

UNIVERSIDADE FEDERAL DO RIO GRANDE DO SUL  
INSTITUTO DE BIOCIÊNCIAS  
PROGRAMA DE PÓS-GRADUAÇÃO EM BIOLOGIA CELULAR E  
MOLECULAR  
TESE DE DOUTORADO

**Influência da inibição de Poli (ADP-ribose) polimerase-1  
(PARP-1) na toxicidade induzida pelos quimioterápicos  
doxorrubicina e mitoxantrona em células cardíacas**

Roberto Marques Damiani

Porto Alegre, setembro de 2016

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Tese de doutorado submetida ao  
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## **ESTRUTURA DA TESE**

O texto encontra-se dividido da seguinte maneira: Introdução, Objetivos (gerais e específicos), dois capítulos escritos na forma de artigo científico contendo uma página de apresentação sobre o assunto, Discussão Geral, Conclusões, Perspectivas, Referências e Anexo.

Na introdução há uma caracterização do contexto epidemiológico do câncer em níveis mundial, nacional e regional. Também são abordadas as características celulares e moleculares envolvidas na patologia do câncer. Neste contexto, são trazidas à tona as estratégias farmacológicas utilizadas para combater a progressão dos tumores e, contido neste escopo, apresentam-se os quimioterápicos que apresentam como um de seus efeitos adversos a toxicidade cardíaca nas quais enquadram-se as antraciclinas e antracenodionas.

Dando sequencia, são apresentadas estratégias e hipóteses sobre mecanismos de reduzir ou eliminar a cardiotoxicidade em pacientes que são submetidos ao tratamento quimioterápico. Nesta área de estudo denominada de cardio-oncologia, objetiva-se, por intermédio de alterações estruturais ou com utilização de moléculas com propriedades cardioprotetoras, minimizar os efeitos dos quimioterápicos cardiotóxicos. Por fim é proposta uma reflexão acerca do papel dos inibidores de PARP-1 no âmbito dos mecanismos envolvidos na morte de células cardíacas.

O Capítulo I consiste de um artigo de revisão, no qual são abordadas as principais vias de cardiotoxicidade mediada pelos quimioterápicos doxorrubicina (DOX) e mitoxantrona (MTX) mais descritas na literatura científica. Este artigo foi aceito e encontra-se já publicado online pelo periódico Archives of Toxicology.

O Capítulo II apresenta um artigo de dados no qual é avaliada a influência da inibição de PARP-1 na cardiototoxicidade mediada por DOX e MTX. Este artigo será enviado para publicação ao periódico Toxicology and Applied Pharmacology.

A Discussão Geral contempla os comentários sobre os resultados apresentados nos Capítulos I e II, além de ressaltar a importância deste estudo. Por fim, são descritas as Conclusões e Perspectivas geradas por este trabalho, além das Referências utilizadas na elaboração desta tese e os Anexos.

## **RESUMO**

Assim como o número de casos de câncer vem aumentando em nível global, a busca por abordagens terapêuticas visando uma maior eficácia com um menor poder de causar efeitos prejudiciais aos pacientes também vem crescendo. As antraciclinas e antracenodionas, as quais tem como exemplos, doxorrubicina (DOX) e mitoxantrona (MTX), respectivamente, são fármacos utilizados na quimioterapia em diversas neoplasias incluindo tumores sólidos e não sólidos tais como de mama, leucemias, linfomas, sarcomas etc. Embora sejam eficazes ao que se propõem, o tratamento com estas moléculas pode acarretar em efeitos secundários, tais como arritmias e insuficiência cardíaca. Estas drogas além de interagirem com o ferro e apresentarem capacidade de gerar espécies reativas de oxigénio (ROS), apresentam como principal mecanismo a inibição da enzima topoisomerase 2 (Top2). Os inibidores de PARP-1 emergiram como uma nova alternativa para tratar determinados tipos de neoplasias em que a letalidade sintética possa ser explorada. Além disto, já foi relatado que a toxicidade cardíaca induzida por DOX seja influenciada pela atividade de PARP-1. O objetivo desta tese foi, portanto, avaliar a influência da inibição de PARP-1 na toxicidade cardíaca de DOX e MTX em células cardíacas. Células foram incubadas durante 24h com DOX ou MTX na presença ou na ausência de inibidor de PARP-1. Ensaios de viabilidade, apoptose e genotoxicidade e foram realizados. Além disso, a fosforilação de proteínas envolvidas na resposta a danos no DNA (ATM, MRE-11 e H2AX) foram avaliadas por western blot e imunofluorescência. Os resultados demonstraram que a inibição de PARP-1, apesar de diminuir a concentração de ROS, diminui a viabilidade de células H9c2 tratadas com DOX ou MTX por aumentar a geração de quebras duplas no DNA induzida por estes fármacos.

## ABSTRACT

As the number of people with cancer are globally increasing, the search for therapeutic approaches that increases efficiency decreasing harmful effects to patients is also growing, giving rise to cardio-oncology. Anthracyclines, e.g., doxorubicin (DOX), and anthracenediones, e.g., mitoxantrone (MTX), are drugs used in the chemotherapy of several cancer types, including solid and non-solid malignancies such as breast cancer, leukemia, lymphomas, and sarcomas. Although they are effective in tumor therapy, treatment with these two drugs may lead to side effects such as arrhythmia and heart failure. These drugs interact with iron to generate reactive oxygen species (ROS), target topoisomerase 2 (Top2), and impair mitochondria. PARP-1 inhibitors have emerged as a new alternative for treating certain types of malignancies in which the synthetic lethality can be exploited. Furthermore, it has been reported that DOX-induced cardiac cardiotoxicity is influenced by PARP-1 activity. The main goal of this thesis was, therefore, to evaluate PARP-1 inhibition influence in cardiac toxicity of DOX and MTX in cardiac cells. Cells were incubated for 24h with MTX or DOX in presence or absence of PARP-1 inhibitor. Viability, oxidative stress and genotoxicity assays have been conducted. Furthermore, phosphorylation of proteins involved in response to DNA damage (ATM, H2AX and MRE-11) were evaluated by western blot and immunofluorescence. Results demonstrated that inhibition of PARP-1, although decreasing ROS generation, decreases H9c2 cells viability after DOX or MTX by increasing DNA double strand break generation induced by these drugs.

## LISTA DE ABREVIATURAS

5-FU - 5-fluorouracil.

AIF - Fator de indução de apoptose.

ATM - Proteína mutada na Ataxia telangiectasia (*Ataxia telangiectasia mutated*).

ATP - Adenosina trifosfato.

ATR - Proteína relacionada à Ataxia telangiectasia e RAD3 (*ATM and RAD3-related*).

BER - Reparo por excisão de bases (*base excision repair*).

CDKN1A - Inibidor de proteína quinase dependente de ciclina 1A (*Cyclin-dependent Kinase Inhibitor 1A*)

CHK1 - Proteína quinase de *checkpoint 1* (*Checkpoint Kinase 1*),

CHK2 - Proteína quinase de *checkpoint 2* (*Checkpoint Kinase 2*)

CML - Leucemia mieloide crônica (*Chronic myeloid leukemia*).

DDR - Resposta a danos ao DNA (*DNA Damage Response*).

DNA-PK - Proteína quinase dependente de DNA (*DNA-dependent protein kinase*).

DOX- Doxorrubicina

DSB - Quebra de cadeia dupla de DNA (*double strand break*).

EAE - Encefalomielite autoimune experimental.

ECG - Eletrocardiograma (ECG).

eNOS - Óxido nítrico sintase endotelial.

ERO - Espécies reativas de oxigênio.

FDA - *Food and Drug Administration*.

FEVE - fração de ejeção do ventrículo esquerdo

GG-NER - reparo por excisão de nucleotídeos do genoma global (*Global Genome Nucleotide Excision Repair*).

GnRH - Hormônio liberador de gonadotrofina (*gonadotropin-releasing hormone*).

HER2/ErbB2 - Receptor do fator de crescimento epidermal humano 2.

HR - Reparo por recombinação homóloga (*homologous recombination*).

IC - Insuficiência Cardíaca

INCA - Instituto Nacional de Câncer José Alencar Gomes da Silva.

LMC - leucemia mielóide crônica.

MDC1 – Proteína mediadora de *checkpoint* por dano ao DNA 1(*mediator of DNA damage checkpoint protein 1*).

MGMT - O<sup>6</sup>-Metilguanina-DNA Metiltransferase.

MMR - Reparo de erros de emparelhamento (*mismatch repair*).

MXT - Mitoxantrona.

NHEJ - Junção de extremidades não homólogas (*non-homologous end joining*).

NAC - n-acetilcisteína

NAD<sup>+</sup> - Nicotinamida adenina dinucleotídeo.

OMS - Organização Mundial de Saúde.

PARP-1 - Poli (ADP-ribose) polimerase-1.

PDGF-R - Fator de crescimento derivado de plaquetas (*platelet-derived growth factor receptors*),

PI3K - fosfatidilinositol-3-quinase.

PNS - Pesquisa Nacional de Saúde.

RR - Risco Relativo

SSB - Quebra de cadeia simples de DNA (*single strand break*).

SUS - Sistema Único de Saúde.

TRZ – Trastuzumab.

TC-NER - Reparo por excisão de nucleotídeos acoplado à transcrição (*Transcription-coupled Nucleotide Excision Repair*).

TKI - Inibidores de tirosina-quinase (tyrosine kinase inhibitor).

TKR – Receptor do tipo tirosina-quinase (*tyrosine kinase receptor*).

Top2 - topoisomerase 2.

UV - Radiação ultravioleta.

VEGF - Fator vascular de crescimento endotelial (*vascular endothelial growth factor*).

VEGF-R - Receptor de fator de crescimento do endotélio vascular (*vascular endothelial growth factor receptors*).

WRC-213 - Conjugação de MTX com L-metionina.

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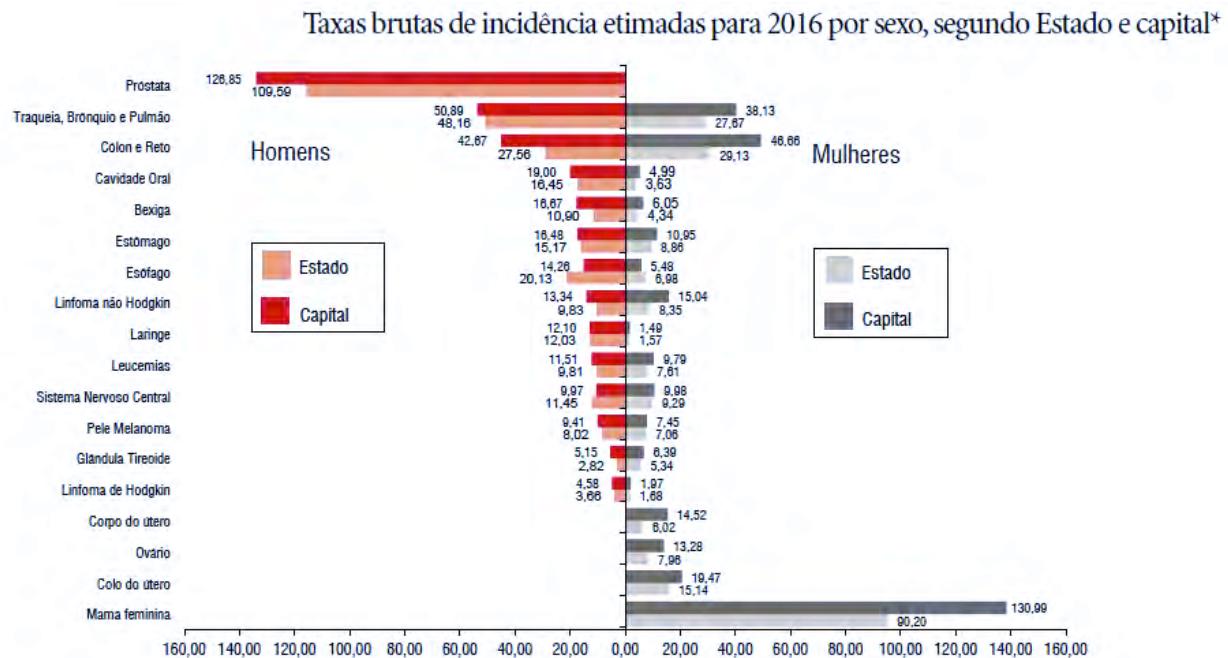
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## **1.Introdução**

### **1.1. Epidemiologia do câncer**

O câncer certamente é uma das doenças que mais intriga a humanidade e mais especificamente a comunidade científica da área biomédica, visto o volume de dados que são gerados diariamente. Esta patologia está entre as principais causas de morbidade e mortalidade no mundo, com aproximadamente 14 milhões de novos casos e 8,2 milhões de mortes relacionadas no ano de 2012, segundo a Organização Mundial de Saúde (OMS) e, de acordo com este órgão, o número de novos casos deverá aumentar em cerca de 70% ao longo das próximas duas décadas (WORLD HEALTH ORGANIZATION, 2014). Entre os homens, os tipos mais comuns de câncer diagnosticados em 2012 foram de pulmão, próstata, colorretal, estômago e fígado. Entre as mulheres, de mama, colorretal, pulmão, colo do útero e estômago são os cinco mais diagnosticados no mesmo período. Cerca de um terço das mortes associadas ao câncer são devidas principalmente a fatores comportamentais e nutricionais como índice de massa corporal elevado, baixa ingestão de frutas e legumes, falta de atividade física, tabagismo e uso de álcool. O uso do tabaco é o fator de risco mais importante contribuindo com cerca de 20% das mortes por câncer e cerca de 70% das mortes associadas ao câncer de pulmão em escala global (WORLD HEALTH ORGANIZATION, 2014). Somente nos Estados Unidos da América, no ano de 2015 serão diagnosticados cerca de 1.658.370 novos casos enquanto em torno de 589.430 pessoas morrerão em decorrência do câncer (AMERICAN CANCER SOCIETY, 2015). No entanto, mais de 60% dos novos casos, em estimativa mundial, ocorrerão na África, Ásia e América do Sul sendo que 70% das mortes por esta causa no mundo acontecerá nestes continentes (WORLD HEALTH ORGANIZATION, 2014). No Brasil, a estimativa para o biênio 2016-2017, aponta para a ocorrência de em torno de 600 mil novos casos. Se não levarmos em conta o câncer de pele não melanoma (que corresponde

a aproximadamente 180 mil novos casos), ocorrerão cerca de 420 mil casos de câncer nos próximos dois anos. Destes, os tumores de próstata (28,6%), pulmão (8,1%), intestino (7,8%), estômago (6,0%) e cavidade oral (5,2%) serão os mais frequentes entre os homens. Nas mulheres, os cânceres de mama (28,1%), intestino (8,6%), colo do útero (7,9%), pulmão (5,3%) e estômago (3,7%) serão os mais prevalentes (INCA, 2016). Ainda no panorama nacional, a Pesquisa Nacional de Saúde (PNS), de 2013, estimou que 1,8% das pessoas com mais de 18 anos de idade (2,7 milhões de adultos), referiram diagnóstico médico de câncer. Analisando por diferentes regiões, a Região Sul mostrou o maior percentual de menção à diagnóstico médico de câncer (3,2%), em segundo lugar a Região Sudeste (2,1%) e em terceiro a região Centro-Oeste (1,6%). As menores taxas de prevalência foram registradas nas Regiões Norte e Nordeste (0,9%). Entre as mulheres, o câncer de mama foi relatado por 39,1% como primeiro diagnóstico e o de colo de útero por 11,8%. Nos homens, o câncer de pele correspondeu a 16,2% do total de primeiros diagnósticos enquanto o de próstata foi relatado por 36,9%. (IBGE, 2014). No estado do Rio Grande do Sul, no ano de 2013, segundo dados do Instituto Nacional do Câncer (INCA), a maior taxa de mortalidade relacionada ao câncer em mulheres foi ligada a neoplasia de mama (15,2%), seguida pela de brônquios e pulmões (5,6%), cólon (6,5%), pâncreas (5,6%) e estômago (4,0%). Já para os homens, as maiores taxas de mortalidade foram para os tumores de brônquios e pulmões (33,0%), próstata (17,3%), esôfago (12,5%), estômago (9,8%) e cólon (8,2%) (INCA, 2014). Para o ano de 2016, no Rio Grande do Sul, são esperados cerca de 32.230 novos casos em homens sendo os tumores de próstata responsáveis por 6.000 destes. Para as mulheres, as estimativas indicam uma incidência de 26.100 novos casos tendo as neoplasias de mama como responsáveis por 5.210 destes. As taxas brutas de incidência estimadas para 2016 por sexo, no Rio Grande do Sul, estão apresentadas na Figura 1 (INCA, 2016).



\*Valores por 100 mil habitantes.

Figura 1: Taxas brutas de incidência de câncer estimadas para 2016 divididas por tipo de neoplasias e por sexo, no Rio Grande do Sul (INCA, 2016).

## 1.2. Características do câncer

O câncer é uma doença muito heterogênea em razão de que, primeiro, existe variabilidade genética entre as pessoas (o que acarreta em perfis distintos de susceptibilidade interindividual), segundo, os tumores se desenvolvem em diferentes órgãos e tecidos do organismo e, ainda, tumores derivados de um mesmo tecido podem ser categorizados entre diferentes subtipos (PHAROAH et al., 2004). Estudos realizados entre o final da década de 1970 e o início da década de 1980, demonstraram a existência de sub-populações distintas das células nos tumores, que diferiam em termos de tumorigenicidade, resistência ao tratamento e capacidade metastática (FIDLER, 1978; HEPPNER; MILLER, 1983). Segundo Hanahan & Weinberg (2011), os tumores não são apenas uma massa isolada de células proliferativas. Não obstante, eles são um complexo tecido composto por uma multiplicidade de distintos tipos celulares que compartilham interações heterotípicas uns com os outros (HANAHAN; WEINBERG, 2011). Estes mesmos autores propuseram seis assinaturas para o câncer: sustentar sinais proliferativos,

resistir aos processos de morte celular, evitar a supressão do crescimento, induzir a angiogênese, prevenir a senescência replicativa, ativar invasão e metástase (HANAHAN; WEINBERG, 2000). Estas marcas foram revisitadas 11 anos depois com o acréscimo de 2 assinaturas emergentes: desregulação do metabolismo energético celular e a capacidade de evitar sua destruição pelo sistema imunológico; bem como, traz à tona duas características importantes: instabilidade genômica, isto é, diminuição na capacidade da célula em reparar seu DNA e indução de inflamação tumoral (HANAHAN; WEINBERG, 2011). Portanto, o combate a progressão tumoral baseia-se em maneiras de enfrentar este repertório de estratégias utilizadas pelos diferentes tipos de tumores.

### **1.2.1. Resposta a danos no DNA**

Lesões no DNA podem acarretar em mutações genéticas e danos cromossômicos, que são eventos notórios na transformação oncogênica e na progressão tumoral (MILLER; MILLER, 1981). Para limitar a instabilidade genômica, as células são equipadas com vias de resposta a danos ao DNA (DDR - *DNA Damage Response*), com proteínas de reparo de DNA as quais promovem a retirada das lesões (HOEIJMAKERS, 2001). Após o dano ser gerado, deve haver o reconhecimento e posterior resolução da lesão. Todas as vias de DDR envolvem um conjunto de passos semelhantes, os quais são muito bem orquestrados: a detecção inicial dos danos no DNA, o recrutamento de fatores de reparo de DNA para o local do dano e reparação definitiva das lesões (LORD; ASHWORTH, 2012). Neste sentido, os componentes destas vias de sinalização podem ser funcionalmente classificados como sensores de danos, transdutores de sinal e efetores, os quais, por sua vez, são organizados de uma forma hierarquizada a possibilitar uma comunicação entre si. O controle deste sistema é feito através de modificações pós-traducionais como fosforilação, metilação, acetilação, sumoilação, ubiquitinação entre outras (MÉNDEZ-ACUÑA et al., 2010; POLO; JACKSON, 2011). Três sistemas de

sensores interligados, que têm a capacidade de detectar um único evento de quebra no DNA em poucos minutos de sua formação, foram descritos. Estes sensores imediatos do DDR são as quinases relacionadas com fosfatidilinositol-3-quinase (PI3K): *Ataxia Telangiectasia Mutated* (ATM - Proteína mutada na Ataxia telangiectasia), *Ataxia Telangiectasia and Rad3-related* (ATR) e a proteína quinase dependente de DNA (DNA-PK - *DNA-dependent Protein Kinase*) (ROGAKOU et al., 1998a; ROOS; THOMAS; KAINA, 2015). Após os danos terem sido gerados no DNA, ocorre a ligação do complexo Mre11-Rad50-Nbs1 (MRN) no local onde ocorreu a quebra. Isto acaba por desencadear a auto-fosforilação de ATM em S1981 mudando a sua conformação de dímeros inativos para monômeros ativos (KOZLOV et al., 2011; SO; DAVIS; CHEN, 2009). Um dos mais bem estudados substratos de ATM na DDR é histona H2AX, que é fosforilada em S139, obtendo-se γH2AX (BURMA et al., 2001). Além da γH2AX, outros substratos que são fosforilados por ATM, como MDC1, BRCA1 e 53BP1, são mobilizados durante o processo (STEWART et al., 2003). ATM é uma proteína que frequentemente encontra-se alterada (mutações em seu gene) em tumores fazendo com que os mesmos adquiram resistência aos tratamentos quimioterápicos (KIM et al., 2014; STANKOVIC et al., 2002). Tanto ATM quanto ATR em casos de elevados níveis de quebras duplas na cadeia de DNA (DSB - *Double Strand Break*) promovem a morte celular através da ativação vias de apoptose dependentes de p53 e caspase-2 (BITOMSKY; HOFMANN, 2009; DAHAL et al., 2007; PUSAPATI et al., 2006).

O nível de dano ao DNA também pode ser crucial no momento de escolha entre reparar o dano ou desencadear um mecanismo de morte celular. Uma peça fundamental nesta situação é a proteína p53, tendo em conta as funções dos de seus genes-alvo na sobrevivência e morte celular. Baixos níveis de danos no DNA ativam transitoriamente p53 e níveis elevados de danos levam à uma sustentação da ativação de p53. Os diferentes

níveis de estabilização de p53 podem contribuir para a expressão diferencial de genes pró-sobrevivência e pro-apoptose, na medida que a afinidade de p53 com promotores é elevada para genes que estão associadas a parada no ciclo celular e é baixa para os genes que estão associados com a apoptose (INGA et al., 2002). Claramente, os efeitos da regulação da p53 e seus eventos a jusante são complexos e muito provavelmente sejam dependentes do tipo celular (ROOS; THOMAS; KAINA, 2015). As células tumorais selecionaram uma variedade de estratégias para contornar ou limitar a apoptose. O mais comum é a perda de função de p53, o que acaba eliminando este importante sensor de danos no circuito indutor de apoptose (HANAHAN; WEINBERG, 2000). Esta mudança de função da p53 de "supressor" e "restaurador" para "assassino" é dependente de várias modificações pós-traducionais como fosforilação e acetilação (LOUGHRY et al., 2014). A fosforilação por ATM, ATR, CHK1 (*Checkpoint Kinase 1*), CHK2 (*Checkpoint Kinase 2*) e DNA-PK nos resíduos Ser15, Ser37, Tre18 e Ser20 é relacionada com a sua função de induzir parada no ciclo celular pela indução da proteína inibidora de ciclina dependente de quinase 1A (CDKN1A - *Cyclin-dependent Kinase Inhibitor 1A*) (JABBUR; HUANG; ZHANG, 2000). Em contrapartida, a fosforilação de p53 na Ser46 é especificamente ligada à função de desencadear morte celular (PIETSCH et al., 2008).

Entre os principais causadores de danos ao DNA das nossas células podemos citar os agentes químicos ambientais e aqueles produzidos no corpo pelo metabolismo celular e microbiota intestinal (VERNOLE et al., 2011), radiação ultravioleta (UV) (KIELBASSA, 1997), radiações ionizantes (CADET et al., 2012) e medicamentos anticâncer nomeadamente genotóxicos (ROOS; KAINA, 2013) os quais serão abordados em outra seção. Entre a gama de lesões formadas (modificações de bases, sítios abásicos, quebras na cadeia, ligações intra e intercadeias e formação de adutos de DNA-proteína) as mais frequentes são a oxidação de bases e quebras simples na cadeia de DNA (SSB

*Single Strand Break*) (LINDAHL, 1993). As principais vias de reparo de DNA envolvidas nestes danos são: reparo de O<sup>6</sup>-Metilguanina-DNA Metiltransferase (MGMT), reparo por excisão de bases (BER - *Base Excision Repair*), reparo de erros de emparelhamento (MMR - *Mismatch Repair*), reparo por excisão de nucleotídeos do genoma global (GG-NER - *Global Genome Nucleotide Excision Repair*), reparo por excisão de nucleotídeos acoplado à transcrição (TC-NER - *Transcription-coupled Nucleotide Excision Repair*), reparo de quebras duplas, que se divide em recombinação homóloga (HR - *Homologous Recombination*) e ligação de extremidades não homólogas (NHEJ - *Nonhomologous End Joining*) (IYAMA; WILSON, 2013).

Para entender plenamente as contribuições biológicas dos diferentes sistemas de reparo do DNA, é preciso ter em conta o contexto celular onde operam. Por exemplo, o corpo humano (e mesmo um único órgão) é composto por células que se dividem e que não se dividem. Podemos citar como exemplo o cérebro com seus neurônios e células da glia ou até mesmo o tecido cardíaco com cardiomiócitos, fibroblastos e células endoteliais. Esta diferença pode ser de crucial importância na escolha de um regime quimioterapêutico bem como nos efeitos adversos que podem surgir com o uso de determinadas moléculas no tratamento do câncer (IYAMA; WILSON, 2013).

### **1.3. Efeitos cardiotóxicos relacionados com o tratamento quimioterápico**

Estimativas apontam que 17,5 milhões de pessoas morreram de doenças cardiovasculares em 2012, o que representa 31% de todas as mortes globais. Dessas mortes, estima-se que 7,4 milhões foram devido a doença cardíaca coronária e 6,7 milhões foram devido a acidente vascular cerebral (WORLD HEALTH ORGANIZATION, 2014). No Brasil, segundo dados do Sistema Único de Saúde (SUS), no período entre 2010 e 2013, 44.822 pessoas perderam suas vidas por complicações relacionadas à Insuficiência Cardíaca (IC); isso representa mais de 10.000 mortes por ano. Ainda, de

janeiro de 2014 até dezembro de 2015 aconteceram 441.219 internações de pacientes com IC (DATASUS, 2015). A IC é uma das principais causas de morbidade e mortalidade nos países industrializados (HO et al., 1993). Também é um crescente problema de saúde pública, principalmente por causa do envelhecimento da população e o aumento de sua prevalência em populações idosas. Estudos básicos, clínicos e populacionais têm evoluído no sentido de encontrar modernos tratamentos para esta morbidade que é uma fase final de diversas doenças cardíacas tais como hipertensão arterial, doença valvular cardíaca e doença isquêmica do coração. Este é um estado patológico, em que o coração é incapaz de bombear sangue a uma taxa compatível com as exigências do metabolismo dos tecidos. A perda de cardiomiócitos é comumente observada em tecidos cardíacos de pacientes em estágio final de insuficiência cardíaca, sendo a apoptose reconhecida como um dos modos importantes de morte celular (GUERRA et al., 1999; OLIVETTI et al., 1997a, 1997b; SARASTE et al., 1999).

O câncer e as doenças cardiovasculares, como já mencionado anteriormente, são as duas principais causas de morte no Brasil e no mundo (INCA, 2014; WORLD HEALTH ORGANIZATION, 2014). Este cenário torna-se, ainda, mais intrigante quando estas duas patologias interagem entre si. Infelizmente, em conjunto com a melhora na morbidade e mortalidade, vem o aumento da cardiototoxicidade de longo prazo associadas ao tratamentos do câncer (HAMO; BLOOM, 2015). O aumento da consciência sobre os efeitos tóxicos cardiovasculares da quimioterapia, levou ao surgimento da cardio-oncologia (ou onco-cardiologia), que consiste na triagem, acompanhamento e tratamento de pacientes com disfunções cardiovasculares resultantes da quimioterapia (BROWN; SANDHU; HERRMANN, 2015). A origem da cardio-oncologia data do final dos anos 1960, quando antraciclinas, na época novos potentes compostos antitumorais, foram amplamente introduzidas nos regimes terapêuticos de muitos tipos de câncer (EWER;

VON HOFF; BENJAMIN, 2011; EWER et al., 1984; LEFRAK et al., 1973). Este campo de pesquisas visa não só a triagem, prevenção e tratamento de efeitos cardiovasculares de terapias contra o câncer, mas também a formação de uma parceria na prestação de cuidados para pacientes com câncer (ALBINI et al., 2010; MINOTTI; SALVATORELLI; MENNA, 2010; YEH, 2011).

A cardiototoxicidade pode se desenvolver em uma forma subaguda, aguda ou crônica. Toxicidade cardíaca aguda ou subaguda é caracterizada pela ocorrência de anormalidades da repolarização ventricular e alterações do intervalo QT do eletrocardiograma, por arritmias supraventriculares e ventriculares, ou por síndromes coronarianas agudas e síndromes de pericardite e miocardite. Estas manifestações são observadas em qualquer momento a partir do início da terapia até 2 semanas após a cessação do tratamento. Já a fase crônica pode ser diferenciada em dois subtipos com base no aparecimento dos sintomas clínicos. O primeiro subtipo ocorre no prazo de até 1 ano após o término da quimioterapia e o segundo ocorre tardiamente, mais de 1 ano após o tratamento. O sinal mais comum de cardiotoxicidade crônica é a disfunção sistólica e/ou diastólica ventricular esquerda, que acaba por acarretar uma cardiomiopatia congestiva grave podendo levar à morte (DOLCI et al., 2008; PAI; NAHATA, 2000). Neste contexto, existem basicamente dois tipos de efeitos cardiotóxicos associados ao tratamento quimioterápico: Tipo I, relacionada às antraciclinas, considerado irreversível, dose-dependente e causado pela formação de espécies reativas de oxigênio (ERO), estresse oxidativo, e desarranjo miofibrilar; Tipo II, observado tradicionalmente com a utilização do anticorpo monoclonal trastuzumab, o qual tem sido descrito como reversível, não dependente da dose e sem aparecimento de alterações morfológicas (EWER; LIPPMAN, 2005). Entretanto, deve -se tomar, um certo cuidado, na utilização destes termos uma vez que ainda não há certeza de que a toxicidade de Tipo II seja reversível e não apresente

sequelas de longo prazo (SLAMON et al., 2011). Na Tabela 1 são apresentadas as principais classes de moléculas utilizadas no tratamento quimioterápico do câncer envolvidas com processos de cardiototoxicidade.

Tabela 1: Terapia anticâncer e toxicidade cardiovascular\*.

|  | Arritmia | QT longo | Isquemia miocárdica | Tromboembolia | Disfunção sistólica | Hipertensão |
|--|----------|----------|---------------------|---------------|---------------------|-------------|
| <b>Antraciclinas</b>                         |          |          |                     |               |                     |             |
| Doxorrubicina (DOX)                          | +++      | NE       | +                   | NE            | +++                 | +           |
| DOX (lipossomal)                             | +        | NE       | ++                  | NE            | +                   | +           |
| Epirubicin                                   | +        | NE       | +                   | NE            | +                   | +           |
| Daunorubicin                                 | ++       | NE       | +                   | NE            | +                   | +           |
| Idarubicin                                   | +++      | NE       | +                   | NE            | ++                  | +           |
| Mitoxantrona                                 | +++      | NE       | ++                  | NE            | ++                  | ++          |
| <b>Anticorpos monoclonais</b>                |          |          |                     |               |                     |             |
| TRZ  | ++       | NE       | +                   | ++            | +++                 | ++          |
| Bevacizumab                                  | ++       | NE       | ++                  | +++           | ++                  | ++          |
| Cetuximab                                    | ++       | NE       | +                   | +             | NE                  | ++          |
| Brentuzimab                                  | +        | NE       | +                   | +             | +                   | +           |
| Ipilimumab                                   | +        | NE       | +                   | +             | NE                  | NE          |
| Panitomumab                                  | +        | NE       | ++                  | ++            | NE                  | ++          |
| Pertuzumab                                   | +        | NE       | +                   | +             | ++                  | +           |
| Rituximab                                    | +        | NE       | ++                  | +++           | +                   | ++          |
| <b>Inibidores de tirosina-quinase (TKIs)</b> |          |          |                     |               |                     |             |
| Dasatinib                                    | +++      | ++       | ++                  | ++            | ++                  | ++          |
| Nilotinib                                    | ++       | ++       | NE                  | +             | ++                  | +++         |
| Vermurafenib                                 | ++       | NE       | ++                  | ++            | +                   | ++          |
| Sorafenib                                    | +        | NE       | ++                  | ++            | ++                  | +++         |
| Sunitinib                                    | +        | +        | ++                  | ++            | +++                 | +++         |
| Erlotinib                                    | NE       | NE       | ++                  | ++            | NE                  | NE          |
| Gefitinib                                    | NE       | NE       | ++                  | ++            | NE                  | NE          |
| Imatinib                                     | NE       | NE       | +++                 | ++            | ++                  | NE          |
| Lapatinib                                    | NE       | +++      | ++                  | +             | ++                  | NE          |
| Pazopanib                                    | NE       | NE       | ++                  | ++            | +                   | +++         |
| <b>Inibidores de proteassoma</b>             |          |          |                     |               |                     |             |
| Bortezomib                                   | +        | NE       | +                   | +             | +                   | +           |
| Carfilzomib                                  | ++       | NE       | ++                  | NE            | +                   | +           |
| <b>Terapia hormonal</b>                      |          |          |                     |               |                     |             |
| Tamoxifeno                                   | +        | NE       | ++                  | ++            | ++                  | ++          |
| Abiraterona                                  | ++       | NE       | ++                  | NE            | ++                  | ++          |
| Anastrozol                                   | NE       | NE       | ++                  | ++            | NE                  | ++          |
| Exemestano                                   | NE       | NE       | ++                  | ++            | NE                  | ++          |
| Letrozol                                     | NE       | NE       | +++                 | ++            | NE                  | ++          |
| <b>Antimetabólitos</b>                       |          |          |                     |               |                     |             |
| 5-Fluorouracil                               | +++      | NE       | +++                 | NE            | +                   | NE          |
| Capecitabina                                 | ++       | NE       | ++                  | ++            | NE                  | NE          |
| <b>Agentes alquilantes</b>                   |          |          |                     |               |                     |             |
| Cisplatina                                   | NE       | NE       | NE                  | ++            | NE                  | NE          |
| Ciclofosfamida                               | NE       | NE       | NE                  | +             | NE                  | NE          |
| Ifosfamida                                   | NE       | NE       | NE                  | +             | ++                  | NE          |
| <b>Agentes antimicrotúbulos</b>              |          |          |                     |               |                     |             |
| Paclitaxel                                   | ++       | NE       | +                   | NE            | +                   | +           |
| Nab-paclitaxel                               | ++       | NE       | NE                  | +             | NE                  | +           |
| Docetaxel                                    | ++       | NE       | ++                  | NE            | +                   | ++          |

\*adaptada de ROCHETTE et al., 2015;

QT: parâmetro eletrocardiográfico que representa a duração da sístole elétrica.

+++ representa >10%;

++, 1-10%

+, < 1%

NE: não estabelecido.

### ***1.3.1. Antraciclinas e seus análogos***

As antraciclinas, tais como a doxorrubicina, daunorrubicina ou epirrubicina, estão entre os fármacos anticâncer mais eficazes já desenvolvidas. Eles são importante componente de numerosos protocolos de quimioterapia contra neoplasias hematológicas e tumores sólidos. No entanto, seu uso clínico é nitidamente prejudicado pelo risco de grave cardiotoxicidade (JONES; SWANTON; EWER, 2006). Esta característica foi descrita pela primeira vez em pacientes tratados com daunorrubicina e doxorrubicina (DOX), no entanto, mais tarde este efeito passou a ser considerado comum a todas as antraciclinas (JONES; SWANTON; EWER, 2006; MINOTTI et al., 2004). Crianças e adolescentes são particularmente suscetíveis aos efeitos cardiotóxicos e, existe enorme dificuldade de se estabelecer uma dose segura deste fármaco para esta população (LIPSHULTZ et al., 1991, 2012; VON HOFF et al., 1977). Cerca de metade dos adultos jovens sobreviventes ao câncer infantil receberam antraciclinas em algum momento de seu tratamento. Em virtude disto, torna-se necessário o desenvolvimento de novas estratégias terapêuticas para diminuir a cardiotoxicidade e consequentemente melhorar a sobrevida destes pacientes. A incidência de insuficiência cardíaca após uso de antraciclinas varia entre 3-30%. Esta grande diferença na porcentagem explica-se, em parte, pelas diferenças nas populações de pacientes estudados (GRENIER; LIPSHULTZ, 1998; HERRMANN et al., 2014; LIPSHULTZ; ALVAREZ; SCULLY, 2008). Estas moléculas e seus análogos, como as antracenodionas, são importantes agentes antitumorais. Como mecanismo de ação podemos destacar a formação de adutos na molécula de DNA, prejudicando a síntese de proteínas, a produção de espécies reativas de oxigênio (ERO) e a inibição de topoisomerase 2 (Top2), afetando, também, a replicação, a transcrição e o reparo de DNA (YI et al., 2007). O mecanismo de ação das antraciclinas ainda não está completamente elucidado embora a inibição da enzima topoisomerase 2 pareça ser o

mecanismo predominante da citotoxicidade mediada por DOX (ZHANG et al., 2012). Outros efeitos também foram relatados para o tratamento com essas drogas, como a geração ERO, formação de adutos no DNA e pontes inter cadeias de DNA (BINASCHI et al., 2001; CUTTS et al., 2005; MINOTTI et al., 2004). A cardiototoxicidade mediada pelas antraciclinas e análogos será discutida em pormenores nos capítulos 1 e 2 desta Tese.

### ***1.3.2. Anticorpos monoclonais***

Nos últimos anos, 12 anticorpos obtiveram aprovação da *Food and Drug Administration* (FDA), nos Estados Unidos, para tratamento de tumores sólidos e hematológicos (SCOTT; WOLCHOK; OLD, 2012). O uso de Trastuzumab (TRZ), que tem como alvo o receptor do fator de crescimento epidermal humano 2 (HER2/ErbB2), pode resultar em uma disfunção do ventrículo esquerdo (DVE)(SEIDMAN et al., 2002; WELLS; LENIHAN, 2010). Em tumores, a via HER2-PI3K (fosfatidilinositol-3-quinase) é o caminho de oncogênese que mais frequentemente sofre mutações (YUAN; CANTLEY, 2008). Um aumento na expressão de HER2 é observado em mais de 25% dos tumores de mama, em mulheres, e está associado a um mal prognóstico em comparação com o de pacientes com tumores sem alteração na taxa de expressão de HER2 (SLAMON et al., 1987). Os ensaios clínicos com TRZ relataram redução na fração de ejeção ventricular esquerda em 7,1-18,6% e insuficiência cardíaca em 1.7- 4.1% dos indivíduos (SEIDMAN et al., 2002). Este efeito pode ser ainda potenciado quando utilizado em combinação com antraciclinas (ALBINI et al., 2010; SEIDMAN et al., 2002). Avaliando fatores de risco associados como idade, peso, hipertensão, dose cumulativa, e o nível de expressão de HER2, foram determinados que apenas a idade e a terapia concomitante DOX foram significativamente associadas com um risco aumentado efeito cardiotóxico da terapia com TRZ (SEIDMAN et al., 2002). A parada no tratamento

frequentemente é associada com a recuperação no prazo de 1 a 3 meses (ALBINI et al., 2010). A administração antraciclinas e TRZ em momentos distintos do tratamento pode minimizar os danos tóxicos subsequentes (EWER; LIPPMAN, 2005; EWER et al., 2005). O tratamento com Bevacizumab, um anticorpo monoclonal que bloqueia a ação do fator vascular de crescimento endotelial VEGF (*vascular endothelial growth factor*), apesar de poder causar hipertensão (SICA, 2006), não apresenta uma alta incidência (1-3%), de desenvolvimento de insuficiência cardíaca (CHOUEIRI et al., 2011).

### **1.3.3. Inibidores de tirosina-quinase**

Terapias com inibidores de tirosina-quinase (TKI - *tyrosine kinase inhibitor*) vêm trazendo uma enorme contribuição terapêutica em determinados tipos de câncer. O primeiro fármaco pertencente à esta classe, Imatinib, foi desenvolvido em 1996 e aprovado pelo FDA em 2001, acabou por revolucionar o tratamento de pacientes com leucemia mielóide crônica (LMC) (IQBAL; IQBAL, 2014). A proteína de fusão BCR-ABL, por ser um receptor do tipo tirosina-quinase (TKR *tyrosine kinase receptor*), é considerada um alvo ideal para o Imatinib visto que mutações nesta proteína são observadas em quase a totalidade dos pacientes com diagnóstico de LMC (ARORA; SCHOLAR, 2005). Outros TKIs foram desenvolvidos após o Imatinib, por exemplo o Sunitinib, o qual é aprovado desde 2006 nos Estados Unidos da America e Europa por demonstrar propriedades antitumorais e antiangiogênicas via inibição de receptores de fator de crescimento do endotélio vascular (VEGF-R *vascular endothelial growth factor receptors*) e de fator de crescimento derivado de plaquetas (PDGF-R *platelet-derived growth factor receptors*), além de outros TKRs (CHRISTENSEN, 2007; HAAS et al., 2016). Os medicamentos pertencentes a esta classe de quimioterápicos afetam diversos eventos celulares como transdução de sinal, metabolismo, transcrição, ciclo celular e apoptose (YANG; PAPOIAN, 2012). Foi demonstrado que o uso de Imatinib induz

redução na fração de ejeção do ventrículo esquerdo (FEVE), bem como insuficiência cardíaca em 0,5-1,7% dos pacientes (KERKELÄ et al., 2006; WELLS; LENIHAN, 2010). Já foram relatados, também, graves efeitos tóxicos colaterais após tratamento com Sunitinib, especialmente hepatotoxicidade, insuficiência renal, insuficiência cardíaca, embolia pulmonar, perfuração gastrointestinal e hemorragias (EUROPEAN MEDICIENS AGENCY, 2015). O tratamento com Sunitinib apresenta uma incidência de 2-11% de desenvolvimento de insuficiência cardíaca nos pacientes. Outros efeitos cardiovasculares observados incluem hipertensão, e prolongamento do intervalo QT (CURIGLIANO et al., 2010; WELLS; LENIHAN, 2010). Além destes efeitos citados, Sorafenib, o qual é utilizado no tratamento de carcinomas hepatocelular e renal (MELLOR et al., 2011), demonstrou ser causador de hipertensão arterial e isquemia miocárdica (ORPHANOS; IOANNIDIS; ARDAVANIS, 2009).

#### ***1.3.4. Inibidores de proteassoma.***

Bortezomib é um inibidor de proteassoma aprovado para o tratamento de mieloma múltiplo e linfoma não-Hodgkin, enquanto que o carfilzomib é utilizado no tratamento refratário ou no recidivante mieloma múltiplo (BOCKORNY et al., 2012; GRANDIN et al., 2015). Estas moléculas têm como mecanismo de ação a interferência na degradação de proteínas do ciclo celular e, por consequência, podem levar à uma catástrofe mitótica, causando a morte celular (BOCKORNY et al., 2012). Estes agentes podem desencadear um aumento da apoptose de células musculares lisas, células progenitoras endoteliais, e, ainda, interferir na atividade da enzima óxido nítrico sintase endotelial (eNOS), levando a vasospasmo coronário. A inibição de forma crônica (mais de 12 semanas) do proteassoma está associada com o aumento da propensão para a aterosclerose (HERRMANN et al., 2007). Em adição, estudos em animais apontam associação entre a inibição do proteassoma e disfunção sistólica reversível além de influenciar no controle

da hipertrofia cardíaca (CARRIER et al., 2010; NOWIS et al., 2010). Os testes em ratos Wistar indicam que o tratamento com bortezomib leva à disfunção cardíaca associada a alterações ultraestruturais em cardiomiócitos, especialmente na mitocôndria (NOWIS et al., 2010). Mesmo que o mecanismo de ação possa, ainda, não estar bem elucidado, pacientes tratados com esta classe de medicamento apresentam uma incidência de 2-5% de desenvolvimento de IC (HAMO; BLOOM, 2015; HERRMANN et al., 2014). Meseeha e colaboradores recentemente relataram caso de paciente tratado com bortezomib que acabou por desenvolver disfunção aguda do ventrículo esquerdo (MESEEHA; KOLADE; ATTIA, 2015). Estes autores apontam que mais pesquisas para informar diretrizes na avaliação cardíaca de pacientes em tratamento com inibidores da proteassoma são extremamente necessárias.

### ***1.3.5. Terapia hormonal.***

Existem poucas evidências disponíveis sobre o risco cardíaco de hormônios utilizados para o tratamento do câncer, principalmente devido ao fato de que os pacientes não são tratados durante períodos longos de tempo. Iacovelli e colaboradores, em recente metanálise que incluiu seis estudos com um total de 6.735 pacientes para avaliar a toxicidade cardíaca da terapia hormonal no carcinoma de próstata metastático resistente à castração, demonstrou haver um aumento na incidência e no Risco Relativo (RR) de toxicidade cardiovascular nos indivíduos que receberam abiraterona e enzalutamida (IACOVELLI et al., 2015). Anteriormente, Keating e colaboradores, em uma análise com mais de 73.000 pacientes com câncer de próstata localizado, demonstraram que a terapia da privação do andrógeno com agonistas de hormônio liberador de gonadotrofina (GnRH - *gonadotropin-releasing hormone*) foi associada a maior risco de incidência de diabetes, doença cardíaca coronária, infarto agudo do miocárdio e morte súbita cardíaca (KEATING; O'MALLEY; SMITH, 2006). Os eventos cardíacos associados a estes

agentes são arritmias e isquemia miocárdica (ROSA et al., 2016). Trombose coronária foi relatada em 0,6% dos pacientes tratados com o anastrozol e em 2,2% dos que foram tratados com tamoxifeno (NABHOLTZ et al., 2000).

### **1.3.6. Antimetabólito.**

O 5-fluorouracil (5-FU) e a capecitabina (pró-fármaco que é convertido em 5-FU após metabolização) são quimioterápicos inibidores de enzima timidilato sintase (desta forma inibem a replicação do DNA), usados no tratamento de tumores sólidos, incluindo cânceres gastrintestinal, de mama, de pâncreas, de cabeça e pescoço (MALET-MARTINO; JOLIMAITRE; MARTINO, 2002; POLK et al., 2014). Não há evidência de um único mecanismo responsável pela cardiotoxicidade induzida por 5-FU, embora danos causados no miocárdio e no endotélio podem contribuir para a disfunção cardiovascular (POLK et al., 2014). A toxicidade cardíaca causada pelas fluoropirimidinas foi associada com a indução de vaso-espasmos e subsequente angina/isquemia (KLEIMAN et al., 1987; KOSMAS et al., 2008; MASERI; LANZA, 2001; WEIDMANN; TEIPEL; NIEDERLE, 1994). As lesões diretas no tecido endotelial podem, também, provocar trombose e liberação de substâncias vasoativas (BECKER et al., 1999). Resultados de estudo *in vitro* demonstram que a exposição ao 5-FU leva a alterações estruturais e moleculares, indicativas de autofagia, em cardiomiócitos (FOCACCIETTI et al., 2015). Ainda, foi verificado neste mesmo trabalho, que há uma elevação na geração de ERO em células endoteliais (FOCACCIETTI et al., 2015). Há uma incidência de 1,6 - 7,6% de toxicidade cardíaca relatada com disfunção endotelial e vasoespasma que pode induzir isquemia coronária e formação de trombos, além do acúmulo de metabólitos tóxicos que podem lesar diretamente o miocárdio (ALBINI et al., 2010; MONSUEZ et al., 2010).

### ***1.3.7. Agentes alquilantes.***

Os agentes alquilantes como ciclofosfamida e cisplatina (não é um agente alquilante mas compartilha o mesmo mecanismo de ação), são assim denominados devido à sua capacidade de adicionar grupos alquil a muitos grupos eletronegativos (por exemplo na molécula de DNA) presentes nas células. Eles são muitas vezes utilizados em câncer da mama, bexiga, ovário, pulmão e em neoplasias hematológicas por pararem o crescimento tumoral ao induzirem ligações cruzadas entre guaninas adjacentes, pontes intra cadeias de DNA e pontes inter cadeias de DNA, com guaninas da cadeia oposta, impedindo a divisão celular (ROSA et al., 2016). Foi levantada a hipótese de que a ciclofosfamida cause uma lesão endotelial direta seguida de extravasamento de metabólitos tóxicos, resultando em hemorragia intersticial, edema e danos nos cardiomiócitos (GOTTDIENER, 1981; MORANDI et al., 2005). O papel das ERO no processo de cardiototoxicidade mediado por agentes alquilantes também já foi demonstrado na medida que ratos Wistar tratados com ciclofosfamida ou cisplatina apresentaram redução nos danos cardíacos quando receberam o tratamento preventivo com o antioxidante N-acetilcisteína (NAC) (MANSOUR; EL KIKI; HASAN, 2015; ROSIC et al., 2015). O tratamento com ciclofosfamida pode provocar uma pericardite aguda, bem como disfunção do ventrículo esquerdo em 7-22% dos pacientes (BRAVERMAN et al., 1991; GOLDBERG et al., 1986; GOTTDIENER, 1981; WELLS; LENIHAN, 2010).

### ***1.3.8. Agentes antimicrotúbulos.***

Os medicamentos desta classe mais comumente utilizados são paclitaxel e docetaxel, os quais têm efeito no câncer de mama, de ovário e de pulmão (ROSA et al., 2016). A toxicidade cardíaca do paclitaxel está relacionada com arritmias. Em torno de 30% dos pacientes apresentam bradicardia sinusal assintomática o que, normalmente, não representam um problema na prática clínica (ARBUCK et al., 1993). Os taxanos também

vêm sendo associados com disfunção do ventrículo esquerdo precoce e insuficiência cardíaca com uma taxa de incidência de 5-15% com paclitaxel e 2,3-8% com docetaxel (BONITA; PRADHAN, 2013; CURIGLIANO et al., 2010). Os sintomas são muitas vezes resolvidos com a interrupção da terapia, porém, tratamento com paclitaxel combinado com antraciclinas aumenta a incidência de cardiotoxicidade, ocorrendo em doses cumulativas mais baixas do que quando as antraciclinas são usadas isoladamente (GIORDANO et al., 2002).

#### **1.4. Estratégias de prevenção e proteção aos danos cardíacos causados pela quimioterapia.**

À medida que as pesquisas para desenvolvimento de novas moléculas com potencial para tratar o câncer avançam fica claro que ainda existem algumas arestas que necessitam ser aparadas. Witteles e Bosch, em recente publicação pontuam:

“Em primeiro lugar, a toxicidade cardiovascular é um problema comum a muitas classes de fármacos utilizados contra o câncer. Em segundo lugar, é fundamental aprender a melhor monitorar para, prevenir e tratar as complicações cardíacas da terapia do câncer, no sentido de diminuir a morbidade e mortalidade e para permitir que os pacientes recebam a sua quimioterapia de forma adequada. Isto representa o conceito de proteção cardíaca. Em terceiro lugar, este é um campo que na sua essência é multidisciplinar, exigindo a estreita colaboração de cardiologistas e oncologistas”(WITTELES; BOSCH, 2015).

Ainda, segundo estes autores, existem algumas estratégias que podem e devem ser testadas (Figura 2), em estágios específicos do tratamento, com a finalidade de prevenção e tratamento das complicações que acabam advindas da quimioterapia (WITTELES; BOSCH, 2015).

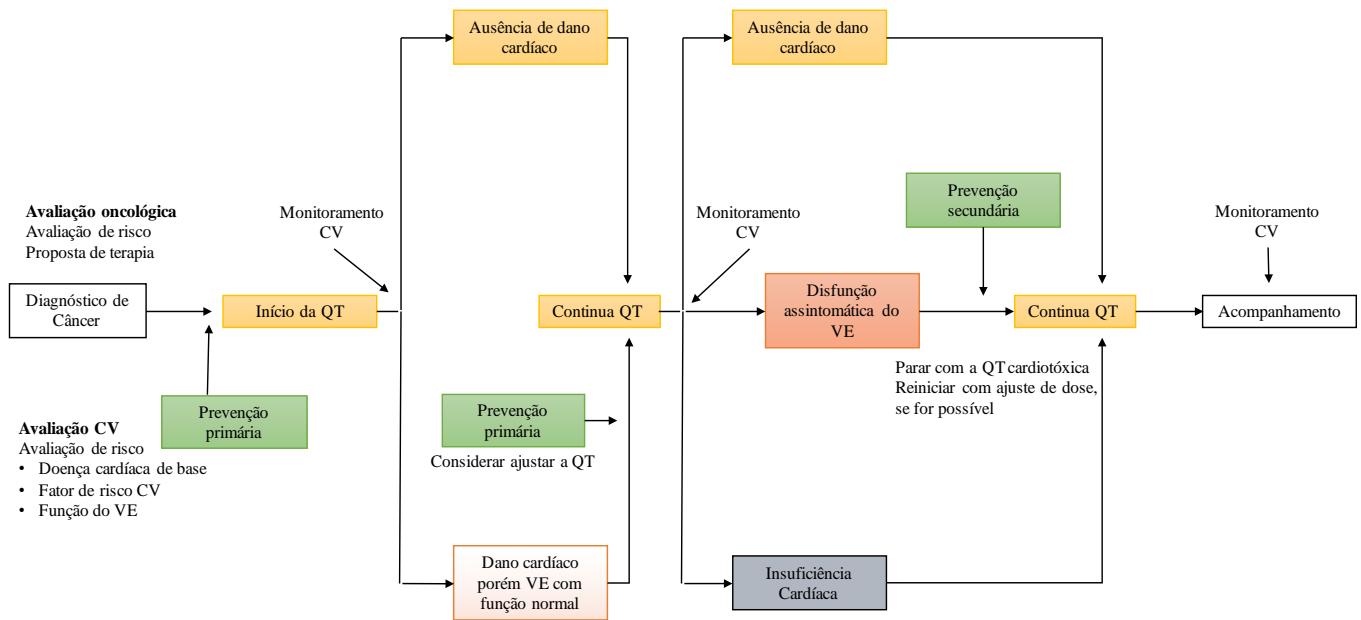


Figura 2: Abordagem sugerida para pacientes submetidos à quimioterapia potencialmente cardiotóxica. O manejo desses pacientes deve incluir o uso de medidas farmacológicas e não farmacológicas preventivas para toxicidades do miocárdio e não miocárdica antes, durante e depois da terapia. QT indica a quimioterapia; CV, cardiovascular; VE, do ventrículo esquerdo; DSVE, disfunção sistólica ventricular. Adaptada de WITTELES; BOSCH, (2015).

#### 1.4.1. Testes genéticos

Estudos tem descrito polimorfismos em genes envolvidos nas reações farmacocinéticas (absorção, distribuição, biotransformação e excreção) das antraciclinas relacionados com desenvolvimento de insuficiência cardíaca mediada por estas drogas (BLANCO et al., 2008; VAN DER PAL et al., 2012; VISSCHER et al., 2012). Também tem sido demonstrada variações em genes da família de proteínas transportadoras ABC (*ATP-binding cassette*) na cardiotoxicidade causada pela antraciclina DOX e pela antracenodiona MTX (COTTE et al., 2009; ICHIKAWA et al., 2014). A variante polimórfica mais comum do gene *ABCC1*, Gly671Val, leva ao aumento da cardiotoxicidade induzida pela DOX, enquanto que a variante Arg433Ser reduz substancialmente os níveis de DOX encontrados no interior das células (BROWN; SANDHU; HERRMANN, 2015). Ainda, polimorfismos no alelo C282Y do gene *HFE*,

o qual é associado com hemocromatose hereditária, podem aumentar em 9 vezes o risco de dano cardíaco em crianças tratadas com DOX (LIPSHULTZ et al., 2013).

#### ***1.4.2. Alterar a abordagem quimioterapêutica:***

Modificar estrutura dos medicamentos para melhorar as suas propriedades terapêuticas e farmacológicas é uma estratégia bastante comum. Os análogos de antraciclina que são, em teoria, potencialmente menos cardiotóxicos que a DOX são: epirubicina, idarubicina e mitoxantrona (MTX), por exemplo, acredita-se que a dose cumulativa de 900 mg/m<sup>2</sup> de epirubicina seja equivalente a 600 mg/m<sup>2</sup> de doxorubicina em termos de eficácia, mas a 450 mg/m<sup>2</sup> em cardiotoxicidade (BARRY et al., 2007). Van Dalen e colaboradores (2010), em uma revisão sistemática, observaram uma redução da cardiotoxicidade (RR = 0,20; IC95% = 0,05 – 0,75) quando se utiliza DOX lipossomal peguilado em comparação com DOX. Entretanto, não foi detectada diferença neste quesito, quando comparada epirubicina com DOX (VAN DALEN et al., 2006). Em uma meta-análise que incluiu 5 estudos com um total de 557 indivíduos foi observada uma redução nas taxas de desenvolvimento de insuficiência cardíaca (RR = 0,27; IC95% = 0,09 – 0,81) nos pacientes submetidos a infusões de DOX com 6 ou mais horas de duração, comparado aqueles que se submeteram a infusões de curto período (VAN DALEN; VAN DER PAL; KREMER, 2016).

#### ***1.4.3. Uso de fármacos cardioprotetores***

Uma limitação neste aspecto se dá pelo fato de que os estudos avaliando moléculas com propriedades cardioprotetoras são feitos apenas em pacientes tratados com antraciclinas; não há, até o presente momento, ensaios clínicos em pacientes recebendo outras terapias. Neste contexto, um estudo de revisão contendo 18 ensaios clínicos randomizados (de 1983 – 2009), avaliando uma série de moléculas com potencial cardioprotetor contra DOX (N-acetilcisteina, coenzima Q10, dexrazoxane, carvedilol, L-

carnitina, entre outros), demonstrou que apenas dexrazoxane apresentou efeito protetor contra o desenvolvimento de insuficiência cardíaca nos pacientes estudados ( $RR = 0,29$ ;  $IC = 0,20 - 0,41$ ) (VAN DALEN et al., 2011). O mecanismo de proteção exercido pelo dexrazoxane tem sido tradicionalmente associado a remoção de ferro do complexo doxorrubicina-ferro, impedindo a formação de espécies reativas de oxigênio. Entretanto, em virtude desta molécula também formar um complexo estável com o domínio de ATPase da topoisomerase 2, este vem sendo considerado um mecanismo bastante importante por impedir as antraciclinas de se ligarem ao complexo de topoisomerase-DNA (YI et al., 2007).

#### ***1.4.4. Uma abordagem alternativa.***

Poli (ADP-ribose) polimerase-1 (PARP-1) é uma enzima multifuncional localizada nos núcleos de diferentes células, incluindo cardiomiócitos (BÜRKLE, 2001a, 2001b). PARP-1 é ativado em resposta às quebras de fitas simples no DNA, em resposta ao dano celular provocado por moléculas oxidantes (VIRÁG; SZABÓ, 2002). Uma vez ativada, PARP-1 catalisa transferência de ADP-ribose às proteínas-alvo, utilizando NAD<sup>+</sup> com a formação concomitante de nicotinamida (BÜRKLE, 2001b; VIRÁG; SZABÓ, 2002). Como NAD<sup>+</sup> é essencial para a reação de transporte de elétrons, foi demonstrada que a super-ativação de PARP-1 pode conduzir a uma repressão da função mitocondrial levando ao déficit de energia, liberação do Fator de Indução de Apoptose (do inglês *Apoptosis Inducing Factor- AIF*), e eventualmente morte celular (CHIARUGI, 2002; YU et al., 2002). Em células não proliferativas tais como neurônios e miócitos cardíacos, no entanto, NAD<sup>+</sup> tem se mostrado compartmentalizado e este pool de NAD<sup>+</sup> mitocondrial não é facilmente esgotado pela ativação PARP-1 (YING et al., 2005). Nessas células, é provável que a super-ativação de PARP-1 ameace a sobrevivência da célula por inibir a atividade de outros caminhos NAD<sup>+</sup> dependentes. Um grupo de fatores que são

grandemente afetados por mudanças nos níveis celulares de NAD<sup>+</sup> é o das histonas desacetilases de classe III, também chamadas de sirtuininas ou proteínas SIRT (IMAI et al., 2000a, 2000b). Estas são homólogos ao gene Sir2 de leveduras, que tem sido implicado no silenciamento de cromatina, na sobrevivência da célula, e no envelhecimento (NORTH; VERDIN, 2004).

O envolvimento de PARP-1 já foi descrito em processos que envolvem modulação da DDR, no intuito de garantir a integridade genômica. Estes mecanismos são estreitamente regulados contribuem para a amplificação de sinais de danos no DNA, funcionando como uma espécie de interruptor entre a reparação do DNA ou indução da morte celular (MORTUSEWICZ et al., 2007; SOUSA et al., 2012; VODENICHAROV et al., 2005). Em revisão publicada por Sousa e colaboradores em 2012 é descrita a interligação de PARP-1 com proteínas envolvidas em vias de reparo como BER, NER, HR e NHEJ, bem como seu envolvimento com sensores de danos ao DNA (ATM, ATR, P53) e indutores de morte celular (AIF, caspase-3 e caspase-8) (SOUSA et al., 2012). Também tem sido descrita ligação direta de PARP-1 com lesões no DNA, incluindo dímero de pirimidina ciclo butano, 6,4-fotoproduto, sítios apurínicos e apirimidínicos, SSB e DSB (JORGENSEN et al., 2009; KHODYREVA et al., 2010; SOUSA et al., 2012). Em função do envolvimento de PARP-1 com diversos eventos que regulam manutenção do genoma, sobrevivência e morte celular, além de influenciar indiretamente no status energético das células, moléculas que atuam como inibidores desta enzima foram desenvolvidas visando a utilização na oncologia. Os inibidores de PARP-1 são, geralmente, baseados em estruturas de benzamida ou purina, concebidas para competir com NAD<sup>+</sup> no sítio catalítico da enzima (JAGTAP; SZABÓ, 2005). Os inibidores de PARPs atuais emergiram como agentes quimioterápicos promissores, pois são capazes de sensibilizar as células tumorais a agentes que danificam o DNA ou induzir letalidade

sintética como drogas individuais em células com defeitos em vias de reparo com HR (LORD; ASHWORTH, 2008). De acordo com o conceito de letalidade sintética, a inibição ou eliminação de qualquer um dos dois genes hipotéticos é tolerável, enquanto que a supressão e inibição combinada de ambos os genes conduzem à morte (BANERJEE; KAYE; ASHWORTH, 2010; ROULEAU et al., 2010). Por conseguinte, esta abordagem terapêutica combina a inibição mediada por um fármaco anticâncer com uma mutação oncogênica pré-existente, visando matar seletivamente as células tumorais. O resultado esperado é um aumento do índice terapêutico juntamente com uma redução dos efeitos secundários tóxicos (SOUSA et al., 2012).

Existe uma gama de mecanismos acima referidos descrevendo a atividade de PARP-1 nos processos de DDR e morte celular e a consequente exploração desta característica em estratégias de combate a progressão tumoral. Há, também, um papel descrito para a atividade de PARP-1 na cardiototoxicidade mediada por DOX, sugerindo a utilização dos inibidores da atividade desta enzima como abordagem de proteção ao miocárdio (PILLAI et al., 2005; WANG et al., 2014). Entretanto, esta relação entre atividade de PARP-1, sinalização DDR e toxicidade cardíaca mediada por inibidores de Top2 como DOX e MTX necessita, ainda, de uma melhor compreensão, justificando, portanto, a realização deste trabalho.

## **2.Objetivo**

Esta Tese de Doutorado teve como objetivo principal avaliar a influência da inibição de PARP-1 na toxicidade mediada pelos quimioterápicos DOX e MTX em células cardíacas.

### **2.1 Objetivos Específicos**

- Estabelecer o cultivo da linhagem celular H9c2 (cardiomioblastos de ratos) e padronizar o cultivo primário de cardiomiócitos de ratos neonatos.
- Avaliar os efeitos do inibidor de PARP-1, 3,4-Dihydro-5-[4-(1-piperidinyl)butoxyl]-1(2H)-isoquinolinone (DPQ), em células H9c2 tratadas por 24 horas com diferentes concentrações de DOX ou MTX através de ensaios de citotoxicidade, genotoxicidade e estresse oxidativo.
- Tratar cardiomiócitos de ratos neonatos por 24 horas com diferentes concentrações de DOX ou MTX na presença ou ausência do inibidor de PARP-1, DPQ e avaliar a fosforilação de H2AX.

### **3. Capítulo I**

Trata-se de um artigo de revisão intitulado *Pathways of cardiac toxicity: comparison between chemotherapeutic drugs doxorubicin and mitoxantrone*, o qual foi publicado no periódico *Archives of Toxicology*.

O artigo aborda os principais mecanismos já descritos de toxicidade mediada pela DOX comparando com a MTX, um análogo desenvolvido para apresentar uma melhor eficácia com menor efeito cardiotóxico. As vias de cardiotoxicidade são divididas em: geração de metabólitos intermediários reativos, interferência no funcionamento mitocondrial e inibição de Top2. Foram, também, conduzidas análises de docagem molecular para verificar hipótese acerca da modificação em MTX por conjugação com metionina induzindo uma diminuição da afinidade da droga com a isoforma  $\beta$  (predominante nos cardiomiócitos) da enzima Top2. Por fim, é debatida a influência da inibição de PARP-1 nos processos acima descritos, em virtude de esta ser uma enzima que participa de ambas as vias de toxicidade cardíaca já mencionadas anteriormente.

## Pathways of cardiac toxicity: comparison between chemotherapeutic drugs doxorubicin and mitoxantrone

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**Abstract** Anthracyclines, e.g., doxorubicin (DOX), and anthracenediones, e.g., mitoxantrone (MTX), are drugs used in the chemotherapy of several cancer types, including solid and non-solid malignancies such as breast cancer, leukemia, lymphomas, and sarcomas. Although they are effective in tumor therapy, treatment with these two drugs may lead to side effects such as arrhythmia and heart failure. At the same clinically equivalent dose, MTX causes slightly reduced cardiotoxicity compared with DOX. These drugs interact with iron to generate reactive oxygen species (ROS), target topoisomerase 2 (Top2), and impair mitochondria. These are some of the mechanisms through which these drugs induce late cardiomyopathy. In this review, we compare the cardiotoxicities of these two chemotherapeutic drugs, DOX and MTX. As described here, even though they share similarities in their modes of toxicant action, DOX and MTX seem to differ in a key aspect. DOX is a more redox-interfering drug, while MTX

induces energy imbalance. In addition, DOX toxicity can be explained by underlying mechanisms that include targeting of Top2 beta, mitochondrial impairment, and increases in ROS generation. These modes of action have not yet been demonstrated for MTX, and this knowledge gap needs to be filled.

**Keywords** Doxorubicin · Mitoxantrone · Cardiotoxicity · Topoisomerase

### Abbreviations

|         |                                    |
|---------|------------------------------------|
| APE     | Apurinic/apyrimidinic endonuclease |
| BER     | Base excision repair               |
| CAT     | Catalase                           |
| DFO     | Deferoxamine                       |
| DOX     | Doxorubicin                        |
| DSB     | Double-strand break                |
| eNOS    | Endothelial nitric oxide synthase  |
| ETC     | Electron transport chain           |
| HNE     | 4-Hydroxy-2-nonenal                |
| HR      | Homologous recombination           |
| MS      | Multiple sclerosis                 |
| mtDNA   | Mitochondrial DNA                  |
| mtTop   | Mitochondrial topoisomerase        |
| MTX     | Mitoxantrone                       |
| MTX-MET | L-Methionine-conjugated MTX        |
| PAR     | Poly(ADP-ribose)                   |
| PARP    | Poly(ADP-ribose) polymerase        |
| RNS     | Reactive nitrogen species          |
| ROS     | Reactive oxygen species            |
| SHR     | Spontaneously hypertensive rats    |
| SNP     | Single nucleotide polymorphism     |
| SOD     | Superoxide dismutase               |
| Top     | Topoisomerase                      |

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## Introduction

Anthracyclines such as doxorubicin (DOX), epirubicin, and daunorubicin are important chemotherapeutic agents used in the treatment of several types of cancer, including solid and non-solid malignancies such as breast cancer, leukemia, lymphomas, and sarcomas. Daunorubicin was the first anthracycline isolated in the 1960s. It was initially obtained from the soil bacterium *Streptomyces peucetius* (Di Marco et al. 1964). There are two hypotheses explaining how anthracyclines kill cancer cells. They include targeting of DNA topoisomerases (Vejpongsa and Yeh 2014a) and generation of reactive oxygen species (ROS) through interaction of anthracyclines with iron (Štěrba et al. 2013). Anthracyclines that are widely used in several chemotherapeutic regimens increased the survival rates for pediatric cancer in excess of 75 % (Sant et al. 2009). Although they are effective in cancer treatment, side effects such as arrhythmia and heart failure were reported for anthracyclines (Tan et al. 1967; Von Hoff et al. 1977). In a survey of 1807 cancer survivors who had been treated with anthracyclines and followed for 7 years, 33 % died of heart disease, and 51 % died of cancer (Ning et al. 2012). Anthracycline treatment is the primary cause of chemotherapy-induced cardiotoxicity (Vejpongsa and Yeh 2014b). It is estimated that about 26 % of patients will develop DOX-related congestive heart failure at a cumulative conventional DOX dose of 550 mg/m<sup>2</sup> (Senkus and Jassem 2011).

The mechanisms by which anthracyclines induce cardiac toxicity are not fully understood. Energy imbalance induced by mitochondrial dysfunction (Green and Leeuwenburgh 2002) and ROS generation (Iarussi et al. 2001; Neilan et al. 2007; Wallace 2003) are among possible modes of action. Recently, Vejpongsa and Yeh (2014a) discussed the role of DNA topoisomerase 2β (Top2β) in DOX-mediated cardiotoxicity. Mitochondrial topoisomerase 1 (mtTop1) also appears to be a possible target of anthracycline-induced cardiac cell death (Khiati et al. 2014).

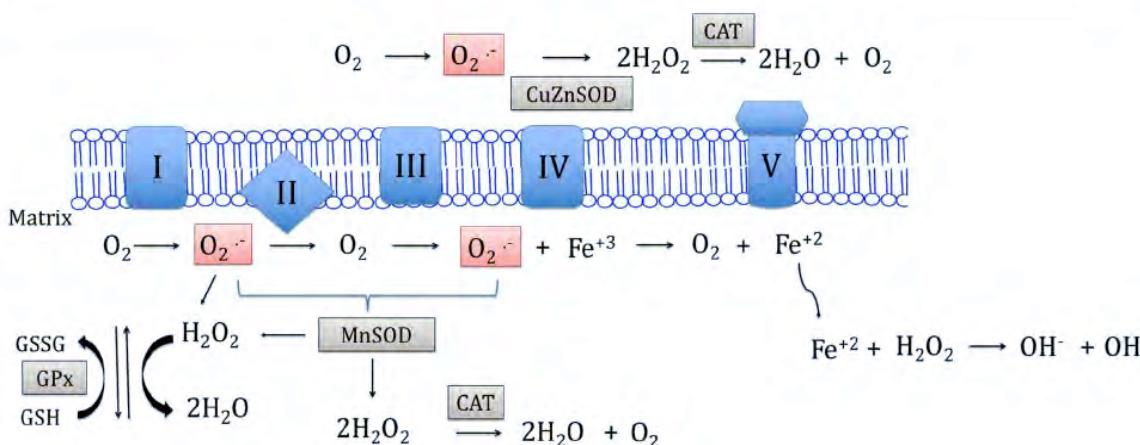
To reduce the anthracycline-related cardiotoxicity while maintaining the desired antineoplastic activity, anthracenedione compounds were developed, including the chemotherapeutic agents mitoxantrone (MTX), amelantrone, and pixantrone (Cheng and Zee-Cheng 1983; De Isabella et al. 1995). MTX inhibits both DNA replication and DNA-dependent RNA synthesis. It also intercalates into DNA, thereby decreasing the protein synthesis and cell proliferation (Faulds et al. 1991). Owing to its small size, MTX can easily cross the blood-brain barrier and interact with cells in the central nervous system; it also has immunosuppressant activity. Owing to these properties, MTX has also been used against neurological disorders such as multiple sclerosis (MS) (Fenu et al. 2015; Millefiorini et al. 1997).

Rossato et al. (2013a, b, 2014) demonstrated the relation between MTX-induced cardiotoxicity and mitochondrial impairment in *in vitro* (H9c2 cardiomyoblasts) and *in vivo* (male Wistar rats) studies. These studies pointed to the electron transport chain (ETC) as the endpoint of toxicity induced by MTX and its metabolites and revealed the importance of cumulative exposure. Although experimental (Rossato et al. 2013a, 2014) and clinical studies (Dores-Sousa et al. 2015; Joyce et al. 2013) highlighted the MTX-induced cardiac toxicity, little is known about the mechanisms involved in this process and whether anthracenediones induce the cardiac damage via a mechanism similar to that of anthracyclines. In this review, we try to elucidate the mechanisms of DOX- and MTX-induced cardiotoxicity.

## ROS generation, iron accumulation, and mitochondrial dysfunction

Mitochondrial respiration accounts for about 90 % of cellular oxygen consumption, and therefore, the ETC in mitochondria is mainly responsible for physiological ROS production (Papa 1996). It is well known that under physiological conditions, 1–5 % of the oxygen consumed by mitochondria is converted to ROS (Halliwell 2009; Halliwell and Gutteridge 1984).

ETC complexes I, III, and IV in the mitochondrial membrane guide electrons through reactions to create the proton motive force that drives the ATP synthesis by complex V (ATP synthase) (Fig. 1). It is plausible to believe that the superoxide anion radical ( $O_2^-$ ) is derived from intermediates of the normal catalytic cycles of complexes I and III (Dröse and Brandt 2012). There are three well-described sites where superoxide anion radicals are generated, the ubiquinone-binding sites in complexes I and III and the flavin prosthetic group in complex I. In addition, Wosniak et al. (2009) demonstrated the existence of a crosstalk between mitochondria and NADPH oxidases. Mitochondrial ROS activate  $O_2^-$  and hydrogen peroxide ( $H_2O_2$ ) production by NADPH oxidases, which, in turn, stimulate mitochondrial ROS formation. The  $O_2^-$  generation by the respiratory chain is a highly regulated process in which ROS can function both adversely and beneficially (Figueira et al. 2013). Mitochondrial ROS are demonstrated to take part in cellular signaling pathways as messenger molecules (Murphy et al. 2011). The formation of ROS should be a highly controlled process since their excess generation can be extremely harmful to the cell. The majority of the  $O_2^-$  formed inside mitochondria does not pass through the membranes, indicating that the damage may be largely contained within the mitochondria (Giulivi et al. 1995).

**O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> Generation sites:**

- Ubiquinone (UQ)-binding site (complexes I and III)
- Flavin mononucleotide (FMN) prosthetic group (complex I)

**Mitoxantrone-related sites:**

- Early increase in complexes IV and V activity
- Late decrease in complex V activity

**Doxorubicin-related sites:**

- Increase in complexes IV and V expression
- Decrease in complex I activity and expression

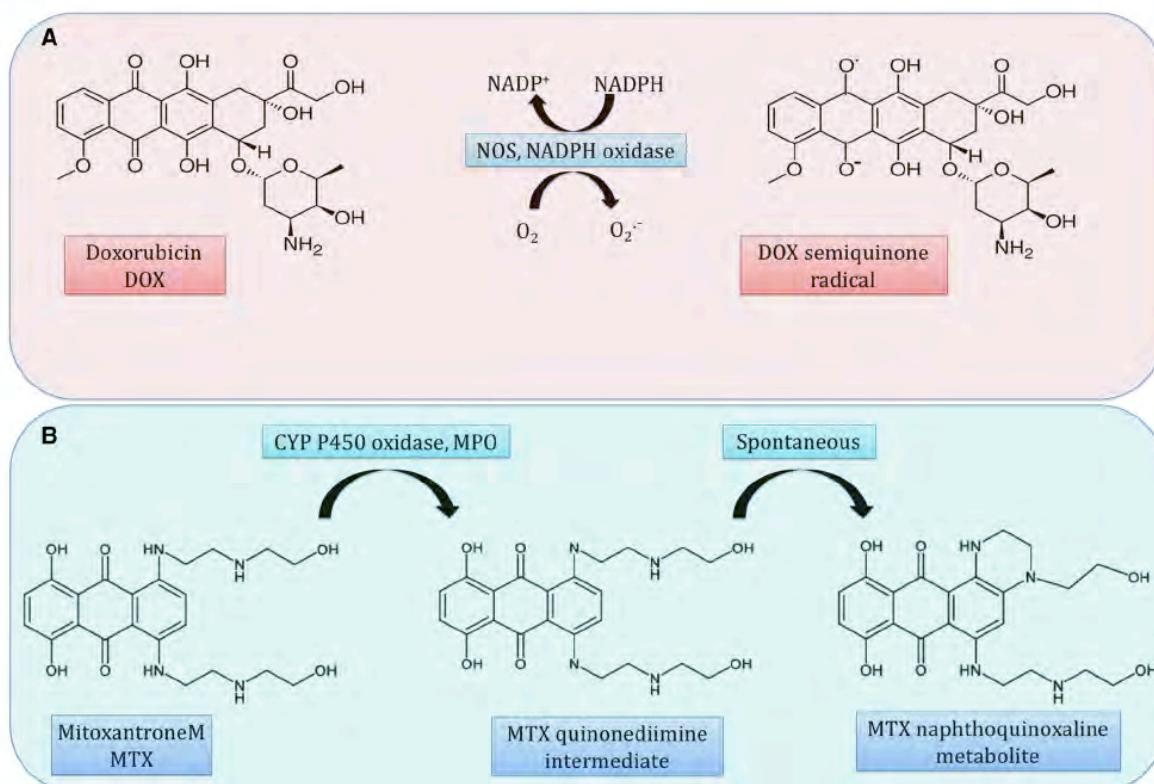
**Fig. 1** Reactive oxygen species (ROS) generation in mitochondria. Electron transport chain complexes I, III, and IV in the mitochondrial membrane guide electrons through reactions to create a proton motive force that drives ATP synthesis by complex V (ATP synthase). There are three well-described sites where the superoxide anion radical ( $O_2^-$ ) is generated, the ubiquinone-binding sites in complexes I and III and the flavin prosthetic group in complex I.  $O_2^-$  can gener-

ate other ROS such as hydrogen peroxide ( $H_2O_2$ ) and the hydroxyl radical ( $OH^-$ ) by reacting with iron. Oxidative stress is induced in response to a decreased level of antioxidant enzymes [superoxide dismutases (CuZnSOD and MnSOD), catalase (CAT), and glutathione peroxidase (GPx)] and increased production of ROS. GSH, glutathione; GSSG, glutathione disulfide

The high level of energy required by the heart to keep us alive comes at a cost, such as the generation of large amounts of oxygen and nitrogen metabolites (Costa et al. 2011). To meet the demand for ATP synthesis via oxidative metabolism, cardiac myocytes have the highest volume density of mitochondria and produce ROS through ETC (Tsutsui et al. 2008). In addition, cardiac tissue has less antioxidant enzymes compared with liver and kidney tissues (Halliwell and Gutteridge 1984). Therefore, oxidative stress, which is known to cause a disturbance in the pro-oxidant/antioxidant balance, is induced in response to the decreased levels of antioxidant enzymes, including copper-zinc and manganese superoxide dismutases (SODs), catalase (CAT), and glutathione peroxidase, and the increased production of ROS and reactive nitrogen species (RNS) or both (Costa et al. 2013; Sies 1997). Mitochondria also function as the crossroads for autophagic, apoptotic, and necrotic pathways. Under mild stress conditions, autophagy is induced to degrade and recycle cytoplasmic components. With increasing stress levels, apoptosis occurs because of

cytochrome c release from mitochondria. Under extreme stress, the mitochondrial permeability transition occurs in all mitochondria, and the intracellular supply of ATP is exhausted, leading to necrosis (Nishida and Otsu 2008; Zhang et al. 2009).

It is believed that the main pathway of anthracycline cardiotoxicity is the production of semiquinone metabolites during drug metabolism, which induce  $O_2^-$  formation (Carvalho et al. 2014).  $O_2^-$  is a primary radical that can generate other ROS, such as  $H_2O_2$  and the hydroxyl radical ( $OH^-$ ) (Ide et al. 2000). As demonstrated by Vásquez-Vivar et al. (1998), binding of DOX to the endothelial nitric oxide synthase (eNOS) reductase domain resulted in  $O_2^-$  generation. DOX can be reduced to the semiquinone radical by nitric oxide synthases and NADPH oxidase (Fig. 2a). This semiquinone radical undergoes further transformation to the C-7 free radical, which can interact with molecular oxygen and other intracellular molecules, most notably, lipids. The electron donors NADPH and FAD/FMN are oxidized by NADPH oxidase and eNOS, respectively (Octavia et al.



**Fig. 2** **a** Doxorubicin (DOX) can be reduced to the semiquinone radical by nitric oxide synthases (NOSs) and NADPH oxidase. **b** Mitoxantrone (MTX) is oxidized through a cytochrome P450-mediated

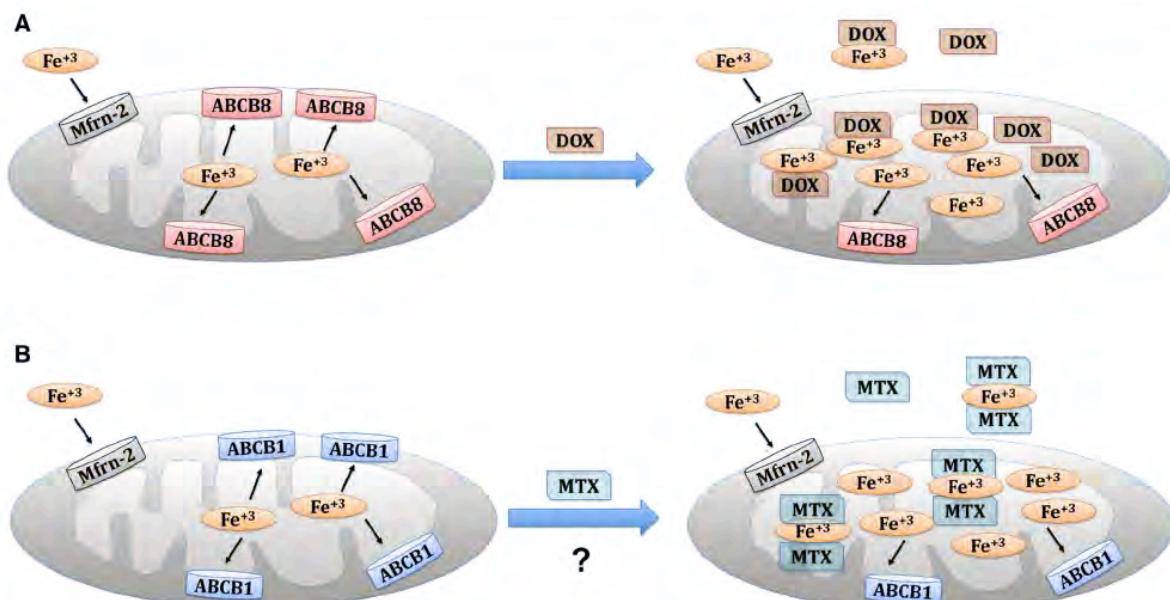
reaction generating quinone or quinonediimine intermediates with intracellular nucleophilic components. MTX is also oxidized at a high H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> concentration by human myeloperoxidase (MPO)

2012). The influence of NADPH oxidase on DOX cardio-toxicity was confirmed in a study that correlated the development of DOX-induced cardiotoxicity with polymorphisms of the NADPH oxidase complex in patients with non-Hodgkin's lymphoma (Wojnowski et al. 2005).

MTX contains a quinone functional group in its structure (Fig. 2b). Furthermore, similar to DOX, it undergoes activation by phase I metabolic enzymes (Kharasch and Novak 1983; Mimnaugh et al. 1982). Duthie and Grant (1989) demonstrated that in human hepatoma HepG2 cells, the cytotoxic effect of MTX was not mediated by the one-electron reduction oxidative stress mechanism. In addition, inhibition of antioxidant enzymes such as CAT and glutathione reductase did not affect the MXT-induced cell viability loss, suggesting that ROS are not involved in the process (Duthie and Grant 1989).

Unlike DOX, MTX is resistant to reductive enzymatic activation but is subject to oxidative enzymatic action (Basra et al. 1985; Kharasch and Novak 1983). MTX is oxidized by a cytochrome P450-mediated reaction generating quinone or quinonediimine intermediates with

intracellular nucleophilic components in HepG2 and MCF-7 cells (Duthie and Grant 1989; Li et al. 1995; Mewes et al. 1993). MTX is also oxidized at a high H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> concentration by human myeloperoxidase (Panousis et al. 1994) (Fig. 2b). However, unlike DOX, MTX has a weaker capacity to enter in futile redox cycling (Costa et al. 2013). In fact, both have the ability to block the ETC, while MTX has demonstrated a greater capacity to induce ATP depletion (Cini-Neri and Neri 1986). Rossato et al. (2013b) observed mild oxidative stress after MTX treatment in rat cardiomyoblasts (H9c2) and suggested that the ROS increase as a consequence of the redox cycle is secondary to the energy imbalance, a more dramatic and earlier event. The same research group observed that the ETC complex activities were affected at 2- and 48-day time points after MTX treatment cycles in rats. As a consequence, the ATP generation in heart mitochondria decreased (Rossato et al. 2014). These results are in agreement with those obtained in rats treated with daunorubicin, which demonstrated an increase in complex IV and V protein expression and a decrease in complex I activity and expression (Střba et al. 2011).



**Fig. 3** **a** At the mitochondrial level, doxorubicin (DOX) significantly reduces the mRNA and protein levels of ABCB8, a mitochondrial iron-export protein, and either decreases or does not affect the levels of the import protein, mitoferrin 2 (Mfrn-2), a regulator of mitochondrial iron homeostasis, in vitro and in vivo. **b** The *ABCB1* gene

Anthracyclines can also form complexes with iron, producing ROS via a redox cycle (Link et al. 1996). Heart cell mitochondria were previously identified as the major site of iron-anthracycline interaction. In isolated rat cardiomyocytes, DOX was concentrated in mitochondria, inducing increases in mitochondrial iron and cellular ROS levels (Link et al. 1996). According to Ichikawa et al. (2014), overexpression of ABCB8, a mitochondrial iron-export protein, in vivo and in vitro protected against DOX-induced cardiomyopathy and reduced the DOX-induced accumulation of free iron and ROS in mitochondria. At the mitochondrial level, DOX significantly reduced the mRNA and protein levels of ABCB8 and decreased or did not affect the levels of the import protein, mitoferrin 2, which regulates mitochondrial iron homeostasis both in vitro and in vivo (Ichikawa et al. 2014) (Fig. 3a).

Myocardial oxidative damage caused by iron-mediated ROS formation has been suggested as a potential mechanism; however, this hypothesis has been challenged by reports showing that several iron chelators failed to reverse cardiotoxic effects of DOX (Miranda et al. 2003; Panjrathe et al. 2007; Rao et al. 2011; Šimůnek et al. 2009).

As demonstrated by Cavalcante et al. (2013), MTX has a high affinity for  $\text{Fe}^{+3}$  and can be degraded by the Fenton reaction. Herman et al. (1997) showed that MTX could form a 2:1 complex with  $\text{Fe}^{+3}$ . The same study reported

can confer a different susceptibility pattern to mitoxantrone (MTX)-induced cardiotoxicity. ABCB1 is also involved in the mitochondrial iron transport, and its involvement in the MTX-mediated cardiotoxicity cannot be ruled out

that in spontaneously hypertensive rats (SHR) treated with DOX (1 mg/kg) or MTX (0.5 mg/kg), no significant difference was observed in the severity of the myocardium lesions induced by these drugs. However, the mitochondrial alterations induced by MTX in these animals were much more severe than those induced by DOX (Herman et al. 1997). Congestive heart failure in patients with MS is considered a dose-dependent and delayed complication of MTX treatment at a dose level above the cumulative dose of  $100 \text{ mg/m}^2$ , especially in patients with additional cardiac risk factors. However, myocardial dysfunction could occur at concentrations below  $100 \text{ mg/m}^2$ , challenging this security threshold (Cotte et al. 2009). The authors further suggested that a single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) in the *ABCB1* gene could confer different susceptibility patterns to MTX-induced cardiotoxicity (Cotte et al. 2009). It is well known that differences in P-glycoprotein (encoded by *ABCB1*) confer different drug resistance patterns to cancer cells. In vitro cytotoxicity studies demonstrated that leukemic cells from patients carrying the polymorphisms 1236T/T and 2677T/T in the *ABCB1* gene were significantly more susceptible to MTX than those with other genotypes (Gréen et al. 2012). P-glycoprotein is also involved in mitochondrial iron transport (Richardson and Ponka 1997), and therefore, its involvement in the MTX-mediated cardiotoxicity cannot be ruled out (Fig. 3b).

Zhao et al. (2014) recently demonstrated that several mitochondrial proteins in mice, including those associated with the citric acid cycle and ETC, formed an adduct with 4-hydroxy-2-nonenal (HNE), which is a toxic sub-product of lipid peroxidation, decreasing enzymatic activity of mitochondrial proteins. In addition, treatment with Mn<sup>+3</sup> meso-tetrakis (*N*-n-butoxyethylpyridinium-2-yl)porphyrin, a SOD mimic, abrogated (or protected against) the DOX-induced HNE–protein adduct formation. The authors concluded that the free radical-mediated alteration of energy metabolism is an important mechanism of DOX-induced cardiac injury and suggested that metabolic intervention may represent a novel approach to prevent cardiac injury after chemotherapy (Zhao et al. 2014). However, antioxidant supplementation had a limited protective effect against the DOX-induced cardiotoxicity in both animals and human clinical studies (Ferreira et al. 2008; Šimůnek et al. 2009). Dexrazoxane (ICRF-187) decreased mitochondrial iron levels and reversed the DOX-induced cardiac damage. It is considered one of the most effective derivatives used clinically to prevent the anthracycline-induced cardiomyopathy. Co-administration of dexrazoxane with an anthracycline has been shown to improve the survival and to minimize the cardiac damage in a variety of animal models (Herman et al. 1988). Other iron chelators such as deferoxamine (DFO) and defarasinro have been investigated in vitro and in vivo, with variable findings. However, none of these compounds, despite being stronger chelators and/or antioxidants, have surpassed or even matched the effectiveness of dexrazoxane against chronic anthracycline-induced cardiotoxicity (Hasinoff et al. 2003; Stěrba et al. 2013). The failure of DFO to chelate mitochondrial iron is consistent with its poor mitochondrial permeability (Elihu et al. 1998; Ichikawa et al. 2014). These findings raise questions regarding how dexrazoxane prevents anthracycline cardiotoxicity, whether this is done through iron chelation only, and whether dexrazoxane can prevent the MTX-induced cardiotoxicity.

Shipp et al. (1993a, b) showed that dexrazoxane significantly reduced the high-dose MTX lethality in mice, facilitating the clinical use of dexrazoxane. The mechanism of cardioprotection postulated by the authors is related to iron chelation because dexrazoxane did not alter the toxicity of the non-chelating MTX analog ametantrone (Shipp et al. 1993a, b). As demonstrated by Herman et al. (2001), pretreatment with dexrazoxane attenuated the severity of MTX-induced myocardial damage in SHR. Furthermore, dexrazoxane augmented the therapeutic efficacy of MTX in experimental autoimmune encephalomyelitis (Weilbach et al. 2004). In this regard, more experimental and clinical studies evaluating the efficacy of co-administration of MTX and dexrazoxane for cancer and neurological disorders are

needed to determine whether this combination can improve the symptoms while reducing cardiotoxicity.

### Topoisomerase inhibition

DNA topoisomerases are a class of enzymes involved in the topological aspects of DNA replication, transcription, recombination, and chromatin remodeling. These enzymes function by introducing temporary single- or double-strand breaks (DSBs) in the DNA (Champoux 2001). DNA strand breaks are induced by transesterification reactions using the active site tyrosine as a nucleophile that attacks the DNA phosphodiester backbone (Pommier 2013). Human cells have genes encoding six Tops (Top1, mtTop1, Top2α, Top2β, Top3α, and Top3β), whereas bacteria express four Tops (Top I, Top III, gyrase, and Top IV). Quinolone antimicrobial drugs such as norfloxacin, levofloxacin, and gemifloxacin are DNA gyrase and Top IV inhibitors, whereas DOX, MTX, etoposide, and dexrazoxane are Top2α and Top2β inhibitors. This specificity is important for the therapeutic applications of these molecules (Pommier 2013; Pommier et al. 2010). Although development of new molecules for cancer therapy that target Top1 has received increased attention (Pommier 2013), in this review, we focus on Top2α and Top2β since these enzymes are the targets of DOX and MTX.

Top2α and Top2β are nearly 70 % identical in their amino acid sequences but are encoded in humans by genes located on different chromosomes. Top2α is encoded by a gene on chromosome 17, and Top2β is encoded by that on chromosome 3 (Austin et al. 1993).

The mechanism of action of Top inhibitors, which prevent the binding of DNA and the enzyme, revealed another new paradigm of drug action, which is the enzyme poisoning rather than catalytic inhibition (Pommier 2013). DOX binds both DNA and Top2 to form a ternary Top2–DOX–DNA cleavage complex, which triggers the cell death (Capranico and Zunino 1992). Yi et al. (2007) demonstrated that mouse embryonic fibroblasts from Top2β-knockout embryos were resistant to DOX-induced cell death. It has recently been demonstrated that the Top2β enzyme, which is the only Top enzyme expressed in myocytes, is the key molecular mediator in the anthracycline-associated cardiotoxicity (Vejpongsa and Yeh 2014a). Top2 poisons, i.e., drugs that form ternary complexes, such as DOX and MTX, induce γ-H2AX DNA damage signal foci in various cell types, demonstrating the DNA strand break formation (Rogakou et al. 1998; Saffi et al. 2010). Following the generation of a DNA DSB, phosphoinositide 3-like kinases, e.g., ATM, ATR, and DNA-dependent protein kinase, are activated and phosphorylate the Ser139 of histone H2AX

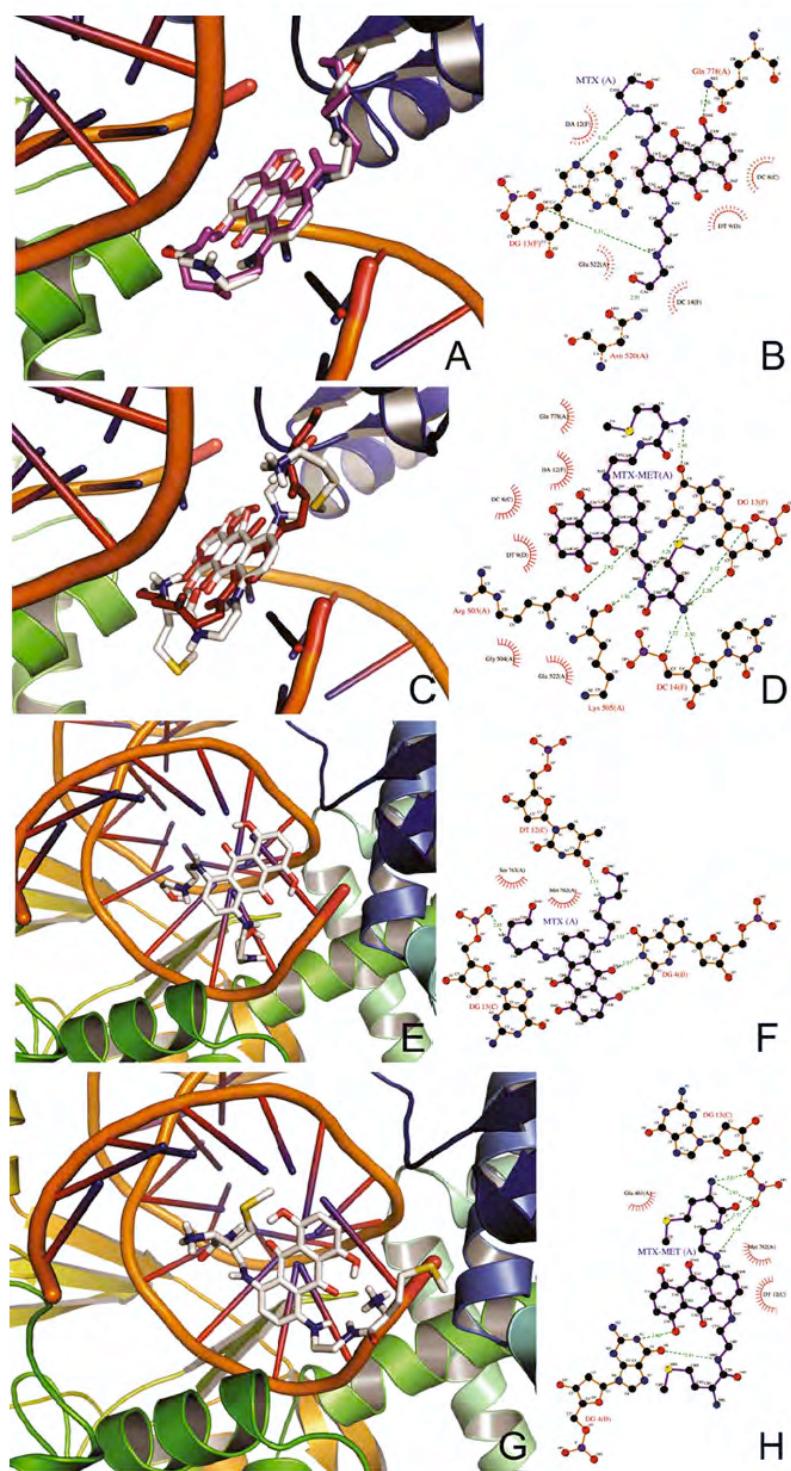
(Park et al. 2003). A study conducted by Zhang et al. (2012) that compared Top2 $\beta$ -knockout (Top2 $\beta^{\Delta/\Delta}$ ) mice and Top2 $\beta^{+/+}$  mice demonstrated that the Top2 $\beta^{+/+}$  animals treated with DOX showed high levels of expression of genes coding proteins involved in an apoptosis pathway, such as Apaf1, Bax, Fas, and Trp53inp1, a p53-inducible gene, which was 200-fold upregulated. Activation of the DNA damage response in the hearts of the Top2 $\beta^{+/+}$  mice treated with DOX was confirmed by immunostaining of  $\gamma$ -H2AX, whose intensity was 60 % lower in the Top2 $\beta^{\Delta/\Delta}$  mice. In addition, the levels of transcripts encoding NADH dehydrogenase 1 $\alpha$  subcomplex 3 (NDUFA3), succinate dehydrogenase complex II, subunit A (SDHA), and ATP synthase subunit  $\alpha$  (ATP5A1) markedly decreased in the DOX-treated Top2 $\beta^{+/+}$  cardiomyocytes compared with their levels in the DOX-treated Top2 $\beta^{\Delta/\Delta}$  cardiomyocytes. This study highlighted the role of Top2 $\beta$  in the DOX-mediated cell death and indicated that the cell death might be due to DNA damage with consequent loss of mitochondrial function (Zhang et al. 2012).

Oxidation of nitrogen bases (8-hydroxydeoxyguanosine) in mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) of rat hearts, as well as a deletion of about 4 kb in mtDNA of mice hearts, has been detected after subchronic and chronic exposure to DOX (Adachi et al. 1993; Serrano et al. 1999). Besides this, acute DOX exposure was also found to reduce mtDNA synthesis in rat cardiac tissue (Hixon 1981). In rats treated with repeated intravenous injections of a low dose (0.8 mg/kg) of DOX, heart tissue had low activity of cytochrome c oxidase and high activity of citrate synthase. Additionally, expression of respiratory chain subunits encoded by mtDNA decreased, while that nuclear-encoded respiratory chain subunits was preserved (Lebrecht and Walker 2007). Furthermore, Khiati et al. (2014) recently demonstrated that genetic inactivation of mtTop1 in mice led to a reduced mtDNA copy number and increased mtDNA damage in heart tissue following DOX treatment. The mice showed a decrease in O<sub>2</sub> consumption because of the mitochondrial defect and an increase in ROS production, as well as enhanced heart muscle damage. The authors concluded that mtTop1, which is conserved across the vertebrates, is critical for cardiac tolerance to DOX and for adaptive responses to cardiotoxicity. They also suggested the potential use of mtTop1 SNP testing to investigate the patient susceptibility to DOX (Khiati et al. 2014). New insights have challenged the concept that DOX cardiotoxicity is a sum of somewhat independent events, indicating that they are all consequences of the interaction among DOX–Top2–DNA. Dexrazoxane, an iron chelator, forms an intricate complex with the ATPase domain of human Top2 $\alpha$  and Top2 $\beta$  and prevents anthracyclines from binding to Top2 (Roca and Wang 1994). Therefore, preventing anthracyclines from binding to the Top2–DNA complex might be the

mechanism by which dexrazoxane prevents the anthracycline-induced cardiotoxicity (Yi et al. 2007). Consequently, blocking and degrading Top2 $\beta$  should also be considered useful clinical strategies to prevent the anthracycline-induced cardiotoxicity, as recently reported by (Vejpongsa and Yeh 2013).

In the case of MTX, some studies addressed its interaction with Top2 $\beta$ . Wu et al. (2013) determined the high-resolution crystal structures of Top2 $\beta$  cleavage complexes stabilized by MTX. Huang and Lin (2014) demonstrated that this drug formed a weak cleavage complex with Top2 $\beta$  as compared with that formed with Top2 $\alpha$ . Top2 $\beta$  down-regulation leads to MTX resistance in a leukemia cell line (Hermanson et al. 2013). In another study, an L-methionine-conjugated MTX (MTX-MET) molecule (WRC-213) displayed good cytotoxic potential with less cardiotoxicity compared with that of MTX. WRC-213 induces the comet-tail formation in DNA of fewer cells (indicating less genotoxicity), as well as lower cytotoxicity than MTX in H9c2 cells. The authors suggested that the population-doubling time of H9c2, which is about twofold lower than that of cancer cells, is a determining factor of the less WRC-213 toxicity in cardiac cells (Hsiao et al. 2008). If this hypothesis, however, was true, MTX should have shown less cardiotoxicity as well, which was not observed. Furthermore, in another study from the same research group, 1,4-bis-L/L-methionine-conjugated MTX-induced DNA breaks, cancer cell apoptosis, and revealed antitumor activities comparable to those of MTX. At the same time, the conjugated drug showed more favorable drug resistance profiles and a higher maximum tolerated dose in mice, indicating less toxicity (Lee et al. 2012).

To test the above hypothesis, molecular docking experiments were performed to analyze the interaction mode of selected compounds with the receptor complex Top2 $\beta$ –DNA and MTX or MTX-MET (WRC-213), as well as with Top2 $\alpha$ –DNA and MTX or MTX-MET (WRC-213), using the crystal structures of both Top enzymes. The receptor and ligand structures were prepared using AutoDock Tools 1.5.2, while docking simulations were performed with AutoDock4.2 (Morris et al. 2009), granting full flexibility to the ligands. The Lamarckian genetic algorithm was used for the docking with 25 runs, and the remaining parameters were set to their default values. The molecular interaction study of the ligands with the Top enzymes revealed that the lower cardiotoxicity of WRC-213 may result from a change in the binding energy that would lead to a lower affinity to Top2 $\beta$  ( $\Delta G = -3.32$  kcal/mol) compared with that of MTX ( $\Delta G = -7.82$  kcal/mol). This change in the binding energy is not observed for the Top2 $\alpha$  enzyme (Fig. 4). The above results could be partially explained by non-bonded interactions achieved using LIGPLOT (Wallace et al. 1995), which showed that the Top2 $\alpha$ –DNA and MTX



**◀Fig. 4** Molecular docking experiments. The topoisomerase, Top2 $\beta$  and Top2 $\alpha$ , tertiary structures are represented as a cartoon, and mitoxanthrone (MTX) and MTX-MET (WRC-213) are represented as a stick. In a–d, the crystal structure of Top2 $\beta$ :DNA, associated with MTX (PDB ID: 4G0 V), was used as a template. Top2 $\beta$  is biologically active as a dimer; however, only chain A was used to perform all docking experiments. For all simulations, the 3D-grid dimensions used to define the Top2 $\beta$  active site and to evaluate the scoring function were 28 × 40 × 16, with the spacing of 0.375 Å, and the 3D-grid center was established at 32.723 92.396 51.99. In e–h, the crystal structure of Top2 $\alpha$ :DNA (PDB ID: 4FM9) was used as a template. For all simulations, the 3D-grid dimensions used to define the Top2 $\alpha$  active site and to evaluate the scoring function were 50 × 50 × 30, with the spacing of 0.375 Å, and the 3D-grid center was established at 32.723 92.396 51.99. a Three-dimensional representations of Top2 $\beta$ –DNA–ligand interactions. Docking simulations for Top2 $\beta$ –DNA–MTX (PDB ID: 4G0 V), showing the crystallographic structure of MTX and the best pose (RMSD: 1.04 Å and  $\Delta G = -7.82$  kcal/mol) of the docking protocol (*magenta*). b LIGPLOT diagram of Top2 $\beta$  amino acids and DNA interacting with MTX. c Three-dimensional representations of Top2 $\beta$ –DNA–MTX–MET achieved by molecular docking ( $\Delta G = -3.32$  kcal/mol). The Top2 $\beta$  tertiary structure is represented as a cartoon, and MTX-MET is represented as a stick. d LIGPLOT diagram of Top2 $\beta$  amino acids and DNA interacting with MTX-MET. e Docking simulations for Top2 $\alpha$ –DNA–MTX, showing the crystallographic structure of Top2 $\alpha$ –DNA and the best pose ( $\Delta G = -3.53$  kcal/mol) of the docking protocol. f LIGPLOT diagram of Top2 $\alpha$  amino acids and DNA interacting with MTX. g Three-dimensional representations of Top2 $\alpha$ –DNA–MTX–MET achieved by molecular docking ( $\Delta G = -5.88$  kcal/mol). h LIGPLOT diagram of Top2 $\alpha$  amino acids and DNA interacting with MTX-MET. In b, d, f, and h, the ligand bonds are shown in purple, the non-ligand bonds are shown in light brown, and the hydrogen bonds are shown by green dashed lines. Ligand atoms are surrounded by a yellow circle if they are highly accessible and by a brown circle if they are buried. Non-ligand residues in hydrophobic contact with the ligand are presented by red semi-circles with radiating spokes. The figure was prepared using PyMol ([www.pymol.org](http://www.pymol.org))

complex had five hydrogen bonds with DNA bases (DG4, DT12, and DG13) and hydrophobic contacts with Met762 and Ser763. In contrast, the intermolecular interactions of Top2 $\alpha$ –DNA and MTX-MET showed six hydrogen bonds and three hydrophobic contacts. The same analysis was performed with Top2 $\beta$ –DNA and MTX and revealed four hydrogen bonds and five hydrophobic contacts versus eight hydrogen bonds and six hydrophobic contacts between Top2 $\beta$ –DNA and MTX-MET. In the case of Top2 $\alpha$ –DNA, it seems that the affinity is linked to the number of hydrogen bonds and hydrophobic contacts (Top2 $\alpha$ –DNA–MTX,  $\Delta G = -3.53$  kcal/mol and Top2 $\alpha$ –DNA–MTX–MET,  $\Delta G = -5.88$  kcal/mol); however, the same conclusion could not be made for Top2 $\beta$ –DNA. Nevertheless, the affinity and specificity between a ligand and its protein targets depend on directional hydrogen bonds, more specifically, on the distance and angle between the hydrogen donor and acceptor (Caceres et al. 2008; Herman 1997; Morris et al. 2009). The angle could cause an energetic difference in terms of the strength of a hydrogen bond, which can explain the higher affinity between Top2 $\alpha$ –DNA and

MTX-MET compared with that between Top2 $\alpha$ –DNA and MTX.

It is really a hard task to determine atomic features responsible for selectivity and affinity. Molecular dynamics studies are required in order to unveil and determine the kind of intermolecular forces ruling the selectivity and affinity of MTX and MTX-MET for Top2 $\alpha$ –DNA and Top2 $\beta$ –DNA.

### Inhibition/overactivation of poly(ADP-ribose) polymerase

Regarding similarities and differences in the mechanisms of action of DOX and MTX, although their clinical aspects are partially the same, the underlying mechanisms seem to differ. Indeed, the MTX-induced cardiotoxicity may have its origin in MTX interference with cardiac energetic metabolism instead of oxidative stress (Alderton et al. 1992; Bachmann et al. 1987; Rossato et al. 2013b). Evidence suggests that the ROS and RNS generated in cardiomyocytes and endothelial cells can induce oxidative DNA damage and consequent activation of the nuclear enzyme poly(ADP-ribose) polymerase 1 (PARP1), the most abundant isoform of the PARP enzyme family (Pacher and Szabó 2007). Energy depletion can be triggered by activating PARP1 since this enzyme consumes NAD<sup>+</sup> as its substrate (Satoh and Lindahl 1992).

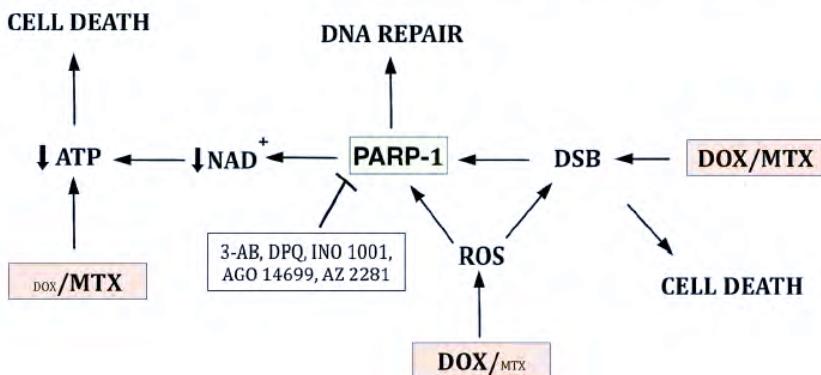
Poly-ADP-ribosylation, a posttranslational modification involved, among other things, in transcription, DNA repair, and cell death, is carried out by a superfamily of 17 PARPs (Dantzer and Santoro 2013). These polymerases synthesize poly(ADP-ribose) (PAR) from NAD<sup>+</sup>, releasing nicotinamide. The PAR polymer binds to Glu, Asp, and Lys residues in nuclear proteins, including PARP itself, and creates a transitional nucleophilic environment. By virtue of the high negative charge of PAR polymers, marked auto-PARylation of PARP1 and PARP2 leads to their dissociation from DNA, which is required for DNA repair completion (Satoh and Lindahl 1992). The PARP1 enzyme is activated by DNA breaks and facilitates their repair by loosening chromatin and recruiting repair proteins to the site of injury. Poly-ADP-ribosylation modulates protein functions by regulating either enzymatic activities or macromolecular interactions with other proteins, DNA, or RNA. On the other hand, PAR molecules can also regulate protein activity and function through non-covalent binding that may serve to attract protein targets (Hakmé et al. 2008).

PARP is one of the first proteins that recognize injuries in DNA and is therefore in an ideal position to directly recruit the DNA base excision repair (BER) machinery to the site of DNA damage in living cells (Lindahl et al. 1995). Indeed, this interaction has been supported by the

identification of a BER complex comprising PARP1, X-ray repair cross-complementing protein 1 (XRCC1), DNA ligase III, and DNA polymerase  $\beta$  (Caldecott et al. 1996; Kubota et al. 1996; Masson et al. 1998). Moreover, PARP1 has been recently identified as a partner of APE1, the main apurinic/apyrimidinic endonuclease responsible for the generation of apurinic/apyrimidinic sites when the BER mechanism is activated, indicating that PARP1 is able to stimulate the APE1 strand-incision activity (Prasad et al. 2015). The PAR polymer is mainly degraded by poly(ADP-ribose) glycohydrolases to form short polymers and monomers (Aredia and Scovassi 2014; Gagné et al. 2006). The common feature of the involvement of poly-ADP-ribosylation in different paradigms of cell death is represented by PAR, which can cause cells to die through diverse mechanisms (Bürkle and Virág 2013). In addition to catalytic inhibition, it was recently demonstrated that PARP inhibitors induce the formation of cytotoxic PARP–DNA complexes, and clinically relevant PARP inhibitors differ markedly in their potency to trap this complex. This study proposes a novel mechanism involved in the synthetic lethality and the involvement of PARP1 and PARP2, with several approaches to DNA repair, such as BER, homologous recombination (HR), and FANC proteins (Murai et al. 2012). Cancers characterized by BRCA1 and BRCA2 (proteins involved in DSB repair by HR) deficiencies have been treated using PARP inhibitors in the absence of exogenous DNA-damaging agents by targeting spontaneous DNA repair defects observed in certain tumors (Bryant et al. 2005; Farmer et al. 2005). In 2010, PARP inhibitors such as iniparib (BSI-201), olaparib (AZ2281), veliparib (ABT-888), AG014699, and INO-1001, among others, were used alone or in combination with other drugs in several clinical trials. Only two of these drugs reached phase III studies (Annunziata and O'Shaughnessy 2010). Currently, there are 161 clinical trials assessing the efficacy of PARP inhibitors alone or in combination with other drugs in cancer chemotherapy, 13 of which are in Phase III (<http://clinicaltrials.gov>).

In cardiomyocytes treated with DOX, the activation of poly-ADP-ribosylation can drive cells to energy insufficiency caused by NAD depletion (Pillai et al. 2005). In this case, cells die by necrosis, a more drastic mode of cell death. Infarcted rat hearts were shown to be characterized by increases in PARP activation, left ventricular mass, and the pathological score. These alterations were prevented by the administration of 3-aminobenzamide, a catalytic PARP inhibitor, demonstrating the involvement of PARP in the energy deprivation-mediated cell death (Wang et al. 2014). INO-1001, another catalytic PARP inhibitor, was able to markedly attenuate the reperfusion injury, resulting in a better recovery of biventricular and endothelial function as well as energy reserves after orthotopic pig heart transplantation, which opens great possibilities for clinical use of INO-1001 (Heger et al. 2005). However, a phase II study conducted to evaluate the safety of INO-1001 in subjects who had experienced heart attack and were to be treated with coronary angioplasty, was concluded with no results posted (<http://clinicaltrials.gov>). Nevertheless, rucaparib (AG014699), a PARP inhibitor tested in trials, ameliorates cardiotoxicity but does not enhance the DOX efficacy, despite improving tumor perfusion and a radiation response in mice (Ali et al. 2011). In a study conducted by Magan et al. (2012), HeLa cells treated with PJ34, a potent PARP inhibitor, showed increased Top2 $\alpha$  promoter activity and, consequently, an increase in the Top2 $\alpha$  protein level. The results indicated a new potential use for PARP1 inhibitors to reset cellular sensitivity to Top2 poisons by enhancing the amount of the Top2 $\alpha$  protein present in cells and highlighted that PARP1 inhibitors have the potential to improve current chemotherapy regimes in a multifactorial manner (Magan et al. 2012). The data obtained in our laboratory demonstrated that the co-treatment with DOX or MTX and 3,4-dihydro-5-[4-(1-piperidinyl)butoxyl]-1(2H)-isoquinolinone (DPQ), a potent PARP inhibitor, diminished the H9c2 cell viability when compared with DOX or MTX treatment alone. There is evidence indicating a strong relation between PARP inhibition and an increase in DNA

**Fig. 5** Role of poly(ADP-ribose) polymerase 1 (PARP1) as a molecule that unifies the reactive oxygen species (ROS) energy metabolism and DNA repair, among other processes, cannot be overlooked since the oxidative damage and DNA strand breaks generated by topoisomerase 2 inhibition are among the processes that require PARP1 function. DOX, doxorubicin; DSB, double-strand break; MTX, mitoxantrone



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#### **4. Capítulo II**

Este capítulo consiste em um manuscrito de dados a ser submetido ao periódico *Toxicology and Applied Pharmacology*, intitulado *Influence of PARP-1 inhibition in the cardiotoxicity of the topoisomerase 2 inhibitors doxorubicin and mitoxantrone.*

O objetivo foi avaliar a influência da inibição de PARP-1 na toxicidade induzida por DOX e MTX em células cardíacas. Foram realizados ensaios de viabilidade, estresse oxidativo e genotoxicidade além de análises de proteínas envolvidas na DDR por western blot e imunofluorescência em células colocadas em tratamento por 24 horas.

Os resultados apontam para um aumento na toxicidade mediada por DOX e MTX em mioblastos cardíacos (células indiferenciadas) que receberam o inibidor de PARP-1 em comparação com as que não receberam. Sugere-se que, mesmo que a inibição de PARP-1 cause uma diminuição na geração de metabólitos oxidativos, o aumento na indução de morte celular ocorra pelo incremento na geração de quebras no DNA em cardiomioblastos expostos aos inibidores de Top2 avaliados no estudo. Discute-se neste manuscrito, também, as diferenças no padrão de respostas, em níveis celular e molecular, que se observa em diferentes modelos de estudos *in vitro* e *in vivo* de toxicidade cardíaca mediada por quimioterápicos e o quanto isto deve influenciar na escolha daquele que melhor se encaixa ao que o estudo quer responder.

**Influence of PARP-1 inhibition in the cardiotoxicity of the topoisomerase 2  
inhibitors Doxorubicin and Mitoxantrone**

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## **Abstract**

Doxorubicin (DOX) and Mitoxantrone (MTX) are very effective drugs in a wide range of tumors such as breast cancer and lymphoma, in spite of being highly cardiotoxic. MTX is also indicated as an immunomodulatory agent for reducing the neurological disability of worsening relapsing-remitting multiple sclerosis. DNA topoisomerase 2 beta (Top2 $\beta$ ) poisoning was revealed as the key mediator of DOX-induced cardiotoxicity, although ROS generation is also an important mechanism of toxicity attributed to DOX. Oxidative stress is also an important issue in the MTX-induced cardiotoxicity, which is manifested by mitochondrial dysfunction. Some studies have demonstrated a relationship between PARP-1 overactivation and induction of death in cardiomyocytes treated with DOX. Regarding MTX, there is so far no information about PARP-1 overactivation involvement in the mechanism of cardiotoxicity. The aim of this study was to evaluate PARP-1 inhibitor 3,4-Dihydro-5-[4-(1-piperidinyl)butoxyl]-1(2H)-isoquinolinone (DPQ) influence on cardiac toxicity of DOX and MTX in H9c2 cells. Cells were exposed for 24 h to 0.1 and 1  $\mu$ M of DOX or MTX in the presence or absence of 10  $\mu$ M of DPQ and viability, apoptosis and genotoxicity assays were carried out. Also, immunofluorescence of phosphorylated histone H2AX was analyzed in H9c2 and neonatal rat's cardiomyocytes. Results demonstrated that DPQ co-treatment increases DOX and MTX apoptosis in H9c2. Also, DPQ prevents DOX and MTX-ROS generation in part by restoring SOD and CAT activities. Furthermore, DPQ co-treatment increases DNA strand breaks generation by DOX and MTX and induced phosphorylation of H2AX, MRE11 and ATM in H9c2 myoblasts. Taken together our results demonstrated that by increasing DNA damage and inducing apoptotic cell death, DPQ enhances DOX and MTX mediated cytotoxicity in H9c2.

## Introduction

Doxorubicin (DOX), an anthracycline that is among the most widely used chemotherapeutic agents, still remains as a very effective drug in a wide range of tumors such as breast cancer and lymphoma, in spite of being highly cardiotoxic (Cardinale et al., 2015; Smith et al., 2010). Mitoxantrone (MTX) is an anthracenedione used in the treatment of breast and prostate cancer, acute leukemia, lymphomas and since 2000, as an immunomodulatory agent for reducing the neurological disability of worsening relapsing-remitting multiple sclerosis. MTX was synthetized to maintain or improve the antitumor activity of anthracyclines and reduce their cardiotoxic effects (Seiter, 2005). Unfortunately, although the pathways are still poorly defined, cardiotoxicity induced by MTX has been extensively reported (Fleischer et al., 2014; Hofmann et al., 2013; Joyce et al., 2013).

DOX cardiotoxicity was previously attributed to an overproduction of reactive oxygen species (ROS) which induce cell damage (Octavia et al., 2012; St  rba et al., 2013). However, this theory has been challenged by recent studies showing that there is not leading role of ROS on DOX cardiotoxicity (Rharass et al., 2016; Pimprapa Vejpongsa and Yeh, 2014). DNA topoisomerase 2 beta (Top2  ) poisoning was revealed as the key mediator of DOX-induced cardiotoxicity (P Vejpongsa and Yeh, 2014; Zhang et al., 2012). This hypotheses emerged as the most widely accepted since the other assumptions, such as the increased oxidative stress, could be explaining by it: reduction in antioxidant genes transcription and activity (Zhang et al., 2012).

MTX has a lower capability to generate ROS than DOX (Mewes et al., 1993), although *in vivo* and *in vitro* studies have revealed that oxidative stress is an important issue in the MTX-induced cardiotoxicity (Rossato et al., 2013a, 2013b). Also, similarly

to DOX (Zhang et al., 2012), MTX also induces mitochondrial dysfunction, which occurs earlier than the ROS production increase (Rossato et al., 2014). Whilst MTX induces DNA strand breaks in fibroblasts (Smart et al., 2008), recently, Hasinoff et al. (2016) demonstrated high Top2 $\beta$ -DNA covalent complexes formation in human leukemia K562 cells exposed to 5 and 10  $\mu$ M of MTX. Also, DOX and MTX treatments significantly increased percentage of LDH release over untreated controls up to 0.1  $\mu$ M concentration (Hasinoff et al., 2016). Since MTX decreases viability of H9c2 cardiomyoblastic cells and targets Top2 $\beta$ , like DOX (Hsiao et al., 2008), it is reasonable to believe that this may also be the main mechanism of MTX cardiotoxicity.

Poly(ADP-ribosyl)ation, a post-translational modification performed by a family of enzymes called poly(ADP-ribose) polymerases is involved in the regulation of multiple cellular functions such DNA repair, gene transcription, cell cycle progression, energetic metabolism, antioxidant response, cell death and genomic stability (Cantó et al., 2013; Erdélyi et al., 2013; Virág, 2005). Doxorubicin-induced necrosis is mediated by overactivation of PARP-1, the most abundant enzyme isoform, which leads to NAD<sup>+</sup> and ATP depletion, translocation of apoptosis-inducing factor (AIF) to the nucleus, ultimately triggering DNA fragmentation (Shin et al., 2015). Since PARP-1 activity inhibition protects heart from ROS generated by ischemic myocardial damage (J. Wang et al., 2014; M. Wang et al., 2014), it has been tested against DOX-related cardiotoxicity (Ali et al., 2011; Pacher et al., 2002a).

Related to MTX, little is known about its association with PARP-1 inhibitors regarding cardiotoxicity. It is necessary, however, to verify this interaction aiming to clarify the cardiotoxicity pathway mediated by MTX. Notwithstanding, association between DOX and PARP inhibitors still needs definitions of its effect being either

cardioprotective or cardiotoxic. Therefore, the aim of this study was to evaluate PARP-1 influence in DOX and MTX-mediated ROS generation, DNA damage and cell death.

## Materials and Methods

### *Chemicals*

Low-melting-point agarose (LMP), high-melting-point agarose (HMP), RIPA buffer (50 mM Tris–HCl, pH 7.5, 150 mM sodium chloride, 1% Triton X-100, 0.1% SDS, 2 mM EDTA, 0.5% sodium deoxycholate), pancreatin from porcine pancreas, methylthiazolydiphenyl-tetrazolium bromide (MTT), propidium iodide (PI), DOX, MTX, 2',7'-dichlorofluorescein diacetate (DCFH-DA), hydrogen peroxide ( $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ ) and 3,4-Dihydro-5-[4-(1-piperidinyl)butoxyl]-1(2H)-isoquinolinone (DPQ) were purchased from Sigma (St. Louis, MO, USA). Dulbecco's modified Eagle medium (DMEM), fetal bovine serum (FBS), trypsin–EDTA, L-glutamine, penicillin/streptomycin, phosphate-buffered saline (PBS;  $\text{Na}_2\text{HPO}_4$ ,  $\text{KH}_2\text{PO}_4$  and  $\text{KCl}$ , pH 7.4) and trypan blue (TB) were obtained from Gibco GIBCO (Grand Island, NY, USA). Primary antibody for phosphorylated proteins  $\gamma$  H2AX, MRE11 and ATM were obtained from Cell Signaling Technology (Danvers, MA, USA). Secondary antibody anti-rabbit IgG (H+L) F(ab')2 fragment conjugated to Alexa Fluor® 488 were obtained from and Invitrogen (Grand Island, NY, USA). Annexin V-Phycoerythrin (PE) and 7-Amino-Actinomycin (7-AAD) were purchased from BD Biosciences (San Diego, CA, USA).

### *H9c2 culture conditions*

H9c2 cell line was obtained from the Rio de Janeiro Cell Bank (Rio de Janeiro, RJ, Brazil). Cells were grown in DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS, 100 units. $\text{mL}^{-1}$  penicillin and 100  $\mu\text{g} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$  streptomycin at 37°C in a humidified atmosphere of 5%  $\text{CO}_2$ .

### ***Isolation of neonatal cardiomyocytes and cardiac fibroblasts***

Neonatal cardiomyocytes and cardiac fibroblasts were isolated from Wistar rats provided by Animal Facility of Federal University of Health Sciences of Porto Alegre, as previously described by Goldenberg et al. (2009). The cultures were maintained with DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS, 100 units.mL<sup>-1</sup> penicillin and 100 µg.mL<sup>-1</sup> streptomycin, at 37 °C in a 5% CO<sub>2</sub> humidified incubator. All animal protocols were approved by our institutional animal care and use committee (number 160/12).

### ***Cell treatment***

To evaluate the viability by MTT and trypan blue exclusion assays, 1 × 10<sup>4</sup> cells were seeded on 96-well plates in growth medium and incubated overnight before treatment. The cell death, ATP, γH2AX expression, ROS production, SOD and CAT activities were evaluated using 2 × 10<sup>5</sup> cells grown overnight before treatment. Afterwards, DOX or MXT (0.1 and 1 µM) was added to each well and incubated for 24 h in presence or absence of DPQ (10 µM).

### ***MTT assay***

At the end of each treatment, after discarding the medium, 200 µL of MTT was added to the cells and incubated for 3 h at 37°C. In sequence, medium containing MTT were discarded and 150 µL of DMSO was added to resuspend cells. Absorbance was measured with a SpectraMax M2<sub>e</sub> Microplate Reader (Molecular Devices, Sunnyvale, CA, USA) at a test wavelength of 492 nm (A<sub>492</sub>) and a reference wavelength of 690 nm (A<sub>690</sub>). The final result corresponds to A<sub>492</sub>-A<sub>690</sub>. The absorbance of negative control cells was set as 100% viability, and the values for treated cells were calculated as a percentage of the control.

### ***Trypan blue dye-exclusion assay (TBDE)***

After treatment, 10 µL of suspended H9c2 cells was mixed with 10 µL of 0.4% trypan-blue solution. Cytotoxicity (the cellular growth inhibitory rate) was determined from the number of viable cells (no color) in treated samples as a percentage of the PBS control. We used the Countess® Automated Cell Counter (Invitrogen). The test was carried out according to the instructions of the manufacturer.

### ***Assessment of apoptosis/necrosis by flow cytometric analysis***

Annexin V-PE was used in conjunction with a vital dye, 7-AAD, to distinguish apoptotic (Annexin V-PE positive, 7-AAD negative) from necrotic (Annexin V-PE positive, 7-AAD positive) cells. After a 24 hours', cells were collected and resuspended in 40 µL of binding buffer (with 2 µL Annexin V-PE). Cells were incubated for 15 min in the dark at room temperature. After incubation, 160 µL of binding buffer and 2 µL of 7-AAD were added. Cells were incubated for 5 min and additional 200 µL of binding buffer were added. Data were collected and analyzed by a FACS Calibur flow cytometer with CellQuest software (BD Biosciences, San Diego, CA, USA), in a total of 10,000 events per sample; fluorescence was measured and the percentage of viable, early apoptotic, late apoptotic and necrotic cells was determined.

### ***ATP assay***

ATPlite kit (PerkinElmer, Waltham, MA, USA) which is based in the luciferin-luciferase bioluminescent assay (Higashi et al., 1985; Stanley, 1986) was performed in treated cells, as indicated by the manufacturer. The luminescence of negative control cells was set as 100% viability, and the values for treated cells were calculated as a percentage of the control.

### ***Immunofluorescence of γH2AX***

After treatment, cells were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde for 15 min, washed with PBS and permeabilized in 0.5% Triton X-100. Cover slips were blocked with PBS plus (PBS + 0.05% Tween-20 + 3% BSA) for 1 h and incubated with rabbit monoclonal IgG anti- γ H2AX (Cell Signaling) primary antibody (1:1000) overnight at 4 °C, followed by Alexa Fluor 488 goat anti-rabbit IgG (Invitrogen) secondary antibody (1:1000) for 2 h at 4°C. Cover slips were counterstained with 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI) for nuclei staining. The cover slip was removed from the plate and mounted onto a microscope slide. Cells were analyzed at a magnification of 1000× using a fluorescence microscope. Cells containing more than 10 foci were considered positive for H2AX phosphorylation ( $\gamma$ H2AX)

### ***Western blotting***

Whole cell lysates from the cells exposed to DOX; DOX+DPQ; MXT; MXT+DPQ for 24 h were prepared using RIPA buffer. The protein contents in the supernatants were measured by using a Bio-Rad DC protein assay kit II (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA, USA), separated on 4–12% NuPAGE Bis-Tris gels (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) and electro-transferred onto a Hybond ECL transfer membrane (GE Health Are Bio-Science, Piscataway, NJ, USA). The membranes were blocked with 5% BSA and immunoblotted with ATM, MRE11,  $\gamma$ H2AX, and  $\beta$ -actin (Cell signaling, Danvers, MA, USA) antibodies.

### ***Comet assay***

The alkaline comet assay was performed as previously described (Singh et al., 1988). Briefly, 10  $\mu$ L of cell suspension ( $1 \times 10^4$  cells) treated 24 h with DOX; DOX+DPQ; MXT; MXT+DPQ were mixed with 90  $\mu$ L LMP agarose, spread on a normal

agarose precoated microscope slide, and placed at 4°C for 5 min to allow for solidification. Cells were lysed in high concentration of salt and detergent (2.5 M NaCl, 100 mM Na<sub>2</sub>EDTA, 10 mM Tris with 1% Triton X-100 and 10% DMSO freshly added) for 2 h. Slides were removed from lysing solution and washed three times with PBS. Subsequently, cells were exposed to alkali conditions (300 mM NaOH/1 mM Na<sub>2</sub>EDTA, pH >13, 30 min, 4°C) to allow DNA unwinding and expression of alkali-labile sites. Electrophoresis was conducted for 25 min at 25 V and 300 mA (94 V/cm). After electrophoresis, the slides were neutralized and silver stained (Nadin et al., 2001). One hundred cells were scored visually according to the tail length and the amount of DNA present in the tail. Each comet was given an arbitrary value of 0–4 (0, undamaged; 4, maximally damaged), as described by Collins et al. (1995). Damage score was thus assigned to each sample and can range from 0 (completely undamaged: 100 cells X 0) to 400 (with maximum damage: 100 cells X 4). International guidelines and recommendations for the comet assay consider that visual scoring of comets is a well-validated evaluation method, as it is highly correlated with computer-based image analysis (Burlinson et al., 2007; Collins et al., 1995). The neutral assay was performed at pH 8.5, essentially according to the same procedure as the alkaline version, except at lower pH. In the neutral version, electrophoresis was carried out in a buffer consisting of 100 mM Tris and 300 mM sodium acetate at pH 8.5 (Singh et al., 1988; Wojewódzka et al., 2002).

#### ***Detection of ROS and Mitochondrial Transmembrane Potential $\Delta\Psi_m$ by flow cytometric analysis***

Levels of intracellular ROS were estimated after treatment using 2',7'-dichlorofluorescein diacetate (H<sub>2</sub>DCFDA) (Sigma, St. Louis, MO, USA) as a fluorescent probe. Detection of oxidative stress was done by incubating the cells with 20 µM of

$\text{H}_2\text{DCFDA}$  for 20 min at 37°C. Cells were then detached and washed twice with PBS. After, cells were analyzed using a FACS Calibur flow cytometer with CellQuest software in accordance with Bass et al. (Bass et al., 1983). A total of 10,000 events were measured per sample. DCF fluorescence intensity was shown in arbitrary units.

Mitochondrial potential  $\Delta\Psi_m$  was assessed by exposure of cells to 1  $\mu\text{M}$  of membrane-permeable lipophilic cationic fluorochrome rhodamine 123 (Rh-123; Invitrogen/Molecular Probes) for 30 min at 37°C in the dark. Samples were washed in PBS and analyzed by flow cytometry. A total of 10,000 events were measured per sample. Excitation/Emission wavelengths were 488 nm and 530/30 nm respectively. Data were collected in log scale and analyzed using Cell Quest Pro® software.

#### ***Superoxide dismutase (SOD) activity***

SOD activity was evaluated by inhibition of superoxide-dependent autoxidation of epinephrine, verifying the absorbance of the samples at 480 nm (Misra and Fridovich, 1972). Briefly, to 20  $\mu\text{L}$  of each sample (H9c2 protein extracts) were added 170  $\mu\text{L}$  of a mixture containing 50 mM Glycine buffer pH 10.2 and 10 mM Catalase. After that, 10  $\mu\text{L}$  of epinephrine were added and the absorbance was immediately recorded each 30 s for 12 min at 480 nm in SpectraMax M2e Microplate Reader. The inhibition of autoxidation of epinephrine occurs in the presence of SOD, whose activity can be then indirectly assayed spectrophotometrically. One SOD unit is defined as the amount of SOD necessary to inhibit 50% of epinephrine autoxidation and the specific activity is reported as SOD Units/mg protein.

#### ***Catalase (CAT) activity***

CAT activity was assayed according to the method described by Aebi (1984), based on the disappearance of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  at 240 nm. Briefly, 10  $\mu\text{L}$  of each sample (H9c2

protein extracts) were added to 180 µL of 20 mM Potassium phosphate buffer pH 7.2. Subsequently, 10 µL of 5 mM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> were added and the absorbance was immediately recorded each 30 s for 10 min at 240 nm using SpectraMax M2e Microplate Reader. One CAT unit is defined as one µM of hydrogen peroxide consumed per minute and the specific activity is calculated as CAT Units/mg protein.

### ***Statistical analysis***

All experiments were independently repeated at least three times, with triplicate samples for each treatment. Results are expressed as means ± standard deviation (SD). Data were analyzed by one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), and means were compared using Tukey test, with P ≤ 0.05 considered as statistically significant.

## **Results**

### ***DPQ co-treatment increases DOX and MTX cytotoxicity in H9c2 myoblasts***

Twenty-four-hours treatment with DOX significantly decreases cell viability, compared to control, in the two tested concentrations (0.1 and 1µM) (P<0.0001). Furthermore, MTT and TBDE viability assays demonstrated that co-treatment of DOX with the PARP inhibitor DPQ magnifies the cytotoxicity induced by 1 µM of DOX (P<0.05) (Fig 1A and 1C). MTX also significantly decreases cell viability when compared against the cells receiving no treatment, in the concentrations of 0.1 and 1 µM (P < 0.0001). Nevertheless, in the case of MTX, the increased cytotoxicity mediated by co-treatment with DPQ was only observed in the lowest tested concentration (0.1 µM), when compared to 0.1 µM MTX treatment alone (P<0.05) (Fig 1B and 1D).

Apoptosis and necrosis was assessed by flow cytometer, using Anexin-V PI and 7-AAD protocol, which demonstrated an increase in the population of cells in apoptosis after 24-hour exposure to 1 µM of DOX with or without 10 µM of DPQ (P<0.0001). Furthermore, PARP inhibition increases apoptotic cells population after co-treatment

with DOX 1  $\mu$ M, comparing with DOX treatment alone ( $P<0.001$ ). Regarding MTX, the same pattern was observed: 1  $\mu$ M of MTX with or without 10  $\mu$ M of DPQ increases apoptotic cells population, comparing with control ( $P<0.0001$ ). Also, co-treatment with 10  $\mu$ M of DPQ increases apoptosis, in comparison with MTX (1  $\mu$ M) alone ( $P<0.0001$ ), after 24-hour treatment (Fig 1E and 1F).

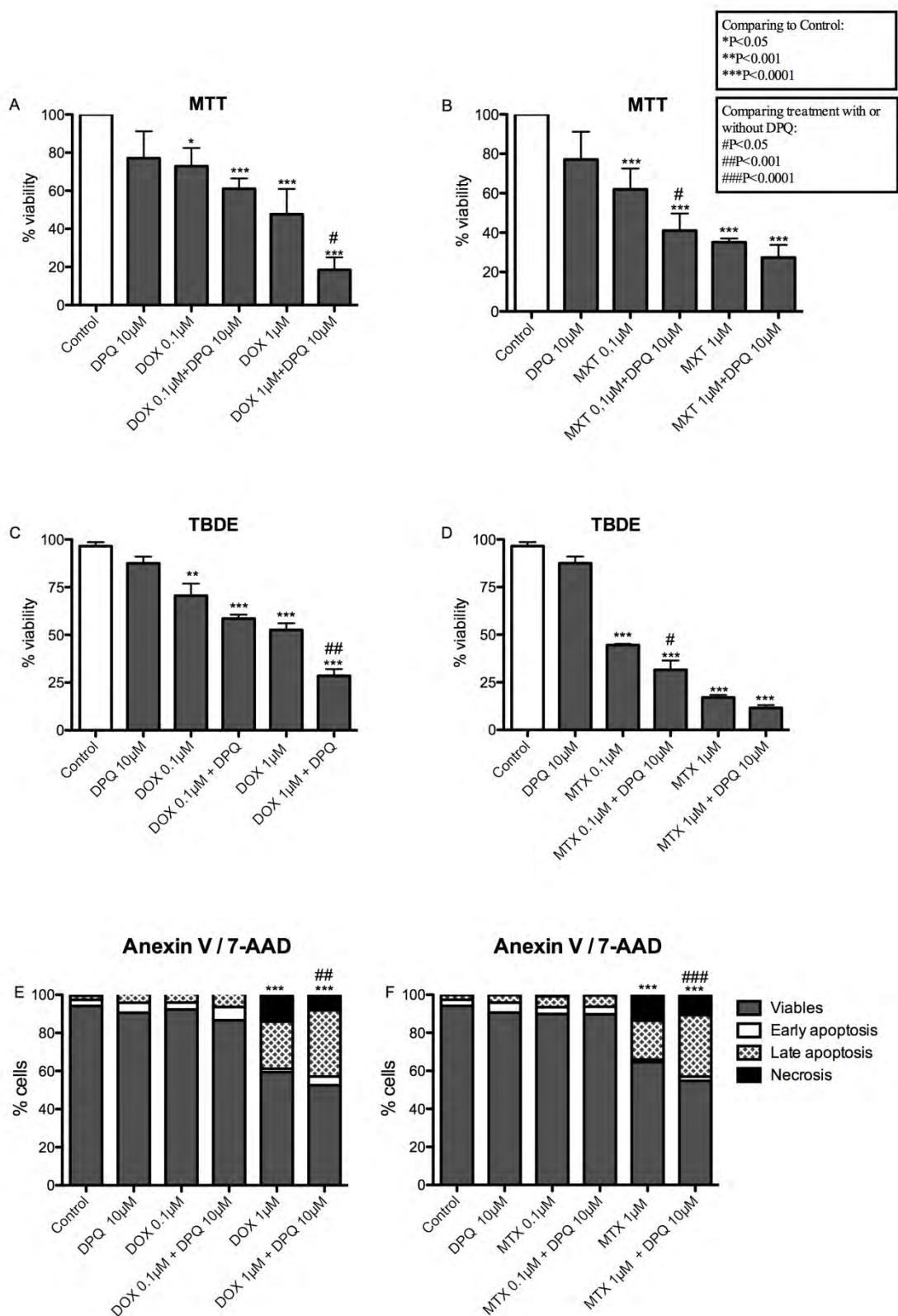


Fig 1: Citotoxicity assays performed in H9c2 cells cells exposed for 24h to DOX or MTX with or without DPQ. A: MTT assay in DOX treated cells, B: MTT assay in MTX treated cells, C: TBDE assay, D: TBDE assay in MTX treated cells, E: Apoptosis/Necrosis assay in DOX treated cells and F: Apoptosis/Necrosis assay in MTX treated cells.

**DOX and MTX decreases mitochondrial transmembrane potential and intracellular ATP concentration in H9c2**

We observed both DOX and MTX decreasing protons efflux from matrix to intermembrane space ( $P<0.0001$ ). However, this alteration in mitochondrial function was not modified by DPQ (Fig 2A and 2B). Moreover, MTX and DOX, at equivalent 1  $\mu$ M concentration, reduce ATP levels in 24 hours by half the values obtained in untreated cells. Also, DPQ co-treatment exerts no influence on the ATP depletion mediated by DOX and MTX (Fig 2C and 2D).

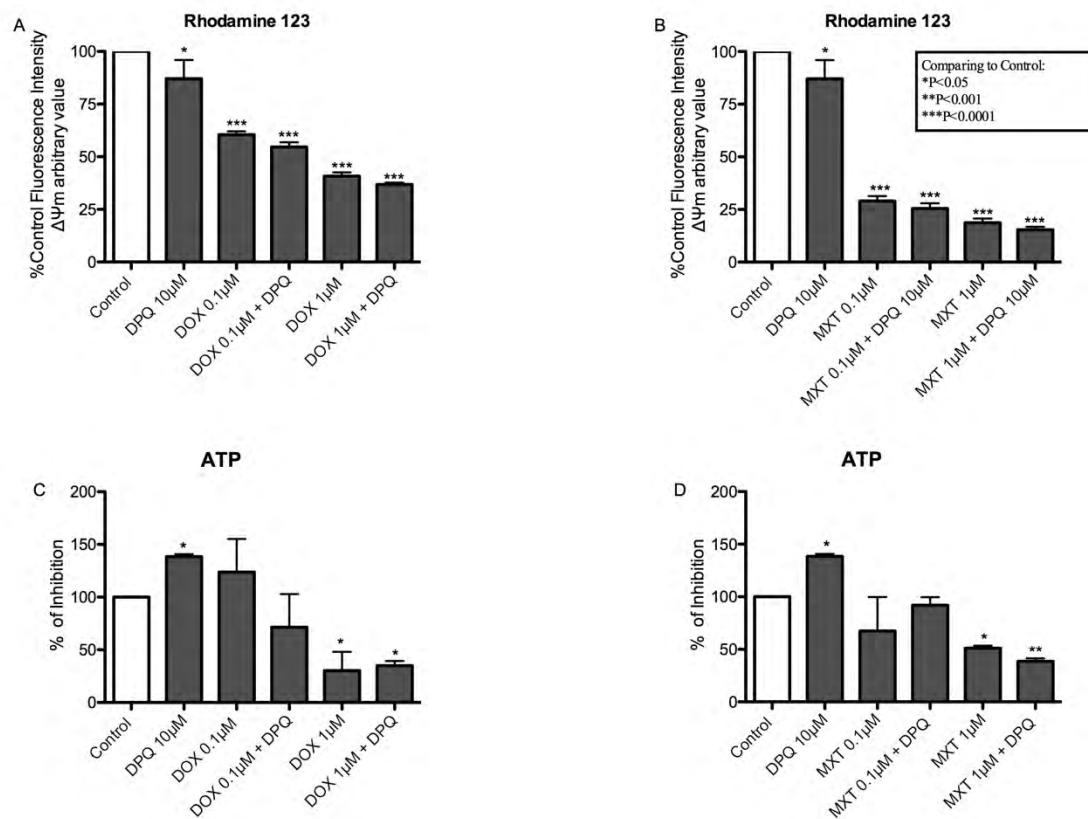


Fig 2: Mitochondrial transmembrane potential and intracellular ATP concentrations in H9c2 cells cells exposed for 24h to DOX or MTX with or without DPQ. A: Rhodamine 123 assay in DOX treated cells, B: Rhodamine 123 assay in MTX treated cells, C: ATP lite assay in DOX treated cells and D: ATP lite assay in DOX treated cells.

***DPQ prevents DOX and MTX ROS generation in part by restoring SOD and CAT activities in H9c2***

The analysis of ROS generation, by using 2',7'-dichlorofluorescein diacetate assay, revealed an increase in oxidative metabolites production after treatment with 0.1 and 1  $\mu$ M of DOX ( $P<0.0001$ ). Surprisingly, co-incubation with DPQ prevents ROS generation induced by 0.1  $\mu$ M and 1  $\mu$ M of DOX ( $P<0.0001$ ) (Fig 3A). Also, a crosstalk between activity of antioxidant enzymes (CAT, SOD) and PARP-1 inhibition, was observed in our results. While 0.1 and 1  $\mu$ M of DOX decreases SOD and CAT activity, co-treatment with 10  $\mu$ M of DPQ prevents the loss of activity of both enzymes in cells treated with 1  $\mu$ M of DOX (Fig 3C and 3E).

MTX treatment, in the two tested concentration (0.1 and 1  $\mu$ M) also induces ROS generation after 24 hour of incubation, in H9c2 cells ( $P<0.0001$ ). However, DPQ 10 $\mu$ M co-treatment decreases the amount of ROS generated by 0.1 and 1 $\mu$ M of MTX, compared to MTX alone ( $P<0.0001$ ) (Fig 3B). A slight increase in SOD activity in cells exposed to 1 $\mu$ M of MTX + DPQ was observed when compared with same concentration of drug without DPQ, nevertheless, no statistical significance was detected between these experimental groups (Fig. 3D). When analyzing CAT activity, 0.1 and 1 $\mu$ M of MTX decreases its activity, while 0.1 $\mu$ M of MTX+ DPQ prevents this effect ( $P<0.0001$ ) (Fig 3F).

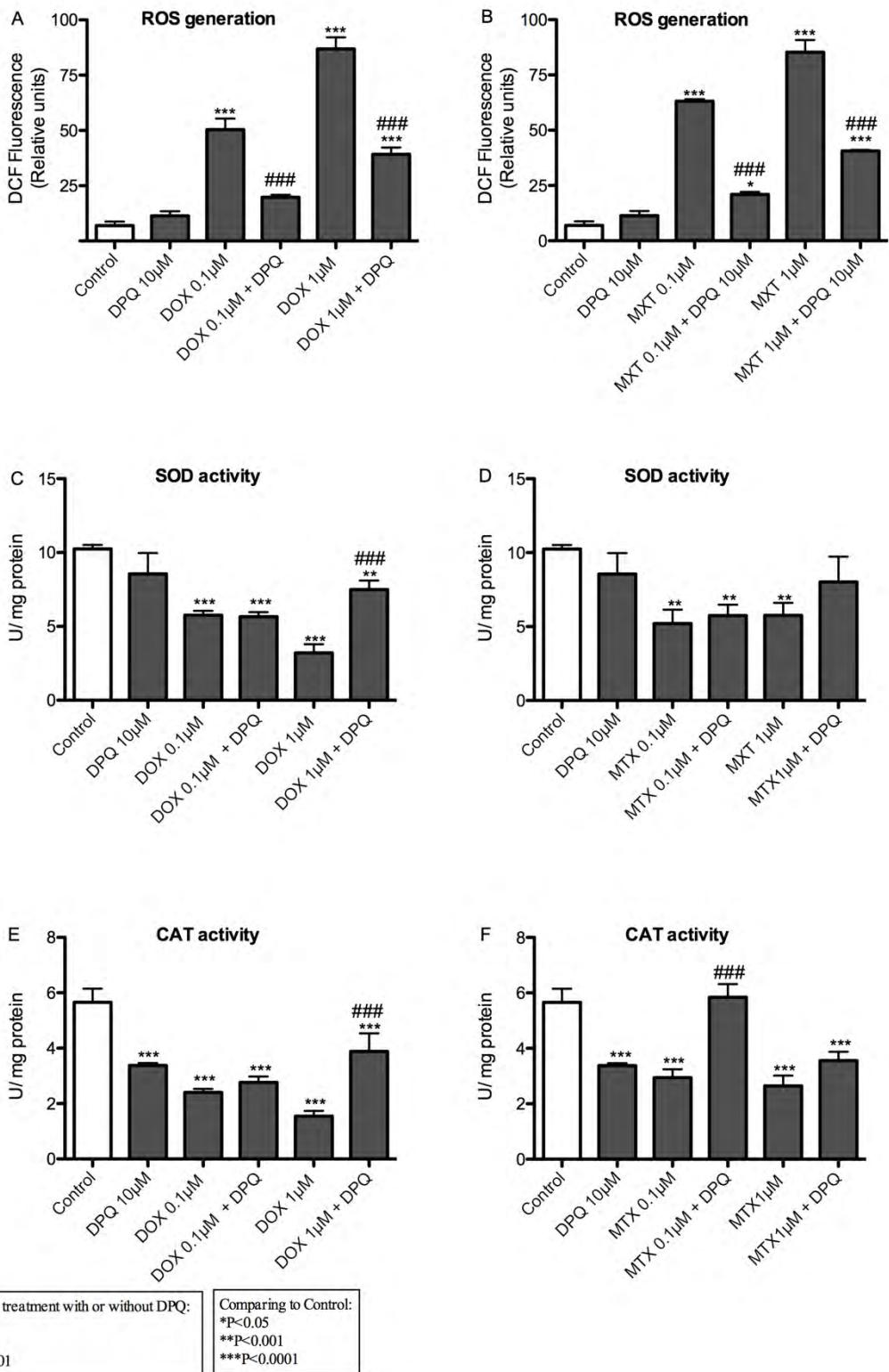


Fig 3: Oxidative stress evaluation in H9c2 cells exposed for 24h to DOX or MTX with or without DPQ. A: DCF assay in DOX treated cells, B: DCF assay in MTX treated cells, C: SOD activity measurement in DOX treated cells, D: SOD activity measurement in MTX treated cells, E: CAT activity measurement in DOX treated cells and F: CAT activity measurement in MTX treated cells.

**DPQ co-treatment increases DNA strand breaks generation by DOX and MTX and induces phosphorylation of H2AX, MRE11 and ATM in H9c2 myoblasts.**

Genotoxicity data show that 1 $\mu$ M of DOX associated to DPQ increases generation of both single (alkaline comet) and double (neutral comet) DNA strand breaks in H9c2 cells ( $p<0.0001$ ) (Fig 4A and 4C). We found similar results when analyzing MTX data of neutral comet assay (MTX 1 $\mu$ M+DPQ versus MTX 1 $\mu$ M ( $P<0.0001$ )) but not in alkaline assay (Fig 4B and 4D).

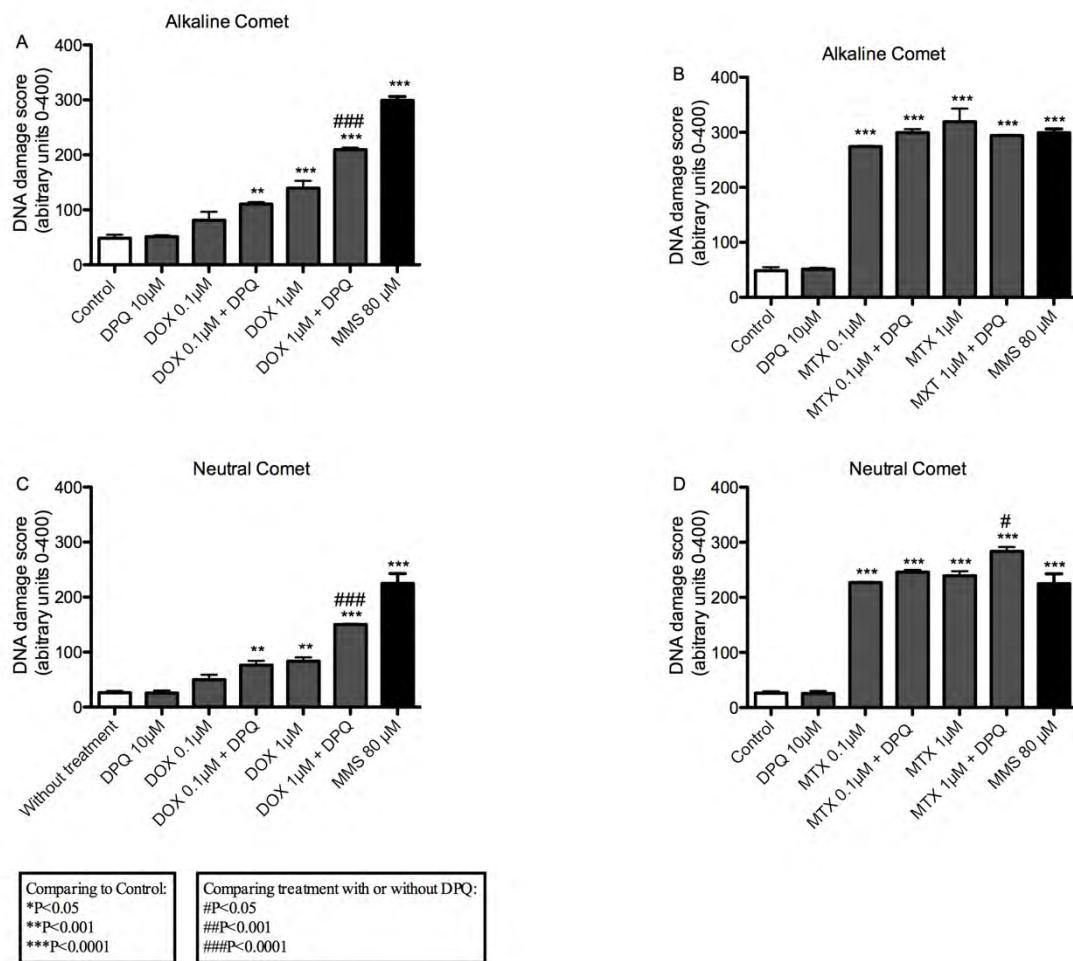


Fig 4: A and B – Alkaline and neutral comet assay in H9c2 cells treated for 24 hours with DOX with or without DPQ. C and D - Alkalyne and Neutral Comet assay in H9c2 cells treated for 24 hours with MTX with or without DPQ.

Immunofluorescence analysis of  $\gamma$ H2AX in H9c2 cells treated for 24 hours with DOX 1 $\mu$ M demonstrated an increase in foci generation either in presence or absence of DPQ (Fig 4A). Western blot analyses of cells exposed to DOX 1 $\mu$ M ( $P<0.001$ ) or DOX

$1\mu\text{M}$  + DPQ ( $P<0.05$ ) confirm the increased signal observed in immunofluorescence of  $\gamma\text{H2AX}$ , indicating induction of DNA damage (Fig 4B and 4D). Furthermore, increased MRE-11 phosphorylation was observed in cells exposed to DOX  $1\mu\text{M}$  with or without DPQ ( $P<0.05$ ) (Fig 4B and 4E). However, an increase in phosphorylated ATM was only observed in H9c2 cells treated with DOX  $1\mu\text{M}$ +DPQ ( $P<0.001$ ) demonstrating that inhibition of PARP-1 activity enhance DOX mediated DSB damage signaling (Fig 4B and 4C).

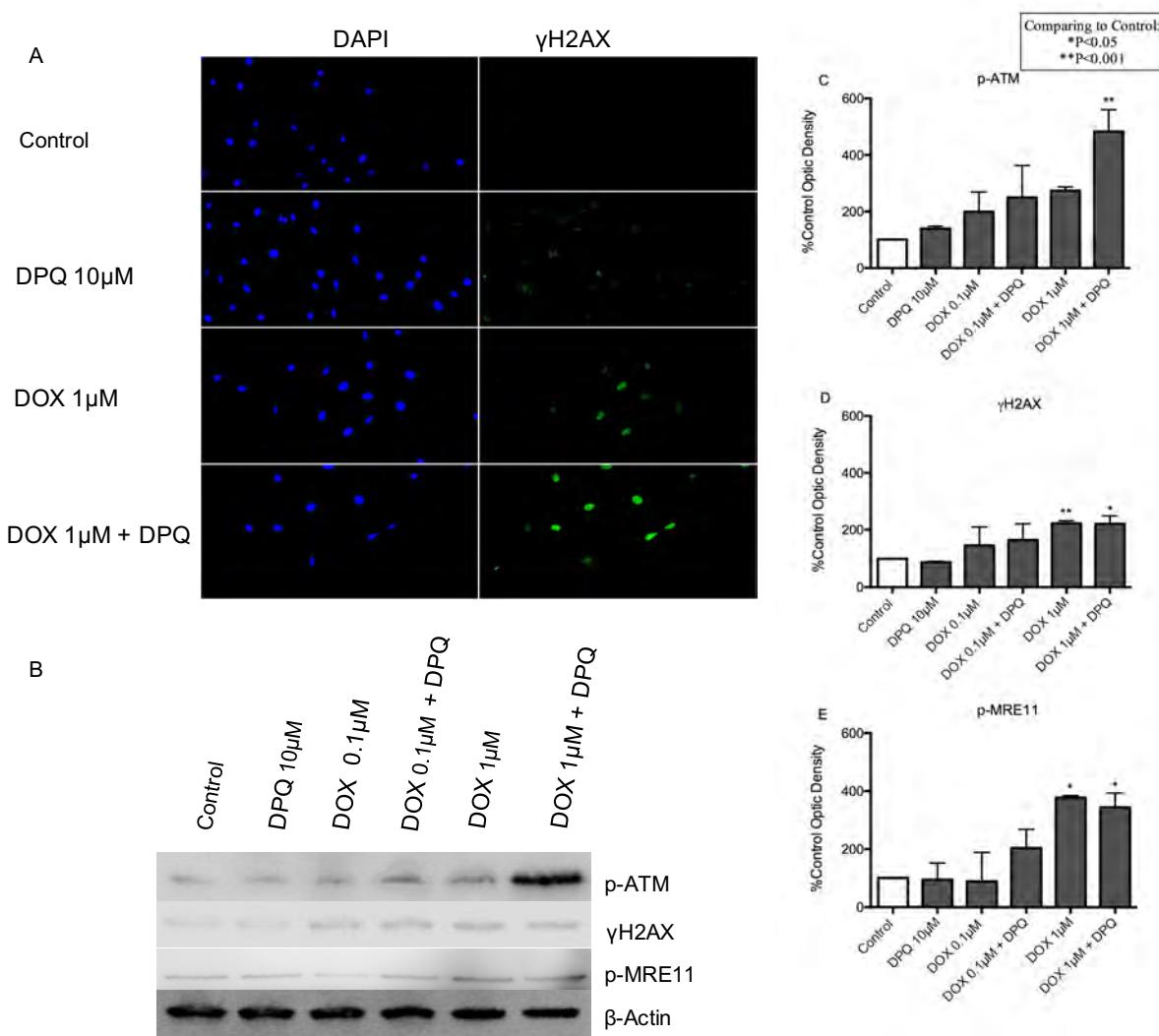


Fig 5: A - Immunofluorescence of  $\gamma\text{H2AX}$  foci. B, C, D and E - Western blot of phosphorylated ATM, H2AX and MRE-11 in H9c2 cells exposed for 24h to DOX with or without DPQ.

Regarding MTX, as observed by immunofluorescence, H9c2 cells treated for 24 hours with 1 $\mu$ M demonstrated an increase in foci generation either in presence or absence of DPQ (Fig 5A). Protein levels of pATM, and  $\gamma$ H2AX increases only in MTX 0.1  $\mu$ M H9c2 treated cells, when in presence of DPQ, as demonstrated in western blot results. Clearly, in the above mentioned result, inhibition of PARP-1 activity enhances the phosphorylation levels of DSB related proteins in comparison with MXT isolated treatment. (Figure 5B, 5C and 5D). Although a small tendency to an increased signal could be observed in phosphorylated MRE-11, this was not enough to be statistically detected (Fig 5B and 5E). Overall, MTX presented a higher ability to cause DNA breaks than DOX at equivalent concentrations. Furthermore, DPQ increased both MTX and DOX potency to induce DNA damage signal in H9c2 cells submitted to a 24 hours' treatment.

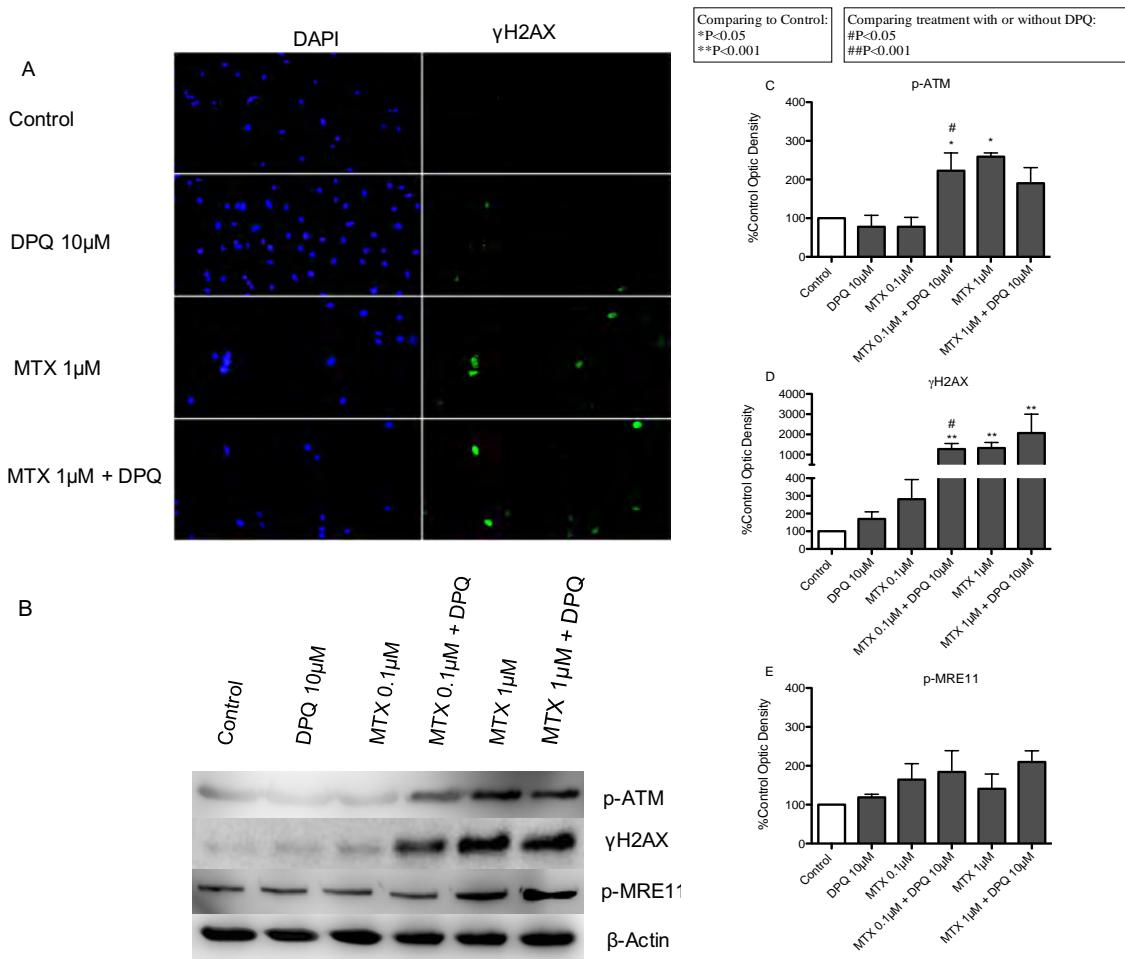


Fig 6: A - Immunofluorescence of  $\gamma$ H2AX foci. B, C, D and E - Western blot of phosphorylated ATM, H2AX and MRE-11 in H9c2 cells exposed for 24h to MTX with or without DPQ.

***Neonatal rat cardiomyocytes treated with DOX or MTX presented a reduction in phosphorylation of H2AX in the presence of PARP-1 inhibitor.***

We performed immunofluorescence analysis of phosphorylated histone H2AX in neonatal rat cardiomyocytes treated either with DOX or MTX in presence or absence of DPQ. Our aim with this approach was to verify possible differences, regarding DNA damage generation, between differentiated (neonatal rat cardiomyocytes) and undifferentiated (H9c2 rat cardiomyoblastic cell line) cells, forward the proposed treatments. PARP-1 inhibition decreases the MTX (1 $\mu$ M) induced histone H2AX

phosphorylation in neonatal rat cardiomyocytes treated for 24 hours ( $P<0.05$ ) (Fig 6A, 6B, 7A and 7B). Furthermore, cardiac fibroblasts isolated from neonatal rats presented loss of viability as from  $1\mu\text{M}$  of DOX with no influence of DPQ ( $P<0.05$ ). (Fig S2). Moreover, MTX treatment induces loss of cardiac fibroblasts viability with lower concentration ( $0.1\mu\text{M}$ ) than those seen in DOX treatment ( $P<0.0001$ ). However, as it has occurred with DOX exposition, PARP-1 inhibition by DPQ did not exert any influence on MTX toxicity in cardiac fibroblasts (Fig S2).

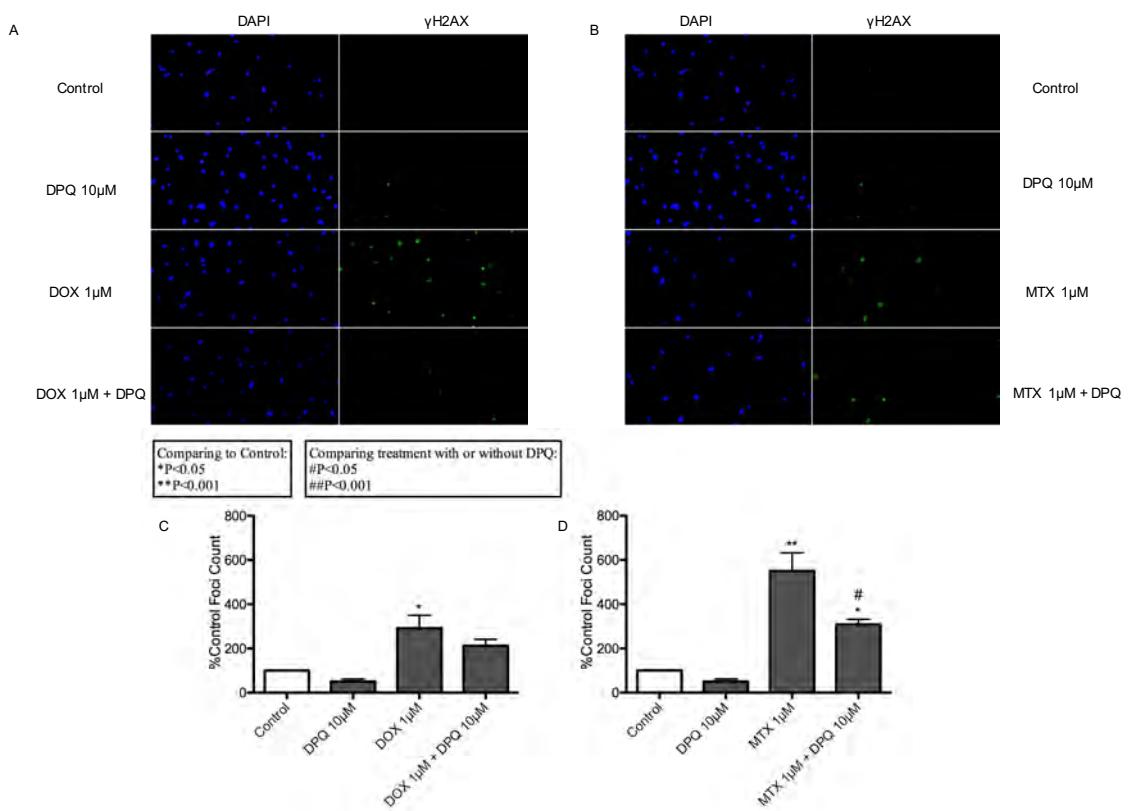


Fig 7: Immunofluorescence analysis of  $\gamma\text{H2AX}$  foci in neonatal rat cardiomyocytes exposed for 24h to DOX or MTX with or without DPQ. A and B: Foci visualization, C and D: Foci quantification.

## **Discussion**

The main goal of this study was to evaluate the influence of PARP-1 inhibitor DPQ on DOX and MTX mediated cardiotoxicity. In order to achieve our aim, experiments in myoblastic cells derived from rat hearts (H9c2 cell line) were conducted. Data of viability assays performed after 24 hour of exposition with two DOX concentrations demonstrated that DPQ co-incubation induces more apoptotic cell death than DOX isolated, in the highest tested dose. Furthermore, incubation with MTX + DPQ presented, at the lowest utilized dose, an increased cytotoxicity when compared with MTX alone.

Our findings are different from those obtained by Pacher (Pacher et al., 2002a) which highlight PARP-1 activation contributing with cardiotoxicity of DOX. Pacher's study demonstrated severe depression of left ventricular function involving both systolic pressure development and relaxation in a well-established murine model of DOX cardiotoxicity. Working with transgenic PARP-1<sup>-/-</sup> and PARP-1<sup>+/+</sup> mice, they proposed that PARP inhibitors may exert protective effects against the development of severe cardiac complications associated with the DOX treatment (Pacher et al., 2002a). Virág (2005) proposed that overactivation of PARP-1 inhibits energy-dependent apoptotic pathway by depleting NAD<sup>+</sup> and ATP. Switching from apoptotic to necrotic death by PARP-1 activation may aggravate tissue damage. Here, PARP-1 inhibition kills cells more by apoptosis switching from necrosis, which occurs more in treatment with DOX or MTX alone, corroborating the findings listed above (Pacher et al., 2002b; Virág and Szabó, 2002; Virág, 2005). However, a decrease in viable cells population were observed when DPQ is utilized in co-treatment which probably occurs by inhibition of the main PARP-1 function, as a DNA damage sensor (reviewed by Sousa et al., 2012).

In other study, PARP-1 inhibitor AG014699 ameliorated cardiotoxicity but did not enhance the efficacy of DOX, despite improving tumor perfusion and radiation response in mice (Ali et al., 2011). PARP-2 depletion also prevented DOX induced cell damage and mitochondrial dysfunction through SIRT1 activation in PARP-2<sup>-/-</sup> mice (Bürkle and Virág, 2013; Szántó et al., 2011). Besides, PARP-1 inhibition was able to protect against DOX ischemic myocardial damage, by reducing the levels of apoptosis in infarcted Wistar rats (J. Wang et al., 2014). Furthermore, PARP-1 inhibition, as demonstrated in this study, did not reverse this energy depletion caused by DOX and MTX indicating that other ways than those involved in NAD<sup>+</sup> depletion induced by PARP-1 over activation (Pillai et al., 2005), such as inhibition of mitochondrial electron transport chain (ETC), may have a greater importance in this process.

All above mentioned studies, however, were conducted *in vivo* which means that analysis were made in heart tissues with high concentration of differentiated cardiomyocytes. It is important to remark that the experiments conducted in our laboratory were made with undifferentiated H9c2 rat cardiomyoblasts which keep high replicative activity (Hescheler et al., 1991). Results of two other studies, one conducted in LLC-PK<sub>1</sub> cells (a model of proximal tubular epithelial cells) and another with fibroblasts from PARP-deficient mice (both performed with replicating cells), demonstrated that inhibition or genetic ablation of PARP-1 resulted in elevated apoptotic parameters such as caspase activation or DNA fragmentation (Filipovic et al., 1999; Ha and Snyder, 1999). Protein level of PARP-1 decreases under the differentiation process of murine skeletal muscle cells and, concomitantly, the cells acquire a marked resistance to oxidative stress and develop a capacity to maintain cellular bioenergetics during oxidative challenge (Oláh et al., 2015). Oláh and co-authors propose that down regulation of PARP-1 works as a protection against deleterious consequences of oxidant-mediated

PARP-1 overactivation, such as cellular NAD<sup>+</sup> depletion, decrease in bioenergetics, or, in extreme cases, cell injury (Oláh et al., 2015).

It has been observed that MTX decreases ATP levels, alter mitochondrial membrane potential, increases intracellular calcium levels and inhibits ATP-synthase expression and activity, with therapeutic concentrations in H9c2 cells treated for 24 hours (Rossato et al., 2013b). DOX also induces ATP depletion and decreases mitochondrial ETC complex I activity in H9c2 (Jean et al., 2015). However, authors supports the hypothesis that mitochondrial damage is not the main source of the cardiotoxic effects of DOX (Jean et al., 2015). PARP inhibition with PJ34 reduces C2C12 myoblast death primarily by decreasing the portion of necrotic and early apoptotic populations in cells exposed to H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (Oláh et al., 2015). DOX-mediated ROS generation is well described in literature and was considered for a long time as main pathway of cardiotoxicity (Bachur et al., 1979; Berlin and Haseltine, 1981; Davies and Doroshow, 1986). Increased ROS as well as decreased in total and reduced glutathione concentration after 96 hours of MTX incubation were previously demonstrated in H2c2 cells. However, the radical scavenger N-acetylcysteine or the mitochondrial function enhancer L-carnitine did not prevent MTX cytotoxicity (Rossato et al., 2013b).

One group of factors that are greatly affected by changes in cellular NAD<sup>+</sup> levels, mediated by PARP-1 overactivation, is the class III histone deacetylases, also called sirtuins and SIRT proteins (Imai et al., 2000). These proteins are considered nuclear targets of redox signaling and function as energy sensors (Cohen, 2004; Fulco et al., 2003). Pillai et al., (2006) demonstrated that PARP-1 activation inhibits SIRT1 through NAD<sup>+</sup> depletion. Furthermore, SIRT1 activation induces antioxidant enzymes, such as MnSOD (Brookins Danz et al., 2009) or CAT (Hasegawa et al., 2008). Also, SIRT3, a member of this family of proteins that is related with mitochondrial metabolism, reduces

cellular ROS levels by increasing MnSOD, a major mitochondrial antioxidant enzyme (Qiu et al., 2010). Mice overexpressing SIRT3 were protected against DOX-induced ROS levels and cardiomyocyte death by maintaining the levels of OGG1, a major DNA glycosylase which hydrolyzes oxidized-guanine (8-Oxo-dG) to guanine, and protecting mitochondria from DNA damage (Pillai et al., 2016).

Pre-treatment with 5-aminoisoquinolinone (5-AIQ), a DPQ analogue PARP-1 inhibitor, neutralized ROS production and increased MnSOD and CAT protein expression in H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-exposed H9c2 cells (Park et al., 2013). Furthermore, 5-AIQ pretreatment also protected H9c2 cells from H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-induced apoptosis by triggering activation of Akt and glycogen synthase kinase-3β (GSK-3β) (Park et al., 2013). Similar findings were obtained in our study with DPQ which decreases the ROS generation induced by DOX and MTX. Also, as demonstrated here, PARP-1 inhibition restores CAT and SOD activity preventing the excess of ROS production in DOX treated myoblasts. Regarding cells treated with MTX, the relationship between PARP-1 inhibition and antioxidant enzymes activity was not so clear. An *in vivo* study indicated that inhibition of PARP-1 with DPQ, could reduce O<sub>2</sub><sup>−</sup> and ONOO<sup>−</sup> in rats following ischemic myocardial damage and reduce caspase-3-dependent apoptosis (J. Wang et al., 2014). In order to verify whether reduced in ROS generation by DPQ is due PARP-1 inhibition rather than its molecular structure, we conducted the 1,1-Diphenyl-2-picryl-hydrazyl (DPPH) assay which indicated that DPQ itself has no antioxidant activity (data not shown). This finding is in agreement with those obtained by another study (Czapski et al., 2004) demonstrating that DPQ has no antioxidant properties and seems to be a specific PARP-1 inhibitor. Accordingly, we propose that the antioxidant effect generated by PARP inhibition may be an indirect effect of an increase in the activity of SIRT proteins which regulates antioxidant response (Du et al., 2015).

It is plausible to believe, therefore, that PARP-1 inhibition in H9c2 cells, exert a cytotoxic effect that is independent of energetic imbalance induced by DOX or MTX but is probably dependent on cell DNA damage response (DDR). ADP-ribose polymers associated to DNA strand break, provide a landing platform for a plethora of PAR-binding proteins such as chromatin remodelers, DNA repair effectors and proteins involved in nucleic acid metabolism and RNA processing (Krietsch et al., 2013; Pellegrino and Altmeyer, 2016; Teloni and Altmeyer, 2016). Generation of DSB after DOX treatment is probably related to the inhibition of DNA Top2, as already suggested by Banáth and Olive (Banáth and Olive, 2003). As Top2 isoform  $\beta$  deletion prevented DOX induced DSB, inhibition of this enzyme comes to be more accepted hypothesis to explain the cardiotoxicity of anthracyclines (P Vejpongsa and Yeh, 2014; Yi et al., 2007; Zhang et al., 2012). Also, the cardioprotective drug Dexrazoxane (DRZ) prevents doxorubicin-induced DNA damage via depleting both Top2  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  (Deng et al., 2014). Furthermore, *in vitro* and *in vivo* experiments have shown that PARP-1 is activated by DSB (Haince et al., 2008; Langelier et al., 2012, 2011). In a study conducted with multiple myeloma cell line RPMI8226/R, PARP-1 inhibitor PJ34 increase the DNA damage induced by the alkylating agent melphalan through inhibiting DNA damage repair (Xiong et al., 2015). As reviewed by Beck et al., PARP-1 and PARP-2 exert protective role against incorrect DNA recombination in a context of high genomic instability triggered by physiological DSB (Beck et al., 2014). Nevertheless, in accordance with our results, a study reveals the cooperation between PARP1 and the DSB sensors MRE11 and NBS1 in the close vicinity of a DNA lesion (Haince et al., 2008). Authors suggest that there is a direct relation between the extent of serine 139 phosphorylated histone H2AX ( $\gamma$ H2AX) accumulation, the level of PAR synthesis and generation of DSB (Haince et al., 2008).

Increased in ATM phosphorylation, which is involved in oxidative stress and DDR, after 2 hour treatment with 1  $\mu$ M of DOX was previously observed in H9c2 cells (Huelsenbeck et al., 2011). Also, two hours of DOX treatment induced a strong increase in  $\gamma$ H2AX protein level at a dose of 1  $\mu$ M in H9c2, nevertheless, at a high concentration (10  $\mu$ M) phosphorylation of H2AX is no longer observed (Huelsenbeck et al., 2012). Contrasting with our results, Ma *et al.*, observed an increase of H2AX phosphorylation in H9c2 cells after 24 hours of exposure to 1  $\mu$ M of DOX (Ma et al., 2013). Here we demonstrated that only in association with DPQ, treatment with 1  $\mu$ M of DOX increases ATM phosphorylation. In terms of MTX, this is the first report to our knowledge demonstrating DNA damage (comet assay,  $\gamma$ H2AX foci,  $\gamma$ H2AX and ATM phosphorylated proteins increased) in H9c2 cardiomyoblastic cells exposed to this drug. Furthermore, PARP-1 inhibition turns MTX more genotoxic and cytotoxic to H9c2 cells treated for 24 h. Regarding the results observed in neonatal cardiomyocytes,  $\gamma$ H2AX immunofluorescence demonstrated PARP-1 inhibition decreasing DNA damage, corroborating our hypothesis about differences between the degree of differentiation and response against treatment with drugs tested in this study. Regardless of PARP-1 expression is different between C2C12 myoblasts and differentiated cardiac myotubes (Oláh et al., 2015).

The search for more powerful molecules with less non-target adverse effects remains one of the bottlenecks in oncology. One strategy in this way is try to decrease such effects in drugs that are already being used for a long time along with the search for new molecules. This is the scope in which this study fits: search for therapeutic approaches that may reduce cardiac toxicity mediated by DOX and MTX. Here only one of the many pieces of this puzzle are presented. Also, the role of PARP-1 as well as proteins involved in DDR in DOX and MTX-mediated cardiotoxicity need to be further

elucidated since the use of PARP-1 inhibitors has become a reality in chemotherapy protocols.

## Conclusions

PARP-1 inhibition mediated by DPQ acts as antioxidant response inducer in H9c2 cells submitted to DOX and MTX, two Top2 inhibitors which are known as ROS generation inducers. Nevertheless, by increasing DNA damage and inducing apoptotic cell death, DPQ enhances DOX and MTX mediated cytotoxicity in H9c2. Therefore, there is a need to be cautious when choosing the model for studying cardiotoxicity *in vitro* besides being aware of the limitations of extrapolating data.

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## Supplementary data

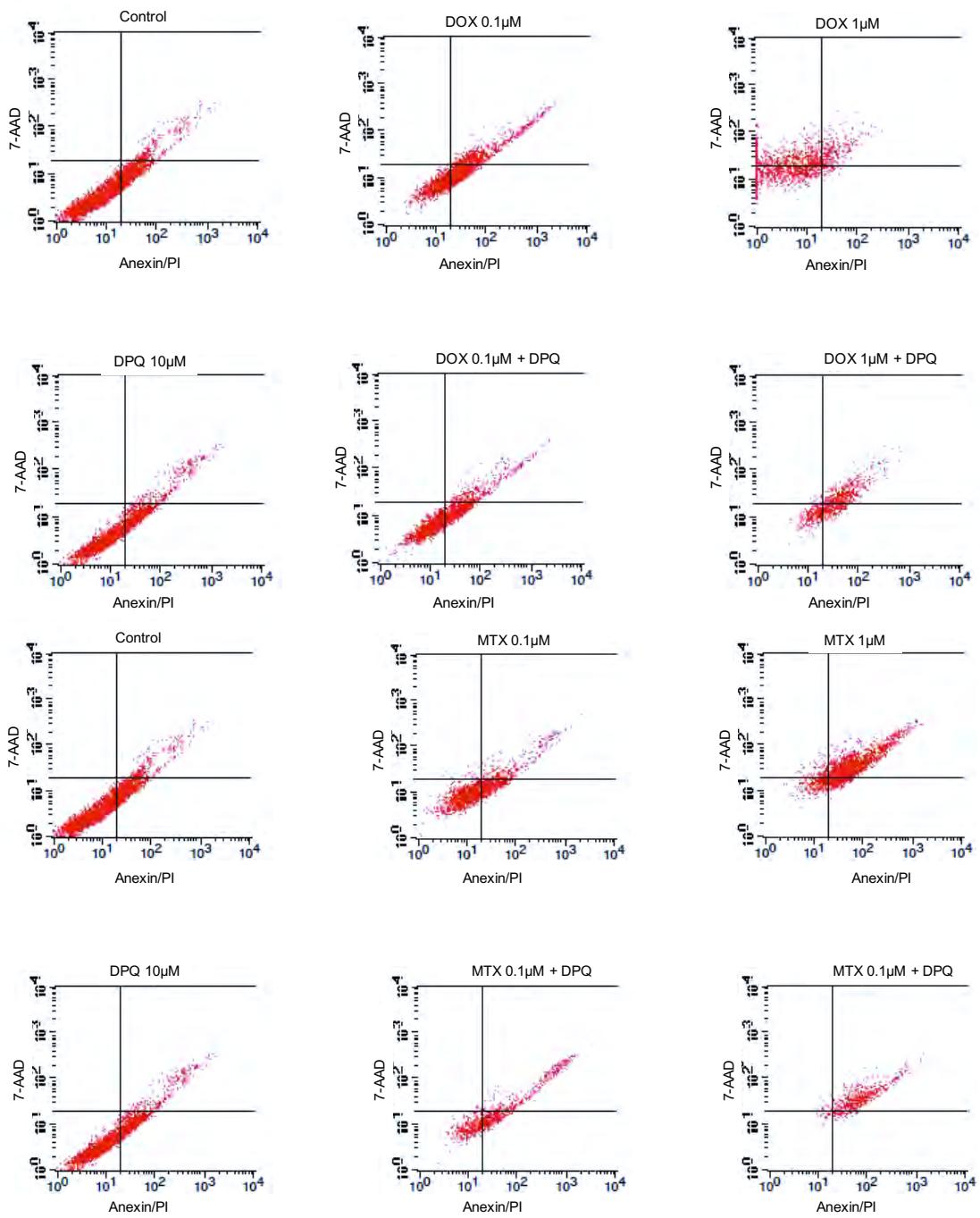


Fig S1: Anexin/PI and 7-AAD H9c2 stained cells histogram. Cells were exposed 24h to DOX or MTX in presence or absence of DPQ.

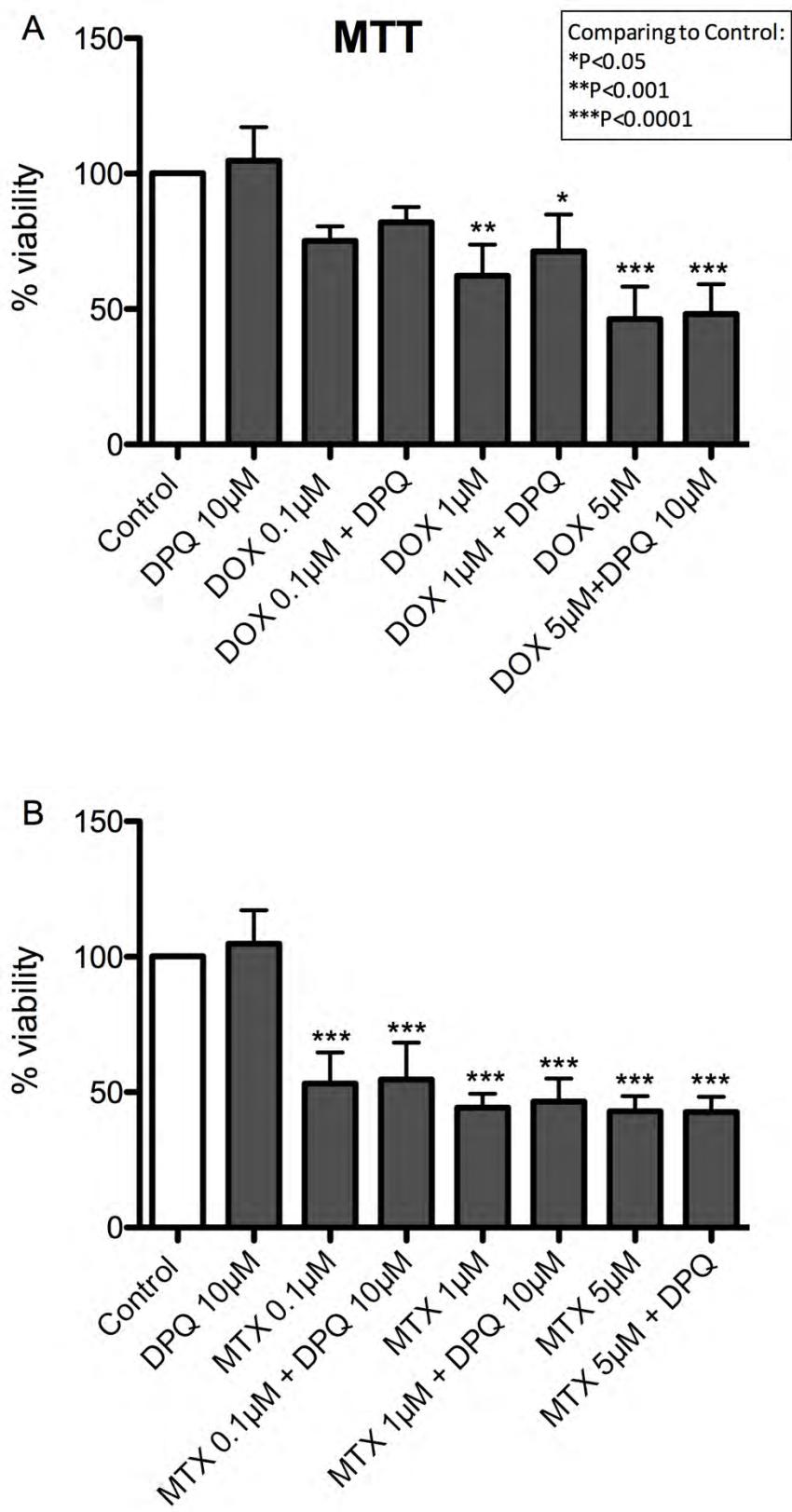


Fig S2: MTT assay in neonatal rat cardiac fibroblasts exposed for 24h with DOX or MTX with or without DPQ. A: MTT assay in DOX treated cells and B: MTT assay in MTX treated cells.

## **5. Discussão**

No mundo industrializado, como já mencionado anteriormente, as principais causas de morbidade e mortalidade são o câncer e as doenças cardíacas. As modernas estratégias de tratamento levaram a uma melhoria das chances de sobrevida após um diagnóstico de câncer; por exemplo, a sobrevivência de 5 anos para câncer de mama em estágio inicial aumentou de 79% em 1990 para 88% em 2012 (HOWLADER et al., 2010; JEMAL et al., 2005; SIEGEL; MILLER; JEMAL, 2015; SIEGEL et al., 2012) . Melhorias similares foram observadas com alguns outros tipos de neoplasias sólidas e hematológicas, incluindo linfoma não-Hodgkin e câncer de testículo (JEMAL; WARD; THUN, 2010). O aumento observado na sobrevida de pacientes oncológicos pode trazer um custo no longo prazo. Algumas das atuais (e também das tradicionais) terapias antitumorais estão associadas direta ou indiretamente com danos cardiovasculares que podem se manifestar como hipertensão arterial, arritmias e insuficiência cardíaca, levando a uma considerável perda na qualidade de vida desses indivíduos (DENT et al., 2015; HAHN; LENIHAN; KY, 2014; M.S.; S.M., 2010; SUTER; EWER, 2013). Neste contexto, as antraciclinas são amplamente utilizadas na terapia do câncer e têm o maior risco de cardiotoxicidade irreversível do que qualquer outro agente antitumoral. Esta classe de moléculas é, também, mais amplamente estudada em termos de efeitos cardiotóxicos (BROWN; SANDHU; HERRMANN, 2015). Muitas das crianças tratadas com menos de 300mg/m<sup>2</sup> doses de antraciclinas têm manifestado disfunção cardíaca tornando este um grave problema em pacientes oncológicos infantis tratados com DOX (CHOI et al., 2010; VAN DALEN et al., 2005). Em virtude disso, estudos experimentais e clínicos têm focado na redução da DOX, usando transportadores de fármacos tais como lipossomas, e por outro lado na descoberta de novos derivados, tais como amrubicina e pixantrona (FULBRIGHT et al., 2010). Entretanto, eventos adversos como reações

alérgicas graves, mucosite e hepatotoxicidade foram observados após uma única dose de DOX lipossomal em crianças com câncer (SIESWERDA et al., 2011).

Dependendo do fator cronológico para o aparecimento dos sinais, a cardiotoxicidade induzida pelas antraciclinas pode ser aguda, subaguda e crônica (GRENIER; LIPSHULTZ, 1998; LIPSHULTZ; ALVAREZ; SCULLY, 2008; WOUTERS et al., 2005). O dano cardíaco agudo, devido a administração de antraciclinas, geralmente ocorre com doses elevadas, no momento da exposição ou em seguida, com liberação de troponina logo após a administração do agente (CARDINALE et al., 2000, 2002). Já a forma subaguda ocorre dentro de poucas semanas. Em ambas as formas, aguda e subaguda, alterações transitórias no eletrocardiograma (ECG) podem ocorrer, bem como arritmias e fibrilação, embora não sejam observadas com frequência (MELE et al., 2016). A cardiotoxicidade crônica, precoce e tardia, normalmente se apresenta como disfunção sistólica do ventrículo esquerdo, levando a uma cardiomiopatia dilatada. Recentemente, foi relatado que em doentes adultos tratados com antraciclinas, a manifestação da toxicidade cardíaca mediada por estas drogas geralmente ocorre durante o primeiro ano após o final do tratamento e é relativamente frequente, com uma incidência observada de disfunção sistólica de 9% (CARDINALE et al., 2015). Em um tratamento com altas doses de doxorrubicina, o risco de insuficiência cardíaca aumenta exponencialmente, como demonstrado pelos achados de vários estudos de coorte (EWER; VON HOFF; BENJAMIN, 2011; GRENIER; LIPSHULTZ, 1998; HERRMANN et al., 2014; SWAIN et al., 1997; VON HOFF et al., 1979; WOUTERS et al., 2005; YEH; BICKFORD, 2009).

Os alvos celulares da DOX são as Top2  $\alpha$  e  $\beta$ , as quais possuem uma homologia estrutural de 70% e são essenciais para os processos de replicação, recombinação e transcrição (DRAKE et al., 1987; LIU; WANG, 1987; TEWEY et al., 1984).

Recentemente, vem sendo demonstrado que a enzima Top2 $\beta$ , isoforma das Top2 que é expressa em cardiomiócitos, é o mediador molecular chave na cardiotoxicidade associada às antraciclinas (VEJPONGSA; YEH, 2013, 2014). Quando foram expostos a DOX, cardiomiócitos de camundongos do tipo selvagem exibiram significativas anormalidades na expressão de p53, na sinalização  $\beta$ -adrenérgica, e nas vias apoptóticas. Em contraste, os cardiomiócitos isolados de camundongos *knockout* específicos para Top2 $\beta$  (Top2 $\beta^{\Delta\Delta}$ ) exibiram marcadamente menos mudanças nos parâmetros citados anteriormente. Ainda, segundo os autores, com a exposição prolongada a doxorubicina, os cardiomiócitos de camundongos do tipo selvagem apresentaram maiores alterações, em comparação com os cardiomiócitos de camundongos Top2 $\beta^{\Delta\Delta}$ , na expressão de genes que regulam a biogênese mitocondrial e a fosforilação oxidativa (FINCK; KELLY, 2007; FINCK et al., 2006; HAHN; LENIHAN; KY, 2014).

Os venenos de Top2 (drogas que formam complexos ternários), tais como DOX e MTX, induzem fosforilação da histona H2AX em diferentes tipos de células, indicando geração de quebras nas cadeias de DNA causadas por esses fármacos (ROGAKOU et al., 1998b; SAFFI et al., 2010). A PARP é uma das primeiras proteínas que reconhecem lesões no DNA e, por conseguinte, recruta a maquinaria de reparação de DNA por excisão de bases (BER) para o local dos danos (LINDAHL et al., 1995; SOUSA et al., 2012). De fato, esta interação foi comprovada pela identificação de um complexo compreendendo PARP1, XRCC1, DNA-ligase III, e DNA polymerase $\beta$  (CALDECOTT et al., 1996; KUBOTA et al., 1996; MASSON et al., 1998). Após a geração de quebra na dupla fita de DNA (DSB), algumas proteínas quinases como, por exemplo, ATM, ATR e DNA-PK, são ativadas e fosforilam Ser-139 de H2AX (PARK et al., 2003). Foi observado em estudo envolvendo cardiomiócitos submetidos a DOX que um excesso de atividade da PARP-1 pode conduzir as células a uma insuficiência energética devido ao

esgotamento NAD<sup>+</sup>, uma vez que a enzima o utiliza como substrato para sua reação de ribosilação. Esta depleção neste intermediador de energia leva a morte dos cardiomiócitos por necrose, acarretando rompimento da membrana plasmática e extravasamento do conteúdo intracelular (PILLAI et al., 2005). Contrastando com o que se apresenta na literatura científica, dados de ensaios de viabilidade, apresentados no capítulo 2e que foram realizados após 24 horas de exposição, com duas concentrações de DOX, demonstram que a co-incubação com DPQ, um potente inibidor de PARP-1, induz um aumento na morte celular, comparando com resultados de DOX isoladamente. Ainda, a inibição de PARP-1 na presença de DOX ou MTX, apesar de causar um aumento na atividade enzimática antioxidante, induz a uma maior geração de quebras nas cadeias do DNA de cardiomiosoblastos H9c2 tratados com DOX. A respeito da MTX, o aumento da citotoxicidade mediada por co-tratamento com DPQ só foi observado com a concentração mais baixa testada, em comparação com o tratamento somente com MTX. Além disso, tanto MTX quanto DOX foram capazes de reduzir os níveis de ATP em células H9c2 tratadas por 24 horas. Neste caso, a inibição de PARP não exerce qualquer influência sobre a depleção de ATP mediada por DOX ou MTX.

A MTX é um potente inibidor dos processos de replicação e transcrição. No repertório de possíveis mecanismos de interação com ácidos nucleicos pode-se destacar a intercalação com a molécula de DNA e inibição de Top2, que acaba por tornar o DNA propenso a quebras em suas fitas (CRESPI et al., 1986). Esse fármaco mostrou-se eficaz quando utilizado como um agente terapêutico em encefalomielite autoimune experimental (EAE), um modelo animal de esclerose múltipla (KOFFMAN et al., 2016; RIDGE et al., 1985). Devido ao sucesso do tratamento da EAE, foram conduzidos estudos com seres humanos e, a partir de dezembro de 2000, o FDA aprovou o cloridrato de MTX (Novantrone) para o tratamento de esclerose múltipla surto-remissivas e

progressiva-secundária (MILLER, 2000), sendo esta, a primeira droga com essa indicação nos Estados Unidos da América (GOODIN et al., 2003).

Embora inicialmente considerada menos cardiotóxica que a DOX, o FDA determinou em 2005 revisões nos rótulos alertando para o risco de toxicidade cardíaca da MTX. A partir de então, recomendou-se a avaliação da fração de ejeção do ventrículo esquerdo antes de iniciar a terapia e antes de cada dose subsequente. Em julho de 2008, o FDA ainda recomendou avaliação anual da função cardíaca em pacientes depois de completar todo o tratamento com MTX por causa do potencial para cardiotoxicidade (MARRIOTT et al., 2010). Conforme discutido no capítulo 1, a MTX, de acordo com o que foi demonstrado por Rossato e colaboradores (2013, 2014), induz geração de ERO, depleção de ATP e diminuição de viabilidade em células H9c2. Os dados apresentados no Capítulo II demonstram que há aumento de ERO e diminuição de ATP em células H9c2 tratadas por 24h com MTX, corroborando os achados publicados na literatura científica. No entanto, avaliando o papel da inibição de PARP-1 neste processo, pode-se inferir que a geração de quebras no DNA - possivelmente pela complexação com Top2 – parece ser o mecanismo principal envolvido na citotoxicidade da MTX em cardiomioblastos H9c2.

Em um estudo de fase IV, multicêntrico, para avaliar a segurança e tolerabilidade do tratamento com MTX, dose cumulativa de até 140 mg/m<sup>2</sup>, dos 509 sujeitos avaliados em 46 centros de pesquisa nos Estados Unidos, 25 (4,9%) apresentaram alteração cardíaca. Neste estudo que demonstrou haver relação dose/resposta entre MTX e efeitos cardiovasculares, os pacientes com esclerose múltipla progressiva-secundária estiveram sob avaliações laboratoriais e monitorização cardíaca a cada 3 meses e, posteriormente, anualmente para um total de 5 anos (RIVERA et al., 2013). Como demonstrado no Capítulo I desta tese, a capacidade de se complexar com ferro e subsequente geração de

radicais livres é considerado um potencial mecanismo de cardiotoxicidade tanto de DOX quanto MTX. Uma estratégia para minimizar este aspecto da MTX, por exemplo, foi alterar a sua estrutura básica, de modo a evitar quelação de ferro. Neste sentido, uma das principais moléculas análogas da MTX candidatas a serem aplicadas no tratamento da esclerose múltipla é a pixantrona (KRAPCHO et al., 1998). Em comparação com MTX, em estudos experimentais com ratos, a pixantrona reduziu a gravidade da EAE aguda e também diminuiu a taxa de recidivas de EAE (CAVALETTI et al., 2004). Na Bélgica foi realizado um ensaio clínico, fases I e II, incluindo 18 pacientes com esclerose múltipla surto-remissivas ou progressiva-secundária para avaliar a eficácia da pixantrona. Os indivíduos receberam a droga por via intravenosa, uma vez a cada 3 semanas em um total de 4 semanas (dose não especificada). Os resultados demonstraram uma redução de 86% na taxa de reincidência anual. Além disso, uma redução da força muscular cardíaca foi relatada em 5,5% dos indivíduos tratados com pixantrona, em comparação com controles históricos que apontaram 22% de redução entre as pessoas tratadas com MTX (KOFFMAN et al., 2016).

Uma vez que a toxicidade mediada pela MTX envolve, também, inibição de Top2, uma estratégia para tentar diminuir os efeitos cardíacos seria realizar uma modificação fazendo com que a molécula apresentasse uma maior afinidade pela isoforma  $\alpha$  (mais encontrada em células com alta taxa de replicação) do que pela  $\alpha$  e  $\beta$  (principal isoforma encontrada em cardiomiócitos) da enzima. De fato, em estudo conduzido recentemente por Hasinoff e colaboradores (2015), a pixantrona demonstrou ter uma maior seletividade para Top2 $\alpha$  em comparação com Top2 $\beta$ . Por conseguinte, a reduzida cardiotoxicidade observada na pixantrona pode ser em virtude desta menor afinidade da molécula com a isoforma Top2 $\beta$  (HASINOFF et al., 2016). Em outro estudo, a conjugação de MTX com L-metionina gerou um composto (WRC-213) que apresentou bom potencial citotóxico e

com uma menor cardiotoxicidade em comparação com MTX (HSIAO et al., 2008).

Análises de docagem molecular apresentadas no Capítulo I desta tese apontaram para uma redução, em comparação com MTX, na afinidade do WRC-213 pela isoforma  $\beta$  da enzima Top2. Em contrapartida, esta alteração não foi observada quando analisou-se a isoforma  $\alpha$  da enzima Top2. Os dados acima mencionados apontam para possibilidades de alterações nas moléculas que tornem estes quimioterápicos mais seletivos para Top2 $\alpha$  e, desta maneira, reduzam seu potencial de causar morte em células cardíacas. As consequências poderiam ser muito promissoras no sentido de se potencializar a capacidade anti-proliferativa diminuindo efeitos tóxicos para tecidos não alvo.

## **6. Conclusão geral**

Inibição de PARP-1 produz uma maior resposta DDR, demonstrando aumento geração de quebras no DNA e, dessa forma, induz mais morte em cardiomioblastos tratados com DOX e MTX.

### **6.1. Conclusões específicas**

- Inibição de PARP-1 aumenta a citotoxicidade mediada por DOX e MTX em H9c2 por aumentar a geração de quebras no DNA e, consequentemente induzir morte celular por apoptose.
- A inibição PARP-1 restaura a resposta antioxidante enzimática e diminui as concentrações de ERO em células H9c2 submetidas a DOX e MTX por 24 horas.
- Embora DOX e MTX compartilhem semelhanças nos seus mecanismos de ação cardiotóxica, elas parecem diferir em alguns aspectos: DOX é uma droga que gera uma maior alteração no estado redox, induzindo uma geração em excesso de espécies reativas, enquanto MTX induz a um maior desequilíbrio energético celular por interferência na cadeia transportadora de elétrons.
- É preciso ter conhecimento sobre as características do modelo experimental aplicado no estudo de mecanismos de cardiotoxicidade, uma vez que existe uma dificuldade no estabelecimento de uma padronização pois são utilizadas diferentes abordagens *in vivo* e tipos celulares *in vitro* que variam de acordo com o grau de diferenciação celular. Isto deve ser levado em conta antes de extrapolar qualquer análise de dados.

## **7. Perspectivas**

A partir dos resultados observados neste estudo, novos questionamentos foram suscitados, trazendo consigo perspectivas de continuação desta linha de pesquisa, as quais encontram-se listadas a seguir:

- Verificar se existe, também, ativação de outras vias de sinalização de DDR como ATR, Chk1 e proteínas envolvidas com NHEJ em células H9c2 e cardiomíócitos tratadas com DOX ou MTX com ou sem DPQ.
- Avaliar o papel das sirtuínas nos processos de morte e sobrevivência celular relacionados com PARP-1, através do silenciamento gênico, em células H9c2 e cardiomíócitos tratadas com DOX ou MTX com ou sem DPQ.
- Realizar experimentos *in vivo* para avaliar, por imunohistoquímica, o perfil de ativação de DDR nos diferentes tipos celulares que compõem o tecido cardíaco de ratos tratadas com DOX ou MTX com ou sem DPQ.

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**9. Anexo 1: parecer consubstanciado de aprovação do projeto no Comite de Ética em Uso de Animais (CEUA)**

**CEUA –COMISSÃO DE ÉTICA NO USO DE ANIMAIS**

**PARECER CONSUBSTANCIADO DE PROJETO DE PESQUISA E ENSINO**

1) PROTOCOLO Nº: 100/12 Parecer 160/12

2) DATA DO PARECER: 19/09/2012

3) Título do Projeto:

Mecanismos de reparo do DNA, estresse oxidativo e sua relação com PARP e sirtuínas em cardiomícitos tratados com doxorrubicina

4) Pesquisador responsável:

Jenifer Saffi

5) RESUMO do Projeto:

O projeto vai avaliar os mecanismos de reparo de DNA e estresse oxidativo em cardiomícitos tratados com doxorrubicina (substância utilizada para tratamentos de câncer e que produzem cardiotoxicidade como efeito adverso).

6) Objetivos do Projeto:

Verificação dos mecanismos de reparo de DNA na toxicidade da doxorrubicina e de espécies reativas de oxigênio em cardiomícitos e a sua relação com PARP e Sirtuínas.

7) FINALIDADE DO PROJETO:  Ensino  Pesquisa

8) Itens metodológicos e éticos DO PROJETO:

Título  Adequado  Comentários

Introdução  Adequada  Comentários

Objetivos  Adequados  Comentários

Relevância e Justificativa  Adequados  Comentários

Materiais e Métodos  Adequados  Comentários

Cronograma para execução da pesquisa  Adequado  Comentários

Orçamento e fonte financiadora  Adequados  Comentários

Referências Bibliográficas  Adequadas  Comentários

9) O PROJETO ESTÁ ADEQUADO À LEGISLAÇÃO VIGENTE:

Sim  Não

10) Informações relativas aos animais:

Grau de dor/estresse: B | C  D  E   
*Justifique:*

O grau de dor/estresse está de acordo com o procedimento de eutanásia que será executado nos animais aos 3 dias de vida – decaptação.

Espécie: *Rattus norvergicus* Número Amostral: 30

Redução Amostral:  Sim  Não  
*Justifique:*

Número de animais é condizente com o experimento a ser realizado.

Substituição de Metodologia:  Sim  Não  
*Se achar necessário, justifique e sugira uma nova metodologia:*

A metodologia é realizada *in vitro*, necessitando de células animais.

Aprimoramento da Metodologia:  Sim  Não  
*Se achar necessário, justifique e sugira aprimoramentos da metodologia:*

A metodologia já está aprimorada.

Acomodação e manutenção dos animais:  Adequada  Inadequada

*Se achar inadequada cite abaixo as melhorias necessárias:*

## 10. Anexo 2: currículo lattes do aluno



### Roberto Marques Damiani

Endereço para acessar este CV:<http://lattes.cnpq.br/2670522433063119>

Última atualização do currículo em 14/07/2016

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(Texto informado pelo autor)

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Título: Mecanismos de Reparo do DNA, Estresse Oxidativo e sua Relação com PARP e Sirtuininas em Cardiomiocitos.  
Orientador: João Antonio Pegas Henriques  
Bolsista do(a): Coordenação de Aperfeiçoamento de Pessoal de Nível Superior

2008 - 2010 Mestrado em Ciências da Saúde.  
Fundação Universidade Federal de Ciências da Saúde de Porto Alegre, UFCSPA, Porto Alegre, Brasil  
Título: Parâmetros inflamatórios no pulmão e estresse oxidativo cardiopulmonar em ratos após inalação crônica de Residual oil fly Ash (ROFA); estudo de dose-resposta, Ano de obtenção: 2010

Orientador: Cláudia Ramos Rhoden   
Bolsista do(a): Coordenação de Aperfeiçoamento de Pessoal de Nível Superior

2009 - 2010 Especialização em Toxicologia Aplicada.  
Pontifícia Universidade Católica do Rio Grande do Sul, PUCRS, Porto Alegre, Brasil  
Título: Mediadores inflamatórios no lavado broncoalveolar de ratos expostos agudamente a diferentes concentrações de residual oil fly ash (ROFA)  
Orientador: Maria Martha Campos

2004 - 2007 Graduação em Ciências Biológicas - Modalidade Médica.  
Fundação Universidade Federal de Ciências da Saúde de Porto Alegre, UFCSPA, Porto Alegre, Brasil  
Título: Parâmetros Oxidativos e Inflamatórios em Pulmões de Ratos Expostos Cronicamente a Diferentes Concentrações de  
Orientador: Cláudia Ramos Rhoden

#### Formação complementar

2013 - 2013 Curso de curta duração em Treinamento de Aprendizagem Baseada em Problemas. (Carga horária: 16h).  
Faculdade da Serra Gaúcha, FSG, Brasil

2011 - 2011 Curso de curta duração em Controle da Expressão Gênica por Micro RNA. (Carga horária: 2h).  
Mutagen - Brasil, MUTAGEN, Ribeirão Preto, Brasil

2010 - 2010 Educação Ambiental - Construindo a Cultura da Paz Arte e Ecologia.. (Carga horária: 20h).  
Fundação Gaia, GAIA, Porto Alegre, Brasil

2010 - 2010 Extensão universitária em XI Maratona de Empreendedorismo da UFRGS. (Carga horária: 85h).  
Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul, UFRGS, Porto Alegre, Brasil

2009 - 2009 Curso de curta duração em I Curso de Extensão em Farmacologia Clínica. (Carga horária: 15h).  
Fundação Universidade Federal de Ciências da Saúde de Porto Alegre, UFCSPA, Porto Alegre, Brasil

2008 - 2008 Curso de curta duração em Radicais Livres. (Carga horária: 25h).  
Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul, UFRGS, Porto Alegre, Brasil

2007 - 2007 Curso de curta duração em I Simpósio de Biologia Molecular. (Carga horária: 8h).  
Fundação Universidade Federal de Ciências da Saúde de Porto Alegre, UFCSPA, Porto Alegre, Brasil

2007 - 2007 Curso de curta duração em IV Curso de Biologia Molecular. (Carga horária: 4h).  
Fundação Universidade Federal de Ciências da Saúde de Porto Alegre, UFCSPA, Porto Alegre, Brasil

2007 - 2007 Curso de curta duração em IV Curso de Sensibilização em Biossegurança. (Carga horária: 2h).  
Fundação Universidade Federal de Ciências da Saúde de Porto Alegre, UFCSPA, Porto Alegre, Brasil

2007 - 2007 Curso de curta duração em II Curso de Extensão sobre Células-Tronco. (Carga horária: 15h).  
Fundação Universidade Federal de Ciências da Saúde de Porto Alegre, UFCSPA, Porto Alegre, Brasil

2006 - 2006 Curso de curta duração em Terapia Gênica. (Carga horária: 2h).  
Federação das Sociedades de Biologia Experimental, FeSBE, São Paulo, Brasil

2006 - 2006 Curso de curta duração em Curso de Cultivo celular. (Carga horária: 20h).  
Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul, UFRGS, Porto Alegre, Brasil

2005 - 2005 Curso de curta duração em I Curso de Sensibilização em Biossegurança. (Carga horária: 4h).  
Fundação Universidade Federal de Ciências da Saúde de Porto Alegre, UFCSPA, Porto Alegre, Brasil

2004 - 2004 Curso de curta duração em III Curso de biologia molecular. (Carga horária: 6h).  
Fundação Universidade Federal de Ciências da Saúde de Porto Alegre, UFCSPA, Porto Alegre, Brasil

**Atuação profissional**

1. Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul - UFRGS

**Vínculo institucional**

**2011 - 2015** Vínculo: Bolsista , Enquadramento funcional: Doutorando, Regime: Parcial  
Outras informações:  
Bolsista CAPES de 2011 a 2015.

2. Fundação Universidade Federal de Ciências da Saúde de Porto Alegre - UFCSPA

**Vínculo institucional**

**2008 - 2010** Vínculo: Bolsista REUNI , Enquadramento funcional: Mestrando , Carga horária: 20, Regime: Dedicação exclusiva  
Outras informações:  
Atividade docente na disciplina de Biofísica nos cursos de Biomedicina, Enfermagem, Fisioterapia, Medicina e Nutrição.

**Atividades**

**08/2009 - 12/2009** Graduação, Nutrição

Disciplinas ministradas:  
Biofísica

**08/2009 - 12/2009** Graduação, Enfermagem

Disciplinas ministradas:  
Biofísica

**03/2009 - 07/2009** Graduação, Biomedicina

Disciplinas ministradas:  
Biofísica

**2008 - 2008** Graduação, Nutrição

Disciplinas ministradas:  
Nutrição experimental , Farmacologia , Biofísica

**2008 - 2008** Graduação, Biomedicina

Disciplinas ministradas:  
Toxicologia

3. Universidade de São Paulo - USP

**Vínculo institucional**

**2007 - 2007** Vínculo: Estagiário voluntário , Enquadramento funcional: Iniciação científica , Carga horária: 8, Regime: Parcial  
Outras informações:  
Laboratório de Poluição Atmosférica Experimental sob orientação do Professor Paulo Saldiva. Total de 80 horas.

4. Centro Universitário Ritter dos Reis - UniRITTER

**Vínculo institucional**

**2014 - Atual** Vínculo: Celestista , Enquadramento funcional: Horista , Carga horária: 30, Regime: Parcial  
Outras informações:  
Atuação nas disciplinas de Análises Toxicológicas e Ambientais (Biomedicina e Farmácia), Nutrigenética e Nutrigenômica (Nutrição), Práticas I (Biomedicina), Processos Biológicos (Biomedicina, Enfermagem, Farmácia e Nutrição).

5. Faculdade da Serra Gaúcha - FSG

**Vínculo institucional**

**2011 - 2014** Vínculo: Horista , Enquadramento funcional: Professor , Carga horária: 12, Regime: Parcial  
Outras informações:  
Disciplinas: Biologia Molecular, Toxicologia, Análise Ambiental e Ecotoxicologia

**Atividades**

**09/2012 - 02/2014** Direção e Administração, FSG, FSG Caxias do Sul

Cargos ocupados:  
Coordenador do Curso de Biomedicina

**Revisor de periódico**

1. Clínicos

**Vínculo**

**2015 - Atual** Regime: Parcial

2. Toxicology Mechanisms and Methods (Online)

#### Vínculo

2014 - Atual Regime: Parcial

#### Produção

##### Produção bibliográfica

###### Artigos completos publicados em periódicos

1.   DAMIANI, Roberto M.; Piva, M.O.; PETRY, M. R.; SALDIVA, P. H.; OLIVEIRA, A. T. D.; RHODEN, Claudia Ramos  
Is cardiac tissue more susceptible than lung to oxidative effects induced by chronic nasotrophic instillation of residual oil fly ash (ROFA)?*Toxicology Mechanisms and Methods (Online)*, , v.22, p.533 - , 2012.

###### Artigos aceitos para publicação

1.   DAMIANI, ROBERTO MARQUES; MOURA, DINARA JAQUELINE; VIAU, CASSIANA MACAGNAN; CACERES, RAFAEL ANDRADE; HENRIQUES, JOÃO ANTONIO PÉGAS; SAFFI, JENIFER Pathways of cardiac toxicity: comparison between chemotherapeutic drugs doxorubicin and mitoxantrone.*Archives of Toxicology*, , 2016.

###### Trabalhos publicados em anais de eventos (resumo)

1. DAMIANI, Roberto M.; MOURA, D. J.; HENRIQUES, J. A. P.; Saffi, J. Influence of PARP-1 Inhibition in the Cardiotoxicity of Topoisomerase II Inhibitors In: 11th International Conference on Environmental Mutagens, 2013, Foz do Iguaçu.  
*11th International Conference on Environmental Mutagens Program and Abstract Book*, 2013. v.1. p.178 - 178

##### Produção técnica

###### Demais produções técnicas

1. DAMIANI, Roberto M.  
Aula referente ao conteúdo: poluição atmosférica ambiental e saúde para a disciplina de Farmacologia e Toxicologia do Mestrado Profissional do Programa de Pós-graduação em Genética e Toxicologia Aplicada, 2009. (Outro, Curso de curta duração ministrado)
2. DAMIANI, Roberto M.  
Aula referente aos conteúdos: antieméticos e laxantes para a disciplina de Farmacologia Aplicada I do Curso de Enfermagem, 2009. (Outro, Curso de curta duração ministrado)
3.  RHODEN, Claudia Ramos; DAMIANI, Roberto M.; PETRY, M. R.; CHAGAS, J. K.; Carneiro, MFH; Halmenschlager, H.  
I Curso de Extensão em Poluição Atmosférica e Saúde da UFCSPA, 2009. (Extensão, Curso de curta duração ministrado)
4. BICA, C.; DAMIANI, Roberto M.; PETRY, M. R.  
Site de Biossegurança da FFFCMPA, 2005. (Desenvolvimento de material didático ou instrucional)

#### Orientações e Supervisões

##### Orientações e supervisões

##### Orientações e supervisões concluídas

###### Trabalhos de conclusão de curso de graduação

1.  Lisiâne Knob de Souza. Influência do Reparo por Excisão de Nucleotídeos (NER) na Citotoxicidade dos Inibidores de Topoisomerase II Mitoxantrona e Etoposido. 2015. Curso (Biomedicina) - Centro Universitário Ritter dos Reis
2. Keila Nunes Varella. AVALIAÇÃO DOS POSSÍVEIS EFEITOS GENOTÓXICOS DA POLUIÇÃO ATMOSFÉRICA NA CIDADE DE CAXIAS DO SUL: BIOMONITORAMENTO HUMANO E VEGETAL. 2014. Curso (Biomedicina) - Faculdade da Serra Gaúcha
3. Rafaela Righes da Rocha. Alterações Hematológicas e Bioquímicas em Praticantes de Musculação que Utilizam Esteroides anabolizantes. 2013. Curso (Biomedicina) - Faculdade da Serra Gaúcha
4. Fernanda Martins dos Reis. Associação entre uso de álcool e outras substâncias psicotrópicas com acidentes de carro da cidade de Caxias do Sul, RS. 2013. Curso (Biomedicina) - Faculdade da Serra Gaúcha
5. Eduardo Kuser de Almeida. Neurobiologia do THC: uma nova abordagem ao TDAH. 2013. Curso (Biomedicina) - Faculdade da Serra Gaúcha