

INFLAMMATION IS RELATIVELY LINKED TO CANCER AND PLAYS A SIGNIFICANT ROLE IN TUMOR FORMATION AND PROGRESSION

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INTRODUCTION

Inflammation, is relatively linked to cancer and it has a significant aspect in tumor formation and its progression. Chronic inflammation leads to carcinogenesis by the stimulation of tumor cell proliferation, angiogenesis, and metastasis while diminishing responsiveness to the immune system as well as anti-cancer agents. A microenvironment highly rich in inflammatory cells, growth factors, and chemicals that promotes DNA damage, leads to long-term and enhances cell proliferation and its survival, increasing the risk of cancer. Several epidemiological studies have indicated a significant relationship between inflammation and cancer. Tumor cells grow similarly to inflammatory cells in terms of phenotype because they produce cytokines, chemokines, and their receptors. Chronic synthesis of these inflammatory mediators can induce tissue and DNA damage, resulting in the accumulation of mutations in Ep while accelerating their proliferation. Mutated cells extend to release cytokines and attract inflammatory cells, contributing to angiogenesis, migration, and metastasis by creating a cancer inflammatory microenvironment. Many anti-inflammatory medicines, particularly NSAIDs, can impair the tumour microenvironment by decreasing cell migration and increasing apoptosis and chemosensitivity. Long-term NSAID medication was associated with a low risk of initial or recurring malignancies.

INFLAMMATION

Inflammation is a natural response to microbial pathogen infection and wound healing. Activated endothelium, macrophages, and mast cells located in the tissues recruit neutrophils to inflammatory regions by releasing appropriate mediators in response to tissue damage. Neutrophils are the first effectors of inflammation, and they are recruited via a four-step process that includes activation of P-, L-, and E-selectins to promote cell rolling along the vascular endothelium, activation of leukocyte integrins, neutrophil adhesion on the vascular endothelium, and transmigration to the inflammatory sites.

[ABBREVIATIONS :Inflamm - INFLAMMATION ; Ep - EPITHELIAL CELLS]

NOMENCLATURE

The suffix 'itis' is commonly used to signify the nomenclature of an inflammatory lesion. Thus, inflamm of the appendix is referred to as appendicitis.

ETIOLOGY

There are many factors responsible for inflamm in an individual:

NON-INFECTIOUS FACTORS

- **Physical:** Physical injury, ionizing radiation, trauma, Burn, foreign bodies,
- **Chemical:** Alcohol, fatty acids, glucose, chemical irritants, toxins
- **Biological:** Cell injury
- **Psychological:** Exhilaration

INFECTIOUS FACTORS

Viruses, Bacteria and other microbes.

CLASSIFICATION OF INFLAMMATION

Inflamm may be classified as- 1. Acute and 2. Chronic

ACUTE INFLAMMATION

Acute inflammation is the body's initial response to harmful stimuli, and it is characterised by an increase in the flow of plasma and leukocytes (especially granulocytes) from the circulation into the injured tissues.

PROLONGED INFLAMMATION

Chronic inflammation is long-term inflammation. This causes a progressive shift in the kind of cells present at the site of inflammation, such as mononuclear cells, and is characterised by the inflammatory process's simultaneous destruction and repair of tissue. Moving leukocytes from the circulation into tissue boosts the inflammatory response.

SYMPTOMS

Inflammation symptoms differ depending on whether the reaction is immediate or persistent. The abbreviation "PRISH" summarises the consequences of acute inflammation. They are as follows:

- **Pain:** Chemicals that stimulate nerve endings are produced, increasing the sensitivity of the region.
- **Swelling:** This is due to a fluid build-up.
- **Redness:** This occurs because the capillaries in the area are filled with more blood than usual.
- **Heat:** More blood rushes to the afflicted region, making it warm to the touch.
- **Immobility:** There may be some loss of function in the inflamed area.

These five acute inflamm markers only apply to skin inflamms. Chronic inflammatory symptoms can be beneficial in a variety of ways. Examples include fatigue, fever, mouth sores, rash, chest discomfort, joint and stomach pain.

PATHOPHYSIOLOGY AND MOLECULAR MECHANISM OF INFLAMMATION

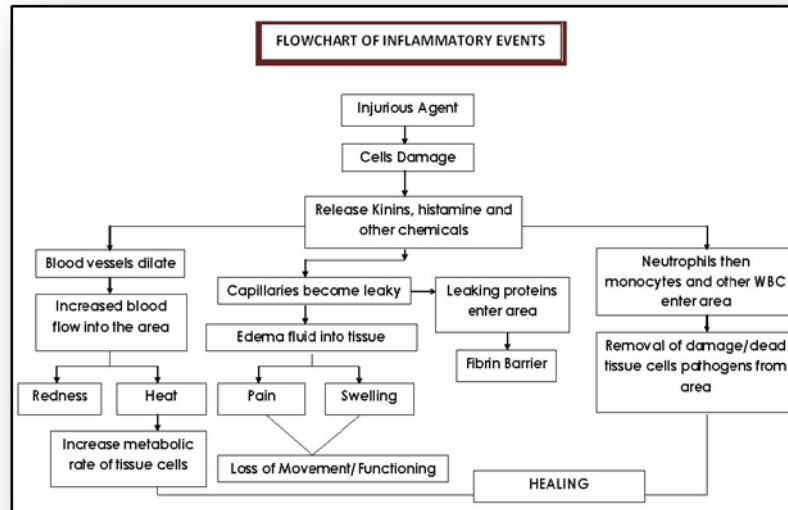


FIG – 1: PATHOPHYSIOLOGY OF INFLAMMATION

Initially, host cells detect inflammation through transmembrane receptors called pattern-receptors, which are produced by both innate and adaptive immune cells.

They do this by identifying structures conserved in microorganisms known as pathogen-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs) and endogenous chemicals derived from internal damage known as hazard-associated molecular patterns (DAMPs). The second step involves maturation of IL-1 by caspase-1-mediated cleavage of pro-IL-1. This requires a 'caspase-1-activating' high-molecular-weight complex known as the inflammasome.

Members of the $\text{NK-}\kappa\text{B}$ family share structural similarity with the retroviral oncoprotein v-Rel at the N-terminus known as the Rel homology region (RHR), forming stable homodimers and heterodimers. It promotes the generation of homomers. In response to stimulation, $\text{NK-}\kappa\text{B}$ dimers are released into the cytoplasm and translocate to the nucleus, where they trigger specific gene expression. In addition to $\text{NK-}\kappa\text{B}$, several other transcription factors play important roles in selective activation of inflammatory genes. Activator protein-1 (AP-1), to name a few, is a heterodimer of the basic leucine zipper proteins c-Jun and c-Fos. Cyclic AMP (cAMP) Response Element Binding Protein (CREB), cAMP inducer. E2F, a transcription factor activated by the adenoviral E1A protein in adenovirus-

infected cells. Serum response factor (SRF) and related ternary complex factor (TCF) involved in serum induction of Fos transcription. “Figure-1” shows a schematic diagram of the pathophysiology of inflammation.

INFLAMMATION AND CANCER

Several epidemiological and clinical studies have shown associations between inflammation and cancer. For example, ulcerative colitis and Crohn's disease may increase tumor risk, whereas anti-colitis drugs may minimize this process.

Additionally, microbial agents or chemical irritants often cause inflammation. For example, *Helicobacter pylori* infection or Hepatitis B and viruses can predispose to cancer.

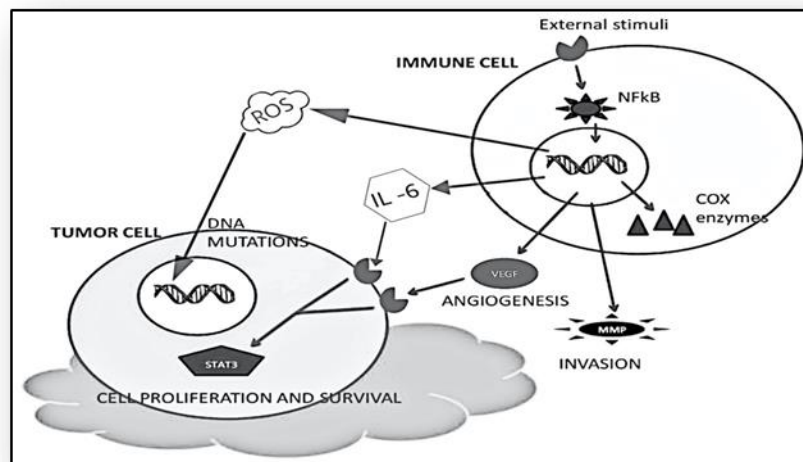


FIG – 2: INFLAMMATION AND CANCER

A variety of inflammatory and carcinogenic agents can activate the transcription factor NF- κ B. IL-6 and growth factors induce STAT3 activation leading to cell proliferation and survival, whereas metalloproteinases degrade membrane substrates and promote cell invasion. In addition, macrophages secrete numerous reactive oxygen species (ROS) and antimicrobial mutagens. They cause DNA alteration that induces persistent tissue damage and contribute to tumorigenesis. These cytokines released at the tumor site are intrinsic signals for lymphocyte recruitment, but their importance in tumor progression is unknown. Mutant cells can create a tumor inflammatory environment enriched with macrophages, neutrophils, eosinophils, dendritic cells, mast cells and lymphocytes, all of which play important roles in inflammatory malignancy.

cies.increase.Tumor-associated macrophages (particularly TAMs) contribute to angiogenesis and promote tumor growth by secreting specific factors such as cytokines and growth factors, endothelin-2, and urokinase-type plasminogen activator that suppresses immune responses. can facilitate progress. "Figure 2" shows a schematic diagram of inflammation and cancer.

THE ORIGINS AND TYPES OF INFLAMMATION IN CANCER

Inflammation may play an important role in cancer, from the onset of the malignant phenotype to metastatic progression "Figure-3" and metastases in distant places "Figure-4".

INFLAMMATION ARISING FROM INFECTION, AUTOIMMUNITY OR THE ENVIRONMENT

There are many examples of inflammation that contribute to the onset of cancer, including (1) infectious agents that directly cause cancer, e.g. feline leukemia virus, or inflammatory viruses, e.g.: *Helicobacter pylori* causes mucosal-associated lymphoma (MALT) or gastric carcinoma in humans; (2) immune-mediated diseases that promote chronic inflammation, e.g. inflammatory bowel disease IBD and colon cancer; (3) subclinical inflammation, for example: obesity causes inflammation and leads to liver cancer; (4) environmental carcinogens, e.g. smoke pollution.

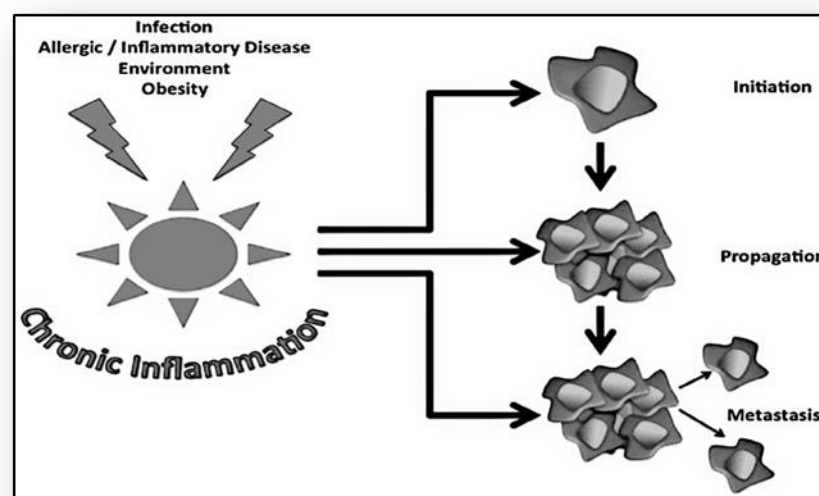


FIG –3: ROLE OF INFLAMMATION IN CANCER

INFLAMMATION ARISING FROM TUMOURS

The microenvironment maintains a persistent inflammatory state once tumours are established. Tumours elicit an innate inflammatory response and proto-tumoral microenvironments supported by macrophage infiltration and regulated by chemical mediators such as interleukins IL-8 and IL-10. Cell Infiltration, Cytokines, Chemokines: (1) It is proangiogenic and promotes angiogenesis in cancer; (2) acts as a growth factor for tumor cells; (3) promotes epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition (EMT).

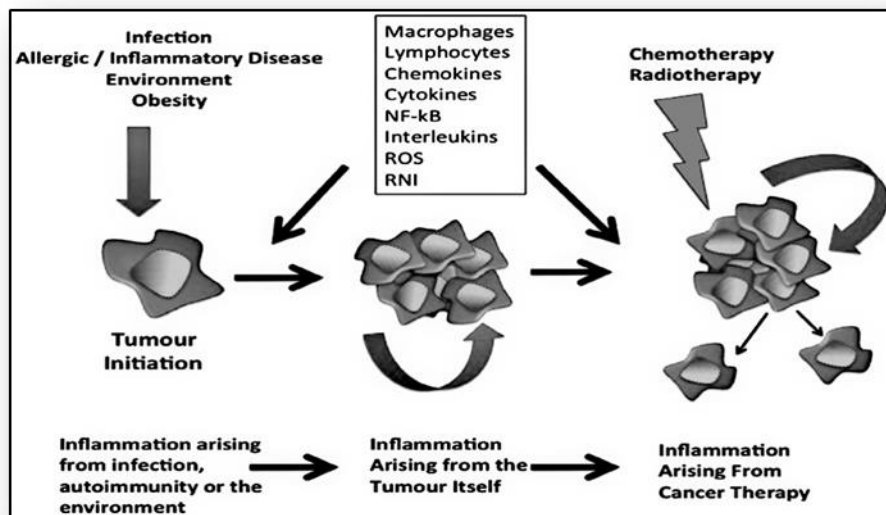


FIG – 4: ORIGIN OF CANCER RELATED INFLAMMATION

INFLAMMATION ARISING FROM CANCER THERAPY

Contrary to popular belief, standard cancer treatments (chemotherapy and radiation therapy) may promote tumor development by increasing inflammation. Chemotherapy and radiation can damage cells and cause inflammation-inducing necrosis. “Figure - 5” shows a schematic diagram of tumour initiation through the effects on DNA.

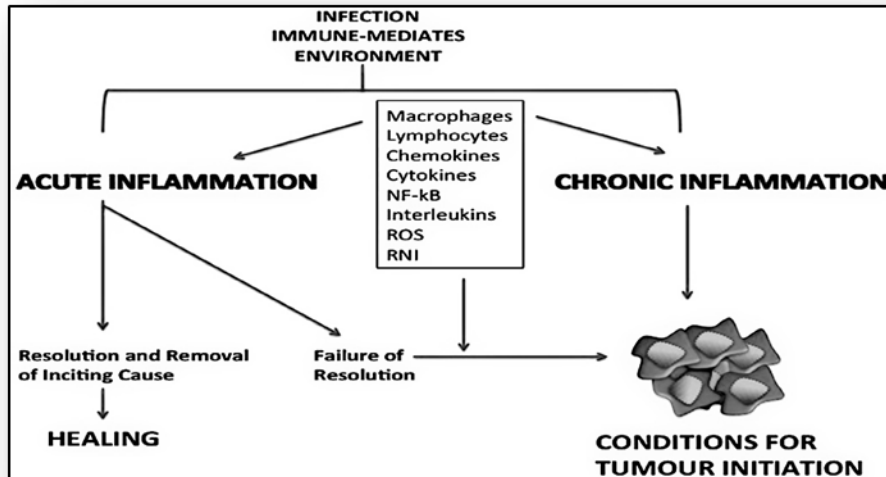


FIG – 5: TUMOUR INITIATION THROUGH THE EFFECTS ON DNA

THE KEY MEDIATORS OF INFLAMMATION

There are two mechanisms that link inflammation and cancer.

Exogenous and endogenous ("Figure 6"). Upon activation, NF- κ B secretes inflammatory mediators, growth factors, and metalloproteases that contribute to the establishment of the inflammatory tumour microenvironment. For example, cytokines, growth factors, and differentiation factors involved in regulating immune cell proliferation and differentiation contribute to cancer by activating cell proliferation and inhibiting and inhibiting apoptosis of damaged cells through different molecular signaling cascades.

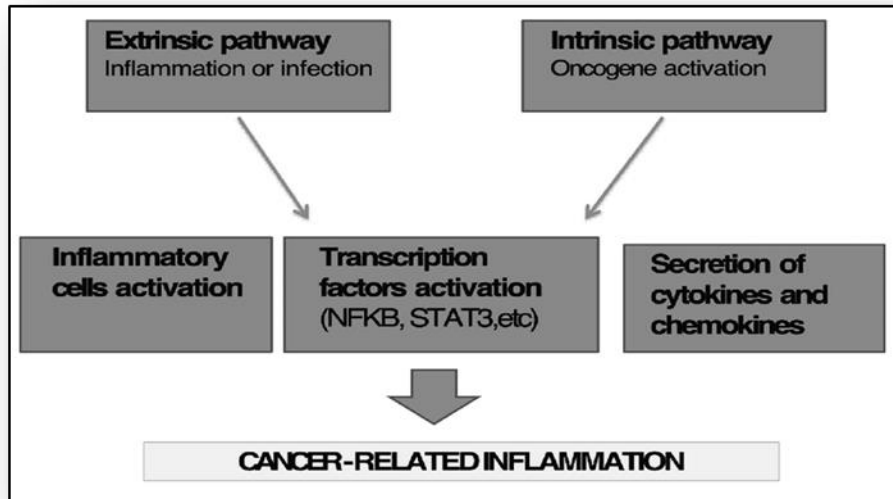


FIG – 6 : LINK BETWEEN INFLAMMATION AND CANCER

TUMOR NECROSIS FACTOR ALPHA (TNF-ALPHA)

It can also suppress the expression of adiponectin, glute-4, PPAR-, and perilipin in adipocytes. Studies have shown that TNF- α produces additional pro-inflammatory cytokines such as IL-1 and IL-8 in her Caco-2 or HT-29 cell lines.

1. HISTAMINE

Histamine is a vasodilator, smooth muscle constrictor, and stimulator of vascular permeability, respiratory mucus, and stomach acid production.

2. LEUKOTRIENES

The biologic combination, also known as the anaphylactic slow-reacting substance, is made up of leukotriene (LT) C₄ and its derivatives, LTD₄ and LTE₄.

3. PROSTAGLANDINS

Prostaglandins are another type of arachidonic acid-derived molecule that mediates allergic responses. Human mast cells produce PGD₂ after being triggered by the Ig-E receptor or a calcium ionophore.

4. CYTOKINES AND CHEMOKINES

Cytokines such as IL-1, -2, -4, -5, -6, and GM-CSF impact the development of allergic inflammation by influencing the activity of inflammatory cells such as eosinophils, macrophages, B cells and T cells.

5. iNOS AND NO SECRETION

iNOS is an enzyme that interferes with NO production and is overexpressed in variations of chronic inflammation and cancer processes. Activation of iNOS by proinflammatory cytokines or NF- κ B causes DNA damage, reduces DNA repair, and promotes cancer development.

6. LOX AND COX PATHWAYS

5-

LOX has been detected in human or animal cancer cell lines such as brain, breast, colon, kidney, mesothelium, esophageal mucosa, pancreas, and prostate, and most of these investigations also increased 5-

LOX products. A recent study shows that 5-

LOX expression in papillary thyroid carcinoma (PTC) promotes carcinogenesis through induction of metalloproteinases (MMPs). These enzymes are of two types:

•COX-

1, is constitutively expressed in many cells and is primarily involved in the physiological production of prostanooids.

•COX-2, Its expression is often induced in cells in inflammatory conditions.

7. JAK/STAT PATHWAY

The STAT3 (signal transducer and activator of transcription 3) protein is a constitutive transcription factor present in a variety of human cancers, including multiple myeloma, leukemia, lymphoma, breast cancer, prostate cancer, and squamous cell carcinoma of the head and neck.

8. CREB SIGNALING PATHWAY

Cell survival, neuron growth, and metabolism all rely on CREB. For example, CREB-mediated gene expression is necessary for nerve growth factor (NGF)-induced cell survival, which improves sympathomimetic neuron survival by activating downstream target genes.

THE ROLE OF INFLAMMATION IN TUMOUR INITIATION AND MAINTENANCE

Tumor products have an impact on inflammatory conditions; immunosuppressive cytokines allow immune evasion and the recruitment of tumor-promoting inflammatory cells such as myeloid-derived suppressor cells, regulatory T cells, and tumor-promoting (M2) macrophages "Figure -7". The tumour microenvironment is a complex network of interactions between tumour cells, supporting stroma, and inflammatory cells that collaborate to maintain the malignant phenotype "Figure - 8". Cancer and inflammation are intricately linked ("Table - 1").

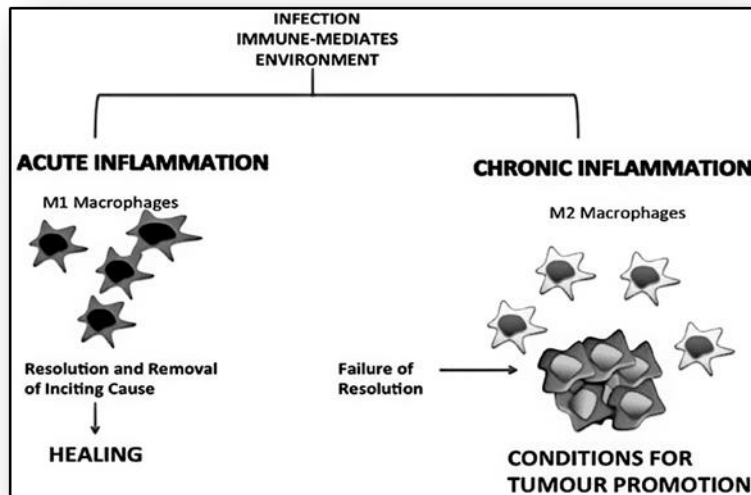


FIG – 7 : TWO ENDS OF A PHENOTYPIC SPECTRUM OF MACROPHAGES

BRIDGING CANCER AND INFLAMMATION

After exposure to pathogens, innate and specific immune responses can work together to eliminate the source of infection and avoid additional tissue damage during acute inflammation. This not only prolongs immune cell infiltration, but also leads to the formation of reactive oxygen species (ROS), reactive nit

rogenspecies(RNA),andmacrophagemigrationinhibitoryfactor(MIF),allofwhichcancauseDNA damage.

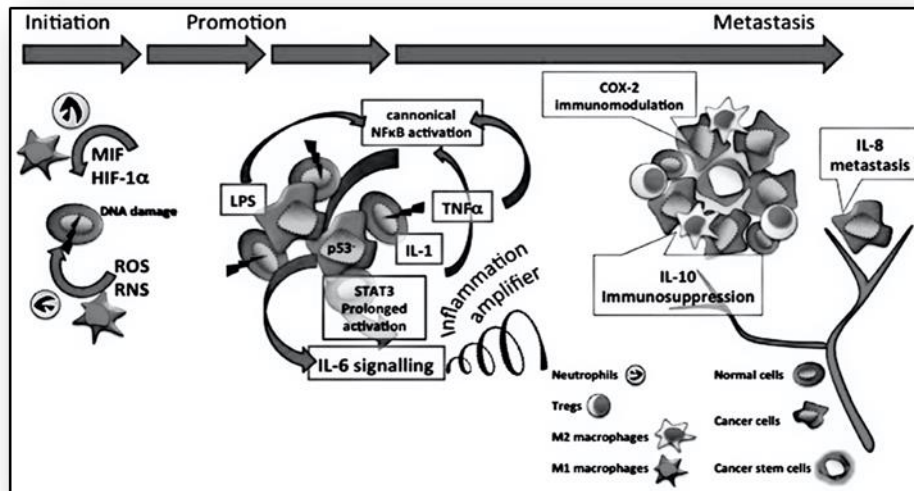


FIG – 8 : SUMMARY OF THE CELLS AND MEDIATORS WITHIN THE TUMOUR MICROENVIRONMENT

► **CENTRAL ROLE OF NF-κB**

NF-κB is important in regulation of the immune response to infection, and its dysregulation has related to illness such as autoimmunity and cancer. This molecule's critical involvement in cancer may be summarised as follows: (1) constitutive NF-κB expression has been identified in many cancer types, supporting its role in promoting the cancer phenotype; (2) dysregulation of the NF-κB pathway has documented in haematological malignancies and lymphoma; these lymphoid malignancies feature aberrant NF-κB activation, which promotes tumorigenic cell survival, protects against apoptosis and favours oncogenesis; (3) Constitutive NF-κB activation is a characteristic of chronic inflammatory illness, which is connected to an elevated risk of cancer.; (4) The primary cause of dysregulation of the NF-κB signalling pathway in human non-lymphoma Hodgkin's (NHL) includes chromosomal abnormalities (e.g. Epstein Barr virus, human T-

cell leukaemia virus-1); (5) Up-regulation of anti-apoptotic Bcl-2 family proteins as a result of persistent activation of the NF- κ B pathway; (6) The development of resistance in the cytotoxic effects of chemotherapeutic drugs is a serious barrier to current cancer therapy. Many chemotherapeutic drugs that induce p53-mediated apoptosis also activate NF- κ B.

NF- κ B inhibition increases the effectiveness of anti-cancer drugs and decreases the incidence of resistance to these treatments in numerous in vivo and in vitro models, making NF- κ B a prospective therapeutic target in oncology. Thus, the NF- κ B signaling pathway is involved in complex interactions with many cancer signaling pathways (protein kinases, c-Jun N-terminal kinase, STAT3, and transcription factors such as p53), potentially. Concerns have been raised about its use. Use of NF- κ B inhibitors for cancer treatment with unforeseen side effects.

INFLAMMATION AS TARGET FOR CANCER PREVENTION

Since inflammation can predispose to tumorigenesis, targeting inflammation and molecules involved in inflammatory processes (COX-2 cyclooxygenase 2, NF- κ B, VEGF) may be beneficial for cancer prevention and treatment method (“[Table-1](#)”).

1. NSAIDs

Cancer prevention by NSAIDs works by interfering with the eicosanoid system. NSAIDs are less toxic than conventional chemotherapy, have non-specific effects, and can reduce tumorigenesis by interacting with the tumor's inflammatory microenvironment. Several studies have shown that anti-inflammatory drugs can improve apoptosis and sensitivity to standard treatments while reducing invasion and metastasis, leading them to promising alternatives for cancer treatment.

2. CORTICOSTEROIDS

Corticosteroids are effective in reducing the side effects of chemotherapy and radiation therapy, and some studies have shown significant benefits in fighting cancer, either alone or in combination. Dexamethasone therapy enhanced the anti-tumor efficacy of conventional drugs in various animal cancer models.

TABLE – 1 : PREVENTIVE AND ANTICANCER EFFECTS OF ANTI-INFLAMMATORY DRUGS

SL NO.	DRUG	EFFECT
1	ASPIRIN	Induced activation of NF-kB pathway in colon cancer cells, Preventive effect on bladder cancer, breast cancer, colorectal cancer, esophageal cancer, lung cancer
2	COLECOXIB	Induced apoptosis in prostate cancer cells, Preventive effect on bladder cancer, breast cancer, colorectal cancer, esophageal cancer, lung cancer, cervix cancer, neuroblastoma
3	DEXAMETHASONE	Induced cell death in multiple myeloma mediated by miR-125b expression, Preventive effect on breast cancer, rectal cancer, multiple myeloma
4	IBUPROFEN	Inhibited activation of nuclear β -catenin in human colon adenomas, Preventive effect on breast cancer
5	PIROXICAM	Prevented colon carcinogenesis by inhibition of membrane fluidity and canonical Wnt/ β -catenin signaling, Preventive effect on colorectal cancer
6	SULINDAC	Induced activation of NF-kB pathway in colon cancer cells, Preventive effect on breast cancer

ANTI-CANCER EFFECTS OF ANTI-INFLAMMATORY AGENTS

Several preclinical and clinical studies have shown that a combination of chemotherapeutic and anti-inflammatory agents improves patient prognosis. Although the mechanism of action behind the anti-cancer effects of anti-inflammatory drugs is unknown, three major possible processes have been characterized.

I. CHEMOPROTECTION

This side effect profile of standard anticancer therapies is one of the difficulties. Chemotherapy often causes toxicity to both the tumor and various normal tissues, reducing the patient's quality of life. Some studies have shown that combining conventional treatments with anti-inflammatory drugs can reduce the side effects of chemotherapy. For example, in patients with metastatic prostate cancer, combined treatment with celecoxib and docetaxel reduced myelotoxicity,

whereas celecoxib combined with FOLFIRI (folinic acid, fluorouracil, and irinotecan) or capecitabine and diarrhea. The GECO (gemcitabine-celecoxib) study evaluated the effect of celecoxib in combination with gemcitabine in patients with NSCLC and found that 3 months of celecoxib treatment improved quality of life. Another glucocorticoid, budesonide, has been used in combination with irinotecan to reduce episodes of diarrhea.

II. ALTERATIONS IN PHARMACOKINETICS OR METABOLISM

Anti-inflammatory drugs can alter the pharmacokinetics of other drugs. Glucocorticoids do not affect plasma pharmacokinetics, but alter the absorption of gemcitabine or carboplatin from the spleen and bone marrow, increasing the number of drugs reaching the tumor.

In addition, anti-inflammatory drugs may affect chemotherapy metabolism. For example, rofecoxib acts as a CYP1A2 inhibitor causing changes in the concentration, half-life, and clearance of other drugs metabolized by CYP1A2. Dexamethasone increases CYP2D6 activity, which celecoxib decreases, impairing the efficacy of the CYP2D6 substrate tamoxifen. Diclofenac inhibits DMXAA glucuronidation by inhibiting its metabolism and increasing plasma concentrations.

III. CHEMOSENSITIZATION

In addition to the ability of anti-inflammatory agents to reduce the toxicity of conventional treatments by altering metabolism, the beneficial anticancer effects of combinations of anti-inflammatory and chemotherapeutic agents are likely due to chemo-sensitization of anti-inflammatory agents. Several preclinical studies have shown that celecoxib is additive or synergistic in vitro when combined with the topoisomerase II inhibitor doxorubicin, vincristine, or irinotecan. Notably, celecoxib in combination with irinotecan or doxorubicin suppressed tumor development in a neuroblastoma rat model. Furthermore, celecoxib sensitized prostate cancer cells to docetaxel in vitro and in vivo and sensitized glioma to radiation. Multiple studies have shown that NSAIDs promote apoptosis in multiple tumor types by directly acting on the NF- κ B pathway. Aspirin and sulindac can bind to NF- κ B in the nucleolus and inhibit transcription of NF-

kB targets such as cytokines, growth factors and adhesion molecules. Celecoxib enhanced the anti-tumor effect of doxorubicin by increasing I κ B expression and decreasing NF- κ B activity. Dexamethasone also inhibits the NF- κ B pathway.

Anti-inflammatory drugs can kill cancer cells by interfering with proteins involved in programmed cell death. For example, celecoxib enhanced the efficacy of docetaxel by activating caspases and PARP while reducing XIAP activity. Aspirin reduces NF- κ B activity by inhibiting caspases and pro-apoptotic proteins, possibly interfering with the proteasome. According to Dittmann et al. Cancer cells can be exposed to radiation by suppressing EGFR in a COX-2-independent manner.

NOVEL ANTI-INFLAMMATORY DRUGS WITH ANTI-CANCER ACTIVITY

Several clinical studies have been conducted evaluating the use of anti-inflammatory drugs in combination with chemotherapy regimens for cancer prevention and treatment, and anti-inflammatory drugs have shown promising efficacy and toxicity results.

1. ANTI-CANCER AGENTS BASED ON COX-2 INHIBITORS

Several studies evaluating the use of COX-2 inhibitors in cancer therapy have shown that the anti-tumor effects of these agents are independent of their ability to inhibit COX-2.

2. NO-DONATING NSAIDS

NO-donating NSAIDs are NSAID analogues with fewer side effects. These drugs retain the active ingredient that produces the anti-inflammatory effect and are attached to NO via a spacer. NO-NSAIDs containing aromatic spacers were more potent than those containing aliphatic spacers. Once produced, NO protects the gastrointestinal tract from damage caused by active drugs by reducing gastrointestinal toxicity. NO-donating compounds were made by modifying diclofenac, naproxen, aspirin, sulindac, and ibuprofen. Several NO-

donating NSAIDs caused apoptosis, growth inhibition, or cell cycle arrest in various forms of cancer in vitro and in vivo. All preclinical studies of NO-

donating NSAIDs have shown higher efficacy than NSAIDs, but further studies are needed to fully realize their potential in cancer prevention. NO-ASA (NO-

acetylsalicylic acid) showed synergistic or additive benefits in combination with oxaliplatin or 5-fluorouracil in colon cancer models and reduced cancer risk in induced pancreatic cancer models.

3. NATURAL PRODUCTS

Grapes/red wine (resveratrol), garlic (various chemicals), and curry powder are all anti-inflammatory foods or natural products (curcumin). Produced anticancer effects on cancer cells or xenografts. These chemicals act as anti-inflammatory agents by inhibiting VEGF or COX enzymes or by targeting NF- κ B, MAPK, and JNK signaling pathways, and their activity contributes to their anticancer activity.

Garlic compounds have been shown to enhance the anticancer effects of cytarabine and fludarabine in myeloid leukemia cells and improve the sensitivity of prostate cancer cells and xenograft tumors to docetaxel with fewer side effects.

4. LOX INHIBITORS

Many researchers have proposed 5-LOX inhibitors (Zileuton, ZYflo, ABT-761), FLAP inhibitors (MK-886) used pharmacological tools such as LTA₄ hydrolase and LTs antagonists (zafirlukast and montelukast) block cell proliferation. Anti-LT therapies that increase and induce apoptosis show promise for cancer prevention and treatment, but few clinical studies have been conducted to evaluate the efficacy of 5-LOX inhibitors in anti-tumor therapy. Treatment with LOX inhibitors dramatically inhibited cell proliferation in several pancreatic cell lines. In vivo experiments using athymic mice showed that LOX inhibitors suppress tumor growth and have potential applications in the prevention and treatment of pancreatic cancer. Gosh found that inhibition of his 5-LOX by her MKAP1, a FLAP inhibitor, caused apoptosis in LNCaP and PC3 cell lines. 5-LOX inhibitors induced apoptosis in esophageal cancer cells, whereas 12-LOX inhibitors showed anti-proliferative and pro-

apoptotic effects on gastric cancer cells. Finally, several experiments with hematopoietic cells showed that the inhibitor 5-LOX AA861 caused apoptosis in the leukemia cell line P388.

5. EMBELIN AND ITS DERIVATIVES

Embelin is a benzoquinone derivative that can impair arachidonic acid metabolism. Its structure consists of a 2,5-dihydroxy-1,4-benzoquinone polar core linked at the 3-position to a long hydrophobic alkyl chain that confers solubility in polar phases and allows the molecule to cross cell barriers. It has been. Collaborative research with professor Oliver Werz (University of Jena, Germany) showed that this molecule can inhibit both 5-LOX and mPGES-1 activity with IC₅₀ values of 0.06 and 0.2 μM, respectively. Chronic structure of the membrane is important for inhibitory effects. This molecule has been shown to be able to block enzymes without going through the hydroquinone reduction pathway. Docking experiments showed that embelin does not behave like an iron chelator, but fits with its non-decylated chain into the hydrophobic channel where the iron-catalyzed oxygenation process of AA normally takes place. The benzoquinone ring forms hydrogen bonds with three amino acids (Gln363, Gln557, and Tyr181) to maintain contact between enzyme molecules. Two water molecules that co-crystallize with the complex and form hydrogen bonds with two amino acids, Asn425 and Thr364, facilitate the interaction between embelin and 5-LOX. Recent studies have shown that embelin and its derivatives have antioxidant properties. “Figure 9” shows a schematic diagram of anticancer effects of embelin.

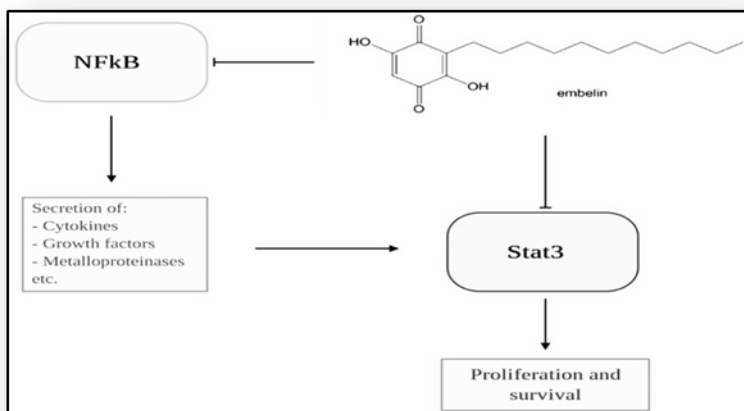


FIG – 9: ANTICANCER EFFECTS OF EMBELIN

CONCLUSION

Inflammation is closely associated with cancer and plays an important role in tumor growth and progression. Therefore, there is a need to target inflammation alone or in combination with chemotherapeutic agents for cancer prevention and treatment. Many anti-inflammatory drugs can be used as adjuncts to conventional therapy, but further research is needed to fully exploit the potential of anti-cancer agents. Early detection and treatment of chronic inflammation can help prevent cancer from developing. Widespread off-target effects and toxicity limit the use of FDA-approved anti-inflammatory drugs in cancer therapy. A better understanding of the critical role of inflammation in cancer is needed to develop more effective alternative therapies.

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