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# Induction of strand breaks in DNA films by low energy electrons and soft X-ray under nitrous oxide atmosphere

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## ABSTRACT

Five-monolayer (5 ML) plasmid DNA films deposited on glass and tantalum substrates were exposed to Al K<sub>α</sub> X-rays of 1.5 keV under gaseous nitrous oxide (N<sub>2</sub>O) at atmospheric pressure and temperature. Whereas the damage yields for DNA deposited on glass are due to soft X-rays, those arising from DNA on tantalum are due to both the interaction of low energy photoelectrons from the metal and X-rays. Then, the differences in the yields of damage on glass and tantalum substrates, essentially arises from interaction of essentially low-energy electrons (LEEs) with DNA molecules and the surrounding atmosphere. The G-values (i.e., the number of moles of product per Joule of energy absorbed) for DNA strand breaks induced by LEEs ( $G_{LEE}$ ) and the lower limit of G-values for soft X-ray photons ( $G_{XL}$ ) were calculated and the results compared to those from previous studies under atmospheric conditions and other ambient gases, such as N<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>2</sub>. Under N<sub>2</sub>O, the G-values for loss of supercoiled DNA are  $103 \pm 15$  nmol/J for X-rays, and  $737 \pm 110$  nmol/J for LEEs. Compared to corresponding values in an O<sub>2</sub> atmosphere, the effectiveness of X-rays to damage DNA in N<sub>2</sub>O is less, but the G value for LEEs in N<sub>2</sub>O is more than twice the corresponding value for an oxygenated environment. This result indicates a higher effectiveness for LEEs relative to N<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>2</sub> environments in causing SSB and DSB in an N<sub>2</sub>O environment. Thus, the previously observed radiosensitization of cells by N<sub>2</sub>O may not be only due to OH<sup>•</sup> radicals but also to the reaction of LEE with N<sub>2</sub>O molecules near DNA. The previous experiments with N<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>2</sub> and the present one demonstrate the possibility to investigate damage induced by LEEs to biomolecules under various types of surrounding atmospheres.

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## 1. Introduction

Nitrous oxide (N<sub>2</sub>O) is a molecule, which has been widely studied for many reasons. It is a minor component of the atmosphere, known as the 'laughing gas', having many beneficial actions, but it is also a strong 'greenhouse gas' and its emission into the atmosphere should be strictly controlled (Leont'ev et al., 2001). It is about 200–300 times more powerful in global warming potential than of carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) and contributes to ozone loss (Bange, 2000). Nitrous oxide has been used in many radiation chemistry studies to scavenge solvated electrons formed by the radiolysis of water. This property allows increasing the production of OH<sup>•</sup> to show its importance in the lethality of the cells. When irradiated, dissolved N<sub>2</sub>O reacts rapidly to eliminate e<sub>aq</sub><sup>-</sup> and increases the yield of OH<sup>•</sup>, via  $e_{aq}^- + N_2O \xrightarrow{H_2O} N_2 + OH^\bullet + OH^-$  (Watanabe et al., 1981; Ewing et al., 1991). Since OH<sup>•</sup> radicals are major contributors to lethality, it

is therefore logical to expect N<sub>2</sub>O to be a radiosensitizer. Powers et al. (1972) first observed the sensitizing action of N<sub>2</sub>O on spores of *Bacillus megaterium* to X-rays. Samuni and Czapski (1978) then irradiated *Escherichia coli* B saturated with oxygen, argon and nitrous oxide gases and reported a higher radiosensitivity for nitrous oxide-saturated bacterial cells relative to others. Their result showed that in cells saturated with either argon or nitrogen, the reactive free radical species are OH<sup>•</sup>, e<sub>aq</sub><sup>-</sup> and H<sup>•</sup>, while in the nitrous oxide-saturated cells, the reactive species are only H<sup>•</sup> and OH<sup>•</sup>, with the concentration of the latter species twice that of the argon- or nitrogen-saturated cells. Therefore, a sensitizing action of N<sub>2</sub>O was interpreted by a complete conversion of e<sub>aq</sub><sup>-</sup> to OH<sup>•</sup>. Brustad and Wold (1976) found a small enhancement in the radiosensitivity of N<sub>2</sub>O-saturated bacterial cells with respect to N<sub>2</sub>-saturated cells. In a series of experiments, then Watanabe et al. (1981, 1982) reported a significant sensitizing effect of N<sub>2</sub>O toward a radioresistant bacterium of *Pseudomonas radiora* O-1 in a dilute aqueous suspension. The sensitizing effect of N<sub>2</sub>O anoxia with respect to N<sub>2</sub> anoxia was much higher in this bacterial system than the extent of sensitization found for mammalian cells in vitro in work of Roots et al. (1982).

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However, attempts to generalize N<sub>2</sub>O sensitization to several types of bacteria, has met with limited success. Radiosensitization by N<sub>2</sub>O has not been found in vegetative cells (Watanabe et al., 1982) except for *E. coli* B and results appeared to conflict with those from other laboratories. For instance, Tilby et al. (1982) observed not more than a slight radiosensitizing effect by N<sub>2</sub>O on anoxic or oxic survival at high radiation doses. Michaels et al. (1983) and Ewing et al. (1986, 1991) did not find any direct evidence of nitrous oxide sensitization of Chinese hamster ovarian cells. These results could not discern why several vegetative cells are not sensitized in the presence of N<sub>2</sub>O, and differences in the effect of N<sub>2</sub>O among several bacteria suggest that sensitization by N<sub>2</sub>O was governed by some parameters such as, initial cell concentration of suspension, different test system, dose rate, irradiation temperature, and growth phase. Thus, despite numerous studies on radiation response of cells systems to nitrous oxide, its radiosensitization effect has yet to be resolved (Conere et al., 1991). It must be noted that in all studies, the role of N<sub>2</sub>O was considered only with regard to its reaction with solvated electrons and the subsequent increase of OH<sup>•</sup> radicals in aqueous suspension. Obviously, the presence of N<sub>2</sub>O within the densely packed structure of the chromosomes in the nucleus can engender other reactions.

Reactions near the DNA of cells are first initiated by highly reactive intermediate species produced along radiation tracks. These species include radicals, ions and secondary electrons (Sonntag, 2006; O'Neill and Fielden, 1993). The latter are the most abundant of the secondary species and most of them have low energies (i.e., below 30 eV) (Sanche, 2009; Pimblott and LaVerne, 2007). Numerous studies on phenomena involving low energy electrons (LEEs) have shown that these particles play a central role in determining the effects of ionizing radiation. Thus, in recent years much research interest has been focused on the fragmentation and modification of DNA by LEEs (Sanche, 2002, 2005). The initial experiments on LEE-DNA were performed on DNA molecules under dry high vacuum conditions (Sanche, 2009; Boudaffa et al., 2000; Cai et al., 2005). However, the damaging effects of LEEs on the DNA molecule are known to be dependent on its environment (Sanche, 2002; Lehnert, 2008; Ptasinska and Sanche, 2007; Barilla and Lokajčiček, 2000). Thus, to better understand the damaging effects of LEE on DNA, attempts have been made to perform LEE-irradiation experiments under conditions more closely approximating those found in the cell. For this reason, the effect of water and oxygen molecules on radiation-induced damage in biological systems has been extensively studied (Yokoya et al., 2002, 2009; Quintiliani, 1986; Alizadeh et al., 2011). Also in our laboratory some experiments have been completed under well-controlled environmental conditions at standard atmospheric temperature and pressure (STP) to show the induction of DNA damage by LEEs in presence of gases such as, air, pure N<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>2</sub>. In preliminary experiments, Cai et al. (2005, 2006) studied the damage to DNA in vacuum resulting from the emission of secondary LEEs from a metal surface exposed to X-rays. Then, by improving the technique of Cai et al. (2006), Brun et al. (2009) and Alizadeh et al. (2011) were able to investigate dry plasmid DNA films irradiated at STP by LEEs (0–30 eV) and soft X-rays (1.5 keV) under air, N<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>2</sub>. Due to these advances in the technique it is now possible to study the influence of various gaseous atmospheres at STP on LEEs induced DNA damage.

In the present work, we apply this radically different experimental approach, to study other reactions than those of solvated electrons that may be associated with the radiosensitization induced by N<sub>2</sub>O on irradiated DNA. The experiments are performed with dry DNA films deposited onto two different substrates, irradiated by 1.5 keV X-rays, under nitrous oxide-saturated atmosphere at STP.

Total damage and single- and double-strand breaks are measured as a function of dose. The damage to DNA deposited on glass is due to the X-rays. From comparison of results obtained with DNA films deposited on glass and tantalum, the damage created by LEEs emitted from tantalum is deduced. More damage is induced in plasmid DNA under an N<sub>2</sub>O atmosphere by LEEs than under N<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>2</sub> atmospheres, demonstrating strong radiosensitization by N<sub>2</sub>O of plasmid DNA extracted from *E. coli* B, without the presence of H<sub>2</sub>O and hence solvated electrons.

## 2. Materials and methods

### 2.1. Plasmid DNA preparation

pGEM-3Zf(–) bacterial plasmid DNA (3197 base pairs, ca.  $1.97 \times 10^6$  amu, Promega) was obtained from *Escherichia coli* JM109 host, and followed by purification using the QIAfilter Plasmid Giga Kit (QIAprep Miniprep Handbook, 2003). TE buffer (Tris–EDTA: 10 mM/1 mM) was extracted from the plasmid with a home-made microcolumn of Sephadex G-50 resin on a bed of glass beads. Sephadex G-50 is highly efficient for the removal of the small molecules and thus purified DNA solution was considered containing a minimal amount of Tris–EDTA (Dumont et al., 2010). The DNA concentration was measured spectrophotometrically by measuring its absorbance at 260 nm, assuming a molar absorption coefficient of  $5.3 \times 10^7$  L mol<sup>–1</sup> cm<sup>–1</sup> at pH 7.0 for DNA (Manchester, 1996). DNA solution was diluted in ddH<sub>2</sub>O until a final concentration of 50 ng μL<sup>–1</sup> was reached. In the present study, about 96% of the extracted plasmid was in the supercoiled form and the rest was in the relaxed circular (C > 3%) and concatemeric (CM < 1%) configurations.

Owing to the very short range of LEEs, DNA films were prepared as thin and uniform as possible. The method of preparation is the same as that used by Mirsaleh-Kohan et al. (2011). These authors showed that 5-monolayer-thick films of lyophilized DNA bombarded by LEEs gave the same products as the well-ordered self-assembled monolayer films of DNA bombarded by the same 2–20 eV electrons. To obtain a fairly uniform thickness of approximately 5 monolayers (5 ML) 10 μL of solution containing 500 ng of purified DNA in nanopure water without any salts, was deposited on the glass and tantalum substrates. These substrates were cleaned by rinsing in the ethanol and then ddH<sub>2</sub>O and after dried under N<sub>2</sub> flow. Samples were frozen at –70 °C and then freeze-dried by pumping under the pressure of 1–3 mTorr for two hours. The film thickness has been estimated as previously described (Alizadeh et al., 2011; Goodhead, 1990) by taking  $6.0 \pm 0.2$  nm as the diameter of the DNA film, a thickness of 2 nm for each ML of plasmid and the known density of 1.71 g/cm<sup>3</sup> of the plasmid extracted from *E. coli* (Adams et al., 1986). This procedure resulted in a dry film of 10 nm average thickness on the substrates, assuming minimal clustering of the plasmids.

### 2.2. Experimental setup and irradiation conditions

All the experimental data were recorded with the apparatus recently developed by Alizadeh et al. (2011), which has already been described in detail. Only a short survey is given here. The apparatus, shown schematically in Fig. 1, comprises a chamber evacuated to pressure < 5 mTorr, connected to a pressure gage (A) and an adjustable leak valve (B) connected to a nitrogen gas source. A negative potential of 3.4 kV is applied to a concave aluminum cathode (C) through a high-voltage electrical feed-through (D) fixed in a glass-ceramic (Macor) support (E) and placed as a cap on a long quartz tube (F). A nitrogen plasma

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