Pelargonidin Improves Passive Avoidance Task Performance in a Rat Amyloid Beta₂₅₋₃₅ Model of Alzheimer's Disease Via Estrogen Receptor Independent Pathways

Hamid Sohanaki^{1,2}, Tourandokht Baluchnejadmojarad², Farnaz Nikbakht², and Mehrdad Roghani³

¹ Department of Physiology, School of Medicine, Tehran University of Medical Sciences, Tehran, Iran

Received: 15 Oct. 2014; Accepted: 05 Feb. 2015

Abstract- Alzheimer's disease (AD) is a disorder with multiple pathophysiological causes, destructive outcomes, and no available definitive cure. Pelargonidin (Pel), an anthocyanin derivative, is an estrogen receptor agonist with little estrogen side effects. This study was designed to assess Pel memory enhancing effects on the a rat Amyloid Beta₂₅₋₃₅ (Aβ) intrahippocampal microinjections model of AD in the passive avoidance task performance paradigm and further evaluate the potential estrogen receptor role on the memory-evoking compound. Equally divided rats were assigned to 5 groups of sham, Aβ intrahippocampal microinjected, Pel pretreated (10 mg/kg; P.O), α estrogen antagonist intra-cerebrovascular (i.c.v.) microinjected, and β estrogen antagonist (i.c.v.) microinjected animals. Intrahippocampal microinjections of Aβ were adopted to provoke AD model. Passive avoidance task test was also used to assess memory performance. Pel pretreatment prior to Aβ microinjections significantly improved step-through latency (P<0.001) in passive avoidance test. In α and β estrogen, antagonists received animals, passive avoidance task performance was not statistically changed (P=0.11 & P=0.41 respectively) compared to Pel pretreated and sham animals. Our results depicted that Pel improves Aβ induced memory dysfunction in passive avoidance test performance through estrogen receptor independently related pathways.

© 2016 Tehran University of Medical Sciences. All rights reserved. *Acta Med Iran*, 2016;54(4):245-250.

Keywords: Alzheimer's disease; Hippocampus; Pelargonidin; Memory dysfunction; Passive avoidance test; Estrogen receptor

Introduction

Alzheimer's disease is a brain neurodegenerative ailment and the commonest cause of dementia. It usually affects memory performance, language, problem-solving activities and cognitive learning and disturbs normal personal life. Patients, in the end, stages of the disease would be bed-ridden and require full care services until their early death (1). More than 35 million people around the globe were affected (2). Based on informal data adapted from Iran Alzheimer's Association around 300,000 up to 450,000 people are suffering from the disease. The medial temporal lobe region, such as hippocampus is mostly undergone synaptic changes and neuronal damage during the disease course. It can lead to death within 3 to 9 years post medical diagnosis (2,3).

The disease is a leading health care and social problem with few palliative treatments and means of diagnosis but post-mortem brain biopsy (4).

Apart from deranged mechanisms such as mitochondrial dysfunction, mitotic changes, and genetic components, many other pathophysiological defects have also been identified in the course of the disease. The pathophysiology of AD is intricate and includes several neurotransmitter systems and pathophysiological processes. However 3 hallmarks are most prominent which involve β amyloid plaques, neurofibrillary tangles, and neuronal cell death. Several challenging hypotheses have been designed to explain the disease basic cause which are amyloid hypothesis, tau hypothesis, cholinergic hypothesis, oxidative stress hypothesis, glutamatergic hypothesis, cholesterol,

² Department of Physiology, School of Medicine, Iran University of Medical Sciences, Tehran, Iran ³ Neurophysiology Research Center, Shahed University, Tehran, Iran

chronic inflammation and other neurotransmitter deficiencies (5), but misfolded proteins accumulated in the aging brain is the core neuropathological hallmark which results in oxidative and inflammatory damage followed by energy failure and synaptic dysfunction (2,6). Among all molecular defects, the A β peptides have long been said to play a pivotal role in the pathogenesis and progression of the disease and "amyloid cascade hypothesis" has received most investigators' attention (7). It appears that cellular adaptive strategy to oxidative stress in response to amyloid beta production is becoming the dominant hypothesis in the literature (8).

Despite noticeable advances AD's pathophysiology and therapeutic knowledge, only four anticholinesterase drugs plus memantine have been approved by US Food and Drug Administration for symptomatic treatment due to the complicated nature of the disease (9). Accordingly, researchers have turned their focus to new types of therapeutical modalities. Among disparate options, flavonoid-based sources like anthocyanins have received particular focus because of their high oral intake in humans and multiple health promoting effects such as improving motor function, vasoprotective. antiangiogenic antiviral. hippocampal neuroplasticity, proteasome inhibition, protein misfolding and aggregation prevention (10), antiatherogenic properties (11), anti-inflammatory, antioxidant (12), anti-adhesive, estrogenic/antiestrogenic activity, angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitory properties (13), antihyperglycemic activity (14) and ocular preventive and protective effects (15).

Anthocyanins are water-soluble pigments largely found in red, purple, and blue colored plant tissues (16). Pelargonidin (Pel), an anthocyanin with abovementioned flavonoid's useful properties plus efficient absorption from the gastrointestinal tract (17), bloodbrain accessibility (18), non-genotoxicity, tremendous efficacy, reasonable price (19), neural protection (20), antihyperglycemic activity (21) and anti-thrombosis function (22) grabbed our attention to design an introductory study to investigate the possible memory enhancing role of oral Pel pretreatment in an intrahippocampal Amyloid Beta₂₅₋₃₅ rat model of AD.

Materials and Methods

Animals

Forty locally bred male Wistar rats weighing 280-320 g were identically divided into five groups and kept at the animal house with free access to standard chow

and tap water at 21 ± 2 °C, relative humidity of 45 ± 15 % and 12 hours light/dark cycle. Passive avoidance task test accomplished from 8 a.m. till 4 p.m. All procedures for care and use of animals conducted in accordance with Tehran University of Medical Sciences regulations and those specified by National Institutes of Health (NIH).

Experimental procedure

Rats were equally divided into 5 groups of sham, $A\beta_{25-35}$ intrahippocampal microinjected (A β), Pel pretreated (10 mg/kg; P.O) (A β + Pel), α estrogen antagonist intra-cerebrovascular (i.c.v) microinjected (A β + Pel + Anti E α), and β estrogen antagonist intra-cerebrovascular microinjected (A β + Pel + Anti E β) animals.

Stereotaxic surgery was done under general anesthesia upon intraperitoneal ketamine (100 mg/kg) and xylazine (5 mg/kg) mixture administration. After anesthesia induction, the animal head was symmetrically held in Stoelting stereotaxic instrument to achieve skull flat position. The scalp skin was clean shaved and scrubbed with a solution of 10% povidone-iodine. A midline incision was made. Two burr holes were symmetrically made with a micro drill over the skull at coordinates of -3.5 mm posterior to the bregma, \pm 2 mm lateral to the sagittal suture and 2.8 mm ventral to dura matter, based on the rat brain in stereotaxic coordinates (23) for bilateral amyloid beta₂₅₋₃₅ fragment, vehicle or saline microinjections. Pel (10 mg/kg, Sigma-Aldrich Chemicals, USA) in chromophore as a solvent was orally administered once a day for three days through a stainless steel ball-tipped feeding needle. The last dose was taken one hour prior to the stereotaxic procedure based on the pilot and our earlier studies (21). In AB microinjected animals, 2 μl of an A β_{25-35} (5 $\mu g/\mu l$) solution prepared in normal saline with pH = 8, preincubated at 37 °C for 72 hours, bilaterally microinjected into dorsal hippocampus. In shamoperated rats, normal saline was microinjected accordingly. 1,3-Bis(4-hydroxyphenyl)-4-methyl-5-[4-(2-piperidinylethoxy)phenol]-1H-pyrazole dihydrochloride (MPP), α estrogen receptor antagonist (Anti Ea) and 4-[2-Phenyl-5,7bis(trifluoromethyl)pyrazolo[1,5-a]pyrimidin-3yl]phenolas (PHTPP), as β estrogen receptor antagonist (Anti Eβ) were dissolved in dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) and diluted with aCSF (Merck Chemical, Germany). Prepared solutions (10 µg/rat) were i.c.v injected at a volume of 5 µl at coordinates -1 mm posterior to the bregma, 1.5 mm lateral to the midline and 4 mm ventral

to dura matter under general anesthesia 30 min post-Pel gavage. $A\beta_{25-35}$ (5 $\mu g/\mu l$) was also bilaterally microinjected into the posterior hippocampus 30 min after i.c.v microinjection of the blockers at the mentioned coordinates. Passive avoidance test was then carried out after surgical recovery by an observer blind to the experimental groups.

Passive avoidance test

Passive avoidance is a fear-motivated test to study long and short term memories in an associative manner. It needs the animal to behave opposite to its innate dark preference. The test was started on day 24 post-surgery using the shuttle-box apparatus consisting of two compartments isolated with a retractable door. One compartment lit with a bright cold house light as the safe compartment while the other made from dark opaque walls and roof as unsafe side. The floor in both compartments made of metal shocking grids except that in unsafe side the floor wired to receive an electric shock of 1mA intensity for 1-second duration.

In this test, each animal kept on the dark side at least 10 min to adapt to the darkened compartment for the first two days. On the third day, the animal again put on the safe side while the retractable door was closed. Then, the light in the safe compartment was turned on, and the retractable door was opened to measure the initial latency (IL). As soon as the animal's tail tip crossed the border line on the safe side and the unsafe side, the retractable door released and an electric shock of 1mA was applied to the animal limbs through the floor grids. After the shock delivery, the animal returned to its cage for the test session. On day 27, the testing trial was done just like the day before, except that no foot shock applied, and the step-through latency (STL) measured. In this test, a 450 seconds cut-off time was established if the animal did not cross the border.

Statistical analysis

Data analysis was performed using SPSS 20 statistical software. Data were analyzed with Kruskal-Wallis non-parametric test. In all statistical analysis, *P*<0.05 was considered significant.

Results

Data expressed in figure 1 demonstrates respective STL of passive avoidance memory in experimental groups. As noted, no statistical differences were found among IL of the experimental groups.

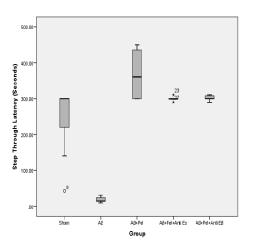


Figure 1. Passive avoidance task illustrates step through latency among the experimental animals

Bilateral CA1 microinjectios of saline 2μl (Sham), Aβ_{25.35} 5μg (Aβ), Aβ_{25.35} + Pelargonidin 10 mg/kg (Pel) orally fed for 3 consecutive pretreatment days (Aβ + Pel), Aβ 25.35 + Pel orally fed for 3 consecutive pretreatment days + unilateral intra cerebroventricular (i.c.v.) microinjection of α estrogen receptor antagonist (A β + Pel + Anti E α), A β_{25-35} + Pel orally fed for 3 consecutive pretreatment days + unilateral i.e.v, microinjection of β estrogen receptor antagonist (A β + Pel + Anti E β).

However, STL was profoundly lowered in Aβ treated rats compared with sham animals (P=0.002). Three days pretreatment with Pel (10 mg/kg) in Aβ + Pel caused a significant increase in STL (P=0.02) compared with the A β group. A β + Pel + Anti E α (P=0.003) and A β + Pel + Anti E β (P=0.003) groups followed the same track. Compared with $A\beta$ + Pel, STL has not been changed among $A\beta$ + Pel + Anti E α (P=0.11) and $A\beta$ + Pel + Anti E β (P=0.41) groups.

Discussion

In the presented study, we investigated the potential memory-enhancing and the estrogenic receptor role of oral Pel pretreatment in an $A\beta_{25-35}$ rat model of AD. Our findings show that bilateral CA1 hippocampal microinjections of Aβ₂₅₋₃₅ caused significant memory loss in passive avoidance task paradigm. This finding is in agreement with similar studies in which bilateral CA1 intrahippocampal microinjections of Aβ₂₅₋₃₅ fragment produced reactive oxygen species followed by oxidative stress insults, neuronal degeneration and cell loss of the pyramidal cells affecting memory loss in rats (3).

In passive avoidance performance, we found that bilateral CA1 hippocampal Aβ₂₅₋₃₅ microinjections before the training phase of the classical one-trial 24hour foot shock avoidance application could effectively lengthen STL compared to control animals. This suggested that the substance was negatively affected long-term memory (LTM) while keeping IL untouched in all experimental groups. Pretreatment with Pel in the $A\beta_{25-35}$ group could ameliorate defective LTM without disturbing normal ambulatory scenario even after about one month.

Estrogen and its receptor modulators have shown to have a neuroprotective role in neurodegenerative conditions such as stroke, AD, and Parkinson disease. Although the exact mechanisms of this neuroprotection have not been exactly clarified, some leading possibilities have been addressed in the literature (24).

Coadministration of α and β estrogen antagonists with Pel in the $A\beta_{25-35}$ group could not change LTM in passive avoidance task performance. This stresses on the existence of estrogen derivative neuroprotection on LTM through other available mechanisms than typical estrogen receptors (ERs). ERs are largely spread over some memory related areas of the brain like the hippocampus, frontal cortex and amygdala (25). Estrogens' neuroprotection may mediate mainly via ERdependent of genomic (nuclear) and non-genomic (extranuclear) and ER-independent pathways. In nongenomic pathway, this may be achieved via G proteincoupled receptor and tyrosine kinase receptor activations plus membrane fluidity alteration, K+ channel opening, and Ca+2 influx. The ER- independent estrogen neuroprotection is mainly attained through free radical scavenging, neuronal excitability and neurotransmission changes (26).

Flavonoids can apply their neuroprotection in neurodegenerative diseases and aging via other different ways among which neuronal anti-inflammatory is a matter of vast studies (27). Pel has shown its own antiinflammatory effects when used in pro-inflammatory conditions such as macrophage exposure lipopolysaccharide. The effect is mainly mediated by inducible nitric oxide synthase (iNOS) suppression and nuclear factor-κB (NF-κB), and signal transducer and activator of transcription 1 (STAT-1) inhibition (28-30). Although the studies showing parent anthocyanin antiinflammatory response in neuronal architecture are rather limited (31), their intestinal metabolites and bacterial bowel derivatives have shown to be effective in neuronal anti-inflammatory conditions (27).

Anthocyanins antihypertensive and endothelial related relaxatory effects have shown in animals under a high cholesterol food protocol (13). This is basically mediated through bilitranslocase, an endothelial plasma membrane flavonoid transporter with vasodilatory properties (30). Therefore, improved blood flow especially in the hippocampal region following Pel use may stimulate neurogenesis and memory function. Moreover, increased dendritic spine density and morphology repair may also improve neuronal connectivity and memory performance (32). This would also be considered as another possible explanation for memory enhancing effects of ER agonists as Pel.

Anthocyanin cellular responses can also be governed through signaling cascades such as phosphoinositide 3kinase (PI3K)/Akt, mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK), the indirect mammalian target of rapamycin (mTOR). Cell growth initiation through various regulatory pathways and pro-apoptotic molecules inactivation-like Bad to promote cell survival (18,30,33) are other presumptive ways that Pel may adopt to carry its positive memory effects.

In conclusion, in this study results from passive avoidance test paradigm showed that three days oral Pel pretreatment (10 mg/kg) could reverse Aβ₂₅₋₃₅ induced memory disturbance via ERs independent pathways. Targeting different pathological mechanisms, Pel would be one of the valuable natural substitutes for estrogen to prevent age-related cognitive changes and memory deficit states like AD. However, more studies should be done to show its exact mechanisms and other beneficial influences to reach this goal.

Acknowledgment

The authors would like to thank Mr. Mahmood Yousefifard for his technical assistance. This research has been supported by Tehran University of Medical Sciences & health Services grant.

References

- Alzheimer's A. 2015 Alzheimer's disease facts and figures. Alzheimer's & Dementia: The Journal of the Alzheimer's Association 2015;11(3):332.
- Querfurth HW, LaFerla FM. Alzheimer's Disease. New England Journal of Medicine 2010;362(4):329-44.
- Bernal-Mondragon C, Rivas-Arancibia S, Kendrick KM, et al. Estradiol prevents olfactory dysfunction induced by A-beta 25-35 injection in hippocampus. BMC Neurosci 2013;14:104.
- 4. Hardy J, Allsop D. Amyloid deposition as the central event in the aetiology of Alzheimer's disease. Trends Pharmacol Sci 1991;12(10):383-8.
- Kumar A, Singh A, Ekavali. A review on Alzheimer's disease pathophysiology and its management: an update. Pharmacol Rep 2015;67(2):195-203.
- Anand R, Gill KD, Mahdi AA. Therapeutics of Alzheimer's disease: Past, present and future. Neuropharmacology 2014;76:27-50.
- 7. Hardy JA, Higgins GA. Alzheimer's disease: the amyloid cascade hypothesis. Science 1992;256(5054):184.
- 8. Krstic D, Knuesel I. The airbag problem—a potential culprit for bench-to-bedside translational efforts: relevance for Alzheimer's disease. Acta Neuropathol Commun 2013;1:62.
- Burke A, Hall GR, Yaari R, et al. Pharmacological Treatment of Cognitive Decline in Alzheimer's Disease. Pocket Reference to Alzheimer's Disease Management: Springer; 2015. p. 35-40.
- Dreiseitel A, Schreier P, Oehme A, et al. Inhibition of proteasome activity by anthocyanins and anthocyanidins. Biochem Biophys Res Commun 2008;372(1):57-61.
- Paixão J, Dinis TC, Almeida LM. Dietary anthocyanins protect endothelial cells against peroxynitrite-induced mitochondrial apoptosis pathway and Bax nuclear translocation: an in vitro approach. Apoptosis 2011;16(10):976-89.
- 12. Bowen-Forbes CS, Zhang Y, Nair MG. Anthocyanin content, antioxidant, anti-inflammatory and anticancer properties of blackberry and raspberry fruits. Journal of Food Composition and Analysis 2010;23(6):554-60.
- Shindo M, Kasai T, Abe A, et al. Effects of dietary administration of plant-derived anthocyanin-rich colors to spontaneously hypertensive rats. Journal of nutritional science and vitaminology 2007;53(1):90-3.
- 14. Asgary S, RafieianKopaei M, Sahebkar A, et al. Anti hyperglycemic and anti hyperlipidemic effects of Vaccinium myrtillus fruit in experimentally induced diabetes (antidiabetic effect of Vaccinium myrtillus fruit). Journal of the Science of Food and Agriculture 2015.

- 15. Nabavi S, Habtemariam S, Daglia M, et al. Anthocyanins as a potential therapy for diabetic retinopathy. Curr Med Chem 2015;22(1):51-8.
- Kamiloglu S, Capanoglu E, Grootaert C, et al. Anthocyanin Absorption and Metabolism by Human Intestinal Caco-2 Cells—A Review. International journal of molecular sciences 2015;16(9):21555-74.
- 17. Carkeet C, Clevidence BA, Novotny JA. Anthocyanin excretion by humans increases linearly with increasing strawberry dose. The Journal of nutrition 2008;138(5):897-902.
- 18. Spencer JP. Food for thought: the role of dietary flavonoids in enhancing human memory, learning and neuro-cognitive performance. Proceedings of the Nutrition Society 2008;67(02):238-52.
- Abraham SK, Schupp N, Schmid U, et al. Antigenotoxic effects of the phytoestrogen pelargonidin chloride and the polyphenol chlorogenic acid. Molecular nutrition & food research 2007;51(7):880-7.
- Roghani M, Niknam A, Jalali-Nadoushan MR, et al. Oral pelargonidin exerts dose-dependent neuroprotection in 6hydroxydopamine rat model of hemi-parkinsonism. Brain research bulletin 2010;82(5):279-83.
- 21. Mirshekar M, Roghani M, Khalili M, et al. Chronic oral pelargonidin alleviates streptozotocin-induced diabetic neuropathic hyperalgesia in rat: involvement of oxidative stress. Iranian Biomedical Journal 2010;14(1-2):33.
- 22. Rechner AR, Kroner C. Anthocyanins and colonic metabolites of dietary polyphenols inhibit platelet function. Thrombosis research 2005;116(4):327-34.
- 23. Paxinos G, Watson C. The Rat Brain in Stereotaxic Coordinates: Hard Cover Edition: Elsevier Science & Technology Books; 2007.
- 24. Dhandapani KM, Brann DW. Protective effects of estrogen and selective estrogen receptor modulators in the brain. Biology of reproduction 2002;67(5):1379-85.
- Chakrabarti M, Haque A, Banik NL, et al. Estrogen receptor agonists for attenuation of neuroinflammation and neurodegeneration. Brain Res Bull 2014;109C:22-31.
- Jefremov V, Rakitin A, Mahlapuu R, et al. 17β Oestradiol Stimulation of G Proteins in Aged and Alzheimer's Human Brain: Comparison with Phytoestrogens. Journal of neuroendocrinology 2008;20(5):587-96.
- Spencer JP, Vafeiadou K, Williams RJ, et al. Neuroinflammation: modulation by flavonoids and mechanisms of action. Mol Aspects Med 2012;33(1):83-97.
- 28. Hidalgo M, Martin-Santamaria S, Recio I, et al. Potential anti-inflammatory, anti-adhesive, anti/estrogenic, and angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitory activities of

Pelargonidin improves passive avoidance task in rat Alzheimer's disease

- anthocyanins and their gut metabolites. Genes & nutrition 2012:1-12.
- 29. Hämäläinen M, Nieminen R, Vuorela P, et al. Antiinflammatory effects of flavonoids: genistein, kaempferol, quercetin, and daidzein inhibit STAT-1 and NF- κ B activations, whereas flavone, isorhamnetin, naringenin, and pelargonidin inhibit only NF-κ B activation along with their inhibitory effect on iNOS expression and NO production in activated macrophages. Mediators of inflammation 2007;2007.
- 30. Kruger MJ, Davies N, Myburgh KH, et al. Proanthocyanidins, anthocyanins and cardiovascular diseases. Food Research International 2014;59:41-52.

- 31. Spencer JP, Crozier A. Flavonoids and related compounds: Bioavailability and Function: CRC Press; 2012.
- 32. Fader AJ, Johnson PE, Dohanich GP. Estrogen improves working but not reference memory and prevents amnestic effects of scopolamine on a radial-arm maze. Pharmacology Biochemistry and Behavior 1999;62(4):711-7.
- 33. Williams RJ, Spencer JP. Flavonoids, cognition, and dementia: actions, mechanisms, and potential therapeutic utility for Alzheimer disease. Free Radical Biology and Medicine 2012;52(1):35-45.