

広島大学学術情報リポジトリ

Hiroshima University Institutional Repository

Title	Inhibitory effects of vitamin K3 on DNA polymerase and angiogenesis
Author(s)	Matsubara, Kiminori; Kayashima, Tomoko; Mori, Masaharu; Yoshida, Hiromi; Mizushina, Yoshiyuki
Citation	International Journal of Molecular Medicine , 22 (3) : 381 - 387
Issue Date	2008-09
DOI	10.3892/ijmm_00000034
Self DOI	
URL	http://ir.lib.hiroshima-u.ac.jp/00048181
Right	Copyright (c) 2008 Spandidos Publications UK Ltd.
Relation	Matsubara, K., Kayashima, T., Mori, M., Yoshida, H., Mizushina, Y. "Inhibitory effects of vitamin K3 on DNA polymerase and angiogenesis". International Journal of Molecular Medicine 22, no. 3 (2008): 381-387.

Inhibitory effects of vitamin K₃ on DNA polymerase and angiogenesis

KIMINORI MATSUBARA^{1,2}, TOMOKO KAYASHIMA¹, MASAHARU MORI³,
HIROMI YOSHIDA^{2,4} and YOSHIYUKI MIZUSHINA^{2,4}

¹Department of Human Life Sciences Education, Graduate School of Education, Hiroshima University, Higashi-Hiroshima, Hiroshima 739-8524; ²Cooperative Research Center of Life Sciences, Kobe-Gakuin University, Nishi-ku, Kobe, Hyogo 651-2180; ³Department of Nursing, Faculty of Health and Welfare Science, Okayama Prefectural University, 111 Kuboki, Soja, Okayama 719-1197; ⁴Department of Nutritional Science, Kobe-Gakuin University, Kobe, Hyogo 651-2180, Japan

Received March 11, 2008; Accepted April 30, 2008

DOI: 10.3892/ijmm_00000034

Abstract. Vitamins play essential roles in cellular reactions and maintain human health. Recent studies have revealed that some vitamins including D₃, B₆ and K₂ and their derivatives have an anti-cancer effect. As a mechanism, their inhibitory effect on cancer-related angiogenesis has been demonstrated. Vitamin K₂ (menaquinones) has an anti-cancer effect in particular for hepatic cancer and inhibits angiogenesis. In the current study, we demonstrated that sole vitamin K₃ (menadione) selectively inhibits the *in vitro* activity of eukaryotic DNA polymerase γ , which is a mitochondrial DNA polymerase, and suppresses angiogenesis in a rat aortic ring model. The anti-angiogenic effect of vitamin K₃ has been shown in angiogenesis models using human umbilical vein endothelial cells (HUVECs) with regard to HUVEC growth, tube formation on reconstituted basement membrane and chemotaxis. These results suggest that vitamin K₃ may be a potential anti-cancer agent like vitamin K₂.

Introduction

The importance of vitamins for human health is well established. Our research interest has focused on the relationship between vitamins and vascular function, in particularly, angiogenesis (1). The various functions of vitamin B₆ on endothelial cells, DNA topoisomerase and embryonic stem cell differentiation (2,3) led us to investigate whether other

vitamins have anti-angiogenic activity. It has been demonstrated so far that some vitamins, including D₃, E and K₂, and their derivatives, have anti-angiogenic activity (4-7). We have found that vitamin B₆ not only inhibits angiogenesis but also DNA topoisomerase (2), and that anti-angiogenic agents strongly inhibit DNA polymerase (8,9).

DNA polymerases are indispensable for maintaining the integrity of the genome, both through faithful replication of DNA and by repairing damage to DNA. Among the 16 highly specialized mammalian polymerases, 15 are involved in maintaining nuclear genetic information (10,11). Replication and maintenance of the mitochondrial genome relies on a unique polymerase, DNA polymerase γ (11). DNA polymerase γ is responsible for all aspects of mtDNA synthesis, including all replication, recombination of the mitochondrial genome, and repair of mtDNA damage.

Angiogenesis and DNA polymerase are critical targets for anti-cancer drug development, and an agent inhibiting both activities would be a potent anti-cancer agent or a good model for anti-cancer drug design. Thus, we screened low-molecular weight compounds, which have both anti-angiogenic and DNA polymerase inhibitory activities. Notably, vitamin K₃, a synthetic vitamin K, showed strong anti-angiogenic activity and inhibited DNA polymerase γ activity. In this study, we demonstrated the effects of vitamin K₃ on angiogenesis and DNA polymerase activity.

Materials and methods

Materials. Vitamin K₁ (phylloquinone), K₂ (menaquinones) and K₃ (menadione) were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich, Inc. (St. Louis, MO, USA). The chemical structures of vitamin K compounds are shown in Fig. 1. Nucleotides and chemically synthesized DNA template-primers such as poly(dA), poly(rA), and oligo(dT)₁₂₋₁₈ and [³H]-dTTP (deoxythymidine 5'-triphosphate, 43 Ci/mmol) were purchased from GE Healthcare Bio-Sciences (Little Chalfont, Buckinghamshire, UK). Human recombinant vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) was obtained from R&D Systems (MN, USA). Other reagents were of special grade as commercially available.

Correspondence to: Dr K. Matsubara, Department of Human Life Sciences Education, Graduate School of Education, Hiroshima University, Higashi-Hiroshima, Hiroshima 739-8524, Japan
E-mail: kmatsuba@hiroshima-u.ac.jp

Abbreviations: HUVEC, human umbilical vein endothelial cell; VEGF, vascular endothelial growth factor

Key words: angiogenesis, aortic ring, endothelial cells, vitamin K₃

Enzymes. DNA polymerase α was purified from calf thymus by immunoaffinity column chromatography as described by Tamai *et al.* (12). Recombinant rat DNA polymerase β was purified from *E. coli* JMp β 5 as described by Date *et al.* (13). The human DNA polymerase γ catalytic gene was cloned into pFastBac. Histidine-tagged enzyme was expressed using the Bac-to-Bac HT Baculovirus Expression System according to the supplier's instructions (Life Technologies, MD, USA) and purified using ProBoundresin (Invitrogen Japan, Tokyo, Japan) (14). Human DNA polymerases δ and ϵ were purified by the nuclear fractionation of human peripheral blood cancer cells (Molt-4) using the second subunit of polymerases δ and ϵ -conjugated affinity column chromatography, respectively (15). Recombinant human DNA polymerases η and ι tagged with His6 at their C-terminal, were expressed in SF9 insect cells using the baculovirus expression system, and were purified as described previously (16,17). A truncated form of DNA polymerase κ (i.e., hDINB1DC) with 6xHis-tags attached at the C-terminal, was overproduced using the Bac-to-Bac Baculovirus Expression System kit (Gibco BRL) and purified as described previously (18). Recombinant human His-DNA polymerase λ was overexpressed and purified according to a method described previously (19). Fish DNA polymerases α and δ were purified from the testis of cherry salmon (*Oncorhynchus masou*) (20). Fruit fly DNA polymerases α , δ and ϵ were purified from the early embryos of *Drosophila melanogaster* as described previously (21,22). DNA polymerase α from a higher plant, cauliflower inflorescence, was purified according to the methods outlined by Sakaguchi *et al.* (23). Recombinant rice (*Oryza sativa* L. cv. Nipponbare) His-DNA polymerase λ was overexpressed and purified according to a method described previously (24). Human immunodeficiency virus type-1 (HIV-1) reverse transcriptase (recombinant) and the Klenow fragment of DNA polymerase I from *E. coli* were purchased from Worthington Biochemical Corp. (Freehold, NJ, USA). Taq DNA polymerase, T4 DNA polymerase, T7 RNA polymerase and T4 polynucleotide kinase were purchased from Takara (Kyoto, Japan). Calf thymus terminal deoxynucleotidyl transferase and bovine pancreas deoxyribonuclease I were obtained from Stratagene Cloning Systems (La Jolla, CA, USA).

DNA polymerase assays. The reaction mixtures for DNA polymerases α and β , plant polymerases and prokaryotic DNA polymerases have been described previously (25,26). Those for DNA polymerase γ , and polymerases δ and ϵ were as described by Umeda *et al.* (14) and Ogawa *et al.* (27), respectively. The reaction mixtures for DNA polymerases η , ι and κ were the same as that for polymerase α , and the reaction mixture for DNA polymerase λ was the same as that for polymerase α . For DNA polymerases (i.e., DNA-dependent DNA polymerases), poly(dA)/oligo(dT)₁₂₋₁₈ (A/T = 2/1) and dTTP were used as the DNA template-primer and nucleotide (i.e., deoxyribonucleotide 5'-triphosphates, dNTP) substrate, respectively. For HIV-1 reverse transcriptase (i.e., RNA-dependent DNA polymerase), poly(rA)/oligo(dT)₁₂₋₁₈ (A/T = 2/1) and dTTP were used as the template-primer and nucleotide substrate, respectively. For terminal deoxynucleotidyl transferase, oligo(dT)₁₂₋₁₈ (3'-OH) and dTTP were

used as the DNA template-primer and nucleotide substrate, respectively.

Vitamin K compounds were dissolved in distilled dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) at various concentrations and sonicated for 30 sec. Aliquots of 4 μ l of sonicated samples were mixed with 16 μ l of each enzyme (final amount 0.05 units) in 50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5) containing 1 mM dithiothreitol, 50% glycerol and 0.1 mM EDTA, and kept at 0°C for 10 min. These inhibitor-enzyme mixtures (8 μ l) were added to 16 μ l of each of the enzyme standard reaction mixtures, and incubation was carried out at 37°C for 60 min, except for Taq DNA polymerase which was incubated at 74°C for 60 min. Activity without the inhibitor was considered 100%, and the remaining activity at each concentration of the inhibitor was determined relative to this value. One unit of polymerase activity was defined as the amount of enzyme that catalyzed the incorporation of 1 nmol of dNTP (i.e., dTTP) into synthetic DNA template-primers in 60 min at 37°C under the normal reaction conditions for each enzyme (25,26).

Other enzyme assays. The DNA primase activity of DNA polymerase α , the activities of T7 RNA polymerase, T4 polynucleotide kinase and bovine deoxyribonuclease I were measured in standard assays according to the manufacturer's specifications as described by Tamiya-Koizumi *et al.* (28), Nakayama and Saneyoshi (29), Soltis and Uhlenbeck (30), and Lu and Sakaguchi (31), respectively.

Ex vivo angiogenesis assay. Male Wistar rats (6 weeks old, Charles River Laboratories, Kanagawa, Japan) were housed in metal cages in a room with controlled temperature (24 \pm 1°C) and a 12-h light/dark cycle (lights on, 08:00-20:00). They had free access to diets and deionized water. The rats were maintained according to the 'Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals' established by Hiroshima University. The *ex vivo* angiogenesis assay was performed according to slightly modified methods as described before (32,33). Briefly, a male Wistar rat (body weight ~200 g) was sacrificed by bleeding from the right femoral artery under anesthesia with diethyl ether. A thoracic aorta was removed and washed with RPMI-1640 medium (Gibco, New York, USA) to avoid contamination with blood. It was then turned inside out, and cut into short segments of about 1-1.5 mm. Collagen gel (gel matrix solution) was made with 8 volumes of porcine tendon collagen solution (3 mg/ml) (Cellmatrix Ia, Nitta Gelatin Co., Osaka, Japan), 1 volume of 10X Eagle's MEM (Gibco), 1 volume of reconstitution buffer (0.08 M NaOH and 200 mM HEPES). These solutions were mixed gently at 4°C. Each aortic segment was placed in the center of a well on a 6-well culture plate and covered with 0.5 ml of gel matrix solution reconstituted as described. The solution was allowed to gel at 37°C for 20 min. Culture medium [RPMI-1640 medium containing 1% of ITS+ (Becton Dickinson Labware, MA, USA)] with various concentration of vitamin K or vehicle (DMSO) was prepared as described above. The collagen gel was then overlaid with 2 ml of culture medium. Incubation was carried out for 10 days in a fully humidified system of 5% CO₂ in air at 37°C. The medium was changed on day 7 of the culture. An estimation of the length of the capillary was performed under phase-contrast microscopy by measuring

the distance from the cut end of the aortic segment to the approximate mean point of the capillary. Microscopic fields were photographed with a digital camera (Olympus DSE330-A System). The length of the capillary was measured using Adobe Photoshop software. Each reported value represents the average of culture samples.

Endothelial cells. Human umbilical vein endothelial cells (HUVECs) were purchased from Kurabo Industries (Osaka, Japan). Cells were grown in the medium, HuMedia EG-2 (Kurabo Industries, Osaka, Japan), which was modified MCDB 131 medium containing 2% fetal bovine serum (FBS), 10 ng/ml recombinant human epidermal growth factor (EGF), 1 μ g/ml hydrocortisone, 50 μ g/ml gentamicin, 50 ng/ml amphotericin B, 5 ng/ml recombinant human basic fibroblast growth factor (bFGF) and 10 μ g/ml heparin, at 37°C in humidified 5% CO₂. Subcultures were obtained by treating the HUVEC cultures with 0.025% trypsin-0.01% EDTA solution. HUVECs at passage three to seven were used in this experiment.

HUVEC tube formation assay. Tube formation assay was performed using BD Matrigel™ (Becton Dickinson and Company, Tokyo, Japan). Briefly, solid gels were prepared according to the manufacturer's instructions on a 96-well tissue culture plate. HUVECs (1x10⁵ cells/ml) in HuMedia EG-2 medium containing vitamin K₃ or vehicle (DMSO) were seeded 100 μ l/well onto the surface of the solid gel, BD Matrigel. The cells were incubated for 12 h at 37°C in a CO₂ incubator. Tube formation was observed under an inverted light microscope at 40x magnification. Microscopic fields were photographed with a digital camera (Olympus DSE330-A System). The total length of tube structures in each photograph was measured using Adobe Photoshop software. Each reported value represents the average of three samples.

HUVEC proliferation assay. For HUVEC proliferation assay, HUVEC were dispersed with trypsin and suspended in HuMedia EG-2 medium. A cell suspension (15,000 cells/ml) was plated onto 96-well culture plates (100 μ l/well), and incubated at 37°C in a humidified 5% CO₂ for 24 h. The medium was replaced with fresh HuMedia EG-2 containing vitamin K₃. After 72 h, 10 μ l of WST-1 reagent was added into each well of a 96-well plate and incubated for 4 h at 37°C. The absorbance at 450 nm was measured using a microplate spectrophotometer.

HUVEC chemotaxis assay. This was carried out by a modified Boyden chamber assay (34). The microporous membranes (8 μ m) of 24-well cell culture inserts (BD Biosciences, MA, USA) were coated with 0.1% gelatin. HUVECs were detached with cell dissociation buffer (Invitrogen Corp., Carlsbad, CA, USA), collected by centrifugation, re-suspended in Medium 199 (Invitrogen) with 0.1% bovine serum albumin (BSA), and seeded in triplicate in the chamber (1.0x10⁵ cells/400 μ l). The well was filled with 400 μ l of Medium 199 containing 0.1% BSA and 10 ng/ml of VEGF with or without vitamin K₃. The assembled chamber was incubated for 6 h at 37°C in humidified 5% CO₂. Non-migrated cells on the upper surface of the membrane were removed by scrubbing with a cotton

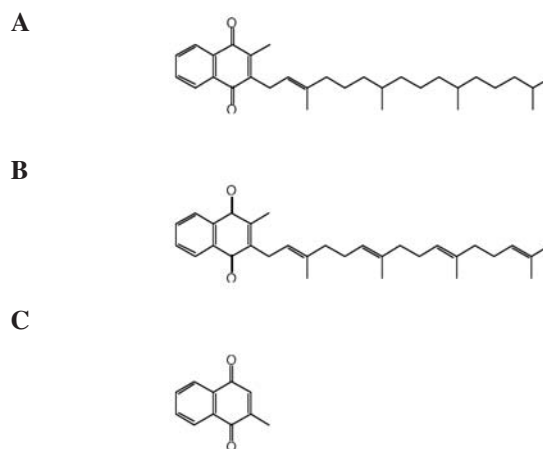


Figure 1. Chemical structures of vitamin K compounds. (A) Vitamin K₁, (B) vitamin K₂ and (C) vitamin K₃.

swab. The cells on the lower surface of the membrane were fixed with methanol, and stained with Diff-Quik™ stain. Migrated cells were counted in five fields of each membrane under a microscope at 200x magnification, and the average number in a field was calculated. The experiments were performed in triplicate.

Statistical analysis. Values are presented as means \pm SEM. Data were analyzed by one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). Differences of $p < 0.05$ were considered significant.

Results

Effects of vitamin K compounds on DNA polymerase activities. First, the inhibition of the activities of mammalian DNA polymerases by vitamin K compounds was investigated (Fig. 2). In the three vitamin Ks (i.e., K₁, K₂ and K₃) tested, 100 μ M of vitamin K₃ indicated DNA polymerase γ inhibitory activity, but the same concentration of vitamins K₁ and K₂ did not influence the activity of any DNA polymerases tested including polymerase γ . Vitamin K₃ selectively and dose-dependently inhibited DNA polymerase γ activity, with 50% inhibition observed at doses of 6.0 μ M. DNA polymerase γ is the sole polymerase in animal mitochondria. Biochemical and genetic evidence document a key role for polymerase γ in mitochondrial DNA replication, whereas DNA repair and recombination were thought to be limited or absent in animal mitochondria (35). This compound had not influenced the activities of other mammalian polymerases such as α , β , δ , ϵ , η , ι , κ and λ at all. When activated DNA (i.e., DNA digested by bovine deoxyribonuclease I) was used as the template-primer, the mode of inhibition by these compounds did not change (data not shown). These results suggested that longer isoprenoid chains of the benzquinone ring in vitamin K (Fig. 1) weaken the inhibitory effect on DNA polymerase γ .

All vitamin K compounds had no inhibitory effect on fish (i.e., cherry salmon) DNA polymerases α and δ , insect (i.e., fruit fly) polymerases α , δ and ϵ , plant (i.e., cauliflower and rice) DNA polymerases α and λ , or prokaryotic DNA polymerases, such as the Klenow fragment of *E. coli* polymerase I, Taq DNA polymerase and T4 DNA polymerase (Table I).

Table I. IC₅₀ values of vitamin K compounds for the activities of various DNA polymerases and other DNA metabolic enzymes.

Enzyme	IC ₅₀ values (μM)		
	K1	K2	K3
Mammalian DNA polymerases			
Calf DNA polymerase α	>200	>200	>200
Rat DNA polymerase β	>200	>200	>200
Human DNA polymerase γ	>200	>200	6.0±0.3
Human DNA polymerase δ	>200	>200	>200
Human DNA polymerase ε	>200	>200	>200
Human DNA polymerase η	>200	>200	>200
Human DNA polymerase ι	>200	>200	>200
Human DNA polymerase κ	>200	>200	>200
Human DNA polymerase λ	>200	>200	>200
Fish DNA polymerases			
Cherry salmon DNA polymerase α	>200	>200	>200
Cherry salmon DNA polymerase δ	>200	>200	>200
Insect DNA polymerases			
Fruit fly DNA polymerase α	>200	>200	>200
Fruit fly DNA polymerase δ	>200	>200	>200
Fruit fly DNA polymerase ε	>200	>200	>200
Plant DNA polymerases			
Cauliflower DNA polymerase α	>200	>200	>200
Rice DNA polymerase λ	>200	>200	>200
Prokaryotic DNA polymerases			
<i>E. coli</i> DNA polymerase I (Klenow fragment)	>200	>200	>200
Taq DNA polymerase	>200	>200	>200
T4 DNA polymerase	>200	>200	>200
Other DNA metabolic enzymes			
Calf Primase of DNA polymerase α	>200	>200	>200
Calf terminal deoxynucleotidyl transferase	>200	>200	>200
HIV-1 Reverse transcriptase	>200	>200	>200
T7 RNA polymerase	>200	>200	>200
T4 Polynucleotide kinase	>200	>200	>200
Bovine deoxyribonuclease I	>200	>200	>200

These compounds were incubated with each enzyme (0.05 units). Enzymatic activity was measured as described in Materials and methods. Enzyme activity in the absence of the compound was taken as 100%. Data are expressed as the mean ± SEM; n=3.

Inhibitory effect of vitamin K compounds on the activities of other DNA metabolic enzymes. Vitamin K compounds did not inhibit the activities of other DNA-metabolic enzymes, such as calf primase of DNA polymerase α, calf terminal deoxynucleotidyl transferase, HIV-1 reverse transcriptase, T7 RNA polymerase, T4 polynucleotide kinase and bovine deoxyribonuclease I (Table I). These results may suggest that vitamin K₃ selectively inhibits the activity of mitochondrial

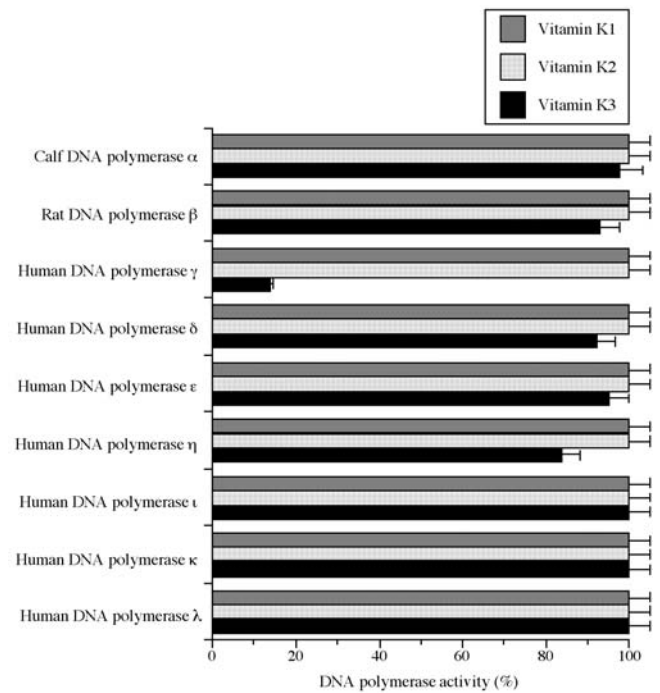


Figure 2. Effect of vitamin K compounds on the activities of mammalian DNA polymerases. Each vitamin K compound (100 μM) was incubated with each DNA polymerase (0.05 units). The DNA polymerase activities were measured as described in the text. Enzymatic activity in the absence of the compound was taken as 100%. Data are expressed as the mean ± SEM for four independent experiments.

DNA polymerase γ in the polymerases and DNA metabolic enzymes tested.

We would, however, like to emphasize here that vitamin K₃ at first intercalates into the DNA molecule as the substrate (i.e., DNA template-primer), and subsequently inhibits both activities indirectly through the induction of a conformational change in the DNA. This compound effected no thermal transition of melting temperature (data not shown), thus, no vitamin K₃ bound to the double stranded DNA, suggesting that this must inhibit enzyme activities by interacting with DNA polymerase γ directly. We then investigated whether an excessive amount of poly(rC) or bovine serum albumin (BSA) prevented the inhibitory effect of vitamin K₃ to determine whether the effect resulted from their non-specific adhesion to DNA polymerase γ, or selective binding to specific sites. Poly(rC) and BSA had little or no influence on the effect of vitamin K₃, suggesting that the binding to DNA polymerase γ occurs selectively.

Effects of vitamin K compounds on ex vivo angiogenesis. An anti-angiogenic effect of vitamin K₂ has been reported by Yoshiji *et al* (7). Thus, we examined the effect of vitamin K compounds in a rat aortic ring assay. In this angiogenesis assay model, vitamin K₃ also showed strong anti-angiogenic activity (Fig. 3A). However, vitamin K₁ had no inhibitory effect on angiogenesis (data not shown). Vitamin K₃ significantly inhibited angiogenesis in this model at more than 25 μM (Fig. 3B)

Effect of vitamin K₃ on HUVEC functions. The effect of vitamin K₃ was examined in an *in vitro* angiogenesis model

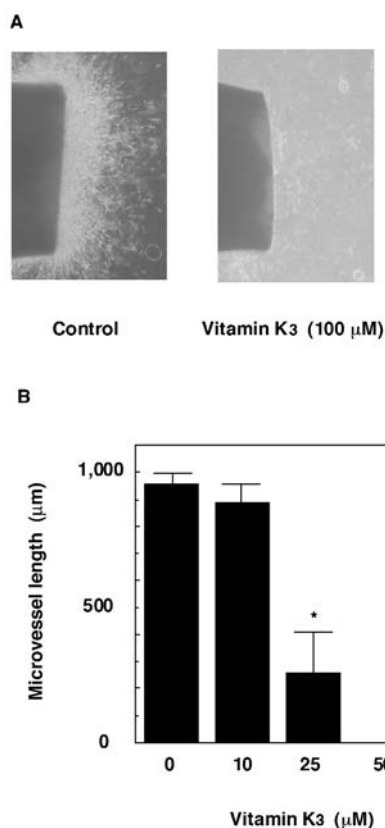


Figure 3. Effect of vitamin K₃ on *ex vivo* angiogenesis using a rat aortic ring. (A) Representative result of the inhibitory effect of vitamin K₃ (100 μM). (B) Microvessel length was measured on day 7 of culture. Values are means ± SEM (n=6-12). *Significantly different from control (p<0.01).

using HUVECs. HUVECs inoculated on reconstituted basement membrane (Matrigel) migrated, then attached to each other, and finally formed tube structures (Fig. 4A). Vitamin K₃ suppressed HUVEC tube formation significantly at 25 μM and completely inhibited it at 50 μM (Fig. 4A and B). This result was consistent with that in an aortic ring assay.

As many angiogenesis inhibitors suppress endothelial cell proliferation, we examined the effect of vitamin K₃ on HUVEC proliferation. HUVECs were treated for 72 h with various concentrations of vitamin K₃. Significant differences (p<0.05) were found between control and vitamin K₃-treated HUVECs (5-25 μM) (Fig. 5).

Finally, the effect of vitamin K₃ on HUVEC migration stimulated with VEGF was examined on gelatin-coated Boyden chambers. VEGF strongly stimulated HUVEC migration as shown in Fig. 5. HUVEC migration stimulated with VEGF was moderately inhibited by vitamin K₃ (Fig. 6).

Discussion

Vitamin K₃ (menadione) is 2-methyl-1,4-naphthoquinone and vitamins K₁ (phyloquinone) and K₂ (menaquinones) are polyisoprenoid-substituted naphthoquinones. Vitamin K₃ is not found naturally, but is converted to vitamin K₂ *in vivo*. The functions of these vitamins in cellular reactions are as well known as those of other vitamins. Vitamin K is a co-factor of γ-glutamylcarboxylase, which converts glutamic acid residues of blood coagulation factors and bone matrix

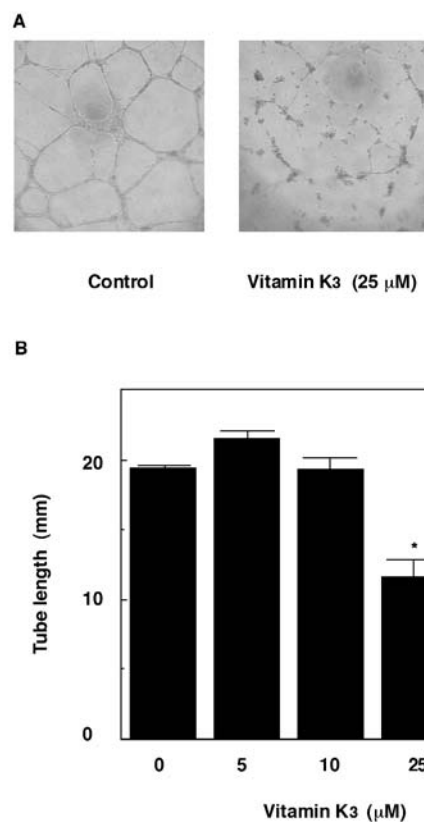


Figure 4. Effect of vitamin K₃ on HUVEC tube formation on reconstituted basement membrane. (A) Cells were plated on reconstituted gel and observed after 12 h. (B) Capillary length was measured, and values are means ± SEM (n=3). *Significantly different from control (p<0.01).

proteins (36,37). Recent studies show that vitamin K₂ functions as an anti-cancer agent, in particular, for hepatic cancer (7,38-41). However, the anti-cancer mechanism of vitamin K₂ on hepatic cancer has not yet been elucidated.

In our study, we demonstrated that vitamin K₃ selectively inhibits DNA polymerase γ and suppresses angiogenesis in some models. Although an anti-angiogenic effect of vitamin K₂ has been demonstrated (7), an inhibitory effect of vitamin K₃ on DNA polymerase would be a novel finding for vitamin K compounds. In addition, vitamin K₃ selectively inhibits DNA polymerase γ, which is a mitochondrial DNA polymerase. We previously reported that coenzyme Q, which is an isoprenoid quinone in the mitochondrial respiratory chain, selectively inhibited both DNA polymerase γ and DNA topoisomerase II and suppressed human cancer cell growth (42). Similarly, vitamin K₃ could be useful for cancer treatment or for the design of a new anti-cancer drug.

As a new function of vitamin K₃, we found that it inhibited angiogenesis. Angiogenesis is a process forming new blood vessels, and the growth of many solid tumors depends on it (43). Thus, an anti-angiogenic activity of vitamin K₃ inhibiting DNA polymerase γ may contribute to its function as an anti-cancer agent. In addition, anti-angiogenic activity of vitamins including D₃, B₆, K₂ and vitamin E derivative has been reported so far (1,4,7,41,44) and has attracted attention with regard to cancer prevention and treatment, as vitamins are relatively safe agents without side effects compared to anti-cancer drugs. Although vitamin K₃ is a

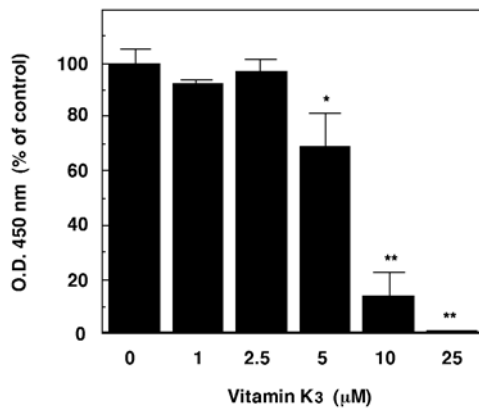


Figure 5. Effect of vitamin K3 on HUVEC proliferation. Values are means \pm SEM (n=3). Significantly different from control: *p<0.05, **p<0.01.

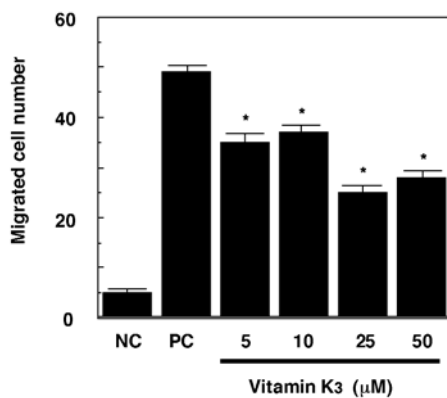


Figure 6. Effect of vitamin K3 on HUVEC chemotaxis. HUVECs migrated after a 6-h incubation to the lower surface of the filter were counted in five 200x filter fields. Means of a field of three filters \pm SEM (n=3) are shown. NC, medium without VEGF and vitamin K3 (negative control); PC, VEGF containing medium without vitamin K3 (positive control). *Significantly different from control (p<0.01).

synthetic vitamin, it is converted to vitamin K₂, which has anti-angiogenic activity but no effect on DNA polymerase γ and is used in clinical treatment. Therefore, vitamin K₃ could be used for such a purpose.

We have noted that most of these vitamins and derivative affect DNA polymerases and angiogenesis (1,2,4-7,44-46), which led us to consider the usefulness of vitamins inhibiting both DNA polymerases and angiogenesis to prevent and treat cancer. Proper consumption of these vitamins could reduce the risk of cancer.

Acknowledgements

This work was supported by the 'Academic Frontier' Project for Private Universities (Kobe-Gakuin University), matching fund subsidy from MEXT, 2006-2010, (K.M., H.Y. and Y.M.) and in part by a grant from the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT). K.M. acknowledges a Grant-in-Aid for Young Scientists (B) (No. 18700608) from MEXT. Y.M. also acknowledges a Grant-in-Aid for Young Scientists (A) (No. 19680031) from MEXT, and Grants-in-Aid from the Nakashima Foundation and the Foundation of Oil & Fat Industry, Kaikan, Japan.

References

- Matsubara K, Mori M, Matsuura Y and Kato N: Pyridoxal 5'-phosphate and pyridoxal inhibit angiogenesis in serum-free rat aortic ring assay. *Int J Mol Med* 8: 505-508, 2001.
- Matsubara K, Matsumoto H, Mizushima Y, Lee JS and Kato N: Inhibitory effect of pyridoxal 5'-phosphate on endothelial cell proliferation, replicative DNA polymerase and DNA topoisomerase. *Int J Mol Med* 12: 51-55, 2003.
- Matsubara K, Mori M, Akagi R and Kato N: Anti-angiogenic effect of pyridoxal 5'-phosphate, pyridoxal and pyridoxamine on embryoid bodies derived from mouse embryonic stem cells. *Int J Mol Med* 14: 819-823, 2004.
- Mantell DJ, Owens PE, Bundred NJ, Mawer EB and Canfield AE: 1 α ,25-dihydroxyvitamin D(3) inhibits angiogenesis in vitro and in vivo. *Circ Res* 87: 214-220, 2000.
- Shklar G and Schwartz JL: Vitamin E inhibits experimental carcinogenesis and tumour angiogenesis. *Eur J Cancer B Oral Oncol* 32: 114-119, 1996.
- Inokuchi H, Hirokane H, Tsuzuki T, Nakagawa K, Igarashi M and Miyazawa T: Anti-angiogenic activity of tocotrienol. *Biosci Biotechnol Biochem* 67: 1623-1627, 2003.
- Yoshiji H, Kuriyama S, Noguchi R, *et al.*: Combination of vitamin K₂ and the angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitor, perindopril, attenuates the liver enzyme-altered preneoplastic lesions in rats via angiogenesis suppression. *J Hepatol* 42: 687-693, 2005.
- Matsubara K, Saito A, Tanaka A, *et al.*: Catechin conjugated with fatty acid inhibits DNA polymerase and angiogenesis. *DNA Cell Biol* 25: 95-103, 2006.
- Matsubara K, Saito A, Tanaka A, *et al.*: Epicatechin conjugated with fatty acid is a potent inhibitor of DNA polymerase and angiogenesis. *Life Sci* 80: 1578-1585, 2007.
- Bebenek K and Kunkel TA: Functions of DNA polymerases. *Adv Protein Chem* 69: 137-165, 2004.
- Friedberg EC, Feaver WJ and Gerlach VL: The many faces of DNA polymerases: strategies for mutagenesis and for mutational avoidance. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 97: 5681-5683, 2000.
- Tamai K, Kojima K, Hanaichi T, *et al.*: Structural study of immunoaffinity-purified DNA polymerase alpha-DNA primase complex from calf thymus. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 950: 263-273, 1988.
- Date T, Yamaguchi M, Hirose F, Nishimoto Y, Tanihara K and Matsukage A: Expression of active rat DNA polymerase beta in *Escherichia coli*. *Biochemistry* 27: 2983-2990, 1988.
- Umeda S, Muta T, Ohsato T, Takamatsu C, Hamasaki N and Kang D: The D-loop structure of human mtDNA is destabilized directly by 1-methyl-4-phenylpyridinium ion (MPP⁺), a parkinsonism-causing toxin. *Eur J Biochem* 267: 200-206, 2000.
- Oshige M, Takeuchi R, Ruike T, Kuroda K and Sakaguchi K: Subunit protein-affinity isolation of *Drosophila* DNA polymerase catalytic subunit. *Protein Expr Purif* 35: 248-256, 2004.
- Masutani C, Kusumoto R, Iwai S and Hanaoka F: Mechanisms of accurate translesion synthesis by human DNA polymerase ϵ . *EMBO J* 19: 3100-3109, 2000.
- Tissier A, Frank EG, McDonald JP, Iwai S, Hanaoka F and Woodgate R: Misinsertion and bypass of thymine-thymine dimers by human DNA polymerase ι . *EMBO J* 19: 5259-5266, 2000.
- Ohashi E, Ogi T, Kusumoto R, *et al.*: Error-prone bypass of certain DNA lesions by the human DNA polymerase κ . *Genes Dev* 14: 1589-1594, 2000.
- Shimazaki N, Yoshida K, Kobayashi T, Toji S, Tamai K and Koizumi O: Over-expression of human DNA polymerase λ in *E. coli* and characterization of the recombinant enzyme. *Genes Cells* 7: 639-651, 2002.
- Tomikawa A, Seno M, Sato-Kiyotaki K, *et al.*: Synthetic nucleosides and nucleotides. 40. Selective inhibition of eukaryotic DNA polymerase α by 9-(β -D-arabinofuranosyl)-2-(*p*-*n*-butylanilino)adenine 5'-triphosphate (BuAaraATP) and its 2'-up azido analog: synthesis and enzymatic evaluations. *Nucleosides Nucleotides* 17: 487-501, 1998.
- Aoyagi N, Matsuoka S, Furunobu A, Matsukage A and Sakaguchi K: *Drosophila* DNA polymerase δ . Purification and characterization. *J Biol Chem* 269: 6045-6050, 1994.
- Aoyagi N, Oshige M, Hirose F, Kuroda K, Matsukage A and Sakaguchi K: DNA polymerase ϵ from *Drosophila melanogaster*. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* 230: 297-301, 1997.
- Sakaguchi K, Hotta Y and Stern H: Chromatin-associated DNA polymerase activity in meiotic cells of lily and mouse; its stimulation by meiotic helix-destabilizing protein. *Cell Struct Funct* 5: 323-334, 1980.

24. Uchiyama Y, Kimura S, Yamamoto T, Ishibashi T and Sakaguchi K: Plant DNA polymerase lambda, a DNA repair enzyme that functions in plant meristematic and meiotic tissues. *Eur J Biochem* 271: 2799-2807, 2004.
25. Mizushina Y, Tanaka N, Yagi H, *et al*: Fatty acids selectively inhibit eukaryotic DNA polymerase activities in vitro. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1308: 256-262, 1996.
26. Mizushina Y, Yoshida S, Matsukage A and Sakaguchi K: The inhibitory action of fatty acids on DNA polymerase beta. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1336: 509-521, 1997.
27. Ogawa A, Murate T, Suzuki M, Nimura Y and Yoshida S: Lithocholic acid, a putative tumor promoter, inhibits mammalian DNA polymerase beta. *Jpn J Cancer Res* 89: 1154-1159, 1998.
28. Tamiya-Koizumi K, Murate T, Suzuki M, *et al*: Inhibition of DNA primase by sphingosine and its analogues parallels with their growth suppression of cultured human leukemic cells. *Biochem Mol Biol Int* 41: 1179-1189, 1997.
29. Nakayama C and Saneyoshi M: Inhibitory effects of 9-beta-D-xylofuranosyladenine 5'-triphosphate on DNA-dependent RNA polymerase I and II from cherry salmon (*Oncorhynchus masou*). *J Biochem* 97: 1385-1389, 1985.
30. Soltis DA and Uhlenbeck OC: Isolation and characterization of two mutant forms of T4 polynucleotide kinase. *J Biol Chem* 257: 11332-11339, 1982.
31. Lu BC and Sakaguchi K: An endo-exonuclease from meiotic tissues of the basidiomycete *Coprinus cinereus*. Its purification and characterization. *J Biol Chem* 266: 21060-21066, 1991.
32. Mori M, Sadahira Y, Kawasaki S, Hayashi T, Notohara K and Awai M: Capillary growth from reversed rat aortic segments cultured in collagen gel. *Acta Pathol Jpn* 38: 1503-1512, 1988.
33. Kawasaki S, Mori M and Awai M: Capillary growth of rat aortic segments cultured in collagen gel without serum. *Acta Pathol Jpn* 39: 712-718, 1989.
34. Kim KS, Hong YK, Joe YA, *et al*: Anti-angiogenic activity of the recombinant kringle domain of urokinase and its specific entry into endothelial cells. *J Biol Chem* 278: 11449-11456, 2003.
35. Kaguni LS: DNA polymerase gamma, the mitochondrial replicase. *Annu Rev Biochem* 73: 293-320, 2004.
36. Berkner KL and Runge KW: The physiology of vitamin K nutrition and vitamin K-dependent protein function in atherosclerosis. *J Thromb Haemost* 2: 2118-2132, 2004.
37. Koshihara Y and Hoshi K: Vitamin K2 enhances osteocalcin accumulation in the extracellular matrix of human osteoblasts in vitro. *J Bone Miner Res* 12: 431-438, 1997.
38. Kanamori T, Shimizu M, Okuno M, *et al*: Synergistic growth inhibition by acyclic retinoid and vitamin K2 in human hepatocellular carcinoma cells. *Cancer Sci* 98: 431-437, 2007.
39. Habu D, Shiomi S, Tamori A, *et al*: Role of vitamin K2 in the development of hepatocellular carcinoma in women with viral cirrhosis of the liver. *JAMA* 292: 358-361, 2004.
40. Otsuka M, Kato N, Shao RX, *et al*: Vitamin K2 inhibits the growth and invasiveness of hepatocellular carcinoma cells via protein kinase A activation. *Hepatology* 40: 243-251, 2004.
41. Yoshiji H, Kuriyama S, Noguchi R, *et al*: Amelioration of carcinogenesis and tumor growth in the rat liver by combination of vitamin K2 and angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitor via anti-angiogenic activities. *Oncol Rep* 15: 155-159, 2006.
42. Yonezawa Y, Kuriyama I, Fukuoh A, *et al*: Inhibitory effect of coenzyme Q on eukaryotic DNA polymerase gamma and DNA topoisomerase II activities on the growth of a human cancer cell line. *Cancer Sci* 97: 716-723, 2006.
43. Folkman J: Angiogenesis in cancer, vascular, rheumatoid and other disease. *Nat Med* 1: 27-31, 1995.
44. Mizushina Y, Nakagawa K, Shibata A, *et al*: Inhibitory effect of tocotrienol on eukaryotic DNA polymerase lambda and angiogenesis. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* 339: 949-955, 2006.
45. Mizushina Y, Xu X, Murakami C, *et al*: Selective inhibition of mammalian DNA polymerase alpha by vitamin D2 and D3. *J Pharmacol Sci* 92: 283-290, 2003.
46. Mizushina Y, Xu X, Matsubara K, *et al*: Pyridoxal 5'-phosphate is a selective inhibitor in vivo of DNA polymerase alpha and epsilon. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* 312: 1025-1032, 2003.