1	Original Contribution
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3	Myeloperoxidase impairs the contractile function in isolated human cardiomyocytes
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Abbreviations: ACS, acute coronary syndrome; ADHP, 10-acetyl-3,7-dihydroxyphenoxazine; APF, 2-(6-(4-aminophenoxy)-3-oxo-3H-xanten-9-yl)-benzoic acid; BSA, bovine serum albumin; CAD, coronary artery disease; CI, carbonylation index; CV, cardiovascular; DNPH, 2,4dinitrophenylhydrazine; DMF, dimethylformamide; DTDP, dithiodipyridine; DTNB, 5,5'-dithiobis(2-nitrobenzoic acid); DTT, dithiotreitol; ECL, enhanced chemiluminescence; EGTA, ethyleneglycoltetraacetic acid; Factive, cardiomyocyte active force; Fpassive, cardiomyocyte passive force; HDL, high-density lipoprotein; HF, heart failure; HOCl, hypochlorous acid; H₂O₂, hydrogen peroxide; Iso, isolating solution; LDL, low-density lipoprotein; LV, left ventricular; MetSO, methionine sulfoxide; MHC, myosin heavy chain; MI, myocardial infarction; MLC-1, myosin light chain-1; MPO, myeloperoxidase; MPO-I, MPO inhibitor (4-aminobenzhydrazide); MyBP-C, myosinbinding protein C; N2B, stiff titin isoform; N2BA, compliant titin isoform; NAC, N-acetyl-Lcysteine; NO, nitric oxide; NOS, nitric oxide synthase; NTB, 2-nitro-5-thiobenzoic acid; PBS, phosphate-buffered saline; pCa₅₀, measure of calcium sensitivity; PMSF, phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride; ROS, reactive oxygen species; SDS, sodium dodecyl sulphate; SH, sulfhydryl; Tm, tropomyosin.

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1 Abstract

Purpose: We set out to characterize the mechanical effects of myeloperoxidase (MPO) in isolated left ventricular human cardiomyocytes. Oxidative myofilament protein modifications (sulfhydryl (SH) group oxidation and carbonylation) induced by the peroxidase and chlorinating activities of MPO were additionally identified. The specificity of the MPOevoked functional alterations was tested with an MPO inhibitor (MPO-I) and the antioxidant amino acid Met.

8 **Results:** The combined application of MPO and its substrate, hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) , 9 largely reduced the active force (Factive), increased the passive force (Fpassive) and decreased the Ca^{2+} sensitivity of force production (pCa₅₀) in permeabilized cardiomyocytes. H₂O₂ alone 10 11 had significantly smaller effects on Factive and Fpassive and did not alter pCa₅₀. The MPO-I 12 blocked both the peroxidase and chlorinating activities, while Met selectively inhibited the 13 chlorinating activity of MPO. All of the MPO-induced functional effects could be prevented 14 by the MPO-I and Met. Both H₂O₂ alone and MPO+H₂O₂ reduced the SH content of actin 15 and increased the carbonylation of actin and myosin-binding protein C to the same extent. Neither the SH-oxidation nor the carbonylation of the giant sarcomeric protein titin was 16 17 affected by these treatments.

18 **Conclusions:** MPO activation induces a cardiomyocyte dysfunction by affecting Ca²⁺-19 regulated active and Ca²⁺-independent passive force production and myofilament Ca²⁺ 20 sensitivity, independently of protein SH oxidation and carbonylation. The MPO-induced 21 deleterious functional alterations can be prevented by the MPO-I and Met. Inhibition of MPO 22 may be a promising therapeutic target to limit myocardial contractile dysfunction during 23 inflammation.

Keywords: cardiomyocyte contractile function, myeloperoxidase, hydrogen peroxide,
oxidative post-translational protein modifications, antioxidants

1 Introduction

Oxidative stress-related myofilament protein alterations have been shown to play key roles in
the impaired cardiomyocyte contractility in response to myocardial inflammation, ischemiareperfusion injury and left ventricular (LV) remodeling following a myocardial infarction
(MI) [1, 2]. In particular, reactive oxygen species (ROS) oxidize cellular components [3],
leading to cardiomyocyte contractile dysfunction, myocyte apoptosis or cardiac hypertrophy
[4, 5].

8 Myeloperoxidase (MPO; EC 1.11.2.2) is a member of the heme peroxidase 9 superfamily, synthesized by neutrophils, monocytes and macrophages, stored in their 10 azurophilic granules and released in substantial amount upon leukocyte activation [6]. MPO 11 has beneficial effects in the innate host defense mechanisms [7]. Considerable evidence has 12 emerged to suggest, that ROS formation by MPO promotes various deleterious action in the cardiovascular (CV) system and contributes to the development of CV diseases [6]. 13 14 Individuals with a total or subtotal MPO deficiency (a defect with a frequency of ≈ 1 in every 15 2000 to 4000 Caucasians) are protected from CV diseases [6]. An elevated level of circulating MPO is a prognostic marker of mortality and predicts the risks of subsequent 16 major adverse cardiac events in patients with acute coronary syndrome (ACS) [8], 17 18 particularly in association with a low LV ejection fraction [9]. MPO also contributes to 19 adverse LV remodeling after a MI [10]. MPO exerts adverse effects on the vasculature, 20 oxidizes low-density lipoprotein (LDL) [11], impairs the high-density lipoprotein (HDL) 21 function [12] and reduces the bioavailability of nitric oxide (NO) [13]. MPO can therefore 22 serve as a valuable biomarker of inflammation in coronary artery disease (CAD) and ACS 23 [14]. The serum level of MPO correlates positively with the severity of the LV dysfunction 24 and seems to be an essential factor in the development and exacerbation of heart failure (HF) [15, 16]. Interestingly, the MPO concentration was earlier found not to differ in ischemic and 25

non-ischemic cardiomyopathy, suggesting that MPO has an independent pathogenic role in
 the LV dysfunction [17].

3 MPO is known to generate numerous reactive oxidants and diffusible radical species 4 via its peroxidase and chlorinating activities, which are capable of promoting an array of 5 reversible and irreversible post-translational protein modifications [18, 19]. The relative 6 concentrations of chloride and the reducing substrate determine whether MPO uses its 7 substrate hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂) for peroxidation or chlorination. MPO amplifies the 8 oxidative potential of H₂O₂ [20-22], which may originate from a number of sources in vivo, 9 including leukocyte NADPH oxidases, xanthine oxidase and uncoupled NO synthase (NOS) 10 [23, 24]. The perfusion of isolated rat hearts with H_2O_2 led to disulfide cross-bridge 11 formation in actin and tropomyosin (Tm) [25]. In one of our previous studies, the sulfhydryl 12 (SH) oxidation of actin and myosin light chain-1 (MLC-1) was suggested as the mechanism 13 in the H₂O₂-evoked depressed cardiomyocyte contractility [26].

14 MPO is unique in its ability to create hypochlorous acid (HOCl, a potent antimicrobial 15 agent) through its chlorinating activity [22]. Interestingly, the cardiac tissue is highly 16 susceptible to oxidation even by physiological concentrations of HOC1 [27]. Importantly, HOCl is much more effective than H_2O_2 in oxidizing proteins in the myocardium [27], it 17 causes SH oxidation [28] and carbonylation in myofilament proteins [29], it disturbs Ca²⁺ 18 homeostasis and Ca^{2+} handling [30], it increases the intracellular Ca^{2+} concentration in 19 20 isolated rat [31] and rabbit [32] ventricular cardiomyocytes, and it induces cardiomyocyte 21 death in rats [33]. It is also very important to consider, how far H₂O₂ or HOCl can diffuse on 22 the cellular scale and whether these substances are capable to penetrate the cell membranes. H_2O_2 is stable [34], membrane permeable [35], although, in vivo concentration of H_2O_2 23 24 highly depends on its generation and consumption rates [36, 37]. HOCl appears to be more 25 toxic and reactive and can also penetrate through cell membranes, but has a much shorter

lifespan. An *in vitro* study revealed that HOCl production by neutrophils can be as high as
 450 mM/h, which was shown to be less in an *in vivo* model [38]. MPO generates HOCl in
 micro-molar concentration [39], but in inflammatic tissue it is estimated to be as high as 5
 mM [40].

5 The antioxidant amino acid Met acts as a scavenger of HOCl and has been shown to 6 prevent the HOCl-induced morphological changes and contractile dysfunction in murine 7 myocytes [41]. Moreover, the fact that MPO-derived chlorinating compounds can serve as 8 specific biomarkers for disease progression has attracted considerable interest in the 9 development of therapeutically useful MPO inhibitors (MPO-Is) [42].

10 Although the role of MPO-derived oxidants in the pathogenesis of myocardial 11 ischemia and HF is relatively well established, only limited data are available as concerns the 12 exact cellular and subcellular mechanisms through which MPO could directly affect the 13 contractility of the myocardial cells, especially at the level of the myofibrillar proteins. In this 14 study, therefore, we set out (1) to characterize the functional effects of MPO and its substrate 15 H_2O_2 on single, permeabilized human cardiomyocytes; (2) to identify the biochemical alterations induced by the peroxidase and chlorinating activities of MPO; (3) to investigate 16 17 the specificity of the MPO-induced contractile changes by using the MPO inhibitor (MPO-I) 18 4-aminobenzhydrazide and the antioxidant amino acid Met; and (4) to explore the MPO-19 related reversible and irreversible oxidative myofilament protein modifications in the human 20 LV myocardium.

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1 Materials and methods

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3 I. Human myocardial samples

4 LV myocardial tissue was obtained from the hearts of four general organ-donor patients (41-5 and 46-year-old women, and 53- and 57-year-old men). All of these patients were free of any 6 cardiac abnormalities and had not received any medication except for plasma volume expanders, dobutamine and furosemide. The cause of death included cerebral contusion, 7 8 cerebral hemorrhage and subarachnoidal hemorrhage. All biopsies were transported in 9 cardioplegic solution (pH 7.4; in mM: NaCl 110, KCl 16, MgCl₂ 1.6, CaCl₂ 1.2, NaHCO₃ 5) 10 and were frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80 °C at the laboratory. The experiments on 11 human tissues complied in full with the Helsinki Declaration of the World Medical 12 Association and were approved by the Hungarian Ministry of Health (No. 323-8/2005-13 1018EKU) and by the Institutional Ethical Committee at the University of Debrecen, 14 Hungary.

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16 II. Force measurements in permeabilized cardiomyocyte preparations

17 Force measurements were performed as described previously [43]. In brief, frozen tissue 18 samples were first defrosted and mechanically disrupted in cell isolation solution (Iso) (in 19 mM: KCl 100, ethyleneglycoltetraacetic acid (EGTA) 2, MgCl₂ 1, Na₂ATP 4, imidazole 10; 20 pH 7.0) containing phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride (PMSF, 0.5 mM, Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, 21 MO, USA), leupeptin (40 µM, Sigma, St. Louis, MO, USA) and E-64 (10 µM, Sigma-22 Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) protease inhibitors. The mechanically isolated cells were 23 skinned by incubation in Iso supplemented with 0.5% (v/v) Triton X-100 (Sigma-Aldrich, St. 24 Louis, MO, USA) for 5 min. Triton-X-100 was removed by washing at least three times in 25 Iso (1 ml in each washing step) and the skinned myocytes were kept in cell Iso on ice until the measurements. A skinned single cardiomyocyte was mounted between two thin needles, which were attached to a force transducer element (SensoNor, Horten, Norway) and an electromagnetic motor (Aurora Scientific Inc., Aurora, Canada) through the use of silicone adhesive (DAP, Baltimore, MD, USA) for determination of the mechanical parameters. The measurements were performed at 15°C on the stage of a light microscope. The average sarcomere length was adjusted to 2.3 μm.

7 The compositions of the relaxing and activating solutions used during force 8 measurements were calculated as described previously [43]. Both solutions were 9 supplemented with protease inhibitors: leupeptin (40 μ M) and E-64 (10 μ M). The pCa, i.e. the $-\log_{10}[Ca^{2+}]$ values of the relaxing and activating solutions (pH 7.2), were 9.0 and 4.75, 10 respectively. Solutions with intermediate free $[Ca^{2+}]$ levels were obtained by mixing 11 activating and relaxing solutions [44]. Isometric force production was measured after the 12 preparation had been transferred from the relaxing solution to a set of Ca²⁺-containing 13 14 solutions. When a steady force level had been reached, the length of the myocyte was 15 reduced by 20% within 2 ms, and the myocyte was then quickly restretched (release-restretch 16 maneuver). As a result, the force first dropped from the peak isometric level to zero (difference = total peak isometric force, F_{total}) and then started to redevelop. About 6 s after 17 18 the onset of force redevelopment, the cardiomyocyte was returned to the relaxing solution, where the length of the myocyte was again reduced by 20% for 8 s to determine the Ca^{2+} -19 independent passive force component ($F_{passive}$). The Ca²⁺-activated isometric force (F_{active}) 20 21 was calculated by subtracting F_{passive} from F_{total}. F_{active} at submaximal levels of activation was 22 normalized to that at maximal activation (pCa 4.75). Thereafter, the normalized force values were plotted against the Ca^{2+} concentration of the activating solutions to create a sigmoidal 23 curve, in order to determine the Ca^{2+} sensitivity of force production (pCa₅₀). Maximal active 24

force was also tested at the end of the experiments at pCa 4.75. Experiments that yielded a
 value below 80% of the initial value were discarded.

3 To determine the mechanical consequences of myofilament protein oxidation, 4 cardiomyocytes were exposed to Iso supplemented with H_2O_2 (30 μ M, Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) for 15 min; MPO+H₂O₂ (8 U/l, Abcam, Cambridge, UK) for 15 min; 5 6 MPO+H₂O₂+MPO-I 4-aminobenzhydrazide (50 µM, Cayman Chemicals, Ann Arbor, MI, USA) for 15 min; or MPO+H₂O₂+Met (10 mM, Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) for 15 7 8 min at 15 °C. The reversibility of MPO+H₂O₂ evoked effects were examined by the 9 application of the reducing agent dithiotreitol (DTT, Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA, 10 10 mM, 30 min) to MPO+H₂O₂-treated cardiomyocytes. Force-pCa relationships and pCa₅₀ 11 values were determined before and after the application of these agents. The effects of the 12 applied agents on F_{active} and F_{passive} were expressed relative to their control (untreated, before application of the agent at pCa 4.75 and pCa 9.0, respectively). Changes in F_{active} and $F_{passive}$ 13 14 upon application of the agents were compared with the force values measured after 15 incubation of the cardiomyocytes in Iso for 15 min (time control).

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17 III. Measurements of MPO activities

18 MPO chlorination and peroxidation assay kits (Cayman Chemicals, Ann Arbor, MI, USA) 19 were used. The chlorination activity assay utilizes a nonfluorescent substrate (APF, 2-(6-(4-20 aminophenoxy)-3-oxo-3H-xanthen-9-yl)benzoic acid), which is cleaved by the MPO-21 generated hypochlorite (OCI) to produce highly fluorescent fluorescein. The peroxidase 22 activity assay uses a nonfluorescent substrate (ADHP, 10-acetyl-3,7-dihydroxyphenoxazine) 23 which is converted by MPO to the fluorescent resorufin. Fluorescence was detected with a 24 NovoStar Microplate Reader (BMG Labtech, Ortenberg, Germany) at λ_{ex} 485 nm, λ_{em} 520 nm in the chlorination assay, and at λ_{ex} 544 nm, λ_{em} 590 nm in the peroxidase assay. The reaction 25

solution contained the nonfluorescent substrate (APF (18 μ M) or ADHP (45 μ M)), assay buffer (phosphate-buffered saline (PBS), pH 7.4) and H₂O₂ (30 μ M), or MPO+H₂O₂ (38 U/l), or MPO+H₂O₂+MPO-I (50 μ M) or MPO+H₂O₂+Met (10 mM). Activities were measured for 5 min at 24-s intervals. Fluorescence intensities were fitted by linear regression analysis (before saturation) and the slope of this relation was used to calculate MPO activities. Values were corrected for the background (the activity determined in the absence of MPO).

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8 IV. Biochemical assays for the identification of oxidative protein modifications

9 1. Ellman's reaction

10 Overall myofilament SH group content was determined by Ellman's reaction. Skinned 11 cardiomyocytes were treated with Iso (time control) or with Iso supplemented with H₂O₂ and 12 MPO as described for the mechanical experiments. Washing steps followed the treatments 13 and the cardiomyocytes were then incubated for 15 min in Ellman's reagent (5,5'-dithiobis(2-nitrobenzoic acid), DTNB; Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA), which reacts with 14 15 myofilament SH groups and produces the yellow 2-nitro-5-thiobenzoic acid (NTB). The 16 absorbance of NTB was measured with NovoStar Microplate Reader at 412 nm. N-Acetyl-L-17 cysteine (NAC, Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) was used to calibrate the NTB absorbance in relation to the amount of SH groups. A known concentration of NAC was 18 19 reacted with Ellman's reagent and the absorbance at 412 nm, fitted with a single exponential, 20 served as calibration curve. The SH contents in 1-mg lyophilized myocardial samples were 21 calculated from the measured absorbance, the tissue weight and the calibration curve. Measurements were performed in triplicates. 22

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1 2. Protein SH oxidation

2 Cardiomyocytes were isolated from LV myocardial samples (25 mg wet weight) similarly as 3 for the functional measurements, and were treated in Iso (150 μ l) containing H₂O₂ (30 μ M) or 4 MPO+H₂O₂ (38 U/l) for 15 min. Cardiomyocytes exposed to dithiodipyridine (DTDP, 2.5 mM, for 2 min) were used as positive control. Protein SH groups were labeled with EZ-Link 5 6 Iodoacetyl-LC-Biotin (Thermo Scientific, Rockford, IL, USA, for 60 min in the dark, at room temperature) in a reaction buffer (containing EDTA 5 mM, Tris-HCl 50 mM pH 8.3 and 0.1 7 8 mg/ml biotin) according to the manufacturer's instructions (biotin was solved in 9 dimethilformamide (DMF, Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) and diluted in reaction 10 buffer to 0.1 mg/ml). After the biotinylation process, the myocytes were solubilized in sample 11 buffer (containing 8 M urea, 2 M thiourea, 3% (w/v) sodium dodecyl sulphate (SDS), 75 mM 12 DTT, Tris-HCl pH 6.8, 10% (v/v) glycerol, bromophenol blue, 10 µM E-64 and 40 µM 13 leupeptin (1 h, under continuous agitation). Protein concentration was determined in the 14 supernatant with a dot-blot-based method, using bovine serum albumin (BSA, Sigma-15 Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) as a standard. Protein concentration was adjusted to 1 mg/ml. 2% (strengthened with 0.5% agarose), 4%, 10% and 15% polyacrylamide gels and 4-15% 16 gradient gels (BioRad, Hercules, CA, USA) were used to separate myofilament proteins 17 18 before blotting to nitrocellulose membranes. Protein was quantitated with the fluorescent 19 Sypro Ruby Protein Blot Stain (Invitrogen, Eugene, OR, USA). Membranes were blocked 20 with 10% (w/v) milk powder diluted in PBS containing 0.1% (v/v) Tween-20 (PBST). 21 Biotin-labeled SH groups were probed with peroxidise-conjugated streptavidin (Jackson 22 ImmunoResearch, West Grove, PA, USA) at a final concentration of 5 ng/ml for 30 min. 23 Signal intensities of biotin-labeled SH groups were visualized by an enhanced 24 chemiluminescence (ECL) method and normalized for those assessed with the Sypro Ruby 25 Protein Blot Stain.

1 3. Protein disulfide cross-bridge formation

2 Similarly to the experiments by Canton et al. [45] human LV myocardial samples were 3 solubilized in reducing (1x Laemmli sample buffer (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) 4 containing 2% SDS, 10% glycerol, 5% β-mercaptoethanol (β-ME), 0.0625 M Tris-HCl, pH 5 6.8) and non-reducing (same buffer without β -ME) sample buffer after H₂O₂ or MPO+H₂O₂ 6 treatment. SDS-PAGE was performed using 10% polyacrylamide gels, thereafter proteins 7 were transferred onto nitrocellulose membranes. After blocking the non-specific binding sites 8 membranes were probed with monoclonal anti-tropomyosin (1:10.000, clone CH1) or 9 monoclonal anti-actin (1:1000, clone HHF35, Dako Cytomation, Glostrup, Denmark) 10 antibodies.

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12 4. Detection of protein carbonyl groups

13 Cardiomyocytes from LV myocardial tissue (15 mg wet weight) were incubated with H₂O₂ 14 and MPO, as described above. Cardiomyocytes treated with Fenton reagent (50 µM FeSO₄, 6 15 mM ascorbic acid and 1.5 mM H₂O₂ for 7 min) were used as positive controls for protein 16 carbonylation. Cardiomyocytes were washed after treatment and solubilized in sample buffer 17 containing 8 M urea, 3% (w/v) SDS, 50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 6.8), 10 µM E-64 and 40 µM 18 leupeptin for 1 h by vortexing. The samples were then centrifuged (16,000 g for 5 min) and 19 the supernatants were used for cabonyl group derivatization based on the formation of 2,4-20 dinitrophenylhydrazone (DNPhydrazone) from 2,4-dinitrophenylhydrazine (DNPH) (OxyBlotTM Protein Oxidation Detection Kit, Millipore, Billerica, MA, USA). After 21 derivatization (15 min), samples were centrifuged (1000 g for 1 min) and the pellet was 22 23 dissolved in a buffer containing 8 M urea, 2 M thiourea, 3% (w/v) SDS, 75 mM DTT, 0.05 M 24 Tris-base (pH 14), 10% (v/v) glycerol and bromophenol blue (30 min, shaking). Derivatized samples were centrifuged (16,000 g for 5 min) and the protein concentrations of the 25

1 supernatants were determined with a dot-blot-based method, using a BSA standard. The 2 protein concentration of the samples was adjusted to 1 mg/ml. Polyacrylamide gel 3 electrophoresis with 2% (strengthened with 0.5% agarose), 4%, 10% and 15% 4 polyacrylamide gels and 4-15% gradient gels was carried out to separate myofilament 5 proteins. Proteins were transferred onto nitrocellulose membranes and visualized with the 6 Sypro Ruby Protein Blot Stain. The membranes were then blocked with 2% (w/v) BSA in PBST for 30 min and probed with primary and secondary antibodies (rabbit anti-DNP 7 8 antibody 1:150, 1 h and goat anti-rabbit IgG 1:300, 1 hour) diluted in 1% (w/v) BSA-PBST 9 according to the manufacturer's intructions. Protein bands were visualized by the ECL method. Signal intensities determined by OxyBlotTM assay were normalized for those 10 11 assessed with the Sypro Ruby Protein Blot Stain. The extent of carbonylation was expressed 12 as carbonylation index (CI=1 in the time control samples).

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14 V. Data analysis and statistics

Cardiomyocyte force generation was measured with a custom-built system (utilizing the
DAQ platform produced by National Instruments, Austin, TX, USA) and recorded by a
custom-built LabVIEW (National Instruments) module. Results were evaluated in Excel
(Microsoft, 2007) and GraphPad Prism 5.0 (GraphPad Software Inc., San Diego, California,
USA).

20 Ca^{2+} -force relations were fitted to a modified Hill equation:

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$$F_{total} = F_{max} [Ca^{2+}]^{nHill} / (pCa_{50}^{nHill} + [Ca^{2+}]^{nHill}) + F_{passive}$$

where F_{max} is the maximal force, $F_{passive}$ is the passive force, $F_{total} = F_{max} + F_{passive}$, $[Ca^{2+}]$ is the calculated Ca^{2+} concentration, nHill is a constant, and pCa₅₀ corresponds to the $[Ca^{2+}]$ at which $F_{total} - F_{passive} = F_{max}/2$.

1 The results of the measurements for each cardiomyocyte were fitted individually. F_{active} and 2 $F_{passive}$ values were normalized to the cardiomyocyte cross-sectional area and expressed in 3 kN/m^2 . The number of experiments in each group varied between 5 and 12 from 3 or 4 4 different hearts.

Western immunoblot assays were performed in triplicates. Intensities of protein bands
were quantified by determining the area under intensity curves by a Gaussian fit using ImageJ
(NIH, Bethesda, MD, USA) and Magic Plot (Saint Petersburg, Russia) software. Graphs were
created in GraphPad Prism 5.0 software.

9 Differences between groups were calculated by analysis of variance (ANOVA 10 followed by Bonferroni's post hoc test) or multilevel mixed-effects linear regression analysis, 11 to appropriately address non-independence between multiple observations from the same 12 heart. The null hypothesis for all group means being equal was tested, followed by pairwise between-groups comparisons based on the variance-covariance matrix of the fixed effects. 13 14 Comparisons of normalized pCa-force relationships determined upon subsequent applications 15 of the agents were performed with paired and unpaired t tests. Group descriptions were based 16 on the mean and SEM values. Statistical significance was accepted at p < 0.05.

1 Results

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3 $MPO+H_2O_2$ impairs the contractile function in human cardiomyocytes

4 When permeabilized human LV cardiomyocytes (Fig. 1A) were treated with isolating 5 solution (Iso) containing MPO (8 U/l) and H_2O_2 (30 μ M), a significant decrease in the maximal Ca²⁺-dependent (pCa 4.75) F_{active} and a marked increase in the Ca²⁺-independent 6 7 (pCa 9.0) F_{passive} were observed (to 57.7±4.1% and 179.6±14.6% of untreated, respectively, n=12) (Fig. 1B). The decrease in the isometric force at various free Ca²⁺ concentrations was 8 9 significantly larger in response to MPO+ H_2O_2 application than that in the presence of H_2O_2 10 alone (Fig. 1C). Incubation of cardiomyocytes with Iso (time control) resulted in only a minor 11 change in F_{active} (to 89.0±1.6%). The MPO-induced increase in F_{passive} was significanly higher than that evoked by H₂O₂ alone (79.6±14.6% vs. 23.9±7.4%, p<0.001) (Fig. 1D). When the 12 peak contractile forces measured at intermediate Ca²⁺ concentrations were normalized to their 13 respective maximum, a significant rightward shift in the pCa-force relationship, i.e. a 14 decrease in the Ca^{2+} sensitivity of force production (pCa₅₀) was observed after MPO+H₂O₂ 15 16 treatment (from 5.83 ± 0.02 to 5.66 ± 0.02 , p<0.001) (Fig. 1E). In contrast, the application of H₂O₂ alone did not alter pCa₅₀ (5.85 ± 0.05 vs. 5.82 ± 0.03 , p=0.55) (Fig. 1F). The differences in 17 18 the baseline cardiomyocyte maximal Factive, Fpassive and pCa50 were 5.4%, 5.5% and 0.9%, 19 respectively. The light microscopic morphology did not reveal visible alterations in the crossstriation pattern of the cardiomyocytes upon MPO+ H_2O_2 or H_2O_2 treatments (data not 20 21 shown).

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23 Met inhibits the chlorinating, but not the peroxidase activity of MPO

To identify the biochemical mechanism underlying the functional effects of MPO, we measured its chlorinating and peroxidase activities in the presence of the MPO-I and Met (Fig. 2A, B). The MPO-I diminished both the chlorinating and the peroxidase activities of
MPO (to 0.3±0.2% and 10.4±6.0%, respectively, p<0.001, n=4). However, Met selectively
inhibited the chlorinating activity of MPO (to 2.3±1.3%, p<0.001, n=4), without significantly
affecting on its peroxidase activity (78.4±8.6%, n=4).

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6 *MPO-I* and *Met* completely prevent, while *DTT* partially reverses the *MPO-induced* 7 cardiomyocyte dysfunction

8 To assess whether the MPO-I or Met is also able to prevent the deleterious mechanical effects 9 of MPO, cardiomyocytes were incubated with MPO+ H_2O_2 in the presence of the MPO-I (50 10 μ M) or Met (10 mM). Both the MPO-I and Met prevented the MPO-induced decrease in 11 F_{active} (to 80.0±5.3% and 80.1±3.6% of untreated, respectively, p<0.001) (Fig. 3A) and the 12 increase in $F_{passive}$ (to 147.7±6.1% and 139.9±8.7% of untreated, respectively, p<0.05, n=5-6) 13 (Fig. 3B). Factive and F_{passive} measured after the application of the MPO-I or Met to 14 MPO+H₂O₂ were similar to those determined after H₂O₂ treatment. Moreover, the MPO-I 15 (Fig. 3C) or Met (Fig. 3D) completely abolished the rightward shift in the pCa-force 16 relationships observed upon combined MPO+ H_2O_2 treatment (5.88±0.07 vs. 5.66±0.02, 17 p < 0.05 and 5.81 ± 0.04 vs. 5.66 ± 0.02 , respectively, p < 0.001 vs. MPO+H₂O₂, n = 5-6). The 18 changes in pCa₅₀ measured after H₂O₂, MPO+H₂O₂, MPO-I and Met treatments are illustrated 19 in Fig. 3E. The reversibility of the MPO+H₂O₂-evoked functional alterations was tested by 20 application of the reducing agent DTT (10 mM) to the cardiomyocytes (n=6). The increase in $F_{passive}$ after MPO+H₂O₂ ($\Delta F_{passive}$ 89.3±27.3% compared to untreated) was almost completely 21 22 reversed after DTT treatment ($\Delta F_{passive}$ 9.7±10.4% compared to untreated, p<0.05). DTT, 23 however, did not significantly affect F_{active} (to 57.7±4.1% and to 43.8±5.1% of untreated after 24 MPO+ H_2O_2 and DTT administration, respectively, p=0.13) (figure not shown).

1 Effects of $MPO+H_2O_2$ on the SH oxidation and carbonylation of myofilament proteins 2 Attempts were made to identify the changes in the oxidative status of myofilament proteins 3 contributing to the MPO-induced cardiomyocyte dysfunction in parallel with the functional 4 measurements. Relative SH contents were determined in human LV skinned cardiomyocytes. The baseline SH content of myofilament proteins in the donor heart samples varied between 5 6 98.0±4.6% and 104.1±3.9% (p=0.35). Ellman's reaction revealed a small, but significant 7 decrease in the overall amount of SH groups in response to H_2O_2 (to 90.4±1.5%, p<0.05, 8 n=3) or MPO+H₂O₂ treatments (to 86.7±4.0%, p<0.01, n=3) (Fig. 4A). An SH group 9 biotinylation assay was applied to identify individual myofibrillar proteins affected by MPO-10 mediated SH oxidation. Samples treated with the oxidative agent DTDP were used as positive 11 controls. H₂O₂ and MPO+H₂O₂ lowered the SH content of actin to similar extents (to 12 $75.9 \pm 7.1\%$, p<0.01, n=4, and 84.2 \pm 4.4\%, p<0.05 vs. time control, respectively, n=9) (Fig. 13 4B). In contrast, the SH contents of myosin-binding protein C (MyBP-C, Fig. 4C) and the 14 more compliant (N2BA) and stiffer (N2B) isoforms of the giant sarcomeric protein titin were 15 not affected by these treatments (Fig. 4D-F). Using immunoblots a Tm and an actin 16 containing complex was observed at on approximately 90 kDa molecular weight level under 17 non-reducing conditions (in a buffer not containing β -ME), however, no increase in its 18 intensity and that of Tm and actin could be detected after H₂O₂ and MPO+H₂O₂ treatments 19 (Fig. 5).

Protein carbonylation assays revealed a modest, but significant increase in the carbonylation of actin upon H₂O₂ treatment (CI=1.1±0.05, p<0.05 vs. the time control, n=5), which was not further affected by the addition of MPO (CI=1.1±0.05, p=0.1 vs. the time control, n=11) (Fig. 6A). Similarly as for actin, a slight, but significant increase in the carbonyl content of MyBP-C was observed both after H₂O₂ (CI=1.5±0.2, p<0.05 vs. the time control, n=2) and after MPO+H₂O₂ application (CI=1.4±0.2, p<0.05 vs. the time control,

- 1 n=4 (Fig. 6B). The extent of carbonyl group formation in the N2BA and N2B titin isoforms
- 2 remained unaltered after H_2O_2 or MPO+ H_2O_2 treatment (CI=0.9±0.2 and CI=1.0±0.2 for
- 3 N2BA; CI=1.0±0.1 and CI=0.9±0.1 for N2B, respectively) (Fig. 6C-E).

1 **Discussion**

2

3 This is the first reported investigation of the direct effects of MPO on the contractile function 4 of single, isolated human myocardial cells. The *in vitro* model experiments revealed that (1) MPO impairs Ca²⁺-dependent isometric force generation, increases the Ca²⁺-independent 5 F_{passive} and decreases the Ca²⁺ sensitivity of force production; (2) the MPO-induced functional 6 7 changes can be prevented by an MPO-I and the antioxidant Met; (3) the levels of SH 8 oxidation in actin and of carbonylation in actin and MyBP-C are increased by the application 9 of MPO+H₂O₂ or H₂O₂ alone; (4) the MPO-evoked functional effects are probably mediated by the chlorinating activity of MPO. 10

11 Myocardial inflammation and ischemia-reperfusion injury are characterized by 12 enhanced extents of oxidative stress and contractile dysfunction [46]. The application of MPO+H₂O₂ to human cardiomyocytes appreciably reduced the Ca^{2+} -activated F_{active} and 13 14 markedly decreased pCa₅₀. In contrast, H₂O₂ (30 µM) alone induced a smaller decrease in F_{active} . Consistent with our findings, a lower concentration of H_2O_2 (10 μ M) did not result in a 15 decrease in the maximal Ca^{2+} -activated force in skinned rat heart preparations [47, 48]. This 16 suggests that the action of H_2O_2 on contractile force generation is concentration-dependent. 17 18 Lower concentrations have no measurable effects, whereas higher concentrations affect the 19 cardiomyocyte contractility. The deleterious effect on Factive can be explained by the MPOmediated H₂O₂-derived production of HOCl. In a previous study, HOCl treatment alone (10 20 μ M and 50 μ M for 1 min) evoked a significant decrease in the maximum Ca²⁺-activated force 21 22 [47], similarly to the result of MPO+ H_2O_2 treatment in the present study. Interestingly, neither the H₂O₂- nor the MPO-induced functional changes were related to any deterioration 23 24 in the cross-striation pattern of the cardiomyocytes under the light microscope. It is important

to note, however, that electron microscopy has revealed a myofilament lattice disruption after
HOCl treatment [47].

The subtle increase after H_2O_2 application and the marked elevation in the Ca^{2+} -3 independent $F_{passive}$ upon MPO+H₂O₂ treatment in the present study are consistent with the 4 5 observations that H_2O_2 at low (<10 μ M) concentration did not alter $F_{passive}$, while HOCl (10 6 µM and 50 µM) induced a significant rise in F_{passive} of skinned rat trabeculae [48]. It is well 7 established that the giant sarcomeric protein titin plays a key role in the development of 8 F_{passive} in permeabilized cardiomyocytes by acting as a molecular spring in the sarcomere 9 [49]. The cardiomyocyte F_{passive} can be modulated by the titin isoform switch (between the 10 short and stiff N2B and the longer and more compliant N2BA isoforms [50]) and by several 11 post-translational modifications, including phosphorylation [51], SH oxidation [52] and 12 potentially carbonylation. One elegant study demonstrated that the oxidative stress-induced 13 formation of disulfide bridges within the titin molecule (N2B unique sequence, N2B-Us) 14 reduced the contour length of the N2B-Us, leading to stiffening of the whole titin molecule 15 [52]. In the present study, neither SH oxidation nor carbonylation of the N2B and N2BA titin 16 isoforms was found to be affected by MPO or H₂O₂ treatment. This may be explained by the 17 distinct sensitivities of the titin N2B isoform, actin and MyBP-C to oxidative changes based on the differences in their ultrastructures and SH group contents. Our results indicate that 18 19 modifications other than titin SH oxidation or carbonylation might be responsible for the 20 marked elevation in F_{passive} after MPO treatment in human cardiomyocytes.

The significant decrease observed in pCa₅₀ after MPO+H₂O₂ in this study is in marked contrast with the previous finding of an increase in pCa₅₀ in skinned rat trabeculae in response to HOCl treatment [48]. This apparently conflicting result might be explained by (1) the different concentration of HOCl produced by the MPO under our experimental conditions; (2) a difference in susceptibility of the myofilaments to HOCl between the two

1 species; and (3) the difference in the experimental setting, permeabilized, single 2 cardiomyocytes presenting a negligible diffusion obstacle in comparison with trabeculae. 3 Further, the pronounced MPO-induced decrease in pCa₅₀ suggests that different myofilament 4 protein modifications occur and contribute to pCa_{50} in the course of MPO and H_2O_2 5 treatments. Under these experimental conditions H₂O₂ more probably induced a structural, 6 rather than a regulatory alteration in the contractile apparatus because pCa_{50} was not affected. The deleterious effect on the maximal F_{active} and the modest increase in $F_{passive}$ upon H_2O_2 7 8 administration implies that the H₂O₂-induced contractile alterations could be explained by a 9 reduction in the number of force-generating cross-bridges due to the diminished longitudinal 10 transmission of force along the sarcomeres. These findings are consistent with the 11 observations of MacFarlane et al., who exposed the superoxide anion (from which H₂O₂ 12 formed endogenously through spontaneous or superoxide dismutase-catalyzed dismutation) 13 to chemically skinned rat cardiac muscles. They also found a dose-dependent reduction in the maximal Factive without any alteration in the pCa50 and concluded that some aspect of the 14 15 cross-bridge behavior is particularly vulnerable to superoxide [53].

16 A substantial number of data indicate that the inhibition of MPO may well be useful 17 in CV pathologies characterized by elevated MPO levels (myocardial inflammation, 18 ischemia-reperfusion injury and acute MI). Thus, despite the fact that MPO-Is may have 19 adverse effects on the function of MPO in the innate host-defense mechanisms, potential 20 therapeutic interventions through which to inhibit MPO have aroused considerable interest 21 [42]. In the present study, both the MPO-I 4-aminobenzhydrazide (50 µM) and the 22 antioxidant amino acid Met (10 mM) were equally able to prevent all of the MPO-evoked 23 deleterious contractile effects in skinned human cardiomyocytes, the latter potentially by 24 scavenging the HOCl generated by MPO. MPO activity assays suggested that the Met-25 inhibited chlorinating activity is responsible for the MPO-evoked functional changes. HOCl

1 reacts most rapidly with the sulfur-containing residues (Met and Cys) [54]. It is likely, 2 therefore, that the high concentration of Met used in this study diminished the HOCl-evoked 3 oxidative capacity. The oxidation of Met residues results in the generation of Met-sulfoxide 4 (MetSO), a process that may be reversed by MetSO reductase [55]. Met is therefore 5 considered to play a protective role against the deleterious effects of protein oxidation [28]. 6 Interestingly, the incomplete reversion and oxidation of physiologically relevant Met residues 7 has been shown to contribute to the impaired function of proteins [56], including actin [57]. It 8 is important to note, that other HOCl scavenging substances than Met (e.g. glutathione, 9 taurine and L-ascorbic acid) were also tested recently in HOCl scavenging assays [58]. Given 10 the rapid reaction rates of HOCl with biological materials, however, much higher doses of L-11 ascorbic acid and thiols were required to effectively protect against the direct oxidative 12 damage induced by HOCl. This latter suggests that inhibiting the generation of HOCl may be 13 a better choice than scavenging HOCl after its generation, for amelioration of HOCl induced 14 biological damage.

15 The distinct effect of the reducing agent DTT on F_{active} and $F_{passive}$ after MPO+H₂O₂ 16 treatment found in this study might be explained by different modifications on the structural 17 conformation or functional activity of the contractile and regulatory myofilament proteins. 18 The precise nature of the redox-dependent functional changes upon H₂O₂ and MPO+H₂O₂ treatment is complex and determined also by the type and site of the induced post-19 20 translational modifications on individual proteins within the sarcomere [59]. SH residues of 21 Cys can undergo both reversible and irreversible modifications. The reaction between the Cys 22 thiolate anion and H₂O₂ results in formation of intra- or intermolecular disulfide bonds, which 23 is reversible, but further oxidation can generate sulfinic or sulfonic acid, which are 24 considered irreversible alterations [60]. The HOCl-induced protein carbonylation is thought to be irreversible, while methionine oxidation can be reversed by MetSO-reductase [28] or
can lead to an irreversible product (methionine-sulfone) [55].

3 The extent of overall SH oxidation observed after MPO treatment in this study was 4 comparable to that in heart tissue slices exposed to high-dose HOCl [27]. There is biochemical evidence that oxidative modifications modulate the architecture of the 5 6 myofilament protein actin [61] and myosin [62]. In vitro exposure of permeabilized human LV cardiomyocytes to the oxidative agent DTDP resulted in a decrease in maximal Ca²⁺-7 8 activated force production with a parallel reduction in the SH content of actin and MLC-1 9 [26]. Consistent with this, in the present study H₂O₂ decreased the SH content of actin. 10 However, despite the marked reduction in Factive, no additional decrease in this parameter was 11 detected after MPO+H₂O₂ application, suggesting that SH oxidation may not be the main 12 contributor to the MPO-evoked decrease in Factive under these experimental conditions. 13 Moreover, formation of an actin and a Tm containing protein complex observed in this study 14 is also unlikely to be responsible for the contractile changes observed in the cardiomyocytes 15 after H₂O₂ and MPO+H₂O₂ administration. The possible functional consequences of the 16 observed protein complexes require further examinations.

In a mouse model of experimental MI, we recently identified the increased 17 18 carbonylation of actin and myosin heavy chain (MHC) in the infarcted area [2]. Similarly to 19 MPO, *in vitro* Fenton-based myofilament carbonylation decreased pCa₅₀, irrespectively of the 20 phosphorylation status of the myofilaments. Moreover, pCa₅₀ correlated strongly with the 21 myofilament carbonylation levels. In accord with this, a marked (3-fold) increase in carbonyl 22 group formation in actin was observed after 1 mM, but not after 0.1 mM H₂O₂ treatment [25]. 23 The application of H₂O₂ to cardiomyocytes at a concentration higher than 0.1 mM was 24 hindered by its inhibitory effect on the activity of MPO [42]. 30 µM H₂O₂ lowered F_{active} in 25 parallel with a slight, but significant increase in the carbonylation of actin and MyBP-C. Similarly to SH oxidation, carbonylation of these myofilament proteins was not further affected by the addition of MPO, despite its noteworthy effects on cardiomyocyte active and passive force production. This implies that the physiological effects of MPO-catalyzed oxidative processes are independent of SH group oxidation or carbonylation of human myocardial proteins.

6 Oxidative modifications in the myocardium primarily have been considered to result in reduced force generation, as also demonstrated in the present study. However, recent 7 8 evidence suggests a more complex picture. Reactive oxygen and nitrogen species can activate 9 protective mechanisms and signaling pathways (redox regulation) [60] or even increase 10 cardiac performance [63]. Mild oxidative stress induced S-nitrosylation at specific Cys 11 residues was shown to be cardioprotective [64]. Subtle increases in ROS production may 12 even enhance cardiac contractility under physiological conditions [65]. Indeed, certain 13 oxidative myofilament modifications can lead to positive functional consequences, such as 14 nitroxyl (HNO), a reactive nitrogen species related to nitric oxide, induces formation of actin-Tm heterodimers, which correlates with the increase in Ca^{2+} sensitivity and dimeric forms of 15 16 MHC and MLC-1, which are associated with increased force generation [63]. HNO was also shown to increase maximum tension and Ca²⁺ sensitivity of trabeculae sarcomeres 17 18 functioning in situ [66]. These results strongly suggest that the beneficial or deleterious 19 functional outcome is likely dictated by the strength and the nature of the oxidizing agent and 20 the redox milieu of the myofilament compartment.

Since isolation of cardiomyocytes and assessment of myofilament properties was performed on LV biopsies of unused donor hearts, possible changes in the phosphorylation and oxidative status of the myofilament proteins occurring before or during tissue sampling may have been interfered with the results of this study. In addition, activation of the β adrenergic signaling and various oxidative pathways might also influence the baseline

mechanical and biochemical characteristics of the cardiomyocytes. We have checked the baseline functional parameters of the cells in the study and found no major differences in the cardiomyocyte mechanical properties. Moreover, the baseline myofilament SH contents were also similar in the LV samples used for the cardiomyocyte isolation. These observations are in line with those found in our previous study, in which the reducing agent DTT did not affect F_{active} and pCa₅₀ of cardiomyocytes derived from human donor hearts [26].

7 In this study LV heart samples were frozen and their functional and biochemical 8 properties were evaluated upon thawing. To validate the use of defrosted biopsy samples, in 9 one of our previous studies [67] force recordings of cardiomyocytes isolated from a biopsy 10 sample immediately after procurement were compared to those of cardiomyocytes isolated 11 from a defrosted biopsy of the same patient. These force recordings yielded identical results. 12 In addition, the extent of tissue heterogeneity was also addressed in previous studies using 13 explanted hearts [68, 69] or surgically procured biopsies [70]. In these studies the variability 14 of force measurements of cardiomyocytes isolated from different portions of the heart was 15 always less than 5%.

It is also important to note that several additional MPO-sensitive processes, such as protein halogenation [71], protein nitration [72], Met oxidation, sulfonic acid generation (Cys), [73] or protein degradation [28], might be responsible for the observed functional alterations. Further studies are clearly required to elucidate the relative contributions of these processes to the overall pump function during human cardiac pathologies associated with elevated MPO levels.

22

23 Conclusion

24 MPO-derived oxidants contribute to myocardial contractile dysfunction by decreasing 25 the cardiomyocyte force production and the myofilament Ca²⁺ sensitivity and increasing

F_{passive} in human cardiomyocytes. These effects could be prevented by MPO inhibition and the antioxidant Met. The associated functional and biochemical alterations may provide a pharmacological tool for the prevention and/or reversion of MPO-induced contractile protein alterations, which could have therapeutic implications in cardiac pathologies characterized by elevated MPO levels.

1

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FIG. 1. Myeloperoxidase (MPO) and hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂) impair the force 3 4 generation of human permeabilized cardiomyocytes. (A) A single cardiomyocyte (isolated from a human left ventricle myocardium) mounted between a sensitive force transducer and 5 an electromagnetic motor. (B) Original force recordings of maximal Ca^{2+} -activated active 6 (F_{active}) and Ca^{2+} -independent passive $(F_{passive})$ force components before (left panel) and after 7 MPO+H₂O₂ treatment (right panel) at pCa (i.e $-\log_{10}[Ca^{2+}]$) 4.75 and pCa 9.0, respectively. 8 9 $MPO + H_2O_2$ were applied in Iso for 15 min. (C) pCa-force relationships determined before and after H_2O_2 or MPO+ H_2O_2 treatments (number of cardiomyocytes, n=7 and 12, 10 respectively). Force levels are expressed relative to the values measured before the 11 treatments. (* vs. Before H₂O₂, # vs. Before MPO+H₂O₂, & vs. After H₂O₂: **,#,&p<0.05) (**D**) 12 13 Changes in F_{passive} measured in the presence of Iso and after sequential applications of H₂O₂ or MPO+H₂O₂. (E) Significant rightward shift (i.e. decrease in the Ca^{2+} sensitivity of force 14 production (pCa₅₀)) in the normalized pCa-force relationships in response to MPO+ H_2O_2 , but 15

16 no change after H_2O_2 treatment (**F**). (Data are expressed as mean±SEM.)

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FIG. 2. Similar effects of the MPO inhibitor (MPO-I), but distinct actions of methionine (Met) on the chlorinating and peroxidase activities of myeloperoxidase (MPO). Met inhibits the chlorinating (A), but not the peroxidase (B) activity of MPO. Values are expressed relative to the MPO activity measured in the presence of Iso and hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂). (Data are expressed as mean±SEM, *p<0.05).

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FIG. 3. The myeloperoxidase inhibitor (MPO-I) and methionine (Met) prevent the
MPO-induced changes in isometric force production of human cardiomyocytes.
Maximal (pCa 4.75) Ca²⁺-dependent active (F_{active}) (A) and Ca²⁺-independent (pCa 9) passive

1 ($F_{passive}$) force (**B**) in left ventricular cardiomyocytes treated in isolating solution (Iso) 2 supplemented with hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) or myeloperoxidase (MPO)+ H_2O_2 , MPO-I or 3 Met. Forces are expressed relative to the values measured before the subsequent treatments. 4 The MPO-I (**C**) and Met (**D**) prevent the MPO-evoked rightward shift in the normalized pCa-5 force relationships. Dashed lines indicate force-pCa relationships determined in Iso. (**E**) 6 Changes in the Ca²⁺ sensitivity of force production (pCa₅₀) upon H₂O₂, MPO+H₂O₂, MPO-I 7 or Met treatments. (Data are expressed as mean±SEM, *p<0.05)

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9 FIG. 4. Myeloperoxidase (MPO) and hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂) similarly alter 10 sulfhydryl (SH) group oxidation in myofilament proteins. (A) SH group oxidation in a 11 cardiomyocyte suspension treated in isolating solution (Iso) supplemented with H₂O₂ and 12 MPO (Ellman's reaction). (B-E) Representative examples of SH content determination in 13 actin (B), myosin-binding protein C (MyBP-C) (C), N2BA (D, E) and N2B (D, F) titin 14 isoforms after H_2O_2 or MPO+ H_2O_2 treatments through use of a protein biotinylation assay. 15 T2 indicates the titin degradation product. Samples exposed to dithiodipyridine (DTDP, 2.5 16 mM, for 2 min) were used as positive control. Total protein amount was determined with the 17 Sypro Ruby Protein Blot Stain. Values are expressed relative to the SH group content 18 determined in Iso (time control). (Data are expressed as mean \pm SEM, *p<0.05 vs. Iso.)

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FIG. 5. No additional disulfide cross-bridge formation after hydrogen-peroxide (H_2O_2) and myeloperoxidase (MPO) treatment. Left ventricular myocardial samples solubilized in non-reducing (- β -mercaptoethanol (β -ME)) or reducing (+ β -ME) sample buffers and probed with anti-tropomyosin (Tm) (left panel) and anti-actin (right panel) antibodies after immunoblotting. (Protein amount was determined with the Sypro Ruby Protein Blot Stain, MW - molecular weight.)

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2 FIG. 6. Myeloperoxidase (MPO) and hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂) increase the 3 carbonylation of actin and myosin-binding protein C (MyBP-C), but not that of titin. 4 Representative examples and measurement of carbonyl group formation in actin (A), MyBP-5 C (B), N2BA (C, D) and N2B (C, E) titin isoforms treated with isolating solution (Iso) 6 supplemented with H₂O₂ or MPO+H₂O₂. Left ventricular myocardial samples treated with 7 Fenton reagent (FeSO₄, H₂O₂ and ascorbic acid) served as positive control. Protein 8 carbonylation is expressed as carbonylation index (CI) (CI=1, carbonyl group content 9 measured in Iso). Total protein amount was determined with the Sypro Ruby Protein Blot 10 Stain. (Data are expressed as mean \pm SEM, *p<0.05) 11