Dityrosine

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summary

Dityrosine (DiY) is a dimeric form of the amino acid tyrosine, formed through the oxidative coupling of two tyrosine residues, resulting in a covalent cross-link characterized by a stable biphenyl bond. This compound plays a significant role in various biological processes, particularly in the stabilization of structural proteins, including elastin, collagen, and keratin, contributing to their mechanical strength and insolubility.[1][2] Dityrosine has garnered considerable attention in the scientific community due to its dual nature, as it is involved not only in normal protein function

but also in the pathophysiology of several neurodegenerative diseases, including Alzheimer's disease (AD) and Parkinson's disease (PD), where it is implicated in the aggregation of amyloid fibrils.[3][4]

The formation of dityrosine is catalyzed by oxidative conditions, including the activity of peroxidase enzymes in the presence of hydrogen peroxide. This suggests that dityrosine synthesis is favored under oxidative stress, a condition associated with numerous biological dysfunctions.[5][2] The accumulation of dityrosine has been linked to various diseases, as it can alter protein solubility and promote the aggregation of toxic oligomers, which are characteristic of neurodegenerative disorders.[3][6] Moreover, dityrosine levels have been associated with other health conditions such as cystic fibrosis and atherosclerosis, indicating its potential as a biomarker for oxidative damage and disease progression.[3]

Detection methods for dityrosine have advanced, with techniques such as mass spectrometry and fluorescence spectroscopy being employed to quantify its levels in biological samples. [7][8] Furthermore, dityrosine is being explored for its applications in fields such as biomaterials, diagnostics, and nutrition, highlighting its significance in both health and disease contexts. [3][9] While the presence of dityrosine can indicate adverse health effects, particularly in aging and metabolic disorders, it also reflects normal metabolic processes, emphasizing the need for careful monitoring of its levels in clinical and dietary settings. [10][11] Understanding the balance between dityrosine's beneficial and detrimental effects remains a critical area of research with implications for disease prevention and treatment strategies.

Chemical Properties

Dityrosine (DiY) is a covalent cross-link formed between two tyrosine residues and is characterized by a stable biphenyl bond linking the aromatic rings of the tyrosine molecules[1][2]. Its formation can be catalyzed by various oxidative conditions, including the action of peroxidase enzymes in the presence of hydrogen peroxide (H2O2)[5][4][2]. This oxidative environment enhances DiY formation, suggesting that its synthesis is favored under conditions of increased oxidative stress, which can lead to biological dysfunction in proteins[3][2].

The process of dityrosine formation involves the generation of a tyrosyl radical, which arises from the removal of a hydrogen atom from the hydroxyl group of tyrosine[12][2]. This radical is a crucial intermediate in the cross-linking reaction that ultimately results in the dityrosine bond[6][12]. The presence of reactive oxygen species (ROS), metal ions, and other oxidative agents can significantly influence the rate and extent of DiY cross-linking, with studies indicating that both copper ions and peroxidase can effectively catalyze this process[4][2].

In addition to its role in the stabilization of structural proteins, dityrosine cross-linking has been implicated in various pathological conditions, including Alzheimer's disease (AD). The enhanced stability and insolubility conferred by DiY bonds are associated with the aggregation of proteins such as Tau and Amyloid-2,leading to the formation of neurotoxic oligomers and fibrils characteristic of neurodegenerative diseases[3][6][-2]. The mechanical strength imparted by dityrosine cross-links not only contributes to

the structural integrity of proteins but also affects their biological function and solubility, illustrating the dual nature of DiY in both normal and pathological processes[6][2].

Biological Significance

Dityrosine (DiY) cross-links are significant in various biological contexts, particularly in the structure and function of proteins. These cross-links naturally occur in several elastic and structural proteins such as elastin, fibroin, keratin, cuticlin, and collagen, contributing to their mechanical strength and insolubility[3]. The presence of DiY has also been linked to the pathology of several neurodegenerative diseases, including Alzheimer's disease (AD) and Parkinson's disease (PD), which are characterized by amyloid fibril formation. In AD, the accumulation of amyloid-beta (A²)and tau fibrils, which can involve DiY cross-linking, is a hallmark of the disease[3][4].

Research indicates that oxidative environments can trigger DiY formation, which has been implicated in the progression of multiple diseases. For instance, oxidative stress can lead to the cross-linking of amino acids, producing DiY among other modifications. This mechanism has been associated with conditions such as cystic fibrosis, atherosclerosis, cataracts, and acute myocardial infarction[3]. The generation of DiY in A²and other proteins not only alters their structural properties but can also inhibit or retard the aggregation process of fibril formation, which is crucial for understanding the mechanisms behind these diseases[3].

Moreover, the timing of DiY cross-linking appears to influence protein assembly. Studies suggest that DiY cross-linking can inhibit primary nucleation and affect the elongation of fibrils, potentially stabilizing intermediate A²species. This suggests that DiY formation can have both protective and detrimental effects depending on the context and timing of cross-linking during the aggregation process[3]. Thus, understanding the biological significance of DiY is critical for its potential utility as a biomarker and target for drug discovery in the treatment of neurodegenerative diseases and other disorders linked to oxidative stress and protein misfolding[3][4].

Methods of Detection

Mass Spectrometry

Mass spectrometry (MS) is a prevalent technique used for the detection and quantification of dityrosine and its precursors, including tyrosine (Tyr) and tryptophan (Trp). The process typically involves the separation of the compounds using high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) or ultra-high-performance liquid chromatography (UPLC), followed by mass detection. For instance, samples can be injected onto a reversed-phase column and separated using a gradient elution method, with detection of fluorescence and mass spectra collected under controlled conditions to ensure accurate quantification of dityrosine levels[7][4].

Fluorescence Detection

Fluorescence spectroscopy is another method employed to detect dityrosine, which exhibits strong fluorescence properties. The quantification can be achieved by analyzing the emission spectra at specific excitation wavelengths. In studies, the intensity of the dityrosine fluorescence signal can be monitored over time, allowing researchers to assess the kinetics of dityrosine formation in various experimental conditions[4][8].

Electron Microscopy

Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) can be utilized to visualize the localization of dityrosine within cellular structures. In this technique, immunogold labeling is applied, where gold-conjugated antibodies bind to dityrosine and allow for its visualization under TEM. This method provides insights into the co-localization of dityrosine with other cellular components, such as amyloid-beta (A²)in neuroblastoma cells, enhancing our understanding of its biological relevance[8].

Statistical Analysis

To ensure the reliability of the detection methods, data collected from various analyses are often subjected to statistical scrutiny. Software such as GraphPad Prisma is utilized to conduct statistical tests, such as Student's t-test, providing a means to validate the significance of the findings related to dityrosine levels across different experimental conditions[4].

Applications

Dityrosine, a dimer formed through the oxidative coupling of two tyrosine residues, has garnered significant interest in various fields due to its unique properties and potential applications.

Biomaterials

Dityrosine cross-linking is utilized in the design of biomaterials, enhancing the mechanical stability and biocompatibility of scaffolds used in tissue engineering. The process has been highlighted as a method for tailoring the properties of biomaterials to better mimic natural tissue environments, thus promoting cell attachment and growth [3][4].

Neurodegenerative Diseases

Research has indicated elevated levels of dityrosine in the context of neurodegenerative diseases, such as Alzheimer's and Parkinson's disease. For instance, studies have shown marked increases in dityrosine and 3-nitrotyrosine in animal models of Parkinson's disease, suggesting a link between oxidative stress and neurodegeneration[9]. Dityrosine's presence in the central nervous system (CNS) may serve as a biomarker for oxidative damage, offering potential avenues for diagnostic applications[13].

Diagnostics

Dityrosine is being explored as a proteotoxic biomarker in plasma and urine, particularly in relation to conditions like autism spectrum disorder (ASD). An algorithm incorporating plasma protein modifications, including dityrosine levels, has shown promising diagnostic performance with a classification efficiency of 89%[7]. This suggests that dityrosine could contribute to biochemical-based diagnoses of various disorders.

Food Science and Nutrition

In the context of nutrition, dityrosine-rich foods, such as dairy products, meat, and soy products, are recognized for their potential health benefits. These foods not only provide essential amino acids but also support neurotransmitter synthesis, which is crucial for mood regulation and cognitive function[8][5].

Sports and Performance

Dityrosine supplementation is noted for its potential role in enhancing physical performance and cognitive function during stress. Some studies suggest that tyrosine, and by extension dityrosine, can improve memory and cognitive flexibility under stressful conditions, making it a subject of interest for athletes and individuals in high-pressure environments[11][14].

Research and Development

Ongoing research continues to investigate the structural and functional characteristics of dityrosine in various biological systems. The exploration of its roles in oxidative stress, neurodegeneration, and biomaterials is crucial for advancing our understanding of its applications in health and disease management [15].

Historical Background

Dityrosine, a dimeric form of the amino acid tyrosine, was first isolated from the rubber protein of the locust wing ligament. Its formation is primarily catalyzed by various enzymes, such as CYP56A1 and myeloperoxidase, which oxidize tyrosine residues in protein chains, leading to the creation of dityrosine crosslinks in different organisms[16]. The unique 2,22-biphenol structural motif of dityrosine enables it to form complexes with borate, facilitating its purification through affinity chromatography techniques utilizing immobilized phenylboronic acid[16].

Research into dityrosine has expanded significantly, particularly concerning its biological implications and detection methods. Early studies laid the groundwork for understanding the oxidative processes that lead to dityrosine formation and its potential roles in disease pathology, including its association with Alzheimer's disease[11][12]. Despite its identification and characterization, there has historically been limited

exploration into the factors influencing the generation and accumulation of dityrosine species, largely due to a lack of robust detection methodologies[4]. This gap in research underscores the evolving nature of dityrosine studies, which continue to reveal its significance in various biological contexts[10][17].

Health Implications

Dityrosine, a fluorescent molecule formed through the posttranslational modification of tyrosine residues, has significant health implications related to metabolic disorders and various chronic diseases. Elevated levels of dityrosine are linked to multiple health conditions, including obesity, diabetes, and neurodegenerative diseases, among others[10][18][11]. Research indicates that high dityrosine levels can lead to damage in critical organs such as the liver, kidney, heart, thyroid, and pancreas, increasing the risk of developing serious metabolic disorders[18][19][4].

In the context of aging, dityrosine has been identified as a marker of protein damage, and its levels tend to rise with age[11][4]. This elevation is associated with a range of age-related diseases, including atherosclerosis and cognitive dysfunction[10][20]. Furthermore, dityrosine accumulation is noted in the plaques of Alzheimer's disease patients, where it is implicated in neurotoxicity[21][22].

Interestingly, while dityrosine can signal adverse health effects, its presence is also a reflection of normal metabolic processes. However, excessive dietary intake or accumulation of dityrosine may result in toxicity, as observed in studies involving animal models[4]. Thus, monitoring dityrosine levels in both clinical and dietary contexts could provide valuable insights into individual health and disease risk management.

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