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TITLE: Molecular Imaging with Quantum Dots Probing EMT and Prostate Cancer Metastasis in Live Animals

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ABSTRACT

Despite the development of various animal and tissue culture models for the study of human prostate cancer growth and metastasis, there is no non-invasive model that provides real-time information on the behavior of prostate cancer cells in the prostate or at distant sites. The goal of this application is to devise a highly sensitive and specific nanotechnology- based molecular imaging technique to detect prostate cancer growth locally and at distant sites and observe the interaction between prostate cancer cells and their local microenvironment during their acquisition of migratory, invasive and metastatic capabilities. This technique was made possible by a close collaboration between Chung/Zhau, who have extensive experience in the development of human prostate cancer metastatic models, and Nie, a biomedical engineer who devised an ultrasensitive and specific nanotechnology quantum dot (QD) bioconjugate that can image cancer cells in live animals at a sensitivity close to the single cell level. This collaborative interaction between Chung/Zhau/Nie could significantly improve our ability to diagnose, prognose and treat human prostate cancer, first in experimental models and later in the clinic.   We have proposed three highly interactive aims that allow the PIs and trainees to interact during the development of this highly innovative technology. Aim 1 is to synthesize and test QD conjugates for the molecular imaging of prostate cancer cells in culture, and to improve the quality of the QDs so they will emit light at the near-infrared range for potential detection of cancer cells located in deep tissues. Aim 2 is to develop a highly reproducible and metastatic human prostate cancer model using immunocompromised mice. Aim 3 is to combine Aim 1 and 2 by testing the sensitivity and the specificity of the molecular probe in detecting prostate cancer metastasis and its interaction with tumor microenvironment through the important process of epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition (EMT), which has been closely associated with cancer cell migration and invasion, and appears at the invasion front of many cancers.   Upon completion of this proposed interactive project, we hope to further improve this technolo

Table of Contents

Introduction:

Androgen independence and bone metastasis are two lethal phenotypes of human prostate cancer. The current project has three proposed aims. They are: 1) To develop a highly sensitive quantum dot (QD) bioconjugate imaging methodology for the detection of prostate cancer cells in live animals; 2) To develop a highly sensitive and reproducible human prostate cancer bone and visceral metastasis model for studying the molecular steps associated with human prostate cancer progression; and 3) To probe tumor-stroma interaction with special emphasis on interrogating the biological basis of the epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition (EMT) *in vivo* using QD nanotechnology for molecular imaging. In this funding period, we have achieved the following goals:

Body:

Task 1: Develop and characterize nanoparticle QD antibody conjugates capable of binding to prostate cancer cell surface specific antigens (months 1 to 12).

We have completed this task by publishing the epithelial to mesenchymal transition (EMT) model and defined gene expression and behavior changes of the ARCaP cells upon progressing to EMT (The Prostate, 2006, Appendix 1). We have found a number of important cell surface biomarkers, receptor activator of NFκB ligand (RANKL) and IL-13 receptor-α 2 as the potential sites for quantum dot antibody or ligand binding.

Task 2: Evaluate the sensitivity and specificity of the nanoparticle QD antibody conjugates for molecular imaging of human prostate cancer cells and their variants with defined differences in biochemical and behavioral characteristics (months 6 to 12).

This task has been completed. We have evaluated the expression of RANKL expression by ARCaP cells using RT-PCR, western blot, and immunohistochemistry (Figure 1). The expressed RANKL by ARCaP cells is functional as revealed by the ability of ARCaP cells that overexpressed RANKL promoted osteoclastogenesis in an in vitro assay (Figure 2). We conjugated IL-13 receptor-α 2 antibody with visible quantum dots and found the ability of this antibody QD conjugate recognized appropriate cell target (Figure 3). We have completed the comparative aspect of the biochemical and behavior changes of ARCaP cells upon EMT (Please see Appendix 1).

Task 3: Test the ability of selected molecular imaging probes to be used together (multiplexing) for tracking single or aggregated cells in culture (months 6 to 12).

This task is completed where we have successfully multiplexing several QD nanoparticles with emission fluorescence in the visible range for the detection of several molecular markers in prostate cancer cells. The multiplexing technique developed here will be applicable to in vivo imaging of tumors using similar QD approaches.

Task 4: Select quantum dot molecular probes with far-red and near-infrared emitting wave lengths for *in vivo* imaging in animals previously implanted with human prostate tumors (months 12 to 36).

We have described an ultrasensitive method that allows us to visualize human prostate cancer cells in mouse skeleton using bioconjugated near infrared fluorescent QDs. In this study, we have shown a human cancer C4-2 xenografts grown in mouse tibia can be visualized with a PSMA antibody conjugate with QDs emitting light at the near-infrared range of 800nm, or QD800. As few as 5,000 C4-2 cells can be detected when previously tagged with QD800 conjugate and injected directly into mouse tibia (Figure 4). We have successfully applied this imaging technique for the detection of previously formed prostate

tumors in mouse tibia (Figure 5). This technique is currently expanded to detect the binding of anti-IL-13 receptor-α 2 on the cell surface of prostate cancer cells in vivo.

Task 5: Develop and characterize an ARCaP human prostate cancer cell model with a predictable pattern of bone and soft tissue metastases (months 1 to 24).

We have isolated ARCaP clones that have differential ability to express EMT markers and the ability to metastasize to the skeleton or soft-tissues (primarily adrenal gland). We also characterized in more detail the ability of maintenance of the gene expression and phenotypes of ARCaP cells in culture permanently. Results of our study show that bone is an efficient environment that can facilitate EMT in human prostate cancer cells transiently upon early interaction. However, if such interaction is allowed to occur for an extended period, permanent phenotypic and behavior changes of the ARCaP cells were observed (manuscript submitted to *Cancer Research*).

Task 6: Do molecular profiling of ARCaP and ARCaP-derivative cell lines with respect to their gene expression using cDNA microarray and validate such differences using tissue array (months 6 to 18).

We are presently analyzing proteomics of ARCaP sublines with respect to their gene expression profiles. This approach is taken subsequent to cDNA microarray analysis. Differentially expressed genes will be confirmed by RT-PCR and western blot (if antibodies are available).

Task 7: Assess gene expression profiles in tumors obtained from animals that have been subjected to imaging and characterize gene expression profiling in primary and metastatic tumors using RT-PCR, western blots and IHC (months 18 to 36).

We have developed immunohistochemical analysis of relevant genes that may be expressed by ARCaP cells in animal models. We expect that these analyses will allow us to find additional cell surface markers indicative of EMT and can be followed up closely through the use of in vivo imaging.

Task 8: Develop a nanotechnology-based prostate cancer detection technology for both local invasion and distant metastasis with particular focus on EMT in primary and distant metastatic sites (months 1 to 24).

QD800 has been shown to detect prostate cancer growth in mouse tibia. Although we found QD800 can be detected from mouse tibia containing prostate tumors, the sensitivity of this imaging seems to be less than desired. For example, prostate cancer cells colonized in femur have a more difficult time to be detected than similar tumors grown in the tibia. For this reason, we will explore other approaches to increase the sensitivity of QD imaging from deep tissues. The approaches we will be exploring include a comparison between QD800 and QD1200 or 1600 and alternatively, a comparative aspect of using MRI. These studies require some pilot studies before we can attempt the imaging of prostate tumors in vivo.

Task 9: Evaluate the sensitivity and specificity of individual nanoparticle QD antibody conjugates as molecular probes for multiplexing numerous cell surface targets simultaneously in mice previously implanted with human ARCaP cells or derivative variants (months 12 to 36).

We have successfully completed the in vitro multiplexing analysis targeting genes related to EMT. We have established tumor growth in mouse skeleton and found that mouse tibia might be the most sensitive site for the detection of prostate cancer bone metastasis. We are exploring the potential use of other QD conjugates that may allow the visualization of human prostate cancer in bone more effectively than the QD800 we are presently testing.

Task 10: Summarize the results, repeat certain studies, and prepare manuscripts for publication (months 12 to 36).

> We have completed the publication of one manuscript as seen in Appendix 1. Two other manuscripts will be submitted shortly to summarize the biomarkers and the behavior changes of ARCaP cells upon interaction with bone microenvironment, the discovery that RANKL is an important EMT marker and the ability to detect prostate cancer bone metastasis using QD800.

Key Research Accomplishments:

- We have developed an ARCaP model of human prostate cancer progression with focus on EMT.
- We have developed far red and infrared range of quantum dot nanoparticles for *in vivo* imaging of prostate cancer cells in live mice.
- We have developed multiplexing technology to evaluate EMT biomarkers during ARCaP prostate cancer progression.
- We have published one manuscript in the Prostate and one review as a book chapter. We have also completed two additional manuscripts and one review.

Reportable Outcomes:

1. One manuscript was published, two submitted, and two reviews.
2. We developed an ultrasensitive detection method for prostate cancer metastasis.

Conclusions:

Quantum dot linked molecules have been shown to be highly effective in the detection of molecular biomarkers associated with EMT in the ARCaP model of human prostatic cancer progression. This technology can be expanded to determine EMT in clinical human prostate cancer tissues. In addition, using near infrared quantum dot probes linked to antibodies designed to target human prostate cancer surface prostate cancer metastases from deep tissues.

References:

None

Appendices:

1. Xu J, Wang R, Xie ZH, Odero-Marah V, Pathak S, Multani A, Chung LWK, Zhau HE. (2006). Prostate cancer metastasis: Role of the host microenvironment in promoting epithelial to mesenchymal transition and increased bone and adrenal gland metastasis. *The Prostate*, 66(15):1664-73
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Figures:

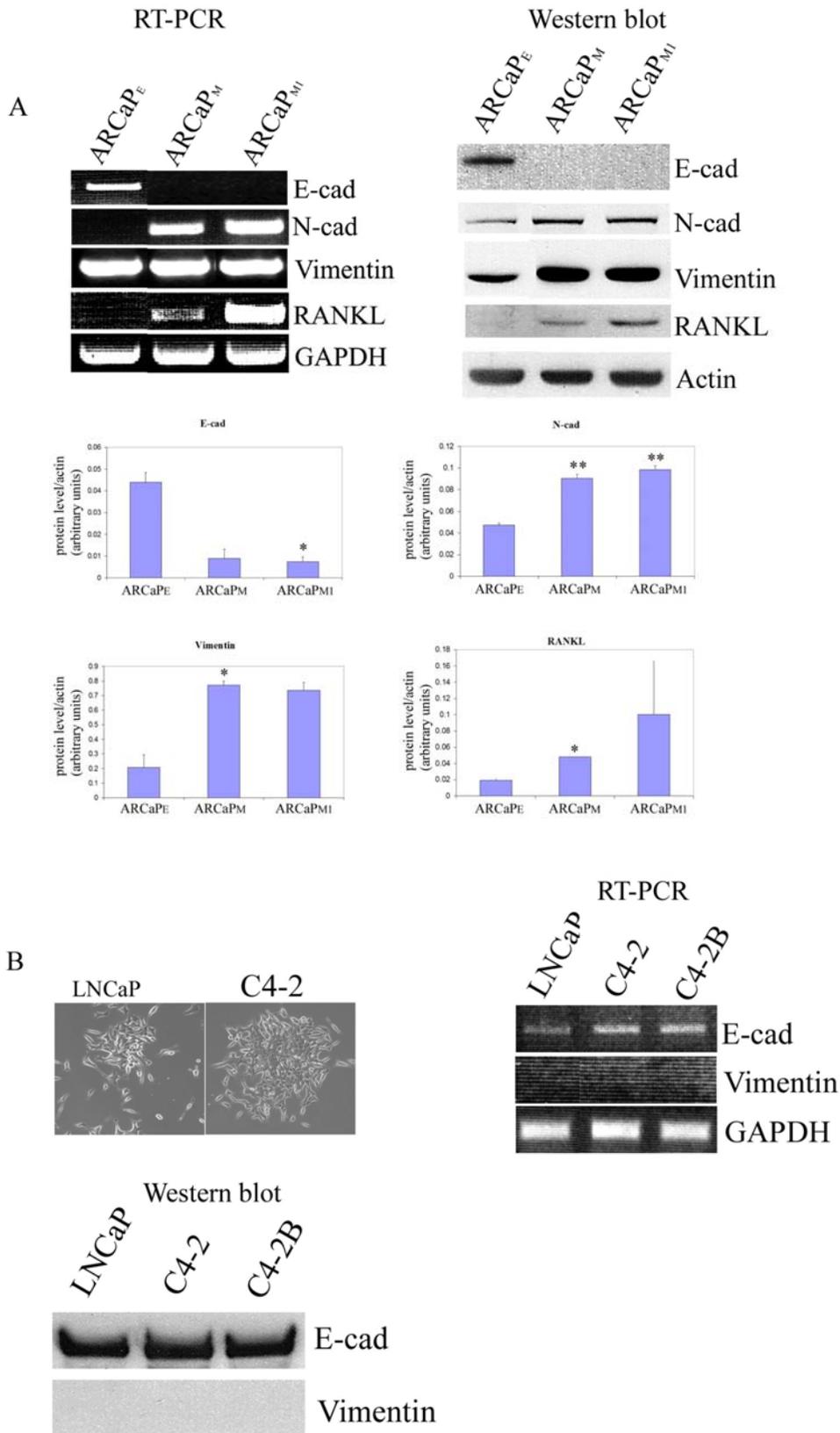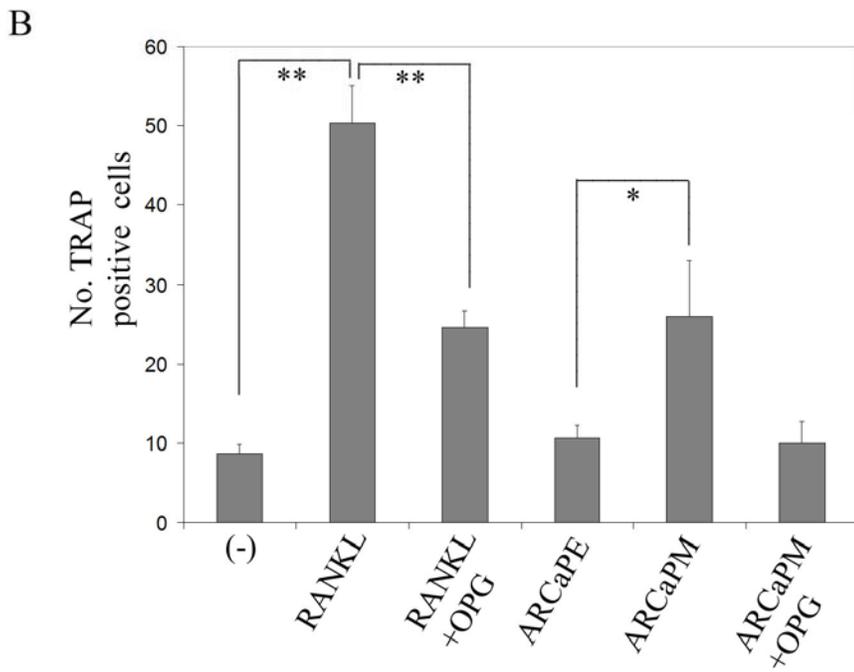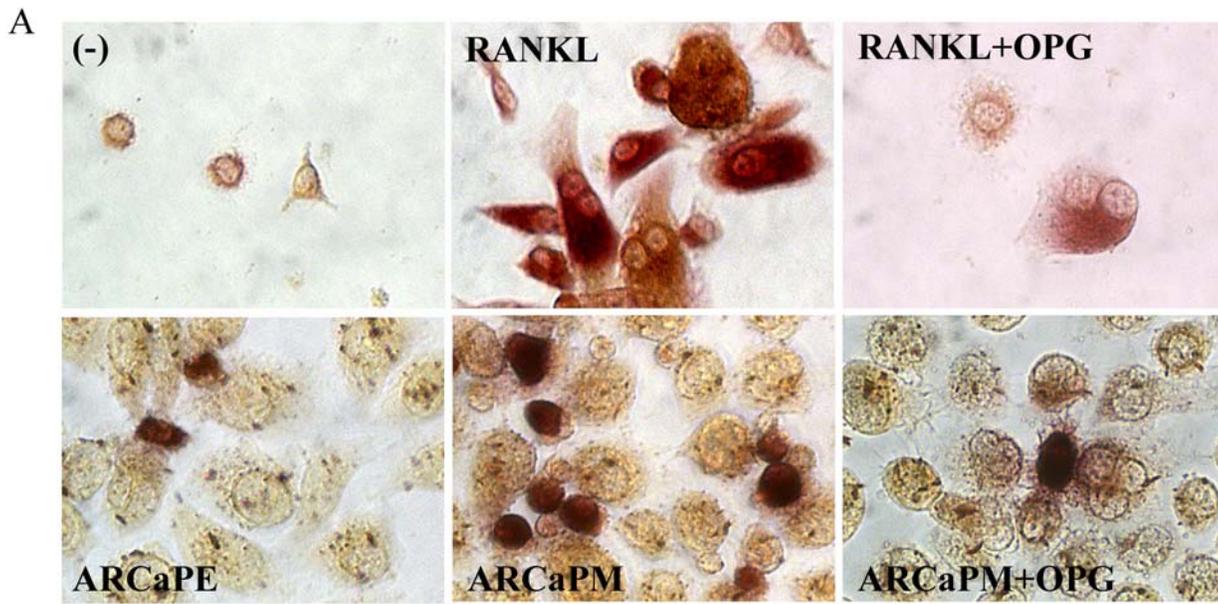**Figure 1**

Figure 2

A

B

Figure 3

IL-13Rα2 expression in cultured ARCaP cells

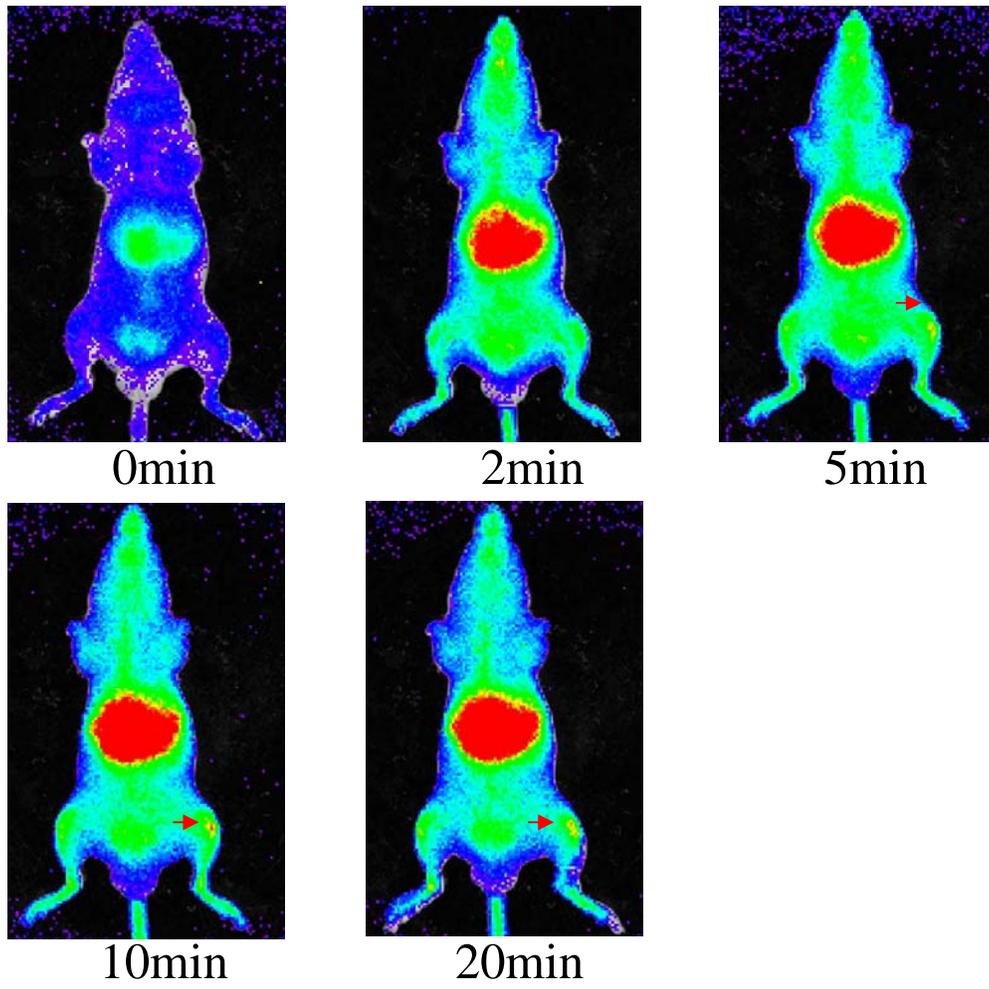|	QD	DAPI	Merged

ARCaP_E

ARCaP_M
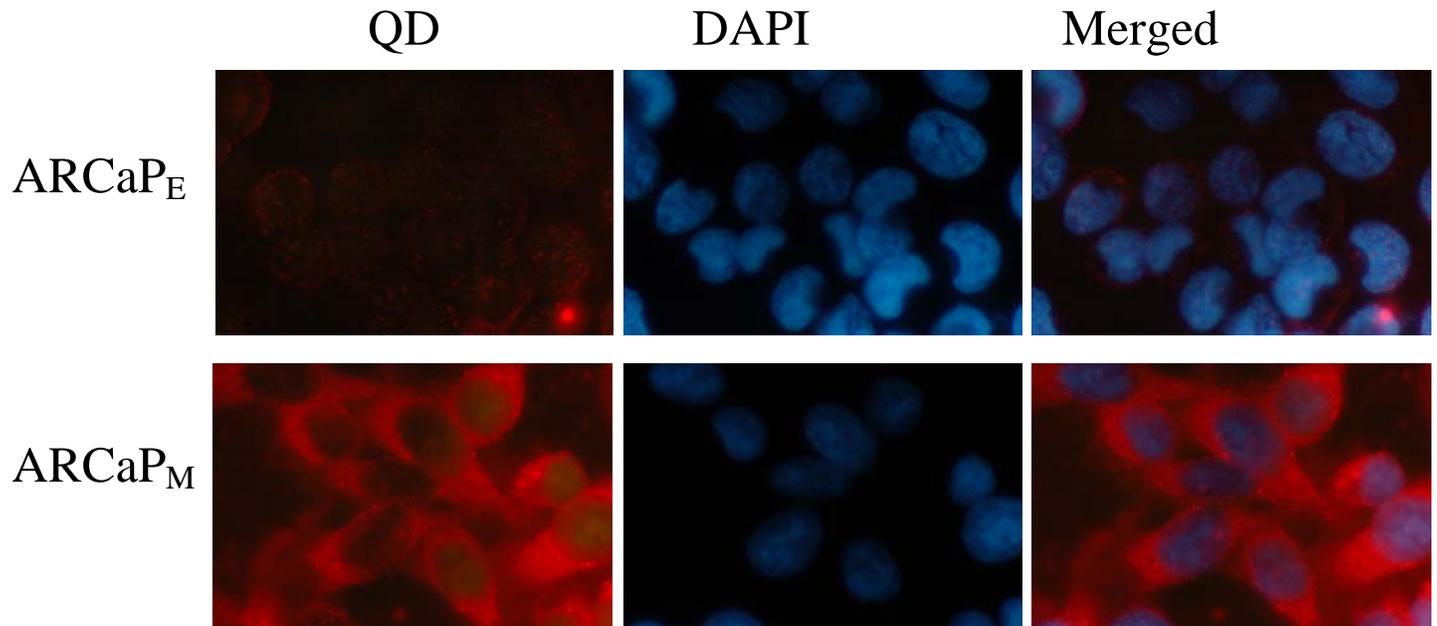
Figure 4
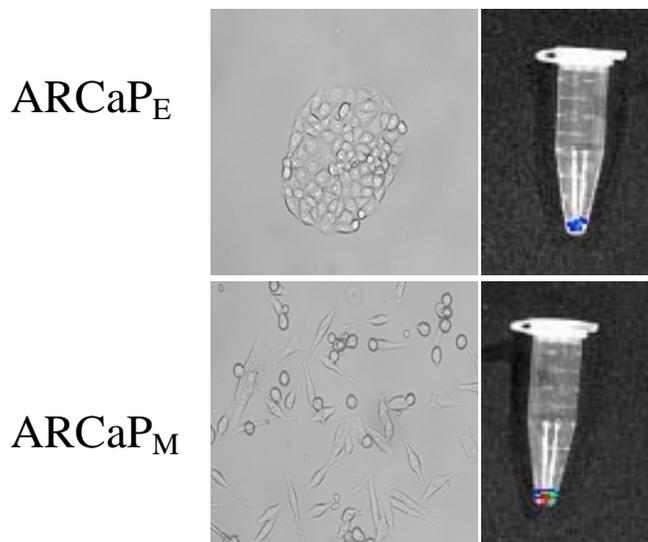
ARCaP_E

ARCaP_M

QD800- IL-13Rα2 Ab tagged ARCaP cells

Figure 5

One mouse with right tibia metastasis from ARCaP$_M$ cells

0min   2min   5min

10min   20min

Prostate Cancer Metastasis: Role of the Host Microenvironment in Promoting Epithelial to Mesenchymal Transition and Increased Bone and Adrenal Gland Metastasis

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BACKGROUND. The ARCaP cell line was established from the ascites fluid of a patient with metastatic prostate cancer. This study characterized the host microenvironmental role in cancer progression, epithelial to mesenchymal transition (EMT), and bone and adrenal metastasis in parental ARCaP and its derived cell subclones.
METHODS. Cytogenetic profiles, growth, migration, invasion, cellular interaction, drug sensitivities, and gene expression of ARCaP cell subclones were compared. In vivo gene expression, behavior, and metastasis of ARCaP subclones were analyzed by serial intracardiac injections into SCID mice.
RESULTS. ARCaP$_E$ cells, with cobblestone morphology, underwent EMT through cellular interaction with host bone and adrenal gland. Lineage-derived ARCaP$_M$ cells, with spindle-shape fibroblastic morphology, exhibited decreased cell adhesion and increased metastasis to bone and adrenal gland. Cytogenetic analyses of parental and ARCaP subclones confirmed their clonality.
CONCLUSIONS. ARCaP uniquely models the molecular basis of prostate cancer bone and adrenal metastases and epithelial to mesenchymal transition. *Prostate 66: 1664–1673, 2006.*
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KEY WORDS: organ-specific tropism; clonal interaction; cancer cell heterogeneity; animal model; cancer progression

INTRODUCTION

The diversity and heterogeneity of human prostate cancer cells is well appreciated. A broad spectrum of cancer cell behaviors include the ability to grow, invade surrounding normal tissues, and metastasize to distant organs [1–3]. Despite similarities in the histologic presentation of prostate cancers at the time of disease diagnosis, their clinical behaviors, including time to disease progression and metastasis, sensitivity to hormones, chemotherapy and radiation, and propensity to relapse still cannot be predicted with certainty [4–7]. Relevant models that could probe the phenotype,

behavior, and progression of cancer cells are lacking, as well as appropriate methods and sensitive biomarkers that can diagnose disease and reliably predict its

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clinical behavior early on. However, investigations have revealed a wealth of fresh information on the molecular basis of cancer metastasis through: (1) the development of useful transgenic [8–10] and xenograft [11–18] animal models and human prostate cancer cell lines [3]; (2) characterization of the genetic diversity and heterogeneity of cancer cells and animal models; (3) the identification of specific loci that may harbor genes or clusters of genes contributing to the development of familial or sporadic forms of prostate cancer [19–21]; and (4) elucidation of intracellular cell signaling and the roles of autocrine and paracrine factors in the tumor milieu that control the behavior of prostate cancer cells in interaction with the tumor microenvironment [2,3,22–24]. Because prostate cancer has a predilection to metastasize to bone, resulting in increased patient mortality and morbidity, we sought to develop a highly metastatic prostate cancer model to evaluate the involvement of epithelial to mesenchymal transition (EMT) and the host microenvironment in prostate cancer bone and soft tissue metastases. This communication reports the cytogenetic, phenotypic, and behavioral characterizations and gene expression profiles of parental ARCaP and ARCaP cell subclones subsequent to cellular interaction with mouse host cells in vivo.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Cell Culture

ARCaP cells were derived by our laboratory from the ascites fluid of a patient with metastatic carcinoma of the prostate [16]. Cells were routinely maintained in a culture medium consisting of T medium (Life Technologies, Gaithersburg, MD) and 5% fetal bovine serum (FBS) at 37°C supplemented with 5% CO_2. Limited dilution was performed by suspending 400 cells in 60 ml of T medium and seeding 100 µl per well in six 96-well plates. The wells containing one cell were expanded. Cell growth was determined by crystal violet assay [25]. In brief, cells (3×10^4 per well) were trypsinized and resuspended in T medium and seeded in 24-well plates under routine culture conditions. One plate of cells was removed at each designated time point and fixed with 0.5 ml of 1% glutaraldehyde for 15 min, stained with 0.5% crystal violet solution for 15 min, rinsed four times with water, air dried then eluted by Sorenson's solution for 30 min at room temperature. The optical density of the eluted solutions was read at 590 nm. The OD_{590} was determined by an APECTRAmax 190 Microplate Reader and directly correlated with the number of cells [25]. Conditioned media (CM) were collected from cells reaching 80% confluence, rinsed with PBS, replaced with serum-free

T media and 2% TCM (Celox Laboratories, Inc., St. Paul, MN) and cultured for 24 hr. The effects of CM on cell growth were determined in triplicate assays of three independent experiments with data expressed as average ± SEM.

Invasion and Migration Assays

A total of 35 µl of Matrigel Matrix (BD Biosciences, Bedford, MA; 100 µg/cm^2 surface area; diluted 1:5 in T medium) was placed on the inner upper Boyden chamber (BIOCOAT, 6.4 mm insert with 8 µm pores; Becton Dickinson Labware, Bedford, MA) and incubated for 30 min prior to adding to the cells. Cells (5×10^4) were suspended in 500 µl of 0.1% BSA/T medium and added to the inner upper Boyden chamber. One milliliter of 0.1% BSA/T medium was added to the outer Boyden chamber. The chambers with or without Matrigel were placed in 24-well plates and incubated for 48 hr. MTT solution (2.5 mg/ml; Sigma, St. Louis, MO) was added to both the inner (40 µl) and the outer (80 µl) chambers and incubated for an additional 4 hr. The media were collected separately from each chamber, and cell-associated MTT crystals were scrubbed off with filter paper and dissolved separately in 500 µl dimethyl sulfuroxide (DMSO). The color intensity was measured at 590 nm against the appropriate blank controls (0.1% BSA/T medium with MTT solution and 500 µl DMSO). The % invasion was calculated by MTT eluted from cells invaded through the Boyden chamber/MTT eluted from cells that remained in the upper Boyden chamber plus those that invaded through the Boyden chamber. The % migration was conducted and calculated similarly to cell invasion, except the Boyden chambers were not coated with Matrigel [26,27]. Relative invasion, migration, and growth are presented as average ± SEM of triplicate assays from two independent experiments.

In addition, migration was also determined by scratch wound assay [28] where cells (5×10^5) were cultured in a 24-well plate. Then the 100% confluent cell layers were wounded with two parallel scratches using a sterile 200 µl pipette tip and rinsed with PBS. Images were taken at 0, 12, 24, 36, and 48 hr at the marked site using a ZEISS Axiovert 200 M inverse light microscope (at 4×) and Openlab software (Improvision, Coventry, UK). Five measurements were taken from 0 to 48 hr. Mean widths were determined as a function of time with % migration tabulated as (Width 0 hr − Width at 12 to 48-hr) ÷ Width 0 hr × 100%.

Chemotherapeutic Sensitivity of Parental ARCaP and ARCaP Cell Subclones

Cells (5×10^3 per well) were cultured in 96-well plates for 24 hr and then replaced with fresh cultured

medium to which were added Paclitaxel, Etoposide, or Doxorubicin (Sigma, St. Louis, MO) at four different concentrations, followed by incubation for 96 hr. Cell growth was measured using the MTT assay.

Cytogenetic Analysis

Cells at 75% confluence in fresh media were exposed to Colcemid (20 ng/ml; Sigma) for 30 min at 37°C, rinsed two times with Hanks' balanced salt solution, and exposed to 0.01% trypsin for 5–7 min. The dislodged cells were neutralized with RPMI 1640 containing 10% FBS, and centrifuged at 1,700 rpm for 5 min. The cell pellet was disturbed and exposed to a hypotonic solution (0.06 M KCl) for 20 min at room temperature. After centrifugation, the cells were fixed in acetic acid: methanol (1:3, v/v) for 15 min, rinsed three times with the fixative and stained with Giemsa solution for G-banding following routine procedures [16]. Five to ten G-banded metaphase spreads were photographed for chromosome analyses for each cell clone.

Protein Expression

Immunohistochemical (IHC) and Western blot were used to determine the level of protein expression in cells. Monoclonal antibodies against cytokeratin 18/19 (CK18/19) were obtained from Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Inc. (Santa Cruz, CA); vimentin (VM) antibody from Dako Corp., Ltd. (Carpinteria, CA). Polyclonal antibodies to E-cadherin and N-cadherin were obtained from Santa Cruz. For immunohistochemical analysis, acetone (−20°C)-fixed cells or deparaffinized tissue sections (4 μ) were treated with 3% hydrogen peroxide, blocked with Super Block (Scytek Laboratories, Logan, UT), avidin and biotin (Vector Laboratories, Inc., Burlingame, CA) for 15 min each, and incubated with primary antibody overnight at 4°C. The signals were amplified by an avidin–biotin HRP system using multilink and label reagents (BioGenex, San Ramon, CA) and hydrogen peroxide/ DAB (3, 3′-diaminobenzidine) as peroxidase substrate and chromogen (Sigma). Background activity was determined by (1) eliminating the primary antibody, (2) using matching mouse immunoglobulin subtypes, or (3) normal goat or rabbit serum at appropriate dilutions. For Western Blot Analysis, cells were harvested at 80% confluence and rinsed twice with cold PBS. Cellular protein was extracted in a homogenization buffer (phosphate buffered saline with 1% Nonidet P-40, 0.5% sodium deoxycholate, 0.1% SDS, 10 mg/ml phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride (PMSF), 1 mM sodium orthovanadate, 1 μg/ml leupeptin, and 1 μg/ml aprotinin). The total cell lysate (7.5–20 μg) was resolved by 7.5 or 10–20% SDS–polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis and transferred to a nitrocellulose membrane (NitroPure, Osmonics, Westborough, MA). The membrane was blocked for 1 hr at room temperature with 5% nonfat milk in TBST buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl, 150 mM NaCl, 0.05% Tween 20) and incubated with primary antibody in TBST blocking buffer for 1 hr at room temperature. The signal was detected by reacting with secondary antibody conjugated to horseradish peroxidase coupled with enhanced chemiluminescence (ECL) reagents (Amersham-Pharmacia Biotech, Piscataway, NJ), and exposed on Hyperfilm (Amersham).

Tumorigenicity and Metastasis In Vivo

Five to seven-week-old athymic NCr-nu/nu male mice (NCI) were used as hosts. Cells at 80% confluence were changed with fresh T-medium the day before harvest. Cells were resuspended (2×10^7/ml) and injected subcutaneously (1×10^6 cells/100 μl/site, four sites per mouse). For intracardiac injection, cells were injected as 5×10^5 cells/50 μl PBS/mouse using a 28G1/2 needle. Mice were anesthetized and placed in a supine position. The needle was inserted 5 mm above the middle of the left side of sternum. When fresh arterial blood appeared in the syringe, this indicated the successful penetration into the left ventricle. Cells were infused slowly and directly into mouse left ventricle for systemic circulation. Tumor formation was monitored weekly and volume calculated as length × width × height × 0.5236 [25,26]. Metastases to distant organs were confirmed by radiography, necropsy, and histomorphology of the tumor specimens.

Derivation of Cell Subclones From Tumor Tissues

Tumor tissue was freshly harvested, rinsed three times with PBS, replaced with cold PBS with antibiotics (Penicillin/Streptomycin (10,000 U/ml), placed on ice for 5 min, changed to cold T medium with 10% FBS and antibiotics, and kept on ice. Tissue was cut into 0.5–1 mm³ pieces, put in cell culture dishes (separating at 0.5–1.0 cm), and briefly air dried to allow attachment. One to 2 drops of culture media were added on top of and around the tissue pieces to keep them humid and incubated. A few more drops of media were added 6 hr later followed by more media at 24 and 48 hr. Tumor cells and mouse stromal cells started to emerge by 48 hr with spindle-shape cells around the tissue and epithelial-like cells migrating away from the tissue piece, forming a rather "pure" colony by Day 7–10. We used cloning disks (Scienceware, Pequannock, NJ) to isolate pure cell subclones. Additional contaminating stromal cells were removed from epithelial cells by differential trypsinization [26].

RESULTS

ARCaP Subclones Have Similar Cytogenetic Profiles but Distinct Morphology, Growth Rates, Gene Expression Profiles and Behaviors In Vitro

The ARCaP cells were originated from the ascites fluid of a patient with prostate cancer bony metastasis [16]. The ARCaP cells harbor wild type androgen receptor (AR) and secrete low level of prostatic specific antigen (PSA) as compared to LNCaP cells. In contrast to LNCaP cells, parental ARCaP cells are invasive and cell growth is repressed by androgen both in vitro and in vivo. Figure 1 shows five ARCaP cell subclones obtained by dilution cloning with marked differences in their morphology, ranging from cobblestone epithelial (IF11 or ARCaP$_E$) to spindle-shape mesenchymal cells (IA8 or ARCaP$_M$). Clones IID4 and IIC11 gave rise to morphologic features intermediate between ARCaP$_E$ and ARCaP$_M$. One of the subclones, IF3, exhibited giant cell morphology with multinuclear features resembling matured osteoclasts. The growth rates of the five ARCaP cell subclones in vitro showed the mesenchyme-like ARCaP$_M$ as the fastest, followed by IIC11, IID4, and IF3, with the epithelium-like ARCaP$_E$ being the slowest (data not included).

Cytogenetic Analyses

Cytogenetic analyses of parental ARCaP and the five cell subclones (Table I) indicated that these cells are clonal. These subclones exhibited the same major marker chromosomes as ARCaP parental cells [16]. However, each of the ARCaP cell subclones had its unique marker chromosomes. During the course of this study, both the morphology and the cytogenetic profiles of parental ARCaP and its subclones were stable despite repeated subculturing of the respective cells in vitro for more than 20 passages (unpublished results). The ARCaP cytogenetic profile [16] is distinct from the widely studied LNCaP cells [26]. They do not share common marker chromosomes and can easily be identified and distinguished from each other based on their distinctive marker chromosomes. While the ARCaP subclones have distinct cytogenetic profiles, they also differ in their histomorphology, growth rate, migratory, invasive, and metastatic potentials, and drug sensitivity (see Results). These properties are maintained in the mixed parental ARCaP cells by cell–cell interaction.

Growth, Migration, and Invasion of ARCaP$_E$ and ARCaP$_M$ Subclones In Vitro

Since EMT has been associated with increased cancer cell invasion and migration [29–31], we evaluated the possible correlation between two morphologically distinct ARCaP subclones, cobblestone-shaped ARCaP$_E$ and the spindle-shaped ARCaP$_M$ subclones. Cell invasion using a Boyden Chamber coated with a Matrigel barrier (Fig. 2A), and migration as assessed by Scratch Wound Assay (Fig. 2B) correlated with cell growth rates (Fig. 2C), revealed higher migration and invasion by ARCaP$_M$ than ARCaP$_E$ cells ($P < 0.01$). These two clones, after co-culturing (1:1) for more than 20 passages, still retained their original distinct morphology as seen in Figure 1 without one clone being preferentially "selected" over the other (data not included). We hypothesize that clonal interaction
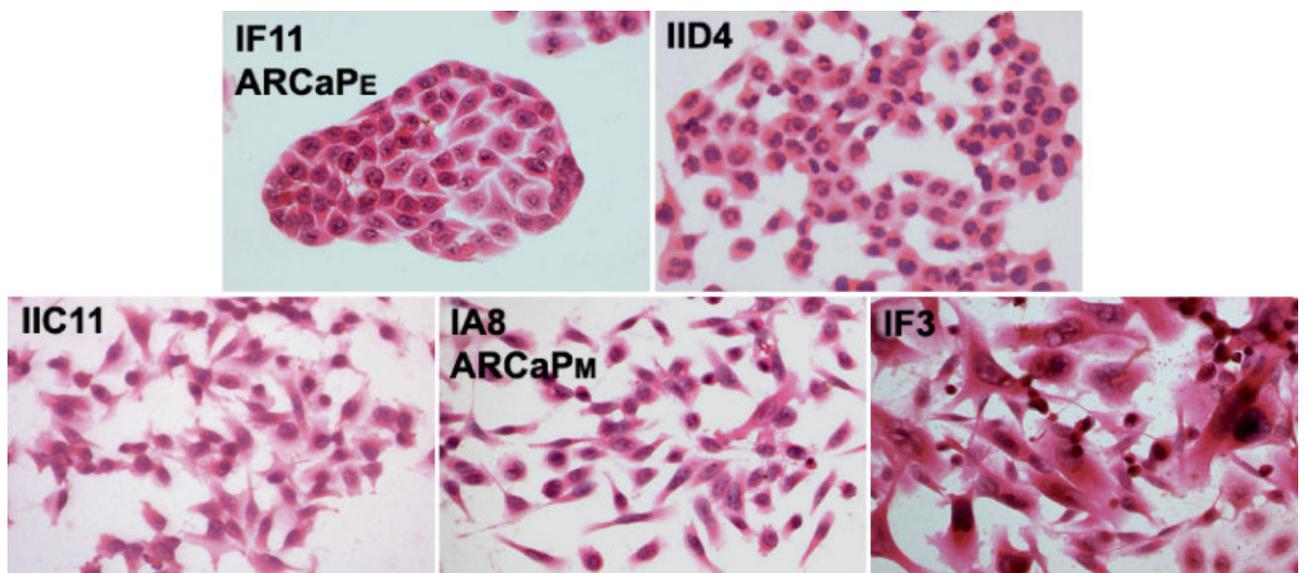

Fig. 1. Histomorphology of ARCaP cell subclones ranged from cobblestone-shaped ARCaP$_E$ to spindle-shaped ARCaP$_M$ cells.

TABLE I. Cytogenetic Profiles of Parental ARCaP and Its Five Cell Subclones

Cells	1p+	1q+	del5q	5p+	6p+	del8p	i(9q)	12q+	15p+	18q+	21p+	delX	t(13:15)	8q+	i(5q)	6q+
IIC11	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	−	−	−	−
ARCaPM	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+[a]	+	+	+	+[b,a]	−[a]	−	−
ARCaPE	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	−[a]	+	+	+	−[a]	+[b,a]	−	−
IID4	+	+	+	+	+	−	+	+	+	+	+	+	−	−	+[b]	−
IF3	+	−	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	−	−	−	+[b]
ARCaP	+	−	+	+	+	+	−	+	−	+	−	+	−	−	−	−

[a]Difference between $ARCaP_M$ and $ARCaP_E$.
[b]Difference among the five subclones.

occurs through factors secreted by one cell type exerting either a growth stimulatory or inhibitory effect on the other. To test this hypothesis, we replaced the cultured media of $ARCaP_E$ with conditioned media (CM) collected from $ARCaP_M$ and vice versa. Figure 3 showed that CM from the fast-growing $ARCaP_M$ cells stimulated the growth of the slow-growing $ARCaP_E$ cells ($P < 0.01$), but there was no growth inhibitory effect when the reverse experiment was conducted. These results suggest that a stimulatory rather than inhibitory factor plays a role in the maintenance of $ARCaP_E$ and $ARCaP_M$ subclones within the ARCaP cell population (see below).

Gene Expression Profiles of ARCaP Subclones Grown in Culture

We conducted gene profile analysis of ARCaP subclones with specific emphasis on $ARCaP_E$, $ARCaP_M$, and ARCaP-Ad (Adrenal). We found that, consistent with their morphologic features, $ARCaP_E$ expressed dominantly epithelial markers while $ARCaP_M$ and ARCaP-Ad expressed mesenchymal markers (Fig. 4), as evaluated by Western blots and

IHC. These results were also confirmed by RT-PCR (data not included). Because of these morphologic and molecular characteristics thus the names $ARCaP_E$, $ARCaP_M$, and $ARCaP_{Ad}$ were given to IF11, IA8, and ARCaP-Adrenal subclones respectively. $ARCaP_E$ expressed higher E-cadherin and cytokeratins 18 and 19 typically associated with epithelial cells, whereas $ARCaP_M$ and $ARCaP_{Ad}$ expressed more genes associated with mesenchymal cells, such as elevated vimentin and N-cadherin expression with concomitantly lower expression of epithelium-associated E-cadherin and cytokeratin genes. In addition to the classic EMT-associated genes, we also detected elevated protein expression of PSA, AR, and PSMA and two new EMT-associated genes in $ARCaP_M$ than that in $ARCaP_E$ (data not included).

Effects of Chemotherapeutic Agents on In Vitro Growth of ARCaP Cell Subclones

Because ARCaP represents a lethal form of human prostate cancer with the ability to invade and metastasize aggressively to bone and soft tissues, we sought to determine the in vitro sensitivities of $ARCaP_E$ and
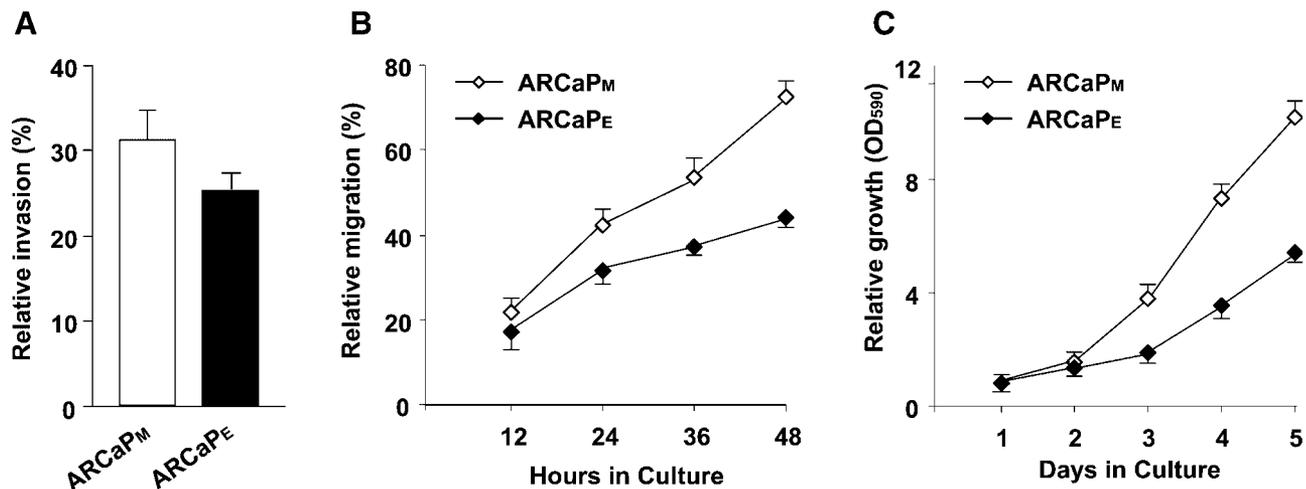

Fig. 2. ARCaP$_M$ cells exhibit higher invasion (**A**), migration (**B**), and growth rate (**C**) than ARCaP$_E$.
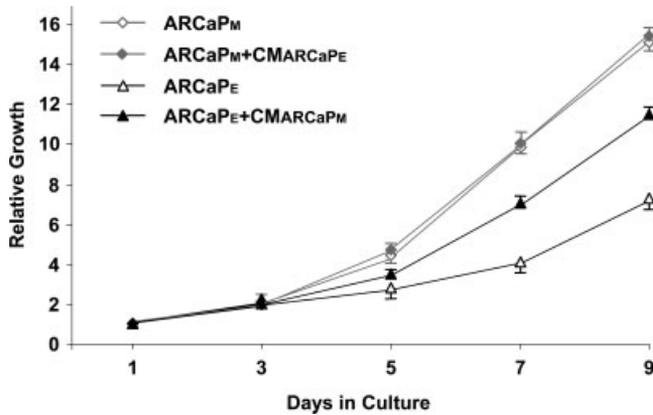
Fig. 3. Conditioned medium derived from fast-growing ARCaP$_M$ subclone stimulated the growth of slow-growing ARCaP$_E$ cells.

ARCaP$_M$ to several clinically used chemotherapeutic drugs and compared the results to invasive LNCaP lineage C4-2 cells treated with the same drugs. We found that ARCaP$_M$ and ARCaP$_E$ are more resistant to a DNA intercalating agent, doxorubicin (IC50s 5.5 and 3.4 uM for ARCaP$_M$ and ARCaP$_E$, respectively) than C4-2 cells (IC50, 2.7 uM). ARCaP$_M$ and ARCaP$_E$ are also more resistant to topoisomerase inhibitor II, etoposide (IC50s 5.8 and 8.1 uM, respectively) than C4-2 cells (IC50, 5.6 uM). The relative resistance of ARCaP$_M$ and ARCaP$_E$, compared to C4-2 cells, to the microtubule/tubulin assembly binding agent, paclitaxel, was also observed with IC50s at 39, 53, and 23.5 nM, respectively.

Comparison of the Tumorigenicity and Metastatic Potentials of ARCaP$_E$ and ARCaP$_M$ in Mice, and the Derivation of ARCaP$_M$-Like Cells From Bone and Adrenal Gland Harvested From Animals Inoculated With ARCaP$_E$ Cells

To confirm that differences in morphology, cell behavior, gene expression profiles, and sensitivity to chemotherapeutic drugs between ARCaP cell subclones in vitro reflect their tumorigenicity and metastatic potential in vivo, we conducted animal studies by inoculating two ARCaP cell subclones, ARCaP$_E$, and ARCaP$_M$, into the left ventricles of immune-compromised SCID mice. The animals were observed closely and bone and soft tissue metastases were confirmed by X-ray, physical palpation, and histomorphology. Figure 5 showed the histopathology (top panels) and vimentin expression (IHC, bottom panels) of primary tumors from ARCaP$_E$, ARCaP$_M$, and metastatic lesions of bone and adrenal gland in mice inoculated intracardiacally with ARCaP cells. Similar to our experience in the orthotopic injection of parental ARCaP cells [16], tumor cells induced mixed osteoblastic and osteolytic responses in mice upon intracardiac injection of ARCaP subclones. Some mice also exhibited apparent cachexia and paraplegia at the later stage of bone metastasis (data not included).

The EMT-associated elevated expression of vimentin was demonstrated in ARCaP bone and adrenal meatastatic tumors as comparing with the primary tumor (Fig. 5). We derived ARCaP cell subclones from bone and adrenal gland metastases and further tested
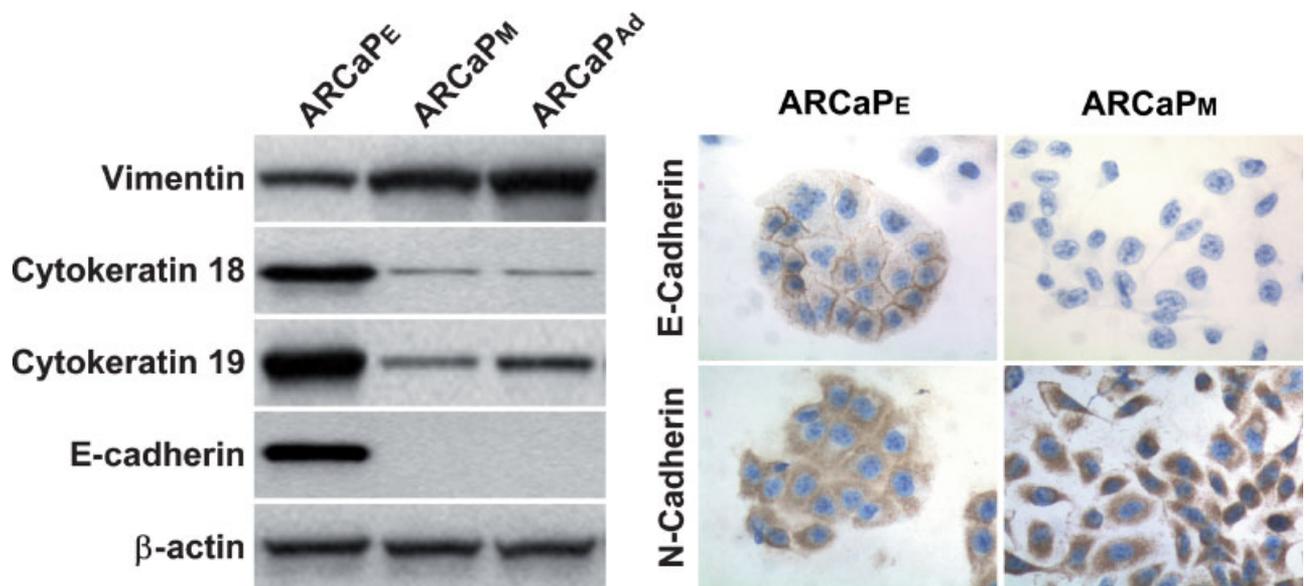

Fig. 4. Protein expression profile changes from ARCaP$_E$ to ARCaP$_M$ and ARCaP$_{Ad}$ are closely associated with epithelial to mesenchymal transition. Western blot (**left panel**), IHC (**right panel**).

Primary tumors

ARCaP_E   ### ARCaP_M

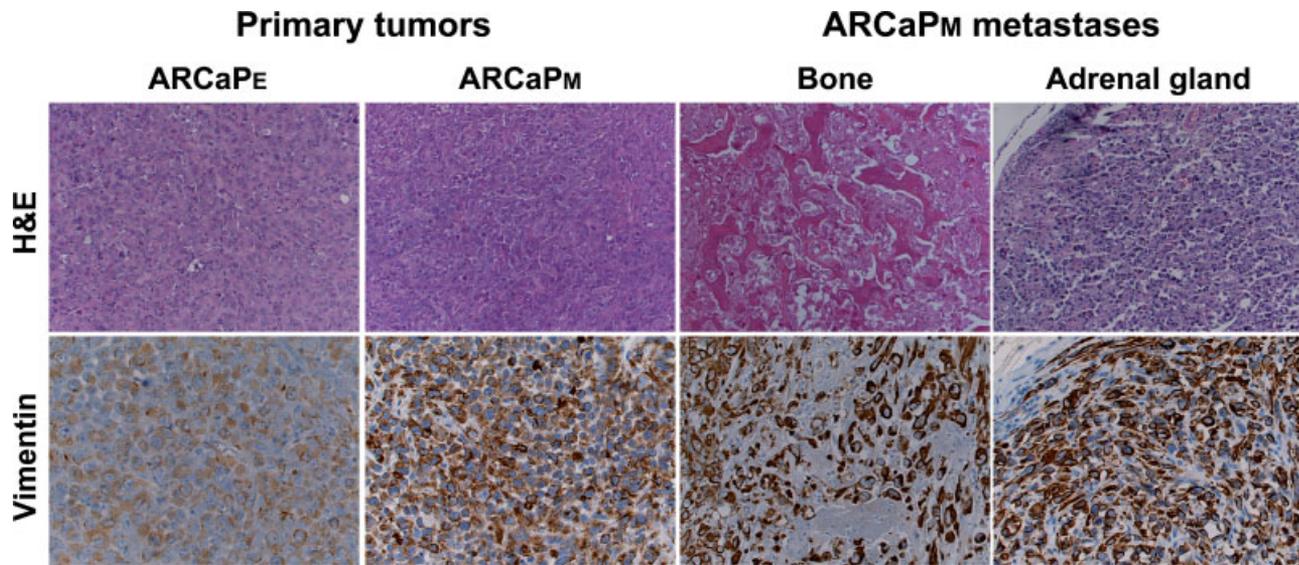## ARCaP_M metastases

Bone   ### Adrenal gland

Fig. 5. Histomorphology (**top panel**) and vimentin expression (IHC, **bottom panel**) of primary tumors of ARCaP_E, ARCaP_M, metastatic bone, and adrenal gland induced by intracardiac injections of ARCaP_M cells in athymic mice.

their metastatic potentials in mice. The incidence of bone metastasis ranged from 12.5% (1/8) for ARCaP_E cells, with a latency of 71 days, to 100% (9/9) for ARCaP_M cells, with a latency of 61 days (range 40–104 days). Interestingly, consistent with these observations, increased bone metastasis resulted from ARCaP cell interaction with mouse bone, through recycling of the injected ARCaP_E or ARCaP_M cells in the mouse hosts. Mice inoculated with ARCaP_E or ARCaP_M cells also developed increased adrenal gland metastasis, from 22% (4/18, latency 132 days, range 70–165 days) to 33% (3/9, latency 96 days, range 77 to 135 days). Remarkably, ARCaP_{Ad} metastasized only to host adrenal gland. We observed that both ARCaP_{Ad} and ARCaP_M-like cells derived from ARCaP_E had altered morphology and gene expression profiles (Fig. 4) resembled mesenchymal cells, suggesting that the bone and adrenal gland microenvironments had promoted EMT by facilitating the trans-differentiation of ARCaP_E cells toward ARCaP_M with preferential metastasis to bone or adrenal gland. In addition to adrenal gland, a low frequency of host mice also developed lymph node, liver, and lung metastases (data not included).

DISCUSSION

We established an ARCaP human prostate cancer cell model to study the possible relationship between the host microenvironment, EMT, the critical transition of prostate cancer cells from epithelial to mesenchymal phenotype, [29–31], and the propensity of prostate cancer to metastasize to bone and soft tissue. We also correlated EMT with increased cell growth, migration,

and invasion in vitro. EMT has been reported during embryonic development. The invasion front of the developing organ resembles that of the tumor, exhibiting increased cell motility, invasion, and migration as observed in breast and bladder cancers. In the ARCaP human prostate cancer progression model, EMT can be promoted by cellular interaction between an ARCaP human prostate cancer cell subclone, ARCaP_E, and host bone or adrenal gland. The derivative ARCaP_M and ARCaP_{Ad} cells have the propensity to metastasize to bone and adrenal gland, respectively. Through further cellular interaction with host adrenal gland, we derived a secondary generation of ARCaP_{Ad} cells. We observed, remarkably, that second generation ARCaP_{Ad} cells had their ability to metastasize restricted only to the host adrenal gland. Because of the similarities in cell morphology, gene expression profiles, and behavior of ARCaP_M derived from ARCaP_E through in vivo selection as a bone metastasis variant and the ARCaP_M IA8 subclone originally isolated from the ARCaP cells, we suggest that IA8 derived from IF11 through EMT transdifferentiation and the interaction of ARCaP_E with the host bone. Following cellular interaction between human prostate cancer ARCaP_E cells and the mouse host, we observed changes in morphology, gene expression, and behavior in this cell clone to resemble a mesenchymal cell type, express mesenchymal genes, and show increased invasion and migration in vitro and metastasis to bone and adrenal gland in live mice (Fig. 2–5). The changes in gene expression profile, such as increased expression of vimentin and N-cadherin and decreased expression of E-cadherin and cytokeratin18 and 19, are consistent

with the morphologic switch of ARCaP cells by EMT, with increased metastatic potential, as reported in several other tumor types [32–35]. We suggest that the host microenvironment plays an important role in facilitating EMT and subsequent prostate cancer metastasis to the skeleton and soft tissues [3]. We observed that despite the clonal origin of ARCaP cells, they present as distinct morphologic and molecular variants with diverse ability to metastasize to bone and adrenal gland. Our results suggest that soluble stimulatory factor(s) secreted by prostate cancer cells may be responsible for the maintenance of tumor cell heterogeneity in ARCaP cells when cultured in vitro (Fig. 3). These observations are consistent with the published literature, where soluble factors such as TGFβ and/or EGF can confer EMT in cultured cells, resulting in altered cell growth and behaviors such as cell motility, invasion, and metastasis in vitro [29,31,33,35].

The fact that host interaction enhances EMT and promotes ARCaP cells to migrate, invade, and metastasize in this model suggests that clinical bone and adrenal gland metastases of prostate cancer cells may be acquired and facilitated by cellular interaction with host microenvironment. Based on the results of this and our previous studies [3,15,16,26], it is likely that resident fibroblasts in the prostate, bone, or adrenal gland or cells recruited from hosts, such as inflammatory and marrow stem cells [36–38], can instigate prostate cancer cells to gain increased malignant potential through the local production of soluble factors, reactive oxygen species and/or extracellular matrices that prompt the tumor cells for enhanced growth and metastasis [30,35,37,38]. Using marginally tumorigenic LNCaP cells as model, we showed previously that co-inoculating LNCaP cells with either non-tumorigenic human prostate stromal fibroblast or a human osteosarcoma cell line [25,39] formed large chimeric tumors. By cloning LNCaP cells from the chimeric tumors, we established lineage-derived LNCaP sublines C4-2 and C4-2B cells which, like other variants [25,39,40], exhibited increased lymph node and bone metastasis. Similar results, that is, an increased propensity for local tumor formation and distant metastases, were obtained with ARCaP cells as described in the present communication and other human prostate cancer cell lines, whereby a human prostate cancer cell line when injected alone, without the presence of stromal fibroblasts, but with recruited host stromal cells, can promote prostate cancer progression [41–43]. We posit that ARCaP interaction with bone or adrenal gland promotes irreversible EMT with subsequent increased invasive and migratory potential and the ability to metastasize to bone and soft tissues.

The demonstration that ARCaP cells undergo EMT in bone or adrenal gland and gain metastatic potential for various sites has several important clinical implications for controlling cancer growth and metastasis. First, the host microenvironment includes soluble and insoluble factors associated with or secreted by osteoblasts, osteoclasts, marrow stromal, or stem cells that could play key roles promoting EMT, an important molecular transition by which cancer cells gain increased metastatic potential in response to the changing tumor microenvironment. These interactions could result in the promotion of cancer cell metastasis to soft tissues such as the adrenal gland, a documented site for human prostate cancer metastasis [44]. Second, if EMT acquired by prostate cancer cells following cellular interaction with host bone or adrenal gland occurs in patients, this could be a potential target for prevention and treatment strategies. Third, since the host microenvironment was shown to promote EMT and prostate cancer progression, host-stroma-directed targeting of prostate cancer such as by the use of atrasentan [45], bisphosphonates [46], growth factor receptor antagonists [47], antiangiogenics [48], and radiopharmaceuticals [49], should be further explored to improve the treatment of cancer metastases.

CONCLUSIONS

We demonstrated that the host microenvironment is a critical site for the transition of human prostate cancer cells from epithelial to mesenchymal morphology, resulting in increased metastatic potential for bone and adrenal gland. Clonal prostate cancer cells could have different histomorphologies, gene expression profiles, sensitivity toward cancer therapeutic drugs, and variable behaviors in culture and in the host. We found that clonal interaction, possibly mediated by soluble factors secreted by prostate cancer cells, is responsible for maintaining tumor cell heterogeneity. Our study documented that EMT can be facilitated through cellular interaction between human prostate cancer cells and mouse skeleton or adrenal gland and that EMT could be exploited as a potential target for the prevention and treatment of human prostate cancer metastases.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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12

Quantum Dots for In Vivo Molecular and Cellular Imaging

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Summary

Multifunctional nanoparticle probes based on semiconductor quantum dots (QDs) are developed for simultaneous targeting and imaging of cancer cells in living animals. The structural design involves encapsulating luminescent QDs with an ABC triblock copolymer, and linking this polymer to tumor-targeting ligands, such as antibodies and drug-delivery functionalities. In vivo targeting studies of human prostate cancer growing in nude mouse show that the QD probes can be delivered to tumor sites by both enhanced permeation and retention (passive targeting) and by antibody binding to cancer-specific cell surface biomarkers such as prostate-specific membrane antigen (active targeting). Using both subcutaneous injection of QD-tagged cancer cells and the systemic injection of multifunctional QD probes, multicolor fluorescence imaging of as few as 10–100 cancer cells can be achieved under in vivo conditions. The use of spectrally resolved imaging can efficiently remove autofluorescence background and precisely delineate weak spectral signatures in vivo. These results suggest that QD probes and spectral imaging can be combined for multiplexed imaging and detection of genes, proteins, and small-molecule drugs in single living cells, and that this imaging modality can be adopted for real-time visualization of cancer cell metastasis in live animals.

Key Words: Quantum dots; nanoparticles; in vivo; molecular; cellular; imaging; targeting; diagnosis; spectral; multiplexed; multifunctional; block copolymer.

1. Introduction

The development of high-sensitivity and high-specificity probes beyond the intrinsic limitations of organic dyes and fluorescent proteins is of considerable interest to many areas of research, ranging from molecular and cellular biology to molecular imaging and medical diagnostics. Recent advances have shown that nanometer-sized semiconductor particles can be covalently linked with

136   *Gao, Chung, and Nie*

biorecognition molecules such as peptides, antibodies, nucleic acids, and small-molecule inhibitors for applications as fluorescent probes *(1–13)*. In comparison with organic fluorophores, these quantum-confined particles or quantum dots (QDs) exhibit unique optical and electronic properties, such as size- and composition-tunable fluorescence emission from visible-to-infrared wavelengths, extremely large absorption coefficients across a wide spectral range, and very high levels of brightness and photostability *(14,15)*. Despite their relatively large sizes (2–8 nm), recent research has shown that bioconjugated QD probes behave like genetically encoded fluorescent proteins (4–6 nm), and do not suffer from serious kinetic binding or steric-hindrance problems *(6–13)*. In this "mesoscopic" size range, QDs also have more surface areas and functionalities that can be used for linking to multiple diagnostic (e.g., radioisotopic or magnetic) and therapeutic (e.g., anticancer) agents. These properties have opened new possibilities for ultrasensitive bioassays and diagnostics, as well as for advanced molecular and cellular imaging.

Here, we report detailed protocols of preparing bioconjugated QD probes for simultaneous targeting and imaging of human prostate cancer cells in a murine model. Key steps involves high-quality QD preparation, surface coating with amphiphilic triblock copolymer for in vivo protection, bioconjugation of multiple polyethylene glycols (PEGs) and targeting ligands for tumor antigen recognition, and in vivo fluorescence imaging. To enhance the detection sensitivity, we further discuss the use of hyperspectral imaging configuration to separate QD fluorescence from strong background (mouse skin autofluorescence).

2. Materials

1. 90% Technical grade trioctylphosphine oxide (TOPO) (Aldrich).
2. 99% Pure trioctylphosphine (Aldrich).
3. Cadmium oxide (CdO 99.99%) (Aldrich).
4. Selenium (>99%) (Riedel-de Haën).
5. 99% Stearic acid (Sigma).
6. Hexamethlydisilathiane (Fluka).
7. Dimethylzinc (10% wt in hexane, store and use in inert atmosphere) (Strem).
8. 98% Hexadecylamine (Aldrich).
9. Poly(t-butyl acrylate-co-ethyl acrylate-co-methacrylic acid) (PBEM, mw. 100K) (Aldrich).
10. 99% Octylamine (Fluka).
11. *N*-(3-dimethylaminopropyl)-*N*′-ethylcarbodiimide hydrochloride (EDAC) (Fluka).
12. PEG (mw. 2-5K) (Nektar and Sunbio).
13. 98% 2,2′-(Ethylenedioxy)diethylamine (Aldrich).
14. Antibody J591 against prostate-specific membrane antigen (PSMA) (Millennium Pharmaceuticals).
15. Separation media, Sephadex G-25, Superdex 75, and Superdex 200 (Amersham).

16. Ketamine and Xylazine (Prescription drugs from local hospital).
17. Ultracentrifuge, Optima TLX (Beckman Coulter).
18. 1-cc Insulin syringe (29X1/2 gauge) for intravenous injection (VWR).
19. 6–8-wk nude mice (Charles River).
20. Specialized imaging equipment is discussed in the main text.

3. Methods

3.1. Preparation of Highly Fluorescent QDs

High-quality red-color QDs are prepared according to literature procedures with modifications *(16–20)*. The 0.128 g CdO (1 mmol) precursor is first dissolved in 1 g stearic acid with heating in a three-neck round-bottom flask. After formation of a clear solution, TOPO (5 g) and hexadecylamine (5 g) are added as reaction solvents, which are then heated to 250°C under argon for 10 min. The temperature is briefly raised to 360°C, and equal molar selenium dissolved in trioctylphosphine is quickly injected into the hot solvents. The mixture immediately changes color to orange-red, indicating QD formation. The dots are kept in the reaction solvents at 200°C for 30 min, and capping solution of dimethylzinc (0.5 mmol) and hexamethyldisilathiane (0.5 mmol) is slowly added over a period of 15 min to protect the CdSe core. These ZnS-capped CdSe dots have excellent chemical- and photostability. The dots are cooled to room temperature, and are rinsed repeatedly with methanol/hexane to remove free ligands. Ultraviolet adsorption, fluorescence emission spectra, and transmission electron microscopy are used for characterization. This procedure typically produces QDs with emission peak centered at 630–640 nm, close to the upper wavelength limit of high-quality CdSe dots. However, the deep-red color is not optimized for tissue penetration and imaging sensitivity in animals. Deep tissue imaging (millimeters to centimeters) requires the use of near-infrared light in the spectral range of 700 to 900 nm *(21)*, (*see* **Note 1**). Nevertheless, the imaging concept and probe preparation techniques are essentially the same.

3.2. Nanoparticle Surface Modification and Bioconjugation

3.2.1. Polymer Modification

For encapsulating QDs, about 25% of the free carboxylic acid groups in PBEM triblock copolymer are derivatized with octylamine, a hydrophobic side chain (*see* **Note 2**). Thus, the original polymer (0.1 g) dissolved in 4 mL dimethylformamide is reacted with *n*-octylamine (5.2 mg) using ethyl-3-dimethyl amino propyl carbodiimide (EDAC, 23 mg, threefold excess of *n*-octylamine), as a crosslinking reagent. The product yields are generally greater than 90% because of the high EDAC-coupling efficiency in dimethylformamide (determined by a change of the free octylamine band in thin-layer chromatography). The reaction mixture is
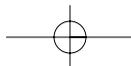
138   *Gao, Chung, and Nie*

dried with a rotary evaporator (Rotavapor R-3000, Buchi Analytical Inc., DE). The resulting oily liquid is precipitated and rinsed five times with water to remove excess EDAC and other water-soluble byproducts. After vacuum-drying, the octylamine-grafted polymer is stored or resuspended in an ethanol/chloroform mixture for use.

3.2.2. Particle Encapsulation

TOPO-capped purified QDs (0.1 nmol) are mixed with the polymer (*see* below) in a chloroform/ethanol solvent mixture (3:1 [v/v]). The nanoparticle suspension is then placed in vacuum and slowly dried over a time course of 2–6 h for particle–polymer self-assembly. The polymer-to-QD molar ratio is set at 5–20 depending on the particle sizes (for the red QDs used here, the ratio is set at 20), and the polymers in excess are removed later. After vacuum-drying, the encapsulated dots are soluble in many polar solvents, such as aqueous buffer (pH >9.0) and alcohols. The nanoparticle–polymer hybrids are kept in aqueous solution for 3 d and then purified from unbound polymers by gel filtration (Superdex 200) (sample loading volume <5% of the column volume). Alternatively, ultracentrifuge and ultrafiltration work equally well. Dynamic light scattering measurements show a particle size around 10 nm (number weighted), which is much smaller than nanoparticles coated with the original unmodified PBEM polymer (40 nm). This comparison indicates the formation of a tight polymer wrapping layer on QD surface.

3.2.3. Long-Circulating PEG-Modified QD

Polymer-coated QDs are activated with 50 m*M* EDAC in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) and reacted with amino-mPEG (mw 5000) at a QD/PEG molar ratio of 1:50 overnight at pH 8.5 (pH adjusted by NaOH). The QDs saturated with PEG chains can be purified by three methods, column filtration (Superdex 75), dialysis (mwco >3X of the mw of PEG), or ultracentrifugation at 75,000*g* for 60 min. After resuspension in PBS buffer (pH 7.4), trace amount of aggregated particles were removed by centrifugation at 6000*g* for 10 min. The resulted QDs not only have a long plasma circulation time but are also highly stable in a broad range of aqueous conditions (e.g., pH 1.0 to 14.0 and salt concentration 0.01 to 1 *M*).

3.2.4. QD–Antibody Probe

We have developed two coupling procedures based on carbodiimide-mediated amide formation and amine-sulfhydryl crosslinking *(22)*. For carbodiimide reactions, the polymer-coated dots (COOH functional groups) are activated with 1 m*M* EDAC for 10 min and then mixed with amino-mPEG at a QD/PEG ratio of 1:6. After a quick purification with polyacrylamide-desalting

columns (Pierce), the activated dots are reacted with an IgG antibody at a QD/antibody molar ratio of 1:15 for 2 h. The final QD bioconjugates are purified by filtration column chromatography (Amersham). After dilution in PBS buffer, aggregated particles are removed by centrifugation at 6000*g* for 10 min, and the QD–antibody bioconjugates are kept at 4°C. This procedure is easy to perform and broadly applicable for many native proteins, such as IgG, streptavidin, lectins, peptides, and so on because the availability of amine groups (**Note 3**). On the other hand, however, the abundant reactive groups could cause aggregation and render biomolecules randomly oriented on the QD surface, which is detrimental to antibody activities. The second procedure using active ester–maleimide crosslinker solves the probe-orientation problem but involves pretreatments of nanoparticles and antibodies. In this approach, polymer-coated nanoparticles are first reacted with 2,2′-(ethylenedioxy) diethylamine to add a small number of amino groups and is purified with a G25 desalting column. In the mean time, purified IgG molecules are reduced by dithiothreitol to cleave the disulfide bonds in the hinge region. Similar and very detailed procedures are available at Quantum Dot Corporation's website. It has been our experiences that this antibody fragment conjugation leads to less aggregation and bioactivity retardation. Although the binding affinity of each antibody fragment to its target molecules decreases, it could be compensated by a multivalence effect (multiple fragments per QD because of its large surface area), and this matter deserves careful examination. For some applications where the whole antibody is critical for specific molecular recognition, we are developing a new conjugation chemistry based on hydrazide coupling, which not only allows the use of whole IgG, but also controls the IgG orientation. Preliminary studies have shown improved results in multicolor molecular mapping of formalin-fixed, paraffin-embedded tissue specimens.

Au: DTT correctly defined as dithiothreitol?

3.3. In Vitro Cellular Imaging and Spectroscopy

PSMA-positive C4-2 cells and PSMA-negative PC-3 cells are cultured 2–3 d on chamber slides. For live cell staining, no blocking step is needed. QD–PSMA or QD–PEG bioconjugates are diluted to 50 n*M* in PBS or Hank's balanced buffers, and incubated (100 µL) with the cultured cells for 1 h at 4°C. The stained cells are then gently washed with PBS for three times and photographed on an inverted fluorescence microscope (Olympus, IX-70) equipped with a digital color camera (Nikon D1), a broad-band blue light source (480/40 nm, 100-W mercury lamp), and a long-pass interference filter (DM 510, Chroma Tech, Brattleboro, VT). Single cell fluorescence intensity is quantified with flow cytometer (FACS) or wavelength-resolved, single-stage spectrometer (SpectraPro 150, Roper Scientific, Trenton, NJ; detailed instrument setup is described in an early volume of this book series) *(23)*.

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3.4. In Vivo Animal Imaging

3.4.1. Animal Preparation and Processing

All the protocols described next have been examined and approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of Emory University. C4-2 prostate tumor cells are cultured 2–3 d and injected into 6–8 wk nude mice subcutaneously (10^6 cells/injection site). Tumor growth should be monitored daily until it reaches the desired sizes using caliper measurements. (For C4-2 cell line, spontaneous tumor growth varies among different animals. Therefore, each mouse is implanted with tumor cells at multiple sites.) The mice are divided into three groups for passive, active targeting, and control studies. They are then placed under anesthesia by injection of a ketamine and xylazine mixture intraperitioneally at a dosage of 95 mg/kg and 5 mg/kg, respectively. QD bioconjugates are injected through the tail vein at 0.4 nmol per mouse for active targeting, or 6.0 nmol for passive targeting and control experiment using 29X1/2-gage insulin syringes. After imaging studies, the mice are sacrificed by CO_2 overdose. Tumor and major organs (brain, heart, kidney, liver, lung, muscle, and spleen) were removed and frozen for histology examination. Tissue collections were cryosectioned into 5- to 10-µm thickness sections, fixed with acetone at 0°C, and imaged on the inverted fluorescence microscope.

3.4.2. Tumor Imaging Strategies

Bioconjugated QDs are delivered to the tumor sites by both passive and active tumor-targeting mechanisms (**Fig. 1**) *(24)*. In the passive mode, PEG-coated long-circulating QDs are accumulated preferentially at tumor sites through an enhanced permeability and retention effect; whereas in the active mode, QDs linked with targeting molecules such as antibody, peptide, antagonist, and so on quickly mark tumors through molecular recognition (in this report, QD-PSMA bioconjugate specifically bind to prostate tumors). It is worth mentioning that dextran is another attractive cloaking molecular for enhancement of nanoparticle biocompatibility and plasma circulation time.

Fig. 1

Au: "attractive cloaking molecule" meant? Please clarify this fragment.

Fig. 2

3.4.3. Fluorescence Imaging

In vivo fluorescence imaging is performed by using a macro-illumination system (Lightools Research, Encinitas, CA), designed specifically for small animal studies. As shown in **Fig. 2**, in a dark box illumination is provided by fiberoptic lighting (lamp house outside the dark box). For true-color fluorescence imaging, a long-pass dielectric filter (Chroma Technology) is used to reject scattered excitation light and to pass Stokes-shifted QD fluorescence. The fluorescence image is captured by a color charge-coupled device (Optronics, Magnafire SP, Olympus, America) and can be monitored on a computer screen
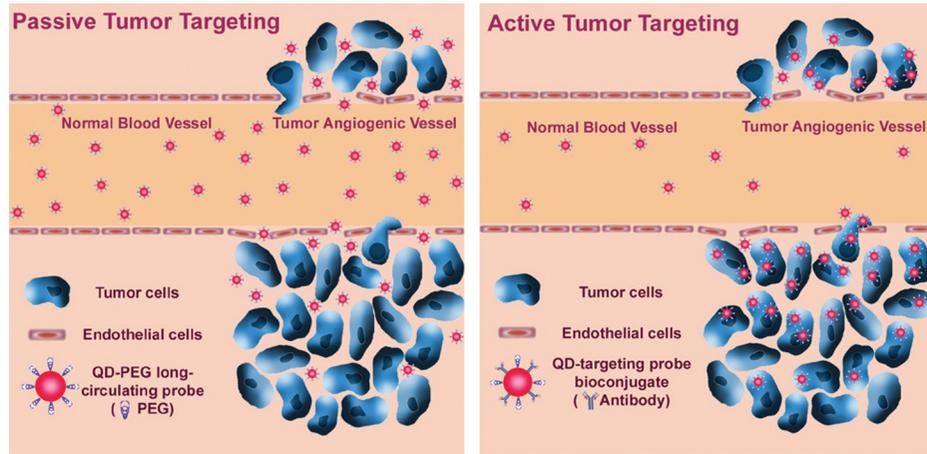
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Fig. 1. In vivo tumor-targeting strategies. Passive tumor targeting based on permeation and retention of long-circulating quantum dot (QD) probes via leaky tumor vasculatures (left panel), and active tumor targeting based on high binding affinity of QD–antibody conjugates to tumor antigens (right panel).
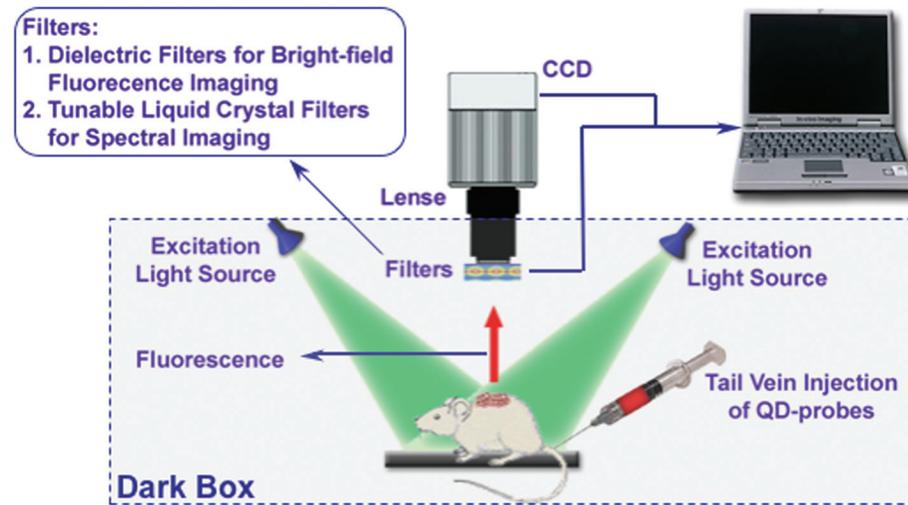

Fig. 2. Schematic illustration of in vivo optical imaging instrumentation. Tumor-bearing mice are administered with quantum dot bioconjugates intravenously and placed under anesthesia. In a dark box, illumination is provided by fiber-optic lighting. A long- pass filter is used to block the scattered lights, and a computer-controlled liquid crystal tunable filter is exploited for multispectral imaging.

*142*   *Gao, Chung, and Nie*

in real time. For wavelength-resolved hyper spectral imaging, a cooled, scientific-grade monochrome charge-coupled device camera is used together with a spectral imaging optical head (with a built-in liquid crystal tunable filter scanning from 400 to 720 nm, CRI, Inc., Woburn, MA). Because the red QDs used in this work has an emission wavelength centered at 640 nm, the tunable filter is set to automatically step in 10-nm increments from 580 to 700 nm (*see* **Note 4**). The camera capture images at each wavelength with constant exposure, resulting in 13 TIFF images loaded into a single data structure. Based on the fluorescence spectra of pure QDs and autofluorescence, the spectral-imaging software can quickly analyze the spectral components for each pixel via a process known as "principle component analysis" *(25)*. The whole process takes less than 1 s and can be output into separate fluorescence channels or overlaid images, as shown in **Fig. 3**. It should be pointed out that the autofluorescence and QD spectra need only be recorded initially, as they can be saved in spectral libraries and reused on additional spectral unmixing.

Fig. 3

4. Notes

1. This wavelength range provides a "clear" window for in vivo optical imaging because it is separated from the major absorption peaks of blood and water. Toward this goal, recent research has prepared alloyed semiconductor QD consisting of cadmium selenium telluride, with tunable fluorescence emission up to 850 nm *(26)*. Technical optimization of this new material together with core-shell CdTe/CdSe type-II QDs *(27)* are still needed to improve the stability and quantum efficiency. A number of promising approaches have been recently discovered. For example, Peng et al. have reported the use of successive ion layer adsorption and reaction method (originally developed for thin film deposition on solid substrates) to precisely control nanoparticle growth one layer at a time *(28)*; while Han and coworkers improved the ternary QD (three-component) synthesis by alloying the third component into preformed binary QDs *(29)*. Together with other possibilities, high-quality NIR QDs should be available very soon and bring major improvements in tissue penetration depth and cell detection sensitivity. It is worth mentioning that in vivo detection sensitivity can be further enhanced by fluorescence tomography imaging based on multiple light sources and detectors *(30)*.

2. Unmodified block copolymer can also solubilize QDs into aqueous solution, but can result in a relatively thick surface-coating layer, similar to PEG–lipid micelles *(6)*. This is because the hydrophilic methacrylic acid block doesn't have enough affinity to the particle surface and dangles in solution, which is supported by dynamic light-scattering measurements.

3. For in vivo targeting and imaging, it is advantageous to use short peptides with high binding affinity and specificity than antibodies, because of their smaller size, less immune response, lower cost, and easiness in bioconjugation. Furthermore, automated peptide synthesis and recent advance in phage display *(31)* technique enable researchers to screen and engineer peptide sequences at a relatively high throughput.

In Vivo Molecular and Cellular Imaging   143
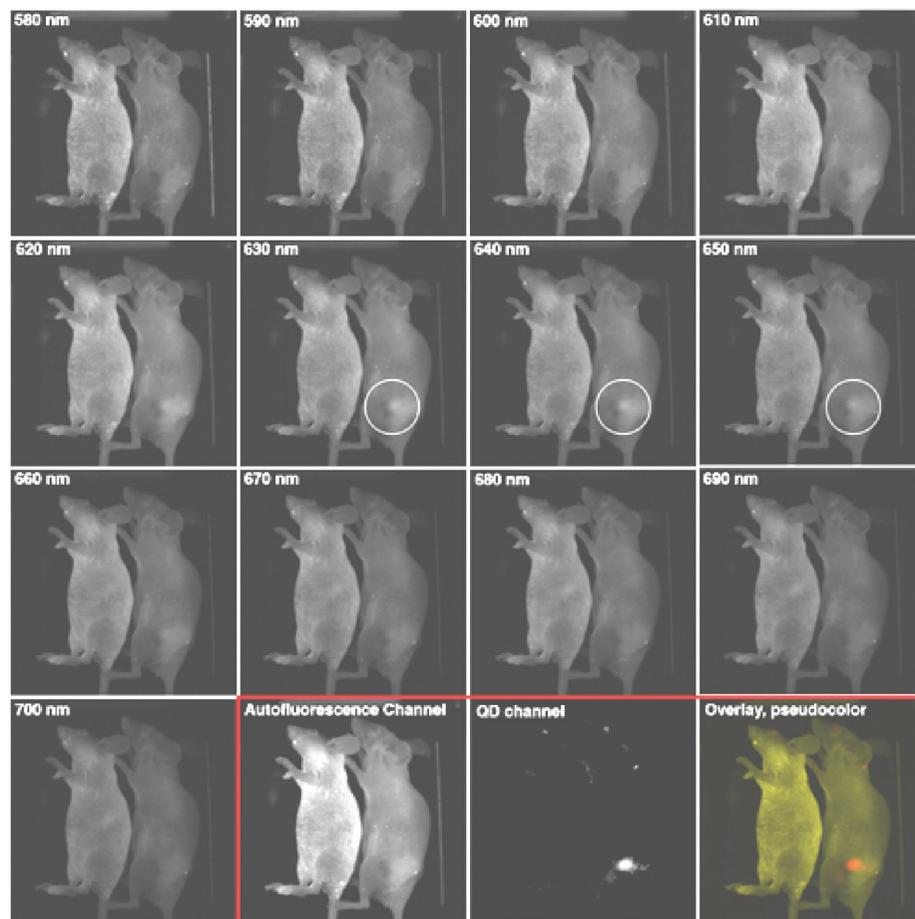
Fig. 3. Spectral imaging of quantum dot (QD)–prostate-specific membrane antigen antibody conjugates in live mice harboring C4-2 tumor xenografts. Panels 1–13, experimental raw data of an image stack from 580 to 700 nm. Please note the fluorescence intensity increase at the tumor site (white circle) from wavelength 630–650 nm, because of accumulation of red-color QDs (emission peak at 640 nm). Panels 14–16, spectrally deconvoluted images (in red square). Based on spectral distinction between mouse skin and QD emissions, fluorescent images can be output into autofluorescence and QD channels separately, or as an overlaid picture.

4. For complicated spectral deconvolution (e.g., more spectral components, similar spectra among different components, irregular spectra such as spikes, and so on), the tunable liquid crystal filter should be set to step in smaller wavelength increments, such as 1 or 5 nm. As a tradeoff of the high unmixing resolution, the imaging and computing time also increase.

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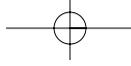
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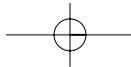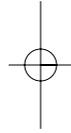Au: Please provide page range for chapter in ref. 23

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Stromal-Epithelial Interaction in Prostate Cancer Progression

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Abstract

Cancer is not a single-cell disease, and its existence and behavior are constantly modulated by the host. Cancer gene expression and genetics are also highly dynamic and are regulated epigenetically by the host through gene-environment interaction. In this article, we describe the molecular pathways leading to an unusual property of cancer cells: the ability to mimic the host microenvironment and, in particular, the characteristics of osteomimicry and vasculogenic mimicry, which are likely to be regulated by soluble and insoluble factors in the tumor-adjacent microenvironment. We also discuss the importance of host inflammatory and stem cells that contribute to the growth and survival of cancer cells. By understanding the salient features of cancer-host interaction, novel therapeutics might be developed to target the cancer and its host in the treatment of lethal prostate cancer metastases.

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Introduction

It is now well accepted that cancer progression depends not only on the genetic constituents and modifications of the cancer cells but also on the genetics and epigenetic factors contributed by the host.[1-5] Although genetic changes in cancer cells are required for cancer to occur, these changes are insufficient to induce the entire spectrum of a progressive cancer.[6,7] It has been amply demonstrated that intimate interaction between cancer cells and their host microenvironment greatly influences the growth and subsequent dissemination of cancer cells.[8-11] The work of Paget more than 100 years ago epitomizes the tumor ("seed") and host ("soil") relationship that determines the patterns of cancer dissemination in patients.[12] Recent work, however, showed that this interaction is far more dynamic than previously thought, including the ability of the host to alter the genetics and the behaviors of cancer cells and the ability of cancer cells to reciprocally modify the genetics and the inductive potential of the host.[5,13-16] Host cells are not static but can be recruited to or modified at the site of cancer cell growth and metastasis and greatly influence the behaviors of cancer cells.[5,13,17] The homeostasis between cancer cells and their immediate microenvironment, including inflammatory cells and bone marrow–derived stem cells recruited to sites of cancer growth and metastasis, the levels of hypoxia and circulating hormones surrounding the cancer cells and the stress conditions, reactive oxygen species (ROS) induced by cell crowding and changing pH, and the osmolarity of the tumor-adjacent microenvironment, are all known to contribute to changing cancer behaviors.[18-21] Through constant contact and interaction with the rich milieu of the microenvironment, including soluble growth factors, extracellular matrices, and ROS, cancer cells gain additional genetic modifications and behavioral changes that drive them to migrate and invade. Ultimately, the host factors determine the patterns of cancer cell dissemination.[10,12,22-24]

This review focuses on the contribution of host stromal fibroblasts and osteoblasts to local cancer growth, progression, and final metastasis to the skeleton and visceral organs. The converging signaling pathways that

respond to factors that confer growth and lead to the survival and metastasis of cancer cells and the therapeutic opportunities arising from this paradigm shift will be emphasized. Specifically, the following topics and molecular events will be reviewed and discussed: the plasticity of cancer and stromal fibroblasts that together contribute to cancer growth and progression; the molecular basis of mimicry by cancer cells, with gene expression and cellular functions guided by the host/cancer microenvironment and vascular endothelial and osteoblastic cells that support the growth and survival of cancer cells; how cancer cells orchestrate gene expression profile changes of the host cells that together participate in the genesis and progression of cancer; and the opportunity for therapeutic co-targeting of the cancer and the tumor microenvironment, disrupting the evolutionary continuum of the cancer and stromal cells that leads to the uncontrolled growth of cancer cells and their resistance to therapy.

Plasticity of Cancer and Stromal Fibroblasts

The developmental fate of a normal cell is regulated temporally and spatially by precise inductive cues from the cell microenvironment.[25] In response to the signaling molecules, the gene expression profiles and the behaviors of a normal differentiating cell are subjected to changes allowing the execution of normal differentiation program of a developing organ to result. The genomic stability of the normal cell in this case is desired, expected, and essential for the preservation of the genetic makeup and survival of the normal cells.[26] However, in the case of cancer, many of the physiologic processes are "hijacked" by cancer cells, and mechanisms controlling growth and survival in the normal physiologic context are lost.[27-29] The plasticity of cancer cells and stromal fibroblasts could fuel tumor growth through the production of excessive amounts of angiogenic substances leading to the ingrowth of new blood vessels, mimicking the normal physiologic processes of wound repair.[30,31] Cancer cells have been described as a wound that fails to heal. This refers to the persistent stromal response to the invading cancer epithelium and the secreted local factors, such as plasminogen activator, that prevented the blood clotting and wound-healing processes.[32,33] Cancer cells can be immune-evasive "outlaws" that have lost the major histocompatibility class 1 antigen and are no longer recognized by the host cytotoxic T cells.[34] Cancer cells overcome and resist the physiologically programmed apoptotic response to the developmental signals, tissue injuries, and stress responses induced by hypoxia, hormone withdrawal, chemotherapy, and radiation therapy through a variety of mechanisms related to imbalanced proliferative and apoptotic programs.[35,36]

The prostate gland is derived from the embryonic urogenital sinus, with the growth and differentiation of the glandular epithelium specified and maintained by its adjacent mesenchyma under tight control of the male steroid hormone, testosterone.[37-39] When prostate epithelial cells are undergoing neoplastic transformation, initially the growth of glandular epithelium is still stimulated and maintained by testicular androgen with its action mediated by the androgen receptor (AR) in the glandular epithelium and stromal fibroblasts.[39-41] After androgen-deprivation therapy for the treatment of prostate cancer, prostate epithelial

growth becomes androgen refractory and is no longer controlled by androgenic hormones but rather by yet-to-be-defined factors secreted by cancer cells, as well as cells in the cancer microenvironment.[42-45] This altered control mechanism coincides with inherited and epigenetically driven intrinsic genomic instability, DNA repair defects, and acquisition of multiple survival mechanisms by the cancer cells, and allows cancer cells to escape from normal developmental constraints and undergo a de-differentiation process with possible nonrandom genetic changes.[15,16,46,47] Remarkably, despite genetic alterations in cancer cells, they often remain nontumorigenic in mice and, even when tumorigenic, seldom acquire metastatic potential.[48,49] We believe certain undefined host factors could contribute to an increased malignant potential of cancer cells. For example, host inflammatory cytokines could play a positive and directive role in prostate cancer growth, progression, and tropism toward bone by indirectly affecting cells in the host microenvironment. Tumor- and host stroma–derived factors, such as transforming growth factor–β1, are known to induce tumor angiogenesis and elicit stromal reactions characterized by the transformation of resident fibroblasts to inductive myofibroblast and deposition of excess extracellular matrices.[50] The altered stromal microenvironment could help drive local tumorigenesis and subsequently enhance tumor cell distant dissemination through a positive feedback mechanism as depicted in Figure 1. The progression of cancer cells, therefore, can occur in 3 steps: genetic instability of transformed precancerous epithelial cells contributes to altered cell behaviors, including increased cell proliferation, decreased apoptosis, and increased cell motility and survival; the behaviorally altered precancerous or cancerous epithelial cells could trigger a stromal response or desmoplastic reaction, with morphologic and gene expression changes that particularly increase the deposition of extracellular matrices and also the secretion of growth and angiogenic factors that collectively induce genetic changes and program the inductivity of the stromal fibroblasts. In consequence, the changing stromal microenvironment could induce additional genetic modifications of the cancer epithelial cells. The resulting cancer cells could become highly unstable with increased motility, invasive and metastatic potential. This interaction between stroma and epithelium is a "vicious cycle" maintained by permanent genetic changes within the tumor and stromal cell compartments, ultimately contributing to the progression of an invasive cancer.[5,51]

How Cancer Cells Respond to a Changing Tumor Microenvironment

Osteomimicry

Cancer cells are capable of mimicking the characteristics of cells in the tumor microenvironment. Dramatic examples include osteomimicry, the ability of cancer cells to express genes normally highly restricted to bone cells before, during, or after metastasis through the synthesis, secretion, and accumulation of bone-like proteins such as osteocalcin (OC), osteopontin, bone sialoprotein (BSP), and osteonectin, even forming mineralizing bone under certain culture conditions.[29,52,53] Cancer cells are also capable of expressing receptor activator of nuclear factor–κB

Figure 1 | Vicious Cycle of Altered Stromal Cell Microenvironment, Tumorigenesis, and Metastasis
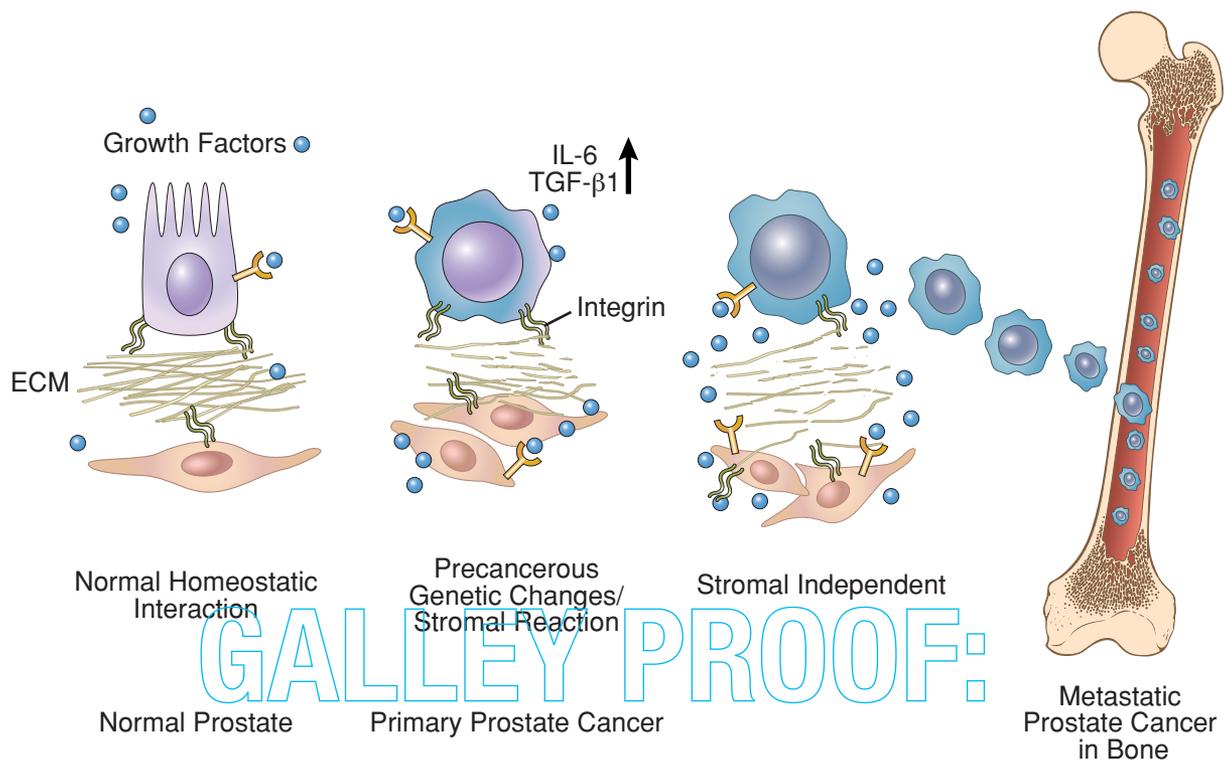
Dynamic and reciprocal interaction between prostate cancer and prostate stromal cells that results in genetic changes in prostate cancer and prostate or bone stromal cells through a cellular interaction mechanism defined here in a "vicious cycle" manner. This reciprocal cellular interaction could contribute to the invasiveness and metastasis of human prostate cancer cells to bone and visceral organs. The normal prostate epithelial cell homeostatic interaction with its adjacent stroma through growth factors and extracellular matrices via growth factor receptors or integrins is deranged because of genetic modifications occurring in the epithelium. The genetically altered prostate epithelial cell provokes a stromal desmoplastic reaction, which sets off a chain reaction, such as increased TGF-β1 and IL-6, in reciprocally modulating the cancer epithelium, which becomes prostate stroma independent and eventually invades and migrates to bone and visceral organs and exerts strong reciprocal interaction with the resident host cells that facilitate the growth and survival of cancer cells at metastatic sites.
Abbreviations: ECM = extracellular matrices; IL-6 = interleukin-6; TGF-β1 = transforming growth factor–β1

(RANK) ligand (RANKL) and parathyroid hormone-related peptide, which are known to directly or indirectly increase bone turnover through increased RANKL (associated with cancer cells)-RANK (associated with osteoclasts) interaction and activation of osteoclastogenesis.[54,55] These unusual characteristics are because of the ability of cancer cells to respond to factors secreted by cancer cells or by host cells in the immediate microenvironment. Using human prostate cancer and bone cells as models to define the molecular basis of osteomimicry, we identified a unique key switch controlling OC and BSP gene expression that is operative in prostate cancer but not in bone cells.[56,57] This switch resides at the 8-base nucleotide sequences called the cyclic adenosine monophosphate (cAMP) responsive element (CRE), within OC and BSP promoters, and is responsible for the regulation of endogenous OC and BSP as well as their promoter activities.[58] We further showed that CRE activation is under the control of a soluble factor secreted by prostate cancer and host cells, with its action mediated by cAMP-dependent protein kinase A (cAMP-PKA) activation. The activation of CRE binding protein (CREB) was demonstrated by the observation of CREB phosphorylation upon activation of cAMP-dependent PKA, phosphorylated CREB translocation into the cell nucleus, and its

subsequent binding to CRE as shown by gel shift and supershift assays. Based on these data, Figure 2 depicts a number of possible molecular pathways mediating osteomimicry in human prostate cancer cells.[42,45,58,59] The binding of a soluble factor to a putative cell surface receptor links with the activation of intracellular cAMP-PKA signaling pathway. The putative receptor can be a G protein–coupled receptor that mediates downstream signaling via PKA or, alternatively, can be linked to a yet-to-be-identified receptor that binds to the soluble factor and transmits intracellular signaling through the cAMP-PKA system. The participation by a soluble factor, β_2-microglobulin (β2M) was shown to activate the cAMP-PKA system. β_2-microglobulin is known to form a complex with a classical major histocompatibility class 1 antigen, which could implicate the role of this complex in the downstream intracellular signaling of osteomimicry in human prostate cancer cells. β_2-microglobulin could participate directly in activating cAMP-PKA system or participate in CREB and its downstream activation of target genes. The biologic consequences of osteomimicry could be numerous. For example, the activation of OC and BSP expression could result in the recruitment of bone cells such as osteoclasts and osteoblasts that participate in enhanced osteoclastogenesis, ie, increased bone turnover or
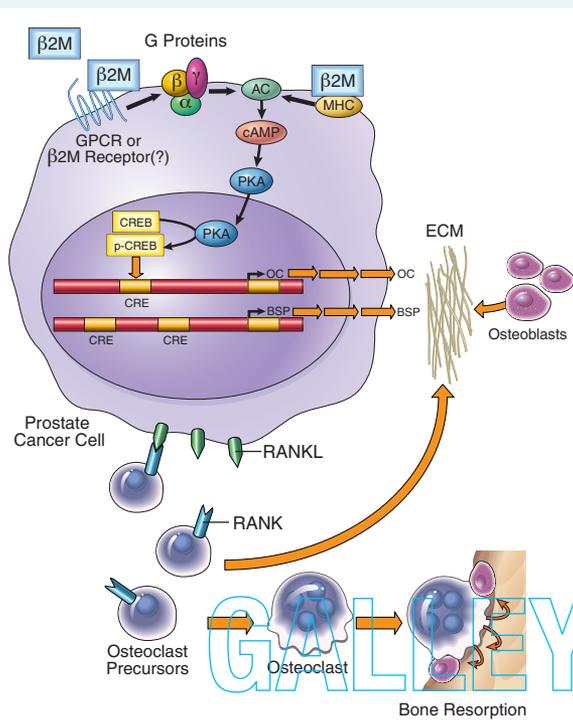
Prostate cancer cells have the ability to mimic gene expression and behaviors of bone cells by synthesizing and depositing bone-like proteins, such as OC and BSP.[58] Among factors that could regulate the expression of these proteins, we found β2M induces the expression of OC and BSP through an activation of the cAMP–signaling pathway with its downstream activation of cAMP and CREB. β2-microglobulin is considered a housekeeping gene with a uniformed expression of its messenger RNA in many cells. Interestingly, β2M protein expression varied widely between cells, with higher expression in more aggressive human prostate cancer cell lines. β2-microglobulin could exert its action via a number of membrane receptors, such as G protein–coupled receptor, major histocompatibility antigen complex, or a yet-to-be-identified β2M receptor. Alternatively, β2M could also exert its action intracellularly by directly modulating CREB downstream target gene expression. The resulting increased expression and deposition of OC and BSP in the bone matrix could recruit osteoblasts and osteoclasts and initiate increased bone turnover (ie, increased bone resorption and formation) through osteoclastogenesis, which facilitates prostate cancer bone homing and colonization. Under androgen-deprived conditions, prostate cancer cells could survive by activating the cAMP-PKA–signaling pathway, which contributes to the neuroendocrine differentiation and increased efficiency of AR transactivation of target genes in prostate cancer cells.[42,45,59] Abbreviations: ? = yet-to-be-identified; GPCR = G protein–coupled receptor; MHC = major histocompatibility

bone "pitting" to create new sites in support of cancer cell attachment, growth, and colonization in bone.[60,61] Osteocalcin and BSP activation could contribute to new bone formation and mineralization.[62] Prostate cancer cells derived from LNCaP cells with increased bone metastatic potential, such as C4-2 and C4-2B, have activated OC and BSP gene expression and are also capable of forming bone nodules when subjected to mineralizing cell culture conditions in vitro.[63] The activation of CREB could result in marked gene expression changes in cancer cells and cells in the cancer microenvironment that could facilitate cancer cell growth, survival, and colonization in bone. It is interesting to note that of ~4000 potential CREB target genes, only a fraction are expressed in a cell context–dependent manner.[64,65] This again supports the notion that the host microenvironment might contribute to cancer cell growth, resistance to apoptosis, and conventional hormone, radiation, and chemotherapy. A large number of other downstream genes unrelated to osteomimicry were also found to be regulated by cAMP-PKA activation. For example, upon cAMP-PKA/CREB activation in cancer cells, the phosphorylated CREB is responsible for the recruitment of CBP/p300 to activate downstream genes, such as vascular endothelial growth factor, cyclins, and survival factors aiding the growth and survival of cancer cells.[66,67] It has been shown that removing androgen from cultured prostate cancer cells elicits a neuroendocrine phenotype in cancer cells because of CREB activation.[42,59,67] As expected, neuroendocrine differentiation, which has been associated with increased invasion, migration, and metastasis of prostate cancer cells was also activated by cAMP mimetics such as dibutyl cAMP or forskolin.[42,59]

Activation of the G protein, via the cAMP–activated β2 adrenergic receptor, has been shown to compensate for the requirement of androgen to activate AR-downstream genes.[59] This phenomenon could have clinical importance, because it has been proposed that the activation of AR by suboptimal concentrations of androgen could be responsible for the survival of prostate cancer cells in patients subjected to androgen-withdrawal treatment regimens.[45]

Vasculogenic Mimicry

Cancer cells often grow under stress conditions because of the lack of oxygen, increased cell crowding, and the lack of sufficient nutrients. In response to these conditions, adaptive changes by cancer cells have been observed creating their own blood vessels, such as ischemia-induced vasculogenic mimicry in melanoma, breast, and prostate cancer.[62,68,69] Hendrix et al demonstrated the plasticity of melanoma cells, which formed tubular structures with patterned matrix deposition including laminin, heparan sulfate proteoglycans, and collagens IV and VI, expressing genes normally expressed by vascular endothelial cells and interconnecting with the preexisting blood vessels.[31] This adaptive capability of cancer cells toward changes in microenvironmental cues could sustain their growth and survival at metastatic sites and allow them to gain further invasive and migratory potentials. A direct link between vasculogenic mimicry, the activation of focal adhesion kinase (FAK) through the phosphorylation of tyrosine-397 and -576, and decreased plasminogen activation through decreased urokinase activity has been reported.[70] Because FAK activation has been associated with increased cell invasion and migration, and plasminogen activation is crucial for blood clotting, the ability of cancer cells to alter FAK and plasminogen activation is consistent with observations of an increased ability of cancer cells to metastasize and its association with aberrant wound-healing properties.[30,71,72]

Epithelial to Mesenchymal Transition

Epithelial to mesenchymal transition (EMT) is a fundamental cellular process whereby an epithelial cell undergoes a structural and functional transition to assume the phenotype and behavior of a mesenchymal cell, characterized by increased migratory and invasive properties in embryonic development and also upon neoplastic progression.[73] It is now well accepted that EMT occurs in a number of human cancers, including prostate cancer, and EMT is associated with increased cancer invasion and metastasis. Epithelial to mesenchymal transition is a highly dynamic process that signals the plasticity of cancer cells (Figure 3). Cancer metas-

tasis is often preceded by EMT, but upon the completion of the metastatic process, cancer cells can revert their phenotype and behavior by undergoing mesenchymal to epithelial transition (MET) to increase their adhesion and growth at metastatic sites. This suggests the importance of the host microenvironment that could trigger EMT and its reversal, MET, epigenetically.[74]

There are numerous well-characterized molecular pathways that describe the underlying key regulatory processes of EMT in human cancer cells. Activation of transforming growth factor–β signaling enhances receptor tyrosine kinases and Ras activities that together can drive the translocation of Smad and Snail transcription factors from the cytoplasmic to the nuclear compartment, and the activation or suppression of downstream target genes associated with EMT have been widely proposed as the key regulatory mechanisms underlying EMT in human cancer cells.[75,76] Other molecular mechanisms include the activation of Wnt and β-catenin signaling, which suppresses E-cadherin and initiates the early step of EMT[77,78]; activation of the Hedgehog pathway, which contributes to increased EMT and stem cell differentiation,[73,79] both important features shared by invasive cancer cells; and activation of nuclear factor–κB transcription factor, which translocates into the cell nucleus, improves the survival of cancer cells, and allows them to resist apoptotic death after therapeutic intervention.[80,81] Figure 3 depicts selective growth control–signaling pathways of EMT and MET as a continuum of prostate cancer progression.

How Host Cells Contributed to the Genesis of Cancer

Host Infiltrating Inflammatory Cells

Cancer development often coincides with active chronic and recurrent inflammatory responses caused by innate immune responses to the presence of altered cancer epithelial cells and bacterial or viral infections at the site of the cancer origin. The infiltrating inflammatory cells have been shown to release reactive oxygen and nitrogen species such as hydrogen peroxide, superoxide, and nitric oxide as a part of the host defense mechanism to eradicate the "foreign" cells and invading organisms.[82,83] Responses to the presence of these highly reactive oxygen and nitrogen radicals released by the inflammatory cells and cancer cells could induce DNA damage to cancer cells and host stroma, activating DNA repair and cell proliferation programs to compensate for the cell loss resulting from failure to repair and subsequent cell death.[84,85] An extensive literature review suggests the possible functional and signaling roles of oxygen and nitrogen radicals in eliciting cell responses to stress and escape mechanisms for survival.[86] These observations collectively support the important role of the inflammatory cascade in carcinogenesis. De Marzo et al proposed a role for inflammation in prostate cancer development when they found foci of proliferative inflammatory atrophy as precursor lesions before the detection of prostate intraepithelial neoplasia, a known early pathologic lesion associated with human prostate cancer development.[87,88] They reported compelling epidemiologic evidence to suggest a link between prostate inflammation and prostate cancer in men.[87] For example, a positive correlation was found between prostatitis

Figure 3 | Epithelial to Mesenchymal Transition and its Reversal of Mesenchymal to Epithelial Transition During the Progression of Prostate Cancer
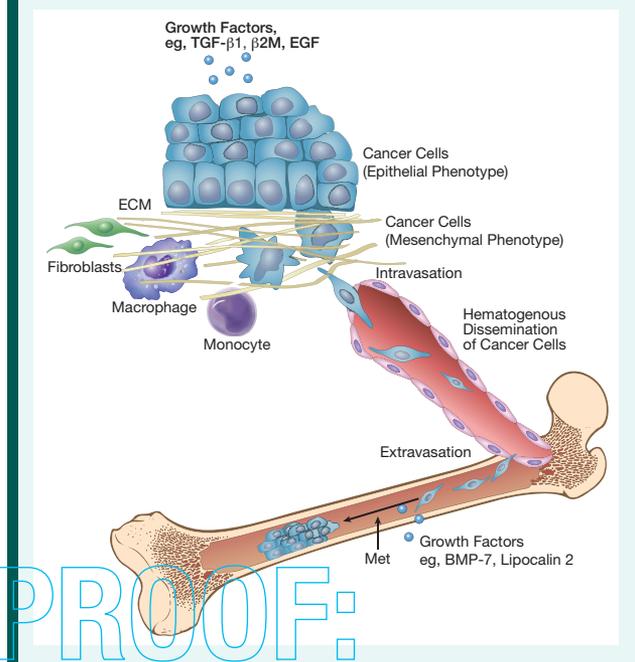
Increased migration and invasion of prostate cancer cells before bone metastasis can be initiated through EMT under the influence of increased growth factor signaling (eg, transforming growth factor–β1, epidermal growth factor, or β2M). The sources of growth factors and cytokines can be originated from resident fibroblasts or inflammatory cells within cancer-associated stroma, and these factors can form a complex with extracellular matrices before delivery to cancer cells. Cancer cells can metastasize to bone or visceral organs through hematogenous spread, and when arriving at the metastatic sites such as bone, cancer cells could undergo MET under the influence of BMP-7 and lipocalin 2, by re-expressing epithelial cell–associated markers, such as increased E-cadherin and decreased expression of vimentin and N-cadherin. This MET reversal could increase prostate cancer cell adhesion among themselves, with increased growth and survival potential in bone and visceral organs.

Abbreviations: ECM = extracellular matrices; EGF = epidermal growth factor; TGF = transforming growth factor

and sexually transmitted infections and increased prostate cancer risk.[88-90] Intake of antiinflammatory drugs and antioxidants has been shown to decrease prostate cancer risk.[91-94] Genetic studies revealed further supportive evidence that ribonuclease L, encoding an interferon-inducible ribonuclease,[95,96] and macrophage scavenger receptor 1, encoding subunits of the macrophage scavenger receptor,[96-98] are candidates as inherited susceptibility genes for familial prostate cancer. Conversely, the loss of glutathione S-transferase π, encoding a glutathione S-transferase capable of inactivating ROS and thus decreasing genome damage, has been found to occur frequently in prostate cancer.[87,98-100] Figure 4 emphasizes the potential roles of inflammatory processes and prostate cancer development.

Host Stem Cells

Stem cells are characterized by their abilities of self-renewal, slow cycling, and less well-differentiated properties. There are potentially 2 pools of stem cells that broadly could contribute to local cancer growth and its distant metastasis. One of the classical stem cell populations resides in the basal layer of prostate gland. With their unlimited growth potential and self-renewal property, they become a constant source of cancer cells and pop-

Figure 4 | Contribution of Inflammatory Cells on Progression of Prostate Cancer
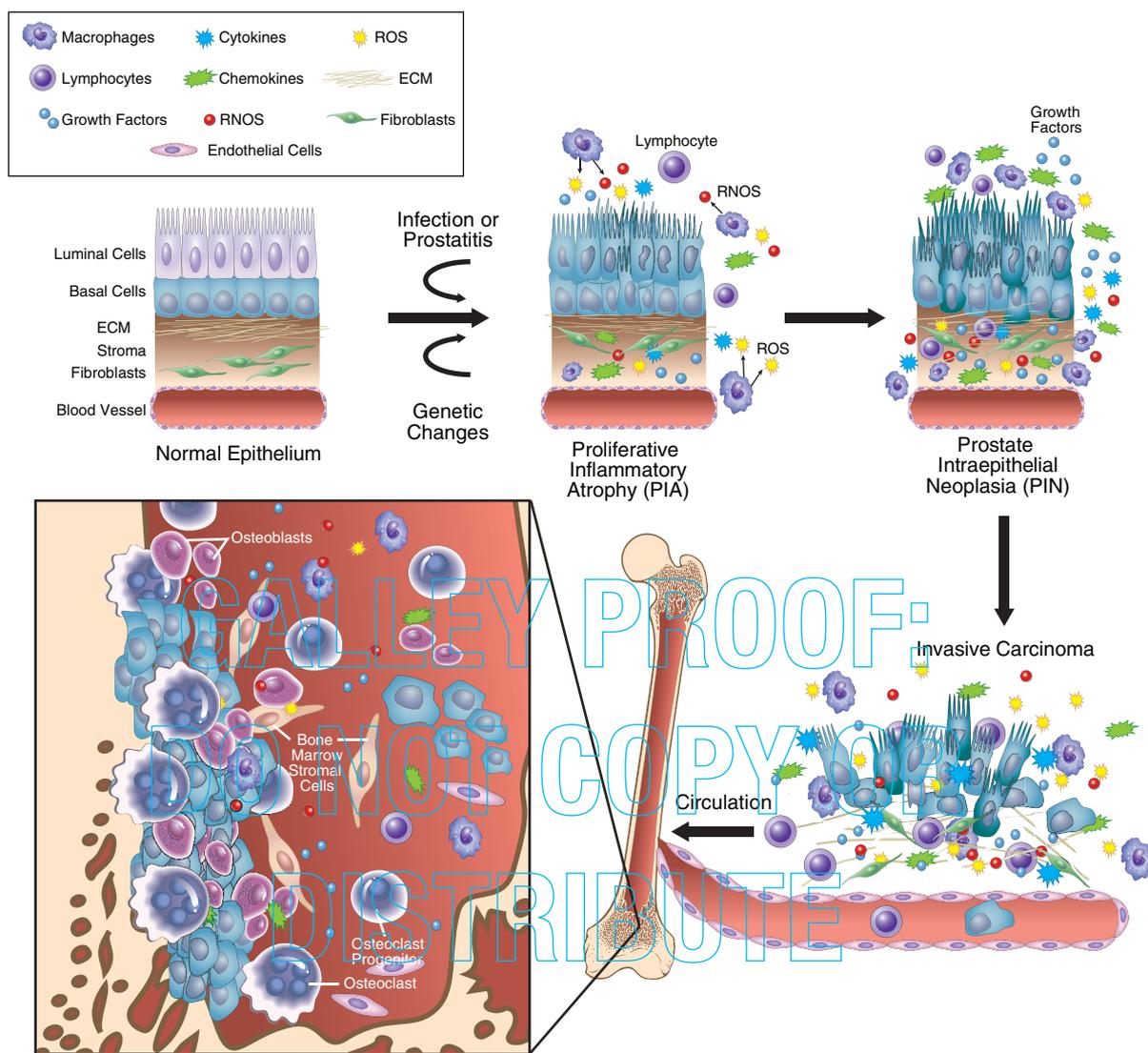
Recruitment of inflammatory cells to the prostate gland can occur under a variety of physiologic and pathophysiologic conditions, such as wound, infection, prostatitis, and cancer. Genetically altered prostate epithelial cells under the influence of resident fibroblast inflammatory (such as macrophage and lymphocytes) and endothelial cells progress further through additional genetic changes triggered by ROS or RNOS. The genetic unstable prostate cancer cell clusters can form proliferative inflammatory atrophy and then proceed to prostate intraepithelial neoplasia before becoming invasive prostate cancer. Upon metastasizing to bone, prostate cancer cells interact with bone cells, such as osteoblasts, osteoclasts, and marrow stromal cells, to increase their growth and survival in bone. Through cellular interaction with osteoclasts, prostate cancer cells also promote osteoclastogenesis and bone turnover by increased osteoclast maturation via RANKL (localized on prostate cancer or osteoblast cell surface) and RANK (localized on the cell surface of osteoclast) interaction. Further prostate growth and cancer survival in bone are promoted by increased bone turnover, ie, increased release of soluble growth factors, cytokines, and extracellular matrices.
Abbreviations: ECM = extracellular matrices; RNOS = reactive nitrogen species

ulate the entire tumor mass.[101-103] For example, the basal cells in the prostate gland shared gene expression profiles with cancer cells and could be considered as the prostate cancer progenitors.[102,104] Another postulated pool of stem cells could originate from the host.[22,105] Bone marrow–derived progenitor stem cells have migratory, invasive, and self-renewal potential.[106,107] Upon recruitment into a tumor, these cells could exist in a specific physical location or "niche" and could actually fuse with adult stem cells and participate in cancer cell growth and metastasis. This pool of cells, which has great proliferative and pluripotent potentiality and has been shown to migrate into primary or metastatic cancers, creates a rich source of growth factor and a

cytokine niche supporting the growth and expansion of cancer cells.[25] Although there is no concrete example of this kind of mechanism in prostate cancer, a recent work by Kaplan et al showed that the ability of tumor cells to metastasize to a predetermined location can be explained by the previous "marking" of the metastatic site by bone marrow hematopoietic progenitor cells that express vascular endothelial growth factor receptor 1 (Flt-1) and VLA-4 (integrin $\alpha 4\beta 1$).[108-110] The expression of $\alpha 4\beta 1$, a known receptor of fibronectin produced by resident fibroblasts, in response to tumor-specific factors, creates a permissive niche for the incoming migrating tumor cells.[109,110] If this mechanism has general applicability, it can be proposed that a previously

established bone marrow stem cell niche, in response to tumor-derived factors by resident marrow stromal cells, could also be responsible for attracting prostate cancer bone metastasis.[108-111] It has already been proposed that the homing mechanism of prostate cancer cells might involve chemokine (stromal cell–derived factor 1 or CXCR12) derived from marrow stromal cells and chemokine receptor (CXCR4) on the cell surface of prostate cancer cells[112]; cell adhesion molecules on marrow endothelial cells and integrins ($\alpha v \beta 3$ and $\alpha 4 \beta 1$) on the cell surface of prostate cancer cells[113,114]; hedgehog produced by cancer cells, which triggers a host prostate or bone stromal response mediated by paracrine interaction with cell surface receptors, patched1[115-117]; complementary growth factors/growth factor receptors and/or extracellular matrices/integrins produced by prostate cancer cells and bone cells, such as marrow stromal cells, osteoblasts, osteoclasts, or bone marrow progenitor stem cells. Understanding the molecular mechanisms at the interface of prostate cancer and host cells could help in the future development of novel therapies for the treatment of prostate cancer bone metastasis.[5,45,61]

Strategies to Co-Target Cancer and Its Host for the Treatment of Lethal Prostate-Cancer Metastasis

Increasing evidence suggests that an intimate interaction between cancer and its host contributes to local prostate cancer growth and distant metastasis. Cancer and host interaction has also been shown to support the survival of prostate cancer cells when subjected to hormone therapy, chemotherapy, and radiation therapy.[5,118,119] Through epigenetic cancer and host interaction, additional genetic changes can be introduced into both of the interactive cell types and further evolve the tumor phenotypes and genotypes.[5,10,13,15] This could be the molecular basis for cancer's status as a constantly moving target for which therapy must be tailored on an individual basis. For these reasons, the most effective means of controlling prostate cancer local growth and distant metastasis might be co-targeting strategies that eliminate cancer cell growth and also deprive cancer cells of their support systems from the host. This will hopefully eliminate or minimize the ability of cancer cells to survive and undergo continuous genetic and behavioral evolution by escaping previously effective therapies. The best known example is the androgen-independent progression of prostate cancer cells, by which they escape hormonal dependency and become unresponsive to androgen withdrawal.[45,120] The concept of co-targeting cancer and host has already been backed up by a number of examples. As depicted in Figure 5, these are the use of an antiangiogenic drug (eg, thalidomide) to target the endothelium in combination with chemotherapy targeting prostate cancer cells[121,122]; the combined use of a radionuclide, Sr89 or Sm153 to target the osteoblasts with chemotherapy targeting prostate cancer cells[123]; the use of an endothelin (ET)–1 receptor antagonist, atrasentan, to block the paracrine interaction between prostate cancer cells, which produce ET-1, with its action mediated by the ET_A receptor on the cell surface of

Figure 5 | Co-Targeting Cancer and Its Host for the Treatment of Prostate Cancer Metastasis
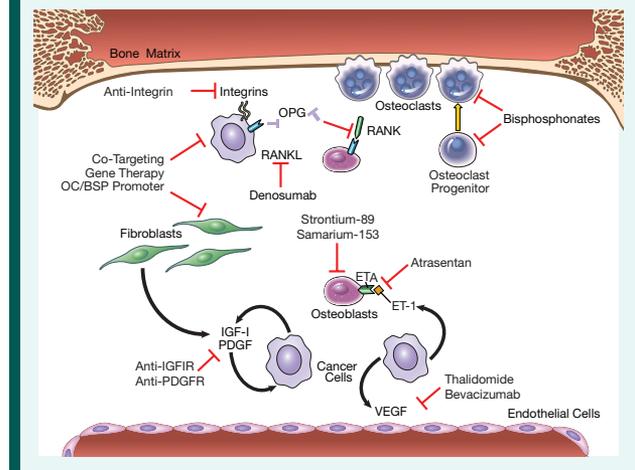
The strategies of co-targeting tumor and tumor microenvironment have been used in the clinic for the treatment of prostate cancer metastasis. As illustrated herein, cancer epithelium can be targeted effectively by the use of chemotherapy. As a rational combination, (1) tumor-associated endothelium can be targeted with antiangiogenic drugs (eg, thalidomide or bevacizumab); (2) the growth of osteoblasts can be targeted with a radionuclide (strontium-89 or samarium-153) or with an endothelin-1A receptor antagonist, atrasentan; (3) growth factors/growth factor receptors signaling (eg, insulin-like growth factor/insulin-like growth factor–1R, platelet-derived growth factor/platelet-derived growth factor receptor) or extracellular matrix/integrin interactions are also popular therapeutic targets by the use of small molecules or isotype-specific antibodies; (4) interphase between prostate cancer and bone cell interaction can be targeted by bisphosphonates to slow down bone turnover, and osteoclast/prostate cancer/osteoblast interaction can be effectively targeted using an adenoviral-based gene therapy with therapeutic cytotoxic HSV-thymidine kinase or viral replication controlled by tissue-specific and tumor-restrictive promoter, human OC or human BSP.

Abbreviations: IGF-1 = insulin-like growth factor–1; OPG = osteoprotegerin; PDGF = platelet-derived growth factor; PDGFR = platelet-derived growth factor receptor; VEGF = vascular endothelial growth factor

osteoblasts[124]; interrupting paracrine/autocrine growth factors and growth factor receptors or extracellular matrix and integrin interactions by the use of antibodies such as neutralizing antibody against insulin-like growth factor–1R, platelet-derived growth factor receptor, integrin isotype-specific antibodies and the stem cell hedgehog signaling pathway "hijacked" by cancer cells[5,125,126]; targeting the interphase between prostate cancer and bone cell interaction by slowing down bone turnover with bisphosphonates, and osteoclast/prostate cancer interaction with a decoy RANK receptor, osteoprotegerin[54,127] or RANKL antibody, denosumab (AMG162); and co-targeting prostate cancer and bone stroma using an adenoviral-based gene therapy with therapeutic cytotoxic HSV-thymidine kinase or viral replication controlled by tissue-specific and tumor-restrictive promoter, human OC or human BSP.[119,128,129] The rationales of these strategies are to interrupt cancer-host interaction and communication and make the host microenvironment hostile to cancer growth and survival. A broad range of experimental approaches holds promise and could someday change how cancer metastasis is evaluated and lead to its treatment on an individual basis.

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