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NKCC1 a Regulator of Glioblastoma Progression

Running title: Targeting NKCC1 in Glioblastoma

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Conflict of interest Statement

The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest.

Abstract

Glioblastoma (GBM) is the most common and aggressive primary brain tumor in

adults, with poor prognosis despite multimodal therapy. Chloride cotransporters

NKCC1 and KCC2 are key regulators of intracellular chloride levels and thereby

determine whether GABA acts inhibitory or excitatory. In GBM, disrupted chloride

homeostasis promotes proliferation, migration, and stem-like properties, but its

clinical relevance is not fully understood.

We analysed *NKCC1* and *KCC2* expression in glioblastoma samples, considering

clinical parameters such as age, gender, and MGMT promoter methylation. Statistical

analyses included ROC-based cutoff determination, Kaplan–Meier survival analysis

and subgroup. Immunohistochemistry was performed to identify cell types expressing

NKCC1.

NKCC1 expression was significantly higher in older patients and emerged as a

prognostic marker for recurrence-free survival, with lower levels correlating with

delayed recurrence, although overall survival was unaffected. *NKCC1* was expressed

in stem-like, astrocytic, and progenitor cells, but not in mature neurons.

These findings identify *NKCC1* as a regulator of GBM progression and recurrence,

linking chloride transporter imbalance to GABAergic signalling. Targeting *NKCC1* and

restoring chloride homeostasis may provide promising new treatment strategies.

57 **Graphical abstract**

58 ***NKCC1* as a regulator of glioblastoma progression and recurrance**

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Glioblastoma (GBM):
aggressive tumor; poor
prognosis

Patient factor:
age

reduced *NKCC1*

earlier/delay
recurrence

presence of NKCC1
on astrocytes, stem
cells and neuronal
progenitor cells

Introduction

Glioblastoma (GBM) is the most common and most aggressive primary brain tumor in adults [1]. Despite intensive multimodal treatment approaches, including surgical resection, radiotherapy, and chemotherapy with temozolomide, the prognosis for patients remains extremely poor. The median survival time is approximately 15 months after diagnosis [2] and the five-year survival rate is less than 5% [3]. This unfavorable outcome is largely driven by the high invasiveness of the tumor, its genetic and epigenetic heterogeneity, and the ability of tumor cells to evade therapeutic strategies and develop resistance. Consequently, a central challenge in glioblastoma research is to identify molecular mechanisms that regulate tumor growth, invasiveness, and therapy resistance in order to develop novel therapeutic strategies. In this context, ion channels and transporters have received increasing attention, as they are indispensable for maintaining cellular homeostasis, regulating cell volume, and mediating signal transduction.

Among these, the cation-chloride cotransporters NKCC1 and KCC2 are of particular interest. They are essential regulators of intracellular chloride concentration and play a pivotal role in the functional development of the central nervous system. NKCC1 is mainly active in immature neurons, where it increases intracellular chloride levels, whereas KCC2 is expressed in mature neurons and lowers chloride concentration by extruding ions [4, 1, 5]. Through their opposing functions, these transporters shape the action of the neurotransmitter GABA, which depolarizes immature neurons but hyperpolarizes mature ones [6-9].

In GBMs, dysregulation of chloride transport appears to contribute directly to tumor progression. NKCC1, in particular, has emerged as a critical factor in glioma biology [10, 11, 5, 12-14]. By mediating chloride influx, NKCC1 facilitates changes in cell

volume and cytoskeletal organization that are essential for GBM cells to migrate

through the dense extracellular matrix of the brain. Upregulated NKCC1 activity has

been associated with enhanced proliferation, invasiveness, and survival of GBM cells

[4]. Pharmacological inhibition of NKCC1 has been shown in experimental models to

reduce glioma cell migration and invasiveness, highlighting its potential clinical

relevance [15-17]. Given its dual role in regulating both chloride homeostasis and

glioblastoma cell behavior, NKCC1 represents a promising candidate for therapeutic

intervention aimed at limiting tumor progression and improving patient outcomes.

The role of NKCC1 in GBM and its potential therapeutic implications highlight the

relevance of these transporters for neuronal function and the pathogenesis of

neurological and oncological diseases.

Materials and Methods

Human samples

The transcription analyses were performed with 61 glioblastoma samples surgically

obtained from the Department of Neurosurgery at the University Hospital Jena. 10

FFPE samples were used for localization and co-localization of specific cells after

immunofluorescence staining and confocal microscopy, which were provided by the

Institute of Neuropathology, Charité-University Berlin. All tissue samples were

histopathologically classified according to the current 2016 WHO classification for

tumors of the central nervous system by the Institute of Neuropathology at Charitè

Berlin, University Berlin [18]. All patients provided informed consent for the

pseudonymized use of the extracted tumor material. The study was approved by the

local ethics committee for human research (*Reg.-Nr. 2019-1400*).

Total RNA extraction, reverse transcription and quantitative polymerase chain

reaction

Surgically removed tissue was immediately stored at -80°C until processing. Total

RNA from tissue sample was isolated, lysed in 1 ml Qiazol (Qiagen GmbH, Hilden,

Germany) and homogenized with TissueLyser LT (Qiagen GmbH, Hilden, Germany)

at 50 Hz for 5 min. The lysed tissue sample was mixed with 0.2 volume units (PU) of

chloroform, centrifuged at 12,000 x g at 4 °C for 15 minutes. The upper aqueous

RNA phase was removed and mixed with 1 PU isopropanol and centrifuged at

12,000 x g at 4 °C for 10 minutes. The resulting pellet was dissolved twice in 75 %

ethanol and precipitated at -20 °C for one hour. The resulting pellet was air-dried for

10 minutes and resuspended in 40 µl RNASE-free water.

The RNA quality and concentration was determined spectrophotometrically

(NanoDrop2000; Thermo Scientific, Wilmington, DE, USA). Complementary DNA

synthesis was performed using the GoScriptTM Reverse Transcription System

(Promega Corp., Mannheim, Germany) in a volume of 20 µl per reaction according to

the manufacturer's instructions.

The prepared cDNA was used as the basis for qPCR with the DyNAmo Flash SYBR

Green qPCR Kit (Thermo Scientific Inc., Wilmington, DE, USA) to determine the

mRNA levels of the transporters *NKCC1* and *KCC2*. The human-specific primers

used for qPCR were designed based on mRNA coding sequences (NCBI Nucleotide)

with NetPrimer (PREMIER Biosoft, Palo Alto, CA, USA) and NCBI Primer-BLAST and

checked for hairpins and other secondary structures. The specificity of the

amplification reaction was analyzed by gel electrophoresis and melting curve

analysis.

The primer sets are listed in Table 1. The specific transcripts were amplified in a

RotorGeneG (Qiagen GmbH, Hilden, Germany) with the following program: 7 min

polymerase activation, 40 amplification cycles (95°C for 10s, 55°C for 20s, 72°C for

30s). To quantify the expression of target genes, we normalized the Ct value using

RPL13A and *CYC1* as reference genes and normalized expression using the

efficiency-based ∆Ct method (Pfaffl, 2001).

Immunofluorescence staining

The FFPE sections were deparaffinized by a descending ethanol series. Antigen

retrieval was performed by incubating citrate buffer (pH 6.0) at 60 °C for 30 minutes.

After washing with phosphate buffered saline (PBS), the non-specific binding sites

were blocked with 20 % normal donkey serum (NDS) for 120 min. Hybridization of

the primary antibodies: rabbit anti-NKCC1 (Proteintech™; 1:250), chicken anti-DCX

(Abcam; 1:500), mouse anti-nestin (Abcam; 1:500), mouse anti-NeuN (Merck

Millipore KGaA; 1:500) and/or mouse anti-S100b (Sigma Aldrich Chemie GmbH;

1:500) was performed overnight at 4 °C. The next day the slides were incubated at

4 °C. After two washes, the secondary antibodies were hybridized: Alexa488 donkey

anti-mouse (Jackson Immunoresearch; 1:200), Alexa488 donkey anti-chicken

(Jackson   Immunoresearch;   1:200),   Cy5   donkey   anti-mouse   (Jackson

Immunoresearch;   1:200)   and   Rhodamine   donkey   anti-rabbit   (Jackson

Immunoresearch; 1:200) for 2 hours. Nuclear staining was performed with DAPI.

Colocalization of NKCC1 with stem cell, glial, progenitor and neuronal marker

using immunofluorescence staining

Ten GBM samples were used for fluorescent immunohistochemistry. Tissue sections

were pre-embedded in paraffin and provided by Institute of Neuropathology, Charité-

University Berlin. Colocalization analysis was performed for NKCC1 with markers of

stem   cells   (Nestin),   mature   astrocytes   (S100b),   neuronal   progenitor   cells

(Doublecortin, DCX), and mature neurons (NeuN).

Fluorescence   imaging   was   performed   using   the   Keyence   microscope   at   4×

magnification for overview images. High-magnification images (40×) were acquired

using the LSM980 confocal microscope (Zeiss, Jena, Germany). Individual cells were

also imaged to confirm the specificity of the staining.

Statistics

Statistical analyses were carried out using SPSS software (version 23). Gene

expression (qPCR) data were first tested for normal distribution. Depending on the

distribution, differences between two groups were analyzed using the Mann–Whitney

U test.

For survival analysis, receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curves were generated

in SPSS, and an optimal cutoff value was determined using the Youden index (J =

sensitivity + specificity − 1). This cutoff was applied to stratify normalized expression

values for subsequent analyses. Progression-free survival (PFS) and overall survival

(OS) were evaluated using Kaplan–Meier survival analysis. A p-value of ≤ 0.05 was

considered statistically significant.

Results

Age-dependent increase of NKCC1 in Glioblastoma

The patients' age, sex, and MGMT methylation status were analyzed (Fig. 1).

Significant differences were observed in *NKCC1* expression based on age: younger

patients (≤ 60 years) exhibited approximately threefold lower NKCC1 expression

(mean = 0.02374) compared to older patients (> 60 years) (mean = 0.07220), which

was statistically significant (p = 0.027) (Fig. 1A/B).

Regarding sex, *NKCC1* and *KCC2* expression levels were similar between males

and females (*NKCC1*: males mean = 0.04089, females mean = 0.06978; *KCC2*:

males mean = 0.00213, females mean = 0.00129) (Fig. 1C/D). Likewise, no

significant differences were found based on MGMT methylation status (*NKCC1*:

unmethylated promoter mean = 0.06367, methylated promoter mean = 0.04881;

KCC2: unmethylated promoter mean = 0.00164, methylated promoter mean =

0.00175) (Fig. 1E/F).

Decreased NKCC1 levels correlate with progression-free survival

To assess the impact of *NKCC1* expression on recurrence-free survival, a cutoff

value of NE = 0.01401 was determined for individual patients (n = 48) using ROC

analysis (Fig. 2A). Kaplan–Meier analysis demonstrated that patients with *NKCC1*

expression below this cutoff (NE < 0.01401) had significantly longer recurrence-free

survival during the first nine months after surgery compared to patients with higher

NKCC1 expression (NE > 0.01401; p = 0.019) (Fig. 2A).

For overall survival analysis, 43 patients were included (16 patients excluded due to

missing death data), and a cutoff value of NE = 0.04028 was established (Fig. 2B).

Kaplan–Meier analysis revealed no significant association between *NKCC1*

expression and overall survival (log-rank test; p = 0.078). Kaplan-Meier analysis

based on gender revealed no differences in both overall survival and progression-

free survival. In contrast, when stratified by age, the analysis showed differences in

overall survival but not in progression-free survival.

NKCC1 Colocalization with Specific Glial and Progenitor Cell Types in

Glioblastoma

Ten GBM samples were subjected to fluorescence staining and subsequently imaged

at both 4x and 40x magnifications for visual evaluation. NKCC1 was stained

alongside various glial and neuronal markers, including Nestin, S100b, DCX, and

NeuN. Nestin served as a marker for neural stem cells, S100b for astrocytes, DCX

for neuronal progenitor cells, and NeuN for mature neurons.

Overview images at 4x magnification revealed a heterogeneous distribution of the

labeled cell types throughout the tissue (Fig. 3). Rather than a uniform pattern, all

samples displayed distinct regional clusters of specific cell populations. The

fluorescence intensity of each marker protein (Nestin, S100b, DCX, or NeuN) was

notably increased in defined areas, indicating local accumulations of the respective

cell types.

High-resolution imaging at 40x magnification demonstrated colocalization of the

chloride cotransporter NKCC1 with multiple cell types within the GBM tissue (Fig. 3).

A pronounced overlap was observed between NKCC1 signals and Nestin-positive

cells, suggesting expression in neural stem cells. Additionally, colocalization occurred

with S100b-positive astrocytes and DCX-positive neuronal progenitor cells.

Conversely, no significant colocalization was detected between NKCC1 and NeuN-

positive mature neurons.

Discussion

The present study examined the expression and potential role of the chloride cation

cotransporters NKCC1 and KCC2 in human glioblastomas, taking into account

clinical parameters such as age, sex, and MGMT promoter methylation status. The

results contribute to understanding the molecular heterogeneity of GBMs [19] and

suggest possible implications for prognosis and therapy.

An age-dependent increase in *NKCC1* expression was observed, indicating a

potential association between patient age and transporter activity. Elevated *NKCC1*

may be linked to processes such as cell volume regulation and migratory capacity,

which are relevant for tumor invasion [12]. This observation may partly explain the

generally more aggressive tumor behavior observed in older patients [15, 5].

NKCC1 also emerged as a potential marker for progression-free survival. Patients

with lower *NKCC1* expression exhibited longer progression-free intervals, while

overall survival was not significantly associated with *NKCC1* levels. These findings

suggest that *NKCC1* gene expression may be particularly relevant for early tumor

progression and recurrence rather than overall survival. From a translational

perspective, *NKCC1* represents a potential therapeutic target. Current inhibitors,

such as bumetanide, are limited by side effects and poor brain penetration,

highlighting the need for the development of more selective and brain-penetrant

compounds [15, 17].

Immunohistochemical analyses demonstrated cell type-specific NKCC1 expression in

GBM tissue. NKCC1 colocalized with stem cell (Nestin), astrocyte (S100b), and

neuronal progenitor cell (DCX) markers, but not with mature neurons (NeuN),

consistent with its role in developmental and progenitor cell populations [20].

Overall, these results indicate a multifaceted role of NKCC1 in glioblastoma biology,

particularly in tumor progression and recurrence. They support further investigation

into targeting chloride homeostasis as a therapeutic strategy in GBM and provide a

rationale for developing selective *NKCC1* inhibitors and evaluating the effects of

modulating the NKCC1/KCC2 balance in vivo.

Conclusions

This study offers new insights into the molecular heterogeneity of glioblastomas and

identifies NKCC1 as a key regulator of tumor progression. The observed age-related

increase of *NKCC1* underscores the importance of personalized treatment strategies

that consider patient-specific molecular profiles. These findings suggest several

promising avenues for future research, including the development of selective

NKCC1 inhibitors with enhanced clinical applicability. In summary, this work

advances our understanding of GBM biology and provides a foundation for

developing more effective therapeutic approaches against this highly aggressive

brain tumor.

Author Contributions

All authors approved the final submitted version of the manuscript. A.T., D.F., M.H.,

S.K.: Data acquisition, data curation, and writing. C.S., F.S.: review & editing, final

approval. S.K, D.F.: Conceptualization, writing, review, and editing.

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Disclosures

None

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362 **Table 1** qPCR primers (fw: forward, rv: reverse)

Gene	Sequence 5' → 3'	Accession number	Product (bp)
CYC1	fw: GAG GTG GAG GTT CAA GAC GG rv: TAG CTC GCA CGA TGT AGC TG	NM_001916.5	160
KCC2	fw: CGA AAT CCT GCT GGC TTA CC rv: AGA GGA TGA CAC AAC CCA GG	NM_020708.5	197
NKCC1	fw: AAG ACC AAG ACA TAC CGG CA rv: GGA GGA TTG GTG GTA GGT CC	NM_001256461.2	169
RPL13A	fw: CCT GGA GGA GAA GAG GAA AGA GA rv: TTG AGG ACC TCT GTG TAT TTG TCA A	NM_001270491.2	126

Figures

Fig. 1. A *NKCC1* was expressed significantly more strongly in individuals over 60 years of age compared to those under 60. **B** There were no age-related differences in *KCC2* expression in glioblastoma The expression of *NKCC1* and *KCC2* was not affected by **C/D** sex or **E/F** methylation status. Mann–Whitney U test, *$p \leq 0.05$.

Fig. 2. **Progression-free and overall survival in relation to *NKCC1* expression.**
A Kaplan–Meier analysis showing that patients with low *NKCC1* expression had significantly longer progression-free survival after 9 months (*p* ≤ 0.05). **B** Overall survival tended to be longer in patients with low *NKCC1* expression after 12 months, but this difference was not statistically significant.

Fig. 4. Immunohistochemical analysis of glioblastoma samples showing NKCC1 expression in different cell types. The first two columns show stained GBM samples at 4x magnification. These overview images illustrate the clustering behavior of different cell types: stem cells, astrocytes, neuronal progenitor cells, and mature neurons each co-stained with NKCC1. Clear colocalization of NKCC1 (red) was observed with Nestin-positive stem cells, S100b-positive astrocytes, and DCX-positive neuronal progenitor cells (green) and DAPI (blue). In contrast, no colocalization was detected with NeuN-positive mature neurons (green). Images in the third and fourth columns, acquired at 40x magnification, provide higher-resolution views of NKCC1 expression (red) in various cell types (green) within GBM tissue. White arrows mark the presence of NKCC1 in the different cell types.