

3,3'-Diindolylmethane (DIM) and its derivatives induce apoptosis in pancreatic cancer cells through endoplasmic reticulum stress-dependent upregulation of DR5

Maen Abdelrahim¹, Kristen Newman¹,
Kathy Vanderlaag², Ismael Samudio³
and Stephen Safe^{1,2,*}

¹Institute of Biosciences and Technology, The Texas A&M University System Health Science Center, 2121 W. Holcombe Boulevard, Houston, TX 77030, USA, ²Department of Veterinary Physiology and Pharmacology, Texas A&M University, College Station, TX 77843, USA and ³Department of Blood and Marrow Transplantation, University of Texas M.D. Anderson Cancer Center, Houston, TX 77030, USA

*To whom correspondence should be addressed at: Department of Veterinary Physiology and Pharmacology, Texas A&M University, 4466 TAMU, College Station, TX 77843-4466, USA.
Tel: +1 979 845 5988; Fax: +1 979 862 4929;
Email: ssafe@cvm.tamu.edu

3,3'-Diindolylmethane (DIM), ring-substituted DIMs and 1,1-bis(3'-indolyl)-1-(*p*-substitutedphenyl)methanes (C-DIMs) inhibit growth of Panc-1 and Panc-28 pancreatic cancer cells. Although DIMs (diarylmethanes) and selected C-DIMs (triarylmethanes), such as the *p*-*t*-butyl derivative (DIM-C-pPhtBu), activate the aryl hydrocarbon receptor and peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor γ , respectively, this study shows that both DIM and DIM-C-pPhtBu induce common receptor-independent pathways. Both DIM and DIM-C-pPhtBu increased endoplasmic reticulum (ER) staining and ER calcium release in Panc-1 cells, and this was accompanied by increased expression of glucose related protein 78 and C/EBP homologous transcription factor (CHOP/GADD153) proteins. Similar results were observed after treatment with thapsigargin (Tg), a prototypical inducer of ER stress. The subsequent downstream effects of DIM/DIM-C-pPhtBu- and Tg-induced ER stress included CHOP-dependent induction of death receptor DR5 and subsequent cleavage of caspase 8, caspase 3, Bid and PARP. Activation of both receptor-dependent and receptor-independent (ER stress) pathways by DIM and DIM-C-pPhtBu in pancreatic cancer cells enhances the efficacy and potential clinical importance of these compounds for cancer chemotherapeutic applications.

Introduction

The endoplasmic reticulum (ER) plays a critical role in post-translational modification of newly synthesized proteins, and the unfolded protein response (UPR) is activated under conditions of physiological ER stress (1–6). The UPR relieves the

Abbreviations: AhR, aryl hydrocarbon receptor; ChIP, chromatin immunoprecipitation; DIM, 3,3'-diindolylmethane; ER, endoplasmic reticulum; GRP78, glucose-related protein 78; PPAR γ , peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor γ .

condition of ER stress by modulating expression of genes required for protein processing and allows the cell to revert to homeostasis. ER-dependent folding and other modifications of proteins are critical for cell function, and genetic defects in these responses can lead to Alzheimer's, Parkinson's and Huntington diseases; tissue ischemia; atherosclerotic lesions; viral infection and diabetes (7–17). The failure of cells to counteract ER stress initiates activation of multiple pathways that lead to apoptosis (18).

Activation of cell death pathways is an important function for many anticancer drugs and other pharmacologically active compounds, and for some agents this may involve activation of ER stress (12–21). For example, non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs induce gastric lesions and their anti-tumorigenic activity has been linked to apoptosis through activation of ER stress responses (20). Moreover, the anticancer activities of the plant alkaloid ellipticine are also due, in part, to activation of ER stress in breast cancer cells (21). Research in this laboratory has been focused on the characterization and mechanism of action of the anticancer activities of 1,1-bis(3'-indolyl)methane (DIM), several symmetrical ring-substituted DIMs and 1,1-bis(3'-indolyl)-1-(*p*-substitutedphenyl)methanes (methylene substituted DIMs) (22–28). DIM and ring-substituted DIMs activate the aryl hydrocarbon receptor (AhR) in breast cancer cells and their activity in breast cancer may be due, in part, to inhibitory AhR–estrogen receptor crosstalk (23–25). However, it is clear that DIM induces multiple growth inhibitory/cell death pathways in breast and other cancer cell lines and these responses are AhR-independent (29–39). Recent studies in this laboratory have identified selected methylene-substituted DIMs (C-DIMs) that activate peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor γ (PPAR γ). Similar to other structure classes of PPAR γ agonists, PPAR γ -active C-DIMs inhibit growth of cancer cells and induce apoptosis through receptor-dependent and -independent pathways (26–28).

Preliminary studies with PPAR γ -active C-DIMs in Panc-1 pancreatic cancer cells which express mutated p53 showed that these compounds induced PPAR γ -independent growth inhibition/cell death. This study now demonstrates that DIM, 5,5'-dibromoDIM and the PPAR γ -active 1,1-bis(3'-indolyl)-1-(*p*-*t*-butylphenyl)methane (DIM-C-pPhtBu) inhibit Panc-1 cell growth and this response correlates with the induction of multiple ER stress pathways in Panc-1 and Panc-28 cancer cell lines. These DIM-derived compounds induce several characteristic markers of ER stress including glucose-related protein 78 (GRP78) and C/EBP homologous transcription factor (CHOP/GADD153). These stress-related responses are accompanied by upregulation of the death receptor DR5 and activation of extrinsic and intrinsic pathways of apoptosis. The results demonstrate that the potent anticancer activities of diarylmethane (DIM) and triarylmethane (C-DIM) compounds that contain bis-indolyl substituents are due, in part, to activation of ER stress pathways.

Materials and methods

Cell lines, chemicals, biochemical constructs and oligonucleotides

Panc-1 and Panc-28 cells were obtained from the American Type Culture Collection (ATCC, Manassas, VA). DME/F12 with and without phenol red, 100× antibiotic/antimycotic solution, thapsigargin (Tg) and tunicamycin (Tm) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (St Louis, MO). Fetal bovine serum (FBS) was purchased from Intergen (Purchase, NY). The GRP78 promoter-luciferase construct contains 374 bp from the promoter and was provided by Dr K.Park, Center for Molecular Medicine, Sungkyunkwan University (Seoul, Korea) (40). Human CHOP promoter constructs were provided by Dr Pierre Fafourmoux (Saint Genes, Champarelle, France) (41), and the DR5 constructs were from Dr H.G.Wang, Moffitt Cancer Center (Tampa, FL) (42). [γ - 32 P]ATP (300 Ci/mmol) was obtained from Perkin Elmer Life Sciences (Boston, MA). Poly(dI-dC) and T4 polynucleotide kinase were purchased from Roche Molecular Biochemicals (Indianapolis, IN). ER-Tracker Blue-White DPX and Fluo-3 calcium indicator were purchased from Molecular Probes (Eugene, OR). Z-VAD-FMK (general caspase inhibitor) and Z-IETD-FMK (caspase 8 inhibitor) were obtained from BD Bioscience (San Diego, CA). Antibodies for GRP78/Bip, GADD153/CHOP, caspase 8 PARP, rabbit IgG and β -tubulin proteins were obtained from Santa Cruz Biotechnology (Santa Cruz, CA). Antibodies for ATF6 and DR5 were obtained from Imgenex (San Diego, CA). Antibodies for caspase 3 and BID were obtained from Cell Signaling Technology (Beverly, MA). Lysis buffer and luciferase reagent were obtained from Promega (Madison, WI).

Cell proliferation assay

Panc-1 and Panc-28 cells were seeded in DMEM:F-12 media with 5% FBS and treated on the next day with either vehicle (Me_2SO) (0.1% of volume) or with the indicated compounds and concentrations. Cells were counted at the indicated times using a Coulter Z1 cell counter. Each experiment was carried out in triplicate, and results are expressed as mean \pm SD for each determination.

Transfection of pancreatic cancer cells and preparation of nuclear extracts

Cells were cultured in 6-well plates in 2 ml of DME/F12 medium supplemented with 5% FBS. After 16–20 h, when cells were 50–60% confluent, reporter gene constructs were transfected using Lipofectamine Reagent (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA). The effects of different treatments on transactivation were investigated in Panc-1 and Panc-28 cells. Cells were transfected with (500 ng) GRP78, GADD153 or DR5 constructs for 16 h, and then treated with the indicated concentrations of Me_2SO (control), DIM, C-DIMs, Tg or tunicamycin (Tm) for 18 h. Cells were harvested, and luciferase activity of lysates (compared with β -galactosidase activity) was determined. For the EMSA assay, nuclear extracts from the cells were isolated as described previously and aliquots were stored at -80°C until the analysis was carried out (43,44).

Western immunoblot analysis

Cells were washed once with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) and collected by scraping in 200 μl of lysis buffer [50 mM HEPES, 0.5 M sodium chloride, 1.5 mM magnesium chloride, 1 mM EGTA, 10% (v/v) glycerol, 1% Triton X-100 and 5 $\mu\text{l}/\text{ml}$ of Protease Inhibitor Cocktail (Sigma)]. Lysates from cells were incubated on ice for 1 h with intermittent vortexing followed by centrifugation at 40 000 g for 10 min at 4°C . Equal amounts of protein from each treatment group were diluted with loading buffer, boiled, and loaded onto 10% SDS-polyacrylamide gel. Samples were electrophoresed and proteins were detected by incubation with the primary antibodies ATF6, GRP78 (H-129), GADD153 (R-20), caspase 8 (H-134), caspase 3 (3G2), BID (7A3), DR5 or β -tubulin (H-235) followed by blotting with appropriate horseradish peroxidase-conjugated secondary antibody as described previously (44). After autoradiography, band intensities were determined by a scanning laser densitometer (Sharp Electronics Corporation, Mahwah, NJ) using this Zero-D Scanalytics software (Scanalytics Corporation, Billerica, MA).

Electrophoretic mobility shift assay (EMSA)

Oligonucleotides were synthesized and annealed, and 5-pmol aliquots were $5'$ end-labeled using T4 kinase and [γ - 32 P]ATP. A 30 μl EMSA reaction mixture contained \sim 100 mM potassium chloride, 3 μg of crude nuclear protein or 1–2 band forming units of human recombinant Sp proteins, 1 μg poly(dI-dC), with or without unlabeled competitor oligonucleotide, and 10 fmol of radiolabeled probe. After incubation for 20 min on ice, antibodies against selected proteins were added and incubated another 20 min on ice. Protein–DNA complexes were resolved by 5% PAGE as described previously (43,44). Specific DNA–protein and antibody-supershifted complexes were observed as retarded bands in the gel. GRP78 ERSE, GADD153 ERSE, DR5 CHOP-like, and Sp1 oligonucleotide sequences used in gel shift analysis are as follows: Human

GRP78 –94 ERSE, GGG CCA ATG AAC GGC CTC CAA CGA; Human GADD153 –103 ERSE, GGG GCC AAT GCC GGC GTG CCA CTT TCT; Human DR5 –276 CHOP site, TTG CGG AGG ATT GCG TTG ACG A; and Human DR5 –198 Sp1-2, CAT TCG GGG CGG GGC GAA TCA.

Measurement of apoptosis

Annexin V-FLUOS Staining Kit (Roche Applied Science, Penzberg, Germany) was used to detect apoptotic activity in Panc-1 cells after different treatments. Annexin V positivity of cells were determined by Flow Cytometric Analysis; briefly, cells were treated with Me_2SO (control) or with the indicated concentrations of DIM, C-DIMs or Tg for 24 h. Cells were then harvested by trypsinization and washed twice in Annexin binding buffer (5 mM CaCl_2 , 140 mM NaCl and 1 mM HEPES, pH 7.4). Cells were then resuspended in 100 μl of Annexin V binding buffer containing 1:30 dilution of Annexin V–FITC conjugate and 1 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ propidium iodide and incubated in the dark for 15 min. After washing three times with Annexin binding buffer, samples were analyzed by flow cytometry in a FACSCalibur flow cytometer (BD Biosciences, San Jose, CA) using a 488 nm argon excitation laser.

Fluorescent microscopy and staining

Panc1 cells were seeded in Lab-Tek Chamber slides (Nalge Nunc International, Naperville, IL) at 100 000 cells/well in DME/F12 medium supplemented with 5% FBS. Cells were then treated with 20 μM DIM or 10 μM 5,5'-dibromoDIM, DIM-C-pPhtBu or 0.5 μM Tg for 18 h, and were washed were washed in Dulbecco's PBS. For ER staining, ER-Tracker Blue-White DPX probe was diluted 1:1000 in the regular medium. Then, the prewarmed (37°C) probe-containing medium was added to the cells and incubated for \sim 30 min under the same growth conditions. The loading solution was removed and cells were then washed one more time with PBS before adding the fresh medium without stain. For Ca^{2+} staining, cells were treated and stained as described for the ER staining experiment and incubated with Fluo-3 probe (1:1000 dilution) as recommended by the manufacturer. For both staining experiments, cells were analyzed using a fluorescence microscope and a confocal laser scanning microscope (Fluoview/FV500; Olympus America, Melville, NY) with appropriate filter settings.

Chromatin immunoprecipitation assay

Panc-1 cells (2×10^7 cells) were treated with Me_2SO , 10 μM DIM-C-pPhtBu, or 0.5 μM Tg for 3, 6 or 12 h, respectively. Formaldehyde (1.5%) was added for 5 min, and the cross-linking reaction was terminated by the addition of 0.125 M glycine for 5 min. Cells were washed with PBS, scraped, pelleted and hypotonically lysed (5 mM PIPES, pH 8.0, 85 mM KCl, 0.5% CA-630 plus protease inhibitors). Nuclei were collected by centrifugation, dissolved in sonication buffer (1% SDS, 10 mM EDTA and 50 mM Tris–HCl, pH 8.0) and sonicated to desired chromatin length (500 pb to 1 kb). Chromatin was precleared by addition of protein A-conjugated beads (PIERCE) and incubated at 4°C for 1 h with shaking. The beads were pelleted, and the precleared chromatin supernatant was immunoprecipitated with antibodies [1–2 μg per chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP)] specific to IgG or CHOP (Santa Cruz Biotechnology) at 4°C overnight. Protein–antibody complexes were collected by addition of 5 μl protein A-conjugated beads at room temperature for 1 h; beads were washed with a low salt buffer (0.1% SDS, 1% Triton X-100, 150 mM NaCl, 2 mM EDTA and 20 mM Tris–HCl, pH 8.0), high salt buffer (500 mM NaCl instead), LiCl buffer (1% CA-630, 1% sodium deoxycholate, 250 mM or 500 mM LiCl, 1 mM EDTA and 100 mM Tris–HCl, pH 8.0) and TE buffer (0.1% Tween 20, 0.1% SDS, 2 mM EDTA and 50 mM Tris–HCl, pH 8.0). Protein–DNA cross-links were eluted (1% SDS, 50 mM NaHCO_3 and 1.5 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ of salmon sperm DNA) and reversed (5 μl of 5 N NaCl, 2 μl of 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ RNase for 00 μl eluent) at 65°C for 5–6 h. DNA was purified by Qiaquick Spin Columns (Qiagen) followed by PCR amplification. The DR5 primers are 5'-AGGTTAGTTCGGTCCCTTC-3' (forward) and 5'-CAACTGCAAATCCACCACA-3' (reverse); they amplify a 111 bp region of the human DR5 promoter, which contains a CHOP binding site: GAGGAT-TGCGTTG. The positive control primers are 5'-TACTAGCGGTTT-TACGGGCG-3' (forward) and 5'-TCGAACAGGAGGAGCAGAGAGCGA-3' (reverse), which amplify a 167 bp region of the human glyceraldehydes-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH) gene. The negative control primers are 5'-ATGGTTGCCACTGGGATCT-3' (forward) and 5'-TGCCAAAGCC-TAGGGGAAGA-3' (reverse), which amplify a 174 bp region of genomic DNA between the GAPDH gene and the CNAP1 gene. PCR products were resolved on a 2% agarose gel in the presence of 1:10 000 SYBR gold (Molecular Probes).

Statistical analysis

Statistical significance was determined by the analysis of variance and Scheffe's test, and the levels of probability were noted. The results are

expressed as mean \pm SD for at least three separate (replicate) experiments for each treatment.

Results

Decreased cell survival and increased ER stress

DIM and the ring-substituted 5,5'-dibromoDIM and DIM-C-pPhtBu were used in this study as representative di- and triarylmethanes containing two indolyl or ring-substituted indolyl groups. Results of concentration-dependent Panc-1 and Panc-28 cell proliferation curves (Fig. 1) show that the order of growth inhibitory potencies for these compounds was DIM-C-pPhtBu \approx 5,5'-dibromoDIM > DIM, and we have observed similar results in other pancreatic, prostate and breast cancer cell lines (data not shown). Initial light microscopic analysis of Panc-1 cells treated with these compounds suggested some alteration in the ER, and results in Figure 2

summarize the staining of Panc-1 cells with ER-Tracker Blue-White DPX dye after treatment with 20 μ M DIM, 10 μ M 5,5'-dibromoDIM, 10 μ M DIM-C-pPhtBu and 0.5 μ M Tg, a well-characterized inducer of ER stress. This dye specifically stains the ER blue in live cells, and the results show that Panc-1 cells from all treatment groups exhibited significantly increased blue staining compared with the solvent (Me_2SO) control, suggesting the induction of ER stress. ER stress induced by Tg is accompanied by release of Ca^{2+} which can be detected using Fluo-3 calcium indicators, and this is typified by the increased green staining in Panc-1 cells after treatment with Tg for 18 h (Fig. 3). Using the same staining protocol, similar results were obtained in Panc-1 cells after treatment with 20 μ M DIM, 10 μ M 5,5'-dibromoDIM and 10 μ M DIM-C-pPhtBu for 18 h. These results suggest that like Tg the DIM compounds also induce release of Ca^{2+} from the ER and activate ER stress in Panc-1 cells.

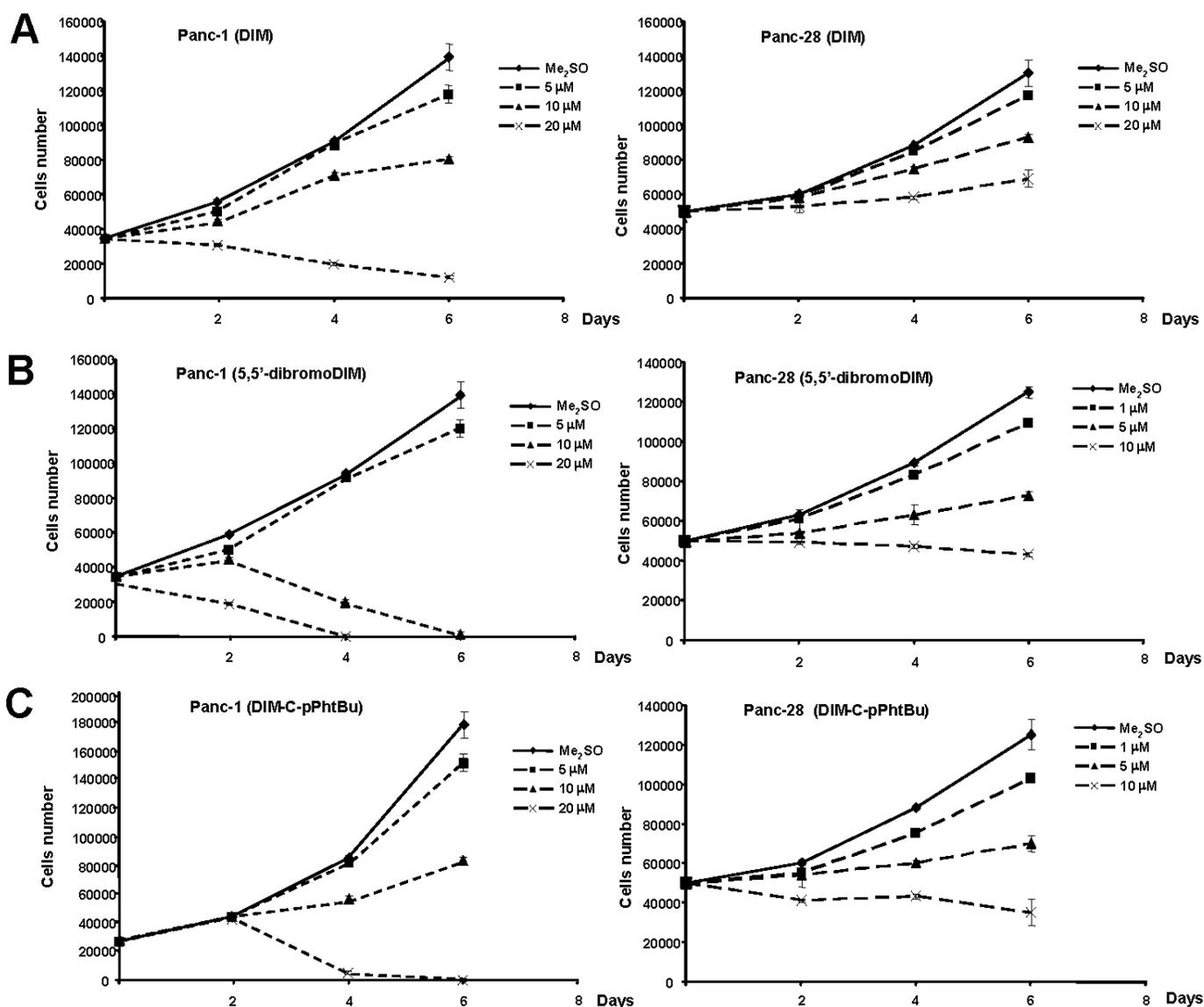


Fig. 1. Effects of DIM, 5,5'-dibromoDIM and DIM-c-pPhtBu on Panc-1 and Panc-28 cell proliferation. Cells were treated with Me_2SO (solvent control) and different concentrations of DIM (A), 5,5'-dibromoDIM (B) or DIM-C-pPhtBu (C), and the number of cells in the Me_2SO and chemical-treated groups were determined as described in Materials and methods. Between 1 and 5 μ M DIM-C-pPhtBu, 5,5'-dibromoDIM or 5–10 μ M DIM significantly ($P < 0.05$) decreased Panc-1 and Panc-28 cell proliferation. Doses of 5–10 μ M for 5,5'-dibromoDIM and DIM-C-pPhtBu and 20 μ M DIM decreased the number of Panc-1 and Panc-28 cells below the number of cells initially seeded.

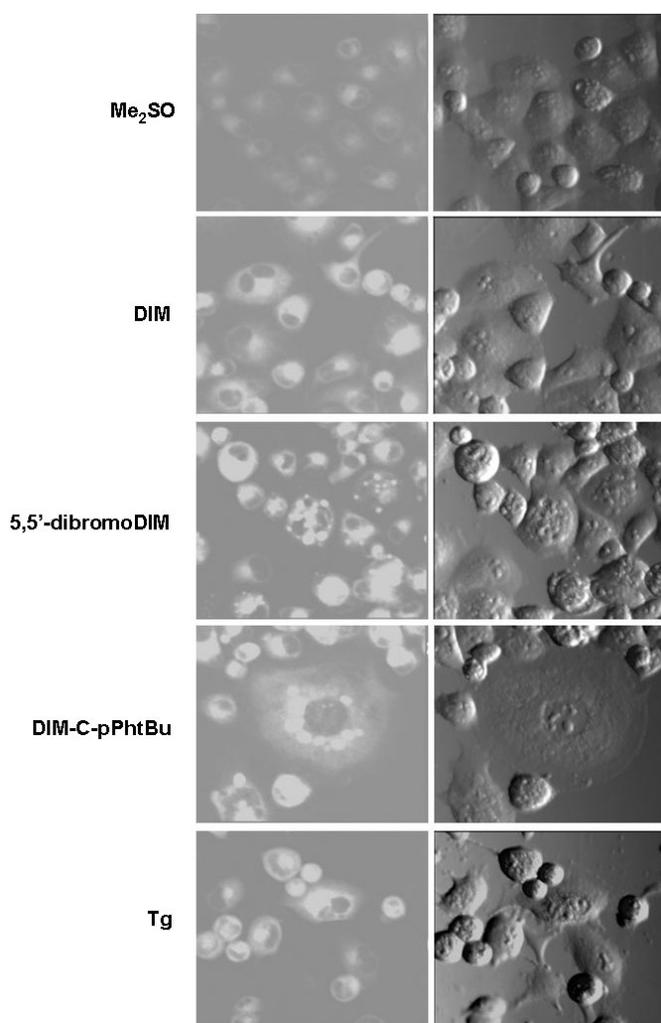


Fig. 2. Enhanced ER staining induced by DIM compounds and Tg. Panc-1 cells were treated with Me₂SO, 20 μM DIM, 10 μM 5,5'-dibromoDIM, 10 μM DIM-C-pPhtBu or 0.5 μM Tg for 18 h, and were then treated with ER Tracker Blue-White DPX for ER staining as described in Materials and methods.

Induction of GRP78 and CHOP by DIM Compounds

One of the hallmarks of the UPR involves cleavage of ATF6 and the subsequent induction of GRP78 and CHOP. Results of initial studies in Panc-28 cells showed that after treatment with Tg, DIM-C-pPhtBu or DIM for 18 h there was significant cleavage of p90ATF6 to give p50ATF6 (Fig. 4A), and 5,5'-dibromoDIM treatment also induced cleavage of ATF6 (data not shown). Western blot analysis of whole cell lysates from Panc-1 and Panc-28 cells treated with Tg, Tm, DIM, 5,5'-dibromoDIM or DIM-C-pPhtBu for 18 h showed that GRP78 and CHOP protein levels were induced by these compounds (Fig. 4B and C). Quantification of GRP78 protein levels from three separate determinations shows that significant induction was observed for the five compounds in both cell lines. The results in Figure 4D and E show that the DIM compounds also activated transcription in Panc-1 cells transfected with pGRP78 and pCHOP which contain ER stress-responsive promoter inserts from the human GRP78 and CHOP genes linked to firefly luciferase. Similar results were obtained after transfection of pGRP78 and pCHOP in Panc-28 cells, respectively (data not shown). The GRP78 and CHOP promoters contain two or more ER stress elements

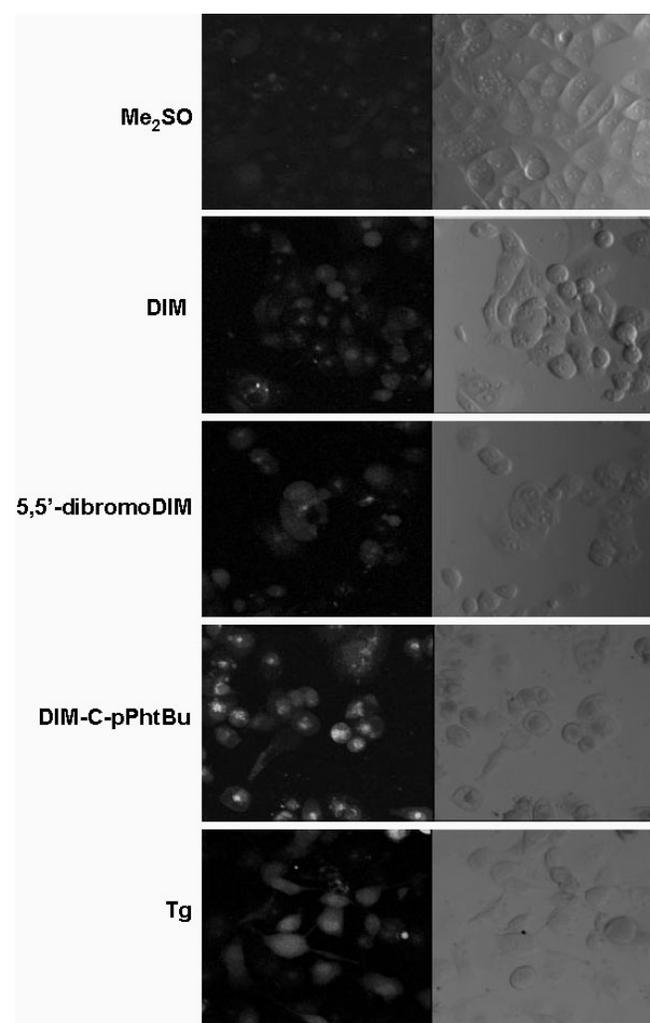


Fig. 3. ER calcium ion release. Panc-1 cells were treated with Me₂SO (solvent), 20 μM DIM, 10 μM 5,5'-dibromoDIM, 10 μM DIM-C-pPhtBu and 0.5 μM Tg for 18 h, and were treated with fluo-3 for Ca²⁺ staining as described in Materials and methods.

(ERSEs), and gel mobility shift assays were used to investigate increased binding of nuclear extracts from Panc-28 cells treated with Tg, DIM and DIM-C-pPhtBu to ³²P-radiolabeled ERSEs from the GRP78 (Fig. 5A) and CHOP (Fig. 5B) promoters. The results show that DIM, DIM-C-pPhtBu and Tg induce the ERSF retarded band complex compared with Me₂SO (lane 2) using the ³²P-labeled -94GRP78-ERSE and -103CHOP-ERSE (lanes 3–5) (45). Coincubation with excess unlabeled GRP78 or CHOP ERSEs decreased the ERSF retarded band as well as NFY-DNA and YY1-DNA complexes (lane 6). The increased intensity of the ERSF-ERSE complex using extracts from cells treated with DIM, Tg or DIM-pPhtBu (lanes 3–5) was due, in part, to cleavage and translocation of p50ATF6, which bind to this complex (45). These results, combined with the effects of the DIM compounds on Ca²⁺ release (Fig. 3) indicate that ER stress pathways are activated by the di- and triarylmethane compounds containing two 3'-indolyl substituents.

Induction of DR5 by Tg and DIM compounds

A recent report showed that Tg-induced ER stress in HCT-116 colon and other cancer cell lines was accompanied by

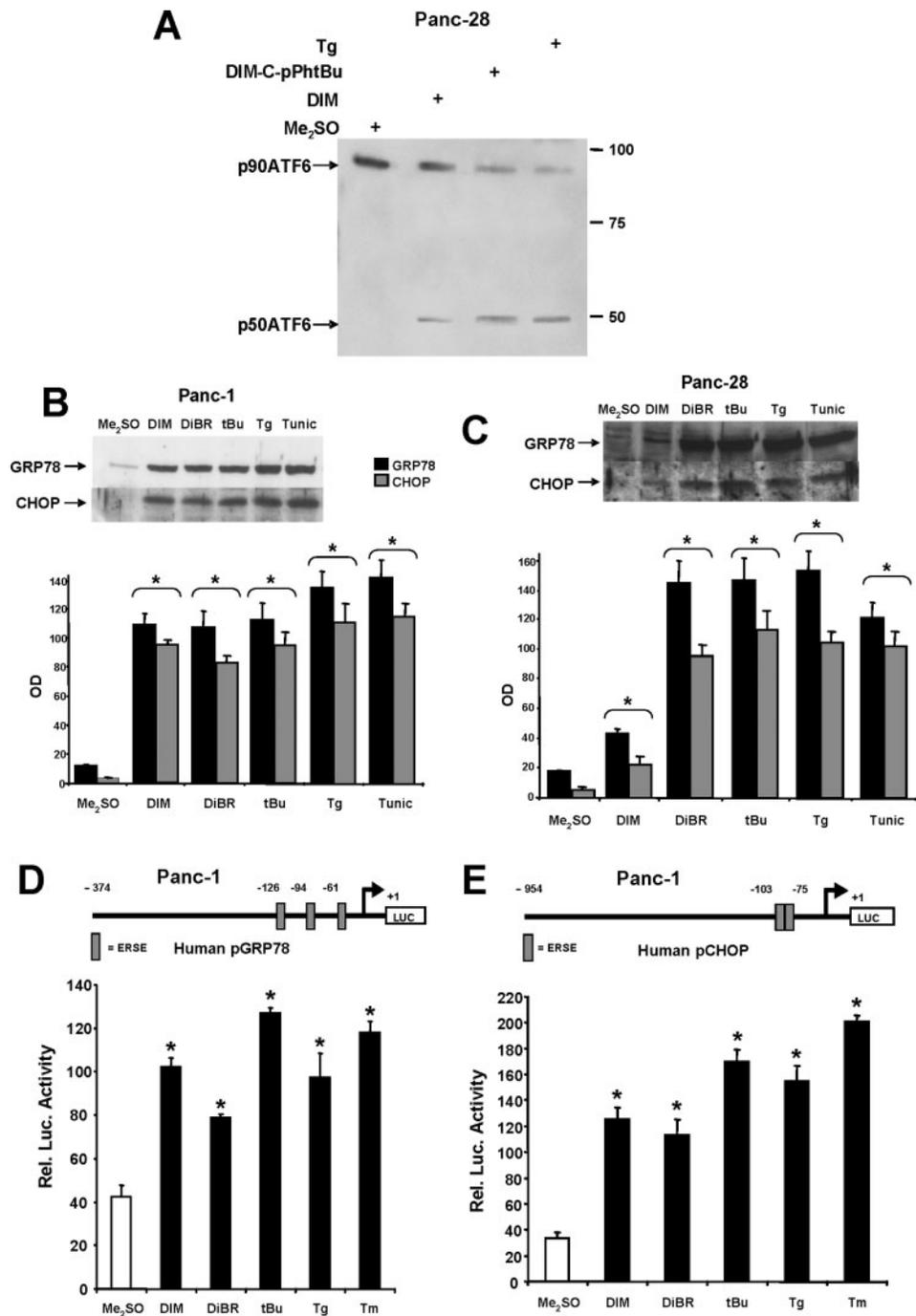


Fig. 4. Activation of markers of ER stress in pancreatic cancer cells by DIM compounds. (A) Cleavage of p90ATF6. Panc-28 cells were treated with Me₂SO, 10 μ M DIM-C-pPhtBu, 20 μ M DIM and 0.5 μ M Tg for 18 h, and whole cell lysates were analyzed for p90ATF6/p50ATF6 by western blot analysis as described in Materials and methods. Induction of CHOP and GRP78 in Panc-1 (B) and Panc-28 (C) cells. Cells were treated with Me₂SO, 10 μ M 5,5'-dibromoDIM, 10 μ M DIM, 10 μ M DIM-C-pPhtBu, 0.5 μ M Tg or 0.5 μ g/ml Tm for 18 h, and whole cell lysates were analyzed for GRP78 and CHOP proteins by western blot analysis as described in Materials and methods. The analysis was carried out three times for each treatment group, and levels of GRP78 protein were quantified and are presented as mean \pm SE in the bar graphs. Significant ($P < 0.05$) induction by the compounds compared with Me₂SO is indicated by an asterisk. GRP78 band intensities were quantified relative to a non-specific (NS) band for normalizing protein loading. Induction of transactivation in Panc-1 cells transfected with pGRP78 (D) and pCHOP (E) constructs, respectively. Cells were transfected with pGRP78 or pCHOP, treated with Me₂SO, 10 μ M 5,5'-dibromoDIM, 20 μ M DIM, 10 μ M DIM-C-pPhtBu, 0.5 μ M Tg and 0.5 μ g/ml Tm, and luciferase activity was determined as described in Materials and methods. Results are expressed as mean \pm SE for three separate determinations for each treatment group and significant ($P < 0.05$) induction is indicated by an asterisk.

increased transcription and translation of the death receptor DR5 and this was directly linked to the activation of CHOP, which is a critical *trans*-acting factor in the upregulation of DR5 (46). The results in Figure 6A illustrate the induction of DR5 protein by western blot analysis of whole cell

lysates from Panc-28 cells treated with DIM, Tg, Tm and DIM-C-pPhtBu for 18 h. All compounds significantly induced levels of the CHOP protein. The DR5 promoter contains a *cis*-acting CHOP-like binding sequence at -276 (GAGGATTGCGTTG) (46), and this sequence was used to

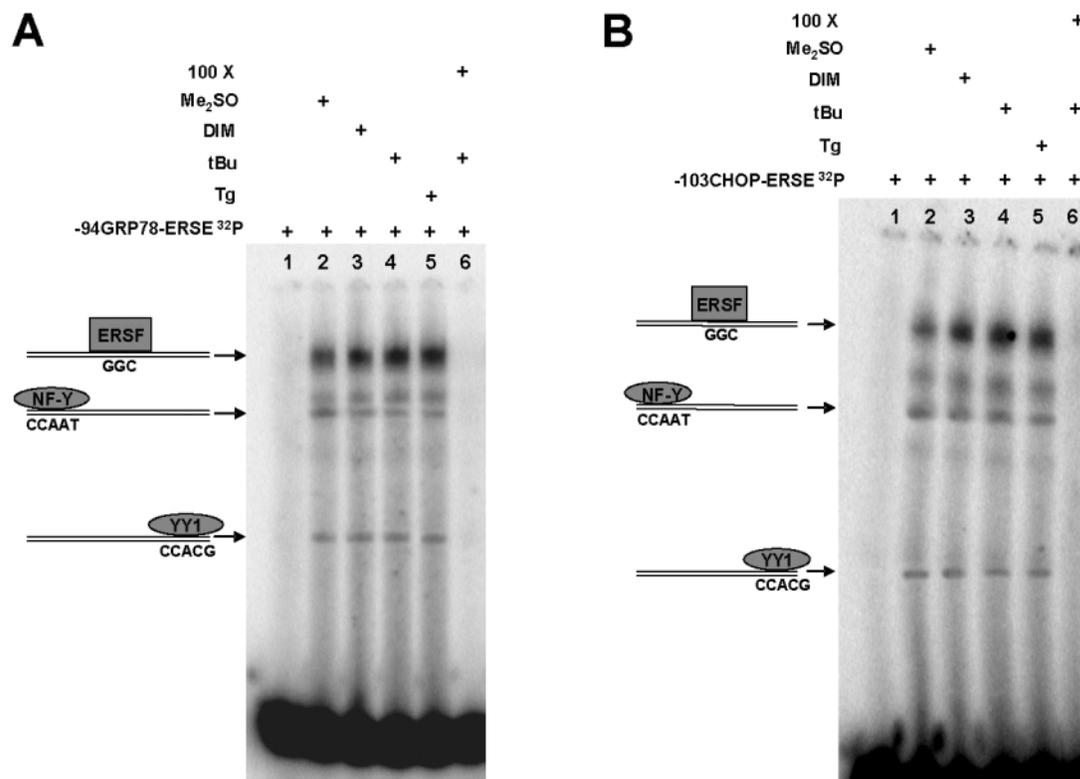


Fig. 5. Binding of nuclear extracts to ³²P-labeled -94GRP78/ERSE (A) and -103CHOP/ERSE (B). Panc-28 cells were treated with Me₂SO, 10 μM DIM-C-pPhtBu, 20 μM DIM and 0.5 μM Tg for 18 h, and nuclear extracts ± antibodies or unlabeled oligonucleotides were incubated with radiolabeled ERSEs and analyzed by gel mobility shift assays as described in Materials and methods.

determine chemical-induced DNA-CHOP interactions in a gel mobility shift assay (Fig. 6B). There was constitutive binding of nuclear extracts from solvent (Me₂SO)-treated Panc-28 cells to the CHOP element (lane 2); however, the identities of protein-DNA moieties in this complex have not been identified (46). Extracts from cells treated with DIM (lane 3) or DIM-C-pPhtBu (lane 4) gave an increased retarded band complex. Coincubation with CHOP antibody (lane 5), but not IgG (lane 6), decreased intensity of the least retarded portion (upper part) of the retarded band formed with extracts from DIM-C-pPhtBu-treated cells; however, a supershifted ternary complex was not detected. Nuclear extracts from cells treated with Tm and Tg also gave an enhanced retarded band (lanes 7 and 8), and coincubation of nuclear extracts from Panc-28-treated cells with 100-fold excess of the unlabeled -276DR5 eliminated the radiolabeled retarded band. Results in Figure 6C used increasing amounts of CHOP antibody to further demonstrate CHOP immunodepletion and decreased intensity of the CHOP-DNA retarded band. These results demonstrate that elevated ER stress in Panc-28 cells after treatment with DIM, DIM-C-pPhtBu, Tg or Tm induced CHOP protein (Fig. 6A) and enhanced binding to the CHOP element in the DR5 promoter (Fig. 6B and C). Previous reports on sodium butyrate and bile acid activation of DR5 suggested that upregulation of this receptor depended on enhanced Sp1-DNA binding linked to GC-rich sites in the DR5 promoter (46,47). Analyses of nuclear extracts from cells treated with Me₂SO, DIM, DIM-C-pPhtBu and Tg (lanes 2-5) (Fig. 6D), binding to the ³²P-labeled -198DR5-GC oligonucleotide (contains the proximal GC-rich motif in the DR5 promoter), showed that retarded band intensities were similar in all treatment groups.

Unlabeled oligonucleotide (lane 6) decreased and antibodies for Sp1 (lane 7) and Sp3 (lane 8) supershifted the retarded bands. Thus, induction of ER stress was not accompanied by altered Sp1-DNA binding. We also investigated the effects of Tg and DIM-C-pPhtBu on the induction of CHOP binding to the DR5 promoter (Fig. 7). As a positive control for this experiment, we showed that TFIIB binds the glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH) promoter but not exon 1 of the CNAP1 gene (Fig. 7A) (27,48). Both Tg and DIM-C-pPhtBu induce binding of CHOP to the DR5 promoter after 3 and 6 h, respectively (Fig. 7B), using primers that target the CHOP element in the DR5 promoter (Fig. 7C).

Results summarized in Figure 8 confirm transcriptional activation of DR5 in Panc-1 and Panc-28 cells transfected with pDR5a, pDR5b and pDR5c, which contain the -991 to -7, -552 to -7, and -216 to -7 DR5 promoter inserts, respectively (46). In Panc-1 cells transfected with pDR5a and pDR5b, DIM, DIM-C-pPhtBu and Tg significantly induced transactivation (Fig. 8A and B), whereas these same compounds did not induce transactivation in Panc-1 cells transfected with pDR5c, which does not contain a CHOP element but does contain the proximal GC-rich motif that binds the Sp1 protein (Fig. 6C). In a similar experiment, in Panc-28 cells transfected with pDR5b or pDR5c, induced luciferase activity by DIM, DIM-C-pPhtBu and Tg was only observed in cells transfected with pDR5b. These results confirm that chemical-induced ER stress in at least two pancreatic cancer cell lines is accompanied by the induction of DR5 which is also dependent on activation of CHOP but is independent of activation of the proximal GC-rich motif at -198.

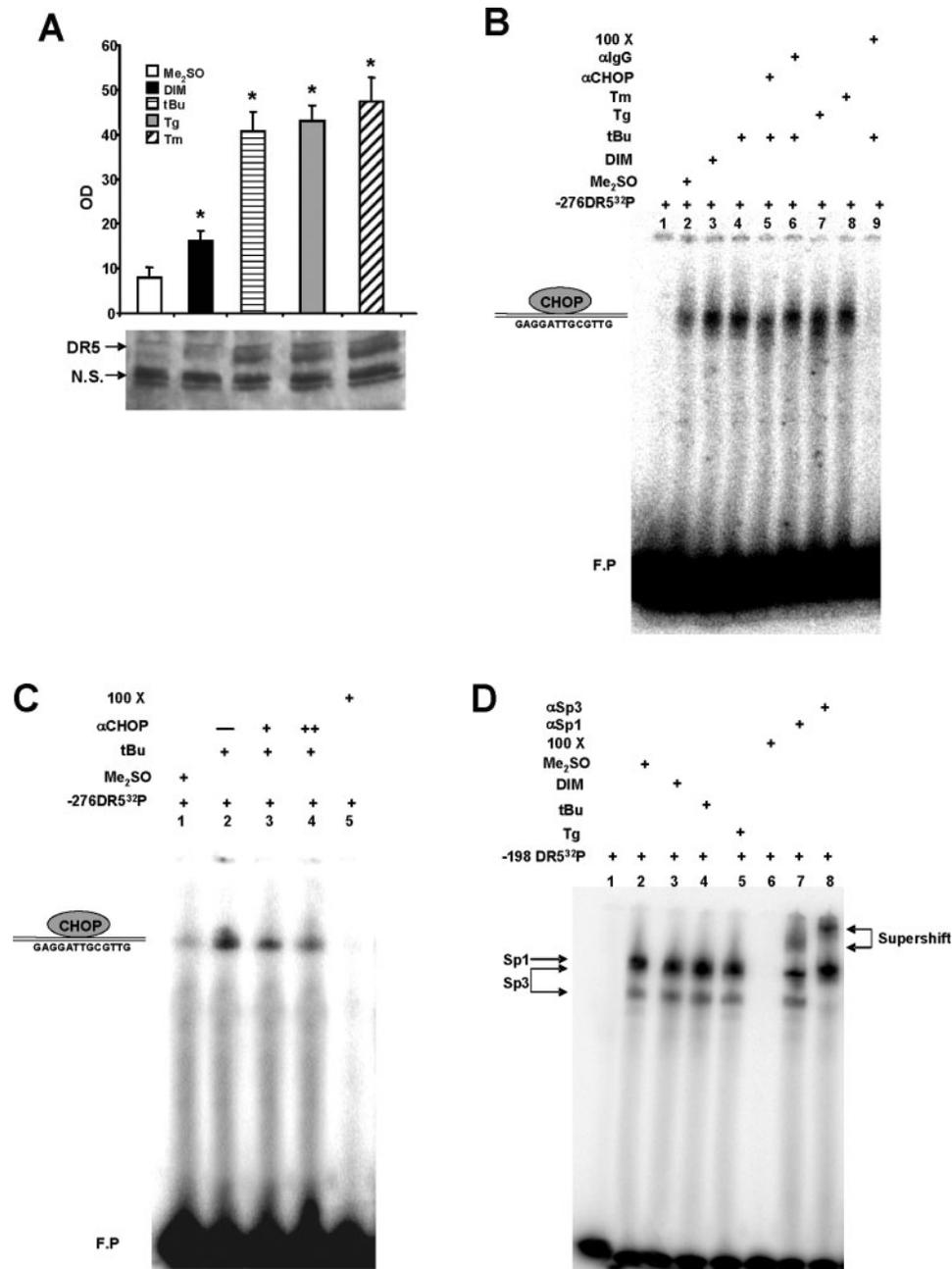


Fig. 6. Induction of DR5 protein and the analysis of binding to DR5 promoter sequences. (A) Induction of DR5 protein. Panc-28 cells were treated with Me₂SO, 20 μM DIM, 10 μM DIM-C-pPhtBu, 0.5 μM Tg and 0.5 μg/ml Tm, and whole cell lysates were analyzed by western blot analysis as described in Materials and methods. Results are presented as mean ± SE for three separate determinations for each treatment group, and significant ($P < 0.05$) induction (compared with Me₂SO) is indicated by an asterisk. DR5 band intensities were quantified relative to a non-specific (NS) loading control. Binding of nuclear extracts to ³²P-labeled -276DR5 (B) and -198DR5 (C and D). Nuclear extracts from Panc-28 cells treated with 20 μM DIM, 10 μM DIM-C-pPhtBu, 0.5 μM Tg or 0.5 μg/ml Tm were incubated with radiolabeled oligonucleotides, antibodies or unlabeled oligonucleotides, and were analyzed in gel-mobility shift assays. Specifically bound retarded bands and supershifted complexes are indicated by arrows.

Activation of the extrinsic apoptotic pathway by DIM compounds

Tg-induced CHOP and upregulation of DR5 activates the extrinsic apoptotic pathway in HCT116 cells (42), and we therefore investigated the comparative effects of DIM, DIM-C-pPhtBu, Tg and Tm on events downstream from DR5 in Panc-28 cells. Treatment of these cells with DIM, DIM-C-pPhtBu, Tg and Tm decreased procaspase 8 and increased caspase 8 protein levels (Fig. 9A). In parallel studies, the caspase 8-dependent substrate BiD was cleaved (Fig. 9B) and

procaspase 3 was also degraded (Fig. 9C). Activation of these pathways by Tg, DIM-C-pPhtBu and DIM was accompanied by induction of PARP cleavage (Fig. 9D), which was inhibited by the caspase 8 (Z-IETD-FMK) and pan-caspase (Z-VAD-FMK) inhibitors. In addition, these compounds also induced apoptosis as determined by increased Annexin V staining (Fig. 9E). These results are consistent with the DIM compound-dependent activation of ER stress pathways in pancreatic cancer cells, and this response induces apoptosis through upregulation of CHOP, which, in turn, activates DR5.

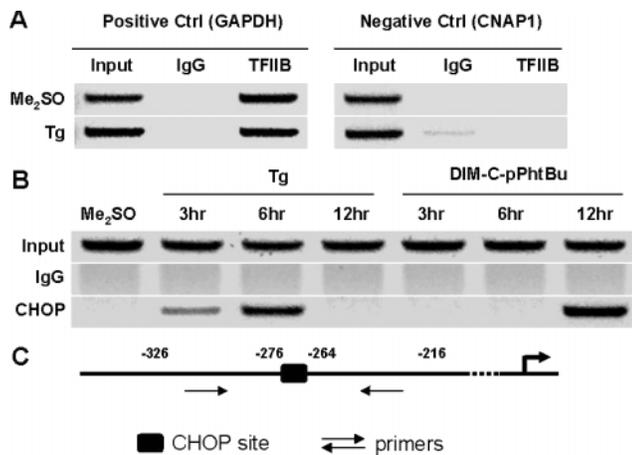


Fig. 7. CHOP interactions with the DR5 promoter-ChIP assay. (A) TFIIB binding to GAPDH. Cells were treated with Me₂SO or Tg, and interactions of TFIIB with the GAPDH promoter or CNAP1 exon (negative control) were determined in a ChIP assay as described in Materials and methods. Binding of CHOP (B) to the proximal region of the DR5 promoter (C). Panc-1 cells were treated with Me₂SO, 0.5 μM Tg or 10 μM DIM-C-pPhtBu for 3, 6 or 12 h, and interactions of CHOP with the DR5 promoter were determined in a ChIP assay as described in Materials and methods. IgG served as a non-specific control for the immunoprecipitation experiments, and primers designed for determining ChIP-DR5 promoter interactions are summarized in Materials and methods.

Discussion

DIM, ring-substituted DIMs and C-DIMs inhibit growth of carcinogen-induced mammary tumors at doses of 1–5 mg/kg/48 h (22–25). DIM and ring-substituted DIMs bind the AhR (22–24) and selected C-DIMs activate PPARγ (25), and their inhibition of mammary tumor growth may be related, in part, to receptor-mediated responses (26–39). Pancreatic cancer cells express the AhR and PPARγ, and previous studies indicate that DIM and other AhR agonists and PPARγ-active C-DIMs inhibit growth of pancreatic cancer cells (27,49). However, it is apparent from *in vitro* studies that many of the anticarcinogenic activities of DIM compounds are receptor-independent. For example, DIM inhibits growth of both Ah-responsive and Ah-non-responsive breast cancer cells, and growth inhibitory responses of PPARγ-active C-DIMs in MCF-7 cells were also PPARγ-independent (31). The growth inhibitory and apoptotic responses observed in cancer cells treated with DIM have been linked to the modulation of a number of genes/proteins. One study reported that DIM decreased bcl-2/bax ratios in MCF-7 cells (36), whereas another report indicated that DIM activated ER stress-dependent GRP78/CHOP genes/proteins in the same cell line. Rahman and Sarkar (35) recently reported that DIM induced apoptosis in an MCF-7 derived tumorigenic cell line by

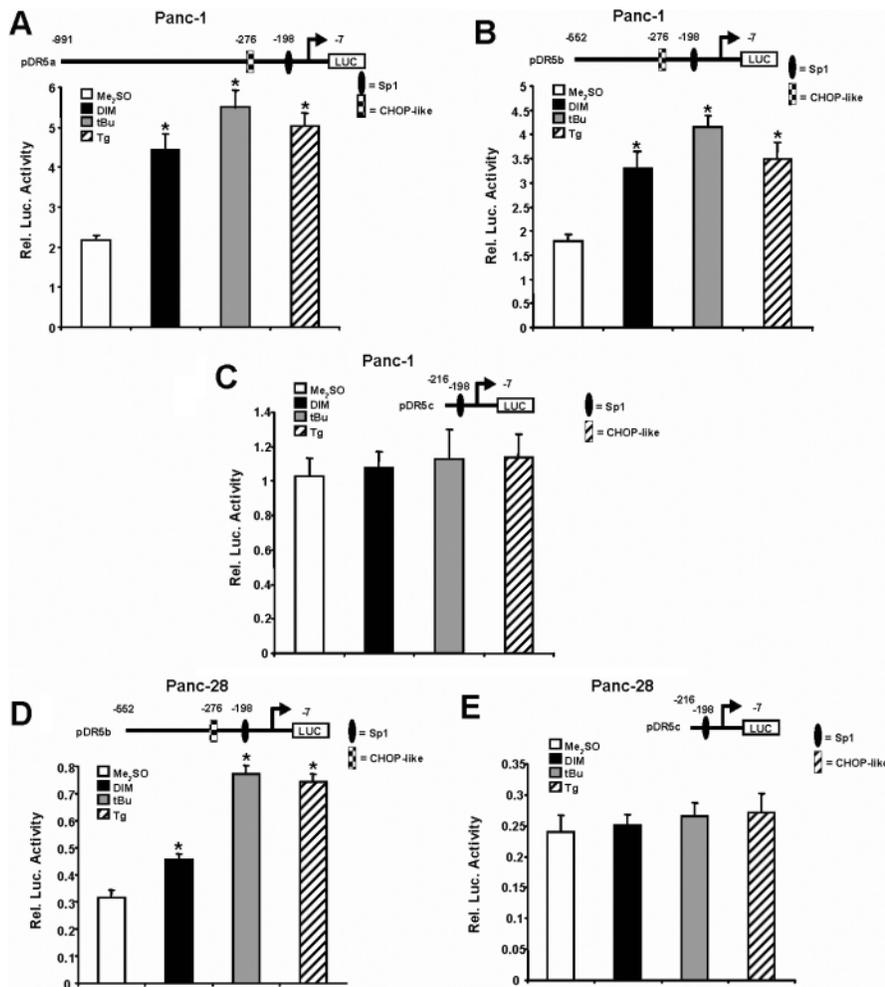


Fig. 8. Activation of DR5 promoter constructs. Panc-1 (A–C) and Panc-28 cells (D and E) were transfected with pDR5a, pDR5b or pDR5c constructs, treated with Me₂SO, 20 μM DIM, 10 μM DIM-C-pPhtBu or 0.5 μM Tg, and luciferase activity determined as describe in Materials and methods. Results are expressed as mean ± SE for three separate determinations for each treatment group, and significant (*P* < 0.05) induction is indicated by an asterisk.

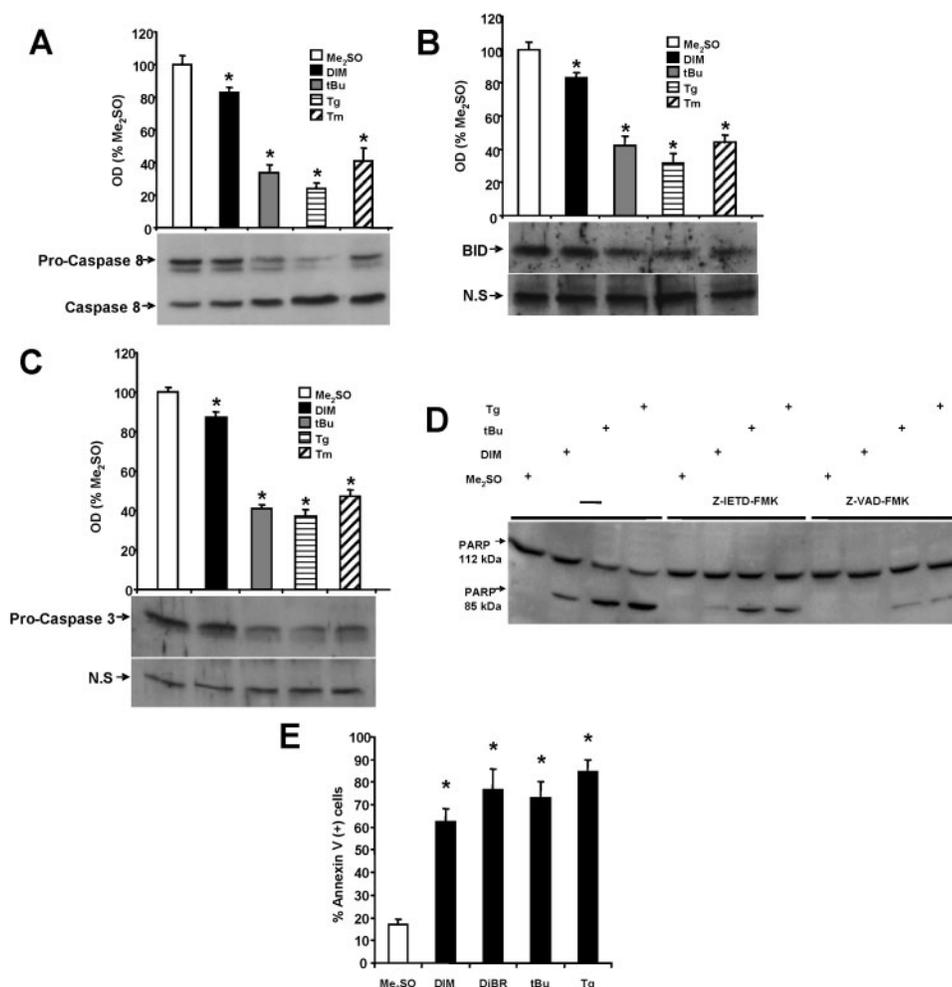


Fig. 9. Activation of apoptosis by DIM compounds. Caspase 8 and procaspase 8 (A), Bid (B) and procaspase 3 (C) cleavage proteins were determined in Panc-28 cells treated with Me₂SO, 20 μ M DIM, 10 μ M DIM-C-pPhtBu, 0.5 μ M Tg or 0.5 μ g/ml Tm for 18 h. Whole cells lysates from three separate determination processes for each treatment group were analyzed by western blot analysis as described in Materials and methods, and significant ($P < 0.05$) induction is indicated by an asterisk. Protein band intensities in the treated versus the Me₂SO control were measured, and results are presented as mean \pm SE. Protein loading in each treatment group was standardized using a non-specific (NS) loading control band. (D) Induction of PARP cleavage. Panc-1 cells were treated as described above or preincubated for 1 h with 20 μ M Z-IETD-FMK or 20 μ M Z-VAD-FMK, and whole cell lysates were analyzed by western blot analysis as described in Materials and methods. (E) Induction of Annexin V staining. Cells were treated with 20 μ M DIM, 10 μ M 5,5'-dibromoDIM, 10 μ M DIM-C-pPhtBu and 0.5 μ M Tg for 24 h, and Annexin V staining was determined as described in Materials and methods. Significant ($P < 0.05$) apoptosis is indicated by an asterisk and results are expressed as mean \pm SE for three replicate determinations for each treatment group.

inactivating NF κ B activity through inhibition of p65 nuclear translocation.

In this study, we have hypothesized that receptor-independent growth inhibition/apoptosis induced by DIMs and C-DIMs may be due to the activation of common pathways in pancreatic cancer cells. A recent report showed that the PPAR γ -active C-DIMs induced p21 and growth inhibition in Panc-28 cancer cells (27); however, PPAR γ antagonists such as GW9662 only partially reversed the growth inhibitory responses induced by PPAR γ -active C-DIMs in Panc-28 cells and had no effect in Panc-1 cells treated with the same compounds (data not shown). We, therefore, used Panc-1 and Panc-28 cells as models for investigating the effects of DIM, 5,5'-dibromoDIM and DIM-C-pPhtBu on growth/apoptosis. These compounds decreased Panc-1 and Panc-28 cell proliferation (Fig. 1) and this was accompanied by increased staining of the ER (Fig. 2) and ER calcium release (Fig. 3), suggesting that the DIM compounds induce ER stress in Panc-1 cells. This was confirmed by western blot analysis of whole cell lysates from Panc-1 and Panc-28 cells treated with

Tg and DIMs, showing induction of ER stress-dependent GRP78 and CHOP proteins, cleavage of p90ATF6 and transactivation in cells transfected with pCHOP/pGRP78 constructs (Fig. 4). DIM and DIM-C-pPhtBu and Tg also induced the intensity of the ERSF retarded band in gel-mobility shift assays using ERSEs from the GRP78 and CHOP gene promoters (Fig. 5), confirming that the DIM compounds induced at least two major pathways associated with ER stress, namely the release of ER calcium stores (Fig. 3) and the induction of GRP78 and CHOP. The latter responses are comparable to those previously observed in breast, prostate and cervical cancer cells treated with DIM (37).

Several studies report that death receptor DR5 is induced by diverse chemicals, such as sodium butyrate, Tg, the synthetic triterpenoid methyl 2-cyano-3,12-dioxooleana-1,9-dien-28-oate, bile acids, histone-deacetylase inhibitors and indole-3-carbinol (46,47,50–53). Relatively high concentrations (90 μ M) of indole-3-carbinol were required to induce DR5 in LNCaP prostate cancer cells. However, this was not accompanied by enhanced PARP cleavage or activation of caspase 3

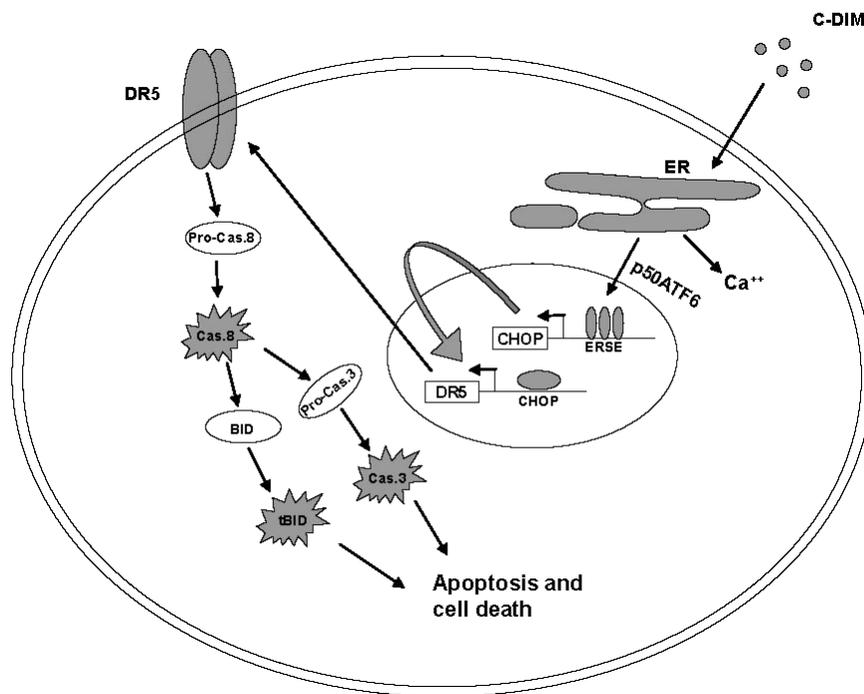


Fig. 10. Proposed model for ER-stress-induced apoptosis activated by DIM or DIM-C-pPhtBu in pancreatic cancer cells.

(53), although other studies report that DIM induces apoptosis in prostate cancer cells (38,39). Upregulation of DR5 by both bile acids and sodium butyrate has been linked to a single proximal GC-rich site in the DR5 promoter at -195 (46,47), in which both compounds appear to enhance Sp1-DNA binding to this site, and sodium butyrate also induced apoptosis (34). In contrast, it was reported that CHOP is involved in ER stress-induced DR5 upregulation in HCT116 colon cancer cells by Tg, and this resulted in activation of the extrinsic apoptotic pathway (42). DIM, DIM-C-pPhtBu, Tg and Tm also induced DR5 in Panc-28 cells, and this was accompanied by increased binding of CHOP to a GAGGATTGCGTTG motif (Fig. 6) previously identified in the DR5 promoter (42), and CHOP interactions with the DR5 promoter were confirmed in a chromatin immunoprecipitation assay (Fig. 7). In contrast, there was no evidence for induced binding of Sp1 to the -195 GC-rich DR5 site (Fig. 6D). Moreover, transient transfection studies in Panc-1 and Panc-28 cells (Fig. 8) showed that the constructs containing the CHOP response element and not the -195 GC-rich motif are required for activation of DR5 promoter constructs. Activation of DR5 by DIM and DIM-C-pPhtBu also induced PARP cleavage, a hallmark of apoptosis, and this was accompanied by induction of Annexin V staining, caspase 8, caspase 3 and Bid cleavage (Fig. 9). These results, coupled with the inhibitory effects of the caspase 8 and pan-caspase inhibitors, are consistent with the schematic summary (Fig. 10), which represents the ER stress pathways induced by DIM compounds in Panc-1 and Panc-28 cells.

These results demonstrate that ER stress induced by DIM and DIM-C-pPhtBu is similar to that observed for Tg/Tm and leads to activation of the extrinsic pathway of apoptosis in pancreatic cancer cells. Induction of DR5 through activation of CHOP plays a major role in DIM-/DIM-C-pPhtBu-induced apoptosis and thereby represents an important receptor-independent pathway activated by these compounds

in pancreatic cancer cells and a potential mechanism for the anticarcinogenic activity of these compounds. Current studies are focused on the induction of ER stress pathways by DIMs/C-DIMs in other cancer cell lines and the identification of subcellular targets for these compounds (including the ER) that are required for these responses. The simultaneous activation of PPAR γ -dependent and PPAR γ -independent pathways by DIM-C-pPhtBu and related compounds in pancreatic and other cancer cell lines (25–28) adds to their potential efficacy for clinical applications in cancer chemotherapy.

Acknowledgements

This work was supported by the National Institutes of Health (CA108178 and ES09106), M.D. Anderson Cancer Center (P20-CA-10193) and the Texas Agricultural Experiment Station.

Conflict of Interest Statement: None declared.

References

- Kaufman,R.J. (1999) Stress signaling from the lumen of the endoplasmic reticulum: coordination of gene transcriptional and translational controls. *Genes Dev.*, **13**, 1211–1233.
- Kaufman,R.J. (2002) Orchestrating the unfolded protein response in health and disease. *J. Clin. Invest.*, **110**, 1389–1398.
- Foti,D.M., Welihinda,A., Kaufman,R.J. and Lee,A.S. (1999) Conservation and divergence of the yeast and mammalian unfolded protein response. Activation of specific mammalian endoplasmic reticulum stress element of the grp78/BiP promoter by yeast Hac1. *J. Biol. Chem.*, **274**, 30402–30409.
- Ron,D. (2002) Translational control in the endoplasmic reticulum stress response. *J. Clin. Invest.*, **110**, 1383–1388.
- Ma,Y. and Hendershot,L.M. (2001) The unfolding tale of the unfolded protein response. *Cell*, **107**, 827–830.
- Hampton,R.Y. (2000) Endoplasmic reticulum stress response: getting the UPR hand on misfolded proteins. *Curr. Biol.*, **10**, R518–R521.
- Paschen,W. and Frandsen,A. (2001) Endoplasmic reticulum dysfunction—a common denominator for cell injury in acute and degenerative diseases of the brain? *J. Neurochem.*, **79**, 719–725.

8. Merad-Boudia, M., Nicole, A., Santiard-Baron, D., Saille, C. and Ceballos-Picot, I. (1998) Mitochondrial impairment as an early event in the process of apoptosis induced by glutathione depletion in neuronal cells: relevance to Parkinson's disease. *Biochem. Pharmacol.*, **56**, 645–655.
9. Oyadomari, S., Koizumi, A., Takeda, K., Gotoh, T., Akira, S., Araki, E. and Mori, M. (2002) Targeted disruption of the Chop gene delays endoplasmic reticulum stress-mediated diabetes. *J. Clin. Invest.*, **109**, 525–532.
10. Ito, M., Jameson, J.L. and Ito, M. (1997) Molecular basis of autosomal dominant neurohypophyseal diabetes insipidus. Cellular toxicity caused by the accumulation of mutant vasopressin precursors within the endoplasmic reticulum. *J. Clin. Invest.*, **99**, 1897–1905.
11. Ozcan, U., Cao, Q., Yilmaz, E., Lee, A.H., Iwakoshi, N.N., Ozdelen, E., Tuncman, G., Gorgun, C., Glimcher, L.H. and Hotamisligil, G.S. (2004) Endoplasmic reticulum stress links obesity, insulin action, and type 2 diabetes. *Science*, **306**, 457–461.
12. Paschen, W. and Doutheil, J. (1999) Disturbances of the functioning of endoplasmic reticulum: a key mechanism underlying neuronal cell injury? *J. Cereb. Blood Flow Metab.*, **19**, 1–18.
13. Kumar, R., Azam, S., Sullivan, J.M. et al. (2001) Brain ischemia and reperfusion activates the eukaryotic initiation factor 2 α kinase, PERK. *J. Neurochem.*, **77**, 1418–1421.
14. Feng, B., Yao, P.M., Li, Y. et al. (2003) The endoplasmic reticulum is the site of cholesterol-induced cytotoxicity in macrophages. *Nat. Cell Biol.*, **5**, 781–792.
15. Jordan, R., Wang, L., Graczyk, T.M., Block, T.M. and Romano, P.R. (2002) Replication of a cytopathic strain of bovine viral diarrhoea virus activates PERK and induces endoplasmic reticulum stress-mediated apoptosis of MDBK cells. *J. Virol.*, **76**, 9588–9599.
16. Su, H.L., Liao, C.L. and Lin, Y.L. (2002) Japanese encephalitis virus infection initiates endoplasmic reticulum stress and an unfolded protein response. *J. Virol.*, **76**, 4162–4171.
17. Oyadomari, S., Araki, E. and Mori, M. (2002) Endoplasmic reticulum stress-mediated apoptosis in pancreatic β -cells. *Apoptosis*, **7**, 335–345.
18. Breckenridge, D.G., Germain, M., Mathai, J.P., Nguyen, M. and Shore, G.C. (2003) Regulation of apoptosis by endoplasmic reticulum pathways. *Oncogene*, **22**, 8608–8618.
19. Mandic, A., Hansson, J., Linder, S. and Shoshan, M.C. (2003) Cisplatin induces endoplasmic reticulum stress and nucleus-independent apoptotic signaling. *J. Biol. Chem.*, **278**, 9100–9106.
20. Tsutsumi, S., Gotoh, T., Tomisato, W., Mima, S., Hoshino, T., Hwang, H.J., Takenaka, H., Tsuchiya, T., Mori, M. and Mizushima, T. (2004) Endoplasmic reticulum stress response is involved in nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drug-induced apoptosis. *Cell Death Differ.*, **11**, 1009–1016.
21. Hagg, M., Berndtsson, M., Mandic, A., Zhou, R., Shoshan, M.C. and Linder, S. (2004) Induction of endoplasmic reticulum stress by ellipticine plant alkaloids. *Mol. Cancer Therap.*, **3**, 489–497.
22. Chen, I., McDougal, A., Wang, F. and Safe, S. (1998) Aryl hydrocarbon receptor-mediated antiestrogenic and antitumorigenic activity of diindolylmethane. *Carcinogenesis*, **19**, 1631–1639.
23. McDougal, A., Sethi-Gupta, M., Ramamoorthy, K., Sun, G. and Safe, S. (2000) Inhibition of carcinogen-induced rat mammary tumor growth and other estrogen-dependent responses by symmetrical dihalo-substituted analogs of diindolylmethane. *Cancer Lett.*, **151**, 169–179.
24. McDougal, A., Gupta, M.S., Morrow, D., Ramamoorthy, K., Lee, Y.-E. and Safe, S. (2001) Methyl-substituted diindolylmethanes as inhibitors of estrogen-induced growth of T47D cells and mammary tumors in rats. *Breast Cancer Res. Treat.*, **66**, 147–157.
25. Qin, C., Morrow, D., Stewart, J., Spencer, K., Porter, W., Smith, R., III, Phillips, T., Abdelrahim, M., Samudio, I. and Safe, S. (2004) A new class of peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor γ (PPAR γ) agonists that inhibit growth of breast cancer cells: 1,1-bis(3'-indolyl)-1-(p-substituted-phenyl)methanes. *Mol. Cancer Therap.*, **3**, 247–259.
26. Chintharlapalli, S., Smith, R., III, Samudio, I., Zhang, W., and Safe, S. (2004) 1,1-Bis(3'-indolyl)-1-(p-substituted-phenyl)methanes induce peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor γ -mediated growth inhibition, transactivation and differentiation markers in colon cancer cells. *Cancer Res.*, **64**, 5994–6001.
27. Hong, J., Samudio, I., Liu, S., Abdelrahim, M. and Safe, S. (2004) Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor γ -dependent activation of p21 in Panc-28 pancreatic cancer cells involves Sp1 and Sp4 proteins. *Endocrinology*, **145**, 5774–5785.
28. Contractor, R., Samudio, I., Estrov, Z., Harris, D., McCubrey, J.A., Safe, S., Andreeff, M. and Konopleva, M. (2005) A novel ring-substituted diindolylmethane 1,1-bis[3'-(5-methoxyindolyl)]-1-(p-t-butylphenyl)-methane inhibits ERK activation and induces apoptosis in acute myeloid leukemia. *Cancer Res.*, **65**, 2890–2898.
29. Cover, C.M., Hsieh, S.J., Tran, S.H., Hallden, G., Kim, G.S., Bjeldanes, L.F. and Firestone, G.L. (1998) Indole-3-carbinol inhibits the expression of cyclin-dependent kinase-6 and induces a G1 cell cycle arrest of human breast cancer cells independent of estrogen receptor signaling. *J. Biol. Chem.*, **273**, 3838–3847.
30. Chinni, S.R., Li, Y., Upadhyay, S., Koppolu, P.K. and Sarkar, F.H. (2001) Indole-3-carbinol (I3C) induced cell growth inhibition, G1 cell cycle arrest and apoptosis in prostate cancer cells. *Oncogene*, **20**, 2927–2936.
31. Hong, C., Kim, H.A., Firestone, G.L. and Bjeldanes, L.F. (2002) 3,3'-Diindolylmethane (DIM) induces a G1 cell cycle arrest in human breast cancer cells that is accompanied by Sp1-mediated activation of p21(WAF1/CIP1) expression. *Carcinogenesis*, **23**, 1297–1305.
32. Firestone, G.L. and Bjeldanes, L.F. (2003) Indole-3-carbinol and 3,3'-diindolylmethane antiproliferative signaling pathways control cell-cycle gene transcription in human breast cancer cells by regulating promoter-Sp1 transcription factor interactions. *J. Nutr.*, **133**, 2448S–2455S.
33. Rahman, K.M., Aranha, O. and Sarkar, F.H. (2003) Indole-3-carbinol (I3C) induces apoptosis in tumorigenic but not in nontumorigenic breast epithelial cells. *Nutr. Cancer*, **45**, 101–112.
34. Rahman, K.M., Aranha, O., Glazyrin, A., Chinni, S.R. and Sarkar, F.H. (2000) Translocation of Bax to mitochondria induces apoptotic cell death in indole-3-carbinol (I3C) treated breast cancer cells. *Oncogene*, **19**, 5764–5771.
35. Rahman, K.W. and Sarkar, F.H. (2005) Inhibition of nuclear translocation of nuclear factor- κ B contributes to 3,3'-diindolylmethane-induced apoptosis in breast cancer cells. *Cancer Res.*, **65**, 364–371.
36. Hong, C., Firestone, G.L. and Bjeldanes, L.F. (2002) Bcl-2 family-mediated apoptotic effects of 3,3'-diindolylmethane (DIM) in human breast cancer cells. *Biochem. Pharmacol.*, **63**, 1085–1097.
37. Sun, S., Han, J., Ralph, W.M., Jr, Chandrasekaran, A., Liu, K., Auborn, K.J. and Carter, T.H. (2004) Endoplasmic reticulum stress as a correlate of cytotoxicity in human tumor cells exposed to diindolylmethane *in vitro*. *Cell Stress Chaperones*, **9**, 76–87.
38. Nachshon-Kedmi, M., Yannai, S. and Fares, F.A. (2004) Induction of apoptosis in human prostate cancer cell line, PC3, by 3,3'-diindolylmethane through the mitochondrial pathway. *Br. J. Cancer*, **91**, 1358–1363.
39. Nachshon-Kedmi, M., Yannai, S., Haj, A. and Fares, F.A. (2003) Indole-3-carbinol and 3,3'-diindolylmethane induce apoptosis in human prostate cancer cells. *Food Chem. Toxicol.*, **41**, 745–752.
40. Song, M.S., Park, Y.K., Lee, J.H. and Park, K. (2001) Induction of glucose-regulated protein 78 by chronic hypoxia in human gastric tumor cells through a protein kinase C-epsilon/ERK/AP-1 signaling cascade. *Cancer Res.*, **61**, 8322–8330.
41. Bruhat, A., Jousse, C., Carraro, V., Reimold, A.M., Ferrara, M. and Fafournoux, P. (2000) Amino acids control mammalian gene transcription: activating transcription factor 2 is essential for the amino acid responsiveness of the CHOP promoter. *Mol. Cell. Biol.*, **20**, 7192–7204.
42. Yamaguchi, H. and Wang, H.G. (2004) CHOP is involved in endoplasmic reticulum stress-induced apoptosis by enhancing DR5 expression in human carcinoma cells. *J. Biol. Chem.*, **279**, 45495–45502.
43. Stoner, M., Wormke, M., Saville, B., Samudio, I., Qin, C., Abdelrahim, M. and Safe, S. (2004) Estrogen regulation of vascular endothelial growth factor gene expression in ZR-75 breast cancer cells through interaction of estrogen receptor α and Sp proteins. *Oncogene*, **23**, 1052–1063.
44. Abdelrahim, M., Smith, R., III, Burghardt, R. and Safe, S. (2004) Role of Sp proteins in regulation of vascular endothelial growth factor expression and proliferation of pancreatic cancer cells. *Cancer Res.*, **64**, 6740–6749.
45. Parker, R., Phan, T., Baumeister, P., Roy, B., Cheriya, V., Roy, A.L. and Lee, A.S. (2001) Identification of TFII-I as the endoplasmic reticulum stress response element binding factor ERSF: its autoregulation by stress and interaction with ATF6. *Mol. Cell. Biol.*, **21**, 3220–3233.
46. Kim, Y.H., Park, J.W., Lee, J.Y. and Kwon, T.K. (2004) Sodium butyrate sensitizes TRAIL-mediated apoptosis by induction of transcription from the DR5 gene promoter through Sp1 sites in colon cancer cells. *Carcinogenesis*, **25**, 1813–1820.
47. Higuchi, H., Grambihler, A., Canbay, A., Bronk, S.F. and Gores, G.J. (2004) Bile acids up-regulate death receptor 5/TRAIL-receptor 2 expression via a c-Jun N-terminal kinase-dependent pathway involving Sp1. *J. Biol. Chem.*, **279**, 51–60.
48. Abdelrahim, M., Liu, S. and Safe, S. (2005) Induction of endoplasmic reticulum-induced stress genes in Panc-1 pancreatic cancer cells is dependent on Sp proteins. *J. Biol. Chem.*, **280**, 16508–16513.
49. Koliopanos, A., Kleeff, J., Xiao, Y., Safe, S., Zimmerman, A., Buchler, M.W. and Friess, H. (2002) Increased aryl hydrocarbon receptor expression offers

- a potential therapeutic target in pancreatic cancer. *Oncogene*, **21**, 6059–6070.
50. He, Q., Lee, D.I., Rong, R., Yu, M., Luo, X., Klein, M., El-Deiry, W.S., Huang, Y., Hussain, A. and Sheikh, M.S. (2002) Endoplasmic reticulum calcium pool depletion-induced apoptosis is coupled with activation of the death receptor 5 pathway. *Oncogene*, **21**, 2623–2633.
51. Zou, W., Liu, X., Yue, P., Zhou, Z., Sporn, M.B., Lotan, R., Khuri, F.R. and Sun, S.Y. (2004) c-Jun NH₂-terminal kinase-mediated up-regulation of death receptor 5 contributes to induction of apoptosis by the novel synthetic triterpenoid methyl-2-cyano-3,12-dioxooleana-1,9-dien-28-oate in human lung cancer cells. *Cancer Res.*, **64**, 7570–7578.
52. Nakata, S., Yoshida, T., Horinaka, M., Shiraishi, T., Wakada, M. and Sakai, T. (2004) Histone deacetylase inhibitors upregulate death receptor 5/TRAIL-R2 and sensitize apoptosis induced by TRAIL/APO2-L in human malignant tumor cells. *Oncogene*, **23**, 6261–6271.
53. Jeon, K.I., Rih, J.K., Kim, H.J., Lee, Y.J., Cho, C.H., Goldberg, I.D., Rosen, E.M. and Bae, I. (2003) Pretreatment of indole-3-carbinol augments TRAIL-induced apoptosis in a prostate cancer cell line, LNCaP. *FEBS Lett.*, **544**, 246–251.

*Received July 18, 2005; revised October 6, 2005;
accepted November 9, 2005*