Accepted Manuscript

Substrate selectivity of human aldehyde oxidase 1 in reduction of nitroaromatic drugs

Takuo Ogiso, Tatsuki Fukami, Kenji Mishiro, Keigo Konishi, Jeffrey P. Jones, Miki Nakajima

PII: S0003-9861(18)30570-8

DOI: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.abb.2018.10.017

Reference: YABBI 7844

To appear in: Archives of Biochemistry and Biophysics

Received Date: 21 July 2018

Revised Date: 27 September 2018

Accepted Date: 23 October 2018

Please cite this article as: T. Ogiso, T. Fukami, K. Mishiro, K. Konishi, J.P. Jones, M. Nakajima, Substrate selectivity of human aldehyde oxidase 1 in reduction of nitroaromatic drugs, *Archives of Biochemistry and Biophysics* (2018), doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.abb.2018.10.017.

This is a PDF file of an unedited manuscript that has been accepted for publication. As a service to our customers we are providing this early version of the manuscript. The manuscript will undergo copyediting, typesetting, and review of the resulting proof before it is published in its final form. Please note that during the production process errors may be discovered which could affect the content, and all legal disclaimers that apply to the journal pertain.



Substrate Selectivity of Human Aldehyde Oxidase 1 in Reduction of Nitroaromatic Drugs

Takuo Ogiso^a, Tatsuki Fukami^{a,b}, Kenji Mishiro^c, Keigo Konishi^a, Jeffrey P. Jones^d, and Miki

Nakajima^{a, b}

^a Drug Metabolism and Toxicology, Faculty of Pharmaceutical Sciences, Kanazawa University, Kanazawa, Japan

^b WPI Nano Life Science Institute (WPI-NanoLSI), Kanazawa University, Kanazawa, Japan

^c Institute for Frontier Science Initiative, Kanazawa University, Kanazawa, Japan

^d Department of Chemistry, Washington State University, Pullman, Washington

To whom all correspondence should be sent:

Tatsuki Fukami

Drug Metabolism and Toxicology

Faculty of Pharmaceutical Sciences

Kanazawa University

Kakuma-machi, Kanazawa 920-1192, Japan

Tel: +81-76-234-4438 / Fax: +81-76-264-6282

E-mail: tatsuki@p.kanazawa-u.ac.jp

Abstract

Human aldehyde oxidase 1 (AOX1) catalyzes the oxidation of various drugs and endogenous compounds. Recently, we found that AOX1 catalyzed the reduction of drugs such as nitrazepam and dantrolene. In this study, we aimed to clarify the substrate selectivity of human AOX1 for the reduction of nitroaromatic drugs to obtain helpful information for drug development. We investigated whether 11 nitroaromatic drugs were reduced by AOX1 using recombinant AOX1 and human liver cytosol (HLC) in the presence of N^1 -methylnicotinamide, an electron donor to AOX1. We found that clonazepam, flunitrazepam, flutamide, nilutamide, nimesulide, and nimetazepam were substantially reduced by recombinant AOX1 and HLC, whereas azelnidipine, nifedipine, and nimodipine were slightly reduced and metronidazole and tolcapone were not reduced. Via structural analysis, we observed that nitroaromatic drugs reduced by AOX1 possessed a relatively electron-deficient nitro group. Since the addition of NADPH to human liver microsomes (HLM) did not increase the reductase activities of the drugs that were reduced by recombinant AOX1, it was determined that NADPH-dependent enzymes in microsomes, such as cytochrome P450, were not involved in this process. Inhibition studies using known AOX1 inhibitors supported the role of AOX1 in the reduction of drugs in HLC. In conclusion, this provides new information related to the substrate selectivity of human AOX1 for the reduction of nitroaromatic drugs.

 $\mathbf{2}$

1. Introduction

Drug-metabolizing enzymes metabolize over 70% of the drugs in our body to increase their hydrophilicity and promote their excretion. Drug metabolism reactions are classified into phase I and phase II reactions, and phase I reactions include oxidation, reduction, and hydrolysis. The aldo-keto reductase (AKR) and short-chain dehydrogenase/reductase (SDR) families are well-studied enzyme families that cause drug reduction. For example, AKR1C3 and carbonyl reductase 1 (CBR1) catalyze the reduction of doxorubicin [1,2] to detoxify it, and CBR1 reduces loxoprofen to form a pharmacologically-active metabolite [3].

Aldehyde oxidase 1 (AOX1) is known to catalyze the oxidation of drugs such as allopurinol and zaleplon in humans [4–6]. In recent years, AOX1 has received attention for its role in drug metabolism [7,8]. We recently found that AOX1 catalyzes the reduction of the aromatic nitro groups of nitrazepam and dantrolene to form arylamine metabolites [9,10]. In this reduction process, hydroxylamines, which are known to cause hepatotoxicity via binding to DNA or proteins [11] or reactive oxygen species [12], are likely formed as intermediates [9,10] (Fig. 1). Additionally, hydroxylamines are produced via oxidation of arylamines by enzymes, including cytochrome P450s [13] (Fig. 1). Therefore, the reduction of nitroaromatic drugs can increase hepatotoxicity, and some nitro group-containing drugs have been known to cause liver injury as a side effect [11].

Many nitroaromatic drugs are available on the market. Some of these drugs appear to be reduced at their nitro group in the human body [14,15], prompting us to speculate that nitroaromatic drugs other than nitrazepam and dantrolene can also be reduced by AOX1. In this study, we investigate the potential of human AOX1 to reduce nitroaromatic drugs and discuss the chemical structures of drugs reduced by AOX1.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Materials

Human liver cytosol (HLC) (pooled, n = 150) and human liver microsomes (HLM) (pooled, n = 50) were obtained from Corning (Corning, NY). Azelnidipine, clonazepam, dantrolene sodium salt, flunitrazepam, flutamide, nilutamide, nimetazepam, nitrazepam, and nifedipine were purchased from Wako Pure Chemical Industries (Osaka, Japan). Aminoflunitrazepam, aminonitrazepam, nimesulide, and nimodipine were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO). Tolcapone and metronidazole were purchased from Toronto Research Chemicals (Toronto, Canada) and LKT Laboratories (St. Paul, MN), respectively. N^{1} -Methylnicotinamide (MNA) was purchased from Cosmo Bio (Tokyo, Japan). Glucose-6-phosphate, glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase, and β -nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate (NADP⁺) were purchased from Oriental Yeast (Tokyo, Japan). Aminodantrolene, a reduced metabolite of dantrolene, was synthesized previously [10]. Recombinant AOX1 expressed in *Escherichia coli* was prepared previously [16]. All other chemicals and solvents were of the highest grade commercially available.

2.2. Synthesis of reduced metabolites of nitroaromatic drugs

2.2.1. Aminoclonazepam, aminoflutamide, aminonilutamide and aminonimetazepam

Clonazepam (10.8 mg, 34.2 μ mol), flutamide (20.0 mg, 72.9 μ mol), nilutamide (30.2 mg, 95.2 μ mol), or nimetazepam (4.6 mg, 15.6 μ mol) dissolved in ethanol (5 mL) was incubated for 12-87 hr with SnCl₂ (29.5-200.4 mg), a reducing agent. After we confirmed that these compounds were completely reduced via thin-layer chromatography (TLC), the reaction was quenched with saturated NaHCO₃ (aq., 3 mL). The formed amine was then extracted with ethyl acetate. The organic phase was dried at 37°C under a nitrogen gas stream and evaporated with an oil pump. ¹H NMR analysis was performed in CDCl₃ with a JEOL JNM ECA400 (400 MHz) spectrometer to determine the structure of the obtained amine. The chemical shifts

were shown in supplemental Table S1.

2.2.2. Aminonimesulide and aminotolcapone

Nimesulide (26.0 mg, 84.3 μ mol) or tolcapone (10.7 mg, 39.2 μ mol) were dissolved in ethyl acetate (5 mL), which was mixed with 10% activated Pd/C (2.6 mg or 2.0 mg) and stirred for 1 hr or 5 min in a hydrogen atmosphere. After we confirmed that these compounds were completely reduced via TLC, the mixture was filtered through a pad of Celite to remove the catalyst and dried at 37°C under a nitrogen gas stream. The residue was dissolved in ethyl acetate, and hexane was added to the ethyl acetate solution to form a precipitate. The precipitate was collected, washed with diethyl ether, and dried under reduced pressure. ¹H NMR analysis was performed in CDCl₃ with a JEOL JNM ECA400 (400 MHz) spectrometer to determine the structure of the obtained amine.

2.2.3. Aminoazelnidipine, aminonifedipine, and aminonimodipine

Azelnidipine (5.9 mg, 10.1 μ mol) or nimodipine (8.9 mg, 21.3 μ mol) were dissolved in ethyl acetate (5 mL), and nifedipine (14.2 mg, 41.0 μ mol) was dissolved in methanol (5 mL); these compounds were mixed with 10% activated Pd/C (2.0 mg) and stirred for 5 min-31 hr in a hydrogen atmosphere. After we confirmed that these compounds were completely reduced via TLC, the mixture was filtered through a pad of Celite to remove the catalyst and dried at 37°C under a nitrogen gas stream. The formed amine was dried under reduced pressure. ¹H NMR analysis was performed in CDCl₃ with a JEOL JNM ECA400 (400 MHz) spectrometer to determine the structure of the obtained amine.

2.2.4. Aminometronidazole

Fifty microliters of 4 M HCl in ethyl acetate was added to metronidazole (25.0 mg) dissolved in 1,4-dioxane (5 mL). The mixture was stirred for 10 min and concentrated *in vacuo*. The residue was dissolved in methanol (1 mL) and stirred with 10% activated Pd/C (25.0 mg) in a hydrogen atmosphere. After we confirmed that these compounds were completely reduced via TLC, the mixture was filtered through a pad of Celite to remove the

 $\mathbf{5}$

catalyst and mixture was dried at 37°C under a nitrogen gas stream. The formed amine was dissolved in methanol, and the precipitate that was formed by adding ethyl acetate was dried under reduced pressure. ¹H NMR analysis was performed in D₂O with a JEOL JNM ECA400 (400 MHz) spectrometer to determine the structure of the obtained amine.

2.3. Reductase activities of nitroaromatic drugs by recombinant human AOX1, HLM, and HLC

To measure the reductase activities exhibited toward the 11 nitroaromatic drugs (azelnidipine, clonazepam, flunitrazepam, flutamide, metronidazole, nifedipine, nilutamide, nimesulide, nimetazepam, nimodipine, and tolcapone), a typical incubation mixture (final volume of 0.2 mL) containing 25 mM or 100 mM potassium phosphate buffer (pH 7.4), 67.5 nM recombinant human AOX1 or 0.5 mg/mL HLM or HLC, and in some cases, an NADPH-generating system (0.5 mM glucose-6-phosphate, 5 mM MgCl₂, and 1 U/mL glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase) or 2 mM MNA was prepared. After preincubation at 37°C for 2 min, reactions were initiated by addition of a substrate dissolved in DMSO at a final concentration of 100 μ M. The final concentration of DMSO was 1%. After a 3 hr incubation at 37°C, the reaction was terminated by the addition of 200 µL of ice-cold acetonitrile. The mixture was centrifuged at 20,380 g for 5 min, and 5 µL of the supernatant was subjected to liquid chromatography-tandem mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS) analysis using an LCMS-8040 (Shimadzu, Kyoto, Japan) equipped with an LC-20AD HPLC system. The column used was a Develosil ODS-UG-3 (2.0×150 mm, 3 µm; Nomura chemical, Seto, Japan). The flow rate was 0.2 mL/min, and the column temperature was 40°C. The mobile phase was (A) 0.1% formic acid and (B) acetonitrile containing 0.1% formic acid. Nitrogen was used as the nebulizer gas and drying gas. The operating parameters were optimized as follows: nebulizer gas flow, 3 L/min; drying gas flow, 15 L/min; desolvation line temperature, 300 °C; and heat block temperature, 400 °C. The LC-MS/MS was operated in the positive

electrospray mode. Each arylamine, a reductive metabolite of nitroaromatic drug, was monitored in multiple reaction monitoring (MRM) mode. The conditions of the mobile phase and m/z values for the detection and collision energies (CE) are summarized in Table 1. Analytical data were processed using LabSolutions (version 5.82.1; Shimadzu). Reductase activities toward dantrolene and nitrazepam, which have been demonstrated to be substrates of AOX1 in our previous studies [9,10], were also determined.

2.4. Kinetic analyses

Kinetic analyses were performed with the conditions summarized in supplemental Table S2. The assay conditions were determined to maintain linearity with respect to protein concentration and incubation time in advance. The kinetic parameters were estimated from a curve fitted using a computer program designed for nonlinear regression analysis (KaleidaGraph; Synergy Software, Reading, PA). The following equations were used: Michaelis-Menten equation: $V = V \max * [S] / (Km + [S])$

$$CLint = Vmax / Km$$

where V is the velocity of the reaction, S is the substrate concentration, Km is the Michaelis-Menten constant, and Vmax is the maximum velocity.

2.5. Inhibition studies

The reductase activities of nitroaromatic drugs in HLC were measured in the presence of $50 \ \mu\text{M}$ estradiol, estrone, and raloxifene (potent inhibitors of AOX1, 93 – 100% inhibition or IC₅₀ values $0.0057 - 0.43 \ \mu\text{M}$ against phthalazine oxidation in HLC), ketoconazole, promazine, and simvastatin (moderate inhibitors of AOX1, 79 – 87% inhibition), diclofenac, metronidazole, and naloxone (non-inhibitors of AOX1, 0 – 9% inhibition) [17,18], or allopurinol [xanthine oxidoreductase (XOR) inhibitor]. The final concentration of nitroaromatic drugs were set at approximately the *K*m values obtained using HLC as follows;

clonazepam, nitrazepam: 25 μ M, flunitrazepam, dantrolene: 60 μ M, flutamide: 50 μ M, nilutamide: 200 μ M, nimesulide: 250 μ M, nimetazepam: 40 μ M. The final concentration of DMSO in the incubation mixture was 2%. The other conditions were same as described above.

2.6. Statistical analysis

Statistical analyses were performed using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Tukey's test. A value of P < 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

3. Result and Discussion

3.1. Reduction of nitroaromatic drugs by recombinant human AOX1

We investigated whether nitroaromatic drugs other than nitrazepam and dantrolene could be reduced by AOX1. The nitroaromatic drugs azelnidipine, clonazepam, flunitrazepam, flutamide, metronidazole, nifedipine, nilutamide, nimesulide, nimetazepam, nimodipine, and tolcapone were used. We chemically synthesized the corresponding reduced amino forms of these drugs as standards. These 11 nitroaromatic drugs were incubated with recombinant human AOX1 in the presence of MNA, which is a substrate of AOX1 to be oxidized and transfers electrons to AOX1 by its oxidation to enhance reduction of nitroaromatic compounds (Fig. 2). We found that 6 drugs (clonazepam, flunitrazepam, flutamide, nilutamide, nimesulide, and nimetazepam) were reduced by AOX1, whereas 3 drugs (azelnidipine, nifedipine, and nimodipine) were slightly reduced and metronidazole and tolcapone were not reduced. We confirmed that dantrolene and nitrazepam were also reduced by AOX1 as positive controls [9,10]. Thus, it was demonstrated that not all nitroaromatic drugs were reduced by AOX1.

3.2. Reduction of nitroaromatic drugs in HLM or HLC

We next investigated whether the 11 nitroaromatic drugs were reduced in HLC, where AOX1 is localized, or in HLM, which has other reductases present (Fig. 3). The reductase activities were detected in HLC for the 6 drugs that were reduced by recombinant human AOX1, and their reduction was significantly increased by the addition of MNA (Figs. 3A - F). Similar results were observed for the reduction of dantrolene and nitrazepam (Figs. 3G and H). These results suggest that the reductase activities in HLC are largely due to AOX1. Reductase activities were detected in HLC even in the absence of MNA, which may be due to the presence of a contaminant MNA or other endogenous electron donors for AOX1 in HLC.

The addition of NADPH in HLC did not increase the reductase activities toward clonazepam, flutamide, and nilutamide (Figs. 3A, C, and D), whereas it did increase the reductase activities toward flunitrazepam, nimesulide, and nimetazepam (Figs. 3B, E, and F). The increase in the activities of the latter group may imply the involvement of NADPH-dependent reductases, such as AKR enzymes, SDR enzymes, or NADPH-quinone oxidoreductase 1 (NQO1), although it remains unclear whether these enzymes can catalyze the reduction of nitro groups. The reductase activities related to clonazepam, flunitrazepam, flutamide, nilutamide, nimesulide, and nimetazepam in HLM were exceptionally lower than those observed in HLC and were not increased by NADPH (Figs. 3A - F), indicating that the contribution of cytochrome P450, a major drug-metabolizing enzyme that requires NADPH, is negligible.

Azelnidipine, metronidazole, nifedipine, nimodipine, and tolcapone, which were slightly reduced or not reduced by recombinant AOX1, were barely reduced in either HLC or HLM (Figs. 3I - M). Thus, it was demonstrated that for the nitroaromatic drugs analyzed in this study, their reduction in the human liver could be largely attributed to AOX1.

3.3. Kinetic analyses of the reductase activities in HLC

Kinetic analyses of the reduction of clonazepam, flunitrazepam, flutamide, nilutamide, nimesulide, and nimetazepam in HLC were performed in the presence or absence of MNA (Figs. 4A - F and Table 2). The kinetics of all of the examined drugs were fitted to a Michaelis-Menten kinetics curve. The Vmax values of all of the drugs were significantly increased by MNA, likely due to an enhancement of the AOX1 activity. A similar increase was observed in the reduction of dantrolene and nitrazepam (Figs. 4G and H, Table 2). The Km values of the flunitrazepam, flutamide, nimesulide, and nimetazepam reductase activities in the presence of MNA were similar to those in the absence of MNA, whereas the Km values of clonazepam and nilutamide were increased by MNA. The increase in the Km values may

be due to structural changes in the substrate binding site of AOX1 induced by MNA via an allosteric effect because the substrate binding site of AOX1 for reduction appears to be different from that observed for oxidation [19]. Collectively, the significant increase in the catalytic efficiency in the presence MNA supported the ability of AOX1 to reduce nitroaromatic drugs in the human liver.

3.4. Inhibitory effects of AOX1 inhibitors on the reductase activity of 6 nitroaromatic drugs in HLC

To investigate whether the reduction of 6 nitroaromatic drugs in the human liver was catalyzed by AOX1, not other enzymes that require MNA, an inhibition study was performed at Km values of nitroaromatic drugs in HLC. The used inhibitors (potent inhibitors, moderate inhibitors, and non-inhibitors of AOX1) were from papers by Obach (2004) [18] and Obach et al. (2004) [17]. If the inhibitory potency was observed as reported, the responsibility of AOX1 for the reduction of 6 nitroaromatic drugs in HLC could be explained. As a result, the reductase activities of all of the tested drugs were potently inhibited by estradiol, estrone, and raloxifene and were moderately inhibited by ketoconazole, promazine, and simvastatin, whereas the reductase activities were barely inhibited by diclofenac, metronidazole, and naloxone (Figs. 5A - F). Similar inhibitory potency has been observed for reduction of nitrazepam or dantrolene in our previous studies [9,10], and the almost same results have also been obtained in this study (Figs. 5G and H). We investigated the effects of allopurinol, a potent inhibitor of human XOR [20], because XOR has a similar substrate specificity and molecular structure to those of AOX1 [21] with a relatively high (approximately 50%) amino acid homology and requirement for a molybdenum cofactor [22]. The reductase activities of the 6 nitroaromatic drugs in addition to dantrolene and nitrazepam were not inhibited by allopurinol. Thus, the involvement of XOR was excluded. These results supported that AOX1 is the enzyme responsible for the reduction of these nitroaromatic drugs in HLC.

3.5. Structural characteristics of nitroaromatic drugs that can or cannot be reduced by human AOX1

The structures of the nitroaromatic drugs used in this study are shown in Fig. 6 and are categorized into two groups: those that were substantially reduced by human AOX1 or those that were barely by human AOX1. As shown in Fig. 6A, the nitroaromatic drugs that were reduced by human AOX1 tend to possess a relatively electron-deficient nitro group. For example, flutamide and nilutamide have a strongly electron-withdrawing trifluoromethyl group at the ortho position of the nitro group. Recently, it has been reported that 5-nitroquinoline, in which a nitro group is connected to an electron-deficient quinolone ring, is reduced by AOX1 [19]. This result is consistent with the above theory. However, as shown in Fig. 6B, the compounds that were not reduced by human AOX1 tend to have a relatively electron-rich nitro group. For example, the nitro group in metronidazole is likely to be relatively electron-rich due to electron donation from the N-1 atom in the imidazole ring. The nitro group in tolcapone would also be relatively electron-rich due to electron donation from the hydroxyl group at the ortho position of the nitro group. To definitively claim substrate selectivity of AOX1 for nitro reduction, further studies with an increased number of compounds are required. AOX1 can catalyze oxidation and hydrolysis [23]. AOX1 tends to oxidize electron-rich carbon atoms on heteroaromatic rings or hydrolyze amide bonds if an electron donating group is located at the ortho position of aniline [24]. The electron-rich carbon atom in AOX1 substrates loses electrons when it is oxidized, and the electron-deficient nitro group in AOX1 substrates receives electrons when it is reduced. These mechanisms are chemically reasonable. This study provides new knowledge about the reduction catalyzed by AOX1 in addition to oxidation and hydrolysis.

3.6. Significance of AOX1-mediated reduction of nitroaromatic drugs on pharmacokinetics

and toxicity

Interestingly, all of the nitroaromatic drugs that were found to be reduced by AOX1 have been reported to cause liver injury [25–32]. Because hydroxylamines formed via the reduction of nitroaromatic drugs may cause hepatotoxicity, AOX1-mediated reduction of nitroaromatic drugs is a concern because of their toxicity. Arylamine metabolites of the nitroaromatic drugs that were reduced by human AOX1 that were identified in this study were detected in blood [33–39]. Thus, the arylamine metabolites detected in humans would be produced by AOX1. By contrast, there are no reports of detectable reduced forms in human urine or blood for azelnidipine, metronidazole, nifedipine, and nimodipine, which were not reduced by AOX1. This study demonstrated that tolcapone, which is well-known to cause liver injury, was not reduced in HLM or HLC or by recombinant AOX1 (Figs. 2 and 3M), but its reduced form, aminotolcapone, was detected in urine [39]. Therefore, tolcapone can be reduced by intestinal bacteria, enzyme(s) in organs other than liver, or enzymes that require cofactors other than MNA and NADPH in the liver.

4. Conclusion

We examined the substrate selectivity of human AOX1 in the reduction of nitroaromatic drugs and found that compounds with a relatively electron-deficient nitro group were reduced by human AOX1. This study provides fundamental information about the substrate selectivity of human AOX1, and this information will be helpful to predict the possible toxicities of nitroaromatic drugs.

References

- [1] N. Kassner, K. Huse, H.J. Martin, U. Gödtel-Armbrust, A. Metzger, I. Meineke, J. Brockmöller, K. Klein, U.M. Zanger, E. Maser, L. Wojnowski, Carbonyl reductase 1 is a predominant doxorubicin reductase in the human liver, Drug Metab. Dispos. 36 (2008) 2113–2120.
- [2] R. Novotna, V. Wsol, G. Xiong, E. Maser, Inactivation of the anticancer drugs doxorubicin and oracin by aldo-keto Reductase (AKR) 1C3, Toxicol. Lett. 181 (2008) 1–6.
- [3] H. Ohara, Y. Miyabe, Y. Deyashiki, K. Matsuura, A. Kara, Reduction of drug ketones by dihydrodiol dehydrogenases, carbonyl reductase and aldehyde reductase of human liver, Biochem. Pharmacol. 50 (1995) 221–227.
- [4] E. Garattini, M. Fratelli, M. Terao, The mammalian aldehyde oxidase gene family., Hum. Genomics. 4 (2009) 119–30.
- [5] J.T. Barr, K. V. Choughule, S. Nepal, T. Wong, A.S. Chaudhry, C.A. Joswig-Jones, M. Zientek, S.C. Strom, E.G. Schuetz, K.E. Thummel, J.P. Jones, Why do most human liver cytosol preparations lack xanthine oxidase activity?, Drug Metab. Dispos. 42 (2014) 695–699.
- [6] B.G. Lake, S.E. Ball, J. Kao, A.B. Renwick, R.J. Price, J.A. Scatina, Metabolism of zaleplon by human liver: evidence for involvement of aldehyde oxidase, Xenobiotica. 32 (2002) 835–847.
- [7] D.C. Pryde, D. Dalvie, Q. Hu, P. Jones, R.S. Obach, T.D. Tran, Aldehyde oxidase: An enzyme of emerging importance in drug discovery, J. Med. Chem. 53 (2010) 8441–
 8460.
- [8] J.M. Hutzler, Y.S. Yang, D. Albaugh, C.L. Fullenwider, J. Schmenk, M.B. Fisher, Characterization of aldehyde oxidase enzyme activity in cryopreserved human hepatocytes, Drug Metab. Dispos. 40 (2012) 267–275.

- K. Konishi, T. Fukami, S. Gotoh, M. Nakajima, Identification of enzymes responsible for nitrazepam metabolism and toxicity in human, Biochem. Pharmacol. 140 (2017) 150–160.
- [10] T. Amano, T. Fukami, T. Ogiso, D. Hirose, J.P. Jones, T. Taniguchi, M. Nakajima,
 Identification of enzymes responsible for dantrolene metabolism in the human liver: A clue to uncover the cause of liver injury, Biochem. Pharmacol. 151 (2018) 69–78.
- [11] J.L. Holtzman, Role of reactive oxygen and metabolite binding in drug toxicity, Life Sci. 30 (1981) 1–9.
- [12] U.A. Boelsterli, H.K. Ho, S. Zhou, K.Y. Leow, Bioactivation and hepatotoxicity of nitroaromatic drugs., Curr. Drug Metab. 7 (2006) 715–727.
- [13] A.E. Cribb, S.P. Spielberg, G.P. Griffin, N₄-hydroxylation cytochrome P4502C of sulfamethoxazole and by cytochrome reduction of the in human and rat microsomes, 23 (1995) 406–414.
- [14] P.S. Lietman, R.H.A. Haslam, J.R. Walcher, Pharmacology of dantrolene sodium in children, Arch. Phys. Med. Rehabil. 55 (1974) 388–392.
- [15] H. Sawada, On the urinary excretion of nitrazepam and its metabolites, 221 (1971)214–221.
- [16] J.F. Alfaro, C. a Joswig-jones, W. Ouyang, J. Nichols, G.J. Crouch, J.P. Jones,
 Purification and Mechanism of Human Aldehyde Oxidase Expressed in Escherichia
 coli ABSTRACT :, Pharmacology. 37 (2009) 2393–2398.
- [17] R.S. Obach, P. Huynh, M.C. Allen, C. Beedham, Human liver aldehyde oxidase: inhibition by 239 drugs., J. Clin. Pharmacol. 44 (2004) 7–19.
- [18] R.S. Obach, Potent inhibition of human liver aldehyde oxidase by raloxifene, Drug Metab Dispos. 32 (2004) 89–97.
- [19] E.M. Paragas, S.C. Humphreys, J. Min, C.A. Joswig-Jones, J.P. Jones, The two faces of aldehyde oxidase: Oxidative and reductive transformations of 5-nitroquinoline,

Biochem. Pharmacol. 145 (2017) 210–217.

- [20] M.K. Wolpert, J.R. Althaus, D.G. Johns, Nitroreductase activity of mammalian liver aldehyde oxidase, J. Pharmacol. Exp. Ther. 185 (1973) 202–213.
- [21] E. Garattini, R. Mendel, M.J. Romão, R. Wright, M. Terao, Mammalian molybdo-flavoenzymes, an expanding family of proteins: structure, genetics, regulation, function and pathophysiology., Biochem. J. 372 (2003) 15–32.
- [22] R.S. Foti, D.K. Dalvie, Cytochrome P450 and non-cytochrome P450 oxidative metabolism: Contributions to the pharmacokinetics, safety, and efficacy of xenobiotics, Drug Metab. Dispos. 44 (2016) 1229–1245.
- [23] J.K. Sodhi, S. Wong, D.S. Kirkpatrick, L. Liu, S.C. Khojasteh, C.E.C.A. Hop, J.T. Barr, J.P. Jones, J.S. Halladay, A novel reaction mediated by human aldehyde oxidase:
 Amide hydrolysis of GDC-0834, Drug Metab. Dispos. 43 (2015) 908–915.
- [24] S. Lepri, M. Ceccarelli, N. Milani, S. Tortorella, A. Cucco, A. Valeri, L. Goracci, A. Brink, G. Cruciani, Structure-metabolism relationships in human-AOX: Chemical insights from a large database of aza-aromatic and amide compounds., Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. 114 (2017) 3178–3187.
- [25] R. Olsson, L. Zettergren, Anticonvulsant□induced liver damage, Am. J. Gastroenterol.
 83 (1988) 576–577.
- [26] C. Sgro, F. Clinard, K. Ouazir, H. Chanay, C. Allard, C. Guilleminet, C. Lenoir, A. Lemoine, P. Hillon, Incidence of drug-induced hepatic injuries: A French population-based study, Hepatology. 36 (2002) 451–455.
- [27] G. Traversa, C. Bianchi, R. Da Cas, I. Abraha, F. Menniti-Ippolito, M. Venegoni, Cohort study of hepatotoxicity associated with nimesulide and other non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs., BMJ. 327 (2003) 18–22.
- [28] R.J. Andrade, M.I. Lucena, M.C. Fernández, G. Pelaez, K. Pachkoria, E. García-Ruiz,B. García-Muñoz, R. González-Grande, A. Pizarro, J.A. Durán, M. Jiménez, L.

Rodrigo, M. Romero-Gomez, J.M. Navarro, R. Planas, J. Costa, A. Borras, A. Soler, J. Salmerón, R. Martin-Vivaldi, Drug-induced liver injury: An analysis of 461 incidences submitted to the Spanish registry over a 10-year period, Gastroenterology. 129 (2005) 512–521.

- [29] M.S. Assaf, M.S. Abdel-Rahman, Hepatotoxicity of flunitrazepam and alcohol *in vitro*, Toxicol. Vitr. 13 (1999) 393–401.
- [30] K.S. Smith, P.L. Smith, T.N. Heady, J.M. Trugman, W.D. Harman, T.L. Macdonald, In vitro metabolism of tolcapone to reactive intermediates: Relevance to tolcapone liver toxicity, Chem. Res. Toxicol. 16 (2003) 123–128.
- [31] A.M. Brind, Drugs that damage the liver, Medicine (Baltimore). 35 (2007) 26–30.
- [32] X. Zhu, N.L. Kruhlak, Construction and analysis of a human hepatotoxicity database suitable for QSAR modeling using post-market safety data, Toxicology. 321 (2014) 62–72.
- [33] Y. Aizawa, I. Ikemoto, K. Kishimoto, T. Wada, H. Yamazaki, Y. Ohishi, H. Kiyota, N. Furuta, H. Suzuki, M. Ueda, Flutamide-induced hepatic dysfunction in relation to steady-state plasma concentrations of flutamide and its metabolites, Mol. Cell. Biochem. 252 (2003) 149–156.
- [34] P.J. Creaven, L. Pendyala, D. Tremblay, Pharmacokinetics and metabolism of nilutamide., Urology. 37 (1991) 13–9.
- [35] M. Yang, M.D. Chordia, F. Li, T. Huang, J. Linden, T.L. MacDonald, Neutrophil- and myeloperoxidase-mediated metabolism of reduced nimesulide: Evidence for bioactivation, Chem. Res. Toxicol. 23 (2010) 1691–1700.
- [36] K.C. Wang, M.C. Cheng, C.L. Hsieh, J.F. Hsu, J. Der Wu, C.K. Lee, Determination of nimetazepam and 7-aminonimetazepam in human urine by using liquid chromatography-tandem mass spectrometry, Forensic Sci. Int. 224 (2013) 84–89.
- [37] O. Sjo, E.F. Hvidberg, J. Naestoft, M. Lund, Pharmacokinetics and side-effects of

clonazepam and its 7-amino-metabolite in man, Eur. J. Clin. Pharmacol. 8 (1975) 249–254.

- [38] H. Nguyen, D.R. Nau, Rapid method for the solid-phase extraction and GC-MS analysis of flunitrazepam and its major metabolites in urine., J. Anal. Toxicol. 24 (2000) 37–45.
- [39] K. Jorga, B. Fotteler, P. Heizmann, R. Gasser, Metabolism and excretion of tolcapone, a novel inhibitor of catechol-O-methyltransferase, Br. J. Clin. Pharmacol. 48 (1999) 513–520.

Acknowledgements

This work was supported in part by a Grant-in-Aid for Scientific Research (C) from the Japan Society for the Promotion of Science (16K08367), Kanazawa University SAKIGAKE project 2018, and The National Institute for General Medical Sciences (GM100874) to jpj.

Ctrank of the second

Figure legends

Fig. 1. Possible metabolic pathways of nitroaromatic compounds in human.

Fig. 2. Reductase activities of 13 nitroaromatic drugs by recombinant human AOX1 in the presence of 2 mM MNA. Recombinant human AOX1 (67.5 nM) was incubated with nitroaromatic drugs (100 μ M) for 3 hrs. Each column represents the mean \pm SD of triplicate determinations. ND: Not detected.

Fig. 3. Reductase activities of 13 nitroaromatic drugs by HLM or HLC in the presence or absence of an NADPH-generating system or 2 mM MNA. HLM or HLC (0.5 mg/mL) were incubated with nitroaromatic drugs (100 μ M) for 3 hrs. Each column represents the mean \pm SD of triplicate determinations. ND: Not detected. **P* < 0.05, ***P* < 0.01, ****P* < 0.001.

Fig. 4. Kinetic analyses of the reductase activities of 6 nitroaromatic drugs by HLC. Open and closed circles represent the activities in the absence and presence of MNA, respectively. Each point represents the mean \pm SD of triplicate determinations.

Fig. 5. Inhibitory effects of several inhibitors on the reductase activities in HLC. The inhibitors used in this study were as follows: estradiol, estrone, and raloxifene: known as strong inhibitors of AOX1 [17,18]. Ketoconazole, promazine, and simvastatin: moderate inhibitors. Diclofenac, metronidazole, and naloxone: hardly inhibit AOX1. All compounds were used at the concentration of 50 μ M. The control activities were 10.4 \pm 0.4 pmol/min/mg protein (clonazepam: 25 μ M), 2.96 \pm 0.5 pmol/min/mg protein (flunitrazepam: 60 μ M), 56.6 \pm 7.1 pmol/min/mg protein (flutamide: 50 μ M), 8.3 \pm 0.6 pmol/min/mg protein (nilutamide: 200 μ M), 33.3 \pm 4.1 pmol/min/mg protein (nimesulide: 250 μ M), 31.4 \pm 1.6 pmol/min/mg

protein (nimetazepam: 40 μ M), 24.4 \pm 0.2 pmol/min/mg protein (dantrolene: 60 μ M), and 11.7 \pm 0.5 pmol/min/mg protein (nitrazepam: 25 μ M). Each column represents the mean \pm SD of triplicate determinations.

Fig. 6. Chemical structures of nitroaromatic drugs that (A) are or (B) are not reduced by human AOX1.

Table 1.

LS-MS/MS conditions for arylamines, reduced metabolites of nitroaromatic drugs.

Arylamine	Mobile phase	MRM	Collision energy
	B concentration (%)	m/z	V
Aminoazelnidipine	40-80 (0-4 min), 80 (4-5 min), 40 (5-7 min)	553.30 > 167.00	34.0
Aminoclonazepam	30-70 (0-2 min), 70 (2-6 min), 30 (6-8 min)	286.10 > 121.10	32.0
Aminodantrolene	10-90 (0-3 min), 90 (3-7.5 min), 10 (7.5-10 min)	285.15 > 186.00	18.0
Aminoflunitrazepam	50 (0-1 min), 95 (1-3 min), 50 (3-5 min)	284.00 > 135.05	28.0
Aminoflutamide	40-90 (0-2 min), 90 (2-6 min), 40 (6-8 min)	247.10 > 227.10	17.0
Aminometronidazole	20-70 (0-3 min), 70 (3-4 min), 20 (4-6 min)	141.90 > 98.05	19.0
Aminonifedipine	30-70 (0-2 min), 70 (2-4 min), 30 (4-6 min)	317.10 > 224.05	12.0
Aminonilutamide	30-70 (0-2 min), 70 (2-5.5 min), 30 (5.5-7.5 min)	288.10 > 268.05	18.0
Aminonimesulide	30-70 (0-2 min), 70 (2-6 min), 30 (6-8 min)	279.05 > 200.00	20.0
Aminonimetazepam	30-70 (0-2 min), 70 (2-6 min), 30 (6-8 min)	266.15 > 135.05	28.0
Aminonimodipine	40-80 (0–2 min), 80 (2–4 min), 40 (4-6 min)	389.20 > 313.05	9.0
Aminonitrazepam	30-70 (0–2 min), 70 (2–5 min), 30 (5–7 min)	252.30 > 121.20	28.0
Aminotolcapone	30-70 (0–2 min), 70 (2–5 min), 30 (5-7 min)	244.10 > 119.05	16.0

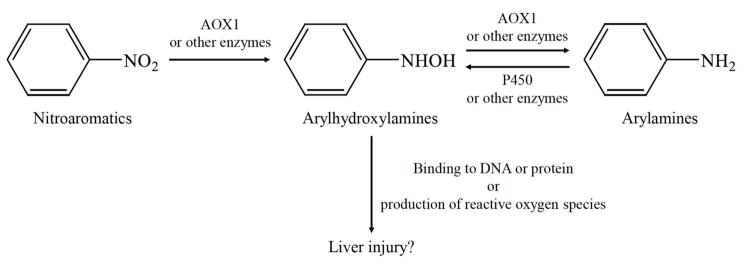
Table 2.

Substrate	MNA	Km	Vmax	CLint
		μΜ	pmol/min/mg protein	µL/min/mg protein
Clonazepam	-	6.7 ± 0.5	0.6 ± 0.1	0.1 ± 0.0
	+	$27.9 \hspace{0.2cm} \pm \hspace{0.2cm} 1.6$	$42.5 \hspace{0.2cm} \pm \hspace{0.2cm} 1.5$	1.5 ± 0.1
Flunitrazepam	-	46.0 ± 19.1	0.5 ± 0.1	0.0 \pm 0.0
	+	62.3 ± 2.3	30.1 ± 0.8	0.5 ± 0.0
Flutamide	-	53.0 ± 0.9	4.0 ± 0.2	0.1 ± 0.0
	+	60.8 ± 6.7	148.9 ± 10.9	2.4 ± 0.1
Nilutamide	-	38.3 ± 1.4	1.2 ± 0.1	$0.0~\pm~0.0$
	+	$199.0 \hspace{0.1 in} \pm \hspace{0.1 in} 10.9$	$41.2 \hspace{.1in} \pm \hspace{.1in} 0.1$	0.2 ± 0.0
Nimesulide	-	201.4 ± 22.1	1.8 ± 0.1	$0.0~\pm~0.0$
	+	$284.9 \hspace{0.2cm} \pm \hspace{0.2cm} 28.7$	65.0 ± 0.7	0.2 ± 0.0
Nimetazepam	-	18.5 ± 2.2	11.9 ± 2.0	$0.6~\pm~0.1$
	+	41.2 ± 7.7	55.2 ± 2.1	1.3 ± 0.2
Dantrolene	-	45.4 ± 3.5	8.1 ± 0.2	0.2 ± 0.0
	+	55.1 ± 3.2	207.4 ± 4.3	3.8 ± 0.2
Nitrazepam	-	122.2 ± 16.5	10.1 ± 0.2	0.1 ± 0.0
	+	17.2 ± 0.4	40.2 ± 1.7	2.3 ± 0.2

Kinetic parameters of each substrate of AOX1 in HLC in the absence or presence of MNA.

Data are mean \pm SD.

Fig. 1.



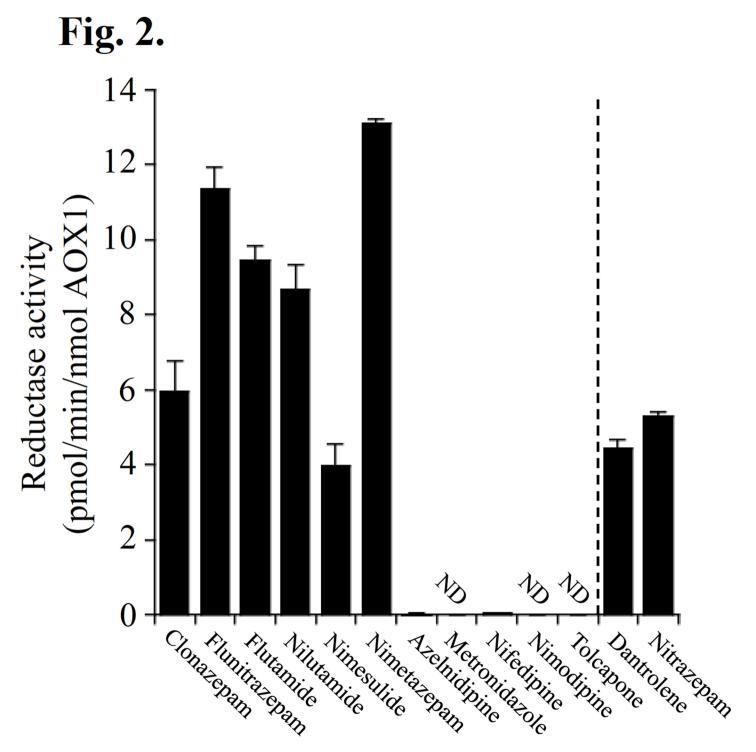
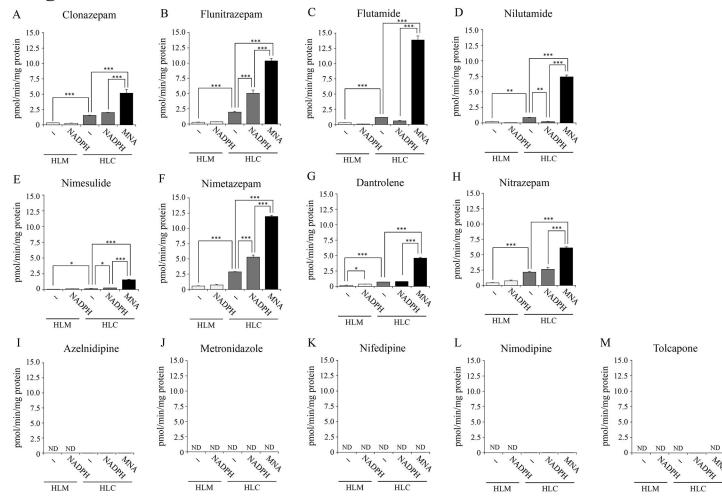


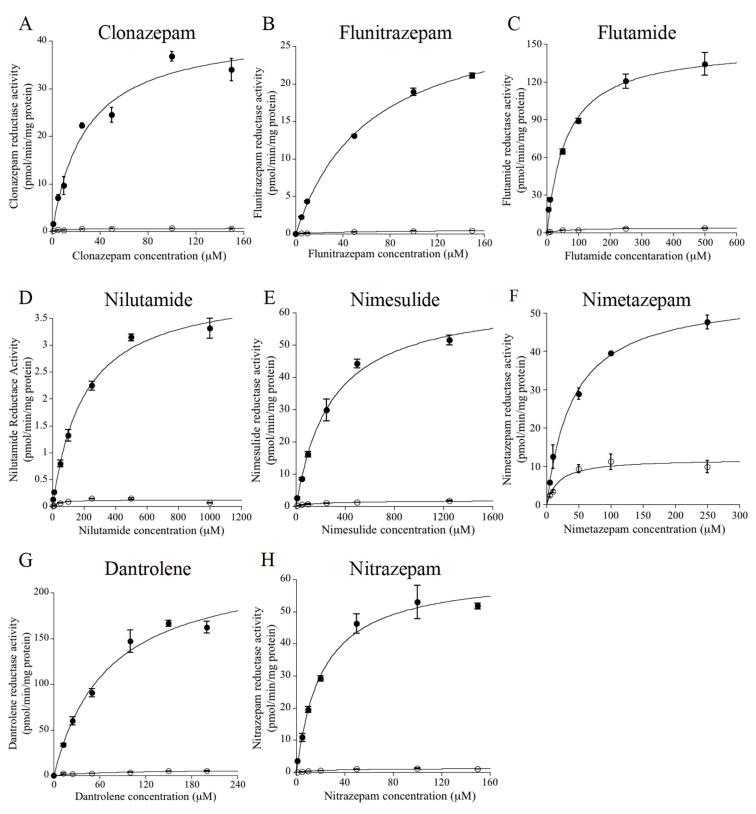
Fig. 3.



ND

my

Fig. 4.



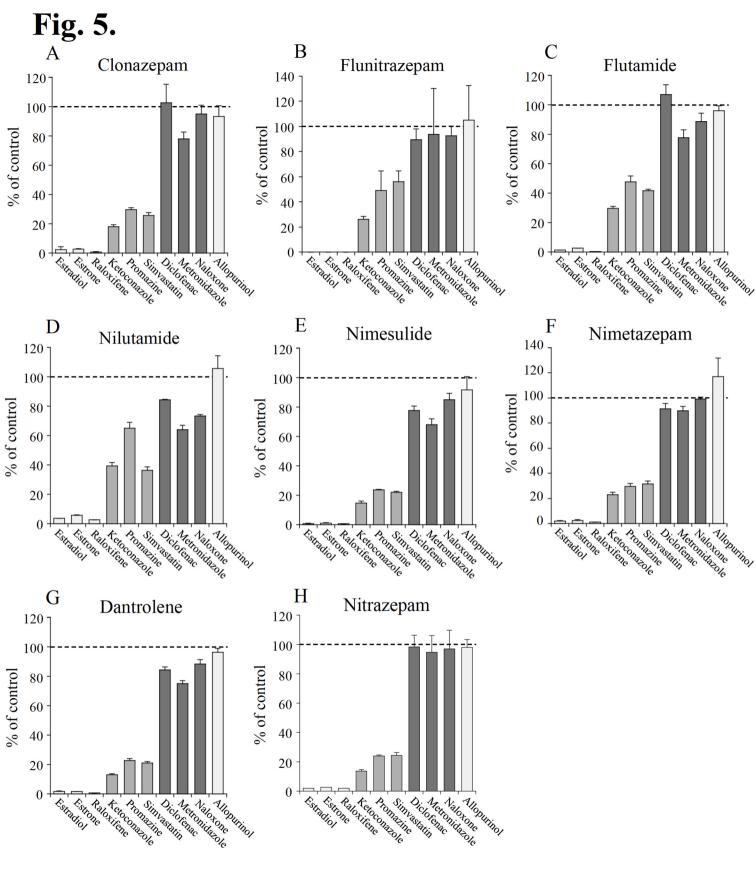
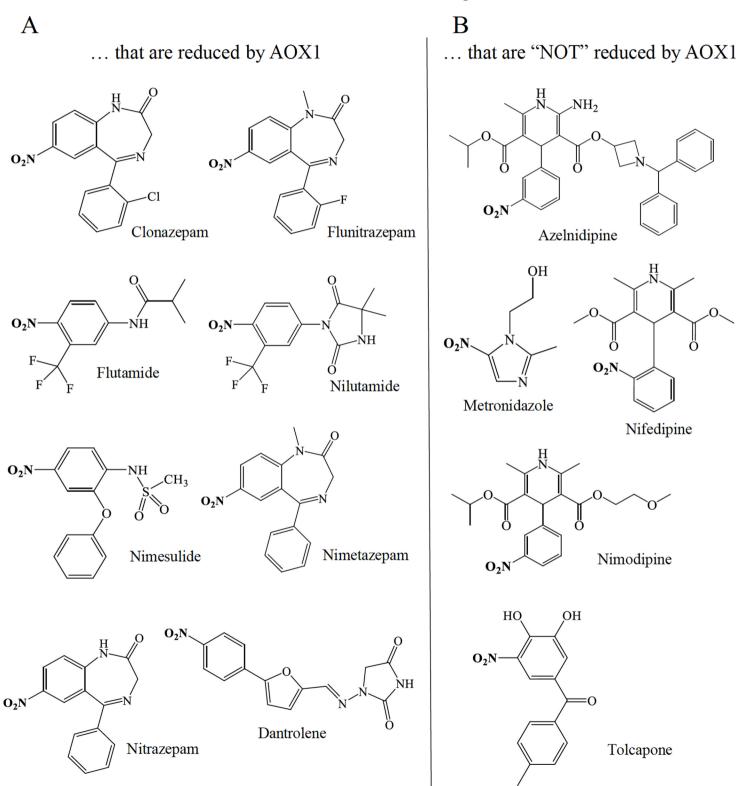


Fig. 6.

Nitroaromatic drugs



Highlights

Among 11 nitroaromatic drugs, 6 drugs were reduced by recombinant AOX1 and HLC.

Inhibition study using known AOX1 inhibitors showed the involvement of AOX1 in HLC.

Drugs reduced by AOX1 possessed a relatively electron-deficient nitro group.