

A Paradigm Shift in the Understanding of Oxidative Stress and its Implications to Exposure of Low-level Ionizing Radiation

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For many years, research on oxidative stress focused primarily on determining how reactive oxygen species (ROS) damage cells by indiscriminate reactions with its macromolecular machinery, particularly lipids, proteins and DNA. However, many chronic diseases affiliated with oxidative stress are not always a consequence of tissue necrosis, DNA, or protein damage but rather to altered gene expression. Gene expression is highly regulated by the coordination of extra-, intra- and inter-cellular communication systems that typically maintain tissue homeostasis by sustaining a balance between proliferation, differentiation and apoptosis. Therefore, much research has shifted to the understanding of how ROS reversibly controls gene expression at noncytotoxic doses through cell signaling mechanisms. Cell proliferation typically involves a transient inhibition of gap junctional intercellular communication (GJIC) and the activation of mitogen activated protein kinase pathways (MAPK). We demonstrate that epidermal growth factor (EGF) inhibited GJIC in normal rat liver epithelial cells in addition to activating extracellular signal regulatory kinase, a MAPK. Inhibition of NADPH oxidase, which reduces oxygen to H₂O₂ with the very selective inhibitor diphenyleneiodonium, prevented EGF from inhibiting GJIC, suggesting that the generation of H₂O₂ is an essential component of the intracellular pathway controlling GJIC. We previously demonstrated that reduced-glutathione (GSH) was also a necessary cofactor of H₂O₂-induced inhibition of GJIC. These results demonstrate that ROS and GSH play essential roles in controlling EGF-dependent control of GJIC. Therefore, the overly simplistic approach of either preventing the generation of ROS or accelerate the removal by antioxidants could deleteriously alter normal signaling functions.

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Introduction

Otto Warburg was the first to implicate oxygen in cancer as far back as the 1920s.¹ Although his theory of altered oxidative metabolism fell mostly on deaf ears, recently there has been a renewed interest in how cancer cells shift their energy production from oxidative phosphorylation to anaerobic glycolysis, the "Warburg Effect", and is being considered a fundamental property of cancer cells and not just a consequence of malignant cell transformation.²⁻⁴ In contrast to the role of low oxygen tensions, the discovery of superoxide dismutase in 1968 by McCord and Fridovich⁵ led to an explosion of research on the role of reactive oxygen, a product of high oxygen tensions, in the pathologies of biological organisms, and has been specifically connected with not only cancer but also many other human diseases.^{6,7} For many years, research in oxidative stress focused primarily on determining how reactive oxygen species (ROS) damage

cells by indiscriminate reactions with the macromolecular machinery of a cell, particularly lipids, proteins and DNA.

We know in great detail how ROS react with lipids leading to the peroxidation of biological membranes resulting in necrotic lesions⁸, and how ROS reacts with the nucleotides of DNA leading to genetic instability.^{8,9} However, many chronic diseases affiliated with oxidative stress, such as cancer, are not always a consequence of tissue necrosis, DNA damage and genetic instability, or protein damage but rather to altered gene expression through epigenetic mechanisms.¹⁰⁻¹² For example, organic and hydrogen peroxides act as tumor promoters and not as initiators¹³⁻¹⁶, indicating that these oxidants are not mutagens but rather epigenetic effectors. Hydrogen peroxide has also been demonstrated to be a promoter but not an initiator using two stage *in vivo* carcinogenesis model systems and transformation *in vitro* systems.^{14,16-18} These peroxide results were only several of many experiments indicating that ROS contributed to chronic diseases at

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non-genotoxic, non-damaging levels. Thus, in the past decade and a half, much research has shifted to the understanding of how ROS can reversibly control the expression of genes at noncytotoxic doses.⁶ In this regard, at least 127 genes and signal transducing proteins have been reported to be sensitive to reductive and oxidative (redox) states in the cell.⁶ This shift in thinking should start to shape both the design and the interpretation of experiments on low-level radiation effects.

Oxidative stress, a known mediator of cancer, can clearly interrupt reactive oxygen-dependent cell signaling pathways controlling gene expression that contribute to all stages of cancer, in particular tumor promotion. The source of reactive oxygen involved in signaling-induced events is under active investigation, particularly in the cardiovascular field in which non-phagocytic NADPH oxidase has been strongly implicated in growth factor-induced generation of reactive oxygen.¹⁹⁻²⁴ We report in this study that NADPH oxidase is also involved in epidermal growth factor (EGF)-induced inhibition of GJIC in a rat liver epithelial cell line.

Methods

Chemicals

Formaldehyde (37%) was obtained from Aldrich Chemical Co., Inc. (Milwaukee, WI); lithium salt of Lucifer Yellow, oxidized and reduced forms of glutathione, and buthionine sulfoximine from Sigma Chemical Co. (St. Louis, MO); acetonitrile and monohydrate sodium dihydrogen phosphate from EM Science (Gibbstown, NJ); H₂O₂ and methanol from JT Baker (Mallinckrodt Baker, Inc., Phillipsburg, NJ); sodium chloride from Columbus Chemical Industries (Columbus, WI); and sodium 1-octanesulfonate from ACROS (Pittsburgh, PA).

Cell culture

A diploid, non-tumorigenic WB-F344 rat liver epithelial cell line was obtained from Drs. J. W. Grisham and M. S. Tsao of the University of North Carolina (Chapel Hill, NC).²⁵ This cell line was used for the following reasons. Many *in vivo* tumor promotion assays were done in rat liver, specifically in the Fischer 344 rats. The WB-344 cell line was designed to complement *in vivo* studies performed in the same rat strain. The WB-cells are also diploid cells that are non-tumorigenic.²⁵ This cell line has been extensively characterized for its expressed gap junction genes and its ability to perform GJIC *via* all available techniques in the absence and presence of well-known tumor promoters, and tested for the ability of growth factors and oncogenes to modulate GJIC.¹¹ Intrahepatic transplantation of WB-cells into adult syngenic F344 rats results in the morphological differentiation of these cells into hepatocytes and incorporation into hepatic plates.²⁶ The pluripotency of these cells were further demonstrated by their differentiation into functional-contracting cardiomyocytes, when transplanted into the heart tissue of adult syngenic F344 rats.²⁷

Cells were cultured in 2 ml of D-medium (Formula No. 78-5470EG, GIBCO Laboratories, Grand Island, NY) and supplemented with 5% fetal bovine serum (GIBCO Laboratories Grand Island, NY) and 50 µg/mL gentamicin (GIBCO Laboratories Grand Island, NY). The cells were grown in 35 mm diameter plastic culture dishes (Corning Glass Works, Corning, NY) and incubated at 37°C in a humidified atmosphere containing 5% CO₂ and 95% air. Bioassays were conducted on confluent cells that were obtained after 2 days of growth.

GJIC

GJIC was determined by using the scrape loading/dye transfer (SL/DT) assay as adapted from previously described methods.²⁸ Following the chemical exposures, cells were rinsed 3 times with PBS, and then approximately 1 mL of 0.1% Lucifer yellow dye (LY), dissolved in PBS, was added to the cells. A surgical steel blade was used to make 3 scrapes through the monolayer of cells to inject the LY followed by a 3-minute incubation time at room temperature, and then the dye was discarded; the cells were rinsed 3 times with PBS, and then fixed with approximately 0.5 mL of 4% formalin. The SL/DT assay was done immediately following chemical exposure.

The migration of the dye in the cells was observed using a Nikon epifluorescence phase microscope, illuminated with an Osram HBO 200 W lamp, and equipped with a CCD camera (NucleoTech Corp, San Mateo, CA). The distance the dye spread from the scrape line was measured from the digitized images using 'Gel Expert' program (NucleoTech Corp, San Mateo, CA). Comparing the distance the dye traveled in the chemically treated cells to the distance the dye traveled in the vehicle controls assessed GJIC. GJIC was reported as a fraction of the control (FOC). A FOC value of approximately 1.0 indicates normal GJIC, and FOC values less than one indicates inhibition. All experiments were done at least in triplicate and the results were reported as an average ± the standard deviation at the 95% confidence interval.

GSH determination

Cells were lysed with 2 mL of 0.05 N perchloric acid, and the lysate was filtered through a 0.22 µm filter and used for the determination of GSH. The lysate was fractionated using an 150mm × 4.6 mm adsorbosphere C18 5µMF-Plus HPLC column (Alltech Assoc., Deerfield, IL) and a mobile phase that consisted of 50 mM sodium phosphate, 0.05 mM 1-octanesulfonic acid, 2% acetonitrile, pH = 2.70, and a flow rate of 1.0 mL/min. The HPLC system used was a 580 solvent delivery module from ESA (Chelmsford, MA). The GSH was detected with a Coulochem Model 5200 electrochemical detector (ESA, Chelmsford, MA) with applied potentials of +400, +900, and +950 mV set for the screening, analytical and guard cell electrodes, respectively.

Data analysis

All data were compared to, and expressed as, a FOC. Each value represents the average FOC of at least three measurements from three different culture plates \pm the standard deviation at the 95% confidence interval. Curve fitting was done using SigmaPlot (Jandel Scientific Software, Jandel Corp., San Rafael, CA), which uses the Marquardt-Levenberg algorithm of a least squares fit. SigmaStat (V. 2.0, Jandel Scientific Software, Jandel Corp., San Rafael, CA) was used for paired *t*-tests, ANOVA and post hoc tests.

Results

We previously reported that hydrogen peroxide inhibited GJIC in a dose-dependent fashion.²⁹ This H₂O₂-induced inhibition of GJIC was reversible.²⁹ This inhibition of GJIC by H₂O₂ is not likely a consequence of downstream ROS products of H₂O₂, i.e. hydroxyl, alkoxy or peroxy radicals, considering that free radical scavengers such as propylgallate and Trolox[®], which do not affect H₂O₂, did not reverse the inhibitory effect of H₂O₂ (Figure 1).²⁹

The reduced form of glutathione (GSH) is the major reductant of H₂O₂, and the depletion of this antioxidant commonly results in greater oxidative damage of macromolecules. However, depletion of

GSH has the opposite effect on the oxidative inhibition of GJIC (Figure 2).²⁹ Cells were depleted of GSH by either inhibiting γ -glutamylcysteine synthetase, which catalyzes the rate-limiting step of the biosynthesis of GSH, with buthionine sulfoximine (BSO) or the conjugation of GSH with diethylmaleate (DEM) (Figure 2). Treatment with BSO for 24 h results in a 72%, and with DEM for 1 h in a 95% reduction of GSH (Figure 2). Addition of H₂O₂ to these GSH-depleted cells did not inhibit GJIC (Figure 2). No GSH depletion was observed in cells treated with BSO for 1 h, and the addition of H₂O₂ to these GSH-sufficient cells containing BSO resulted in inhibition of GJIC, which indicates that GSH-depletion and not the BSO prevented H₂O₂ from inhibiting GJIC.

A transient production of H₂O₂ is a common response of a cell to growth factors and is essential in the activation of mitogen activated protein kinases (MAPKs).^{30,31} Non-phagocytic NADPH-oxidase has been implicated in this transient production of H₂O₂ and diphenyleneiodonium (DPI) is a selective inhibitor of this enzyme.³¹ Preincubation of DPI with the F344-WB cells prevented the inhibition of GJIC by EGF (Figures 3 and 4), thus implicating NADPH oxidase in EGF-induced inhibition of GJIC. Inhibition of GJIC by EGF was also prevented with the inhibition of Mek with PD98059 (Figure 4).

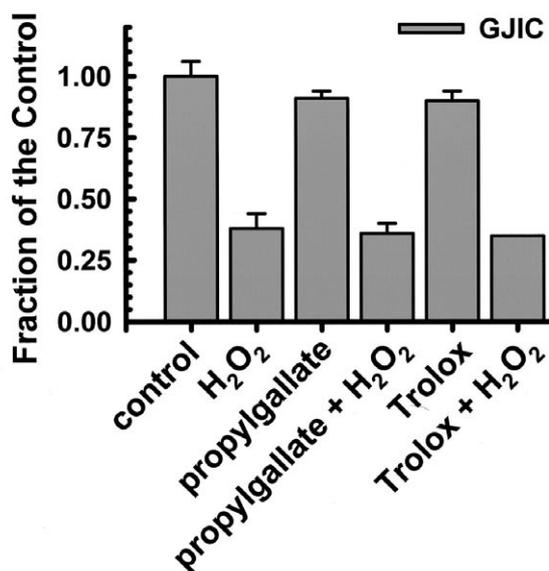


Figure 1. The effects of free radical scavengers on H₂O₂-induced inhibition of GJIC. The figure was graphed with data obtained from.²⁹ The concentrations of H₂O₂, propylgallate and Trolox were 500, 750 and 750 μ M, respectively. The data are reported as a fraction of the control, and GJIC assessed using the scrape load/dye transfer technique. The H₂O₂, H₂O₂ + Trolox[®] or propylgallate were significantly different from the control (ANOVA, $p \leq 0.001$, $F = 159$; Holm-Sidak post-hoc test, $p \leq 0.05$) but not with each other based on the same post-hoc analysis or based on a new ANOVA only comparing this peroxide-group (ANOVA, $p = 0.685$, $F = 0.404$) (ANOVA, $p = 0.685$, $F = 0.404$). Each value represents the average of three replicates \pm one standard deviation.

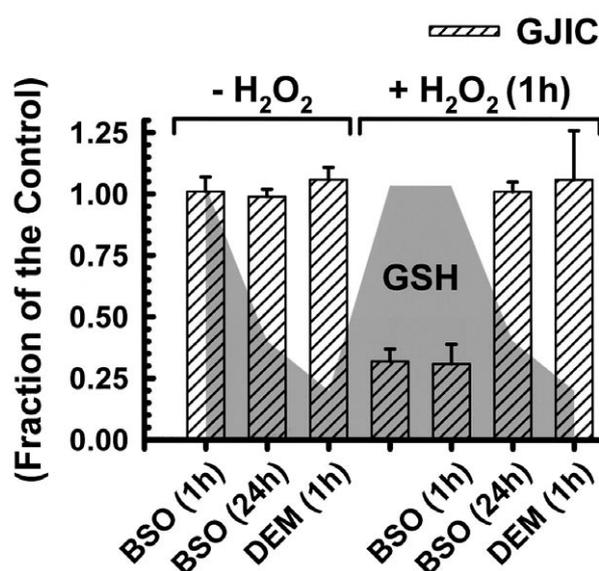


Figure 2. The effects of GSH levels on H₂O₂-induced inhibition of GJIC. The figure was graphed with data obtained from.²⁹ The GSH levels are indicated in the shaded grey area, and GJIC activity in the hatched bars. The concentrations of H₂O₂, buthionine sulfoximine (BSO), and diethylmaleate (DEM) were 500, 100 and 1000 μ M, respectively. The data are reported as a fraction of the control, and GJIC assessed using the scrape load/dye transfer technique. GSH was assessed with HPLC-electrochemical detection. The H₂O₂, H₂O₂ + BSO (1h) treatments (GSH sufficient cells) were significantly different from the control, however BSO (24h) \pm H₂O₂ or DEM (1h) \pm H₂O₂ (GSH deficient cells) were not significantly different from the control (ANOVA, $p \leq 0.001$, $F = 43.1$; Holm-Sidak post-hoc test, $p \leq 0.05$). Each value represents the average of three replicates \pm one standard deviation.

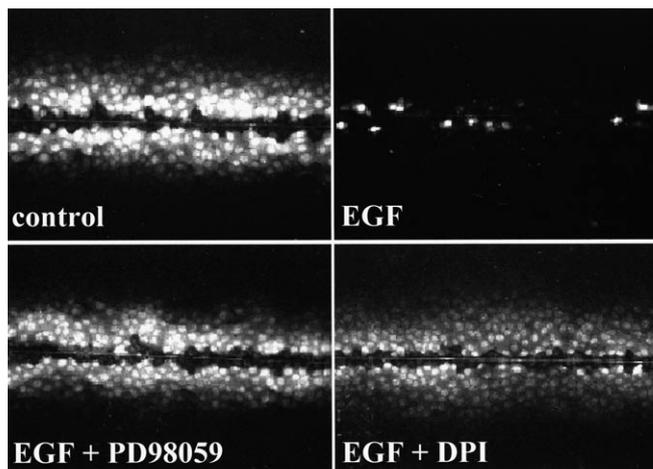


Figure 3. Scrape load/dye transfer images of cells treated with epidermal growth factor \pm a MEK or NADPH oxidase inhibitor. Magnification was ($\times 200$), and the concentrations of epidermal growth factor (EGF), diphenyleiiodonium (DPI) and PD98059 were 10 $\mu\text{g/L}$, 5 μM , and 20 μM respectively. Cells were incubated for 15 min with EGF and preincubated with PD98059 and DPI for 15 min and 20 min, respectively. Quantitative results from triplicate sets of data of SL/DT images presented in Figure 4.

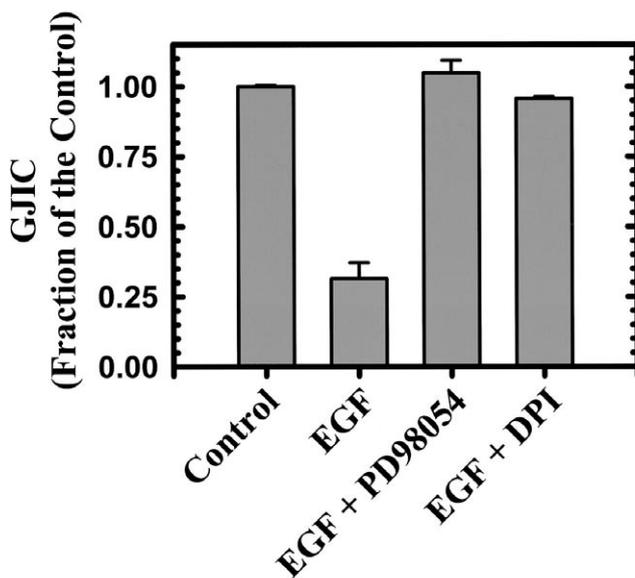


Figure 4. The reversal of EGF-induced inhibition of GJIC with MEK and NADPH Oxidase inhibitors. The concentrations and treatment times are the same as those in Figure 3. The concentration and pretreatment time for BSO was 100 μM and 24 h. Only the EGF and EGF + BSO treated cells were significant from the control (ANOVA, $p < 0.001$, $F = 304$; Tukey post-hoc $p < 0.05$). The same ANOVA/post-hoc test also indicated that EGF was significantly different from EGF + BSO treated cells.

Discussion

Oxidative stress has long been affiliated with acute and chronic human diseases, and was believed to be primarily a consequence of

indiscriminate, cumulative damage to proteins, lipids and DNA from the vigorous production of ROS levels that overwhelm the cell's antioxidant defense system. However, pathological causes of many chronic diseases, particularly cancer, has also been linked with noncytotoxic, nongenotoxic events, and the role of ROS and antioxidants in human diseases must also address epigenetic events.¹⁰

Although many intracellular-signaling pathways are known to be redox-sensitive, the mitogen activated protein kinase (MAPK) and nuclear factor- κB (NF- κB) signal transduction pathways have been examined far more than any other pathways.^{6,32,33} These two pathways either directly or indirectly transduce most redox responses.⁶ MAPK is not only activated by ROS³⁴ but actually requires the presence of H_2O_2 .³⁵ Sundaresan et al.³⁵ were the first to demonstrate that a transient burst of H_2O_2 by an extracellular ligand, namely platelet derived growth factor (PDGF), using a vascular smooth muscle cell system is essential in the activation of ERK-MAPK. They demonstrated that the activation of ERK-MAPK by PDGF was prevented by the transfection of catalase, which dismutates H_2O_2 in these cells. Downstream events of MAPK activation, such as proliferation and increased cell motility, were also inhibited by catalase in their experiments. This was one of many studies that demonstrated endogenous growth factors (extracellular ligands) generate ROS, which are then required downstream in intracellular signaling to successfully transmit their signals to the nucleus.^{31,36}

The successful transmission of an extracellular signal from the membrane to the nucleus via intracellular signaling pathways in solid tissue cell-types is also dependent upon intercellular signals through gap junctions.¹⁰⁻¹² Not surprisingly, H_2O_2 has also been demonstrated to reversibly inhibit gap junctional intercellular communication (GJIC) at noncytotoxic levels^{29,37} (Figures 1 and 2). Similar to the results of the published MAPK experiments, inhibition of NADPH oxidase also prevented EGF-induced inhibition of GJIC (Figures 3 and 4). Inhibition of GJIC was also dependent on MEK-activity (Figures 3 and 4) and agrees with previously published results.^{37,38} This is not surprising considering that the MEK-ERK pathways are redox regulated as cited above. One potentially major implication of these results is that if gap junctions were not closed, then the H_2O_2 generated by extracellular ligands could escape from the targeted cell through gap junction channels into neighboring cells, thereby potentially diluting H_2O_2 to a non-threshold level that would be insufficient for MAPK dependent activation of transcription factors. These examples demonstrate how extra-, intra-, and intercellular signaling pathways might interact to coordinate the epigenetic expression of genes in response to ROS (Figure 5).

In addition to oxidants serving normal roles as subcellular messengers in gene regulatory and signal transduction pathways, antioxidants have also been demonstrated to serve as subcellular messengers for normal cell function.⁶ For example, a major H_2O_2 -scavenging pathway is the two-electron reduction of H_2O_2 catalyzed by glutathione peroxidase, and clearly serves as a protective role against peroxide-dependent oxidative injury. However, depletion of intracellular pools of glutathione (GSH), by inhibiting the rate-limiting step of its biosynthesis, paradoxically reverses the biological effect of H_2O_2 in the

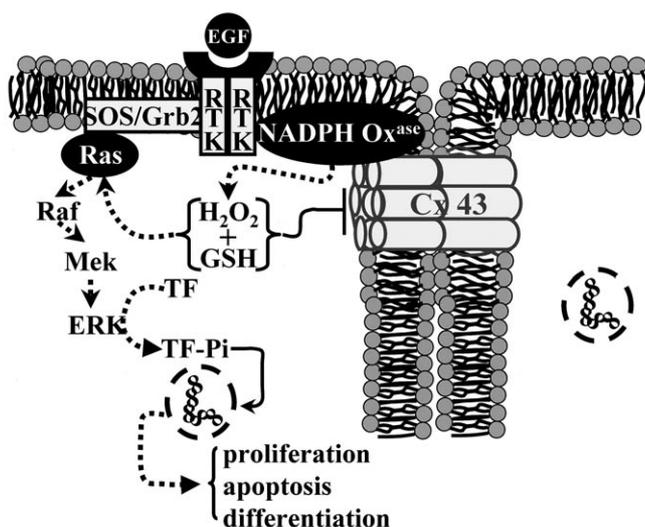


Figure 5. Gap junctions in cellular homeostasis. Extracellular signals, such as growth factors, interact with membrane receptors, which then activate intracellular signal transduction pathways that induce the transcription of genes *via* activated transcription factors. These intracellular pathways operate under cascade and scaffolding systems that cross communicate with each other in controlling the expression of genes that direct the proliferation, differentiation and apoptosis of cells within a tissue. These multiple checkpoints are further modulated by intercellular signals traversing gap junctions, thereby maintaining the homeostatic state of a tissue. Abnormal interruption of these integrated signaling pathways by food related and environmental toxicants results in diseased states, such as cancer.

inhibition of GJIC²⁹ (Figure 2). Other examples of this phenomenon where depletion of GSH prevents an oxidative chemical-induced cellular event is in: 1. lindane-dependent inhibition of GJIC in myometrial smooth muscle cells³⁹, 2. peroxide-induction of *c-jun*⁴⁰, and 3. the activation of NF- κ B by H₂O₂ and O₂⁻⁴¹. These results indicate that these signaling pathways not only required H₂O₂ but also GSH (Figure 5). Inhibition of GJIC and the induction of early-response genes are hallmarks of tumor promotion and in the results just described, a reduction in the natural antioxidant GSH, could also potentially protect a cell from proliferative responses to extracellular ligands.

In summary, the assessment of oxidative stress induced by low level, non-cytotoxic doses of radiation or chemicals will require not only understanding the indiscriminate reactions of ROS with the macromolecular machinery of a cell, but also the role they play in coordinating the expression of genes through the various cell signaling systems. Identification of redox regulated proteins and determining the underlying mechanisms by which they control gene expression through cell signaling will allow us to make a far more accurate assessment on the risk of low-level radiation-induced oxidative stress to human health. Understanding the redox machinery of a cell will also contribute to the development of more effective, and equally as important, safer chemopreventative and chemotherapeutic strategies. The overly simplistic approach of previous intervention studies with antioxidant supplementation to human populations proved either ineffective, the N-acetylcysteine EUROSCAN studies in Europe^{42,43},

or actually detrimental to human health, such as increased lung cancer of smokers in the B-carotene studies (CARET trials in USA and ABTC trials in Finland).^{42,44} Thus, developing safe and effective intervention strategies for humans exposed to low-level ionizing radiation will depend, in part, on our mechanistic understanding of oxidative stress.

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