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Inhibition of rat intestinal retinyl ester hydrolase by  $\alpha$ -tocopherol (vitamin E) and phylloquinone (vitamin  $K_1$ ) was non-competitive. Maximum inhibition occurred within 10min, and, particularly with  $\alpha$ -tocopherol, was substantially reversible. Consequently, increasing tissue concentrations of retinyl esters, which might occur with advancing age or changes in diet, would not diminish the effects of the inhibitors. These data further support the notion that  $\alpha$ -tocopherol may, at physiological concentrations, influence the concentration of vitamin A and its ester in tissues.

Vitamin A is essential for vision, reproduction and epithelial differentiation (Moore, 1960; Wolf, 1977; DeLuca, 1978); consequently, knowledge of factors that affect its homoeostasis, such as  $\alpha$ tocopherol, is desirable. Diets deficient in  $\alpha$ tocopherol result in lower amounts of total vitamin A stores in liver (Moore, 1940; Davies & Moore, 1941). The mechanism of this effect had not been elucidated, but the antioxidant properties of  $\alpha$ tocopherol had been excluded as a probable cause (Sondergaard, 1973). A more-recent study has confirmed the effect of low dietary  $\alpha$ -tocopherol on the concentration of total vitamin A in liver, and has demonstrated that total vitamin A concentrations in kidney and intestine are only marginally affected (Napoli et al., 1984). As might be expected, the concentrations of retinyl esters in liver were diminished by  $\alpha$ -tocopherol depletion, but so were those in kidney and intestine. In contrast, the retinol concentrations were increased in all three tissues. Experiments conducted in vitro showed that at least one mechanism was through inhibition of retinyl ester hydrolysis. The same paper also demonstrated that phylloquinone could inhibit retinyl ester hydrolysis in vitro.

The present communication reports that inhibition of retinyl ester hydrolysis by  $\alpha$ -tocopherol or phylloquinone is non-competitive, and substantially reversible, and that neither seems to require metabolic activation.

# Experimental

### General

Retinyl [9,10-3H]palmitate (specific radioactivity 807600d.p.m./nmol) was synthesized as described previously (Napoli et al., 1984). 2-ambo- $\alpha$ -Tocopherol (vitamin E), phylloquinone (vitamin  $K_1$ ) and rat intestinal acetone-extracted powder were purchased from Sigma Chemical Co., St. Louis, MO, U.S.A. Potassium carbonate/borate buffer, pH 10, was purchased from Fisher Scientific Co., Pittsburgh, PA, U.S.A. Radioactivity was measured in 5 ml of Liquiscint (National Diagnostics, Sommerville, NJ, U.S.A.) with an LKB <sup>1217</sup> Rackbeta liquid-scintillation counter.

## Assay of retinyl ester hydrolase activity

Assays were conducted by a modification of the procedure of Prystowsky et al. (1981). Standard assay conditions consisted of rat intestinal acetoneextracted powder (lOOng of protein) in 0.2ml of sodium cholate  $(2.5\%)$  and 50 mM-Tris/maleate, pH 8.0 (buffer A). Substrate and/or inhibitors were added in  $5 \mu$  of ethanol. Incubations were conducted at 37°C. The reaction was quenched by adding methanol/chloroform/heptane (28:25:20, by vol.) (3.25 ml) and potassium carbonate/borate buffer (1.0ml) as described by Belfrage & Vaughan (1969). A portion (1 ml) of the upper phase, which contained the [3H]palmitic acid, was taken for measurement of radioactivity. The reaction rate was linear for 90min and from 25 to 500ng of protein. Reactions were conducted at initial-rate conditions (less than 10% of substrate converted into product). Controls were generated by conducting reactions in the absence of protein.

### Results and discussion

The nature of inhibition of retinyl ester hydrolase by  $\alpha$ -tocopherol (vitamin E) and phylloquinone (vitamin  $K_1$ ) was examined with acetoneextracted powders prepared from rat intestine. Acetone-extracted powders were used because extraction of tissue homogenates with organic solvent removes lipids, thus providing protein depleted of endogenous effectors and/or substrates. Inhibition by either  $\alpha$ -tocopherol or phylloquinone was non-competitive, as shown by Lineweaver-Burk plots of the relationships between reaction rate and substrate concentration in the presence and in the absence of the inhibitors (Fig. 1). The apparent  $K_m$ , determined from the graph, was  $44 \mu M$ . The apparent  $V_{\text{max}}$  (nmol/min per mg of protein) was 167 in the absence of inhibitors.  $\alpha$ -Tocopherol (200 $\mu$ M) lowered the apparent  $V_{\text{max}}$  to 63 nmol/min per mg (62%) inhibition). Phylloquinone  $(50 \,\mu\text{M})$  lowered the apparent  $V_{\text{max}}$  to 43 nmol/min per mg (74%) inhibition). These data indicate that the inhibitors act by inactivating the hydrolase, or the hydrolaseretinyl ester complex, and not by competing with retinyl ester for the enzyme's active site. Thus the degree of inhibition depends on the concentrations of the enzyme and the inhibitor, and is independent of the retinyl ester concentration.

The degree of inhibition as a function of time was examined. Within a 10min incubation there was maximum inhibition (Table 1). The potency of inhibition by either  $\alpha$ -tocopherol or phylloquinone was unaffected by increasing the incubation time 3-fold. These results show that interaction between the hydrolase and the inhibitors is rapid, and, since there were no added cofactors, suggest that metabolic activation is not required for this function of  $\alpha$ -tocopherol or phylloquinone.

To determine whether inhibition was reversible, the following experiments were conducted. Retinyl ester hydrolase  $(50 \mu g)$  of protein from the acetoneextracted powder) was pre-incubated in buffer A with either 1  $\mu$ M- or 300  $\mu$ M- $\alpha$ -tocopherol for 10 min (Expt. 1) or for 30min (Expts. 2 and 3). At the end of the pre-incubation, the homogenates were diluted with buffer A to final protein concentrations of lOOng/0.2ml, i.e. standard assay conditions. The  $\alpha$ -tocopherol concentrations after dilution were  $1 \mu M$  and  $3 \mu M$  respectively.  $\alpha$ -Tocopherol was added to a portion of the homogenate that had been pre-incubated with  $300 \mu$ M- $\alpha$ -tocopherol to reestablish a concentration of  $300 \mu$ M. The retinyl





Activity [nmol/min per mg of

Table 1. Effect of incubation time on inhibition of retinyl palmitate hydrolysis by  $\alpha$ -tocopherol or phylloquinone For experimental details see the text. Values are the means $\pm$ s.D. for triplicate determinations.

protein $(\frac{6}{6}$ inhibition)]	
10 <sub>min</sub> $\sim 100$ km s $^{-1}$	$30 \,\mathrm{min}$
$96 + 12(0)$	$76 + 5(0)$
$33 + 2(66)$	$26+3(66)$
$63 + 3(34)$	$48 + 0.5(37)$





ester hydrolase activities of the three homogenates were compared. A similar experiment was performed with phylloquinone (Table 2). Pre-incubation with  $1\mu$ M- $\alpha$ -tocopherol or -phylloquinone did not affect the activity of the retinyl ester hydrolase (control). Pre-incubation and incubation with  $300 \mu$ M- $\alpha$ -tocopherol or  $100 \mu$ M-phylloquinone produced for the three experiments an average 9.5 fold or 3.3-fold decrease in the rate of hydrolysis respectively. In contrast, pre-incubation with the higher concentrations of  $\alpha$ -tocopherol, and subsequent dilution of the inhibitor before the incubation, restored hydrolase activity to a large extent, such that the rate was only 2-fold lower than the control rate. Qualitatively similar results were obtained with phylloquinone. Lack of complete recovery may be attributable to the hydrophobic nature of the inhibitors and the hydrolase (Harrison et al., 1979), which would tend to arrest dissociation in aqueous media.

Increasing the pre-incubation time did not affect the results. Thus these results are consistent with those of Table 1, and reinforce the conclusion that metabolism of the inhibitors is not essential for their action. The degree of restoration of hydrolase activity, and the inability of increased preincubation time to prevent restoration, suggests that no irreversible covalent interaction occurs between inhibitor and hydrolase.

We demonstrated recently that low dietary  $\alpha$ tocopherol not only decreases the steady-state concentration of total vitamin A in liver, but also decreases retinyl ester and increases retinol concentrations in liver, kidney and intestine. These studies performed in vivo were extended by studies done in vitro, which showed that  $\alpha$ -tocopherol inhibits retinyl ester hydrolase in liver, kidney and intestine, and that inhibition is unlikely to be a non-specific effect (Napoli et al., 1984). For example, the synthetic antioxidant NN'-diphenylp-phenylenediamine, the most effective vitamin E substitute known (Draper, 1980), did not inhibit retinyl ester hydrolase in vitro (Napoli et al., 1984), a result expected from its failure to reproduce the liver vitamin A-sparing effects of  $\alpha$ -tocopherol in vivo (Sondergaard, 1973).

The present paper provides additional evidence that  $\alpha$ -tocopherol influences tissue vitamin A stores through modulating the rate of retinyl ester hydrolysis. Since  $\alpha$ -tocopherol is a non-competitive inhibitor, its potency depends only on its concentration and the concentration of the hydrolases, and would be unaffected by the vitamin A concentration. Thus increased accumulation of vitamin A, with age or as a result of diet, would not affect the degree of interaction between  $\alpha$ -tocopherol and the hydrolase. The influence of  $\alpha$ tocopherol on the tissue concentrations of retinol and retinyl esters would be independent of the total vitamin A. Non-competitive inhibition by phylloquinone is not unexpected in view of its structural similarities to  $\alpha$ -tocopherol. Phylloquinone might affect the relative amounts of retinol and retinyl esters in vivo, if localization with respect to the hydrolase is important, rather than the total tissue concentration. The demonstration of such a role for phylloquinone, however, will require further work.

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