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Influence of manipulating hypoxia in solid tumors on radiation dose-rate effect *in vivo*, referring to that in quiescent cell population

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Running head:

Influence of manipulating hypoxia on radiation dose-rate effect

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Original article

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1 **Abstract**

2 **Purpose:** To clarify the effect of manipulating intratumor hypoxia on
3 **radiosensitivity** under reduced dose-rate (RDR) irradiation.

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5
6 **Methods:** Tumor-bearing mice were continuously given
7
8 5-bromo-2'-deoxyuridine (BrdU) to label all proliferating (P) cells.
9
10 They received γ -rays or accelerated carbon-ion beams at high dose-rate
11
12 (HDR) or RDR with or without tumor clamping to induce hypoxia. Some
13
14 mice without clamping received nicotinamide, an acute hypoxia-releasing
15
16 agent or misonidazole, a hypoxic cell radio-sensitizer before
17
18 irradiation. The responses of quiescent (Q) and total (= P+Q) cells
19
20 were assessed by the micronucleus frequency using immunofluorescence
21
22 staining for BrdU.
23
24

25 **Results:** The clearer decrease in **radiosensitivity** in Q than total cells
26
27 after RDR γ -ray irradiation was suppressed with carbon-ion beams,
28
29 especially with a higher linear energy transfer value. Repressing the
30
31 decrease in the **radiosensitivity** under RDR irradiation through keeping
32
33 tumors hypoxic during irradiation and enhancing the decrease in the
34
35 **radiosensitivity** by nicotinamide were clearer with γ -rays and in total
36
37 cells than with carbon-ion beams and in Q cells, respectively. Inhibiting
38
39 the decrease in the **radiosensitivity** by misonidazole was clearer with
40
41 γ -rays and in Q cells than with carbon-ion beams and in total cells,
42
43 respectively.
44
45

46 **Conclusion:** Manipulating hypoxia during RDR as well as HDR irradiation
47
48 influences tumor **radiosensitivity**, especially with γ -rays.
49
50

51
52
53 **Key words:**

54
55 Dose-rate effect; Manipulating hypoxia; Quiescent cell; Carbon-ion
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57 beams; γ -Rays
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1 Introduction

2 Intensity modulated radiotherapy (IMRT) and stereotactic
3 irradiation have become common as a new radiotherapy technique for
4 treatment of malignancies. Both modalities generally use multiple arc
5 or fixed-portal radiation beams, and radiation beams are exposed
6 intermittently. These techniques often require 30 min or a longer time
7 in one treatment session for precise positioning of patients.^{1,2}
8 Prolongation of irradiation time may reduce a radiation effect, and
9 evokes a major concern for the dose rate effect. Thus, it is needed
10 to clarify the effect of the reduction of dose rate on the
11 radiosensitivity of tumors *in vivo*.

12 When using low linear energy transfer (LET) radiation, lowering
13 the dose rate is thought to reduce late effects in normal tissue much
14 more than it decreases tumor control. Thus, the "therapeutic ratio"
15 increases as the dose rate decreases, because the therapeutic ratio
16 is equal to the ratio of tumor control to normal tissue complications.
17 Further, the difference between early and late effects for low dose-rate
18 radiotherapy, as well as improving the therapeutic ratio, allows
19 complete treatment in a short period of time, minimizing the effects
20 of tumor repopulation. In other words, decreasing the dose rate
21 increases the therapeutic ratio, limited only by tumor cell
22 repopulation.³ This is the primary rationale for low dose-rate
23 radiotherapy using low LET radiation. High LET radiation is more
24 effective than low LET X- or γ -radiation at inducing biologic damage.
25 High LET radiation results in a greater relative biological
26 effectiveness (RBE) value for cell killing, a reduced oxygen effect,
27 and a reduced dependence on the cell cycle and the irradiation dose

1 rate.⁴

2
3 Manipulating hypoxia in solid tumors during irradiation apparently
4 influences tumor radiosensitivity under high dose-rate (HDR)
5 irradiation using low LET radiation.⁵ However, its significance in solid
6 tumors irradiated at a reduced dose rate (RDR) is less clear *in vivo*,
7 whether low or high LET radiation is employed.
8
9

10 Many cells in solid tumors are quiescent *in situ* but still
11 clonogenic.⁶ The quiescent (Q) tumor cells are more resistant to low-LET
12 radiation because of their larger hypoxic fraction and greater capacity
13 to recover from potentially lethal damage (PLD) than proliferating (P)
14 tumor cells. The rationale for low dose-rate radiotherapy does not take
15 into account the response of Q tumor cells at all.
16
17

18 Thus, in this study, we tried to elucidate the effect of
19 manipulating hypoxia in irradiated solid tumors at a RDR with low-LET
20 γ -rays or high-LET 290 MeV/u accelerated carbon-ion beams *in vivo*,
21 compared with HDR irradiation. Further, the responses of the total (=
22 P + Q) and Q cell populations in irradiated solid tumors were separately
23 detected with the method for selectively detecting the response of Q
24 cells within solid tumors.⁷ This is the first attempt to clarify the
25 direct relationship between the irradiation dose rate effect and the
26 oxygen effect *in vivo*, referring to the response of the Q cell population
27 in irradiated solid tumors.
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Materials and Methods

Mice and tumors

SCC VII squamous cell carcinoma cell line derived from C3H/He mice was maintained *in vitro* in Eagle's minimum essential medium supplemented with 12.5 % fetal bovine serum. The tumor cells (1.0×10^5) were inoculated subcutaneously into the left hind leg of 9-week-old syngeneic female C3H/He mice (Japan Animal Co., Ltd., Osaka, Japan). Fourteen days later, the tumors, approximately 1 cm in diameter, were employed for experimental treatment, and the body weight of the tumor-bearing mice was 22.1 ± 2.3 (Mean \pm SD) g. Mice were handled according to the Recommendations for Handling of Laboratory Animals for Biomedical Research, compiled by the Committee on Safety Handling Regulations for Laboratory Animal Experiments. Incidentally, the p53 of SCC VII tumor cells is the wild type.⁷

Labeling with 5-bromo-2'-deoxyuridine (BrdU)

Nine days after the inoculation, mini-osmotic pumps (Durect Corporation, Cupertino, CA) containing BrdU dissolved in physiological saline (250 mg/ml) were implanted subcutaneously to label all P cells for 5 days. The percentage of labeled cells after continuous labeling with BrdU was 55.3 ± 4.5 %, and reached a plateau at this stage. Therefore, tumor cells not incorporating BrdU after continuous labeling were regarded as Q cells.

Treatment

After the labeling with BrdU, tumor-bearing mice received γ -ray or accelerated carbon-ion whole-body irradiation, with the animal held in a specially designed device made of acrylic resin with the tail or all four legs firmly fixed with adhesive tape with no anesthetic. Some tumors were made totally hypoxic by clamping the proximal end 15 min

1 before irradiation.⁷ This clamping for 15 min did not influence
2
3 clonogenic cell survival or the level of micronucleation.

4
5 γ -Rays were delivered with a cobalt-60 γ -ray irradiator at a dose
6
7 rate of 2.5 or 0.039 Gy/min.

8
9 Carbon-12 ions were accelerated up to 290 MeV/u by the synchrotron
10
11 of the Heavy Ion Medical Accelerator installed at National Institute
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13 of Radiological Sciences in Chiba, Japan. The dose rate was regulated
14
15 through a beam attenuation system, and irradiation was conducted using
16
17 horizontal carbon beams with a dose rate of 1.0 or 0.035 Gy/min. The
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19 LET of the carbon ion beam with the 6-cm spread-out Bragg peak (SOBP)
20
21 ranges from 14 keV/ μ m to greater than 200 keV/ μ m, depending on depth.
22
23 A desired LET beam was obtained by selecting the depth along the beam
24
25 path using a Lucite range shifter. An LET of 18 and 50 keV/ μ m at the
26
27 middle of the plateau and the SOBP were employed here, respectively.⁸

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31 Irradiated tumor-bearing mice were divided into 4 groups. I) Tumors
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33 were excised immediately after irradiation only under aerated
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35 conditions. II) Tumors were kept totally hypoxic during irradiation,
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37 then excised immediately after irradiation. III) The tumor-bearing mice
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39 received an intraperitoneal administration of an acute
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41 hypoxia-releasing agent, nicotinamide (1000 mg/kg of mouse weight)
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43 dissolved in physiological saline 60 min before irradiation, then the
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45 tumors were excised immediately after irradiation under aerated
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47 conditions. IV) The tumor-bearing mice received an intraperitoneal
48
49 administration of a hypoxic cell radio-sensitizer, misonidazole (1000
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51 mg/kg of mouse weight) dissolved in physiological saline 30 min before
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53 irradiation, then the tumors were excised immediately after irradiation
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55 under aerated conditions. All the doses employed, sequences and timing
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57 for nicotinamide, misonidazole and irradiation were appropriate enough
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1 to function completely^{9,10}.

2 Each treatment group also included mice not pretreated with BrdU.

3
4 ***Immunofluorescence staining of BrdU-labeled cells and micronucleus (MN)***
5
6
7 ***assay***
8

9 Tumors excised from the mice given BrdU were minced and trypsinized
10 [0.05% trypsin and 0.02% ethylenediamine-tetraacetic acid (EDTA) in
11 phosphate-buffered saline (PBS), 37 °C, 20 min]. Tumor cell suspensions
12 were incubated for 72 h in tissue culture dishes containing complete
13 medium and 1.0 µg/ml of cytochalasin-B to inhibit cytokinesis while
14 allowing nuclear division, and the cultures were then trypsinized and
15 cell suspensions were fixed. After the centrifugation of fixed cell
16 suspensions, the cell pellet was resuspended with cold Carnoy's fixative
17 (ethanol:acetic acid = 3:1 in volume). The suspension was placed on
18 a glass microscope slide and the sample was dried at room temperature.
19 The slides were treated with 2 M hydrochloric acid for 60 min at room
20 temperature to dissociate the histones and partially denature the DNA.
21 The slides were immersed in borax-borate buffer (pH 8.5) to neutralize
22 the acid. BrdU-labeled tumor cells were detected by indirect
23 immunofluorescence staining using a monoclonal anti-BrdU antibody
24 (Becton Dickinson, San Jose, CA) and a fluorescein isothiocyanate
25 (FITC)-conjugated antimouse IgG antibody (Sigma, St. Louis, MO). To
26 observe the double staining of tumor cells with green-emitting FITC
27 and red-emitting propidium iodide (PI), cells on the slides were treated
28 with PI (2 µg/ml in PBS) and monitored under a fluorescence microscope.
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53 The MN frequency in cells not labeled with BrdU could be examined
54 by counting the micronuclei in the binuclear cells that showed only
55 red fluorescence. The MN frequency was defined as the ratio of the number
56 of micronuclei in the binuclear cells to the total number of binuclear
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1 cells observed.⁷ The MN frequency has already been shown to be a tool
2
3 for detecting radiosensitivity to carbon-ion beams.¹¹
4

5 The ratios obtained in tumors not pretreated with BrdU indicated
6
7 the MN frequency at all phases in the total tumor cell population. More
8
9 than 400 binuclear cells were counted to determine the MN frequency.
10

11 **Clonogenic cell survival assay**

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13 The clonogenic cell survival assay was also performed in the mice
14
15 given no BrdU using an *in vivo-in vitro* assay method. Tumors were
16
17 disaggregated by stirring for 20 min at 37 °C in PBS containing 0.05 %
18
19 trypsin and 0.02% EDTA. The cell yield was $(4.5 \pm 1.1) \times 10^7$ /g tumor
20
21 weight.
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25 As stated above, the MN frequencies for Q cells were obtained from
26
27 non-labeled tumor cells after continuous BrdU labeling. The MN
28
29 frequencies and surviving fractions for the total cell population were
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31 obtained from cells in tumors not pretreated with BrdU. Thus, there was
32
33 no effect of interaction between BrdU and irradiation on the values of
34
35 MN frequency and SF. More than 3 tumor-bearing mice were used to assess
36
37 each set of conditions and each experiment was repeated at least twice.
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39 To examine the differences between pairs of values, Student's *t*-test
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41 was used when variances of the two groups could be assumed to be equal;
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43 otherwise the Welch *t*-test was used.
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Results

The plating efficiency and MN frequency at 0 Gy are shown in **Table 1**. The plating efficiency was significantly smaller for the combination with MISO than for any other condition in the total cell population. In both the total and Q cell populations, the MN frequency significantly increased in the following order: absolute control < totally hypoxic conditions < combination with nicotinamide < combination with misonidazole. Further, the MN frequency was significantly higher for Q cell population than the total cell population under all conditions.

Cell survival curves for the total tumor cells as a function of radiation dose after γ -ray irradiation are shown in **Figure 1**. For both HDR and RDR irradiation, the surviving fractions (SFs) decreased in the following order: irradiation under totally hypoxic conditions > aerobic irradiation without any drug > irradiation after nicotinamide loading > irradiation after misonidazole loading. The SFs under all conditions increased as the dose rate of radiation decreased, especially after nicotinamide loading.

Cell survival curves for the total tumor cells as a function of radiation dose after accelerated carbon-ion beam irradiation with an LET of 18 and 50 keV/ μm are shown in the left and right panels of **Figure 2**, respectively. For both HDR and RDR irradiation, the SFs decreased in the same order as for γ -ray irradiation, but the degree of change was reduced, especially with 50 keV/ μm carbon-ion beams. The increases in the SF with the decrease in dose rate were suppressed compared with γ -ray irradiation, again especially with 50 keV/ μm carbon-ion beams.

For baseline correction, we used the normalized MN frequency to exclude the MN frequency in non-irradiated tumors. The normalized MN

1 frequency was the MN frequency in the irradiated tumors minus that in
2 the non-irradiated tumors. Dose response curves of the normalized MN
3 frequency for total and Q tumor cell populations as a function of
4 radiation dose after γ -ray irradiation are shown in the left and right
5 panels of **Figure 3**, respectively. Overall, the normalized MN frequencies
6 were significantly smaller in Q cells than the total cells. In both total
7 and Q cells, under RDR as well as HDR irradiation, the normalized MN
8 frequencies increased in the following order: irradiation under totally
9 hypoxic conditions < aerobic irradiation without drugs < irradiation
10 after nicotinamide loading < irradiation after misonidazole loading.
11 The normalized MN frequencies decreased with the decrease in dose rate
12 under all conditions, especially irradiation after nicotinamide loading
13 in the total cell population.

14 Dose response curves of the normalized MN frequency for the total
15 and Q tumor cells as a function of radiation dose after accelerated
16 carbon-ion beam irradiation with an LET of 18 (**Figure 4**) or 50 keV/ μ m
17 (**Figure 5**) are shown in the left and right panels, respectively. Overall,
18 the normalized MN frequencies were significantly smaller in Q cells than
19 total cells, but the differences in radiosensitivity between the total
20 and Q cells were reduced compared with γ -ray irradiation, especially
21 with 50 keV/ μ m carbon-ion beams. In both the total and Q cells, under
22 RDR as well as HDR irradiation, the normalized MN frequencies increased
23 in the same order as for γ -ray irradiation, but the degree of change
24 was reduced, especially with 50 keV/ μ m carbon-ion beams. The decreases
25 in the normalized MN frequency with the decrease in radiation dose rate
26 were suppressed compared with γ -ray irradiation, again especially with
27 50 keV/ μ m carbon-ion beams.

1 To estimate the effect of aerobic irradiation compared with hypoxic
2 irradiation in both the total and Q cells, the data for aerobic
3 irradiation without any drug and irradiation under totally hypoxic
4 conditions were used (**Table 2**). Following γ -ray irradiation, the values
5 were significantly smaller for Q cells than the total cells ($P < 0.05$),
6 and in both the total and Q cells, the values were significantly smaller
7 for RDR than HDR irradiation ($P < 0.05$). In both populations, carbon-ion
8 beams produced significantly smaller values than γ -rays ($P < 0.05$), and
9 the values approached to 1.0 as the LET values increased.
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21 To assess the radio-enhancing effect of nicotinamide or
22 misonidazole under aerobic conditions in both the total and Q cells
23 compared with aerobic irradiation without any drug, the data for aerobic
24 irradiation with and without drugs were used (**Table 3**). The enhancing
25 effect of nicotinamide was more marked in the total cell population,
26 especially with HDR γ -ray irradiation. The effect was little observed
27 for RDR γ -ray irradiation and accelerated carbon-ion irradiation
28 especially with a higher LET value. In contrast, the enhancing effect
29 of misonidazole was more marked in the Q cells. The enhancing effect
30 was also attenuated for accelerated carbon-ion irradiation especially
31 with a higher LET value.
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46 To investigate the reduction in radiosensitivity caused by a
47 decrease in radiation dose rate, dose-modifying factors were calculated
48 using the data for all irradiation conditions given in **Figures 1** through
49 **5 (Table 4)**. On the whole, the reduction in radiosensitivity was more
50 marked in Q than the total cells, especially under γ -ray irradiation.
51 In the total cells, the degree of the reduction of radiosensitivity was
52 reduced in the following order: aerobic irradiation with nicotinamide
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1 > aerobic irradiation without any drug > aerobic irradiation with
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3 misonidazole > irradiation under totally hypoxic conditions. In Q cells,
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5 the degree of the reduction of radiosensitivity was reduced in the
6
7 following order: aerobic irradiation with nicotinamide = aerobic
8
9 irradiation without any drug > irradiation under totally hypoxic
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11 conditions > aerobic irradiation with misonidazole. This order of the
12
13 reduction in radiosensitivity and the difference in the reduction in
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15 radiosensitivity between Q and the total cells became more indistinct
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17 with the use of accelerated carbon-ion beams, especially at a higher
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19 LET value, than with the use of γ -rays.
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23 To examine the difference in radiosensitivity between the total
24
25 and Q cells, dose-modifying factors, which allow us to compare the dose
26
27 of radiation necessary to obtain a normalized MN frequency of 0.2 in
28
29 Q cells with that in the total cells, were calculated using the data
30
31 in **Figures 2 and 3 (Table 5)**. Overall, the difference in radiosensitivity
32
33 was greater under RDR than HDR irradiation, especially with γ -rays. The
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35 difference in radiosensitivity increased in the following order:
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37 irradiation under totally hypoxic conditions < aerobic irradiation with
38
39 misonidazole < aerobic irradiation without any drug \leq aerobic
40
41 irradiation with nicotinamide. This order of the increase in the
42
43 difference in radiosensitivity and the difference itself in
44
45 radiosensitivity became more indistinct with the use of accelerated
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47 carbon-ion beams, especially at a higher LET value, than with the use
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49 of γ -rays.
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Discussion

1 Solid tumors, especially human tumors, are thought to contain a
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3 high proportion of Q cells.⁶ The presence of Q cell is probably due,
4
5 in part, to hypoxia and the depletion of nutrients in the tumor core,
6
7 another consequence of poor vascular supply.⁶ This might promote the
8
9 formation of micronuclei at 0 Gy in Q tumor cells (**Table 1**). Q cells
10
11 were shown to have significantly less radiosensitivity than the total
12
13 cells here (**Figs. 3 through 5**). This means that more Q cells survive
14
15 radiation therapy than P cells. Thus, the control of Q cells has a great
16
17 impact on the outcome of radiation therapy. In both the total and Q
18
19 cell populations, carbon ion irradiation was less dependent on
20
21 oxygenation status with little recovery from radiation-induced DNA
22
23 damage, leading to high RBE values compared with γ -ray irradiation.¹¹
24
25 In terms of the tumor cell-killing effect as a whole, including
26
27 intratumor Q cell control, carbon-ion beam radiotherapy can be a
28
29 promising treatment for refractory tumors.
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37 Q cell population had been shown to include a significantly larger
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39 hypoxic fraction than the total cell population,¹² resulting in a
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41 significantly smaller effect of carbon-ion beams under aerobic
42
43 irradiation compared with hypoxic irradiation in Q cells (**Table 2**).
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45 Since tumor radiosensitivity was significantly less dependent on
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47 intratumor oxygenation status and the irradiation dose rate effect when
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49 carbon-ion beams, especially with a higher LET value, were used, a much
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51 smaller effect of aerobic irradiation compared with hypoxic irradiation
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53 was observed here. This was partly because the frequency of closely
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55 spaced DNA lesions forming a cluster of DNA damage produced by high
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57 LET carbon-ion irradiation is much less dependent on oxygenation status
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1 at the time of irradiation than that of DNA damage produced by low LET
2
3 γ -ray irradiation.¹³
4

5 Tumor hypoxia is a direct consequence of structural abnormalities
6
7 of the microvasculature and functional abnormalities of the
8
9 microcirculation in solid tumors and results from either limited oxygen
10
11 diffusion (chronic hypoxia) or limited perfusion (acute hypoxia,
12
13 transient hypoxia, or ischemic hypoxia). Large intercapillary distances
14
15 resulting from rapid tumor cell proliferation lead to chronically
16
17 hypoxic cells existing at the rim of the oxygen diffusion distance.¹⁴
18
19 Factors such as vessel plugging by blood cells or circulating tumor
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21 cells, the collapse of vessels in regions of high tumor interstitial
22
23 pressure, or spontaneous vasomotor activity in normal tissue vessels
24
25 incorporated into the tumor which subsequently affects flow in
26
27 downstream tumor microvessels cause intermittent blood flow in tumors,
28
29 which results in acute hypoxia.¹⁵ Thus, acute hypoxic areas are
30
31 distributed throughout the tumor depending on these causative factors
32
33 and can occur sporadically in large areas of a solid tumor. Nicotinamide,
34
35 a vitamin B₃ analogue, is known to prevent these transient fluctuations
36
37 in tumor blood flow that lead to the development of acute hypoxia.⁹
38
39 Misonidazole is a typical 2-nitro-imidazole hypoxic cell sensitizer
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41 which is thought to function as an oxygen-mimicking agent in intratumor
42
43 hypoxic areas under irradiation.¹⁰ In SCC VII tumors, it had been shown
44
45 that the hypoxic fraction of the total cell population is predominantly
46
47 made up of acute hypoxic areas and that of the hypoxia rich-Q cell
48
49 population is mainly made up of chronic hypoxic areas.¹² Therefore, under
50
51 HDR γ -ray irradiation, the enhancement ratio of nicotinamide was higher
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53 in the total cells than in Q cells, and that of misonidazole was higher
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1 in the Q cells (**Table 3**). When carbon-ion beams, especially with a higher
2 LET value, were employed, these differences in the enhancement ratio
3 were reduced because radiosensitivity was much less dependent on
4 intratumor oxygenation status.¹¹ However, under RDR γ -ray irradiation,
5 acute hypoxic areas appear and disappear throughout a solid tumor during
6 long periods of irradiation.¹⁵ As a result, RDR irradiation even without
7 nicotinamide could make it possible to irradiate all acute hypoxic areas
8 under oxic conditions, leading to no radio-enhancing effect of
9 nicotinamide. The radio-enhancing effect of misonidazole, which depends
10 on the size of the hypoxic fraction in solid tumors, however, still
11 could be observed under RDR as well as HDR irradiation.

12 Enhancement of the irradiation dose rate effect on the normalized
13 frequency of micronuclei by γ -ray irradiation in the presence of
14 nicotinamide compared with γ -ray irradiation alone was observed in the
15 acute hypoxia-rich total cells rather than the chronic hypoxia-rich
16 Q cells (**Table 4**). Suppression of the dose rate effect by inducing total
17 hypoxia during irradiation was slightly more clearly observed in
18 normoxia-rich total cell than hypoxia-rich Q cells. Some recent studies
19 *in vitro* found that hypoxia-induced translational repression can
20 explain the decreased homologous recombination (HR) repair of
21 radiation-induced DNA double-stranded breaks (dsbs),¹⁶ a more important
22 mechanism for the repair of dsbs in late-S and G2, and that HR plays
23 a greater role in determining hypoxic radiosensitivity than normoxic
24 radiosensitivity.¹⁷ Thus, the use of nicotinamide or tumor clamping to
25 induce total hypoxia influenced repair more in the total cells including
26 late-S and G2 phase cells than in Q cells. In contrast, the repression
27 of the dose rate effect by the hypoxic cell radio-sensitizer

1 misonidazole was slightly more clearly observed in the hypoxia-rich
2
3 Q cells than normoxia-rich total cells. It had already been shown that
4
5 the loading of misonidazole after low LET HDR irradiation to solid tumors
6
7 inhibited the recovery from radiation-induced PLD *in vivo*, especially
8
9 in Q cells.¹⁸ In this study, it was shown that misonidazole combined
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11 with low LET RDR irradiation could suppress the dose rate effect,
12
13 especially in Q cells. According to the previous finding that the
14
15 recovery from PLD and the decrease in radiosensitivity through a
16
17 reduction in the irradiation dose rate under low LET irradiation are
18
19 mainly due to non-homologous end-joining (NHEJ) repair, which is the
20
21 predominant DNA dsbs repair process for cells in G₀, G₁ or early-S phase,¹⁹
22
23 misonidazole itself or protein adducts of reductively-activated
24
25 misonidazole in hypoxic areas in irradiated tumors may inhibit NHEJ
26
27 more efficiently than HR.¹⁰ Again, when carbon-ion beams, especially
28
29 with a higher LET value, were employed, the effects of combined treatment
30
31 on the irradiation dose rate effect became indistinct because
32
33 radiosensitivity was much less dependent on intratumor oxygenation
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35 status and the irradiation dose rate.¹¹

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37 Overall, the difference in radiosensitivity between the total and
38
39 Q cells was increased by reducing the dose rate, especially for γ -ray
40
41 irradiation, because of the greater reduction in radiosensitivity
42
43 caused by a decrease in the dose rate in Q cells than in the total cells⁹
44
45 (**Table 5**). Nicotinamide enhanced the radiosensitivity of the total cells,
46
47 leading to a widening of the difference in radiosensitivity between
48
49 the total and Q cell populations compared with aerobic HDR γ -ray
50
51 irradiation without any drug. But, for RDR γ -ray irradiation, the effect
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53 of nicotinamide disappeared due to the characteristics of acute hypoxia
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1 in solid tumors, resulting in no change in the difference in
2 **radiosensitivity** between the total and Q cells compared with γ -ray
3 irradiation only. Meanwhile, under totally hypoxic conditions, the
4 difference in **radiosensitivity** was smaller than for aerobic γ -ray
5 irradiation because of the radio-resistance induced by total hypoxia
6 in both the total and Q cell populations in solid tumors. Misonidazole
7 enhanced the **radiosensitivity** of the hypoxia-rich Q cells much more
8 than that of the total cells under both HDR and RDR γ -ray irradiation,
9 leading to a decrease in the difference in **radiosensitivity** between
10 the two cells compared with aerobic γ -ray irradiation only. When
11 carbon-ion beams, especially with a higher LET value, were employed,
12 the effects of combined treatment on the difference in **radiosensitivity**
13 between the total and Q cells became indistinct because tumor
14 **radiosensitivity** was much less dependent on intratumor oxygenation
15 status and the irradiation dose rate.¹¹ Anyway, at least in this study,
16 it was elucidated that manipulating hypoxia during RDR irradiation,
17 especially with γ -rays, influences tumor **radiosensitivity** as well as
18 HDR irradiation in both total and Q cell populations. In radiotherapy,
19 irradiation dose rate also should be taken into account when intratumor
20 hypoxia is manipulated.

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Captions for Illustrations

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3 **Fig. 1.** Cell survival curves for the total tumor cell population as
4 a function of radiation dose after γ -ray irradiation. Open and
5 solid symbols represent the surviving fractions after high
6 dose-rate and reduced dose-rate γ -ray irradiation,
7 respectively. Circles, reversed triangles, triangles, and
8 squares represent the surviving fractions after aerobic
9 irradiation without any drug, irradiation under totally
10 hypoxic conditions, aerobic irradiation after nicotinamide
11 (NA) loading, and aerobic irradiation after misonidazole
12 (MISO) loading, respectively. Bars represent standard errors.
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26 **Fig. 2.** Cell survival curves for the total tumor cell population as
27 a function of radiation dose after accelerated carbon-ion beam
28 irradiation with an LET of 18 and 50 keV/ μ m are shown in the
29 left and right panels, respectively. Open and solid symbols
30 represent the surviving fractions after high dose-rate and
31 reduced dose-rate accelerated carbon-ion beam irradiation,
32 respectively. Circles, reversed triangles, triangles, and
33 squares represent the surviving fractions after aerobic
34 irradiation without any drug, irradiation under totally
35 hypoxic conditions, aerobic irradiation after nicotinamide
36 (NA) loading, and aerobic irradiation after misonidazole
37 (MISO) loading, respectively. Bars represent standard errors.
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53 **Fig. 3.** Dose response curves of the normalized micronucleus frequency
54 for the total and quiescent tumor cell populations as a
55 function of radiation dose after γ -ray irradiation are shown
56 in the left and right panels, respectively. Open and solid
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1 symbols represent the normalized micronucleus frequencies
2 after high dose-rate and reduced dose-rate γ -ray irradiation,
3 respectively. Circles, reversed triangles, triangles, and
4 squares represent the normalized micronucleus frequencies
5 after aerobic irradiation without any drug, irradiation under
6 totally hypoxic conditions, aerobic irradiation after
7 nicotinamide (NA) loading, and aerobic irradiation after
8 misonidazole (MISO) loading, respectively. Bars represent
9 standard errors.

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21 **Fig. 4.** Dose response curves of the normalized micronucleus frequency
22 for the total and quiescent tumor cell populations as a
23 function of radiation dose after accelerated carbon-ion beam
24 irradiation with an LET of 18 keV/ μ m are shown in the left and
25 right panels, respectively. Open and solid symbols represent
26 the normalized micronucleus frequencies after high dose-rate
27 and reduced dose-rate accelerated carbon-ion beam irradiation,
28 respectively. Circles, reversed triangles, triangles, and
29 squares represent the normalized micronucleus frequencies
30 after aerobic irradiation without any drug, irradiation under
31 totally hypoxic conditions, aerobic irradiation after
32 nicotinamide (NA) loading, and aerobic irradiation after
33 misonidazole (MISO) loading, respectively. Bars represent
34 standard errors.

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53 **Fig. 5.** Dose response curves of the normalized micronucleus frequency
54 for the total and quiescent tumor cell populations as a
55 function of radiation dose after accelerated carbon-ion beam
56 irradiation with an LET of 50 keV/ μ m are shown in the left and
57 right panels, respectively. Open and solid symbols represent
58 the normalized micronucleus frequencies after high dose-rate
59 and reduced dose-rate accelerated carbon-ion beam irradiation,
60 respectively. Circles, reversed triangles, triangles, and
61 squares represent the normalized micronucleus frequencies
62 after aerobic irradiation without any drug, irradiation under
63 totally hypoxic conditions, aerobic irradiation after
64 nicotinamide (NA) loading, and aerobic irradiation after
65 misonidazole (MISO) loading, respectively. Bars represent
standard errors.

1 right panels, respectively. Open and solid symbols represent
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3 the normalized micronucleus frequencies after high dose-rate
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5 and reduced dose-rate accelerated carbon-ion beam irradiation,
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7 respectively. Circles, reversed triangles, triangles, and
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9 squares represent the normalized micronucleus frequencies
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11 after aerobic irradiation without any drug, irradiation under
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13 totally hypoxic conditions, aerobic irradiation after
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15 nicotinamide (NA) loading, and aerobic irradiation after
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17 misonidazole (MISO) loading, respectively. Bars represent
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19 standard errors.
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Table 1.

Plating efficiency and micronucleus frequency at 0 Gy

	Total tumor cells	Quiescent cells
<Plating efficiency (%)>		
Absolutely control	53.7 ± 8.5 ^a	----
Totally hypoxic	50.1 ± 7.0	----
+ Nicotinamide	46.8 ± 0.6	----
+ Misonidazole	31.2 ± 7.7	
<Micronucleus frequency>		
Absolutely control	0.043 ± 0.005	0.063 ± 0.009
Totally hypoxic	0.058 ± 0.006	0.073 ± 0.010
+ Nicotinamide	0.073 ± 0.009	0.119 ± 0.014
+ Misonidazole	0.093 ± 0.011	0.152 ± 0.018

^a; Mean ± standard deviation

Table 2.

**Irradiation under aerobic conditions
compared with irradiation under hypoxic conditions^a**

γ -Rays	Carbon-ion beams (18 keV/ μ m)	Carbon-ion beams (50 keV/ μ m)
<Surviving fraction = 0.3>		
<u>Total cells</u>		
High dose-rate irradiation		
2.1 (2.0-2.2) ^b	1.4 (1.3-1.5)	1.15 (1.1-1.2)
Reduced dose-rate irradiation		
1.8 (1.7-2.0)	1.25 (1.15-1.35)	1.1 (1.05-1.15)
<Normalized micronucleus frequency = 0.2>		
<u>Total cells</u>		
High dose-rate irradiation		
1.9 (1.8-2.0)	1.35 (1.25-1.45)	1.2 (1.1-1.3)
Reduced dose-rate irradiation		
1.7 (1.6-1.8)	1.25 (1.15-1.35)	1.15 (1.1-1.2)
<u>Quiescent cells</u>		
High dose-rate irradiation		
1.5 (1.4-1.6)	1.25 (1.15-1.35)	1.15 (1.1-1.2)
Reduced dose-rate irradiation		
1.3 (1.2-1.4)	1.1 (1.05-1.15)	1.05 (1.0-1.1)

^a; The ratio of the dose of radiation necessary to obtain each end-point under hypoxic conditions to that needed to obtain each end-point under aerobic conditions.

^b; Values in parentheses are 95% confidence limits, determined using standard errors. If the ranges of 95 % confidence limits showed no overlap between any two values, the difference between the two values was considered significant ($p < 0.05$).

Table 3.

Enhancement ratios^a due to combination
with nicotinamide or misonidazole

	High dose rate irradiation	Reduced dose rate irradiation
<Surviving fraction = 0.3>		
<u>Total cells</u>		
γ-Rays		
+ Nicotinamide	1.3 (1.2-1.4) ^b	1.05 (1.0-1.1)
+ Misonidazole	1.8 (1.6-2.0)	1.85 (1.7-2.0)
Carbon-ion beams (18 keV/μm)		
+ Nicotinamide	1.15 (1.1-1.2)	1.05 (1.0-1.1)
+ Misonidazole	1.3 (1.2-1.4)	1.35 (1.3-1.4)
Carbon-ion beams (50 keV/μm)		
+ Nicotinamide	1.05 (1.0-1.1)	1.05 (1.0-1.1)
+ Misonidazole	1.1 (1.05-1.15)	1.15 (1.1-1.2)
<Normalized micronucleus frequency = 0.2>		
<u>Total cells</u>		
γ-Rays		
+ Nicotinamide	1.2 (1.1-1.3)	1.05 (1.0-1.1)
+ Misonidazole	1.3 (1.2-1.4)	1.35 (1.25-1.45)
Carbon-ion beams (18 keV/μm)		
+ Nicotinamide	1.15 (1.1-1.2)	1.05 (1.0-1.1)
+ Misonidazole	1.2 (1.1-1.3)	1.25 (1.15-1.35)
Carbon-ion beams (50 keV/μm)		
+ Nicotinamide	1.05 (1.0-1.1)	1.05 (1.0-1.1)
+ Misonidazole	1.05 (1.0-1.1)	1.05 (1.0-1.1)
<u>Quiescent cells</u>		
γ-Rays		
+ Nicotinamide	1.1 (1.05-1.15)	1.05 (1.0-1.1)
+ Misonidazole	1.45 (1.35-1.55)	1.5 (1.4-1.6)
Carbon-ion beams (18 keV/μm)		
+ Nicotinamide	1.05 (1.0-1.1)	1.0 (0.95-1.05)
+ Misonidazole	1.25 (1.15-1.35)	1.3 (1.2-1.4)
Carbon-ion beams (50 keV/μm)		
+ Nicotinamide	1.05 (1.0-1.1)	1.0 (0.95-1.05)
+ Misonidazole	1.1 (1.05-1.15)	1.1 (1.05-1.15)

^a; The ratio of the dose of radiation necessary to obtain each end-point without the drug to that needed to obtain each end-point with the drug.

^b; As in Table 2.

Table 4.

Dose-modifying factors due to the reduction in **radiosensitivity** caused by a decrease in radiation dose rate^a

γ -Rays	Carbon-ion beams (18 keV/ μ m)	Carbon-ion beams (50 keV/ μ m)
<Surviving fraction = 0.3>		
<u>Total cells</u>		
Radiation only		
1.3 (1.2-1.4) ^b	1.2 (1.1-1.3)	1.15 (1.1-1.2)
Totally hypoxic		
1.2 (1.1-1.3)	1.15 (1.05-1.25)	1.1 (1.05-1.15)
+ Nicotinamide		
1.55 (1.4-1.7)	1.35 (1.25-1.45)	1.2 (1.15-1.25)
+ Misonidazole		
1.25 (1.15-1.35)	1.2 (1.1-1.3)	1.15 (1.1-1.2)
<Normalized micronucleus frequency = 0.2>		
<u>Total cells</u>		
Radiation only		
1.25 (1.15-1.35)	1.2 (1.1-1.3)	1.1 (1.05-1.15)
Totally hypoxic		
1.15 (1.1-1.2)	1.1 (1.05-1.15)	1.05 (1.0-1.1)
+ Nicotinamide		
1.4 (1.25-1.55)	1.3 (1.2-1.4)	1.2 (1.1-1.3)
+ Misonidazole		
1.2 (1.1-1.3)	1.15 (1.05-1.25)	1.1 (1.05-1.15)
<u>Quiescent cells</u>		
Radiation only		
1.4 (1.3-1.5)	1.3 (1.2-1.4)	1.25 (1.15-1.35)
Totally hypoxic		
1.25 (1.15-1.35)	1.15 (1.1-1.2)	1.1 (1.05-1.15)
+ Nicotinamide		
1.4 (1.3-1.5)	1.3 (1.2-1.4)	1.25 (1.15-1.35)
+ Misonidazole		
1.15 (1.1-1.2)	1.1 (1.05-1.15)	1.1 (1.05-1.15)

^a; The ratio of the dose of radiation necessary to obtain each end-point with reduced dose-rate irradiation to that needed to obtain each end-point with high dose-rate irradiation.

^b; As in Table 2.

Table 5.

**Dose-modifying factors for quiescent cells
relative to total tumor cells^a**

γ -Rays	Carbon-ion beams (18 keV/ μ m)	Carbon-ion beams (50 keV/ μ m)
<Normalized micronucleus frequency = 0.2>		
<u>High dose rate irradiation</u>		
Radiation only		
1.65 (1.5-1.8) ^b	1.45 (1.35-1.55)	1.35 (1.25-1.45)
Totally hypoxic		
1.4 (1.15-1.55)	1.3 (1.2-1.4)	1.25 (1.15-1.35)
+ Nicotinamide		
1.75 (1.6-1.9)	1.5 (1.4-1.6)	1.4 (1.3-1.5)
+ Misonidazole		
1.5 (1.35-1.65)	1.35 (1.25-1.45)	1.3 (1.2-1.4)
<u>Reduced dose rate irradiation</u>		
Radiation only		
1.85 (1.7-2.0)	1.6 (1.5-1.7)	1.5 (1.4-1.6)
Totally hypoxic		
1.45 (1.35-1.55)	1.35 (1.25-1.45)	1.3 (1.2-1.4)
+ Nicotinamide		
1.85 (1.7-2.0)	1.6 (1.5-1.7)	1.5 (1.4-1.7)
+ Misonidazole		
1.55 (1.45-1.65)	1.4 (1.3-1.5)	1.35 (1.25-1.45)

^a; The ratio of the dose of radiation necessary to obtain each normalized micronucleus frequency in quiescent cell population to that needed to obtain each normalized micronucleus frequency in total tumor cell population.

^b; As in Table 2.

Figure 1
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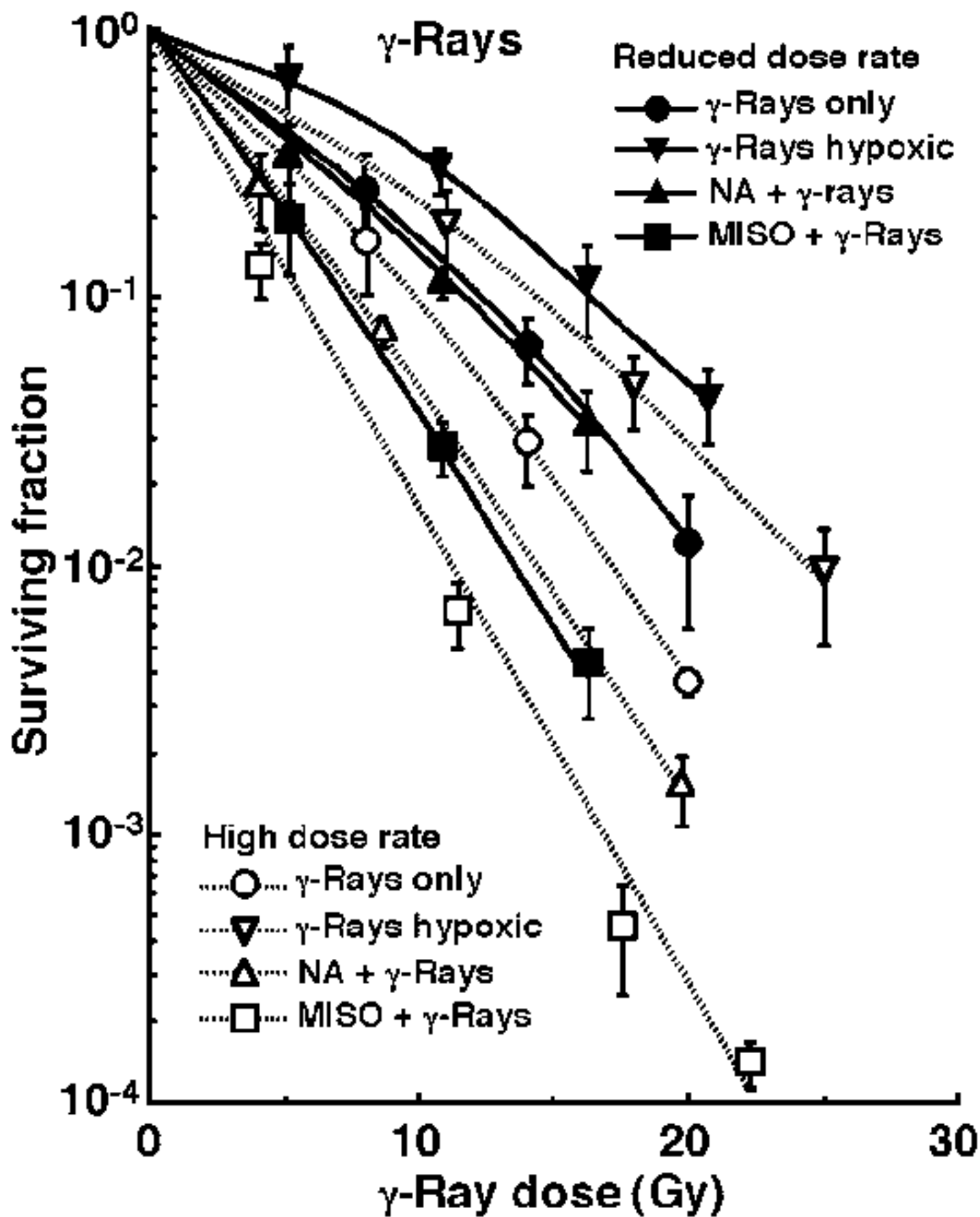


Figure 2
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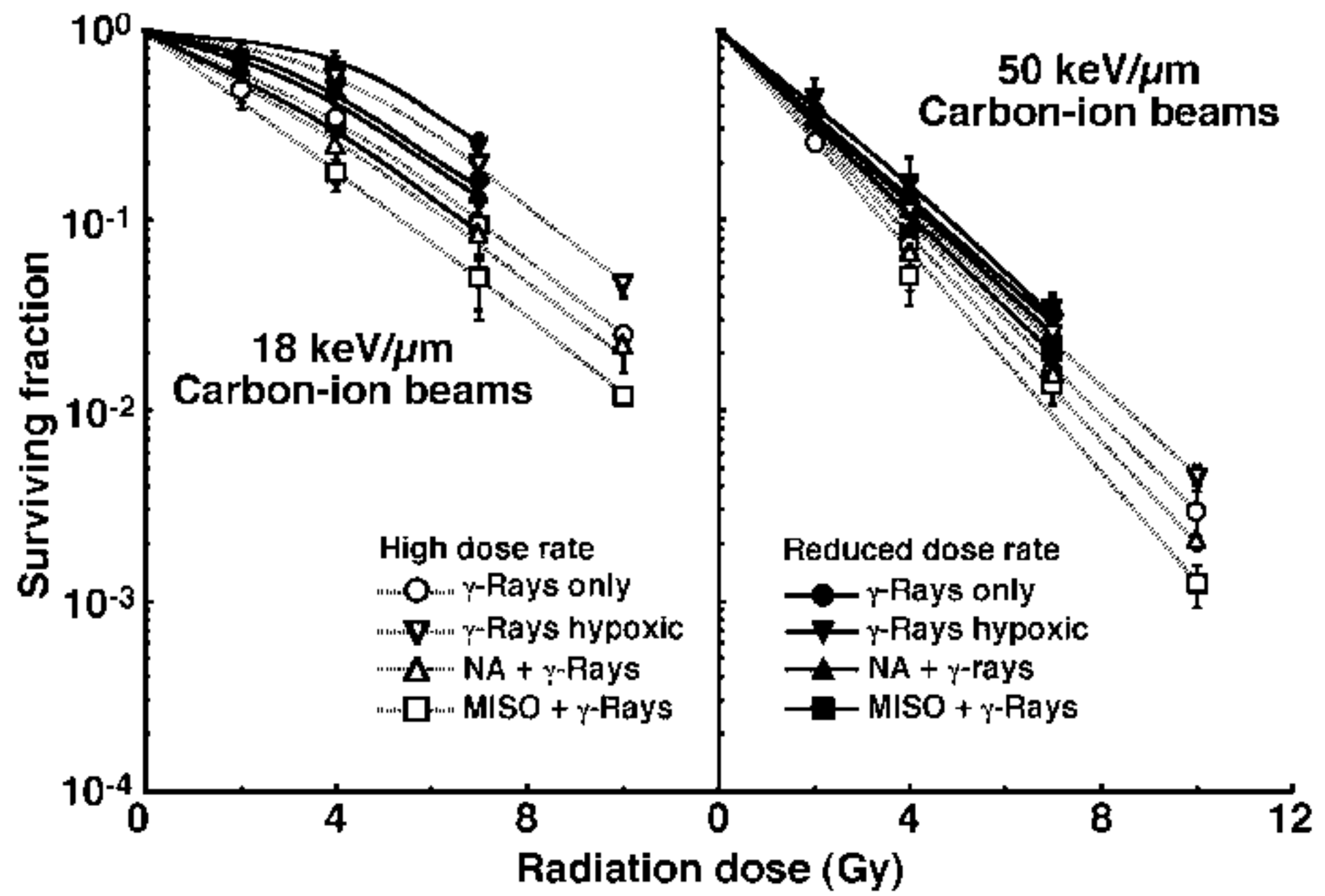


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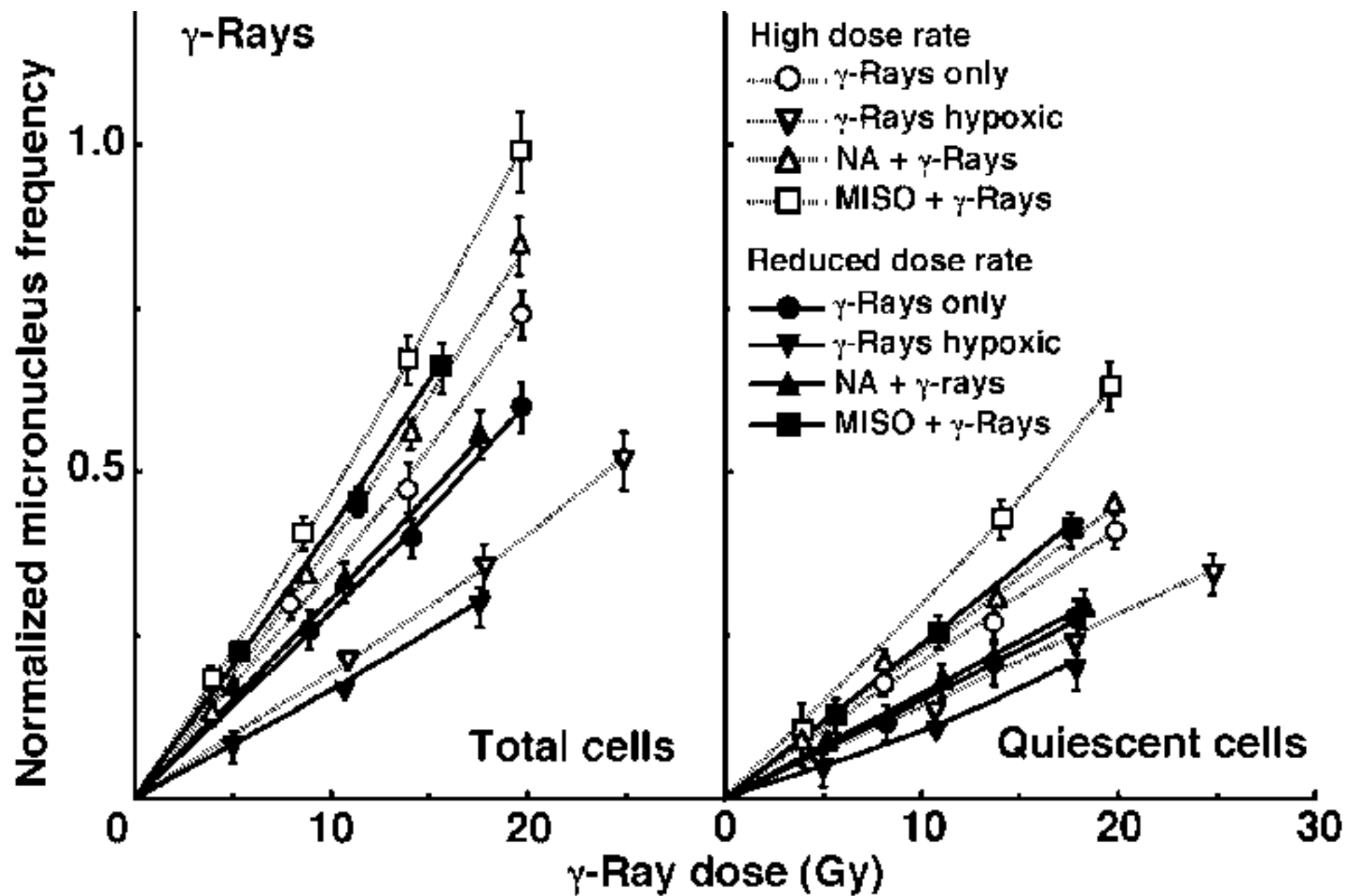


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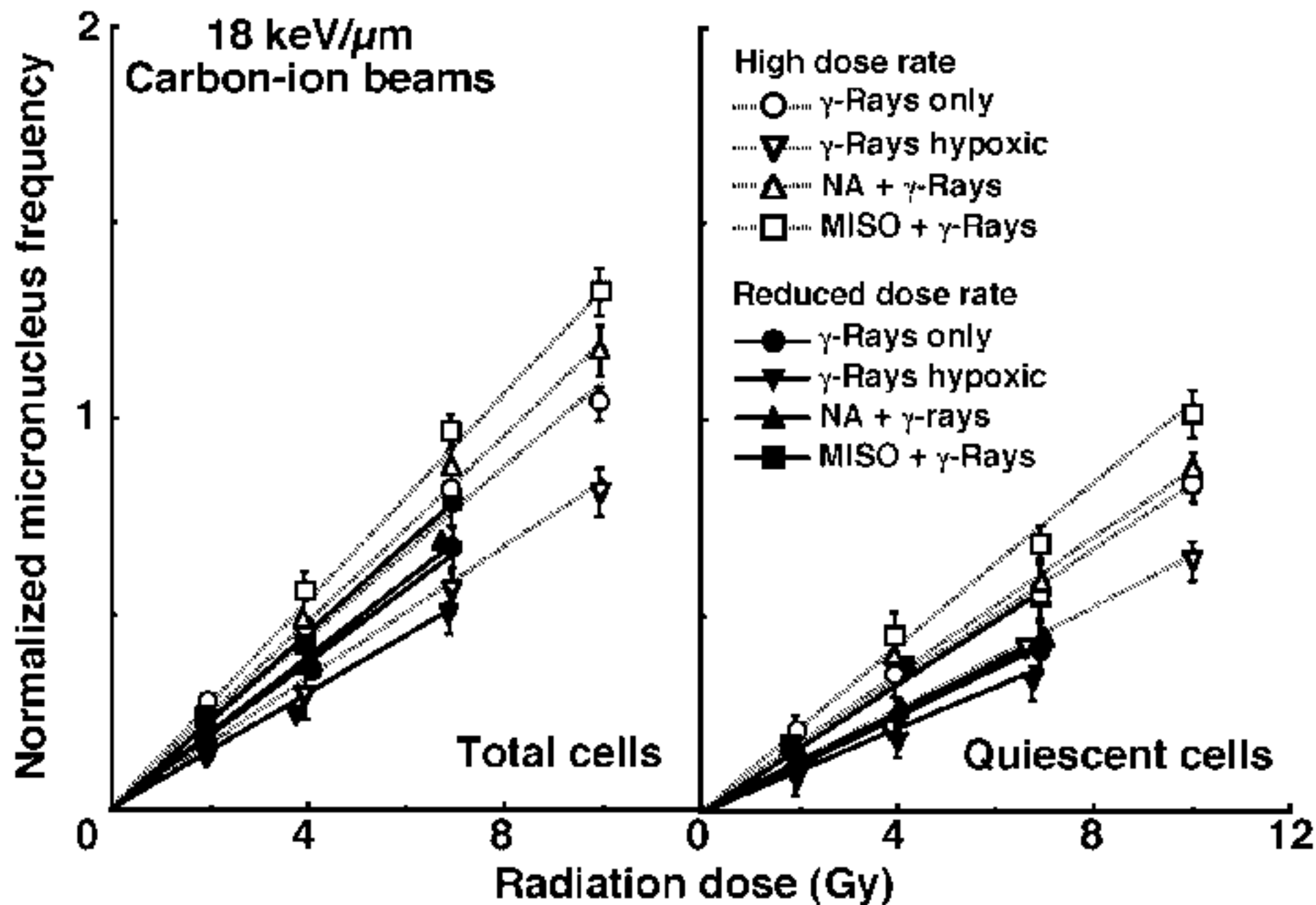
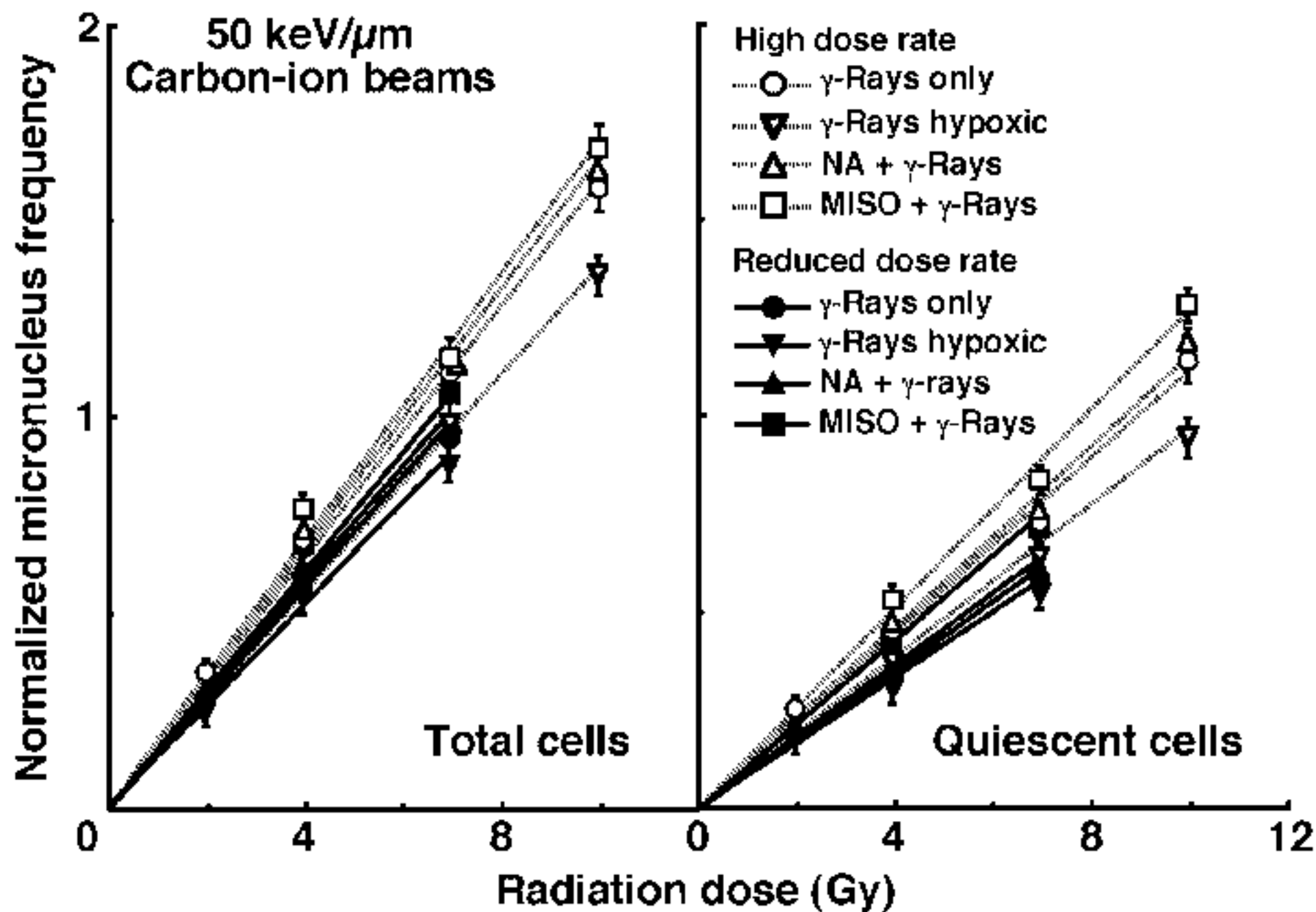


Figure 5
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