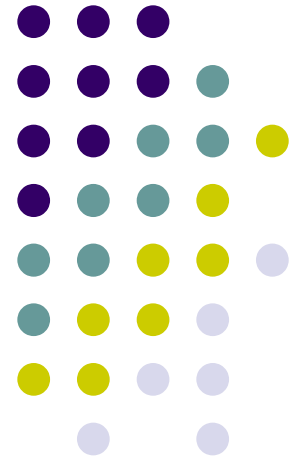


**Curso de Radiobiología**  
**UDELAR**  
**Facultad de Ciencias**  
**Unidad de Física Médica**

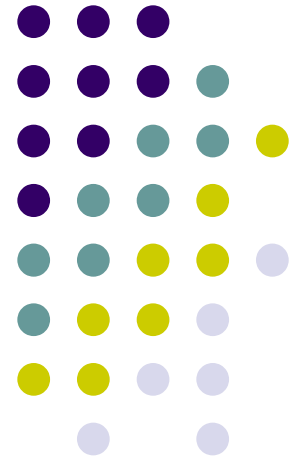
**Dr. Eduardo Francisco Larrinaga Cortina**



# 4R. Redistribución

**Créditos:**

**Dr. Jerry Battista**

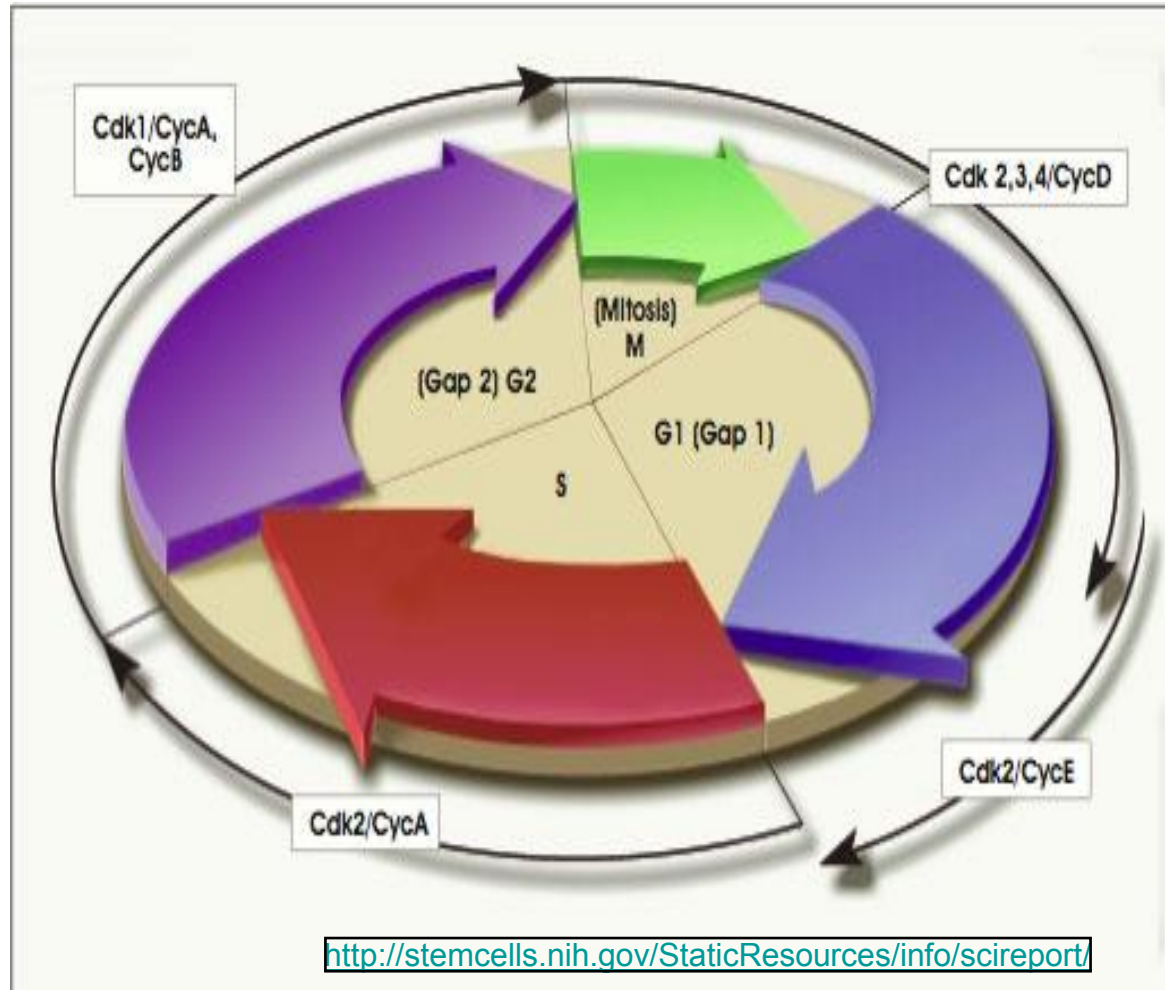


March  
2011

# R2

## Cell Re-Assortment or Cell Redistribution

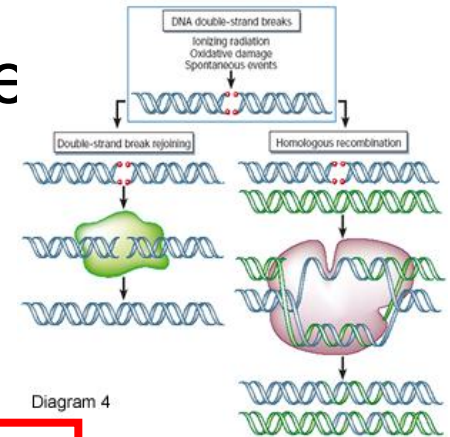
J. Battista, Ph.D.



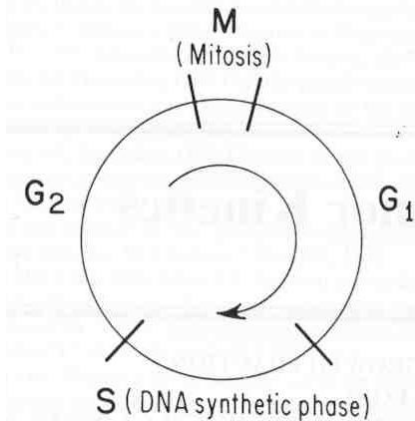
Chapters 4,5,17,21

# Radiobiology “4 R’s”

- R1 – Repair of Sublethal DNA Damage
  - DSB’s repaired by a set of enzymes
  - DSB Repair time on the order of hours

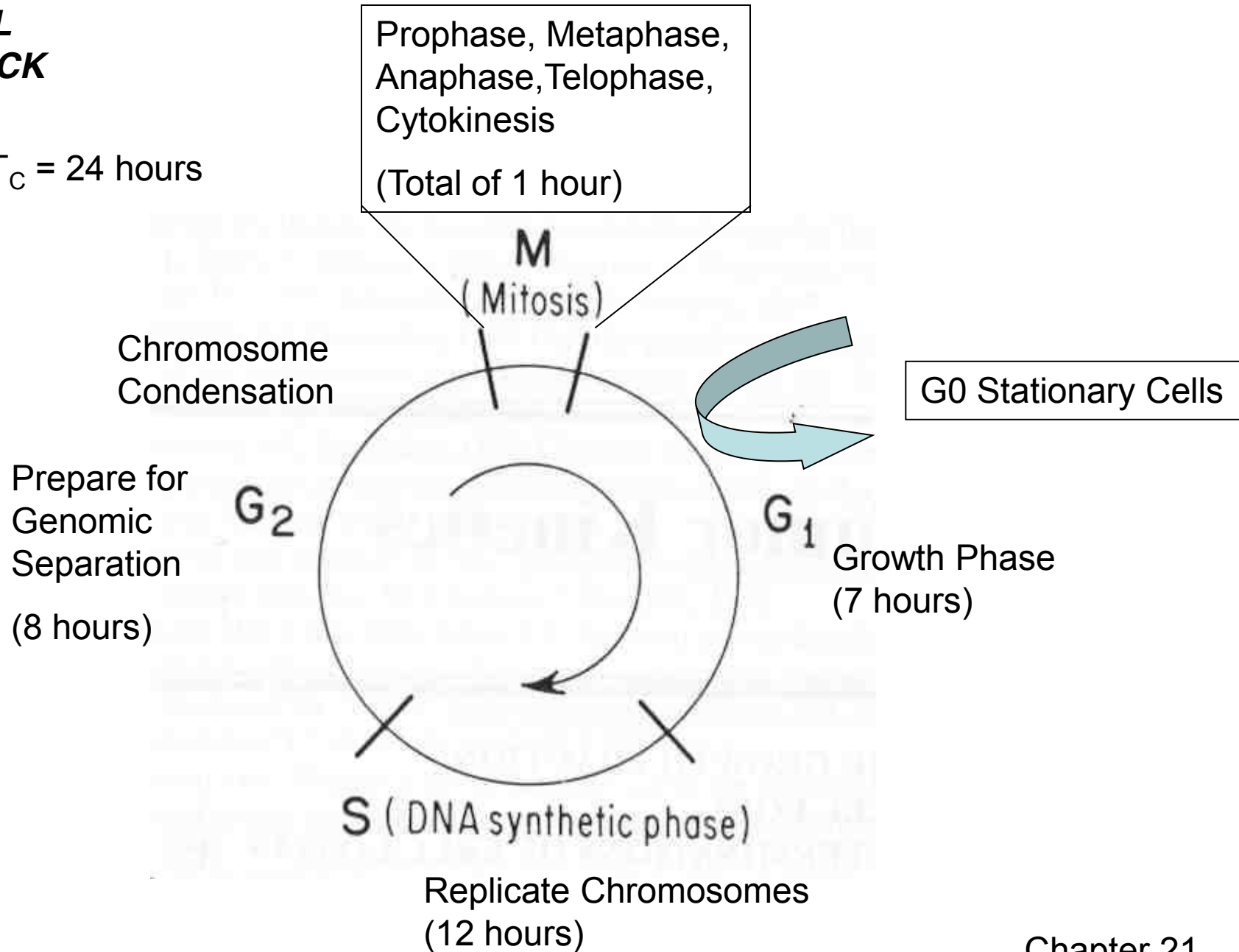


- R2 – Re-Assortment or Redistribution
  - Cell Cycle Effect or Cell Age effect
  - Explains Inverse Dose Rate Effect
  - Time scale on the order of  $<$  cell cycle period ( $< T_c$ )



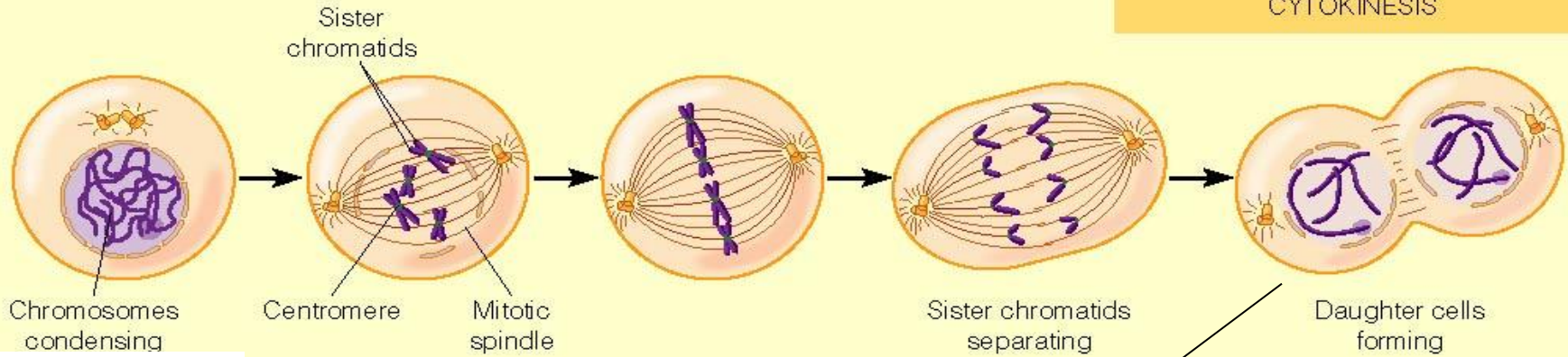
# CELL CLOCK

e.g.  $T_C = 24$  hours



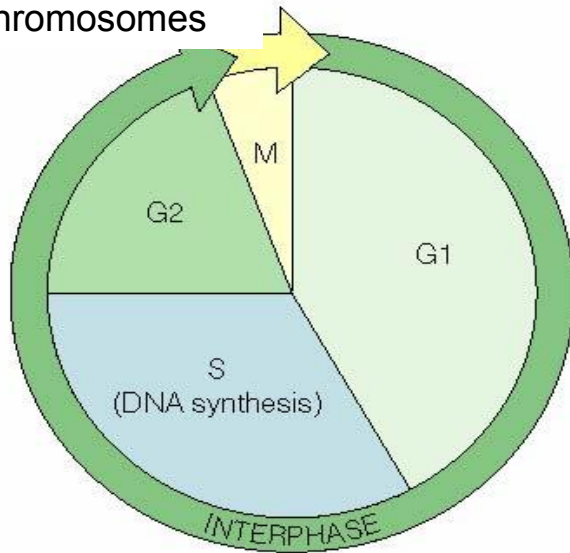
MITOSIS

CYTOKINESIS



(a) The M (mitotic) phase

In G2 phase  
 $2n = 46$   
 'dual-legged'  
 chromosomes



(b) The cell cycle

In G1 phase  
 $2n = 46$  single-legged  
 chromatids

In human cells,  
 $n = 23$  chromosomes  
*per parent*

# Cell Phase Durations in Experimental Systems

**TABLE 21.1.** *The Constituent Parts of the Cell Cycle for Some Cells in Culture and Tumors in Experimental Animals*

Authors	Cell or Tissue	$T_C$ , h	$T_S$ , h	$T_M$ , h	$T_{G2}$	$T_{G1}$
Bedford	Hamster cells <i>in vitro</i>	10	6	1	1	2
	HeLa cells <i>in vitro</i>	23	8	1	3	11
Steel	Mammary tumors in the rat					
	BICR/M1	19	8	~1	2	8
	BICR/A2	63	10	~1	2	50
Quastler and Sherman	Mouse intestinal crypt	18.75	7.5	0.5	0.5–1.0	9.5
Brown and Berry	Hamster cheek pouch epithelium	120–152	8.6	1.0	1.9	108–140
	Chemically induced carcinoma in pouch	10.7	5.9	0.4	1.6	2.8

More Variable

*of the Cell Cycle ( $T_C$ ) in 41 Human and Solid Tumors of Various Histologic Types*

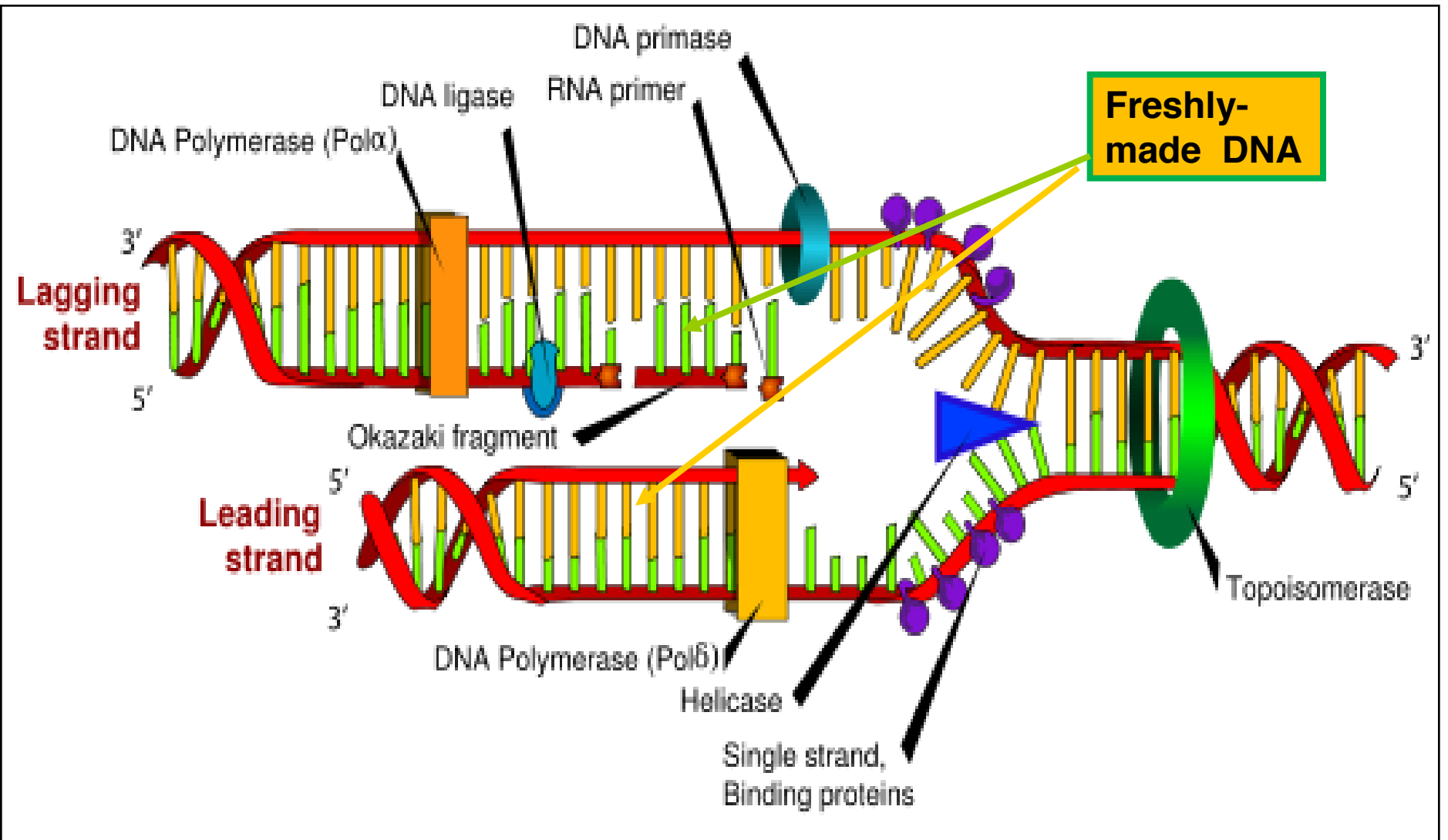
Authors	$T_C$ , h
Frindel <i>et al.</i> (1968)	97, 51.5, 27.5, 48, 49.8
Bennington (1969)	15.5, 14.9
Young and de Vita (1970)	42, 82, 74
Shirakawa <i>et al.</i> (1970)	120, 144
Weinstein and Frost (1970)	217
Terz <i>et al.</i> (1971)	44.5, 31, 14, 25.5, 26,
Peckham and Steel (1973)	59
Estevez <i>et al.</i> (1972)	37, 30, 48, 30, 38, 96, 48
Terz and Curutchet (1974) <sup>a</sup>	18, 19, 19.2, 120
Malaise <i>et al.</i> (unpublished data) <sup>a</sup>	24, 33, 48, 42
Muggia <i>et al.</i> (1972)	64
Bresciani <i>et al.</i> (1974)	82, 50, 67, 53, 58

<sup>a</sup>Measured by the mean grain count halving time.

From Tubiana M, Malaise E: Growth rate and cell kinetics in human tumors: Some prognostic and therapeutic implications. In Symington T, Carter RL (eds): Scientific Foundations of Oncology, pp 126–136. Chicago, Year Book Medical Publishers, 1976, with permission.



# DNA Replication in S-Phase



# Pulse/Flash S-Labeling

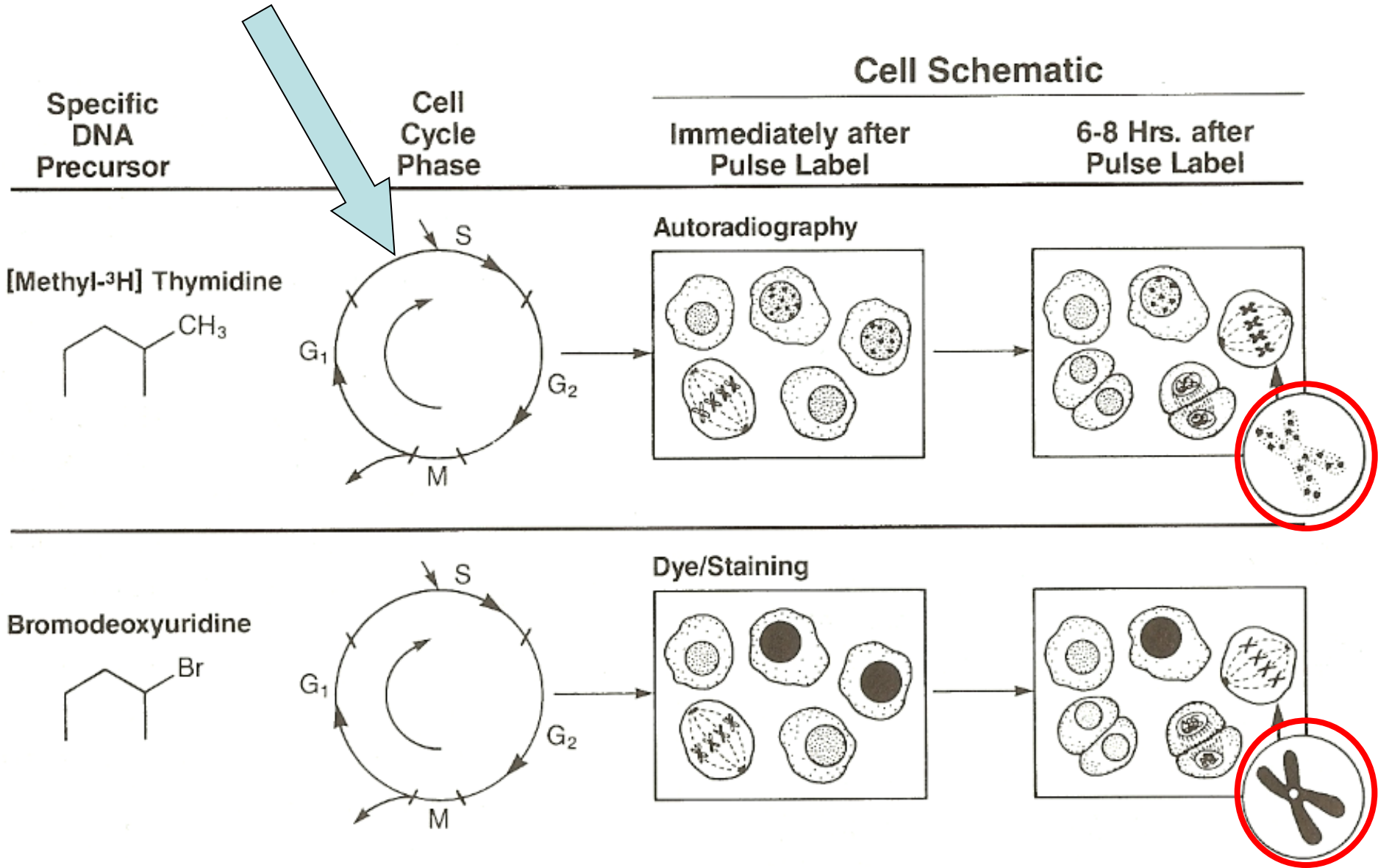


Fig 4.2

# % Labeled Mitosis

**FIGURE 4.3** ● **A:** Autoradiograph of Chinese hamster cells in culture flash-labeled with tritiated thymidine. The black grains over some cells indicate that they were synthesizing DNA when they were labeled. Also shown is a labeled mitotic cell. This cell was in S phase when the culture was flash-labeled but moved to M phase before it was stained and autoradiographed. **B:** Photomicrograph showing cells labeled and unlabeled with bromodeoxyuridine. Cells were grown in the presence of bromodeoxyuridine and then fixed and stained 20 hours later. Incorporated bromodeoxyuridine stains purple, which shows up dark in this black-and-white print; the rest of the cell is light blue. The stained interphase cell indicates that it was in S phase during the time the bromodeoxyuridine was available. Also shown is a first-generation mitotic cell, which had been in S phase at the time the bromodeoxyuridine was available and had moved to M phase by the time it was fixed and stained. It can be identified as first-generation because both chromatids of each chromosome are stained uniformly. **Inset:** A second-generation mitotic cell, which passed through two S phases during bromodeoxyuridine availability. One chromatid of each chromosome is darker because both strands of the DNA double helix have incorporated bromodeoxyuridine. One chromatid is lighter because only one strand of the DNA has incorporated bromodeoxyuridine. (Courtesy of Dr. Charles Geard.)



# Cell Cycle Analysis *via* % Labeled Mitosis

Observation window in mitosis

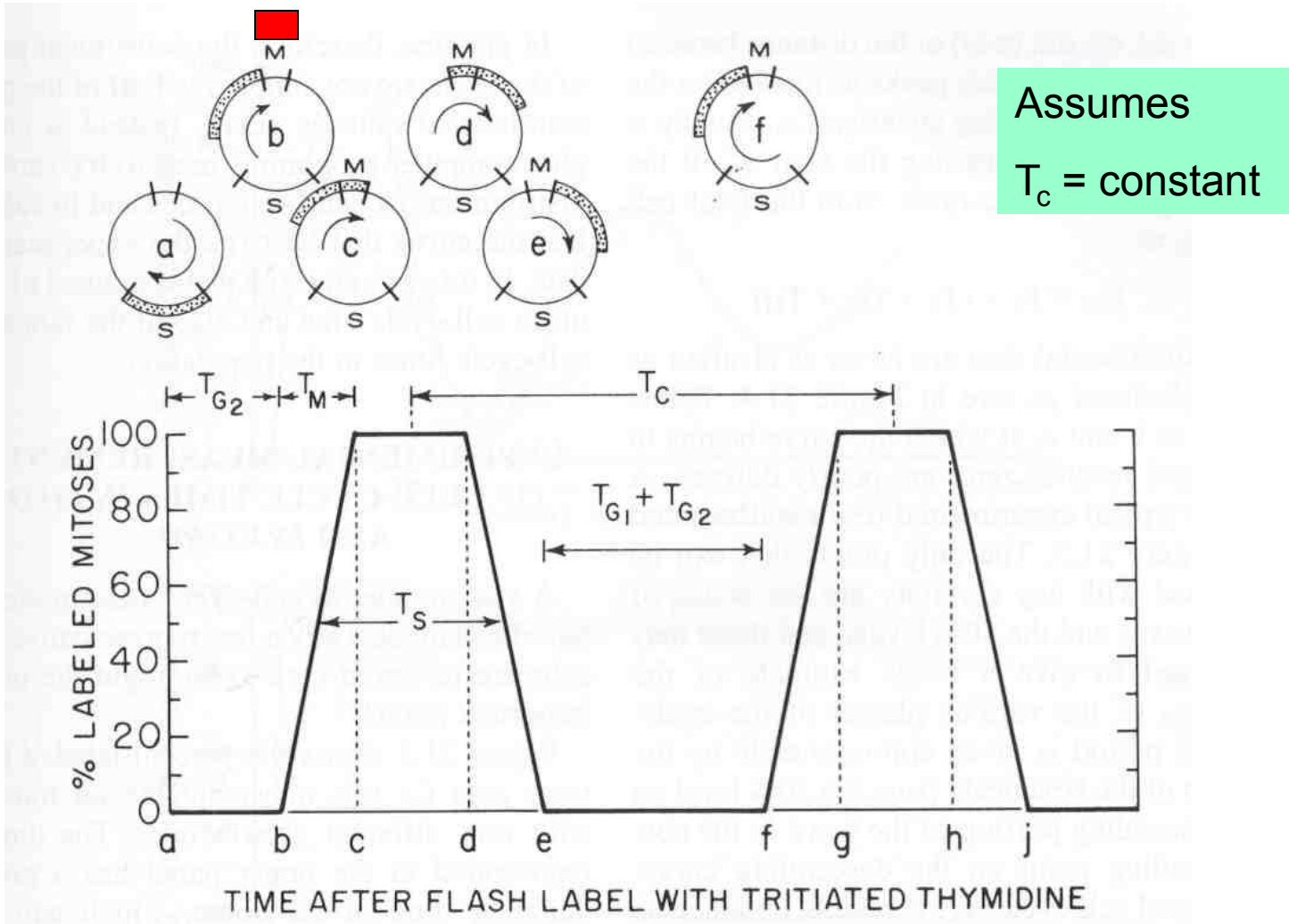
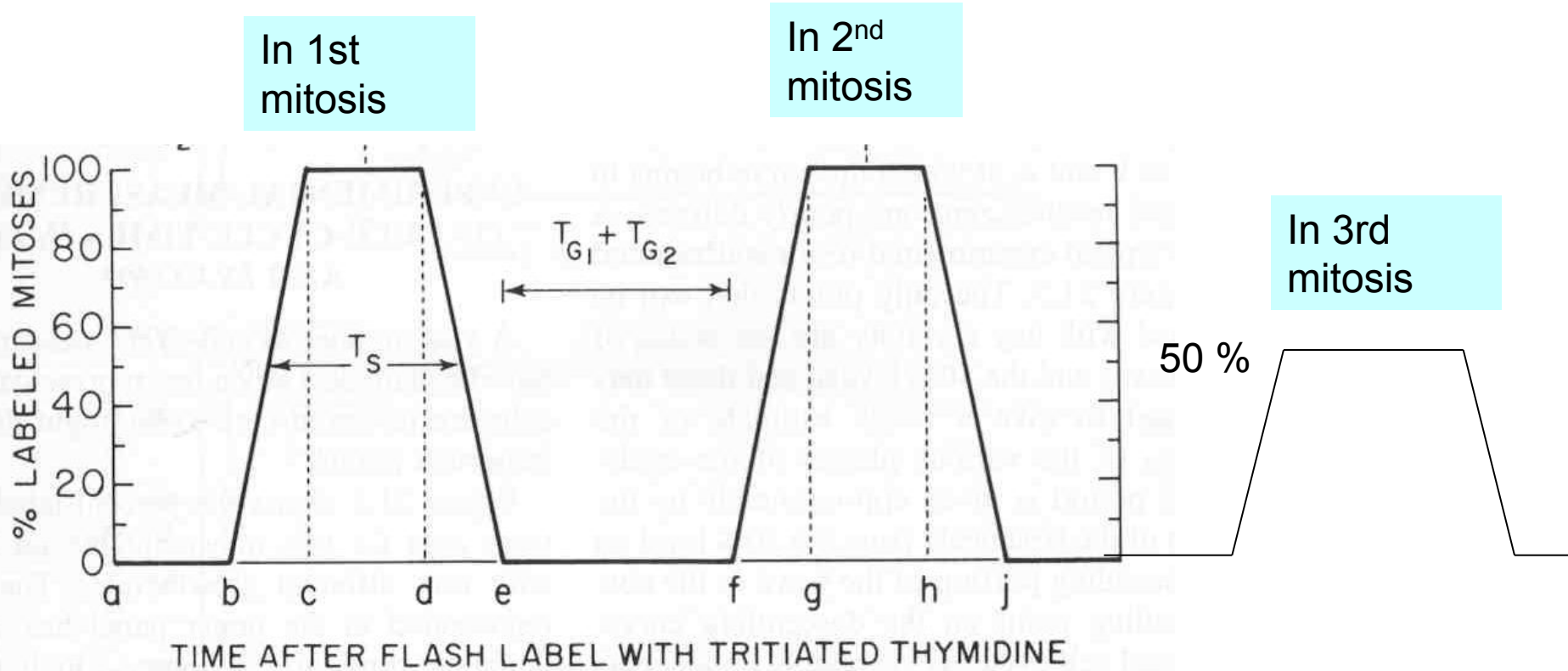


Fig 21.4

# Multiple Cell Cycles

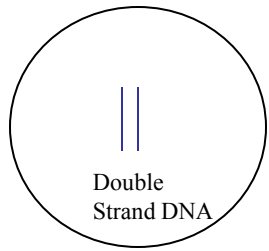
## Dilution Effect



Assuming  $T_c = \text{constant}$

# DILUTION at M3

Labeled strand is red  
Original strand is blue

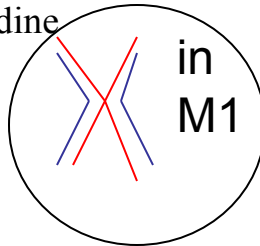


G1 cell

DNA with both Strands visible

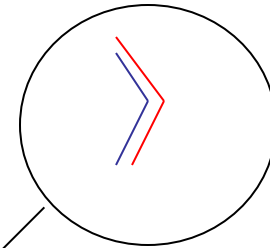
Pulse with tritiated thymidine

DNA replication

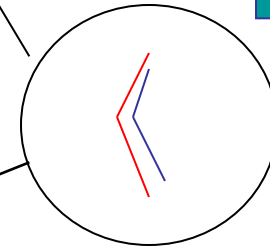


S phase cell  
Label Present

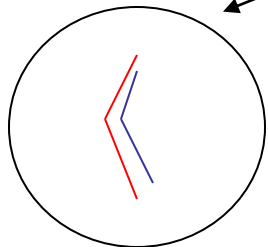
G1



2 daughters  
100% cells labelled



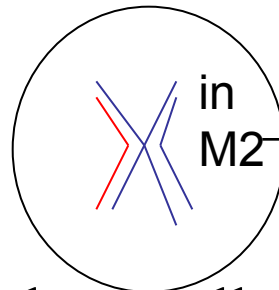
At the 3<sup>rd</sup>  
Mitosis only  
50% of cells  
are labeled



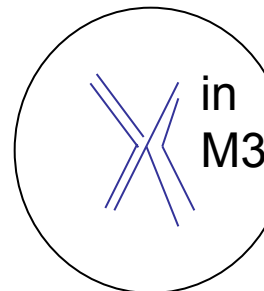
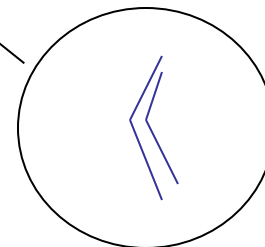
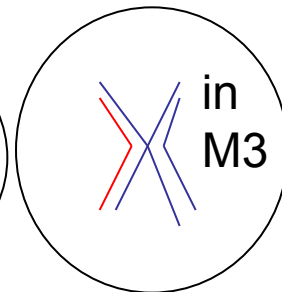
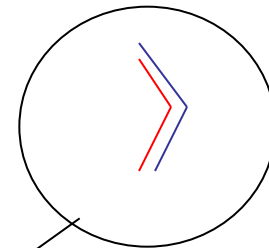
G1 cell

One of the 2 daughter  
Cells from 1<sup>st</sup> mitosis

DNA replication

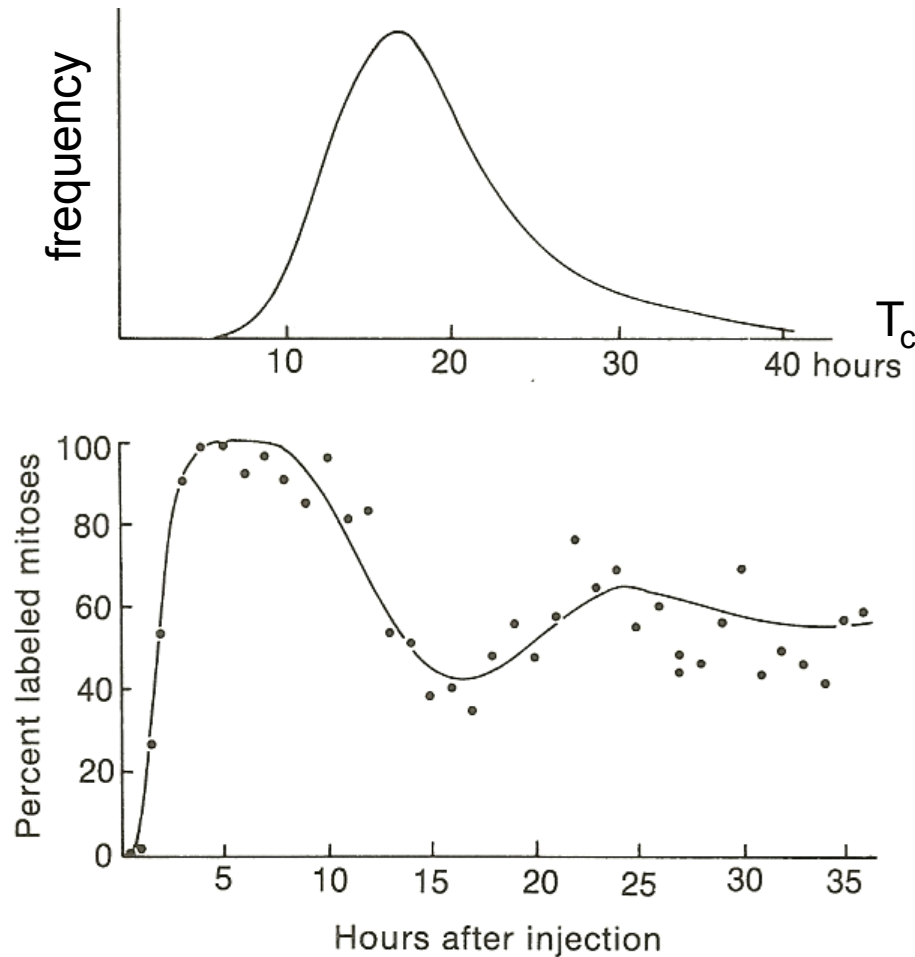


S phase cell  
No Label Present  
But still semi-labeled



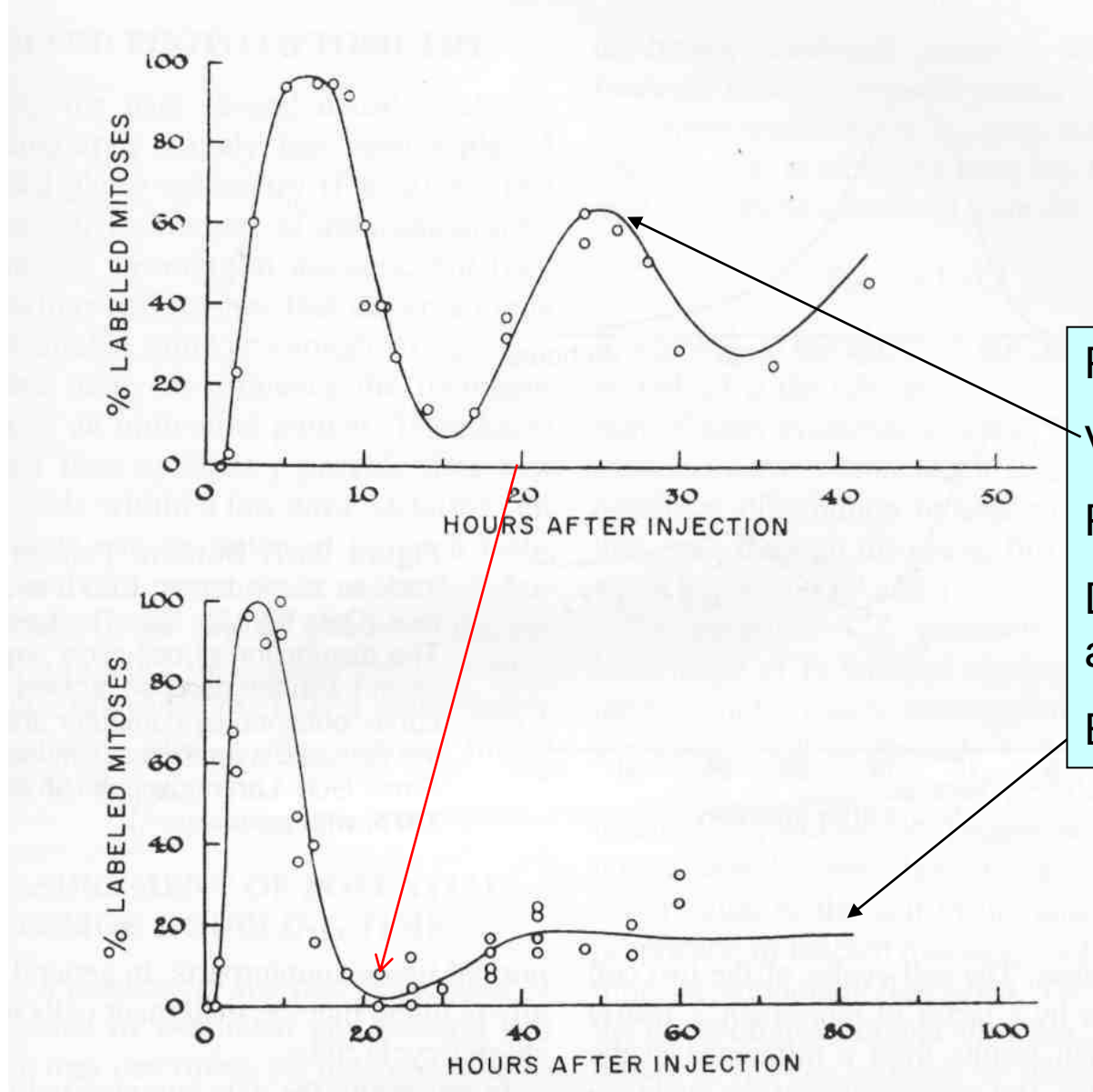
This cell is not  
Labeled at 3<sup>rd</sup> mitosis

# Cell Cycle “Speed” Distribution



**FIGURE 21.7** ● **Bottom:** Percent labeled mitoses curve for an EMT6 mouse tumor. (Data from Dr. Sara Rockwell.) **Top:** The distribution of cell-cycle times consistent with the damped labeled mitoses curve, obtained by computer analysis of the data and a mathematical model. (From Steel GG: The growth kinetics of tumors in relation to their therapeutic response. *Laryngoscope* 85:359–370, 1975, with permission.)

# Real Flash Label Experiments

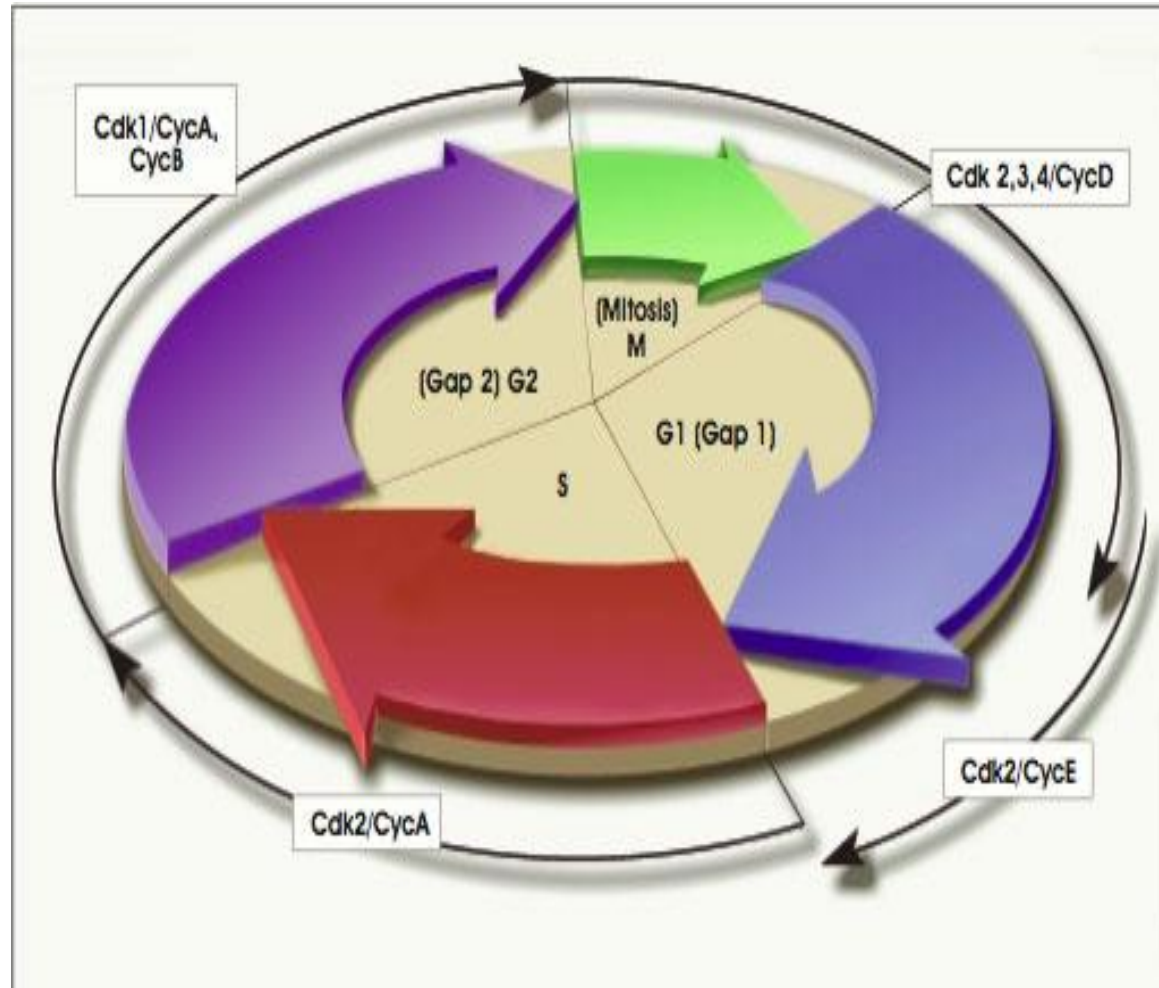


Peak fading is due to:  
Variable Cell "speed"  
Plus  
Dilution of labeling agent at  $\geq M3$   
Background Label

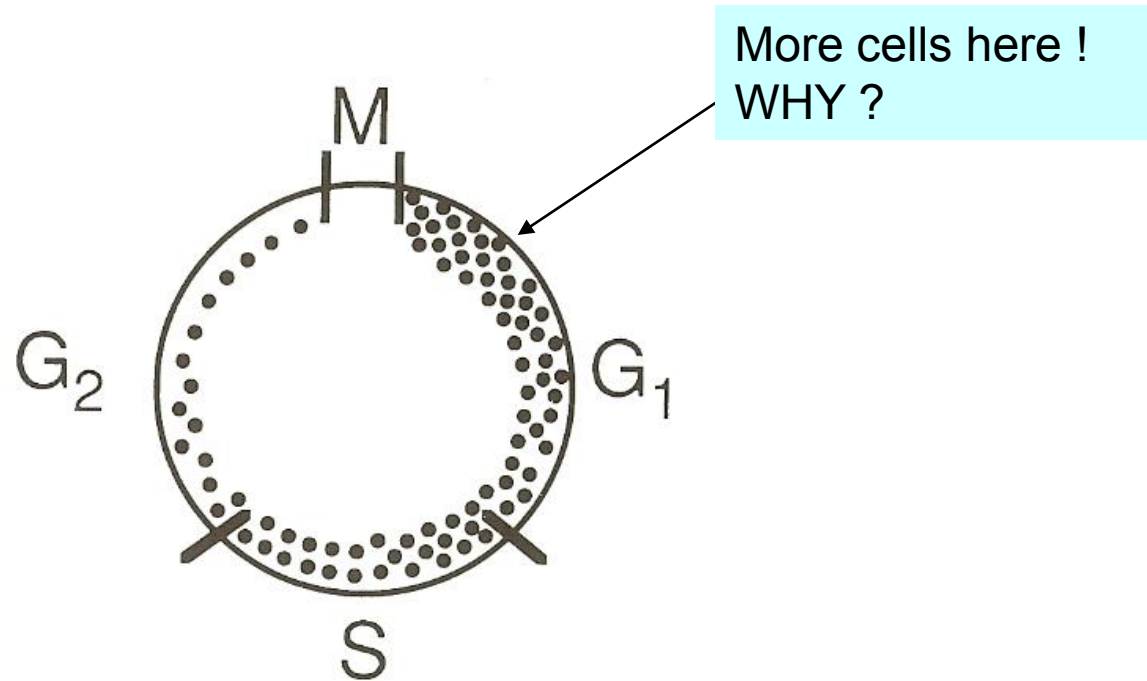
Fig 21.6



How are cells distributed around the cell cycle ?



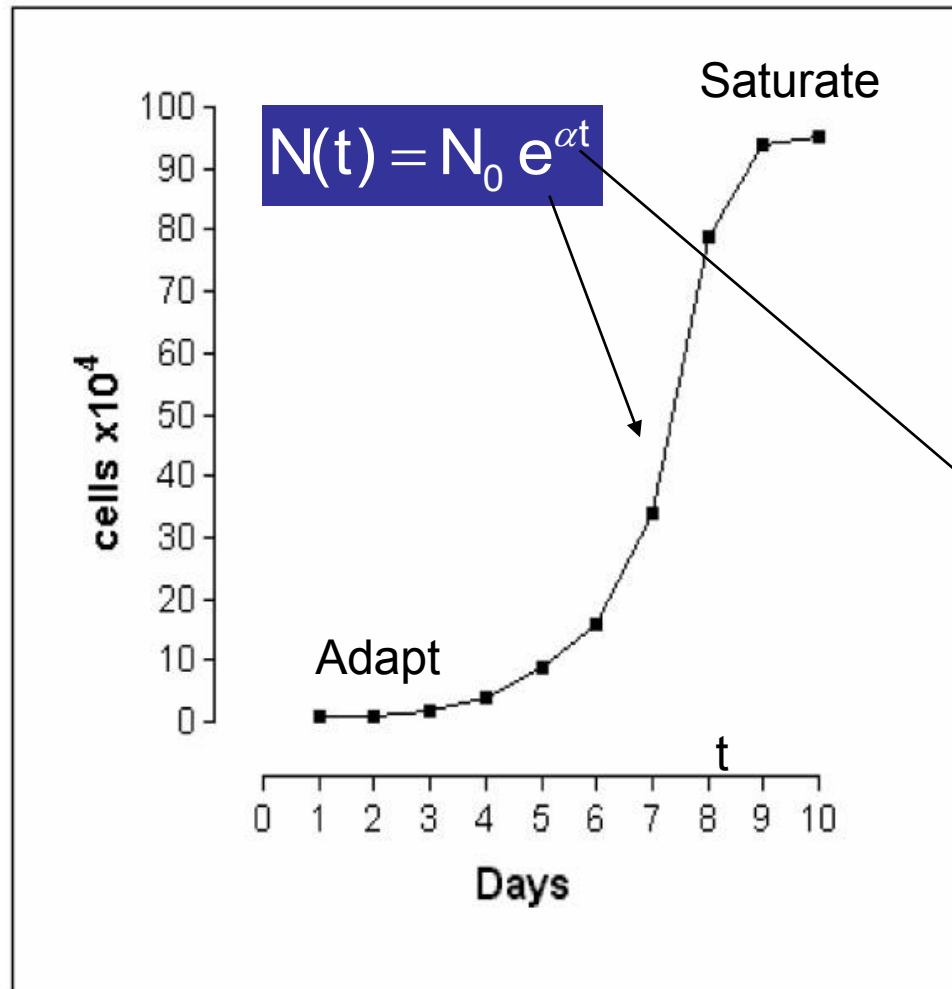
# Cell Subpopulation Size in Phases (Asynchronous Cells)



**Figure 21.2.** Diagram illustrating the fact that cells cannot be distributed uniformly in time around the cell cycle because they double in number during mitosis. The simplest assumption is that they are distributed as an exponential function of time.

# Cell Exponential Growth

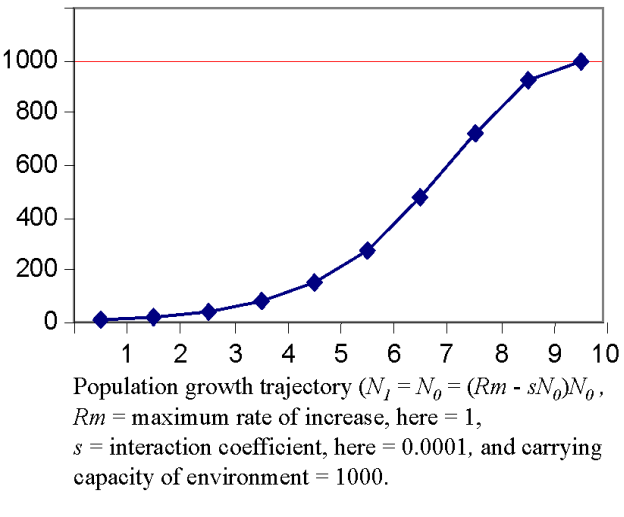
alpha is a growth constant



Cell Doubling Time

$$T_D = 0.693/\alpha$$

# Distribution of Cells in Cell Cycle



$$N(t) = N_0 e^{\alpha t}$$

$$\alpha = \frac{\ln 2}{T}$$

$$n(t, \tau) = \alpha N(t) e^{\alpha \tau}$$

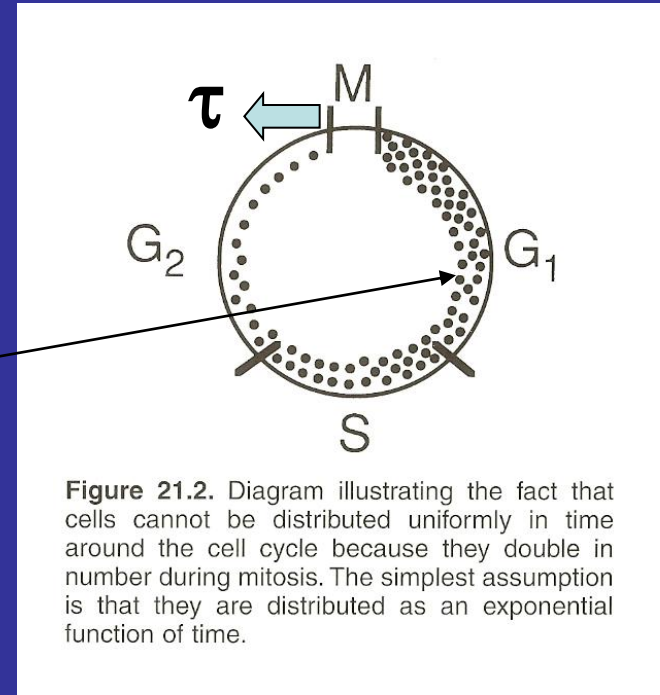


Figure 21.2. Diagram illustrating the fact that cells cannot be distributed uniformly in time around the cell cycle because they double in number during mitosis. The simplest assumption is that they are distributed as an exponential function of time.

**where**  $t \equiv$  observation real time

a lot of young cells in G1 compare to the later phases

$\tau \equiv$  time before cell division

$T \equiv$  total cell cycle duration

$T - \tau =$  **cell age**

$N_0 \equiv$  initial number of cells

$N(t) \equiv$  number of cells at time  $t$

$n(t, \tau) \equiv$  number of cells at real time ( $t$ ) “flowing” past a point on the cell cycle preceding division by  $\tau$

# Fraction of Cells in Mitosis (Mitotic Index)

$$M(t) = \frac{\int_0^{\tau_m} n(t, \tau) d\tau}{\int_0^T n(t, \tau) d\tau}$$

$$M(t) = e^{\alpha \tau_m} - 1$$

$$M(t) = \alpha \tau_m \quad \text{for } \tau_m \ll T$$

**where**  $\tau_m \equiv$  period of mitotic phase

**$M(t)$**   $\equiv$  fraction of cells in mitotic phase

Hall's  
estimate:

$$M = \lambda T_M / T_C$$

Where

$$\lambda = 0.693$$

# Fraction of Cells with Label Uptake (Labeling Index)

$$L(t) = \begin{cases} \frac{\int_{G_2}^{G_2+S+t} n(t,0) dt}{N(t)} & \text{for } t < G_2 \\ \frac{\int_{G_2}^{G_2+S+t} n(t,0) dt + \int_{T+G_2}^{T+t} n(t,0) dt}{N(t)} & \text{for } t > G_2 \end{cases}$$

**where**  $t$   $\equiv$  time after adding labelling agent

$S$   $\equiv$  period of S phase

$G_2$   $\equiv$  period of G2 phase

**$L(t)$**   $\equiv$  fraction of labelled cells

Hall's estimate:

$$L = \lambda T_S / T_c$$

Where

$$\lambda = 0.67 \text{ to } 1.00$$

# A Great Reference

406

BIOCHIMICA ET BIOPHYSICA ACTA

## DNA SYNTHESIS IN INDIVIDUAL L-STRAIN MOUSE CELLS

C. P. STANNERS\* AND J. E. TILL

Department of Medical Biophysics, University of Toronto, and Physics Division,  
The Ontario Cancer Institute, Toronto, Ontario (Canada)

(Received April 21st, 1959)

### SUMMARY

The time relationship between DNA synthesis and mitosis has been determined for L-strain mouse cells cultivated *in vitro*. DNA synthesis was detected autoradiographically by following the uptake of [<sup>3</sup>H]thymidine into the cell nucleus. DNA synthesis in this cell system was found to take place in an approximately linear fashion over a single period of six to seven hours, ending three to four hours before mitosis, for a total generation time of twenty hours.

A mathematical treatment for exponentially multiplying cultures is presented.

### INTRODUCTION

It is obvious that a cell must double its content of deoxyribose nucleic acid (DNA) before it divides. For many years it was believed that the cell synthesized this DNA during prophase and metaphase, so that when the two sets of chromosomes separated at anaphase, each had a full complement of DNA. Recently, many workers have shown, by the use of photometric and autoradiographic techniques, that DNA synthesis actually occurs during interphase over a period which ends at a certain time before mitosis, and which has a definite length<sup>1-3</sup>. This was found to be true for many different types of cells, both animal and plant, but the exact timing of the DNA synthesis period appeared to vary with the cell type. We have investigated, by the method of autoradiography, DNA synthesis in exponentially multiplying mouse cells, cultivated *in vitro*. This investigation is preliminary to studies of the perturbing influence of various chemical and physical agents upon DNA metabolism in the cell.

### MATERIALS AND METHODS

#### *Detection of DNA synthesis*

Since thymidine has been shown to be a specific precursor of DNA<sup>4</sup>, the uptake of [<sup>3</sup>H]thymidine (HTDN) into the cell nucleus was used as a measure of DNA synthesis. The  $\beta$ -decay of tritium was detected autoradiographically. The low energy of tritium  $\beta$ -particles affords excellent resolution on the autoradiographs<sup>5</sup> (see Fig. 1).

\* Graduate student, Department of Medical Biophysics, University of Toronto, and Fellow in Radiation Physics of the National Cancer Institute of Canada.

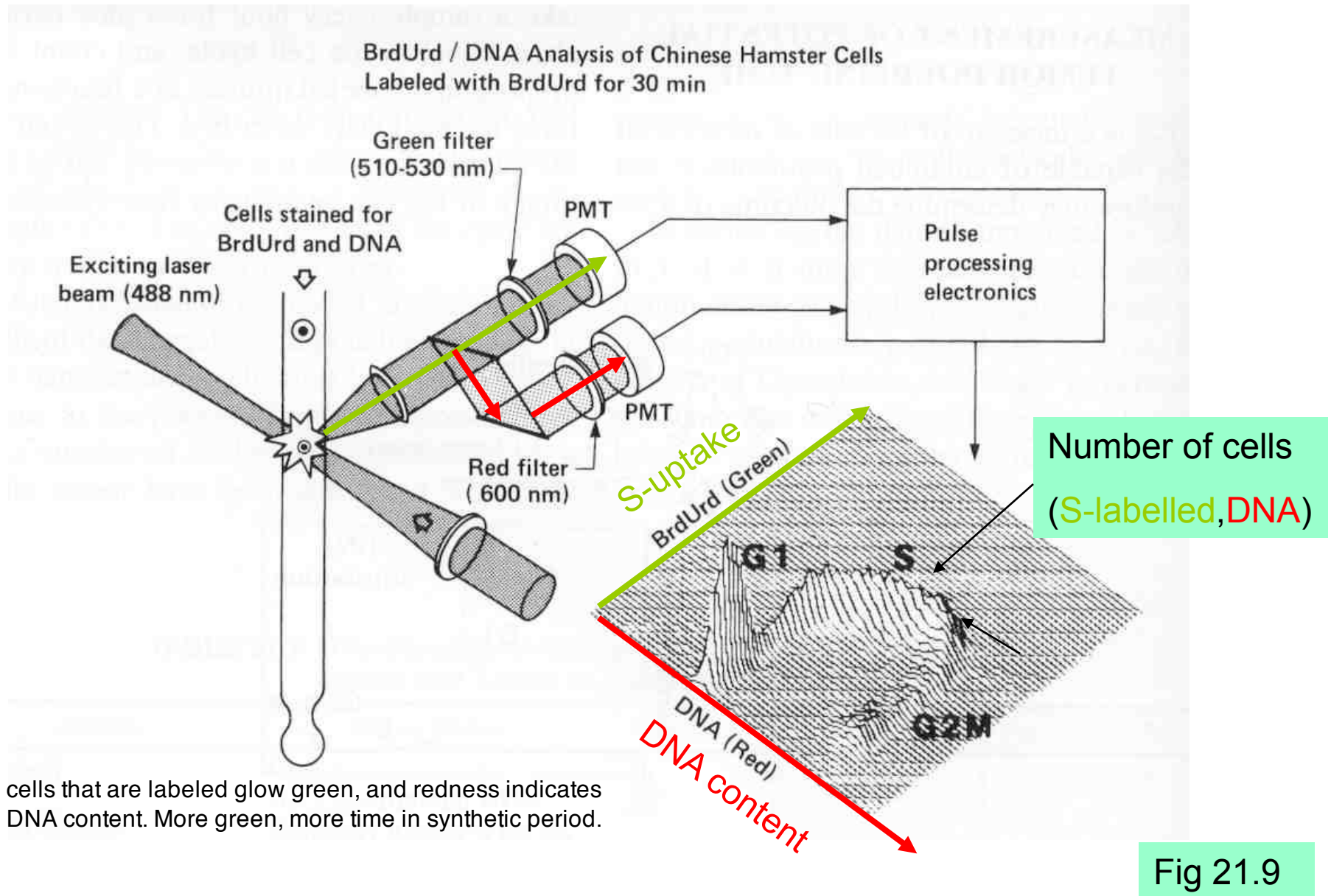
Paper  
is  
posted

# Cell Cycle Analysis by Flow Cytometry

cells exponentially  
distributed



# Fluorescence-activated cell sorting (FACS)



# S – DNA Synthesis Phase

use DNA amt as clock to tell duration of S-phase

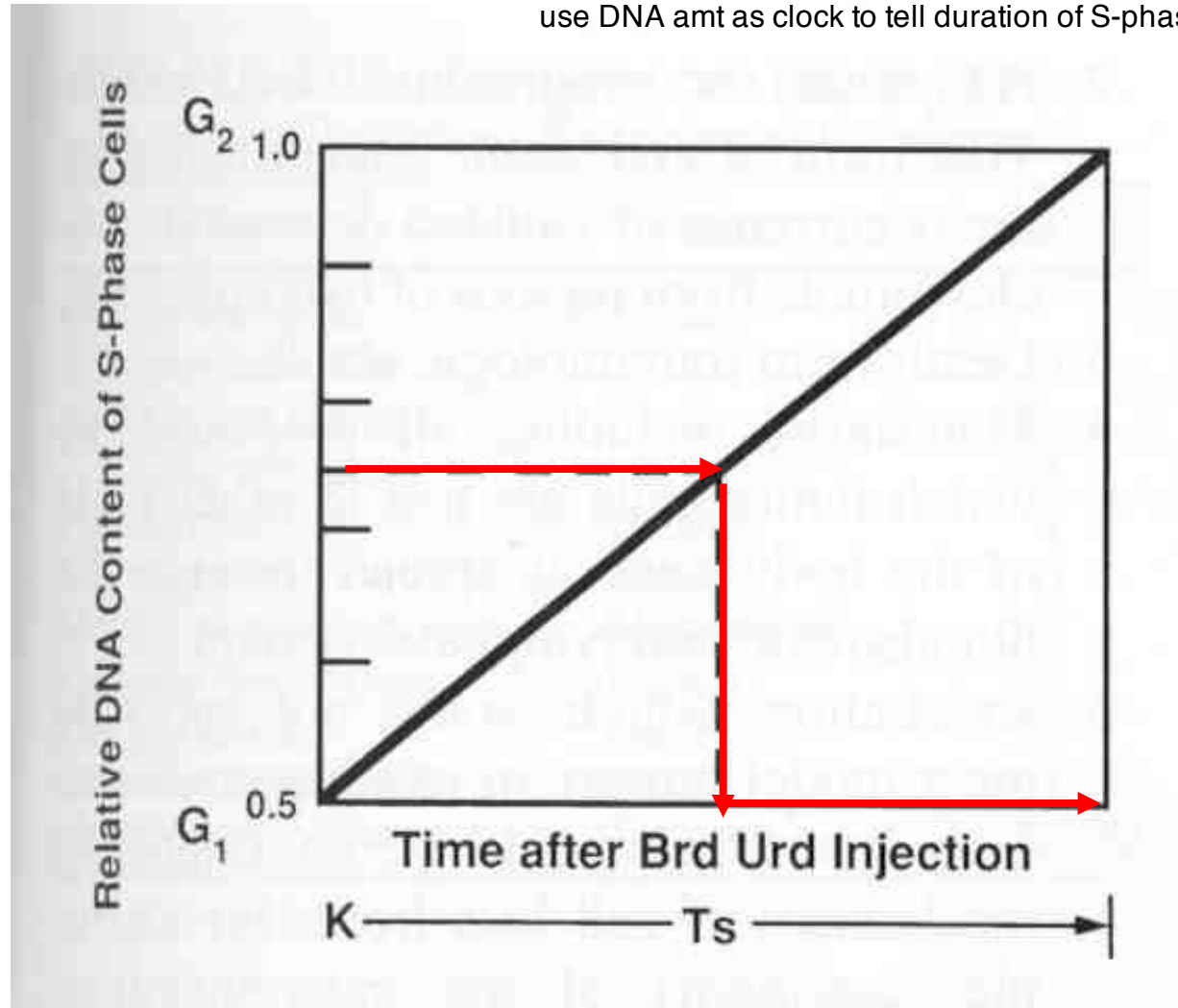
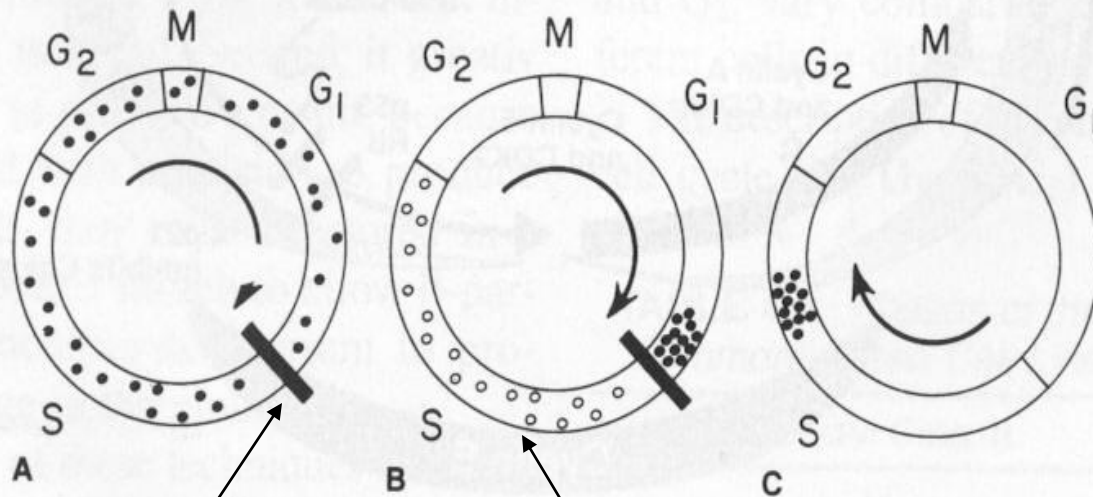


Fig 21.10

# Cell Age Effect

Chapter 4

# Cells can be Synchronized using drugs (e.g hydroxyurea)



End of G1 block

S cells  
killed

hydroxyurea piles up cells in G<sub>1</sub> phase. When hydroxyurea is removed, cycle starts. S phase highly radioresistant. G<sub>2</sub> and M more radiosensitive.

Fig 4.5

# Single Dose Experiment of Synchronized Cells

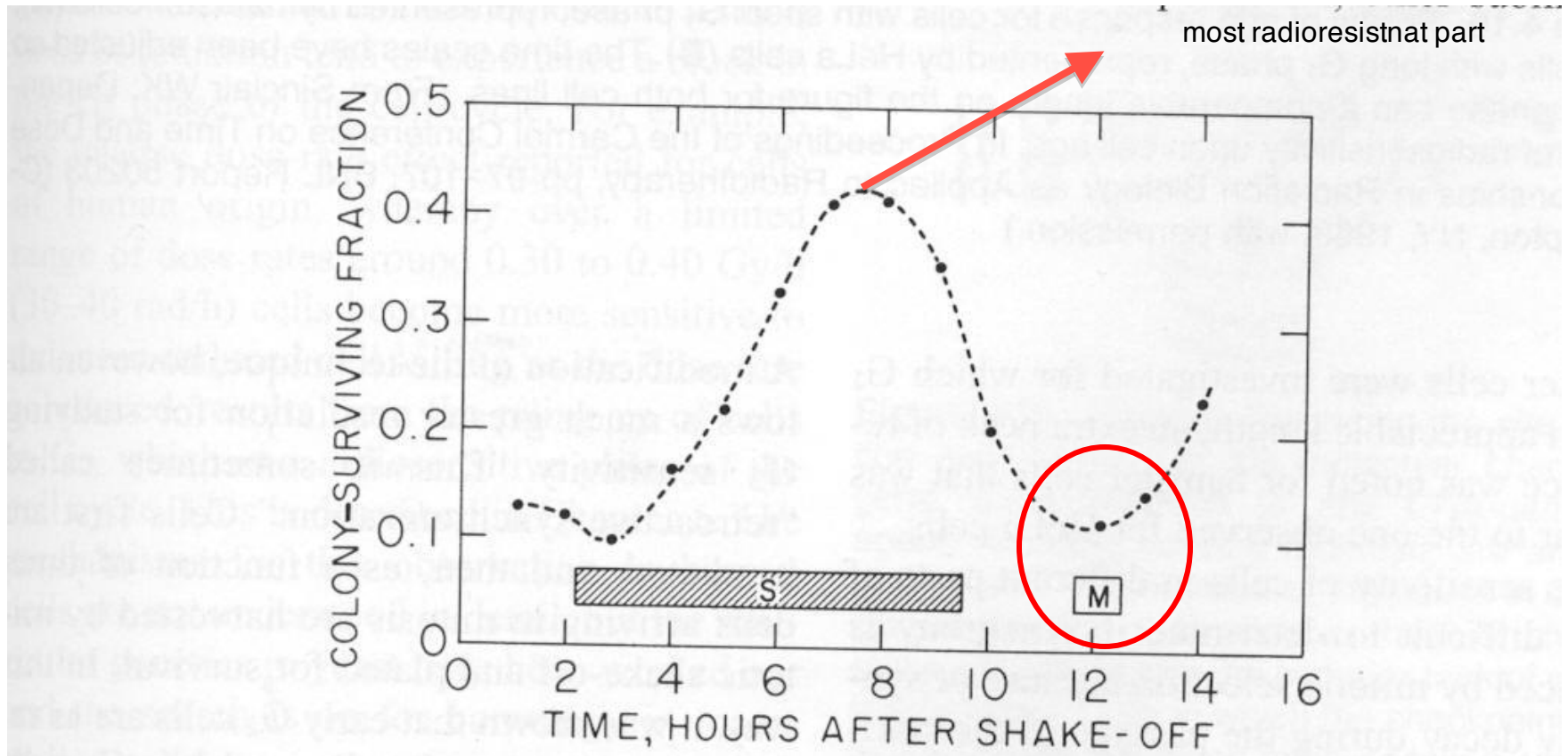


Fig 4.7

# Cell Survival of Synchronized Cells

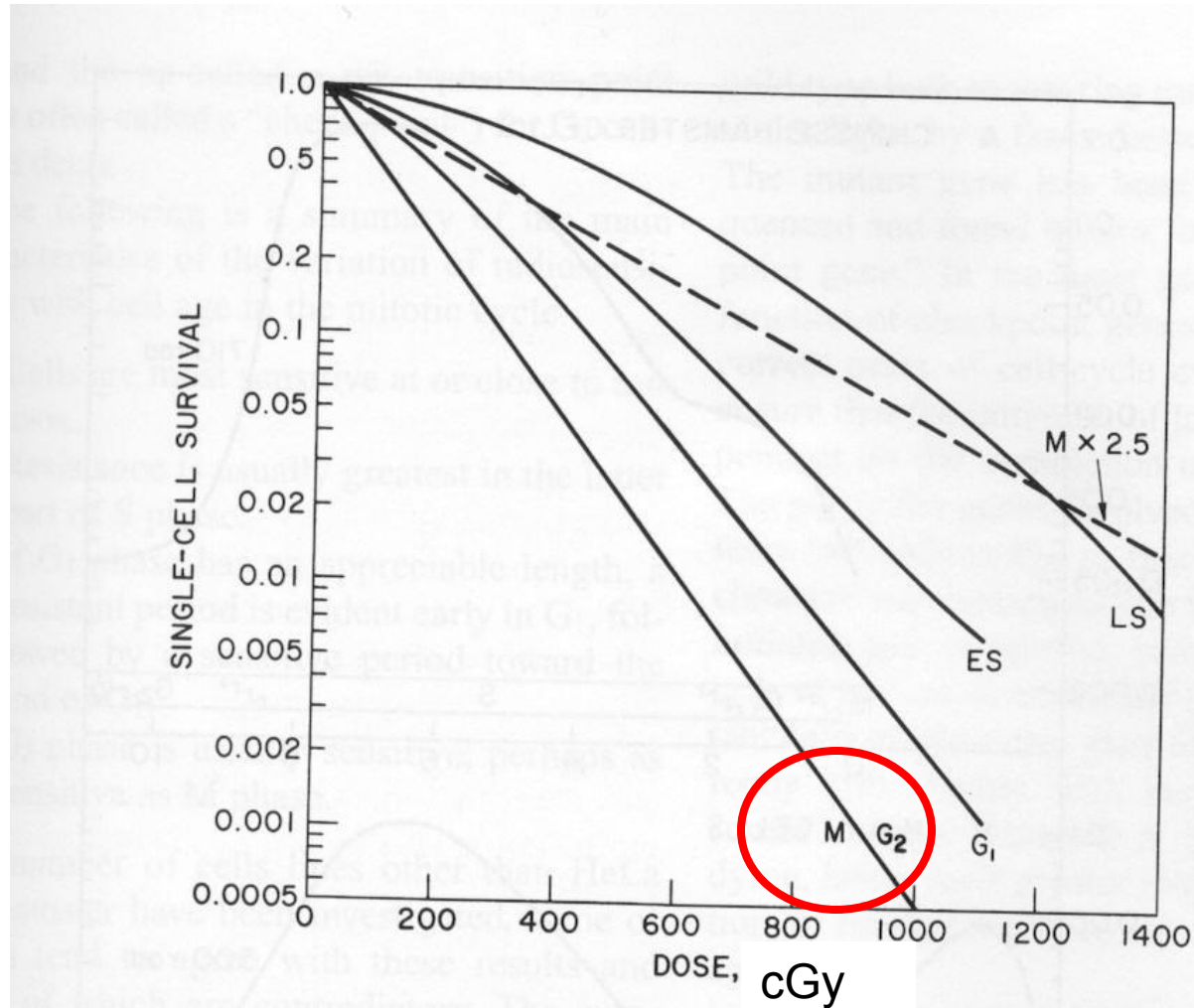


Fig 4.8

# R2 - Cell Cycle Phase Radiosensitivity

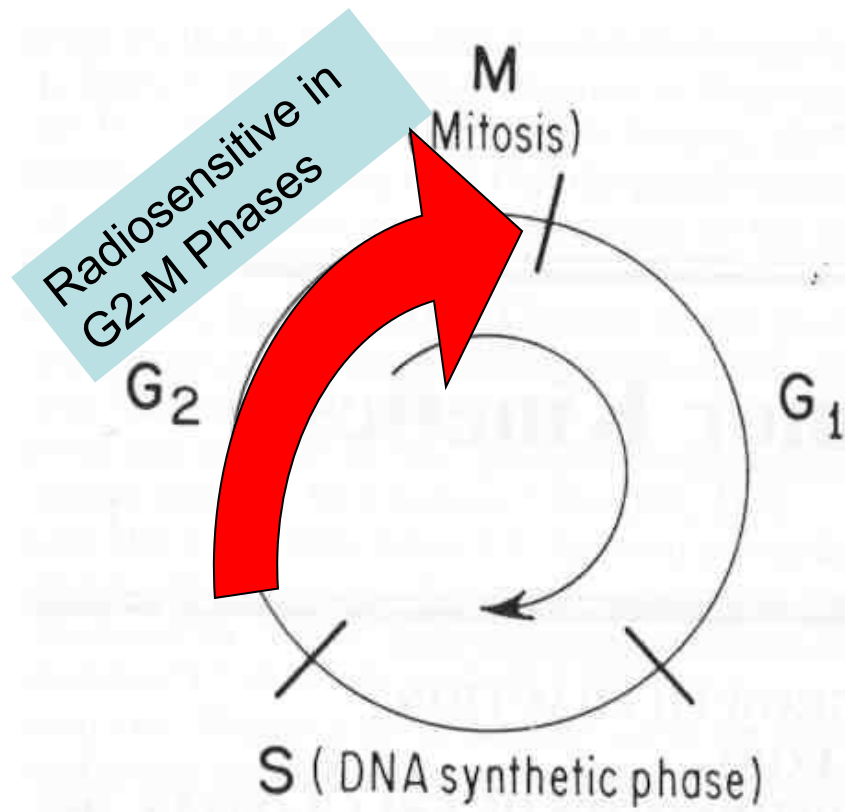


Fig 4.1

## COMPACTED CHROMATIN AND RADIOTHERAPY

When cancer doctors treat with radiation  
Cell killing can display wide variation  
And this in turn as consequence assures  
That their therapy will fail to yield some cures  
This saddles our profession with bad stigma  
And the basis for resistance is still enigma

Now X-rays kill most cells by single-hits  
At least when dose is given in 2 Gy bits  
We think that's due to damage very focal  
In DNA, that's multiple and local  
When chromatin in cells is found condensed  
Effects of radiation are enhanced

Mitotic cells are always at great risk

Their genes are well compacted to resist  
The trauma of genetic segregation  
A critical event in cell division  
Cells whose DNA dispersion is defective  
Will be radiation sensitive, selective

How to put all cancer cells into this state  
Before we close the linac door to `radiate  
Is a challenge for the scientist and doc  
Hope this effort was promoted by this talk  
And to thwart a cancer's threat of strong persistence  
We must undo the major causes of resistance



# Cell Cycle Regulation

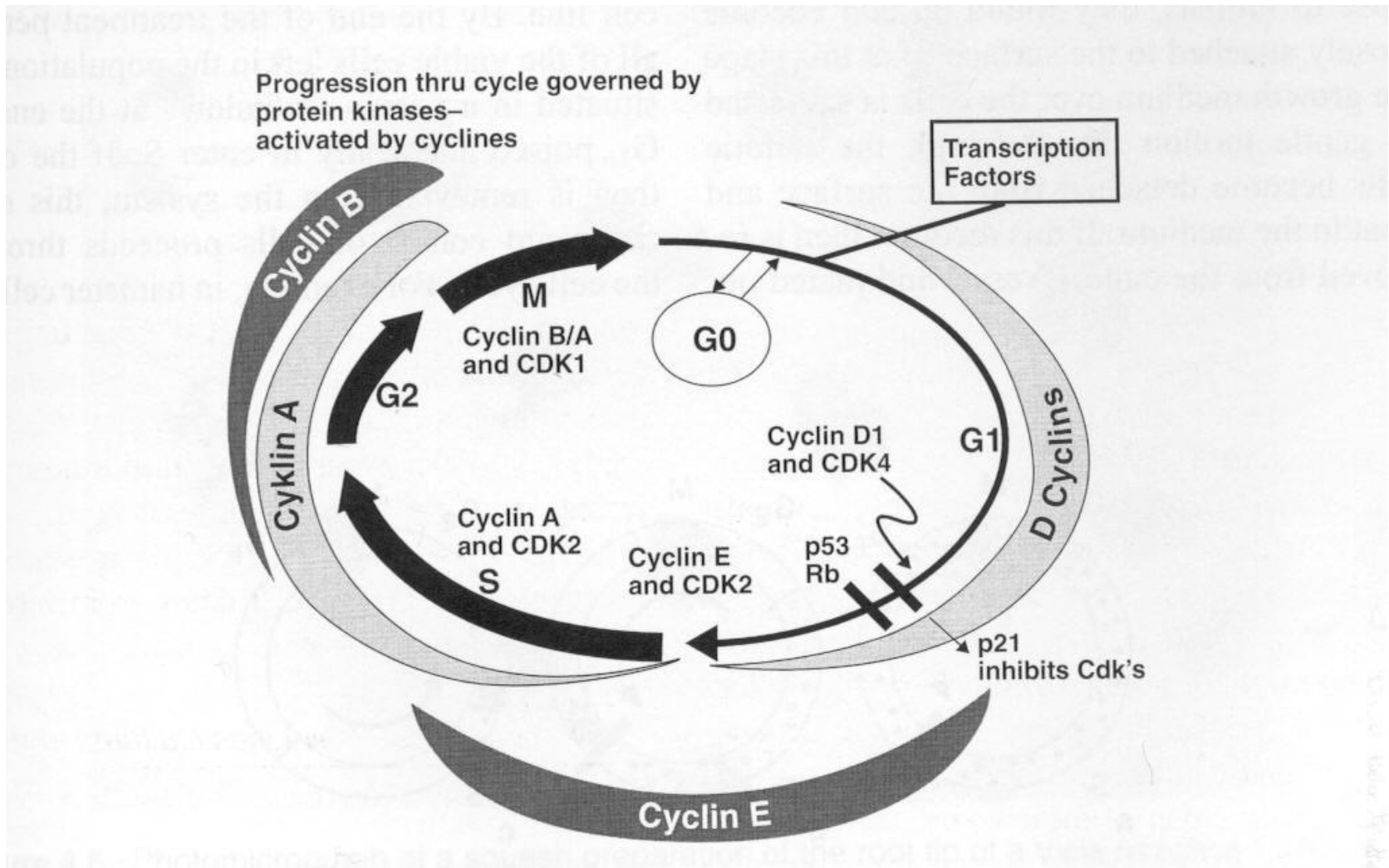


Fig 17.15

# Cell Cycle Check Points

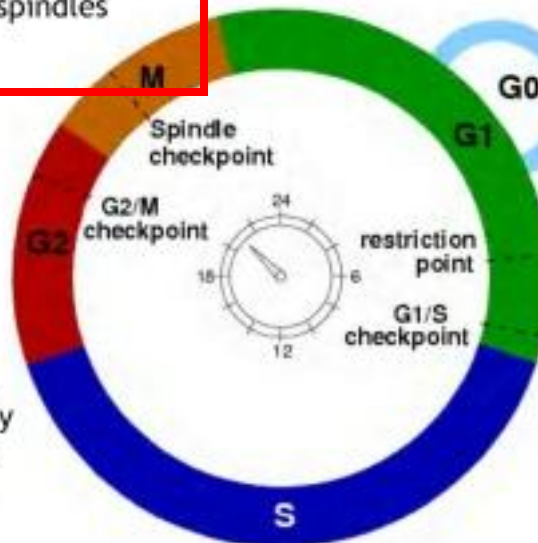
M phase - In mitosis chromosomes drawn apart by molecular motors, cell divides. Many cancer drugs like taxol act here freezing the process and causing apoptosis. There is a checkpoint to ensure chromosomes are correctly attached to the spindles before segregation.

G1 is entered when the cell senses growth signals or mitogens. These start the process of cell division.

Cell crosses a restriction point c 8-10 hours into G1 - This is a point of no return: the cell is committed to divide or die.

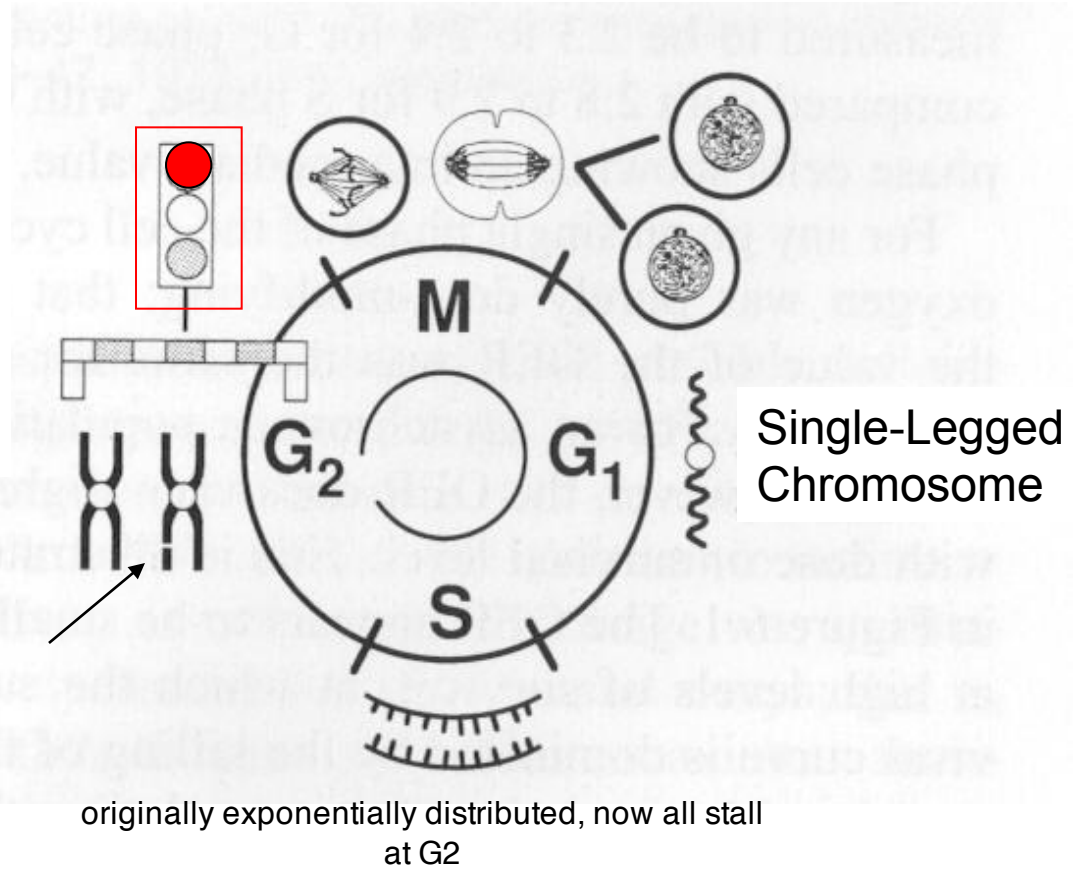
G2/M - cell arranges and checks chromosomes. There is a major checkpoint here to ascertain that DNA replication has successfully occurred. If not, a normal cell undergoes apoptosis.

G1/S checkpoint -arrest here for cancer cells leads to apoptosis.



S phase - DNA is synthesised. Many cytotoxic anti-cancer drugs act here to disrupt DNA synthesis.

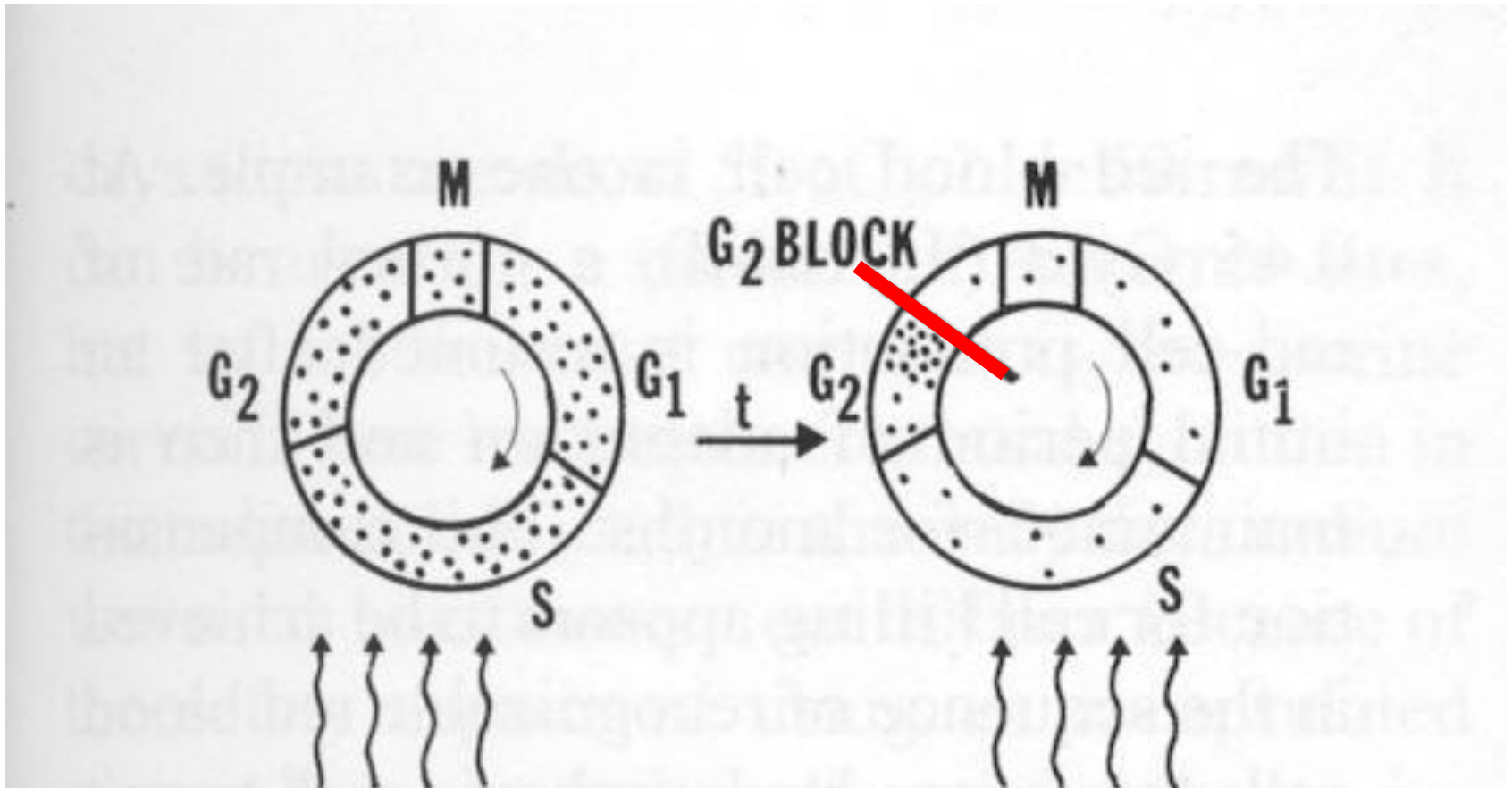
# Damaged Chromosomes can stop Cell from Cycling



Double Strand Break (DSB)

Fig 4.11

# Radiation-induced G2 Pileup

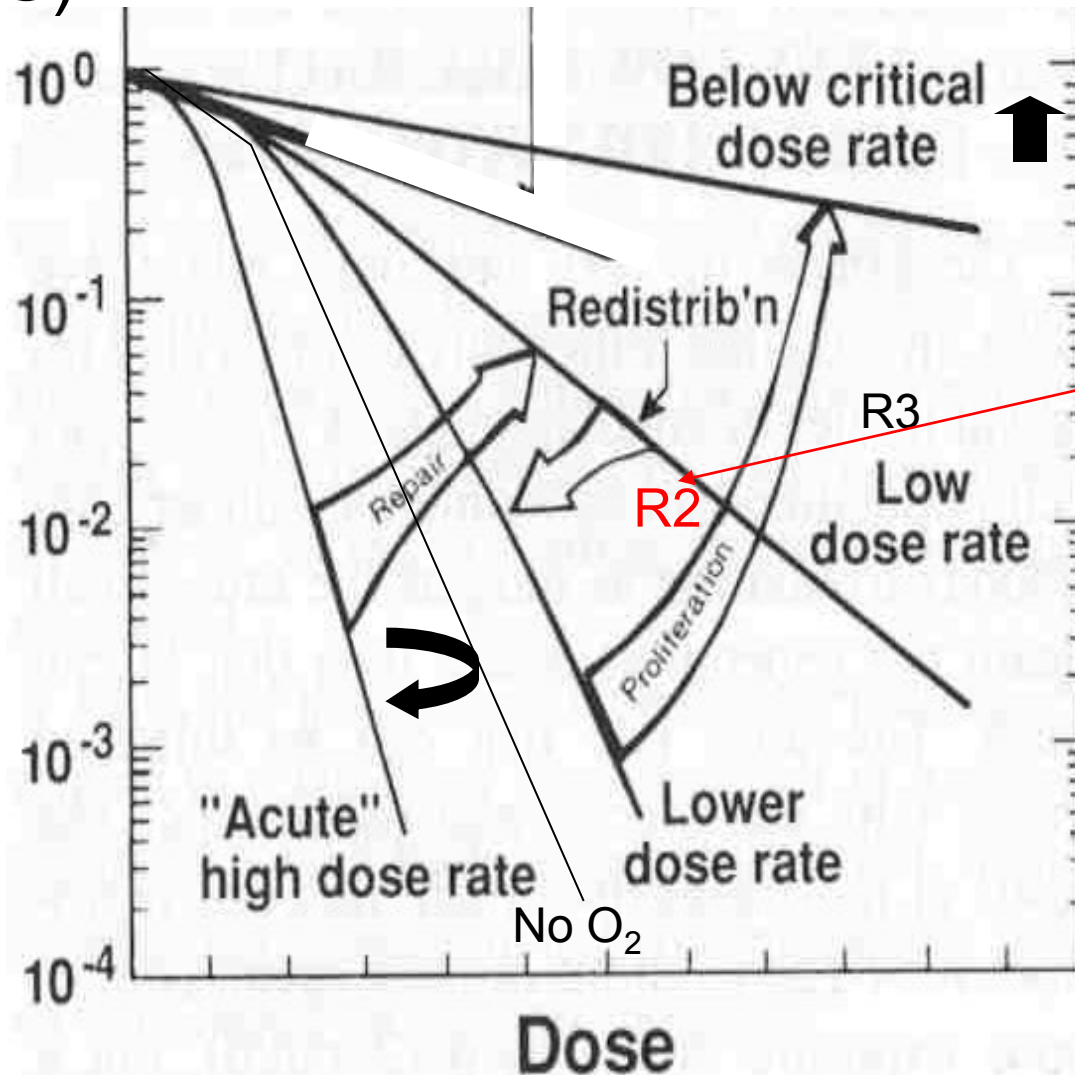


taken them out of S phase, pile up in G<sub>2</sub>, the more sensitive part

Fig 5.17

# Dose Rate Experiments

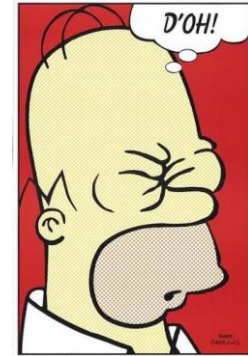
In (S)



Inverse  
Dose  
Rate  
Effect

Fig 5.18

Does a lower dose rate always improve cell survival ? Nope



- Repair time for DNA injury (R1)

BUT...

- Re- assortment/bunching in G2 phase (R2)

Repair improves cell survival, whereas Re-assortment causes more radiation death