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Inherent Stereospecificity in the Reaction of Aflatoxin B₁ 8,9-Epoxide with Deoxyguanosine and Efficiency of DNA Catalysis

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Abstract

Kinetic analysis of guanine alkylation by aflatoxin B_1 exo-8,9-epoxide, the reactive form of the hepatocarcinogen aflatoxin B_1 , reveals the reaction to be > 2000-times more efficient in DNA than in aqueous solution, i.e. with free 2'-deoxyguanosine. Thermodynamic analysis reveals AFB₁ exo-8,9-epoxide intercalation as the predominant source of the observed DNA catalytic effect. However, the known exo > endo epoxide stereospecificity of the DNA alkylation is observed even with free deoxyguanosine (ratio > 20:1 determined by LC-MS and NMR measurements), as predicted by theoretical calculations (Bren, U. et al. *Chem Res. Toxciol. 20*, 1134–1140, 2007).

Introduction

Many carcinogens are transformed by enzymes to electrophiles that react with DNA (1). Because the resulting DNA lesions can cause replication blockage and particularly miscoding events leading to mutations, this process has been of considerable interest in cancer research (2). The short-lived nature of the reactive forms of activated carcinogens has made the study of their chemistry and kinetics technically difficult, as well as their selectivity with individual DNA residues (3). One of the factors of interest is the rate acceleration of conjugation of an activated carcinogen due to the DNA environment. Although some of these electrophilic chemicals have been reacted with nucleosides and nucleoside triphosphates, rates have not been measured (e.g., polycyclic hydrocarbon diol epoxides) (4). Alternatively, the kinetics of reactions of sulfonate esters of aryl hydroxamic acids have been measured with dGuo (5) but apparently not DNA.

The natural product aflatoxin B_1 (AFB₁)1 is one of the most potent hepatocarcinogens known and constitutes a major public health issue in several areas of the world (6). All of the genotoxic activity of AFB₁ can be understood in terms of AFB₁ 8,9-epoxide, which is formed by P450 enzymes (7). The *exo* stereoisomer reacts with DNA $\geq 10^3$ faster than the *endo* isomer and therefore only the *exo* form is genotoxic (8). Although the intercalation of

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Supporting Information Available: Figure S1, ¹H-NMR analysis of fractions of *exo* and *endo* AFB₁ 8,9-epoxide. Figure S2, LC-MS of the products of the reaction of AFB₁ 8,9-epoxide with dGuo. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at http://pubs.acs.org.

¹Abbreviations: AFB₁, aflatoxin B₁; AFB₁-dGuo, 8,9-dihydro-8- $(N^7$ -deoxyguanosyl)-9-hydroxy AFB₁; AFB₁-Gua, 8,9-dihydro-8- $(N^7$ -guanyl)-9-hydroxy AFB₁. The abbreviations for nucleosides and nucleic acid bases are standard for this journal.

AFB₁ into DNA represents an established part of the mechanism of reaction of AFB₁ 8,9-epoxide (8, 9), the reaction of AFB₁ 8,9-epoxide with free dGuo has also been reported (10), but its reaction rate constant was never determined. On the other hand, the kinetics of reaction of AFB₁ 8,9-epoxide with DNA have been analyzed in detail (11). In this study, the reaction of AFB₁ 8,9-epoxide with dGuo in aqueous solution was characterized accordingly.

Experimental Procedures

Caution! AFB₁ is a known hepatocarcinogen and must be handled with appropriate precautions. Wear disposable nitrile gloves and destroy all samples in bleach

Reagents—Dry acetone was prepared by treatment with anhydrous K_2CO_3 and distillation from P_2O_5 (12). AFB₁ 8,9-epoxide was prepared by oxidation of AFB₁ with dimethyldioxirane (13). All work with AFB₁ was done in amber glass because of the light sensitivity. The fractions of *exo* and *endo* isomers (plus any AFB₁ dihydrodiol) were determined by NMR in CDCl₃. Dilutions of AFB₁ 8,9-epoxide were made in dry acetone. The concentrations of AFB₁ 8,9-epoxide were estimated by addition of aliquots to 20 mM potassium phosphate buffer (pH 5.0) to form AFB₁-diol, which was quantified by UV measurements (ϵ_{360} 21,800 M⁻¹ cm⁻¹).

Reaction of AFB₁ 8,9-Epoxide with dGuo—Stock solutions of dGuo (20 mM) were prepared in 5 mM potassium phosphate buffer (pH 7.4) by sonication with a microtip (Branson Digital Soniter, Branson, Danbury, CT), using 70% maximum amplitude. (The dGuo did not change the pH.) Ten μL of 4.5 mM AFB₁ 8,9-epoxide was added to 0.50 mL of 5 mM potassium phosphate buffer (pH 7.4) containing varying concentrations of dGuo, mixed immediately with a vortex device (at 25 °C) (duplicate experiments). After 5 min, 75 μL of 1 M HCl was added and the samples were heated at 80 °C for 30 min to cleave the glycosidic bond. Insoluble material was precipitated by centrifugation (10 min, $3 \times 10^3 \times g$). Aliquots (50 μL) were injected onto an octadecylsilane (C₁₈) HPLC column (3 μm, 6.2 mm × 80 mm, Zorbax, MacMod, Chadds Ford, PA). A linear gradient of 25 to 75% CH₃OH, v/v (in 20 mM NH₄CH₃CO₂, pH 4.5) over 20 min (flow 2.0 mL min⁻¹) was used. The effluent was monitored using a UV3000 HR system (ThermoElectron, Piscataway, NJ) in the rapid scanning monochromator mode, with quantitation based on A₃₆₀ measurements. The identity of the AFB₁-Gua peak was confirmed in a separate LC-MS analysis: [M+H]⁺ m/z 480.1, confirmed by HRMS, 480.1159, calc. mass 480.1155, C₂₂H₁₈N₅O₈. Calibration was based on an external standard prepared from treatment of calf thymus DNA treated in the same way, purified by HPLC, and quantified by UV (ε_{360} 26,800 M⁻¹ cm⁻¹).

Liquid Chromatography—Reversed-phase HPLC purification was performed using a Beckman Coulter system comprised of a System Gold 126 solvent module and a 168 diode array detector; 32 Karat (v. 7.0, Beckmann Coulter, Fullerton, CA) software was used for the acquisition, processing, and analysis of HPLC data. The diode array detector was configured to monitor both 254 nm and 360 nm wavelengths. A Gemini (10 mm × 250 mm, 5 μm, Phenomenex, Torrance, CA) column was used at a flow rate of 2.0 mL min⁻¹. Separation prior to MS analysis was conducted on a Waters Acquity UPLC system (Waters, Milford, MA) with a binary solvent manager. A Gemini (4.6 mm × 250 mm, 5 μm, Phenomenex) column was used at a flow rate of 1.0 mL min⁻¹. The mobile phase consisted of 10 mM NH₄HCO₂ buffer (pH 8.0) with a CH₃CN gradient increasing from 20 to 40% (v/v) over 20 min.

Tandem Mass Spectrometry—Analysis was conducted ousing an LTQ linear ion trap mass spectrometer (ThermoElectron, San Jose, CA) equipped with an Ion Max API electrospray source and a 50 mm inner diameter stainless steel capillary. The instrument was

tuned and calibrated over a mass range of m/z 195 to 1822. An injection volume of 10 μ L was used. The mass spectrometer was operated in the positive ion mode.

Spectroscopy—UV measurements were recorded using a Cary 14-OLIS instrument (On-Line Instrument Systems, Bogart, GA). NMR experiments were performed at a ^1H frequency of 600 MHz on a Bruker Avance II spectrometer with a 5 mm Z-gradient TCI Cryo-probe. AFB₁ 8,9-epoxide was dissolved in CDCl₃. AFB₁-Gua was dissolved in 99.9% D₂O and referenced to residual H₂O (δ 4.773 ppm at 25 ± 0.5 °C). Solvent signal suppression was achieved using the WET suppression technique (14, 15). Acquisition parameters were as follows: 32K complex data points, 2K scans per FID, sweep width 12020 Hz, relaxation delay 1.8 s. Carrier frequencies were set at 4.7 ppm for ^1H and 170 ppm for ^1S C. TOPSPIN (v 2.0.b.6, Bruker, Karlsruhe, Germany) was used for data processing and analysis. Spectra were apodized with a Gaussian function and baseline corrected with a 5th degree polynomial.

Calculations—Gnuplot version 4.2 was used for fitting of Equation 1 to the experimental adduct yields over the entire dGuo concentration range and provided the best estimate for k_{non} , 12.6 M⁻¹ s⁻¹. Fitting of Equation 2 to the linear portion of the experimental adduct yields ([dGuo] <10 mM) gave the best estimate for k_{non} , a value of 11.9 M⁻¹ s⁻¹.

Results and Discussion

Quantitation of AFB₁ 8,9-Epoxide Reaction with dGuo

Varying concentrations of dGuo were reacted with (90 μM) AFB₁ 8,9-epoxide (96% *exo*, 4% *endo*) and the yield of 8,9-dihydro-8-(N^7 -deoxyguanosyl)-9-hydroxy AFB₁ (AFB₁-dGuo) adduct was determined (as 8,9-dihydro-8-(N^7 -guanyl)-9-hydroxy AFB₁ (AFB₁-Gua)) by HPLC-UV measurements (Figure 1). The yield increased with the dGuo concentration.

The formation of the AFB₁-dGuo adduct is competitive with AFB₁ 8,9-epoxide (AFB₁-O) hydrolysis (Scheme 1) giving rise to the 8,9-dihydrodiol (AFB₁-diol)

$$AFB_1 - O + H_2O \xrightarrow{k_a} AFB_1 - diol$$

$$AFB_1 - O + dGuo \xrightarrow{k_{non}} AFB_1 - dGuo$$

The corresponding rate equation for AFB₁ 8,9-epoxide is

$$\frac{d[AFB_1-O]}{dt} = -\,k_a[H_2O][AFB_1-O] - k_{non}[\,dGuo][AFB_1-O] \label{eq:continuous}$$

where [] indicates molar concentration and k_a and k_{non} represent second-order rate constants. Hydrolysis can be treated as a pseudo-first-order reaction with the corresponding rate constant k_a ' = k_a [H₂O] of 0.6 s⁻¹ (16). Because only ~ 0.1% of the dGuo reacts, its concentration can be considered constant and the adduct formation as a pseudo-first-order reaction as well. In the case of two competing (pseudo) first-order reactions the quotient of their (pseudo) first-order rate constants equals the quotient of the amounts of their respective products

$$\frac{k_{a'}}{k_{non}[dGuo]} = \frac{[AFB_1 - diol]}{[AFB_1 - dGuo]}$$

This expression, in combination with the mass balance for the added 90 μ M concentration of AFB₁ 8,9-epoxide,

$$c_{AFB_1-O}$$
=[$AFB_1 - diol$]+[$AFB_1 - dGuo$]

provides the final relation after simple rearrangement

$$[AFB_1 - dGuo] = \frac{k_{non}c_{AFB_1-O}[dGuo]}{k_\alpha' + k_{non}[dGuo]}$$
(1)

At low dGuo concentrations where $k_{\text{non}}[\text{dGuo}] \ll k_{\text{a}}$ ', the model gives a linear relationship

$$[AFB_1 - dGuo] = \frac{k_{non}c_{AFB_1-O}}{k_{a'}}[dGuo]$$
(2)

At higher dGuo concentrations the $k_{\text{non}}[d\text{Guo}]$ term begins to contribute and the observed yield begins to plateau (Figure 1).

Stereoselectivity of Reaction of AFB₁ 8,9-Epoxide with dGuo

The separation of the *exo* and *endo* isomers of AFB₁ 8,9-epoxide by fractional crystallization is possible (8, 17, 18) but not trivial, and even the best *endo* AFB₁ 8,9-epoxide preparations have some *exo* contamination. We used an alternate strategy to address the stereochemistry of the reaction. An AFB₁ 8,9-epoxide preparation, determined to contain 7.7% *endo* epoxide (Figure S1, Supporting Information), was reacted with dGuo (20 mM) under the same conditions used in the analytical procedure (*vide supra*) and the product was analyzed.

One possibility is that a putative *endo*-derived (diasteromeric) AFB₁-Gua adduct might separate during chromatography, e.g. as in the case of the GSH conjugates (18). LC-MS analysis showed only one HPLC peak with the correct UV (A_{360} , A_{260}) and m/z characteristics, i.e. major fragmentation between guanine and AFB₁ moities, *m/z* 329 and *m/z* 152 (19) (Figure S2, Supporting Information).

The AFB₁-Gua adduct was isolated and analyzed by ¹H-NMR spectroscopy (Figure 2), with all signals corresponding to the *exo* isomer in the literature (19). In the absence of an authentic *endo* adduct, the chemical shifts are uncertain but can be predicted from the behavior of the diastereomeric GSH conjugates and should be similar to those (\pm 0.5 ppm) (17, 18). Intra-residue proton coupling was predicted to be identical to those previously reported. There were no observed peak patterns congruent to predicted chemical shifts or coupling patterns. The limit of detection of an *endo* product was < 0.35% based on the singlets and < 0.65% based on doublets, with the former limit considered a better estimate. These values can be compared with the 7.7% *endo* isomer in the AFB₁ 8,9-epoxide used in the reaction. Thus the *exo* isomer of AFB₁ 8,9-epoxide is > 20-fold more reactive with free dGuo than the *endo*.

Analysis of Activation Barriers

The reaction of AFB₁ 8,9-epoxide with dGuo can now be compared directly with the DNA alkylation. The dGuo reaction is best described by a relationship (*vide supra*) that predicts saturation at higher dGuo concentrations. The reaction has a second-order rate constant k_{non} of 12 M⁻¹ s⁻¹ (Figure 1), which can be connected to the non-catalyzed activation free energy (ΔG_{non}^{\neq}) of 16.2 kcal mol⁻¹ using transition state theory

$$k_{non} = \frac{k_B T}{h} e^{-\frac{\Delta G_{non}^{\pm}}{k_B T}} \tag{3}$$

where k_B , T, and h represent the Boltzmann constant, thermodynamic temperature, and Planck constant, respectively. An analogous expression relates the DNA alkylation rate constant $k_{\rm cat}$, experimentally determined to be in the range of 35 to 42 s⁻¹ (11), to the corresponding activation free energy (ΔG^{\neq}_{cat}) of 15.4 to 15.5 kcal mol⁻¹. Dissociation constants ($K_{\rm d}$) for the preceding intercalation have been determined in the range of 0.27 to 1.45 mM, depending on different experimental techniques and nucleobase sequences used (10, 11), and can be related to the binding free energy ($\Delta G_{\rm bind}$) of -4.9 to -3.9 kcal mol⁻¹ via a standard thermodynamic expression

$$K_d = e^{\frac{\Delta G_{bind}}{k_B T}} \tag{4}$$

The catalytic efficiency for guanine alkylation in DNA, $k_{\text{cat}}/K_{\text{d}}$, represents a second-order rate constant which can be expressed, using Equations 3 and 4, as

$$\frac{k_{cat}}{K_d} = \frac{k_B T}{h} e^{-\frac{\Delta G_{cat}^{\neq} + \Delta G_{bind}}{k_B T}} = \frac{k_B T}{h} e^{-\frac{\Delta G_{DNA}^{\neq}}{k_B T}}$$
(5)

and related to the DNA activation free energy (ΔG^{\neq}_{DNA}) of 10.5 to 11.6 kcal mol⁻¹. Comparison with ΔG^{\neq}_{non} gives a DNA catalysis value between 4.6 and 5.7 kcal mol⁻¹ (Figure 3). These results represent average DNA values and it is known that some sequences within the genome will have higher affinities and reactivity and some will have lower (10, 20, 21).

Conclusions

In contrast to enzymes, DNA is not optimized to catalyze its reaction with AFB₁ 8,9-epoxide. The logic can be considered reversed—it is the aflatoxin which was optimized to utilize the DNA asymmetric environment in order to enhance its reactivity, presumably providing protection to the molds that synthesize this toxin. Its large planar body facilitates DNA intercalation, which contributes the most to the observed catalytic effect (3.9 to 4.9 kcal mol⁻¹). However, the chemical step is catalyzed as well, by 0.7 to 0.8 kcal mol⁻¹. There are two possible explanations: (i) absence of an entropic solvent cage effect (22) due to formation of a DNA-aflatoxin complex, or (ii) preorganized electrostatics (23) of the DNA microenvironment which could stabilize the zwitterionic intermediate formed during DNA alkylation, because its positive charge is buried in the negatively charged DNA while its negative charge is exposed to the cation-rich microenvironment of DNA (11).

In conclusion, guanine alkylation by AFB₁ *exo*-8,9-epoxide is (based on the conservative estimate of DNA catalysis of 4.6 kcal mol^{-1}) > 2000-times more efficient in DNA than with the free nucleoside in aqueous solution (Figure 3). Thermodynamic analysis reveals AFB₁

exo-8,9-epoxide intercalation as the predominant source (85%) of the observed DNA catalytic effect with subsequent chemical step contributing the remaining 15%. Reaction of AFB₁ 8,9-epoxide with dGuo shows an inherent stereospecificity of the exo > endo isomer (> 20-fold), as (although at a somewhat lower magnitude of 0.5 kcal mol⁻¹) predicted by our ab initio calculations (24). This preference (for exo > endo) is further magnified in the reaction with DNA due to AFB₁ 8,9-epoxide intercalation (8, 10). This study represents a successful application of enzymatic kinetics to treatment of DNA alkylation, yet another piece in the mosaic of the elusive nature of these important bio-macromolecules.

Supplementary Material

Refer to Web version on PubMed Central for supplementary material.

Acknowledgments

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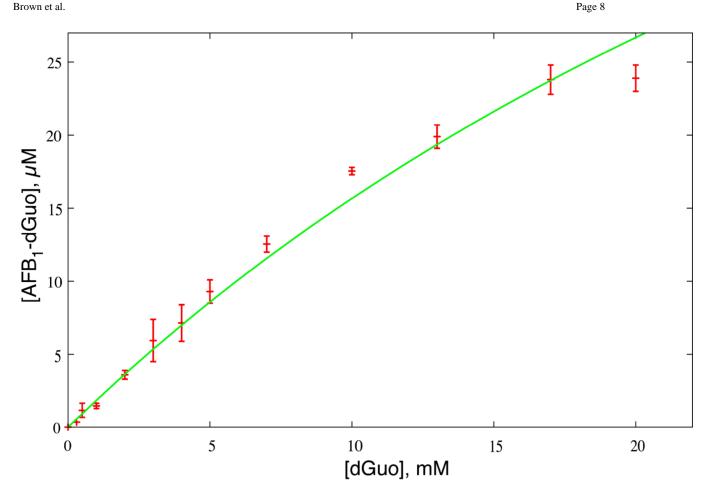


Figure 1. Formation of AFB₁-dGuo adduct as a function of dGuo concentration. Error-bars depict experimental adduct yields and line represents kinetic model of Equation 1 using a $k_{\rm non}$ value of 12.6 M⁻¹ s⁻¹.

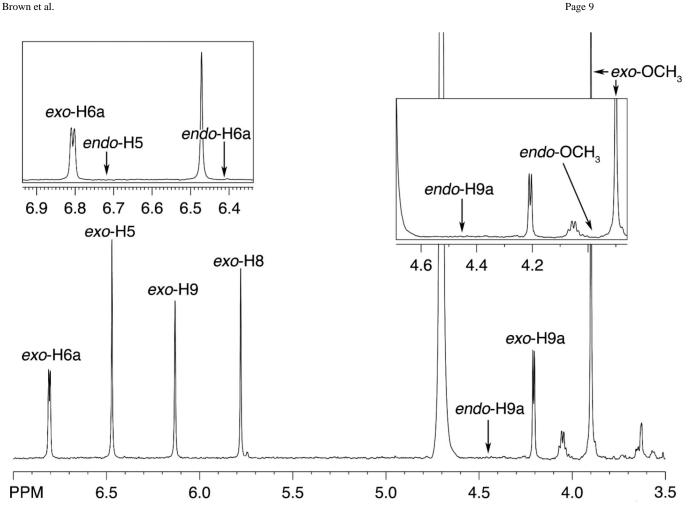


Figure 2. 1 H-NMR spectrum of isolated AFB $_{1}$ -Gua adduct. The shift assignments (19) and expected shift values of an *endo* product are shown. Expansions are in the boxes.

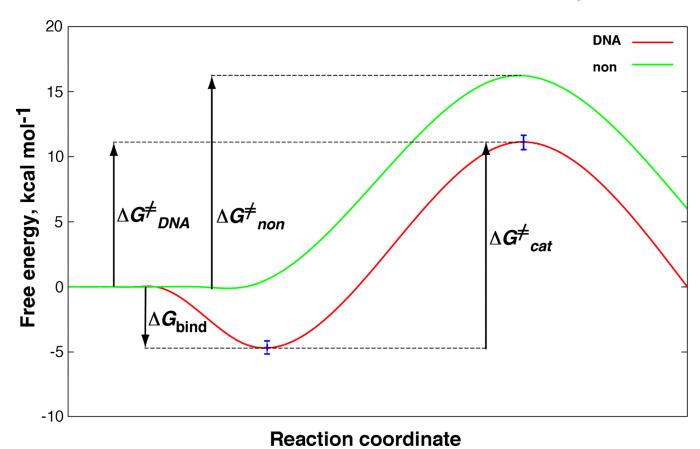


Figure 3. Schematic free-energy profiles for guanine alkylation by AFB₁ *exo*-8,9-epoxide in DNA (red) and in aqueous solution (green). For details and definition of symbols see Equations 3 to 5.

Scheme 1. Competing reactions of AFB₁ *exo*-8,9-epoxide with dGuo and H₂O.