

METABOLIC BASIS OF THE SPECIES DIFFERENCE TO
AFLATOXIN B₁ INDUCED HEPATOTOXICITY

Kym O'Brien, Elizabeth Moss^{*}, David Judah and Gordon Neal

MRC Toxicology Unit, Woodmansterne Road, Carshalton, Surrey, U.K.

Received May 27, 1983

Primary metabolism of aflatoxin B₁ by the liver microsomal enzymes from a range of animal species showed both quantitative and qualitative differences. Quail was shown to have the most rapid metabolism of aflatoxin B₁. The major product of metabolism in this case was found to be aflatoxin B₁-8,9-dihydrodiol suggesting that the quail microsomes produced high levels of the proposed reactive intermediate aflatoxin B₁-8,9-epoxide. Using this system to generate the epoxide, the ability of the cytosol prepared from each species to conjugate epoxide with reduced glutathione was investigated. Large differences in ability to conjugate were observed ranging from 0 to 72% for quail and mouse respectively. Differences in both primary and secondary metabolism of AFB₁ were noted between male and female Fischer 344 rats.

Animal species differ markedly in their susceptibility to both the acute and chronic toxicity of aflatoxin B₁ (1,2). Activation to AFB₁-8,9-epoxide is considered to be essential for the biological effect of this potent hepatotoxin and hepatocarcinogen (3,4,5,6,7). The *in vitro* production of epoxide as measured by the detection of the hydrolysis product AFB₁-8,9-dihydrodiol, as the Tris-diol complex (Fig. 1) has been shown to parallel the *in vivo* susceptibility to acute aflatoxin B₁ poisoning in various species (8). The effect of glutathione on AFB₁ toxicity has been reported (9,10,11,12) and the formation of a glutathione conjugate has been described (13,14). Degen and Neumann (16) reported that differences in

* To whom correspondence should be addressed.

Abbreviations

AFB ₁	aflatoxin B ₁
Tris	Tris(hydroxymethyl)methylamine
AFB ₁ -GSH	8,9-dihydro-8-(S-glutathionyl)-9-hydroxy-aflatoxin B ₁
h.p.l.c.	high performance liquid chromatography
AFQ ₁	aflatoxin Q ₁
AFM ₁	aflatoxin M ₁
AFP ₁	aflatoxin P ₁
Tris-diol	Reaction product of AFB ₁ -8,9-dihydrodiol with Tris(hydroxymethyl)-methylamine.

the formation of this material by rat and mouse post mitochondrial supernatant may explain different susceptibilities to AFB₁ toxicity between species and between sexes.

We have recently described an *in vitro* system of preparing 8,9-dihydro-8-(S-glutathionyl)-9-hydroxy-aflatoxin B₁ and provided ¹H n.m.r. and mass spectral evidence for the structure (15). In this paper we describe a further study into the primary metabolism of AFB₁ in a range of species combined with an investigation of the formation of AFB₁-GSH by the post-microsomal supernatant of each species using quail microsomes as a standard method of formation of AFB₁-8,9-epoxide. By this approach we hope to compare

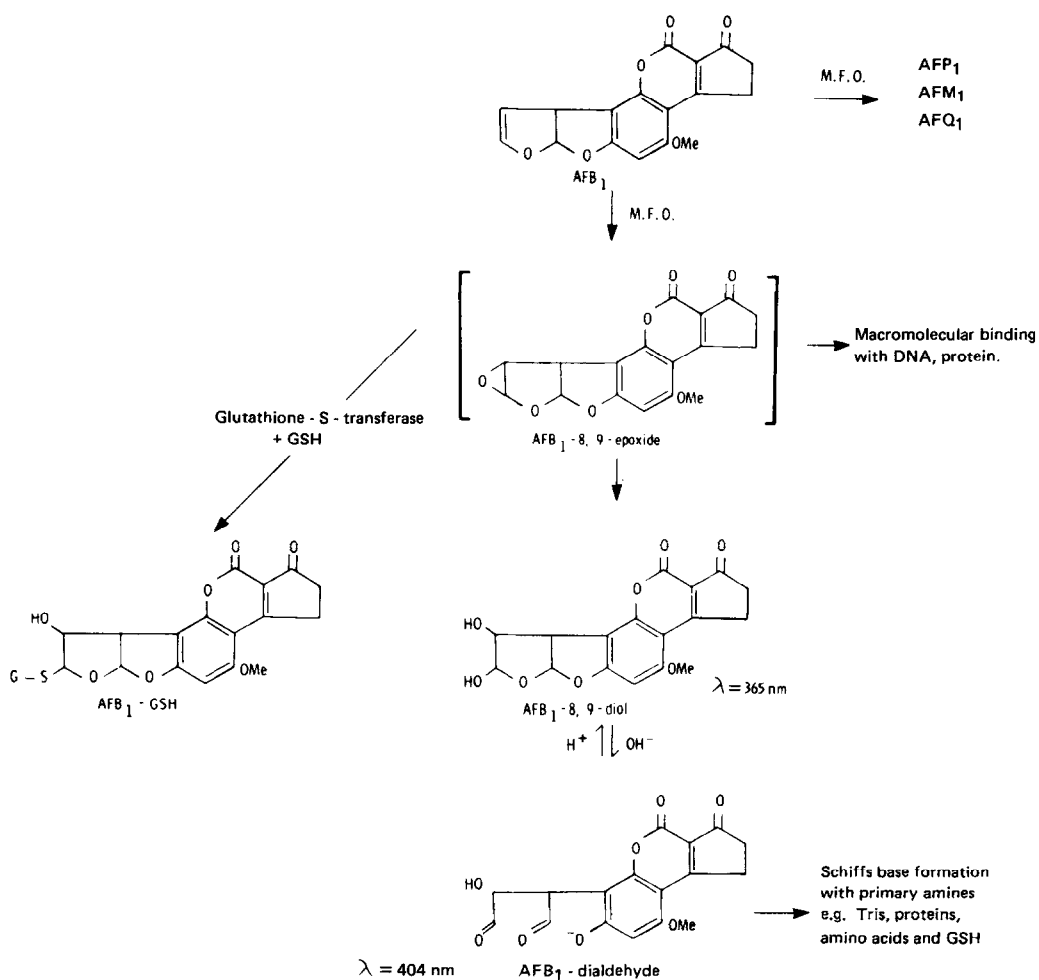


Fig. 1. Metabolic pathway of AFB₁.

quantitatively the ability of each species to activate AFB₁ and the deactivation activity as measured by AFB₁-GSH production. Three mammalian and one avian species were investigated. Published LD₅₀ values suggested a range of susceptibility to the acute toxicity of AFB₁ for these animals. Toxic response was investigated by in vivo studies to allow for strain differences from the published LD₅₀ value.

The implications of the results to the importance of glutathione conjugation in AFB₁-toxicity are discussed and the results obtained from a single sample of human liver are compared to those from the animal studies.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Materials

Aflatoxin B₁ was obtained from Makor Chemical Company, Jerusalem, Israel. Adult male and female rats (Fischer 344, body weight, 200-250 g) were supplied by MRC, Carshalton Beeches. Adult male mice (C57/BL 10 body wt. 25 g) and adult male albino guinea pigs (600 g) were supplied by Olac 1976 Ltd, Shaws Farm, Blackthorn, Bicester, Oxon. Adult male Japanese quails (200-250 g) were obtained from Lincolnshire Pheasantries, Tunby, Boston, Lincolnshire.

Tissue Preparation

Rats and quails were killed by decapitation; the mice and guinea pigs were killed by cervical fracture. Microsomes and post microsomal supernatant were prepared as described previously (17).

Metabolic Assays

Microsomal incubations using a microsomal suspension (400 μ l) equivalent to 0.25 g wet weight of liver tissue, were carried out in triplicate as previously described (17) in the presence or absence of NADPH. Microsomal and supernatant metabolic incubations were essentially as for microsomal metabolism except that the mixtures were supplemented with 5 mM reduced glutathione. Post microsomal supernatant (400 μ l) equivalent to 0.13 g wet weight of liver tissue was added prior to the addition of microsomes. Incubations were carried out in triplicate.

H.p.l.c analysis

Chromatographic analysis was achieved by the method described previously (15).

In Vivo Studies

Animals were dosed intraperitoneally with aflatoxin B₁ dissolved in DMSO (6 mg cm⁻³). One animal of each species received a high dose equivalent to twice the published LD₅₀, a low dose equivalent to the estimated LD₅₀ and a control injection of DMSO. Quails received doses of aflatoxin B₁ equivalent to 1 and 2 mg kg⁻¹ body weight. Mice were given the equivalent of 7.5 mg and 15 mg kg⁻¹ body weight. Guinea pigs were given 2 and 4 mg kg⁻¹. Male and female rats were both given 1 and 2 mg kg⁻¹ body weight. After 48 hours all surviving animals were sacrificed and the livers were removed and fixed in formal saline for 1 week. Samples were prepared for sectioning and stained with Harris' haematoxylin and eosin.

Human Metabolism of AFB₁

A sample of normal male human liver was obtained from King's College Hospital Liver Unit. Tissue was stored in liquid nitrogen for 4 weeks prior to the experiment. Microsomes and post-microsomal supernatant were prepared as described in tissue preparation. All experiments involving microsomes and post-microsomal supernatant were carried out immediately after sample preparation.

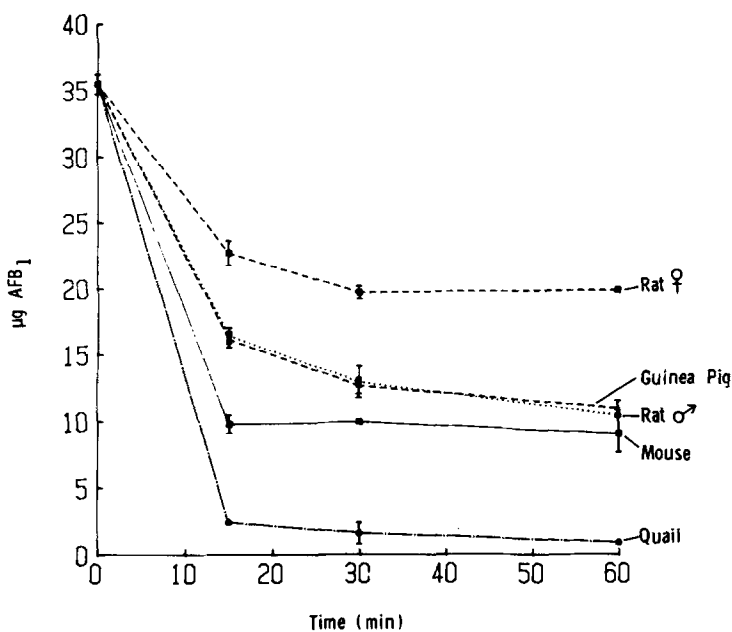


Fig. 11. Time course of microsomal metabolism of AFB₁. For each time point $n=6$ and the bars indicate the standard error of the mean.

RESULTS

The microsomal metabolism of AFB₁ was examined using h.p.l.c. The time course for the disappearance of AFB₁ (Fig. 11) revealed qualitative differences in the rate of AFB₁ metabolism between species (Table 1). The quail microsomes had the most rapid metabolism of AFB₁ (1.57 nmol/mg microsomal protein/min) and those of the female rat had the slowest (0.54 nmol/mg microsomal protein/min). H.p.l.c. analysis also revealed qualitative differences in the range of AFB₁ metabolites produced after a 30 minute incubation. The recoveries of soluble aflatoxins are recorded in Table 1. The production of AFB₁-8,9-dihydrodiol was measured by the detection of the Tris-diol complex by h.p.l.c. In the quail microsomal assay the recovery of soluble aflatoxins from the incubation mixtures after 30 minutes accounted for approximately 46% of the original AFB₁. 87% of the recovered aflatoxin was detected as AFB₁-8,9-dihydrodiol.

The recovered aflatoxins from mouse microsomal assays totalled 73% of the original substrate concentration. Nearly 30% of the total recovered was unmetabolized AFB₁, 30% was AFB₁-8,9-dihydrodiol and 40% was

Table 1

Species	LD ₅₀ [*] (mg/kg body wt.)	Rate of AFB ₁ metabolism (nmol/mg protein/min)	Recovery of soluble aflatoxins after 30 min (% of initial AFB ₁ concentra- tion)	Production of AFB ₁ -8,9- dihydrodiol (% of total metabolites recovered)	Production of AFB ₁ -GSH by quail microsomes + postmicrosomal supernatant from each species + GSH (% of total metabolite)
Quail	0.3 [#]	1.57	46	87	0
Guinea pig	1.4-2	0.82	68	31	6.8
Rat (Male)	7.2 ^x	0.69	63	12	6
Rat (Female)		0.54	71	5	16
Mouse (C57)	>9	0.73	73	30	72

* From Newberne and Butler (1969)

Estimated from duckling and in vivo studies (Table 2)

x See Table 2 and discussion.

AFP₁, AFM₁ and AFQ₁ combined. The recovery from guinea pig microsomal incubations was 68% and the detectable AFB₁-8,9-dihydrodiol was 31% of this. Unmetabolized AFB₁ (58%), and AFM₁, AFQ₁ and AFP₁ (11%) accounted for the rest of the recovered material. The recovered soluble aflatoxins from male and female rat were 63% and 71% respectively. In both cases a large percentage of this was unmetabolized AFB₁. AFB₁-8,9-dihydrodiol accounted for 12% of the soluble aflatoxins from the male rat microsomal assay and 5% from that of the female.

Using quail microsomes as an efficient system to produce AFB₁-8,9-epoxide, the ability of post microsomal supernatant from each species to convert the AFB₁-8,9-epoxide to AFB₁-GSH was investigated. The combination of quail microsomes with quail supernatant resulted in the production of AFB₁-8,9-dihydrodiol. The conjugating ability of the quail supernatant to convert AFB₁-8,9-epoxide to the glutathione conjugate is very low or absent. In contrast the combination of quail microsomes with mouse supernatant produced almost exclusively AFB₁-GSH demonstrating high conjugating ability in the mouse supernatant (Fig. iii). The relative production of AFB₁-GSH is recorded in Table 1.

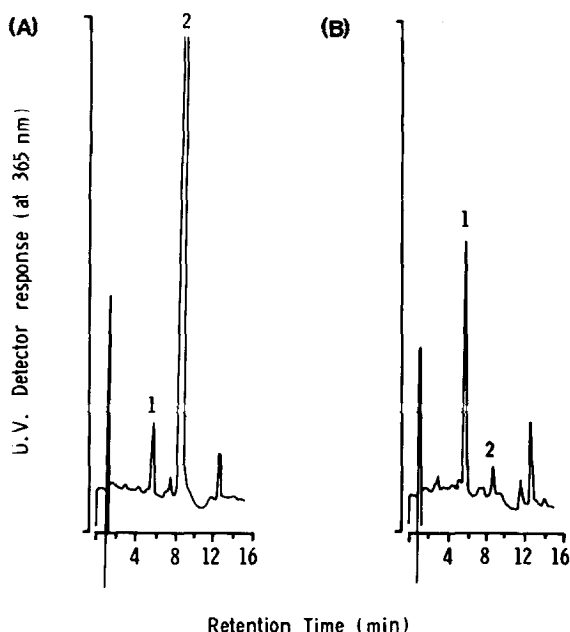


Fig. iii. H.p.l.c. analysis of AFB₁ metabolites. (A) product of incubation of AFB₁ with quail microsomes and mouse supernatant. (B) incubation of AFB₁ with quail microsomes and quail supernatant. All incubations in the presence of Tris-buffer. Peak 1 is Tris-diol. Peak 2 is AFB₁-GSH.

The effect of intraperitoneal dosing of AFB₁ to each species is recorded in Table 2.

Human Metabolism

Human microsomes metabolized AFB₁ rapidly (2.2 nmol/mg microsomal protein/min). After 30 minute incubation, 45% of the AFB₁ was recovered as soluble metabolites. Of these, AFQ₁ was the major product (63%) and AFB₁-8,9-dihydrodiol accounted for 11%. Incubations of AFB₁ with quail microsomes and the post microsomal supernatant from human liver resulted in the production of AFB₁-8,9-dihydrodiol exclusively.

DISCUSSION

From the in vivo estimation of toxicity, quail was the most sensitive species studied. Of the 4 animal species investigated, quail microsomes showed the most rapid metabolism of AFB₁, and AFB₁-8,9-dihydrodiol was the only metabolite detected in the soluble fraction from the incubation.

Table 2
Estimation of toxicity of AFB₁

Species	Dose (mgkg ⁻¹ i.p.)	Observed toxicity after 48 hours
Quail	2	Death. Autopsy revealed haemorrhagic necrosis.
	1	Periportal necrosis and bile duct proliferation.
Guinea Pig	4	Centrilobular necrosis and bile duct proliferation.
	2	Centrilobular necrosis.
Rat (Male) (Fischer 344)	2	Severe haemorrhagic necrosis.
	1	Periportal necrosis.
Rat (Female) (Fischer 344)	2	Periportal necrosis.
	1	Mild periportal necrosis.
Mouse (C57)	15	No pathological changes observed.
	7.5	No pathological changes observed.

The low recovery of aflatoxin B₁ and metabolites in the soluble fraction was probably due to high levels of macromolecular binding.

The addition of quail post-microsomal supernatant to the quail microsomal incubation did not produce any detectable AFB₁-GSH. It would appear that the susceptible quail can rapidly activate AFB₁ to AFB₁-8,9-epoxide but lacks the ability to deactivate this reactive intermediate by conjugation with glutathione.

The published LD₅₀ value for mouse is relatively high (2) and the results of the in vivo estimations of toxicity (Table 2) suggest that the LD₅₀ value for the C57 strain is greater than 15 mg kg⁻¹. This contrasts with the estimated LD₅₀ value of between 1 and 2 mg kg⁻¹ for guinea pig and rat. The mouse and guinea pig show similar rates of AFB₁ metabolism and production of AFB₁-8,9-dihydrodiol. The resistance of mouse to AFB₁ toxicity is therefore not adequately explained by a consideration of primary metabolism alone. However, a comparison of the conjugating activity of the post-microsomal supernatant from each species, when combined with quail microsomes, shows that mouse produces over ten times the amount of AFB₁-GSH compared with guinea pig and twelve times that produced by male rat. This

efficient deactivation by mouse liver cytosol must be an important mechanism in the observed resistance to AFB₁ hepatotoxicity in vivo.

The Fischer 344 rats used in this study are a relatively susceptible strain. The hepatic damage observed in the male after i.p. doses of 1 and 2 mg kg⁻¹ would be consistent with LD₅₀ values between 1 and 2 mg kg⁻¹. It has been reported that the female rat is more resistant to the acute and chronic toxicity of AFB₁ (2). Our in vivo acute toxicity study (Table 2) was in agreement with this report. Microsomal metabolism of AFB₁ revealed that less AFB₁-8,9-epoxide is produced by the female and conjugating activity in the post-microsomal supernatant was higher in the female than in the male. The formation of AFB₁-GSH was considerably less by both male and female post-microsomal supernatant compared with that of mouse.

It would appear therefore that the relative species susceptibility to AFB₁-8,9-epoxide is explained by the activating and deactivating mechanisms described, and the formation of AFB₁-GSH is an important detoxification mechanism in resistant species. The h.p.l.c. analyses shown in Fig. iii demonstrate the difference in production of AFB₁-GSH by mouse post-microsomal supernatant (a) compared with that of quail (b) when both are incubated with AFB₁ and quail microsomes. The analyses also demonstrate how efficient the production of AFB₁-GSH is in competing with the alternative fates of AFB₁-8,9-epoxide e.g. the formation of AFB₁-8,9-dihydrodiol and macromolecular binding (Fig. i).

The results from a single human liver (male) suggest that humans may be rapid metabolizers of AFB₁. Approximately 5% of the AFB₁ incubated with microsomes can be detected as the Tris-diol complex, but a greater proportion of AFB₁ is detected as AFQ₁ (>20%). This result agrees with that of Büchi et al (18) who also noted that microsomes from a female human liver produced mainly AFQ₁. The low recoveries (45%) may be due to high levels of macromolecular binding.

The secondary metabolism of AFB₁ by human post microsomal supernatant in the presence of quail microsomes, produced only the Tris-diol

complex. There was apparently little or no conversion to AFB₁-GSH. The absence of any deactivation mechanism in this male human liver was surprising and we have repeated incubations using freshly prepared post mitochondrial supernatant. Lack of conjugating activity was again confirmed by the complete absence of AFB₁-GSH.

The data obtained from human studies would suggest a relatively high susceptibility compared with other species investigated based on the high rate of AFB₁ metabolism and apparent absence of conjugating activity. This observation may be modified slightly by the relatively low levels of Tris-diol detected, suggesting epoxidation is not a major pathway. However, as the low recoveries might suggest high macromolecular binding, other factors may influence the toxicity of AFB₁ to humans. We hope to investigate this shortly.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We would like to thank Drs Philip Johnson and Tim Corbishley at King's College Hospital, Liver Unit, London, for the generous gift of a human liver sample, and Dr W H Butler for his invaluable assistance in evaluating the histological data. Kym O'Brien was funded by an MRC studentship.

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