Research Article

Cytosolic phospholipase A₂ and lipoxygenase are involved in cell cycle progression in neuroblastoma cells

G. S. A. T. van Rossum^a, J. J. M. Bijvelt^a, H. van den Bosch^b, A. J. Verkleij^a and J. Boonstra^{a,*}

^a Department of Molecular Cell Biology and

^b Centre for Biomembranes and Lipid Enzymology, Institute of Biomembranes, Utrecht University, Padualaan 8, 3584 CH Utrecht (The Netherlands), Fax + 31 30 2513655, e-mail: J.Boonstra@bio.uu.nl

Received 26 October 2001; accepted 27 November 2001

Abstract. Arachidonic acid has been implicated in regulating cellular proliferation, and is preferentially released by the 85-kDa cytosolic phospholipase A_2 (cPLA₂). Recently, we demonstrated that cPLA₂ is activated at distinct periods during the ongoing cell cycle of neuroblastoma cells. The purpose of the present study was to establish the role of these cPLA₂ activity peaks in cell cycle progression. Inhibition of cPLA₂ activity with arachidonyl trifluoromethylketone (ATK) in early G1 phase reduced DNA synthesis markedly. A 24-h incubation with ATK revealed no significant difference in cell number compared to untreated cells, although cPLA₂ activity was still inhibited. This suggests redundancy of different PLA₂ enzymes. Lipoxygenase inhibition in early G1 resulted in G1 phase arrest, whereas inhibitors for cyclooxygenase had no effect. Furthermore, cells stopped progressing through S phase when lipoxygenase was inhibited in early S phase, demonstrating the requirement of lipoxygenase products for S phase progression.

Key words. Phospholipase A₂; lipoxygenase; cyclooxygenase; G1 phase; cell cycle; DNA synthesis; S phase.

The factors that determine whether cells continue to proliferate, arrest growth or differentiate are activated by signals from the extracellular environment and operate predominantly during the G1 phase of the cell cycle. Progression through the cell cycle is regulated by cyclindependent kinases (Cdks) that are activated upon binding with their cyclins, and by multiple phosphorylation and dephosphorylation steps [1-3]. The activity of Cdks is negatively regulated by Cdk inhibitory proteins that comprise two families of which the INK4 family specifically inhibits cyclin D/Cdk4,6 complexes, while the Kip/Cip family inhibits most cyclin/Cdk2,4 and 6 complexes [4, 5]. The first cyclin/Cdk complex in the G1 phase is activated by growth factors and consists of cyclin D and Cdk4 or 6 [6]. This results in retinoblastoma phosphorylation and the subsequent activation of cyclin E/Cdk2. Furthermore, activated p42/44^{MAPK} was shown to induce cyclin D expression and down-regulation of p27^{Kip} [7, 8]. In addition, sustained activation of p42/44^{MAPK} is required to pass the restriction point, whereas inhibition of p42/44^{MAPK} blocks DNA synthesis and proliferation [9–11]. Furthermore, p42/44^{MAPK} overexpression has been observed in human breast cancer cells [12], showing the importance of p42/44^{MAPK} activity in cell proliferation.

Recently, cytosolic phospholipase A_2 (cPLA₂) activity was demonstrated to be cell cycle dependent and, furthermore, cPLA₂ phosphorylation in these periods was mediated by p42/44^{MAPK} [13]. cPLA₂ preferentially releases arachidonic acid from membrane phospholipids. The released arachidonic acid can be metabolised by cyctochrome p450s, cyclooxygenases (COXs) or by

^{*} Corresponding author.

lipoxygenases (LOs) to produce eicosanoids. Arachidonic acid and/or its metabolites appear to play an important role in growth-dependent signalling pathways and are involved in mitogenic signalling, cell migration and cytotoxicity [14–16]. Furthermore, most tumour cells produce elevated levels of eicosanoids that result in induced growth and invasiveness of the tumours [17]. Accordingly, in oncogenic ras-transformed lung cancer cells, cPLA₂ expression was found to be constitutively high [18].

To gain more insight into the mode of action of cPLA₂ in cell proliferation, we studied the role of cPLA₂ activity in cell cycle progression. We showed that the activity of cPLA₂ in G1 phase was necessary for progression into S phase in contrast to Ca^{2+} -independent PLA₂ (iPLA₂) or secreted PLA₂ (sPLA₂). cPLA₂ inhibition for 24 h resulted in a comparable cell number of arachidonyl trifluoromethylketone (ATK)-treated versus untreated cells, suggesting redundancy of the different PLA₂ enzymes. By using inhibitors, we assessed the involvement of LO but not COX, in cell cycle progression into S phase. Moreover, LO inhibition in early G1 resulted in G1 phase arrest. DNA synthesis and S phase progression were blocked when LO was inhibited in early S phase, demonstrating that LO metabolites are required for S phase progression.

Materials and methods

Materials

Tissue culture nutrients, Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium supplemented with 25 mM HEPES (DMEM-HEPES) and fetal bovine serum (FBS) were purchased from Gibco BRL (UK). Methyl-[³H]-thymidine (2 mCi/mmol) was obtained from Amersham (Arlington Heights, Ill). ATK, bromoenol lactone (BEL), 5(S)-HpETE and 12(S)-HpETE were acquired from Cayman Chemical (Ann Arbor, Mich.). Manoalide was from Biomol (Plymouth Meeting, Mass.) and NS-398 and caffeic acid were obtained from Calbiochem (La Jolla, Calif.). 4-Bromophenacyl bromide (4-BPB), indomethacin, nordihydroguaiaretic acid (NDGA) and arachidonic acid were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (Steinheim, Germany). All other chemicals were either from Sigma or Merck (Darmstadt, Germany).

Cell culture and cell synchronisation

Neuroblastoma (N2A) cells were grown in DMEM-HEPES supplemented with 7.5% FBS. Cells were maintained at 37°C in a humidified atmosphere. One day prior to shake off, cells were cultured at 5×10^6 cells per 175-cm² flask. Each hour, flasks, containing asynchronous cells, were shaken for 1 min at 37°C to obtain mitotic cells as described previously [19].

[³H]-thymidine incorporation

Mitotic cells were plated in 24-well plates at a density of 3×10^4 cells per well in DMEM-HEPES containing 7.5% FBS and 1 µCi [³H]-thymidine/well. At the indicated times, the cells were washed twice with phosphatebuffered saline (PBS), whereafter they were dissolved in 0.1 M NaOH and the incorporated [3H]-thymidine was counted in a scintillation counter (LS 6000 SE; Beckman Instruments, Fullerton, Calif.). In other experiments, as indicated, [³H]-thymidine incorporation was started 3 h ahead of the actual experiment as a control. Then, at the indicated times after mitosis, half of the cells were incubated with ATK (10 μ M) to inhibit cPLA₂ or with NDGA (10 µM) to inhibit lipoxygenase. After 30 min, [3H]thymidine was added to both control and ATK- or NDGA-treated cells. Fifteen minutes later, the cells were washed twice with PBS, then washed with 10% trichloroacetic acid, washed again twice with PBS, and then dissolved in 0.1 M NaOH; [³H]-thymidine incorporation was then measured.

Western blot analysis

Mitotic cells were replated and at the indicated times after mitosis, the medium was removed and the cells were washed twice with ice-cold PBS. Subsequently, the cells were scraped in homogenisation buffer (50 mM Hepes/NaOH pH 7.4, 0.25 M sucrose, 50 mM NaF, 250 μM Na₃VO₄, 1 mM EGTA, 10 μM leupeptin, 1 μM pepstatin and 1 mM PMSF). Cells were homogenised by 15 strokes through a 26G needle and sonicated for 3×10 s. Proteins of 1×10^5 cells per time point were separated on 10% SDS-PAGE and transferred to polyvinylidene difluoride membrane by semi-dry blotting using a BioRad trans-blot SD. The membrane was blocked for 1 h at room temperature with 2% milk powder in PBST [PBS containing 0.1% (v/v) Tween-20] following primary antibody incubations overnight at 4 °C in 0.2 % milk powder in PBST. Cyclin A was detected with a monoclonal antibody (Calbiochem. Cambridge, UK) at a concentration of 2.5 µg/ml. Subsequently, the membrane was washed and primary antibodies were detected with rabbit anti-mouse IgG conjugated to horseradish peroxidase and the bands were visualised with enhanced chemiluminescence (NEN Life Science Products, Boston, Mass.).

Results

cPLA₂ activity in G1 phase is required for cell cycle progression

We previously demonstrated that $cPLA_2$ activity is cell cycle dependent in neuroblastoma (N2A) and Chinese hamster ovary (CHO) cells [13], being high at mitosis and thereafter decreasing in early G1. A small increase in activity was measured during mid/late G1, and a strong in-



Figure 1. [³H]-thymidine incorporation (*A*) and the effect of ATK and 4-BPB on DNA synthesis (*B*) in N2A cells, synchronised by mitotic shake off. (*A*) N2A cells were synchronised using the mitotic shake-off method. [³H]-thymidine (1 μ Ci/well) was added to the mitotic cells and at the indicated times after mitosis the incorporated radiolabel was quantified using a liquid scintillation counter. (*B*) ATK (10 μ M) and 4-BPB (10 μ M) were added to synchronous cells at 1, 4 and 6 h after mitosis and left to incubate until 8 h after mitosis, whereafter the incorporated [³H]-thymidine into the DNA was measured. Data are means ± SD (n=3).

crease was measured following the G1/S transition. To investigate whether cPLA2 activity is required for cell cycle progression to S phase, the activity of cPLA₂ was inhibited at different time points in G1 phase in N2A cells, which were synchronised by using the mitotic shake-off method [19]. Therefore, a non-specific PLA₂ (4-BPB) [20] and a potent reversible cPLA₂ (ATK) inhibitor [21, 22] were used. Synchronous cells were either left untreated or were incubated with ATK (10 µM) or 4-BPB $(10 \,\mu\text{M})$ from 1, 4 and 6 h after mitosis. At 8 h, at which most cells have entered S phase (fig. 1A), DNA synthesis was determined by measuring [³H]-thymidine incorporation of the cells as described in Materials and methods. As shown in figure 1B, [3H]-thymidine incorporation was reduced approximately 60% compared to control cells if ATK was added 1 h after mitosis, while no reduction was measured when ATK was added at later time points. Apart from the effect on DNA synthesis, inhibition of cPLA2 activity did not influence the total number of cells, indicating that the inhibition of DNA synthesis was not due to cytotoxic effects of ATK (data not shown). In addition, a similar pattern of [³H]-thymidine



Figure 2. Effects of PLA₂ inhibitors on cell cycle progression into S phase in N2A cells. Synchronous N2A cells were left untreated, or incubated with ATK (10 μ M), BEL (2.5 μ M) or manoalide (0.1 μ M) from 2, 4 and 6 h after mitosis. [³H]-thymidine incorporation was measured at 8 h after mitosis. Data are the means ± SD (n=3).

4

6

addition inhibitor after mitosis (h)

control

2

incorporation was obtained in synchronous N2A cells treated with 4-BPB. These results indicate the involvement of cPLA₂ activity in G1 for cell cycle progression. However, ATK has also been reported to be able to inhibit the Ca²⁺-independent PLA₂ (iPLA₂) in macrophages, although at higher concentrations [23]. We therefore investigated whether the reduction in [3H]-thymidine incorporation was solely due to cPLA₂ or to other PLA₂ isoforms as well. To discriminate between cPLA₂ and iPLA₂, BEL was used, which is a potent irreversible inhibitor of iPLA₂, but not of cPLA₂ [23, 24]. The involvement of sPLA₂ was investigated using manoalide [25]. ATK, BEL $(2.5 \,\mu\text{M})$ or manoalide $(0.1 \,\mu\text{M})$ were added to synchronously growing cells at 2, 4 and 6 h after mitosis, or the cells were left untreated. Addition of ATK at 2 h after mitosis resulted in a reduced [3H]-thymidine incorporation of approximately 60% compared to control cells (fig. 2). A small reduction was measured when ATK was added at 4 h and no effect was measured when added at 6 h after mitosis. Due to variations in the length of the G1 phase [26], the small inhibition in [³H]-thymidine incorporation of ATK added at 4 h was absent in figure 1. The ^{[3}H]-thymidine incorporation measured at 8 h was only slightly reduced when BEL was added at 2 and 4 h after mitosis compared to control cells. No effect was observed in cells incubated with BEL from 6 h after mitosis. Manoalide only marginally affected the [3H]-thymidine incorporation of the cells when added at 2, but not at 4 or 6 h compared to control cells. These results show again the involvement of cPLA₂ activity in G1 for cell cycle progression into S phase. Furthermore, they indicate that sPLA₂ is not and iPLA₂ is at best only marginally involved in cell cycle progression to S phase.

Not clear, however is whether cPLA₂ inhibition results in cell cycle arrest or whether it is just delayed. Therefore,



Figure 3. Long-term cPLA₂ inhibition does not result in cell cycle arrest. To synchronous N2A cells, ATK (10 μ M) was added at 0, 1 and 2 h after mitosis and cells were left to incubate until 24 h after mitosis. The total cell number was then counted. Data are means \pm SD (n=2).



Figure 4. Effects of COX and LO inhibitors on cell cycle progression. Synchronous N2A cells were left untreated, or incubated with the COX inhibitors Indo (10 μ M) and NS 398 (10 μ M), and the LO inhibitors NDGA (10 μ M) and caffeic acid (CA) (25 and 100 μ M) from 2, 4 and 6 h after mitosis. The amount of [³H]-thymidine incorporated into the DNA was measured at 8 h after mitosis. Data are means \pm SD (n=3).

cell count experiments were performed in which cells were left untreated, or to which ATK was added at 0, 1 or 2 h after mitosis. At 24 h after mitosis, the total number of cells in ATK-treated cells was similar to untreated cells (fig. 3) and, moreover, was increased compared to the total number of cells present at 8 h, showing that cells have completed their cell cycle. In addition, ATK was still functional, since cPLA₂ activity in synchronous cells treated for 8 or 24 h with ATK was inhibited compared to untreated cells (data not shown).

Collectively, these results show the involvement of $cPLA_2$, but most likely not of $iPLA_2$ or $sPLA_2$, in cell cycle progression, since 4-BPB did not reduce DNA synthesis any further than ATK, whereas inhibitors for $iPLA_2$ and $sPLA_2$ displayed only a small effect. In addition, $cPLA_2$ inhibition in early G1 results in a temporal inhibition of cell cycle progression.

LO, but not COX, is involved

in cell cycle progression

The arachidonic acid released by cPLA₂ can be further metabolised by cyclooxygenases or lipoxygenases into a large family of eicosanoids that have been implicated, amongst others, in mitogenic signalling, cytotoxicity and cancers [27-29]. To examine the role of COX and LO on cell cycle progression, we evaluated the effects of COX and LO inhibitors on DNA synthesis. Indomethacin (Indo, 10 µM), a non-selective COX inhibitor [30], and NS 398 (10 µM), a selective COX-2 inhibitor [31], were added at 2, 4 and 6 h after mitosis and [³H]-thymidine incorporation was measured at 8 h after mitosis. These inhibitors did not significantly reduce the [³H]-thymidine incorporation relative to control cells (fig. 4), demonstrating that neither COX-1 nor COX-2 plays a role in G1/S phase progression. On the other hand, complete inhibition of [³H]-thymidine incorporation was measured at 8 h when LO was inhibited from 2 or 4 h after mitosis with 10 µM NDGA, a potent inhibitor of LOs [32, 33]. An inhibition of approximately 60% was still observed upon addition of NDGA at 6 h after mitosis. These inhibitory effects of NDGA were not due to cytotoxic effects, because the total number of cells was similar to untreated cells (data not shown). In contrast, 25 µM caffeic acid (CA), which predominantly inhibits 5- and 12-LO but at higher IC₅₀ values than the common LO inhibitor NDGA [34, 35], was not effective in inhibiting [³H]-thymidine incorporation. A significant inhibition of about 40 and 30%, respectively, was measured when 100 µM CA was added only at 2 and 4 h. These results show that LO is involved in cell cycle progression to S phase and that inhibition of LO in early G1 may result in cell cycle arrest.

We further investigated whether LO inhibition in G1 results in G1 phase arrest by determining cyclin A expression, since cyclin A is expressed in late G1 prior to DNA synthesis [36]. The Western blot in figure 5 A is of a representative experiment showing that during the ongoing cell cycle, cyclin A is expressed at a low level at 4 h after mitosis, which represents mid/late G1 (fig. 1A), while at 6 h, in early S phase, and at 8 h, in S phase, a significant increase in cyclin A is observed. These results were evaluated by quantification of the bands and presented as a percentage of cyclin A expressed at 8 h after mitosis (fig. 5B). Incubating synchronous N2A cells from 0 or 2 h after mitosis with NDGA until 8 h, reduced cyclin A expression compared to control cells at 8 h (fig. 6A). Densitometrical evaluations of the blots showed that cyclin A expression of NDGA-treated cells at 0 or 2 h did not reach the expression present at 8 h after mitosis (fig. 6B), but remained at the level present at 4 h after mitosis of normal cycling cells (fig. 5B), thus demonstrating that the cells were arrested in G1. Similarly, treating



Figure 5. Expression of cyclin A during the ongoing cell cycle. Cells were synchronised via mitotic shake off, replated and harvested at the indicated times after mitosis as described in Materials and methods. Cell lysates of 1×10^5 cells were separated on SDS-PAGE, whereafter cyclin A was analysed on Western blot (*A*) and its expression quantified (*B*). Results shown are representative of three different experiments.



Figure 6. LO inhibition results in cell cycle arrest. Synchronised N2A cells were left untreated or were incubated with NDGA (10 μ M) from 0, 2, 4 and 6 h after mitosis and harvested at 8 h after mitosis. Thereafter, 1 × 10⁵ cells were used for electrophoresis and cyclin A was analysed on western blot (*A*). Cyclin A expression of cells incubated with NDGA was quantified as percentage of untreated cells at 8 h after mitosis (*B*). Results shown are representative of three different experiments.

cells from 4 or 6 h after mitosis with NDGA and analysing cyclin A at 8 h did not result in full expression compared to control cells at 8 h (fig. 6). Cyclin A expression remained at the level present at 6 h of untreated cycling cells, as can also be surmised from the densitometrical evaluations (fig. 6B versus 5B). These data demonstrate that LO inhibition in early G1 results in G1 phase arrest, and that LO may also be involved in S phase progression.



Figure 7. cPLA₂ activity is not necessary for S phase progression. ATK (10 μ M) was added to half of the cells at 6 h (triangles) after mitosis. After 30 min, [³H]-thymidine (1 μ Ci/well) was added to both untreated and ATK-treated cells, and 15 min later, [³H]-thymidine incorporation was measured at the indicated times after mitosis as described in Materials and methods. Data are represented as means \pm SD (n=3).

Effect of cPLA₂ and LO inhibition on S phase progression

Since cPLA₂ activity during the cell cycle is high in S phase, we examined the possible role of cPLA₂ during the S phase. However, from figures 1 and 2, no large inhibitory effect on [³H]-thymidine incorporation was measured at 8 h when ATK was added at 4 or 6 h after mitosis, which is in late G1 or early S phase. To investigate the effect of cPLA₂ inhibition on S phase progression we needed to be sure that the cells were in S phase. Therefore, each hour after mitosis, [³H]-thymidine incorporation was measured as a control, and at 6 h after mitosis, ATK was added, in S phase, to inhibit cPLA₂ activity. No inhibition in [³H]-thymidine incorporation was observed (fig. 7, triangles), as compared to control cells (fig. 7, diamonds), showing that cPLA₂ activity in S phase in not necessary for DNA synthesis.

Next, we investigated whether LO products play a role in S phase progression. NDGA was added at 3 and 5.5 h after mitosis, and [³H]-thymidine incorporation measurements were started for different time periods. As shown in figure 8, 3 h after mitosis is still in the G1 phase (triangles) of the cell cycle, while at 5.5 h, the cells are starting to progress through S phase (squares). When inhibiting lipoxygenase at 3 h, full inhibition in the [³H]-thymidine incorporation was observed, showing that the cells were no longer able to progress into S phase. These data are in agreement with the previous results of figure 6, in that inhibition of LO in early G1 resulted in G1 phase arrest. Furthermore, the addition of NDGA at 5.5 h completely inhibited DNA synthesis, that was also confirmed by cyclin A expression (fig. 6), thus demonstrating the importance of LO products in the progression through S phase.



Discussion

Although previous studies demonstrated that PLA₂ inhibition reduced cell proliferation [37-39], the present study shows that cPLA₂ activity at a distinct period in the cell cycle is involved in cell cycle progression. By using [³H]-thymidine incorporation as a marker for DNA synthesis and progression from G1 to S phase, inhibition of cPLA₂ in early G1, using ATK, resulted in reduced DNA synthesis. This reduction was measured only when cPLA₂ was inhibited until 2-3 h after mitosis. Interestingly, after 2-3 h, an increase in cPLA₂ activity in the G1 phase occurs [13]. Inhibition of $cPLA_2$ at 4 or at 6 h, in G1 or S phase, respectively, did not reduce DNA synthesis. In addition, similar results were obtained with the non-specific PLA₂ inhibitor, 4-BPB. Additionally, cells in which cPLA₂ was inhibited by ATK from 0 or 2 h after mitosis showed a lower expression of cyclin A compared to control cells at 8 h after mitosis (data not shown). No difference in cyclin A expression was measured when ATK was added at 4 or 6 h after mitosis. This is in agreement with the [³H]-thymidine incorporations measured. Manoalide only slightly reduced DNA synthesis at 2 h but not at 4 or 6 h, indicating that sPLA₂ does not play a role in cell cycle progression to S phase. However, whether manoalide inhibits all the known sPLA₂ types is not established. Although we could not detect sPLA₂ IIA and V in these cells, we cannot completely rule out the possible involvement of sPLA₂ in cell cycle progression, since it might also be (inducibly) expressed in another phase of the cell cycle. Indeed, sPLA₂ is present in other neuroblastoma cell types [40]. iPLA₂ inhibition by BEL at 2 and 4 h but not at 6 h resulted in a small reduction in [³H]-thymidine incorporation. Although iPLA₂ is present in these cells (data not shown), this reduction might be the result of phosphatidate phosphohydrolase inhibition [41]. These data show that in N2A cells, the activity of cPLA₂ in mid/late G1 phase is important for cell cycle progression into S phase, while cPLA₂ activity in S phase is not required for DNA synthesis.

Because cPLA₂ activity was involved in G1/S phase progression, we evaluated whether this inhibition resulted in cell cycle arrest. The total cell number of synchronised N2A cells after a 24 h treatment with ATK was comparable to untreated cells and, moreover, was increased to the total number of cells present at 8 h. This shows that the cells have completed their cell cycle, and may result in an increased doubling time of the ATK-treated cells. Proliferation of asynchronous human coronary artery vascular smooth muscle cells growing to confluency was previously shown to be inhibited by ATK, but no phasespecific arrest of the cell cycle was observed [42]. We also found that although cPLA₂ activity is required for G1/S phase progression, the cells do complete their cell cycle, while cPLA₂ activity was still inhibited after 24h treatment with ATK. However, cPLA₂ function is also possibly taken over by other enzymes, like the sPLA₂s or iPLA₂, which then become active to finally generate the arachidonic acid necessary for progression through the cell cycle. Redundancy of PLA₂ enzymes has been observed in P388D₁ macrophages in which a transient accumulation of arachidonic acid produced by cPLA₂ resulted in phospholipid hydrolysis which was probably mediated by activated sPLA₂ [43]. iPLA₂ has also recently been shown capable of releasing arachidonic acid in macrophases and urothelial carcinoma cells [44, 45].

The mechanism by which cPLA₂ influences cell cycle progression remains to be determined. COX inhibitors had no effect on cell cycle progression into S phase, indicating that the cPLA₂-dependent progression is not mediated by arachidonic acid metabolites converted by COX However, our findings demonstrate that LO is involved in cell cycle progression. The LO inhibitors, CA and NDGA, partially and completely, respectively, inhibited DNA synthesis when added in early G1, which was not due to cytotoxic effects of the inhibitors (data not shown). Additionally, cells in which LO was inhibited from 3 h after mitosis did not synthesise DNA (fig. 8). This was also confirmed by the low expression of cyclin A in cells incubated with NDGA from 0 or 2 h after mitosis compared to control cells. These data show an arrest in the G1 phase of LO-inhibited cells. In line with this are the results of Korystov et al. [39] who demonstrated a suppression of proliferation of lympholeukaemic cells with NDGA, also by blocking the G1/S transition. Additionally, LOs are present in neuroblastoma cells [46] and are involved in cell growth [47, 48]. However, the mechanism

0 0 2 4 6 8 10 time after mitosis (h) Figure 8. LO is required for S phase progression. At 3 h (triangles)



by which NDGA blocks the G1/S transition is still unknown. Readdition of arachidonic acid or the LO metabolites 5(S)-, 12(S)- or 15(S)-HpETE, or 15(S)-HETE at various times and concentrations after mitosis could not overcome the inhibitory effect of ATK or NDGA. NDGA might inhibit a protein through the inhibition of LO, which is required for S phase entry. LO has been reported to be involved in mediating arachidonic acid-induced p42/44^{MAPK} activation [49, 50]. However, LO inhibition by NDGA did not affect p42/44^{MAPK} phosphorylation in N2A cells (data not shown), indicating that LO exerts its effects downstream of p42/44^{MAPK}.

LO inhibition in early S phase also blocked DNA synthesis. Furthermore, cells in which LO was inhibited from 4 or 6 h after mitosis were arrested in early S phase as judged by cyclin A expression. Taken together, $cPLA_2$ activity is involved in cell cycle progression from G1 into S phase, while $cPLA_2$ activity in S phase is not involved in DNA synthesis. Furthermore, LO is required for both G1/S and S phase progression.

Acknowledgements. We would like to thank Prof. Dr G. A. Veldink and G. van Zadelhoff for their helpful discussions and kindly providing the lipoxygenase products. We thank Pieter Neerincx for his technical assistance. This work was supported by the Council for Chemical Sciences of the Netherlands Organization for Scientific Research (CW-NWO) (Grant 700-30-022).

- Nigg E. A. (1995) Cyclin-dependent protein kinases: key regulators of the eukaryotic cell cycle. Bioessays 17: 471–480
- 2 Dirks P. B. and Rutka J. T. (1997) Current concepts in neurooncology: the cell cycle – a review. Neurosurgery 40: 1000–1015
- 3 Reed S. I. (1997) Control of the G1/S transition. Cancer Surv. **29:** 7–23
- 4 Sherr C. J. and Roberts J. M. (1995) Inhibitors of mammalian G1 cyclin-dependent kinases. Genes Dev. **9:** 1149–1163
- 5 Hulleman E. and Boonstra J. (2001) Regulation of G1 phase progression by growth factors and the extracellular matrix. Cell. Mol. Life Sci. 58: 80–93
- 6 Sherr C. J. (1995) D-type cyclins. Trends Biochem. Sci. 20: 187–190
- 7 Aktas H., Cai H. and Cooper G. M. (1997) Ras links growth factor signaling to the cell cycle machinery via regulation of cyclin D1 and the Cdk inhibitor p27^{KIP1}. Mol. Cell. Biol. 17: 3850–3857
- 8 Cheng M., Sexl V., Sherr C. J. and Roussel M. F. (1998) Assembly of cyclin D-dependent kinase and titration of p27^{Kip1} regulated by mitogen-activated protein kinase kinase (MEK1). Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA **95:** 1091–1096
- 9 Pagès G., Lenormand P., L'Allemain G., Chambard J. C., Meloche S. and Pouysségur J. (1993) Mitogen-activated protein kinases p42^{mapk} and p44^{mapk} are required for fibroblast proliferation. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA **90**: 8319–8323
- 10 Hulleman E., Bijvelt J. J. M., Verkleij A. J., Verrips C. T. and Boonstra, J. (1999) Nuclear translocation of mitogen-activated protein kinase p42^{MAPK} during the ongoing cell cycle. J. Cell. Physiol. **180**: 325–333
- 11 Roovers K., Davey G., Zhu X., Bottazzi M. E. and Assoian R. K. (1999) Alpha5beta1 integrin controls cyclin D1 expression by sustaining mitogen-activated protein kinase activity in growth factor-treated cells. Mol. Biol. Cell **10**: 3197–3204

- 12 Sivaraman V. S., Wang H., Nuovo G. J. and Malbon C. C. (1997) Hyperexpression of mitogen-activated protein kinase in human breast cancer. J. Clin. Invest. 99: 1478–1483
- 13 Rossum G. S. A. T. van, Vlug A. S., Bosch H. van den, Verkleij A. J. and Boonstra J. (2001) Cytosolic phospholipase A₂ activity during the ongoing cell cycle. J. Cell. Physiol. 188: 321–328
- 14 Piomelli D. (1993) Arachidonic acid in cell signaling. Curr. Opin. Cell Biol. 5: 274–280
- 15 Sa G. and Fox P. L. (1994) Basic fibroblast growth factor-stimulated endothelial cell movement is mediated by a pertussis toxin-sensitive pathway regulating phospholipase A₂ activity. J. Biol. Chem. **269**: 3219–3225
- 16 Grazia Cifone M., Roncaioli P., Cironi L., Festuccia C., Meccia A., D'Aló S. et al. (1997) NKR-P1A stimulation of arachidonate-generating enzymes in rat NK cells is associated with granule release and cytotoxic activity. J. Immunol. 159: 309–317
- 17 Reich R. and Martin G. R. (1996) Identification of arachidonic acid pathways required for the invasive and metastatic activity of malignant tumor cells. Prostaglandins 51: 1–17
- 18 Heasley L. E., Thaler S., Nicks M., Price B., Skorecki K. and Nemenoff R. A. (1997) Induction of cytosolic phospholipase A2 by oncogenic Ras in human non- small cell lung cancer. J. Biol. Chem. 272: 14501–14504
- 19 Boonstra J., Mummery C. L., Tertoolen L. G., Van Der Saag P. T. and De Laat S. W. (1981) Cation transport and growth regulation in neuroblastoma cells: modulations of K⁺ transport and electrical membrane properties during the cell cycle. J. Cell. Physiol. **107:** 75–83
- 20 Chang J., Musser J. H. and McGregor H. (1987) Phospholipase A₂: function and pharmacological regulation. Biochem. Pharmacol. **36**: 2429–2436
- 21 Street I. P., Lin H. K., Laliberté F., Ghomashchi F., Wang Z., Perrier H. et al. (1993) Slow- and tight-binding inhibitors of the 85-kDa human phospholipase A₂. Biochemistry **32**: 5935–5940
- 22 Trimble L. A., Street I. P., Perrier H., Tremblay N. M., Weech P. K. and Bernstein M. A. (1993) NMR structural studies of the tight complex between a trifluoromethyl ketone inhibitor and the 85-kDa human phospholipase A₂. Biochemistry **32**: 12560–12565
- 23 Ackermann E. J., Conde-Frieboes K. and Dennis E. A. (1995) Inhibition of macrophage Ca²⁺-independent phospholipase A₂ by bromoenol lactone and trifluoromethyl ketones. J. Biol. Chem. 270: 445–450
- 24 Zupan L. A., Weiss R. H., Hazen S. L., Parnas B. L., Aston K. W., Lennon P. J. et al. (1993) Structural determinants of haloenol lactone-mediated suicide inhibition of canine myocardial calcium-independent phospholipase A₂. J. Med. Chem. 36: 95–100
- 25 Jacobson P. B., Marshall L. A., Sung A. and Jacobs R. S. (1990) Inactivation of human synovial fluid phospholipase A₂ by the marine natural product, manoalide. Biochem. Pharmacol. **39**: 1557–1564
- 26 Zetterberg A. and Larsson O. (1991) Coordination between cell growth and cell cycle transit in animal cells. Cold Spring Harb. Symp. Quant. Biol. 56: 137–147
- 27 Dethlefsen S. M., Shepro D. and D'Amore P. A. (1994) Arachidonic acid metabolites in bFGF-, PDGF-, and serum-stimulated vascular cell growth. Exp. Cell Res. 212: 262–273
- 28 Hsi L. C. and Eling T. E. (1998) Inhibition of EGF-dependent mitogenesis by prostaglandin E_2 in Syrian hamster embryo fibroblasts. Prostaglandins Leukot. Essent. Fatty Acids **58**: 271–281
- 29 Shappell S. B., Gupta R. A., Manning S., Whitehead R., Boeglin W. E., Schneider C. et al. (2001) ¹⁵S-hydroxyeicosatetraenoic acid activates peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor gamma and inhibits proliferation in PC3 prostate carcinoma cells. Cancer Res. **61**: 497–503

30 Laneuville O., Breuer D. K., Dewitt D. L., Hla T., Funk C. D. and Smith W. L. (1994) Differential inhibition of human prostaglandin endoperoxide H synthases-1 and -2 by nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs. J. Pharmacol. Exp. Ther. 271: 927-934

G. S. A. T. van Rossum et al.

- 31 Copeland R. A., Williams J. M., Giannaras J., Nurnberg S., Covington M., Pinto D. et al. (1994) Mechanism of selective inhibition of the inducible isoform of prostaglandin G/H synthase. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 91: 11202–11206
- 32 Hope W. C., Welton A. F., Fiedler-Nagy C., Batula-Bernardo C. and Coffey J. W. (1983) In vitro inhibition of the biosynthesis of slow reacting substance of anaphylaxis (SRS-A) and lipoxygenase activity by quercetin. Biochem. Pharmacol. 32: 367–371
- 33 Salari H., Braquet P. and Borgeat P. (1984) Comparative effects of indomethacin, acetylenic acids, 15-HETE, nordihydroguaiaretic acid and BW755C on the metabolism of arachidonic acid in human leukocytes and platelets. Prostaglandins Leukot. Med. 13: 53–60
- 34 Koshihara Y., Neichi T., Murota S., Lao A., Fujimoto Y. and Tatsuno T. (1984) Caffeic acid is a selective inhibitor for leukotriene biosynthesis. Biochim. Biophys. Acta 792: 92–97
- 35 Rao C. V., Desai D., Simi B., Kulkarni N., Amin S. and Reddy B. S. (1993) Inhibitory effect of caffeic acid esters on azoxymethane-induced biochemical changes and aberrant crypt foci formation in rat colon. Cancer Res. 53: 4182–4188
- 36 Schulze A., Zerfass K., Spitkovsky D., Middendorp S., Berges J., Helin K. et al. (1995) Cell cycle regulation of the cyclin A gene promoter is mediated by a variant E2F site. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 92: 11264–11268
- 37 Adachi T., Nakashima S., Saji S., Nakamura T. and Nozawa Y. (1996) Mitogen-activated protein kinase activation in hepatocyte growth factor-stimulated rat hepatocytes: involvement of protein tyrosine kinase and protein kinase C. Hepatology 23: 1244–1253
- 38 Martinez J., Sanchez T. and Moreno J. J. (1997) Role of prostaglandin H synthase-2-mediated conversion of arachidonic acid in controlling 3T6 fibroblast growth. Am. J. Physiol. 273: C1466–C1471
- 39 Korystov Yu N., Shaposhnikova V. V., Levitman M., Kudryavtsev A. A., Kublik L. N., Narimanov A. A. et al. (1998)

The effect of inhibitors of arachidonic acid metabolism on proliferation and death of tumor cells. FEBS Lett. **431:** 224–226

- 40 Haluska F. G., Thiele C., Goldstein A., Tsao H., Benoit E. P. and Housman D. (1997) Lack of phospholipase A₂ mutations in neuroblastoma, melanoma and colon-cancer cell lines. Int. J. Cancer **72:** 337–339
- 41 Balsinde J. and Dennis E. A. (1996) Bromoenol lactone inhibits magnesium-dependent phosphatidate phosphohydrolase and blocks triacylglycerol biosynthesis in mouse P388D1 macrophages. J. Biol. Chem. 271: 31937–31941
- 42 Anderson K. M., Roshak A., Winkler J. D., McCord M. and Marshall L. A. (1997) Cytosolic 85-kDa phospholipase A₂-mediated release of arachidonic acid is critical for proliferation of vascular smooth muscle cells. J. Biol. Chem. **272:** 30504–30511
- 43 Balsinde J. and Dennis E. A. (1996) Distinct roles in signal transduction for each of the phospholipase A₂ enzymes present in P388D1 macrophages. J. Biol. Chem. **271:** 6758–6765
- 44 Martinez J. and Moreno J. J. (2001) Role of Ca²⁺-independent phospholipase A₂ on arachidonic acid release induced by reactive oxygen species. Arch. Biochem. Biophys. **392:** 257–262
- 45 McHowat J., Creer M. H. and Rickard A. (2001) Stimulation of protease activated receptors on RT4 cells mediates arachidonic acid release via Ca²⁺-independent phospholipase A₂. J. Urol. 165: 2063–2067
- 46 Birkle D. L. and Ellis E. F. (1983) Conversion of arachidonic acid to cyclooxygenase and lipoxygenase products, and incorporation into phospholipids in the mouse neuroblastoma clone, Neuro-2A. Neurochem. Res. 8: 319–332
- 47 Uz T., Manev R. and Manev H. (2001) 5-Lipoxygenase is required for proliferation of immature cerebellar granule neurons in vitro. Eur. J. Pharmacol. **418**: 15–22
- 48 Wen Y., Gu J., Liu Y., Wang P. H., Sun Y. and Nadler J. L. (2001) Overexpression of 12-lipoxygenase causes cardiac fibroblast cell growth. Circ. Res. 88: 70–76
- 49 Rao G. N., Baas A. S., Glasgow W. C., Eling T. E., Runge M. S. and Alexander R. W. (1994) Activation of mitogen-activated protein kinases by arachidonic acid and its metabolites in vascular smooth muscle cells. J. Biol. Chem. 269: 32586–32591
- 50 Chang L. C. and Wang J. P. (2001) Signal transduction pathways for activation of extracellular signal-regulated kinase by arachidonic acid in rat neutrophils. J. Leukoc. Biol. 69: 659–665



To access this journal coline: http://www.birkhanser.ch