

MPHY3892 Radiobiology

Lecture 1

Radiation Chemistry. DNA Damage and Repair. Chromosome Aberrations

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Radiobiology

- Radiobiology is needed
 - To understand correlations between initial ionisation events and final tissue expression (in tumours and in surrounding normal tissues)
 - To address mechanisms of radiation damage and repair and suggest hypotheses that may be tested
 - To suggest changes to existing radiotherapy protocols

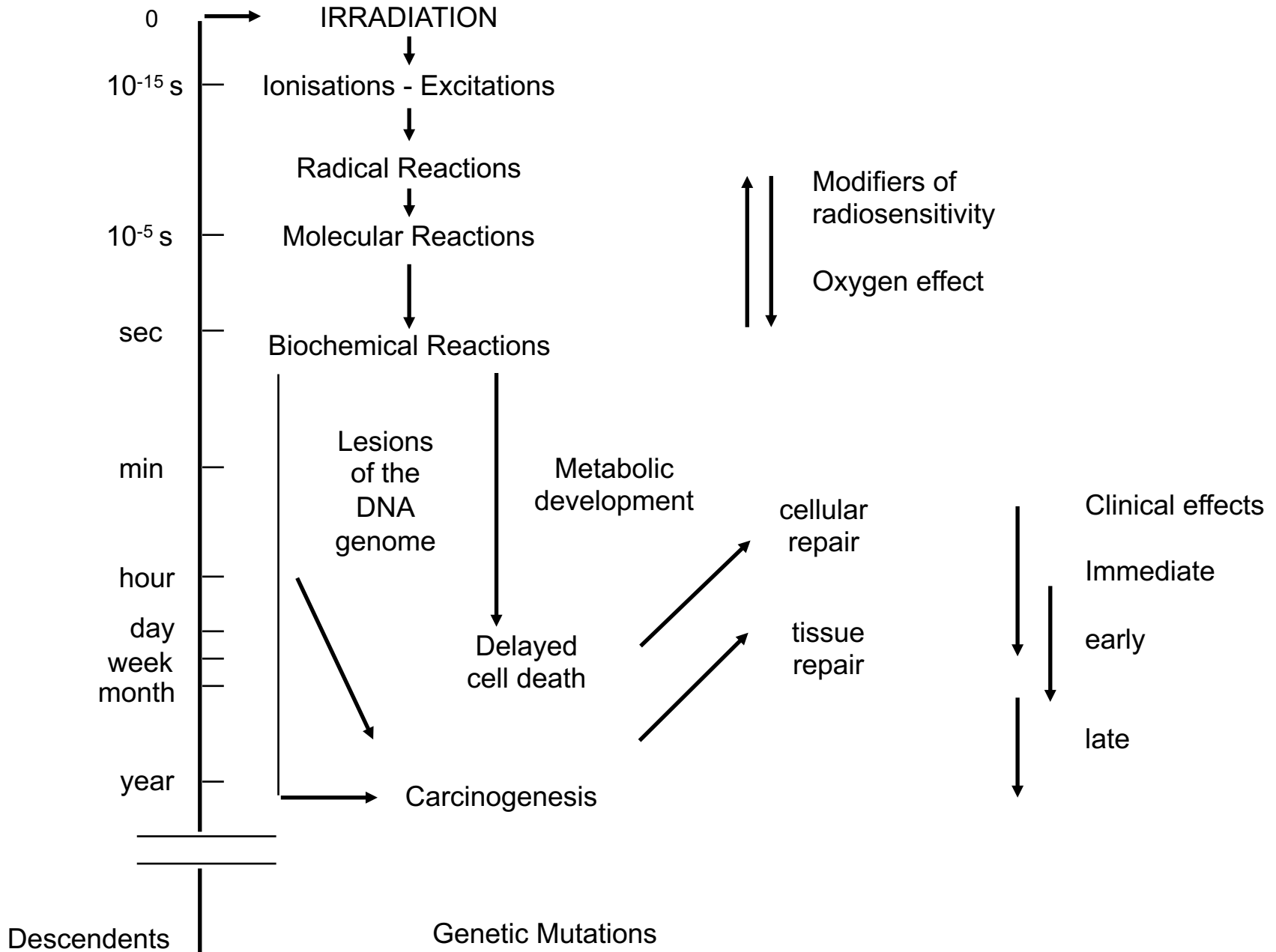
Course Programme

- Radiation Chemistry, DNA Damage and Repair
- Cellular Effects, Target Theories and Survival Curves
- Factors Affecting Radiation Effects
- Effects of Radiation on Tissues
- Epidemiology, Radiation Carcinogenesis

Course Reading

- **“Introduction to Radiobiology”**
M. Tubiana, J. Dutreix, A. Wambersie (translated by D. Bewley)
Taylor & Francis 1990. ISBN 0-85066-763-1
- **“Radiobiology for the Radiologist”**
E. Hall
Lippincott 1994. ISBN 0-397-51248-1
- **“Biological Effects of Radiation”**
J. Coggle
Taylor & Francis 1983. ISBN 0-85066-238-9

Timescale for Radiation Damage

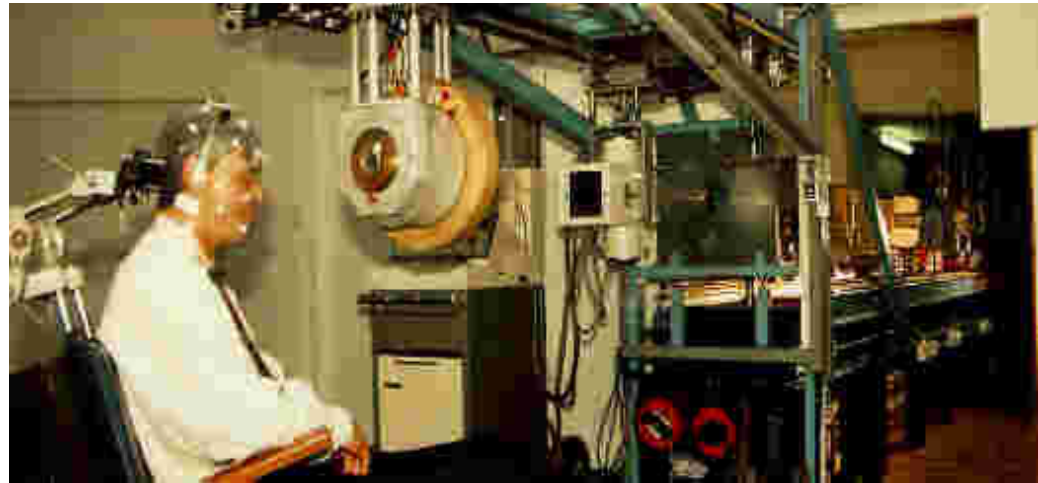


Particles Used in Radiobiology

Particles		Energy range
Alpha-particles	${}^4\text{He}^{2+}$	1MeV - 200MeV
Electrons	e^{-}	0.01MeV - 15MeV
Neutrons	n^0	0.025eV - 20MeV
Protons	${}^1\text{H}^{+}$	1MeV - 30GeV
Deuterons	${}^2\text{H}^{+}$	1MeV - 200MeV
Heavy ions		1MeV - 250MeV



250 MeV proton synchrotron for therapy



Proton therapy

Electromagnetic Radiation Used in Radiobiology

Photon Energy

Properties

100eV - 10keV

“Soft” x-rays

10keV - 130keV

Diagnostic x-rays & superficial therapy

130keV - 1.3MeV

Deep therapy x-rays & γ rays from ^{60}Co etc

6 MeV - 35 MeV

Radiation from linear accelerators

100MeV

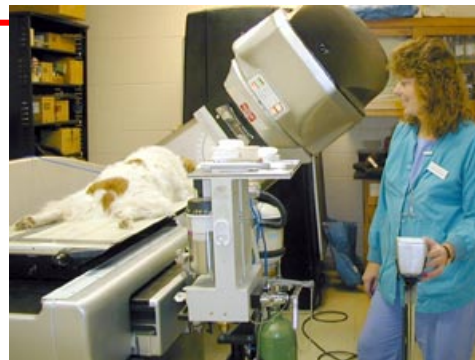
Radiation from large betatrons

1GeV

Radiation from large synchrotrons



Philips 4MV linac, 1953



Co-60 therapy unit



35MV linac, 2006

Radiation Chemistry

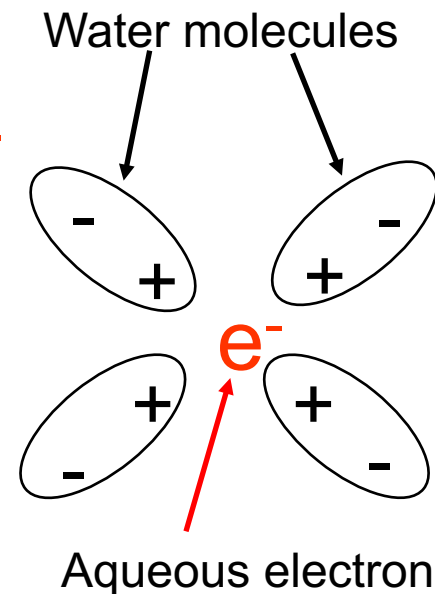
- Physical effects produced by a charged particle occur during a very short period of its passage (timescale: 10^{-24} - 10^{-14} s)
- **Free radicals:**
 - are atoms/molecules containing unpaired electron in the outer shell
 - can be neutral or charged (radical ions)
 - are very reactive and have a great tendency to pair the odd electron with a similar one in another radical or to eliminate the odd electron by an electron transfer reaction
 - electron acceptors (oxidising agents)
 - electron donors (reducing agents)
- Tissue: 70 - 90% water \Rightarrow radiation chemistry of water

Radical Decomposition of Water

- Ionisation of water (requires energy of 13 eV):



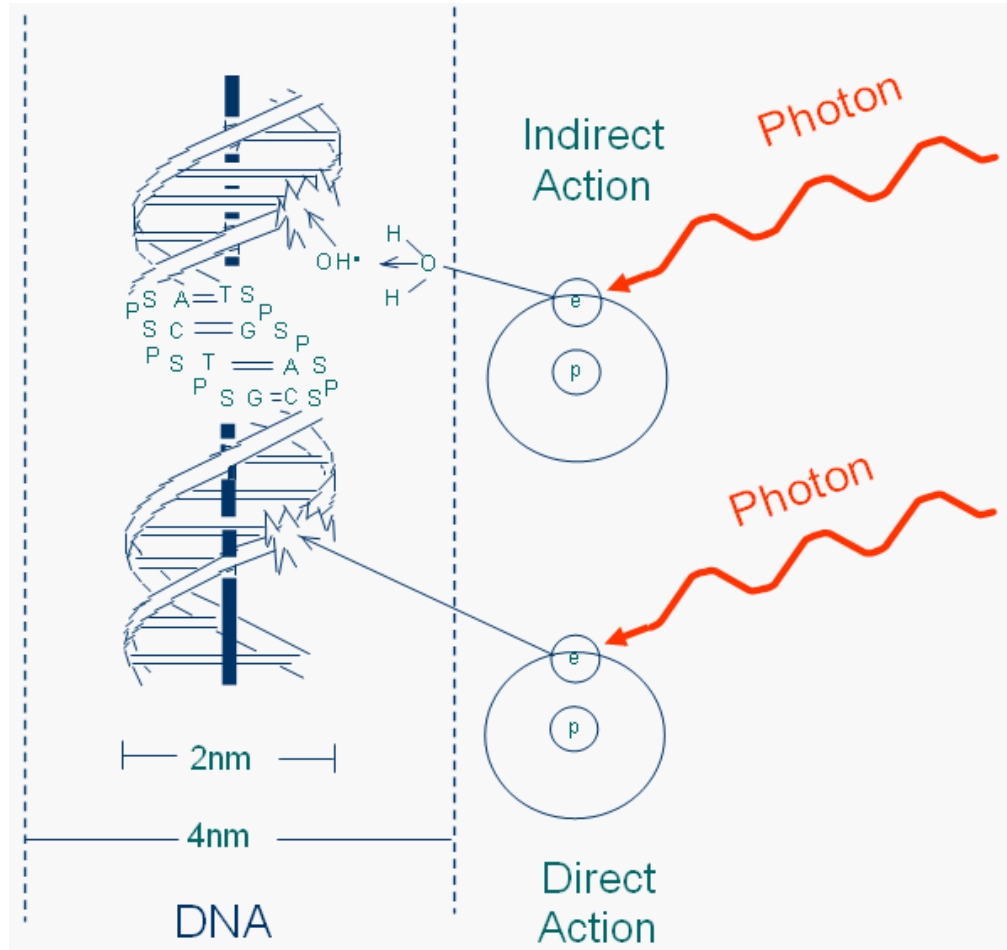
- Electron detached by ionisation, having slowed down in collisions, is captured by molecules of water \Rightarrow it is called aqueous electron e^-_{aq} and is a powerful reducing agent
- Some molecules of water lying close to aqueous electrons dissociate into H^\bullet and OH^\bullet radicals



- Excitation of water (requires energy of 5 eV):



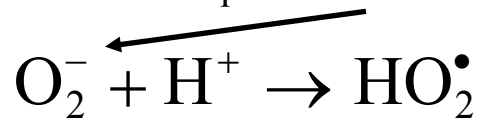
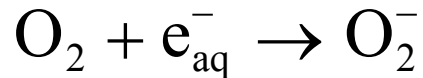
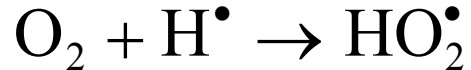
Direct and Indirect Action



- Radiation can ionise organic molecules RH directly
- The indirect effect results from the interaction between the products of radical decomposition of water and the molecules contained in the aqueous solution.

Oxygen Effect

Radical + Oxygen → Peroxide Radicals:



Peroxide radical HO_2^\bullet is a less powerful oxidising agent than OH^\bullet but has considerably longer lifespan.

Peroxide radicals are shown to be biologically damaging.

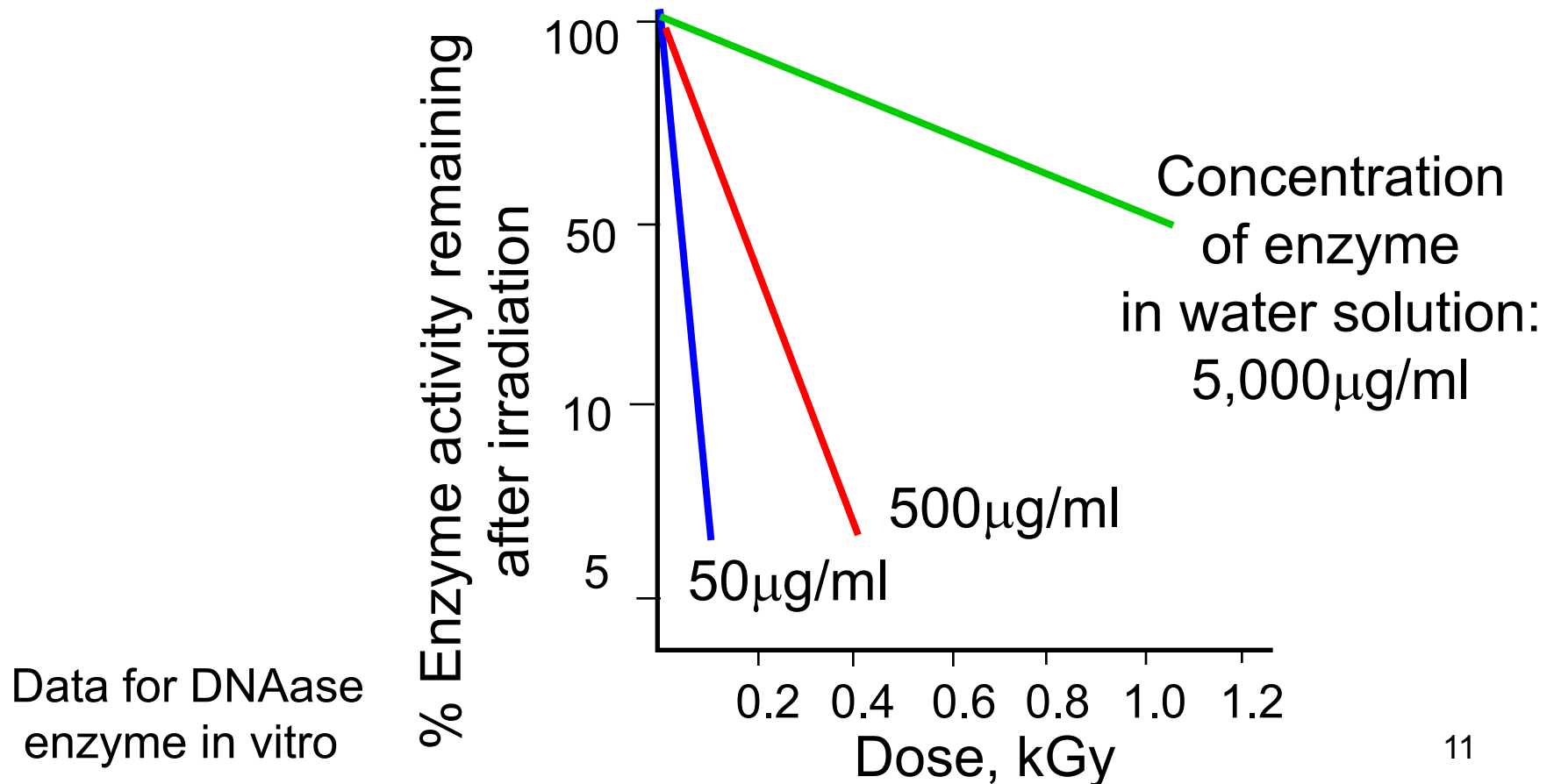
Capture of H^\bullet radicals also increases the number of OH^\bullet radicals available by preventing recombination reaction $\text{H}^\bullet + \text{OH}^\bullet \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O}$.

The presence of Oxygen increases the effect of radiation¹⁰.

Effects of Radiation on Proteins

Proteins act as structural components in cells and as organic catalysts in biochemical reactions (enzymes)

- **Physico-chemical damage:** chain fragmentation, amino acid destruction, disorders of structure
- **Biochemical damage:** loss of enzyme function



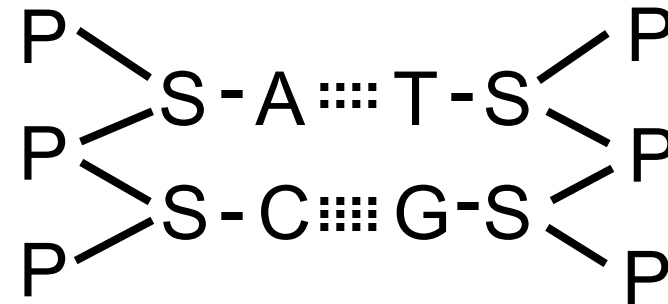
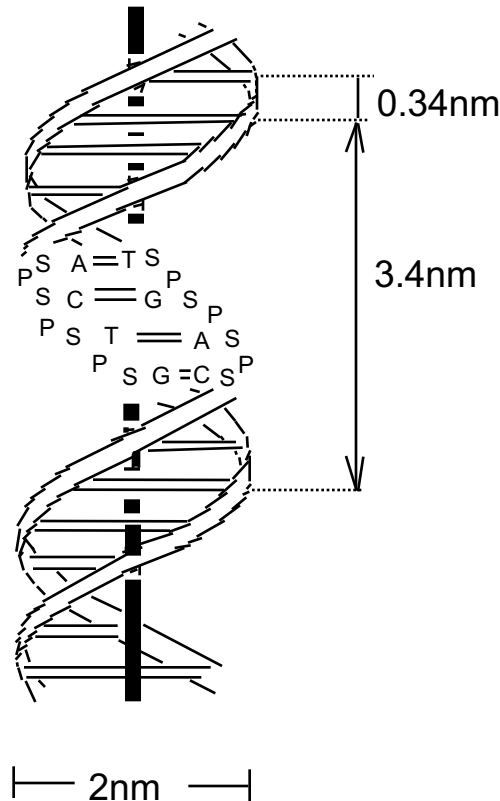
Inactivation of Enzymes *in vitro*

- Percentage of active molecules of enzyme decreases with dose
- When concentration of enzyme in water falls, the relative number of water molecules increases and it is easier for the radiation to inactivate enzyme molecules
- At low concentrations of the enzyme, the damage to the enzyme is caused by the diffusion of free radicals of water
- At a very high concentration of the enzyme, the majority of the radiation effect is due to direct interaction of radiation with the enzyme
- *In vivo* enzymes are present in great quantities and are continuously produced by the cells \Rightarrow a loss of a sizeable fraction of enzymes may be of no consequence to the cell

Deoxyribonucleic Acid (DNA)

- Double stranded molecule twisted into a double helix
- Is the main constituent of chromosomes
- Transfer of genetic information to daughter cells
- Damage to DNA is the main cause of lethality in cells after radiation
- Two functions of DNA - replication (creating a copy of itself) and transcription (expressing its genetic information by the formation of messenger mRNA to specify the sequence of amino acids during the synthesis of proteins)
- Replication is more radiosensitive than transcription
- A single molecule of DNA forms the backbone of a chromosome, it extends continuously from one end to the other
- Functional integrity of chromosome depends on the continuity of the DNA

DNA Structure



P - phosphate

S - sugar

A - adenine

G - guanine

C - cytosine

T - thymine

} Purine bases

} Pyrimidine bases

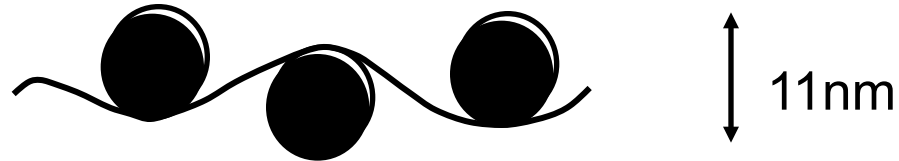
Two complementary strands are linked by hydrogen bonds between the bases

Chromosome Structure

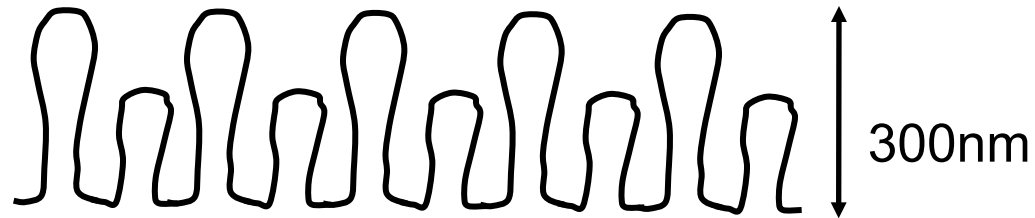
DNA



Chromatin



Chromosome
section



Chromosome
at metaphase



DNA and Genes

- The nucleus of a human diploid cell has 1m DNA in 46 chromosomes
- About 1000 base pairs are needed to code 1 protein
- About 10^5 proteins are coded in the genome of the mammalian cell
- Genes are zones of DNA that code the synthesis of proteins

Cell Cycle

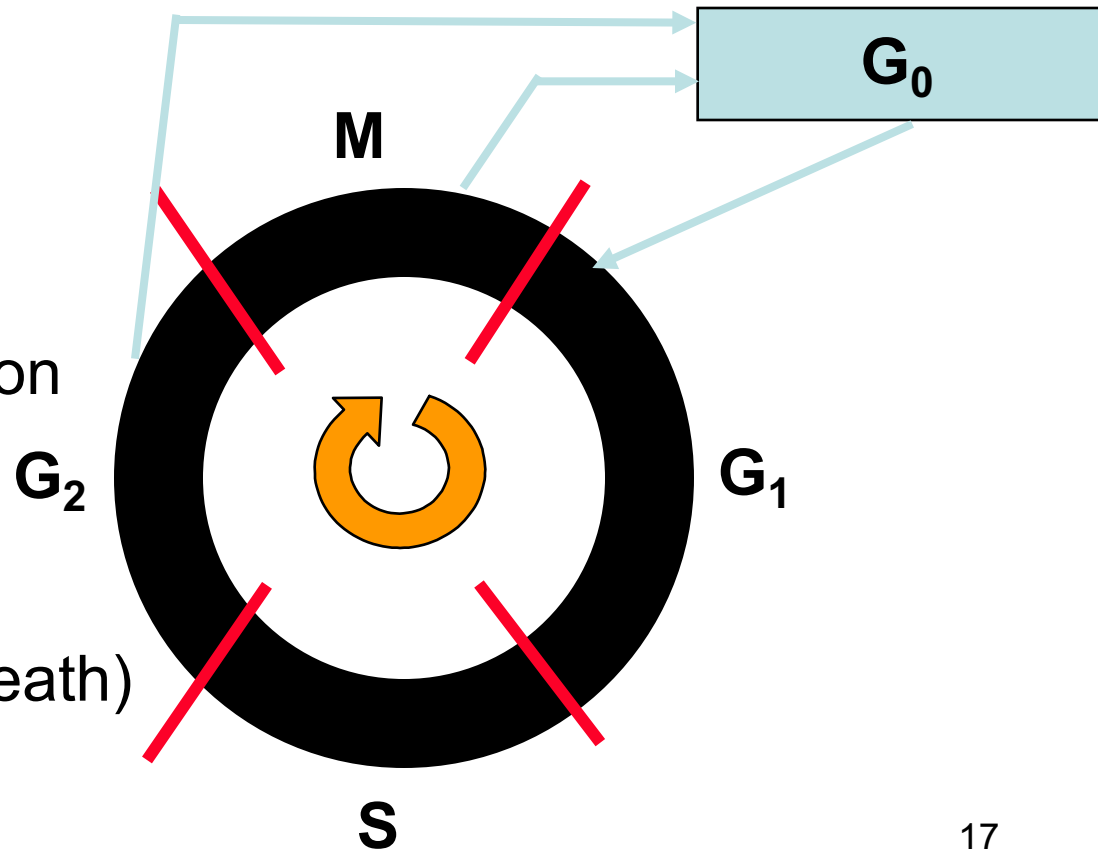
M mitosis (cell division)
(1 hr)

G₁ pre-synthesis gap
(8-12 hr)

S DNA duplication
(9-12 hr)

G₂ post-synthesis gap
preparation for division
(4-6 hr)

G₀ time out of cycle
(e.g. differentiation,
premitotic block or death)



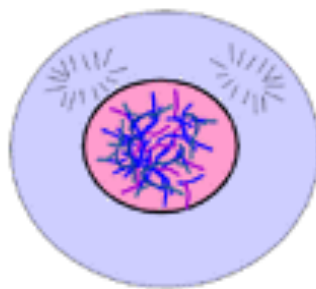
Mitosis (Cell Division)

Prophase

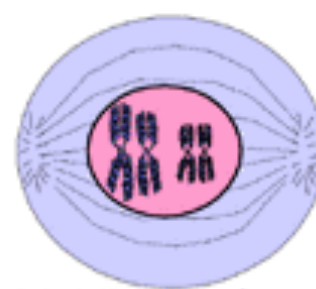
- chromatin thickens
- chromosomes become visible under light microscope
- nuclear membrane disappears
- nuclear plasm and cytoplasm mix



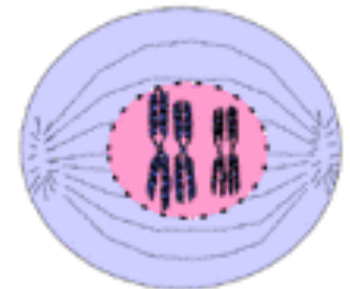
Early Prophase I



Middle Prophase I



Middle Prophase

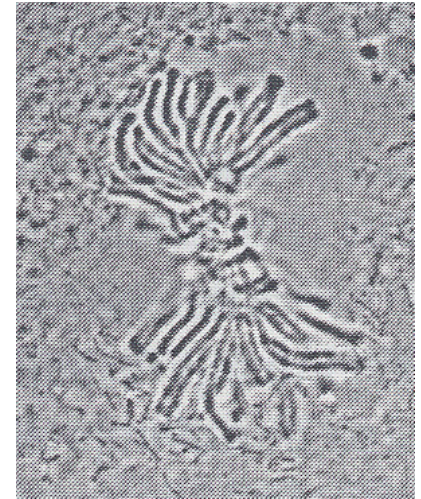
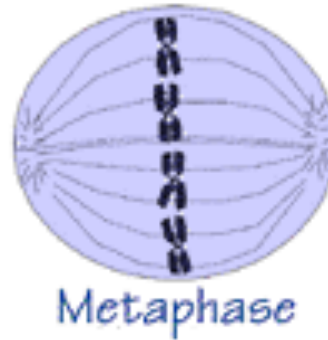


Late Prophase I

Mitosis

Metaphase

- chromosomes move to cell equator
- spindle forms pole-to-pole
- chromosomes divide at centromere



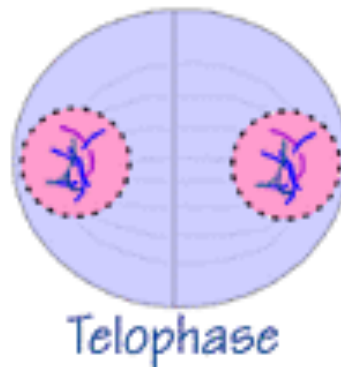
Anaphase

- chromosomes move to poles along spindle

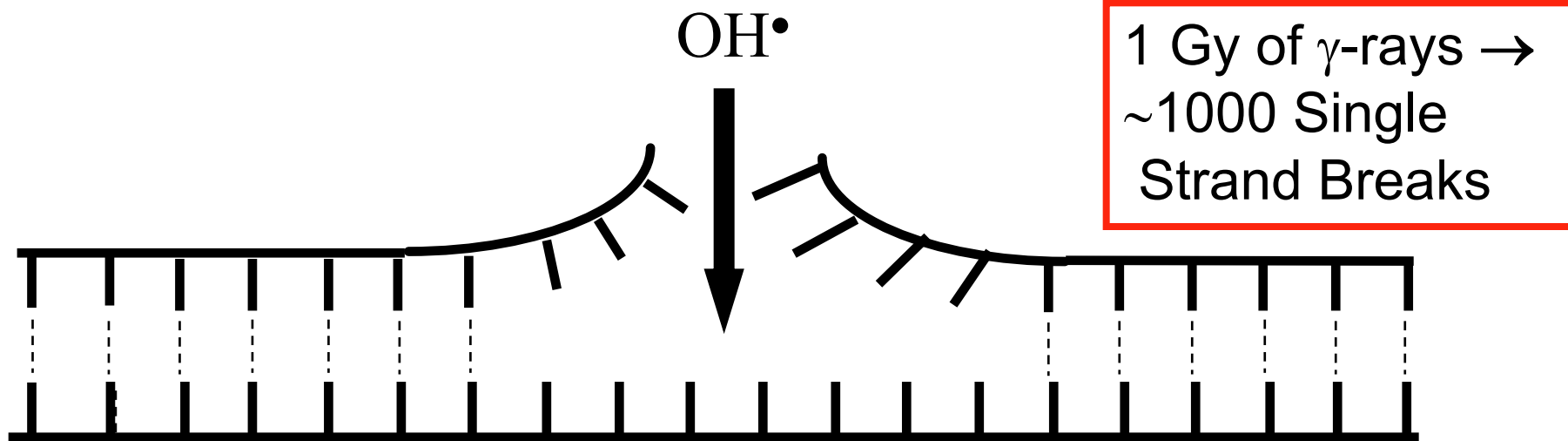


Telophase

- chromosomes reach pole and uncoil
- nuclear membrane reappears

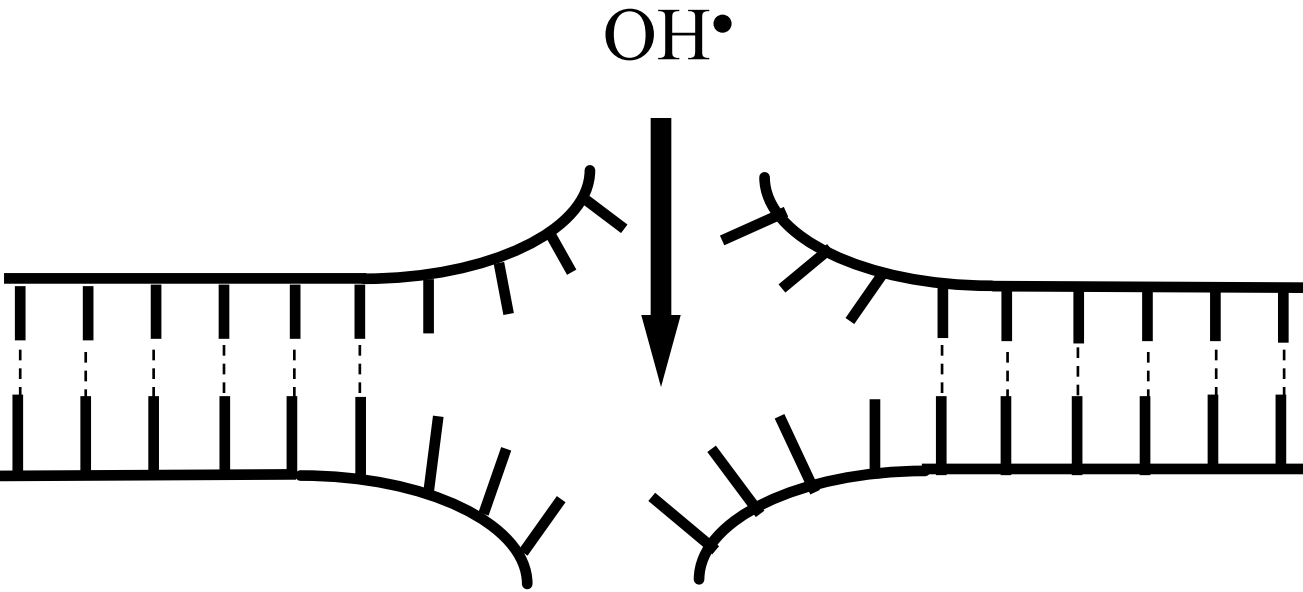


Single Strand Breaks



- Number of single strand breaks is linearly related to dose
- Repair assumes existence of a complementary strand as a template
- Repair is rapid, with high fidelity, one error per 10^7 - 10^{11} , so nearly error free
- Final result - little cell killing

Double Strand Breaks



1 Gy of γ -rays
→ 50–100
Double Strand
Breaks

- Both strands break within 3 base pairs
- Complementary strand is not available as a template
- Repair is likely to give errors
- Number of double strand breaks versus dose is linear or linear-quadratic
- These are critical lesions causing radiation cell killing

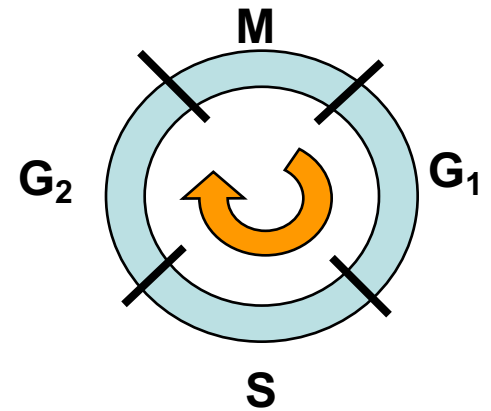
Causes of Chromosome Abnormalities

- Chemical substances - the largest damage
- Ionising radiation
- Non-ionising radiation (e.g. UV, microwaves)
- Mechanical waves (e.g. ultrasound)

Chromosome Abnormalities

- Are visible under light microscope at metaphase
- Broken end of a chromosome is “sticky” and can rejoin with other “sticky” end
- Broken end cannot join with a normal, unbroken chromosome
- Breaks in chromosomes may
 - reconstitute
 - rejoin in wrong place
 - fail to rejoin

Chromosome Abnormalities



Chromosome Aberrations

- Lesions occur early in interphase before DNA is replicated (during pre-synthesis gap G_1)
- Lesion will be replicated
- Aberration at next mitosis
- Damage affects both chromatids

Chromatid Aberrations

- Lesions occur late in interphase after DNA is replicated (during post-synthesis gap G_2)
- Damage may affect only one chromatid

Dicentric Aberrations

Exchange between two separate chromosomes



2 different pre-replication chromosomes

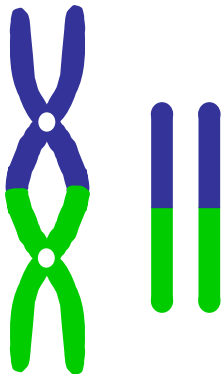


1 break in each chromosome



“Sticky” ends join incorrectly

Result after replication:



Dicentric chromosome (with two centromeres)
+ acentric fragments (without centromere).
Acentric fragments will be lost at next mitosis

This is a lethal aberration

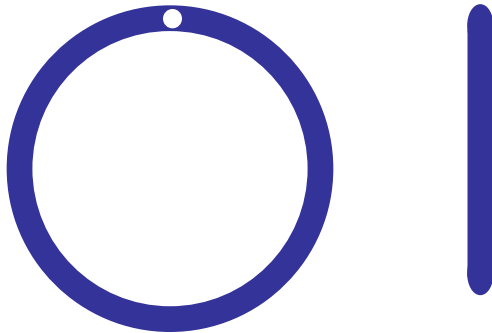
Rings



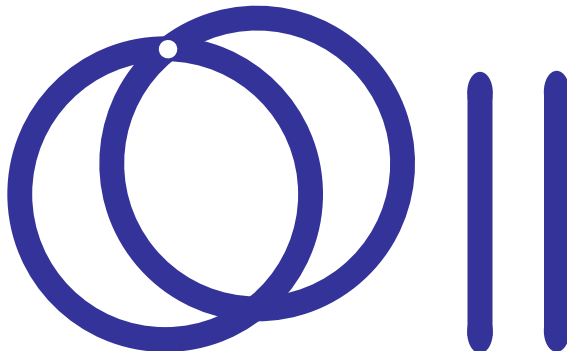
Pre-replication chromosome



Breaks in both arms of single chromatid early in the cell cycle



“Sticky” ends rejoin to form a ring and a fragment

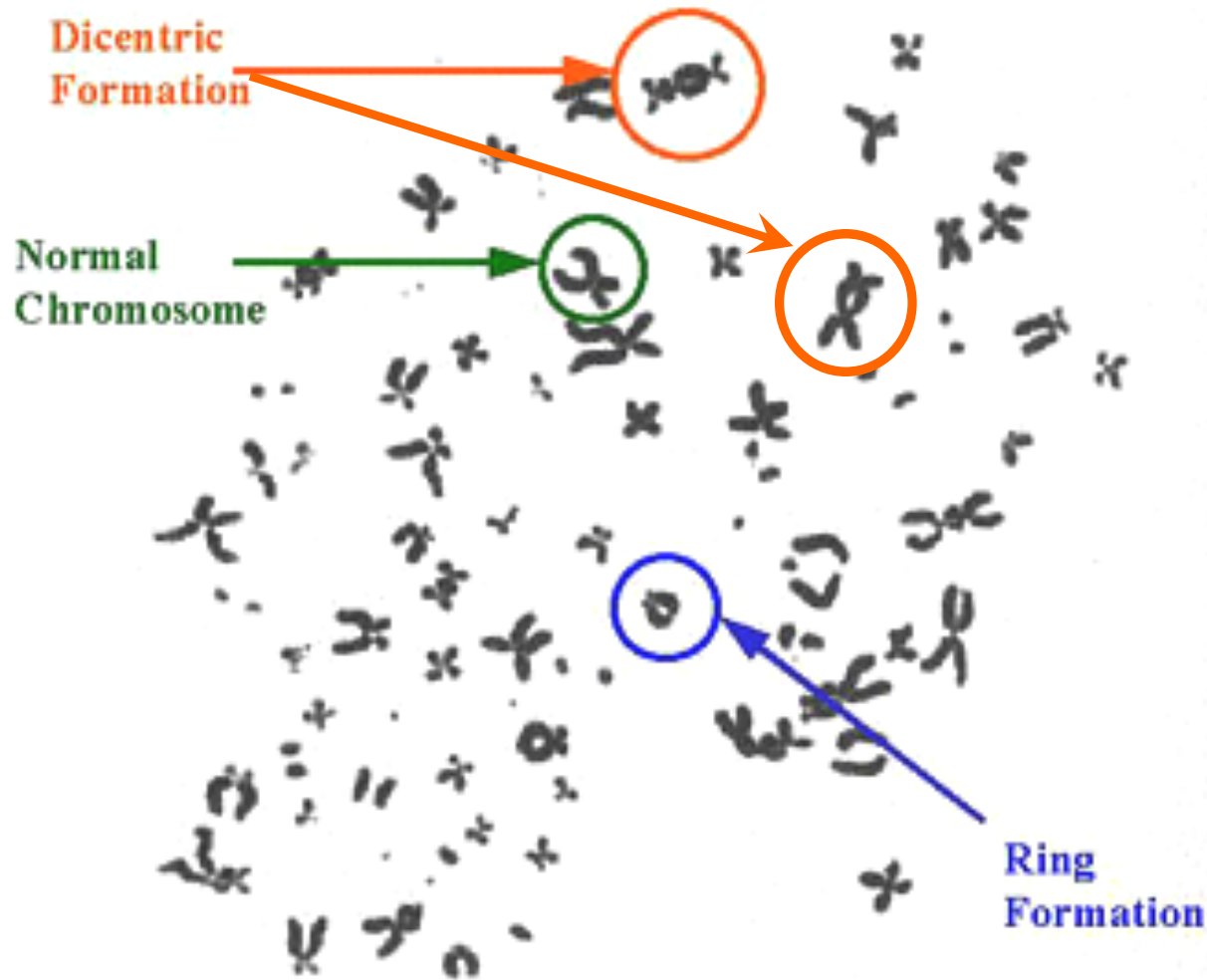


Result after replication:

Overlapping rings + acentric fragments

This is a lethal aberration

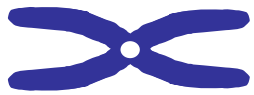
Dicentric and Rings under Light Microscope



Chromosome damage following radiation exposure

Other Aberrations

Anaphase Bridge - chromatid aberration



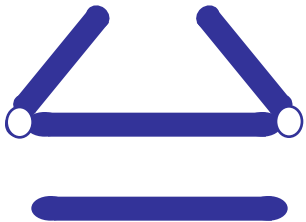
Post-replication chromosome



Break in each chromatid late in the cell cycle (in G_2) when chromosomes are replicated



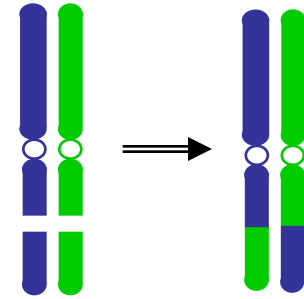
Sister union



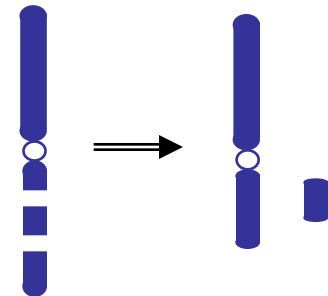
The result:
Chromatid that would not allow the cell to divide +
Acentric fragment

This is a lethal aberration

Translocation



Deletion



These are not
lethal aberrations

Chromosome Aberrations

- Lethal aberrations are lost at subsequent mitosis
- Non-lethal aberrations (e.g. translocation) persist for many years \Rightarrow stable aberrations
- Either type of aberration may be used to estimate radiation doses (using lethal aberrations for dose estimation soon after irradiation)
- Frequency of translocations correlates with total-body dose in exposed persons. This is relevant for survivors of Hiroshima and Nagasaki A-bomb attacks even after more than 60 years

