Artificial food sweetener aspartame induces stress response in model organism

Schizosaccharomyces pombe

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Abstract
Aspartame (APM) is a non-nutritive artificial sweetener that has been widely used in many products since 1981. Molecular studies have found that it alters the expression of tumour suppressor genes and oncogenes, forms DNA-DNA and DNA-protein crosslinks, and sister chromatid exchanges. While these results confirm that aspartame is a carcinogenic substance, other studies have failed to detect any negative effect. The present work was aimed to reveal the molecular mechanisms of APM’s effects in the simpler model organism, Schizosaccharomyces pombe, which has cellular processes similar to those of mammals. The human HP1 (heterochromatin protein 1) family ortholog swi6 was selected for the evaluation because swi6 expression is downregulated in cancer cells. Swi6 is a telomere, centromere, and mating-type locus binding protein which regulates the structure of heterochromatin. To verify whether the carcinogenic effects of APM are linked with Swi6, S. pombe parental and swi6Δ strains were analysed through a number of tests, including cell viability, intracellular oxidation, glucose consumption, nucleus DAPI (4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole) staining, and quantitative real time polymerase chain reaction (qRT-PCR) methods. Based on the results, the S. pombe parental strain adapts to APM effects by activating the stress response pathway, while swi6Δ did not show a meaningful response. Thus, it is proposed that there is a relationship between APM and Swi6, and that APM may be carrying out its effects through Swi6. Nevertheless, it is understood that aspartame is not an effective carcinogenic agent since its effects are weak when compared with the swi6Δ phenotype.

Keywords
aspartame, cancer, Schizosaccharomyces pombe, Swi6, stress response

Introduction
Additives are substances generally used to improve the storage qualities, appearance, taste, and texture of foods (Lok et al., 2010). Preservatives, sweeteners, colour additives, flavour enhancers, and emulsifiers are some major categories of the over 3,000 additives approved for worldwide use (Whitehouse et al., 2008). Artificial sweeteners remain a significant class of additives, which were used mainly in the areas of pharmaceuticals and foods for diabetic patients until the 1970s (Talbot and Fisher, 1978). Today, a group of new artificial sweeteners has been developed for the food industry, where they are used in an arsenal of foods and drinks marketed as diet, low calorie, and light. One of these artificial sweeteners, aspartame, has become a market leader since its approval by FDA in 1981. Aspartame is a methyl ester of a dipeptide composed of aspartic acid and phenylalanine. It has two different forms (α and β), and its α form was found to be 200 times sweeter than sucrose (Kirkland and Gatehouse, 2015). The synthetic nature of the compound has driven researchers to assess its safety in many model organisms and, while numerous studies have found carcinogenic effects (Soffritti et al., 2006; Gombos et al., 2007), there also exist neutral results (Magnuson et al., 2007).

Epigenetics investigates the heritable changes in gene functions that are not dependent upon DNA sequence variations. Among these changes, histone modifications such as methylation, acetylation, and phosphorylation play an important role by configuring chromatin structure. While highly compact chromatin is classified as heterochromatin and contains inactive genes, euchromatin displays a looser structure with active genes. The regulation of facultative heterochromatic regions depends on developmental or environmental signals (Trojer and Reinberg, 2007). Recent studies show that constitutive heterochromatin is also dynamically regulated and responsive to stimuli.
While these changes could potentially help organisms to adapt to new environments, in some cases they may also lead to human diseases (Wang et al., 2016).

The development and progression of cancer is accompanied by changes in gene expression. These changes are often affected on a global scale and can be caused by both genetic and epigenetic alterations. Tumour initiation and progression alters the epigenome via DNA hypomethylation, aberrant nucleosome occupancy, and histone modification. Most transcription factors are not gene-specific; a defect in one factor can have consequences on the expression of many target genes. Defects in a chromatin packaging protein or histone modifying enzyme can alter the chromatin status of multiple genomic regions, simultaneously affecting the expression of hundreds of genes (Dialynas et al., 2008). One such protein, known as heterochromatin protein 1 (HP1), which localises to centromeres, telomeres, and specific sites within euchromatin, was found to have downregulated gene expression in several types of cancer (Kirschmann et al., 2000; Maloney et al., 2007). This is likely due to the role HP1 plays in chromatin integrity by securing centromere stability, telomere capping, and the regulation of euchromatic and heterochromatic gene expression (Dialynas et al., 2008).

In the fission yeast Schizosaccharomyces pombe, the major structural heterochromatin protein is Swi6. Like all mammalian HP1 homologues, Swi6 is composed of a chromo-domain (CD) and a chromo-shadow domain (CSD), separated by a hinge region (Wang et al., 2000). Swi6 binds to three transcriptionally silent heterochromatic regions, the mating type loci, telomeres, and centromeres (Grewal, 2000; Huang, 2002); all of which have a high concentration of H3-K9 methylation (Nakayama et al., 2001). Swi6, which is a highly conserved protein from fission yeast to mammals, is also involved in centromere function and recruitment of cohesin to heterochromatin regions and is required for proper cohesion of centromeres during mitosis (Nonaka et al., 2002; Cheutin et al., 2004). In the absence of Swi6, fission yeast cells are defective in silencing and in centromere cohesion (Ekwall et al., 1995; Li et al., 2011).

Experiments are frequently carried out to understand the risks of food additives, and model organisms are used to investigate the toxicity and carcinogenicity features of chemical agents. However, these animal experiments require a huge amount of resources and time. While it is hard to determine the toxicity of chemicals at low doses in animal experiments, the risks of these chemical agents at lower doses can be determined through in vitro studies (Horio et al., 2014). Single celled eukaryotic organisms such as yeast are frequently used in studies to determine the risks of chemical agents.

Aspartate exhibits unfavourable results in genotoxicity tests and it is thought that aspartate has a carcinogenic potential (Huff and LaDou, 2007). Moreover, some studies on the carcinogenic risks of aspartame carried out on rodents, and the International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) of the World Health Organization (WHO) assert that the findings of carcinogenic experiments on rodents can be used for humans (Huff, 1999). However, the results of aspartate studies on rodents are inconsistent; some experiments show that aspartate leads to cancer, while others show that it does not (Ishii et al., 1981; Mallikarjun and Sieburth, 2015).

Fission yeast is a good model organism for heterochromatin analysis because of its well-conserved but simple heterochromatin. The present work aimed to explore whether the heterochromatin protein Swi6 plays a role in the effects of aspartate in the simple model organism S. pombe. Since fission yeast is similar to higher eukaryotes in stress response and energy metabolism regulation, the effect of aspartate was assessed with methods that indicate the changes in these mechanisms.

Materials and methods

Strains and growth conditions

To test this hypothesis, parental EDD666 (ade6-M210 ura4-D18 leu1-32) and swi6Δ (EDD666 swi6::KANMX4) strains were used, obtained from S. pombe Genome-wide Deletion Mutant Library (Bioneer). To culture the cells, Minimal Medium Agar (MMA), the standard rich media Yeast Extract Liquid (YEL) and Yeast Extract Agar (YEA) containing 0.5% yeast extract (Merck), and 3% glucose (Sigma-Aldrich) were used throughout the study. All cultures were grown at 30°C. At the beginning, colonies were selected with geneticin (200 mg/L) and auxotrophy markers on MMA, then a single colony was grown on YEA slants for storage at 4°C. Growth rates were monitored by spectrophotometric measurements at 600 nm, taken every 2 h in 96-well microplates until a stationary phase was observed.

Cell viability

The initial assessment of any chemical toxicity study is to determine the inhibitory concentration of the chemical concerned. Generally, a mild inhibitory effect of 20% is sufficient and necessary for...
managing subsequent experiments as well as drawing healthy conclusions. The colony forming units (CFU) method was used to assess APM toxicity and to determine the mild inhibitory concentration. APM solution was prepared beforehand in distilled water as a 10 mg/mL stock solution, then filter sterilised and added to the autoclaved media. Prior to using this method, parental and swi6Δ cells from overnight YEL culture were counted on Malassez slide and treated with APM concentrations ranging from 0.05 to 3 g/L for 24 h in YEL. Following treatment, control and treated cell cultures were diluted 10,000-fold and plated on YEA for an incubation period of 3 d. Then, the resulting colonies of given concentrations were scored for viability (number of colonies counted on treated plates / number of colonies counted on control plates × 100%).

Glucose consumption assay

Known as the Warburg effect, one of the most prominent characteristics of cancer cells is their utilisation of excess amounts of glucose via fermentation. In order to determine whether APM displays such an effect in fission yeast cells and whether Swi6 plays a distinctive role in this metabolic transition, a glucose consumption assay was conducted on overnight cell cultures of parental and swi6Δ strains freshly treated with 1 mg/mL APM in YEL. 500 µL of control and treated cell culture samples were taken from each culture every 30 min for 3 h and centrifuged for 10 min at 4,700 g. The resulting supernatants were transferred to new tubes and analysed according to the instructions provided with Colorimetric Glucose Assay Kit (Cayman Chemicals, Item No: 10009582). Absorbance values were measured at 520 nm with BioTek Eon Microplate Spectrophotometer.

Fluorescence microscopy

Morphological changes in cell shape and loss of nuclear integrity are symptoms observed in cells affected by external stressors. In pursuance of these alterations and to determine whether Swi6 absence triggers a different response to APM, the nucleus of parental and swi6Δ strains were stained with fluorescent probe DAPI. The strains were first with 1 mg/mL APM for 24 h in YEL. Subsequently, 1 mL culture of control and treated cells were washed with water for 10 min at 4,700 g, then resuspended in 1 mL cold 70% EtOH for 15 min at -20°C. Following incubation, EtOH was removed with a second water wash, and cells were resuspended in 200 µL cold 70% EtOH. At this point, DAPI was added at a final concentration of 1 µg/mL, and cells were incubated for 2 h at 37°C. Excess stain and EtOH were removed with several PBS washes at 2,400 g for 5 min. Observations were made with Olympus BX53 fluorescence microscope with UNA filter and DP73 digital camera.

Intracellular oxidation assay

The apoptotic and cell death pathways increase intracellular oxidation levels by inducing mitochondrial membrane permeabilisation. To analyse this event in APM treated cells and to assess if these pathways include the action of Swi6, free radical sensor fluorescent dye DCFH-DA was applied to the fission yeast. Equal amounts of cells from the parental and swi6Δ cultures treated with 1 mg/mL APM for 24 h in YEL were sampled, centrifuged for 5 min at 2,400 g, then resuspended in 1 mL fresh YEL. After transferring the samples to a 24-well microplate, DCFH-DA was added at a final concentration of 10 µM, and the aluminium foil covered plate was incubated for 1 h in a rotary shaker at 30°C. Following incubation, samples were transferred again to microcentrifuge tubes and washed with water for 5 min at 2,400 g. Pellets were resuspended in 1× PBS and the kinetic reading at 37°C of the samples were performed in a 96-well black microplate by Biotek FLx800 spectrofluorometer at 485/20 excitation and 530/20 emission wavelengths. Fluorescence intensity was stated for every 10⁶ cells.

Total RNA isolation and cDNA synthesis

As part of detecting APM-induced adjustments in several S. pombe cellular processes with qRT-PCR, the total RNA from control and treated cells were isolated, and cDNA was synthesised for use as a template. At the start of this process, 10 mL of culture from control and treated cells were collected by centrifugation for 10 min at 4,700 g, then resuspended in 500 µL lysis buffer (50 mM Tris pH 7.5, 150 mM NaCl, 5 mM EDTA, 10% glycerol, 1 mM PMSF, 1 mM DTT). The cells were mechanically homogenised with 0.3 g acid-washed glass beads (0.45 - 0.55 mm) for 5 min for three times by Sartorius Micro-Dismembrator S. The lysate was then centrifuged for 5 min at 2,600 g to eliminate any residue. RNA isolation from these samples was conducted following the instructions provided with Pure Link® RNA Mini Kit (Ambion by Life Technologies). Isolate confirmation was made with agarose gel electrophoresis (1% agarose gel, 70 V, 30 min). Concentration was measured with NanoDrop 2000c. cDNA synthesis from the RNA samples was conducted following the instructions provided with High Capacity cDNA Reverse Transcription Kit (Thermo Fisher) and performed using a Bio-RAD High Capacity cDNA Reverse Transcription Kit.
T100 Thermal Cycler. Both RNA and cDNA samples were stored at -20°C.

**Gene expression analysis with real-time PCR**

It is known that cancerous cells have specifically remodelled chromatin structures. The protein that was selected to investigate the carcinogenic effects of APM in *S. pombe* was Swi6, which has a human ortholog protein of HP1 acting as a chromatin silencer. Swi6 also acts as a heterochromatin regulator and its gene homology with a human protein allowed for similar results in the fission yeast affected by APM. The main goal was to explore whether APM downregulates *swi6* expression through carcinogenic effects on *S. pombe*, as is the case of HP1 in cancerous cells.

*S. pombe* also has cellular processes and pathways, such as nutrient sensing, signalling, energy metabolism, and stress response which are simpler than but similar to those of higher eukaryotes. These processes are again known to be involved in the phenotype of cancerous cells. Thus, five key genes in energy metabolism, hexokinase 2 (*hxk2*), fructose 1,2-biphosphatase 1 (*fbp1*), adenylate cyclase 1 (*cyr1*), cytochrome c oxidase 4 (*cox4*), and transcriptional corepressor *tup1*; as well as three key genes in stress response, transcription factor *atf1*, catalase 1 (*ctt1*), and superoxide dismutase 1 (*sod1*), were selected for expression analysis, supplementing the study by investigating the effect of APM and its relationship with Swi6.

For positive control, glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase 3 (*gpd3*) gene was used. Designed with Primer 3 software, commercially synthesised primers were used for the chain reaction (Table 1). The experiment was conducted following the instructions provided with the Thermo Scientific Power SYBR Green PCR Master Mix Kit (Thermo Fisher) and performed by Roche 480 II Light Cycler. Threshold cycle (Ct) value normalisation was calculated according to *gdp3* values with Pfaffl equation.

**Statistical analysis**

Statistical analysis was carried out in GraphPad Prism 6 software by one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and two-way ANOVA tests coupled with Tukey and Holm-Sidak post-hoc tests. Data were considered significant when $p < 0.05$.

**Results**

**The effect of aspartame on cell viability**

The Colony Forming Units (CFU) method was used to assess cell viability and determine the mild inhibitory concentration of APM. *S. pombe* parental and *swi6Δ* cells were cultured in a range of 0.05 - 3 mg/mL APM concentrations for 24 h, then plated on YEA. Based on the results, the effect of 1 mg/mL APM concentration on cell viability was 84.81 and 83.66% for parental and *swi6Δ*, respectively, which is approximately 20% inhibitory concentration. On the other hand, statistical analysis showed that viability difference was significant between parental and *swi6Δ*, the latter growing less. At this point, 1 mg/mL APM concentration was selected to conduct the rest of the experiments as it was the 20% inhibitory concentration.

**The growth rates**

To trace the logarithmic phase of parental and *swi6Δ* growth in liquid culture, control and APM-treated cultures were monitored for 34 h, and the graph of OD600 absorbance values were plotted in a time dependent manner. Considering the absorbance values, it was detected that 1 mg/mL APM did not alter the growth rate dynamics of parental and *swi6Δ* cultures, but that *swi6Δ* culture had a slower growth rate than parental culture.

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**Table 1. Quantitative real time polymerase chain reaction primers (F = Forward, R = Reverse).**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gene</th>
<th>Primer</th>
<th>Primer sequence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
<td>swi6</td>
<td><em>swi6F</em></td>
<td>5’-TTTTTGGACTGGCTAAACCAT-3’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>swi6R</em></td>
<td>5’-GCCGAGAGGGGACTGATGTC-3’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hxk2</td>
<td><em>hxk2F</em></td>
<td>5’-CAACAAGGACTTTCGCCAAAT-3’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>hxk2R</em></td>
<td>5’-AAGGTGTCGCTCTCTTTGG-3’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fbp1</td>
<td><em>fbp1F</em></td>
<td>5’-TATATGTTGCTCCGTCATT-3’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>fbp1R</em></td>
<td>5’-TTTCAATTTTATGCGGACCA-3’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tup1</td>
<td><em>tup1F</em></td>
<td>5’-AAATCCTCAATTGCGCTTG-3’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>tup1R</em></td>
<td>5’-CCGAAAGGATGCTTTTATGTA-3’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atf1</td>
<td><em>atf1F</em></td>
<td>5’-ACCCTACTGGAGCTTGATT-3’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>atf1R</em></td>
<td>5’-ACCCTGTTGCTTGGATAAC-3’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cox4</td>
<td><em>cox4F</em></td>
<td>5’-AAGAGGACGCGTCAGGAGTA-3’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>cox4R</em></td>
<td>5’-GCGTTGCGCTTGGACG-3’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ctt1</td>
<td><em>ctt1F</em></td>
<td>5’-ATCCCTAATTCGACACCCT-3’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>ctt1R</em></td>
<td>5’-AACAGTCGTAATTTTCGCTCA-3’</td>
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<tr>
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<td><em>sod1F</em></td>
<td>5’-ATGCGGCTATTCCATGTCAT-3’</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>sod1R</em></td>
<td>5’-GACACCAACAGGCTACGCTG-3’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cyr1</td>
<td><em>cyr1F</em></td>
<td>5’-CCGTATACCTGTGGGTTT-3’</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>cyr1R</em></td>
<td>5’-TGCTACGCAAGTCAGACG-3’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gpd3</td>
<td><em>gpd3F</em></td>
<td>5’-GGTGACAAACCCTGCTCCCAT-3’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>gpd3R</em></td>
<td>5’-TCACAACACGGTGAGGATA-3’</td>
</tr>
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</table>
Glucose consumption

To detect whether there was a relationship between the effect of APM and Swi6 regarding glucose uptake, the parental and \textit{swi6}\textsuperscript{Δ} strains were cultured in YEL containing 1 mg/mL APM. Glucose consumption assay results showed that, with the same trend as in the growth curve, APM treatment did not affect the glucose uptake rate of either strain. Additionally, it was found that \textit{swi6}\textsuperscript{Δ} cells consumed 2.5 times less glucose than parental cells (Figure 1). This result coincides with the slow growth of \textit{swi6}\textsuperscript{Δ} cells. It was concluded that there was no relation between the effect of APM and Swi6 in terms of glucose consumption.

**Cell morphology and nuclear structure**

On the question of whether APM affected cell morphology and nuclear structure through the action of Swi6, DAPI staining of the nucleus was performed, and the control and APM-treated cells were observed with both visible light and fluorescence filter. APM caused a significant increase in the cell size of parental cells, while no effect was observed in \textit{swi6}\textsuperscript{Δ} cell size (Figure 2). Additionally, \textit{swi6}\textsuperscript{Δ} cells were significantly longer than parental cells. Taken together, these data demonstrated that there was a significant relationship between APM and Swi6. According to fluorescent microscopy images, aspartame did not affect nuclear integrity in either strain (Figure 3).

**Intracellular oxidation**

To detect whether Swi6 was involved in the mechanism of reactive oxygen species (ROS) production when cells were treated with APM, the intracellular oxidation was measured with

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Figure 1. Glucose consumption rate of 1 mg/mL APM-treated \textit{S. pombe} cells. Growth was maintained in an incubator with 180 rpm orbital shaking at 30°C. Glucose concentration of cultures sampled every 30 min from each group were measured in a spectrophotometer at 530 nm. P = Parental; PA = Parental+APM; S = \textit{swi6}\textsuperscript{Δ}; and SA = \textit{swi6}\textsuperscript{Δ}+APM.

Figure 2. Cell size of 1 mg/mL APM-treated \textit{S. pombe}. Cell size difference between control and treated groups were analysed with One-Way ANOVA and Tukey post-hoc test. Significance was found between P and S (\(*\ast\ast\ast;p < 0.0001\)), P and PA (\(*\ast\ast\ast;p = 0.0002\)). A two-way ANOVA test revealed a significant relationship between APM and Swi6 (\(*p = 0.0151\)). The experiment was repeated three times. Means and SD (error bars) are shown. P = Parental; PA = Parental+APM; S = \textit{swi6}\textsuperscript{Δ}; and SA = \textit{swi6}\textsuperscript{Δ}+APM.

Figure 3. Fluorescence microscope images of cell morphology and nuclear structure of 1 mg/mL APM-treated \textit{S. pombe}. After 24-h incubation, cells were fixed with ethanol and dyed with DAPI.
DCFH-DA in *S. pombe* parental and *swi6Δ* strains. The results in Figure 4 show that aspartame did not cause any significant ROS production in treated groups. However, *swi6Δ* cells did contain a higher amount of ROS than parental cells. Collectively, a significant correlation between APM and *Swi6* in terms of ROS production was not detected.

**Gene regulation in cellular processes**

To evaluate the effect of APM and its relationship with *Swi6* on chromatin structure, energy metabolism, and stress response, several genes that take part in these cellular processes were selected to examine the gene expression profiles using qRT-PCR. First, RNA isolation and cDNA synthesis were conducted on *S. pombe* parental and *swi6Δ* cells that were grown for 24 h in YEL with or without APM. Then, qRT-PCR was performed, and the changes in gene expression was calculated by comparing the C<sub>t</sub> values of control and treated groups.

Based on the results (Figure 5), the expression of the *swi6* gene, which is responsible for silencing chromatin, was significantly downregulated in the parental strain under the condition of 1 mg/mL APM. For the expression of energy metabolism genes, respirative *fbp1* and *cox4* were upregulated, while fermentative *hxx2*, *tup11*, and *cyr1* were downregulated, all significantly. The stress response transcription factor, *atf1*, did not display a significant change in its expression but the ROS scavengers *sod1* and *ctt1* were significantly upregulated. In the *swi6Δ* strain, however, *sod1* and *ctt1* were significantly downregulated.

**Discussion**

Aspartame is an artificial sweetener which has been tested in many model organisms, resulting in both positive and negative effects (Gebara et al., 2003; Gombos et al., 2007; Schernhammer et al., 2012). Cancer progression is an epigenetic as well as genetic process due to the changes in expression it induces in various genes. This transcriptional control of cellular responses to environmental stresses at the epigenetic level is associated with the dynamic nature of chromatin. The proteins that provide for this structure may act as silencers by maintaining a compact inactive state (heterochromatin) or by loosening to permit gene expression (euchromatin). The downregulated state of chromatin regulator HP1 in the highly metastatic MDA-MB-231 breast carcinoma cell line and the discovery that its metastatic character declines after transforming the cells with an expression vector containing the HP1 gene, support the epigenetic importance of heterochromatin structure in cancer progression (Kirschmann et al., 2000). Also, HP1 protein silences the expression of genes that are required for invasion and metastasis by forming heterochromatin, as another study suggests (Norwood et al., 2004).

The *S. pombe* ortholog of HP1 and *Swi6* regulates the formation of heterochromatin structures in the centromere, telomere, and mating-type loci (Cam et al., 2005). The presence of *Swi6* is especially important for the stabilisation of centromeric regions; it has been observed that chromosomal segregation anomalies arise in the absence of the gene (Ekwall et al., 1995). Chromosome number differences (aneuploidy), which are the result of aberrant chromosome segregation, are also known to be found in neoplastic cells (Yona et al., 2012). *Swi6* plays a role in replication initiation by participating in the preRC complex with Cdc18 and the absence of *Swi6* postpones replication (Li et al., 2011). This delay is caused by S phase checkpoint proteins Rad3 and Cds1 that prevent the progression of the cell cycle before the completion of replication (Martinho et al., 1998). One fission yeast study found that ROS production increases not only because there is a mutation in replication initiation genes, but also the application of hydroxyurea (HU) stalls replication forks (Burhans et al., 2003). In the present work, despite not using HU, growing the adenine and uracil auxotrophic *swi6Δ* strain in unsupplemented rich media (YEL) may have caused replication stress and consequent ROS production, because growing the *swi6Δ* cells in supplemented rich media did not cause any proliferation problems.
In the present work, it was found that treating the parental cells with the artificial sweetener aspartame, which has controversial carcinogenic effects, caused the downregulation of swi6. Based on qRT-PCR analysis, despite the glucose repressive conditions, cells upregulated the gluconeogenetic enzyme fbp1 and downregulated the glycolytic enzyme hxk2 (Walker, 1998). The downregulation of tup11, which represses fbp1 expression, also supports this finding (Asada et al., 2015). Under these conditions, a preference for respiration over fermentation is understood by both the upregulation of electron transport system protein cox4 and the consequent ROS scavengers sod1 and ctt1 (Plakunov and Shelemekh, 2009). In addition, the gene that encodes the enzyme that catalyses intracellular signalling metabolite cAMP under high glucose concentrations, cyr1, is also downregulated (Hoffman and Winston, 1991). Thus, as explained by Neely and Hoffman (2000), the cells have activated the stress response pathway against the effects of APM and adapted successfully to the stress conditions at the transcriptional level. Unaffected cell viability, as was seen in growth rate and CFU results, also supports this idea. The fact that APM did not significantly affect glucose consumption suggests that, via the action of stress-induced mitochondrial respiration, the small amount of transported glucose is being used in energy metabolism with high efficiency, and the rest is utilised for catalysing various molecules to respond to stress (Weeks et al., 2006).

Owing to replication stress, swi6Δ cells displayed a significant lethality when compared with parental cells in unsupplemented rich media. Their elongated cell size points to a delay in the cell cycle and its decreased growth, and glucose consumption rates support this phenotype (Auth et al., 2016). Additionally, increased production of ROS (a marker for cell death) was detected in swi6Δ cells (Munoz et al., 2012). The downregulation of sod1 expression coincides with this result. Beyond this, APM treatment did not cause a meaningful change in transcriptional regulation in swi6Δ cells. These findings suggest that either the effect of APM was concealed due to cell death, or the effect was Swi6-dependent. In addition, the statistical analysis on cell size difference presented a relationship between APM and Swi6.
Conclusion

It is known that HP1 expression is downregulated in several types of cancer. Additionally, since APM is thought to have a carcinogenic effect, the present work investigated the relationship between APM and Swi6, which is the ortholog of HP1 in S. pombe. Taken together, it is obvious that the absence of Swi6 caused severe consequences for S. pombe. But the amount of Swi6 downregulation when parental cells were treated with 1 mg/mL APM was not sufficient to present any of the serious changes mentioned above for the swi6Δ strain. Thus, under the given conditions, it is suggested that APM may contribute to cancer progression but is not enough on its own to generate cancer. Lastly, due to the gene expression regulation implications, it is also proposed that APM may carry out its effects through Swi6 in energy metabolism and stress response pathways.

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