HIF-1- $\alpha$  mRNA levels and specifically stimulates erythropoietin production [Jelkmann et al., 1997]. Hormones and therapeutics also have the potential to regulate the levels of HIFs. Estradiol-17 $\beta$  attenuates HIF-1- $\alpha$  induction and erythropoietin production in human hepatoma cells by interfering with the hypoxia increase of HIF-1- $\alpha$  through an estrogen receptor-dependent mechanism [Mukundan et al., 2004]. PH activity is also increased in rat uterus by estradiol-17 $\beta$  treatment [Salvador et al., 1976]. Bleomycin, a glycopeptide anti-neoplastic agent, increases PH activity in human lung fibroblasts and is associated with an increased collagen synthesis and lung fibrosis. Presently this anticancer drug is believed to act through increased DNA breakage, apoptosis, and decreased cancer cell proliferation. It is possible to speculate that an increase of PH in cancer cells in susceptible tissues, for example the testes, could cause HIF-1-564 hydroxylation, which would result in a decreased expression of hypoxia-inducible genes and allow for HIF-1 ubiquitination, proteasome degradation, and the transition of a cancer cell to a normal cell.

#### MOLECULAR TARGETS AND GENE THERAPEUTIC STRATEGIES FOR ANTIFIBROSIS AND INHIBITION OF CARCINOGENESIS

Inhibition of the onset and progression of fibrosis [Cutroneo and Boros, 2002] reduces the development of benign tumors that can be surgically removed. Clinically, the surgical removal of keloids is followed by continuous triamcinolone treatment, a potent synthetic glucocorticoid that inhibits collagen synthesis. The review [Cutroneo, In Press] on gene therapy sites common *cis*-elements in the promoters of the *COL1A1* gene and the *COL1A2* gene to attenuate COL1 synthesis.

Phosphorothioate oligo decoys can be synthesized containing the *cis*-element, for example, the TGF- $\beta$  element, the Sp1 element, the  $\gamma$ B1 element, or others. These double-stranded oligodeoxynucleotides (dsODNs) tie up the appropriate transacting-factor and inhibit gene transcription. Smad proteins are a family of transcription factors regulating gene transcription through TGF- $\beta$  signaling (Fig. 2). As discussed previously, aberrant TGF- $\beta$  signaling has been associated with decreased fibrosis and carcinogenesis. Therefore, therapeutics directed at the SMAD pathway activation by TGF- $\beta$  may have clinical potential. There exists cross-talk between TGF- $\beta$  signaling,  $\gamma$ B1 and Smad 3 [Cutroneo, 2005]. There are other ways to inhibit fibrosis besides consensus sequence containing dsODN decoys. One is through antisense ODNs with the AUG codon and a few bases complimentary to the mRNA coding for a specific protein including either CTGF, the immediate fibrotic growth factor expressed by TGF- $\beta$ 1 treatment, TGF- $\beta$ 1, or thrombospondin-1, which converts the latent form of TGF- $\beta$  to its active form.

Other molecular targets for tumor growth inhibition following fibrosis exist. The Stat 3 containing ODNs inhibit epithelial cell carcinogenesis [Chan et al., 2004]. The CRE-ODN containing the CRE sequence (5'-TGACGTC-3') induce tumor growth in cells having a p53 mutation [Park et al., 2001]. In breast cancer cells, the CRE transcription factor ODN, stabilizes and activates p53 which contributes to tumor cell growth inhibition [Lee et al., 2000]. In ovarian cancer cells, CRE ODNs cause growth arrest, suppress cell invasiveness, and promote tumor cell apoptosis [Alper et al., 2001]. A 24-mer single-stranded cAMP response element ODN competes with binding transcription factors and inhibits cAMP-induced gene transcription. The cytostatic action of these ODNs may enhance the anti-proliferative effects of conventional cytotoxic agents [Liu et al., 2004]. In mice, the intravenous injection of ds ODNs containing the consensus NF-KB *cis*-element inhibits hepatic metastasis of reticulosarcoma tumors [Kawamura et al., 2001]. The growth and progression of melanomas are dependent on an adequate blood supply through angiogenesis. The key factors in angiogenesis are tumor necrosis factor-alpha (TNF- $\alpha$ ) and VEGF. DsODNs containing the consensus Sp1 *cis*-element inhibit

angiogenesis and melanoma growth [Novak et al., 2003].

Alternate to control, carcinogenesis and tumor growth is signaling through TGF- $\beta$ 1 to the TGF- $\beta$ II receptors which will cause the intrinsic serine/threonine activity of the TGF- $\beta$ I receptors to activate the SMAD signaling pathway. However, Smad 7, the inhibitory Smad, interferes with TGF- $\beta$ 1 activation of the SMAD signaling pathway. A Smad 3 element dsODN decoy knocks out Smad 7 gene transcription, resulting in TGF- $\beta$ 1 secretion and its activation by proteinases [Cutroneo and Phan, 2003]. The active TGF- $\beta$ 1 then autoinduces more TGF- $\beta$ 1. Theoretically this would maintain tissue fibrosis, the formation of a benign tumor and little ECM degradation, minimal cancer cell proliferation, no tissue invasion or metastasis (Fig. 1).

#### MMPs AND TIMPs: THE CANCEROUS TUMOR CAPSULE AND ECM DEGRADATION

As a prerequisite to cancer cell proliferation, tissue invasion and finally metastasis, there is a fine tuned complex process involving MMPs and TIMPs. There is a tight association amongst the activity of MMPs, the promotion of tumor invasion and metastasis in endometrial carcinomas [Di Nezza et al., 2002]. The membrane bound type 1-MMP (MT1-MMP), enzyme, which cleaves both collagen and fibrin, is required for tumor cell invasion [Holmbeck et al., 2003]. Low levels of MMP-1 and MT-MMP in advanced colorectal carcinomas are directly related to favorable survival [Bendardaf et al., 2003]. Suppressing the expression of MT1-MMP in fibroblasts or tumor cells blocks cancer cell invasiveness [Sabeh et al., 2004]. Even though other MMPs continue to be expressed, sequence-specific silencing of MT1-MMP by SiRNA suppresses tumor cell migration and invasion [Ueda et al., 2003]. In prostate cancer cells, FGF-1 induces MT1-MMP and MMP-7 which involves signaling and activation of STAT 3 [Udayakumar et al., 2002, 2004]. In human prostate carcinomas, there is an elevation of MMP-26, which is necessary for the activation of pro-MMP-9. This results in the degradation of fibronectin and type IV collagen, which promotes cancer cell invasion [Zhao et al., 2003].

Basic FGF is the major angiogenic factor in ovarian carcinomas. In these cancers, there is

an inverse relationship between tumor invasion and survival with MMP 2, MMP 9, MT1-MMP, and TIMP 2 [Davidson et al., 2002; Drew et al., 2004]. In human gliomas, VEGF simulates angiogenesis and tumor growth [Deryugina et al., 2002; Munaut et al., 2003]. MMP 19 expression in the epidermis is downregulated during transformation but disappears with neoplastic dedifferentiation [Impola et al., 2003; Pendas et al., 2004]. In squamous cell carcinoma cells, a MEK  $\frac{1}{2}$  inhibitor or a p38 inhibitor abolishes the induction of MMP-1 and MMP-10 by ultra-violet radiation [Ramos et al., 2004]. When injected into nude mice, MT1-MMP expressing clones form rapid tumor growth and vascularization [Souanni et al., 2002a,b]. The elevation of MT1-MMP promotes selective invasion and increases the growth of malignant melanomas [Iida et al., 2004]. One therapeutic approach to attenuate cancer growth and invasiveness would be to inhibit MT1-MMP expression. MMP-11 (stromelysin-3) expression is increased during breast carcinogenesis [Nakopoulou et al., 2002]. MMP-11 is expressed by breast tumor-associated fibroblasts [Wang and Tetu, 2002]. It appears a host-stromal protease interaction occurs during breast tumorigenesis. In human salivary gland carcinomas, an enhanced activation of pro-MMP-2, which is mediated by MT1-MMP, is implicated in invasion and metastasis of these tumors [Kayano et al., 2004]. In human gastric cancers, there is a correlation between the expression of ETS-related transcription factor E1AF and MMP-7 (matrilysin) [Yamamoto et al., 2004]. A deficiency of MMP-11 in gastric cancer cells inhibits their growth in soft agar and tumorigenicity in nude mice [Deng et al., 2005].

A disintegrin and metalloproteinase (ADAM) is a newly described family of proteinases that have metalloproteinase, disintegrin, and thrombospondin motifs. They have diverse functions such as cleavage of proteoglycans, ECM degradation, angiogenesis inhibition, tissue development, and organogenesis. The presence of ADAM 9 distinguishes cancerous tumors from solid benign pancreatic tumors [Grutzmann et al., 2004]. ADAM 10 degrades the ECM in prostate cancers resulting in cancer cell proliferation and tissue invasion. In benign tumors ADAM-10 is membrane bound and localized in secretory cells, while in cancer cells, it is localized in their nuclei. ADAM 10 is upregulated

in prostate cancers by dihydrotestosterone, IGF-1, and epithelial growth factor (EGF) [McCulloch et al., 2004]. Endothelial ADAM is required for angiogenesis and thus could prove a new therapeutic target for the attenuation of development and growth progression of cancers [Trochon et al., 1998]. In liver cancers, the upregulation of both ADAM 9 and 12 is correlated with an increase of MMP 2 expression, tumor aggressiveness, and progression [Le Pabic et al., 2003]. In the urine of breast cancer patients ADAM 12, a gelatinase, is elevated, and correlates with breast cancer progression [Roy et al., 2004]. ADAM 12 is highly expressed in human glioglastomas and plays a role in cancer cell proliferation by the shedding of harpin-binding EGF [Kodama et al., 2004]. In human breast cancer positive nodes, there is an increased expression of ADAM 9 mRNA and protein as compared to node-negative cancers [O'Shea et al., 2003]. Promoter hypermethylation of the *ADAM 23* gene silences this proteinase in breast tumors [Costa et al., 2004].

At least one study reports TIMP-1 stimulates cancer cell growth [Porter et al., 2004]; while another study reports TIMP-1 inhibits gelatinolytic activity in the tumor stroma, stabilizing collagen fibrils. However, TIMP-1 does not inhibit either the malignant conversion of dysplasias into carcinomas or the development of metastasis [Rhee et al., 2004]. TIMP-1 gene transfer in vivo inhibits tumor-associated angiogenesis [Zacchigna et al., 2004]. The upregulation of mitogen-activated protein kinase phosphatase in tumors over-expressing TIMP-2 leads to dephosphorylation of p38 mitogen-activated protein kinase, inhibition of both tumor growth and angiogenesis [Feldman et al., 2004]. TIMP-3 gene therapy causes tumor suppression, has anti-invasive, anti-angiogenic, and pro-apoptotic effects [Ahonen et al., 2002]. TIMP-3 increases apoptosis in melanoma cells by stabilizing death receptors and the activation of their apoptotic signaling cascade through caspase-8 [Ahonen et al., 2003]. TIMP-1 over-expression reduces pancreatic cell growth, metastasis, angiogenesis, and increases tumor apoptosis without altering MMP-2 production [Bloomston et al., 2002]. Frequent promoter hypermethylation silences the *TIMP-3* gene and represses TIMP-3 protein synthesis in pancreatic tumors [Wild et al., 2003]. In primary breast cancers, the expression of



*TIMP-1* and plasminogen activator inhibitor (*PAI-1*) genes are elevated and are related to cancer development [Castello et al., 2002; Schrohl et al., 2004]. *TIMP-1* inhibits apoptosis by the sequential activation of pertussis toxin-sensitive G protein, c-Src, PI 3 kinase, and Akt [Lee et al., 2003]. *TIMP-2* gene therapy inhibits RAS-transformed human breast epithelial cells [Ahn et al., 2004]. *TIMP-2* and *TIMP-4* are potent inhibitors of MMP-26-mediated pro-MMP-9 activation in breast cancer invasion [Zhao et al., 2004]. In colorectal cancers, MMP-1 and PAI-1 correlate with poor tumor pathology [Baker and Leaper, 2003]. In contrast, *TIMP-1* in these cancers is highly expressed by myofibroblasts, which is associated with the invasion of colon cancer cells [Holten-Andersen et al., 2005], indicating stromal-cancer cell interactions. In human urothelial carcinomas *TIMP-1* is expressed in the cytoplasm of cancer cells and its increased expression indicates more malignancy [Yano et al., 2002]. Hypermethylation of the DNA promoter region of the *TIMP-2* gene affects carcinogenesis by silencing the expression of this gene. This increases cervical cancer progression and development [Ivanova et al., 2004]. Promoter methylation of the *TIMP-3* gene in choriocarcinomas leads to a decrease of the *TIMP-3* protein and an increase of carcinogenesis [Feng et al., 2004].

In conclusion, the immediate response to tissue injury caused by mechanical disruption, bacterial infection, or viral infection is inflammation followed by angiogenesis. During this process, myofibroblasts, macrophages, and smooth muscle cells migrate to the site of injury, releasing profibrotic growth factors. The most potent cytokine causing fibrosis is TGF- $\beta$ 1. Persistent TGF- $\beta$ 1 leads to excess fibrosis and the development of benign tumors such as keloids and granulomas. Persistent TGF- $\beta$ 1 expression is associated with hypertrophic scars. In contrast, for the formation of malignant tumors, the organism first encapsulates the malignant cells in a fibrous capsule. When the ECM capsule is degraded by an imbalance between MMPs and TIMPs, tumor cells proliferate, invade the surrounding tissue and metastasis occurs. There exist multiple targets for oligo decoy anti-profibrotic growth factor therapy for inhibiting carcinogenesis. These include the TGF- $\beta$ s, CTGF, IGF, and PDGF. The SMAD activator protein transcription

factors are other potential targets which are positive modulators of the TGF- $\beta$ /SMAD signaling pathway. Knocking out the inhibitory Smads 6, 7, and/or 8, would intensify TGF- $\beta$  signaling and increase the development of ECM encapsulated tumors. An oligo decoy-mediated decrease of HIF-1 would potentially ameliorate carcinogenesis. Finally fine tuning the MMP/TIMP balance would drastically alter tumor tissue invasion and metastasis.

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