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ABSTRACT

Glioblastoma multiforme is one of the deadliest human cancers and is characterized by a high degree of microglia 25 and macrophage infiltration. The role of these glioma infiltrating macrophages (GIMs) in disease progression has 26 been the subject of recent investigation. While initially thought to reflect an immune response to the tumor, the 27 balance of evidence clearly suggests GIMs can have potent tumor-tropic functions and assist in glioma cell 28 growth and infiltration into normal brain. In this review, we focus on the evidence for GIMs aiding mediating 29 glioblastoma motility and invasion. We survey the literature for molecular pathways that are involved in paracrine interaction between glioma cells and GIMs and assess which of these might serve as attractive targets for 31 therapeutic intervention. 32

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61 1. Introduction

62 1.1. Glioblastoma and GIMs

Malignant gliomas are the most common type of brain cancer and 63 arise from glial cells within the central nervous system (CNS). Gliomas 64 that are classified as according to histopathological criteria defined by 65 66 the World Health Organization (WHO) as grade III and grade IV (also re-67 ferred to as Glioblastoma multiforme (GBM) (Buckner et al., 2007; Wen 68 and Kesari, 2008; Gladson et al., 2010) are the most aggressive and are characterized by uncontrolled proliferation, areas of necrosis and diffuse 69 infiltration. GBM is one of the deadliest human cancers with a median 70 survival rate of 12 months even with an aggressive treatment consisting 7172 of irradiation and chemotherapy (Buckner et al., 2007; Furnari et al., 2007). As therapies for other neoplastic malignancies have made sub-73 74 stantial advances over the past several decades, GBM remains essentially untreatable. GBM and high grade astrocytomas are so difficult to treat 75 76 mainly due to their ability to efficiently infiltrate adjacent healthy brain. As a result of such highly invasive activity, these tumors are unable to be 77 fully resected during surgery. Therefore investigation of the mechanism 78 of glioblastoma cell invasion has received a great deal of interest (Giese 79 80 et al., 2003; Nakada et al., 2007; Teodorczyk and Martin-Villalba, 2010; 81 Gritsenko et al., 2012; Kwiatkowska and Symons, 2013).

Glioblastoma tumors are heavily infiltrated by cells of myeloid ori-82 gin, mainly microglia and macrophages. These glioma-infiltrating mye-83 loid cells are collectively referred to here as "GIMs". GIMs can comprise 84 up to 30% of the total tumor mass (Watters et al., 2005). There are recent 85 86 reviews addressing the role of GIMs in glioma biology (Badie and Schartner, 2001; Watters et al., 2005; Ghosh and Chaudhuri, 2010; 87 Alves et al., 2011; Charles et al., 2012; Li and Graeber, 2012). GIMs 88 89 have been implicated in playing several roles in GBM progression in-90 cluding proliferation, survival, motility and immunosuppression. The 91 origin of these GIMs seems to be from both resident brain macrophages (microglia) and newly recruited monocyte-derived macrophages from 9293 the circulation. The studies which have attempted to distinguish between the two have shown that microglia (as defined by lower CD45 94 95 staining) are initially the predominant myeloid cell type to associate 96 with the tumor. However over the course of disease peripheral macrophages are recruited to the tumor in greater numbers (Gabrusiewicz 97 et al., 2011; Tran Thang et al., 2011). Adoptive transfer experiments 98 where donor bone marrow stem cells expressing GFP were transplanted 99 100 into irradiated recipient animals that were orthotopically injected with a syngeneic murine glioblastoma cell line GL261 that recapitulates most 101 of the features of human glioblastoma disease progression (Miller/ 03 103 Zagzag 2004). This study showed that after three weeks, the vast majority of Iba1 (a marker that specifically labels microglia and macrophages) 104 105positive cells at the tumor expressed GFP (Villeneuve et al., 2005). Microglia are the main immune cells of the CNS and are derived from 106 myeloid precursors which migrate into the brain during early embryon-107 ic development (Ginhoux et al., 2011; Prinz and Mildner, 2011). Thus 108 far, there is only limited evidence suggesting a differential role for 109 110 tumor associated macrophages versus microglia (Jacobs et al., 2012a). 111 One study demonstrated that propentofylline (PPF), an atypical methylxanthine with glial modulating and anti-inflammatory properties, selec-112tively interferes with microglial function without affecting macrophages 113(Jacobs et al., 2012a,b). Using PPF, the authors reported that microglia 114 115specifically perform a function that is not compensated by tumor associated macrophages that is critical in establishing a microenvironment 116 conducive to glioma growth. 117

Macrophages (and presumably microglia) can adopt one of several phenotypes depending on cues from the microenvironment (Martinez et al., 2008; Auffray et al., 2009; Varol et al., 2009; Arima et al., 2010; Biswas and Mantovani, 2010; Yona and Jung, 2010; Biswas et al., 2012; Mantovani et al., 2013). Activated macrophages broadly fall in two categories: so-called "M1" for classically activated, pro-inflammatory and competent antigen presenters versus "M2" for alternatively activated, tumor promoting, and immunosuppressive. This classification scheme 125 however is an oversimplification as there are other types of alternatively 126 activated macrophages described (Mantovani et al., 2009). Tumor asso- 127 ciated macrophages typically are shifted toward the M2 side of the spec- 128 trum (Sica et al., 2008; Mantovani et al., 2009; Pollard, 2009). A variety of 129 factors secreted by glioma cells have been shown to mediate GIM recruit- 130 ment and/or conditioning including growth factors, chemokines, cyto- 131 kines and matrix proteins (Leung et al., 1997; Badie et al., 1999; Hao 132 et al., 2002; Kielian et al., 2002; Kerber et al., 2008; Okada et al., 2009; 133 Held-Feindt et al., 2010; Gabrusiewicz et al., 2011; Yeh et al., 2011; 134 Coniglio et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2012). GIMs are compromised in 135 their ability to promote immune responses however they still retain 136 phagocytic activity (Flugel et al., 1999; Hussain et al., 2006). Further 137 complicating the picture is another type of myeloid cell named Myeloid 138 Derived Suppressor Cell (MDSCs; also referred to as MSCs) which has 139 received recent attention of tumor biologists studying the microenviron- 140 ment. MDSCs have been implicated in aspects of tumor progression in- 141 cluding invasion, angiogenesis and immunosuppression (Serafini et al., 142 2006; Cheng et al., 2008; Marigo et al., 2008; Corzo et al., 2009; Youn 143 and Gabrilovich, 2011). MDSCs express markers which are found on im- 144 mature myeloid precursors. It is unclear however if MDSCs are mobilized 145 and recruited directly from the bone marrow or if certain myeloid popu- 146 lations which already exist at the tumor can be reprogrammed towards 147 this state (Rodrigues et al., 2010). 148

Recent attempts have been made globally ablate microglia and mac- 149 rophages in order to ascertain the role of GIMs in glioblastoma progres- 150 sion in vivo (Galarneau et al., 2007; Markovic et al., 2009; Zhai et al., 151 2011). These studies attempted to completely ablate GIMs by utilizing 152 transgenic mice which harbor the thymine kinase gene under the tran-153 scriptional control of the CD11b (a gene expressed by all mature macro- 154 phages) promoter. When gancyclovir is administered to these mice, 155 CD11b expressing cells (i.e. all mature myeloid cells) metabolize it 156 into a toxic end product resulting in cell death. Surprisingly however, 157 three independent reports whereby GL261 cells were orthotopically 158 injected into the CD11b-TK mice yielded somewhat different results. Al- 159 though the issue of glioma invasion per se (as opposed to general tumor 160 growth) was not directly assessed in these studies, Galarneau et al. 161 demonstrated that ablation of GIMs resulted in an increase in tumor ex- 162 pansion whereas Markovic and Zhai et al. showed a substantial decrease 163 in tumor size. Part of the discrepancy between these results may be 164 explained by the fact that gancyclovir when administered peripherally 165 and there was only a partial reduction (40%) in the number of GIMs in 166 the Galarneau study. However in the other two studies, ganciclovir 167 was administered directly into the brain near the tumor site and nearly 168 100% removal of all GIMs was achieved. These data suggest GIMs are 169 important for promoting tumor growth and survival however certain 170 subtypes may exist which serve to prevent tumor progression. The pre- 171 ponderance of evidence shows that GIMs are largely pro-tumorigenic 172 with the exceptions suggesting a complex role for GIMs in glioblastoma 173 development. A more subtle treatment of administering the immuno- 174 suppressant compound cyclosporin A, which was shown to interfere 175 with GIM function, limited the extent of GBM invasion in vivo consistent 176 with what was observed in brain slices. Below we discuss several molec- 177 ular pathways that have been shown to mediate microglia-stimulation 178 of glioma invasion. 179

1.2. GIMs and invasion

Studies within the last decade have sought to determine the role of 181 GIMs in motility and invasion. Using standard Boyden chamber assays, 182 it was shown that microglia can substantially enhance the migration 183 of GL261 cells when they were placed in the bottom portion of the 184 chamber (Bettinger et al., 2002). This effect was specific to microglia, 185 as oligodendrocytes or endothelial cells did not influence glioma migration. It was also observed that microglia pretreated with LPS or GMCSF 187 were especially effective at promoting glioma migration. The authors 188

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