

ethylating intermediates or by the formation of the nasal carcinogens acetaldehyde [16] or ethylene seems possible.

Acknowledgements—This work was supported by progetto Finalizzato "Oncologia" of C.N.R.

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Gonadotropin-dependent metabolism of 7,12-dimethylbenz(a)anthracene in the ovary of rhesus monkey

(Received 12 October 1988; accepted 10 January 1989)

7,12-Dimethylbenz(a)anthracene (DMBA)* is a potent inducer of skin and breast tumors in the rat. This compound affects several steroidogenic organs in another way. DMBA causes necrosis in the two inner zones of the rat adrenal cortex [1] and in the germinal epithelial cells in the seminiferous tubuli of the testis [2] in this same animal. The adrenal necrosis is dependent on the presence of a fully functional pituitary gland, probably related to ACTH-

induced maturity of the middle layer of the adrenal cortex and does not occur in immature animals [3].

Cell death caused by DMBA treatment may be prevented by coadministration of certain inhibitors and inducers of cytochrome P-450 [4]. Antioxidants also prevent this cytotoxicity partially, as well as preventing the extensive cytotoxic effect of 7-hydroxymethyl-12-methylbenz(a)anthracene in rat adrenal cell cultures [5], suggesting the involvement of a peroxidative mechanism, generating reactive oxygen, in the development of cellular necrosis. In addition, covalent binding of DMBA-metabolites to adrenal microsomal protein was increased 7-fold in the presence of peroxidase, indicating that, using endogenous hydrogen peroxide, peroxidases may activate

* Abbreviations used: ACTH, adrenocorticotrophic hormone; DMBA, 7,12-dimethylbenz(a)anthracene; Hepes, *N*-2-hydroxy-ethylpiperazin-*N*-2-ethane sulfonic acid; PAH, polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons; PMSG, pregnant mare's serum gonadotropin.

polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAH) by one electron oxidation [6]. In rat testis microsomes, addition of exogenous peroxidase increased covalent binding of DMBA metabolites to protein 3-fold, a process which was inactivated by cytochrome P-450 inhibitors [7]. In the testis spermatogenic cells active in DNA-synthesis are the target for cellular destruction by DMBA [2, 3]. These cells lack DMBA monooxygenase activity, suggesting that reactive metabolites are produced by cytochrome P-450-containing Leydig cells, whereafter these metabolites redistribute into the tubuli cells [8].

In addition to its effects on the adrenal cortex, DMBA treatment caused similar cell destruction in the rat ovarian corpus luteum, where the necrosis was restricted to the most recently formed corpora lutea, derived from the previous ovulation [9]. Necrosis appeared only in those animals which were in the proestrus or estrus stages of the estrus cycle [9], when the level of gonadotropins is elevated [10, 11]. In ovaries of mice the major target for the cytotoxic action of DMBA was shown to be the primordial oocytes [12, 13], whereas the same cells in rat ovaries were less sensitive [12]. Together, the effects on the germ cells in the male and the oocytes or ovarian lutein cells in the female caused by exposure to DMBA and to other PAH are likely to result in decreased fertility in both sexes in a species- and strain-dependent manner [14].

Although PAH (e.g. DMBA, benzo(a)pyrene and 3-methylcholanthrene) require metabolic activation in order to produce oocyte toxicity, there is no relationship between the rate of PAH metabolism by ovarian microsomes and oocyte destruction following administration by intra-peritoneal injection [14]. However, upon intraovarian injection of benzo(a)pyrene, which does not cause oocyte toxicity unless it is metabolized, metabolism in the ovary itself was shown to produce the ovotoxic metabolites [15]. Primordial oocyte toxicity has been shown to be blocked by simultaneous administration of the cytochrome P-450 inhibitor α -naphthoflavone [16]. Hence, cytochrome P-450-dependent monooxygenase activities located in the ovary [17, 18] which are under endogenous hormonal regulation in the rat [19, 20], are proposed to play an important role in the cytotoxic and genotoxic effects of PAH within the ovarian tissue.

In human ovaries the level of DMBA monooxygenase activity was shown to be maximal in follicular granulosa cells from women prestimulated *in vivo* with gonadotropin and, in the case of unstimulated ovaries, in the granulosa-lutein cells, which differentiate from follicular granulosa following ovulation [21]. The present study concerns the corresponding localization of cytochrome P-450-dependent DMBA monooxygenase(s) in a non-human primate. The monkey model provides a good complement to studies with ovarian tissue from man and rat. *In vivo* treatment with various inducers and effectors are possible to perform with this model and, in contrast to the situation in rat, different structures of ovarian tissue can easily be obtained in appropriate quantities.

The metabolism of DMBA in primary cultures of rhesus monkey ovarian cells was investigated with special reference to the consequences of unilateral intraovarian injection of gonadotropin (PMSG) and, thus, the hormonal requirements for biotransformation of this particular carcinogen.

Materials and methods

Treatment of monkeys *in vivo* with PMSG. Two sexually mature rhesus monkeys (National Center for Toxicological Research, AR) received intraovarian injections of 200 i.u. PMSG (Sigma Chemical Co., St Louis, MO) in 0.3 ml saline unilaterally and an equal volume of saline in the other ovary under anesthesia 48 hr prior to ovariectomy. Both individuals were in the proliferative phase (days 6 and 3) of their menstrual cycles at the time of PMSG treatment.

Cell isolation. Following collection, the ovarian tissue was sliced with a pair of scissors and treated with a suspension of collagenase (2.5 mg/ml, Worthington CLS II) and DNase (50 μ g/ml, Sigma) in phosphate-buffered saline containing 0.2% glucose and 0.5% bovine serum albumin, as described before for human samples [21]. Culture Medium 199 (with Earle's Unmodified Salts, L-glutamine, and without NaHCO_3 , containing 10 mM Hepes (N-2-hydroxy-ethylpiperazin-N'-2-ethane sulphonic acid), 4 mM NaHCO_3 , 6 mM NaCl, 5% foetal calf serum and gentamicin (50 mg/l) was used. All solutions with which the cells had contact were checked for pH (7.4) and osmolarity (290 mOsm/l).

Cell survival was monitored by Trypan blue exclusion in a haemocytometer.

After filtration on a 100 μ m nylon filter, the cells were placed on top of a discontinuous Percoll gradient ranging from 20–70% isosmotic Percoll in phosphate-buffered saline. Centrifugation at 400 g_{av} for 20 min resulted in the appearance of two or three bands at the different interphases.

Measurements of DMBA monooxygenase activity. Cells from separate bands were put onto culture plates at a density of 50,000 cells/well with 0.5 ml Hepes-buffered culture Medium 199 (Gibco) containing 5% fetal calf serum. Cultures were left to establish for 16 hr prior to addition of [G - 3H]-DMBA (46 Curies/mmol) (Amersham, U.K.) (5 μ M final concentration) in fresh medium, as described earlier [21]. Incubations were terminated after 7 hr by addition of 2 vol. of 0.15 M KOH–85% DMSO to 1 vol. of culture medium. Unmetabolized substrate was subsequently extracted with 8 vol. *n*-hexane and DMBA monooxygenase activity was determined according to van Cantfort *et al.* [22].

Ovarian cells from untreated Sprague–Dawley rats, isolated in parallel, were used as a control.

Results

Cell separation on Percoll gradients. The distribution of monkey ovarian cells dispersed with collagenase on the Percoll gradient is shown in Table 1. Most of the cells from all samples were recovered at the interphase between 30 and 50% Percoll ($\rho = 1.040$ – 1.064 g/ml). 2–2.5 times as many cells (6 – 14×10^6 viable cells) were recovered from the hormone-treated ovaries.

Table 1. Distribution of cells from the untreated and PMSG-treated ovaries of rhesus monkeys on the discontinuous Percoll gradient

Ovarian tissue	Distribution (% of the total cells recovered) at the interphase between		
	20/30	30/50	50/60
% Percoll (iso-osm)			
Monkey I			
untreated	5	95	0
PMSG-treated	<1	80	21
Monkey II			
untreated	26	74	<1
PMSG-treated	<1	98	2
Rat	22	78	<1

Dispersed cell preparations from four monkey ovaries were separated on Percoll gradients. The values represent the distribution of cells at the different interphases, expressed as percent of the total viable cells recovered. The distribution of rat ovarian cells in the same system is shown for comparison.

Effect of in vivo treatment with PMSG on DMBA monooxygenase activity in cell cultures. Cells isolated from the untreated monkey ovaries did not metabolize DMBA to any significant degree in the present investigation. However, in both monkeys cells from the gonadotropin-treated ovaries demonstrated a capacity to metabolize DMBA (Table 2). The bulk of this activity was exhibited by those cells recovered at the interphase between 30 and 50% Percoll. In the corresponding band of rat ovarian cells, DMBA metabolism occurred at an even higher rate (Table 2).

Discussion

The present results demonstrate that the increase in DMBA monooxygenase activity in primary cultures of human ovarian cells prepared after gonadotropin stimulation *in vivo* [21] is also observed in another primate, i.e. the rhesus monkey. However, the monkey cell fraction exhibiting DMBA metabolism migrated to a higher density on the Percoll gradient than did the corresponding human fraction. The metabolically active monkey ovarian cells were recovered at the same density as human theca cells [21]. Further morphological investigations are required to characterize the different ovarian cell types and to conclude whether the same cell type from different species will migrate differently on the gradient.

In the untreated ovaries examined in this study, no DMBA metabolism could be detected. In addition, ovarian cells obtained from the untreated rat ovary and recovered at the same interphase on the Percoll gradient accounted for 97% of the total DMBA monooxygenase activity measured.

The localization of and hormonal effects on PAH-metabolizing enzymes is likely to be an important parameter in the generation of cytotoxic and genotoxic effects, such as sterility or decreased fertility, teratogenicity and cancer [14, 23–26]. An early study performed by Ford and Huggins [2] on the effect of DMBA administration on female reproduction in rats demonstrated a 14% decrease in the number of pups delivered in the treated group. This decrease in offspring may be due to corpus luteum deficiency. Luteal

phase defects have been suggested as one cause of human infertility [27]. DMBA administration 16 days prior to breeding, as performed in the study with rats, is too short a period to reflect oocyte destruction, since in the rat a preovulatory follicle chosen to ovulate is recruited from the pool of small preantral follicles at least 19 days earlier [28]. However, the preovulatory or growing follicles may also be affected. In addition, steroid metabolism may be altered. Moreover, hyperstimulation with gonadotropin brings about enlargement of rat ovaries, which become cystic [3]. In women an increased incidence of ovarian tumors is positively correlated with, for example, pituitary hyperstimulation in menopause [23] and clinical gonadotropin therapy [29, 30]. This tumor formation is not due to activation of exogenously administered hydrocarbons, but the rate of formation and incidence is probably increased in the presence of such compounds [cf. 31].

The present investigation confirms our earlier studies on the potentiating effect of gonadotropins on ovarian cytochrome P-450-dependent PAH metabolism [18–20], demonstrating a similar increase in activity in man and rhesus monkey, after *in vivo* stimulation.

Acknowledgements—The authors thank Mr John Bailey for excellent performance of the operations on the rhesus monkeys. The research visit by Margot Bengtsson was supported by the Swedish Council for Planning and Coordination of Research. This study was part of the project entitled "The development of ovarian toxicity screening methods: Studies on the classification of ovarian follicles as an indication of ovarian toxicity" headed by D. R. Mattison.

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Table 2. DMBA monooxygenase activity in primary cultures of cells from the untreated and PMSG-treated ovaries of rhesus monkeys

Ovarian tissue	DMBA-monooxygenase activity (pmol/h × 10 ⁶ cells)* at the interphase between		
	20/30	30/50	50/60
% Percoll (iso-osm)			
Monkey I			
untreated	<5	<5	ND
PMSG-treated	ND	52.6 ± 4.98	6.53 ± 1.02
Monkey II			
untreated	<5	<5	ND
PMSG-treated	ND	153 ± 15.7	ND
Rat	30.5 ± 2.91	258 ± 32.7	ND

Activities were determined in primary cultures of ovarian cells recovered at the interphases indicated. For details, cf. Methods. The metabolism in rat ovarian cultures is shown for comparison.

* Mean ± SD from quadruplicate determinations.

ND = not determined.

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6-Hydroxydopamine toxicity to dopamine neurons in culture: potentiation by the addition of superoxide dismutase and N-acetylcysteine

(Received 17 August 1988; accepted 12 December 1988)

6-Hydroxydopamine (6OHDA) is a neurotoxin specific for catecholamine neurons of both the central and the peripheral nervous systems. There is strong evidence that 6OHDA neurotoxicity is correlated with its property to auto-oxidize rapidly at neutral pH and produce H₂O₂ and hydroxyl and superoxide radicals [1,2]. The binding of

quinones, formed during the auto-oxidation of 6OHDA, to proteins could also be contributing to the cytotoxicity of 6OHDA [3].

Cysteine and its derivative, N-acetylcysteine (NAC), are therapeutic agents that are widely used because of their antioxidant properties and ability to restore hepatic