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Antitumor effects of 4-Methylumbelliferone, a hyaluronan synthesis inhibitor, on malignant peripheral nerve sheath tumor

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Novelty and Impact: A novel therapeutic tool other than existing chemotherapeutic agents is required to improve the prognosis of patients with malignant peripheral nerve sheath tumors (MPNSTs). This study demonstrates for the first time that 4-Methylumbelliferone (MU), an HA synthesis inhibitor, significantly suppress the tumorigenicity on human MPNST *in vitro* and *in vivo*. Our results suggest that MU may be a promising agent with novel antitumor mechanisms for MPNSTs.

53 *Abstract*

54 Hyaluronan (HA) has been shown to play important roles in the growth,
55 invasion, and metastasis of malignant tumors. Our previous study showing that high
56 HA expression in malignant peripheral nerve sheath tumors (MPNST) is predictive of
57 poor patient prognosis, prompted us to speculate that inhibition of HA synthesis in
58 MPNST might suppress the tumorigenicity. The aim of this study was to investigate
59 the antitumor effects of 4-Methylumbelliferone (MU), an HA synthesis inhibitor, on
60 human MPNST cells and tissues. The effects of MU on HA accumulation and
61 tumorigenicity in MPNST cells were analyzed in the presence or absence of MU in an
62 *in vitro* as well as *in vivo* xenograft model using human MPNST cell lines, sNF96.2
63 (primary recurrent) and sNF02.2 (metastatic). MU significantly inhibited cell
64 proliferation, migration, and invasion in both MPNST cell lines. HA binding protein
65 (HABP) staining, particle exclusion assay, and quantification of HA revealed that MU
66 significantly decreased HA accumulation in the cytoplasm and pericellular matrices in
67 both MPNST cell lines. The expression levels of HA synthase2 (HAS2) and HA
68 synthase3 (HAS3) mRNA were downregulated after treatment with MU. MU induced
69 apoptosis of sNF96.2 cells, but not sNF02.2 cells. MU administration significantly
70 inhibited the tumor growth of sNF96.2 cells in the mouse xenograft model. To the best
71 of our knowledge, this study demonstrates for the first time the antitumor effects of
72 MU on human MPNST mediated by inhibition of HA synthesis. Our results suggest
73 that MU may be a promising agent with novel antitumor mechanisms for MPNST.

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80 *Introduction*

81 Malignant peripheral nerve sheath tumor (MPNST) is a rare soft tissue sarcoma with
82 an aggressive clinical course and high metastatic potential even after adequate surgical
83 resection. Half of the patients with MPNST have associated neurofibromatosis type 1
84 (NF1), a tumor suppressor gene syndrome with an incidence of 1 in 3,500, whereas the
85 remainder develop these tumors *de novo*.¹ Approximately 10% of patients with NF1
86 develop MPNST which is the leading cause of NF1-related mortality.² Currently,
87 optimal surgery remains the cornerstone of treatment for localized MPNST, whereas
88 there is no effective systemic therapy available for advanced or metastatic MPNST. The
89 prognosis for patients with MPNST is generally unfavorable with a 5-year survival rate
90 of 20–50%.³ The development of novel antitumor agents is urgently needed to improve
91 the survival of patients with MPNST.

92 Hyaluronan (HA) is a high-molecular-weight glycosaminoglycan that is one of the
93 major components of the extracellular matrix (ECM). HA is synthesized by three types
94 of HA synthases (HAS1, HAS2, and HAS3) at the intracellular border of the plasma
95 membrane and is extruded to the cell surface and extracellular matrices.⁴ It is known
96 that HA plays important roles in matrix assembly, cell proliferation, differentiation,
97 and migration during development, normal tissue homeostasis, and disease.⁵ Moreover,
98 previous studies have described that extracellular HA stimulates growth, migration,
99 and invasion of various malignant tumors,^{6,7} and that increased HA levels in tumor
100 tissues are correlated with a poor patient prognosis with malignancies such as ovarian,
101 lung, thyroid, breast, colorectal, and gastric cancers.^{8–13} Furthermore, antisense
102 inhibition of HAS genes in tumor cells inhibits proliferation, invasion, and motility *in*
103 *vitro* and tumor growth and metastasis in *in vivo* models.^{14–17}

104 4-Methylumbelliferone (MU), a coumarin derivative (7-hydroxy-4-methylcoumarin),

105 blocks HA synthesis by inhibiting glucuronidation by endogenous
106 glucuronosyltransferase, which results in depletion of uridine diphosphate glucuronic
107 acid.¹⁸ To date, several studies have investigated the antitumor effects of MU in cancer
108 cell lines and in *in vivo* models.^{19–22} Recently, it was described that MU exerts potent
109 antitumor effects against bone metastases of breast and lung cancers.^{23,24} However, no
110 studies have ever analyzed the inhibitory effects of MU on soft tissue sarcoma,
111 particularly on malignant sheath tumors. The consensus from these studies was that
112 MU inhibits the tumorigenicity of multiple tumor cell types through inhibition of HA
113 synthesis both *in vitro* and *in vivo*. It was also shown that MU possibly downregulates
114 expression levels of HAS2 and/or HAS3 mRNA in several cancer cell lines.^{20,21,23} Based
115 on these findings, MU is thought to inhibit HA production of tumor cells in at least two
116 ways, namely inhibition of glucuronidation and HASs expression.^{20,25}

117 We previously demonstrated that increased HA expression in tumor tissues could be
118 a useful marker in differentiating MPNST from neurofibroma, and in identifying
119 patients with MPNST having a poor prognosis.²⁶ Based on these findings, we
120 hypothesized that HA-targeting therapy for patients with MPNST might have potential
121 as a novel therapeutic tool. In this study, we examined the antitumor effects of MU on
122 human MPNST cell lines *in vitro* and in an *in vivo* mouse xenograft model.

123

124 *Materials and methods*

125 Cell culture

126 The human MPNST cell lines, sNF96.2 and sNF02.2, were obtained from the
127 American Type Culture Collection (Manassas, VA). sNF96.2 cells were derived from
128 recurrent localized tumor and sNF02.2 from lung metastatic tumor of MPNST in NF1
129 patients, respectively. These two MPNST cell lines, which have different background
130 (locally recurrent and metastatic tumors), were selected because antitumor effects of

MU should be evaluated with MPNST cells of various oncological behaviors. Doubling time (26h) of sNF02.2 was shorter than that (33h) of sNF96.2. The cells were cultured in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS), 100 U/ml penicillin, and 100 µg/ml streptomycin. The cells were maintained at 37°C in a humidified atmosphere with 5% CO₂. MU was purchased from Wako Pure Chemicals (Osaka, Japan). MU for *in vitro* experiments was dissolved in dimethylsulfoxide (DMSO; Sigma-Aldrich, St Louis, MO) as a stock solution, and the final concentration of DMSO in the medium was adjusted to 0.1%. To exclude the cytotoxicity of DMSO in each experiment, the cells in the control group were incubated with the same concentration of DMSO without MU. For analyses of *in vitro* experiments, both cell lines (sNF02.2 and sNF96.2) were used, whereas only sNF96.2 cells used for *in vivo* studies as hereinafter described.

HA staining for cells and tissues

HA accumulation in sNF96.2 and sNF02.2 cells and implanted tumors of sNF96.2 cells in the *in vivo* model was evaluated using biotinylated hyaluronic acid binding protein (b-HABP; Seikagaku, Tokyo, Japan) as previously described.^{27,28} *In vitro*, sNF96.2 and sNF02.2 cells were seeded in chamber slides and allowed to adhere to the bottom of the slides overnight. The cells were incubated with (1.0 mM) or without MU (0.1% DMSO) for 24 h. The cultured cells were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde buffered with phosphate buffered saline (PBS) at room temperature for 20 min. The slides were treated with 3% H₂O₂ in methanol for 10 min at room temperature to block the endogenous peroxidase activity, followed by incubation with 1 % bovine serum albumin (BSA) in PBS for 1 h at room temperature. The slides were then incubated with 2.0 µg/ml b-HABP probe for 2 h at room temperature. Bound b-HABP was detected by the addition of streptavidin-peroxidase reagents and diaminobenzidine-

containing substrate solution (Nichirei, Tokyo, Japan). The slides were counterstained with hematoxylin. The slides incubated without b-HABP were used as negative controls.

For tissue staining, *in vivo* specimens of sNF96.2 tumors were fixed overnight with 4% paraformaldehyde buffered with PBS, and then embedded in paraffin. Sections of 5- μ m thickness were deparaffinized in xylene, rehydrated through graded ethanol, and subjected to HA staining as described above. Stained sections incubated without b-HABP or pre-treated with 5 U/ml Streptomyces hyaluronidase for 1 h at 60°C were used as negative controls or to confirm the specificity of HABP staining.

Particle exclusion assay

Pericellular matrices were visualized using a particle exclusion assay.²⁹ Following the treatment of sNF96.2 and sNF02.2 cells for 48 h with (1.0 mM) or without MU (0.1% DMSO), the medium was replaced with a suspension of sheep erythrocytes (Sigma-Aldrich, St Louis, MO) in PBS. Visualized pericellular matrices were photographed with an inverted phase-contrast microscope. Ten cells were randomly selected at 10 different fields in each treatment, and the functional pericellular matrix areas of cells were captured as digital images and measured with image analysis software (Image J; National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD). Labeling with Calcein AM (Sigma-Aldrich, St Louis, MO) was used to delineate the plasma membrane of sNF96.2 and sNF02.2 cells from the indistinct pericellular matrix after treatment with 1.0 mM MU. The cells were photographed using a Keyence inverted phase-contrast fluorescence microscope. The proportion of pericellular matrix areas to cell areas was evaluated as described previously.¹⁵ A matrix area was defined by the area delineated by the pericellular matrix minus the area delineated by the plasma membrane (defined as cell area). In the absence of detectable matrices, the matrix/cell ratio would be 0.0.

Quantification of HA

Both sNF96.2 and sNF02.2 cells were incubated with (1.0 mM MU) or without MU (0.1% DMSO) for 12 h and 24 h. HA was isolated according to previously described methods.³⁰ Briefly, the conditioned medium was collected and designated as “medium”. To extract the cell-surface associated HA, the cells were incubated for 10 min at 37 °C with trypsin-EDTA and washed with PBS. The trypsin solution and combined washes were designated as “pericellular.” After cell counting, the cells were placed in Proteinase K solution (0.15 M Tris–HCl, pH 7.5, 0.15 M NaCl, 0.01 M CaCl₂, and 5 mM deferoxamine mesylate containing 20 U of proteinase K) and incubated for 2 h at 55 °C, and this solution was designated as “intracellular.” All samples were heated at 100 °C for 15 min to inactivate protease activity and centrifuged at 15,000g for 30 min at 4 °C, after which the supernatants were analyzed. The HA concentrations were measured using the HA binding assay, as described previously.³¹ Briefly, each well in a Maxisorp microtiter plate (Nunc, Roskilde, Denmark) was coated with 50 µl of HABP (Seikagaku, Tokyo, Japan; 0.4 µg/ml in 0.1 M NaHCO₃, pH9.2), overnight at 4°C, and subjected to blocking with 200 µl each of 2% BSA in phosphate-buffered saline with 0.1% (v/v) Tween 20 (PBS-T) at room temperature for 2 h. After washing with PBS-T, samples (50 µl each) or standard HA solutions were applied, and the wells were incubated at 37°C for 1 h. After washing, 50 µl of biotinylated HABP (Seikagaku, Tokyo, Japan; 0.3 µg/ml, diluted with 1% BSA/PBS-T) was added, and the plate was incubated at 37°C for 1 h. Subsequently, peroxidase-conjugated streptavidin (Jackson Immuno Research Laboratories; diluted 1:2,000 with 1% BSA/PBS-T) was applied (50 µl each) for 1 h at 37°C. After incubation with 50 µl of 3,3',5,5'-tetramethylbenzidine substrate (KPL, Gaithersburg, CA) at 37°C for 10 min., the absorbance at 450 nm was measured on a VERSA max microplate reader (Molecular Devices, Sunnyvale, CA).

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210 Cell proliferation assay

211 Both sNF96.2 and sNF02.2 cells (1×10^4 /well) were seeded in 96-well plates
212 with 10% FBS. The cells were treated with (0.1 mM and 1.0 mM) or without MU (0.1%
213 DMSO). Following 24 h, 48 h, and 72 h of treatment, cell proliferation was assessed
214 with a Cell Counting Kit 8 (Dojindo Laboratories, Kumamoto, Japan). The plates were
215 incubated for 1 h after the addition of the reagent, and the absorbance was measured at
216 490nm with a microplate reader (Tecan Sunrise; Tecan Inc, Mannedorf, Switzerland).
217 Microscopic inspection of the wells confirmed that decreased absorbance values
218 correlated with decreased cell number. We also investigated whether exogenously
219 added high-molecular weight hyaluronan (HMWHA, 600–1,200 kDa, Seikagaku, Tokyo,
220 Japan) could inhibit the effects of MU. MPNST cells were incubated with 0–1.0 mM
221 MU with or without 200 µg/ml of HMWHA for 24, 48, and 72 h.

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223 Cell migration and invasion assays

224 Chemotactic motility of sNF96.2 and sNF02.2 cells was investigated using 12-well
225 cell culture chambers containing inserts with 12-µm pores (Millipore, Billerica, MA)
226 after 24 h of treatment with (0.1 mM and 1.0 mM) or without MU (0.1% DMSO).
227 Invasiveness of MPNST cells was evaluated in the same chambers which contain the
228 inserts with a 12-µm pore membrane coated with 100 µg/ml matrigel. The cells were
229 added to the upper chamber at a density of 5×10^5 cells/insert in the presence or
230 absence of MU (0.1 mM and 1.0 mM) with or without 200 µg/ml of HMWHA, and
231 chemotactic medium containing 10% FBS was placed in the lower chamber. After
232 incubation for 24 h, the cells on the upper side of each membrane were removed by
233 wiping with cotton swabs. The cells on the lower surface of the membrane were fixed
234 with 70% ethanol and stained with hematoxylin. The cell numbers of 10 different fields

on the lower side were counted under a light microscope (magnification $\times 200$).

In addition, to determine whether the effects of MU are mediated by the function of CD44, a key HA receptor, the migratory activity and invasiveness of sNF96.2 and sNF02.2 cells treated with MU were evaluated after knockdown of CD44 using siRNAs. Briefly, siRNA for Hyaluronic acid receptor cell adhesion molecule (HCAM; Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Santa Cruz, CA) were complexed with Lipofectamine RNAiMAX (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) in Opti-MEM (Gibco, Life technologies) according to the manufacturer's instruction, and then the mixtures were administered to sNF96.2 and sNF02.2 cells in DMEM with serum and antibiotics. As a control siRNA, the Silencer negative control (Ambion, Austin, TX) was used. For 48-h incubation, efficiency of knockdown with siRNA for CD44 was confirmed using real-time RT-PCR. The effects of MU on cell migration and invasion were analyzed under the condition of CD44 knockdown.

Evaluation for cell apoptosis

We examined whether the growth inhibition by MU was attributable to the induction of apoptosis. The effects of MU on cell apoptosis were measured by flow cytometry with anti-Annexin V antibody after incubation for 48 h with (0.1 mM and 1.0 mM) or without MU (0.1% DMSO). Both sNF96.2 and sNF02.2 cells were harvested and washed with PBS. Annexin V-FITC and binding buffer (Annexin V-FITC Apoptosis Detection Kit Plus; BioVision, Milpitas, CA) were added to the cells and incubated on ice for 15 min in the dark. After incubation, binding buffer was applied to each tube. Data were analyzed with FACS Calibur (Becton Dickinson, San Jose, CA) and Flow-Jo 7 software (Tree Star, Ashland, OR). To investigate the time-course effects of MU on apoptotic activity of sNF96.2 and sNF02.2 cells, TUNEL (TdT: terminal deoxynucleotidyltransferase-mediated dUTP nick end labeling) staining was carried

out at different periods of time (24, 72, and 96 h). The subconfluent cells were incubated with (0.1 mM and 1.0 mM) or without MU (0.1% DMSO) for 24, 48, 72, and 96 h, and subjected to TUNEL staining using an In Situ Cell Death Detection Kit, POD (Roche Diagnostics, Mannheim, Germany). Cells with brown-stained nuclei in 10 different fields were counted under a light microscope (magnification $\times 200$), and the percentage of positive-staining cells was calculated, and compared with control culture with the medium containing 0.1% DMSO.

Real-time RT-PCR

Both sNF96.2 and sNF02.2 cells were treated with (0.1 mM and 1.0 mM) or without MU (0.1% DMSO) for 6, 12, and 24 h. Total RNA was extracted with RNeasy Micro kit (Qiagen, San Diego, CA). Reverse-transcribed cDNA was subjected to real time RT-PCR for semi-quantification of HAS1, HAS2, HAS3, and CD44 mRNAs using a Light-Cycler (Roche Diagnostics, Mannheim, Germany). The relative expression levels of HASs and CD44 mRNAs of sNF96.2 and sNF02.2 cells were normalized with GAPDH mRNA levels. Specific oligonucleotide primer pairs were HAS1 (forward, 5'-CAGACCCACTGCGATGAGAC-3'; reverse, 5'-CCACCAGGTGCGCTGAAA-3'), HAS2 (forward, 5'-TCAGAGCACTGGGACGAAG-3'; reverse, 5'-CCCAACACCTCCAACCCAT-3'), HAS3 (forward, 5'-CAGCAACTTCCAATGAGGC-3'; reverse, 5'-CACAGTGTCTCAGAGTCGCA-3'), CD44 (forward, 5'-CTGAGCCTGGCGCAGATCG-3'; reverse, 5'-CCTCCGTCCGAGAGATGCTG-3'), and human GAPDH (forward, 5'-TGCACCACCAACTGCTTAGC-3'; reverse, 5'-GGCATGGACTGTGGTCATGAG-3'). The mRNA level at each time point was shown as a ratio to the control cultures with the medium containing 0.1% DMSO.

MPNST xenograft model

Animal experiments were approved by the Animal Research Committee of our institution. Six-week-old female athymic nude mice (BALB/C nu/nu mice; SLC, Shizuoka, Japan) were used in this study. To establish the xenograft model, two human MPNST cell lines, sNF96.2 and sNF02.2, were injected subcutaneously into the flanks of the mice at a concentration of 2×10^7 cells in 200 μ l suspension of PBS. Tumors routinely developed in mice injected with sNF96.2 cells, but not with sNF02.2 cells. For *in vivo* passage, the developed sNF96.2 tumors were harvested from the mice, minced in PBS by homogenization at lowest speed, and 100 μ l of homogenized solution was re-implanted into the flank of other tumor-naïve mice according to the protocol described by Faltz et al.³² When implanted tumor volumes reached approximately 100 mm³, mice were randomized into two groups (n = 8 each). In the MU-treated group, MU (10 mg/body weight; approximately equal to 400-500mg/kg) dissolved in 100 μ l of 0.4% carboxymethylcellulose (CMC) solution (Sigma-Aldrich, St Louis, MO) was administered intraperitoneally daily for six weeks. We previously reported that systemic administration of MU (10mg/body weight; 400-500mg/kg) did not affect the structure of normal skin, articular cartilage and body weight in mouse bone metastasis model²³. In the control group, the same amount of 0.4% CMC solution without MU was administered intraperitoneally to the mice for six weeks. Tumors were monitored twice a week. Tumor size was determined with a caliper, and the volume was calculated by the formula $V \text{ (mm}^3\text{)} = [\text{length (mm)}] \times [\text{width (mm)}]^2 \times 0.5$. All tumors were resected after the treatment for six weeks.

Immunohistochemical staining for Ki67

Ki67 protein is widely known as an appropriate and useful marker of the proliferating fraction within a given cell population. We performed Ki67 immunostaining for xenograft tumors to examine the effects of MU on the proliferation

in vivo. Deparaffinized and rehydrated sections were treated with 0.3% H₂O₂ in methanol for 30 min to block the internal peroxidase activity. The sections were incubated with mouse anti-human Ki67 monoclonal antibody (Dako, Glostrup, Denmark) as a primary antibody (dilution; 1:500) using Histofine MOUSESTAIN KIT (Nichirei, Tokyo, Japan) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Biotinylated anti-mouse goat IgG (Nichirei, Tokyo, Japan) was applied as a secondary antibody for 30 min at room temperature, and antibody binding was detected by the addition of streptavidin-peroxidase reagents and diaminobenzidine-containing substrate solution (Nichirei, Tokyo, Japan). Five fields (magnification × 400) were randomly selected in each section. Ki67-positive cells of these fields were counted and divided by the total number of tumor cells in each field. Three tumors each from the control and MU-treated mice were analyzed.

Statistical analysis

All the quantitative experiments *in vitro* were performed more than three times. Bonferroni–Dunn post hoc test was used to assess the differences between means in multiple groups, and Mann–Whitney U test or Student's *t* test were used to distinguish differences between two groups. P values of less than 0.05 were considered statistically significant.

Results

HA staining in cells

Both sNF96.2 and sNF02.2 cells treated with the control medium (0.1% DMSO) without MU for 24 h showed prominent staining for HA in cytoplasm of tumor cells (Fig. 1a). The positivity for HA was decreased, but not completely abrogated after 24-h treatment with 1.0 mM MU in both MPNST cell lines. The MU treatment caused

morphological change of cells, particularly reduced formation of cell processes and filopodia-like structures in sNF02.2, as compared with the cells treated with control cultures (0.1% DMSO) (arrowheads, Fig. 1a).

Particle exclusion assay

As shown in Fig. 1b, both sNF96.2 and sNF02.2 cells treated with control cultures (0.1% DMSO) showed abundant pericellular matrices (halo area around the cells; arrows) after incubation for 48 h. The treatment with 1.0 mM MU resulted in a substantial decrease in the area of pericellular matrices in both cell lines. Staining with Calcein AM enabled to define pericellular matrices treated with the control culture, and a loss of pericellular matrix treated with 1.0 mM MU surrounding both sNF96.2 and sNF02.2 cells. The ratio of pericellular matrix areas to cell areas in both cell lines treated with 1.0 mM MU was significantly lower than those treated with control cultures (0.1% DMSO) (sNF96.2; $P = 0.001$ and sNF02.2; $P = 0.002$, respectively; Fig. 1c).

Quantification of pericellular HA

The amount of HA (ng) was measured per 10^5 cells each in sNF96.2 and sNF02.2 cells, using the HA binding assay. As shown in Fig. 2, at the 12- and 24-h time points of cell culture, 1.0 mM MU significantly suppressed the amount of intracellular and pericellular HA in both sNF96.2 and sNF02.2 cells. The amount of HA in medium was also significantly decreased after 12- and 24-h treatment with 1.0 mM MU in both sNF96.2 and sNF02.2 cells, respectively.

Cell proliferation

Preliminary experiments revealed that cell viability of each cell line incubated

with 1.0 mM MU for 24- and 48-h was more than 95 % by Trypan Blue Exclusion assay. Treatment with 0.1 mM and 1.0 mM MU significantly inhibited the proliferation of sNF96.2 and sNF02.2 cells in a dose- and time-dependent manner, compared with the cells treated without MU (Fig. 3a and 3b, respectively). Even with a concentration of 0.1 mM MU treatment, cell proliferation was significantly reduced. Maximal reduction was obtained at a concentration of 1.0 mM in both sNF96.2 and sNF02.2 cells. Exogenously added HMWHA did not recover the inhibition of cell proliferation by MU in both MPNST cells.

Cell migration and invasion assays

At the 24-h time point of cell culture, the migratory activity of sNF96.2 and sNF02.2 cells treated with 1.0 mM MU was significantly suppressed compared with the cells with control cultures (0.1% DMSO) ($P < 0.001$ and $P < 0.001$, respectively; Fig. 3c). Treatment with 0.1 mM MU did not exhibit a statistically significant reduction compared with the cells treated with the control cultures (0.1% DMSO) in migratory activity of either MPNST cell lines. Invasiveness of sNF96.2 and sNF02.2 cells treated with 1.0 mM MU was significantly lower than that of the cells treated with the control cultures (0.1% DMSO) ($P < 0.001$ and $P < 0.001$, respectively; Fig. 3d). Treatment with 0.1 mM MU significantly suppressed the invasiveness of sNF02.2 cells compared with that of the control cultures (0.1% DMSO) ($P < 0.001$; Fig. 3d). Exogenously added HMWHA did not recover the suppressed migratory activity and invasiveness by MU in sNF96.2 and sNF02.2 cells.

Apoptosis assay

Flow cytometric analysis of Annexin V, an early apoptotic cell marker, showed that 1.0 mM MU significantly induced more apoptosis in sNF96.2 cells ($P = 0.001$; Fig.

3e), whereas apoptosis was not induced by MU treatment in sNF02.2 cells, even at a dose of 1.0 mM. At the 48-h time points of cell culture, the apoptotic activity of cells treated with MU varied between the two MPNST cell lines [Supplementary Fig. 1a (i–vi)]. TUNEL staining was also used to evaluate the apoptotic effect of MU on MPNST cells at different periods of time. Treatment with 1.0 mM MU significantly increased the ratio of apoptotic cells at each time point in sNF96.2 cells (24 h; $P = 0.001$, 48 h; $P = 0.044$, 72 h; $P = 0.001$, and 96 h; $P = 0.002$, respectively; Supplementary Fig. 1b), and at the 72- and 96-h time point in sNF02.2 cells (72 h; $P = 0.006$ and 96 h; $P = 0.005$, respectively). As a definitive positive control of MU effects on apoptosis, a human breast cancer cell line, MDA-MB-231 cells, were used, which were reported to increase apoptotic activity with MU treatment²³. The results of the present study was consistent with the previous ones that positivity of TUNEL staining in MDA-MB-231 cells significantly increase after 72-h treatment with 0.1 and 1.0 mM MU.

Real time RT-PCR

To determine the effects of MU on HA synthesis at messenger levels in human MPNST cells, HAS1-3 and CD44 mRNA expression was analyzed. HAS1 mRNA was undetectable by RT-PCR in both sNF96.2 and sNF02.2 cell lines (data not shown), and so we determined the HAS2, HAS3, and CD44 mRNA levels in sNF96.2 and sNF02.2 cells. Treatment with 1.0mM MU for 12 h significantly reduced mRNA expression of HAS2 in both sNF96.2 and sNF02.2 cell lines compared with that in the control cultures ($P < 0.001$ and $P = 0.009$, respectively; Fig. 3f). Expression levels of HAS3 mRNA in sNF96.2 cells treated with 0.1 mM and 1.0 mM MU were significantly downregulated compared with those in the control cultures ($P < 0.001$ and $P < 0.001$; respectively, Fig. 3g). In sNF02.2 cells, HAS3 mRNA was also decreased by MU in a dose-dependent manner, with the reduction, however, not reaching statistical

significance (Fig. 3g). Time-course analyses revealed that 1.0 mM MU significantly reduced mRNA expression of HAS2 in both MPNST cell lines at every time point, except at 24 h of sNF96.2 cells. Expression levels of HAS3 mRNA were downregulated in a time-dependent manner by 0.1 mM and/or 1.0 mM MU in sNF96.2 cells and sNF02.2 cells (Supplementary Fig. 2). Expression level of CD44 mRNA in sNF96.2 cells and sNF02.2 cells treated with 0.1 mM or 1.0 mM MU varied according to periods of incubation and types of cell lines. (Supplementary Fig. 2).

Knockdown of CD44

To investigate whether a main hyaluronan receptor, CD44, affect the results of MU treatment, effects of siRNA knockdown for CD44 on tumorigenicity in sNF96.2 and sNF02.2 cells were evaluated. After knockdown, CD44 mRNA expression was decreased to less than 10 % of control siRNA in both cell lines. Interestingly, CD44 knockdown itself had inhibitory effects of cell migration and invasiveness in both cell lines. Co-treatment of siRNA CD44 and MU had additive inhibitory effects of migration and invasion in sNF96.2 and sNF02.2 cells (Supplementary Fig. 3). However, these results could not conclude that MU effects are mediated by CD44 or not.

Tumor growth in the xenograft model

Two human MPNST cell lines, sNF96.2 and sNF02.2, were injected in the flank of nude mice. *In vivo* tumorigenicity was confirmed only in sNF96.2 cell injected mice. Daily administration of MU (10 mg/body weight) for six weeks significantly suppressed the increase of tumor volume of sNF96.2 compared with that with control treatment (4W; $P = 0.007$, 5W; $P = 0.074$, and 6W; $P = 0.006$, respectively; Fig. 4a) and tumor weight ($P = 0.047$; Fig.4b), as compared with those of the control mice treated with a vehicle (Fig. 4c). Positivity for HA of tumor cells and stromal tissues was suppressed

with MU treatment [Fig. 4d (i–iv)]. Immunostaining of Ki67, which is a marker for cell proliferation, revealed that the ratio of Ki67-positive cells in tumor cells of MU-treated mice was significantly reduced compared to that of vehicle-treated mice [Fig. 4d (v–vi)] ($P = 0.002$, Fig. 4e). The body weight of mice was measured twice a week during the drug administration. There was no statistical difference in body weight between the mice treated and untreated with MU at each time point (Fig. 4f). Body weight excluding tumor weight also did not differ between the control and MU-treated mice after the treatment for six weeks ($P = 0.147$).

Discussion

In general, the clinical outcome of patients with advanced MPNST is dismal. Doxorubicin and ifosfamide are currently the most active chemotherapeutic agents in patients with unresectable and metastatic soft tissue sarcomas; however, the Response Evaluation Criteria in Solid Tumors (RECIST) response rate for the combination is reported to be only approximately 26%.³³ The responses were no better in patients with MPNST, shown to be 21% in a multi-institution retrospective study for patients with unresectable and metastatic MPNST.³⁴ A novel therapeutic tool other than existing chemotherapeutic agents is thus urgently required to improve the prognosis of patients with advanced MPNST.

Recently, Slomiany et al. reported that HA oligomers suppressed HA secretion in MPNST cells, decreased doxorubicin resistance of MPNST, and suppressed the growth of MPNST xenografts in mice, which implicated the importance of HA in the tumorigenicity of MPNST.³⁵ Our previous study demonstrated that increased HA expression in MPNST tissues significantly correlated with poor prognosis in patients with MPNST.²⁶ Based on these results, there is a great need to identify pharmacologic

469 agents that effectively inhibit HA synthesis for MPNST, and are also clinically
470 applicable.

471 Several studies have shown the antitumor effects of MU in various malignancies
472 mediated by inhibition of HA synthesis.^{19–25, 36–38} It was reported that the inhibitory
473 effects of MU on cell migration and invasion could be explained by inhibition of
474 extracellular matrix formation through inhibition of HA synthesis in several cancer cell
475 lines.^{19,23,24,39} However, these studies examined the antitumor effect of MU primarily
476 focused on cancer cells of epithelial origin. The behavior of mesenchymal cells may
477 differ from that of epithelial cells because mesenchymal cells likely have more
478 abundant HA-rich matrices compared with epithelial cells. The antitumor effects of MU
479 in mesenchymal malignancies appeared to differ from those in epithelial malignancies.
480 The results of the particle exclusion assay in the present study revealed that MPNST
481 cells had abundant pericellular matrices, which were larger than the pericellular
482 matrix formation previously reported in cancer cells such as melanoma and pancreatic
483 cancer cells.^{19,22} Previous studies described that the inhibition of pericellular matrices
484 via inhibition of HA accumulation resulted in reduced tumorigenicity of osteosarcoma
485 cells.^{14,15} In our study, MU treatment significantly decreased the amount of pericellular
486 matrices concurrently with the reduction of the concentrations of intracellular and
487 pericellular HA determined with HA binding assay in both sNF96.2 and sNF02.2 cells.
488 These results implied that the depletion of pericellular matrix formation might be
489 partly attributable to the depletion of HA by MU treatment in MPNST cells.
490 Furthermore, HA staining *in vitro* revealed that MU inhibited accumulation of
491 pericellular HA in MPNST cells, and diminished the filopodia-like structure after MU
492 treatment in the present study, which was consistent with a previous report.²³ These
493 suggest that morphological change of cells possibly induced by HA depletion with MU
494 treatment might contribute in a significant way to the inhibition of tumorigenicity. On

the other hand, exogenously added HA could not cancel the effects of MU in the present study, which is inconsistent with the results in prostate cancer cells²¹. Newly synthesized HA bound to the HA synthase complex rather than non-bound HA in extracellular matrix might be important to maintain tumorigenicity of MPNST.

MU was reported to suppress mRNA levels of HAS2 and/or HAS3 in several carcinoma cell lines in a dose-dependent manner.^{20,21,23} Kultti et al. reported that a dose-dependent reduction by MU in the mRNA levels of HAS2 or HAS3, or both, was detected in four different cancer cell lines, and that alterations of the mRNA levels depended on the kind of tumor.²⁰ Results of these reports are consistent with the findings of our study with sNF96.2 and sNF02.2 cells, in which HAS2 and HAS3 mRNA levels were downregulated after treatment with MU. On the other hand, other researchers have demonstrated a significant contribution of HAS2 and HAS3 to the tumorigenicity of malignant cells. Kosaki et al. showed that Has2 transfection in HT1080 cells, a human fibrosarcoma cell line, resulted in increased HA production, tumor cell proliferation, and tumor size in xenograft models.⁴⁰ Li et al. described that siRNA-mediated knockdown of HAS2 suppressed cell growth and cellular migratory and invasive potential in human breast cancer cells.¹⁷ Taken together with the results of these previous studies, MU was thought to inhibit the tumorigenicity of MPNST cells partly through repression of HAS2 and/or HAS3 mRNA in the present study. However, it has not yet been elucidated how MU downregulated the levels of HASs mRNA at the molecular level.

In the present study, the proliferation of sNF96.2 and sNF02.2 cells was significantly suppressed by MU, supporting previous data on other types of tumor cell.^{15,20–24,36} The apoptotic activity of sNF96.2 cells was induced by MU treatment, whereas that of sNF02.2 was not. Recent studies demonstrated that MU treatment was associated with growth arrest and apoptosis of tumor cells,^{21,23,37} whereas Edward et al. reported that

521 MU had no effect on apoptosis of melanoma cells,³⁸ suggesting that stimulation of
522 apoptosis may be tumor-type dependent, and/or vary among cell lines of the same
523 malignant neoplasms.

524 The current study also examined the antitumor effects of MU in a xenograft model of
525 MPNST. Tumors developed in the sNF96.2 cell transplanted mice, but not in sNF02.2
526 cell transplanted ones. Considering that sNF96.2 cells were derived from locally
527 recurrent MPNST and sNF02.2 cells from metastatic MPNST of lung, a possible
528 explanation was that the affinity of these cells for host tissues of mice (“seed and soil”
529 theory) might affect the establishment of xenograft tumors. Another explanation might
530 be that MPNST is a group of extremely heterogeneous tumors, particularly with regard
531 to their genomic alterations, which will affect the development of tumors *in vivo*. Our
532 previous report investigating HASs expression in human MPNST tissues showed that
533 expression patterns of HAS1, 2, and 3 were markedly heterogeneous among cases.²⁶
534 MU significantly reduced the growth rate of sNF96.2 tumors in the xenograft model,
535 possibly mediated by reduced deposition of HA in tumorous and stromal tissues. MU
536 could not show the effects of tumor shrinkage, but have “tumor-dormancy” effects for
537 MPNST.

538 The molecular mechanisms underlying MPNST development and progression are not
539 fully understood. Although several preclinical studies are underway to develop a
540 targeted therapy for MPNST based on molecular approaches, successful results of
541 clinical trials with novel agents are absent. Since NF1 gene product, neurofibromin,
542 acts as a negative regulator in the Ras signal transduction pathway, several studies
543 evaluating potential treatments for MPNST have focused on the compounds that block
544 Ras signaling, such as farnesyl transferase inhibitors or mTOR inhibitors.^{41–43} Other
545 studies have investigated targeted therapies for molecules such as erlotinib (EGFR
546 inhibitor), sorafenib (VEGFR and RAF inhibitor), and imatinib mesylate (tyrosine-

kinase inhibitor).^{44–46} These compounds have shown positive effects *in vitro* and/or in *in vivo* studies, while demonstrating a limitation as a single agent in human clinical trials.^{47–51} It is suggested that a major problem of a target therapy for signal pathways may be the capability of tumor cells to mutate and use alternate pathways for survival and proliferation thereby escaping specific inhibitor action. “Second hits” other than NF1 mutation vary among MPNSTs, making it difficult to target a single pathway for therapy of MPNSTs. Therefore, additional therapeutic approaches relying on other antitumor mechanisms are more likely to be needed in patients with MPNST.

MU is already an established therapeutic agent for choleretic and biliary antispasmodic activity.²⁵ The clinical experience to date also reveals that MU is a safe and well-tolerated oral medication. Our results showed that MU suppressed cell growth *in vitro* and *in vivo*, increased apoptosis activity, and attenuated cell migration and invasion of MPNST through the inhibition of HA synthesis and possibly alteration of the tumor microenvironment. Although further investigations are warranted to clarify the efficacy and mechanisms of MU in patients with MPNST, HA-targeting therapy with MU may have potential as a novel therapeutic tool for patients with MPNST.

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Declaration of interest

The authors report no conflicts of interest.

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754

755 **Figure legends**

756

757 Fig. 1

758 Effects of MU (1.0 mM) on intracellular and pericellular HA accumulation in sNF96.2 and sNF02.2 cells. (a) Histochemical staining with b-HABP in each cell treated with or without MU (0.1% DMSO) for 24 h. The cells incubated without b-HABP were used as negative controls. MU treatment caused a loss of filopodia-like structures in both sNF96.2 and sNF02.2 cells (arrowheads) (original magnification $\times 400$). (b) Visualized pericellular matrices following treatment for 48 h with (1.0 mM) or without MU (0.1% DMSO). Green cells depicted the stained cells with Calcein AM (ii, iv, vi, and viii). All cells were presented at the same magnification (original magnification $\times 200$). Both

sNF96.2 (i and ii) and sNF02.2 cells (v and vi) treated with the control medium showed abundant pericellular matrices (arrows). In contrast, sNF96.2 (iii and iv) and sNF02.2 cells (vii and viii) treated with 1.0 mM of MU had markedly reduced pericellular matrices. (original magnification $\times 400$). (c) Morphometric analyses of pericellular matrices. The proportions of the area delineated by the pericellular matrix area to the area delineated by the plasma membrane area were plotted. Data represent the means \pm SD from 10 cells under each condition. (** $P < 0.01$ compared with the control treated without MU, as measured using student's t test).

774

775 Fig. 2

Effects of MU (1.0 mM) on the concentration (ng/ 10^5 cells) of HA in sNF96.2 and sNF02.2 cells at 12- and 24-h time points of incubation in the presence or absence of MU. (a) The concentration (ng/ 10^5 cells) of pericellular HA in sNF96.2 cells. (b) The concentration (ng/ 10^5 cells) of intracellular HA in sNF96.2 cells. (c) The concentration (μ g/ 10^5 cells) of HA in medium in sNF96.2 cells. (d) The concentration (ng/ 10^5 cells) of pericellular HA in sNF02.2 cells. (e) The concentration (ng/ 10^5 cells) of intracellular HA in sNF02.2 cells. (f) The concentration (μ g/ 10^5 cells) of HA in medium in sNF02.2 cells. Each experiment was performed in triplicate, and bars indicate the means \pm SD. (* $P < 0.05$ and ** $P < 0.01$ compared with the control treated without MU, as measured using Bonferroni-Dunn post hoc test).

786

787 Fig. 3

Effects of MU (0.1 mM and 1.0 mM) on cell proliferation, migration, invasion, apoptotic activity, and HAS mRNA expression of sNF96.2 and sNF02.2 cells. (a and b) Cell proliferation of sNF96.2 and sNF02.2 cells at 24-, 48-, and 72-h time points of treatment with or without MU, respectively. (c) Migratory activity of sNF96.2 and

sNF02.2 cells after treatment for 24 h with or without MU. (d) Invasiveness of sNF96.2 and sNF02.2 cells after treatment for 24 h with or without MU. The exogenous HA (600–1,200 kDa, 200 µg/ml) was added concurrently with MU in (a and b) cell proliferation, (c) migration, and (d) invasion assays. (e) Apoptotic activity of sNF96.2 and sNF02.2 cells determined by flow cytometric analysis of Annexin V after treatment for 48 h with or without MU. (f and g) The relative values of HAS2 and HAS3 mRNA expression in sNF96.2 and sNF02.2 cells after treatment for 12 h with or without MU. The data presented were standardized by GAPDH mRNA expression. Each experiment was performed in triplicate, and bars indicate the means \pm SD (* P < 0.05 and ** P < 0.01 compared with the control treated without MU, using Bonferroni-Dunn post hoc test).

803

804 Fig. 4

Effects of MU on tumor growth in xenograft mice model of sNF96.2. After the establishment of the sNF96.2 tumor, administration of daily MU (10mg/body **weight**) for six weeks significantly suppressed tumor growth in volume (a) and weight (b) (* P < 0.05 and ** P < 0.01, respectively compared with the control treated without MU, using Mann-Whitney U test or student- t test). (n = 8 each). (c) Representative pictures of resected tumors from the mice treated with or without MU for six weeks are shown. (d) Histological findings of the xenograft tumors after treatment for six weeks with (ii and iv) or without (i and iii) MU. Sections were stained with HABP (i and ii; original magnification \times 100, bars indicate 500 µm). Representative images with higher magnification were shown as insets (iii and iv; original magnification \times 400, bars indicate 100 µm). Representative images with higher magnification was shown as inset Sections with or without MU (vi and v, respectively) were immunolabeled for Ki67 (original magnification \times 400, bars indicate 100 µm). (e) Percentage of Ki67-positive

cells in tumor sections from the control and MU-treated mice. Percentage of positive cells were calculated by dividing the number of Ki67-positive cells by the total number of cells in each field. (** $P < 0.01$, control vs MU treated tumors, using student's t test). (n = 3 each). (g) Body weight of the mice treated and untreated with MU during administration of daily MU for six weeks (difference was not significant, control vs MU treated mice, using student's t test). (n = 8 each).

Supplementary figure legends

Fig. S1

(a) Representative histograms of flow cytometric analysis with Annexin V depicting apoptosis distribution in sNF96.2 and sNF02.2 cells after treatment for 48 h with or without MU. Histograms of sNF96.2 cells treated with (i) DMSO, (ii) 0.1 mM MU, and (iii) 1.0 mM MU were shown. Histograms of sNF02.2 cells treated with (iv) DMSO, (v) 0.1 mM MU, and (vi) 1.0 mM MU were shown. Presented data were representatives of at least three independent experiments. (b) Effects of MU on apoptotic activity in sNF96.2 and sNF02.2 cells, and bars represent mean \pm SD. (* $P < 0.05$ and ** $P < 0.01$ compared with the control treated with DMSO, as measured using Bonferroni-Dunn post hoc test).

Fig. S2

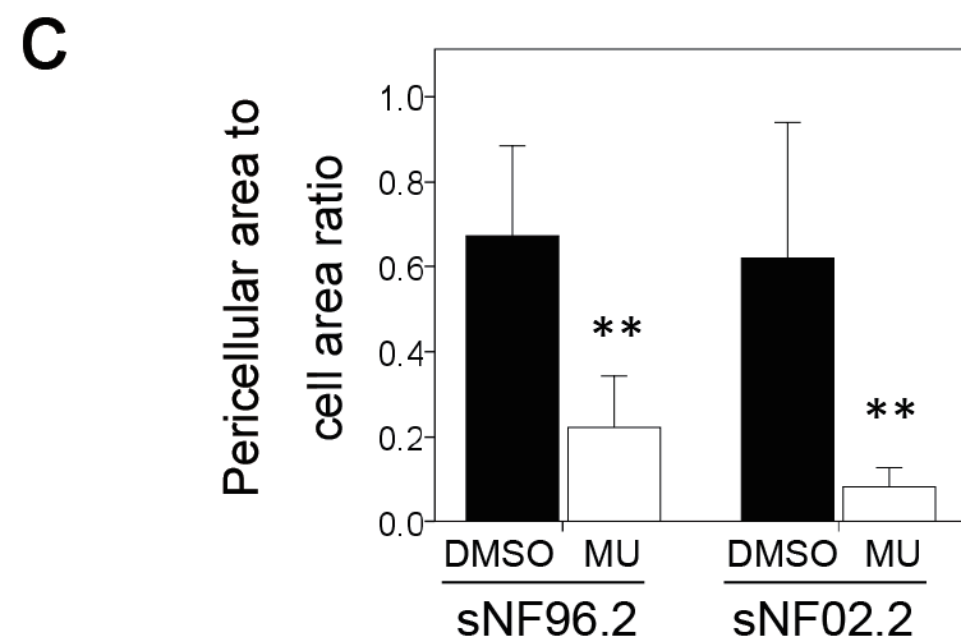
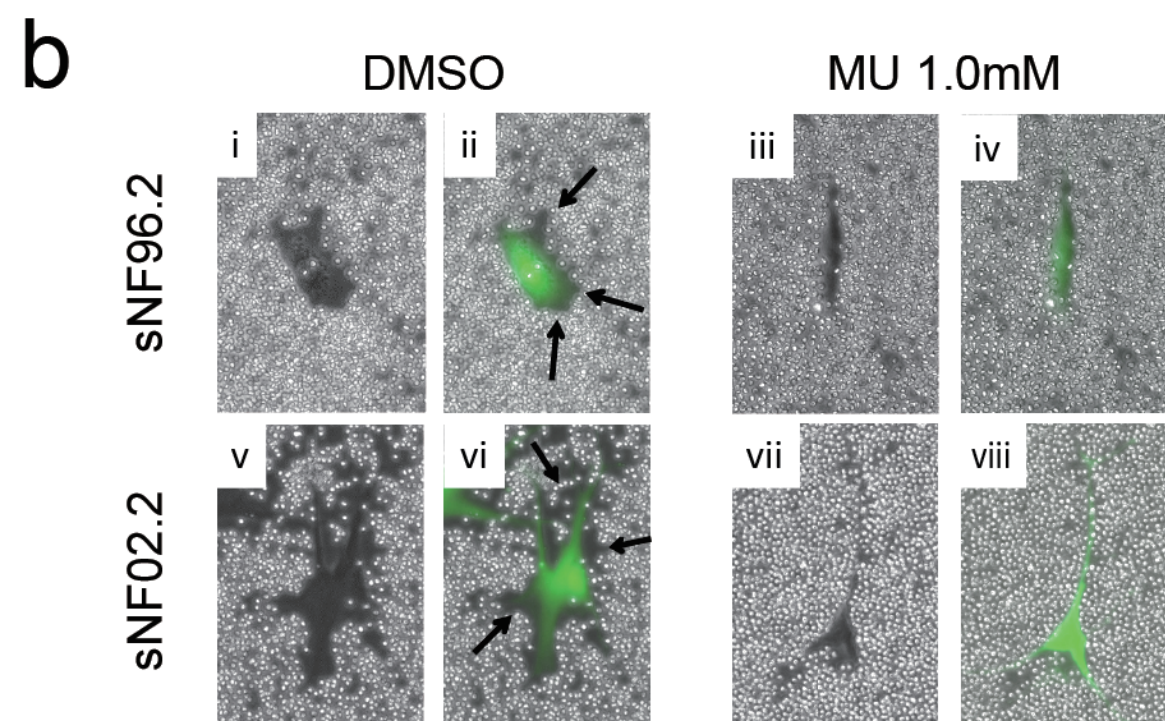
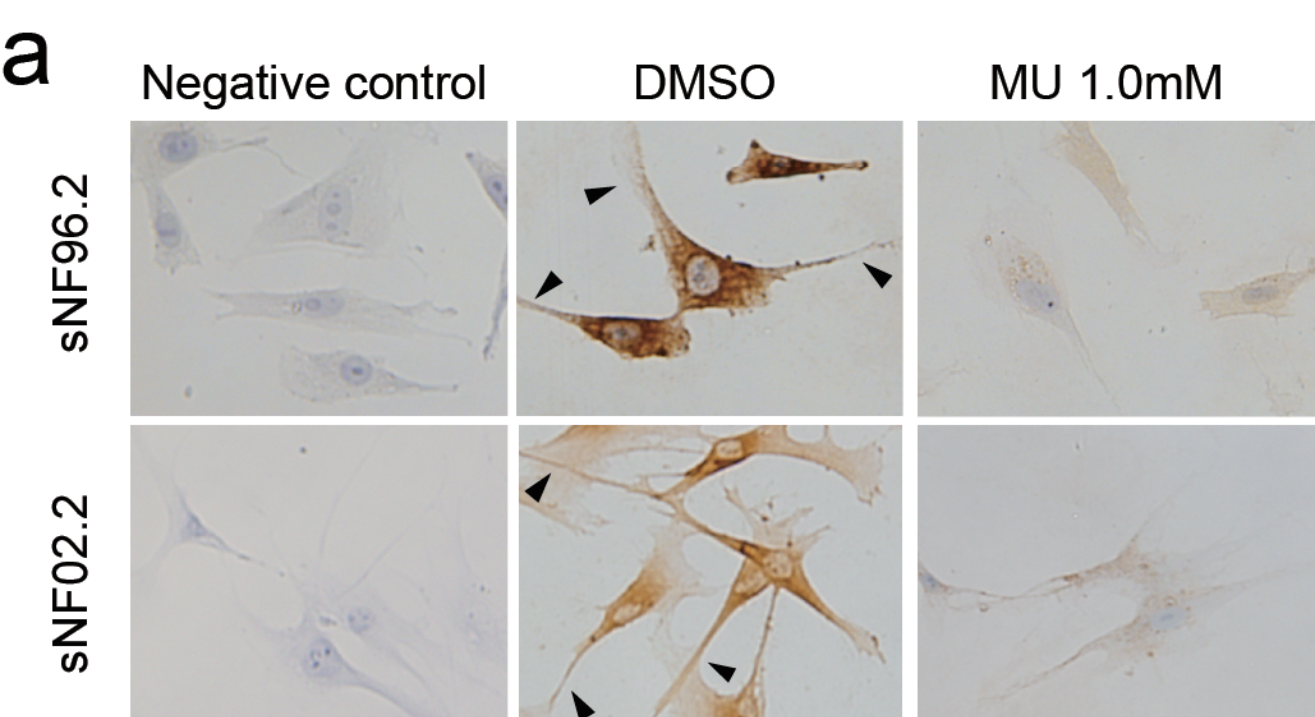
(e) The relative values of HAS2, HAS3, and CD44 mRNA expression in sNF96.2 and sNF02.2 cells after treatment for 6, 12, 24 h with or without MU. The data presented were standardized by GAPDH mRNA expression. Each experiment was performed in triplicate, and bars indicate the means \pm SD (* $P < 0.05$ and ** $P < 0.01$

842 compared with the control treated without MU, using Bonferroni-Dunn post hoc test).

843

844 Fig. S3

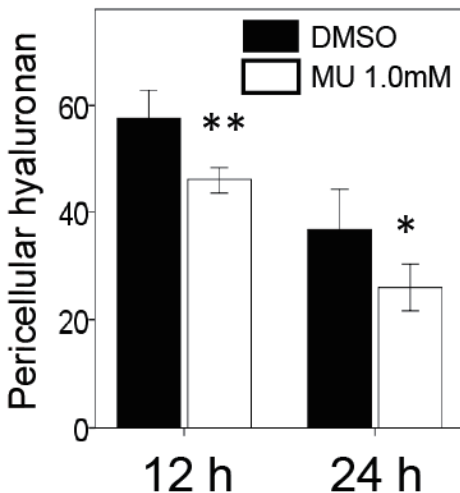
845 (f) Cell migration and invasiveness of sNF96.2 and sNF02.2 cells after
846 knockdown of CD44. The data are presented as the means \pm SD (** $P < 0.01$ compared
847 with the control treated with DMSO, using Bonferroni-Dunn post hoc test).



sNF96.2

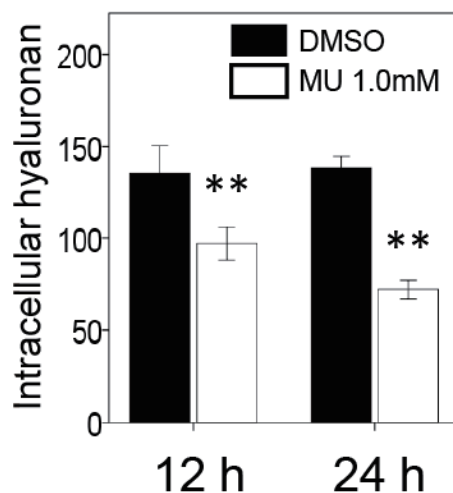
a

(ng/10⁵cells)



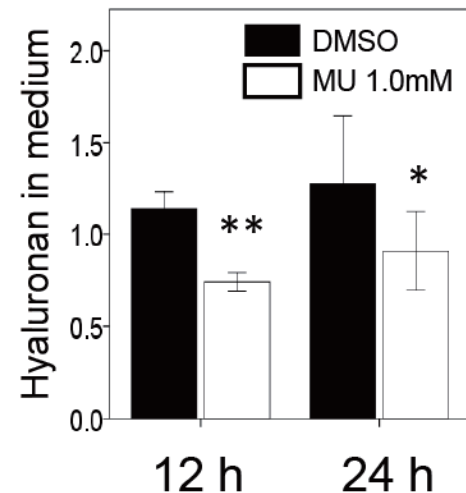
b

(ng/10⁵cells)



c

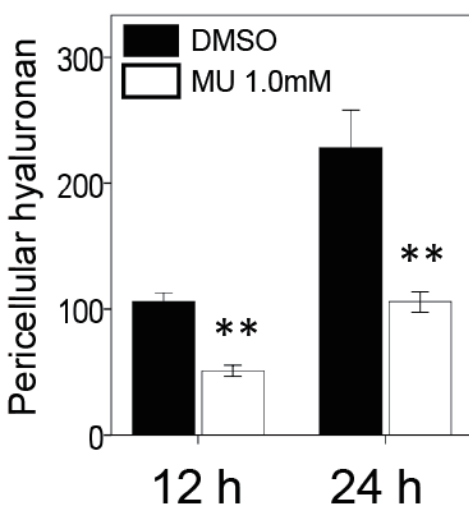
(μg/10⁵cells)



sNF02.2

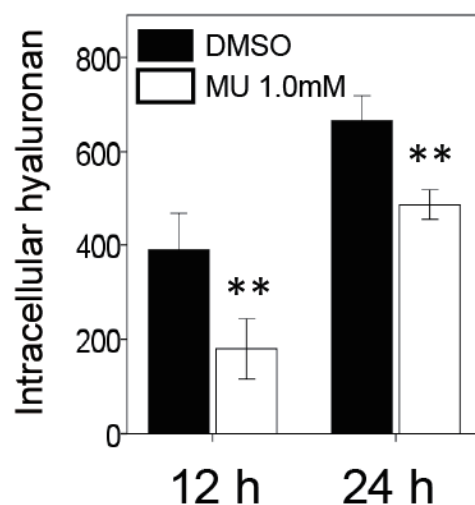
d

(ng/10⁵cells)



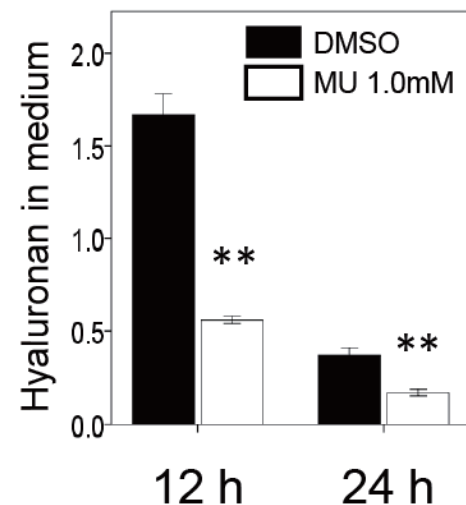
e

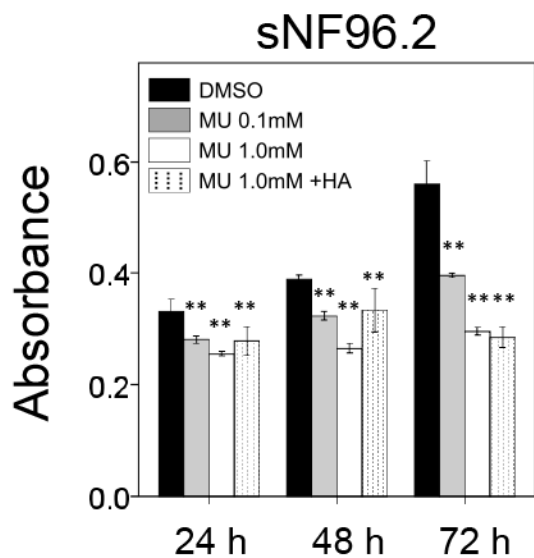
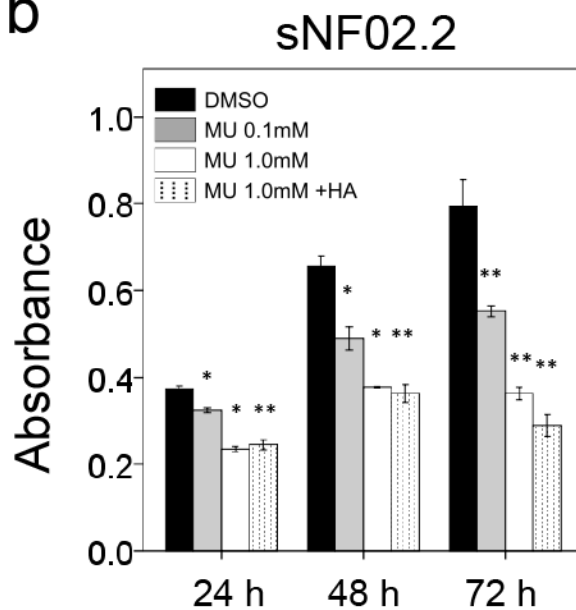
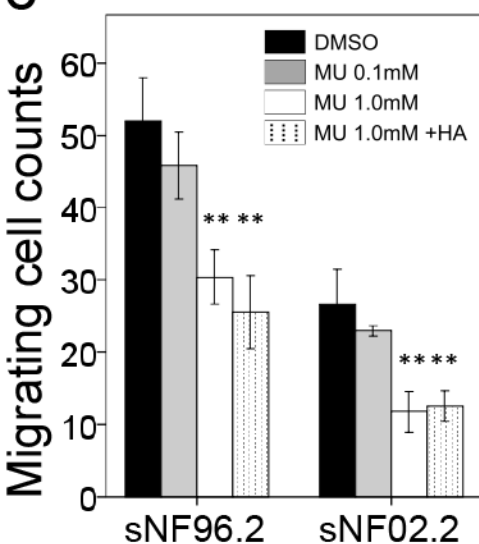
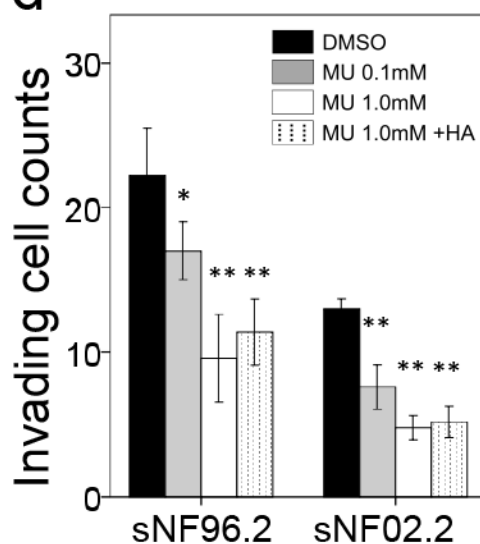
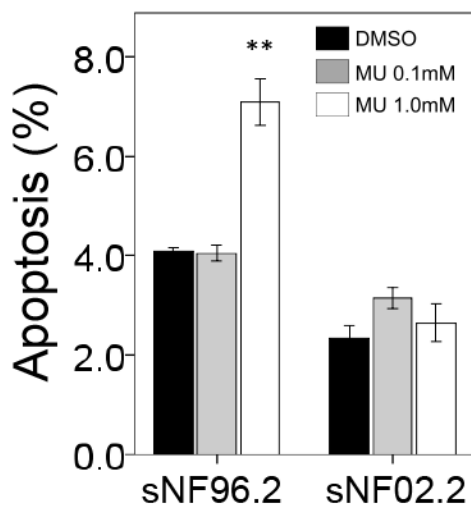
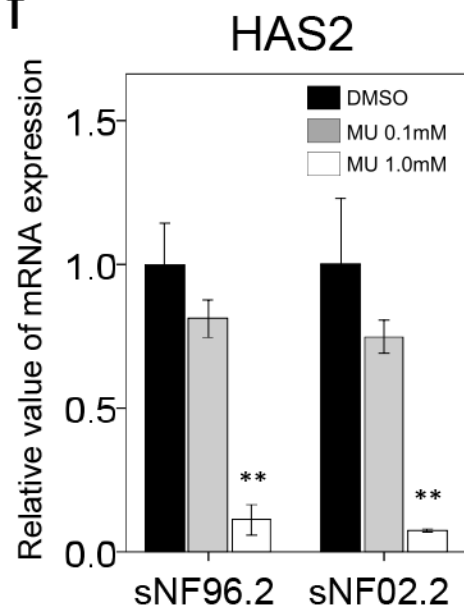
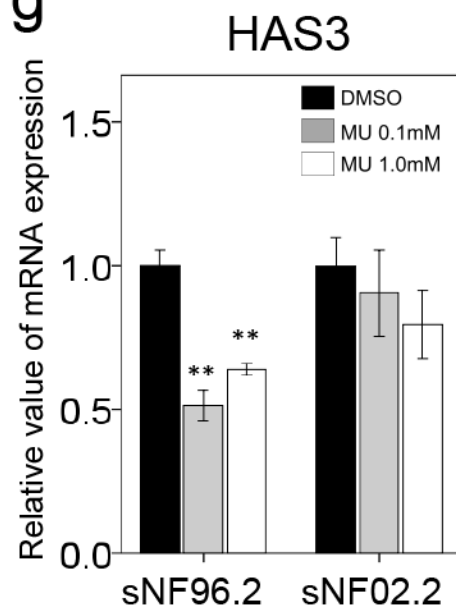
(ng/10⁵cells)

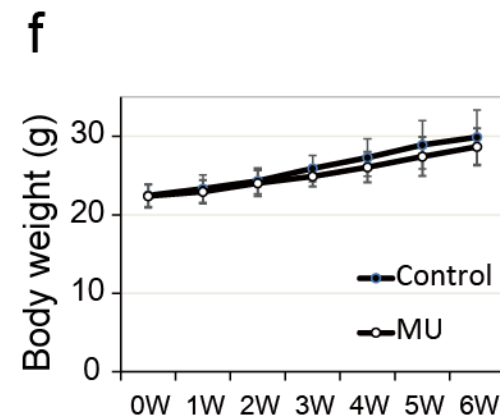
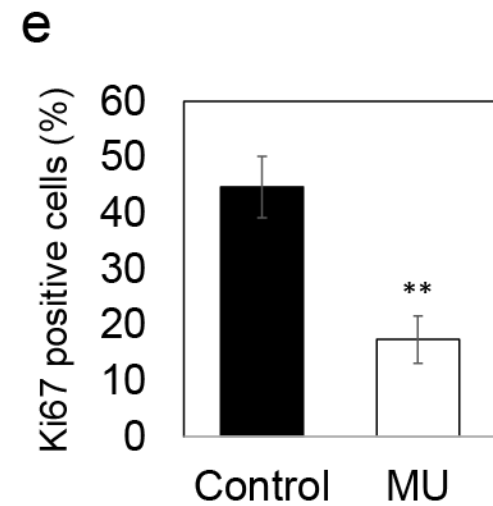
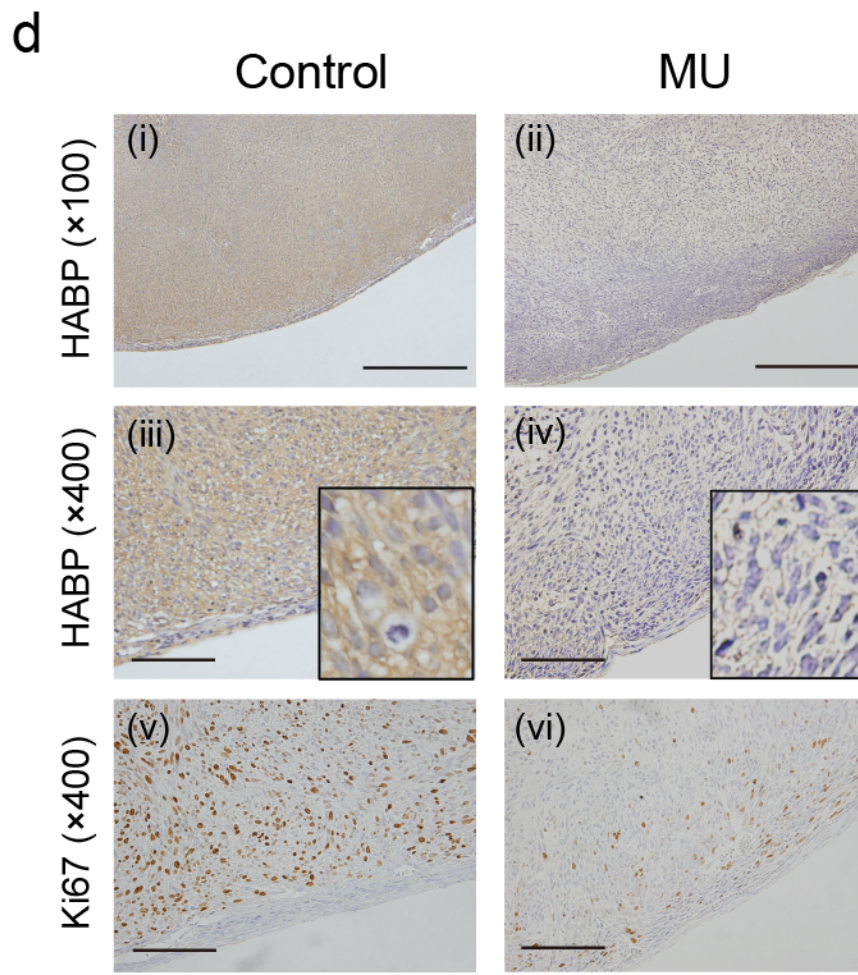
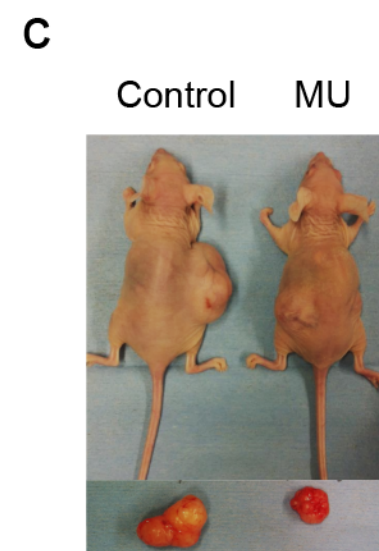
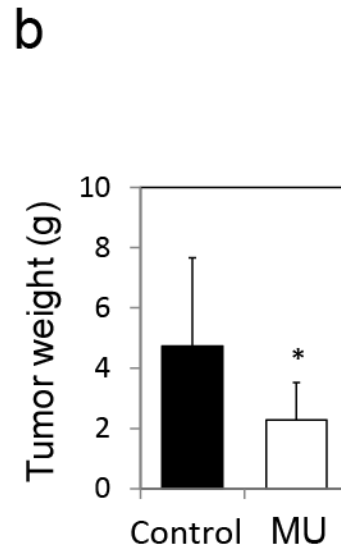
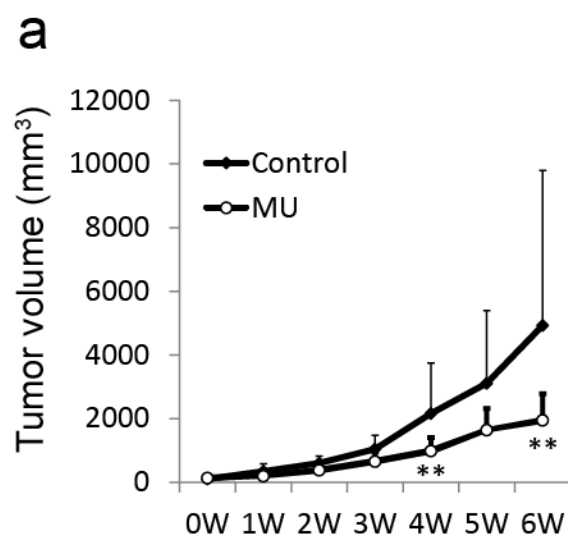


f

(μg/10⁵cells)

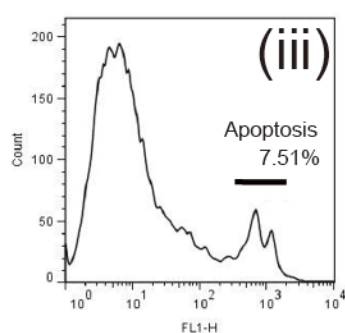
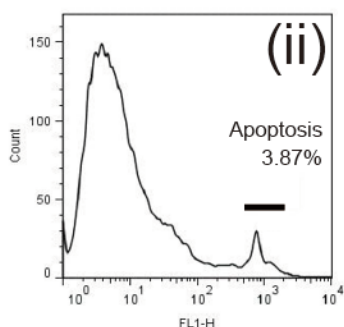
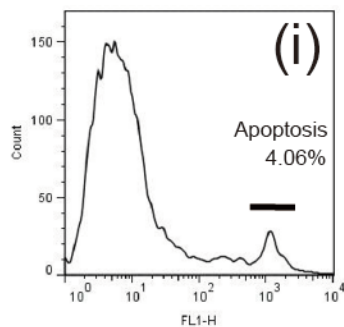


a**b****c****d****e****f****g**

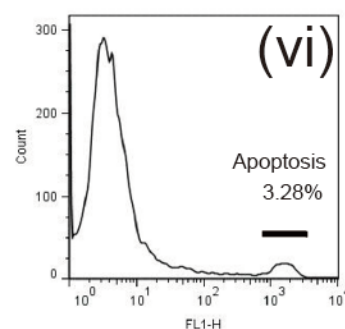
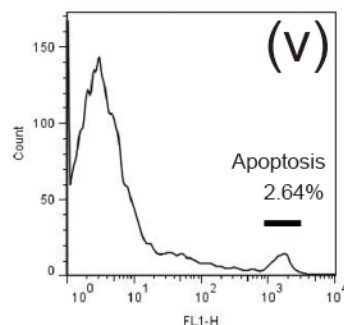
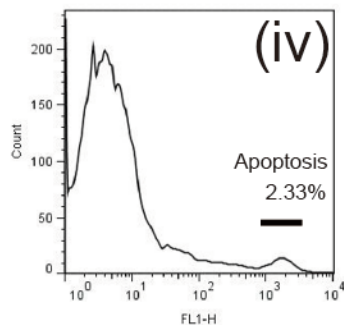


a

sNF96.2

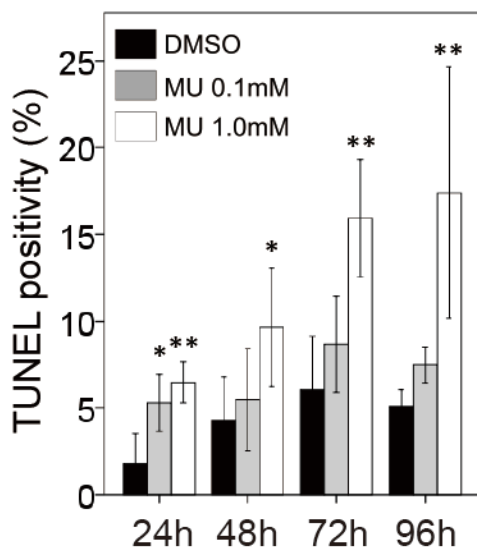


sNF02.2

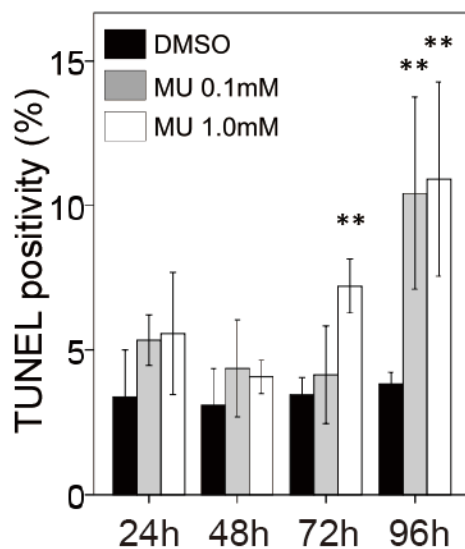


b

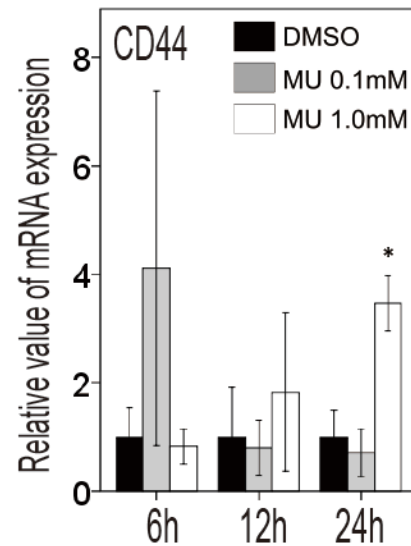
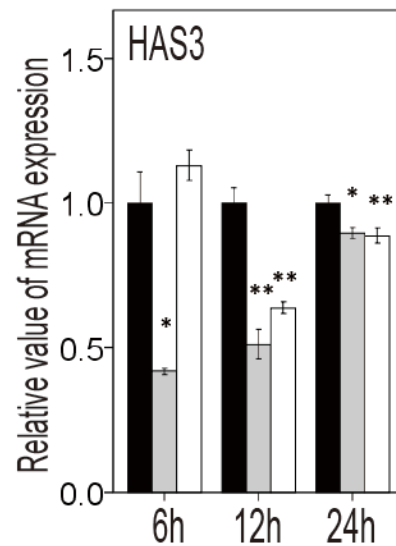
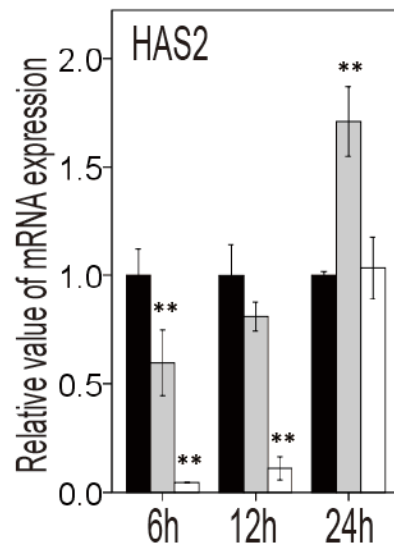
sNF96.2



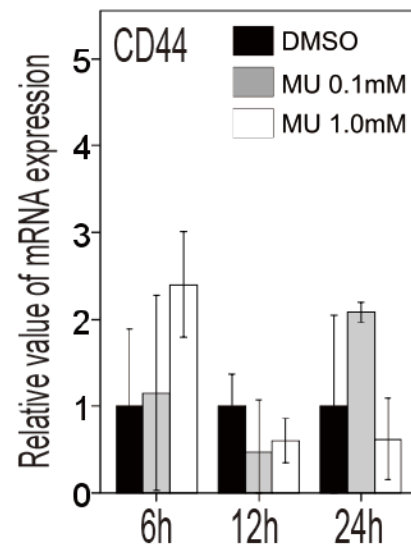
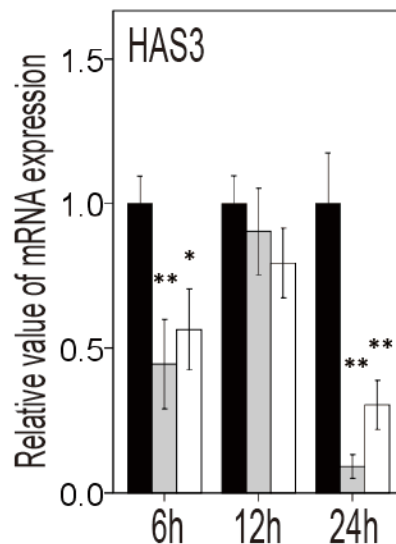
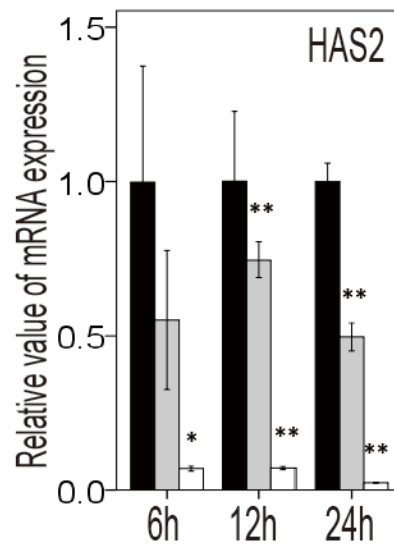
sNF02.2



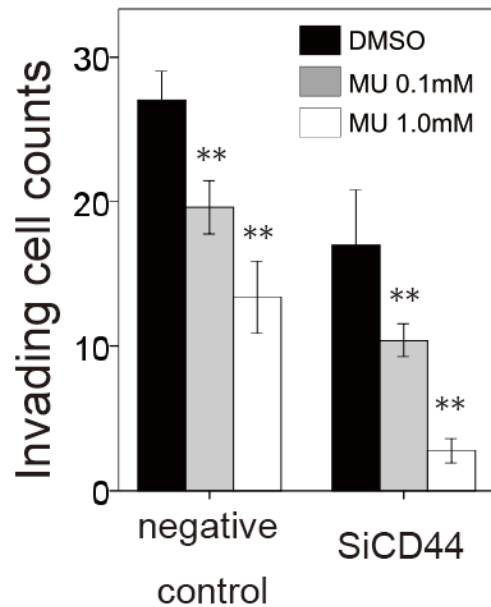
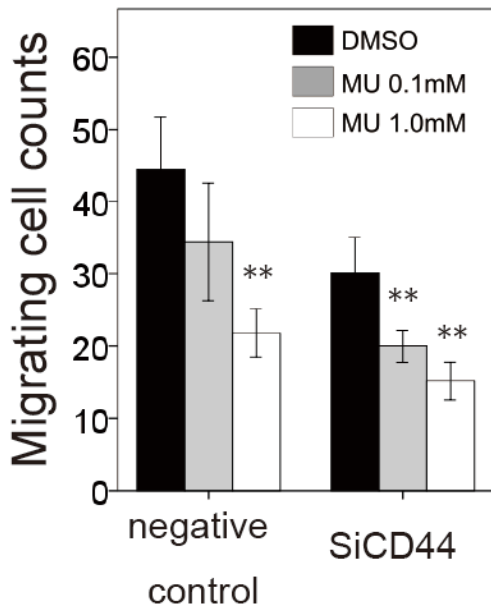
sNF96.2



sNF02.2



sNF96.2



sNF02.2

