## Enhanced sensitivity of ubiquinone-deficient mutants of Saccharomyces cerevisiae to products of autoxidized polyunsaturated fatty acids

(coenzyme Q/lipid hydroperoxide/antioxidant)

THAI Q. DO, JEFFERY R. SCHULTZ, AND CATHERINE F. CLARKE\*

Department of Chemistry and Biochemistry and the Molecular Biology Institute, University of California, Los Angeles, CA 90095-1569

Communicated by Paul D. Boyer, University of California, Los Angeles, CA, April 10, 1996 (received for review February 7, 1996)

Coenzyme Q (ubiquinone or Q) plays a well ABSTRACT known electron transport function in the respiratory chain, and recent evidence suggests that the reduced form of ubiquinone (QH<sub>2</sub>) may play a second role as a potent lipid-soluble antioxidant. To probe the function of QH<sub>2</sub> as an antioxidant in vivo, we have made use of a Q-deficient strain of Saccharomyces cerevisiae harboring a deletion in the COQ3 gene [Clarke, C. F., Williams, W. & Teruya, J. H. (1991) J. Biol. Chem. 266, 16636-16644]. Q-deficient yeast and the wild-type parental strain were subjected to treatment with polyunsaturated fatty acids, which are prone to autoxidation and breakdown into toxic products. In this study we find that Q-deficient yeast are hypersensitive to the autoxidation products of linolenic acid and other polyunsaturated fatty acids. In contrast, the monounsaturated oleic acid, which is resistant to autoxidative breakdown, has no effect. The hypersensitivity of the  $coq_3\Delta$  strains can be prevented by the presence of the COQ3 gene on a single copy plasmid, indicating that the sensitive phenotype results solely from the inability to produce Q. As a result of polyunsaturated fatty acid treatment, there is a marked elevation of lipid hydroperoxides in the coq3 mutant as compared with either wild-type or respiratorydeficient control strains. The hypersensitivity of the Qdeficient mutant can be rescued by the addition of butylated hydroxytoluene,  $\alpha$ -tocopherol, or trolox, an aqueous soluble vitamin E analog. The results indicate that autoxidation products of polyunsaturated fatty acids mediate the cell killing and that OH<sub>2</sub> plays an important role in vivo in protecting eukaryotic cells from these products.

Coenzyme Q (ubiquinone or Q) is a lipid component of the electron transport chain that ferries electrons between complex I (or complex II) and the cytochrome  $b-c_1$  complex (1, 2). In eukaryotic cells, Q performs these transport functions in the inner mitochondrial membrane, yet many intracelluar membranes contain Q (3, 4). The redox chemistry that allows the reversible cycling between the hydroquinone (QH<sub>2</sub>) and Q in electron transport may also allow QH<sub>2</sub> to function as a lipid-soluble antioxidant. Many *in vitro* studies suggest that QH<sub>2</sub> scavenges free radicals and prevents lipid peroxidative damage in both mitochondrial and nonmitochondrial membrane fractions, liposome vesicles, and lipoproteins (5-7).

The mechanisms by which QH<sub>2</sub> functions as an antioxidant are incompletely understood. QH<sub>2</sub> may scavenge lipid peroxyl radicals and function as an antioxidant analogous to vitamin E (8, 9). QH<sub>2</sub> may also be involved in regenerating  $\alpha$ -tocopherol (10-12). It is also possible that QH<sub>2</sub> may function to prevent initiation of lipid peroxidation as it has been reported to scavenge perferryl radicals (6). The content of QH<sub>2</sub> in low density lipoprotein particles is correlated with increased resistance to the initiation of lipid peroxidation (13-15). The level of QH<sub>2</sub> and other antioxidants in low density lipoprotein may thus have a profound influence on slowing the development of atherosclerosis, since oxidatively modified low density lipoprotein is thought to play an important role in the initiation of this disease (16, 17). Thus the "secondary" action of QH<sub>2</sub> as an antioxidant may play an important function in aging and in age-related degenerative diseases (18).

Despite the use of Q in a variety of clinical therapies and as a nutritional supplement, little is known regarding its mode of action in these settings (for example as antioxidant or electron transport component). To learn more about the functions of QH<sub>2</sub> in vivo, we have made use of yeast mutants that are completely deficient in Q. Tzagoloff and co-workers (19–21) have described eight complementation groups (coq1-coq8) of Saccharomyces cerevisiae mutants deficient in Q. These mutants lack Q and hence are respiratory defective and fail to grow on nonfermentable carbon sources. The COQ3 gene of S. cerevisiae encodes the 3,4-dihydroxy-5-hexaprenylbenzoate methyltransferase (22, 23). This methyltransferase is conserved among eukaryotes (24, 25), and yeast harboring a COQ3 gene deletion (coq3 $\Delta$ ) do not synthesize Q (22).

In the current study we use  $coq3\Delta$  yeast mutants to investigate the possible role of Q as an antioxidant. Since much in vitro evidence suggests that QH<sub>2</sub> functions as a lipid-soluble antioxidant, we were particularly interested in the susceptibility of the  $coq_3\Delta$  mutants to treatment with polyunsaturated fatty acids, which are known to generate lipid peroxides and peroxyl radicals by autoxidation reactions (26). The resulting lipid peroxides and lipid peroxyl radicals are chemically reactive, prone to further breakdown and rearrangements, and result in many products that are toxic to cells (27). Although S. cerevisiae does not normally produce polyunsaturated fatty acids, it does utilize polyunsaturated fatty acids when provided exogenously (28-30). In this study, we have compared the sensitivity of wild-type yeast and isogenic  $coq3\Delta$  mutants to treatment with mono- or polyunsaturated fatty acids. The results show that Q-deficient yeast are hypersensitive to the products of polyunsaturated fatty acid autoxidation and suggest that  $QH_2$  plays an important role in vivo as an antioxidant.

## **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

**Chemicals and Plasmid Constructions.** Oleic acid, linoleic acid, linolenic acid, arachidonic acid, *t*-butyl hydroperoxide, cumene hydroperoxide, (+)- $\alpha$ -tocopherol, ammonium ferrous(II) sulfate, thiobarbituric acid, and glass beads (425–600  $\mu$ m) were purchased from Sigma. Butylated hydroxytoluene

The publication costs of this article were defrayed in part by page charge payment. This article must therefore be hereby marked "*advertisement*" in accordance with 18 U.S.C. §1734 solely to indicate this fact.

Abbreviations: Q, ubiquinone;  $atp2\Delta$ , yeast mutant harboring an ATP2 gene deletion; BHT, butylated hydroxytoluene;  $coq3\Delta$ , yeast mutant harboring a COQ3 gene deletion; TBARS, thiobarbituric acid reactive substances; MDA, malondialdehyde; QH<sub>2</sub>, ubiquinol; SOD, superoxide dismutase.

<sup>\*</sup>To whom reprint requests should be addressed.

(BHT), hydrogen peroxide, and paraquat (methyl viologen) were from Fischer. Xylenol orange was from Aldrich. Trolox (rac-6-Hydroxy-2,5,7,8-tetramethylchromane-2-carboxylic acid) was from Fluka. The plasmid pCC-COQ3 was constructed by ligating the 2.2-kb *SmaI* fragment containing the *COQ3* gene from pRS12A (22) into the *SmaI* site of pRS313 (31).

Yeast Strains. Mutant strains of *S. cerevisiae* are described in Table 1. DO103 and CC304.1 were constructed by the one-step gene replacement procedure (32) with a 5.0-kb fragment from pM $\Delta$ BL2, provided by D. Mueller (33). In pM $\Delta$ BL2, 840 bp of the *ATP2* gene is replaced with a 3.0-kb *Bgl*II fragment of YEp13 containing the *LEU2* gene (33). The *COQ3* null mutation in CC303.1 was derived as described previously (22, 24). *ATP2* and *COQ3* null mutants failed to grow on media containing the nonfermentable carbon source glycerol. Disruptions of the *SOD2* and *SOD1* genes were performed as described previously (34, 35). All gene disruptions were verified by Southern blot analysis (37) of yeast genomic DNA.

**Growth and Preparation of Yeast.** Yeast were grown in YPD media (38) (1% Bacto-yeast extract, 2% Bacto-peptone, 2% dextrose) at 30°C under atmospheric oxygen with shaking at 200 rpm. Yeast strains harboring the plasmids pRS313 or pCC-COQ3 were grown in synthetic complete media without histidine as described (38), to maintain selection for the plasmid. Cells were harvested in logarithmic phase ( $A_{600nm} = 0.1-1.0$ ) and washed twice with sterile distilled water (4°C, 1000 × g, 5 min). Washed cell pellets were resuspended in sterile 0.1 M sodium phosphate, pH 6.2/0.2% dextrose, to a density of 10<sup>6</sup> or 10<sup>7</sup> cells/ml ( $A_{600nm} = 0.1$  or 1.0, respectively). Cell dry weights were determined by drying cell samples in a 100°C oven overnight and weighing the dry cell samples.

Fatty Acid Sensitivity Assay. Yeast cell suspensions prepared above were aliquoted into 125-ml Ehrlenmeyer flasks, and either oleic (1:1 in ethanol) or linolenic acid (1:1 in ethanol) were added and then incubated at 30°C, 200 rpm under atmospheric oxygen (the final fatty acid concentration ranged from 8.2 to 820  $\mu$ M). Samples were taken prior to the addition of fatty acids and after 1, 2, and 4 h of incubation and plated on solid YPD medium containing 2% agar. Viable colonies were counted after three days of growth at 30 °C to determine the percent survivors. 100% was defined as the number of cells capable of forming colonies before treatment with fatty acids.

Alternatively, cells were stressed with various concentrations of linoleic acid, arachidonic acid, hydrogen peroxide, *t*-butyl hydroperoxide, cumene hydroperoxide, or paraquat, and the percent survivors was determined as described. Assays were similarly carried out in which 200  $\mu$ M trolox, vitamin E, or BHT were added to the cell suspensions prior to the addition of 82  $\mu$ M linolenic acid. Experiments were also performed in which yeast cell suspensions treated with 820  $\mu$ M oleic or linolenic acid were incubated in the presence of 100% nitrogen rather than atmospheric oxygen. For these experi-

Table 1. Genotype and sources of S. cerevisiae strains

Strain	Genotype	Source
EG103	α leu2-3,112 his3Δ1 trp1-289a ura3-52	ref. 35
EG110	EG103-sod2Δ::TRP1	ref. 36
EG118	EG103-sod1 [a::URA3]	ref. 36
DO103	EG103-atp2 $\Delta$ ::LEU2	This study
FW103	EG103-coq3Δ::LEU2	ref. 25
FW110	FW103-sod24::TRP1	This study
CC2039	FW103-sod1 $\Delta a$ ::URA3	This study
W303.1B	α ade2-1 his3-11,15 leu2-3,112 trp1-1 ura3-1	ref. 37
CC303.1	W303.1B-coq3Δ::LEU2	This study
CC304.1	W303.1B-atp2∆::LEU2	This study

ments,  $N_2$  gas was bubbled gently through water and then delivered to side-arm Ehrlenmeyer flasks via tygon tubing. Samples for plating assays were removed by syringe via a septum placed over the side-arm.

**Preparation of Cell Lysates.** Yeast cell suspensions ( $A_{600nm} = 1.0$ ) were treated with 820  $\mu$ M linolenic acid and incubated for various times as described. Samples (50 ml) were harvested either before or after incubation with 820  $\mu$ M linolenic acid and washed twice with 40 ml of distilled water (4°C, 1000 × g, 5 min). Cell pellets were transferred to 13 × 100-mm glass culture tubes and resuspended in 0.3 ml of methanol/0.01% BHT. Glass beads (1 g) were added, and cells were lysed by vortexing (4 cycles, 30-s vortex, 30 s on ice), and the upper methanol layer was transferred to a microcentrifuge tube. The glass beads were washed once with 1 ml of methanol/0.01% BHT, the methanol layers were pooled, and following centrifugation (16,000 × g, 5 min, 4°C) the supernatants were assayed for autoxidation products.

**Detection of Hydroperoxides.** A modified ferrous oxidation/ xylenol orange assay (39) was used to determine the levels of hydroperoxides in yeast cell lysates. Samples of yeast cell lysates (0.1 ml) were added to 0.7 ml of methanol/0.01% BHT. Then 0.1 ml of Reagent A (2.5 mM ammonium ferrous(II) sulfate/0.25 M sulfuric acid), and 0.1 ml of Reagent B (40 mM BHT/1.25 mM xylenol orange in methanol) were added. Samples were incubated (30 min, room temperature), and the absorbance at 560 nm was measured. The amount of hydroperoxides present in the yeast cell lysates was determined from a hydrogen peroxide standard curve (H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>  $\varepsilon = 2.8 \times 10^4$  M<sup>-1</sup> cm<sup>-1</sup> in methanol at 233 nm) (40).

Detection of Thiobarbituric Acid Reactive Substances (TBARS). The levels of TBARS in yeast cell lysates were determined by the thiobarbituric acid assay (41) modified as follows. Samples of yeast cell lysates (0.1 ml) were mixed with 0.4 ml of methanol (0.01% BHT) and 0.5 ml of 1% thiobarbituric acid (prepared in 1% sulfuric acid) and incubated (100°C, 15 min). Samples were allowed to cool and after centrifugation (16,000 × g, 10 min); the absorbance at 532 nm was measured and corrected for by subtracting nonspecific turbidity at 600 nm (42). Levels of TBARS [malondialdehyde (MDA) equivalent] were determined with a MDA standard curve. MDA was prepared by incubating malonaldehyde bis-(dimethylacetal) in 1% sulfuric acid (MDA  $\varepsilon = 1.37 \times 10^4 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$  in 1% sulfuric acid at 245 nm) (43).

## RESULTS

Sensitivity of Q-Deficient Yeast to Polyunsaturated Fatty Acids. Wild-type and Q-deficient ( $coq3\Delta$ ) yeast strains were treated with either the monounsaturated oleic acid or the polyunsaturated linolenic acid, and viable cells were determined after various periods of incubation (Fig. 1). Wild-type yeast were partially sensitive when exposed to  $820 \,\mu$ M linolenic acid for 4 h in the presence of air. However, less than 1% of the  $coq3\Delta$  yeast were viable after 4 h of incubation with 820  $\mu$ M linolenic acid. Since  $coq3\Delta$  yeast are unable to respire, the hypersensitivity to linolenic acid might result from the respiration-defective phenotype. To test whether another respiration-defective strain also exhibits hypersensitivity to linolenic acid, a null mutant in the ATP2 gene (which encodes the  $\beta$ subunit of the ATPase) was constructed ( $atp2\Delta$ ). When treated with 820  $\mu$ M linolenic acid, the *atp2* $\Delta$  strain showed sensitivity similar to that of the parental wild-type strain. None of the strains were sensitive to oleic acid or to the addition of 0.025% ethanol as a control (data not shown), suggesting that the sensitivity stems from the susceptibility to linolenic acid.

Treatment with a 10-fold lower concentration of linolenic acid (82  $\mu$ M) generated results very similar to those shown in Fig. 1, while linolenic acid concentrations of 8.2  $\mu$ M or lower resulted in no cell killing by 4 h (data not shown). Q-deficient



FIG. 1. Q-deficient  $(coq3\Delta)$  yeast are hypersensitive to treatment with linolenic acid. Parental wild-type strain EG103  $(\bigcirc, \bullet)$ ,  $coq3\Delta$ strain FW103  $(\square, \blacksquare)$ , and  $atp2\Delta$  strain DO103  $(\triangle, \blacktriangle)$  were incubated in 0.2% dextrose/0.1 M sodium phosphate (pH 6.2) supplemented with either 820  $\mu$ M oleic  $(\bullet, \blacksquare, \blacktriangle)$  or linolenic  $(\bigcirc, \square, \triangle)$  acid at 30°C, 200 rpm in the presence of atmospheric oxygen. Samples were taken at various time points and plated on solid YPD medium to determine percent survivors. 100% is defined as the number of cells capable of forming colonies at the zero time point. Values are presented in log scale as mean  $\pm$  SD of three independent experiments.

yeast were also hypersensitive to treatment with 820  $\mu$ M arachidonic acid (5,8,11,14-eicostetraenoic acid) for 4 h, while under these conditions the wild-type and  $atp2\Delta$  strains were only partially sensitive (data not shown). Results similar to Fig. 1 were also obtained when *COQ3* and *ATP2* deletion constructs were prepared in another wild-type background (W303–1B, Table 1; data not shown). These results suggest that hypersensitivity to polyunsaturated fatty acids results from Q deficiency and is independent of strain background or respiration competence.

To confirm that the sensitivity of Q-deficient yeast to linolenic acid was due to the coq3 gene deletion, the COQ3 gene on a single copy plasmid (pCC-COQ3.3), or the plasmid alone (pRS313) was introduced into FW103 ( $coq3\Delta$ ). As shown in Fig. 2, the  $coq3\Delta$  strain harboring the COQ3 gene on



FIG. 2. Linolenic acid-sensitive phenotype of Q-deficient yeast can be rescued by the COQ3 gene on a single copy plasmid. Yeast strains FW103:PRS313 (Coq<sup>-</sup>) ( $\Box$ ,  $\blacksquare$ ) and FW103:pCC-COQ3 (Coq<sup>+</sup>) ( $\odot$ ,  $\bullet$ ) were incubated in the presence of 820  $\mu$ M oleic ( $\bullet$ ,  $\blacksquare$ ) or linolenic ( $\bigcirc$ ,  $\Box$ ) acid and atmospheric oxygen as described in Fig. 1. Values are expressed as mean  $\pm$  SD of three independent experiments.

a single copy plasmid showed only partial sensitivity similar to that of the wild-type strain (Fig. 1), while the  $coq3\Delta$  strain harboring the plasmid pRS313 was less than 1% viable by 4 h of incubation. Thus the COQ3 gene when present at one copy per cell protects the  $coq3\Delta$  strain from hypersensitivity to polyunsaturated fatty acids, suggesting that the hypersensitive phenotype results solely from the inability to produce Q.

Autoxidation Products in Yeast Strains Treated with Polyunsaturated Fatty Acids. To confirm that the hypersensitivity of Q-deficient yeast was due to autoxidation of linolenic acid, the levels of lipid peroxidation products in yeast stressed with linolenic acid were determined. Wild-type,  $coq3\Delta$ , and  $atp2\Delta$ strains were treated with 820  $\mu$ M linolenic acid, and the levels of hydroperoxides and TBARS in cells were determined over various periods of incubation (Fig. 3). Levels of hydroperoxides and TBARS were significantly higher in the hypersensitive  $coq3\Delta$  strain than in wild-type or  $atp2\Delta$  strain over the course of incubation. These results show a correlation between increased sensitivity to linolenic acid and levels of autoxidation products, suggesting that the hypersensitivity of the Qdeficient strain resulted from autoxidation of linolenic acid.



FIG. 3. Autoxidation products are elevated in Q-deficient yeast treated with linolenic acid. Wild-type EG103 ( $\bigcirc$ ),  $coq3\Delta$  FW103 ( $\square$ ), and  $atp2\Delta$  yeast DO103 ( $\triangle$ ) were incubated with 820  $\mu$ M linolenic acid as described in Fig. 1. Cell lysates were prepared at various times, and the levels of hydroperoxides (A) and TBARS (B) were determined as described in *Materials and Methods*. (A) nmol of hydroperoxide detected per mg cell dry weight extracted. (B) nmol of TBARS detected per mg cell dry weight extracted. Values are expressed as mean  $\pm$  SD of three independent experiments.

Sensitivity of Q-Deficient Yeast to Nonlipid Agents Inducing Oxidative Stress. The above results suggest that QH<sub>2</sub> plays an important role in vivo in protecting cells from the toxic effects of autoxidation products of polyunsaturated fatty acids. To investigate whether the Q-deficient yeast are sensitive to other types of oxidative stress, agents were examined that do not affect wild-type yeast but profoundly inhibit growth of yeast strains deficient in superoxide dismutase genes (44). Plate growth assays showed that both wild-type and  $coq3\Delta$ yeast were resistant to treatment with 100% oxygen and to the redox cycling drug paraquat (data not shown). In other plate growth assays with t-butyl hydroperoxide or cumene hydroperoxide, the sensitivity of the  $coq3\Delta$  and wild-type strains were identical. In fact in these assays, the variability between different wild-type laboratory strains of S. cerevisiae was greater than the difference between the isogenic wild-type and  $coq3\Delta$  strains (data not shown). Survivor curves were also determined for wild-type and  $coq3\Delta$  strains treated with hydrogen peroxide, t-butyl hydroperoxide, cumene hydroperoxide, or paraquat. In general, both wild-type and  $coq3\Delta$  yeast were sensitive to these agents in a time- and concentrationdependent manner, with no significant differences in sensitivity between wild-type and  $coq3\Delta$  strains (data not shown). These results indicate that the presence or absence of Q (and hence QH<sub>2</sub>) makes no difference in the susceptibility to a variety of oxidative stress conditions.

Antioxidants Added Exogenously Partially Protect Q-Deficient Mutants to Linolenic Acid Treatment. To examine the effect of exogenously added antioxidants on the sensitivity of both wild-type and Q-deficient yeast to linolenic acid, BHT,  $\alpha$ -tocopherol, and the more aqueous soluble  $\alpha$ -tocopherol analog trolox were added to yeast prior to the addition of 82  $\mu$ M linolenic acid. The effects after 4 h of incubation in the presence of air are shown in Fig. 4. Trolox,  $\alpha$ -tocopherol, and BHT dramatically increased the percent survivors of both the wild-type and  $coq_3\Delta$  strains. The ability of free radical scavengers to protect cells from linolenic acid provides strong evidence that autoxidation products of linolenic acid are responsible for initiating cell killing. A low oxygen environment provided by flushing the culture flasks with nitrogen

provided a degree of protection that was comparable with that afforded by antioxidants (data not shown).

Yeast Deficient in Superoxide Dismutase (SOD) Do Not Show Enhanced Sensitivity to Autoxidation Products of Linolenic Acid. Bilinski et al. (45) reported that wild-type yeast shifted from anaerobic to aerobic growth conditions were sensitive to treatment with linolenic acid; under these same conditions sod1 mutants exhibited enhanced sensitivity. To determine whether combined deficiencies in SOD and Q result in enhanced sensitivity to linolenic acid, the SOD1 or SOD2 loci were disrupted in the  $coq3\Delta$  strain. Fig. 5 shows that yeast strains with disruptions of either SOD1, SOD2, or both SOD1 and SOD2 (Table 1) (34, 35) are no more sensitive to linolenic acid treatment than the parental wild-type strain. In  $coq3\Delta$ yeast strains, the additional deletion of SOD1 or SOD2 does not alter the hypersensitivity to linolenic acid. Thus in the total absence of Q, the presence or absence of SOD makes no difference with respect to the hypersensitivity to products of linolenic acid autoxidation.

## DISCUSSION

These results show that Q-deficient  $(coq3\Delta)$  yeast are hypersensitive to autoxidation products of polyunsaturated fatty acids. Less than 1% of  $coq3\Delta$  cells are viable following a 4-h incubation with 820 or 82  $\mu$ M linolenic acid. In contrast, about 50-70% of wild-type cells subjected to this treatment remain viable (Figs. 1 and 5). Q-deficient yeast are also sensitive to other polyunsaturated fatty acids that readily autoxidize (such as arachidonic acid) but are unaffected by the monounsaturated oleic acid that does not undergo this chemistry. The sensitivity to autoxidized polyunsaturated fatty acids is manifested in two strains of  $coq3\Delta$  yeast from different backgrounds. Importantly,  $coq3\Delta$  strains can regain resistance by the introduction of the yeast COQ3 gene on a single copy plasmid, indicating that the sensitive phenotype results solely from the inability to produce Q (and hence  $QH_2$ ). The hypersensitivity of  $coq3\Delta$  strains is not a secondary effect of the inability to respire, since respiratory defective atp2 null



FIG. 4. Effect of exogenously added anti-oxidants on sensitivity to linolenic acid. Wild-type EG103 ( $\blacksquare$ ),  $coq3\Delta$  FW103 ( $\blacksquare$ ), and  $atp2\Delta$ strain DO103 ( $\square$ ) were treated with 82  $\mu$ M linolenic acid (control) or prior to addition of linolenic acid, 200 µM of either trolox, vitamin E, or BHT were added to the cell suspensions. Incubations (5 ml) were performed in  $17 \times 150$  mm test tubes, which afforded less aeration and resulted in slightly more survivors at the 4-h time point. After 4 h, aliquots were plated on solid YPD media to determine percent survivors. Values are expressed as mean  $\pm$  SD of two independent experiments.



FIG. 5. Sensitivity of wild-type, Q-deficient and SOD-deficient yeast to linolenic acid. Yeast strains EG103 (wild-type), FW103  $(coq3\Delta)$ , EG118  $(sod1\Delta)$ , EG110  $(sod2\Delta)$ , EG133  $(sod1\Delta, sod2\Delta)$ , CC2039 ( $coq3\Delta$ ,  $sod1\Delta$ ), and FW110 ( $coq3\Delta$ ,  $sod2\Delta$ ) were incubated with 82  $\mu$ M linolenic acid as described in Fig. 1. Percent survivors determined after 4 h of incubation are as indicated or are less than 1% (asterisk). Values are expressed as mean  $\pm$  SD of two measurements.

mutants (which fail to produce the  $\beta$  subunit of the ATPase) behave similarly to the parental wild-type strains.

Products of linolenic acid autoxidation are numerous and include hydroxy acids, oxo acids, epoxy acids, and aldehydes (46). The identity of the product(s) mediating the toxicity are not known. As a result of linolenic acid treatment, two different classes of autoxidation products, lipid peroxides and late stage aldehyde products (TBARS), were found to be markedly elevated in cell extracts of  $coq3\Delta$  yeast as compared with wild-type yeast. Such products in the  $atp2\Delta$  yeast accumulated to intermediate levels-both lipid peroxides and TBARS in the  $atp2\Delta$  strain were significantly lower than in the  $coq3\Delta$  strain, yet significantly elevated when compared with wild-type. Perhaps under conditions of respiratory deficiency  $(atp2\Delta)$  it is more difficult for the cell to maintain adequate levels of QH<sub>2</sub>. In this regard, it should be interesting to assess the effect of long term linolenic acid treatment on the  $atp2\Delta$ and wild-type yeast strains. The hypersensitivity of the Qdeficient mutants can be rescued by the addition of a variety of antioxidants including BHT, a-tocopherol, or trolox, an  $\alpha$ -tocopherol analog. Incubation of the yeast in the presence of nitrogen also rescues the sensitivity to linolenic acid. These data support the idea that the autoxidation products of polyunsaturated fatty acids mediate the cell killing and that QH<sub>2</sub> plays an important role in vivo in protecting eukaryotic cells from these products.

To investigate other aspects of protection that might be afforded by QH<sub>2</sub>, the Q-deficient yeast strains were subjected to nonlipid oxidative stress agents. In contrast to the sensitivity to autoxidation breakdown products of polyunsaturated fatty acids, other types of oxidative stress do not specifically target the Q-deficient cells. For example, wild-type and  $coq3\Delta$  yeast show very similar sensitivities to hydrogen peroxide, cumene hydroperoxide, and *t*-butyl hydroperoxide. Thus *in vivo* QH<sub>2</sub> does not appear to afford protection against hydroxyl or alkoxy radicals. Q-deficient and wild-type yeast are also equally resistant to exposure to 100% O<sub>2</sub> and to paraquat. Thus it seems unlikely that Q/QH<sub>2</sub> *in vivo* is involved in scavenging superoxide per se.

S. cerevisiae synthesize only monounsaturated fatty acids (28), which are very resistant to lipid peroxidation (26). The relative resistance of yeast like Schizosaccharomyces pombe and S. cerevisiae to oxidative stress in most laboratory cultures may stem from the absence of polyunsaturated fatty acids (47). However, polyunsaturated fatty acids can easily be introduced since yeast cells take up exogenous fatty acids and rapidly incorporate them into glycerolipids (29). S. cerevisiae grown aerobically in the presence of polyunsaturated fatty acids will preferentially internalize and incorporate them into membranes rather than expend energy synthesizing fatty acids de novo. Polyunsaturated fatty acids can comprise more than 50% of the total cellular fatty acids of wild-type yeast if they are provided in the growth media (30). Under these conditions, oleic acid production is inhibited due to the rapid repression of the OLE1 gene, which encodes the enzyme  $\Delta$ -9 fatty acid desaturase (30, 48). Since the polyunsaturated fatty acid composition can range from 0 to 50% depending on the culture conditions, S. cerevisiae provides a useful model system to evaluate the protection afforded by various antioxidants, including both small molecule scavengers and the enzymes that scavenge reactive oxygen species. In fact these organisms provide a means of ascertaining the targets of reactive oxygen species other than polyunsaturated fatty acids. For example, Janda et al. (47) found that hydrogen peroxide inhibits sugar transport in S. pombe, indicating a direct effect of the oxidant species on membrane proteins. In this regard it is interesting that QH<sub>2</sub> may also be involved in protein repair, as it has recently been found to be capable of reducing both ferrylmyoglobin and metmyoglobin to oxymyoglobin (49). There is evidence indicating that  $QH_2$  may protect mitochondrial proteins and DNA against oxidative damage as well (50, 51).

The experiments reported here show that aerobically grown Q-deficient yeast are hypersensitive to linolenic acid. Our data provide an explanation for the previous observations of Bilinski et al. (45), that sensitivity of S. cerevisiae to treatment with linolenic acid required a transfer from anaerobic growth conditions to aerobic. Under such conditions, these investigators found that wild-type yeast were sensitive to linolenic autoxidation products, with sod1 mutants exhibiting the most sensitivity. Q levels in anaerobically grown yeast are 30-300fold lower than in aerobically grown cells (52, 53). Based on our findings with the  $coq3\Delta$  yeast, it follows that the much lower QH<sub>2</sub> levels resulting from anaerobic growth conditions would be expected to sensitize both wild-type and SOD1-deficient yeast to the products of linolenic acid autoxidation. Under aerobic growth conditions (in the absence of anaerobic pretreatment) sod1 and/or sod2 mutants do not exhibit hypersensitivity to linolenic acid (ref. 45 and Fig. 5). This finding is consistent with the observation that the autoxidation of  $QH_2$ (which impairs the effectiveness of  $QH_2$  as an antioxidant, ref. 54) is independent of SOD (55). Our data also indicate that in the complete absence of Q, a deficiency in SOD1 or SOD2 has no additional affect on the hypersensitivity to products of linolenic autoxidation. This result indicates that SOD does not play a direct role in protecting cells from the products of autoxidized polyunsaturated fatty acids. Noack et al. (56) find a considerable protection of mitochondria against lipid peroxidation as long as respiratory substrates are present. Thus a fully oxidized state of Q may be analogous to either a profound decrease in Q (anaerobic growth) or the absence of Q (coq3) deletion mutant) and may render membrane lipids susceptible to peroxidation. Many in vitro studies suggest that QH2 functions as a potent lipid soluble antioxidant and inhibits the formation of lipid peroxidation products (5-7). The studies presented here confirm this idea and in addition provide evidence that QH<sub>2</sub> acts in this capacity in vivo.

We thank Drs. Edith B. Gralla, Joan S. Valentine, and Lisa Ellerby for helpful discussions regarding oxidative stress conditions and E. B. Gralla for comments on this manuscript. We also thank Drs. E. B. Gralla and J. S. Valentine for providing yeast strains and the disruption constructs of the *SOD1* and *SOD2* yeast genes, David Mueller for providing the *ATP2* disruption construct, and Alexander Tzagoloff for providing W303–1B and the original *coq* mutant strains. This study was supported by National Institutes of Health Public Health Service Grant GM45952. Parts of this work were presented at the American Society for Biochemistry and Molecular Biology Annual Meeting and published in abstract form (57).

- 1. Trumpower, B. L. (1990) J. Biol. Chem. 265, 11409-11412.
- 2. Trumpower, B. L. (1981) J. Bioenerg. Biomemb. 13, 1-24.
- Kalen, A., Norling, B., Appelkvist, E. L. & Dallner, G. (1987) Biochim. Biophys. Acta 926, 70-78.
- Takada, M., Ikenoya, S., Yuzuriha, T. & Katayama, K. (1982) Biochim. Biophys. Acta 679, 308-314.
- 5. Beyer, R. E. (1992) Biochem. Cell Biol. 70, 390-403.
- 6. Ernster, L. & Forsmark-Andree, P. (1993) Clin. Invest. 71, S60-S65.
- 7. Ernster, L. & Dallner, G. (1995) Biochim. Biophys. Acta 1271, 195-204.
- Forsmark, P., Aberg, F., Norling, B., Nordenbrand, K., Dallner, G. & Ernster, L. (1991) FEBS Lett. 285, 39-43.
- Matsura, T., Yamada, K. & Kawasaki, T. (1992) Biochim. Biophys. Acta 1127, 277-283.
- Kagan, V., Serbinova, E. & Packer, L. (1990) Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun. 169, 851–857.
- 11. Mukai, K., Kikuchi, S. & Urano, S. (1990) *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 1035, 77-82.
- Stoyanovsky, D. A., Osipov, A. N., Quinn, P. J. & Kagan, V. E. (1995) Arch. Biochem. Biophys. 323, 343–351.
- 13. Mohr, D., Bowry, V. W. & Stocker, R. (1992) Biochim. Biophys. Acta 1126, 247-254.

- Stocker, R., Bowry, V. W. & Frei, B. (1991) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 88, 1646–1650.
- Tribble, D. L., van den Berg, J. J. M., Motchnik, P. A., Ames, B. N., Lewis, D. M., Chait, A. & Krauss, R. M. (1994) *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* 91, 1183–1187.
- Hanaki, Y., Sugiyama, S., Ozawa, T. & Ohno, M. (1991) N. Engl. J. Med. 325, 814–815.
- Navab, M., Fogelman, A. M., Berlinder, J. A., Territo, M. C., Demer, L. L., Frank, J. S., Watson, A. D., Edwards, P. A. & Lusis, A. J. (1995) *Am. J. Cardiol.* 76, 18C–23C.
- Ames, B. N., Gold, L. S. & Willett, W. C. (1995) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 92, 5258–5265.
- Tzagoloff, A., Akai, A. & Needleman, R. B. (1975) J. Biol. Chem. 250, 8228–8235.
- Tzagoloff, A., Akai, A. & Needleman, R. B. (1975) J. Bacteriol. 122, 826–831.
- 21. Tzagoloff, A. & Dieckmann, C. L. (1990) Microbiol. Rev. 54, 211–225.
- Clarke, C. F., Williams, W. & Teruya, J. H. (1991) J. Biol. Chem. 266, 16636–16644.
- Shepherd, J. A., Poon, W. W., Myles, D. C. & Clarke, C. F. (1996) Tetrahedron Lett. 37, 2395–2398.
- Marbois, B. N., Hsu, A., Pillai, R., Colicelli, J. & Clarke, C. F. (1994) Gene 138, 213–217.
- Marbois, B. N., Xia, Y-R., Lusis, A. J. & Clarke, C. F. (1994) Arch. Biochem. Biophys. 313, 83-88.
- 26. Porter, N. A. (1986) Acc. Chem. Res. 19, 262-268.
- Ernster, L. (1993) in Active Oxygens, Lipid Peroxides, and Antioxidants, ed. Yagi, K. (CRC, Boca Raton, FL), pp 1-38.
- Paltauf, F., Kohlwein, S. D. & Henry, S. A. (1992) in *The Molecular and Cellular Biology of the Yeast Saccharomyces*, eds. Jones, E. W., Pringle, J. R. & Broach, J. R. (Cold Spring Harbor Lab. Press, Plainview, NY), Vol. 2, pp. 415–500.
- 29. Kohlwein, S. D. & Paltauf, F. (1983) *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 792, 310-317.
- 30. Bossie, M. A. & Martin, C. E. (1989) J. Bacteriol. 171, 6409-6413.
- 31. Sikorski, R. S. & Hieter, P. (1989) Genetics 122, 19-27.
- 32. Rothstein, R. J. (1983) Methods Enzymol. 101, 202-211.
- 33. Mueller, D. M. (1988) J. Biol. Chem. 263, 5634-5639.
- 34. Gralla, E. B. & Valentine, J. S. (1991) J. Bacteriol. 173, 5918-5920.
- Liu, X. F., Elashvili, I., Gralla, E. B., Valentine, J. S., Lapinskas, P. & Culotta, V. C. (1992) J. Biol. Chem. 267, 18298-18302.
- 36. Repetto, B. & Tzagoloff, A. (1989) Mol. Cell. Biol. 9, 2695-2705.

- Brown, T. (1993) in *Current Protocols in Molecular Biology*, eds. Ausubel, F. M., Brent, R., Kingston, R. E., Moore, D. D., Seidman, J. G., Smith, J. A. & Struhl, K. (Wiley, New York), pp. 2.9.1–2.9.15.
- Kaiser, C., Michaelis, S. & Mitchell, A. (1990) Methods in Yeast Genetics: A Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory Course Manual (Cold Spring Harbor Lab. Press, Plainview, NY).
- Jiang, Z. Y., Woollard, A. C. S. & Wolff, S. P. (1991) Lipids 26, 853–856.
- 40. Jiang, Z. Y., Hunt, J. V. & Wolff, S. P. (1992) Anal. Biochem. 202, 384-389.
- 41. Jain, S. K. (1988) Biochim. Biophys. Acta 937, 205-210.
- 42. Du, Z. & Bramlage, W. J. (1992) J. Agric. Food. Chem. 40, 1566–1570.
- 43. Esterbauer, H. & Cheeseman, K. H. (1990) Methods Enzymol. 186, 407-421.
- 44. Gralla, E. B. & Kosman, D. J. (1992) Adv. Genet. 30, 251-319.
- Bilinski, T., Litwinska, J., Blaszczynski, M. & Bajus, A. (1989) Biochim. Biophys. Acta 1001, 102–106.
- 46. Mlakar, A. & Spiteller, G. (1994) Biochim. Biophys. Acta 1214, 209-220.
- Janda, S., Gille, G., Sigler, K. & Hofer, M. (1993) Folia Microbiol. 38, 135–140.
- McDonough, V. M., Stukey, J. E. & Martin, C. E. (1992) J. Biol. Chem. 267, 5931–5936.
- Mordente, A., Martorana, G. E., Santini, S. A., Miggiano, G. A. D., Petitti, T., Giardina, B., Battino, M. & Littarru, G. P. (1993) *Clin. Invest.* 71, S92–S96.
- Forsmark-Andree, P. & Ernster, L. (1994) Mol. Aspects Med. 15, S73–S81.
- 51. Forsmark-Andree, P., Dallner, G. & Ernster, L. (1995) Free Radical Biol. Med. 19, 749-757.
- 52. Gordon, P. A. & Stewart, P. R. (1969) Biochim. Biophys. Acta 177, 358-360.
- 53. Lester, R. L. & Crane, F. L. (1959) J. Biol. Chem. 234, 2169-2175.
- Frei, B., Kim, M. C. & Ames, B. N. (1990) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 87, 4879–4883.
- 55. Schultz, J. R., Ellerby, L. M., Gralla, E. B., Valentine, J. S. & Clarke, C. F. (1996) *Biochemistry* **35**, 6595–6603.
- Noack, H., Kube, U. & Augustin, W. (1994) Free Radical Res. 20, 375–386
- 57. Do, T. Q., Schultz, J. R. & Clarke, C. F. (1995) FASEB J. 9, A1311 (abstr.).