



Review article

Targeting of cellular redox metabolism for mitigation of radiation injury

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ABSTRACT

Accidental exposure to ionizing radiation is a serious concern to human life. Studies on the mitigation of side effects following exposure to accidental radiation events are ongoing. Recent studies have shown that radiation can activate several signaling pathways, leading to changes in the metabolism of free radicals including reactive oxygen species (ROS) and nitric oxide (NO). Cellular and molecular mechanisms show that radiation can cause disruption of normal reduction/oxidation (redox) system. Mitochondria malfunction following exposure to radiation and mutations in mitochondria DNA (mtDNA) have a key role in chronic oxidative stress. Furthermore, exposure to radiation leads to infiltration of inflammatory cells such as macrophages, lymphocytes and mast cells, which are important sources of ROS and NO. These cells generate free radicals via upregulation of some pro-oxidant enzymes such as NADPH oxidases, inducible nitric oxide synthase (iNOS) and cyclooxygenase-2 (COX-2). Epigenetic changes also have a key role in a similar way. Other mediators such as mammalian target of rapamycin (mTOR) and peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor (PPAR), which are involved in the normal metabolism of cells have also been shown to regulate cell death following exposure to radiation. These mechanisms are tissue specific. Inhibition or activation of each of these targets can be suggested for mitigation of radiation injury in a specific tissue. In the current paper, we review the cellular and molecular changes in the metabolism of cells and ROS/NO following exposure to radiation. Furthermore, the possible strategies for mitigation of radiation injury through modulation of cellular metabolism in irradiated organs will be discussed.

1. Introduction

Nowadays, exposure to ionizing radiation is almost inevitable. Ionizing radiation is applied in some industries such as nuclear industry as well as in the agricultural sector [1]. Radioactive sources are mostly utilized in nuclear power plants. However, ionizing radiation is widely used in medicine for diagnostic or therapeutic aims. Nuclear medicine, radiotherapy and brachytherapy rely heavily on radioactive sources [2]. In spite of the useful aims of ionizing radiation and radioactive sources, there are some concerns for possible threats which are associated with its usage. One of the most devastating disasters from the peaceful usage of ionizing radiations in the nuclear industry is the Chernobyl nuclear power plant accident. This accident caused the release of huge amounts of radioactive elements including iodine and cesium, which led to the death of some exposed people. Furthermore, it had negative effects on the environment, leading to increased incidence

of cancer in some exposed people many years after [3].

In addition to the mentioned threats from peaceful applications of radioactive sources, there are serious concerns about the use of radioactive and nuclear sources for war or terror [4]. An example of such incidents was the nuclear bomb explosions in Hiroshima and Nagasaki during World War 2, which also had its own consequences years after. Furthermore, dirty radioactive sources may also be used for terror aims [5]. People who are exposed to ionizing radiation may die or show some serious side effects which affect their quality of life for many years [6]. As a fallout of these threats, it is imperative to implement strategies aimed at preventing these disasters arising from exposure to ionizing radiation. To achieve this aim, it is important to have the knowledge about the mechanisms through which ionizing radiation cause damages to cells, especially in some critical organs such as the bone marrow, lung, heart as well as the gastrointestinal and neurovascular systems [7].

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It is well-known that ionizing radiation attack DNA directly or via radiolysis of water molecules. Classical hypothesis in radiobiology suggests that the final consequences of ionizing radiation are as a result of DNA damage at the first moments after exposure. This dogma was challenged following some evidences which showed that damages to non-irradiated cells was due to the release of some unknown clastogenic factors from irradiated cells. Furthermore, it was observed that exposure to ionizing radiation can lead to continuous production of free radicals [8]. The use of antioxidants some days after exposure to radiation has confirmed that a remarkable amount of toxic consequences of ionizing radiation is as a result of some changes within the cells, thereby leading to an increase in the production of free radicals and amplification of radiation toxicity [9].

Results of experimental studies suggest that abnormal changes in the metabolism of reactive oxygen species (ROS) and nitric oxide (NO) have a key role in potentiating genotoxic effects of ionizing radiation [10]. Evidence suggests that exposure to radiation causes an increase in the ROS/NO sources within tissues [11]. In this paper, we aimed to review the cellular and molecular mechanisms of reduction/oxidation (redox) reactions following exposure to radiation and their potential targets for mitigation of radiation injury.

2. Radiation-induced DNA damage triggers systemic redox reactions

Interactions involving ionizing radiation and free radicals with DNA introduce biological consequences in irradiated and also non-irradiated cells/tissues. Although it is well known that damage to other organelles such as membrane and mitochondria by radiation is involved in radiation toxicity, it seems that chronic oxidative stress and inflammatory reactions are as a result of massive DNA damage and cell death following exposure to radiation. This issue has been observed in studies showing that heavy charged particles cause severe release of damage-associated molecular pattern (DAMP) and chronic oxidative stress (a phenomenon that may occur in low severity following low linear energy transfer (LET) radiation) [12,13]. Indeed, inflammatory cells detect DNA damage and cell death through apoptotic bodies after apoptosis or release of DAMPs including high-mobility-group Box 1 (HMGB1), uric acid, oxidized DNA, ATP, heat shock proteins (HSPs) and some other molecules that will be released following necrosis, necroptosis and autophagy [14]. Apoptotic bodies will be absorbed by macrophages, leading to tolerogenic responses as well as the release of TGF- β and IL-10. However, the release of danger alarms triggers inflammatory responses through upregulation of toll like receptors (TLRs), NF- κ B, inducible nitric oxide synthase (iNOS), cyclooxygenase-2 (COX-2), intracellular adhesion molecule-1 (ICAM-1), vascular cell adhesion molecule-1 (VCAM-1) and finally inflammatory cytokines such as IL-1, IL-6, IL-8, IL-33, TNF- α and IFN- γ . These changes are associated with infiltration of inflammatory cells and also the release of intercellular mediators such as vesicles, exosomes and microRNAs [15,16].

Released cytokines and other intercellular mediators are able to migrate to other adjacent cells or distant organs, leading to activation of inflammatory reactions and redox interactions. This causes amplification of radiation toxicity in irradiated tissues and also induction of oxidative injury and DNA damage in non-irradiated cells [17]. Thus, identification of intercellular communication and mediators that are involved in the bystander effect may help the exploration of new targets for mitigation of radiation injury. Experimental studies have confirmed this hypothesis. For example, the suppression of TGF- β , TNF- α and COX-2 in bystander cells or non-targeted tissues has been shown to ameliorate radiation-induced oxidative injury [18–20]. Targeting of these proteins has also been shown to ameliorate early and late consequences of exposure to radiation in irradiated organs [21–23]. It seems that inflammation and oxidative stress have close relation with each other in irradiated or bystander tissues. Thus, inhibition of some inflammatory targets such as COX-2 and iNOS can lead to reduction of

ROS and NO, which lead to mitigation of radiation injury [24–28].

3. Redox metabolism after radiation

Emerging evidences have shown that cellular metabolism plays a key role in endogenous production of free radicals a long time after exposure to ionizing radiation [29,30]. ROS generating sources within cells play a key role in the regulation of metabolism and cell proliferation. The mitochondria are known as the energy supplier of cells via generation of ATP. It supplies ROS which trigger cell proliferation in most cell types [31]. NADPH oxidase enzymes also produce ROS that is critical for degradation of pathogens. However, ROS derived NADPH oxidase has a role in proliferation of stem/progenitor cells [32]. The role of NADPH oxidase in bone marrow stem cell function is critical. The production of hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂) by NADPH oxidase enzymes can trigger differentiation of stem/progenitor cells in the bone marrow, while lower levels of H₂O₂ cause stemness of stem/progenitor cells [33]. Ionizing radiation can cause an abnormal increase in mitochondria and NADPH oxidase activity, leading to the generation of an unusual amount of ROS. This causes overwhelming antioxidant cell defense and damage to stem/progenitor cells. For example, upregulation of NOX4 or higher activity of mitochondria in the bone marrow following exposure to radiation is associated with an increase in ROS, apoptosis and senescence in stem cells [34,35]. Metformin, which is known as an inhibitor of mitochondria, is able to mitigate radiation toxicity in bone marrow stem cells [36]. Metabolisms of glucose and lipids are also increased following exposure to radiation, and it seems to be involved in the progression of radiation-induced normal tissue toxicity [37]. Mammalian target of rapamycin (mTOR) and peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor (PPAR) are two important metabolic mediators whose roles have been confirmed in radiation toxicity. Activation of these mediators also plays a key role in tumor growth and angiogenesis [38,39]. Thus, inhibition of these targets may be suggested for protection of normal tissues without negative effects on tumor response to radiotherapy. Thus, targeting oxygen, glucose and lipid metabolism can be suggested for protection and mitigation of radiation injury.

4. mTOR

mTOR is a critical protein kinase that is involved in the regulation of cell growth, cell death, cancer and metabolism [40]. Targeting mTOR by rapamycin is a known strategy for tumor suppression [41,42]. However, some studies have suggested that it may play a role in normal tissue injury. mTOR can be upregulated by PI3K/Akt and MEK1/2-ERK1/2 pathways as well as some growth factors and hormones [41]. mTOR targeting may cause reduction of stem cells' apoptosis and triggers their proliferation, leading to mitigation of radiation toxicity. Treatment of irradiated mice with rapamycin has been shown to stimulate cell proliferation and reduce apoptosis. This caused an increase in CD133+ renal stem cells. Rapamycin has also been shown to attenuate the upregulation of NF- κ B and TGF- β in the kidney, two important mediators of fibrosis and inflammation [43,44]. Similar results have been obtained for parotid acinar cells following head and neck irradiation in mice. The parotid gland has highly radiosensitive stem cells. Damages to these cells may be involved in mucositis and xerostomia for patients that undergo radiotherapy for head and neck cancers. Inhibition of mTOR by CCI-779 in mice has shown promising results for preserving cells in parotid glands [45]. It seems that inhibition of mTOR can protect normal tissues via suppression of radiation-induced senescence. A study has shown that rapamycin reduces senescence after irradiation in primary human keratinocytes and epithelial stem cells. Further analyses showed that rapamycin triggers activation of MnSOD, which neutralizes free radicals and prevents senescence. This is associated with reduction of stem cell death and mucositis in mice tongue [46]. Senescence plays a key role in the

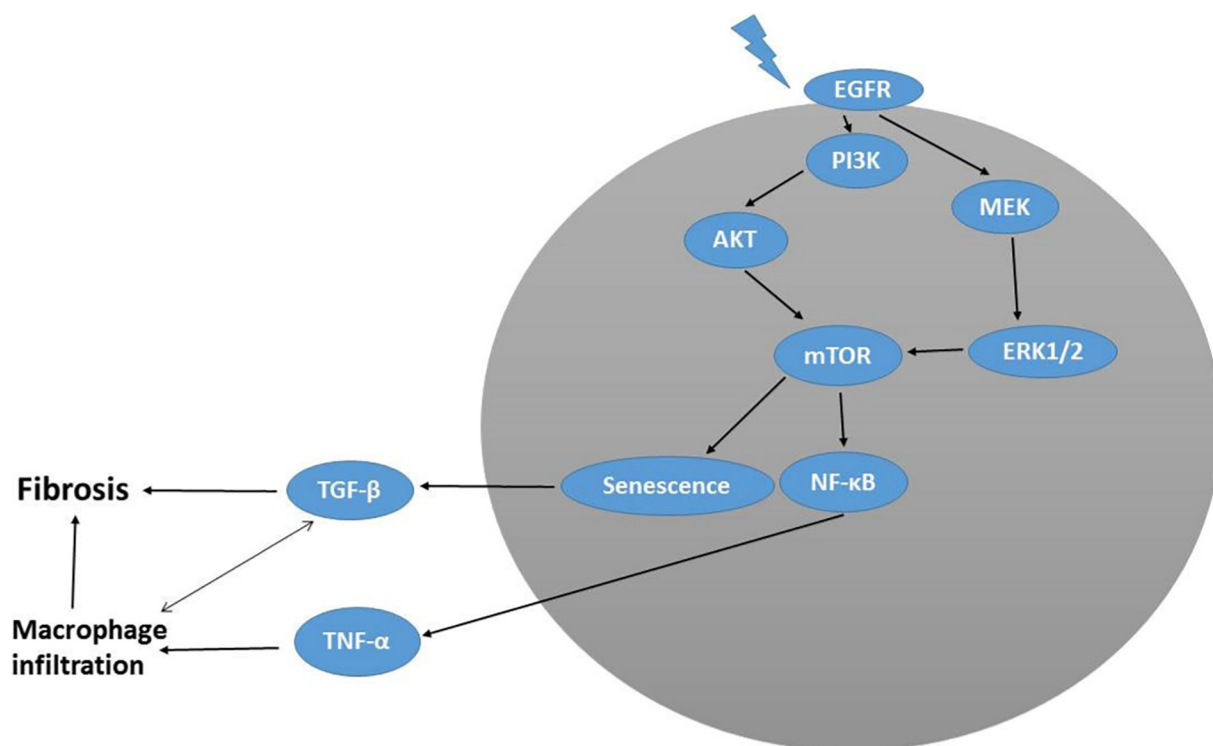


Fig. 1. Mechanisms of mTOR activation after exposure to radiation and its role in the development of fibrosis.

development of fibrosis following pulmonary exposure to radiation [47]. Therefore, it is predictable that suppression of mTOR may be an appropriate candidate for amelioration of fibrosis. This hypothesis has been confirmed in an experimental study by Dai et al. [48]. Chung et al. investigated the effect of mTOR inhibition for mitigation of radiation-induced pulmonary fibrosis. They showed that treatment with rapamycin is associated with reduction of senescence and pro-fibrotic cytokines including IL-1 β and TGF- β [49] (Fig. 1).

5. PPARs

PPARs are ligands that regulate several metabolic pathways such as metabolism of fatty acids [50]. They include some subfamilies such as PPAR α , PPAR β , PPAR δ and PPAR γ [51]. The proteins have an important role in the metabolism of fatty acids and glucose, and also in the immune system [52]. Due to their role in the regulation of immune system, it has been suggested that PPARs may have a critical role in inflammatory responses as observed after radiotherapy. One of the important functions of PPARs is suppression of NF- κ B, a critical regulator of many inflammatory responses. This effect is mediated through upregulation of I κ B α , which can degrade NF- κ B [53]. PPAR α knock out has been shown to increase the expression of NF- κ B. However, this reduces apoptosis and radiosensitivity in the kidney [54]. PPARs also have a negative relationship with the expression of TGF- β in irradiated cells [55,56]. These properties of PPARs may aid protection and mitigation against toxic consequences of ionizing radiation on normal tissues. In vitro studies have confirmed that activation of PPAR α and PPAR δ can reduce inflammation and oxidative stress in microglia cells [57,58]. An in vivo study also confirmed that PPAR α agonist can reduce injury to microglia and preserve hippocampal neurogenesis following whole brain irradiation [59].

Mangoni et al. have shown that PPAR agonists can protect the intestine via suppression of NF- κ B. They used rosiglitazone, an agonist of PPAR γ before whole-body irradiation of mice. Treatment with PPAR γ agonist reduced damages to crypts and villi as well as ameliorated inflammation in the intestine. Rosiglitazone also reduced the induction of

apoptosis. Molecular assays showed that rosiglitazone suppresses the expression of NF- κ B and TGF- β , two important inducers of inflammation and apoptosis. This was associated with reduction in inflammatory cytokines' levels [60]. Similar results have been obtained for the lung. Suppression of both NF- κ B and TGF- β using rosiglitazone ameliorated pneumonitis and fibrosis [61]. These consequences of PPAR activation by rosiglitazone have also been suggested to reduce the severity of radiation-induced mucositis [62].

6. NADPH oxidases

NADPH oxidases are a group of enzymes that generate H₂O₂ via transferring an electron to oxygen. These enzymes include five subfamilies that are known as NADPH oxidase (NOX)1–5. Furthermore, two other enzymes including dual oxidase (Duox)1 and 2 are involved in ROS production. Under normal conditions, ROS production by these enzymes helps immune cells kill pathogens and pre-cancerous cells. The activity of these enzymes is regulated by some cytokines and growth factors such as IL-1, IL-4, IL-13 and TGF- β . These cytokines are potent inducers of fibrosis. Thus, there is a possibility that NADPH oxidase enzymes play a key role in the development of fibrosis following exposure to ionizing radiation. It has been confirmed that upregulation of NOX1 in the lung can potentiate differentiation of fibroblasts. Furthermore, NOX2 and NOX4 can produce ROS for long periods of time after lung irradiation, thereby mediating oxidative stress [63]. The production of superoxide by NOX1 has also been shown to potentiate apoptosis induction in salivary gland acinar cells. Selective inhibition of NOX1 in the salivary gland acinar cells (NS-SV-AC) showed reduction of apoptosis, which is mediated by ROS derived NOX1 enzyme [64].

Upregulation of NOX2 and NOX4 may be involved in radiation-induced bystander and non-targeted effect, a phenomenon that causes ROS generation in neighboring non-irradiated cells or distant organs [17]. It has been shown that NOX4 and NOX5 have a role in oxidative stress in human fibroblast cells. Inactivation of these enzymes using fulvene-5, a NOX-specific inhibitor showed reduction of ROS level and DNA damage after irradiation [65]. One of the most interesting

properties of NOX system is continuous generation of ROS in highly radiosensitive organs including the bone marrow and intestine. It seems that NOX2 and NOX4 are the most important redox enzymes which amplify radiation toxicity in these organs. In mice bone marrow cells, upregulation of NOX4 has been investigated for 8 weeks after whole-body irradiation. Inactivation of NOX4 has been shown to augment survival and reduce genomic instability. The upregulation of NOX enzymes has also been investigated in mice intestine and was suggested as a source of ROS which mediates chronic oxidative stress for a long time after irradiation. It seems that upregulation of NOX enzymes also plays a key role in chronic inflammation via triggering infiltration of inflammatory cells.

Duox1 and Duox2 are other subfamilies that produce H_2O_2 . The most common action of these enzymes is regulating thyrocyte cell function to release thyroxine (T4) and triiodothyronine (T3) [66]. It has been confirmed that high activities of these enzymes are associated with genomic instability and carcinogenesis [67]. In response to ionizing radiation, Duox1 is upregulated and generates higher amount of H_2O_2 for long periods of time. It has been confirmed that an increase in IL-13 is responsible for continuous production of ROS by Duox1 [68]. It seems that upregulation of both Duox1 and Duox2 is involved in the late effect of ionizing radiation which occurs following an increase in IL-4 or IL-13. Infiltration of inflammatory cells and fibrosis have been associated with upregulation of these enzymes [67].

7. Mitochondria

It seems that the mitochondria are the main source of ROS generation for most cells. During oxidative phosphorylation (OXPHOS) the redox reactions in electron transient chain (ETC) lead to superoxide production [69]. Under normal conditions, superoxide is neutralized by superoxide dismutase (SOD) and catalase to prevent toxic effects on vital organelles. Any disruption in the normal OXPHOS can cause overproduction of superoxide by mitochondria, leading to overwhelming antioxidant defense by SOD and catalase. This causes oxidative damage to DNA, organelles, proteins and also lipids within cells and in membrane [70]. Ionizing radiation is able to cause several mutations in mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) [71]. Studies have shown that mutations in mtDNA after exposure to radiation lead to chronic overproduction of superoxide, which itself triggers production of ROS from other pro-oxidant enzymes in a positive feedback loop [72]. Damages to the DNA nucleus can also trigger mitochondria ATP generation. It seems that cell-cycle kinase CDK1 plays a key role in this pathway. After DNA damage, an increase in CDK1 can stimulate ATP generation and OXPHOS in the mitochondria. This is associated with DNA damage and inhibition of DNA repair [73]. Also, cell death after exposure to ionizing radiation has a key role in stimulating oxygen metabolism and generation of ROS by the mitochondria and other pro-oxidant enzymes. Apoptosis and senescence trigger the release of TGF- β by macrophages, while necrosis may lead to the release of inflammatory cytokines that amplify radiation toxicity via triggering ROS generation [29,74,75]. As earlier mentioned, senescence can stimulate some side effects such as fibrosis following exposure to ionizing radiation. Mitochondrial dysfunction can trigger senescence after exposure to ionizing radiation. It has been shown that radiation-induced mitochondrial respiratory complex II dysfunction causes overproduction of superoxide, which is associated with oxidative stress and cell death through senescence [76]. In mice intestine, ROS production by the mitochondria has been investigated for one year after irradiation [12]. Furthermore, *in vitro* studies have shown that the mitochondria are responsible for ROS overproduction and genomic instability in the progeny of irradiated cells [77,78]. Damage to mtDNA can also release vesicles that cause oxidative injury in bystander cells [79]. This shows that the mitochondria play a key role in chronic oxidative injury after exposure to ionizing radiation, thus its targeting could help protect and mitigate radiation-induced oxidative injury.

To date, many studies have shown that suppression of mitochondria via selective inhibitors or some other agents mitigates oxidative stress. On the other hand, some agents that neutralize free radicals to prevent mitochondrial injury can mitigate radiation injury, probably via reducing mitochondrial malfunction [80]. Targeting the mitochondria via mitochondrial inhibitors or mitochondrial antioxidants has been shown to reduce ROS generation, DNA damage and cell death [81–84]. One of the interesting mitochondrial inhibitors is metformin [85]. Pre-irradiation treatment with metformin has been shown to reduce genotoxic effects of radiation such as DNA damage, micronuclei formation and apoptosis [86]. Pre and post-irradiation treatments with metformin has shown radioprotective effects for some organs such as intestine, colon, kidney, lung and heart [87–91]. Administration of metformin only after irradiation can mitigate radiation-induced hematopoietic injury, pneumonitis and fibrosis, which are associated with reduction of TGF- β [92–94]. In a clinical study, administration of metformin was shown to improve the number of peripheral white cells in patients treated with radioactive iodine for thyroid cancer [95].

One of the interesting strategies for targeting the mitochondria is the use of mitochondria antioxidants or some agents that neutralize superoxide generated by the mitochondria selectively [96]. The delivery of SOD2 (MnSOD) into the mitochondria has been shown to reduce radiation damage in irradiated cells [97–100]. JP4-039 is a mitochondria-targeted nitroxide that is concentrated in the mitochondria, neutralizes and acts as an SOD mimic. Administration of JP4-039 after whole body irradiation with a lethal dose of radiation can mitigate radiation injury and increase survival [101]. It has been shown to reduce oxidative stress and cell death in the bone marrow, thus mitigates lethal effects of ionizing radiation [102–105]. Rajagopalan et al. evaluated the effect of JP4-039 for mitigation of radiation injury following exposure to a lethal dose of radiation. They showed that JP4-039 helps DNA repair after irradiation [106]. JP4-039 can reduce epithelial cells' necrosis in the small intestine and help stem cells' recovery. These are associated with suppression of inflammation in the intestine [107]. The protective effect of JP4-039 on epithelial cells has also been confirmed for oral and esophageal mucus, while it showed no protective effect for cancer cells [108–110]. To date, some different analogues of JP4-039 have been explored to increase protective and mitigatory effects against radiation [111,112]. Furthermore, some other types of mitochondrial antioxidants such as MnTE-2-PyP5+, tempol and glutathione peroxidase 4 mimic Mito-Ebselen have been developed [113–119].

8. Nitric oxide synthases (NOSs)

NO is a product of macrophages via upregulation of iNOS. NO has a higher half-life compared to ROS and is able to attack DNA. Also, it can combine with superoxide generated by mitochondria to generate peroxynitrite. Peroxynitrite can attack the DNA and cause nucleotide damage directly. Interaction of peroxynitrite with the DNA leads to formation of 8-nitroguanine or oxidation of deoxyribose, which give rise to an abasic site and single strand break (SSB). Peroxynitrite can also cause oxidation and degradation of guanine [120]. Another mechanism of peroxynitrite is induction of DNA damage and cell death through modulation of DNA repair mechanisms. Peroxynitrite causes nitroacetylation of 8-Oxoguanine DNA Glycosylase (Ogg1), a key enzyme in base excision repair (BER) pathway. Nitroacetylation of Ogg1 causes attenuation of its activity and accumulation of unrepaired 8-oxodeoxyguanine (8-oxodG). In this condition, unrepaired SSBs can cause upregulation of poly(ADP-ribose) polymerase 1 (PARP1) and induction of apoptosis [121]. Many years ago, it was suggested that modulation of NO can reduce radiation toxicity in normal tissues [122]. It has been confirmed that production of NO after exposure to radiation is involved in bone marrow dysplasia and enteritis [123,124]. Inhibition of NO generation in the bone marrow has been shown to be associated with radioresistance of hematopoietic and marrow stromal cells [125]. Activation of iNOS in the bone marrow stroma after exposure to radiation

Table 1
Summary results of redox metabolism targeting for mitigation of radiation-induced normal tissue injury.

Route	Cells/tissues	Radiation dose	Targets	Findings	References
In vitro	CHO-K1	3 Gy	Mitochondria	Inhibition of mitochondria by dihydropyridines (DHPs) reduces the level of ROS generation which cause amelioration of oxidative DNA damage.	[81]
Mice	Intestine	9–10 Gy	Mitochondria	JP4-039 can mitigate lethal effect of radiation via preventing epithelial necrosis, helps recovery of stem cells, reduction of inflammatory cells infiltration and release of TNF- α .	[107]
Mice	Bone marrow	8 Gy	Mitochondria	JP4-039 attenuates apoptosis in bone marrow cells.	[104]
Mice	Head and neck	30 Gy	Mitochondria	JP4-039 can reduce severity of mucositis.	[109]
Rats	Lung	20 Gy	Mitochondria	Treatment with metformin after irradiation ameliorates fibrosis.	[93]
Mice	Bone marrow	7 Gy	Mitochondria	Metformin can mitigate radiation injury in hematopoietic cells and increases survival.	[94]
Rats	Lung and heart	15 Gy	Mitochondria	Treatment with metformin pre- and post-irradiation reduced the level of IL-4, pneumonitis and fibrosis.	[90,89]
Mice	Kidney	8 Gy	mTOR	Rapamycin administration after whole-body irradiation can induce repopulation of renal stem cells, thus ameliorates nephrotoxicity.	[43]
Mice	Parotid glands	5 Gy	mTOR	Inhibition of mTOR by rapalogue (CCI-779) can augment the number of cells in parotid glands, while no hyperplasia was observed for mandibular glands.	[45]
Mice	Lung	5 \times 6 Gy	mTOR	Treatment with rapamycin starting 2 days before irradiation for 16 weeks led to reduction of senescence and pulmonary fibrosis.	[49]
Mice	Tongue	5 \times 6 Gy	mTOR	Rapamycin also caused reduction of macrophage infiltration into the lung.	[46]
In vitro	Murine microglia cells	10 Gy	PPAR δ	Rapamycin induced the activation of MnSOD, which prevented senescence in stem cells as well as mucositis.	[57]
In vitro	Murine microglia cells	2–10 Gy	PPAR α	Reduction in the level of inflammatory mediators and cytokines, and also reduced oxidative stress observed following activation of PPAR δ .	[58]
Mice	Brain	10 Gy	PPAR α	Activation of PPAR α caused a reduction in inflammatory markers including NF- κ B and AP-1.	[59]
Mice	Kidney	10 Gy	PPAR α	Activation of PPAR α using fenofibrate could preserve the hippocampus after whole-brain irradiation.	[54]
Mice	Intestine	12 Gy	PPAR γ	Knock out of PPAR α increased the expression of NF- κ B; however, it protected kidney cells via inhibition of apoptosis.	[60]
Mice	Lung	19 Gy	PPAR γ	Activation of PPAR γ can reduce radiation toxicity in the intestine via suppression of apoptosis and inflammation.	[61]
Mice	Head and neck	16.5 Gy	PPAR γ	Rosiglitazone as an agonist of PPAR γ attenuated pneumonitis and fibrosis following downregulation of NF- κ B and TGF- β .	[62]
In vitro	Human pulmonary artery endothelial cells (HPAFCS)	5 Gy	NOX1	Suppression of NF- κ B and TGF- β following PPAR γ activation showed amelioration of mucositis.	[63]
In vitro	salivary gland acinar cells (NS-SV-AC)	10 Gy	NOX1	NOX1 potentiates pulmonary fibrosis.	[64]
In vitro	Human fibroblasts	2–10 Gy	NOX4&5	Superoxide production by NOX1 mediates apoptosis in irradiated cells.	[65]
Rats	Lung	2 Gy	NOX2&4	Inactivation of NOX4 and NOX5 can reduce oxidative stress and DNA injury after exposure to radiation.	[138]
				Localized pelvis irradiation led to upregulation of NOX2 and NOX4. Administration of melatonin could attenuate the upregulation of these genes.	

can cause damage to transplanted hematopoietic or stem cells [123]. Infiltration of macrophages after exposure to ionizing radiation can be a sign of NO production. Pneumonitis after lung exposure to radiation is a known consequence of infiltration of inflammatory cells. Production of NO by macrophages has a role in the progression of pneumonitis. Inhibition of iNOS by N(G)-nitro-L-arginine methyl ester (L-NAME) in a rat model showed remarkable reduction in inflammation and fibrosis [126]. In contrast to these results, some evidences have shown that disruption of NO generation and overproduction of ROS by NADPH oxidase are responsible for vascular injuries after exposure to ionizing radiation [127]. Anti-inflammatory and antioxidant agents which neutralize both ROS and NO could be appropriate for mitigating radiation injury via boosting DNA repair and overcoming oxidative stress. NO has a dual effect on cancer and may cause both cell death and angiogenesis [128]. Although selective targeting of NO may not be applicable for radiotherapy, NO scavengers are promising for mitigation of radiation toxicity [111,129].

9. Epigenetic regulators of redox reactions

It has been confirmed that some epigenetic modulators such as microRNAs are able to change redox state through regulation of antioxidant or pro-oxidant agents [130] (Table 1). MiR-21 is one of the most common players in the epigenetic modulation of oxidative stress following exposure to ionizing radiation. It has been shown that miR-21 is triggered by TGF- β [131,132]. On the other hand, miR-21 causes suppression of SOD2, leading to overcoming superoxide generation on the antioxidant defense of cells [133,134]. MiR-22 can also increase ROS derived mitochondria, thus induces apoptosis [135]. Recently, it has been shown that this pathway plays a role in apoptosis of bone marrow stem cells [136]. Its inhibition and that of some other

microRNAs such as miR-214 that are involved in oxidative injury, have been shown to ameliorate radiation toxicity in irradiated cells [137] (Fig. 2).

10. Conclusion

As explained in this review, cell metabolism is an important target for mitigation of radiation injury. The most part of cell metabolism for mitigation of radiation injury is related to abnormal increased generation of free radicals including both ROS and NO. Mitochondria are the major source of free radicals for a wide range of cells. Targeting mitochondrial ROS by mitochondrial ROS scavengers and SOD mimicking antioxidants confirms its pivotal role in radiation toxicity. NADPH oxidase enzymes are involved in radiation-induced injury in some organs such as bone marrow, intestine and lung. These enzymes can be activated by both immune and non-immune cells. COX-2 and iNOS are regulated mainly by inflammatory cells and have a role in inflammatory reactions and fibrosis in some organs like lung, neurovascular and gastrointestinal system. Treatments with antioxidants and anti-inflammatory agents have been shown to mitigate radiation toxicity via neutralization of free radicals and attenuation of these enzymes. Moreover, some other mechanisms including mTOR and PPARs which are activated by ionizing radiation mediate cell death mainly through senescence. This is very important for late effects of ionizing radiation such as fibrosis.

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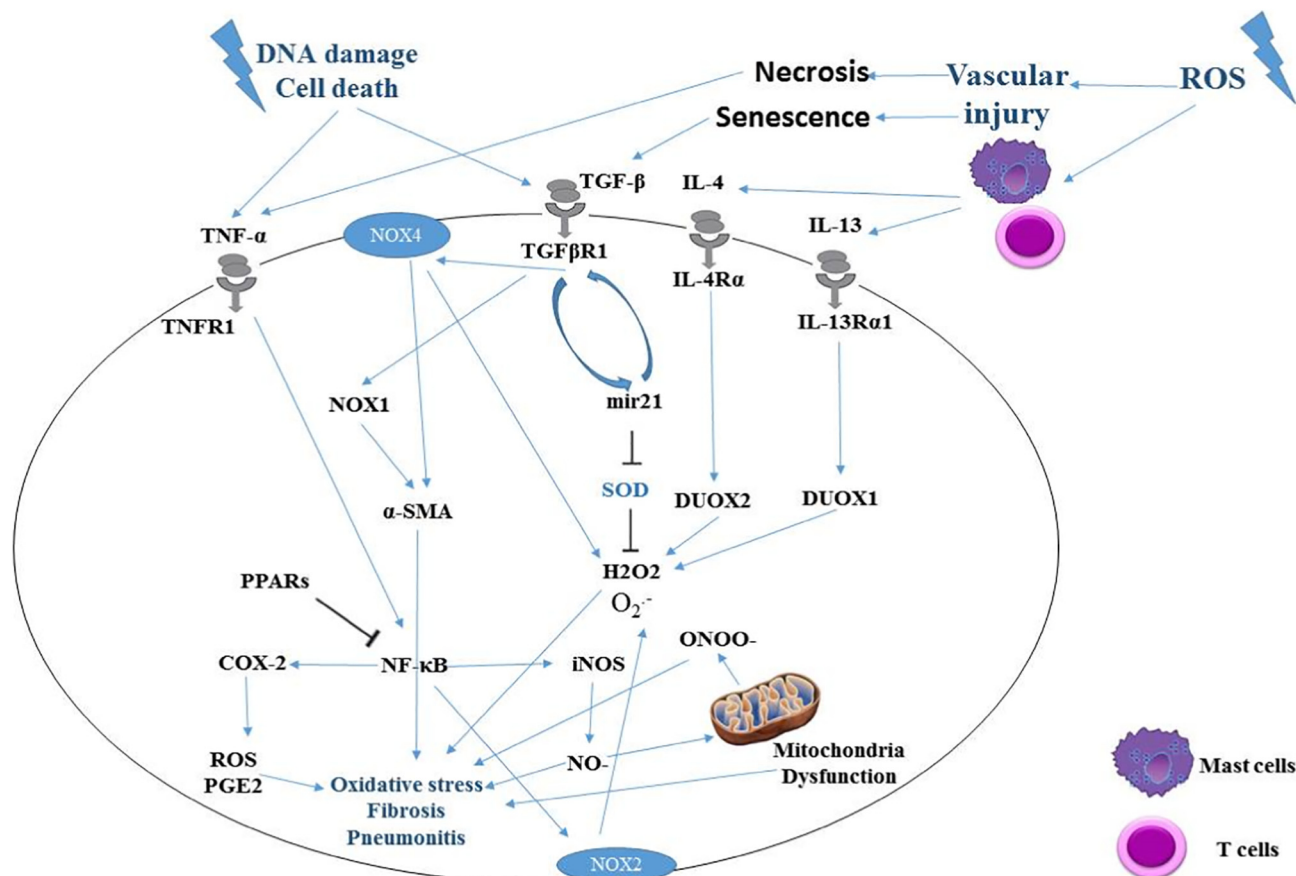


Fig. 2. Redox metabolisms following exposure to ionizing radiation.

Declaration of competing interest

None.

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