

## Possible involvement of $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ signaling in rotenone-induced apoptosis in human neuroblastoma SH-SY5Y cells

Xin-Jian Wang, Jian-Xing Xu\*

*Institute of Biophysics, Chinese Academy of Sciences, 15 Datun Road, Chaoyang District, Beijing 100101, China*

Received 14 September 2004; received in revised form 14 November 2004; accepted 16 November 2004

### Abstract

Rotenone, an inhibitor of mitochondrial respiratory chain complex I, is a useful tool to elicit animal model of Parkinson's disease. Rotenone-induced neuronal apoptosis may contribute to the etiology of Parkinson's disease. However, the mechanism of rotenone-induced apoptosis is not fully understood. In the present study, we show that  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signaling is essential for rotenone-induced apoptosis in human neuroblastoma SH-SY5Y cells. By using Fluo-3/AM and Fura-2/AM, the fluorescent calcium indicator, rotenone was found to cause a rise in intracellular free  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  ( $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ ). The intracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  chelator BAPTA attenuated rotenone-induced apoptosis. Notably,  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  suppression also prevented rotenone-induced apoptotic related events including reactive oxygen species production, G2/M cell cycle arrest and caspase activation, suggesting that  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signaling is upstream to these events. In the absence of extracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ , the rotenone-induced  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$  elevation was inhibited. Further, the voltage-dependent  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channel blocker nifedipine suppressed most of the elevation of  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$  induced by rotenone. These results demonstrate that rotenone leads to an elevation in  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$  through  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  influx by the opening of voltage-gated  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channel. This study of rotenone may help to elucidate the neurodegenerative mechanisms in Parkinson's disease.

© 2004 Elsevier Ireland Ltd. All rights reserved.

**Keywords:** Rotenone; Apoptosis;  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  influx; G2/M cell cycle arrest; SH-SY5Y cells; BAPTA

Many studies have shown that oxidative stress and mitochondrial dysfunction are involved in the pathogenesis of Parkinson's disease. Mitochondrial dysfunction is suggested by a partial inhibition (20–40%) of respiratory chain complex I activity [16]. Rotenone, a plant-derived insecticide, is a specific inhibitor of mitochondrial complex I [19]. In rats rotenone has been shown to produce effects that closely resemble Parkinson's disease [6]. It is noteworthy that rotenone induces apoptosis in neural cells, which may contribute to the etiology of Parkinson's disease. Nakamura et al. showed the activation of both mitochondria- and endoplasmic reticulum-dependent caspase pathways in rotenone-induced apoptosis [11]. However, the mechanism underlying the induction of apoptosis by rotenone has not been well clarified. The studies of rotenone-induced apoptosis may also help to elucidate the neurodegenerative mechanisms in Parkinson's disease.

Apoptosis is a highly regulated cell death program that is induced in cells as a suicide response to unfavorable growth conditions or to exposure to pro-apoptotic external stimuli. The process of apoptosis is regulated by cell surface signals and expression of specific intracellular proteins.  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  has been strongly implicated in induction of apoptosis and regulation of the apoptotic signaling pathways. Negre-Salvayre and Salvayre demonstrated the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  dependence of apoptosis as well as the protective effect of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channel blockers and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  chelators [12]. During apoptosis, a variety of toxic insults, ultimately lead to cell death, are associated with increasing intracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  concentration ( $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ ) [12,13]. Intracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  seems to be an important component of the mechanism of apoptosis.  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signaling is upstream to certain pathways that lead to apoptosis. Elevated  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$  activates  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -dependent protein kinases and phosphatases during apoptosis [4].  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  has been also found to act on cell cycle at multiple points, including the reentry of quiescent cells into proliferation and the transition through G1/S, G2/M and the metaphase/anaphase boundaries [18].

\* Corresponding author. Tel.: +86 10 64888504; fax: +86 10 64871293.  
E-mail address: [xujx@sun5.ibp.ac.cn](mailto:xujx@sun5.ibp.ac.cn) (J.-X. Xu).

Given that excessive elevation in intracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  levels is a major factor leading to apoptosis in many cell types, we performed the present experiments to test the role of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signaling in rotenone-induced apoptosis in human neuroblastoma SH-SY5Y cells.

SH-SY5Y cells were cultured in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM) supplemented with 1% (v/v) penicillin, 10% (v/v) fetal bovine serum, 5%  $\text{CO}_2$  at  $37^\circ\text{C}$ . Apoptosis was evaluated by using an Annexin V-FITC apoptosis detection kit (BD Biosciences Pharmingen). Briefly, cells were stained with annexin V-FITC and propidium iodide (PI). After incubation at room temperature in the dark, samples were analyzed on a flow cytometer (Becton Dickinson FACS Vantage SE, USA). This assay discriminates between intact (annexin  $\text{V}^-/\text{PI}^-$ ), early apoptotic (annexin  $\text{V}^+/\text{PI}^-$ ), and late apoptotic and necrotic cells (annexin  $\text{V}^+/\text{PI}^+$ ).

Intracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  levels were determined with the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -sensitive fluorochrome Fluo-3/AM and Fura-2/AM (Molecular Probes). After exposure to rotenone at various concentrations for various times, cells were harvested by centrifugation, and then loaded with Fluo-3/AM ( $2\ \mu\text{M}$ ) or Fura-2/AM ( $2\ \mu\text{M}$ ) in serum-free DMEM at  $37^\circ\text{C}$  for 30 min. Cells were analyzed by a Becton Dickinson FACS Calibur flow cytometer (for Fluo-3) or a HITACHI F4500 fluorescence spectrophotometer (for Fura-2). Calibration of the fluorescence versus  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$  was performed as described [2,8]. At the end of each experiment,  $2\ \mu\text{M}$  ionomycin or 10 nM digitonin was added to permeabilize the cells, resulting in the maximal fluorescence of Fluo-3 and Fura-2, respectively. The minimal fluorescence was determined by the addition of 5 mM EGTA.

Kinetic study of rise in intracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  was conducted as follows. SH-SY5Y cells were loaded with  $5\ \mu\text{M}$  Fluo-3/AM dye at  $37^\circ\text{C}$  for 30 min, and then washed free of extracellular Fluo-3/AM dye and resuspended in Krebs-Ringer-HEPES (KRH) buffer (131 mM NaCl, 5 mM KCl, 1.3 mM  $\text{MgSO}_4$ , 1.3 mM  $\text{CaCl}_2$ , 0.4 mM  $\text{KH}_2\text{PO}_4$ , 6 mM glucose, 20 mM HEPES, pH 7.4). Fluorescence was determined using a HITACHI F4500 fluorescence spectrophotometer with excitation and emission wavelengths of 488 nm and 525 nm, respectively. Treatment with rotenone was initiated after 1 min, and the increase in fluorescence was recorded for 9 min. Where the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channel blocker nifedipine was used, cells were pretreated with nifedipine for 10 min before rotenone exposure.

Intracellular reactive oxygen species (ROS) was monitored by using the fluorescent probe DCFDA (Sigma-Aldrich). After treatment, cells were incubated with  $10\ \mu\text{M}$  DCFDA in DMEM at  $37^\circ\text{C}$  for 30 min, then washed twice with PBS, and finally the DCF fluorescence intensity was measured in a microplate-reader (Fluoroskan Ascent Thermo Labsystems) at excitation wavelength 485 nm and the emission wavelength 538 nm.

Cell cycle distribution was analyzed by flow cytometry. Cells were fixed with ice-cold 70% ethanol overnight. Fixed cells were washed with PBS, followed by treatment with

RNase A (0.1 mg/ml) at  $37^\circ\text{C}$  for 30 min. Cells were stained with PI (0.5 mg/ml PI, 1% Triton x-100, 0.9% NaCl) in the dark at room temperature for 30 min. PI-stained cells were analyzed by flow cytometry. The data were processed for cell cycle distribution analysis by Modfit V 3.0 software.

Caspase activity was determined by using acetyl-Asp-Glu-Val-Asp-aldehyde-AFC (Clontech USA), a pseudosubstrate used to measure caspase activity (mainly for caspase-3). In the presence of caspase, this substrate is cleaved to the fluorochrome 7-amino-4-trifluoromethyl coumarin (AFC), which is quantified by measuring fluorescence intensity with a F-4500 HITACHI fluorescence spectrophotometer (400 nm excitation and 505 nm emission).

All results were expressed as mean  $\pm$  S.E.M. Significance testing was performed by means of Student's *t*-tests. Differences between groups were considered significant at a value of  $P < 0.05$ .

The effect of rotenone on SH-SY5Y cell apoptosis was examined by annexin V-FITC-based flow cytometry. The data showed that rotenone increased the percentage of cells undergoing apoptosis (annexin  $\text{V}^+/\text{PI}^-$ ) and decreased the number of viable cells (annexin  $\text{V}^-/\text{PI}^-$ ) in a time- and dose-dependent manner (Fig. 1A). Recent studies suggested that the mechanism by which cells commit to apoptosis is related with the cell cycle [10]. In this study, we examined the effect of rotenone on the progression of cell cycle. The results showed that incubation of SH-SY5Y cells with rotenone caused a rise in the number of cells in the G2/M phase of the cell cycle and a concomitant decrease in G1 phase cells (Fig. 1B). When SH-SY5Y cells were exposed to

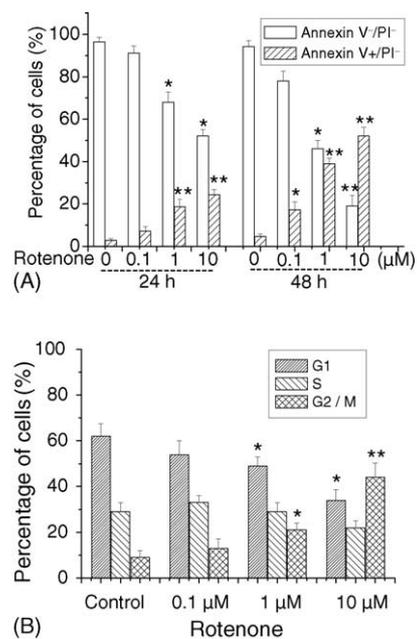


Fig. 1. Rotenone-induced apoptosis and cell cycle arrest by flow cytometry. Rotenone induced (A) apoptotic death in SH-SY5Y cells and (B) G2/M arrest of SH-SY5Y cells. Cells were exposed to different concentrations of rotenone for 24 h. Data are mean  $\pm$  S.E.M. ( $n = 3$ ). \*  $P < 0.05$ , \*\*  $P < 0.01$  vs. control.

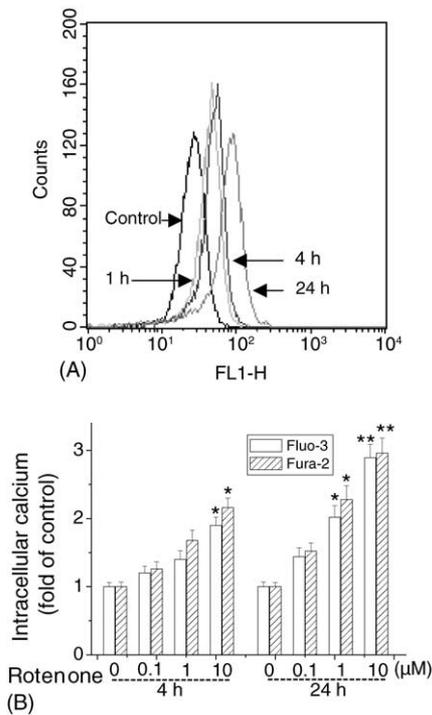


Fig. 2. Rotenone-mediated increase in cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  in SH-SY5Y cells. Intracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  levels were determined using flow cytometry with Fluo-3/AM fluorescent dye and spectrofluorometry with Fura-2/AM, respectively. (A) Effect of 10  $\mu\text{M}$  rotenone on Fluo-3 fluorescence for up to 24 h and (B) statistic data of intracellular calcium in response to rotenone treatment normalized to control. Results are mean  $\pm$  S.E.M. ( $n=3$ ). \* $P<0.05$ , \*\* $P<0.01$  vs. control.

various concentrations of rotenone for 24 h, cells were progressively blocked in the G2/M phase of the cell cycle in a dose-dependent manner.

Increases in intracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  levels have been reported in many experimental models of apoptosis [12,13]. Therefore, we used the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -sensitive fluorescence probe Fluo-3/AM and Fura-2/AM to monitor alterations in the intracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  by flow cytometry and spectrofluorometry, respectively. When SH-SY5Y cells were exposed to 10  $\mu\text{M}$  rotenone for up to 24 h, the histogram of Fluo-3 fluorescence shifted to a higher intensity (Fig. 2A), indicating an increase in  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$  over time. To determine the dose–response relationship, the effect of 0.1–10  $\mu\text{M}$  rotenone was tested for 4 h and 24 h. As shown in Fig. 2B,  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$  increased in a dose-dependent manner at both treatment times. These results suggest that rotenone elevates  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$  in a time- and dose-dependent manner.

To determine the basis of the rise in  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$  mediated by rotenone, we studied the increase in fluorescence using a spectrofluorometer. SH-SY5Y cells were preloaded with 5  $\mu\text{M}$  Fluo-3/AM fluorescent dye before rotenone treatment. The increase in fluorescence was detected after rotenone was added to cells suspended in KRH buffer as shown in Fig. 3A (top trace). Experiments were also carried out in  $\text{CaCl}_2$ -free KRH buffer. Little increase in fluorescence was observed when rotenone was added to cells suspended in  $\text{CaCl}_2$ -

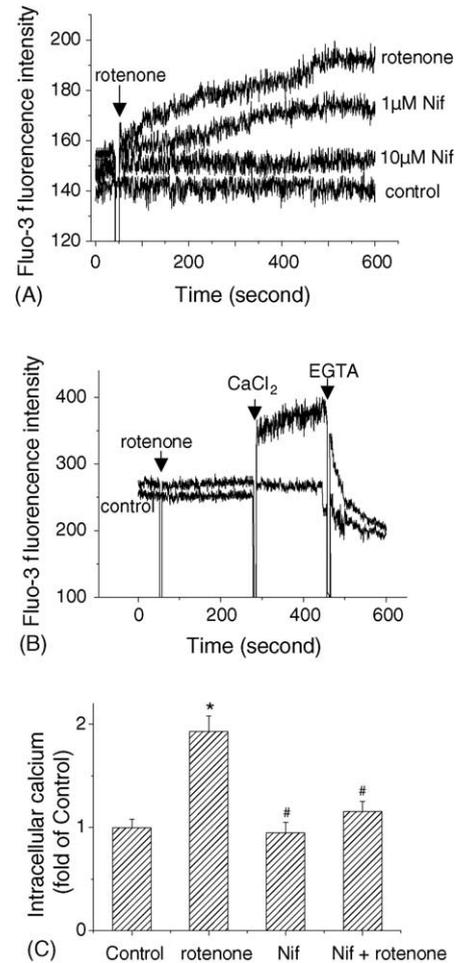


Fig. 3. Rotenone mediated rise in  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$  through a voltage-dependent  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channel. SH-SY5Y cells were preloaded with Fluo-3/AM fluorescent dye before exposure to rotenone. (A) Kinetic study of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  mobilization using a F-4500 spectrofluorometer. Nifedipine (Nif), a voltage-dependent  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channel blocker, was applied at 1 and 10  $\mu\text{M}$  to test its inhibitory effect on the rise of cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ . (B) Kinetic study on  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  mobilization in SH-SY5Y cells suspended in KRH buffer ( $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  free). Rotenone was added, followed by  $\text{CaCl}_2$  (1 mM), and subsequently, the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  chelator EGTA (2 mM). (C) Effect of nifedipine (Nif) on rotenone-induced  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$  elevation by using a flow cytometer. SH-SY5Y cells were pretreated with Nif (2  $\mu\text{M}$ ) for 30 min before rotenone exposure for 4 h at 37  $^{\circ}\text{C}$ . \* $P<0.05$  vs. control; # $P<0.05$  vs. rotenone alone.

free KRH buffer (Fig. 3B). However, a rapid increase and decrease in fluorescence were detected, respectively, when  $\text{CaCl}_2$  (1 mM) and the calcium chelator EGTA (2 mM) were added to the cell suspension. Our data suggest that the rise in  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$  is due to the  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  influx from the medium. From these results, we hypothesize that pretreatment with rotenone might cause the opening of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channels, allowing rapid influx of extracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ .

To test this hypothesis, the classic voltage-gated  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channels, which might be involved in rotenone-induced  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  influx, were investigated. When SH-SY5Y cells were treated with the voltage-dependent  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channel blocker nifedipine (Nif) 10 min prior to rotenone treatment, as shown in Fig. 3A, the rotenone-induced  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  influx was found to be

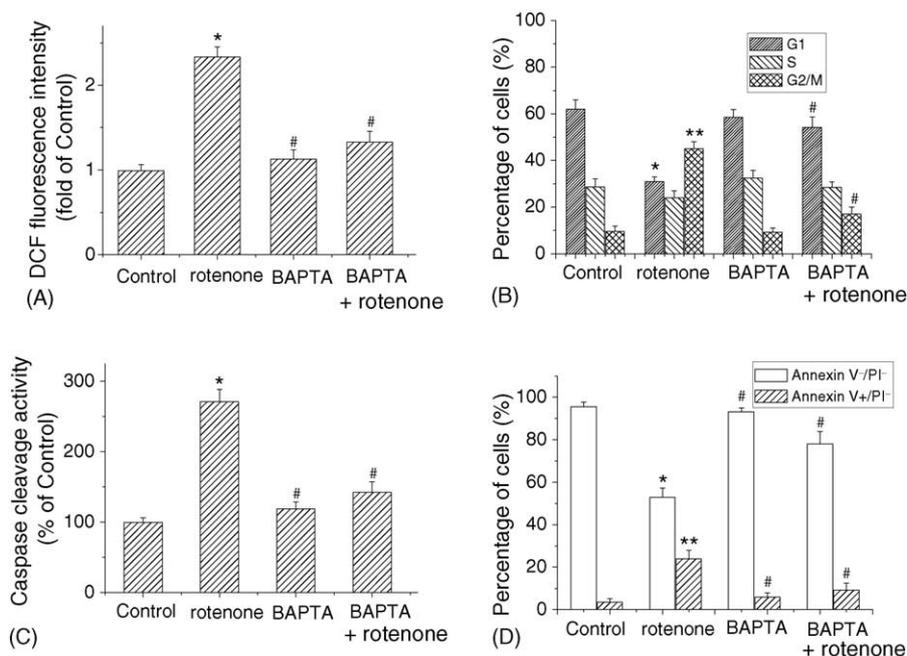


Fig. 4. The effect of intracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  chelator BAPTA on intracellular events associated with rotenone-induced apoptosis in SH-SY5Y cells. BAPTA ( $2 \mu\text{M}$ ) was applied 30 min before the addition of  $10 \mu\text{M}$  rotenone for 24 h incubation. (A) Effect of BAPTA on rotenone-induced ROS generation evaluated by the fluorescence intensity of DCF. (B) BAPTA alleviates G2/M cell cycle arrest induced by rotenone. (C) BAPTA inhibited rotenone-induced increase in caspase activity measured by fluorometric assay. (D) BAPTA ameliorated the percentage of rotenone-induced apoptotic cells detected by flow cytometry. Data are expressed as mean  $\pm$  S.E.M. \* $P < 0.05$ , \*\* $P < 0.01$  vs. control; # $P < 0.05$  vs. rotenone alone treatment.

attenuated in a concentration-dependent manner. This suggests that rotenone activates the opening of voltage-gated  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channels in SH-SY5Y cells, leading to  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  influx. Although nifedipine binds with high affinity to calcium channels, it can also interact with some other cellular structures at the concentrations used [20], which may explain why the effect of nifedipine on  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$  did not correspond very well with the expected sensitivity of calcium channels in Fig. 3A. The effect of nifedipine was also investigated by flow cytometry,  $2 \mu\text{M}$  nifedipine was needed to block  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  influx ( $P < 0.05$ ) mediated by rotenone (Fig. 3C). This result implicated the involvement of voltage-gated  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channel in rotenone-induced  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  influx as well.

In several reports addressing the rotenone-induced apoptosis, the activation of apoptotic cascades was attributed to signaling events other than  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  elevation, such as the increase of ROS [14]. In order to determine the relationship between  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  and the major apoptotic pathways, SH-SY5Y cells were pretreated with the intracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  chelator BAPTA/AM ( $2 \mu\text{M}$ ) for 30 min before exposure to  $10 \mu\text{M}$  rotenone for 24 h. As oxidative stress and changes in  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$  are intimately related, the relationships between ROS generation and the increase in  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$  was investigated following rotenone treatment. As shown in Fig. 4A, BAPTA treatment significantly reduced rotenone-induced ROS production. At the concentration tested, BAPTA reduced 61% of rotenone-induced ROS. On the other hand, although catalase reduced rotenone-induced ROS markedly, it does not decrease  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$  elevation (data not shown). These results imply that  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  is

involved in rotenone-induced ROS generation in SH-SY5Y cells.  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  plays an important role in regulating cell cycle [18]. As shown in Fig. 4B, pretreatment of BAPTA/AM ( $2 \mu\text{M}$ ) suppressed rotenone-induced G2/M cell cycle arrest.

As activation of caspases is the key steps of the apoptosis process, its activity was examined by fluorometric assay in this study. The effect of BAPTA on MPP<sup>+</sup>-induced caspases activation is shown in Fig. 4C. BAPTA attenuated rotenone-induced activity of caspase from 271% to 142%. As shown in Fig. 4D, BAPTA greatly ameliorated rotenone-induced apoptosis detected by flow cytometry. The number of apoptotic cells decreased from  $24.2 \pm 2.1\%$  to  $9.2 \pm 1.3\%$ . Since BAPTA alone did not interfere with apoptosis, the data indicate that intracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  is clearly involved in the rotenone-induced apoptotic processes in SH-SY5Y cells.

In the present study, we demonstrate the important role of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  during the rotenone-induced apoptosis. Our findings are as follows: (1) rotenone-induced apoptosis is largely  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -dependent; (2) the rise of  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$  is mainly due to  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  influx via the voltage-gated  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channel; and (3) the increased intracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  is involved in rotenone-induced apoptotic events.

Increases in intracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  levels have been reported in many experimental models of apoptosis [12,13]. Our current results show that rotenone treatment results in a concentration-dependent rise in intracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  in SH-SY5Y cells. Previous studies showed that the major pathway of intracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  increase are  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  influx from the extracellular space and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release from intracellular calcium

store. These two pathways appeared to be involved in the source of intracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  increase associated with apoptosis. Our results with  $\text{CaCl}_2$ -free KRH buffer and EGTA demonstrated that rotenone induced the influx of extracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  in SH-SY5Y cells. Nifedipine, a blocker of voltage-dependent  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channel, was shown to inhibit the rotenone-induced extracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  influx, suggesting the involvement of voltage-gated  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channel in  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  influx. Recently, Bonsi et al. reported that a significant  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$  rise matched the cell membrane depolarizing phase in striatal cholinergic interneurons treated by rotenone [5]. Thus, we hypothesize that rotenone might cause a rapid  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  influx through voltage-gated channels that are activated by depolarizing the cell membrane.

Several recent studies have reported the involvement of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  in apoptotic processes [12,13]. The elevations in intracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  cause proapoptotic protein expression [12]. The rise of  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$  has been demonstrated to cause mitochondrial inner transmembrane potential collapse and to induce the release of cytochrome *c* [9]. Interestingly, previous studies showed that rotenone causes mitochondrial inner transmembrane potential collapse and cytochrome *c* release, and then activates of caspase-3 [14]. In the present study, we found that lowering  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$  with an intracellular chelator (BAPTA) attenuated rotenone-induced caspase activation and apoptotic death in SH-SY5Y cells. BAPTA suppressed the activation of caspase induced by rotenone, suggesting that  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  may act upstream to caspase. These data indicate that rotenone-induced apoptosis is mediated, at least in part, by elevation of  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ , suggesting the involvement of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  signaling in the apoptotic process evoked by rotenone.

In this study, we show that rotenone gives rise to cell cycle arrest predominantly at the G2/M checkpoint. This result agrees with the results of Armstrong et al. on human B lymphoma PW cell lines [1]. We speculated that rotenone-induced apoptosis of SH-SY5Y cells might occur at G2/M phase or in the process of transition from S to G2/M phase. Rotenone-induced G2/M arrest was blocked by pretreatment of BAPTA, indicating the involvement of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  in cell cycle arrest.

The rotenone-induced ROS production was reduced in the presence of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  chelator BAPTA, indicating that  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  is involved in the generation of ROS induced by rotenone. Sousa et al. reported that  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  stimulated rotenone-induced increase of ROS production in isolated rat forebrain mitochondria [17]. Here, the question has been raised how rotenone induces generation of ROS. Rotenone blocks electron flow through respiratory chain complex I, followed by enhancement of  $\text{O}_2^{\bullet-}$  formation [19]. It appears to be the primary mechanism of rotenone-induced formation of  $\text{O}_2^{\bullet-}$ , which can rapidly evolve to  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ . The ability of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  to stimulate mitochondrial ROS generation may be attributed to an increased lipid packing and lipid domain formation that may contribute to electron leakage from the respiratory chain complex I [7]. Saeko et al. demonstrated that NADPH oxidase also served as a source of rotenone-induced ROS generation [14]. The ac-

tivity of NADPH oxidase could be regulated by intracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  [15]. On the other hand, Bhattacharyya et al. showed that the rise of  $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$  accompanied the decrease in the activity of antioxidant enzymes [2], indicating an interesting possibility that the cells treated by rotenone may have a calcium-inactivated mechanism for removing ROS. Oxygen stress and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  influx to the cytosol, has been proposed to play an important role in the neuropathology of Parkinson's disease [3]. Under these conditions,  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -stimulated ROS release may be an important link between the partial mitochondrial complex I inhibition and the oxidative damage observed in Parkinson's disease.

The present study may provide insight into the mechanism of Parkinson's disease etiology. Further detailed studies in the mechanisms of rotenone-induced apoptosis are necessary before definite conclusions can be drawn.

## References

- [1] J.S. Armstrong, B. Hornung, P. Lecane, D.P. Jonnes, S.J. Knox, Rotenone-induced G2/M cell cycle arrest and apoptosis in human B lymphoma cell line PW, *Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun.* 289 (2001) 973–978.
- [2] S. Bhattacharyya, S. Ghosh, J. Shant, N.K. Ganguly, S. Majumdar, Role of the W07-toxin on *Vibrio cholerae*-induced diarrhea, *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 1670 (2004) 69–80.
- [3] F. Blandini, G. Nappi, J.T. Greenamyre, Subthalamic infusion of an NMDA antagonist prevents basal ganglia metabolic changes and nigral degeneration in a rodent model of Parkinson's disease, *Ann. Neurol.* 49 (2001) 525–529.
- [4] N. Bonnefoy-Berard, L. Genestier, M. Flacher, J.P. Revillard, The phosphoprotein phosphatase calcineurin controls calcium-dependent apoptosis in B cell lines, *Eur. J. Immunol.* 24 (1994) 324–329.
- [5] P. Bonsi, P. Calabresi, C.D. Persis, M. Papa, D. Centonze, G. Bernardi, A. Disani, Early ionic and membrane potential changes caused by the pesticide rotenone in striatal cholinergic interneurons, *Exp. Neurol.* 185 (2004) 169–181.
- [6] J.T. Greenamyre, T.B. Sherer, R. Betarbet, A.V. Panov, Complex I and Parkinson's disease, *IUBMB Life* 52 (2001) 135–141.
- [7] M.T. Grijalba, A.E. Vercesi, S. Schreier,  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -induced increased lipid packing and domain formation in submitochondrial particles, a possible early step in the mechanism of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -stimulated, *Biochemistry* 38 (1999) 13279–13287.
- [8] J.P. Kao, A.T. Harootunian, R.Y. Tsien, Photochemically generated cytosolic calcium pulses and their detection by Fluo-3, *J. Biol. Chem.* 264 (1989) 8179–8184.
- [9] A.R. Means, Regulatory cascades involving calmodulin-dependent protein kinases, *Mol. Endocrinol.* 14 (2000) 4–13.
- [10] W. Meikrantz, R. Schlegel, Apoptosis and the cell cycle, *J. Cell Biochem.* 58 (1995) 160–174.
- [11] K. Nakamura, Y. Kitamura, D. Tsuchiya, M. Inden, T. Taniguchi, In vitro neurodegeneration model: dopaminergic toxin-induced apoptosis in human SH-SY5Y cells, *Int. Congress Ser.* 1260 (2004) 287–290.
- [12] A. Negre-Salvayre, R. Salvayre, UV-treated lipoproteins as a model system for the study of biological effects of lipid peroxides on cultured cells, *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 1123 (1992) 207–215.
- [13] P. Nicotera, S. Orrenius, The role of calcium in apoptosis, *Cell Calcium* 23 (1998) 173–180.
- [14] T.O. Saeko, H. Yusuke, K. Michiko, K. Shosuke, Mechanism for generation of hydrogen peroxide and change of mitochondrial membrane

- potential during rotenone-induced apoptosis, *Life Sci.* 73 (2003) 3277–3288.
- [15] N. Sakaguchi, M. Inoue, Y. Ogihara, Reactive oxygen species and intracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ , common signals for apoptosis induced by gallic acid, *Biochem. Pharmacol.* 55 (1998) 1973–1981.
- [16] A.H. Schapira, J.M. Cooper, D. Dexter, J.B. Clark, P. Jenner, C.D. Marsden, Mitochondrial complex I deficiency in Parkinson's disease, *J. Neurochem.* 54 (1990) 823–827.
- [17] S.C. Sousa, E.N. Maciel, A.E. Vercesi, R.F. Castilho,  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -induced oxidative stress in brain mitochondria treated with the respiratory chain inhibitor rotenone, *FEBS Lett.* 543 (2003) 179–183.
- [18] N. Takuwa, W. Zhou, Y. Takuwa, Calcium, calmodulin and cell cycle progression, *Cell. Signal.* 7 (1995) 93–104.
- [19] J.F. Turrens, A. Boveris, Generation of superoxide anion by the NADH dehydrogenase of bovine heart mitochondria, *Biochem. J.* 191 (1980) 421–427.
- [20] G. Zernig, Widening potential for  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  antagonists: non-L-type  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channel interaction, *Trends Pharmacol. Sci.* 11 (1990) 38–44.