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Formulation induces direct DNA

² UVA photooxidation. Part I. Role of

the formulating cationic surfactant

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10

11 Abstract

Cethyltriethylammonium bromide (CTEAB) was considered as a cationic surfactant to 12 13 form lipoplexes with DNA. In TRIS/HCI buffer, CTEAB self-assembles above its critical micelle concentration (CMC = 0.15 mM) into small spherical micelles as 14 15 determined by complementary scattering techniques. This surfactant readily interacts 16 with the supercoiled plasmid DNA pBR322 via electrostatics and hydrophobic 17 interactions. Upon increasing surfactant concentration, successive phase transitions are observed from partial neutralization to full compaction of DNA as evidenced by 18 19 agarose gel electrophoresis, tensiometry, pyrene fluorescence, UV-Vis absorbance and circular dichroism measurements. Under UVA radiation ($\lambda \ge 335$ nm), we show 20 that the presence of the surfactant increases photooxidized damage on DNA 21

- especially in the compacted state. A mechanistic study using selective scavengers
 shows the involvement of singlet oxygen in these oxidative processes due to the
 direct UVA absorption of DNA itself.
- 25

26 Keywords

- surfactant; self-assembly; DNA; formulation; UVA photosensitization
- 28
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30 **1. Introduction**

If gene therapy opens up new therapeutic perspectives in the treatment of 31 inherited deficiency diseases (e. g. cystic fibrosis), acquired diseases (cancer, 32 neurodegenerative diseases) or infectious diseases (hepatitis, AIDS), its success 33 depends on the effective transmission and expression of genetic material within cells. 34 This undoubtedly requires the development of systems capable of efficiently and 35 safely crossing biological barriers on the way to the nucleus and transmitting the drug 36 gene there. Most of the systems used involve recombinant viral vectors, capable of 37 inserting efficiently the transgene into the cells. Although the latter are very effective 38 in the transfer function, their use has a number of disadvantages (production cost, 39 safety, development of immune reactions, and risk of pathogenicity). To avoid them, 40 41 a number of synthetic vectors have been developed. They are mostly cationic derivatives of a lipidic or polymeric nature capable of interacting with DNA by 42 electrostatic interactions and compacting it to form particles (aggregates).¹ Moreover, 43 since the effective charge of the DNA and its size are reduced, the efficiency of the 44 transfer of the drug gene to its site of action is also improved. 45

46 In the case of the *in vivo* delivery, the compacted gene/vector system can be transferred to the target DNA in two ways: either by the systemic route or by local 47 application.² However, whatever the mode of administration, the gene must be 48 49 associated with a system capable of protecting it against aggression by the external environment and in particular from UV radiation, one of the main sources of DNA 50 damage at the origin of photocarcinogenesis processes. While the photomutagenic 51 52 potential of UVB radiation has long been established, that of UVA radiation, which is longer and deeper penetrating the skin, has only recently been recognized. Indeed, 53 the direct formation of cyclobutane pyrimidine dimers (CPD) in DNA under UVA 54

radiation has been widely reported³⁻¹² and the involvement of UVA radiation in 55 cancer and skin aging processes is now well established. However, no study has 56 been carried out on the direct influence of UVA radiation on DNA in a synthetic vector 57 system. Yet DNA delivery in the skin could be affected by sunlight. The studies 58 carried out in this sense involved the presence of a photosensitizer and focused on 59 studying the influence of the formulation on the formation of photoinduced oxidized 60 damage¹³ while the direct absorption of UVA radiation by DNA has been widely 61 demonstrated. So, the purpose of this work is to focus on the direct formation of 62 oxidized lesions on DNA formulations under UVA radiation involving as cationic 63 derivatives, a close analog of cetyltrimethylammonium bromide (CTAB), namely 64 cetyltriethylammonium bromide (CTEAB, Figure 1). 65



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67

68 Figure 1. Structure of cetyltriethylammonium bromide (CTEAB).

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This cationic surfactant presents the advantage of being readily soluble in liquid water at any temperature ($T_{Krafft} < 0 \ ^{\circ}C$),¹⁴ whereas the Krafft temperature of CTAB ($T_{Krafft} = 25 \ ^{\circ}C$)¹⁴ could be the source of troubles when handling it at room temperature (close to the solubility temperature). On the other hand, CTEAB presents a bulkier head group than CTAB and this affects its self-organization properties in pure water due to molecular packing considerations.¹⁵ For example, although they have similar critical micelle concentrations (CMCs) in water, CTAB

forms elongated micelles while CTEAB rather self-assembles into much smaller, 77 slightly ellipsoidal micelles.^{16,17} Therefore CTEAB has been mainly used as pore 78 directing agent for the preparation of mesoporous materials thanks to its ability to 79 form micellar cubic phases,¹⁸⁻²⁰ but also as adjuvant in enhancing oil recovery 80 technique.^{21,22} However its interaction with DNA has not been reported yet (few 81 authors sometimes describe the use of cetyltriethylammonium bromide in DNA 82 extraction and purification processes, but a closer look shows that it was a 83 misspelling of cetyltrimethylammonium bromide, which is widely used for decades in 84 reference protocols). Therefore, it is interesting to consider this CTEAB-DNA 85 formulation and to see whether the slight structural change (ethyl vs methyl) due to 86 the replacement of CTAB by CTEAB could induce significant changes or not. 87

In a first part we present the self-organization properties of CTEAB in the buffer 88 89 solution used as solvent for DNA. Indeed, aggregation of CTEAB has been depicted in water but the presence of electrolytes (buffer) is known to have an impact on such 90 properties.²³ Therefore the determination of the CMC (by tensiometry and pyrene 91 92 fluorimetry) and the depiction of the micelles (by scattering experiments) will be carried out. Then the CTEAB-DNA interactions will be characterized to check that 93 CTEAB can also be used to formulate DNA, as an analog of CTAB. For that, the 94 95 critical aggregation concentrations (CACs) will be determined by complementary techniques (tensiometry, pyrene fluorimetry, agarose gel electrophoresis, UV-Vis 96 absorbance and circular dichroism measurements). Finally, we will investigate the 97 effects of UVA radiation on these formulations (by agarose gel electrophoresis) and 98 will evidence that it can led to direct DNA photosensitization. Experiments conducted 99 100 in the presence of peculiar scavengers will allow a mechanistic interpretation of the 101 results obtained.

102 **2. Materials and methods**

103 **2.1. Materials**

104 Triethylamine (purity 99.9 %) and 1-bromohexadecane (purity 98%) were purchased from VWR (Fontenay Sous Bois, France) and Lancaster (Morecambe, England), 105 respectively. CTEAB was synthesized as described in the literature²⁴ and purification 106 107 protocol was improved. Briefly, 1-bromohexadecane (20 g, 65 mmol) was reacted 108 with triethylamine (10 mL, 72 mmol) in 130 mL absolute ethanol for 72 h at 85 °C (reflux). After evaporation to dryness under reduced pressure, the residue was 109 110 dissolved in chloroform and ethyl acetate was added to induce precipitation. After precipitation was completed at 4 °C, the white solid was collected by filtration and 111 washed with ethyl acetate. Final purification was achieved by solid phase extraction 112 (SPE) on a reverse phase Chromabond C₁₈ ec chromatographic column (70 mL, 10 113 g) from Macherey-Nagel (first washing with water then elution with methanol). This 114 115 step ensured full removal of the impurity trimethylamine hydrobromide. Evaporation 116 of methanol afforded CTEAB as a white crystalline solid. Purity was assessed by nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) and high-resolution mass spectroscopy (HRMS). 117 (see Supporting Information). 118

119 Tris(hydroxymethyl)aminomethane (TRIS, purity 99.8 %) was from Fisher Scientific (Geel, Belgium). Supercoiled plasmid DNA (Form I) pBR322 (4361 base pairs) was 120 purchased from Thermo Fisher Scientific (Vilnius, Lithuania), stored in 10 ×10-3 121 mol.L⁻¹ of TRIS/HCL (pH 7.6) and 1×10⁻³ mol.L⁻¹ of EDTA. The DNA was used after 122 dilution in a 20 mM TRIS/HCl buffer (pH=7.4) to obtain a stock solution at [DNA-PO4⁻] 123 = 4.5×10^{-4} mol·L⁻¹. All the DNA concentration indicated on the manuscript are in mol 124 125 phosphate L⁻¹. Heparin sodium salt (purity 99.8%) was purchased from Alfa Aesar (Heysham, Germany) and Sodium azide (NaN₃, purity 99%) from Alfa Aesar 126

(Karlsruhe, Germany). Agarose and tert-butanol (^{*i*}BuOH, purity 99.5%) were obtained
from Sigma-Aldrich (Saint Louis, USA), while pyrene (purity 98%) was from Acros
Organics (Geel, Belgium). Ethidium Bromide (EB) was purchased as a 10 mg·mL⁻¹
aqueous solution from Invitrogen (Carlsbad, USA). D₂O (purity 99.9%) was obtained
from Eurisotop (Saint Aubin, France) and T4 endonuclease V (pyrimidine dimer
glycosylase) from BioLabs (New England, USA). Bromophenol blue was purchased
from Sigma Aldrich (Saint Louis, USA).

Water used in all experiments was produced by a two-stage Milli-Q filtration system
 from Millipore and had a resistivity higher than 18.2 MΩ·cm.

136

2.2. Surface tension measurements

Surface tension measurements were performed using a Krüss EasyDyne tensiometer using the Wilhelmy plate method. Temperatures were maintained at 25 °C (± 0.1 °C) by circulating thermostated water through a jacketed vessel containing the solution. For each experiment, surface tension was measured three times (each time ten readings were performed and averaged) after an equilibration time of 30 minutes.

142

2.3. Fluorescence measurements

A stock solution of pyrene ($10^{-4} \text{ mol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$), was prepared in methanol and stored in glass vials at 4 °C. The solutions for fluorescence probing studies were prepared by adding 1 µL of this pyrene stock solution ($10^{-4} \text{ mol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$) to 399 µL of the sample solution. Final concentration of pyrene was $2.5 \times 10^{-7} \text{ mol}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$, while the amount of methanol remained very low (0.25 % vol.) Fluorescence measurements were performed on a Fluorolog Horiba spectrofluorimeter equipped with channel multiple tau correlator (auto and cross correlation, 1088 real time channels) and a thermostated cuvette holder at 25 ± 0.1 °C. Excitation wavelength was 335 nm, and the fluorescence emission was recorded between 350 and 500 nm.

Absorption spectra were recorded on a Hewlett Packard HP 8452A Diode Array Spectrophotometer with an optical path length of 1 cm.

2.4. UV-Visible absorbance and circular dichroism measurements

155 Circular dichroism spectra were obtained from a circular dichroism spectrometer J-156 815 from Jasco equipped with a 150 W Xenon arc lamp light source, using a 157 bandwidth of 0.5 nm, with medium sensitivity with a maximum of 200 mdeg. Data 158 acquisition was done in continuous mode.

2.5. Multi-angle light scattering experiments

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160 The multi-angle light scattering (MALS) measurements were performed on a 3D LS Spectrometer from LS Instruments (Fribourg, Switzerland) equipped with a 100 mW 161 162 high performance DPSS Laser (Cobolt) operating at $\lambda = 660$ nm, a two-channel multiple tau correlator (auto and cross correlation, 1088 real time channels), a 3D 163 cross-correlation module, a variable-angle detection system, two high sensitivity APD 164 165 detectors, an automated laser attenuation system combined with on-line laser intensity measurement, a temperature controllable sample chamber with index 166 matching vat, and an external circulator for temperature control (Julabo CF31). 167

Before analysis (and otherwise stated), samples were filtered through 0.2 μm
 hydrophilic PTFE filters into the cylindrical scattering cells.

Measurements were performed at 25°C for scattering angles θ ranging from 12° to 171 150°, corresponding to scattering wave vectors q in the range from 2.7×10⁻³ to 172 2.4×10⁻² nm⁻¹. As CTEAB solutions did not produce multiple scattering, the 3D-cross

correlation configuration was not required and the measurement were performed in
 the classical 2D-pseudo cross configuration.

At each angle, 3 to 10 measurements were carried out and later averaged after having discarded eventual meaningless correlograms. Analysis of both dynamic and static light scattering measurements were performed using the home-made MULTI-STORMS software developed by Dr. C. Mingotaud (see *Supporting Information*).

179

2.6. Small-Angle X-ray Scattering experiments

180 SAXS (Small-Angle X-ray Scattering measurements) were conducted at the European Synchrotron Radiation Facility (ESRF, Grenoble, France) at the ID02 181 182 beamline. CTEAB solutions (5 to 20 mM) were transferred into glass capillaries 183 before measurements. The sample-to-detector distance was 2.5 m. Using 1 Å X-ray wavelength, the q range covered was 2.9×10^{-3} Å⁻¹ < q < 3.1×10^{-1} Å⁻¹. For each 184 solution, 10 scans were recorded and averaged. For each scan, exposure time was 185 kept as low as 100 ms to prevent from radiation damage. The observed intensities 186 I(q) were corrected for transmission, solvent, and detector response. The analysis of 187 188 the I(q)profiles was performed using the SasView software (http://www.sasview.org/). 189

190

2.7. Irradiation experiments

191 DNA irradiation was made with a Mercury Xenon lamp (Oriel instruments, 500W) 192 equipped with a long pass filter $\lambda \ge 335$ nm (Newport 20CGA-335 GC505) at 20°C. 193 The irradiated and non-irradiated sample volume was 100 µL. The final 194 concentrations in TRIS/HCI buffer (20 mM, pH=7.4) were 9×10⁻⁵ mol phosphate·L⁻¹ 195 for the plasmid DNA pBR322, from 0 to 4×10⁻³ mol·L⁻¹ for the CTEAB solutions,

196 200×10^{-3} mol L⁻¹ for NaN₃ and 4% v/v for ^{*t*}BuOH. Each experiment was at least 197 triplicated.

198

199 **2.8. Agarose gel electrophoresis**

200 **2.8.1.** Sample preparation

203 30 minutes at 37°C. 5 μ L of bromophenol blue solution and 10 μ L of Heparin 20%

204 (w/w in TRIS/ HCl buffer (20 mM, pH= 7.4) were added.

To the samples without T4 endonuclease V treatment, 5 μ L of bromophenol blue

solution, 10 μ L of Heparin 20% (w/w in TRIS/ HCl buffer) and 10 μ L TRIS/ HCl buffer

207 (20 mM, pH= 7.4) were added.

208 2.8.2 Electrophoresis and photodensitometry

209 An aliquot of 40 µL of each sample was deposited into 0.8% agarose gel containing

210 0.02 % of Ethidium Bromide. Electrophoresis migration was carried out for 4 hours

under a constant electric field of 80 mV.

212 Single strand breaks (SSB) were quantified by photodensitometry using the ImageJ

software. To correct the lower efficiency of ethidium bromide binding to Form I DNA

with respect to Form II, a coefficient of 1.66 was used.²⁵

3. Results and discussion

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3.1. Self-organization of CTEAB in TRIS/HCI buffer

CTEAB surfactant (Figure 1) was synthesized as described in the literature²⁴ and 218 219 dissolved in 20 mM TRIS/HCI buffer solutions at pH = 7.4. Determination of the CMC 220 by tensiometry was performed by measuring the variation of the surface tension as a 221 function of the surfactant concentration. In the dilute regime, the surface tension 222 value is close to the one of water and then it decreases when the concentration of surfactant increases. At the threshold value which corresponds to the CMC, the 223 224 surface tension does not vary much upon increasing surfactant concentration (Figure 2A). 225



Figure 2. Variation of the surface tension (A) and of the pyrene I_1/I_3 fluorescence emission ratio (B) of CTEAB solutions as a function of the CTEAB concentration in 20 mM TRIS/HCI buffer (pH = 7.4) at 25 °C.

230

By this technique the CMC of CTEAB was found to be 1.5 (\pm 0.2) \times 10⁻⁴ mol·L⁻¹ in the 232 20 mM TRIS/HCl buffer (pH = 7.4) at 25 °C. This value is much lower than the CMC

values reported in the literature for CTEAB in water: 7-8×10⁻⁴ mol·L⁻¹, as determined
from tensiometry and conductivity experiments.^{16,17,26–29} This decrease of CMC
means that the aggregation is favored in TRIS/HCI buffer compared to pure water.
The effect of the electrolyte is to partially screen the repulsion electrostatic
interactions between the similar charged head groups of the surfactant and therefore
to promote aggregation. Thereby, the CMC is lowering by addition of electrolyte.

In the same way, Haq, Z. and coworkers ³⁰ reported a decrease of the CMC of the CTAB from 0.98 mol·L⁻¹ (at 303 K) to 0.90 mol·L⁻¹ at 3 mol·L⁻¹ of NaCl, indicating the significant role of the electrostatic interactions between surfactant and electrolyte.

From the tensiometry curve, one can also estimate the minimal molecular crosssectional area at the air/water interface $A_{s,min}$ at the CMC.²³ This is done using the Gibbs equation which relies the maximal surface excess concentration Γ_{max} to the slope of the surface tension *vs* log C curve before the CMC as follows:

$$\Gamma_{max} = -\frac{1}{2.303nRT} \cdot \frac{\partial \gamma}{\partial \log C} \tag{1}$$

where T is the temperature, R the gas constant, C the concentration, and *n* the number of adsorbed species (here n = 2, accounting for CTEA⁺ and Br). Then $A_{s,min}$ can be expressed as (2):

$$A_{s,min} = \frac{1}{N_A \Gamma_{max}} \tag{2}$$

where N_A is the Avogadro number. Applying this to the curve in Figure 2A gives $A_{s,min} = 110 (\pm 10) \text{ Å}^2 \cdot \text{molecule}^{-1}$. This value is quite high compared to a surface of $62 \text{ Å}^2 \cdot \text{molecule}^{-1}$ reported for CTEAB in pure water,²⁹ suggesting that the distance between the surfactants got increased at the interface in the presence of electrolytes. The fact that the interface occupation appears less compact (and the surfactants bulkier) might be due to the accumulation of species (like water or ions) between the
surfactants.

The aggregation properties of CTEAB in TRIS/HCl buffer have also been 256 studied by pyrene fluorescence measurements. Pyrene is a hydrophobic fluorescent 257 probe that has been widely used for the characterization of self-assembling systems 258 due to the specific variation of its emission fluorescence as a function of the local 259 polarity.³¹ In its specific multi-peak emission spectrum, the I₁/I₃ intensity ratio between 260 the first and third peaks (I1 at 372 nm and I3 at 383 nm respectively) is decreasing if 261 the polarity decreases. In surfactant systems, this I₁/I₃ ratio varies as a function of the 262 surfactant concentration with a sharp decrease at the CMC, from a high value (below 263 CMC, pyrene located in water) to a lower one (above CMC, pyrene located in the 264 hydrophobic inner core of the micelles). The results regarding pyrene fluorescence as 265 266 a function of CTEAB concentration in TRIS/HCI buffer are represented in Figure 2B. The variation of the I₁/I₃ ratio has been adjusted by a sigmoidal Boltzmann function to 267 determinate the CMC.³² 268

269 From this fluorescence measurements, the aggregation of CTEAB in TRIS/HCI buffer occurs at CMC = 1.6 (\pm 0.2) \times 10⁻⁴ mol·L⁻¹, which is in good accordance with 270 tensiometry measurements (using this guick technique we also checked the CMC of 271 272 CTEAB in pure water and found 7.1 (\pm 0.2) $\times 10^{-4}$ mol·L⁻¹, which is very close to the values reported in the literature,^{16,17,26-29} see Supporting Information, Figure S3). In 273 addition, the intrinsic value of the I₁/I₃ ratio is directly related to local micropolarity: a 274 low ratio value (<1) indicates that pyrene is surrounded by a nonpolar environment, 275 while higher ratio values (>1) show that the pyrene environment is polar.³¹ This ratio 276 277 has been shown to vary from about 0.6 in alkanes to 1.2-1.6 in alcohols and up to 1.9 in water.^{31,33} In the present case of CTEAB, we observed a decrease of the I₁/I₃ ratio 278

from 2.0 to 1.5 at the CMC. This shows that even when located in micelles, the pyrene probe is still in a rather polar environment. This suggest that water molecules have partially penetrated the inner micellar cores, leading to an increase of the I₁/I₃ ratio. ^{31,34} This is directly related to the surfactants head groups: bulky heads induce less compact interfaces and allow penetration of water, which is here consistent with large polar surface areas determined for CTEAB from tensiometry measurements.

In order to get more insights on the structure of the aggregates formed by CTEAB in aqueous TRIS/HCI solutions, both multi-angle static- and dynamic light scattering (MASLS and MADLS) experiments were performed at different concentrations ([CTEAB] = 5 to 30×10^{-3} mol·L⁻¹). Small angle X-Ray scattering (SAXS) measurements were also carried out.

In light scattering experiments, the scattering wave vector q is defined as a function of the scattering angle θ as described by equation (3).

$$q = \frac{4\pi n \sin(\theta/2)}{\lambda} \tag{3}$$

where *n* is the refractive index of the medium and λ the wavelength of the incident light.

294 In MASLS, the excess of scattered intensity by a sample with respect to the solvent is converted into absolute intensity (Rayleigh ratio R_{θ} , in cm⁻¹) using toluene 295 as a reference (see Supporting Information). Absolute Rayleigh excess ratios of 296 CTEAB solutions were measured in the $2.6 \times 10^{-4} - 2.5 \times 10^{-3} \text{ Å}^{-1} q$ range. In all cases, 297 flat plateaus were obtained meaning that the scattering was isotropic and that the 298 aggregates formed by CTEAB were very small in size (see Supporting Information, 299 *Figure S4*). As a consequence, the radius of gyration R_g could not be determined due 300 to the q-independent form factor in this q range. However, the variation of the 301 Rayleigh ratio as a function of the CTEAB concentration could allow Debye analysis 302

303 (see *Supporting Information, Figure S5*). Therefore, the apparent mass of the 304 aggregates was determined to be $M_w = 41.1 \pm 1.6$ kDa. From this value and using the 305 molar weight of CTEAB, it was possible to calculate the aggregation number (N_{agg}) 306 which was found to be N_{agg} = 101 ± 4. This value is larger or equal to those reported 307 for CTEAB in pure water (N_{agg} = 49-100),^{17,29} confirming that micellization in TRIS 308 buffer is favored and allows a larger number of surfactant molecules to aggregate.

What is measured experimentally in MADLS is the autocorrelation function $g^{(2)}(q,\tau)$ of the scattered intensity I(q,t), normalized over time (4):

$$g^{(2)}(q,\tau) = \frac{\langle I(q,t)I(q,t+\tau)\rangle}{\langle I(q,t)\rangle^2}$$
(4)

This latter is also related to the correlation function of the electric field $g^{(1)}(q,\tau)$ by the Siegert relationship (5):

$$g^{(2)}(q,\tau) = 1 + \beta \left| g^{(1)}(q,\tau) \right|^2 \quad \beta \le 1$$
(5)

For monodisperse spherical particles under Brownian motion, the autocorrelation function decays exponentially over time (6):

$$g^{(1)}(q,\tau) = e^{-\Gamma\tau} \tag{6}$$

where $\Gamma = D_0 q^2$ is the decay rate and D_0 is the translational diffusion coefficient of the particles. The hydrodynamic radius of equivalent sphere (R_h) is then obtained by the Stokes-Einstein relationship:

$$R_h = \frac{kT}{6\pi\eta D_0} \tag{7}$$

where *k* is the Boltzmann constant, *T* the absolute temperature, and η the solvent viscosity.

Experimentally, simple scattering was always observed (no multiple scattering) from the clear, transparent CTEAB solutions. In all cases, the autocorrelation functions were well fitted using a Cumulant analysis³⁵ (see *Supporting Information, Figure S6*), affording the intensity-weighted decay rates Γ . Plotting decay rates as a function of q^2 afforded linear profiles $\Gamma = D_{app}q^2$ (Figure 3A), meaning that single relaxation mechanisms were observed associated to single apparent translational diffusion coefficients (D_{app}).

327

328



Figure 3. Linear variations of decay rates as a function of q² (A). Variation of the
 apparent diffusion coefficient D_{app} as a function of the micelle concentration
 (B).

333

The apparent diffusion coefficients showed a linear dependence as a function of the micelle concentration (*ie* C_{CTEAB}-CMC_{CTEAB}) (Figure 3B):

$$D_{app} = D_0 + k(C_{CTEAB} - CMC_{CTEAB})$$
(8)

This reflects inter-particle interactions (probably electrostatic repulsions between positively charged aggregates of cationic surfactants). Extrapolation at infinite dilution afforded $D_0 = 8.68 \times 10^7$ nm²·s⁻¹ and $R_{h,0} = 2.83$ nm from the Stockes-Einstein relationship. This hydrodynamic radius is comparable to the dimensions of micelles
 formed by CTEAB in pure water.^{16,17}

Knowing the radius of the micelles, the determination of their surface gives 101 nm², and dividing it by the aggregation number, the surface occupied by one surfactant head group is 1 nm², which is consistent with the surface estimated from tensiometry measurements. It was also possible to determine the volume occupied per surfactant at 0.94 nm³. The comparison of this value to the molecular volume of CTEAB (0.64 nm³) indicates that about 10 water molecules are present around each CTEAB molecule, confirming that CTEAB micelles are highly hydrated.

Complementary SAXS experiments were also carried out to get more information on CTEAB micelles. The general expression of the scattered intensity I(q) is:

$$I(q) = \Phi \cdot \mathbf{V} \cdot (\Delta \rho)^2 \cdot P(q) \cdot S(q)$$
(9)

where $q = [4\pi \sin(\theta/2)]/\lambda$ is the scattering vector (θ is the scattering angle), Φ is the 351 volume fraction of the scatterers, V is their volume, and $\Delta \rho$ is their difference in 352 scattering length density (SLD) with respect to the solvent. P(q) is the scatterers' 353 form factor for which analytical expressions have been reported for various 354 geometries.^{36,37} S(q) is the structure factor accounting for inter-particle interactions, 355 for which different models are also available.^{36,37} Regarding the CTEAB solutions, the 356 scattering intensities were very low, indicating a weak electronic contrast between the 357 solvent and the aggregates. Moreover, the profiles of the scattering curves suggested 358 a spherical shape for the aggregates, as illustrated in Figure 4 (full curves and fitting 359 360 parameters are reported in the *Supporting Information*).



361

Figure 4. SAXS profile of 20 mM CTEAB solution in 20 mM TRIS/HCI (pH = 7.4) at 25 °C. The solid line represents the adjustment of the data with a spherical form factor and a structure factor of a charged hard sphere.

365

366 Indeed, the data were efficiently adjusted using a P(q) spherical model, whereas the ellipsoidal model used by others to describe CTEAB micelles in pure water was not 367 convenient here.^{16,17} In addition, a structure factor S(g) was included, which 368 corresponded to a charged hard sphere model to take into account electrostatic 369 repulsions between positively charged micelles (visible at low q as a decline of I(q) in 370 371 the SAXS curve). However, the classical core-shell structure could not be evidenced contrary to analogous cationic surfactants.³⁸ Instead, the SAXS profiles rather 372 corresponded to small spherical shapes (R = 14 Å) with a scattering contrast that 373 was the one of pure hydrophobic alkyl chains. This indicates that only a part of the 374 inner core of the micelles could be observed by this technique, and it is again in 375 376 accordance with a possible penetration of water towards the inner, "hydrophobic" 377 core of the aggregates.

378 **3.2. Interaction between CTEAB and DNA**

Cationic surfactants have been considered for a few decades as potential non-viral 379 vectors for gene delivery, thanks to their ability to easily form complexes with DNA. 380 This complexation induces the formation of highly organized assemblies, involving 381 various intermolecular interactions (electrostatic, hydrophobic, etc.) and highly 382 cooperative binding.^{39,40} In this field, CTAB was one of the most studied cationic 383 surfactants. It has been shown that combination of electrostatic and hydrophobic 384 interactions between CTAB and DNA induces functional and morphological changes 385 of the biopolymer, particularly DNA compaction.41-53 Considering CTEAB as a 386 387 potential non-viral vector, it is therefore important to characterize the interactions occurring between the surfactant and the nucleic acid involved in such DNA 388 formulations. It is especially interesting to study the effect of replacing CTAB by 389 390 CTEAB on the different phase transitions, as we have shown that these structurally close surfactants differ, however, in their micellization properties. 391

Three macroscopic states were observed on CTEAB-DNA solutions depending on the CTEAB concentration. For [CTEAB] < $20-30 \times 10^{-5}$ mol·L⁻¹ clear solutions were observed. Between $20-30 \times 10^{-5}$ mol.L⁻¹ and $100-200 \times 10^{-5}$ mol.L⁻¹, turbid solutions appear. For higher CTEAB concentrations ([CTEAB] > $100-200 \times 10^{-5}$ mol.L⁻¹), turbid solutions turned to clear.

Therefore, complementary techniques (agarose gel electrophoresis, tensiometry, fluorimetry, UV-Visible spectrometry and circular dichroism) were used to study the binary system made of CTEAB and the supercoiled plasmid DNA pBR322 at various molar ratios.

402 Agarose gel electrophoresis was first carried out to study CTEAB-DNA 403 interactions with CTEAB concentrations ranging from 0 to 4×10^{-3} mol·L⁻¹ (Figure 5).



Figure 5. Electrophoresis agarose gel of plasmid DNA in the presence of various CTEAB concentrations (DNA concentration was [DNA-PO₄-] = 9×10^{-5} mol·L⁻¹). Orange arrows indicate phase transitions.

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Analysis of the electrophoresis agarose gel indicates the existence of different 408 CTEAB-DNA interactions. At low CTEAB concentration, below $4{\times}10^{\text{-5}}$ mol·L^{\text{-1}} 409 410 ([CTEAB]/[DNA] = 0.44), the cooperative binding between DNA and CTEAB only slightly impacts the DNA mobility. In the second region, for $2-4 \times 10^{-5}$ mol·L⁻¹ < 411 $[CTEAB] < 15-20 \times 10^{-5} \text{ mol} \cdot L^{-1}$, (0.44 < [CTEAB]/[DNA] < 2.2) the complexation of 412 413 CTEAB to DNA reduces the electrophoresis mobility of the DNA and a smear appears on the gel.¹³ This results from the formation of aggregates between DNA 414 and CTEAB, leading to the gradual compaction of DNA. Above 15-20×10⁻⁵ mol·L⁻¹ 415 ([CTEAB]/[DNA] = 2.2), the CTEAB-DNA compaction seems complete as it is no 416 417 longer possible to observe the initial DNA band on the agarose gel. The

corresponding solutions appear slightly turbid. For CTEAB concentrations above 418 100×10^{-5} mol·L⁻¹ ([CTEAB]/[DNA] = 11), the electrophoretic mobility of DNA seems to 419 increase, with the re-apparition of a not-so-well defined band. This could indicate the 420 formation of another type of CTEAB-DNA complex in the presence of a large excess 421 of CTEAB and notably a decompaction process of DNA. In the litterature, this 422 process was ascribed to the presence of an excess of the cationic surfactant, which 423 promotes the DNA decompaction.^{47,54,55} To go futher into the understanding of the 424 interaction mechanisms between DNA and CTEAB, circular dichroism spectroscopy 425 426 (CD) was realized. The DNA circular dichroic spectrum exhibits two peaks. The first 427 one is a negative band at 245 nm, due to the helicity of DNA. The second one, at 278 nm is a positive band corresponding to the base stacking, as shown in Figure 6.56-59 428



Figure 6. Circular dichroism spectra in CTEAB-DNA solutions for various CTEAB concentrations ([DNA-PO₄⁻] = 9×10^{-5} mol·L⁻¹, 20 mM TRIS/HCI buffer, pH = 7.4) at 25 °C.

434 The CTEAB-DNA complexes, in the two phase regions, present a red-shift of the positive signal from 278 nm to 284 nm, for $[CTEAB] > 15 \times 10^{-5}$ mol.L⁻¹. This suggests 435 a minor changing of interactions between the DNA bases and the evidence of the 436 DNA compaction process in presence of CTEAB surfactant.⁵⁸ The observed 437 transition could be due by the reduction of the DNA hydration layer, caused by a 438 helical enhancement and a pitch shortening.^{58,59} With further CTEAB concentration 439 440 increase (from 100×10^{-5} mol.L⁻¹), there is a blue shift of the positive band and the position and intensity of that band recovers as DNA bands. It shows that CTEAB can 441 442 decompact DNA with excessive amount of surfactant as it was already described in the literature for other surfactants.^{47,54,55} These two peculiar CTEAB concentrations 443 are on the same range that the ones find with the electrophoresis experiment. 444

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446 CTEAB-DNA interactions were also evidenced by surface tension 447 measurements. Figure 7A shows the variation of the surface tension of the DNA 448 solution as a function of the CTEAB concentration.



Figure 7. Variation of the surface tension (A), and of the pyrene I_1/I_3 fluorescence emission ratio (B) of CTEAB solutions as a function of CTEAB concentration, in the presence of DNA ([DNA-PO4⁻] = 9×10⁻⁵ mol·L⁻¹, 20 mM TRIS/HCI buffer, pH = 7.4) at 25 °C. Dashed lines refer to CTEAB alone, for comparison.

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The curve profile obtained in the presence of DNA is more complex than the 455 456 one for surfactant alone. Indeed, surface tension started to decrease at very low CTEAB concentrations (< 10^{-6} mol·L⁻¹) to reach a first minimum at [CTEAB] = 457 0.16×10^{-5} mol·L⁻¹ ([CTEAB]/[DNA] = 0.02). It occurs well below the CMC of CTEAB, 458 459 meaning that this phenomenon does not correspond to the formation of micelles. This rather shows the synergistic interaction between oppositely charged species that 460 leads to the formation of highly surface active CTEAB-DNA complexes located at the 461 air/water interface, as proposed by others.^{41,60–62} This complexation is driven both by 462 electrostatic interactions but also by hydrophobic interactions between the surfactant 463 and the biopolymer.⁴¹ In this concentration range, the CTEAB molecules are believed 464 465 to gradually decorate the DNA strand by progressive charge neutralization. Then, upon increasing CTEAB concentration, the surface tension rises to a local maximum 466 467 and finally decreases again and reaches the curve of pure CTEAB. This could be attributed to a partial desorption of the CTEAB-DNA complexes from the interface as 468 they accumulate in the bulk solution upon adsorption of further surfactant, potentially 469 forming new types of aggregates. Finally, the transition to a "plateau" coincides with 470 the apparition of a turbid solution and is observed at [CTEAB] = 20×10^{-5} mol·L⁻¹ 471 ([CTEAB]/[DNA] = 2.2). At this point the polyanion is saturated with surfactant and 472 the complex formed corresponds to formulated DNA. As the air/water interface is now 473

474 only occupied by surfactants, surface tension monitors then only the micellization of
475 CTEAB upon further addition of surfactant.

In a complementary way, pyrene fluorescence was studied at different 476 [CTEAB]/[DNA] ratios as previously conducted for CTEAB alone. In Figure 7B is 477 presented the variation of the pyrene I_1/I_3 emission fluorescence ratio as a function of 478 the CTEAB concentration in a DNA solution. We observed a classical sigmoidal 479 shape referring to a phase transition and the formation of hydrophobic domains. 480 481 Below the phase transition, the I₁/I₃ ratio was found to be 1.93 versus 2.03 in the case of pure CTEAB. This slight decrease means that, even if pyrene is largely in 482 contact with water or in polar environment, it has found some more hydrophobic 483 places to locate. Indeed, it is known that pyrene can interact with DNA via partial 484 intercalation at the grooves.63,64 Then the phase transition occurred at [CTEAB] = 485 486 2.8×10^{-5} mol·L⁻¹ ([CTEAB]/[DNA] = 0.31). This critical concentration is much lower than the CMC of pure CTEAB and refers here to a critical aggregation concentration 487 488 (CAC) evidencing again the synergistic aggregation of CTEAB and DNA. This point is 489 believed to refer to the transition between a state where DNA is decorated by individual surfactant molecules (neutralization phase) and a state where CTEAB 490 molecules form local hydrophobic domains on the DNA strand (compaction phase). 491 492 Pyrene can locate in these aggregates and the I_1/I_3 ratio drops to the 1.51 value, which is almost identical to what observed with CTEAB alone (1.50). This means that 493 pyrene still remains in a guite hydrated environment like in the case of CTEAB 494 micelles, where bulky head groups allow penetration of water. Note that the limited 495 decrease of the pyrene I₁/I₃ ratio does not allow the detection of further transitions as 496 observed for other DNA-cationic surfactant systems.^{65,66} The steric hindrance of the 497 triethylammonium moiety could also explain why the transition occurs at a 498

[CTEAB]/[DNA] ratio which is much lower than in the case of CTAB (0.31 *vs.* about
0.70)⁴⁸. Indeed, the neutralization phase is limited by the available space along the
DNA strand and depends on the size of the complexing cationic surfactant.

The effect of the surfactant on DNA compaction can also be followed by UV-Vis 502 503 spectrometry. Thus, DNA adsorption is performed at 260 nm for different CTEAB concentrations (Figure 8). It can be observed that absorption of CTEAB-DNA 504 complex sharply decreases until a CTEAB concentration corresponding to 20-30×10⁻ 505 ⁵ mol L⁻¹. The increase in turbidity is due to strong electrostatic interactions between 506 507 the DNA and the surfactant. This result suggests that DNA is fully compacted. CTEAB surfactant induces the reduction of the repulsive forces between the 508 phosphate groups of DNA leading to the formation of CTEAB-DNA agregates.^{56,57} 509



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Figure 8. Variation of the absorbance of CTEAB-DNA solutions for various
CTEAB concentrations at 260 nm ([DNA-PO₄] = 9×10⁻⁵ mol·L⁻¹, 20 mM TRIS/HCI
buffer, pH = 7.4) at 25 °C

As the CTEAB concentration increases above 40×10⁻⁵ mol·L⁻¹, the absorbance value tends to recover to the origin value, ascribed to the decompaction process of DNA. The combination of these five complementary techniques has allowed to evidence different phase transitions for the CTEAB-DNA system depending on the surfactant concentration. They are summarized in Figure 9.

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Figure 9. CTEAB concentrations (10⁻⁵ mol·L⁻¹) at which different phase transitions were evidenced by five complementary techniques in the CTEAB-DNA system (DNA concentration was [DNA-PO₄⁻] = 9×10^{-5} mol·L⁻¹ in 20 mM TRIS/HCI, pH = 7.4) at 25 °C.

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527 The first transition occurring at very low concentration has been highlighted by 528 surface tension measurements, and corresponds to the neutralization

("lipophilization") of DNA by CTEAB. Next, agarose gel electrophoresis and 529 fluorimetry showed a phase transition towards a gradual compaction of DNA by 530 CTEAB. The end of this process, leading to a fully compacted DNA was evidenced 531 both by circular dichroism, UV-Vis spectroscopy, agarose gel electrophoresis and 532 533 surface tension measurements, as well as by macroscopic observations (solutions became turbid). Finally, DNA decompaction was observed macroscopically and 534 highlighted by circular dichroism and agarose gel electrophoresis (DNA 535 redissolution). 536

537 The formulation of DNA was then studied under UVA radiation, in order to evaluate 538 the influence of compaction on DNA photodamage formation.

3.3. Photostability of formulated DNA under UVA radiation

Supercoiled pBR322 plasmid DNA was used as a DNA model to study the effect 540 541 of CTEAB surfactant on DNA damage under UVA radiation ($\lambda \ge 335$ nm). Photolesions such as single-strand breaks (SSB) damage can be easily revealed by 542 agarose gel electrophoresis. Indeed, conversion of pBR322 plasmid DNA from the 543 supercoiled form (or Form I) to the circular form (or Form II) gives two distinctive 544 545 bands that can be separated and visualized by agarose gel electrophoresis (further 546 noted as I and II on the gel pictures, respectively), and quantified by 547 photodensitometry.

A first study was performed to show the effect of the irradiation time on the DNA damage in the presence of CTEAB. On figure 10A, electrophoresis agarose gel shows the DNA damage for irradiation times varying from 30 seconds to 10 minutes. A progressive increase of single strand breaks (SSB) was observed with the increase of the irradiation time. The quantification of the SSB ratios by photodensitometry (Figure 10B) shows a linear increase of the SSB ratio for the shortest irradiation

times and its slow-down after 200 seconds to reach a SSB ratio of about 0.25 for 10
min irradiation.



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Figure 10. DNA cleavage for different irradiation times at $\lambda \ge 335$ nm and 20 °C (* indicate the irradiated samples). A: Electrophoresis agarose gel of plasmid pBR322 (9×10⁻⁵ mol·L⁻¹) with or without CTEAB (5×10⁻⁴ mol·L⁻¹) in 20 mM TRIS/HCI buffer (pH = 7.4). Lane 1: DNA, t = 0 s; lane 2*: DNA, t = 10 min; lanes 3* to 10*: DNA with CTEAB, t = 0 s, 30 s, 1 min, 2 min, 3 min, 5 min, 7 min, and 10 min. B: Single strand break (SSB) ratio for different irradiation times as quantified by photodensitometry.

565 No longer time of irradiation was used because of the appearance of secondary DNA 566 strand breaks and the formation of pBR322 plasmid DNA linear form (data not show).

Control UVA irradiation of DNA alone also shows SSB damage that increase with 567 irradiation time, but twice less than in the lipoplex (see agarose gel and 568 569 photodensitometry quantification in the Supporting Information). DNA damage by UVA light were already described in the literature and different hypothesis were made 570 571 to explain how DNA can be cleaved by UVA radiation whereas the nucleotides do not absorb at these wavelengths.^{11,67–69} It has been shown that DNA solution presents a 572 slight and broad absorbance band in UVA range which could be enough to induce 573 574 UVA deterioration of DNA.^{11,67} Recently, Markovitsi implied the existence of "collective" excited states in UVA photon absorption by DNA and speculated that 575 condensed DNA enhanced the collective character of electronic excitations.⁶⁹ The 576 577 CTEAB lipoplex made with the plasmid DNA pBR322 raises significantly the SSB ratio. The effect of the compaction of DNA induced by CTEAB could explain the 578 579 increase of the DNA cleavage in the presence of surfactant. Indeed, Merindol and al. have shown the appearance of an absorption band on UVA wavelengths when DNA 580 was aggregated by temperature.⁷⁰ To confirm this hypothesis, UV spectrum of the 581 582 CTEAB-DNA complex was performed (see Supporting Information): a UVA absorption band appears in the presence of CTEAB. However, as the solution is 583 turbid, the light scattering produced by the colloidal dispersion of the lipoplexes 584 585 contributes to the UV-Vis spectrum and does not allow to differentiate the absorbance of the lipoplex from the scattering and to quantify each contribution. 586

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The effect of the CTEAB concentration on the DNA photodamage was also studied and the irradiation time was fixed to 10 min. Indeed, this time allows to see well the formation of SSB while avoiding overbreaks. The CTEAB concentration range was from 0 to 7×10^{-4} mol·L⁻¹ and corresponds to the lanes 2* to 9* on the

electrophoresis agarose gel shown in figure 11A. In figure 11B, the enhancement of
the SSB ratio is shown with the increase of the CTEAB concentration.



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Figure 11. DNA cleavage for different CTEAB concentrations for 10 min irradiation at $\lambda \ge 335$ nm and 20°C (* indicates the irradiated samples). A: Electrophoresis agarose gel of plasmid pBR322 (9×10⁻⁵ mol·L⁻¹) in 20 mM TRIS/HCl buffer (pH = 7.4). Lane 1: DNA alone without irradiation; lanes 2* to 10*: DNA with CTEAB irradiated, [CTEAB] = 0, 1×10⁻⁵; 5×10⁻⁵; 1×10⁻⁴; 2×10⁻⁴; $3×10^{-4}$; $5×10^{-4}$; $7×10^{-4}$ mol·L¹. B: Single strand break (SSB) ratio for different CTEAB concentrations.

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Two distinct behaviors may be highlighted. For $[CTEAB] \le 1 \times 10^{-4} \text{ mol} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$, singlestrand breaks increase linearly with CTEAB concentration. Higher concentrations give rise to a second comportment which is not linear. The switch between these two
 regimes occurs at the characteristic phase transition shown above and corresponding
 to the full compaction of DNA by CTEAB.

608 Complementary experiments were undertaken to investigate the mechanism 609 involved on the DNA damage formed during UVA irradiation of the CTEAB-DNA 610 lipoplex.

One well-known damage induces by UVA irradiation of DNA is the formation of 611 612 cyclobutane pyrimidine dimer (CPD)^{11,71} and T4 endonuclease V is commonly used to detect CPD in UV irradiated DNA. Indeed, the presence of CPD on the supercoiled 613 circular double-strand DNA induced a selective single-strand DNA scission by the 614 DNA repair enzyme. The plasmid circular form (Form II) appears and can be 615 revealed by agarose gel electrophoresis and quantified by photodensitometry as 616 617 shown in Figure 12. DNA alone was treated with the phage T4 endonuclease V 618 enzyme before and after 10 min of irradiation at $\lambda \ge 335$ nm (lanes 2 and 9^{*}, Figure 619 12A). The enzymatic treatment reveals, by the AP-lyase activity of the T4 620 endonuclease V, the presence of abasic lesion on native plasmid DNA without irradiation (lane 2). When the DNA is irradiated and treated with T4 endonuclease 621 (lane 9^{*}), a significantly increase of the single-strand breaks is obtained. This is not 622 623 due to the formation of the CPD mediated by UVA radiation, but to the photooxidized 624 ones. Indeed, the SSB ratio with enzymatic treatment corresponds to the addition of the native damage in DNA (lane 2) and the photooxidized damage of irradiated DNA 625 alone (lane 8*). 626

For the CTEAB-DNA lipoplex sample without irradiation and after T4 treatment (lane
7), the SSB ratio obtained is lower than DNA alone in the same condition (lane 2).
The abasic lesions present in native DNA seem to be no revealed by the T4 enzyme

in presence of CTEAB surfactant. It could be due to the quenching of the T4 enzyme 630 activity by CTEAB itself or that the enzyme doesn't have access to the lesions 631 present on the non-irradiated compacted CTEAB-DNA lipoplex. But when the 632 CTEAB-DNA lipoplex is irradiated and treated with the T4 endonuclease (lane 14*), 633 single strand breaks are obtained. As for DNA alone, the observed damage 634 635 enhancement corresponds to the accumulation of the photooxidized damage due to the CTEAB-DNA irradiation (lane 10*) and the abasic native DNA lesions (lane 2). On 636 637 the irradiated sample, the T4 enzyme seems to have access again to the DNA damage. Our hypothesis is that the enzyme doesn't have access to the DNA 638 because of its compaction in the non-irradiated CTEAB-DNA complex and that the 639 photodegradation of the CTEAB-DNA complex induces a partial decompaction, 640 enough to give back DNA accessible to the T4 enzyme. 641



Figure 12. DNA cleavage for 10 min of irradiation at $\lambda \ge 335$ nm and 20°C with 643 CTEAB (5×10⁻⁴ mol·L⁻¹) and NaN₃ (200×10⁻³ mol·L⁻¹), [†]BuOH (4% v/v), in D₂O (80% 644 v/v) or phage T4 endonuclease V treatment (T4) (* indicates the irradiated 645 samples). A: Electrophoresis agarose gel of plasmid pBR322 (9×10⁻⁵ mol·L⁻¹) in 646 20 mM TRIS/HCI buffer (pH = 7.4). Lanes 1 and 8*: DNA alone; lanes 2 and 9*: 647 DNA + T4; lanes 3 and 10*: DNA + CTEAB; lanes 4 and 11*: DNA +CTEAB + 648 NaN₃; lanes 5 and 12*: DNA +CTEAB + ^tBuOH; lanes 6 and 13*: DNA +CTEAB in 649 D₂O; lanes 7 and 14*: DNA +CTEAB + T4. B: Single strand break (SSB) ratio of 650 CTEAB-DNA lipoplex ± NaN₃, ^tBuOH, D₂O or T4 with and without irradiation. 651

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653 To go further on the study of the mechanism involved in the formation of SSB, peculiar scavengers have been used. CTEAB-DNA lipoplex was first irradiated in 654 presence of sodium azide NaN₃ (lane 11^{*}), a well-known singlet oxygen guencher.⁷² 655 Under irradiation, the single-strand break ratio drops in presence of NaN₃ (Figure 656 12B). It means that the singlet oxygen is involved on the oxidized damage. To 657 658 confirm it, the CTEAB-DNA lipoplex solution was also prepared in D₂O TRIS/DCI 659 buffer and irradiated for 10 min (lane 13*). Indeed, D₂O increases the life time of the singlet oxygen,^{73,74} and as expected an enhancement of SSB ratio is obtained (lane 660 661 13^{*}). These results highlight the involvement of a type II mechanism by energy transfer from the DNA molecule itself, acting as a chromophore,⁷⁵ to the ground state 662 of the molecular oxygen to produce the singlet oxygen responsible of these direct 663 oxidized photodamage under UVA radiation. Finally, the lipoplex irradiation was 664 performed with 4 % of tert-butanol (^tBuOH, lane 12^{*}), as a OH radical scavenger.^{76,77} 665 No decrease of the SSB ratio is observable in the presence of ^tBuOH suggesting the 666

667 non-intervention of the type I mechanism involving hydroxyl radicals in these 668 processes.

In conclusion, UVA irradiation of DNA-CTEAB lipoplex induces the direct formation of
oxidized damage involving singlet oxygen and implementing energy transfer.
However, it does not lead to the formation of CPD. The compaction of the plasmid
pBR322 by the positive CTEAB surfactant is probably the cause of the increase in
photooxidized DNA damage.

675

676 **4. Conclusion**

677 Cationic surfactants or polymers have been shown to be efficient complexing agents and transporters of DNA to cells. In this study, CTEAB surfactant was used to 678 679 complex a DNA model, the plasmid pBR322. The self-organization properties of the 680 CTEAB were studied by different physico-chemical characterizations (tensiometry, 681 pyrene fluorimetry and scattering experiments). Results show that CTEAB molecules form small spherical and highly hydrated micelles in TRIS/HCI buffer solution. The 682 study of the interactions between CTEAB and plasmid DNA has highlighted different 683 phases, the DNA neutralization, the gradual until the full DNA compaction and the 684 685 decompaction process of DNA. Furthermore, formulated CTEAB-DNA lipoplexes were irradiated under UVA light. With the increase of the irradiation time and of the 686 687 CTEAB concentration, an increase of DNA damage was observed. The involvement 688 of singlet oxygen has been shown to be responsible for these damage. The 689 compaction of DNA by CTEAB may be the cause of the increase in photooxidized 690 DNA damage. This study has investigated the DNA compaction by the cationic 691 surfactant CTEAB and pointed out its role on DNA photodamage under UVA irradiation. Further work is currently under progress to show what could be the effect 692 693 of adding anti-oxidant drug such as vitamin E on the photodamage observed in this 694 system.

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