

A combination of curcumin, vorinostat and silibinin reverses A β -induced nerve cell toxicity via activation of AKT-MDM2-p53 pathway

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Alzheimer's disease (AD) is a significant health-care issue for the elderly and is becoming increasingly common as the global population ages. Although many efforts have been made to elucidate the pathology of AD, there is still a lack of effective clinical anti-AD agents. Previous research has demonstrated the neuroprotective properties of curcumin and vorinostat when administered in combination; in this study, we added silibinin to the combination to investigate whether it would act synergistically with the two drugs to alleviate amyloid beta (A β)-induced nerve cell toxicity. Our initial experiments included a screen of nine candidate compounds; however, only silibinin reduced A β_{25-35} -induced toxicity in PC12 cells at 1 μ M concentrations. The neuroprotective effects of silibinin at 1 μ M in combination with 5 μ M curcumin and 0.5 μ M of vorinostat (CVS) was demonstrated in PC12 cells through a decrease in apoptosis and reduction in levels of oxidative stress markers that are induced by 20 μ M of A β_{25-35} . Western blotting assays showed that CVS pretreatment significantly increased the phosphorylation of AKT, BAD, and MDM2, which resulted in decreased intracellular expression of p53. Further, immunofluorescence demonstrated reduced levels of p53 in the nuclei of PC12 cells following CVS treatment, which indicates a reduction in the p53-mediated transcriptional activity associated with A β_{25-35} exposure. In conclusion, our findings suggest that pretreatment with CVS protects PC12 cells from A β_{25-35} -induced toxicity through modulation of the AKT/MDM2/p53 pathway. Thus, CVS may present a new therapeutic option for the treatment of AD.

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19 **ABSTRACT**

20 Alzheimer's disease (AD) is a significant health-care issue for the elderly and is becoming increasingly
21 common as the global population ages. Although many efforts have been made to elucidate the pathology

22 of AD, there is still a lack of effective clinical anti-AD agents. Previous research has demonstrated the
23 neuroprotective properties of curcumin and vorinostat when administered in combination; in this study, we
24 added silibinin to the combination to investigate whether it would act synergistically with the two drugs to
25 alleviate amyloid beta ($A\beta$)-induced nerve cell toxicity. Our initial experiments included a screen of nine
26 candidate compounds; however, only silibinin reduced $A\beta_{25-35}$ -induced toxicity in PC12 cells at 1 μ M
27 concentrations. The neuroprotective effects of silibinin at 1 μ M in combination with 5 μ M curcumin and
28 0.5 μ M of vorinostat (CVS) was demonstrated in PC12 cells through a decrease in apoptosis and reduction
29 in levels of oxidative stress markers that are induced by 20 μ M of $A\beta_{25-35}$. Western blotting assays showed
30 that CVS pretreatment significantly increased the phosphorylation of AKT, BAD, and MDM2, which
31 resulted in decreased intracellular expression of p53. Further, immunofluorescence demonstrated reduced
32 levels of p53 in the nuclei of PC12 cells following CVS treatment, which indicates a reduction in the p53-
33 mediated transcriptional activity associated with $A\beta_{25-35}$ exposure. In conclusion, our findings suggest that
34 pretreatment with CVS protects PC12 cells from $A\beta_{25-35}$ -induced toxicity through modulation of the
35 AKT/MDM2/p53 pathway. Thus, CVS may present a new therapeutic option for the treatment of AD.

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38 INTRODUCTION

39 Alzheimer's disease (AD) is a progressive neurodegenerative disorder characterized by extracellular
40 deposition of amyloid beta ($A\beta$) plaques and intracellular aggregation of neurofibrillary tangles (Sanabria-
41 Castro, et al., 2017). AD is the most common form of dementia among the elderly (Mattson, 2004) and is
42 characterized by severe cognitive impairment and memory loss. AD is the fifth-leading cause of death in

43 people over the age of 65, and it is estimated that 5.4 million people have AD in the United States
44 (Alzheimer's Association, 2016). These issues are not specific to the United States though, as other
45 countries are also facing the problems associated with an aging population (The main data announcement
46 of sixth national census, 2011). In China, the most recent national population census demonstrated that
47 approximately 13.3% of the total population are aged ≥ 60 years, which correlates with a high prevalence
48 of AD. In fact, there are currently more than 7 million AD patients in China, and this number is growing
49 (Chan et al., 2013; Jia et al., 2014). This global growth of AD patients has contributed to a worldwide
50 increase in nursing demand and economic burden (Jia et al., 2018).

51 In spite of the rapidly increasing prevalence of AD, there is a severe lack of therapeutic strategies to
52 prevent AD or to reverse the development of A β plaques (Agatonovic-Kustrin et al., 2018). To date, only
53 three acetylcholinesterase inhibitors (donepezil, galantamine, and rivastigmine) and one non-competitive
54 N-methyl-D-aspartate receptor antagonist (memantine) have been approved by the U.S. Food and Drug
55 Administration (FDA) for the treatment of AD (Guzior et al., 2015). Unfortunately, these approved drugs
56 only elicit modest symptomatic improvement and temporary cognitive improvement in half of the patients
57 with AD (Blennow et al., 2006). Given such limited options, a significant amount of research has gone into
58 alternative therapies for AD. As a result, a number of natural compounds have shown promising
59 neuroprotective effects that are mediated through the p53 pathway, making them promising candidate drugs
60 for AD (Jazvinšćak et al., 2018).

61 One such example is curcumin, a natural flavonoid isolated from *rhizoma curcumae longae*, which has
62 demonstrated neuroprotective effects against A β -induced neurotoxicity in both cell and animal models
63 (Potter, 2013). However, no clinical studies have shown the efficacy of oral curcumin for AD, which is

64 likely due to the limited bioavailability of curcumin in humans (Ringman et al., 2012). However, our
65 research group has demonstrated that curcumin and vorinostat, a histone deacetylase inhibitor, have
66 synergistic-neuroprotective effects against A β toxicity in PC12 cells (Meng et al., 2014). Our work also
67 suggests that co-administration of curcumin and vorinostat protects neural cells from A β -induced apoptosis
68 by maintaining the high phosphorylation of AKT serine/threonine kinase (AKT). Of note, the effect of the
69 drug combination on the expression and transcriptional activity of tumor protein p53 was not investigated.
70 Given that simultaneous accumulation, and cooperation, of A β and p53 has been observed in human AD,
71 it is likely that p53 plays a critical role in AD progression (Ohyagi et al., 2005). Furthermore, we suspect
72 that through these synergistic mechanisms, the bioavailability of curcumin may be increased.

73 In the present study, the effects of curcumin were assessed in combination with other natural compounds
74 to identify if its neuroprotective effect is mediated through activation of the AKT/ MDM2 proto-oncogene
75 2 (MDM2)/p53 pathway. Furthermore, as many natural compounds, such as resveratrol, piceatannol,
76 genistein, quercetin, kaempferol, luteolin, apigenin, daidzein, and silibinin, have been shown to have
77 neuroprotective effects (Wang et al., 2018; Fu et al., 2016; You et al., 2017; Ansari et al., 2009; Pate et al.,
78 2017; Sawmiller et al., 2014; Zhao et al., 2013; Westmark et al., 2013; Duan et al., 2015), we explored
79 whether the addition of one of these compounds would further enhance the neuronal benefit of curcumin
80 and vorinostat.

81

82 **MATERIALS and METHODS**

83 **Materials**

84 Amyloid beta-23-25 (A β ₂₃₋₂₅) peptide was purchased from Chinapeptides Corporation (Shanghai, China),

85 diluted to a stock concentration of 1 mM in double-distilled H₂O, and incubated at 37 °C for seven days to
86 induce aggregation. Following incubation, A β_{23-25} was diluted in cell culture media to a final concentration
87 of 20 μ M. Unless noted otherwise, all additional chemicals and reagents were purchased from Sigma
88 Aldrich, Inc. (St. Louis, MO, USA).

89 **Cell culture and treatment**

90 Rat pheochromocytoma (PC12) cells were grown on tissue-culture treated plates with Dulbecco's modified
91 Eagle's medium/nutrient mixture F-12 (DMEM/F-12) supplemented with 7% fetal bovine serum (FBS) and
92 1% Penicillin-Streptomycin. Cells were maintained at 37 °C in an incubator with 5% CO₂. Upon reaching
93 80% confluence, cells were cultured in serum-free medium for 12 h, followed by pretreatment with either
94 a single compound of interest or a combination of compounds, for 1 h. After the pretreatment, cells were
95 exposed to A β_{23-25} peptide for 24 h.

96 **Cell viability analysis**

97 Cell viability was measured using the 3-[4,5-dimethylthiazol-3-yl]-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide
98 (MTT) assay. In brief, cells were seeded in a 96-well plate at a density of 1×10^4 cells/well and treated with
99 the compound(s) of interest, while control wells were treated with an equal volume of the vehicle. Following
100 a 24-h incubation, 10 μ L of MTT (5 mg/mL) was added to each well and incubated at 37 °C for 4 h. The
101 medium was then discarded and replaced with 100 μ L dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) to dissolve the crystals.
102 The optical density was then measured at 490 nm using a multi-mode microplate reader (SpectraMax M5,
103 Molecular Devices Company, California, United States).

104 **Determination of reactive oxygen species (ROS) levels**

105 PC12 cells were pretreated with the following drug combinations for 1 h at 37 °C in DMEM; curcumin (5

106 μM) alone; a two-drug combination of curcumin ($5 \mu\text{M}$) and vorinostat ($0.5 \mu\text{M}$); or a three-drug
107 combination of curcumin ($5 \mu\text{M}$), vorinostat ($0.5 \mu\text{M}$), and silibinin ($1 \mu\text{M}$). Following the pretreatment,
108 $\text{A}\beta_{23-25}$ peptide was added to induce cell apoptosis, and intracellular ROS generation was assessed using a
109 reactive oxygen species assay kit (Nanjing Jiancheng Institute of Biotechnology, China) according to the
110 manufacturer's instructions. In brief, PC12 cells were washed twice with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS)
111 and then incubated with $10 \mu\text{M}$ of 2',7'-dichlorodihydrofluorescein diacetate (DCFH-DA) dye in serum-
112 free DMEM-F12 for 1 h at 37°C . The cells were washed with PBS and fluorescence was observed at 488
113 nm and recorded using confocal microscopy. Semi-quantification of ROS levels was evaluated by using
114 ImageJ software.

115 **Measurement of superoxide dismutase (SOD) and malondialdehyde (MDA) levels**

116 Briefly, the treated PC12 cells were harvested and lysed in lysis buffer, and the resulting cell lysates were
117 centrifuged at $3,000\times g$ for 10 min at 4°C , the resulting supernatant was collected for enzyme activity
118 analysis. The level of SOD and MDA were determined through the nitroblue tetrazolium using a total SOD
119 Detection Kit (Beyotime Institute of Biotechnology, Shanghai, China) and a MDA assay kit (Jiancheng
120 Institute of Biotechnology, Nanjing, China), according to the manufacturer's instruction. The protein
121 concentration was determined using BCA Protein Assay Kit (Beyotime Institute of Biotechnology,
122 Shanghai, China). One unit of SOD and MDA were defined as the amount of protein. The SOD results were
123 expressed as enzyme activity per milligram protein (U/mg) and the MDA results were expressed as per
124 milligram protein (U/mg).

125 **Western blotting assay**

126 The PC12 cells were washed with PBS and lysed with ice-cold radioimmunoprecipitation assay (RIPA)
127 lysis buffer added to phenylmethanesulfonyl fluoride (PMSF). The mixture was then centrifuged for 15
128 min at $14,000\times g$ and 4°C . Supernatants containing the total cellular proteins were measured using a BCA

129 protein assay kit (Beyotime Institute of Biotechnology, Shanghai, China) according to the manufacturer's
130 instructions. The proteins were then separated using 10% sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrylamide gel
131 electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE), the protein bands transferred to a polyvinylidene difluoride (PVDF)
132 membrane (Millipore Corp., Bedford, MA, USA), and the membrane blocked with 5% non-fat milk diluted
133 1×Tris Buffered Saline with 0.1% Tween (TBS-T) for 1 h at room temperature(24 °C). The membranes
134 were then incubated overnight at 4°C with the following primary antibodies; rabbit polyclonal phospho-
135 MDM2 antibody (*p*-MDM2, 1:1000, Cell Signaling Technology, Danvers, MA, USA), mouse monoclonal
136 p53 antibody (1:1000, Cell signaling Technology, Danvers, MA, USA), rabbit monoclonal phospho-AKT
137 (ser473) antibody (*p*-AKT, 1:1000, Cell Signaling Technology, Danvers, MA, USA), rabbit monoclonal
138 phospho-BAD (Ser112) antibody (*p*-BAD, 1:1000, Cell Signaling Technology, Danvers, MA, USA), and
139 mouse monoclonal β-actin antibody (1:5000, Abcam Cambridge, USA). The membranes were then washed
140 and incubated at room temperature for 1 h with goat anti-rabbit IRDye ® 800CW (1:10000, Li-Cor
141 Biosciences, Lincoln, NE, USA) or goat anti-mouse IRDye ® 800CW (1:10000, Li-Cor Biosciences,
142 Lincoln, NE, USA). The proteins were visualized using the Odyssey Infrared Imager System (LI-COR
143 Biosciences, Lincoln, NE, USA), and the odyssey v1.2 software was used to quantify the western blot bands
144 by measuring band intensity (area × optical density) in each group with β-actin as an internal control.

145 **Transferase-mediated deoxyuridine triphosphate-biotin nick end labeling (TUNEL) assay**

146 During apoptosis, cleavage of genomic DNA yields double-stranded DNA breaks that are identifiable by
147 labeling the free 3'-OH termini with modified nucleotides in an enzymatic reaction; a TUNEL assay is
148 based on this principle. In brief, cells were grown on confocal dishes (NEST, Wuxi, China) in DMEM-F12
149 for 24 h. PC12 cells were then pretreated with the compounds of interest alone or in combinations for 1 h.

150 Pretreated cells were then exposed to 20 μM of $\text{A}\beta_{23-25}$ for 24 h 37°C and 5% CO_2 . Cells were washed twice
151 with PBS followed by fixation with 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA) at room temperature. Fixed cells were
152 washed twice with PBS buffer, treated with 0.1% TritonX-100 to permeate cells, and then washed twice
153 with PBS. Next, the TUNEL reaction mixture (Beyotime Institute of Biotechnology, Shanghai, China) was
154 added to the samples, and the cells were incubated for 60 min at 37°C in a dark, humidified atmosphere.
155 Negative controls were prepared with equal volumes of labeling solution. After this incubation, the confocal
156 dishes (NEST, Wuxi, China) were rinsed twice with PBS. Finally, samples were analyzed using a confocal
157 Laser Scanning Biological microscope FV1000 (Olympus, Tokyo, Japan) at the excitation wavelength of
158 488 nm.

159 **Immunofluorescence staining assay**

160 Colocalization of p53 and MDM2 proteins was examined by immunofluorescence staining of treated PC12
161 cells. In brief, PC12 cells were cultured on confocal dishes (Nest, Wuxi, China) at 37 °C for 24 h. After
162 treatments with $\text{A}\beta_{23-25}$, curcumin (5 μM), vorinostat (0.5 μM), and silibinin (1 μM) as motioned before,
163 cells were fixed with 4% PFA for 15 min at room temperature, washed twice with PBS, and incubated with
164 0.1% Triton-X 100 for 15 min at room temperature. Cells were blocked with 1% bovine serum albumin in
165 PBS for 30 min and subsequently incubated with antibodies against p53 (1:1000, Cell signaling, USA and
166 MDM2 (1:400, Cell signaling, USA) at 4 °C overnight with mild shaking. The cells were washed twice
167 with PBS, then incubated with the secondary antibody at room temperature for 1 h; the secondary antibodies
168 were donkey anti-rabbit 488 (1:1000, Invitrogen, Camarillo, CA, USA) and donkey anti-mouse 594
169 (1:1000, Invitrogen, Camarillo, CA, USA). To stain the nuclei, the cells were then incubated with 1 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$
170 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI) for 5 min. Following two washes with PBS, the cells were observed

171 using a confocal Laser Scanning Biological microscope FV1000 (Olympus, Tokyo, Japan).

172 **Statistical analysis**

173 All the experiments were repeated five times, and all figures are expressed as the mean \pm standard error of
174 the mean (SEM). Statistical analysis was performed using GraphPad Prism v6.0. To assess for differences
175 among three or more groups, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with Dunnett test was used.
176 Differences of $p < 0.01$ were considered to indicate statistically significant differences.

177

178 **RESULTS**

179 **Silibinin enhanced the neuroprotective effects of the combination of curcumin and vorinostat**

180 In the present study, nine natural compounds were investigated for synergistic activity with the drug
181 combination of curcumin and vorinostat. The nine compounds had each been documented to have
182 neuroprotective effects (Wang et al., 2018; Fu et al., 2016; You et al., 2017; Ansari et al., 2009; Pate et al.,
183 2017; Sawmiller et al., 2014; Zhao et al., 2013; Westmark et al., 2013; Duan et al., 2015), and included,
184 resveratrol, piceatannol, genistein, quercetin, kaempferol, luteolin, apigenin, daidzein, and silibinin. Our
185 results indicated that at concentrations of 1 μM , only silibinin showed significant neuroprotection against
186 $\text{A}\beta_{25-35}$ ($p < 0.01$, Figure 1A). Further, cell viability assays showed synergistic activity between silibinin
187 and the combination treatment that consisted of 5 μM curcumin and 0.5 μM vorinostat (Figure 1B). This
188 three-drug combination increased the ability of PC12 cells to resist $\text{A}\beta_{25-35}$ -induced effects. No differences
189 were observed between the control group and the curcumin-vorinostat-silibinin (CVS) group with regard
190 to either CASP3 expression or the percentage of TUNEL positive cells (Figures 1C and D, $p > 0.01$).

191 **Pretreatment of CVS significantly reduced oxidative stress following stimulation by $\text{A}\beta_{25-35}$**

192 A significant increase in ROS production (3.6-fold relative to control) was observed when PC12 cells were
193 incubated with 20 μM of $\text{A}\beta_{25-35}$ (Figure 2A); however, when cells were pretreated with CVS for 1 h, there
194 was no significant increase in ROS generation following $\text{A}\beta_{25-35}$ stimulation ($p > 0.01$). Consistent with
195 these results, $\text{A}\beta_{25-35}$ significantly decreased the SOD concentration (1.9 fold compared to control) and
196 increased the MDA concentration (6.4 fold compared to control) in PC12 cells (Figures 2B and C); yet
197 when cells were pretreated with CVS, the SOD and MDA concentrations were not significantly affected by
198 $\text{A}\beta_{25-35}$ ($p > 0.01$).

199 **Pretreatment with CVS maintained an active Akt/MDM2/p53 pathway**

200 Treatment of PC12 cells with 20 μM $\text{A}\beta_{25-35}$ induced a significant decrease in the phosphorylation of AKT
201 ($p < 0.001$, Figure 3A), which correlated with significantly decreased expression of the downstream
202 proteins, *p*-BAD and *p*-MDM2 (Figures 3B and C). However, when the cells were pretreated with drugs,
203 the $\text{A}\beta_{25-35}$ -mediated reduction of these proteins was inhibited (Figures 3A-C). Further, pretreatment with
204 the three-drug combination was more effective at reducing the effects mediated by $\text{A}\beta_{25-35}$ exposure than
205 pretreatment with curcumin alone or the two-drug combination (curcumin and vorinostat). Similarly,
206 pretreatment of PC12 cells with CVS reduced intracellular p53 expression, which was significantly
207 increased by 20 μM of $\text{A}\beta_{25-35}$ (Figure 3D). This was supported by a reduction in the $\text{A}\beta_{25-35}$ -mediated
208 increase in transcriptional activity of p53 when cells were pretreated with CVS, which was demonstrated
209 by immunofluorescent microscopy (Figure 4).

210

211 **DISCUSSION**

212 In the United States, approximately one in seven people aged ≥ 65 have AD, and this figure jumps to

213 approximately 50% in those over 85 (Alzheimer's Association, 2016). As the global population ages, these
214 numbers continue to grow, making prevention and treatment of AD one of the most important healthcare
215 issues of this century (Goedert and Spillantini, 2006). However, this is complicated by a severe lack of
216 therapeutic options.

217 It has been approximately 25 years since the amyloid hypothesis of AD was proposed; however, recent
218 studies have demonstrated that this is only part of the story (Hardy and Higgins, 1992; Armstrong, 2013),
219 rather A β aggregation should be considered a reaction to, rather than a cause of the pathological progression
220 of AD. The real impetus appears to be that sedentary, overindulgent lifestyles cause chronic stress on the
221 brain, which in turn accelerates brain aging (Caruso et al., 2018; Mattson and Arumugam, 2018). The
222 clinical failure of treatment strategies involved in scavenging A β from the brain partially supports this
223 hypothesis with regard to the pathological procession of AD (Citron, 2010). Further, clinical investigations
224 suggest that approximately one in four patients with AD are not diagnosed according to the discriminant
225 threshold levels of A β plaques and Tau tangles. Yet these patients still experience severe loss of
226 hippocampal pyramidal neurons (Mattson, 2015), suggesting that this pathology may not be the exclusive
227 result of advanced AD, and thus, that the A β scavenging strategy is too arbitrary and focused. As such, drug
228 target research from a new perspective is necessary for the development of effective AD drugs.

229 One of the most promising avenues is the up-regulation of p53, which has been found to be crucial to the
230 development of AD (Jazvinščak et al., 2018). Conveniently, p53 is encoded by *tp53*, one of the most
231 thoroughly investigated genes in the human genome (Dolgin, 2017). There are, therefore, numerous
232 potential drug candidates already available to modulate the p53 pathway that may be of use as targeted AD
233 therapeutics. Recently, Jazvinščak *et al.* suggested that natural compounds may be a source of suitable drug

234 candidates, as many natural compounds are known to regulate this pathway (Jazvinščak et al., 2018). In our
235 study, nine natural compounds were screened for their ability to inhibit the cytotoxic effects of excessive
236 A β deposits in PC12 cells. Accordingly, 1 μ M silibinin demonstrated the greatest activity in the drug screen.
237 Subsequent experiments revealed that the addition of silibinin to our previously established drug
238 combination (curcumin and vorinostat) enhanced the neuroprotective effects of this combination by
239 activating the AKT/MDM2/p53 axis. The potent activity of this three-drug combination at low
240 concentrations suggests synergistic drug interactions and is consistent with the results in our previous study
241 (Meng et al., 2014). Compared to monotherapies, synergistic drug combinations possess many inherent
242 advantages, including lower doses, multi-target regulation, and a reduced risk of drug resistance
243 development (Zimmermann et al., 2007; Lehár et al., 2009; Jia et al., 2009). More importantly, the three
244 drugs investigated in this study are all commercially available. Thus, the CVS treatment regimen is
245 economically feasible for late-stage drug development.

246 Curcumin is a flavone chemical found naturally, and studies have demonstrated that it is a promising
247 anti-AD drug (Venigalla et al., 2015). However, poor human bioavailability limits its further clinical
248 application (Chin et al., 2013). Multiple strategies have been assessed to solve the issue of low
249 bioavailability. For example, the formulation of curcumin-loaded nanoparticles increased bioavailability
250 but was associated with higher costs (Tiwari et al., 2014). Other studies have indicated that a curcuminoid
251 mixture (instead of curcumin alone) has greater efficacy in the potential treatment of AD (Ahmed and
252 Gilani, 2014), suggesting that combination therapies may be an effective strategy for curcumin in the
253 treatment of AD. Vorinostat, or suberoylanilidehydroxamic acid (SAHA), is a histone deacetylase inhibitor
254 that has FDA approval for the treatment of cutaneous T cell lymphoma. Vorinostat may also have potential

255 value for the treatment of AD through its effects on the CREB binding protein (CBP)/ E1A binding protein
256 p300 (EP300) signaling pathway (Rouaux et al., 2004). In a previous study, we demonstrated synergistic
257 properties between vorinostat and curcumin for the protection of PC12 cells against A β toxicity; however,
258 exposure of high concentrations of vorinostat was found to be cytotoxic (Meng et al., 2014). Given this
259 potential cytotoxicity, we reduced its concentration from 1 μ M to 0.5 μ M. Recently, several studies have
260 demonstrated the neuroprotective effects of silibinin in a model of A β -treated rats (Song et al., 2017; Song
261 et al., 2018). Consistent with these findings, our results showed that silibinin increased the effects of the
262 two-drug combination by protecting neural cells from A β toxicity.

263 In our study, an experimental design was adopted such that the PC12 cells were pretreated with the drug
264 combination prior to simulation of A β aggregation. According to the clinical features of AD, three
265 developmental stages can be defined, pre-clinical AD, prodromal AD, and AD-type dementia (De-Paula et
266 al., 2012). The former two phases constitute the pre-symptomatic phase of AD, while the latter is considered
267 symptomatic. Further, the pre-symptomatic phases of AD last longer than the symptomatic phase (De-Paula
268 et al., 2012) and are associated with lower economic costs (Jia et al., 2018). Therefore, the prevention of
269 dementia via the treatment of early-stage AD is more economically feasible than treating AD-type dementia
270 (Goedert and Spillantini, 2006).

271

272 CONCLUSIONS

273 Through a cell viability screen of 9 natural compounds, we successfully identified a low concentration
274 combination drug, CVS, that has potential as an AD therapeutic. Our results demonstrated the strong
275 neuroprotective ability of CVS against A β toxicity *in vitro* and that pretreatment of CVS increased the

276 tolerance of nerve cells to A β toxicity. We also demonstrate that simulated A β aggregation led to
277 inactivation of the AKT/MDM2/p53, which has a critical role in the progression of AD. However,
278 pretreatment with CVS maintained the active state of the pathway and ensured low transcriptional activity
279 of p53. As a direct result of the protection provided by CVS, no significant cell apoptosis or oxidative stress
280 occurred when PC12 cells were exposed to A β aggregation. However, further studies in animal models are
281 necessary to evaluate the therapeutic value of CVS for this disease. In conclusion, our findings suggest that
282 CVS is a promising prophylaxis for AD treatment.

283

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286

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411

412 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

413 **Figure 1. CVS treatment inhibits A β ₂₅₋₃₅-induced PC12 cell apoptosis.** **A.** Individual effects of 9
414 candidate compounds on cell viability. **B-D.** Effects of CVS on cell viability (B), reversion of CASP3
415 expression (C), and apoptotic cell levels (D) in A β ₂₅₋₃₅-treated PC12 cells. Each experiment was completed
416 with a minimum of 5 replicates. Statistical significance is presented as; ## $p < 0.001$ versus Ctrl; * $p < 0.01$,
417 ** $p < 0.001$ versus A β . Abbreviations: A β , A β ₂₅₋₃₅ treatment group; C, curcumin alone; CASP3, Caspase
418 3, Ctrl, control group; CV, curcumin and vorinostat; CVS, curcumin, vorinostat, and silibinin.

419 **Figure 2. CVS pretreatment prevents A β ₂₅₋₃₅-induced oxidative stress in PC12 cells.** **A-C.** Effects of
420 CVS on ROS (A), SOD (B), and MDA levels (C). Each experiment was completed with a minimum of 5
421 replicates. Statistical significance is presented as; ## $p < 0.001$ versus Ctrl; * $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.001$ versus
422 A β . Ctrl: control group; A β : A β ₂₅₋₃₅ treatment group. Abbreviations: A β , A β ₂₅₋₃₅ treatment group; C,

423 curcumin alone; Ctrl, control group; CV, curcumin and vorinostat; CVS, curcumin, vorinostat, and silibinin.

424 **Figure 3. Effects of CVS pretreatment on the expression of critical proteins. A-C.** Effects of CVS on

425 the expression of *p*-AKT (A), *p*-BAD (B), *p*-MDM2 (C), and p53 (D) in activated A β_{25-35} -treated PC12

426 cells. Each experiment was completed with a minimum of 5 replicates. Statistical significance is presented

427 as; ## $p < 0.001$ versus Ctrl; * $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.001$ versus A β . Abbreviations: A β , A β_{25-35} treatment group;

428 AKT, AKT serine/threonine kinase; BAD, BCL2 associated agonist of cell death; C, curcumin alone; Ctrl,

429 control group; CV, curcumin and vorinostat; CVS, curcumin, vorinostat, and silibinin; MDM2, MDM2

430 proto-oncogene 2; p53, tumor protein p53.

431 **Figure 4. CVS reduced the intranuclear content of p53 in A β_{25-35} -treated PC12 cells.** Each experiment

432 was completed with a minimum of 5 replicates. Statistical significance is presented as; ## $p < 0.001$ versus

433 Ctrl; * $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.001$ versus A β .

Figure 1

CVS treatment inhibits $A\beta_{25-35}$ -induced PC12 cell apoptosis.

A. Individual effects of 9 candidate compounds on cell viability. **B-D.** Effects of CVS on cell viability (B), reversion of CASP3 expression (C), and apoptotic cell levels (D) in $A\beta_{25-35}$ -treated PC12 cells. Each experiment was completed with a minimum of 5 replicates. Statistical significance is presented as; ## $p < 0.001$ versus Ctrl; * $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.001$ versus $A\beta$. Abbreviations: $A\beta$, $A\beta_{25-35}$ treatment group; C, curcumin alone; CASP3, Caspase 3, Ctrl, control group; CV, curcumin and vorinostat; CVS, curcumin, vorinostat, and silibinin.

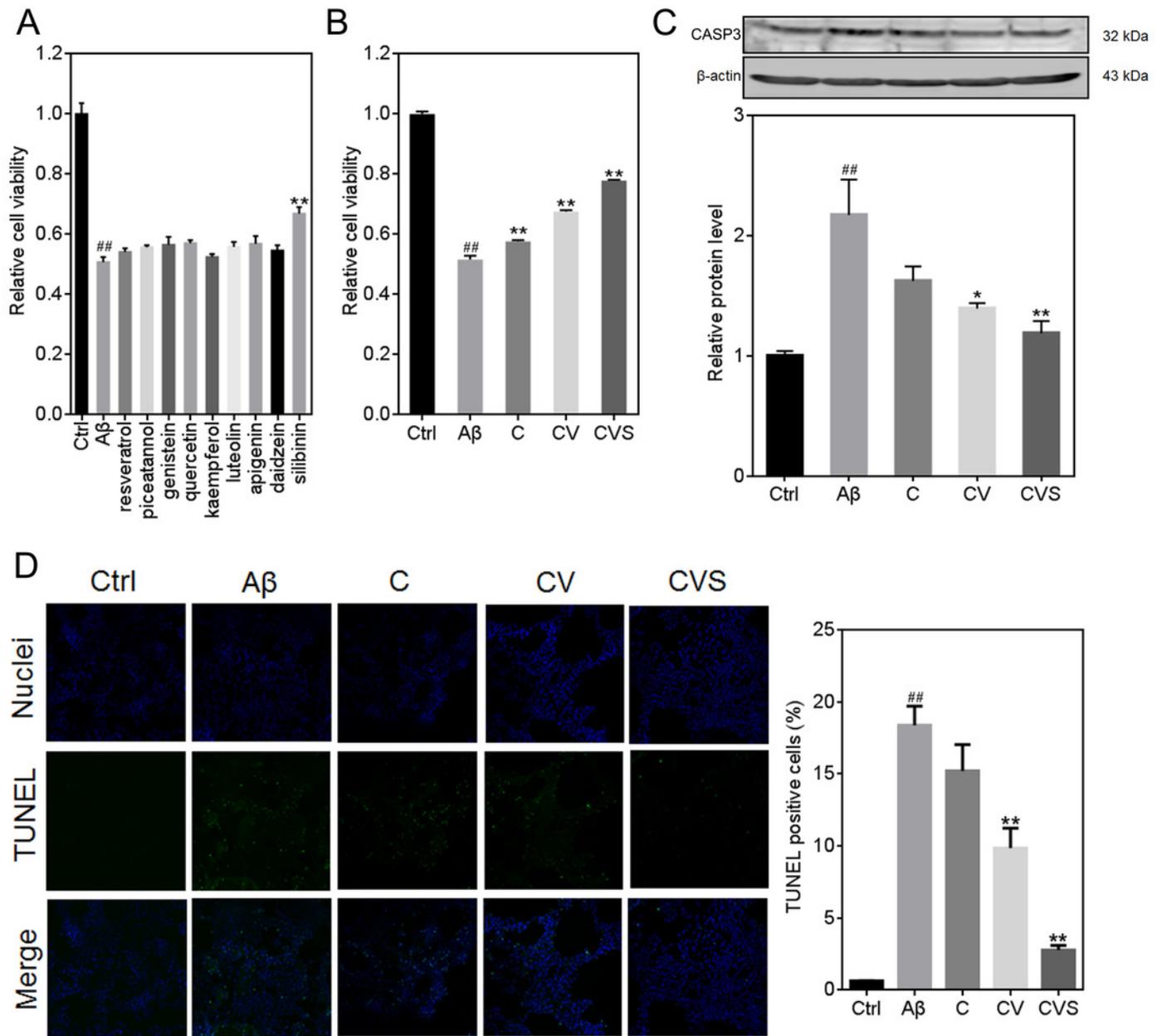


Figure 2

CVS pretreatment prevents $A\beta_{25-35}$ -induced oxidative stress in PC12 cells.

Effects of CVS on ROS (A), SOD (B), and MDA levels (C). Each experiment was completed with a minimum of 5 replicates. Statistical significance is presented as; ## $p < 0.001$ versus Ctrl; *

$p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.001$ versus $A\beta$. Ctrl: control group; $A\beta$: $A\beta_{25-35}$ treatment group.

Abbreviations: $A\beta$, $A\beta_{25-35}$ treatment group; C, curcumin alone; Ctrl, control group; CV, curcumin and vorinostat; CVS, curcumin, vorinostat, and silibinin.

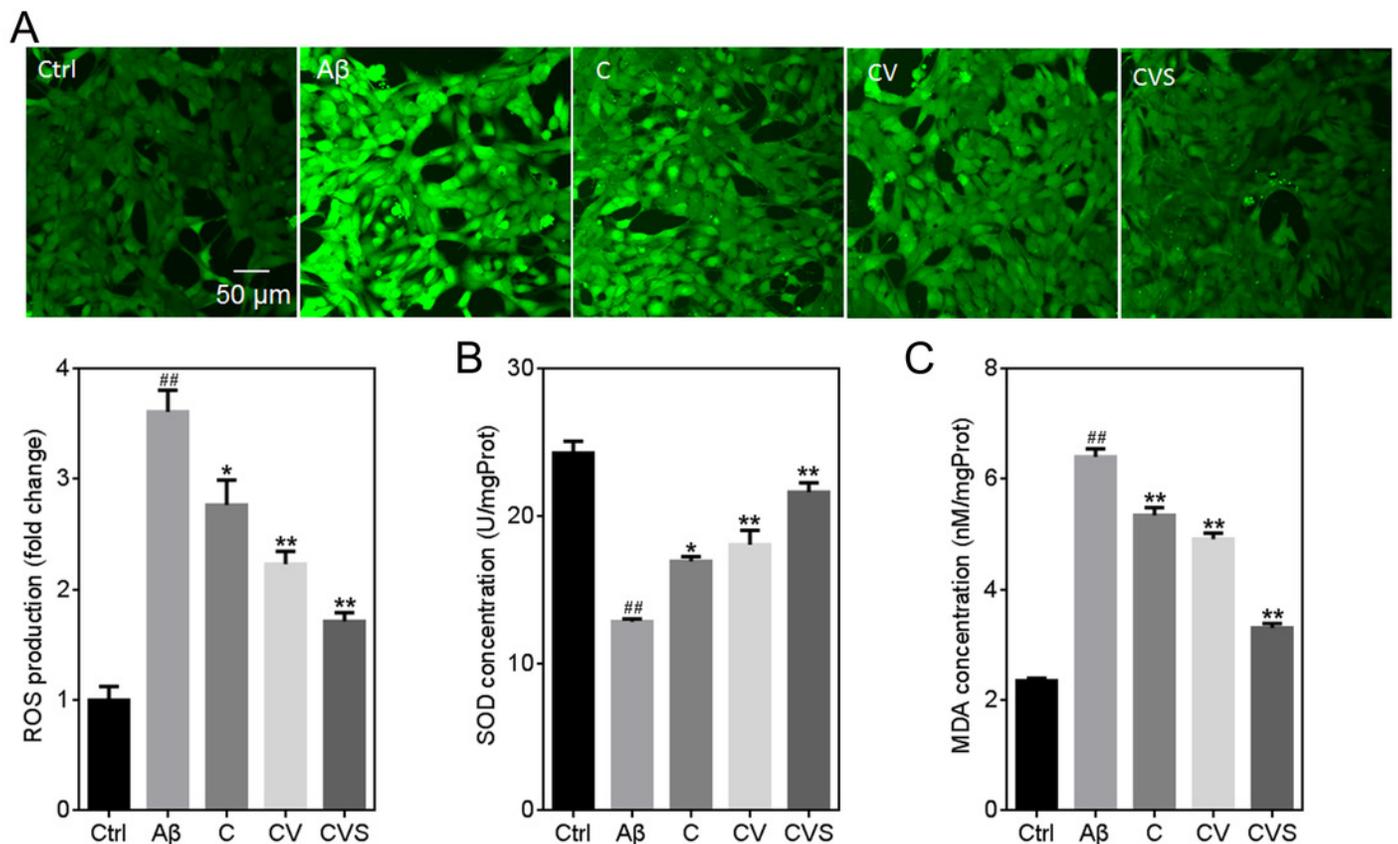


Figure 3

Effects of CVS pretreatment on the expression of critical proteins.

A-C. Effects of CVS on the expression of *p*-AKT (A), *p*-BAD (B), *p*-MDM2 (C), and p53 (D) in activated A β_{25-35} -treated PC12 cells. Each experiment was completed with a minimum of 5 replicates. Statistical significance is presented as; ## $p < 0.001$ versus Ctrl; * $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.001$ versus A β . Abbreviations: A β , A β_{25-35} treatment group; AKT, AKT serine/threonine kinase; BAD, BCL2 associated agonist of cell death; C, curcumin alone; Ctrl, control group; CV, curcumin and vorinostat; CVS, curcumin, vorinostat, and silibinin; MDM2, MDM2 proto-oncogene 2; p53, tumor protein p53.

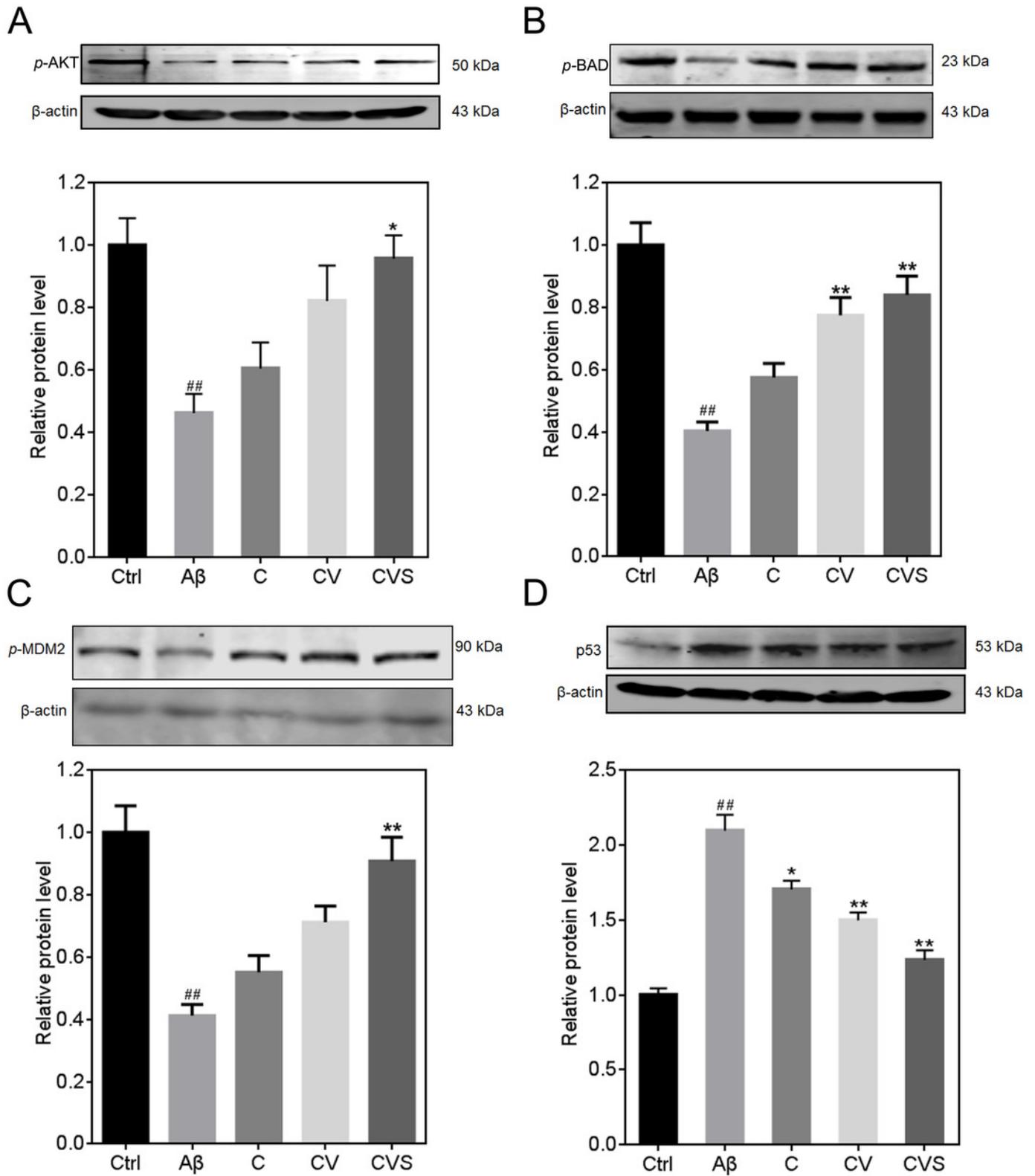


Figure 4

CVS reduced the intranuclear content of p53 in $A\beta_{25-35}$ -treated PC12 cells.

Each experiment was completed with a minimum of 5 replicates. Statistical significance is presented as; ## $p < 0.001$ versus Ctrl; * $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.001$ versus $A\beta$.

