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# Hydrogen peroxide-induced intracellular acidosis and electromechanical inhibition in the diseased human ventricular myocardium

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#### Abstract

Accumulation of oxygen free radicals is an important mediator of post-ischemia/reperfusion cardiac dysfunction. However, oxidative injury has not been well characterized in human cardiac tissues. In the present study, we superfused hydrogen peroxide ( $H_2O_2$ ) into the diseased human ventricle in order to assess the effects of oxygen free radicals on the electromechanical parameters and the intracellular pH (pHi), and to test the ability of certain potential cardioprotective agents, including scavengers of hydrogen peroxide (dibenzamidostilbene disulfonic acid; DBDS), the ·OH free radical (N-(mercaptopropionyl)-glycine; N-MPG), and the HOCl free radical (L-methionine), to protect against oxidative injury. Disease human ventricular tissues were obtained from patients undergoing heart transplantation. Electrophysiological experiments were performed using a traditional micropipette, while the pHi was measured by microspectrofluorimetry. We found that (a)  $H_2O_2$  (30  $\mu$ M-3 mM) induced a significant dose-dependent intracellular acidosis, (b)  $H_2O_2$  (30  $\mu$ M-3 mM) had a notable dose-dependent biphasic effect on the contractile force (an increase, followed by a decrease), while moderate concentrations of  $H_2O_2$  also inhibited the generation of action potential and increased the diastolic resting force significantly, and (c) N-MPG caused significant block of both the intracellular acidosis and the electromechanical inhibition induced by 3 mM  $H_2O_2$ , whereas L-methionine and DBDS did not. Our data suggest that the toxic effects of  $H_2O_2$  are caused mainly through the generation of ·OH, which is attributed to the intracellular acidosis seen in the diseased human ventricle. © 2002 Elsevier Science B.V. All rights reserved.

Keywords: Ventricle, human; Electrophysiology; Contractile force; Acidosis, intracellular; Fluorescent; Oxygen free radical; Antioxidant; Cardioprotective agent

#### 1. Introduction

In the clinical situation, ischemia and post-ischemic reperfusion occur not only as a result of pathological disorders, such as coronary thrombosis, but also following certain surgical procedures, such as balloon angioplasty of blood vessels and open-heart surgery with cardioplegic arrest (Bolli, 1990; Pierce and Czubryt, 1995). Unfortunately, reperfusion of cardiac tissue after a reversible ischemic episode results in further, and usually more serious, cardiac dysfunction, such as stunning and arrhythmias, and other clinical complications (Bolli and Mar-

ban, 1999; Goldhaber and Weiss, 1992). Ischaemia/reperfusion-induced cardiac dysfunction has become one of the most common causes of serious illness an early death in developed societies. There is increasing evidence that oxidant injury plays a critical role in the development of ischemia/reperfusion-induced cardiac injury (Salvatore et al., 1995). For example, it has been demonstrated that the concentration of oxygen-derived free radicals, such as superoxide (·O<sub>2</sub> -), hydroxyl (·OH), and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, can be dramatically increased following ischemia and reperfusion (Zwier et al., 1987). In animal models, both in vivo and in vitro, the most damaging effects on the heart caused by oxygen free radicals seem to be due to OH radicals (Bolli, 1990; Farber et al., 1988; Goldhaber et al., 1989, Kloner et al., 1989). Moreover, scavengers of oxygen free radicals, such as catalase and superoxide dismutase, can reduce ischemia/

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reperfusion-induced myocardial stunning and arrhythmias (Bolli, 1990).

In isolated guinea-pig ventricular myocytes, free radical-generating systems have been demonstrated to activate ATP-sensitive K + channels, decrease the calcium current, and induce cell shortening by irreversibly inhibiting glycolytic and oxidative metabolism (Goldhaber et al., 1989). Furthermore, Satoh and Matsui (1997) suggested that low concentrations of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (30-100 µM) alter the action potential duration (APD) and contractile force, but not the other electrical parameters in guinea pig cardiac muscles. In addition, a dose- and time-dependent action on the contractile force has been observed (Satoh and Matsui, 1997). In contrast, in rat ventricular myocytes, Ward and Giles (1997) showed that 50-200 µM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> had no significant effect on the action potential, cell shortening, the transient outward K<sup>+</sup> current, and inwardly rectifying K<sup>+</sup> currents. As yet, however, no pharmacological study has been performed on the effects of oxygen free radicals and the cardioprotective action of oxygen free radicals scavengers on the human myocardium. As H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> is an important mediator of the production of other oxygenderived free radicals, such as ·OH and HOCl (Bolli et al., 1989; Tsai et al., 1997; Ide et al., 2000), in the present study, various concentrations of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (30 µM-3 mM) were applied to the diseased human ventricular myocardium to mimic the effects of oxygen free radicals during ischemia and post-reperfusion.

Many cellular mechanisms are sensitive to changes in the intracellular pH (pH<sub>i</sub>). These include enzyme activity (Trivedi and Danforth, 1966), control of the cell volume (Grinstein et al., 1992), the regulation of cellular growth and differentiation (Grinstein et al., 1989), the kinetic properties of K<sup>+</sup> and Ca<sup>2+</sup> channels (Carbone et al., 1981), and cell contractility (Bountra and Vaughan-Jones, 1989). During myocardial ischemia, the pH<sub>i</sub> is substantially lowered (Allen and Orchard, 1987). Moreover, during post-ischemia reperfusion, rapid recovery of the pH<sub>i</sub> is observed (Bond et al., 1991). These pH<sub>i</sub> disturbances have been claimed to be responsible for the reversible contractile dysfunction and malignant ventricular arrhythmias seen in cardiac myocytes and in other cell types (Bond et al., 1991; Loh et al., 1996). In cultured rat cardiac myoblasts, 100 µM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> induces a marked decrease in the pH<sub>i</sub> (Wu et al., 1996), and similar results are seen in cerebellar astrocytes and C6 glioma cells (Tsai et al., 1997). These large pH<sub>i</sub> reductions are suggested to result from the production of intracellular ·OH as a result of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> oxidation, i.e. via the Fenton reaction, since the acidosis is completely inhibited by two different potent membrane-crossing OH scavengers (Tsai et al., 1997); however, whether this occurs in the human myocardium is not yet known.

In order to investigate the relationship between the pH<sub>i</sub> and electrophysiological parameters during exposure to oxygen free radicals, in the present study, we have used two different approaches, microspectrofluorimetry and con-

ventional microelectrode techniques, in parallel experiments under the same conditions.

#### 2. Materials and methods

#### 2.1. Human heart tissue

With the approval of the institutional review committee and with prior informed consent, right diseased human ventricular myocardial tissue was obtained from 12 dilated cardiomyopathy patients (age  $58.4\pm3.6$  years; 7 males and 5 females) undergoing heart transplantation. Diseased right ventricular trabecular tissue, 1 mm in diameter and 3–6 mm long, was removed, as described previously (Lin et al., 1985), and immediately immersed in cold bicarbonate-containing Tyrode solution. The preparations were then perfused at 37 °C with oxygenated (97%O2/3%CO2) bicarbonate-containing Tyrode solution, pH  $7.40\pm0.02$  for experiments.

## 2.2. Electrophysiological and mechanical experiments

The diseased right human ventricular myocardia were driven by electrical stimuli at a frequency of 1 Hz. Transmembrane potentials were recorded using traditional glass microelectrodes filled with 3 M KCl and the contractile force was measured using a Gould UC2 force transducer, as described previously (Lin et al., 1985). Preparations were preloaded by equilibrating for 2 h under an optimal resting tension of 150 mg. The electrical and mechanical events were displayed simultaneously on a Gould 4072 oscilloscope and a Gould ES 1000 recorder. The action potential amplitude (APA), action potential duration at 50% and 90% repolarization (APD<sub>50</sub> and APD<sub>90</sub>, respectively), maximum diastolic potential (MDP), and twitch force were measured as described previously (Lin et al., 1994). To prevent possible unstable implement affecting the measured parameters of action potential during the experiments, we only used those preparations that have stable control (i.e. without losing implement for, at least, half an hour) to continue the subsequent protocols. Also, some of the phenomenon of totally inhibition on action potential will be double-checked by a few tries on re-implementing to ensure whether it's the true drug effect or simply the losing implement.

# 2.3. Measurement of the intracellular pH

Measurement of the  $pH_i$  has been described in detail elsewhere (Wu et al., 1996). In brief, the  $pH_i$  in the diseased human myocardium was measured using the pH-sensitive, dual excitation dual-emission fluorescent dye, BCECF-AM (Molecular Probes). The preparations were loaded with BCECF-AM (5  $\mu$ M) by incubating them for 30 min at room temperature and were excited alternately with 490 and 440 nm wavelength light. The ratio of the 510 nm emission at

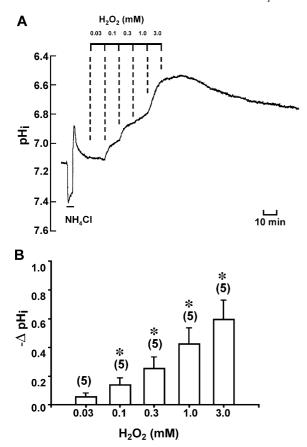


Fig. 1. Intracellular acidosis induced by  $H_2O_2$  (H) in the diseased human ventricular myocardium. (A) The application of  $NH_4Cl$  (20 mM) and various concentrations of  $H_2O_2$  (30  $\mu M-3$  mM) is shown by the bars below and above the  $pH_i$  trace. (B) Histogram showing the mean  $pH_i$  change induced by different concentrations of  $H_2O_2$  in five experiments similar to that shown in A. The columns and bars represent the means  $\pm$  S.E.M.; \*p<0.05 compared with in the absence of  $H_2O_2$ . Note that the change of  $pH_i$  induced by tested drug was measured at the 10th min after treating the drug.

490 and 440 nm excitation (490/440) was calculated and converted to a linear pH using the following equation:

$$pH_{i} = pK_{a} + \log[(R_{max} - R)/(R - R_{min})] + \log(F_{440min}/F_{440max})$$

where R is the 510 nm emission at 490 nm excitation/510 emission at 440 nm excitation ratio,  $R_{\rm max}$  and  $R_{\rm min}$  are, respectively, the maximum and minimum ratio values from the calibration curve (data not shown), and pK is the dissociation constant for the dye, taken as 7.05.  $F_{\rm 440min}/F_{\rm 440max}$  is the ratio of the fluorescence measured at 440 nm of  $R_{\rm min}$  and  $R_{\rm max}$ . The overall sampling rate for the recorded fluorescent ratio (440/490 nm) was 0.5 Hz in the experiment. Throughout the whole experiment, the change of p $H_{\rm i}$  induced by tested drug was compared at the 10th min after the treating the drug, unless otherwise stated. To make sure the preparations were in good condition, an intracellular acidosis was induced by an NH<sub>4</sub>Cl prepulse (see Figs. 1 and 2 for details) to test the acid extruding activity of the cell.

Only those samples with good response went through the designed protocols. Moreover, to prevent the possible influence of fluorescent dye-leakage on the  $pH_i$  recording, the strength of both wavelength of 510 nm emissions at 490 and 440 nm excitation was continuously monitored in the oscilloscope and computer. The background fluorescence and auto-fluorescence were small (<5%) and has been ignored.

# 2.4. Chemicals and solutions

All experiments were performed at 37 °C in bicarbonate-buffered solutions (equilibrated with 97% O<sub>2</sub>, 3% CO<sub>2</sub>) containing (in mM) NaCl 137, MgCl<sub>2</sub> 0.5, NaH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> 0.5, KCl 4, CaCl<sub>2</sub> 2.7, glucose 5.6, NaHCO<sub>3</sub> 22, and dextrose 5.6, the pH being adjusted to 7.4 using NaOH. Unless otherwise stated, all chemicals were purchased from Sigma

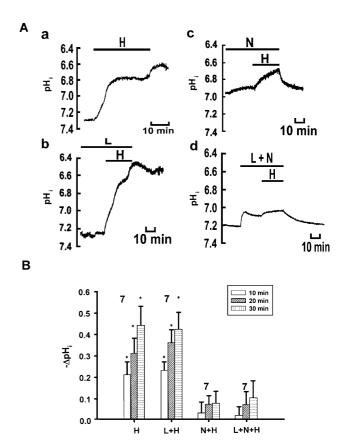


Fig. 2. Effect of the antioxidants, L-methionine (L) and N-MPG (N), alone and in combination (L+N), on  $\rm H_2O_2$  (H)-induced acidosis in the diseased human ventricular myocardium. In A, panel (a) shows that the  $\rm H_2O_2$  (3 mM)-induced acidosis is time-dependent, (b) shows that L-methionine (1 mM) alone had no effect on the  $\rm H_2O_2$ -induce acidosis, (c) shows that N-MPG (10 mM) alone significantly inhibited the acidosis, and (d) shows that this effect was not enhanced by addition of L-methionine (1 mM). B is a histogram showing the time-dependent (10, 20, or 30 min) p $\rm H_i$  change induced by  $\rm H_2O_2$  and the effects of L-methionine and N-MPG averaged for seven experiments similar to that shown in A. The columns and bars represent the means  $\rm \pm S.E.M.$ ; \*p<0.05 compared with in the absence of  $\rm H_2O_2$ .

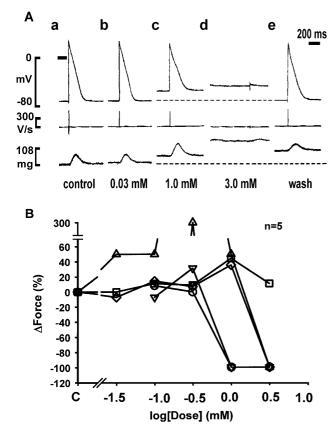


Fig. 3. Effects of various concentrations of  $H_2O_2$  (0.03–3 mM) on the electrophysiological and mechanical parameters of the diseased human ventricular myocardium. In A, the action potential (upper trace) and its 0 phase depolarization (middle trace) and the contractile force (lower trace) were recorded (a) in Tyrode solution, (b–d) in the presence of 0.03 (b), 1 (c), or 3 (d) mM  $H_2O_2$ , and (e) after washout in drug-free superfusate. B shows the percentage change in contractile force versus the logarithm of the  $H_2O_2$  concentration curve for five separate experiments similar to that shown in A; the different symbols indicate data from different human ventricular myocardial preparations. The change in the contractile force is expressed as a percentage change relative to the control value (C) before  $H_2O_2$  exposure. Note that the resting diastolic force is increased dramatically by adding higher concentrations of  $H_2O_2$  (A-c and A-d).

(USA) and Wako (Japan). When 20 mM NH<sub>4</sub>Cl was used, it was added directly as solid to solution with osmotic compensation by replacing the same concentration of NaCl, because NH<sub>4</sub>Cl was easily dissolved in the solution. H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, dibenzamidostilbene disulfonic acid (DBDS), N-(mercaptopropionyl)-glycine (N-MPG) and L-methionine were added, as stock solutions, to solutions shortly before use.

#### 2.5. Statistics

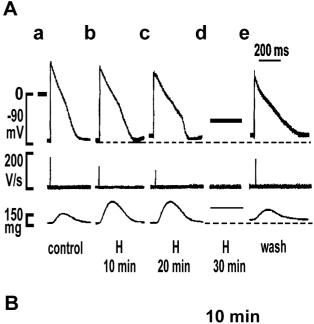
All data are expressed as the mean  $\pm$  the standard error of the mean (S.E.M.) for n preparations. Statistical analysis was performed using one-way analysis of variance (one-way ANOVA), and Wilcoxon's signed rank test was used to test significance. A p value smaller than 0.05 was regarded as significant.

#### 3. Results

### 3.1. Intracellular acidosis is induced by H2O2

In pH<sub>i</sub> measurement experiments, the steady-state pH<sub>i</sub> value for the diseased human ventricular myocardium was found to be  $7.22 \pm 0.03$  (n = 33). This value is similar to that reported previously in animal models (Ellis and Thomas, 1976).

At the beginning of all pH<sub>i</sub> measurement experiments, unless otherwise stated, a 20 mM NH<sub>4</sub>Cl pre-pulse was applied for about 10 min to induce an intracellular acidosis (Roos and Boron, 1981) and only those tissues showing a rapid pH<sub>i</sub> recovery immediately after the induced intracellular acidosis were used in experiments, thus guaranteeing that the tissue was in good condition. The left part of Fig. 1A shows a typical NH<sub>4</sub>Cl pre-pulse control, in which



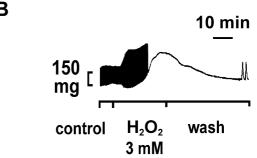


Fig. 4. Time-dependent effects of 3 mM  $\rm H_2O_2$  (H) on electrophysiological and mechanical parameters in the diseased human ventricular myocardium. In (A), the action potential (upper trace), maximal rate of rise of the 0 phase depolarization (middle trace), and contractile force (lower trace) were recorded at different times in the absence and presence of  $\rm H_2O_2$  in Tyrode solution (a: control; b, c, and d: after 10, 20, and 30 min exposure to  $\rm H_2O_2$ , respectively; e: after washout 1 h). (B) Recordings of the contractile force at slow speed in the same experiment as that in A. Note that the diastolic resting force increases dramatically after 30 min in the presence of 3 mM  $\rm H_2O_2$  (A-d and B).

the induced acute intracellular acid load is followed by rapid recovery.

The effect of superfusion with  $H_2O_2$  (30  $\mu M-3$  mM) on the  $pH_i$  of the diseased human ventricular myocardium is shown on the right of Fig. 1A.  $H_2O_2$  treatment caused a concentration-dependent reduction of the  $pH_i$ , and the highest concentration of  $H_2O_2$  (3 mM) resulted in a large irreversible  $pH_i$  reduction. The histogram (Fig. 1B) shows the mean  $H_2O_2$ -induced  $pH_i$  reduction for five experiments similar to that shown in Fig. 1A. The results clearly show that the  $H_2O_2$ -induced intracellular acidosis is concentration-dependent in the range of 0.03 to 3 mM.

This is the first demonstration of an  $H_2O_2$ -induced  $pH_i$  reduction in diseased human ventricular myocardium, similar to that found in animal cells, such as cultured rat cardiac myoblasts (Wu et al., 1996) and rat cerebellar astrocytes and C6 glioma cells (Tsai et al., 1997).

# 3.2. The effects of antioxidants on the intracellular pH and H2O2-induced intracellular acidosis

As  $H_2O_2$  can readily cross the cell membrane and be converted, via the Fenton reaction, to ·OH and, possibly, subsequently to HOCl, we wished to determine which of these chemical species were involved in the  $H_2O_2$ -induced intracellular acidification in the diseased human ventricular myocardium. The tissue was therefore pretreated for 30 min with N-(mercaptopropionyl)-glycine (N-MPG; 10 mM), a

highly potent intracellular scavenger of the ·OH free radical, and L-methionine (1 mM), a specific inhibitor of the HOCl free radical (Ide et al., 2000), both alone or in combination, before addition of 3 mM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. Fig. 2A-a shows a control experiment demonstrating that treatment with 3 mmol  $1^{-1}$ H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> resulted in a time-dependent pH<sub>i</sub> reduction (approximately 0.20 and 0.52 pH units after 5 and 10 min, respectively). As shown in Fig. 2A-b, 1 mM L-methionine alone had no significant effect on the intracellular acidosis induced by H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. However, 10 mM N-MPG significantly inhibited the H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-induced acidosis (reduction of only 0.2 pH units 30 min after H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> addition (Fig. 2A-c) and no additive effect was seen using the combination of 10 mM N-MPG and 1 mM L-methionine (Fig. 2A-d). Note that the H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-induced intracellular acidosis was reversible only after N-MPG pretreatment. The summarized results for seven experiments similar to that in Fig. 2A are shown in the histogram in Fig. 2B. The pH<sub>i</sub> changes after 30 min treatment with the oxygen free radicals scavengers, N-MPG, L-methionine, and the combination of N-MPG and L-methionine (no exposure to  $H_2O_2$ ) were  $-0.16 \pm 0.02$  (p < 0.05),  $0 \pm 0.01$ ;  $-0.21 \pm 0.03$  (p < 0.05), respectively (n = 7).

# 3.3. Electrophysiological and mechanical effects of antioxidants and H2O2

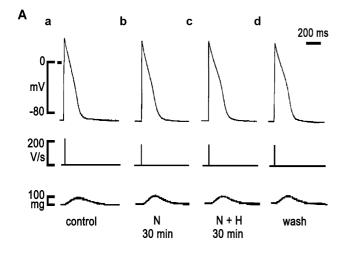
To examine the relationship between the H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-induced pH<sub>i</sub> disturbances and cardiac dysfunction, parallel experi-

Table 1 Effects of  $H_2O_2$  and antioxidants on action potential characteristics and force in the diseased human ventricular myocardia in Tyrode solution (3%CO<sub>2</sub>/HCO<sub>3</sub>;  $pH_o = 7.4$ )

p11 <sub>0</sub> 7.1)								
	n	APA (mV)	MDP (mV)	$APD_{50}$ (ms)	$APD_{90}$ (ms)	$V_{\rm max}$ (V/s)	Force change (mg)	DRF change (%)
Control	5	$107 \pm 5$	$-86 \pm 5$	$148 \pm 35$	$260 \pm 36$	$267 \pm 89$	125 ± 42	
H 10'	5	$93 \pm 6^{a}$	$-81 \pm 3$	$153 \pm 27$	$295 \pm 40$	$203 \pm 98$	$271 \pm 69^{a}$	$67 \pm 36^{a}$
H 20'	5	$61 \pm 31^{a}$	$-52 \pm 12^{a}$	$210 \pm 21^{a}$	$335\pm32^a$	$40 \pm 40^{a}$	$269 \pm 113^{a}$	$128 \pm 17^{a}$
H 30'	5	$0 \pm 0^{a}$	$-36 \pm 16^{a}$	$0 \pm 0^a$	$0 \pm 0^{a}$	$0 \pm 0^{a}$	$0 \pm 0^{a}$	$275 \pm 68^{a}$
Control	5	$101 \pm 6$	$-85 \pm 5$	$156 \pm 19$	$296 \pm 27$	$259 \pm 68$	$118 \pm 24$	
L 30'	5	$97 \pm 4$	$-78 \pm 7$	$178 \pm 21$	$312 \pm 20$	$213 \pm 89$	$130 \pm 2$	$6 \pm 5$
L+H 10'	4	$90 \pm 2^{a}$	$-80 \pm 11$	$197 \pm 22$	$348 \pm 52$	$109 \pm 59^{a}$	$204 \pm 18^{a}$	$49 \pm 23^{a}$
L+ H 20'	4	$0 \pm 0^{a}$	$-41 \pm 9^{a}$	$0 \pm 0^{\mathrm{a}}$	$0 \pm 0^{a}$	$0 \pm 0^{a}$	$0 \pm 0^{a}$	$111 \pm 46^{a}$
L+ H 30'	4	$0 \pm 0^{a}$	$-32 \pm 14^{a}$	$0 \pm 0^{a}$	$0 \pm 0^{\mathrm{a}}$	$0 \pm 0^{a}$	$0\pm0^{\mathrm{a}}$	$249 \pm 60^{a}$
Control	4	$116 \pm 4$	$-89 \pm 5$	$150 \pm 21$	$255 \pm 18$	$233 \pm 16$	$95 \pm 22$	
N 30'	4	$117 \pm 6$	$-84 \pm 4$	$164 \pm 16$	$248 \pm 19$	$223 \pm 16$	$104 \pm 13$	$0\pm0$
N + H 10'	4	$116 \pm 5$	$-84 \pm 4$	$170 \pm 17$	$255 \pm 21$	$229 \pm 11$	$105 \pm 14$	$3\pm2$
N + H 20'	4	$115 \pm 9$	$-87 \pm 5$	$171 \pm 16$	$273 \pm 18$	$216 \pm 21$	$110 \pm 21$	$2\pm2$
N+H 30'	4	$111\pm10$	$-86 \pm 4$	$176\pm23$	$280\pm15^a$	$203 \pm 20$	$112 \pm 23$	$3\pm2$
Control	5	$117 \pm 8$	$-83 \pm 7$	$175 \pm 24$	$288 \pm 32$	$237 \pm 18$	$119 \pm 34$	
L+N 30'	5	$121 \pm 11$	$-82 \pm 7$	$173 \pm 23$	$283 \pm 33$	$242 \pm 22$	$124 \pm 13$	$1\pm0$
L + N + H 10'	5	$115 \pm 10$	$-79 \pm 5$	$207 \pm 21$	$339 \pm 28$	$257 \pm 21$	$164 \pm 42$	$2\pm 5$
L + N + H 20'	5	$113 \pm 11$	$-79 \pm 6$	$203 \pm 25$	$324 \pm 45$	$253 \pm 26$	$107 \pm 27$	$7 \pm 6$
L + N + H 30'	5	$112 \pm 14$	$-78 \pm 10$	$210 \pm 21$	$300 \pm 35$	$200 \pm 15$	$99 \pm 39$	$5\pm6$

Values are the means  $\pm$  S.E.M., n= number of preparations, APA= action potential amplitude, MDP= maximum diastolic potential, APD<sub>50</sub>= action potential duration at 50% repolarization, APD<sub>90</sub>= action potential duration at 90% repolarization,  $V_{\text{max}}$ = maximum upstroke velocity of phase 0 depolarization, DRF= diastolic resting force, H=H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, L-M=L-methionine, N-MPG,= N-(mercaptopropionyl)-glycine. Data were evaluated by one-way analysis of variance (one-way ANOVA) and Wilcoxon signed rank test was used to test significance.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> p < 0.05, significantly different from the control value in each group.



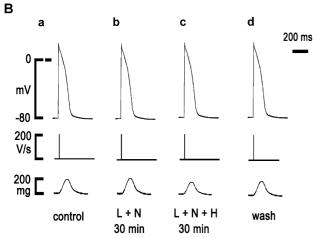
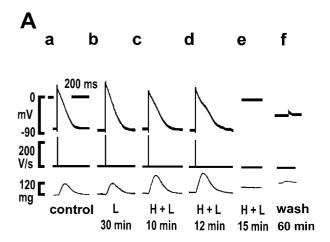


Fig. 5. Effect of adding N-MPG (N) alone or together with L-methionine (L) on the electrophysiological and mechanical parameters [action potential (upper trace) and its 0 phase depolarization (middle trace), and the contractile force (lower trace)] in the presence of a free radical generating system in the diseased human ventricular myocardium. (A) Recordings are (a) control, (b) in the presence of N-MPG (N), (c) in the presence N-MPG and 3 mM  $H_2O_2$  (N+H), (d) after washout in drug-free superfusate. (B) Recorded (a) in control Tyrode solution, (b) in the presence of N-MPG plus L-methionine (L+N), (c) in the presence of N-MPG plus L-methionine (L+N) and 3 mM  $H_2O_2$  (H), (d) after washout in drug-free superfusate.

ments on the electromechanical parameters of the human ventricular myocardium were performed. As shown in the original traces in Fig. 3A-b, 0.03 mM  $\rm H_2O_2$  had no obvious effect on the duration and amplitude of action potential (top trace) and contractile force (bottom trace), but reduced the depolarization of the 0 phase of the action potential ( $V_{\rm max}$ ; middle trace). In contrast, 1 mM  $\rm H_2O_2$  had a significant effect on the action potential characteristics, including prolongation of the APD<sub>50</sub> and APD<sub>90</sub> and inhibition of the  $V_{\rm max}$  (Fig. 3A-c; top and middle traces); it also dramatically increased the contractile force and significantly elevated the diastolic resting force (bottom trace of Fig. 3A-c). Using 3 mM  $\rm H_2O_2$ , the generation of action potential and contractile force were totally inhibited, while the diastolic

resting tension showed an even more dramatic increase (Fig. 3A-d). These effects were slowly reversible after about 50 min washout in drug-free Tyrode solution (Fig. 3A-e). Similar results were obtained using another four ventricular preparations. In four out of five experiments similar to that shown in Fig. 3A, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> had a dose-dependent biphasic effect on the contractile force, i.e. an increase at lower doses, followed by inhibition at higher doses, whereas, in the fifth preparation, only the initial increase was seen (Fig. 3B; note that each symbol represents an individual myocardium).

Fig. 4 shows that the inhibition of the electrophysiological parameters induced by  $H_2O_2$  (3 mM) was time-dependent and the ventricular myocardium became unexcitable at about 20-30 min, a similar time-course to that seen in the  $pH_i$  experiments. In particular, as illustrated in the bottom trace of Fig. 4A, the effects of 3 mM  $H_2O_2$  on the contractile force were not only time-dependent, but also biphasic, i.e. an increase, followed by a decrease, similar to results seen in guinea pig cardiac muscles (Satoh and Matsui, 1997). This



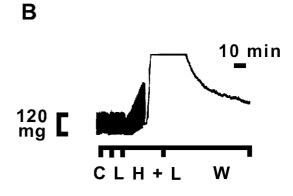


Fig. 6. Effects of L-methionine (L) on electrophysiological and mechanical parameters in the diseased human ventricular myocardium. Effect of L-methionine (1 mM) on the action potential (upper trace) and its 0 phase depolarization (middle trace), and the contractile force (lower trace). Recordings (a) in control Tyrode solution, (b) in the presence of 1 mM L-methionine, (c-e) in the presence of 1 mM L-methionine and 3 mM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>(H) for 10 (c), 12 (d) and 15 (e) min, and (f) after washout in drug-free superfusate. (B) Recordings of the contractile force at slow speed in the same experiment shown in (A).

effect can be seen more clearly in the continuous slow recording trace (Fig. 4B). The results of five similar experiments showing the time-dependent effects of 3 mM  $\rm H_2O_2$  on electrophysiological and mechanical parameters are summarized in Table 1.

# 3.4. Electromechanical effects of antioxidants on H2O2-induced injury

Since the changes induced in the electrophysiological and mechanic experiments by exposure to 3 mM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> had a similar time-course to the pH<sub>i</sub> changes, experiments were performed under the same conditions used in the pHi experiments to see whether oxygen free radicals scavengers could protect human ventricular myocardium from the H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-induced-inhibitory effects on electromechanical characteristics. Pretreatment with N-MPG (10 mM, 30 min) itself had no significant effect on the electromechanical characteristics (Fig. 5A-b), but afforded significant protection against perfusion with H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (3 mM for 30 min) (Fig. 5A-c; compare with Fig. 4A-d). A similar cardioprotective effect was seen using the combination of 1 mM L-methionine and 10 mM N-MPG (Fig. 5B). The results of several similar experiments are summarized in Table 1. In addition, as seen in the pH<sub>i</sub> experiments, L-methionine (1 mM) had no protective effect against the H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-induced inhibition of electromechanical parameters (Fig. 6A). Fig. 6B shows that H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> in the presence of L-methionine still had a biphasic effect on the contractile force and increased the diastolic resting force in a time-dependent manner. Table 1 summarizes the data for several experiments similar to that shown in Fig. 6A and B. Moreover, as shown in Fig. 7, pretreatment with the intrinsic H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> scavenger, DBDA (1 mM), for 30 min did not prevent the H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-induced inhibitory effects on electromechanical parameters.

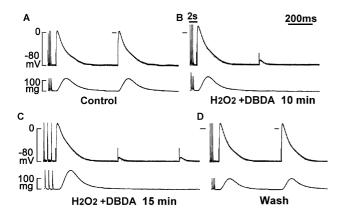


Fig. 7. Effects of DBDA on electrophysiological and mechanical parameters in the diseased human ventricular myocardium. Effect of DBDA (1mM) on the action potential (upper trace) and contractile force (lower trace). Recordings (A) in control Tyrode solution (in the presence of 1mM DBDA 30 min), (B) in the presence of 1 mM DBDA and 3 mM  $\rm H_2O_2$  for 10 min (C), 15 min, and (D) after washout in drug-free superfusate. Note that two recording speeds have been used, as shown above the scale bar.

#### 4. Discussion

Using the technique of microspectrofluorimetry, we have, for the first time, demonstrated that H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (0.1-3 mM) caused marked intracellular acidosis in the diseased human ventricular myocardium (Fig. 1A). This effect was dose- and time-dependent (Figs. 1 and 2). The underlying mechanism for the H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-induced acidosis is probably the intracellular production of OH after H2O2 influx (i.e. via the Fenton reaction). This conclusion is strongly supported by the fact that the H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-induced intracellular acidosis was blocked by the specific potent ·OH scavenger, N-MPG (Fig. 2A-c,d), but not blocked by the HOCl scavenger, L-methionine (Fig. 2A-b,d) or the intrinsic H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> scavenger, DBDA (Fig. 7). Similar observations have been reported in animal models (Wu et al., 1996). These results indicated that the intracellular concentration of HOCl produced by H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> entry makes little or no contribution to the H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-induced pH<sub>i</sub> reduction.

In addition, our data showed that  $H_2O_2$  (>0.1 mM) caused significant effects on electromechanical parameters, such as the APD, 0 phase depolarization, and resting membrane potential (Fig. 3), and induced biphasic increase/decrease in twitch amplitude and monotonic increase in resting tension (Figs. 3 and 4). Indeed, similar results have been obtained in guinea-pig heart muscles (Satoh and Matsui, 1997), in which the induced biphasic response was claimed by the production of ·OH free radical. Their finding is in good agreement with our results that the specific ·OH free radical scavenger, *N*-MPG, provided significant protection against the  $H_2O_2$ -induced inhibition on the electromechanical parameters (Fig. 4), whereas HOCl and intrinsic  $H_2O_2$  scavengers (L-methionine and DBDA, respectively) did not (Figs. 5–7).

The above results strongly suggest that the intracellular •OH free radical is responsible not only for the H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>induced pH<sub>i</sub> acidification, but also for the induced electromechanical effects. In other words, our present study in the diseased human ventricular tissue is in agreement with the hypothesis that ·OH injury plays a critical role in the development of ischemia/reperfusion-induce cardiac injury, such as stunning (Bolli, 1990; Farber et al., 1988; Goldhaber et al., 1989; Kloner et al., 1989). Moreover, the oxygen free radicals-induced time-dependent changes in our present study also support the report that the initial burst of oxygen free radicals generation peaks 2 min after reflow, and production continues for up to 3 h (Kaplinsky et al., 1981; Zwier et al., 1987; Bolli, 1990). However, whether the present result derived from diseased ventricular tissues (heart failure) is different from that of healthy ones require further study to clarify. Also, note that the large S.E.M. was commonly existed in different groups of our present experiments, as shown in the Table 1. Although it seems to us that the large variation was simply due to the nature biological difference among different samples, the other possibility, such as the influence of disease condition, require further

study. Moreover, the other possibilities that may contribute to cardiac stunning, such as NO (Hattler et al., 1994), cytokines (Finkel et al., 1992), and prostaglandins (Faber and Gross, 1989), require further investigation.

In skinned cardiac fibers, Fabiato and Fabiato (1978) found that a decrease of pH<sub>i</sub> resulted in reduced contractile force, while an increase had the opposite effect. Experiments in mammalian cardiac Purkinje and ventricular tissue showed that the inotropic effect of changing the pHo was mediated by a change in the pH<sub>i</sub> (Bountra and Vaughan-Jones, 1989; Vaughan-Jones et al., 1987). Moreover, in experiments on isolated mammalian papillary muscle, Bountra and Vaughan-Jones (1989) found that intracellular acidosis can sometimes result in increased, rather than decreased, contraction, especially when the pHo was maintained at 7.40. Similarly, in rat trabeculae, Orchard et al. (1987) found that acidosis can increase the systolic [Ca<sup>2+</sup>]<sub>i</sub>. This variability in the contractile response to intracellular acidosis is due to an effect of acidosis on the intracellular Na <sup>+</sup> concentration. Developed tension in cardiac tissue is markedly dependent on the [Na<sup>+</sup>]<sub>i</sub> (Eisner et al., 1984). The inotropic response of cardiac tissue to acidosis is therefore modulated by the negative inotropic effect of the [H<sup>+</sup>]<sub>i</sub> in combination with changes in the [Na<sup>+</sup>]<sub>i</sub>, leading to changes in the [Ca<sup>2+</sup>]<sub>i</sub>, i.e. Ca<sup>2+</sup>-overloading. Therefore, according to our present study, we propose that the ·OH-induced changes of contractile force was strongly correlated with the induced intracellular acidosis and the subsequent changes of [Na<sup>+</sup>]<sub>i</sub> and [Ca<sup>2+</sup>]<sub>i</sub>. Especially, it has been claimed that the OH-induced acidosis is due to inhibition of the glycolytic pathway, with hydrolysis of intracellular ATP and the resultant intracellular acidification (Wu et al., 1996). In addition to the intracellular acidification contribution to OH-induced myocardium injury, we should also consider other possibilities, such as (1) the competition between Ca<sup>2+</sup> and H<sup>+</sup> for common binding sites (e.g. the intracellular buffer); (2) increased sarcolemmal permeability to Ca<sup>2+</sup> ions; (3) effect on transmembrane calcium current inactivation; (4) mitochondrial impairment; (5) damage to the Ca<sup>2+</sup> release channel of sarcoplasmic reticulum; and (6) activation of ATP-sensitive K + channel; and inhibition of the glycolytic pathway (Goldhaber et al., 1989; Holmberg et al., 1991; Satoh and Matsui, 1997; Wu et al., 1996). Moreover, given the facts that the resting pH<sub>i</sub> was decreased by  $\sim 0.2$  pH units during the pretreatment of N-MPG (Fig. 2A-c) and during that of L-methionine+N-MPG (Fig. 2Ad), but not in that of L-methionine alone. This indicated that N-MPG per se, instead of L-methionine, could slightly acidify pH<sub>i</sub>. However, whether N-MPG per se acidifies the resting pH<sub>i</sub> through its chemical structure property (i.e. with carboxylic acid group) or other mechanisms require further study.

In summary, in terms of clinical implications, the results of our present study support the idea that the underlying mechanism by which oxygen free radicals induce cardiac dysfunction is most probably the intracellular production of OH, which damages the tissue related with the induced intracellular acidosis in combination with changes in the changes of the [Na<sup>+</sup>]<sub>i</sub> and [Ca<sup>2+</sup>]<sub>i</sub>. Thus, the development of a more specific and potent ·OH scavenger would be one potential approach to preventing certain pathological conditions, especially those involving oxidative challenge.

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