**Ionizing Radiation induces cells with past caspase activity that contribute to the adult organ in**

*Drosophila* **and show reduced Loss of Heterozygosity**

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**Abstract**

There is increasing recognition that cells may activate apoptotic caspases but not die, instead displaying

various physiologically relevant consequences. We know very little, however, of mechanisms that

underlie the life/death decision in a cell that has activated apoptotic caspases. By optimizing a published

reporter of past caspase activity, we have been able to visualize such cells that results specifically from

exposure to ionizing radiation in *Drosophila* larval wing discs. We found that cells with X-ray-induced

past active caspases (XPAC) do not arise at random but are born at specific locations within the

developing wing imaginal discs of *Drosophila* larvae. Reduction of apoptotic signaling reduced the

prevalence of XPAC cells. Yet, XPAC cells appear in stereotypical patterns that do not follow the pattern

of IR-induced apoptosis, suggesting additional controls at play. Functional testing identified the

contribution by Wg (Wnt1), Notch and Ras signaling in this process. By following irradiated larvae into

adulthood, we found that XPAC cells contribute to the adult wing. To address the relationship between

XPAC and genome stability, we combined a reporter for past caspase activity with *mwh*, an adult marker

for Loss of Heterozygosity (LOH). Our data suggest that non-lethal caspase activity safeguards the

genome by facilitating DNA repair and reducing LOH after transient exposure to X-rays, identifying a

physiological role for non-lethal caspase activity during recovery from radiation damage.

**Author Summary**

Cells may activate enzymes needed for apoptosis, a form of cell death, yet not die. We found that cells

that lived through the activation of apoptotic enzymes after exposure to ionizing radiation show

reduced aberrations in their genomes, suggesting that a near-death experience may benefit the cell.

**Fit for PLoS Genetics**

We make use of *Drosophila* genetics to address the survival and the  fate of cells with past caspase

activity, a phenomenon of broad interest. Therefore, this work is a good fit for the readership of PLoS

Genetics.

**Introduction**

Caspases are a family of cysteine proteases that are conserved in metazoan. Some members of the caspase family function in non-apoptotic processes such as cytokine maturation and innate immunity whereas other members such as Caspases 3 and 7 degrade proteins to execute apoptosis, to be called 'apoptotic caspases' here (for reviews, [1, 2]). An exciting emerging field is based on the recognition that cells may activate apoptotic caspases but not die, instead displaying various physiologically relevant consequences (for reviews, [3-6]). For example, apoptotic caspases serve non-apoptotic purposes during organism development that include axon pruning, stem cell differentiation, reduction of the cytoplasm during sperm maturation, and elimination of the nuclei during the maturation of vertebrate lens cells and Red Blood Cells. Cells survive caspase activation that occurs naturally during each of these processes. Past caspase activation is also associated with cells that undergo anastasis, a process in which a cell returns to life from the brink of apoptotic death [4, 7-9]. Anastasis is observed in cultured cells exposed to a variety of death stimuli including ethanol [10], a broad-spectrum kinase inhibitor Staurosporine and a small molecule BCL-2 antagonist [11], or ion beam radiation [12]. Removal of death-inducing stimuli before apoptosis is completed allows some cells to recover even after displaying such apoptotic features as cleaved active caspases, Mitochondrial Outer Membrane Permeabilization (MOMP), or flipping of phosphatidylserine onto the outer cell membrane. Cells that underwent anastasis are not only alive but are capable of proliferation and initiating tumors. Both anastasis and developmental caspase activation produce cells with past caspase activity. But the latter are not necessarily products of anastasis because many such cells may not have initiated apoptosis.

To study the non-apoptotic role of apoptotic caspases, we need to be able to detect cells that activated caspases but did not die. Two genetic reporters for past caspase activation in living cells have been described in *Drosophila melanogaster* and both rely on caspase-mediated permanent changes in the

genome that result in constitutive GFP expression [13, 14]. At the core of CasExpress and Caspase

Tracker biosensors is transcriptional activator GAL4 that has been modified with a cell-membrane

tether. The tether includes a recognition sequence, DQVD, for effector caspase Drice (*Drosophila*

caspase 3/7). Upon caspase activation, the tether is cleaved to allow GAL4 to enter the nucleus and

activate transcription. Use of this in conjunction with the G-trace lineage tracing system [15] allows for

real-time detection via UAS-RFP and lineage marking via UAS-FLP recombinase; FLP catalyzes a

recombination event to cause ubiquitous and permanent GFP expression. Both CasExpress and Caspase

Tracker show that non-lethal apoptotic caspase activity is widespread in nearly every tissue during

*Drosophila* development [13, 14]. The specificity of biosensors is demonstrated by control sensors with a

DQVD->DQVA mutation that abolished reporter activity. These findings agree with the body of evidence

for non-lethal activation of apoptotic caspases in multiple tissues in various metazoan model organisms.

We wanted study cells with past caspase activity induced not by developmental events but by ionizing

radiation (IR). IR is one of three main modalities in cancer therapy, the others being surgery and

chemotherapy. The success of radiation therapy of cancer relies on IR's ability to induce apoptosis.

Therapy failure can result if cells initiate but do not complete apoptosis after IR exposure, making it

important to understand molecular mechanisms that regulate the production of such cells. We have

found it challenging to use CasExpress and Caspase Tracker to detect IR-induced non-lethal caspase

activation because of constitutive signal from these biosensors. Even when a temperature-sensitive

repressor of GAL4, GAL80$^{ts}$, was used to limit GAL4 activity temporally, we still observed GFP+ cells in

mock-irradiated larval wing discs [16]. Here, we report an optimized temperature shift protocol that out-

performs our published protocol by increasing the ratio of IR-induced to constitutive signal from ~2-4 to

~20. The optimized protocol allows us to detect cells with past caspase activity that results specifically

from exposure to X-rays. We found that cells with X-ray-induced past active caspases (XPAC) do not arise

at random but are born at specific locations within the developing wing imaginal discs of *Drosophila*

larvae. Reduction of apoptotic signaling reduced the prevalence of XPAC cells. Yet, XPAC cells appear in

stereotypical patterns that do not follow the pattern of IR-induced apoptosis, suggesting additional

controls at play. The prevalence and stereotypical pattern of XPAC cells change with development such

that less developed wing discs show greater XPAC prevalence compared to more developed wing discs.

Functional testing identified the contribution by Wg (Wnt1), Notch and Ras signaling in XPAC cell

number. By following irradiated larvae into adulthood, we show that XPAC cells contribute to the adult

wing. Anastasis has been associated with increased genome instability in immortalized mammalian cells

[9, 11, 12]. On the other hand, wide-spread non-lethal caspase activity is detected during normal

*Drosophila* development, raising the possibility that such activity may be neutral or even beneficial to

normal cells. Using our protocol in conjunction with a cell-autonomous marker for Loss of

Heterozygosity (LOH), *mwh*, we were able to address this question. Our data suggest that non-lethal

caspase activity safeguards the genome by facilitating DNA repair and reducing LOH after transient

exposure to X-rays.

**Results**

*Optimizing temperature shift conditions to detect cells with past IR-induced caspase activity*

In our published studies to detect X-rays-induced past caspase activity (XPAC) using Caspase Tracker, we

raised the larvae at 18°C and shifted them to 29°C to inactivate GAL80$^{ts}$ from 0 to 6h after irradiation

with 4000R (40Gy) of X-rays [16] (Fig. 1A, T=29°C). 4000R is typically used in *Drosophila* because almost

all wild type larvae eclose into adult flies at this dose but about half of them die soon after, making it the

LD$_{50}$ dose. We reason that this dose causes sufficient damage but is still compatible with mechanisms

that allow survival. We chose 0-6h after IR because it includes the peak of caspase activation. After

exposure to 4000R of X-rays, pro-apoptotic genes *hid* and *rpr* that are needed for IR-induced caspase

activation are transcriptionally induced at 2h after IR [17]. Caspase cleavage is detectable at about 3h

after IR as is apoptosis as detected by staining with the vital dye Acridine Orange; AO stains apoptotic

and not necrotic cells in *Drosophila* [18]. By 4h after IR, *hid/rpr* expression has declined compared to the

2h time point, although cleaved caspases and AO staining remain visible for up to 24h after [17]. Based

on these results, we are using a 6h window immediately after IR to capture the bulk of IR-induced

caspase activation.

Our published experiments with Caspase Tracker [20] are reproduced here (Fig. 1B, the first two

datasets) and expanded to include CasExpress (Fig. 1C-D'; quantified in Fig. 1B, middle two datasets).

Even with limited (6h) activation of GAL4 at 29°C, wing discs from unirradiated larvae show GFP+ cells

(Fig. 1C', quantified in Fig. 1B, the first two -IR datasets). The GFP+ area increased significantly with

irradiation (Fig. 1D', quantified in B), for both Caspase Tracker and CasExpress. IR increased the mean

disc area with Caspase Tracker>GFP by about 3-fold and CasExpress>GFP by about 4-fold. This means

about 66% of Caspase Tracker>GFP cells and about 75% of CasExpress>GFP cells observed in irradiated

discs are X-ray-induced while the remainder are from developmental caspase activation. We wanted to

improve the experimental conditions such that nearly all GFP+ cells in irradiated discs are due to IR. To

this end, we examined the effect of different incubation temperatures after IR in the protocol in Fig. 1A

(Figure 1 E-G'). We used CasExpress in these efforts because its datasets show smaller variance than

Caspase Tracker (Fig. 1B). As we increased the incubation temperature from 18°C, we found that we

could go as high as 26°C and still keep the CasExpress>GFP area to near zero in unirradiated discs (Fig.

1G', quantified in B). At T=26°C, irradiation increased the GFP+ area significantly (Fig. 1H', quantified in

B). A control CasExpress sensor with a DQVD->DQVA mutation showed no GFP+ cells even with

irradiation (compare Fig. 1I to H'), indicating that GFP+ cells report effector caspase activity specifically.

Returning the larvae back to 18°C immediately after irradiation, that is, without any temperature shift,

eliminated GFP+ cells (Fig. 1J), indicating that production of GFP+ cells is GAL4-dependent. Because of

low GFP+ area in -IR discs at 26°C, the 'signal to noise' ratio was greatest under these conditions: a 20-

fold increase in mean GFP+ area between 0R and 4000R. Therefore, we could be confident that most

(>90%) of GFP+ cells we see in +IR discs were cells with X-ray-induced past active caspases (XPAC).

Subsequent experiments use the protocol in Fig. 1A with T=26°C.

XPAC *cells proliferate*

The data in Fig. 1 were from 3 days after irradiation. To study GFP+ XPAC cells soon after they form, we

performed a time course (Fig. 2). GFP+ cells were not observed at 6h after IR but were readily detectable

at 24h after IR (Fig. 2A). At this time, most GFP+ cells were either singlets (arrow) or in small groups of 2-

5 cells (arrowhead). At 48h after irradiation, single GPF+ cells were rare and most cells were in clones of

4-30 cells each (Fig. 2B). Clone size increased further at 72h after IR, the last time point taken before we

lost the larvae to pupariation (Fig. 2C). We conclude that XPAC cells are capable of clonogenic

proliferation. Real time marker RFP was not observed (Fig 2. A'', B'', C''), presumably because the return

to 18°C restored GAL80$^{ts}$ and repressed GAL4.

***The prevalence and the location of XPAC cells change with development***

We next addressed the factors that influence the production of XPAC cells. Our collection of larvae

spanned 24h in age. As such, we observed a range of developmental stages, that is, discs of different

sizes and degree of epithelial folding (Figure 3A-D; arrowheads point to increasing folding in more

developed discs). We noticed three trends in the prevalence and the location of GFP+ cells at 24h after

IR. First, smaller discs showed more GFP+ area relative to the disc size than larger, more developed discs

(compare Fig. 3D' to A'). A plot of % disc area that is GFP+ against disc size illustrates this trend (Fig. 3F

'6-7d at IR'). The area serves as surrogate for cell number and is justified for a single layer epithelium.

4000R of X-rays stop the cell cycle via checkpoint activation, with S phase and mitosis resuming at about

6h after irradiation [19]. Cell doubling times in 3$^{rd}$ instar wing discs average 12h [20]. Therefore, at 24h

after irradiation when we quantify XPAC cells, cells would have divided on average just once, which can

be seen as the appearance of singlets (arrow) and doublets (arrowhead) in Fig. 2A. Zero to one division

is insufficient to form scorable clones, which is why we measure the area rather than clone number.

We interpret the size-dependence to mean that as the disc increased in developmental age, X-rays were

able to induce fewer cells that activated caspases but survived. This correlation was confirmed by aging

the larvae for an additional 24h at 18°C before irradiation but treating them as in Fig. 1A otherwise. This

produced larger, more developed discs. Importantly, the same relationship between disc size and %

GFP+ area was observed in the older cohort (Fig. 3F, '7-8d at IR'), except that overall values shifted to

the right as expected for larvae that were one day older. An alternate method of data analysis, which

has been used in the literature to separate wing discs according to development [21], led to the same

conclusion.  When discs with no epithelial folds (younger/less developed discs, as shown in Fig 3A and

3B) and discs with epithelial folds (more developed discs, as shown in Fig. 3C and 3D) were analyzed

separately, the %GFP+ area was lower for more developed discs (Fig. 3G), further supporting the idea

that the prevalence of XPAC cells changes with development.

The second trend we saw was that the distribution of GFP+ cells in each disc was not homogenous. The

notum (future body wall or 'n' in Fig. 3A') had fewer GFP+ cells than the future wing ('w' in Fig. 3A'

includes the hinge and the pouch). This was true regardless of disc size.

The third trend we saw was that when the number of GFP+ cells declined in larger discs, their loss was

not evenly distributed throughout the disc. Instead, the distal pouch (* in Fig. 3A', B', C') became clear of

GFP+ cells before the rest, leaving a ring of GFP+ cells (Fig. 3C', arrows).

***Apoptosis signaling modulates XPAC cell number***

To identify mechanisms that influence whether a cell with active caspases lives or dies, we targeted

molecules involved in the apoptotic signaling pathway.  We addressed the cell-autonomous requirement

by expressing each transgene for 6h after IR under UAS control, which means only in cells that have

activated caspases and translocated GAL4 into the nucleus as part of the CasExpress system. Thus, we

are asking what keeps cells alive <u>after</u> they began to activate apoptotic caspases. We analyzed our data

based on the stage of development, separating less developed discs (no epithelial folds) from more

developed discs (epithelial folds). We increased apoptotic signaling by expressing pro-apoptotic genes

*hid* and *rpr* together or *rpr* alone. We decreased apoptotic signaling by expressing a dominant negative

version of apical caspase Dronc in which an essential cysteine in the active site has been mutated to an

alanine or viral caspase inhibitor p35 that inhibits effector caspases. We used also heterozygotes for the

H99 chromosomal deficiency that removes *hid*, *rpr* and *grim* and has been shown to reduce and delay

IR-induced apoptosis [17]; the effect of H99 would be throughout the organism and not just cell-

autonomous. Both increased and decreased apoptotic signaling led to reduced XPAC prevalence (Fig

3H). The seemingly paradoxical finding can be explained by the threshold model for apoptotic induction

wherein cells must accumulate a certain level of effector caspase activity to die [22]. Increasing effector

caspase activity with UAS-*hid*/*rpr* would push cells over the threshold, reducing the number of GFP+

cells that activated apoptotic caspases but lived. Reduction of apoptotic caspase activation with H99

would reduce effector caspase activity, preventing some cells from activating CasExpress, thus also

reducing the number of GFP+ cells. The ability of Dronc$^{DN}$  and p35 to reduce XPAC prevalence when

expressed under the control of CasEx-GAL4 suggests that not all CasEx-GAL4 that localizes to the nucleus

succeeds in facilitating a recombination event to result in permanent GFP expression. Instead, a positive

amplification loop wherein an active caspase cleaves to activate more caspases, which can be blocked

by Dronc$^{DN}$ or p35, may be needed to generate a GFP+ XPAC cell.

The effect of altering apoptotic signaling on XPAC cells was more pronounced for less developed discs

(Fig 3H vs. I). The effect of *hid*, *rpr* and Dronc$^{DN}$ were still significant in more developed discs but H99 and

p35 did not produce significant effects (Fig 3I). We do not know the reason for this but it is possible that

while 2 copies of *hid*, *rpr* and *grm* are needed to activate CasEx to the level that results in permanent

GFP expression in younger discs (hence the sensitivity to H99), only one copy is sufficient in more

developed discs.

***Developmental changes in XPAC induction does not correlate with apoptosis or cell proliferation***

We next addressed why the prevalence of GFP+ cells decline in more developed discs. One possible

explanation is that cells in more developed discs are post-mitotic; non-dividing cells are known to be

refractory to apoptosis, for example in the eye disc [23]. Staining with an antibody to phospho-Histone

H3, a mitotic marker, ruled out this possibility (Fig 4A-C''). At 24h after IR when cells have already

recovered from checkpoint arrest [19], all discs show robust and wide-spread mitoses regardless of

whether they also display robust XPAC prevalence (Fig 4A''-B'') or few detectable GFP+ cells (Fig 4C'').

We note robust mitotic activity in the notum (arrows) and the pouch (between dashed lines in Fig 4C-

C'') that includes the future Zone of Non-Proliferating Cells (ZNC). The ZNC is comprised of only two

rows of cells that flank the dorsal/ventral boundary (D/V) and the arrest occurs in late 3$^{rd}$ instar stage

whereas clearing of XPAC cells is observed in a larger area of the pouch or throughout the disc. Disc

regional difference in XPAC prevalence, notum versus wing in Fig 3B' for example, also does not

correlate with regional difference in cell doubling times reported in the literature [21]. We conclude that

proliferation state cannot explain the reduction of XPAC cells in more developed discs.

Another possible reason for the decline in XPAC prevalence in more developed discs is that X-rays were

less efficient at inducing caspase activity. A published study found that IR-induced apoptosis becomes

restricted in the wing discs of <u>wandering stage</u> larvae, for example, with cells along the D/V boundary

becoming refractory to apoptosis [24]. On the other hand, we have not observed such restrictions in

<u>feeding stage</u> larvae that we use in our experiments with the exception of the hinge. We have shown

before that cells of the hinge in feeding stage larvae are protected from IR-induced apoptosis by the

combined action of Wg and STAT while the rest of the wing disc cells are sensitive to IR-induced

apoptosis [23]. Staining for a cleaved active effector caspase or with a vital dye confirm this finding (Fig 4

D-J). Cleaved Dcp1 signal is absent without irradiation (S1 Figure A-A'') but is readily discernable in

irradiated discs regardless of whether they show robust XPAC induction (Fig 4D'' and E'') or only a few

detectable GFP+ cells (Fig 4F''). Disc areas with Dcp1 signal includes the notum (arrow) and the distal

pouch (*) that display reduced XPAC prevalence as the discs mature. That IR induces wide-spread cell

death at developmental stages we study was confirmed by staining wing discs at with 4 h after IR with a

vital dye Acridine Orange (AO), which in Drosophila reports apoptosis [18] (Fig 4G-H; the brackets

indicate the hinge cells that we showed before are refractory to IR-induced apoptosis [23]). We

conclude that while apoptotic caspase activity is necessary to generate XPAC cells (Fig 3), it is not

sufficient to explain the spatiotemporal distribution of XPAC cells, which does not match the

spatiotemporal distribution of IR-induced caspase activation. We infer that other mechanisms operate

on top of caspase activation to decide whether a cell with active caspases live or die.

***Developmental Signaling pathways modulate XPAC prevalence***

The changing pattern of XPAC cells as discs mature suggests that developmental signaling pathways may

contribute to the survival of XPAC cells. We tested the role of Wg and N because XPAC cells appear to

'clear' from the distal pouch (* in Fig 3, 4, 5) where N drives Wg expression (yellow arrowhead in Fig 5C)

suggesting that these activities reduce XPAC number. On the other hand, XPAC cells persist near the Wg

Inner Ring (white arrowhead in Fig 5C), suggesting that Wg promotes XPAC survival. To test these ideas,

we expressed UAS-Wg or its inhibitor UAS-Axin for 6h after irradiation in CasExpress-GAL4-active cells as

we did for apoptotic pathway components in Fig 3. We find that either increasing or inhibiting Wg

signaling transiently had the same effect of lowering XPAC prevalence in less developed discs (a

representative disc with no folds is shown in Fig 5E, quantified in F). Likewise, transient manipulations of

N signaling with a constitutively active N (UAS-$N^{ICD}$) or a dominant negative inhibitor (UAS-mam$^{\Delta}$) also

had the same effect of lowering XPAC prevalence (Fig 5E). These results are reminiscent of how

increasing apoptotic functions (with *hid* and *rpr*) and decreasing apoptotic functions (with Dronc$^{DN}$ or

p35) both lowered XPAC prevalence in less developed discs (Fig 3H). Given the known anti-apoptotic

role of Wg [23] and the ability of N to activate Wg, a threshold model for apoptosis that could explain

the results with *hid*/*rpr* and Dronc could also be used to explain the Wg/N results. Specifically, reducing

Wg signaling may drive cells over the threshold while increasing Wg signaling may prevent caspase

activation, both of which could reduce XPAC number. We tested also the effect of Ras signaling because

it is known to restrict IR-induced apoptosis to intervein regions in the pouch in wandering stage larvae

[24]. Expression of a constitutively active Ras$^{G12V}$ mutant lowered XPAC prevalence in less developed

wing discs (Fig 5F). Ras/MAPK is known to inhibit caspase activation, by direct phosphorylation and

inhibition of Hid during Drosophila eye development for example [25], which could explain how it can

decrease XPAC prevalence.

As in the case of H99 heterozygotes, manipulation of Wg, N and Ras had less effect on XPAC cells in

more developed discs (Fig 5G). The only statistically significant effect, although small, was seen with

UAS-Wg, which increased XPAC prevalence. This is opposite of the case in less developed discs where

UAS-Wg lowered XPAC prevalence. We do not know why Wg overexpression results in opposite effects

on XPAC cells depending on the developmental stage but note that context-dependent pro- and anti-

apoptotic roles have been shown for another conserved factor, E2F1, in Drosophila wing discs [24].

***Cells with past caspase activity show reduced IR-induced LOH***

We next asked what the consequences of past IR-induced caspase activity is on cells. This question has

been addressed in cultured human cells using $^{56}$Fe ion particle radiation, a type of IR. Cells exposed to

0.5 Gy (500R) of particle radiation show persistent caspase activation for up to two weeks without dying

[12]. Under these conditions, caspase activity promoted DNA breaks and induced oncogenic

transformation. X-rays on the other hand induce transient caspase activation, with DNA breaks clearing

within 24h in larval wing discs [19, 23]. To ask what the consequences of transient non-lethal caspase

activation is in this context, we assayed for Loss of Heterozygosity using *multiple wing hair* as a marker.

*mwh* resides at the tip of chromosome III. Homozygosity of recessive alleles increases the number of

hairs per wing cell due to defective actin organization [26]. Heterozygotes appear wild type and allows

the detection of loss of the wild type allele through LOH. We have shown previously that *mwh* LOH is

absent without irradiation but is induced when larvae are irradiated with 4000R of X-rays [27].

We were able to use *mwh*, which produces an adult phenotype, because GFP+ XPAC cells survive into

adulthood and appear in adult wings an IR-dependent manner (Fig. 6). This was true regardless of larval

age (6-7d or 7-8d) at the time of irradiation (see Fig. 3F for corresponding 6-7d and 7-8d XPAC data in

larval discs). At higher magnification, it is possible to assign GFP+ cells to each surface of the wing (arrow

versus arrowhead in Fig. 6G) and assign the *mwh* and GFP status to individual cells (Fig. 6H, 3 GFP+ cells

are shown inside dashed lines). Quantification of the GFP- or GFP+ area of the wing that is also *mwh*

shows that GFP+ areas show fewer *mwh* cells compared to GFP- areas of the same wing (Fig. 5I). This

was true regardless of larval age at the time of irradiation. We conclude that cells with XPAC show

reduced LOH compared to those without. To address a possible explanation for this finding, we

monitored DNA double strand breaks (DSB) induced by X-rays under the same experimental conditions.

We and others have shown before that 4000R of X-rays induce DSBs throughout all cells of the wing disc

that can be detected with an antibody to phosphorylated histone variant H2Av (x in mammals) ($\gamma$-H2Av;

reproduced in S1 Figure B-C' at 4h after irradiation). A published time course demonstrate that $\gamma$-H2Av

signal is reduced to near-background levels 24h after irradiation suggesting that cells have completed

repair by this time [19, 23]. Consistent with these data, at 20-22h after IR, only a subset of cells show $\gamma$-

H2Av staining (Fig 6 J-L''''), which we interpret as cells that have yet to complete DNA repair.

Appropriate for our purposes, CasExpress>GFP signal becomes detectable at this time. Co-imaging in the

same discs show mutual exclusion of GFP and $\gamma$-H2Ax signals with rare cells that show both signals

(arrowheads in Fig 6J''''). We interpret these results to mean that XPAC cells complete DNA repair more

efficiently than their GFP-counterparts. Possible mechanisms  are discussed below. More efficient repair

in XPAC cells, we propose, could explain the observed reduction in LOH.

**Discussion**

We report here a study of cells with X-ray induced past active caspases (XPAC) during wing development

in *Drosophila*. An optimized temperature shift protocol allowed us to minimize cells with spontaneous,

developmental caspase activity and to focus specifically on XPAC cells. Such cells, we found, were able to

proliferate and contribute to the adult organ.

We are aware of three published studies that addressed the relationship between past caspase activity

and genome stability. In a study by Tang and colleagues, primary mouse liver cells and 3T3 immortalized

mouse embryonic fibroblast cell line were treated for 5h with 4.5% ethanol, an apoptosis inducer [9].

Three days after the treatment, cells showed increased abnormal chromosome number and appearance

(for both cell types) and increased colony formation that is indicative of oncogenic transformation (for

3T3 cells). In another study, Ichim and colleagues treated HeLa, U2OS, and other cancer cell lines for 3h

with a BH3 mimic ABT-737, to induce limited Mitochondrial Outer Membrane Permeabilization or

'minority MOMP' [11]. MOMP is an early step in apoptosis induction but with limited MOMP in these

experiments, cells did not die but displayed DNA fragmentation as detected by staining for γ-H2AX and

by comet assay. Incubation with a pan-caspase inhibitor prevented DNA fragmentation in these

experiments, implicating caspase activity as the cause for DNA fragmentation. ABT-737 also promoted

colony formation induced by KRAS/E1A in mouse embryo fibroblasts (MEF) and tumor formation by

MEFs that are null for tumor suppressor p19ARF.

Finally, in the only published study to use IR to induce sub-lethal caspase activity and assay the effect on

genome stability, Liu and colleagues exposed MEFS and immortalized human epithelial cells and

fibroblasts (MCF10A and IMR90) to $^{56}$Fe ion particle radiation [12]. Cells exposed to 0.5 Gy (500R) of $^{56}$Fe

radiation showed persistent caspase activation as assayed by a live caspase activity reporter, for up to

two weeks without dying. These cells also displayed γ -H2AX and DNA fragmentation as assayed by

comet assays, also for two weeks after irradiation. $^{56}$Fe-irradiated MCF10A cells with high caspase

reporter activity formed colonies in soft agar compared to irradiated cells with low reporter activity.

Inhibition of caspase 3 using shRNA or a dominant negative construct reduced the colony number,

suggesting that caspase activity was causing transformation.

We found that past caspase activity resulted in reduced IR-induced LOH in *Drosophila* wings. Classical

studies in Drosophila demonstrate that mitotic recombination makes only a minor contribution to IR-

induced LOH; most LOH cells were in single clones rather than twin spot products expected for mitotic

recombination [28]. Although the exact molecular mechanism remains to be determined, LOH serves as

a useful quantitative readout of IR-induced genetic abnormalities. While contrary to the above-

described results in mammalian cells, our LOH result is consistent with the published reports that non-

lethal caspase activity is wide-spread in *Drosophila*. Both CasExpress and Caspase Tracker are active in

nearly every tissue during *Drosophila* development [13, 14]. This agrees with the body of evidence for

non-apoptotic roles of apoptotic caspases in multiple tissues in various metazoan model organisms.

Clearly, caspases activity in these situations is not causing DNA fragmentation or else it would have been

detected in multiple studies that monitored DNA breaks (e.g., [19, 23]). We interpret our data to mean

that non-lethal caspase activity protects the genome from X-ray-induced chromosome breaks. One

possible reason is that unlike with $^{56}$Fe radiation, X-ray-induced DNA breaks are cleared within 24h in

larval wing discs as assayed by γ -H2Av, even with much higher IR doses of 4000R (40 Gy) [19, 23].

Therefore, it is possible that DNA repair is more efficient in cells of the wing discs and that in this

context, non-lethal caspase activity is beneficial. Co-staining for γ-H2Av shows mutual exclusion with

GFP, supporting this idea (Fig 6J-K). The question then is, how might past caspase activity help reduce

LOH in the wing discs? Caspase-driven cellular transformation in the above cited studies was proposed

to occur because caspases unravel the genome to allow access to oncogenic transcription factors such

as KRAS/E1A used in these studies [12]. Endonuclease G was found to act downstream of caspases in

cellular transformation by $^{56}$Fe. If a similar situation occurs in the wing disc, caspase activity could make

the genome more accessible to DNA repair enzymes instead of transformation factors. In other words,

consequences of non-lethal caspase activity may depend on the cellular context, specifically, which

proteins are present and active to access the DNA. In cells predisposed to transformation such as

immortalized cell lines, the outcome may be transformation. In non-immortalized cells or cells that lack

transformation factor but are robustly expressing DNA repair enzymes as part of DNA Damage

Responses, then increased repair may be the outcome to reduce IR-induced LOH.

Our published studies have addressed the role of apoptotic caspases in LOH and found both positive and

negative inputs [27]. Briefly, cells with X-ray-induce LOH are detectable by 48h after IR in larval wing

discs but are culled over the next 24h. This culling requires apoptosis such that H99/+ discs show more

LOH clones at 72h after IR. Individual clones in H99/+ discs, however, are smaller than in wild type,

suggesting that apoptosis is required for LOH clones to expand, presumably by apoptosis-induced

compensatory proliferation. The net result is reduced total LOH area in H99/+ larval wing discs and adult

wings. Dronc$^{DN}$ produced similar results. Reduced LOH [27] and reduced XPAC (this study) in H99/+

mutants seems contradictory to the finding that XPAC cells show reduced LOH. We note, however, that

the effect of caspases on LOH in published studies is proposed to be via apoptosis (to cull LOH cells or

promote compensator proliferation) whereas their role in producing XPAC cells requires that they fail to

induce cell death.

We do not know if XPAC cells we detect with a GFP reporter are products of anastasis. To be able to tell,

we need to know how far down the apoptosis pathway XPAC cells had gone, which cannot be discerned

with biosensors for past caspase activity. The induction of XPAC cells, we found, was sensitive to

developmental stage and showed stereotypical patterns in the developing wing disc. These new findings

suggest that local differences in gene expression or differentiation state provide a layer of control, which

operates on top of required apoptotic caspase activity, to generate XPAC cells. Specifically, we find that

optimal levels of Wg and N are needed as either increasing or decreasing each can lower XPAC

prevalence. Furthermore, their importance is greater in less developed discs. Lower XPAC prevalence we

see after inhibition of Wg or N is unlikely to be indirect via delayed development; if so, we expect XPAC

prevalence to increase because less developed discs show more XPAC.

A recent paper addressed the genetic basis for the prevalence of cells with past caspase activity using

the CasExpress system also used here [29]. The primary focus was on developmental CasExpress signal

in the wing discs observed without external insults such as radiation or heat shock, which we have taken

care to avoid in order to focus on X-ray-induced CasExpress (Fig 1). The study identified a requirement

for apical caspase Dronc in developmental CasExpress signal generation, similar to what we see for

XPAC. p35 reduced developmental CasExpress signal, which is also similar to what we see for XPAC. A

focused RNAi screen in the published study identified Akt and transcription factor dCIZ1 as new

regulators of developmental CasExpress induction. Further testing demonstrated a role for dCIZ1 also in

surviving executioner caspase activation by heat shock, oncogenic stress and X-rays. More striking, the

published study identified a role for oncogenic Ras in preserving cells that expressed developmental

CasExpress; expression of Ras$^{V12}$ in the posterior compartment of wing discs increased CasExpress>GFP

area by about 2-fold. This is the opposite of what we see; Ras$^{V12}$ reduced XPAC prevalence in less

developed discs and had no effect in more developed discs (Fig 5). We conclude that developmental

CasExpress induction and XPAC show similar as well as different requirements and represent two

distinct cellular responses to executioner caspase activity.

**MATERIALS AND METHODS**

***Drosophila* stocks**

*Drosophila* stocks used in this work are published, available from public stock centers, or both. All stocks

used are listed in S1 Table. These include (BL=Bloomington Stock number): G-trace (BL28280),

CasExpress (BL65419), CasExpress DQVA control (BL65420), Caspase Tracker [14], *mwh$^1$* (BL549), tubP-

GAL80$^{ts}$ on Chromosome III (BL7017) , UAS-p35 (BL5073), UAS-hid/rpr and UAS-rpr (BL5823) [30], UAS-

Wg [31], UAS-Axin (BL7225), UAS-Dronc$^{DN}$ [32], UAS-Ras$^{V12}$ (BL64195), UAS-Notch$^{ICD}$ (BL26674), UAS-mam$^\Delta$

(BL26672) and chromosome deficiency H99 (BL1576). To use in the experiments, the following stocks

were generated using standard *Drosophila* techniques:

Caspase Tracker/CyO-GFP; GAL80$^{ts}$/GAL80$^{ts}$

Caspase Tracker/CyO-GFP; mwh$^1$/TM6 Tb

G-trace/CyO-GFP; UAS-X/TM6 Tb where X was UAS-Wg, UAS-Axin, UAS-p35, UAS-Dronc$^{DN}$, UAS-

Ras$^{V12}$, UAS-Notch$^{ICD}$, UAS-mam$^\Delta$, or H99

G-trace/CyO-GFP; GAL80$^{ts}$/GAL80$^{ts}$

UAS-hid, UAS-rpr/UAS-hid, UAS-rpr or Y; G-trace/CyO-GFP

UAS-rpr/UAS-rpr or Y; G-trace/CyO-GFP

The stocks were maintained on Nutri-Fly Bloomington Formula food (Genesee Scientific) at 25°C. After

crossing virgins and males, the adults were fed on Nutri-Fly German Formula food (Genesee Scientific)

for 3 days at 25°C to boost egg production, before transferring them to 18° for embryo collection.

**Larvae culture, temperature shift and irradiation**

Embryos were collected and larvae were raised on Nutri-Fly Bloomington Formula food (Genesee

Scientific) at 18°C. The cultures were monitored daily for signs of crowding, typically seen as 'dimples' in

the food surface as larvae try to increase the surface area for access to air. Cultures were split at the first

sign of crowding.

Larvae in food were placed in petri dishes and irradiated at room temperature in a Faxitron

Cabinet X-ray System Model RX-650 (Lincolnshire, IL) at 115 kV and 5.33 rad/sec. Immediately after

irradiation, larvae in food were returned to new vials and placed in a constant temperature bath filled

with Lab Armor beads (ThermoFisher). We found that the use of beads gave more consistent and

reproducible data than the use of water baths. After the temperature shift to inactivate GAL80ts, larvae

were returned to 18°C until dissection.

**Tissue preparation, staining and imaging**

For Acridine Orange staining, Larvae were dissected in PBS, and imaginal discs were incubated for 5 min

in PBS plus 0.5 mM AO (Sigma) at room temperature, washed twice with PBS, mounted in PBS, and

imaged immediately.

For $\gamma$-H2Av staining, larval wing discs were dissected in PBS, fixed in 2% paraformaldehyde (PFA)

in PBS for 45 min, and washed twice with PBS. Discs were permeabilized in PBS with 0.5% Triton X-100

for 12.5 min. For other antibodies, wing discs were dissected in PBS, fixed in 4% PFA in PBS for 30

minutes, and washed three times in PBS, permeabilized in PBS with 0.5% Triton X-100 for 10 min, and

rinsed in PBTx (0.1% Triton X-100). The discs blocked in 5% Normal Goal Serum in PBTx (0.1% Triton X-

100) for at least 1 h and incubated overnight at 4°C in primary antibody in block. Primary antibodies

used were to cleaved Dcp1 (1:100, rabbit polyclonal, Cell Signaling Cat# 9578), Phospho-Histone H3

(1:1000, rabbit monoclonal, Upstate Biotech), Wingless (1:100, mouse monoclonal, Developmental

Studies Hybridoma Bank Cat# 4D4) and $\gamma$-H2Av antibody (1:1000, mouse monoclonal, Developmental

Studies Hybridoma Bank Cat# UNC93-5.2.1, deposited to the DSHB by Hawley, R.S.). The discs were

rinsed thrice in PBTx (0.1% Triton X-100) and blocked for at least 30 min before incubation in secondary

antibody in block for 2 h at room temperature. Secondary antibodies were used at 1:400-500 (Jackson).

Stained discs were washed in PBTx and counter-stained with 10 ug/ml Hoechst33258 in PBTx for 2 min,

washed 3 times, and mounted on glass slides in Fluoromount G (SouthernBiotech).

For adult wings, newly eclosed adults that have yet to unfurl wings were collected and kept at

room temperature until the wings unfurl. The wings were collected within 30 min of unfurling,

submerged in PBTx, mounted in Fluoromount G (SouthernBiotech), and imaged immediately. Any delay,

we found, meant the loss of fluorescent signal as wing epithelial cells are eliminated in a

developmentally regulated wing maturation step [28, 29].

464           Wing discs and wings were imaged on a Leica DMR compound microscope using a Q-Imaging R6

CCD camera and Ocular or Micro-Manager software. Images were processed and analyzed using ImageJ

software.

**Statistical Analysis**

For sample size justifications, we used a simplified resource equation from [33]; E = Total number of

animals – Total number of groups, where E value of 10-20 is considered adequate. When we compare

two groups (-IR and +IR for example, where the former is the control group and the latter is the treated

group), n= 6 per group or E = 11 would be adequate. All samples subjected to statistical analysis exceed

this criterion. 2-tailed Student t-test with equal variance was used.

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 **Figure Legends**

 **Figure 1. Optimizing temperature shift conditions to detect cells with X-ray-induced past caspase**

 **activity**

Larvae were treated as in Fig. 1A where T= 29°, 26°, 22° or 18°C as indicated on the panels. Wing discs

were dissected at 72h after exposure to 0R (-IR) or 4000R (+IR), fixed, stained for DNA, and imaged for

DNA and GFP. CasTrk = Caspase Tracker. CasEx = CasExpress. The genotype of the wing discs shown was

CasExpress/G-trace; GAL80$^{ts}$/+ in all panels except (I) which shows a control CasExpress mutant with a

DQVD>DQVA mutation that renders the GAL4 membrane tether caspase-resistant. Scale bar = 120

microns.

(A) The experimental protocol

(B) Fractional area of each disc that is GFP+ was quantified in Image J. p-values were calculated

using a 2-tailed t-test. The numbers in the brackets are the number of discs analyzed in two to four

biological replicate experiments per sample.

(C-C') An unirradiated disc shows GFP+ cells even after a short (6h) pulse of heat inactivation of

GAL80$^{ts}$ at 29°C.

(D-D') An irradiated disc shows more GFP+ cells with the same temperature shift as in C.

(E-G') Unirradiated discs show few GFP+ cells when the temperature shift for 6h is to 18°C (E),

22°C (F) or 26°C (G-G').

(H-H') A irradiated discs from larvae shifted to 26°C shows robust GFP signal.

(I) Discs from caspase-resistant CasExpress mutant larvae treated exactly as in H.

(J) Discs from larvae treated exactly as in (H) but with no temperature shift

**Figure 2. XPAC cells are capable of proliferating**

Larvae of the genotype CasExpress/G-trace; GAL80$^{ts}$/+ were treated as in Fig. 1A where T=26°C. Wing

discs were dissected at 24, 48 and 72h after exposure to 4000R, fixed, and stained for DNA. The discs

were imaged for GFP (A-C), DNA (A'-C') and RFP (A''-C''). N= number of discs examined in three

biological replicates for 24h and 2 biological replicates each for 48 and 72h. The arrow points to a singlet

GFP+ cell and the arrowhead points to a doublet of GFP+ cells in panel A. Scale bar = 120 microns.

**Figure 3. XPAC prevalence in development and the effect of apoptotic signaling**

Larvae of the genotype CasExpress/G-trace; GAL80$^{ts}$/+ were treated as in Fig. 1A where T=26°C. Wing

discs were dissected at 24h after exposure to 4000R, fixed, and stained for DNA. Scale bar = 120

microns. p-values were calculated using a 2-tailed t-test.

(A-D') The discs were imaged for DNA (A-D) or GFP (A'-D'). Hinge folds are visible in DNA images

of more developed discs and are indicated with arrowheads in (C-D). n = notum and w = future wing that

includes the hinge and the pouch. The most distal region of the future wing is indicated with * in (A'-C');

GFP+ cells clear from this region before the rest of the future wing. A ring of GFP+ cells is indicated with

arrows (C').

(E-E') CasExpress/G-trace; GAL80$^{ts}$/+ larvae that also carried one copy of UAS-hid, rpr on the X

chromosome were treated as in (A-D).

(F) The % of disc area that is GFP+ was quantified from discs such as those shown in A'-D' and

plotted against the total disc area. The numbers of discs analyzed are in parentheses. The data are from

3 (6-7d) and 2 (7-8d) biological replicates each.

(G) The % of disc area that is GFP+ was quantified for discs with no epithelial folds (less

developed discs such as those in A and B) and discs with epithelial folds (more developed discs such as

those in C and D). The data are from 6 biological replicate samples of larvae 7-8d old at irradiation.

640   (H-I) The % of disc area that is GFP+ was quantified from discs such as those shown in E' and

641 plotted against the total disc area. The number of discs analyzed are in parentheses.

642   The genotypes were:

643 Control = CasExpress/G-trace; GAL80$^{ts}$/+

644 hid, rpr = UAS-hid, UAS-rpr/+ or Y; CasExpress/G-trace; GAL80$^{ts}$/+

645 rpr = UAS-rpr/+ or Y; CasExpress/G-trace; GAL80$^{ts}$/+

646 DroncDN = CasExpress/G-trace; GAL80$^{ts}$/UAS-Dronc$^{DN}$

647 H99 = CasExpress/G-trace; GAL80$^{ts}$/H99

648 p35 = CasExpress/G-trace; GAL80$^{ts}$/UAS-p35

650 **Figure 4. Apoptosis and mitosis are widespread throughout the wing disc**

651 The larvae of the genotype CasExpress/G-trace; GAL80$^{ts}$/+ were treated as in Fig. 1A where T=26°C.

652 Scale bar = 120 microns.

653   (A-C'') Wing discs were fixed and stained with an antibody to phospho-S10 on Histone H3, a

654 mitotic marker. The dashed line marks the pouch. The discs were also stained for DNA and visualized for

655 CasExpress>GFP. The arrows point to the notum and the dashed lines mark the pouch.

656   (D-F''') Wing discs were fixed and stained with an anti-cleaved-Dcp1 antibody to detect cells that

657 activated apoptotic caspases. The discs were also stained for DNA and visualized for CasExpress>GFP.

658 The arrows point to the notum and the * marks the distal pouch.

659   (G-J) Wing discs were stained live with the vital dye Acridine Orange which reports on apoptotic

660 cells. The brackets mark the hinge region that is resistant to IR-induced apoptosis. The arrows point to

661 the notum and the * marks the distal pouch.

663 **Figure 5. Developmental signaling pathways regulate XPAC cell prevalence**

(A-E') Larvae of the genotypes indicated below were treated as in Fig. 1A where T=26°C. The

discs were dissected 24h after exposure to 4000R, fixed and stained with an antibody against Wg (A-

D'''). The discs were also stained for DNA and visualized for CasExpress>GFP. Arrows indicate the notum

and * indicate the distal pouch. Arrowheads indicate the Wg Inner Ring (white) or the D/V boundary

(yellow).

(F-G) The GFP+ areas were quantified and expressed as % of the total disc area. p-values were

calculated using a 2-tailed t-test. Scale bar = 120 microns. The genotypes were:

Control = CasExpress/G-trace; GAL80$^{ts}$/+

wg = CasExpress/G-trace; GAL80$^{ts}$/UAS-wg

Axin = CasExpress/G-trace; GAL80$^{ts}$/UAS-Axin

NotchICD = CasExpress/G-trace; GAL80$^{ts}$/UAS-N$^{ICD}$

mam-delta = CasExpress/G-trace; GAL80$^{ts}$/UAS-mam$^{\Delta}$

RasV12 = CasExpress/G-trace; GAL80$^{ts}$/UAS-Ras$^{V12}$

**Figure 6. Cells with past caspase activity show reduced IR-induced LOH**

(A-F) Adult wings from larvae of the genotype CasExpress/G-trace; GAL80$^{ts}$/mwh$^{1}$. The

experimental protocol shown in Fig. 1A was followed but larvae were aged for 6d at 18°C after egg

collection to get 6-7d old larvae (A-C) or aged for 7d at 18°C after egg collection to get 7-8d old larvae at

the time of irradiation. Larvae were irradiated with 0 or 4000R of X-rays. After incubation at 26°C, larvae

were returned to 18°C for the remainder of the experiment. The two +IR wings shown for each group

represent the range of clone size and number observed in two biological replicate experiments. The

number of wings examined was 12 (6-7d -IR) , 9 (6-7d +IR). 6 (7-8d -IR) and 11 (7-8d +IR), in two

biological replicate experiments each.

(G) A region of the wing was imaged at 4X magnification relative to A-F. It is possible to discern

the top (in focus, arrow) and the bottom (out-of-focus, arrowhead) surfaces of the wing in such images.

(H) A region of the wing is shown magnified 16X relative to A-F. It is possible to assign mwh state

to individual GFP+ cells, for example, 3 cells within dashed lines. In a patch of mwh cells (white line),

none are GFP+.

(I) Percent of image area that is mwh was quantified from images such as G, for the GFP+ and

GFP- portion of the surface in focus. The data include wings from animals irradiated as 6-7d (gray) or 7-

8d (black) old larvae. Each dataset also shows a significant difference in mwh between GFP- and GFP+

areas: p= 0.04 for 6-7d and 0.03 for 7-8d. p-values were computed using a 2-tailed t-test.

(J-K'''') Larvae of the genotype CasExpress/G-trace; GAL80$^{ts}$/+ were treated as in Fig. 1A. Wing

discs were dissected at 20-22h after irradiation with 4000R, fixed and stained with an antibody against $\gamma$-

H2Av. The discs were also stained for DNA and imaged for GFP. Arrowheads in J'''' indicate rare cells in

which GFP and $\gamma$-H2Av signals overlap to appear white. The boxed area in J''' is magnified in K-K''''.  L-L'''

show a magnified area of another disc, to demonstrate reproducibility. A total of 52 discs were

examined in 3 biological replicate experiments.

Scale bar = 960 microns in A-F, 120 microns in J and 48 microns in K-L.

**S1 Figure. Caspase cleavage without IR and DNA double strand breaks with and without IR.**

Larvae of the genotype CasExpress/G-trace; GAL80ts/+ were treated as in Fig. 1A where T=26°C. Wing

discs were dissected at 4h after exposure to 0 or 4000R of X-rays, fixed, and stained for DNA and with

antibodies to cleaved Dcp1 (A-A') or $\gamma$-H2Av (B-C'). The scale bar = 120 microns in A and 24 microns in B-

C.

**S1 Table. Fly stocks used.**

# FIGURE 1

**A** Collect embryos O/N at 18°C | 18°C X 6d | IR | T°CX6h | 18°C X 66h | Dissect
T= 29, 26, 22, 18

**B** % disc area GFP+

- CasTrk 29°C -IR(24)
- CasTrk 29°C +IR(23) p=5.43E-13
- CasEx 29° -IR(10)
- CasEx 29° +IR(9) p=2.52E-9
- CasEx 26° -IR(8)
- CasEx 26° +IR(16) p=6.68E-7

**0R**

**C** DNA 29° | **C'** GFP 29° | **D** DNA 29° | **D'** GFP 29°

**4000R**

**0R**
**E** GFP 18° | **F** GFP 22° | **G** DNA 26° | **G'** GFP 26°

**40000R**
**H** DNA 26° | **H'** GFP 26° | **I** DQVA Control GFP 26° | **J** GFP 18°

# FIGURE 2

# FIGURE 3

# FIGURE 4

| 4000R 24h, mitosis | | | 4000R 24h, cleaved caspase | | | | 4000R 4h AO |

# FIGURE 5

**CasEx control**

Wg/GFP | DNA | Wg | GFP

**UAS-Wg**

DNA | GFP

**F** no folds

p=2.00E-5
p=1.13E-3
p=7.71E-7
p=6.56E-3
p=4.47E-3

% area GFP+

control (28) wg (12) Axin (27) NotchICD (29) mam-delta (25) RasV12 (14)

**G** folds

ns; p=2.45E-1
ns; p=1.75E-1
p=1.12E-4
ns;p=8.93E-1
p=1.07E-2

% area GFP+

Control (29) wg (21) Axin (19) NotchICD (26) mam-delta (18) RasV12 (16)

**FIGURE 6**