

The neuroprotective effect of nicotine in Parkinson's disease models is associated with inhibiting PARP-1 and caspase-3 cleavage

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Clinical evidence points to neuroprotective effects of smoking in Parkinson's disease (PD), but the molecular mechanisms remain unclear. We investigated the pharmacological pathways involved in these neuroprotective effects, which could provide novel ideas for developing targeted neuroprotective treatments for PD. We used the ETC complex I inhibitor methylpyridinium ion (MPP⁺) to induce cell death in SH-SY5Y cells as a cellular model for PD and found that nicotine inhibits cell death. Using choline as a nicotinic acetylcholine receptor (nAChR) agonist, we found that nAChR stimulation was sufficient to protect SH-SY5Y cells against cell death from MPP⁺. Blocking $\alpha 7$ nAChR with methyllycaconitine (MLA) prevented the protective effects of nicotine, demonstrating that these receptors are necessary for the neuroprotective effects of nicotine. The neuroprotective effect of nicotine involves other pathways relevant to PD. Cleaved Poly (ADP-ribose) polymerase-1 (PARP-1) and cleaved caspase-3 were decreased by nicotine in 6-hydroxydopamine (6-OHDA) lesioned mice and in MPP⁺-treated SH-SY5Y cells. In conclusion, our data indicate that nicotine likely exerts neuroprotective effects in PD through the $\alpha 7$ nAChR and downstream pathways including PARP-1 and caspase-3. This knowledge could be pursued in future research to develop neuroprotective treatments for PD.

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26 Abstract

27 Clinical evidence points to neuroprotective effects of smoking in Parkinson's disease (PD), but
28 the molecular mechanisms remain unclear. We investigated the pharmacological pathways
29 involved in these neuroprotective effects, which could provide novel ideas for developing
30 targeted neuroprotective treatments for PD. We used the ETC complex I inhibitor
31 methylpyridinium ion (MPP⁺) to induce cell death in SH-SY5Y cells as a cellular model for PD
32 and found that nicotine inhibits cell death. Using choline as a nicotinic acetylcholine receptor
33 (nAChR) agonist, we found that nAChR stimulation was sufficient to protect SH-SY5Y cells
34 against cell death from MPP⁺. Blocking $\alpha 7$ nAChR with methyllycaconitine (MLA) prevented
35 the protective effects of nicotine, demonstrating that these receptors are necessary for the
36 neuroprotective effects of nicotine. The neuroprotective effect of nicotine involves other
37 pathways relevant to PD. Cleaved Poly (ADP-ribose) polymerase-1 (PARP-1) and cleaved
38 caspase-3 were decreased by nicotine in 6-hydroxydopamine (6-OHDA) lesioned mice and in
39 MPP⁺-treated SH-SY5Y cells. In conclusion, our data indicate that nicotine likely exerts
40 neuroprotective effects in PD through the $\alpha 7$ nAChR and downstream pathways including
41 PARP-1 and caspase-3. This knowledge could be pursued in future research to develop
42 neuroprotective treatments for PD.

43

44 **Introduction**

45 Parkinson's disease (PD) is a neurodegenerative disorder affecting the nigrostriatal
46 dopamine tract that regulates the initiation and fluency of voluntary movement. Patients present
47 with a characteristic set of neurological symptoms that include tremor, muscle rigidity,
48 bradykinesia, stooped posture, shuffling gait and a lack of facial expression (Magrinelli et al.
49 2016). In the advanced stages, patients may also develop a subcortical dementia and a variety of
50 neuropsychiatric symptoms (Sveinbjornsdottir 2016). Symptoms can be alleviated temporarily
51 with L-dopa and carbidopa but this does not alter the progression of the illness or the death of
52 nigrostriatal neurons (Connolly & Lang 2014).

53 Although smoking cigarettes has well documented adverse health effects including lung
54 cancer, and cardiovascular disease, smokers are less likely to develop PD (Ascherio &
55 Schwarzschild 2016; Baron 1996; Breckenridge et al. 2016; Hernan et al. 2002; Polito et al.
56 2016; Ritz et al. 2007). This is also true for passive exposure to second-hand smoke (Searles
57 Nielsen et al. 2012) or chewing tobacco (O'Reilly et al. 2005), and appears to be dose-dependent
58 (Thacker et al. 2007). The mechanisms underlying the potential neuroprotective effects of
59 tobacco exposure remain unclear, but hypotheses include: (1) interactions between the dopamine
60 and acetylcholine neurotransmitter systems, (2) reduction of oxidative stress, (3) modulation of
61 neuroinflammation, and (4) non-specific cognitive enhancing effects (Barreto et al. 2014).
62 Although nicotine is the most well-known component of tobacco, cotinine and other metabolites
63 may also play a role (Barreto et al. 2014).

64 Animal studies have provided useful insights into potential mechanisms for the protective
65 effects of tobacco in PD. Lesioning cholinergic neurons in the pedunculopontine nucleus resulted
66 in loss of substantia nigra dopaminergic neurons (Bensaid et al. 2016), showing that

67 physiological levels of acetylcholine are required for survival of nigrostriatal dopaminergic
68 neurons. In rats with 6-hydroxydopamine (6-OHDA) lesions of the medial forebrain bundle,
69 nicotine or the $\alpha 7$ nAChR agonist ABT-107 improved neurological functioning in conjunction
70 with restoring dopamine transporter levels and dopamine release (Bordia et al. 2015). Treatment
71 with a different $\alpha 7$ nAChR agonist 3-[(2,4-dimethoxy)benzylidene]-anabaseine dihydrochloride
72 (DMXBA) or nicotine also protects dopamine neurons in rats injected with 6-OHDA (Costa et
73 al. 2001; Suzuki et al. 2013). Blocking nAChR with chlorisondamine prevents the protective
74 effects of nicotine *in vivo*. Another common animal model for PD relies on 1-methyl-4-phenyl-
75 1,2,3,6-tetrahydropyridine (MPTP) that is toxic to nigrostriatal dopamine neurons. Both cigarette
76 smoke and nicotine increased the survival of these neurons in MPTP mice (Parain et al. 2003).
77 Similar results have been reported in non-human primates exposed to MPTP (Quik et al. 2006),
78 and in mice models of PD using methamphetamine to induce dopamine neuron toxicity (Maggio
79 et al. 1997). Nicotine increases the levels of fibroblast growth factor-2 (FGF-2) and the brain-
80 derived neurotrophic factor in rat striatum in these models, which could be one mechanism for
81 neuroprotection (Mudo et al. 2007).

82 Cellular model systems have also been used to investigate specific pathways through
83 which nicotine and other tobacco constituents could protect neurons in PD. Using cultured
84 mouse ventral midbrain neurons that included dopaminergic neurons, one group used
85 tunicamycin as an endoplasmic reticulum stressor and found that nicotine, at levels comparable
86 to those achieved through smoking cigarettes, attenuated the unfolded protein response
87 (Srinivasan et al. 2016). There is also evidence that dopamine release can be regulated by
88 presynaptic nAChR in rat brain slices (Giorguieff-Chesselet et al. 1979), and mouse striatal
89 synaptosomes (Grady et al. 1992; Rapier et al. 1990).

90 Poly (ADP-ribose) polymerase-1 (PARP-1) and caspase have both been implicated in the
91 pathophysiology or etiology of PD. PARP-1 is a DNA-damage sensor that is activated in some
92 PD models such as the MPTP mouse (Wang et al. 2003), and inhibiting PARP-1 reduced
93 dopamine neuron death from MPTP (Iwashita et al. 2004), alpha synuclein and MPP+ (Outeiro
94 et al. 2007). PARP-1 also mediates dopamine neuron degeneration in the 6-OHDA mouse PD
95 model (Kim et al. 2013). Mutations in PARP-1 protect against mitochondrial dysfunction and
96 neurodegeneration in mouse models of PD with mutations in the Parkin gene (Lehmann et al.
97 2016), and in human clinical populations (Infante et al. 2007).

98 Caspase-3 has been implicated in cleavage of a proapoptotic kinase protein kinase C delta
99 (PKCdelta) that mediates neuron death in both MPP+ and 6-OHDA cellular PD models (da
100 Costa et al. 2003; Kanthasamy et al. 2006; Shimoke & Chiba 2001). There is also evidence that
101 caspase-1 activation is the final step in apoptotic cell death in PD (Hartmann et al. 2000; Tatton
102 2000). Acteoside binding to caspase-3 is neuroprotective in the rotenone rat PD model (Yuan et
103 al. 2016), and caspase-3 activation has been observed to be important in a number of pathways
104 related to PD (Shukla et al. 2014; Zawada et al. 2015). Genetic disruption of caspase-3 is also
105 protective against the effects of MPTP (Yamada et al. 2010). To our knowledge, there have not
106 been attempts to investigate whether the neuroprotective effects of nicotine involve PARP-1 or
107 caspase.

108 In summary, there is evidence that nicotinic cholinergic drugs may delay progression of
109 PD (Perez 2015), and thus, $\alpha 7$ nAChR have been proposed as a target for new medications to
110 treat PD (Quik et al. 2015). However, since the mechanisms underlying the neuroprotective
111 effects remain unclear, we sought to further investigate the role of the $\alpha 7$ nicotinic acetylcholine
112 receptor ($\alpha 7$ nAChR) in mediating the protective effects of nicotine in PD. We used the ETC

113 complex I inhibitor methylpyridinium ion (MPP⁺) to induce cell death in SH-SY5Y cells as a
114 cellular model for PD and used 6-hydroxydopamine (6-OHDA) lesions as a mouse model for
115 PD. We investigated the potential involvement of PD-related molecules PARP-1 and caspase in
116 both of these model systems.

117

118 **Materials and Methods**

119 **Cell culture and treatment**

120 SH-SY5Y cells are derived from a human neuroblastoma and are often used as a cellular model
121 for PD because they express tyrosine hydroxylase, dopamine-beta-hydroxylase, and the dopamine
122 transporter.(Xie et al. 2010) SH-SY5Y cells (American Type Culture Collection (ATCC),
123 Manassas, VA) were maintained as a monolayer in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium
124 (DMEM) (Gibco, ON, Canada) with 10% fetal bovine serum (Gibco, ON, Canada), 100 U/ml
125 penicillin (Sigma-Aldrich, Oakville, ON, Canada), and 100 U/ml streptomycin (Sigma-Aldrich,
126 Oakville, ON, Canada). Cells were cultured in a humidified atmosphere of 5% CO₂, at 37°C. All
127 cells were cultured in 100-mm (diameter) cell culture plates (BD Biosciences, ON, Canada) until
128 ~80% confluence and then seeded into 24-well plates (BD Bioscience, ON, Canada) to achieve
129 ~90% confluence 24-28 hours prior to treatment. The medium was replaced by DMEM without
130 fetal bovine serum 12 hours before treatments.

131 **Drugs**

132 MPP⁺ (methylpyridinium ion) was purchased as MPP⁺ iodide from Sigma-Aldrich, dissolved in
133 water to a stock concentration of 500 mM, and wrapped with foil to protect from light. Choline,
134 nicotine and methyllycaconitine (MLA) were purchased from Tocris Bioscience. Nicotine was
135 used at a concentration of 2 mM for *in vitro* experiments based on previous reports (Ke et al.
136 1998; Wang et al. 2011). We used MLA at a concentration of 20 μM based on a previous report
137 that MLA at 5 μM and 10 μM could alleviate amyloid-β peptide-induced cytotoxicity in SH-
138 SY5Y cells, without affecting cell viability (Zheng et al. 2014). At 20 μM, MLA could
139 theoretically interact with α4β2 and α6β2 receptors, but no α4 and α6 receptor subunit mRNA

140 was detected in SH-SY5Y cells (Gould et al. 1992; Lukas et al. 1993). The $\alpha 7$ acetylcholine
141 receptor subunit has good expression levels in SH-SY5Y cells (Peng et al. 1994).

142 **Propidium iodide (PI) and Hoechst33342 staining**

143 Cultured SH-SY5Y cells were gently rinsed with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) (pre-warmed
144 in 37°C) twice, incubated with 50 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ PI (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) or double labeling of
145 Hoechst 33342 (20 $\mu\text{g/ml}$) (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) and PI for 30 min, and then rinsed three
146 times with PBS. Fluorescent intensity was measured by a plate reader (Victor 3; Pekin-Elmer,
147 Waltham, MA). The level of cell death was defined as the ration of PI: Hoechst 33342. The
148 fraction of dead cells was normalized to the cell toxicity that occurred in the control group.

149 **Protein extraction**

150 Striatal tissues were dissected from mice in 6-OHDA exposure models. Striata were
151 homogenized in ice cold buffer containing (in mmol/L): 50 Tris-Cl, pH 7.4, 150 NaCl, 2 EDTA,
152 1 PMSF plus 1% Igepal CA-630, 0.5–1% sodium deoxycholate, 1% Triton X-100 and protease
153 inhibitor mixture (5 $\mu\text{L}/100$ mg of tissue; Sigma-Aldrich, Okaville, ON, Canada) on ice and
154 shaken at 4°C for 1 hour. Striatal tissues dissolved in the lysis buffer was centrifuged at 12,000 g
155 for 10 minutes at 4°C to yield the total protein extract in the supernatant. The concentration of
156 protein was measured with the BCA protein assay kit (Pierce Protein Biology, ON, Canada).
157 Equal amounts of samples (50~100 μg) were denatured and subjected to 10% SDS-PAGE and
158 Western blot analyses.

159 **Gel electrophoresis and Western blot analyses**

160 Samples were separated using SDS-PAGE with 10% separating gel and 5% stacking gel, and
161 transferred to a nitrocellulose membrane after gel electrophoresis. After blocking for 1 hour with
162 5% fat-free milk powder in TBST (10 mM Tris, 150 mM NaCl, 0.05% Tween-20, pH7.4), blots

163 were incubated overnight at 4°C with primary antibodies: 1:200 anti-PARP-1 (Santa Cruz
164 Biotechnology, Dallas, Texas), 1:10,000 anti- α -Tubulin (Sigma-Aldrich) and 1:200 anti-caspase-
165 3 (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Dallas, Texas). After washes, blots were incubated with HRP-
166 conjugated secondary antibodies (Sigma-Aldrich, Okaville, ON, Canada) for 2 hours at room
167 temperature. Immunoactivity was visualized with ECL Western blot detection reagents (GE
168 Healthcare). Data representative of three experimental replicates are shown.

169 **Unilateral 6-OHDA lesions and nicotine administration**

170 The animal studies were approved by the University Animal Care Committee (UACC) at the
171 University of Toronto in accordance with the Canadian Council on Animal Care (CCAC)
172 guidelines (IRB approval number 20010879). Surgeries were performed as previously described
173 (Thiele et al. 2011; Thiele et al. 2012). In brief, 30 minutes prior to surgery, a mixture of
174 desipramine hydrochloride (25 mg/kg, Sigma Aldrich) and pargyline hydrochloride (5 mg/kg,
175 Sigma Aldrich) in 0.9% sterile saline (pH 7.4) was systemically administered intra-peritoneally
176 (i.p.). C57Bl/6J mice (P35, 24-28 g) were anaesthetised (isoflurane (Abbott), 2-3%) and placed
177 in a stereotaxic frame (David Kopf Instruments, USA). 6-hydroxydopamine (6-OHDA) (15
178 $\mu\text{g}/\mu\text{l}$, 0.02% ascorbic acid, w/v in 0.9% saline) or vehicle was unilaterally injected into the
179 medial forebrain bundle (MFB) at a rate of 0.1 $\mu\text{l}/\text{min}$ (total delivery of 3 μg total, as a 0.2 μl
180 bolus) at the following coordinates: AP: -1.2 mm, ML: -1.1 mm, and DV: -5.0 mm (Franklin
181 K.B.J. 2007). This protocol results in a >95% dopamine depletion of the SNc (Thiele et al.
182 2011; Thiele et al. 2012).

183 Seven days prior to 6-OHDA lesion surgeries, animals were given nicotine or saline
184 control by subcutaneous injection (s.c.) (MP Biomedicals, LLC) twice daily for two weeks. For
185 the first 3 days animals received a dose of 0.4 mg/kg, which was then increased to 0.8 mg/kg for

186 four days prior to surgery. This dose was continued for one week post-surgery until subjects were
187 sacrificed for tissue collection.

188

189 **Statistical analysis**

190 Levene's homogeneity test or F test was used to compare the variances between groups. For
191 equal variances, data were analyzed either by t-test, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA)
192 followed by Tukey's test, or two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by Bonferroni or
193 Tukey's post-tests (SPSS Statistics, I.B.M Corporation, USA). For groups with unequal variance,
194 data were analyzed either with a t-test with Welch's correction, a one-way analysis of variance
195 (ANOVA), or two-way ANOVA, followed by Dunnett's *post hoc* test. Data are expressed as
196 mean \pm standard error of mean (SEM). The significance levels of $p < 0.05$, $p < 0.01$, or $p < 0.001$
197 were used for all analyses.

198

199 **Results**

200 **Nicotine inhibits MPP⁺-induced SH-SY5Y cell death.**

201 Tobacco exposure is associated with decreased risk for PD(O'Reilly et al. 2005; Ritz et
202 al. 2007; Searles Nielsen et al. 2012) and nicotine is the most prominent psychoactive component
203 of tobacco. Thus, we first investigated if nicotine could protect against cell death in a cellular
204 model of PD: MPP⁺-induced SH-SY5Y cell death. As shown in Figure 1A, using propidium
205 iodide (PI) staining, MPP⁺ treatment (500 μ M, 24 hours) induced more SH-SY5Y cell death
206 compared to control cells (control: 1.00 ± 0.099 ; MPP⁺: 1.40 ± 0.086). Pre-treatment with nicotine
207 (2 mM, 30 min) prior to MPP⁺ treatment, decreased the level of cell death, as compared cells
208 treated with MPP⁺ alone (MPP⁺: 1.40 ± 0.086 ; MPP⁺ with nicotine: 0.88 ± 0.068 ; figure 1B).
209 These data show that nicotine can inhibit MPP⁺-induced SH-SY5Y cell death.

210 **nAChR is involved in the protective effect of nicotine**

211 To determine whether the protective effects of nicotine are mediated by activation of the
212 nAChR, we investigated if activation of nAChR without using nicotine, inhibits MPP⁺-induced
213 SH-SY5Y cell death. Nicotine is an nAChR agonist and previous studies have shown that other
214 nAChR agonists can protect against nigrostriatal dopamine neuron damage in PD animal models
215 (Dajas et al. 2001; Janson et al. 1988; Maggio et al. 1998; Mudo et al. 2007). As shown in Figure
216 2, choline (1 mM, 30 min), a nAChR specific agonist, decreased the level of cell death, when
217 administered prior to MPP⁺ treatment (Control: 1.00 ± 0.099 ; Choline: 0.98 ± 0.10 ; MPP⁺:
218 1.40 ± 0.086 ; MPP⁺ with choline: 0.81 ± 0.12). These results indicate that activation of nAChR
219 prevents SH-SY5Y cells from MPP⁺-induced cell death and suggest that nAChR activation is
220 sufficient to protect SH-SY5Y cells against MPP⁺-induced death.

221 **$\alpha 7$ nAChR mediates the protective effect of nicotine against MPP⁺-induced SH-SY5Y cell**
222 **death**

223 We hypothesized that the $\alpha 7$ nAChR could be the receptor through which nicotine has
224 neuroprotective effects in PD. Activation of the $\alpha 7$ nAChR has protective effects in other
225 neurodegenerative disorders, and in Alzheimer's disease models (Fan et al. 2015; Hu et al. 2015;
226 Shen & Wu 2015). To confirm if $\alpha 7$ nAChR mediates the effect of nicotine to protect against
227 MPP⁺-induced cell death, we pre-treated SH-SY5Y cells with methyllycaconitine (MLA) (20
228 μ M, 30 min), a $\alpha 7$ nAChR specific antagonist, followed by MPP⁺ as above and either nicotine (2
229 mM, 30 min) or choline (1 mM, 30 min).. As shown in Figure 3A, MLA treatment increased the
230 level of cell death when administered prior to nicotine and MPP⁺ treatments, as compared to
231 those treated with nicotine and MPP⁺ alone (control: 1.00 ± 0.053 ; MPP⁺: 1.70 ± 0.119 ; MPP⁺ with
232 nicotine: 1.37 ± 0.0351 ; MPP⁺ with nicotine and MLA: 1.81 ± 0.0628). Similarly, figure 3B shows
233 that choline can reduce the cell death induced by MPP⁺ and this effect is blocked by MLA
234 (Control: 1.00 ± 0.053 ; MPP⁺: 1.70 ± 0.119 ; MPP⁺ with choline: 1.34 ± 0.0197 ; MPP⁺ with choline
235 and MLA: 1.85 ± 0.0796). These data indicate that $\alpha 7$ nAChR signaling is necessary for the
236 neuroprotective effect of nicotine.

237

238 **Nicotine pre-treatment inhibits PARP-1 and caspase-3 cleavage in MPP⁺-treated SH-SY5Y**
239 **neuroblastoma cells**

240 To investigate potential mechanisms mediating the effect of nicotine in the MPP⁺ SH-
241 SY5Y cellular model of PD, we examined PARP-1 and caspase-3 cleavage with and without
242 nicotine. As shown in Figure 4, nicotine pre-treatment inhibits the cleavage of caspase-3
243 (Control: 1.00 ± 0 ; nicotine: 1.05 ± 0.078 ; MPP⁺: 1.27 ± 0.026 ; MPP⁺ with nicotine: 0.933 ± 0.073)

244 and PARP-1 (Control: 1.00 ± 0 ; nicotine: 0.919 ± 0.054 ; MPP⁺: 1.17 ± 0.022 ; MPP⁺ with nicotine:
245 0.919 ± 0.022), compared to the control cells, using α -Tubulin as the loading control against
246 which the other proteins were normalized.

247 **The neuroprotective effect of nicotine is associated with decreased PARP-1 and caspase-3**
248 **cleavage**

249 To expand on the *in vitro* results above, we performed unilateral 6-hydroxydopamine
250 lesions in mice as an *in vivo* model of PD. We first confirmed that the 6-OHDA lesion was
251 causing the expected death of dopamine neurons and that nicotine had a neuroprotective effect *in*
252 *vivo*, by measuring the amount of tyrosine hydroxylase as a proxy for dopamine neuron survival.
253 Tyrosine hydroxylase is the rate limiting enzyme in the synthesis of catecholamines including
254 dopamine. Figure 5 shows that the lesioned hemisphere of the brain has lost approximately half
255 of the TH-containing neurons, while nicotine treatment protected almost all of these neurons
256 from death (non-lesioned side in 6-OHDA mice: 1.00 ± 0.070 ; lesioned side in 6-OHDA mice:
257 0.49 ± 0.19 , figure 5B; and non-lesioned side in 6-OHDA mice with nicotine: 1.00 ± 0.0473 ;
258 lesioned side in 6-OHDA mice with nicotine: 0.978 ± 0.0565 , figure 5C).

259 To investigate potential mechanisms underlying this neuroprotective effect of nicotine,
260 we measured the expression of Poly [ADP-ribose] polymerase 1(PARP-1) and caspase-3 using
261 Western blots. We analyzed protein from solubilized striatal tissue of mice exposed to 6-
262 hydroxydopamine (6-OHDA) with or without nicotine. Both cleaved PARP-1 (6-OHDA:
263 1.00 ± 0.54 ; Nicotine+6-OHDA: 0.740 ± 0.022 ; figure 6A-C) and cleaved caspase-3 (6-OHDA:
264 1.00 ± 0.017 ; Nicotine+6-OHDA: 0.718 ± 0.053 ; figure 6D-F) were decreased by nicotine pre-
265 treatment in 6-OHDA mice pretreated with nicotine. This indicates that nicotine pre-treatment

266 inhibits PARP-1 and caspase-3 cleavage in this PD mouse model. The main cleaved PARP-1
267 fragment was 89 KDa in size (full length 116 kDa).

268 We also performed a control experiment to examine whether nicotine alone might alter
269 PARP-1 or caspase-3 cleavage, using Western blots to quantify the amount of the intact, full-
270 length protein vs. the cleaved form, in the unlesioned hemisphere of 6-OHDA mice. As shown in
271 figure 7, there is no significant effect of nicotine alone on the cleavage of these two proteins.
272 These data demonstrate that the neuroprotective effect of nicotine for dopamine neurons in PD
273 models is associated with PARP-1 and caspase-3 cleavage pathways.

274

275 **Discussion**

276 The data presented above demonstrate that nicotine inhibits MPP⁺-induced SH-SY5Y cell
277 death through activating $\alpha 7$ nAChR, and inhibits PARP-1 and caspase-3 cleavage in the 6-
278 OHDA mouse model for PD. We first demonstrated that activation of nAChR with either
279 nicotine or choline is sufficient to protect SH-SY5Y cells from MPP⁺ toxicity. Nicotine also
280 inhibits PARP-1 and caspase-3 cleavage in MPP⁺-treated SH-SY5Y cells. We then showed that
281 $\alpha 7$ nAChR activation is necessary for these neuroprotective effects by using the $\alpha 7$ nAChR
282 antagonist methyllycaconitine, which reduces the number of cells rescued by nicotine. Finally,
283 we used the *in vivo* 6-OHDA mouse model for PD to demonstrate that nicotine inhibits PARP-1
284 and caspase-3 cleavage, suggesting a potential downstream molecular mechanism for
285 neuroprotection in PD.

286 This study provides additional knowledge of potential mechanisms to explain the clinical
287 phenomenon of reduced PD incidence in smokers and other people exposed to tobacco. Some
288 have suggested that people who become tobacco users may have an underlying trait that also

289 renders them less susceptible to PD (Barreto et al. 2014), a form of “reverse causation” rather
290 than nicotine actually being neuroprotective. One group found that PD patients are able to quit
291 smoking more easily than matched population controls (Ritz et al. 2014). However, there are two
292 main arguments against this interpretation. The first is that passive exposure to cigarette smoke is
293 also associated with a dose-dependent decreased risk for PD (Searles Nielsen et al. 2012), and
294 the second is the large body of data from experimental animal and cellular models (Barreto et al.
295 2014; Perez 2015).

296 The nAChRs are obvious potential starting points for the mechanism of neuroprotection
297 by nicotine in PD, and these receptors have been investigated in many other studies (Barreto et
298 al. 2014; Perez 2015; Quik et al. 2015). $\alpha 7$ nAChR agonists are also likely to have significant
299 impacts in PD via the regulation of the immune system and intestinal permeability (Anderson et
300 al. 2016). However, our study is unique in using SH-SY5Y cells exposed to MPP+ as an *in vitro*
301 model to investigate the neuroprotective effects of nicotine and nAChR activation. Also novel is
302 our attempt to investigate the effect of nicotine on PARP-1 and caspase-3 cleavage in the 6-
303 OHDA mouse model for PD. These elements provide insight into molecular mechanisms and
304 potential targets for developing new PD treatments.

305 Our results do not exclude the involvement of other neuroprotective mechanisms. Several
306 signaling pathways that promote cell survival are enhanced by stimulating nAChR, including the
307 Src family-PI3 K-AKT pathway, with subsequent upregulation of Bcl-2 and Bcl-x,
308 JAK2/STAT3 and MEK/ERK (Kawamata & Shimohama 2011). Nicotine can protect SH-SY5Y
309 cells from other types of insults, such as beta-amyloid toxicity, through Erk1/2-p38-JNK-
310 dependent signaling pathways (Xue et al. 2014). However, there are no published studies

311 investigating the role of PARP-1 or caspase in the neuroprotective effects of nicotine in PD
312 disease models.

313 Caspases are a family of proteases that are activated during apoptotic cell death
314 (Kroemer & Martin 2005). There are twelve numbered caspases, some of which initiate or
315 execute apoptosis, but these enzymes also regulate inflammation and cell differentiation
316 (Galluzzi et al. 2016). Caspases are initially synthesized as an inactive pro-caspase, which must
317 undergo dimerization or oligomerization and then cleavage to become active (Shi 2004).
318 Caspases are involved in the pathophysiology of PD through mediating dopaminergic neuron
319 death from MPTP (Furuya et al. 2004; Qiao et al. 2016; Viswanath et al. 2001), promoting
320 synuclein aggregation (Wang et al. 2016), and cleaving Transactivation response DNA-binding
321 protein 43 (TRAP-1), which is a primary component of Lewy bodies in PD (Kokoulina & Rohn
322 2010).

323 A number of neuroprotective compounds that have been studied in PD animal models
324 also affect caspases, such as telmisartan (an angiotensin II type 1 receptor blocker) (Tong et al.
325 2016), and nerve growth factor (NGF) (Shimoke & Chiba 2001). Directly blocking a caspase-3
326 cleavage site on the proapoptotic protein kinase C delta has neuroprotective effects in MPP+ and
327 6-OHDA PD models (Kanthasamy et al. 2006). Despite the prominence of caspases in neuronal
328 death in PD, they may not be viable targets for treatment since directly blocking caspase-8
329 resulted in a switch from apoptosis to necrosis (Hartmann et al. 2001), and this may apply to
330 other caspases as well (Kroemer & Martin 2005). Modulating caspase function in PD through the
331 nicotinic receptors may be a better approach for developing new treatments.

332 PARP-1 enzymes are involved in a number of neurodegenerative disorders including
333 Alzheimer's disease and PD (Martire et al. 2015). PARP-1 has DNA binding domains that detect

334 DNA damage and facilitate repair. When PARP-1 levels are too high or when DNA damage is
335 too severe, cell death is initiated (Burkle 2001), and this decision is regulated by NAD⁺
336 depletion (Alano et al. 2010). During cell death programs, PARP-1 is cleaved into fragments that
337 are specific to different apoptotic pathways (Chaitanya et al. 2010). The 89KDa fragment we
338 detected appears during apoptosis, and could have been generated by the action of caspase-3,
339 caspase-7 (Lazebnik et al. 1994) or the lysosomal proteases cathepsin B or D (Gobeil et al.
340 2001).

341 Some PARP-1 genetic variants are protective against PD (Infante et al. 2007), and the
342 involvement of PARP-1 in PD pathophysiology includes regulation of alpha-synuclein
343 expression (Chiba-Falek et al. 2005), and modification of p53 in the MPTP model (Mandir et al.
344 2002). Small molecule inhibitors of PARP-1 reduce cell death induced by alpha-synuclein and
345 MPP⁺ (Outeiro et al. 2007), consistent with our results above. PARP-1 induced depletion of
346 NAD⁺ could also contribute to decreasing sirtuins and mitochondrial dysfunction in PD
347 (Anderson & Maes 2014).

348 In conclusion, we have demonstrated that the neuroprotective effects of nicotine in
349 animal and cellular models of PD is mediated by activation of $\alpha 7$ nAChR and the inhibition of
350 PARP-1 and caspase-3 cleavage. All of these molecules have been previously implicated in the
351 pathophysiology of PD, but until now, have not been linked together. This knowledge could be
352 used to aid development of novel treatments for PD, but further work to delineate the molecular
353 pathway linking $\alpha 7$ nAChR to PARP-1 and caspase-3 is required.

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368 **Figure legends:**

369 **Figure 1: Nicotine protects SH-SY5Y cells against MPP⁺-induced cell death. A.** MPP⁺

370 treatment (500 μ M, 24 hrs) in SH-SY5Y cells increased the level of cell death, as compared to

371 control cells. * $p < 0.05$ as compared to those in control group, t-test, $n = 5$; F-test to compare

372 variance, $p = 0.928$. **B.** Pretreatment with nicotine (2 mM, 30 min) prior to MPP⁺ exposure in SH-

373 SY5Y cells decreased the level of cell death as compared to those treated with MPP⁺ only

374 (* $p < 0.05$ as compared to those of control group, ### $p < 0.01$ as compared to MPP⁺ group, $n = 5$ for

375 control and MPP⁺ groups, $n = 3$ for nicotine and MPP⁺ with nicotine groups; Levene's test of

376 equality of error variance: $p > 0.05$; two-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni post-tests: main

377 effect of nicotine treatment $F_{1,6} = 15.86$, $p < 0.01$; interaction effect $F_{1,6} = 3784$, $p > 0.05$). All data

378 are shown as mean \pm SEM. The level of cell death was detected using PI (50 μ g/ml) and

379 Hoechst33342 (20 μ g/ml) double staining, and was defined as the ratio of fluorescent intensity of

380 PI:Hoechst33342.

381

382 **Figure 2: Choline protects SH-SY5Y cells against MPP⁺-induced cell death.** Pre-treatment

383 with choline (1 mM, 30 min), a specific nAChR agonist, followed by MPP⁺ treatment (500 μ M,

384 24 hrs) in SH-SY5Y cells decreased the level of cell death as compared to those treated with
385 MPP⁺ only (*p<0.05 compared to control group, ###p<0.001 compared to MPP⁺ group, n=5;
386 Levene's test of equality of error variance: p>0.05; two-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni
387 post-tests: main effect of choline treatment: $F_{1,8}=13.05$, p<0.01; interaction effect $F_{1,8}= 5.65$,
388 p<0.05). All data are shown as mean ± SEM. The level of cell death was detected using PI and
389 Hoechst33342 double staining, and was defined as the ratio of fluorescent intensity of
390 PI:Hoechst33342.

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392 **Figure 3: Blockade of $\alpha 7$ nAChR inhibits the protective effect of nicotine and choline**
393 **against MPP⁺-induced SH-SY5Y cell death. A.** MLA (20 μ M, 30 min), a specific antagonist of
394 $\alpha 7$ nAChR, increased the level of cell death when administered prior to nicotine (2 mM, 30 min)
395 and MPP⁺ (500 μ M, 24 hrs) treatments in SH-SY5Y cells, as compared to those treated with
396 nicotine and MPP⁺ alone (**p<0.001 compared to control group, # p<0.05 compared to MPP⁺
397 group; control group n=5; other groups n=4; Levene's test of equality of error variance: p<0.05;
398 one-way ANOVA followed by Dunnett's C test $F_{3,16}= 27.20$. p<0.001). **B.** MLA (20 μ M, 30
399 min), a specific antagonist of $\alpha 7$ nAChR, increased the level of SH-SY5Y cell death when
400 administered prior to choline (1 mM, 30 min) and MPP⁺ (500 μ M, 24 hrs) treatments, as
401 compared to those treated with choline and MPP⁺ alone (**p<0.001 compared to the control
402 group, # p<0.05 as compared to the MPP⁺ group; control group n=5, other groups n=4; Levene's
403 test of equality of error variance: p<0.05; one-way ANOVA followed by Dunnett's C test $F_{3,16}=$
404 26.24, p<0.001). All data are shown as mean ± SEM. The level of cell death was detected using
405 PI and Hoechst33342 double staining, and was defined as the ratio of fluorescent intensity of
406 PI:Hoechst33342.

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408 **Figure 4: Nicotine pre-treatment inhibits PARP-1 and caspase-3 cleavage in MPP⁺-treated**409 **SH-SY5Y neuroblastoma cells. A.** Western blot analysis showing that cleaved caspase-3410 decreased in SH-SY5Y cells pre-treated with nicotine before MPP⁺ treatment, as compared to411 those treated with MPP⁺ only. α -Tubulin was used as a loading control. **B and C.** Densitometric412 analysis of expression levels of full length (**B**) and cleaved (**C**) caspase-3. The expression level413 of caspase-3 was defined as the ratio of the intensity of caspase-3: α -Tubulin, and was normalized414 as percentage of the control group (** $p < 0.01$, $n = 3$; Levene's test of equality of error variance:415 $p < 0.05$; two-way *ANOVA* followed by Dunnett's C test, main effect of nicotine treatment416 $F_{1,4} = 3.613$, $p < 0.05$; interaction effect $F_{1,4} = 213.2$, $p < 0.001$). **D.** Western blot analysis showing417 that cleaved PARP-1 was decreased in SH-SY5Y cells pre-treated with nicotine before MPP⁺418 treatment, as compared to those treated with MPP⁺ only. α -Tubulin was used as a loading419 control. **E and F.** Densitometric analysis of the intensity of expression levels of full length (**E**)420 and cleaved (**F**) PARP-1. The expression level of PARP-1 was defined as the ratio of the421 intensity of PARP-1: α -Tubulin, and was normalized as percentage of the control group422 (*** $p < 0.001$, $n = 3$; Levene's test of equality of error variance: $p < 0.05$; two-way *ANOVA*423 followed by Dunnett's C test; main effect of nicotine treatment $F_{1,4} = 24.78$, $p < 0.01$; interaction424 effect $F_{1,4} = 9.15$, $p < 0.05$). All data are shown as mean \pm SEM.

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426 **Figure 5: Tyrosine Hydroxylase expression level decreased in lesioned hemisphere of 6-**427 **OHDA mouse model of PD. A.** Western blot analysis showing that tyrosine hydroxylase

428 expression level decreased in striatal tissues of lesioned hemisphere from mice exposed to 6-

429 OHDA only, but did not change in mice pretreated with nicotine before 6-OHDA exposure. α -

430 Tubulin was used as a loading control. **B.** Densitometric analysis of expression levels of tyrosine
431 hydroxylase in mice exposed to 6-OHDA only. The expression level of tyrosine hydroxylase was
432 defined as the ratio of the intensity of tyrosine hydroxylase: α -Tubulin, and was normalized as
433 percentage of non-lesioned hemisphere (n=3, F test to compare variance, p=0.24; paired t-test
434 *p<0.05 as compared to non-lesioned hemisphere in 6-OHDA mice). All data are shown as mean
435 \pm SEM. **C.** Densitometric analysis of expression levels of tyrosine hydroxylase in mice
436 pretreated with nicotine before 6-OHDA exposure. The expression level of tyrosine hydroxylase
437 was defined as the ratio of the intensity of tyrosine hydroxylase: α -Tubulin, and was normalized
438 as percentage of non-lesioned hemisphere (n=3, paired t-test). All data are shown as mean \pm
439 SEM.

440

441 **Figure 6: Nicotine pre-treatment inhibits PARP-1 and caspase-3 cleavage in striatal tissue**
442 **from 6-OHDA mouse model of PD. A.** Western blot analysis showing that cleaved PARP-1
443 decreased in striatal tissues from mice pre-treated with nicotine before 6-OHDA exposure, as
444 compared to those exposed to 6-OHDA only. α -Tubulin was used as a loading control. **B and C.**
445 Densitometric analysis of expression levels of full length (**B**) and cleaved (**C**) PARP-1. The
446 expression level of PARP-1 was defined as the ratio of the intensity of PARP-1: α -Tubulin, and
447 was normalized as percentage of the 6-OHDA group (n=3; F test to compare variance, p=0.738;
448 t-test *p<0.05 compared to the 6-OHDA group). **D.** Western blot analysis showing that cleaved
449 caspase-3 was decreased in striatal tissues from mice pre-treated with nicotine prior to 6-OHDA
450 exposure, as compared to those exposed to 6-OHDA only. α -Tubulin was used as a loading
451 control. **E and F.** Densitometric analysis of the intensity of expression levels of full length (**E**)
452 and cleaved (**F**) caspase-3. The expression level of caspase-3 was defined as the ratio of the
453 intensity of caspase-3: α -Tubulin, and was normalized as percentage of the 6-OHDA group (n=3;

454 F test to compare variance, $p=0.290$, t-test $**p<0.01$ compared to the 6-OHDA group). All data
455 are shown as mean \pm SEM.

456

457 **Figure 7: Nicotine pre-treatment does not change PARP-1 and caspase-3 cleavage in**

458 **striatal tissue from non-lesioned hemisphere of 6-OHDA mouse model of PD. A.** Western

459 blot analysis showing no difference of cleaved caspase-3 in striatal tissues of non-lesioned

460 hemisphere from mice pre-treated with nicotine before 6-OHDA exposure, as compared to those

461 exposed to 6-OHDA only. α -Tubulin was used as a loading control. **B and C.** Densitometric

462 analysis of expression levels of full length (**B**) and cleaved (**C**) caspase-3. The expression level

463 of caspase-3 was defined as the ratio of the intensity of caspase-3: α -Tubulin, and was normalized

464 as percentage of the 6-OHDA group ($n=3$, t-test). **D.** Western blot analysis showing no

465 difference of cleaved PARP-1 was decreased in striatal tissues of the non-lesioned hemisphere

466 from mice pre-treated with nicotine prior to 6-OHDA exposure, as compared to those exposed to

467 6-OHDA only. α -Tubulin was used as a loading control. **E and F.** Densitometric analysis of the

468 intensity of expression levels of full length (**E**) and cleaved (**F**) PARP-1. The expression level of

469 PARP-1 was defined as the ratio of the intensity of PARP-1: α -Tubulin, and was normalized as

470 percentage of the 6-OHDA group ($n=3$, t-test). All data are shown as mean \pm SEM.

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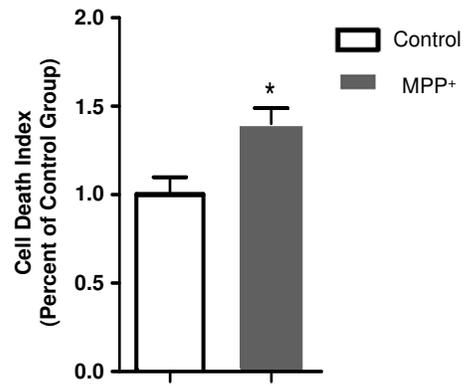
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Figure 1 (on next page)

Nicotine protects SH-SY5Y cells against MPP⁺-induced cell death

A. MPP⁺ treatment (500 μ M, 24 hrs) in SH-SY5Y cells increased the level of cell death, as compared to control cells. * $p < 0.05$ as compared to those in control group, $n = 5$, t-test. **B.** Pretreatment of nicotine (2 mM, 30 min) prior to MPP⁺ exposure in SH-SY5Y cells decreased the level of cell death as compared to those treated with MPP⁺ only. * $p < 0.05$ as compared to those of control group, ## $p < 0.01$ as compared to MPP⁺ group, $n = 5$ for control and MPP⁺ groups, $n = 3$ for nicotine and MPP⁺ with nicotine groups, two-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni post-tests. All data are shown as mean \pm SEM. The level of cell death was detected using PI (50 μ g/ml) and Hoechst33342 (20 μ g/ml) double staining, and was defined as the ratio of fluorescent intensity of PI: Hoechst33342.

A



B

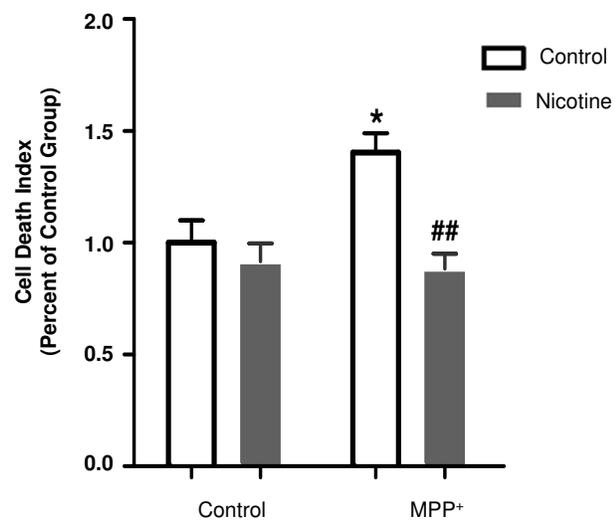


Figure 2(on next page)

Choline protects SH-SY5Y cells against MPP⁺-induced cell death.

Pre-treatment with choline (1 mM, 30 min), a specific nAChR agonist, followed by MPP⁺ treatment (500 μM, 24 hrs) in SH-SY5Y cells decreased the level of cell death as compared to those treated with MPP⁺ only. *p<0.05 as compared to those of control group, ###p<0.001 as compared to MPP⁺ group, n=5, two-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni posttests. All data are shown as mean ± SEM. The level of cell death was detected using PI and Hoechst33342 double staining, and was defined as the ratio of fluorescent intensity of PI: Hoechst33342.

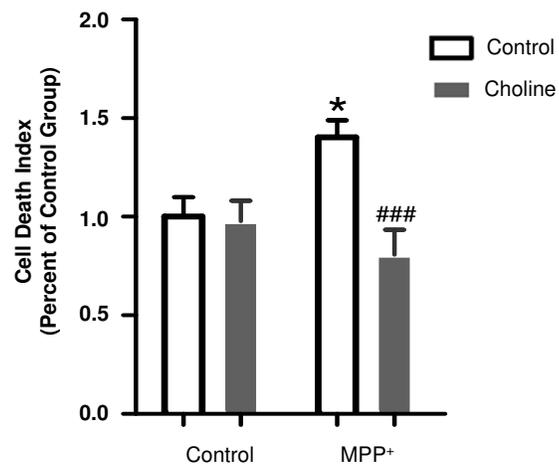
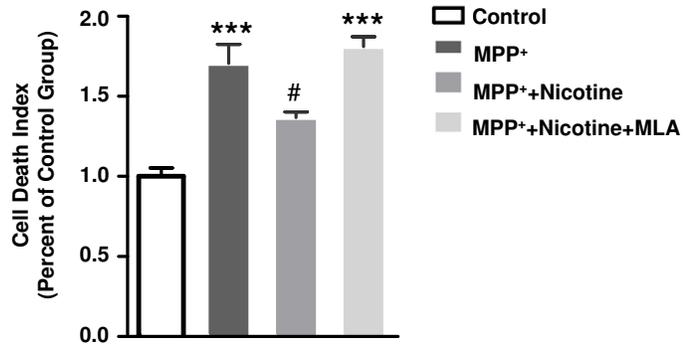


Figure 3(on next page)

Blockade of $\alpha 7$ nAChR inhibits the protective effect of nicotine and choline against MPP⁺-induced SH-SY5Y cell death.

A. MLA (20 μ M, 30 min), a specific antagonist of $\alpha 7$ nAChR, increased the level of cell death when administered prior to nicotine (2 mM, 30 min) and MPP⁺ (500 μ M, 24 hrs) treatments in SH-SY5Y cells, as compared to those treated with nicotine and MPP⁺ alone. *** $p < 0.001$ as compared to those of control group, # $p < 0.05$ as compared to MPP⁺ group, $n = 4$, one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's test. **B.** MLA (20 μ M, 30 min), a specific antagonist of $\alpha 7$ nAChR, increased the level of SH-SY5Y cell death when administered prior to choline (1 mM, 30 min) and MPP⁺ (500 μ M, 24 hrs) treatments, as compared to those treated with choline and MPP⁺ alone. *** $p < 0.001$ compared to the control group, # $p < 0.05$ as compared to the MPP⁺ group, $n = 4$, one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's test. All data are shown as mean \pm SEM. The level of cell death was detected using PI and Hoechst33342 double staining, and was defined as the ratio of fluorescent intensity of PI: Hoechst33342.

A



B

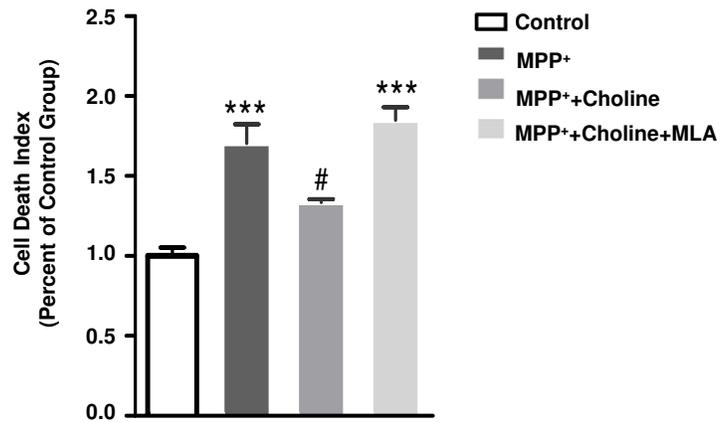


Figure 4(on next page)

Nicotine pre-treatment inhibits PARP-1 and caspase-3 cleavage in MPP⁺-treated SH-SY5Y neuroblastoma cells

A. Western blot analysis showing that cleaved caspase-3 decreased in SH-SY5Y cells pre-treated with nicotine before MPP⁺ treatment, as compared to those treated with MPP⁺ only. α -Tubulin was used as a loading control. **B and C.** Densitometric analysis of expression levels of full length (**B**) and cleaved (**C**) caspase-3. The expression level of caspase-3 was defined as the ratio of the intensity of caspase-3: α -Tubulin, and was normalized as percentage of the control group, ** $p < 0.01$, $n = 3$, two-way ANOVA. **D.** Western blot analysis showing that cleaved PARP-1 was decreased in SH-SY5Y cells pre-treated with nicotine before MPP⁺ treatment, as compared to those treated with MPP⁺ only. α -Tubulin was used as a loading control. **E and F.** Densitometric analysis of the intensity of expression levels of full length (**E**) and cleaved (**F**) PARP-1. The expression level of PARP-1 was defined as the ratio of the intensity of PARP-1: α -Tubulin, and was normalized as percentage of the control group, *** $p < 0.001$, $n = 3$, two-way ANOVA. All data are shown as mean \pm SEM. Western blot analysis showing that cleaved caspase-3 decreased in SH-SY5Y cells pre-treated with nicotine before MPP⁺ treatment, as compared to those treated with MPP⁺ only. α -Tubulin was used as a loading control. **B and C.** Densitometric analysis of expression levels of full length (**B**) and cleaved (**C**) caspase-3. The expression level of caspase-3 was defined as the ratio of the intensity of caspase-3: α -Tubulin, and was normalized as percentage of the control group, ** $p < 0.01$, $n = 3$, two-way ANOVA. **D.** Western blot analysis showing that cleaved PARP-1 was decreased in SH-SY5Y cells pre-treated with nicotine before MPP⁺ treatment, as compared to those treated with MPP⁺ only. α -Tubulin was used as a loading control. **E and F.** Densitometric analysis of the intensity of expression levels of full length (**E**) and cleaved (**F**) PARP-1. The expression level of PARP-1 was defined as the ratio of the intensity of PARP-1: α -Tubulin, and was normalized as percentage of the control group, *** $p < 0.001$, $n = 3$, two-way ANOVA. All data are shown as mean \pm SEM.

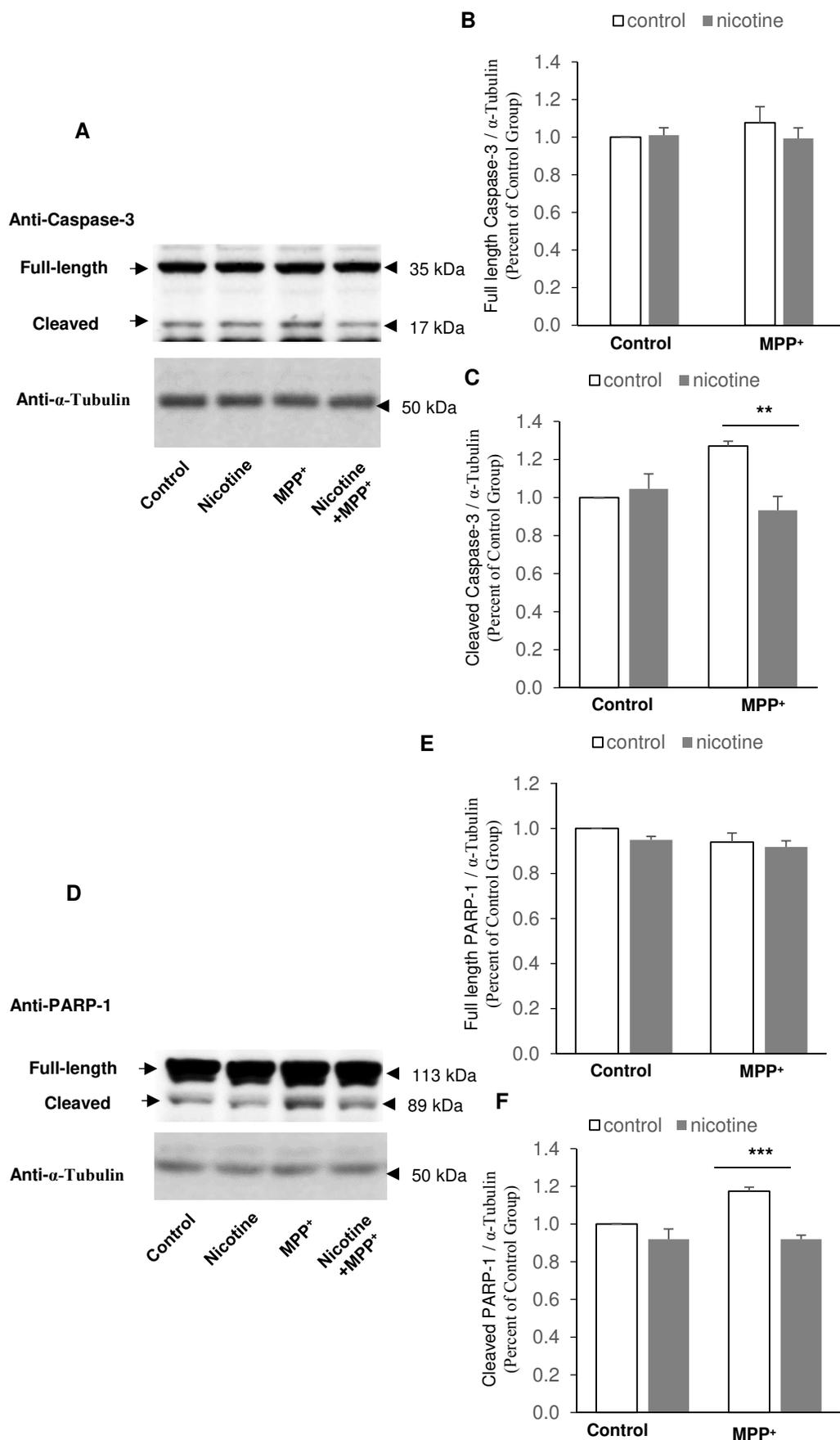


Figure 5(on next page)

Tyrosine Hydroxylase expression level decreased in lesioned hemisphere of 6-OHDA mouse model of PD

A. Western blot analysis showing that tyrosine hydroxylase expression level decreased in striatal tissues of lesioned hemisphere from mice exposed to 6-OHDA only, but did not change in mice pretreated with nicotine before 6-OHDA exposure. α -Tubulin was used as a loading control. **B** Densitometric analysis of expression levels of tyrosine hydroxylase. The expression level of tyrosine hydroxylase was defined as the ratio of the intensity of tyrosine hydroxylase: α -Tubulin, and was normalized as percentage of non-lesioned hemisphere exposed to 6-OHDA only, $n=3$, two-way ANOVA. All data are shown as mean \pm SEM. $*p<0.05$ as compared to Non-lesioned hemisphere in 6-OHDA mice.

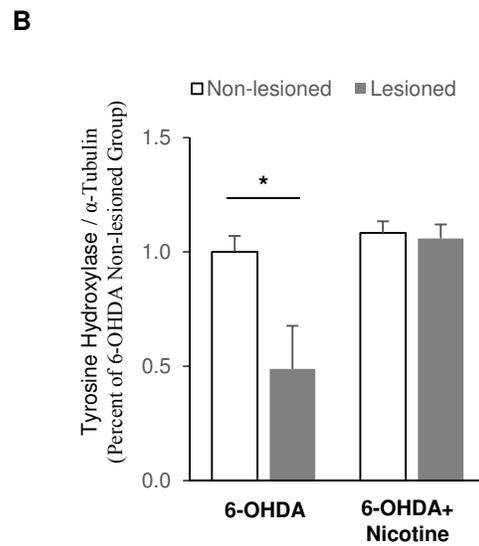
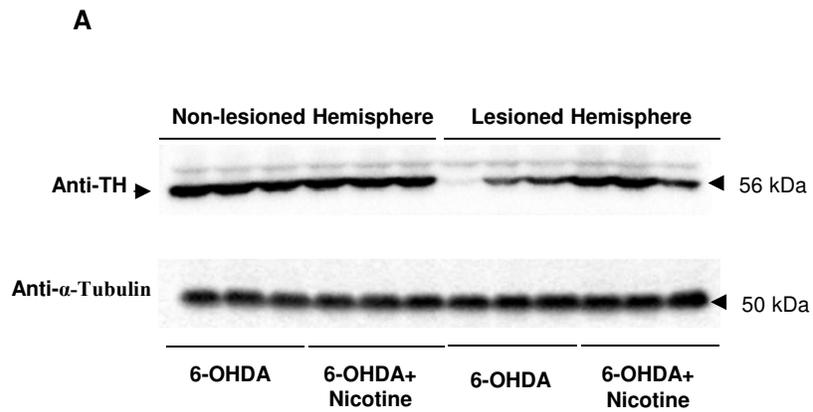


Figure 6(on next page)

Nicotine pre-treatment inhibits PARP-1 and caspase-3 cleavage in striatal tissue from 6-OHDA mouse model of PD

A. Western blot analysis showing that cleaved PARP-1 decreased in striatal tissues from mice pre-treated with nicotine before 6-OHDA exposure, as compared to those exposed to 6-OHDA only. α -Tubulin was used as a loading control. **B and C.** Densitometric analysis of expression levels of full length (**B**) and cleaved (**C**) PARP-1. The expression level of PARP-1 was defined as the ratio of the intensity of PARP-1: α -Tubulin, and was normalized as percentage of the 6-OHDA group, * $p < 0.05$ compared to the 6-OHDA group, $n = 3$, t-test. **D.** Western blot analysis showing that cleaved caspase-3 was decreased in striatal tissues from mice pre-treated with nicotine prior to 6-OHDA exposure, as compared to those exposed to 6-OHDA only. α -Tubulin was used as a loading control. **E and F.** Densitometric analysis of the intensity of expression levels of full length (**E**) and cleaved (**F**) caspase-3. The expression level of caspase-3 was defined as the ratio of the intensity of caspase-3: α -Tubulin, and was normalized as percentage of the 6-OHDA group, ** $p < 0.01$ compared to the 6-OHDA group, $n = 3$, t-test. All data are shown as mean \pm SEM.

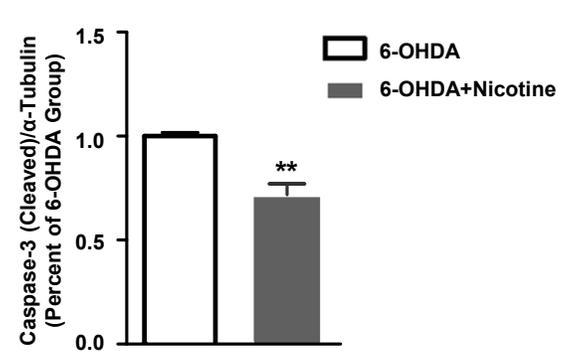
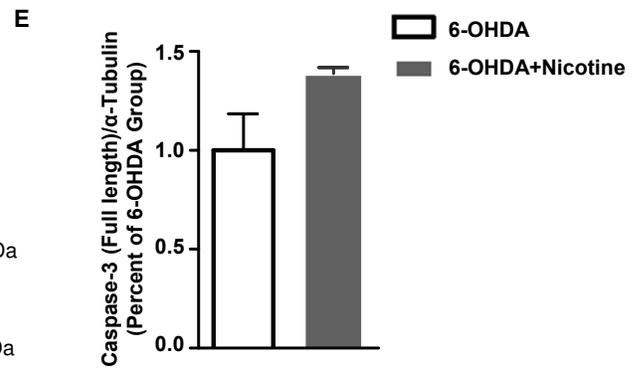
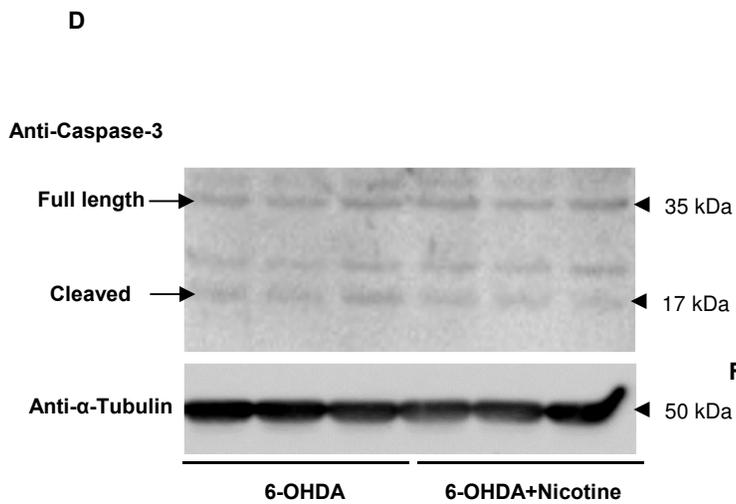
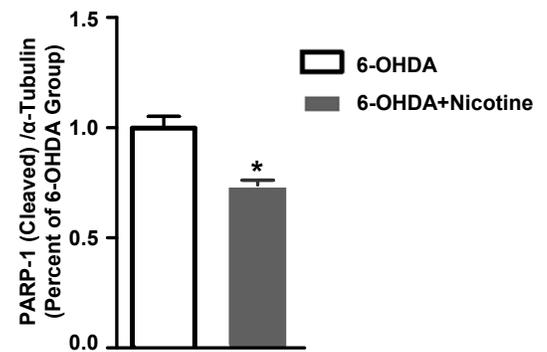
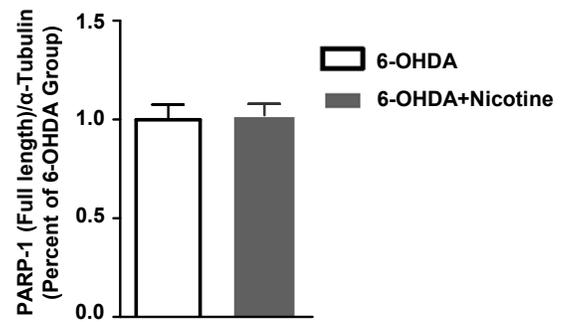
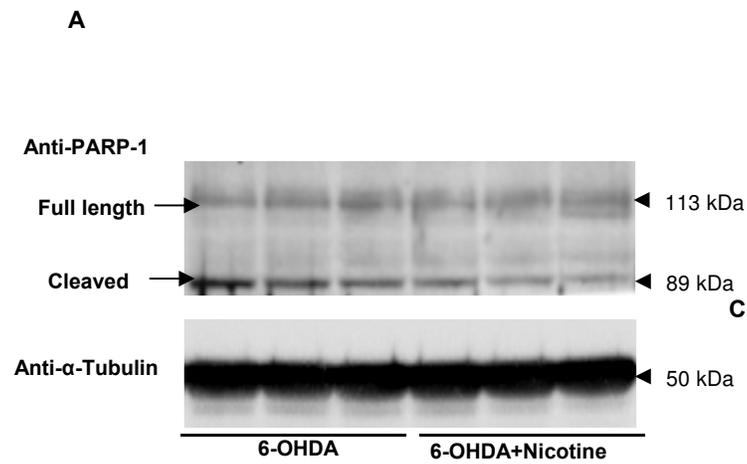


Figure 7 (on next page)

Nicotine pre-treatment does not change PARP-1 and caspase-3 cleavage in striatal tissue from non-lesioned hemisphere of 6-OHDA mouse model of PD

A. Western blot analysis showing no difference of cleaved caspase-3 in striatal tissues of non-lesioned hemisphere from mice pre-treated with nicotine before 6-OHDA exposure, as compared to those exposed to 6-OHDA only. α -Tubulin was used as a loading control. **B and C.** Densitometric analysis of expression levels of full length (**B**) and cleaved (**C**) caspase-3. The expression level of caspase-3 was defined as the ratio of the intensity of caspase-3: α -Tubulin, and was normalized as percentage of the 6-OHDA group, n=3, t-test. **D.** Western blot analysis showing no difference of cleaved PARP-1 was decreased in striatal tissues of the non-lesioned hemisphere from mice pre-treated with nicotine prior to 6-OHDA exposure, as compared to those exposed to 6-OHDA only. α -Tubulin was used as a loading control. **E and F.** Densitometric analysis of the intensity of expression levels of full length (**E**) and cleaved (**F**) PARP-1. The expression level of PARP-1 was defined as the ratio of the intensity of PARP-1: α -Tubulin, and was normalized as percentage of the 6-OHDA group, n=3, t-test. All data are shown as mean \pm SEM.

