RESEARCH ARTICLE

Influence of 17 β -Estradiol on 15-Deoxy- $\Delta^{12,14}$ Prostaglandin J₂ -Induced Apoptosis in MCF-7 and MDA-MB-231 Cells

Nik Soriani Yaacob^{1*}, Rabail Nasir¹, Mohd Nor Norazmi²

Abstract

The nuclear receptor, peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor gamma (PPAR γ), is expressed in various cancer cells including breast, prostate, colorectal and cervical examples. An endogenous ligand of PPAR γ , 15-deoxy- $\Delta^{12,14}$ prostaglandin J₂ (PGJ2), is emerging as a potent anticancer agent but the exact mechanism has not been fully elucidated, especially in breast cancer. The present study compared the anticancer effects of PGJ2 on estrogen receptor alpha (ER α)-positive (MCF-7) and ER α -negative (MDA-MB-231) human breast cancer cells. Based on the reported signalling cross-talk between PPAR γ and ER α , the effect of the ER α ligand, 17 β -estradiol (E2) on the anticancer activities of PGJ2 in both types of cells was also explored. Here we report that PGJ2 inhibited proliferation of both MCF-7 and MDA-MB-231 cells by inducing apoptotic cell death with active involvement of mitochondria. The presence of E2 potentiated PGJ2-induced activities but potentiated its effects in MCF-7 cells, instead. Interestingly, GW9662 also proved capable of inducing apoptotic cell death. It can be concluded that E2 enhances PPAR γ -independent anticancer effects of PGJ2 in the presence of its receptor.

Keywords: 15 deoxy-prostaglandin J, - 17β-estradiol - apoptosis - MCF-7 - MDA-MB-231 - GW9662

Asian Pac J Cancer Prev, 14 (11), 6761-6767

Introduction

Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor γ (PPAR γ) is over-expressed in many different tumour types and drugs that activate PPAR γ are widely studied for their ability to inhibit tumour cell growth. PPAR γ ligands include the naturally occurring 15-Deoxy- $\Delta^{12,14}$ prostaglandin J₂ (PGJ2), and synthetic oral antidiabetic drugs, thiazolidinediones, and non-steroidal anti inflammatory drugs. PGJ2 is the terminal derivative of prostaglandin J₂ reported to have potent anticancer effects in human cancers of various origins (Bailey and Hla, 1999; Nikitakis et al., 2002; Kamagata et al., 2007; Ferreira-Silva et al., 2008; Apostoli et al., 2013; Chang and Hu, 2013; Kumar et al., 2013). On the other hand, the proliferative role of PGJ2 in mammary and colon carcinogenesis has also been reported (Choi et al., 2008; Kim et al., 2008). Importantly, several reports indicate that PGJ2 effects occur either dependently or independently of PPARy (Clay et al., 2000; 2002; Ray et al., 2006; Ferreira-Silva et al., 2008; Chbicheb et al., 2011).

PPAR γ binds to specific recognition sites on DNA, known as the peroxisome proliferator response elements (PPREs), as a heterodimer complex with retinoid X receptor (Kliewer et al., 1992; Mukherjee et al., 1997) to modulate target genes and interaction between PPAR γ and the estrogen receptor, $ER\alpha$, has been reported in breast cancer cells (Wang and Kilgore, 2002; Bonofiglio et al., 2005; Lee et al., 2009). ERa lowered both basal and stimulated PPARy-mediated reporter activity (Wang and Kilgore, 2002) and repressed the transactivation of PPRE in cancer cell lines (Bonofiglio et al., 2005). In the present study, the influence of E2 on the cell death effect of PGJ2 on ER α -positive (MCF-7) and ER α -negative (MDA-MB-231) breast cancer cell lines was investigated. Although PGJ2 induced apoptosis and altered the mitochondrial membrane potential in both cell lines, E2 differentially affect these activities in both cells. Direct involvement of PPARy in the cell death mechanism of these breast cancer cell lines was also assessed using a potent, irreversible PPARy specific antagonist, 2-chloro-5-nitrobenzanilide (GW9662), in the presence or absence of PPARy and ERa agonists.

Materials and Methods

Cell lines and reagents

Human breast cancer cell lines, MCF-7 and MDA-MB-231, were maintained in RPMI and DMEM, respectively, supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (Hyclone, USA), penicillin (100 units/ml) and streptomycin (100 mg/ml) (Gibco, USA). PGJ2 (Cayman

¹Department of Chemical Pathology, ²School of Health Sciences, Universiti Sains Malaysia, Health Campus, Kelantan, Malaysia *For correspondence: niksoriani@usm.my

Nik Soriani Yaacob et al

Chemicals, USA) was dissolved in dimethyl sulphoxide (Sigma, USA) at a concentration of 100μ M. E2 (Sigma, USA) was dissolved in ethanol at a concentration of 1μ M/ml.

Treatment of cells

MCF-7 and MDA-MB-231 cells were seeded in T-25 cm2 flasks or in chamber slides (for apoptosis assay) at a density of 2×10^5 and 1×10^6 cells/ml, respectively until about 70% confluent. MCF-7 and MDA-MB-231 cells were treated with 15µM and 10µM PGJ2, respectively, 10nM E2 or their combination. For PPAR γ blocking, cells were pre-treated with 10µM GW9662 for 1h prior to treatment with the agonists. The solvent, dimethyl sulphoxide (less than 0.15%) or ethanol (less than 1%) was used for untreated control cells. Cells were then harvested at different incubation periods and subjected to subsequent experiments.

Annexin V-FLUOS assay

Apoptosis was analyzed using the Annexin V FLUOS Staining Kit (Roche, Germany) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, treated and untreated cells were harvested by trypsinization (with 0.025% trypsin) at 6, 24, 48 and 72 h. The cells were pelleted by centrifugation at 1000 rpm for 5 min, and washed with phosphate-buffered saline. The cell pellet was then resuspended in 100 μ l Annexin V FLUOS labeling solution (20 μ l Annexin V-FLUOS labeling reagent and 20 μ l Propidium iodide (PI) solution in 1ml incubation buffer) for 10-15 min at room temperature. A minimum of 10,000 events were collected and analyzed using the flow cytometer (FACS Calibur, Becton-Dickinson, USA) with Cellquest software (Becton-Dickinson, USA).

Mitochondrial membrane potential

Variation in the mitochondrial transmembrane potential $(\Delta \Psi m)$ was determined using 5,5',6,6'-tetrachloro-1,1',3,3'-tetraethylbenzimidazolcarbocyanine iodide (JC-1) fluorescence staining. Treated and untreated cells were harvested by trypsinization at 6, 24 and 48 h and incubated with JC-1 dye dissolved in serum-free media at a working concentration of 5 μ M, for 30 min at 37°C, according to the manufacturer's instructions. The cells were then washed and resuspended in phosphate-buffered saline for analysis by flow cytometry.

Statistical analysis

The experiments were repeated three times and the significant differences in the mean of treated and untreated cells were calculated using Mann-Whitney U test using SPSS 12.0 software.

Results

Induction of apoptosis in MCF-7 and MDA-MB-231 cells by PGJ2 alone and in combination with E2

Apoptosis was determined using fluorescence conjugated Annexin V antibody that detects and binds to phophatidylserine (PS) exposed onto the surface of cells at their early stages of apoptosis, and PI that enters the

permeable plasma membrane of cells in their late stages of apoptosis or cells undergoing necrosis. Analysis of cells stained with Annexin V antibody and PI flow cytometry showed that PGJ2 alone or in combination with E2 significantly induced higher levels of apoptosis in MCF-7 cells at all incubation periods compared with untreated controls (p<0.05), killing more than 80% cells at 72h (Figure 1). Most of these apoptotic cells were found to be in the late stage of apoptosis. Apoptosis in MCF-7 cells treated with the combination of PGJ2 and E2 remained significantly higher (almost 20%) than cells treated with PGJ2 alone (p<0.05). Cells treated with E2 alone however showed similar levels of apoptosis as the untreated cells, except at 72 h incubation where more apoptotic cells were observed with E2 treatment (p<0.05). However, apoptotic levels of cells treated with E2 remained significantly lower than those treated with PGJ2 and PGJ2-E2 combination. Low levels of necrosis were observed throughout the experiment (results not shown).

For MDA-MB-231 cells, significant cell death was evident 24h following the combination treatment (40-50%) and this was further enhanced at 48 and 72h (>80%), mainly due to increased late stage apoptosis (Figure 2). However, unlike MCF-7 cells, addition of E2 to PGJ2-treated MDA-MB-231 cells did not show any significant difference in apoptosis compared to cells treated with PGJ2 alone. Treatment with E2 alone did not

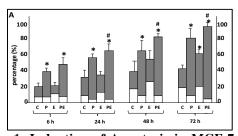


Figure 1. Induction of Apoptosis in MCF-7 Cells Treated with PGJ2, E2 and PGJ2+E2 Combination. Cells were treated with 15 μ M PGJ2, 10nM E2 or PGJ2+E2 combination for 6, 24, 48 and 72h. The cells were incubated with Annexin-V antibody and propidium iodide dye and analyzed by flow cytometry. Each bar in represents the mean±SD. of three independent experiments. *p<0.05 significantly different from untreated cells. *p<0.05 significantly different from PGJ2+E2 treated cells

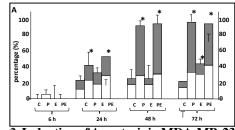


Figure 2. Induction of Apoptosis in MDA-MB-231 Cells Treated with PGJ2, E2 and PGJ2+E2 Combination. Cells were treated with 10 μ M PGJ2, 10 nM E2 or PGJ2+E2 combination for 6, 24, 48 and 72 h. The cells were incubated with Annexin-V antibody and propidium iodide dye and analyzed by flow cytometry. Each bar in represents the mean±SD. of three independent experiments. *p<0.05 significantly different from untreated cells. #p<0.05 significantly different from PGJ2+E2 treated cells

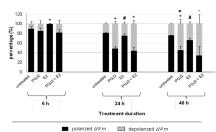


Figure 3. Analysis of Alterations in Mitochondrial Membrane Potential in MCF-7 Cells Treated with PGJ2, E2 and Their Combination. MCF-7 cells were treated with 15 μ M PGJ2 and 10 nM E2 alone or in combination for 6, 24 and 48 h. Cells were then stained with JC-1 dye for flow cytometric analysis. Each bar represents the mean \pm SD. of three independent experiments. *p<0.05 significantly different from untreated control cells. *p<0.05 significantly different from PGJ2+E2-treated cells

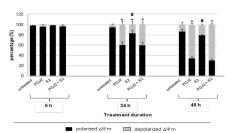


Figure 4. Analysis of Alterations in Mitochondrial Membrane Potential in MDA-MB-231 Cells Treated with PGJ2, E2 and Their Combination. MDA-MB-231 cells were treated with 10 μ M PGJ2 and 10nM E2 alone or in combination for 6, 24 and 48h. Cells were then stained with JC-1 dye for flow cytometric analysis. Each bar represents the mean±SD. of three independent experiments. *p<0.05 significantly different from untreated control cells. #p<0.05 significantly different from PGJ2+E2-treated cells

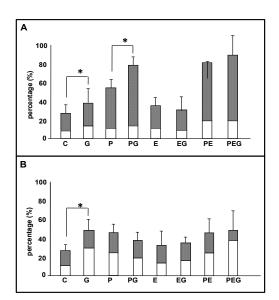


Figure 5. Effect of GW9662 on PGJ2-Induced Apoptosis in (A) MCF-7 and (B) MDA-MB-231 Cells. Cells were treated with various combinations of PGJ2, E2 and GW9662 for 24 h. The cells were stained with Annexin-V antibody and propidium iodide and analyzed by flow cytometry. Each bar represents the mean +SD. of three independent experiments.*p<0.05 significantly different from corresponding group of cells not treated with GW9662

E2 Modulates PGJ2-Induced Apoptosis in Breast Cancer Cells show any significant difference in cell death compared to untreated cells, except at 72h, but remained significantly lower compared to cells treated with PGJ2 alone and in combination with E2.

Changes in the mitochondrial membrane potential in *MCF-7* and *MDA-MB-231* cells treated with PGJ2 and E2 alone and in combination

JC-1 dye is a lipophilic fluorochrome that penetrates the plasma membrane of cells as monomers (green fluorescence), while entering the mitochondria as aggregates (red fluorescence). The membrane of healthy and normal mitochondria is polarised and thus, JC-1 is rapidly taken up by such mitochondria, whereas, unhealthy mitochondria with compromised membrane, are impermeable to the JC-1 dye which then concentrates in the cytoplasm. Treated and untreated MCF-7 and MDA-MB-231 cells labeled with JC-1 dye were analysed by flow cytometry. Significant (p<0.05) decrease in the $\Delta \Psi m$ (an increase in mitochondrial depolarization and a decrease in mitochondrial polarization) was evident after 24 and 48 h treatment (Figures 3 and 4). Both cell lines treated with E2 alone did not show any significant differences from untreated cells, except for a small decrease in the $\Delta \Psi m$ in MDA-MB-231 cells at 24h of incubation. There was no significant difference in $\Delta \Psi m$ between cells treated with PGJ2 alone and PGJ2 in combination with E2 at all time points in MDA-MB-231 cells. In contrast, MCF-7 cells treated with the combination of both ligands showed significantly higher (p<0.05) levels of mitochondrial depolarization than cells treated with PGJ2 alone at 48h.

Effect of GW9662 on PGJ2 induced cell death of MCF-7 and MDA-MB-231 cells

The role of PPAR γ in the modulation of apoptosis in breast cancer cells by PGJ2 in the presence or absence of E2 was examined following complete inhibition of PPAR γ activity using a potent PPAR γ antagonist, GW9662, which binds irreversibly to the ligand-binding domain of the receptor (Leesnitzer et al., 2002; Seargent et al., 2004). Blocking of PPAR γ did not affect apoptotic cell death activity induced by the combination of PGJ2 and E2 but resulted in 20% increase in the percentage of apoptosis induced by PGJ2 alone in MCF-7 (A) but not in MDA-MB-231 cells (Figure 5B). It is also noteworthy that GW9662 itself produced a 40-50% increase in apoptosis of both breast cancer cells compared to untreated controls.

Discussion

ERs act as transcriptional factors by binding to estrogen response elements (EREs) on target genes, facilitated by interaction with corepressors or coactivators (Gupta and Kuperwasser, 2006; Lee et al., 2013). PGJ2 has been reported to inhibit E2-mediated ERE transactivation in leiomyoma cells (Houston et al., 2003) and growth of MCF-7 cells partly via proteasome-dependent degradation of ER α (Qin et al., 2003). The inhibitory influence of PPAR γ agonists on ER α expression is supported by other reports of negative interference of PPAR γ and ER α on each others' transactivation via response element binding

Nik Soriani Yaacob et al

(Keller et al., 1995; Wang and Kilgore, 2002; Bonofiglio et al., 2005; Kim et al., 2007; Jeong and Yoon, 2011). However, a previous study reported that inhibition of either E2-dependent or E2-independent ER α transcription by PGJ2 occurred independent of PPAR γ (Kim et al., 2007). In the current study, the ER α -expressing MCF-7 cells and non-expressing MDA-MB-231 cells (Lee et al., 2005) were used as human breast cancer models to investigate cancer cell death activities of the PPAR γ ligand, PGJ2, and the influence of the ER α agonist, E2, to influence PPAR γ ligand-induced activities.

PGJ2 has been reported to inhibit proliferation of breast cancer cells either via apoptosis (Clay et al., 1999) or other non-apoptotic mechanisms (Qin et al., 2003). In the current study, PGJ2 was found to induce apoptosis in both ER α -positive MCF-7 and ER α -negative MDA-MB-231 breast cancer cells suggesting that the ER may not have any influence on PGJ2's ability to induce apoptosis in breast cancer cells. The induction of apoptosis occurred much earlier in MCF-7 cells (from 6h) compared to MDA-MB-231 cells (starting at 24h). In addition, mitochondrial membrane depolarization was induced by PGJ2 in both MCF-7 and MDA-MB-231 cells. The mitochondria play a critical role in apoptosis by releasing cytochrome c and other proteins that are essential for the execution of apoptosis. Our findings are in agreement with previous reports of PGJ2-induced mitochondrial dysfunction and ROS production in MCF-7 cells (Pignatelli et al., 2005; Kim et al., 2008). In order to determine whether PGJ2 apoptotic action is dependent on PPARy activation, 10 μM of the irreversible PPARγ antagonist, GW9962, was used to completely block PPARy active site (Seargent et al., 2004; Kourtidis et al., 2009). GW9962 is also suitable because it does not affect PPARy-mediated transcription (Leesnitzer et al., 2002). The use of GW9662 in both MCF-7 and MDA-MB-231 cells failed to block PGJ2-induced apoptosis indicating that this event occurs independently of PPARy activation. This is in agreement with the report of PPAR γ -independent cytotoxicity of B cell lymphoma (Ray et al., 2006), Jurkat, HeLa and U937 cells (Ferreira-Silva et al., 2008; Theoleyre et al., 2010) by PGJ2. Thiazolidinedione, a synthetic PPARy ligand, has also been found to produce receptor-independent antitumour effects (Wei et al., 2009). In addition, we observed that blocking PPARy activation resulted in increased PGJ2-induced apoptosis, further supporting a receptor-independent action of this ligand. The potent apoptotic activity of PGJ2 on MCF-7 cells may be attributed to its ability to induce proteasomal degradation of ER α in these ER-positive cells, thus inhibiting cellular proliferation (Qin et al., 2003; Lecomte et al., 2008), via enhanced ubiquitination. PPARy-induced intracellular degradation of the receptor has also been reported (Qin et al., 2003), in line with the reported negative interaction between PPAR γ and ER α (Keller et al., 1995; Wang and Kilgore 2002; Bonofiglio et al., 2006).

We showed that the presence of E2 potentiated PGJ2induced apoptosis in MCF-7 but not in MDA-MB-231 cells. Apoptosis of PGJ2+E2-treated MCF-7 cells remained about 10% higher than those treated with PGJ2 alone at all time points showing that E2 treatment has an additive effect on PGJ2-induced cell death activity. In fact E2 has previously been reported to induce apoptosis in hormone-dependent breast cancer cells (Song et al 2001; Gregoraszczuk and Ptak, 2011) either through the extrinsic death receptor pathway or via the intrinsic pathway of mitochondrial disruption and release of cytochrome C. Our study did in fact demonstrate that E2 alone caused apoptosis at 72h post-treatment although the apoptosis-potentiating effect of E2 on PGJ2 occurred earlier (at 24h), which may occur through the extrinsic death receptor pathway as previously suggested (Song et al., 2001).

Interestingly however, potentiation of PGJ2 response by E2 was not observed in MDA-MB-231 cells. Although PGJ2 was capable of apoptotic activity in the presence or absence of ER α , the promoting action by E2 seems to be influenced by the presence of the receptor. Our findings further showed that E2 potentiates PGJ2-induced mitochondrial membrane depolarisation in MCF-7 and not in MDA-MB-231 cells which further suggests for a role of ERa in the promotion of PGJ2-induced cell death mechanism by estradiol. PGJ2 itself is said to be capable of inhibiting both hormone-dependent and hormoneindependent ER α transcriptional activity via covalent modification of cysteine residues within the vulnerable COOH-terminal zinc finger of ERa DNA binding domain (Kim et al., 2007) and could trigger proteasomal degradation of ER α in a PPAR γ -independent manner (Lecomte et al., 2008).

The ability of GW9662 alone to cause apoptosis of both cells further supports the notion that PPAR γ does not play a significant role in breast cancer cell death. In fact, direct antiproliferative effect of GW9662 has previously been reported in MCF-7, MDA-MB-231 and MDA-MB-468 cells (Sergeant et al., 2004; Malaviya and Sylvester, 2013). A higher concentration of the antagonist (20 µM) was also reported to cause extensive cell death (Kim et al., 2008). In addition, we found that the presence of the antagonist augmented the anticancer effect of PGJ2 in the ER α -positive cells which was not observed in the ER α -negative cells, further suggesting a negative regulatory activity between PPAR γ and ER α perhaps via competition for co-regulatory proteins. The mechanism of how GW9662 is antiproliferative in MCF-7 cells is still unclear but interference on the inhibitory action of PGJ2 on ERE-dependent transactivation by E2 has been suggested (Kim et al., 2007).

ERs act as transcriptional factors by binding to estrogen response elements (EREs) on target genes, facilitated by interaction with corepressors or coactivators (Gupta and Kuperwasser, 2006; Lee et al., 2013). PGJ2 has been reported to inhibit E2-mediated ERE transactivation in leiomyoma cells (Houston et al., 2003) and growth of MCF-7 cells partly via proteasome-dependent degradation of ER α (Qin et al., 2003). The inhibitory influence of PPAR γ agonists on ER α expression is supported by other reports of negative interference of PPAR γ and ER α on each others' transactivation via response element binding (Keller et al., 1995; Wang and Kilgore, 2002; Bonofiglio et al., 2005; Kim et al., 2007; Jeong and Yoon, 2011). However, a previous study reported that inhibition of either E2-dependent or E2-independent ER α transcription by PGJ2 occurred independent of PPAR γ (Kim et al., 2007). In the current study, the ER α -expressing MCF-7 cells and non-expressing MDA-MB-231 cells (Lee et al., 2005) were used as human breast cancer models to investigate cancer cell death activities of the PPAR γ ligand, PGJ2, and the influence of the ER α agonist, E2, to influence PPAR γ ligand-induced activities.

PGJ2 has been reported to inhibit proliferation of breast cancer cells either via apoptosis (Clay et al., 1999) or other non-apoptotic mechanisms (Qin et al., 2003). In the current study, PGJ2 was found to induce apoptosis in both ER α -positive MCF-7 and ER α -negative MDA-MB-231 breast cancer cells suggesting that the estrogen receptor may not have any influence on PGJ2's ability to induce apoptosis in breast cancer cells. The induction of apoptosis occurred much earlier in MCF-7 cells (from 6 h) compared to MDA-MB-231 cells (starting at 24 h). In addition, mitochondrial membrane depolarization was induced by PGJ2 in both MCF-7 and MDA-MB-231 cells. The mitochondria play a critical role in apoptosis by releasing cytochrome c and other proteins that are essential for the execution of apoptosis. Our findings are in agreement with previous reports of PGJ2-induced mitochondrial dysfunction and ROS production in MCF-7 cells (Pignatelli et al., 2005; Kim et al., 2008). In order to determine whether PGJ2 apoptotic action is dependent on PPAR γ activation, 10 μ M of the irreversible PPAR γ antagonist, GW9962, was used to completely block PPARy active site (Seargent et al., 2004; Kourtidis et al., 2009). GW9962 is also suitable because it does not affect PPARy-mediated transcription (Leesnitzer et al., 2002). The use of GW9662 in both MCF-7 and MDA-MB-231 cells failed to block PGJ2-induced apoptosis indicating that this event occurs independently of PPAR γ activation. This is in agreement with the report of PPARyindependent cytotoxicity of B cell lymphoma (Ray et al., 2006), Jurkat, HeLa and U937 cells (Ferreira-Silva et al., 2008; Theoleyre et al., 2010) by PGJ2. Thiazolidinedione, a synthetic PPARy ligand, has also been found to produce receptor-independent antitumour effects (Wei et al., 2009). In addition, we observed that blocking PPARy activation resulted in increased PGJ2-induced apoptosis, further supporting a receptor-independent action of this ligand. The potent apoptotic activity of PGJ2 on MCF-7 cells may be attributed to its ability to induce proteasomal degradation of ER α in these ER-positive cells, thus inhibiting cellular proliferation (Qin et al., 2003; Lecomte et al., 2008), via enhanced ubiquitination. PPARy-induced intracellular degradation of the receptor has also been reported (Qin et al., 2003), in line with the reported negative interaction between PPAR γ and ER α (Keller et al., 1995; Wang and Kilgore 2002; Bonofiglio et al., 2006).

We showed that the presence of E2 potentiated PGJ2induced apoptosis in MCF-7 but not in MDA-MB-231 cells. Apoptosis of PGJ2+E2-treated MCF-7 cells remained about 10% higher than those treated with PGJ2 alone at all time points showing that E2 treatment has an additive effect on PGJ2-induced cell death activity. In fact E2 has previously been reported to induce apoptosis in hormone-dependent breast cancer cells (Song et al 2001; Gregoraszczuk and Ptak, 2011) either through the extrinsic

DOI:http://dx.doi.org/10.7314/APJCP.2013.14.11.6761

E2 Modulates PGJ2-Induced Apoptosis in Breast Cancer Cells death receptor pathway or via the intrinsic pathway of mitochondrial disruption and release of cytochrome C. Our study did in fact demonstrate that E2 alone caused apoptosis at 72h post-treatment although the apoptosis-potentiating effect of E2 on PGJ2 occurred earlier (at 24h), which may occur through the extrinsic death receptor pathway as previously suggested (Song et al., 2001).

Interestingly however, potentiation of PGJ2 response by E2 was not observed in MDA-MB-231 cells. Although PGJ2 was capable of apoptotic activity in the presence or absence of ER α , the promoting action by E2 seems to be influenced by the presence of the receptor. Our findings further showed that E2 potentiates PGJ2-induced mitochondrial membrane depolarisation in MCF-7 and not in MDA-MB-231 cells which further suggests for a role of ER α in the promotion of PGJ2-induced cell death mechanism by estradiol. PGJ2 itself is said to be capable of inhibiting both hormone-dependent and hormoneindependent ER α transcriptional activity via covalent modification of cysteine residues within the vulnerable COOH-terminal zinc finger of ERa DNA binding domain (Kim et al., 2007) and could trigger proteasomal degradation of ER α in a PPAR γ -independent manner (Lecomte et al., 2008).

The ability of GW9662 alone to cause apoptosis of both cells further supports the notion that PPAR γ does not play a significant role in breast cancer cell death. In fact, direct antiproliferative effect of GW9662 has previously been reported in MCF-7, MDA-MB-231 and MDA-MB-468 cells (Sergeant et al., 2004; Malaviya and Sylvester, 2013). A higher concentration of the antagonist (20µM) was also reported to cause extensive cell death (Kim et al., 2008). In addition, we found that the presence of the antagonist augmented the anticancer effect of PGJ2 in the ER α -positive cells which was not observed in the ER α -negative cells, further suggesting a negative regulatory activity between PPAR γ and ER α perhaps via competition for co-regulatory proteins. The mechanism of how GW9662 is antiproliferative in MCF-7 cells is still unclear but interference on the inhibitory action of PGJ2 on ERE-dependent transactivation by E2 has been suggested (Kim et al., 2007).

In conclusion, the mechanism of anticancer action of PGJ2 on breast cancer cells seems to be pleotropic but several data including the current findings provide evidence that the anticancer effects are the results of PPAR γ -independent events. The apoptosis induced occurs via perturbation of mitochondrial membrane potential and is enhanced by estrogen in the presence of its receptor. Further studies using a panel of ER-positive and-negative breast cancer cell lines and other PPAR γ ligands, and perhaps ER-specific chemotherapeutic drugs such as tamoxifen should be carried out to determine whether combination of such drugs could enhance apoptosis of breast cancer cells.

Acknowledgements

We acknowledge the Ministry of Higher Education Malaysia for providing the grant to support the current study under the Fundamental Research Grant Scheme

Nik Soriani Yaacob et al

(203.PPSP.6170022 and 203.PPSP.6171127). RN was supported under the Universiti Sains Malaysia Fellowship program. We also acknowledge Jamaruddin Mat Asan for his technical assistance in flow cytometry. We declare that we do not have any competing interests.

References

- Apostoli AJ, Skelhorne-Gross GE, Rubino RE, et al (2013). Loss of PPARγ expression in mammary secretory epithelial cells creates a pro-breast tumourigenic environment. *Int J Cancer*, [Epub ahead of print].
- Bailey DB, Hla T (1999). Endothelial cell apoptosis induced by peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor ligand 15d-PGJ₂. *J Biol Chem*, **274**, 17042-8.
- Bonofiglio D, Gabriele S, Aquila S, et al (2005). Estrogen receptor binds to peroxisome proliferator–activated receptor response element and negatively interferes with peroxisome proliferator–activated receptor signaling in breast cancer cells. *Clin Cancer Res*, **11**, 6139-47.
- Chang SS, Hu HY (2013). Association of thiazolidinediones with gastric cancer in type 2 diabetes mellitus: a population-based case--control study. *BMC Cancer*, **13**, 420.
- Chbicheb S, Yao X, Rodeau JL, et al (2011). EGR1 expression: a calcium and ERK1/2 mediated PPAR γ -independent event involved in the antiproliferative effect of 15-deoxy- $\Delta^{12.14}$ prostaglandin J2 and thiazolidinediones in breast cancer cells. *Biochem Pharmacol*, **81**, 1087-97.
- Choi IK, Kim YH, Kim J, Seo JH (2008). PPAR-γ ligand promotes the growth of APC-mutated HT-29 human colon cancer cells *in vitro* and *in vivo*. *Invest New Drugs*, 26, 283-8.
- Clay CE, Namen AM, Atsumi G, et al (1999). Influence of J series prostaglandins on apoptosis and tumorigenesis of breast cancer cells. *Carcinogenesis*, **20**, 1905-11.
- Clay CE, Namen AM, Fonteh A, et al (2000). 15-Deoxydelta(12, 14) PGJ(2) induces diverse biological responses via PPARgamma activation in cancer cells. *Prostaglandins Other Lipid Mediat*, **62**, 23-32.
- Clay CE, Monjazeb A, Thorburn J, Chilton FH, High KP (2002). 15-Deoxy-delta12,14-prostaglandin J₂-induced apoptosis does not require PPARgamma in breast cancer cells. *J Lipid Res*, **43**, 1818-28.
- Ferreira-Silva V, Rodrigues AC, Hirata TDC, Hirabara SM, Curi R (2008). Effects of 15-deoxy- $\Delta^{12,14}$ prostaglandin J₂ and ciglitazone on human cancer cell cycle progression and death: the role of PPAR gamma. *Eur J Pharmacol*, **580**, 80-6.
- Gregoraszczuk E, Ptak A (2011). Involvement of caspase-9 but not caspase-8 in the anti-apoptotic effects of estradiol and 4-OH-Estradiol in MCF-7 human breast cancer cells. *Endocr Regul*, **45**, 3-8.
- Gupta PB, Kuperwasser C (2006). Contributions of estrogen to ER-negative breast tumor growth. *J Steroid Biochem Mol Biol*, **102**, 71-8.
- Houston KD, Copland JA, Broaddus RR, et al (2003). Inhibition of proliferation and estrogen receptor signaling by peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor γ ligands in uterine leiomyoma. *Cancer Res*, **63**, 1221-7.
- Jeong S, Yoon M (2011). 17β-Estradiol inhibition of PPARγinduced adipogenesis and adipocyte-specific gene expression. *Acta Pharmacol Sin*, **32**, 230-8.
- Kamagata C, Tsuji N, Moriai M, Kobayashi D, Watanabe N (2007). 15-Deoxy-D12, 14-prostaglandin J_2 inhibits G2-M phase progression in human breast cancer cells via the down-regulation of cyclin B1 and survivin expression. *Breast Cancer Res Treat*, **102**, 263-73.
- Keller H, Givel F, Perroud M, Wahli W (1995). Signaling cross-

talk between peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor/ retinoid X receptor and estrogen receptor through estrogen response elements. *Mol Endocrinol*, **19**, 794-804.

- Kim HJ, Kim JY, Meng Z, et al (2007). 15-deoxy-Delta12, 14-prostaglandin J₂ inhibits transcriptional activity of estrogen receptor-alpha via covalent modification of DNAbinding domain. *Cancer Res*, 67, 2595-602.
- Kim EH, Na HK, Kim DH, et al (2008). 15-Deoxy-D12,14prostaglandin J₂ induces COX-2 expression through Aktdriven AP-1 activation in human breast cancer cells: a potential role of ROS. *Carcinogenesis*, **29**, 688-95.
- Kliewer SA, Umesono K, Noonan DJ, Heyman RA, Evans RM (1992). Convergence of 9-cis retinoic acid and peroxisome proliferator signalling pathways through heterodimer formation of their receptors. *Nature*, **358**, 771-4.
- Kourtidis A, Srinivasaiah R, Carkner RD, Brosnan MJ, Conklin DS (2009). Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptorgamma protects ERBB2-positive breast cancer cells from palmitate toxicity. *Breast Cancer Res*, **11**, 16.
- Kumar AP, Loo SY, Shin SW, et al (2013). Targeting MnSOD in basal breast carcinoma using agonists of PPARγ: a new strategy for enhancing chemosensitivity. *Antioxid Redox Signal*, [Epub ahead of print]
- Lecomte J, Flament S, Salamone S, et al (2008). Disruption of ER α signaling pathway by PPARgamma agonists: evidences of PPARgamma-independent events in two hormone-dependent breast cancer cell lines. *Breast Cancer Res Treat*, **112**, 437-51.
- Lee YR, Park J, Yu HN, et al (2005). Up-regulation of PI3K/Akt signaling by 17 β -estradiol through activation of estrogen receptor- α , but not estrogen receptor- β , and stimulates cell growth in breast cancer cells. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun*, **336**, 1221-6.
- Lee HJ, Ju J, Paul S, et al (2009). Mixed tocopherols prevent mammary tumorigenesis by inhibiting estrogen action and activating PPAR-gamma. *Clin Cancer Res*, **15**, 4242-9.
- Lee MT, Leung YK, Chung I, Tarapore P, Ho SM (2013). Estrogen receptor β (ER β 1) transactivation is differentially modulated by the transcriptional coregulator Tip60 in a cis-acting element-dependent manner. *J Biol Chem*, **288**, 25038-52.
- Leesnitzer LM, Parks DJ, Bledsoe RK, et al (2002). Functional consequences of cysteine modification in the ligand binding sites of peroxisome proliferator activated receptors by GW9662. *Biochemistry*, **41**, 6640-50.
- Malaviya A, Sylvester PW (2013). Mechanisms mediating the effects of γ-tocotrienol when used in combination with PPARγ agonists or antagonists on MCF-7 and MDA-MB-231 breast cancer cells. *Int J Breast Cancer*, [Epub ahead of print].
- Mukherjee R, Jow L, Croston GE, Paterniti JR (1997). Identification, characterization, and tissue distribution of human peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor (PPAR) isoforms PPARγ2 versus PPARγ1 and activation with retinoid X receptor agonists and antagonists. *J Biol Chem*, 272, 8071-6.
- Nikitakis NG, Siavash H, Hebert C, et al (2002). 15d-PGJ2, but not thiazolidiones, inhibits cell growth, induces apoptosis, and causes downregulation of Stat3 in human oral SCCa cells. *Br J Cancer*, **87**, 1396-403.
- Qin C, Burghardt R, Smith R, et al (2003). Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor gamma agonists induce proteasome-dependent degradation of cyclin D1 and estrogen receptor alpha in MCF-7 breast cancer cells. *Cancer Res*, **63**, 958-64.
- Pignatelli M, Sanchez-Rodrı´guez J, Santos A, Perez-Castillo A (2005). 15-Deoxy-D-12,14-prostaglandin J, induces

programmed cell death of breast cancer cells by a pleiotropic mechanism. *Carcinogenesis*, **26**, 81-92.

- Ray DM, Akbiyik F, Phipps RP (2006). The peroxisome proliferator activated receptor gamma (PPARgamma) ligands 15-deoxy-Delta12,14-prostaglandin J2 and ciglitazone induce human B lymphocyte and B cell lymphoma apoptosis by PPARgamma-independent mechanisms. *J Immunol*, **177**, 5068-76.
- Seargent AM, Yates EA, Hill JH (2004). GW9662, a potent antagonist of PPAR γ , inhibits growth of breast tumour cells and promotes the anticancer effects of the PPAR γ agonist rosiglitazone, independently of PPAR γ activation. *Br* **100.0** *Pharmacol*, **143**, 933-7.
- Song RX, Mor G, Naftolin F, et al (2001). Effect of long-term estrogen deprivation on apoptotic responses of breast cancer cells to 17β-estradiol. *J Natl Cancer Inst*, **93**, 1714-23. **75.0**
- Théoleyre S, Mottier S, Masson D, Denis MG (2010). HtrA3 is regulated by 15-deoxy Delta12, 14-prostaglandin J2 independently of PPARgamma in clear cell renal cell carcinomas. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun*, **394**, 453-8. **50.0**
- Wang X, Kilgore MW (2002). Signal cross-talk between estrogen receptor alpha and beta and the peroxisome proliferatoractivated receptor gamma1 in MDA-MB-231 and MCF-7 breast cancer cells. *Mol Cell Endocrinol*, **194**, 123-33.
 25.0
- Wei S, Yang J, Lee SL, Kulp SK, Chen CS (2009). PPARgammaindependent antitumor effects of thiazolidinediones. *Cancer Lett*, **276**, 119-24.

