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# Q3 Gallic acid prevents memory deficits and oxidative stress induced by 2 intracerebroventricular injection of streptozotocin in rats

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#### ARTICLE INFO

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#### ABSTRACT

In the present study, we evaluated the effects of gallic acid (GA; 30 mg/kg, orally, once daily for 26 days starting 26 from day 5 prior to streptozotocin injection) on cognitive impairment and cerebral oxidative stress induced by 27 intracerebroventricular-streptozotocin (ICV-STZ; bilaterally, two doses of 3 mg/kg) injection as an animal 28 model of sporadic Alzheimer's type (SDAT) in rats. The results showed that ICV-STZ-injection reduced the 29 passive avoidance and spatial memory performance associated with decreased non-enzymatic [total thiol con- 30 centration, -58.5%, -50.7%] and enzymatic [superoxide dismutase (SOD, -30.2%, -32.9%), catalase (CAT, -31 43.5\%, -50.7%), glutathione peroxidase (GPx, -57.1%, -61.7%)] activities and increased the level of thio- 32 barbituric acid reactive species (TBARS, +103.5%, +82.5%) in the hippocampus and cerebral cortex, respectively. 33 In contrast, chronic administration of GA significantly prevented cognitive deficits and biochemical alterations in 34 the ICV-STZ rats. These findings highlight the beneficial role of GA in the ICV-STZ rats *via* enhancement of cere- 35 bral antioxidant defense system. Thus, it may have a therapeutic value for the treatment of SDAT. (© 2013 Published by Elsevier Inc. 37

#### 42 1. Introduction

Alzheimer's disease (AD) is a progressive neurodegenerative disor-43 der of the aged brain and has become a major medical and social trouble 44 for industrialized and developing countries. It is the most important 45 cause of senile dementia of Alzheimer's type (SDAT) and is character-46 47 ized by memory and cognitive impairment, the formation of betaamyloid plaques, neurofibrillary tangles and degeneration of the cholin-48 ergic neurons. None of the several hypotheses proposed to explain AD 49etiology has been confirmed, but oxidative stress is often cited as an 5051important factor (Weinstock and Shoham, 2004). Oxidative stress damages the polyunsaturated fatty acids leading to the disruption of cell 52membrane and its integrity, inactivation of antioxidant enzymes, and 53 54finally neuronal dysfunction and death (Javed et al., 2012).

Intracerebroventricular (ICV) injection of streptozotocin (STZ), in a sub diabetogenic dose in rat has been likened to sporadic dementia of Alzheimer's disease. It is characterized by cognitive impairment, impaired glucose metabolism oxidative stress (Sharma and Gupta, 2001) and a decrease in cholinergic markers in the brain (Lannert et al., 1998).

0091-3057/\$ – see front matter © 2013 Published by Elsevier Inc. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.pbb.2013.09.002 There has been much effort to develop beneficial agents from medic- 60 inal plants to achieve neuroprotection. Recent studies have shown that 61 supplementation with some phenolic compounds such as crocin 62 (Naghizadeh et al., 2013), rutin (Javed et al., 2012), co-enzyme Q10 63 (Ishrat et al., 2006), alpha lipoic acid, melatonine, resveratrol (Sharma 64 et al., 2005), and epigallocatechin-3-gallate (Baluchnejadmojarad and 65 Roghani, 2011) can prevent or treat the STZ-induced cerebral damage, 66 and the ability of phenolic compounds might be related to their antiox- 67 idant properties. 68

Gallic acid (GA, 3,4,5-trihydroxybenzoic acid), is one of the most 69 important polyphenolic compound in plants and is considered a puta-70 tive active compound in tannin, namely gallotannin. GA is a polypheno-71 lic substance present in grapes, different berries, mango, areca nut, 72 walnut, green tea and other fruits as well as in wine. This compound 73 possesses antioxidant and free radical scavenger, anti-cancer and anti-74 inflammatory properties (Isuzugawa et al., 2001; Kroes et al., 1992). 75 Due to the antioxidant effects, GA-containing plant extracts have 76 showed the antidiabetic, antiangiogenic and antimelanogenic effects 77 and reduced heart infarction incidence and oxidative liver and kidney 78 damage (Constat, 1997; Kim, 2007; Jadon et al., 2007). It has been 79 reported that GA is involved in the protection of the neural cells against 80 in vitro  $\beta$ -amyloid peptide (A $\beta$ )-induced death (Bastianetto et al., 81 2006). GA also has a protective effect in the case of cerebral oxidative 82 stress induced by diabetes induced by streptozotocin in rats through 83 the modulation of antioxidant enzyme-dependent signaling systems 84

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(Kade and Rocha, 2013). Recently, our research indicated the 85 86 neuroprotective effect of GA against oxidative stress induced by 6hydroxydopamine (6-OHDA) in rat brain (Mansouri et al., 2013). In ad-87 88 dition, Ferruzzi et al. (2009) demonstrated that repeated treatment of mice with grape seed extract significantly increased the bioavailability 89 and brain deposition of GA which has previously been found to attenu-04 ate cognitive deterioration in a mouse model of Alzheimer's disease. 91 92 Thus, GA may be a potential neuroprotective agent.

Considering all of these points, this study was intended to examine the efficacy of chronic GA administration on alleviation of learning and memory deficits in ICV-STZ rats using passive avoidance, and Morris water maze (MWM) tests and its effect on some markers of oxidative stress in the rat brain.

#### 98 2. Materials and methods

#### 99 2.1. Chemicals

TBA (2-thiobarbituric acid), n-butanol, tris base, Na<sub>2</sub>EDTA, sodium 100 acetate, glacial acetic acid, phosphoric acid, potassium chloride and 101 tetramethoxypropane were obtained from Merck Company (Darmstadt, 102 Germany). Streptozotocin and gallic acid HCl were purchased from 103 104 Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO, USA). SOD and GPx kits were purchased from Randox (Randox Labs, Crumlin, UK) and CAT kit from Oxis Re-105 search. All other chemicals were of analytical grade and prepared from 106 Merck Company (Darmstadt, Germany). 107

#### 108 2.2. Animals

109 Adult male Wistar rats weighing 250-300 g were used throughout the study. All of them were kept in the same room under a constant 110 temperature (22  $\pm$  2 °C), humidity (55–60%) and illuminated from 05 1127:00 a.m. to 7:00 p.m., with food pellets and water available ad libitum. The rats were acclimatized to the laboratory conditions five days before 113the experimental session. All animal experiments were carried out in 114 accordance with the NIH Guide for Care and Use of Laboratory Animals. 115The Institutional Animal Ethical Committee of Jundishapur University, 116 formed under Committee for Purpose of Control and Supervision of 117 Experiments on Animals (CPCSEA, Reg. No. PRC98) approved the phar-118 macologic protocols. 119

#### 120 2.3. Intracerebroventricular administration of streptozotocin

121 Rats were anesthetized with combination of ketamine/xylazine (60/ 122 6 mg/kg, i.p.). The head was positioned in a stereotactic frame (Narishige, Japan) and a midline sagittal incision was made in the 123 124 scalp. Burr holes were drilled in the skull on both sides over the lateral ventricles using the following coordinates: 0.8 mm posterior to bregma, 1251.5 mm lateral to sagittal suture, and 3.6 mm beneath the surface of the 126brain (Paxinos and Watson, 2006). STZ (3 mg/kg) was injected ICV bi-127 laterally on day 1 and 3 of the experiment (Sharma and Gupta, 2001). 128129In the sham group, artificial CSF (147 mM NaCl, 2.9 mM KCl, 1.6 mM 130MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 1.7 mM CaCl<sub>2</sub> and 2.2 mM dextrose) was injected (20 µl on each site) on the same days as STZ group. STZ was dissolved in the 131

artificial CSF. All microinjections were performed by delivering drug or132vehicle solution slowly over a 1-min period and the needle remained133in position for a further 5 min to prevent reflux along the injection134tract. The progress of the injection was continuously monitored by fol-135lowing the movement of an air bubble in the tubing.136

#### 2.4. Experimental design

Animals were randomly divided into four groups (8 each) and were 138 individually put in the cages. The treatment schedule and the intervals Q6 for estimation of various parameters have been presented in Fig. 1. 140 Group 1: vehicle-treated (normal saline, 2 ml/kg, p.o.) and sham- 141 operated control (S); group 2: GA treated (30 mg/kg, p.o.) and sham- 142 operated (GA + S); group 3: vehicle-treated and ICV-STZ-infused 143 lesioned (L); group 4: GA-treated (30 mg/kg) and ICV-STZ-infused 144 (GA + L). In the S and GA + S groups, the rats were injected ICV the 145 same volume of artificial CSF. Groups 2 and 4 were administered with 07 GA by gavage at a dose of 30 mg/kg (once/day) for 26 days starting 147 5 days before the first injection of ICV-STZ. On the day of ICV injections 148 (days 1 and 3), GA or normal saline was administered 1 h prior to ICV 149 injection. During the behavioral test, GA was administered 60 min 150 before the water maze training. The dose of GA used in this study has 151 been obtained from previous experiments (Punithavathi et al., 2011; 152 Dhingra et al., 2012) and the pilot study in our laboratory. 153

#### 2.5. Learning and memory assessment

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#### 2.5.1. Passive avoidance test

On days 14 and 15 after the first dose of ICV-STZ infusion, the rats 156 were tested for memory retention deficit using a passive avoidance 157 task. The apparatus (Neuroscience, Inc., VA, USA) consisted of an illumi- 158 nated compartment ( $20 \times 10 \times 2$  cm) with a 6-W tungsten lamp and a 159 dark compartment  $(30 \times 30 \times 30 \text{ cm})$  with a grid floor (15 parallel 160 steel rods), separated by a guillotine door  $(8 \times 8 \text{ cm})$ . Electroshocks 161 (0.2 mA, 75 V, 50 Hz) were delivered for 3 s through the grid floor in 162 the dark compartment by a shock scrambler (Neuroscience, Inc., VA, 163 USA). On the first and second days of testing, each rat was placed on 164 the apparatus and left for 5 min to habituate to the apparatus. On the **O8** third day, an acquisition trial was performed. During the acquisition 166 trial, each rat was placed in the illuminated chamber. After initial habit- 167 uation period of 60 s, the guillotine door was opened and the time taken 168 by the rat to enter the dark chamber was noted. The latency to step into 169 the dark compartment was recorded as initial trial or pre-shock latency 170 (ITL). As soon as the rat entered the dark chamber, it was given a mild 171 foot shock of 0.5 mA for 2 s through the grid floor. The rat was allowed 172 to remain in the dark compartment for 5 s and then was taken out. After 173 24 h interval, retention trial was performed and retention trial or 174 postshock latency (RTL) to step into the dark compartment was noted. 175 The cut-off time was 600 s (Ishrat et al., 2006). Short latencies indicated 176 poorer retention. 177

#### 2.5.2. Morris water maze test

The water maze used was a black circular tank (136 cm in diameter  $_{179}$  and 60 cm in height) that was filled with water (20  $\pm$  1  $^{\circ}C)$  to a depth  $_{180}$ 



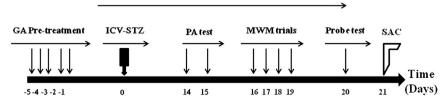


Fig. 1. The design of the treatment schedule and intervals for estimation of various parameters. GA: gallic acid; ICV-STZ: intracerebroventricular-streptozotocin; PA: passive avoidance; MWM: Morris water maze; SAC: sacrificed for biochemical parameters. Day 0 refers to the day of surgery (ICV-STZ infusion).

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