Anticancer Effects of Gingerol in Retinoblastoma Cancer Cells (RB355 Cell Line) Are Mediated via Apoptosis Induction, Cell Cycle Arrest and Upregulation of PI3K/Akt Signaling Pathway

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Background: The main aim of the current investigation was to study the antiproliferative activity of gingerol in RB355 human retinoblastoma cancer cells. The effects of gingerol on apoptosis induction, cell cycle arrest, and PI3K/Akt signaling pathway were also evaluated.

Material/Methods: MTT cell viability assay was used to assess the cytotoxic effects of gingerol in these cells while. To study apoptotic effects in these cells, we used inverted microscopy along with fluorescence microscopy using acridine orange/propidium iodide and Hoechst 33258 as staining dyes. Flow cytometry was used to study cell cycle phase distribution and Western blot assay indicated effects on PI3K/Akt protein expression levels.

Results: Results showed that gingerol exerted dose-dependent and time-dependent growth inhibitory effects in these retinoblastoma cells. However, the growth inhibitory effects of gingerol were less pronounced against normal fr2 cells. As compared to the untreated control cells, gingerol-treated cells at concentrations of 25, 75, and 150 μM had drastic changes in cell morphology, including rounding and withering of cells, with disorganized cell layers. Gingerol-treated cells exhibited bright fluorescence, indicating rupture of the cell membrane. These results were further confirmed by acridine orange/propidium iodide staining, in which untreated cells showed normal green fluorescence and gingerol-treated cells showed yellow/red fluorescence. Gingerol also led to dose-dependent G2/M phase cell cycle arrest in RB355 retinoblastoma cells, as well as concentration-dependent activation of PI3K-related protein expressions.

Conclusions: Gingerol exhibits potent anticancer effects in RB355 human retinoblastoma cancer cells and these effects were mediated via apoptosis induction, cell cycle arrest, and modulation of the PI3K/Akt signaling pathway.

MeSH Keywords: Apoptosis • Cell Cycle • Retinoblastoma

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Background

Retinoblastoma is a rare malignancy that forms from the immature retinal cells that compose the light-sensing tissue. Retinoblastoma represents approximately 4% of all pediatric malignancies and is the most common primary intraocular cancer in children [1]. This type of cancer is almost exclusively found in children, who may survive this cancer but lose their vision. About 70–80% of children with retinoblastoma are diagnosed before the age of 3 years and it is very uncommon in children older than 6 years. The prevalence of retinoblastoma is much higher in developing countries as compared to developed countries. It has also been reported that the presence of human papilloma virus and poor socioeconomic conditions are suspected factors in retinoblastoma [2]. It is believed that the loss of normally functioning RB1 gene is an important step in the development of many adult nonocular cancers [1,3]. Clinically, there are 4 stages of retinoblastoma: intraocular, regional, central nervous system, and hematogenous. Different types of retinoblastoma have been identified – intraocular retinoblastoma, extraocular retinoblastoma, and trilateral retinoblastoma – with intraocular the most common [1]. The various treatment modalities for retinoblastoma include enucleation of the eye, external beam radiotherapy (EBR), brachytherapy, thermotherapy, laser photocoagulation, cryotherapy, systemic chemotherapy, and nano-particulate chemotherapy. Therefore, management of children with retinoblastoma needs a multidisciplinary approach. Chemotherapy may be particularly beneficial for patients with small tumors neighboring the fovea and optic nerve, where radiation therapy or laser photocoagulation may lead to substantial loss of vision. Chemotherapy is used to shrink the tumor and to permit local ophthalmological therapies, including cryotherapy and laser photocoagulation, or thermotherapy, to eliminate the residual disease [4–6]. Naturally occurring compounds, including flavonoids, alkaloids, polyphenols, sesquiterpenes that occur in a large variety of fruits, medicinal plants, and vegetables have been reported to exhibit anticancer properties in both in vitro and in vivo cancer models. These naturally occurring compounds show their anticancer effects via inducing apoptosis by targeting multiple cellular signaling pathways, including protein kinases, growth factors, inflammatory cytokines, and tumor cell survivor factors. Several naturally occurring compounds have been reported to induce apoptosis in cancer cells, such as morphine, sinococuline, podophyllotoxin, Quercetin, and Naringenin [7]. Some naturally occurring compounds such as cardenolide ouabain have been found to be effective against retinoblastoma [8]. A diversity of cell signaling pathways are altered in tumor cells, and naturally occurring compounds can selectively kill cancer cells by targeting these crucial signaling pathways [9–11]. Gingerol is an important naturally occurring compound isolated from *Zingiber officinale* and has been reported to exhibit anticancer activity against several types of cancers, which include, but are not limited to, breast cancer and colon cancer [12,13]. The main purpose of the present study was to investigate the anticancer properties of gingerol in the RB355 human retinoblastoma cell line, and to evaluate its effects on apoptosis induction, cell cycle arrest, and PI3K/Akt signaling cascade.

Material and Methods

Chemicals and other reagents

Gingerol (purity >98% as determined by high-performance liquid chromatography), dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO), and 3-(4,5-dimethyl-2-thiazolyl) 2, 5-diphenyl-2H tetrazolium bromide (MTT) were purchased from Chengdu Preferred Biotech Co. Ltd (China). Gingerol was dissolved in DMSO to get a 100-mM stock solution, which was diluted in the medium to yield the desired concentrations of 0, 5, 25, 50, 75, 150, and 250 µM. An equal volume of DMSO in complete culture medium was used as the vehicle control. For all experiments, the final concentration of DMSO was kept at 0.35% to exclude its cytotoxicity. Minimum Essential Medium (MEM) and RPMI, fetal bovine serum (FBS), penicillin, streptomycin, and phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) were obtained from Hangzhou Sijiqing Biological Engineering Materials Co., Ltd. (Hangzhou, China). Propidium iodide (PI), acridine orange (AO), and Hoechst 33258 were purchased from Boster Biological Technology Co., Ltd. (Wuhan, China).

Cell line and cell culture medium

RB355 human retinoblastoma and normal human fr2 cell lines were purchased from the cell bank of the Chinese Academy of Sciences, Shanghai, China. The cells were cultured in MEM and RPMI 1640 medium supplemented with 10% (v/v) fetal bovine serum (FBS), 100 U/mL penicillin, and streptomycin at 37°C in a humidified atmosphere of 95% air and 5% CO₂.

MTT assay for cell viability

The cell viability of RB355 human retinoblastoma cells after drug treatment was evaluated by MTT assay. In brief, RB355 cells at a density of 2×10⁴ cells per well were seeded and treated with 0, 5, 25, 50, 75, 150, and 250 µM doses of gingerol for 3 different incubation time intervals: 12 h, 48 h, and 72 h. After drug addition, MTT solution (10 µl) prepared in cell medium was added. The formazan crystals thus formed were dissolved in DMSO and the absorbance was measured on a microplate reader (ELX 800; Bio-tek Instruments, Winooski, VT, USA) at a wavelength of 490 nm. The results of the cell viability assay were represented as an inhibition ratio (%) using the following equation:

\[
\text{Inhibition ratio (I%) = } \frac{(A_{\text{control}} - A_{\text{sample}})}{A_{\text{control}}} \times 100%
\]
**Phase contrast microscopy**

RB355 human retinoblastoma cells were plated in 6-well plates at a density of $2 \times 10^6$ cells/ml and cultured for 48 h. Afterwards, the cells were treated with varying concentrations of gingerol (0, 25, 75, and 150 µM) for 48 h. After gingerol treatment, culture plates were examined using an inverted light microscope (Nikon Corp., Tokyo, Japan) and images were captured. DMSO was used as a vehicle control. The morphological changes were monitored and the location on each cell was photographed. The images were captured at a magnification of $\times 200$.

**Fluorescence microscopic assay using acridine orange (AO), propidium iodide (PI), and Hoecht 33258 staining dyes**

In brief, RB355 human retinoblastoma cells were seeded on a chamber slide at a cell density of $2 \times 10^6$ cells/chamber. After treating the cells with 0, 25, 75, and 150 µM dose of gingerol for 48 h, the cells were centrifuged at 12 000 g × for 20 min, after which cells were washed 3 times with PBS. Then, 20 µg/mL of acridine orange (AO) and 20 µg/mL of propidium iodide (PI) were added to each chamber, according to a previously reported method [11]. The stained cell suspension was put onto a glass slide and these slides were then monitored using fluorescence microscopy (Olympus IX-70, Tokyo, Japan).

For the Hoechst 33258 procedure, RB355 human retinoblastoma cells were plated in 6-well plates and then cultured for 24 h to allow complete attachment of cells to the surface of the plates. The cells were treated with 0, 25, 75, and 150 µM of gingerol for 48 h and then stained with Hoechst 33258 (5 µg/ml) at 37°C for 30 min. Cell morphology was analyzed under a fluorescence microscope (Olympus, Tokyo, Japan) to detect cells affected by apoptosis.

**Cell cycle analysis**

Effects of gingerol on the cell cycle phase distribution in RB355 human retinoblastoma cells were evaluated by flow cytometry using PI. In brief, RB355 cells at a density of $2 \times 10^6$ cells/ml were seeded in 60-mm dishes. The cells were treated with 0, 25, 75, and 150 µM of gingerol for 48 h. Following treatment, the cells were trypsinized and washed 3 times with PBS, then the cells were fixed with 70% cold ethanol overnight. After that, the cells were treated with 10 µg/ml RNase A, then stained with 5 µg/ml propidium iodide. The DNA content of the cells was analyzed by use of a FACS Calibur flow cytometer (BD Biosciences, San Jose, CA, USA) equipped with Cell Quest 3.3 software.

**Western blot assay**

RB355 human retinoblastoma cells were treated with 0, 25, 75, and 150 µM of gingerol for 48 h. The cells were harvested and then washed with PBS 3 times and then lysed with radiomunoprecipitation assay buffer (RIPA) buffer along with protease inhibitor for 15 min. The cells were then centrifuged at 12 000 g × for 20 min, after which cells were washed 3 times with PBS. The protein content was determined by Western blotting assay. The protein lysates (40 µg/lane) were separated by 10% SDS-PAGE and blotted onto nitrocellulose membranes (Millipore, Bedford, MA, USA). Each membrane was blocked with 6% skim milk, and then incubated with the labelled primary antibodies against PI3K, Akt, and p-Akt. The protein expression was detected using Image Lab analysis software (Bio-Rad).

**Statistical analysis**

All results are depicted as mean ± standard error (S.E.M) from at least 3 independent experiments. The differences between groups were analyzed by one-way ANOVA, and significance of difference was shown as * $p<0.05$, ** $p<0.001$.

**Results**

**Gingerol exerts potent antitumor effects in RB355 human retinoblastoma cells**

Gingerol or [6]-gingerol ((S)-5-hydroxy-1-(4-hydroxy-3-methoxyphenyl)-3-decanone) is the active chemical constituent of ginger; its chemical structure is shown in Figure 1. The cytotoxicity of gingerol against RB355 human retinoblastoma cells was assessed using MTT cell viability assay. The results of this assay, which are graphically represented in Figure 2A, indicate that gingerol exerted significant cytotoxic effects in these cells. Gingerol led to concentration-dependent as well as time-dependent growth inhibition of RB355 cancer cells. The cytotoxicity was evaluated after 12-h, 48-h, and 72-h incubation. Gingerol dose of 150 µM induced 69.2%, 76.4%, and 83.3% growth inhibition at 12-h, 48-h, and 72-h incubations, while a 250-µM dose of gingerol led to 82.7%, 83.1%, and 85.2% growth inhibition at these time intervals, respectively. However, the cytotoxic effects of gingerol were less pronounced against normal human fr2 cells (Figure 2B).

![Figure 1. Chemical structure of gingerol [(S)-5-hydroxy-1-(4-hydroxy-3-methoxyphenyl)-3-decanone]].](image-url)
Figure 2. Cytotoxic effect of gingerol in (A) RB355 human retinoblastoma cells (B) Normal fr2 cells. The cells were exposed to varying doses of the drug at different time intervals. Data are shown as the mean ±SD of three independent experiments. * P<0.05; ** P<0.001, vs. 0 µM (control).

Figure 3. Effect of gingerol on the cell morphology of RB355 human retinoblastoma cells using inverted light microscopy. The cells were treated with various doses 0 (A), 25 (B), 75 (C), and 150 (D) µM for 48 h and then observed under an inverted light microscope at ×200 magnification. Yellow arrows represent apoptotic cells.
Gingerol induced characteristic apoptotic cell morphological changes in RB355 human retinoblastoma cells

The fact that gingerol induced apoptosis in RB355 retinoblastoma cells was demonstrated by using phase-inverted light and fluorescence microscopes in combination with acridine orange/propidium iodide and Hoechst 33258 staining dyes. The results of these assays are shown in Figures 3–5. Treatment of cells with 25, 75, and 150 μM resulted in significant decrease of cell count, along with deformed cell morphology. As compared to the untreated control cells, gingerol-treated cells at concentrations of 25, 75, and 150 μM resulted in drastic changes in cell morphology, including rounding and withering of cells, with disorganized cell layers (Figure 3A–3D). Further, to confirm whether gingerol induced apoptotic cell death, fluorescence microscopy using Hoechst 33258 staining dye was used. The results indicated that increasing gingerol doses led to several morphological changes in the cells, including chromatin condensation, fragmented nuclei, and cellular shrinkage (Figure 4A–4D). Gingerol-treated cells exhibited bright fluorescence, indicating rupture of the cell membrane. These results were further confirmed by acridine orange/propidium iodide staining, which indicated that untreated cells showed normal green fluorescence while gingerol-treated cells showed yellow/red fluorescence, whose intensity increased with increasing gingerol dose (Figure 5A–5D).

Gingerol induced G2/M cell cycle arrest in RB355 human retinoblastoma cells

The effects of gingerol on the cell cycle phase distribution were evaluated by flow cytometry. The results, which are shown in Figure 6, reveal that, compared to the untreated control cells which showed only 12.3% of the cells in the G2/M phase of the cell cycle, 25, 75, and 150 μM dose of the gingerol led to 14.1%, 46.1%, and 57.5% of the cells, respectively, into G2/M phase. This was associated with concomitant decrease in G0/G1 and S-phase cell percentage.
Figure 5. Gingerol induced apoptosis in RB355 human retinoblastoma cells after the cells were treated with 0 (A), 25 (B), 75 (C), and 150 µM (D) dose of gingerol for 48 h. The cells were then stained with AO/PI double-staining dye and finally analyzed by fluorescence microscopy at ×200 magnification. Yellow arrows indicate cells undergoing apoptosis, viable cells emit green fluorescence, and apoptotic cells emit yellow or red fluorescence.

Figure 6. Gingerol induced G2/M cell cycle arrest in RB355 human retinoblastoma cells. The cells were treated with 0 (A), 25 (B), 75 (C), and 150 µM (D) dose of gingerol for 48 h. The cells were stained with propidium iodide and then analyzed by flow cytometry. The proportion of G2/M phase cells increased with increasing doses of gingerol.
Gingerol leads to upregulation of the PI3K/Akt signaling pathway

Western blot assay showed that the anticancer effects of gingerol in RB355 cells were mediated via the PI3K/Akt signaling pathway. Results indicated that, as compared to the untreated control, gingerol treatment led to concentration-dependent activation of the protein expressions of all PI3K related proteins (Figure 7), and it led to the activation of both phosphorylated and non-phosphorylated PI3K and Akt proteins. The PI3K/AKT signaling pathway controls many cellular proliferation and survival processes.

Discussion

Malignant cancer is a major public health issue and is in fact the second leading cause of death worldwide after cardiovascular disorders. In Europe and the United States alone, there is an estimated prevalence rate of around 2.5 million new cancer cases per year and this figure is expected to increase further [7]. The existing treatment regimens have only limited success and as such the concept of chemoprevention has now received much attention because it is cost-effective and relatively safe. Cancer chemoprevention by naturally occurring compounds, particularly plant-based compounds, have shown promising results under both in vitro and in vivo [16]. Apoptosis, also known as programmed cell death, is a highly efficient, systematized, and well-regulated biochemical process involved in the eradication of unwanted dead cells or injured cells from the body [17,18]. Apoptosis is regulated by a set of closely related enzymes, including caspases and proteins of the Bcl-2 family. It has been reported that caspases, including caspase-3, caspase-8, and caspase-9, play central roles in executing the process of apoptosis. While caspase-9 is involved in the initiation of the apoptotic cascade, caspase-3 is the actual executioner of the apoptotic process leading to most likely mitochondrial-mediated apoptosis. The process of apoptosis induction in cancer cells can be readily demonstrated by evaluating the protein expressions of these caspases [19–21].

The objective of the present study was to investigate the antiproliferative effects of gingerol in RB355 human retinoblastoma cells, and to evaluate its effects on apoptosis, cell cycle phase distribution, and the PI3K/Akt signaling pathway. MTT assay revealed that gingerol inhibited the cell growth of RB355 cells in concentration-dependent and time-dependent manners, with lower cytotoxicity against normal human cells. Fluorescence and inverted-phase microscopy indicated that increasing concentrations of gingerol induce significant morphological changes in these cells, including chromatin condensation, cell shrinkage, membrane blebbing, and nuclear fragmentation. The cells were stained with acridine orange, propidium iodide, and Hoechst 33258 dye. Further, flow cytometry measurements indicated that different doses of gingerol led to G2/M phase cell cycle arrest. Gingerol treatment also led to concentration-dependent activation of the protein expressions of all PI3K-related proteins. Gingerol, along with other phenolic compounds, like shogaol and paradol, are the active phenolic chemical constituents of ginger (Zingiber officinale). Ginger has been reported to exhibit antioxidant, anti-cancer, and anti-angiogenesis effects. In addition, ginger has also been shown to down-regulate NF-kB-regulated genes involved in cell division [22–24]. To the best of our knowledge, there are no published reports showing the anticancer activity of gingerol against RB355 human retinoblastoma cells, and the present study is the first such report.

Our study revealed promising activity of gingerol against the retinoblastoma gene, with comparatively lower toxicity towards normal cells. Gingerol holds promise for use in clinical studies, but in vivo evaluations are required to further validate the anticancer effects of gingerol.

Conclusions

Gingerol exhibits potent anticancer effects in RB355 human retinoblastoma cells and these effects were mediated via the induction of apoptosis, G2/M cell cycle arrest, and activation of the phosphoinositide 3-kinase (PI3K/Akt) signaling pathway.

Conflict of interest

None.
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