

1 **p-21 activated kinase as a molecular target for chemoprevention in**
2 **diabetes**

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12 **Running Title:** PAK1 in chemoprevention and diabetes

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22 **ABSTRACT**

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24 **Hypothesis:** Anti-diabetic drugs modulate p-21 activated kinase (PAK) signaling

25 **Introduction:** Type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM) is a chronic inflammatory
26 disease associated with increased cancer risk. PAK signaling is implicated in
27 cellular homeostasis when regulated, and cancer when unrestrained. Recent
28 reports provided a role for PAK signaling in glucose homeostasis, but the role of
29 PAKs in the pathogenesis of T2DM is unknown. Here we explored whether PAK
30 signaling should be targeted via chemoprevention to reduce diabetes-associated
31 cancer risk.

32 **Methods:** PAK interacting partners in T2DM were identified using online
33 STRING database. Systematic literature review provided the effect of anti-
34 diabetic drugs on PAK signaling. Review of clinical studies revealed the overall
35 clinical response rate and percentage of adverse events in pioglitazone (n=53)
36 and metformin (n=91) treated patients with PAK-dependent diseases.

37 **Results:** A total of 30 PAK interacting partners were identified (10: reduced
38 beta-cell mass; 10: beta-cell dysfunction; 10: obesity-insulin resistance) which
39 were highly associated with Wnt, and G-protein signaling. Anti-diabetic drug
40 metformin activated signaling pathways upstream; whereas pioglitazone
41 inhibited pathways downstream of PAK. Overall clinical response upon
42 pioglitazone treatment was 53%. 79% of pioglitazone and 75% of metformin
43 treated patients had adverse events. Pioglitazone reduced molecular-PAK
44 biomarkers of proliferation (Ki67 and CyclinD1), and metformin had the
45 opposite effect.

46 **Conclusions:** PAK signaling in T2DM involves Wnt and G-protein signaling
47 which is altered by anti-diabetic drugs metformin and pioglitazone. Apart from

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48 the therapeutic limitations of adverse events, pioglitazone is promising in
49 chemoprevention, however long-term multi-centered studies, which initiate
50 pioglitazone treatment early will be required to fully assess the full potential of
51 these drugs.

52 **Keywords:** p-21 activated kinase; pioglitazone, metformin, type 2 diabetes
53 mellitus, cancer, chemoprevention, and inflammation.

54 INTRODUCTION

55

56 Type 2- diabetes mellitus (T2DM) is a global epidemic and its prevalence is
57 continually increasing, especially in the western world. The etiology of T2DM is
58 intimately linked to obesity, genetics, and sedentary lifestyle. Disease
59 manifestations including blindness and neuropathy decrease quality of life in
60 diabetic patients, and long-term complications such as cardiovascular disease
61 and renal failure, ultimately result in death (McCarthy, 2010).

62 Although the pathogenesis of T2DM is multifactorial and complex, its current
63 understanding encompasses hepatic insulin resistance, dysfunctional insulin
64 signaling, abnormal glucose metabolism, and persistent hyperglycemia
65 (McCarthy, 2010). In addition to disease specific complications, several
66 consequences of hyperglycemia have been described such as an aberrant
67 immune response, chronic inflammation, and tumorigenesis (Chang & Yang,
68 2016). Persistent diabetes increases the lifelong risk of developing pancreatic,
69 liver, and colorectal cancer and also fuels the tumor microenvironment in cancer
70 patients (Chang & Yang, 2016).

71 Anti-diabetic drugs such as the biguanides, sulfonylureas, and glitazones have
72 provided the current basis of understanding in the clinical management of T2DM
73 however little is known regarding whether these drugs are also effective in
74 reducing the associated cancer risk . Effective chemoprevention in T2DM will
75 target processes involved in both glucose metabolism and carcinogenesis.

76 Molecular targets with emerging roles in both cancer and diabetes include a
77 family of six different kinases, the p-21 activated kinases (PAKs) (Dammann et
78 al., 2014). Here we investigated PAK overexpression in T2DM, the effect of anti-

79 diabetic drugs on PAK signaling, and further explored PAK as a molecular target
80 in cancer chemoprevention in T2DM.

81 **METHODS**

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83 **Molecular analysis of PAK signaling pathways and their involvement in** 84 **response to anti-diabetic drugs**

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86 A systematic literature review and molecular analysis of pre-clinical studies
87 using online library Pubmed (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed>) was
88 performed to establish upstream and downstream PAK targets. Key words
89 included (PAK signaling or p21 activated kinases in addition to the following
90 targets: AMPK, RAS, mTOR, PI3K/AKT, RAC1, CDC42, MAPK, p38, JNK, NF-kB,
91 PPAR-gamma, ROS, VEGF, Wnt/Beta-catenin). Similar studies were screened for
92 PAK signaling pathways involving known targets (above) of glucose
93 homeostasis, inflammation, proliferation, survival, and angiogenesis. Both
94 upstream and downstream PAK targets were identified in each of these
95 pathways, and the effect of PAK signaling targets on inflammation, proliferation,
96 survival, and angiogenesis was evaluated. Studies in the literature involving anti-
97 diabetics drugs (glitazones, metformin, glyburide) were further analyzed for
98 their effect on PAK signaling pathways (inflammation, proliferation, survival,
99 angiogenesis) on targets upstream and downstream of PAKs.

100

101 **Identification of PAK interacting partners**

102 PAK interacting partners were identified using string database ([www.string-](http://www.string-db.org)
103 db.org) as seen in (Szklarczyk et al., 2015)(Campregher et al., 2012). Confidence
104 was set to 0.40 and active prediction methods, neighborhood, gene fusion, co-

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105 occurrence, co-expression, experiments, database, and text mining analysis were
106 performed. Interacting partners were identified in three different conditions
107 which may predispose to T2DM using targets of reduced beta-cell mass
108 (CDKAL1, CDKN2A, CDKN2B), beta cell dysfunction (MTNR1B, TCF7L2, KCNJ11),
109 and obesity/insulin resistance (FTO, IRS1, PPARG) as reported (McCarthy,
110 2010). Novel PAK interacting partners were further investigated and their
111 pathophysiological role in T2DM was investigated and references for further
112 exploration of targets were provided. All PAK partners were analyzed according
113 to the molecular pathway involved in T2DM.

114

115 **Clinical study inclusion/exclusion criteria and systematic review**

116 Human clinical studies were identified on ClinicalTrial.gov. Inclusion criteria
117 consisted of observational or interventional studies using metformin or
118 pioglitazone in patients with diseases previously identified in the literature to
119 have increased PAK expression levels such as bladder, leukoplakia, lung,
120 prostate, esophageal, and colorectal cancer (Dammann et al., 2014). Studies with
121 molecular biomarker analysis or targets downstream of PAKs were included.
122 Studies without data were excluded from analysis. Clinical analyses of overall
123 response rate, adverse events, as well as molecular analysis of biomarkers were
124 performed on pooled data from pioglitazone or metformin treated patients.

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126

127 RESULTS

128

129 PAK signaling is associated with diabetes and cancer

130

131 Previous studies have provided a role for PAK in both diabetes and cancer,
132 however a clear depiction of the signaling pathways involved in both diseases
133 has not been performed. Systematic review of the literature demonstrated 14
134 PAK signaling pathways, either upstream or downstream of PAK, and 11 or 78%
135 of these pathways were also associated with glucose homeostasis (Table 1 & 2;
136 Supplementary Figure 1 & 2). All of the PAK signaling pathways which were
137 associated with glucose homeostasis were also associated with malignant
138 inflammatory, proliferative, survival, and angiogenic signaling which occurs in
139 diseases such as cancer (Table 3 and Supplementary Figure 3).

140 PAK interacting partners are associated with the pathogenesis of T2DM

141

142 The pathogenesis of T2DM was previously linked to obesity, insulin
143 resistance, and molecular alterations of pancreatic beta cells (McCarthy, 2010).
144 PAK signaling mediates pathways involved in glucose homeostasis (Table 2); but
145 whether PAK or its partners are actually involved in the pathogenesis of T2DM is
146 unknown. We identified protein-protein interactions and prospective interacting
147 partners in the pathogenesis of T2DM by screening PAKs 1-6 and previously
148 identified markers of reduced beta cell mass (Figure 1A), dysfunction (Figure
149 1B), and obesity and insulin resistance (Figure 1C), using the online STRING
150 database (Szklarczyk et al., 2015).

151 Thirty total PAK interacting partners were found to involve reduced Beta-cell
152 mass (10), Beta-cell dysfunction (10), and obesity and insulin resistance (10)
153 (Figure 1D and Supplementary Table 1). Signaling pathways associated with PAK

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154 interacting partners included cell cycle control, receptor tyrosine kinases (RTK),
155 G-proteins, and Wnt signaling (Figure 1E). Reduction in Beta-cell mass was
156 exclusively linked to eight-interacting partners involving cell cycle control. Beta-
157 cell dysfunction was found to be associated with four-interacting partners linked
158 to Wnt signaling, and six-interacting partners involving RTKs were associated
159 with obesity/ insulin resistance (Figure 1E). G-protein signaling involved two-
160 interacting partners involved in reduced Beta-cell mass, five-partners in Beta-
161 cell dysfunction, and four-partners in obesity/insulin resistance (Figure 1E).
162 These data suggest PAK interacting partners are associated with and utilize the
163 cell cycle, Wnt, RTK, and G-protein signaling in the pathogenesis of T2DM.

164 **Upstream and downstream PAK signaling pathways are utilized by anti-** 165 **diabetic drugs pioglitazone and metformin**

166
167 We found that PAK interacting partners were involved in the pathogenesis of
168 T2DM, however the role of PAK signaling in T2DM remained elusive. We
169 investigated this by analyzing the effect of anti-diabetic drugs metformin (met),
170 glyburide (gly), and glitazones (glit) on PAK signaling pathways (Table 4).
171 Overall, glit and met each altered ten PAK signaling pathways whereas gly
172 altered three (Figure 2 A). Further analysis revealed all three anti-diabetic drugs
173 altered pathways upstream and downstream of PAK (Figure 2B). Glit exerted the
174 most profound effect on downstream PAK signaling pathways [glit=9 vs met=7
175 vs gly=3]. Met altered more pathways upstream of PAK [met=5 vs glit=3 vs
176 gly=1] (Figure 2B).

177 Malignant PAK signaling is involved in disease pathogenesis. To further
178 understand the role in which met, gly, and glit interfere with PAK signaling in
179 T2DM, we asked if any of these drugs activate or inhibit inflammatory,

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180 proliferative, survival, or angiogenic pathways upstream and downstream of
181 PAK (Figure 2C-F). Differential pathway analysis revealed met and glit
182 consistently altered more pathways than gly (Fig 2C-F). Glit inhibited more
183 pathways downstream of PAK than met in [inflammation: glit=7 vs met=4],
184 [proliferation: glit=8 vs met=4], [survival: glit=8 vs met=4], [angiogenesis: glit=8
185 vs met=4] (Figure 2C-F). However, met activated more pathways than glit which
186 are exaggerated upstream of PAK and involved in inflammation [met=4 vs
187 glit=2;], proliferation [met=2 vs glit=0], survival [met=3 vs glit=1], and
188 angiogenesis [met=3 vs glit=1] (Figure 2C-F). These data suggest that anti-
189 diabetic drugs alter PAK signaling. Metformin activates pathways upstream and
190 glitazones inhibit pathways downstream of PAK.

191 **Pioglitazone and metformin have therapeutic limitations in cancer patients** 192 **with PAK overexpression**

193
194 Previous clinical trials have attempted to establish whether met and pio
195 therapeutically have chemopreventive activity in humans, but the results remain
196 highly ambiguous. We showed that met and pio altered PAK signaling upstream
197 and downstream of PAK, and asked whether the chemopreventive nature of
198 these drugs was found in diseases with PAK overexpression. To investigate this,
199 we analyzed clinical studies in diseases known to overexpress PAK in which met
200 or pio treatment was tested (Table 5).

201 Initially, we screened hundreds of studies on ClinicalTrials.gov for diseases
202 with PAK overexpression and either met or pio treatment. We found one
203 observational-prospective cohort and six interventional studies (three single
204 arm and three randomized double blind) with these criteria (Table 5 and Figure
205 3A).

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206 We investigated the effect of anti-diabetic therapy in patients with PAK over-
207 expression by calculating an overall clinical response rate (OCRR), which was
208 defined as the total number of patients who had $\geq 50\%$ decrease in the sum of all
209 their lesions post-treatment. The OCRR in pio-treated patients was 53% (Figure
210 3B); 28/53 patients responded and 25/53 did not. The corresponding data for
211 met were unavailable. To further evaluate patient outcome, we calculated the
212 number of serious or other adverse events after pio and met treatment (Figure
213 3B). Comparison of pio and met treatment revealed a higher percentage of
214 serious [pio: 3/53 = 5.7% vs met: 3/91 = 3.3%] and other [pio: 42/53 = 79% vs
215 met: 68/91 = 74.7%] adverse events upon treatment with pio (Figure 3B).
216 Additionally, in comparison to patients treated with met, a fewer percentage of
217 pio-treated patients were without adverse effects [pio: 11/53 = 21% vs met:
218 25/91 = 27.4%] (Figure 3B). Pioglitazone associated events included edema
219 (15%), oral pain (13%), and hypertension (7.5%), while those associated with
220 metformin were gastrointestinal symptoms like constipation (7%), diarrhea
221 (23%), and nausea (13%). These data suggest that patients with tumors which
222 are known to have PAK overexpression have a good clinical response to pio; and
223 both pio and met treatment are associated with a high rate of mostly mild
224 adverse events.

225 **Pioglitazone and metformin alter biomarkers downstream of PAK in** 226 **human disease**

227
228 We found that patients which have diseases overexpressing PAK responded to
229 pio, however it was unclear whether pio or met actually interfered with PAK
230 signaling. We therefore analyzed biomarkers downstream of PAK signaling
231 pathway involved in apoptosis, cell cycle, PI3K/mTOR, and PPAR γ (Table 6).

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232 We calculated the percent change in biomarker expression in pio and met
233 treated patients to visualize the molecular effect on PAK signaling (Figure 4).
234 Molecular analysis revealed that pio treatment decreased expression levels of
235 multiple biomarkers including, apoptotic marker BCL2, and cell cycle markers
236 CyclinD1 and Ki67, respectively. Pio treatment increased total and cytoplasmic
237 PPAR γ levels by 50% and 8%, however it decreased nuclear expression by 32%
238 (Figure 4). Met treatment resulted in an increase in cell cycle biomarker Ki67,
239 and did not alter expression levels of PI3K/mTOR markers PS6K1 or
240 PS65Ser235 (Figure 4). These data indicate that pio inhibited pathways involved
241 in apoptosis and cell cycle regulation whereas met stimulated or did not alter
242 these pathways in patients which potentially have aberrant PAK signaling.
243

244 **DISCUSSION**

245

246 Type 2 diabetes is a major cause of disability and death worldwide, and in
247 addition to its multiple disease specific complications, it also carries and
248 increased cancer risk, such as colon cancer (Chang & Yang, 2016). P-21 activated
249 kinases are serine-threonine kinases, which influence multiple cell functions
250 from normal cell signaling to cancer (Kumar et al., 2016). Physiological PAK
251 signaling is regulated and implicated in the maintenance of cellular homeostasis,
252 however as the extracellular microenvironment or PAK expression in disease
253 changes, physiological signaling becomes pathological (Figure 5). Here we
254 reviewed physiological PAK signaling and found it is highly associated with
255 glucose homeostasis, although PAKs role in the pathogenesis of T2DM, and
256 cancer in diabetes patients is largely unknown.

257 PAK overexpression is associated with disease severity; however, in diabetes,
258 Ahn et al. previously reported a reduction in PAK1 expression in beta cells of the
259 pancreas (Ahn et al., 2016). Here we emphasized the importance of PAK
260 signaling (kinase activity) versus total expression levels, as both chronic
261 inflammation and hyperinsulinemia associated with T2DM (Chang & Yang, 2016)
262 (Donath & Shoelson, 2011), likely leads to pancreatic and peripheral PAK
263 activation. Additionally, six different PAKs have been characterized; therefore
264 signaling from other PAKs may compensate for reduction in PAK1 expression.
265 We identified novel PAK interacting partners associated with the pathogenesis of
266 T2DM, involving reduced beta cell mass and dysfunction, and obesity-insulin
267 resistance (Figure 1). Interestingly, we identified PAK interacting partner
268 IQGAP1 was involved in all three pathways (Figure 1D). IQGAP1 acts as a

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269 molecular scaffold for small Rho-GTPase activation of PAKs (R. Li et al., 1999),
270 which further implicates the importance of PAK kinase activation in T2DM.
271 The initial pathogenesis of T2DM involves beta cell expansion to compensate for
272 hyperglycemia, which eventually may lead to reduced beta cell mass (McCarthy,
273 2010). Here, PAK interacting partners involved with reduced beta cell mass and
274 dysfunction were specifically associated with cell cycle regulation and Wnt
275 signaling (Figure 1D). It is possible that in early diabetes, hyperglycemia
276 promotes cell cycle progression via PAK- Beta-catenin signaling (Park et al.,
277 2012). Over time, PAK driven proliferation and inflammation may lead to
278 oxidative stress (Reuter et al., 2010) and therefore contribute to beta cell
279 dysfunction and subsequent reduction in beta cell mass (Drews et al., 2010).
280 Interestingly, in oxidative stress nuclear Beta-catenin was reported to associate
281 with FOXO transcription factors (Essers et al., 2005), which could potentially
282 modulate PAK expression levels (Mazumdar & Kumar, 2003) in line with reports
283 from Ahn et al. Another explanation for PAK's role here may involve an
284 interaction with tumor suppressor p53 (Figure 1A and D). Interestingly,
285 activation of both p53 and MDM2, a p53 ubiquitin ligase, was reported in T2DM
286 (Xiaomu et al., 2016), and a PAK-MDM2 interaction was previously described (T.
287 Liu et al., 2013). Others provided a role for PAK upstream of p53 (Murray et al.,
288 2010) (Park et al., 2009), thus PAK signaling in T2DM may activate p53 directly,
289 or indirectly via MDM2 or through a cell stress pathway such as oxidative stress
290 or stress associated MAPK like p38/JNK (Shi et al., 2014) thereby inducing
291 apoptosis, impeding cell cycle progression, and subsequently reducing beta cell
292 mass. Additional PAK interacting partners associated with pathways involving
293 obesity-insulin resistance involved targets in RTK signaling, which is likely a

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294 consequence of multiple growth factors, and the chronic inflammatory state
295 associated with obesity in T2DM (Donath & Shoelson, 2011).

296 We sought to illuminate the role of PAK signaling in T2DM by analyzing the
297 effect that three well-known classes of anti-diabetic drugs had on PAK signaling
298 (Figure 2). Biguanide (metformin), sulfonylurea (glyburide), and glitazone
299 (pioglitazone) all interfered with signaling upstream and downstream of PAKs,
300 and this effect was more apparent with metformin (upstream) and pioglitazone
301 (downstream) of PAKs (Figure 2). Both metformin and pioglitazone mediated
302 inflammatory, proliferative, survival, and angiogenic pathways associated with
303 PAKs (Table 4 and Figure 2).

304 Considering the role of PAK signaling in the initiation of disease (Kumar et al.,
305 2016), and that PAK signaling appears to be activated in T2DM (Table 2), and
306 inactivated by anti-diabetic drugs (Figure 2), we investigated whether
307 metformin or pioglitazone were beneficial in patients with PAK-overexpressing
308 diseases including oral cancer (Parvathy et al., 2016), non small cell lung cancer
309 (Y. Liu et al., 2016), prostate (T. Liu et al., 2013), esophageal cancer (Gan et al.,
310 2015), bladder (Ito et al., 2007), and colorectal cancer (Song, Wang, Zheng, Yang,
311 & Xu, 2015). Pre-clinical studies investigating the chemopreventive effects of
312 these drugs seemed promising (Girnun et al., 2002) (Grommes et al., 2013)
313 (Burotto & Szabo, 2014), however results from human studies remain highly
314 ambiguous (Lewis et al., 2015) and a more complete analysis of this data would
315 allocate whether inhibition of PAK by metformin or pioglitazone is a promising
316 for chemoprevention.

317 We performed a systematic review of several studies (Table 5) involving
318 metformin and pioglitazone use in cancer patients to investigate whether these

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319 treatments are potential candidates to target PAK signaling (Figure 3). Our
320 analysis provided that pioglitazone treated patients with PAK dependent
321 diseases had a clinical response rate of 53% (Figure 3B). It was unfortunate that
322 data needed to calculate response rate to metformin were not available for
323 analysis. Both pioglitazone and metformin treatment resulted in relatively few
324 serious adverse events. However, the overwhelming majority of patients, nearly
325 80% of pioglitazone and 75% metformin treatment patients had mild adverse
326 events (Figure 3B). The high number of pioglitazone associated events such as
327 edema, and hypertension were likely due to the advanced treatment regimen
328 used in these patients, equivalent to 45mg/day, versus the standard care at a
329 dose equivalent to 15mg/day (Majima et al., 2006). Other studies have indicated
330 fewer adverse events at lower doses equivalent to 7.5mg/day (Majima et al.,
331 2006). Although gastrointestinal symptoms like constipation, diarrhea, and
332 nausea are common side effect of metformin (Bosi, 2009), so many adverse
333 events were unexpected and likely not attributable to dose, as patients received
334 a standard of care equivalent of 2000mg/day. Given that metformin is the gold
335 standard in treatment of T2DM (Bosi, 2009), the frequency of adverse events is
336 concerning. Although not life threatening, adverse events are a serious
337 therapeutic limitation and concern for future chemopreventive studies, as long-
338 term patient compliance will dramatically decline if quality of life is decreased by
339 therapy. In addition to our analysis, ten-year treatment of pioglitazone in
340 diabetic patients was associated with increased prostate and pancreatic cancer
341 risk, (Lewis et al., 2015), making its long-term use in chemoprevention
342 questionable.

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343 We verified whether PAK signaling was even affected in these patients by
344 pioglitazone or metformin at the molecular level (Table 6 and Figure 4), and
345 found that pioglitazone but not metformin decreased PAK signaling. This data
346 was in line with our analysis of signaling pathways affected by these drugs
347 (Table 4), in that metformin induced signaling upstream of PAKs while
348 pioglitazone rather reduced downstream signaling (Figure 2). Here pioglitazone
349 reduced markers of proliferation including cyclinD1 and Ki67, while metformin
350 had the opposite effect on proliferation. Long-term treatment with metformin in
351 diabetic patients may therefore induce, not inhibit long-term cancer risk,
352 however future studies would need to investigate this further.

353 Considering our clinical and molecular analysis of PAK biomarkers in
354 pioglitazone treated patients, future studies should investigate the long term
355 side effects associated with its treatment and whether PAK signaling in disease
356 can be impeded early on, to block malignant transformation (Kumar et al., 2016).

357 This was the first study to provide a mechanistic explanation of how anti-
358 diabetics may target PAK signaling for their potential use for chemoprevention
359 in patients with T2DM, albeit our signaling pathway analysis included multiple
360 pre-clinical studies, which were not of high significance. Ideally, a thorough
361 signaling pathway analysis should use PAK1 and p-PAK1 as biomarkers in
362 multiple human studies, however this data was unavailable for analysis due to
363 the limitations of the current literature in regard to our highly specific question
364 (Dammann et al., 2015). Considering the few patients which were analyzed here,
365 the accuracy of this data is supported by its correlation between literature
366 reports (Table 4 and Figure 2) and our analysis of PAK signaling pathways from
367 human studies (Table 6 and Figure 4). Future studies with more patients and

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368 additional readouts of known PAK targets would provide a more clear analysis of
369 whether chemoprevention in diabetes with pioglitazone is feasible long term.

370 **Future directions**

371

372 Although, not associated with diabetes, other studies of chemoprevention
373 have shown that anti-inflammatory drugs like (aspirin in colorectal cancer), and
374 (mesalamine in colitis associated cancer), reduce cancer-associated risk (Drew et
375 al., 2016) (Lyakhovich & Gasche, 2010). Mesalamine, the first line treatment for
376 chronic inflammation in ulcerative colitis (Karagozian & Burakoff, 2007), was
377 recently established as a PAK1 inhibitor (Khare et al., 2013), and others have
378 shown it is a PPAR-gamma ligand (Rousseaux et al., 2005); and both of these
379 mechanisms are in line with glitazones (Dammann et al., 2015). Therefore, future
380 directions in chemoprevention in diabetes should analyze PAK expression/
381 phosphorylation upon glitazone treatment and see if the effects are similar to
382 those of mesalamine in impeding chronic inflammation in colitis associated colon
383 cancer.

384 **Concluding remarks**

385

386 Anti-diabetics like pioglitazone rather than metformin should be utilized as a
387 platform for further understanding the role of PAKs as a chemopreventive target
388 in diabetes; however, before this is possible, future studies must standardize
389 doses specific to the associated disease in order to modulate PAK signaling
390 appropriately and minimize adverse effects. Ideal chemoprevention, like
391 mesalamine, will block inflammation, and impede aberrant PAK signaling
392 without altering cellular homeostasis.

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