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1	Cardiovascular effects of low versus high-dose beta-carotene in a rat model
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22	Graphical abstract
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26 ABSTRACT

27 β -carotene (BC), a lipid-soluble tetraterpene precursor to vitamin A, widely distributed 28 in plants, including many used in human diet, has well-known health-enhancing properties, 29 including reducing risk of and treatment for certain diseases. Nevertheless, BC may also act to 30 promote disease through the activity of BC derivatives that form in the presence of external 31 toxicants such as cigarette smoke and endogenously-produced reactive oxygen species. The 32 present investigation evaluates the dose-dependent cardioprotective and possibly harmful 33 properties of BC in a rat model. Adult male rats, were gavage-fed BC for 4 weeks, at dosages 34 of either 0, 30 or 150 mg/kg/day. Then hearts excised from the animals were mounted in a 35 "working heart" apparatus and subjected to 30 minutes of global ischemia, followed by 120 36 minutes of reperfusion. A panel of cardiac functional evaluations was conducted on each 37 heart. Infarct size and total antioxidant capacity of the myocardium were assessed. Heart 38 tissue content of heme oxygenase-1 (HO-1) by Western blot analysis; and potential direct 39 cytotoxic effects of BC by MTT assay were evaluated. Hearts taken from rats receiving 30 40 mg/kg/day BC exhibited significantly improved heart function at lower reperfusion times, but 41 lost this protection at higher BC dosage and longer reperfusion times. Myocardial HO-1 42 content was significantly elevated dose-responsively to both BC dosage. Finally, in vitro 43 evaluation of BC on H9c2 cells showed that the agent significantly improved vitality of these 44 cells in a dose range of $2.5-10 \mu M$. 45 Although data presented here do not allow for a comprehensive mechanistic

explanation for reduced cardioprotection at high dose BC, it is speculated that since Fe²⁺
produced as a metabolite of HO-1 activity, may determine whether BC acts as an antioxidant
or prooxidant agent, the strong induction of this enzyme in response to ischemia/reperfusioninduced oxidative stress may account for the high-dose BC loss of cardioprotection.

50

51	Keywords: beta-carotene, heart, ischemia/reperfusion, heme-oxygenase-1
52	Chemical compound studied in this article: CID: 5280489
53	
54	1. INTRODUCTION
55	1.1 "Functional foods" in prevention of and management of chronic illness
56	Increasingly intensive efforts are currently being made to characterize properties of
57	plant materials forming regular components of human diet and expand the range of their
58	use in healthcare. Substantial ongoing increases in serious chronic diseases, particularly
59	obesity- and lifestyle-related cardiovascular disorders and related co-morbidities, provide
60	compelling incentive for use of natural products in healthcare – particularly in the form of
61	"functional foods", which are items in normal diet configured to prevent and/or mitigate
62	disease. Such substances are increasingly attractive to healthcare providers, since they are
63	reasonably priced compared to prescription drugs and other potentially traumatic
64	interventions. Moreover, health-enhancing properties for many of these materials have
65	evolved in tandem with vertebrates as mutual adaptive strategies, a process called
66	"xenohormesis" [1]. Hence there is compelling incentive to encourage adoption of diets
67	rich in fruits, seeds, vegetables, legumes, fish oil and other materials rich in compounds that
68	strengthen and stabilize healthy homeostatic processes and reduce risk of cancers,
69	cardiovascular diseases and many other chronic illnesses.
70	
71	1.2 β -carotene: chemical and biological properties
72	The present investigation explores the capacity of the vitamin A precursor β -carotene
73	(BC) to influence aspects of myocardial cell, tissue, and organ function that may will
74	allow development of novel strategies for use of this compound in prevention and

75 management of heart disease. This tetraterpene carotenoid is a 536 Da lipid-soluble plant

76	pigment, widely distributed in nature, including many plants regularly consumed by
77	animals and humans [2]. It is intensely red-orange and is responsible for multi-hued
78	coloration in many plant species; and is also used as a commercial food colorant. Many
79	human foods contain the compound, notably yams, pumpkins and carrots. Some of its
80	medical benefits are well established. For example, the compound has been demonstrated
81	moderately effective as adjuvant treatment in erythropoietic protoporphyria and has
82	additionally shown some promise also been used to reducing risk of age-related macular
83	degeneration; and susceptibility to breast cancer risk in pre-menopausal women [3-5]. A
84	significant cautionary note on clinical use of BC, is evidence that lung cancer risk is
85	increased in smokers by high-dose consumption of the agent [6]. This effect is hypothesized
86	to occur due to instability of the compound in the presence of tobacco smoke – causing its
87	degradation to carcinogenic metabolites [7].
88	
89	1.3 Ischemia-reperfusion injury to cardiovascular tissue and antioxidant defense
90	The present investigation, which evaluates cardiovascular effects of BC, is focused on
91	processes underlying ischemia and reperfusion (I/R) injury to the myocardium. Heart disease
92	and cardiac surgery frequently involve procedures that deprive heart tissue of oxygenated
93	blood, resulting in ischemia, a disruption of normal tissue homeostasis. Further
94	derangement of tissue function may occur as a result of re-oxygenation by restoration of
95	blood flow (reperfusion), a process that triggers a burst expression in physiologic
96	production of highly reactive oxygen-containing species during the first 5 minutes of
97	blood reflow [8]. These compounds greatly increase oxidative stress on reperfused tissues
98	and effects that typically include oxidation of myocardial membrane lipids resulting in
99	impairment of cell membrane function. This oxidative stress increase is a primary cause of
100	reperfusion-induced damage [9]. Adverse effects on cardiovascular function caused by

101	these processes may be counteracted by antioxidant compounds capable of scavenging
102	oxygen-containing free radicals that are the primary agents of oxidative stress-mediated
103	damage. Such cytoprotective agents of (mainly) plant origin produce carotenoids, notably
104	BC, along with polyphenolic compounds and other phytochemicals such as flavonoids,
105	anthocyanidins, proanthocyanidins and other carotenoids which have well documented
106	benefits to cardiovascular health [10-14].
107	
108	1.4 β -carotene: a double-edged sword in health maintenance
109	The effects of BC have been intensively studied and both beneficial and potentially
110	harmful effects of the compound have been noted [6,7]. In addition to its ability to affect
111	risk and pathogenesis of cancer, BC has been considered for use in management of heart
112	disease based on its free radical scavenging capacities, with the cautionary note that it may
113	also act as a tissue-damaging prooxidant – depending on the physiologic environment
114	[15,16]. Several clinical studies can be found having investigated the cardiovascular
115	effects of BC, but all these results are rather controversial. Most of these studies found
116	that BC had no any benefit and may have had adverse effects on the risk of death from
117	cardiovascular diseases mainly among smokers [17-19]. The cardioprotective value of
118	beta carotene also appears to vary among individuals based on genetic factors. This effect
119	is illustrated by an intriguing April 2015 report demonstrating that healthy Korean women
120	bearing single nucleotide polymorphisms that correlate with arterial stiffening, were
121	differentially protected by dietary supplementation with BC, along with folate and vitamin
122	E [20]. A primary mechanism by which BC counteracts pathogenesis of cardiovascular
123	disease, has recently been shown to result from the compound's ability to abate
124	atherogenic processes by inhibition of peroxidation of cardiac-associated lipids [21].

125	The investigation described in the present report was undertaken to evaluate the effects
126	of BC administration in a rat model, segregated into groups administered two different BC
127	dosages during a 4-week period. One test group, defined as "low dose" (LD) was fed 30
128	mg/kg/day; and a second, "high dose" (HD) group received 150 mg/kg/day, with a cohort
129	of control (C) rats given hydroxyethyl cellulose-water vehicle. Following sacrifice at the
130	end of the 4-week dosing period, hearts surgically excised and mounted in a "working-
131	heart" apparatus were evaluated for cardiac function parameters and tissue biomarker
132	correlates of physiological regulation of heart activity. Potentially toxic effects of BC on
133	cardiomyocyte function was conducted by in vitro studies of BC dosage effect on H9c2
134	cells. The comparison of outcomes in hearts from animals treated with low-dose, high-
135	dose BC and vehicle, provided a clear perspective into how this compound affected
136	features of heart function relevant to maintenance of healthy heart activity and treatment
137	of disease.

138

139 2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

140 *2.1 Animals*

141 The experiments were accomplished using adult male rats (Charles River 142 Laboratories), with a body weight range of 350-400 grams. All animals received humane 143 care in compliance with the "Principles of Laboratory Animal Care" (formulated by the 144 U.S. National Society for Medical Research, as described in U.S. National Institutes of 145 Health publication No. 86-23, revised 1996) and the "Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals". Maintenance and treatment of animals used in the present study 146 147 was additionally approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of the 148 University of Debrecen, Debrecen, Hungary. The animals were housed in wire-bottomed

149	cages (three rats per cage) throughout the study and were maintained on a 12:12-h light-
150	dark cycle; and provided with laboratory rodent chow pellets, and water ad libitum.
151	
152	2.2 Groups and administration of β -carotene
153	Rats used in the present study were segregated into 3 groups and gavage-administered
154	the following agents: hydroxyethyl cellulose-water (1:4) vehicle control (C); LD-BC (30
155	mg/kg/day) and HD-BC (150 mg/kg/day) suspended in hydroxyethyl cellulose-water,
156	respectively. BC was obtained from Sigma-Aldrich Kft. (Budapest, Hungary).
157	
158	2.3 Ischemia-reperfusion and isolated working hearts
159	Following 4-week treatment with vehicle or BC, the rats were anesthetized with
160	intraperitoneal injections of ketamine-xylazine (75/10 mg/kg), with heparin anticoagulant
161	administered intraperitoneally (1000 IU/kg). After thoracotomy, the hearts were excised
162	and placed in ice-cold modified Krebs-Henseleit bicarbonate buffer (118.5 NaCl, 4.7
163	KCl, 2.5 CaCl ₂ x H ₂ O, 25 NaHCO ₃ , 1.2 KH ₂ PO ₄ , 1.2 MgSO ₄ , and 10.0 glucose (in mM)),
164	then cannulated through the aorta and perfused in a Langendorff apparatus in "non-
165	working" mode (100 cm of water) for 5 minutes to flush blood out from the hearts.
166	Subsequently, Langendorff perfusion was conducted using a cannulated pulmonary vein,
167	during which the isolated heart preparatum was switched to working mode (at a filling
168	pressure of 17 cm of the buffer). After 10 minutes of working perfusion, 30 minutes of
169	global ischemia (ISA) was initiated for each procedure, by clamping the pulmonary
170	inflow and the aortic outflow. At the end of the ischemic period, 120 minutes of
171	reperfusion (REP) was initiated by unclamping the inflow and outflow lines. The first 10

172	minutes of REP was conducted in Langendorff mode to avoid the fatal ventricular
173	arrhythmias as described [22].
174	

2.4 Cardiac function measurements

176	Baseline assessment of cardiac function for each isolated heart was made following
177	10 minutes of working perfusion. To examine the recovery of the left ventricle, these
178	parameters were measured after 30, 60, and 120 minutes of REP. Cardiac function
179	evaluation for each experiment was conducted as previously described [22]. Briefly, heart
180	rate (HR) was measured using a computer acquisition system (ADInstruments,
181	PowerLab, Castle Hill, Australia); coronary flow (CF) values were obtained by timed
182	collection of effluent draining from each heart; aortic flow (AF) measurements were
183	made using a calibrated flow meter; cardiac output (CO) was generated as the sum of AF
184	and CF. Stroke volume (SV) was calculated as the quotient of CO/HR [23]; and alteration
185	in SV values, as a function of treatments, were calculated as the ratio of SV at reperfusion
186	divided by baseline SV and multiplied by 100.
187	
188	2.5 Infarct size determination
189	Estimations of infarct size (IS) were conducted using the triphenyl tetrazolium
190	chloride (TTC) staining method as previously described [22]. Briefly, following each 30-
191	minute ISA/120-minute REP period, hearts were perfused with 50 ml 1 % (w/v) solution
192	of TTC in phosphate buffer (pH 7.4), and the samples were stored at -70 $^{\circ}$ C for
193	subsequent analysis. The frozen samples were sectioned, weighted, and blotted dry. The
194	dried sections were scanned on an Epson J232D flat-bed scanner. The infarcted area
195	(white coloration) and the risk area (entire scanned section) were measured using

196	planimetry software (Image J, National Institute of Health, Bethesda, Maryland, USA).
197	Estimates of infarcted zone magnitude were subsequently obtained by multiplying
198	infarcted areas by weight of each slice. The resulting numbers represent weight of the risk
199	zone and the infarcted zone. Infarct size was expressed as percentage of the weight of
200	infarcted tissue and the weight of risk zone (whole heart) [13].
201	
202	2.6 Western blot analysis of heart tissue
203	Content of HO-1 protein in the myocardium were obtained by Western blot as
204	previously described [22]. Briefly, approximately 300 mg of left ventricular myocardial
205	tissue were homogenized on ice using a tissue homogenizer (IKA T10 basic ULTRA-
206	TURRAX [®]) in isolating buffer (25 mM Tris-HCl, 25 mM NaCl, 1 mM orthovanadate, 10
207	mM NaF, 10 mM pyrophosphate, 10 mM okadaic acid, 0.5 mM EDTA, 1 mM PMSF,
208	and 1x protease inhibitor cocktail) and centrifuged at 2000 rpm at 4 °C for 10 minutes.
209	The supernatants were transferred to fresh tubes and centrifuged at 10,000 rpm at 4 $^\circ$ C for
210	20 minutes, after which the resulting supernatant was used as cytosolic fraction. The
211	protein concentration was measured by ND-1000 Nano drop spectrophotometer with
212	BCA Protein Assay Kit (Thermo Scientific, Rockford, IL). Thirty μg of protein in each
213	sample were loaded in 10 % polyacrylamide gel and resolved using SDS-PAGE
214	electrophoresis and then transferred to 0.45 μ m pore size nitrocellulose membrane to
215	concentrate the samples. After blocking the membranes with 7 % nonfat dry milk in
216	TBST, membranes were incubated overnight with primary antibody solution in 1 % of
217	nonfat dry milk in TBST (GAPDH 1/40000, antibody was obtained from Cell Signaling
218	Technology, Boston, MA; and HO-1 1/50 was ordered from Sigma-Aldrich Kft.
219	Budapest, Hungary) at 4 °C. Then, the membranes were washed 3 times, each for 10
220	minutes, in TBST and incubated with horseradish peroxidase-conjugated secondary

221	antibody solution (Cell Signaling Technology) containing 1 % of nonfat dry milk in
222	TBST, for two hours at room temperature. The membranes were treated with Western
223	blot Enhanced Chemiluminescent HRP substrate (Millipore, Billerica, MA) to visualize
224	the bands. After the Enhanced Chemiluminescent treatment, the membranes were
225	exposed on x-ray films (Agfa, Mortsel, Belgium). The films were then digitalized by flat-
226	bed scanner (Epson J232D) and analyzed using ImageJ program and normalized the HO-
227	1 band intensities to GAPDH.
228	
229	2.7 MTT cell viability assays for β -carotene cytotoxicity
230	Evaluation of BC cytotoxicity on cellular survival was accomplished using the 3-(4,5-
231	dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide (MTT) assay as previously
232	described [24]. Briefly, H9c2 cells (ATCC, CRL-1446, LGC Standards GmbH, Wesel
233	Germany) dissociated by trituration in medium (Dulbecco's modified eagle's medium
234	from Sigma with 10% FBS, 1% penicillin-streptomycin), were seeded into 96 well plates
235	at a density of 3000 cells/well and cultured for 1 day to establish adhesion of the wells.
236	BC containing medium was prepared as described by Wertz et al. for keratinocyte
237	cultures with some modifications [25]. Cells were treated with 0, 2.5, 5, 10 and 20 μM
238	BC for 4 hours, respectively. Next, following a 30-minute incubation period, half of the
239	wells were treated with 125 μ M H ₂ O ₂ . Four hours later addition of 20 μ l MTT solution (5
240	mg/ml in PBS) to each well and an additional 3 hours incubation at 37 °C to allow
241	mitochondrial uptake, the medium were removed and cells were lysed by addition of 150
242	μ l of isopropanol, incubated for 15 minutes followed by measurement of absorbance at
243	570 and 690 nm using a plate reader (FLUOstar OPTIMA, BMG Labtech). Within each
244	experiment, absorbance values were averaged across 4 replicate wells and repeated 3
245	times. BC cytotoxic effect assessments were estimated based on linear correlation of

246	absorbance values with MTT-associated H9c2 viability and reported as percentage of
247	cells surviving 4 hours of BC exposure relative to control cells not exposed to BC.
248	
249	2.8 Tissue antioxidant capacity (TAC)
250	TAC of heart tissue was measured using the CS0790-1KT antioxidant assay kit
251	(Sigma-Aldrich Kft., BP., Hungary). Briefly, at the end of reperfusion, the hearts were
252	frozen and stored at -70 °C until analysis. Approximately 100 mg of left ventricular
253	myocardial tissue from each heart were homogenized in 0.5 ml of 1x Assay buffer,
254	centrifuged at 12000 rpm, for 15 min at 4 °C and the supernatants collected for assay.
255	Following sample preparation according to manufacturer's instructions, the absorbance
256	was measured at 405 nm using a plate reader (FLUOstar OPTIMA, BMG Labtech). TAC
257	values for each heart was derived from absorbance values and expressed as Trolox
258	equivalent (μM).
259	
260	2.9 Statistical analysis
261	Statistical analyses were performed using GraphPad Prism 5 software. The data are
262	expressed as mean +/- SEM. One-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni post-test was
263	carried out for heart function data analysis. MTT data were compared by t-test. For
264	Western blot and TAC data outcomes, repeated measures of one-way ANOVA followed
265	by Tukey's post-test was conducted. Differences were considered significant at values of
266	P<0.05.
267	
268	3. RESULTS
269	3.1 β -carotene dose effects on cardiac function in isolated hearts subjected to I/R

270	Figure 1 shows the dose-responsive influence of 0, 30 or 150 mg/kg/day BC gavage-
271	administered to rats during a 4-week period on cardiac function in hearts isolated from
272	the animals and subjected to 30 minutes of global ISA and 120 minutes of REP in a
273	"working-heart" apparatus. No BC-mediated effects on AF were observed in hearts not
274	subjected to REP, however, relative to hearts from vehicle-treated control animals, hearts
275	from animals subjected to 30 min of ISA followed by 30 and 60 min of REP exhibited
276	significantly increased AF when taken from rats treated with LD-BC; but interestingly,
277	not which were subjected to 120 min of REP or from those fed with HD-BC (Figure 1A).
278	No significant BC dosage effects on CF were observed in non-reperfused hearts, or in
279	hearts from animals subjected to 30 min of I/R (Figure 1B). Furthermore, HD-BC
280	treatment resulted in a significant increase on CF values after 60 and 120 min of REP
281	relative to organs from non-BC-treated controls (P<0.05). Likewise CO in non-ISA/REP
282	hearts and those subjected to 120 minutes of REP did not vary significantly as a result of
283	BC treatment, whereas significant CO increases in these hearts relative to organs from
284	non-BC-treated controls were observed in those sustaining reperfusion periods of 30
285	minutes (P<0.05) and 60 minutes (P<0.05) from rats receiving 30 mg/kg/day BC, but not
286	150 mg/kg/day of the agent (Figure 1C). Treatment of animals with 150 mg/kg/day BC
287	resulted in significant increase in HR for I/R hearts (P<0.05) (Figure 1D). Evaluation of
288	the effects of BC on heart SV, revealed no significant BC effect on this variable in non-
289	I/R hearts, or organs subjected to I/R. It was further noted that SV values in hearts
290	receiving 30 and 60 minutes of REP from animals treated with 150 mg/kg/day BC were
291	reduced, however it was not significant, relative to those from rats receiving low BC dose
292	(Figure 1E). This apparent loss of cardioprotection at elevated BC dosage was further
293	confirmed by measurement of stroke volume decline (dSV). These results demonstrated
294	that relative to non-I/R hearts, hearts subjected to 30 and 60, but not 120 minutes of REP

295	exhibited lesser declines in stroke volume when taken from animals treated with 30	
296	mg/kg/day BC than from rats receiving 0 or 150 mg/kg/day BC, however it did not reach	
297	the significant level. (Figure 1F).	
298	Hearts were isolated from 3 groups of rats ($n = 6$ per group). Rats in each test group	
299	received hydroxyethyl cellulose-water (1:4) vehicle control (white bars); BC 30	
300	mg/kg/day (black-shaded bars); and BC 150 mg/kg/day (gray-shaded bars) and sacrificed	
301	following a 4-week time period of BC treatment. Hearts isolated from each rat were	
302	subjected to 30 minutes of global ISA followed by either 120 minutes of REP in an	
303	isolated "working-heart" apparatus to induce I/R-induced injury and evaluated for	
304	selected cardiac functions. Results are shown as average values from each group of	
305	animals ± SEM of AF (1A); CF (1B); CO (1C); HR (1D); SV (1E); and dSV (1F).	
306	*P<0.05 for comparison of the magnitude of each cardiac function measured in each test	
307	group receiving BC, relative to hearts from vehicle-treated control animals. $*P<0.05$ for	
308	comparison of the magnitude of cardiac function measured in LD-BC relative to hearts	
309	from HD-BC treated animals.	
310		
311	3.2 β -carotene dose effects on I/R-induced infarct zone extent and tissue antioxidant	
312	capacity	
313	The influence of BC on the extent of I/R injury-associated infarct zones is shown	
314	in Figure 2A. Macroscopic analysis of TTC solution-perfused heart sections from rats	
315	subjected to 30 minutes of global ISA followed by 120 minutes of REP in a "working-	
316	heart" apparatus revealed that LD-BC treatment, correlated with significant reduction of	
317	the extent of infarcted myocardium relative to the control values (*P<0.05). This	
318	protective effect is abolished in hearts taken from animals treated with high-dose BC	

319	("P<0.05), moreover, the average extent of I/R-induced infarcted zones of hearts of these
320	animals was non-significantly increased relative to hearts from rats administered vehicle
321	only.

322	The phenomenon of diminished BC-mediated protective effect on cardiac physiology was	
323	also dramatically illustrated in outcomes of experiments to assess contribution of the	
324	agent to tissue antioxidant capacity (TAC), a process that has evolved as a homeostatic	
325	countermeasure to oxidative stress. As shown in Figure 2B, isolated, I/R-injured working	
326	hearts taken from rats administered LD-BC, exhibited TAC values significantly in excess	
327	of vehicle-treated controls (*P<0.05) and hearts isolated from HD-BC treated animals	
328	([#] P<0.05). Nevertheless, TAC values measured in hearts from animals received HD-BC	
329	were not significantly higher that hearts from control rats received vehicle.	

330 Infarct size was measured in hearts (n=4) following 120 min of REP by perfusion with

331 triphenyl tetrazolium (TTC) solution, followed by macroscopic analysis of transverse

332 sections of each heart. Average sizes of infarct zone for hearts in each group \pm SEM are

333 shown for each treatment group. TAC values for each tissue sample is expressed as

334 Trolox equivalent (μ M) ±SEM are shown for each treatment group. *P<0.05 for

335 comparison relative to values for hearts from vehicle-treated control (C) animals. [#]P<0.05

for comparison relative to values for hearts from HD-BC treated animals.

337

338 3.3β -carotene effects on heme oxygenase-1 (HO-1) protein expression

Myocardial tissue levels of HO-1, which is a major mediator of cardiac homeostasis, were determined by Western blot analysis. As shown in Figure 3., the presence of HO-1 protein was evaluated in isolated working hearts taken from control rats administered hydroxyethyl cellulose-water vehicle (C), over 4 weeks; a second test group given LD-

343	BC; and a third group, fed with HD-BC. Hearts excised from these animals were either
344	sham-treated (BL-baseline) (Figure 3. panel A), or I/R-injured (I/R) (Figure 3. panel B)
345	by 30 minutes of global ISA and 120 minutes of REP. The results show that in control
346	hearts which were not subjected to I/R (C-BL) HO-1 expression was not significantly
347	different from non-injured hearts removed from rats receiving LD-BC (LD-BL), while
348	high dose treatment (HD-BL) resulted in significantly increased HO-1 level (*P<0.05)
349	(Figure 3.A). Furthermore, in hearts from non-treated animals and subjected to I/R (C-
350	I/R) we detected mild but non-significant increase of HO-1 compared to non-ischemic
351	baseline hearts (C-BL) (Figure 3.B) while, production of HO-1 protein in I/R injured
352	hearts from rats fed with either low-dose (LD-I/R) or high-dose BC (HD-I/R), was
353	significantly higher compared to non-treated non-injured (C-BL) group (*P<0.05) (Figure
354	3.B). Moreover, HO-1 expression in hearts removed from vehicle treated animals and
355	subjected to I/R (C-I/R) was not significantly different from hearts excised from rats
356	receiving LD-BC and subjected to I/R (LD-I/R), however, hearts from high-dose treated
357	animals expressed significantly elevated levels of HO-1 protein relative to corresponding
358	levels measured in vehicle-treated controls (C-I/R) ([#] P<0.05) (Figure 3.B).
359	Expression of HO-1 protein in rat myocardium was measured in homogenized
360	cardiac tissue samples from vehicle or BC treated hearts, with or without I/R injury.
361	Western blot analyses were conducted on each tissue homogenate in triplicate and the
362	signal intensity of resulting bands corresponding to HO-1 protein was measured using the
363	Scion for Windows Densitometry Image program. Tissue content of each protein is
364	shown as a ratio of arbitrary units for HO-1 protein to GAPDH signal. Data are expressed
365	as mean \pm SEM of 6 different blots. *P<0.05 for comparison of average levels of HO-1 in
366	ventricular myocardium from BC-treated animals, versus non-ischemic control (C-BL)

367	hearts. [#] P<0.05 for comparison of average levels of HO-1 in ventricular myocardium
368	from BC-treated animals subjected to I/R, versus I/R-injured control (C-I/R) hearts.
369	
370	3.4 MTT assay-based evaluation of β -carotene cytotoxicity
371	To determine if the significant loss of cardioprotective capacity of BC when
372	administered at the levels defined as "high-dose" in the present study, experiments were
373	carried out to evaluate cytotoxicity of the agent in rat H9c2 cardiomyoblasts, an in vitro
374	model, which along with the MTT cell viability assay, has proven to be a highly versatile
375	tool for use in cardiovascular pharmacology [26]. As shown in Figure 4., significant
376	increases in H9c2 cell viability was observed in cultures of these cells grown 24 hours in
377	Dulbecco's medium supplemented with 2.5, 5 and 10 μ M BC, relative to cells grown
378	with no BC added (*P<0.05). Furthermore, this protective effect was not observed in
379	cells treated with 20 μ M of BC.
380	Evaluation of BC cytotoxicity on cellular survival was accomplished using the MTT
381	assay. H9c2 cells grown 24 hours in Dulbecco's modified eagle's medium and treated
382	with 0, 2.5, 5, 10 and 20 μM BC, were followed by 4-hour treatments with 125 μM H_2O_2
383	and 5 mg/ml MTT reagent, lysis of cells and measurement of absorbance was at 570- and
384	690 nm. Absorbance values were averaged across 4 replicate wells, and repeated 3 times.
385	Outcomes are shown as average percentage of cell viability for each BC dosage level,
386	relative to control cultures not BC-treated. *P<0.05 for comparison of average % viability
387	versus non BC-treated cultures.
388	

4. DISCUSSION

390	Outcomes of the present study contribute to emerging insight into how widely	
391	available plant materials may be used to enhance strategies for maintenance of	
392	cardiovascular health and develop novel the rapeutic approaches. Here, the capacity of β -	
393	carotene is evaluated for its ability to alter processes resulting in reduced tissue	
394	oxygenation, leading to ischemic injury to the heart and with strong relevance to the	
395	kidneys, brain and many other organs [27]. A major finding reported here, is that	
396	increasing BC dosage of may not add to any cardiovascular benefits. Moreover, the agent	
397	may mediate – and indeed, may exacerbate existing pathological mechanisms.	
398	The efficiency and vigor with which a heart is able to maintain healthy circulation may	
399	be quantitatively described by cardiac functional measurements, in particular, AF, CF,	
400	CO, SV and dSV [28] and the ability of agents that enhance antioxidant signaling to	
401	improve these functions in isolated ischemic/reperfused rat hearts has previously been	
402	demonstrated [29]. Accordingly, the significant LD-BC-mediated improvement in AF	
403	(Figure 1A), CO (Figure 1C), were not unexpected. Nevertheless, the apparent abolition	
404	or mitigation of these protective effects against I/R injury in rats treated with BC at the	
405	higher dose is intriguing.	
406	The rat model was selected for the present investigation based on the well-known	
407	features of this animal's physiology its widespread use in cardiovascular research [30],	
408	and extensive use of these animals in previous cardiac-related drug discovery and basic	
409	scientific work by authors of this report [10,11,13,22,31,32]. The experiments described	
410	here, were nevertheless undertaken in the context of known limitations on the	
411	translational value of carotenoid research using rat data. A significant consideration in	
412	studies such as the present one, is that although rats and mice readily convert BC to	
413	vitamin A, bioavailability of carotenoids through gut absorption is very low, requiring	
414	administration of supraphysiologic BC dosages – greatly in excess of levels from any	

415 natural source [33]. The experiments were designed to partly offset this limitation by 416 administration of BC in a high dose range for all conditions. Accordingly, use of these 417 outcomes and findings in design of improved human healthcare strategies must be made 418 conservatively, taking into account experimental versus normal dietary or therapeutic 419 dose ranges. In the present study, even the lowest dose of BC administered to rats is very 420 high, equivalent to more than 2 g/day/70 kg man. On a daily basis, a normal human diet 421 may contain 3 orders of magnitude less BC [34]. The degree of translational value that 422 these findings have for managing cardiovascular disease, will require human nutritional 423 studies – for which the present study provides a guide to major outcomes that might be 424 evaluated. Here it is important to emphasize the value of human, versus extended animal 425 studies. No single animal model completely replicates BC absorption and metabolism of 426 humans [33]. Moreover, since the present study was designed to obtain mostly qualitative 427 evaluations of low-, versus high-dose BC effects on major cardiac parameters, no attempt 428 was made to determine precise rat-to-human dose equivalents. Thus, human clinical 429 evaluations of the effects described here, constitute appropriate and easily accomplished 430 follow-on studies. 431 Although data presented here do not allow a comprehensive mechanistic analysis, the

432 observation that low-dose-mediated improvement of AF and CO observed at 30 and 60, 433 but not 120 minutes of post-ischemic REP suggest that BC at the lower dosage is 434 effectively quenching oxidative stress-promoting prooxidant compounds produced by 435 cardiac tissue as a consequence of inflammatory reactions triggered by I/R-induced 436 damage and/or otherwise counteracting adverse effect of these metabolites. If this is the 437 case, then it is reasonable to predict that the higher levels of oxidative stress present with 438 longer reperfusion periods, might overwhelm the quenching ability of BC, significantly 439 diminishing the beneficial effects of the 150 mg/kg/day treatments. The relative ability of

440	BC to quench prooxidant molecules may also account for differences in magnitudes of
441	myocardial infarct zones and tissue antioxidant capacity shown in Figure 2. The
442	significantly reduced average infarct size observed in I/R-injured hearts of animals
443	treated with LD-BC, relative those not administered the agent, is consistent with previous
444	work by authors of the present report, demonstrating that the extent of myocardial infarct
445	zones in I/R-injured hearts may be diminished with agents that reduce oxidative stress
446	[13,22,35]. Accordingly, the significant LD-BC-mediated reduction of infarct size
447	(Figure 2A) and increased TAC (Figure 2B), were not surprising. Moreover, abolition of
448	these effects in hearts of animals treated with 150 mg/kg/day BC, would be expected if
449	the quenching ability of the molecule were suppressed at a higher dose, allowing a more
450	prooxidant cardiac tissue environment at the higher dosage. The dose-responsively
451	increased expression of HO-1 by myocardial tissue observed for both BC and duration of
452	REP shown in Figure 3., further supports the possibility that BC loses quenching
453	potential and may become prooxidant as dosage increases. HO-1 is an ubiqutous
454	antioxidant response to a wide variety of oxidative stressors, hence it is expected that its
455	expression would increase as a result of I/R injury [27].
456	It is further expected that BC acting as a protective antioxidant would not be
457	diminished by BC also acting as a quenching agent and contributor to TAC, as shown in
458	Figure 2B. However, if this model is accurate, BC at the elevated dose, acting to promote
459	prooxidant tissue environments is expected to stimulate HO-1 production - which is what
460	was observed (Figure 3.). The possibility of such a mechanism is additionally validated,
461	by the observation that HO-1 expression in I/R-injured hearts of rats treated with high-
462	dose BC (HD-I/R) was elevated relative to production of the enzyme by hearts from rats
463	treated with high dose BC, but not subjected to I/R injury (HD-BL) (Figure 3.), since

464	elevated HO-1 expression would be an expected consequence of significantly higher
465	levels of oxidative stress present in I/R-injured tissue.
466	This analysis is supported, albeit to a minor extent by outcomes of the in vitro assays
467	for BC cytotoxicity on H9c2 rat myocardial cells. Outcomes of these experiments (Fig.
468	4.) show that viability of these cells is significantly enhanced in comparison to
469	unstimulated control cultures, by addition of BC at 2.5, 5 and 10 μ M, with a loss of this
470	effect at 20 μ M. Although these data are insufficient on which to base definitive
471	conclusions, the results suggest that as BC dosage is increased, the protective effect of the
472	compound is diminished and may include deleterious properties.
473	An explanation for apparent cardioprotective effect of BC at one selected dosage and
474	mitigation or elimination of that protection at a higher dose is speculative based on the
475	outcomes presented here. This notwithstanding, previous studies provide some clues as to
476	the mechanisms that may underlie the observations in this report. It is known that free
477	radical species of the kind responsible for oxidative stress in vertebrate tissues, react with
478	BC to produce prooxidant degradation products, such as apo-8'-beta-carotenal, that are
479	particularly damaging to subcellular organelles, particularly mitochondria, resulting in
480	further disruption of the redox balance of myocardial cells, oxidation of critical proteins
481	and exacerbation of damage caused by ischemia-reperfusion injury [15,16]. Ironically,
482	the HO-1 expression response to oxidative stressors may also contribute to loss of
483	cardioprotection at elevated BC dosage. This is a possibility because heme oxygenases,
484	including HO-1, reduce oxidative stress by degrading heme produced in the tissue by red
485	blood cell turnover to produce metabolites with cytoprotective qualities, principally
486	biliverdin (converted rapidly into bilirubin) and subtoxic levels of carbon monoxide,
487	which is promotes antioxidant signaling. Interestingly, although ferrous iron (Fe ^{$2+$}) also
488	produced by normal HO-1 activity is a benign metabolite and readily cleared, its presence

489	under some physical settings determines whether BC acts as an antioxidant or prooxidant
490	compound [36]. This property has potential consequences that are paradoxical in the
491	context of the putative role of HO-1. Normally, increased activity of this enzyme reduces
492	oxidative stress and protects tissues from toxic insult. In the present study, I/R injury to
493	cardiac tissue, strongly activated HO-1, resulting in elevated levels of its metabolic
494	products, including Fe ²⁺ . Since, as described by Andersen et al., Fe ²⁺ enhances the
495	prooxidant properties of BC, influences that elevate HO-1 in the presence of high BC
496	levels, potentially overwhelm the cytoprotective effects of HO-1 and increase oxidative
497	stress on a tissue. This conclusion is speculative and will require further analysis of BC
498	cardiovascular effects. Such a mechanism is nevertheless consistent with the known
499	behavior of BC in the presence of Fe^{2+} - and if valid, accounts for the results shown in
500	Figure 4. Potential relevance of this finding to management of cardiovascular disease is
501	provided by an observation that an inducer of HO-1 administered orally to human
502	patients significantly altered serum levels of transferrin, which is the physiologic
503	transport molecule for Fe^{2+} [37] indicating that aspects of iron metabolism that may also
504	impact BC utilization may be modulated by drugs that affect HO-1 activity and possibly
505	selective chelators of Fe^{2+} .

506 **CONCLUSIONS:** The findings described above, suggest that the level of HO-1 activity 507 in response to I/R injury may be a critical determinant for the role of BC as either a 508 protective agent against I/R-induced heart damage, or as a contributor to I/R-related 509 syndromes through activation of its prooxidant properties. Validity of this model depends 510 on the degree to which redox activities of BC may be influenced in either direction by presence of Fe^{2+} - which has been identified as a primary factor. Ongoing characterization 511 512 of these processes is continuing by this laboratory. A particularly valuable outcome 513 anticipated for this ongoing research initiative, is the potential for combining use of BC

with HO-1 inducers, such as the sour cherry seed extracts described by Csiki et al [37], in
modulation of the clinical effects of BC.

516	FUTURE DIRECTIONS: Current efforts by authors of this report to mitigate the
517	cardiotoxic effects of β -carotene, while retaining the cardioprotective value of this
518	compound and also HO-1 activity, are focused on development of a novel functional food
519	class containing whole leaf extract of Tamarindus indica L. (tamarind), which in March
520	2015 was reported to chelate ferrous iron, with a binding constant of 1.085 mol L^{-1} [38].
521	It is predicted that Fe^{2+} chelation in this potency range will augment transferrin activity to
522	the extent that the capacity of endogenous HO-1 to reduce oxidative stress will be
523	retained, while simultaneously counteracting BC toxicity by removal of Fe ²⁺ . This
524	conclusion is currently speculative and await outcome of ongoing studies.

525

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Figure 1.: β-carotene effects on cardiac function in isolated working hearts.

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659 Figure 2.: Effect of β-carotene on infarcted zone magnitude (A) and tissue

660 **antioxidant capacity (B).**

661



663 Figure 3.: Western blot analysis for cardiac expression of heme oxygenase-1 (HO-1)

664 protein.





666 Figure 4.: *In vitro* (MTT) assays for β-carotene cytotoxicity on H9c2 cells.