

# Initial studies on mechanism of action and cell death of active *N*-oxide-containing heterocycles in *Trypanosoma cruzi* epimastigotes *in vitro*

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## SUMMARY

Chagas disease, endemic in 21 countries across Latin America, kills more people in the region each year than any other parasite-borne disease. Therapeutic options have problems ranging from toxicity, poor efficacy, drug resistance and high cost. Thus, cheaper and less toxic treatments are necessary. From our in-house chemical library of agents against *Trypanosoma cruzi* the most relevant *N*-oxide-containing heterocycles were selected for mode of action and type of death studies. Also included in these studies were two active nitrofuranes. Epimastigotes of *T. cruzi* were used as the biological model in this study. The metabolic profile was studied by <sup>1</sup>H NMR in association with the MTT assay. Excreted catabolites data, using <sup>1</sup>H NMR spectroscopy, showed that most of the studied *N*-oxides were capable of decreasing both the release of succinate and acetate shedding, the compounds therefore possibly acting on mitochondria. Only quinoxalines and the nitrofurane **Nf1** showed significant mitochondrial dehydrogenase inhibitions, but with different dose–time profiles. In the particular case of quinoxaline **Qx2** the glucose uptake study revealed that the integrity of some pathways into the glycosome could be affected. Optic, fluorescence (TUNEL and propidium iodide) and transmission electron microscopy (TEM) were employed for type of death studies. These studies were complemented with <sup>1</sup>H NMR to visualize mobile lipids. At low concentrations none of the selected compounds showed a positive TUNEL assay. However, both quinoxalines, one furoxan and one benzofuroxan showed a necrotic effect at high concentrations. Curiously, one furoxan, **Fx1**, one benzofuroxan, **Bfx1**, and one nitrofurane, **Nf1**, caused a particular phenotype, with a big cytoplasmatic vacuole being observed while the parasite was still alive. Studies of TEM and employing a protease inhibitor (3-methyladenine) suggested an autophagic phenotype for **Bfx1** and **Nf1** and a ‘BigEye’ phenotype for **Fx1**.

Key words: *Trypanosoma cruzi*, Chagas disease, *N*-oxides, necrosis, autophagy, NMR.

## INTRODUCTION

Chagas disease, or American trypanosomiasis, caused by the protozoan *Trypanosoma cruzi* is the largest parasitic disease burden in the American continent affecting approximately 8 million people from the southern USA to northern Chile. Even though the enforcement of public health programmes towards vector elimination in some Latin American countries has decreased the incidence of new infections, the disease is still endemic in large areas (WHO, 2013).

The current treatment of Chagas disease depends on two nitroheterocycles, nifurtimox (Nfx, Fig. 1) and benznidazole. Although effective for acute

infections both drugs are not efficient in chronic infections and cause undesirable side effects; therefore, there is an urgent need for the development of safe and effective drugs (Cerecetto and González, 2010). Extensive efforts have been directed to the development of new chemotherapeutic agents but they have been deficient in the final stages of drug development studies, i.e. tolerance/safety, selectivity, drug-resistance, scaling-up, pharmacokinetic and pharmacodynamic properties (González and Cerecetto, 2011).

In an ongoing effort to discover new anti-*T. cruzi* agents, our group has been exploring the moiety *N*-oxide as a pharmacophore for this kind of drug (Cerecetto and González, 2008; Boiani *et al.* 2010). Within this framework, we have investigated the trypanosomicidal activity of different *N*-oxide-containing heterocycles, and from 200 synthesized compounds, two furoxans, i.e. **Fx1**, and **Fx2**, two

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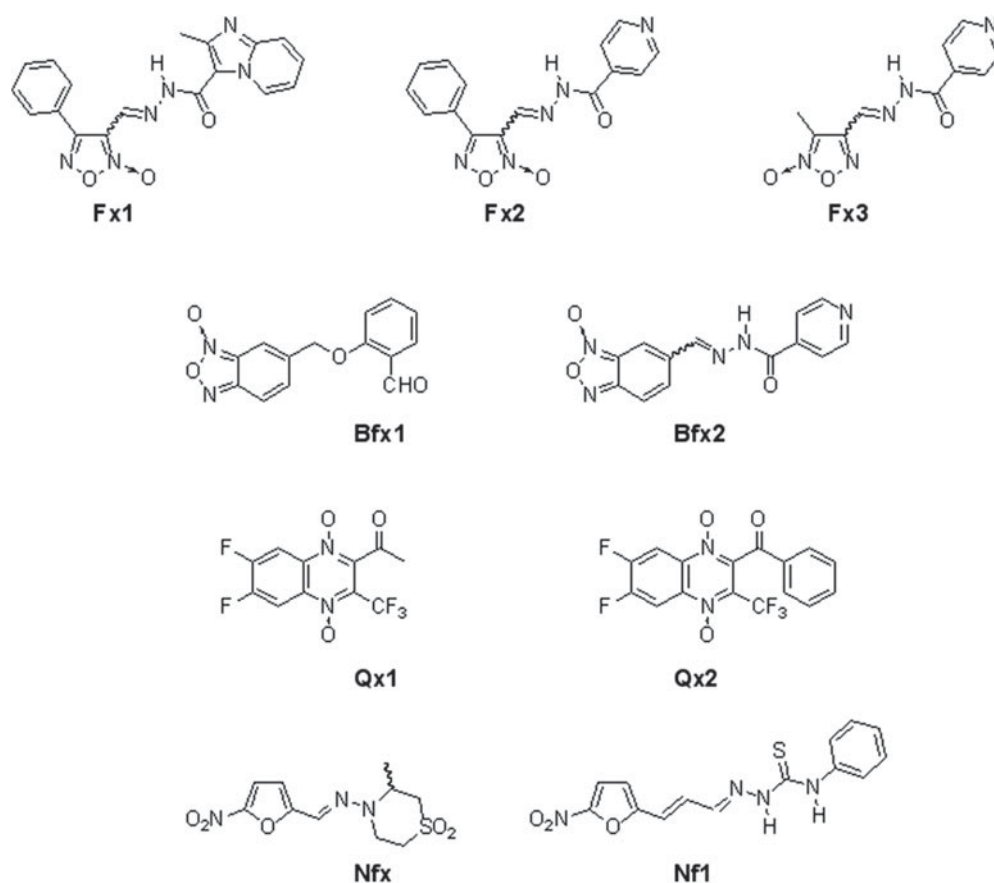


Fig. 1. Chemical structures of the compounds herein studied: *N*-oxide-containing heterocycles (**Fx1**, **Fx2**, **Fx3**, **Bfx1**, **Bfx2**, **Qx1**, **Qx2**), Nifurtimox (**Nfx**) and nitrofurane (**Nf1**).

benzofuroxans, i.e. **Bfx1**, and **Bfx2**, and two quinoxaline 1,4-dioxides, i.e. **Qx1**, and **Qx2** (Fig. 1), were selected based on their excellent *in vitro* activities (Merlino *et al.* 2010; Benítez *et al.* 2011; Hernández *et al.* 2013). Those agents were active on *T. cruzi* epimastigotes, trypomastigotes and intracellular amastigotes from different parasite strains, i.e. Tulahuen 2, Y, Colombiana and the CL Brener clone. Additionally, **Fx1**, **Fx2**, **Qx1** and **Qx2** did not exhibit mutagenicity in the Ames test and displayed adequate *in vivo* behaviour in an acute model of Chagas disease (Benítez *et al.* 2011; Hernández *et al.* 2013).

Whereas some efforts have been made to elucidate the mode of action of this kind of compounds, knowledge on this subject is still incomplete. Thus, it has been demonstrated that some benzofuroxans, analogues of **Bfx1** and **Bfx2**, are strong inhibitors of parasite dehydrogenase activity affecting mitochondrial membrane potential (Boiani *et al.* 2010). Accordingly we have proved that **Qx1** and **Qx2**, in contrary to **Nfx**, decrease mitochondrial dehydrogenase activity thus diminishing the excreted catabolites acetate and succinate in the parasite (Benítez *et al.* 2011). New knowledge about the mode of action of these kinds of compounds (Fig. 1) may lead to the discovery of new drug targets that help overcome problems related to drug toxicity and drug resistance.

Among the different strategies that have been used to elucidate the mechanism of action of anti-*T. cruzi* drugs (De Castro and Meirelles, 1990; Menna-Barreto *et al.* 2010) we have successfully applied <sup>1</sup>H NMR for the evaluation of *T. cruzi*-excreted catabolites (Boiani *et al.* 2008; Caterina *et al.* 2008; Benítez *et al.* 2011).

Studies on the parasite death phenotype when treated with these compounds are have not been done. This aspect is relevant considering that, for other pathologies and drugs, such knowledge is leading to the design of novel drugs targeting critical points in the death process (Ricci and Zong, 2006; MacKenzie and Clark, 2008; Tan and White, 2008). Different cell death phenotypes caused by chemotherapeutic agents have been described in *T. cruzi* (Menna-Barreto *et al.* 2009a). Interestingly, in protozoa a variety of drug stimuli converge to the same pathway of death, suggesting an intense cross-over between the three types of programmed cell death (PCD), i.e. apoptosis (type I PCD), autophagy (type II PCD) and programmed necrosis (type III PCD). Different techniques have been employed in the study of *T. cruzi* cell death, i.e. destructive techniques such as flow cytometry, fluorescence microscopy, Western blot, agarose-gel electrophoresis and ultrastructural analysis, or less destructive ones such as protease inhibition analysis (Alvarez *et al.*

2008a, b; Jiménez *et al.* 2008; Irigoín *et al.* 2009; Menna-Barreto *et al.* 2009a). Recently, we have described the use of  $^1\text{H}$  NMR spectroscopy (Benítez *et al.* 2012) as a non-invasive method that allows the visualization of the phenomenon of mobile lipid accumulation following the induction of either apoptosis or cytostasis.

The aim of the present study was to analyse some aspects of the mode of action and cell death phenotype induced by the *N*-oxides shown in Fig. 1. The results indicated a clear difference in the mechanism of action of the newly studied *N*-oxides compared with the previous ones (Boiani *et al.* 2010) and particular cell death pathways, for some of them, unrelated to the kind of *N*-oxide.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

### Chemicals

*N*-oxides **Fx1**, **Fx2**, **Fx3**, **Bfx1**, **Bfx2**, **Qx1** and **Qx2** as well as the nitrofurane, **Nf1** (Fig. 1), were obtained as previously described (Merlino *et al.* 2010; Aravena *et al.* 2011; Benítez *et al.* 2011; Hernández *et al.* 2013). **Nfx** was purchased from Bayer. Other chemicals were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich unless otherwise indicated.

### Cell cultures

*Trypanosoma cruzi* epimastigote forms (Y strain) were cultured at 28 °C for 5–7 days (exponential phase of growth) under aerobiosis in axenic BHI-tryptose milieu (33 g L<sup>-1</sup> brain-heart infusion, 3 g L<sup>-1</sup> tryptose, 0.02 g L<sup>-1</sup> hemin, 0.3 g L<sup>-1</sup> D-(+)-glucose, supplemented with 10% (v/v) calf serum, 200 000 units L<sup>-1</sup> penicillin and 0.2 g L<sup>-1</sup> streptomycin). For TUNEL and PI-staining studies, *T. cruzi* epimastigote forms (Y strain and CL Brener clone) were cultured at 28 °C for 5–7 days (exponential phase of growth) under aerobiosis in axenic Diamond milieu (12.5 g L<sup>-1</sup> yeast extract, 12.5 g L<sup>-1</sup> tryptose, 12.5 g L<sup>-1</sup> tryptone, 106 mM NaCl, 29 mM H<sub>2</sub>KPO<sub>4</sub>, 23 mM HK<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>, 7.2 pH, 7.5 mM hemin supplemented with 10% (v/v) calf serum, 75 units mL<sup>-1</sup> penicillin and 75 mg L<sup>-1</sup> streptomycin).

### $^1\text{H}$ NMR study of the excreted catabolites

For  $^1\text{H}$  NMR spectroscopic studies, parasites in exponential phase of growth are resuspended in fresh milieu. One mL containing 10 million *T. cruzi* (Y strain) treated for 2 days with each studied compound at the IC<sub>50</sub> doses (**Fx1** 14.8 ± 2.2 μM, **Fx2** 7.95 ± 0.06 mM, **Bfx1** 4.8 ± 0.6 mM, **Bfx2** 13.3 ± 0.1 mM, **Qx1** 1.6 ± 0.4 mM, **Qx2** 1.8 ± 0.1 mM, **Nfx** 6.5 ± 0.2 mM, **Nf1** 1.3 ± 0.5 mM and **Fx3** >300.0 mM), were centrifuged at 3000 g for 10 min. Before measuring, 0.01 mL of DMF, as internal

standard, and 0.09 mL of D<sub>2</sub>O were added to 0.5 mL of the supernatant. Spectra were registered with water suppression in 5 mm NMR (Aldrich, USA) sample tubes. The chemical displacements used to identify the respective metabolites were previously confirmed by adding each analysed metabolite to the studied supernatant as well as by a control solution with 4 mg mL<sup>-1</sup> of each metabolite in buffer phosphate, pH = 7.4. Each run was done, at least, in triplicate and Student's *t*-test was used to analyse the significance of the changes. The chemical shifts (δ, ppm) and multiplicity of the analysed catabolites are: Lac, 1.316, d; Ala, 1.466, d; Ace, 1.904, s; Pyr, 2.357, s; Suc, 2.392, s; Gly, 3.547, s. For quinoxaline di-*N*-oxides, **Qx1** and **Qx2**, a dose–response study was performed using IC<sub>50</sub>, 3 × IC<sub>50</sub> and 5 × IC<sub>50</sub>. Two controls were used, a control with fresh milieu and a control with parasites, with the corresponding concentration of parasites and DMSO used in the samples.

### Mitochondrial dehydrogenase activities

Mitochondrial dehydrogenase activities were measured in 24-well plates. Twenty million per mL *T. cruzi* epimastigotes (Y strain) were washed twice at 3000 g for 10 min and resuspended in PBS-glucose (5.5 μM). Then 600 μL were loaded in each well and 20 mM of each of the studied compounds were added. The assay was performed in quadruplicate and untreated parasites were maintained as controls corresponding to the given time of treatment. The cultures were incubated at 28 °C. At different incubation times the epimastigotes were counted and the colorimetric MTT dye-reduction assay was performed. For this purpose, 25 μL of a solution containing 4 mg mL<sup>-1</sup> of MTT in PBS-glucose (5.5 mM) were added to each well and plates were incubated for an additional 2 h at 28 °C. The reaction was stopped by the addition of 100 μL SDS-isopropanol (10% SDS, 50% isopropanol, H<sub>2</sub>O) and incubated for an additional 2 h at 28 °C. The absorbance was measured at 570 nm. Under these conditions, compounds did not interfere with the reaction mixture. Percentage of mitochondrial dehydrogenase activities (Pmdh) were determined using untreated parasites' activities as 100%.

### Glucose uptake studies (Boiani *et al.* 2009)

*Trypanosoma cruzi* epimastigotes (Y strain, 100 × 10<sup>6</sup> parasites mL<sup>-1</sup>) were washed twice with PBS-glucose and resuspended in PBS-glucose (5.5 mM). 800 μL of this suspension were transferred to a 24-well cell-culture plate. Then, **Qx2** was added dissolved in DMSO (8 μL), at IC<sub>50</sub> and 3 × IC<sub>50</sub> concentrations and incubated for 4 h. After centrifugation at 3000 g for 10 min the parasite-free supernatant was treated with 500 μL Benedict's reagents at

reflux during 5 min. Glucose concentration was determined, measuring at 744 nm using a calibration curve. Negative controls were made with DMSO or **Qx2** at  $IC_{50}$  and  $3 \times IC_{50}$ .

#### Cell death phenotype studies

##### <sup>1</sup>H NMR-VML spectroscopy analysis

Cell sample preparation. Treated or un-treated (control) cells ( $150 \times 10^6$ ) were harvested and centrifuged for 10 min at 3000 *g*. The pellet was washed three times in PBS, re-suspended in PBS (500  $\mu$ L), transferred to a 5 mm NMR tube (ALDRICH, USA) and D<sub>2</sub>O (90  $\mu$ L) was added. The mixture was homogenized prior to acquire the spectrum.

NMR spectra acquisition. <sup>1</sup>H NMR experiments were recorded at 20 °C in a Bruker Avance DPX-400 spectrometer, operating at 400.132 MHz, with a 5 mm broadband inverse geometry probe. The acquisition parameters were 90° pulse (zgpr, avance-version v 1.7.10.2, 1D sequence with f1 presaturation), 128 scans, and spectral width of 14.983 ppm. The acquisition time was 1.3664 s. Signal intensities were calculated by performing appropriate baseline corrections and then integrating the area under each of the resonances using MestRe-C NMR software (<http://mestrelab.com/>). Spectra were analysed using the Topspin 1.3 software package. The integrated regions were 1.20–1.35 ppm for CH<sub>2</sub> and 0.80–0.90 ppm for CH<sub>3</sub>. The visualized regions were 3.10–3.30 ppm for Cho and 2.80 and 5.40 ppm for polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFA).

Statistical analysis. Values are expressed as means  $\pm$  s.e.m. of at least three independent experiments. Statistical comparisons were performed with unpaired Student's *t*-tests by using OriginPro 8 software.  $P < 0.05$  was considered statistically significant.

**TUNEL assay and staining with PI.** After each treatment parasites (600  $\mu$ L,  $10 \times 10^6$  mL<sup>-1</sup>) were collected by centrifugation at 3000 *g*, washed twice in PBS, resuspended in the same buffer and placed on a slide. After drying at room temperature the cells were fixed with methanol (70%) and washed in PBS. For TUNEL assays cells were made permeable with 0.2% Triton X-100. Afterwards, cells were incubated with a reaction mix containing dUTP-FITC (Fluorescein isothiocyanate). Nuclei were counter-stained with DAPI (4',6-diamidin-2-phenylindol) (1 mg mL<sup>-1</sup>). Treatment of parasites with H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (500  $\mu$ M, 30 min of incubation at 28 °C) was included as a positive control (Benítez *et al.* 2012) and parasites without treatment were included as a negative one.

For PI-staining, after the permeabilization step 30  $\mu$ L of PI solution (1  $\mu$ g mL<sup>-1</sup>) was added, mixed

and immediately observed at 400 $\times$  using Nikon Eclipse E400 microscopy fluorescence-microscopy. Pictures were captured with a Nikon Coolpix 4500 digital camera. Results were quantified counting 200 cells in duplicate from three independent experiments.

**Ultrastructural analysis.** Parasites treated with **Fx1**, **Bfx1** or **Nf1** were processed for TEM analysis. After washing three times in PBS, the parasites (an optimum amount of  $400 \times 10^6$ ) were fixed in 2.5% glutaraldehyde (40 min/room temperature) and post-fixed in a solution containing 1% OsO<sub>4</sub>, 0.8% potassium ferricyanide and 2.5 mM CaCl<sub>2</sub> (30 min/room temperature). Afterwards the cells were dehydrated in an ascending alcohol series following by acetone and embedded in epoxy-resin (Araldita Durcupan, FLUKA). Thin sections, 0.5  $\mu$ m, were stained with methyleneborax blue (1%) and examined in a Nikon Eclipse E200 microscope. Ultrathin sections were stained with uranyl acetate and lead citrate during 10 min and examined in a Jeol JEM 1010 transmission microscope operated at 80 kV. Controls for autophagy (starved parasites in PBS for 24 h) (Benítez *et al.* 2012) and normal parasites (parasites incubated with the compounds dissolvent, DMSO) were included.

**Protease inhibition analysis.** Epimastigotes ( $10$  million mL<sup>-1</sup>, strains Y or Tulahuen 2) were incubated for 2 h with the protease inhibitor 3-methyladenine (3-MA, 20 mM, Sigma-Aldrich) at 28 °C. Afterwards, the parasites were washed with PBS ( $3 \times$  at 3000 *g* for 10 min), resuspended in culture milieu, and incubated with **Fx1**, **Bfx1** or **Nf1** at 28 °C. Cell quantification was performed using a Neubauer chamber during 5 days. Three independent experiments were performed. Untreated parasites were used as control.

## RESULTS

### *Effect of N-oxides on T. cruzi epimastigotes-excreted catabolites by <sup>1</sup>H NMR*

Parasite-excreted catabolites in presence of *N*-oxides could give information on the biological pathways affected by these compounds. Consequently, we assayed this parameter by <sup>1</sup>H NMR spectroscopy. This technique has proved to be a useful tool in the elucidation of the mechanism of drug action (Sánchez-Moreno *et al.* 1995; Mesa-Valle *et al.* 1996; Fernandez-Ramos *et al.* 1999; Boiani *et al.* 2008; Caterina *et al.* 2008; Benítez *et al.* 2011; Sánchez-Moreno *et al.* 2012).

For that purpose we compared the <sup>1</sup>H NMR spectra of supernatants from the parasites treated with *N*-oxides **Fx1**, **Fx2**, **Bfx1**, **Bfx2**, **Qx1** and **Qx2** with those from untreated *T. cruzi* epimastigotes (Y strain) and from Nfx, the inactive *N*-oxide **Fx3**

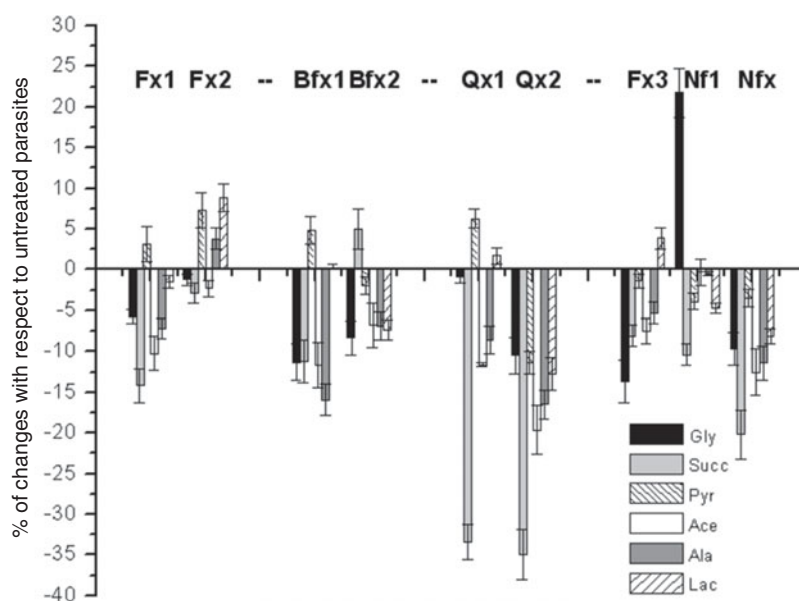


Fig. 2. Percentage of the end products excreted by *T. cruzi* epimastigote Y strain to the milieu expressed with respect to untreated parasites.

and the active nitrofurane **Nf1** (Fig. 1). All compounds were tested at their  $IC_{50}$ , except for compound **Fx3** that was assayed at  $300 \mu M$  because its  $IC_{50}$  was not determined due to solubility problems. We have mainly focused on the carboxylic acid salts lactate (Lac), acetate (Ace), pyruvate (Pyr) and succinate (Succ) and on alanine (Ala) and glycine (Gly), which are the most relevant modified catabolites (Fig. 2).

With the exception of nitrofurane **Nf1** all the *N*-oxides decreased the excreted Gly and Ace. The most effective compound in reducing the amount of released Gly was the furoxan **Fx3** while the quinoxaline di-*N*-oxide **Qx2** induced a marked decrease of Ace. All compounds, except **Bfx2**, decreased the release of Succ, the best inhibitors being the quinoxalines **Qx1** and **Qx2** (Benítez *et al.* 2011). Regarding the release of Pyr no pattern was observed; this catabolite increased after incubation of parasites with **Fx1**, **Fx2**, **Bfx1** and **Qx1** while it diminished when treated with **Fx3**, **Bfx2** and **Qx2**. Benzofuroxans and quinoxaline di-*N*-oxides decreased the amount of excreted Ala, with **Bfx1** and **Qx2** being the most active. Two furoxans, **Fx2** and **Fx3**, increased the amount of released Lac while no significantly increase in the concentration of release Lac was observed after incubation of parasites with the rest of the heterocycles containing *N*-oxides. When dose–response studies were performed with quinoxaline di-*N*-oxides a decrease of Lac was observed for both derivatives, **Qx1** and **Qx2**, at a dose five-fold the corresponding  $IC_{50}$  (Fig. 3), with **Qx2** being the best inhibitor of Lac-release. A clear dose–response was observed for the inhibition of Gly, Succ and Ace excretion. Figure 4 shows representative examples of the spectra generated for selected compounds.

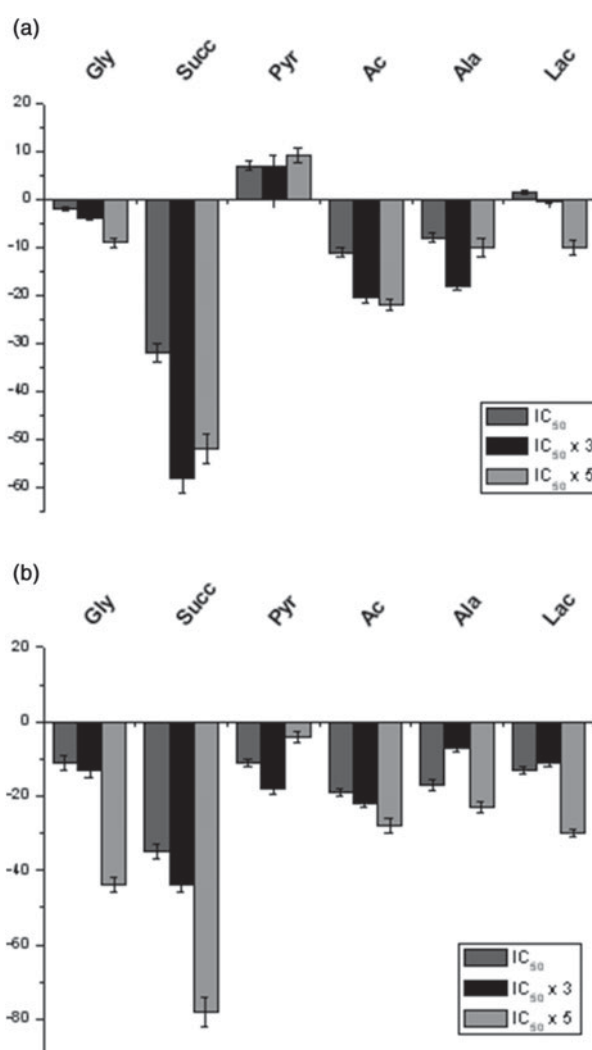


Fig. 3. Catabolites excreted by parasites treated with compounds **Qx1** (a) and **Qx2** (b). Dose–response studies.

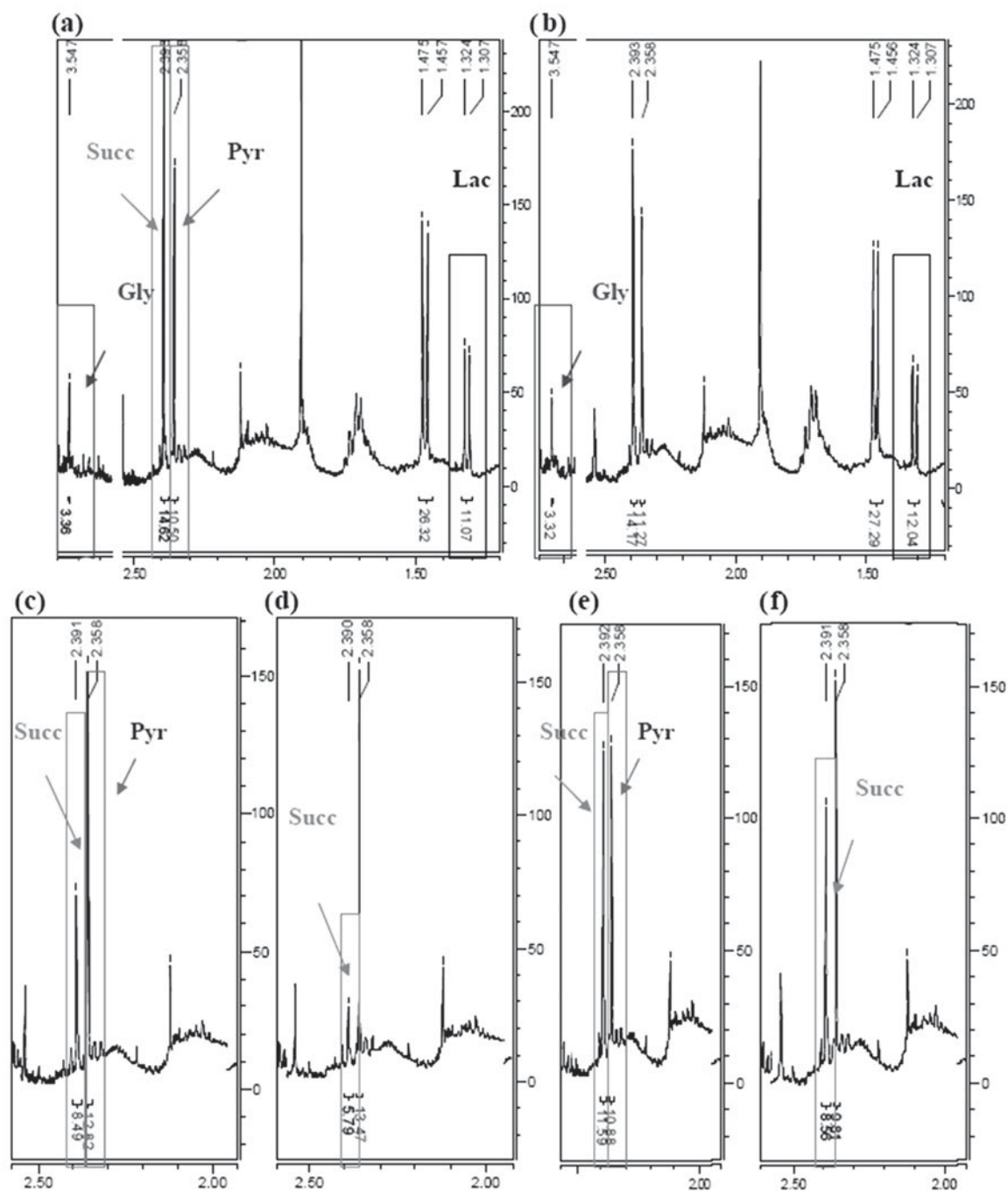


Fig. 4. Relevant regions of the  $^1\text{H}$  NMR spectra for the assayed excreted-catabolites. (a), (c) and (e) Untreated-parasites; (b), (d) and (f) Parasites treated with **Fx2**, **Qx1** and **Qx2** at its  $\text{IC}_{50}$ , respectively. For experimental details see Materials and methods section. All the spectra were recorded in  $\text{D}_2\text{O}$  at 295.16 K. Relevant changes in catabolite concentrations are highlighted.

#### Effect of *N*-oxides on mitochondrial dehydrogenases

Since most of the studied *N*-oxides were capable of decreasing both the release of Succ and the release of Ace, we studied the effect of *N*-oxides on mitochondrial dehydrogenases. Succ biochemical pathway in the mitochondrion involves a succinate dehydrogenase (complex II-respiratory chain) while Ace requires Succ and the action of an acetate-succinate CoA transferase (Bringaud *et al.* 2006; Oppendoes and Coombs, 2007).

Mitochondrial dehydrogenase activities (Pmdh) for live parasites treated with  $20\ \mu\text{M}$  of different *N*-oxides with respect to untreated control was assessed using the MTT assay performed at a short incubation period, no more than 120 min; this procedure was previously described for *Leishmania* (Maarouf *et al.* 1997). The following compounds were tested: active *N*-oxides **Fx1**, **Fx2**, **Bfx1**, **Bfx2**; quinoxalines **Qx1**, **Qx2**; **Nfx** (Benítez *et al.* 2011) as the reference drug; and inactive furoxan **Fx3** and nitrofurane **Nf1** (Table 1). Only the nitrofurane **Nf1**, and unlike the

Table 1. Mitochondrial dehydrogenase activities, as a percentage of untreated parasites, in live parasites treated with the studied *N*-oxides and reference compounds

Compound/time (min)	Pmdh (%)			
	30	60	90	120
<b>Fx1</b>	84.0±1.7	88.5±2.0	92.7±1.0	94.6±1.4
<b>Fx2</b>	87.4±0.6	69.6±1.6	100±1	99.1±1.1
<b>Bfx1</b>	77.5±1.2	90.0±0.7	87.9±2.5	77.9±3.0
<b>Bfx2</b>	86.8±0.3	89.9±0.7	100.0±1.6	100.0±0.6
<b>Qx1</b> <sup>a</sup>	91.1±2.3	62.9±4.5	39.5±4.1	40.3±7.4
<b>Qx2</b> <sup>a</sup>	69.7±2.6	69.6±2.4	70.3±1.8	46.1±8.4
<b>Nfx</b> <sup>a</sup>	91.2±1.2	100.0±0.7	98.5±2.1	100.0±0.9
<b>Nf1</b>	100.0±2.8	82.2±2.5	55.4±7.2	50.0±2.5
<b>Fx3</b>	90.3±0.7	89.1±0.4	100±1	100±0.9

<sup>a</sup> Previously studied (Benítez *et al.* 2011).

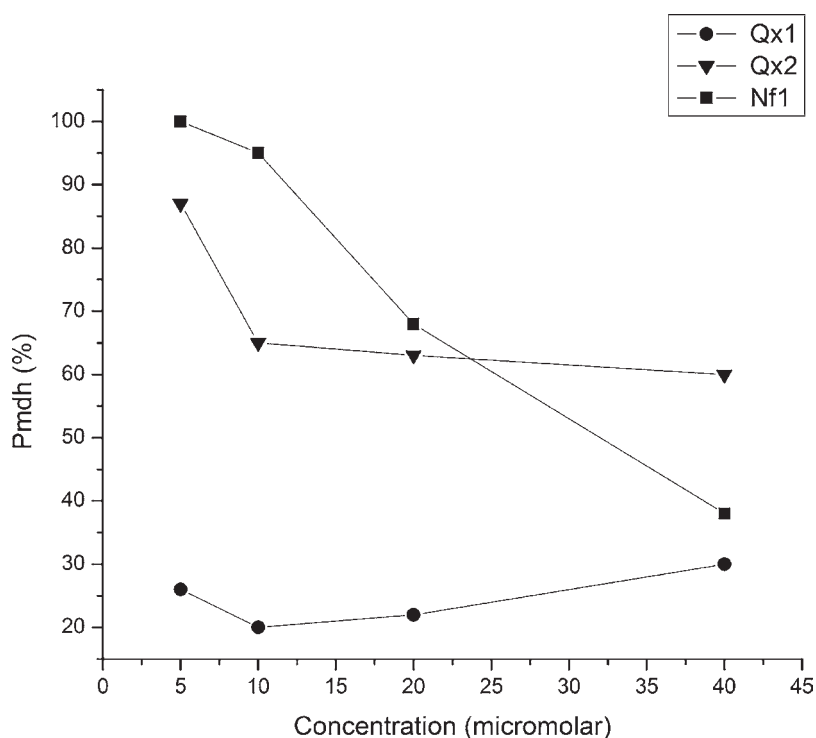


Fig. 5. Mitochondrial dehydrogenases inhibition by **Qx1** (●), **Qx2** (▲) and **Nf1** (■). The enzymatic activities were determined at 90 min of incubation. For experimental details see Materials and methods.

nitrofurane **Nfx**, significantly decreased the mitochondrial dehydrogenase activity in a time-dependent manner while the benzofuroxan **Bfx1** showed a moderate effect. A dose–response study was performed with **Qx1**, **Qx2** and **Nf1** using a 90 min incubation time because it was the time at which a more significant change in Pmdh was observed (Fig. 5). Curiously, compounds showing similar  $IC_{50}$  against *T. cruzi* (**Qx1** 1.6±0.4 mM, **Qx2** 1.8±0.1 mM and **Nf1** 1.3±0.5 mM) showed different behaviours regarding mitochondrial dehydrogenases, with **Qx1** being an absolute inhibitor at all the assayed doses.

#### Effect of **Qx2** on glucose uptake

Since quinoxaline **Qx2** was able to decrease the release of Succ, Ace, Ala and Lac we studied the

ability of this compound to modify glucose uptake by *T. cruzi* epimastigotes. The consumption of glucose by epimastigotes of *T. cruzi* is characterized by the excretion, under aerobic conditions, of reduced products such as Succ, Ace and Ala (Cazzulo, 1992). On the other hand, most trypanosomatids produce Lac from glucose although often as a minor end product, i.e. bloodstream trypomastigotes, and additionally Lac excretion is considerably reduced in mutants showing a reduced glucose consumption rate (Coustou *et al.* 2005).

The glucose uptake (glu-upt) for live parasites treated with the quinoxaline **Qx2**, at the corresponding  $IC_{50}$  and at  $3 \times IC_{50}$  doses, was assessed using the colorimetric Benedict assay performed at 4 h of incubation (Boiani *et al.* 2009). Clearly, **Qx2** diminished the glucose uptake to 33% at the  $IC_{50}$  dose

Table 2. Changes in the visible mobile lipids of *T. cruzi* treated with the different studied compounds analysed by  $^1\text{H}$  NMR

Compound	Dose ( $\mu\text{M}$ ) <sup>b</sup>	Time of exposition (h) <sup>b</sup>	Changes in the $^1\text{H}$ NMR signals <sup>a</sup>		
			$\text{CH}_2/\text{CH}_3$ ratio <sup>c</sup>	'Choline region'	'PUFAs regions'
<b>Fx1</b>	45	24	$0.89 \pm 0.15$	n.m. <sup>d</sup>	n.m.
<b>Fx2</b>	200	24	$0.65 \pm 0.09$	Appearance of PTC, PC, and Cho	n.m.
<b>Bfx1</b> <sup>e</sup>	65	24	$1.00 \pm 0.16$	Increase of Cho	l.m. <sup>f</sup>
<b>Bfx2</b>	200	48	$0.87 \pm 0.09$	Increase of Cho	n.m.
<b>Qx2</b>	200	2	$0.70 \pm 0.02$	d.s. <sup>g</sup>	n.m.
<b>Nfx</b>	300	48	$0.98 \pm 0.05$	d.s.	n.m.
<b>Nf1</b>	13.0	24	$0.96 \pm 0.19$	n.m.	n.m.
<b>Fx3</b>	300.0	24	$0.77 \pm 0.17$	n.m.	n.m.

<sup>a</sup> Respect to untreated parasites.

<sup>b</sup> The doses and time of exposition was determined for each compound using light microscopy.

<sup>c</sup> Expressed respect to untreated parasites.

<sup>d</sup> 'n.m.': not detected modifications.

<sup>e</sup> Using Tulahuén 2 strain.

<sup>f</sup> 'l.m.': little modifications.

<sup>g</sup> 'd.s.': disappearance or decrease of signals.

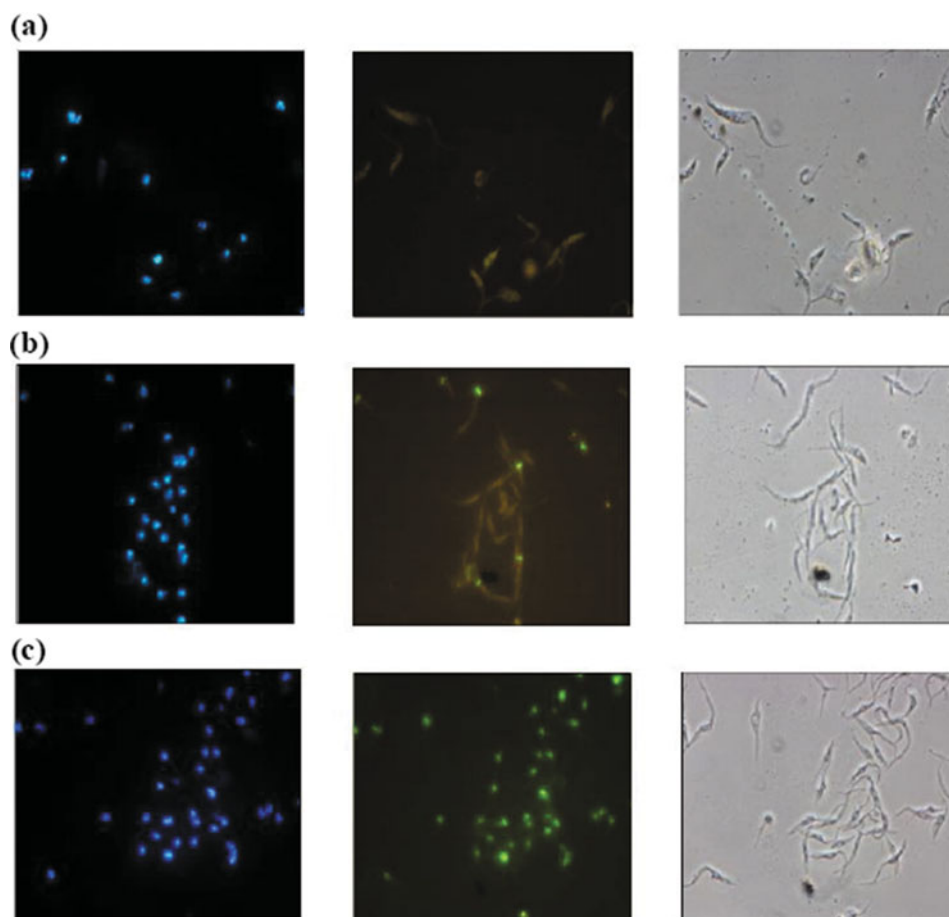


Fig. 6. TUNEL assays (left, DAPI-staining; centre, FITC-staining; right, phase contrast; 1000 $\times$ ). (a) Treatment with **Bfx1** (72  $\mu\text{M}$ , 24 h); (b) Treatment with **Nf1** (19.5  $\mu\text{M}$ , 48 h); (c) Positive control ( $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ : 500  $\mu\text{M}$ , 30 min of incubation at 28  $^\circ\text{C}$ ).

(1.9 mM glu-upt compared with 3.0 mM glu-upt when DMSO was used). Contrarily, at a dose three times the  $\text{IC}_{50}$  an increase in glucose was observed, probably as a result of the loss of cellular integrity

promoted by this high *N*-oxide concentration (–1.3 mM glu-upt compared with 3 mM glu-upt when DMSO was used). These results are in agreement with the  $^1\text{H}$  NMR study of excreted catabolites.



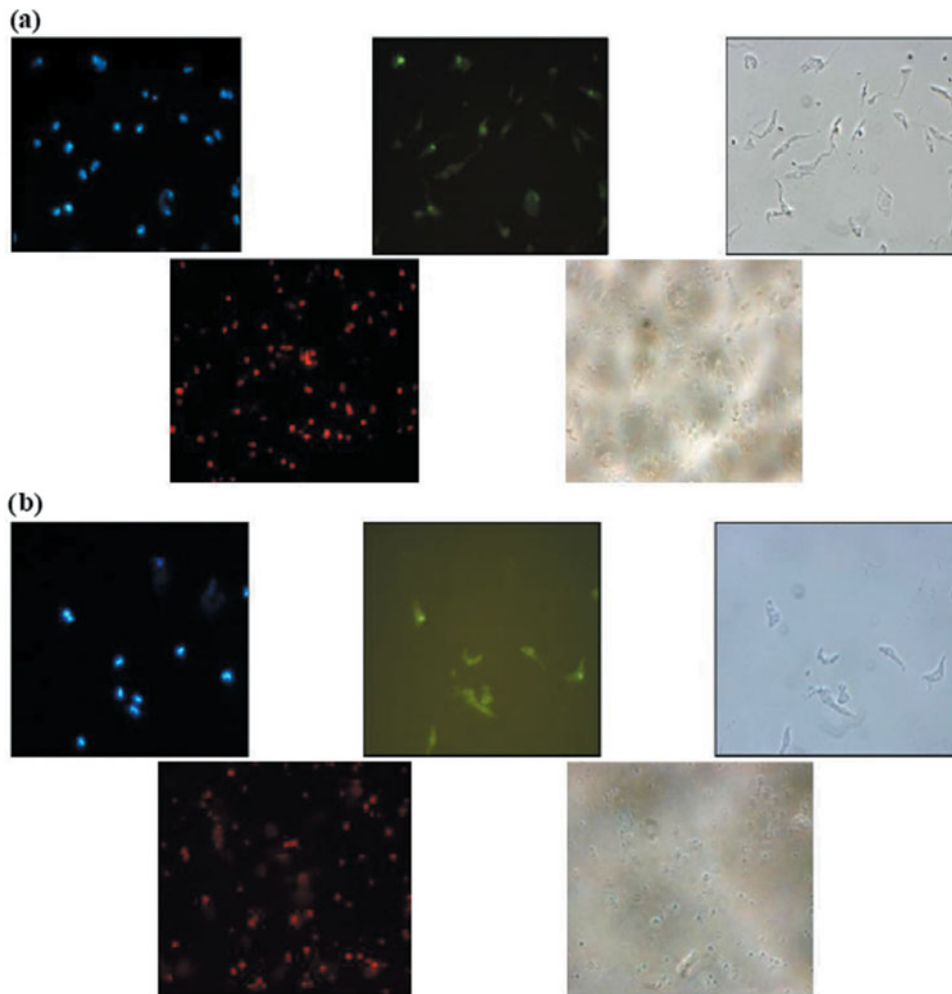


Fig. 7. Examples of results from the TUNEL and PI-staining assays (Up: left, DAPI-staining; centre, FITC-staining; right, phase contrast; 1000 $\times$ . Down: left, PI-staining; right, phase contrast; 400 $\times$ ). (a) Treatment with **Qx1** (8  $\mu$ M, 24 h); (b) Treatment with **Qx2** (18  $\mu$ M, 3 h).

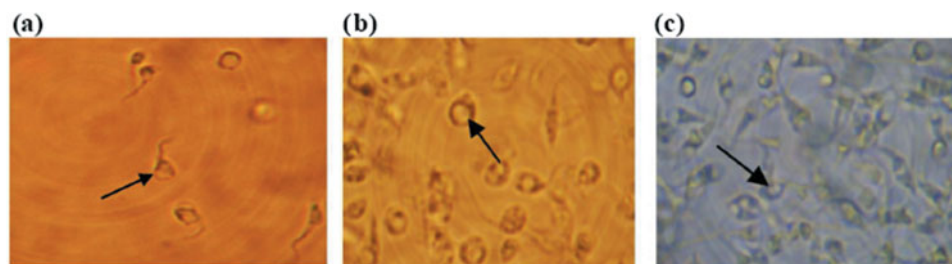


Fig. 8. Light microscopy (640 $\times$ ). (a) Treatment with **Fx1** (50  $\mu$ M, 24 h); (b) Treatment with **Bfx1** (65  $\mu$ M, 24 h); (c) Treatment with **Nf1** (5.1  $\mu$ M, 24 h). Notes: epimastigotes of *T. cruzi* Tulahuen 2 strain; the arrows show the cytoplasmic vacuole.

#### *N*-oxides and cell death phenotype

<sup>1</sup>H NMR-VML spectroscopy analysis of *T. cruzi* epimastigotes treated with *N*-oxides. Increased methylene resonances in <sup>1</sup>H NMR spectra resulting from the accumulation of VMLs correlate with the onset of apoptosis in several drug-treated cell models (Blankenberg *et al.* 1996) reflected in an increase in the CH<sub>2</sub>/CH<sub>3</sub>-ratio (Mikhailenko *et al.* 2005) and in some cases an increment in the signals from PUFA

(Hakumäki *et al.* 1999). The modification of signals from choline (Cho), phosphatidylcholine (PTC) and phosphocholine (PC) has been associated with apoptosis and cell loss (Milkevitch *et al.* 2005). Additionally, apoptotic processes in *T. cruzi* epimastigotes can be visualized through modifications in the VML profiles. Thus, the increment on the CH<sub>2</sub>/CH<sub>3</sub>-ratio and changes in the 'choline region signals' were indicative of apoptosis while necrosis was associated, in some cases, with changes on the

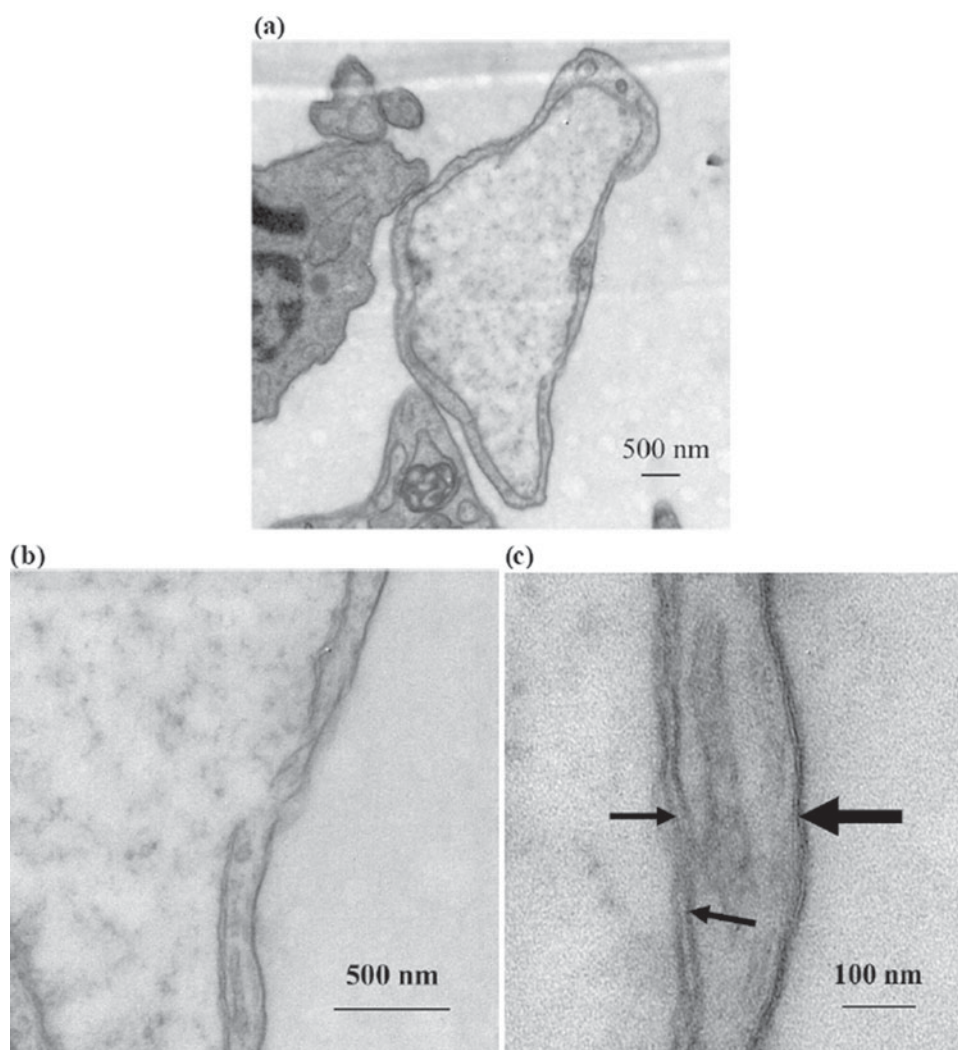


Fig. 9. Transmission electron microscopy of parasites treated with **Fx1**. (a) 12 000 $\times$ ; (b) Detail of (a) (40 000 $\times$ ); (c) Detail of (b) (200 000 $\times$ ). Note: big arrow: plasmatic membrane; small arrows: double membrane of vesicle.

'choline region signals'; no modifications were observed in autophagic cell-death processes (Benítez *et al.* 2012).

Table 2 summarizes the effect of the studied compounds on cell death processes as measured by  $^1\text{H}$  NMR-VMLs. Experimental conditions were determined for each compound by light microscopy observation, trypan blue staining, mobility and morphology. For all the *N*-oxides, except **Qx1**, the  $\text{CH}_2/\text{CH}_3$  ratios were statistically lower than 1.0, indicating absence of cell death by apoptosis (Benítez *et al.* 2012). Despite this, the results for **Fx2** from the PUFAs and choline-containing lipids protons data were reminiscent of those we observed previously for apoptotic conditions (Benítez *et al.* 2012). On the other hand, the same protonic regions indicate that **Qx2** induces a necrotic process, similar to the one previously observed for **Nfx** (Benítez *et al.* 2012). Both benzofuroxans, **Bfx1** and **Bfx2**, produced an increment of protons from choline-moiety. Finally, **Fx1**, **Fx3** and **Nf1** did not modify the protons signals from 'choline' and 'PUFAs' regions

suggesting an autophagic process (Benítez *et al.* 2012).

In order to better clarify the type of cell death induced by *N*-oxides we applied TUNEL and PI-staining techniques on epimastigotes treated with the studied compounds.

*TUNEL and PI-staining assays.* Treatment of epimastigotes with the different *N*-oxides did not induce positive TUNEL results (Fig. 6, Table S1) confirming that any of those compounds induce parasite apoptosis under the assayed conditions. These results were in agreement with those obtained measuring the  $\text{CH}_2/\text{CH}_3$  ratios by  $^1\text{H}$  NMR-VML. On the other hand, PI-staining experiments showed that *N*-oxides **Fx2**, **Qx1** and **Qx2**, similarly to **Nfx** (Benítez *et al.* 2012), induced parasite necrosis under the same conditions applied in the  $^1\text{H}$  NMR experiments (Table 2) (see examples in Fig. 7).

In addition, these experiments confirmed that neither apoptosis nor necrosis were operative, as the

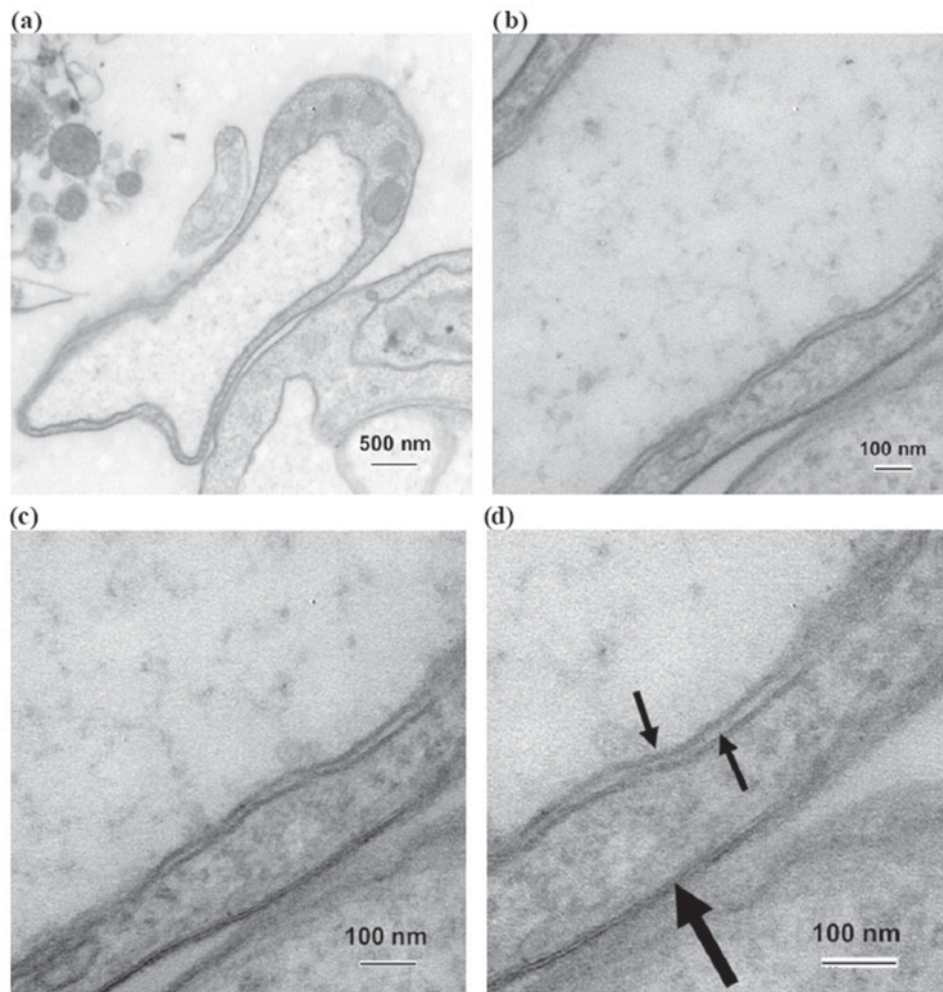


Fig. 10. Transmission electron microscopy of parasites treated with **Nf1**. (a) 25 000 $\times$ ; (b) Detail of (a) (100 000 $\times$ ); (c) Detail of (b) (150 000 $\times$ ); (d) Detail of (c) (200 000 $\times$ ). Note: big arrow: plasmatic membrane; small arrows: double membrane of vesicle.

main cell death phenotype, for *N*-oxides **Fx1**, **Bfx1**, **Bfx2** and the nitrofurane **Nf1**.

*Ultrastructural characterization of cell death phenotypes in parasites treated with N-oxide compounds.* Light microscopy observation of *T. cruzi* epimastigotes treated with **Fx1**, **Bfx1** and **Nf1** compounds showed a common pattern of structural changes (Fig. 8). Particularly, a big vacuole was observed in the parasitic cytoplasm. Consequently, we selected these three compounds to perform ultrastructural analysis by TEM.

Transmission electron microscopy analysis of *T. cruzi* epimastigotes treated with **Fx1** showed important ultrastructural changes, the most relevant being a big cytoplasmic vesicle, with low matrix electron density and concentric double membranes (Fig. 9). This morphology resembles the autophagic phenotype observed by the action of some naphthoimidazoles (Menna-Barreto *et al.* 2009b) and the 'BigEye' phenotype observed in bloodstream forms of *T. brucei* when endocytosis is disrupted

by the knockdown of clathrin heavy chain (Allen *et al.* 2003; Frearson *et al.* 2010). Similarly, the nitrofurane **Nf1** induced concentric membrane structures surrounded, in some cases, by endoplasmic reticulum (Fig. 10). Contrarily, the benzofuroxane **Bfx1** showed a clear autophagic pattern, such as concentric membrane structures and autophagosomes surrounded by endoplasmic reticulum (Fig. 11).

*Evaluation of autophagy induced by the N-oxides Fx1, Bfx1 and the nitrofurane Nf1.* It is well-known that autophagic cell death can be inhibited by suppressing autophagosome formation with autophagic inhibitors, such as 3-methyladenine (3-mA), a non-specific inhibitor of a class III phosphatidylinositol 3-kinases required for autophagy (Klionsky *et al.* 2012). The pre-incubation of epimastigotes with 3-mA reversed the trypanosomicidal effect of the *N*-oxide **Bfx1** and the nitrofurane **Nf1** at least during the first 2 days of the studies (Fig. 12a). Probably, the effect of 3-mA was not evident from the third day as a result of the

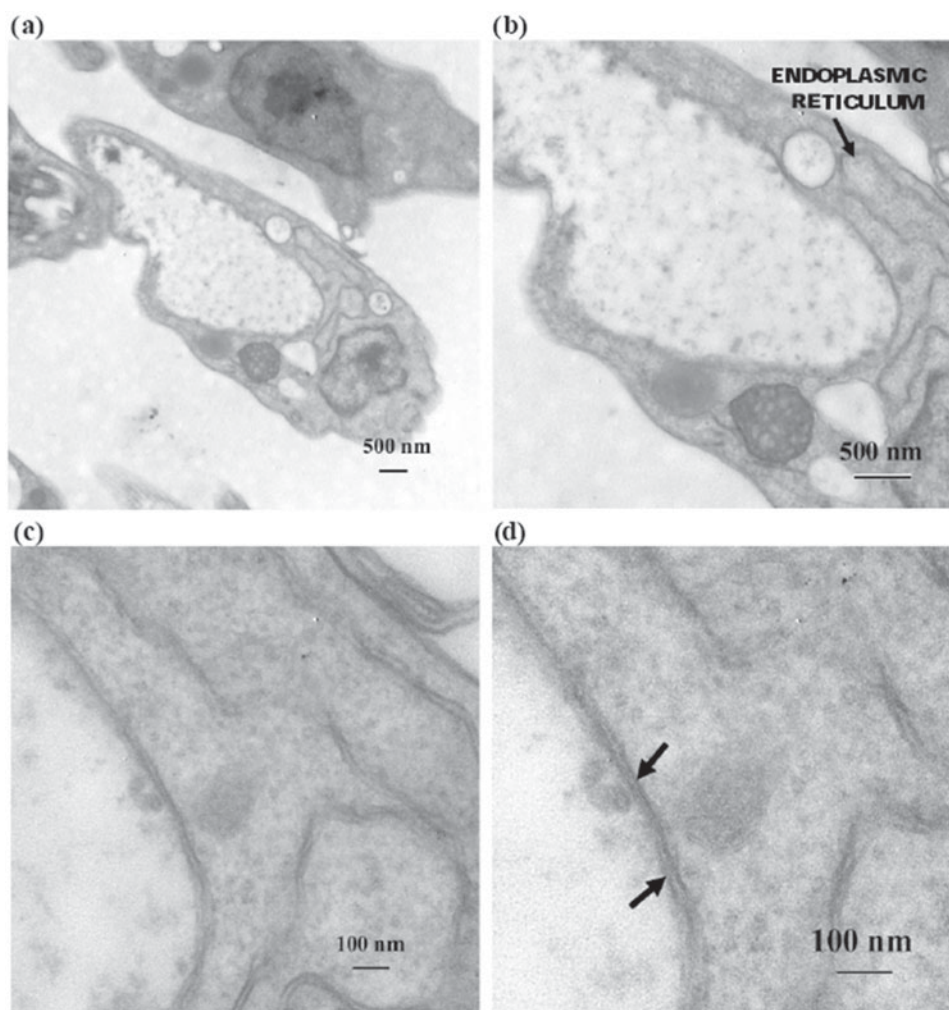


Fig. 11. Transmission electron microscopy of parasites treated with **Bfx1**. (a) 15 000 $\times$ ; (b) Detail of (a) (30 000 $\times$ ); (c) Detail of (b) (100 000 $\times$ ); (d) Detail of (b) (150 000 $\times$ ). Note: arrows: double membrane of vesicle.

parasite inhibitor consumption. 3-mA per se did not interfere with the number of parasites (data not shown). On the other hand, there was no alteration in the parasite survival percentages when 3-mA-pre-incubated parasites were treated with **Fx1** at two different doses (Fig. 12b).

#### DISCUSSION

Many efforts have been made to identify the mechanism of action of anti-*T. cruzi* agents. Our interest focused on studying the mode of action of the most relevant *N*-oxide-containing heterocycles from our in-house chemical library. It was previously described that some benzo[1,2-*c*][1,2,5]oxadiazole *N*-oxides (benzofuroxans) and quinoxaline *N,N'*-dioxides were strong inhibitors of parasite dehydrogenase activity. Aiming to discriminate the mechanism of action by some of these families of compounds, levels of parasitic low-molecular weight thiols, reactive oxidant species, mitochondrial membrane potential and excreted catabolites were studied previously (Boiani *et al.* 2010; Benítez *et al.* 2011).

Most of the studied *N*-oxides decreased the release of both succinate and acetate suggesting that those compounds are acting on the mitochondria. Therefore we focused our study on the effect of *N*-oxides on mitochondrial dehydrogenases. None of the newly studied *N*-oxides were able to affect these dehydrogenases, though the quinoxalines **Qx1** and **Qx2**, as well as **Nf1**, the nitrofurane used as reference, inhibited that enzyme. Considering that these compounds present similar IC<sub>50</sub> against *T. cruzi* epimastigotes but different behaviour on mitochondrial dehydrogenases, and taking into account that the metabolism of carboxylic acids is related to glucose metabolism (Cazzulo, 1992; Coustou *et al.* 2005), we analysed glucose consumption by the parasite in the presence of this *N*-oxide. This study may be indicating that **Qx2** also affects the integrity or some pathway into the glycosome (Bringaud *et al.* 2006; Opperdoes and Coombs, 2007).

Several efforts have been made to identify the type of cell death in parasitic protozoa (Rodrigues and De Souza, 2008) but none with regard to *N*-oxides.

Both mobile lipids analysed by <sup>1</sup>H NMR (Benítez *et al.* 2012) and TUNEL assay showed that the

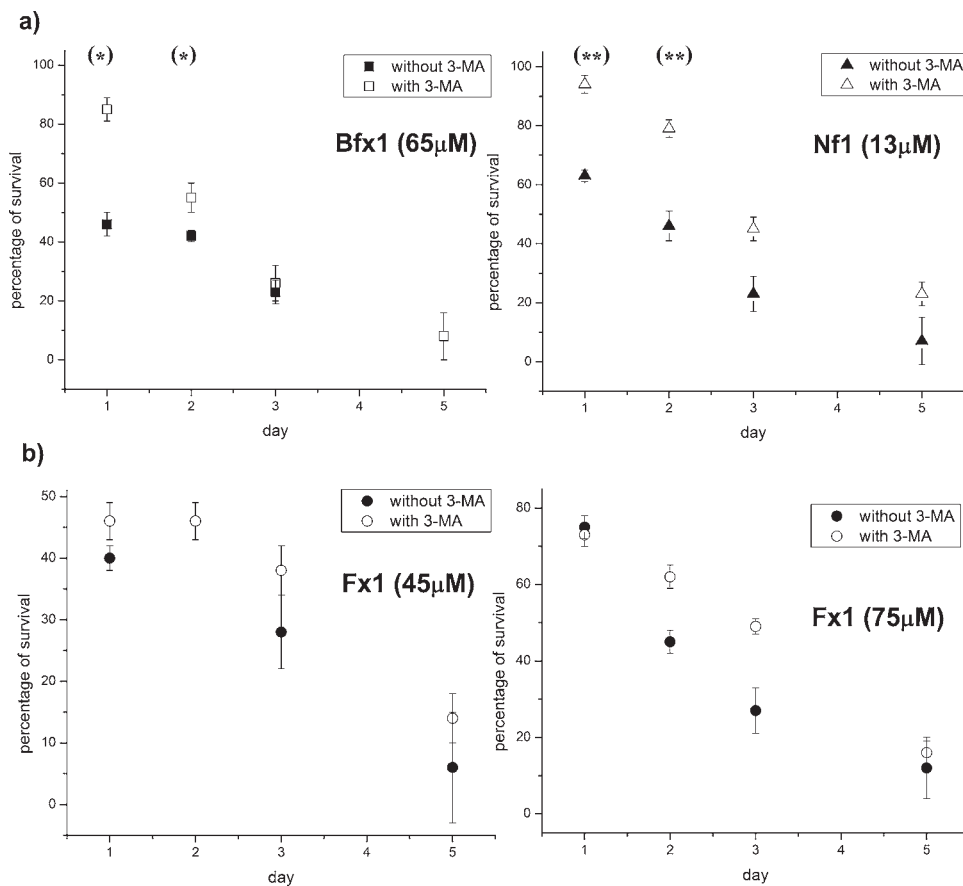


Fig. 12. Pre-incubation of **Bfx1**-, **Nf1**-, and **Fx1**-treated epimastigotes with protease inhibitor 3-MA. Data represent the mean  $\pm$  s.d. of at least three independent experiments. (\*)  $P < 0.003$ ; (\*\*)  $P < 0.0003$ .

studied *N*-oxides do not induce *T. cruzi* death by apoptosis under the assayed conditions. However, according to propidium iodide staining both quinoxaline dioxides, **Qx1** and **Qx2** as well as the 1,2,5-oxadiazole *N*-oxide **Fx2** and the clinically used nitrofurane, Nifurtimox, were able to induce necrosis of parasites in the assayed conditions.

Light microscopy observations indicated that the **Fx2**-structurally related *N*-oxides **Fx1** and **Bfx1**, together with the nitrofurane **Nf1**, induced very particular structural changes. This is interesting considering that structural similarities in these families of compounds are not related to the type of cellular death. Therefore, we performed ultrastructural analysis by TEM and the use of protease inhibitor to confirm or discard an autophagy process. Autophagy is a self-degradation process presented in eukaryotes, implicated in the removal and/or remodelling of damaged cellular structures. In yeasts and mammals, autophagosome formation involves the assembling of a pre-autophagosomal structure, close to endoplasmic reticulum cisternae (Yorimitsu and Klionsky, 2007).

Ultrastructural analysis and pre-incubation with the protease-inhibitor 3-methyladenine suggested the induction of an autophagic phenotype in *T. cruzi* epimastigotes treated with **Bfx1** and

**Nf1**. Morphological characteristics such as the appearance of concentric membrane structures and autophagosome-like bodies were commonly observed in treated parasites, with the latter surrounded by endoplasmic reticulum. Additionally, the pre-incubation of epimastigotes with the autophagic inhibitor abolished the effect of **Bfx1** and **Nf1**, at least for 48 h. However, the ultrastructural and protease-inhibitor data showed a very different behaviour for **Fx1**. In this case, the presence of a concentric membrane vesicle, such as an autophagosome, could indicate an autophagic phenotype; however, endoplasmic reticulum in close proximity to the vacuole was not observed. Additionally, there was no effect of the inhibitor 3-methyladenine in parasite survival. Consequently, a 'BigEye' phenotype may be proposed as a consequence of **Fx1** action, as observed in *T. brucei* bloodstream forms when endocytosis is disrupted by the knockdown of clathrin heavy chain (Allen *et al.* 2003; Frearson *et al.* 2010). However, to consider that this process is operative in **Fx1** treated *T. cruzi* epimastigotes needs further investigation.

Our results in *T. cruzi* treated with different classes of *N*-oxides has led to an understanding of mechanism of action and protozoa cell death that could help develop new therapeutic strategies.

## SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

To view supplementary material for this article, please visit <http://dx.doi.org/S003118201300200X>.

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