

Inhibition of Topoisomerase II α Activity in CHO K1 Cells by 2-[(Aminopropyl)Amino]Ethanethiol (WR-1065)

DAVID J. GRDINA,*† ANDREAS CONSTANTINOU,‡ NAOYUKI SHIGEMATSU,*
AND JEFFREY S. MURLEY*

**Center for Mechanistic Biology and Biotechnology, Argonne National Laboratory,
9700 South Cass Avenue, Argonne, Illinois 60439, USA;*

†*Department of Radiation and Cellular Oncology, The University of Chicago,
5841 South Maryland Avenue, Chicago, Illinois 60637, USA;*

‡*Specialized Cancer Center, University of Illinois, 840 South Wood Street, Chicago, Illinois 60612, USA*

The submitted manuscript has been authored by a contractor of the U. S. Government under contract No. W-31-109-ENG-38. Accordingly, the U. S. Government retains a nonexclusive, royalty-free license to publish or reproduce the published form of this contribution, or allow others to do so, for U. S. Government purposes.

AUG 09 1993

OSTI

MASTER

tb

Number of copies submitted: 4
Number of manuscript pages: 26
Number of figures: 6
Number of tables: 2

RECEIVED

Proposed running head: WR-1065 Affects Topoisomerase II α Activity

All correspondence should be sent to:

Dr. David J. Grdina
Center for Mechanistic Biology and Biotechnology
Argonne National Laboratory
9700 South Cass Avenue
Argonne, Illinois 60439-4833, U.S.A.
Tele. (708) 252-4235
FAX (708) 252-3387 or 9937

GRDINA, D. J., CONSTANTINOU, A., SHIGEMATSU, N., AND MURLEY, J. S. Inhibition of Topoisomerase II α activity in CHO K1 Cells by 2-[(Aminopropyl)Amino]Ethanethiol (WR-1065). *Radiat. Res.* (1993)

The aminothiols 2-[(aminopropyl)amino]ethanethiol (WR-1065) is the active thiol of the clinically studied radioprotective agent *S*-2-(3-aminopropylamino)ethylphosphorothioic acid (WR-2721). WR-1065 is an effective radiation protector and antimutagenic agent when it is administered 30 min prior to radiation exposure to Chinese hamster ovary K1 cells (i.e., a dose modification factor of 1.4) at a concentration of 4 mM. Under these exposure conditions, topoisomerase (topo) I and II α activities and associated protein contents were measured in the K1 cell line using the DNA relaxation assay, the P4 unknotting assay, and immunoblotting, respectively. WR-1065 was ineffective in modifying topo I activity, but it did reduce topo II α activity by an average of 50 percent. The magnitude of topo II α protein content, however, was not affected by these exposure conditions. Cell cycle effects were monitored by the method of flow cytometry. Exposure of cells to 4 mM WR-1065 for a period of up to 6 h resulted in a buildup of cells in the G2 compartment. However, in contrast to topo II inhibitors used in chemotherapy, WR-1065 is an effective radioprotector agent capable of protecting against both radiation-induced cell lethality and mutagenesis. One of several mechanisms of radiation protection attributed to aminothiols compounds such as WR-1065 has been their ability to affect endogenous enzymatic reactions involved in DNA synthesis, repair, and cell cycle progression. These results are consistent with such a proposed mechanism and demonstrate in particular a modifying effect by 2-[(aminopropyl)-amino]ethanethiol on type II topoisomerase, which is involved in DNA synthesis.

INTRODUCTION

The phosphorothioate WR-2721 has been investigated in clinical trials as an adjuvant for use with radiation (1,2) and chemotherapy (3-5) to reduce normal tissue toxicity. WR-2721 and its free thiol WR-1065 have also been reported to be effective in protecting against radiation- or chemotherapy-induced mutagenesis (6-10) and carcinogenesis (11-13). With respect to the antimutagenic effect, these agents significantly reduced the frequency of mutations at the *hprt* locus in cultured mammalian cells and rodent T splenocytes, even when they were administered up to 3 h following exposure of cells to radiation (6,10).

The major mechanisms proposed to describe the protective effects of this class of aminothiols have focused on their well-characterized physiochemical properties which include free radical scavenging, hydrogen atom donation, and intracellular auto-oxidation (14). The aminothiols have also been implicated in affecting endogenous enzymatic processes in cells. These include DNA synthesis and repair (15,16), DNA nuclease activity (17), and cell cycle progression (18,19) in mammalian cells. As early as 1967, it was proposed that protection by aminothiol compounds is mediated via inherent cellular DNA repair processes (20). More recently it was reported that under extracellular conditions the disulfide form of WR-1065 can enhance the topoisomerase-I-mediated unwinding of supercoiled plasmid pIBI30 DNA (21). It was also suggested that this result was not unexpected due to the similarity in chemical structure between the disulfide form of WR-1065 and spermine, a polyamine which has been reported to be effective in enhancing the relaxation of DNA supercoils via topoisomerase reactions (22).

We have extended studies on the role of aminothiol-mediated effects on DNA-associated enzymes. In particular, we have characterized the effects of WR-1065 (the free thiol form of

WR-2721) exposure on topo I and II α activities in the CHO K1 cell line (23). Effects of WR-1065 on cell cycle progression were also monitored using the method of flow cytometry.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Cells and Culture Conditions

The CHO K1 cell line was maintained as a stock culture in α -Minimal Essential Medium (Gibco) with 10% fetal calf serum (Biologos) in a humidified atmosphere containing 5% CO₂ and 95% air at 37 °C.

Drug Treatment

WR-1065 used in these studies was supplied by the Drug Synthesis and Chemistry Branch, Division of Cancer Treatment, National Cancer Institute. The working solution of WR-1065 was made up in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) (8.1 mM Na₂HPO₄, 1.5 mM KH₂PO₄, 0.14 M NaCl, 2.6 mM KCl) at a 1 M concentration and sterilized by filtration immediately before use. Cells were exposed to WR-1065 at a final concentration of 4 mM. At that concentration, WR-1065 is nontoxic and is maximally effective as an antimutagen and a radioprotector (6–8).

Survival Studies

Exponentially growing cultures of K1 cells were irradiated with 50-kVp x-rays either in the presence or absence of WR-1065 (4 mM). All experiments were performed in triplicate. Cell survival was determined by plating appropriate numbers of cells to give between 80 and 200 colonies per dish, 6 dishes per experimental point. The D₀ and 95% confidence limits were determined for each survival curve using a computer-fitted, least-squares regression model. Dose modification factors were determined from survival curves by comparing the

corresponding D_0 values obtained for each of the WR-1065 conditions with that of the associated radiation-only controls.

Preparation of Nuclear Extracts

Exponentially growing CHO K1 cells were used in all experiments. Following exposure to radiation and/or WR-1065, treated and control cells in plastic petri dishes were placed on ice, and a volume (equal to that of the culture medium) of cold solution containing 50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5), 25 mM KCl, 2 mM CaCl_2 , 3 mM MgCl_2 , and 0.25 M sucrose was added. The cells (about 10^7) were centrifuged and then homogenized. The nuclei were isolated as described by Tandou et al. (24) and extracted as described by Champoux and McConaughy (25), except that immediately after the washing of cells, a solution comprised of 1 mM phenylmethylsulfonylfluoride, 1 mM benzamide, 10 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ soybean trypsin inhibitor, 50 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ leupeptin, 1 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ pepstatin, and 20 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ aprotinin was added. The protein content of the nuclear and the cellular extracts was determined by the Bradford method (26) and adjusted to 1 mg/ml. Glycerol was added to a final concentration of 30%, and the extracts were stored at -20°C . These preparations served as the source for topo I and II α activity, as well as for topo II α immunoblotting. For the unknotting assay (which detects topo II α catalytic activity), serial dilutions were made such that the reaction volumes of 20 μl contained a range of 50–800 μg of nuclear extract. For the DNA relaxation assay (which detects topo I activity in the absence of ATP), reaction volumes of 20 μl containing a range of 1–100 μg of nuclear extract were used.

Unknotting Assay for the Determination of Topo II α Activity

The enzyme sources for this assay were from serial dilutions of nuclear extracts. The substrate used was knotted DNA that had been isolated from tailless capsids of the

bacteriophage P4 Vir1 de110, according to a modification of the methods by Liu et al. (27). Reaction mixtures of 20 μ l contained 50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.0, 100 mM KCl, 10 mM MgCl₂, 0.5 mM dithiothreitol, 0.5 mM EDTA, 40 μ g/ml bovine serum albumin (nuclease free), and 1 mM ATP. The reactions were started by the addition of 0.6 μ g of knotted DNA and terminated by the addition of 5 μ l of a stop solution containing 5% sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS), 50 mM EDTA, 25% Ficol, and 0.05 mg/ml bromophenol blue. Samples were loaded on 0.8% agarose gels and electrophoresed at 1.5 V/cm for 15 h in Tris/Borate/EDTA (TBE) buffer. Gels were stained in 1 μ g/ml ethidium bromide and then destained and photographed over a UV light source. Quantitative determination of topo II α activity was determined by densitometric measurement of photographic negatives. DNA that remained knotted migrated as a single band to the top of the gels. One unit of unknotting activity is defined as the amount of enzyme that converts 50% of the substrate (knotted DNA) into the reaction product (unknotted DNA).

Relaxation Assay for the Determination of Topo I Activity

The substrate used in this assay was pUC8 plasmid DNA (90% supercoiled). Each reaction volume of 20 μ l contained 50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.4, 50 mM KCl, 10 mM MgCl₂, 1 mM dithiothreitol, 0.1 mM EDTA, and 30 μ g/ml bovine serum albumin (nuclease free). Serial dilutions of the nuclear extracts served as the source of topo I. The reactions were started by the addition of 0.6 μ g of the supercoiled plasmid DNA. Following 30-min incubations at 37 °C, the reactions were terminated by the addition of 5 μ l of a stop solution containing 50% sucrose, 2% SDS, 0.2 M EDTA, and 0.05% bromophenol blue. Samples were loaded in 0.8% agarose gels, electrophoresed in TBE buffer, stained, and photographed. Densitometric determination of the supercoiled form provided the means for quantitation.

One unit of relaxation is defined as the amount of enzyme that converts 50% of the substrate (supercoiled DNA) into the reaction product (relaxed DNA). The omission of ATP from the assay eliminated the interference of topo II α activity (28).

Immunoblotting for Determining the Topo II α Protein Levels

Protein content of nuclear and cellular extracts were routinely determined (26). Extracts containing 100 μ g of protein were analyzed in 8% SDS polyacrylamide gels (29). Proteins were transferred electrophoretically to nitrocellulose membranes and incubated with an anti-topo-II antibody recognizing the carboxyl terminal portion of the human topo II. This polypeptide was produced by an expression plasmid p56 z11-1.8 (30). The secondary antibody was anti-rabbit IgG. Detection of the bands (corresponding to the 170 kDa form of topo II) was with the peroxidase reaction (Sigma) using 4-chloro-1-naphthol (Sigma) as the color indicator.

Cell-Free Analysis of Topo I and Topo II α Activity

Relaxation and unknotting assays using purified calf thymus topo I (BRL) or topo II α purified from HL-525 cells (31) as described by Drake et al. (32), were performed as previously described (33). Reaction mixtures contained WR-1065 at concentrations ranging from 0.4 mM to 40 mM, 0.5 mM Camptothecin (topo I inhibitor, NCI) or 0.3 mM Genistein (topo II inhibitor, ICN Biomedicals). Samples were loaded on 0.8% agarose gels and electrophoresed at 4 V/cm for 5.5 h in TBE buffer. Gels were stained in 1 μ g/ml ethidium bromide, destained and photographed over a UV light source.

Flow Cytometry Analysis

The determination of the DNA content of control and WR-1065-treated K1 cells, as well as the evaluation of the effects of WR-1065 treatment on cell cycle progression, was made

using the technique of flow cytometry (FCM). Cells were stained with DAPI (4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole) (34) in a 0.1% citrate solution according to a method described elsewhere (35). FCM patterns were obtained using a PARTEC PAS-III (Particle Analyzing System, Partec AG, Basel, Switzerland) and were analyzed using a computer program obtained from Phoenix Flow Systems, Inc. (San Diego, California, U.S.A.). The coefficient of variation (cv) of the G1 peak obtained using unperturbed cell samples routinely ranged from 1.5 to 2.5 %.

RESULTS

WR-1065 Effects on Radiation Response of K1 Cells

Treatment of K1 cells with 4 mM WR-1065 for 30 min prior to their exposure to 50-kVp x-rays resulted in significant radiation protection, as evidenced by an increase in the survival curve parameter D_0 (i.e., a measure of the terminal slope of the curve) from 2.35 ± 0.15 Gy to 3.35 ± 0.25 Gy (Figure 1). The D_0 values and associated 95% confidence limits were based on a computer-fitted least-squares regression model (6). A dose modifying factor (DMF) of 1.4 was determined by taking the ratio of D_0 values from the survival curves describing the response of K1 cells in the presence and absence of WR-1065.

WR-1065 Effects on the Activities of Topoisomerases I and II α

Topo I and II α activities were measured in untreated K1 cells along with (a) cells exposed to WR-1065 at a concentration of 4 mM for 30 min, (b) cells exposed to 10 Gy of ionizing radiation, and (c) cells exposed to WR-1065 and ionizing radiation. Presented in Figure 2 are data from an experiment describing topo II α (panel A) and topo I (panel B) activities extractable from K1 cell lysates. Treatment of K1 cells with 4 mM WR-1065 had

no effect on topo I activity, as seen in panel B. This treatment, however, caused about a 6-fold reduction in topo II α activity, as determined by densitometric scanning of the photographic negative shown in panel A.

Data from four replicate experiments describing topo I and topo II α activities from K1 cells are summarized in Table 1. WR-1065 exhibited no effect on topo I activity in K1 cells (all groups compared to controls, $p \geq 0.5$). Topo II α activity was, however, significantly reduced following exposure to WR-1065, as compared to the untreated control ($p = 0.019$). Following irradiation and exposure to WR-1065, topo II α activity was somewhat reduced; the level of significance, however, is only suggestive (p value of 0.061).

Since WR-1065 only affected topo II α activity, topo II α protein content was also determined for K1 cells exposed to WR-1065. Following exposure to 4 mM WR-1065 for 30 min, exponentially growing K1 cells were lysed, and protein from nuclear extracts were electrophoresed in 8% SDS polyacrylamide gels and transferred to nitrocellulose. Blots were incubated with anti-topo-II antibody which has been previously shown to detect in K-562 cells a single band of 170 kDa corresponding to topo II α (36). Resulting data are presented in Figure 3. The molecular weights presented on the right ordinate are those of topo II α (MW 170,000) and its proteolytic products. Prestained standards with associated molecular weights are also presented on the left side ordinate. Untreated control cells are represented in lane 1, WR-1065-treated cells are in lane 2, irradiated cells are in lane 3, and irradiated cells treated with WR-1065 are in lane 4. A proteolytic band with a molecular weight of 150 kDa is also evident. Densitometric measurements of protein content (150 kDa and 170 kDa bands) are presented in Table 2 for comparison. No significant differences in topo II α protein content were observed between any of the experimental groups ($p \geq 0.30$).

Determinations of topo II α protein contents in cellular lysates of K1 cells were also performed, and data from a representative experiment are presented in Figure 4. Under these conditions, only a single major band of topo II α was observed for K1 cells, suggesting that the minor band at 150 kDa was due to enhanced proteolytic activity by this cell line.

Examination of the direct effect of WR-1065 on topo I and topo II α activity is shown in Figure 5. At concentrations up to 40 μ M, WR-1065 did not affect the activity of either topo I (panel A) or topo II α (panel B), as compared to the topo I and II inhibitors Camptothecin and Genistein, respectively. These data suggest that the reduction in topo II α activity observed in nuclear extracts from WR-1065-treated K1 cells may be due to some indirect effect.

As presented in Figure 6, exposure of K1 cells to 4 μ M WR-1065 for up to 6 h gave rise to a buildup of cells in the G2 phase of the cell cycle. The percent of cells in G1 fell from 39 to 21 over this period of time, while the percent of cells in G2 increased from 18 to 27. The percent of cells in S phase was relatively constant, fluctuating only from 43 to 46.

DISCUSSION

Amino thiols such as WR-1065, cysteamine, or glutathione have been reported to be effective in inhibiting DNA synthesis (15), strand rejoining (21), nuclease activity (17), and cell cycle progression (19) in mammalian cells. These effects on cellular enzymatic processes have led investigators to propose that one possible mechanism of amino thiol protection involves the modulation of endogenous enzyme processes (37).

Radiation protection studies performed on DNA repair-deficient organisms strongly support the suggestion that endogenous enzyme systems are dominant parameters which can

influence the magnitude of aminothiols-mediated protection. While cysteamine was found to be an effective protective agent in wild-type *E. coli*, it was not protective in bacterial strains with defects in the *rec* system (38,39). *E. coli* mutants deficient in pol I or UV endonucleases were also not amenable to protection by cysteamine (39). Likewise, x-ray repair-deficient *rad*⁻ mutants of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* were reported to be unprotectable by cysteamine (40). Protection by cysteamine against radiation damage was observed only in diploid wild-type yeast. In addition, WR-1065 was found not to be protective against the lethal effects of radiation on the mutant *xrs-5* CHO cell line (41).

The aminothiols exhibit close structural similarities to polyamines, which are endogenous polybasic molecules having an affinity for DNA (42). The disulfide form (designated WR-33278) of the free thiol WR-1065 has the structure H₂N-(CH₂)₃-NH-(CH₂)₂-S-S-(CH₂)₂-NH-(CH₂)₃-NH₂, which is very similar to the structure of spermine (i.e., H₂N-(CH₂)₃-NH-(CH₂)₄-NH-(CH₂)₃-NH₂). Spermine, in turn, has been observed to enhance the formation of a stable noncovalent complex between mammalian topo II and DNA (43). It also has been reported that WR-2721 and its metabolites WR-1065 and WR-33278 can act as effective substrates and compete with polyamines for uptake into rat lung slices via well characterized polyamine transport processes (44). These compounds are also effective substrates for polyamine oxidase activity (45). Both aminothiols and polyamines can interact directly with and bind to DNA (46,47).

Interest in assessing the effect(s) of the aminothiol WR-1065 on enzymatic activities in K1 cells was prompted in part by these considerations. The focus of this study was limited to an investigation of topo I and II α because these enzymes are known to be important in DNA synthesis (48,49). The conditions used for the preparation of the extracts limit our

observations to the 170 kDa α isozyme of topo II. In contrast to an earlier report in which a cell-free system was used to demonstrate that the disulfide form (WR-33278) of WR-1065 was effective in stimulating the eukaryotic topo I unwinding of negatively supercoiled DNA (21), we were unable to observe any effect of WR-1065 at a concentration of 4 mM on topo I activity in K1 cells.

Topo I and II α activities were unaffected in K1 cells following exposure to ionizing radiation only. However, WR-1065 was effective in inhibiting topo II α activity. The implications of this phenomenon are at present unclear. Consistent with this inhibition of topo II α activity, however, was the demonstration that exposure of cells to WR-1065 also induced an arrest of cells in the G2/M phase of the cell cycle (see Figure 6). Topo II poisons such as VP-16, VM-26, and mAMSA are known to induce G2/M phase arrest in cells (36). The cytotoxicity of these agents has been attributed to their ability to stabilize the reaction intermediate between topo II and DNA (50). WR-1065, in contrast, is an effective radioprotector which is routinely used to enhance cell survival following irradiation or exposure to chemical toxins. The mechanism underlying the ability of WR-1065 to inhibit topo II α activity may be more analogous to that attributed to spermine and spermidine (43). These polyamines are capable of enhancing the formation of a stable noncovalent complex between topo II and DNA, thus facilitating a stimulation of the enzymatic relaxation of DNA. In contrast to the covalent cleavable complexes induced by topo II poisons, the polyamine-induced complex is not associated with the irreversible induction of DNA strand breaks but appears to be part of an endogenous regulatory mechanism involved in DNA synthesis (43).

When nuclear lysates were used to measure topo II α content, a 150-kDa band also was observed. The presence of this band suggests the occurrence of proteolytic activity in the

cellular preparations. The use of rapid cellular lysates, in contrast, demonstrates the presence of only one topo II α band at 170 kDa (see Figure 4).

The effectiveness of WR-1065 in reducing topo II α activity in K1 cells and its inability to inhibit enzymatic reactions using purified components in a cell-free system suggest that WR-1065 acts indirectly. One possible mechanism of action may involve the inhibition of protein kinase C-mediated metabolic phosphorylation of topo II α by WR-1065. (This inhibitory effect has been observed by D. Hallahan, University of Chicago; personal communication.) PKC and other kinases have been shown to phosphorylate topo II metabolically and enhance its catalytic activity (51–54). Therefore, agents inhibiting PKC-mediated phosphorylation could reduce the activity of enzymes that serve as substrates for this kinase. This mode of action is consistent with the observed reduction in the catalytic activity of topo II α in WR-1065-treated K1 cells (determined by the unknotting assay), which is not accompanied by a reduction of topo II α protein levels (determined by immunoblotting).

Historically, the focus of studies on the mechanism of action of radiation and chemoprotection has centered on the physiochemical properties of the proposed protective agents. In particular, emphasis has been directed toward assessing the abilities of protectors to scavenge free radicals, participate in chemical repair processes via the donation of hydrogen atoms, and the induction of auto-oxidation processes. Another parameter now gathering attention is the ability of these agents to influence endogenous enzymatic processes which, in turn, would influence cellular responses to radiation and chemical insult. The close structural similarity between aminothiols (i.e., WR-1065) and polyamines (i.e., spermidine and spermine) suggests that there may also be a similarity in the mechanism of action exhibited by these agents on cellular enzyme activities involved in DNA synthesis, cell cycle progression and, possibly, repair. In particular, these results extend earlier observations

(38-40) of aminothiols interactions with cellular enzymes to now include the ability of WR-1065 to affect the nuclear enzyme topoisomerase II α .

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors thank P. Dale for her technical assistance. We also thank Dr. B. Carnes for his assistance in data analysis and statistics and J. Lear for her help in the preparation of this manuscript.

This investigation was supported by the U.S. Department of Energy under Contract No. W-31-109-ENG-38, by NIH/National Cancer Institute Grant CA-37435, and by the Center for Radiation Therapy.

REFERENCES

1. M. M. Kligerman, A. T. Turrisi, R. C. Urtasun, A. L. Norfleet, T. L. Phillips, T. Barkley, and P. Rubin, Final report on Phase I trial of WR-2721 before protracted fractionated radiation therapy. *Int. J. Radiat. Oncol. Biol. Phys.* **14**, 1119–1122 (1988).
2. D. Glover, K. R. Fox, C. Weiler, M. M. Kligerman, A. Turrisi, and J. H. Glick, Clinical trials of WR-2721 prior to alkylating agent chemotherapy and radiotherapy. *Pharmacol. Ther.* **39**, 3–7 (1988).
3. P. E. V. Woolley, III, M. J. Ayoub, F. P. Smith, and A. Dritschilo, Clinical trial of the effect of S-2-(3-aminopropylamino) ethylphosphorothioic acid (WR-2721) (NSC296961) on the toxicity of cyclophosphamide. *J. Clin. Oncol.* **1**, 198–203 (1983).
4. D. Glover, J. H. Glick, C. Weiler, K. Fox, A. Turrisi, and M. M. Kligerman, Phase I/II trials of radiation and *cis*-platinum. *Int. J. Radiat. Oncol. Biol. Phys.* **12**, 1509–1512 (1986).
5. D. Glover, H. H. Glick, C. Weiler, S. Hurowitz, and M. M. Kligerman, WR-2721 protects against the hematologic toxicity of cyclophosphamide: a controlled Phase II trial. *J. Clin. Oncol.* **4**, 584–588 (1986).
6. D. J. Grdina, B. Nagy, C. K. Hill, R. L. Wells, and C. Peraino, The radioprotector WR-1065 reduces radiation-induced mutations at the hypoxanthine-guanine phosphoribosyl transferase locus in V79 cells. *Carcinogenesis* **6**, 929–931 (1985).
7. B. Nagy, P. J. Dale, and D. J. Grdina, Protection against *cis*-diamminedichloroplatinum cytotoxicity and mutagenicity in V79 cells by 2-[(aminopropyl)amino]ethanethiol. *Cancer Res.* **46**, 1132–1135 (1986).

8. B. Nagy and D. J. Grdina, Protective effects of 2-[(aminopropyl)amino]ethanethiol against bleomycin and nitrogen mustard-induced mutagenicity in V79 cells. *Int. J. Radiat. Oncol. Biol. Phys.* **12**, 1475–1478 (1986).
9. Y. Kataoka, I. Basic, J. Perrin, and D. J. Grdina, Antimutagenic effects of the radioprotector WR-2721 against fission-spectrum neutrons and ^{60}Co γ -rays in mice. *Int. J. Radiat. Biol.* **61**, 387–392 (1992).
10. D. J. Grdina, Y. Kataoka, I. Basic, and J. Perrin, The radioprotector WR-2721 reduces neutron-induced mutations at the hypoxanthine-guanine phosphoribosyl transferase locus in mouse splenocytes when administered prior to or following irradiation. *Carcinogenesis* **13**, 811–814 (1992).
11. L. Milas, N. Hunter, C. L. Stephens, and L. J. Peters, Inhibition of radiation carcinogenesis by S-2-(3-aminopropylamino)ethylphosphorothioic acid. *Cancer Res.* **44**, 5567–5569 (1984).
12. D. J. Grdina, B. A. Carnes, D. Grahn, and C. P. Sigdestad, Protection against late effects of radiation by S-2-(3-aminopropylamino)ethylphosphorothioic acid. *Cancer Res.* **51**, 4125–4130 (1991).
13. B. A. Carnes and D. J. Grdina, In vivo protection by the aminothiols WR-2721 against neutron-induced carcinogenesis. *Int. J. Radiat. Biol.* **61**, 567–576 (1992).
14. R. C. Fahey, Protection by thiols. *Pharmacol. Ther.* **39**, 101–108 (1988).
15. M. LaSalle and D. Billen, Inhibition of DNA synthesis in murine bone marrow cells by AET and cysteamine. *Ann. New York Acad. Sci.* **114**, 622–628 (1964).

16. D. J. Grdina and B. Nagy, The effect of 2-[(aminopropyl)amino]ethanethiol (WR-1065) on radiation-induced DNA damage and repair and cell progression in V79 cells. *Br. J. Cancer*, **54**, 933–941 (1986).
17. D. J. Grdina, C. P. Sigdestad, P. J. Dale and J. M. Perrin, The effect of 2-[(aminopropyl)amino]ethanethiol on fission-neutron-induced DNA damage and repair. *Br. J. Cancer* **59**, 17–21 (1989).
18. A. Chatterjee and M. JACOB-RAMAN, Modifying effect of reduced glutathione and x-ray-induced chromosome aberration and cell cycle delay in mutagenic lymphocytes in vitro. *Mutat. Res.* **175**, 73–82 (1986).
19. C. P. Sigdestad, W. Guilford, J. Perrin, and D. J. Grdina, Cell cycle redistribution of cultured cells after treatment with chemical radiation protectors. *Cell Tissue Kinet.* **21**, 193–200 (1988).
20. P. E. Brown, Mechanism of action of aminothioli radioprotectors. *Nature* **213**, 363–364 (1967).
21. E. A. Holwitt, E. Koda, and C. E. Swenberg, Enhancement of topoisomerase I-mediated unwinding of supercoiled DNA by the radioprotector WR-33278. *Radiat. Res.* **124**, 107–109 (1990).
22. K. S. Srivenugopal and D. R. Morris, Differential modulation by spermidine of reactions catalyzed by type I prokaryotic and eukaryotic topoisomerases. *Biochemistry* **24**, 4766–4771 (1985).
23. P. A. Jeggo and L. M. Kemp, X-ray sensitive mutants of Chinese hamster ovary cell line: isolation and cross-sensitivity to other DNA-damaging agents. *Mutat. Res.* **112**, 313–327 (1983).

24. G. Tandou, G. Mirambeau, C. Lavenot, A. Garabedian, J. Vermeersch, and M. Douguet, DNA topoisomerase activities in concanavalin A-stimulated lymphocytes. *FEBS Lett.* **176**, 431–435 (1984).
25. J. J. Champoux and B. McConaughy, Purification and characterization of the DNA untwisting enzyme from rat liver. *Biochemistry* **15**, 4638–4642 (1976).
26. M. M. Bradford, A rapid and sensitive method for the quantitation of microgram quantities of protein utilizing the principle of protein-dye binding. *Anal. Biochem.* **72**, 248–254 (1976).
27. L. F. Liu, J. L. Davis, and R. Calendar, Novel topologically knotted DNA from bacteriophage P4 capsids: studies with DNA topoisomerases. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **9**, 3979–3989 (1981).
28. M. Potmesil, Y-H. Hsiang, L. F. Liu, B. Bank, H. Grossberg, S. Kirschenbaum, T. J. Forlenzar, A. Penziner, D. Kanganis, D. Knowles, F. Traganous, and R. Silber, Resistance of human leukemic and normal lymphocytes to drug-induced DNA cleavage and low levels of DNA topoisomerase II. *Cancer Res.* **48**, 3537–3543 (1988).
29. U. K. Laemmli, Cleavage of structural proteins during the assembly of the head of bacteriophage T4. *Nature* **227**, 680–685 (1970).
30. J. Hwang, S. Shyy, A. Y. Chen, C. C. Juan, and J. Whang-Peng, Studies of topoisomerase-specific antitumor drugs in human lymphocytes using rabbit antisera against recombinant human topoisomerase II polypeptide. *Cancer Res.* **49**, 958–962 (1989).

31. Y. Homma, C. B. Henning-Chubb, and E. Huberman, Translocation of protein kinase C in human leukemia cells susceptible or resistant to differentiation induced by phorbol 12-myristate 13-acetate. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **83**, 7316–7319 (1986)
32. F. H. Drake, J. P. Zimmerman, F. L. McCabe, H. F. Bartus, S. R. Per, and C. K. Mirabelli, Purification of topoisomerase II from amsacrine-resistant P388 leukemia cells: evidence for two forms of the enzyme. *J. Biol. Chem.* **262**, 16739–16747 (1988)
33. A. Constantinou, K. Kiguchi, and E. Huberman, Induction of differentiation and DNA strand breakage in human HL060 and K-562 leukemia cells by Genistein. *Cancer Res.* **50**, 2618–2624 (1990).
34. W. C. Russell, C. Newman, and D. H. Williamson, A simple cytochemical technique for demonstration of DNA in cells infected with mycoplasma and viruses. *Nature* **253**, 461–463 (1975).
35. W. Göhde, J. Schumann, T. Buchner, F. Otto, and B. Barlogie, Pulse cytophotometry: application in tumor and cell biology and clinical oncology. In *Cytometry and Sorting* (M. R. Mehamed, P. F. Mulhaney, and M. L. Mendelsohn, Eds.), p. 599, John Wiley Publications, New York, 1979.
36. A. Constantinou, D. Grdina, K. Kiguchi, and E. Huberman, The effect of topoisomerase inhibitor on the expression of differentiation markers and cell cycle progression in human K-562 leukemia cells. *Exp. Cell Res.* **203**, 100–106 (1992).
37. E. Riklis, R. Iol, M. Green, A. Prager, R. Marko, and M. Mintsberg, Increased radioprotection attained by DNA repair enhancement. *Pharmacol. Ther.* **39**, 311–322 (1988).

38. J. W. Hulsewede and D. Schulte-Frohlinde, Radiation protection of *E. Coli* strains by cysteamine in the presence of oxygen. *Int. J. Radiat. Biol.* **50**, 861–869 (1986).
39. Y. N. Korystov and F. B. Vexler, Mechanisms of the radioprotective effect of cysteamine in *Escherichia coli*. *Radiat. Res.* **114**, 550–555 (1988).
40. V. G. Petin and V. L. Maatrenina, Radioprotecting action of chemical compounds in γ -irradiated yeast cells of various genotypes. *Mol. Gen. Genet.*, **183**, 152–157 (1981).
41. D. J. Grdina, B. Nagy, and P. J. Meechan, Effect of an aminothiols (WR-1065) on radiation-induced mutagenesis and cytotoxicity in two repair-deficient mammalian cell lines. In *Anticarcinogenesis and Radiation Protection 2* (O. F. Nygaard and A. C. Upton, Eds.), p. 287, Plenum Press, New York, 1991.
42. K. D. Held and S. Awad, Effects of polyamines and thiols on the radiation sensitivity of bacterial transforming DNA. *Int. J. Radiat. Biol.* **59**, 699–710 (1991).
43. Y. Pommier, D. Kerrigan, and K. Kohn, Topological complexes between DNA and topoisomerase II and effects of polyamines. *Biochemistry* **28**, 995–1002 (1989).
44. I. Wyatt, R. B. Moore, and L. L. Smith, Competition for polyamine uptake into rat lung slices by WR2721 and analogues. *Int. J. Radiat. Biol.* **55**, 463–472 (1989).
45. J. M. Gaudas, Possible association of radioprotective and chemoprotective aminophosphorothioate drug activity with polyamine oxidase susceptibility. *J. Nat. Cancer Inst.* **69**, 329–332 (1982).
46. S. Zheng, G. L. Newton, G. Gonick, R. C. Fahey, and J. F. Ward, Radioprotection of DNA by thiols: relationship between net change on a thiol and its ability to protect DNA. *Radiat. Res.* **114**, 11–27 (1988).

47. P. M. Vertino, R. J. Bergeron, P. F. Cavanaugh, and C. W. Porter, Structural determinants of spermidine interactions. *Biopolymers* **26**, 691–703 (1987).
48. I. D. Hickson, S. L. Davies, S. M. Davies, and C. N. Robson, DNA repair in radiation-sensitive mutants of mammalian cells: possible involvement of DNA topoisomerases. *Int. J. Radiat. Biol.* **58**, 561–568 (1990).
49. P. J. Smith, DNA topoisomerases and radiation responses. *Int. J. Radiat. Biol.*, **58**, 553–559 (1990).
50. L. F. Liu, DNA topoisomerase poisons as antitumor drugs. *Annu. Rev. Biochem.* **58**, 351–375 (1989).
51. D. J. Kroll and T. C. Rowe, Phosphorylation of DNA topoisomerase II in a human tumor cell line. *J. Biol. Chem.* **266**, 7957–7961 (1991).
52. M. Rottmann, H.C. Schröder, M. Gramzow, K. Renneisen, B. Kurelec, A. Dorn, U. Friese, and W. E. G. Müller, Specific phosphorylation of proteins in pore complex-laminae from the sponge *Geodia cydonium* by the homologous aggregation factor and phorbol ester. Role of protein kinase C in the phosphorylation of DNA topoisomerase II. *EMBO* **6**, 3939–3944 (1987).
53. M. Saijo, T. Enomoto, F. Hanoaka, and M. Vi, Purification and characterization of type II DNA topoisomerase from mouse FM3A cells: phosphorylation of topoisomerase II and modification of its activity. *Biochemistry* **29**, 583–590 (1990).
54. P. Ackerman, C. V. C. Glover, and N. Osheroff, Phosphorylation of DNA topoisomerase II by casein kinase II: modulation of eukaryotic topoisomerase II activity in vitro. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **82**, 3164–3168 (1985).

TABLE I

The Effects of WR-1065 and Radiation on the Activities of Topo I and II α in K1 CHO Cells, as Determined by DNA Relaxation and Unknotting Assays, Respectively.^a

Cell Type	WR-1065	γ -ray	Topo I (Units/ μ g protein) ^b	Topo II α
K1	-	-	112 \pm 20	59 \pm 14
K1	+	-	97 \pm 28	26 \pm 3 ^c
K1	-	+	82 \pm 22	53 \pm 28
K1	+	+	96 \pm 28	36 \pm 13 ^d

^aComparisons made to the corresponding untreated control groups using Student's two-tailed *t* test. Comparisons not significant, $p \geq 0.386$, except as noted.

^bMean \pm S.D. of four experiments.

^cSignificant difference at $p = 0.019$.

^dSuggestive difference at $p = 0.061$.

TABLE II

The Effects of WR-1065 and Radiation on the Protein Levels of Topo II α in K1 CHO Cells, as Determined by Immunoblotting Using an Anti-Topo II Specific Antibody.^a

Cell Type	WR-1065	γ -ray	100 \times Area ^b
K1	-	-	167 \pm 55
K1	+	-	179 \pm 49
K1	-	+	219 \pm 21
K1	+	+	163 \pm 39

^aComparisons made to the corresponding untreated control groups using Student's two-tailed *t* test. All comparisons not significant, $p \geq 0.300$.

^bMean \pm S.D. of at least three experiments.

FIGURE LEGENDS

FIG. 1. Survival curves for K1 cells irradiated with 50-kVp x-rays. Cells were either treated with 4 mM WR-1065 (■) or untreated (●). Experimental points represent the mean of three experiments; error bars represent the standard error of the mean. Survival curve parameters were determined by using a computer-fitted least-squares regression model.

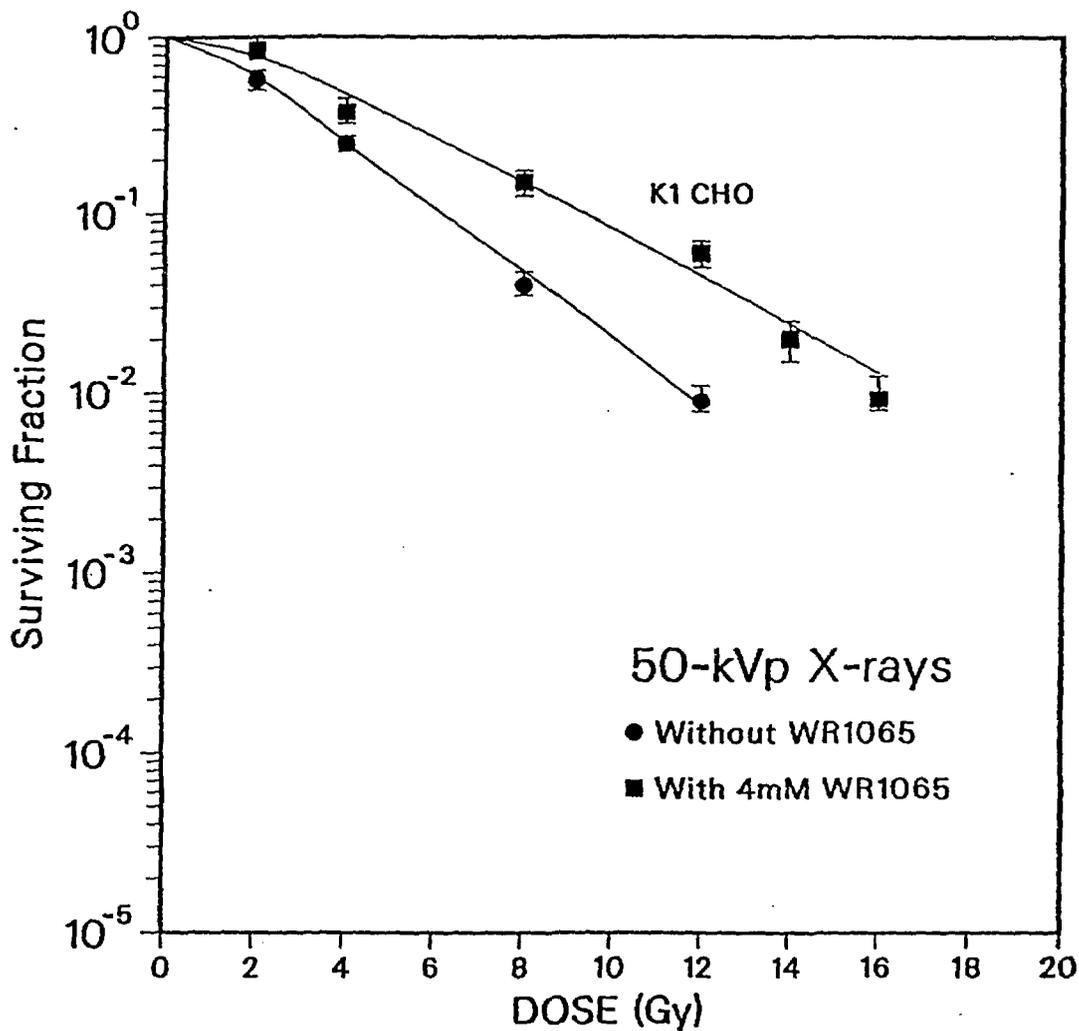
FIG. 2. Topo II α (panel A) and topo I (panel B) activity in nuclear extracts from untreated and WR-1065-treated K1 cells. Nuclear extracts containing the following amounts of protein were assayed for topo II α -mediated unknotting and topo-I-mediated relaxing activities, as described in Materials and Methods: panel A, lane 1, 80 ng; lane 2, 40 ng; lane 3, 20 ng; lane 4, 10 ng; lane 5, 5 ng; panel B, lane 1, 100 ng; lane 2, 30 ng; lane 3, 10 ng; lane 4, 3 ng; lane 5, 1 ng; (-), no nuclear extract. This is a representative experiment. Data from four such experiments were used to determine the mean activities.

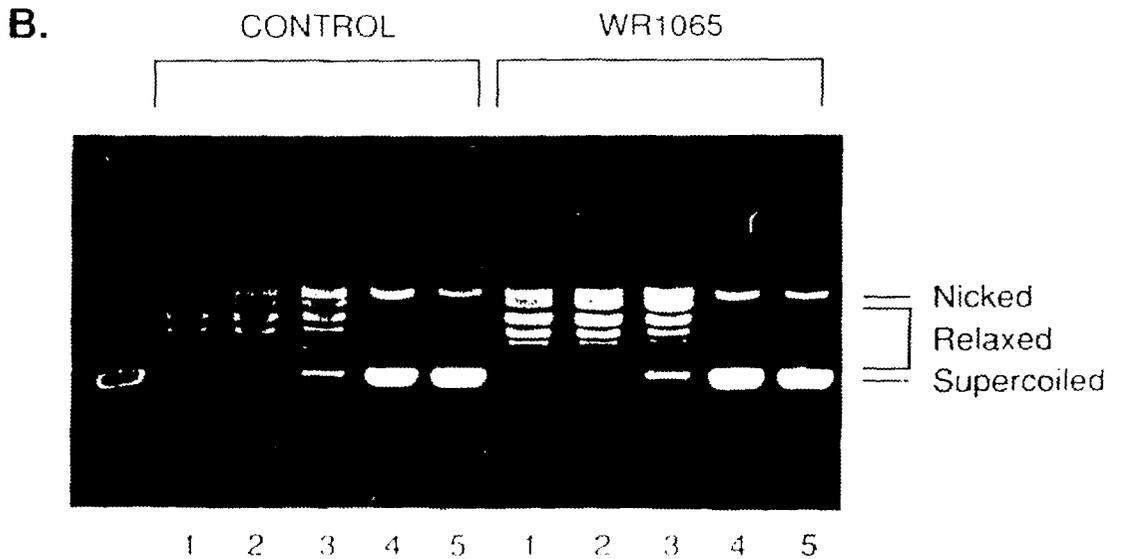
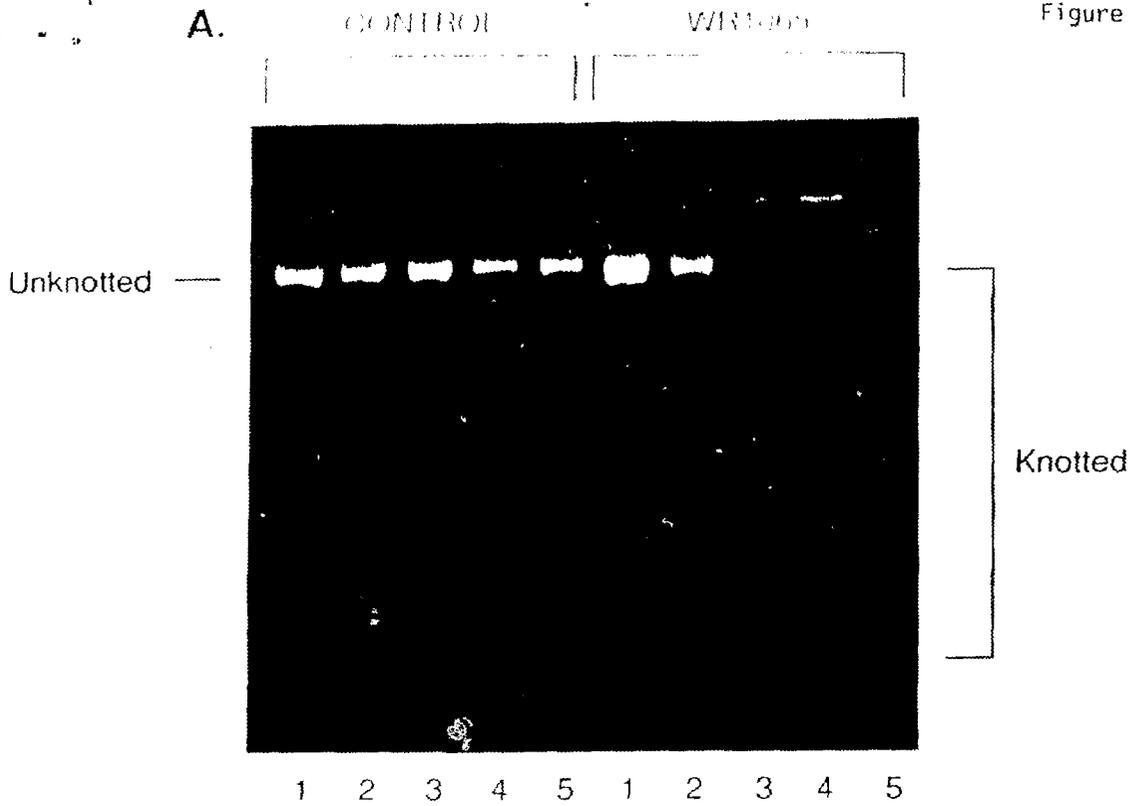
FIG. 3. Immunoblot analysis of topo II α levels in nuclear extracts from untreated and WR-1065-treated K1 cells. Logarithmically growing cells were washed twice by centrifugation at $1000 \times g$ for 5 min in PBS containing protease inhibitors and extracts. Nuclear proteins were subjected to gel electrophoresis through an 8% SDS-polyacrylamide gel and transferred to nitrocellulose. Blots were incubated with anti-topo II antibody. The molecular weights shown on the right ordinate are those of topo II α (MW 170,000) and its proteolytic products. Prestained standards with their molecular weights in thousands are shown on the left ordinate. Lane 1, untreated cells; lane 2, WR-1065-treated but unirradiated cells, lane 3; irradiated cells; lane 4, cells irradiated and treated with WR-1065.

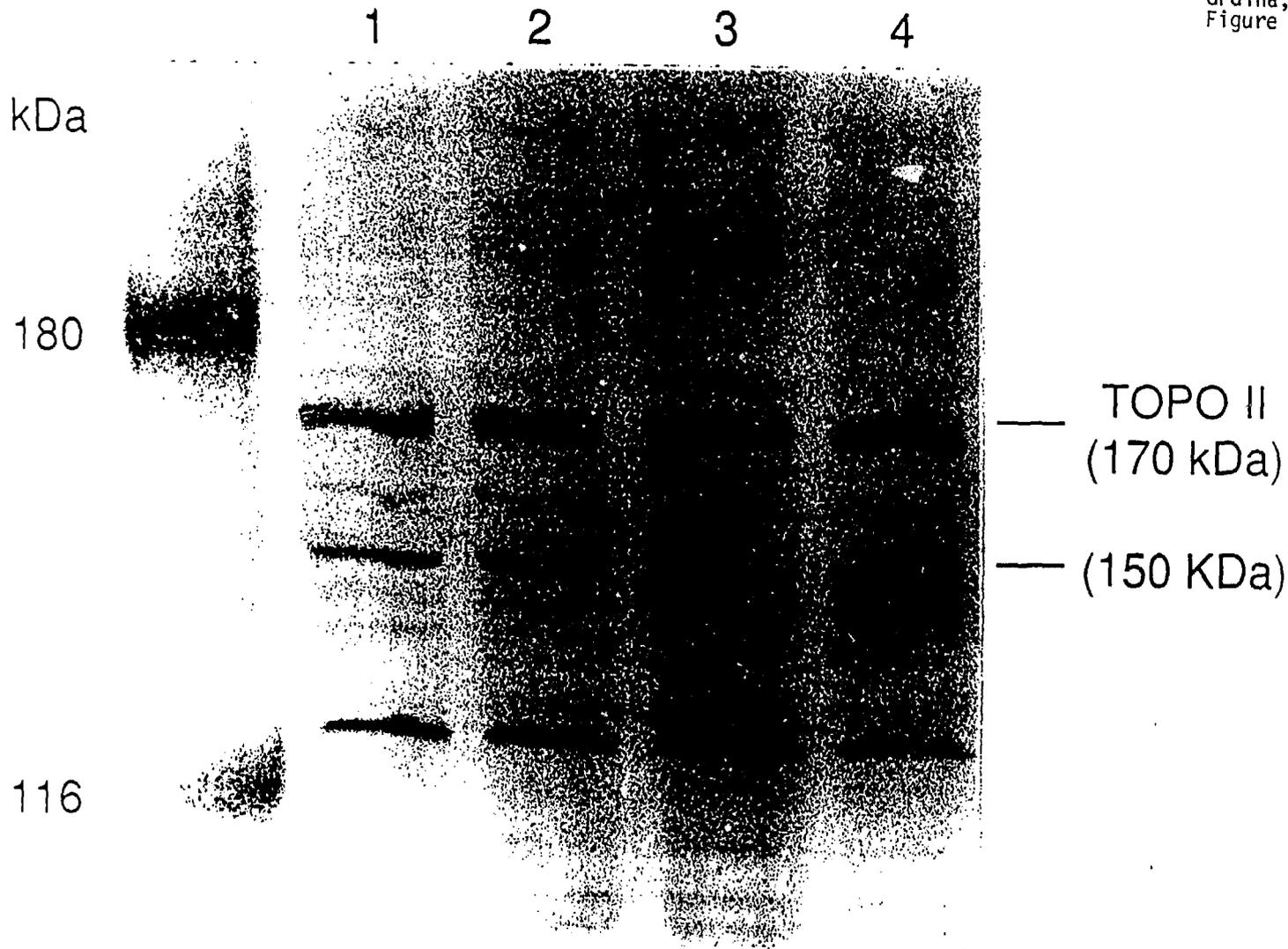
FIG. 4. Immunoblot analysis of topo II α levels in rapidly lysed cells. Conditions were similar to those described in Figure 3 with the exception that cells were lysed in electrophoresis sample buffer containing 2% SDS by boiling for 2 min.

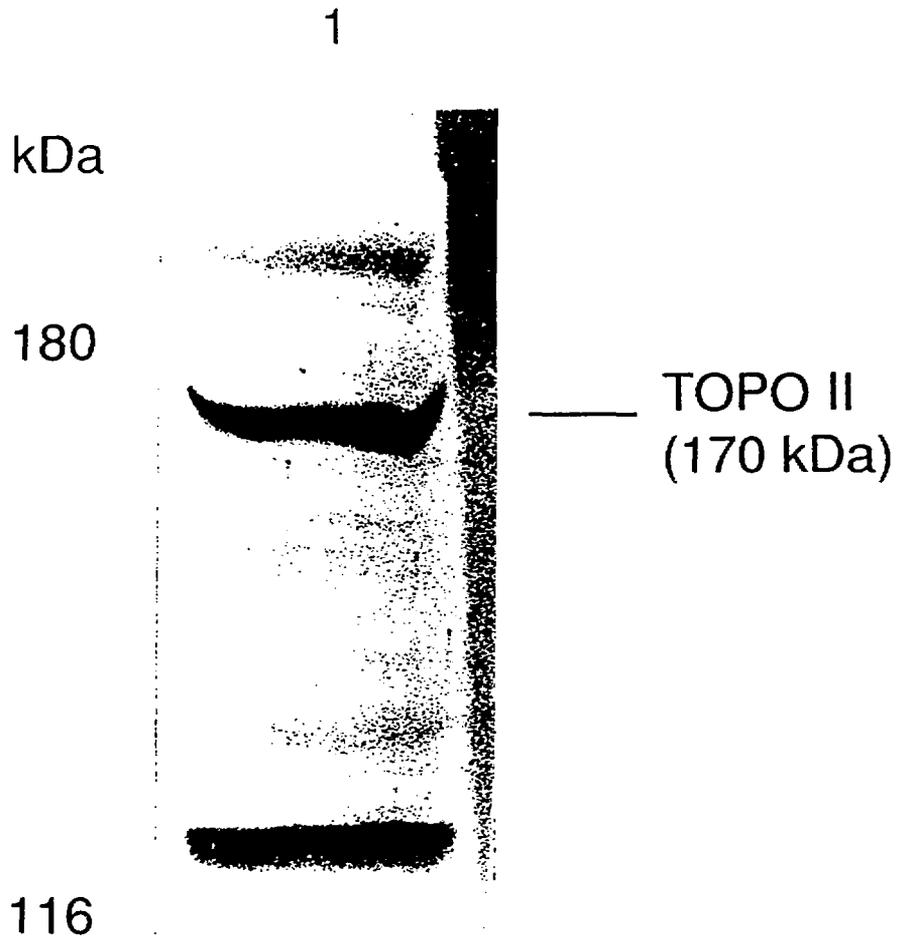
FIG. 5. Topo I (panel A) and topo II α (panel B) activity in cell-free extracts. Reaction mixtures were assayed for topo I-mediated relaxation of pUC8 plasmid DNA and topo II α -mediated unknotting of P4 phage DNA, as described in Materials and Methods: Panel A, lane 1, pUC8 DNA only; lane 2, no drug; lane 3, 0.4 mM WR-1065; lane 4, 4 mM WR-1065; lane 5, 40 mM WR-1065; lane 6, 0.5 mM Camptothecin. Panel B, lane 1, no drug; lane 2, 0.4 mM WR-1065; lane 3, 4 mM WR-1065; lane 4, 40 mM WR-1065; lane 5, 0.3 mM Genistein.

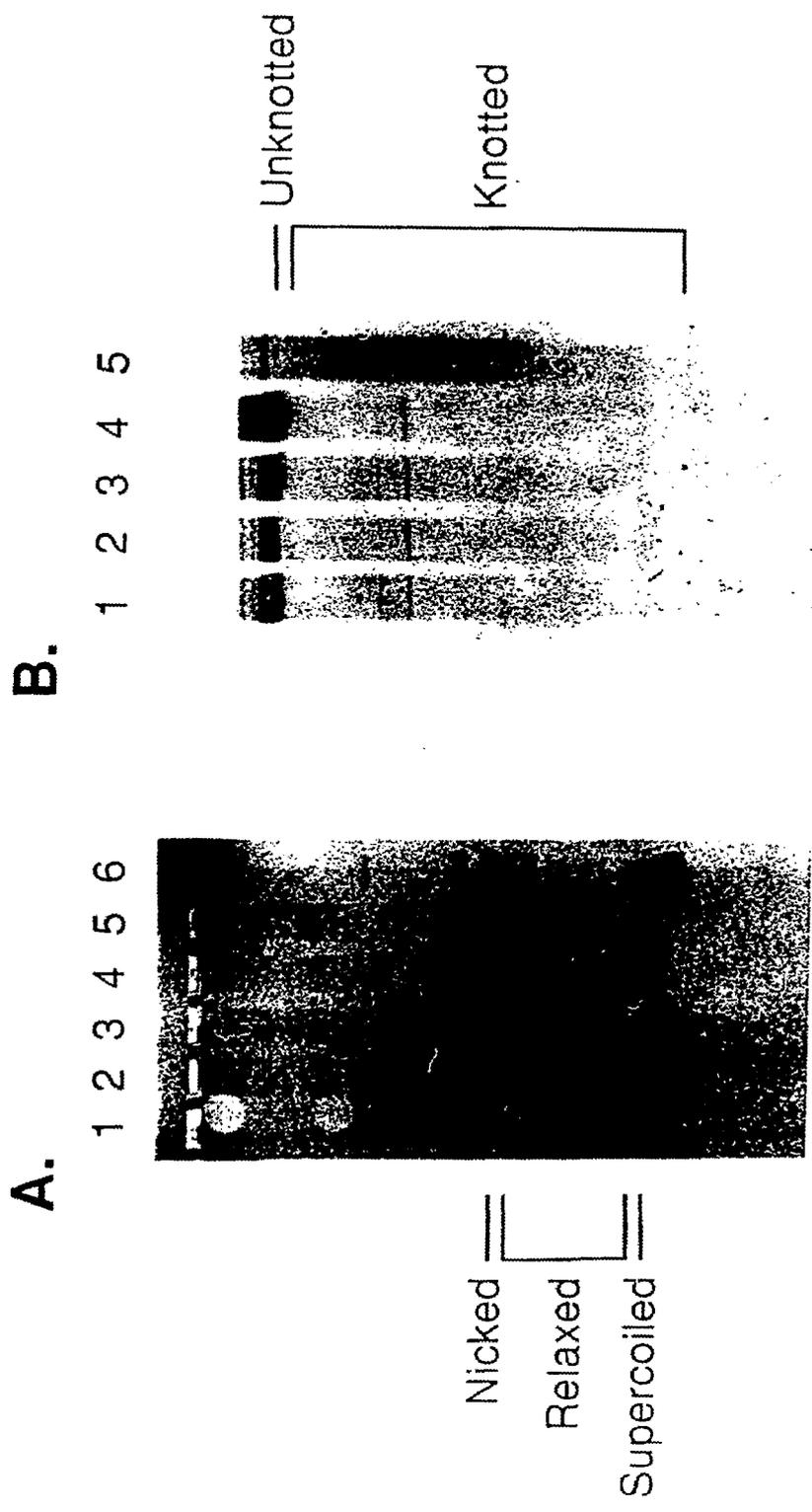
FIG. 6. Typical flow cytometry patterns describing the DNA distribution of K1 cells exposed to 4 mM WR-1065 for 0 min, 30 min, 1–6 h. During the 6 h exposure, the percent of cells in G1 fell from 35 to 21, while the percent of cells in G2 increased from 18 to 27. The percent of cells in S ranged from 43 to 46.



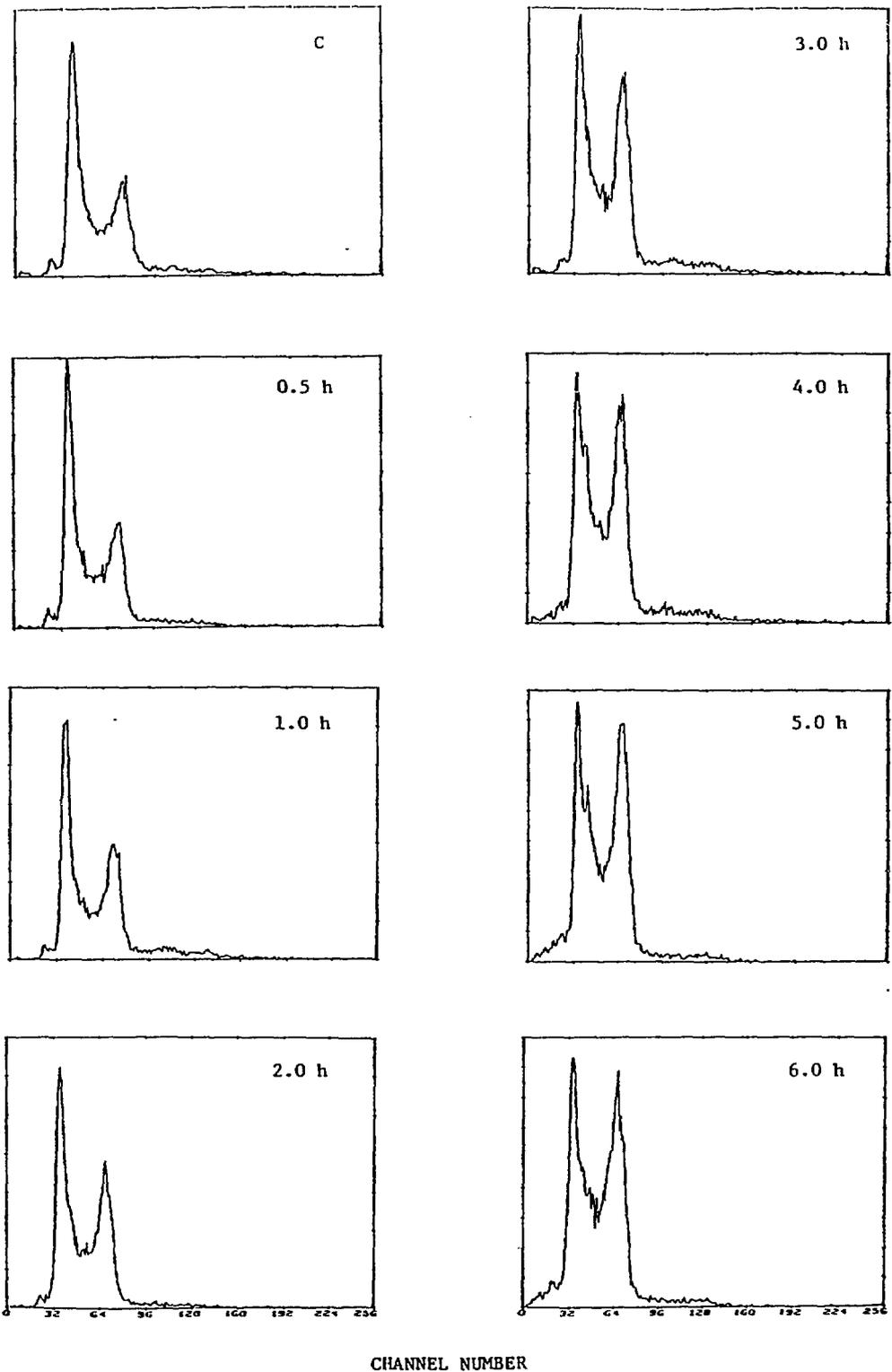








CELL NUMBER / CHANNEL



CHANNEL NUMBER