

Protective effects of carnosine and homocarnosine on ferritin and hydrogen peroxide-mediated DNA damage

Jung Hoon Kang*

Department of Genetic Engineering, Cheongju University, Cheongju 360-764, Korea

Previous studies have shown that one of the primary causes of increased iron content in the brain may be the release of excess iron from intracellular iron storage molecules such as ferritin. Free iron generates ROS that cause oxidative cell damage. Carnosine and related compounds such as endogenous histidine dipetides have antioxidant activities. We have investigated the protective effects of carnosine and homocarnosine against oxidative damage of DNA induced by reaction of ferritin with H₂O₂. The results show that carnosine and homocarnosine prevented ferritin/H₂O₂-mediated DNA strand breakage. These compounds effectively inhibited ferritin/H₂O₂-mediated hydroxyl radical generation and decreased the mutagenicity of DNA induced by the ferritin/H₂O₂ reaction. Our results suggest that carnosine and related compounds might have antioxidant effects on DNA under pathological conditions leading to degenerative damage such as neurodegenerative disorders. [BMB reports 2010; 43(10): 683-687]

INTRODUCTION

Excess free iron promotes the generation of reactive oxygen species (ROS) based on the Fenton reaction, which leads to oxidative stress. Hence, inappropriate regulation of iron metabolism and abnormal release of iron from ferritin will provoke oxidative cell damage. Ferritin is composed of 24 subunits, which form a cavity that can store up to 4,500 atoms of ferric ions (1). Mammalian ferritin complexes are heteropolymers composed of two types of subunits, termed H (heavy) and L (light), which are present in various ratios in different tissues. Subunits of type L contribute to the nucleation of the iron core but lack the ferroxidase activity necessary for uptake of ferrous (Fe²⁺) iron. Subunits of type H possess ferroxidase activity and promote rapid uptake and oxidation of fer-

rous iron.

It has been reported that iron can be released from ferritin by various exogenous (2-5) and endogenous substances via reductive mechanisms (6, 7). If iron is released from ferritin, low molecular weight iron complexes may undergo redox reactions, resulting in cytotoxic damage to macromolecules (8, 9). Oxidants, including H₂O₂, are considered mostly as damaging entities that mediate pathogenic processes. H₂O₂ has been implicated in ischemia and reperfusion within the brain (10), in cancer (11) and in neurodegenerative disease (12).

Carnosine, a naturally occurring dipeptide (β -alanyl-L-histidine), is found predominantly in long-lived tissues, including the brain, muscle and stomach, in high amounts (13). Carnosine has been demonstrated to play a number of biological roles as an anti-inflammatory agent, free radical scavenger and protein glycosylation inhibitor (14, 15). More recently, it has been suggested that carnosine and homocarnosine protect neuronal cells against glutamate-induced toxicity (16). In addition, carnosine has been demonstrated to protect PC12 cells from A β 42-induced neurotoxicity via regulation of glutamate release (17) However, no information is yet available on the effect of carnosine and related compounds on ferritin-mediated DNA damage. In the current study, we examined the protective effects of carnosine and homocarnosine on ferritin/H₂O₂ system-mediated DNA damage.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

DNA strand breakage can be detected by a gel electrophoresis method involving supercoiled plasmid DNA. Strand breakage causes 'relaxation' or opening of circular and linear forms of DNA, which are observed as different bands on agarose gel. As shown in Fig. 1A, the plasmid DNA remained intact after incubation with either 10 μ M ferritin or 1 mM H₂O₂, whereas DNA was cleaved by a mixture of ferritin and H₂O₂. This indicates that both ferritin and H₂O₂ were required to produce strand breaks in DNA. When DNA was incubated in a mixture of H₂O₂ and ferritin, a substantial increase in the proportion of nicked circular DNA (form II) and linear DNA (form III) occurred with concomitant loss of supercoiled DNA (form I) in a concentration of ferritin-dependent manner (Fig. 1B). It has been shown that the reaction of ferritin with H₂O₂ generates free radicals that oxidize amino acid residues at or near the

Corresponding author. Tel: 82-43-229-8562; Fax: 82-43-229-8432; E-mail: jhkang@cju.ac.kr
DOI 10.5483/BMBRep.2010.43.10.683

Received 6 August 2010, Accepted 23 August 2010

Keywords: Carnosine, DNA, Ferritin, Hydroxyl radical, Mutation

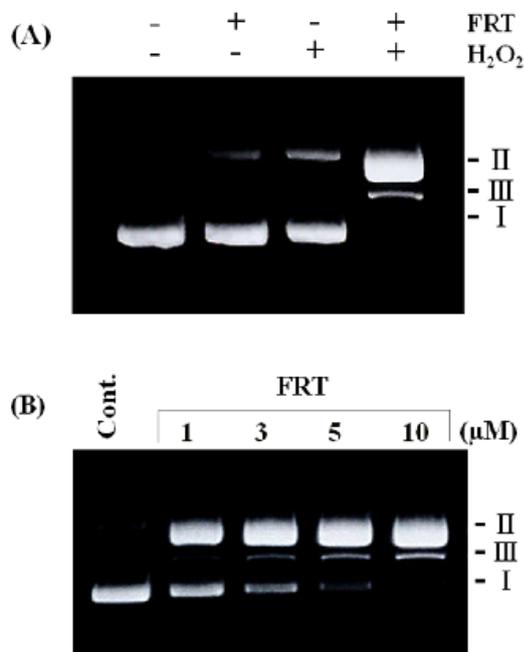


Fig. 1. DNA cleavage is induced by the ferritin and H₂O₂ system. (A) pUC 19 DNA (1 μg) was incubated with ferritin and H₂O₂ in 10 mM potassium phosphate buffer (pH 7.4) at 37°C for 3 h with the following: Lane 1, control DNA; lane 2, 10 μM ferritin; lane 3, 1 mM H₂O₂; lane 4, 10 μM ferritin + 1 mM H₂O₂ (B) pUC 19 DNA was incubated with 1-10 μM ferritin and 1 mM H₂O₂ at 37°C for 3 h. Reaction was stopped by freezing at -80°C. Loading buffer was added to the samples, followed by electrophoresis on 0.8% agarose gel. I, II and III indicate the positions of the supercoiled, nicked circular and linear DNA plasmid forms, respectively.

cation-binding site, which results in introduction of carbonyl groups (18). In cultured cells, raising the level of iron in the culture medium leads to increases in the steady-state levels of oxidative DNA damage (19). Previous studies have suggested that iron ions are able to stimulate the Fenton-like reaction for production of hydroxyl radicals, which mediates DNA strand breakage (20). The present result suggests that free radicals might be involved in ferritin/H₂O₂-induced DNA strand breakage.

Many functions have previously been proposed for carnosine, including as an antioxidant and free radical scavenger, physiological buffer, neurotransmitter, radioprotectant, metal chelator and wound healing agent (21-24). In the present study, it was found that carnosine and homocarnosine significantly inhibited DNA strand breakage induced by the ferritin/H₂O₂ system (Fig. 2). It has been reported that imidazole-containing peptides, such as carnosine and related compounds, may react with di- or mono-aldehydes, powerful cross-linking agents, which are released during the oxidative breakdown of unsaturated lipids (25). Our data suggest that the

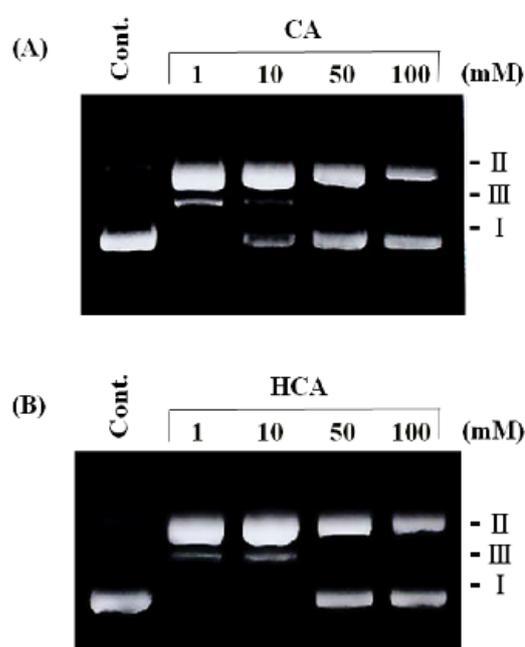


Fig. 2. Effects of carnosine and homocarnosine on DNA strand breakage induced by the ferritin and H₂O₂ system. pUC19 DNA was incubated with 10 μM ferritin + 1 mM H₂O₂ in the presence of various concentrations of carnosine (A) and homocarnosine (B) at 37°C for 3 h. Agarose gel electrophoresis was performed in 0.8% agarose. I, II and III indicate the positions of the supercoiled, nicked circular and linear DNA plasmid forms, respectively.

imidazolium group of carnosine inhibits the formation of the oxoferryl derivative. Attack of .OH on the 2-deoxyribose sugar produces a huge variety of different products, some of which are mutagenic in bacterial systems. Some of the fragmentation products, when can be detected by the addition of thio-barbituric acid (TBA) to the reaction mixture, result in formation of a pink (TBA)₂-MDA chromogen (26). This can then be used to detect .OH production, although it is unclear whether or not some other ROS can also degrade deoxyribose. Our results show damage to deoxyribose induced by the ferritin and H₂O₂ system did occur (Fig. 3A). Therefore, the released iron ions could have enhanced the Fenton-like reaction to produce .OH and play a critical role in DNA cleavage.

We next investigated whether or not carnosine and homocarnosine can inhibit the formation of hydroxyl radicals in the ferritin/H₂O₂ system. When ferritin was incubated with H₂O₂ in the presence of carnosine and homocarnosine at 37°C, all compounds effectively inhibited the formation of hydroxyl radicals (Fig. 3B). The results suggest that carnosine and homocarnosine may protect DNA against oxidative damage induced by the ferritin/H₂O₂ system through the scavenging of free radicals.

H₂O₂ produced *in vivo* is probably a direct product of O₂⁻.

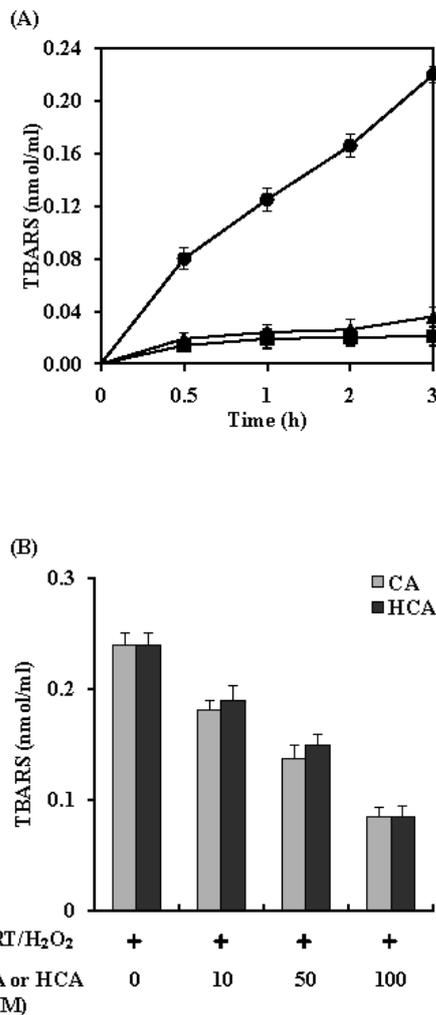


Fig. 3. Effects of carnosine and homocarnosine on hydroxyl radical formation induced by the ferritin and H₂O₂ system. (A) 10 mM 2-deoxy-D-ribose was incubated at 37°C for various incubation periods with the following: 10 μM ferritin alone (▲); 1 mM H₂O₂ alone (■); 10 μM ferritin + 1 mM H₂O₂ (●). (B) The reaction mixtures contained 10 mM 2-deoxy-D-ribose, 10 μM ferritin and 1 mM H₂O₂ in the presence of carnosine (CA) and homocarnosine (HCA) at pH 7.4 for 3 h. Hydroxyl radicals were determined by measuring TBARS as described in Materials and Methods.

dismutation and various other oxidase reactions. The rates of H₂O₂ and O₂⁻ formation under physiological conditions have been measured. Considering the volume actually used and the amount of products formed, a rates of 90 μM H₂O₂/min in liver (27) and 340 μM O₂⁻/min in glucose-fed *Escherichia coli* cells have been obtained (28). However, the local concentration of H₂O₂ in the immediate vicinity of SOD will be much larger than these values. Further, the production of O₂⁻ will be much larger as the concentration of oxygen increases dur-

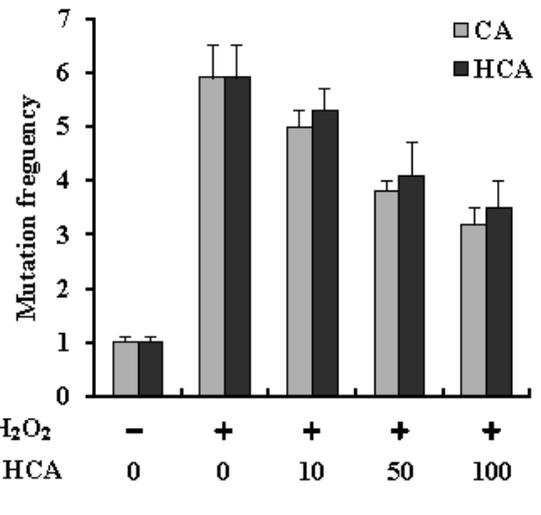


Fig. 4. Effects of carnosine and homocarnosine on DNA mutagenicity induced by the ferritin and H₂O₂ system. Plasmid pUC19 carrying the *lacZ'* gene was treated with 10 μM ferritin and 1 mM H₂O₂ in the presence of carnosine (CA) and homocarnosine (HCA) and then used to transform *Escherichia coli* DH5α competent cells. Transformed cells were spread on LB agar plates containing 0.8 mg of X-gal, 2 mg of IPTG and 0.01% ampicillin.

ing exposure to hyperoxia or when the respiratory chain becomes inhibited, leading to an increased concentration of reducing equivalents (29). Recently it was reported that hyperoxia-induced H₂O₂ production is increased in human U87 glioblastoma cells (30). Thus, H₂O₂ will be produced continuously at a rate of at least 0.1 mM/min under physiological conditions and at a much higher rate under adverse conditions, such as hyperoxia or ischemia and reperfusion.

It was previously reported that the mutagenic spectrum of oxygen free radicals is produced by the aerobic incubation of single-strand M13mp2 DNA with iron (31). Therefore, the effects of carnosine and homocarnosine on the mutation of DNA induced by ferritin/H₂O₂ were investigated. pUC19 plasmid DNA was treated with or without ferritin and H₂O₂. Damaged DNA was transfected into *E. coli* (DH5α) competent cells, and mutant cells within the nonessential *lacZ'* gene for β-galactosidase were identified by observing decreased α-complementation. *E. coli* harboring active β-galactosidase produced dense blue colonies, whereas mutation within the *lacZ'* α segment of pUC19 plasmid DNA induced the expression of substantially less active β-galactosidase, yielding light blue or white colonies. The frequency of mutants obtained with ferritin/H₂O₂ was approximately six-fold greater than that obtained with untreated DNA. The mutagenicity of DNA by the ferritin/H₂O₂ system was inhibited by carnosine and homocarnosine (Fig. 4). One of the mechanisms by which antioxidants can protect their biological targets from oxidative stress is the chelation of transition metals such as copper and iron, which

prevents them from participating in the deleterious Fenton reaction. However, carnosine and related compounds have not been found to chelate iron in a manner that reduces its prooxidant activity (32). It has been reported that carnosine and related compounds quench 50-95% of hydroxyl radicals produced in the Fenton reaction (33). Therefore, it was suggested that the ability of carnosine and related compounds to inhibit ferritin/H₂O₂-mediated DNA damage was likely due to free radical scavenging activity.

In conclusion, the data presented in this paper are consistent with the protective actions of carnosine and homocarnosine against oxidative damage of DNA by the ferritin and H₂O₂ system. Therefore, these compounds should be explored as potential therapeutic agents of oxidative stress associated with neurodegenerative disorders.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Materials

pUC19 plasmid DNA was prepared and purified from *E. coli* cultures using a QIAGEN plasmid kit (Santa Clarita, USA). Ampicillin, bathophenanthroline sulfonate, deferoxamine and ethidium bromide were purchased from Sigma Chemical Co. (St. Louis, MO). Ferritin was purchased from Cabiochem (Darmstadt, German). Commercial equine spleen ferritin was performed by gel filtration chromatography using a Superose 6 FPLC column (Pharmacia, Sweden) for further purification. Chelex 100 resin (sodium form) was obtained from Bio-Rad. All solutions were treated with Chelex 100 resin to remove traces of transition metal ions.

Analysis of DNA cleavage

DNA single strand breakages were assayed by measuring the conversion of supercoiled plasmid DNA (form I) into nicked circular DNA (form II) and linear DNA (form III). pUC19 DNA (0.5-1.0 µg) in 10 mM potassium phosphate buffer (pH 7.4) was incubated for 3 h at 37°C with different concentrations of ferritin and 1 mM H₂O₂ in a total volume of 20 µl. The reaction was stopped at -80°C. The loading buffer (0.25% bromophenolblue, 40% sucrose) was added and samples analyzed by electrophoresis in 0.8% agarose in TBE buffer (2 mM EDTA, 89 mM boric acid and 89 mM Tris at pH 8.3). The gel was stained with ethidium bromide. Bands of DNA were detected and photographed under UV light in a dark room.

Measurement of hydroxyl radical

Hydroxyl radicals were detected by measuring thiobarbituric acid reactive substance (TBARS) according to a previously described method with some modifications (26). The assay mixture contained 10 mM potassium phosphate buffer (pH 7.4), 10 mM 2-deoxy-D-ribose, 10 µM ferritin and 1 mM H₂O₂ in a total volume of 100 µl. Reaction mixtures were incubated at 37°C for 3 h. The degradation of 2-deoxy-D-ribose was measured by addition of 2.8% trichloroacetic acid (200 µl), PBS

(200 µl) and 1% thiobarbituric acid (200 µl), followed by heating at 100°C for 15 min. After the samples were cooled to room temperature and centrifuged at 15,000 rpm for 10 min, results were read at 532 nm by a UV/vis spectrophotometer (Shimadzu, UV-1601). All solutions used in the present experiments were treated with Chelex 100.

Mutagenicity assay

Plasmid DNA was transformed in *Escherchia coli* DH5α competent cells. The treated plasmid pUC19 carrying the *lacZ'* gene was incubated with or without 10 µM ferritin and 1 mM H₂O₂ with 50 µl of competent cells at 0°C for 10 min. SOC medium was added and the cells incubated at 37°C for 1 h. Transformed cells were spread on LB agar plates containing 0.8 mg of X-gal, 2 mg of IPTG and 0.01% ampicillin. The plates were inverted and incubated for 24 h at 37°C before counting colonies.

Statistical analysis

Values are expressed as the means ± S.D of three to five separate experiments. The statistical differences between the means were determined by Student's *t*-test.

REFERENCES

1. Knovich, M. A., Storey, J. A., Coffman, L. G., Torti, S. V. and Torti, F. M. (2009) Ferritin for the clinician. *Blood Rev.* **23**, 95-104.
2. Monterio, H., Ville, G. and Winterbourn, C. (1989) Release of iron from ferritin by semiquinone, anthracycline, bipyridyl, and nitroaromatic radicals. *Free Radic. Biol. Med.* **6**, 587-591.
3. Lapenna, D., de Gioia, S., Mezzetti, A., Ciofani, G., Consoli, A., Marzio, L. and Cuccurullo, F. (1995) Cigarette smoke, ferritin, and lipid peroxidation. *Am. J. Respir. Crit. Care Med.* **151**, 431-435.
4. Linert, W., Herlinger, E., Jameson, R. F., Kienzl, E., Jellinger, K. and Youdim, M. B. (1996) Dopamine, 6-hydroxydopamine, iron, and dioxygen-their mutual interactions and possible implication in the development of Parkinson's disease. *Biochim. Biophys. Acta.* **1316**, 160-168.
5. Double, K. L., Maywald, M., Schmittle, M., Riederer, P. and Gerlach, M. (1998) *In vitro* studies of ferritin iron release and neurotoxicity. *J. Neurochem.* **70**, 2492-2499.
6. Monterio, H. and Winterbourn, C. (1988) The superoxide-dependent transfer of iron from ferritin to transferrin and lactoferrin. *Biochem. J.* **256**, 923-928.
7. Boyer, R., Grabill, T. and Petrovich, R. (1988) Reductive release of ferritin iron: a kinetic assay. *Anal. Biochem.* **174**, 17-22.
8. Halliwell, B. and Gutteridge, J. M. (1985) The importance of free radicals and catalytic metal ions in human diseases. *Mol. Aspects Med.* **8**, 89-193.
9. Gotz, E., Kunig, G., Riederer, P. and Youdim, M. B. (1994) Oxidative stress: free radical production in neural degeneration. *Pharmacol. Ther.* **63**, 37-122.

10. Hyslop, P. A., Zhang, Z., Pearson, D. V. and Phebus, L. A. (1995) Measurement of striatal H₂O₂ by microdialysis following global forebrain ischemia and reperfusion in the rat: correlation with the cytotoxic potential of H₂O₂ *in vitro*. *Brain Res.* **671**, 181-186.
11. Gius, D. and Spitt, D. R. (2006) Redox signaling in cancer biology. *Antioxid. Redox. Signal.* **8**, 1249-1252.
12. Behl, C., Davis, J. B., Lesley, R. and Schubert, D. (1994) Hydrogen peroxide mediates amyloid beta protein toxicity. *Cell* **77**, 817-827.
13. Hipkiss, A. R. (1998) Carnosine, a protective, anti-ageing peptide. *Int. J. Biochem. Cell Biol.* **30**, 863-868.
14. Alhamdani, M. S., Al-Kassir, A. H., Abbas, F. K., Jaleel, N. A. and Al-Taeae, M. F. (2007) Antiglycation and antioxidant effect of carnosine against glucose degradation products in peritoneal mesothelial cells. *Nephron. Clin. Pract.* **107**, c26-34.
15. Decker, E. A., Livisay, S. A. and Zhou, S. (2000) A re-evaluation of the antioxidant activity of purified carnosine. *Biochemistry (Mosc)* **65**, 766-770.
16. Boldyrev, A., Bulygina, E., Leinsoo, T., Petrushanko, I., Tsubone, S. and Abe, H. (2004) Protection of neuronal cells against reactive oxygen species by carnosine and related compounds. *Comp. Biochem. Physiol.* **137**, 81-88.
17. Fu, Q., Dai, H., Hu, W., Fan, Y., Shenn, Y., Zhang, W. and Chen, Z. (2008) Carnosine protects against Abeta41-induced neurotoxicity in differentiated rat PC12 cells. *Cell Mol. Neurobiol.* **28**, 307-316
18. Lowery Jr. T. J., Bunker, J., Zhang, B., Costen, R. and Watt, G. D. (2004) Kinetic studies of iron deposition in horse spleen ferritin using H₂O₂ and O₂ as oxidants. *Biophys. Chem.* **111**, 173-181
19. Zastawny, T. H., Altman, S. A., Randers-Eichhorn, L., Madurawe, R., Lumpkin, J. A., Dizdaroglu, M. and Rao, G. (1995) DNA base modifications and membrane damage in cultured mammalian cells treated with iron ions. *Free Radic. Biol. Med.* **18**, 1013-1022.
20. Helbock, H. J., Beckman, K. B. and Ames, B. N. (1999) 8-Hydroxydeoxyguanosine and 8-hydroxyguanine as biomarkers of oxidative DNA damage. *Methods Enzymol.* **300**, 156-166.
21. Boldyrev, A. A., Dupin, A. M., Pindel, E. V. and Severin, S. E. (1988) Antioxidative properties of histidine-containing dipeptides from skeletal muscles of vertebrates. *Comp. Biochem. Physiol.* **89**, 245-250.
22. Auroma, O. I., Laughton, M. J. and Halliwell, B. (1989) Carnosine, homocarnosine and anserine: could they act as antioxidants *in vivo*? *Biochem. J.* **264**, 863-869.
23. Brown, C. E. (1981) Interactions among carnosine, anserine, ophidine and copper in biochemical adaptation. *J. Theor. Biol.* **88**, 245-256.
24. Decker, E. A., Crum, A. D. and Calvert, J. T. (1992) Differences in the Antioxidant mechanism of carnosine in the presence of copper and iron. *J. Agric. Food Chem.* **40**, 756-759.
25. Aldini, G., Carini, M., Beretta, G., Bradamante, S. and Facino, R. M. (2002) Carnosine is a quencher of 4-hydroxy-nonenal: through what mechanism of reaction. *Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun.* **298**, 699-706.
26. Halliwell, B. and Gutteridge, J. M. (1981) Formation of thiobarbituric-acid-reactive substance from deoxyribose in the presence of iron salts: the role of superoxide and hydroxyl radicals. *FEBS Lett.* **128**, 347-352.
27. Boveries, A., Oshino, N. and Chance, B. (1972) The cellular production of hydrogen peroxide. *Biochem. J.* **128**, 617-630.
28. Imlay, J. A. and Fridovich, I. (1991) Assay of metabolic superoxide production in *Escherichia coli*. *J. Biol. Chem.* **266**, 6957-6965.
29. Turrens, J. F., Beoni, M., Brilla, J., Chavez, U. B. and McCord, J. M., (1991) Mitochondrial generation of oxygen radicals during reoxygenation of ischemic tissues. *Free Radic. Res. Comms.* **12-13**, 681-689.
30. D'Agostino, D. P., Olson, J. E. and Dean, J. B. (2009) Acute hyperoxia increases lipid peroxidation and induces plasma membrane blebbing in human U87 glioblastoma cells. *Neuroscience* **159**, 1011-1022.
31. McBride, T. J., Preston, B. D. and Loeb, L. A. (1991) Mutagenic spectrum resulting from DNA damage by oxygen radicals. *Biochemistry* **30**, 207-213.
32. Kohen, R., Yamamoto, Y., Cundy, K. C. and Ames B. N. (1988) Antioxidant activity of carnosine, homocarnosine, and anserine present in muscle and brain. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **85**, 3175-3179.
33. Chan, W. K. M., Decker, E. A., Lee, J. B. and Butterfield, D. A. (1994) EPR-spin trapping studies of the hydroxyl radical scavenging activity of carnosine and related dipeptides. *J. Agric. Food Chem.* **42**, 1407-1410.