

similar to that suggested for deoxyribose can be invoked. The OH<sup>•</sup> scavengers would bind the metal and compete for it with the detector molecule. This would result in the decreased site-specific generation of OH<sup>•</sup> on deoxyribose, in the formation of the OH<sup>•</sup> scavenger radical and in its successive oxidation by the Fe<sup>3+</sup> generated by the Fenton reaction. This mechanism explains the apparent reaction of thiourea with H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> reported by Cederbaum *et al.* (1979), as in that paper H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> concentration was measured by the thiocyanate method, i.e. measuring Fe<sup>3+</sup> produced by Fenton reaction. The lack of correlation observed in the presence of formate may be due to the insufficient reactivity to induce Fe<sup>3+</sup> of the secondary radical produced by OH<sup>•</sup> attack on this scavenger. This agrees with the known inertness of carbonyl radicals to oxidation by Fe<sup>3+</sup> (Walling, 1975). The effects of OH<sup>•</sup> scavengers on deoxyribose damage and Fe<sup>2+</sup> oxidation are both pH-dependent. When the reactions are conducted in Mops buffer, pH 7 or 7.4, a parallel decreased inhibition, by all OH<sup>•</sup> scavengers, of the two phenomena is observed. However the dependence of the effects of the various OH<sup>•</sup> scavengers on the pH greatly differs. A rough order of sensitivity is ethanol, butan-1-ol, methanol, formate > thiourea > mannitol.

In summary, our results indicate that the ability of classical OH<sup>•</sup> scavengers to inhibit deoxyribose degradation correlates with their ability to decrease Fe<sup>2+</sup> oxidation by H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. If the mechanism that can explain the present findings is that proposed by Haber & Willstätter (1931) and by Walling (1975), some conclusions can be drawn. Not only mannitol and thiourea but other classical OH<sup>•</sup> scavengers can affect OH<sup>•</sup>-dependent damage to detector molecules by binding Fe<sup>2+</sup>. All these OH<sup>•</sup> scavengers act predominantly by this mechanism, as they are practically unable to protect against the damage produced by OH<sup>•</sup> radical generated at specific sites (Gutteridge, 1984) in experimental conditions where they do not interact with Fe<sup>2+</sup>. As it appears more and more evident that OH<sup>•</sup> generation by the Fenton reaction in biological systems is site-specific, the suggested use of OH<sup>•</sup> scavengers to indicate the involvement of OH<sup>•</sup> in such systems (Halliwell & Gutteridge, 1985) becomes questionable.

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## The deoxyribose assay: an assay both for 'free' hydroxyl radical and for site-specific hydroxyl radical production

The interaction of iron ions with hydrogen peroxide in biological systems can lead to formation of a highly-reactive tissue-damaging species that is thought to be the hydroxyl radical, <sup>•</sup>OH [1,2]. Various reactive iron–oxygen complexes may also exist, such as ferryl, perferryl and Fe<sup>2+</sup>/Fe<sup>3+</sup>/O<sub>2</sub> species (reviewed in [3–5]). There has thus been considerable interest in the development of methods for assaying <sup>•</sup>OH and related species in biological systems (reviewed in [6]).

The pentose sugar 2-deoxyribose is attacked by <sup>•</sup>OH radicals to yield a mixture of products (reviewed in [7]). On heating with thiobarbituric acid at low pH, some or all of these products react to form a pink chromogen that can be measured by its absorbance at 532 nm; this chromogen is indistinguishable from a thiobarbituric acid–malondialdehyde (TBA–MDA) adduct [8]. Generation of a TBA–MDA adduct from deoxyribose was thus introduced in 1981 [8,9] as a simple assay for <sup>•</sup>OH generation in biological systems, provided that suitable control experiments are performed. The assay has been widely used [8–10].

If deoxyribose is incubated with H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and an Fe<sup>2+</sup>–EDTA complex (or an Fe<sup>3+</sup>–EDTA complex in the presence of a reducing agent such as ascorbate or superoxide, O<sub>2</sub><sup>•−</sup>), the resulting deoxyribose degradation is inhibited by any added scavenger of <sup>•</sup>OH to an extent that depends only on the concentration of scavenger relative to deoxyribose, and on the scavenger's second-order rate constant for reaction with <sup>•</sup>OH [11–13]. It seems that, when <sup>•</sup>OH is generated by reaction of Fe<sup>2+</sup>–EDTA with H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, any <sup>•</sup>OH that escapes scavenging by the EDTA itself [14] enters 'free solution' and is equally accessible to deoxyribose and to any added scavenger. Indeed, the deoxyribose assay in the presence of Fe<sup>3+</sup>–EDTA, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and a reducing agent has been proposed as a simple 'test-tube' method for determining rate constants for the reaction of substrates with <sup>•</sup>OH [11,12].

If deoxyribose is incubated with H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and Fe<sup>2+</sup> (or Fe<sup>3+</sup> plus a reductant) in the absence of EDTA, it is still degraded into products that can react to form a TBA–MDA chromogen [6,8,9]. However, some <sup>•</sup>OH scavengers (such as ethanol, formate, dimethyl sulphoxide and Hepes) no longer inhibit the deoxyribose degradation whereas others, such as mannitol, thiourea and hydroxychloroquine, still do [11,13,15]. Two possible explanations of this observation have been advanced.

One is that the deoxyribose-degrading species is not  $\cdot\text{OH}$  but is some other oxidant, such as ferryl [10]. It is known that oxidants other than  $\cdot\text{OH}$  can degrade deoxyribose to a TBA-reactive material; such a deoxyribose-degrading oxidant is produced by reaction of human oxyhaemoglobin with equimolar  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ , for example [16]. An alternative explanation, which the authors prefer [5], is that unchelated iron ions added to deoxyribose-containing reaction mixtures can become weakly associated with deoxyribose. When the bound iron ions react with  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ , any  $\cdot\text{OH}$  formed would be expected to attack the deoxyribose immediately and scavengers could not easily prevent this 'site-specific' attack. This explanation was advanced by Gutteridge in 1984 [15]. Indeed, it is likely that most  $\cdot\text{OH}$  formation *in vivo* occurs by site-specific mechanisms [17–19].

Evidence for a weak binding of both  $\text{Fe}^{3+}$  [20] and  $\text{Fe}^{2+}$  (M. Grootveld, unpublished work) ions to deoxyribose at physiological pH values has been obtained.

If the explanation of Gutteridge [15] is correct, why do some  $\cdot\text{OH}$  scavengers (e.g. thiourea and mannitol) still inhibit the deoxyribose degradation? It seems unlikely that they do so by scavenging  $\cdot\text{OH}$  generated site-specifically. Gutteridge [15] further proposed that those scavengers that inhibit do so because they themselves have metal-binding capacity, and they act by removing iron ions from the deoxyribose and directing damage to themselves. Two recent studies [11,13] confirm that the metal-binding ability of a compound is a major determinant of its ability to inhibit deoxyribose degradation in the presence of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  and  $\text{Fe}^{2+}$  (or  $\text{Fe}^{3+}$  and a reducing agent). For example, citrate is a poor scavenger of  $\cdot\text{OH}$  but is a good inhibitor of deoxyribose degradation in the presence of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ ,  $\text{Fe}^{3+}$  and ascorbate [13].

The overall conclusion of Tadolini & Cabrini [22], that deoxyribose degradation under their reaction conditions is mediated by site-specific  $\cdot\text{OH}$  formation by iron ions bound to deoxyribose, is one with which we would agree fully, since it confirms our published work [15,20,12]. Binding of  $\text{Fe}^{2+}$  to deoxyribose or to any other metal-binding 'scavenger' is likely to alter the rate of autoxidation of  $\text{Fe}^{2+}$ ; part of our evidence for the binding of  $\text{Fe}^{2+}$  to deoxyribose is the ability of this sugar to decrease  $\text{Fe}^{2+}$  oxidation over a range of pH values (M. Grootveld, unpublished work). Thus a correlation between the ability of scavengers to block deoxyribose degradation and to diminish  $\text{Fe}^{2+}$  oxidation is explicable in terms of an iron-binding mechanism.

Some other aspects of the work of Tadolini & Cabrini [22] deserve comment, however. Deoxyribose reacts with  $\cdot\text{OH}$  with a rate constant of  $3.1 \times 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ , whereas Mes and Mops have values of  $(2.0\text{--}3.0) \times 10^9$  and  $(2.0\text{--}2.6) \times 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$  respectively [12]. Thus the comment "the concentration of the buffer was kept rather low (5 mM) to limit the possible interference due to its reaction with  $\text{OH}\cdot$ " is chemically illogical; over 50% of any free  $\cdot\text{OH}$  generated would react with the buffers! We

would suggest that Mes and Mops do not inhibit in their experiments simply because, having little or no metal-binding capacity, these buffers cannot interfere with site-specific  $\cdot\text{OH}$  generation and deoxyribose degradation involving iron ions bound to the sugar. Secondly, Tadolini & Cabrini [22] misquote the work of Moorhouse *et al.* [21]. Moorhouse *et al.* [21] did not specifically attribute the effect of thiourea in the cobalt/ $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ /deoxyribose system to a reaction of thiourea with  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ , as it stated by Tadolini and Cabrini. Moorhouse *et al.* (p. 226 in [21]) stated that "thiourea is having effects in addition to radical scavenging. Thiourea is known to react directly with  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  and *it may also bind metals*".

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