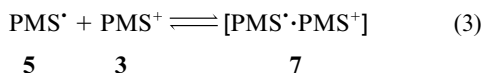


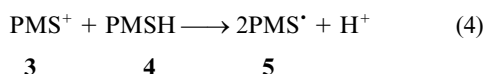


Under acidic conditions the species **6** is stable for periods of hours and is unaffected by the presence of starting  $\text{PMS}^+$ , **3**. However, in alkaline solution (pH 9.5) it was found to undergo a *pseudo*-first order reaction in which the rate was dependent on the concentration of the parent compound ( $\text{PMS}^+$ ),  $k_{\text{obs}} \approx 7 \times 10^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$  at  $[\text{PMS}^+] = 100 \mu\text{M}$  and  $k_{\text{obs}} \approx 3 \times 10^4 \text{ s}^{-1}$  at  $[\text{PMS}^+] = 1 \text{ mM}$ . At the higher concentration a new absorption band at *ca.* 710 nm was observed, suggesting the formation of a complex **7** between  $\text{PMS}^+$  **5** and the parent  $\text{PMS}^+$  **3** [eqn. (3)].

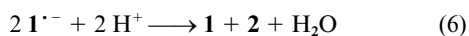
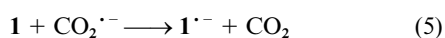


The species **5** shows absorbance at 580 nm and the  $\text{p}K_{\text{a}}$  of the species  $\text{PMSH}^{++}$  was determined by monitoring this absorbance at different pH *before* the formation of the complex **7**, to yield the value  $\text{p}K_{\text{a}} = 7.72 \pm 0.04$  (at room temperature and ionic strength  $\approx 0.1 \text{ M}$ ). The equilibria (2) and (3) lead to the prediction that the apparent  $\text{p}K_{\text{a}}$  value measured after formation of the complex (as would be obtained by standard methods) should be dependent on the concentration. This would explain the conflicting  $\text{p}K_{\text{a}}$  values of 6.8<sup>8</sup> and 5.7<sup>9</sup> reported for the species **6** in the literature.

Under the conditions used for the reduction reaction,  $\text{PMS}^+$  **3** and  $\text{PMSH}^+$  **4** interact to form the active species  $\text{PMS}^+$  **5**, according to eqn. (4). Resazurin **1** was then subjected to



reduction under pulse radiolysis conditions, using the formate anion,  $\text{CO}_2^{\cdot-}$ . A rapid one-electron reduction occurs. The reduction was followed by bleaching of the resazurin absorption peak at 630 nm followed by a partial recovery of the absorbance, which followed second order kinetics. This is assigned to the reduction of **1** to the respective radical anion,  $\mathbf{1}^{\cdot-}$  followed by its disproportionation<sup>10</sup> to yield resazurin and resorufin, **2** [eqns. (5) and (6)]. At pH 5, addition of  $\text{PMS}^+$  **3** to



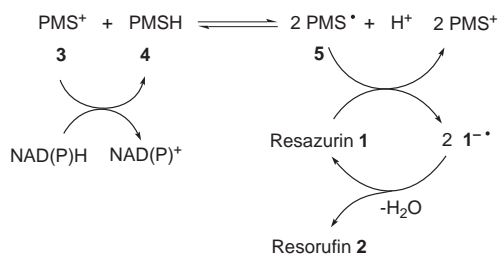
the intermediate species  $\mathbf{1}^{\cdot-}$  leads to formation of  $\text{PMSH}^{++}$  **6** and resazurin **1**, indicating that the stable species  $\text{PMSH}^{++}$  is, thermodynamically, not able to reduce resazurin. However, when  $\text{PMSH}^{++}$ , generated radiolytically at pH 5, is added to an excess of resazurin a relatively slow reaction occurs leading to the formation of resorufin. The disproportionation, reaction (6), is therefore an important step in helping to drive the overall process forward.

The role of  $\text{PMS}^+$  as a catalyst for the reduction of resazurin must therefore be in a kinetically controlled process involving the equilibria (2) and (4). The  $\text{PMS}^+$  radical **5** can then react with resazurin **1** to form a small quantity of the radical anion,  $\mathbf{1}^{\cdot-}$ , which then undergoes the irreversible process (6), yielding the fluorescent product resorufin, **2**.

Since the active, reduced phenazinium species **5** can also react with oxygen and the phenazinium cation is light sensitive,<sup>7</sup> the detection of NAD(P)H is best carried out in the dark in the presence of a relatively large amount of the phenazinium catalyst. Under these conditions, the reproducible formation of the fluorescent resorufin is observed.

Although the radical species generated in these reactions can interact with oxygen producing, *inter alia*, the superoxide anion,<sup>11</sup> we have found that the addition of superoxide ion to resazurin does *not* produce resorufin, so this species is also not involved in the reduction. This is in contrast to the known reduction of tetrazolium salts to formazans effected by superoxide ions.<sup>12</sup>

The overall reduction process is summarised in Scheme 2,



Scheme 2

from which it can be seen that the role of the catalyst is to act as a one-electron carrier to resazurin.

The detection of NADH [or NAD(P)H] formation and turnover by the catalysed formation of the fluorescent product resorufin is currently being investigated as a simple means for enhancing the widely-used but error-prone Papanicolaou test for the early detection of cervical cancer.<sup>13</sup>

## Experimental

NADH, as the disodium salt and phenazine were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich Co. Ltd, Poole, Dorset. The phenazine was methylated with redistilled dimethyl sulfate to produce the yellow phenazinium methosulfate, mp 158–160 °C (decomp.) using a modified literature method.<sup>14</sup> Solutions were freshly prepared each day and stored in the dark before use. The principal buffer used was *N'*-(2-hydroxyethyl)piperazine-*N*-ethanesulfonic acid (HEPES), adjusting the pH with 0.1 mol dm<sup>-3</sup> sodium hydroxide or hydrochloric acid. The  $\gamma$ -radiolysis studies were conducted using the pulse radiolysis facilities of the Gray Laboratory, using a <sup>60</sup>Co source with a nominal activity of 2000 Ci. Fluorescence measurements were made on a Perkin-Elmer LS50B luminescence spectrometer and resorufin fluorescence was examined using  $\lambda_{\text{ex}}$  545 nm and  $\lambda_{\text{em}}$  583 nm.

## Acknowledgements

We thank the EPSRC for a research studentship (to C. A. R.) and a research grant (N. L. M.).

## References

- R. P. Haughland, *Handbook of Fluorescent Probes and Research Chemicals*, Molecular Probes Inc., Eugene, Oregon, USA, 6th edn., 1997, ch. 16.3, pp. 381–382; J. T. Mosmann, *Immunol. Methods*, 1983, **65**, 55; H. Imamura, S. Takao and T. Aikou, *Cancer Res.*, 1994, **54**, 3620; S. W. Thom, R. W. Horobin, E. Seidler and M. R. Barer, *J. Appl. Bacteriol.*, 1993, **74**, 433.
- C. H. Self, *J. Immunol. Methods*, 1985, **76**, 389.
- E. Seidler, *The Tetrazolium-Formazan System: Design and Histochemistry*, in *Progress in Histochemistry and Cytochemistry*, Gustav Fischer Verlag, Stuttgart, 1991, vol. 24, pp. 1–86.
- D. B. Cook and C. H. Self, *Clin. Chem.*, 1993, **39**, 965.
- Cf.* F. G. Halaka, G. T. Babcock and J. L. Dye, *J. Biol. Chem.*, 1982, **257**, 1458.
- G. Blankenhorn, in *Pyridine Nucleotide Dependent Dehydrogenases*, ed. H. Sund, W. de Gruyter & Co., Berlin, 1977, pp. 185–205.
- G. Davis and P. J. Thornalley, *Biochem. Biophys. Acta*, 1983, **724**, 456.
- P. S. Rao and E. Hayon, *Anal. Chem.*, 1976, **48**, 564.
- W. Rubaszewska and Z. R. Grabowski, *J. Chem. Soc., Perkin Trans. 2*, 1975, 417.
- W. Prutz, J. Butler and E. Land, *Arch. Biochem. Biophys.*, 1996, **327**, 239.
- A. K. Raap, *Histochem. J.*, 1983, **15**, 977.
- M. Nishikimi, M. N. A. Rao and K. Yagi, *Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun.*, 1972, **46**, 849.
- V. Ponti, M. V. Damiani, K. Cheeseman and T. F. Slater, *Chem. Biol. Interact.*, 1978, **23**, 281.
- F. Kehrmann and E. Havas, *Ber.*, 1913, **46**, 341.

Communication 8/06431H