

1 Synbiotics suppress colitis-induced tumorigenesis in a
2 colon-specific cancer mouse model

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34 **Abstract**

35 Although synbiotics may be effective in maintaining remission of inflammatory bowel
36 disease, their anticarcinogenic effects are still debated. To address this issue, we
37 evaluated the effects of synbiotics, probiotics, and prebiotics on tumorigenesis using a
38 *CDX2P-Cre; Apc^{+/-flox}* mouse model harboring a colon-specific *Apc* knock out, which
39 develops adenoma and adenocarcinoma of the colon. Dextran sodium sulfate (DSS)-
40 administration promoted colonic tumor development in *CDX2P-Cre; Apc^{+/-flox}* mice, and
41 these tumors were associated with loss of *Apc* heterozygosity, as confirmed by
42 observation of well-differentiated adenocarcinomas with β -catenin accumulation in
43 tumor cell cytoplasm. Synbiotics-treatment suppressed dextran sodium sulfate-induced
44 colitis in *CDX2P-Cre; Apc^{+/-flox}* mice, thereby reducing mortality, and inhibited
45 tumorigenesis accelerated by DSS-administration. Conversely, neither probiotics nor
46 prebiotics had any effect on inflammation and tumorigenesis. *Lactobacillus casei* and
47 *Bifidobacterium breve* were detected in the fecal microbiota of probiotics-treated mice.
48 Synbiotics-treatment suppressed DSS-induced expression of *IL-6*, *STAT-3*, *COX-2*, and
49 *TNF- α* gene transcripts in normal colonic epithelium, indicating the possibility of

50 suppressing tumor development. Importantly, these genes may be potential therapeutic

51 targets in inflammation-associated colon cancer.

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53 Keywords (5): synbiotics, colon cancer, colitis-associated cancer, dextran sodium

54 sulfate, mouse model

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66 **Introduction**

67 Individuals with inflammatory bowel disease have a 10- to 40-fold increased risk of
68 developing colorectal cancer compared with the general population. This indicates that
69 colitis-associated cancer develops from chronically persistently inflamed mucosa, and
70 progresses through dysplasia to adenocarcinoma. Therefore, efficacious anti-
71 inflammatory treatment can reduce or retard the development of colorectal dysplasia
72 and cancer in inflammatory bowel disease [1–4]. Nonetheless, the mechanisms that link
73 these chronic inflammatory states to colorectal cancer development are largely
74 unknown. Experimental evidence suggests that chronic inflammation creates a
75 favorable environment for colitis-associated cancer initiation and for tumor growth
76 promotion and progression [5,6]. Noxious compounds released during chronic colon
77 inflammation are thought to damage DNA and/or alter cell proliferation or survival,
78 thereby promoting oncogenesis [1,2]. New insights that suggest a direct relationship
79 between the DNA damage response and chromosomal instability (CIN) have been
80 provided by *in vivo* studies [7,8]. Immune cells, which often infiltrate tumors and
81 preneoplastic lesions, produce a variety of cytokines and chemokines that propagate a

82 localized inflammatory response, and also enhance premalignant cell growth and
83 survival by activating signaling pathways, such as those involving IL-6/STAT3, TNF-
84 α , PGE2/COX-2, NF- κ B, or MAPKs [5,8–12].

85 The pathogenesis of inflammatory bowel disease is related to inappropriate and
86 exaggerated mucosal immune responses to constituents of the intestinal flora [13,14].
87 Dextran sodium sulfate (DSS)-induced colitis is a well-established animal model of
88 mucosal inflammation that has been used in the study of ulcerative colitis pathogenesis
89 and in preclinical studies [6,11,15]. DSS is known to be directly cytotoxic to cells at
90 multiple levels, resulting in induction of colonic epithelium breakdown [6,16–20].
91 Exposure to gut flora leads to a significant increase in the expression of several
92 proinflammatory cytokines, chemokines, nitric oxide, and inducible nitric oxide
93 synthase [21–24]. Two inflammation-associated cancer mouse models induced by DSS
94 have been reported. One is the *Apc*^{MIN/+} mouse, which shows increased intestinal
95 adenoma and adenocarcinoma increase on DSS-administration [25]. Another model
96 involves administration of azoxymethane (AOM) as a carcinogen and DSS to mice [6].

97 Previously, we demonstrated that *CDX2P 9. 5-NLS Cre; Apc^{+/-lox} (CPC;Apc)* mice
98 develop adenomas and carcinomas mainly in the distal colon and rectum, together with
99 a small number of cecum and small intestine adenomas [26]. In human colorectal
100 carcinoma with the CIN phenotype, there is a frequent loss of heterozygosity at loci on
101 chromosomes 5q, 17p, and 18q [27], whereas in *CPC;Apc* mice carrying constitutional,
102 heterozygous, inactivating mutations in the *Apc* gene, the wild-type *Apc* allele is
103 inactivated by loss of heterozygosity, indicating that CIN contributes to tumor
104 progression.

105 “Synbiotics” (“syn” -together and “bios” -life) are a combination of probiotic bacteria
106 and a growth-promoting prebiotic ingredient that are purported to exhibit synergism
107 [28]. Several studies have shown that synbiotics might be effective for maintaining
108 remission of inflammatory bowel disease in patients, and a previous review of
109 synbiotics indicated possible inhibitory mechanisms in colon carcinogenesis [28–34].
110 However, the anticarcinogenic effect of synbiotics is ambiguous and still under debate.
111 In Japan, the *Lactobacillus casei* strain Shirota and *Bifidobacterium breve* strain Yakult
112 have been marketed since 1935, and are common lactic acid bacteria which are

113 available commercially throughout the world. The probiotics and prebiotics used in this
114 study were chosen because they were found in Japan, are widely used worldwide as a
115 general supplement reported to have good effects, and are readily obtainable [35,36].

116 In this study, we created a new mouse model that promoted tumor development by
117 eliciting colitis in *CPC;Apc* mice, which experience spontaneous colon cancer. Using
118 this model, we evaluated the impact of synbiotics, probiotics, and prebiotics, and
119 examined the mechanism of tumorigenesis.

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129 **Materials and Methods**

130 **Ethics statement**

131 This study was performed in strict accordance with the Guide for the Care and Use of
132 Laboratory Animals and the local committee for animal experiments. All animal
133 protocols were approved by the Committee on the Ethics of Animal Experiments of
134 Hiroshima University (Permit Number: 10–008). We checked the body weights of the
135 mice every day, and euthanized them immediately after weight loss was detected.
136 Surgery was performed under sodium pentobarbital anesthesia, and all efforts were
137 made to minimize the suffering of the mice. Mice were euthanized by CO₂ asphyxiation
138 as per IACUC guidelines.

139

140 **Bacterial cells: probiotics and prebiotics**

141 In this study, the *Lactobacillus casei* strain Shirota and *Bifidobacterium breve* strain
142 Yakult, were obtained from the Japan Collection of Microorganisms (Saitama, Japan),
143 and were used as probiotics [35,36]. These strains were cultured in Gifu Anaerobic
144 Medium broth (Nissui Pharmaceuticals, Tokyo, Japan) under anaerobic conditions

145 using AnaeroPack (Mitsubishi Gas Chemical, Tokyo, Japan) at 37 °C for 16 h. The
146 harvested bacterial cells were washed twice with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) and
147 resuspended in PBS at a concentration of 1×10^8 colony-forming units/mL.
148 Suspensions were stored at -80 °C until use. 4^G-β-Galactosyl-sucrose (3.75 g/body;
149 Ensuiiko Sugar Refining. Co. Ltd, Japan) was used as a prebiotic [37].

150

151 **Animal model**

152 Male *CPC;Apc* mice were used in this study in order to avoid sex bias.

153 To obtain *CPC;Apc* mice, 8-week-old *Apc^{fllox/fllox}* females were bred with male CDX2P

154 9.5-NLS Cre males. All mice were housed under specific pathogen-free conditions.

155 Teklad Mouse Breeder Diet 8626 (Harland-Teklad) and automatically supplied water

156 were provided to all mice used in tumorigenesis experiments. The breeding room was

157 maintained at a constant temperature of $23^{\circ}\text{C} \pm 2^{\circ}\text{C}$, relative humidity of $50\% \pm 5\%$, 15-

158 20 air changes per hour, and a 12-h light/dark cycle, with lights on at 8:00 am. Four or

159 five mice were housed per cage with chopped wood bedding [38].

160 To confirm the mouse genotype, loss of *Apc* heterozygosity was assessed by multiplex
161 PCR using the following primers: *Apc*-P3, 5'-
162 GTTCTGTATCATGGAAAGATAGGTGGTC-3'; *Apc*-P4, 5'-
163 CACTCAAACGCTTTTGAGGGTTGATTC-3'; and *Apc*-P5, 5'-
164 GAGTACGGGGTCTCTGTCTCAGTGAA-3'. The target (580S), deletion (580D), and
165 wild-type alleles yielded products of 314 (P3 and P4), 258 (P3 and P5), and 226 bp (P3
166 and P4), respectively. The presence of the *CDX2* promoter region was assessed by PCR
167 as previously described [26].

168

169 **Induction of chronic colitis in mice; synbiotic, probiotic, and**
170 **prebiotic treatments; and general assessment of colitis and**
171 **tumorigenesis**

172 Acute colitis was induced in 7- to 8-week-old mice by administering filter-purified
173 drinking water (Millipore Corp., Billerica, MA, USA) containing 1% (w/v) DSS (MW
174 36,000–50,000; MP Biomedicals, Solon, OH, USA) for 7 days. From day 7 onwards,
175 the animals received normal drinking water. To induce chronic colitis, the mice were

176 administered 1% DSS for 7 days during weeks 8, 11, 14, and 17 [6,15]. Synbiotics,
177 probiotics, and prebiotics were orally consumed daily from 7 weeks to 20 weeks. Body
178 weight, stool consistency, and fecal blood loss were recorded daily. The number of mice
179 administered drugs in this study was as follows; *CPC;Apc* mice (control group) was 8,
180 treated with synbiotics was 9, administered DSS was 8, administered DSS and treated
181 prebiotics was 7, administered DSS and treated probiotics was 7, and administered
182 DSS and treated synbiotics was 8. At 20 weeks of age, the entire gastrointestinal tract of
183 mice was removed immediately after euthanizing and flushed with ice-cold PBS.
184 Intestinal tissue was sliced longitudinally, and the location, number, and diameters of
185 polyps in the colon were recorded. The intestine was transferred to 10% buffered
186 formalin to be processed for histopathological studies. Consistent with the histologic
187 appearance, a hemispherical shape was assumed for large bowel polyps. We recorded
188 the location, number, and diameter of large intestinal polyps.

189

190 **Disease activity score assessment and histopathological**
191 **scoring**

192 Body weight loss, stool consistency, and the presence of gross blood determined by
193 fecal observation were assessed daily for each mouse to generate a weekly disease
194 activity index (DAI), as described previously [39]. Each parameter was scored as shown
195 in S1 Table. These scores were summed to obtain a DAI ranging from 0 to 12.
196 To assess DSS-induced colitis, colons were fixed in formalin and stained with
197 hematoxylin and eosin (H&E). Sections were coded for blind microscopic assessment
198 of inflammation (DSS-induced colitis). Histologic scoring was performed based on
199 three parameters, i.e., the severity of inflammation, crypt damage, and ulceration, as
200 described previously [39], with scores shown in S2 Table. The values were summed to
201 give a histological score (maximum 11). At minimum, two sections of different parts of
202 the distal colon per animal were scored.

203

204 **Immunohistochemistry**

205 We performed immunohistochemical analysis as described previously [40]. Anti- β -
206 catenin (BD Transduction Laboratories), rabbit monoclonal anti-CDX2 (clone
207 EPR2764Y; Nichirei, Tokyo, Japan), rabbit polyclonal anti-p53 (NCL-p53-CM5; Leica

208 Biosystems, Newcastle, UK), and rabbit monoclonal anti-Ki-67 (ab1667, Abcam plc,
209 Cambridge, UK) antibodies were used at dilutions of 1:2,000, 1:1,000, 1:200, and 1:100
210 (final concentration, 5 μ g/mL), respectively. The β -catenin, CDX2, p53, and Ki-67
211 staining positivity rates in the tumor area and normal colon epithelial cells were
212 quantified using Image J. [41, 42]

213 **Total RNA extraction and quantitative real-time reverse** 214 **transcription-PCR analysis**

215 To assess the effect of DSS and synbiotics administration on gene transcription related
216 to inflammation and carcinogenesis in background mouse mucosa, we performed
217 quantitative RT-PCR using total RNA extracted from mouse colon epithelium. Total
218 RNA was extracted from mouse normal colon epithelium using an RNeasy kit (Qiagen).
219 Quantitative real-time PCR was performed as described previously [43].

220 We used commercially available *IL-6*, *STAT3*, *NF- κ B*, *PGE-2*, *COX-2*, and *TNF- α* real-
221 time RT PCR primers from Qiagen (product numbers: PPM03015A, PPM04643F,
222 PPM26197A, PPM03647E, PPM30180A, and PPM03113G-200). The primer sequences
223 used for amplification of β -2m (microglobulin) as an internal control were as follows:

224 sense 5'-TGGTCTTTCTGGTGCTTGTC-3', anti-sense 5' -

225 GTATGTTTCGGCTTCCCATTC-3'.

226

227 **Fecal bacteriological examinations**

228 Feces were obtained directly from the colons of six mice in each treatment group to

229 investigate the effect of *L. casei* and *B. breve* strains on the gut microbiota. Fecal

230 samples for bacteriological analysis were acquired from pre- and post-treated mice at 20

231 weeks of age. Immediately after defecation, fecal samples were weighed and suspended

232 in nine volumes of RNAlater (Ambion Inc., Austin, TX, USA). The preparations were

233 then incubated for 10 min at room temperature. For RNA stabilization, fecal

234 homogenate (200 μ L) was added to 1 mL of sterilized PBS and centrifuged at $5,000 \times g$

235 for 10 min. The supernatant was discarded and the pellet stored at $-80\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ until RNA

236 extraction. RNA was isolated using a modification of the acid guanidinium thiocyanate-

237 phenol-chloroform extraction method. The resulting nucleic acid fraction was

238 suspended in 1 mL of nuclease-free water (Ambion) [44,45]. Bacterial numbers were

239 determined by reverse transcription-quantitative polymerase chain reaction (RT-qPCR).

240 A standard curve was generated from RT-qPCR data (using the threshold cycle [C_T]
241 method) and the corresponding cell count, which was determined microscopically with
242 4,6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (Vector Laboratories, Burlingame, CA) staining for the
243 dilution series of the standard strains [46]. To measure the bacterial populations in each
244 sample, three serial dilutions of extracted RNA were used for RT-qPCR. C_T values in
245 the linear range of the assay were applied to the standard curve to obtain the
246 corresponding bacterial cell count in each nucleic acid sample and then converted to the
247 number of bacteria per sample. The specificity of the RT-qPCR assay using group- or
248 species-specific primers was determined as described previously [44,45].

249

250 **Statistical analysis**

251 All data are expressed as means \pm standard deviations (SDs). Statistical significance
252 was assessed using the Mann-Whitney U test, chi-square test, unpaired t test or Fisher's
253 exact test. Kruskal-Wallis analysis was used as a nonparametric test of multiplicity. The
254 data were considered statistically significant at $P < 0.05$. All statistical analyses were
255 performed using JMP 10 software (SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC, USA).

256

257 **Results**

258 **DSS-administration promotes colonic tumor development in a**

259 ***CPC;Apc* mouse model and the tumors were caused by a loss of**

260 ***Apc* heterozygosity**

261 We investigated the effect of DSS-induced intestinal inflammation on large intestine

262 tumorigenesis using *CPC;Apc* mice. We compared a DSS-administration group with a

263 control group for the appearance of colon, cecum, and small intestine tumors. To assess

264 loss of *Apc* heterozygosity, we performed *Apc* genotyping on the tumor, normal colon

265 epithelium, and proximal small intestine.

266 Tumor number was increased in the DSS-administration group; however, there was no

267 significant difference between the treatment and control groups with regards to maximum

268 tumor diameter (tumor number [DSS vs. control]; 4 vs. 20; $P = 0.002$, tumor maximum

269 diameter; 6 mm vs. 5.5 mm; $P = 0.608$) (Fig 1A). In the control group, tumors generally

270 did not develop in the proximal large intestine; however, in DSS-administered mice,

271 tumors developed in the proximal region at almost the same frequency as in the distal

272 colon (Fig 1A). These tumors also showed a loss of *Apc* heterozygosity (Fig 1B).

273

274 **Fig 1. Evaluation of tumor formation and histological analysis.**

275 (A) Comparison of tumor number and site of occurrence in the large intestine between

276 DSS-administered *CPC;Apc* mice and control mice. Solid circles indicate a tumor of 5

277 mm or more and less than 10 mm. Blue triangles indicate a tumor less than 5 mm. Red

278 squares indicate a tumor of 10 mm or more. (B) Estimation of *Apc* loss of heterozygosity

279 by multiplex PCR. Histological analysis of tumors in DSS-administered *CPC;Apc* mice.

280 Hematoxylin and eosin-stained (C, D, E) and immunohistochemical staining of β -

281 catenin (F, G, H), CDX2 (I, J, K), p53 (L, M, N), and Ki-67 (O, P, Q). (C, F, I, L, O: 40 \times ,

282 box with a solid line indicates a tumor; box with a broken line indicates normal colon

283 epithelium. D, G, J, M, P: tumor 200 \times . E, H, K, N, Q: normal colon epithelium 200 \times .

284

285 **Tumor induction by DSS-administration was confirmed by the**

286 **presence of well-differentiated adenocarcinomas with β -**

287 **catenin accumulation in tumor cell cytoplasm**

288 The tumors of DSS-administered mice had nuclear atypia and maintained the duct
289 structure. Almost no infiltration into the submucosal layer was observed (Fig 1C–E). a
290 high accumulation of β -catenin was observed in the tumor cell cytoplasm, whereas
291 normal colon epithelium in the mucosal crypt stained weakly for this marker (Fig 1F–H).
292 Immunostaining for CDX2 showed moderate staining in both tumor cells and normal
293 colon epithelium cells (Fig 1I–K), indicating well-differentiated tumors. Immunostaining
294 for p53 produced light staining in both tumor and normal colon epithelium (Fig 1L–N).
295 Immunostaining for Ki-67 generally showed no staining in either tumor or normal colon
296 epithelium (Fig 1O–Q). On the basis of the histological findings, the tumors elicited by
297 DSS-administration were well-differentiated adenocarcinomas with low invasive
298 behavior and low growth potential at the time of sacrifice (20 weeks of age). The analysis
299 of immunostaining positivity rates using ImageJ indicated that β -catenin, CDX2, p53,
300 and Ki-67 were present in, respectively, 9.6%, 22%, 5%, and 3% of normal colon
301 epithelial tissue. In contrast, they were present in, respectively, 88%, 30%, 10%, and 2%
302 of tumor tissue.

303

304 **Synbiotics-treatment suppresses the symptoms of colitis**
305 **induced by DSS, resulting in reduced mortality**

306 To evaluate the severity of colitis, we measured changes in the body weight, survival rate,
307 and colitis status of the mice using DAI scoring based on a combination of weight loss,
308 rectal bleeding, and stool consistency. We evaluated the effect of one course of DSS-
309 administration (Fig 2B), observing a weight loss of up to 2% in the DSS-administration
310 group compared with the control. After discontinuation of DSS-administration, there was
311 an immediate gain in weight. Therefore, we evaluated the change in body weight from
312 day 0 to day 7, because day 7 represented the nadir of body weight. Over the course of
313 administration, mice receiving DSS showed increased weight loss. Weight loss during the
314 four courses of DSS-administration was 10% or more. In contrast, during the courses,
315 synbiotics-treatment significantly suppressed weight loss by 5% or less ($P < 0.05$) (Fig
316 2C). In survival rate analysis, the DSS-administration group showed 50% mortality
317 related to colitis or tumor. In contrast, a significantly lower mortality rate (10%) was
318 observed in the DSS-administered mice receiving synbiotics-treatment (Fig 2D) ($P =$
319 0.04). On the other hand, probiotics and prebiotics alone resulted in a slight decrease in

320 weight loss and a tendency to improve survival rate compared to treatment with DSS
321 alone, but this difference was not significant. Synbiotics, administered to DSS-challenged
322 mice, reduced DAI scores by 56% compared to those for animals that received DSS alone
323 (Fig 2E) (DSS vs. DSS + synbiotics; 3.6 ± 0.35 vs. 1.6 ± 0.27 , $P < 0.001$).

324

325 **Fig 2. Administration schedule of DSS, probiotics and prebiotics. Evaluation of body**
326 **weight change and survival of mice and intestinal inflammation.**

327 (A) Timetable of DSS-administration and drug-treatment with probiotics and prebiotics.

328 (B) Weight transition for DSS-administration during course 1 (day 0–21, open circle and
329 broken line: control, open circle and solid line: DSS-administered mice, solid circle and
330 solid line: DSS-administered and synbiotics-treated mice). (C) Weight change during

331 each DSS-administration course (1st to 4th) in mice administered DSS and treated with
332 probiotics and/or prebiotics (open circle: DSS-administration only, solid circle: DSS-
333 administered and synbiotics-treated mice, cross: DSS-administration and probiotics-
334 treatment, solid triangle: DSS-administration and prebiotics-treatment). (D) Percent
335 survival of each group, with treatments indicated by the same symbols shown in (C).”(E)

336 Disease activity index (DAI) of DSS-administered mice and mice administered DSS and
337 treated with synbiotics. *: $P < 0.01$, **: $P < 0.001$

338

339 **Synbiotics-treatment inhibits tumor development accelerated**
340 **by DSS-administration in a *CPC;Apc* mouse model**

341 We investigated tumorigenesis in *CPC;Apc* mice with or without DSS-administration,
342 and in the DSS-administration + probiotics- and prebiotics-treatment groups. There was
343 no significant difference between *CPC;Apc* mice in the synbiotics treatment and those in
344 the non-treatment groups regarding tumor number ($P = 0.379$) and maximum tumor
345 diameter ($P = 0.509$) (Fig 3).

346

347 **Fig 3. Comparison of tumor number and maximum tumor diameter.**

348 (A) *CPC;Apc* mice [average tumor number, average tumor maximum diameter (n = 8);
349 4.0, 5.9], (B) *CPC;Apc* mice + synbiotics [average tumor number, average tumor
350 maximum diameter (n = 9); 3.5, 5.0], (C) *CPC;Apc* mice + DSS [average tumor number,
351 average tumor maximum diameter (n = 8); 19.5, 4.4], (D) *CPC;Apc* mice + prebiotics

352 (average tumor number, average tumor maximum diameter (n = 7); 21, 4.6), (E) *CPC;Apc*
353 mice + probiotics [average tumor number, average tumor maximum diameter (n = 7); 14,
354 4.6], (F) *CPC;Apc* mice + synbiotics [average tumor number, average tumor maximum
355 diameter (n = 8); 8.2, 4.5]. *: $P = 0.01$, **: $P = 0.002$

356

357 No significant differences were observed in maximum tumor diameter among the
358 experimental groups. However, there was a significant reduction (42%) in tumor number
359 in the synbiotics-treatment group compared with the group administered DSS alone (DSS
360 + synbiotics vs. DSS; 8.2 vs. 19.5: $P = 0.01$). There was no significant difference in tumor
361 number in the probiotics-alone group or the prebiotics-alone group compared with the
362 DSS-administration group (Fig 3).

363

364 **Synbiotics-treatment suppresses the inflammation of normal** 365 **colon mucosa induced by DSS-administration**

366 Histological analysis of the large intestine indicates that tumor development was
367 increased by DSS-administration and suppressed by simultaneous synbiotics-treatment

368 (Fig 4A–C). In addition to weight transition rate, survival rate, and DAI scoring, we
369 estimated background mucosa inflammation histologically.

370

371 **Fig 4. Analysis of background inflammation in the normal colon epithelium of DSS-**
372 **administered and synbiotics-treated *CPC;Apc* mice using hematoxylin and eosin**
373 **(H&E) staining and histological score.**

374 (A) control; *CPC;Apc* mouse. (B) *CPC;Apc* mouse administered DSS. (C) *CPC;Apc*
375 mouse administered DSS with synbiotics-treatment (yellow scale 1 cm). H&E staining of
376 normal colon epithelium (D; control, E; DSS-administered mouse, F; mouse administered
377 with DSS and treated with synbiotics: $\times 200$, black scale 100 μm) in *CPC;Apc* mouse. (G)
378 Estimation of histological score of colon epithelium inflammation. (DSS vs. DSS +
379 synbiotics; 4.5 ± 0.7 vs. 1.9×0.6 , $P < 0.01$). *: $P < 0.01$

380 Although H&E staining of normal epithelium in the control group revealed no obvious
381 inflammation of the background normal mucosa (Fig 4D), the DSS-administered group
382 showed strong inflammation and mucosal damage, including strong inflammatory cell
383 infiltration and an intermediate-to-high degree of erosion (Fig 4E). The DSS-

384 administration + synbiotics-treatment group showed mucosal damage and moderate
385 inflammatory cell infiltration and erosion (Fig 4F). To evaluate mouse colitis, we
386 estimated the severity of colon inflammation, including crypt damage and ulceration, in
387 the H&E-stained specimens. Synbiotics-treatment under DSS-administration decreased
388 the inflammation score compared with DSS-administration alone (Fig 4G) (DSS +
389 synbiotics vs. DSS; 1.9 ± 0.57 vs. 4.5 ± 0.69 , $P < 0.01$).

390

391 ***Lactobacillus casei* and *Bifidobacterium breve* are present in**
392 **the fecal microbiota of mice treated with synbiotics**

393 The analysis of fecal microbiota shows that both *L. casei* and *B. breve* were present in
394 the treatment group, but not in the non-treatment group (Table 1). Additionally, analysis
395 of other anaerobic bacteria revealed no significant changes in the bacterial population
396 (Table 1).

397

398 **Table 1. Presence of *Lactobacillus casei* strain Shirota and *Bifidobacterium breve***
399 **strain Yakult and changes in the intestinal flora in mouse colon under**

400 administration of dextran sulfate sodium (DSS), synbiotics, *Lactobacillus* alone, and
 401 oligosaccharide alone.

Treatment group	a	b	c	d	e	f
	control	DSS(-)/syn	DSS(+)	DSS(+)/pro	DSS(+)/pre	DSS(+)/syn
mice number (n)	3	3	6	3	4	6
Total bacteria	9.7 ± 0.6	10.0 ± 0.4	9.1 ± 0.8	9.5 ± 0.4	10 ± 0.4	9.1 ± 0.6
Obligatory anaerobe						
<i>Clostridium coccooides</i> group	8.9 ± 1.3	9.6 ± 0.5	8.5 ± 0.8	8.9 ± 1.0	9.8 ± 0.6	8.5 ± 0.5
<i>C. leptum</i> subgroup	8.3 ± 1.1	8.7 ± 0.5	8.1 ± 0.5	9.1 ± 0.9	8.6 ± 0.5	8.3 ± 0.5
<i>Bacteroides fragilis</i> group	7.5 ± 0.4	8.1 ± 0.4	7.3 ± 1.0	7.8 ± 0.8	7.9 ± 0.3	7.7 ± 0.8
<i>Bifidobacterium</i>	7.9 ± 0.8	9.0 ± 0.1	8.0 ± 1.1	8.7 ± 1.2	8.4 ± 1.3	8.3 ± 1.0
<i>Atopobium</i> cluster	7.7 ± 0.5	9.0 ± 0.7	8.5 ± 0.9	8.0 ± 1.0	8.1 ± 0.3	8.4 ± 0.9
<i>Prevotella</i>	7.2 ± 0.5	8.0 ± 0.9	7.0 ± 0.6	7.5 ± 0.9	7.8 ± 0.6	7.6 ± 0.8
<i>C. perfringens</i>	<2.3	<2.3	<2.3	<2.3	4.3 ± 0	<2.3
Facultative anaerobe						
Total <i>Lactobacillus</i>	8.9 ± 0.5	8.9 ± 1.0	7.0 ± 1.1	7.9 ± 1.1	7.2 ± 0.3	7.4 ± 1.3
<i>L. gasseri</i> subgroup	8.4 ± 0.9	8.5 ± 1.5	6.4 ± 1.2	7.8 ± 1.2	6.6 ± 0.9	6.9 ± 1.5
<i>L. brevis</i>	3.4 ± 0.1	3.1 ± 0.5	<2.3	2.9 ± 0	<2.3	<2.3
<i>L. casei</i> subgroup	<3.0	7.0 ± 1.2	<3.0	5.8 ± 0.6	<2.9	5.4 ± 1.4
<i>L. fermentum</i>	<4.0	<4.0	<4.0	<4.0	<4.0	<4.0
<i>L. fructivorans</i>	<2.3	<2.3	<2.3	<2.3	<2.3	<2.3
<i>L. plantarum</i> subgroup	<2.4	2.8 ± 0.1	<2.4	<2.4	<2.4	<2.4
<i>L. reuteri</i> subgroup	8.3 ± 0.4	7.9 ± 0.6	6.6 ± 1.3	6.8 ± 1.3	5.8 ± 0.3	6.1 ± 1.2
<i>L. ruminis</i> subgroup	8.1 ± 0.6	8.0 ± 0.6	6.1 ± 0.8	7.0 ± 0.9	7.0 ± 0.3	6.4 ± 1.2
<i>L. sakei</i> subgroup	6.6 ± 0	5.5 ± 0.4	4.6 ± 1.0	5.0 ± 1.2	3.7 ± 0.4	4.4 ± 0.3
<i>Enterobacteriaceae</i>	5.3 ± 0	5.5 ± 0	5.0 ± 0.8	5.2 ± 0.4	4.8 ± 0	5.8 ± 0.3
<i>Enterococcus</i>	7.6 ± 0.7	7.4 ± 0.5	6.3 ± 0.4	6.4 ± 0.9	6.6 ± 0.2	6.6 ± 0.6
<i>Staphylococcus</i>	4.4 ± 0.3	4.7 ± 0.2	4.4 ± 0.1	4.5 ± 0.7	5.2 ± 0.4	5.0 ± 1.1

Aerobes						
<i>Pseudomonas</i>	<2.9	<2.9	<2.9	<2.9	<2.9	<2.9
<i>Lactobacillus casei</i> strain Shirota	<4.9	7.0 ± 1.2	<4.9	5.8 ± 0.6	<4.9	5.8 ± 0.6
<i>Bifidobacterium breve</i> strain Yakult	<5.0	7.3 ± 1.2	<5.0	6.0 ± 0.1	<5.0	6.2 ± 1.0

402 Mean bacterial counts (log₁₀ cells/g) per 1 g of feces from 3–6 mice are indicated in
 403 each group.

404

405 Because the *L. casei* subgroup contains the *L. casei* strain Shirota, it was detected in the
 406 administration group. The *L. brevis*, *L. ruminis*, and *L. sakei* subgroups showed a decrease
 407 with DSS administration, although the differences were not significant.

408

409 **DSS-induced expression of IL-6, STAT-3, COX-2, and TNF- α**
 410 **gene transcripts in normal colonic epithelium was suppressed**
 411 **by synbiotics-treatment**

412 Quantitative RT-PCR using total RNA extracted from mouse colon epithelium showed
 413 that, in the DSS-administration group, expression of IL-6, STAT3, COX-2, PGE-2, NF-
 414 κ B was significantly increased by approximately 22- to 110-fold compared to that in

415 the control by DSS administration. Synbiotics treatment significantly reversed the
416 upregulation of IL-6 (63%), STAT3 (41%), COX-2 (66%), and TNF- α □□□□□ (Fig
417 5).

418

419 **Fig 5. Expression analysis was performed for inflammation- and tumorigenesis-**
420 **associated genes in normal colon epithelium by quantitative real-time PCR.**

421 Gene expression of total RNA samples from 20-week-old *CPC;Apc* mice (C: control,
422 n = 8), 20-week-old DSS-administered *CPC;Apc* mice (D: DSS, n = 8), and 20-week-old
423 *CPC;Apc* mice administered DSS and treated with synbiotics (DS: DSS + synbiotics, n =
424 8) was analyzed using commercial high-density oligonucleotide arrays. *: $P < 0.05$, **: $P < 0.001$

426

427 **Discussion**

428 Colorectal cancer in mice is chemically induced with AOM, and the most-used model
429 of colitis-associated colon cancer is induced with a combination of AOM and DSS [6].
430 To mimic known mechanisms underlying colitis and cancer in humans, genetically

431 engineered mouse models have been created, of which *Apc*^{MIN/+} mice were among the
432 first, although in this model tumor development was mostly limited to the small
433 intestine [25]. Previously, we showed that intestine-specific *caudal*-related homeobox
434 transcription factor *CDX2* elements confer colon epithelium-preferential transgene
435 expression in the adult mouse, and that mice carrying a *CDX2P-NLS Cre* recombinase
436 transgene and a floxed *Apc* allele developed colorectal adenomas and carcinomas [26].
437 Morphologic and molecular studies of the mouse tumors revealed their similarity to
438 human colorectal tumors, suggesting that mice in which the *CDX2P-NLS Cre* transgene
439 is used to target *Apc* (*CPC-Apc*), and other genes of interest such as *K-ras* and *Tgfb β 2*,
440 simultaneously can be used for studies in colitis-induced colorectal cancer development.
441 In this study, we created a new inflammation-associated colon cancer mouse model by
442 treating *CPC;Apc* mice with DSS, characterized by *Apc* conditional knockout with a
443 background of CIN. Our data demonstrated the inhibitory effects of synbiotics on tumor
444 development through suppression of colitis using *CPC;Apc* mice. Tumor occurrence
445 was elicited by DSS-promoted colitis, although tumor growth was not promoted. These
446 observations are similar to the findings of a previous study using an *Apc*^{MIN/+} mouse

447 model [25], in which background colitis was strongly involved in tumor development.
448 Furthermore, as the *CPC;Apc* mouse model develops adenocarcinoma in a CIN
449 background, these observations suggested that colon epithelium inflammation may
450 promote tumor development through an effect on CIN.

451 Regarding the roles of synbiotics in colon cancer prevention, the current study
452 demonstrated that synbiotics-treatment in *CPC;Apc* mice had no effect on tumorigenesis
453 in terms of either tumor number or maximum diameter without intestinal inflammation
454 induced by DSS. One possible explanation is that the mice were bred in a specific
455 pathogen-free environment that maintained a constant balance of intestinal bacteria,
456 resulting in a minimal effect of synbiotics in the mouse model of spontaneous carcinoma
457 with colon-preferential *Apc* inactivation. In contrast, the human intestinal environment is
458 exposed to various stresses, which cause aggravation of the intestinal environment and
459 colitis [34]. Based on this background, we analyzed the impact of synbiotics on
460 carcinogenesis induced by colitis. We demonstrated that treatment with synbiotics
461 suppressed enteritis more effectively than administration of either *Lactobacillus* or
462 oligosaccharides alone, thereby inhibiting inflammation-induced carcinogenesis in mice

463 that reproduced an environment close to that of human colon carcinogenesis.

464 While previous studies have reported the effects of inflammation and intestinal bacteria
465 on tumorigenesis [29,47], this inflammation-induced colon cancer mouse model based on
466 CIN is considered a more useful model to investigate the carcinogenesis of colon for two
467 reasons. First, this model does not require the use of chemicals such as carcinogens. When
468 using carcinogens such as mutation inducers, the evaluation of genes associated with
469 certain phenotypes might be difficult. The *CPC;Apc* mouse model is considered to offer
470 a more precise analysis of tumor development because it involves just a single mutation
471 (*Apc*). Second, the model enables observation of colon cancer development. Previous
472 reports showed only small intestine adenoma or adenocarcinoma in mouse models of
473 spontaneous intestinal cancer such as the *Apc*^{MIN/+} mouse, whereas the present model is
474 considered to be superior in that it more closely reproduces the environment of human
475 colon cancer.

476 We detected *Lactobacillus* in the feces of mice in the *Lactobacillus* treatment group,
477 indicating that these bacteria reached the large intestine and persisted there. However,
478 there was no significant change in other bacterial flora following synbiotics-treatment,

479 suggesting that the administered *Lactobacillus* had a direct anti-inflammatory effect on
480 the colonic mucosa. Previous studies have demonstrated that using probiotics and
481 prebiotics in combination reduced the fecal pH of mice and increased the amounts of
482 short-chain fatty acids, thereby preventing mucosal damage, including that of the
483 colonic crypt cells, and further promoting regeneration [48,49]. Although we did not
484 perform the relevant evaluations in the present study, it is believed that a combined
485 administration of probiotics and prebiotics inhibits mucosal damage through the
486 abovementioned mechanism. In addition, *L. brevis* and bacteria in the *L. ruminis* and *L.*
487 *sakei* subgroups showed a decrease associated with mucosal disorder following DSS-
488 administration, and this possibly affected the acceleration of tumorigenesis. Because the
489 absence of *L. ruminis* has been reported to be correlated with lactate and butyrate
490 contents in fecal waters [50], our observations can be considered compelling evidence
491 of intestinal environmental change caused by DSS-administration. There was no
492 significant change in the bacteria of the intestinal microbial flora in both the
493 *Lactobacillus*-alone and oligosaccharide-alone groups, and thus other factors must be
494 considered to explain the effect of oligosaccharide treatment on the intestinal mucosa.

495 Through quantification of the expression levels of gene transcripts associated with
496 inflammation and tumorigenesis, we found that the expression of genes associated with
497 inflammation, such as *IL-6*, *STAT3*, *NF-κB*, *PGE-2*, *COX-2*, and *TNF-α*, increased in the
498 DSS-administration group. Among these genes, the expression of *IL-6*, *STAT3*, *COX-2*,
499 and *TNF-α* was decreased in the synbiotics-treatment group with DSS administration. IL-
500 6, *STAT3*, *COX-2*, and *TNF-α* have been reported to be associated with tumorigenesis
501 [9,25,51–53], which was similarly demonstrated in the present analysis using *CPC;Apc*
502 mice. Thus, tumor suppressive mechanisms that involve suppression of the transcripts of
503 these genes are considered useful subjects for future therapeutic research. For example,
504 antibody drugs for each of the gene products have already been developed; the anti-TNF-
505 α antibody drug is infliximab, and IL-6 is targeted by the anti-IL-6 antibody tocilizumab
506 as well as COX-2 inhibitors. These drugs may be expected to suppress tumor
507 development. COX-2 inhibitors and NSAIDs have been shown to reduce the risk of death
508 from colon cancer and to prevent cancer [54,55]. The use of the mouse model created in
509 this study could enable estimation of the effects of these drugs, thereby indicating
510 appropriate target and drug combinations.

511 There were some limitations to the present study. First, we were not able to evaluate
512 the impact of DSS-administration on CIN and methylation. Second, the combination of
513 probiotics and prebiotics that we used is only one of many possible combinations. Many
514 studies have investigated strains that are beneficial for intestinal inflammation and
515 immunity, and comparison of a variety of combinations is an important consideration for
516 future research [28-37]. Third, although we used normal colon mucosa to analyze the
517 expression of gene transcripts related to inflammation and tumorigenesis, stromal cells
518 were present among the mucosal epithelial cells because the tissue was collected
519 macroscopically. Therefore, we were unable to obtain a completely uniform evaluation
520 due to cell heterogeneity. Also, this study selected probiotics and prebiotics that have
521 been shown to be useful. The combination of either the *Lactobacillus casei* strain Shirota
522 or *Bifidobacterium breve* strain Yakult as probiotics and oligosaccharide as prebiotics
523 may be useful for suppressing enteritis and tumor development. However, the purpose of
524 this study was not to detect the best combination of probiotics and prebiotics, and this
525 will be left for future research.

526 In conclusion, using *CPC;Apc* mice, we created an inflammation-related colon cancer

527 mouse model in which tumor development is promoted via colitis induced by the
528 administration of DSS. The strength of this model is that it is based on CIN with the single
529 knockout of *Apc*, and does not require the use of carcinogens. Moreover, it is
530 physiologically similar to human carcinogenesis in colorectal cancer and enables
531 observation of the effects of drug administration. Furthermore, the present study
532 demonstrates that synbiotics-treatment suppressed colitis and tumor initiation in this
533 model. The notion in the current study that synbiotics have downregulated IL-6, STAT3,
534 COX-2, and TNF- α genes, which are normally associated with inflammation and
535 tumorigenesis in colon epithelium could possibly disclose new promising therapeutic
536 avenue for patients with colitis-associated colorectal cancer.

537

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548

549 **Disclosures**

550 The authors declare no conflicts of interest associated with this manuscript.

551

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709

710 **Supporting information**

711 **S1 Table. Disease activity score assessment (maximum score 12).**

712 **S2 Table. Histopathological scoring (maximum score 11).**

713 NC3Rs ARRIVE Guidelines Checklist.

714

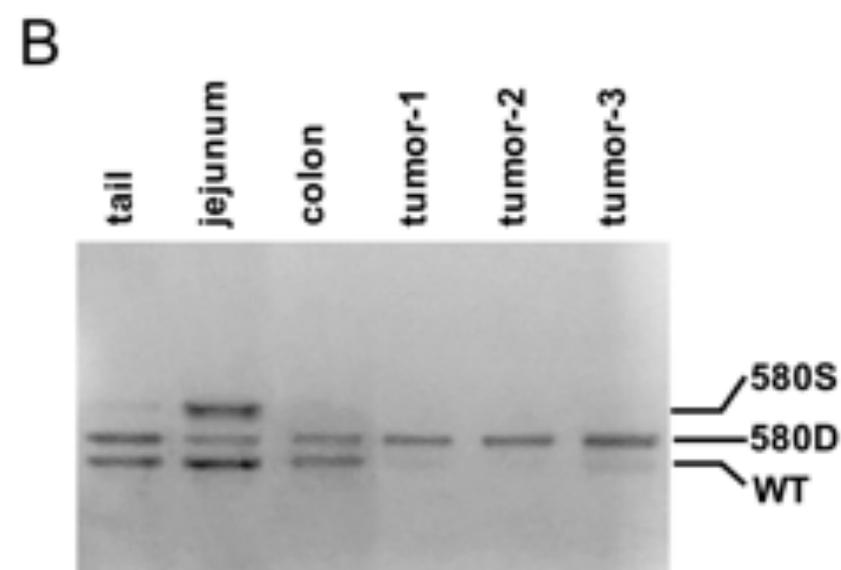
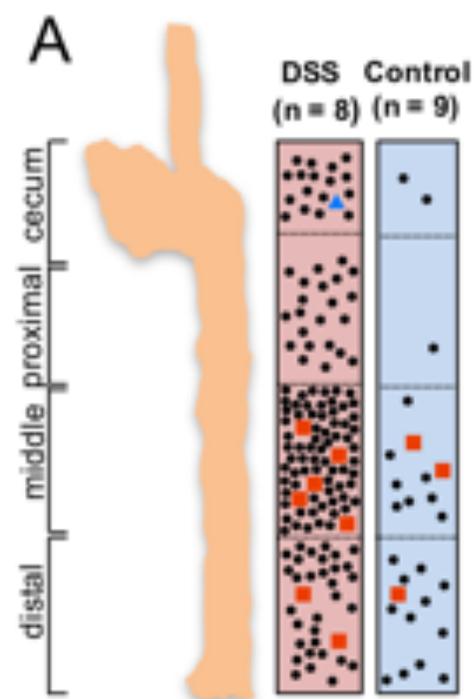


Fig. 1-a Saito Y et al.

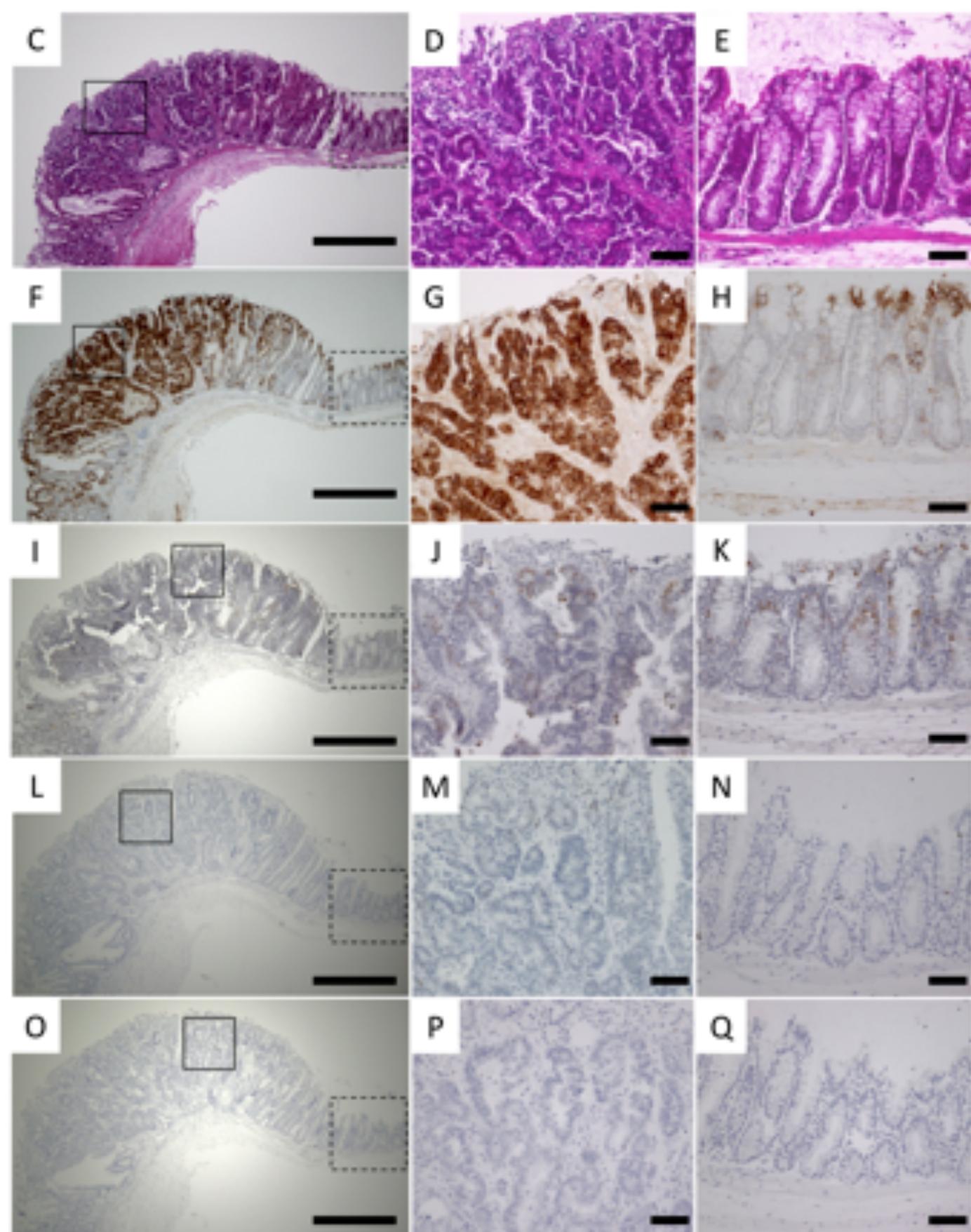


Fig.1-b Saito Y et al.

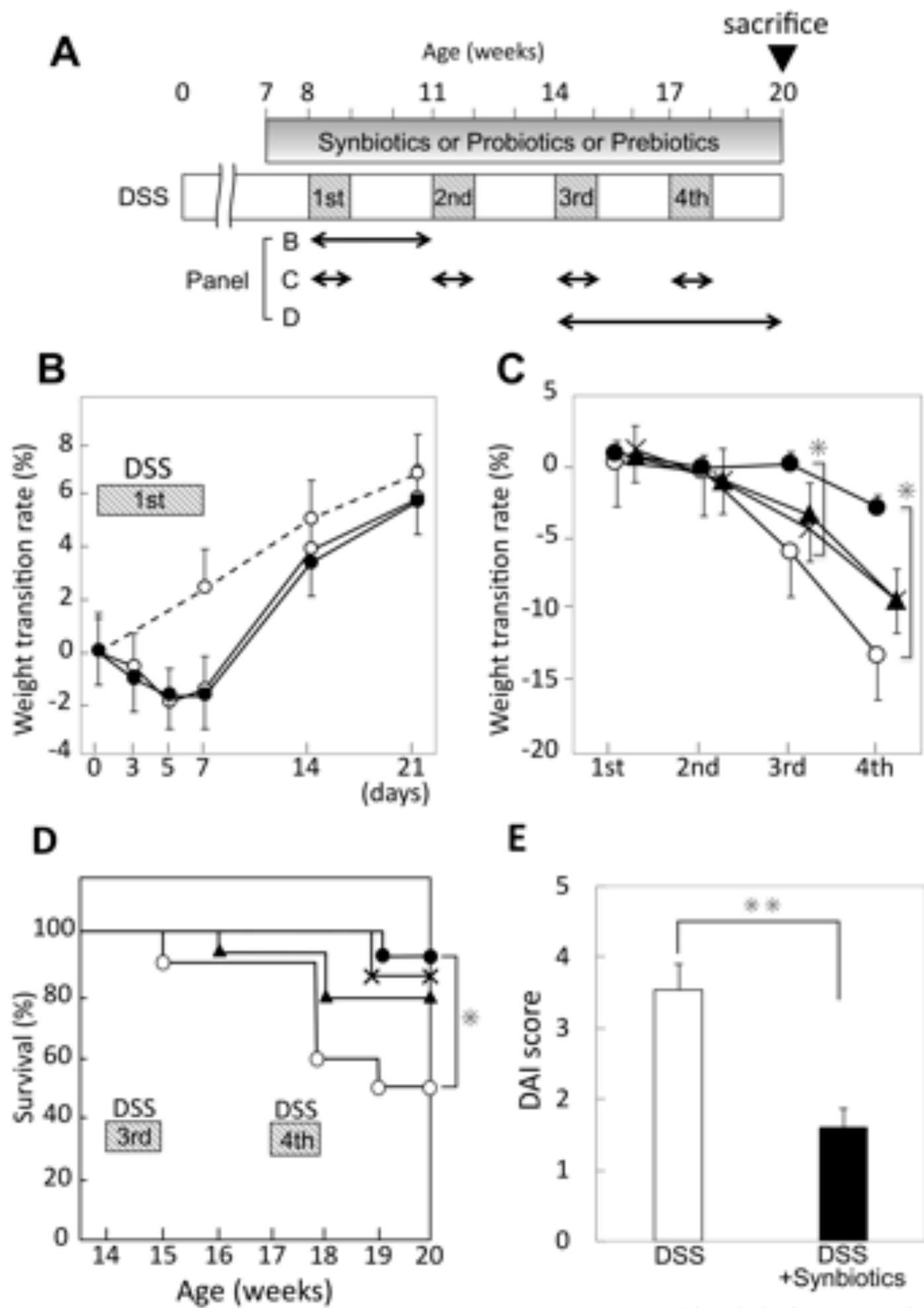


Fig. 2 Saito Y et al.

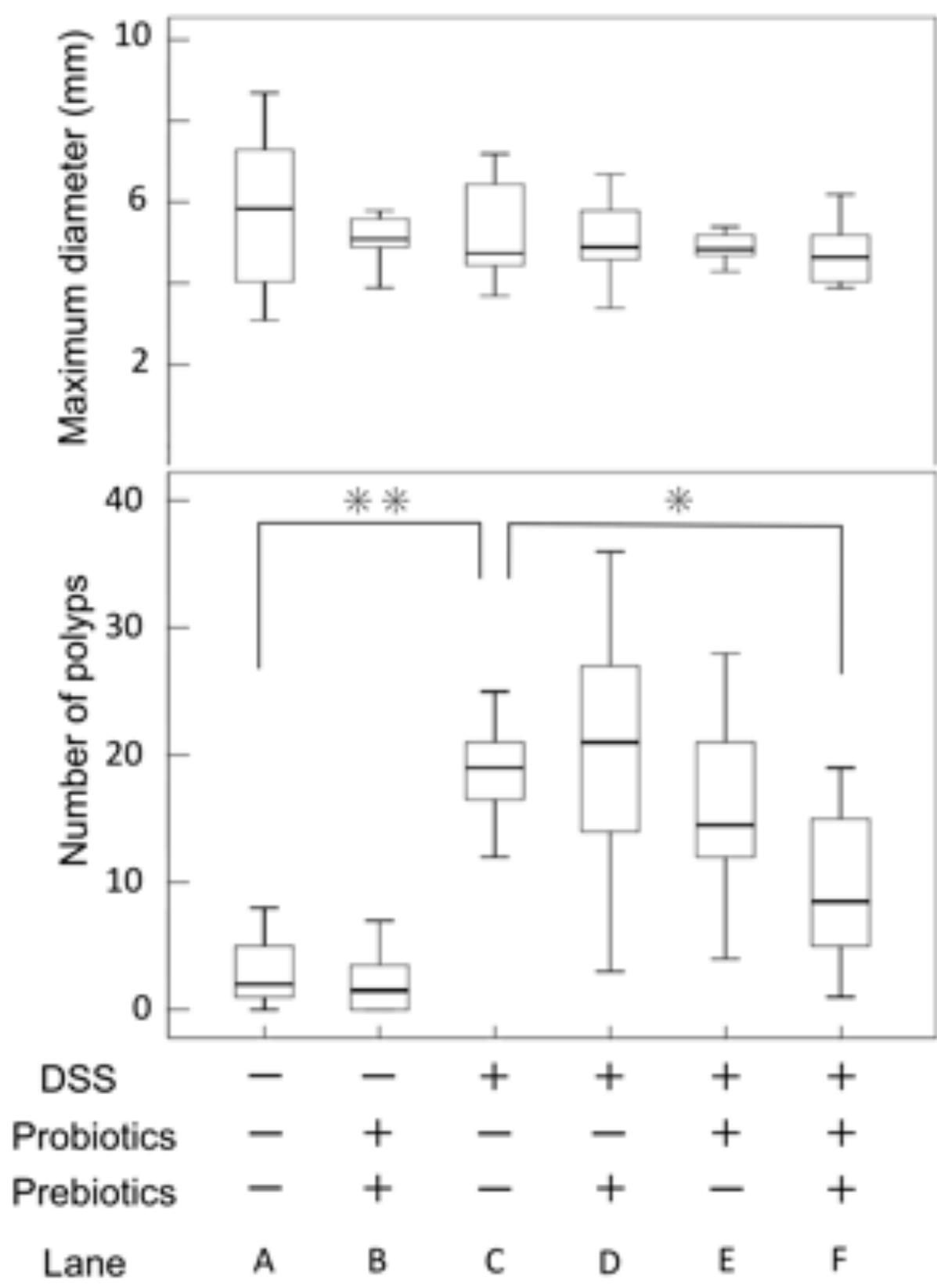
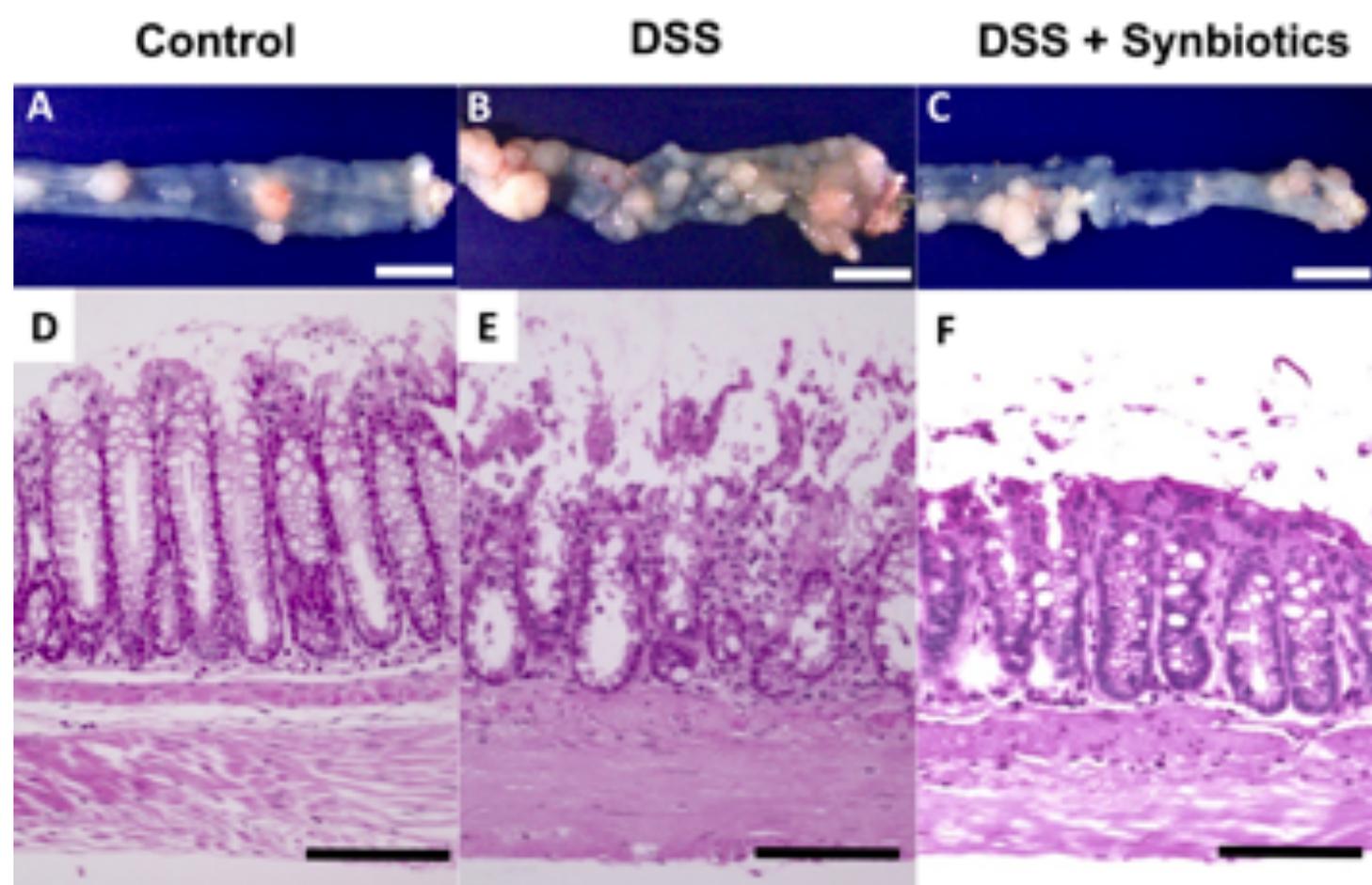


Fig. 3 Saito Y et al.



G Histological Score

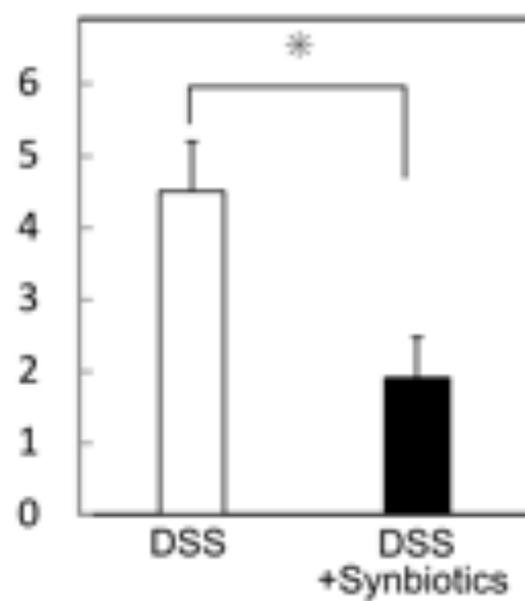


Fig. 4 Saito Y et al.

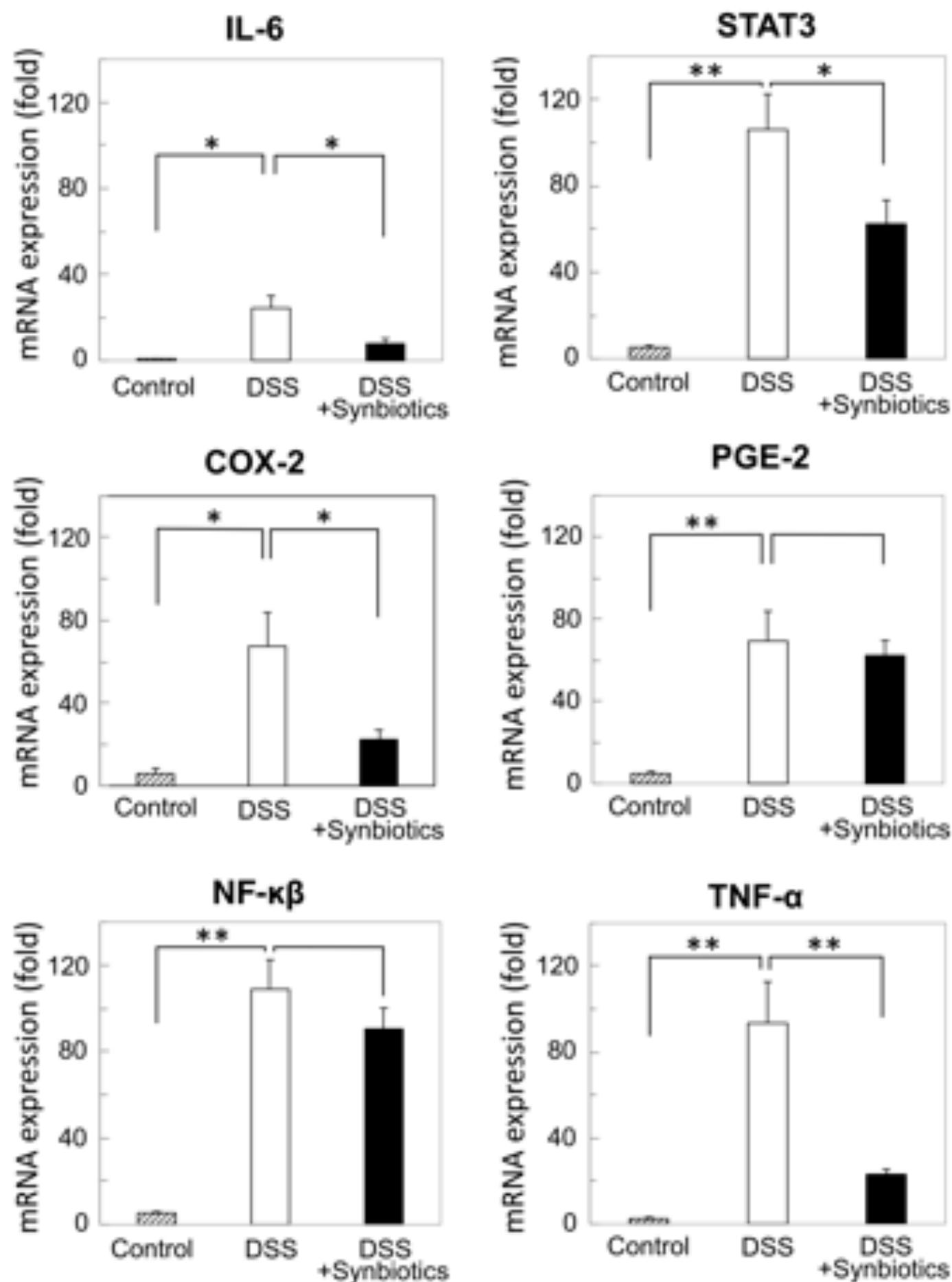


Fig. 5 Saito Y et al.

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Synbiotics suppress colitis-induced tumorigenesis in a colon-specific cancer mouse model

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