

# THE PHTHALATE DBP-INDUCED CYTOTOXICITY AND APOPTOSIS VIA GENE EXPRESSION OF *p53*, *Bcl2* AND *Bax* IN TUMOR CELL LINES

NEIMA K. AL-SENOSY, A. A. AWAD, RANIA A. A. YOUNIS AND F. M. ABDEL-TAWAB

*Department of Genetics, Faculty of Agriculture, Ain Shams University, Cairo, Egypt*

The phthalate compounds are widely used as plasticizers and softeners in plastic materials. There has been an increasing concern regarding their possible health hazard to humans (Kleinsasser *et al.*, 2000). Chemically, the phthalates are not bound to products, therefore, they can easily leak out to enter the environment and diffuse within the materials (Fujii *et al.*, 2003). DBP is greatly used as plasticizer in food containers, furniture, toys, cosmetics, cellulose plastics, latex adhesives and dye solvents (Heudorf *et al.*, 2007). Phthalates are quickly absorbed after oral administration or inhalation due to their lipophilic characteristics (Kavlock *et al.*, 2006). In our previous study, Fahim *et al.* (2018) found that DBP has migratory effect from bottled natural drinking water stored under direct sunlight. The migration amount increased gradually by storage time.

Previous studies reported that DBP could reach high deleterious levels (Otake *et al.*, 2004) and cause developmental toxicity in rat embryonic limb bud cells (Kim *et al.*, 2002). It can cross through the placental and blood-brain barriers (Huang *et al.*, 2014; Wołtowicz *et al.*, 2017). High concentrations of DBP have

been detected in milk, human cord blood and urine (Hořberg *et al.*, 2008; Huang *et al.*, 2014). Moreover, Kawano (1980) found that accumulation of DBP in brain of rats was higher after chronic exposure than after a single inhalation, suggesting accumulation of phthalate in brain tissue. Xu *et al.* (2013) reported that DBP has the possibility to induce neurotoxicity in *zebra fish* embryos. In another study Chen *et al.* (2014) found that DBP enhanced-estrogenic activity and developmental toxicity in *zebra fish* embryo, and suggested that phthalates have the possibility to cause health hazards to human beings.

When, the male rats were exposed to high dose of DBP, inhibition of proliferation of fetal testicular somatic cells was observed (Boekelheide *et al.*, 2009). Moreover, it disturbed the sex ratio of the offspring, delayed female sexual maturation, and deteriorated the sperm quality of F1 generation males at 500 mg/kg of DBP (Dobrzyńska *et al.*, 2011). Li *et al.* (2009) reported that DBP also had adverse effects on cognitive abilities of male rats and their neurobehavioral aspects. In addition, exposures to DBP were reported to have positive correlation with developmental behavior disorders in eight-years-

old children (Lien *et al.*, 2015). Furthermore, exposure of DBP could induce neurotoxicity and apoptosis via activating caspase-3 in animal's neurons (Li *et al.*, 2013; Li *et al.*, 2014). Wellejus *et al.* (2002) found that di-*n*-butyl phthalate (DBP) induced ROS (reactive oxygen species) and oxidative DNA damage in the livers, kidneys and testes of rat. Also, Wońtowicz *et al.* (2017) observed that DBP stimulated apoptosis, neurotoxicity and ROS formation.

The hallmark of cancer is a cell death event that can be classified according to morphological variances (Wang *et al.*, 2016). However, cytotoxic agents, radiation or drugs-induced cell death could result G2-M arrest. This phenomenon was associated with damage or incomplete mitosis (Bonelli *et al.*, 1996). Wu *et al.* (2006) also mentioned that many investigators have shown that different cytotoxic agents can induce G2/M phase accumulation.

Apoptosis could be induced by *p53* gene through down regulation of *Bcl-2* gene, and activation of caspases (Haupt *et al.*, 2004). It has been known that *p53* contributed to the transcriptional activation of a great number of target genes, i.e. *Bax* (pro-apoptotic protein) (Mirzayans *et al.*, 2012). *Bcl-2* family genes play vital role in controlling the mitochondrial pathway of apoptosis (Dewson and Kluck, 2010; Wu *et al.*, 2013), which consists of anti-apoptosis genes, such as *Bcl-2*, *Bcl-xl* and pro-apoptosis genes, such as *Bax*, *Noxa*, *Pu-*

*ma*, *Bim*, *Bid* (Chen and Lesnefsky, 2011).

Assessment of cytotoxicity by mammalian cell lines to measure the activities of cytotoxic agents included either the MTT colorimetric cell viability assay (Borenfreund and Puerner, 1984) or neutral red cell viability assay (NR) (Fotakis and Timbrell, 2006).

The neutral red assay is more sensitive than the MTT assay (Aras *et al.*, 2008). The NR assay is based on the integration of the supravital dye inside the lysosomes of viable cells. If toxic agents injure the lysosomal membrane, damaged or dead cell cannot keep the dye. After NR dye has been extracted from lysosome, it is quantified spectrophotometrically (Fotakis and Timbrell, 2006).

The objective of this study was to assess the potential cytotoxic and apoptotic effects of DBP on human cell growth. Cell cycle arrest, apoptosis-related genes of the HepG2 cell line was also evaluated.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

### *In vitro cytotoxic activity using Neutral red cell viability/ cytotoxicity assay*

#### *Human cell lines and cultures*

Two different types of human cancerous and normal cell lines were used: lung carcinoma (A549) and lung normal (Wi38). Moreover, liver cancer (HepG2) and liver normal cell line (THLE2) were

used. The plates with human cell lines were incubated at 37°C in 5% CO<sub>2</sub> for 24 hours to obtain monolayer confluence.

### ***In vitro cytotoxicity by Neutral red assay (NR assay)***

*In vitro* Neutral red cytotoxicity assay described by Fotakis and Timbrell (2006) was carried out. Culture medium containing different concentrations of DBP compound (10, 25, 50, 100 and 200 µg/ml) were added in triplicate and medium without DBP was considered as untreated control. The washed dye-medium was isolated and the plates with formol-calcium. 500 µl of acetic acid-ethanol (one ml glacial acetic acid in 100 ml 50% ethanol) was added and the plates were saved for fifteen min at room temperature to extract the dye. The plates were then shaken gently for few seconds, so that complete dissolution was achieved. The absorbance of the extracted dye was measured using spectrophotometric reading (Spectra max 190-Molecular devices) at 540 nm filter. The average of three measurements for each concentration was determined. The percent viability of the concentration of DBP which reflects half the maximum concentration of the cell proliferation (IC<sub>50</sub>) was estimated.

### ***Statistical analysis***

Cytotoxicity assay was measured as OD (optical density) at 540 nm. Dose-response curves were plotted, and the half maximum concentration 50% inhibitory concentrations of DBP (IC<sub>50</sub>) were calcu-

lated by Graph Pad Prism software program. For statistical analysis of data, multiple comparisons were performed using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by the LSD test for post hoc analysis. Statistical significance was accepted at a level of P < 0.05. Data were analyzed using SPSS (version 11; Chicago, IL, USA).

### ***Cell cycle analysis using flow cytometry***

Cells were digested with warm Trypsin-EDTA + warm PBS-EDTA (0.25%) (500 µl + 500 µl), and incubated for ten min at 37°C. The mixture was centrifuged at 450 rpm for five min, and then the supernatant was removed carefully. The mixture was washed two times in warm PBS and the cell pellet was re-suspended in 500 µl warm PBS, centrifuged and supernatant was removed. A volume of 150 µl PBS + 350 µl ice-cold 70% ethanol was added and incubated at 4°C for one hour to fix the cells. The mixture was centrifuged at 350 rpm for 10 minutes and then ethanol was removed from supernatant carefully. The mixture was washed two times in warm PBS and the cells were re-suspended in 500 µl warm PBS, centrifuged and supernatant was removed. The cells were re-suspended in 100 µl PBS and stored at 4°C for up to 4 days. In darkness, the cells were stained with 100 µl of PI solution + 50 µl RNase A solution (100 µg/ml), and incubated in darkness for 30-60 min. The stained cells were read in Attune flow cytometer (Applied Bio-system, US).

### ***Determination of the expression levels of apoptosis-regulatory genes***

Total RNA was isolated from HepG2 cells using Gene JET RNA Purification Kit (Thermo Scientific, # K0731, USA) according to the manufacturer's protocol. The reverse transcribed of 5  $\mu$ g from total RNA by using RevertAid H Minus Reverse Transcriptase (Thermo Scientific, #EP0451, USA) to produce cDNA. cDNA was used as a template to determine the relative expression of the apoptosis-related genes using StepOnePlus real time PCR system (Applied Biosystem, USA).

The primers were designed by Primer 5.0 software, Table (1). The housekeeping gene  $\beta$ -actin was used as a reference to calculate fold change in target gene expression. A 25- $\mu$ L PCR mix was prepared by adding 12.5  $\mu$ L of 2X Maxima SYBR Green/ROX qPCR Master Mix (Thermo Scientific, # K0221, USA), 2  $\mu$ L of cDNA template, 1  $\mu$ L forward primer, 1  $\mu$ L reverse primer, and 8.5  $\mu$ L of nuclease free water. The thermal cycling conditions were as follows: initial denaturation at 95°C for 10 min, 40-45 cycles of amplification of DNA denaturation at 95°C for 15 s, annealing at 60°C for 30s, extension at 72°C for 30 s. At the end of the last cycle, the temperature was increased from 63 to 95°C for melting curve analysis. The cycle threshold (Ct) values were calculated for target genes and the housekeeping gene, and relative gene expression was determined using 2- $\Delta\Delta$ Ct method .

### ***Statistical analysis***

All data were expressed as means  $\pm$  standard error (SE). The statistical significance was evaluated by one way ANOVA using SPSS 18.0 software. Values were considered statistically significant at  $P < 0.05$ .

## **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

### ***In vitro cytotoxic effect on human cancer and normal cells***

Cytotoxicity of DBP was screened on multiple cell lines and examined by NR assay (Neutral red assay). In this study, Doxorubicin was used as a positive control, which exhibited cytotoxic activity against human hepatocellular carcinoma cells (HepG2). The DBP exhibited marked cytotoxic activity against liver normal cell line (THLE2), the IC<sub>50</sub> of Doxorubicin at 500.9  $\mu$ g/ml and 254  $\mu$ g/ml in DBP (Fig. 1A). IC<sub>50</sub> levels were measured for Doxorubicin and DBP which showed 26.82  $\mu$ g/ml and 43.77, respectively, as shown in Fig. (1B). Induced growth inhibitory effect on normal lung fibroblast cell line (Wi38) was examined at IC<sub>50</sub> of Doxorubicin and DBP which were observed at 530.3  $\mu$ g/ml and 445.3  $\mu$ g/ml, respectively (Fig. 2A). The cytotoxic activity was noticed also against lung cancer cell line (A549), at IC<sub>50</sub> of 93.54  $\mu$ g/ml or Doxorubicinis and 106.3  $\mu$ g/ml for (DBP (Fig. 2B). These data indicated that DBP decreased cell viability in malignant and non-malignant cells as well and confirmed the occurrence of cytotoxic effect.

Our results agreed with those of Kim *et al.* (2002), who suggested that DBP and MBuP induced developmental toxicity in rat embryonic limb bud cells due to oxidative stress. The IC<sub>50</sub> values of DBP for cytotoxicity were 25.54 µg/ml and cell differentiation was 21.21 µg/ml were observed in neutral red assay.

Boekelheide *et al.* (2009) reported that DBP inhibited proliferation and increased apoptosis in somatic cells in the fetal rat testis. Moreover, DBP might cause genetic defects in male gametes, which could deteriorate sperm quality of male offspring, and delayed sexual maturation of female offspring (Dobrzyńska *et al.*, 2011).

Abdel-Ghani *et al.* (2014) observed that DBP decreased in fertility of male and female rats and increased mortality rate with DNA damage. DBP has hepatotoxic effect as increased GOT and GPT activities were measured. Moreover, embryonic, developmental and reproductive toxicity were observed.

The high concentrations of DBP stimulated cytotoxicity in mesencephalic neurospheres of rat embryo via decreased number of proliferating cells (Ishido and Suzuki, 2014).

Wo'jtowicz *et al.* (2017) observed that DBP-induced cytotoxic effects (decreased cell viability) at high concentrations. Fahim *et al.* (2018) reported that DBP has cytotoxic effect on human cell line and potential carcinogenic activity in SMART protocol (Somatic Mutation and

Recombination Test) of *Drosophila melanogaster*.

### ***Effect of DBP on cell cycle arrest utilizing flow cytometry assay***

According to the inhibition rate of liver cancer cell line (HepG2) viability, it was necessary to assess cytotoxic effect of DBP on cell cycle arrest using flow cytometry based on cell cycle distribution. Figure (3) showed that compared with the control group, DBP at 43.77 µg/ml affected the cell cycle distribution on HepG2 cells. The G<sub>0</sub>/G<sub>1</sub> phase showed a decrease from 58% to 33%. Similarly, the S-phase percentage also exhibited a decrease from 30% to 18% in the control and DBP, respectively. While, the percentage of HepG2 cells at the G<sub>2</sub>/M phase was highly increased after incubation with DBP (49%) as compared to the control (12%). These results showed significant accumulation of HepG2 cells in the G<sub>2</sub>/M phase, and confirmed that DBP has marked cytotoxic effect via induction of G<sub>2</sub>/M phase arrest of the cell cycle.

Sleiman and Stewart (2000) suggested that many cytotoxic molecules induce mitotic cell death (apoptosis) which occurs in parallel with G<sub>2</sub>/M arrest. In addition, the sinularin induced G<sub>2</sub>/M arrest by increasing the expressions of genes related to G<sub>2</sub>/M such as p53, and p21 was reported. Furthermore, sinularin stimulated apoptosis was observed via decreased anti-apoptotic Bcl-2 expression whereas; it increased the expressions of Bax (Chung *et al.*, 2017).

### ***Determination of the expression levels of apoptosis-regulatory genes***

The role of apoptosis in DBP induced cytotoxicity on liver cancer cell lines (HepG2) was studied. The expression levels of apoptosis-related genes such as *p53*, *Bcl-2* and *Bax* in HepG2 cells were estimated by real time PCR (qRT-PCR). Figure (4) showed that, compared to the untreated group, the expression levels of *p53* and *Bax* were increased, whereas that of *Bcl-2* gene was decreased. These results indicated that the DBP killed HepG2 cells through apoptosis mechanism mainly via over expression of *p53* and *Bax* genes, while *Bcl-2* was down regulated.

Several investigators pointed to an essential role for *p53* in the balance between proliferation and apoptosis (Polager and Ginsberg, 2009), as, the *p53* gene plays a key role in G2 checkpoint, by halting G2/M transition. In addition, *p53* regulates the balance between the proapoptotic gene *Bax* and the antiapoptotic gene *Bcl-2* through its transcriptional activities (Leu *et al.*, 2004).

Li *et al.* (2013) indicated that DBP induced caspase-3 activity in the hippocampi of rats. Wo'jtowicz *et al.* (2017) demonstrated that DBP-induced neurotoxicity and apoptosis via stimulation of caspase-3 and enhancement of AhR mRNA levels at lower concentrations. Moreover, DBP-increased ROS production and LDH activities in concentration from 10 nM to 100  $\mu$ M were observed.

Finally, cytotoxicity and programmed cell death (apoptosis) of phthalate di-n-butyl phthalate (DBP) was tested on *in vitro* human cell growth. Cell cycle arrest and apoptosis-related genes of the HepG2 cell line were also evaluated. The results revealed that DBP stimulated cytotoxicity by decreased cell viability in cancer and normal cell lines. Cell cycle blocking at the G2/M phase was evident. Moreover, induction of apoptosis via increased *p53* and *Bax* mRNA expression levels accompanied with reduced *Bcl2* gene expression correlated with apoptosis pathway was observed. These studies provided evidence that DBP can inhibit cell proliferation in the human cell lines and also shed light on dose-dependent cellular cytotoxicity consequences of exposure to this phthalate. Our findings detected the toxic and apoptotic effects of DBP in human cell lines. Thus, the use of phthalates could presents negative health biohazards to human beings. This calls for strict control of the threshold levels that should be permitted for the industrial products containing DBP as it could reflect biosafety hazards to human and environment.

### **SUMMARY**

The components of phthalate are utilized as softeners and plasticizers in a wide range of plastic materials. There has been a high concern of potential health risks to humans. DBP is commonly used as plasticizer in food containers, furniture, toys, cosmetics, cellulose plastics, latex adhesives and dye solvents.

The present study focused on the cytotoxic activity of the DBP and its possible underlying mechanisms were also investigated. The results showed that phthalate di-*n*-butyl phthalate (DBP) induced profound cytotoxicity in cancer cells, i. e. Human hepatocellular carcinoma (HepG2) (IC<sub>50</sub> = 43.77 µg/ml), against human lung cancer cell line (A549) (IC<sub>50</sub> = 106.3 µg/ml). Moreover, DBP exhibited cytotoxic activity on normal cell lines; the IC<sub>50</sub> of DBP is 254 µg/ml and 445.3 µg/ml on THLE2 and Wi38, respectively. Flow cytometric analysis demonstrated that treatment of HepG2 cells with DBP increased G2/M phase cell cycle arrest. The quantitative real time-PCR was used to measure the mRNA levels of *p53*, *Bax*, and *Bcl-2* genes. The data showed that DBP changed transcriptional levels of these apoptosis-related genes. The mRNA expression of *p53* and *Bax* were up-regulated, but, the transcription of *Bcl2* was significantly down-regulated compared to the control.

## REFERENCES

- Abdul-Ghani, S. R., M. Q. Abdul-Ghani and Z. Abdeen (2014). The effect of di-butyl phthalates (DBP) and Di (2-Ethylhexyl) Phthalates (DEHP) on female rats fertility. *IJPSR*; Vol. 5: 1671-1681.
- Aras, M. A., K. A. Hartnett and E. Aizenman (2008). Assessment of cell viability in primary neuronal cultures. *Curr Protoc Neurosci.*; Chapter 7.
- Boekelheide, K., E. Kleymenova, K. Liu, C. Swanson and K. W. Gaido (2009). Dose-dependent effects on cell proliferation, seminiferous tubules, and male germ cells in the fetal rat testis following exposure to di(*n*-butyl) phthalate. *Microsc. Res. Tech.* 72: 629-638.
- Bonelli, G., M. C. Sacchi, G. Barbiero, F. Duranti, G. Goglio, D. C. Verdun, J. S. Amenta, M. Piacentini, C. Tacchetti and, F. M. Baccino (1996). Apoptosis of L929 cells by etoposide: a quantitative and kinetic approach. *Exp. Cell Res.*, 228: 292-305.
- Borenfreund, E. and J. A. Puerner (1984). Simple quantitative procedure using monolayer cultures for cytotoxicity assays (HTD/NR-90). *J. Tissue Cult. Methods*, 9:7-9.
- Chen, Q. and E. J. Lesnefsky (2011). Blockade of electron transport during ischemia preserves *bcl-2* and inhibits opening of the mitochondrial permeability transition pore. *FEBS Lett.*, 585: 921-926.
- Chen, X., X. Shisan, T. Tianfeng, T. Sin, H. C. Shuk, W. F. Fred, J. L. Steven and C. H. Kin (2014). Toxicity and estrogenic endocrine disrupting activity of phthalates and their mixtures. *Int. J. Environ. Res. Public Health*, 11: 3156-3168;
- Chung, T., L. Shih-Chao, S. Jui-Hsin, C. Yu-Kuo, L. Chi-Chien and C.

- Hong-Lin (2017). Sinularin induces DNA damage, G2/M phase arrest, and apoptosis in human hepatocellular carcinoma cells. *Complementary and Alternative Medicine*, 17: 62.
- Dewson, G. and R. M. Kluck (2010). Bcl-2 family-regulated apoptosis in health and disease. *Cell Health Cytoskelet.* 2: 9-22.
- Dobrzyńska, M. M., E. J. Tyrkiel and K. A. Pachocki (2011). Developmental toxicity in mice following paternal exposure to Di-*n*-butylphthalate (DBP). *Biomed. Environ. Sci.*, 24: 569-78.
- Fahim, H. M, Neima, K. Alsenosy, M. F. Khallaf, Y. A. Abdeldaim and Hemet, E. Elsheshetawy (2018). *Arab Univ. J. Agric. Sci., Ain Shams Univ., Cairo, Special Issue*, 26 (2).
- Fotakis, G. and J. A. Timbrell (2006). *In vitro* cytotoxicity assays: comparison of LDH, neutral red, MTT and protein assay in hepatoma cell lines following exposure to cadmium chloride. *Toxicol Lett.*, 160: 171-177.
- Fujii, M., N. Shinohara, A. Lim, T. Otake, K. Kumagai and Y. Yanagisawa (2003). A study on emission of phthalate esters from plastic materials using a passive flux sampler. *Atmos Environ.*, 37: 5495-504.
- Haupt, S. and Y. Haupt (2004). Manipulation of the tumor suppressor p53 for potentiating cancer therapy. *Seminars in Cancer Biology*, 14: 244-252.
- Heudorf, U., V. Mersch-Sundermann and J. Angerer (2007) Phthalates: toxicology and exposure. *Int. J. Hyg. Environ. Health*, 210: 623-634.
- Ho'gberg, J., A. Hanberg and M. Berglund (2008). Phthalate diesters and their metabolites in human breast milk, blood or serum, and urine as biomarkers of exposure in vulnerable populations. *Environ. Health Perspect.*, 116: 334-339.
- Huang, Y, J. Li, J. M. Garcia, H. Lin, Y. Wang, P. Yan, L. Wang, Y. Tan, J. Luo, Z. Qiu, J. A. Chen and W. Shu (2014). Phthalate levels in cord blood are associated with preterm delivery and fetal growth parameters in Chinese women. *PLoS One*, 4; 9 (2): e87430.
- Ishido, M. and J. Suzuki (2014). Classification of phthalates based on an *in vitro* neurosphere assay using rat mesencephalic neural stem cells. *J. Toxicol. Sci.*, 39: 25-32.
- Kavlock R., D. Barr, K. Boekelheide, W. Breslin, P. Breyse, R. Chapin, K. Gaido, E. Hodgson, M. Marcus, K. Shea and P. Williams (2006). NTP-CERHR expert panel update on the reproductive and developmental toxicity of di (2-ethylhexyl)

- phthalate. *Reprod. Toxicol.*, 22: 291-399.
- Kawano, M. (1980). Toxicological studies on phthalate esters. 2. Metabolism, accumulation and excretion of phthalate esters in rats (author's transl). *Nihon Eiseigaku Zasshi*, 35: 693-701.
- Kim, S. H., S. S. Kim, O. Kwon, K. H. Sohn, S. J. Kwack, Y. W. Choi, S. Y. Han, M. K. Lee and K. L. Park (2002). Effects of dibutyl phthalate and monobutyl phthalate on cytotoxicity and differentiation in cultured rat embryonic limb bud cells; protection by antioxidants. *J. Toxicol. Environ. Health*, 65: 461-472.
- Kleinsasser, N. H. (2000). Phthalates Demonstrate Genotoxicity on Human Mucosa of the Upper Aerodigestive Tract. *Environmental and Molecular Mutagenesis*, 35: 9-12.
- Leu, J. I., P. Dumont, M. Hafey, M. E. Murphy and D. L. George (2004). Mitochondrial p53 activates Bak and causes disruption of a Bak-Mcl1 complex. *Nat. Cell Biol.*, 6: 443-450.
- Li, X. J., L. Jiang and L. Chen (2013). Neurotoxicity of dibutyl phthalate in brain development following perinatal exposure: a study in rats. *Environ. Toxicol. Pharmacol.*, 36: 392-402.
- Li, X., L. Jiang, L. Cheng and H. Chen (2014). Dibutyl phthalate-induced neurotoxicity in the brain of immature and mature rat offspring. *Brain Dev.*, 36: 653-660.
- Li, Y., M. Zhuang, T. Li and N. Shi (2009). Neurobehavioral toxicity study of dibutyl phthalate on rats following in utero and lactational exposure. *J. Appl. Toxicol.*, 29: 603-611.
- Lien, Y. J., H. Y. Ku, P. H. Su, S. J. Chen, H. Y. Chen, P. C. Liao, W. J. Chen and, S. L. Wang (2015). Prenatal exposure to phthalate esters and behavioral syndromes in children at eight years of age: taiwan maternal and infant cohort study. *Environ. Health Perspect.*, 123: 95-100.
- Mirzayans, R., B. Andrais, A. Scott and D. Murray (2012). New insights into p53 signaling and cancer cell response to DNA damage: implications for cancer therapy. *J. Biomed. Biotechnol.*, dx.doi.org/10.1155/2012/170325.
- Otake, T., J. Yoshinaga and Y. Yanagisawa (2004). Exposure to phthalate esters from indoor environment. *J. Expo. Anal. Environ. Epidemiol.*, 14: 524-528.
- Polager, S. and D. Ginsberg (2009). p53 and E2f: Partners in life and death. *Nat. Rev. Cancer*, 9: 738-748.

- Sleiman, R. J. and B. W. Stewart (2000). Early caspase activation in leukemic cells subject to etoposide-induced G2-M arrest: evidence of commitment to apoptosis rather than mitotic cell death. *Clinical Cancer Research*, 6: 3756-3765.
- Wang, H., T. Zhang, W. Sun, Z. Wang, D. Zuo, Z. Zhou, S. Li, J. Xu, F. Yin, Y. Hua and Z. Cai (2016). Erianin induces G2/M-phase arrest, apoptosis, and autophagy via the ROS/JNK signaling pathway in human osteosarcoma cells *in vitro* and *in vivo*. *Cell Death Dis.*, 7: e2247.
- Wellejus, A., M. Dalgaard and S. Loft (2002). Oxidative DNA damage in male wistar rats exposed to di-n-butyl phthalate. *J. Toxicol. Environ. Health*, 65: 813-824.
- Woźtowiec, A. K., A. S. Konrad and W. M. Agnieszka (2017). Dibutyl phthalate (DBP)-Induced apoptosis and neurotoxicity are mediated *via* the aryl hydrocarbon receptor (AhR) but not by estrogen receptor alpha (ERa), estrogen receptor beta (ERb), or peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor gamma (PPARc) in Mouse Cortical Neurons. *Neurotox Res.*, 31: 77-89.
- Wu, M., H. Zhang, J. Hu and Z. Weng (2013). Isoalantolactone inhibits UM-SCC-10A cell growth via cell cycle arrest and apoptosis induction. *PLoS One*, 8: e76000.
- Wu, Z. Z., C. M. Chien, S. H. Yang, Y. H. Lin, X. W. Hu, Y. J. Lu, M. J. Wu and S. R. Lin (2006). Induction of G2/M phase arrest and apoptosis by a novel enediyne derivative, THDA, in chronic myeloid leukemia (K562) cells. *Mol. Cell Biochem.*, 292: 99-105.
- Xu, H., S. Xiaoling, Z. Zhen, Z. Yanmin, C. Yao, H. Songlei, W. Shasha, W. Xiangyang, Y. Liuqing and C. Zhonglin (2013). Effects of di-n-butyl phthalate and diethyl phthalate on acetylcholinesterase activity and neurotoxicity related gene expression in embryonic *zebrafish*. *Bull. Environ. Contam. Toxicol.*; 91: 635-639.

Table (1): Primers used for each gene.

Primer	Sequence
p53	F- 5'-CCCAGGTCCAGATGAAG-3' R- 5'-CAGACGGAAACCGTAGC-3'
Bcl-2	F-5'-GGATGCCTTTGTGGAAGTGT-3' R-5'-AGCCTGCAGCTTTGTTTCAT-3'
Bax	F-5'-TTTGCTTCAGGGTTTCATC-3' R-5'-CAGTTGAAGTTGCCGTCAGA-3'.

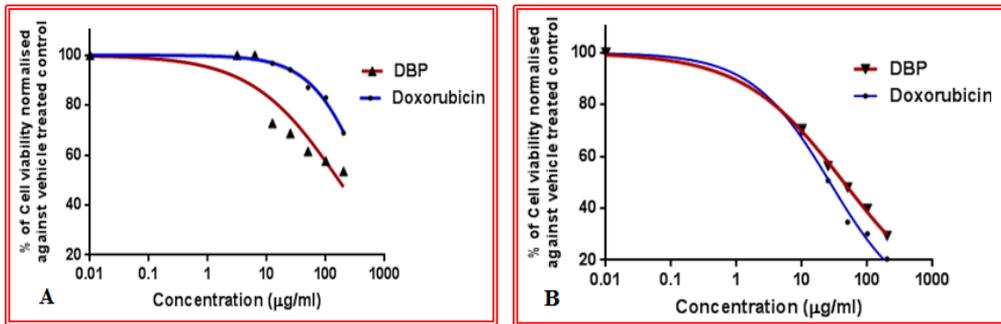


Fig. (1): Dose-dependent growth inhibition by Doxorubicin as a positive control and DBP on, A) non-malignant human liver cells (*THLE2*) and B) malignant liver cell line (*HepG2* cells). Cell viability was quantified by NR assay. Results are mean  $\pm$  (n = 3). \*p < 0.05 to compared to control.

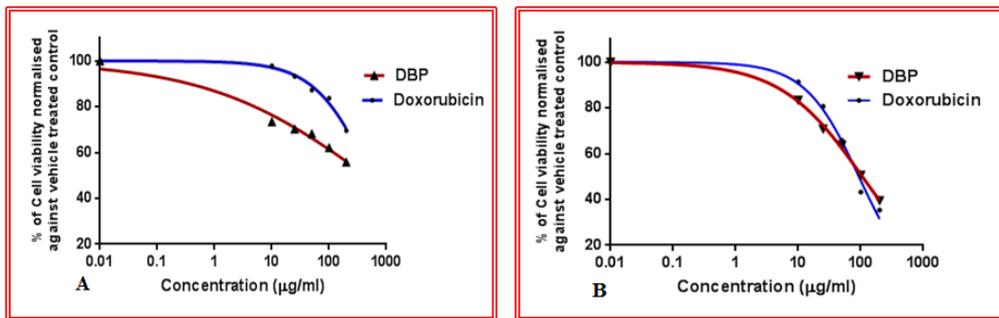


Fig. (2): Dose-dependent growth inhibition by the Doxorubicin as a positive control and DBP on, A) non-malignant human lung cells (*Wi38*) and B) malignant human lung cells (*A549* cells). Cell viability was quantified by NR assay. Results are mean  $\pm$  (n = 3). \*p < 0.05 to compared to control.

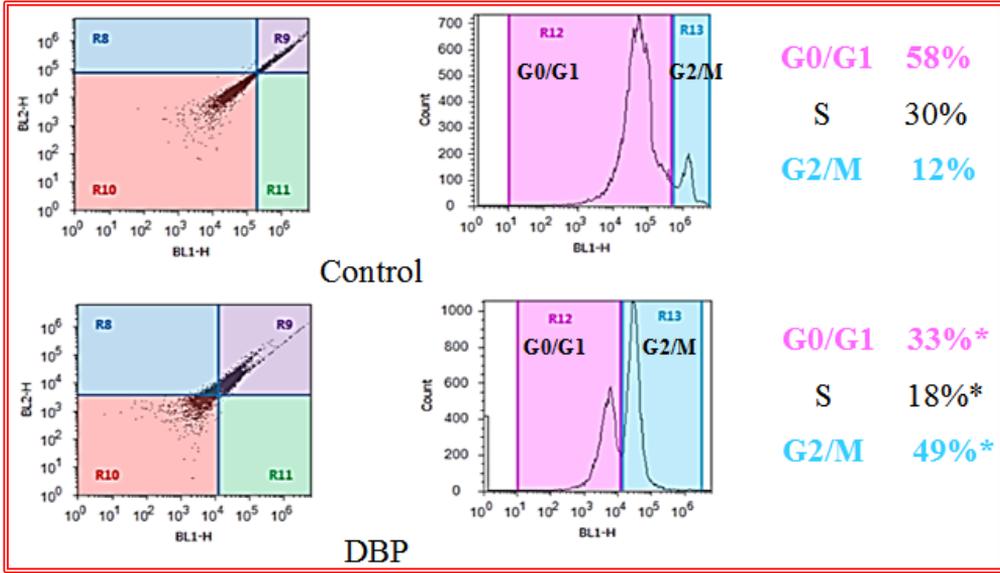


Fig. (3): Effect of DBP on the G2/M cell cycle arrest. Liver cancer cells (HepG2) were treated with DBP at the concentration of 43.77  $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$  in order to check the cell cycle distribution and then were analyzed by *flow cytometry*.

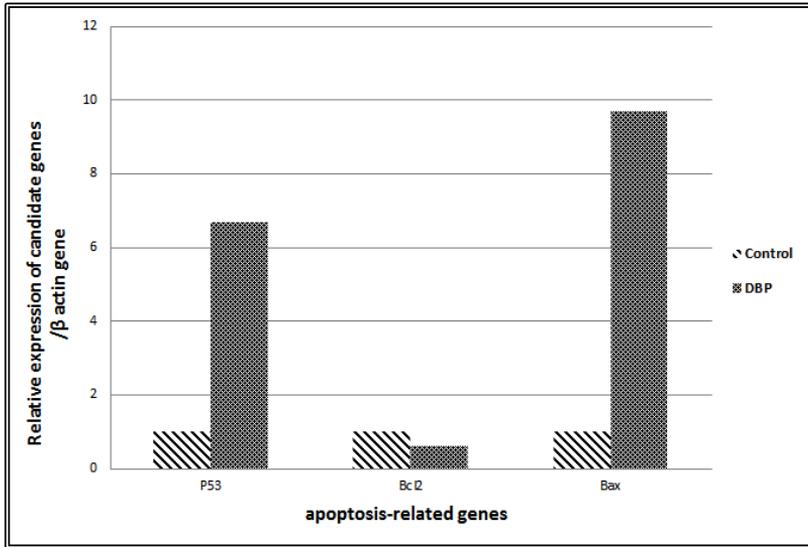


Fig. (4): Effects of DBP on apoptosis-related genes after exposure to 54.86  $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ , mRNA expression of p53, Bcl-2, and Bax was assessed by quantitative RT-PCR \*P < 0.05, compared to the control group.