#### ❣*Springer* 2005

# **Alteration in the expression of signaling parameters following carbon ion irradiation**

## Anirban Kumar Mitra,<sup>1</sup> Nagesh Bhat,<sup>2</sup> Asitikanta Sarma<sup>3</sup> and Malini Krishna<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>*Radiation Biology and Health Sciences Division;* <sup>2</sup>*Radiological Protection and Dosimetry Division, Bhabha Atomic Research Centre, Trombay, Mumbai, India;* <sup>3</sup>*Nuclear Science Centre, Aruna Asafali Marg, New Delhi, India*

Received 20 January 2005; accepted 16 March 2005

## **Abstract**

Ionizing radiation induces DNA damage, which generates a complex array of genotoxic responses. These responses depend on the type of DNA damage, which in turn can lead to unique cellular responses. High LET radiation results in clustered damages. This evokes specific signaling responses, which can be cytotoxic or cytoprotective in nature. In the present study the effect of carbon ion irradiation on p44/42 MAPK and NF-κB, which are essentially survival factors, have been studied. Moreover, the effect of inhibition of DNA-PK, which is an important component of DNA repair mechanism, with wortmanin on these signaling factors has been studied. The expression of p44/42 MAPK was different at 0.1 Gy and 1 Gy and wortmanin was found to inhibit its expression. NF-κB expression was higher at 1 Gy than at 0.1 Gy and its expression is unaffected by inhibition of DNA-PK. The notable findings of this study are that the responses to high and low dose of high LET radiation are essentially different and the 6 h time point post irradiation is crucial in deciding the response and needs further investigation. (Mol Cell Biochem **276**: 169–173, 2005)

*Key words*: high LET radiation, signaling, p44/42 MAPK, NF-κB, wortmanin

## **Introduction**

Environmental exposure to  $\alpha$ -particles produced by radon and its decay products are responsible for approximately 50% of the average annual effective dose from natural sources of ionizing radiation worldwide [1]. Moreover, it has been estimated that as much as 15% of all lung cancer may be caused by exposure to residential radon [2]. In some cases, artificial radionuclides such as Plutonium 239 or Americium 241 associated with nuclear industry make some small additional contribution. Ionizing radiation induces DNA damage, which generates a complex cascade of events leading to cell cycle arrest, transcriptional and post-transcriptional activation of a subset of genes including those associated with DNA repair and triggering apoptosis. Probably the most dangerous of all the types of DNA damage are double strand breaks (DSBs) and their repair is complex. The amount of induction of DSBs is weakly dependent on linear energy transfer (LET) of the radiation [3]. However, the degree of lesion complexity increases with increasing LET [4]. The cellular genotoxic response depends on the type of DNA damage [5], which in turn can evoke unique cellular response. The genotoxic effects of heavy ion irradiation are not well understood. There is consensus, however, that it causes clustered DNA damage, which are manifested as abasic sites, strand breaks or oxidized bases. This initiates a cellular genotoxic response and signal

*Address for offprints*: M. Krishna, Radiation Biology and Health Sciences Division, Bhabha Atomic Research Centre, Trombay, Mumbai – 400085, India (E-mail: malini@magnum.barc.ernet.in)

#### 170

transduction pathways that differ with the quality of radiation, e.g., UV radiation induces primarily point mutations while ionizing radiation induces deletion mutations through errorprone rejoining of broken DNA ends. The signal transduction pathways that ensue could be different for each kind of radiation. There are several reports on the mechanism of cell cycle arrest following high LET irradiation [5, 6]. DNA Dependent Protein Kinase (DNA-PK) and ataxia-telangiectasia (ATM) gene product recognize Dsbs, but the actual repair is initiated by BRCA2 because cells that lack BRCA2 show decreased ability to survive [7]. The expression levels of BRCA and XRCC are also dependent on MAPK [8]. A few early reports indicated that murine skid cells deficient in DNA-PK catalytic subunit were highly sensitive to  $\gamma$ -rays but not to  $\alpha$ -particles [9, 10] and highly clustered damages were not substrates for the ATM pathway either [10]. Thus if DNA-PK pathway does not participate in the repair of DNA damaged by heavy ion, it is likely that the MAPK pathway might participate in the repair process because MAPK can also activate BRCA and XRCC. Cell lines deficient in DNA-PK (MO59J) displayed elevated levels of apoptosis following low dose of high LET radiation when compared to its counterpart that has DNA-PK (MO59K) [11]. However, in the same study with high dose of high LET radiation there was no difference between the two cell lines. Thus clearly, there may be two different pathways of signaling one for low dose (high and low LET) radiation and the other for low LET radiation. Not only does the signaling course taken depends on the quality of radiation, it also depends on the dose delivered. Very high doses of high LET radiation may lead to larger percentage of necrotic cells and the signaling parameters activated may not represent a true picture. The dose of high LET radiation employed should be of lesser magnitude if the signaling pathways have to be clearly defined.

In the present work, the response of the MAPKs, which play crucial role in cell-cycle arrest, has been investigated. In general, stress stimuli strongly activate p38 MAPK and SAPK while only weakly activating p44/42 MAPK [12]. Contrarily, ionizing radiation strongly activates the p44/42 MAPK pathway [12]. This pathway is essential for G2/M arrest in cells exposed to ionizing radiation [13]. Since DNA PK is not involved in cell cycle arrest following high LET radiation [12] and MAPK plays a role in DNA repair and is known to activate XRCC [8]. We have simulated conditions where DNA-PK is completely inhibited and then looked at the expression of  $p44/42$  MAPK and NF- $\kappa$ B. Another prevalent idea about high LET radiation is that the formation of Reactive Oxygen Species (ROS) is minimal due to recombination of the radicals [14]. If so, how is this reflected in the expression of  $NF- $\kappa$ B$ , which is a known redoxregulating factor and is also activated by DNA-PK, has been investigated.

## **Materials and methods**

#### *Cell culture*

Chinese hamster V79 cells were cultured in  $75 \text{ cm}^2$  culture flasks in alpha MEM (Hyclone, USA.) supplemented with 10% fetal calf serum (Sigma, USA.) and kept at 37 ◦C in humidified atmosphere with  $5\%$  CO<sub>2</sub>.

#### *Modulators*

Wortmanin (Sigma Chemicals, USA) was used at a concentration of 10  $\mu$ M and was added to the medium 1 h prior to irradiation.

#### *Irradiation*

Heavy ion irradiation  $(^{12}C^{5+})$  was carried out using Radiation Biology beam line of 16 MV 15 UD Pelletron at Nuclear Science Centre, New Delhi. The primary heavy ion beam from the Pelletron was diffused using a gold foil and low flux beam was obtained at the exit window made of 6.25 mg/cm<sup>2</sup> thick aluminum foil. A silicon surface barrier (SSB) detector was positioned at the same position where samples were irradiated and the beam energy was measured. The positive current signal from the diffuser foil was integrated using a current integrator. The ratio of the current signal to that of the flux measured using SSB detector at the sample position was measured by multiple trials and the calibration factor was obtained. The current signal was also fed to a preset controller to terminate the beam after irradiation using a Faraday cup. Specially fabricated stainless steel rings (2.5 cm diameter) were used as petri plates for sample irradiation. A 6  $\mu$ m thick polypropylene film was attached to the ring to form the base on which  $0.5 \times 10^6$  cells were seeded 24 h before irradiation. Immediately before irradiation, the medium was drained leaving a thin film of medium on the monolayer of cells attached to the polypropylene. The cells were irradiated under sterile conditions, at atmospheric pressure and were exposed to the ions through the polypropylene film. Fresh medium was added following irradiation and cells were kept back in the  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  incubator for different periods of time (up to 8 h) before they were lysed.

#### *Western blotting*

Cells ( $2 \times 10^6$ ) were lysed in 150  $\mu$ l of  $1 \times$  SDS gel-loading buffer (50 mMTris.Cl, pH 6.8; 100 mM dithiothreitol; 2% SDS; 0.1% bromophenol blue and 20% glycerol). The lysate (10  $\mu$ l) was run on 8% SDS Polyacrylamide Gel followed by transfer to Nitrocellulose membrane (Amersham, USA). Antibodies against  $N F<sub>K</sub>B$  (Transduction Laboratories, USA) and ERK (Cell Signaling Technology, USA) were used at dilution of 1:1000 whereas anti-β-Actin (Sigma Chemicals, USA) was used at a dilution of 1:5,000. The membranes were then probed with horseradish peroxidase conjugated secondary antibody against mouse/rabbit (Roche Molecular Biochemicals, Germany) at a dilution of 1:3000 and developed using Roche Molecular Biochemicals Chemiluminiscence Western Blotting Kit (Roche Molecular Biochemicals, Germany). Densitometry was done using Shimadzu CS 9000 Dual wavelength flying spot scanner. Statistical analysis was done using ANOVA.



#### *Fig. 1*. (A) Expression of p44/42 MAPK at 3, 6 and 8 h following heavy ion irradiation:  ${}^{12}C^{+5}$  ion irradiation of V79 cells was carried out and  $2 \times 10^6$ cells were loaded per well. SDS-PAGE and immuno-blotting was carried out followed by detection by chemiluminescence and densitometry. *Lane 1*: Unirradiated control; *Lane 2:* 0.1 Gy; *Lane 3:* 1 Gy; *Lane 4:* Treated with wortmanin; *Lane 5*: Wortmanin + 0.1 Gy; *Lane 6*: Wortmanin + 1 Gy. (B) Corresponding western blots for p44/42 MAPK at 3, 6 and 8 h postirradiation.

## **Results**

The temporal response of  $p44/42$  MAPK and NF- $\kappa$ B at 3, 6 and 8 h post-irradiation was studied at 0.1 and 1 Gy of  ${}^{12}C^{+5}$  ion irradiation. The effect of wortmanin (DNA-PK, PI3 kinase inhibitor) on these signaling factors was studied. For a dose of 0.1 Gy the p44/42 MAPK expression was around control levels at 3 and 6 h but increased many-fold at 8 h (Fig. 1A and B). The trend was very different for 1 Gy where there is a strong increase at 3 h, which gradually decreases by 8 h. When cells were treated with wortmanin alone, an increase in p44/42 MAPK was observed. When wortmanin was combined with radiation, a significant decrease in p44/42 levels was observed as compared to radiation alone, for both 0.1 Gy and 1 Gy.

 $NF-\kappa B$  expression peaked strongly at 8 h following a radiation dose of 0.1 Gy (Fig. 2A and B). Although an overall



*Fig. 2.* (A) Expression of NF- $\kappa$ B at 3, 6 and 8 h following heavy ion irradiation:  ${}^{12}C^{+5}$  ion irradiation of V79 cells was carried out and  $2 \times 10^6$  cells were loaded per well. SDS-PAGE and immuno-blotting was carried out followed by detection by chemiluminescence and densitometry. *Lane 1:* Unirradiated control; *Lane 2:* 0.1 Gy; *Lane 3:* 1 Gy; *Lane 4:* Treated with wortmanin; *Lane 5:* Wortmanin +0.1 Gy; *Lane 6:* Wortmanin +1 Gy. (B) Corresponding western blots for p44/42 MAPK at 3, 6 and 8 h post-irradiation.

172

increase in  $NF-\kappa B$  was observed at all time points following 1 Gy, maximum expression was at 6 h. Wortmanin treatment alone had a very similar effect with a peak at 6 h. A combination of wortmanin with radiation resulted in a strong increase in NF- $\kappa$ B at 6 h for both 0.1 and 1 Gy.

### **Discussion and conclusions**

The expression of MAPK at 0.1 Gy and 1 Gy was found to be different. With the lower dose there was a gradual increase in expression with time. The expression reaches a maximum at 8 h of irradiation. However with higher dose, there was a drastic increase at 3 h followed by a decline at 6 and 8 h. The response of MAP kinase is different at low (0.1 Gy) and high (1 Gy) doses probably because at very low doses, damage is less, hence all the alarm signals (DNA-PK, PARP etc.) are not activated so activation of MAP kinase takes time to reach the peak. At 1 Gy all the alarm signals are activated due to extensive DNA damage leading to many signals that converge on the MAP kinase cascade so a robust activation is observed. The alarm signals, however, are soon turned off and MAP kinase activity declines. MAP kinases are known to respond differentially to low and high dose of low LET radiation [15, 16]. Moreover, transient activation of MAP kinase leads to increased proliferation while prolonged activation results in decreased DNA synthesis potentially through superinduction of CDKN1A [17]. It may be noted that MAPK is essentially a survival signal and is required to overcome radiation induced  $G_2M$  block [18]. At the lower doses it may be a part of the signaling process and a clear dose response is seen over the time periods observed.

Wortmanin was found to inhibit the expression of MAPK (ERK1/2) completely. Even with doses as high as one gray the expression was very meager as compared to the one irradiated without wortmanin. When DNA-PK is completely inhibited, cell cycle arrest could be affected via MAPK as ERK1/2 is known to participate in cell cycle arrest. Growth factor induced MAPK signaling has been proposed to regulate both proliferation and differentiation and recently, cell cycle arrest Transient activation of MAPK is known to increase proliferation potentially via coordinated increase in the expression of cyclin molecules and cyclin dependent kinase inhibitor p21 [19]. Prolonged activation leads to inhibition of DNA synthesis potentially via super-induction of p21 and inhibition of cyclin dependent kinases [19]. In the present study, however, the lack of activation of ERK1/2 by wortmanin (which inhibits DNA-PK) after heavy ion irradiation would argue against the involvement of ERK1/2 in cell cycle arrest following heavy ion irradiation.

The expression of NF- $\kappa$ B was higher at 1 Gy than at 0.1 Gy.  $NF-\kappa B$  has been reported to be activated in various cells following irradiation [20, 21] and the activation has been

implicated in mediating the radiation-induced expression of various cytokines. NF- $\kappa$ B was also found to be inhibited by wortmanin at 3 and 8 h post irradiation as compared to radiation alone. This may be due to the fact that inhibition of DNA-PK prevents phosphorylation of  $I \kappa B$  by DNA-PK. DNA-PK has recently been implicated in the activation of NFκB, although activation of NF-κB may be by other pathways as well [22]. The cells irradiated with 1 Gy also show a significant activation of  $N F K B$  at 3 h, peaking at 6 h. Activation of NF- $\kappa$ B 3 h after irradiation was lesser at 0.1 Gy as compared to 1 Gy. This was contrary to our expectations since ROS production following high is supposedly lesser at higher doses. The reason being that dense ionizations produced in the heavy ion tracks lead to a high rate of radical-radical recombination. This effectively lowers the sparsely ionizing component (free radicals including ROS) of the high LET radiation [14, 23]. But the fluctuating pattern of NF- $\kappa$ B does suggest that ROS production and signaling at the 2 doses and at various times are different. In the present study the lesser activation of NF- $\kappa$ B at 0.1 Gy may be due to the fact that at this dose the number of cells traversed by the radiation tracts is very few as against the higher doses. Therefore, the cumulative damage is significantly less. This in turn will result in lesser activation of upstream signaling factors like PKC which lead to  $NF - \kappa B$  activation.

The two notable facts in this study are that the response to high dose and low doses may be entirely different where heavy ion irradiation is concerned and secondly, that the 6 h time point after heavy ion irradiation may be a crucial point where the cell decides whether it has undergo apoptosis or not. NF- $\kappa$ B acts as a survival factor [24] and its activation at 6 h and activation in spite of wortmanin are suggestive of the fact that many other pathways other than DNA-PK lead to its activation following heavy ion irradiation. The differential dose response and the significance of the 6 h time point need to be further investigated.

## **References**

- 1. United Nations Scientific Committee on the Effects of Atomic Radiation: Report to the general assembly, United Nations, New York, 1993
- 2. National Research Council: Committee on Biological Effects of Ionising Radiation, Health Effects of Exposure to Radon (BIER VI). National Academy Press, Washington, DC, 1999
- 3. Prise KM, Ahnstrom G, Belli M, Carlsson J, Frankenberg D, Kiefer J, Lobrich M, Michael BD, Nygren J, Simone G, Stenerlow B: A review of dsb induction data for varying quality radiations. Int J Radiat Biol 74: 173–184, 1998
- 4. A. Comparison of Monte Carlo calculated electron slowing-down spectra generated by 60 Co gamma-rays, electrons, protons and light ions. Phys Med Biol 47: 1303–1319, 2002
- 5. Goto S, Watanabe M, Yatagai F: Delayed cell cycle progression in human lymphoblastoid cells after exposure to high-LET radiation correlates with extremely localized DNA damage. Radiat Res 158: 678–686, 2002
- 6. Ritter S, Nasonova E, Furusawa Y, Ando K: Relationship between aberration yield and mitotic delay in human lymphocytes exposed to 200 MeV/u Fe-ions or X-rays. J Radiat Res (Tokyo) 43: S175–S179, 2002
- 7. Powell SN, Kachnic LA: Roles of BRCA1 and BRCA2 in homologous recombination, DNA replication fidelity and the cellular response to ionizing radiation. Oncogene 22: 5784–5791, 2003
- 8. Yacoub A, Park JS, Qiao L, Dent P, Hagan MP: MAPK dependence of DNA damage repair: ionizing radiation and the induction of expression of the DNA repair genes XRCC1 and ERCC1 in DU145 human prostate carcinoma cells in a MEK1/2 dependent fashion. Int J Radiat Biol 77: 1067–1078, 2001
- 9. Kirchgessner CU, Patil CK, Evans JW, Cuomo CA, Fried LM, Carter T, Oettinger MA, Brown JM: DNA-dependent kinase (p350) as a candidate gene for the murine SCID defect. Science 267: 1178–1183, 1995
- 10. Lucke-Huhle C: Similarities between human ataxia fibroblasts and murine SCID cells: high sensitivity to gamma rays and high frequency of methotrexate-induced DHFR gene amplification, but normal radiosensitivity to densely ionizing alpha particles. Radiat Environ Biophys 33: 201–210, 1994
- 11. Holgersson A, Jernberg AR, Persson LM, Edgren MR, Lewensohn R, Nilsson A, Brahme A, Meijer AE: Low and high LET radiation-induced apoptosis in M059J and M059K cells. Int J Radiat Biol. 79: 611–621, 2003
- 12. Dent P, Yacoub A, Fisher PB, Hagan MP, Grant S: MAPK pathways in radiation responses. Oncogene 22: 5885–5896, 2003
- 13. Abbott DW, Holt JT: Mitogen-activated protein kinase kinase 2 activation is essential for progression through the G2/M checkpoint arrest in cells exposed to ionizing radiation. J Biol Chem 27: 2732–2742, 1999
- 14. Goodhead DT: Mechanisms for the biological effectiveness of high-LET radiations. J Radiat Res 40(Suppl): 1–13, 1999
- 15. Narang H, Krishna M: Mitogen-Activated Protein Kinases: specificity of Response to Dose of Ionizing Radiation in Liver. J Radiat Res 45: 213–220, 2004
- 16. Suzuki K, Kodama S, Watanabe M: Extremely low-dose ionizing radiation causes activation of mitogen-activated protein kinase pathway and enhances proliferation of normal human diploid cells. Cancer Res 61: 5396–5401, 2001
- 17. Schmidt-Ullrich RK, Dent P, Grant S, Mikkelsen RB, Valerie K: Signal transduction and cellular radiation responses. Radiat Res 153: 245–257, 2000
- 18. Hagan M, Wang L, Hanley JR, Park JS, Dent P: Ionizing radiationinduced mitogen-activated protein (MAP) kinase activation in DU145 prostate carcinoma cells: MAP kinase inhibition enhances radiationinduced cell killing and G2/M-phase arrest. Radiat Res 153: 371–383, 2000
- 19. Deak M, Clifton AD, Lucocq LM, Alessi DR: Mitogen- and stressactivated protein kinase-1 (MSK1) is directly activated by MAPK and SAPK2/p38, and may mediate activation of CREB. EMBO J 17: 4426– 4441, 1998
- 20. Prasad AV, Mohan N, Chandrasekar B, Meltz ML: Activation of nuclear factor kappa B in human lymphoblastoid cells by low-dose ionizing radiation. Radiat Res 138: 367–372, 1994
- 21. Raju U, Gumin GJ, Noel F, Tofilon PJ: IkappaBalpha degradation is not a requirement for the X-ray-induced activation of nuclear factor kappaB in normal rat astrocytes and human brain tumour cells. Int J Radiat Biol 74: 617–624, 1998
- 22. Basu S, Rosenzweig KR, Youmell M, Price BD: The DNA-dependent protein kinase participates in the activation of NF kappa B following DNA damage. Biochem Biophys Res Commun 247: 79–83, 1998
- 23. Blakely EA, Kornenberg A: Heavy-ion radiobiology: new approaches to delineate mechanisms underlying enhanced biological effectiveness. Radiat Res 150: S126–S145, 1998
- 24. Wang Y, Meng A, Lang H, Brown SA, Konopa JL, Kindy MS, Schmiedt RA, Thompson JS, Zhou D: Activation of nuclear factor kappaB *in vivo* selectively protects the murine small intestine against ionizing radiationinduced damage. Cancer Res 64: 6240–6246, 2004