

Forum Review

NF- κ B: A Stress-Regulated Switch for Cell Survival

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ABSTRACT

Nuclear factor- κ B (NF- κ B), a stress-regulated transcription factor belonging to the Rel family, has a pivotal role in the control of the inflammatory and the innate immune responses. Its activation rapidly induces the transcription of a variety of genes encoding cell adhesion molecules, inflammatory and chemotactic cytokines, cytokine receptors, and enzymes that produce inflammatory mediators. More recently, NF- κ B activation has been connected with multiple aspects of oncogenesis, including the control of cell proliferation, migration, cell cycle progression, and apoptosis. Interestingly, NF- κ B is constitutively activated in several types of cancer cells, including hematological and epithelial malignancies. In addition, activation of NF- κ B in cancer cells by chemotherapy or radiation therapy has been associated with the acquisition of resistance to apoptosis, which has emerged as a significant impediment to effective cancer treatment. Selective cyclopentenone inhibitors of the I κ B kinase, the key enzyme controlling NF- κ B activation, were recently shown to be potent inducers of apoptosis in chemoresistant lymphoid malignancies. Increasing evidence, summarized in this review, indicates that the development of selective NF- κ B inhibitors may represent a promising therapeutic tool to sensitize tumor cells to apoptosis and increase the efficacy of conventional anticancer drugs in a wide spectrum of malignancies. *Antioxid. Redox Signal.* 8, 478–486.

INTRODUCTION

NUCLEAR FACTOR- κ B (NF- κ B) was first described in 1986 as a nuclear factor controlling the transcription of the immunoglobulin κ light-chain gene in B cells (71). NF- κ B is a term that refers to a family of heterodimeric transcription factors critical for the regulation of cell proliferation and survival during immune, inflammatory, and stress responses (32, 38). Mammalian cells express five NF- κ B proteins sharing a highly conserved N-terminal domain called the Rel (for reticuloendotheliosis) homology domain (RHD), which is responsible for dimerization, interaction with inhibitory proteins, and DNA binding (18). Rel proteins are divided in two classes: members of one class include RelA (p65), RelB and c-Rel, which are synthesized as mature products, and share a transactivation domain (TAD) at their C-terminus required to promote transcription. The second group consists of the NF- κ B1 (p105/p50) and

NF- κ B2 (p100/p52) proteins. They are synthesized as p105 and p100 precursors, which contain a series of C-terminal ankyrin repeat domains that mask the nuclear localization signal (NLS) within the Rel homology domain. p105 and p100 require ubiquitin-dependent proteolytic processing at the C-terminus to generate the active p50 and p52, respectively. The mature DNA-binding proteins of this class contain the RHD but lack transcription-modulating activity.

In resting cells, NF- κ B exists as an inactive cytoplasmic complex, whose predominant form is a heterodimer composed of p50 and RelA subunits, bound to inhibitory proteins of the I κ B family, including I κ B α , I κ B β , and I κ B γ (18). I κ B proteins consist of an N-terminal regulatory domain followed by a series of ankyrin repeats essential for the binding to the NF- κ B heterodimer. The interaction with I κ B masks the nuclear localization sequence in the NF- κ B complex, sequestering the factor in the cytoplasmic compartment (Fig. 1).

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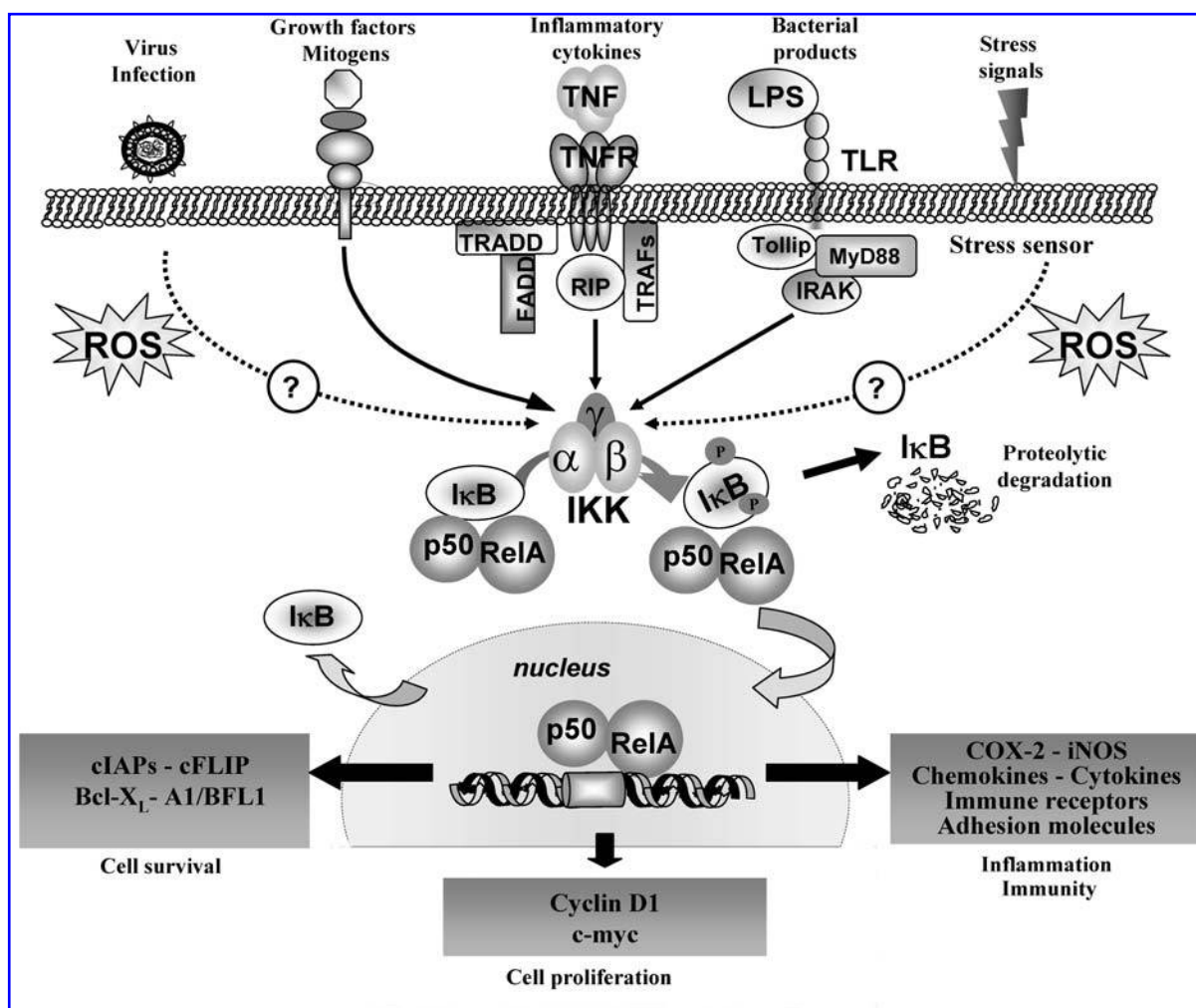


FIG. 1. The NF- κ B pathway. NF- κ B heterodimers (p50/RelA) are sequestered in the cytoplasm by I κ B inhibitory proteins (I κ B). Stimulation by stress-inducing agents, exposure to inflammatory cytokines, mitogens, or to a diverse array of bacterial and viral pathogens leads to the activation of signaling cascades converging on the IKK complex. Phosphorylation of I κ B by activated IKK is a signal for its ubiquitylation and proteasome-dependent degradation. Freed NF- κ B dimers translocate to the nucleus where they bind to κ B elements and activate the transcription of a variety of genes involved in the control of cell proliferation and survival, in the inflammatory and immune response, as well as autoregulatory genes, including I κ B itself. FADD, Fas-associated death domain; IRAK, interleukin (IL)-1-receptor-associated kinase; LPS, lipopolysaccharide; MyD88, myeloid differentiation primary response gene 88; RIP, receptor-interacting protein; ROS, reactive oxygen species; TLR, Toll-like receptor; Tollip, Toll-interacting protein; TNF α , tumor necrosis factor; TNFR, TNF α receptor; TRADD, TNFR-associated death domain; TRAFs, TNFR-associated factors.

THE NF- κ B PATHWAY

The NF- κ B complex is activated in response to a variety of stimuli, including viral and bacterial infection, exposure to proinflammatory cytokines, mitogens and growth factors, and stress-inducing agents including reactive oxygen species (ROS) (30) (Fig. 1). NF- κ B signaling is regulated by two main pathways. The classical pathway applies to dimers that are composed of RelA, c-Rel and p50, and is normally triggered in response to microbial and viral infections and by proinflammatory cytokines which activate the β subunit of the I κ B kinase (IKK) signalosome (28). IKK is a multisubunit complex that contains two catalytic subunits (IKK- α and IKK- β), which are able to form homo- or heterodimers, and

the IKK- γ or NEMO regulatory subunit, which acts as a docking protein for IKK kinases or other signaling proteins (28, 61). Following different types of stimulation, the NF- κ B/I κ B complex is activated via the phosphorylation of the inhibitory proteins on two N-terminal serine residues (30). Phosphorylation targets I κ Bs for ubiquitylation by the β -TrCP-SCF ubiquitin ligase complex, which leads to its proteasome-mediated degradation, allowing the consequent release of NF- κ B (Fig. 1).

In the alternative pathway, IKK- α is activated and it phosphorylates NF- κ B2/p100 associated with RelB. This phosphorylation induces the ubiquitin-mediated processing of NF- κ B2/p100 C-terminal ankyrin repeats to release RelB-p52 heterodimers (72). Following the degradation of the in-

hibitory proteins, freed NF- κ B dimers translocate to the nucleus, where they bind to specific sequences (κ B elements) in the promoter or enhancer region of target genes. In the nucleus, a second level of transcriptional activity control has been described that involves NF- κ B phosphorylation and acetylation. Phosphorylation of RelA by protein kinase A (PKA), IKK and glycogen synthase kinase-3 β (GSK-3 β) on distinct sites has been described to facilitate NF- κ B DNA binding and association with the transcriptional coactivator CBP/p300 (27, 62, 80), potently enhancing gene transactivation. Finally, direct and reversible acetylation of NF- κ B was described as an additional regulatory mechanism for NF- κ B transcriptional activity (13).

The multiple levels of control of NF- κ B activity are not surprising considering the number of genes whose expression is regulated by this factor. NF- κ B-binding sites have been identified in the promoter region of >150 cellular genes (50), including the NF- κ B-inhibitory proteins A20 and I κ B α , which provide a negative feedback mechanism to limit NF- κ B activity (32, 66) (Fig. 1).

IMMUNE RESPONSE, INFLAMMATION, AND VIRAL INFECTION

Several proteins encoded by NF- κ B target genes participate in the activation of the host immune and inflammatory responses. These include a plethora of cytokines and chemokines, receptors required for neutrophil adhesion and transmigration across blood vessel walls, receptors involved in immune recognition such as members of the major histocompatibility complex (MHC), as well as proteins involved in antigen presentation (50). For this reason, NF- κ B was first identified as a central regulator of innate and adaptive immune responses.

This view was further supported by the finding that NF- κ B is activated during infection with many viruses, including influenza virus, rotavirus, and herpesvirus (2, 3, 8, 66). NF- κ B activation during viral infection was first interpreted as a protective response of the host to the viral pathogen. However, the identification of functionally important NF- κ B-binding sites in the genome of several viruses, including the human immunodeficiency virus type 1 (HIV-1) (45), SV40 (67), and different members of the herpesvirus family (14, 57), led to the finding that NF- κ B induction results in the transactivation of κ B-containing viral promoters and in enhanced viral transcription (2, 3, 66).

Beyond the control on the immune response and viral infection, NF- κ B also stimulates the expression of enzymes whose products contribute to the pathogenesis of the inflammatory process, including the inducible form of nitric oxide synthase (iNOS), cyclooxygenase 2 (COX-2), and a variety of pro-inflammatory cytokines (50). Interestingly, cytokines that are stimulated by NF- κ B, such as TNF- α and IL-1 β , are also potent NF- κ B inducers, thus establishing a positive autoregulatory loop that can amplify the inflammatory response and lead to chronic inflammation (75). Consistent with its essential role in inflammation, NF- κ B is also known to be the

target of anti-inflammatory compounds, including non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (79).

CELL STRESS

A variety of extracellular stresses, such as exposure to UV light, H₂O₂, and cigarette smoke, as well as intracellular stress, including endoplasmic reticulum protein overload, have been shown to activate NF- κ B (11). One of the first models proposed to find a common mechanism converging on NF- κ B was based on the possibility that all these conditions would cause oxidative stress, by increasing the intracellular concentration of reactive oxygen species, including H₂O₂, superoxides (O₂⁻), or hydroxyl (\cdot OH) radicals, which would function as specific signals to activate definite pathways (11, 69, 70). This hypothesis was based on several lines of evidence. First, it was shown that direct addition of H₂O₂ to culture medium activated NF- κ B in human cells (40, 70). Second, antioxidant such as *N*-acetylcysteine (NAC) or pyrrolidine dithiocarbamate (PDTC) were found to inhibit NF- κ B activation in a redox-dependent manner (69). Furthermore, ROS were found to be increased in some cell types in response to NF- κ B inducers, and overexpression or inhibition of enzymes that affect intracellular ROS levels were shown to modulate NF- κ B activation (11).

However, subsequent studies provided evidence against a model proposing ROS as second messengers for NF- κ B activation. First, several cell lines were found to be insensitive to H₂O₂-induced NF- κ B stimulation (44, 68). Furthermore, the increased understanding of the molecular mechanisms that trigger NF- κ B activation evidenced that many pathways to NF- κ B do not involve a ROS-producing step (reviewed in Ref. 11). Hayakawa *et al.* (22) have in fact recently shown that the NF- κ B inhibitory activities of antioxidant molecules, such as NAC and PDTC, are independent of their antioxidant properties. In addition, strong phenolic radical scavengers such as EGCG (epigallocatechin-gallate) and the water-soluble vitamin E analog Trolox, are unable to inhibit NF- κ B activation (22). In the case of UV radiation, NF- κ B activation was found to depend on phosphorylation of I κ B α at a cluster of C-terminal sites that are recognized by casein kinase 2 (CK2), determining its consequent degradation in a non-canonical manner (34). CK2 activity toward I κ B is UV-inducible via activation of p38 MAP kinase, identifying the p38-CK2-NF- κ B axis as an important component of the mammalian UV response (34). Finally, NF- κ B activation in response to low-dose ionizing radiation has been instead attributed to the production of ROS, and is inhibited by antioxidants such as NAC (12, 43).

NF- κ B, CELL SURVIVAL AND CANCER

A recent body of evidence has emphasized a central role for NF- κ B in the control of cell proliferation and survival. In fact, NF- κ B activates the expression of cyclin D1 and c-myc, which promotes directly the transition from the G1 into the S phase of the cell cycle, (20, 31, 37). Likewise, NF- κ B con-

tributes to activate cell growth indirectly through the induction of the target genes encoding for growth factors such as IL-2, IL-6, GM-CSF, and CD-40 ligand, which stimulate the proliferation of lymphoid and myeloid cells (31). In addition, NF- κ B enhances cell survival by switching on genes that dampen pro-apoptotic signals (32). Starting from the first observation that RelA^{-/-} mice died at embryonic day 15 as a result of extensive liver apoptosis (6), a large amount of literature has described the anti-apoptotic function of NF- κ B. Collectively, these findings show that NF- κ B induces the expression of a number of genes whose products can inhibit apoptosis, including cellular inhibitors of apoptosis cIAP-1, cIAP-2, and X chromosome-linked IAP (XIAP), the FLICE-inhibitory protein cFLIP, members of the Bcl-2 family (Bcl-X_L and A1/Bfl-1), as well as TNFR-associated factors 1 and 2 (TRAF1 and TRAF2). NF- κ B can also attenuate the apoptotic response to anticancer drugs and ionizing radiation (46, 55). Although NF- κ B is considered primarily an anti-apoptotic transcription factor, able to inhibit apoptosis induced by both death receptors and mitochondria-dependent pathways, it should be noted that in some instances activation of NF- κ B has also been associated with induction of apoptosis (32).

Interestingly, tumor cells of almost every tissue type frequently acquire the ability to constitutively activate NF- κ B, via a host of genetic alterations and viral proteins (39). Recent studies have also documented a link between induction of NF- κ B during chronic inflammation and cancer. In a colitis-associated cancer mouse model in which IKK- β had been knocked out specifically in macrophages or in enterocytes, it was found that inactivation of IKK- β reduced the incidence and development of inflammatory-associated cancer by acting through a different mechanism in each cell type (19). Loss of NF- κ B function in macrophages reduced tumor incidence and size as a consequence to the loss of growth factors produced by inflammatory cells. On the other hand, in mice with inactivation of IKK- β in intestinal epithelial cells, the strong decrease in tumor incidence was not due to reduced intestinal inflammation, but mainly to the lack of apoptosis inhibition (19). Consistent with these findings, using a mouse model of inflammatory hepatitis that predisposes to liver cancers, Pikarsky *et al.* presented evidence that the survival of hepatocytes and their progression to malignancy are regulated by NF- κ B (52).

Constitutive NF- κ B activity has now been observed in a diverse array of hematological and epithelial malignancies, including colorectal, breast, lung, pancreas, and prostate cancers, glioblastomas, and melanomas (56). The fact that many tumors show constitutively activated NF- κ B, has suggested that the anti-apoptotic function of this factor may represent a major obstacle to cancer therapy. Intriguingly, several anti-cancer agents stimulate NF- κ B activation, which can potentially lead to chemoresistance. These agents include taxanes, *Vinca* alkaloids, topoisomerase inhibitors, and many other drugs that simultaneously activate several different pathways that regulate both positively and negatively the cell death process (46, 50). Numerous studies have demonstrated that inhibiting NF- κ B results in the reversal of chemoresistance, indicating that it may be possible to improve the efficacy of current anticancer agents by shifting the death-survival bal-

ance towards apoptosis through NF- κ B inhibition. Even radiotherapy, which is a valuable tool in the treatment of several cancers, has been found to activate NF- κ B in tumor cells (54). In this case it has been shown that fibrosarcoma and glioblastoma cells expressing a dominant-negative form of I κ B α (I κ B α super repressor) are more susceptible to radiation-induced apoptosis (5, 77). The mechanism for NF- κ B involvement in chemo- and radioresistance has been linked to its counteracting action on p53 function (76) and to the expression of genes encoding anti-apoptotic proteins acting either at mitochondrial level (such as Bcl-X_L and A1/Bfl-1) or blocking caspase activation (such as IAP-1, IAP-2, XIAP, and c-FLIP). In addition, NF- κ B transactivates the expression of the multidrug resistance gene 1 (MDR1) which prevents the intracellular accumulation of toxic compounds such as those used in chemotherapy (7).

In this perspective, inhibition of NF- κ B is expected to be therapeutic in those tumors where NF- κ B appears to play a unique survival role such as Hodgkin's and non-Hodgkin's B-cell lymphomas (4, 51), diffuse large B-cell lymphomas (15), acute myeloid leukemia (21), multiple myeloma (47), and Burkitt's lymphoma (48). A variety of agents can target different steps in the signaling pathway responsible for NF- κ B activity (reviewed in Ref. 46). NF- κ B inhibition may be achieved by targeting at origin the receptor signaling proteins responsible for its activation, or by interfering with the NF- κ B dimerization or binding to DNA. However, both strategies reveal some disadvantages. In spite of great specificity, targeting the apical signals of NF- κ B activation may not be effective as tumors can acquire alternative means of activating NF- κ B downstream of the chosen target. On the other hand, inhibiting NF- κ B dimerization or DNA binding will require the use of large and polar decoy molecules with poor cellular uptake and bioavailability (33). A more attractive and promising strategy for therapeutic intervention is to interfere with the process of IKK activation, which occurs in response to diverse upstream signals. Several antiinflammatory and immunosuppressive agents that inhibit IKK have been shown to exert antitumor activity, including the classical nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs such as aspirin (36) and sulindac (78), and the immunomodulatory drug thalidomide (35).

CYCLOPENTENONE PROSTAGLANDINS AS NF- κ B INHIBITORS

Cyclopentenone prostaglandins (cyPG) are naturally occurring arachidonic acid metabolites with potent biological activity (73). CyPG of the A and J series originate from dehydration within the cyclopentane ring of prostaglandin E and prostaglandin D, respectively, which produces a cyclopentenone structure characterized by the presence of a reactive α,β -unsaturated carbonyl. Cyclopentenone prostaglandins possess antiviral activity (63) and are considered key regulators in the resolution of inflammation (64). In addition to these effects, cyPG induce cell growth arrest and apoptosis in a number of cancer cell types (64, 65, 73). In particular, the terminal derivative of prostaglandin J₂ (PGJ₂) metabolism,

15-deoxy- $\Delta^{12,14}$ -PGJ₂ (15d-PGJ₂), is emerging as the most potent antineoplastic agent of this class of prostaglandins. Anticancer activity of 15d-PGJ₂ has been reported both *in vitro* and *in vivo* in a multiplicity of tissues including breast, prostate, colon, lung, and lymphoid (49, 73). In most types of cancer, 15d-PGJ₂ inhibits tumor cell proliferation and induces apoptosis; however, the molecular mechanisms responsible for these effects were unraveled only recently. The proapoptotic activity of cyPG was found to be linked to their ability to inhibit NF- κ B activity. We have shown that cyPG block phorbol ester- and TNF α -induced NF- κ B activation by inhibition and direct modification of the IKK complex, via binding to cysteine 179 in the activation loop of the IKK- β subunit (59, 60). Cysteine residues in the DNA-binding domain of p50 and p65 are also targets of cyPG (74).

We have recently investigated the effect of the cyclopentenone prostaglandin 15d-PGJ₂ on NF- κ B activity in B-cell malignancies previously described to display constitutive NF- κ B activation such as multiple myeloma (MM) and Burkitt's lymphoma (BL) (53). Multiple myeloma is a malignant tumor that affects terminally differentiated B-cells, presently incurable as a consequence of the frequent development of refractoriness to conventional and combination therapy (25). Burkitt's lymphoma is an aggressive B-cell tumor whose hallmark are reciprocal translocations leading to the NF- κ B-induced activation of the *c-myc* oncogene (29). Two Burkitt's lymphoma (HS-Sultan and BL-41 cells) and two multiple myeloma (U266 and RPMI-8226) cell lines were selected for these studies. In agreement with previous reports (17, 29, 47), all four cell lines tested were found to express constitutively high levels of NF- κ B DNA-binding activity (Fig. 2A). 15d-PGJ₂ was found to be an efficient and rapid suppressor of constitutive NF- κ B activity in these malignancies. As shown in Fig. 2A, a 3 h treatment with 10 μ M 15d-PGJ₂ is sufficient to inhibit NF- κ B binding to κ B DNA consensus sequences. This effect is accompanied by decreased levels of phosphorylated I κ B α (53). A few hours following NF- κ B inhibition, 15d-PGJ₂ massively induces apoptosis in all four types of B cell malignancy (Fig. 2B). On the contrary, 15d-PGJ₂ at the same concentration does not induce apoptosis in acute leukemia K562 cells that present very low levels of NF- κ B DNA-binding activity (Figs. 2A and 2B), and whose survival depends on the activation of the Bcr/Abl-Stat5-Bax pathway (16). Under the conditions utilized, 15d-PGJ₂ also does not induce cell death in peripheral blood mononucleated cells from normal donors (53).

In the BL HS-Sultan cell line, approximately 80% of cells undergo apoptosis after treatment with 10 μ M 15d-PGJ₂ (Fig. 2C). In these cells, inhibition of NF- κ B activity is rapidly followed by downregulation of anti-apoptotic proteins c-IAP1, c-IAP2, c-FLIP, and XIAP (Fig. 3A). Treatment with the anti-cancer drug, dexamethasone, that does not inhibit NF- κ B activity, has no effect (Fig. 3A). IAP proteins are known to inhibit caspase-3, caspase-8, and caspase-9 activity. We have shown that 15d-PGJ₂ induces caspase 8 and caspase 9 activity in HS-Sultan cells (53). In particular, the downregulation of cFLIP by 15d-PGJ₂ may contribute to the induction of caspase-8 activity, while the decreased levels of XIAP may unleash caspase-9 action (53). Numerous reports have evidenced that interfering with NF- κ B activity via proteasome

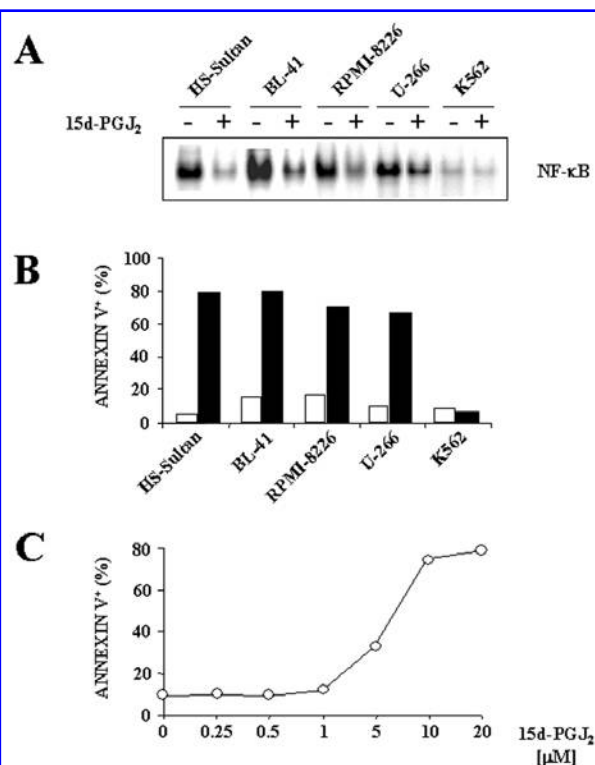


FIG. 2. NF- κ B inhibition induces apoptosis in human malignant B cells with high levels of constitutive NF- κ B activity. (A) Burkitt's lymphoma HS-Sultan and BL-41 cells, multiple myeloma U266 and RPMI-8226 cells, and acute leukemia K-562 cells were treated with 15d-PGJ₂ (10 μ M, +), or control diluent (–) for 3 h. NF- κ B DNA-binding activity was analyzed by Electrophoretic Mobility Shift Assay, as described (53). (B) Apoptosis was evaluated by FACS analysis of Annexin V⁺ cells in parallel samples 8 h after treatment (\square , Control; \blacksquare , 15d-PGJ₂). (C) HS-Sultan cells were treated with 15d-PGJ₂ at the indicated concentrations for 24 h. Apoptosis was evaluated by FACS analysis of Annexin V⁺ cells.

inhibitors, IKK inhibitors, peptides, or antibodies arrested proliferation and induced cell death of multiple myeloma cells (9, 23–26, 42, 47). A direct proof that NF- κ B is required for BL cell survival has been now provided by the knockdown of the NF- κ B RelA/p65-subunit via lentivirus-mediated RNA interference (53). We have shown that silencing of p65 expression is accompanied by XIAP inhibition and induction of apoptosis in HS-Sultan cells (Fig. 3C). Similar results were obtained with the MM cell lines RPMI 8226 and U266 (data not shown), while K562 cells were insensitive to p65 knockdown (53). These results altogether indicate that inhibition of NF- κ B plays a major role in the pro-apoptotic activity of 15d-PGJ₂ in aggressive B-cell malignancies. In addition, we have demonstrated that the cyclopentenone ring structure is responsible for the biological activity of cyPG (58), and have recently identified new cyclopentenone derivatives as potent NF- κ B inhibitors with pro-apoptotic activity in BL cells (10) and in other types of human aggressive cancers characterized by aberrant regulation of NF- κ B (Ciucci *et al.*, unpublished observations).

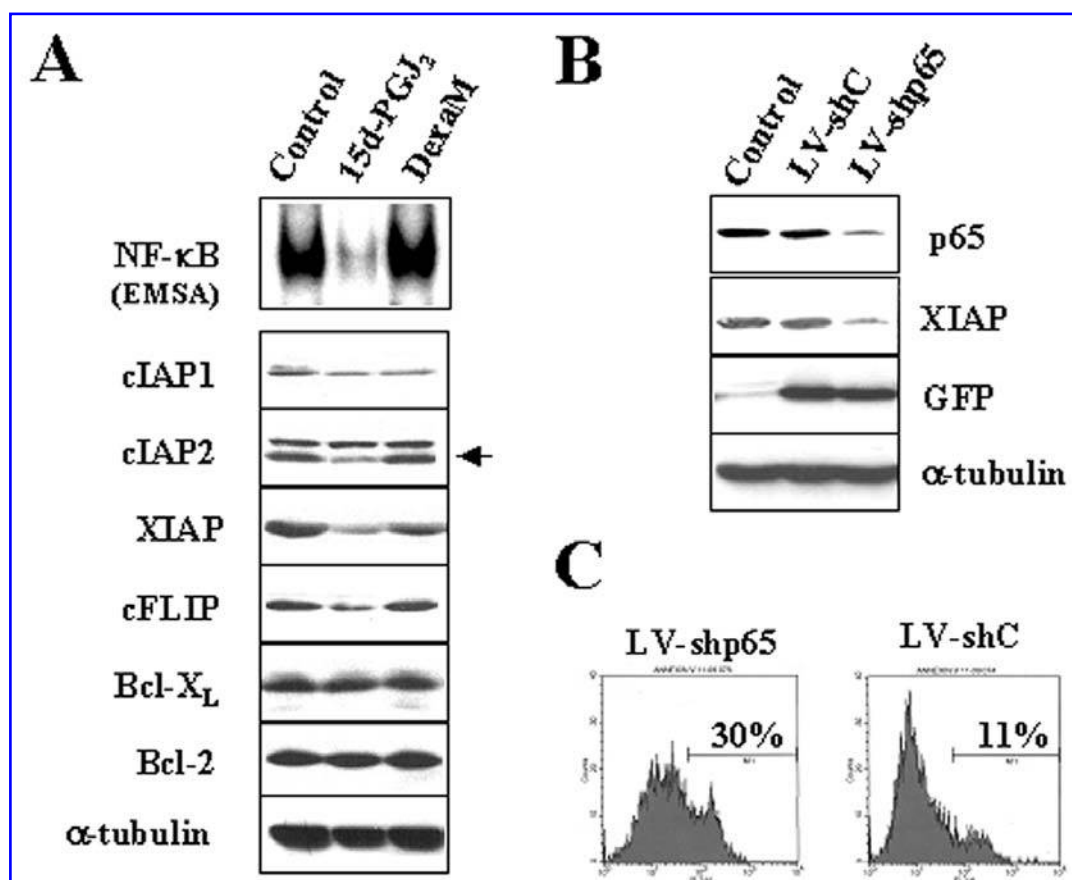


FIG. 3. 15d-PGJ₂ induced apoptosis is mediated by inhibition of NF- κ B driven anti-apoptotic gene expression. (A) 15d-PGJ₂ downregulates the expression of cellular inhibitor-of-apoptosis proteins (cIAPs), and cFLIP. HS-Sultan cells were treated with 15d-PGJ₂ (10 μ M), dexamethasone (10 μ M), or control diluent for 8 h. Whole cell extracts were analyzed for NF- κ B DNA-binding activity by EMSA (*top panel*), or for the indicated anti-apoptotic proteins by Western blot (*lower panels*). α -Tubulin immunoblotting was used as a loading control. 15d-PGJ₂-induced NF- κ B inhibition is associated with decreased expression of cIAP1, cIAP2 (*arrow*), XIAP, and cFLIP. Dexamethasone has no effect. (B) Knock down of p65-RelA by lentiviral-mediated RNA interference inhibits XIAP expression. HS-Sultan cells were mock-transduced (Control) or transduced with the lentiviral vector LV-shp65 (bearing the short hairpin RNA interference for the p65 gene and the gene reporter GFP) or the mutated control LV-shC (bearing random mutations in the hairpin sequence). Levels of p65, GFP, XIAP, and α -tubulin proteins were analyzed by Western blot 72 h after transduction. (C) Inhibition of p65 expression induces apoptosis in HS-Sultan cells. FACS analysis histograms of annexin V staining in HS-Sultan cells 5 days after infection with LV-shp65 or control LV-shC vectors, as described in B. The percent of apoptotic cells is indicated in the panels.

CONCLUSIONS AND PERSPECTIVES

Constitutive activation of cell survival signaling pathways is a general mechanism underlying tumor development and resistance to therapy, and constitutes a major clinical problem in cancer. Disruption of aberrantly regulated survival signaling mediated by the stress-regulated factor NF- κ B has recently become an important task in the therapy of several chemoresistant and radioresistant cancers. Based on the demonstration that NF- κ B plays an important role in cancer resistance to drug-induced apoptosis, the proteasome inhibitor PS-431 has been recently introduced in the therapy of MM and other chemoresistant malignancies (1, 24, 41). The initial results obtained with this novel approach to chemotherapy encourage

the search for novel, more specific NF- κ B inhibitors, especially targeted to the I κ B kinase (33). The fact that cyclopentenone prostanoids with IKK inhibitory activity potently induce apoptosis in aggressive chemoresistant tumors stimulates the search for novel prostanoids or prostanoid-derived molecules for therapeutic intervention in the treatment of cancers characterized by aberrant regulation of NF- κ B.

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ABBREVIATIONS

BL, Burkitt's lymphoma; cFLIP, FLICE-inhibitory protein; cIAP, cellular inhibitor of apoptosis protein; cyPG, cyclopentenone prostaglandins; 15d-PGJ₂, 15-deoxy- $\delta^{12,14}$ -PGJ₂; IKK, I κ B kinase; MM, multiple myeloma; NF- κ B, nuclear factor- κ B; ROS, reactive oxygen species; XIAP, X chromosome-linked IAP.

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