

Trypanosoma cruzi Dihydrolipoamide Dehydrogenase is Inactivated by Myeloperoxidase-Generated “Reactive Species”

J. GUTIERREZ-CORREA^a, R.L. KRAUTH-SIEGEL^b and A.O.M. STOPPANI^{a,*}

^aBioenergetics Research Centre, School of Medicine, University of Buenos Aires, Paraguay 2155, 1121-Buenos Aires, Argentina;

^bBiochemie-Zentrum, Heidelberg University, Im Neuenheimer Feld 328, 69120-Heidelberg, Germany

Accepted by Prof. V. Darley-Usmar

(Received 27 September 1999; In revised form 2 November 1999)

Dihydrolipoamide dehydrogenase (LADH) from *Trypanosoma cruzi* was inactivated by treatment with myeloperoxidase (MPO)-dependent systems. With MPO/H₂O₂/NaCl, LADH lipoamide reductase and diaphorase activities significantly decreased as a function of incubation time. Iodide, bromide, thiocyanide and chloride effectively supplemented the MPO/H₂O₂ system, KI and NaCl being the most and the least effective supplements, respectively. LADH inactivation by MPO/H₂O₂/NaCl and by NaOCl was similarly prevented by thiol compounds such as GSH, L-cysteine, N-acetylcysteine, penicillamine and N-(2-mercaptopropionyl-glycine) in agreement with the role of HOCl in LADH inactivation by MPO/H₂O₂/NaCl. LADH was also inactivated by MPO/NADH/halide, MPO/H₂O₂/NaNO₂ and MPO/NADH/NaNO₂ systems. Catalase prevented the action of the NADH-dependent systems, thus supporting H₂O₂ production by NADH-supplemented LADH. MPO inhibitors (4-aminobenzoic acid hydrazide, and isoniazid), GSH, L-cysteine, L-methionine and L-tryptophan prevented LADH inactivation by MPO/H₂O₂/NaNO₂. Other MPO systems inactivating LADH were (a) MPO/H₂O₂/chlorpromazine; (b) MPO/H₂O₂/monophenolic systems, including L-tyrosine, serotonin and acetaminophen and (c) MPO/H₂O₂/di- and polyphenolic systems, including norepinephrine, catechol,

nordihydroguaiaretic acid, caffeic acid, quercetin and catechin. Comparison of the above effects and those previously reported with pig myocardial LADH indicates that both enzymes were similarly affected by the MPO-dependent systems, allowance being made for *T. cruzi* LADH diaphorase inactivation and the greater sensitivity of its LADH lipoamide reductase activity towards the MPO/H₂O₂/NaCl system and NaOCl.

Keywords: Dihydrolipoamide dehydrogenase, myeloperoxidase, peroxidase, halides, hypochlorous acid, nitrite, thiol compounds

Abbreviations and chemical terms: LADH, dihydrolipoamide dehydrogenase (NADH-lipoamide oxido-reductase, E.C. 1.6.4.3); MPO, myeloperoxidase; HRP, horseradish peroxidase; LPO, lactoperoxidase; HOCl, (OCl⁻) hypochlorous acid (anion); DCl, dichlorophenol-indophenol; K-phosphate, KH₂PO₄-K₂HPO₄; GSH and GSSG, reduced and oxidized glutathione, respectively; Cys, L-cysteine; NAC, N-acetylcysteine; MPG, N-(2-mercaptopropionylglycine); PAM, penicillamine (3-mercapto-D-valine); CPT, Captopril [1-(3-mercapto-2-methyl-1-oxopropyl-L-proline)]; ABAH, 4-aminobenzoic acid hydrazide; I, isoniazid, 4-pyridine carboxylic acid hydrazide; caffeic acid, (3,4-dihydroxycinnamic acid); CPZ, chlorpromazine; NDGA, nordihydroguaiaretic acid

* Corresponding author. Tel./Fax: (+5411) 4-508-3680. E-mail: stoppani@mail.retina.ar.

INTRODUCTION

Trypanosoma cruzi, the agent of American trypanosomiasis (Chagas' disease) possesses LADH as a constitutive enzyme. *T. cruzi* LADH has been isolated from epimastigote parasites and the gene, cloned and overexpressed.^[1,2] The enzyme has diaphorase activity (less than 5% of the lipoamide reductase activity) and is inhibited by arsenite, cadmium and *p*-chloromercuribenzoate, in close agreement with an essential role of thiol groups in LADH.^[3] *T. cruzi* LADH is a homodimeric protein with FAD as prosthetic group and the calculated molecular mass of the holoprotein is 50,066. Comparison of the deduced amino acid sequence of *T. cruzi* LADH with that of human LADH shows 50% identities. Moreover, 21 out of 30 positions of the N-terminal amino acid sequence of the *T. cruzi* enzyme are identical with those of pig heart LADH.^[1,2] The parasite LADH is probably a component of the mitochondrial 2-oxoacid dehydrogenase complexes since *T. cruzi* possesses a complete citric acid cycle.^[4]

In order to obtain information on *T. cruzi* LADH response to "reactive species", capable of originating a new approach to Chagas' disease therapy, we have studied the action of MPO/H₂O₂-dependent systems, including different MPO substrates, on *T. cruzi* LADH. MPO plays a major role in oxidant production by neutrophils,^[5] monocytes and macrophages.^[6] MPO uses H₂O₂ and chloride ions to produce hypochlorous acid (HOCl) which is a strong enzyme inhibitor.^[5] Moreover, the MPO/H₂O₂ systems produce other "reactive species" including NO₂[•] and organic radicals.^[5] Some MPO/H₂O₂ systems (the halide- and nitrite-dependent ones) inactivate myocardial LADH,^[7] an effect which allows *T. cruzi* and myocardial LADH sensitivity to free radicals and oxidants to be compared.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Enzyme Preparations

Recombinant LADH from *T. cruzi* was obtained as described.^[2] The enzyme was stored as a

suspension in 50% (v/v) glycerol–100 mM K-phosphate buffer, pH 7.0, containing 100 mM KCl, 1.0 mM EDTA and 1.0 mM dithioerythritol. The specific activity of LADH preparations was about 70 units/mg. Enzyme suspensions were diluted (1/2 v/v) with 50 mM K-phosphate, pH 7.4, and kept at 4°C for subsequent use. Human leukocyte MPO as well as HRP, LPO and catalase were obtained from Sigma Chemical Co., (St. Louis, MO, USA). MPO specific activity ranged from 50 to 100 units/mg, as determined by the standard guaiacol/H₂O₂ assay. Other conditions were as described previously.^[7]

Reagents

ABAH, CPZ, serotonin, catechol, norepinephrine, NDGA, acetaminophen, caffeic acid, quercetin and catechin were obtained from Sigma. Other reagents were as described previously.^[7]

LADH Inactivation

Unless otherwise stated, the LADH inactivation mixture contained LADH, MPO, H₂O₂, EDTA, K-phosphate, pH 7.4, and additions as indicated under Results; final volume, 100 µl. The inactivation mixture also contained 1.25 mM KCl, 12.5 µM EDTA, and 12.5 µM dithioerythritol as a result of dilution of the original LADH suspension. Samples were incubated at 30°C for the time indicated in each case and aliquots of the inactivation mixture (10 or 20 µl) were added to the assay mixture, residual LADH activity being measured as described below. Control samples without MPO or other additions were incubated simultaneously, as stated under Results.

LADH Assays

LADH activity was measured at 30°C by the rate of NADH oxidation using lipoamide as electron acceptor. The standard reaction mixture contained 50 mM K-phosphate, pH 7.4, 0.2 mM NADH, 1.0 mM lipoamide, 1.0 mM EDTA and LADH resulting from the inactivation mixture

addition; total volume, 3.0 ml. Diaphorase activity was measured at 30°C by the rate of DCI reduction using NADH as electron donor. The reaction mixture contained 50 mM K-phosphate, pH 7.4, 0.2 mM NADH, 20 nM LADH and 40 μM DCI, total volume, 1.0 ml. Other experimental conditions were as previously described.^[7]

Expression of Results

LADH activity values are presented as a percentage of control sample activity (100%). LADH inactivation (*I*%) and protection (*P*%) were calculated as described previously.^[7] Unless otherwise stated, values represent a mean of duplicate measurements, the experimental values differing by less than 5% from the mean value. When more than two measurements were performed, the values presented are mean ± SD. Statistical analysis was performed using Student's *t*-test for paired values.

RESULTS

Effect of the MPO/H₂O₂/Halide Systems

Figure 1 shows the effect of the MPO/H₂O₂/NaCl system on LADH lipoamide reductase and LADH diaphorase activities. It is to be seen that the LADH lipoamide reductase activity dropped rapidly during the first 10 min incubation reaching its minimum value (100% inactivation) after 60 min incubation. Diaphorase inactivation followed a different kinetics: it increased slightly during the first 20 min incubation, an effect that recalls the increase of myocardial LADH diaphorase activity under similar experimental conditions.^[7] Subsequently, activity continuously decreased reaching a minimum value (30% of the initial one) after 60 min incubation. Omission of MPO prevented the loss of LADH activity (Figure 1). LADH inactivation depended on the halide nature and correlation of inactivation with halide concentration values showed that the MPO/H₂O₂/KI system was the most effective; followed by the NaBr, KSCN and NaCl systems (Table I). LADH diaphorase activity was also

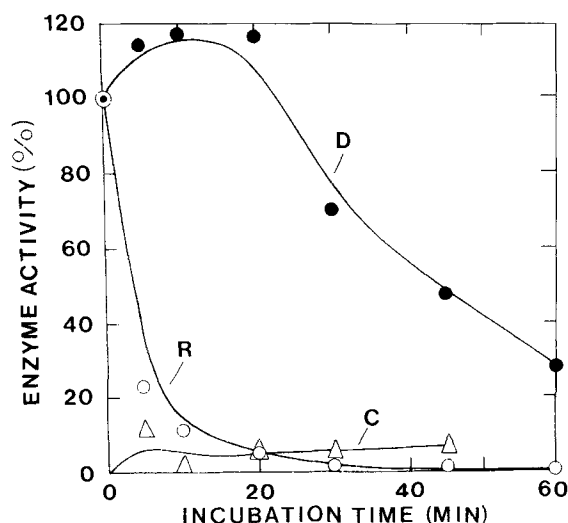


FIGURE 1 Inactivation of LADH lipoamide reductase (R) and diaphorase (D) activities by the MPO/H₂O₂/NaCl system. Inactivation mixtures contained, in a total volume of 100 μl, 100 mM NaCl and LADH, MPO, H₂O₂, EDTA, and K-phosphate, pH 7.4 as described under Materials and Methods. Incubation time was as indicated on the abscissa. Other conditions were as described under Materials and Methods. Values represent mean of duplicate measurements. C, control sample including H₂O₂ and NaCl, but not MPO.

TABLE I Effect of MPO/H₂O₂/halide systems on LADH diaphorase and lipoamide reductase activities

Pro-oxidant system	LADH activity	
	Lipoamide reductase (%)	Diaphorase (μmol DCI/min)
None	100 ± 3.7	3.52 ± 0.10 (100)
MPO/H ₂ O ₂ /KI	1 ± 0.5 ^c	1.40 ± 0.10 (40) ^c
MPO/H ₂ O ₂ /NaBr	3 ± 0.4 ^c	2.79 ± 0.28 (79) ^a
MPO/H ₂ O ₂ /NaCl	2 ± 1.9 ^c	2.49 ± 0.037 (71) ^b
MPO/H ₂ O ₂ /KSCN	53 ± 0.8 ^c	3.53 ± 0.14 (100)
MPO/H ₂ O ₂	96 ± 1.7	—

The inactivation mixtures contained 0.8 μM LADH, 0.5 U/ml MPO, 0.1 mM H₂O₂, 1.0 mM EDTA and 50 mM K-phosphate, pH 7.4. KI (25 μM), NaBr (1.0 mM), and NaCl (100 mM) were added as required by the assayed MPO/H₂O₂/halide system. Incubation time 30 min. Activity values represent mean ± SD (*n* = 3); in parenthesis relative activity. Other conditions were as described under Materials and Methods. ^a*P* < 0.02; ^b*P* < 0.01; ^c*P* < 0.001.

inhibited by the MPO/H₂O₂/halide systems assayed although the differences between control and halide supplemented samples were smaller than with LADH reductase activity (Table I).

Hypochlorous acid is the product of NaCl oxidation by MPO/H₂O₂,^[5] and accordingly, NaOCl was assayed on LADH. The results obtained are presented in Figure 2. It is to be seen that NaOCl inactivated LADH in a concentration-dependent manner, significant effects being obtained with 10 μ M NaOCl whereas 100 μ M NaOCl produced 98% inactivation. The inactivation kinetics showed an initial fast phase lasting for 2.5–5.0 min, followed by a relatively steady state phase, lasting to the end of incubation. Comparison of these results with those obtained with the myocardial LADH^[7] showed that the effect of NaOCl on *T. cruzi* LADH was greater and faster than on the myocardial enzyme. Interestingly enough, L-tyrosine effectively prevented the action of NaOCl (Figure 2), thus suggesting a reaction of HOCl with LADH Tyr residues, which could be prevented by the added L-tyrosine. LADH inactivation by NaOCl did not depend on traces of transition metals such as (Fe(II) and Cu(II)) in NaOCl since the original LADH

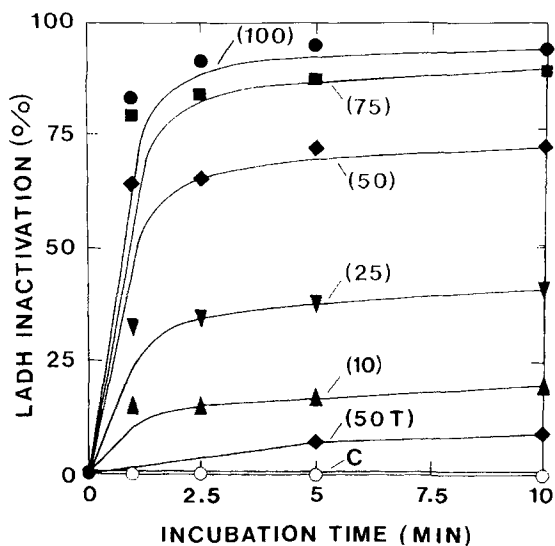


FIGURE 2 Time-course of LADH inactivation by NaOCl. The inactivation mixture contained 0.8 μ M LADH, 1.0 mM EDTA, in 50 mM K-phosphate, pH 7.4. NaOCl concentration (μ M) was as given in parenthesis; sample 50T contained 200 μ M L-tyrosine. Incubation time was as indicated on the abscissa. Other conditions were as described in the legend of Figure 1. C, control sample lacking NaOCl.

samples contained 1.0 mM EDTA. LADH inactivation by NaOCl and by the MPO/H₂O₂/NaCl system was prevented by thiol compounds such as GSH, Cys, NAC, PAM and MPG (Table II) whereas these were no significant differences between thiol effects on the MPO-system and NaOCl activities.

LADH was also inactivated by MPO halide systems in which NADH replaced H₂O₂. With these latter systems, the results obtained (not shown) closely resembled those reported with myocardial LADH.^[7] Catalase prevented LADH inactivation by the MPO/NADH/halide systems as illustrated with NaCl and KI supplemented systems (Table III). The effect of catalase confirmed the role of H₂O₂ for LADH inactivation by the MPO/NADH/halide systems.

Effect of the MPO/H₂O₂/NaNO₂ System

T. cruzi LADH was inactivated by the MPO/H₂O₂/NaNO₂ system, the reaction depending on incubation time and pH in the 6.0–7.4 range, the greatest effect being obtained at pH 6.0 (experimental data omitted). The MPO/H₂O₂/NaNO₂

TABLE II Effect of thiol compounds on LADH inactivation by the MPO/H₂O₂/NaCl system and by NaOCl

Thiol compound	LADH inactivation (%)	
	Pro-oxidant: MPO/H ₂ O ₂ /NaCl (Expt. A)	Pro-oxidant: NaOCl (Expt. B)
None	86.8 \pm 2.9	75.9 \pm 3.0
GSH	19.2 \pm 1.8 (78)	11.5 \pm 1.6 (85)
Cys	3.2 \pm 0.5 (96)	6.3 \pm 1.2 (92)
NAC	4.7 \pm 2.2 (94)	11.6 \pm 0.5 (85)
PAM	3.8 \pm 0.6 (96)	4.0 \pm 1.3 (94)
MPG	6.2 \pm 2.5 (93)	5.9 \pm 1.8 (92)

Expt. A: The inactivation mixture contained 0.8 μ M LADH, 0.5 U/ml MPO, 0.1 mM H₂O₂, 1.0 mM EDTA, 100 mM NaCl and 50 mM K-phosphate, pH 7.4. Expt. B: The inactivation mixture contained 0.8 μ M LADH, 50 μ M NaOCl, 1.0 mM EDTA and 50 mM K-phosphate, pH 7.4. Thiol compounds (200 μ M in A or 100 μ M in B) were added as stated above. Incubation time, 10 min. Other conditions were as described under Materials and Methods. Values represent mean \pm SD ($n=3$ or 4); in parenthesis, LADH protection by the thiol compound. In all cases $P < 0.05$.

TABLE III Effect of catalase on LADH inactivation by the MPO/NADH/halide system

Halide (mM)	Catalase ($\mu\text{g/ml}$)	LADH inactivation (%)	
		Incubation: 10 min	Incubation: 30 min
NaCl (100)	None	73 \pm 3.5	94 \pm 0.5
	5.0 (NC)	40 \pm 1.0	46 \pm 1.0
	5.0 (DC)	75 \pm 3.0	94 \pm 1.9
KI (0.1)	None	99 \pm 0.3	100 \pm 0.0
	5.0 (NC)	1 \pm 0.2	13 \pm 3.0
	5.0 (DC)	98 \pm 0.0	99 \pm 0.0

The inactivation mixture contained 0.8 μM LADH, 0.5 U/ml MPO, 1.0 mM EDTA and 50 mM K-phosphate pH 7.4. NaCl, KI and catalase were added as indicated above. NC; native catalase (150 U/ml); DC, denatured catalase (inactive). Other conditions were as described under Materials and Methods. LADH inactivation by the NADH/NaCl control system (MPO omitted) yielded 1% and 3% inactivation, after incubation for 10 and 30 min, respectively. Same, by the NADH/KI system, 4% and 5%, respectively.

effect was prevented by MPO inhibitors, such as ABAH,^[8] and isoniazid,^[9] the former being the more effective (Figure 3). Significant protection was also provided by L-cysteine, GSH, L-methionine and L-tryptophan but not by L-tyrosine which rather increased LADH inactivation (Table IV). LADH was also inactivated by the MPO/NADH/NaNO₂ system under experimental conditions as described in the legend of Table IV, except that H₂O₂ was replaced by 0.1 mM NADH). Under these experimental conditions, LADH inactivation values were 48% and 70% after 10 and 30 min incubation, respectively. Catalase (150 U/ml) protected LADH by 79% and 85%, respectively (experimental data omitted), in close agreement with results in Table III.

Effect of the MPO/H₂O₂/Phenothiazine System

Phenothiazines are effective inhibitors of *T. cruzi* enzymes, as illustrated by trypanothione reductase, also a flavoenzyme.^[10] Peroxidative bioactivation of phenothiazines to the corresponding cation radical species by peroxidases^[11,12] may represent one mechanism of the biochemical toxicity of these compounds. In agreement with this

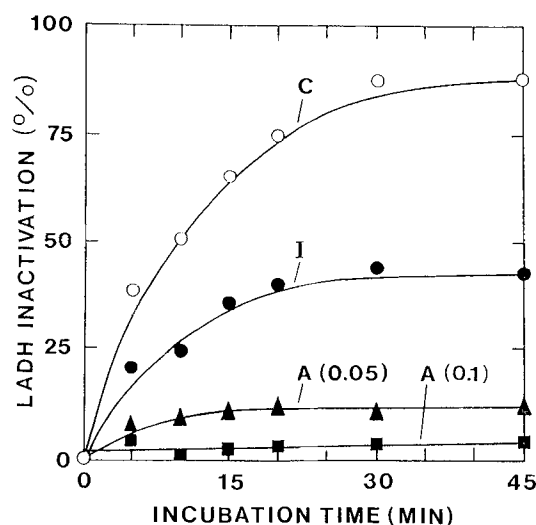


FIGURE 3 Effect of MPO inhibitors on LADH inactivation by the MPO/H₂O₂/NaNO₂ system. The reaction mixtures contained 0.8 μM LADH, 0.5 U/ml MPO, 0.25 mM H₂O₂, 0.25 mM NaNO₂, 1.0 mM EDTA in 50 mM K-phosphate, pH 6.0. Other additions were I, 0.20 mM isoniazid; A, 0.1 and 0.05 mM 4-aminobenzoate hydrazide as indicated on the abscissa. Incubation time was as indicated on the abscissa. Other conditions under Materials and Methods. C, control sample lacking MPO inhibitors.

TABLE IV Effect of thiol compounds and L-amino acids on LADH inactivation by the MPO/H₂O₂/NaNO₂ system

Addition	LADH inactivation (%)
None	61 \pm 3.5
L-cysteine (0.25)	0 \pm 1.0 (100) ^a
GSH (0.25)	10 \pm 3.8 (82) ^a
L-methionine (0.25)	2.4 \pm 1.2 (96) ^a
L-tyrosine (0.25)	74 \pm 1.4 (-22) ^a
L-tryptophan (0.50)	8.0 \pm 2.2 (87) ^a

The inactivation mixture contained 0.8 μM LADH, 0.5 U/ml MPO, 0.25 mM H₂O₂, 0.25 mM NaNO₂, 1.0 mM EDTA in 50 mM K-phosphate, pH 6.0. Amino acids were added as stated above. Incubation time 15 min. Other conditions were as described in the legend of Figure 1. Values represent mean \pm SD ($n = 3$); in parenthesis, protection of LADH (%).^a $P < 0.01$.

hypothesis, incubation of LADH with the MPO/H₂O₂/CPZ system led to LADH inactivation and after 30 min incubation, 95% of initial LADH activity was lost (Figure 4). Thiol compounds (GSH, PAM and CPT) prevented LADH inactivation by the MPO/H₂O₂/CPZ system and with PAM and CPT, an effective (about 90%), important and

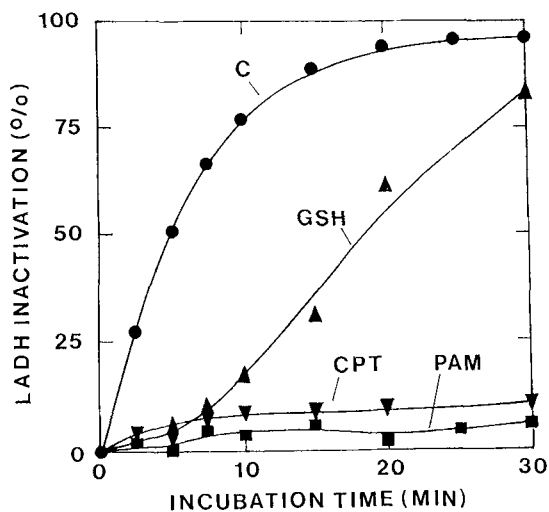


FIGURE 4 Time-course of LADH inactivation by the MPO/H₂O₂/CPZ system; effect of thiol compounds. The inactivation mixture contained 0.8 μM LADH, 0.5 U/ml MPO, 0.2 mM H₂O₂, 0.1 mM CPZ in 50 mM K-phosphate, pH 7.4. Other additions were 0.1 mM GSH, 0.1 mM PAM and 0.1 mM CPT as indicated in the figure. Incubation time was as indicated on the abscissa. C, control sample lacking thiols. Other conditions were as described under Materials and Methods.

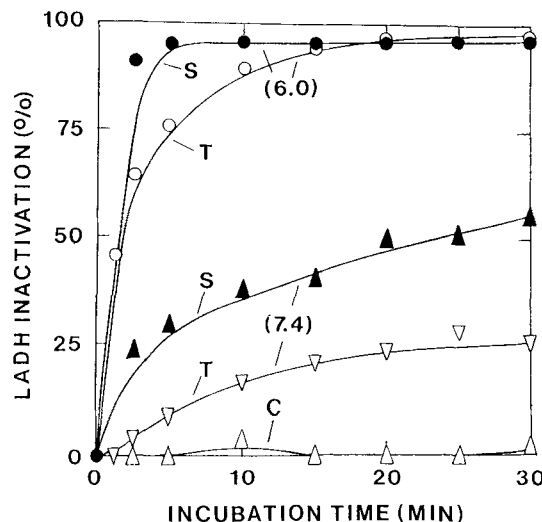


FIGURE 5 Time-course of LADH inactivation by the MPO/H₂O₂/L-tyrosine and serotonin systems at pH 6.0 and 7.4. The inactivation mixtures contained 0.8 μM LADH, 0.5 U/ml MPO, 0.2 mM H₂O₂, 1.0 mM EDTA in 50 mM K-phosphate. Other additions were 0.2 mM L-tyrosine (T), 0.1 mM serotonin (S). Other conditions were as described under Materials and Methods. C, control samples lacking MPO at 6.0; valid for all conditions.

stable protection was observed. However, with GSH, protection decreased as a function of incubation time and after 30 min, 80% of the protection effect was lost. CPZ activity depended on the peroxidase since the horseradish peroxidase and lactoperoxidase systems were more effective than the MPO/H₂O₂/CPZ system. Thus, after 2.5 min of incubation with the peroxidase/H₂O₂/CPZ systems (0.5 U/ml peroxidase, 0.2 mM H₂O₂, 100 μM CPZ), inactivation values obtained were (%; in parenthesis, the peroxidase used): 28 (MPO), 61 (LPO) and 93 (HRP).

Effect of the MPO/H₂O₂/Phenol Systems

Figure 5 shows that the MPO/H₂O₂/L-tyrosine (or serotonin) systems produced a significant time- and pH-dependent inactivation of LADH. At pH 6.0 and after 15 min incubation *circa* 95% of LADH activity was lost, irrespective of the system assayed. The effect of L-tyrosine at pH 6.0 fit in well with the results presented in Table IV. Other

phenolic compounds effectively contributed to LADH inactivation. Their concentrations were selected from previously obtained concentration-inhibition curves (omitted). LADH inactivation values (%) obtained after 30 min incubation of LADH with the MPO/H₂O₂/phenol system, under standard experimental conditions, may be summarized as follows (in parenthesis, phenol concentration (μM); catechol (5), 83; norepinephrine (1.0), 59; NDGA (1.0), 78; acetaminophen (10), 80; caffeic acid (50), 93; quercetin (50), 57 and catechin (50), 46. GSH and NAC (0.2 mM) prevented LADH inactivation by the MPO/H₂O₂/NDGA or acetaminophen systems, 77% and 100% respectively (experimental data omitted).

DISCUSSION

The results presented in this paper demonstrate that adequately supplemented MPO/H₂O₂ systems inactivate *T. cruzi* LADH, in close agreement

with previously reported effects of some of these systems on myocardial LADH.^[7] It is known that MPO/H₂O₂/halide systems, produce oxidizing and halogenating species^[13–15] which in our study, are assumed to be the agents of LADH inactivation. The relative activity of the halide systems assayed, depended on the nature of the halide (Tables I and III). Among the species generated by halide peroxidation, HOCl is produced by the MPO/H₂O₂/NaCl system, at NaCl concentrations compatible with chloride concentration in biological media, such as mammalian tissues, in which *T. cruzi* develops. The role of HOCl in LADH inactivation was supported by (a) the negligible effect of the MPO/H₂O₂ system in the absence of NaCl (Table I); (b) LADH inactivation by NaOCl (Figure 2) and (c) the protective action of thiol compounds against MPO/H₂O₂/NaCl and by NaOCl, irrespective of thiol compound structure (Table II). The mode of action of thiol compounds against hypochlorous acid (or anion) may be explained by reactions in which one molecule of thiol inactivates three molecules of HOCl.^[16–18] Peroxidizing reactions similar to those discussed above seem to occur with the MPO/NADH/halide systems as indicated by the effect of catalase (Table III). With the NADH-supplemented systems, H₂O₂ would then be produced by LADH-catalyzed NADH oxidation.^[7,19]

The inhibition of LADH diaphorase activity establishes a significant difference between *T. cruzi* and myocardial LADH since this latter enzyme activity linearly increased during treatment with the MPO/H₂O₂/halide system.^[7] The active site redox disulfide of *T. cruzi* LADH Cys-50 and Cys-55 would be selective targets for pro-oxidant species as indicated by the results obtained with myocardial LADH.^[7] However, the pattern of enzyme modification by the pro-oxidant system (Figure 1 and Table I) suggests that in addition to the active site thiols other amino acid residues would be modified in *T. cruzi* LADH, thus preventing electron transfer from NADH to DCI acceptor.^[20] The time dependence of the

amino acid residues so affected would explain the biphasic kinetics of LADH diaphorase modification (Figure 1). The nature and extent of such alterations remains to be established.

Sodium nitrite was an effective supplement of the MPO/H₂O₂ system for LADH inactivation (Figure 3). The effect of MPO inhibitors (Figure 3) and catalase (referred to in text) confirmed the essential role of the peroxidase reaction for nitrite activation. Nitrite ion is a direct metabolic product of nitric oxide^[21] and it is formed in macrophages.^[22] Therefore, it might have access to *T. cruzi* amastigotes during phagocytosis. Reactive radicals formed by peroxidase-catalyzed oxidation of nitrite^[23] can nitrate Tyr residues^[24] and oxidize thiol groups in proteins.^[25] Moreover, the protection of LADH by other amino acids (Table IV) agrees closely with the modifications of the corresponding residues in LADH.

CPZ was an effective inhibitor of LADH when supplementing the MPO/H₂O₂ system (Figure 4) and this inhibition might supplement other effects of CPZ in trypanosomatids.^[10] CPZ effect would imply the production of the phenothiazine cation radical (CPZ⁺•),^[11,12] which reacts with protein thiols as illustrated by bovine serum albumin^[26] and similar reactions can explain LADH inactivation. Protection of LADH by GSH and other thiols against the CPZ system fits in well with that hypothesis. CPZ⁺• radical reacts with thiol compounds forming the thiyl radical (GS[•]).^[27,28] The elimination of GS[•] by subsidiary reactions such as GS[•] + GS[•] → GSSG[•], or GS[•] + O₂ → GSOO[•] or GS[•] + GS[•] → GSSG, allow an electron flow that ensures the removal of the toxic CPZ⁺•. The GSSG[•] radical can, however, react with O₂ to produce superoxide radicals that may lead to other “reactive oxygen species”. These latter reactions probably explain the transient pattern of LADH protection by GSH, in contrast to the stable action of PAM and CPT which are less reactive towards oxygen.

It is known that the MPO/H₂O₂ system oxidizes phenols to the corresponding phenoxyl radical.^[29,30] Oxidation of L-tyrosine molecules

or protein Tyr residues by MPO/H₂O₂ produce *o,o'*-dityrosine molecules or protein-linked *o,o'*-dityrosine residues^[31–33] which can modify the structure of the protein molecule. In addition to these reactions, the MPO/H₂O₂/L-tyrosine system can produce L-tyrosine peroxide^[34] that might also contribute to LADH inactivation. Taken together, these reactions can explain the pro-oxidant action of L-tyrosine and serotonin on LADH (Table IV and Figure 5). Tyr residues in the neighborhood of *T. cruzi* LADH active site seem to be suitable targets for MPO-dependent systems, as indicated by the inactivating effects of MPO/H₂O₂/NaCl (Figure 1), MPO/H₂O₂/KI (Tables I and III), MPO/H₂O₂/NaNO₂ (Figure 3 and Table IV) and MPO/H₂O₂/L-tyrosine (or serotonin) (Figure 5). The diverse “reactive species” generated by these systems can affect LADH Tyr residues by different reaction mechanisms, including chlorination, iodination, nitration and adduct production.

Polyphenolic compounds, including the flavonoids mentioned under Results, are antioxidants, which is attributed to their free radical scavenging properties.^[35–37] In contrast to these effects, the results reported here show that the assayed polyphenols are pro-oxidants. These compounds, including quercetin and catechin, can react with MPO/H₂O₂, producing phenoxyl or semiquinone radicals which can be oxidized by dioxygen producing O₂⁻. This latter radical can react with quercetin quinol producing the semiquinone and H₂O₂.^[38,42] These reactions may be valid for other flavonoids, and the resulting *o*-quinones could covalently bind thiol groups in LADH,^[39,40] thus explaining, on the one hand, enzyme inactivation and, on the other, LADH protection by thiol compounds, such as GSH. Some polyphenolic compounds are also capable of autoxidation, a reaction which is associated to production of superoxide, hydrogen peroxide and hydroxyl radical.^[41,42]

LADH inactivation by MPO-dependent systems, provides an interesting example of host defensive metabolic reactions possibly involved

in killing and destruction of *T. cruzi* amastigotes in host infected cells. Absence of catalase in the parasite^[43,44] as well as the presence of MPO in macrophages and polynuclear leukocytes,^[45,46] would effectively contribute to the production of cytotoxic species in the parasite cells. Moreover, the discharge of HOCl, nitrite related radicals and other diffusable “reactive species” would also contribute to the trypanocidal action.

Acknowledgments

This work was aided by grants from the University of Buenos Aires and the Roemmers Foundation. We are indebted to the excellent technical assistance by Edith Röckel (Heidelberg), M.G. Gutiérrez and M.A.E. Veron (Buenos Aires). Dr. R.L. Krauth-Siegel was supported by the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft (R.L.K-S, DFG K 1242/1-3).

References

- [1] H. Lohrer and R.L. Krauth-Siegel (1990). Purification and characterization of lipoamide dehydrogenase from *Trypanosoma cruzi*. *European Journal of Biochemistry*, **194**, 863–869.
- [2] R. Schöneck, O. Billaut-Mulot, P. Numrich, M.A. Ouaisi and R.L. Krauth-Siegel (1997). Cloning, sequencing and functional expression of dihydrolipoamide dehydrogenase from the human pathogen *Trypanosoma cruzi*. *European Journal of Biochemistry*, **243**, 739–747.
- [3] M.P. Molina Portela and A.O.M. Stoppani (1991). Lipoamide dehydrogenase from *Trypanosoma cruzi*: some properties and cellular localization. *Biochemistry International*, **24**, 147–155.
- [4] J.F. de Boiso and A.O.M. Stoppani (1973). The mechanism of acetate and pyruvate oxidation in *Trypanosoma cruzi*. *Journal of Protozoology*, **20**, 673.
- [5] A.J. Kettle and C.C. Winterbourn (1997). Myeloperoxidase: a key regulator of neutrophil oxidant production. *Redox Report*, **3**, 3–15.
- [6] S.J. Klebanoff (1993). Reactive nitrogen intermediates and antimicrobial activity: role of nitrite. *Free Radical Biology and Medicine*, **14**, 351–360.
- [7] J. Gutierrez-Correa and A.O.M. Stoppani (1999). Inactivation of myocardial dihydrolipoamide dehydrogenase by myeloperoxidase systems. Effect of halides, nitrite and thiol compounds. *Free Radical Research*, **30**, 105–117.
- [8] A.J. Kettle, C.A. Gedy, M.B. Hampton and C.C. Winterbourn (1995). Inhibition of myeloperoxidase by benzoic acid hydrazides. *Biochemical Journal*, **308**, 559–563.
- [9] J.M. Van Zyl, K. Basson, R.A. Uebel and B.J. Van der Walt (1989). Isoniazid-mediated irreversible inhibition of the myeloperoxidase antimicrobial system of the human

- neutrophil and the effect of thyronines. *Biochemical Pharmacology*, **38**, 2363–2373.
- [10] C. Chan, H. Yin, J. Garforth, J.H. McKie, R. Jaouhari, P. Speers, K.T. Douglas, P.J. Rock, V. Yardley, S.L. Croft and A.H. Fairlamb (1998). Phenothiazine inhibitors of trypanothione reductase as potential antitrypanosomal and antileishmanial drugs. *Journal of Medicinal Chemistry*, **41**, 148–156.
- [11] P.P. Kelder, N.J. De Mol, M.J.E. Fischer and L.H.M. Janssen (1994). Kinetic evaluation of the oxidation of phenothiazine derivatives by methemoglobin and horseradish peroxidase in the presence of hydrogen peroxide. Implications for the reaction mechanism. *Biochimica et Biophysica Acta*, **1205**, 230–238.
- [12] X. Yang and A.P. Kulkarni (1997). Oxidation of phenothiazines by human term placental peroxidase in non-smokers. *Teratogenesis, Carcinogenesis and Mutagenesis*, **17**, 139–151.
- [13] C.J. Van Dalen, M.W. Whitehouse, C.C. Winterbourn and A.J. Kettle (1997). Thiocyanate and chloride as competing substrates for myeloperoxidase. *Biochemical Journal*, **327**, 487–492.
- [14] P.G. Furtmuller, U. Burner and C. Obinger (1998). Reaction of myeloperoxidase Compound I with chloride, bromide, iodide, and thiocyanate. *Biochemistry*, **37**, 17 923–17 930.
- [15] M. Nakamura and S. Nakamura (1998). One- and two-electron oxidations of luminol by peroxidase systems. *Free Radical Biology and Medicine*, **24**, 537–544.
- [16] L.K. Folkes, L.P. Candeias and P. Wardman (1995). Kinetics and mechanisms of hypochlorous acid reactions. *Archives of Biochemistry and Biophysics*, **323**, 120–126.
- [17] W.A. Prütz (1996). Hypochlorous acid interactions with thiols, nucleotides, DNA, and other biological substrates. *Archives of Biochemistry and Biophysics*, **332**, 110–120.
- [18] C.C. Winterbourn and S.O. Brennan (1997). Characterization of the oxidation products of the reaction between reduced glutathione and hypochlorous acid. *Biochemical Journal*, **326**, 87–92.
- [19] L. Grinblat, C.M. Sreider and A.O.M. Stoppani (1991). Superoxide anion production by lipoamide dehydrogenase redox-cycling: effect of enzyme modifiers. *Biochemistry International*, **23**, 83–92.
- [20] C.H.J. Williams (1992). Lipoamide dehydrogenase, glutathione reductase, thioredoxin reductase and mercuric reductase. A family of flavoenzyme transhydrogenases, in *Chemistry and Biochemistry of Flavoenzymes*, Vol. 3, (F. Müller, Ed.), CRC Press, Boca Raton, FL, USA, pp. 121–211.
- [21] L.J. Ignarro, J.M. Fukuto, J.M. Griscavage, N.E. Rogers and R.E. Byrns (1994). Oxidation of nitric oxide in aqueous solution to nitrite but not nitrate: comparison with enzymically formed nitric oxide from L-arginine, in *The Biology of Nitric Oxide*, Vol. 4. Enzymology, Biochemistry and Immunology (S. Moncada, M. Feelisch, R. Busse and E.A. Higgs, Ed.), Portland Press, London, pp. 65–68.
- [22] M.A. Tayeh and M.A. Marletta (1989). Macrophage oxidation of L-arginine to nitric oxide, nitrite and nitrate. *Journal of Biological Chemistry*, **264**, 19 654–19 658.
- [23] A. van der Vliet, J.P. Eiserich, B. Halliwell and C.E. Cross (1997). Formation of reactive nitrogen species during peroxidase-catalyzed oxidation of nitrite. *Journal of Biological Chemistry*, **272**, 7617–7625.
- [24] J.B. Sampson, Y.-Z. Ye, H. Rosen and J.S. Beckman (1998). Myeloperoxidase and horseradish peroxidase catalyze tyrosine nitration in proteins from nitrite and hydrogen peroxide. *Archives of Biochemistry and Biophysics*, **356**, 207–213.
- [25] W.A. Prütz, H. Mönig, J. Butler and E.J. Land (1985). Reactions of nitrogen dioxide in aqueous model systems: oxidation of tyrosine units in peptides and proteins. *Archives of Biochemistry and Biophysics*, **243**, 125–134.
- [26] A.J. Hoffman and C.A. Discher (1968). Chlorpromazine sensitized photodynamic oxidation of sulfhydryl groups in biological membranes. *Archives of Biochemistry and Biophysics*, **126**, 728–730.
- [27] L.G. Forni, J. Mönig, V.O. Mora-Arellano and R.L. Willson (1983). Thiyl free radicals: direct observation of electron transfer reactions with phenothiazines and ascorbate. *Journal of the Chemical Society Perkin Transactions*, **2**, 961–965.
- [28] M. Tamba and P. O'Neill (1991). Redox reactions of thiol free radicals with the antioxidants ascorbate and chlorpromazine; role in radioprotection. *Journal of the Chemical Society Perkin Transactions*, **2**, 1681–1685.
- [29] P.R. West, L.S. Harman, P.D. Josephyi and R.P. Mason (1984). Acetaminophen: enzymatic formation of a transient phenoxyl free radical. *Biochemical Pharmacology*, **33**, 2933–2936.
- [30] J.M. van Zyl, K. Basson and B.J. van der Walt (1989). The inhibitory effect of acetaminophen on the myeloperoxidase-induced antimicrobial system of the polymorphonuclear leukocyte. *Biochemical Pharmacology*, **38**, 161–165.
- [31] M.L. McCormick, J.P. Gaut, T.-S. Lin, B.E. Britigan, G.R. Buettner and J.W. Heinecke (1998). Electron paramagnetic resonance detection of free tyrosyl radical generated by myeloperoxidase, lactoperoxidase, and horseradish peroxidase. *Journal of Biological Chemistry*, **273**, 32 030–32 037.
- [32] L.A. Marquez and H.B. Dunford (1995). Kinetics of oxidation of tyrosine and dityrosine by myeloperoxidase compounds I and II. *Journal of Biological Chemistry*, **270**, 30 434–30 440.
- [33] M. Tien (1999). Myeloperoxidase-catalyzed oxidation of tyrosine. *Archives of Biochemistry and Biophysics*, **367**, 61–66.
- [34] C.C. Winterbourn, H. Pichorner and A.J. Kettle (1997). Myeloperoxidase-dependent generation of a tyrosine peroxide by neutrophils. *Archives of Biochemistry and Biophysics*, **338**, 15–21.
- [35] G. Cao, E. Sofic and R.L. Prior (1997). Antioxidant and prooxidant behaviour of flavonoids. Structure–activity relationships. *Free Radical Biology and Medicine*, **22**, 749–760.
- [36] Q. Cai, R.O. Rahn and R. Zhang (1997). Dietary flavonoids, quercetin, luteolin and genistein, reduce oxidative DNA damage and lipid peroxidation and quench free radicals. *Cancer Letters*, **119**, 99–107.
- [37] C.A. Rice-Evans, N.J. Miller and G. Paganga (1997). Antioxidant properties of phenolic compounds. *Trends Plant Sci.*, **2**, 152–159.
- [38] D. Metodiewa, A.K. Jaiswal, N. Cenas, E. Dickanaité and J. Segura-Aguilar (1999). Quercetin may act as a cytotoxic prooxidant after its metabolic activation to semiquinone and quinoidal product. *Free Radical Biology and Medicine*, **26**, 107–116.
- [39] P. Wardman (1990). Bioreductive activation of quinones: redox properties and thiol reactivity. *Free Radical Research Communications*, **8**, 219–229.
- [40] J.M. Simons, B.A. 'T Hart, R.A.M.I.V. Ching, H. Van Dyjk and R.P. Labadie (1990). Metabolic activation of natural

- phenols into selective oxidative burst agonists by activated human neutrophils. *Free Radical Biology and Medicine*, **8**, 251–258.
- [41] W.F. Hodnick, E.B. Milosavljevic, J.H. Nelson and R.S. Pardini (1988). Electrochemistry of flavonoids. Relationship between redox potentials, inhibition of mitochondrial respiration and production of oxygen radicals by flavonoids. *Biochemical Pharmacology*, **37**, 2607–2611.
- [42] W.F. Hodnick, D.L. Duval and R.S. Pardini (1994). Inhibition of mitochondrial respiration and cyanide stimulated generation of reactive oxygen species by selected flavonoids. *Biochemical Pharmacology*, **47**, 573–580.
- [43] A. Boveris and A.O.M. Stoppani (1977). Hydrogen peroxide generation in *Trypanosoma cruzi*. *Experientia*, **33**, 1306–1308.
- [44] A. Boveris, H. Sies, E.E. Martino, R. Docampo, J.F. Turrens and A.O.M. Stoppani (1980). Deficient metabolic utilization of hydrogen peroxide in *Trypanosoma cruzi*. *Biochemical Journal*, **188**, 643–648.
- [45] J.R. Cançado and Z. Brener (1979). *Terapeutica in Trypanosoma cruzi e doença de Chagas* (Z. Brener and Z. Andrade, Eds.), Guanabara Koogan S.A., Rio de Janeiro, pp. 362–424.
- [46] F. Villalta and F. Kierszenbaum (1983). Role of polymorphonuclear cells in Chagas' disease. I. Uptake and mechanism of destruction of intracellular (amastigote) forms of *Trypanosoma cruzi* by human neutrophils. *Journal of Immunology*, **133**, 1504–1510.