

CATALYSIS OF NITROFURAN REDOX-CYCLING AND SUPEROXIDE ANION PRODUCTION BY HEART LIPOAMIDE DEHYDROGENASE*

CLAUDIA M. SREIDER,† LEA GRINBLAT and ANDRÉS O. M. STOPPANI‡§

Centro de Investigaciones Bioenergéticas, Facultad de Medicina, 1121-Buenos Aires, Argentina

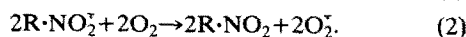
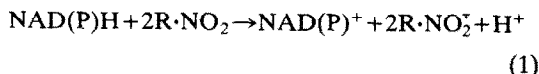
(Received 27 December 1989; accepted 11 May 1990)

Abstract—Heart lipoamide dehydrogenase (LADH) catalyzed redox-cycling and O_2^- production by (5-nitro-2-furfurylidene)amino derivatives using NADH as electron donor. NADH was a much more effective electron donor than NADPH for the nitroreductase activity. O_2^- production was demonstrated by cytochrome *c* reduction, adrenochrome formation and the effect of superoxide dismutase. Under optimum conditions, nitroreductase activity was about 1% of LADH activity. One electron oxygen reduction and NADH oxidation correlated in 2:1 stoichiometry. The nitroreductase kinetics was in accordance with an ordered bi-bi mechanism. Nitrofurans derivatives bearing unsaturated five- or six-membered nitrogen heterocycles were more effective substrates than those bearing other groups, namely nifurtimox, nitrofurazone, nitrofurantoin and 5-nitro-2-furoic acid. Other nitro compounds (chloramphenicol, benzimidazole, 2-nitroimidazole and 5-nitroindole) were ineffective. With the triazole, triazine and imidazole nitrofurans derivatives, the nitroreductase pH curve showed a maximum at pH 8.8, different from the pH optimum for the lipoamide reductase and diaphorase activities. Spectroscopic observations demonstrated pH-dependent structural changes in the triazole(I) and triazine derivatives which would affect their behavior as nitroreductase substrates. The nitroreductase activity was inhibited by *p*-chloromercuribenzoate and enhanced by cadmium and arsenite, whereas the NADH-induced LADH inactivation failed to affect the nitroreductase activity. In the absence of oxygen, LADH catalyzed nitrofurans reduction to products more reduced than the nitroanion, which were not reoxidized by oxygen. The anaerobic nitrofurans reduction was inhibited by cadmium and arsenite. The assayed nitrofurans compounds did not inhibit LADH lipoamide reductase activity, at variance with their action on glutathione reductase (Grinblat *et al.*, *Biochem Pharmacol* 38: 767–772, 1989).

Lipoamide dehydrogenase (NADH-lipoamide oxidoreductase, EC 1.6.4.3; LADH||) is a multifunctional enzyme which catalyzes NADH-linked lipoamide reductase, nicotinamide transhydrogenase, inorganic electron transferase and quinone diaphorase reactions [1–3]. The enzyme can also reduce aromatic nitro compounds as demonstrated with several nitro-

furans derivatives [4], nitropyridine and nitropyridine-*N*-oxide [5]. LADH nitroreductase activity is, however, a scarcely investigated subject, as compared with the reaction catalyzed by other flavoenzymes such as NADPH-cytochrome P450 reductase [6], xanthine oxidase [6], the respiratory redox chain NADH-dehydrogenase [7] and the mitochondrial outer membrane cytochrome *b₅* reductase [8].

A characteristic feature of many nitroheterocyclic compounds ($R \cdot NO_2$) is their capability for redox-cycling [6, 9–12] as described by Reactions 1 and 2, where



$R \cdot NO_2^-$ is the nitroanion and O_2^- the superoxide anion radical. In the present study, we demonstrate that porcine heart LADH catalyzed redox-cycling and O_2^- production by several nitrofurans derivatives of medical interest, namely, nitrofurantoin, nitrofurazone, nifurtimox and related compounds [13] (Fig. 1). Nifurtimox is the nitrofurans used for the treatment of American trypanosomiasis (Chagas' disease). Our results establish a significant difference between LADH and glutathione reductase (NAD(P)H:glutathione disulfide oxidoreductase, EC 1.6.4.2), another FAD-containing dehydrogenase, which is inhibited by 5-nitrofurans derivatives but fails to catalyze the latter redox-cycling [14–19].

* This paper is dedicated to Professor G. B. Marini Bettolo on the occasion of his 75th birthday.

† Research Fellow, Consejo Nacional de Investigaciones Científicas y Técnicas, Argentina.

‡ Career Investigator, Consejo Nacional de Investigaciones Científicas y Técnicas, Argentina.

§ Address correspondence to: Professor A. O. M. Stoppani, Centro de Investigaciones Bioenergéticas, Facultad de Medicina, Paraguay 2155, 1121-Buenos Aires, Argentina.

|| Abbreviations and chemical terms: LADH, lipoamide dehydrogenase; NF, (5-nitro-2-furfurylidene)amino; nifurtimox, 3-methyl-4-[NF]-tetrahydro-4*H*-thiazine-1,1'-dioxide; NF-triazole, 4-[NF]-1,2,4-triazole; NF-pyrazole, 1-[NF]-pyrazole; NF-benzimidazole, 1-[NF]-benzimidazole; NF-imidazole, 1-[NF]-imidazole; NF-triazole(I), 3,5-bis(methylthio)-4-[NF]-1,2,4-triazole; NF-triazine, 3-thioxo-4-[NF]-6-methyl-1,2,4-triazin-5-one; nitrofurantoin, 1[[[5-nitro-2-furanyl)methylene]-amino]-2,4-imidazolidine-dione; nitrofurazone, 5-nitro-2-furaldehyde semicarbazone; benzimidazole, *N*-benzyl-2-nitro-1-imidazoleacetamide; DMFA, dimethylformamide; DCI, dichlorophenol-indophenol; CMB, *p*-chloromercuribenzoate; and SOD, superoxide dismutase.

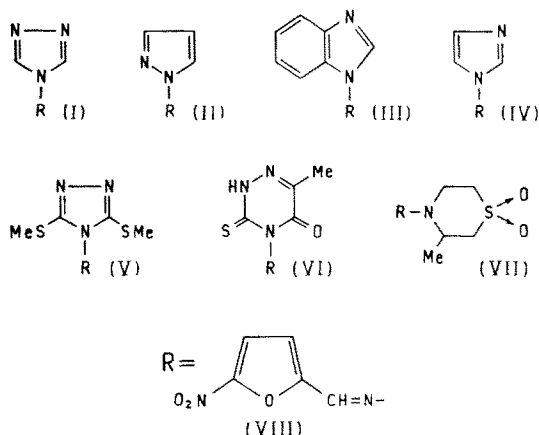


Fig. 1. Structures of LADH nitrofuran electron acceptors. Each compound consists of moieties A (structures I–VII) and B (structure VIII). (I) 4R-1,2,4-triazole; (II) 1R-pyrazole; (III) 1R-benzimidazole; (IV) 1R-imidazole; (V) 3,5-bis(methylthio)-4R-1,2,4-triazole; (VI) 3-thioxo-4R-6-methyl-1,2,4-triazin-5-one; (VII) 3-methyl-4R-tetrahydro-4H-thiazine-1,1'-dioxide; and (VIII) (5-nitro-2-furfurylidene)amino (R or NF in the text).

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Materials. Porcine heart LADH (Type III), DL-6,8-thioctic acid amide (lipoamide), NAD⁺, NADH, dichlorophenol-indophenol (DCI), cytochrome *c* Type VI, epinephrine, catalase (from bovine liver), glucose oxidase (Type X), glucose, microperoxidase MP-11, *p*-chloromercuribenzoate (CMB), NaBH₃, EDTA, nitrofurazone, nitrofurantoin, superoxide dismutase (SOD, from bovine erythrocytes) and dimethylformamide (DMFA) were purchased from the Sigma Chemical Co. (St. Louis, MO, U.S.A.). The specific activity of the original LADH preparations ranged from 115 to 150 units/mg protein (NADH-lipoamide assay), but storage of diluted enzyme solutions at 5° produced somewhat lower activities (down to 80 units/mg protein). Nifurtimox was obtained from Bayer (Leverkusen, F.R.G.); NF-triazole, NF-pyrazole, NF-benzimidazole, NF-imidazole, NF-triazole(I) and NF-triazine were synthesized by Mester *et al.* [13] and supplied by Dr. R. Claramunt, University of Madrid, Spain. Benzimidazole was obtained from Hoffmann-LaRoche, Basle, Switzerland. NaAsO₂ and CdCl₂ were purchased from Mallinckrodt Chemical Works (New York, U.S.A.) and May & Baker (Dagenham, U.K.), respectively. Dihydrolipoamide was prepared from DL-lipoamide by NaBH₃ reduction, as described [20]. Its purity was determined spectrophotometrically at 340 nm, using 0.3 µg LADH/mL and 1.0 mM NAD⁺, as described below. Other reagents were as described in Ref. 19.

Enzyme assays. Nitroreductase activity was measured at 30°, by the rate of (a) NADH-oxidation (Reaction 1) or (b) O₂⁻ production (Reaction 2). The rate of NADH-oxidation was measured spectrophotometrically at 340 nm, using an Aminco 2DWTM UV/VIS spectrophotometer. Unless stated otherwise, the reaction mixture contained 1.0 µg LADH/

mL, the nitrofuran compound, 0.1 mM NADH and 50 mM KH₂PO₄–K₂HPO₄, pH 7.4; total volume, 3.0 mL. The reaction was started by adding the enzyme. The reference cuvette contained the corresponding concentration of nitrofuran compound in potassium-phosphate buffer. The nitrofuran compound was added in 10–30 µL DMFA, at the concentrations stated in Results. O₂⁻ production was measured by either the cytochrome *c* [21] or the adrenochrome method [22, 23]. Unless stated otherwise, the reaction mixture contained 0.16 to 1.0 µg LADH/mL, 0.1 mM NADH, 50 mM KH₂PO₄–K₂HPO₄, pH 7.4, and either 16 µM cytochrome *c* (cytochrome *c* method) or 1.0 mM epinephrine (adrenochrome method); total volume, 3.0 mL. The reaction was started by adding the nitrofuran compound. Other experimental conditions were as described above. Cytochrome *c* reduction was measured at 550–540 nm ($\epsilon = 19 \text{ mM}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$) and adrenochrome formation at 485–575 nm ($\epsilon = 2.97 \text{ mM}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$). The spectrophotometric measurements were performed with the Aminco–Chance spectrophotometer, at 30°. O₂⁻ production values were subtracted from the experimental values before the nitrofuran addition. When the effect of CdCl₂ on O₂⁻ production was measured, 80 mM Tris–HCl, pH 7.6, 0.1 mM EDTA replaced the potassium-phosphate buffer. H₂O₂ generation was measured by the microperoxidase method [24], at 419–407 nm ($\epsilon = 78 \text{ mM}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$). The reaction mixture contained 0.1 mM NADH, 50 mM KH₂PO₄–K₂HPO₄, pH 7.4, 3.3 µM microperoxidase and 3.6 to 22 µg LADH/mL.

LADH activity was measured by (a) the rate of NADH-oxidation using lipoamide as electron acceptor, or (b) the rate of NAD⁺ reduction using dihydrolipoamide as electron donor. The reaction mixtures contained 50 mM KH₂PO₄–K₂HPO₄, pH 7.4, 0.1 to 0.4 µg LADH/mL and either 0.2 mM NADH and 1.0 mM lipoamide or 1.0 mM NAD⁺ and 1.0 mM dihydrolipoamide, as substrates; total volume, 3.0 mL. NADH concentration in the reaction mixture was measured at 340 nm using the Perkin–Elmer 550S UV/VIS spectrophotometer, at 30°. When the effect of CdCl₂ on NADH oxidation was measured, 80 mM Tris–HCl, pH 7.6, and 0.1 mM EDTA replaced the potassium-phosphate buffer.

Diaphorase activity was measured by the rate of DCI reduction, using NADH as electron donor. The reaction mixture contained 0.2 mM NADH, 0.4 µg LADH/mL, 40 µM DCI, 50 mM potassium-phosphate buffer, at pH 7.4 or at the pH values indicated in Results. DCI reduction was measured spectrophotometrically at 600 nm ($\epsilon = 19 \text{ mM}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$) and 30°, using a Perkin–Elmer 550S UV/VIS spectrophotometer. When the SH-reagents were assayed, the reaction mixture contained 50 mM KH₂PO₄–K₂HPO₄, pH 7.4, 1.0 mM EDTA (in CMB experiment), or 50 mM KH₂PO₄–K₂HPO₄, pH 7.4, 0.1 mM EDTA (in NaAsO₂ experiment), or 80 mM Tris–HCl buffer, pH 7.6, 0.1 mM EDTA (in CdCl₂ experiment). In all assays with SH-reagents, samples were preincubated for 7 min (experiments with CMB) or for 2 min (experiments with NaAsO₂ and CdCl₂), before starting the reaction with NADH; total volume of the reaction mixture, 3.0 mL. CMB,

NaAsO₂ and CdCl₂ were added at the concentrations stated in Results.

Absorption spectra. These were obtained with the Aminco 2DWTM UV/VIS spectrophotometer.

Permeabilized mitochondria. Rat liver mitochondria were prepared by standard methods [25] using 0.25 M sucrose, 5.0 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.4, 1.0 mM EDTA as homogenization medium. After centrifugation at 6000 g, the pellet was suspended in 20 mM KH₂PO₄-K₂HPO₄, pH 7.4, Triton X-100 (1%, v/v) and frozen-thawed three times. Protein was determined by the biuret method [26].

Expression of results. The results presented are averages of duplicate measurements. Experimental values deviated from the mean value by less than 5%.

RESULTS

As shown in Table 1, LADH catalyzed NF-benzimidazol, NF-pyrazole and NF-imidazole redox-cycling, in accordance with Reactions 1 and 2. O₂⁻ production was demonstrated by cytochrome *c* reduction, adrenochrome formation and superoxide dismutase effect. Measurements of H₂O₂ production under similar experimental conditions yielded negative results (experimental data omitted). Figure 2 shows the effect of increasing concentrations of LADH on the rate of NADH oxidation, using NF-triazole(I) as the electron acceptor. The nitroreductase activity was linearly related to the enzyme concentration, the molecular activity (200 mol NADH/min) being about 1.4% of the lipoamide reductase activity (1.4 × 10⁴ mol NADH/min). In the absence of lipoamide and nitrofuran, NADH oxidation rate was about 3% of the nitrofuran-induced rate, the unstimulated molecular activity being 6 mol NADH/min. Therefore, NF-triazole(I) produced a 33-fold increase of the latter activity.

Figure 3 shows the effect of increasing NF-triazole concentrations on the rate of NADH-oxidation, at a fixed concentration of NADH, whereas the figure

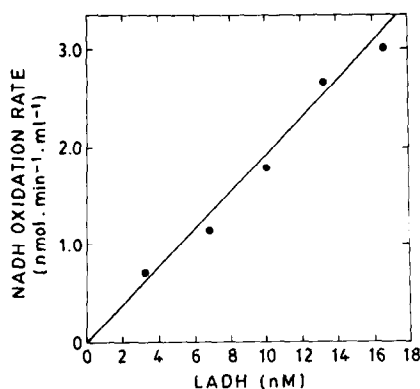


Fig. 2. Effect of LADH concentration on NADH oxidation at fixed NADH and NF-triazole(I) concentrations. The reaction mixture contained 0.1 mM NADH, 100 μ M NF-triazole(I), 50 mM KH₂PO₄-K₂HPO₄, pH 7.4, and LADH as indicated on the abscissa. The reaction velocity was measured by the rate of NADH oxidation. Other experimental conditions were as indicated in Materials and Methods. Values include the unstimulated NADH-oxidation rate: 4.0 mol NADH/min/mol LADH.

inset shows the effect of increasing concentrations of NADH on O₂⁻ production, at a fixed concentration of NF-triazole(I). Hyperbolic curves were obtained in both cases, in accordance with Michaelian kinetics.

Table 2 data show the influence of the nitrofuran group counterpart on the activity of the whole molecule. Compounds were assayed for (a) O₂⁻ generation, (b) NADH oxidation, and (c) dihydrolipoamide oxidation by NAD⁺. The latter assay was performed using either the purified enzyme or permeabilized mitochondria. The assayed nitrofurans enhanced the rate of O₂⁻ production and NADH oxidation, but they did not affect the rate of dihydrolipoamide oxidation by NAD⁺, irrespective of the enzyme preparation used. The calculated values for the (O₂⁻ production)/(NADH consumption) molar ratio were about 2.0, as was to be expected from the combined operation of Reactions 1 and 2.

Table 1. Effects of NF-benzimidazole, NF-pyrazole and NF-imidazole on LADH-catalyzed O₂⁻ production

Nitrofuran	Concn (μ M)	O ₂ ⁻ assay	SOD (units/mL)	O ₂ ⁻ production ($\frac{\mu\text{mol/min}}{\text{mg LADH}}$)
NF-benzimidazole	50	Cytochrome <i>c</i>	0	2.22
			0.43	1.23 (45)*
			0.86	0.70 (68)
NF-pyrazole	50	Adrenochrome	0	1.40
			0.43	0 (100)
NF-imidazole	100	Adrenochrome	0	2.09
			0.09	0.73 (65)
			0.18	0.43 (79)
			0.30	0 (100)

Experimental conditions were as described in Materials and Methods. The O₂⁻ production values were subtracted from the experimental values before the nitrofuran addition. Control (unstimulated) O₂⁻ production rate was 0.09 ± 0.005 μ mol/min/(mg LADH) (mean ± SE; 14 measurements; cytochrome *c* method).

* Values in parentheses are the percent inhibition of O₂⁻ production

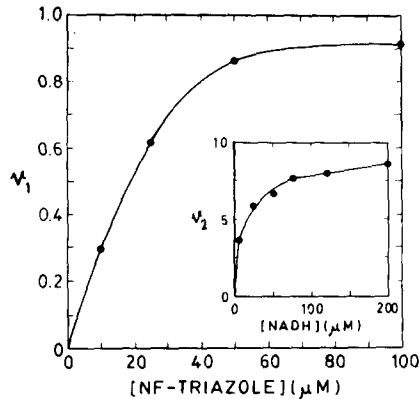


Fig. 3. Effect of NF-triazole concentration on the rate of NADH oxidation at fixed NADH and LADH concentrations. The reaction mixture contained 0.1 mM NADH, 1.0 μg LADH/mL, 50 mM $\text{KH}_2\text{PO}_4\text{--K}_2\text{HPO}_4$, pH 7.4, and NF-triazole as indicated on the abscissa. The reaction velocity was measured by the rate of NADH oxidation (v_1 , $\mu\text{mol}/\text{min}/\text{mg}$ LADH). Inset: Effect of NADH concentration on the rate of O_2^- production at fixed concentrations of NF-triazole(I) (50 μM) and LADH (0.67 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$); 50 mM potassium-phosphate buffer, pH 8.1; NADH concentration as indicated on the abscissa. O_2^- production was measured by the adrenochrome method (v_2 , $\mu\text{mol}/\text{min}/\text{mg}$ LADH). Other experimental conditions were as described in Materials and Methods. Control (unstimulated) NADH oxidation and O_2^- production rates were as given in the legends of Fig. 2 and Table 1 respectively.

Data in Table 2 indicate that the nitrofuran activity was affected by the substituent group, since linkage to an aromatic heterocycle [e.g. triazole(I) or benzimidazole] produced more effective compounds than linkage to 4*H*-thiazine (in nifurtimox), hydrazine carboxamide (in nitrofurazone) or imidazolidine-dione (in nitrofurantoin). Activity differences between compounds were apparent at all concentrations in the 25–200 μM range (results now shown). Under the same experimental conditions,

Table 3. Nitroreductase pyridine-nucleotide specificity

Nitrofuran (100 μM)	O_2^- production ($\mu\text{mol}/\text{min}/\text{mg}$ LADH)	
	NADH	NADPH
NF-triazole(I)	7.15	0.18
NF-pyrazole	3.21	0.12
Nitrofurantoin	1.08	0.20
Nifurtimox	0.96	0

Samples contained 0.1 mM NAD(P)H; O_2^- production was measured by the cytochrome *c* method. Other experimental conditions were as described in Materials and Methods. Control (unstimulated) O_2^- production rate (substrate: NADH) was as given in the legend of Table 1.

other nitro compounds such as chloramphenicol (nitrophenyl derivative), benznidazole, 2-nitroimidazole and 5-nitroindole were ineffective (experimental data omitted). As regards the nitroreductase specificity for pyridine-nucleotides, NADH was a much more effective electron donor than NADPH (Table 3), in good agreement with the lipoamide reductase activity [1, 2].

Figure 4 shows the effect of pH on LADH nitroreductase activity. This latter was determined by O_2^- production, using NF-triazole(I), NF-triazine, NF-imidazole and nifurtimox as electron acceptor. The pH curves for NF-triazole(I), NF-triazine and NF-imidazole showed maxima at about pH 8.8, at variance with the optimal pH (pH 6.5) for lipoamide reductase activity [2]. The pH variation, however, scarcely affected the nifurtimox effect (Fig. 4). These results disagree with the effect of pH on diaphorase activity which, as previously reported [27], exhibited a great increase in activity at acidic pH. Since for most aromatic nitrocompounds the one-electron reduction potential is unchanged between pH 7 and 9 [28], no significant modifications in the reaction of the nitro radical with O_2 may be expected to occur in that pH range. The pH effects observed with NF-

Table 2. Effect of nitrofuran structure on LADH-catalyzed reactions

Nitrofuran (50 μM)	O_2^- generation*		NADH oxidation*	Dihydrolipoamide oxidation	
	Adrenochrome method	Cytochrome <i>c</i> method		LADH*	Mitochondria†
NF-triazole(I)	2.63	2.63	1.36	215	0.65
NF-benzimidazole		1.95			0.68
NF-triazole	1.36	1.69	0.87	209	0.58
NF-pyrazole	1.40	1.38	0.66	212	0.64
Nitrofurazone	0.53	0.50			0.66
Nifurtimox		0.35	0.22	214	0.64
Nitrofurantoin		0.26		218	0.65
5-Nitro-2-furoic acid	0	0			
None				208	0.67

Experimental conditions were as described in Materials and Methods. Control (unstimulated) NADH oxidation rate was 0.04 $\mu\text{mol}/\text{min}/\text{mg}$ LADH (duplicate measurements). Control O_2^- production rate was as given in the legend of Table 1.

* Values are given in $\mu\text{mol}/\text{min}/\text{mg}$ LADH.

† Values are given in $\mu\text{mol}/\text{min}/\text{mg}$ protein.

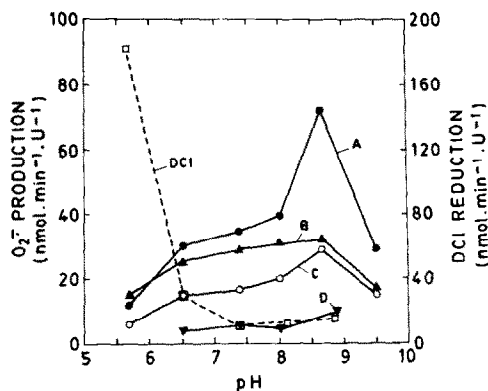


Fig. 4. Effect of pH on LADH-catalyzed nitrofuran redox-cycling. The reaction mixture contained 0.33 μg LADH/mL, 0.1 mM NADH, 50 μM nitrofuran and 50 mM potassium-phosphate buffer; pH was as indicated on the abscissa. O_2^- production was measured by the cytochrome *c* method. The reaction was started by adding the nitrofuran. Key: (A) NF-triazole(I); (B) NF-triazine; (C) NF-imidazole; (D) nifurtimox; and DCI, diaphorase activity. Other experimental conditions were as described in Materials and Methods. O_2^- production is referred to enzyme units, at pH 7.4, since the enzyme preparations used had different lipoamide reductase specific activities.

triazole(I), NF-triazine and NF-imidazole, therefore, may involve other mechanisms, such as variation of the LADH–nitrofuran interaction, depending on the nitrofuran protonation–deprotonation state. This assumption fits in well with the effect of pH on NF-triazole(I) and NF-triazine spectra (Fig. 5), in contrast to the nifurtimox spectrum (not shown), which was not affected by pH variation.

Kinetic parameters for the nitroreductase activity were measured by using NF-triazine as electron

acceptor and according to the following equation:

$$V_0 = \frac{V_{\max}[A][B]}{K_{ia}K_b + K_a[B] + K_b[A] + [A][B]}$$

where V_0 is the initial velocity at given concentrations of *A* (NADH) and *B* (nitrofuran), V_{\max} is the maximal velocity at infinite concentrations of NADH and nitrofuran, K_{ia} is the dissociation constant for NADH, and K_a and K_b are the Michaelis constants for NADH and nitrofuran respectively [29]. The values for kinetic constants were calculated by a computation method [30]. The kinetic data set included 24 points, NADH concentration varying in the 5–100 μM range and NF-triazine concentration in the 25–200 μM range. The double-reciprocal plots of initial velocity were a family of intersecting lines and the corresponding data were fitted to the equation given above. The kinetic parameter values obtained were as follows (mean \pm SE): K_a , $13.4 \pm 3.4 \mu\text{M}$; K_b , $126 \pm 20 \mu\text{M}$; K_{ia} , $22.9 \pm 4.5 \mu\text{M}$; V_{\max} , $5.3 \pm 0.4 \mu\text{mol/min/mg}$ LADH; σ , 0.063 and σ^2 , 0.0039. These results fit in well with the ordered bi–bi reaction mechanism [29, 30].

LADH is inhibited by di- and monothiol reagents, such as arsenite [1, 31–33], cadmium [33, 34] and mercurial compounds [34–36]. To substantiate further the enzyme catalysis of nitrofuran redox-cycling, chemical modification of the enzyme thiols was performed. Table 4 shows that cadmium and arsenite greatly increased nitroreductase activity, whereas CMB produced 85% inhibition. Figure 6 shows the effect of increasing concentrations of cadmium and arsenite on (a) nitroreductase; (b) diaphorase and (c) lipoamide reductase activities. The dithiol reagents enhanced (a) and (b) activities, as revealed by O_2^- production and DCI reduction, but lipoamide reductase was strongly inhibited. Figure 7 shows the results of a similar experiment using CMB. Interestingly enough, CMB inhibited the nitro-

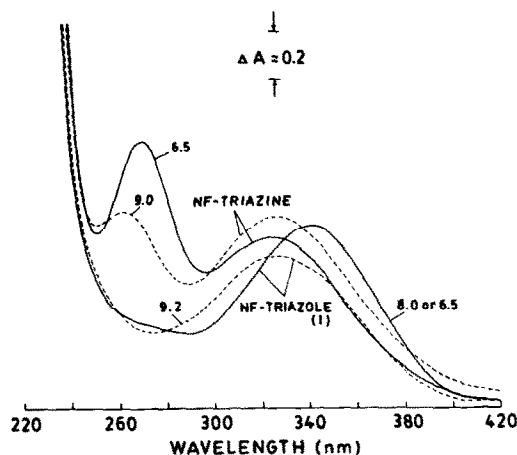


Fig. 5. Effect of pH on NF-triazole(I) and NF-triazine absorption spectra. The reaction mixture contained 50 μM nitrofuran in 50 mM KH_2PO_4 – K_2HPO_4 ; pH was as indicated by the figures near each spectrum. Other experimental conditions were as described in Materials and Methods.

Table 4. Variation of nitroreductase activity after modification of LADH by SH-reagents

Nitrofuran (50 μM)	Control sample	O_2^- production ($\mu\text{mol/min/mg}$ LADH)		
		SH-reagent-treated sample		
		CdCl_2	NaAsO_2	CMB
NF-triazole(I)	3.71	6.30	5.18	0.99
NF-pyrazole	2.94	8.00	4.13	0.45
NF-benzimidazole	1.68	2.96	2.27	0.60
Nitrofurantoin	0.75	1.24	0.96	0.33
Nifurtimox	0.65	1.17	0.74	0.23

O_2^- was measured by the cytochrome *c* method. CdCl_2 , (300 μM), NaAsO_2 (300 μM) or CMB (20 μM) was added to the reaction mixture containing LADH, the nitrofuran compound and either 80 mM Tris–HCl, pH 7.6, 0.1 mM EDTA (with CdCl_2) or 50 mM KH_2PO_4 – K_2HPO_4 , pH 7.4 (with NaAsO_2 or CMB). The reaction was started by adding NADH. Other experimental conditions were as described in Materials and Methods. Control (unstimulated) O_2^- production rate was as given in the legend of Table 1.

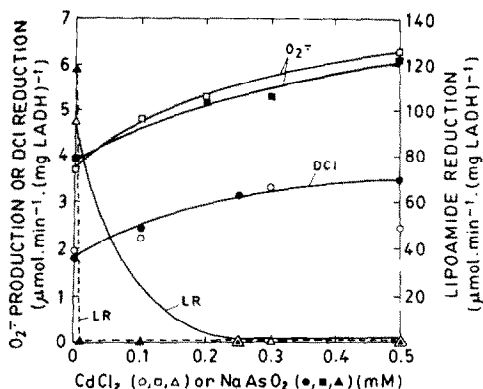


Fig. 6. Cadmium and arsenite enhancement of nitroreductase activity. SH-reagent concentration was as stated on the abscissa. Nitroreductase activity (O_2^- ; \square , \blacksquare) was measured by O_2^- production (cytochrome *c* method) using $50 \mu\text{M}$ NF-triazole(I) and $0.16 \mu\text{g}$ LADH/mL. Diaphorase (DCI; \circ , \bullet) and lipoamide reductase (LR; \triangle , \blacktriangle) activities were measured using 0.33 and $0.16 \mu\text{g}$ LADH/mL respectively. Other experimental conditions were as described in Materials and Methods. Control (unstimulated) O_2^- production rate was as given in the legend of Table 1.

reductase activity, unlike cadmium and arsenite, but, like the other SH-reagents, it stimulated diaphorase and inhibited lipoamide reductase activity.

LADH preincubation with NADH determined lipoamide reductase inactivation ([1] and Fig. 8), which should imply intramolecular thiol oxidation, as indicated by the enzyme protection by reduced glutathione and β -mercaptoethanol (experimental data omitted). In close agreement with the effect of dithiol reagents, the enzyme capability for nitrofuran redox-cycling was not decreased by NADH and a slight activation was observed after 5–10 min of incubation (Fig. 8).

Measurement of nitroreductase activity under

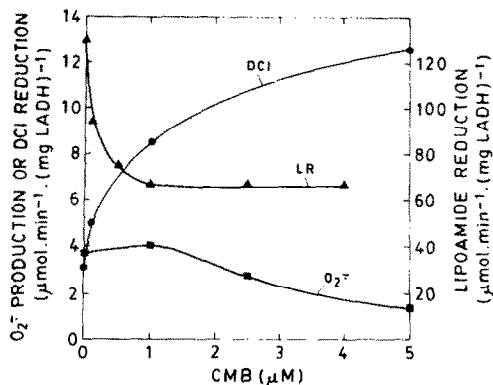


Fig. 7. CMB inhibition of nitroreductase activity. CMB concentration was as indicated on the abscissa. Nitroreductase activity (O_2^- ; \blacksquare) was measured by O_2^- production (adrenochrome method) using $50 \mu\text{M}$ NF-triazole(I) and $0.66 \mu\text{g}$ LADH/mL. Diaphorase (DCI; \bullet) and lipoamide reductase (LR; \blacktriangle) activities were measured using 0.40 and $0.16 \mu\text{g}$ LADH/mL respectively. Other conditions were as described in the legend of Fig. 6.

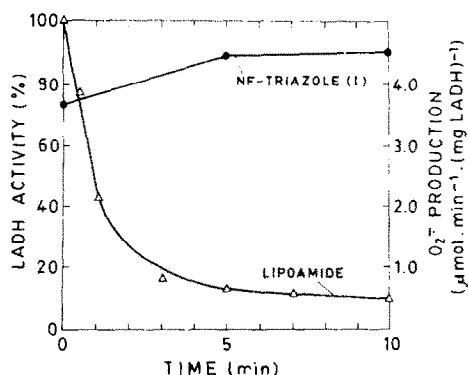


Fig. 8. Catalysis of nitrofuran redox-cycling by NADH-inactivated LADH. LADH ($0.7 \mu\text{g/mL}$; specific activity, 114 units/mg) was incubated with 0.2 mM NADH in 50 mM KH_2PO_4 - K_2HPO_4 , pH 7.4, for the time indicated on the abscissa. The enzyme activities were then measured by adding 1.0 mM lipoamide or $100 \mu\text{M}$ NF-triazole(I), as indicated above. Lipoamide reductase activity and NF-triazole(I) redox-cycling were measured by the rate of NADH oxidation or O_2^- production (cytochrome *c* method) respectively. The former activity is expressed as the percentage value of the 0-time sample activity. Other experimental conditions were as described in Materials and Methods. Control (unstimulated) O_2^- production rate was as given in the legend of Table 1.

strictly anaerobic conditions rendered the results presented in Fig. 9. Nifurtimox was selected for this experiment because NADH absorbance did not overlap the nitrofuran maximum at 406 nm . The difference spectra show the decrease in nifurtimox absorbance at 406 nm due to the nitro group reduction to products more reduced than the nitroanion (Expt. A). Addition of NADH to the reaction mixture determined the appearance of a small peak at 406 nm (in all probability the nitroanion radical), which disappeared at later stages of incubation. Nifurtimox reduction was irreversible since admission of oxygen to the reaction mixture failed to re-establish the original nitrofuran spectrum. Absorbance also diminished at 340 nm due to NADH-oxidation, but this effect was partly masked by nifurtimox absorption. At variance with these results, incubation of a similar sample under aerobic conditions produced difference spectra corresponding solely to NADH oxidation (Expt. B), as expected from Reaction 2. The rate of NADH aerobic oxidation was faster than that of nifurtimox anaerobic reduction (Fig. 9, inset). Cadmium and arsenite inhibited nifurtimox anaerobic reduction (Table 5), at variance with their action on the nitrofuran redox-cycling in Table 4 and Fig. 6.

DISCUSSION

Our observations support the hypothesis that LADH catalyzes nitrofuran redox-cycling in accordance with Reactions 1 and 2. The rate of O_2^- production via nitroreductase activity was, however, relatively slow and, accordingly, in the presence of lipoamide, electron withdrawal by nitrofuran redox-

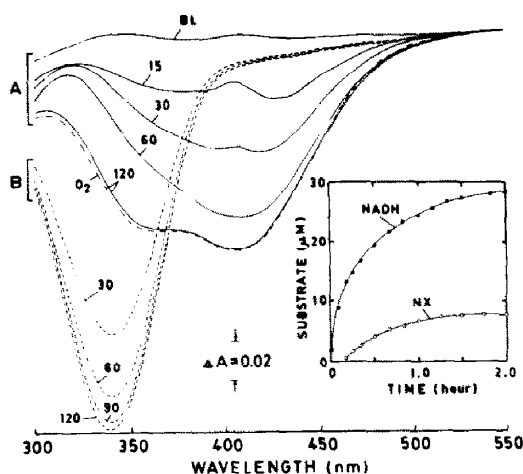


Fig. 9. Difference spectra of NADH-reduced against oxidized nifurtimox. Expt. A: the anaerobic assay contained 3.3 μ g LADH/mL, 50 μ M nifurtimox, 50 mM KH_2PO_4 - K_2HPO_4 , pH 7.4, 1.0 μ g glucose oxidase/mL, 50 mM glucose, and 992 units/mL catalase. After a 5-min gassing of the reaction mixture with argon in an air-tight cuvette, the latter was placed in the spectrophotometer cell compartment (sample light-beam) at 30°. The reference sample contained nifurtimox and potassium-phosphate buffer as above, under air. After recording the base line (BL), NADH (10 μ L of a 30 mM solution, pre-gassed with argon; 100 μ M final concentration) was added to both samples, and absorbance was recorded at the times (min) indicated by the figures near the spectra. After a 2-hr incubation, the anaerobic cuvette was opened, the reaction mixture was aerated, and the aerobic spectrum (O_2) was recorded. Expt. B: similar conditions except that (a) both samples were under air, and (b) glucose oxidase, glucose and catalase additions were omitted. Inset: Representation of NADH oxidation (NADH) and nifurtimox (NX) reduction as a function of incubation time. Values were calculated from the absorbance variation. Nifurtimox $\epsilon_{406\text{ nm}} = 14.8\text{ mM}^{-1}\text{ cm}^{-1}$. Other experimental conditions were as described in Materials and Methods.

cycling did not produce significant inhibition of the latter reduction (Table 2).

LADH and glutathione reductase bear striking similarity to one another, both structural and mechanistically [3]. The observations described here, taken together with previous ones by Grinblat *et al.*

[19], demonstrate, however, an important difference between these two flavoproteins. Thus, LADH displays nitroreductase activity and catalyzes nitro-furan redox-cycling whereas glutathione reductase is inhibited by nitro-furan compounds, which are incapable of electron withdrawal from the reduced enzyme. The binding mode of the nitro-furan compound in the two flavoproteins would depend on the structure of the respective FAD sites, whose homology is less than 50% [3]. Further differences between FAD microenvironments have been detected by fluorescence measurements of bound FAD [37]. Moreover, these enzyme pockets binding the disulfide substrate are also different [38].

Thiols in native LADH are remarkably unreactive, except with mercurials [27, 36] and Cu^{2+} [2]. The results in Table 4 and Fig. 7 indicate that the CMB-reactive thiols were essential for the nitroreductase, but not for the diaphorase, thus establishing a significant difference between those activities. Cadmium and arsenite effects (Table 4 and Fig. 6) suggest that Reaction 1 did not involve the active disulfide groups. On the contrary, the nitroreductase activity was enhanced in the modified LADH, in close agreement with the diaphorase variation. It is known [3] that the diaphorase activity is favored in LADH monomeric forms and, accordingly, it is enhanced when the active disulfides are blocked by cadmium and arsenite. As regards the NADH-induced inactivation (Fig. 8), which spared the nitroreductase activity, it should also imply intramolecular thiol oxidation, as indicated by LADH protection by GSH and β -mercaptoethanol.

The nitroreductase kinetics implies an ordered bi-bi mechanism, ternary complex formation, and product inhibition [30]. The initial rate of $\text{R}\cdot\text{NO}_2^+$ production may be faster and the rate of O_2^+ production slower the more positive the value of $E_1^1(\text{R}\cdot\text{NO}_2^+/\text{R}\cdot\text{NO}_2)$, which depends on the substituent group at the nitro-furan C-2 [28]. The nitro-furan C-2 substituent can influence electron transfer at the nitroanion level as illustrated by the LADH-catalyzed conversion of *cis*-3-(5-nitro-2-furyl)-acrylamide to its *trans* isomer [4]. Moreover, the nitrogen heterocycle structure may affect the molecular capability for binding at the LADH active site, as suggested by results in Figs. 4 and 5. Taken together, these effects may be relevant for explaining the influence of unsaturated nitrogen heterocycles on O_2^+ production, as described in Tables 2-4. In this regard, the latter groups would be more effective than their counterparts in nifurtimox, nitrofurantoin, nitrofurazone and 5-nitro-2-furoic acid.

The reduction of nitroheterocyclic compounds by LADH is mechanistically interesting, because the nitro group can accept various numbers of electrons. Thus, the major product from the enzyme-catalyzed reduction of 4-nitropyridine is presumably formed in a four-electron redox reaction [5]. It should be noted that 4-nitropyridine and its *N*-oxide facilitated NADH oxidation without stimulating O_2 consumption [5], thus ruling out electron transfer to oxygen and O_2^+ formation. The reduction pathway for the nitro group of nitroheterocyclic compounds is strongly influenced by the nature of the solvent [39]. In aprotic medium, a reversible one-electron

Table 5. Effect of thiol reagents on LADH-catalyzed, anaerobic reduction of nifurtimox

Thiol reagent	Concn (μ M)	Nifurtimox reduction (μ M)
None		7.43
NaAsO_2	60	5.27 (29)*
NaAsO_2	300	3.51 (53)
CdCl_2	300	0.17 (98)

Experimental conditions were as described in the legend of Fig. 9 (Expt. A; anaerobic sample). Incubation time, 90 min.

* Values in parentheses are the percentage inhibition of nifurtimox reduction.

reduction takes place to form a stable nitroanion radical, whereas in aqueous medium, a single irreversible 4-electron reduction occurs to give the hydroxylamine. In LADH, the FAD flavin is bound in a hydrophobic milieu [2] and, then, the nitroanion radical would easily react with oxygen, bypassing the active center di-thiol (Fig. 6 and Table 4). Nevertheless, anaerobically, LADH catalyzed the reduction of the nitrofuran nitro group to products more reduced than the nitroanion (Fig. 9). An important feature of this reaction was its irreversibility by oxygen, in close agreement with the production of nitroso and hydroxylamine derivatives. The four-electron reduction reaction should involve LADH thiols, as shown by the inhibitory effect of cadmium and arsenite in Table 5.

Several mammalian enzymes are known to have nitroreductase activity. In the liver cell, the major microsomal nitroreductase is NADPH-cytochrome P450 reductase, whereas in the cytosol, xanthine oxidase, DT-diaphorase and aldehyde oxidase have also nitroreductase activity [40]. LADH is located in the mitochondrial matrix and, therefore, is less accessible to nitrofuran compounds than the microsomal and cytosolic enzymes. Besides, mitochondria contain catalase, superoxide dismutase and glutathione peroxidase [41], which detoxify the peroxides generated by LADH-catalyzed nitrofuran redox-cycling. Hence, the toxicological impact of peroxide production by LADH-dependent reactions should be minor, as compared with microsomal and cytosolic production. This reasoning fits in well with the relatively small contribution of the mitochondrial system to total peroxide production by intact cells [41]. As regards the LADH-catalyzed, anaerobic, multi-electron nitrofuran reduction, that leads to toxic nitroso and hydroxylamine derivatives [6], this metabolic pathway is borne out by the results in Fig. 9. Furthermore, oxygen gradients in the liver, particularly in the intercapillary space of the Krogh tissue cylinder, may be so steep [41] that there should be insufficient oxygen for both nitroanion and NADH oxidation. In these circumstances, LADH can catalyze nitrofuran reduction to products whose toxicity should prove greater than that of superoxide related radicals. These events may well occur in the human liver, known to contain LADH [42], after administration of nitrofuran drugs.

Acknowledgements—This work was aided by grants from the Scientific Office of the American States Organization, the Swedish Agency for Research Cooperation with Developing Countries, CEDIQUIFA (Buenos Aires) and the University of Buenos Aires. L. T. Viñas and M. G. Gutierrez lent able technical assistance.

REFERENCES

- Massey V, Lipoyl dehydrogenase. In: *The Enzymes* (Eds. Boyer PD, Lardy H and Myrbäck K), pp. 275–306. Academic Press, New York, 1963.
- Williams CH Jr, Flavin-containing dehydrogenases. In: *The Enzymes* (Ed. Boyer PD), pp. 89–173. Academic Press, New York, 1976.
- Carothers DJ, Pons G and Patel MS, Dihydrolipoamide dehydrogenase: Functional similarities and divergent evolution of the pyridine nucleotide-disulfide oxidoreductases. *Arch Biochem Biophys* **268**: 409–425, 1989.
- Tatsumi K, Koga N, Kitamura S, Yoshimura H, Wardman P and Kato Y, Enzymic *cis-trans* isomerization of nitrofuran derivatives. Isomerizing activity of xanthine oxidase, lipoyl dehydrogenase, DT-diaphorase and liver microsomes. *Biochim Biophys Acta* **567**: 75–87, 1979.
- Tsai CS, Nitroreductase activity of heart lipoamide dehydrogenase. *Biochem J* **242**: 447–452, 1987.
- Kedderis GL and Miwa GT, The metabolic activation of nitroheterocyclic therapeutic agents. *Drug Metab Rev* **19**: 33–62, 1988.
- Smyth GE and Orsi B, Nitroreductase activity of NADH dehydrogenase of the respiratory redox chain. *Biochem J* **257**: 859–863, 1989.
- Moreno SNJ, Mason RP and Docampo R, Reduction of nifurtimox and nitrofurantoin to free radical metabolites by rat liver mitochondria. Evidence of an outer membrane-located nitroreductase. *J Biol Chem* **259**: 6298–6305, 1984.
- Mason RP, and Holtzman JL, The role of catalytic superoxide formation in the O₂ inhibition of nitroreductase. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* **67**: 1267–1274, 1975.
- Mason RP and Holtzman JL, The mechanism of microsomal and mitochondrial nitroreductase. Electron spin resonance evidence for nitroaromatic free radical intermediates. *Biochemistry* **14**: 1626–1632, 1975.
- Marr JJ and Docampo R, Chemotherapy for Chagas' disease: A perspective of current therapy and considerations for future research. *Rev Infect Dis* **8**: 884–903, 1986.
- Ames JR, Ryan MD and Kovacic P, Mechanism of antibacterial action: Electron transfer and oxy radicals. *J Free Radicals Biol Med* **2**: 377–391, 1986.
- Mester B, Elguero J, Claramunt RM, Castany S, Mascaro ML, Osuna A, Vilaplana MJ and Molina P, Activity against *Trypanosoma cruzi* of new analogues of nifurtimox. *Arch Pharm (Weinheim)* **320**: 115–120, 1987.
- Buzard JA, and Kopko F, The flavin requirement and some inhibition characteristics of rat tissue glutathione reductase. *J Biol Chem* **238**: 464–468, 1963.
- Ondarza RN and Abney R, On the active site of the NADPH-dependent CoA-SS-glutathione reductase from yeast and rat liver. *FEBS Lett* **7**: 227–230, 1970.
- Carlberg I and Mannervik B, Reaction of 2,4,6-trinitrobenzenesulfonate with the active site of glutathione reductase. In: *Flavins and Flavoproteins* (Eds. Massey V and Williams CH), pp. 53–56. Elsevier/North Holland, New York, 1982.
- Dubin M, Moreno SNJ, Martino EE, Docampo R and Stoppani AOM, Increased biliary secretion and loss of hepatic glutathione in rat liver after nifurtimox treatment. *Biochem Pharmacol* **32**: 483–487, 1983.
- Dubin M, Goijman SG and Stoppani AOM, Effect of nitroheterocyclic drugs on lipid peroxidation and glutathione content in rat liver extracts. *Biochem Pharmacol* **33**: 3419–3423, 1984.
- Grinblat L, Sreider CM and Stoppani AOM, Nitrofuran inhibition of yeast and rat tissue glutathione reductases. Structure-activity relationships. *Biochem Pharmacol* **38**: 767–772, 1989.
- Reed LJ, Koike M, Levitch ME and Leach FR, Studies on the nature and reactions of protein-bound lipoic acid. *J Biol Chem* **232**: 143–158, 1958.
- McCord JM and Fridovich I, Superoxide dismutase. An enzymic function for erythrocyte hemocuprein (hemocuprein). *J Biol Chem* **244**: 6049–6055, 1969.
- Misra HP and Fridovich I, The univalent reduction of oxygen by reduced flavins and quinones. *J Biol Chem* **247**: 188–192, 1972.

23. Cadenas E, Boveris A, Ragan CI and Stoppani AOM, Production of superoxide radicals and hydrogen peroxide by NADH-ubiquinone reductase and ubiquinol-cytochrome *c* reductase from beef-heart mitochondria. *Arch Biochem Biophys* **180**: 248–257, 1977.
24. Paget TA, Fry M and Lloyd D, Effects of inhibitors on the oxygen kinetics of *Nippostrongylus brasiliensis*. *Mol Biochem Parasitol* **22**: 125–133, 1987.
25. Rickwood D, Wilson MT and Darley-USmar VM, Isolation and characteristics of intact mitochondria. In: *Mitochondria: A Practical Approach* (Eds. Darley-USmar VM, Rickwood D and Wilson MT), pp. 1–16. IRL Press, Oxford, 1987.
26. Gornall AG, Bardawill CJ and David MM, Determination of serum proteins by means of the biuret reactions. *J Biol Chem* **177**: 751–766, 1949.
27. Nakamura M and Yamazaki I, One-electron transfer reactions in biochemical systems. VI. Changes in electron transfer mechanism of lipoamide dehydrogenase by modification of sulfhydryl groups. *Biochim Biophys Acta* **267**: 249–257, 1972.
28. Wardman P and Clarke ED, Oxygen inhibition of nitroreductase: Electron transfer from nitro radical-anions to oxygen. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* **69**: 942–949, 1976.
29. Cleland WW, The kinetics of enzyme-catalyzed reactions with two or more substrates or products. I. Nomenclature and rate equations. *Biochim Biophys Acta* **67**: 104–137, 1963.
30. Mannervik B, Regression analysis, experimental error, and statistical criteria in the design and analysis of experiments for discrimination between rival kinetic models. *Methods Enzymol* **87**(Part C): 370–390, 1982.
31. Massey V and Veeger C, On the reaction mechanism of lipoyl dehydrogenase. *Biochim Biophys Acta* **40**: 184–185, 1960.
32. Massey V and Palmer G, Charge transfer complexes of lipoyl dehydrogenase and free flavins. *J Biol Chem* **237**: 2347–2358, 1962.
33. Searls RL, Peters JM and Sanadi DR, α -Ketoglutaric dehydrogenase. X. On the mechanism of dihydrolipoyl dehydrogenase reaction. *J Biol Chem* **236**: 2317–2322, 1961.
34. Stein AM and Stein JH, Isolation of the cadmium derivative of lipoyl dehydrogenase. *J Biol Chem* **246**: 670–676, 1971.
35. Massey V, The identity of diaphorase and lipoyl dehydrogenase. *Biochim Biophys Acta* **37**: 314–322, 1960.
36. Casola L and Massey V, Differential effects of mercurial on the lipoyl reductase and diaphorase activities of lipoyl dehydrogenase. *J Biol Chem* **241**: 4985–4993, 1966.
37. de Kok A and Visser AJWG, Flavin binding site differences between lipoamide dehydrogenase and glutathione reductase as revealed by static and time-resolved flavin fluorescence. *FEBS Lett* **218**: 135–138, 1987.
38. Ghisla S and Massey V, Mechanisms of flavoprotein-catalyzed reactions. *Eur J Biochem* **181**: 1–17, 1989.
39. Tocher JH and Edwards DI, Electrochemical characteristics of nitro-heterocyclic compounds of biological interest. I. The influence of solvent. *Free Radic Res Commun* **4**: 269–276, 1988.
40. Kutcher WW and McCalla DR, Aerobic reduction of 5-nitro-2-furaldehyde semicarbazone by rat liver xanthine dehydrogenase. *Biochem Pharmacol* **33**: 799–805, 1984.
41. Chance B, Sies H and Boveris A, Hydroperoxide metabolism in mammalian organs. *Physiol Rev* **59**: 527–605, 1979.
42. Ide S, Hayakawa T, Okabe K and Koike M, Lipoamide dehydrogenase from human liver. *J Biol Chem* **242**: 54–60, 1967.