

COMMENTARY

G₂ BLOCK INDUCED BY DNA CROSSLINKING AGENTS AND ITS POSSIBLE CONSEQUENCES

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Numerous clinically used antitumor drugs as well as other antitumor agents have been studied for their effects on the cell cycle of normal as well as tumor cells.

According to the concept of Howard and Pelc [1], the cell cycle is divided into four consecutive phases: G₁, S, G₂ and M. The S and M phases represent the distinct time periods in a cell cycle when DNA synthesis or mitosis occurs, while G₁ and G₂ phases correspond to the "gaps" in time between M and S and S and M respectively. The knowledge of the stage at which the cells stop or slow down their progress through the cell cycle is of primary importance for the understanding of drug antiproliferative action. Though this information can be obtained by a variety of methods, the studies of drug effects on the cell cycle have become increasingly frequent during the last decade after the development of a very efficient technique of flow cytometry [for review see Ref. 2]. Other methods [for review see Ref. 3] for analyzing drug action on the cell cycle have been employed mainly in earlier studies.

Among antitumor agents studied to date, almost all classes of DNA crosslinking compounds are represented. The published data demonstrate that all of these drugs produce qualitatively similar effects on the cell cycle, preferentially inducing accumulation or arrest of cells in G₂ phase of the cell cycle (G₂ block). Nevertheless, even the most recent papers on this subject seem to neglect the question of the relevance of the G₂ block to the antiproliferative action of crosslinking agents. This question is discussed later in this commentary.

In Table 1 the available data on the cell cycle effects of DNA crosslinking agents are summarized. Studies on the preferential toxicity of drugs for cells in the various stages of the cell cycle are not covered by this summary. The cells in G₁, at the G₁/S boundary, and in M phases were found, in general, to be more sensitive to the lethal action of crosslinking agents [for review see, for example, Refs. 4 and 5]. This is, however, a separate issue which remains beyond the scope of this commentary. Table 1 includes the data for adriamycin and daunomycin, which have been shown recently to induce interstrand crosslinks in cellular DNA [6]. Very recently we have found that another drug included in Table 1, mitoxantrone, is also able to form interstrand DNA crosslinks in cultured HeLa S₃ cells [7].

As shown in Table 1, the cell cycle effects of DNA crosslinking agents apparently have a lot of common characteristic features, depending on drug dose and time of treatment. At low drug levels, a slow-down of cell traverse through S-phase along with some accumulation of G₂ phase cells are usually observed [e.g. 11, 14, 22, 29, 35, 40, 55]. Both effects and especially S block seem to be readily reversible upon prolonged incubation of the cells [e.g. 11, 13, 15, 35, 40]. Increased drug doses cause progressive enhancement of cell accumulation in G₂ phase leading to G₂ arrest of the majority of cell population [e.g. 11, 13, 19, 29, 35, 40, 45, 56].

The G₂ block seems to be most obvious and persistent in the case of agents exhibiting the highest antitumor efficacy (in terms of the magnitude of the increase of life span or the decrease of tumor weight in tumor bearing animals). The most efficient antitumor DNA crosslinking drugs, e.g. mitomycin C [29], *cis*-platinum [35], or adriamycin [40], were reported to induce an essentially irreversible G₂ block that persisted for several days. On the other hand, the G₂ arrest caused by melphalan [13, 16], a drug of moderate antitumor efficacy, was partially reversible, whereas Yoshi 864, which is relatively inefficient as an antitumor drug, produced a G₂ block that was reversible upon post-incubation of the cells in drug-free medium [24]. The persistence of the G₂ block depends also on the drug dose and duration of drug treatment, and even in the case of such a very potent drug as adriamycin some cells may escape from G₂ arrest when exposed to the drug given at a relatively low concentration for a short period of time [40].

It should be stressed that, in general, the range of drug concentrations causing "pure" G₂ block seems to be very narrow. This has been particularly well documented in the case of *cis*-platinum [35]. The drug levels exceeding the range which produces G₂ block induce additionally S phase arrest, and even higher drug concentrations produce also G₁ block, freezing thereby completely the cell traverse through the cell cycle [21].

The same sequence of blocks appearing in response to increasing drug concentrations was also observed when the cells were incubated with DNA crosslinking agents for various times. Higher drug levels given for shorter periods were found to be equivalent in their effects to lower drug con-

Table 1. Influence of interstrand DNA crosslinking agents on cell cycle progression

Compounds	Cells*	Method†	Effects/Remarks	Reference(s)
Nitrogen mustard	Ehrlich ascites tumor (EAT), <i>in vivo</i>	MI, A	G ₂ block after a single dose (25 µg/mouse); inhibition of DNA synthesis as a secondary effect	8
	EAT, <i>in vivo</i>	MI, FLM, CM	G ₂ block after single dose (0.3, 0.6 or 1.2 mg/kg)	9
	H.Ep. No. 2	FLM	G ₂ block, dose-dependent	10
	Normal human fibroblast	FCM	S delay followed by G ₂ block (at 0.1 to 1 µg/ml)	11
	Fanconi anemia human fibroblast		G ₂ block (at 0.01 to 0.1 µg/ml)	
Melphalan	Human lymphoblastoid Raji and TK 6 cell lines	FCM	Dose-dependent delay in S phase traverse followed by an accumulation of cells in G ₂ phase	12
	Ehrlich ascites tumor/3 lines/ <i>in vivo</i>	CM, MI	G ₂ block (at 1–5 µg/ml); reversible after prolonged post-incubation	13
	T ₁ human lymphoma	FCM	Concentration- and exposure time-dependent S delay and G ₂ block (at 0.5 to 5 µg/ml)	14, 15
	RPMI 6410	FCM	G ₂ block (at 1 µg/ml); reversible after short exposure time	16
	T ₁ human lymphoma	FCM	Concentration- and exposure time-dependent S delay and G ₂ block (at 0.5 to 10 µg/ml, 1–48 hr); S block at higher concentration	15, 17
Cyclophosphamide	M 5076 ovarian reticular sarcoma, <i>in vivo</i>	FCM	G ₂ block in sensitive tumor, transient S and G ₂ blocks in resistant tumor subline (at 200 mg/kg single dose)	18
Nitrosoareas BCNU, CCNU, Me-CCNU	CHO (Chinese hamster ovary)	FCM	Dose-dependent late S and G ₂ blocks	19
	CHO	CC	Terminal point at late G ₂	20
	CHO	PCC	G ₂ block (at 50 µg/ml, 1 hr)	21
	9L Rat brain tumor	FCM, PCM	S delay followed by G ₂ block (1 or 5 µg/ml)	22
	KHT sarcoma, <i>in vivo</i>	FCM	G ₂ /M block, accumulation of 47% of cells at 48 hr after a single dose of CCNU (7.5 mg/kg)	23
Yoshi 864	T ₁ human lymphoma	FCM	Concentration- and exposure time-dependent S delay and G ₂ block; reversible	15, 24
Mitozolomide	Lewis lung carcinoma, <i>in vivo</i>	FCM	Accumulation of cells at G ₂ /M 24 hr after drug treatment, reversed 94 hr after inactive dose (10 mg/kg) but not after effective dose (40 mg/kg)	25
Spirohydantoin mustard	9L Rat brain tumor	FCM, PCM	S delay followed by G ₂ block (at 5–20 µg/ml, 1 hr)	26, 27
	9L—Spheroids	FCM	S delay followed by G ₂ block for cycling (50%) cells (at 1.5 to 6 µg/ml)	28

Table 1—continued

Compounds	Cells*	Method†	Effects/Remarks	Reference(s)
Mitomycin C	LoVo human colon adenocarcinoma	FCM	Concentration- and exposure time-dependent S delay followed by G ₂ block. At higher concentrations also block in S and G ₁ (at 0.1 to 5 µg/ml, 1–24 hr)	29
	Fanconi anemia, 8 lines	FCM	G ₂ block (at 0.05 to 0.1 µg/ml, 24 hr)	30
	CHO	MCS	Terminal (transition) point at G ₂ , dose-dependent	31
	HEP-2, human epidermoid carcinoma	MI, PCM	G ₂ block (at 0.1 µg/ml, 4 hr)	32
	Ehrlich ascites tumor, <i>in vivo</i>	CM	G ₂ block still persisting on day 6 after a single dose (4.5 mg/kg)	33
Porfiromycin (N-methyl mitomycin)	Chick embryo fibroblast, freshly prepared	CM	G ₂ block (at 0.5 to 5 µg/ml, 24 hr)	34
<i>cis</i> -Dichlorodiammineplatinum (II)	LoVo human colon adenocarcinoma	FCM	Concentration- and exposure time-dependent S delay, followed by irreversible G ₂ block; at higher concentration also blocks in S and G ₁ (at 0.5 to 10 µg/ml, 1–48 hr)	35
	Ehrlich ascites	FCM	G ₂ block, reversible at low concentration; at higher concentration also blocks in S (at 5×10^{-7} to 5×10^{-5} M, 4–48 hr)	36
	Zea Mays L. root meristematic	CM	G ₂ block (at 5 µg/ml, 24–48 hr)	37
	HeLa S3	MI	Inhibition of G ₂ progression (at 0.1 µg/ml)	38
	CHO	LF, MI	G ₂ block (at 0.4 to 2 µg/ml)	39
Adriamycin	T ₁ human lymphoma	FCM	Concentration- and exposure time-dependent delays in G ₁ , S and G ₂ , followed by G ₂ block, reversible at low concentration and irreversible at higher concentration (at 0.05 to 0.5 µg/ml, 1–48 hr)	40
	CHO	FCM, CC	G ₂ block, terminal point located 72 min prior to prophase (at 1–10 µg/ml, 2 hr)	41
	CHO	MCS	Dose-dependent terminal (transition) point at S/G ₂ boundary for 0.1 µg/ml, and late G ₂ for higher concentration	31, 42
	CHO synchronized	FCM	G ₂ block (at 1 µg/ml, 1 hr)	43
	CCRF-CEM human lymphoblast	FCM	Cell accumulation at late S and G ₂ (at 0.1 to 0.5 µg/ml), inhibition of cell cycle traverse at higher concentration	44, 45
	CHP-100 human neuroblastoma	FCM, MI	Concentration- and exposure time-dependent G ₂ block (at 10–100 µg/ml, 1–24 hr)	46
	Sarcoma 180	FCM	G ₂ block (at 0.2 and 2 µg/ml, 1 hr)	47
	V 79 hamster	FCM	G ₂ block (at 0.2 to 4 µg/ml, 1 hr)	48
	P 388 mouse leukemia, <i>in vivo</i>	FCM	Cell accumulation in S and G ₂ after 12 hr of drug treatment (4 mg/kg)	49

Continued

Table 1—continued

Compounds	Cells*	Method†	Effects/Remarks	Reference(s)
Daunomycin	Ehrlich ascites	FCM	G ₂ block (at 10–100 µg/ml)	50
	HeLa S3	MI	Inhibition of G ₂ progression	38
	CHO	LF, MI	G ₂ block (at 0.5 to 4 µg/ml)	39
	Chick and rat embryo fibroblast	CM, MI	G ₂ block (at 0.5 µg/ml)	51
	L-929 mouse fibroblast	FCM	G ₂ block (at 0.05 µg/ml, continuous exposure or at 1 µg/ml, 4 hr) in synchronized cultures	52, 53
Dihydroxyanthraquinone, mitoxantrone	Ehrlich ascites tumor, <i>in vivo</i>	CM	G ₂ block after a single dose (25 µg/mouse), reversible after a few days	54
	CHO	FCM	Concentration- and exposure time-dependent delay in S, followed by G ₂ block (at 2 × 10 ⁻⁸ to 2 × 10 ⁻⁵ M, 2–24 hr)	55
	FL 745 Friend leukemia, L1210 mouse leukemia, CHO	FCM	Concentration-dependent G ₂ arrest at dose range of 1–10 µg/ml. Terminal point for FL cells at late G ₂	56, 57
		MCS	Dose-dependent terminal (transition) point at S/G ₂ boundary and at G ₂ /M boundary for 10 ⁻⁴ µg/ml and 100 µg/ml respectively	58
		FCM	G ₂ block (at 2 × 10 ⁻⁷ M, UV 0.3 J/cm ²)	59
Psolarens 3,5'-8-Trimethylpsolarens and UV	S-91 Cloudman murine melanoma	FCM	G ₂ block (at 2 × 10 ⁻⁷ M, UV 1 J/cm ²)	60
	S-91 Cloudman, CRL-1295 diploid human skin fibroblast	FCM	G ₂ block (at 0.1 µg/ml, UV 5 kJ/m ² or at 1 µg/ml, UV 1 to 2.5 kJ/m ²)	61
8-Methoxypsolarens and UV	FM3A mouse mammary carcinoma	FCM	Concentration-dependent G ₂ block (at 1–3 µM, UV 0.3 J/cm ²), S and G ₁ block at higher concentration	62
4'-Hydroxymethyltrioxalen and UV	S-91 Cloudman	FCM		

* The cited studies were performed under *in vitro* conditions unless indicated otherwise.
† MI, mitotic index; A, autoradiography; CM, cytometry (static); FLM, fraction of labeled mitosis; FCM, flow cytometry; CC, cell counting; PCC, premature chromosome condensation; PCM, pulse chase method; MCS, mitotic cell selection; and LF, labelled fraction.

centrations present during prolonged incubation [e.g. 35, 40].

It is striking, however, that all the DNA crosslinking drugs tested to date for their cell cycle effects were found to induce G₂ block. Thus, it seems justified to suggest that induction of G₂ block represents a typical cellular effect of DNA crosslinking compounds.

The 9-amino-1-nitroacridines, a new class of DNA crosslinking agents [63, 64], seem to be an exception since they preferentially induce accumulation of HeLa S₃ cells in S phase [65]. However, lysis of the treated cells, observed at higher concentrations of 9-amino-1-nitroacridines, may preferentially affect the cells in one particular phase, thereby concealing a block in other than S phases of the cell cycle.

The mechanism of G₂ block induced by various antitumor agents remains largely obscure. By using a premature chromosome condensation technique, Rao [66] found that G₂ arrest caused by a number of antitumor drugs, including several DNA crosslinking compounds, is associated with extensive chromosome damage, such as gaps and breaks. This author also found a direct correlation between the chromosome damage and cell accumulation in G₂ [66]. Further, Rao has suggested that the cells arrested in G₂ by drug action are depleted of mitotic factors, specific proteins required for mitotic transition [for review see Ref. 67].

Crosslinking agents usually induce many more single-strand DNA lesions than interstrand crosslinks [for review see Refs. 68 and 69]. The latter lesion, however, is considered more lethal and only a few crosslinks per cell are sufficient for inhibition for cell proliferation or even for cell death [e.g. 63, 68]. Such a small number of DNA crosslinks is not sufficient to cause a measurable inhibition of DNA replication but, conceivably, it could suffice for G₂ arrest induction, e.g. by preventing the strand segregation (the separation of the two copies of replicated DNA) and thus disturbing the formation of specific higher order chromatin structure which is a prerequisite for the cell to enter the mitotic phase. The recent studies by Sognier and Hittelman [70] have demonstrated that the cells damaged by the crosslinking agent mitomycin C undergo chromosome condensation even though their DNA synthesis is not fully completed, which in turn leads to the deletions in the unreplicated sites of genome. Although single-strand lesions and some secondary mechanisms, e.g. DNA repair, may contribute to the generation of G₂ block, their role is likely to be limited.

The hypothesis that interstrand crosslinks, as opposed to other lesions, play a crucial role in the mechanism of G₂ block induced by DNA crosslinking agents seems to be worth investigating in detail in specially designed studies. If this hypothesis is true, one may expect that persistence of G₂ block will be parallel to the stability of the crosslinks in cellular DNA. Yoshi 864, an agent which induces easily reversible G₂ block [24], may be useful in this kind of studies.

The numerous papers on G₂ block induction by DNA crosslinking agents reviewed in this article allow one to draw some general conclusions concerning the mechanism of cytotoxic and anti-

neoplastic action of this class of antitumor drugs. It has been commonly observed that interstrand DNA crosslinks give rise to the impairment of DNA synthesis. The latter effect is widely believed to be responsible for inhibition of cell proliferation and eventually for cell killing by crosslinking agents. On the other hand, the observation that DNA crosslinking compounds induce G₂ block at lower concentrations than S phase block implies that under certain conditions these agents are able to inhibit cell proliferation without considerably affecting DNA synthesis. Such a straightforward interpretation seems to have been overlooked in the literature, though it stems from the obvious fact that the cells entering G₂ phase, to become arrested at this stage, have already completed or almost completed their DNA synthesis. Hence, G₂ arrest which precedes S phase block can be considered as a major factor in antiproliferative action of DNA crosslinking drugs even if its role is limited only to a certain narrow range of treatment conditions. This also means that inhibition of DNA synthesis leading to S phase block could become a major cause of growth inhibition only at higher drug concentrations or after a prolonged treatment. G₁ block induced by crosslinking agents is of negligible importance to growth inhibition since it occurs only at very high drug concentrations.

The hitherto reviewed observations on cell cycle effects of DNA crosslinking drugs come almost exclusively from the studies performed on cultured cells *in vitro*. The relevance of the mentioned findings to the situation *in vivo* remains to be established. However, the fact that the G₂ block is the first (in terms of drug level) cause of growth inhibition *in vitro* tempts one to hypothesize that the maximal antitumor effects observed at optimal curative drug doses are mainly due to the induction of G₂ block rather than to the inhibition of DNA synthesis. The studies *in vivo* are scarce, and most of them have been carried out on ascites tumors (chiefly Ehrlich ascites tumor) where the drugs were given intraperitoneally [8, 9, 13, 15, 49, 54]. It should be pointed out that the conclusions from such studies are of limited value since the model where tumor cells grow in peritoneal fluid and the drug is administered directly to tumor cell suspension provides conditions resembling closely those in tissue culture *in vitro*. In this light, it seems especially interesting to note that a few studies performed *in vivo* on solid tumors have provided support for the mentioned hypothesis. In the case of cyclophosphamide, D'Incalci *et al.* [18] have found that this drug clearly induces G₂ block in ovarian reticular sarcoma (M 5076) cells when given to tumor-bearing mice at doses required to produce the maximal increase of animal life span. This incidental finding remained beyond the main focus of these studies and has not been commented on by authors [18]. In another study performed *in vivo* on KHT in mice, a nitroso-urea derivative, CCNU, has been shown to induce G₂ block and to cause maximal increase of life span at the same dose [23]. Very recently Broggini *et al.* [25] have showed that mitozolomide, a new DNA crosslinking agent, induces G₂ block in solid Lewis lung carcinoma cells in mice at therapeutic doses.

These three publications suggest that G_2 block may contribute to the *in vivo* antitumor effects of DNA crosslinking agents. However, the additional verification of this hypothesis would be provided by specially designed and more detailed studies on the influence of other DNA crosslinking compounds, especially those with high antitumor activity, on the cell cycle in solid tumors *in vivo*. The above hypothesis is supported also by the previously mentioned *in vitro* observation that the drugs of very high antitumor efficacy produce persistent G_2 block, whereas less effective agents seem to induce only transient G_2 arrest. In the latter case, it seems plausible that repeated or relatively higher drug doses (which may be required for maintenance of growth inhibition) could give rise to enhanced toxic side effects, thereby decreasing overall antitumor efficacy.

It should be stressed that the suggested mechanism of *in vivo* tumor growth inhibition by G_2 arrest may well be limited only to a narrow range of doses (presumably close to, or lower than, optimal dosage). Beyond this range and, perhaps, even within it, some other mechanisms, e.g. inhibition of DNA synthesis, are likely to contribute to tumor growth inhibition. This seems particularly likely in the case of DNA crosslinking agents that are less efficient as antitumor drugs.

The implications of G_2 block for the mechanism of antitumor action have been apparently overlooked in the literature not only for DNA crosslinking agents but also for other classes of antitumor DNA-damaging agents that are known to block cell cycle traverse in G_2 phase. The question why the G_2 phase is such a common blockage point remains unresolved at present. The G_2 phase involves dynamic, extremely complex changes in chromatin structure at several levels of its organization. Segregation of daughter DNA molecules and subsequent condensation of chromatin before mitosis comprise the entire genome (as opposed to replication which occurs locally at a given time). It is conceivable that these processes can be dramatically disturbed even by a relatively low number of lesions. This could be the reason why other DNA-damaging agents (e.g. strand-scission drugs such as bleomycin) also induce G_2 block.

Though further extensive studies are required to provide the information lacking about the mechanism and biological role of G_2 block induced by DNA crosslinking agents, the confirmation of the hypothesis presented may have considerable significance for tumor chemotherapy in general, and especially for the use of these agents in combination with other drugs.

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