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TITLE: Role of Reactive Stroma in Prostate Cancer Progression

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# Role of Reactive Stroma in Prostate Cancer Progression

The purpose of this project is to determine the role of FGF receptor 1 in reactive stroma during prostate tumorigenesis. We are using a novel approach to target transgene expression specifically to the reactive stroma of experimental prostate cancer. Using a modified approach, we are placing an inducible Cre recombinase behind the FAP gene promoter to target expression to reactive stroma. We will cross this mouse with Fgfr1flox mice (LoxP sites flanking FGF receptor 1 alleles). These mice will be crossed with TRAMP mice (prostate cancer model). Induced expression of Cre at sites of reactive stroma generated in the cancer foci will function to excise the FGF receptor 1 alleles and create a conditional knockout mouse. Progression of tumorigenesis in this line of knockout mice will be compared to heterozygous and wild type controls. Progress has been made in each Task. We have completed all cloning steps and acquired all reagents. We have rederived the Fgfr1flox and have crossed it into the appropriate backgrounds. We have completed crossing the TRAMP mice with the Fgfr1flox mice. This study will pinpoint the role of FGF receptor 1 in reactive stroma promotion of prostate cancer.
Table of Contents

Cover ................................................................................................................................. 1
SF 298 ............................................................................................................................... 2
Table of Contents ............................................................................................................. 3
Introduction ....................................................................................................................... 4
Body ................................................................................................................................. 4
Key Research Accomplishments ...................................................................................... 7
Reportable Outcomes ..................................................................................................... 8
Conclusions ...................................................................................................................... 9
References ...................................................................................................................... 9
Appendices ..................................................................................................................... Attached
**Introduction:**

Considerable evidence now shows that a reactive stroma, similar to a wound repair stroma co-evolves with foci of prostate cancer. Our data indicates that stromal progenitor cells immediately adjacent to epithelial acini are activated to become the initial reactive stroma. This reactive stroma consists of activated fibroblasts and myofibroblasts. Our recent evidence supports the concept that overexpression of transforming growth factor beta one (TGF-β1) in carcinoma cells regulates the formation and biology of reactive stroma. Several growth factors in reactive stroma are TGF-β1 regulated. Our data shows that among these are connective tissue growth factor (CTGF) and fibroblast growth factor-2 (FGF-2) (1, 2). These studies have shown that attenuation of TGF-b signaling in carcinoma associated stroma resulted in decreased angiogenesis and rate of tumor growth. Of interest, TGF-b was shown to regulate message expression of both CTGF and FGF-2. Of particular interest, our most recent study has shown that TGF-b1 not only regulates protein expression but also stimulates release of the 18 kDa isoform of FGF-2 from prostate stromal cells (2). These studies have shown that xenograft tumors constructed with carcinoma cells and stromal cells with attenuated TGF-b signaling did not progress as rapidly as xenografts constructed with control stromal cells. Engineered expression of FGF-2 in the stromal cells with attenuated TGF-b signaling resulted in a recovery of rate of angiogenesis and xenograft growth rate. These studies show that FGF-2 is a key factor in mediating TGF-b mechanisms of action in prostate cancer associated reactive stroma. The focus of this application is to provide unique mouse models with which to probe mechanisms of FGF-2 action in the tumor microenvironment. Little is understood about signaling and the downstream mediators of FGF-2 action. Not only does FGF-2 regulate the tumor-associated stroma, but also there is emerging evidence that suggests that FGF-2 may mediate epithelial to mesenchymal transition of carcinoma cells during tumor progression to metastasis. Accordingly, completion of our proposed study will provide new models and new data on the specific responses and downstream pathways mediated by FGF-2 in tumor stroma.

Our project is based on the generation of a novel mouse model to knock out FGF-2 signaling in the reactive stromal compartment in order to address specific mechanisms and pinpoint those biologies specifically regulated by FGF-2 signaling. The expression of fibroblast activation protein (FAP) in the adult is restricted to reactive stromal cells (3, 4). We have proposed using the FAP gene to specifically target the expression of an inducible Cre recombinase to cancer associated reactive stroma. Three Specific Aims and Tasks were proposed that will generate a conditional knock out of the FGF receptor 1 gene (cognate receptor for FGF-2) in the reactive stroma tumor microenvironment of the TRAMP mouse model for prostate cancer. The use of the FAP-inducible Cre mouse will also benefit researchers studying other cancers, as FAP is generally expressed in reactive stroma of many different carcinomas.

**Body:**

**Task 1** will knock-in DNA encoding the Mifepristone (RU 486) inducible Cre recombinase (CrePR1) into the fibroblast activation protein (FAP) locus.

This Aim is to generate a transgenic mouse that uses the FAP promoter to drive expression of an inducible Cre recombinase specifically to reactive stroma. It was our initial intent to use the FAP promoter and regulatory elements to target a Mifepristone-regulated Cre recombinase (CrePR1) expression specifically to reactive stroma. Recent studies have shown that the Mifepristone inducible system may be too leaky for our needs. Since FAP is expressed...
Table of Contents

Cover...................................................................................................................... 1
SF 298..................................................................................................................... 2
Table of Contents ................................................................................................. 3
Introduction........................................................................................................... 4
Body......................................................................................................................... 4
Key Research Accomplishments........................................................................ 7
Reportable Outcomes.......................................................................................... 8
Conclusions........................................................................................................... 9
References............................................................................................................. 9
Appendices........................................................................................................... Attached (2)
Task 2 is to cross these mice with an EF-1\textsuperscript{lox stop} cassette / FGFR1\textsuperscript{D} (dominant negative FGF receptor type I- myc tag) to create a FAP(CrePR1) / lox(stop) FGFR1\textsuperscript{D} bigenic animal.

Modification approved in the previous Progress Report: The Fgf1\textsuperscript{flox} mouse will be used instead of the FGFR1\textsuperscript{D} mouse for Task 2 in order to produce a conditional knockout.

The overall goal of Task 2 is to knockdown or knockout expression of FGF receptor I at sites of reactive stroma. As disclosed in the Previous Progress Report, we have recently generated an Fgf1\textsuperscript{flox} mouse as part of this project. Instead of expressing the lox(stop) FGFR1\textsuperscript{D} dominant negative to attenuate (knockdown) native gene expression, we decided to use a mouse that contains floxed alleles of the FGF receptor I (Fgf1\textsuperscript{flox} mice) to fully knockout signaling. This is a much more straightforward approach to assure a conditional knockout of FGFR1 instead of expressing a competing dominant negative receptor. The Fgf1\textsuperscript{flox} mice was provided to us by Juha Partanen (University of Helsinki, Finland) (5). As discussed in the previous Progress Report, we have spent the last 24 months rederiving this mouse (via embryo transfer) and crossing them from the ICR genetic background into the C57/BL/6 background. To date, we have made over 10+ generations of crosses and now have this mouse in the FVB and C57BL/6 background. Statistically, this has yielded Fgf1\textsuperscript{flox} mice now in both the FVB and C57BL/6 background having less than 0.39% ICR background. This background is optimal for crossing with the FAP-Cre mice creating the bigenic FAP(Cre) / Fgf1\textsuperscript{flox} (FVB) mouse line (heterozygous floxed FGFR1 allele). This step will complete Task 2. Figure 3 below shows the lines of mice and crosses to be made for each Task. In addition to the proposed experiments for Task 2, we have also generated a fibroblast cell line from the Fgf1\textsuperscript{flox} mouse line peritoneum. Use of this cell line will aid us in extended studies to address specific signaling mechanisms.

Task 3 is to cross this bigenic animal with TRAMP mice. The TRAMP / FAP(CrePR1) / lox(stop) FGFR1\textsuperscript{D} bigenic cross should exhibit RU 486 regulated expression of the dominant negative FGF receptor I transgene in TRAMP reactive stroma. Modification approved in the previous Progress Report: The resulting cross will produce the FAP(CrePR1) / Fgf1\textsuperscript{flox} / TRAMP mouse that will result in RU 468 regulated FGF receptor I knockout in cancer associated reactive stroma (see Figure 3).

This Task will use the TRAMP (transgenic mouse prostate cancer). The TRAMP mouse uses the probasin minimal promoter to drive expression of SV40 large T antigen. Tumors occur when female TRAMP mice in the C57BL/6 background are crossed with male FVB breeders. The first step of Task 3 is to cross homozygous TRAMP mouse with the homozygous Fgf1\textsuperscript{flox} (C57BL/6 background) mouse (generated in Task 2). This step has been completed. We have produced the TRAMP/ Fgf1\textsuperscript{flox} line of mice in the C57BL/6 background and heterozygous for
flooed FGFR1 alleles and homozygous for TRAMP (first step in Task 3, see Figure 3 below). The next step in Task 3 will cross TRAMP/ Fgfr1^{flox} (C57BL/6) mice with the FAP(Cre)/ Fgfr1^{flox} (FVB) mouse generated in Task 2. This will yield [TRAMP/ Fgfr1^{flox} (C57BL/6)][FAP(Cre)/ Fgfr1^{flox} (FVB)] mice (Figure 3). Administration of tamoxifen to mice will induce the conditional knock out of FGFR1 alleles at sites of reactive stroma via tamoxifen-induction of Cre recombinase activity and removal of floxed alleles in FAP positive carcinoma associated stromal cells. Control tumors will be from TRAMP mice having heterozygous or wild type FGFR1 alleles and hence, functioning FGFR1. When exposed to Cre, a single allele knockout in heterozygous mice for floxed FGFR1 alleles showed a wild type phenotype in the previous studies of Partanen, which focused on developing mid- and hindbrain (5). Completion of Task 3 will produce data that will directly address the central hypothesis. Once our tamoxifen inducible Cre mouse is created, we will be able to rapidly proceed to Task 3. We anticipate completing this Task within the year of the no-cost extension.

**Key Research Accomplishments:**

- Acquisition of BAC (clone RP23-161B24) containing the mouse FAP gene. Verification.
- Acquisition and subcloning of Mifepristone inducible Cre recombinase (CrePR1). Verification of sequence.
- Acquisition and subcloning of an SV40 Neo selection cassette flanked with Flp recombinase sites. Sequence verification.
- Construction and subcloning of a downstream IRES element. Sequence verification.
- Construction and subcloning of a downstream CrePR1. Sequence verification.
- Addition of a poly A tail downstream of CrePR1. Sequence verification.
- Step-wise construction and subcloning of flanking upstream and downstream 55 bp FAP gene sequence in reverse orientation (homologous to Exon 2 region of FAP gene). Sequence verification at each step for proper reverse orientation.
- Acquisition of EL250 cells containing an arabinose inducible flpe gene and all recombineering reagents.
- Acquisition of the Fgfr1^{flox} mice (ICR background) and confirmation of floxed alleles.
- Rederivation of the Fgfr1^{flox} mice by embryo transfer and initiation of Fgfr1^{flox} mice (ICR background) in TMF pathogen free facility.
- Acquisition of homozygous TRAMP mice and initiation of colony in TMF facility. Ready for crossing in Task 3.
- >8 generations of crossing Fgfr1^{flox} mice into FVB background. Now 0.39% ICR background. Ready for crossing Task 2 and 3.
- 8 generations of crossing \( Fgfr1^{\text{flox}} \) mice into C57BL/6 background. Now 0.39% ICR background. Ready for crossing in Task 2 and 3.
- 6 generations of crossing \( Fgfr1^{\text{flox}} \) mice with C57BL/6 (4 generations) and then crossing with TRAMP (2 generations). Now at less that 2% ICR background.
- Multiple experiments and conditions tested to recombine FAPupstream-IRES-CrePR1-FAPdownstream construct into BAC clones via homologous recombination.
- Acquisition and subcloning of tamoxifen inducible Cre recombinase as an alternative approach.
- Cloning of the 10 kb immediate 5’ upstream mouse FAP promoter sequence as an alternative approach.

**Reportable Outcomes:**

During the previous Progress Period I provided an invited Chapter entitled “Reactive Stroma and Evolution of Tumors: Integration of Transforming Growth Factor-\( \beta \), Connective Tissue Growth Factor, and Fibroblast Growth Factor-2 Activities” that discusses the role of FGF-2 signaling in cancer associated reactive stroma. This chapter is now at the Publisher and being completed. It will be included in the Textbook entitled: “Transforming Growth Factor-beta in Cancer Therapy” edited by Sonia B. Jakowlew at the NIH. This is both relevant to and supported by this project as this chapter discusses use of the FAP gene for targeting and the targeting of the FGF-2 signaling axis as a putative therapeutic.

- This chapter is now at the publisher and anticipated to be in press within the next 6 months. A draft of the chapter was provided in the last Progress Report.
- We published a manuscript in the previous Progress Period that addresses the role of CTGF in prostate reactive stroma biology (1). Publication of this data is relevant to this project as we show that TGF-\( \beta \) stimulates expression of both FGF-2 and CTGF in reactive stroma. This paper represents the CTGF arm of this regulation and the present project represents the FGF-2 signaling arm. The reprint is attached. Title: “Stromal expression of connective tissue growth factor promotes angiogenesis and prostate cancer tumorigenesis”. The reprint is attached.
- During the last progress period, we have completed and submitted a manuscript that is now in review at Cancer Research. This manuscript is entitled “Fibroblast growth factor-2 mediates transforming growth factor beta action in prostate cancer reactive stroma”. This work is directly relevant to the study. In this manuscript we show that attenuation of TGF-\( \beta \) signaling via either a conditional knockout or through expression of a dominant negative Smad3, results in a decreased angiogenesis and tumor growth rate with experimental prostate cancer xenografts. Of interest, we showed that FGF-2 message was up regulated by TGF-\( \beta \)1 in prostate stromal cells. Significantly, we showed that FGF-2 protein expression was stimulated by TGF-\( \beta \)1 and, significantly, the release of the 18 kDa isoform of FGF-2 was stimulated by TGF-\( \beta \)1. Finally, we showed that engineered re-expression of FGF-2 in stromal cells that were null for TGF-\( \beta \) receptor resulted in a restored angiogenesis and tumor growth. These data fully support the present project since it was our original hypothesis that FGF-2 signaling in cancer associated stroma promotes tumor growth. Generation of the engineered mouse lines from this study will allow us to probe specific mechanisms with novel models. The draft of the manuscript under review is attached.
Conclusions:

In this study we address the role of FGF receptor 1 signaling in carcinoma associated stroma by generating novel mouse models. A central goal here is the targeted gene expression specifically to sites of reactive stroma. The use of the FAP promoter is a novel concept and generation of the FAP(Cre) mouse will be a resource for all investigators who study reactive stroma tumor microenvironment, since FAP gene expression is observed in reactive stroma of all the major adenocarcinomas.

Although we have had major delays due to the inability to successfully recombine the engineered constructs into the BAC FAP locus, we have been able to focus the project using alternative approach techniques we believe will work much better. These approaches were disclosed as an alternative plan in the previous Progress Report. We are on track with these modifications and believe we can accomplish the study in the extended no cost period. We have acquired all the materials, clones and lines of cells and mice needed and have rederived them where necessary. We anticipate no further time delays in completing the study with the modified approach.

The proposed study will be the first time a transgene will be expressed specifically in the reactive stroma compartment of a tumor mouse model and represents the first time a gene will be conditionally knocked out in tumor associated stroma. This will make it possible, for the first time, to study the biology of engineered gene expression in the tumor microenvironment. These studies will permit the study of a microenvironment that was previously not possible. As an additional benefit, the FAP-Cre mouse will be valuable to other investigators using mouse models of cancer as the inducible Cre can be used to manipulate gene expression via either overexpression or attenuation of expression) gene expression. We are fully committed to completion of this project as we feel this will represent a major advancement.

References:

Stromal Expression of Connective Tissue Growth Factor Promotes Angiogenesis and Prostate Cancer Tumorigenesis

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Abstract
Our previous studies have defined reactive stroma in human prostate cancer and have developed the differential reactive stroma (DRS) xenograft model to evaluate mechanisms of how reactive stroma promotes carcinoma tumorigenesis. Analysis of several normal human prostate stromal cell lines in the DRS model showed that some rapidly promoted LNCaP prostate carcinoma cell tumorigenesis and others had no effect. These differential effects were due, in part, to elevated angiogenesis and were transforming growth factor (TGF)-β1 mediated. The present study was conducted to identify and evaluate candidate genes expressed in prostate stromal cells responsible for this differential tumor-promoting activity. Differential cDNA microarray analyses showed that connective tissue growth factor (CTGF) was expressed at low levels in nontumor-promoting prostate stromal cells and was constitutively expressed in tumor-promoting prostate stromal cells. TGF-β1 stimulated CTGF message expression in nontumor-promoting prostate stromal cells. To evaluate the role of stromal-expressed CTGF in tumor progression, either engineered mouse prostate stromal fibroblasts expressing retroviral-introduced CTGF or 3T3 fibroblasts engineered with mieloperoxidase-regulated CTGF were combined with LNCaP human prostate cancer cells in the DRS xenograft tumor model under different extracellular matrix conditions. Expression of CTGF in tumor-reactive stroma induced significant increases in microvessel density and xenograft tumor growth under several conditions tested. These data suggest that CTGF is a downstream mediator of TGF-β1 action in cancer-associated reactive stroma and is likely to be one of the key regulators of angiogenesis in the tumor-reactive stromal microenvironment.

Introduction
Our previous studies have characterized reactive stroma in human prostate cancer progression and have developed the differential reactive stroma (DRS) xenograft model to address the role of reactive stroma in experimental prostate tumorigenesis. These studies have shown that reactive stroma initiates during prostatic intraepithelial neoplasia, exhibits a myofibroblast wound repair stromal phenotype, is tumor promoting, and is mediated, in part, by transforming growth factor (TGF)-β1 action (1–3). Our studies have also shown that reactive stroma was essential for inducing early angiogenesis and acted to stimulate both the incidence and rate of LNCaP prostate cancer cell tumorigenesis in DRS model xenografts (2). These studies showed that differential LNCaP tumor progression is based on the type of stroma in the xenograft tumor and the stromal response to TGF-β1.

Connective tissue growth factor (CTGF) has emerged as a potent mediator of TGF-β1 action in wound repair stromal responses and in fibrosis disorders (4–6). CTGF is a member of the CCN gene family (for CTGF, Cyr61, and Nov; refs. 7–9). This family includes six structural and functional related proteins: CTGF (10, 11); cysteine-rich 61 (Cyr61; ref. 12); nephroblastoma overexpressed (NovH; ref. 13); and Wnt-1–induced signaling protein (WISP) 1, WISP2, and WISP3 (14). The CCN family members (excluding WISP2) share four conserved structural modules with sequence homologies similar to insulin-like growth factor–binding protein, von Willebrand factor, thrombospondin, and cysteine knot (8). CTGF message is potently stimulated by TGF-β1 (15–19) and likely mediates TGF-β1–induced collagen expression in wound repair fibroblasts (20). CTGF is expressed by several stromal cell types, including endothelial cells, fibroblasts, smooth muscle cells, and myofibroblasts, and some epithelial cell types in diverse tissues. Consistent with its role in connective tissue biology, CTGF enhances stromal extracellular matrix synthesis (16) and stimulates proliferation, cell adhesion, cell spreading, and chemotaxis of fibroblasts (10, 16, 21). CTGF was also shown to stimulate smooth muscle cell proliferation and migration (22). In addition, CTGF is a potent stimulator of endothelial cell adhesion, proliferation, migration, and angiogenesis in vivo (23–25). As might be predicted, CTGF is expressed in the reactive stromal compartment of several epithelial cancers, including mammary carcinoma, pancreatic cancers, and esophageal cancer (26–28). Expression of CTGF is also observed in several stromal cell disorders, including angiofibromas, infantile myofibromatosis, malignant hemangiopericytomas, fibrous histiocytomas, and chondrosarcomas (29, 30).

Accordingly, CTGF is considered to be a profibrosis marker (31). Together, these findings suggest that CTGF is a key regulatory factor for stromal tissue biology in wound repair and cancer progression; however, this has not yet been tested in vivo using engineered stromal cells.

Expression of TGF-β1 is elevated in most epithelial carcinoma cells (32) and our previous studies have shown that TGF-β1 is a critical regulator of carcinoma-associated reactive stroma, angiogenesis, and reactive stroma promotion of tumor progression in LNCaP xenograft tumors (3). Because TGF-β1 stimulates CTGF expression in stromal cells (15), including human prostate stromal cells (19), CTGF has accordingly emerged as a candidate downstream effector of TGF-β1 action in reactive stroma.

The DRS model system was specifically developed to evaluate differential gene expression in the reactive stromal compartment...
in xenografts composed of tissue-specific cancer cells and coordinate stromal cells (2, 3). These studies showed that two different human prostate stromal cell lines, HTS-2T and HTS-40C, exhibited differential effects in reactive stroma-induced angiogenesis and tumorigenesis of LNCaP prostate cancer cells (2). The present study was conducted to assess candidate genes responsible for the differential functions, We report here that CTGF was differentially expressed in tumor-promoting prostate stromal cell lines and that CTGF expression is stimulated by TGF-β1 in prostate stromal cells. In addition, we show that overexpression of CTGF in engineered prostate stromal cells in the DBS LNCaP xenograft model resulted in significantly elevated angiogenesis and LNCaP tumorigenesis in vivo.

Materials and Methods

Cell lines. LNCaP human prostate carcinoma cells were purchased from American Type Culture Collection (ATCC, Manassas, VA) and maintained in RPMI 1640 (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS, Hyclone, Logan, UT), 100 units/mL penicillin, and 100 μg/mL streptomycin (Sigma, St. Louis, MO). The HTS-2T and HTS-40C normal human prostate stromal cell lines were established in our laboratory (2) and cultured in Bfs medium: DMEM (Invitrogen) supplemented with 5% FBS human prostate stromal cell lines were established in our laboratory (2) and maintained in DMEM (Invitrogen) supplemented with 5% FBS and antibiotics as described above.

The mouse prostatic stromal cell line, C57B, was derived from an 8-week C57BL/6 male mouse. The ventral prostate was removed, cut into 1 mm³ cubes, and placed in wells of a six-well culture plate in Bfs medium and cultured at 37°C with 5% CO₂. Monolayers of stromal cells extended from the explants and, at confluence, the explants were removed and stromal cells were continued in culture by routine serial passage. C57B cells were positive for androgen receptor, vimentin, and smooth muscle α-actin with low expression of calponin (data not shown), similar to human prostate stromal cell lines we have reported previously (2). C57B cells were maintained in DMEM with high glucose (Invitrogen) supplemented with 10% heat inactivated FBS (Hyclone), 2 mmol/L glutamine (Invitrogen), and antibiotics as described above.

The GeneSwitch-3T3 cell line expressing the GeneSwitch regulatory protein from the pSwitch vector was purchased from Invitrogen. GeneSwitch-3T3 cells and derivative engineered cell lines were maintained in DMEM (Invitrogen) supplemented with 10% FBS (Hyclone), 100 units/mL penicillin, 100 μg/mL streptomycin (Sigma), and Hygromycin B and/or Zeocin (Invitrogen) as described below.

cDNA microarray analysis. HTS-2T and HTS-40C cells were cultured in Bfs medium to 80% confluence. Total RNA was extracted from each cell line with RNA STAT-60 total RNA/mRNA isolation reagent (Tel-Test, Inc., Friendswood, TX) following the instructions of the manufacturer. Microarray analysis was done using 30 μg of total RNA. The cDNA reverse transcription and fluorescent labeling reactions were carried out using Cy3-labeled nucleotides for control (HTS-2T) and Cy5-labeled nucleotides for experimental (HTS-40C) samples as described previously (33). A microarray chip carrying 6,000 human cDNAs obtained from Baylor Microarray Core Facility was used. The hybridized slide was scanned with an Axon 4000A dual-channel scanner (Axon Instruments, Foster City, CA) and the data was analyzed using GenePix v. 3.0 software package (Axon). Genes were considered up-regulated if the expression was changed at least 3-fold from the control. Data with low signal intensity, high background, and high variability were eliminated.

Reverse transcription-PCR. Differential expression of CTGF in HTS-2T and HTS-40C cells was assessed by reverse transcription-PCR (RT-PCR) analysis. HTS-2T and HTS-40C cells were cultured in Bfs medium to 80% confluence and total RNA was extracted with the RNeasy Miniprep kit (Qiagen, Inc., Valencia, CA). CTGF amplification with primer 5'-GGTTAC-CAATGACAACGCGCT-3' and primer 5'-TGGCTCTAAAGGCCACACCTT-3' were used to monitor CTGF expression, by using the TaqMan one-step RT-PCR kit (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA).

To determine the effects of TGF-β1 on CTGF expression, HTS-2T cells were cultured to 80% confluence, exposed to M₀ serum-free media (MCDB 110 supplemented with insulin, transferrin, and sodium selenite; Sigma Diagnostics) for 24 hours, followed by 100 pmol/L (2.5 ng/mL) porcine TGF-β1 (R&D Systems, Minneapolis, MN) or vehicle control in M₀ media treatment for an additional 24 hours before total RNA extraction as described above. 18S RNA amplifications with 18S rRNA primers (provided in the TaqMan one-step RT-PCR kit) were used for total RNA loading control. RT-PCR reactions were carried out in 50 μL total volume with 80 ng of total RNA and 32 pmol of each primer. First-strand synthesis was done at 48°C for 30 minutes. For CTGF amplification, PCR cycles were run at 95°C for 15 seconds, 60°C for 2 minutes, for a total of 28 cycles. For 18S rRNA amplification, PCR cycles were run at 95°C for 15 seconds, 60°C for 1 minute, for a total of 20 cycles. The PCR products were electrophoresed through a 2% agarose gel, visualized with ethidium bromide, and photographed. A similar RT-PCR procedure was carried out to monitor CTGF expression in HTS-2T and HTS-40C cells, with a total RNA of 200 ng per reaction.

Retroviral infection. The pB2/CMV-CTGF plasmid containing human CTGF cDNA was a kind gift from Dr. Gary Grotendorst (Lovelace Respiratory Research Institute, Albuquerque, NM; ref. 16, 26). For the construction of pBMN-CTGF-I-enhanced green fluorescent protein (EGFP) vector for retroviral delivery of CTGF, the human CTGF cDNA coding sequence was excised with EcoRI from pB2/CMV-CTGF vector and ligated into the pB2M-I-EGFP retroviral vector kindly provided by Dr. Gary Nolan with the same restriction site. Clones were sequenced to ensure correct CTGF cDNA orientation and sequence.

The pBMN-CTGF-I-EGFP vector (bicistronic) or pBMN-I-EGFP control vector was transfected into Phoenix E cells with a calcium phosphate transfection kit (Invitrogen) following a modified protocol. In brief, Phoenix cells were seeded at 1.5 × 10⁶ cells in a 6 cm culture plate 24 hours before transfection. For transfection, 10 μg of DNA and 61 μL of 2 mol/L CaCl₂ were brought to 0.5 mL with double-distilled water and added dropwise to 0.5 mL of 2× HBS, while aerating with a pipette, and followed by 30-minute incubation at room temperature to form fine precipitates. To Phoenix cells in 6 cm plates in 3 mL media, 2 μL of 50 mmol/L chloroquine stock were added. Five minutes later, DNA/CaHPO₄ precipitates were added dropwise, followed by overnight incubation at 37°C. Medium was replaced 24 hours after transfection and plates were incubated at 32°C. Virus in the supernatant from each retrovirus-producing line was collected 48 hours after transfection and filtered (0.45 μm). Three milliliters of viral supernatant with additional 0.5% FBS, 5% Nu serum (BD Biosciences), 0.5 μg/mL testosterone (Sigma), 5 μg/mL insulin, and 5 μg/mL polybrene were applied immediately to C57B2 prostate stromal cells at 60% to 80% confluence in T25 flask. Infection was carried out at 37°C. Viral supernatant was replaced with fresh Bfs medium 24 hours after infection. Expression of retroviral construct was confirmed by counting the percentage of green fluorescent (GFP positive) C56B cells per ×100 field. Infected cultures with a >90% green fluorescent cells per field were passaged and frozen (−80°C) in 4 × 10⁶ cells/vial aliquots for use in DBS xenografts.

3T3 cell GeneSwitch system. The GeneSwitch system (Invitrogen) was used to engineer 3T3 fibroblast cells with mifepristone (RU 486) inducible expression of a V5-His tagged CTGF protein. GeneSwitch-3T3 cells expressing the GeneSwitch regulatory protein from the pSwitch vector were purchased from Invitrogen. For the construction of pGene-CTGF-V5-His vector, the human CTGF cDNA was PCR amplified from pB2/CMV-CTGF with primers 5'-CTAGATCTCCCAGCGACGTGACC-3' (BanHI) and primer 5'-TCT-CTGGGCCGCTGCATGGTCATCCTCACCT-3' (ApaI). PCR cycles were run at 95°C for 30 seconds, 60°C for 30 seconds, and 72°C for 80 seconds for a total of 20 cycles after first incubation at 95°C for 2 minutes. The PCR reaction was incubated at 72°C for another 10 minutes for final extension. PCR products were purified with QiaQuick PCR purification kit (Qiagen). After digestion with BanHI and limited digestion with ApaI (to avoid internal ApaI site along CTGF cDNA sequence), the 1.1 kb CTGF insert was
CTGF Promotes Angiogenesis and Prostate Tumorigenesis

Athymic NCr-nu/nu male homozygous nude mice, 6 to 8 weeks of age, were purchased from Charles River Laboratories (Wilmington, MA). All experiments were in compliance with the NIH Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals and according to the institutional guidelines of Baylor College of Medicine.

DRS xenograft tumors were generated following procedures we have published previously (2, 3, 34). Briefly, frozen aliquots of LNCaP human prostate cancer cells (16 × 10^5) and the engineered stromal cells—C57B-CTGF (8 × 10^5 cells), C57B-control (8 × 10^5 cells), and γ-irradiated GeneSwitch-3T3 pGene CTGF-V5-His cells (4 × 10^5 cells)—were thawed in a 37°C water bath for 1 to 2 minutes and washed once with 10 mL RPMI supplemented with 10% serum (for stromal cells) in 15 mL conical tubes. The cells were pelleted at 1,400 × g for 2 minutes and resuspended in 6 mL RPMI 1640 with 10% FBS. The LNCaP cells were then combined with stromal cells, mixed well, and pelleted again at 1,400 × g for 2 minutes. The supernatant was aspirated to either 300 μL (for Matrigel experiments) or 200 μL [for growth factor–reduced (GFR) matrix mixture experiments] and cells were resuspended in the remaining medium. Cells were incubated on ice for 1.5 minutes and then combined with either 0.5 mL of Matrigel (Becton Dickinson, Bedford, MA) or 0.6 mL of a GFR matrix mixture composed of a 1:1 ratio of neutralized Vitrogen 100 (99.9% collagen type I; Cohesion, Palo Alto, CA) and GFR Matrigel (Becton Dickinson). In all experiments, the final volume was 800 μL. The cell–matrix suspension was injected s.c. in each lateral flank of adult NCr-nu/nu male mice.

To induce expression of CTGF-V5-His, mice with DRS xenografts composed of LNCaP cells combined with γ-irradiated GeneSwitch-3T3 pGene CTGF-V5-His cells received mifepristone (Sigma) or vehicle control (sesame seed oil; Sigma) at 0.5 mg/kg administered as 100 μl i.p. injections at the time of tumor injection and repeated every 48 hours until tumors were harvested. This mifepristone dose was based on protocols shown previously to induce consistent gene expression in vivo and had no affect on xenograft tumor weight or volume (data not shown). All mifepristone experiments are in accordance with our approved Animal Use Protocols and institutional guidelines of Baylor College of Medicine.

Tumors were collected at different time points between days 10 and 21 postinoculation. For the experimental sets of LNCaP cells combined with C57B-CTGF or C57B-control cells, the tumors were photographed in situ for GFP expression to confirm gene expression using a fluorescent dissecting microscope. The tumors were weighed, measured in three dimensions, and fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde (neutral buffered) at 4°C overnight, washed three times in PBS, and processed for paraffin embedding. Tumors were paraffin-embedded and 5 μm sections were cut and mounted onto ProbeOn Plus slides (Fisher Scientific, Pittsburgh, PA). Sections were either stained with H&E for histologic analysis or processed for immunohistochemistry.

Immunohistochemistry. Primary antibodies were as follows: anti-mouse CD31/platelet/endothelial cell adhesion molecule 1 antibody (rat monoclonal MEC13.3; BD PharMingen, San Diego, CA); anti-V5 mouse monoclonal antibody 46-0705 (Invitrogen); rabbit anti-GFP antibody A-11122 (Molecular Probes, Eugene, OR); goat anti-CTGF antibody 1-20 (Santa Cruz). Secondary antibodies were as follows: biotin-conjugated goat anti-rat IgG (BD PharMingen) for CD31, biotin-conjugated Universal Secondary (Invitrogen) for V5, biotin-conjugated goat anti-rabbit IgG (Jackson ImmunoResearch Laboratories) for GFP, and biotin-conjugated donkey anti-goat antibody (Jackson ImmunoResearch Laboratories). Specificity of each primary antibody has been evaluated previously (refs. 2, 3, 34; and unpublished data).

Immunostaining was done with the MicroProbe Staining System (Fisher Scientific) following our protocol published previously (2, 3, 34). Reagents formulated for use with capillary action systems were purchased from Open Biosystems (Huntsville, AL) and used according to the protocol of the manufacturer. In brief, tissues were deparaffinized using Auto Dewaxer and cleared with Auto Alcohol. Briefly, the slides were incubated with blocking solution to block nonspecific binding, and then incubated with primary antibody. After washing in PBS, the sections were incubated for 30 min in 5% normal donkey serum in PBS. The sections were then incubated with secondary antibody for 30 min. Sections were washed three times in PBS and mounted with ProLong Antifade (Molecular Probes). Sections were then evaluated using a fluorescent dissecting microscope (Fisher Scientific).
Laboratories, Burlingame, CA) and then incubated in stable diamino-benzidine tetrahydrochloride twice for 3 minutes each at 50°C. Tissues were counterstained with Auto Hematoxylin for 30 seconds.

Microvessel density analysis. Analysis was done according to standard procedures we have published previously with DRS tumors (2, 3, 34). Tissue sections were stained for CD31 as described above. Sections were scanned at ×100, and five random areas per tumor section were selected. Vessels in these fields were counted (at ×400) by an observer blinded to experimental conditions. The average vessel count was determined for each specimen.

Statistical analysis. Tumors from each condition were analyzed, and average tumor weight and average microvessel counts were compared with these values from their matching control tumors for statistical relevance using the unpaired t test. Statistical analyses used GraphPad Prism for Macintosh version 3.0 (GraphPad Software, San Diego, CA). P < 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

Results

Differential expression of connective tissue growth factor in tumor-promoting human prostate stromal cell lines. Our previous studies using the DRS xenograft model showed that several human prostate stromal cell lines differentially promote LNCaP prostate cancer cell tumorigenesis (2). Stromal cell–promoted tumors exhibited a significantly elevated rate of angiogenesis and this was TGF-β1 regulated (2, 3). Notably, the HTS-40C and the HTS-2T human prostate stromal cell lines exhibited opposing effects. In two-way DRS xenografts constructed of cancer cells and stromal cells in the absence of extracellular matrix (Matrigel), the HTS-40C/LNCaP combinations resulted in a 65% tumor incidence, whereas HTS-2T/LNCaP combinations were nontumorigenic (0% tumor incidence; ref. 2). To address potential mechanisms, gene expression profiles in HTS-40C and HTS-2T stromal cells were compared using cDNA microarray analyses. This analysis showed that 12 previously characterized genes were elevated by 3- to 31-fold in the protumorigenic HTS-40C stromal cell line compared with HTS-2T. These genes are listed in Table 1. Expression of several of these genes is associated with reactive stroma that forms at sites of wound repair, microbial invasion, or carcinoma as we have reported previously (1, 32, 35). Of these, CTGF is a known inducer of angiogenesis (36), is TGF-β1regulated (2, 3). Notably, the HTS-40C cells compared with HTS-2T cells. Further analysis confirmed this with RT-PCR and showed that CTGF message expression was severalfold higher in HTS-40C cells relative to HTS-2T cells as shown in Fig. 1A. receptor-ligand binding (40). Our microarray data suggested that CTGF message was 4.5-fold higher in HTS-40C cells compared with HTS-2T cells. Further analysis confirmed this with RT-PCR and showed that CTGF message expression was severalfold higher in HTS-40C cells relative to HTS-2T cells as shown in Fig. 1A.

Although the HTS-2T stromal cell line did not support LNCaP tumorigenesis in matrix-free conditions (two-way tumors), HTS-2T cells did promote LNCaP tumors (incidence, rate of tumorigenesis, and angiogenesis) when combined with Matrigel matrix in three-way DRS xenografts that are constructed with cancer cells, stromal cells, and Matrigel matrix (2, 3). Matrigel matrix is high in TGF-β1 and we have reported that inhibiting TGF-β1 activity in Matrigel lowers the rate of tumorigenesis and angiogenesis in three-way DRS tumors (3). Accordingly, we next determined whether TGF-β1 could induce CTGF expression in human prostate HTS-2T stromal cells. As shown in Fig. 1B, HTS-2T cells in control conditions exhibited low expression, whereas HTS-2T cultures exposed to TGF-β1 (100 pmol/L, 24 hours) exhibited elevated CTGF message expression. This is in agreement with previous reports showing TGF-β1 regulation of CTGF expression in other stromal cell lines (15, 19).

Table 1. Genes up-regulated in the HTS-40C cells compared with HTS-2T cells

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>40C/2T</th>
<th>Gene</th>
<th>UniGene no.</th>
<th>Accession no.</th>
<th>Gene description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
<td>31.333</td>
<td>PLOD2</td>
<td>Hs.477866</td>
<td>U84573</td>
<td>Procollagen-lysine, 2-oxoglutarate 5-dioxygenase 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.800</td>
<td>TRAP1</td>
<td>Hs.30345</td>
<td>U12595</td>
<td>Tumor necrosis factor receptor-associated protein 1</td>
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<tr>
<td>7.666</td>
<td>TP53BP2</td>
<td>Hs.528968</td>
<td>A1H2916</td>
<td>Tumor protein p53-binding protein, 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.847</td>
<td>AFB3</td>
<td>Hs.119177</td>
<td>M74955</td>
<td>ADP ribosylation factor 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.899</td>
<td>CTH</td>
<td>Hs.363396</td>
<td>M12383</td>
<td>Complement protein H</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.637</td>
<td>FMO</td>
<td>Hs.13282*</td>
<td>A1021026</td>
<td>Flavin-containing monoxygenase</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.466</td>
<td>CTGF</td>
<td>Hs.75511</td>
<td>U14750</td>
<td>Connective tissue growth factor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.841</td>
<td>THBS1</td>
<td>Hs.164226</td>
<td>NM_003246</td>
<td>Thrombospondin 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.574</td>
<td>BRAP</td>
<td>Hs.530940</td>
<td>AF035950</td>
<td>BRCA1-associated protein</td>
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<tr>
<td>3.152</td>
<td>ADHIA</td>
<td>Hs.368549</td>
<td>NM_000667</td>
<td>Alcohol dehydrogenase 1A (class I, α polypeptide</td>
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<td>3.130</td>
<td>PTGS1</td>
<td>Hs.201978</td>
<td>U63846</td>
<td>Prostaglandin-endoperoxide synthase 1 (prostaglandin G/H synthase and cyclooxygenase)</td>
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<tr>
<td>3.083</td>
<td>PTX3</td>
<td>Hs.546280</td>
<td>M31166</td>
<td>Pentraxin-related gene, rapidly induced by interleukin-1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Retired UniGene number without concise replacement.
Expression of connective tissue growth factor in prostate stromal cells promotes angiogenesis and LNCaP tumorigenesis.
A construct containing the full-length human CTGF cDNA (kindly provided by Dr. Gary Grotendorst) was used to construct a bicistronic retroviral vector (pBMN-CTGF-I-EGFP) containing CTGF followed by an IRES and EGFP for detection of expression. Either vector control (pBMN-I-EGFP) or the CTGF-containing retrovirus preparations were used to infect the mouse prostate stromal cell line (C57B) and cells were analyzed for fluorescence 48 hours later as described in Materials and Methods. Figure 2A shows infected and EGFP-expressing C57B stromal cells before use in the DRS xenograft. C57B cells routinely exhibited a 90% infectivity rate or higher (data not shown). Western blot analysis showed overexpression of the mature form of CTGF (~38 kDa) in the experimental cell conditioned medium and low endogenous levels in the control infected cultures (Fig. 2B). Shorter fragments were also observed (Fig. 2B, band A and band B), which have been reported in the conditioned media of CTGF-secreting cells by others (41).

To evaluate the effects of CTGF expression from prostate stromal cells in three-way LNCaP tumors in nude mice, we inoculated cell combinations in either complete Matrigel or a modified matrix composed of a 1:1 mix of GFR Matrigel together with neutralized Vitrogen 100 collagen type I (GFR Matrigel/Vitrogen) to reduce bioactive factors in the matrix component. S.c. three-way DRS xenografts were constructed in male nude mice using 2 x 10⁶ LNCaP cells, and 1 x 10⁶ control C57B (EGFP-expressing vector only) or CTGF-expressing C57B prostate stromal cells and the different Matrigel matrix preparations as described in Materials and Methods. Tumors were harvested at day 13 postinoculation because our previous studies have shown that day 10 to day 14 postinoculation is the optimal time frame to assess initial rate of angiogenesis and tumorigenesis (2, 3, 34). It should be noted that control or CTGF-transduced C57B cells inoculated alone or with matrix were nontumorigenic (data not shown) similar to our previous report (2). As shown in Fig. 2C, tumors were fluorescent in situ before removal. This confirmed transgene expression and viability of the engineered C57B stromal cells in the tumor xenograft.

Tumors exhibited a typical arrangement of LNCaP carcinoma cell clusters, surrounded by stromal cells, matrix, and vessels as shown in Fig. 3A and B, similar to what we have reported previously (2). There were no particular differences in histology or ratio of carcinoma to stromal cells in experimental tumors compared with control tumors. Prostate stromal cells engineered with the CTGF transgene in tumors were positive for both EGFP (Fig. 3C) and CTGF (Fig. 3D) proteins, and were immediately adjacent to clusters of LNCaP carcinoma cells. Immunostaining for CD31 as an endothelial marker showed an obvious difference in vessels. The density of CD31-positive microvessels in CTGF-expressing xenografts (Fig. 3F) seemed higher compared with control xenografts (Fig. 3E). Microvessel counts confirmed this. In complete Matrigel conditions, LNCaP xenograft tumors constructed with CTGF-expressing prostate stromal cells exhibited a microvessel density of 10.60 ± 1.35 compared with 6.16 ± 1.60 in vector-only control tumors (n = 25 fields, five tumors each, mean ± SE, P < 0.05; Fig. 4A). This represented a 72% increase in vessel density in the stromal CTGF-expressing tumors. The increase in vessel density correlated with elevated tumor mass. The mean wet weight of stromal CTGF-expressing LNCaP tumors was 24.42 ± 6.16 g compared with 8.89 ± 2.38 g (n = 5, mean ± SE, P < 0.01; Fig. 4B) in control tumors, indicating that stromal CTGF expression produced a 35% increase in tumor mass when xenografts are constructed in complete Matrigel conditions.

Significant differences in angiogenesis were even more pronounced in the low growth factor–modified matrix (GFR Matrigel/Vitrogen 100) conditions. CTGF-expressing tumors exhibited an average microvessel density of 10.10 ± 1.73.
compared with 4.70 ± 1.00 in control tumors, representing a 115% increase over control (n = 30, from six tumors in each condition, mean ± SE, P < 0.01; Fig. 4C). The stromal CTGF-expressing LNCaP tumors constructed in the GFR-modified matrix showed an average wet weight of 17.58 ± 0.60 mg compared with 12.97 ± 0.71 mg in control tumors (n = 18 in the CTGF experimental and n = 17 in the control, mean ± SE, P < 0.0001; Fig. 4D), representing a 36% increase in tumor mass.

Regulated expression of CTGF-V5-His in 3T3 fibroblasts promotes LNCaP tumorigenesis. To confirm and extend the findings with retroviral transduced C57B cells, the GeneSwitch System (Invitrogen) was used to engineer 3T3 stromal cell lines with mifepristone-regulated expression of an epitope-tagged CTGF-V5-His (fusion protein). Cultures at 80% to 100% confluence were induced with 100 pmol/L mifepristone for 24 to 48 hours. Western blot analysis for the V5 epitope showed an inducible 41 kDa CTGF-V5-His band in the conditioned media (Fig. 5A). DRS xenograft tumors were generated in nude mice using 2 × 10^6 LNCaP cells combined with γ-irradiated 5 × 10^5 GeneSwitch-3T3 pGene CTGF-V5-His cells and complete Matrigel (three-way DRS xenograft conditions). Irradiated engineered 3T3 cells (800 rad) were used because these cells remain viable, exhibit regulated transgene expression, and have a low proliferative rate relative to wild-type NIH 3T3 cells. Mice were given mifepristone or vehicle i.p. every 48 hours as described in Materials and Methods. Our previous studies have shown that this protocol of mifepristone treatment has no ill effect on nude mice and does not affect control tumor biology (2, 34). Resulting tumors were harvested 10 days postinoculation. Immunohistochemistry showed tightly regulated CTGF-V5-His protein expression in vivo (Fig. 5B). No expression was noted in tumors derived from vehicle control-treated animals (Fig. 5C). Tumors exhibited a typical carcinoma phenotype similar to the LNCaP/C57B combinations, although the tumors were considerably more heterogeneous with more focal nodules of carcinoma and other areas that seemed to have little carcinoma growth. There was, however, no apparent difference in histopathology noted between vehicle control and mifepristone-treated animals. LNCaP DRS tumors from mifepristone-treated animals exhibited a 25% average increase in wet weight as shown in Fig. 5D. The mean weight of control tumors was 17.91 ± 1.04 mg, whereas tumors from mifepristone-treated animals averaged 22.41 ± 1.76 mg (P < 0.05,
$n = 12$ tumors each). The tumors exhibited a very heterogeneous density of microvessels, as might be expected, due to the nodular and heterogeneous histopathology. This was obvious at low-power observation (data not shown). The heterogeneous nature of the vessel density patterns in these tumors was not compatible with the microvessel-counting protocol (see Materials and Methods) as the accuracy of this method is dependent on uniform vessel distribution. Accordingly, no attempt was made to quantitate microvessel density in these tumors as these data would not be accurate.

**Discussion**

To date, no effective approach exists to manipulate overexpression of a transgene in the stromal compartment in a tissue-specific manner *in situ*. Accordingly, we have used the DRS xenograft tumor approach to test the biological consequences of differential transgene expression in the reactive stroma compartment of an experimental human tumor in a nude mouse host. Our previous studies have shown that use of different human prostate stromal cell lines result in vast differences in LNCaP tumorigenesis *in vivo* (2). Furthermore, we have shown that the endogenous TGF-$\beta_1$ activity in complete Matrigel is responsible for this difference in both angiogenesis and tumorigenesis (3). Our current study shows that CTGF may mediate TGF-$\beta_1$ actions in the prostate stromal microenvironment.

Data reported here address this question directly and suggests that TGF-$\beta_1$-stimulated reactive stroma response in cancer and whether this reactive stroma is tumor promoting. It is becoming clearer that the classic regulators of wound repair play an important role in carcinoma-reactive stroma and CTGF biology. For example, both fibroblast growth factor-2 (FGF-2) and vascular endothelial growth factor have been reported to stimulate CTGF expression (25, 42). FGF-2 expression is also TGF-$\beta_1$ regulated in fibroblasts from the prostate gland and other tissues (43, 44). Hypoxia will induce CTGF expression via a hypoxia-inducible factor-1$\alpha$ pathway (45). In addition, thrombin and plasma clotting actor VIIa also induce CTGF expression (46). Accordingly, several factors and conditions associated with wound repair are known to affect CTGF expression and many of these factors and conditions are likely to play a role in tumor-associated reactive stroma.

The specific mechanisms of how CTGF or closely related family members directly affect reactive stromal cells in the tumor microenvironment is not fully understood. It is known that both CTGF and Cyr61 promote fibroblast adhesion through integrin $\alpha_6\beta_1$ and that this process requires cell surface heparan sulfate proteoglycans (47). Cyr61 and CTGF also stimulated migration and proliferation of fibroblasts, as well as endothelial cells (24, 48). In addition, CTGF also affects matrix production and remodeling. For example, CTGF was shown to stimulate fibronectin expression via a $\alpha_4$2/44 mitogen-activated protein kinase and phosphoinositide 3 kinase/protein kinase B pathway (49). It will be important to dissect how CTGF signaling pathways in reactive stroma associated with tumors. Key components of these mechanisms may be useful as targets of therapeutic approaches directed at the tumor microenvironment.

The DRS model described in this study brings the opportunity to use highly efficient gene delivery and stable gene integration...
of retroviral-infected mouse prostate stromal cell lines to study the roles of epithelial-cell-stromal cell interactions in carcinoma tumorigenesis and progression. Accordingly, the DRS model has allowed for the ability to dissect out the roles of individual growth factors in the reactive stroma compartment of a tumor. Data reported here represent the first study to show that expression of CTGF in the tumor microenvironment stromal cells of an experimental epithelial cancer functions to stimulate angiogenesis and tumor growth.

Emerging data supports the concept that the reactive stromal tumor microenvironment functions to affect the rate of tumorigenesis in most epithelial carcinomas studied to date. Accordingly, it is likely that the biological components and specific mechanisms of reactive stroma can be used both as prognostic indicators and as targets of therapeutics. This study shows that CTGF is a TGF-β1-regulated and stromal-expressed factor that promotes tumorigenesis and is, therefore, a theoretical target for therapeutics focusing on tumor-associated reactive stroma biology.

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Figure 5. Regulated expression of CTGF in stromal cells stimulates LNCaP tumorigenesis. Xenograft tumors were generated with LNCaP cells plus GeneSwitch-3T3 pGene CTGF-VS-His stromal cells. A, anti-V5 Western blot of conditioned medium from GeneSwitch-3T3 pGene CTGF-VS-His cells induced by Mifepristone (RU 486) or vehicle control (Control) in vitro. B and C, anti-V5 immunostaining on DRS xenograft tumors generated from γ-irradiated GeneSwitch-3T3 pGene CTGF-VS-His (800 rad) and LNCaP cells in BD Matrigel. CTGF-VS-His protein expression was induced by mifepristone (B), but not by vehicle control (C). Bar, 50 μm. D, tumor wet weight for LNCaP DRS tumors generated in the presence of γ-irradiated GeneSwitch-3T3 pGene CTGF-VS-His cells induced with mifepristone or vehicle control (day 10 postinoculation; n = 12 in each group). *Statistically significant increase in wet weights of mifepristone-induced CTGF expression tumors when compared with control tumors (P < 0.05).


Integrated Transforming Growth Factor-β/Fibroblast Growth Factor-2 Signaling Regulates Reactive Stroma and Promotes Prostate Cancer

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Running Title: TGF-β signaling in prostate cancer reactive stroma.

Key Words: Transforming growth factor beta, fibroblast growth factor, prostate cancer, stroma, angiogenesis

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Abstract

Transforming growth factor-β (TGF-β) is overexpressed at sites of wound repair and in most adenocarcinomas including prostate cancer. In stromal tissues, TGF-β regulates cell proliferation, phenotype, and matrix synthesis. Our previous studies suggest reactive stroma promotes prostate cancer tumorigenesis, however, the mechanisms of TGF-β action in cancer-associated reactive stroma are not well understood. To address mechanisms, we developed prostate stromal cells null for TGF-β receptor II (TβRII) or engineered to express a dominant negative Smad3 (Smad3ΔSSVS) to attenuate TGF-β signaling. The DRS (differential reactive stroma) xenograft model was used to evaluate altered stromal TGF-β signaling on LNCaP tumor progression. LNCaP xenograft tumors constructed with TβRII null stromal cells exhibited a 49.8% reduction in mass relative to controls. Similarly, stromal expression of Smad3ΔSSVS resulted in a 40.6% decrease in tumor mass. Significantly lower microvessel density and decreased cellular fibroblast growth factor-2 (FGF-2) immunostaining were associated with attenuated TGF-β signaling in stroma. In vitro, TGF-β stimulated stromal FGF-2 expression and release. However, stromal cells with attenuated TGF-β signaling exhibited low basal FGF-2 expression and were refractory to TGF-β-stimulated FGF-2 expression and release. Re-expression of FGF-2 in these stromal cells in DRS xenografts resulted in restored tumor mass and microvessel density. These data show that TGF-β signaling in reactive stroma is tumor-promoting and that this effect is mediated in part through a TβRII/Smad3-dependent up-regulation of FGF-2 expression and release. Accordingly, TGF-β/FGF-2 signaling in cancer-associated reactive stroma is likely a key mechanism through which the microenvironment promotes angiogenesis and tumorigenesis.
Introduction

Several studies suggest that the generation of a reactive stromal microenvironment regulates carcinoma progression, however, the specific biological functions of reactive stroma and the key factors and signaling mechanisms that mediate a tumor regulatory function of reactive stroma are not well understood. TGF-β has emerged as a key candidate for regulation of the tumor microenvironment due to its critical function in modulating stromal cell phenotype and promoting angiogenesis. TGF-β regulates diverse functions of stromal cells through both Smad-dependent and -independent signaling pathways and is a key regulator of stromal cells at sites of wound repair and fibrosis (1-3). Using Smad3 knockout mice, studies have shown that TGF-β-induced fibrosis is partly mediated through Smad3 pathways, although it is less clear whether this pathway or others are activated in stromal cells during wound healing and in carcinoma-associated reactive stroma (4, 5).

Our previous studies have shown that reactive stroma initiates directly adjacent to foci of pre-malignant prostatic intraepithelial neoplasia (PIN) and subsequently co-evolves with human prostate cancer progression (6). This reactive stroma is composed of both activated fibroblasts and myofibroblasts and elevated TGF-β1 was observed in PIN epithelial cells. Concordantly, TGF-β1 induced human prostate stromal cells in culture to a myofibroblast phenotype that overexpressed tenascin, a biomarker of reactive stroma (6). Using differential cDNA microarray analyses, we subsequently showed that connective tissue growth factor (CTGF) was expressed at low levels in nontumor-promoting prostate stromal cells. Moreover, in addition to the TGF-β-induced stromal CTGF expression observed in culture, ectopic stromal CTGF expression promoted LNCaP differential reactive stroma (DRS) xenograft tumor growth and angiogenesis suggesting that CTGF may be a downstream mediator of TGF-β action in cancer-associated
reactive stroma(7). In general, TGF-β is overexpressed in most human carcinomas that are associated with a reactive stroma (8-10) and is thought to promote cancer progression. However, under variant conditions, some reports have indicated that TGF-β may inhibit cancer progression which demonstrates the need to define, in a tumor-specific context, the specific mechanisms and mediators of TGF-β action in reactive stroma and whether this results in a cancer-promoting or -inhibiting biology (11-14).

Reactive stroma that forms in response to carcinoma is phenotypically similar to a wound repair stroma (15, 16). In wound repair, TGF-β stimulates extracellular matrix deposition, regulates stromal cell phenotype, and is pro-angiogenic (2, 17, 18). One of the angiogenic molecules transiently regulated by TGF-β during wound repair is fibroblast growth factor 2 (FGF-2) (19, 20). In addition to its angiogenic role, FGF-2 is also mitogenic for stromal and epithelial cells, and is significantly up-regulated in prostatic disease (21, 22). Accordingly, it has been suggested that growth factor expression in reactive stroma promotes carcinoma progression (23-25).

In this report, we show that attenuated TGF-β signaling in prostate stromal cells through either a targeted knockout of TGF-β receptor II (TβRII) or by expression of a dominant negative Smad3 results in an inhibition of the tumor-promoting function of reactive stroma in the human prostate cancer DRS xenograft model. In addition, we show that the pro-angiogenesis and tumor-promoting function of TGF-β signaling in this model is mediated, in part, by induced expression and release of FGF-2 from reactive stromal cells in a TβRII/Smad3-dependent manner.

Materials and Methods
**Cell Lines.** LNCaP human prostate carcinoma cells were purchased from ATCC (American Type Culture Collection, Manassas, VA) and maintained in RPMI 1640 media (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) (Hyclone, Logan, UT), 100 Units/ml penicillin, and 100 μg/ml streptomycin (Sigma, St Louis, MO). The Phoenix E packaging cell line was obtained from ATCC by permission from Dr. Gary Nolan (Stanford University) and maintained in DMEM with high glucose (Invitrogen) supplemented with 10% heat inactivated FBS (Hyclone), 2 mM glutamine (Invitrogen), 100 units/ml penicillin, and 100 μg/ml streptomycin (Sigma). The C57B mouse prostate stromal cell line was generated as reported previously (7) and cultured in Bfs medium: DMEM (Invitrogen) supplemented with 5% FBS (Hyclone), 5% Nu Serum (BD Biosciences, Bedford, MA), 0.5 μg/ml testosterone, 5 μg/ml insulin, 100 units/ml penicillin and 100 μg/ml streptomycin (Sigma).

We established the PST[RII]flox/floxH prostate stromal cell line from the ventral prostate of an 8 week Tgfbr2floxE2/floxE2 mouse that was kindly provided by Dr. Neil Bhowmick (Vanderbilt University) (12). The ventral prostate was cut into approximately 1 mm³ pieces and placed in a 12 well culture plate in Bfs media. Primary cultures of stromal cells reached confluence and were passaged and maintained in Bfs media and thereafter referred to as a finite cell line according to conventional terminology (The Society for In Vitro Biology). Cultures at passages 8–15 were used for all experiments.

**Knockout of T[RII] alleles in PST[RII]flox/floxH cells.** The self-excising “Hit and Run” HR-MMPCreGFP retroviral construct containing cDNA encoding an active Cre-GFP fusion protein with a lox 511 in the 3’ LTR U3 region, and the control construct HR-MMPCreGFPY324F containing cDNA encoding CreY324F-GFP fusion protein (a loss of function Cre Recombinase mutant), were kindly provided by Drs. Daniel P. Silver and David M.
Livingston (Harvard University) (26). These constructs were transfected into Phoenix E cells with the Calcium Phosphate Transfection kit (Invitrogen), following procedures published previously (7). Virus was collected, filtered (0.45 μm) and applied to infect PSTβRII<sup>fl</sup>/H stromal cells as previously described (7). Expression of the Cre-GFP fusion protein in PSTβRII<sup>fl</sup>/H cells excised the floxed T<sup>βRII</sup> alleles and self-excised the lox 511 flanked CreGFP, resulting in T<sup>βRII</sup> null prostate stromal cells termed PSTβRIIKO cells. Expression of CreY324F-GFP in PSTβRII<sup>fl</sup>/H cells did not excise T<sup>βRII</sup> alleles and these control cells were named PSTβRIICT. The T<sup>βRII</sup> knockout efficiency in the PSTβRIIKO cells was determined by biological assays using TGF-β responsive reporter assays and TGF-β-induced smooth muscle α-actin (SM-α-actin) filament formation as described below.

**N-Flag-Smad3ΔSSVS expression in C57B prostate stromal cells.** To inhibit Smad3-mediated signaling pathways, either pLPCX-N-Flag-Smad3ΔSSVS or control vector pLPCX, kindly provided by Drs. Lisa Choy Tomlinson and Rik Derynck (University of California, San Francisco), was transfected into Phoenix E cells with a Calcium Phosphate Transfection kit (Invitrogen). Virus was collected, filtered (0.45 μm) and applied to infect C57B mouse prostate stromal cells following a previously described protocol (7). Cells were cultured in Bfs media and selected using 2 μg/ml puromycin. The resulting cell lines were termed C57B-Smad3ΔSSVS and control C57B-Ctrl cells. Infected cells were evaluated for expression of the dominant negative Smad3 construct by immunofluorescence (Flag-tag) as described below. C57B-Smad3ΔSSVS cells were tested for attenuated Smad3 signaling using a Smad3-responsive reporter assay as described below.

**Immunofluorescence.** For detection of N-Flag-Smad3ΔSSVS expression, C57B-Ctrl and C57B-Smad3ΔSSVS cells were cultured in Bfs media on coverslips to 50% confluence,
washed briefly in PBS, fixed with methanol for 10 min and acetone for 1 min at –20 °C. After blocking in 1% BSA in PBS, the cells were sequentially incubated with rabbit anti-Flag antibody (1:200, Sigma), FITC-conjugated goat anti-rabbit IgG (1:150, Jackson ImmunoResearch Laboratories Inc, West Grove, PA) and mounted with VECTASHIELD mounting media with DAPI (Vector Laboratories Inc., Burlingame, CA). Cells were examined and photographed with a Nikon fluorescence microscope.

For detection of SM-α-actin filament formation, TβRIIKO and TβRIICT cells were cultured on coverslips in Bfs media to 20% confluence, followed by exposure to 50 pM of TGF-β1 or vehicle control in M0 (MCDB 110 supplemented with insulin, transferrin, and sodium selenite (Sigma Diagnostics)) media for 72h. The cells were then washed briefly in PBS, fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde (neutral buffered) at room temperature for 10 min, and washed sequentially in PBS and PBS with 0.1% Triton X-100. After blocking in 1% BSA in PBS, the cells were immunostained for SM-α-actin (FITC-conjugated anti-SM-α-actin, Sigma) as described previously (6).

**Promoter Assays.** The PSTβRIIKO, PSTβRIICT, PSTβRIIflox/flox H, C57B-Ctrl and C57B-Smad3ΔSSVS cells were seeded into 12 well plates at a density of 1 ¥ 10^4 cells/cm² and incubated at 37 °C overnight. One hour before transfection, the cells were switched to DMEM with 0.2% FBS. The cells were then transfected with 0.4 μg/well of either p800Luc (27), (CAGA)_{12}MLP (28), β-SMAp-luc (29) or pVim-luc (a reporter construct made in pGl3 vector (Promega Corp. Madison, WI) containing PCR amplified –825 to –28 human vimentin promoter region from –757Cat (30)) with FuGENE 6 transfection reagent according to the manufacturer’s protocol (Roche Applied Sciences, Indianapolis, IN). A promoter-less pRL-null vector (Promega) co-transfected at 0.1 μg/well was used for an internal transfection efficiency control.
Medium was replaced 24h after transfection with fresh DMEM containing 0.2% FBS with 50 pM of TGF-β1 (R&D Systems, Minneapolis, MN) or vehicle control. Cells were collected 24h later and assayed for luciferase activity using the Dual-Luciferase® Reporter Assay system (Promega) following the manufacturer’s protocol with a luminometer. The luciferase activity was normalized to the co-transfected pRL-null and expressed in relative units or fold induction.

**TGF-β1-regulated FGF-2 Message in prostate stromal cells (qPCR).** Transcriptional regulation of native FGF-2 message by TGF-β1 was assessed by quantitative reverse transcription-polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR). PSTβRIICT, PSTβRIIKO, C57B-Ctrl and C57B-Smad3ΔSSVS prostate stromal cells were seeded in 6-well plates at 2 x 10^5 cells/well in Bfs medium for 24 hours upon which media was changed to 0.5% FBS in DMEM for 24 hours to induce quiescence. Cells were then treated with 100 pM (2.5ng/ml) porcine TGF-β1 (R&D Systems) or vehicle control in 0.5% FBS in DMEM for 24 hours and total RNA was extracted using the RNeasy Miniprep kit (Qiagen, Inc., Valencia, CA). 1 mg total RNA was reverse transcribed with random hexamer primers using the SuperScript III First Strand Synthesis kit (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) for 50 min at 50°C in a 100-µl reaction volume according to the manufacturer’s instructions. Then 1 µl of reversed transcribed product was analyzed for mouse FGF-2 and GAPDH by real-time PCR using Platinum SYBR Green qPCR SuperMix-UDG with ROX (Invitrogen) on the ABI Prism PE7700 sequence analyzer (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA). Gene-specific PCR primers were designed using Primer Express software (Applied Biosystems) following the guidelines provided by Applied Biosystems. The FGF-2 amplicon spanned exons 1 and 2 and consisted of the primers 5’GTCCGCGAGAAGAGCGAC (T_m = 59°C) and 5’ACACTCCCTTGATAGACACAACTCC (T_m = 59°C). For an internal control, a GAPDH amplicon was designed to span exons 5 and 6 and consisted of the primers 5’
CCTACCCCCCAATGTGTCCG ($T_m = 59^\circ C$) and 5' CCTTCTTGATGTCATCATACTTGCC
($T_m = 59^\circ C$). Amplification was performed using MicroAmp 96-well plates with 10 μM primers in a 25 μl reaction volume. The thermal cycling conditions were AmpErase UNG activity for 2 min at 50°C, Platinum Taq DNA polymerase activation for 10 min at 95°C, and 40 cycles of 15 s at 95°C and 30 s at 60°C. Cycle threshold values (Ct) were analyzed using SDS1.9 software (Applied Biosystems). Singleplex FGF-2 quantities were normalized against GAPDH RNA amplification. Relative expression levels were determined by the comparative Ct method (ABI Prism 7700 SDS User Bulletin no. 2; Applied Biosystems). The slope of log input amount versus $\Delta$Ct was 0.05, indicating similar amplification efficiencies of FGF-2 and the GAPDH RNA reference.

**Ectopic FGF-2 expression in PST\[\text{RIIKO and C57B}\] Smad3\[\text{∆SSVS cells.}\]** The pRev-TRE2 vector containing the 18kDa FGF-2 isoform with C-terminal fusion to GFP was kindly provided by Dr. Walter Nickel (Heidelberg University, Germany) (31). FGF-2-GFP cDNA was excised from pRev-TRE2 with EcoRI digestion and ligated into the retroviral vector pBMN-LacZ kindly provided by Dr. Gary Nolan (Stanford University). The FGF-2 cDNA orientation and sequence was verified by sequencing. Functionality of the FGF-2 fusion protein has been established previously (31). Either pBMN-FGF-2-GFP or control vector pBMN-I-eGFP (Dr. Gary Nolan) was transfected into Phoenix E cells, virus was collected, filtered (0.45 μm) and applied to infect PST\[\text{RIIKO or C57B}\] Smad3\[\text{∆SSVS mouse prostate stromal cells}\] as described above. The resulting cell lines were named PST\[\text{RIIKO-FGF-2, PST\[\text{RIIKO-Ctrl, C57B}\] Smad3\[\text{∆SSVS-FGF2 and C57B}\] Smad3\[\text{∆SSVS-Ctrl.}\]** Expression of the retroviral construct was confirmed by counting the percentage of green fluorescent (GFP positive) cells per X100 field. Infected cultures with a >90% green fluorescent cells per field were passaged and frozen (-80°C)
in 4 x 10⁶ cells/vial aliquots for direct use in DRS xenografts as we have reported previously (7, 32). Expression of FGF-2 protein in cell lines and DRS xenografts was verified by Western blot and immunohistochemistry as described below. Quantitation of FGF-2 released into the conditioned media was evaluated by ELISA as described below.

**ELISA (Quantitation of FGF-2 protein).** For determination of native FGF-2 protein, PST[RIICT, PST[RIIKO, C57B-Ctrl and C57B-Smad3 SSVS cells were seeded at 2 X 10⁵ cells/well in 6-well plates in Bfs media for 24 hours followed by washing with PBS and replacing media with 0.5% FBS in DMEM for 24 hours. Cultures were subsequently treated with 100 pM porcine TGF-β1 (R&D Systems) or vehicle control for 24 hours. Cell extracts were made in 250 μl/well RIPA buffer (150mM NaCl, 50mM Tris HCl, 0.5% DOC, 0.1% SDS, 1% NP-40, protease inhibitor cocktail (Sigma)).

For determination of FGF-2 released into the conditioned media, PST[RIICT, PST[RIIKO, C57B-Ctrl and C57B-Smad3 SSVS cells were infected with virus containing FGF-2-GFP as described in the previous section producing the PST[RIICT-FGF-2, PST[RIIKO-FGF-2, C57B-Ctrl-FGF-2, and C57B-Smad3 SSVS-FGF-2 cell lines. Cells expressing ectopic FGF-2 were seeded at 1 x 10⁵ cells in 25 cm² flasks in Bfs for 24 hours followed by washing in PBS and replacing media with 1% FBS in DMEM for 24 hours. Cultures were subsequently treated with 4-40 pM porcine TGF-β1 or vehicle control for 24 hours and conditioned media was collected and centrifuged to remove debris. Both cellular FGF-2 (from 100 μl cell extracts) and released FGF-2 (from 100 μl conditioned media) were quantified by an FGF-2-specific ELISA following the manufacturer’s protocol (R&D Systems) and normalized to total cell number.
Western blot. To detect recombinant FGF-2 protein by western blot, 10 µg of cell extract were electrophoresed through a 12% SDS-PAGE gel. Proteins were transferred onto Nitrocellulose membrane (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Hercules, CA) and incubated in PBS buffer with 5% milk at 4°C overnight. Membranes were probed with a rabbit anti-GFP antibody (1:2,000, Molecular Probes, Eugene, OR) for 1 hour at room temperature (RT), followed by incubation with a biotin-conjugated goat anti-rabbit IgG (1:10,000, Sigma) for 45 minutes at RT. A streptavidin-horseradish peroxidase conjugate (Amersham Pharmacia Biotech UK Ltd, Buckinghamshire, UK) diluted at 1:5,000 was incubated for 30 mins at RT. Protein bands were detected by incubation with ECL+plus Western blotting detection system (Amersham Biosciences, UK Ltd, Buckinghamshire, UK) for 5 min at room temperature followed by exposure to Hyperfilm™ ECL™ from Amersham Pharmacia Biotech UK Ltd.

Animals and Preparation of DRS Xenografts. Athymic NCr-nu/nu male homozygous nude mice, 6–8 weeks of age, were purchased from Charles River Laboratories (Wilmington, MA). All experiments were in compliance with the NIH Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals and according to the institutional guidelines of Baylor College of Medicine.

DRS xenografts were generated following procedures we have published previously (7, 32-34). Xenografts were generated as following: Briefly, 16 × 10^6 LNCaP cells were combined with 4 × 10^6 of either PST[R]RIICT, PST[R]RIIKO, C57B-Ctrl, C57B-Smad3ASSVS, PST[R]RIIKO-Ctrl, PST[R]RIIKO-FGF2, C57B-Smad3ASSVS-Ctrl, or C57B-Smad3ASSVS-FGF2 prostate stromal cells. Cells were washed once with 10 ml of RPMI 1640 containing 10% FBS in 15-ml conical tubes. The cells were centrifuged at 400g for 2 minutes and resuspended in 6 ml of the same media. The LNCaP cells were then combined with stromal cells, mixed well and centrifuged again at 400g for 2 minutes. The supernatant was aspirated to 300 µl. The cells
were transferred to the TMF mouse facility and gently resuspended. After incubation on ice for 90 seconds, the cells were combined and mixed thoroughly with cold 0.5 ml Matrigel (Becton Dickinson, Bedford, MA). The mixture was drawn into a 1-ml syringe fitted with a 20-gauge needle. After switching to a 25-gauge needle, 100 µl of cell suspension was injected subcutaneously per site in each rear lateral flank, two injections per mouse, 3 mice, for a total of 6 tumors per injection preparation. A minimum of 3 independent experiments was performed for each combination tested (n=18 tumors).

Xenograft tumors were evaluated at either day 14 or 28 post-inoculation as these are optimal intermediate and later stage time points to assess microvessel density and xenograft mass as we have reported previously (7, 32-34). Xenografts were weighed and fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde (neutral buffered) at 4°C overnight, washed 3X in PBS and paraffin-embedded. 5 µm sections were mounted onto ProbeOn Plus slides (Fisher Scientific, Pittsburgh, PA) and either stained with H&E for histological analysis or processed for immunohistochemistry.

**Immunohistochemistry with DRS Xenografts.** Immunostaining of CD31 was performed with the MicroProbe Staining System (Fisher Scientific) following a protocol published previously (32). Anti-mouse CD31/PECAM-1 antibody and biotin-conjugated goat anti-rat IgG were from BD PharMingen (San Diego, CA). The protocol used for FGF-2 and GFP immunostaining followed a general protocol published previously (32). Briefly, after dewaxing, antigen retrieval was performed by steaming paraffin-embedded sections for 20 minutes in 10 mM citrate buffer. Sections were incubated with either a rabbit anti-GFP antibody (1:50, Molecular Probes) or a rabbit anti-FGF-2 antibody (1:200, Santa Cruz) for 1 hour at 37°C, washed, and incubated for 45 minutes at 37°C with a biotin-conjugated goat-anti-rabbit IgG
secondary antibody (1:800, Sigma, B-8895). Reagents formulated for use with capillary action systems were purchased from Open Biosystems (Huntsville, AL) and used according to the manufacturer’s protocol.

**Microvessel Density and Epithelial to Stromal Cell Ratio Analyses.** Analysis was performed according to procedures we have reported previously with DRS xenografts (7, 32-34). For microvessel density analysis, tissue sections were stained for CD31 as described above. Vessels per 400X random fields were counted by an observer blinded to experimental conditions. The average vessel count was determined for each specimen. An n=12 xenografts with six random fields per tumor from each separate combination were analyzed. To determine epithelial to stromal cell ratios, H & E stained sections at 400X random fields were counted by a blinded observer for number of epithelial cells and stromal cells per field. An n=6 xenografts with 2 fields per xenograft from each combination were analyzed for each combination.

**Statistical Analysis.** Xenografts from each condition were analyzed, and mean xenograft mass and mean microvessel density counts were compared with values from matching control tumors for statistical relevance using the unpaired *t* test (two-tailed). Statistical analyses were generated using GraphPad Prism for Macintosh version 4.0 (GraphPad Software, San Diego, CA). *P* < 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

**Results**

**Attenuation of TGF-b signaling in prostate stromal cell lines.** To address the biological effect of TGF-b signaling within the stromal compartment on prostate cancer progression, an adult, differentiated prostate stromal cell line null for T-bRII was generated. Briefly, primary stromal cell cultures were initiated from the ventral prostate of a C57B
Tgfb1<sup>2 floxE2/floxE2</sup> mouse, which carries loxP sites at introns 1 and 2 of the TGF-β type II receptor (TβRII) gene as previously described by Bhowmick et al (12). Upon first passage these cultures were termed the PST<sup>βRII flox/flox</sup>H cell line. Retroviral-mediated expression of Cre-GFP (a functional Cre DNA recombinase-GFP fusion protein), in a “Hit and Run” pattern, was used to knock out floxed <i>TβRII</i> alleles and self-excite the CreGFP transgene to limit Cre-induced toxicity in the cells (26). Control cells received CreGFPY324F, a loss-of-function Cre DNA recombinase mutant (26). The resulting cell lines were termed PST<sup>βRII KO</sup> (Prostate Stromal cells-TβRII KnockOut) and PST<sup>βRII CT</sup> (Prostate Stromal cells-TβRII ConTrol), respectively.

Compared with PST<sup>βRII CT</sup> cells and the parent PST<sup>βRII flox/flox</sup>H cells, attenuated TGF-β signaling was observed in the PST<sup>βRII KO</sup> cells. In control cells, TGF-β1 (50 pM) stimulated a 7-8 fold expression of p800Luc (PAI-1 promoter) (27) (Figure 1A), a 3-fold expression of SMα-luc (smooth muscle α-actin promoter) (29) (Figure 1B) and a 3-4 fold expression of pVim-luc (vimentin promoter) (Figure 1C). In contrast, there was no significant TGF-β1-induced promoter activity with any of these constructs in the PST<sup>βRII KO</sup> cells. TGF-β1 also induced a 250-270 fold expression of (CAGA)<sub>12</sub>MLP (Smad binding sequence) (28) in control cell lines, whereas this induction was restricted to 2.6-fold in PST<sup>βRII KO</sup> cells (Figure 1D). Since TGF-β has been shown to induce SM-α-actin filament formation during myofibroblast and smooth muscle cell differentiation, we determined whether this effect was attenuated in PST<sup>βRII KO</sup> cells. Accordingly, TGF-β1 induced SM-α-actin filament formation in the control PST<sup>βRII CT</sup> cells, but had no appreciable effect in PST<sup>βRII KO</sup> cells (Figure 2A,B).

**Attenuated TGF-β signaling in stromal cells inhibits LNCaP DRS xenografts.** To evaluate whether attenuated TGF-β signaling in prostate stroma affected tumorigenesis, xenografts were constructed by injecting human LNCaP cells together with PST<sup>βRII KO</sup> cells or
control PST\[RIICT\] cells, each combined with B.D. Matrigel in male NCr-nu/nu mice following procedures we have reported previously (7, 32-34). Xenografts were evaluated at 28 days post-injection for changes in tumor mass, histopathology and microvessel density as we have reported previously (7, 32). As shown in Figure 2C, attenuated TGF-\[b\] signaling in the PST\[RIIKO\] cells resulted in a 49.8% decrease in the tumor mass of the LNCaP / PST\[RIIKO\] xenografts (mean = 19.97 ± 2.77 mg, mean ± SEM) relative to control LNCaP / PST\[RIICT\] xenografts (39.77 ± 7.36 mg, mean ± SEM) (\(P=0.0167, n=18\) in each group) at day 28. Concordantly, a 44.1% reduction in microvessel density was observed in LNCaP / PST\[RIIKO\] xenografts (8.49 ± 1.01, mean ± SEM) compared to control LNCaP / PST\[RIICT\] xenografts (15.18 ± 0.96, mean ± SEM) (\(P<0.0001, n=72\) fields, 12 tumors in each group) (Figure 2D). Histopathology of xenograft tumors showed clusters of LNCaP cells adjacent to reactive stroma and vessels similar to what we have reported previously for this model and no obvious histological differences were observed in experimental compared to control tumors (data not shown) (7, 32-34). Quantitative evaluation of cancer cell to stromal cell ratios showed there were no significant differences in the ratios of LNCaP carcinoma cells to stromal cells in experimental tumors relative to control (data not shown).

**TGF-\[b\] regulation of tumor-promoting stroma is partially mediated through FGF-2 signaling.** Because of the decreased angiogenesis seen in tumors without stromal TGF-\[b\] signaling, stromal cells were examined by immunohistochemistry for expression of FGF-2, an angiogenic growth factor expressed in stroma at sites of wound repair and cancer. Positive FGF-2 immunoreactivity was observed in stromal cells in LNCaP / PST\[RIICT\] xenografts. In contrast, little to no immunoreactivity was observed in stromal cells of LNCaP / PST\[RIIKO\] xenografts (Figure 3A), further suggesting the involvement of FGF-2 in the tumor-promoting
biology of TGF-β signaling. Quantitative RT-PCR and ELISA data validated the decreased FGF-2 immunoreactivity observed in xenograft tumors demonstrating that TβRII was required for the upregulation of FGF-2 mRNA and protein in cultured prostate stromal cells (Figure 3B,C, respectively). Finally, to determine whether TGF-β induced release of FGF-2, stromal cells were engineered to over-express the secreted 18kDa isoform of FGF-2 as a biologically active GFP fusion (32) using a retroviral infection as described in the Materials and Methods. Western blot results show that ectopic FGF-2 protein levels were comparable between the PSTβRIICT-FGF-2 and PSTβRIIKO-FGF-2 cells under these conditions (Figure 3D, inset). Treatment of control cells showed that TGF-β1 induced a significant, dose-dependent release of FGF-2 into conditioned media, whereas this effect was inhibited in PSTβRIIKO-FGF-2 cells under these conditions (Figure 3D).

To determine whether the tumor-inhibiting effects of attenuated TGF-β signaling in stromal cells could be attributed to decreased FGF-2 expression, xenografts were constructed with LNCaP cells plus either PSTβRIIKO engineered to over-express FGF-2-GFP (18kDa) or these cells with the empty control vector (PSTβRIIKO-FGF2 or PSTβRIIKO-Ctrl). LNCaP / PSTβRIIKO-FGF2 xenografts showed resumed stromal FGF-2 immunostaining (Figure 4A) and this was due to the expression of the FGF-2-GFP fusion protein as these cells were also positive for GFP (Figure 4B). Over-expression of FGF-2 under these conditions produced a 40.0% increase in xenograft tumor mass in LNCaP / PSTβRIIKO-FGF2 xenografts (20.98 ± 1.72 mg) compared to LNCaP / PSTβRIIKO-Ctrl xenografts at day 14 (14.99 ± 1.43 mg) (P=0.0127, unpaired t test, n=18 xenografts in each group) (data not shown). A 141.1% increase in xenograft tumor mass was observed in LNCaP / PSTβRIIKO-FGF2 xenografts (44.14 ± 5.82 mg) compared to LNCaP / PSTβRIIKO-Ctrl xenografts at day 28 (18.31 ± 1.01 mg) (P<0.0001,
unpaired t test, n=18 xenografts in each group) (Figure 4C). Additionally, LNCaP / PST[RIIKO-FGF2 xenografts exhibited a 38.9% elevation of microvessel density (10.50± 1.04) compared to control LNCaP / PST[RIIKO-Ctrl xenografts (7.56± 0.84) (P=0.0307, unpaired t test, n=72 fields, 12 xenografts in each group) (Figure 4D).

**TGF-β Regulation of Tumor-Promoting Stroma is Smad3-Mediated.** The role of Smad3-mediated signaling in reactive stroma of cancer has not been addressed in previous studies. Accordingly, a key question of this study was to determine whether Smad3-mediated signaling is key in the tumor-promoting biology of cancer-associated stroma. We addressed this question using a dominant negative Smad3 (Smad3ΔSSVS) construct in C57B mouse prostate stromal cells to determine the effect that attenuating Smad3 signaling in stroma has on tumorigenesis. To attenuate Smad3 signaling, the C57B prostate stromal cell line was infected with either the vector control virus (pLPCX) or a virus containing dominant negative Smad3 (N-Flag-Smad3ΔSSVS) to create the C57B-Ctrl and C57B-Smad3ΔSSVS cell lines, respectively. This Smad3 dominant negative construct has been shown in previous studies to attenuate Smad3-mediated TGF-β signaling (35). Expression of the Flag-Smad3ΔSSVS in C57B-Smad3ΔSSVS cells was verified by immunofluorescence using an antibody to the Flag tag (data not shown). Attenuation of Smad3 signaling was verified by a significant reduction in TGF-β1-induced expression of the Smad3-responsive (CAGA)$_{12}$MLP reporter in the C57B-Smad3ΔSSVS cells compared to control (Figure 5A). Construction of DRS xenograft tumors with LNCaP epithelia and C57B-Smad3ΔSSVS stromal cells resulted in a significant reduction in xenograft tumor mass and microvessel density. LNCaP / C57B-Smad3ΔSSVS xenografts exhibited a 24.5% decrease in mean tumor mass at day 14 (21.48 ± 1.60 mg) as compared to control LNCaP / C57B-Ctrl xenografts (28.46 ± 1.21 mg) (P=0.0014, unpaired t test, n=18 tumors in each group).
A 40.6% decrease in mean wet weight was observed at day 28 in LNCaP/C57B-Smad3ΔSSVS xenografts (30.96 ± 4.52 mg) relative to control LNCaP/C57B-Ctrl tumors (52.09 ± 7.52 mg) \( (P=0.0216, \text{ unpaired } t \text{ test, } n=18 \text{ xenografts in each group}) \) (Figure 5B). Alteration in tumor mass was associated with reduced microvessel density as LNCaP/C57B-Smad3ΔSSVS xenografts exhibited a 31.4% decrease in mean microvessel density (10.60 ± 1.33) compared to control LNCaP/C57B-Ctrl xenografts (15.46 ± 1.26) \( (P=0.0089, \text{ unpaired } t \text{ test, } n=72 \text{ fields, } 12 \text{ xenografts in each group}) \) (Figure 5C). Consistent with xenografts constructed with T\(^\text{bRII} \) null stromal cells, there were no other significant differences in cancer cell to stromal cell ratios or obvious changes in histopathology (data not shown).

**Smad3-Regulated FGF-2 expression in prostate stromal cells is tumor-promoting.**

An additional key question of this study is whether FGF-2 expression in stromal cells is Smad3-mediated as this has not been addressed in previous studies. Evaluation of C57B-Ctrl and C57B-Smad3ΔSSVS stromal cell lines *in vitro* showed that TGF-\(\beta\)1 (100 pM) stimulated FGF-2 mRNA in control cells but an attenuated response was observed in C57B-Smad3ΔSSVS cells (Figure 5D). Similarly, total cellular FGF-2 protein was significantly elevated in C57B-Ctrl cells stimulated with TGF-\(\beta\)1, whereas this effect was abrogated in C57B-Smad3ΔSSVS cells (Figure 6A). In addition, a significant release of FGF-2 into the conditioned media was observed in TGF-\(\beta\)1-treated C57B-Ctrl-FGF-2 cells, but not in C57B-Smad3ΔSSVS-FGF-2 cells, both of which ectopically expressed equivalent levels of 18kDa FGF-2-GFP (Figure 6B).

To determine whether the tumor-inhibiting effects of attenuated Smad3 signaling in stromal cells could be attributed in part to decreased FGF-2 expression, we over-expressed FGF-2 in C57B-Smad3\[SSVS cells and constructed LNCaP DRS xenografts. Over-expression of FGF-2 produced a 30.4% increase in LNCaP/C57B-Smad3ΔSSVS-FGF-2 xenografts (24.15 ±
1.76 mg) compared to LNCaP / C57B-Smad3ΔSSVS-Ctrl control xenografts at day 14 (18.52 ± 1.27 mg, \( P=0.0138 \), unpaired \( t \) test, \( n=18 \) xenografts in each group) (Figure 6C). FGF-2-induced xenograft mass is comparable to day 14 control LNCaP / C57B-Ctrl xenografts with intact Smad3 signaling (28.46 ± 1.21 mg). Furthermore, LNCaP / C57B-Smad3ΔSSVS-FGF-2 xenograft tumors exhibited a 45.3% elevation in microvessel density (9.01 ± 0.69) compared to control xenografts (6.20 ± 0.60, \( P=0.0027 \), unpaired \( t \) test, \( n=72 \) fields, 12 xenografts in each group) (Figure 6D).

**Discussion**

Data presented here represent the first direct experimental evidence that links TGF-\( \beta \) action in the stromal compartment with the tumor-promoting biology of reactive stroma in prostate cancer. Furthermore, these data suggest that the biological actions of TGF-\( \beta \) signaling in reactive stroma is mediated in part through stimulated expression and release of FGF-2. Integrated TGF-\( \beta \)/FGF-2 signaling in stroma resulted in an elevated rate of prostate cancer tumorigenesis, consistent with a pro-angiogenic activity. In addition, these data show for the first time that TGF-\( \beta \) receptor signaling in cancer-associated reactive stroma is mediated, in part, through the Smad3 pathway, since signaling through additional pathways such as the MAP kinase pathways cannot be ruled out. These results are consistent with our previous reports, which have suggested that TGF-\( \beta \) induces a tumor-promoting reactive stroma in prostate cancer and a differentiation of adult human prostate stromal cells to a myofibroblast phenotype (6, 33). The identification of myofibroblasts in tumor-associated reactive stroma is reported in most human carcinomas (6, 23, 25, 36) and most carcinoma epithelial cells over-express TGF-\( \beta \)1 (8-
10, 24). Reactive stroma in human carcinomas has been characterized as a cancer-associated type of granulation tissue, which displays a myofibroblast phenotype similar to that observed in wound repair (15, 23, 24). Elevated angiogenesis, coordinate with elevated FGF-2 is common in granulation tissue and it is well established that TGF-\(\beta\) promotes granulation tissue formation and angiogenesis \textit{in vivo} (2). FGF-2 is TGF-\(\beta\)-regulated and a mitogen for epithelial and stromal cells while also playing a role in the migration of endothelial cells during blood vessel formation. In addition to its fibrogenic role during wound repair, a significant upregulation of FGF-2 is seen in a variety of cancers including prostate cancer (21, 37, 38). Concordantly, tumor growth in the TRAMP mouse prostate cancer model was slowed in a FGF-2 knockout background (39). In addition, FGF receptor 1 (FGFR1), a cognate receptor for FGF-2, is upregulated in epithelia during prostate cancer progression in human cancer (21) and in mouse prostate cancer models (40). Therefore, it is likely that a TGF-\(\beta\)1-regulated and Smad3-mediated expression and release of FGF-2 in reactive stroma provides a pro-angiogenic and pro-tumorigenic microenvironment. Accordingly, the TGF-\(\beta\)/FGF-2 signaling axis is likely to be a key regulatory component of carcinoma cell – stromal cell homeostasis.

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References


Figure Legends

**Figure 1.** Retroviral mediated HR-CreGFP expression in PSTBRII \textsuperscript{flox/flox} H cells efficiently blocks TGF-β1-induced signaling. TGF-β-responsive promoters, including (A) p800Luc, (B) CAGA \_12\_SMAp-luc, (C) pVim-Luc or (D) (CAGA)\_12\_MLP were transfected into PST\[RIIKO, the control PST\[RIICT and the parent PST\[RII\textsuperscript{flox/flox}H prostate stromal cells (PST\[RIIflox). Cultures were then exposed to either vehicle control (-) or TGF-β1 (50 pM) (+) for 24 hr and assayed for luciferase activity, which was normalized to the co-transfected pRL-null expressed Renilla luciferase activity. Data shown is mean ± SEM derived from replicate independent experiments. * = significant difference (P <0.05).

**Figure 2.** Attenuation of TGF-β signaling in stromal cells inhibits angiogenesis and rate of tumorigenesis in the LNCaP / prostate stromal cell DRS xenograft model. A, TGF-β1 induced formation of SM-α-actin filament in control PST[RIICT cells. B, Attenuation of TGF-β signaling in PST[RIIKO cells resulted in loss of TGF-β1-induced formation of SM-α-actin filaments. Bar, 50 μm. C, A significant decrease in tumor weight was observed at day 28 in LNCaP / T[RIIKO xenografts relative to control LNCaP / PST[RIICT xenografts (P=0.0167, n=18 xenografts in each group). D, LNCaP / T[RIIKO xenografts exhibited a significant decrease in the mean microvessel density compared to control LNCaP / PST[RIICT xenografts (P<0.0001, n=72 fields, 12 tumors in each group). * = significant difference.

**Figure 3.** TGF-β1 induces FGF-2 expression and release in prostate stroma. A, qRT-PCR showed an up-regulation of FGF-2 mRNA in TGF-β1-treated PST[RIICT cells, but not in PST[RIIKO cells. Similarly, ELISA results showed a significant increase in FGF-2 protein
levels in TGF-β1-treated PST[RIICT cells, but not in PST[RIIKO cells (P = 0.0166, n = 3 independent experiments). B, PST[RIICT and PST[RIIKO cells were infected to express equal levels of FGF-2-GFP, as shown by Western blot (anti-GFP, inset). ELISA experiments revealed a significant increase in FGF-2 protein released from TGF-β1-treated PST[RIICT-FGF-2 cells in a dose-dependent manner, whereas this response was inhibited in PST[RIIKO-FGF-2 cells (P = 0.0471, n = 3 independent experiments). * = significant difference. Immunohistochemistry revealed positive FGF-2 staining in (C) PST[RIICT cells, but little to no immunoreactivity was observed in (D) PST[RIIKO cells in DRS xenograft tumors (400X). Clusters of immunoreactive cells are LNCaP epithelia and arrows point to stromal cells surrounding epithelia.

**Figure 4.** Ectopic expression of FGF-2 in stromal cells with attenuated TGF-β signaling restored angiogenesis and tumorigenesis in LNCaP DRS xenografts. Expression of an FGF-2-GFP fusion protein in PST[RIIKO prostate stromal cells was verified by immunohistochemistry with (A) anti-FGF-2 and (B) anti-GFP antibodies (400X). C, LNCaP DRS xenograft tumors constructed with PST[RIIKO cells expressing FGF-2 display a significant increase in tumor mass compared to control xenografts at day 28 (P<0.0001, unpaired t test, n=18 xenografts in each group). D, Concordantly, microvessel density was significantly elevated in PST[RIIKO-FGF-2 xenografts compared to PST[RIIKO-CT xenografts (P=0.0307, unpaired t test, n=72 fields, 12 xenografts in each group). * = significant difference.

**Figure 5.** TGF-β-regulated xenograft tumorigenesis is partially mediated by Smad3. A, Immunofluorescence using a Flag antibody showed Flag-Smad3ΔSSVS expression in C57B-Smad3ΔSSVS cells, but not C57B-Ctrl cells. Bar, 50 μm. B, C57B-Smad3ΔSSVS cells showed a
significant decrease in TGF-β1-induced (CAGA)$_{12}$MLP reporter activity compared to C57B-Ctrl cells (p<0.05). C, A significant decrease in tumor weight was observed at day 28 in LNCaP / C57B-Smad3ASSVS xenografts relative to control LNCaP / C57B-Ctrl tumors ($P=0.0216$, unpaired $t$ test, n=18 xenografts in each group). D, LNCaP / C57B-Smad3ASSVS xenografts exhibited a significant decrease in mean microvessel density compared to control LNCaP/C57B-Ctrl xenografts ($P=0.0089$, unpaired $t$ test, n=72 fields, 12 xenografts in each group). * = significant difference.

**Figure 6.** Smad3-regulated FGF-2 expression and release in prostate stromal cells is tumor-promoting. A, qRT-PCR showed an up-regulation of FGF-2 mRNA in C57B-Ctrl cells, and this regulation was attenuated in C57B-Smad3ASSVS cells. ELISA results showed a significant increase in FGF-2 protein levels in response to TGF-β1 in C57B-Ctrl cells, whereas attenuated Smad3 signaling in C57B-Smad3ASSVS cells prohibited this increase ($P < 0.0001$, n = 3 independent experiments). B, C57B-Ctrl and C57B-Smad3ASSVS cells were infected to express equal levels of FGF-2-GFP (anti-GFP Western blot, inset). ELISA experiments revealed a significant increase in FGF-2 protein released from TGF-β1-treated C57B-Ctrl-FGF-2 cells in a dose-dependent manner, whereas this response was inhibited in C57B-Smad3ASSVS-FGF-2 cells. ($P = 0.0085$, n = 3 independent experiments). C, LNCaP DRS xenograft tumors constructed with C57B-Smad3ASSVS-FGF-2 cells displayed a significant increase in tumor mass compared to C57B-Smad3ASSVS-Ctrl xenografts at day 14 ($P=0.0138$, unpaired $t$ test, n=18 xenografts in each group). D, Concordantly, microvessel density was significantly elevated in C57B-Smad3ASSVS-FGF-2 xenografts compared to C57B-Smad3ASSVS-Ctrl xenografts.
xenografts ($P=0.0027$, unpaired $t$ test, $n=72$ fields, 12 xenografts in each group). * = significant difference.