

Glycine inhibits angiogenic signaling in human hepatocellular carcinoma cells

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Abstract Hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) is a highly vascularized tumor with limited susceptibility to chemotherapy. Modern targeted therapies are aimed at specific properties of this neoplasm. Glycine is a simple non-essential amino acid with potential antiangiogenic effects. In this study, the amino acid's effect on angiogenic signaling in an in vitro model of HCC was evaluated. HepG2 and Huh7 cells were treated with glycine-free DMEM supplemented with 0, 0.01, 0.1, 1.0, 2.0, 5.0 and 10 mM glycine. The direct effects of glycine on the viability of HCC cells were monitored using MTT assay. To detect angiogenic signaling, mRNA and protein levels of vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF-A) were measured using RT-PCR and Western Blot assays. To determine whether or not glycine receptors (GlyR) played a significant role, the specific antagonist, strychnine, was used as a direct inhibitor. Western Blotting was performed to show the presence of GlyR. While there was no direct pro- or anti-proliferative effect of either glycine or strychnine in both cell lines, glycine was shown to significantly decrease

VEGF-A expression on mRNA and protein level up to 63 % in both cell lines. This effect was blunted by the presence of strychnine. GlyR was also identified in both cell lines. Glycine decreases GlyR-dependent, VEGF-A-mediated, angiogenic signaling in human HCC and thus might be a promising additive to chemotherapy treatment strategies for highly vascularized tumors.

Keywords Glycine · Hepatocellular carcinoma · Angiogenesis

Introduction

Hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) is the most common histological type of primary liver cancer and the third leading cause for cancer-related deaths worldwide (El-Serag and Rudolph 2007). For most patients, no curative treatment option is available. In addition to surgical therapies and interventional strategies with curative palliative treatment concepts, multimodal approaches that extend survival exist (Sauer et al. 2005; Mazzaferro et al. 2011; Hoffmann and Schmidt 2009; Lubienski et al. 2004; de Lope et al. 2012; Hoffmann et al. 2008). Conventional chemotherapy only marginally affects survival in HCC patients, thus therapies targeting specific molecular pathways have been introduced to make up for the inadequacies of existing therapies (Wei et al. 2013; Cao et al. 2012). Since HCCs are highly vascularized, angiogenesis is considered to be one of the main targets for effective HCC therapy (Bishayee and Darvesh 2012). Current chemotherapeutic agents for HCC include the antiangiogenic multikinase inhibitors as well as mTOR inhibitors (Di Marco et al. 2013; Kelley and Venook 2013; Buitrago-Molina and Vogel 2012; Shiah et al. 2013; Zhou et al.

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2013; Menon et al. 2013; Schnitzbauer et al. 2010). Taken together, modern chemotherapy concepts can extend median survival in the palliative situation of HCC patients for up to 10.7 months (Rimassa and Santoro 2009).

Angiogenesis is also considered to be one of the hallmarks of cancer progression; when tumor growth exceeds a certain size, diffusion is no longer sufficient and the tumor cells express Hypoxia-inducible factor 1 α (HIF-1 α), which leads to angiogenesis via an upregulation of vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF-A) (Hanahan and Weinberg 2000; Shweiki et al. 1992). Serum levels of VEGF-A are related to vascular invasion of HCC and linked to the central role of VEGF in signaling HCC progression (Mukozu et al. 2013).

Glycine, a non-essential amino acid, is non-toxic in dosages that have been used in clinical trials (Evins et al. 2000; Luntz et al. 2005). In previous studies, the inhibition of tumor growth by 5 % using dietary glycine was reported in rodent models of induced liver tumors in rats and subcutaneous melanoma models in mice (Rose et al. 1999a, b). Dietary glycine treatment has resulted in decreased breast adenocarcinoma growth in vivo (Amin et al. 2003). This has been linked to antiangiogenic effects; the proliferation of endothelial cells was decreased after glycine in vitro and tumors in glycine-fed animals showed significantly lower microvessel density (Amin et al. 2003; Rose et al. 1999b). In VEGF-stimulated endothelial cells, an inhibitory effect of glycine on the proliferation and migration of these cells was identified and linked to a function of the glycine receptor (GlyR), which is localized in the endothelial cell membrane (Yamashina et al. 2001, 2007). While glycine inhibits endothelial cell proliferation, there also seems to be a protective anti-apoptotic effect on endothelial cells. This is supported by the fact that apoptosis caused by VEGF depletion can be prevented by glycine (Zhang et al. 2000).

The anti-inflammatory and hepatoprotective effects of glycine have been demonstrated in experimental models of different types of liver injury (Bruns et al. 2011; Mikaluskas et al. 2011; Thurman et al. 1998; Zhong et al. 2003). In this context, Kupffer cells play a major role and are inhibited via the activation of the cells' GlyR (Wheeler et al. 1999). Direct cytoprotective effects on hepatocytes have also been reported (Bhattacharyya et al. 2012). There is indirect evidence for the presence of a GlyR in hepatocytes; glycine inhibits prostaglandin E₂-mediated Ca²⁺ increase by boosting intracellular chloride levels (Qu et al. 2002). This effect seems to be particular to glycine and can be blunted by the presence of the GlyR antagonist, strychnine (Qu et al. 2002).

VEGF-A is a secreted homodimeric key pro-angiogenic protein with an approximate molecular weight of 45 kDa (Leung et al. 1989). At least six different splice variants of

the protein are known to exist (Robinson and Stringer 2001). In endothelial cells, VEGF-A binds to the tyrosine-kinase receptors, VEGFR-1 and VEGFR-2 (Robinson and Stringer 2001; Neufeld et al. 1999). In highly vascularized malignancies, VEGF-A plays a pivotal role in vascularization, growth, and progression of HCC; monoclonal anti-VEGF antibodies can inhibit angiogenesis and have been shown to ultimately retard tumor growth in nude mice models (Smith et al. 2008; Kim et al. 1993). The endothelial response to VEGF-A leads to increased proliferation and migration of endothelial cells, vessel formation, and enhanced vascular permeability (Zhang et al. 2012). There is a strong positive correlation between VEGF-A expression and vascularization of HCC (Brodsky et al. 2007). VEGF-A levels in tumor tissue of HCC are usually elevated when compared to those in surrounding noncancerous liver tissues or cirrhotic livers without HCC (Brodsky et al. 2007; Yamaguchi et al. 1998; Iavarone et al. 2007).

The available treatment options for HCC are promising but far from being optimal (Camma et al. 2013; Rimassa and Santoro 2009). Moreover, the high costs of the present palliative treatment options are, especially in low income countries, not available to all persons in need (Kew 2012). Glycine, on the other hand, is inexpensive and easily available, thus making it worthwhile to investigate the amino acid's value in the treatment of HCC. The aim of this study was to evaluate any possible GlyR-dependent, VEGF-A-mediated, antiangiogenic effects on HCC cells in vitro.

Materials and methods

Cell culture

HepG2 and Huh7 cells were cultured in glycine-free DMEM with stable glutamine (Applichem, Darmstadt, Germany), supplemented with 10 % FBS (Biochrom AG, Berlin, Germany) and penicillin 100 U/ml/streptomycin 100 μ g/ml (Biochrom AG, Berlin, Germany) at 37 °C in 5 % CO₂ humidified atmosphere. Cells were grown to 90 % confluence, the culture media was changed, and glycine (Sigma Aldrich, Saint Louis, USA) was added to achieve final concentrations of 0 (controls), 0.01, 0.1, 1, 2, 5 and 10 mM of the amino acid. In treatment experiments, cells were either cultured under normoxic or hypoxic conditions to stimulate HIF-1 α -dependent, VEGF-A expression. In hypoxia experiments, cells were cultured using a modular incubator chamber (Billups-Rothenberg, Del Mar, USA) filled with 1 % O₂, 5 % CO₂, and 94 % N₂ (Rießner gase GmbH, Lichtenfels, Germany). In additional controls, the GlyR antagonist, strychnine (50 and 150 μ M), was combined with 10 mM glycine.

Cell viability assay

After 48 h of cell culture incubation with and without glycine, 3-(4,5-dimethylthiazole-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide (MTT, Carl Roth, Karlsruhe, Germany) was dissolved in PBS (PAA Laboratories GmbH, Pasching, Austria), added to the culture, and incubated for an additional 4 h at 37 °C. The supernatant was discarded and the plates were dried for 30 min at 37 °C. The precipitated formazan crystals were dissolved using 2-propanol (VWR, Darmstadt, Germany) and absorbance at 570 nm wavelength was measured using a spectrophotometer (Anthos Microsysteme, Krefeld, Germany).

Real-time quantitative polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR)

After 24 h of cell culture incubation, mRNA was isolated using the RNeasy Mini Kit (Qiagen GmbH, Hilden, Germany) and transcribed into cDNA using the First Strand cDNA Synthesis Kit (Roche Diagnostics GmbH, Mannheim, Germany) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Custom-made primers for VEGF-A [5'-CTTGCTT GCTGCTCTACC-3' (forward) and 5'-CACACAGGATGG CTTGAAG-3' (reverse)] were used with GAPDH [5'-AGG GCTGCTTTTA ACTCTGGT-3' (forward) and 5'-CCC CACTTGATTTTGGAGGGA-3' (reverse)] as the endogenous control. Quantitative real-time PCR was performed using a StepOne™ Real-Time PCR System (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, USA) with Power SYBR Green PCR Master Mix (Applied Biosystems, Warrington, UK) in triplicate and the relative gene quantification of the three independent experiments was analyzed using the $\Delta\Delta\text{CT}$ method using StepOne™ Software 2.1 (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, USA).

Western Blotting

After 24 h of cell culture incubation, cell lysates were prepared in RIPA buffer (Sigma Aldrich, Saint Louis, USA) using a proteinase inhibitor cocktail (Roche Diagnostics GmbH, Mannheim, Germany). NuPAGE 4–12 % Bis–Tris Gel (Novex, Carlsbad, USA) electrophoresis of 20 µg of each protein sample was performed using XCell SureLock Mini-Cell module (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, USA) and transferred to nitrocellulose membranes (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Munich, Germany) using XCell IITM Blot Module (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, USA). Membranes were blocked in PBS +0.1 % Tween with 5 % BSA (Serva Electrophoresis, Heidelberg, Germany) and incubated with primary antibodies at 4 °C for 12 h, followed by incubation with secondary antibodies for 1 h at room temperature. Films were developed using chemiluminescent substrate

(Thermo Scientific, Rockford, USA) in a FUSION SL image acquisition system (Vilber Lourmat, Eberdharzell, Germany). Restore™ Western blot stripping buffer (Thermo Scientific, Rockford, USA) was used where appropriate. Antibodies against VEGF-A, Glycine receptors $\alpha 1 + \alpha 2$ subunits (Abcam, Cambridge, UK; ab46154 and ab23809), and β -actin (Sigma Aldrich, Saint Louis, USA; A1978) were used as primary antibodies and goat anti-rabbit and goat anti-mouse (sc-2004 and sc-2005; Santa Cruz Biotechnology Inc., Santa Cruz, USA) horse-radish peroxidase-conjugated antibodies were used as secondary antibodies. Densitometric quantification was performed using ImageJ 14.3u (NIH, Bethesda, USA).

Statistics

For the analysis of parametric data, analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed and for the analysis of non-parametric data, Kruskal–Wallis test followed by Dunn's post hoc test has been used where appropriate. A value of $p < 0.05$ was considered significant. All data are expressed as mean \pm SD.

Results

Cell viability

The viability of cells was unchanged after an observation period of 48 h in all groups (data not shown).

RT-PCR

After 24 h of cell culture incubation, mRNA was isolated and transcribed to cDNA, before RT-PCR was performed to test for VEGF-A expression. In HepG2 cells, treatment with 1 and 10 mM of glycine significantly downregulated VEGF-A mRNA expression to 60 ± 8 and 58 ± 6 %, respectively (Fig. 1a), while in Huh7 cells, 10 mM of glycine significantly decreased VEGF-A mRNA expression to 65 ± 9 % (Fig. 1b) compared to the corresponding controls without glycine. No significant difference was found between 1 and 10 mM in HeG2 cells.

Western Blotting

In HepG2 and Huh7 cells, VEGF-A expression was decreased on protein level after glycine treatment. Under normoxic conditions, the administration of 1 and 10 mM of glycine significantly decreased the relative density of VEGF-A to 64 ± 10 and 63 ± 7 %, respectively (Fig. 2a). In Huh7 cells, 10 mM glycine significantly diminished VEGF-A levels to 69 ± 12 % (Fig. 2b) in comparison to

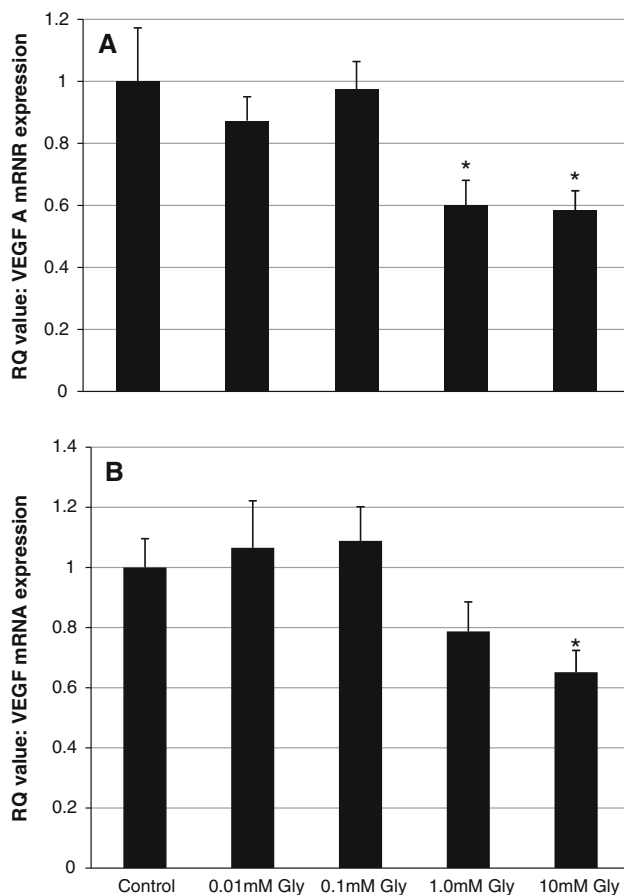


Fig. 1 VEGF-A expression (mRNA). Cells were treated using 0 (controls), 0.01, 0.1, 1.0, and 10.0 mM glycine. **a** HepG2 cells; **b** Huh7 cells. * $p < 0.05$; Gly glycine

the corresponding normoxic controls without glycine. The same effect was also observed under hypoxic conditions. The relative density of VEGF-A was notably reduced to 77 ± 13 and 74 ± 6 % when the cell cultures contained 1 and 10 mM of glycine, respectively (Fig. 3a) in comparison to the corresponding hypoxic controls without glycine. The most notable decline was observed in the 10 mM glycine experiment (Fig. 3b). This effect was completely blunted in both cell lines by the presence of 50 and 150 μ M of the GlyR-specific inhibitor, strychnine (Fig. 3a, b). Evidence indicating the presence of GlyR was observed in whole cell lysates of both cell lines. Proteins of 48 kDa target molecular weight, representing the $\alpha 1$ and $\alpha 2$ subunits of the receptor, were expressed in both cell lines.

Discussion

Inhibition of angiogenesis is a promising strategy in modern chemotherapy especially in the case of highly vascularized tumors. This pathway is not only pivotal for neoplasms, but also involved in various stages of

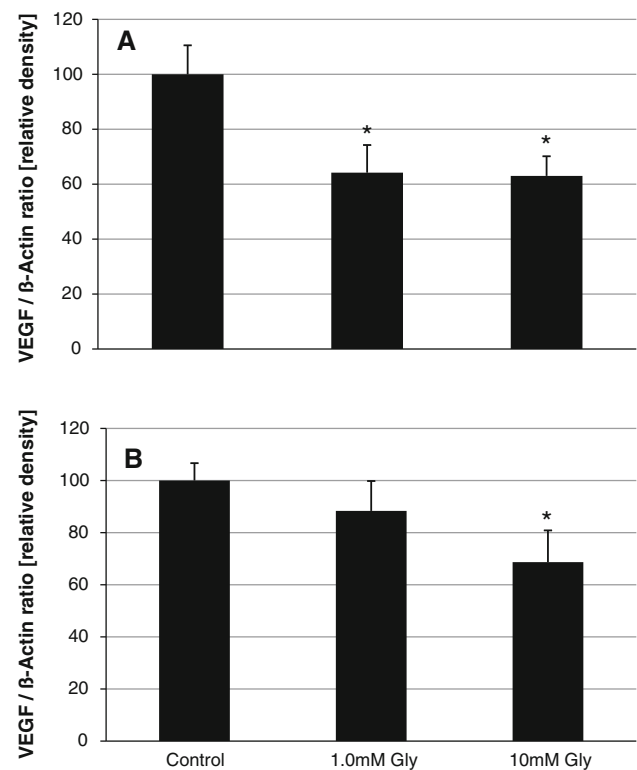


Fig. 2 VEGF-A expression (protein). Cells were treated using 0 (controls), 1.0, and 10.0 mM glycine. **a** HepG2 cells; **b** Huh7 cells. * $p < 0.05$; Gly glycine

regeneration, embryology, and organ development (Dulmovits and Herman 2012). Angiogenesis regulation is highly redundant; when one pathway is downregulated, others become upregulated, leading to a “tumor escape” phenomenon and ultimately, to the failure of most antiangiogenic therapies (Bottsford-Miller et al. 2012).

Angiogenesis and vascularization are considered to belong to the essential mechanistic strategies of tumor progression and modern antiangiogenic substances such as the monoclonal VEGF antibody, Bevacizumab, can extend patient survival (Hanahan and Weinberg 2000; Giantonio et al. 2007; Hurwitz et al. 2004). In HCC, conventional chemotherapy strategies do not effectively extend overall survival (Cao et al. 2012; Wei et al. 2013). The introduction of Sorafenib, a multikinase inhibitor with antiangiogenic and antiproliferative properties, has been shown to extend median survival of patients with advanced HCC from 7.9 to 10.7 months (Rimassa and Santoro 2009).

Glycine is a simple, non-essential amino acid with normal blood levels between 200 and 400 μ mol/L and can be easily administered orally or intravenously (Wheeler et al. 1999; Zhong et al. 2003; Luntz et al. 2005; Collentine 1948). The concentration of glycine used in the present study is significantly higher than what can normally be found in humans and achieved in clinical studies. The normal concentration of

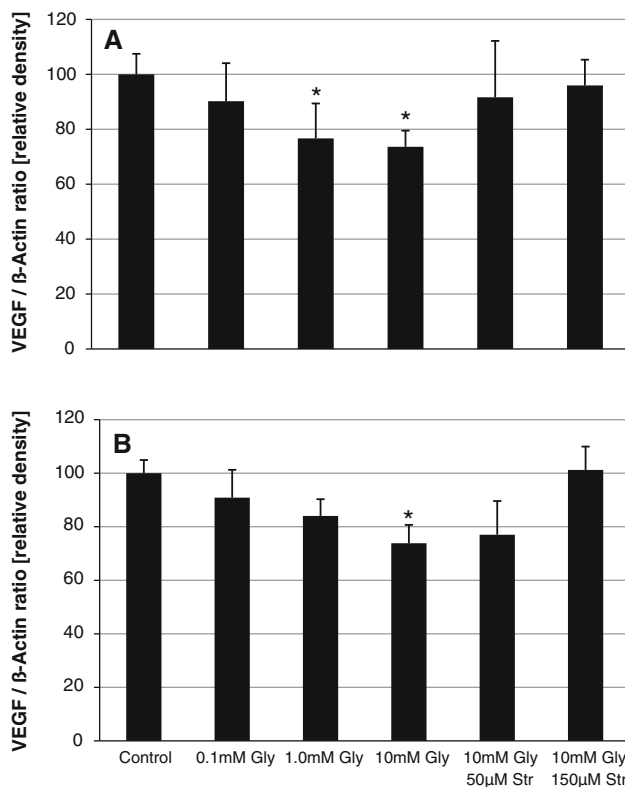


Fig. 3 VEGF-A expression (protein). Cells were treated under hypoxic conditions using 0 (controls), 1.0, and 10.0 mM glycine or 50 and 150 μ M strychnine and 10 mM glycine (additional controls). **a** HepG2 cells; **b** Huh7 cells. * $p < 0.05$; Gly glycine, Str strychnine

glycine in blood plasma is 180–230 μ M (Neeman et al. 2005). The extrapolation of concentrations that are effective in vitro to in vivo models is a non-trivial problem (Gulden and Seibert 2003; Halle 2003), but there is some data on this issue concerning glycine. In in vitro experiments using glycine, a media concentration of 10 mM is not uncommon and has been used to inhibit endothelial cell growth, while in in vivo models a standardized diet containing 5 % glycine is usually effective (Bruns et al. 2011; Ikejima et al. 1996; Mikalauskas et al. 2011; Rose et al. 1999b). The glycine plasma levels that can be achieved in rat models using a 5 % glycine diet usually reach approximately 1 mM (Ikejima et al. 1996). In clinical trials, oral daily dosages of up to 90 g have been applied without serious side effects and increased blood levels to more than 900 μ M (Evins et al. 2000; Heresco-Levy et al. 1999).

In animal studies, glycine exhibited antiangiogenic effects against melanoma (Rose et al. 1999b). Moreover, glycine inhibits HCC induction in toxic models in rats (Rose et al. 1999a). In non-malignant liver tissue, glycine can ameliorate chemotherapy-induced liver damage via Kupffer cell-dependent mechanisms (Mikalauskas et al. 2011).

In the current study, glycine decreased VEGF-A in both the mRNA (Fig. 1) and protein levels that were expressed

under normoxic (Fig. 2) and hypoxic (Fig. 3) conditions. There is indirect evidence that this mechanism is mediated via GlyR, since the effect was completely blunted by the presence of the GlyR-specific antagonist, strychnine (Fig. 3). In Western Blotting, the $\alpha 1$ and $\alpha 2$ subunits of GlyR were identified, which are essential for forming the ligand binding site of GlyR. Thus, the downregulation of VEGF-A by glycine can, at least in part, be explained by activation of the GlyR in cell lines. GlyR activation leads to an influx of cellular Cl^- , which subsequently reduces the concentration of cytosolic Ca^{2+} (Rajendra et al. 1997). This important intracellular messenger has been linked to activation of various components of the AP-1 transcriptional complex, which in turn regulates VEGF-A (Thiel et al. 2012; Salnikow et al. 2002). There could be possible effects that are mediated via the *N*-methyl-D-aspartate-receptor (NMDAR), which also has co-binding site for glycine (Johnson and Ascher 1987). There is evidence that NMDAR-dependent signaling plays a significant role in cancer growth (Abdul and Hoosein 2005; Choi et al. 2004; Liu et al. 2007). Recently, Yamaguchi et al. have detected the presence of a functional NMDAR in HepG2 and Huh7 cells (Yamaguchi et al. 2013). In their experiments, inhibition of NMDAR using MK-801, a specific inhibitor of the NMDAR-dependent Ca^{2+} channel not related to the glutamate and glycine binding sites and thus fully blocking NMDAR signaling, induced G1 cell cycle arrest and decreased cell proliferation. In contrast to these findings, no effect of glycine on cell proliferation was present in our study. The NMDARs glycine co-binding site can be activated by its specific agonist D-serin but is strychnine insensitive (Johnson and Ascher 1987; Kleckner and Dingle 1988; Miyakawa et al. 2002). There are little to no D-serin-dependent effects on the GlyR (Curtis et al. 1968; Kuhse et al. 1995; Lynch 2004; Mori et al. 2002). Using strychnine as a specific antagonist for GlyR but not for the NMDAR glycine co-binding site, the glycine-dependent effects on VEGF signaling were completely reverted in our study. In conclusion, the effects observed in the present study can be attributed to the GlyR and seem not to be related to the glycine co-binding site of the NMDAR.

The current study has also demonstrated that the inhibitory effect of glycine on VEGF-A expression was present under hypoxic (Fig. 3) and normoxic (Fig. 2) conditions, thus giving further evidence that GlyR-dependent Ca^{2+} signaling is involved in both HIF-1 α -dependent and -independent VEGF-A regulatory pathways. Interestingly, there is evidence that glycine might also blunt the endothelial response to VEGF-A via endothelial GlyR (Yamashina et al. 2001, 2007).

Besides the outcomes demonstrated here, glycine might have additional beneficial effects in conventional chemotherapy options. Effective chemotherapeutic

regimens for the treatment of colorectal metastases such as FOLFOX and FOLFIRI have known hepatotoxic side effects that can be ameliorated by the administration of glycine in animal experiments (Mikalauskas et al. 2011). While it is tempting to initiate clinical trials and simply add glycine in targeted and standard chemotherapy strategies for highly vascularized tumors like HCC, harmful effects have to be initially ruled out using in vivo tumor models. In fast proliferating human cancer cell lines, glycine has been identified as a potentially pro-tumorigenic agent (Jain et al. 2012). Inhibition of glycine metabolism has been shown to result in decreased proliferation rates of cancer cells (Jain et al. 2012). In the in vitro experiments in this study, neither direct toxic nor proliferative effects of glycine on HepG2 and Huh7 cells were seen.

The experiments carried out in this study can only serve as a model. Chemotherapy affects more than just one cell type, so the entire process of tumor progression and the topic of chemotherapy-induced liver injury are oversimplified in in vitro models. It is possible that glycine might affect HCC progression in multiple ways, since this amino acid can modulate immune responses, and thus, might modify widespread and local response to HCCs (Wheeler et al. 1999; Zhong et al. 2003). It remains to be verified whether or not the antiangiogenic effects of the amino acid identified in our study far outweighs any possible tumor-protective effects in vivo before wide-scale clinical trials can be justified.

Conclusion

Glycine is a potent, indirect inhibitor of in vitro tumor angiogenesis via the modulation of VEGF-A expression under normoxic and hypoxic cell culture conditions. This effect is mediated by GlyR and can, at least in part, be attributed to Ca^{2+} -related modulation of hypoxia-dependent and -independent transcription factors.

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Conflict of interest The authors of this manuscript have no conflicts of interest to disclose.

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