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## SULFORAPHANE RESCUES MEMORY DYSFUNCTION AND SYNAPTIC AND MITOCHONDRIAL ALTERATIONS INDUCED BY BRAIN IRON ACCUMULATION

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- 21 Abstract-Iron overload contributes to the development of neurodegeneration and the exacerbation of normal apoptosis rates, largely due to its participation in the Fenton reaction and production of reactive oxygen species (ROS). Mitochondria constitute the major intracellular source of ROS and the main target of attack by free radicals. They are dynamic organelles that bind (fusion) and divide (fission) in response to environmental stimuli, developmental status, and energy needs of the cells. Sulforaphane (SFN) is a natural compound that displays antioxidant and antiinflammatory activities. This study aims to investigate the effects of SFN on memory deficits and changes in markers of mitochondrial function, DNM1L and OPA1, and the synaptic marker, synaptophysin, induced by neonatal iron treatment. Male rats received vehicle or carbonyl iron (30 mg/kg) from the 12th to the 14th postnatal day. In adulthood, they were treated with saline or SFN (0.5 or 5 mg/kg) for 14 days every other day. Memory deficits were assessed using the object recognition task. DNM1L, OPA1, and synaptophysin levels in the hippocampus were quantified by Western blotting. Results showed that SFN was able to reverse iron-induced decreases in mitochondrial fission protein, DNM1L, as well as synaptophysin levels in the hippocampus, leading to a recovery of recognition memory impairment induced by iron. These findings suggest that

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SFN may be further investigated as potential agent for the treatment of cognitive deficits associated with neurodegenerative disorders. © 2015 Published by Elsevier Ltd. on behalf of IBRO.

Key words: sulforaphane, iron, mitochondria, recognition memory, synapse, neurodegenerative disorders.

## INTRODUCTION

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Iron is the most abundant transition metal in the brain and 24 is involved in metabolic processes such as oxidative 25 phosphorylation and synthesis of DNA, RNA and 26 proteins; acting as a cofactor for many enzymes 27 (Youdim et al., 1991; Crichton et al., 2008). In neurons, 28 iron plays a role in the production of various neurotrans-29 mitters including dopamine, norepinephrine, serotonin 30 and GABA (Todorich and Connor, 2004; Lee et al., 31 2006). Iron entry in the neonatal brain is essential for nor-32 mal neurodevelopment and for the establishment of the 33 final iron concentration in the adult brain, as brain iron 34 absorption is maximal during the neonatal period 35 (Connor et al., 1995; Moos, 2002). 36

Evidence suggest that iron overload contributes to the 37 development of neurodegeneration, through the 38 exacerbation of apoptosis rates, mainly due to its 39 participation in the Fenton reaction and production of 40 reactive oxygen species (ROS) that result in cell 41 damage (oxidative stress) (Lee et al., 2006). In neurolog-42 ical diseases such as Alzheimer's disease (AD), 43 Parkinson's disease (PD), dementia with Lewy bodies, 44 and Huntington's disease (HD), iron accumulation occurs 45 in regions most susceptible to neuronal degeneration 46 (cortex, hippocampus, and substantia nigra). The mecha-47 nisms underlying iron accumulation in the brain are still a 48 matter of controversy. It has been hypothesized that both 49 genetic and non-genetic factors may be involved. 50 Although it is known that the absorption of iron in the brain 51 is higher during development of the nervous system, 52 there is a continuous absorption of iron resulting in the 53 accumulation of iron during the aging process. Thus it is 54 possible that dietary iron can represent a modifiable risk 55 factor for neurodegenerative disorders associated with 56 aging (Quintana et al., 2006; Bartzokis et al., 2007). In 57 previous studies we have demonstrated that adult rats 58 treated with iron in the neonatal period (12th to 14th day 59

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Abbreviations: AD, Alzheimer's disease; ANOVA, analysis of variance; EDTA, ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid; HD, Huntington's disease; HDAC, histone deacetylase; OPA1, optic atrophy type 1; PD, Parkinson's disease; ROS, reactive oxygen species.

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of life) have greater oxidative damage in the hippocampus 60 and cortical areas where there is increased apoptosis, 61 resulting in loss of memory (Dal-Pizzol et al., 2001; de 62 Lima et al., 2005; Miwa et al., 2011; da Silva et al., 63 2014). Over the years, we have been using this model 64 of cognitive impairment to investigate the pharmacologi-65 cal properties of compounds in the search of novel poten-66 67 tial treatments for memory dysfunction associated with neurodegenerative disorders (de Lima et al., 2008; 68 Fagherazzi et al., 2012; Silva et al., 2012; Garcia et al., 69 2013). Mitochondria are the main intracellular source of 70 superoxide anion  $(O^{2-})$  or ROS as well as the main target 71 72 of attack by free radicals (Harman, 1972; Miguel et al., 73 1980). Mitochondria are dynamic organelles that actively divide (fission) and join each other (fusion) to combine 74 metabolites and copies of mtDNA to suit the ever-75 changing energy demands of the cell (Labrousse et al., 76 1999; Smirnova et al., 2001). Mitochondrial fission is a 77 regular event during cell division, allowing the cells to 78 divide as a means of maintaining adequate energy supply 79 (McBride et al., 2006). The balance between mitochon-80 drial fission and fusion is controlled by large dynamin-81 related GTPases, which have antagonistic effects (Liu 82 83 et al., 2012). Fission is regulated and maintained by at 84 least two proteins: the cytosolic dynamin-related protein 85 1 (Drp1 or DNM1L) and the transmembrane fission 1 86 (Fis1) protein. Mitochondrial fusion provides a mechanism 87 by which the population of the organelle is kept evenly and facilitates inter-complementation of mtDNA (Chen 88 and Chan, 2005), and the protein optic atrophy type 1 89 (OPA1), is required for this event, causing mitochondrial 90 inner membrane fusion (Meeusen et al., 2006). In neu-91 rons, mitochondria are distributed not only in the cell 92 body, but also migrate to the long processes, including 93 synaptic terminals, which require large amounts of energy 94 (Chen and Chan, 2006). Mitochondrial fission and fusion 95 96 are critical for proper synaptic functioning, as the defects 97 in the regulation of the dynamic properties of the mitochondria may be involved in energy failure, which may, 98 ultimately, lead to neurodegeneration (Van Laar and 99 100 Berman, 2013).

The synapses are formed by the functional link 101 between the axons with post-synaptic terminals of their 102 target neurons. Cognitive deficits have been correlated 103 with changes in synaptic morphology, including loss of 104 structural pre or post-synaptic proteins (such as 105 synaptophysin) and the progressive loss of synaptic 106 density especially in the hippocampus (Rapp and 107 Gallagher, 1996; Rosenzweig and Barnes, 2003; Burke 108 and Barnes, 2006; Driscoll et al., 2006), Synaptophysin 109 110 is located exclusively in synaptic vesicles, where it is involved in several steps of synaptic function including 111 exocytosis, synapse formation, biogenesis and endocyto-112 sis (Daly et al., 2000; Arthur and Stowell, 2007). 113

Sulforaphane [SFN, 1-isothiocyanate-(4R)-(methylsul finyl)butane] is an isothiocyanate formed in mammals by gut bacteria-derived myrosinase acting on a precursor compound glucoraphanin, which is found in cruciferous vegetables of the genus *Brassica* such as cauliflower, broccoli, cabbage, Brussels sprouts, mustard, and cress (Van Poppel et al., 1999; Fahey et al., 2001; Atwell

2015). SFN displays et al.. antioxidant. anti-121 (Pina inflammatory, and anticarcinogenic properties 122 et al., 2010; Guerrero-Beltrán et al., 2012). Studies have 123 shown that SFN protects against renal, hepatic, and car-124 diac damage (for a review see Guerrero-Beltrán et al., 125 2012). Recently, it has been demonstrated that SFN 126 may be a promising neuroprotective compound. In a 127 model of neonatal ischemia-hypoxia in rats. SFN was 128 able to reduce the infarct volume and to decrease the 129 number of apoptotic cells, as well as to reduce caspase-130 3 activity and to suppress oxidative stress (Ping et al., 131 2010). In the 6-hydroxydopamine (6-OHDA) experimental 132 model of PD in rats, SFN was shown to protect against 133 nigral damage, alleviating behavioral changes such as 134 motor coordination and rotational behavior, increasing 135 antioxidant defenses, and protecting against oxidative 136 damage and apoptosis (Morroni et al., 2013). Dash and 137 coworkers (2009) have demonstrated that SFN was able 138 to ameliorate cognitive deficits induced by traumatic brain 139 injury in rats. SFN also reduced infarct volume in brains of 140 adult rats submitted to cerebral ischemia (Zhao et al., 141 2006). 142 143

Although evidence suggests that SFN exhibits neuroprotective properties having mitochondria as its main target, its functional properties and mechanisms of action are not completely understood. Here, we used the iron-induced model of memory impairment, which is associated with oxidative stress and increases in apoptotic markers, to investigate the effects of SFN on memory deficits as well as mitochondrial and synaptic alterations, by measuring hippocampal levels of mitochondrial fission and fusion proteins, DNM1L and OPA1, and the synaptic marker, synaptophysin. We also analyzed the expression of three genes encoding antioxidant enzymes.

## EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Animals

Pregnant Wistar rats were obtained from the Centro de 158 Modelos Biológicos Experimentais (CeMBE), Pontifical 159 Catholic University, Porto Alegre, RS, Brazil. After birth 160 each litter was adjusted within 48 h to eight rat pups, 161 and to contain offspring of both genders in about equal 162 proportions. Each pup was kept together with its mother 163 in a plastic cage with sawdust bedding in a room 164 temperature of 21  $\pm$  1 °C and a 12/12-h light/dark cycle. 165 At the age of 3 weeks, pups were weaned and the 166 males were selected and maintained in groups of three 167 to five in individually ventilated cages with sawdust 168 bedding. For postnatal treatments, animals were given 169 standardized pellet food and tap water ad libitum. 170

All behavioral experiments were performed at 171 light phase between 09:00 a.m and 4:30 p.m. All 172 experimental procedures were performed in accordance 173 to the Brazilian Guidelines for the Care and Use of 174 Animals in Research and Teaching (DBCA, published 175 by CONCEA, MCTI) and approved by the Institutional 176 Ethics Committee of the Pontifical Catholic University 177 (CEUA 13/00366). All efforts were made to minimize the 178 number of animals and their suffering. 179

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