122.84, 127.12, 127.76, 128.42, 130.88, 136.98, 146.98, 147.72, 170.56; IR (KBr): 1242 (S=O), 1736 (C=O) cm⁻¹; MS (EI) m/z 452 (M⁺); HRMS (EI): calcd for $C_{22}H_{28}O_8S$: 452.1505 (M⁺), found: 452.1512; $[\alpha]_D^{25} + 2.76$ (c 1.40, CHCl₃).

4.1.3.5. (R)-4-(4-Benzyloxy-3-hydeorxybenzyl)dihydrofuran-2-one (11). To a stirred solution of 10 (993 mg, 2.19 mmol) in DMSO (20 mL) was added KCN (150 mg, 2.19 mmol), and the resulting mixture was heated at 90 °C for 3 h. After cooling, the reaction was quenched with H2O (20 mL), and the aqueous mixture was extracted with Et₂O/AcOEt (1:1, 20 mL \times 3). The organic extracts were combined, dried over MgSO₄, and evaporated to give cyanide, which was used directly in the next step. To a stirred solution of cyanide obtained above in THF-H2O (3:1, 8 mL) was added LiOH·H₂O (91.9 mg, 2.19 mmol), and the reaction mixture was stirred at room temperature for 24 h. The reaction mixture was diluted with H₂O (10 mL), and the aqueous mixture was extracted with Et_2O (20 mL × 3). The organic extracts were combined, dried over MgSO₄, and evaporated to give alcohol, which was used directly in the next step. The alcohol obtained above was dissolved in 10% NaOH (aq) (10 mL), and the mixture was refluxed for 5 h. After cooling, 10% HCl (aq) (20 mL) and THF (20 mL) were added to the reaction mixture, and the resulting solution was stirred at room temperature for 50 h. The aqueous reaction mixture was extracted with Et₂O (30 mL \times 3), and the organic extracts were combined, dried over MgSO₄, and evaporated to give a residue, which was chromatographed on silica gel (20 g, hexane: acetone = 3:1) to give 11 (479 mg, 73% in 4 steps) as a colorless solid: ¹H NMR (300 MHz, CDCl₃) δ : 2.17–2.32 (1H, m), 2.52–2.69 (3H, m), 2.74–2.86 (1H, m), 3.91–4.05 (1H, m), 4.30–4.36 (1H, m), 5.09 (2H, s), 5.67 (1H, br), 6.59–6.89 (3H, m), 7.36–7.85 (5H, m); 13 C NMR (75 MHz, CDCl₃) δ : 34.25, 37.22, 38.41, 71.22, 72.63, 112.26, 114.78, 120.04, 127.69, 128.32, 128.61, 131.72, 136.09, 144.50, 145.89, 176.68; IR (KBr): 1647 (C=O), 3445 (OH) cm⁻¹; MS (EI) m/z 298 (M⁺); HRMS (EI): calcd for $C_{18}H_{18}O_4$: 298.1205 (M⁺), found: 298.1204; $[\alpha]_D^{26}$ +5.6 (c 0.13, CHCl₃); mp: 137-139 °C.

4.1.3.6. (*R*)-4-(4-Benzyloxy-3-methoxybenzyl)dihydrofuran-2-one (**12a**). To a stirred solution of **11** (330 mg, 1.1 mmol) in acetone (15 mL) were added K_2CO_3 (168 mg, 1.2 mmol) and Mel (0.41 mL, 6.6 mmol), and the reaction mixture was refluxed for 24 h. After cooling, the insoluble materials were filtered, and the filtrate was evaporated to give a residue, which was chromatographed on silica gel (15 g, hexane:acetone = 4:1) to give **12a** (304 mg, 88%) as a colorless oil: 1 H NMR (300 MHz, CDCl₃) δ: 2.17 (2H, s), 2.24–2.30 (1H, m), 3.88 (3H, s), 4.03–4.05 (1H, m), 4.30–4.35 (1H, m), 5.13 (2H, s), 6.61–6.64 (2H, m), 6.81–6.83 (1H, m), 7.27–7.45 (5H, m); 13 C NMR (75 MHz, CDCl₃) δ: 34.29, 37.30, 38.64, 56.06, 71.11, 72.60, 112.32, 114.23, 120.52, 127.12, 127.72, 128.40, 131.25, 136.96, 146.91, 149.66, 176.65; IR (neat): 1654 (C=C), 1774 (C=O) cm⁻¹; MS (EI) m/z 312 (M⁺); HRMS (EI): calcd for $C_{19}H_{20}O_4$: 312.1362 (M⁺), found: 312.1380; $|\alpha|_D^{25} + 4.9$ (c 0.95, CHCl₃).

4.1.3.7. (*R*)-4-(4-Benzyloxy-3-ethoxybenzyl)dihydrofuran-2-one (**12b**). By the procedure similar to preparation of **12a**, **12b** was prepared from **11** and Etl (84%) as a pale yellow oil: 1 H NMR (300 MHz, CDCl₃) δ : 1.44 (3H, t, J = 4.4 Hz), 2.28 (1H, dd, J = 17.3, 6.9 Hz), 2.60 (1H, dd, J = 17.3, 8.0 Hz), 2.67–2.84 (3H, m), 4.02–4.13 (3H, m), 4.32 (1H, dd, J = 9.1, 6.9 Hz), 5.12 (2H, s), 6.60–6.69 (2H, m), 6.84 (1H, d, J = 8.2 Hz), 7.30–7.77 (5H, m); 13 C NMR (75 MHz, CDCl₃) δ : 15.03, 34.29, 37.31, 38.61, 64.74, 71.37, 72.62, 114.29, 115.22, 120.73, 127.08, 127.63, 128.34, 131.46, 137.20, 147.33, 149.18, 176.67; IR (neat): 1507 (C=C), 1772 cm⁻¹ (C=O); MS (EI) m/z 326 (M⁺); HRMS (EI): calcd for $C_{20}H_{22}O_4$: 326.1518 (M⁺), found: 326.1523; $[\alpha]_D^{26} + 3.4$ (c 1.78, CHCl₃).

4.1.3.8. (*R*)-4-(4-Benzyloxy-3-propoxybenzyl)dihydrofuran-2-one (**12c**). By the procedure similar to preparation of **12a**, **12c** was prepared from **11** and *n*-PrBr (87%) as a colorless oil: 1 H NMR (600 MHz, CDCl₃) δ : 1.04 (3H, t, J=7.0 Hz), 1.84 (2H, sextet, J=7.0 Hz), 2.26 (1H, dd, J=17.5, 7.0 Hz), 2.57 (1H, dd, J=17.5, 8.1 Hz), 2.64—2.71 (2H, m), 2.74—2.83 (1H, m), 3.96 (2H, t, J=7.0 Hz), 4.00 (1H, dd, J=9.2, 5.9 Hz), 4.30 (1H, dd, J=9.2, 7.0 Hz), 5.09 (2H, s), 6.60 (1H, d, J=8.1 Hz), 6.67 (1H, s), 6.82 (1H, d, J=8.1 Hz), 7.27—7.42 (5H, m); 13 C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl₃) δ : 10.46, 22.55, 34.07, 37.15, 38.43, 70.65, 71.32, 72.55, 114.28, 115.38, 120.69, 127.10, 127.63, 128.34, 131.61, 137.31, 147.37, 149.52, 176.84; IR (neat): 1508 (C=C), 1773 (C=O) cm⁻¹; MS (EI) m/z 340 (M⁺); HRMS (EI): calcd for 340.1675 (M⁺), found: 340.1667; $[\alpha]_D^{26}-1.0$ (c 1.05, CHCl₃).

4.1.3.9. (R)-4-(3,4-Dimethoxybenzyl)dihydrofuran-2-one To a stirred solution of 12a (302 mg, 0.97 mmol) in MeOH (5 mL) was added 20% Pd(OH)₂ (20 mg), and the resulting suspension was stirred under a hydrogen atmosphere at 1 atm for 15 h. The catalyst was removed by filtration and the filtrate was evaporated to give phenol, which was used directly in the next step. To a stirred solution of the phenol obtained above in acetone (10 mL) were added K₂CO₃ (201.1 mg, 1.46 mmol) and MeI (0.18 mL, 2.92 mmol), and the resulting mixture was refluxed for 19 h. After cooling, the insoluble materials were filtered, and the filtrate was evaporated to give a residue, which was chromatographed on silica gel (10 g, hexane:acetone = 4:1) to give 13a (130 mg, 55% in 2 steps) as a pale yellow oil: ¹H NMR (300 MHz, CDCl₃) δ : 2.33 (1H, dd, J = 18.0, 9.3 Hz), 2.61 (1H, dd, J = 17.4, 8.1 Hz), 2.70-2.87 (3H, m), 3.87 (3H, s), 3.88 (3H, s), 4.05 (1H, dd, J = 9.3, 6.3 Hz), 4.33 (1H, dd, J = 9.3, 6.6 Hz), 6.66–6.72 (2H, m), 6.82 (1H, d, J = 8.1 Hz); $[\alpha]_D^{24} + 22.2$ (c 0.87, CHCl₃) (ref. [19], $[\alpha]_{\rm D}^{25}$ +23.8).

4.1.3.10. (*R*)-4-(4-Ethoxy-3-methoxybenzyl)dihydrofuran-2-one (**13b**). By the procedure similar to preparation of **13a**, **13b** was prepared from **12a** and Etl (55% in 2 steps) as a pale yellow oil: 1 H NMR (300 MHz, CDCl₃) δ: 1.46 (3H, t, J = 7.1 Hz), 2.29 (1H, dd, J = 17.6, 6.9 Hz), 2.63 (1H, dd, J = 17.6, 8.0 Hz), 2.71–2.88 (3H, m), 3.86 (3H, s), 4.03 (1H, dd, J = 9.1, 6.9 Hz), 4.06 (2H, q, J = 7.1 Hz), 4.34 (1H, dd, J = 9.1, 6.9 Hz), 6.65–6.68 (2H, m), 6.81 (1H, d, J = 8.2 Hz); 13 C NMR (75 MHz, CDCl₃) δ: 14.92, 34.32, 37.36, 38.65, 55.98, 64.38, 72.63, 112.01, 112.84, 120.56, 130.59, 147.06, 149.26, 176.68; IR (neat): 1514 (C=C), 1778 (C=O) cm⁻¹; MS (EI) m/z 250 (M⁺); HRMS (EI): calcd for C₁₄H₁₈O₄: 250.1205 (M⁺), found: 250.1192; $[\alpha]_D^{24} + 4.4$ (c 1.66, CHCl₃).

4.1.3.11. (*R*)-4-(3-Ethoxy-4-methoxybenzyl)dihydrofuran-2-one (**13c**). By the procedure similar to preparation of **13a**, **13c** was prepared from **12b** and Mel (55% in 2 steps) as a pale yellow oil: 1H NMR (300 MHz, CDCl₃) δ : 1.47 (3H, t, J = 6.9 Hz), 2.29 (1H, dd J = 17.3, 6.6 Hz), 2.61 (1H, dd, J = 17.3, 8.0 Hz), 2.67–2.87 (3H, m), 3.86(3H, s), 4.01–4.12 (3H, m), 4.34 (1H, dd, J = 9.1, 6.6 Hz), 6.62–6.69 (2H, m), 6.81 (1H, d, J = 8.0 Hz); 13 C NMR (75 MHz, CDCl₃) δ : 14.87, 34.24, 37.31, 38.54, 55.95, 64.35, 72.58, 111.61, 113.24, 120.54, 130.52, 148.01, 148.22, 176.63; IR (neat): 1541 (C=C), 1771 (C=O) cm⁻¹; MS (EI) m/z 250 (M⁺); HRMS (EI): calcd for $C_{14}H_{18}O_{4}$: 250.1205 (M⁺), found: 250.1207; $[\alpha]_{D}^{27} + 4.4$ (c 1.94, CHCl₃).

4.1.3.12. (*R*)-4-(3,4-Diethoxybenzyl)dihydrofuran-2-one (**13d**). By the procedure similar to preparation of **13a**, **13d** was prepared from **12b** and Etl (47% in 2 steps) as a pale yellow oil: 1 H NMR (300 MHz, CDCl₃) δ : 1.41–1.47 (6H, m), 2.28 (1H, dd, J = 17.3, 6.6 Hz), 2.59 (1H, dd, J = 17.3, 8.0 Hz), 2.67–2.86 (3H, m), 4.00–4.11 (5H, m), 4.32 (1H, dd, J = 9.3, 6.6 Hz), 6.64–6.67 (2H, m), 6.81 (1H, d, J = 8.5 Hz); 13 C NMR (75 MHz, CDCl₃) δ : 14.97, 34.30, 37.36, 38.61, 64.64, 64.69, 72.65,

113.70, 114.12, 120.78, 130.70, 147.53, 148.72, 176.68; IR (neat): 1507 (C=C), 1771 (C=O) cm $^{-1}$; MS (EI) m/z 264 (M $^+$); HRMS (EI): calcd for C₁₅H₂₀O₄: 264.1362 (M $^+$), found: 264.1369; [α] $_D^{26}$ +5.4 (c 1.29, CHCl₃).

4.1.3.13. (*R*)-4-(4-Methoxy-3-propoxybenzyl)dihydrofuran-2-one (**13e**). By the procedure similar to preparation of **13a**, **13e** was prepared from **12c** and Mel (80% in 2 steps) as a pale yellow oil: 1 H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl₃) δ : 1.05 (3H, t, J = 7.1 Hz), 1.87 (2H, sextet, J = 7.1 Hz), 2.29 (1H, dd, J = 17.5, 6.8 Hz), 2.60 (1H, dd, J = 17.5, 8.1 Hz), 2.65–2.73 (2H, m), 2.77–2.84 (1H, m), 3.85 (1H, s), 3.96 (2H, t, J = 7.1 Hz), 4.03 (1H, dd, J = 9.3, 6.1 Hz), 4.33 (1H, dd, J = 9.3, 7.0 Hz), 6.67 (1H, s), 6.68 (1H, d, J = 7.8 Hz), 6.81 (1H, d, J = 7.8 Hz); 13 C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl₃) δ : 10.37, 22.44, 34.15, 37.23, 38.45, 56.00, 70.51, 72.57, 111.89, 113.52, 120.60, 130.67, 148.25, 148.62, 176.86; IR (neat): 1516 (C=C), 1778 (C=O) cm⁻¹; MS (EI) m/z 264 (M⁺); HRMS(EI): calcd for $C_{15}H_{20}O_4$: 264.1362 (M⁺), found: 264.1345; $|\alpha|_D^{26} + 3.2$ (c 1.05, CHCl₃).

4.1.3.14. (R)-4-(4-Ethoxy-3-propoxybenzyl)dihydrofuran-2-one (13f). By the procedure similar to preparation of 13a, 13f was prepared from 12c and Etl (77% in 2 steps) as a pale yellow oil: 1H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl $_3$) δ : 1.05 (3H, t, J=7.0 Hz), 1,42 (3H, t, J=6.8 Hz), 1.87 (2H, sextet, J=7.0 Hz), 2.28 (1H, dd, J=17.5, 7.0 Hz), 2.60 (1H, dd, J=17.5, 8.0 Hz), 2.64—2.72 (2H, m), 2.74—2.85 (1H, m), 3.94 (2H, t, J=7.0 Hz), 4.01—4.09 (3H, m), 4.32 (1H, dd, J=9.1, 6.9 Hz), 6.64 (1H, s), 6.65 (1H, d, J=8.0 Hz), 6.81 (1H, d, J=8.0 Hz); 13 C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl $_3$) δ : 10.35, 14.79, 22.50, 34.10, 37.16, 38.38, 64.67, 70.72, 72.56, 114.05, 114.31, 120.78, 130.88, 147.64, 149.09, 176.85; IR (neat): 1510 (C=C), 1774 (C=0) cm $^{-1}$; MS (EI) m/z 278 (M^+); HRMS (EI): calcd for $C_{16}H_{22}O_4$: 278.1518 (M^+), found: 278.1512; $[\alpha]_D^{26}+1.2$ (c 1.05, CHCl $_3$).

4.1.3.15. (3R,4R)-3-(4-Benzyloxy-3-methoxybenzyl)-4-(3-ethoxy-4-methoxybenzyl)dihydrofuran-2-one (14a). To a stirred solution of 13b (29.6 mg, 0.12 mmol) in THF (2 mL) were added LiHMDS (1.6 M in THF, 0.12 mL, 0.18 mmol), HMPA (31 μ L, 0.18 mmol) at -78 °C, and the resulting solution was stirred at the same temperature for 0.5 h. To the reaction mixture was added a solution of 4-benzyloxy-3methoxybenzyl bromide [20] (52.3 mg, 0.19 mmol) in THF (2 mL), and allowed to warm to room temperature over 1 h, and then stirred at the same temperature for 20 h. The reaction was guenched with H₂O (4 mL), and the aqueous mixture was extracted with Et₂O (10 mL × 3). The organic extracts were combined, dried over MgSO₄, and evaporated to give residue, which was chromatographed on silica gel (10 g, hexane: acetone = 4:1) to give 14a (25 mg, 44%) as a pale yellow oil: ¹H NMR (300 MHz, CDCl₃) δ: 1.44 (3H, t, J = 6.9 Hz), 2.46— 2.65 (4H, m), 2.91-2.95 (2H, m), 3.79-3.90 (1H, m), 3.84 (6H, s), 4.01 (2H, q, I = 6.9 Hz), 4.08 - 4.20 (1H, m), 5.12 (2H, s), 6.50 - 6.80 (6H, m),7.28-7.43 (5H, m); ¹³C NMR (75 MHz, CDCl₃) δ: 14.77, 34.48, 38.02, 41.09, 46.42, 55.90, 64.28, 65.18, 71.03, 71.16, 111.57, 112.85, 113.35, 113.92, 114.02, 120.54, 121.28, 127.17, 127.20, 127.76, 128.46, 130.32, 130.82, 137.06, 147.01, 148.09, 148.26, 149.73, 178.65; IR (neat): 1515 (C=C), 1770 (C=O) cm⁻¹; MS (EI) m/z 476 (M⁺); HRMS (EI): calcd for C₂₉H₃₂O₆: 476.2199 (M⁺), found: 476.2197; $[\alpha]_D^{25} - 16.4$ (c 0.77, CHCl₃).

4.1.3.16. (3R,4R)-3-(4-Benzyloxy-3-ethoxybenzyl)-4-(3-ethoxy-4-methoxybenzyl)dihydrofuran-2-one (14b). By the procedure similar to preparation of 14a, 14b was prepared from 13b and 4-benzyloxy-3-ethoxybenzyl bromide [21] (59%) as a pale yellow oil: $^1\mathrm{H}$ NMR (300 MHz, CDCl₃) δ : 1.34—1.40 (6H, m), 2.36—2.51 (4H, m), 2.81—2.85 (2H, m), 3.71—3.78 (1H, m), 3.75 (3H, s), 3.90—4.05 (5H, m), 5.02 (2H, s), 6.40—6.80 (6H, m), 7.14—7.35 (5H, m); $^{13}\mathrm{C}$ NMR (75 MHz, CDCl₃) δ : 14.75, 14.82, 34.43, 37.99, 41.05, 46.39, 55.86, 64.22, 64.47, 71.14, 71.26, 111.51, 113.24, 114.59, 114.97, 120.51, 121.39, 127.11, 127.64, 128.35, 130.31, 130.99, 137.27, 147.33, 148.03, 148.23, 149.24, 178.65; IR (neat): 1507 (C=C), 1771 (C=O) cm^{-1};

MS (EI) m/z 490 (M⁺); HRMS (EI): calcd for C₃₀H₃₄O₆: 490.2355 (M⁺), found: 490.2383; $[\alpha]_0^{26}$ –14.8 (c 1.46, CHCl₃).

4.1.3.17. (3R,4R)-3-(4-Benzyloxy-3-methoxybenzyl)-4-(4-ethoxy-3-methoxybenzyl)dihydrofuran-2-one (14c). By the procedure similar to preparation of 14a, 14c was prepared from 13c and 4-benzyloxy-3-methoxybenzyl bromide [20] (43%) as a pale yellow oil: 1H NMR $(300 \text{ MHz}, \text{CDCl}_3)$ δ : $1.45 (3H, t, J = 6.9 \text{ Hz}), 2.47-2.63 (4H, m), 2.91-2.95 (2H, m), 3.84 (3H, s), 3.91 (3H, s), 3.91-3.95 (1H, m), 4.09 (2H, q, <math>J = 6.9 \text{ Hz}), 4.03-4.14 (1H, m), 5.16 (2H, s), 6.48-6.96 (6H, m), 7.28-7.45 (5H, m); <math>^{13}\text{C}$ NMR $(75 \text{ MHz}, \text{CDCl}_3)$ δ : 14.90, 34.58, 38.19, 41.13, 46.55, 55.98, 64.35, 65.29, 71.06, 110.88, 112.03, 112.82, 113.89, 113.97, 119.21, 120.44, 121.22, 127.69, 128.40, 130.26, 130.73, 134.03, 136.98, 146.91, 149.61, 178.49; IR (neat): 1261 (C=C), 1770 (C=O) cm $^{-1}$; MS (EI) m/z 476 (M^+); HRMS (EI): calcd for $C_{29}H_{32}O_6$: 476.2199 (M^+), found: 476.2209; $[\alpha]_{20}^{26} - 9.0 \text{ (c } 1.75, \text{CHCl}_3)$.

4.1.3.18. (3R,4R)-3-(4-Benzyloxy-3-ethoxybenzyl)-4-(4-ethoxy-3-methoxybenzyl)dihydrofuran-2-one (**14d**). By the procedure similar to preparation of **14a**, **14d** was prepared from **13c** and 4-benzyloxy-3-ethoxybenzyl bromide [21] (53%) as a pale yellow oil: ¹H NMR (300 MHz, CDCl₃) δ: 1.41–1.48 (6H, m), 2.44–2.67 (4H, m), 2.88–2.93 (2H, m), 3.79 (3H, s), 3.80–3.87 (1H, m), 4.02–4.14 (5H, m), 5.11 (2H, s), 6.45–6.96 (6H, m), 7.27–7.45 (5H, m); ¹³C NMR (75 MHz, CDCl₃) δ: 14.62, 14.69, 30.69, 34.27 37.89, 40.87, 46.28, 55.66, 64.12, 64.35, 71.04, 71.12, 111.92, 112.61, 114.52, 114.84, 120.38, 121.31, 127.02, 127.52, 128.23, 130.29, 130.91, 137.17, 146.91, 147.20, 149.10, 178.55; IR (neat): 1515 (C=C), 1771 (C=O) cm⁻¹; MS (EI) m/z 490 (M⁺); HRMS (EI): calcd for C₃₀H₃₄O₆: 490.2355 (M⁺), found: 490.2383; $|\alpha|_D^{24}$ –17.9 (c 1.14, CHCl₃).

4.1.3.19. (3R,4R)-3-(4-Benzyloxy-3-propoxybenzyl)-4-(3-ethoxy-4methoxybenzyl)dihydrofuran-2-one (14e). By the procedure similar to preparation of 14a, 14e was prepared from 13b and 4-benzyloxy-3propoxybenzyl bromide, prepared from 4-benzyl-3propoxybenzaldehyde [22], (40%) as a pale yellow oil: 1H NMR $(400 \text{ MHz}, \text{CDCl}_3) \delta$: 1.05 (3H, t, I = 7.1 Hz), 1.45 (3H, t, I = 7.8 Hz), 1.84 (2H, sextet, J = 7.1 Hz), 2.46-2.64 (4H, m), 2.86-2.99 (2H, m), 3.80-3.87 (4H, m), 3.94 (2H, t, J = 7.1 Hz), 4.00 (2H, q, J = 7.8 Hz), 4.06-4.11(1H, m), 5.10 (2H, s), 6.48-6.82 (6H, m), 7.28-7.44 (5H, m); ¹³C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl₃) δ: 10.47, 14.75, 22.56, 34.47, 38.00, 41.10, 46.40, 55.87, 64.25, 70.53, 71.35, 111.55, 113.29, 114.71, 115.25, 120.52, 121.37, 127.18, 127.57, 127.63, 128.33, 130.35, 131.126, 137.34, 147.40, 148.07, 148.26, 149.57, 178.64; IR (neat): 1514 (C=C), 1771 (C=O) cm⁻¹; MS (EI) m/z 504 (M⁺); HRMS(EI): calcd for $C_{31}H_{36}O_6$: 504.2512 (M⁺), found: 504.2538; $[\alpha]_D^{24}$ –10.7 (*c* 0.75, CHCl₃).

4.1.3.20. (3R,4R)-3-(4-Benzyloxy-3-methoxybenzyl)-4-(3,4-diethoxybenzyl)dihydrofuran-2-one (14f). By the procedure similar to preparation of 14a, 14f was prepared from 13d and 4-benzyloxy-3-methoxybenzyl bromide [20] (48%) as a pale yellow oil: 1 H NMR (300 MHz, CDCl₃) δ: 1.41–1.59 (6H, m), 2.43–2.63 (4H, m), 2.91–2.95 (2H, m), 3.82–3.90 (1H, m), 3.85 (3H, s), 3.82–3.89 (1H, m), 3.97–4.12 (5H, m), 5.12 (2H, s), 6.49–6.80 (6H, m), 7.26–7.44 (5H, m); 13 C NMR (75 MHz, CDCl₃) δ: 14.85, 34.50, 38.07, 41.12, 46.50, 55.96, 64.59, 71.09, 71.21, 112.90, 113.63, 114.06, 114.20, 120.78, 121.33, 127.26, 127.81, 128.51, 130.50, 130.86, 137.12, 147.06, 147.60, 148.77, 149.76, 178.70; IR (neat): 1509 (C=C), 1772 (C=O) cm⁻¹; MS (EI) m/z 490 (M⁺); HRMS (EI): calcd for C₃₀H₃₄O₆: 490.2355 (M⁺), found: 490.2388; $[α]_D^{25} - 13.5$ (c 0.98, CHCl₃).

4.1.3.21. (3R,4R)-3-(4-Benzyloxy-3-ethoxybenzyl)-4-(3,4-diethoxybenzyl)dihydrofuran-2-one (**14g**). By the procedure similar to preparation of **14a**, **14g** was prepared from **13d** and 4-benzyloxy-3-ethoxybenzyl bromide [21] (56%) as a pale yellow oil: ¹H NMR

(300 MHz, CDCl₃) δ : 1.41–1.44 (9H, m), 2.42–2.60 (4H, m), 3.82–3.86 (1H, m), 4.02–4.13 (7H, m), 5.11 (2H, s), 6.47–6.81 (6H, m), 7.27–7.44 (5H, m); ¹³C NMR (75 MHz, CDCl₃) δ : 14.87, 34.50, 38.09, 41.11, 46.50, 64.60, 71.22, 71.37, 113.63, 114.17, 114.69, 115.08, 120.79, 121.48, 127.21, 127.71, 128.42, 130.53, 131.07, 137.35, 147.41, 147.95, 148.78, 149.32, 178.73; IR (neat): 1514 (C=C), 1770 (C=O) cm⁻¹; MS (EI) m/z 504 (M⁺); HRMS (EI): calcd for $C_{31}H_{36}O_{6}$: 504.2512 (M⁺), found: 504.6139; $[\alpha]_{2}^{25}$ – 12.0 (c 0.58, CHCl₃).

4.1.3.22. (3R,4R)-3-(4-Benzyloxy-3-propoxybenzyl)-4-(4-methoxy-3-propoxybenzyl)dihydrofuran-2-one (14h). By the procedure similar to preparation of 14a, 14h was prepared from 13e and 4-benzyloxy-3-propoxybenzyl bromide (49%) as a pale yellow oil: 1H NMR $(400 \text{ MHz}, \text{CDCl}_3)$ δ : 1.02-1.08 (6H, m), 1.82-1.88 (4H, m), 2.45-2.63 (4H, m), 2.85-2.97 (2H, m), 3.83 (3H, s), 3.83-4.60 (6H, m), 5.10 (2H, s), 6.51-6.96 (6H, m), 7.28-7.45 (5H, m); 13 C NMR $(100 \text{ MHz}, \text{CDCl}_3)$ δ : 10.48, 14.84, 22.56, 34.46, 38.00, 41.07, 46.45, 64.71, 65.15, 70.55, 70.74, 71.18, 71.35, 71.37, 112.76, 114.42, 115.12, 119.34, 120.77, 121.40, 127.13, 127.15, 127.64, 128.34, 128.36, 130.63, 131.13, 137.36, 147.98, 149.58, 178.73; 1R (neat): 1514 (C=C), 1771 (C=O) cm⁻¹; MS (EI) m/z 518 (M^+) ; HRMS(EI): calcd for $C_{32}H_{38}O_6$: 518.2668 (M^+) , found: 518.2669; $[\alpha]_D^{25}$ -12.2 (c 0.75, CHCl₃).

4.1.3.23. (3R,4R)-3-(4-Benzyloxy-3-propoxybenzyl)-4-(4-ethoxy-3-propoxybenzyl)dihydrofuran-2-one (14i). By the procedure similar to preparation of 14a, 14i was prepared from 13f and 4-benzyloxy-3-propoxybenzyl bromide (33%) as a pale yellow oil: 1 H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl₃) δ: 1.02–1.08 (6H, m), 1.41 (3H, t, J = 7.1 Hz), 1.80–1.91 (4H, m), 2.41–2.63 (4H, m), 2.87–2.94 (2H, m), 3.82–3.96 (5H, m), 4.01 (2H, q, J = 7.1 Hz), 4.05–4.10 (1H, m), 5.10 (2H, s), 6.49–6.96 (6H, m), 7.28–7.45 (5H, m); 13 C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl₃) δ: 10.50, 22.59, 34.51, 38.05, 41.12, 46.48, 56.00, 65.22, 70.57, 71.40, 111.86, 112.79, 113.63, 114.72, 115.30, 119.36, 120.55, 121.40, 127.16, 127.28, 127.65, 128.36, 130.41, 131.16, 137.37, 147.43, 148.25, 148.58, 149.62, 178.70; IR (neat): 1508 (C=C), 1767 (C=O) cm⁻¹; MS (EI) m/z 532 (M⁺); HRMS (EI): calcd for C₃₃H₄₀O₆: 532.2825 (M⁺), found: 518.2817; $|\alpha|_D^{25}$ –6.3 (c 0.80, CHCl₃).

4.1.3.24. (3R,4R)-4-(3-Ethoxy-4-methoxybenzyl)-3-(4-hydroxy-3methoxybenzyl)dihydrofuran-2-one (4g). To a stirred solution of 14a (47.5 mg, 0.10 mmol) in MeOH (5 mL) was added 20% Pd(OH)₂ (20 mg), and the resulting suspension was stirred under a hydrogen atmosphere at 1 atm for 20 h. The catalyst was removed by filtration and the filtrate was evaporated to give a residue, which was chromatographed on silica gel (10 g, hexane:acetone = 3:1) to give **4g** (34.1 mg, 89%) as a pale yellow oil: 1 H NMR (300 MHz, CDCl₃) δ : 1.45 (3H, t, J = 7.1 Hz), 2.43–2.65 (4H, m), 2.91–2.94 (2H, m), 3.81– 3.89 (1H, m), 3.83 (3H, s), 3.84 (3H, s), 4.01 (2H, q, J = 7.1 Hz), 4.12(1H, dd, J = 9.1, 6.9 Hz), 5.53 (1H, s), 6.47-6.65 (4H, m), 6.69 (1H, d)J = 8.0 Hz), 6.82 (1H, d, J = 8.0 Hz); ¹³C NMR (75 MHz, CDCl₃) δ : 14.80, 30.91, 34.46, 38.09, 40.95, 46.55, 55.83, 55.94, 64.30, 71.27, 99.88, 111.54, 113.26, 114.10, 120.58, 122.08, 129.47, 130.35, 144.52, 146.67, 148.11, 148.33; IR (neat): 1513 (C=C), 1771 (C=O) cm⁻¹; MS (EI) m/z 386 (M⁺); HRMS (EI): calcd for C₂₂H₂₆O₆: 386.1729 (M⁺), found: 386.1693; $[\alpha]_D^{25}$ –17.2 (c 1.44, CHCl₃).

4.1.3.25. (3R,4R)-4-(3-Ethoxy-4-hydroxybenzyl)-3-(3-ethoxy-4-methoxybenzyl)dihydrofuran-2-one (4h). By the procedure similar to preparation of 4g, 4h was prepared from 14b (63%) as a pale yellow oil: 1 H NMR (300 MHz, CDCl₃) δ : 1.42–1.47 (6H, m), 2.46–2.63 (4H, m), 2.92 (2H, d, <math>J = 5.8 Hz), 3.81–3.89 (1H, m), 3.84 (3H, s), 3.97–4.12 (5H, m), 5.60 (1H, br), 6.48–6.84 (6H, m); 13 C NMR (75 MHz, CDCl₃) δ : 14.78, 30.88, 34.39, 38.04, 40.90, 46.53, 55.90, 64.26, 64.39, 71.24, 111.51, 112.37, 113.21, 114.01, 120.55, 121.95, 129.34, 130.35, 144.59, 145.93, 148.08, 148.03, 178.74; IR

(neat): 1516 (C=C), 1768 (C=O) cm⁻¹; MS (EI) m/z 400 (M⁺); HRMS (EI): calcd for $C_{23}H_{28}O_6$: 400.1886 (M⁺), found: 400.1868; $[\alpha]_D^{27}$ –16.9 (c 1.13, CHCl₃).

4.1.3.26. (3R,4R)-4-(4-Ethoxy-3-methoxybenzyl)-3-(4-hydroxy-3-methoxybenzyl)dihydrofuran-2-one (4i). By the procedure similar to preparation of 4g, 4i was prepared from 14c (57%) as a pale yellow oil: 1 H NMR (300 MHz, CDCl₃) δ: 1.45 (3H, t, J=7.1 Hz), 2.44–2.67 (4H, m), 2.93 (2H, d, J=5.8 Hz), 3.81 (3H, s), 3.82 (3H, s), 3.84–3.99 (1H, m), 4.03–4.15 (1H, m), 4.08 (2H, q, J=7.1 Hz), 5.30 (1H, br), 6.47–6.66 (4H, m), 6.75 (1H, d, J=8.0 Hz), 6.82 (1H, d, J=8.0 Hz); 13 C NMR (75 MHz, CDCl₃) δ: 14.90, 30.99, 34.53, 38.22, 40.97, 46.63, 55.89, 64.35, 71.31, 111.48, 112.00, 112.71, 114.04, 120.47, 122.01, 129.37, 130.30, 144.39, 146.54, 146.99, 149.18, 178.56; IR (neat): 1749 (C=O), 3648 (OH) cm⁻¹; MS (EI) m/z 386 (M⁺); HRMS (EI): calcd for C₂₂H₂₆O₆: 386.1729 (M⁺), found: 386.1693; [α]²⁶ –9.5 (c 0.71, CHCl₃).

4.1.3.27. (3R,4R)-4-(3-Ethoxy-4-hydroxybenzyl)-3-(4-ethoxy-3-methoxybenzyl)dihydrofuran-2-one (4j). By the procedure similar to preparation of 4g, 4j was prepared from 14d (63%) as a pale yellow oil: 1 H NMR $(300 \text{ MHz}, \text{CDCl}_3)$ δ : 1.39-1.46 (6H, m), 2.41-2.66 (4H, m), 2.91 (2H, d, J=6.0 Hz), 3.80 (3H, s), 3.81-3.87 (1H, m), 4.00-4.10 (5H, m), 5.64 (1H, br), 6.47-6.65 (4H, m), 6.74 (1H, d, J=8.2 Hz), 6.82 (1H, d, J=8.2 Hz); 13 C NMR $(75 \text{ MHz}, \text{CDCl}_3)$ δ : 14.75, 30.86, 34.35, 38.06, 40.84, 46.54, 55.78, 64.26, 64.37, 71.24, 111.98, 112.38, 112.69, 114.00, 120.52, 121.95, 129.32, 130.38, 144.58, 145.91, 147.07, 149.25; 18 (neat): 1771 (C=0), 3548 (OH) cm $^{-1}$; MS (EI) m/z 400 (M^+) ; HRMS (EI): calcd for $C_{23}H_{28}O_6$: 400.1886 (M^+) , found: 400.1897; $[\alpha]_D^{26} - 12.4$ (c 1.04, CHCl₃).

4.1.3.28. (3R,4R)-4-(3-Ethoxy-4-methoxybenzyl)-3-(4-hydroxy-3-propoxybenzyl)dihydrofuran-2-one (**4k**). By the procedure similar to preparation of **4g**, **4k** was prepared from **14e** (56%) as a pale yellow oil: 1 H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl₃) δ: 1.04 (3H, t, J = 7.4 Hz), 1.45 (3H, t, J = 7.1 Hz), 1.82 (2H, sextet, J = 7.4 Hz), 2.48–2.63 (4H, m), 2.91 (2H, d, J = 5.9 Hz), 3.81–3.88 (4H, m), 3.93 (2H, t, J = 7.4 Hz), 4.02 (2H, q, J = 7.1 Hz), 4.06–4.12 (1H, m), 5.57 (1H, s), 6.48 (1H, s), 6.54 (1H, d, J = 10.2 Hz), 6.60 (1H, d, J = 10.2 Hz), 6.66 (1H,s), 6.75 (1H, d, J = 8.2 Hz), 6.82 (1H, d, J = 8.2 Hz); 13 C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl₃) δ: 10.43, 14.79, 22.49, 34.41, 38.05, 40.95, 46.54, 55.92, 64.29, 70.32, 71.24, 111.55, 112.43, 113.26, 114.01, 120.57, 121.93, 129.37, 130.37, 144.64, 146.05, 148.12, 148.33, 178.75; IR (neat): 1516 (C=C), 1769 (C=O), 3589 (OH) cm⁻¹; MS (EI) m/z 414 (M⁺); HRMS (EI): calcd for $C_{24}H_{30}O_6$: 414.2042 (M⁺), found: 414.2046; $[\alpha]_D^{26}$ –10.6 (c 1.10, CHCl₃).

4.1.3.29. (3R,4R)-4-(3,4-Diethoxybenzyl)-3-(4-hydroxy-3-methoxybenzyl)dihydrofuran-2-one (4l). By the procedure similar to preparation of 4g, 4l was prepared from 14f (81%) as a pale yellow oil: $^1\mathrm{H}$ NMR (300 MHz, CDCl₃) δ : 1.25–1.45 (6H, m), 2.44–2.66 (4H, m), 2.92 (2H, d, J=6.0 Hz), 3.83 (3H, s), 3.85–3.89 (1H, m), 3.98–4.13 (5H, m), 5.55 (1H, br), 6.49–6.67 (4H, m), 6.76 (1H, d, J=7.8 Hz), 6.82 (1H, d, J=7.8 Hz); $^{13}\mathrm{C}$ NMR (75 MHz, CDCl₃) δ : 14.84, 30.91, 34.40, 38.04, 40.94, 46.56, 55.84, 64.58, 71.25, 111.56, 113.60, 114.11, 120.77, 122.10, 129.47, 130.51, 144.51, 146.65, 147.57, 148.78, 178.75; IR (neat): 1766 (C=O), 2978 (OH) cm $^{-1}$; MS (EI) m/z 400 (M $^{+}$); HRMS (EI): calcd for C23H28O6: 400.1886 (M $^{+}$), found: 400.1858; [α] $_D^{27}$ –16.0 (c 1.33, CHCl₃).

4.1.3.30. (3R,4R)-4-(3,4-Diethoxybenzyl)-3-(4-hydroxy-3-ethoxybenzyl)dihydrofuran-2-one (4m). By the procedure similar to preparation of 4g, 4m was prepared from 14g (66%) as a pale yellow oil: ¹H NMR (300 MHz, CDCl₃) δ : 1.40–1.46 (9H, m), 2.42–2.67 (4H, m), 2.91 (2H, d, J = 5.7 Hz), 3.85 (1H, dd, J = 9.1, 7.4 Hz), 3.97–4.12

(7H, m), 5.59 (1H, br), 6.49–6.66 (4H, m), 6.75 (1H, d, J = 8.0 Hz), 6.82 (1H, d, J = 8.0 Hz); ¹³C NMR (75 MHz, CDCl₃) δ: 14.81, 14.85, 34.39, 38.06, 40.92, 46.58, 64.42, 64.59, 71.27, 112.43, 113.62, 114.05, 114.10, 120.80, 122.00, 129.37, 130.53, 144.61, 145.94, 147.58, 148.80, 178.79; IR (neat): 1516 (C=C), 1761 (C=O) cm⁻¹; MS (EI) m/z 414 (M⁺); HRMS (EI): calcd for C₂₄H₃₀O₆: 414.2042 (M⁺), found: 414.2024; $[α]_D^{25}$ –14.0 (c 0.70, CHCl₃).

4.1.3.31. (3R,4R)-4-(4-Methoxy-3-propoxybenzyl)-3-(4-hydroxy-3-propoxybenzyl)dihydrofuran-2-one (4n). By the procedure similar to preparation of 4g, 4n was prepared from 14h (46%) as a pale yellow oil: 1 H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl₃) δ: 1.02–1.07 (6H, m), 1.78–1.90 (4H, m), 2.47–2.65 (4H, m), 2.92 (2H, d, J = 5.9 Hz), 3.81 (3H, s), 3.81–3.95 (5H, m), 4.08–4.12 (1H, m), 5.56 (1H, br), 6.50 (1H, s), 6.53 (1H, d, J = 7.9 Hz), 6.60 (1H, d, J = 7.9 Hz), 6.66 (1H, s), 6.75 (1H, d, J = 8.2 Hz), 6.82 (1H, d, J = 8.2 Hz); 13 C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl₃) δ:10.39, 22.45, 22.47, 34.37, 38.01, 40.91, 46.54, 56.00, 70.29, 70.48, 71.23, 77.21, 111.81, 112.43, 113.53, 114.00, 120.55, 121.90, 129.34, 130.41, 144.61, 146.03, 148.22, 148.58, 178.74; IR (neat): 1516 (C=C), 1767 (C=O), 3422 (OH) cm⁻¹; MS (EI) m/z 428 (M⁺); HRMS (EI): calcd for C₂₅H₃₂O₆: 428.2199 (M⁺), found: 428.2216; $[\alpha]_D^{25}$ –13.7 (c 0.70, CHCl₃).

4.1.3.32. (3R,4R)-4-(4-Ethoxy-3-propoxybenzyl)-3-(4-hydroxy-3-propoxybenzyl)dihydrofuran-2-one (4o). By the procedure similar to preparation of 4g, 4o was prepared from 14i (63%) as a pale yellow oil: 1 H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl₃) δ: 1.02–1.07 (6H, m), 1.42 (3H, t, J=7.1 Hz), 1.80–1.86 (4H, m), 2.41–2.63 (4H, m), 2.92 (2H, d, J=5.9 Hz), 3.83–3.96 (5H, m), 4.01 (2H, q, J=7.1 Hz), 4.07–4.11 (1H, m), 5.57 (1H, s), 6.51–6.84 (6H, m); 13 C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl₃) δ: 10.50, 22.59, 34.51, 38.05, 41.12, 46.48, 56.00, 65.22, 70.57, 71.40, 111.86, 112.79, 113.63, 114.72, 115.30, 119.36, 120.55, 121.40, 127.16, 127.28, 127.65, 128.36, 130.41, 131.16, 137.37, 147.43, 148.25, 148.58, 149.62, 178.7010.45, 14.87, 22.50, 22.60, 34.37, 38.04, 40.92, 46.58, 64,76, 70.33, 70.76, 71.26, 100.36, 112.48, 114.02, 114.06, 114.38, 129.37, 130.67, 144.63, 146.04, 147.70, 149.14; IR (neat): 1508 (C=C), 1770 (C=O) cm⁻¹; MS (EI) m/z 442 (M+); HRMS (EI): calcd for $C_{26}H_{34}O_6$: 442.2355 (M+), found: 442.2350; $[\alpha]_D^{25} - 12.9$ (c 0.50, CHCl₃).

4.1.4. Effective synthesis of (3R,4R)-4-(3,4-diethoxybenzyl)-3-(4-hydroxy-3-ethoxybenzyl)dihydrofuran-2-one (4m)

4.1.4.1. 2-(3,4-Diehtoxybenzyl)malonic acid diethyl ester (17). To a stirred solution of (3,4-diehtoxyphenyl)methanol (16) [16,23] (733 mg, 3.74 mmol) in CH₂Cl₂ (20 mL) were added NEt₃ (0.67 mL, 4.86 mmol) and MsCl (0.32 mL, 4.11 mmol) at 0 °C, and the reaction mixture was stirred at room temperature for 0.5 h. The reaction was quenched with sat. NaHCO3 (aq) (10 mL), and the organic layer were separated. The aqueous layer was extracted with $CH_{2}Cl_{2}$ (20 $mL\,\times\,3),$ and the organic layer and extracts were combined, dried over MgSO₄. The solvent was removed under reduced pressure to give a pale yellow oil, which was used directly in the next step. To a stirred solution of diethyl malonate (1.14 ml, 7.48 mmol) in DMF (20 mL) was added NaH (60%, 299 mg, 7.48 mmol) at 0 °C, and the resulting mixture was stirred at room temperature for 1 h. To the solution was added a solution of the oil obtained above in DMF (2 mL) at 0 °C, and the reaction mixture was stirred at room temperature for 25 h. The reaction was quenched with sat. NaHCO3 (aq) (10 mL), and the aqueous mixture was extracted with Et₂O (20 mL × 3). The organic extracts were combined, dried over MgSO4, evaporated to give a pale yellow oil was chromatographed on silica gel (20 hexane: acetone = 15:1) to give 17 (1.10 g, 87% in 2 steps) as a pale yellow oil: 1 H NMR (300 MHz, CDCl₃) δ : 1.15–1.30 (6H, m), 1.39– 1.46 (6H, m), 3.13 (2H, d, J = 8.0 Hz), 3.59 (1H, t, J = 8.0 Hz),

4.01–4.24 (8H, m), 6.68–6.78 (3H, m); 13 C NMR (75 MHz, CDCl₃) δ : 13.77, 13.83, 14.57, 14.60, 34.06, 41.37, 53.82, 61.11, 64.19, 113.33, 114.09, 120.83, 130.28, 147.28, 148.33, 166.34, 168.64; IR (neat): 1516 (C=C), 1731 (C=O) cm⁻¹; MS (EI) m/z 338 (M⁺); HRMS (EI): calcd for $C_{23}H_{28}O_6$: 338.1729 (M⁺), found: 338.1766.

4.1.4.2. (R)-Acetic acid 3-(3,4-diethoxyphenyl-2-hydroxymethylpropyl ester (18). To a stirred solution of 17 (1.43 g, 4.23 mmol) in THF (40 mL) was added LiAlH₄ (401 mg, 10.6 mmol) at 0 $^{\circ}\text{C}$, and the resulting suspension was refluxed for 12 h. The reaction was quenched with 10% NaOH (aq) (20 mL), and the mixture was extracted with AcOEt (20 mL × 5). The organic extracts were combined dried over MgSO₄, and the solvent was evaporated to give diol, which was used directly in the next step. To a stirred solution of the diol obtained above in i-Pr2O-THF (15 mL, 4:1) were added Lipase-PS (323 mg) and vinyl acetate (0.45 ml, 4.85 mmol), and the reaction mixture was stirred at room temperature for 2 h. The catalyst was filtered and the filtrate was evaporated to give residue, was chromatographed on silica gel hexane: acetone = 4:1) to give 18 (669 mg, 53% in 2 steps) as a pale yellow oil. The enantiomeric excess of 18 was determined to be a 98% ee by the Moscher's method [24]. 1 H NMR (300 MHz, CDCl₃) δ : 1.39– 1.44 (6H, m), 2.06 (3H, s), 2.23 (1H, br), 2.49-2.64 (2H, m), 3.45-3.59 (2H, m), 4.01-4.08 (6H, m), 4.15 (1H, dd, J = 11.3, 4.7 Hz), 6.66-6.70(2H, m), 6.78 (1H, d, J = 8.0 Hz); ¹³C NMR (75 MHz, CDCl₃) δ : 14.88, 20.91, 33.86, 42.53, 62.07, 64.03, 64.55, 64.63, 113.69, 114.52, 121.22, 131.91, 147.23, 148.70, 171.68; IR (neat): 1513 (C=C), 1721 (C=O) cm $^{-1}$; MS (EI) m/z 296 (M $^{+}$); HRMS (EI): calcd for $C_{16}H_{24}O_{5}$: 296.1624 (M⁺), found: 296.1594; $[\alpha]_D^{28}$ +18.8 (c 1.47, CHCl₃); 98% ee.

4.1.4.3. (R)-Acetic acid 3-(3,4-Diethoxyphenyl-2-methanesulfonyloxymethylpropyl ester (19). To a stirred solution of 18 (1.45 g, 4.96 mmol) in CH₂Cl₂ (25 mL) were added MsCl (0.42 ml, 5.45 mmol) and NEt₃ (0.89 ml, 6.45 mmol) at 0 °C, and the reaction mixture was stirred at room temperature for 0.5 h. The reaction was guenched with H₂O (20 mL), and the aqueous mixture was extracted with CH_2Cl_2 (20 mL imes 3). The organic extracts were combined dried over MgSO₄, and evaporated. The residue was chromatographed on silica gel (40 g, hexane:acetone = 4:1) to give 19 (1.48 g, 79%) as a pale yellow oil: ¹H NMR (300 MHz, CDCl₃) δ : 1.41–1.46 (6H, m), 2.08 (3H. s), 2.32-2.36 (1H, m), 2.65 (2H, d, J = 7.4 Hz), 2.99 (3H, s), 4.00-4.23(8H, m), 6.65–6.70 (2H, m), 6.80 (1H, d, J = 8.0 Hz); ¹³C NMR (75 MHz, CDCl₃) δ: 14.85, 20.81, 30.90, 33.49, 37.21, 39.71, 63.02, 64.60, 68.48, 113.70, 114.40, 121.22, 130.36, 147.53, 148.82, 170.78; IR (neat): 1512 (C=C), 1735 (C=O) cm $^{-1}$; MS (EI) m/z 374 (M $^{+}$); HRMS (EI): calcd for $C_{17}H_{26}O_7S$: 374.1399 (M⁺), found: 374.1362; $[\alpha]_D^{25}$ +2.1 (c 0.68, CHCl₃).

4.1.4.4. (R)-4-(3,4-Diethoxybenzyl)dihydrofuran-2-one (13d) from **19**. To a stirred solution of **19** (1.12 g, 3.00 mmol) in DMSO (25 mL) was added KCN (205 mg, 3.00 mmol), and the resulting mixture was heated at 90 °C for 3 h. After cooling, the reaction was quenched with H₂O (25 mL), and the aqueous mixture was extracted with Et₂O/AcOEt (1:1, 20 mL \times 3). The organic extracts were combined, dried over MgSO₄, and evaporated to give cyanide, which was used directly in the next step. To a stirred solution of cyanide obtained above in THF-H2O (3:1, 12 mL) was added LiOH·H₂O (126 mg, 3.00 mmol), and the reaction mixture was stirred at room temperature for 24 h. The reaction mixture was diluted with H_2O (10 mL), and the aqueous mixture was extracted with Et_2O (20 mL imes 3). The organic extracts were combined, dried over MgSO₄, and evaporated to give alcohol, which was used directly in the next step. The alcohol obtained above was dissolved in 10% NaOH (aq) (15 mL), and the mixture was refluxed for 5 h. After cooling, 10% HCl (aq) (30 mL) and THF (30 mL) were added to the reaction mixture, and the resulting solution was stirred at room temperature for 50 h. The aqueous reaction mixture was extracted with Et₂O (30 mL \times 3), and the organic extracts were combined, dried over MgSO₄, and evaporated to give a residue, which was chromatographed on silica gel (30 g, hexane:acetone = 3:1) to give 13d (475 mg, 60% in 3 steps) as a pale yellow oil.

4.2. In vitro preferential cytotoxicity

4.2.1. Cells and culture

Human pancreatic cancer cell lines, PANC-1 and CAPAN-1, were maintained in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM, Nissui Pharmaceutical Co., Ltd., Tokyo, Japan) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS, Gibco BRL Products, Gaithersburg, MD, USA), 0.1% sodium bicarbonate (Nacalai Tesque Inc.), and 1% antibiotic-antimycotic solution (Sigma-Aldrich Inc., St. Louis, MO, USA). Nutrient deprived medium (NDM) contained 265 mg/L CaCl₂·2H₂O, 0.1 mg/L Fe(NO₃)·9H₂O, 400 mg/L KCl, 200 mg/L MgSO₄·7H₂O, 6400 mg/L NaCl, 700 mg/L NaHCO₃, 125 mg/L NaH₂PO₄, 15 mg/L phenol red, 1 M HEPES buffer (pH 7.4, Wako Pure Chemical Industries, Ltd., Osaka, Japan), and 10 mL MEM vitamin solution (Life Technologies, Inc., Rockville, MD, USA). The final pH was adjusted to 7.4 with 10% NaHCO₃. For amino acid supplementation, stock solutions (200 mmol/L L-glutamine solution, MEM amino acids solution, and MEM nonessential amino acids solution; Life Technologies) were added at a concentration of 1%.

4.2.2. Preferential cytotoxicity

Preferential cytotoxicity was determined as previously described [9]. In brief, PANC-1 or CAPAN-1 cells (2×10^4 cells/well) were seeded in 96-well plates (Corning Inc., Corning, NY, USA) and incubated in fresh DMEM at 37 $^{\circ}$ C under 5% CO₂ and 95% air for 24 h. The cells were washed with Dulbecco's phosphate-buffered saline (PBS, Nissui Pharmaceutical Co., Ltd., Tokyo, Japan) before the medium was replaced with either DMEM or NDM (for CAPAN-1, amino acidssupplimented NDM) containing serial dilutions of the test samples. After 24 h of incubation, the cells were washed with PBS, and 100 μL of DMEM containing 10% WST-8 cell counting kit solution (Dojindo, Kumamoto, Japan) was added to the wells. After 3 h of incubation, the absorbance was measured at 450 nm. Cell viability was calculated from the mean values for three wells using the following equation:

Cell viability (%) = [(Abs(test samples) - Abs(blank))/ $(Abs((control) - Abs(blank))] \times 100$

The preferential cytotoxicity was expressed as the concentration at which 50% of cells died preferentially in NDM (PC50).

4.3. In vivo antitumor activity of triethoxy derivative 4m in nude mice

Five-week-old female BALB/cAJcl-nu/nu mice were obtained from CLEA Japan, Inc. (Tokyo, Japan), and 5×10^6 CAPAN-1 cells in 0.3 mL DMEM were s.c. injected into the right side of the back of the animals. Two weeks later, 12 mice bearing tumors around 5 mm in diameter were randomly divided into treatment groups and a vehicle control group. Because (-)-arctigenin (1) and triethoxy derivative 4m are poorly soluble in water, they were first dissolved in DMSO at 10 mg/mL and kept frozen until use. Just before administration, the stock solution was diluted in saline to a final concentration of 250 µg/mL (the final concentration of DMSO in saline is 2.5%). The mice were administered by i.p.-injections of 0.2 mL of solution of arctigenin, triethoxy derivative 4m, or vehicle on 6 days of the week for 4 weeks. The tumor size and body weight were measured weekly and the tumor volume was calculated using the following formula: Tumor volume = $4/3 \times 3.14 \times (L/2 \times W)$ $2 \times W/2$) where L is the length of the tumor and W is its width.

Results are expressed as means ±SD. Statistical comparisons were conducted using Student's t test after ANOVA. The results were considered to be significant when P < 0.05.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data related to this article can be found at http:// dx.doi:10.1016/j.ejmech.2012.11.031H.

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Critical Role of H₂O₂ Generated by NOX4 during Cellular Response under Glucose Deprivation

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Abstract

Glucose is the most efficient energy source, and various cancer cells depend on glycolysis for energy production. For maintenance of survival and proliferation, glucose sensing and adaptation to poor nutritional circumstances must be well organized in cancer cells. While the glucose sensing machinery has been well studied in yeasts, the molecular mechanism of glucose sensing in mammalian cells remains to be elucidated. We have reported glucose deprivation rapidly induces AKT phosphorylation through PI3K activation. We assumed that regulation of AKT is relevant to glucose sensing and further investigated the underlying mechanisms. In this study, AKT phosphorylation under glucose deprivation was inhibited by galactose and fructose, but induced by 2-deoxyglucose (2-DG). Both 2-DG treatment and glucose deprivation were found to induce AKT phosphorylation in HepG2 cells. These findings suggested that glucose transporter may not be involved in the sensing of glucose and induction of AKT phosphorylation, and that downstream metabolic events may have important roles. A variety of metabolic stresses reportedly induce the production of reactive oxygen species (ROS). In the present study, glucose deprivation was found to induce intracellular hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂) production in HepG2 cells. Nacetylcysteine (NAC), an antioxidant reagent, reduced both the increase in cellular H_2O_2 levels and AKT phosphorylation induced by glucose deprivation. These results strongly suggest that the glucose deprivation-induced increase of H₂O₂ in the cells mediated the AKT phosphorylation. RNA interference of NOX4, but not of NOX5, completely suppressed the glucose deprivation-induced AKT phosphorylation as well as increase of the intracellular levels of ROS, whereas exogenous H₂O₂ could still induce AKT phosphorylation in the NOX4-knockdown cells. In this study, we demonstrated that the ROS generated by NOX4 are involved in the intracellular adaptive responses by recognizing metabolic flux.

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Introduction

The supply of nutrients and oxygen is pivotal for cell survival and function, because of the large energy requirements of cells. This need is especially critical during cell proliferation. Proliferation is a process during which the numbers of cells successively double; therefore, the synthesis of nucleic acids, lipids, proteins and sugars is obligatory for successful proliferation. Glucose serves as a carbon source for the synthesis of nucleic acids, non-essential amino acids, lipids, and sugar. The intermediate metabolites in the glycolytic system are indispensable for non-essential amino acid synthesis, and intermediate metabolites and coenzymes in the pentose-5-phosphate pathway are required for the synthesis of nucleic acids and lipids. In addition, glucose is also needed for energy production in all cells.

Because of the pivotal role of glucose in the maintenance of the cellular functions, survival, and proliferation, elaborate mechanisms for detecting glucose availability in the cellular microenvironment exist in cells. The molecular mechanisms involved in the sensing of extracellular glucose concentrations have been extensively studied in yeasts. Yeasts detect the extracellular glucose concentrations using Snf3/Rtg2 (a glucose transporter homolog

that has no capability as a transporter). Extracellular glucose causes this sensor to generate an intracellular signal that induces the expressions of several HXT genes encoding hexose transporters. The glucose signal induces HXT gene expression by influencing the function of the Rgtl transcriptional repressor. In the absence of glucose, Rgtl is functional and binds to the promoters of the HXT genes, repressing their functions [1,2,3]. In contrast, the biochemical basis of the glucose sensing mechanism in mammalian cells is largely unknown.

Meanwhile, most of human cancer tissues are known to be hypoxic, the hypoxia being caused mainly by a poor and heterogeneous blood supply [4,5,6,7]. Glucose as well as oxygen is supplied to cancer tissues via the blood stream, and we assumed that the glucose supply might be limited in human cancer tissues. In fact, the glucose concentrations in human colon cancer and gastric cancer tissues were found to be significantly lower than those in surrounding non-cancerous tissues [8]. In the cancer cells that exist in such environments, the monitoring of and adaptation to extracellular glucose concentrations are assumed to be important for the survival/proliferation of the tumor cells. We previously reported that AKT phosphorylation is immediately enhanced by the absence of glucose and plays a critical role in

cellular survival under such condition in various cell lines [9,10]. AKT can also be activated in response to a variety of cellular stresses, such as heat shock, ultraviolet light irradiation, ischemia, hypoxia, hyperglycemia, and oxidative stress. AKT is a serine and threonine kinase that mediates cell survival under these aforementioned conditions [11,12,13,14,15].

In the present study, we attempted to elucidate the molecular and biochemical mechanisms involved in the sensing of mammalian cells of the extracellular glucose concentrations, using AKT phosphorylation as an index of the cellular responses to glucose deprivation. We demonstrate the contribution of the $\rm H_2O_2$ generated by NOX4 in the cellular sensing of and adaptation to poor glucose supply.

Materials and Methods

Cell cultures

Human fibroblasts derived from the subserosa of the stomach used for this study were kindly gifted to us by Dr Atsushi Ochiai (Pathology Division, Research Center for Innovative Oncology, National Cancer Center Hospital East). Human pancreatic cancer cells (PANC-1), human hepatocellular carcinoma cells (HepG2) and human fibroblasts derived from subserosa of the stomach were cultured in DMEM (GIBCO) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (Biowest). All the cells were purchased from ATCC. The glucose-deprived condition was created as described previously [16].

Reagents

 $2^\prime,~7^\prime\text{-}$ Dichlorodihydrofluorescin diacetate (DCFDA) was purchased from Invitrogen. $3^\prime\text{-O-Acetyl-}6^\prime\text{-O-pentafluorobenzenesulfonyl-}2^\prime,7^\prime\text{-difluorofluorescein}$ (Bes-H $_2$ O $_2$), galactose and fructose were purchased from Wako Pure Chemical Industries. N-acetyl-L-cysteine (NAC) and 2-deoxy-D-glucose (2-DG) were purchased from Sigma Aldrich. LY294002 and PP2 were purchased from Calbiochem.

Immunoblot analyses

Cells were homogenized in lysis buffer containing 10% SDS (sodium dodecyl sulfate), 10 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5) and 1 mM sodium orthovanadate, as described previously [17], and subjected to SDS-PAGE (SDS polyaclylamide gel electrophoresis). The proteins were transferred to a polyvinylidene fluoride microporous membrane (Millipore). The primary antibodies used were: antiphospho-AKT Ser-473, anti-phospho-SRC Family Tyr-416, and anti-AKT, all obtained from Cell Signaling Technologies, and anti-actin (sc-1615), and c-SRC antibody (SRC2), obtained from Santa Cruz Biotechnology. The anti-OSSA antibody was a kind gift from Dr. Ryuuichi Sakai, National Cancer Center Research Institute. The following secondary antibodies were purchased from Santa Cruz Biotechnology: goat anti-mouse IgG-HRP, goat antirabbit IgG-HRP. The immunoblots were scanned using a CanoScan LiDE60 image scanner (Canon).

siRNA transfection

OSSA, NOX4, NOX5, and non-targeting siRNA were purchased from Invitrogen. For the siRNA experiments, the cells were transfected separately using a non-targeting siRNA or two separate specific siRNAs using Lipofectamine 2000 (Invitrogen).

RT-PCR

Total RNAs were prepared from the cells using ISOGEN (Nippon Gene), and reverse transcription was performed using superscript VILO (Invitrogen). PCR for human NOX family

genes was carried out using the following primers: forward 5'-CTCAGCGGAATCAATCAGCTGTG-3' and reverse 5'-AGAGGAACACGACAATCAGCCTTAG-3' for Nox4; forward 5'-ATCAAGCGGCCCCCTTTTTTTCAC-3' and reverse 5'-CTCATTGTCACACTCCTCGACAGC-3' for Nox5.

Measurement of intracellular ROS levels

The cells were treated under various conditions and then incubated in DMEM or glucose-deprived medium containing 5 μ M of DCFDA or 5 μ M BES-H₂O₂-Ac at 37°C for 30 min. Then, the cells were detached from the plate with trypsin/EDTA, washed with PBS, resuspended in 500 μ L of PBS, and placed on ice, protected from light. The intensity of the fluorescence of each cell was immediately measured using a FACS CANTO (Becton Dickinson) equipped with an argon ion laser (488 nm excitation). Each experiment was conducted in triplicate, and 10,000 cells per sample were measured. The histogram was analyzed using the software program BD FACS DIVA (Becton Dickinson).

Results

AKT activation by glucose deprivation

Within 30 minutes, and still after 3 hours, of transferring the HepG2 cells from ordinary DMEM to glucose-deprived medium, AKT was strongly phosphorylated at Ser 473; furthermore, AKT phosphorylation was significantly inhibited by treatment with LY294002 [18], an inhibitor of PI3K (Fig. 1A). Similarly, PI3K-dependent AKT activation was also observed in the pancreatic PANC-1 cells (Fig. S1) in a previous study [10]. Furthermore, increase of AKT phosphorylation induced by glucose deprivation was also observed in human fibroblasts derived from the subserosa of the stomach (Fig. S2).

To examine how glucose deprivation is recognized in these cells, concentration-dependent AKT activation in response to glucose deprivation was examined. When the HepG2 cells were exposed to media containing less than 1.38 mM of glucose, corresponding to one-quarter of the blood glucose level, AKT activation was clearly observed (Fig. 1B). Similarly, an increase in AKT phosphorylation was also observed in PANC-1 cells cultured in the presence of glucose at concentrations of less than 0.69 mM (Fig. S3). To elucidate the glucose sensing mechanism of the cells. the effect of glucose analogues on the AKT activation in response to glucose deprivation was examined. AKT activation was completely inhibited by the addition of either galactose or fructose at a final concentration of 5.5 mM (Fig. 1C). Similar results were observed in the PANC-1 cells (Fig. S4). These observations indicate that AKT is activated by a decrease of some metabolites of glycolysis or metabolic stress, rather than by the decrease of glucose itself. In yeast, the extracellular glucose concentration is sensed by a glucose transporter [1,2,3]. To examine whether a similar mechanism may also prevail in mammalian cells, the influence of 2-DG [19,20] on the AKT phosphorylation induced by glucose deprivation was examined. As shown in Fig. 1D, AKT phosphorylation in the HepG2 cells in response to glucose deprivation was not inhibited by 2-DG. Rather, AKT phosphorylation was clearly induced by the addition of 5.5 mM 2-DG, even in the presence of glucose. This observation indicates that glucose is not sensed by binding to a receptor or transporter, nor is it sensed by hexokinase, because 2-DG can be phosphorylated as efficiently by mammalian hexokinase as glucose. It is possible that the inhibition of binding of some sensors to glucose, if such an interaction occurs, might evoke the same cellular responses as glucose deprivation.

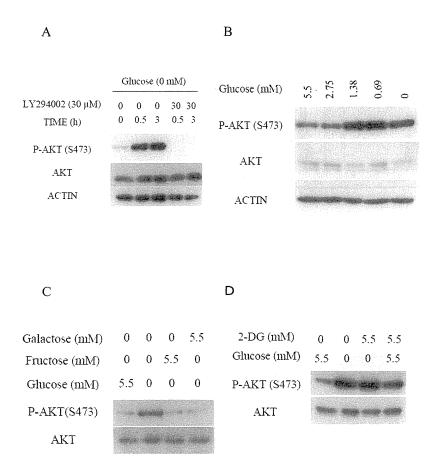


Figure 1. AKT phosphorylation was induced under glucose deprivation. (A) Immunoblotting analyses after incubation of HepG2 cells in the absence or presence of 5.5 mM of glucose and absence or presence of 30 μM of LY294002 for the indicated times. (B) HepG2 cells treated or not treated with various concentrations of glucose for 0.5 h were subjected to immunoblotting. (C) Immunoblotting analyses of HepG2 cells treated or not treated with 5.5 mM of glucose, 5.5 mM of galactose, or 5.5 mM of fructose for 0.5 h. (D) Immunoblotting analyses of HepG2 cells treated or not treated with 5.5 mM of glucose, 5.5 mM of 2-DG, or 5.5 mM of glucose plus 5.5 mM of 2-DG for 0.5 h. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0056628.g001

Role of hydrogen peroxide in the activation of AKT in response to glucose deprivation

Since AKT phosphorylation in response to glucose deprivation was attenuated by galactose, we assumed that changes in the metabolism might be the cause of the increase in AKT activation. Reactive oxygen species (ROS) are reportedly produced in cells under metabolic stresses [21,22]. We evaluated the intracellular levels of ROS using dichlorofluorescein diacetate (DCFDA), which measures hydroxyl and peroxyl radicals and other ROS. A significant increase in the intracellular ROS production was observed in the HepG2 cells cultured in glucose-deprived medium treated with DCFDA for 30 minutes (Fig. 2A). 3'-O-acetyl-6'-Opentafluorobenzenesulfonyl-2',7'-difluorofluorescein (BES-H₂O₂) specifically detects an increase in the amounts of hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂) [23] in cells treated under the same conditions (Fig. 2B). An increase in the production of ROS induced by glucose deprivation was also observed in the PANC-1 cells and human fibroblasts derived from the subserosa of the stomach (Fig. S5,S6). Addition of galactose or fructose completely prevented the H₂O₂ increase (Fig. S7). These results clearly showed that H₂O₂ production is induced by glucose deprivation. To elucidate the causal relationship between H2O2 production and AKT phosphorylation, the effect of addition of exogenous H2O2 on AKT phosphorylation was examined. Exogenous $\rm H_2O_2$ addition to the culture medium induced PI3K-dependent AKT phosphorylation in a manner similar to glucose deprivation (Fig. 2C). To confirm the causal relation further, the influence of N-acetylcysteine (NAC), an antioxidant reagent, on the AKT phosphorylation induced in the absence of glucose was examined. The addition of NAC to the culture medium at a final concentration of 12.5 mM markedly reduced the ROS levels even under glucose-deprived conditions (Fig. 2A and 2B). Furthermore, the NAC treatment also suppressed the AKT phosphorylation induced by glucose deprivation (Fig. 2D).

SRC and OSSA are indispensable for AKT phosphorylation induced by glucose deprivation

SRC is involved in an alternate PI3K-activating pathway, and OSSA, a scaffold protein also known as FAM120A, reportedly activates the SRC-PI3K pathway in the presence of oxidative stress [24]. Thus, the involvements of SRC and OSSA in the glucose deprivation-induced phosphorylation of AKT were examined. PP2, a specific SRC family inhibitor [25], clearly inhibited the AKT phosphorylation induced by glucose deprivation (Fig. 3A). PP2 also inhibited AKT phosphorylation induced by exogenous H_2O_2 (Fig. 3B). Consistent with these findings, PP2

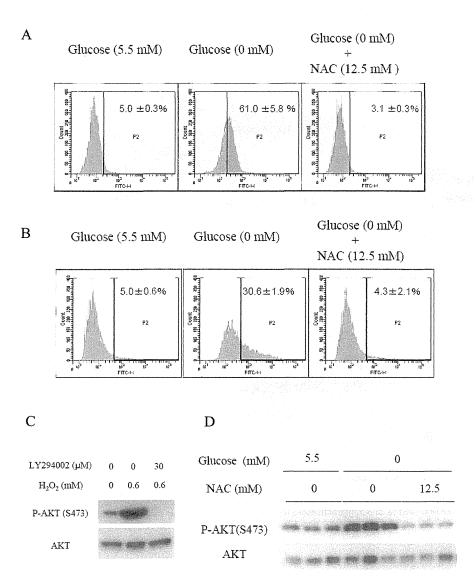


Figure 2. ROS mediates AKT phosphorylation under glucose deprivation. (A)(B)(D) HepG2 cells were cultured in either glucose-containing medium or glucose-deprived medium in the absence or presence of 12.5 mM of NAC for 0.5 h. ROS production was measured using flow cytometry. Cells were stained with (A) 5 μM of DCFDA or (B) 5 μM of BES-H₂O₂. Cells were gated within a range contained in the upper 5% of the total cell count under the glucose replete condition. (D) The AKT phosphorylation level was evaluated by immunoblotting. (C) Addition of H_2O_2 to media containing 5.5 mM of glucose in the absence or presence of 30 μM of LY294002 for 0.5 h, followed by immunoblotting. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0056628.g002

also suppressed the phosphorylation of SRC induced by glucose deprivation and exogenous $\rm H_2O_2$ (Fig. S8). PP2 treatment did not alter the increased ROS levels in HepG2 cells cultured under glucose-deprived conditions (Fig. 3C). Similarly, LY294002 treatment inhibited AKT phosphorylation, but did not alter the ROS production (Fig. 1A, 3C). Suppression of OSSA expression by RNA interference inhibited the AKT phosphorylation induced by glucose deprivation and exogenous $\rm H_2O_2$ (Fig. 3D, 3E and 3F). Thus, SRC and OSSA were concluded as being mediators of the $\rm H_2O_2$ signals induced by glucose deprivation that activate the PI3K-AKT axis.

NOX4 knockdown inhibits hydrogen peroxide generation under glucose-deprived conditions

NOX4, one of the members of the NADPH oxidase family, is known to be closely involved in the production of ROS in response to growth factor stimuli [26]. Thus, its involvement also in glucose deprivation-induced AKT phosphorylation was examined. RNA interference selectively reduced the expression of NOX4 in HepG2 cells (Fig. 4A). Increase of intracellular ROS levels by glucose deprivation was suppressed by NOX4 knockdown (Fig. 4B). Consistent with this finding, AKT phosphorylation was also not induced in the NOX4 knockdown cells, while exogenous H₂O₂ clearly induced AKT phosphorylation in the cells (Fig. 4C). Similar results were obtained in the PANC-1 cells (Fig. S9A, B). PANC-1 cells express NOX5 as well as NOX4, however,

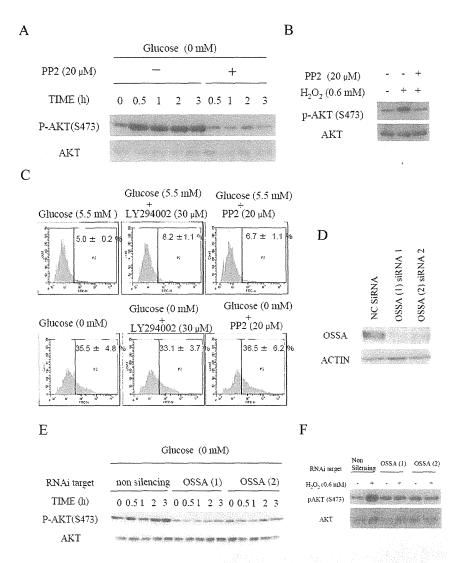


Figure 3. SRC and OSSA are indispensable for the AKT phosphorylation induced by glucose deprivation. (A) Immunoblotting analyses of HepG2 cells in the absence or presence of 5.5 mM of glucose in the and absence or presence of 20 μM of PP2 for the indicated times. (B) Addition of H_2O_2 to the culture medium containing 5.5 mM glucosein the absence or presence of 20 μM of PP2 for 0.5 h, followed by immunoblotting. (C) HepG2 cells were cultured in medium containing or not containing (glucose-deprived) 5.5 mM of glucose in the absence or presence of 30 μM of LY204002 or 20 μM of PP2 for 0.5 h. The cells were stained with 5 μM of BES- H_2O_2 . ROS production was measured using flow cytometry. (D) siRNA-treated HepG2 cells were subjected to immunoblotting analyses using OSSA antibody. (E) Immunoblotting analyses of HepG2 cells transfected with a non-targeting siRNA or two separate OSSA siRNAs in the absence or presence of 5.5 mM of glucose for the indicated times. (F) Addition of H_2O_2 to the medium of OSSA-knockdown cells containing 5.5 mM glucose for 0.5 h, followed by immunoblotting. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0056628.g003

knockdown of NOX5 did not alter the AKT phosphorylation level (Fig. S10A, B).

Discussion

In this study, we tried to elucidate the mechanism of sensing of the extracellular glucose concentration by cells, using AKT phosphorylation as a marker. As reported previously, AKT phosphorylation is induced by glucose deprivation [9,10]. In addition, increase in AKT phosphorylation has also been confirmed in HepG2 cells cultured in media containing one-quarter of the normal physiological glucose concentration. This fact suggests that cells have sophisticated mechanisms for monitoring extracellular glucose levels. In another study, increase

in AKT phosphorylation was confirmed in PANC-1 cells cultured in the presence of glucose levels that are one-eighth of the normal physiological condition. The difference in the minimal trigger concentration of glucose between the HepG2 cells and PANC-1 cells could be related to differences in the origins of the cells or differences in the microenvironments of the tumors the cells were derived from.

In the present study, increase in ROS production was observed by 30 minutes after glucose deprivation, both in cancer cells and human fibroblasts. Thus, it became evident that the mechanism of ROS production under glucose deprivation is preserved in not only cancer cells, but also human fibroblasts. ROS was strongly suspected to mediate the AKT phosphorylation, because AKT

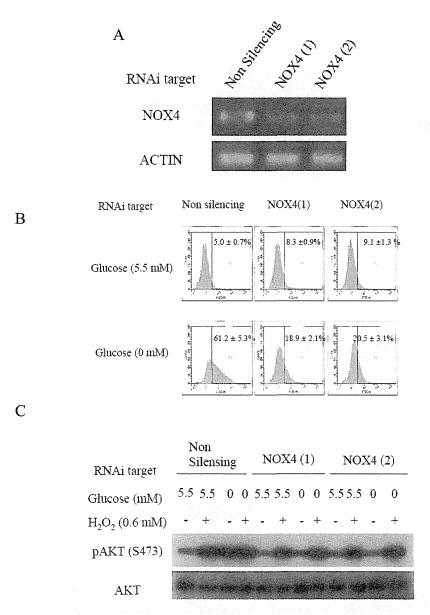


Figure 4. Induction of AKT phosphorylation under glucose deprivation is mediated by ROS generated by NOX4. (A) siRNA-treated HepG2 cells were subjected to reverse-transcriptase PCR (RT-PCR) to confirm NOX4 knockdown. (B) NOX4 knockdown HepG2 Cells were stained with 5 μ M of BES-H₂O₂ in the absence or presence of 5.5 mM of glucose for 0.5 h. ROS production was measured using flow cytometry. (C) Immunoblotting analyses of HepG2 cells transfected with a non-targeting siRNA or two separate NOX4 siRNAs in the absence or presence of 5.5 mM of glucose or treatment with exogenous H₂O₂ for 0.5 h. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0056628.g004

phosphorylation was inhibited by treatment with NAC. As $\rm H_2O_2$ has a low selectivity for downstream molecules, it may be involved in the regulation of numerous signaling pathways [27,28,29]. Among them, the regulation of AKT phosphorylation, as reported here, is particularly intriguing. AKT mediates cell proliferation and survival [30,31]. In our previous work, Akt activation was found to play a critical role in cell survival under glucose deprivation [10]. Furthermore, OSSA knockdown and the inhibition of SRC by PP2 suggests that these two elements are fundamental to AKT phosphorylation induced by glucose deprivation. It has been reported that SRC family kinases as their redox sensitive cysteines are the targets of specific oxidation

by various oxidants, including H_2O_2 [32]. In this study, we clarified that PP2, a specific SRC inhibitor, inhibited AKT phosphorylation induced by glucose deprivation and exogeneous hydrogen peroxide. Thus, SRC is a strong candidate as a hydrogen peroxide sensor. Since PP2 inhibits SRC and other members of the SRC family, we should be careful before denying the relevance of other SRC family kinases [25]. Further investigations, such as by knockdown of individual SRC family kinases will be needed to identify the relevant Src-family kinase.

As with most intracellular signaling cascades, cross-talk and feedback interactions contribute to the overall regulation of PI3K/AKT signaling. S6 kinase-1, a downstream effector of mTORC1,

is known to be involved in a negative feedback loop of AKT activation. S6 kinase phosphorylates and inhibits upstream insulin receptor substrate proteins, which diminishes signaling through the PI3K/AKT pathway [33]. We observed that S6 kinase-1 phosphorylation was suppressed in PANC-1 cells under glucose deprivation (unpublished data), suggesting that the negative feedback machinery could be another mechanism regulating AKT phophorylation in cells under glucose deprivation. Furthermore, it was considered that the NADPH/NADP and ATP/AMP ratios may possibly change under glucose deprivation. Therefore, we measured the NADPH/NADP and ATP/AMP ratios; however, no significant changes were observed in at least the first 30 minutes. We also examined the effect of AMPK activation induced by AICAR on AKT activation and the cellular levels of hydrogen peroxide level, but again no significant changes were observed (unpublished data).

AKT phosphorylation in response to glucose deprivation was also completely inhibited following the addition of galactose or fructose instead of glucose. Galactose and fructose enter the glycolytic pathway after they have been metabolized intracellularly to glucose-6-phosphate and fructose-1 or 6-phosphate, respectively. Therefore, the contribution of decrease in metabolites downstream of fructose-1 or 6-phosphate to the induction of AKT phosphorylation under glucose deprivation was hypothesized

To examine the contribution of the mitochondria, which are the major loci of ROS production, PANC-1 Rho⁰ cells depleted of mitochondrial DNA were produced. When the Rho⁰ cells were exposed to glucose-deprived medium, a large amount of intracellular H₂O₂ was produced. As pyruvic acid alone did not inhibit the ROS production completely, we could not assess the contribution of the mitochondria to the induction of ROS production by glucose deprivation further by this method (Shimoda et al. unpublished data). We then studied the involvement of NOX4 as another major locus of ROS production. AKT phosphorylation induced by glucose deprivation was not observed after NOX4 knockdown; no increase in the intracellular ROS levels was observed either, indicating the involvement of NOX4 in the intracellular accumulation of ROS. The contribution of NOX4, but not NOX5, in the signaling triggered by glucose deprivation was rather unexpected. Interestingly, a previous study reported that NOX4 regulates the survival of PANC-1 cells via ROS/ASK1/AKT signaling [34]. It might also be involved in cell survival under glucose-deprived conditions. With respect to the regulation of their activities, there are fundamental differences among the NOX isoforms. Most NOX family members are reportedly switched on and off by their regulatory subunits. NOX4 also functions as a complex with p22phox on internal membranes to produce ROS [35,36]. NOX4, unlike other members of the NOX family, is known to constitutively induce the production of large amounts of H₂O₂, however, the possibility of growth factor signaling being mediated by NOX4 has also been suggested [37]. The results of the present study also suggested that the activity of NOX4 might be regulated. In the present study, glucose deprivation increased the cellular levels of H₂O₂, which was suppressed by frucotose and galactose, indicating that NOX4 might be activated by deprivation of some glycolytic intermediate or some downstream products, such as of the pentose phosphate shunt and/or TCA cycle. The results obtained with the use of 2-DG are consistent with this idea. Whether the ROS accumulation under glucose deprivation is caused by increased production of ROS as a result of enhanced activity of NOX4, or by decreased antioxidant capacity, such as that associated with deficient activities of catalase, glutathione

peroxidase, and glutathione needs to be further investigated. The intracellular amount of ROS is determined by the activity of the enzymes and the amounts of the substrates available. Therefore, metabolomic analysis of the entire set of metabolites is desired.

In the present study, we found that cells sense and respond to metabolic flux rather than glucose itself, and NOX4 and its product, ROS, play important roles in the cellular adaptive responses.

Supporting Information

Figure S1 Immunoblotting analyses after incubating PANC-1 cells in the absence or presence of 5.5 mM of glucose in the absence or presence of 30 μM of LY294002 for the indicated times.

(TIF)

Figure S2 Immunoblotting analyses after incubating human fibroblasts derived from subserossa of stomach in the absence or presence of 5.5 mM of glucose for 0.5 h.

(TIF)

Figure S3 PANC-1 cells were treated with or without various concentrations of glucose for 0.5 h.

Figure S4 Immunoblotting analyses after incubating PANC-1 cells in the absence or presence of 5.5 mM of glucose, 5.5 mM of galactose, or 5.5 mM of fructose for 0.5 h.

Figure S5 PANC-1 cells were cultured in either glucose-containing medium or glucose-deprived medium for 0.5 h. Cells were stained with 5 μ M BES-H₂O₂. ROS production was measured using flow cytometry.

(TIF)

Figure S6 Human fibroblasts derived from subserossa of stomach were cultured in either glucose-containing medium or glucose-deprived medium for 0.5 h. Cells were stained with 5 μ M BES-H₂O₂. ROS production was measured using flow cytometry. (TIF)

Figure S7 HepG2 cells were cultured in the absence or presence of 5.5 mM of glucose, 5.5 mM of galactose, or 5.5 mM of fructose for 0.5 h. ROS production was measured using flowcytometry. Cells were stained with 5 μ M of BES-H₂O₂. (TIF)

Figure S8 Immunoblotting analyses of HepG2 cells in the absence or presence of 5.5 mM of glucose or treatment with exogenous H_2O_2 for 0.5 h. (TIF)

Figure S9 (A) siRNA-treated PANC-1 cells were subjected to reverse transcriptional PCR (RT-PCR) to confirm NOX4 knockdown. (B) Immunoblotting analyses after incubating PANC-1 cells transfected with a non-targeting siRNA or two separate NOX4 siRNA in the absence or presence of 5.5 mM of glucose for 0.5 h. (TIF)

Figure S10 (A) siRNA-treated PANC-1 cells were subjected to reverse transcriptional PCR (RT-PCR) to confirm NOX5 knockdown. (B) Immunoblotting analyses after incubating

PANC-1 cells transfected with a non-targeting siRNA or two separate NOX5 siRNA in the absence or presence of 5.5 mM of glucose for 0.5 h. (TIF)

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Author Contributions

Conceived and designed the experiments: SO HE KT. Performed the experiments: SO YS. Analyzed the data: SO YS. Wrote the paper: SO HE KT.

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∂ ORIGINAL RESEARCH

(+)-Grandifloracin, an antiausterity agent, induces autophagic PANC-I pancreatic cancer cell death

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Abstract: Human pancreatic tumors are known to be highly resistant to nutrient starvation, and this prolongs their survival in the hypovascular (austere) tumor microenvironment. Agents that retard this tolerance to nutrient starvation represent a novel antiausterity strategy in anticancer drug discovery. (+)-Grandifloracin (GF), isolated from *Uvaria dac*, has shown preferential toxicity to PANC-1 human pancreatic cancer cells under nutrient starvation, with a PC_{50} value of 14.5 μ M. However, the underlying mechanism is not clear. In this study, GF was found to preferentially induce PANC-1 cell death in a nutrient-deprived medium via hyperactivation of autophagy, as evidenced by a dramatic upregulation of microtubule-associated protein 1 light chain 3. No change was observed in expression of the caspase-3 and Bcl-2 apoptosis marker proteins. GF was also found to strongly inhibit the activation of Akt, a key regulator of cancer cell survival and proliferation. Because pancreatic tumors are highly resistant to current therapies that induce apoptosis, the alternative cell death mechanism exhibited by GF provides a novel therapeutic insight into antiausterity drug candidates.

Keywords: (+)-grandifloracin, antiausterity strategy, PANC-1, nutrient starvation

Introduction

Human pancreatic cancer is the most fatal form of cancer worldwide, with a 5-year survival rate of less than 5%. Each year, approximately 29,000 people are diagnosed with pancreatic cancer in Japan.² The annual mortality rate from this malignancy closely approximates the annual incidence rate.^{3,4} Once diagnosed, the average life expectancy is 6 months. It is the fifth leading cause of cancer-related mortality in Japan and other industrialized countries. 4 Until now, no effective treatment has been available. 5,6 Human pancreatic cancer shows resistance to most conventional chemotherapeutic drugs in clinical use, such as paclitaxel, doxorubicin, and cisplatin.⁷ At present, gemcitabine and S-1 (tegafur + gimeracil + oteracil potassium) are the only standard regimens for advanced pancreatic cancer.8-11 Therefore, effective chemotherapeutic agents against this disease are urgently needed. Human pancreatic tumors are hypovascular in nature. 12 causing a limited supply of nutrients and oxygen to reach the aggressively proliferating tumor cells. 13 As tumor cells proliferate, the demand for essential nutrients and oxygen exceeds the supply. Consequently, large areas of tumor survive under the hostile environment characterized by nutrient and oxygen starvation. Yet, human pancreatic tumor cells show the extraordinary ability to tolerate such extreme states through the modulation of energy metabolism.¹⁴ While normal human cells die within 24 hours under nutrient starvation, some human pancreatic cancer cell lines can survive up to 72 hours in the complete absence of nutrients such as glucose, amino acids, and serum.¹⁴

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This remarkable tolerance to nutrient starvation is one of the key factors for survival and progression of pancreatic tumors. Therefore, agents that retard the tolerance of cancer cells to nutrient starvation represent a novel approach in anticancer drug discovery. 15 Using this hypothesis, we established a novel antiausterity strategy for the discovery of anticancer agents that preferentially target tolerance to nutrient starvation by cancer cells. Previous work on this strategy has led to the discovery of a number of potent anticancer agents, such as arctigenin, 15 angelmarin, 16 kayeassamins A-I, 17,18 and panduratins, 19,20 from the medicinal plants used in Japanese Kampo medicine and Southeast Asian countries.²¹ Interestingly, these compounds also strongly suppressed tumor growth in a xenograft model using pancreatic cancer cells.15 In our continued work, we recently found that a dichloromethane extract of the stem of Uvaria dac preferentially inhibited PANC-1 human pancreatic cancer cell survival under nutrient deprivation.²² Work-up of this bioactive extract led to the discovery of (+)-grandifloracin (GF) as a potent antiausterity agent that showed preferential toxicity to PANC-1 cells with a PC₅₀ value of 14.5 μ M. In this study, we explored the underlying mechanism of GF-induced modulation of key regulatory proteins involved in tolerance to nutrient starvation in PANC-1 cells.

Materials and methods Reagents

GF (Figure 1) was isolated from the stems of *U. dac* as described previously.²² GF purity was determined to be 95% by high-performance liquid chromatography. Conventional anticancer agents, ie, gemcitabine, 5-fluorouracil, 2-deoxyglucose, paclitaxel, podophyllotoxin, and camptothecin, were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (St Louis, MO, USA). Each reagent was dissolved in dimethyl sulfoxide as a 10 mM stock solution and stored at –30°C until use. Dilution to give the desired concentration was performed prior to treatment. Dulbecco's phosphate-buffered saline was purchased from Nissui Pharmaceutical (Tokyo, Japan). Dulbecco's Modified Eagle's Medium. (DMEM) was purchased from Wako Pure Chemical (Osaka, Japan). Sodium bicarbonate, potassium

Figure I Chemical structure of (+)-grandifloracin.

chloride, magnesium sulfate, sodium dihydrogen phosphate, potassium dihydrogen phosphate, sodium chloride, and phenol red were purchased from Wako Pure Chemical. HEPES was purchased from Dojindo Laboratories (Kumamoto, Japan). Fetal bovine serum was purchased from Nichirei Biosciences Inc. (Tokyo, Japan). Antibiotic/antimycotic solution was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. The WST-8 cell counting kit was purchased from Dojindo Laboratories. Cell culture flasks and 96-well plates were obtained from Falcon Becton Dickinson Labware (BD Biosciences, San Jose, CA, USA). Nutrient-deprived medium was prepared according to a previously described protocol. 14 Rabbit polyclonal antibodies to Akt, phosphoryl Akt (Ser473), mammalian target of rapamycin (mTOR), phosphoryl mTOR (Ser2448), Bcl-2, caspase 3, and LC3A/B were purchased from Cell Signaling Technology (Danvers, MA, USA). A goat polyclonal antibody to actin was purchased from Santa Cruz Biotechnologies (Dallas, TX, USA). Horseradish peroxidase-conjugated goat polyclonal anti-rabbit and rabbit polyclonal anti-goat immunoglobulins were purchased from DakoCytomation (Glostrup, Denmark).

Cell line

The PANC-1 (RBRC-RCB2095) cell line was purchased from the Riken BRC Cell Bank (Ibaraki, Japan) and maintained in standard DMEM with 10% fetal bovine serum supplement, 100 U/mL of penicillin G, 0.1 mg/mL of streptomycin, and 0.25 μ g/mL of amphotericin B.

Preferential cytotoxic activity

The in vitro preferential cytotoxicity of GF was determined using a previously described procedure with a slight modification. In brief, human pancreatic cancer cells were seeded in 96-well plates (1.5×10^4 /well) and incubated in fresh DMEM at 37°C under humidified 5% CO₂ and 95% air for 24 hours. After the cells were washed with Dulbecco's phosphate-buffered saline, the medium was changed to serially diluted test samples in DMEM or nutrient-deprived medium, with the control and blank in each plate. After 24 hours of incubation, $100 \, \mu$ L of DMEM containing 10% WST-8 cell counting kit solution was directly added to each well. After 3 hours of incubation, absorbance at 450 nm was measured (EnSpire® Multilabel Reader, PerkinElmer, Waltham, MA, USA). Cell viability was calculated from the mean values for three wells using the following equation:

Cell viability (%) =
$$[(Abs_{(test sample)} - Abs_{(blank)})/(Abs_{(control)} - Abs_{(blank)})] \times 100$$

Morphologic assessment

Cells were seeded in 60 mm dishes (1×10^6 cells) and incubated in a humidified CO_2 incubator for 24 hours to allow cell attachment. The cells were then washed twice with Dulbecco's phosphate-buffered saline and treated with 25 μ M GF in DMEM, nutrient-deprived medium, and the control. After 12 and 24 hours of incubation, the cells were treated with fluorescein-labeled annexin V and propidium iodide, and cell morphology was observed using an inverted Nikon Eclipse TS 100 microscope ($40 \times$ objective) with phase-contrast and fluorescence modes. Microscopic images were taken using a Nikon DS-L-2 camera directly attached to the microscope.

Annexin V/dead cell assay

The annexin V/dead cell assay was performed in a MuseTM cell analyzer (Merck Millipore, Billerica, MA, USA) utilizing a Muse annexin V and dead cell kit. The assay utilizes phycoerythrin-labeled annexin V to detect phosphatidylserine on the external membrane of apoptotic cells. The kit contains the DNA dye, 7-aminoactinomycin D (7-AAD) for the exclusion of nonviable cells. Four populations of cells can be distinguished in this assay: nonapoptotic cells, annexin V (-) and 7-AAD (-); early apoptotic cells, annexin V (+) and 7-AAD (-); late-stage apoptotic and dead cells, annexin V (+) and 7-AAD (+); and necrotic nuclear debris, annexin V (-) and 7-AAD (+). The assay was performed according to the manufacturer's protocol. In brief, the cells were seeded in 60 mm dishes (1×10^6 cells) and incubated in a humidified CO₂ incubator for 24 hours to allow cell attachment. The cells were then washed twice with Dulbecco's phosphate-buffered saline and treated with 12.5 µM GF, 25 µM GF, or the control of nutrient-deprived medium for the indicated time periods. The cells were then harvested from the dish with trypsin to give single cell suspensions. Finally, 100 µL of annexin V/ dead reagent and 100 µL of a single cell suspension were mixed in a microtube and incubated for 20 minutes at room temperature in the dark. The cells were then analyzed using the Muse cell analyzer, and 5,000 cell events were collected for each sample. The images were acquired as the screenshots of the processed data and the text size was edited for clarity.

Western blot analysis

Proteins were separated by gel electrophoresis on a polyacrylamide gel containing 0.1% sodium dodecyl sulfate and transferred to polyvinylidene fluoride membranes. The membranes were blocked with Block Ace® (DS Pharma Medical, Suita, Japan), washed with Dulbecco's phosphate-buffered saline

containing 0.1% polyoxyethylene (20) sorbitan monolaurate (Wako Pure Chemical), and incubated overnight with primary antibodies diluted in Can Get Signal® (Toyobo, Osaka, Japan). After washing, the membranes were incubated for 45 minutes at room temperature with horseradish peroxidase-conjugated anti-rabbit or anti-goat immunoglobulins as the secondary antibody. The bands were detected with an enhanced chemiluminescence solution (PerkinElmer). The images were analyzed using Image Studio software version 3.1.4.

Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was performed using the unpaired Student's *t*-test. A *P*-value<0.05 was considered to be statistically significant.

Results

GF showed preferential cytotoxicity in a concentration-dependent manner

The PANC-1 cell line is highly resistant to nutrient deprivation and shows an extraordinary ability to survive for >48 hours even under complete nutrient starvation. GF remarkably diminished tolerance to nutrient starvation in a concentration-dependent manner (Figure 2A). Cells exposed to GF at 25 μ M showed 100% cell death within 24 hours in nutrient-deprived medium, with a PC₅₀ value of 14.5 μ M; however, no toxicity was observed in nutrient-rich DMEM.

GF sensitized PANC-I cell death under glucose/serum-deprived conditions

To determine the conditions under which GF induces sensitivity to nutrient starvation resulting in cell death, the PANC-1 cells were treated with 25 μM GF under various nutrient conditions of glucose, amino acids, and serum. Cell viability was measured 24 hours after treatment. As shown in Figure 2B, GF was found to be toxic during glucose or serum deprivation, irrespective of the presence or absence of amino acids. In the presence of glucose and serum, cell viability was 100%. However, removal of serum led to a decrease in cell viability to 73% and 69% in the presence or absence of amino acids, respectively. Similarly, removal of glucose also led to a significant decrease in cell viability to 66%. Removal of both glucose and serum decreased cell viability to 2%.

Conventional anticancer agents are ineffective against PANC-I cells in nutrient-deprived medium

The preferential cytotoxicity of GF was compared with that of several conventional anticancer agents, including

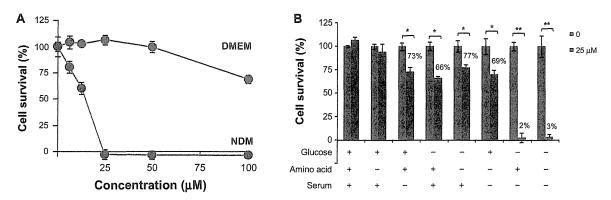


Figure 2 Effect of (+)-grandifloracin on PANC-1 cell survival after 24 hours in NDM and normal medium (DMEM). (A) Effect of (+)-grandifloracin concentration on cell survival in NDM and DMEM. (B) Effects of medium components, ie, glucose, amino acids, and serum. Data are expressed as the mean ± standard deviation, n=3. *P<0.05; **P<0.01 indicate significant difference from the control.

Abbreviations: NDM, nutrient-deprived medium; DMEM, Dulbecco's Modified Eagle's Medium.

gemcitabine, 5-fluorouracil, 2-deoxyglucose, paclitaxel, camptothecin, and podophyllotoxin, using PANC-1 cells grown in nutrient-deprived medium versus DMEM (Figure 3). All tested agents were virtually inactive in nutrient-deprived medium; however, paclitaxel and camptothecin showed weak activity in nutrient-rich DMEM at the maximum tested dose of 100 µM after 24 hours. Because some of the conventional anticancer agents showed weak activity in DMEM, their effects during prolonged treatment were also evaluated by monitoring their cytotoxicity after 24, 48, and 72 hours. As shown in Figure 4, gemcitabine and 5-fluorouracil weakly decreased cell viability 72 hours after treatment. However, these compounds did not show a clear concentration-dependent effect. 2-Deoxyglucose was completely inactive. Paclitaxel and podophyllotoxin were found to reduce cell viability after 72 hours, but the effect was not concentration-dependent. On the other hand, camptothecin

exhibited strong activity with cell viability of <25% at 10 μ M 48 hours after treatment.

Assessment of GF-induced apoptosis

To investigate whether GF-induced cell death in nutrient-deprived medium involves apoptosis, the cell morphology was examined. As shown in Figure 5, at 25 µM, GF induced a marked change in PANC-1 cell morphology within 8 hours. However, the cells lacked the classical signs of apoptosis, such as shrinkage or fragmentation into membrane-bound apoptotic bodies. Instead, swelling and rupture of cell membranes and disruption of cellular organelles appeared to be closer to a necrotic-type cell death. Staining with annexin V/propidium iodide reagent showed an increased population of cells containing Annexin V (green fluorescence) and propidium iodide (red fluorescence). Annexin V is a Ca²+-dependent phospholipid-binding protein with

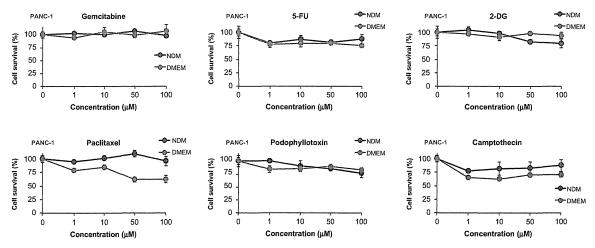


Figure 3 Effect of conventional anticancer agents against PANC-1 cells after 24 hours in NDM and DMEM. Data are expressed as the mean ± standard deviation, n=3. Abbreviations: NDM, nutrient-deprived medium; DMEM, Dulbecco's Modified Eagle's Medium; 5-FU, 5-fluorouracil; 2-DG, 2-deoxyglucose.

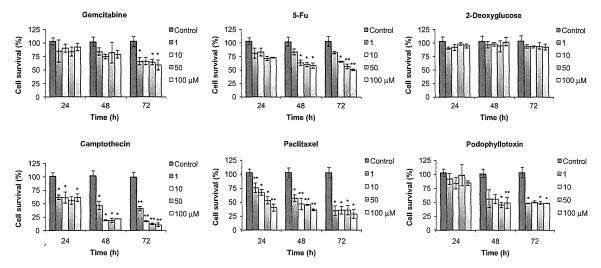


Figure 4 Assessment of cytotoxicity of conventional anticancer agents against PANC-I cells in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle's Medium. Data are expressed as the mean ± standard deviation, n=3. *P<0.05; **P<0.01 indicates a significant difference from the control.

Abbreviation: 5-FU. 5-fluorouracil.

high affinity for phosphatidylserine. Translocation of phosphatidylserine to the external cell surface occurs both in apoptosis and necrosis. We further performed flow cytometric analysis of cells treated with GF utilizing the Muse Annexin V and dead cell kit, which contains 7-AAD as a dye for exclusion of nonviable cells. 7-AAD is impermeable to viable cells and does not stain viable or early apoptotic cells. In late apoptotic and necrotic cells, the integrity of the cell membrane decreases, which allows 7-AAD to pass through the membranes, intercalate into nucleic acids and DNA, and display red fluorescence. As shown in Figure 6,

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Figure 5 Effect of GF (25 µM) on PANC-I cell morphology after 8 hours in NDM. Phase-contrast (upper left), fluorescent (lower left), and merged (lower right) images of PANC-I cells.

Merged

Abbreviations: AV, Annexin V; PI, propidium iodide; NDM, nutrient-deprived medium; GF, (+)-grandifloracin.

the cells are predominantly stained with both Annexin V and 7-AAD within 12 hours in a concentration-dependent manner. In the control of nutrient-deprived medium, more than 90% of the cells survived. After treatment with GF, this cell population decreased markedly to 72% (12.5 $\mu M)$ and 29% (25 $\mu M)$, with an increase in the late apoptotic/necrotic cell population from 1% (control) to 15% (12.5 $\mu M)$ and 61% (25 $\mu M)$, respectively (Figure 6). We further performed Western blot analysis to examine GF-induced apoptosis. Treatment with GF neither led to cleavage of caspase-3 nor showed Bcl-2 inhibition (data not shown).

GF inhibits Akt/mTOR activation

Akt is a prosurvival factor that is activated in a majority of tumors and regulates cellular functions such as cell cycle progression, cell migration, invasion, and angiogenesis. High Akt activation has been associated with tolerance to nutrient starvation and survival in an austerity environment.14 Therefore, the effect of GF on Akt activation was investigated by Western blot analysis. As shown in Figure 6, Akt phosphorylation at Ser473 was completely inhibited by GF in a concentration-dependent as well as time-dependent manner in nutrient-deprived medium. GF also strongly suppressed total Akt. mTOR is a downstream effector of Akt and is frequently activated in various cancer types, where it is involved in tumor progression and metastasis.²³ Therefore, we tested whether GF has any modulatory activity against mTOR activation. As shown in Figure 7, addition of 25 µM GF completely inhibited mTOR phosphorylation at Ser2448 6 hours after treatment.

AV (green)/PI (red)

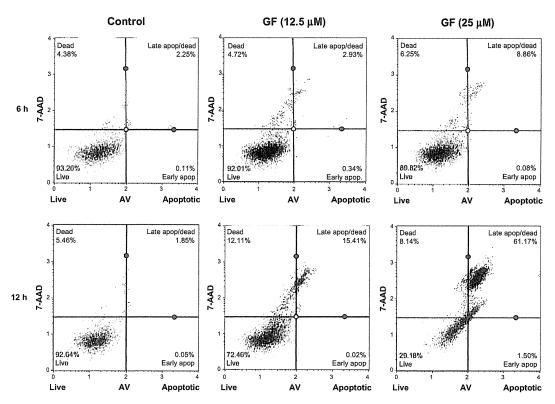


Figure 6 Assessment of apoptosis by GF. PANC-1 cells were treated with vehicle or GF (12.5 μM and 25 μM) in nutrient-deprived medium. After treatment (6 hours and 12 hours), the cells were treated with Annexin V/7-AAD reagent and cytometric analysis was performed.

Abbreviations: Apop, apoptotic; AV, Annexin V; GF, (+)-grandifloracin; 7-AAD; 7-aminoactinomycin D.

GF-induced autophagy in PANC-1 cells

Because no apoptotic cell death was observed in cells treated with GF, we speculated that GF might have induced autophagy. Therefore, expression of the autophagic marker microtubule-associated protein-light chain 3 (LC3), the cytoplasmic form

of LC3-I (16 kDa), and the preautophagosomal and autophagosomal membrane-bound form of LC3-II (14 kDa) was examined by Western blot. The PANC-1 cells were cultured for varying time periods at different GF concentrations. As shown in Figure 7, no apparent differences were observed in LC3-I

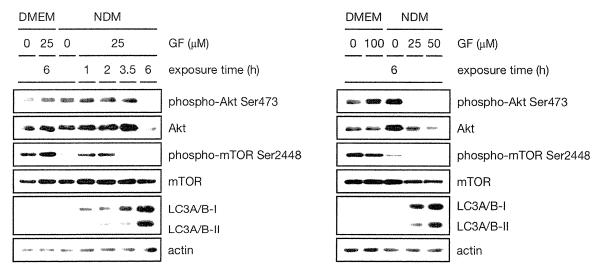


Figure 7 Effect of GF against Akt, mTOR, LC3A/B I, and LC3A/B II.

Abbreviations: GF, (+)-grandifloracin; NDM, nutrient-deprived medium; DMEM, Dulbecco's Modified Eagle's Medium.

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