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# Prostaglandins antagonistically control Bax activation during apoptosis

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The Bax protein (Bcl-2-associated X protein) is pivotal for the apoptotic process. Bax, which resides in an inactive form in the cytosol of healthy cells, is activated during the early stages of apoptosis and becomes associated with mitochondria through poorly understood mechanisms. In this study, we show that a family of bioactive lipids, namely prostaglandins, regulates Bax-dependent apoptosis. The prostaglandin  $E_2$  (PGE<sub>2</sub>) or its derivative PGA<sub>2</sub> binds to Bax, induces its change of conformation, and thereby triggers apoptosis. A cysteine present in the loop between the two transmembrane  $\alpha$ -helices of Bax, Cys126 is critical for its activation. PGD<sub>2</sub> inhibits PGE<sub>2</sub> binding to Bax and PGE<sub>2</sub>-induced apoptosis, as well as cell death induced by staurosporine and UV-B in various cell lines. This result is consistent with the fact that apoptosis is accompanied during these treatments by an increase in PGE<sub>2</sub>. This process is distinct, yet cooperative, from that involving the BH3-only protein Bid. Our results establish that the PGE<sub>2</sub>/PGD<sub>2</sub> balance is involved in a new early mechanism of control in the activation of Bax during apoptosis.

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Members of the Bcl-2 (Bcl-2-associated X protein) family of proteins determine both the initiation and the execution of mitochondrial outer membrane permeabilization (MOMP) and the subsequent apoptosis. These proteins share a similar solution structure, and are subdivided into two groups: antiapoptotic proteins (e.g., Bcl-2, Bcl-XI, Bcl-W and Mcl-1) and proapoptotic proteins, which control apoptosis through complex interaction with each other. Proapoptotic proteins are further subdivided into multidomain proteins (namely, Bax, Bak and Bok) and BH3-only proteins (e.g., Bim, Bad, Bid, Puma or Noxa) whose homology with Bcl-2 is limited to the BH3 domain. BH3-only proteins function as upstream sensors that selectively respond to specific signals and promote the proapoptotic function of Bax and/or Bak. Both in vivo and in vitro experiments have proved that the conformation of monomeric Bax/Bak change upon induction of apoptosis. leading to their oligomerization in the mitochondrial membrane and MOMP. 1-3

How Bax and Bak are activated is a matter of debate.<sup>2,4</sup> A widely accepted model proposes that some BH3-only proteins called 'activators' (tBid, Bim and Puma) induce the Bax/Bak apoptotic conformational change through transient physical interaction in a 'hit and run' manner. Another group named 'enabler' (also called derepressor or sensitizer) can release Bax and Bak from antiapoptotic proteins, which in turn trigger MOMP.<sup>1–3</sup> The existence of a direct interaction of Bax/Bak with BH3-only proteins has been challenged, suggesting the existence of alternative mechanisms responsible

for the activation of Bax or Bak. A change in pH or temperature has also been shown to facilitate the transition between the inactive and active states of Bax, supporting a role for non-protein interactions in apoptosis. 5–7 However, the physiological occurrence for this type of regulation has not been provided in these studies.

We have recently shown that microsomal prostaglandin E<sub>2</sub> synthase 1 (mPGES-1), the enzyme responsible for the synthesis of PGE<sub>2</sub> downstream of cyclooxygenase 2 (COX-2), facilitates a Bax-dependent apoptosis in human gliomas.<sup>8</sup> The exact role of prostaglandins during apoptosis remains unclear, especially in the case of PGE<sub>2</sub>, which has been described, to affect differently programmed cell death depending upon the cellular types and/or contexts (see e.g., Huang *et al.*,<sup>9</sup> Sheng *et al.*<sup>10</sup> and Tessner *et al.*<sup>11</sup>). However, most studies have essentially been focused on extracellular PGE<sub>2</sub> and its binding to EP receptors. In this study, we describe the role of intracellular PGE<sub>2</sub> and its closely related prostaglandin PGD<sub>2</sub> on Bax activation.

# Results

PGE<sub>2</sub>-derived prostaglandins specifically induce Bax activation. We have recently shown that PGE<sub>2</sub> microinjection induced a Bax-dependent cell death in human glioma primary cultures.<sup>8</sup> The microinjection of PGE<sub>2</sub> into the cytoplasm of a rat fibroblast cell line (i.e., Rat-1) induced a substantial and rapid cell death (i.e., >40% cell death

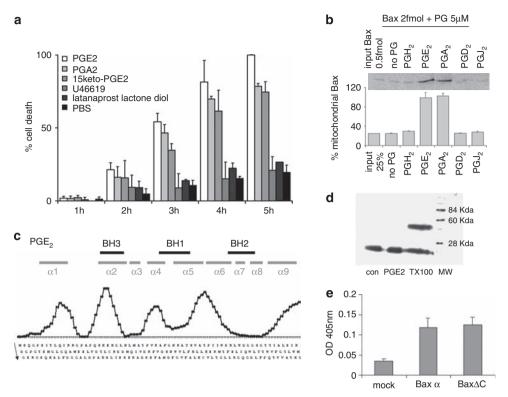
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Abbreviations: Bax, Bcl-2-associated X protein; COX-2, cyclooxygenase 2; L-PGDS, lipocalin-like prostaglandin D<sub>2</sub> synthase; mPGES-1, microsomal prostaglandin E<sub>2</sub> synthase 1; PGE<sub>2</sub>, prostaglandin E<sub>2</sub>; 15-keto PGE<sub>2</sub>, 15-keto prostaglandin E<sub>2</sub>

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**Figure 1** PGE<sub>2</sub>-like prostaglandins specifically activate Bax. (a) Prostaglandins or analogs were microinjected into GBM cells (20  $\mu$ M injected, corresponding to a 2  $\mu$ M intracellular raise) and cell death in the injected cells was assessed every hour. (b) <sup>35</sup>S *in vitro* translated Bax was incubated with indicated prostaglandins and then added to isolated mitochondria. Bax translocation was assessed by the amount of mitochondria-associated Bax. (c) A pepscan experiment was carried out with biotinylated PGE<sub>2</sub> as described in Materials and methods. The gray bars over the graph show the  $\alpha$ -helices position of Bax and the black bars show the BH domains. (d) Cytosolic Bax was incubated with the cross-linker alone (con), or EGS plus PGE<sub>2</sub> (5  $\mu$ M) or 1% TX100. PGE<sub>2</sub> does not induce Bax dimerization. The blot shown is representative from three independent experiments. (e) DU-145 Bax-deficient cells were transfected either with Bax- $\alpha$  or with the H $\alpha$ 9-deleted form of Bax (Bax $\Delta$ C). Cell lysates were applied to a 96-well plate coated with an anti-Bax antibody (2D2). PGE<sub>2</sub> was added to the wells with PGE<sub>2</sub>-AChE as a tracer

within 6 h; Supplementary Figure S1). This result implies that the cell death inducing activity of PGE2 is not restricted to malignant cells, to the nervous system or to human cell lines and thus could be a general feature during apoptosis. To address this question, we have analyzed the impact of cytoplasmic microinjections of PGE2-related prostaglandins on the induction of apoptosis (Supplementary Figure S2). In vivo, PGE2 is rapidly transformed by a non-enzymatic dehydration into PGA<sub>2</sub> or is metabolized into an inactive form (i.e., 15-keto PGE<sub>2</sub>) by 15-hydroxy-prostaglandin dehydrogenase. 12 As shown in Figure 1a, the microinjection into an established glioma cell line (U251) of PGA2 and 15-keto PGE2induced cell death, as efficiently as PGE2, whereas the microinjection of U46619 (the non-metabolic version of PGH<sub>2</sub>, the precursor of PGE<sub>2</sub>), or that of the closely related molecule latanoprost lactone diol did not affect cell viability. These results suggest that a 'non-active' physiological form of PGE<sub>2</sub> (i.e., 15-keto PGE<sub>2</sub>) is still capable of activating apoptosis but not its precursor (i.e., PGH<sub>2</sub>). Of note, PGD<sub>2</sub>, the other major metabolite of PGH2 in the central nervous system, did not induce cell death in glioma cells, as previously described.8 Consistent with the microinjection experiments, neither PGH<sub>2</sub> nor PGD<sub>2</sub> and its metabolite PGJ<sub>2</sub> resulted in the mitochondrial relocalization of Bax in a cell free assay,

whereas  $PGE_2$  and  $PGA_2$  (Figure 1b) and 15-keto  $PGE_2$  (data not shown) triggered Bax translocation to the organelle.  $PGE_2$  did not trigger the release of cytochrome c from mitochondria unless Bax is present (Supplementary Figure S3).

To determine the binding sites of PGE2 on Bax, we used a linear peptide scan we previously described. 13 In this assay, the whole sequence of Bax was decomposed into 12-mer peptides (overlapping by 10 residues) covalently bound to a nitrocellulose membrane, which was incubated with biotinylated PGE<sub>2</sub>. Figure 1c shows that biotinylated PGE<sub>2</sub> was able to interact with several  $\alpha$ -helices (H $\alpha$ ) in Bax but showed a maximal binding to the  $H\alpha 2$  (BH3 domain), the loop formed between the H $\alpha$ 5 and H $\alpha$ 6 and last H $\alpha$  present in its C-terminal end,  $H\alpha 9$ . These domains have been shown to have an important role in the interaction of Bax with mitochondrial membranes and/or Bax oligomerization and interaction with Bcl-XI.14-17 Bax-induced release of mitochondrial cytochrome c is often related to its oligomerization through the BH3 domain and the exposure of the  $H\alpha$  present in its C-terminal end.3 However, as PGE2 did not trigger Bax oligomerization (Figure 1d) and the deletion of the  $H\alpha 9$  of Bax did not impair its ability to interact with PGE<sub>2</sub> (Figure 1e), we conclude that these domains are not fundamental for PGE<sub>2</sub>-induced activation of Bax.

PGE<sub>2</sub> binds the H $\alpha$ 5- $\alpha$ 6 hairpin of Bax and the resulting activation of Bax requires the cysteine 126 residue. Given the widely reported affinity of cyclopentenone prostaglandins for cysteine residues, <sup>18,19</sup> we questioned the ability of cysteine reagents, such as the competitive inhibitor N-acetylcysteine (NAC) or the cysteine blocker iodoacetamide, to interfere with the PGE2-Bax interaction. As shown in Figure 2a, both reagents inhibit the interaction suggesting that the free access to the regions including one or both cysteine residues of Bax was crucial for the physical interaction with PGE<sub>2</sub>. Consistent with this observation, the addition of NAC to the culture medium of the glioma cell line (LN18) before PGE2 microinjection protected against cell death (Figure 2b). We thus performed site-directed mutagenesis experiments to assign the role of both cysteine residues in Bax-to-PGE2 binding. Bax-deficient DU-145 cell are not sensitive to microinjected PGE2-induced cell death (Figure 2c). The transfection of wild-type or C62S-mutated Bax rendered these cells sensitive to microinjected PGE2induced cell death, whereas that of C126S-mutated and the double-mutated Bax (C126S and CCSS, respectively) inhibited the sensitivity toward PGE2 (Figure 2c). Of note, cells transfected with any of the mutants were still responsive

to apoptotic inducers staurosporine and UV-B, although the C126S mutation provoked a non-significant decrease in the maximal cell death (Supplementary Figure S4). As cysteine mutants of Bax were still able to interact with PGE<sub>2</sub> (Supplementary Figure S5), we conclude that other residues close to C126 also may be involved in the interaction and thus that this cysteine residue is essentially involved in the subsequent activation of Bax induced by PGE2 rather than its binding. This was further substantiated by the fact that the ability of PGE<sub>2</sub> to induce a change in the conformation of Bax was suppressed in the C126S mutant (Figure 3b, lane 0).

Mass spectrometry showed no covalent binding between Bax and PGE2, or its derivative PGA2 (data not shown). We performed a molecular modeling study of a non-covalent binding between the known structure of Bax and PGE2 (Figure 2d). To explore the PGE<sub>2</sub> binding mode in Bax, we first examined the solvent accessible surface area of the protein structure. A narrow hydrophobic pocket is present in Bax in close proximity to C126. This region consists of the C-terminal part of H $\alpha$ 5, the N-terminal region of H $\alpha$ 6 and the loop between  $H\alpha 3$  and  $H\alpha 4$  (Figure 2d).  $PGE_2$  was then subjected to docking using an H-bond constraint approach with the probable target C126 thiol group. The most stable docking model is shown in

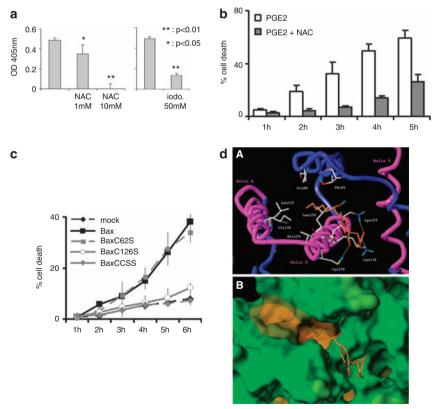


Figure 2 Bax C126 residue is necessary to PGE2-induced activation. (a) The same assay as in Figure 1d was carried out with Bax-expressing cell lysates. The assay was performed after lysates incubation with N-acetylcysteine (NAC) or iodoacetamide (thiol reagent) when indicated. (b) PGE2 (20 µM, corresponding to a 2 µM intracellular raise) was microinjected into glioma cells, with or without previous treatment by 10 mM NAC. Cell death was assessed as in Figure 1a. (c) Bax mutants were transfected into a Bax-deficient cell line (DU-145). PGE2 microinjection was then performed and cell death was assessed every hour. (d) The interaction between PGE2 and Bax was illustrated in the neighborhood of C126. The most stable docking model is shown (A). The ionic or hydrogen bonds are indicated as yellow dotted lines. MOLCAD solvent accessible surface area (program Sybyl 7.2) of the NMR structure of protein Bax, with the lipophilic potential mapped onto the surface (B). The color codes indicate blue areas for hydrophilic, brown for lipophilic and green for neutral

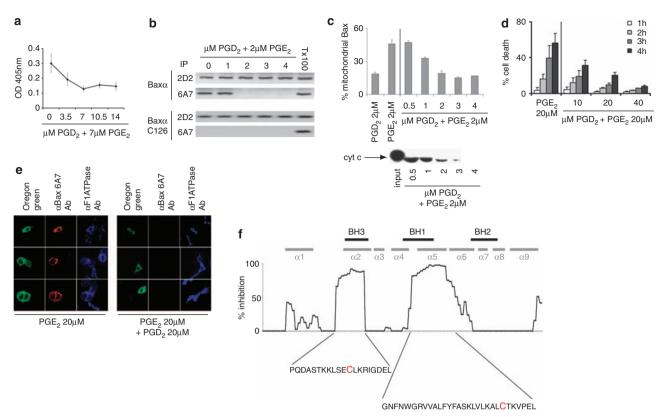


Figure 3 PGD2 inhibits PGE2-Bax interaction and subsequent Bax activation. (a) The same enzyme immunoassay as described in Figure 1d between fixed Bax and AcKE-PGE2 was realized in the presence of raising amount of PGD2. (b) 35S-IVT-Bax or Bax<sup>C126S</sup> was incubated with indicated prostaglandins and immunoprecipitated with the 6A7 antibody, which solely recognizes the activated conformation of Bax. IVT Bax was detected by autoradiography after SDS-PAGE. Equimolar amount of PGD2 inhibits the activation of Bax induced by PGE<sub>2</sub>. The 2D2 antibody was used as a positive control for Bax immunoprecipitation and Triton X100 (TX100) was used as a positive control for Bax activation. (c) 35S IVT-Bax was incubated with indicated prostaglandins and added to isolated mitochondria as described in Figure 1b. The subsequent mitochondrial release of Cytochrome c was assessed by western blot for each condition. Input is the total amount of mitochondrial Cytochrome c. (d) Glioma cell death was monitored following PGE2 microinjection. In microinjection experiments, injected solutions are diluted about 1/10 in the cell. The experiment can thus be considered as representative for a 2  $\mu$ M raise in PGE2 intracellular concentration. The indicated amount of PGD2 was co-injected with PGE2. (e) Microinjected cells were fixed and stained with the 6A7 antibody raised against the active conformation of Bax. The anti-F<sub>1</sub>-ATPase antibody was used as a positive control. Cells were observed by confocal microscopy. (f) A pepscan experiment was realized as described in Figure 1e with biotinylated PGE<sub>2</sub> and non-labelled PGD<sub>2</sub>. ECL revealed bound PGE<sub>2</sub> and the percentage of inhibition versus PGE2 alone was determined

Figure 2D. The carboxylate group of the  $\alpha$ -chain in PGE<sub>2</sub> is involved in salt bridges with the terminal amino groups of K119 and K123 in Bax H $\alpha$ 5. Moreover, the  $\omega$ -chain in PGE<sub>2</sub> was incorporated into the hydrophobic pocket, composed mainly of residues P88, L120, A124, L132 and I136 in Bax and could stabilize the molecule through hydrophobic interactions. Interestingly, this putative interaction domain of Bax with PGE<sub>2</sub> appears to be different from that ascribed to the BH3-only proapoptotic protein Bim.<sup>20</sup> Of note, the most stable docking models obtained with PGE2, PGA2 and 15-keto PGE2 are very similar, which is consistent with their common activating ability (Supplementary Figure S6) and with the identical position of the keto group on the cycle (Supplementary Figure S2).

PGD<sub>2</sub> inhibits the interaction between PGE<sub>2</sub> and Bax, and the subsequent induction of cell death. Prostaglandins from the E and D series have been widely reported to have opposite roles in their various fields of activities. 21-23 We thus challenged the impact of PGD2 on the PGE<sub>2</sub>-induced Bax activation. PGD<sub>2</sub> inhibited the interaction

between PGE2 and Bax (Figure 3a) and counteracted PGE<sub>2</sub> ability to activate Bax (Figure 3b) in cell-free assays. The co-incubation of Bax and PGE2 resulted in Bax activation and its subsequent translocation to the MOM in isolated mitochondria (Figure 1b). The addition of increasing concentrations of PGD<sub>2</sub> precluded this relocalization as well as the consecutive MOMP (Figure 3c). Similarly, the co-injection of PGD2 and PGE2 into glioma cells alleviated the death-inducing ability of PGE2 (Figure 3d). This was substantiated with the observation that the activation of Bax by microinjected PGE<sub>2</sub> into GBM cells, viewed by the labeling with the 6A7 antibody and relocalization to mitochondria (Figure 3e left), was totally abolished by equimolar concentrations of microinjected PGD2 (Figure 3e, right). We designed a competitive assay, in which biotinylated-PGE2 was incubated with a Bax pepscan membrane in the presence of equimolar concentration of unlabeled PGD<sub>2</sub> (Figure 3f). The peptide scan experiment revealed that the maximal inhibition of PGE2 binding to Bax elicited by PGD2 was localized to two regions in Bax, namely  $H\alpha 2$  and  $H\alpha 5$ (including the proximal Hα6), which contain the two cysteine



residues of Bax, C62 and C126 (Figure 3f). This is in agreement with the molecular modeling of the interaction between PGE<sub>2</sub> and Bax we hypothesized earlier.

PGE2 is associated with cell death and PGD2 with cell survival. We have previously shown that overexpression of mPGES-1, the enzyme responsible for PGE<sub>2</sub> synthesis downstream of COX-2, sensitized GBM cells to cell death and that its inhibition decreased the apoptotic threshold.8 Other groups, nevertheless, have reported an antiapoptotic role for COX-2 assuming that this effect was mediated solely through the production of PGE<sub>2</sub>. Given our previous results, we hypothesized that the antiapoptotic effect of COX-2 reported in the literature might be linked to PGD<sub>2</sub> production by the other enzyme downstream of COX-2 in GBM cells, lipocalin-like PGD2 synthase (L-PGDS). To support

our contention, we selectively downregulated mPGES-1, COX-2 or L-PGDS expression in GBM cells. Expression knock-down experiments were performed using two different shRNA sequences for each enzyme, which efficiently downregulated the expression of these enzymes (Supplementary Figure S7). As shown in Figure 4a, the downregulation of mPGES-1 inhibited the apoptosis induced by staurosporine in glioma cells, whereas that of COX-2 enhanced it. This result supported an opposite role for these enzymes during apoptosis. The decreased expression of L-PGDS, similar to COX-2, gave an increase in cell death (Figure 4a). We observed that the inhibition of one of the enzymes influenced the expression of the others in a rather complex manner (data not shown). However, we found that, in all cases, apoptosis was correlated to the mPGES-1/ COX-2 ratio as the higher the ratio, higher the cell death

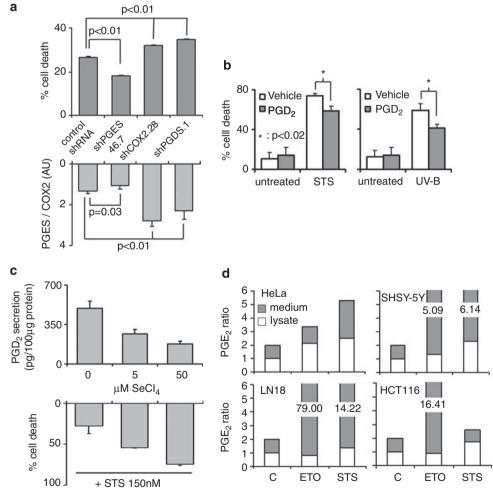


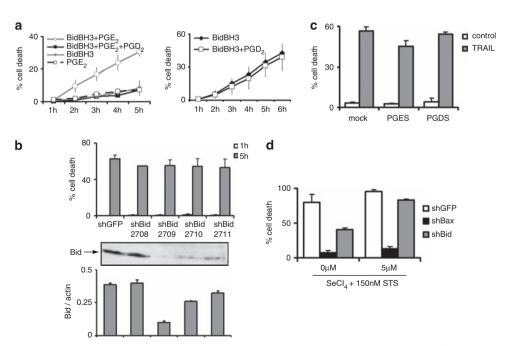
Figure 4 PGE2 is related to cell death and PGD2 to cell survival in GBM. (a) GBM cells were transfected with a plasmid encoding for a shRNA sequence targeting the indicated enzyme. Apoptosis was induced by staurosporine (150 nM, 12 h), and cell death was measured by Trypan blue exclusion (upper graph). mPGES-1 and COX-2 expression was assessed by western blot and normalized to actin. The ratio is shown on the lower graph. (b) GBM cells were treated by staurosporine (150 nM) or by UV-B irradiation (30 s exposure) 1 h after PGD<sub>2</sub> microinjection (20 µM, representative for a 2 µM raise in PGD<sub>2</sub> intracellular concentration). Cell death was assessed among microinjected cells respectively 12 and 18 h after treatment. (c) Glioma cells were treated simultaneously by 5 or 50  $\mu$ M SeCl<sub>4</sub> as indicated on the upper graph. The pH of the SeCl<sub>4</sub> solution was checked before treatment. Secreted PGD<sub>2</sub> was measured as described in Materials and methods. Cells were then co-treated by Secl<sub>4</sub> and staurosporine. Cell death was measured by Trypan blue exclusion after 16 h (lower graph). The graph shown is representative for three independent experiments. (d) Four cell lines were treated by apoptosis inducers as indicated in the Materials and methods section (C, control; ETO, etoposide; STS, staurosporine). PGE2 was measured in cell lysate and supernatant and normalized by corresponding protein concentration. The graphs represent the increase in PGE2 concentration in treated versus control conditions



(Figure 4a). The same correlation could be made between the mPGES-1/COX-2 ratio and the DEVDase activity in the treated cells, confirming that the cell death observed was apoptosis (Supplementary Figure S8A).

Then, we studied the effect of PGD<sub>2</sub> on the susceptibility of glioma cells in the induction of apoptosis by various agents. PGD<sub>2</sub> microinjection into glioma cells significantly inhibited cell death induced by staurosporine or UV-B irradiation (Figure 4b), whereas the pharmacological inhibition of L-PGDS by SeCl<sub>4</sub> sensitized the cells to staurosporine-(Figure 4c and apoptosis Supplementary Figure S8B) as well as UV-induced apoptosis (data not shown). We then asked whether PGE2 was implicated in the cell death induced by cytotoxic agents, namely etoposide or staurosporine in different cell lines. To be able to measure intracellular PGE2 in treated cells, we defined experimental conditions under which apoptosis was induced by etoposide or staurosporine in four different cell lines, representing models of cancer cells from various tissues (i.e., HeLa, SH-SY5Y, LN18, HCT116). As shown in Figure 4d, an increase in PGE2 (intracellular and/or secreted) was observed after 4h and before any morphological signs of apoptosis under all conditions and in all cancer cells tested. Of note, the PGE<sub>2</sub> concentration observed in the early step of apoptosis was similar to that used to activate Bax in the cell-free assav (data not shown). The increase in PGE2 was also observed in a Bax-deficient GBM cell line (Supplementary Figure S9), a cell line highly resistant to apoptosis, 16 suggesting that it is not a consequence of cell death. These results show that the increase in PGE2 synthesis is a rapid process that occurs during the early stages of apoptosis.

PGE<sub>2</sub> and Bid activate Bax by independent pathways that can cooperate. Among the different BH3-only proteins, Bid has been reported to induce the direct activation of Bax. 24 Bid can activate Bax through either its truncated form tBid or merely its BH3 domain (BH3Bid see for example, Moreau et al.25). We thus questioned whether PGE2 and BH3<sup>Bid</sup> were redundant in Bax activation. We first observed that the microinjection of sublethal amounts of PGE2 or BH3<sup>Bid</sup> induced no cell death within 5 h, whereas the co-injection of sublethal doses of both compounds resulted in a massive cell death within the same time frame (Figure 5a. left), indicating cooperation between PGE<sub>2</sub> and BH3<sup>Bid</sup> in apoptosis induction. The cell death induced was inhibited by the addition of equimolar (to PGE2) amount of PGD<sub>2</sub> (Figure 5a left, black squares). Of note, PGD<sub>2</sub> was unable to inhibit cell death induced by a lethal concentration of BH3<sup>Bid</sup> even at very high concentrations (Figure 5a, right). Similarly, PGE<sub>2</sub> induced apoptosis whether Bid expression was repressed or not (Figure 5b). As shown in Figure 5c, in a more physiological situation, the mPGES-1 or L-PGDS overexpression did not significantly affect the sensitivity of glioma cells to TRAIL, an apoptotic inducer targeting the activation of Bax through Bid. 16 Conversely, the knock down of Bid by shRNA rendered the cells partly resistant to the staurosporine/SeCl<sub>4</sub>-induced apoptosis, whereas that of Bax totally abrogated cell death (Figure 5d). Thus, pharmacological inhibition of PGD2 production reversed the partial resistance to apoptosis in shBid-treated cells, but had no effect on the shBax-treated cells, suggesting a functional cooperation between PGE2 and Bid during staurosporineinduced apoptosis (Figure 5d).



**Figure 5** PGE<sub>2</sub> and Bid are independent activators of Bax. (a) Glioma cells were injected by sub-lethal amounts of PGE<sub>2</sub> and BH3<sup>Bid</sup> (respectively, 5  $\mu$ M and 20 nM) and by an equimolar amount of PGD<sub>2</sub> (20  $\mu$ M; left graph). Alternatively, 100 nM BH3<sup>Bid</sup> was injected together with a large excess of PGD<sub>2</sub> (150  $\mu$ M; right graph). (b) Bid expression was repressed by four different shRNA lentiviral particles in glioma cells and PGE2 was injected as described earlier. The upper graph shows cell death counting 5 h after injection and the lower graph indicates the respective shRNA efficiency revealed by western blot analysis of Bid (insert), (c) Glioma cells were transfected by a plasmid encoding for mPGES-1 or L-PGDS cDNA. Cells were treated by TRAIL (100 nM, 24 h) and cell death was assessed as described earlier. (d) Bax or Bid expression was repressed in glioma cells by validated shRNA sequences (residual expression ≤ 10%) and cells were treated by staurosporine 150 nM ± SeCl₄ 5 μM for 16 h



All together these data show that PGE<sub>2</sub> and Bid share the same function, namely Bax activation, but do not compete with each other and can instead cooperate in this function. This is corroborated by the fact that the binding sites of Bax implicated in their respective activating functions are distinct.

### Discussion

Prostanoids possess both pro- and antiapoptotic functions that seem to depend on the differentiation stage and tissue origin of the treated cells. <sup>26</sup> To give a few examples, PGE<sub>2</sub>, the main prostaglandin, has been reported to inhibit apoptosis in colon cancer<sup>10</sup> and in radiation-treated epithelial cells<sup>11</sup> through mechanisms involving the proteins of the Bcl-2 family. On the other hands, PGE<sub>2</sub> has been shown to induce apoptosis in human lymphocytes and in fibroblasts through multiple pathways. <sup>9,27</sup> It is also well established that the increase in the synthesis of PGE<sub>2</sub> during hypoxia/ischemic shock exacerbates stroke injury. <sup>28</sup>

Several enzymes have been shown to be involved in prostanoids synthesis downstream of the arachidonic acid.<sup>26</sup> These enzymes have different cellular and tissue localizations and have different roles in various pathologies.<sup>29</sup> mPGES-1 is a critical factor during post-ischemic neurological dysfunctions as its genetic knock out in mice significantly reduces the size of the infarct and the extent of caspase-dependent apoptosis.30 mPGES-1, the terminal enzyme in the synthesis of PGE2,31 is encoded by a gene named pig12, which has been shown to be involved in early p53-induced apoptosis.32 We have shown that mPGES-1 overexpression in human high-grade glioma was correlated to a longer survival,8 even if mPGES-1 overexpression has often been observed in tumors compared with healthy tissues, notably in brain tumors. 33 The same discrepancy can be observed in cell culture. mPGES-1 could namely promote the growth of a human glioma cell line<sup>34</sup> through PGE2 extracellular pathway, whereas we showed that it was a proapoptotic enzyme in human brain tumor primary cultures through the activation of Bax by intracellular PGE2 and subsequent caspase activity.8 We confirmed that this discrepancy was linked to PGE2 localization, as the pharmacological sequestration of PGE2 was sufficient to induce apoptosis.8

In this study, we show that this activating property of PGE<sub>2</sub> toward Bax is closely linked to the PGE<sub>2</sub> structure, as only the structurally related prostaglandin A<sub>2</sub> and 15-keto PGE<sub>2</sub>, among all the challenged prostaglandins, retain this activating ability. We also report that the region in Bax encompassing C126 is the binding site of PGE2. However, as the Bax C126S point mutation does not abrogate the interaction between Bax and PGE2 and as no covalent binding could be demonstrated between PGE2 or PGA2 and C126, the entire interacting domain of PGE2 in Bax has still to be determined. Despite the fact that Bax<sup>C126S</sup> mutant is not a loss-of-function mutant, it is not able to respond to PGE2 as revealed by the conformationspecific immunoprecipitation with the 6A7 anti-Bax antibody. Our interpretation of these observations is that C126 is not the only residue implicated in PGE2 binding to Bax but it is crucial to the subsequent activation of Bax induced by PGE2. We show that PGE2 increases during the onset of apoptosis in various cell lines using different inducers, to a level consistent

with the conditions used to activate Bax in cell-free assays (i.e., micromolar range). In contrast with the proapoptotic activity of PGE2, we show that a closely related PGH2-derived prostaglandin, namely PGD2, is a functional antagonist of PGE2 activity toward Bax. This might be surprising insofar as PGD<sub>2</sub> and its final metabolite 15deoxy $\Delta^{12-14}$ PGJ<sub>2</sub> are implicated in the onset of apoptosis, through the activation of DP receptors or of PPAR $\gamma^{26}$  or of other targets. <sup>19</sup> Payne et al.35 also reported that L-PGDS loss was observed during transition from low grade to higher grade astrocytomas and was correlated to a poorer survival. However, our results demonstrate that PGD<sub>2</sub> is not an absolute antiapoptotic compound, but rather a competitive inhibitor of PGE2 in Bax activation, as it does not preclude the Bid-induced activation of Bax. Besides, we only focused on the role played by PGD<sub>2</sub> on Bax activation and we did not explore the overall targets of  $PGD_2$  and  $15deoxy\Delta^{12-14}PGJ_2$ . The observation that L-PGDS inhibition induces Bax downregulation<sup>36</sup> might be related to the important role played by PGD2/PGE2 ratio on cell survival. We have shown that silencing of L-PGDS increased the expression of PGES (Figure 4a), therefore the decrease of Bax could ensure cell survival of L-PGDSdeficient chondrocytes.

As described in Figure 6, we propose that apoptosis is under the control of the balance between intracellular concentrations of  $PGE_2$  and  $PGD_2$  and that of antiapoptotic extracellular  $PGE_2$ . The liberation of this prostaglandin by dying cells would thus participate in the paracrine protection of adjacent cells or induce cell death depending on the nature of the tissue (Figure 6). This 'double-agent' mechanism could partly account for the equivocal and sometimes contradictory effects of COX-2 on apoptosis described in tumor cells. <sup>26</sup> In addition, the release of  $PGE_2$  by dying cells could also influence tumor environment and have a role in the suppression of the immune system as suggested by Kokoglu *et al.* <sup>37</sup>

Small bioactive lipids, such as prostaglandins, thus appear as new potential candidates for the regulation of Bax activation. We show that PGE<sub>2</sub> and Bid do not compete with each other but can rather cooperate in Bax activation and cell death induction. Bax activation could thus be considered as the integrative result of various changes in the intracellular environment occurring in the very early stages of apoptosis, including BH3-only protein activation or release, antiapoptotic proteins oversupply, slight local physicochemical modifications and wavering in the PGE<sub>2</sub>/PGD<sub>2</sub> balance or in other lipid compounds. All of these environmental factors create a cellular context in which the most probable conformation of Bax according to thermodynamic considerations is either the inactive, globular conformation, or the active, outstretched conformation.

Our results definitely suggest that Bax activation should not only be regarded as a strict protein event but should be integrated in the overall cellular context, including bioactive lipids.

### **Materials and Methods**

**Materials.** Antibodies were purchased from indicated companies: Bax 2D2 (amino acids 3–16, Sigma-Aldrich (Lyon, France), no. B8554), Bax 6A7 (amino acids 12–24, Abcam, Paris, France, no. ab5714), F<sub>1</sub>-ATPase (Molecular Probes, Invitrogen, Cergy-Pontoise, France, no. A-21350), Cytochrome *c* (Chemicon, Millipore, Molsheim, France, no. MAB1501R). <sup>35</sup>S-Met (Amersham Biosciences, GE

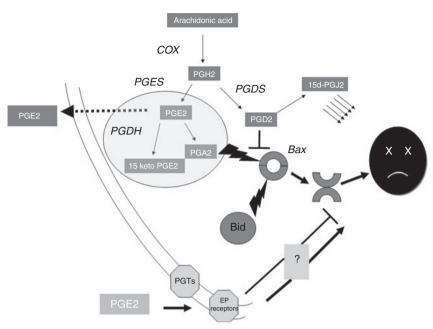


Figure 6 Bax activation is submitted to a double balance, namely the PGE<sub>2</sub>/PGD<sub>2</sub> intracellular balance on the one hand and the intracellular/extracellular PGE<sub>2</sub> balance on the other hand. COX-2 product PGH<sub>2</sub> is further metabolized into PGE<sub>2</sub> and PGD<sub>2</sub>. PGE<sub>2</sub> is rapidly exported to the extracellular compartment or transformed into PGA<sub>2</sub> and 15-keto PGE<sub>2</sub>. PGE<sub>2</sub>, PGE<sub>2</sub>, PGE<sub>2</sub>, PGE<sub>2</sub> and 15-keto PGE<sub>2</sub> all induce Bax activation, as Bid-like BH3-only proteins do. PGD<sub>2</sub> inhibits this activation, despite its final metabolite 15deoxy $\Delta^{12-14}$ PGJ2 (15d-PGJ<sub>2</sub>) is also reported to induce apoptosis. When exported in the extracellular compartment, PGE<sub>2</sub> can bind its membrane receptors EP(1–4) and promote long-term survival of cancer cells

Healthcare, Orsay, France) labeled proteins were synthesized from cDNAs using the TNT-coupled transcription/translation system from Promega (Charbonnières-Les-Bains, France). Prostaglandins were purchased from Cayman Chemical (Interchim, France). Unless mentioned, chemical products and reagents were obtained from Sigma.

Immunoblots were quantified using the ImageJ software (NIH, Bethesda, MD, USA). Every experiment was repeated at least three independent times. Statistical sew were performed using the GraphPad software (San Diego, CA, USA; unpaired two-tailed *t*-test, unless mentioned otherwise). Unless mentioned, data shown represent mean values  $\pm$  S.E.M.

**Cell free assay for Bax insertion.** Mitochondria were prepared from normal rat liver and the cell-free association of Bax with the mitochondria was performed as described previously.  $^{16}$   $^{35}$ S-Met-labeled Bax (2 fmol), PGE2 and isolated rat liver mitochondria (100  $\mu \rm g$  mitochondrial proteins) were incubated in a standard import buffer for 1 h at 30°C. Mitochondria were pelleted and samples were separated by SDS-PAGE. Gels were fixed and dried, and  $^{35}$ S-labeled Bax was detected on a PhosphorImager scanner. Image quantification was done using the ImageJ software.

**Peptide scan.** The experiments were performed as described in Bellot  $et\ al.^{13}$  Briefly, the peptide membranes were prepared on a MultiPep automated peptide synthesizer (Intavis AG, Köln, Germany). Bax sequence was divided into 12-mer peptides with a two amino acid frame shift. After the side chain deprotection of the peptides, the membrane was saturated by 5% BSA–PBS for 2 h at room temperature. Biotinylated prostaglandins (2  $\mu$ M in PBS) were incubated overnight at 4°C. Extravidin-peroxidase was then incubated and the binding was assessed by ECL reaction. The binding intensities of prostaglandins for Bax-derived peptides-specific normalized units. Every experiment was repeated on four different membranes. The value attributed to each amino acid was the mean value of the spot intensities corresponding to the peptides covering this amino acid.

 $PGE_2$ -AChE Bax interaction. GBM cell lysates in excess (25  $\mu$ g protein/condition) were incubated in a BSA-saturated 96-well plate, previously coated with the 2D2 anti-Bax antibody. After three washes with 0.1% Tween-20-PBS, prostaglandins were incubated at the indicated concentration with

acetylcholine-coupled  $PGE_2$  ( $PGE_2$ –AChE) added. The amount of  $PGE_2$ –AChE bound to Bax was measured by the coloration of Ellman's reagent (405 nm). When indicated, cell lysates were treated by NAC or iodoacetamide for 1 h at 37°C, then diluted 1:24 in 1% BSA–PBS before binding to the antibody-coated wells.

**Microinjection experiments.** Microinjection was performed as described by Lalier *et al.*<sup>8</sup> Prostaglandins were co-injected with a dextran coupled to a fluorochrome (Oregon Green, Molecular Probes). The percentage of fluorescent cells exhibiting morphological apoptotic features was evaluated every hour following microinjection using an inverted fluorescent microscope (DMIRE2, Leica Microsystèmes SAS, Nanterre, France). Apoptosis was induced 1 h after injection, when indicated.

**Cross-linking experiments.** Bax-containing GBM cytosolic extracts were incubated with 5  $\mu$ M PGE2 or with Triton X100 as a positive control for 1 h at 30°C. Cross-linking was then performed as described earlier 16 and Bax was revealed by western blot.

Molecular modeling. Molecular modeling studies were performed using SYBYL software version 7.2. (Tripos Associates Inc, St. Louis, MO, USA) running on a Silicon Graphics Octane2 workstation. The geometry of PGE2 was subsequently optimized using the Tripos force field including the electrostatic term calculated from Gasteiger and Hückel atomic charges. Powell's method available in Maximin2 procedure was used for energy minimization until the gradient value was smaller than 0.001 kcal/mol.Å. The NMR structure of human proapoptotic protein Bax was obtained from the RCSB Protein Data Bank (code: 1F16; http://www.rcsb.org/pdb/). 17 The protein solvent accessible area with lipophilic potential was generated using the MOLCAD module in SYBYL 7.2. The program GOLD (version 3.1; CCDC, Cambridge, UK), an automated docking program (Jones et al.38), was used to dock PGE2 with its target protein. For the docking calculations, all residues of the protein were fixed, whereas PGE2 was flexible. An initial H-bond constraint from the C-9 carbonyl group of PGE2 to the thiol (-SH) of C126 was applied. The most stable docking model was selected according to the best scored conformation predicted by the GoldScore<sup>38</sup> and X-Score<sup>39</sup> scoring functions. The complex was energy minimized using Powell's method available in Maximin2 procedure with the MMFF94 force field and a dielectric constant of 4.0 until the gradient value reached 0.1-kcal/mol.Å.



**Confocal analysis.** For confocal analysis, the cells were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde–0.19% picric acid-PBS for 30 min at room temperature. After washing with PBS, the cells were permeabilized with 0.1% SDS–PBS for 10 min at room temperature, then saturated by 5% gelatin–PBS for 15 min at room temperature. The cells were incubated with indicated antibodies for 1 h at room temperature in 1% gelatin–PBS. The secondary antibodies used were coupled to a fluorochrome (Alexa 568 or 633, Molecular Probes). Images were collected on a Leica TCS NT microscope with a 63  $\times$  1.3 NA Fluotar objective (Leica, France).

Knock-down experiments. Enzyme knock down was assessed using two different shRNA sequences (Supplementary Figure S6) and its efficiencies checked by immunoblots and/or by measuring the synthesis of PGE<sub>2</sub> or PGD<sub>2</sub>. Annealed double-strand oligonucleotides were cloned into a plasmid (pSilencer 2.1-U6 hygromycin vector, Ambion, Applied Biosystems, Courtaboeuf, France, no. AM5760) and transfected into GBM cells. Cells were further cultured with hygromycin 125 ng/ml. Apoptosis was induced by staurosporine treatment (150 nM, 12 h). Cell death was assessed by Trypan blue exclusion; proteins were extracted and DEVDase activity was measured as described previously. <sup>16</sup>

For Bid and Bax knock-down experiment, commercial lentiviral particles were purchased from Sigma. Particles including a shRNA targeting GFP were used as a negative control. Infection was realized with a MOI of 10 and cells were further cultured with puromycin 1  $\mu$ g/ml. Four different shRNA were tested for each target protein and the most efficient was used for cell death experiments.

 $PGE_2/PGD_2$  measurements. The amount of  $PGE_2$  was measured in cells lysates and culture medium using the  $PGE_2$  Biotrak EIA System (Amersham Biosciences) according to the manufacturer instructions. In all,  $10^4$  cells were plated in 96-well plates the day before. Apoptotic treatment was adjusted to each cell line as follows: a range was realized to establish the amount of inducer triggering cell death in 24 h, then cells were treated for 18 h to avoid cell disruption (assessed by Trypan blue exclusion) thereby enabling the measurement of intracellular  $PGE_2$ . Treatments applied were  $20~\mu M$  etoposide for HCT116, HeLa, LN18 cells and  $5~\mu M$  etoposide for SH-SY5Y cells, 50~n M staurosporine for all the four cell lines. Plates were read at 450~n m.  $PGE_2$  concentrations were normalized to the protein concentration of the samples. Extracellular  $PGD_2$  was measured in serum-free medium using the Prostaglandin  $D_2~EIA$  kit (Cayman Chemical Company, no. 512021) according to the manufacturer.

## Conflict of interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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# **Author contributions**

Lisenn Lalier performed the *in vitro* experiments and drafted the manuscript. Pierre Francois Cartron performed the acellular studies, Christophe Olivier performed some of the microinjection experiments, Gwenola Bougras carried out the phenotyping characterization of the cell lines and Lisa Oliver the immunohistochemical characterization and confocal studies. Cedric Logé and Jean-Michel Robert participated in the molecular modeling of PGE<sub>2</sub>/Bax interaction. Francois M Vallette conceived of the study and wrote the final version of the manuscript.

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