Research Article

Cell Proliferation and Tumor Induction by Ochratoxin A in Mouse Skin and Evaluation of Cyclin D1 and Cyclooxygenase-2 Expressions

Sai Yang1 and Yajia Wen2

1Department of Dermatology, Dermatology Hospital, Southern Medical University, Guangdong Provincial Dermatology Hospital, China
2Department of Oncology, Guangzhou First People’s Hospital, China

Correspondence should be addressed to Sai Yang; yangsaisubmit@163.com

Received 16 August 2021; Accepted 13 October 2021; Published 25 October 2021

Academic Editor: Osamah Ibrahim Khalaf

Motivation. Skin tumor is one of the frequent occurring forms of cancer where 2-3 million instances are reported worldwide. The ultraviolet rays along with the environmental pollutants and other contaminants can be the potential factors of skin cancer. Cyclin D1 is a serious gene included in controlling the development through the G1 phase of the cell cycle. Ochratoxin A (OTA) is a naturally existing mycotoxin which majorly occurs in food like grains. It is responsible for producing the splitting of single-strand DNA and is identified to be cancer-causing. It is established as a critical risk factor towards reproductive health in both males and females.

Methodology. A single dose of ochratoxin A was used for topical application for assessment of skin tumor promotion activity, hyperplasia, ornithine decarboxylase activity, and expression of cyclin D1 and COX-2 in mouse skin. Enhancement in the synthesis of DNA, activation of the epidermal growth factor receptor, and overexpression of cyclin D1 and COX-2 were noted. Primary murine keratinocyte cell culture was cultured with Waymouth’s medium. Western blot analysis and real-time polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) were used to detect the expression of cyclin D1 and COX-2. Chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP) assays were used to the association between AP-1 transcription and nuclear factor-kappaB (NF-κB) with COX-2 and cyclin D1 promoters. Results. The results found that cyclin D1 and COX-2 were responsible for stimulating OTA-induced PMK proliferation and hyperplasia. Implications. EGFR-mediated pathways were also responsible for tumor promotion due to OTA.

1. Introduction

As per the World Health Organization (WHO) analysis, the cases of nonmelanoma skin carcinoma are expanding with approximately 2-3 million fresh diagnosed cases [1]. However, the ultraviolet (UV) rays from the sun are examined as the primary reason for skin carcinoma; still, the revelation to more possible cancer-causing chemicals which comprise mycotoxins cannot be controlled, and their toxicity needs to be assessed [2]. The mycotoxins are fungal subordinate metabolites, which are generally discovered as well as observed as the unpreventable contaminants across the globe because of the global nature of fungi in the habitat.

Ochratoxin A (OTA) is a mycotoxin which is originated from various Aspergillus and Penicillium families, which is a familiar contaminant found in wheat, coffee, spices, etc., and damages human health along with the livestock [3]. Preliminary studies exhibited the kidney as the principal goal organ for ochratoxin A toxicity aside from the evolution of neurons, including the liver as well as the human resistance system [4]. At present, ochratoxin A is a crucial warning to public health. Multiple varieties of fungi from Aspergillus, Penicillium, and Alternaria generate the mycotoxin ochratoxin A [5].

The mycotoxin ochratoxin A particularly aims at the kidney and is capable of intersecting the placental
obstruction as well as uncovering the freshly created fetus to its damaging effects [6]. The exposure of ochratoxin A is identified as a vital threat element in the reproduction system of both males and females across the globe. Apart from the adverse health effects in the reproductive and renal systems, the association of ochratoxin A is with reinforcement of the deformations, hepatotoxicity, and immunological and neurotoxicity and can be demonstrated in the laboratory along with the livestock and the human beings [7].

While conducting experiments on animals, the kidney is recognized as the primary intent organ for ochratoxin A toxicity as well as tumorigenicity which is further escalated to prompt the renal adenoma development in company with the urinary tract tumor [8]. However, the accessible epidemiological information is not adequate to evaluate the possible threats related to the ochratoxin A submission to humans, and it is extensively recognized that the explanation of the molecular procedure of the ochratoxin A-mediated carcinogenic effect would remarkably assist in the evaluation of threats of ochratoxin A [9]. The irritant-based response is identified as one of the preliminary phases in the procedure of carcinogenesis [10]. Many recent research studies have established the involvement of cyclooxygenase (COX) in the process of evolution of neoplasms. Reports have shown that OTA has the property to initiate skin tumors that are related to oxidative stress, MAPK signaling, and DNA damage [3].

The splitting of cells is a major procedure among all living organisms. Throughout the process of cell division, the replication of DNA and the expansion of the cell also occur. A standard cell cycle comprises a resting phase, i.e., G0, wherein the cell discards the cycle and ends the process of division. This is the phase where the cell cycle initiates, and the next stage is the interphase where the gap1 or G1 begins with expansion in the size of the cell. This checkpoint of G1 regulates the entire operations to secure the eligibility of the cell for the DNA concoction. The second stage in the interphase is known as the S phase or the synthesis phase wherein the recreation of DNA takes place. Finally, the cell moves into the G2 phase where the cell proceeds with expansion, and this phase secures the cell for further mitosis. The skin is the substantial organ of the human physique which is vulnerable to sunlight, air pollutant elements, and more environmental components that guide to causing skin cancer.

Cyclooxygenase is the enzyme arbitrator of the procedure of inflammation and is accountable for the transformation of arachidonic acid to prostaglandins and thromboxane. Cyclooxygenase-2 is indicated by a bounded count of cells and is prompted by the progress elements [11]. The overdemonstration of this protein is identified in various infectious tumors which also encompasses lung, prostate, and breast cancers [12].

Cyclooxygenase-2 is the inducible form of cyclooxygenase which is often higher in cancer tissues [13]. Cyclin D1 is a G1-phase checkpoint-based controlling protein and also a possible proto-oncogene which has traits of diverging and has been involved in the process of the pathogenesis of different varieties of neoplasia. It has been proposed that elaboration as well as overexpression of cyclin D1 is quite an unusual occurrence in both the main and tumor-acquired prostate cell lines. The oncogenic characteristics of cyclin D1 are proposed by its collaboration with ras or adenovirus E1A to transmute the cultured cells [14] along with its overexpression in the transgenic mouse, which concludes in the creation of breast cancer. Cyclin D1 is identified to be the chief intracellular intermediary of the extracellular indications like the mitogens which control the process of proliferation.

2. Material and Methods

2.1. Chemicals. OTA (mycotoxin ochratoxin A), TPA (12-O-tetradecanoylphorbol-13-acetate), 2-mercaptoethanol, DMBA (7,12-dimethylbenz(a)anthracene), and Tris buffer were obtained from Sigma Aldrich, USA; bovine serum albumin, ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid disodium salt, phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride, and protease inhibitor cocktail set I were obtained from Thermo Fisher Scientific; anti-β-actin, anti-cyclin D1, anti-p-NF-κB, anti-c-fos, blotto (dry milk), anti-c-jun, and anti-p-IκBα were obtained from Bioz; anti-p-ERK1/2, anti-p-EGFR, anti-p-JNK, anti-COX-2, anti-p-Akt, and anti-p-p38 were obtained from Abcam. [3H]-thymidine and [14C]-ornithine were obtained from PerkinElmer. All the chemicals used were of high grade and purity.

2.2. Animal Studies. Seven- to eight-week-old albino mice (weighing 20 ± 5 g) were obtained from the Chengdu Dossy Experimental Animals Co., Ltd., animal facility. Mice were acclimatized under conditions as per the standard protocol and provided with a pellet food diet and water ad libitum. A 12 h dark/light cycle of 22 ± 2°C temperature was maintained by maintaining humidity up to 50-55% in the animal house. All the experiments were officially approved by the ethical committee, and standard procedures were taken up for experimentation.

Mice were shaved with the help of an Argos electric clipper (Argos, UK). All hair was removed completely by using depilatory cream a week before the experiment began. The mice which did not show any signs of hair growth were selected for the experiment. The mice were sacrificed using cervical dislocation as approved by the IAEC (Institutional Animal Ethical Committee) and rules laid down for minimal suffering procedures for animal sacrifice.

2.3. Experimental Design. To conduct the tumor-based studies, albino mice were randomly selected for six groups with 8 animals each. All animals were kept in separate cages. The experiments were as per the protocol (Table 1).

2.4. Preparation of Primary Murine Keratinocyte Cell Culture. Primary murine keratinocytes were isolated from albino mice as explained by Yuspa et al. (1974). Newly born mouse pups were euthanized and then sterilized using 70% ethanol. The stripped skin was dipped in trypsin-ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid solution (0.25%) at 37°C for 2.30 hours. The epidermis was removed from the dermal layer and then chopped in Waymouth’s medium (Thermo Fisher Scientific) with 10% fetal bovine serum (Sigma Aldrich). Cells isolated were allowed to attach at the culture
plate in 5% \( \text{CO}_2 \) at 37°C for 2.30 hours. Then, the medium was kept replaced with serum-free KGM-2 (keratinocyte growth medium-2) having calcium chloride (0.03 mM).

2.5. Selection of Safe and Nontoxic OTA Doses. MTT (3-(4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide) colorimetric assay was used for determining noncytotoxic doses of ochratoxin A (OTA).

2.6. Western Blot Analysis. Western blot analysis of COX-2 and cyclin D1 was performed on the skin tissues isolated from animals in the treatment groups. Three mice were selected randomly from each group. Initially, the animals in the first group received one dose of 0.2 ml acetone which was the control group. Then, animals in groups 2 to 8 were given a topical application of 100 nmol/mouse ochratoxin A (OTA) who were later sacrificed post 1, 3, 6, 12, 24, 48, and 72 hours, respectively. ~2 cm\(^2\) skin was removed from every animal, and a cell lysate from mouse skin was prepared for western blot analysis.

Primary murine keratinocytes were treated with or without ochratoxin A (OTA) for western blot analysis of cyclin D1, COX-2, p-Akt, p-EGFR, p-JNK, p-ERK1/2, p-I\( \kappa \)B, p-NF-\( \kappa \)B, and p-p38 at fixed time points when the cells were harvested, and PBS (phosphate-buffered saline) washing was done. Then, lysis with radioimmunoprecipitation assay (cold) and phosphatase and protease inhibitors was done. Proteins were obtained on 10% sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrylamide gel which was then electrotransferred to polyvinylidene fluoride membranes.

2.7. Transfections and Luciferase Assays. Primary murine keratinocytes were kept in a six-well plate (10\(^6\) per well)
which were grown till 60% confluence. A jetPRIME® Polyplus-transfection DNA Transfection Kit was used for transfecting cells with plasmids as mentioned by the manufacturer. For assessing the effects of COX-2 and cyclin D1 promoter action, a test was run where every well was transfected using luciferase (1 μg) and the promoter for the experiment was 1745 bp cyclin D1.

In the second experiment, primary murine keratinocytes were transfected with the luciferase reporter (1 μg) and the promoter for the experiment was 897 bp COX-2. For quantification of mRNA, we used 3 μg RNA for synthesizing complementary DNA (cDNA) via reverse transcription-polymerase chain reaction [15]. Total RNA was collected from vehicle-treated or OTA-treated primary murine keratinocytes by using the manufacturer’s instructions (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Amplification of cDNA was done by RT-PCR and the SYBR green detection system (Sigma Aldrich). For quantification of mRNA, we used 3 μg RNA for synthesizing complementary DNA (cDNA) via reverse transcription reaction (SensiFAST™ cDNA Synthesis Kit, Bioline, Meridian Bioscience). RT-PCR was carried in a one-step process by treating total RNA with RNase-free DNase by a QiAGEN OneStep RT-PCR Kit. 200 ng sample RNA was taken for every template reaction.

To ensure the amplification integrity, the samples were run in triplicate. Primer pairs (Table 2) were used for measuring mRNA expression of cyclin D1 and COX-2. GAPDH (glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase) was used as an internal standard.

Conditions of PCR were for 15 min 95°C and forty cycles for 30 sec (95°C), 30 sec (55°C), and 30 sec (72°C) as mentioned by the primers’ manufacturer. Gene expressions were normalized for β-actin mRNA expression levels for every sample.

The analysis of mRNA can be determined for gene expressions with the help of the cycle threshold (Ct) method. β-Actin was used as internal control, and mean Ct values were calculated for expression of the target gene.

2.9. Ornithine Decarboxylase (ODC) Enzyme Activity. Animals were divided into six groups with 5 animals in every group for estimation of ornithine decarboxylase enzyme activity (Table 3).

Animals were sacrificed post 4 hours of treatment, and the skin was dissected out for assaying cytosolic ODC activity with the help of substrate [14C]-ornithine.

2.10. [3H]-Thymidine Incorporation for Estimation of Cell Proliferation. Three groups with five animals in each were divided for estimation of cell proliferation in mouse skin. The first group was applied topically with 0.2 ml acetone which served as the vehicle control group. The 2nd and 3rd groups were treated with mycotoxin ochratoxin A-100 nmol/0.2 ml acetone, respectively, by 24 and 48 hours. Two hours prior to sacrificing all animals, [3H]-thymidine was administered intraperitoneally and the skin was collected. Then, [3H]-thymidine incorporation assay was performed [16].

2.11. Immunoprecipitation Assay. For determining the association between AP-1 transcription and nuclear factor-kappaB (NF-κB) with COX-2 and cyclin D1 promoters in the cells, chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP) assays were performed with a Pierce™ Magnetic ChIP Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and instructions from the manufacturer were followed. Immunoprecipitation of chromatin was done with p65 (2.0 μg) (Table 4), as well as a rabbit IgG antibody overnight at 4°C. 5 μl of every sample was used for PCR amplification, and the PCR product (50 μl) was loaded on agarose gels.

### Table 4: Groups and primer sequences for immunoprecipitation assay.

| S. no. | Group | Binding site | Forward/reverse | Sequence |
|-------|-------|--------------|----------------|----------|
| 1.    | Cyclin D1 oligonucleotide sequence with cyclin D1 promoter segment | NF-xB binding sites | Forward | 5′-CCATTCCCTTGACTGCCCGAG-3′ |
|       |       |              | Reverse        | 5′-CAGTATCCCCCTCCTCACC-3′ |
| 2.    | Cyclin D1 oligonucleotide sequences encompassing cyclin D1 promoter segment | AP-1 binding site | Forward | 5′-CCGGCTTTGATCCTGCTTA-3′ |
|       |       |              | Reverse        | 5′-GCTGTACTGCCGGTCTCC-3′ |
| 3.    | COX-2 oligonucleotide sequence with COX-2 promoter segment | NF-xB binding sites | Forward | 5′-CTCCGGGATCTAAAGGCTCTA-3′ |
|       |       |              | Reverse        | 5′-CAGATGGACCCGTCGACAGA-3′ |
| 4.    | COX-2 oligonucleotide sequences with COX-2 promoter | AP-1 binding site | Forward | 5′-TCTTTCTGAGCAGAGTCC-3′ |
|       |       |              | Reverse        | 5′-CGCAACTCACTGAACAGAG-3′ |
The PCR mixtures were amplified for 5 minutes (94°C for 1 cycle), and it was followed by 35 cycles for 30 sec at 94°C, 30 sec at 55°C, and 45 sec at 72°C and a final 10 minutes (72°C elongation). ChIP assays were performed three times for accurate results. 2% agarose gel was used for PCR.

2.12. Histopathology. A small portion of the skin was isolated, washed in saline (cold) solution, and then fixed in 10% buffered solution of formalin. The section was embedded in paraffin post processing, and 5 mm thick sections were cut and stained using H-E (hematoxylin and eosin).

| S. No. | Group                                      | Photomicrograph          |
|-------|--------------------------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1.    | Control group                              | ![Control group](image1) |
| 2.    | DMBA/mycotoxin ochratoxin A treatment      | ![Ochratoxin A](image2)  |
| 3.    | DMBA/TPA treatment                         | ![TPA treatment](image3) |
Images underwent microscopic examination (Leica DM1000 microscope) and were captured by a Leica DFC295 camera.

2.13. Immunohistochemistry. The process of immunohistochemistry was performed as mentioned in [17]. Tissues fixed in formalin were sectioned and deparaffinized. Slides were incubated at 1:50 with a rabbit monoclonal anti-anti-cyclin D1 antibody and 1:1000 dilution with a rabbit polyclonal anti-COX-2/cyclooxygenase-2 antibody (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, CA). Hematoxylin staining was used for counterstaining the nuclei. Positive controls were also stained, respectively.

2.14. Proliferating Cell Nuclear Antigen Immunostaining. Formalin-fixed tissues were obtained by deparaffinization, keeping them in deionized water kept in a microwave for 5 minutes and blocking endogenous peroxidase. Slides were stained using a mouse monoclonal antibody against the proliferating cell nuclear antigen as mentioned by [18].

2.15. BrdU Immunostaining. Specimens injected with BrdU were incubated with an anti-BrdU antibody 1:25 (Thermo Fisher Scientific), and it was followed by FITC anti-mouse IgG (Sigma Aldrich).

2.16. Statistical Analyses. All of the measurement data were performed with SPSS 19.0 statistical software. Student’s t-test and one-way ANOVA were used to compare the means of two or more groups. \( p < 0.05 \) was considered to be statistically significant.

3. Results

Hematoxylin and eosin staining was done, and tissues from mouse skin were photomicrographed for the control group and treatment groups: DMBA/TPA and DMBA/OTA. The arrows on tissues show hyperplasia which is a presentation of tumor incidences post 24 weeks of the study. Proliferation in the epidermal layer was clearly seen in treatment groups (DMBA/TPA and DMBA/OTA). Squamous cell carcinoma was clearly noted in treatment groups whereas the control group had a normal histological profile with a normal layer. Hyperplasia was also noted in treatment groups which distinctly showed promotion of tumors in treatment groups (Figure 1).

Visible tumors were noted in DMBA/mycotoxin ochratoxin treatment and DMBA/TPA treatment at the end of the 24-week study (Figure 2). However, in the control group, there were nearly no tumors.

The epidermis was observed by histopathology in all control and treatment group animals. Visible degradation and proliferation were noted in the skin layers for DMBA/mycotoxin ochratoxin treatment and DMBA/TPA treatment when compared with the control group results (Figure 3).
| S. No. | Group  | Photomicrograph (BrdU) |
|--------|--------|------------------------|
| 1.     | Group I| ![Photomicrograph](image1) |
| 2.     | Group II| ![Photomicrograph](image2) |
| 3.     | Group III| ![Photomicrograph](image3) |

(a) BrdU staining

Figure 4: Continued.
| S. No. | Group     | Photomicrograph (caspase) |
|--------|-----------|--------------------------|
| 1.     | Group I   | ![Photomicrograph](image1) |
| 2.     | Group II  | ![Photomicrograph](image2) |
| 3.     | Group III | ![Photomicrograph](image3) |

(b) Caspase staining

Figure 4: Continued.
| S. No. | Group  | Photomicrograph (GFAP) |
|--------|--------|------------------------|
| 1.     | Group I| ![GFAP Staining](image1) |
| 2.     | Group II| ![GFAP Staining](image2) |
| 3.     | Group III| ![GFAP Staining](image3) |

(c) GFAP staining

**Figure 4:** Continued.
Immunostaining was performed for mice in all groups. Mice were injected with BrdU injection and then sacrificed post 4 days of experimentation. The paraffin sections were then stained and analyzed for BrdU (Figure 4(a)). Similarly, proliferation, apoptosis, and cell death were analyzed with the help of biomarkers; thus, caspase, GFAP, and DAPI immunostaining were also performed (Figures 4(b)–4(d)).

A time-dependent analysis was performed by applying OTA topically on [3H]-thymidine incorporated on cutaneous DNA of mice. The skin was removed from the vehicle- and OTA (100 nmol/mouse)-treated mice for 24 hours and 48 hours. [3H]-thymidine was administered to mice 2 hours

ODC activity was measured where [14C]-ornithine was used as a substrate. *p < 0.05 with respect to the control group (Figure 5).

**Figure 4:** Proliferation of epidermal keratinocytes for estimation of proliferative capacity in isolated cells.
before killing for measurement of radioactivity in epidermal DNA as c.p.m./μg DNA (Figure 6).

The effect of OTA on COX-2 and cyclin D1 protein expressions from the epidermal layer in mice was assessed. Animals were sacrificed, and COX-2 and cyclin D1 protein expressions were determined via the epidermal protein lysate in western blotting (Figure 7).

Skin tumor evaluation post application of DMBA/TPA and DMBA/OTA in albino mice post weekly application of TPA/OTA was also shown. The total number of tumors was recorded every week (Figure 8).

Effect of 5.0 μM OTA was determined on phosphorylation of EGFR and Akt in primary murine keratinocytes by western blotting (Figure 9) with the help of anti-p-EGFR

---

**Figure 5:** Dose-dependent ODC activity on topical application of OTA and TPA when mice were exposed for 4 hours.

**Figure 6:** Effect of topically applied OTA on [3H]-thymidine in mouse DNA.
4. Discussion

Protein expression of cyclin D1 and COX-2 was altered by OTA administration in mouse skin (Figures 1 and 3). Cyclin D1 and COX-2 are prominent markers for cell proliferation and tumor promotion, respectively. Hence, on topically applying 100 nmol/mouse OTA, the expressions of COX-2 and cyclin D1 proteins were evaluated by western blotting. A significant amount of cyclin D1 protein overexpression and COX-2 dermal expression was noticed in 72 hours of the experiment (Figure 7).

For tumor promotion action of OTA, induced cell proliferation was noted in mouse skin. Topical application of DMBA for initiating tumors was also followed by OTA application for the development of skin cancer (papillomas) (Figure 2). Hyperplasia was clearly noted in histopathological analysis for the same treatment groups (Figure 1).

and anti-p-Akt antibodies. Anti-β-actin was used for checking equal loading of the blots.

5. Conclusion

In conclusion, the study found strong evidence that OTA induces proliferation which is a crucial factor for skin tumor promotion by activation of EGFR, cyclin D1, and COX-2 genes. These results will help in the assessment of risks caused to humans, thus designing strategies for the prevention of tumor promotion.

Data Availability

Data sharing is not applicable to this article as no datasets were generated or analyzed during the current study.
Ethical Approval
It is from the ethics committee of the Dermatology Hospital, Southern Medical University.

Conflicts of Interest
No conflicts of interest, financial or otherwise, are declared by the authors.

Authors’ Contributions
The contributions of the authors involved in this study are as follows: agreement to be accountable for all aspects of the work in ensuring that questions related to the accuracy or integrity of the work are appropriately investigated and resolved: Sai Yang and Yajia Wen; substantial contributions to conception and design, data acquisition, or data analysis and interpretation: Sai Yang and Yajia Wen; and drafting the article or critically revising it for important intellectual content: Sai Yang and Yajia Wen.

References
[1] World Health Organization (WHO), "Ultraviolet radiation and intersun programme," 2011, http://www.who.int/uv/faq/skincancer/en/index1.html.

[2] A. Jose, "Effective skin cancer treatment by topical co-delivery of curcumin and STAT3 siRNA using cationic liposomes," AAPS PharmSciTech, vol. 19, no. 1, pp. 166–175, 2018.

[3] R. Kumar, K. M. Ansari, B. P. Chaudhari et al., "Topical application of ochratoxin A causes DNA damage and tumor initiation in mouse skin," PLoS One, vol. 7, no. 10, p. e47280, 2012.

[4] K. Goodman and P. M. Scott, "Risk assessment of the mycotoxin ochratoxin A," Biomedical and environmental sciences: BES, vol. 2, no. 3, pp. 179–248, 1989.

[5] L. Zhu, B. Zhang, Y. Dai, H. Li, and W. Xu, "A review: epigenetic mechanism in ochratoxin A toxicity studies," Toxins, vol. 9, no. 4, p. 113, 2017.

[6] F. Malir, V. Ostry, A. Pfohl-Leszkowicz, and E. Novotna, "Ochratoxin A: developmental and reproductive toxicity—an overview," Birth Defects Research Part B: Developmental and Reproductive Toxicology, vol. 98, no. 6, pp. 493–502, 2013.

[7] A. Vettorazzi, J. van Delft, and A. López de Cerain, "A review on ochratoxin A transcripomorphic studies," Food and Chemical Toxicology, vol. 59, pp. 766–783, 2013.

[8] S. Mishra, A. Tripathi, B. P. Chaudhari, P. D. Dwivedi, H. P. Pandey, and M. Das, "Deoxynivalenol induced mouse skin cell proliferation and inflammation _via_ MAPK pathway," Toxicology and Applied Pharmacology, vol. 279, no. 2, pp. 186–197, 2014.

[9] A. Falamas, C. A. Dehelean, and S. Cinta Pinzaru, "Monitoring of betulin nanoemulsion treatment and molecular changes in mouse skin cancer using surface enhanced Raman spectroscopy," Vibrational Spectroscopy, vol. 95, pp. 44–50, 2018.

[10] A. A. Byatnal, A. Byatnal, S. Sen, V. Guddattu, and M. C. Solomon, "Cyclooxygenase-2 – an imperative prognostic biomarker in oral squamous cell carcinoma-an immunohistochemical study," Pathology & Oncology Research, vol. 21, no. 4, pp. 1123–1131, 2015.

[11] C. Cerella, C. Sobolewski, M. Dicato, and M. Diederich, "Targeting COX-2 expression by natural compounds: a promising alternative strategy to synthetic COX-2 inhibitors for cancer chemoprevention and therapy," Biochemical Pharmacology, vol. 80, no. 12, pp. 1801–1815, 2010.

[12] R. E. Harris, "Cyclooxygenase-2 (COX-2) blockade in the chemoprevention of cancers of the colon, breast, prostate, and lung," Inflammopharmacology, vol. 17, no. 2, pp. 55–67, 2009.

[13] T. Fujimura, Y. Kambayashi, Y. Fujisawa, T. Hidaka, and S. Alba, "Tumor-associated macrophages: therapeutic targets for skin cancer," Frontiers in Oncology, vol. 8, 2018.

[14] P. Sharma, "Tea polyphenols for the prevention of UVB-induced skin cancer," Photodermatology, Photoimmunology & Photomedicine, vol. 34, no. 1, pp. 50–59, 2018.

[15] S. M. Meenan, T. Punathil, and S. K. Katiyar, "Retracted: IL-12 deficiency exacerbates inflammatory responses in UV-irradiated skin and skin tumors," The Journal of Investigative Dermatology, vol. 128, no. 11, pp. 2716–2727, 2008.

[16] S. A. Ahmed, R. M. Gogal Jr., and J. E. Walsh, "A new rapid and simple non-radioactive assay to monitor and determine the proliferation of lymphocytes: an alternative to [3H]thymidine incorporation assay," Journal of Immunological Methods, vol. 170, no. 2, pp. 211–224, 1994.

[17] S. M. Hsu, L. Raine, and H. Fanger, "Use of avidin-biotin-peroxidase complex (ABC) in immunoperoxidase techniques: a comparison between ABC and unlabeled antibody (PAP) procedures," Journal of Histochemistry & Cytochemistry, vol. 29, pp. 577–580, 1981.

[18] A. B. Bianchi, S. M. Fischer, A. I. Robles, E. M. Rinchik, and C. J. Conti, "Overexpression of cyclin D1 in mouse skin carcinogenesis," Oncogene, vol. 8, no. 5, pp. 1127–1133, 1993.

[19] A. I. Robles, M. L. Rodriguez-Puebla, A. B. Glick et al., "Reduced skin tumor development in cyclin D1-deficient mice highlights the oncogenic ras pathway in vivo," Genes & Development, vol. 12, no. 16, pp. 2469–2474, 1998.