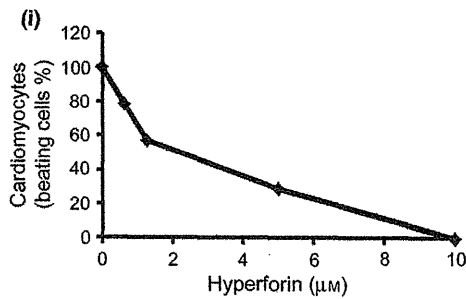
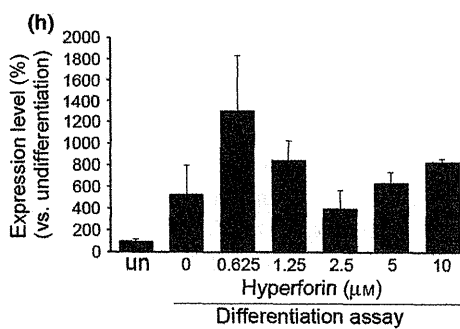
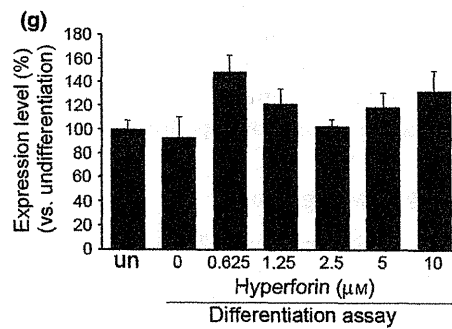
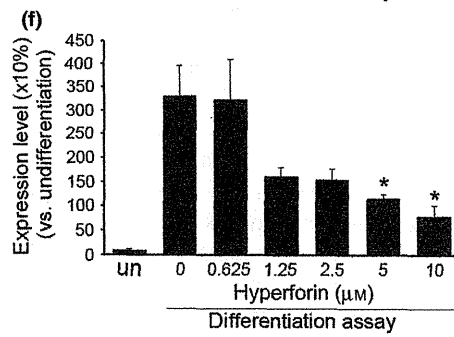
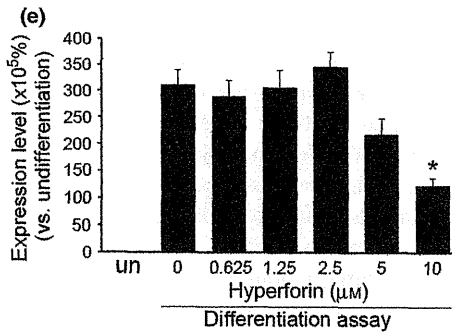
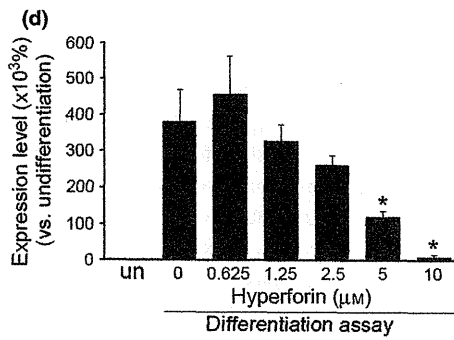
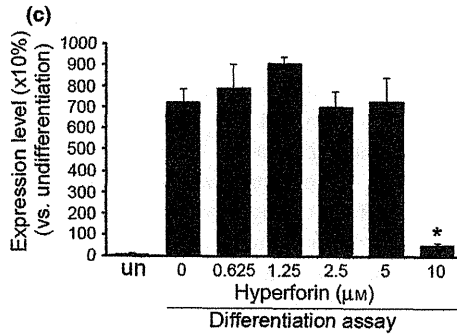
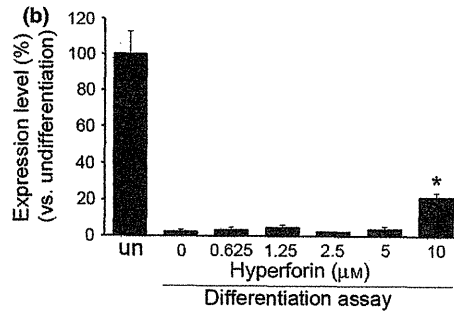
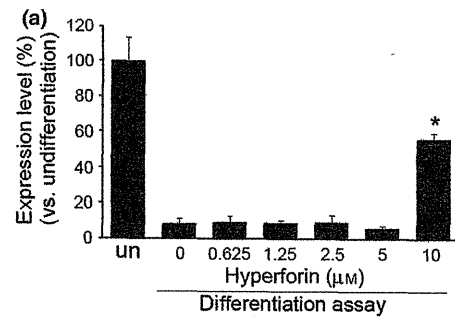


Figure 3. Effects of hyperforin on fibroblast apoptosis. (a) NIH/3T3 cells were treated with hyperforin at indicated concentrations for 72 h. Cell viability was measured by CellTiter-Glo luminescent cell viability assay. Cell cultures exposed to 0 μM drug were considered to be 100% viable. Cell viability of each drug-treated sample was presented as percentage of that of cultures treated with 0 μM drug. (b) NIH/3T3 cells were treated with hyperforin at indicated concentrations for 72 h. Apoptosis was measured by cell death detection ELISA assay. Apoptotic level in each drug-treated sample was presented as fold-change compared to that in cultures treated with 0 μM drug. (c–d) NIH/3T3 cells were treated with hyperforin at indicated concentrations for 72 h. Caspase-3/7 (c), -8 (d) and -9 (e) activities were determined using Caspase-Glo Assays. Data are expressed as fold-increases relative to respective untreated samples (RLU/60 min/ μg protein). (f) NIH/3T3 cells were treated with hyperforin at indicated concentrations for 72 h. Uptake of BrdU was measured by ELISA. BrdU incorporation in each drug-treated sample was presented as fold-change compared to that in cultures treated with 0 μM drug. Data are expressed as mean \pm SEM of results from at least four independent experiments. * $P < 0.05$, compared to 0 μM .

to disassemble in two morphologically and biologically distinct processes, namely, programmed cell death (PCD) and necrosis. PCD, referring to apoptosis, autophagy and programmed necrosis, is proposed to be death of a cell in any pathological format, when mediated by an intracellular program. These three forms of PCD may jointly decide the fate of cells; apoptosis and programmed necrosis invariably contribute to cell death, whereas autophagy can play either a pro-survival role or a pro-death role (17). Cells undergoing apoptosis show a series of well-

characterized physical changes such as plasma membrane blebbing, permeabilization of mitochondrial outer membranes, DNA fragmentation, nuclear disintegration and eventually cell disintegration into apoptotic bodies that are then engulfed and degraded by phagocytes (18). On the other hand, autophagy (macroautophagy) occurs by formation of autophagosomes, double-membraned vesicles that sequester organelles, proteins, or portions of cytoplasm, which then fuse with lysosomes. As a result of this process, sequestered contents are degraded by

Figure 4. Effect of hyperforin on embryonic stem (ES) cell differentiation. Analysis of expression levels for undifferentiated state and tissue-specific differentiation markers. Expression levels of undifferentiated markers Oct3/4 (a) and Sox2 (b), endodermal markers GATA6 (c) and TTR (d), mesodermal markers BMP4 (e) and ANF (f) and ectodermal markers nestin (g) and GFAP (h) were quantified at each concentration of hyperforin with real-time RT-PCR. Each experiment was performed in triplicate. Data are expressed as mean \pm SEM of results from at least three independent experiments. * $P < 0.05$, compared to 0 μM . un, undifferentiated ES cell. (e) The frequencies of cardiomyocytes, identified by their distinctive beating movement, derived from ES cells were quantified at each concentration of hyperforin.



lysosomal enzymes and recycled for future re-use (19). Autophagy does not involve DNA fragmentation (20). Our results here show that hyperforin did not induce apoptosis in ES cells. It is not known, however, whether other types of cell death such as necrosis or autophagy contribute to ES cell growth inhibition.

The molecular mechanisms that account for the hyperforin-induced cell viability reduction of ES cells remain to be investigated.

Our data also suggest that NIH/3T3 fibroblast cytotoxicity to hyperforin at high concentrations induced apoptosis. During apoptosis, caspases are essential for initiation and execution of cell death in a self-amplifying cascade in response to various stimuli (21). Two major apoptotic pathways have been identified, one extrinsic and one intrinsic. The extrinsic pathway is activated by death receptors, which recruit initiator caspases -2, -8, or -10 through adaptor molecules, whereas intrinsic signals result in activation of caspase-9. Initiator caspases can sequentially cleave and activate effector caspases (caspases -3, -6, and -7), which play an important role in mediating cell destruction (22). Our results show that hyperforin increased mono- and oligonucleosomes and activities of caspases -3/7, -8 and -9 in NIH/3T3 fibroblasts, indicating that it induced not necrosis nor autophagy, but apoptosis of NIH/3T3 fibroblasts, *via* both the intrinsic pathway (as shown by activation of caspase-9) and the extrinsic pathway (as shown by activation of caspase-8), and also led to caspase-3 activation.

Thus, our results suggest that hyperforin affected cytotoxicity in a cell-dependent manner; it inhibited proliferation of ES cells (representing embryonic tissue) and induced apoptosis of fibroblasts (representing adult tissues). Effects and the molecular mechanisms of hyperforin must therefore be examined further, in individual cells and tissues.

It must be noted that concentrations of hyperforin taken into the body through consumption of St. John's Wort are very low. Agrosi *et al.* (23) observed peak plasma hyperforin level of 168.35 ng/ml (about 30 nM) after consumption of a soft gelatin formulation and 84.25 ng/ml (about 15 nM) after consumption of hard gelatin capsules. Vitiello *et al.* (24) were unable to detect any hyperforin in 17 of 97 volunteers who took St. John's Wort. Hyperforin had an IC₅₀ value of around 2.4 μM for NIH/3T3 fibroblasts and around 5.9 μM for ES cells as measured for this study; these levels are approximately 80–200 times plasma hyperforin level observed by Agrosi *et al.* These results suggest that hyperforin can be expected to have few embryotoxic effects in general use.

In a previous study, subjects taking St. John's Wort were prospectively identified, followed and compared

with a matched group of pregnant women taking other forms of pharmacological therapy for depression, and a third group of healthy women not exposed to any known teratogens. It was demonstrated that levels of major malformations were similar across the three groups: they were 5%, 4% and 0% in St. John's Wort, disease comparator and healthy groups, respectively. These levels are not significantly different from the 3–5% risk expected in the general population. Levels of live birth and prematurity also did not differ among the three groups (25). In this study, using an assay system based on the EST developed in our previous studies (12–14), we have demonstrated that high concentration (10 μM) of hyperforin increased expression level of undifferentiated marker genes and reduced expression level of mesodermal and endodermal marker genes under differentiating conditions. In addition, hyperforin inhibited differentiation of ES cells into cardiomyocytes. We found, however, that undifferentiated marker expression levels were lower in ES cells that had been subjected to 10 μM hyperforin treatment under differentiating conditions than they were in undifferentiated ES cells, while mesodermal and endodermal marker expression levels were higher in ES cells that had been subjected to 10 μM hyperforin treatment under differentiating conditions than they were in undifferentiated ES cells. These results suggest that high concentrations of hyperforin could partially inhibit ES cell differentiation into mesoderm and endoderm lineages, and that ingestion of large amounts of hyperforin could pose embryotoxic and teratogenic risks.

Hyperforin is currently in use in the clinic as a safe and effective antidepressant. Our experimental data indicate that it could be expected to have few embryotoxic and teratogenic effects in general use, although ingestion of large amounts of hyperforin may incur risks.

Acknowledgements

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DNA Methyltransferase Inhibitor Zebularine Inhibits Human Hepatic Carcinoma Cells Proliferation and Induces Apoptosis

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Abstract

Hepatocellular carcinoma is one of the most common cancers worldwide. During tumorigenesis, tumor suppressor and cancer-related genes are commonly silenced by aberrant DNA methylation in their promoter regions. Zebularine (1-(β -D-ribofuranosyl)-1,2-dihydropyrimidin-2-one) acts as an inhibitor of DNA methylation and exhibits chemical stability and minimal cytotoxicity both *in vitro* and *in vivo*. In this study, we explore the effect and possible mechanism of action of zebularine on hepatocellular carcinoma cell line HepG2. We demonstrate that zebularine exhibits antitumor activity on HepG2 cells by inhibiting cell proliferation and inducing apoptosis, however, it has little effect on DNA methylation in HepG2 cells. On the other hand, zebularine treatment downregulated CDK2 and the phosphorylation of retinoblastoma protein (Rb), and upregulated p21^{WAF/CIP1} and p53. We also found that zebularine treatment upregulated the phosphorylation of p44/42 mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK). These results suggest that the p44/42 MAPK pathway plays a role in zebularine-induced cell-cycle arrest by regulating the activity of p21^{WAF/CIP1} and Rb. Furthermore, although the proapoptotic protein Bax levels were not affected, the antiapoptotic protein Bcl-2 level was downregulated with zebularine treatment. In addition, the data in the present study indicate that inhibition of the double-stranded RNA-dependent protein kinase (PKR) is involved in inducing apoptosis with zebularine. These results suggest a novel mechanism of zebularine-induced cell growth arrest and apoptosis via a DNA methylation-independent pathway in hepatocellular carcinoma.

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Introduction

Hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) is the sixth most common newly diagnosed cancer and the third most common cause of cancer mortality worldwide. Its treatment outcome is far from satisfactory and the five-year survival rate is dismal (approximately 10%) [1]. Liver transplantation is currently considered to be the only curative therapy. Unfortunately, however, a majority (>80%) of patients with advanced and unresectable HCC are not suitable candidates for transplantation or surgical resection [2,3]. Chemotherapy using conventional cytotoxic drugs, such as doxorubicin, cisplatin, and fluorouracil, is a common treatment option, especially for patients with unresectable tumors. However, because of poor response rates, severe toxicities, and high recurrence rates, the mean survival time is approximately six months [3,4]. Thus, there is a very high demand for more effective agents to better combat this malignancy.

It has been considered that hypermethylation of CpG islands in tumor suppressor genes represents one of the hallmarks in human cancer development [5,6]. It has been reported that the analysis of gene expression and promoter CpG island hypermethylation in

HCC revealed that both genetic and epigenetic changes contribute to the initiation and progression of liver cancer and are correlated with poor survival [7]. Epigenetic changes such as DNA methylation are pharmacologically reversible, and this offers a promising multi-target translational strategy against cancer in which the expression of a variety of silenced genes could be reactivated. DNA methylation is specifically mediated by the action of DNA methyltransferase (DNMT) enzymes [8], which includes DNMT1, DNMT2, DNMT3a, and DNMT3b [9]. DNMT1 has de novo as well as maintenance methyltransferase activity, and DNMT3a and DNMT3b are potent de novo methyltransferase [10]. Overexpression of DNMT has been reported to be involved in tumorigenesis [11] and has been suggested as a prognostic factor in large B cell lymphomas [12]. Therefore, it has been proposed that the inhibition of DNMT activity can strongly reduce the formation of tumors [13]. Thus far, three DNMT-inhibiting cytosine nucleoside analogs (i.e., 5'-azacitidine, decitabine, and zebularine) have been studied as potential anti-cancer drugs [14–16]. Decitabine and its prodrug 5'-azacitidine are two widely used DNMT inhibitors for the

treatment of patients with various cancers, such as myelodysplastic syndromes (MDS) and acute myeloid leukemia (AML) [17,18]. Although Decitabine and its prodrug 5'-azacitidine are effective in treating various cancers [17,18], the formation of irreversible covalent adducts with DNA may cause long-term side effects, including DNA mutagenesis, a potential cause of tumor recurrence.

Zebularine is a second-generation, highly stable hydrophilic inhibitor of DNA methylation with oral bioavailability that preferentially targets cancer cells [19], as demonstrated in bladder, prostate, lung, colon, and pancreatic carcinoma cell lines [20]. It acts primarily as a trap for DNMT protein by forming tight covalent complexes between DNMT protein and zebularine-substitute DNA [21]. Zebularine is also a cytidine analog that was originally developed as a cytidine deaminase inhibitor. It exhibits low toxicity in mice, even after prolonged administration [22–24]. Given that aberrant methylation is a major event in the early and late stages of tumorigenesis [25,26], including hepatocarcinogenesis [7], this process may represent a critical target for cancer risk assessment, treatment, and chemoprevention [19]. In the previous study, a zebularine signature that classified liver cancer cell lines into two major subtypes with different drug response was identified. In drug-sensitive cell lines, zebularine caused inhibition of proliferation coupled with increased apoptosis, whereas drug-resistant cell lines were associated with the upregulation of oncogenic networks (e.g., E2F1, MYC, and TNF) [19]. However, little is known about the anti-cancer effect and possible mechanism of action of zebularine on HCC.

In the present study, we investigated the molecular mechanism of zebularine against HCC. We demonstrated that zebularine exhibited antitumor activity by inhibiting cell proliferation and inducing apoptosis. This effect was independent of DNA methylation, and characterized by the downregulation of CDK2

and the phosphorylation of retinoblastoma protein (Rb) as well as the upregulation of p21^{WAF/CIP1} and p53. We also found that zebularine induced apoptosis through the intrinsic and extrinsic apoptosis pathways. In addition, the data in the present study suggest that the inhibition of the double-stranded RNA-dependent protein kinase (PKR) is involved in inducing apoptosis with zebularine.

Materials and Methods

Cell culture

HepG2 cells (JCRB1054) and HeLa cells (JCRB9004) were purchased from the Health Science Research Resources Bank (Japan Health Sciences Foundation, Osaka, Japan), and were maintained at 37°C under an atmosphere of 95% air and 5% CO₂ in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM) containing 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS), 100 U/ml penicillin, and 100 µg/ml streptomycin. Cells were immersed in a culture medium containing the indicated zebularine concentrations. Zebularine (Wako Pure Chemical Industries, Osaka, Japan) was dissolved in distilled water as a stock solution.

Cell viability assay

The cell viabilities after exposure to zebularine were determined using WST assay. The assay was performed using a Cell Counting Kit-8 (Dojindo Laboratories, Kumamoto, Japan) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Cell cultures exposed to 0 µM zebularine were considered to be 100% viable. The cell viability of each drug-treated sample was presented as a percentage of the viability of cultures treated with 0 µM zebularine. All samples were run five times in the same assay.

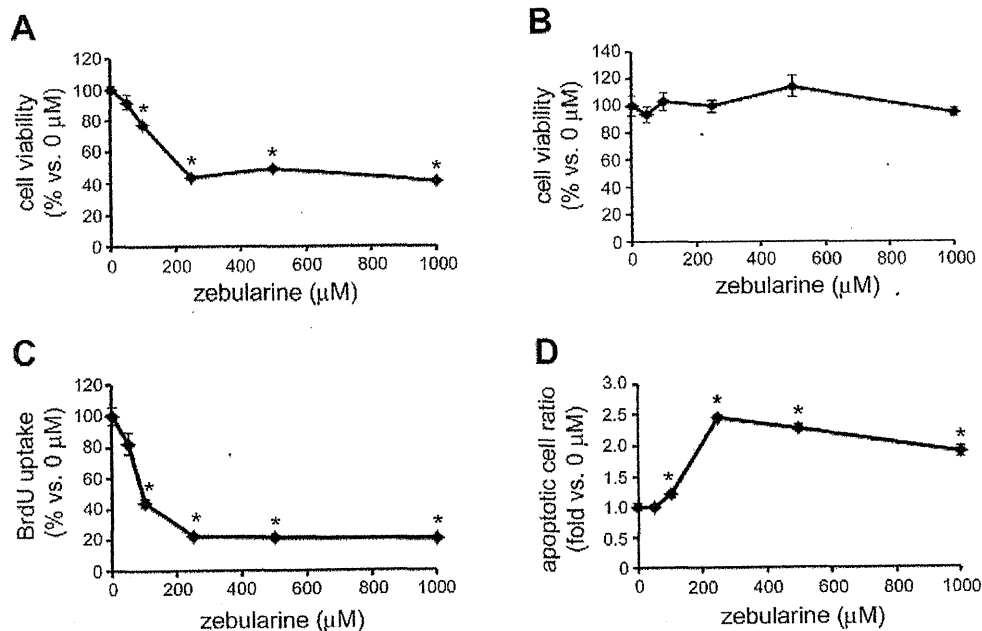


Figure 1. The effect of zebularine on HepG2 cell viability. HepG2 cells were treated with zebularine at indicated concentrations for 72 h (A) and 24 h (B). Cell growth was measured by WST assay. (C) HepG2 cells were treated with zebularine at indicated concentrations for 24 h. Uptake of BrdU was measured by ELISA. (D) HepG2 cells were treated with zebularine at indicated concentrations for 72 h. Apoptosis was measured by TUNEL assay. Data are the means \pm SEM of results from at least three independent experiments. * p <0.05, compared to 0 µM. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0054036.g001

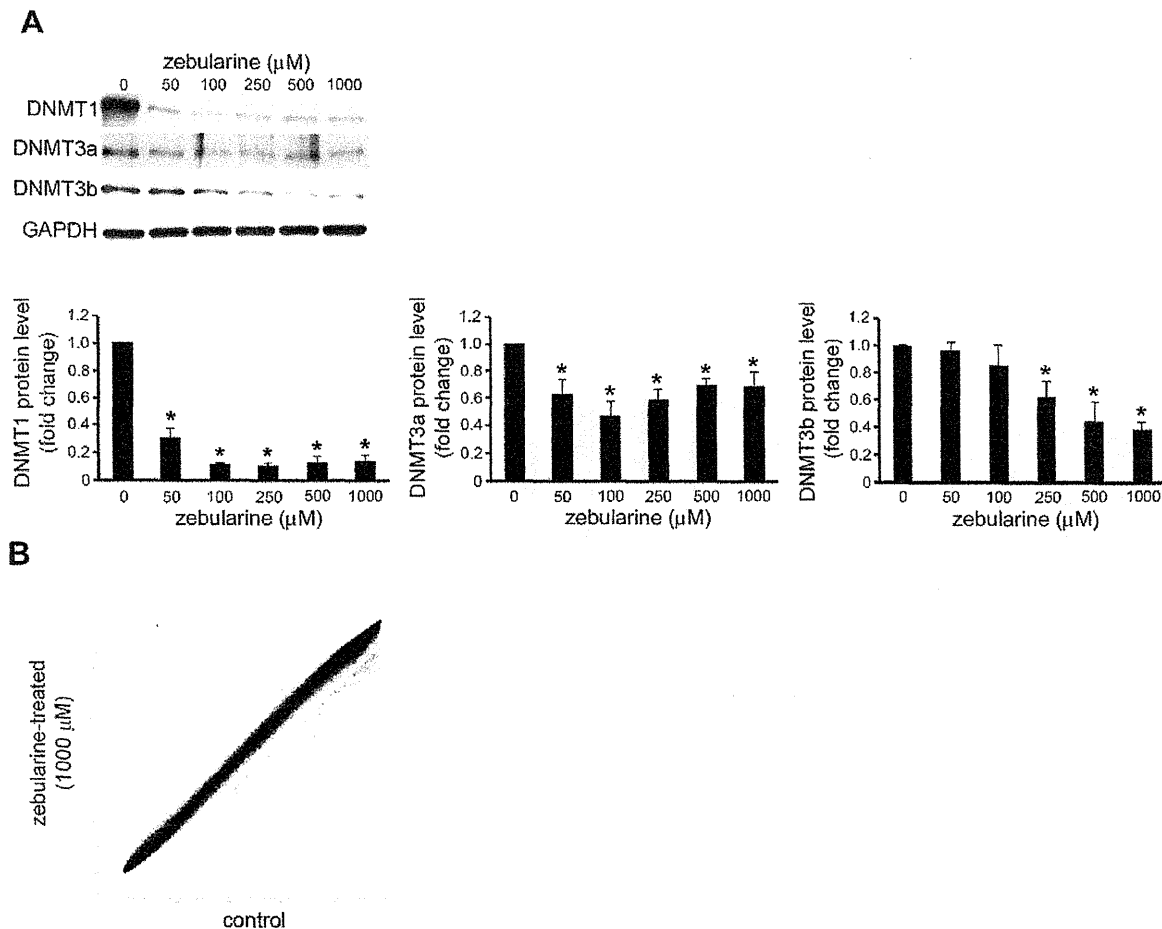


Figure 2. Effect of zebularine on the DNMTs expression and DNA methylation in HepG2 cells. (A) The protein level of DNMT1, DNMT3a, and DNMT3b after zebularine treatment for 72 h at different concentrations. After treatment, the cells were harvested and western blot analysis was performed to detect the protein level of DNMT1, DNMT3a, and DNMT3b. GAPDH was used as a loading control. Data are the means \pm SEM of results from at least three independent experiments. $*p < 0.05$, compared to 0 μM . (B) Scatter plot of the average beta values at 485,415 CpG sites for zebularine-treated (y-axis) and control (x-axis) HepG2 cells ($n = 3$ for each group). Dots for CpG sites whose delta-beta value is > 0.1 or < -0.1 are shown in green (35 [0.0072%] hypermethylated and 162 [0.033%] hypomethylated CpG sites). doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0054036.g002

Apoptosis analysis

Quantification of apoptotic cells was performed using a Cell Death Detection ELISA^{PLUS} (Roche Diagnostics, Tokyo, Japan). After 72 h of incubation with zebularine, cells were lysed with a lysis buffer (included in the kit). The assay was performed according to the manufacturer's instructions. Absorbance values were measured at 405 nm using a microplate reader (ARVO, PerkinElmer Japan, Kanagawa, Japan). The apoptotic ratio of each drug-treated sample was presented as a fold-change of the apoptosis of cultures treated with 0 μM zebularine. All samples were run five times in the same assay.

5-bromo-2'-deoxy-uridine (BrdU) incorporation assay

Cellular DNA synthesis rates were determined by measuring BrdU incorporation with the commercial Cell Proliferation ELISA System (Roche Diagnostics). After 24 h of incubation with zebularine, cells were incubated for 3 h with a BrdU labeling solution (included in the kit) containing 10 μM BrdU. The assay was performed according to the manufacturer's instructions. Absorbance values were measured at 405 nm using a microplate

reader. The BrdU incorporation of each drug-treated sample was presented as a percentage of the BrdU incorporation of cultures treated with 0 μM zebularine. All samples were run five times in the same assay.

Illumina Infinium HumanMethylation450 BeadChip analysis

Genomic DNA was extracted from three independent cell culture batches for zebularine (1000 μM)-treated and control HepG2 cells. Genomic DNA (1000 ng) was bisulfite-treated and purified using the EpiTect Bisulfite Plus Kit (QIAGEN K.K., Tokyo, Japan). Three hundred nanograms of bisulfite-treated DNA were hybridized to the Illumina Infinium HumanMethylation450 BeadChip using Illumina-supplied reagents and protocols. Both the CpG loci included on this array and the technologies behind the platform have been described previously [27]. GenomeStudio software (Illumina) was used to calculate the methylation level at each CpG site as beta value (β = intensity of the methylated allele [M]/[intensity of the unmethylated allele (U)

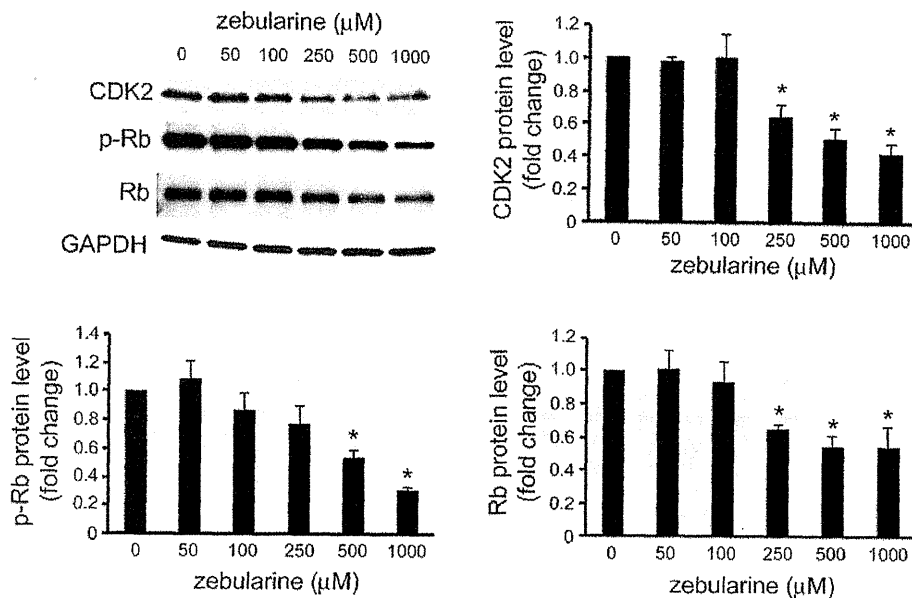


Figure 3. Effects of zebularine on the protein expression of cell-cycle regulator. The protein level of CDK2, p-Rb, and Rb after zebularine treatment for 24 h at different concentrations. After treatment, the cells were harvested and western blot analysis was performed to detect the protein level of CDK2, p-Rb, and Rb. GAPDH was used as a loading control. Data are the means \pm SEM of results from at least three independent experiments. * $p < 0.05$, compared to 0 μ M. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0054036.g003

+ intensity of the methylated allele (M + 100)] [27]. Region-level methylation analysis was conducted using the IMA package [28].

Caspase assays

Caspase-3/7, -8, and -9 activities were assayed with Caspase-Glo Assays (Promega KK, Tokyo, Japan) according to the respective manufacturer's standard cell-based assay protocol. The luminescence of each sample was measured using a plate-reading luminometer. Comparison of the luminescence from a treated sample with a control sample enables determination of the relative increase in caspase activity. All samples were run five times in the same assay.

Overexpression of PKR and forward transfection

The PKR plasmid, pFN21A-hPKR (pFN21AE2332), and empty vector, HaloTag control vector, were purchased from Promega. Transient transfection in HepG2 cells was performed according to the Lipofectamine 2000 (Invitrogen, Life Technologies Japan, Tokyo, Japan) methods. Cells cultured in a six-well

culture plate were washed twice with phosphate-buffered saline and the medium was replaced with 2 ml of Opti-MEM (Invitrogen) with 1% FBS. Two micrograms per well of pFN21A-hPKR or the empty vector (HaloTag control vector) were then mixed with 10 μ l/well of Lipofectamine 2000 in Opti-MEM and the mixture was added to the wells 20 min later. After 6 h of transfection, the cells were then cultured in regular medium for 48 h and subsequently treated with zebularine for 72 h.

Immunoblotting

Cells were lysed in lysis buffer (20 mM HEPES-NaOH pH 7.5, 150 mM NaCl, 1% NP-40, 1.5 mM MgCl₂, 1 mM EGTA, 1 μ g/ml leupeptin, 1 mM PMSF, and 1 mM Na₃VO₄) and stored at -80° C until use. After centrifugation, aliquots of the supernatants underwent sodium dodecyl sulfate polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE). The electrophoretically separated proteins were transferred to polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) membranes, blocked, and immunoblotted with anti-CDK2 (78B2, #2546), Rb (4H1, #9309), phospho-Rb (Ser807/811) (#9308), p21^{WAF/CIP1}

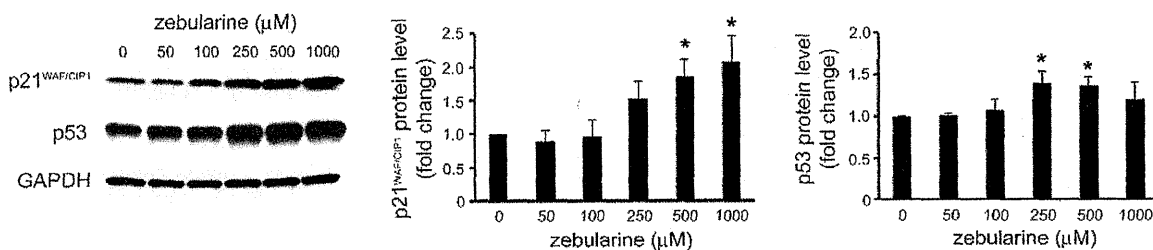


Figure 4. Effects of zebularine on the protein expression of p21^{WAF/CIP1} and p53. The expression of p21^{WAF/CIP1} and p53 after zebularine treatment for 24 h at different concentrations. After treatment, the cells were harvested and western blot analysis was performed to detect the protein level of p21^{WAF/CIP1} and p53. GAPDH was used as a loading control. Data are the means \pm SEM of results from at least three independent experiments. * $p < 0.05$, compared to 0 μ M. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0054036.g004

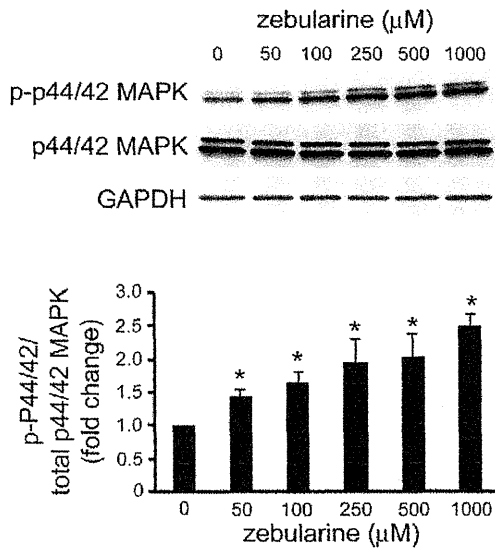


Figure 5. Effects of zebularine on phosphorylation of p44/42 MAPK. The phosphorylation and expression of p44/42 MAPK after zebularine treatment for 24 h at different concentrations. After treatment, the cells were harvested and western blot analysis was performed to detect the phosphorylated and total p44/42 MAPK protein level. GAPDH was used as a loading control. Data are the means \pm SEM of results from at least three independent experiments. * $p < 0.05$, compared to 0 μM .
doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0054036.g005

(12D1, #2947), p44/42 mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) (137F5, #4695), phospho-p44/42 MAPK (The202/Thy204) (#4370), Bax (D2E11, #5023), Bcl-2 (50E3, #2870), PKR (N216, #2766), DNMT1 (D63A6, #5032) (Cell Signaling Technology Japan, Tokyo, Japan), phospho-PKR (E120,

ab32036, abcam, Tokyo, Japan), p53 (M 7001, Dako Japan, Tokyo, Japan), DNMT3a (sc-20703), DNMT3b (sc-81252) (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Santa Cruz, CA), or glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH) (#MAB374, Millipore, Temecula, CA) antibodies, and then with peroxidase-conjugated secondary antibodies (NA931 or NA940, GE Healthcare Japan, Tokyo, Japan). The bound antibodies were detected using the ECL system (GE Healthcare Japan).

Statistics

All experiments were performed at least three times. Values are expressed as means \pm standard error of the mean (SEM). Statistical analyses were performed using an unpaired Student's *t*-test or two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by Fisher's protected least significant difference as a post-hoc test. $p < 0.05$ was considered to indicate statistical significance.

Results

The effects of zebularine on HepG2 cell viability

In order to investigate the effect of zebularine on HepG2 cell viability, we performed WST assay after zebularine exposure. WST assay indicated that zebularine affected cell viability. Exposure of cells to zebularine for 72 h resulted in a decrease in cell viability (Fig. 1A). To further determine whether zebularine could inhibit the proliferation of HepG2 cells, we conducted BrdU incorporation assay after zebularine treatment for 24 h. Although WST assay indicated that zebularine could not affect cell viability after 24 h (Fig. 1B), BrdU incorporation assay clearly showed that the uptake of BrdU by HepG2 cells was already reduced after 24 h exposure to zebularine (Fig. 1C). At a concentration of 250 μM , the uptake of BrdU was reduced to $22.1 \pm 0.6\%$ compared with 0 μM and a similar reduction of BrdU uptake ($20.1 \pm 1.5\%$) was observed at a concentration of 1000 μM . In addition, we examined whether zebularine could induce HepG2 cell death. Terminal deoxynucleotidyl transferase dUTP nick end labeling

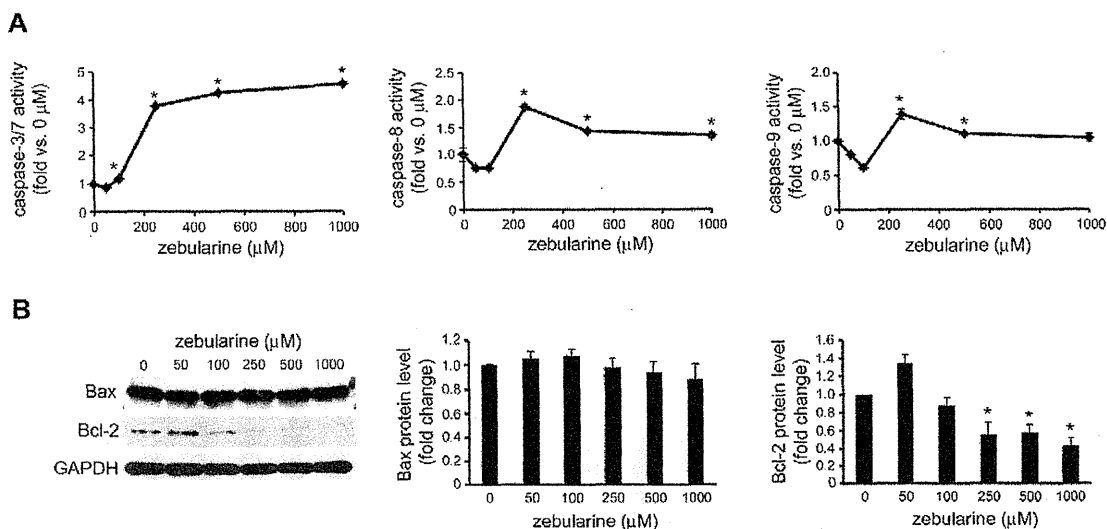


Figure 6. The effect of zebularine on apoptosis-related proteins. HepG2 cells were treated with zebularine at indicated concentrations for 72 h. (A) Caspase-3/7, -8, and -9 activities were determined using Caspase-Glo Assays. The data are expressed as fold-increase relative to the respective untreated samples (RLU/60 min/ μg protein). (B) The protein level of Bax and Bcl-2 after zebularine treatment for 72 h at different concentrations. After treatment, the cells were harvested and western blot analysis was performed to detect the protein level of Bax and Bcl-2. GAPDH was used as a loading control. Data are the means \pm SEM of results from at least three independent experiments. * $p < 0.05$, compared to 0 μM .
doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0054036.g006

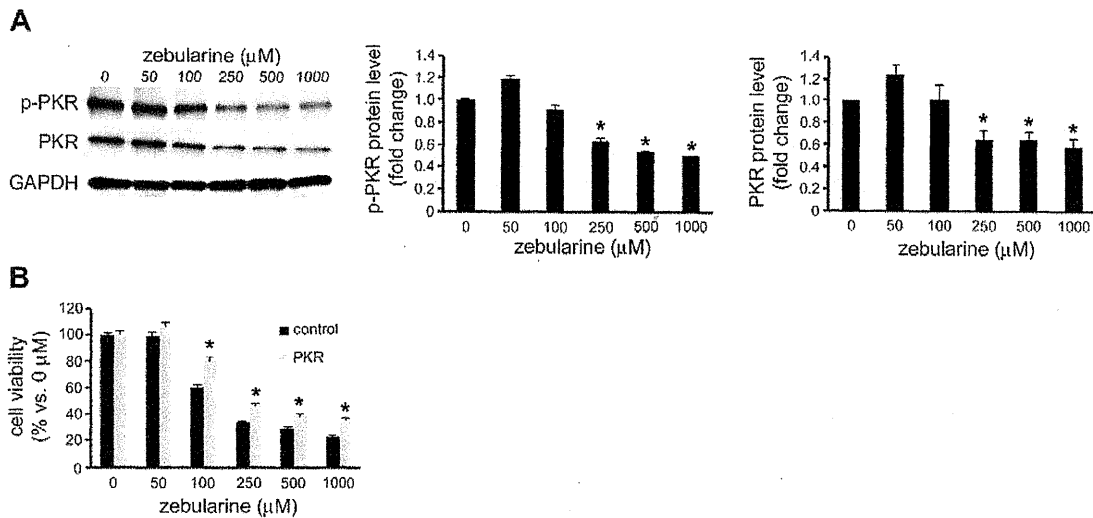


Figure 7. Effects of zebularine on phosphorylation of PKR. (A) The phosphorylation and expression of PKR after zebularine treatment for 72 h at different concentrations. After treatment, the cells were harvested and western blot analysis was performed to detect the phosphorylated and total PKR protein level. GAPDH was used as a loading control. * $p < 0.05$, compared to 0 μM. (B) Effect of the overexpression of PKR in zebularine-induced cell death. The forward transfection of the empty vector (Halo Tag control vector) as the control or the plasmid-containing PKR cDNA sequence (pFN21A-hPKR) was performed, and the cells were then treated with different concentrations of zebularine for 72 h. * $p < 0.05$, compared to control. Data are the means \pm SEM of results from at least three independent experiments. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0054036.g007

(TUNEL) assay demonstrated that zebularine induced apoptotic cell death on HepG2 cells. Exposure of cells to zebularine for 72 h resulted in an increase in the number of apoptotic cells (Fig. 1D). These results indicated that DNA replication was blocked and apoptotic cell death was induced by treatment with zebularine, which resulted in reduced HepG2 cell viability.

Zebularine affects HepG2 cells growth arrest and apoptosis via DNA methylation-independent pathway

Because of zebularine's activity as a DNMT inhibitor in other model systems [29,30], its effect on the expression of DNMTs in HepG2 cells was examined. As expected, zebularine treatment was associated with a statistically significant dose-dependent depletion of DNMT1, DNMT3a, and DNMT3b (Fig. 2A).

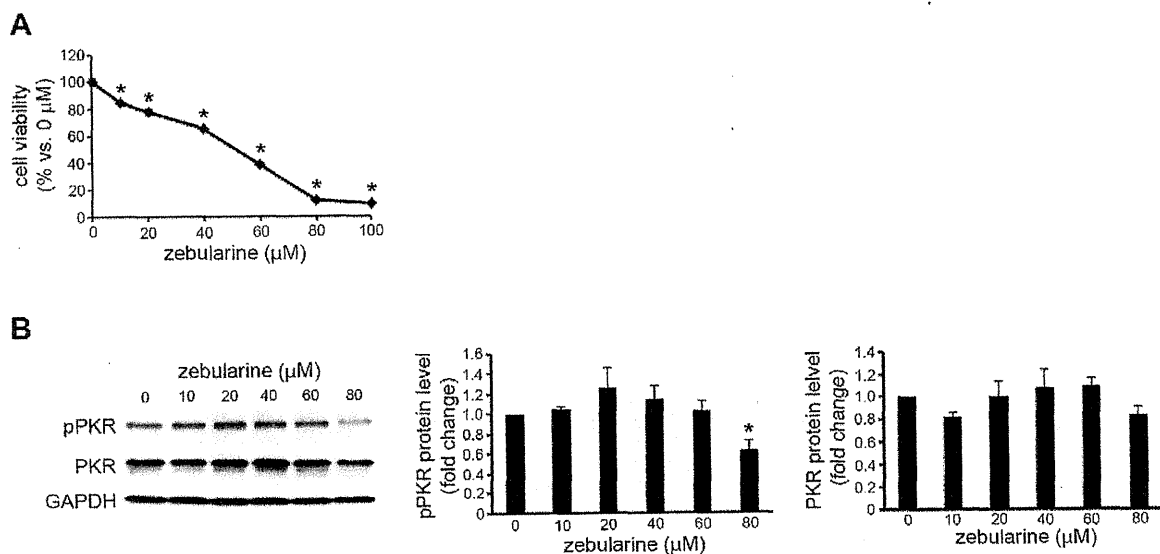


Figure 8. Effects of zebularine on phosphorylation of PKR in HeLa cells. (A) HeLa cells were treated with zebularine at indicated concentrations for 72 h. Cell growth was measured by WST assay. (B) The phosphorylation and expression of PKR after zebularine treatment for 72 h at different concentrations. After treatment, the cells were harvested and western blot analysis was performed to detect the phosphorylated and total PKR protein level. GAPDH was used as a loading control. * $p < 0.05$, compared to 0 μM. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0054036.g008

Since zebularine decreased DNMT protein levels, to determine whether the growth inhibition and/or apoptosis induction in HepG2 cells by zebularine are a result of a change in DNA methylation, we obtained the genome-wide methylation profiles of zebularine-treated and -untreated (control) HepG2 cells using an Illumina Infinium HumanMethylation450 BeadChip (GEO accession number GSE42490). Among 482,421 assays for CpG sites, 482,260 assays fulfilled our quality control criteria (detection p value < 0.01 and no missing beta value for both groups) and were subjected to the following analysis. For each assay, delta-beta value (= average of the beta values of three zebularine-treated samples - average of those of three controls) was calculated. As shown in Fig. 2B, the methylation profiles were highly similar between zebularine-treated and -untreated HepG2 cells. The number of CpG sites whose delta-beta values are > 0.1 and < -0.1 was 35 and 162, respectively. At the majority (99.96%) of CpG sites, methylation levels were nearly the same under the two conditions. To further assess whether these minor methylation changes are observed at specific genes or genomic regions, we conducted region-level methylation analysis using the IMA package [28]. Among 26,659 CpG islands (CGIs), only five showed a significant change (adjusted p value < 0.05 and $|\text{delta-beta value}| > 0.1$) of the methylation level upon zebularine treatment (Table S1). All five CGIs were found to be highly methylated in control HepG2 cells (beta value > 0.8), and to be partially hypomethylated (delta-beta range -0.11 – -0.21) in zebularine-treatment cells. One CGI is located in an intron of the AGAP1 gene that encodes ArfGAP with GTPase domain, ankyrin repeat, and PH domain 1 protein. Another CGI is located 10 kb downstream of the USP18 gene that encodes ubiquitin specific peptidase 18. The other three CGIs are not associated with any RefSeq gene structure (within 50 kb distance). It is unlikely that the slight decrease in DNA methylation at these five CGIs causes growth arrest and apoptosis in HepG2 cells. These results suggest that the administration of zebularine has little effect on DNA methylation in HepG2 cells, and that the inhibited cell growth and induced apoptosis observed in HepG2 cells upon zebularine treatment are caused by unknown mechanisms that are independent of DNA methylation.

Zebularine inhibited CDK and phosphorylation of protein retinoblastoma

To estimate the mechanism by which zebularine inhibits HepG2 cell proliferation, we investigated the change in CDK2 expression that was associated with cell-cycle regulation after zebularine treatment. Our results showed that the levels of CDK2 were downregulated in HepG2 cells at 24 h by zebularine treatment (Fig. 3). Protein retinoblastoma (Rb) plays a critical role in governing cell-cycle progression, especially for the transition from the G1 to the S phase [31], where the total and phosphorylation level of Rb was detected. Our results revealed that phosphorylated Rb (p-Rb) decreased in a concentration-dependent manner 24 h after zebularine treatment, which was accompanied by a reduction in total Rb (Fig. 3).

Zebularine increased p21^{WAF/CIP1} and p53 level in HepG2 cells

Previous studies have demonstrated that tumor suppressor protein p21^{WAF/CIP1} and p53 play an important role in G0/G1 arrest in HepG2 cells [32]. Therefore, in order to determine whether these two proteins play a role in inhibiting cell proliferation, the HepG2 cells were exposed to zebularine and analyzed for change on the protein level of p21^{WAF/CIP1} and p53. The results showed that after 24 h of zebularine treatment, the

p21^{WAF/CIP1} and p53 protein level was higher in HepG2 cells than in the control (Fig. 4).

The effect of zebularine on p44/42 MAPK expression

To further clarify the mechanism of the proliferation inhibitory effect of zebularine on HepG2 cells, we examined the expression of p44/42 MAPK in HepG2 cells after zebularine treatment. As shown in Fig. 5, zebularine increased the level of phosphorylated p44/42 MAPK, whereas total p44/42 MAPK was unaffected by the zebularine treatment, as judged by comparisons with GAPDH as a loading control. This data indicates that zebularine can increase the phosphorylation of p44/42 MAPK.

Zebularine induced apoptosis via caspase pathway

To investigate whether zebularine-induced apoptosis was associated with the caspase family proteins, the activity of caspase-3/7, -8, and -9 was examined after zebularine treatment at 72 h. As shown in Fig. 6A, the activity of caspase-3/7 was significantly increased at an apoptosis-inducible concentration of zebularine. In addition to caspase-3, the activity of caspase-8 and -9 was also increased with zebularine treatment. The expression of the proapoptotic factor Bax and the antiapoptotic factor Bcl-2 was examined by western blotting. The result demonstrated that Bax expression was not affected. On the other hand, Bcl-2 expression decreased with an increasing amount of zebularine (Fig. 6B).

Zebularine decreases the activity of PKR in HepG2 cells

A previous study showed that PKR regulates the protein expression level and phosphorylation of Bcl-2 and plays an anti-apoptotic role in HepG2 cells [33]. Since zebularine can reduce the Bcl-2 protein level, we examined PKR and the phosphorylated PKR level with zebularine treatment. Our results showed that zebularine can reduce the phosphorylated PKR level; this was accompanied by a reduction in total PKR (Fig. 7A). To determine whether PKR has an anti-apoptotic effect in HepG2 cells treated with zebularine, we overexpressed the PKR gene in HepG2 cells and exposed the cells to zebularine. We found that zebularine-induced cell death was reduced by overexpression of PKR (Fig. 7B).

The effect of zebularine on the activity of PKR in other cancer cells

Zebularine also inhibits the growth of bladder cancer, breast cancer, and cervical cancer cells [29,30,34]. Since PKR is ubiquitously expressed, we examined whether zebularine decreases the activity of PKR in other cancer cells. It was recently reported that zebularine inhibits the growth of HeLa cervical cancer cells via cell-cycle arrest and caspase-dependent apoptosis [30]. We also observed that zebularine inhibited the growth of HeLa cells, which coincided with the results of the previous study (Fig. 8A). However, our results showed that cell growth inhibiting concentration of zebularine did not reduce the phosphorylated PKR and total PKR levels in HeLa cells (Fig. 8B).

Discussion

In the present study, we investigated the effect of zebularine on human hepatic carcinoma cells and the possible mechanism. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first study to demonstrate that zebularine inhibits hepatic carcinoma cell HepG2 proliferation by inducing cell growth arrest and apoptosis via intrinsic and extrinsic apoptotic pathways.

In this study, we observed that zebularine decreased the level of DNMT1, DNMT3a, and DNMT3b in HepG2 cells. These results

were similar to the reports that DNMT inhibitor induces the depletion of DNMT1, 3a, or 3b protein in human bladder, breast, and cervical cancer cells [24,30,35]. Because tight covalent complexes of zebularine and DNMT could lead to compositional change in DNMT protein, it is plausible that DNMTs can be degraded via a ubiquitination system, consequently being observed in the reduction of its expression [30]. On the other hand, our results suggest that zebularine has little effect on DNA methylation in HepG2 cells. Thus, it seems that the cell-cycle arrest and apoptosis observed in HepG2 cells upon zebularine treatment are caused by mechanisms that are independent of DNA methylation.

Eukaryotic cell proliferation is a highly regulated system that is controlled by CDK-cyclin complexes. The cell-cycle transition from the G1 to the S phase was the major regulatory checkpoint in this process. This transition is characterized by the phosphorylation of Rb, and the CDK-cyclin complex catalyzes the reaction [36,37]. In this study, we found that zebularine inhibited the CDK2 and p-Rb accompanied by a decrease in total Rb, which resulted in cell-cycle arrest and the exertion of its antiproliferative effect. Cell-cycle inhibitor p21^{WAF/CIP1} plays an important role in the G1/S progression process. It may inhibit the activity of the CDK-cyclin complex to regulate cell-cycle progression. These effects can be mediated through p53-dependent or -independent machinery according to the types of stimuli [38–43]. There are two p53-binding elements located at the p21^{WAF/CIP1} gene promoter that can be transactivated by the accumulated nuclear p53 after DNA damage [44]. It is reported that p53-dependent G1 growth arrest is mediated by p21^{WAF/CIP1}, and p21^{WAF/CIP1} is the CDK inhibitory protein transcriptionally regulated by p53 [45]. Our results showed that the p21^{WAF/CIP1} level was increased after zebularine treatment. In addition, zebularine also upregulated p53 protein. Thus, in the present study, both p53 and p21^{WAF/CIP1} may perform their function by inhibiting the kinase activities of CDK-cyclin complexes to stimulate cell-cycle arrest, which was attributed to the zebularine effect.

MAPKs are essential components of the intracellular signal transduction pathways that regulate cell proliferation and apoptosis. One subgroup of MAPKs, p44/42 MAPK (ERK1/2), is an important target in the diagnosis and treatment of cancer and has been reported to be required for the upregulation of p21^{WAF/CIP1} that results in cell-cycle arrest [46–48]. Furthermore, the high-intensity p44/42 MAPK signal leads to the repression of CDK2 kinase activity for p-Rb, which mainly regulates the proliferation of HepG2 cells [49]. In the present study, MAPK signaling pathway regulation after zebularine treatments was investigated. We found that zebularine treatment upregulated the phosphorylation of p44/42 MAPK. Therefore, it is suggested that the p44/42 MAPK pathway plays a role in zebularine-induced cell-cycle arrest by regulating the activity of p21^{WAF/CIP1} and Rb.

During the process of apoptosis, caspases are essential for the initiation and execution of cell death in a self-amplifying cascade in response to various stimuli [50]. Two major apoptotic pathways have been identified: the extrinsic and intrinsic apoptotic pathways. The extrinsic pathway is activated by death receptors, which recruit initiator caspase-2, -8, or -10 through adaptor molecules, whereas the intrinsic signals result in the activation of caspase-9. These initiator caspases can sequentially cleave and activate the effector caspase (caspase-3, -6, and -7), which play an important role in mediating cellular destruction [51]. Our results showed that zebularine appeared to induce the apoptosis of HepG2 cells via the intrinsic pathway, as shown by the activation of caspase-9, and the extrinsic pathway, as shown by the activation of caspase-8, which led to caspase-3 activation. Proteins from the Bcl-2 family can be divided into two groups: suppressors of apoptosis (e.g., Bcl-2, Bcl-

XL, and Mcl-1) and activators of apoptosis (e.g., Bax, Bok, Hrk, and Bad). These proteins are key regulators of the intrinsic pathway of apoptosis, setting the threshold for engagement into the death machinery [52,53]. Among these, the anti-apoptotic Bcl-2 protein acts to suppress apoptosis by preventing the release of apoptogenic proteins, such as cytochrome c, that reside in the intermembrane space of mitochondria. Functionally, Bax acts in opposition to Bcl-2 and facilitates the release of these mitochondrial apoptogenic factors by translocation and oligomerization [54–56]. Thus, the ratio of Bax/Bcl-2 determines, in part, the susceptibility of cells to death signals and might be a critical factor in a cell's threshold for apoptosis [57]. In this study, the expression of Bax and Bcl-2 proteins in zebularine-treated HepG2 cells was examined by western blot assay. We found that although Bax protein levels were not affected, Bcl-2 protein level was downregulated with zebularine treatment, which led to a marked increase in the Bax/Bcl-2 ratio and then apoptosis.

Initially identified as an antiviral protein, PKR is best known for triggering cell defense responses and initiating innate immune responses by arresting general protein synthesis and inducing apoptosis during virus infection [58]. Activated PKR, known as a eukaryotic initiation factor 2- α (eIF-2 α) kinase, induces the phosphorylation of eIF-2 α [59], which inhibits the initiation of translation through the tRNA-40S ribosomal subunit. On the other hand, PKR is involved in controlling the transcription of Bcl-2 in HepG2 cells, mediated by the transcription factor NF- κ B [33]. In this study, we observed that zebularine can reduce the phosphorylation of PKR, which indicates the activated PKR. In addition, overexpression of PKR reduced zebularine-induced cell death. Thus, our results suggest that zebularine decreases the activity of PKR and results in apoptotic cell death via reduced NF- κ B activity and the downregulation of Bcl-2. The fact that zebularine inhibits the growth of bladder, breast, and cervical cancer cells [29,30,34] and that PKR is ubiquitously expressed led us to hypothesize that zebularine induced the cell growth arrest via the downregulation of PKR in other cancer cells. When we examined the effect of zebularine on PKR expression in HeLa cells, we observed, however, that zebularine did not decrease the phosphorylation of PKR and the total PKR level. These results suggest that there are differences in the mechanism by which zebularine inhibits cell growth among the different types of carcinomas. The action and mechanisms of zebularine must therefore be further investigated in other cancer cells.

In conclusion, our observation indicated that zebularine inhibited cell growth and induced apoptotic cell death, which contributed to its antiproliferation effects against hepatocellular carcinoma HepG2 cells. The most likely mechanism underlying the zebularine-induced growth arrest involves an initial induction of p44/42 phosphorylation and an increase in p21^{WAF/CIP1} expression, which leads to a reduction in G1-related CDKs such as CDK2 protein and p-Rb, and then ultimately arrests the HepG2 cell cycle. Furthermore, zebularine decreased the activity of PKR, and resulted in apoptotic cell death via the downregulation of Bcl-2.

Supporting Information

Table S1 List of CGIs showing a significant change in DNA methylation level upon zebularine-treatment in HepG2 cells.

(XLS)

Author Contributions

Conceived and designed the experiments: K. Nakamura KH AT. Performed the experiments: K. Nakamura KA K. Nakabayashi NK.

Analyzed the data: K. Nakamura K. Nakabayashi KH JY AT. Contributed reagents/materials/analysis tools: JY. Wrote the paper: K. Nakamura K. Nakabayashi AT.

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肝薬物代謝を考慮した Embryonic Stem Cell Test (EST 法) の検討

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Development of Novel Embryonic Stem Cell Test in Consideration of Hepatic Drug Metabolism

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要旨

本研究において、我々は肝臓による薬物代謝産物の発生毒性を検討するため、セルカルチャーインサートを用いてES細胞とヒト肝臓癌由来細胞株 HepG2 細胞あるいはヒト繊維芽細胞株 WI-38 細胞を非接触共培養する試験法 (Hep-EST 法) を構築した。Hep-EST 法によるバルプロ酸 (VPA) の細胞毒性を評価した結果、WI-38 細胞との共培養に比べ HepG2 細胞との共培養において VPA の ES 細胞に対する細胞毒性の増悪がみられた。また、ES 細胞に対する VPA の未分化マーカー発現誘導効果は HepG2 細胞との共培養により抑制され、一方で HepG2 細胞との共培養により中胚葉マーカー発現が上昇した。これらの結果から、HepG2 細胞により代謝された VPA の活性中間代謝産物により ES 細胞への毒性が増し、また VPA の ES 細胞分化に与える影響が変化したと考えられ、Hep-EST 法により薬物肝代謝産物を考慮した発生毒性の評価が可能であることが示された。

緒言

近年、動物実験に代わる様々な代替法の模索が続けられる中で、各種培養細胞の利用が注目されている。特に胚性幹細胞を含む幹細胞は多分化能を維持したまま未分化状態で無限に増殖させることが可能であり、再生医療への応用に加えて、創薬への応用も期待されている。

Spielmannらによって開発された Embryonic Stem Cell Test (EST 法) は、マウスの ES 細胞の心筋細胞分化障害を指標とした *in vitro* 発生毒性試験法である²⁾。マウス ES 細胞は高栄養条件下で培養すると特別な誘導を行わなくても自然に心筋細胞へ分化し、その自律的収縮運動によって心筋細胞への分化を容易に検知できる。EST 法は、このようなマウス ES 細胞の特性を利用し、培養液に薬物を添加することにより、細胞生存率および心筋細胞への分化に対する薬物の影響を調べ、薬物の発生毒性を評価する方法である。また EST 法では、未熟な細胞である ES 細胞を動物実験における「胎児」、分化した細胞 (繊維芽細胞) を動物実験における「母動物」と仮定し、両細胞の生存率に対する薬物の影響を比較することにより、母体と胎児の感受性の差を検討することが可能である²⁾。このような EST 法は従来の動物実験を中心とする方法と比較すると、短時間で原因物質の特定やその解析が容易であり、すでにヨーロッパ各国の研究機関でのバリ

デーションテストが終了し、ヒトの発生毒性データとの高い相関性や再現性についても認められている^{3,4)}。しかし、従来の心筋細胞への分化を指標とした EST 法では心筋細胞以外の細胞系譜への分化に対する薬物の影響を評価できず、広範な催奇形性を含む薬物の毒性評価は難しいと考えられる。

これまでに我々は、神経管欠損等の神経系に対する催奇形性が報告されている抗けいれん剤であるバルプロ酸、カルバマゼピンの細胞分化過程に及ぼす薬剤の影響について、従来の EST 法に加え組織特異的分化マーカー発現の検討を行うことにより、ES 細胞の分化への影響をより詳細に解析してきた^{5,6)}。さらに我々は EST 法を発展させ、EST 法と ES 細胞の神経細胞分化誘導法である SDIA (Stromal cell-Derived Inducing Activity) 法を組み合わせ、神経系細胞分化に対する薬物の影響を検討可能な系を確立してきた^{7,8)}。

一方、胎児は子宮の中で胎盤を介して母体と密接に関わっており、個体発生は生理学的変動等の母体内の環境変化に影響されるため、薬物の発生毒性を単純な *in vitro* 系で評価するには限界がある。薬物の大部分が肝臓で代謝されることから、薬物の母体への暴露 (摂取) 後の肝臓による代謝産物の影響を考慮した発生毒性試験法が重要であると考えられる。しかし、従来の EST 法では試験薬物を培養液に直接添加するため、薬物の肝代謝産物の発生毒性を評価することはできなかった⁹⁾。この点を改良するため、今回我々は従来の EST 法を改良し、セルカルチャーインサートを用いて ES 細胞とヒト肝臓癌由来細胞株 HepG2 細胞あるいはヒト繊維芽細胞株 WI-38 細胞を非接触共培養する試験法 (Hep-EST 法) を構築し、肝臓による薬物代謝産物を考慮した発生毒性試験法の確立を目的に検討した。

方法

1) 細胞毒性試験

薬物代謝を担うヒト肝細胞として HepG2 細胞、対照としてヒト繊維芽細胞 WI-38 細胞をミリセル 96 セルカルチャーインサートプレート (Millipore) のフィルタートレイへ 9×10^3 個/ウェル播種し、10% 非動化ウシ胎児血清、50 U/ml penicillin、50 μ g/ml streptomycin を含有する Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM) にて、37°C、5% CO₂ の条件下で培養した。翌日、マウス ES 細胞をミリセル 96 セルカルチャーインサートプレートのレシーバートレイへ 1.25×10^3 個/ウェル播種

表1 本研究で用いた遺伝子特異的プライマー配列

Gene symbol (別名)	Official Full Name (NCBI Reference Sequence)	
	Forward (5' →3')	Reverse (5' →3')
Pou5f1 (Oct3/4)	POU domain, class 5, transcription factor 1 (NM_013633.3)	
	GGTGGAGGAAGCCGACAAC.	TTCGGGCACTTCAGAAACATG
Sox2	SRY-box containing gene 2 (NM_011443.3)	
	AGATGCACAACCTCGGAGATCAG	CCGCGGCCGGTATTATAAT
Gata6	GATA binding protein 6 (NM_010258.3)	
	CGGTCATTACCTGTGCAATG	GCATTTCTACGCCATAAGGTA
Alb	albumin (NM_009654.3)	
	GGAAGTGCACAAGTACATGTGTGA	CAGCAATGGCAGGCAGATC
Bmp4	bone morphogenetic protein 4 (NM_007554.2)	
	CTGCCGTCGCCATTCACTAT	TGGCATGGTTGGTTGAGTTG
Nppa (ANF)	natriuretic peptide type A (NM_008725.2)	
	CGGTGTCCAACACAGATCTG	TCTCTCAGAGGTGGGTTGAC
Syp (Syn)	synaptophysin (NM_009305.2)	
	GTGGAGTGTGCCAACAAGAC	ATTCAGCCGAGGAGGAGTAG
Olig2	oligodendrocyte transcription factor 2 (NM_016967.2)	
	TGCGCCTGAAGATCAACAG	CATCTCCTCCAGCGAGTTG
Gapdh	glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (NM_008084.2)	
	TGCACCACCAACTGCTTAG	GGATGCAGGGATGATGTTTC

し、HepG2細胞あるいはWI-38細胞とともに、10% 非動化ウシ胎児血清、0.1 mM 2-mercaptoethanol、1% Non-Essential Amino Acid、 10^3 U/ml Leukemia Inhibitory Factor、50 U/ml penicillin、50 μ g/ml streptomycinを含有するDMEM (EST試験培地)にて、37°C、5% CO₂の条件下で培養した。培地にはVPAを添加し、3日目、5日目にそれぞれ同濃度の薬物添加培地で培地交換を行い、7日目にCellTiter-Glo assay (Promega)にてES細胞の細胞数を定量し、薬剤非添加条件の値を100%としたときの細胞生存率を求めた。同様に成熟細胞のモデルとしてNIH-3T3細胞とHepG2細胞あるいはWI-38細胞との共培養をVPAを添加した10% 非動化ウシ胎児血清、50 U/ml penicillin、50 μ g/ml streptomycinを含有するDMEMにて行い、7日目のNIH-3T3細胞の細胞生存率を求めた。

2) 発生毒性試験

HepG2細胞ならびにWI-38細胞をミリセル96セルカルチャーインサートプレートのフィルタートレイへ 9×10^3 個/ウェル播種し、10% 非動化ウシ胎児血清、50 U/ml penicillin、50 μ g/ml streptomycinを含有するDMEMにて、37°C、5% CO₂の条件下で培養した。翌日、マウスES細胞をEZ-BindShut II (IWAKI)へ750個/ウェル播種し、HepG2細胞ならびにWI-38細胞を播種したミリセル96セルカルチャーインサートプレートのフィルタートレイと組み合わせて、EST試験培地にて、37°C、5% CO₂の条件下で培養した。培地に

VPAを添加し、3日目に同濃度の薬物添加培地で培地交換を行った。ES細胞培養開始4日後にHepG2細胞ならびにWI-38細胞をミリセル24セルカルチャーインサートプレートのフィルタートレイへ 4.8×10^4 個/ウェル播種しておき、5日目にEZ-BindShut IIでの培養により形成されたES細胞の胚様体をミリセル24セルカルチャーインサートプレートのレシーバートレイへ1ウェルあたり1個移し、HepG2細胞ならびにWI-38細胞を播種しておいたミリセル24セルカルチャーインサートプレートのフィルタートレイとともに、EST試験培地にて、37°C、5% CO₂の条件下で10日目まで培養した後ES細胞を回収した。

3) Real Time-PCR解析

回収したES細胞からtotal RNAを抽出し、逆転写反応によりcDNAを合成した。増幅にはExTaqポリメラーゼ (タカラバイオ)を使用した。表1にあげるプライマーを用いて、SYBR Premix Ex Taq I (タカラバイオ)によりReal Time-PCRを行い、Thermal Cycler Dice Real Time PCR System (タカラバイオ)を用いて発現量を定量した。各遺伝子発現量はglyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH)発現量にて補正し、VPA非添加時の発現量を1として、相対量として示した。

4) 統計

値は全て、平均値 \pm 標準誤差 (SEM)で示した。統計学

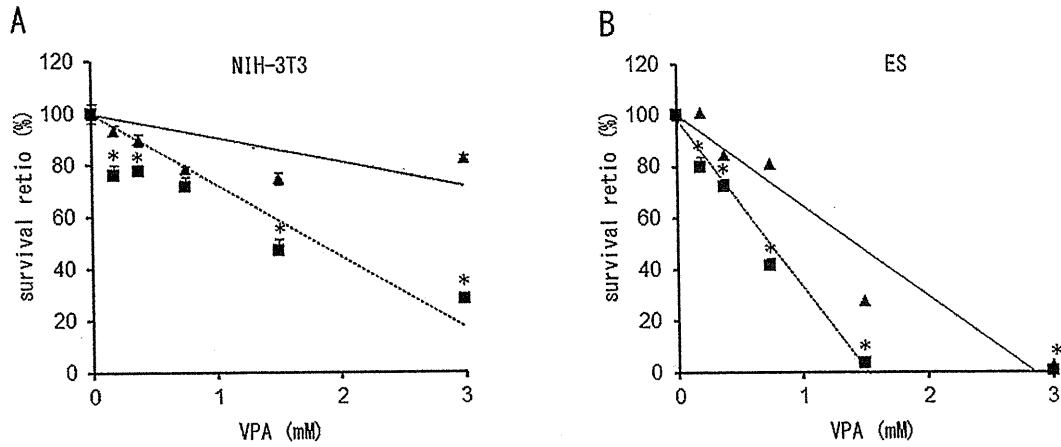


図1 Hep-EST法によるAVPの細胞毒性評価

(A) NIH-3T3細胞に対するAVPの細胞毒性。HepG2との共培養によって、NIH-3T3に対するVPAの細胞毒性は増強された。

(B) ES細胞に対するAVPの細胞毒性。HepG2との共培養によって、ES細胞に対するVPAの細胞毒性は増強された。

■ ; HepG2細胞との共培養, ▲ ; WI-38細胞との共培養。**p* < 0.05 vs. WI-38。

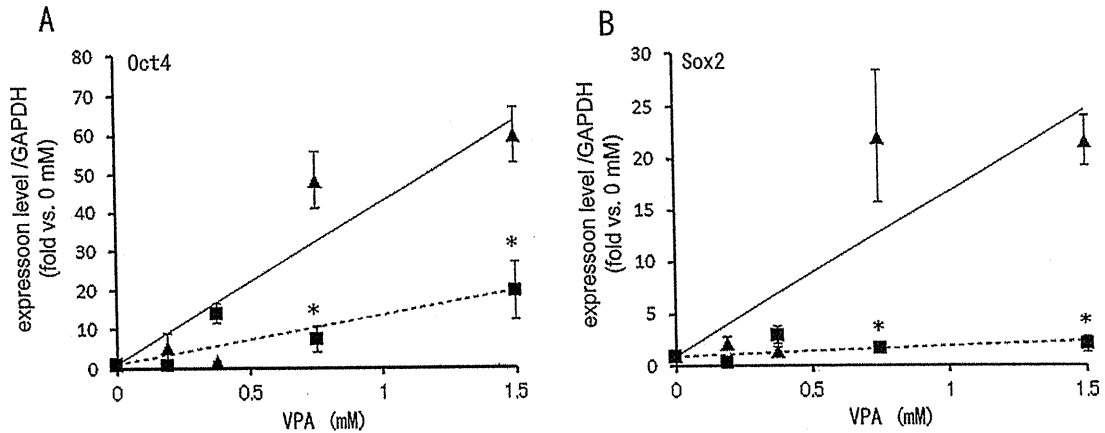


図2 Hep-EST法による未分化マーカー遺伝子発現評価

(A) Hep-EST法によるOct4発現評価。WI-38細胞との共培養時にはVPA濃度依存的にOct4発現が上昇した。一方、HepG2

細胞との共培養時にはVPAのOct4発現誘導効果が抑制された。(B) Hep-EST法によるSox2発現評価。WI-38細胞との共

培養時にはVPA濃度依存的にSox2発現が上昇した。一方、HepG2細胞との共培養時にはVPAのSox2発現誘導効果が抑制

された。■ ; HepG2細胞との共培養, ▲ ; WI-38細胞との共培養。**p* < 0.05 vs. WI-38。

的検定として、2群間の比較にStudent's t-testを用いた。いずれの場合も、*p*値が0.05未満の場合を有意とした。

結果

1. Hep-EST法によるVPAの細胞毒性試験

VPAの肝代謝産物による細胞毒性を検討するため、HepG2細胞あるいはWI-38細胞との共培養によるVPA添加時のES細胞およびNIH-3T3細胞の細胞生存率を求めた。NIH-3T3細胞において、HepG2細胞との共培養ではWI-38細胞との共培養に比べVPAの細胞毒性が増悪した(図1A)。ES細胞においても、VPA添加により、HepG2細胞との共培養ではWI-38細胞との共培養に比べ細胞毒性が増悪した(図1B)。

2. Hep-EST法によるVPAのES細胞分化試験

VPAの肝代謝産物によるES細胞分化に対する影響を評価するため、VPA添加によるES細胞での種々の組織特異的分化マーカー発現をReal-time PCRにて定量した。

WI-38細胞との共培養時には、未分化マーカーであるOct3/4およびSox2発現は、VPA濃度依存的に発現が上昇した。一方、HepG2細胞との共培養時にはWI-38細胞との共培養時に比べVPAの未分化マーカー発現上昇が抑制された(図2)。

外胚葉マーカーであるSynaptophysin (Syn; 後期神経特異的マーカー) およびOlig2 (オリゴデンドロサイトマーカー) 発現は、WI-38細胞との共培養とHepG2細胞との共培養との

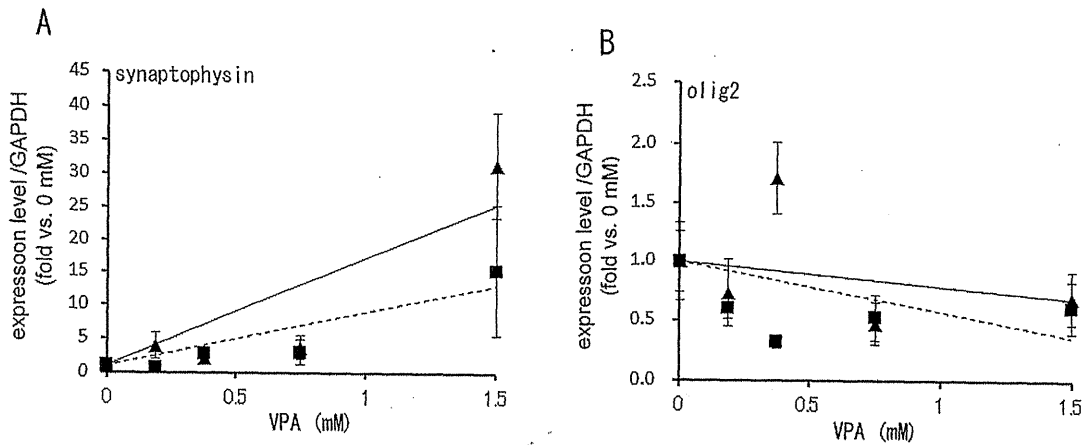


図3 Hep-EST法による外胚葉マーカー遺伝子発現評価

(A) Hep-EST法によるSyn発現評価。WI-38細胞との共培養とHepG2細胞との共培養との間で有意な発現差は認められなかった。(B) Hep-EST法によるOlig2発現評価。WI-38細胞との共培養とHepG2細胞との共培養との間で有意な発現差は認められなかった。■；HepG2細胞との共培養，▲；WI-38細胞との共培養。

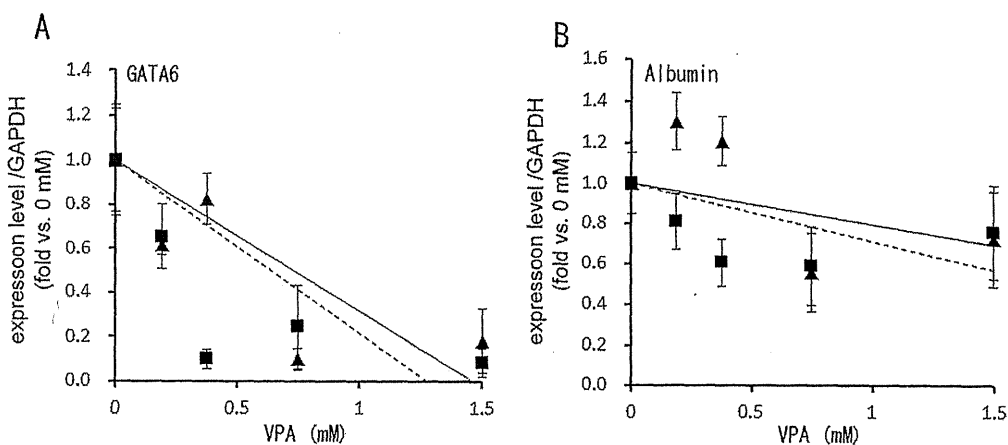


図4 Hep-EST法による内胚葉マーカー遺伝子発現評価

(A) Hep-EST法によるGATA6発現評価。WI-38細胞との共培養とHepG2細胞との共培養との間で有意な発現差は認められなかった。(B) Hep-EST法によるalbumin発現評価。WI-38細胞との共培養とHepG2細胞との共培養との間で有意な発現差は認められなかった。■；HepG2細胞との共培養，▲；WI-38細胞との共培養。

間で有意な発現差は認められなかった(図3)。同様に、内胚葉マーカーであるGATA6およびAlbumin(Alb)発現は、WI-38細胞との共培養とHepG2細胞との共培養との間で有意な発現差は認められなかった(図4)。

一方、中胚葉マーカーであるBMP-4およびANF発現は、VPA添加時にWI-38細胞との共培養に比べHepG2細胞との共培養により有意な発現の上昇が見られた(図5)。

考察

本研究において、我々は薬物の肝代謝産物の影響を考慮した*in vitro*における発生毒性試験法開発の試みとして、VPAをモデル薬物として用いHep-EST法の構築を行った。Hep-

EST法による検討から、肝細胞であるHepG2細胞との共培養系では繊維芽細胞であるWI-38細胞との共培養系に比べVPAのES細胞に対する細胞毒性が増悪することが示された。

VPAは肝毒性を示すことが知られている。VPAの肝代謝産物は複数想定されているが、この中で ω -酸化経路の不飽和代謝産物である2-n-propyl-4-pentenoic acid(4-ene-VPA)由来の活性中間代謝産物がミトコンドリア内のグルタチオンプールを枯渇させ、あるいはcoenzyme A(CoA)と結合して β 酸化酵素を阻害する¹⁰⁾ことにより、肝毒性を示すと考えられている。4-ene-VPA産生にはCYP2C9が関与すると考えられており¹¹⁾、HepG2細胞におけるAVP代謝動態の報告はないものの、HepG2細胞においてもCYP2C9の発現が報

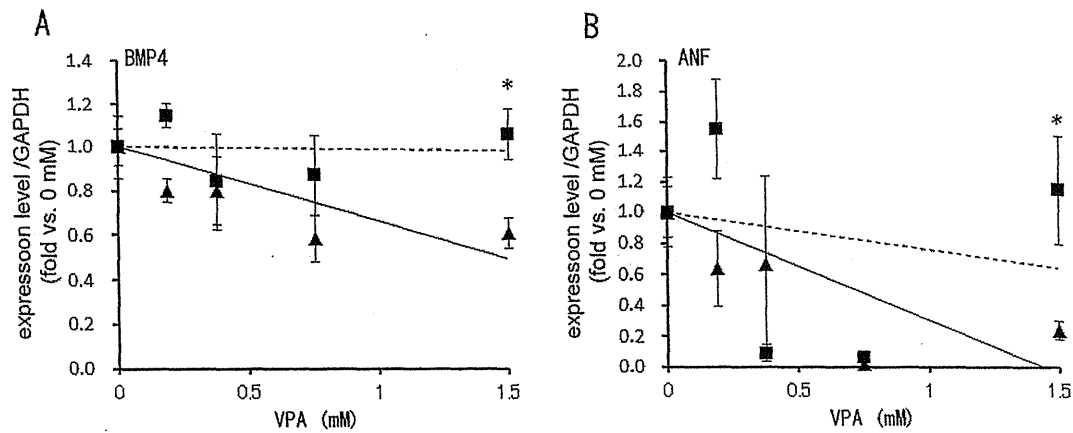


図5 Hep-EST法による中胚葉マーカー遺伝子発現評価

(A) Hep-EST法によるBMP4発現評価。WI-38細胞との共培養時にはVPA濃度依存的にBMP4発現が低下した。一方、HepG2細胞との共培養時にはBMP4発現低下は抑制された。(B) Hep-EST法によるANF発現評価。WI-38細胞との共培養時にはVPA濃度依存的にANF発現が低下した。一方、HepG2細胞との共培養時にはANF発現低下は抑制された。■；HepG2細胞との共培養，▲；WI-38細胞との共培養。* $p < 0.05$ vs. WI-38。

告されていることから¹²⁾、本研究においてHepG2細胞との共培養でES細胞およびNIH-3T3細胞に対するVPAの細胞毒性が増悪した理由として、HepG2細胞によりVPAが代謝され、これにより生じた4-ene-VPAをはじめとするVPAの活性中間代謝産物により細胞毒性が増悪した可能性が考えられる。

これまでの我々の検討からVPAはES細胞の未分化マーカー発現を亢進させることが明らかになっている⁹⁾。本研究においても、WI-38細胞との共培養ではVPA添加によりOct3/4やSox2といった未分化マーカー発現の亢進が観察された。一方、HepG2細胞との共培養では、ES細胞の未分化マーカー発現は有意に抑制された。この結果は、肝代謝を受けたことにより、VPAのES細胞に対する未分化性の増強作用が減弱したことを示唆している。同時に、外胚葉マーカー発現および内胚葉マーカー発現はWI-38細胞およびHepG2細胞との共培養間で有意な変化はなかったが、HepG2細胞との共培養により中胚葉マーカー発現は亢進した。これらの結果から、VPAの肝代謝産物はVPAとくらべES細胞の中胚葉分化を維持させる作用を持つことが示唆される。

上述のように、WI-38細胞との共培養系とHepG2細胞との共培養系において、VPAのES細胞へ与える影響が変化した。これらの結果は、VPAの肝代謝産物のES細胞に与える影響がVPAとは異なることを示唆するものと考えられる。したがって、今回我々が確立したHep-EST法は、薬物の肝代謝を考慮した発生毒性を検討するための有用な試験系となると考えられる。

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