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BASIC MECHANISM OF HYPERBARIC OXYGEN IN INFECTIOUS DISEASE

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ABSTRACT

Hyperbaric oxygen therapy (HBOT) is the inhalation of 100 percent oxygen inside a hyperbaric chamber that is pressurized to greater than 1 atmosphere (atm). HBOT causes both mechanical and physiologic effects by inducing a state of increased pressure and hyperoxia. HBOT is typically administered at 1 to 3 atm. While the duration of an HBOT session is typically 90 to 120 minutes, the duration, frequency, and cumulative number of sessions have not been standardized. HBO has been used widely in treating gangrene diabetic, stroke, osteomyelitis and accelerating wound healing. The use of HBO in infectious disease is wide, so the mechanism of hyperbaric oxygen in infectious disease should be well-understood. This understanding could bring the proper and wise management of infectious disease and to prevent the side effect of each therapy.

Key words: HBO, infectious disease, mechanism, proper and wise mechanism

INTRODUCTION

This review would discuss the basic mechanism of action of hyperbaric oxygen in infectious disease. It will present the evidence for the bacteriostatic and bactericidal effect of hyperoxia and hyperbaric oxygen on microbial organisms in vitro and in vivo model of infections. It will also examine the effect of oxygen on the activity of antimicrobial agent and on the function of immune defense mechanisms.

Regulation of Oxygen Delivery to Tissues

Tissue oxygen tensions are effected mainly by the concentration on inspired oxygen, cardiac output, local blood flow, cellular metabolism and substrate availability. (Kehrer JP *et al*, 1990; Sheffield PJ, 1988; Silver IA, 1984). Different partial pressures of oxygen (pO_2) are normally found in various body compartment. The pO_2 s may be even lower. In bacterial osteomyelitis, the pO_2 range from approximately 100 mm Hg within pulmonary alveoli to 15 mm Hg in the liver parenchymal cell. In traumatized or septic tissues, pO_2 s may be even lower. In bacterial osteomyelitis, the pO_2 s of bone is lowered by 50%; in experimental abscesses pO_2 s may measure as low as

0 mm Hg (Hays RC, Mandell GL, 1974) within individual cells, pO_2 s are heterogeneous and are much lower than extracellular pO_2 s. For example, pO_2 s in mitochondria are less than 1 mm Hg (Wilson DF, Erecinska M, 1984).

Normoxia (15%–21%) is defined in this review as the fractional inspired oxygen (FIO_2) concentration necessary to maintain aerobic metabolism and homeostasis in the body. Oxygen tensions outside this normal range will be defined as follows: Anaerob (less than 0.01% O_2), hypoxia (12% O_2 or less), hyperoxia (45%–100% O_2), and hyperbaric oxygen (any O_2 tension greater than 1 atmosphere absolute pressure or 760 mm Hg).

General Mechanism of Action of Oxygen in Infections

Hyperoxia and hyperbaric oxygen (HBO) increase oxygen tensions in tissue to levels which inhibit microbial growth by inhibiting various microbial metabolic reactions. Hyperoxia and HBO by themselves also exert direct bacteriostatic and bactericidal effects on selected microorganisms because of increased generation of reactive oxygen species or free radical (Jamieson D *et al*, 1986; Raffin TA *et al*, 1977). Free radicals are lethal for microorganisms that either lack or possess limited antioxidant defenses. HBO is a unique antibacterial agent.

At doses used clinically, HBO is usually bacteriostatic. Not all doses of HBO have an antibacterial effect. The use of HBO at pressures of 1.5 ATA or less promotes the growth of aerobic bacteria in vitro (Olodart RM, 1966).

Hyperbaric oxygen also raises oxygen tensions in hypoxic tissue to levels necessary for the killing of bacteria by neutrophils (Mader JT et al, 1980). While phagocytosis remains unaffected by low oxygen tensions (Karnovsky ML, 1968) killing of microorganisms by the oxidative burst is dependent on oxygen tensions. (Babior BM, 1978; Beaman L et al, 1984; Hasset DJ, Cohen MS, 1989) polymorphonuclear leukocytes (PMNs) from patients with chronic granulomatous disease lack the enzyme NADPH-oxidase necessary for oxygen-dependent killing of such pathogenic bacteria as *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and *Staphylococcus aureus* (Mandell GL, Hook EW, 1969).

Hyperoxia and HBO also influence the activity of selected antimicrobial agents belonging to the following categories antimetabolites, protein synthesis inhibitors and reduction-oxidation cycling agent. Oxygen tensions also influence the pharmacokinetics of antimicrobial agent. For example, hypoxemia (PaO₂-32mm Hg) prolongs (2-fold) the serum half-life of aminoglycosides hypoxemia effects both the absorption from muscle as well as the elimination of these antimicrobials (Miphij MJ et al, 1978).

Hyperbaric oxygen can also effect the outcome of infections indirectly by influencing tissue repair and regeneration responses in infected necrotic tissue. For example, hypoxia (12% O₂, 1 ATA) retards healing of skin wounds and thus probably favors bacterial growth (Knighton DR et al, 1986) hyperbaric oxygen (100% O₂, 2 ATA, 2t, twice daily) does not effect the healing of vascularized, full-thickness skin wound, but enhances wound closure in ischemic wound (Kivisaari J, Niinikoski J, 1975).

Significantly decreased in uninfected bone of rabbits after exposure to HBO (100% O₂, 2ATA) (Stelner B et al, 1984) the hemodynamic changes induced by hyperbaric oxygen may be the results of increased oxygen delivery of tissue. It is also possible that negative inotropic effect on myocardium play a role in these changes. As far as can be judged from work with a model of antibiotic-controlled sepsis, the presence of sepsis per se does not cause may hemodynamic changes during exposure to HBO (Muhvich KH, 1986).

Susceptibility of anaerobic and aerobic bacteria to HBO

Pathogenic bacteria are classified in terms of the partial pressure of oxygen in which they grow. By definition, anaerobic bacteria can not survive in normal oxygen tensions because they lack antioxidant defenses. As such they are very susceptible HBO. For example, hyperbaric oxygen (3 ATA for 18 hours) is completely bactericidal for *Clostridium perfringens* in vitro (Hill GB, Osterhaut S, 1972) however, there are differences in susceptibility to oxygen among *Clostridium* species. Hyperbaric oxygen (100% O₂, 2 ATA) block the germination of *C. perfringens* spores in vitro, but is not bactericidal for the spores

(Demello FJ et al, 1970) facultative anaerobic bacteria are able to grow in normoxia hyperoxia by increasing the synthesis of antioxidant enzymes (Gregory EM, Fridovich I, 1973).

The growth of some aerobic bacteria is enhanced by hyperoxia, but is inhibited by HBO. For example, oxygen tensions up to 1 ATA enhance the growth of *Escherichia coli*, whereas oxygen tensions greater than 2 ATA inhibit growth in vitro. (Olodart RM, 1966) hyperoxia (100% O₂, 1 ATA) enhances the growth of *P. aerogenes* in vitro (Park MK et al, 1991); hyperoxia (0.2 ATA to 0.87 ATA) enhances the growth of *Corynebacterium diphtheriae* in vitro (Gottlieb SF et al, 1974).

Prolonged in vitro exposure to oxygen tensions greater than 1.5 ATA inhibit the growth of several aerobic and facultative anaerobic bacteria. Hyperbaric oxygen (greater than 1.5 ATA) is bacteriostatic for *E. coli* (Boehme DE et al, 1976; Brown OR, 1972) *P. aerogenes*, (Bornside GH et al, 1975, *C. diphtheriae*, *Lactobacillus casei*, (Gottlieb SF, 1979) and *Vibrio anguillarum* (Keck PE et al, 1980) however, a 1 hour intermittent exposure to HBO (100% O₂, 2 ATA every 8 hours) has no effect on the growth of *P. aerogenes* or *S. aureus* (Brown GL et al, 1979) prolonged in vitro hyperbaric oxygen exposure (2.9 ATA O₂, 24 hours) is also bacteriostatic for the following enteric bacteria *Salmonella typhosa*, *S. schottmuelleri*, *S. paratyphi*, *Shigella dysenteriae*, *S. flexneri*, and *Proteus vulgaris* (Bornside et al, 1975) the growth of *Streptococcus (enterococcus) faeculis* is partially inhibited by 2.9 ATA O₂ however, an alpha hemolytic strain of streptococcus is not inhibited by HBO (Gottlieb SF, 1979) possibly because of the presence of a hyaluronic acid-containing capsule (Cleary PP, Larkin A, 1979).

Hyperbaric oxygen is bactericidal for aerobic and facultative anaerobic bacteria usually only at pressures and/or durations which are greater than can be used clinically. For example, HBO is bactericidal for *P. aerogenes*, *Proteus vulgaris*, and *S. typhosa*. at 3 ATA for 24 hours and for *E. coli* at 20 ATA when treated for 6 hours (Bornside et al, 1975).

Mechanisms of Bacteriostatic Effect of HBO

HBO inhibits the growth of aerobic facultative anaerobic bacteria by inducing a variety of metabolic effects involved with the synthesis of proteins. Nucleic acids and essential cofactors metabolic reactions: membrane transport function are also effected. These effects were achieved with the use of hyperbaric oxygen in vivo.

Inhibition of Amino Acid and Protein Biosynthesis

Exposure of *E. coli* to hyperbaric oxygen (100% O₂ at greater than 3 ATA) causes a rapid inhibition of growth and respiration (Brown OR, 1972) the inhibitory effect HBO are most likely caused by free radicals and other reactive oxygen based molecules, because hyperoxia (100% O₂, 1 ATA) inhibits growth of a superoxide dismutase-deficient double mutant of *E. coli* (*sod A sod B*) (Carlioz A, Touati D, 1986) free radicals probably

inactivate a bacterial enzyme (dihydroxyacid dehydratase) involved in amino acid biosynthesis (Brown OR, 1975). Dihydroxyacid dehydratase catalyzes the formation of alpha-ketoisovalerate, an intermediate in the formation of valine and leucine. Hyperbaric oxygen (100% O₂, 4.2 ATA) decreases the specific activity of dihydroxyacid dehydratase by 78 % (Brown OR, 1975). The inhibition of amino acid biosynthesis by HBO eventually leads to increase level of tRNA, which is responsible for inducing stringency response. The stringency response is characterized by increased level of tetra- and penta- phosphorylated guanosine which inhibit bacterial carbohydrate, lipid and nucleotide synthesis and enhance proteolysis (Cashel M, 1975). The end result is cessation of bacterial growth.

The inhibition by HBO of protein synthesis in bacteria may also be caused by free radical- induced block in the transport of substrates use in RNA transcription. Hyperoxia or the superoxide anion free radical inhibit the transport of lactose, guanosine and methylglycopyranoside in to E.coli (Forman HJ *et al.*, 1982). Hyperoxia also inhibit the transport of protons and the synthesis of ATP in bacterial membranes (Wilson DM *et al.*, 1976). However it appears that the growth inhibition caused by HBO begins long before a drop in ATP level occurs (Mathis RR, 1976). The mechanism of decreased transport caused by HBO is thought to be the oxidation of sulfhydryl-containing protein involved in transport of metabolic substrates. Free radicals are able to inactivate other bacterial proteins with key enzymatic function by oxidizing sulfhydryl-containing amino acids such as methionine play a key role in defending against this type of oxidative damage to proteins (Brot N *et al.*, 1981).

Decreased Levels of Key Cofactors of Metabolic Reactions

Hyperbaric oxygen also inhibits bacterial growth by decreasing the levels of thiamine and of both the reduced and oxidized forms of nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (NAD, NADH) (Brown OR, 1983) thiamine pyrophosphate is an essential coenzyme in carbohydrate metabolism and NADPH production; NADPH is a critical cofactor in a wide range of metabolic reactions. The mechanism of the decrease in NAD is in inhibition of the de novo NAD synthesis pathway and possibly also an increase in catabolism of NAD (Gardner PR, 1990).

Decreased Synthesis in Increased Degradation of DNA and RNA

Hyperbaric oxygen can also inhibit bacterial growth by directly blocking RNA transcription and DNA synthesis, for example, HBO (4.2 ATA) inhibits RNA transcription and DNA synthesis in both stringent and relaxed strains of E. coli after a 30 minute exposure (Brown OR, 1983).

Electron microscopic studies show ultrastructural evidence of degradation of nucleic acids and ribosomal proteins in *P.aeruginosa*, after bacteriostasis induced by prolonged exposure to HBO (100% O₂, 2.9 ATA) for 24 hours (Clark JM, 1971). *P. aeruginosa* undergoes marked changes in morphologic appearance when exposed to

oxygen at pressures that do not induce bacteriostasis (100% O₂, 2 ATA). These abnormal shape changes are reversible (Kenward MA *et al.*, 1980).

Another important mechanism of oxygen-induced toxicity to bacteria is via injury to DNA. Production of superoxide anion in vitro and in vivo has been linked to mutations in bacteria, HBO is mutagenic induced the reversion of a tryptophan auxotroph (E.coli WP 2 hr) to prototrophy. Paraquat toxicity for E. coli is in large part due to superoxide radical production (Hassan and Fridovich, 1978). Paraquat is highly mutagenic for two strains of *S. typhimurium* (Moody and Hassan, 1982). Both base-pair substitution and frameshift mutations were noted in DNA from the *Salmonella* strains. Cell containing high levels of SOD are more resistant to toxicity and mutagenicity than cell containing normal levels of this enzyme.

From a quantitative standpoint, an important cellular source of superoxide is the nonenzymatic oxidation of cytochrome intermediates of the electron transport chain in mitochondria.

Superoxide is also generated by the cytochrome-P-450 substrate-oxygen complexes in the endoplasmic reticulum. Another cellular organelle producing toxic oxygen species is the peroxisome. Here H₂O₂ production occurs by oxidation of substrates such as long chain fatty acids. In all these cellular organelles, the generation of toxic oxygen species is dependent on tissue oxygen tensions (Turrens JF *et al.*, 1982) Xanthine oxidase is a major source of O₂ in ischemic and hypoxic tissue that undergo re-oxygenation by blood reflow (McCord JM, 1985). In summary, the presence of an adequate amount of molecular oxygen is necessary for oxygen-dependent killing by PMNs and macrophages to occur. A variety of enzymatic and nonenzymatic cellular reactions also normally result in the production of O₂ and H₂O₂. The production of these molecules is enhanced by increasing tissue oxygen tensions. Free radicals are highly reactive and if not removed by scavengers, may cause extensive cellular injury.

Bacterial Defense Mechanism Against Free Radicals

For protection against the free radicals generated during normal aerobic metabolism, cells have developed antioxidant defence mechanisms. Three main antioxidant enzymes are known. Superoxide dismutase (SOD) is an extremely efficient O₂ (GSH peroxidase) catalyzes the reduction of hydrogen peroxide to water and dioxygen, and is capable of converting toxic lipid peroxides into nontoxic products.

Superoxide anion may undergo spontaneous dismutation to form hydrogen peroxide. The rate of reaction is enhanced markedly by the presence of superoxide dismutase (SOD). Dismutation of two O₂ radicals results in the formation of one hydrogen peroxide molecule. Catalase subsequently converts hydrogen peroxide to water and oxygen. The role of catalase is probably more important during hyperoxic conditions than in normoxic conditions. In the presence of trace amount of transition metals,

particularly iron, hydrogen peroxide may participate in the Fenton reaction. This reaction serves to produce the highly reactive OH[•] radical, removal of H₂O₂ by catalase is important in order to prevent lipid peroxidation of membranes by OH[•].

Free radicals may also be inactivated by reacting with low molecular weight substances located in the cellular membranes or in the cytosol. Tocopherol (Vitamin E) is an antioxidant located in membranes. Ascorbate, beta-carotene and sulfhydryl-containing compound such as cysteine, cysteamine and glutathione are water soluble antioxidant compound. Under normal metabolic conditions, these free radical cellular injury. However, if host defense mechanism are overwhelmed, damage to eukaryotic cells as well as prokaryotic cells will occur. (Freeman BA, 1982).

It is clear that primary mechanism of toxicity of HBO for eukaryotic cells and for microorganism is through the generation of free radicals, and other toxic oxygen species. Mammalian cells have various antioxidant defense and utilize free radical reactions for bacterial killing. Augmentation of endogenous host antioxidant defenses may permit use of higher doses of HBO than are currently possible in the treatment of infectious disease states. One of the rationales for using hyperbaric in infections is the potential to exploit the enhanced of selected microorganism to toxic oxygen molecules.

Role of Superoxide and Hydrogen peroxide in Bacterial Killing by Hyperoxia and hyperbaric oxygen

The superoxide anion radical appears to be particularly important in bacterial killing (Gregory EM, 1974) several in vitro studies have shown that the absence of the enzyme responsible for the detoxification of O₂^{•-}, namely superoxide dismutase (SOD), increases the susceptibility of many anaerobic and facultative anaerobic bacteria to oxygen (McCord JM, 1971) on the other hand, by raising bacterial levels of SOD, the susceptibility of the bacteria to oxygen can be diminished in vitro. For example, SOD levels in *B. fragilis* can be raised 5-fold by exposure to 2% O₂ (Privale CT, 1979). The increased SOD activity markedly reduces killing of these bacteria by HBO (Gregory EM, 1973) killing of *S. sanguis* can also be prevented by increasing SOD activity: dimethylsulfoxide (permeable OH[•] scavenger) does not protect against free radical toxicity (DiGuseppi J, Fridovich I, 1982) studies with SOD and catalase deficient mutants of *E. coli* confirm that SOD is more important than catalase in protecting against the growth inhibition caused by hyperoxia (Schellhorn HE, Hassan HM, 1988).

In some strains of bacteria such as *L. plantarum* high levels of Mn²⁺ appear to be an effective substitute for SOD in protecting against the toxic effect of O₂^{•-}. Other bacteria such as *N. gonorrhoeae* are particularly susceptible to a different toxic oxygen species, namely H₂O₂. In these bacteria resistance to oxygen induced killing is associated with high levels of catalase, the enzyme responsible for detoxification of H₂O₂. Additional antioxidant defense such as peroxidase and high levels glutathione also contribute to

survival of these bacterial in aerobic conditions (Archibald FS, Duong MN, 1986).

Work done by Beaman et al. (1985) has shown that surface associated SOD and high levels of catalase in *Nocardia asteroides* act together to resist oxygen dependent microbicidal activity of human PMNs. Microorganism with adequate antioxidant defenses are resistant to toxic actions of O₂ and may use the production of toxic oxygen species to injure host cells for example, virulent strains of *Listeria monocytogenes* exhibit maximal production of H₂O₂ and O₂. Virulence is correlated with survival of *Listeria monocytogenes* in macrophage monolayers. The exogenous H₂O₂ damage macrophages. An avirulent strain of *L. monocytogenes* does not release H₂O₂ or O₂ in significant amounts (Godfrey RW, Wilder MS, 1985).

It is not clear if damage to bacterial cytoplasmic membrane caused by HBO is significant enough to be considered an important mechanism of HBO induced killing. In the case of *E. coli*, very few broken cells and no evidence of membrane lipid peroxidation are seen after the bacterial have been killed by HBO in vivo (Harley JB et al, 1981). However the presence of a capsule appears to protect bacteria against oxygen-induced damage, in the case of *Streptococcus pyogenes* the presence of a hyaluronic acid capsule increases resistance to the bacteriostatic effect of oxygen. Removal of the capsule from an encapsulated *Streptococcus* strain using hyaluronidase digestion increases susceptibility of this bacterium to the toxic effect of oxygen (Cleary PP, Larkin A, 1979).

Genetic Mechanism of Bacterial Resistance to Oxygen

Two regulatory genes responsible for the increased resistance of bacteria to hyperoxia have been identified and are known as the soxR and oxyR regulons. Hyperoxia and superoxide induce the synthesis of 30 proteins; approximately 20 of these proteins are regulated by the soxR or the oxyR regulons. (Christman MF et al, 1985; Greenberg JT et al, 1990; Storz G et al, 1990; Walkup LKB, Kogama T, 1989). Many of these bacterial proteins are enzymes involved in detoxification of free radicals and repair of free radical damage; example are SOD, endonuclease IV, and glucose 6-phosphate dehydrogenase (Greenberg JT et al, 1990; Tsavena JR, Weiss B, 1990). Example of these proteins include the antioxidant enzymes hydroperoxidase 1 catalase. NAD(P)H-dependent alkyl hydroperoxide reductase, and glutathione reductase, exposure to toxic oxygen species induces the synthesis of several other protective proteins whose specific identity remains to be characterized (Christman MF et al, 1985; Dimple B, Halbrook J, 1983; Storz G et al, 1990).

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