Induction of apoptosis and necrosis by zinc in human thyroid cancer cell lines

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Abstract

Zinc at concentrations of 150 μ M or higher induced necrosis as well as apoptosis in thyroid cancer cell lines. Necrosis was induced by zinc in a dose-dependent manner, whereas apoptosis did not increase at higher concentrations of zinc. The expression of the antiapoptotic protein phosphorylated Bad was markedly increased, whereas the expression of the proapoptotic proteins Bax and Bad decreased following Zn^{2+} exposure. Zn^{2+} induced rapid degradation of I κ B, and an increase in the binding of

nuclear transcription factor- κ B (NF- κ B). These observations indicate that antiapoptotic pathways were activated in thyroid cancer cells following exposure to Zn^{2+} . This may be a self-defence mechanism against apoptosis and may underlie the general resistance of thyroid cancer cells to apoptotic stimuli. Zinc may be a potential cytotoxic agent for the treatment of thyroid cancer.

Journal of Endocrinology (2001) **169**, 417–424

Introduction

Zinc is an essential component of a wide variety of metalloenzymes, transcription factors and other proteins. A deficiency in zinc affects various organs including the nervous system, gonadal tissue, skin and the intestine. Ingestion or administration of excessive amounts of zinc compounds, on the other hand, does not seem to result in any adverse long-term effects (Vallee & Falchuk 1993).

Most physiologically relevant cell death in the body occurs by an active process of self-destruction known as programmed cell death or apoptosis. Apoptosis can be initiated by a number of external signals including glucocorticoids, irradiation, cytokines, or withdrawal of growth factors (Raff 1992, Williams & Smith 1993). Several studies have indicated that zinc can inhibit apoptotic cell death. Apoptosis was observed in the small intestine of animals on a zinc-deficient diet (Elmes 1977), and a zinc-chelator was found to induce apoptosis in human thymocytes and leukemia cells (McCabe *et al.* 1993). The induction of apoptosis by irradiation, anti-cancer drugs or tumor necrosis factor (TNF) was prevented by zinc (Shimizu *et al.* 1990, Telford *et al.* 1991, Zalewski *et al.* 1991, Leccia *et al.* 1993, Shiokawa *et al.* 1994, Tanuma & Shiokawa 1994, Fady *et al.* 1995). In contrast, however, a few reports have suggested that zinc actually induces apoptotic cell death (Telford & Fraker 1995, Manev *et al.* 1997, Paramanantham *et al.* 1997). Furthermore, zinc

induced necrosis in prostate carcinoma cells (Iguchi *et al.* 1998).

In the present study, we show that zinc induced both necrosis and apoptosis in thyroid cancer cells. After exposure to zinc, the expression of antiapoptotic proteins was increased, and that of proapoptotic proteins was decreased. Furthermore, nuclear factor- κ B (NF- κ B) was activated. These changes may be a protective mechanism of thyroid cancer cells against apoptotic cell death, and may underlie the general resistance of thyroid cancer cells to apoptotic stimuli (Arscott *et al.* 1997).

Materials and Methods

Materials

Antibodies to Bcl-2, Bax, Bcl-xL, NF κ B1, RelA, c-Rel, I κ B and actin were obtained from Santa Cruz Biotechnology Inc. (Santa Cruz, CA, USA). Antibodies to Bad and phosphorylated Bad (serine 112/136) were from New England BioLabs Inc. (Beverly, MA, USA). A caspase inhibitor, Ac-DEVD-CHO (Ac-Asp-Glu-Val-Asp-CHO), was purchased from Peptide Institute Inc. (Osaka, Japan). RNase A and proteinase K were from Nippon Gene (Osaka, Japan). T4 polynucleotide kinase and poly(dI-dC)·poly(dI-dC) were from Promega (Madison, WI, USA). Hoechst 33342 and propidium iodide (PI) were purchased from Wako Chemical Co.

Figure 1 ZnCl₂-induced cell death in 8505C and other thyroid cancer cell lines. Means $\pm$ S.D. from three different experiments are shown.

(Osaka, Japan). A TACS annexin V(ANV)-FITC apoptosis detection kit was from Trevigen Inc. (Gaithersburg, MD, USA).

Cell culture and treatment

The rat thyroid cancer cell line, FRTC, derived from FRTL-5, has been described previously (Iitaka *et al.* 1997). Cell lines 8505C (poorly differentiated human papillary thyroid carcinoma), 8305C (undifferentiated human thyroid anaplastic carcinoma) and 3T3-L1 (mouse pre-adipocytes) were obtained from the Japanese Cancer Research Resources Bank (Tokyo, Japan). FRO (human anaplastic thyroid carcinoma) (Namba *et al.* 1995) and MO7-E (human megakaryoblastic leukemia cells) (Avanzi *et al.* 1990) were obtained from Drs Namba (Nagasaki University, Japan) and Murohashi (Saitama Medical School, Japan) respectively. Human hepatocellular carcinoma cell line HepG2 (American Type Culture Collection, ATCC HB 8065) was purchased from Dainippon Pharmaceuticals (Osaka, Japan). Thyroid cells were cultured in Ham F12 medium supplemented with 10% fetal calf serum (FCS). MC3T3-E1 (mouse osteoblastic cell line, Iitaka *et al.* 1994), 3T3-L1, and HepG2 cells were cultured in α -MEM supplemented with 10% FCS. MO7-E cells were cultured in RPMI 1640 supplemented with 10% FCS and GM-CSF. Cells were incubated in 24-well microtiter plates (Nunc, Roskilde, Denmark) at a concentration of 1×10^4 cells per well, and exposed to 10–500 μ M ZnCl₂, FeSO₄, MnCl₂, or CuSO₄ for 24 h at 37 °C. In some experiments, cells were pretreated with 100 μ M Ac-DEVD-CHO for 1 h before adding ZnCl₂. Live epithelial cells were counted by the crystal violet method (Iitaka *et al.* 1994), and MO7-E cells were quantified by the trypan blue exclusion method.

Detection of apoptosis and necrosis

Cells were stained with FITC-ANV (TACS annexin V-FITC apoptosis detection kit) to measure externaliz-

Figure 2 (A) Effect of divalent cations on 8505C thyroid cancer cells. A similar effect was observed in other thyroid cancer cell lines. (B) Effect of 300 μ M zinc on various cell lines. Zinc had a significant cytotoxic effect on 8505C and HepG2 cells. Means $\pm$ S.D. from three different experiments are shown.

ation of phosphatidyl serine, an early marker of apoptosis. Cells were also stained with Hoechst 33342 or PI after exposure to Zn²⁺. Hoechst 33342 stains the nuclei in both apoptotic and necrotic cells, while PI stains the nuclei in cells with damaged cell membrane (necrosis). Cells were examined under a Zeiss axioplan fluorescence microscope (Oberkochen, Germany) or analyzed by a FACScan flow cytometer (Beckton Dickinson, San Jose, CA, USA) as previously reported (van Engeland *et al.* 1996). DNA ladder formation was observed as described previously (Gong *et al.* 1994). Briefly, 1×10^6 Zn²⁺-treated or untreated cells were collected and washed twice with cold phosphate-buffered saline (PBS). Pellets were fixed with 70% ethanol for 20 h at 4 °C. After being washed twice

Figure 3 (A) Apoptotic bodies in Zn^{2+} -treated 8505C cells stained with Hoechst 33342. The same morphological change was observed in FRTC and FRO cells following Zn^{2+} exposure. (B) DNA laddering was observed in Zn^{2+} -treated 8505C cells.

with cold PBS, the cells were treated with 0.2 M phosphate-citrate buffer, pH 7.8, for 30 min at room temperature. The supernatants were recovered by centrifugation and incubated with 1 mg/ml RNase A (Nippon Gene) for 1 h at 37 °C, followed by proteinase K (1 mg/ml; Nippon Gene) for 1 h at 37 °C. DNA fragments were precipitated with 2.5 vol ethanol in the presence of 0.5 vol 10 M ammonium acetate at -20 °C for 20 h. After centrifugation, samples were washed with 70% ethanol and resuspended in loading buffer. Electrophoresis was performed in 1 × TBE (50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.3, 50 mM boric acid, 1 mM EDTA) buffer on 1.5% agarose gels containing ethidium bromide.

Electrophoretic mobility shift assay (EMSA)

To examine the activation of NF- κ B, an EMSA was performed as described previously (Watanabe *et al.* 1997). Whole cell and nuclear extracts were prepared after lysis of the cells with NP-40 lysis buffer. An oligonucleotide containing the NF- κ B consensus binding site (5'-AGT TGAGGGGACTTTCCAGGC-3') was 5' end-labeled using polynucleotide kinase and [γ - 32 P]ATP. Nuclear protein extracts (4 μ g) or whole cell extracts (10 μ g) were incubated with labeled oligonucleotide for 20 min at room temperature in 10 μ l binding mixture containing 10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 1 mM MgCl_2 , 50 mM NaCl,

0.5 mM EDTA, 0.5 mM dithiothreitol, 4% glycerol, and 0.05 mg/ml poly(dI-dC)·poly(dI-dC). The DNA-protein complexes were resolved by electrophoresis on 4% acrylamide gels in 1 × TBE at 10 V/cm for 60 min at room temperature.

Western blotting

The expression of Bcl-2, Bcl-xL, Bax, Bad, phosphorylated Bad (ser 112/136) and I κ B was examined by Western blot analysis. Cell lysates were separated by SDS-PAGE on 7.5–12% gradient polyacrylamide gels and transferred onto Hybond-ECL nitrocellulose membranes (Amersham International plc, Amersham, Bucks, UK) in 25 mM Tris, 192 mM glycine. Membranes were blocked in Tris-buffered saline (20 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 137 mM NaCl) containing 0.1% Tween 20 and 3% non-fat dry milk for 30 min at room temperature. The blots were incubated with antibodies to Bcl-2, Bcl-xL, Bax, Bad, phospho-Bad, and I κ B overnight at 4 °C. The membranes were washed in Tris-buffered saline and incubated with horseradish peroxidase-conjugated goat anti-rabbit immunoglobulin G (Amersham) for 1 h at room temperature. The blots were visualized by the Amersham ECL system (Amersham). The expression of these proteins was quantified using NIH image software (NIH, Bethesda, MD, USA).

Figure 4 Flow cytometric analysis of apoptosis and necrosis in 8505C thyroid cancer cells following Zn^{2+} exposure. Data are representative of four separate experiments. Figures in parentheses indicate the percentage of cell numbers in each area. Annexin(+)/PI(-) cells (lower right area) indicate apoptotic cells. PI(+)/cells (upper area) indicate necrotic cells.

Statistical analysis

The Scheffé's multiple comparison test (Figs 1 and 2) and the Student's *t*-test (Fig. 6B) were used to analyze data. A level of $P < 0.05$ was accepted as statistically significant.

Results

Zn^{2+} -induced cell death in thyroid cancer cells

As shown in Fig. 1, ZnCl_2 at concentrations of 150 μM or higher induced prominent cell death in a number of thyroid cancer cell lines as well as in FRTL-5 cells. Other divalent cations, including Cu^{2+} , Fe^{2+} and Mn^{2+} had no significant cytotoxic effect on these cells, even at concentrations as high as 500 μM (Fig. 2A). Non-thyroid cell lines, including MC3T3-E1, 3T3-L1 and MO7-E, were resistant to exposure to Zn^{2+} concentrations up to 300 μM (Fig. 2B). However, 300 μM Zn^{2+} had a significant cytotoxic effect on HepG2 cells. ZnCl_2 at 500 μM also had a significant cytotoxic effect on MO7-E cells (number of viable cells was $54 \pm 10\%$ of the control), but not on MC3T3-E1 and 3T3-L1 cells.

Cells with apoptotic bodies and DNA laddering were observed in Zn^{2+} -treated thyroid cancer cells (Fig. 3). Flow cytometric analysis showed that the number of PI(+)

Figure 5 Effect of Zn^{2+} on the induction of ANV(+)/PI(-) apoptosis (□) or PI(+)/necrosis (●) in 8505C thyroid cancer cells. Results are means $\pm$ S.E. from four different experiments.

necrotic cells as well as ANV(+)/PI(-) apoptotic cells increased after exposure to 150 μM or higher concentrations of zinc (Fig. 4). Necrosis was induced by zinc in a dose-dependent manner (Fig. 5). However, apoptotic cells were not further increased by 200 μM or higher concentrations of zinc. As the concentration of zinc increased, the number of ANV(+)/PI(+) cells (including secondary necrotic cells following apoptosis) also increased. As shown in Fig. 6A, cells were rapidly killed through necrosis following 300 μM zinc administration. On the other hand, apoptosis as well as necrosis were gradually induced by 180 μM zinc. The cytotoxic effect of 180 μM zinc was significantly inhibited by the caspase inhibitor Ac-DEVD-CHO, whereas cell death induced by 300 μM zinc was not inhibited (Fig. 6B).

Zn^{2+} -induced DNA binding activity of NF- κB

The inhibitory protein I κB was degraded rapidly and increased binding of NF- κB in thyroid cancer cells was observed following Zn^{2+} exposure (Fig. 7). Supershift analysis revealed that activated NF- κB was mainly a heterodimer of NFKB1 and RelA (Fig. 7).

Expression of proapoptotic and antiapoptotic proteins after Zn^{2+} exposure

The expression of the proapoptotic proteins Bax and Bad was significantly decreased after exposure to 200 μM Zn^{2+} (Fig. 8). The expression of phosphorylated Bad at serine 112 and 136, which exerts antiapoptotic effects, was

Figure 6 (A) Induction of apoptosis (ANV(+)/PI(-), boxes) and necrosis (PI(+), circles) by zinc. Necrosis was rapidly induced by 300 μ M zinc (●), whereas both apoptosis (□) and necrosis (○) were induced by 180 μ M zinc. (B) Effect of a caspase inhibitor, Ac-DEVD-CHO, on Zn²⁺-induced cell death. The cytotoxic effect of 180 μ M zinc was significantly inhibited ($P < 0.01$), but that of 300 μ M zinc was not. Means $\pm$ S.D. from three different experiments are shown.

gradually but markedly increased. A slight increase in expression of the antiapoptotic protein Bcl-2 was observed. There was no significant change in the expression of Bcl-xL. These changes were not observed in zinc-resistant MC3T3E-1 cells even after 500 μ M zinc treatment (data not shown).

Discussion

This study demonstrated that Zn²⁺ had a potent cytotoxic effect on thyroid cancer cell lines and FRTL-5. High concentrations of ZnCl₂ induced both necrosis and apoptosis. Previous reports have shown that Zn²⁺ prevented

Figure 7 IκB was degraded and DNA binding of NF-κB (open arrow) increased in 8505C cells after exposure to Zn²⁺. Activated NF-κB was a heterodimer of NFKB1 and RelA as demonstrated by a supershift assay (solid arrow). Similar results were obtained using FRO and FRTC cells.

apoptotic cell death in various cell types when apoptosis was induced with various cytotoxic agents including TNFα, cycloheximide, and UV and γ-irradiation (Shimizu *et al.* 1990, Telford *et al.* 1991, Zalewski *et al.* 1991, Leccia *et al.* 1993, Shiokawa *et al.* 1994, Tanuma & Shiokawa 1994, Fady *et al.* 1995). The mechanism of the antiapoptotic effect of Zn²⁺ was thought to be via its inhibitory effect on DNases (Shiokawa *et al.* 1994, Tanuma & Shiokawa 1994), or on poly(ADP-ribose) synthetase (Shimizu *et al.* 1990). Conversely, Zn²⁺ appeared to induce apoptotic cell death in a particular subset of mouse thymocytes, rat cerebellar granule cells and human liver cells (Telford & Fraker 1995, Manev *et al.* 1997, Paramanathan *et al.* 1997). We also confirmed the cytotoxic effect of Zn²⁺ on HepG2 cells. Telford *et al.* (1991) and Telford and Fraker (1995)

reported that high concentrations (>200 μM) of Zn²⁺ inhibited glucocorticoid-induced apoptosis in mouse thymocytes, whereas lower concentrations (80–200 μM) of Zn²⁺ were shown to induce apoptotic cell death in these cells. Provinciali *et al.* (1995) also reported a similar dose-dependent effect of Zn²⁺ on apoptosis in mouse thymocytes. In the present study, concentrations of Zn²⁺ at 150 μM or higher were observed to induce cell death in various thyroid cancer cell lines in a dose-dependent manner.

Manev *et al.* (1995, 1997) have shown that the neurotoxicity of Zn²⁺ on rat cerebellar granule neurons involved both necrotic and apoptotic cell death. They suggested that calcium channel blocker-sensitive mitochondrial injury and DNA damage were involved in the protein synthesis-dependent neurotoxicity of Zn²⁺. These authors reported that actinomycin D and calcium channel blockers reduced mitochondrial injury and cell death. In our study, we did not observe any inhibitory effect of actinomycin D or calcium channel blockers on Zn²⁺-induced cell death in thyroid cancer cells (data not shown). Zinc has also been reported to induce necrosis in prostate carcinoma cells (Iguchi *et al.* 1998).

The present study shows that necrosis was induced in a dose-dependent manner by zinc. Higher concentrations of zinc rapidly induced necrotic cell death, whereas relatively lower concentrations of zinc induced apoptosis as well as necrosis in a time-dependent fashion. This suggests that zinc can induce two cytotoxic pathways in thyroid cancer cells. It is of interest that about 65% of cell death induced by 180 μM zinc could be rescued by the caspase inhibitor in spite of the fact that only 20% of cells are supposed to be killed by apoptosis. This suggests that secondary necrosis may be induced following apoptosis by relatively lower concentrations of zinc. Blom *et al.* (1999) reported that permeabilization of the plasma membrane (i.e. necrosis) was induced in some hepatocytes after the induction of apoptosis. Another possibility is that the caspase inhibitor actually inhibited necrosis. Warny and Kelly (1999)

Figure 8 Expression of apoptosis-related proteins in 8505C thyroid cancer cells following exposure to 200 μM Zn²⁺. Figures in parentheses indicate the percentage ratio of amounts of each protein expressed before Zn²⁺ exposure and 120 min after. Data are representative of two different experiments.

showed that caspase-like proteases were activated when necrosis was induced, and that the caspase inhibitor inhibited necrosis. In our experiments, however, the caspase inhibitor could not inhibit the cytotoxic effect of 300 μ M zinc. We do not know why higher concentrations of zinc still induce apoptosis in a minor population of thyroid cancer cells. Palomba *et al.* (1996) found that the same initial damage can be a triggering event for both apoptosis and necrosis. They concluded that necrosis does not appear to be a passive response to overwhelming damage. Although the mechanism of induction of apoptosis or necrosis by zinc still remains to be elucidated, it was reported that intracellular ATP (Eguchi *et al.* 1997, Leist *et al.* 1997) or reduced glutathione (Fernandes & Cotter 1994) levels may serve as a switch between apoptosis and necrosis.

Exposure of thyroid cancer cells to Zn^{2+} led to a marked increase in expression of the antiapoptotic protein phosphorylated Bad, and a concurrent decrease in expression of the proapoptotic proteins Bax and Bad. This, in addition to a slight increase in Bcl-2 expression, results in an increase in the ratio of antiapoptotic proteins and proapoptotic proteins. These changes were not observed in zinc-resistant cells even after exposure to high concentrations of zinc. Furthermore, Zn^{2+} increased the binding of NF- κ B to DNA in thyroid cancer cells. The inhibitory protein, I κ B, was rapidly degraded following Zn^{2+} exposure, resulting in translocation of NF- κ B into the nucleus. Activated NF- κ B was mainly a heterodimer of NFKB1 (p50) and RelA (p65). Recent studies have provided convincing evidence that NF- κ B is involved in the inhibition of apoptosis (Beg *et al.* 1995, Antwerp *et al.* 1996, Beg & Baltimore 1996, Wang *et al.* 1996). These observations suggest that antiapoptotic pathways were activated in thyroid cancer cells following Zn^{2+} exposure. This may be a self-defence mechanism against external apoptotic stimuli, although necrotic cell death could not be prevented. This self-defence mechanism may be one reason why thyroid cells are resistant to apoptotic stimuli (Arscott *et al.* 1997).

The prognosis of anaplastic or poorly differentiated thyroid carcinomas is extremely poor because of the resistance of these cancers to chemotherapeutic agents and/or radiation. Since administration of excessive amounts of zinc compounds does not seem to result in any adverse effects (Vallee & Falchuk 1993), the cytotoxic effect of zinc may be useful in the treatment of anaplastic and/or other thyroid cancers, especially when zinc is injected into the tumor percutaneously.

Acknowledgements

The authors would like to thank Ms T Suzuki for her excellent technical assistance. We are also grateful to Dr Namba and Dr Murohashi for providing us with cells.

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Received in final form 2 January 2001

Accepted 9 January 2001