RADIATION EFFECTS ON MEMBRANE FUNCTIONS IN <u>CANDIDA</u> <u>ALBICANS</u>

Dissertation submitted to Jawaharlal Nehru University in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the Degree of MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY

58 P+ fig

SHAILJA\KHARE

(SCHOOL OF LIFE SCIENCES, JUJE 1980 JAWAHARLAL NEHRU ÜNIVERSITY NEW DELHI January 1980 To My Parents

. · · ·	· ·		·	
			Page	
PREFACE		•	i	,
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT			ii	,
INTRODUCTION			1	·
MATERIALS AND M	ETHODS		20	
RESULTS			25	
DISCUSSION	•		 44	
BIBLIOGRAPHY			52 *	

The research work embodied in this dissertation has been carried out in the School of Life Sciences, Jawaharlal Nehru University, New Delhi. This work is original and has not been submitted in part or full for any other Degree or Diploma of any university.

Shailja hhare (SHAILJA KHARE)

(Pr KESAVAN) SUPERVISOR

Pissa

(Dr. RAJENDRA PRASAD) SUPERVISOR

Runne

(Prof. SIVATOSH MOOKERJEE) DEAN

JANUARY, 1980.

SCHOOL OF LIFE SCIENCES JAWAHARLAL NEHRU UNIVERSITY NEW DELHI 110067 INDIA

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I am indebted to Dr. Rajendra Prasad for his inspiring guidance throughout this work. His constructive criticism and helpful suggestions have been of great help in writing this dissertation. I am extremely grateful to Prof. P.C. Kesavan, whose critical appraisal and valuable discussions made this thesis possible.

I owe my thanks to the Dean, Prof. Sivatosh Mookerjee, for providing the facilities for the research. I thank Dr. Nazma Zaheer Baquer, Prof. Asis Datta and all other faculty members of the school for their keen interest in this work.

I am very grateful to Dr. A. Jayakumar and Dr. Manjeet Singh for helping me in all possible ways during the work. I also owe my thanks to Mr. Akhilesh Trivedi, Mr. K. Manoharan, Miss Pratibha Agarwal, Miss Shobha Gunnery, Miss Suman Bagga, Miss Sunanda Rajagopalan, Miss Girija Ramakrishnan and all my friends of the school for their kind help in rendering this project feasible.

I am also very grateful to Mr. Ram Prasad for typing and Mr. R.N. Saini for the photographic work.

Finally, I thank Council of Scientific and Industrial Research for financial assistance as a Junior Research Fellow during this period.

- ii -

SHAILJA KHARE

INTRODUCTION

<u>HISTORY</u>

Studies on the radiation damage to membranes started only in early 1950's when Shepphard & Steward reported a leakage of potassium ions from the erythrocytes by the direct effect of radiation. Later, in 1955, Bacq & Alexander proposed that the primary events responsible for cell death are the disturbances of the permeability of certain intracellular structures, notably the mitochondria and microsomes. The 'membrane effect' defined as a disturbance of a barrier between enzyme and substrate in the irradiated cells, was demonstrated in Rusulla nigricans tissue (Bacq & Herve, 1952). The discovery of lysosomes as a subcellular organelle, led Bacq and Alexander (1961) to propose the "Enzyme Release Hypothesis", which suggested that radiation may act by breaking down the lysosomes or other mmembrane barriers thus allowing the interaction of the proteolytic enzymes and nucleic acid ² attacking enzymes with their substrates that are ordinarily kept in an intact, viable cell. Cell membranes have, since then, received more attention because, like DNA, this structure has an important property of being present as a single copy whose integrity is essential for normal cell metabolism. Though many changes have been observed in membrane functions after irradiation, yet the cause-effect relationship with the survival has been difficult to interpret.

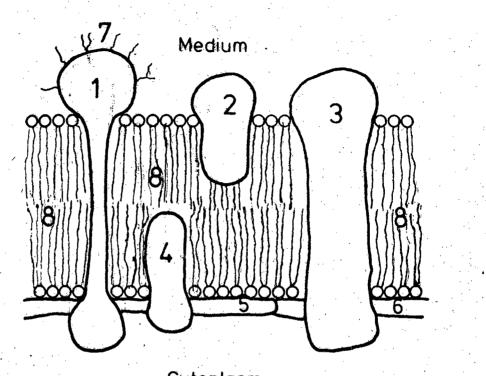
MEMBRANE STRUCTURE AND FUNCTIONS :

At this stage, it is necessary to consider the structure and functions of the membrane briefly so as to get a precise understanding of the mechanism of radiation damage. Membranes have a number of roles to play in cell metabolism. To fulfill all the functions, Singer and Nicolson (1972) proposed the fluid mosaic model. As seen from Figure (1), it has a lipid bilayer with proteins inserted in between. Proteins are of both types; a) intrinsic and b) extrinsic. Many proteins which are exposed to the outer surface of the membrane, have carbohydrate moieties which have an antigenic importance. Sterol is another important component of eukaryotic emembranes which has been shown to play an important role in determining the fluidity of membranes.

The important functions of the membrane are a) uptake of nutrients and solutes from the external medium into the cell, b) removal of the residual product in the opposite direction enabling the cell to sustain a definite and constant composition. Membranes are also important for cell to cell attachment and in many organisms e.g. amoeba and paramecium, they help in their movement.

STRUCTURAL DAMAGE TO MEMBRANES :

Membranes are made of water, protein, lipid and carbo-



Cytoplasm

- 1 The lipid-globular protein mosaic model with a liquid matrix (the fluid mosaic model).
 - 1 = 6 polypeptides; 7 carbohydrates; 8 lipids.

hydrate. Let us briefly consider as to how these individual components are damaged in vitro. Water upon radiolysis mainly gives hydrogen and hydroxyl free radicals (.H and .OH respectively). These may reconstitute to give rise to hydrogen peroxide especially in aerobic condition. On the other hand, proteins, which form 60% of the membranes by mass, offer multiple loci for radiation-induced reactions. Loss of the function of proteins may be due to either breakage of peptide bond or oxidation of sulphydryl bonds to disulphide bond and vice-versa or critical change in the arrangement of side chains. All these lead to a partial or total unfolding of the peptide chains thus producing a molecular disorganisation that exposes several unwanted amino acid side chains. This may change their active conformation that ultimately alters their properties. The unfolding of the peptide chains could also cause the different proteins to aggregate hence producing a decrease in solubility and an increase in viscosity. The lipids, however, are mainly attacked at the unsaturations, producing peroxides in the presence of oxygen. Similarly, sugars in the absence of oxygen produce highly cytotoxic, alpha-beta unsaturated carbonyls.

In the membranes these four components are present in close association with one another and hence the effect

produced after the radiation attack is very different. One of the primary changes that occurs is the decrease in electrophoretic mobility (EPM) of cells, which was shown in yeast (Rink and Teschendorf, 1977), erythrocytes (Sato <u>et al.</u>, 1979B; Sato <u>et al.</u>, 1977A; Sato <u>et al.</u>, 1977B), and thymocytes (Miyazawa <u>et al.</u>, 1979).

The ireduction in the EPM was suggested to be due to the following reasons:

- Acidic sugars like sialic acid, hyaluronic acid etc. which determine the surface negative charge, were dislocated thus decreasing the surface charge (Sato et al., 1977A; Sato et al., 1977B).
- 2. Presence of compounds like concanvalin A, phytohemagglutinin (Sato and Kojima, 1974) or ion species e.g. calcium ions (Sato <u>et al.</u>, 1979B) or an enzyme (Miyazawa <u>et al.</u>, 1979) in the medium, modified the surface charge by its binding abilities.
- 3. Changes in the conformation of the glycoproteins of the membrane which led to translocation of the charges from peripheral zones to deeper zones (Rink and Teschendorf, 1977).

Along with the decrease in mobility, several other properties were affected by ionising radiations. Lipid peroxidation (Yukawa, <u>et al.</u>, 1979), free radical formation (Flossmann and Westhof, 1978), iodination (Rodrigue and Edelman, 1979), decrease in cell proliferation due to the loss of negative charge (Sato <u>et al.</u>, 1979A), oxidation of membrane bound thiols in erythrocytes (Shapiro <u>et al.</u>, 1969; Sutherland and Pihl, 1968), thymocyte (Chapman and Sturrock, 1974), and yeast (Rink, 1975), loss of antigenic properties of lymphocytes (Facchini <u>et al.</u>, 1976), changes in membrane potential (Baisch, 1978) were the primary events which totally disturb the normal metabolism of the cell which may lead to cell death.

However, the above mechanisms were an indirect indication of membrane damage. Direct evidence for a possible radiation damage came from fluorescent probe studies. Lipophilic and amphiphilic fluorescent probes have played a useful role in the study of certain properties of biological membranes such as lipid phase transitions, microviscoity and structural organisation of lipid bilayer. The primary interest in many of these studies has been to establish a relation between changes in the functional state of a membrane and changes in its conformation and dynamics. Yonie and Kato (1978) studied the effect of radiation on the membrane by using a fluorscent probe, 1-amino-8-napthalene sulfonate (ANS). Decrease in the micro-viscosity or increase in fluidity of

the membrane was recorded, which was due to the inside disorganisation of the proteo-lipid associations. Further investigations by intrinsic fluorescence probes showed that the changes in fluorescence could result from a change in the environment surrounding tryptophan residues from being relatively non-polar to being polar, implying the conformational changes of the membrane proteins are brought about by low doses of X-rays.

Ultra-violet radiations (254 nm) were also shown to damage the membranes of erythrocytes (Konev <u>et al.</u>, 1978; Lordkipanidze <u>et al.</u>, 1978; Roshchupkin <u>et al.</u>, 1976). Lipid peroxidation (Lordkipanidze <u>et al.</u>, 1978; Roshchupkin <u>et al.</u>, 1976), sulphydryl and disulphide damage (Roshchupkin <u>et al.</u>, 1976), free radical formation (Azizora <u>et al.</u>, 1978) inhibition of enzymes of the membranes (Esteves <u>et al.</u>, 1978; Konev <u>et al.</u>, 1978) were the changes due to ultra-violet radiations.

EFFECT OF RADIATION ON MEMBRANE FUNCTIONS :

Most of the work done regarding radiation damage has been concentrated on nucleic acids. Only in early 1950's, scientists started observing that exposure of cells to any radiations i.e. ionising or non-ionising, produced some functional damages in the membrane of prokaryotes as well as eukaryotes.

DAMAGE TO MEMBRANE FUNCTIONS IN PROKARYOTIC SYSTEMS :

Most of the studies of radiation effect: of prokaryotes were done in E. coli (Bhattacharjee and Samanta, 1978; Sprott et al., 1976; Sprott and Usher, 1977; Joshi et al., 1977; Gholiopour and Yatvin, 1979). Ultra-violet light, which is known primarily to attack nucleic acids producing drastic effects like formation of pyrrimidine dimers (Zelle and Hollaender, 1958), was also shown to affect membrane processes (Sportt et al.. 1975; Kashket and Brodie, 1962; Jagger, 1972; Bragg, 1971). An inhibition of the active uptake of several amino acids was observed, which was different for different wavelengths in near ultra-violet and visible range. Hence presence of three or four photosensitizers, which may be quinones or cytochromes, was suggested by Sprott et al., (1976). Inhibition of oxygen uptake (respiration) was also observed, which was probably due to some change in Ca²⁺, Mg²⁺, ATPase activity. However, studies with a ATPase mutant of E. coli proved that ATPase was not involved.

Carbohydrate uptake was also found to be inhibited following UV/radiation. Doyle and Kubischek (1976) studied sorbose uptake and found that its inhibition by near ultraviolet light was directly related to the inhibition of the permease specific for its uptake. Bharadwaj and Lakhchaura (1976) reported no inhibition of respiration by near ultra-violet light in <u>Bacillus cereus</u> cells. Far ultra-violet light (254 nm), however, produced cessation of respiration only in adequately aerated <u>E. coli</u> cells. Specific activity of superoxide dismutase, which scavenages superoxide anion (0_2^-) radical, was high in such conditions, but it was found to play no role in the reduction of respiration and cell death. The inhibition of respiration was actually found to be due to the synthesis of a protein which produced cessation of respiration and whose synthesis got delayed in inadequately aerated conditions (Joshi <u>et al.</u>, 1977).

Effect of ionising radiation on the membrane-bound enzymes (Mitchell, 1979) and intracellular enzymes playing a role in the uptake of molecules (Gholiopour and Yatvin, 1979) in prokaryote was also studied. There was no effect of VUV radiations on the activation energy of the exonuclease in membrane bound as well as in soluble condition in <u>Micrococcus</u> <u>radiouridans</u> cells. However, some changes were brought about in the intracellular enzyme involved in phospholipid metabolism by isnising radiation in <u>E. coli</u>.

DAMAGE TO MEMBRANE FUNCTIONS IN EUKARYOTIC SYSTEM :

<u>YEAST</u>: Yeast has not been a very popular organism with scientists for the study of radiation damage to membranes

inspite of its having a simple eukaryotic structure. Scarce data is available and most of it has relevance to the role of sulfhydryl groups in radiation damage (Rink, 1975; Brunborg, 1977), potassium and sodium ion permeability (Rink <u>et al.</u>, 1969; Rink <u>et al.</u>, 1972; Rink and Bergeder, 1976) which may lead to inactivation of certain important intracellular enzyme, whose activity depends on these ions. Even a small damage to potassium ion permeability affected the potassium ion dependent enzyme- aldehyde dehydrogenase, in <u>S. cerevisiae</u> (Rink and Bergeder, 1976). Alteration in the uptake of these ions was very much dependent on the membrane bound sulfhydryl groups. On protecting the sulfhydryl groups by reagents like glutathione, a simultaneous decrease in the abnormal efflux of potassium ions was observed (Rink, 1975).

Takashi and Kobayashi (1977) reported an increase in permeability of <u>S</u>. <u>cerevisiae</u> cells, which was due to the attack of singlet oxygen and this led to an imbalance of the intracellular substances which was followed by death without apparent chromosomal damage.

In general, the yeast cells are comparatively more resistant than mammalian cells to the lethal effects of radiations (Myers, 1970).

MAMMALIAN SYSTEM : Erythrocytes have been used extensively to see the effect of various radiations since they posses a functional membrane but no nucleus and other intracellular organelles. Hence, it offers a beautiful system to follow the effect of radiation on membranes alone. Increase in potassium ion efflux and uptake of sodium ion were the first effects of radiations to benoticed by Shepphard and Steward (1952), Buchsbaum and Zirkle (1949), Mgers and Bide (1966), Kankura et al. (1969). They noticed a shrinking, then a swelling followed by haemolysis of the erythrocytes after exposure to X-rays. Bresciani et al. (1962) suggested that leakage of potassium ions and uptake of sodium ions was due to the reduction of active transport; however, Shapiro et al. (1966) later observed that there was no 🔨 reduction in active transport but probably sulfhydryl damage was the main cause of the effect.

Uptake of amino acids were shown to be stimulated in the rat liver cells following whole body exposure to gammaradiations (Flory and Neuhaus, 1978; Neuhaus and Flory, 1976; Shihabi and Neuhaus, 1971; Yang and Neuhaus, 1971; Kilberg, and Neuhaus, 1975). Only the sodium dependent aminooacids L-system) were found to be stimulated e.g. alpha-amino isobutyric acid (AIB), N-methyl AIB, cycloleucine, L-methionine and glycine. These five amino acids were also mutually inhibitory to each other in normal and irradiated tissues. Hence, this confired the presence of a single, stimulatable transport system in the rat liver which was controlled by hormones like glucogan (Kilberg and Neuhaus, 1978).

Ionising radiations were shown to decrease Na'K' dependent AIB transport system in rat thymocytes (Kwock and Wallach, 1974). Probably the coupling factor was radiosensitive which affected either the rate of substrate turnover or the number of carrier sities.

A decrease in the absorption of glucose and proline by exteriorized ileum (Mohiuddin <u>et al.</u>, 1978) and different amino acids like, lysine, \measuredangle -AIB, methionine, alanine and glycine by an intestinal preparation from rats (Timmermans <u>et al.</u>, 1977), were also some of the membrane changes observed following X-rays.

Ultra-violet radiations were also shown to produce membrane permeability changes in both plants (Daughty and Hope, 1976; Roy and Abboud, 1978) and animals (Putvinsky <u>et al.</u>, 1977; Konev <u>et al.</u>, 1978; Sontag, 1977). In <u>Chara corallina</u> (Daughty and Hope, 1976), a differential effect of wavelengths was observed on membrane properties e.g. hyperpolarized state, action potential and action spectra. The parameter considered for these properties was the active and passive chloride ion permeability. A model was proposed where 254 nm radiation was suggested to attack proteins with sulfhydryl groups while the possible targets of 285 nm radiation were the aromatic amino acids. Cation permeability (Ca^{++} and Sr^{++}) was also shown to decrease by 900 J/m² of ultra-violet radiation in <u>Phaseolous vulgaris</u> (Roy and Abboud, 1978). This effect was reported to be correlated to loss of active transport of the ions as a result of respiratory uncoupling.

The receptor functions of the membrane of lymphocytes (Facchini <u>et al.</u>, 1976), known to be one of the most radiosensitive cell types (Vogel and Ballin, 1955; Salvin and Smith, 1969) and fibroblasts (Koteles, 1976), were also shown to be damaged on exposure to ionising radiation.

POSSIBLE MECHANISM OF RADIATION DAMAGE :

As for the mechanism of radiation damage to membranes, peroxidation of lipids has often been implicated. When cells are irradiated in aeroted liquid media, .OH and .H radicals and also hydrated electron (e_{aq} -) are produced with radiolysis of water.

 $H_20 \longrightarrow H. + 0H.$ $H_20 \longrightarrow H_20^+ e^$ $e^- + H_20 \longrightarrow e^- aq$

However, when oxygen is present, the following reactions possibly occur -

H. $\pm 0_2$ ------> $H0_2$. (peroxyl radical) $H0_2$. $\pm H0_2$. -----> $0_2 \pm H_20_2$ (hydrogen peroxide) e^- aq $\pm 0_2$ -----> 0_2^- (superoxide anion) The lethal action of oxygen may be prevented by the action of superoxide dismutase (Petakau and Chelack, 1976) which scavenges 0_2^- .

In this context, the direct and indirect effects of radiation need to be mentioned. Indirect effect is through the radiolysis of water when the H. and OH. radicals attack any macromolecules of the cell, while when the radiation directly attacks the macromolecules of the cell, it is the direct effect of radiation (Fig. 2).

In the study of the radiation effects of membrane, the two primary macromolecules affected are lipids and proteins. In this context, the role of oxygen in mediating lipid peroxidation due to its reactivity with the radiation induced free radicals, is relevant (Mead, 1952; Raleigh <u>et al.</u>, 1977). The reactions which have been presumed to occur during the autooxidation of lipids are shown in Fig. 3.

The peroxidation of the membrane lipids was shown to cause destruction of many susceptible membrane and

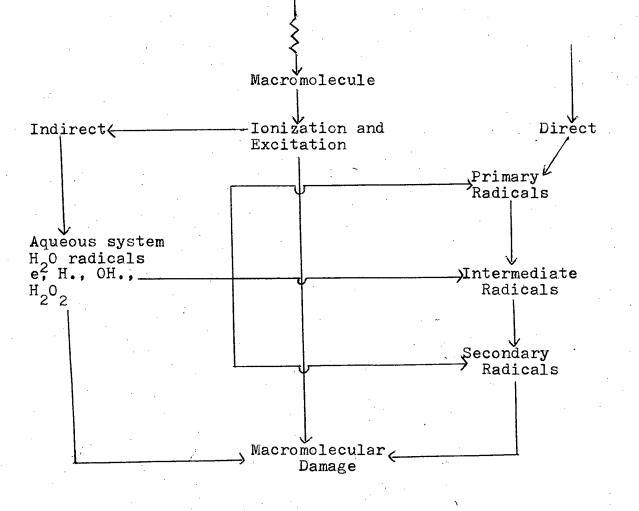
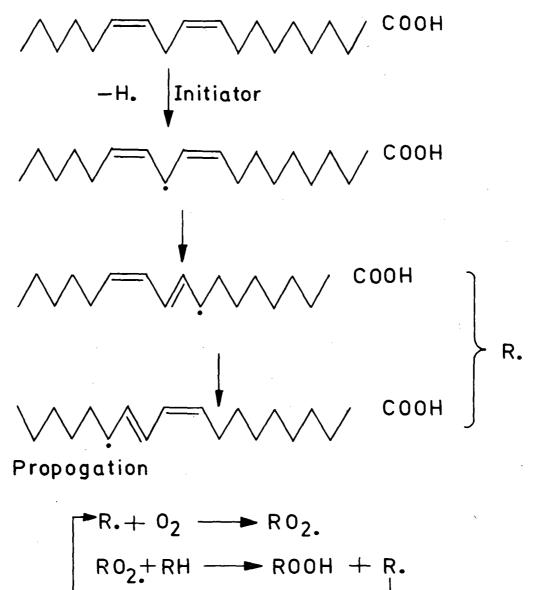


Fig. 2: Figure to demonstrate that a number of reactions take place and a variety of products are formed when a macromolecule of the cell is exposed to ionising radiations.

Initiation



Termination

•

$$2R. \longrightarrow RR$$

$$2R0_{2} \longrightarrow R00R + 0_{2}$$

$$R0_{2} + R. \longrightarrow R00R$$
Polymers

Fig. 3. Auto oxidation of Linoleic acid

tytoplasmic constituents such as oxidisable small molecules, certain enzymes (Bernheim <u>et al.</u>, 1952) and other membrane structures such as lysomomal membranes (Tappel, 1968) and cytoplasmic proteins (Tappel, 1966).

Since lipids were shown to play an important role in the membrane permeability (Gutknecht and Walter, 1979; Suckling <u>et al.</u>, 1979) their structural alteration was bound to bring about functional changes. Decrease in microviscosity or increase in the fluidity of the membrane were the primary effects observed following irradiation (Lekyo <u>et al.</u>, 1979). However, these processes were seen to be repaired to a small extent by the rapid uptake of some lipids and also due to the presence of an antioxidant \measuredangle -tocopherol in the membranes (Hansen <u>et al.</u>, 1978; Patternson, 1979).

A change in the composition of the membrane lipids by growing the <u>E</u>. <u>coli</u> in different media containing different lipids was shown to affect the radiosensitivity of the organism (Redpath and Patterson, 1978; Yatvin, 1976; Suzuki and Akamatsu, 1978; Baldassare <u>et al.</u>, 1977). Most of the experiments done to study the role of lipids were done on liposomes (Mandal <u>et al.</u>, 1978). Whereas Suzuki (1978) said that the unsaturation was directly related to

radioresistance with respect to K^+ permeability, Yonie and Kato (1978) reported that it was the disturbance in the proteo-lipid association that altered the functional capabilities of the membrane. Ultra-violet radiations were also shown to produce peroxidation in such systems and this was directly correlated to leakage of chromate (Cr_2O_{μ}) trapped in the liposome (Mandal <u>et al.</u>, 1978).

Forgoing discussion reveals that several reports have appeared to demonstrate that membranes are the target of various kinds of radiations. However, the role of various membrane components e.g. lipid, proteins etc. in terms of providing radioprotection or radiosensitivity to membrane is far from clear. In fact literature shows almost paucity in this respect. The work presented in this thesis was initiated with this objective i.e. to assess the effect of radiation (in this case gammaradiation) damage following altered composition of plasma membrane.

Earlier work from this laboratory on <u>Candida albicans</u>, a pathogenic yeast, characterizes the different amino acid permeases. Thus, <u>Candida albicans</u> has been selected for present study to follow the effect of γ -radiation on its cellular permeability (amino acid uptake), This yeast has also been shown to grow in different-hydrocarbons (alkanes)

and that results in gross membrane lipid composition. This thesis embodies the results pertaining to the effect of γ -radiation on its survival and amino acid transport. An attempt has also been made to alter membrane lipid composition and follow the effect of γ -radiation on amino acid transport in such cells.

Organism and Growth Conditions:

Wild type <u>Candida</u> <u>albicans</u> strain was obtained from National Chemical Laboratories, Poona, India. The cultures were grown for 48 hours on slants containing -

Yeast extract	-	1.0%
Peptone	-	2.0%
Sucrose	-	2.0%
Agar	-	2.0%
Distilled water	-	100 ml

- After growth slants were stored at 4 C for 3-4 weeks.

<u>Materials:</u>

Of these, agar, peptone and yeast extract were obtained from Difco, USA. Bovine serum albumin (BSA), Folin reagent, cycloheximide, Dithionitrobis (DTNB), 2,5-diphenyloxazole (PFO), 1,4 bis 2-(5-phenyloxazolyl benzene) (POPOP) and amino acid kit were obtained from Sigma Chemical Company, St. Louis, U.S.A. Trichloroacetic acid was from Merck Co., Germany. Uniformly ¹⁴C-labelled amino acids were obtained from Bhabha Atomic Research Centre, Bombay, India. Millipore filters **f**22 cm., 0.45 um pore size) and maxflow filters were obtained from Millipore Corporation, USA and Maxflow, Bombay, India, respectively.

The yeast cells were transferred from a slant into a synthetic minimal medium containing glucose 0.5% (w/v); $\rm KH_2PO_4$, 0.3% (w/v); (NH₂)₂SO₄, 0.3% (w/v); MgSO₄, 0.025% (W/v); CaCl₂, 0.025% (w/v) and biotin, 0.001% (w/v). Cells were grown at 30°C for about 14-18 hrs and inoculum (2 ml for 100 ml) was then transferred to the same medium. Cell growth was monitored turbidimetrically by reading the absorbance at 460 nm in a Bausch and Lomb Spectronic 20 spectrophotometer. For various studies namely uptake of amino acids and O₂ uptake, cells growing in the mid exponential phase of growth were harvested (7 hours after incubation) by centrifugation (1500 x g for 10 minutes), washed three times with sterile distilled water and suspended in the same.

<u>Irradiation procedure</u> - 3 ml of cells, adjusted to 0.3 0.D. at 460 nm by Bausch and Lomb Spectronic 20 were taken in small petri dishes and then exposed to gamma radiation in a 5500 Ci 60 CO-gamma chamber (B.A.R.C.- Bombay, India) at the dose rate of 44 r/sec. (temperature - approximately 25°C). The dose-rate was determined by ferrous sulfate dosimetry.

<u>Survival studies</u> - The cells were diluted to 10^3 times in sterile distilled water by the simple dilution technique. 0.1 ml of such diluted cells were plated in the agar medium containing 1% yeast extract (w/v); 2% sucrose (w/v); 2% peptone (w/v); 2% agar (w/v). The plates were then incubated

TH -457



at 30°C for 24 hours and then the number of comonies in the plates were counted.

Uptake of different amino acids - Reaction mixture containing normal or irradiated or proline grown cells were preincubated at 30°C for 10 minutes after the addition of cycloheximide in a rotary shaker. The reaction mixture had 0.7 ml of cells (40-50 ug protein), 0.05 ml cycloheximide (final concentration 200 ug/ml). The reaction was initiated by the addition of ¹⁴C-labelled L-amino acids (proline 1 mM; glycine 0.55 mM; lysine, 1.66 mM; glutamic acid, 0.83 mM) to the assay mixture. At pre-set time intervals 0.1 ml aliquots were removed with an Eppendorf pipette and immediately diluted in 2 ml of chilled distilled The diluted suspension was rapidly filtered through water. 0.45 mM millipore filter and washed two times. The filters were dried and radioactivity retained was counted in a Packard Scintillation Counter, using a scintillation fluid containing - 4 gm PPO (2,5 diphenyloxazole) and 0.1 gm POPOP (1,4 bis 2-(5-phenyloxazolyl benzene)) per litre of toluene.

Measurement of Oxygen Uptake:

The rate of oxidation by normal or irradiated cells was measured polarographically at 30°C with an oxygen monitor (yellow spring instruments Co., Ohio) according to Estabrook (1967). The oxygen uptake was assayed in a final volume of 3 ml. The vessel contained 1 ml of cells (60-70 ug protein) and 2 ml of distilled water.

Alkane Grown cells:

For such cells, glucose of the synthetic minimal medium was replaced by 0.25% (v/v) alkanes of different chain lengths in the growth media. Such cells were grown for 48 hours to reach the mid exponential phase and then harvested for further studies.

Preincubation With Proline:

Proline solution was added to the exponentially growing cells at 6th hour and cells harvested after an hour of preincubation. Such cells were irradiated and then used for further studies.

Protein Estimation:

Protein was estimated by the method of Lowry <u>et al</u>. (1951). Yeast cells were boiled in 10% TCA for 30 minutes to release tightly bound proteins. After cooling, suspension was centrifuged and the supernatant discarded. After complete removal of TCA from the precipitate, it was dissolved in 0.1N NaOH. To suitable aliquots (containing 50-200 ug protein) 5 ml of protein reagent (mixed 0.5 ml of 0.5% $CuSO_4.5H_2O$ and 0.5 ml of 1% Na-K tartarate in 50 ml of 2% Na_2CO_3 (made in 1.0 N NaOH), was added. Color intensity was read: after 30 minutes at 560 nm using bovine serum albumin as standard.

Sulfhydryl Estimation:

The sulfhydryl groups of the membrane were determined by Ellmann's method (1952). The reaction mixture consisted of 5 ml cells, 2 ml of 0.1M phosphate buffer (pH 8.0), 2.5 ml sterile water and 0.5 ml of 5-5' dithiobis (2 nitro benzoic acid) (containing 39.6 mg of reagent in 10 ml of 0.1M PO_4 buffer, (pH 7.0)). After centrifugation (1500 x g, 10 min), the color intensity of the supernatant was measured in Bausch and Lomb Spectronic 20 at 420 nm.

RESULTS

EFFECT OF Y-RADIATIONS ON CANDIDA ALBICANS CELLS SURVIVAL

Before investigating any structural or functional alterations following exposure of cells to gamma radiations, their survival or colony forming ability was studied. <u>Candida albicans</u>, cells, grown on minimal media, were exposed to different doses of γ -radiations (5, 10, 20 and 60 kR) as described in Materials and Methods section. As can be seen from Fig. 4A, the LD-50 dose (a dose required to kill 50% cell population) for such cells was 6 kR. As compared to initial rapid drop in per cent survivors, the survival drop was rather slow at higher doses of radiations (Fig. 4A).

As discussed in the introduction section of the thesis <u>Candida</u> <u>albicans</u> cells can grow on various hydrocarbons (alkanes) of varying chain lengths and as a consequence to this, membrane lipid composition of such cells was altered.

Lipid contents of alkane-grown cells - In all the n-alkanes used, the growth rate of yeast cells was five to six times slower than the cells grown on glucose medium (data not shown). The cells were allowed to grow to mido log phase, harvested and then total lipids extracted. With the increase in chain length of n-alkanes (C-13 to C-18), there was a gradual increase in the total lipid contents (Table I). Furthermore, there was about 4-fold increase

Fig. 4: SURVIVAL OF CANDIDA ALBICANS CELLS FOLLOWING EXPOSURE TO GAMMA-RADIATIONS

Colony forming ability of the cells was followed as described in Materials and Methods.

(A) (X) survival of glucose grown cells.

(D) survival of proline preincubated cells.

(B) Survival of cells grown in different alkanes;

(•) C-13; (•) C-14; (△) C-15;
(▲) C-16; (□) C-13.

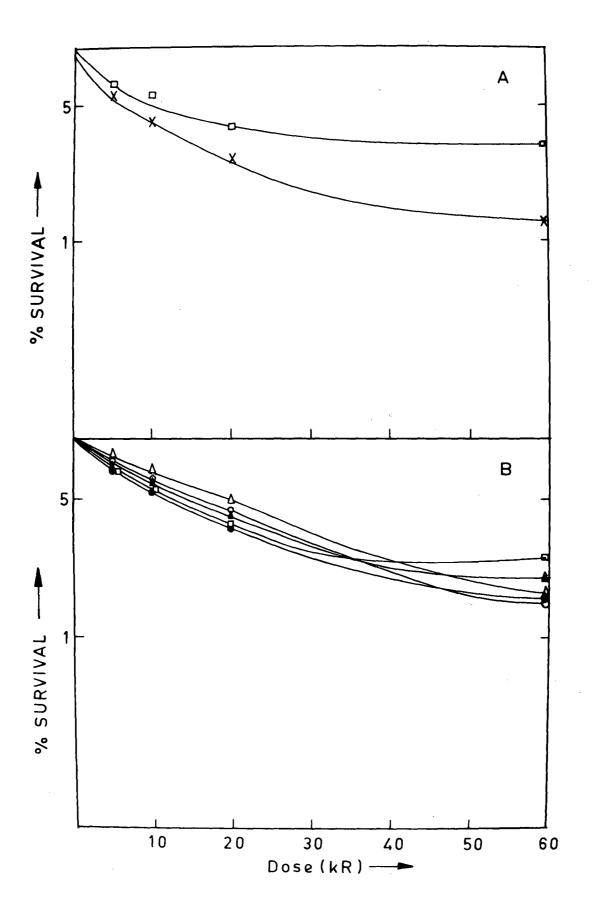


TABLE I

TOTAL LIPID CONTENTS OF GLUCOSE AND N-ALKANE-

GROWN C	ANDIDA	ALBICANS	CELLS
---------	--------	----------	-------

Carbon source	Total Lipid (mg lipid/mg protein)	Fold increase	Phospholipid
Glucāse	0.01		15
Tridecane	0.16	1.6	36
Tetradecane	0.20	2	35
Pentadecane	0.25	2.5	22
Hexadecane	0.38	3.8	14
Heptadecane	0.45	4.5	8
Octadecane	0.47	4.7	12
·			

Lipid extraction was done as described by Singh et al. (1978).

in the total lipid content in C-17 and C-18 grown cells as compared to glucose grown cells.

There was no significant change in total ergosterol in cells grown on C-17 and C-18 n-alkanes. However, it was 20-40% more in n-alkanes of lower thain lengths (C-13 to C-16) (Table II), as compared to glucose grown cells. There was also no significant difference in total glyceride content (Table II).

Phospholipid composition in alkane grown cells - In contrast with C-16, C-17 and C18 grown cells, The total phospholipid contents were about 2-fold higher in C-13, C-14 and C-15 cells as compared with the glucose grown cells (Table I). The differences observed in total phospholipid contents became more clear twhen the lipids of alkane grown cells were analysed for their individual phospholipids (data not shown).

Mishina <u>et al.</u> (1977) have recently analysed lipids of <u>C</u>. <u>tropicalis</u> and <u>C</u>. <u>lipolytica</u> grown on n-alkanes and glucose. The increase in total lipid contents in <u>C</u>. <u>tropicalis</u> cells have been due to an increase in the phospholipid content. But in C-16, C-17 and C-18 cells, the increase in total lipids may be due to different reasons as the contents of ergosterol and glyceride are not enought to explain the

TABLE II

ERGOSTEROL AND GLYCERIDE CONTENT OF CANDIDA ALBICANS CELLS GROWN IN GLUCOSE AND N-ALKANE CONTAINING MEDIUM

Carbon sources	Ergosterol Content (mg ergosterol/mg protein)	Glyceride Content (mg glyceride/mg protein)
	**************************************	an 2 ⁴⁴ tan 6an ga 466 (47 - 20) an dar tin raita yang menerakan gan gan gan kanya sebuah sebuah sebuah sebuah s
Glucose	.015	.01
Tridecane	.022	• 09
Tetradecane	.020	.012
Pentadecane	•017	.011
Hexadecane	.018	.09
Heptadecane	.015	•013
Octadecane	• 01 5-	.012

Ergosterol and glyceride contents were estimated as

described by Singh <u>et</u>, <u>al</u>. (1978).

observed lipid accumulation. Therefore, the differences observed between the two strains of <u>Candida</u> amay reflect their varying metabolic capacities. The preparation of membrane vesicles from glucose and alkane grown cells have revealed that such lipid changes observed with the whole cells are mainly associated with membrane lipids. Therefore, altered lipid composition of whole cells indirectly reflects changes associated with the plasma membrane, justifying our approach to use such cells to assess their radiosensitivity.

In order to assess if aforementioned lipid changes in alkane grown cells would in any way affect the survival of <u>Candida albicans</u> cells, these cells were also irradiated to γ -radiations at similar doses. It was observed that LD-50 dose for different alkane grown cells was significantly higher (LDH50, 12-20 kR) as compared to glucose grown cells (Fig. 4B). This would suggest that probably the lipid accumulation or changes in alkane grown cells offers a slight protection towards γ -radiation exposure effect as was judged by cell survival.

Effect of Y-Radiations on Amino Acids Transport:

Uptake of various solutes is an index of cellular metabolism of a normal cell. Therefore, any change in cellular permeability would indirectly reflect subsequent metabolic changes too. Recently, membranes have been

discussed as a primary site of radiation interaction (introduction part of this thesis), therefore uptake of various amino acids was selected as an index of membrane function to follow the damage to transport after exposing the cells of γ -radiations.

Uptake of L-proline, glycine, L-lysine and L-glutamic acid was studied in glucose and alkane grown <u>Candida</u> <u>albicans</u> cells exposed to Υ -radiations. These amino acids have already been shown to be transported by carrier mediated active uptake system (Jayakumar <u>et al</u>., 1978). Fig. 5 (A-D), reveals the uptake of four different amino acids in normal <u>Candida albicans</u> cells. Following Υ -irradiations, a decrease in the transport of all amino acids was observed. However, the inhibition was more for proline and lysine (80-85% inhibition), as compared to glycine and glutamic acid uptake (70% and 60% inhibition respectively). For each amino acid different dose of Υ -radiations was required to get 50% reduction in their total accumulation.

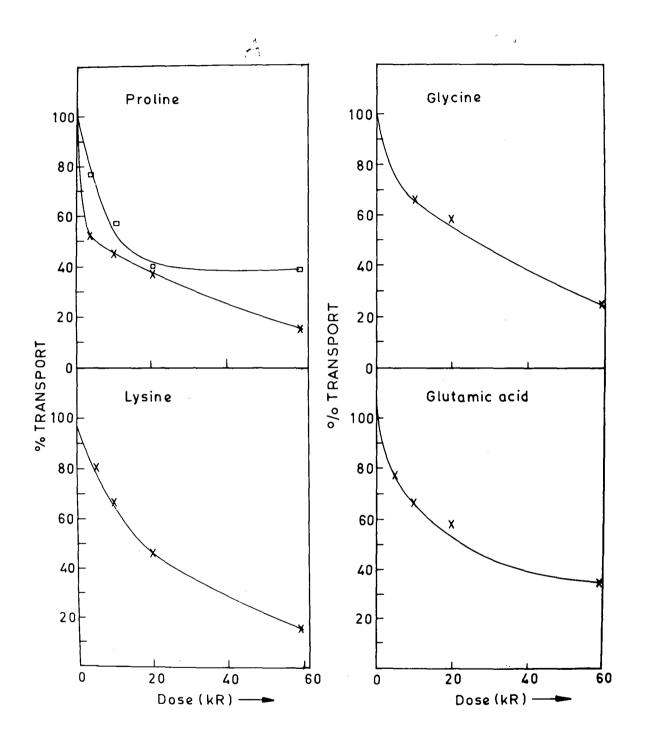
Amino Acids	Dose	
Proline	6	
Glycine	25	Data taken from
Lysine	17	Fig. 5 (A-D)
Glytamic acid	23	

Fig. 5: TRANSPORT OF PROLINE, GLYCINE, LYSINE AND GLUTAMIC ACID IN CANDIDA ALBICANS CELLS GROWN IN GLUCOSE CONTAINING MEDIUM

Uptake of amino acids was followed as described in Materials and Methods.

(*) uptake of amino acids in glucose grown cells.

(**D**) uptake of proline in proline preincubated cells.



It had been earlier shown that Candida albicans took up less proline and lysine when grown in alkanes as compared to glucose grown cells (Singh et al., 1978). However, there was no effect on the uptake of glycine It was, therefore, suggested that and glutamic acid. different amino acids permease respond differently to changed lipid environment. In order to investigate, if the lipid changes observed in alkane grown cells/had any effect on the amino acid uptake systems following exposure to γ -radiations, the transport of proline, glycine, glutamic acid and lysine was followed in these cells (Fig. 6 A-D). The transport after low and high doses of radiations in alkane grown Candida albicans cells is shown in Table III. As shown there, the transport of proline and glutamic acid was less severely affected in alkane grown cells as compared to glucose grown cells. In other words, a resistance was observed in proline and glutamic acid uptake by alkane grown cells at all doses. However, when the transport of lysine was studied, such resistance was seen only at high doses. Glycine uptake on the other hand, exhibited a wide variation within the different alkanes at all doses studied.

Effect of Y-Radiations on Oxygen Uptake:

As observed from the above results, the transport of four amino acids was significantly affected by Y-radiations. Earlier studies, from this laboratory have demonstrated that

Fig. 6: TRANSPORT OF PROLINE, GLYCINE, LYSINE AND GLUTAMIC ACID IN CANDIDA ALBICANS CELLS GROWN IN ALKANE MEDIUM

÷

Uptake of amino acids was done as described in Materials and Methods.

(o) C-13;	(●) C-14;	(Δ) C-15;
(A) C-16;	(D) C-13.	

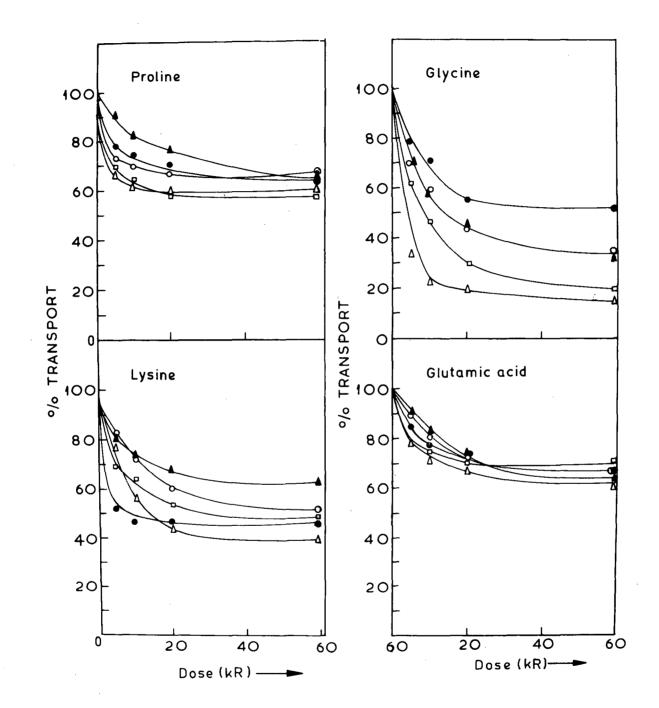


TABLE III

PERCENTAGE TRANSPORT OF AMINO ACIDS FOLLOWING GAMMA-IRRADIATION OF CANDIDA

ALBICANS CELLS.

Medium	% Transport							
	Proline		Glycine		Lysine		Glutamic acid	
	5 kR	60 kR	5 kR	60 kR	5 kR	60 kR	5kR	60 kR
			•				•	
Glucose	52	15	75	25	80	15	77	34
0-13	74	67	71	34	84	52	90	67
0-14	78	63	80	52	54	47	85	67
0-15	66	60	46	. 15	78	40	79	62
C-16	89	64	71	34	80	63	92	64
0-18	,69	57	62	20	70	49	80	70

The above values are calculated from Fig. 6.

oxidation is a prerequisite for the amino acid uptake. Studies were, therefore, undertaken to examine if there was any effect of \mathbf{r} -radiations on cellular oxidation.

Normal cell exhibited a respiration rate of 0.67 µmoles of oxygen per mg of cellular protein per minute which was decreased to 54% (0.074 umoles/mg protein/minute) following 5 kR of γ -radiation exposure. There was even more decrease in oxygen utilization at higher doses of irradiation. The oxygen uptake was reduced to 22% (0.037 umoles/mg protein/ minute) of its normal rate at 60 kR of γ -dose (Fig. 7).

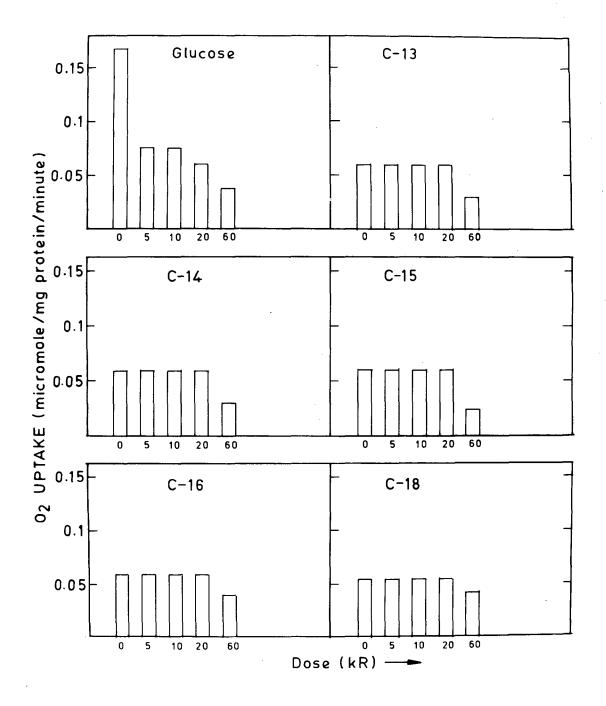
When <u>Candida albicans</u> cells grown on different alkane media were irradiated, it was observed that there was no change in the oxygen uptake between normal versus irradiated cells at low doses (Fig. 7). However, at higher doses (60 kR), slight decrease in oxygen uptake was observed and this decrease varied for different alkanes (0.02 umoles/mg protein/minute). It is pertinent to mention here that oxygen consumption of alkane grown cells is drastically reduced as compared to glucose grown normal <u>Candida albicans</u> cells (Singh <u>et al</u>., 1978). The effect of radiation on oxidation reported here, are on the left over oxidation rate.

Effect of Radiation on SH Groups:

The sulfhydryl groups form one of the most reactive and ubiquitous ligands in biological systems. It is

Fig. 7: OXYGEN UPTAKE IN CANDIDA ALBICANS CELLS GROWN IN GLUCOSE AND ALKANE MEDIUM.

Details regarding the measurement of oxygen uptake are described in Materials and Methods.



involved in many membrane functions. Different sulfhydryl reagents e.g. N-ethylmaleimide (NEM), p-chloromercuribenzene sulphonic acid (pCMBS) have been shown to alter proline uptake and oxygen consumption at different concentrations (Jayakumar et al., 1978) which suggested the involvement of SH groups in the transport process. <u>Candida albicans</u> cells were exposed to π -radiations and the molar concentration of exposed SH groups was determined. No significant variation in SH concentration was observed following irradiation at all doses. The normal unirradiated cells had 0.375 x 10⁻⁴M of -SH groups that were slightly decreased to 0.325 x 10⁻⁴M per mg protein.

Preincubation Studies:

mr

Apart from the constitutive system of uptake an inducible proline transport system has also been shown to be present in <u>Candida albicans</u> cells (Jayakumar <u>et al</u>. 1979). The inducer was found to be proline and no other amino acids was able to induce the system. Such induced cells were irradiated and their survival and proline transport studied.

The LD-50 value for such cells was shown to be 10 kR (Fig. 4A), which was higher than the normal glucose grown cells suggesting a slight resistance towards radiation exposure. Such resistance for proline uptake was also $\frac{246 \mu c}{2} \frac{7}{h_{co}}$? observed at all studied doses (Fig. 5A). Table IV shows the percent transport in normal and preincubated cells following 5 kR and 60 kR of radiation exposure.

TABLE IV

PERCENTAGE TRANSPORT OF PROLINE FOLLOWING GAMMA-IRRADIATION OF CANDIDA ALBICANS CELLS

Dose	Transport			
	Normal cells			
5 kR	52	76		
60 kR	15	38		

The above values are calculated from Fig. 5.

DISCUSSION

There is overwhelming experimental data to readily implicate the radiation-induced lesions of DNA in bringing about the abserved less of survival, chromosomal aberrations, mutations and cell death. The experimental data showing that the chemicals which affect the replication and transcription of DNA also modify the radiosensitivity, lend massive support to the view that DNA is the primary target. The demonstration of a relationship between the interphase chromosomal volume (ICV) and radiosensitivity is also an additional support for implicating DNA as the major target of the action of radiation. In recent years, however, the possibility that the radiation damage to membranes could be as much important and relevant in elucidating the mechanism(s) of radiation damage and then acheiving a control over radioprotection and radiosensitization, is becoming increasingly evident. One evidente in this regard is that membrane fractions exhibit is much higher oxygen enhancement ratio (OER) than the DNA. Not withstanding a few scanty reports (Rink, 1975; Myers, 1970; Sprott, et al., 1976; Mitchell, 1979) in the literature, there is still no clear demonstration of radiation effects on membrane structure and function and consequently the role of membranes in radiobiological damage.

In this dissertation, an attempt has been made using a pathogenic yeast, <u>Candida albicans</u>, as a model system, to follow changes in membrane related phenomena e.g. uptake of amino acid, cellular oxidation, conformation of sulfhydryl groups etc. following the exposure of cells to γ -radiations.

One of the first things studied was the possible relationship between the loss of survival (Fig. 4A) and the uptake of four amino acids (Fig. 5). It was observed that following irradiation, the accumulation of these amino acids was reduced but the extent of inhibition of accumulation of these amino acids was variable. These amino acids have been shown to be transported via different permeases present in the membrane. Conformational changes of the permease by UV radiations has been shown in E. coli by Doyle and Kubitschek (1976) and the same could possibly happen with regard to Υ -radiations. The observed variations with regard to the inhibition of accumulation of these amino acids may be due to the difference in the accessibility)? of the different permeases to r-radiations and hence this asymmetric localization of various permeases may affect their radiosensitivity towards Y-radiations.

Loss of -SH-groups may be one of the primary reasons for the molecular disorganisation of proteins of the membranes which leads to transport changes as shown by Rink (1975), in <u>Saccharomyces cerevisiae</u>. However, our results do not demonstrate any noticeable change in total available -SH groups during and after irradiation of <u>Candida</u> <u>albicans</u> cells to different doses. Hence, unlike <u>E. coli</u> (Doyle and Kubitschek, 1976), the decrease in the accumulation may not be solely due to change in conformation of proteins but may depend on the breakage of certain weak bonds like hydrogen bonds and the disturbance of the proteolipid associations as also suggested by Yonie and Kato (1978).

A parallel decrease in respiration or oxygen uptake and transport of amino acids by UV radiation has been reported in <u>E. coli</u> (Sprott <u>et al.</u>, 1976). Earlier studies from our laboratory (Jayakumar <u>et al.</u>, 1978) establish the fact that cellular oxidation is necessary for active amino acid uptake in <u>Candida albicans</u> cells eventhough there is no correlation between the two processes. So, we have investigated the effect of Υ -radiations on oxygen uptake. Like survival and transport, this parameter has also been found to decrease. This may be due to the inhibition of the respiratory enzymes. However, this would not explain the decrease in amino acid transport.

While discussing the mechanism of radiation damage to the functions of membrane, we cannot leave aside the

cellular lipids which form almost half of the mass of the membranes. These materials, some of which contain allyl moieties with highly labile H atoms, are particularly sensitive to oxygen mediated radiation damage (Tappel, 1973). Hence, lipid peroxidation may contribute to the radiation-induced damage to membrane transport in <u>Candida</u> <u>albicans</u> cells by disturbing the proteopipid associations.

It has been found in our laboratory that membrane permeability changes on altering the lipid composition of the membranes, (Singh et al. (1978). Now by changing the lipid composition of Candida albicans cells (Tables I and II), the question was asked if there was any effect of this alteration on the radiosensitivity of Candida albicans cells. It is pertinent to mention here that alkane grown cells transport these amino acids but the rate and level of accumulation was affected differently (decreases) in such cells which is primarily due to the suppression of the functional protein related to the transport of amino acids. Here, we have assumed the data on membrane transport to be a measure of structural integrity of the membranes. The tenability of this assumption has been recently demonstrated by Huijbers et al. (1979) who has performed electrom microscopic, histochemical and cytochemical studies in liver tissue of ducklings to study the structural damage to membranes

following X-irradiation. This data confirms the fact that alteration of membrane structure is related to permeability changes on exposure to radiations. Our studies reveal a resistance in the inhibition of glutamic acid, proline and lysine (Fig. 6). The percentage reduction of these amino acids was much less in alkanegrown cells as compared to glucose grown cells at similar doses of radiation. However, a difference in the uptake is observed between the amino acids following irradiation which may be due to the fact that different carrier(s) responsible for amino acid transport respond differently to the changes in the lipid ienvironment and become more or less accessible to radiations. The difference in lipid composition between the two cell types may account for the differential radiosensitivity of cells grown in different alkanes. The rate of oxygen utilization of alkane grown cells awas only affected at higher doses of radiation in contrast to glucose grown cells where the oxygen uptake was severely reduced even at lower doses (Fig. 7). Such a change in inhibition pattern of oxidation could be attributed to lipid changes. The change in lipid composition offers a kind of protection of oxygen utilization.

It has been shown that oxidation of highly organised lipid bilayers can damage DNA and the species of oxidising lipid responsible for this damage is unknown but it could

be free radicals or non-radical compound (Pietronigro et al., 1977). Moreover, the alteration of membrane lipids has been shown to influence the damage to DNA (Yatvin, 1976; Redpath and Patterson, 1978). With this in mind, we investigated the damage to survival of alkane grown Candida albicans cells following exposure to Y-radiations. Like for transport, a resistance is observed here also (Fig. 4B). Since the lipid changes in such alkane grown cells are mainly associated with the plasma membrane fraction of <u>Candida</u> albicans cells, therefore, a relationship between the DNA and membrane damage, owing to the changes in the membrane, is implicated. Our results support the fact that alteration of membrane structure influences the radiosensitivity of the <u>Candida</u> <u>albicans</u> cells to v-radiations. Hence, the DNA dmage is mediated through membranes.

Survival and transport of proline have also been studied in the proline preincubated <u>Candida albicans</u> cells. The induced uptake of proline is due to new synthesis of permease responsible for proline uptake in the membrane (Jayakumar <u>et al.</u>, 1979). Effect of radiations on such induced <u>Candida albicans</u> cells show a radioresistance with regards to survival and proline transport. The resistance may be due to the fact that the dose of radiations.

which produced permeability alterations by affecting a certain number of permeases in the normal membranes, now act on enhanced number of permeases. Hence, the radiation effect gets diluted. However, such changes in the membrane also bring about a resistance in the survival as compared to glucose grown cells thus confirming the suggestion, we discussed above, that BNA damage is correlated to the structural damage of cellular membranes.

However, our knowledge regarding the radiation effect on biopolymers such as lipoproteins, lipopolysaccharides and lipopolysaccharide-protein of complexes which are important consituents of the cytoplasmic membrane and plasmalemmae, is very limited.Studies are now underway in our laboratory to investigate any other possible conformation change(s) following irradiation with the use of various fluorescent dyes.

In the present study, the lipid changes observed are not very specific, therefore, the involvement of a specific lipid in radiosensitivity could not be ascertained, but it is very clear that even such a gross lipid change does affect <u>Candida albicans</u> radiosensitivity. During the course of this work, a similar observation was reported for <u>E. coli</u> cells (Yttvin, 1978), where a change in lipid composition was demonstrated to affect the radiosensitivity of the organism. Efforts are underway in our laboratory to specifically alter the membrane lipids by genetic or environmental manipulations of <u>Candida albicans</u> cells to elucidate the involvement of various lipid components in radiosensitivity.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- 1^{*}. Azizora <u>et al.</u> (1979) Biofizika <u>24(3)</u>, 403.
- 2. Bazq, Z.M. and Alexander, P. (1961) Fundamentals of Radiobiology, Volume 5.
- 3^{*} Bacq, Z.M. and Herve, A. (1952) Bull. Acad. Med. Belg. 6th Series, <u>18</u>, 13.
- Baisch, H. (1978) Rad. and Environ. Biophys. <u>15(3)</u>,
 221-228.
- Baldassare, J.J., Brenckle, G.M., Hoffman, M. and
 Silbert, D.F. (1977) J. Biol. Chem. <u>252(24)</u>, 8797-8803.
- Bernheim, F., Wilbur, K.M. and Kenaston, C.B. (1952)
 Arch. Biochem. Biophys. <u>38</u>, 177.
- Bharadwaj, R., Lakhchaura, B.D. (1976) Ind. J. Biophys. Biochem. <u>13(3)</u>, 293-296.
- 8. Bhattacharjee, S.B. and Samanta, H.K. (1978) Rad. Res. 74(1), 144-151.
- 9. Bragg, P.D. (1971) Can. J. Biochem., 49, 492-495.
- Bresciani, F., Auricchio, F. and Fiore, C. (1964) Rad.
 Res. <u>22</u>, 463-477.
- 11. Brunborg, G. (1977) Int. J. Rad. Biol. <u>32(3)</u>, 285-292.
- Buchsbaum, R. and Zirkle, R.E. (1949) Proc. Soc. Exptd., Biol. <u>72</u>, 27-29.
- Chapman, V.V. and Sturrock, M.G. (1974) Int. J. Rad.
 Biol., <u>25(2)</u>, 151-160.
- 14. Daughty, C.J. and Hope, A.B. (1976) Aust. J. Plant Physiol. <u>3</u>, 677-685.

- 15. Daughty, C.J. and Hope, A.B. (1976) Aust. J. Plant Physiol., <u>3</u>, 687-692.
- 16. Daughty, C.J. and Hope, A.B. (1976) Aust. J. Plant Physiol., <u>3</u>, 693-699.
- 17. Doyle, R.J. and Kubitschêk, H.E. (1976) Photochem. Photobiol., <u>24</u>, 291-293.
- 18. Ellmann, G.L. (1959) Arch. Biochem. Biophys. 82, 70.
- 19. Estabrook, R.W. (1967) In: "Methods in Enzymology", (Estabrook, R.W. & Pullman, M.C., eds.), Vol. <u>10</u>, pp. 41-47, Academic Press, New York.
- Esteves, M.J.G., Elias, C.A., Angluster, J. and
 DeSouza, W. (1978) Int. J. Rad. Biol., <u>33(2)</u>, 191-194.
- 21. Facchini, A., Maraldi, N.M., Bartoli, S., Farulla, A. and Manzoli, F.A. (1976) Rad. Res., <u>68</u>, 339-348.
- 22. Flory, W. and Neuhaus, O.W. (1978) Rad. Res., 73, 351-359.
- 23. Flossmann, W. and Westhof, E. (1978) Int. J. Rad. Biol. 33(2), 139-150.
- 24. Free Radicals in Biology, Volume I & II, Ed. W.A. pPryor.
- 25. Gholippour Walili, K., and Yatvin, M.B. (1979) Int. Cong. Rad. Biol. - Japan.
- 26. Gutknecht, J. and Walter, A. (1979) J. Memb. Biol., <u>47(1)</u>, 59-76.
- 27. Hammer, C.T. and Wills, E.D. (1979) Int. J. Rad. Biol. <u>35(4)</u>, 323-332.
- 28. Hansen, H.J.M., Karle, H. and Stender, S. (1978) Biochem. Biophys. Acta <u>528(2)</u>, 230-238.

- 29. Huizbers, W.A.R., Oosterbaan, J.A. and Meskendorp-Haarsma, T.J., Hardonk, M.J. and Molenaar, I. (1979) Rad. Res. <u>78(3)</u>, 502-513.
- 30. Jagger (1972) In: Res. Prog. In Org., Biol. & Med. Chem. (Ed. by V. Gallo and Santamarea), Vol. <u>III</u>, part I, p. 383.
- 31. Jayakumar, A. and Prasad, R. (1978) In: "Biomembranes Proceeding of National Symposium on Biological Membranes and Model System", (Eds. Talekar, S.V., Balram, P., Poddar, S.K. and Khetrapal, C.L.) p. 141, Phoenex Press, Bahgalore, India.
- 32. Jayakumar, A., Singh, M. and Prasad, R. (1978) Biochèm. Biophys. Acta <u>514</u>, 348.
- 33. Jayahumar, A., Singh, AM., and Prasad, R. (1979) Biochem. Biophys. Acta <u>556</u>,
- 34. Joshi, J.G., Swenseon, P.A. and Schenley, R.L. (1977) J. Bact., <u>129(2)</u>, 714-717.
- 35. Kankura, T., and Nakamura, W., Etch, H. and Nakao, M. (1969) Int. J. Rad. Biol., <u>15</u>, 125-136.
- 36. Kashket, E.R. and Brodie, A.E. (1962) J. Bact. 83, 1094.
- 37. Kilberg, M.S. and Neuhaus, O.W. (1975) Rad. Res., 64, 546-554.
- 38. Kilberg, M.S., and Neuhaus, O.W. (1978) Rad. Res. 73, 360.
- 39. Konev, S.V., Volotovskij, I.D. and Sheiko, L.M. (1978) Photochem. and Photobiol., <u>27(3)</u>, 289-296.
- 40. Köteles, G.J., Kubasova, T. and Varga, L. (1976) Nature <u>259</u>, 507-508.

- 41. Kwock, L. and Wallach, D.F.H. (1974) Biochem. Biophys. Acta <u>352</u>, 135-145.
- 42. Lekyo, W., Maminska, B., Voter, M. and Surewicz, W. (1979) Int. Cong. Rad. Biol. Japan.
- 43^{*} Lordkipanidze, A.T., Roshchupkin, D.I., and Pelenitsyn,
 A.B. (1978) Studia Biophysica <u>71(1)</u>, 15.
- 44. Lowry, O.H., Rossbrough, N.J., Farr, A.L. and Randall, R.J. (1951) J. Biol. Chem. <u>193</u>, 265-275.
- 45. Mandal, T.K., Ghose, S., Sur, P., and Chatterjee, S.N. (1978) Int. J. Rad. Biol. <u>33(1)</u>, 75-80.
- 46. Mead, J.F. (1952) Science <u>115</u>, 470-472.
- 47. Mitchell, R.F.J. (1979). Int. Cong. Rad. Biol. Japan.
- 48. Miyazava, T., Sato, C. and Kojima, W. (1979) Int.Cong. Rad. Biol. Japan.
- 49. Mohiuddin, M., Tamu**z**a, K. and DeMare, P. (1978) Rad. Res. <u>74(1)</u>, 186-190.
- 50. Myers, D.K. (1970) Bidl. and Med. Phys., <u>13</u>, 219-233.
- 51. Myers, D.K. and Bide, R.W. (1966) Rad. Res. 27, 250-263.
- 52. Neuhaus, O.W. and Flory, W. (1976) Abstracts 10th, Int. Cong. Biochem. <u>529</u>,
- 53. Patternson, L.K. (1979) Int. Cong. Rad. Biol. Japan.
- 54. Petkau, A. and Chelack, W.S. (1976) Biochem. Biophys. Acta <u>433</u>, 445-456.
- 55.Pitronigro, D.D., Jones, W.B.G., Kalty, K. and Demopoulos, H.B. (1977) Nature <u>267</u>, 78-79.
- 56. Putvinsky, A.V., Potapenkie, A.Y., Puchkoo, E.O., Roshchupkin, D.C., and Vladimirov, Y.A. (1977) Studia Biophysica <u>64(1)</u>, 17.

- 57. Radiation and Cellular Control Processes, Proceedings in Life Sciences, Ed. J. Kiefer, New York (1976).
- 58. Radiation Effect in Physics and Chemistry and Biology. Proc. of the IInd Int. Congress of Radiation Research, Harrogate, Great Britain.
- 59. Raleigh, J.A. (1979) Int. Cong. Rad. Biol. Japan.
- Raleigh, J.A., Kremers, W. and Gaboury, B. (1977) Int.
 J. Rad. Biol. <u>31(3)</u>, 203-213.
- 61. Redpath, J.L. and Patternson, L.K. (1978) Rad. Res., 75, 443-447.
- 62. Rink, H. (1975) Int. J. Rad. Biol. 27, 305-310.
- Rink, H. and Bergeder, H.D. (1976) Int. J. Rad. Biol.
 <u>30(2)</u>, 193-197.
- 64* Rink, H. and Bergeder, H.D. and Promse, (1972) Strahelntherapie <u>143</u>, 225.
- 65^{*} Rink, H., Geissler, G. and Bergeder, H.D. (1969) Strahelntherapie <u>138</u>, 489.
- 66. Rink, H. and Teschendorf, H.J.M. (1977) Rad. Res., 72, 317-324.
- 67. Rodriguez, H.J. and Edelman, I.S. (1979) J. Mem. Biol. <u>45(4/4)</u>, 185-214.
- 68. Roshchupkin, D.I., Vladimirov, J.V., and Puckov, E.O. (1976) Studia Biophysica <u>60(1)</u>, 1.
- 69. Roy, R.M. and Abboud, S. (1978) Photochemistry and Photobiology <u>27</u>, 285-288.
- 70. Salvin, S.B. and Smith, R.F. (1959) J. Expt. Med. <u>109</u>, 325-338.

- 71. Sato, C., and Kojima, K. (1974) Rad. Res. <u>60</u>, 506-515.
- 72. Sato, C., Kojima, K. and Nishizawa, K. (1975) Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun., <u>67</u>, 22-27.
- 73. Sato, C., Kojima, K. and Nishizawa, K. (1977A) Rad. Res., <u>69(2)</u>, 367-374.
- 74. Sato, C., Kojima, K. and Nishizawa, K. (1977B) Biochem. Biophys. Acta <u>170</u>, 446-452.
- 75. Sato, C., Kojima, K. and Nishizawa, K. (1979A) Int. Cong. Rad. Biol. - Japan.
- 76. Sato, C., Nishizawa, K. and Kojima, K. (1979B) Int. J. Rad. Biol. <u>35(3)</u>, 221-228.
- 77. Shapiro, B., Kollmann, G. and Asnen, J. (1966) Rad. Res., <u>27</u>, 139-158.
- 78. Shapiro, B., Kollmann, G. and Martin, J. (1969) Rad. Res. <u>37</u>, 551-566.
- 79. Sheppard, C.W. and Steward, J.J. (1952) J. Comp. Physiology <u>39</u>, suppl. 2, 189.
- 80. Shihabi, Z. and Neuhaus, O.W. (1971) Rad. Res., <u>45</u>, 202-209.
- 81. Singer, S.J. and Nicolson, G.L. (1972) Science <u>175</u>, 720-731.
- Singh, M., Jayakumar, A. and Prasad, R. (1978) Arch.
 Biochem. Biophys. <u>191</u>, 680-686.
- 83. Sontag, W. (1977) Rad. Evniron. Biophys. <u>14(1)</u>, 13-20.
- 84. Sprott, G.D. and Bsher, J.R. (1977) Can. J. Microbiol., 23.
- 85. Suckling, K.E. and Blair, H.A.F. and Boyd, G.S., Craig, I.F. and Malcolm, B.R. (1979) BBA <u>551(1)</u>, 10-21.

86.	Sutherland, R.M. and Pihl, A. (1968) Rad. Res. 34,
	300-314.
87.	Suzuki, S. and Akamatsu, Y. (1978) Int. J. Rad. Biol.,
	<u>33(2</u>), 185-190.
88.	Takashi, I. and Kobayashi, K. (1977) Photochem. &
	Photobiol., <u>25</u> , 399-401.
89.	Tappel, A.L. (1966) Arch. Biochem. ABiophys., <u>113</u> ,3.
* 90•	Tappel, A.L. (1968) Geriatrics 23, 97.
91.*	Tappel, A.L. (1973) Fed. Proc. Fed. Am. Soc. Exp.
	Biol. <u>32</u> , 1859-1861.
92.	Timmermans, R., Gerber, G.B. and Gits, J. (1977) Rad.
	and Environ. Phys. <u>14(1)</u> , 53-60.
93.	Vogel, F.S. and Ballin, J.C. (1955) Proc. Soc. Exp.
•	Biol. Med. <u>90</u> , 419-423.
94.	Wallach, D.F.H. (1974) In: Biomembranes 5; 213.
95.	Yang, K.P. and Neuhaus, O.W. (1971) Rad. Res. 47, 500-510.
96.	Yatvin, M.B. (1976) Int. J. Rad. Biol. 39(6), 571-575.
97.	Yonie, S. and Kato, M. (1978) Rad. R E s., <u>75</u> , 31-45.
98.	Yonie, S. and Todo, T. and Kato, M.L. (1979) Int. J.
	Rad. Biol. <u>35(2)</u> , 161-170.
99•	Yukawa, O., Nakazawa, T., Asami, K. and Hina, S. (1979)
. *	Int. Cong. Rad. Biol Japan.
100.	Zelle, M.R., and Hollaender, A. (1958) Rad. Biol. (Ed.
	A. Hollaender), Vol. II, pp. 365-430, McGraw Hill, New York.
	*Original Not Seen.

58.