# INHIBITION OF PROSTACYCLIN SYNTHESIS IN CULTURED BOVINE AORTIC ENDOTHELIAL CELLS BY VITAMIN K<sup>\*</sup>

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**Abstract**—Prostacyclin (PGI<sub>2</sub>), a potent vasodilator and inhibitor of platelet aggregation, is the predominant metabolite of arachidonic acid (AA) in endothelial cells derived from large blood vessels. Vitamin  $K_1$  (1–100  $\mu$ M) inhibited the release of PGI<sub>2</sub> and prostaglandin  $E_2$  (PGE<sub>2</sub>) by bovine aortic endothelial cells in culture, as measured by radioimmunoassay of 6-keto-prostaglandin  $F_{1a}$  (6-keto-PGF<sub>1a</sub>) and PGE<sub>2</sub>. The conversion of exogenous AA to PGI<sub>2</sub> was not affected by vitamin  $K_1$  as measured by radioimmunoassay and high performance liquid chromatography of radiolabeled AA metabolites. Similarly, vitamin  $K_1$  did not affect the conversion of prostaglandin  $H_2$  (PGH<sub>2</sub>) by *in vitro* enzyme systems. However, vitamin  $K_1$  inhibited the calcium ionophore A23187-induced release of [<sup>3</sup>H]AA from membrane phospholipids of bovine aortic endothelial cells. Inhibition of [<sup>3</sup>H]AA release from other cells of vascular origin was also observed after exposure to vitamin  $K_1$ , but this effect was not observed in cells of non-vascular origin, including platelets. Therefore, vitamin  $K_1$  modulates the release of AA in vascular cells and thus inhibits the capacity of blood vessels to synthesize PGI<sub>2</sub>.

The synthesis of prostacyclin (PGI<sub>2</sub>)‡, the potent vasodilatory and antiaggregatory eicosanoid, by cultured vascular endothelial cells was first observed by Weksler et al. [1]. Since this observation, cultured endothelial cells have been used extensively to investigate the regulation of PGI<sub>2</sub> release by endogenous compounds in vascular tissue. Much attention has focused on the inhibition of PGI<sub>2</sub> synthesis by lipid hydroperoxides, such as 15-hydroperoxyarachidonic acid in microsomes from vascular tissue [2, 3] and in vascular cells [4–6], as these compounds have been associated with decreased PGI2-synthesizing capacity in vascular disease [2, 7–9]. Vitamin K also is involved in hemostasis in that it is an essential cofactor for the formation of clotting factors II, VII, IX and X [10, 11]. The precursors of these proteins are modified via a vitamin K-dependent carboxylation of specific glutamyl residues to form the completed proteins, and evidence suggests that a hydroperoxide intermediate of vitamin K is involved in the carboxylation reaction [12]. Because of the sensitivity of PGI<sub>2</sub>-synthase to inhibition by hydroperoxides it is possible that a hydroperoxide metabolite of vitamin K may affect PGI<sub>2</sub> synthesis if carboxylation of prothrombin precursor and PGI<sub>2</sub> synthesis occurred in proximity to each other.

We proposed in this study to investigate any possible effects of vitamin  $K_1$  on PGI<sub>2</sub> production by

vascular tissue, using vascular endothelial cells in culture. This is of particular interest because of the possible interaction between the extrinsic clotting mechanism and regulation of hemostasis by arachidonic acid metabolites.

## EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

*Materials.* Vitamin  $K_1$  (phylloquinone; 2-methyl-3-phytyl-1,4-naphthoquinone) and vitamin  $K_3$  (menadione; 2-methyl-1,4-naphthoquinone) were purchased from the Sigma Chemical Co., St. Louis, MO. [3H]Arachidonic acid ([3H]AA) (60–100 Ci/mmole), [14C]AA (40–60 mCi/mmole), [3H]6-keto-prostaglandin  $F_{1\alpha}$  ([3H]6-keto-PGF $_{1\alpha}$ ) (120–180 Ci/mmole), [3H]prostaglandin  $E_2$  ([3H]PGE $_2$ ) (100–200 Ci/mmole) and Atomlight scintillation fluid were from New England Nuclear, Boston, MA.

AA was purchased from Nu-Chek Prep., Inc., Elysian, MN. 6-keto-PGF<sub>1 $\alpha$ </sub>, PGE<sub>2</sub>, 6-keto-PGF<sub>1 $\alpha$ </sub> antiserum and PGE2 antiserum were purchased from Seragen, Inc., Boston, MA. Calcium ionophore A23187 was obtained from the Calbiochem-Behring Corp., La Jolla, CA. HPLC-grade acetonitrile and reagent grade glacial acetic acid were from Fisher Scientific, Fairlawn, NJ, and ethyl acetate was from the Baker Chemical Co., Phillipsburg, NJ. Tissue culture flasks and dishes were from Falcon, Oxnard, CA, and Costar, Cambridge, MA. Calf serum was from Hyclone Laboratories, Logan, UT, and fetal bovine serum was from Sigma. Dulbecco's modified Eagle medium (DMEM), RPMI Medium 1640 and Hanks' buffered salt solution (Ca<sup>2+</sup>-, Mg<sup>2+</sup>-free) (HBSS) were from the Grand Island Biological Co., Grand Island, NY. Instruments for reverse-phase high performance liquid chromatography were from Waters Associates, Milford, MA, and included model 6000A pumps, Z-module Radial Compression

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 $<sup>\</sup>ddagger$  Abbreviations: AA, arachidonic acid; DMEM, Dulbecco's modified Eagle medium; HBSS, Hanks' buffered salt solution; HPLC, high performance liquid chromatography; 6-keto-PGF1a, 6-keto-prostaglandin F1a; PGE2, PGG2, and PGH2, prostaglandins E2, G2, and H2; PGI2, prostacyclin; PHS, prostaglandin H synthase; RSVM, ram seminal vesicle microsomes; and TXB2, thromboxane B2.

Separation System, model 720 System Controller and Waters Intelligent Sample Processor model 710B. Separation was achieved on a Waters  $C_{18}$ ,  $10~\mu m$ , 5 mm i.d. Radial Pak column. A precolumn packed with Whatman (Clifton, NJ) 30–38  $\mu m$  pellicular  $C_{18}$  beads was used. Radioactivity of the HPLC eluate was measured using a Radioactivity Flow Detector, Radiomatic Instruments and Chemical Co., Inc., Tampa, FL, with Hydrofluor (National Diagnostics, Somerville, NJ) as scintillation fluid.

Prostaglandin H<sub>2</sub> (PGH<sub>2</sub>) was prepared from [14C]AA according to the method of Crutchley *et al.* [13] using ram seminal vesicle microsomes and phenol as a reducing substrate. Ram seminal vesicles were obtained from Dr. L. Marnett, Wayne State University, Detroit, MI.

Cells. Bovine aortic endothelial cells were obtained from Dr. D. Gospodarowicz, University of California Medical Center, San Francisco, CA. The cells were identified as endothelial cells by immunofluorescence microscopy using antihemophilic factor (Factor VIII) antigen as a marker [14]. Porcine aortic endothelial cells were obtained from Dr. A. R. Whorton, Duke University Medical Center, Durham, NC. Identification of porcine endothelial cells was done by specific immunofluorescent demonstration of angiotensin-converting enzyme,  $\alpha_2$ macroglobulin and Factor VIII [15]. Cells were grown at 37° in 75 cm<sup>2</sup> tissue culture flasks under 5% CO<sub>2</sub> in air in DMEM with 10% calf serum for bovine cells and 10% fetal bovine serum for porcine cells. Endothelial cells from both species were subcultured at a split ratio of 1:4-1:6 and plated in 24 mm diameter wells of Costar trays and used just before confluency (5  $\times$  10<sup>5</sup> cells/well).

Human umbilical vein endothelial and bovine aortic smooth muscle cells were obtained from Mr. M. Madden, Division of Pulmonary Medicine, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, NC, and were grown in DMEM containing 10% fetal bovine serum. Human endothelial cell cultures were prepared according to the method of Gimbrone [16] and were identified by immunofluorescent demonstration of Factor VIII antigen. Smooth muscle cells were prepared according to the method of Friedman et al. [17] and were identified by their light and electron microscopic appearance. All endothelial cells in culture were polygonal in shape and demonstrated contact inhibition.

Rat alveolar macrophages were prepared according to the method of Kouzan *et al.* [18]. They were cultured in 35 mm diameter tissue culture dishes  $(2 \times 10^6 \text{ cells/dish})$  under 5% CO<sub>2</sub> in air in RPMI medium 1640 without serum.

Canine leukocytes were prepared according to the method of Böyum [19] and incubated in  $Ca^{2+}$ - and  $Mg^{2-}$ -free Krebs–Ringer buffer (2 × 10<sup>7</sup> cells/2 ml).

The experiments with human platelets were performed by Dr. J. Jakubowski, Veterans Administration Medical Center, Boston, MA. Platelets were prepared from donor blood, gel filtered and suspended in Tris buffer, pH 7, at 37°.

[ $^{3}$ H]AA labeling of cells. Bovine aortic endothelial cell monolayers were incubated for 16 hr in growth medium containing [ $^{3}$ H]AA (0.25  $\mu$ Ci per ml in 24 mm diameter wells or 10  $\mu$ Ci per 5 ml in 75 cm<sup>2</sup>

flasks) to incorporate labeled AA into the cellular phospholipid fraction. Incorporation of [<sup>3</sup>H]AA into phospholipid was confirmed by thin-layer chromatographic analysis of extracted phospholipids performed according to the method of Flower and Blackwell [20].

Porcine aortic and human umbilical vein endothelial cells and bovine aortic smooth muscle cells were incubated for 16 hr in growth medium containing  $0.25\,\mu\text{Ci}$  [ $^3\text{H}$ ]AA per ml in 24 mm diameter wells. Rat alveolar macrophages were incubated for 3.5 hr in RPMI medium containing  $5\,\mu\text{Ci}$  [ $^3\text{H}$ ]AA per 2 ml in 35 mm diameter dishes. Suspensions of human platelets ( $2\times10^8$  platelets/ml) were incubated in plastic tubes in Tris buffer containing  $0.4\,\mu\text{Ci}$  [ $^3\text{H}$ ]AA per ml for 30 min. Suspensions of canine leukocytes ( $10^7$  cells/ml) were incubated in glass tubes in Krebs–Ringer buffer containing  $2.5\,\mu\text{Ci}$  [ $^3\text{H}$ ]AA per ml for 1 hr.

Incubation of labeled cells. Labeled cell monolayers and suspensions were washed twice with HBSS, to remove unincorporated [3H]AA and serum, and preincubated in serum-free medium containing vitamin  $K_1$  or vehicle. The preincubation medium was removed and replaced with serum-free medium containing vitamin K<sub>1</sub> and either A23187 or thrombin, in the case of platelets, to stimulate phospholipase-induced release of endogenous AA. Endothelial and smooth muscle cell monolayers were incubated with 5  $\mu$ M A23187 for 10 min, rat macrophage monolayers with 20 µM A23187 for 20 min. canine leukocytes with 1 µM A23187 for 5 min, and platelets with 1 unit human  $\alpha$  thrombin/ml for 5 min. At the termination of the experiment the medium was separated for counting of radioactivity or extraction of <sup>3</sup>H-labeled metabolites for HPLC

Incubation of unlabeled cells. Monolayers of bovine endothelial cells were washed twice with HBSS and preincubated in serum-free DMEM containing vitamin  $K_1$  or vehicle at  $37^{\circ}$  for 30 min. The preincubation medium was replaced with serum-free medium containing vitamin  $K_1$  and A23187 (5  $\mu$ M). After a 10-min incubation the supernatant fraction was removed, centrifuged at  $2000 \, g$  for  $10 \, \text{min}$ , and stored frozen at  $-15^{\circ}$  for subsequent radioimmuno-assay of prostanoids.

Incubation of cells with labeled precursor. Unlabeled bovine endothelial cell monolayers in 75 cm<sup>2</sup> plastic tissue culture flasks were washed twice with HBSS and preincubated in serum-free medium containing vitamin  $K_1$  or vehicle at 37° for 30 min. The medium was removed and monolayers were incubated with serum-free medium containing vitamin  $K_1$ , [3H]AA (10  $\mu$ Ci per flask) and A23187 (5  $\mu$ M) for 15 min. At the termination of the experiment the supernatant fraction was removed and the prostanoids were extracted for HPLC.

Assay for effects of vitamin K<sub>1</sub> on cyclooxygenase and hydroperoxidase activities of prostaglandin H synthase (PHS). Microsomes were prepared from ram seminal vesicles, a rich source of PHS, as previously described [21]. PHS was solubilized from ram seminal vesicle microsomes (RSVM) with 1.0% Tween 20 according to the method of Miyamoto et al. [22] and stored in 0.1 M phosphate buffer, pH 7.8, at a concentration of 5.5 mg/ml.

The effects of vitamin  $K_1$  on the cyclooxygenase and hydroperoxidase activities of PHS were studied by monitoring oxygen incorporation into AA with a Clark oxygen electrode at 37° as described previously [21]. The effects of vitamin  $K_1$  on cyclooxygenase activity were determined by monitoring oxygen incorporation into AA during prostaglandin  $G_2$  (PGG<sub>2</sub>) biosynthesis. Incubation mixtures contained 50 mM phosphate buffer, pH 7.8, 0.5 mg protein,  $100 \,\mu\text{M}$  AA, vitamin  $K_1$  at indicated concentrations, and water to make a total volume of 2 ml. Oxygen uptake was recorded on a Fisher Recordall Series 5000 chart recorder and rates were compared to controls to determine the effect of vitamin  $K_1$  on oxygen uptake.

To determine if vitamin  $K_1$  could serve as a reducing cofactor for the hydroperoxidase activity of PHS, the effect of vitamin  $K_1$  on oxygen uptake during the hydroperoxidase-dependent co-oxidation of phenylbutazone was measured. Compounds which serve as reducing cofactors for the hydroperoxidase activity of PHS can competitively inhibit incorporation of oxygen into phenylbutazone [23]. Incubation mixtures contained buffer, RSVM protein and water as described above,  $500 \,\mu\text{M}$  phenylbutazone and vitamin  $K_1$  at the indicated concentrations. Oxygen uptake was initiated by the addition of 100 µM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and monitored as described above. The incubation was also done in the absence of phenylbutazone to investigate whether vitamin  $K_1$ itself accepts O2.

Incubation of RSVM with [ $^{14}$ C]PGH<sub>2</sub>. Incubation mixtures contained 50 mM Tris buffer, pH7.5, 1.0 mg RSVM, 0.1  $\mu$ Ci [ $^{14}$ C]PGH<sub>2</sub>, vitamin K<sub>1</sub> at indicated concentrations, and water to make a total of 2 ml. The incubation was terminated, after 5 min at 37°, by acidification to pH 3.5 with formic acid. Prostanoid metabolites were extracted as described below.

Extraction, high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC), and radioactivity determination. Release of radioactivity into the incubation medium was measured by counting an aliquot of incubation medium directly in Atomlight scintillation fluid.

Labeled metabolites of [3H]AA and [14C]PGH<sub>2</sub> were extracted by acidifying the incubation medium to pH 3.5 with 1 M formic acid and extracting twice with 3 vol. of ethyl acetate. The organic phase was dried under vacuum and samples were reconstituted in 24% acetonitrile in water for HPLC. Recovery of internal standards during sample preparation was greater than 90%.

Separation of prostanoids by reverse-phase HPLC was achieved by isocratic elution with 24% acetonitrile in water (pH 3.5) at a flow rate of 3 ml/min [24]. Samples and standards were injected in a volume of 250  $\mu$ l, and the column was eluted for 60 min with 24% acetonitrile in water. These conditions gave very good resolution of 6-keto-PGF<sub>1 $\alpha$ </sub>, thromboxane B<sub>2</sub> (TXB<sub>2</sub>), PGF<sub>2 $\alpha$ </sub> and PGE<sub>2</sub>. AA and less polar metabolites were eluted in a single peak with 100% acetonitrile after the initial 60 min isocratic step.

Radioimmunoassay of prostanoids. 6-Keto-PGF<sub>1a</sub> and PGE<sub>2</sub> were quantitated by radioimmunoassay

using a procedure described by Seragen, Inc., Boston, MA. Briefly, this involved adding a 0.1 ml aliquot of the cell incubation medium to polypropylene tubes containing the appropriate antibody and <sup>3</sup>H-labeled prostanoid in Tris-gelatin buffer. After incubating overnight at 4°, the unbound prostanoid was precipitated by treatment with dextrancoated charcoal and centrifugation at 4°. The percentage of bound prostanoid was determined by liquid scintillation counting of the supernatant fraction and compared with known standards. Each sample was assayed in duplicate. Samples assayed at several dilutions exhibited parallelism with authentic standards.

Statistical analysis. Statistical significance for paired data was determined by Student's t-test. Statistical significance for dose responses to vitamin  $K_1$  was determined by one-way analysis of variance using Williams' test for multiple comparison of data. A P value of < 0.02 was selected to denote statistical significance between groups.

#### RESULTS

Effect of vitamin  $K_1$  on prostanoid synthesis by bovine aortic endothelial cells measured by radio-immunoassay. Cultured bovine aortic endothelial cells produce significant amounts of  $PGI_1$  and  $PGE_2$ 

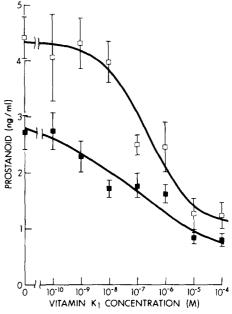


Fig. 1. Effect of vitamin  $K_1$  on 6-keto-PGF $_{1\alpha}$  ( $\square$ ) and PGE $_2$  ( $\blacksquare$ ) synthesis by cultured bovine aortic endothelial cells. Monolayers were preincubated with vitamin  $K_1$  for 30 min, followed by a 10-min incubation with A23187 (5  $\mu$ M). 6-keto-PGF $_{1\alpha}$  and PGE $_2$  were quantitated by radioimmuno-assay of the incubation medium as described in Experimental Procedures. Data represent the means  $\pm$  SEM of three experiments. A P value of < 0.02 was selected to denote statistical significance between groups. Statistical significance: 6-keto-PGF $_{1\alpha}$ : medium vs vitamin  $K_1$   $10^{-10}$ ,  $10^{-9}$ ,  $10^{-8}$ M, not significant;  $10^{-7}$ ,  $10^{-6}$ ,  $10^{-5}$ ,  $10^{-4}$ M,  $10^{-10}$ ,  $10^{-9}$ ,  $10^{-8}$ ,  $10^{-7}$ ,  $10^{-6}$ ,  $10^{-5}$ ,  $10^{-4}$ M, not significant;  $10^{-8}$ ,  $10^{-7}$ ,  $10^{-6}$ M,  $10^{-7}$ 0.05 (NS);  $10^{-5}$ ,  $10^{-4}$ M,  $10^{-10}$ 9,  $10^{-9}$ 9,  $10^{-8}$ 9,  $10^{-7}$ 10  $10^{-6}$ 9,  $10^{-6}$ 9,  $10^{-5}$ 10  $10^{-6}$ 9,  $10^{-5}$ 10  $10^{-6}$ 9,  $10^{-5}$ 10  $10^{-6}$ 9,  $10^{-6}$ 9,  $10^{-5}$ 10  $10^{-6}$ 9,  $10^{-5}$ 10  $10^{-6}$ 9,  $10^{-5}$ 10  $10^{-6}$ 9,  $10^{-6}$ 9

when incubated in vitro with the calcium ionophore A23187, a known stimulus of phospholipase-induced release of endogenous AA. Pre-exposure of endothelial cells to vitamin K for 30 min significantly reduced the amount of PGI2 released (measured as its stable hydrolysis product, 6-keto-PGF<sub>1 $\alpha$ </sub>) and PGE<sub>2</sub>. This effect was dependent upon the concentration of the vitamin as shown in Fig. 1 for vitamin  $K_1$ . 6-Keto-PGF<sub>1 $\alpha$ </sub> and PGE<sub>2</sub> production were equally sensitive to inhibition by vitamin  $K_1$ , suggesting that the vitamin modified production of both metabolites by a similar mechanism. The approximate  $IC_{50}$  of vitamin  $K_1$  was  $1.0-3.0\times 10^{-7}\,M$ . The viability of vitamin  $K_1$ -treated endothelial cells, as judged by trypan blue dye exclusion, was comparable to that of control cells with more than 95% of cells in each group excluding the dye. The addition of vitamin  $K_3$ , either as the fat soluble form or as the sodium bisulfite salt, also inhibited the formation of PGI<sub>2</sub> and PGE<sub>2</sub> by endocells. The  $1C_{50}$ was approximately  $1.0 \times 10^{-7}$  M. However, a biphasic effect of vitamin K<sub>3</sub> on PGI<sub>2</sub> release was observed. At concentrations above 10<sup>-6</sup> M significant stimulation of PGI<sub>2</sub> and PGE<sub>2</sub> release was observed, and the vitamin appeared to be toxic to the cells. Vitamin K3 has been shown to have toxic effects on intact cells [25]. The concentrations of vitamin  $K_1$ , which is the naturally occurring form of vitamin K, found to be effective in inhibiting prostaglandin production are well within the physiologic concentration range (see Discussion). Therefore, in all subsequent experiments vitamin  $K_1$  was used.

Bovine endothelial cells were exposed to vitamin  $K_1$  ( $10^{-6}\,M$ ) for various times before addition of A23187 to the incubation medium. The inhibition of A23187-induced release of 6-keto-PGF<sub>1a</sub> observed was dependent on the time of pre-exposure to vitamin  $K_1$  (Fig. 2). Pretreatment of monolayers with vitamin  $K_1$  led to a reduction in the amount of 6-keto-PGF<sub>1a</sub> released after stimulation by A23187. This inhibition was statistically significant for preincubation times of 20 min or longer. However, the maximum effect was observed at 20 min with no further increase in inhibition apparent after a pre-

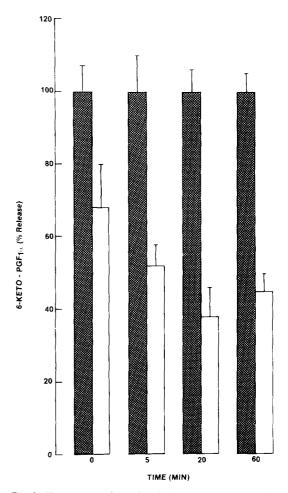


Fig. 2. Time course of the vitamin  $K_1$  pretreatment. Bovine aortic endothelial cells were exposed for various time intervals to culture medium (shaded bars) or  $10^{-6}$  M vitamin  $K_1$  (open bars) before addition of A23187. 6-keto-PGF $_{1a}$  was quantitated by radioimmunoassay. Control values were normalized to 100% for each pretreatment time. Zero-time control corresponded to  $1.24 \pm 0.22$  ng/ml 6-keto-PGF $_{1a}$ . Statistical significance: medium vs vitamin  $K_1$ . 0 min, not significant; 5 min, P < 0.05 (NS); 20 min, P < 0.02; 60 min, P < 0.01.

Table 1. Effect of vitamin  $K_1$  on the cyclooxygenase and hydroperoxidase activities of prostaglandin H synthase of RSVM

Cyclooxygenase activity		Hydroperoxidase activity		
Vitamin K <sub>1</sub> (M)	% O2 uptake/sec	Vitamin $K_1(M)$	Phenylbutazone*	← O₂ uptake/sec
0	5.55	0	+	3,09
10 <sup>-8</sup>	5.38	10 -8	+	3.17
10 - 7	5.21	10	+	3.11
10:6	5.29	10-6	+	3,09
10-5	5.21	$10^{-5}$	+	3.78
		10-4	+	3.13
		0		0
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Cyclooxygenase and hydroperoxidase activities were measured as described in Experimental Procedures and are expressed as percent total  $O_2$  uptake per sec. Cyclooxygenase activity was assayed by monitoring  $O_2$  incorporation into AA during PGG<sub>2</sub> biosynthesis. Hydroperoxidase activity was assayed by monitoring  $O_2$  uptake during hydroperoxidase-dependent co-oxidation of phenylbutazone.

\* Phenylbutazone concentration =  $500 \, \mu \text{M}$ .

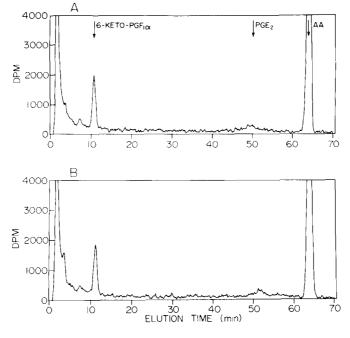


Fig. 3. Effect of vitamin  $K_1$  on metabolism of exogenous AA by bovine aortic endothelial cells. After preincubation in the absence (A) and presence (B) of vitamin  $K_1$  ( $10^{-4}$  M), monolayers were incubated with [ $^3$ H]AA and A23187 (5  $\mu$ M) for 10 min. Labeled metabolites were extracted from the medium and separated by HPLC.

exposure time of 60 min. Hence, a preincubation time of 30 min was used in all subsequent experiments.

Effect of vitamin  $K_1$  on prostaglandin H synthase and PGI2 synthase. To investigate which enzymes of the AA metabolism cascade are involved in the inhibition of prostanoid production by vitamin  $K_1$ , the effect of vitamin  $K_1$  on the cyclooxygenase and hydroperoxidase activities of PHS was examined. Ram seminal vesicles were used since they are a conveniently obtained and highly active source of PHS and PGI<sub>2</sub> synthase, the enzymes under study in vascular endothelial cells. Table 1 shows that vitamin  $K_1$ , up to a concentration of  $10^{-5}$  M, did not affect the cyclooxygenase activity of PHS, measured as O<sub>2</sub> uptake into AA during PGG<sub>2</sub> biosynthesis. Similarly, the hydroperoxidase activity of PHS was not affected by vitamin K<sub>1</sub> as determined by oxygraph studies in which vitamin K<sub>1</sub> had no effect on hydroperoxidase-dependent co-oxidation of phenylbutazone (Table 1). Vitamin K<sub>1</sub> also did not act as a reducing cofactor and accept O<sub>2</sub> itself as there was no  $O_2$  uptake in the absence of phenylbutazone (Table 1).

To further substantiate the lack of effect of vitamin  $K_1$  on PHS, the effect of vitamin  $K_1$  on the metabolism of exogenous [ ${}^3H$ ]AA by bovine aortic endothelial cells was examined. Pretreatment of endothelial cells with vitamin  $K_1$  did not inhibit PGI<sub>2</sub> production, as determined by HPLC separation of radiolabeled AA metabolites (Fig. 3). Indeed, the ability of endothelial cells to transform exogenous [ ${}^3H$ ]AA into prostanoids was identical for control (6-keto-PGF<sub>1 $\alpha$ </sub>, 8.83% and PGE<sub>2</sub>, 1.75% of total

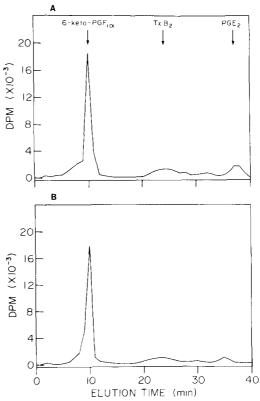


Fig. 4. Effect of vitamin  $K_1$  on metabolism of PGH<sub>2</sub> by RSVM. RSVM were incubated with [ $^{14}$ H]PGH<sub>2</sub> in the absence (A) and presence (B) of vitamin  $K_1$  ( $10^{-4}$  M) for 5 min. Labeled prostanoids were separated by HPLC.

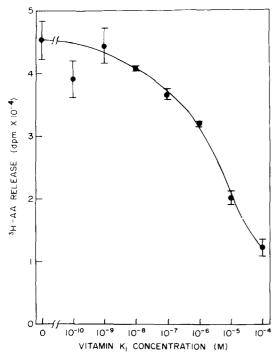


Fig. 5. Effect of vitamin  $K_1$  on release of  $[^3H]AA$  from bovine aortic endothelial cells. Cellular phospholipids were labeled by incubation of monolayers for 16 hr with  $[^3H]AA$ . After preincubation with vitamin  $K_1$  for 30 min, release of AA was stimulated by incubation of cells with A23187 (5  $\mu$ M) for 10 min. Aliquots of incubation medium were assayed for released radioactivity. Data represents mean  $\pm$  SEM of three experiments. Statistical significance: medium vs vitamin  $K_1$   $10^{-10}$ ,  $10^{-9}$ ,  $10^{-8}$  M, P < 0.05 (NS);  $10^{-7}$ ,  $10^{-6}$ ,  $10^{-5}$ ,  $10^{-4}$  M, P < 0.01.

radioactivity) and vitamin  $K_1$ -treated cells (6-keto-PGF $_{1\alpha}$ , 8.63% and PGE $_2$ , 1.88%). These data indicate that vitamin  $K_1$  does not inhibit PHS. The ratio of 6-keto-PGF $_{1\alpha}$  to PGE $_2$  observed in this experiment differs from that shown in Figs. 1 and 3. This difference in the ratio of metabolites between experiments is typical for cells in culture and appears to depend on cell passage number and degree of confluency.

The effect of vitamin  $K_1$  on  $PGI_2$  synthase was investigated by examining the metabolism of  $[^{14}C]PGH_2$  to prostanoids by RSVM. On incubation with the microsomes,  $PGH_2$  was metabolized to mainly  $PGI_2$ . Little, if any, other prostanoid was observed. The amounts of  $[^{14}C]PGI_2$  measured as  $[^{14}C]6$ -keto- $PGF_{1a}$ , produced in the presence and absence of vitamin  $K_1$ , were identical (Fig. 4), indicating that vitamin  $K_1$  does not inhibit  $PGI_2$  synthase in RSVM.

Effect of vitamin  $K_1$  on phospholipase activity. Phospholipase activity was quantitated by measuring the A23187-induced release of radioactivity from cells prelabeled with [3H]AA. A23187 triggered a 5-fold increase in release of radioactivity into the medium above basal release. Vitamin K<sub>1</sub> caused a dose-dependent inhibition in A23187-induced release of [3H]AA from bovine aortic endothelial cells (Fig. 5). Inhibition was maximal (75%) at a concentration of 10<sup>-4</sup> M vitamin K<sub>1</sub> and paralleled the inhibition of 6-keto-PGF $_{1\alpha}$  and PGE $_2$  synthesis by vitamin  $K_1$  shown in Fig. 1. In several experiments, the IC50 of vitamin K1 ranged from 1.0 to  $6.0 \times 10^{-7} \, M$ . The  $1C_{50}$  for inhibition of release of [ ${}^{3}H$ ]AA by vitamin  $K_{1}$  is therefore very similar to the IC<sub>50</sub> for inhibition of release of 6-keto-PGF<sub>1a</sub> and PGE<sub>2</sub> by vitamin  $K_1$ . The metabolism of [ $^3H$ ]AA

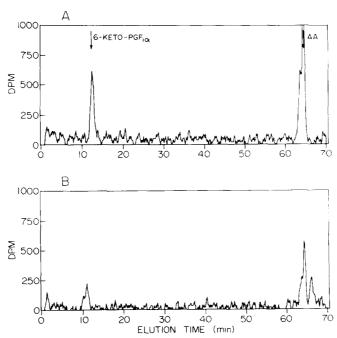


Fig. 6. Effect of vitamin  $K_1$  on release and metabolism of [ $^3H$ ]AA by bovine aortic endothelial cells. After preincubation for 30 min in the absence (A) and presence (B) of  $10^{-4}$  M vitamin  $K_1$ , release of esterified [ $^3H$ ]AA was stimulated with A23187 (5  $\mu$ M) for 10 min. [ $^3H$ ]AA and metabolites were extracted from the incubation medium and separated by HPLC.

Table 2. Comparison of effect of vitamin K<sub>1</sub> on arachidonic acid release on various cell types

	[³H]AA release*		
Cells	Control	Vitamin K <sub>1</sub> (10 <sup>-4</sup> M)	% Inhibition
Bovine aortic endothelial	45,275 ± 3,198+	$12,389 \pm 1,355$	
	$1.58 \pm 0.11 \ddagger$	$0.43 \pm 0.05$	72.6§
Porcine aortic endothelial	$34,412 \pm 2,465$	$24,018 \pm 1,175$	
	$28.23 \pm 0.02$	$19.71 \pm 0.01$	30.2§
Human umbilical vein endothelial	$4.886 \pm 148$	$2.897 \pm 191$	40.88
	$8.1 \pm 0.2$	$4.8 \pm 0.3$	
Bovine aortic smooth muscle	$9,389 \pm 628$	$4,129 \pm 190$	
	$3.9 \pm 0.3$	$1.7 \pm 0.1$	56.08
Human platelets	$62,584 \pm 30,202$	$56,720 \pm 20,654$	-
ī	$12.06 \pm 5.82$	$10.93 \pm 3.98$	9.4
Canine leukocytes	$148,792 \pm 11,079$	$120,281 \pm 10,069$	"
•	$4.96 \pm 0.37$	$4.01 \pm 0.34$	19.2
Rat alveolar macrophages	$116,420 \pm 9,825$	$95,885 \pm 6.040$	
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	$3.28 \pm 0.28$	$2.71 \pm 0.17$	17.6

Cells were incubated with [ ${}^{3}$ H]AA to label the phospholipid fraction. After the prelabeling period, the cells were incubated with medium alone or medium containing vitamin  $K_{1}$  and then stimulated to release AA as described in Experimental Procedures. Results shown are from a single experiment verified in at least three separate studies.

- \* Values are mean  $\pm$  SEM, N = 3-6.
- † Disintegrations per min. per incubation.
- ‡ Percentage of incorporated [3H]AA.
- P < 0.01
- Not significant.

released by A23187 in bovine aortic endothelial cells was examined using HPLC of radiolabeled products (Fig. 6). Vitamin  $K_1$  inhibited release of [ $^3$ H]AA from cellular phospholipid but had no effect on conversion of endogenous [ $^3$ H]AA to [ $^3$ H]6-keto-PGF<sub>1 $\alpha$ </sub>, providing further evidence that vitamin  $K_1$  exerted its effect on phospholipase and not on subsequent enzymes in the AA metabolic pathway.

To investigate the possibility that vitamin  $K_1$  reduced the availability of free AA by enhancement of reesterification of AA into phospholipids by acyl transferases rather than inhibition of phospholipase activation, the effect of vitamin  $K_1$  on uptake of  $[^3H]AA$  by cultured bovine aortic endothelial cells was examined. Neither the rate nor the extent of incorporation of  $[^3H]AA$  into the cells was affected by vitamin  $K_1$ .\*

Effect of vitamin  $K_1$  on phospholipase activity of various cell types. In view of the above observation with bovine aortic endothelial cells, the effect of vitamin K<sub>1</sub> on arachidonic acid release by several different cell types was investigated to determine the cell specificity of this response. The various cell preparations were incubated with [3H]AA to label the phospholipid fraction and then incubated with vitamin  $K_1$  as described in Experimental Procedures. The release of [3H]AA from the cell preparations was then measured after stimulation of phospholipase activity. Phospholipase activity was inhibited by vitamin  $K_1$  (10<sup>-4</sup> M) in all of the vascular cell types studied, which were bovine and porcine aortic endothelial cells, human umbilical vein endothelial cells and bovine aortic smooth muscle cells (Table 2). The largest effect was seen on the two bovine cell cultures. No effect of vitamin  $K_1$  on AA release could be demonstrated in human blood platelets, canine leukocytes or rat alveolar macrophages (Table 2).

## DISCUSSION

Results of our studies indicate that the release of AA from membrane phospholipids in vascular endothelial and smooth muscle cells is inhibited by vitamin  $K_1$ , one of the more biologically active forms of vitamin K formed in animal tissues. Since the availability of precursor AA is reduced, the synthesis of eicosanoids by endothelial cells is also reduced by vitamin  $K_1$ . This is reflected in the levels of 6-keto-PGF<sub>1</sub> and PGE<sub>2</sub> measured. The inhibitory effect of vitamin  $K_1$  is directed towards the phospholipases, the series of enzymes that catalyze the liberation of AA from esterified stores, rather than subsequent enzymes in the AA metabolic pathway. This conclusion is based on several lines of evidence: (i) vitamin K<sub>1</sub> inhibited the release of <sup>3</sup>H-label from cells that had been prelabeled with [3H]AA, (ii) vitamin K<sub>1</sub> did not directly inhibit PHS or PGI<sub>2</sub> synthase, and (iii) inhibition of AA release paralleled the decrease in release of PGI<sub>2</sub> and PGE<sub>2</sub> by endothelium, suggesting that vitamin  $K_1$  inhibits the ratelimiting step in the metabolic cascade common to the three compounds measured, namely hydrolysis of phospholipid by phospholipases. The possibility that the decreased release of AA observed after vitamin K<sub>1</sub> treatment was due to a stimulation of reesterification of AA into phospholipids was ruled out by the finding that uptake of [3H]AA by endothelial cell monolayers was not affected by vitamin K<sub>1</sub>. The mechanism by which AA is released from

<sup>\*</sup> R. D. Nolan, unpublished observations.

phospholipids in vascular endothelial cells in response to a specific stimulus is unknown. Hong and Deykin [26] suggest that bradykinin activates a phosphatidylinositol-hydrolyzing phospholipase A2 as well as a phospholipase C in porcine aortic endothelial cells. Whether this phospholipase A2 cleaves AA directly from phospholipid or acts on phosphatidic acid formed by the sequential action of phospholipase C and diglyceride kinase remains to be determined. Alternatively, it has been demonstrated in human platelets that AA is cleaved from diglyceride by a diglyceride lipase following the action of phospholipase C [27, 28]. Thus, vitamin K1 could interfere with the action of one or more of these enzymes in vascular endothelial cells.

Recently, Blackwell et al. [29] reported that several vitamin K analogs  $(K_3, K_4, K_7)$  inhibit platelet AA liberation and aggregation. The IC<sub>50</sub> values for inhibition of aggregation induced by ADP, collagen, and thrombin were at least  $2 \times 10^{-5}$  M. However,  $IC_{50}$  values of  $7-8 \times 10^{-4}$  M were observed with calcium ionophore-induced aggregation. In fact, the concentration of vitamin K<sub>3</sub> required to inhibit platelet aggregation and AA liberation was more than 1000-fold that for inhibition by vitamin K<sub>3</sub> of ionophore-induced PGI<sub>2</sub> release from endothelial cells in this study. We tested vitamin  $K_1$  in concentrations as high as  $10^{-4}$  M in platelets and did not observe an effect on AA release. Interpretation of the effects of vitamin K<sub>3</sub> (menadione) may be complicated because it is generally assumed that menadione must be alkylated by intestinal microorganisms or tissue alkylating enzymes to menaquinone to exert its biological effect

The phospholipase-induced release of AA from vascular endothelial cells in response to specific stimuli, such as bradykinin [15], histamine, thrombin and ionophore A23187 [31], most likely involves the mobilization of Ca<sup>2+</sup> within the cell. Preliminary experiments in this laboratory suggest that, in human umbilical vein endothelial cells, vitamin  $K_1$  inhibits release of AA in response to bradykinin. Thus, it is expected that vitamin K<sub>1</sub> would inhibit phospholipase activity in response to stimulation by bradykinin, histamine and thrombin as well as by A23187. It is possible that the tissue-specific sensitivity to vitamin  $K_1$  observed in this study is related to the variations in sensitivities of different phospholipases to Ca<sup>2+</sup> activation reported by Michell [32] and Hong et al. [31]. Future studies to investigate the activities of the individual phospholipases and the Ca<sup>2+</sup> dependence of these enzymes, using methods to separate the lipid species involved or using purified enzymes and substrates, are necessary to understand the action of vitamin K<sub>1</sub>

The results from this study indicate that vitamin  $K_1$  interferes with the metabolism of AA in cells of the vascular system but is devoid of such activity in other cell types. This may be of physiological importance since vascular tissue is a major source of  $PGI_2$  which is a significant contributor to the regulation of hemostasis. The effect of this reduced  $PGI_2$  production may be especially pronounced if thromboxane  $A_2$  production by platelets is unaffected by vitamin  $K_1$ , as these studies suggest. Vitamin  $K_1$  may therefore contribute to the devel-

opment of thrombosis by specifically lowering the capacity of vascular tissue to synthesize PGI<sub>2</sub> yet not affecting the capacity of the platelet to synthesize thromboxane  $A_2$ . Whether this effect of vitamin  $K_1$ is of physiological significance remains to be determined. Certainly the normal circulating levels of the vitamin are low [33], in the order of  $10^{-9}$  M which is much lower than the concentrations effective in inhibiting AA release in vascular cell cultures. However, the levels of circulating vitamin  $K_1$  are elevated dramatically in cases of hyperlipidemia [33], since vitamin  $K_1$  is transported by lipoproteins, and after pharmacological administration of vitamin  $K_1$  for treatment of hemorrhagic disease in which doses of 25 mg are used. Plasma concentrations of vitamin  $K_1$ reach levels of  $10^{-6}\,\mathrm{M}$  within hours of pharmacological administration [34]. Moreover, high concentrations of vitamin  $K_1$  (10<sup>-4</sup> to 10<sup>-5</sup> M) are required for carboxylation of prothrombin precursor by preparations of rat liver microsomes [35]. The intracellular levels of vitamin K<sub>1</sub> may be high particularly in tissues where the vitamin accumulates and could account for the intracellular effects of vitamin K<sub>1</sub> on vascular cells. Anderson and Barnhart [36, 37] demonstrated that prothrombin is produced in the liver but other tissues such as bone [38] and kidney [39] are able to carry out vitamin K-dependent carboxylation of proteins. Vitamin K was found to be distributed throughout most tissues of the body [40, 41] including cardiovascular and other, highly vascularized tissues, but whether its distribution indicates any physiological function of the vitamin in tissues other than liver cannot be determined from those studies. However, it has been established that vitamin K analogs inhibit such neutrophil functions as phagocytosis, bactericidal activity, peroxide formation and lysosomal enzyme release [42]

The possibility that vitamin  $K_1$  modulates the production of PGI<sub>2</sub> by vascular tissue in vivo is especially intriguing because it would implicate the regulation of the fibrin clotting cascade with the regulation of platelet aggregation and therefore represent a common regulatory step in the control of both hemostatic mechanisms. The concept of regulation of two separate aspects of blood clotting by a single agent, such as vitamin K<sub>1</sub>, would not be unprecedented. It is well known that von Willebrand factor is necessary for platelet adhesion to blood vessel walls and also the regulation of plasma levels of factor VIII C [43]. a clotting factor necessary for fibrin clot formation. As with von Willebrand factor, alterations in the plasma levels of vitamin  $K_1$  may affect the formation of the platelet aggregate as well as the fibrin clot.

In summary, our study shows that vitamin  $K_1$  has a potent inhibitory activity on vascular AA metabolism *in vitro*. The mechanism of action of vitamin  $K_1$  on AA release in vascular cells and its physiological significance remain to be studied.

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