

**COMPARISON OF ANTITUMOR ACTIVITY OF VITAMINS K<sub>1</sub>, K<sub>2</sub> AND K<sub>3</sub> ON HUMAN  
TUMOR CELLS BY TWO (MTT AND SRB) CELL VIABILITY ASSAYS**

Felicia Y.-H. Wu, Wei-Chen Liao and Hui-Min Chang

Cancer Research Group, Institute of Biomedical Sciences,  
Academia Sinica, Taipei 11529, Taiwan, R.O.C.

(Received in final form March 19, 1993)

Summary

Vitamin K (VK) congeners (VK<sub>1</sub>, VK<sub>2</sub>, and VK<sub>3</sub>) have been used as antihemorrhagic agents, while VK<sub>3</sub> has also been found to inhibit growth in various rodent and human tumor cells. We have compared the antitumor activities of vitamin K<sub>1</sub>, K<sub>2</sub>, and K<sub>3</sub> against a panel of human cancer cell lines. For each test agent, a dose-response profile was generated by using an MTT (3-(4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide) and an SRB (sulforhodamine B) assay. Both assays yielded similar results. The respective ID<sub>50</sub> values of VK<sub>3</sub> in five hepatoma cell lines, HA59T, HA22T, PLC, HepG2, and Hep3B, of increasing differentiation state, were 42, 36, 28, 27, and 20 μM. For nasopharyngeal carcinoma (CG1), leukemia (U937), oral epidermoid carcinoma (KB), and breast carcinoma (BC-M1) cells, the ID<sub>50</sub> values of VK<sub>3</sub> were 26, 15, 25, and 33 μM, respectively. For all the above cells, the ID<sub>50</sub> values of VK<sub>1</sub> ranged from 6 to 9 mM, and the ID<sub>50</sub> values of VK<sub>2</sub> ranged from 1 to 2 mM. Thus, the relative potencies of antitumor activity of VK<sub>3</sub> compared to VK<sub>2</sub> and to VK<sub>1</sub> are about 60- and 300-fold, respectively. These results support the preference for use of VK<sub>3</sub> over VK<sub>1</sub> and VK<sub>2</sub> in cancer therapy.

Vitamin K (VK) is a generic term for a homologous group of fat-soluble vitamins which promote blood clotting by increasing prothrombin synthesis in the liver. There are at least three such vitamins: vitamin K<sub>1</sub> (phytonadione), vitamin K<sub>2</sub> (menaquinone), and vitamin K<sub>3</sub> (menadiolone). Although all vitamin K naphthoquinones share certain biochemical properties and can serve as electron acceptors for mammalian redox enzymes, their differences in

---

Corresponding author: Dr. Felicia Y.-H. Wu, Cancer Research Group,  
Institute of Biomedical Sciences, Academia Sinica, Taipei 11529,  
Taiwan, R.O.C. TEL:886-2-789-9012 Fax:886-2-782-5573

prosthetic group substitution impart them with important biochemical and physiologic differences.

VK<sub>3</sub> (menadione, 2-methyl-1,4-naphthoquinone) is a synthetic derivative of the naturally occurring VK<sub>1</sub> and VK<sub>2</sub>. Compounds with a quinone structure have played a prominent role in cancer chemotherapy, particularly the anthracyclic quinones doxorubicin and daunorubicin. The antitumor activity of VK<sub>3</sub> was first evaluated by Mitchell *et al.* in 1965 [1] as a radiation sensitizer and later as a targeting agent for the delivery of radioisotope. Inhibition of tumor cell growth by VK<sub>3</sub> in a wide variety of rodent and human tumor cell types has been recognized more recently by other investigators [2] and our group [3-6]. Although, many possible mechanisms of action have been proposed, the exact mechanism by which VK<sub>3</sub> acts as an antineoplastic agent is still not well understood. Moreover, there is a paucity of information regarding VK congeners in the literature. VK<sub>1</sub> and VK<sub>3</sub> have been reported to be inhibitors of DNA synthesis in malignant cells [2].

Therefore, we have evaluated the anticancer activity of VK<sub>1</sub>, VK<sub>2</sub>, and VK<sub>3</sub> on various disease-oriented cancer cell lines by using 3-[4,5-Dimethyl-thiathiazol-2-yl]-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide (MTT) [7-9] and sulforhodamine B (SRB) [10-11] assays. The cell lines include some that were established locally and some derived from the cancers which are most prevalent in Taiwan, such as hepatoma, cervical carcinoma, and nasopharyngeal carcinoma (NPC).

In addition, since decrease in cellular glutathione (GSH) pools as a consequence of VK<sub>3</sub> has been demonstrated using mouse leukemia [12,13], and human hepatoma cells [14]. We investigated whether direct chemical interaction between VK<sub>3</sub> and glutathione may play a role in VK<sub>3</sub>-induced biochemical changes in cellular systems. Glutathione is the major non-protein thiol source in mammalian cells and tissues, cellular GSH is known to play an important role in the ultimate efficacy of several chemotherapeutic agents [15]. Therefore, the interactions of various concentrations of vitamin K congeners with GSH and the protective role of glutathione against VK<sub>3</sub>-mediated toxicity in human tumor cells were also investigated.

#### Methods

Drugs, Chemicals VK<sub>1</sub>, VK<sub>2</sub>, SRB and MTT were obtained from Sigma Chemical Co. Menadione sodium bisulfite, trichloroacetic acid (TCA) and other reagents were purchased from Merck Chemical Co. Menadione sodium bisulfite was dissolved in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS). VK<sub>1</sub> and VK<sub>2</sub> were dissolved in ethanol and aliquots of 0.1 M solutions were stored at -20°C. Dilutions for use in experiments were prepared in complete medium immediately before use.

Cell Lines The human tumor cell lines used were hepatoma, lung carcinoma, nasopharyngeal carcinoma (NPC), breast carcinoma, oral epidermoid carcinoma, leukemia, stomach carcinoma, lymphoma, and colon carcinoma. NPC (CG1) cells were provided by Dr. Y.S. Chang of Chang-Gung Medical Center, Lin Kou, Taiwan. All cells were grown in DMEM (high glucose, Gibco Lab, NY) medium supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS), 2 mM L-glutamine, 10 mM non-essential amino acids and 100 U/100 µg/ml of penicillin/streptomycin in a 5 % CO<sub>2</sub>-95 % air incubator at 37 °C. Established

adherent monolayer cells approaching 80% confluency were harvested with trypsin/EDTA (Gibco Lab, NY).

MTT-Microculture Tetrazolium Assay The methodology described below represents a modified MTT colorimetric assay reported by Alley MC et al [8]. In brief, cells were harvested from cultures maintained in the exponential phase, counted by trypan blue exclusion, and dispensed into 96-well culture plates (Falcon Plastics) in 100  $\mu$ l volumes. Following overnight incubation at 37 °C, 100  $\mu$ l of culture medium containing drug was dispensed into appropriate wells in triplicate. Culture plates were then incubated for 2 days prior to the addition of a tetrazolium reagent. All but 10-20  $\mu$ l of culture medium supernatant was removed from wells by slow aspiration and replaced with 150  $\mu$ l of DMSO. After 10 min shaking to solubilize formazan, the absorbance at 540 nm of each well was measured using a microtiter plate reader (Model EL340, Bio-Tek Instruments, Inc.) [7-9].

SRB-Microculture Assay The SRB assay was established by the U.S. National Cancer Institute for large-scale screening of antitumor drugs in micro-plates [10]. Cell cultures were fixed with TCA before washing, incubated at 4 °C for 1 hr, and then washed five times with tap water by an automated washer (Model EL403, Bio-Tek Instruments, Inc.) to remove TCA, growth medium, and low-molecular-weight metabolites. Plates were air dried and then stored until use. TCA-fixed cells were stained for 30 min with 0.4% (wt/vol) SRB dissolved in 1% acetic acid. At the end of the staining period, SRB was removed and cultures were quickly rinsed five times with 1% acetic acid to remove unbound dye. Then the cultures were air dried until no conspicuous moisture was visible. Bound dye was solubilized with 10 mM unbuffered Tris base (pH 10.5). Plates were shaken for 5 min. The absorbance at 515 nm of each well was measured using a microtiter plate reader (Model EL340, Bio-Tek Instruments, Inc.) [10, 11].

Fluorometric Assay for Glutathione Sample solutions were buffered by the addition of 0.5 ml of 0.1 M sodium phosphate buffer, pH 8.0, o-phthalaldehyde (0.1 ml) was added with thorough mixing. After a 15-20 min reaction period at room temperature, the mixture was transferred to a quartz curvet and the fluorescence at 420 nm resulting from excitation at 350 nm was determined.

Data Management The data were stored and analyzed through the use of Kineticalc 2.03 and  $\Sigma$ Plot 4.0 software. Cell growth and growth inhibition are expressed in terms of mean ( $\pm 1$  SD %) percentage of control absorbance following subtraction of mean background absorbance.

## Results

### Comparison of Antitumor Activity of Vitamins K<sub>1</sub>, K<sub>2</sub> and K<sub>3</sub> in Human Tumor Cells by Two (MTT and SRB) Cell Viability Assays

We have compared the antitumor activities of vitamins K<sub>1</sub>, and K<sub>2</sub> with that of VK<sub>3</sub> in various disease-oriented cancer cell lines. Both SRB and MTT assays yielded similar results (see TABLES I and II). The respective ID<sub>50</sub> values of VK<sub>3</sub> in hepatoma cell lines HA59T, HA22T, PLC, HepG2, and Hep3B, of increasing differentiation state, were 42, 36, 28, 27, and 20  $\mu$ M. For cervical cancer (HeLa, SiHa,

and TSGH8302) (See F.Y.-H. WU, T.-P. SUN, W.-C. CHANG, and C.-C. JUAN, Cancer Res., Submitted), NPC (CG1), leukemia (U937), oral epidermoid carcinoma (KB), and breast carcinoma (BC-M1) cells, the  $ID_{50}$  values of  $VK_3$  were 50, 37, 37, 26, 15, 25, and 33  $\mu$ M, respectively. For all the above cells, the  $ID_{50}$  values of  $VK_1$  ranged from 6 to 9 and the  $ID_{50}$  values of  $VK_2$  ranged from 1 to 2 mM. Thus, the relative potencies of antitumor activity of  $VK_3$  compared to  $VK_2$  and to  $VK_1$  is about 60- and 300-fold, respectively.

Interaction of Vitamin K Congeners with Glutathione The fate of various concentrations of vitamin K congeners when mixed with GSH is shown in FIG 1. The doses required for 50% removal of GSH by  $VK_3$ ,  $VK_2$ , and  $VK_1$  were 50  $\mu$ M, 4.9 mM, and 18 mM, respectively.

Modulation of Cytotoxicity of  $VK_3$  by Glutathione As shown in TABLE III,  $VK_3$  toxicity to CG1, HA22T, and HepG2 cells was completely prevented by a high level (1 mM) of GSH.

TABLE I

$ID_{50}$  Values of Cell Lines Treated with Vitamin K Congeners as Determined by MTT Assay

Cell Lines	$ID_{50}$ <sup>a</sup>		
	$VK_1$ (mM)	$VK_2$ (mM)	$VK_3$ ( $\mu$ M)
<b>Liver cancer</b>			
HA59T	>10.0	0.8	45
HA22T	8.5	1.0	33
PLC	>10.0	0.8	26
HepG2	5.0	1.0	23
Hep3B	5.2	0.8	18
<b>Colon cancer</b>			
COLO 320DM	>10.0	3.0	10
<b>Leukemia</b>			
U937	>5.0	>2.0	15
<b>Lung cancer</b>			
MRC-5	>10.0	0.8	18
<b>Stomach cancer</b>			
KATO-III	9.0	1.1	22
<b>Lymphocyte cancer</b>			
Raji	1.6	0.2	13
<b>Nasopharynx cancer</b>			
CG1	>10.0	>2.0	28
<b>Breast cancer</b>			
BC-M1	>10.0	>2.0	35
<b>Oral epidermoid cancer</b>			
KB	>10.0	>2.0	20

<sup>a</sup>Data represent the means of triplicate cultures.

### Discussion

This is the first and the most comprehensive comparison of the antitumor activities of vitamins K<sub>1</sub>, K<sub>2</sub> and K<sub>3</sub> based on MTT and SRB assays using more than 15 cell lines representing 10 diseases. Some cell lines used were derived from the cancers which are most prevalent in oriental populations such as hepatoma, cervical cancer and NPC. These cell lines are not included in the cell line panel used by the National Cancer Institute [11] and other studies [1-3, 12-14]. The information on the relative antitumor potencies of VK congeners against various human cancer cell lines was scarce. Furthermore, these relative potencies have never been determined systematically. In our study and on the basis of the ID<sub>50</sub> values determined, VK<sub>3</sub> was found to be the most potent anticancer drug among VK congeners. Moreover, VK<sub>3</sub> had a wide spectrum of cytotoxicity against cancer cells from liver, cervix, nasopharynx, colon, leukemia, lung, stomach, lymphocyte, and breast cancers.

TABLE II

ID<sub>50</sub> Values of Cell Lines Treated with Vitamin K Congeners as Determined by SRB Assay

Cell Lines	ID <sub>50</sub> <sup>a</sup>		
	VK <sub>1</sub> (mM)	VK <sub>2</sub> (mM)	VK <sub>3</sub> (μM)
<b>Liver cancer</b>			
HA59T	>10.0	0.4	42
HA22T	9.0	1.0	36
PLC	>10.0	0.8	28
HepG2	4.9	0.8	27
Hep3B	5.0	0.6	20
<b>Colon cancer</b>			
COLO 320DM	10.0	5.0	8
<b>Leukemia</b>			
U937	>5.0	>2.0	15
<b>Lung cancer</b>			
MRC-5	>10.0	0.7	16
<b>Stomach cancer</b>			
KATO-III	10.0	1.0	20
<b>Lymphocyte cancer</b>			
Raji	1.5	0.1	9
<b>Nasopharynx cancer</b>			
CG1	>10.0	>2.0	26
<b>Breast cancer</b>			
BC-M1	>10.0	>2.0	33
<b>Oral epidermoid cancer</b>			
KB	>10.0	>2.0	22

<sup>a</sup> Data represent the means of triplicate cultures.

TABLE III

Effect of Glutathione on the Viability of CG1, HepG2, and HA22T Cells Treated with VK<sub>3</sub><sup>a</sup>

Cell Lines	Without 1 mM GSH		With 1 mM GSH	
	VK <sub>3</sub> concentration ( $\mu$ M)			
	40	100	40	100
CG1	24.5 $\pm$ 4.9 <sup>b</sup>	16.7 $\pm$ 4.2	113.0 $\pm$ 13.8	106.7 $\pm$ 14.2
HA22T	38.0 $\pm$ 8.6	22.7 $\pm$ 7.3	85.4 $\pm$ 8.7	99.8 $\pm$ 6.9
HepG2	24.7 $\pm$ 5.6	16.6 $\pm$ 3.5	85.3 $\pm$ 9.3	96.5 $\pm$ 11.9

<sup>a</sup> Cells were seeded at  $5 \times 10^5$  cells/dish. After 24 hr for cell attachment, cells were incubated with 40 and 100  $\mu$ M VK<sub>3</sub> in the absence or presence of GSH, then allowed to recover for 24 hr. Cell viability was determined by trypan blue exclusion.

<sup>b</sup> The values are all listed as percentages of viabilities of control untreated cells, and each value represents the average from three dishes.

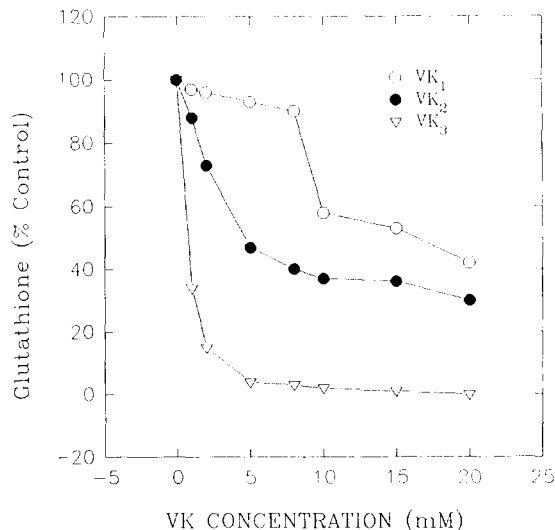


FIG. 1

Interaction of VK congeners with glutathione (GSH). VK<sub>1</sub>, VK<sub>2</sub> or VK<sub>3</sub> (100  $\mu$ M - 20 mM) were incubated with 100  $\mu$ M GSH at 37 °C for 1 hr. Data are expressed as percentages of the starting GSH concentration.

In this study, we further confirmed that the SRB and the MTT assays yielded similar results [11]. The MTT assay relies on the ability of viable cells to reduce a tetrazolium dye to formazan. While such an assay can be very simply performed, it is based on the assumption that dead cells or their products do not reduce tetrazolium. On the other hand, the SRB assay measures the whole-culture protein content. To determine cell growth or viability, one assumes that dead cells either lyse or are removed during the procedure, or otherwise do not contribute to the colorimetric end point. The SRB assay appears to offer several advantages over the MTT assay for large-scale drug screening being simpler, faster, and more sensitive than the MTT assay. We have established a semi-automated system and disease-oriented cell line panel for future large-scale screening of antitumor drugs in Taiwan.

It is likely that the mechanism of VK<sub>3</sub> cytotoxicity is more complex and broader than those of VK<sub>1</sub> and VK<sub>2</sub>. Akman and co-workers [12] demonstrated that reduced nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate (NADPH) was depleted by VK<sub>1</sub> or VK<sub>3</sub>. In contrast, VK<sub>3</sub> depleted the GSH pool to a significantly greater degree than do equitoxic concentrations of VK<sub>1</sub> or other analogues. These results seem to suggest that GSH depletion is an important but not a general mechanism of toxicity for all antitumor quinones. However, our results indicated that there was a good correlation between growth inhibition and GSH depletion among vitamin K congeners. The difference in cytotoxicity of vitamin K congeners in cancer cell lines may be related to the relative potency of congeners in depleting GSH.

The protective effect of GSH against VK<sub>3</sub>-induced growth inhibition has previously been demonstrated in mouse L1210 leukemia cells [12], and human hepatoma cells [14]. In this study, we observed complete protection from VK<sub>3</sub> toxicity in CG1, HA22T, and HepG2 cells by a high level (1 mM) of GSH. Similar results were also obtained by using other tumor cell lines (Data not shown). However, the efficacy of protection decreased either when GSH dose was < 1 mM and VK<sub>3</sub> was kept 100 μM or when VK<sub>3</sub> dose was >100 μM and GSH was kept 1 mM, and there was no protective effect by the addition of 1 mM GSH after cells had been exposed to 100 μM VK<sub>3</sub> for 1 hr (Data not shown). These results suggest that cells are affected by VK<sub>3</sub> only when the oxidative stress of VK<sub>3</sub> surpasses the reducing ability of GSH, and that VK<sub>3</sub>-induced cellular or genetic damage occurs within 1 hr. Since the GSH pool is an important determinant of resistance to some chemotherapeutic agents, VK<sub>3</sub>, among the most potent GSH-depleting agents, confers a therapeutic advantage beyond its cytotoxicity in clinical chemotherapy, especially in the combination treatment with other antitumor agents.

In summary, the relative antitumor potencies of 1/60/300 for VK<sub>1</sub>/VK<sub>2</sub>/VK<sub>3</sub> were deduced from this study. These results support the preference for VK<sub>3</sub> over VK<sub>1</sub> and VK<sub>2</sub> in cancer therapy. VK<sub>3</sub> cytotoxicity observed in our *in vitro* studies is supported by the information obtained from an *in vivo* tumor-bearing animal model system [4, 16]. Furthermore, in preliminary phase I clinical trial, when VK<sub>3</sub> at doses of 40-3200 mg/m<sup>2</sup> per course administered i.v. over 1-4 days, no major toxic effects were observed [17]. In one pharmacokinetic study [18], plasma VK<sub>3</sub> concentration up to 7.4 μM was achieved during the infusion in 3 patients receiving 1360 mg/m<sup>2</sup>. The levels of VK<sub>3</sub> achieved safely in the clinical

trials are similar to those associated with in vitro cytotoxicity against human cell lines in our studies. These provide useful information for future clinical trials of VK<sub>3</sub> in the treatment of common cancers in Taiwan. The mechanisms of VK<sub>3</sub> action against various human cancer cells have been the focus of our research. VK<sub>3</sub> was found to induce cell cycle arrest or progression delay at the S/G<sub>2</sub> phase [5] which was associated with the decreased activity and hyperphosphorylation of p34<sup>cdc2</sup> kinase [19]. VK<sub>3</sub> also induces apoptosis [6] which includes the alteration in expression of c-myc and c-fos proto-oncogenes [20].

#### Acknowledgements

This work was supported by a grant (NSC80-0203-B001-03) from the National Science Council of R.O.C., and by Academia Sinica, Taipei 11529, Taiwan, R.O.C. We thank Dr. Catherine Fletcher of our institute for reading the manuscript.

#### References

1. J.S. MITCHELL, D. BROMBLEY, and J.L. HAYLITTLE, *Acta. Radiol. Ther. Physiol. Biol.* 3 329-341 (1965).
2. R.T. CHLEBOSKI, S.A. AKMAN, and J.B. BLOCK, *Cancer Treatment Rev.* 12 49-63 (1985).
3. L.M. NUTTER, A.-L. CHENG, H.-L. HUNG, R.-K. HSIEH, E.O. NGO, and T.-W. LIU, *Biochem. Pharmacol.* 41 1283-1292 (1991).
4. W.-C. SU, T.-P. SUN, and F.Y.-H. WU, *Kaohsiung J. Med. Sci.* 7 454-459 (1991).
5. F.Y.-H. WU, T.-P. SUN, S.I.-H. HSU, L.-P. CHANG, and C.-W. WU, *Proc. Am. Assoc. Cancer Res.* 32 396 (1991).
6. C.-C. JUAN and F.Y.-H. WU, *FASEB J.* 6 A1940 (1992).
7. D.A. SCUDIERO, R.H. SHOEMAKER, and K.D. PAULL, *Cancer Res.* 48 4827-2833 (1988).
8. M.C. ALLEY, D.A. SCUDIERO, and A. MONKS, *Cancer Res.* 48 589-601 (1988).
9. P.R. TWENTYMAN, N.E. FOX, and K.H. REES, *British J. Haematology* 71 19-24 (1988).
10. P. SKEHAN, R. STORENG, D.A. SCUDIERO, and A. MONKS, *J. Natl. Cancer Inst.* 82 1107-1112 (1990).
11. A. MONKS, D.A. SCUDIERO, and P. SKEHAN, *J. Natl. Cancer Inst.* 83 757-766 (1991).
12. S.A. AKMAN, M. DIETRICH, R.T. CHLEBOSKI, P. LIMBERG, and J.B. BLOCK, *Cancer Res.* 45 5257-5262 (1985).
13. S.A. AKMAN, J.H. DOROSHOW, M. DIETRICH, R.T. CHLEBOSKI, and J.B. BLOCK, *J. Pharmacol. Exp. Ther.* 240 486-491 (1987).
14. S.J. DUTHRIE, and M.H. GRANT, *Biochem. Pharmacol.* 38 1247-1255 (1989).
15. A.J. TOWNSEND, and K.H. COWAN, *Cancer Bull.* 41 31-37 (1989).
16. J. GOLD, *Cancer Treat. Rep.* 70 1433-1435 (1986).
17. R. NAGOURNEY, L. WEISENTHAL, P. DILL, R. JUST, L. FASS, and J. BAKER, *Proc. Am. Soc. Clin. Oncol.* 6 35 (1987).
18. S.A. AKMAN, B.CARR, L.LEONG, K. MARGOLIN, O. ODUJINRIN, J. DOROSHOW, and K. CHAN, *Proc. Am. Soc. Clin. Oncol.* 7 76 (1988).
19. C.-C. JUAN and F.Y.-H. WU, *Biochem. Biophys. Res. Comm.* 190 907-913 (1993).
20. F.Y.-H. WU, N.-T. CHANG, and C.-C. JUAN, *Oncogene* (In press).