

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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ABSTRACT

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 ($A\beta$)-induced nerve cell toxicity. Our initial experiments included a screen of nine candidate compounds; however, only silibinin reduced $A\beta_{25-35}$ -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 $A\beta_{25-35}$. 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 $A\beta_{25-35}$ exposure. In conclusion, our findings suggest that pretreatment with CVS protects PC12 cells from $A\beta_{25-35}$ -induced toxicity through modulation of the AKT/MDM2/p53 pathway. Thus, CVS may present a new therapeutic option for the treatment of AD.

INTRODUCTION

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

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

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

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

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

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

MATERIALS and METHODS

Materials

Amyloid beta-23-25 (A β_{23-25}) peptide was purchased from Chinapeptides Corporation (Shanghai, China),

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

Cell culture and treatment

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

Cell viability analysis

Cell viability was measured using the 3-[4,5-dimethylthiazol-3-yl]-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide (MTT) assay. In brief, cells were seeded in a 96-well plate at a density of 1 \times 10⁴ cells/well and treated with the compound(s) of interest, while control wells were treated with an equal volume of the vehicle. Following 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 medium was then discarded and replaced with 100 μ L dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) to dissolve the crystals. The optical density was then measured at 490 nm using a multi-mode microplate reader (SpectraMax M5, Molecular Devices Company, California, United States).

Determination of reactive oxygen species (ROS) levels

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

μM) alone; a two-drug combination of curcumin (5 μM) and vorinostat (0.5 μM); or a three-drug combination of curcumin (5 μM), vorinostat (0.5 μM), and silibinin (1 μM). Following the pretreatment, Aβ₂₃₋₂₅ peptide was added to induce cell apoptosis, and intracellular ROS generation was assessed using a reactive oxygen species assay kit (Nanjing Jiancheng Institute of Biotechnology, China) according to the manufacturer's instructions. In brief, PC12 cells were washed twice with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) and then incubated with 10 μM of 2',7'-dichlorodihydrofluorescein diacetate (DCFH-DA) dye in serum-free DMEM-F12 for 1 h at 37 °C. The cells were washed with PBS and fluorescence was observed at 488 nm and recorded using confocal microscopy. Semi-quantification of ROS levels was evaluated by using ImageJ software.

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

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

Western blotting assay

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

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

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

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

Pretreated cells were then exposed to 20 μ M of A β_{23-25} for 24 h 37°C and 5% CO₂. Cells were washed twice with PBS followed by fixation with 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA) at room temperature. Fixed cells were washed twice with PBS buffer, treated with 0.1% TritonX-100 to permeate cells, and then washed twice with PBS. Next, the TUNEL reaction mixture (Beyotime Institute of Biotechnology, Shanghai, China) was added to the samples, and the cells were incubated for 60 min at 37°C in a dark, humidified atmosphere. Negative controls were prepared with equal volumes of labeling solution. After this incubation, the confocal dishes (NEST, Wuxi, China) were rinsed twice with PBS. Finally, samples were analyzed using a confocal Laser Scanning Biological microscope FV1000 (Olympus, Tokyo, Japan) at the excitation wavelength of 488 nm.

Immunofluorescence staining assay

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

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

Statistical analysis

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

RESULTS

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

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

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

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

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

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

DISCUSSION

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

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

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

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

candidates, as many natural compounds are known to regulate this pathway (Jazvinščak et al., 2018). In our study, nine natural compounds were screened for their ability to inhibit the cytotoxic effects of excessive A β deposits in PC12 cells. Accordingly, 1 μ M silibinin demonstrated the greatest activity in the drug screen.

Subsequent experiments revealed that the addition of silibinin to our previously established drug combination (curcumin and vorinostat) enhanced the neuroprotective effects of this combination by activating the AKT/MDM2/p53 axis. The potent activity of this three-drug combination at low concentrations suggests synergistic drug interactions and is consistent with the results in our previous study (Meng et al., 2014). Compared to monotherapies, synergistic drug combinations possess many inherent advantages, including lower doses, multi-target regulation, and a reduced risk of drug resistance development (Zimmermann et al., 2007; Lehár et al., 2009; Jia et al., 2009). More importantly, the three drugs investigated in this study are all commercially available. Thus, the CVS treatment regimen is economically feasible for late-stage drug development.

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

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

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

CONCLUSIONS

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

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

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411

FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. CVS treatment inhibits A β 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 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; C, curcumin alone; CASP3, Caspase 3, Ctrl, control group; CV, curcumin and vorinostat; CVS, curcumin, vorinostat, and silibinin.

Figure 2. CVS pretreatment prevents A β ₂₅₋₃₅-induced oxidative stress in PC12 cells. **A-C.** 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 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.

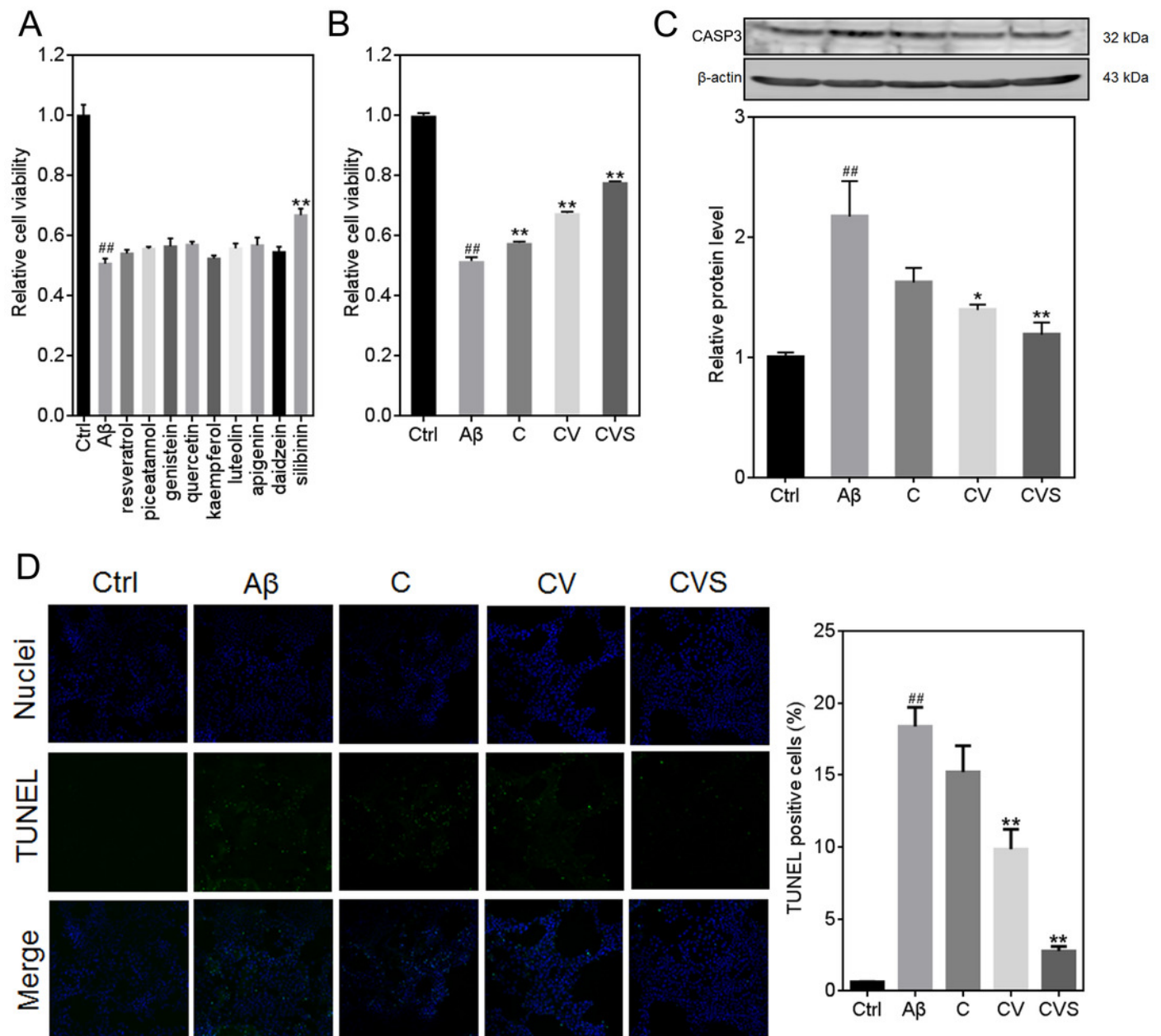


Figure 2

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.

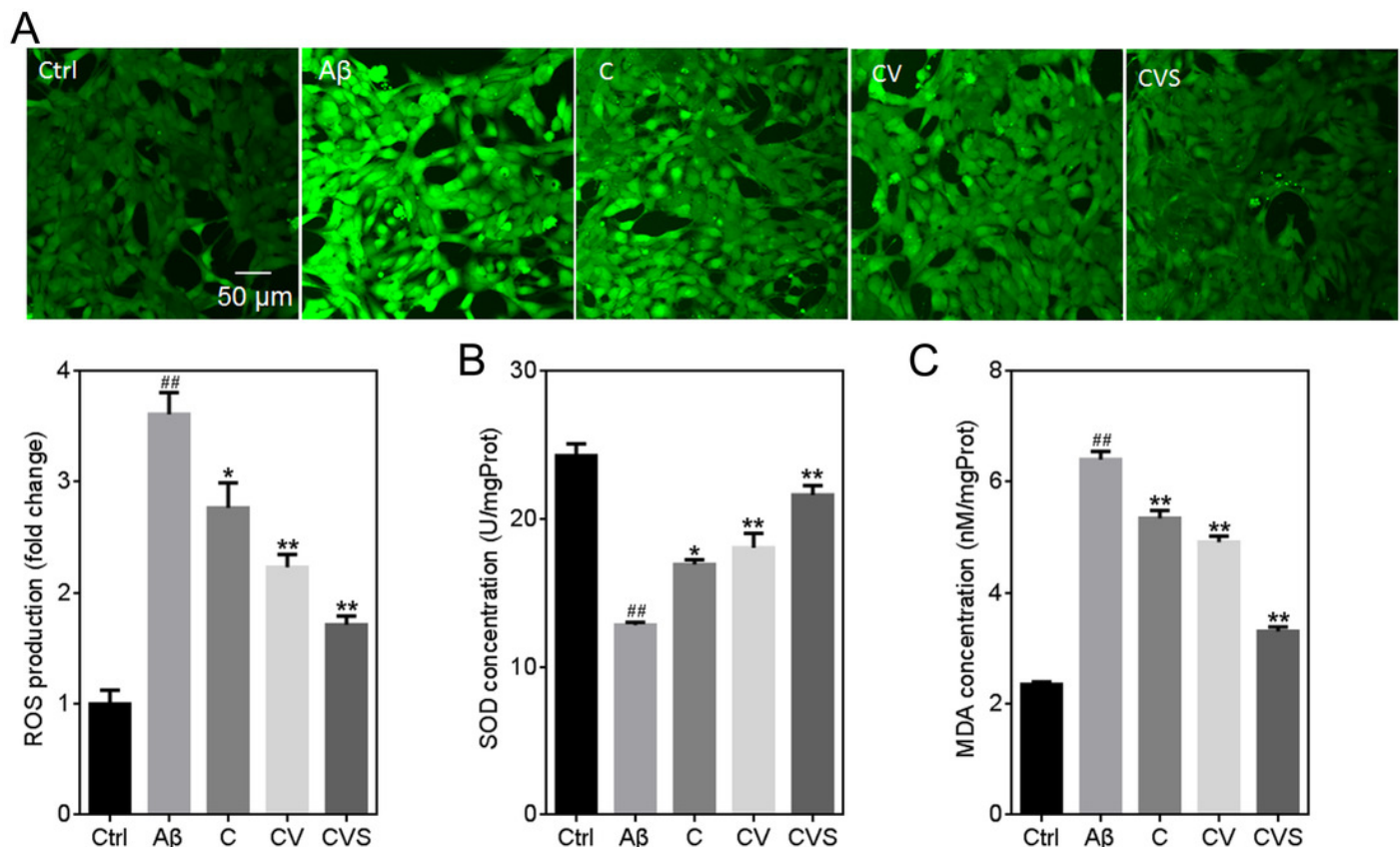


Figure 3

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.

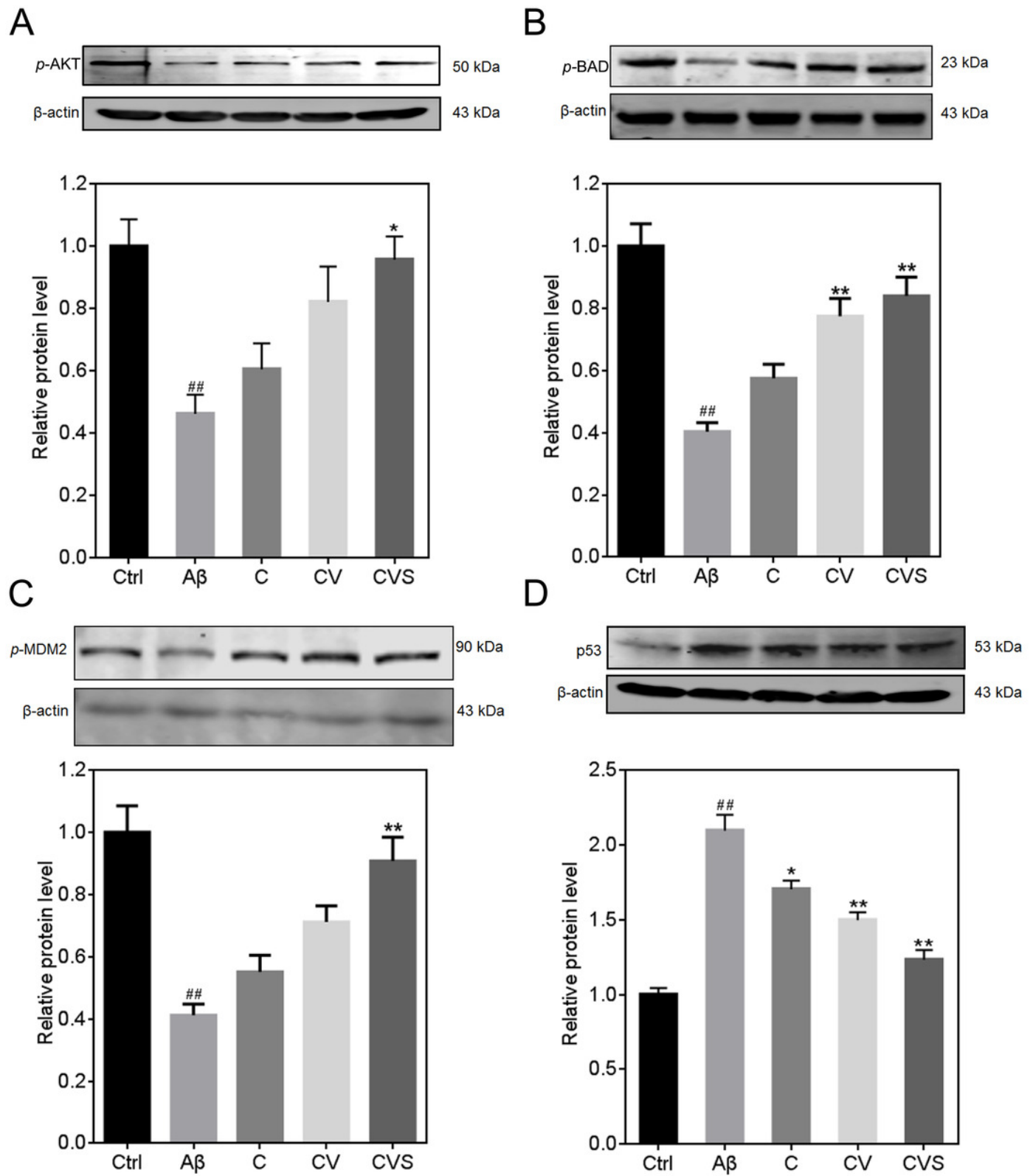


Figure 4

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 $A\beta$.

