

Original Article

Dimethylarsinic acid may promote prostate carcinogenesis in rats

Shugo Suzuki^{1*}, Takeshi Toyoda², Hiroyuki Kato¹, Aya Naiki-Ito¹, Yoriko Yamashita¹, Jun-ichi Akagi², Young-Man Cho², Kumiko Ogawa², and Satoru Takahashi¹

¹ Department of Experimental Pathology and Tumor Biology, Nagoya City University Graduate School of Medical Sciences, 1 Kawasumi, Mizuho-Cho, Mizuho-Ku, Nagoya, Aichi 467-8601, Japan

² Division of Pathology, National Institute of Health Sciences, 3-25-26 Tonomachi, Kawasaki, Kanagawa 210-9501, Japan

Abstract: Arsenic is a known human carcinogen, inducing tumors of the lung, urinary bladder, skin, liver and prostate. However, there are no reports of prostate tumors induced by arsenicals in *in vivo* animal models. In a previous study, we found that HMGB2 expression was a predictive marker for prostate carcinogens in the rat 4-week repeated dose test. In this study, six-week-old male F344 rats were orally treated with a total of six chemicals (2-acetylaminofluorene (2-AAF), p-cresidine, dimethylarsinic acid (DMA), glycidol, N-nitrosodiethylamine and acrylamide) for four weeks. Animals were sacrificed at the end of the study, and HMGB2 and Ki-67 immunohistochemistry was performed. The numbers of HMGB2- and Ki-67- positive cells in all prostate lobes were significantly increased by DMA, one of the arsenicals, compared with the controls. Meanwhile, the number of Ki-67-positive cells in lateral and dorsal prostate lobes was significantly decreased by 2-AAF with the reduction of body weight, but HMGB2 expression was not. The other chemicals did not change HMGB2 and Ki-67 expression. These data indicate that DMA may have an ability to enhance prostate carcinogenesis. (DOI: 10.1293/tox.2018-0050; J Toxicol Pathol 2019; 32: 73–77)

Key words: dimethylarsinic acid (DMA), HMGB2, carcinogens, rat, prostate, carcinogenesis

Introduction

Arsenic is a known human carcinogen, inducing tumors of the lung, urinary bladder, skin, liver and prostate in individuals exposed to high concentrations, primarily through drinking water¹. The significant dose-response relationships between the level of arsenic in drinking water and the risk for prostate cancer mortality were reported in Taiwan². However, there were no reports of prostate tumors induced by arsenic in *in vivo* animal studies^{1,3}.

Recently, we investigated alternative molecular markers for the detection of prostatic carcinogens in a short period in rats, and found that high-mobility group protein B2 (HMGB2) expression is a useful screening tool for the identification of prostate carcinogens⁴. In this report, we evaluated immunohistochemistry of HMGB2 in the prostate of rats which underwent the standard repeated dose 28-day oral toxicity study, and detected up-regulation of HMGB2 with

prostate carcinogens. Meanwhile, there were no changes of HMGB2 positivity with chemicals that were carcinogens but not carcinogenic in the prostate. To increase the validity of the test method (using HMGB2 expression in prostate lobes with the 28-day toxicity study), we increased the number of test-chemicals and shared prostate samples from an experiment which investigated genotoxic urinary bladder carcinogens with immunohistochemistry for γ -H2AX⁵. The test-chemicals were carcinogens and mostly classified into the Group 2 category of carcinogenic risk evaluation by the International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC; <https://monographs.iarc.fr/list-of-classifications-volumes/>), but were not reported as prostate carcinogens. It was found that HMGB2 and/or Ki-67 expression was changed in the prostate of rats treated with dimethylarsinic acid (DMA) and 2-acetylaminofluorene (2-AAF).

Materials and Methods

Chemicals

The chemical used in the present study were as follows: 2-AAF (Tokyo Chemical Industry, Tokyo, Japan; Lot No. 243BD; purity, 99.8%), p-cresidine (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA; Lot No. BCBF1417V; purity, 99.5%), DMA (Sigma-Aldrich; Lot No. BCBJ3595V; purity, 100%), glycidol (Wako Pure Chemical Industries, Osaka, Japan; Lot No. PDM3910; purity, 97.0%), N-nitrosodiethylamine (DEN; Tokyo Chemical Industry; Lot No. FBMVM; purity,

Received: 28 September 2018, Accepted: 26 November 2018

Published online in J-STAGE: 21 December 2018

*Corresponding author: S Suzuki

(e-mail: shugo@med.nagoya-cu.ac.jp)

©2019 The Japanese Society of Toxicologic Pathology

This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution Non-Commercial No Derivatives

(by-nc-nd) License. (CC-BY-NC-ND 4.0: <https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/>).



99.9%), and acrylamide (AA; Wako; Lot No. PDJ0711; purity, 100%).

Animals

Five-week-old male F344/DuCrjCrj rats were obtained from Charles River Laboratories Japan (Atsugi, Japan). They were housed in plastic cages with hardwood chip bedding in an air-conditioned room at $23 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$ and $55 \pm 5\%$ humidity with a 12-h light/dark cycle and maintained on a basal certified diet (CRF-1; Oriental Yeast Co., Ltd., Tokyo, Japan) and tap water *ad libitum*. The experimental design was approved by the Animal Care and Utilization Committee of the National Institute of Health Sciences, Japan, and the animals were cared for in accordance with institutional guidelines as well as the Guidelines for Proper Conduct of Animal Experiments (Science Council of Japan, June 1, 2006).

Animal experiment

At the beginning of the experiments, the animals were randomly allocated to seven groups of five rats each based on their body weights (measured just before starting chemical treatment). Animals were administered 0.025% 2-AAF (carcinogenic to the bladder, renal pelvis, liver, pancreas and lung)⁶, 1.0% p-cresidine (bladder and olfactory neuroblastoma)⁷, 0.02% DMA (bladder)⁸, 0.04% glycidol (tunica vaginalis, mammary gland, brain and forestomach)⁹, 0.001% DEN (liver, esophagus, kidney, lung and nasal cavity)¹⁰, and 0.005% AA (thyroid gland, testes, heart, pancreas, clitoral gland, mammary gland, oral cavity and skin)¹¹ in their drinking water with light-shielded bottles (DMA, glycidol, DEN, and AA) or in basal diet (2-AAF and p-cresidine) for four weeks. All chemicals were administered at carcinogenic doses reported in previous studies. The diet and water were changed once and twice per week respectively. At experimental week 4, the animals were sacrificed by exsanguination under inhalation anesthesia with isoflurane, and subjected to laparotomy with excision of the prostate. The urogenital complex of each rat was removed as a whole together with the seminal vesicles, and then the ventral prostate was weighed. All prostate tissues were fixed in 10% formalin, routinely processed to paraffin-embedded sections, and stained with hematoxylin and eosin (H&E). Necropsy was performed on one rat which died on day 20; the liver, kidneys and urinary bladder were removed and fixed in 10% formalin, routinely processed to paraffin-embedded sections, and stained with H&E.

Immunohistochemistry

Prostate sections were treated with rabbit monoclonal HMGB2 antibody (Abcam plc, Cambridge, UK) or rabbit monoclonal Ki-67 for rats (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA, USA), followed by staining with BOND-MAX (Leica Biosystems, Wetzlar, Germany) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The numbers of HMGB2- or Ki-67-positive cells in at least 1,000 luminal cells of each prostate lobe were counted to determine their labeling in-

dices and compared with the respective lobe of the control rats.

Statistical analyses

Statistical analyses were performed with Prism ver. 6 (GraphPad Software, Inc., La Jolla, CA, USA). Values are presented as mean \pm SD values obtained using 1-way ANOVA and Dunnett's test. $P < 0.05$ was considered statistically significant.

Results

One rat treated with 0.02% DMA died on day 20, and severe tubular necrosis of the kidney was histopathologically observed. As this was considered to be a toxic effect of DMA, the administration dose for the final week was changed to 0.01%, which is still in the range of the carcinogenic dose¹². Body weight gain was significantly reduced in rats receiving 2-AAF, p-cresidine or DMA as compared with that of the controls (data not shown), and final body weights were significantly lower than that of the controls (Table 1). Ventral prostate weight was significantly reduced in 2-AAF-treated rats compared with that of the control (Table 1).

There were some atrophic changes in all prostate tissues of 2-AAF-treated rats (Fig. 1). In immunohistochemistry, DMA significantly increased the number of HMGB2-positive cells in all prostate lobes (ventral, lateral and dorsal) compared with the control in rats. In contrast, there was no statistical significant difference in HMGB2 positivity in the prostate lobes after exposure to the other chemicals compared with the control (Fig. 1 and Table 2). DMA also significantly increased the Ki-67 labeling index in all prostate lobes compared with the control. 2-AAF significantly reduced Ki-67 labeling index in lateral and dorsal prostate lobes compared to the control (Fig. 1 and Table 2). There was no statistically significant difference in Ki-67 expression after exposure to other chemicals in any prostate lobes compared with the respective controls (Table 2).

Discussion

Studies conducted in Taiwan (China) reported significant dose-response relationships between the level of arsenic in drinking water and the risk for prostate cancer mortality², however, the data from South America are not consistent with this observation¹³. Inorganic arsenic (arsenite and arsenate) is the most abundant form of arsenic in nature and is commonly present in soil, water, and food^{1, 14}. Most arsenicals are metabolized and excreted into DMA in urine of humans and rodents¹⁴⁻¹⁶. DMA is also reported to be mutagenic and genotoxic at high concentrations in *in vitro* studies¹⁷. Therefore, the carcinogenicity of DMA is important for human risk of arsenic. Meanwhile, there are no reports of carcinogenic effects of inorganic arsenic on all organs including prostate with animal experiments^{1, 3}. In the present study, we detected increased expression of

Table 1. The Final Body and Ventral Prostate Weights

Treatment	No. of rats	Body weight (g)	Ventral lobe weight (g)
Control	5	244.2 ± 9.5	0.17 ± 0.04
2-AAF	5	153.5 ± 7.3***	0.05 ± 0.02***
p-Cresidine	5	223.2 ± 7.2**	0.15 ± 0.00
DMA ^a	4	221.2 ± 9.5**	0.15 ± 0.02
Glycidol	5	230.9 ± 5.4	0.17 ± 0.01
DEN	5	239.9 ± 11.6	0.19 ± 0.01
AA	5	239.8 ± 6.2	0.18 ± 0.02

Values are means ± SDs. 2-AAF, 2-acetylaminofluorene; DMA, dimethylarsinic acid; DEN, N-nitrosodiethylamine; AA, acrylamide. ^aThe administration dose was changed to 0.01% for the last week due to 1 death, which occurred because of the toxic effects of the chemical. **, ***: Significantly different from the Control at $P < 0.01$ and 0.001 , respectively.

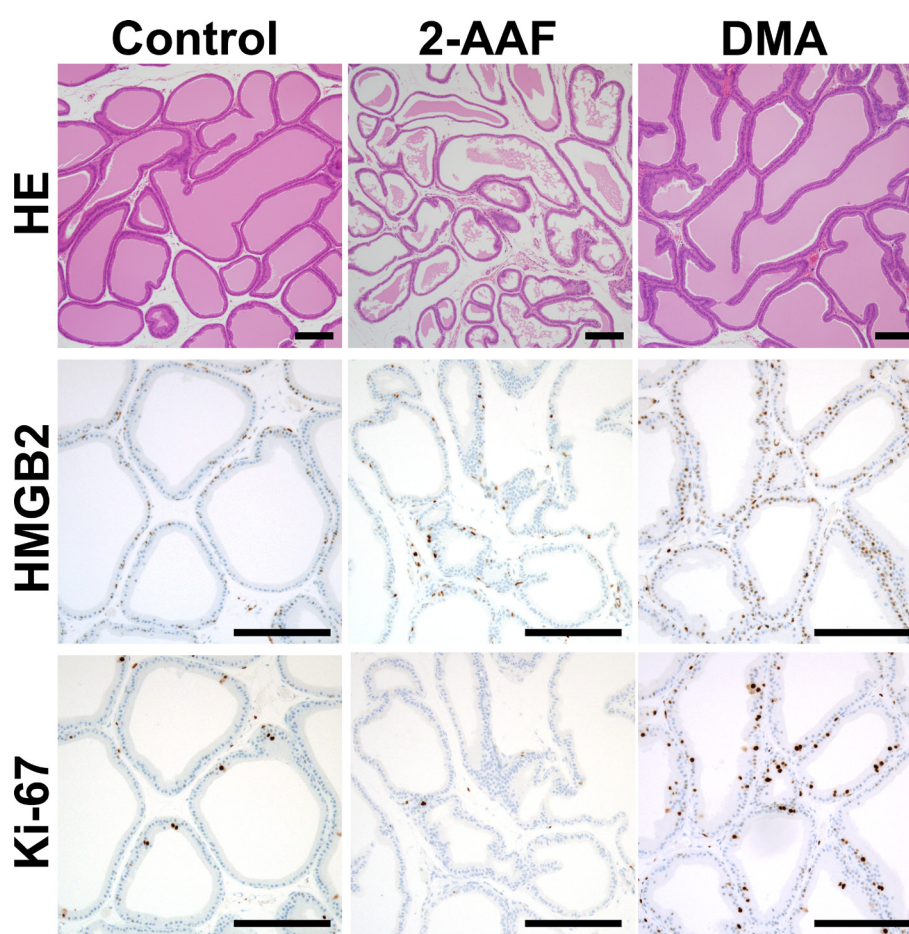


Fig. 1. Histopathology and immunohistochemistry of the ventral prostate. Photos of H&E and immunostaining of HMGB2 and Ki-67 in the ventral prostate of control, 2-AAF-treated and DMA-treated rats are presented. Bars=200 μ m.

HMGB2 and Ki-67 in all prostate lobes of DMA-treated rats. In a previous study, we reported that increased expression of HMGB2 may be an useful tool for screening to identify potential prostate carcinogens with an animal model⁴. Increased expression of Ki-67, a cell proliferation marker, may be also related to some parts of carcinogenesis because chemicals are first evaluated for proliferative activity in various tissues¹⁸. These data suggest that DMA has a potential

to induce prostate carcinogenesis. This report is the first to detect the possibility of arsenic carcinogenicity having an effect on prostate carcinogenesis in an animal model.

In the previous reports, treatment with DMA alone induced bladder tumors in rats^{8, 12} and lung tumors in mice¹⁹ but not other organs including the prostate. As we utilized a dose of DMA which was enough to induce rat urinary bladder tumorigenesis, the carcinogenic effect of DMA alone

Table 2. HMGB2 and Ki-67 Labeling Indices in Prostate

Treatment	No. of rat	HMGB2			Ki-67		
		Ventral	Lateral	Dorsal	Ventral	Lateral	Dorsal
Control	5	3.3 ± 1.8	7.5 ± 1.3	9.7 ± 1.3	2.8 ± 1.7	4.3 ± 1.4	7.2 ± 1.6
2-AAF	5	1.1 ± 0.6	5.0 ± 2.7	7.3 ± 1.5	0.6 ± 0.1	0.8 ± 0.5***	0.6 ± 0.2***
p-Cresidine	5	4.6 ± 1.5	9.4 ± 2.1	10.2 ± 1.4	2.9 ± 0.9	4.9 ± 0.5	7.6 ± 1.2
DMA	4	12.8 ± 5.6***	16.7 ± 3.0***	21.2 ± 1.5***	9.9 ± 5.7***	8.8 ± 1.8***	9.9 ± 1.8*
Glycidol	5	4.2 ± 1.9	8.6 ± 0.8	10.4 ± 1.8	2.5 ± 0.7	4.8 ± 0.7	7.9 ± 1.0
DEN	5	3.5 ± 1.2	8.6 ± 1.5	10.5 ± 1.9	2.2 ± 1.2	5.4 ± 0.7	8.1 ± 1.2
AA	5	3.3 ± 1.4	8.4 ± 0.9	9.9 ± 1.3	2.8 ± 1.3	5.1 ± 0.9	7.1 ± 0.7

Values are means ± SDs. 2-AAF, 2-acetylaminofluorene; DMA, dimethylarsinic acid; DEN, N-nitrosodiethylamine; AA, acrylamide. *, ***, Significantly different from Control group, P<0.05 and 0.001, respectively

may not be sufficient to induce prostate tumors in rodent animal models. Meanwhile, with regard to DMA as a promoter of carcinogenesis, DMA enhanced rat liver carcinogenesis induced by diethylnitrosamine and mouse skin carcinogenesis induced by dimethylbenz(a)anthracene^{20, 21}. To investigate the promotion effect of DMA on prostate carcinogenesis, further work on experimental prostate carcinogenesis models with other genotoxic prostate carcinogens such as 3,2'-dimethyl-4-aminobiphenyl (DMAB) or 2-amino-1-methyl-6-phenylimidazo[4,5-b]pyridine (PhIP) may be needed²².

Regarding the carcinogenic mechanism of DMA, it has been reported that oxidative stress is one of the most important factors for arsenic metabolism and carcinogenesis^{23, 24}. Some reports indicated that DMA administration caused an elevation of 8-hydroxy-2'-deoxyguanosine (8-OHdG) levels, a biomarker for oxidative stress²⁵, in the lung, liver and urinary bladder^{12, 26, 27}. Therefore, oxidative stress may play an important role in the tumorigenic process of DMA-induced carcinogenesis. Oxidative stress has also been reported to contribute to the development and progression of human prostate cancer^{28, 29}. Additionally, we detected that apocynin, an NADPH oxidase inhibitor, inhibited oxidative stress in prostate tissue and suppressed rat prostate carcinogenesis³⁰. These data suggest that DMA has the possibility to induce prostate carcinogenesis via oxidative stress.

The other chemicals are known to be carcinogens, and most are listed in the Group 2 category by IARC (Group 2A, glycidol, DEN and AA; Group 2B, p-cresidine). There was no information from animal experiments indicating that these chemicals were prostate carcinogens^{6–10}. In addition, no epidemiological study data were available (glycidol, DEN, p-cresidine and 2-AAF), and there was no evidence of association with prostate cancer risk (AA)³¹. In a previous report, the four chemicals that are not carcinogenic to prostate did not induce to up-regulation of HMGB2⁴. These data support our results showing that up-regulation of HMGB2 expression is the specific response for prostate carcinogens.

In conclusion, we found that DMA has the possibility to enhance prostate carcinogenesis. Further work is needed to investigate the carcinogenicity of other arsenicals in prostate and the mechanisms of prostate carcinogenesis caused by DMA treatment.

Disclosure of Potential Conflicts of Interest: The authors declare no conflict of interest.

Acknowledgments: This work was supported by a Grant-in-Aid for Cancer Research from the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare of Japan, and a Health and Labour Sciences Research Grant for Research on Risk of Chemical Substances from the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, Japan. We gratefully acknowledge the expert technical assistance of Koji Kato and Junko Takekawa.

References

1. IARC Arsenic, metals, fibres, and dusts. WHO Press, Lyon. 2012.
2. Chen CJ, Chuang YC, Lin TM, and Wu HY. Malignant neoplasms among residents of a blackfoot disease-endemic area in Taiwan: high-arsenic artesian well water and cancers. *Cancer Res.* **45**: 5895–5899. 1985. [Medline]
3. Byron WR, Bierbower GW, Brouwer JB, and Hansen WH. Pathologic changes in rats and dogs from two-year feeding of sodium arsenite or sodium arsenate. *Toxicol Appl Pharmacol.* **10**: 132–147. 1967. [Medline] [CrossRef]
4. Suzuki S, Kato H, Fuji S, Naiki T, Naiki-Ito A, Yamashita Y, and Takahashi S. Early detection of prostate carcinogens by immunohistochemistry of HMGB2. *J Toxicol Sci.* **43**: 359–367. 2018. [Medline] [CrossRef]
5. Toyoda T, Cho YM, Akagi J, Mizuta Y, Hirata T, Nishikawa A, and Ogawa K. Early detection of genotoxic urinary bladder carcinogens by immunohistochemistry for γ -H2AX. *Toxicol Sci.* **148**: 400–408. 2015. [Medline] [CrossRef]
6. Wilson RH, DeEds F, and Cox AJ Jr. The toxicity and carcinogenic activity of 2-acetylaminofluorene. *Cancer Res.* **1**: 595–608. 1941.
7. National Toxicology Program. Bioassay of p-cresidine for possible carcinogenicity. *Natl Cancer Inst Carcinog Tech Rep Ser.* **142**: 1–123. 1979. [Medline]
8. Arnold LL, Eldan M, Nyska A, van Gemert M, and Cohen SM. Dimethylarsinic acid: results of chronic toxicity/oncogenicity studies in F344 rats and in B6C3F1 mice. *Toxicology.* **223**: 82–100. 2006. [Medline] [CrossRef]
9. Irwin RD, Eustis SL, Stefanski S, and Haseman JK. Carcinogenicity of glycidol in F344 rats and B6C3F1 mice. *J Appl Toxicol.* **16**: 201–209. 1996. [Medline] [CrossRef]
10. IARC. IARC monographs on the evaluation of the carcino-

- genic risk of chemicals to humans: Some N-nitroso compounds. WHO Press, Lyon. 1978.
11. Beland FA, Mellick PW, Olson GR, Mendoza MC, Marques MM, and Doerge DR. Carcinogenicity of acrylamide in B6C3F₁ mice and F344/N rats from a 2-year drinking water exposure. *Food Chem Toxicol.* **51**: 149–159. 2013. [[Medline](#)] [[CrossRef](#)]
 12. Wei M, Wanibuchi H, Morimura K, Iwai S, Yoshida K, Endo G, Nakae D, and Fukushima S. Carcinogenicity of dimethylarsinic acid in male F344 rats and genetic alterations in induced urinary bladder tumors. *Carcinogenesis.* **23**: 1387–1397. 2002. [[Medline](#)] [[CrossRef](#)]
 13. Rivara MI, Cebrián M, Corey G, Hernández M, and Romieu I. Cancer risk in an arsenic-contaminated area of Chile. *Toxicol Ind Health.* **13**: 321–338. 1997. [[Medline](#)] [[CrossRef](#)]
 14. Cohen SM, Arnold LL, Eldan M, Lewis AS, and Beck BD. Methylated arsenicals: the implications of metabolism and carcinogenicity studies in rodents to human risk assessment. *Crit Rev Toxicol.* **36**: 99–133. 2006. [[Medline](#)] [[CrossRef](#)]
 15. Aposhian HV, Arroyo A, Cebrian ME, del Razo LM, Hurlbut KM, Dart RC, Gonzalez-Ramirez D, Kreppel H, Speisky H, Smith A, Gonsbatt ME, Ostrosky-Wegman P, and Aposhian MM. DMPS-arsenic challenge test. I: Increased urinary excretion of monomethylarsonic acid in humans given dimercaptopropane sulfonate. *J Pharmacol Exp Ther.* **282**: 192–200. 1997. [[Medline](#)]
 16. Cui X, Kobayashi Y, Hayakawa T, and Hirano S. Arsenic speciation in bile and urine following oral and intravenous exposure to inorganic and organic arsenics in rats. *Toxicol Sci.* **82**: 478–487. 2004. [[Medline](#)] [[CrossRef](#)]
 17. Kenyon EM, and Hughes MF. A concise review of the toxicity and carcinogenicity of dimethylarsinic acid. *Toxicology.* **160**: 227–236. 2001. [[Medline](#)] [[CrossRef](#)]
 18. Cohen SM, and Arnold LL. Critical role of toxicologic pathology in a short-term screen for carcinogenicity. *J Toxicol Pathol.* **29**: 215–227. 2016. [[Medline](#)] [[CrossRef](#)]
 19. Hayashi H, Kanisawa M, Yamanaka K, Ito T, Udaka N, Ohji H, Okudela K, Okada S, and Kitamura H. Dimethylarsinic acid, a main metabolite of inorganic arsenics, has tumorigenicity and progression effects in the pulmonary tumors of A/J mice. *Cancer Lett.* **125**: 83–88. 1998. [[Medline](#)] [[CrossRef](#)]
 20. Nishikawa T, Wanibuchi H, Ogawa M, Kinoshita A, Morimura K, Hiroi T, Funae Y, Kishida H, Nakae D, and Fukushima S. Promoting effects of monomethylarsonic acid, dimethylarsinic acid and trimethylarsine oxide on induction of rat liver preneoplastic glutathione S-transferase placental form positive foci: a possible reactive oxygen species mechanism. *Int J Cancer.* **100**: 136–139. 2002. [[Medline](#)] [[CrossRef](#)]
 21. Yamanaka K, Mizol M, Kato K, Hasegawa A, Nakano M, and Okada S. Oral administration of dimethylarsinic acid, a main metabolite of inorganic arsenic, in mice promotes skin tumorigenesis initiated by dimethylbenz(a)anthracene with or without ultraviolet B as a promoter. *Biol Pharm Bull.* **24**: 510–514. 2001. [[Medline](#)] [[CrossRef](#)]
 22. Shirai T, Takahashi S, Cui L, Futakuchi M, Kato K, Tamano S, and Imaida K. Experimental prostate carcinogenesis - rodent models. *Mutat Res.* **462**: 219–226. 2000. [[Medline](#)] [[CrossRef](#)]
 23. Kitchin KT, and Ahmad S. Oxidative stress as a possible mode of action for arsenic carcinogenesis. *Toxicol Lett.* **137**: 3–13. 2003. [[Medline](#)] [[CrossRef](#)]
 24. Jomova K, Jenisova Z, Feszterova M, Baros S, Liska J, Hudecova D, Rhodes CJ, and Valko M. Arsenic: toxicity, oxidative stress and human disease. *J Appl Toxicol.* **31**: 95–107. 2011. [[Medline](#)]
 25. Kasai H. Analysis of a form of oxidative DNA damage, 8-hydroxy-2'-deoxyguanosine, as a marker of cellular oxidative stress during carcinogenesis. *Mutat Res.* **387**: 147–163. 1997. [[Medline](#)] [[CrossRef](#)]
 26. Yamanaka K, Kato K, Mizoi M, An Y, Takabayashi F, Nakano M, Hoshino M, and Okada S. The role of active arsenic species produced by metabolic reduction of dimethylarsinic acid in genotoxicity and tumorigenesis. *Toxicol Appl Pharmacol.* **198**: 385–393. 2004. [[Medline](#)] [[CrossRef](#)]
 27. Wanibuchi H, Hori T, Meenakshi V, Ichihara T, Yamamoto S, Yano Y, Otani S, Nakae D, Konishi Y, and Fukushima S. Promotion of rat hepatocarcinogenesis by dimethylarsinic acid: association with elevated ornithine decarboxylase activity and formation of 8-hydroxydeoxyguanosine in the liver. *Jpn J Cancer Res.* **88**: 1149–1154. 1997. [[Medline](#)] [[CrossRef](#)]
 28. Kumar B, Koul S, Khandrika L, Meacham RB, and Koul HK. Oxidative stress is inherent in prostate cancer cells and is required for aggressive phenotype. *Cancer Res.* **68**: 1777–1785. 2008. [[Medline](#)] [[CrossRef](#)]
 29. Khandrika L, Kumar B, Koul S, Maroni P, and Koul HK. Oxidative stress in prostate cancer. *Cancer Lett.* **282**: 125–136. 2009. [[Medline](#)] [[CrossRef](#)]
 30. Suzuki S, Shiraga K, Sato S, Punfa W, Naiki-Ito A, Yamashita Y, Shirai T, and Takahashi S. Apocynin, an NADPH oxidase inhibitor, suppresses rat prostate carcinogenesis. *Cancer Sci.* **104**: 1711–1717. 2013. [[Medline](#)] [[CrossRef](#)]
 31. Larsson SC, Akesson A, and Wolk A. Dietary acrylamide intake and prostate cancer risk in a prospective cohort of Swedish men. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev.* **18**: 1939–1941. 2009. [[Medline](#)] [[CrossRef](#)]