

## OXIDATION OF TETRAHYDROBIOPTERIN BY BIOLOGICAL RADICALS AND SCAVENGING OF THE TRIHYDROBIOPTERIN RADICAL BY ASCORBATE

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(Received 17 September 2001; Accepted 2 November 2001)

**Abstract**—One-electron oxidation of (6*R*)-5,6,7,8-tetrahydrobiopterin ( $H_4B$ ) by the azide radical generates the radical cation ( $H_4B^{\bullet+}$ ) which rapidly deprotonates at physiological pH to give the neutral trihydrobiopterin radical ( $H_3B^\bullet$ );  $pK_a$  ( $H_4B^{\bullet+} \rightleftharpoons H_3B^\bullet + H^+$ ) =  $(5.2 \pm 0.1)$ . In the absence of ascorbate both the  $H_4B^{\bullet+}$  and  $H_3B^\bullet$  radicals undergo disproportionation to form quinonoid dihydrobiopterin (qH<sub>2</sub>B) and the parent  $H_4B$  with rate constants  $k(H_4B^{\bullet+} + H_4B^{\bullet+}) = 6.5 \times 10^3 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$  and  $k(H_3B^\bullet + H_3B^\bullet) = 9.3 \times 10^4 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ , respectively. The  $H_3B^\bullet$  radical is scavenged by ascorbate ( $AscH^-$ ) with an estimated rate constant of  $k(H_3B^\bullet + AscH^-) \sim 1.7 \times 10^5 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ . At physiological pH the pterin rapidly scavenges a range of biological oxidants often associated with cellular oxidative stress and nitric oxide synthase (NOS) dysfunction including hydroxyl ( $\bullet OH$ ), nitrogen dioxide ( $NO_2^\bullet$ ), glutathione thiyl ( $GS^\bullet$ ), and carbonate ( $CO_3^{\bullet-}$ ) radicals. Without exception these radicals react appreciably faster with  $H_4B$  than with  $AscH^-$  with  $k(\bullet OH + H_4B) = 8.8 \times 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ,  $k(NO_2^\bullet + H_4B) = 9.4 \times 10^8 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ,  $k(CO_3^{\bullet-} + H_4B) = 4.6 \times 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ , and  $k(GS^\bullet + H_4B) = 1.1 \times 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ , respectively. The glutathione disulfide radical anion ( $GSSG^{\bullet-}$ ) rapidly reduces the pterin to the tetrahydrobiopterin radical anion ( $H_4B^{\bullet-}$ ) with a rate constant of  $k(GSSG^{\bullet-} + H_4B) \sim 4.5 \times 10^8 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ . The results are discussed in the context of the general antioxidant properties of the pterin and the redox role played by  $H_4B$  in NOS catalysis. © 2002 Elsevier Science Inc.

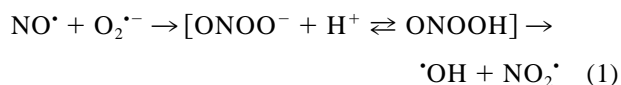
**Keywords**—Tetrahydrobiopterin, Tetrahydrobiopterin radical cation, Trihydrobiopterin radical, Free radicals, Radical scavenging, Antioxidant, Pulse radiolysis

### INTRODUCTION

(6*R*)-5,6,7,8-Tetrahydrobiopterin ( $H_4B$ ) is an essential cofactor for all nitric oxide synthases (NOS) and efficiently couples NADPH oxidation to nitric oxide ( $NO^\bullet$ ) synthesis, thereby inhibiting superoxide ( $O_2^{\bullet-}$ ) and hydrogen peroxide formation [1–3]. The pterin is believed to fulfill a range of functional roles in NOS but recent evidence suggests that  $H_4B$  is redox active in catalysis [4]. Involvement of a pterin radical in NOS catalysis was initially proposed on the basis of rapid-reaction kinetics with neuronal NOS [5]. This hypothesis was supported by rapid kinetic studies linking  $H_4B$  radical formation to heme-dioxy reduction and arginine hydroxylation in in-

ducible iNOS [6]. Rapid freeze-quench EPR has provided useful information regarding pterin radical structure, which has been proposed to be either the trihydrobiopterin radical ( $H_3B^\bullet$ ) [7], or the protonated tetrahydrobiopterin radical cation ( $H_4B^{\bullet+}$ ) [8]. Sub-optimal concentrations of  $H_4B$  during endothelial eNOS catalysis causes decoupling of the activating heme-dioxy complex to generate  $O_2^{\bullet-}$  radicals [9]. The pterin may therefore modulate the ratio of  $O_2^{\bullet-}$  to  $NO^\bullet$ , switching NOS to a ‘peroxynitrite synthase’ [2–10].  $NO^\bullet$  rapidly conjugates with the  $O_2^{\bullet-}$  radical to generate peroxynitrite ( $ONOO^-$ ), a potent oxidizing agent [11], which can lead to the formation of hydroxyl ( $\bullet OH$ ) and nitrogen dioxide ( $NO_2^\bullet$ ) radicals following protonation [12].

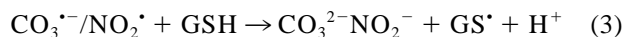
Address correspondence to: Dr. Steven A. Everett, Gray Cancer Institute, P.O. Box 100, Mount Vernon Hospital, Northwood, Middlesex HA6 2JR, UK; Tel: +44 (0)1923 828 611; Fax: +44 (0)1923 835 210; E-Mail: everett@gci.ac.uk



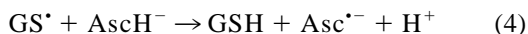
The interaction of  $\text{ONOO}^-$  with carbon dioxide to generate the nitrosoperoxocarbonate anion ( $\text{ONOOCO}_2^-$ ) can also result in the formation of two relatively strong one-electron oxidants,  $\text{NO}_2^\bullet$  and the carbonate radical ( $\text{CO}_3^{\bullet-}$ ) [13–18].



Potentially damaging reactions of  $\text{CO}_3^{\bullet-}$  and  $\text{NO}_2^\bullet$  may be minimized by interception by low-molecular weight antioxidants; in the case of  $\text{NO}_2^\bullet$ , glutathione (GSH) and ascorbate ( $\text{AscH}^-$ ) are most important in the cytosol [19].



The glutathione thiyl radical ( $\text{GS}^\bullet$ ) is rapidly scavenged by ascorbate, which provides a major radical sink via reaction 4 [20,21].



Recent work has shown that physiological concentrations of ascorbate increase the synthesis and biological activity of  $\text{NO}^\bullet$  in cultured endothelial cells by increasing intracellular  $\text{H}_4\text{B}$  [22–24]. These observations may explain how supplementation with  $\text{H}_4\text{B}$  or ascorbate can reverse eNOS dysfunction in cardiovascular disease [25, 26].  $\text{H}_4\text{B}$  appears to have a strong scavenging capacity for biological oxidants including peroxynitrite [27,28], and superoxide [29,30], implying that the pterin is not only an important regulator of NOS and other  $\text{H}_4\text{B}$  cofactor-dependent enzymes, but also may fulfill a role as an intracellular antioxidant [31]. However, the interaction of pterin with key biological radicals generated during NOS dysfunction and general cellular oxidative/nitrosative stress is relatively unexplored. Direct radical scavenging by  $\text{H}_4\text{B}$  and the interaction of the resultant  $\text{H}_4\text{B}$  radicals with other cellular antioxidants will define the antioxidant capability of the pterin.

In this investigation we have used the technique of pulse radiolysis to observe directly the reactions of  $\bullet\text{OH}$ ,  $\text{NO}_2^\bullet$ ,  $\text{CO}_3^{\bullet-}$  and  $\text{GS}^\bullet$  radicals with  $\text{H}_4\text{B}$ , and the reaction of the resultant pterin radical with ascorbate.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

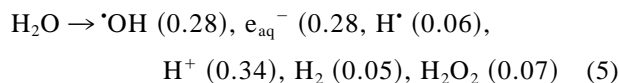
### Chemicals

(6*R*)-5,6,7,8-tetrahydrobiopterin dihydrochloride ( $\text{H}_4\text{B}$ ), L-ascorbic acid, glutathione (GSH), sodium azide, sodium nitrite, sodium carbonate, and 2-propanol were obtained from the Sigma-Adrich Chemical Company Ltd, Poole, UK. Phosphate buffers were obtained from BDH Chemicals Ltd, Poole, UK. Prior to irradiation,

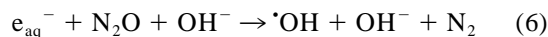
all solutions were bubbled with zero-grade nitrous oxide ( $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ , oxygen content < 10 ppm) (British Oxygen Company, Kent, UK) from which trace oxygen was removed by an Oxisorb cartridge (Chromatography Services Ltd, Hoylake, UK).

### Radiation chemistry

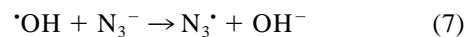
The pulse radiolysis experiments were performed with a 6 MeV linear accelerator as described previously [32]. A pulse of 0.5  $\mu\text{s}$  delivered doses of 2–35 Gy (typically 1–30  $\mu\text{M}$  radicals), as determined by thiocyanate dosimetry [33]. Steady-state irradiations were performed with a  $^{60}\text{Co}$   $\gamma$ -source with a nominal activity of 2000 Ci. The radiolysis of water generates radicals, ions, and other molecular products (The numbers in parenthesis are the approximate radiation chemical yields in  $\mu\text{mol J}^{-1}$ .)



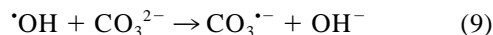
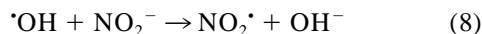
The azide radical ( $\text{N}_3^\bullet$ ) was generated by radiolysis of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ -saturated solutions of  $\text{NaN}_3$  (50 mM) in phosphate buffer (4 mM). The hydrated electron ( $e_{\text{aq}}^-$ ) reacts with  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  and is converted into the hydroxyl radical ( $\bullet\text{OH}$ ), which becomes the main primary product of water radiolysis:



The resultant  $\bullet\text{OH}$  radical oxidizes the azide anion over the pH 4–9.5 to give the  $\text{N}_3^\bullet$  radical [34]:



The carbonate ( $\text{CO}_3^{\bullet-}$ ) and nitrogen dioxide ( $\text{NO}_2^\bullet$ ) radicals were generated by similar means by substituting the sodium azide with either sodium carbonate (20 mM) [35], and sodium nitrite (10 mM) [36].



The acid-base equilibrium of the carbonate radical has been a matter of controversy in recent years but recent evidence suggests that  $\text{HCO}_3^\bullet$  radical is a strong acid and is probably unprotonated at pH > 7.5 [37]. The glutathione thiyl radical ( $\text{GS}^\bullet$ ) was generated by radiolysis of an  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ -saturated aqueous solution containing 2-propanol (0.2 M) and glutathione (10 mM) following repair of

Table 1. Rate Constants for the Reaction of Biological Oxidants (R<sup>•</sup>) with Tetrahydrobiopterin (H<sub>4</sub>B) Compared to Ascorbate (AscH<sup>-</sup>), and Radiation Chemical Yields (G) for the Loss of the Pterin Relative to that of Oxidizing Radicals

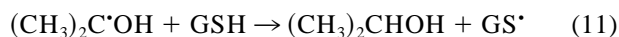
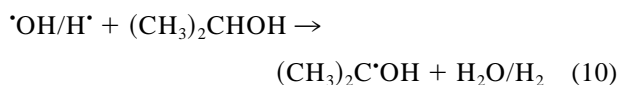
Radical species (R <sup>•</sup> )	$k(\text{R}^{\bullet} + \text{H}_4\text{B})/\text{M}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$	$k(\text{R}^{\bullet} + \text{AscH}^{-})/\text{M}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$	$G(\text{R}^{\bullet})/\mu\text{mol J}^{-1}$	$G(-\text{H}_4\text{B})/\mu\text{mol J}^{-1}$
N <sub>3</sub> <sup>•</sup>	$(5.7 \pm 0.2) \times 10^9$	$2.9 - 4.8 \times 10^9$	0.55	$0.40 \pm 0.1$
<sup>•</sup> OH	<sup>a</sup> $(8.8 \pm 0.2) \times 10^9$ <sup>b</sup> $(1.1 \pm 0.2) \times 10^{10}$	$3.3 - 5.6 \times 10^9$	0.55	$0.39 \pm 0.1$
NO <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup>	$(9.4 \pm 0.1) \times 10^8$	$1.8 - 6.4 \times 10^7$	0.55	$0.4 \pm 0.1$
CO <sub>3</sub> <sup>•-</sup>	$(4.6 \pm 0.1) \times 10^9$	$1.1 - 1.4 \times 10^9$	0.61	$0.37 \pm 0.1$
GS <sup>•</sup>	$(1.1 \pm 0.1) \times 10^9$	$6 \times 10^8$	0.68	<0.01

<sup>a</sup> Absolute value measured directly from the rate of formation of the H<sub>3</sub>B<sup>•</sup> radical.

<sup>b</sup> Rate constant determined by kinetic competition with KSCN.

<sup>c</sup> Rate constants taken from the NRD-L-NIST Solutions Kinetics Database ref. [49].

the 2-propanol radical by glutathione via reactions 5, 6, 10, and 11 [38].



Under these experimental conditions the radiation chemical yields of radicals are  $G(\text{<sup>•</sup>OH}) = G(\text{N}_3^{\bullet}) = G(\text{NO}_2^{\bullet}) = 0.55 \mu\text{mol J}^{-1}$ ,  $G(\text{GS}^{\bullet}) = 0.68 \mu\text{mol J}^{-1}$ , and  $G(\text{CO}_3^{\bullet-}) = 0.61 \mu\text{mol J}^{-1}$ . Since H<sub>4</sub>B rapidly auto-oxidizes in air [39], all stock solutions of the pterin were gassed separately with N<sub>2</sub>O and added immediately prior to radiolysis.

#### HPLC quantification of H<sub>4</sub>B oxidation

Following steady-state  $\gamma$ -radiolysis the oxidation of the pterin was monitored by HPLC. Separation was achieved on a Hichrom RPB 100  $\times$  3.2 mm reverse-phase column (Hichrom, Reading, UK) at a flow rate of 1 ml min<sup>-1</sup>. The solvents and gradients used were A: 5 mM heptane sulphonic acid, 5 mM KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>, 5 mM H<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>, and B: 75% acetonitrile, 25% water; gradient: 5–25% B, 5 min. Solvents were degassed with helium. In order to prevent H<sub>4</sub>B auto-oxidation, samples were injected onto the HPLC directly from the irradiation syringe through a stainless steel luer needle via a Rheodyne 7120 valve fitted with a 20  $\mu\text{l}$  loop. The solutions were irradiated in airtight syringes at a dose rate of 3.1 Gy min<sup>-1</sup>, as determined by Fricke dosimetry [40]. Radiation chemical yields ( $G$ ) in  $\mu\text{mol J}^{-1}$  for the oxidation of H<sub>4</sub>B were calculated from the slope of plots of change in concentration versus radiation dose.

## RESULTS

Table 1 contains the absolute rate constants for the oxidation of H<sub>4</sub>B at physiological pH 7.4 by the azide

radical (N<sub>3</sub><sup>•</sup>) plus various biological one-electron oxidants determined by pulse radiolysis. Also included in Table 1 are the corresponding radiation chemical yields for loss of the pterin relative to that of the oxidizing radical determined by steady-state  $\gamma$ -radiolysis and HPLC.

#### Spectral characteristics and acid-base properties of pterin radicals

The azide radical is a weaker oxidant ( $E^{\circ}(\text{N}_3^{\bullet}/\text{N}_3^{-}) = 1.33 \text{ V}$ ) than <sup>•</sup>OH ( $E^{\circ}(\text{<sup>•</sup>OH}/\text{OH}^{-}) = 1.9 \text{ V}$ ), and is capable of selectively oxidizing pterins by direct electron transfer [34]. The reaction of N<sub>3</sub><sup>•</sup> radicals with H<sub>4</sub>B was followed by observing the changes in absorption in the wavelength range 300–620 nm. Fig. 1A shows the typical absorption spectra of the H<sub>4</sub>B<sup>•+</sup> radical cation and the neutral H<sub>3</sub>B<sup>•</sup> radical generated by one-electron oxidation of H<sub>4</sub>B by the N<sub>3</sub><sup>•</sup> radical. Between pH 7–9.5 the spectrum of the H<sub>3</sub>B<sup>•</sup> radical is characterized by a strong peak ( $\epsilon \sim 6250 \pm 100 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) near 335 nm and a lower absorption above this, with a tail extending to 610 nm. Similar UV/visible spectra of trihydropterin radicals were previously reported by Armstrong and colleagues following oxidation of synthetic tetrahydropterins by the N<sub>3</sub><sup>•</sup> radical [41]. For solutions of H<sub>4</sub>B at a particular pH, the rate of increase in absorption of the pterin radical obeyed pseudo first-order kinetics (e.g., Fig. 1B) at all wavelengths with similar rates. Figure 1C shows a linear plot of the pseudo first-order rate constants versus H<sub>4</sub>B concentration at pH 5, the slope of which gave the rate constant  $k_{12} = (5.7 \pm 0.2) \times 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$  consistent with reaction 12.

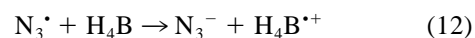


Figure 2 shows the changes in absorbance at 300 nm and 420 nm fitted to the appropriate function giving a  $\text{p}K_{\text{a}} = 5.2 \pm 0.1$  for the radical cation H<sub>4</sub>B<sup>•+</sup>, which rapidly deprotonates at  $\text{pH} > \text{p}K_{\text{a}}$  to give the H<sub>3</sub>B<sup>•</sup> radical:

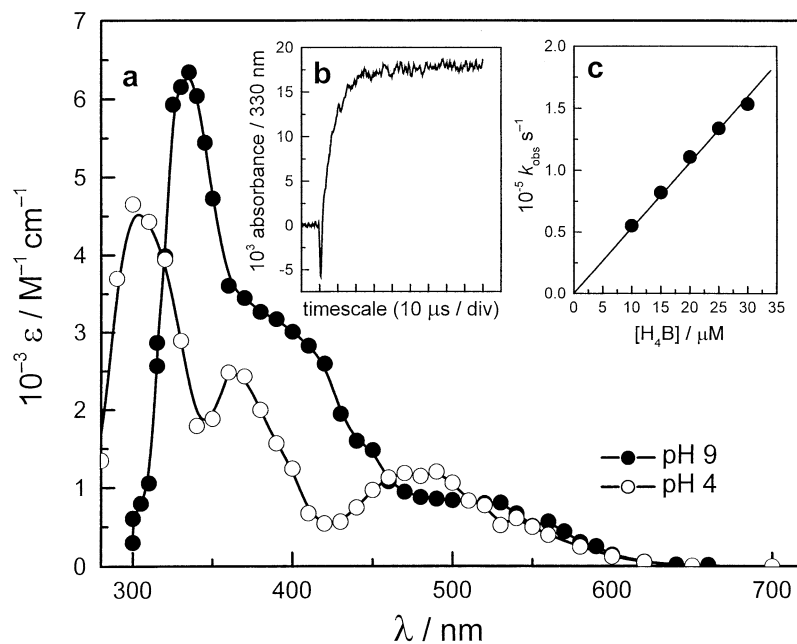


Fig. 1. (A) Spectra of the tetrahydrobiopterin radical cation (○) and the trihydrobiopterin radical (●) obtained by pulse radiolysis (3 Gy) of an  $N_2O$ -saturated aqueous solution of  $H_4B$  ( $100 \mu M$ ),  $NaN_3$  ( $50 \text{ mM}$ ), sodium phosphate buffer ( $5 \text{ mM}$ ) at pH 4 and 9, respectively. The insert (B) is a typical kinetic trace showing the build-up of the  $H_3B^\bullet$  radical following pulse radiolysis (2.3 Gy) of  $H_4B$  ( $25 \mu M$ ) at pH 7.4. Insert (C) shows the linear correlation of the observed first-order rate constant versus the concentration of the pterin.



In the absence of ascorbate the pterin radicals decayed via second-order kinetics with a half-life which increased

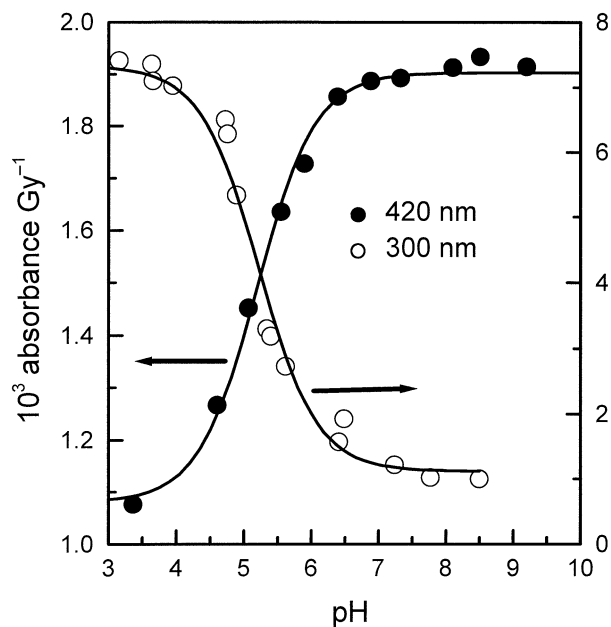
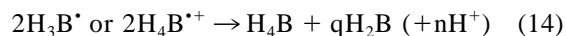


Fig. 2. The change in absorbance recorded at 300 nm (○) and 420 nm (●) between pH 3 and 9.3 following pulse radiolysis (3 Gy) of an  $N_2O$ -saturated aqueous solution of  $H_4B$  ( $50 \mu M$ ),  $NaN_3$  ( $50 \text{ mM}$ ), sodium phosphate buffer ( $5 \text{ mM}$ ).

with increasing radiation dose or initial concentration of oxidizing radicals ( $[N_3^\bullet] \sim 3\text{--}30 \mu M$ ), indicating that both the  $H_4B^{*+}$  and  $H_3B^\bullet$  radicals undergo disproportionation to regenerate  $H_4B$  and probably quinonoid dihydrobiopterin ( $qH_2B$ ) via reaction 14. The reciprocal of the first half-life of the pterin radicals varied linearly with the initial radical concentration, and from the slope of the fitted straight line, the rate constants  $2k_{14} = (9.3 \pm 0.1) \times 10^4 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$  at pH 7.4 and  $2k_{14} = (6.5 \pm 0.1) \times 10^3 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$  at pH 3.5 were obtained for the neutral and protonated pterin radicals, respectively.



The inclusion of  $0.5 \text{ M NaClO}_4$  increased the rate of decay of the  $H_4B^{*+}$  radical 2.1-fold to  $2k_{14} = (1.4 \pm 0.1) \times 10^4 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ . This is consistent with the acceleration of the rate of decay of a species with net charge  $\pm 1$  predicted from the Debye-Hückel-Brönsted-Davis equation [42]. In marked contrast, the decay of the  $H_3B^\bullet$  radical at pH 7.4 was unaffected by increasing the ionic strength of the solution, consistent with an uncharged species. The radiation chemical yield for the loss of the pterin  $G(-H_4B) = 0.40 \pm 0.1 \mu \text{mol J}^{-1}$ . Of this,  $0.07 \mu \text{mol J}^{-1}$  may arise from two-electron oxidation by  $H_2O_2$  formed by reaction 5, leaving  $\sim 0.33 \mu \text{mol J}^{-1}$ , which is somewhat higher than half  $G(N_3^\bullet) = 0.55 \pm 0.1 \mu \text{mol J}^{-1}$ , the yield predicted from reaction 14.

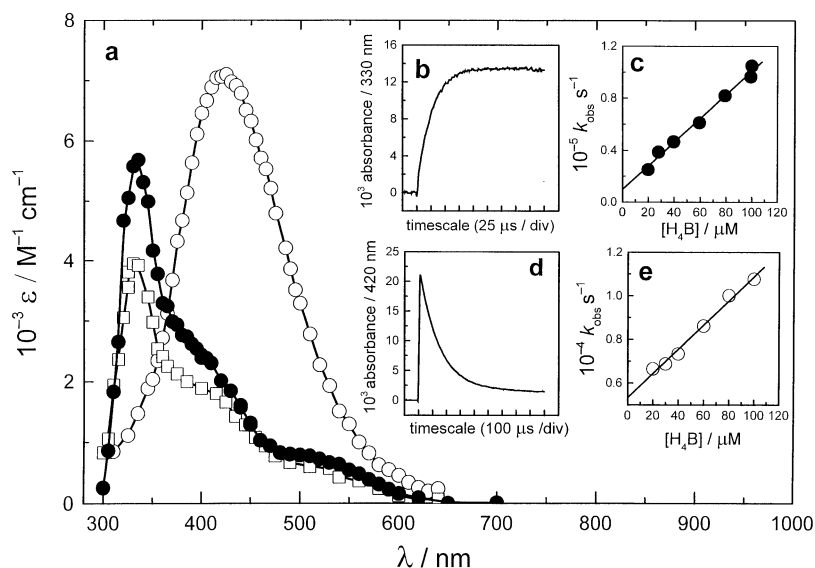
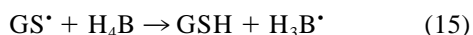


Fig. 3. (A) The spectrum of the trihydrobiopterin radical (●) generated by pulse radiolysis (2 Gy) of an  $N_2O$ -saturated aqueous solution of  $H_4B$  ( $100 \mu M$ ), glutathione (10 mM), 2-propanol (0.2 M), sodium phosphate buffer (5 mM) at pH 6. The spectrum of the disulfide radical anion (○) and the tetrahydrobiopterin radical anion (□) generated by pulse radiolysis (2 Gy) of an  $N_2O$ -saturated aqueous solution of  $H_4B$  ( $100 \mu M$ ), sodium formate (0.2 M), glutathione (10 mM) sodium phosphate buffer (5 mM) at pH 9.2 measured at 50  $\mu s$  and 250  $\mu s$  after pulse, respectively. Insert (B) is a typical kinetic trace showing the build-up of the  $H_3B^\bullet$  radical following oxidation of the  $H_4B$  ( $28 \mu M$ ) by the  $GS^\bullet$  radical recorded at pH 7.4 and insert (C) shows the corresponding linear correlation of the observed first-order rate constant versus the concentration of the pterin (20–100  $\mu M$ ). Insert (D) shows a typical kinetic trace showing the decay of the disulfide radical anion in the presence of  $H_4B$  (30  $\mu M$ ) under similar experimental conditions described in (A) and insert (E) shows the corresponding linear correlation of the observed first-order rate constant versus the concentration of the pterin (20–100  $\mu M$ ).

*Oxidation of  $H_4B$  by the glutathione thiyl radical and reduction by the glutathione disulfide radical anion*

Figure 3A (●) shows the spectrum obtained when  $H_4B$  is oxidized by the  $GS^\bullet$  radical and Fig. 3B a typical kinetic trace recorded at 330 nm. The spectral similarities with Fig. 1A for oxidation of  $H_4B$  by the  $N_3^\bullet$  radical indicates that scavenging of the  $GS^\bullet$  radical by  $H_4B$  generates the  $H_3B^\bullet$  radical according to reaction 15.



At pH 4 the  $GS^\bullet$  radical gives the  $H_4B^{+\bullet}$  radical cation suggesting that at physiological pH, interaction with the pterin involves electron transfer followed by deprotonation rather than hydrogen atom transfer to form the  $H_3B^\bullet$  radical directly. Figure 3C shows a linear plot of the pseudo first-order rate constants versus  $H_4B$  concentration at pH 6, the slope of which gave the rate constant  $k_{15} = (1.1 \pm 0.1) \times 10^9 M^{-1} s^{-1}$  for reaction 15. However, the yield of  $GS^\bullet$  and therefore reaction 15 decreases above pH 6 due to the competing equilibrium reaction 16 coupled to the prototropic equilibrium reaction 17 [43].



Whereas thiyl radicals are moderately strong oxidants [ $E^\circ(RS^\bullet + H^+/RSH) = 1.3 V$  (vs. NHE)], the conjugated  $RSSR^{\bullet-}$  intermediate is an extremely powerful reductant [ $E^\circ(RSSR/RSSR^{\bullet-}) = -1.6 V$ ] [44]. Previous work demonstrated that pterin and pterin-6-carboxylate ions are rapidly reduced to pterin radicals by the model one-electron reductant the formate radical ( $CO_2^{\bullet-}$ ) [45], which has similar reducing properties to  $RSSR^{\bullet-}$ . Following pulse radiolysis of an  $N_2O$ -saturated solution containing 0.2 M  $HCOONa$ , 10mM GSH, 4 mM phosphate buffer at pH 9.2 the majority of  $GS^\bullet$  radicals produced are rapidly converted to the  $GSSG^{\bullet-}$  radical anion ( $\epsilon_{420nm} \sim 8000 M^{-1} cm^{-1}$ ) which is produced in high yield  $G(GS^\bullet) \sim G(GSSG^{\bullet-}) = 0.6 \mu mol J^{-1}$  (see Fig. 3A (○)) [46]. Under these experimental conditions the half-life of the  $GS^\bullet$  radical in the presence of the glutathione anion is extremely short  $t_{1/2} = 0.7/(k_{16}[GS^-] + k_{-16}) \sim 0.1 \mu s$  and even in the presence of 50  $\mu M$   $H_4B$  easily out-competes reaction 14 with a half-life of  $t_{1/2} = 0.7/k_{15}[H_4B] \sim 14 \mu s$ . Figure 3A (□) shows a typical spectrum of the radical obtained on the reduction of  $H_4B$  by the  $GSSG^{\bullet-}$ , which is ascribed to the tetrahydrobiopterin radical anion ( $H_4B^{\bullet-}$ ) formed via reaction 18.



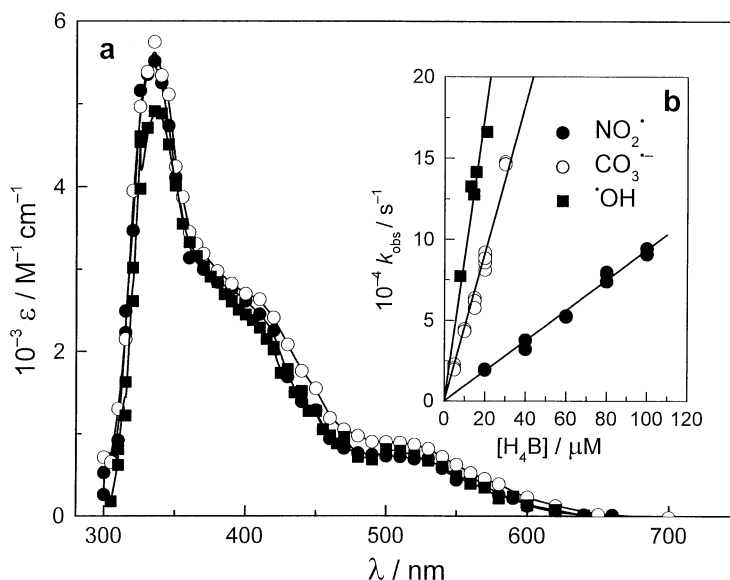
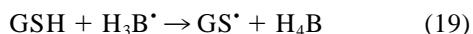


Fig. 4. Spectra of the trihydrobiopterin radical obtained on the oxidation of  $H_4B$  by the  $\cdot OH$  radical (■),  $NO_2\cdot$  radical (●) and  $CO_3^{\cdot-}$  radical (○). All spectra were determined by pulse radiolysis (2.5 Gy) of  $N_2O$ -saturated solutions containing the pterin (100  $\mu M$ ), potassium phosphate buffer (5 mM) at pH 7.4. The  $NO_2\cdot$  and  $CO_3^{\cdot-}$  radicals were generated by introducing either  $NaNO_2$  (10 mM) or  $Na_2CO_3$  (10 mM) as described in the experimental. The insert (B) shows the corresponding linear correlation of the observed first-order rate constant for the build-up of the trihydrobiopterin radical at 340 nm versus the concentration of the pterin (20–100  $\mu M$ ) for each of the radical oxidants.

Figure 3E shows a linear plot of the pseudo first-order rate constant for the decay of the  $GSSG^{\cdot-}$  radical anion (Fig. 3D) versus  $H_4B$  concentration at pH 9.2, the slope of which gave the rate constant  $k_{18} = (4.5 \pm 0.1) \times 10^8 M^{-1} s^{-1}$  for reaction 18.

Despite the fact that the  $GS\cdot$  radical rapidly oxidizes  $H_4B$  via reaction 15, steady-state  $\gamma$ -radiolysis experiments revealed that GSH protected  $H_4B$  from oxidation (see Table 1). However, pulse radiolysis did indicate that the decay of the  $H_3B\cdot$  radical was unaffected by the concentration of GSH (5–20 mM) ruling out fast ‘repair’ of the pterin radical by the thiol.

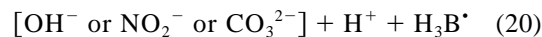


It is more likely that GSH protects  $H_4B$  from oxidation by reducing an intermediate product(s), for example  $qH_2B$  formed in reaction 14, back to pterin. The ability of thiols to convert  $qH_2B$  to  $H_4B$  is a commonly used strategy for preventing  $H_4B$  auto-oxidation [47].

#### Oxidation of $H_4B$ by hydroxyl, nitrogen dioxide, and carbonate radicals

Oxidation of  $H_4B$  at pH 7.4 by  $\cdot OH$ ,  $NO_2\cdot$ , or  $CO_3^{\cdot-}$  radicals gave spectra indicative of  $H_3B\cdot$  radical formation (see Fig. 4A). Even the  $\cdot OH$  radical, which reacts by addition with most biomolecules, gave the same spec-

trum. In all cases the absolute rate constants for oxidation of  $H_4B$  via reaction 20 were determined directly by monitoring the exponential build-up in absorbance  $\sim 350$  nm ascribed to the  $H_3B\cdot$  radical with  $H_4B$  concentration (5–100  $\mu M$ ) shown in Fig. 4B. As before the absolute rate constants for radical scavenging were determined from the slopes of the linear plots of the observed rate constant versus concentration of  $H_4B$  (see Fig. 4B) and are displayed in Table 1.



The absolute rate constant for  $\cdot OH$  attack on  $H_4B$  was also determined indirectly by kinetic-competition with thiocyanate ion using the rate constant  $k(\cdot OH + SCN^-) = 1.1 \times 10^{10} M^{-1} s^{-1}$  from the literature [48]. However, the resultant thiocyanate radical anion ( $SCN_2^{\cdot-}$ ) also reacted with  $H_4B$  and the absolute rate constant determined directly  $k_{20}(\cdot OH + H_4B) = (8.8 \pm 0.2) \times 10^9 M^{-1} s^{-1}$  is therefore favored over the higher value determined by competition kinetics. As shown in Table 1 all the radicals reacted significantly faster with the pterin than with ascorbate. The radiation chemical yields in Table 1 for the oxidation of the pterin by  $\cdot OH$ ,  $NO_2\cdot$  and  $CO_3^{\cdot-}$  radicals were approximately equal to that of the  $N_3\cdot$  radical reflecting similar yields of the  $H_3B\cdot$  radical which undergo disproportionation via reaction 14.

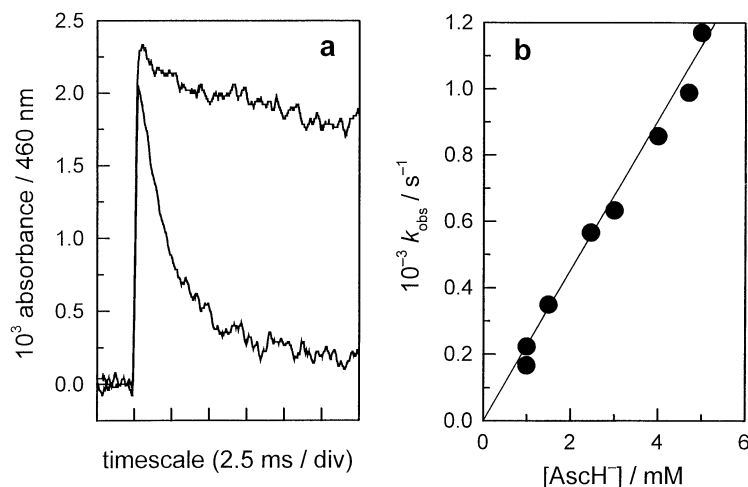


Fig. 5. (A) shows two kinetic traces showing the decay of the trihydrobiopterin radical in the absence and presence of the ascorbate. The upper trace was recorded by pulse radiolysis ( $\sim 1$  Gy) of an  $N_2O$ -saturated solution containing  $H_4B$  (10 mM),  $NaNO_2$  (50 mM) and potassium phosphate buffer (5 mM) at pH 9.3. The lower trace shows the decay of the tetrahydrobiopterin radical in the presence of ascorbate (1 mM). The right panel (B) shows the increase in the observed rate of decay of the tetrahydrobiopterin radical with increasing concentration of ascorbate.

#### Scavenging of the trihydrobiopterin radical by ascorbate

Ascorbate is capable of stabilizing  $H_4B$  in biological systems. One possible mechanism by which intracellular ascorbate stimulates NOS activity is regeneration of  $H_4B$  from the trihydrobiopterin radical via reaction 21.



In order to determine the rate constant for reaction 21 the decay of the  $H_3B^\bullet$  radical was studied in the absence and presence of ascorbate. The  $NO_2^\bullet$  radical was the chosen oxidant to generate the  $H_3B^\bullet$  radical since  $NO_2^\bullet$  reacts with  $H_4B$  over an order of magnitude faster than ascorbate (see Table 1). Pulse radiolysis was performed with  $N_2O$ -saturated solutions containing  $H_4B$  (10 mM),  $NaNO_2$  (20 mM), potassium phosphate buffer (4 mM), and ascorbate (0–5 mM). Under these experimental conditions  $< 5\%$  of the  $NO_2^\bullet$  radicals generated react with ascorbate and the  $H_3B^\bullet$  radical is produced with equivalent yield to the  $NO_2^\bullet$  radical even in the presence of 5 mM  $AscH^-$ . At pH 9.2 the  $H_3B^\bullet$  radical decays by second-order kinetics reflecting the disproportionation reaction 14. Figure 5A shows typical kinetic traces showing the decay of the  $H_3B^\bullet$  radical in the absence and presence of ascorbate. A low dose per pulse (2 Gy producing  $\sim 1.1 \mu M$   $H_3B^\bullet$  radicals) was used to minimize the decay of the  $H_3B^\bullet$  radicals via reaction 14. In the absence of ascorbate the half-life of the pterin radical was  $t_{1/2} = 1/2k_{14}[H_3B^\bullet] \sim 9.8$  s. In the presence of ascorbate (1 mM) the decay of the  $H_3B^\bullet$  changes to first-order (lower kinetic trace in Fig. 5A), reflecting

scavenging of the pterin radical by ascorbate via reaction 21. Figure 5B shows the linear plot of the observed rate constant versus the concentration of ascorbate (0.5–5 mM), the slope of which yields  $k_{21}(H_3B^\bullet + AscH^-) \sim 1.7 \times 10^5 M^{-1} s^{-1}$  at pH 9.2. The decay of the  $H_3B^\bullet$  radical at 360 nm resulted in an increase in absorbance at the same wavelength ascribed to the formation of the  $Asc^{\bullet-}$  radical via reaction 21. Since both the  $H_3B^\bullet$  and  $Asc^{\bullet-}$  radicals absorb at 360 nm a longer wavelength was favored for kinetic measurements.

#### DISCUSSION

This study has demonstrated that  $H_4B$  is a potent scavenger of radical species generated during oxidative stress and NOS dysfunction. The oxidants  $N_3^\bullet$ ,  $\bullet OH$ ,  $GS^\bullet$ ,  $NO_2^\bullet$  and  $CO_3^{\bullet-}$  radicals all generate the  $H_3B^\bullet$  radical at physiological pH. To emphasize the potent radical scavenging ability of  $H_4B$  one needs to compare the measured rate constants from this study with the corresponding rate constants for scavenging of these radicals by ascorbate displayed in Table 1. The latter are taken from compilations of rate constants available from the NDRL Radiation Chemistry Data Center [49]. A recent electrochemical study has indicated that the pterin may well be more easily oxidized [ $E^\circ(H_4B/H_4B^{\bullet+}) = +0.27$  V vs. NHE] [50] than ascorbate [ $E^\circ(AscH^-/H^+, Asc^\bullet) = +0.33$  V vs. NHE] [51]. For all radical oxidants the rate of scavenging by  $H_4B$  is faster than with ascorbate. The most dramatic difference is for the  $NO_2^\bullet$  radical, which oxidizes the pterin over an order of magnitude faster than ascorbate. Using EPR-kinetic analysis Vázquez-Vivar and colleagues determined the rate constant for the re-

action of superoxide with H<sub>4</sub>B to be  $k = (3.9 \pm 0.2) \times 10^5 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$  at pH 7.4, a value similar to that of superoxide with ascorbate [52].

However, the ability of H<sub>4</sub>B to act as an antioxidant will depend on the relative concentrations of the pterin to other low molecular weight antioxidants such as ascorbate and GSH. For example, the typical concentration of H<sub>4</sub>B in endothelial cells is  $\sim 7 \mu\text{M}$  [53], the half-life for the reaction of the NO<sub>2</sub><sup>•</sup> radical at this concentration is  $t_{1/2} = 0.7/k_{20}[\text{H}_4\text{B}] \sim 106 \mu\text{s}$ . The corresponding half-life of the NO<sub>2</sub><sup>•</sup> radical in the presence of a physiologically relevant concentration of ascorbate ( $\sim 100 \mu\text{M}$ ) is estimated to be  $t_{1/2} = 0.7/k[\text{AscH}^-] \sim 5 \mu\text{s}$ , suggesting that ascorbate is capable of protecting against the oxidation of H<sub>4</sub>B by directly competing for oxidizing radical species. We have also shown that ascorbate may also protect H<sub>4</sub>B indirectly by 'repairing' the H<sub>3</sub>B<sup>•</sup> radical. These conclusions are supported by recent work showing that physiological concentrations of ascorbate increase the synthesis and biological activity of nitric oxide in cultured endothelial cells by increasing intracellular H<sub>4</sub>B [22–24]. Other cell types including MCF-7 breast tumor cells and MOLT-4 human T-cell leukemia contain similar quantities of H<sub>4</sub>B as HUVECS, typically 5–10  $\mu\text{M}$  [54]. However, it should be noted that higher levels of H<sub>4</sub>B will be present in cells stimulated by cytokines where a higher concentration of the pterin cofactor is required to support NOS activity [55]. It is argued that in cells devoid of ascorbate the pterin substitutes as the sink for radicals that would otherwise be intercepted by ascorbate. In the absence of ascorbate, glutathione ( $\sim 2 \text{ mM}$ ) will probably play a central role in scavenging radicals, e.g., the half-life of the NO<sub>2</sub><sup>•</sup> radical is likely to be  $t_{1/2} = 0.7/k[\text{GSH}] \sim 25 \mu\text{s}$ . The resultant GS<sup>•</sup> radicals rapidly oxidize H<sub>4</sub>B with a rate constant of  $k_{15} = (1.1 \pm 0.1) \times 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ . Interestingly, recent work has demonstrated that unlike ascorbate, GSH does not appear to be an important determinant of endothelial cell H<sub>4</sub>B content [23]. This is in contrast to work by Hofmann and Schmidt, which showed that GSH can influence NOS kinetics and therefore NO<sup>•</sup> production by recycling or preventing the auto-oxidation of the pterin cofactor [56]. The conjugation of GS<sup>•</sup> with the GS<sup>-</sup> to form the GSSG<sup>•-</sup> radical anion is recognized as an important reaction in biology since the reaction with oxygen sources O<sub>2</sub><sup>•-</sup> radicals.



The pterin is also rapidly reduced by the GSSG<sup>•-</sup> radical anion to produce the H<sub>4</sub>B<sup>•-</sup> radical anion,  $k_{18} = (4.5 \pm 0.1) \times 10^8 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ . This rate is similar to  $k_{22} \sim 5.1 \times 10^8 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$  previously reported by Prütz and colleagues

[46]. The biological significance of reaction 18 and the fate of the H<sub>4</sub>B<sup>•-</sup> radical anion in cells remains to be elucidated but may prove an important reaction in hypoxic environments.

There is increasing evidence to support a role of H<sub>4</sub>B as a one-electron donor in NOS catalysis [1–3]. The actual protonation state of the resultant pterin radical is a matter for debate but this study has demonstrated that the H<sub>4</sub>B<sup>•+</sup> radical cation rapidly deprotonates to the neutral H<sub>3</sub>B<sup>•</sup> radical at physiological pH.

In conclusion, this work contains the rate constants for the scavenging of key biological radicals with the enzyme cofactor H<sub>4</sub>B. The high scavenging efficiency of H<sub>4</sub>B compared to ascorbate supports the role of H<sub>4</sub>B as a significant biological antioxidant.

*Acknowledgement* — This work is supported by the Cancer Research Campaign (CRC).

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