

Cytotoxic and genotoxic effects of epoxiconazole on F98 glioma cells

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1	Cytotoxic and genotoxic effects of Epoxiconazole on F98 glioma cells
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17	
18	Abbreviations: EPX: Epoxiconazole; ROS: Reactive oxygen species; $\Delta \Psi m$: mitochondrial
19 20	transmembrane potential; IC50: Inhibitory concentration of 50% of the population; PBS: Phosphate
20	buffer saline; DCFH-DA: 2, /-Dichlorofluoresce diacetate; FCS: Fetal calf serum; M11: 3-4, 5-
21	Dimethyltniazol-2-yl, 2, 5-dipnenyltetrazolium bromide; NAC: N-acetylcysteine; LMA: Low melting
22 22	iodide: BSA: Boying serum albumin: DAPI: 406 Diaminido 2 phenylindole: Ph 123: Phodamine 123:
23	AQ: Acridine orange: FB: Ethidium bromide: HaQa: Hydrogen perovide: MDA: Malondialdehyde:
25	SDS: Sodium dodecyl sulfate: KCL: Potassium chloride: DO: Optical density: GSH: Glutathione
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30 Highlights:

- EPX induces cytotoxic effects in F98 glioma cells
- EPX produces cell cycle arrest, cytoskeleton disruption, DNA damage
- EPX affects mitochondrial function and induces apoptosis via caspases dependent
- 34 signaling pathway in F98 cells
- EPX provokes ROS generation and lipid peroxidation

37 Abstract

Epoxiconazole (EPX) is a very effective fungicide of the triazole family. Given its wide 38 spectrum of use, the increased application of this pesticide may represent a serious risk on 39 human health. Previous studies have found that EPX is cytotoxic to cells, although the exact 40 mechanism remains elusive. In particular, the effect on the nervous system is poorly 41 elucidated. Here we evaluated the implication of oxidative stress in the neurotoxicity and 42 studied its apoptotic mechanism of action. We demonstrated that the treatment by EPX 43 reduces the viability of cells in a dose dependent manner with an IC50 of 50 µM. It also 44 provokes the reduction of cell proliferation. EPX could trigger arrest in G1/S phase of cell 45 cycle with low doses, however with IC50, it induced an accumulation of F98 cells in G2/M 46 phase. Moreover, EPX induced cytoskeleton disruption as evidenced by immunocytochemical 47 48 analysis. It provoked also DNA fragmentation in a concentration dependent manner. The EPX induced apoptosis, which was observed by morphological changes and by positive Annexin V 49 50 FITC-PI staining concurrent with a depolarization of mitochondria. Furthermore, the cell mortality provoked by EPX was significantly reduced by pretreatment with Z-VAD-FMK, a 51 52 caspase inhibitor. Moreover, N-acetylcysteine (NAC) strongly restores cell viability that has been inhibited by EPX. The results of these findings highlight the implication of ROS 53 generation in the neurotoxicity induced by EPX, indicating that the production of ROS is the 54 main cause of the induction of apoptosis probably via the mitochondrial pathway. 55

56 Keywords

57 Epoxiconazole; F98 cells; Cell cycle arrest; Cytoskeleton; ROS; Mitochondria; Apoptosis.

59 **1. Introduction**

The emergence of crop pests has significantly increased the application of pesticides as a 60 solution and effective method of control. Despite their effectiveness, these products pose a 61 real risk of contamination for non-target organisms and constitute a great threat to 62 ecosystems. Exposure to these pollutants can be done in two ways, either by draining the 63 contaminant or by handling incorrectly the material of application (De Wilde et al., 2007; 64 Karanasios et al., 2012). Human exposure to pesticides can occur through three routes, 65 namely, dermal absorption, inhalation, and ingestion (Toni et al., 2011; El-Amrani et al., 66 2012). Due to the increased agricultural use of these chemicals, their residues are dispersed in 67 water and in food supply. Amongst these products, triazole fungicides represent some of the 68 most important group of fungicides (Verweij et al., 2013). Triazoles are widely applied in 69 70 agriculture for cereals' treatment, vegetables, fruits and flowers and also as medical products 71 (Hester et al., 2012). The mechanism of action of this group of fungicides is based on the 72 inhibition of lanosterol 14a-demethylase (CYP51), an enzyme essential in maintaining the integrity of the fungal membrane (Ghannoum and Rice, 1999; Tully et al., 2006). In addition, 73 74 EPA (2006) has demonstrated that triazoles can cause serious harm to human and animal health, particularly the nervous system, including neuronal degeneration and prenatal stress 75 (PNS) (EPA, 2006). However, the exact pathways involved in the neurotoxicity induced by 76 triazole fungicides are not well characterized. 77

78 Epoxiconazole (EPX) is a triazole fungicide commonly applied in the control of fungal diseases in agriculture, but its mechanism of action is not based solely on the inhibition of 79 80 fungal enzyme but may also inhibit other cytochromes (CYP), including cytochrome P450 and this can cause various health problems for non-target organisms (Wuttke et al., 2001; 81 82 Trosken et al., 2004). Oxidative stress is the imbalance between pro-oxidant and anti-oxidant 83 ratio. Its production causes harm to biological macromolecules such as lipids, proteins and DNA. In particular, the excessive production of ROS can cause serious disorganization in the 84 cellular structure (Barzilai and Yamamoto, 2004). Oxidative stress is crucial for the induction 85 of apoptosis (Livingstone, 2001). It has been shown that the toxicity of triazole fungicides 86 passes through oxidative stress, causing DNA damage or apoptosis (Ross et al., 2009, 2012; 87 Hester et al., 2006, 2012). Other pathways are involved in the inhibitory effect of triazole 88 fungicides, such as cell cycle dysregulation (Schwarzbacherováa et al., 2017; Šiviková et al., 89 2018). 90

Finally, many studies have shown the primordial role of the cytoskeleton and its organization 91 in controlling programmed cell death (Gourlay and Ayscough, 2005, Ndozangue-Touriguine 92 et al., 2008). The cytoskeleton is formed by three type of filament: microfilaments (MF), 93 microtubules (MT) and intermediate filaments (IF). These filaments play key roles in the 94 95 conservation of cell architecture, its internal organization, the cellular form, the motility and many other interactions (Hooser et al., 1991, Ding et al., 2000b). Disruption of the 96 cytoskeletal network could provoke the loss of balance and integrity of the cell membrane (Li 97 et al., 2001; Alverca et al., 2009). 98

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Despite the massive use of EPX in agriculture and the high risk of exposure of the human and 100 animal population to this fungicide, there is a lack of data on its impact on the body and 101 especially on the brain. For this reason, our study aims to better elucidate the mechanism of 102 action of EPX on F98 glioma cells with a special reference to the implication of oxidative 103 stress in the neurotoxicity produced by this product. We have chosen F98 cells because this 104 105 model of cells exhibits features of the human glioblastoma in its aggressiveness, histological appearance and lack of immunogenicity, and through genetic transfection and 106 107 bioluminescence imaging, we are able to follow day-to-day in vivo progress of the tumour without limitation. We have also used these cells mainly because of their large size necessary 108 to determine the effects of EPX on organelles, in particular the cytoskeleton and 109 mitochondria. 110

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115	2.	Materials	and	methods
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117 **2.1.** Chemicals

Epoxiconazole, ZVAD-fmk, N-acetylcysteine (NAC), Low melting point agarose (LMA), 119 Normal melting point agarose (NMA), Sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS), Potassium chloride 120 (KCl) and Bovine serum albumin (BSA), were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, 121 MO, USA). 3-4, 5-Dimethylthiazol-2-yl, 2, 5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide (MTT), Cell 122 culture medium (DMEM), Fetal calf serum (FCS), Phosphate buffer saline (PBS), Trypsin 123 EDTA, Penicillin and streptomycin mixture and NEAA (200 mM) were from GIBCO-BCL 124 (UK). 2, 7-Dichlorofluoresce diacetate (DCFH-DA) was supplied by Molecular Probes 125 (Cergy Pontoise, France). 126

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128 **2.2. Cell culture**

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Rat glioma cells (F98) were cultured in DMEM, supplemented with 10% FCS, 1% NEAA,
1% of mixture penicillin and streptomycin at 37 °C with 5% CO₂.

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133 2.3. Cell viability analysis by MTT test

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F98 cells were seeded (2 10⁴ cells/well in 96-well plates) in complete DMEM medium. After 135 incubation for 24 hours at 37 °C with 5% CO₂, the medium was renewed and the cells in the 136 137 exponential phase of growth were treated with EPX at the desired concentrations (5-150 μ M), then, incubated for 24 hours at 37 °C. At the end of this incubation, the medium containing 138 the pesticide was removed and the cell layer was rinsed 3 times with PBS. A solution of MTT 139 (0.5 mg ml⁻¹) in complete DMEM medium was added to cells for 3 h. Then, the MTT solution 140 was removed and the insoluble formazan crystals formed were dissolved in a lysis solution 141 containing dimethylsulfoxide (DMSO). Finally, absorbance was measured at 540 nm, and the 142 percentage of viability at each EPX concentration was determined relative to the control cells. 143 The EPX concentrations were chosen according to the IC50 (Inhibitory Concentration of 50% 144 of the population). 145

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147 **2.4. Study of cell proliferation by cell cycle analysis**

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The F98 cells were seeded at 5 10^5 cells/well and cultured for 24 hours. Afterwards, the cells 149 were treated with EPX at the indicated doses (12 μ M (¹/₄ IC50), 25 μ M (¹/₂ IC50 and 50 μ M 150 (IC50)) for 24 hours. Then, the cells were detached by trypsin, centrifuged for 2 min at 2500 151 rpm and washed with PBS 0.1% tween. After fixation with Ethanol 70%, the samples were 152 centrifuged and washed with PBS. After the addition of RNase (1 mg ml⁻¹), the cells were 153 incubated at 37 °C for 30 min in dark. Finally, 400 µl propidium iodide (PI, 10 µg ml⁻¹) was 154 added. The cell cycle arrest was analyzed by flow cytometer. The percentages of cell 155 156 Distribution in G1, S and G2/M phases were evaluated by using WinMDI 2.9 (Mirzaa et al., 157 2018).

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159 **2.5. Immunocytochemistry**

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After seeding of F98 cells into 24-well plates (3 10⁴ cells / well) containing coverslips, the 161 162 cells were treated with increased concentrations of EPX and incubated during 6 hours at 37°C. Then, the cells were washed with PBS, fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde and washed 3 163 164 times in PBS. Aftecrwards, the cells were incubated in a 30% triton X-100 permeabilization solution and washed 3 times in PBS. After staining with a 50 µg ml⁻¹ fluorescent phalloidin 165 conjugate solution in PBS, the F98 cells were incubated in a blocking solution (5% BSA), and 166 then incubated overnight with mouse anti-alpha-tubulin antibody or anti-mouse vimentin 167 antibody. The localization of tubulin or vimentin was done by the use of an anti-mouse Alexa 168 antibody of 568 nm for 1 hour, followed by washing in PBS. In order to visualize the nucleus, 169 the samples were counterstained with 3 µM 496-diaminido-2-phenylindole (DAPI) and 170 washed twice in PBS. Finally, the coverslips were mounted with an anti-fading solution and 171 images were taken with an Olympus confocal microscope (BX50) using Fluoview.3.1. 172 program, or an inverted microscope Leica DMI 6000 and analyzed with Metamorph 7.1.7.0. 173 (Balzeau et al., 2012). 174

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176 **2.6. DNA fragmentation assessed by the comet assay**

After treatment of the cells with increasing concentrations of EPX, the cell suspensions containing 2 10⁴ cells were mixed with 0.06 ml of low melting point agarose at 1% in PBS. Then, 0.110 ml of the solution obtained were deposited in thin layers on slides, previously covered with a 1% agarose underlayer and allowed to dry during 10 min. The slides were then

soaked in a freshly prepared lysis buffer. After one hour of incubation at 4 °C, the slides were 182 immersed in the electrophoresis buffer for 20 min, followed by 15 min of migration under a 183 voltage of 25 V (300 mA). After electrophoresis, the slides were rinsed with the neutralization 184 buffer 3 times for 5 min, and drained gently. 0.050 ml of ethidium bromide (20 µg ml⁻¹) were 185 then deposited on each slide and then covered with a coverslip in order to observe them under 186 a fluorescence microscope. A visual count was made on 150 comets per blade according to 187 the intensity of the fluorescence of the tail obtained following the fragmentation of the DNA 188 and then classified into 5 classes; from class 0 (intact nucleoli) to class 4 (totally damaged 189 190 nucleoli).

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193 2.7. Mitochondrial membrane potential (MMP) assessment

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First of all, the cells were seeded in 96-well culture plates. After that, they were under treatment and incubation for 24 hours with different concentrations of EPX. Then, the medium was removed and the cells were incubated with 5 μ M of rhodamine 123, and then, the cells were rinsed and re-incubated with PBS. The fluorescence was finally measured using a fluorimeter (Biotek FLx800). The decrease in the intensity of the fluorescence reflects the decrease in the retention of Rh-123 and thus the fall of the mitochondrial potential.

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202 2.8. Apoptosis analysis

203

The combination of the two dyes acridine orange (AO) and ethidium bromide (EB) allows the 204 205 separation between the living cells and the dead ones either by apoptosis or by necrosis (Li et al., 2013). F98 cells were seeded at 10⁶ cells/well of complete medium into 6-well plates and 206 incubated for 24 hours. Later on, the cells were treated with EPX for 24 hours with (5% CO₂ 207 -95% air). After washing them with PBS, they were incubated in a dark environment with 208 the mixture of AO/EB for 15 minutes. Then, they were washed three times with PBS. Finally, 209 they were observed under a fluorescence microscope for taking pictures and counting (200 210 stained cells from each treatment group). 211

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216 **2.9.** Annexin V-FITC/PI double staining assay

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After seeding, treatment and incubation, the F98 cells were washed by $1 \times$ binding buffer and centrifuged. Then, they were incubated with Annexin V-FITC/PI in the dark. Finally, 5 µl of propidium iodide was added to each sample in order to separate the dead cells by necrosis. The samples were analyzed by flow cytometry (Hu et al., 2015).

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224

223 **2.10.** Oxidative stress generation

Fluorometric analysis using 2, 7-dichlorofluorescein diacetate (DCFH-DA) allows to control oxidation in biological systems and to quantify intracellular ROS (Cathcart et al., 1983; Debbasch et al., 2001 and Gomes et al., 2005). The cells were seeded in multi-well plates (96 wells) at the rate of 2 10^4 cells / well. After 24 hours, they were incubated for 30 min with 20 μ M DCFH-DA and then treated with EPX at increasing concentrations, and incubated for 24 hours. H₂O₂ (20 μ M) was used as a positive control. The fluorescence was measured using a fluorometer (Biotek FLx800).

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233 2.11. Malondialdehyde level measurement

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Cells were seeded at 10⁶ cells / well of complete medium into 6-well plates and incubated for 235 24 hours. Then, they were treated with EPX for 24 hours with (5% $CO_2 - 95\%$ air). After the 236 237 incubation process, the medium was removed, the cell layer was rinsed twice with 0.5 ml of PBS, and the cells became detached from their support by trypsination in which they were 238 239 recovered and centrifuged (1800 rpm for 10 min). The spectrophotometric assay of MDA was carried out according to the method described by Ohkawa et al (1979). Thus, the pellet was 240 241 taken up in 0.2 ml KCl 1.15% to which were added 0.2 ml of SDS 8.1%, 1.5 ml of 20% acetic acid adjusted to pH 3.5, 1.5 ml of thiobarbituric acid 0.8%, supplemented with H2O qsp 4 ml. 242 The samples were heated at 95 °C for 120 min and then cooled to room temperature. 5 ml of a 243 mixture of n-butanol + pyridine (15: 1 v/v) were added to each sample. After vigorous stirring 244 and centrifugation at 1800 rpm for 10 min, the supernatant was isolated and the DO reading 245 was performed at 546 nm. 246

247

248 2.12. Statistical analysis

Each experiment was repeated at least 3 times under different treatment conditions and data were expressed as the mean \pm SD. Statistical differences between control and EPX-treated groups were evaluated by Student's test. Differences were considered significant at p< 0.05.

254 **3. Results**

255

3.1. EPX affects the viability of F98 and induces the arrest of their cell cycle followed by the activation of apoptosis

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The viability of F98 cells after 24 hours of treatment by different concentrations of EPX (5-150 μ M) was studied by the MTT test and the results of the present study demonstrated that EPX induces a reduction in cell viability in a dose-dependent manner, with an IC50 equal to 50 μ M (Fig. 1.1.A, B). Positive control treated with Colchicine (5 μ g/ml) also induces greatly a reduction in cell viability compared to untreated cells (70% of cell death).

264

In order to examine the anti-proliferative effect of EPX, the cell cycle of F98 cells has been evaluated. The results showed that the rate of G0/G1 increased with low doses of EPX (¹/₄ IC50 and ¹/₂ IC50), however the rate of G2/M increased with IC50 (Fig. 1.2.A and 1.2.B).

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The possible effect of EPX on apoptosis of the F98 cells was evaluated after 24 hours of 269 270 treatment, and using the AO/EB fluorescent DNA binding dyes (Fig. 1.3.A). The nucleus of the untreated cells was round and unaffected, and the cells were stained green. As EPX doses 271 increased, cells were stained light green with a crescent shape inside the nucleus, indicating 272 that most cells were in the process of apoptotic death. The results indicate that the percentage 273 of apoptosis increased significantly after EPX treatment for 24h in a concentration-dependent 274 275 manner (Fig. 1.3.B). In addition, we evaluated the externalization of phosphatidyl serine (PS) in F98 cells. The EPX-provoked programmed cell death in F98 cells was further tested by the 276 combination of Annexin-V-FITC and PI. Cells that are in early apoptosis are PI negative and 277 annexin V-FITC positive, whereas cells that are in late apoptosis are positive for both (Fig. 278 1.4.A). The percentage of programmed cell death was analyzed as the sum of early and late 279 apoptosis. As presented in Fig. 1.4.B, an important rate of cells was undergoing apoptosis 280 after treatment by EPX concentrations comparing with control cells. The level of apoptosis in 281 the untreated F98 cells was $5.83 \pm 1.1\%$ and in EPX treated F98 cells was 17.26 ± 1.2 , 30.11282 \pm 0.9 and 41.33 \pm 1.4% at respectively 12, 25 and 50 μ M. 283

284

285 **3.2. EPX destroys the organization of the cytoskeleton**

The treatment of F98 cells by EPX brought about a profound disruption of cytoskeleton structures and the results are displayed in Fig. 2. In untreated cells, a clear and normal organization of microtubules (Fig. 2.A), intermediate filaments (Fig. 2.B) and actin microfilaments (Fig. 2.C) is observed. After 6 h of treatment by EPX, a remarkable disorganization of MTs, MFs and IFs was observed at ¹/₄ IC50 dose. At higher concentration (the ¹/₂ IC50 group), most of the MFs and IFs are degraded with formation of aggregates. Finally, the cytoskeleton completely disappeared in the IC50 group.

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3.3. EPX induces the mitochondrial-mediated apoptotic pathway through the loss of MMP (ΔΨm) and caspase activation

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The mitochondrial membrane potential is proportional to the retention of rhodamine-123 within the mitochondria (Cao et al., 2007) and in most of the cases its depolarization is associated with cell death by apoptosis (Wang et al., 2009). The treatment by EPX at the indicated concentrations (12 μ M, 25 μ M and 50 μ M) provoked a reduction in $\Delta\Psi$ m (p<0.05) (Fig. 3.1).

303

In order to determine the possible implication of caspases in the process of apoptotic death, we added the caspase inhibitor ZVAD (50 μ M) during 2 h before treating F98 cells by EPX. Such a pre-treatment with ZVAD-fmk induced a significant inhibition of cell mortality (P<0.05) (Fig. 3.2).

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309 3.4. EPX causes oxidative damage through the production of reactive oxygen species 310 (ROS) and induces lipid oxidation and DNA fragmentation

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To evaluate the effect of EPX on the redox status of the cell, the generation of ROS was measured by the DCFH-DA test. As presented in Fig. 4.1, EPX treated cells at these concentrations (12, 25 and 50 μ M) provoked an elevation of ROS production in a concentration-dependent manner (p<0.05). Indeed, we used H₂O₂ (20 μ M) as positive control (20 μ M) and our results showed a significant increase in the ROS rate (p<0.001).

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Lipid oxidation was assessed by MDA test. After treatment for 24 hours by EPX with the indicated concentrations (12, 25 and 50 μ M), a strong elevation in the MDA levels occurs, from $0.502 \pm 0.068 \mu mol MDA/mg$ of protein for untreated cells to $4.5 \pm 0.07 \mu mol MDA/mg$ of protein for 50 μ M of EPX (Fig. 4.2).

322

The DNA fragmentation in F98 cells after EPX treatment for 24 h was evaluated using the comet test. The score of DNA fragmentation reached about 6.7 folds to the control rate after 24 h of EPX intoxication at the strongest dose. Also, as presented in Fig. 4.3, EPX produced 100 \pm 2.55, 190 \pm 3.7 and 270 \pm 2.8 of total rate of DNA damage at doses of 12, 25 and 50 μ M respectively, as compared to 40 \pm 2.07 in untreated cells.

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329 3.5. Evaluation of the antioxidant effect of N-acetylcysteine (NAC) on EPX-induced cell 330 mortality and apoptotic levels.

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To determine whether the oxidative stress represents the main cause of the toxicity induced by this pesticide, NAC has been used as an antioxidant against the toxicity of this fungicide. Indeed, F98 cells are pre-treated with NAC (1 mM) during 2 hours before treatment with EPX. As shown in Fig. 5, NAC strongly prevents the cells' viability that has been inhibited by the exposure to increased concentrations of EPX and it also decreases EPX-induced apoptotic levels by analysis of flow cytometry.

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339

341 **4. Discussion**

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Exposure to chemicals such as pesticides can lead to severe neurologic effects to humans 343 (Costa et al., 2008). Fungicides can damage the brain affecting its functionality (Tabassum et 344 al., 2016). Due to their fat-soluble character, triazole fungicides including EPX can easily 345 cross the blood-brain barrier and the placental barrier (Heusinkveld et al., 2013). They can 346 lead to post-implantation loss and change in body weight offspring during pregnancy (Taxvig 347 et al., 2007). Previous reports showed a close relationship between cell cycle inhibition, 348 apoptosis and cell proliferation in mammals systems (Trivedi et al., 2005; Okamoto et al., 349 2007 and Liang et al., 2009). 350

Apoptosis is a vital process to normal embryonic development. It is controlled by several 351 effectors and it intervenes in any phase of the cell cycle in order to eliminate surplus or 352 unwanted cells (Raff, 1998; Hengartner, 2000; Kaufmann and Hengartner, 2001). However, 353 there is a lack of data to indicate the link between the decrease of cell proliferation, the 354 inhibition of cell cycle and the programmed cell death in neuronal cells following EPX 355 356 treatment. In this work, we investigated the possible effects induced by EPX on F98 cells in *vitro* on cell proliferation inhibition, cell cycle arrest, cytoskeleton disruption, DNA damage, 357 358 apoptosis, and ROS generation.

In order to evaluate the cytotoxicity of EPX, we firstly assessed the effect of different doses of EPX on the viability of F98 cells. The results showed an inhibition of cell viability in a dose dependent manner with an IC50 of 50 μ M of EPX. The arrest of the cell cycle is a control process when cytoskeletal or DNA lesions occur. Cell cycle was detected by flow cytometry and the results of the present work showed that EPX could trigger arrest in G1/S phase at low doses (¹/₄ IC50 and ¹/₂ IC50), however with IC50, it produced an accumulation of cells in G2/M phase.

A very important relationship between the cell cycle and the organization of cytoskeleton is 366 crucial to ensure the proper functioning of the cell. The immunocytochemical analysis clearly 367 showed that EPX could strongly destroy the cytoskeletal organization with formation of 368 aggregates of microfilaments, intermediate filaments and microtubules. At 50 µM of EPX, the 369 cytoskeleton disappeared, which may be the cause or the result of oxidative damage. These 370 results are similar to previous studies showing the role of oxidative stress in inducing 371 profound structural modifications on the cytoskeleton (Bellomo et al., 1990; Hinshaw et al., 372 1991; Dent and Gertler, 2003; De Lima Pelaez et al., 2007; Loureiro et al., 2010), and the cell 373

morphology (Gourlay and Ayscough, 2005; Funchal et al., 2006). Indeed, fragmentation of 374 DNA is a powerful inducer of the apoptotic process. The results of this work clearly indicated 375 that EPX intoxication for 24 hours produces important DNA fragmentation in F98 cells, as 376 previously shown in HCT116 cells (Hamdi et al. 2018). Apoptosis can occur by two 377 pathways, including the extrinsic pathway through the death receptor, and the intrinsic 378 pathway through mitochondria (Evan, 1997). The most important features of the intrinsic 379 apoptotic pathway are mitochondrial depolarization and cytochrome-c leakage followed by 380 381 caspases activation (Garrido et al., 2006).

After 24 h of treatment by EPX, we showed a significant inhibition of cell viability which was accompanied by a significant depolarization of mitochondria. Indeed, cell pre-treatment with the caspases inhibitor, ZVAD-fmk, produced a significant inhibition of cell mortality, thus confirming the role of caspases in EPX-induced programmed cell death.

386 Further, for detection of apoptotic cells, a mixture of two dyes (acridine orange and ethidium bromide) was used for morphological cellular changes. When the cell will trigger a 387 388 programmed death process, several morphological observations will be produced, like condensation of cytoplasm and DNA fragmentation, followed by the degradation of nuclei 389 390 (Rello et al., 2005; Ndozangue-Tou riguine et al., 2008). Our results showed that the presence 391 of EPX during 24 hours enhances the rate of apoptotic cells. For confirmation of apoptosis, Annexin V-FITC co-staining with propidium iodide was used. The results of our study 392 indicated that EPX induces apoptosis in F98 cells with a concentration-dependent manner. 393 Our data are in agreement with similar studies on bovine lymphocytes (Schwarzbacherova et 394 al. 2017). The authors recorded an increase in the percentage of apoptosis after 24 h treatment 395 by the fungicide Tango® (combination of Epoxiconazole and Fenpropimorph). Moreover, 396 free radicals can easily attack the brain because of its high metabolic rate, high 397 polyunsaturated fatty acids content and low antioxidant rate (Yaduvanshiet al., 2010). We 398 399 have shown that the treatment of F98 cells by EPX for 24 hours causes a sharp increase in ROS levels inside the cell in a dose-dependent manner. Given its role in many metabolic 400 processes, mitochondrion constitutes an important source of ROS production and is also a 401 vulnerable target of ROS (Liesa et al., 2009, Cho et al., 2010). ROS can attack membrane 402 lipids inducing damage to biological molecules followed by cell death. MDA is considered as 403 a biomarker of lipid peroxidation (Vaca et al., 1988). In our findings, treatment with EPX 404 during 24 hours induced a significant increase in the MDA levels. Toni et al. (2011) reported 405 that Tebuconazole, another triazole pesticide, increases MDA levels after acute exposure (96 406 407 h) in common carp (Cyprinus carpio). Several studies have shown the beneficial effect of N-

acetylcysteine (NAC) in various diseases (Arakawa, 2007). NAC plays the role of a precursor 408 of GSH synthesis in cells (Neuwelt et al., 2001). In this study, we assessed the antioxidant 409 effect of NAC on F98 cells. Our results have shown that NAC strongly restores the viability 410 of F98 cells that was inhibited by EPX treatment and it also decreases EPX-induced apoptotic 411 412 levels by analysis of flow cytometry. This confirms the involvement of ROS in cell cycle arrest, cytoskeletal perturbation, DNA fragmentation, mitochondrial depolarization, apoptosis 413 and lipid oxidation. These results are consistent with previous studies indicating that NAC has 414 a neuroprotective effect against neuronal degeneration (He et al., 2012, Karalija et al., 2012). 415 416 Similar to other fungicides (fluconazole, itraconazole, voriconazole), which are already used in clinic for human mycoses and as non-steroidal antioestrogens in the treatment of oestrogen-417 responsive breast tumours in postmenopausal women, EPX is an inhibitor of aromatases and 418 estrogen synthesis. The present study shows that EPX is especially effective on glioblastoma 419 420 cells. Thus, we are thinking to encapsulate EPX in nanocapsules functionalized with the NFL peptide that targets the entry of nanocapsules into glioblastoma cells (Balzeau et al, 2013, 421 422 Laine et al 2013). To our knowledge, there is no literature of which we are aware that describes adverse effects associated with agricultural triazole (Epoxiconazole) exposure in 423 human populations, and in particular the pharmacokinetics of EPX in human brain. 424 Preliminary data show the ability of EPX in affecting *in-vitro* the fundamental characters of 425 neural stem cells isolated from rats by inhibiting the formation and self-renewal of 426 neurospheres, cytoskeleton degradation and inhibition of their cell cycle (data not shown). 427

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Taken together, we demonstrate for the first time that EPX is heavily toxic against F98 cells, showing a clear effect on cell viability, inducing cell cycle arrest, cytoskeleton disorganization and DNA damage. It also provoked nuclear condensation and fragmentation, decreased the mitochondrial membrane potential and induced apoptosis via caspases dependent signaling pathway. As the apoptotic effect in F98 cells seems to be related to the oxidative stress generation, the use of preventive strategies to minimize the increased production of ROS is the best solution for controlling the toxicity of EPX.

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438	Conflict of interest
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440	The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest.
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- 648 6. Figure legends
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Fig. 1. Cytotoxic effects and apoptosis induced by EPX on F98 cells. The effect of treating F98 cells with these increasing concentrations of EPX ($12 \mu M$, $25 \mu M$ and $50 \mu M$) for 24 h was evaluated using MTT test. Each experiment was repeated 3 times under different treatment conditions and data are expressed as the mean ± SD. Values are significantly different (p < 0.05) from control (**Fig. 1.1**).

655

The quantification of F98 cells in the different cell cycle phases after treatment with EPX at the different concentrations was done using flow cytometric analysis (**Fig. 1.2.B**). Each experiment was repeated 3 times and data are expressed as the mean \pm SD. Values are significantly different from control (*p < 0.05; **p<0.001).

660

The effect of EPX in cell apoptosis of F98 cells. Morphological changes such as chromatin 661 662 condensation and nucleus degradation are key features of apoptosis. Images are taken by fluorescence microscopy using AO/EB dyes combination (Fig. 1.3.A). The control cells are 663 664 stained green, the dead cells by early apoptosis are stained light green, the dead cells by late apoptosis are stained orange and the necrotic cells are stained red. Each experiment was 665 repeated 3 times under different treatment conditions and data are expressed as the mean \pm 666 SD. *P<0.05 and**P<0.01 vs. the negative control (Fig. 1.3.B). The apoptosis of cells was 667 also confirmed by Annexin-V/PI double-staining after EPX treatment for 24 hours. The rate 668 of apoptosis cells was assessed as means \pm SD. of three experiments done separately. *P<0.05 669 and**P<0.01 vs the negative control (Fig. 1.4.A, B). 670

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Fig. 2. Effect of IC50 of EPX on the cytoskeleton of F98 cells. Microscopic examination using confocal microscopy shows aggregation of microtubules (MTs), intermediate filaments (IFs) and actin microfilaments (MFs) following EPX treatment. Cells treated with 50 μ M EPX have lost their normal cytoskeleton.

676

Fig. 3. EPX induces depolarization of mitochondria and caspases activation. Treatment of F98 cells with EPX for 24 h reduced the mitochondrial potential. Each experiment was repeated 3 times under different treatment conditions and data are expressed as the mean \pm SD. Values are significantly different (*p < 0.05) (***p < 0.0001) from control (**Fig. 3.1**).

The effect of pre-treatment with caspases inhibitor ZVAD-fmk (2 h, 50 μ M) on the viability of F98 cells after incubation with EPX for 24 hours was evaluated using MTT test. Each experiment was repeated 3 times and data are expressed as the mean ± SD. Values are significantly different (*p < 0.05); (**p < 0.001) from control. (α p<0.05) values are significantly different from ZVAD-fmk pretreated cells (**Fig. 3.2**).

687

Fig. 4. Levels of ROS generation, malondialdehyde (MDA) production and score of DNA damage following 24 hours of EPX treatment. The oxidation of DCFH to DCF reflects the amount of ROS produced. Each experiment was repeated 3 times and data are expressed as the mean \pm SD. Values are significantly different (*p < 0.05); (**p < 0.001); (***p<0.0001) from control (**Fig. 4.1**).

693

EPX at the indicated concentrations induced lipid oxidation in F98 cells after incubation for 24 h. The level of lipid peroxidation is proportional to the rate of malondialdehyde (MDA). Each experiment was repeated 3 times under different treatment conditions and data are expressed as the mean \pm SD. Values are significantly different (*p < 0.05); (**p<0.001); (***p<0.0001) from control (**Fig. 4.2**).

699

Score of DNA fragmentation in F98 cells after incubation for 24 h with EPX at 12 μ M, 25 μ M and 50 μ M. Each experiment was repeated 3 times and data are expressed as the mean ± SD. Values are significantly different (*p < 0.05); (**p < 0.001); (***p<0.0001) from control (**Fig. 4.3**).

704

Fig. 5. The effect of NAC (N-acetyl-cysteine) on EPX-induced cell mortality and apoptotic levels. The cell viability was evaluated after pretreatment with NAC (1 mM) using MTT test (**Fig. 5.1**). The rate of EPX-induced apoptotic levels was assessed by analysis of flow cytometry after pretreatment with NAC (1 mM) (**Fig. 5.2.A, B**). Each experiment was repeated 3 times and data are expressed as the mean \pm SD. Values are significantly different (*p<0.05); (**p<0.001) from control, (¤p<0.05); (¤¤p<0.001), values are significantly different from NAC-pretreated cells.

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Fig. 4



■NAC+ (1mM)

5.2.A

5.2.B



Annexin V

Fig. 5

