

Fig. 1. AAPH-induced oxidation of HSA alone (control) and in the presence of ligands. The values are mean \pm S.D. ($n=4$). * $p < 0.01$ as compared with control.

N-AcTrp, reported previously (Anraku et al., 2004). Protection against oxidation was even more pronounced when both *N*-AcMet and Oct were present; this effect was mainly due to the presence of *N*-AcMet because addition of Oct alone gave no significant protection (Fig. 1).

We also investigated whether AAPH treatment for 1 h affects the status of the SH group of 34-Cys using quantitative anal-

Table 1
Relative fractions of HMA, HNA-1 and HNA-2 (%) before and after oxidation by AAPH*

	HSA alone	+Oct	+ <i>N</i> -AcMet	+Oct + <i>N</i> -AcMet
Before oxidation				
HMA	65.1 \pm 2.3	66.1 \pm 2.9	65.3 \pm 2.5	65.3 \pm 2.5
HNA-1	22.8 \pm 2.5	23.4 \pm 4.2	21.5 \pm 3.5	22.5 \pm 3.7
HNA-2	10.6 \pm 5.3	10.8 \pm 4.5	11.6 \pm 4.5	11.5 \pm 5.4
After oxidation				
HMA	22.3 \pm 2.8	22.3 \pm 2.5	39.3 \pm 2.3*	39.2 \pm 2.6*
HNA-1	51.4 \pm 2.5	51.3 \pm 4.2	46.3 \pm 3.2*	45.6 \pm 3.4*
HNA-2	26.7 \pm 5.3	26.5 \pm 4.5	12.4 \pm 4.5*	15.5 \pm 5.5*

* The concentration of HSA was 50 μ M, and that of AAPH and the ligands was 10 mM and 250 μ M, respectively. The results are average values \pm S.D. for three experiments.

* $p < 0.05$ as compared with HSA alone.

ysis of chromatograms given in Table 1 and Fig. 2. Exposure to AAPH resulted in a pronounced reduction in the amount of HMA, the relative area of the peak decreased from 65.1% to 22.3%, showing that AAPH was also capable of oxidizing SH groups of Cys residues. This hypothesis was supported by a calculation of peak areas (Table 1). *N*-AcMet had a protective effect in the presence or absence of Oct. Quantitative analysis presented in Table 1 shows that this effect was significant for *N*-AcMet, as well as for *N*-AcTrp (Anraku et al., 2004).

3.2. Scavenging of DPPH radicals in solution

The effects of *N*-AcMet and *N*-AcTrp were examined by monitoring the change in the absorbance of DPPH radicals during 15-min incubation. As shown in Fig. 3, HSA with *N*-AcMet

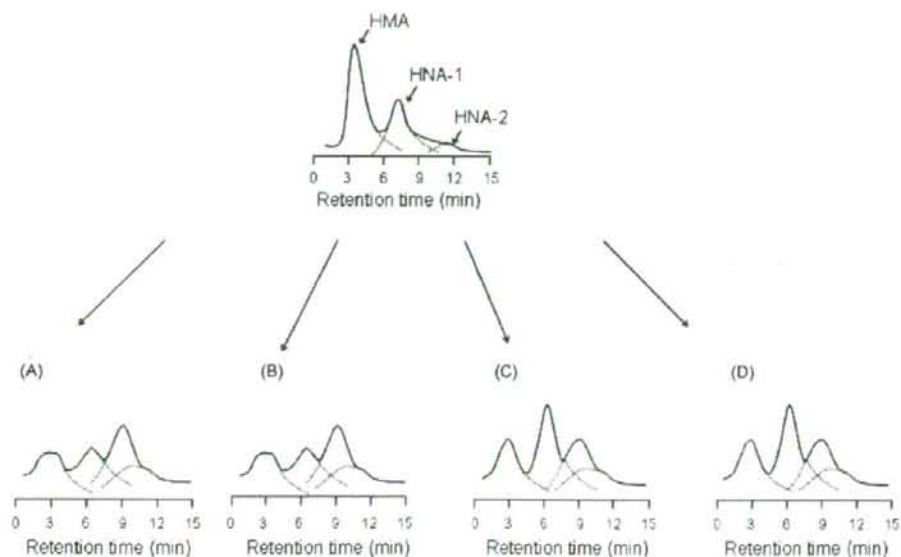


Fig. 2. HPLC chromatograms of HSA before (upper curves) and after AAPH-induced oxidation (lower curves). (A) Oxidation of albumin in absence of additives, (B) oxidation in the presence of Oct, (C) oxidation in the presence of *N*-AcMet, (D) oxidation in the presence of *N*-AcMet and Oct. Peaks correspond to HMA, HNA-1 and HNA-2. Data shown are from representative experiments.

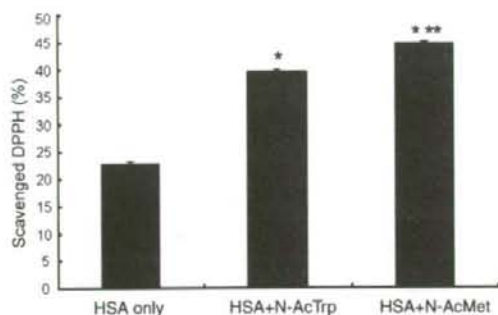


Fig. 3. Radical scavenging ability of HSA with ligands. * $p < 0.05$, compared with blank. ** $p < 0.05$, compared with *N*-AcTrp.

and *N*-AcTrp were better scavengers of DPPH radicals than HSA alone. It should be noted that the scavenging ability of *N*-AcMet was higher than that of *N*-AcTrp (*N*-AcTrp; 39.5 ± 0.3 , *N*-AcMet; 44.6 ± 0.4 , $p < 0.05$).

3.3. Effect of heating on HSA in the presence and absence of *N*-AcMet

The effect of *N*-AcMet on the thermogram of HSA as determined by DSC was examined. For HSA, which had not been preheated, the addition of the ligands shifts the thermogram towards higher temperature as follows (Fig. 4A): Oct + *N*-AcMet > Oct > *N*-AcMet > HSA alone. The results obtained after preheating these samples are shown in Fig. 4B. In this case, no normal thermogram was obtained for HSA alone. However, addition of additives protected albumin during preheating, and these samples resulted in thermograms which were shifted towards higher temperatures in the same as in Fig. 4A. As shown in Table 2, the addition of *N*-AcMet alone produced a slight increase in T_m and an increase in ΔH_{cal} before and after preheating. Further, incubation of HSA with Oct and *N*-AcMet produced a more stable state than HSA alone. The effect of *N*-AcMet was similar to that of *N*-AcTrp (Anraku et al., 2004).

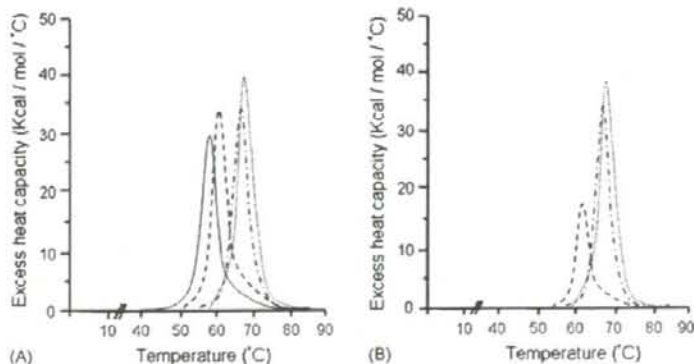


Fig. 4. Effect of Oct and *N*-AcMet on the thermogram of HSA obtained by DSC. (A) Curves for samples that were not preheated. (B) Curves for samples which have been preheated for 30 min at 60 °C. Results are shown for HSA alone (—), HSA with *N*-AcMet (---), HSA with Oct (----), and HSA with both ligands (· · ·). Data are averages of three experiments.

Table 2

Thermodynamic data obtained from DSC of different HSA samples at pH 7.4^a

Protein samples	T_m (°C)	ΔH_{cal} ($\times 10^2$ kcal/mol)	$\Delta H_v/\Delta H_{cal}$ ($\times 10^2$ kcal/mol)
Without preheating			
HSA	59.50 \pm 0.06	1.64 \pm 0.11	0.7 \pm 0.01
HSA+Oct	66.83 \pm 2.10	2.10 \pm 0.15	0.7 \pm 0.01
HSA + <i>N</i> -AcMet	60.06 \pm 0.10	1.71 \pm 0.05	0.7 \pm 0.03
HSA + Oct + <i>N</i> -AcMet	66.51 \pm 0.15	2.03 \pm 0.09	0.7 \pm 0.01
With preheating ^b			
HSA	ND ^c	ND	ND
HSA + Oct	66.80 \pm 0.04	2.10 \pm 0.19	0.7 \pm 0.01
HSA + <i>N</i> -AcMet	61.58 \pm 0.06	0.91 \pm 0.25	1.9 \pm 0.01
HSA + Oct + <i>N</i> -AcMet	66.46 \pm 0.05	1.96 \pm 0.25	0.8 \pm 0.02

^a The concentration of HSA was 0.1 mM, and that of the ligands was 0.5 mM. The results are average values \pm S.D. for three experiments.

^b Preheating was incubation at 60 °C for 30 min.

^c No normal thermogram could be detected.

3.4. Thermal stabilities of HSAs in the presence and absence of *N*-AcMet for clinical application

As a result, in the sample without the addition of the additive, the aggregate of HSA and rHSA by heating were distinctly generated. On the other hand, no contaminant was observed in the two samples with the addition of *N*-AcMet (data not shown).

4. Discussion

For hypoalbuminemia, which is hard to control, albumin preparations are used for supplementation to improve clinical conditions. Specifically, albumin is indispensable for modern medical treatment because they are generally used for collection of a circulating plasma volume in hemorrhagic and traumatic shock, improvement of edema, and various kinds of diseases such as liver cirrhosis and nephrotic syndrome (Peters, 1996).

Conventionally, the production of HSA involves fractionating blood collected from human sources, and purifying the obtained albumin-containing aqueous solution according to var-

ious purification methods. In the production of HSA, low-temperature pasteurization (60 °C for 10h) is performed to remove harmful heat-sensitive viruses and to prevent protein contamination is performed. Because the viruses are usually destroyed by heating at 60 °C for several hours without denaturation of HSA. In low-temperature pasteurization, *N*-AcTrp and Oct are added to HSA as stabilizers (Ballou et al., 1944; Boyer et al., 1946), but *N*-AcTrp has a possible side effect of intracerebral disease (Aguilera et al., 2001). The resulting accumulation of Trp metabolites in nervous tissue may be involved in pathogenesis of several neurological disorders in uremia (Topczewska-Brunns et al., 2003). To provide HSA preparations safely and without risk of side effects, it is important to find new stabilizing reagents instead of *N*-AcTrp.

Moskovitz et al. (1997) recently suggested that oxidation of surface-exposed Met residues to Met sulfoxide is a defense against extensive and irreversible oxidative modification of proteins. Further, Bourdon et al. (2005) suggested that Cys primarily acts as a free radical scavenger, whereas Met primarily acts as a metal chelator on the HSA molecule, although other amino acid residues are likely to be involved in the anti-prooxidant properties of HSA. Under such circumstances, we focused on *N*-AcMet.

In the present studies, we first compared the protective effect of *N*-AcMet with *N*-AcTrp on oxidation of HSA. HSA was exposed to AAPH, which oxidizes histidine, Trp, tyrosine and Met residues in proteins (Ma et al., 1999; Bourdon et al., 2005). As shown in Fig. 1, the carbonyl content of HSA increased with incubation time. By contrast, *N*-AcMet had a protective effect during prolonged exposure to oxidant, as does *N*-AcTrp (Anraku et al., 2004). In mercaptalbumin (HMA) the last Cys residue, at position 34, has a free SH group. *In vivo*, a major part of the group is either bound to free Cys or glutathione (HNA-1) or is oxidized to sulfenic, sulfinic or sulfonic states (HNA-2). In this study, we also investigated whether AAPH-treatment for 1 hr affects the status of the SH group of 34-Cys. Exposure to AAPH resulted in oxidation of SH-groups of Cys residues (Fig. 2 and Table 1). Incubating Oct together with AAPH has no effect on oxidation. By contrast, the presence of *N*-AcMet has a protective effect, which was the same for the absence (Fig. 2C) or presence (Fig. 2D) of Oct. Thus, with respect to the potential oxidation of HSA, *N*-AcMet, but not Oct, had a significant protective effect. In addition, we found by using DPPH radical that *N*-AcMet produced significant protection against free radicals, compared to *N*-AcTrp (Fig. 3). This suggests that *N*-AcMet is more useful than *N*-AcTrp as a stabilizer.

To validate the benefit of *N*-AcMet as a stabilizer, we also studied the stabilizing effect of *N*-AcMet by DSC. It is seen that the endotherms were single and sharp peaks, indicating that thermal denaturation can be explained by a single component model (Picó, 1997; Anraku et al., 2001). Therefore, single values for T_m , ΔH_{cal} and ΔH_v could be calculated (Table 2). Further, ΔH_{cal} , which is generally thought to reflect the hydration of hydrophobic regions buried in the native protein structure during the unfolding process, varied similarly to the T_m values. The ratio of $\Delta H_v/\Delta H_{cal}$ is an index of the transition process to the denaturation states of proteins during thermal denaturation (Kosa et

al., 1998). The values of these ratios for preheated samples with Oct were almost identical to those for unheated samples, whereas those of the *N*-AcMet containing sample increased. Thus, Oct gave a greater protection against heat stress than *N*-AcMet. In our previous work, we have also studied in some detail the effect of *N*-AcTrp on the structural stabilities of HSA. Experiments performed with circular dichroism and native-PAGE showed that Oct and *N*-AcTrp have a pronounced stabilizing effect on the structure of monomeric HSA during heating, as shown by higher T_m - and ΔH_{cal} -values (Anraku et al., 2004). In the case of *N*-AcMet and Oct, we also observed structural stabilities of HSA for these experiments (data not shown).

In recent years, technology for the mass production of albumin with recombinant HSA has been established (Storch, 1993). In the near future, highly stable and inexpensive rHSA stabilized by *N*-AcMet may be available for clinical application.

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新自己血輸血 改訂第3版

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新自己血輸血 改訂第3版

—目次—

1. 自己血輸血の歴史
2. 自己血輸血の意義と種類
3. 貯血式自己血輸血
4. 希釈式自己血輸血
5. 回収式自己血輸血
6. 自己血小板/自己血漿/自己フィブリン糊
7. 小児の自己血輸血
8. 高齢者における自己血輸血
9. 宗教上の輸血拒否と自己血輸血
10. 自己血輸血施行の手続き
11. 自己血管理システム
12. 自己血輸血ガイドライン

Hemoglobin Vesicles Containing Methemoglobin and L-Tyrosine to Suppress Methemoglobin Formation in Vitro and in Vivo

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Hemoglobin (Hb) vesicles have been developed as cellular-type Hb-based O₂ carriers in which a purified and concentrated Hb solution is encapsulated with a phospholipid bilayer membrane. Ferrous Hb molecules within an Hb vesicle were converted to ferric methHb by reacting with reactive oxygen species such as hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂) generated in the living body or during the autoxidation of oxyHb in the Hb vesicle, and this leads to the loss of O₂ binding ability. The prevention of methHb formation by H₂O₂ in the Hb vesicle is required to prolong the in vivo O₂ carrying ability. We found that a mixed solution of methHb and L-tyrosine (L-Tyr) showed an effective H₂O₂ elimination ability by utilizing the reverse peroxidase activity of methHb with L-Tyr as an electron donor. The time taken for the conversion of half of oxyHb to methHb (*T*₅₀) was 420 min for the Hb vesicles containing 4 g/dL (620 μM) methHb and 8.5 mM L-Tyr ((methHb/L-Tyr) Hb vesicles), whereas the time of conversion for the conventional Hb vesicles was 25 min by stepwise injection of H₂O₂ (310 μM) in 10 min intervals. Furthermore, in the (methHb/L-Tyr) Hb vesicles, the methHb percentage did not reach 50% even after 48 h under a *p*O₂ of 40 Torr at 37 °C, whereas *T*₅₀ of the conventional Hb vesicles was 13 h under the same conditions. Moreover, the *T*₅₀ values of the conventional Hb vesicles and the (methHb/L-Tyr) Hb vesicles were 14 and 44 h, respectively, after injection into rats (20 mL/kg), confirming the remarkable inhibitory effect of methHb formation in vivo in the (methHb/L-Tyr) Hb vesicles.

INTRODUCTION

Hemoglobin (Hb)-based O₂ carriers (HBOCs) as red blood cell substitutes have been developed for clinical application in recent years (1–3). Their safety and usefulness have been demonstrated by many researchers in various fields such as physiology, toxicology, and biochemistry (4–6). The demand for HBOCs has been increasing year by year due to limitations of donated blood, such as infectious agents, shortage, and storage issues.

HBOCs are generally classified into two types: One is the acellular type, which comprises directly modified Hb molecules such as cross-linked Hb (7), polymerized Hb (8), and polymer-conjugated Hb (9). Some of the acellular-type HBOCs have advanced to phase III clinical trials (10, 11). Another kind is the cellular-type Hb systems such as Hb vesicles (12) or liposome-encapsulated Hb (13), in which Hb molecules are encapsulated with a phospholipid bilayer membrane. Although they are not yet in clinical trials, they have been shown to have excellent O₂ carrying ability and good safety profiles in vivo (10, 14–18).

Ferrous Hb (Hb(Fe²⁺)) molecules of HBOCs gradually lose their O₂ binding ability, because they react with reactive oxygen species (ROS) such as hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂) (19, 20) or nitrogen monoxide (NO*) (21) to become nonfunctional ferric Hb (Hb(Fe³⁺), methHb), in addition to the autoxidation of oxyHb molecules themselves. In humans, the concentration of methHb molecules in the red blood cells is usually kept below 1% by reduction systems such as NADH-cytochrome *b*₅, NADPH-flavin, glutathione, and ascorbic acid. Furthermore, ROS are

eliminated by several mechanisms such as superoxide dismutase (SOD), catalase, and peroxidase that help to prevent the methHb formation (23, 24). In contrast, methHb generated in the Hb vesicle are not reduced to the ferrous state due to the absence of the reduction systems, because constitutive enzymes and reductants necessary for methHb reduction are removed during the Hb purification process (25). The half-life of oxyHb of the Hb vesicles was 14 h in vivo, and more than 90% of oxyHb was converted to methHb within 48 h in the case of 20 vol % top loading to rats (20). In human plasma, the concentration of H₂O₂ is reported to be 4–5 μM (26) and to elevate to as much as 100–600 μM under inflammatory (27) or ischemia-reperfusion conditions (28). Therefore, Hb vesicles are required to have an H₂O₂ elimination system for effective prolongation of their O₂ carrying ability. We previously reported that H₂O₂ generated in the living body was the main reason for methHb formation of the Hb vesicles, and the O₂ carrying ability of the Hb vesicles in which catalase was coencapsulated was vastly prolonged in vivo by elimination of H₂O₂ (20). Regarding the catalase-coencapsulated vesicles, it is somewhat difficult to obtain a sufficient amount of human catalase from human donated blood. Furthermore, the catalase activity is gradually lost due to denaturation during storage at 25 °C.

Horseradish peroxidase (HRP), which also eliminates H₂O₂ in its enzymatic reaction, is converted to a ferrylHb radical Hb(Fe⁴⁺=O*) state after reaction with H₂O₂, and the radical state is returned to the ferric state by acceptance of two electrons from substrates such as *p*-hydroxyphenylacetic acid (HPA) (29, 30). This is a well-known reaction in an H₂O₂ assay method. L-Tyrosine (L-Tyr) dimer or polymer can also be synthesized by an HRP-catalyzed oxidation (31, 32). We considered from the above mechanism that if methHb, which has ferric heme like HRP does, could also function as an H₂O₂ elimination enzyme in the presence of L-Tyr as a substrate, then methHb can easily

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be prepared from purified Hb for the preparation of vesicles. Moreover, L-Tyr itself is an amino acid with high stability and good cost performance. In this study, we prepared Hb vesicles coencapsulating metHb and L-Tyr, thereby incorporating the metHb elimination system into the Hb vesicles themselves. We then evaluated the effect of this coencapsulation on the suppression of metHb formation. Furthermore, we evaluated the safety of the vesicles *in vivo*.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Purification of Hb from Red Blood Cells (19, 33). Hb was purified from outdated human red blood cells provided by the Japanese Red Cross. The red blood cells were washed three times with saline by centrifugation (2000g, 10 min) and concentrated by the removal of the supernatant. They were hemolyzed by the addition of an equal volume of water for injection, and then the stroma were removed by ultrafiltration (cutoff M_w 1000 kDa, Biomax-1000V, Millipore Co., Ltd., Bedford). The ligand exchange from O₂ to CO was carried out for the stroma-free Hb solution by CO gas flowing over the stirred solution. The proteins other than HbCO were denatured by heat treatment at 60 °C for 12 h and removed as precipitates. The HbCO solution was fractionated using ultrafiltration filters with a cutoff molecular weight between 1000 kDa and 8 kDa (Biomax-8V, Millipore), followed by concentration with an 8 kDa ultrafilter.

Reaction of Hb Samples with H₂O₂. HbCO was decarboxylated to HbO₂ by the irradiation of visible light to a liquid film of the Hb solution under O₂ atmosphere; potassium ferricyanide was added to the oxyHb solution to convert the oxyHb to metHb (34). The conversion of oxyHb to metHb was 99.9% as measured by the modified Evelyn-Malloy method (35). After the mixed solution was stirred at 25 °C for 2 h, the potassium ferricyanide was removed from the resulting metHb solution by gel filtration chromatography on Sephadex G-25 (Pharmacia AB, Uppsala). Deferoxamine mesylate (1.6 mM; DFO, Sigma, St. Louis) and L-Tyr (0 or 1 mM; free base, ICN Biomedicals, Inc., Aurora) were added to the oxyHb or metHb solutions, and these solutions were used as Hb samples. Hb samples ([heme] = 20 μ M) were reacted with 200 μ M H₂O₂ ([heme]/[H₂O₂] = 1/10 molar ratio) in phosphate buffered saline (PBS, pH 7.4 at 37 °C), and the reaction was monitored by the repetitive scanning of a visible region from 300 to 700 nm at 2 min interval by using a UV-vis spectrometer (V-570, Jasco, Tokyo).

For the measurement of H₂O₂ concentrations, samples were reacted with H₂O₂ under the same conditions and were periodically sampled, and the concentration of H₂O₂ was determined spectrophotometrically by measuring the amount of 6,6'-dihydroxy-1,1'-biophenyl-3,3'-diacetic acid (DBDA; Ex. 317 nm; Em. 405 nm), generated by the HRP-catalyzed reaction of HPA with H₂O₂. The final concentrations of HRP and HPA were 4 μ M and 6 mM, respectively, and the DBDA concentration was calculated after separating the Hb samples by centrifugal filtration (cutoff 5 kDa, Ultrafree-MC, Millipore, Bedford) (19, 29).

Preparation of the Hb Vesicles Containing metHb and L-Tyr (metHb/L-Tyr) Hb Vesicles (36). MetHb was prepared by the reaction of HbCO (10 g/dL) with an excess amount of potassium ferricyanide. The unreacted potassium ferricyanide and ferrocyanide were removed by ultrafiltration (cutoff M_w 50 kDa, ADVANTEC, Tokyo) until the concentration of potassium ferricyanide was less than 1 μ M by monitoring the absorbance with the UV-vis spectrometer. The metHb solution was concentrated to 40 g/dL using a 50 kDa cutoff filter as noted above. HbCO solutions containing 5 or 10 mol % metHb were prepared by mixing the concentrated metHb solution with a 40

g/dL HbCO solution. Pyridoxal 5'-phosphate (PLP, Sigma, St. Louis, MO) was added to the Hb solution as an allosteric effector at a 2.5 equimolar ratio of PLP to HbCO. The L-Tyr solution prepared previously was added to 0.2 N NaOH, and the resulting solution was added to the HbCO/metHb solution. The final concentrations of Hb and L-Tyr in the HbCO/metHb solution were adjusted to 40 g/dL and 1.0 and 8.5 mM, respectively. To prepare the Hb vesicles, powders of 1,2-dipalmitoyl-*sn*-glycero-3-phosphatidylcholine (DPPC), cholesterol, 1,5-bis-*O*-hexadecyl-*N*-succinyl-L-glutamine (DHSG) (Nippon Fine Chemical Co., Osaka), and 1,2-distearoyl-*sn*-glycero-3-phosphatidylethanolamine-*N*-PEG₅₀₀₀ (PEG-DSPE, NOF Co., Tokyo) were mixed at a molar ratio of 5:5:1:0.033 and added to the HbCO/metHb solution, and the mixture was stirred at 25 °C for 12 h. The resulting dispersion of the multilamellar vesicles was subsequently extruded through the nitrocellulose membrane filters with a pore size of 0.22 μ m (Fuji Film Co., Tokyo) to prepare the Hb vesicles with an average diameter of 261 \pm 30 nm. After the separation of unencapsulated Hb by ultracentrifugation (10000g, 60 min), the precipitate of the Hb vesicles was redispersed into saline in order to adjust the Hb concentration of the Hb vesicle dispersion to 10 g/dL. HbCO within the vesicles was decarbonized and oxygenated to HbO₂ by irradiation of visible light onto a liquid film under O₂ atmosphere.

Stepwise Injection of H₂O₂ to a Dispersion of (metHb/L-Tyr) Hb Vesicles. A dispersion of (metHb/L-Tyr) Hb vesicles in PBS (pH 7.4) coencapsulating metHb and L-Tyr (metHb/L-Tyr = 2 g/dL:1 mM, 4 g/dL:1 mM, or 4 g/dL:8.5 mM) was incubated with stirring, and H₂O₂ (310 μ M, Ultra Pure Grade, Kanto Chemical Co., Tokyo) was injected in stepwise fashion into the solutions at 10 min intervals. Just before each injection, 20 μ L of the dispersion of the (metHb/L-Tyr) Hb vesicles was sampled out, and 20 μ L of a catalase solution (50 000 unit) was immediately added for the elimination of the remaining H₂O₂. The percentage of metHb in the (metHb/L-Tyr) Hb vesicles was periodically calculated by the ratio of absorbance at 405 nm (metHb) and 430 nm (deoxyHb) in the Soret band using a UV-vis spectrometer without destruction of the Hb vesicles.

Autoxidation of (metHb/L-Tyr) Hb Vesicles. A dispersion of (metHb/L-Tyr) Hb vesicles was incubated and shaken (120 times/min) under pO_2 of 40 Torr at 37 °C. The percentage of metHb in the vesicles was periodically measured with a UV-vis spectrometer.

Measurement of metHb Formation in the Hb Vesicles *In Vivo*. Wistar rats (body weight: 240–260 g) were anesthetized with diethyl ether, and a preparation of (metHb/L-Tyr) Hb vesicles containing 4 g/dL of metHb and 8.5 mM of L-Tyr was injected into the tail vein (20 mL/kg, $n = 6$). Blood was withdrawn from the tail vein and centrifuged (12000g, 5 min) to collect the vesicle fraction in the supernatant. The percentage of metHb within the vesicles was measured with a UV-vis spectrometer. The number of blood cells was measured with a blood cell counter (Sysmex, KX-21, Kobe).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Reaction of the L-Tyr Containing metHb Solution with H₂O₂. We added H₂O₂ to the metHb solution (5 μ M) with or without 1 mM L-Tyr. Figure 1 shows the changes of the H₂O₂ concentration in the metHb solutions with and without L-Tyr. The initial elimination rates of H₂O₂ in the metHb solutions were calculated on the basis of a pseudo-first-order rate law. The elimination rates with and without L-Tyr at 37 °C were 3.0×10^3 and 3.2×10^4 M⁻¹ s⁻¹, respectively. The apparent rate constant of the metHb solution containing L-Tyr was about 10 times larger than that with the metHb solution alone, and this

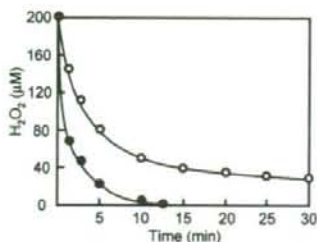


Figure 1. Time course of H₂O₂ elimination by (○) metHb (5 μM) (●) metHb (5 μM) + L-Tyr (1 mM) during the reaction with 200 μM of H₂O₂ at 37 °C.

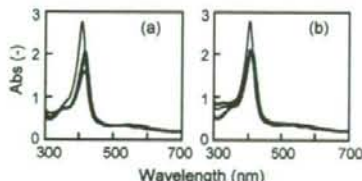


Figure 2. UV-vis spectral changes of (a) metHb (5 μM) solution and (b) metHb (5 μM) solution containing L-Tyr (1 mM) during the reaction with 200 μM H₂O₂ ([heme]:[H₂O₂] = 1/10) at 37 °C. The scanning was performed at 4 min intervals, immediately after the addition of H₂O₂ solution to each Hb solution.

value was estimated to be approximately equal to the 150 units of catalase. Moreover, around 40 μM H₂O₂ remained after a 30 min reaction of 200 μM H₂O₂ in the metHb solution alone, whereas H₂O₂ was completely eliminated within 15 min in the metHb solution containing L-Tyr.

The UV-vis spectral changes during the reaction of H₂O₂ in the metHb solution (5 μM) and the metHb solution containing L-Tyr (1 mM) are shown in Figure 2a and b, respectively. In the case of metHb alone, there was a shift in the spectrum of metHb, namely, the Soret band of metHb (405 nm) was shifted to 417 nm, and the typical metHb peak at 630 nm was completely abolished, which indicated a change to a different form of metHb. There was a time-dependent decrease in peak intensities, indicating the degradation of this intermediate form of Hb during the reaction of H₂O₂. We speculated that this intermediate form of Hb was ferrylHb radical. It has been reported that the ferrylHb radical is formed by the reaction of metHb with H₂O₂ (37). Furthermore, the stoichiometry of metHb (5 μM) and the reacted H₂O₂ (200 μM) suggests that the metHb worked as an enzyme such as catalase, although the stability of the enzyme was low and it was degraded. Because the Fenton reaction can be prevented by the addition of DFO, which is a chelator of Fe³⁺, this enzymatic H₂O₂ elimination was considered to be a pseudo-catalase-like reaction of metHb. Conversely, the metHb solution with L-Tyr showed a fast spectral change and then stayed constant during the reaction, as shown in Figure 2b. Also, the small spectral shift of the metHb solution with L-Tyr suggested that the metHb reacted with H₂O₂ was converted to the ferrylHb radical state by the reaction of H₂O₂ to produce H₂O, and then the ferryl radical state is recovered to the ferric state by one-electron oxidation of two substrate molecules to generate another molecule of H₂O, we could compare, in this case, the peroxidase and the substrate to metHb and L-Tyr, respectively. More precisely, we could describe the enzymatic reaction as reverse peroxidation, and the substrate as H₂O₂ where L-Tyr works as an electron donor. Furthermore, we detected L-Tyr dimer (L-Tyr-L-Tyr (diTyr)), which was

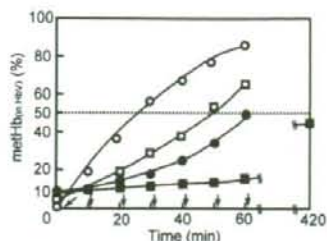


Figure 3. Time course of metHb formation in Hb vesicles at 37 °C during the stepwise addition of H₂O₂ (310 μM) to 5 g/dL Hb vesicle dispersions concapsulating (●) 4 g/dL metHb and 1 mM L-Tyr, (□) 2 g/dL metHb and 1 mM L-Tyr, (■) 4 g/dL metHb and 8.5 mM L-Tyr, and (○) no metHb and L-Tyr.

produced from the coupling of the two L-Tyr radicals in their ortho position. Such a stable reaction of the unstable ferrylHb radical to metHb by L-Tyr would help the stable elimination reaction of H₂O₂. Therefore, we aimed to construct this system in the Hb vesicles.

H₂O₂ Stepwise Addition to the (metHb/L-Tyr) Hb Vesicles.

Figure 3 shows the time course of metHb formation in the conventional Hb vesicles or the (metHb/L-Tyr) Hb vesicles by stepwise injection of H₂O₂ (310 μM) in 10 min intervals. H₂O₂ (310 M) injection to a 5 g/dL conventional Hb vesicle dispersion ([heme] = 3.1 mM) showed an elevation in the metHb percentage with increasing injections of H₂O₂, and the percentage of metHb reached 85% after 60 min (6 injections). However, the (metHb/L-Tyr) Hb vesicles (metHb/L-Tyr = 2 g/dL:1 mM, 4 g/dL:1 mM) showed a significant suppression of metHb formation in the vesicles. The metHb percentages of these Hb vesicles were 67% and 50% after 60 min (6 injections), respectively. Furthermore, by increasing the amount of L-Tyr to 8.5 mM (metHb: 4 g/dL), metHb formation was dramatically suppressed; the percentages were 17% and 45% after 60 and 420 min, respectively (6 and 42 injections, respectively).

From these results, it was confirmed that the formation of metHb from oxyHb by reaction with H₂O₂ was suppressed by the H₂O₂ elimination system of metHb and L-Tyr. Moreover, the persistence of the metHb suppression effect depends on the amount of metHb as an enzyme and L-Tyr as a substrate. The solubility of L-Tyr in pure water is 1.2 mM; however, we succeeded in preparation of an Hb solution containing 8.5 mM L-Tyr by using an alkali solution (NaOH) and the interaction of L-Tyr with highly concentrated Hb molecule (40 g/dL). We succeeded in the construction of Hb vesicles having an H₂O₂ elimination system using Hb only as protein or enzyme.

Autoxidation of the (metHb/L-Tyr) Hb Vesicles. Besides the formation of metHb by H₂O₂, oxyHb is automatically oxidized to metHb, initiated by one-electron reduction of a coordinated dioxygen molecule to generate superoxide anion radical (O₂^{-•}). MetHb formation in vesicles by such autoxidation was measured under the condition of the *p*O₂ of 40 Torr at 37 °C, because at this *p*O₂ value, the rate of metHb formation is maximal (38). In the conventional Hb vesicles, the percentage of metHb periodically increased by autoxidation of oxyHb in the vesicles. The *T*₅₀ was 13 h, and the metHb percentage reached 90% after 24 h incubation (Figure 4). On the other hand, the metHb formation of the Hb vesicles containing 4 g/dL metHb and 1 mM L-Tyr was effectively suppressed; the *T*₅₀ was 24 h. Furthermore, in the Hb vesicles containing 4 g/dL metHb and 8.5 mM L-Tyr, the percentage of metHb formed was 20% and 43% after 24 and 48 h, respectively, and did not reach 50% when the measurement ended (48 h).

Autoxidation of oxyHb is also an important factor of metHb formation. The autoxidation rate of oxyHb depends on many factors such as the O₂ affinity, *P*₅₀, the *p*O₂, temperature, and

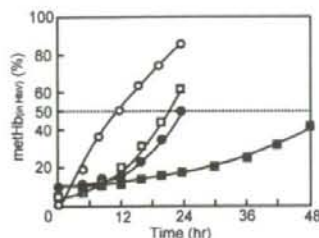


Figure 4. Time course of methHb formation in Hb vesicles under pO_2 of 40 Torr at 37 °C during autoxidation of 5 g/dL Hb vesicle dispersion coencapsulating (●) 4 g/dL methHb and 1 mM L-Tyr, (□) 2 g/dL methHb and 1 mM L-Tyr, (■) 4 g/dL methHb and 8.5 mM L-Tyr, and (○) no methHb and L-Tyr.

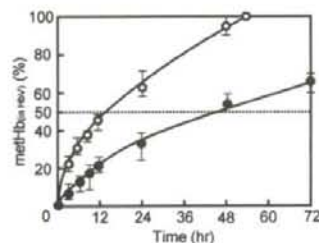


Figure 5. Time course of methHb formation in Hb vesicles injected into Wistar rats (20 mL/kg). Hb vesicles were encapsulating (●) 4 g/dL methHb and 8.5 mM L-Tyr, and (○) no methHb and L-Tyr.

pH. OxyHb molecules in the Hb vesicles are also influenced by these same factors, though the rates could be different from that of the oxyHb solution. The half-life of oxyHb to metHb (T_{50}) in the conventional Hb vesicles ($P_{50} = 33$ Torr) at 37 °C was about 12 h, shorter than that of the oxyHb solution ($T_{50} = 24$ h, PBS, pH 7.4). The autoxidation rate of the Hb vesicles containing methHb and L-Tyr was also effectively reduced in a similar way to that observed in the above experiment of H_2O_2 stepwise addition. The reason could be that the autoxidation of oxyHb is additionally influenced by H_2O_2 . A superoxide anion radical ($O_2^{\cdot-}$) generated by the oxyHb autoxidation is spontaneously converted to H_2O_2 in the presence of H^+ . This H_2O_2 attacks the other oxyHb molecules. Therefore, the elimination of the H_2O_2 would result in the suppression of the autoxidation rate of oxyHb in the Hb vesicles.

Measurement of methHb Formation in (metHb/L-Tyr) Hb Vesicles in Vivo. Figure 5 shows the percentage of generated methHb after the intravenous injection (20 mL/kg) of the conventional Hb vesicles or the (metHb/L-Tyr) Hb vesicles into the tail vein of Wistar rats ($n = 6$). The methHb percentages of the conventional Hb vesicles and the (metHb/L-Tyr) Hb vesicles after 4 h were 22% and 18%, respectively, and the T_{50} values were 14 and 44 h, respectively. Furthermore, the Wistar rats were all alive for 72 h after the measurement, at which time they were sacrificed, indicating the safety of this system in vivo. These results confirmed the suppressive effect of methHb formation in vivo using the (metHb/L-Tyr) Hb vesicles.

In a previous study, we coencapsulated catalase to eliminate H_2O_2 generated in vivo, thus suppressing the formation of methHb within Hb vesicles, and we confirmed the suppression of methHb formation (20). The T_{50} of the catalase-coencapsulated Hb vesicles was 37 h with a catalase concentration of 4.2×10^4 unit/mL (0.5 g/dL catalase as a protein concentration). We estimated that the concentration of catalase was the amount at the saturation point of T_{50} prolongation, because the same T_{50} was obtained when 5.6×10^4 unit/mL catalase was used for coencapsulation. In comparison with these results, the (metHb/

L-Tyr) system was more effective in the suppression of methHb formation by elimination of H_2O_2 . It is thought that catalase activity is gradually lost at 37 °C in vivo (20), whereas the activity of the (metHb/L-Tyr) system should be very stable at 37 °C, and the amount of L-Tyr (8.5 mM within the Hb vesicle) was sufficient to eliminate H_2O_2 in the Hb vesicles. From these results, the increase of the methHb percentage of the (metHb/L-Tyr) Hb vesicles is likely due to the autoxidation of Hb, which is impossible to suppress in this system.

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Fluid resuscitation with hemoglobin-vesicle solution does not increase hypoxia or inflammatory responses in moderate hemorrhagic shock

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ABSTRACT

The aim of the present study was to compare the hypoxic and inflammatory effects of transfusing hemoglobin-vesicles (HbV) or lactated Ringer's (LR) solution on several organs in a hemorrhagic shock model. Hemorrhagic shock was induced in 48 anesthetized rats by withdrawing 28 mL/kg blood. The animals were resuscitated by replacing the blood with an equal volume of HbV solution or three times the volume of LR solution. The heart, lung, liver, kidney and spleen were extracted at different time points following resuscitation, and mRNA expression levels of hypoxia-induced factor 1- α (HIF-1 α) and tumor necrosis factor- α (TNF- α) were determined. Blood lactate concentrations in the HbV group rapidly returned to baseline levels, whereas elevated lactate concentrations in the LR group were prolonged. There were no significant differences between the two resuscitation groups in terms of HIF-1 α and TNF- α expression in the organs examined. HIF-1 α and TNF- α expression in the lungs was significantly greater than in other organs. Our results suggest that resuscitation from hemorrhagic shock with HbV did not increase hypoxic or inflammatory effects in major organs, compared with resuscitation using LR solution, despite prolonged elevation of blood lactate.

Hemorrhagic shock is caused by hypovolemia and a loss of blood components, and it is usually corrected by infusion of crystalloids and colloids. Decreased blood flow and/or reduction in hemoglobin (Hb) during hemorrhagic shock can, however, lead to tissue hypoxia and critical anemia, which requires red blood cell (RBC) transfusion. During emergency care or perioperative periods in which RBCs are not available, RBC substitutes, such as those derived from Hb, are used (5, 8, 18, 28).

Hb-based oxygen carriers (HBOCs) are a valuable resource in prehospital care, large-scale disasters,

and remote hospitals, in which stored blood is either not available or is rapidly depleted. The safety and efficacy of HBOCs can be evaluated in terms of hemodynamics (28), systemic and regional vasoconstriction (10, 11), tissue oxygenation, immunomodulation (13), and post-injury multiple organ failure (MOF) (20).

The standard approach to restoring oxygen delivery in hemorrhagic shock has been crystalloid administration to expand intravascular volume, followed by stored RBCs for critical anemia. However, the initial transfusion therapy after hemorrhagic shock may have adverse immunoinflammatory effects that increase the risk of MOF (20, 27, 32). Hb vesicles (HbV) are artificial oxygen carriers (24, 25, 28, 31). They consist of phospholipid vesicles (liposomes) that encapsulate purified human Hb with polyethylene glycol chains at the surface. The aim

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of the present study was to evaluate the use of HbV during resuscitation following hemorrhagic shock and to determine its oxygenation and proinflammation effects on multiple organs.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Animal preparation. This study was approved by the Ethics Committee for Animal Experiments at Nippon Medical School, Japan. A total of 48 male Sprague-Dawley rats, aged 10 to 13 weeks weighing 308 ± 43 g (mean \pm standard deviation (SD)), were anesthetized with 2–4% sevoflurane. Heated blankets were used to maintain core body temperature at 37°C. Lactated Ringer's solution (LR) was infused at a rate of 1 mL/kg/h via the tail vein, until baseline blood pressure measurements were obtained.

Following laparotomy, a 24G Teflon catheter was inserted into the inferior vena cava, and the common iliac artery was catheterized to allow mean arterial blood pressure (MAP) measurement and blood withdrawal for inducing hemorrhagic shock. Arterial pressure and central venous pressure (CVP) were measured with a pressure transducer (TP-300T; Nihon Koden, Tokyo, Japan) for 2 h following fluid resuscitation. The transducer was connected to a computer and electronic signals were configured to represent pressure changes by analysis software (MacLab/s; ADInstruments Japan, Nagoya, Japan).

Experimental procedure. Fifteen minutes after the preparation was complete, hemorrhagic shock was induced by withdrawing 28 mL/kg blood over 20 min, and maintaining the state for 15 min without fluid resuscitation. Animals were then randomly assigned to one of eight groups ($n=6$ per group) based on treatment and time of sacrifice. Animals were resuscitated by infusing HbV solution (Oxygenix Co. Ltd., Tokyo, Japan, [Hb] = 10 g/dL) at the same volume as LR or by infusing three times the volume of LR. Each group was described according to the method of fluid resuscitation and the time of intentional sacrifice from the fluid resuscitation (e.g., the group, which includes the animals resuscitated using HbV solution and sacrificed 2 h after the resuscitation, was described as HbV-2H). Arterial blood (0.2 mL) was sampled before hemorrhagic shock (baseline), after hemorrhagic shock (T1), and 1 h (T2) and 2 h (T3) after fluid resuscitation. An ABL 700 (Radiometer A/S, Copenhagen, Denmark) was used to measure Hb concentration, hematocrit, blood lactate concentration and pO₂. MAP and CVP were recorded before and after blood withdrawal

and 1 h and 2 h after fluid resuscitation.

RNA extraction and RT-PCR. Following a 2 h observation period, the heart, lung, liver, kidney, and spleen of animals in the 3XLR-2H and HbV-2H groups were removed. The same organs were removed from the remaining rats 24, 72, and 168 h after resuscitation under sevoflurane anesthesia. Organs were placed in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C pending RNA extraction. RNA isolation, quantification, and RT-PCR were performed according to established methods (6, 26).

Briefly, total RNA was extracted from each tissue sample using the chaotrophic Trizol method followed by Isogen-chloroform extraction and isopropanol precipitation. Residual genomic DNA was eliminated with DNase I (Takara Shuzo, Otsu, Japan). One microgram of each total RNA sample was reverse transcribed at 37°C for 1 h in a 20 μL solution with mouse Moloney leukemia virus reverse transcriptase and hexanucleotide random primers (Takara Shuzo). RNA was quantified by measuring absorbance at 260 nm, and each sample was diluted to 0.4 $\mu\text{g}/\mu\text{L}$.

PCR primers and TaqMan fluorogenic probes were designed using the Primer Express software program (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA) and had the following sequences: Glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH): forward 5'-G AAGGTGAAGGTCGGAGTC-3', reverse 5'-GAA GATGGTGATGGGATTTC-3', and probe FAM-CAAGCTTCCCCTTCTCAGCC-Tamra. TNF- α : forward 5'-GCCTCAGCCTCTTCTCATTCT-3', reverse 5'-GATGAGAGGGAGCCATTG-3', and probe FAM-ACCACGCTCTTCTGTCT-Tamra. HIF-1 α : forward 5'-CACCTTCTACCCAAGTACCT CAAGA-3', reverse 5'-TGTCCGACTGTGAGTAC CACTGT-3', probe FAM-ACCACTGCTAAGGCAT-Tamra. GAPDH was used as the housekeeping gene.

Quantitative PCR was carried out in a 50 μL solution containing 20 ng cDNA, 25 μL TaqMan Universal Master Mix (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA), 900 nM forward and reverse primers, 200 nM TaqMan probe and deionized water. PCR conditions were 50°C for 2 min and 95°C for 10 min followed by 40 cycles of 95°C for 15 s and 60°C for 1 min. The 6-FAM-labeled TaqMan probe was cleaved during amplification to generate a fluorescent signal that was measured using an ABI PRISM 5700 Sequence Detector (Applied Biosystems). Samples and calibration curve samples were run in triplicate. Values were interpolated automatically from the standard curve. A similar system utilizing a separate

GAPDH probe and primer set (TaqMan GAPDH control reagent kit; Applied Biosystems) was designed and run for GAPDH along with each sample to correct for total nucleic acid content. Relative amounts of mRNA were calculated by the comparative critical threshold (CT) method (Applied Biosystems).

Statistical analysis. Data are expressed as mean \pm SD. Statistical analyses were performed with Statview[®] version 5.0 for Macintosh software (Abacus Concepts Inc., Berkeley, CA). Differences in MAP, CVP, Hb concentration, blood lactate concentration and gene expression between resuscitation groups and time after resuscitation were analyzed with two-factor factorial ANOVA and the Tukey-Kramer test at the 95% confidence level. Within group differences were analyzed with one-factor ANOVA and the Tukey-Kramer test for comparison with each baseline value. *p*-values < 0.05 were considered statistically significant.

RESULTS

All rats tolerated hemorrhagic shock, and received fluid resuscitation period and survived until the time of sacrifice. MAP and CVP at baseline were similar in the 3XLR and HbV groups (Table 1). MAP was significantly reduced by hemorrhagic shock and returned to baseline values by fluid resuscitation in

both groups. Hemorrhagic shock reduced CVP and fluid resuscitation increased CVP, but not significant. MAP was decreased in 3XLR group 2 h after resuscitation. Arterial blood lactate concentrations at baseline did not differ significantly between the 3XLR and HbV groups. Hemorrhagic shock increased arterial blood lactate concentration. Fluid resuscitation using HbV solution reduced the lactate level, but lactate concentrations in the 3XLR group remained elevated compared to baseline. Hb concentration and hematocrit at baseline were similar in both groups. After the fluid resuscitation, the Hb concentration and hematocrit in the HbV group were significantly higher than in the 3XLR group.

Expression of HIF-1 α and TNF- α mRNA at various time points after fluid resuscitation is shown in Figs. 1 and 2. There were no significant differences in gene expression in any organ between the 3XLR and HbV groups. However, HIF-1 α expression in the lung was significantly higher than in the heart, liver, and kidney in both 3XLR and HbV groups (Fig. 1). HIF-1 α mRNA expressions in the heart were significantly lower than in the lung and spleen. HIF-1 α mRNA expression peaked 24 h after fluid resuscitation and then decreased in the most organs. In contrast, TNF- α mRNA gradually increased during the 168 h following resuscitation (Fig. 2). TNF- α expression in the lung was significantly higher than in the other organs examined.

Table 1 Hemodynamics and arterial blood values

Measurement	Time point			
	Baseline	T1	T2	T3
Mean arterial blood pressure (mmHg)				
3XLR	83.3 \pm 9.2	32.5 \pm 4.0 [†]	80.0 \pm 13.7	56.0 \pm 20.4 [†]
HbV	80.5 \pm 13.7	30.2 \pm 3.1 [†]	87.8 \pm 14.8	68.7 \pm 5.3
Central venous pressure (mmHg)				
3XLR	4.0 \pm 0.6	3.3 \pm 1.9	4.5 \pm 1.4	3.7 \pm 0.5
HbV	4.2 \pm 1.2	4.0 \pm 0.9	5.2 \pm 2.1	4.7 \pm 2.0
Hemoglobin concentration (g/dL)				
3XLR	11.1 \pm 2.2	8.5 \pm 2.4	7.4 \pm 0.7 [†]	8.0 \pm 1.3 [†]
HbV*	13.2 \pm 1.5	9.5 \pm 3.0 [†]	13.5 \pm 0.6	13.0 \pm 2.1
Hematocrit (%)				
3XLR	34.2 \pm 6.7	26.4 \pm 7.1	23.0 \pm 2.2 [†]	24.9 \pm 3.7 [†]
HbV*	40.4 \pm 4.6	29.4 \pm 9.0 [†]	41.6 \pm 2.0	40.1 \pm 6.3
Blood Lactate concentration (mmol/L)				
3XLR	2.1 \pm 0.9	6.7 \pm 2.6 [†]	6.3 \pm 2.6 [†]	4.6 \pm 2.7
HbV	3.2 \pm 1.1	5.8 \pm 1.0 [†]	2.6 \pm 0.5	2.6 \pm 0.3

T1, immediately after fluid resuscitation; T2, 1 h after resuscitation; T3, 2 h after resuscitation

[†] significantly different than baseline (*p* < 0.05)

*significantly different than LR group (*p* < 0.05)

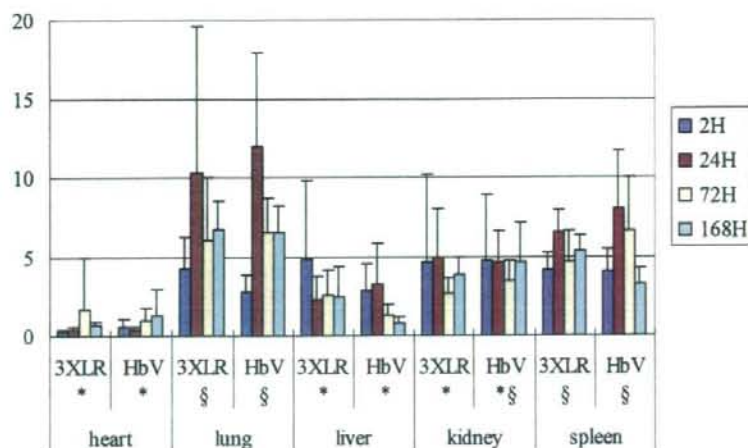


Fig. 1 HIF-1 α mRNA expression. *significantly different from lung ($p < 0.05$), § significantly different from heart ($p < 0.05$)

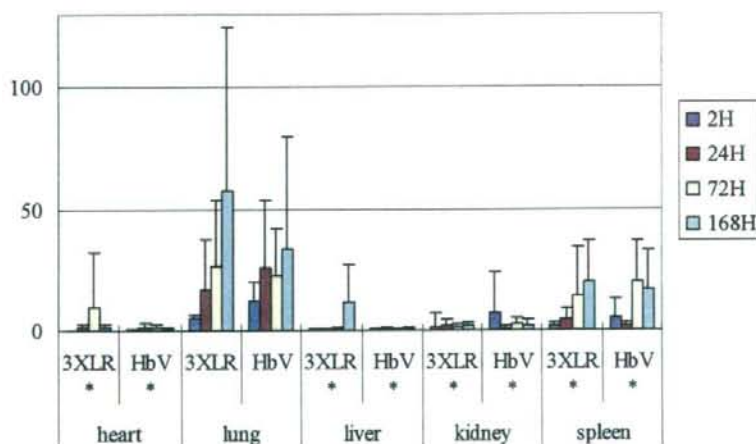


Fig. 2 TNF- α mRNA expression. *significantly different from lung ($p < 0.05$)

DISCUSSION

Critical acute anemia during emergency care and the perioperative period is usually treated with RBC transfusion. However, this requires time-consuming blood typing and cross matching tests, and the preservation time of blood products is limited. Stored RBCs cannot be supplied during prehospital care, and costs are incurred for their transport to remote hospitals. Moreover, there is increasing evidence that RBC transfusions are associated with adverse effects on the immune response to injury and illness (27). Transfusion of more than six units of RBCs

within the first 12 h after injury is an independent risk factor for MOF (20), and aged packed RBC transfusion further increases the risk of postinjury MOF (32). HBOCs may attenuate adverse immunoinflammatory effects induced by allogenic RBC transfusion and ultimately reduce the incidence of postinjury acute respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS) and MOF (19).

In the present study, organ hypoxia and proinflammatory reactions were revealed by measuring HIF-1 α and TNF- α mRNA expression after fluid resuscitation with crystalloid LR or HbV solutions. Despite a rapid recovery from elevated blood lactate

concentrations in the HbV group, no significant group differences were found in the expression of HIF-1 α or TNF- α in intrathoracic and splanchnic organs. A reduction in hemorrhagic volume is sufficient to depress MAP and increase blood lactate concentrations, leading to a 40–50% loss of circulating volume (24, 25, 31). Infection and bacterial translocation in the gut, which commonly occur after injury, and coincidental hemorrhagic shock, can also prolong the increased HIF-1 α response (14). Although fluid resuscitation for hemorrhagic shock using HbV solutions does not always modulate HIF-1 α expression in the liver and kidney, an unmodulated HIF-1 α response is beneficial in cases of anemia, as erythropoietin production remains unchanged, while vascular tone is adjusted (9). Differences in HIF-1 α expression between organs can provide tolerance against hemorrhagic shock. Centralization of circulating blood and tolerance of acute isovolemic anemia (16) provide protection against moderate hemorrhage.

Tissue hypoperfusion and vasoconstriction followed by acute hemorrhagic shock can lead to tissue hypoxia. Acute hypoxia stimulates the expression of HIF-1 α and p38 mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK), particularly in the lung, which are linked to the proliferation of pulmonary artery fibroblasts and remodeling (30). Pulmonary and systemic vasoconstriction and low peripheral perfusion are associated with use of a modified Hb tetrameric solution (11, 22), which causes scavenging of nitric oxide (NO) and enhanced endothelin release (10). NO scavenging enhances hypoxic pulmonary vasoconstriction (1), worsens pulmonary hypertension and reduces cardiac output after hemorrhagic shock. In the present study, HIF-1 α expression, a marker of hypoxia, did not increase following HbV resuscitation compared to LR resuscitation. This suggests that HbV does not increase NO scavenging or impede microcirculation based on an endothelial cell disorder (23). A definitive difference is seen with the use of HBOCs that induce vasoconstriction (11). For instance, blood lactate concentration decreased following resuscitation with HbV.

Injury, hemorrhagic shock and fluid resuscitation can produce an inflammatory response such as postinjury ARDS, an acute inflammation of the lungs (17). Our results suggest that inflammation of the lungs, as measured by TNF- α and HIF-1 α expression, far exceeded that of other organs. LR resuscitation was shown to produce a smaller hemorrhagic shock effect in the lung than the equivalent volume of normal saline (29). It is, therefore, of

clinical interest that in the present study there were no significant differences between HbV and LR resuscitation groups in the extent of inflammation in the lung or other organs.

The key cellular mediators in the pathogenesis of proinflammatory effects are neutrophil polymorphonuclear leucocytes (PMN) (3, 4) and endothelial cells (15). PMNs are primed by plasma from stored RBCs; and the older the RBCs, the greater the priming effect (21). To reduce the induction of cytokines following RBC transfusion, PMNs can undergo pre-storage leukoreduction treatment (2, 7, 12). However this does not eliminate all inflammatory reactions. The use of RBC substitutes may overcome the problems of inflammatory reactions. However, in future studies it will be important to demonstrate that, in critical situations, fewer inflammatory reactions are induced by artificial oxygen carriers than by RBCs.

In conclusion, we demonstrated that fluid resuscitation with HbV solution for moderate hemorrhagic shock did not influence the expression of HIF-1 α and TNF- α mRNA in the heart, lung, kidney, liver and spleen compared with fluid resuscitation using LR solution, despite blood lactate concentrations changing after fluid resuscitation. Inflammation of the lung was significantly greater than that of other organs after hemorrhagic shock and fluid resuscitation, but the extent of inflammation did not differ according to the type of fluid resuscitation.

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Poly(ethylene glycol)-Conjugated Human Serum Albumin Including Iron Porphyrins: Surface Modification Improves the O₂-Transporting Ability

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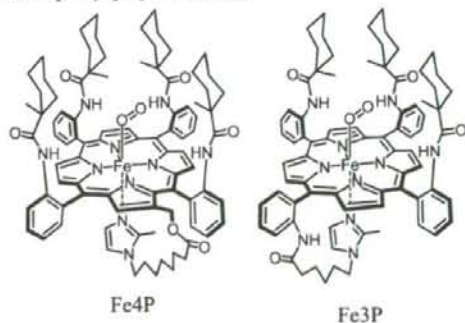
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Artificial O₂-carrying hemoprotein composed of human serum albumin including tetrakis(*o*-amidophenyl)-porphinatoiron(II) (Fe4P or Fe3P) [HSA–FeXP] has been modified by maleimide- or succinimide-terminated poly(ethylene glycol) (PEG), and the formed PEG bioconjugates have been physicochemically characterized. 2-Iminothiolane (IMT) reacted with the amino groups of Lys to create active thiol groups, which bind to α -maleimide- ω -methoxy PEG [Mw: 2-kDa (PEG_{M2}), 5-kDa (PEG_{M5})]. On the other hand, α -succinimidyl- ω -methoxy PEG [Mw: 2-kDa (PEG_{S2}), 5-kDa (PEG_{S5})] directly binds to Lys residues. MALDI-TOF MS of the PEG-conjugated HSA–FeXP showed distinct molecular ion peaks, which provide an accurate number of the PEG chains. In the case of PEG_{MY}(HSA–FeXP), the spectroscopic assay of the thiol groups also provided the mean of the binding numbers of the polymers, and the degree of the modification was controlled by the ratio of [IMT]/[HSA]. The viscosity and colloid osmotic pressures of the 2-kDa PEG conjugates (phosphate-buffered saline solution, [HSA] = 5 g dL⁻¹) were almost the same as that of the nonmodified one, whereas the 5-kDa PEG binding increased the rheological parameters. The presence of flexible polymers on the HSA surface retarded the association reaction of O₂ to FeXP and stabilized the oxygenated complex. Furthermore, PEG_{MY}(HSA–FeXP) exhibited a long circulation lifetime of FeXP in rats (13–16 h). On the basis of these results, it can be concluded that the surface modification of HSA–FeXP by PEG has improved its comprehensive O₂-transporting ability. In particular the PEG_{MY}(HSA–FeXP) solution could be a promising material for entirely synthetic O₂-carrying plasma expander as a red cell substitute.

INTRODUCTION

Poly(ethylene glycol) (PEG) is commonly used for the surface modification of peptides, proteins, enzymes, and liposome to confer several potential beneficial effects: not only a longer plasma half-life and nonimmunogenicity but also a solubility in organic solvents and extreme thermostability (1–4). To develop an artificial O₂ carrier, substantial efforts have been directed to the preparation of PEG-conjugated hemoglobin (Hb) over the past decades (5–8), and the optimized PEG–Hbs are currently being tested in clinical trials. Human serum albumin (HSA) is a versatile protein, which is found in our blood plasma at a high concentration (4–5 g dL⁻¹) (9). We have reported that HSA including tetrakis(*o*-amidophenyl)porphinatoiron(II) (Fe3P or Fe4P, Chart 1) [HSA–FeXP] can reversibly bind and release O₂ under physiological condition (pH 7.4, 37 °C) in a fashion similar to Hb (10). The administration of this synthetic O₂ carrier into anesthetized rats has proved its safety and O₂-transporting efficacy (11). Nevertheless, there is only one defect in that the FeXP molecule easily dissociates from HSA when infused into animals. This is due to the fact that FeXP is noncovalently bound to the hydrophobic cavity of albumin with binding constants (*K*) of 10³–10⁶ (M⁻¹). Natural heme, namely protoporphinatoiron IX, is also incorporated into HSA and shows a 10²–10⁴-fold higher *K* compared to FeXP (12); however, it is released from HSA during blood circulation with a half-life of 2.5–3.6 h (13, 14). Under these circumstances,

Chart 1. Structures of O₂-Adduct Complexes of Tetrakis(*o*-amidophenyl)porphinatoiron(II)



we postulated that the surface modification of HSA–FeXP by PEG could help to prolong the circulation life of FeXP and thereby retain its O₂-transporting ability for a long period. Although HSA is a very common plasma protein, its PEG conjugation chemistry has not yet been studied in detail. It is known that a huge variety of drugs are incorporated into specific sites of HSA (9). The PEG modification should prevent the rapid release of these drugs from the HSA scaffold and contribute to raising their potential therapeutic efficacies.

In the present study, we have systematically prepared several PEG-conjugated HSA–FeXPs and characterized their physicochemical properties. The surface modification by PEG affects the viscosity and colloid osmotic pressure of the solution, O₂-binding behavior of the parent HSA–FeXP, and circulatory lifetime of FeXP. The PEG-conjugated HSA–FeXP could be

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of extreme medical importance as a red cell substitute or O₂-therapeutic reagent.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Materials and Apparatus. All reagents were purchased from commercial sources as special grades and used without further purification. 2-Iminoethanol hydrochloride (IMT) was purchased from Wako Pure Chemical Industries, Ltd. (Osaka, Japan). α -[3-(3-Maleimido-1-oxopropyl)amino]propyl- ω -methoxy PEG [averaged Mw: 2333 (Sunbright ME-020MA, PEG_{M2}), averaged Mw: 5207 (Sunbright MEMAL-50H, PEG_{M5})] and α -succinimidyl- ω -methoxy PEG [averaged Mw: 2325 (Sunbright MEGC-20HS, PEG_{S2}), averaged Mw: 5261 (Sunbright MEGC-50HS, PEG_{S5})] were purchased from NOF Corp. (Tokyo, Japan). 2-[8-(2-Methylimidazolyl-1-yl)-octanoyloxymethyl]-5,10,15,20-tetrakis[$\alpha,\alpha,\alpha,\alpha$ -*o*-(1-methylcyclohexanamido)phenyl]porphyrinatoiron(III) chloride (Fe4P) and 5,10,15-tris[$\alpha,\alpha,\alpha,\alpha$ -*o*-(1-methylcyclohexanamido)phenyl]-20-mono- $[\beta$ -*o*-(6-(2-methylimidazolyl)hexanamido)-phenyl]porphyrinatoiron(III) chloride (Fe3P) were synthesized using previously reported procedures (10*d,e*). Recombinant HSA was provided by the NIPRO Corp. (Osaka, Japan). The UV-vis absorption spectra were recorded using an Agilent 8453 UV-visible spectrophotometer fitted with an Agilent 89090A temperature control unit. The water was deionized using Millipore Elix and Simpli Lab-UV.

Preparation of PEG-Conjugated HSA-FeXP. The HSA-FeXP solutions ($X = 3, 4$, [HSA]: 5 g dL⁻¹, [FeXP]/[HSA] = 4 (mol/mol), pH 7.4) were prepared as described elsewhere (10*b,d*).

PEG_{MY}(HSA-FeXP): The modification of HSA-FeXP by α -maleimide- ω -methoxy PEG_{M2} was, for instance, carried out as follows. IMT (72 mg, 0.54 mmol) was slowly added to the HSA-FeXP solution (48 mL, [HSA]: 5 g dL⁻¹, [Fe4P] = 3 mM, pH 7.4) ([IMT]/[HSA] = 15/1, mol/mol) and gently stirred at room temperature in the dark. After 3 h, PEG_{M2} (1.44 g, [PEG_{M2}]/[HSA]:20/1, mol/mol) was added to the mixture, which was continually stirred for another 2 h. The resultant solution was ultrafiltered and washed by at least a 600 mL of phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) solution (pH 7.4) to remove any unreacted IMT and PEG_{M2} using the ADVANTEC UHP-76K holder with a Q0500 076E membrane (cutoff Mw: 50 kDa). The volume was finally condensed to 48 mL and sterilized by a DISMIC 0.45 μ m filter, producing the PEG_{M2}(HSA-FeXP) solution. The FeXP concentration was determined by the assay of the iron ion by inductively coupled plasma (ICP) spectrometry using a Seiko Instruments SPS 7000A Spectrometer. The HSA concentration was calculated from the intensity of the circular dichroism spectrum at 208 nm, because the molar ellipticity of HSA (1.9×10^4 deg cm² dmol⁻¹) was unaltered after the PEG conjugation. Circular dichroism (CD) spectra were obtained using a JASCO J-725 spectropolarimeter. The concentration of the HSA sample was 0.15 μ M in PBS, and quartz cuvettes with a 10-mm thickness were used for the measurements over the range of 195–250 nm. The PEG_{M2}(HSA-Fe3P) and PEG_{M5}(HSA-Fe4P) solutions were also prepared by the same procedure. The product was sealed in a glass bottle under CO pressure and stored at 4 °C.

PEG_{SY}(HSA-Fe4P): The surface modification of HSA-Fe4P by α -succinimidyl- ω -methoxy PEG_{S2} was carried out as follows. PEG_{S2} (0.72 g, 0.36 mmol) was directly added to the HSA-Fe4P solution ([HSA]: 5 g dL⁻¹, [Fe4P] = 3 mM, pH 7.4) ([PEG_{S2}]/[HSA]:10/1, mol/mol), and the mixture was stirred at room temperature for 2 h. The resultant solution was ultrafiltered, condensed (48 mL), and sterilized as described above, producing the PEG_{S2}(HSA-Fe4P) solution. Using PEG_{S5} instead of PEG_{S2}, PEG_{S5}(HSA-Fe4P) was obtained. The Fe4P

and HSA concentrations were determined by the same procedures for PEG_{MY}(HSA-FeXP).

Matrix-Associated Laser Desorption Ionization Time-of-Flight Mass Spectra (MALDI-TOF MS). The MALDI-TOF MS were obtained using a Shimadzu/Kratos AXIMA-CFR S/W Version 2, which was calibrated by BSA (Sigma A-0281) and HSA (Sigma A-3782). The specimens were prepared by mixing the aqueous sample solution (10 μ M, 1 μ L) and matrix (10 mg mL⁻¹ sinapinic acid in 40% aqueous CH₃CN, 1 μ L) on the measuring plate and air-drying.

Determination of Mean of PEG_{MY} Chains per Protein by Assay of Thiol Groups. The active thiol groups on the protein surface can be assayed by the disulfide exchange reaction with 2,2'-dithiopyridine (2,2'-DTP) to produce 2-thiopyridinone (2-TP) with an absorption at 343 nm (molar absorption coefficient (ϵ_{343}): 8.1×10^3 M⁻¹ cm⁻¹) (15). Quantitative spectroscopic measurements conveniently provide the thiol concentration. The parent HSA-FeXP showed a small absorption band in this range, which should be subtracted from the spectrum after the disulfide exchange reaction. The difference in the thiol groups per HSA-FeXP before and after the PEG_{MY} modification corresponds to the mean of the PEG_{MY} chains on the protein surface.

Solution Properties. The viscosity and density of the PEG-conjugated HSA-FeXP solution (PBS, pH 7.4) were obtained using an Anton Paar DSC 300 capillary viscometer at 37 °C. The colloid osmotic pressures of the solutions (PBS, pH 7.4) were measured by a WESCOR 4420 Colloid Osmometer at 25 °C. A membrane filter with a 30 kDa cutoff was used.

O₂-Binding Parameters. O₂-binding to PEG-conjugated HSA-FeXP was expressed by eq 1,



where $K = k_{on}/k_{off}$. The O₂-binding affinity (gaseous pressure at half O₂ binding for FeXP, $P_{1/2} = 1/K$) was determined by spectral changes at various partial pressures of O₂/N₂ as previously reported (10*b,d*). The FeXP concentrations of 10–20 μ M were normally used for the UV-vis absorption spectroscopy. The spectra were recorded within the range of 350–700 nm. The half-lifetime of the O₂-adduct complex was determined by the time dependence of the absorption intensity at 550 nm (O₂-adduct species). The association and dissociation rate constants for O₂ (k_{on} , k_{off}) were measured by a competitive rebinding technique using a Unisoku TSP-1000WK laser flash photolysis as reported in a previous paper (16).

Circulation Lifetime in Vivo. The animal investigations were carried out using twenty male Wistar rats (297 \pm 29 g). All animal handling and care were in accordance with the NIH guidelines. The protocol details were approved by the Animal Care and Use Committee of Keio University. The PEG-conjugated HSA-FeXP solution (20% volume of the circulatory blood) was intravenously injected into rats from the tail vein (1 mL/min) under an inhalation anesthesia with diethyl ether ($n = 4$ each). Blood was taken from the tail vein at 3, 30 min, 1, 2, 4, 8, 16 h, 1, 2, 3 days (10 time points) after the infusion and then centrifuged to isolate the serum, which was colored brown by the presence of the sample. The animals were sacrificed after the experiments by hemorrhage. The FeXP concentration was measured by an iron ion assay using ICP spectrometry as described above.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Synthesis of PEG-Conjugated HSA-FeXP. The HSA-FeXP molecules were conjugated with PEG having a terminal reactive chain-end, maleimide-PEG or succinimide-PEG, at

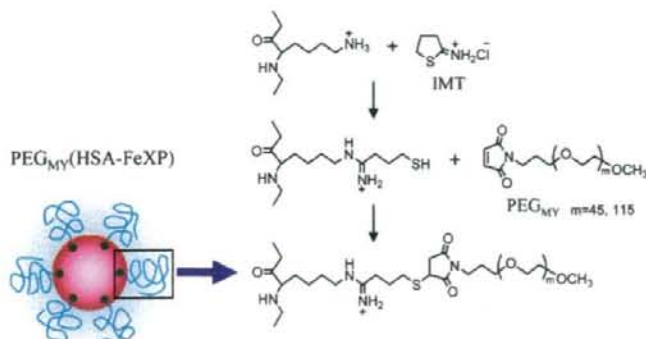


Figure 1. Two-step reaction schemes of IMT and maleimide-PEG (PEG_MY) with HSA-FeXP.

ambient temperature. Thiolation reagent, IMT, quantitatively reacted with the amino groups of Lys to create active thiol groups, which bind to the α -maleimide- ω -methoxy PEG (PEG_{M2} or PEG_{M5}) (Figure 1). The two-step reaction is reproducible and did not form any toxic side-product. On the other hand, the α -succinimidyl- ω -methoxy PEG (PEG_{S2} or PEG_{S5}) directly binds to the amino groups of Lys. The gel permeation chromatogram (Sephacryl 200HR) of the well-washed PEG conjugate exhibited a single band, so that we did not need any further chromatographic purification.

The MALDI-TOF MS of PEG_{M5}(HSA-Fe4P), as prepared under the condition of [IMT]/[HSA-Fe4P] = 15/1 (mol/mol), showed five distinct ion peaks at 85, 90, 95, 101, and 106 kDa (Figure 2a). No unreacted HSA-FeXP was observed at all. The difference in each mass was 5.25 kDa, which implies that HSA-Fe4P is covalently bound to PEG_{M5} and the individual peaks are attributed to PEG_{M5}(HSA-Fe4P) having a different number of PEG chains. Here, we have to be cautious whether these mass values involve a molecular weight of Fe4P, because our previous MALDI-TOF MS experiments of HSA-Fe4P demonstrated a single peak of HSA (Mw: 66.5 kDa); the incorporated Fe4P dissociated from the albumin during the ionization process (10a). In this study, we found that the mean of the surface PEG chains on HSA-FeXP is conveniently determined by a spectroscopic assay of the HSA scaffold and thiol groups. In general, the concentration of HSA is measured by the absorption at 280 nm or bromocresol green method (17), but they are probably obstructed by the surface modification. We then employed a CD measurement to determine the HSA concentration. The comparison of the CD spectra of HSA and PEG-HSA solutions revealed that the molecular ellipticity of albumin ($\epsilon_{208} = 1.9 \times 10^4$ deg cm² dmol⁻¹) is unaltered even after the PEG binding. Moreover, the presence of FeXP does not disturb the CD in the range of 190–250 nm. Therefore, the HSA concentration of PEG modified HSA-FeXP was quantitatively determined by its CD intensity at 208 nm. On the other hand, the active thiol groups on proteins are generally assayed by a disulfide exchange reaction with 2,2'-DTP (15). The combination of these two methodologies allows us to estimate the number of thiols on HSA-FeXP. The mean of the thiol groups was 6.7 per protein after the thiolation by IMT ([IMT]/[HSA-Fe4P] = 15 mol/mol) and decreased to 0.6 after the reaction with 20-fold excess moles of PEG_{M5} (Table 1). These results suggested that the mean of 6.1 reactive thiols was conjugated with PEG_{M5}. The averaged molecular weight of this PEG_{M5}(HSA-FeXP) calculated from the intensity of the MS peak was 95 kDa. If one subtracts the total mass of the six PEG_{M5} chains (5 kDa \times 6 = 30 kDa) from 95 kDa, the difference of 65 kDa equals that

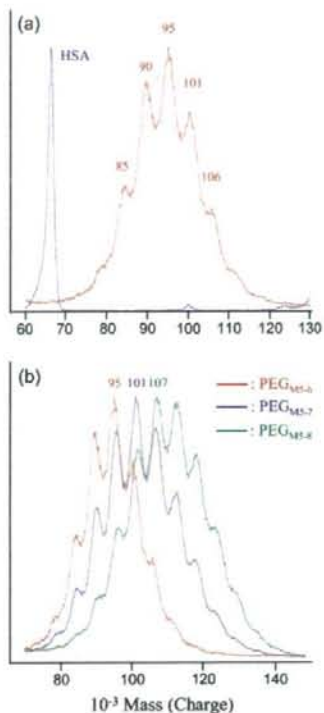


Figure 2. MALDI-TOF MS of (a) HSA and PEG_{M5-6}(HSA-Fe4P) and (b) PEG_{M5}(HSA-Fe4P) prepared in different [IMT]/[HSA-Fe4P] ratios of 15 (red), 20 (blue), and 30 (green) (mol/mol).

of HSA without Fe4P. Therefore, we concluded that all the mass ion peaks observed in the MALDI-TOF MS did not include the molecular weight of FeXP.

The number of the maleimide-PEG_{M5} chains on HSA-Fe4P were modulated by the mixing ratio of [IMT]/[HSA-Fe4P] (mol/mol). The maximum peak of PEG_{M5}(HSA-Fe4P) in the MALDI-TOF MS significantly shifted to the higher molecular region (95 \rightarrow 101 \rightarrow 107 kDa) by increasing the IMT (Figure 2b). It is quite remarkable that the distributions of the entire spectral pattern were always identical. The averaged binding number of the PEG_{M5} chains per HSA estimated from the intensity of the mass peak was consistent with the number determined from the assay of the thiol groups (Table 1).