



## Mini-review

## Potentiation of hydrogen peroxide toxicity: From catalase inhibition to stable DNA-iron complexes



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## ABSTRACT

Hydrogen peroxide ( $H_2O_2$ ) is unique among general toxins, because it is stable in abiotic environments at ambient temperature and neutral pH, yet rapidly kills any type of cells by producing highly-reactive hydroxyl radicals. This life-specific reactivity follows the distribution of soluble iron, Fe(II) (which combines with  $H_2O_2$  to form the famous Fenton's reagent),—Fe(II) is concentrated inside cells, but is virtually absent outside them. Because of the immediate danger of  $H_2O_2$ , all cells have powerful  $H_2O_2$  scavengers, the equally famous catalases, which enable cells to survive thousand-fold higher concentrations of  $H_2O_2$  and, in combination with adequate movement of  $H_2O_2$  across membranes, make the killing  $H_2O_2$  concentrations virtually impractical to generate in vivo. And yet, low concentrations of  $H_2O_2$  are somehow used as an efficient biological weapon. Here we review several examples of how cells potentiate  $H_2O_2$  toxicity with other chemicals. At first, these potentiators were thought to simply inhibit catalases, but recent findings with cyanide suggest that potentiators mostly promote the other side of Fenton's reaction, recruiting iron from cell depots into stable DNA-iron complexes that, in the presence of elevated  $H_2O_2$ , efficiently break duplex DNA, pulverizing the chromosome. This multifaceted potentiation of  $H_2O_2$  toxicity results in robust and efficient killing.

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1. Life-specific reactivity of  $H_2O_2$ 

Hydrogen peroxide,  $H_2O_2$ , is a metastable oxygen species and an important intermediate in the redox pathway linking molecular oxygen,  $O_2$ , to the fully reduced oxide in water,  $H_2O$ . The complete pathway [1],  $O_2 \rightarrow O_2^- \rightarrow H_2O_2 \rightarrow (2)OH^\bullet \rightarrow (2)H_2O$ , also includes a relatively unstable superoxide ( $O_2^-$ ), as well as the extremely reactive hydroxyl radical ( $OH^\bullet$ ), which is the species responsible for the “reactivity” of all reactive oxygen species [2]. Paradoxically, hydrogen peroxide is generally non-reactive with organic compounds [3–5]; in everyday life, 3% (~0.8 M) hydrogen peroxide solution is a common household antiseptic, stored in plastic bottles for years.  $H_2O_2$  does not directly interact with pure biopolymers (nucleic acids, demetallated proteins, polysaccharides, lipids); perhaps, the only exceptions are thiol-based sensor proteins (like OxyR in bacteria), reacting to the presence of micromolar levels of  $H_2O_2$  with formation of disulfide bonds that are used for signaling [6]. At the same time, hydrogen peroxide is a surprisingly potent

bio-toxin, as the same 3%  $H_2O_2$  solution kills all kinds of cells within several minutes [7,8], that is, as soon as  $H_2O_2$  penetrates the cell wall barrier.

The main reason  $H_2O_2$  is generally stable in abiotic environment, yet becomes so reactive upon contact with life, is the differential availability of soluble iron. Since  $H_2O_2$  by itself does not react with organic compounds (with the above exception of select thiol groups in a few signaling proteins), it would be completely innocuous, if not for the fact that iron is broadly employed by all types of cells in catalysis of many essential metabolic reactions and transitions [9]. Iron can be found in two forms: the soluble Fe(II) and the practically insoluble Fe(III) [10]. In the current oxidative atmosphere of the Earth, at least in the oxic environments, the trace amounts of soluble Fe(II) iron are rapidly oxidized by usually more abundant  $H_2O_2$  to Fe(III) iron [11], which does not react with the remaining  $H_2O_2$ , explaining the general  $H_2O_2$  stability in abiotic environment. But exactly due to this reason, the only soluble iron in the environment outside cells is represented by the (highly variable) trace amounts of Fe(III) complexed with natural organic ligands [12–14]. The limited and unpredictable availability of Fe(III) iron forces cells of all types to actively procure and stockpile iron to maintain their metabolism and support multiplication [15], accumulating 0.1–1.0 mM total iron [10,16–18]. But even inside

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the cell, the availability of free Fe(II) iron is limited and tightly controlled [15], because when free Fe(II) and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> meet, Fenton's reaction occurs.

In this famous reaction [19–21] (Fig. 1), soluble Fe(II) iron donates one electron to a hydrogen peroxide molecule, causing its decomposition:  $\text{Fe(II)} + \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{Fe(III)} + \text{OH}^\bullet + \text{OH}^-$  that produces hydroxyl radical capable of reacting with any organic compound at diffusion rates [5,22]. Hydroxyl radicals kill via DNA damage, as indicated by the exquisite H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> sensitivity of DNA repair mutants [23–25]. Fenton's reaction is the reason why otherwise relatively innocuous extracellular H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> becomes a potent poison once inside the cell. At the same time, due to its small size and lack of charge, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> shows substantial permeability through the membrane barrier [26,27], so exposed cells cannot simply block the entry of this “conditional” poison. This life-specific reactivity in combination with substantial membrane permeability makes hydrogen peroxide a popular weapon in bio-warfare: our immune cells use it to kill invading microbes [28–30], bees use it as a honey preservative [31], lactic acid bacteria generate it to kill off the competition [32] (and are one of the few life forms that learned to do without iron in their metabolism [33]), ants (if given a choice) take it as an anti-fungal medication [34], while plants employ hydrogen peroxide to reduce grazing by herbivores [35].

## 2. H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> is impossible to concentrate *in vivo*

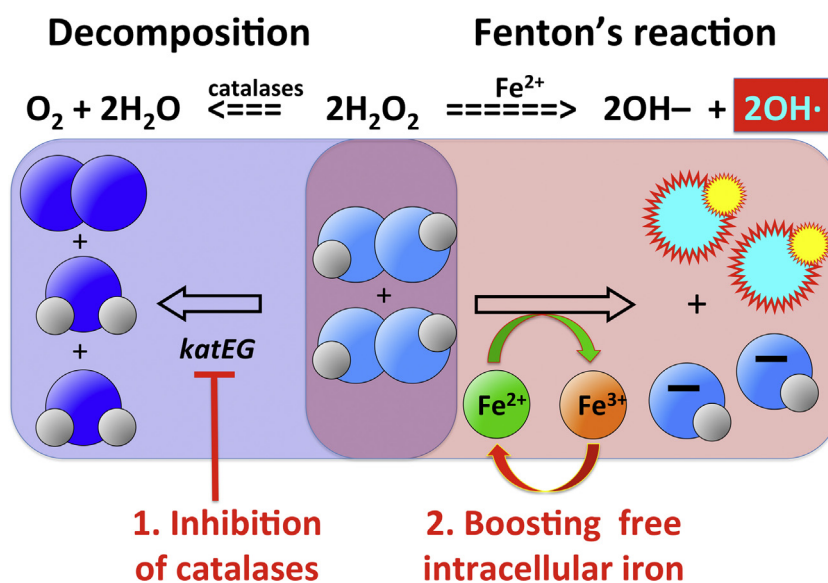
However, this strategy of production of a diffusible life-specific source of hydroxyl radicals suffers from the problems of targeting and is also undermined by efficient detoxification. Because superoxide and hydrogen peroxide in sub-micromolar concentrations are byproducts of aerobic metabolism [36], and because both H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>2</sub><sup>•-</sup> are commonly employed in pathogen-defense mechanisms, the cells are equipped with powerful catalases [37] (Fig. 1) and superoxide dismutases [38]. Both are rare examples of diffusion-limited enzymes—the fastest enzymes possible [39]—capable of scavenging up to low millimolar concentrations of hydrogen peroxide during acute exposures without adverse

consequences for the cell, once H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> is removed. Even though 3 mM concentrations of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> will eventually kill during prolonged exposures [40], the H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> concentrations that kill cells within minutes start around 30 mM [24,41]. This creates a classic engineering problem: besides the obvious caveat that such high H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> concentrations will be dangerous to the producing cell itself, no known cells are actually capable of producing a short burst of 30 mM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, or of maintaining a several-hour 3 mM levels of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (perhaps with the exception of lactobacilli [42]).

In fact, for our leucocytes, the real problem appears several orders of magnitude greater. Due to the abovementioned substantial H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> permeability, it is almost impossible to achieve a significantly higher concentration of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> in any cellular compartment relative to the rest of the cytoplasm, especially if its production is slow and indirect, which is thought to be the case in the phagosome [43,44]. That is, if a leucocyte targets superoxide production (that generates H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> by dismutation) exclusively to the phagosome around a captured bacterium, the continuous escape of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> from the phagosome will keep the maximal H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> concentration ~3 μM [43,45,46], about 1000 times lower than that required for slow killing, not to mention the fast killing. So, how do the cells solve this problem of creating lethal local concentrations of a readily-diffusible toxin?

## 3. Potentiated toxicity of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>

Theoretically, this engineering problem has an elegant chemical solution. Indeed, the cellular systems that negate H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> effectiveness (for example, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> scavengers or DNA repair pathways) could be inactivated with a different agent, to either increase the effective intracellular H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> concentrations or to make DNA damage irreparable. In particular, catalases have heme in their active centers [37], so any simple chemical that binds heme iron tightly (NO, CN, H<sub>2</sub>S [47,48]) will inhibit catalases and thus will reduce the killing concentrations of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. In fact, catalases *could have been* the original target of the evolutionary arms race, as the cells have a second hydrogen peroxide scavenging enzyme, called



**Fig. 1.** Hydrogen peroxide scavenging by catalases versus “radicalization” by soluble iron (Fe(II)), and the two obvious strategies to potentiate H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> toxicity. Hydrogen atoms are small gray spheres. Oxygen atoms are spheres of various shades of blue: the darker the blue, the more stable the oxygen atom. At the top, in black font, the two opposite *in vivo* fates of hydrogen peroxide are shown as formulas. At the bottom, in red font and symbols, the corresponding potentiation strategies are indicated: 1) inhibition of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> decomposition (or DNA repair); 2) increasing the concentration of soluble intracellular iron.

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