

Sensitive and real-time determination of H₂O₂ release from intact peroxisomes

Sebastian MUELLER^{*1}, Angelika WEBER^{*}, Reiner FRITZ^{*}, Sabine MÜTZE^{*}, Daniel ROST^{*}, Henning WALCZAK[†], Alfred VÖLKL[‡] and Wolfgang STREMMEL^{*}

^{*}Department of Internal Medicine IV, University of Heidelberg, Bergheimer Strasse 58, 69115 Heidelberg, Germany, [†]Division of Apoptosis Regulation, Tumor Immunology Program, German Cancer Research Center (DKFZ), 69120 Heidelberg, Germany, and [‡]Institute of Anatomy and Cell Biology, University of Heidelberg, Im Neuenheimer Feld, 69120 Heidelberg, Germany

Peroxisomes are essential and ubiquitous cell organelles having a key role in mammalian lipid and oxygen metabolism. The presence of flavine oxidases makes them an important intracellular source of H₂O₂: an obligate product of peroxisomal redox reactions and a key reactive oxygen species. Peroxisomes proliferate in response to external signals triggered by peroxisome-proliferator-activated receptor signalling pathways. Peroxisome-derived oxidative stress as a consequence of this proliferation is increasingly recognized to participate in pathologies ranging from carcinogenesis in rodents to alcoholic and non-alcoholic steatosis hepatitis in humans. To date, no sensitive approach exists to record H₂O₂ turnover of peroxisomes in real time. Here, we introduce a sensitive chemiluminescence method that allows the monitoring of H₂O₂ generation and degradation in real time in suspensions of intact peroxisomes. Importantly, removal, as well as release of, H₂O₂ can be assessed at nanomolar,

non-toxic concentrations in the same sample. Owing to the kinetic properties of catalase and oxidases, H₂O₂ forms fast steady-state concentrations in the presence of various peroxisomal substrates. Substrate screening suggests that urate, glycolate and activated fatty acids are the most important sources for H₂O₂ in rodents. Kinetic studies imply further that peroxisomes contribute significantly to the β -oxidation of medium-chain fatty acids, in addition to their essential role in the breakdown of long and very long ones. These observations establish a direct quantitative release of H₂O₂ from intact peroxisomes. The experimental approach offers new possibilities for functionally studying H₂O₂ metabolism, substrate transport and turnover in peroxisomes of eukaryotic cells.

Key words: catalase, lipid metabolism, oxidative stress, peroxisome proliferation, redox regulation.

INTRODUCTION

Peroxisomes are subcellular, single, membrane-bound respiratory organelles that are present in virtually all eukaryotic cells, and carry out a wide range of essential functions, including β -oxidation of fatty acids, biosynthesis of plasmalogens, cholesterol, bile acids, glyoxylate metabolism, and metabolism of reactive oxygen species [1]. Glyoxysomes are their counterparts in plants, and have a similar role in β -oxidation and glyoxylate metabolism [2,3].

In humans, defects in structure or function of peroxisomes give rise to a group of genetically distinct, mostly fatal, inborn errors: the peroxisomal disorders [4]. Besides these rare hereditary diseases, peroxisomes proliferate in the presence of non-genotoxic chemicals that lead to carcinogenesis in rodents [5,6]. Peroxisome proliferators include a wide range of chemicals, such as phthalate esters and trichlorethylene herbicides, but also epidemiologically important drugs or compounds such as ethanol, hypolipidaemic drugs and hormones. These structurally diverse compounds produce similar pleiotropic effects in the peroxisomal compartment, a differential increase in peroxisomal enzymes and hepatocarcinogenesis in rats and mice. Further studies have led to the discovery of peroxisome-proliferator-activated receptors ('PPARs') that mediate peroxisomal hyperplasia and proliferation; however, the precise mechanism of carcinogenesis in rodents is not well understood [6,7]. Moreover, peroxisomes are increasingly considered to be involved in common human pathologies, such as alcoholic and non-alcoholic steatosis hepatitis [8–10].

Peroxisome-derived oxidative stress has long been under debate in mediating at least some of the consequences of peroxisomal proliferation [11,12]. Peroxisomes have been characterized initially by the presence of several H₂O₂-generating flavine oxidases, together with H₂O₂-degrading catalase. In contrast with mitochondria, peroxisomal β -oxidation is not coupled with oxidative phosphorylation. Rather, oxygen is stoichiometrically converted into H₂O₂, and peroxisomes have been estimated to consume between 10–30% of the oxygen consumed by the liver [13]. Assuming an efficient interplay of β -oxidation enzymes and catalase during the breakdown of fatty acids, oxygen is reduced to water and the energy is dissipated in the form of heat. If catalase is not efficient in trapping H₂O₂, it may escape from peroxisomes. The morphological and biochemical changes that occur during peroxisomal proliferation are thought to result from such an increase in the synthesis of H₂O₂ without a concomitant increase in the capacity of its degradation by catalase, which, in turn, leads to DNA damage and eventually neoplasia [12].

Besides their toxicity [14] and well-established physiological functions in synthetic pathways and phagocytosis, reactive oxygen species are considered to be potential signalling molecules, and the study of redox regulation has emerged as a broad and expanding field [15–18]. Consequently, peroxisome-derived H₂O₂ might not solely act as a DNA-damaging agent, but might rather modulate signalling cascades involved in cell proliferation or apoptosis. Indeed, the redox-sensitive transcription factor nuclear factor κ B (NF- κ B) [19] is activated in the presence of peroxisome proliferators, and this activation can be simulated by

Abbreviation used: NF- κ B, nuclear factor κ B.

¹ To whom correspondence should be addressed (e-mail sebastian.mueller@urz.uni-heidelberg.de).

overexpression of the H₂O₂-generating acyl-CoA oxidase, which is the first enzyme of the peroxisomal β -oxidation pathway [20].

One of the major difficulties in the direct measurement of peroxisomal H₂O₂ metabolism has been the lack of an appropriate analytical tool. Additionally, no method is known to date that allows the direct determination and comparison of both catalase and oxidase activities in intact peroxisomes at non-toxic (i.e. physiological) H₂O₂ concentrations. Using a sensitive chemiluminescence assay [21,22], we establish in the present study a procedure that permits the real-time determination of H₂O₂ generation and degradation in intact liver peroxisomes. Importantly, studies were performed at H₂O₂ concentrations that are found *in vivo*. We demonstrate that H₂O₂ is released from peroxisomes in the presence of various peroxisomal substrates. A steady-state concentration of H₂O₂ is formed under these conditions. The kinetic screening with several peroxisomal substrates shows that urate, glycolate and activated fatty acids are most efficient in producing H₂O₂. The data suggest further that peroxisomes are an important site for medium-length fatty acid β -oxidation.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Chemicals

Luminol, catalase, glucose oxidase, H₂O₂, sodium hypochlorite and sodium azide were obtained from Sigma (Deisenhofen, Germany). Acyl-CoA esters and other peroxisomal substrates, such as palmitoyl-CoA, lignoceryl-CoA, octanoyl-CoA, palmitoleoyl-CoA, arachidonoyl-CoA, stearoyl-CoA, urate, glycolate, spermidine, heptadecanoyl-CoA, pentadecanoyl-CoA, proline and alanine, were likewise from Sigma.

Solutions

Stock solutions of luminol were prepared in 10 mM PBS and adjusted to pH 7.4. Stock solutions of sodium hypochlorite and H₂O₂ were prepared in water. Their concentrations were determined spectrophotometrically (ϵ_{290} 350 litre · mol⁻¹ · cm⁻¹ at pH 12 [23] and ϵ_{230} 74 litre · mol⁻¹ · cm⁻¹ [24] for sodium hypochlorite and H₂O₂, respectively). Solutions of sodium hypochlorite and H₂O₂ were freshly prepared, and PBS/Dulbecco (137 mM NaCl/2.7 mM KCl/8.1 mM Na₂HPO₄/1.48 mM KH₂PO₄/0.49 mM MgCl₂·6H₂O/0.9 mM CaCl₂) was used as the phosphate buffer. Fresh preparations of peroxisomes were suspended in a buffer adjusted to pH 7.4 containing 250 mM sucrose, 5 mM Mops, 1 mM EDTA and 0.5% (v/v) ethanol.

Isolation of peroxisomes

Peroxisomes were isolated from the liver of Wistar rats using the metrizamide gradient technique, as described previously [25]. This method yields intact peroxisomes with a high degree of purity (approx. 98%; [25]). To verify the results further, very pure peroxisomal preparations were obtained using the recently described technique of immune free-flow electrophoresis [26]. Suspensions of isolated peroxisomes were washed in PBS to remove extra-peroxisomal catalase, which is known to leak from peroxisomes during preparation [27]. The washing protocol included a step of washing once with PBS for 5 min at 8000 rev./min and then washing three times for 5 min at 5000 rev./min. Figure 1(a) shows the efficient removal of matrix enzymes (catalase and acyl-CoA oxidase) from the supernatant during the washing cycles. Coomassie Blue staining of pellets and supernatants demonstrates further that some catalase has leaked from the original peroxisome preparation, whereas no urate oxidase is detected in the first supernatant (Figure 1b). Already,

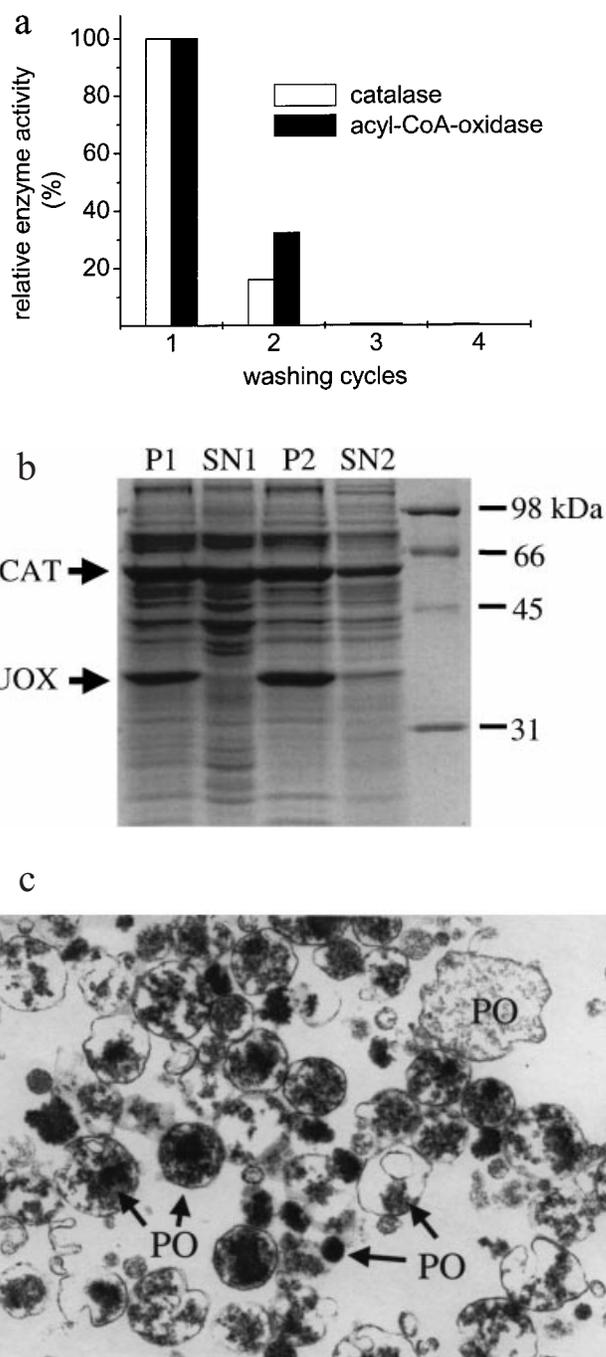


Figure 1 Preparation of highly purified intact peroxisomes from rat liver that are free of leaked matrix enzymes

To remove leaked catalase, isolated peroxisomes were further washed in PBS in four subsequent washing steps. (a) The efficient removal of catalase and acyl-CoA oxidase by determining the remaining enzyme activities in the supernatant. (b) Coomassie Blue-stained gel of the first and second pellet (P1 and P2) and supernatant (SN1 and SN2). Abundance of catalase and absence of urate oxidase clearly indicate that the initial supernatant SN1 is the major source of leaked catalase. In (c), a representative electron micrograph confirms that the washing procedure yields morphologically intact and heterogeneous peroxisomes of different size (DAB; $\times 18000$). PO, peroxisomes.

the second supernatant contains urate oxidase and much less catalase. This finding is indicative of small but intact peroxisomes that are not pelleted under these centrifugation conditions. After

four washing cycles, the peroxisome preparation is free from leaked matrix enzymes and the peroxisomes are found to be morphologically intact as demonstrated in the electron micrograph (Figure 1c). Catalase and oxidase activities in the supernatant of peroxisome preparations were measured using a recently described sensitive chemiluminescence technique [22,28]. Lysates of peroxisomes were prepared in the presence of 0.01% (w/v) Triton X-100. This concentration allowed an almost-complete lysis of peroxisomal membranes, without inactivation of oxidases (results not shown). Protein concentrations of peroxisome preparations were determined using the Bradford method.

SDS/PAGE

SDS/PAGE was performed under reducing conditions, with 12.5% (w/v) acrylamide gels [29]. Samples were boiled for 5 min in sample buffer, approx. 10 µg of protein was loaded per lane, and these were then electrophoresed at a constant current of 25 mA. Gels were stained with Coomassie Blue.

Electron microscopy

Aliquots of fractions were mixed with one-half of their volume of an ice-cold fixative containing 7.5% (v/v) glutaraldehyde. After fixation for 30 min at 4 °C, the fractions were diluted with 2.5% glutaraldehyde in PBS buffer to a final concentration of 150 µg of protein/ml, and filtered at a pressure of 10⁵ Pa through Millipore membranes with a pore size of 25 µm and a diameter of 13 mm. The preparations were incubated for 30 min in the alkaline DAB medium for cytochemical localization of catalase [30], followed by post-fixation in 2% (w/v) aqueous osmium tetroxide. All material was dehydrated in graded ethanol solutions and embedded in Epon. Ultra-thin sections were cut with a diamond knife on an ultramicrotome, contrasted with uranyl acetate and lead citrate, and examined under a Philips 301 electron microscope.

Determination of steady-state H₂O₂ concentrations, catalase and oxidase activities

H₂O₂ was determined using the luminol-hypochlorite assay, as described previously [21,22]. A flow technique was established to follow rapid kinetics of catalase and oxidases in real time [22,28,31]. Briefly, solutions of isolated catalase or glucose oxidase and diluted suspensions of intact or lysed peroxisomes were aspirated via a peristaltic pump (4 ml/min). Luminol (10⁻⁴ M) and hypochlorite (10⁻⁴ M) were continuously added by a perfusor pump (12 ml/min) to the sample solution. Chemiluminescence intensities were measured in intervals of 1 s in the reaction flow chamber using a computer-driven AutoLumat LB953 (Berthold, Wildbad, Germany). The AutoLumat was used for all luminescence determinations and programs were written in GW Basic. Continuous magnetic stirring was used to ensure a rapid mixing of the enzyme substrate solution. Temperature was maintained at 22 °C. The assay was calibrated with 10 µM H₂O₂ (final concentration). Background luminescence was defined as the remaining luminescence intensities in the absence of H₂O₂ (in the presence of catalase), and finally subtracted from the luminescence intensity data.

Since catalase is not saturable by its substrate H₂O₂ and does not follow Michaelis–Menten kinetics, no value for V_{\max} can be determined under saturation conditions. Therefore catalase activity is obtained by determining the exponential decay constant of the catalase-mediated H₂O₂ degradation using linear-regression analysis. The activity is given in units of s⁻¹ [28,32].

Rates of H₂O₂ generation by oxidases are intentionally expressed as mol of H₂O₂ · s⁻¹, instead of µmol · min⁻¹ or international units (i.u.) to facilitate calculation of H₂O₂ steady-state concentrations using the equation $[H_2O_2]_{ss} = k_{ox}/k_{cat}$, where $[H_2O_2]_{ss}$ is the steady-state H₂O₂ concentration, k_{ox} is the oxidase activity and k_{cat} is the catalase activity. In addition, oxidase activities were measured for various oxidase substrate concentrations (e.g. urate, glucose, palmitoyl-CoA) at a constant oxygen concentration of 250 µM and at 22 °C. To establish a peroxisomal model with respect to H₂O₂ generation and removal, a mixture of purified glucose oxidase and bovine liver catalase was used. The stock solution of glucose oxidase (G-9010, 200 units · mg of protein⁻¹; Sigma) was found to generate 2.3 × 10³ M H₂O₂ · s⁻¹ at 22 °C in the presence of 5 mM glucose and in air-saturated PBS (250 µM oxygen). Catalase activity of the catalase stock solution (C-3155; Sigma) was determined to be 1195 s⁻¹. Regression analysis was performed using Origin Software Version 6.0 (Microcal Software, Inc., Northampton, MA, U.S.A.). To obtain Lineweaver–Burk plots, steady-state H₂O₂ concentrations in suspensions of peroxisomes or a solution of catalase/glucose oxidase were examined further using the injection modus of the luminol-hypochlorite assay [22]. Briefly, 1 ml sample solutions were incubated with 5 × 10⁻⁵ M luminol. Upon reaching a steady-state concentration of H₂O₂, 50 µl of sodium hypochlorite (1 µM final concentration) was added, and the short luminescence signal was determined immediately using the AutoLumat LB953-integrated injection device in measuring position and an integration time of 2 s. Calibration was performed using batches with known H₂O₂ concentrations of 5 µM. Background luminescence was determined in the absence of H₂O₂, and finally subtracted. It is important to mention that the luminol-hypochlorite assay does not detect H₂O₂ within cells and organelles [22].

RESULTS

Determination of H₂O₂ removal (catalase) and H₂O₂ generation (oxidase) in a mixture of purified glucose oxidase and catalase

It is not known whether, or to what extent, peroxisomes contribute to intracellular oxidative stress and redox-sensitive cell regulation. In order to establish the prime objective of measuring generation and removal of H₂O₂ in peroxisomes, we first studied a model of peroxisomes with respect to H₂O₂ metabolism by using a mixture of purified catalase and glucose oxidase. In this model, the purified catalase represents the intraperoxisomal catalase, whereas glucose oxidase is a representative of one of the many peroxisomal oxidases.

First, enzyme activities were determined separately. Figure 2(a) shows a semi-logarithmic plot of the exponential decay of H₂O₂ with purified bovine liver catalase (1:33000) using the sensitive luminol-hypochlorite assay in real time. The kinetics of the exponential decay are typical for catalase, since the enzyme is not saturable up to molar H₂O₂ concentrations. Therefore determination of K_m is impossible and catalase activity is usually given by the rate constant (k) in the equation $k_{cat} = \ln([S_1]/[S_2])/dt$, where dt is the measured time interval and $[S_1]$ and $[S_2]$ are H₂O₂ concentrations at time t_1 and t_2 respectively [28,32]. Using linear regression analysis, the rate constants were determined with high accuracy ($r^2 > 0.99$). As is demonstrated further in Figure 2(a), catalase is inhibited by the addition of sodium azide, a competitive catalase inhibitor (denoted by the second arrow). Owing to this inhibition, an almost undetectable catalase activity ($k = 1.5 \times 10^{-4}$ s⁻¹) remains. The slight increase in H₂O₂ concentration after addition of sodium azide is due to a low level of contamination by H₂O₂.

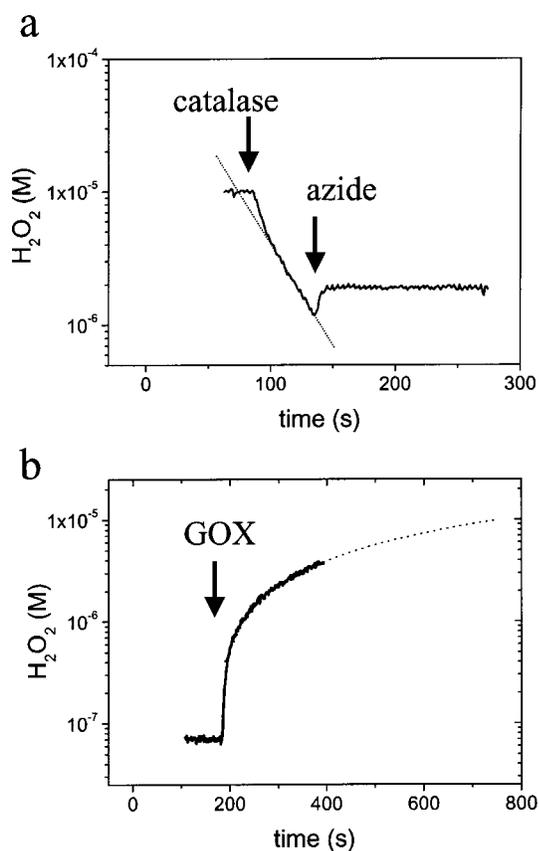


Figure 2 Exponential degradation of H₂O₂ by isolated bovine liver catalase (a), and generation of H₂O₂ by isolated glucose oxidase (b)

Isolated liver catalase (1:33000) is added into an H₂O₂ solution and decay was measured in real time using the luminol-hypochlorite system [22]. Addition of 1 mM sodium azide, a competitive catalase inhibitor, inhibits catalase by 99%. Dotted lines represent the linear regression analysis curves. Catalase activity is $3.6 \times 10^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ before, and $1.5 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$, after inhibition with azide. The experiment shown is representative of three independent determinations. Addition of glucose oxidase (1:150000) into a PBS-buffered glucose solution (5 mM) causes rapid increase of H₂O₂. In this semi-logarithmic plot, the generation of H₂O₂ follows pseudo-zero-order kinetics ($r^2 > 0.99$), with k_{GOX} (the catalytic rate of glucose oxidase) = $1.6 \times 10^{-8} \text{ M} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$. The depicted experiment is representative of three independent determinations.

In Figure 2(b), the generation of H₂O₂ by purified glucose oxidase (GOX in the Figure) is measured. Glucose oxidase reduces oxygen to H₂O₂ using glucose as a substrate, and this reaction follows a Ping-Pong mechanism-type kinetics [33]. After addition of glucose oxidase (1:150000 dilution), H₂O₂ is formed rapidly. Under these conditions, oxygen and glucose concentrations remained almost unchanged, allowing a pseudo-zero-order generation rate of H₂O₂, as demonstrated by linear regression analysis. A semi-logarithmic plot was used to identify the zero-order nature of the kinetics, and to compare more easily the differences in catalase and oxidase kinetics over a broad concentration range.

We then set about establishing a procedure to determine enzyme activities in a mixture of purified catalase and glucose oxidase that represents a peroxisome model with respect to H₂O₂ metabolism. Previous studies on human erythrocytes had shown that two enzymes can be determined sequentially with the luminol-hypochlorite technique [31]. In Figure 3, the assay was first calibrated with 10 μM H₂O₂. At time point A, a mixture of

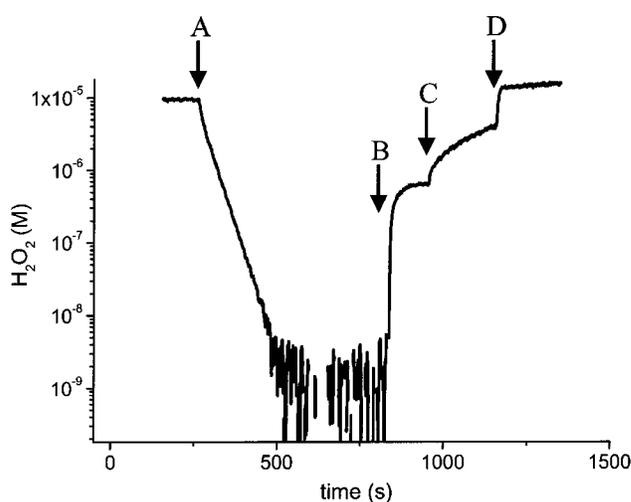


Figure 3 Real-time determination of catalase and glucose oxidase activity in a mixture of both purified catalase and glucose oxidase mimicking peroxisomes with respect to H₂O₂ metabolism

Enzyme addition at time point A [dilutions of 1:33000 (catalase) and 1:150000 (glucose oxidase)] was followed by the catalase-mediated exponential decay of H₂O₂. A steady-state equilibrium of H₂O₂ is reached after addition of 5 mM glucose (time point B) as a consequence of both H₂O₂ removal and generation. In the presence of 1 mM sodium azide (time point C) catalase is inhibited, and H₂O₂ can accumulate. Inhibition of catalase is demonstrated by the final addition of 10 μM H₂O₂. Catalase activity ($k_{\text{cat}} = 3.6 \times 10^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$) and glucose oxidase activity ($k_{\text{GOX}} = 1.7 \times 10^{-8} \text{ M} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$) are in excellent agreement with the results obtained in solutions of isolated enzymes (see Figure 2). The depicted experiment is representative of three independent determinations.

purified glucose oxidase and catalase was added using the same enzyme concentrations as those described above for Figure 2. An exponential catalase-mediated decay of H₂O₂ was observed down to nanomolar concentrations and, importantly, the activity does not differ from the values obtained in Figure 2(a). At these very low H₂O₂ concentrations, the background noise increased, as demonstrated in the semi-logarithmic plot. At time point B, addition of 5 mM glucose was followed by a rapid increase in H₂O₂. Owing to the presence of both glucose oxidase and catalase, a steady-state level of H₂O₂ was formed that could be maintained over a long time. As reported earlier, the equilibrium of H₂O₂ decay by catalase and the H₂O₂ generation by glucose oxidase was obtained at $k_{\text{GOX}} = k_{\text{cat}} \cdot [\text{H}_2\text{O}_2]$ [34,35], where k_{GOX} represents the rate of glucose oxidase activity. Assuming a constant glucose and oxygen concentration, steady-state H₂O₂ concentrations can be calculated as follows: $[\text{H}_2\text{O}_2] = k_{\text{GOX}}/k_{\text{cat}}$. Thus the knowledge of both the activity of catalase and the steady-state concentration of H₂O₂ at the equilibrium allows the calculation of the oxidase activity. The calculated glucose oxidase activity ($k_{\text{GOX}} = 1.7 \times 10^{-8} \text{ mol of H}_2\text{O}_2 \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$) is in excellent agreement with the results obtained in solutions of isolated glucose oxidase (see Figure 2b). Inhibition of catalase by sodium azide at time point C apparently led to the accumulation of H₂O₂.

Determination of glucose oxidase activity for various substrate concentrations using the H₂O₂ steady-state approach

We have established a procedure that allows the sequential determination of catalase, as well as oxidase, activities in one sample at very low H₂O₂ concentrations (Figure 3). In Figure 3, steady-state equilibrium is reached within 150 s after the addition

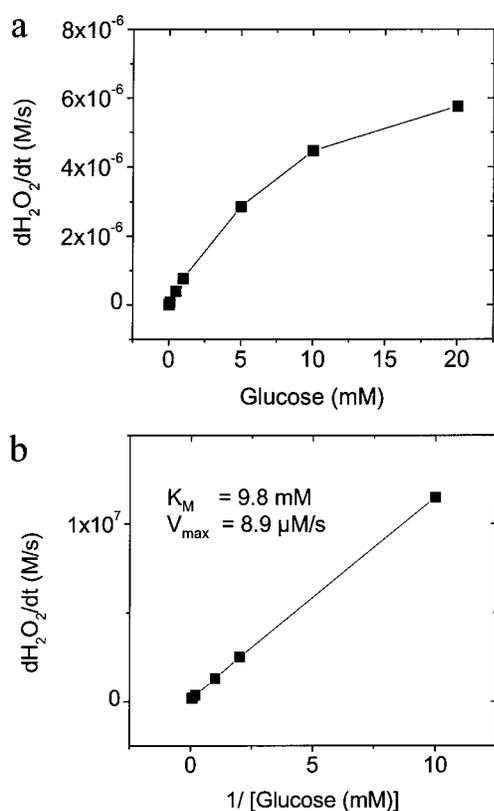


Figure 4 Determination of Michaelis–Menten plot (a) and Lineweaver–Burk plot (b) for glucose oxidase (glucose concentration measured against H₂O₂ generation rate) using steady-state end-point determinations of H₂O₂

Various amounts of glucose were added into a mixture of catalase and oxidase mimicking peroxisomes with respect to H₂O₂ metabolism. Steady-state concentrations of H₂O₂ were determined using the luminol-hypochlorite assay. All data points are the means for three independent experiments. Standard deviations are too small to be displayed in the Figure.

of glucose. Using this approach, the rate of H₂O₂ generation by glucose oxidase was determined in the presence of various glucose concentrations, and the resulting Michaelis–Menten plot is shown in Figure 4(a). K_m and V_{max} values were obtained from the Lineweaver–Burk plot shown in Figure 4(b).

Real-time determination of catalase and acyl oxidase activity in intact and lysed liver peroxisomes

Next, we applied the same procedure to isolated lysed peroxisomes from rat liver. Lysed peroxisomes were used because they lack compartmentalizing membranes and matrices, and resemble much more closely the biochemical model described above (Figures 2–4). Figure 5(a) shows a representative example of real-time determination of H₂O₂ degradation by catalase, and H₂O₂ generation by acyl oxidase in the presence of palmitoyl-CoA using highly diluted lysed peroxisomes.

The data follow the exact pattern as demonstrated for the catalase–glucose oxidase system. Additional experiments confirmed that H₂O₂ is specifically generated by acyl-CoA oxidase. Heat inactivation at 80 °C for 5 min completely abolished H₂O₂ production in the presence of palmitoyl-CoA. In the presence of palmitate, the non-activated fatty acid, no H₂O₂ generation is observed (results not shown). This is in agreement with the general fact that peroxisome acyl-CoA oxidases require the

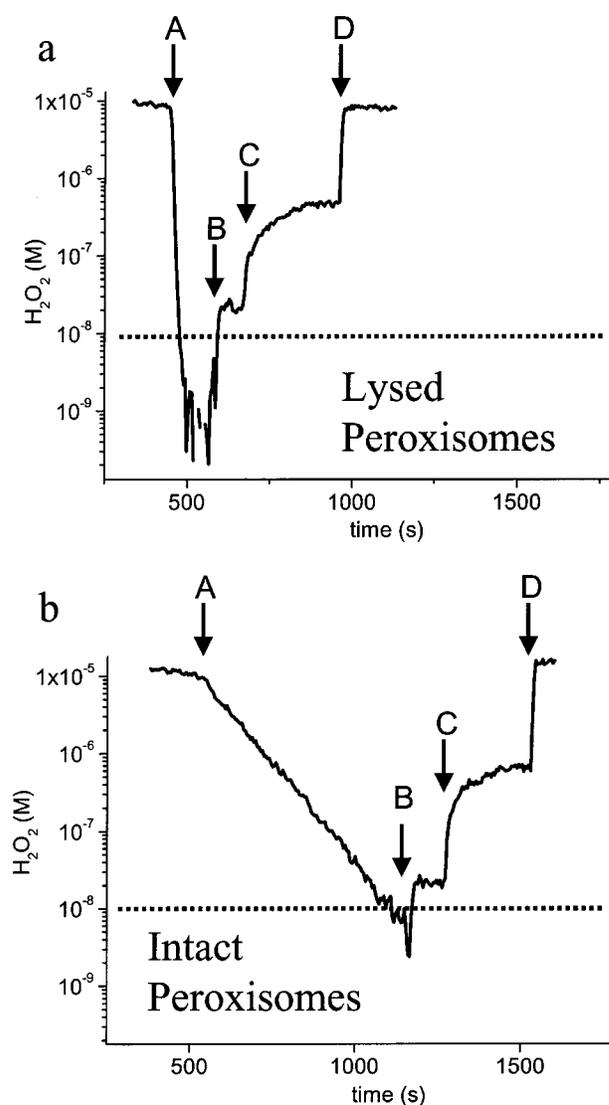


Figure 5 Sensitive and real-time determination of catalase and acyl-CoA oxidase activity in isolated lysed (a) and intact (b) rat liver peroxisomes at very low H₂O₂ concentrations

Addition of peroxisomes (time point A) is followed by the catalase-mediated exponential decay of H₂O₂. A steady-state equilibrium of H₂O₂ is reached after addition of 3 μM palmitoyl-CoA (final concentration) at time point B as a consequence of both H₂O₂ removal and generation. In the presence of 1 mM sodium azide (time point C) catalase is inhibited and H₂O₂ can accumulate. Inhibition of catalase is demonstrated by the final addition of 10 μM H₂O₂. The peroxisome suspension (10 mg/ml protein) was used in a 1:100 dilution. The steady-state concentrations of H₂O₂ are similar in lysed and intact peroxisomes. The catalase activity used in (a) was 0.18 s⁻¹; the steady-state concentration of H₂O₂ was 2.2×10^{-8} M H₂O₂, and the acyl-CoA oxidase activity was 3.9×10^{-8} M · s⁻¹. Catalase activity in (b) was 0.011 s⁻¹; the steady-state concentration of H₂O₂ was 2.1×10^{-8} M H₂O₂ and the acyl-CoA oxidase activity was 3.8×10^{-8} M · s⁻¹. The depicted experiment is representative of three independent determinations and peroxisome preparations.

activation of fatty acids by CoA [36]. Mitochondrial contamination of our very pure peroxisome preparations does not contribute to the observed H₂O₂ generation: first, mitochondrial β -oxidation requires co-substrates that have not been added under our conditions. Secondly, only β -oxidation in peroxisomes is accompanied by H₂O₂ production. Indeed, inhibition of the respiratory chain by potassium cyanide did not affect H₂O₂ generation in our experiments (results not shown).

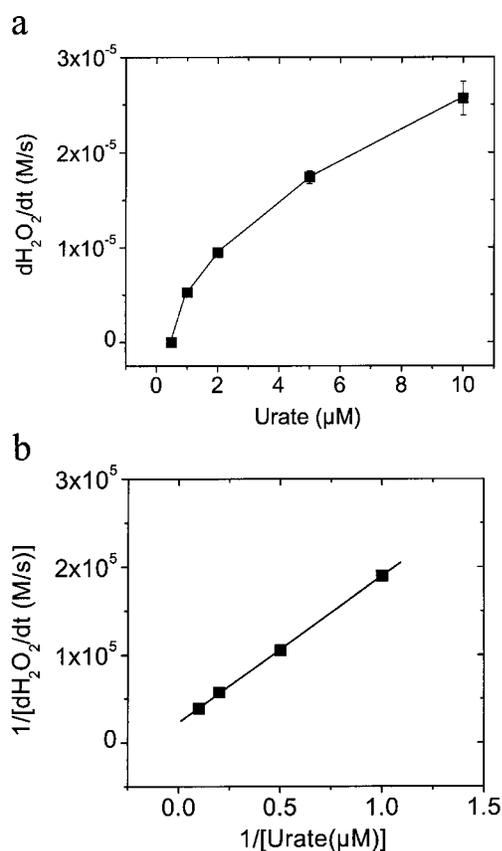


Figure 6 Michaelis–Menten plot (a) and Lineweaver–Burk plot (b) for urate oxidase (urate concentration measured against H_2O_2 generation rate) in fresh peroxisomes using steady-state end-point determinations of H_2O_2

Various amounts of urate were added into a solution of fresh lysed peroxisomes. Steady-state concentrations of H_2O_2 were determined using the luminol-hypochlorite assay. All data points are the means for three independent experiments. Where not indicated by error bars, the standard deviations are too small to be displayed in the Figure.

To assess whether this system can also be used for intact organelles, we then applied the H_2O_2 analysis to fresh and integral peroxisomes from rat liver. As is shown in Figure 5(b), intact peroxisomes have a similar response regarding catalase-mediated H_2O_2 degradation (time point A), H_2O_2 steady-state generation following addition of palmitoyl-CoA (time point B) and rapid accumulation of H_2O_2 after catalase inhibition (time point C). Complete inhibition of catalase is confirmed by a final addition of $10 \mu\text{M}$ H_2O_2 (time point D). Although the responses are comparable with the lysate in terms of quality, important quantitative differences are apparent. First, catalase-mediated decay of H_2O_2 is much slower, representing only 6.4% of the catalase activity of the lysed peroxisomes (Figure 5a). This so-called latency, or ‘occluded’ catalase activity, is considered to depend on diffusion of H_2O_2 into the peroxisome via membrane and peroxisomal matrices [27,37]. Thus the high catalase latency in our experiment confirms the functional and structural integrity of the peroxisomes [25].

Secondly, the result also shows that intact peroxisomes release H_2O_2 into the surroundings. Interestingly, the steady-state concentration of H_2O_2 is found to be almost identical in intact and lysed peroxisomes (2.2×10^{-8} compared with 2.1×10^{-8} M H_2O_2 respectively). These observations suggest that catalase does not

Table 1 K_m and V_{max} values of H_2O_2 generation for various substrates of peroxisomal oxidases using the luminol-hypochlorite assay

Kinetic parameters correspond to a lysate of purified peroxisomes with 1 mg/ml protein. Corresponding catalase activity in this solution is determined to be 208 s^{-1} . Oxidase activities are deliberately given in M $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ and not as $\mu\text{mol} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$, since the steady-state concentration of H_2O_2 can be determined directly from catalase and oxidase activities according to the eqn $[\text{H}_2\text{O}_2]_{ss} = k_{ox}/k_{cat}$ (see the Materials and methods section). Standard deviations are $< 10\%$.

Substrate	V_{max} (M $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$)	K_m (μM ; substrate)
Acyl-CoA oxidase		
Octanoyl-CoA ($\text{C}_{8:0}$)	6.2×10^{-6}	39.1
Pentadecanoyl CoA ($\text{C}_{15:0}$)	2.5×10^{-6}	1.1
Palmitoyl-CoA ($\text{C}_{16:0}$)	2.4×10^{-6}	0.5
Palmitoleoyl-CoA ($\text{C}_{16:1}$)	3.1×10^{-6}	1.2
Heptadecanoyl-CoA ($\text{C}_{17:0}$)	1.9×10^{-6}	1.0
Stearoyl-CoA ($\text{C}_{18:0}$)	2.0×10^{-6}	1.1
Arachidonoyl-CoA ($\text{C}_{20:4}$)	1.5×10^{-6}	1.5
Lignoceryl-CoA ($\text{C}_{22:0}$)	5.6×10^{-7}	2.1
Other oxidases		
Urate	4.4×10^{-5}	7.3
Glycolate	4.2×10^{-6}	29.3
Spermidine	2.4×10^{-6}	9.2
D-Amino acid oxidase		
Proline	4.2×10^{-7}	11.3
Alanine	4.3×10^{-7}	1.7

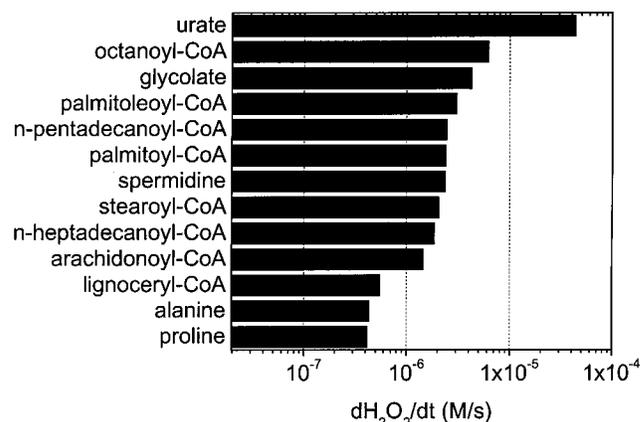


Figure 7 Maximum velocities of H_2O_2 generation (V_{max}) in descending order for various peroxisomal oxidases using isolated rat liver peroxisomes

H_2O_2 generation rates correspond to a protein concentration of 1 mg/ml. Corresponding catalase activity in this solution was determined to be 208 s^{-1} . Data were obtained from Lineweaver–Burk plots, as described in the legend to Figure 5. Standard deviations are $< 10\%$.

completely prevent H_2O_2 release from intact peroxisomes. Moreover, peroxisomes are not very competent at removing H_2O_2 from the surroundings.

Generation of H_2O_2 by various peroxisomal substrates: maximum velocities and Michaelis–Menten constants

Using the steady-state endpoint determination of H_2O_2 , we studied several substrates of peroxisomal oxidases to determine their efficiency in generating H_2O_2 . As described in Figure 4 for the catalase–glucose oxidase system, Michaelis–Menten and

Lineweaver–Burk plots were obtained for these substrates. Representatively, both plots are shown in Figure 6 for urate oxidase, which we determined as the most efficient oxidase at generating H₂O₂ in rat liver peroxisomes. K_m and V_{max} values were calculated from the Lineweaver–Burk plots by linear regression analysis. Table 1 shows the kinetic data for all substrates. Figure 7 presents maximum velocities for these substrates in descending order, which reveals which substrates are highly efficient in generating H₂O₂. Urate is followed by a set of activated fatty acids together with glycolate. D-Amino acids are less efficient in contributing to H₂O₂ release. Interestingly, the medium-chain fatty acid octanoyl-CoA provides the highest generation rate for H₂O₂ among all the fatty acids that have been studied.

DISCUSSION

Peroxisomes are essential and ubiquitous organelles containing several flavine oxidases that reduce oxygen to H₂O₂. Despite the intra-peroxisomal abundance of catalase, which decomposes H₂O₂, peroxisome-derived oxidative stress is considered to have an important role in different pathologies, such as hepatocarcinogenesis in rodents, and liver inflammation, such as non-alcoholic steatosis hepatitis in humans. A series of experimental models have focused on the underlying mechanisms. First, conditions that produce peroxisome proliferation lead to an induction of β -oxidation enzymes, such as acyl-CoA oxidase, without a concomitant increase in catalase activity [12]. Secondly, overexpression of acyl oxidase activates the redox-sensitive transcription factor NF- κ B, which can be abrogated in the presence of certain antioxidants [20,38]. Thirdly, a transformation in epithelial cells was observed when urate oxidase was stably transfected [39]. Fourthly, livers with chronic peroxisome proliferation show a 4-fold increase in the amount of 8-hydroxy-2'-deoxyguanosine in DNA, which is a typical 'fingerprint' of oxidative DNA damage [40,41]. In contrast with these indirect pieces of data, several lines of evidence are not in favour of this hypothesis. Oxidative damage could not be shown in the liver under conditions of peroxisomal proliferation [42] and, additionally, a possible escape of H₂O₂ has been questioned, given the high rate at which peroxisomal catalase converts H₂O₂ into water and oxygen [6]. One of the drawbacks in addressing these questions has been the lack of appropriate analytical tools in functionally studying H₂O₂ metabolism in intact peroxisomes.

Here, we show directly the release of H₂O₂ from intact liver peroxisomes in the presence of various substrates at nanomolar, non-toxic H₂O₂ concentrations using a novel, sensitive H₂O₂ assay [22]. A steady-state concentration of H₂O₂ is rapidly formed in the presence of various peroxisomal substrates. Most importantly, H₂O₂ decomposition by catalase and H₂O₂ generation by oxidases can be measured in real time. For the first time, this new experimental approach allows the direct determination of imbalances in peroxisomal H₂O₂ metabolism.

The new procedure offers three main advantages. First, catalase and oxidase are determined in the same sample using the original quantitative ratio of both enzymes. Thus small changes in the ratio of both enzymes can be detected that have been proposed to have a crucial role in peroxisome-derived oxidative stress. On a methodological note, neither of the enzymes are inactivated under these low H₂O₂ concentrations; nor is molecular oxygen released in a gaseous form that could lead to severe artefacts [28]. Moreover, these H₂O₂ concentrations are below or within the range that may occur *in vivo* and that that may trigger signalling pathways [43,44].

Secondly, removal of H₂O₂ in the initial stage drastically enhances the sensitivity towards even the lowest levels of release

of H₂O₂ by oxidases. This is also important, because small traces of 10⁻⁸–10⁻⁷ M H₂O₂ are known to be present in aqueous solutions [22].

Thirdly, the procedure allows the direct determination of the real steady-state concentration of H₂O₂ that is provided by the equation $[H_2O_2]_{ss} = k_{ox}/k_{cat}$. Using this equation, oxidase activity can readily be calculated from the catalase activity and steady-state H₂O₂ concentration. This latter approach avoids the usage of inhibitors (e.g. azide) that might interfere with the enzymes. In addition, the measuring time is minimized, and various substrates can be determined in a short time, which is especially useful, since fresh peroxisome preparations rapidly change their biochemical properties within hours.

Our studies on intact and lysed rat liver peroxisomes mainly address three biochemical phenomena of peroxisomes. First, catalase latency is demonstrated in the real time, since intact peroxisomes remove H₂O₂ at a much lower rate than the corresponding lysate. Catalase latency has been known for a long time and it is usually ascribed to the rate-limiting diffusion of H₂O₂ through biomembranes [28,37,45]. However, no difference was found between the palmitoyl-CoA-mediated steady-state H₂O₂ generation of intact and lysed peroxisomes. These findings suggest that peroxisomes remove intra-peroxisomal-derived H₂O₂ independently of the membrane integrity. The results strengthen the notion that peroxisomes should not be considered as being effective regarding the detoxification of H₂O₂ derived from the surroundings, e.g. mitochondria. In addition, peroxisomes are not able to prevent the release of intra-peroxisomal-derived H₂O₂, despite their high content of catalase. Intact peroxisomes thus represent a potential source of oxidative stress, which might cause damage to the cell or which might modulate redox-sensitive pathways.

Secondly, our findings also have new implications for the understanding of peroxisomal metabolism of fatty acids and other substrates. By determining maximum velocities and Michaelis–Menten constants for several peroxisome oxidases, urate oxidase is found to be the most efficient in generating H₂O₂ in rodents. In addition to urate, glycolate and spermidine, activated fatty acids were also found to be very efficient in generating H₂O₂. The kinetic parameters for H₂O₂ formation in the presence of various fatty acids give rise to several interpretations. Highest β -oxidation rates are found for medium- and long-chain fatty acids [e.g. octanoyl-CoA (C₈) and palmitoyl-CoA (C₁₆)]. In fact, the values of K_m and V_{max} are > 10 times higher for octanoyl-CoA compared with lignoceryl-CoA, the longest fatty acid studied (C₂₄). These data suggest an appreciably high capacity of the peroxisomal acyl-CoA oxidase to act on medium-chain fatty acids. This is surprising, since mitochondria are believed to be the main site for β -oxidation [46–49]. Peroxisomes do not oxidize fatty acids that contain less than seven carbons [50,51], and recent studies demonstrate that octanoyl-CoA accumulates during the β -oxidation of longer fatty acids, such as palmitate [52]. Moreover, peroxisomes are considered to metabolize almost exclusively long- and very-long-chain fatty acids [11,50]. Additionally, peroxisomal β -oxidation of long fatty acids is generally believed to yield shorter fatty acids as a direct fuel for mitochondrial β -oxidation. These conclusions have been mainly drawn from the observation that several peroxisome disorders, such as adrenoleukodystrophy, lead to an accumulation of long- and very-long-chain fatty acids [53,54]. Our data suggest that peroxisomes are very capable of contributing to shorter-chain fatty acid oxidation. β -Oxidation of medium-chain fatty acids appears at first glance to be a waste of energy, since oxygen is reduced to water without a concomitant generation of ATP [55]. The (patho)physiological

implications of the β -oxidation of shorter fatty acids, therefore, opens interesting perspectives for future studies.

Thirdly, the real-time measurement of H_2O_2 release from intact peroxisomes provides new insights into the peroxisomal uptake of fatty acids and other substrates. To date, fatty acid transport via the peroxisomal membrane is not completely understood. Long-chain fatty acids are believed to cross the membrane as CoA esters, utilizing fatty-acid transport proteins that were discovered recently [36]. The hydrophilic CoA esters that cannot diffuse through lipid membranes are synthesized at the peroxisomal membrane by acyl-CoA synthases. Our real-time measurement of H_2O_2 reveals that this transport is very efficient, and occurs at a fast rate in the absence of energy-delivering co-substrates, such as ATP. Thus our experimental procedure offers an exciting new opportunity to study the transport of fatty acids and other peroxisomal substrates via the peroxisomal membrane in a sensitive manner: an almost unexplored research field.

The methods presented in this study, allowing a direct determination of H_2O_2 metabolism in peroxisomes, will open up new possibilities in defining the role of peroxisome-derived oxidative stress. Since peroxisomes are essential for life in eukaryotic cells, this method is likely to prove to be a valuable tool in understanding the underlying mechanisms for diseases that are caused by malfunctioning of peroxisomal oxygen metabolism.

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