



ELEVATED OXIDATIVE STRESS IN MODELS OF NORMAL BRAIN AGING AND ALZHEIMER'S DISEASE

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Summary

Age-associated neurodegenerative disorders are becoming more prevalent as the mean age of the population increases in the United States over the next few decades. Both normal brain aging and Alzheimer's disease (AD) are associated with oxidative stress. Our laboratory has used a wide variety of physical and biochemical methods to investigate free radical oxidative stress in several models of aging and AD. β -amyloid ($A\beta$), the peptide that constitutes the central core of senile plaques in AD brain, is associated with free radical oxidative stress and is toxic to neurons. This review summarizes some of our studies in aging and $A\beta$ -associated free radical oxidative stress and on the modulating effects of free radical scavengers on neocortical synaptosomal membrane damage found in aging and $A\beta$ -treated systems.

Key Words: protein oxidation, free radicals, lipid peroxidation, hydroxynonenal, β -amyloid, aging, Alzheimer's disease

Aging and age-related neurodegenerative disorders, especially Alzheimer's disease (AD), Parkinson's disease, and stroke, are major health problems globally. Several hypotheses have been proffered as a molecular basis for the changes which occur in brain due to aging and AD. One of the most compelling is the role of free radical-induced oxidative stress in these disorders (1-5). The dominant risk factor for AD is age; hence, it is critical to learn more of the free radical involvement in aging and age-related neurodegenerative disorders. The continuous generation of reactive oxygen species (ROS), an inescapable cellular sequelae of life in an aerobic environment, causes cumulative damage to key cellular components and eventually leads to age-related pathology. This is the essential basis of the free radical theory of aging (1).

Membrane and cytosolic proteins, along with bilayer lipids, are primary cellular components

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Sources of Free Radicals: Stadtman (3) and Butterfield and Stadtman (6) have reviewed the sources of free radicals for protein oxidation and mechanisms for protein oxidation. Reactive oxygen and reactive nitrogen species, including $\bullet\text{OH}$, $\text{O}_2\bullet^-$, $\text{HO}_2\bullet$, $\text{NO}\bullet$, among others, as well as several non-radical molecules (O_2 , ONOO^- , H_2O_2 , HOCI , O_3 , among others, can be deleterious to proteins. These species can be generated in vivo from the following sources:



The H_2O_2 , needed to fuel the Fenton reaction, is derived mainly by the dismutation of superoxide anion radical ($\text{O}_2\bullet^-$).



$\text{O}_2\bullet^-$ for this reaction is formed mainly as a by-product of normal electron transport processes--especially, the transport of electrons to cytochrome C by mitochondria. $\text{O}_2\bullet^-$ and H_2O_2 are also formed by mixed-function oxidation systems, by neutrophils and macrophages that undergo an oxidative burst, and are normal products or reactions catalyzed by oxidases (3,6). Peroxynitrite (ONOO^-) is produced endogenously by the interaction of $\text{NO}\bullet$ with $\text{O}_2\bullet^-$ at diffusion-limited

Nitration of tyrosine or methionine by ONOO^- , with the latter dependent on the CO_2 partial pressure (7), is one means to induce altered function in proteins and cells. Peroxynitrite-induced nitration of tyrosine residues raises the possibility that nitration could seriously compromise one of the most important mechanisms of metabolic control; to wit, the interconversion of tyrosine residues of regulatory proteins between phosphorylated and non-phosphorylated forms or between nucleotidylated and unmodified forms (3,6). Nitration of tyrosine residues is *irreversible*; hence peroxynitrite effects can put regulatory proteins into a permanently "ON" or "OFF" configuration and thus adversely affect signal transduction pathways of cellular regulation.

As discussed below, protein-specific spin labeling can be used to monitor oxidative stress and changes in membrane protein conformation. Peroxynitrite added to neocortical synaptosomal membranes causes oxidative stress and alters protein conformation. Both effects are blocked by neurotoxicity.

Reactive carbonyl groups on proteins can be used as a key marker of ROS-mediated protein damage (26). Several methods for detection of protein carbonyls include:

1) Fluorimetric measurements of 2,4-dinitrophenylhydrazone derivatives of protein carbonyls (3,6,9);

2) Measurements after reduction to hydroxy derivatives with sodium borotritide (12), or by Western blotting analysis of their 2,4-dinitrophenylhydrazone derivatives using 2,4-DNPBLL

following oxidative stress. ESR spin labeling techniques using protein-specific spin labels also have been used to investigate protein oxidation (13). The protein-specific spin label, 2,2,6,6-tetramethyl-4-maleimido-piperidine-1-oxyl [MAL-6] (14,15), forms covalent bonds with

cysteine SH groups, and in most biological systems is the only source of paramagnetism. A

by the motion of this spin label, i.e., strongly- and weakly-immobilized reaction sites. The relevant EPR parameter to assess structural information is the ratio of the spectral amplitudes of

W/S ratio is

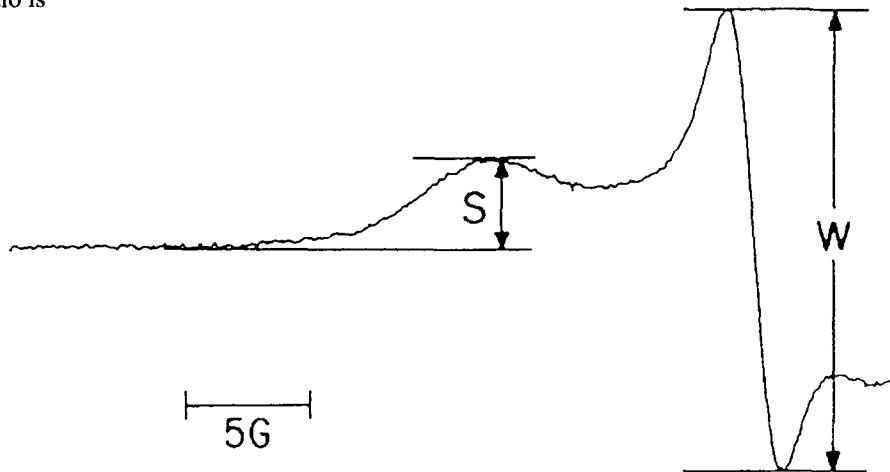


Fig. 1

Typical EPR spectrum of MAL-6 covalently bound to membrane proteins in synaptosomal membranes.

amplitudes from which is calculated the W/S ratio, a parameter reflective of protein conformation and sensitive to oxidative stress.

highly sensitive to molecular motion, and decreased W/S ratios of MAL-6 are found following slowing of the spin label motion (14,15). For example, conformational alterations in the proteins, decreased segmental motion of spin labeled protein domains, or increased protein-protein interaction lead to decreased W/S ratios. Hydroxyl free radical modification of synaptosomal membrane proteins via Fenton chemistry leads to significantly decreased W/S ratios of MAL-6, implying greater motional resistance of this protein-specific spin label. This

leads to decreased W/S ratio of this spin label covalently attached to cortical synaptosomal membranes (Table I).

Table I
The W/S ratio of MAL-6 Covalently Bound to Membrane Proteins in Synaptosomal Membranes
Decreased in Oxidative Stress Conditions

Fenton Chemistry, •OH	60-85	[13]
Ischemia/Reperfusion Injury (Stroke)	80-90	[16-19]
Menadione Treatment	80-90	[20]
Lipopolysaccharide	80-90	[21]
Alzheimer's Disease	60-75	[22]

Membrane proteins are not the only target for (ROS) free radical attack. The lipid bilayer of the membrane is also disrupted under conditions of oxidative stress. Free radical-induced lipid

important membrane proteins leading to their dysfunction (23). In our laboratory, brain

lipid peroxidation is measured by the malonaldehyde (MDA) spin-trap adduct, 4-hydroxy-2,2,6,6-tetramethylpiperidine-1-oxyl (4-HNE). MDA is formed during lipid

peroxidation (25), and the presence of either free or protein-bound HNE also indicates lipid peroxidation has occurred (26).

levels have been correlated to deficits in cognitive and motor skills (32). These results are

Using MAL-6, the W/S ratio of this protein-specific spin label was significantly decreased in synaptosomal membranes from aged gerbils and rats relative to young animals (33,34), consistent with free radical oxidation of membrane proteins (13,16-22). Hyperoxia has been considered a good model of aging. As in aging, the W/S ratio of MAL-6-labeled synaptosomal membrane proteins from hyperoxia-treated animals was decreased relative to normoxic controls (Table II) (33,34). Increases in the catalytic activity of the oxidatively sensitive enzyme glutamine synthetase (GS) were also found (34).

Table II
Oxidative Stress Following Hyperoxia*

System	W/S Ratio	GS Activity (units/mg min)	Protein Carbonyl Content (nmol/mg protein)
Control	7.73 ± 0.20(11)	0.615 ± 0.07(11)	1.85 ± 0.08(6)
Hyperoxia	6.80 ± 0.18(11) ^a	0.440 ± 0.04(11) ^c	2.95 ± 0.19(6) ^d
PBN (20 mg/kg) + Hyperoxia	7.30 ± 0.40(5) ^b	0.560 ± 0.05(6) ^b	(not determined)
Tempol (5-10 mg/kg) + Hyperoxia	7.80 ± 0.17(6) ^b	0.59 ± 0.10(6) ^b	2.02 ± 0.15(6) ^e

* Mean ± SEM (number of samples) are presented

a. Not significantly different from normoxic controls

c. P < 0.000005 relative to normoxic controls

d. P < 0.0004 relative to normoxic controls

e. P < 0.05 relative to normoxic controls

Unlike younger animals, aged animals were unable to recover from the effects of hyperoxia (38). Others had reported similar age-specific effects for hepatic proteins in rats exposed to

N-t₂t-butyl-*o*-phenylnitroxine (PBN) or 1-hydroxy-2,2,6,6-tetramethylpiperidin-1-oxyl (tempol), (Table II), prior to hyperoxia, all resulting oxidative stress biomarkers were not different than those from normoxic controls (34). Thus, free radical scavengers protect adult animals from oxidative stress.

~~Evidence demonstrating the potential use of free radical scavengers in aging and age-related diseases~~

Senescence-accelerated mice (SAMP8) have a shorter life span [mean life span compared to 18.9 months for SAMR1 (senescence-accelerated-resistant) mice]. Memory loss and learning difficulties are observed in SAMP8 mice relative to the SAMR1 strain (35). Consistent with the free radical theory of aging, chronic PBN treatment of SAMP8 mice led to greatly increased life span of these mice (36). Decreased W/S ratios of MAB 6 increased

oxidative stress (5). In human accelerated aging, i.e., progeria and Werner's syndrome, increased protein oxidation is also observed (28,29).

Protein And Lipid Oxidation In Alzheimer's Disease: Alzheimer's disease, the principal dementing disorder of the elderly and the fourth leading cause of death in the United States, is characterized clinically by loss of memory, reasoning, and speech and pathologically by the presence of neuritic (senile) plaques (SP), neurofibrillary tangles, and loss of synapses (37). Familial AD is associated with overproduction of the amyloid precursor protein (APP), from which beta-amyloid (A β) is derived (38). A β is the central constituent of SP, and several lines of circumstantial evidence support a key role for this peptide in the development of AD,

~~leading to excess A β deposition, are associated with early-onset AD; persons with Down's syndrome develop AD eventually and APP is expressed on chromosome 21; although not a~~

~~[reviewed in (38)].~~

A β is associated with free radicals in oxygenated buffers as observed by the EPR technique of spin trapping (39-42). In this method a nonparamagnetic nitroxine trap such as PBN is reacted with a transient free radical to form a paramagnetic nitroxide, which can then be monitored by EPR (14,43). Highly toxic A β yielded three-line EPR spectra with PBN (39-41), a result recently confirmed by others (42). No free radical is formed in the absence of A β (39).

An A β -associated free radical model for neuronal death in AD brain has evolved from these observations (4,24,26,39,44,45) (Figure 2). In this model, A β -associated free radicals initiate lipid peroxidation and protein oxidation. Reaction of HNE, formed by lipid peroxidation, with numerous proteins can also alter membrane structure and function (23,26). A β -associated free radical oxidation and/or modification of key ion-motive ATPases and other transmembrane proteins leads to loss of ion homeostasis, increased intracellular calcium ion concentration, and subsequent cell death (4,44). This model predicts that transmembrane signaling pathways also would be compromised, perhaps leading to hyperexcitability and cell death. The model also is consistent with diffusible reactive free radical reaction products potentially interacting with and disrupting mitochondrial function, cytokine-stimulated transcription factors, or other mechanisms considerably important in cell death.

Tests of this A β -associated free radical model for cell death in AD brain were conducted. In ways completely inhibitable by free radical scavengers. A β : inactivated oxidatively sensitive

(40,48), thereby making neurons vulnerable to NMDA-receptor excitotoxicity, and disrupted transmembrane signaling pathways (49). Others confirmed that free radical scavengers block

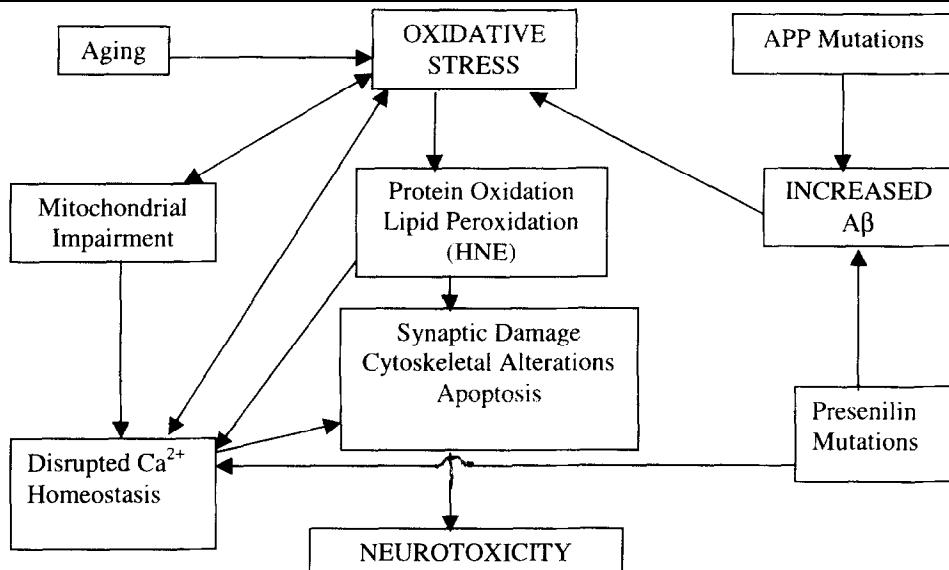


Figure 2. Scheme showing the centrality of oxidative stress to neurotoxicity in AD brain. A β -associated free radical oxidative stress leads to protein oxidation, and lipid peroxidation (with subsequent formation of 4-hydroxy-2-trans-nonenal, HNE), which cause damage to synaptic membranes, mitochondria, etc. This

should occur in brain membranes upon exposure to A β -associated free radicals. A histofluorescence method for protein carbonyl measurement following protein oxidation showed that A β added to cultured hippocampal neuronal (11) or astrocytic (46) cells led to oxidized proteins. Free radical scavengers abrogated these effects, and A β (40-1), the non-toxic

from A β -associated free radical oxidation of bilayer lipids (59). Mattson and co-workers have shown that HNE, like A β , is able to inhibit ion motive ATPases, glutamate and glucose transporters, and G protein-mediated signaling pathways (59-62), and this effect induces apoptosis (64). We wondered if these HNE-induced effects might be due to altered conformations of membrane proteins. To test this idea, we used EPR and the W/S ratio of MAL-6 to show that this parameter was significantly decreased in cortical synaptosomal membranes to which HNE was added (26), consistent with this notion. As predicted, A β , too,

regions of AD brain rich in A β containing SP should exhibit protein oxidation, while SP -

no SP (22). Using the University of Kentucky rapid autopsy protocol, synaptosomal membranes were isolated from these three regions from AD and age-matched controls with no neurological involvement (average postmortem interval was about 2-3 hours). Four biomarkers of protein oxidation -decreased W/S ratio of MAL-6 in EPR studies, levels of protein carbonyls, and activities of the oxidatively-sensitive enzymes GS and creatine kinase (CK) - were used to assess protein oxidation (22). All four biomarkers provided evidence of protein oxidation in the hippocampal and inferior parietal regions of AD brain, and with the exception

were no differences across regions among the cerebellum, hippocampus, and inferior parietal lobule, and all values were consistent with minimal protein oxidation (22). These results support the model of A β -associated free radicals and neurotoxicity in AD brain (4,24,39,44,45). The increased protein carbonyl levels in AD brain observed (22) confirm earlier results (31) and suggest that protein oxidation may be of fundamental importance in AD.

Since A β forms HNE in neurons (59) [and both cause neuronal cell death], evidence for A β -associated free radical induced lipid peroxidation was also sought. A β leads to lipid peroxidation in cortical synaptosomes (24,25,65) as assessed by EPR spin labeling methods and by free fatty release. Both measures of oxidative stress were normalized by pretreatment with the free radical scavenger vitamin E (25). In AD brain, lipid peroxidation was found (66) and recently high levels of HNE were observed in ventricular fluid in AD (67).

Oxidative stress could arise in AD brain by other mechanisms in addition to A β -associated free radicals. Mitochondrial electron leakiness, trace metal imbalance, advanced glycation end products (AGEs), often associated with cytoskeletal tau protein in AD NFTs, and activation of AGE receptors may lead to elevated oxidative stress in AD [reviewed in (68)].

beneficial effects of vitamin E in AD patients (69), the role of oxidative stress in AD needs further investigation. A β -associated free radical oxidative stress and elevated oxidative stress in AD brain (4,68), suggest brain-accessible free radical antioxidants as one promising class of compounds for AD therapeutics. Studies along this line are ongoing.

Aging and age-associated neurological disorders will become even more important in the near future as the population increases in median age. It now seems clear that free radical processes are intimately associated with normal aging. Further, aging is the single most important risk factor for Alzheimer's disease. Free radical associated lipid and protein oxidation in this and other age-related brain disorders appear (16-19,70,71) fundamental to the pathogenesis and etiology, and, hence, treatment of each. Other neurological disorders of the brain are associated with free radical oxidative stress, e.g., Parkinson's disease [reviewed in (70)], amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (71), stroke (15,19), traumatic brain injury (72), etc. These disorders provide insight into the basis of and treatment for other neurological disorders of oxidative stress.

Acknowledgments

This work was supported in part by NIH grants (AG-10836; AG-05119).

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