### Oxidative stress-induced DNA damage and cell cycle regulation in B65 dopaminergic cell line

### JAVIER G. PIZARRO<sup>1</sup>, JAUME FOLCH<sup>2</sup>, AURELIO VAZQUEZ DE LA TORRE<sup>1</sup>, ESTER VERDAGUER<sup>1</sup>, FELIX JUNYENT<sup>1</sup>, JOAQUÍN JORDÁN<sup>3</sup>, MERCÈ PALLÀS<sup>1</sup>, & ANTONI CAMINS<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Unitat de Farmacologia i Farmacognòsia, Institut de Biomedicina (IBUB), Centro de Investigación Biomédica en Red de Enfermedades Neurodegenerativas (CIBERNED), Facultat de Farmàcia, Universitat de Barcelona, Nucli Universitari de Pedralbes, 08028 Barcelona, Spain, <sup>2</sup>Unitat de Bioquimica, Facultat de Medicina i Ciències de la Salut, Centro de Investigación Biomédica en Red de Enfermedades Neurodegenerativas (CIBERNED), Universitat Rovira i Virgili. C./ St. Llorenç 21 43201 Reus, Tarragona, Spain, and <sup>3</sup>Grupo de Neurofarmacología, Departamento de Ciencias Médicas, Facultad de Medicina, Universidad Castilla-La Mancha, Albacete, Spain

(Received 8 June 2009; revised 1 July 2009)

#### Abstract

Reactive oxygen species and oxidative stress are associated with neuronal cell death in many neurodegenerative conditions. However, the exact molecular mechanisms triggered by oxidative stress in neurodegeneration are still unclear. This study used the B65 rat neuroblastoma cell line as a model to study the molecular events that occur after  $H_2O_2$  treatment. Treatment of B65 cells with  $H_2O_2$  rapidly up-regulated the DNA damage pathway involved in double-strand breakage. Subsequently, proteins involved in p53 regulation, such as sirtuin 1 and STAT1, were modified. In addition,  $H_2O_2$ treatment altered the pattern of cell cycle protein expression. Specifically, a decrease was found in the expression of cyclin D1, cdk4 and surprisingly the levels of cyclin A and the retinoblastoma protein phosphorylated at ser780 were increased. Furthermore, this study shows that pre-treatment of B65 cells with 50  $\mu$ M trolox confers almost total protection against apoptotic cell death and restores the cell cycle. Likewise, the increase in retinoblastoma phosphorylation was attenuated by KU-55993, a selective ATM inhibitor, and also by trolox. These observations indicate that DNA damage and oxidative stress are responsible for cell cycle regulation. In summary, this study describes the molecular mechanisms involved in cell cycle alterations induced by oxidative stress in B65 cells. These findings highlight the relevance of ATM in the regulation of cell cycle after oxidative stress.

Keywords: ATM, apoptosis, KU-55933, cell cycle, retinoblastoma protein

#### Introduction

Increased production of reactive oxygen species (ROS) plays a central role in numerous pathologies, such as cancer and neurological disorders, as well as in ageing [1–4]. It is widely accepted that an excess of ROS is toxic and damages cell components, including nucleic acids, proteins and lipids. In addition, this excess enhances apoptosis or necrosis [5]. Moreover, ROS causes DNA damage, specifically DNA double-

strand breaks (DSBs), considered the most significant nuclear lesion [3–5]. Although DNA damage response involves a complex cellular network, it is now known that the ataxia telangiectasia mutated (ATM) and ataxia telangiectasia and Rad3-related (ATR) phosphoinositide 3-kinase-related kinases (PIKKs) are the main enzymes activated after this damage [6]. Both types of enzyme are involved in the transduction of DNA damage signals to checkpoint control proteins.

Correspondence: Antoni Camins, Unitat de Farmacologia i Farmacognòsia i Institut de Biomedicina, Facultat de Farmàcia, Universitat de Barcelona, Avinguda Diagonal 643, 08028 Barcelona, Spain. Email: camins@ub.edu

ISSN 1071-5762 print/ISSN 1029-2470 online © 2009 Informa UK Ltd. DOI: 10.1080/10715760903159188

In this regard, ATM is essential for mediating checkpoint control in cells exposed to stimuli which produce DSBs, such as ionizing radiation, camptothecin and other specific DNA-damaging agents [7].

A rapid response to DNA DSBs is the phosphorylation of p53 on Ser15 by ATM [8-11]. However, previous studies identified other potential enzymes that contribute to p53 activation, such as STAT1 (signal transducer and activator of transcription 1) cdk5, c-Jun kinase and SIRT1. SIRT1 is a regulator of p53 function, thus acetylation of p53 occurs at the C-terminal lys-382 and stabilizes it and also increases the binding capacity of p53 to DNA [12,13]. Likewise, stabilized p53 favours the expression of p21, which inhibits cell cycle progression [14]. Thus, p53 is a tumour suppressor protein and the regulation of the p53 pathway in response to DNA stress is crucial since it can induce either apoptosis or cell survival [15-21]. Activated p53 protein binds to specific DNA sequences, thereby initiating one of three programmes that result in cell-cycle arrest, cellular senescence or apoptosis [15,17,20]. Accordingly, the regulatory network of p53 is complex, since it interacts with a large number of other signal transduction pathways and positive and negative regulatory feedback also occurs [17]. For example, interaction between p53 and Akt, MDM-2, Cop-1, Pirh-2, p73 delta N, cyclin G, Wip-1 and Siah-1 p14/19 ARF and Rb have been reported [17-25]. In addition, p53 induces apoptosis by activating downstream cell death effectors such as Bax, Puma and Noxa [17]. Interestingly, the integration of all these stress signals changes in p53 are mainly visualized by changes in the cell cycle phases.

Here we report that multiple intracellular pathways are involved in p53 regulation. Our results also show that oxidative stress contributes to the regulation of retinoblastoma (Rb) protein through phosphorylation in ser780. Rb phosphorylation was an early event and was inhibited by a specific ATM inhibitor, KU-55993 [26]. Accordingly, we propose an intracellular pathway where ROS affects cell cycle progression through ATM activation and Rb phosphorylation.

#### Material and methods

#### Methods

Neuroblastoma B65 cell line was purchased from the European Collection of Cell Cultures (ECACC, Alisbury, UK). Cells were seeded 200 cells/mm<sup>2</sup> and cultured in DMEM media containing 10% FCS.

### Assessment of cell viability

B65 cells were used after 24 h of culture *in vitro*. Trolox was dissolved in culture media and added to the neuronal preparation at a range of concentrations 2 h before addition of  $H_2O_2$  (50 µM to 1 mM). To assess

the loss of cell viability, we used the MTT [3-(4,5dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyl tetrazolium] method. MTT was added to the cells at a final concentration of 250  $\mu$ M and cells were incubated for 1 h, thereby allowing the reduction in MTT to produce a dark blue formazan product. Media were then removed and cells were dissolved in dimethylsulphoxide. Formazan production was measured by the absorbency change at 595 nm using a microplate reader (BioRad Laboratories, CA, USA). Viability results were expressed as percentages. The absorbency measured from untreated cells was taken to be 100%.

#### Measurements of ROS

Levels of intracellular ROS were measured using the fluorescent probe 2, 7-dichlorodihydrofluorescein diacetate (H<sub>2</sub>DCF-DA). Briefly, cells were incubated for 1 h at 37°C in the presence of 10  $\mu$ M of H<sub>2</sub>DCFDA (added from a 20 mM stock solution in dimethyl sulphoxide). H<sub>2</sub>DCFDA diffuses across neuronal membranes, where acetates migrate via intracellular esterases. Oxidation of H<sub>2</sub>DCFDA occurs almost exclusively in the cytosol, thereby generating a fluorescent response proportional to ROS generation. After loading the dye, neurons were washed in Locke's buffer and fluorescence was measured at a 488 nm excitation wavelength and an emission wavelength of 510 nm, using a Perkin-Elmer Victor 3 fluorometer.

#### Western-blot analysis

Aliquots of cell homogenate containing 25 µg of protein per sample were analysed by Western blot. Briefly, samples were placed in sample buffer (0.5 M Tris-HCl pH 6.8, 10% glycerol, 2% (w/v) SDS, 5% (v/ v) 2- $\beta$ -mercaptoethanol, 0.05% bromophenol blue) and denatured by boiling at 95-100°C for 5 min. They were then separated by electrophoresis on 10% acrylamide gels and proteins were subsequently transferred to polyvinylidene fluoride sheets (ImmobilonTM-P, Millipore Corp., Bedford, MA) using a transblot apparatus (BioRad). The membranes were blocked overnight with 5% non-fat milk dissolved in TBS-T buffer (Tris 50 mM; NaCl 1.5%; Tween 20, 0.05%, pH 7.5). They were then incubated with primary monoclonal antibodies against ser1981 p-ATM (from R&D Systems), ser139 yH2AX, Sirt1 (from Millipore), Cyclin A (from Abcam), lys379 acetyl-p53, Cyclin D1, ser15 p-p53, tyr701 p-STAT1. ser473 p-AKT, tyr15 p-cdc2, ser780 p-Rb (from Cell Signalling), total ATM, Cyclin B1, Cyclin E, CDK2, total cdc2, CDK4, total p53 and actin (from Santa Cruz Biotechnology). After 4 h or incubation overnight, blots were washed thoroughly in TBS-T buffer and incubated for 1 h with a peroxidase-conjugated IgG antibody (Amersham Corp., Arlington Heights,

IL). Immunoreactive protein was visualized using a chemiluminescence-based detection kit and following the manufacturer's instructions (ECL kit; Amersham Corp.). Digital images were taken with a Chemidoc XRS (Biorad), which allows semi-quantitation of band intensity. The protein load was periodically monitored via immunodetection of actin.

#### Statistical analysis

Data are given as the mean  $\pm$  SEM of at least four experiments involving four-to-six independent cultures. In all experiments, data were analysed by ANOVA followed by post-hoc Tukey–Kramer multiple comparisons tests. *P*-values lower that 0.05 were considered significant.

### Results

# Trolox protects B65 neuroblastoma cells against $H_2O_2$ -induced cytotoxicity

The viability of B65 cells, measured by the MTT method, decreased significantly (p < 0.05) to 35% of the control values after cells were exposed to 500  $\mu$ M H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> for 24 h (Figure 1A). Pre-treatment with trolox (50 nM to 50  $\mu$ M, 6 h), an antioxidant, significantly (p < 0.05) increased cell viability (Figure 1B). Consistent with these results, phase-contrast images showed an increase in the number of B65 cells after pre-treatment with 50  $\mu$ M trolox compared with cells treated with 500  $\mu$ M H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (Figure 1C). With respect to ROS production, exposure of cells to a range of concentrations of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> for 1 h (250–1000  $\mu$ M)



Figure 1. (A) B65 cells were incubated with  $H_2O_2$  (100–1000  $\mu$ M) and cell viability was evaluated by the MTT method after 24 h (% respect to the control cells). (B) Trolox (0.5–50  $\mu$ M) attenuated B65 cell loss mediated by 500  $\mu$ M  $H_2O_2$ . Data are expressed as the mean  $\pm$ SD of four independent experiments; \*p < 0.05 compared with  $H_2O_2$ . (C) Morphological changes of B65 cells exposed to  $H_2O_2$ . Phase contrast microscopic analysis of B65 cells after 24 h of treatment with 500  $\mu$ M  $H_2O_2$  in the presence of trolox. Calibration bar, 10  $\mu$ m. (D) Reactive oxygen species (ROS) production in  $H_2O_2$ -treated B65 cells. ROS accumulation was detected after B65 cells were treated with a range of  $H_2O_2$  concentrations (250–1000  $\mu$ M) for 1 h. ROS production was expressed in arbitrary units. (E) Trolox (500  $\mu$ M) attenuated B65 ROS production mediated by 500  $\mu$ M  $H_2O_2$ . Data are expressed as the means  $\pm$ SEM of four independent experiments. Statistical significance was determined by one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's tests: #p < 0.05; ###p < 0.001 compared with  $H_2O_2$ -treated cells.

caused a significant increase in intracellular oxidative stress generation. Pre-treatment of cells with 50  $\mu$ M trolox reversed this increase significantly (p < 0.001) (Figures 1D and E). H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> increased the number of apoptotic cells and induced changes in the cell cycle phases (Figures 2A and B). In addition, treatment with 50  $\mu$ M trolox inhibited the effect of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> on cell cycle phases and apoptosis (Figure 2C). Our results show that trolox suppresses H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-indued cytotoxicity in B65 cells and provides evidence that ROS are responsible for cell cycle changes and cytotoxicity.

## $H_2O_2$ -induced changes in the regulation of proteins involved in DNA damage

DNA is a target of oxidative stress [25,27]. ATM is a specific enzyme that is activated after double strand breaks [8]. Thus, first we evaluated ATM activation by phosphorylation at ser1981. We detected the immunoreactive band after 30 min of treatment with  $H_2O_2$  (Figure 2). Next we evaluated the

involvement of ATM activation in H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-induced cell damage. Phosphorylated histone H2AX ( $\gamma$ -H2AX) is involved in the recruitment of DNA damage response proteins to DNA DSBs and facilitates DSB repair. H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> increased  $\gamma$ H2AX expression by 312% and by 450% after 30 min and 1 h of treatment, respectively (Figure 3). This increase was also detected up to 6 h of treatment. p53 activation was also measured by ser15-p53 phosphorylation. We calculated the ser15-p53/p53 ratio on the basis of the results of the Western-blot analyses. There was a 330% increase following a 15 min exposure to 500  $\mu$ M of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. At 3 h the increase was ~ 800%.

# $H_2O_2$ -induced changes in the regulation of SIRT1, pSTAT1, p53-lys379 and p-AKT

We also examined other intracellular signals involved in p53 regulation. In this regard, a significant increase in pSTAT1-ptyr701 expression of 60% occurred at



Figure 2. (A) Flow cytometric analysis of cell cycle inhibition by  $H_2O_2$  and after 50  $\mu$ M trolox treatment in representative B65 cells. (B) Evaluation of DNA fragmentation by flow cytometry in B65 cells treated with  $H_2O_2$  (100  $\mu$ M to 1 mM). Statistical significance was determined by one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's tests: \*p < 0.05, \*\*p < 0.01, \*\*\*p < 0.001 vs control.



Figure 3. Immunoblots showing the expression of pATM ser1981, p-H2AX ser139 and p53 ser15 in B65 neuroblastoma cells treated with 500  $\mu$ M H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> for up to 6 h. Band intensities were calculated as percentages of the control values, which were normalized to  $\beta$ -actin and p53. Bars represent means ±SEM of four or five separate experiments with four or five culture preparations (n = 4-5). The statistical analysis was carried out with the one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's test; \*p < 0.05, \*\*p < 0.01, \*\*\*p < 0.001 vs control.

30 min, 100% at 1 hour of 500  $\mu$ M H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> exposures and up to 6 h this increase was maintained (Figure 4). Likewise, pSTAT1-ptyr701 expression increased by 60%; at 1 h the increase was 100%, which was maintained for up to 6 h (Figure 4). Sirtuin 1 is also involved in the process of p53 regulation by means of deacetylation. Western-blot data show a 40% and 30% decrease after exposure to 500  $\mu$ M of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. In contrast the decrease in SIRT1 expression was accompanied by an increase in acetylated p53 for up to 6 h (p53 activation). Our immunoblot analysis showed that the p-AKT-ser473 protein content decreased rapidly by 50% 15 min after H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> exposure and this decrease was maintained for up to 6 h (Figure 4).

# $H_2O_2$ -induced changes in the regulation of cell cycle proteins

 $H_2O_2$ -induced changes in the cell cycle were analysed by flow cytometry (Figures 2B and C). In agreement with our previous data,  $H_2O_2$  induced DNA damage and an accumulation of B65 cells (cell cycle inhibition) in S phase was detected (Figure 5). This S phase cell cycle arrest was also associated with a 50% decrease in cyclin D protein expression at 12 and 24 h of  $H_2O_2$  treatment (Figure 5). However, a slight decrease in cdk4 expression was detected only at 12 h. Moreover, treatment with 500 µM  $H_2O_2$  increased cyclin E expression, which is involved in  $G_0$ - $G_1$  and S cell cycle phase control and cyclin A, which is also involved in the regulation of S phase. In order to explain the increase in these S phase cell cycle proteins, we studied the effects of oxidative stress on the phosphorylation of the main cell cycle regulator of S phase, namely retinoblastoma protein (pRb), specifically in ser780. Thus, treatment of B65 cells with 500  $\mu$ M H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> significantly increased the pRb-ser780 phosphorylation (Figure 5). On the basis of this observation, we hypothesized that DNA damage has a dual effect on B65 cells by arresting cell proliferation in  $G_0/G_1$  and by favouring pRb phosphorylation.

To confirm this hypothesis, we used a specific and selective pharmacological inhibitor of ATM, namely KU-555933. Pre-treatment of B65 cells with 10  $\mu$ M of this inhibitor caused a significant reduction in H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> -induced pRb-ser780 phosphorylation at 3 h (Figure 6A). These data indicate that ATM is directly or indirectly involved in the regulation of pRb phosphorylation. Finally, to demonstrate that ROS are responsible for pRb-ser780 phosphorylation, protein measurements were made in the presence of trolox. The antioxidant also caused a significant decrease in H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-induced pRb-ser780 phosphorylation and also in ATM phosphorylation at 30 min (Figure 6B).



Figure 4. Immunoblots showing the expression of pSTAT1-ptyr701, SIRT1, pAKT ser473, p53acetyl lys379 in B65 neuroblastoma cells treated with 500  $\mu$ M H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> for up to 6 h. Band intensities were calculated as percentages of the control values, which were normalized to  $\beta$ -actin. Bars represent means ±SEM of four or five separate experiments with four or five culture preparations (*n* =4–5). The statistical analysis was carried out with the one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's test; \**p* <0.05, \*\**p* <0.01, \*\*\**p* <0.001 vs control.

#### Discussion

Oxidative stress is one of the stimuli that contribute to the pathogenesis of neuronal degeneration in neurodegenerative diseases, such as Alzheimer's disease and Parkinson's disease [1-6]. Therefore, a complete understanding of how oxidative stress affects intracellular targets and initiates cell damage is crucial for the design of future therapeutic strategies aimed to prevent or delay these neurodegenerative diseases. Here we focused on the process of DNA damage as first target involved in p53 regulation and addressed how this damage affects cell cycle regulation. The mechanisms by which oxidative stress activate the intracellular DNA damage cascade are not fully understood. Here we first addressed the effect of trolox on cellular apoptosis and cell viability. Treatment of cells with this compound significantly decreased apoptosis and increased the viability of B65 cells challenged with H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. Once we had demonstrated that oxidative stress is mainly responsible for the loss of cell viability, we next performed experiments to demonstrate the activation of enzymes involved in the DNA damage cascade. Western-blot data showed that  $H_2O_2$  caused rapid DNA DBSs, as measured by ATM activation. ATM activation increased the phosphorylation of typical ATM substrates, such as histone H2AX on ser139, which is a sensitive reporter of DNA damage, and p53 on ser15, which is a marker of p53 activation [11,24,25,27,28]. Interestingly, DNA damage is also involved in the pathogenesis of neurodegenerative diseases such as AD [29]. Furthermore, to address the intracellular signalling pathways that contributed to p53 activation by oxidative stress, we studied additional pathways such as STAT1, SIRT1 and AKT.

STAT1 is required for DNA damage-induced apoptosis through its direct interaction with p53 [30–33]. Thus, STAT1 enhances p53 activity. Our data indicate that cell exposure to oxidative stress caused a rapid increase in STAT1 expression, thereby suggesting that this pathway also contributes to the regulation of p53. Regarding SIRT1 expression, it has been suggested that this protein has a protective effect against DNA damage by enhancing DNA repair capacity and preventing tumourigenesis [12,13]. SIRT1 is also involved in the regulation of p53, since



Figure 5. Immunoblots showing the expression of cell cycle proteins in B65 cells treated with 500  $\mu$ M H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> for 12–24 h: Cdk4, Cdk2, Cyclin D1, Cyclin E, Cyclin A, Cdc2 tyr15, Cdc2, Cyclin B1and pRb ser780. Band intensities were calculated as percentages of the control values, which were normalized to  $\beta$ -actin. Bars represent means ±SEM of four or five separate experiments with four or five culture preparations (n =4–5). Statistical significance was determined by one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's tests: \*p <0.05, \*\*p <0.01, \*\*\*p < 0.001 vs control.

it binds to and deacetylates p53 on lys382, thereby negatively regulating p53-mediated transcriptional activation. Our data indicate a rapid (30 min) decrease in SIRT1 expression after oxidative stress. In parallel to the decrease in SIRT1 expression, the levels of p53 acetylated on lys382 were significantly increased. Collectively, all these results indicate that SIRT1 is also involved in p53 regulation after cell exposure to oxidative stress. Finally, the AKT pathway has a pro-survival effect, which is achieved through the inhibition of pro-death signals such as GSK-3 $\beta$  activation, nuclear FOXO localization and inhibition of BAD [34,35]. Moreover, AKT is involved in the regulation of p53-mediated apoptosis, specifically through Mdm2 (murine double minute 2). Therefore, 15-30 min of oxidative stress treatment induced a rapid loss of AKT phosphorylation. On the basis of this observation, we conclude that this pro-survival pathway is also down-regulated and also contributes to p53 regulation in B65 cells. Finally, concerning oxidative stress-induced regulation of p53, given that multiple proteins are rapidly activated or inhibited, it was not possible to identify the main signal involved in p53 activation. Likewise, cross-talk occurs between pathways and in this context we have demonstrated that STAT-1 modulates the phosphorvlation of ATM and that SIRT1 is activated by DNA damage. Since, trolox restored the cellular cell cycle phases after H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> treatment and apoptosis, this finding supports the notion that all changes in cell cycle protein signals are mediated by oxidative stress. Another relevant finding of the present study is that  $H_2O_2$  exerts a dual effect on the cell cycle, by arresting the cells in  $G_0/G_1$  and also by favouring DNA synthesis, as determined mainly by a significant increase in cyclin A expression [36-38]. In addition, we addressed the potential mechanism involved in the increase in S phase proteins. For this purpose, we measured the phosphorylation status of pRb. This protein is a crucial component in the regulation of cell growth and proliferation. Under most cellular conditions, pRb controls cell cycle entry by sequestering the E2F family of transcription factors. Cyclin D/cdk4/6 and cyclin E/cdk2 are responsible for



Figure 6. (A) Immunoblots showing the time course expression of pRbser780 in B65 cells treated with 500  $\mu$ M H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> for 3 h. Expression of pRb ser780 was attenuated by treatment with KU55993 (10  $\mu$ M). (B) Immunoblots showing the expression of pATM ser1981 and pRb ser780 in B65 neuroblastoma cells treated with 500  $\mu$ M H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and in the presence of 50  $\mu$ M trolox at 30 min and 3 h, respectively. Bars represent means ±SEM of four or five separate experiments with four or five culture preparations (n =4–5). Band intensities were calculated as percentages of the control values, which were normalized to  $\beta$ -actin. Bars represent means ±SEM of four or five separate experiments with four or five culture preparations (n =4–5). Statistical significance was determined by one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's tests: \*p < 0.05, \*\*p <0.01 and \*\*\*p <0.001 vs control. #p <0.05 vs H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>.

phosphorylating pRb ser780. However, our results indicate that pRb ser780 is not phosphorylated for these proteins since the expression of cyclin D and cdk4 decreased significantly after treatment with  $H_2O_2$ . Recently, Inoue et al. [39] demonstrated that, after DNA damage, ATM participates in pRb ser780 phosphorylation. This finding thus supports the hypothesis that other kinases that are not related to typical CDK are involved in pRb phosphorylation [39-41]. Moreover, pRb phosphorylation plays a crucial role in AD and PD, giving support to the concept of neuronal cell cycle re-entry in these neurodegenerative disorders [42]. Thus, we hypothesized that ATM is involved in pRb ser780 phosphorylation. To demonstrate this, a pharmacological approach was used with KU-55993, a selective ATM inhibitor. This treatment led to a significant attenuation in pRb phosphorylation. Accordingly, we propose that ATM participates in the regulation of pRb phosphorylation after H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> treatment in B65 cells.

We conclude that DNA damage caused by oxidative stress in B65 neuroblastoma cells induces the activation of ATM, thus initiating a DNA response. Moreover, in addition to activating p53, ATM regulates the cell cycle through pRb phosphorylation. Given that trolox inhibits pRb phosphorylation and ATM activation, we propose, in agreement with previous studies, that oxidative stress acts as a switch by mediating the connection between DNA damage cell cycle and apoptosis [43–49].

#### Acknowledgements

This study was supported by grants from Spain's 'Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia' SAF2006-13092 (MP), SAF2008-05143-C03-1 (J.J.) the 'Fondo de Investigación Sanitaria', 'Instituto de Salud Carlos III' (PI080400). We thank the 'Generalitat de Catalunya' for supporting the research groups (2005/SGR00893) and the 'Fundació la Marató TV3' (063230). Ester Verdaguer holds a 'Beatriu de Pinós' postdoctoral contract, awarded by the 'Generalitat de Catalunya'. We thank the Language Assessment Service of the University of Barcelona for revising the manuscript.

**Declaration of interest:** The authors report no conflicts of interest. The authors alone are responsible for the content and writing of the paper.

#### References

- Toyokuni S, Akatsuka S. Pathological investigation of oxidative stress in the post-genomic era. Pathol Int 2007;57:461– 473.
- [2] Halliwell B. Oxidative stress and cancer: have we moved forward? Biochem J 2007;401:1–11.
- [3] Halliwell B. The wanderings of a free radical. Free Radic Biol Med 2009;46:531–542.
- [4] Droge W. Free radicals in the physiological control of cell function. Physiol Rev 2002;82:47–95.
- [5] Thannickal VJ, Fanburg BL. Reactive oxygen species in cell signalling. Am J Physiol Lung Cell Mol Physiol 2000;279:L1005–L1028.
- [6] Lee Y, McKinnon PJ. ATM dependent apoptosis in the nervous system. Apoptosis 2000;5:523–529.
- [7] O'Connor PM. Mammalian G1 and G2 phase checkpoints. Cancer Surv 1997;29:151–182.
- [8] Khanna KK, Lavin MF, Jackson SP, Mulhern TD. ATM, a central controller of cellular responses to DNA damage. Cell Death Differ 2001;8:1052–1065.
- [9] Kurz EU, Douglas P, Lees-Miller SP. DNA damage-induced activation of ATM and ATM-dependent signaling pathways. DNA Repair 2004;3:889–900.
- [10] Savitsky K, Bar-Shira A, Gilad S, Rotman G, Ziv Y, Vanagaite L, Tagle DA, Smith S, Uziel T, Sfez S, Ashkenazi M, Pecker I, Frydman M, Harnik R, Patanjali SR, Simmons A, Clines GA, Sartiel A, Gatti RA, Chessa L, Sanal O, Lavin MF, Jaspers NG, Taylor AM, Arlett CF, Miki T, Weissman SM, Lovett M, Collins FS, Shiloh Y. A single ataxia telangiectasia gene with a product similar to PI-3 kinase. Science 1995;268:1749–1753.
- [11] Rotman G, Shiloh Y. Ataxia-telangiectasia: is ATM a sensor of oxidative damage and stress? Bioessays 1997;19:911–917.
- [12] Pallàs M, Casadesús G, Smith MA, Coto-Montes A, Pelegri C, Vilaplana J, Camins A. Resveratrol and neurodegenerative diseases: activation of SIRT1 as the potential pathway towards neuroprotection. Curr Neurovasc Res 2009;6:70–81.
- [13] Pallàs M, Verdaguer E, Tajes M, Gutierrez-Cuesta J, Camins A. Modulation of sirtuins: new targets for antiageing. Recent Pat CNS Drug Discov 2008;3:61–69.
- [14] Kastan MB, Bartek J. Cell-cycle checkpoints and cancer. Nature 2004;432:316–323.
- [15] Liu B, Chen Y, St Clair DK. ROS and p53: a versatile partnership. Free Radic Biol Med 2008;44:1529–1535.
- [16] Zhang P, Dilley C, Mattson MP. DNA damage responses in neural cells: focus on the telomere. Neuroscience 2007;145:1439–1448.
- [17] Culmsee C, Mattson MP. p53 in neuronal apoptosis. Biochem Biophys Res Commun 2005;331:761–777.
- [18] Herzog KH, Chong MJ, Kapsetaki M, Morgan JI, McKinnon PJ. Requirement for Atm in ionizing radiation-induced cell death in the developing central nervous system. Science 1998;280:1089–1091.
- [19] Otsuka Y, Tanaka T, Uchida D, Noguchi Y, Saeki N, Saito Y, Tatsuno I. Roles of cyclin-dependent kinase 4 and p53 in neuronal cell death induced by doxorubicin on cerebellar granule neurons in mouse. Neurosci Lett 2004;365:180–185.
- [20] Nair VD. Activation of p53 signaling initiates apoptotic death in a cellular model of Parkinson's disease. Apoptosis 2006;11:955–966.
- [21] Gilman CP, Chan SL, Guo Z, Zhu X, Greig N, Mattson MP. p53 is present in synapses where it mediates mitochondrial dysfunction and synaptic degeneration in response to DNA damage, and oxidative and excitotoxic insults. Neuromol Med 2003;3:159–172.
- [22] Wyttenbach A, Tolkovsky AM. The BH3-only protein Puma is both necessary and sufficient for neuronal apoptosis induced by DNA damage in sympathetic neurons. J Neurochem 2006;96:1213–1226.

- [23] Aleyasin H, Cregan SP, Iyirhiaro G, O'Hare MJ, Callaghan SM, Slack RS, Park DS. Nuclear factor-(kappa)B modulates the p53 response in neurons exposed to DNA damage. J Neurosci 2004;24:2963–2973.
- [24] Keramaris E, Hirao A, Slack RS, Mak TW, Park DS. Ataxia telangiectasia-mutated protein can regulate p53 and neuronal death independent of Chk2 in response to DNA damage. J Biol Chem 2003;278:37782–37789.
- [25] Gomez-Lazaro M, Galindo MF, Fernandez-Gomez FJ, Prehn JH, Jordán J. Activation of p53 and the pro-apoptotic p53 target gene PUMA during depolarization-induced apoptosis of chromaffin cells. Exp Neurol 2005;196:96–103.
- [26] Hickson I, Zhao Y, Richardson CJ, Green SJ, Martin NM, Orr AI, Reaper PM, Jackson SP, Curtin NJ, Smith GC. Identification and characterization of a novel and specific inhibitor of the ataxia-telangiectasia mutated kinase ATM. Cancer Res 2004;64:9152–9159.
- [27] Kuo LJ, Yang LX. Gamma-H2AX—a novel biomarker for DNA double-strand breaks. In Vivo 2008;22:305–309.
- [28] Crescenzi E, Palumbo G, de Boer J, Brady HJ. Ataxia telangiectasia mutated and p21CIP1 modulate cell survival of drug-induced senescent tumor cells: implications for chemotherapy. Clin Cancer Res 2008;14:1877–1887.
- [29] Myung NH, Zhu X, Kruman II, Castellani RJ, Petersen RB, Siedlak SL, Perry G, Smith MA, Lee HG. Evidence of DNA damage in Alzheimer disease: phosphorylation of histone H2AX in astrocytes. Age 2008;30:209–215.
- [30] Kim HS, Lee MS. STAT1 as a key modulator of cell death. Cell Signal 2007;19:454–465.
- [31] Klampfer L. Signal transducers and activators of transcription (STATs): novel targets of chemopreventive and chemotherapeutic drugs. Curr Cancer Drug Targets 2006;6:107–121.
- [32] Stephanou A. Role of STAT-1 and STAT-3 in ischaemia/ reperfusion injury. J Cell Mol Med 2004;8:519–525.
- [33] Townsend PA, Cragg MS, Davidson SM, McCormick J, Barry S, Lawrence KM, Knight RA, Hubank M, Chen PL, Latchman DS, Stephanou A. STAT-1 facilitates the ATM activated checkpoint pathway following DNA damage. J Cell Sci 2005;118:1629–1639.
- [34] Song G, Ouyang G, Bao S. The activation of Akt/PKB signaling pathway and cell survival. J Cell Mol Med 2005;9:59–71.
- [35] Ushio-Fukai M, Alexander RW, Akers M, Yin Q, Fujio Y, Walsh K. Reactive oxygen species mediate the activation of Akt/protein kinase B by angiotensin II in vascular smooth muscle cells. J Biol Chem 1999;274:22699–22704.
- [36] Menon SG, Goswami PC. A redox cycle within the cell cycle: ring in the old with the new. Oncogene 2007;26:1101–1109.
- [37] Baus F, Gire V, Fisher D, Piette J, Dulić V. Permanent cell cycle exit in G2 phase after DNA damage in normal human fibroblasts. EMBO J 2003;22:3992–4002.
- [38] Bubici C, Papa S, Dean K, Franzoso G. Mutual cross-talk between reactive oxygen species and nuclear factor-kappa B: molecular basis and biological significance. Oncogene 2006;25:6731–6748.
- [39] Inoue Y, Kitagawa M, Taya Y. Phosphorylation of pRB at Ser612 by Chk1/2 leads to a complex between pRB and E2F-1 after DNA damage. EMBO J 2007;26:2083–2093.
- [40] Hamdane M, Buée L. The complex p25/Cdk5 kinase in neurofibrillary degeneration and neuronal death: the missing link to cell cycle. Biotechnol J 2007;2:967–977.
- [41] Camins A, Verdaguer E, Folch J, Canudas AM, Pallàs M. The role of CDK5/P25 formation/inhibition in neurodegeneration. Drug News Perspect 2006;19:453–460.
- [42] Thakur A, Siedlak SL, James SL, Bonda DJ, Rao A, Webber KM, Camins A, Pallàs M, Casadesus G, Lee HG, Bowser R, Raina AK, Perry G, Smith MA, Zhu X. Retinoblastoma protein phosphorylation at multiple sites is associated with

neurofibrillary pathology in Alzheimer disease. Int J Clin Exp Pathol 2008;1:134–146.

- [43] Zhu X, Lee HG, Perry G, Smith MA. Alzheimer disease, the two-hit hypothesis: an update. Biochim Biophys Acta 2007;1772:494–502.
- [44] Zhu X, Raina AK, Perry G, Smith MA. Alzheimer's disease: the two-hypotheses. Lancet Neurol 2004;3:219–226.
- [45] Barlow C, Dennery PA, Shigenaga MK, Smith MA, Morrow JD, Roberts LJ 2nd, Wynshaw-Boris A, Levine RL. Loss of the ataxia-telangiectasia gene product causes oxidative damage in target organs. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 1999;96: 9915–9919.

This paper was first published online on iFirst on 5 August 2009.

- [46] Lavin MF, Shiloh Y. Ataxia-telangiectasia: a multifaceted genetic disorder associated with defective signal transduction. Curr Opin Immunol 1996;8:459–464.
- [47] Tian B, Yang Q, Mao Z. Phosphorylation of ATM by Cdk5 mediates DNA damage signalling and regulates neuronal death. Nat Cell Biol 2009;11:211–218.
- [48] Roos WP, Kaina B. DNA damage-induced cell death by apoptosis. Trends Mol Med 2006;12:440–450.
- [49] Seoane M, Iglesias P, Gonzalez T, Dominguez F, Fraga M, Aliste C, Forteza J, Costoya JA. Retinoblastoma loss modulates DNA damage response favouring tumor progression. PLoS ONE 2008;3:e3632.