

1 Article

2 **Gel dosimetry with radio-fluorogenic coumarin**3 **Peter A. Sandwall**^{1,*}, **Brandt P. Bastow**², **Henry B. Spitz**², **Howard R. Elson**², **Michael Lamba**²,
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8

9 **Abstract:** In radiotherapy, accurate deposition of energy to the targeted volume is vital to ensure
10 effective treatment. Gel dosimeters are attractive detection systems, as tissue substitutes with
11 potential to yield three-dimensional dose distributions. Radio-fluorogenesis is creation fluorescent
12 chemical products in response to energy deposition from high-energy radiation. This report shares
13 studies of a radio-fluorogenic gel dosimetry system, gelatin with coumarin-3-carboxylic acid
14 (C3CA), for the quantification of imparted energy. Aqueous solutions exposed to ionizing radiation
15 result in the production of hydroxyl free radicals through water radiolysis. Interactions between
16 hydroxyl free radicals and coumarin-3-carboxylic acid produce a fluorescent product.
17 7-hydroxy-coumarin-3-carboxylic acid has a blue (445 nm) emission, following UV to near UV
18 (365–405 nm) excitation. Effects of C3CA concentration and pH buffers were investigated for this
19 system. The response of the system was explored with respect to strength, type, and exposure rate
20 of high-energy radiation. Results show a linear dose response relationship with a dose-rate
21 dependency and no energy or type dependencies. This report supports the utility of gelatin-C3CA
22 for phantom studies of radio-fluorogenic processes.

23 **Keywords:** gel dosimetry; radiation dosimetry; radio-fluorogenic gel, luminescent dosimetry

24

25 **1. Introduction**

26 Advancements in radiation therapy technology have supported study of tissue-equivalent gels
27 containing active chemical sensors for the measurement of absorbed dose of radiation. Gel
28 dosimeters have radiological properties similar to biological tissue and are suitable substitutes with
29 the potential to resolve three-dimensional dose distributions. The development of gel dosimeters
30 was dormant for many years, but has recently been developing at a rapid pace. The first reported use
31 of a gel dosimeter was in 1950 with the colorimetric dye methylene blue [1]. Other early
32 investigators explored chloral hydrate and trichloroethylene in agar [2]. Gelatin with ferricyanide,
33 Fricke-type, gel dosimeters were first studied using colorimetric methods, and later magnetic
34 resonance (MR) imaging [3-5]. Further developments introduced polymer and leuco-dye systems
35 [6-7]. Recently, a radio-fluorogenic polymer system has been introduced [8]. Each of the current gel
36 dosimeters have their own limitations such as rapid diffusion of chemical products with Fricke-type,
37 toxicity of with polymer systems, intricate fabrication methods with leuco-dyes, and the
38 water-insolubility of radio-fluorogenic polymers [9]. The hunt for the ideal sensor element and gel
39 substrate is ongoing.

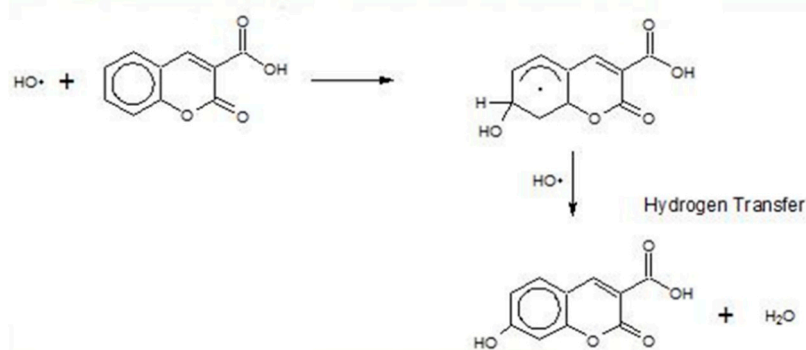
40 Two of the most common gel substrates are agarose and gelatin. Gelatin is derived from bovine
41 or porcine collagen; primary element of skin, bone, and connective tissue. Agarose is a
42 polysaccharide isolated from agar with highest gelling potential; agar is derived from seaweed.
43 Gelatin and agarose are both capable of creating hydrogels with low percentages of gelling agent.
44 However, agarose is opaque and induces light scattering, while gelatin is relatively translucent. The
45 opacity of agar makes it less than ideal for optical analysis.³² Clarity and transparency of gelatin is

46 strongly dependent on raw material history, purity, and preparation. Commercial gelatin consists of
47 tropocollagen rods in the order of 300 nm in length with 1.5 nm diameter [10]. Raw material is
48 processed with acid or base solutions yielding "Type A" (hydrogen chloride) or "Type B" (sodium
49 hydroxide). Type A is denser than type B with a greater intrinsic viscosity [11]. Gelation speed also
50 affects rigidity with structure a function of formation temperature, slow gelatin yields increased
51 organization and orientation of chain elements with greater lateral bonding, this results in the
52 formation of fine well-ordered lattices [12]. Additionally, gelation is not susceptible to ionic effects
53 [10]. Derived from biological tissue with well understood mechanisms of gelation, gelatin is an
54 attractive substrate for exploration of optically active sensors.

55 Radio-fluorogenic sensors are chemical elements that allow for dosimetry, quantification of
56 energy deposition from of ionizing radiation, through measurement of molecular fluorescence.
57 Fluorescent detection methods are particularly promising due to their ability to form selective
58 high-resolution images. Initially reported by Day and Stein in 1949, fluorescence spectroscopy can be
59 used to determine absorbed dose in aqueous solutions of aromatic compounds [13-15]. Ionizing
60 radiation initiates radiolysis of water, yielding hydroxyl free radicals that hydroxylate aromatic
61 compounds via electrophilic substitution. Numerous aromatic compounds are recognized as
62 radio-fluorogenic, with hydroxylation producing fluorescent products. The first fluorescent sensor
63 investigated for radiation dosimetry was aqueous benzoic acid [15]. Other potential sensors are
64 terephthalic, trimesic, and pyromellitic acid [16-18]. Each improved the yield of fluorescent products
65 by restraining positions for substitution. However, each of those compounds possesses excitation
66 wavelengths unsuitable for a gel substrate. Rayleigh scattering is wavelength dependent,
67 proportional to $1/\lambda^4$, resulting in rapid reduction of transmission for shorter wavelengths of light.
68 Organic gels are naturally turbid due to their macromolecular nature, thus it is preferable to use
69 longer excitation wavelengths with greater potential for penetration. Fluorescence of aromatic
70 compounds is due to their conjugated system of alternating single and double-bonds; overlapping
71 pi-orbitals allow for delocalization of electrons. Larger conjugated systems require less energy for
72 excitation [19]. Selection of a multi-cyclic radio-fluorogenic sensor would provide a more attractive
73 fluorescent product; ideally with excitation from visible light. Multi-cyclic coumarin-3-carboxylic
74 acid (C3CA) is a sensor candidate.

75 Aqueous C3CA has been identified as chemical dosimeter for application to radiotherapy with
76 favorable traits including linear dose response, reproducibility, and long-term stability [20]. The
77 radio-fluorogenic mechanism of C3CA has been studied within aqueous solution [21]. Positive
78 features of C3CA include high solubility in aqueous solutions, simple organic composition, and
79 favorable excitation and emission spectra. C3CA reacts with hydroxyl radicals to yield the
80 fluorescent product, 7-hydroxycoumarin-3-carboxylic acid (7HOC3CA), Figure 1.

81



82

83 **Figure 1.** Hydroxyl radicals react with C3CA to yield 7HOC3CA through hydrogen abstraction,
84 transfer, and substitution.

85 The present investigation explored C3CA in gelatin as a potential radio-fluorogenic detector.
86 Concentration effects of C3CA were studied and the influence of pH buffers was investigated with

87 respect to relative fluorescent yield. Ionizing radiation response was examined subject to dose, rate,
88 energy, and type for megavoltage electron and photon energies.

89 2. Materials and Methods

90 Solutions were readied with water from EASYpure water purification system (Barnstead
91 International). Reagents were procured from Fisher Scientific (Baltimore, MD): 98% C3CA,
92 C10H6O4 (Acros Organics, Baltimore, MD) and 99% 7HOC3CA, C10H6O5, MW 206.16 (Infodine
93 Chemical Company; Hillsborough, NJ), sodium bicarbonate, sodium hydroxide, phosphate buffered
94 saline, and food grade porcine type A gelatin (bloom strength 260, pH 5, and viscosity 40). Aliquots
95 were separated, irradiated, and analyzed. Samples were stored at low temperature (5° C) to inhibit
96 microbial growth.

97 To allow for dispersion, gelatin was 'wet,' placed in a beaker to soak with half the total volume
98 of water for 20 minutes. C3CA was brought into solution by boiling a small volume in a separate
99 beaker. After sufficient 'wetting', aqueous C3CA solution was added with the remaining portion of
100 water and temperature of gel solution raised to 35° C; care was taken to ensure the temperature
101 remained below 40° C to prevent denaturation. Gel was maintained at 35° C for 90 minutes, or until
102 optically clear and free of visible colloidal structures. The solution was then removed from heat and
103 pipetted into poly-methyl-methacrylate (PMMA) cuvettes. Gels were left to cool overnight at
104 ambient temperature. For initial pH buffer studies, 7% gelatin solutions were made with 7HOC3CA
105 to mimic the radio-fluorogenic product. Sodium bicarbonate/hydroxide and phosphate buffered
106 saline (PBS) solutions were prepared with 0.9 mM C3CA and 0.1 mM 7HOC3CA. For concentration
107 and dose response studies, 1 mM, 5 mM, 10 mM, and 20 mM C3CA solutions were prepared with
108 the sodium bicarbonate/hydroxide buffer.

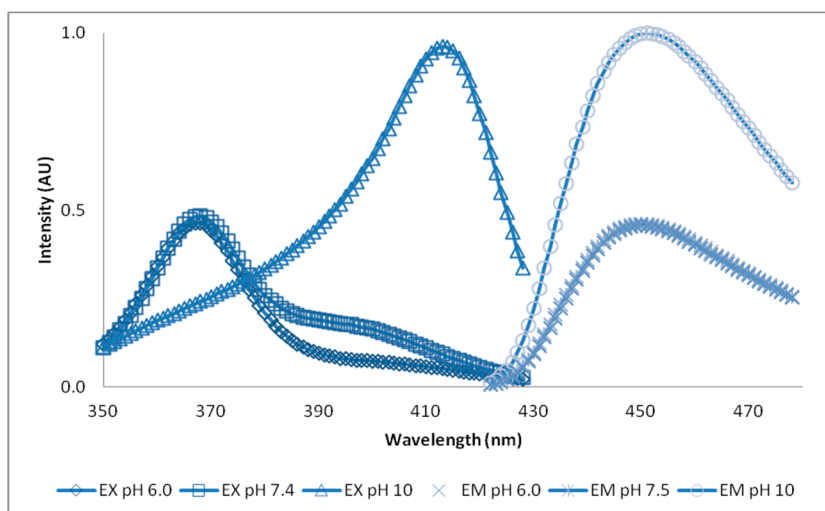
109 Irradiations were conducted with a C-series high-energy medical linear accelerator (linac)
110 (Varian Medical Systems; Palo Alto, CA), with two megavoltage (MV) photon and five electron
111 energies; 6 and 23 and 6, 9, 12, 15, and 20 MeV. Irradiations were conducted with a polystyrene
112 phantom containing a void for 4 cuvettes; the phantom was designed expressly to provide geometry
113 favorable for establishment of electronic equilibrium. A computed tomography (CT) scan was
114 carried out on the phantom, images were imported into Eclipse treatment planning system (Varian
115 Medical Systems; Palo Alto, CA), and nominal dose calculated.

116 Instrumental analysis was conducted with a Cary Eclipse fluorescence spectrophotometer
117 (Varian, Inc.; Pal Alto, California). Excitation and emission slit widths were set to 5 nm, emission
118 scans were performed and peak emission values recorded and plotted. The dose response curve was
119 created by plotting intensity of 445nm emission versus nominal dose.

120 3. Results

121 3.1. pH Response

122 The influence of pH buffers on fluorescent response was examined. Several solutions yielded
123 various pH's; deionized water (pH 6.0), phosphate buffered saline (pH 7.4), and sodium hydroxide
124 with sodium bicarbonate (pH 10). Results show positive correlation between pH and quantum yield.
125 A spectral shift of the excitation maxima was also demonstrated. Specifically, peak excitation shifted
126 from 365nm in normal (pH 7) solution to 405 nm in basic (pH = 10) solution, Figure 2.



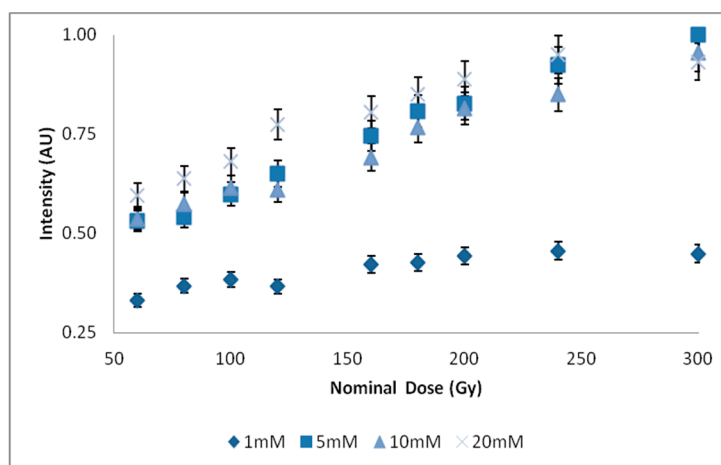
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Figure 2. Spectral curves of excitation and emission for solutions of 7% gelatin with 0.9mM C3CA and 0.1mM 7HOC3CA.

130 3.2. C3CA Concentration

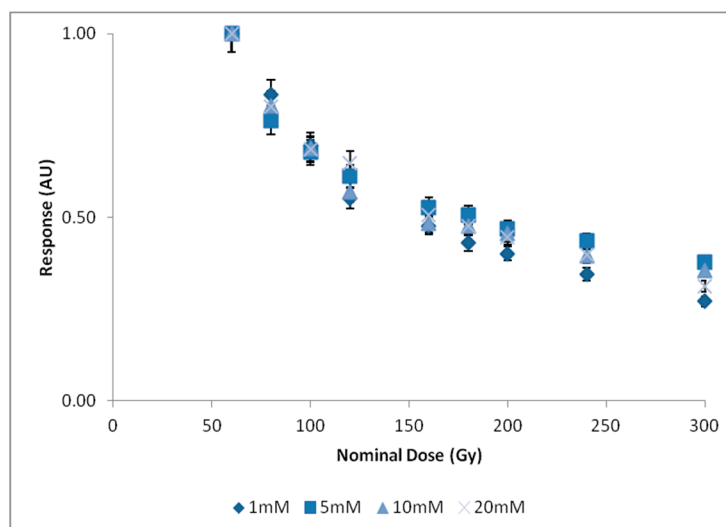
131 With sodium hydroxide with sodium bicarbonate solutions, varying the concentration of C3CA
 132 revealed a stronger response with concentrations 5 mM and greater, Figure 3. The peak normalized
 133 response, fluorescent intensity divided by dose, produced a decreasing exponential curve, Figure 4.
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Figure 3. Nominal dose plotted against intensity for concentrations of C3CA in 7% gelatin. Error bars represent relative 5% error.

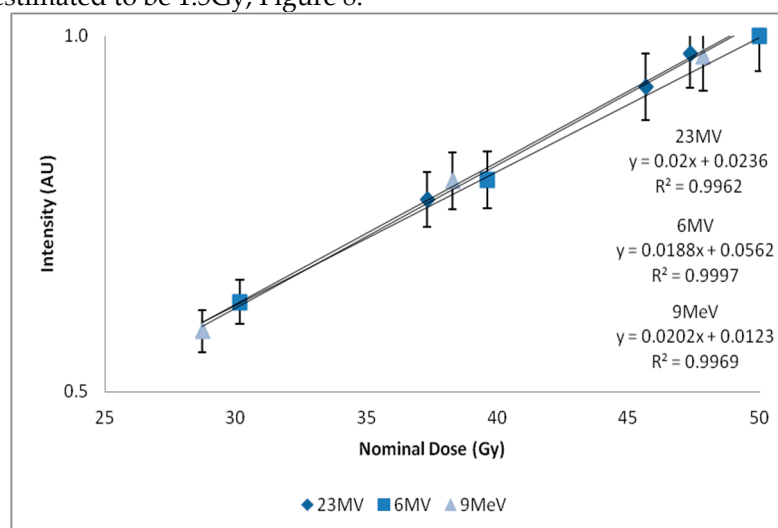


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139 **Figure 4.** Nominal dose plotted versus normalized response. Error bars represent relative 5% error.

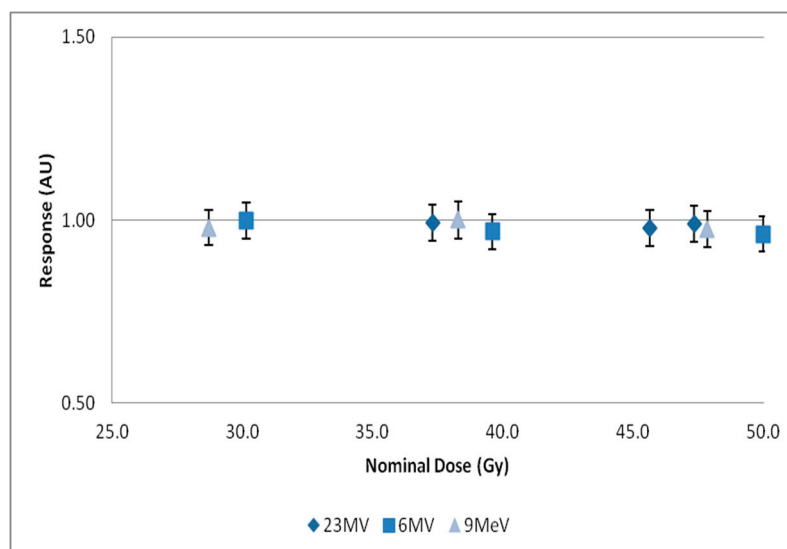
140 3.3. Dose Response

141 Dose response was studied with ionizing radiation with respect to type, rate, and energy.
 142 Relative response was measured with respect to 445nm emissions and plotted against nominal dose,
 143 Figure 5. Repeated measures, using four samples for each data point, demonstrated relative error
 144 less than 1%. A linear response was observed in the range investigated ($R > 0.99$), independent of
 145 type (photon or electron) and energy (9 MeV, 6 MV, and 23 MV), Figure 6. A strong negative
 146 correlation ($R > 0.99$) with dose rate was observed; the intensity of normalized fluorescent response
 147 decreased with increasing dose rate, Figure 7. Using a definition of three times the standard
 148 deviation of the background, the minimum detectable amount (MDA) was extrapolated from 9MeV
 149 electron data and estimated to be 1.5Gy, Figure 8.



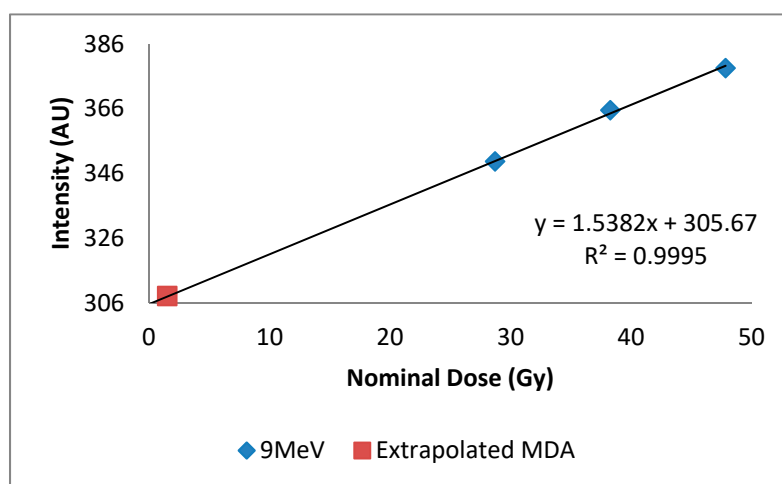
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151 **Figure 5.** Nominal dose plotted against intensity, demonstrating a linear response ($R > 0.99$). Linear
 152 equations inlaid, error bars represent 5% relative error.



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Figure 6. Normalized response plotted against nominal dose for 23 MV, 6 MV, and 9 MeV beams, error bars represent 5% relative error.



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Figure 7. Plot of 9 MeV dose response plotted with extrapolated MDA.

158 4. Discussion

159 The basic solutions (pH 10) were observed to double emission intensity and shift the peak
160 excitation wavelength from 365 nm to 405 nm. Transition between excited and ground states, the
161 energy gap, is known to be influenced by the micro-environment through molecular motion,
162 collision, rotational and translational diffusion, and formation of complexes. Smaller quantum yields
163 are observed with large energy gaps due to availability of alternative relaxation pathways. The
164 observed increase in quantum yield is consistent with previous studies in aqueous solution;
165 however, greater than previously observed (385 nm) [22]. The increased spectral shift may be due to
166 interactions with gelatin, additional study could clarify these effects.

167 The dose response was notably more pronounced for concentrations of C3CA above 5 mM. The
168 normalized response curves of various concentrations of C3CA suggest saturation, diminishing
169 population of radio-fluorogenic reactants in the dose range studied. Future work investigating
170 absolute yields and a larger range of doses would be beneficial.

171 Normalized data demonstrate an independent linear response with respect to dose, energy, and
172 type of ionizing radiation (electron and photon). With respect to type, an independent response is
173 expected since photon dose deposition is predominately by delta rays, secondary electrons. A dose
174 rate dependency was observed, consistent with other findings [20]. Previously suggested to be due

175 to metallic impurities in C3CA and alleviated by successive distillations. The MDA was estimated to
176 be 1.5 Gy, this value should be determined rigorously, by study of an expanded dose range.
177

178 5. Conclusions

179 Optical imaging of biomarkers is an active area of study with C3CA a recognized radiation
180 activated sensor for fluorescent imaging [18]. Investigators have explored the use of coumarin
181 attached to peptide ligands, designed for DNA binding, with potential for assessment of radiological
182 response [23]. Other work is currently studying the application of fluorescent labels for radiometric
183 assay [24, 25]. Advances in the fabrication of gelatin based phantom materials with 3D printability
184 make further study particularly attractive [26]. Further study radio-fluorescent sensors in a gelatin
185 matrix would help advance these prospective *in vivo* applications.

186 The potential of C3CA in gelatin for determination of spatial dose distributions has been
187 demonstrated in a separate report [27]. The use of planar laser induced fluorescence (PLIF) has been
188 shown as a method to yield high-resolution three-dimensional images [28]. This method of image
189 collection and analysis has been recognized and is currently being explored with polymer based
190 radio-fluorogenic gel [29]. However, it is the author's belief that the greatest depth of penetration
191 and finest imaging resolution will be obtained by applying methods of two-photon excitation
192 microscopy.

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202 **Conflicts of Interest:** The authors declare no conflict of interest.

203 **References**

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