

# Chapter 6: Radiobiology

## NPRE441: Principles of Radiation Protection

Spring 2023, MW 12-1.50 pm 2018

Campus Instructional Facility

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### Objective:

To familiarize the students with the basic principles of radiobiology.

Slides retrieved and adapted from:

- Slide deck NPRE441 Spring 2023 by Dr. Elena Zannoni
- Slide deck NPRE441 Spring 2021 by Prof.L.J. Meng (UIUC, USA)
- slide deck prepared in 2006 by Dr.E.B. Podgorsak (McGill University, Montreal)
- slide deck prepared in 2015 by Dr.M. Cremonesi (IEO European Institute of Oncology, Milano, Italy)
- slide deck prepared by Dr.E.Okuno (Institute of Physics of S. Paulo University, S. Paulo, Brazil)



**IAEA**

International Atomic Energy Agency



**Ministry of the Environment**

Government of Japan

環境省

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## PART 4

1. Cell survival curves
  - A. linear-quadratic model
  - B. single-hit single-target model
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2. Dose response curves
3. Normal and tumor cells: Therapeutic ratio
4. Relative biological effectiveness (RBE)
5. Oxygen effect
6. Dose rate and fractionation
7. Radioprotectors and radiosensitizers

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# Effect of fractionation - concepts

- Conventionally fractionated (15-30 doses)
- Hypofractionated
  - Controversy about the use of LQ model
- Hyperfractionated
- Stereotactic Ablative Radiotherapy (SABR) – 1-5 doses over ~1 week
  
- Accelerated repopulation
- Dose rate effect
  - Ultralow – mGy/hr
  - Low - <1 Gy/min
  - Standard – 6 Gy/min
  - High (flattening filter free) – 14 Gy/min
  - Ultra High Dose Rate (FLASH effect) - >40 Gy/sec

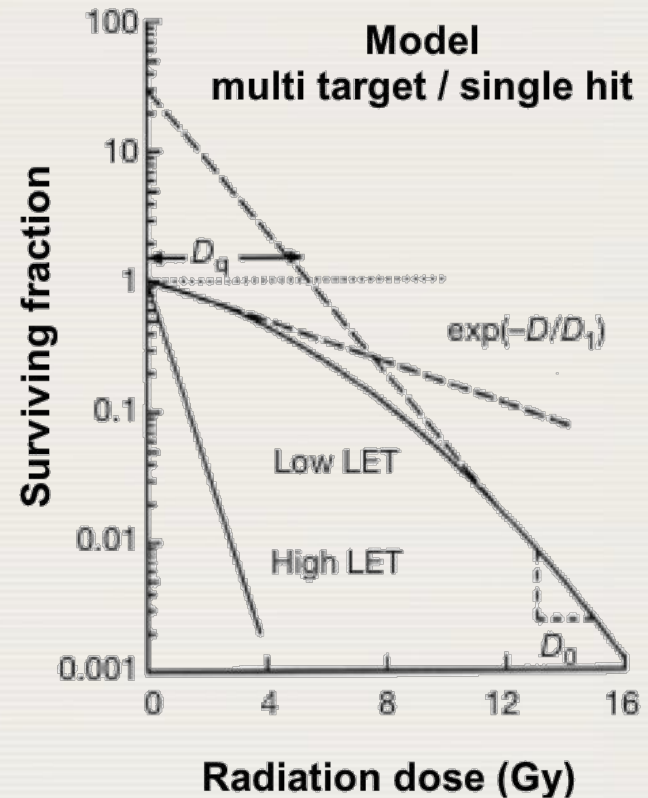


## 6.4.1 CELL SURVIVAL CURVES

□ **Cell survival curve** (surviving fraction against absorbed dose) describes the relationship between:

- **Surviving fraction of cells**, i.e., the fraction of irradiated cells that maintain their reproductive integrity (clonogenic cells)
- **Absorbed dose.**

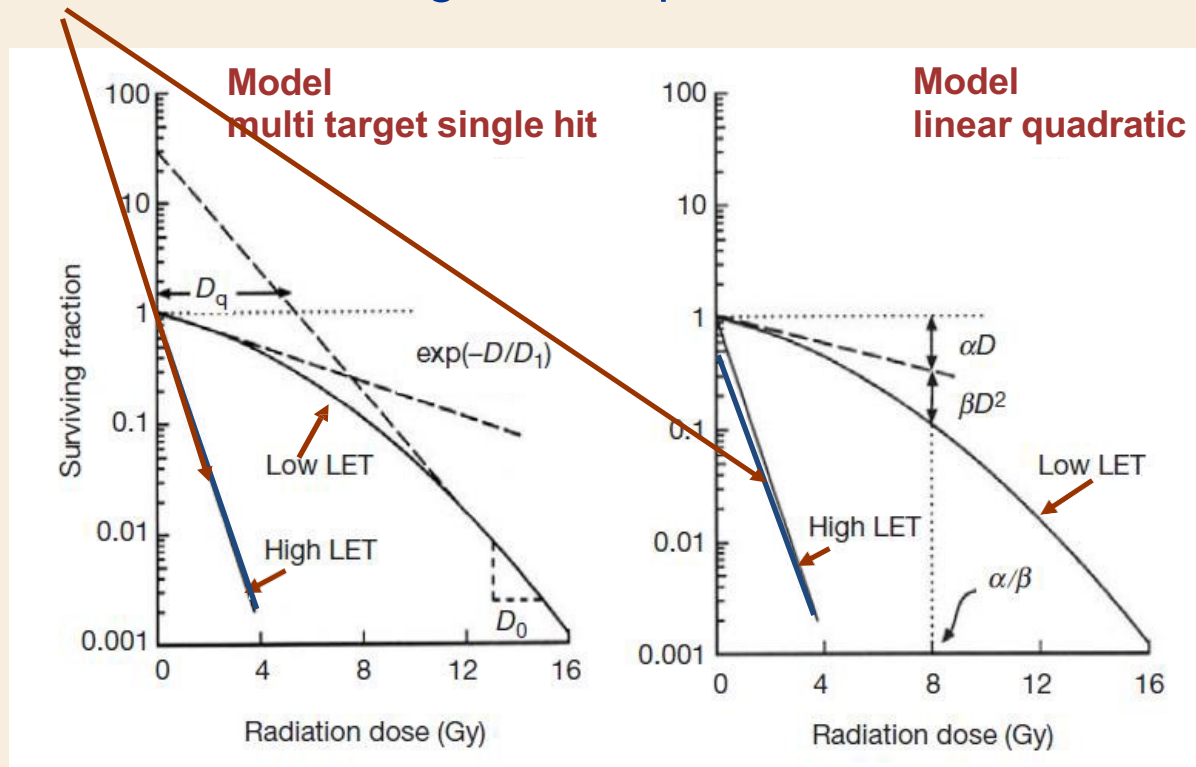
□ Cell survival against dose is graphically represented by plotting the **surviving fraction  $S(D)$**  on a logarithmic scale on the ordinate against **dose  $D$**  on a linear scale on the abscissa.



## 6.4.1 CELL SURVIVAL CURVES

Typical survival curves for cells irradiated by densely ionizing radiation (high LET) and sparsely ionizing radiation (low LET)

For high LET radiation, the survival curve may be exponential, i.e. linear on a semi-logarithmic plot



## 6.4.1 CELL SURVIVAL CURVES

- Type of radiation influences the shape of the survival curve.
  - For densely ionizing radiation (**high LET**) the cell survival curve is almost an exponential function of dose (shown by an almost straight line on a log-linear plot).
  - For sparsely ionizing radiation (**low LET**) the survival curves show an initial slope followed by a shoulder region and then become nearly straight at high doses.
- Many **mathematical models** of varying degrees of complexity have been developed to describe the shape of the cell survival curve.

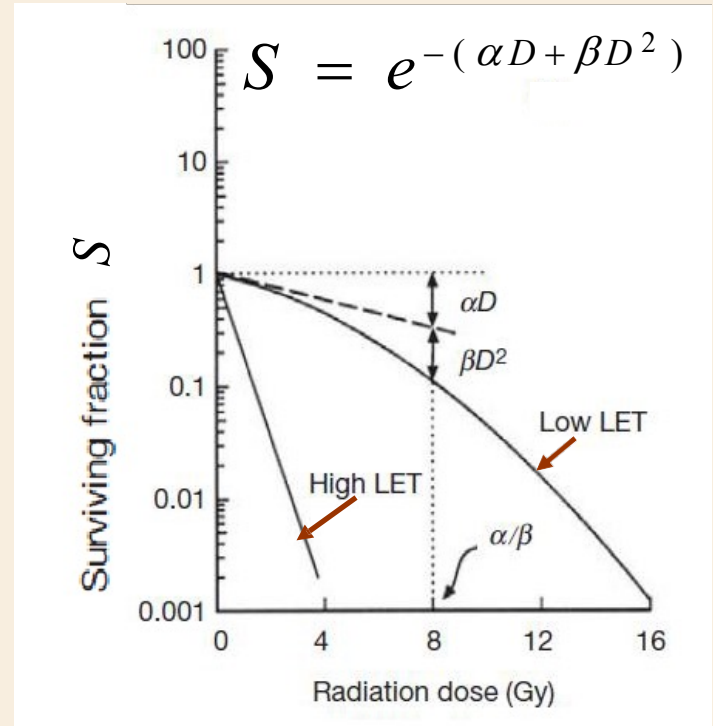


# 6.4.1 CELL SURVIVAL CURVES

## 1. Linear-quadratic (LQ) model

- The most common model used today is the **linear-quadratic model**, where **cell death** as a function of dose is described by a **second-order polynomial**
- This model assumes that there are two components to **cell killing by radiation**, commonly represented by two constants,  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$
- In this model, **cell survival fraction  $S$**  is described as a function of **dose  $D$**  by the following equation:

$$S = e^{-(\alpha D + \beta D^2)}$$



- $\alpha$  is a constant describing the initial slope of the cell survival curve.
- $\beta$  describes the quadratic component.

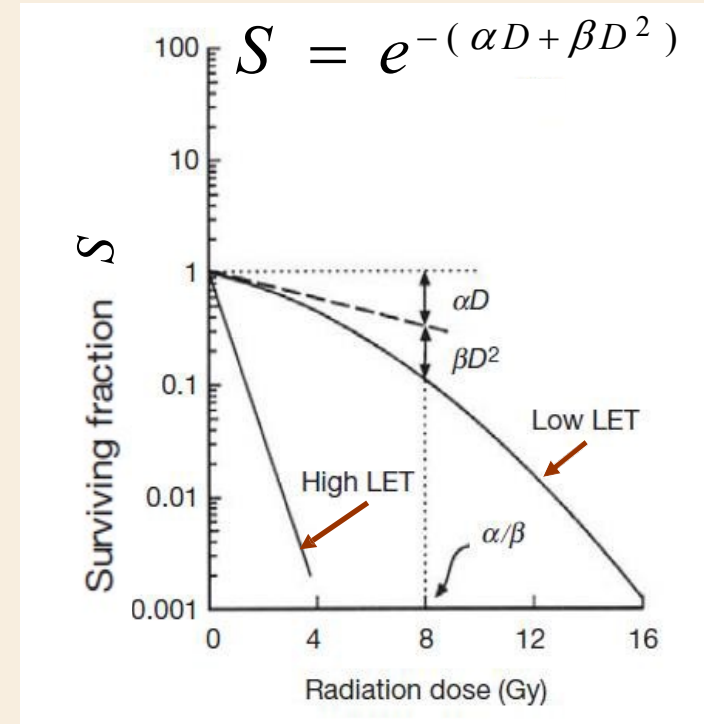




# 6.4.1 CELL SURVIVAL CURVES

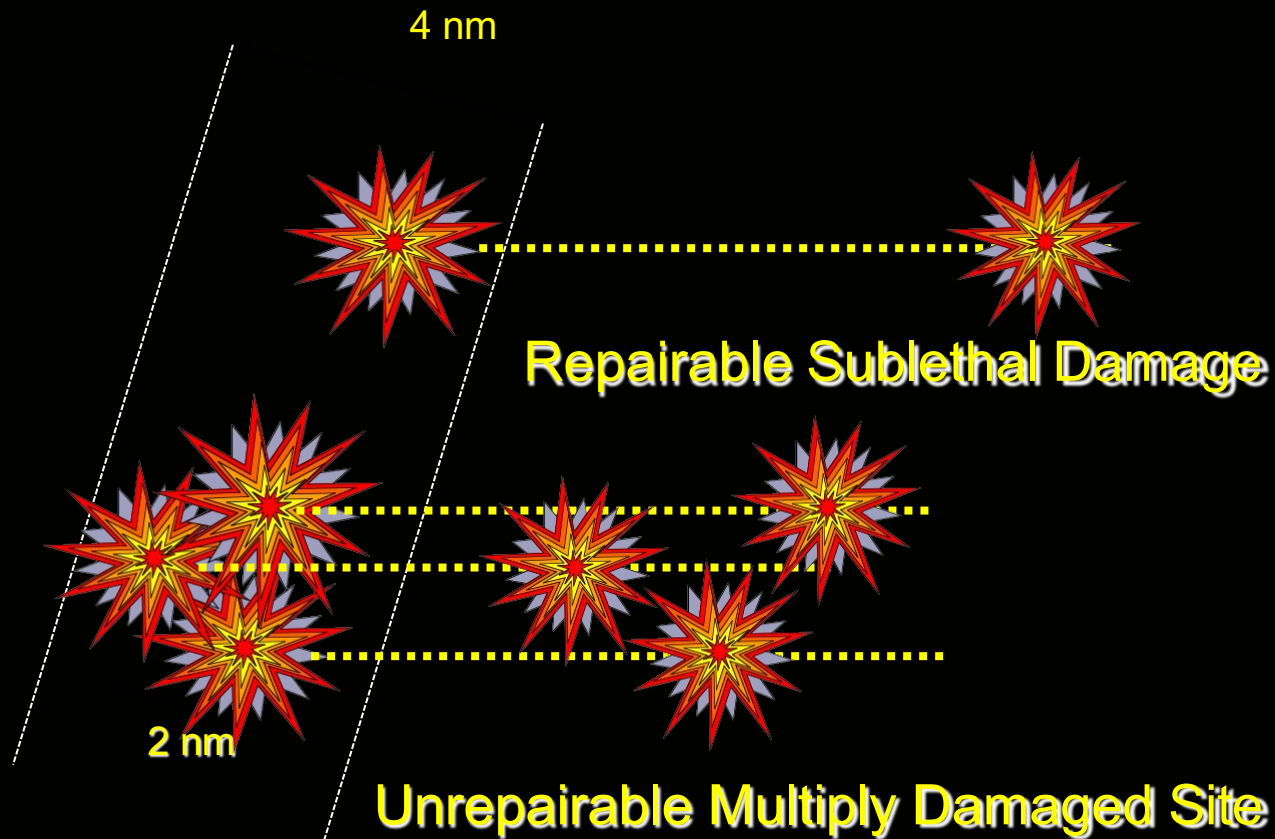
## 1. Linear-quadratic (LQ) model

- A plausible explanation of the **linear component** is that the majority of DNA-interactions are single-radiation track events
- Under these circumstances, **DNA damage can be effectively repaired** before possible interaction with another single track when **enough time is available** and **doses are relatively low**
- As the **dose or dose rate increases**, multi-track events, reflecting the **quadratic component**, will predominate resulting in an increased probability of **mis-repair** and **cell death**
- Over 90% of radiation oncologists use the LQ model



- **Ratio  $\alpha/\beta$**  gives the **dose** at which the linear and quadratic components of cell killing are equal.

Sub-lethal (or accumulated) damage results from accumulation of events that individually are incapable of killing a cell but that together can be lethal



# 6.4.1 CELL SURVIVAL CURVES

## 1. Linear-quadratic (LQ) model

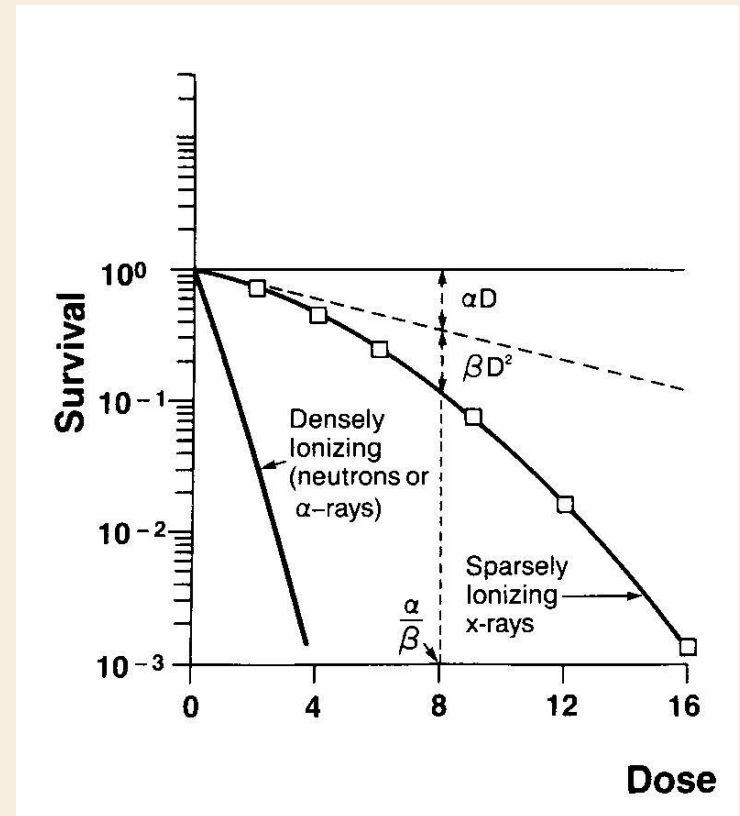
### $\alpha$ component

- Linear variation with dose ( $\text{Gy}^{-1}$ )
- Lethal : one hit = one sterile cell
- DSB

### $\beta$ component

- Quadratic variation with dose ( $\text{Gy}^{-2}$ )
- Some damage repaired, some not
- SSB (multiple)

$\alpha/\beta$  number (ratio) is defined by the dose at which the two contribute equally to the survival curve



$\alpha/\beta$  ratio high ( $>10$ )

- Curve linear at origin
- Early responding normal tissues
- Fast growing tumor

$\alpha/\beta$  ratio low ( $\sim 3$ )

- Curve with shoulder at the beginning
- Late responding normal tissues
- Tumor with high repair capability



## 6.4.1 CELL SURVIVAL CURVES

With regard to response time two types of tissue are known:

### ❑ HIERARCHICAL OR EARLY-RESPONDING TISSUES

- **Rich in stem cells** and highly proliferative progenitor cells that differentiate into functional differentiated cells.
- They have a high turnover rate and a high rate of cell loss.
- They **respond rapidly to irradiation** and fail when the precursor pool fails to generate enough differentiated cells.
- Examples are Gut, Skin, Bone Marrow, Mucosa and most TUMORS

### ❑ FLEXIBLE OR SLOW-RESPONDING TISSUES

- Tissues with a **slow turnover rate** and **respond slowly to irradiation**.
- They fail when there is enough irreparable damage to lead to cell death, generally after a **long lag period**.
- Examples are Brain, Spinal Cord, Kidney, Lung, Bladder



## 6.4.1 CELL SURVIVAL CURVES

### 1. Linear-quadratic (LQ) model

Early-Responding Tissues	$\alpha/\beta$	Late-Responding Tissues	$\alpha/\beta^b$
Jejunal mucosa	13	Spinal cord (110,166,245,284,285,322)	1.6–5
Colonic mucosa	7	Kidney (44,127,291,305)	0.5–5
Skin epithelium	10	Lung (90,211,214,275,289,295)	1.6–4.5
Spermatogenic cells	13	Liver (91)	1.4–3.5
Bone marrow	9	Human skin (32,211,279,280)	1.6–4.5
Melanocytes (302)	6.5	Cartilage and submucosa (171,329)	1.0–4.9
Tumors			
Mouse fibrosarcoma metastases (173)	10	Dermis (106)	$2.5 \pm 1.0$
Human tumors (169,171,195,258)	6–25	Bladder (252,265)	5.0–10.0
Experimental tumors (306)	10–35	Bone (212)	1.8–2.5

- The **LQ model best describes data in the range of 1 - 6Gy** and it is debated whether it can be used outside this range



# 6.4.1 CELL SURVIVAL CURVES

## 2. Single-hit single-target model

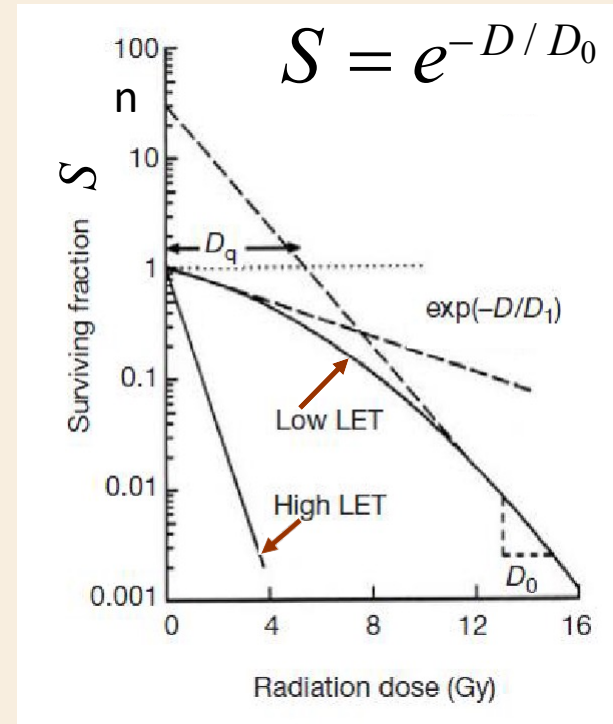
An alternative older model is the **single-hit single-target model** described by:

$$S = e^{-D/D_0}$$

$D_0$  is effectively the reciprocal of  $\alpha$  (of LQ model) and **represents the dose which reduces survival to  $e^{-1}$  or 37 %**

The **target theory** is based upon the idea that there are  $n$  targets in a cell, all of which must be “hit” to kill the cell

**Extrapolation number  $n$**  (the point of intersection of the slope on the log survival axis).



## 6.4.1 CELL SURVIVAL CURVES

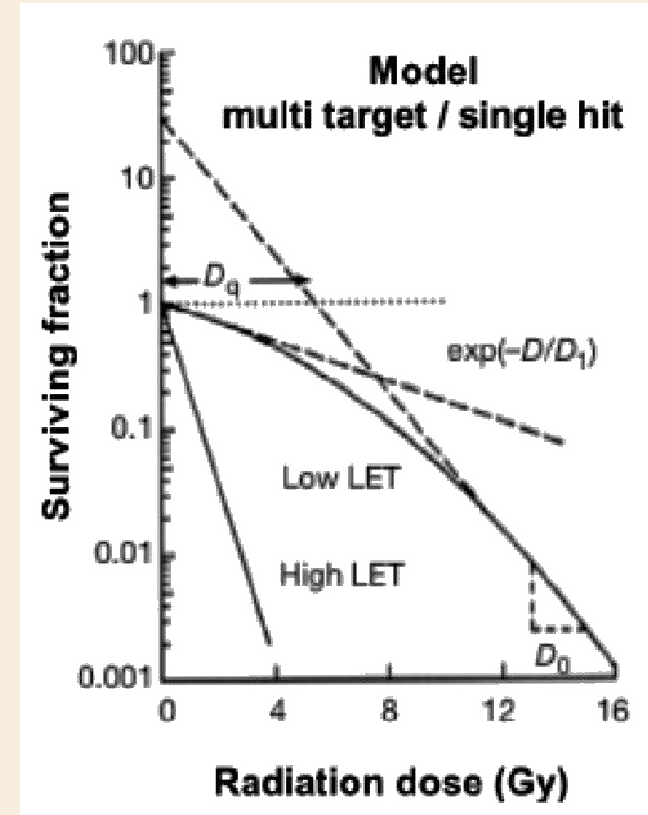
### 3. *Single-hit multi-target model*

- The **log-linear relationship** is consistent with data from some bacteria (procaryotes) but it **does not apply in eukaryotic cells** (except at high LET), which show shouldered survival curves that can be accommodated by a *single-hit multi-target model* described by:

$$S = 1 - (1 - e^{-D/D_0})^n$$

$n$  is the number of targets

- This is **reliable at high dose but not at low dose**, because it does not describe accurately the 'shoulder' region at low doses



# CHAPTER 6. PART 4

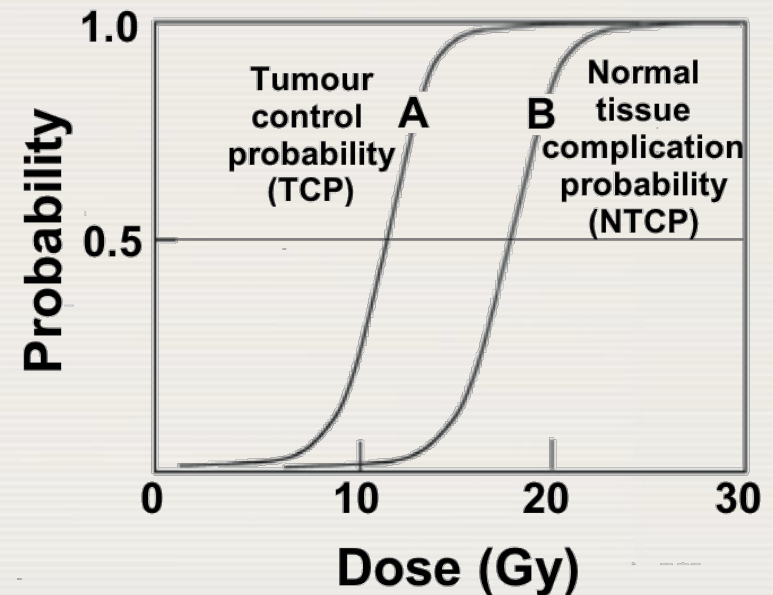
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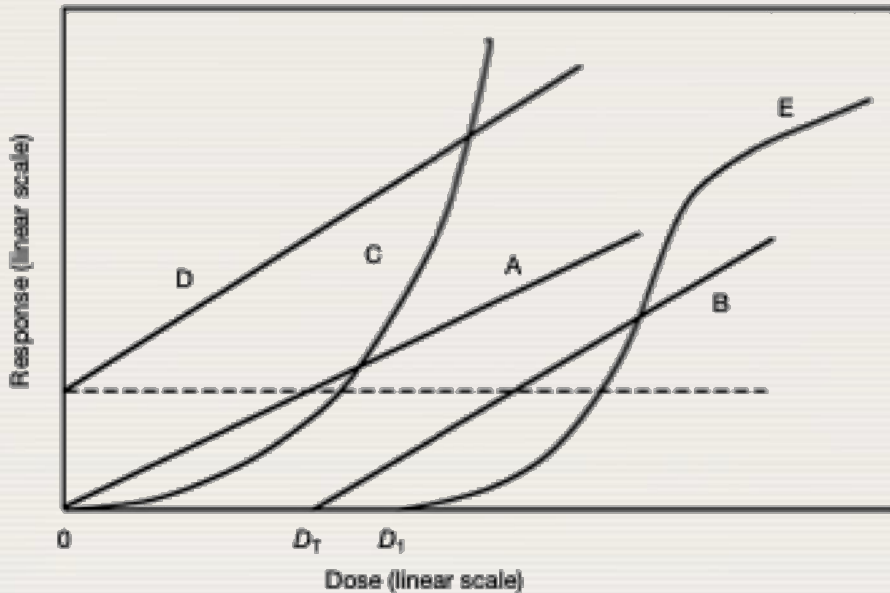


## 6.4.2 DOSE RESPONSE CURVES

- Plot of a biological effect observed (e.g., tumor induction or tissue response) against the dose given is called a **dose response curve**.
- Generally, **as the dose increases so does the effect**.
- Three types of **dose response relationships** are known:
  - Linear
  - Linear-quadratic
  - Sigmoid
- **Threshold dose** is the largest dose for a particular effect studied below which no such effect is observed.



## 6.4.2 DOSE RESPONSE CURVES



### Dose response curves

- (A) Linear relationship with no threshold.
- (B) Linear relationship with threshold.
- (C) Linear-quadratic relationship with no threshold (**stochastic effects** such as carcinogenesis).
- (D) Linear relationship with no threshold and the area under the dashed line representing the **natural incidence** of the effect.
- (E) Sigmoid relationship with threshold  $D_1$ , as is common for **deterministic effects** in tissues.

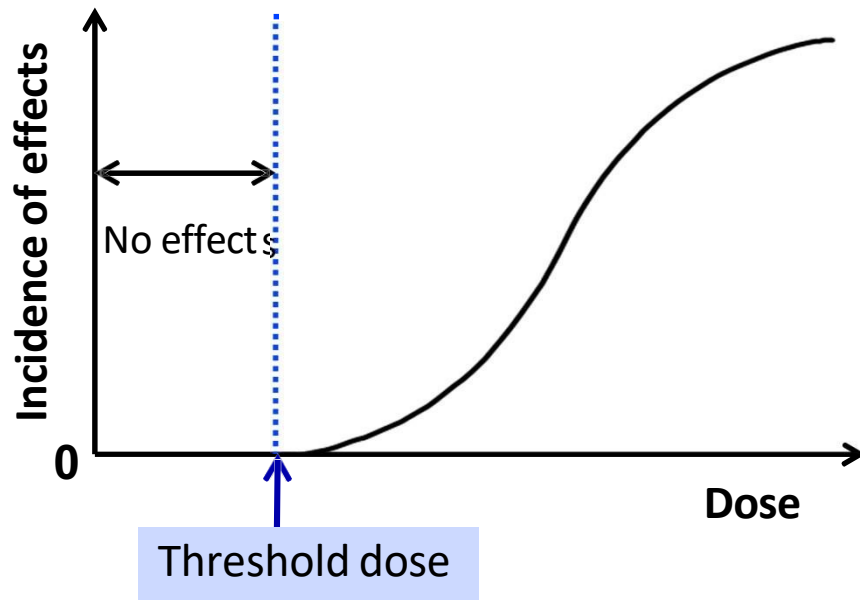
# Deterministic Effects and Stochastic Effects

## Deterministic effects

(Hair loss, cataract, skin injury, etc.)

When a number of people were exposed to the same dose of radiation and certain symptoms appear in 1% of them, said dose is considered to be the threshold dose.

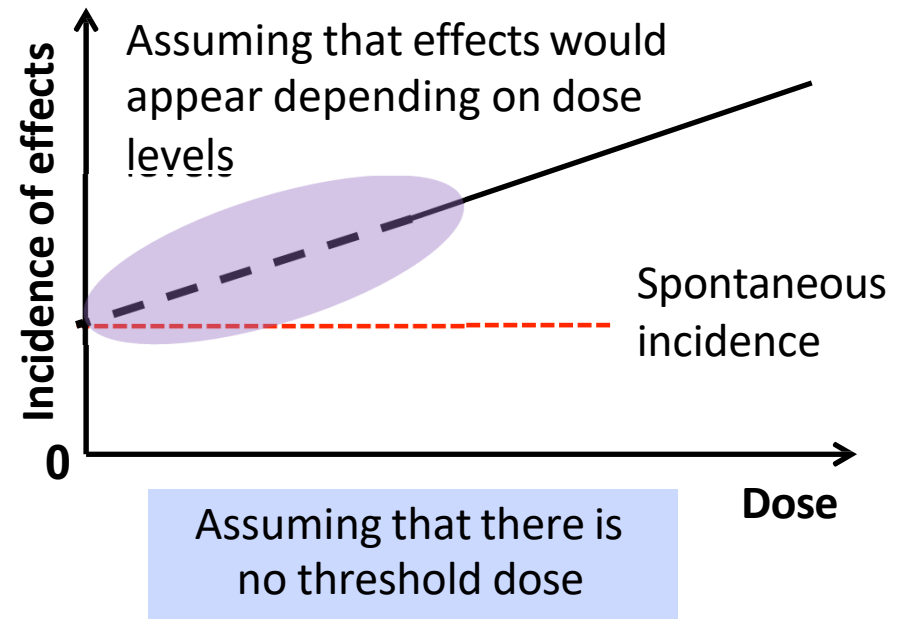
(2007 Recommendations of the International Commission on Radiological Protection (ICRP))



## Stochastic effects

(Solid cancer, leukemia, hereditary effects)

Effects of radiation exposure under certain doses are not clear because effects of other cancer-promoting factors such as smoking and drinking habits are too large. However, the ICRP specifies the standards for radiological protection for such low-dose exposures, assuming that they may have some effects as well.



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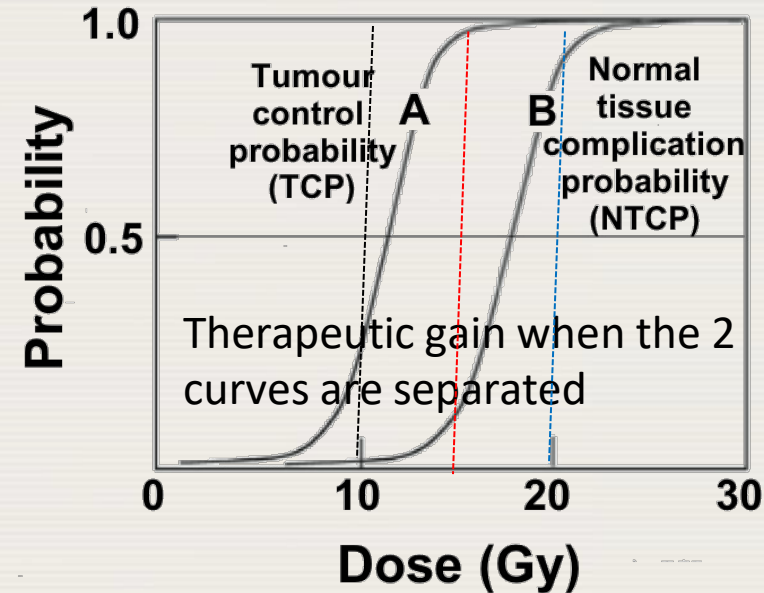
## 6.4.3 NORMAL AND TUMOUR CELLS: THERAPEUTIC RATIO

- ❑ **Cancer** is characterized by a **disorderly proliferation of cells** that can invade adjacent tissues and spread via the lymphatic system or blood vessels to other parts of the body.
- ❑ Aim of **radiotherapy** is to **deliver enough radiation to the tumor to destroy it without irradiating normal tissue** to a dose that will lead to serious complications (morbidity).
- ❑ It is imperative that the **doses to normal tissues** be kept lower than the doses to tumors in order to:
  - Minimize treatment complications.
  - Optimize treatment outcomes.

## 6.4.3 NORMAL AND TUMOUR CELLS: THERAPEUTIC RATIO

□ Principle of radiotherapy is usually illustrated by plotting two sigmoid curves:

- For tumor control probability (TCP).
- For normal tissue complication probability (NTCP).

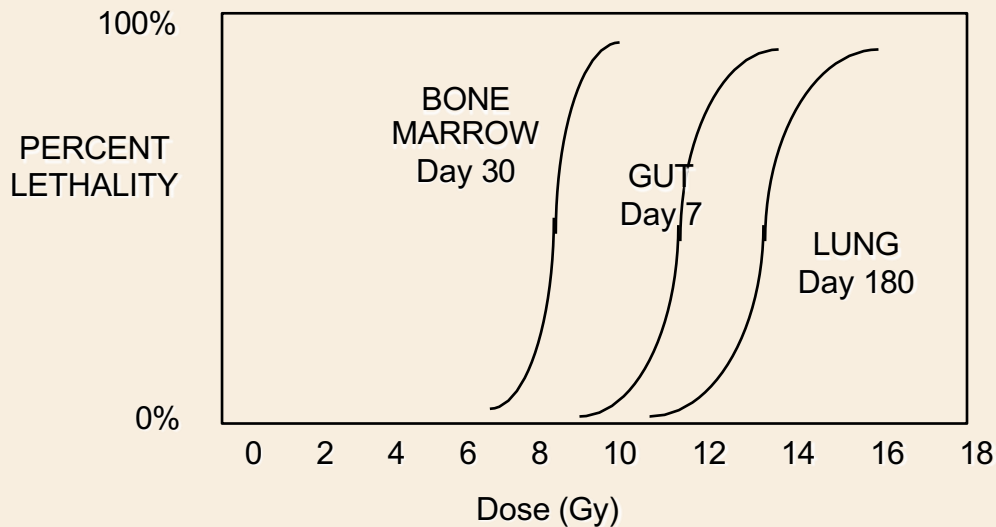


□ Optimal choice of radiation dose delivery technique in treatment of a given tumour is such that **it maximizes the TCP and simultaneously minimizes the NTCP.**

□ For a typical good radiotherapy treatment:

- $TCP \geq 0.5$
- $NTCP \geq 0.05$

## 6.4.3 NORMAL AND TUMOUR CELLS: THERAPEUTIC RATIO



- Different tissues have different **tolerances to irradiation** and fail at different times after irradiation (intrinsic radiosensitivity)
- **LATENCY:** Different tissues take different times to express damage. This depends on their cell turnover time. →  
→ It is NOT an indicator of radiosensitivity.
- **There is no relationship between latency and tolerance**
- E.g. After moderate doses, gut fails first, then bone marrow, then lung, but the hematopoietic system is the most radiosensitive



## 6.4.3 NORMAL AND TUMOUR CELLS: THERAPEUTIC RATIO

### Tumor Control Probability (TCP)

In order to cure a tumor, **the last surviving clonogen must be killed**  
→ it is a probability function of dose.

$$TCP = e^{-x} = e^{-(m \cdot S)} = e^{-m \cdot e^{-(\alpha D + \beta D^2)}} \text{ or } e^{-m \cdot e^{-(D/D_0)}}$$

where  $x$  is the number of surviving clonogenic stem cells  
 $m$  is the initial number of clonogens

If there is an average of 1 cell surviving TCP=37%



## 6.4.3 NORMAL AND TUMOUR CELLS: THERAPEUTIC RATIO

- Several factors can alter radiosensitivity and widen or narrow the therapeutic ratio:
  - **Oxygenation status** → hypoxia (resistance) or normoxia (sensitivity).
  - Addition of **radioprotectors** (free radical scavengers, Amifostine – thiol donor)
  - Addition of **radiosensitizers** (chemotherapy, others)
  - Use of **low dose rates** or **multi-fractionated irradiation**.
  - **Synchronization of cells** in the late S phase of the cell cycle.

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## 6.4.4 RELATIVE BIOLOGICAL EFFECTIVENESS

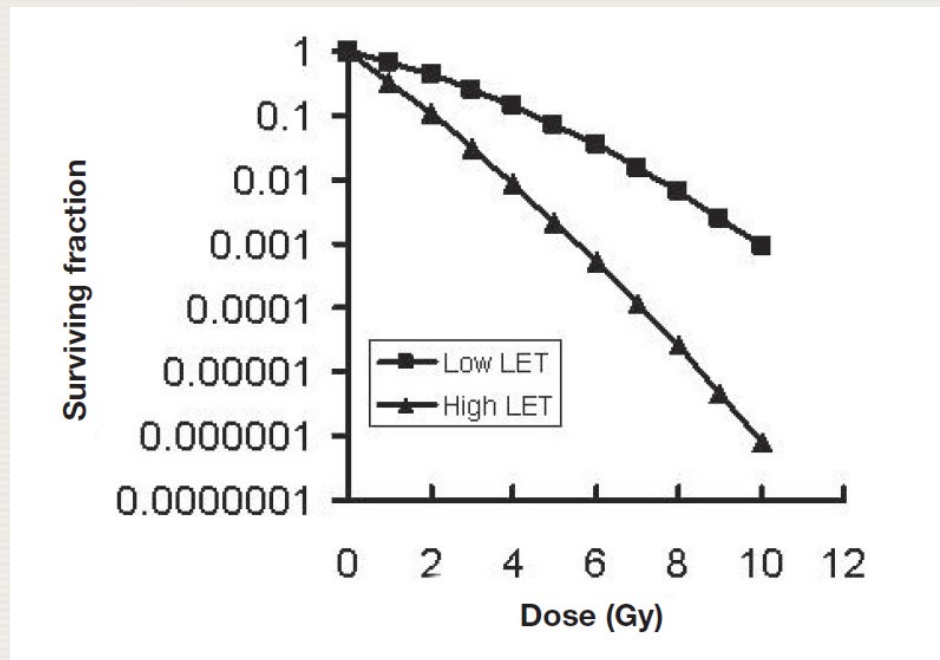
Assumption: **As the LET of radiation increases, the ability of the radiation to produce biological damage increases.**

The **Relative biological effectiveness (RBE)** is defined as:

$$\text{RBE} = \frac{d_{\text{low LET}}}{d_{\text{high LET}}} = \frac{d_L}{d_H}$$

Isoeffective doses for the reference:

- Historically, 250 kVp x rays were taken as standard radiation.
- Today cobalt-60 gamma rays are recommended for this purpose.



In particular, the **RBE** of a radiation is defined as the **ratio of the dose required to produce the same biological effect (reduction in cell survival)** as a reference low LET radiation.

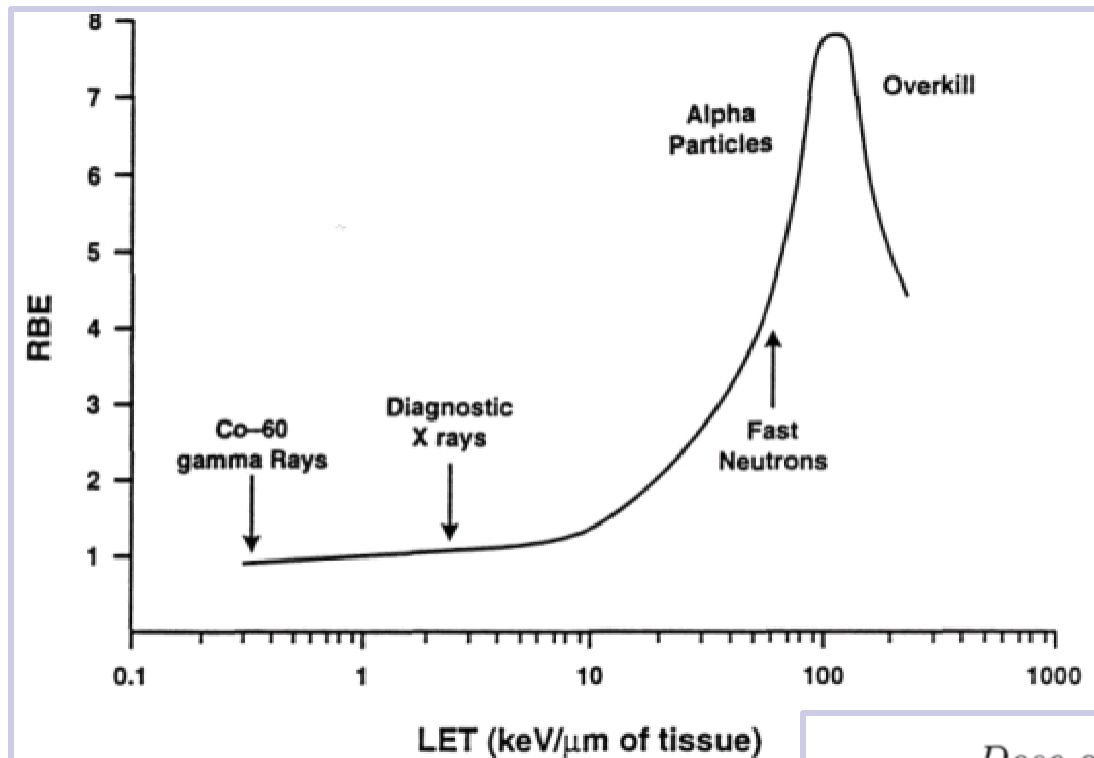


## 6.4.4 RELATIVE BIOLOGICAL EFFECTIVENESS

- ❑ An **increase in the RBE** in itself offers no therapeutic advantage unless there is a differential effect making the RBE for normal tissue smaller than that for the tumor
  
- ❑ The RBE varies with:
  - Type of radiation (high or low LET).
  - Type of cell or tissue (radiosensitive or radioresistant).
  - Dose.
  - Dose rate.
  - Oxygenation → **oxygen enhancement ratio (OER)**
  - Fractionation.
  - Cell cycle phase
  - Tissue/Tumor Type

# Radiation Effect and Dose Delivery

For low LET radiation,  $\Rightarrow$   $RBE \propto LET$ , for higher LET the RBE increases to a maximum, the subsequent drop is caused by the **overkill effect**.



Radiation quality	typical RBE
250 kV X-rays	1.0
MV X-rays	1.0
electrons	1.0
protons	1.1–1.5 <sup>a</sup>
C <sup>6+</sup> ions	1.5–5 <sup>a</sup>
fast neutrons	4–5

<sup>a</sup> The higher values occur toward the end of the particle range where LET increases.

$$RBE = \frac{\text{Dose of 150 V X-rays required to cause effect } x}{\text{Dose of radiation required to cause effect } x}$$

These high energies are sufficient to kill more cells than actually available!  
Causes more DNA damage than is needed so energy is wasted.

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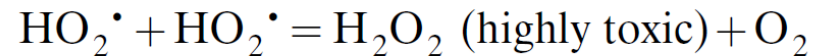
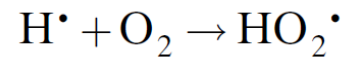
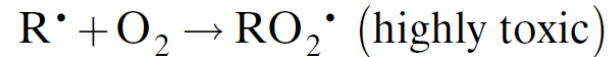
## 6.4.5 OXYGEN EFFECT

Radiation effects may be influenced especially by the **presence/absence of oxygen**.

The **free radicals (R)** produced as a result of direct or indirect effects are **very reactive** and seek to interact with other molecules which can share/donate electrons.

Molecular oxygen (**O<sub>2</sub>**) has 2 unpaired electrons and readily reacts with free radicals, causing an increased likelihood that deoxyribonucleic acid (**DNA**) will be **damaged by indirect process**.

Important reactions via which oxygen can increase biological damage are:



**oxygen enhancement ratio (OER)** to achieve equivalent biological effect

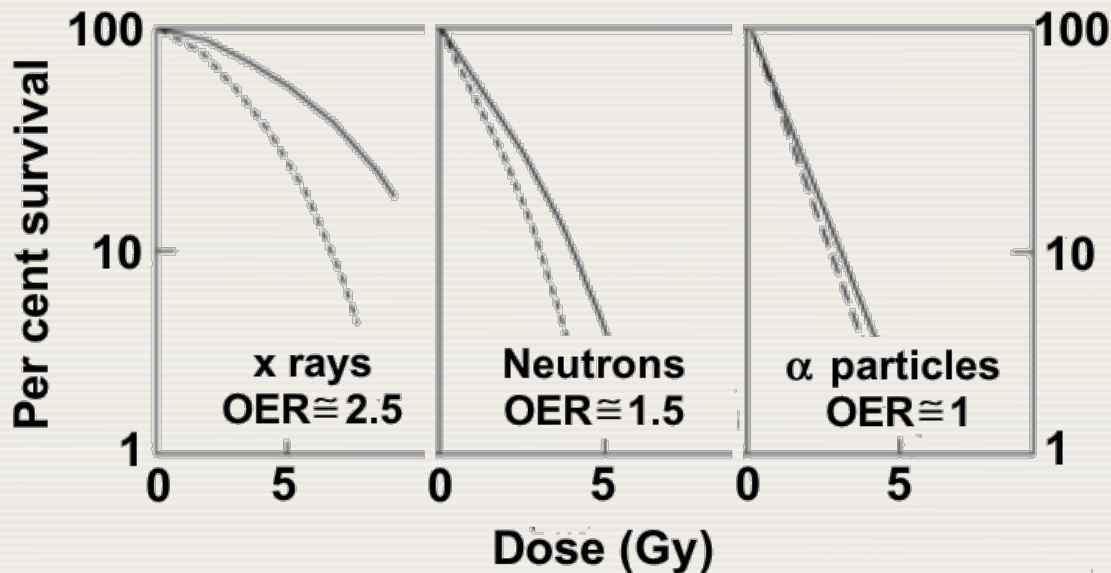
$$OER = \frac{D_{\text{hypoxia}}}{D_{\text{in air}}}$$

~ **3** for **low LET** radiation  
(as  $\gamma$  rays)

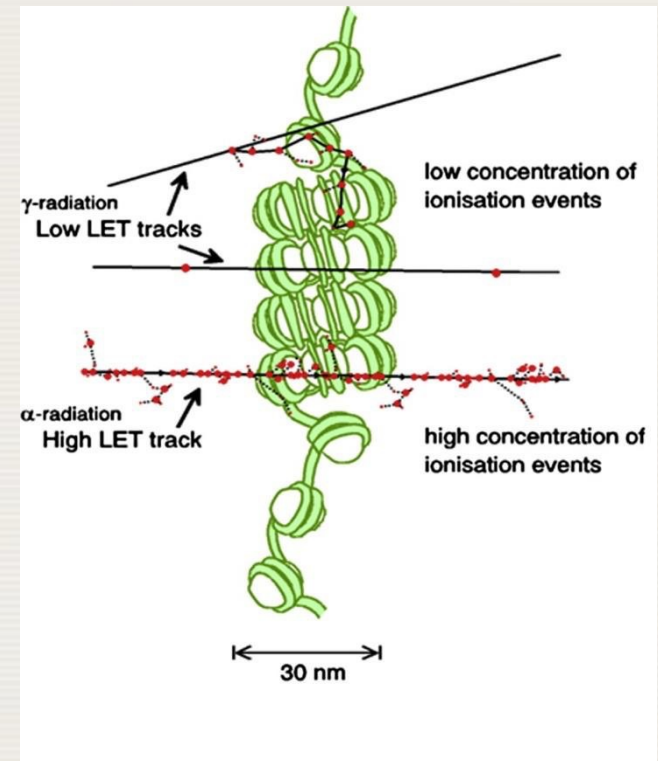
~ **1** for **high LET** radiation  
(as  $\alpha$  particles)

## 6.4.5 OXYGEN EFFECT

- **Oxygen effect** is quite dramatic for low LET (sparsely ionizing) radiation, while for high LET (densely ionizing) radiation it is much less pronounced.



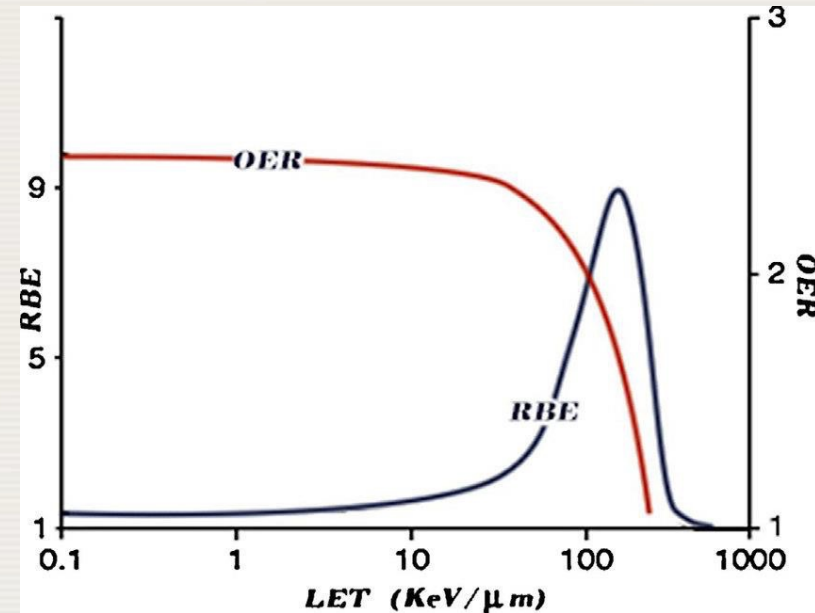
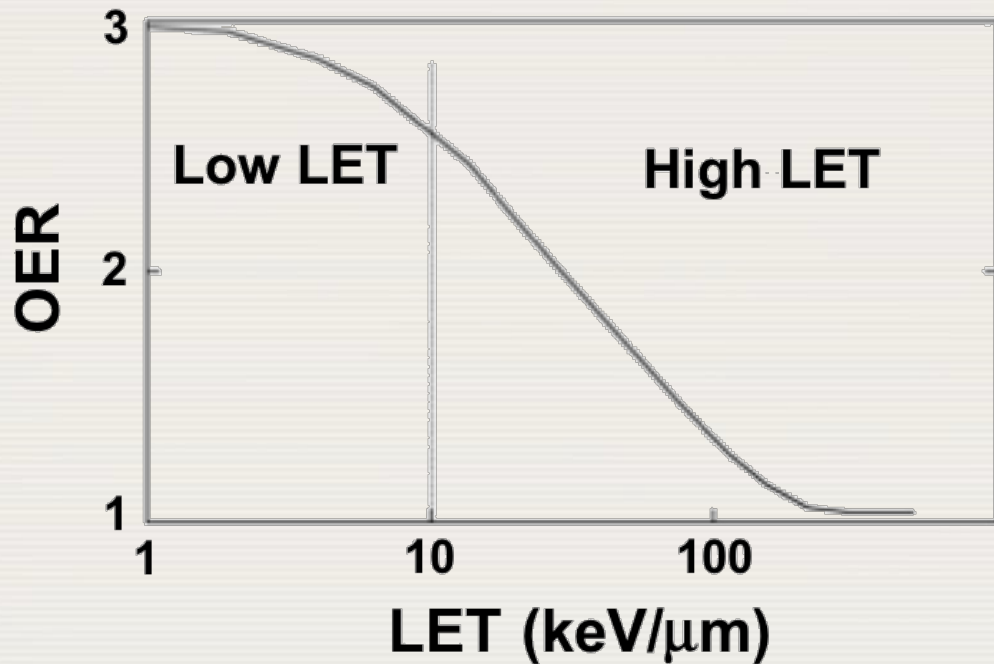
Solid survival curves are for hypoxic cells; dashed survival curves are for well oxygenated cells.





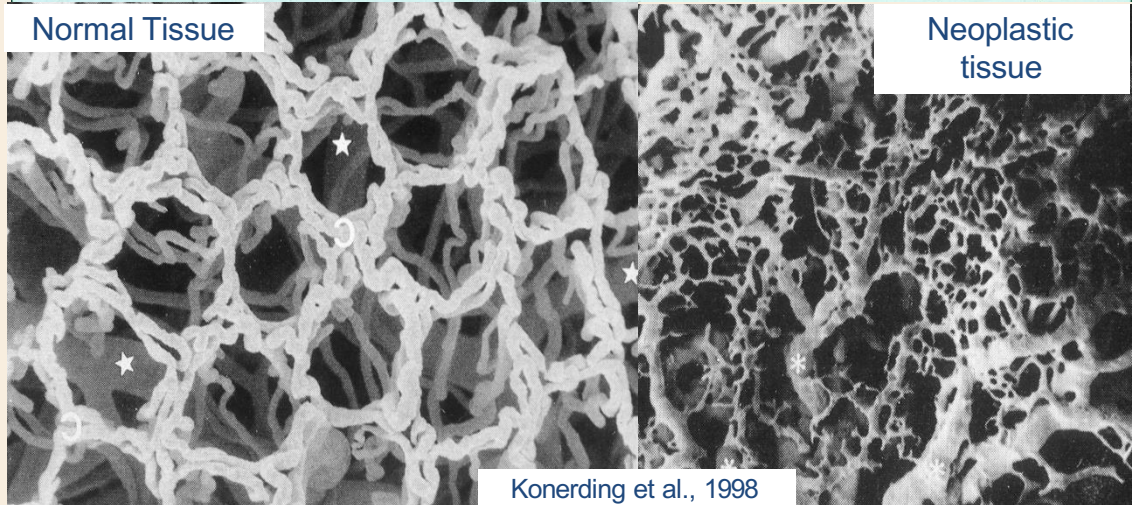
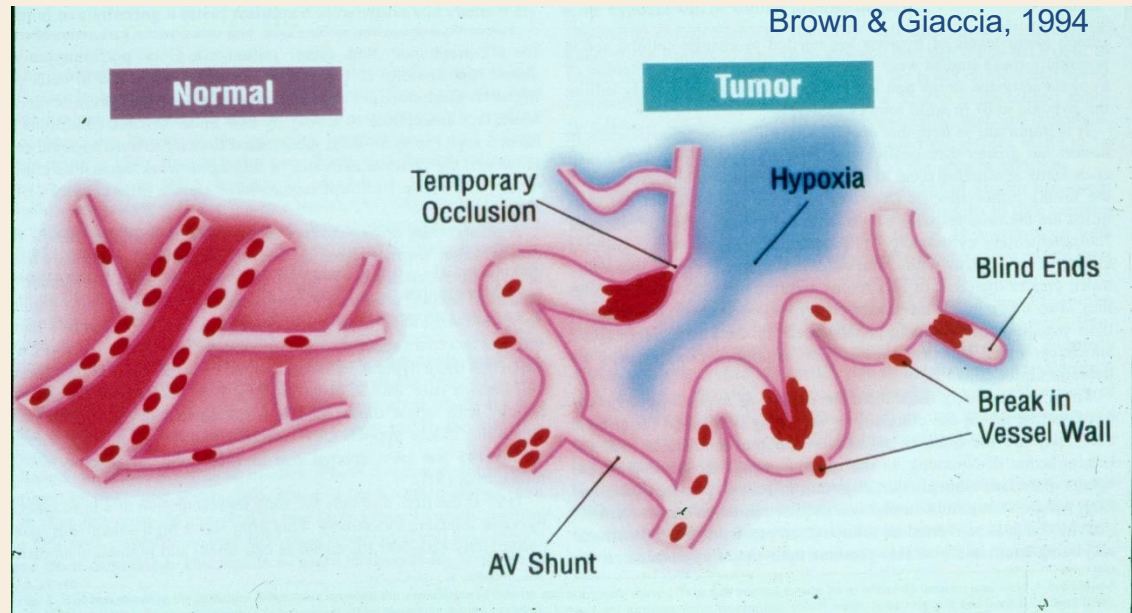
## 6.4.5 OXYGEN EFFECT

- The **OER** decreases as the **LET** increases and approaches  $OER = 1$  at  $LET \approx 150 \text{ keV}/\mu\text{m}$ .



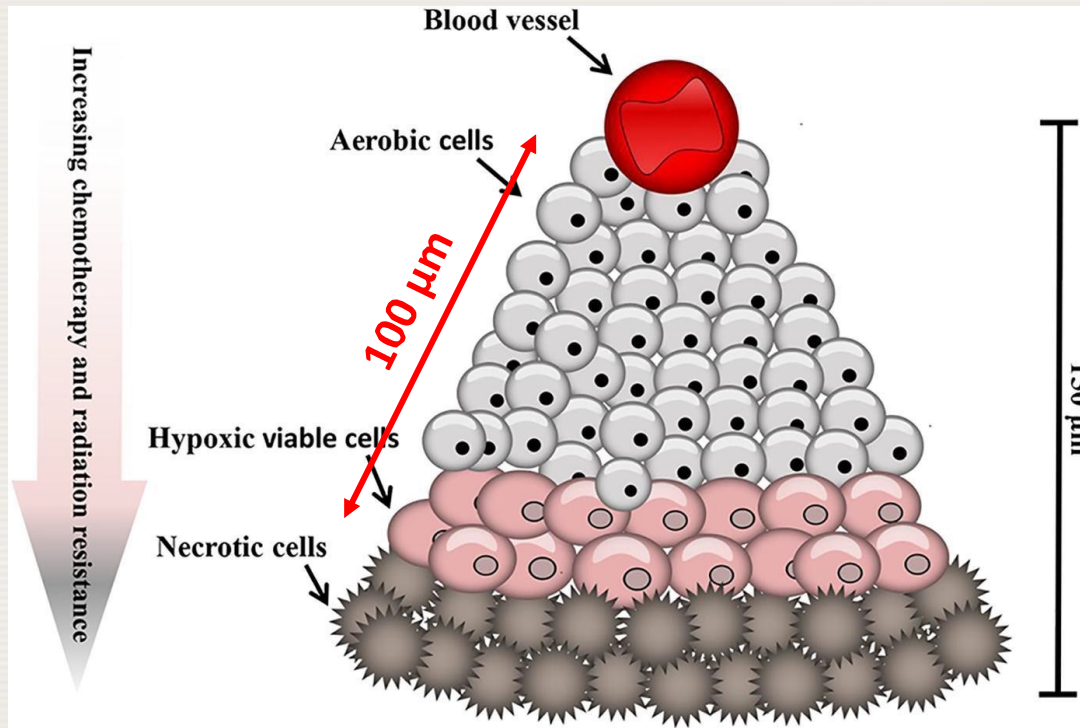
## 6.4.5 OXYGEN EFFECT

- The vascular network that develops in tumors is **structurally abnormal**
- Vessels are dilated, tortuous, elongated, with blind ends
- The abnormal vasculature results in spatial and temporal heterogeneity in blood flow that in turn produce regions of **temporary or acute hypoxia**, and nutrient depletion



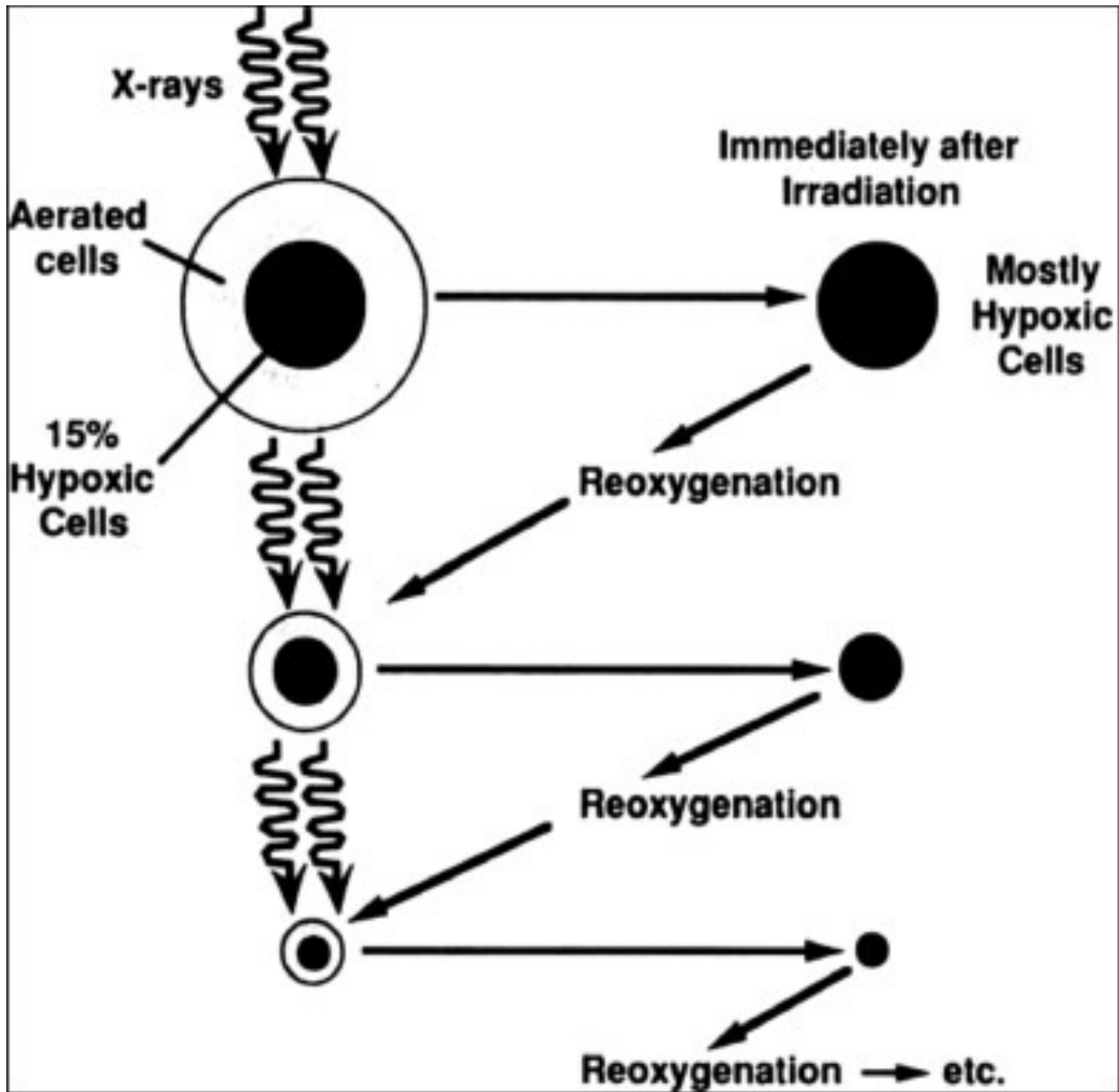
## 6.4.5 OXYGEN EFFECT

- Cells at the periphery of tumour cords growing around blood vessels become **chronically hypoxic** because of the consumption of most of the oxygen near the blood vessel.



- Limited O<sub>2</sub> diffusion** due to high cell oxygen consumption and/or irregular vascular geometry

- Reoxygenation** is process by which cells that are hypoxic become oxygenated after irradiation through the killing and removal of oxic radiosensitive cells from the tumor.



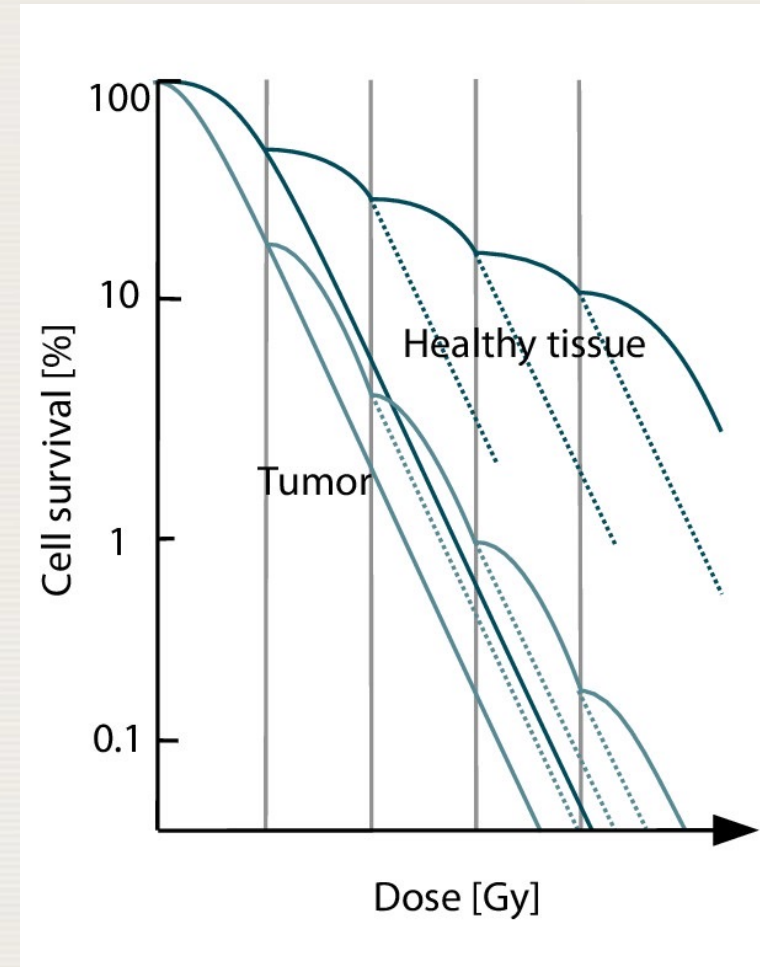
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## 6.4.5 DOSE RATE AND FRACTIONATION

- ❑ The dose delivered in radiation therapy is usually divided or “fractionated” over a treatment course lasting multiple weeks (2 Gy dose/fraction over 6 weeks).
- ❑ Fractionation in the context of radiotherapy is the process of **dividing a dose of radiation into multiple “fractions”**.
- ❑ This practice seeks to **maximize the destruction of malignant cells** while **minimizing damage to healthy tissues** → improve the therapeutic ratio
- ❑ To achieve the desired level of biological damage **the total dose in a fractionated treatment must be much larger than that in a single treatment.**



## 6.4.5 DOSE RATE AND FRACTIONATION

□ **Conventional fractionation** is explained as follows:

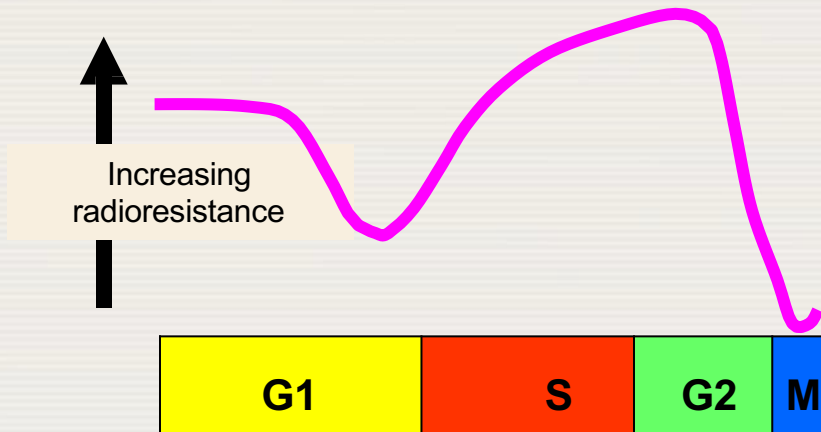
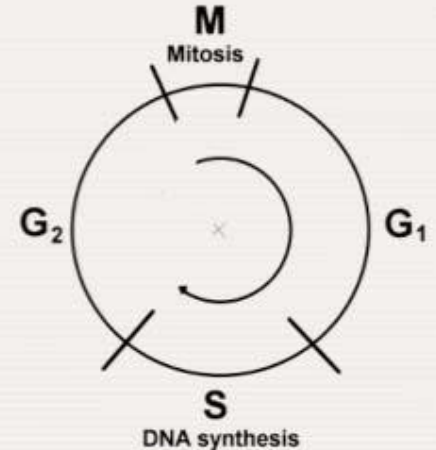
- Division of dose into multiple fractions allows for: (1) **repair** of sublethal damage between dose fractions and (2) **repopulation** of cells.
- Repair of sublethal damage is greater for late responding (healthy) tissues, while cancer cells struggle to repair their (unstable) DNA
- The repopulation of cells is greater for early responding tissues (tumors).
- Fractionation increases tumor damage through **reoxygenation** and **redistribution** of tumor cells.

**Large dose/fraction more toxic to tissues with low  $\alpha/\beta$  ratio compared to tissues with high  $\alpha/\beta$  ratio**

## 6.2 IRRADIATION OF CELLS

**Radioresensitivity** differs throughout the cell cycle with, in general:

- late S phase being the most **radioresistant**
- G<sub>2</sub>/M being the most **radiosensitive** (Cells going through the division phase)
- G<sub>1</sub> phase taking an intermediate position



- The greater proportion of DNA enzymatic repair during late S phase may explain the **resistance of late S phase cells**
- Poor repair competence (reduced enzyme access due to chromatin compaction) explains the **high radiosensitivity in G<sub>2</sub>/M phase**
- **Resting cells in G<sub>0</sub>**, not involved in the cell cycle, are more resistant to radiation when compared to late **S-phase cells**



## 6.4.5 DOSE RATE AND FRACTIONATION

The **basic equation of the LQ model** describes the shape of the cell survival curves and has a biophysical origin. Cell survival after delivery of an acute dose  $d$  is given is:

$$S = \exp(-\alpha d - \beta d^2)$$

with  $\alpha$  ( $\text{Gy}^{-1}$ ) and  $\beta$  ( $\text{Gy}^{-2}$ ) being **the linear and quadratic sensitivity coefficients**

If the treatment is repeated in  **$N$  spaced fractions**, the net survival is  $S_N$ :

$$S_N = S^N = \exp(-N\alpha d - N\beta d^2)$$



$$\frac{\ln S_N}{\alpha} = -Nd - \frac{Nd^2}{(\alpha / \beta)}$$



$$\text{BED} = nd \left[ 1 + \frac{d}{\alpha/\beta} \right]$$

**Biologically Effective  
Dose**

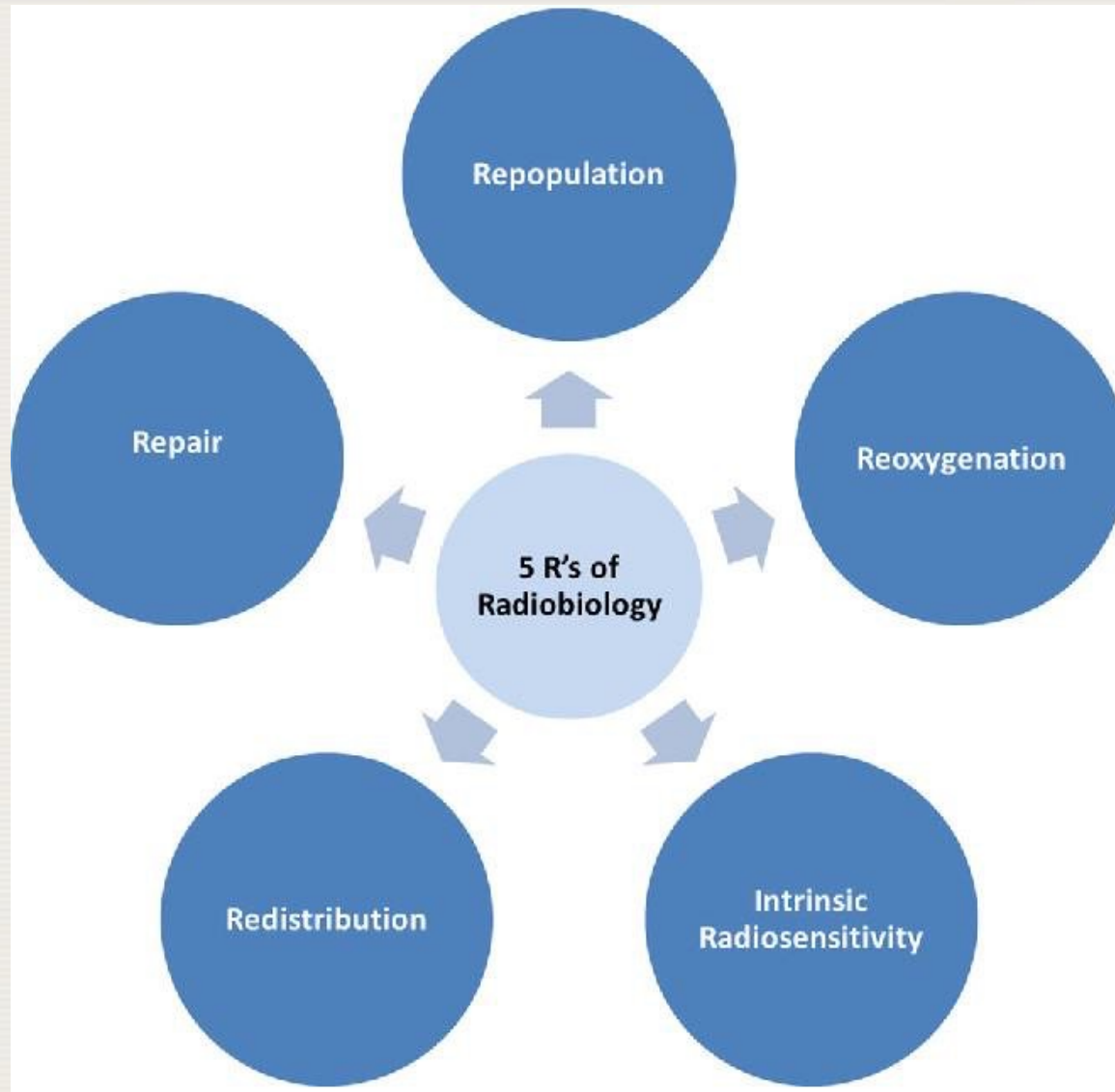
## BED vs EQD2 (Equivalent dose at 2 Gy)

$$EQD_2 = D \cdot \frac{d + \alpha/\beta}{2 + \alpha/\beta}$$

Or more simply:

$$EQD_2 = \frac{BED}{1 + \frac{2}{\alpha/\beta}}$$

EQD2 is calculated as derived from the linear-quadratic model  
D = total dose, d = dose per fraction,  $\alpha$  = linear (first-order dose-dependent) component of cell killing,  $\beta$  = quadratic (second-order dose dependent) component of cell killing



## 6.4.5 DOSE RATE AND FRACTIONATION

□ **Basis of fractionation** is rooted in 5 primary biological factors called the **five Rs of radiobiology**:

- **Radiosensitivity**. Eukaryotic cells have different radio-sensitivities (see next slide). Tumor cells have inherent, and variable, radiosensitivity.
- **Redistribution**: cells that survive a dose of radiation since in resistant phases of the division cycle, **redistribute into more sensitive phases** of the cell cycle during subsequent doses of radiation.
- **Repair**. Healthy eukaryotic cells repair radiation damage easier than cancer cells due to their (unstable) DNA
- **Repopulation**. Cells repopulate while receiving fractionated doses of radiation (visible in the shoulders).
- **Reoxygenation** of hypoxic cells occurs during a fractionated course of treatment, making them more oxygenated and therefore radiosensitive to subsequent doses of radiation (the tumor cluster is “peeled” like an onion by removing the tumor layers that are oxic ).

# Radiosensitivity of Organs and Tissues

Active cell division

High sensitivity

**Hematopoietic system:** Bone marrow and lymphatic tissues  
(spleen, thymus gland, lymph node)

**Reproductive system:** Testis and ovary

**Gastrointestinal system:** Mucous membrane and small-intestinal  
villus

**Epidermis and eyes:** Hair follicle, sweat gland, skin and lens

**Other:** Lung, kidney, liver and thyroid gland

**Support system:** muscle, cartilage and bone

**Transmission system:** nerve, brain

No cell division


Low sensitivity

# CHAPTER 6. TABLE OF CONTENTS

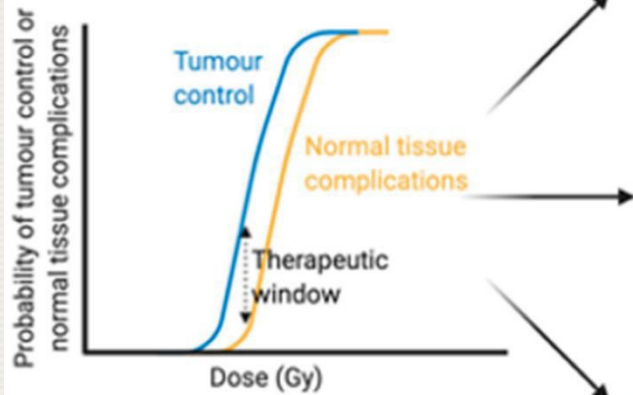
## PART 4

1. Cell survival curves
  - A. linear-quadratic model
  - B. single-hit single-target model
  - C. multi-target-single hit model
  - D. The  $\alpha/\beta$  ratio
2. Dose response curves
3. Normal and tumor cells: Therapeutic ratio
4. Relative biological effectiveness (RBE)
5. Oxygen effect
6. Dose rate and fractionation
7. Radioprotectors and radiosensitizers

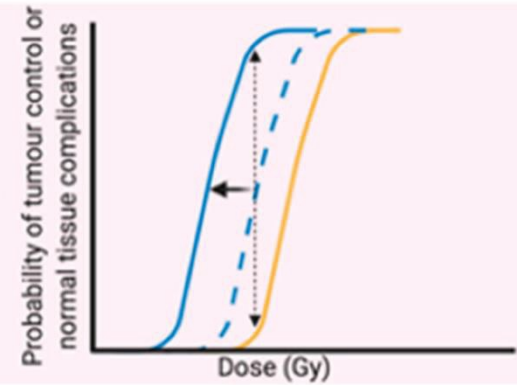
## 6.4.6 RADIOPROTECTORS AND RADIOSENSITIZERS

- Some **chemical agents** may alter the cell response to ionizing radiation, either reducing or enhancing the cell response:
    - Chemical agents that reduce cell response to radiation are called **radioprotectors**. They generally influence the indirect effects of radiation by **scavenging the production of free radicals**.
    - Chemical agents that enhance cell response to radiation are called **radiosensitizers**. They generally **promote both the direct and indirect effects of radiation and OER**.
- 
- **Oxygen** is a powerful oxidizing agent and therefore acts as a radiosensitizer if it is present at the time of irradiation

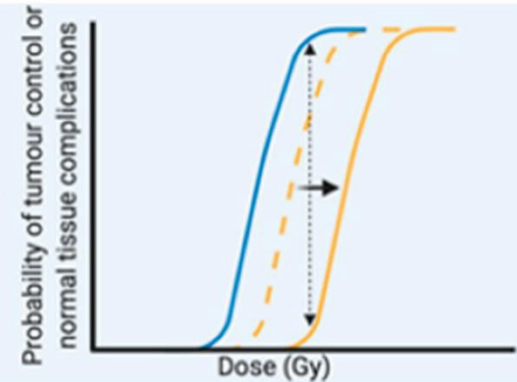
# 6.4.6 RADIOPROTECTORS AND RADIOSENSITIZERS



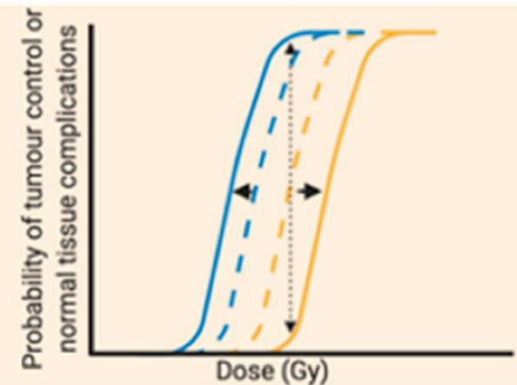
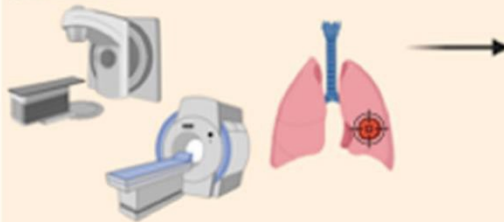
Radiosensitizers for tumour control  
e.g. PARP inhibitors, ATM inhibitors



Radioprotectors/mitigators for healthy tissue  
e.g. Amifostine, Captopril, TGF- $\beta$  inhibitors



High precision radiation delivery techniques:  
IMRT, SBRT, MRI-guided RT, High energy particle RT





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