Neuroprotective properties of the natural phenolic antioxidants curcumin and naringenin but not quercetin and fisetin in a 6-OHDA model of Parkinson's disease

VIRGINIA ZBARSKY¹, KRISHNA P. DATLA¹, SHABNAM PARKAR¹, DEEPAL K. RAI¹, OKEZIE I. ARUOMA², & DAVID T. DEXTER¹

¹Faculty of Medicine, Department of Cellular and Molecular Neuroscience, Imperial College London, Charing Cross Hospital, Fulham Palace Road, London W6 8RF, UK, and ²Faculty of Health and Social Care, London South Bank University, 103 Borough Road, London SE1 0AA, UK

Accepted by Professor B. Halliwell

(Received 15 March 2005; in revised form 27 May 2005)

Abstract

Although the cause of dopaminergic cell death in Parkinson's disease (PD) remains unknown, oxidative stress has been strongly implicated. Because of their ability to combat oxidative stress, diet derived phenolic compounds continue to be considered as potential agents for long-term use in PD. This study was aimed at investigating whether the natural phenolic compounds curcumin, naringenin, quercetin, fisetin can be neuroprotective in the 6-OHDA model of PD. Unilateral infusion of 6-OHDA into the medial forebrain bundle produced a significant loss of tyrosine hydroxylase (TH)-positive cells in the substantia nigra (SN) as well as a decreased of dopamine (DA) content in the striata in the vehicle-treated animals. Rats pretreated with curcumin or naringenin showed a clear protection of the number of TH-positive cells in the SN and DA levels in the striata. However, neither pretreatment with quercetin nor fisetin had any effects on TH-positive cells or DA levels. The ability of curcumin and naringenin to exhibit neuroprotection in the 6-OHDA model of PD may be related to their antioxidant capabilities and their capability to penetrate into the brain.

Keywords: Curcumin (Curcuma longa), naringenin, antioxidant flavonoids, 6-hydroxydopamine, neuroprotection, Parkinson's disease

Introduction

Parkinson's disease (PD) is a progressive neurodegenerative disorder characterized by a primary loss of dopaminergic neurons in the substantia nigra pars compacta (SNpc) resulting in a reduction in striatal dopamine (DA) concentrations. Although the precise mechanism of nigral cell death in PD remains unknown, oxidative stress has been strongly implicated [1,2]. Postmortem studies in humans have shown that nigral cell death in PD is associated with increased lipid peroxidation [3], decreased reduced glutathione (GSH) levels [4], enhanced superoxide activity in SN [5] and increased levels of iron in SN [6]. At present, DA replacement with levodopa or DA agonists is the most effective treatment in PD. Although such drugs are effective in the early stages of the disease, long-term therapy has been associated with serious side effects. Thus, a therapeutic approach of PD treatment could include the modulation of oxidative stress. Phenolic antioxidants including flavonoids are an extensive group of naturally occurring compounds that are widely distributed in plants as constituents of various fruits, nuts and leaves etc. [7,8]. Flavonoids are potent antioxidants and free radical scavengers, with efficacy suggested to exceed the antioxidant capacity of vitamins C and E [9–12]. Flavonoids are capable of chelating metal ions, modify the activity of cellular antioxidants



Correspondence: D.T. Dexter, Faculty of Medicine, Department of Cellular and Molecular Neuroscience, Imperial College London, Charing Cross Hospital, Fulham Palace Road, London W6 8RF, UK. Tel: 44 20 8846 7594. Fax: 44 20 8846 7025. E-mail: d.dexter@imperial.ac.uk

and antioxidant enzymes such as catalase and GSH [13], modulating NO production, tumour necrosis factor α secretion and nuclear factor kB (NF κ B) dependent gene expression *in vitro* [14], and have antiinflammatory properties, inhibiting the activities of lipoxygenase and cyclooxygenase [15]. Since they show very little toxicity even in long-term studies, they may be appropriate for long term therapies in PD to possibly slow down the rate of nigral cell loss.

Curcumin is abundant in turmeric (Curcuma longa), a food plant that has been used in India for centuries as a food preservative and medicinal agent. Naringenin, the predominant flavanone in grapefruit, protects against oxidative processes associated with chronic degenerative diseases [16]. Quercetin abundant in apple, onions, tea, berries, in medicinal botanicals including Ginkgo biloba, Sambucus Canadensis etc. has a demonstrated antioxidant [17,18] and anti-inflammatory [17-20] properties. Fisetin, a flavonol is abundant in citrus fruit and has Fe chelating properties [18,21]. In this study, we sought to determine whether the sub-chronic use of different natural phenolic compounds provides a neuroprotection in the unilateral 6-hydroxydopamine (6-OHDA) rat model of PD. The 6-OHDA induces a lesion in the nigrostriatal dopaminergic pathway that results in a progressive loss of dopaminergic neurons in the SNpc by increasing the oxidative stress. Both the integrity and functionality of the nigrostriatal pathways were assessed by quantifying the number of dopaminergic neurons in the SNpc and DA and its metabolites dihydroxyphenylacetic acid (DOPAC) and homovanilic acid (HVA) concentrations in the striata.

Materials and methods

Materials

Curcumin (98–99% of purity) was from Indo-World Trading Company (New Delhi, India), naringenin, quercetin, fisetin, 6-hydroxydopamine and all the chemicals used were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (Dorset, UK), polyclonal TH antibody was obtained from Chemicon (Harrow, UK), and the ABC immunostaining kit from Vector Laboratories (Peterborough, UK).

Animals

Adult Sprague-Dawley male rats (Harlan, UK), of initial body weight ~ 200 g were used. The animals were kept under standard laboratory conditions (temperature 21 ± 1°C; relative humidity 50 ± 10%, 12–12h light-dark cycle) and had free access to drinking water and a standard pellet diet. All scientific procedures were carried out with the approval of the Home Office, UK. Rats were handled daily and allowed one week to acclimatise after arrival before any treatment.

Experimental design

The animals were randomly allocated to 5 experimental groups of six rats each: Group 1: control group (drug vehicle, 10% Cremophor, p.o); Group 2: curcumin (50 mg/kg dissolve in 10% of Cremophor; p.o); Group 3: quercetin (20 mg/kg dissolve in 10% of Cremophor, p.o); Group 4: naringenin (50 mg/kg dissolve in 10% of Cremophor; p.o); Group 5: fisetin (20 mg/kg dissolve in 10% of Cremophor; p.o). Rats were treated with the flavonoids at the concentration as above or drug vehicle by gavage, daily for 4 days prior to lesioning. The dose of each of these compounds was based on either the study with tangeretin [22] or from the literature.

Animal treatment

On the 4th day of treatment, one hour after final dosing, rats received an unilateral infusion of 6-OHDA ($12 \mu g$ dissolved in $4 \mu l$ 0.1% ascorbic acid/saline solution) into the medial forebrain bundle (stereotactic co-ordinates: 2.2 mm anterior, 1.5 mm lateral from bregma and 7.9 mm ventral to dura with ear bars 5 mm below incisor bars [23] under isofluorane anaesthesia. One week after surgery, animals were killed by cervical dislocation, brains rapidly removed and cut at the level of the infundibular stem to separate the hindbrain block (containing the SN) and the forebrain block (containing the striata).

TH-immunohistochemistry

Tyrosine hydroxylase (TH) is the rate limiting enzyme in DA synthesis and was used as a marker for DA neurons. Hindbrain was fixed for 7 days in 4% paraformaldehyde, then cryoprotected with 30% sucrose solution. Free-floating 20 µm sections cut on a bright cryostat at -22° C were blocked in 20% normal serum in PBS and then processed for TH immunohistochemistry using a polyclonal rabbit anti-TH antibodies followed by biotinylated anti-rabbit IgG. Sections were then incubated with Vector ABC kit and finally visualized with 3-3'-diaminobenzidine and H_2O_2 . TH-positive cells were visualized under bright field illumination using a Nikon Eclipse E800 microscope and counted manually at region B (-5.1 mm with respect to Bregma) of SNpc [24]. Due to the ease of identification of the dopaminergic neurons within the SNpc, low numbers of cells involved that can be counted in their entirety without operator bias, non-stereological counting techniques were employed, as with most studies in the field.

HPLC analysis

Both striata were dissected out from the forebrain block, flash frozen and stored separately at -80° C until analysis. Striatal DA and DOPAC and HVA concentrations were quantified by HPLC-ECD, as described elsewhere [25]. Briefly, striata were individually weighed and homogenized in 0.5 ml of ice-cold buffer (50 mM trichloroacetic acid, 0.5 mM, EDTA, 0.5 pmol/µl 3,4-dihydroxybenzylamine hydrobromide as an internal standard) for 20s using ultrasonicator tissue disrupter (Soniprep, Sanyo, UK). After keeping on ice for 10 min for extraction, the samples were centrifuged (Heraeus, UK) at 1000g for 10 min, at 4°C. Supernatants were filtered (0.45µm, Whatman, UK) and loaded onto an autosampler (Gina 50, Gynkotek, UK) kept at 5°C on-line with HPLC system. The analytes were separated on a Altex 3µm ODS column (4.6 mm \times 7.5 cm, Beckman, UK) by using a mobile phase consisting of $0.1 \text{ mM KH}_2\text{PO}_4$, 0.1 mM EDTA, 1 mM octyl sodium sulfonate, 10% methanol V/V (pH 2.75 adjusted with orthophosphoric acid; flow rate 0.9 ml/min) and Coulochem-II detector with electrode one set at -0.20 V and electrode two at +0.34 V with respect to palladium reference electrode (ESA Analytical).

Statistical analysis

Percentage was calculated by comparing lesioned and non lesioned sides of the brain. The effect of the drug treatment was analyzed by comparing both the loss of TH-positive cells in the different flavonoid-treated groups vs. control group and the loss of DA concentrations and its metabolites in the striata. Data are expressed as means \pm s.e.m. Data were analyzed by student's *t*-test (two-tailed). *P* value less than 0.05 was considered as significant.

Results

TH-positive cells in the SNpc

The cytoplasm and fibers of dopaminergic neurons were specifically stained following TH-staining. Following injection of 6-OHDA into the medial forebrain bundle, \sim 50% of dopaminergic neurons were lost in the lesioned SNpc in control group when compared to the unlesioned side of the brain (Figure 1A). The loss of TH-positive cells was significantly decreased following treatment with flavonoids curcumin and naringenin, indicating a neuroprotective effect. Indeed, pretreatment with curcumin and naringenin significantly reduced the mean percentage TH-positive cell loss (expressed as the percentage of the number of TH-positive cells in the intact SNpc) when compared to control group; in the curcumin-treated group $(21 \pm 3\% \text{ vs. } 50 \pm 3\%)$ p < 0.005), in the naringenin-treated group (30 ± 3%) vs.50 \pm 3%; p < 0.02) for drug-treated vs. control



Figure 1. Pretreatment with curcumin and naringenin (50 mg/kg, 4 days, p.o.) reduces the mean percentage loss of nigral TH-positive cells and striatal DA levels after 6-OHDA injection. Histogram represents the percentage loss of TH-positive cells in the SNpc (A) and DA levels in the striata (B). The mean percentage loss of TH-positive cells and DA levels in curcumin and naringenin treated animals was compared to that of vehicle-treated group. Data shown are expressed as the mean cell loss as a percentage of cells in the lesioned SNpc compared to unlesioned side \pm s.e.m. * p < 0.02 and ** p < 0.005 vs vehicle-treated group after unpaired Student's *t*-test; n = 6 rats/group.

animals respectively (Figures 1 and 2). However, administration of quercetin or fisetin failed to prevent this loss of TH-positive cells (Table I). There was, however, a significant decrease in the number of TH-positive cells in the lesioned SNpc compared to the unlesioned side in quercetin and fisetin-treated group ($\sim 50\%$; p < 0.02) but there was no difference when compared to control group ($\sim 55\%$; unlesioned vs. lesioned side, respectively) (Table I).

Striatal concentration of DA and its metabolites DOPAC and HVA

The injection of 6-OHDA onto the medial forebrain bundle caused a marked reduction in the concentration of DA in the striatum (by $70 \pm 7\%$), (Figure 1B). This is consistent with the significant loss of TH-positive cells observed in the SNpc. Treatment with naringenin or curcumin significantly attenuated the loss of DA after 6-OHDA administration ($29 \pm 6\%$ and $29 \pm 3\%$ respectively; p < 0.05 vs. control group) (Figure 1B) whereas, after quercetin or fisetin administration there was no



Figure 2. Micrographs of rat substantia nigra pars compacta sections immunostained for tyrosine hydroxylase. A. Vehicle treatment. B. Curcumin treatment. C. Naringenin treatment.

significant difference on the concentration of DA in the striata in relation to control group (Table I). In relation to DOPAC and HVA concentration, analysis of control animals showed that administration of 6-OHDA produced a significant loss of striatal DOPAC and HVA (from 2.44 \pm 0.41 to 0.73 \pm 0.12; p < 0.02and from 0.88 ± 0.02 to 0.46 ± 0.08 , respectively; p < 0.02 vs. unlesioned side of the brain). Treatment with curcumin and naringenin attenuated this loss of DOPAC (Table II). After treatment with curcumin and naringenin there was no significant difference in the concentration of DOPAC in the unlesioned striata vs. lesioned one $(2.06 \pm 0.14 \text{ vs } 1.20 \pm 0.33 \text{ and}$ 2.64 ± 0.36 vs. 1.78 ± 0.19 , respectively) but a significant difference was observed compared to control group (p < 0.01). Curcumin slightly reduced

the loss of HVA in the striata compared to control group in a non significant way. Neither quercetin nor fisetin had any effect on the concentration of striatal DA and its metabolites. Finally, no changes were observed in the DA turnover (expressed as the concentration ratio of dopamine relative to its primary metabolites DOPAC and HVA in each sample) in the lesioned side of the brain compared to the unlesioned side neither in control groups nor in curcumin, naringenin, quercetin and fisetin-treated animals. This indicates that the restoration of DA concentrations observed was due to neuroprotective effects rather than compensatory effects by remaining THpositive cells after 6-OHDA lesioning.

Discussion

Sub-chronic administration of naringenin or curcumin significantly attenuated the loss of dopaminergic neurons in the SNpc and the decrease in striatal DA concentrations observed after the 6-OHDA lesion. However, quercetin and fisetin were unable to attenuate the loss of TH-positive cells in the SNpc or the loss of DA levels in the striatum in our *in vivo* model.

The 6-OHDA model of nigral injury has been utilized for many years as a classical experimental model of Parkinsonism [26]. The unilateral stereotaxic injection of 6-OHDA into the medial forebrain bundle of the rat leads to a progressive death of the dopaminergic nerve cells and a corresponding depletion of DA in the corpus striatum [27,25]. 6-OHDA is thought to produce toxicity through the generation of oxidative stress and the production of ROS [28,29], since 6-OHDA can auto-oxidize to semiquinone and superoxide radical (O_2^{-}) . Subsequent reactions may result in the formation of the more cytotoxic OH radicals through Fenton chemistry involving H_2O_2 . The number of nigral TH + cells in the SNpc and the striatal DA loss due to 6-OHDA injection was significantly decreased by pretreatment with naringenin or curcumin, indicating a possible scavenging of hydroxyl radicals.

Tea extracts exhibit neuroprotection against 6-OHDA-induced human neuroblastoma (NB) SH-SY5Y and pheochromocytoma (PC12) cells

Table I. Effect of quercetin and fisetin on nigral TH-positive cells and striatal DA levels after 6-OHDA lesioning.

Treatment	TH-positive cells in the SNpc		Striatal DA level (ng/mg of tissue)	
	Unlesioned SNpc	Lesioned SNpc	Unlesioned striata	Lesioned striata
Control	135 ± 6	60 ± 8 **	10.7 ± 0.49	3.9 ± 1.2 **
Quercetin	140 ± 9	72 ± 12 **	13.7 ± 0.98	4.0 ± 1.2 **
Fisetin	121 ± 7	62 ± 7 **	10.9 ± 0.49	3.8 ± 1.6 **

Data show the number of TH-positive cells in the lesioned and unlesioned SN following treatment with quercetin and fisetin (20 mg/kg, 4 days, p.o.) and control group and the levels of DA in both striata. The number of TH-positive cells in the lesioned SNpc was compared to its unlesioned side for each group of animals and to control group. ** p < 0.02 vs vehicle-treated group after unpaired Student's *t*-test. Each result represents the mean \pm s.e.m; n = 6 rats per group.

Treatment	Striatal level (ng/mg of tissue)			
	DOPAC		HVA	
	Unlesioned striata	Lesioned striata	Unlesioned striata	Lesioned striata
Control	2.44 ± 0.41	0.73 ± 0.12 **	0.88 ± 0.02	0.46 ± 0.08 **
Curcumin	2.06 ± 0.14	1.20 ± 0.33 #	0.76 ± 0.05	0.52 ± 0.12
Naringenin	2.64 ± 0.36	1.78 ± 0.19 #	0.75 ± 0.05	$0.62\pm0.04~\star$

Table II. Effect of curcumin and naringenin on striatal levels of DA, DOPAC and HVA after 6-OHDA lesioning

Data represent levels of DA and its metabolites in the both striata following treatment with curcumin and naringenin (50 mg/kg, 4 days, p.o.). * p < 0.05 and ** p < 0.02 vs. unlesioned side; # vs. vehicle-treated group after unpaired Student's *t*-test. Each result represents the mean \pm s.e.m; n = 6 rats per group.

damage culture [30,31]. Similarly, treatment of rats with tangeretin [22] or with the flavonoid rich EM-X drink [32] were protective in this model.

The mechanisms by which curcumin can exert a neuroprotective effect are not fully defined. Curcumin is both a potent antioxidant [33,34] and an effective anti-inflammatory agent [35,36]. Since PD has been linked to increased oxidative damage and antiinflammatory process, curcumin may be effectively used in the treatment of this disease. Structurally, curcumin does not have the typical ring structure of polyphenol compounds, possessing a diketone group and two phenol rings that act as electron traps to prevent H₂O₂ production and to scavenge OH· and superoxide radicals. Besides, both the hydroxyl groups and the β -diketone moiety of curcumin are involved in metal-ligand complexation [37]. Curcumin can chelate Fe²⁺ (known to be increased in PD) needed for Fenton reaction for generating OH radicals [38]. Thereby, an alternative possibility is that by chelating Fe, curcumin may inactivate any toxic effects of this metal. Curcumin is several times more potent than vitamin E as a free radical scavenger [39], protects the brain from lipid peroxidation [40], inhibits the nuclear factor kB-mediated transcription of inflammatory cytokines [41], inducible NO synthase [42] lipoxygenase and cyclooxygenase 2 [43]. Dietary supplementation of curcumin to mice enhanced the activity of glutathione peroxidase, glutathione reductase and catalase in liver and kidney [44]. A significant increase in reduced GSH levels, superoxide dismutase and catalase activities were also observed in the brain in rats simultaneously treated with curcumin and lead [45]. It has also been reported that curcumin protects PC12 and HUVEC cells from A β (1-42) insult [46], inhibits formation of β -amyloid fibrils [47] suppresses indices of inflammation and oxidative stress in the brains of APPs mice, factors implicated in Alzheimer's disease [48,49] and significantly attenuated MPTP-induced striatal DA depletion in mice [50]. Due to its anti-tumor activity, relative safety, and its long history of use, curcumin is currently being developed for clinical use as a cancer chemopreventive

agent [48]. Studies have also shown that curcumin is relatively nontoxic and has few side effects [51,52]. Toxicity studies with very high dose of curcumin (2000 mg/kg), which greatly exceeds the low dose used in this study (20 mg/kg), revealed non-toxic effects and a low ulcerogenic index [53].

Naringenin was moderately nuroprotective against 6-OHDA-induced toxicity. This protection although significant was moderate. This lower antioxidant activity could be related to its structure. The presence of the 2, 3-double bond in conjugation with a 4-oxo group in the structure naringenin has been suggested to be important for its antioxidant activity. Naringenin has neuronal protective effect against oxidative cell death induced by A β peptide in the PC12 cells [54], can partially suppress the Fenton reaction characteristic of Fe-ATP [55]. Naringenin or its glycoside naringin are reported to increase in the enzyme activities of superoxide dismutase and catalase activities and to an up-regulate the expression of the genes for superoxide dismutase, catalase and glutathione peroxidase in high cholesterol-fed rabbits and rats [56,57]. The introduction of naringenin into α tocopherol-deficient microsomes has been shown to restore the GSH-dependent protection against lipid oxidation, providing evidence that naringenin can assume the role of α -tocopherol as a chain-breaking antioxidant [58]. Besides, it has been suggested that naringin has a poor blood-brain barrier (BBB) penetration whereas, naringenin exhibited high permeability across the in vitro and in situ BBB models [59,60]. The uptake of naringenin into the cerebral cortex and the striatum [61,62] suggests that naringenin should afford neuroprotection within the CNS. The pharmacokinetics and metabolism of dietary flavonoids is widely reviewed and that of Manach and Donovan [63] is worthwhile to the reader. Quercetin and fisetin did not protect dopaminergic neurons after 6-OHDA, a result that may have been determined by variable metabolism by the intestinal flora and systemic availability and ability to cross the blood brain barrier [63]. Thus phenolic compounds such as curcumin and naringenin

conferred neuroprotection against 6-OHDA-induced toxicity *in vivo*. This indicates the possibility that dietary compounds can be potential candidate for consideration as a dietary supplement in the treatment of PD. Indeed studies indicate that there is a reduced age-adjusted prevalence of Alzheimer's disease in India [16,20], as well as a lower prevalence of PD [17,21]. Further studies need to be done in order to evaluate the molecular mechanisms of neuroprotection of these compounds.

Acknowledgements

Financial support from the UK Parkinson's Disease Society.

References

- Jenner P. Oxidative stress as a cause of Parkinson's disease. Acta Neurol Scand Suppl 1991;136:6–15.
- [2] Fahn S, Cohen G. The oxidant stress hypothesis in Parkinson's disease: Evidence supporting it. Ann Neurol 1992;32:804-812.
- [3] Dexter DT, Carter CJ, Wells FR, Javoy-Agid F, Agid Y, Lees A, Jenner P, Marsden CD. Basal lipid peroxidation in substantia nigra is increased in Parkinson's disease. J Neurochem 1989;52:381–389.
- [4] Sofic E, Lange KW, Jellinger K, Riederer P. Reduced and oxidized glutathione in the substantia nigra of patients with Parkinson's disease. Neurosci Lett 1992;142:128–130.
- [5] Saggu H, Cooksey J, Dexter DT, Wells FR, Lees A, Jenner P, Marsden CD. A selective increase in particulate superoxide dismutase activity in parkinsonian substantia nigra. J Neurochem 1989;53(1989):692–697.
- [6] Dexter DT, Wells FR, Agid F, Agid Y, Lees AJ, Jenner P, Marsden CD. Increased nigral iron content in postmortem parkinsonian brain. Lancet 1987;2:1219–1220.
- [7] Kuhnan J. The flavonoids. A class of semi-essential food components: Their role in human nutrition. World Rev Nutr Diet 1976;24:117–119.
- [8] Hertog HGL, Hollman PCH, Katan MB, Kromhout D. Intake of potentially anticarcinogenic flavonoids and their determinants in adults in Netherlands. Nutr Cancer 1993;20:21–29.
- [9] Vinson JA, Jang J, Dabbagh JA, Serry MM, Cai S. Plant flavonoids, especially tea flavonoids, are powerful antioxidants using an *in vitro* oxidation model for heart disease. J Agric Food Chem 1995;43:2800–2802.
- [10] Wiseman SA, Balentine DA, Frei B. Antioxidants in tea. Crit Rev Food Sci Nutr 1997;37:705–718.
- [11] Saija A, Scalese M, Lanza M, Marzullo D, Bonia F, Caselli F. Flavonoids as antioxidant agents: Importance of their interaction with biomembranes. Free Radic Biol Med 1995;19(1995):481–486.
- [12] Middleton E, Kandaswami C, Theoharides T. The effect of plant flavonoids on mammalian cells: Implications for inflammation, heart disease, and cancer. Pharmacol Rev 2000;52:673–751.
- [13] Sudheesh S, Sandhya C, Koshy S, Vijayalakshmi NR. Antioxidant activity of flavonoids from *Solanum melongena*. Phytother Res 1999;13:393–396.
- [14] Park YC, Rimbach G, Saliou C, Valacchi S, Parker L. Activity of monomeric, dimeric and trimeric flavonoids on NO production, TNF secretion and NF-kB dependent gene expression in RAW 264.7 macrophages. FEBS Lett 1999;465:93–97.

- [15] Hoult JR, Moroney MA, Paya M. Actions of flavonoids and coumarins on lipoxygenase and cyclooxygenase. Methods Enzymol 1994;234:443–454.
- [16] Heo HJ, Kim DO, Shin SC, Kim MJ, Kim BG, Shin DH. Effect of antioxidant flavonone, naringenin, from Citrus junos on neuroprotection. J Agric Food Chem 2004;52:1520–1525.
- [17] Ganguli M, Chandra V, Kamboh MI, Johnston JM, Dodge HH, Thelma BK, Juyal RC, Pandav R, Belle SH, De-Kosky ST. Apolipoprotein E polymorphism and Alzheimer's disease: The Indo-US cross-national Dementia study. Arch Neurol 2000;57:824–830.
- [18] Robak R, Gryglewski RJ. Flavonoids are scavengers of superoxide anions. Biochem Pharmacol 1988;37:837–841.
- [19] Muthane U, Yasha TC, Shankar SK. Low numbers and no loss of melanized nigral neurons with increasing age in normal human brains from India. Ann Neurol 1998;43:283–287.
- [20] Chang WS, Lee YJ, Lu FJ, Chiang HC. Inhibitory effects of flavonoids on xanthine oxidase. Anticancer Res 1993;13:2165-2170.
- [21] van Acker S, van den Berg D, Tromp MN, Griffioen DH, van Bennekom WP, van der Vijgh WJF, Bast A. Structural aspects of antioxidant activity of flavonoids. Free Radic Biol Med 1996;20:331–342.
- [22] Datla KP, Christidou M, Widmer WW, Rooprai HK, Dexter DT. Tissue distribution and neuroprotective effects of citrus flavonoid tangeretin in a rat model of Parkinson's disease. Neuroreport 2001;12:3871–3875.
- [23] Paxinos G, Watson C. The rat brain in sterotaxic coordinates. 2nd ed. London: Academic Press; 1986.
- [24] Carman LS, Gage FH, Shults CW. Partial lesion of the substantia nigra: Relation between extent of lesion and rotational behaviour. Brain Res 1991;553:275–283.
- [25] Datla KP, Blunt SB, Dexter DT. Chronic L-DOPA administration is not toxic to the remaining dopaminergic nigrostriatal neurons, but instead may promote their functional recovery, in rats with partial 6-OHDA or FeCl₃ nigrostriatal lesions. Mov Disord 2001;16:424-434.
- [26] Ungerstedt U. 6-hydroxydopamine induced degeneration of central monoamine neurons. Eur J Pharmacol 1968;5:107-110.
- [27] Jeon BS, Jackson-Lewis V, Burke RE. 6-OHDA lesion of the rat substantia nigra: Time course and morphology of cell death. Neurodegeneration 1995;4:131–137.
- [28] Cohen G, Heikkila RE. The generation of hydrogen peroxide, superoxide radical and hydroxyl radical by 6-hydroxydopamine, dialuric acid and related cytotoxic agents. J Biol Chem 1974;249:2447–2452.
- [29] Sachs CH, Jonsson G. Mechanism of action of 6-hydroxydopamine. Pharmacology 1975;24(1975):1-8.
- [30] Levites Y, Youdim MBH, Maor G, Mandel S. Attenuation of 6-hydroxydopamine (6-OHDA)-induced nuclear factor-kappa B (NF-kB) activation and cell death by tea extracts in neuronal cultures. Biochem Pharmacol 2002;63:21–29.
- [31] Nie G, Jin C, Cao Y, Shen S, Zhao B. Distinct effects of tea catechins on 6-hydroxydopamine-induced apoptosis in PC12 cells. Arch Biochem Biophys 2002;397:84–90.
- [32] Datla KP, Bennett RD, Zbarsky V, Ke B, Liang YF, Higa T, Bahorun T, Aruoma OI, Dexter DT. The antioxidant drink effective microorganism-X (EM-X) pre-treatment attenuates the loss of nigrostriatal dopaminergic neurons in 6-hydroxydopamine-lesion rat model of Parkinson's disease. J Pharm Pharmacol 2004;56:649–654.
- [33] Kunchandy E, Rao MNA. Oxygen radical scavenging activity of curcumin. Int J Pharm 1990;58:237–240.
- [34] Awasthi S, Srivastava SK, Piper JT, Singhal SS, Chaubey M, Awasthi YC. Curcumin protects against 4-hydroxy-2-transnonenal-induced cataract formation in rat lenses. Am J Clin Nutr 1996;64:761–766.

- [35] Srivastava R, Srima RC. Modification of certain inflammation induced biochemical changes by curcumin. Indian J Med Res 1985;81:215–223.
- [36] Chang MMY. Inhibition of tumor necrosis factor by curcumin, a phytochemical. Biochem Pharmacol 1995; 45(1995):1551-1556.
- [37] Daniel S, Limson JL, Dairam A, Watkins GM, Daya S. Through metal binding, curcumin protects against lead- and cadmium-induced lipid peroxidation in rat brain homogenates and against lead-induced tissue damage in rat brain. J Inorg Biochem 2004;98:266–275.
- [38] Reddy AC, Lokesh BR. Studies on the inhibitory effects of curcumin and eugenic on the formation of reactive oxygen species and the oxidation of ferrous iron. Mol Cell Biochem 1994;17:1–8.
- [39] Zhao BL, Li XJ, He RG, Cheng SJ, Xin WJ. Scavenging effect of extracts of green tea and natural antioxidants on active oxygen radicalism. Cell Biophys 1989;14:175–185.
- [40] Martin-Aragon S, Benedi JM, Villar AM. Modifications on antioxidant capacity and lipid peroxidation in mice under fraxetin treatment. J Pharm Pharmacol 1997;49:49–52.
- [41] Xu YX, Pindolia KR, Janakiraman N, Chapman RA, Gautam SC. Gautam, Curcumin inhibits IL-1 alpha and TNF-alpha induction of AP-1 and NK-kB DNA-binding activity in bone marrow stromal cells. Hematopathol Mol Hematol 1998;11:49–62.
- [42] Chan MM, Huang HI, Fenton MR, Fong D. In vivo inhibition of nitric oxide synthase gene expression by curcumin, a cancer preventive natural product with anti-inflammatory properties. Biochem Pharmacol 1998;55:1955–1962.
- [43] Zhang F, Altorki NK, Mestre JR, Subbaramaiah K, Dannenberg AJ. Curcumin inhibits cyclooxygenase-2 transcription in bile acid- and phorbol ester-treated human gastrointestinal epithelial cells. Carcinogenesis 1999;20:445–451.
- [44] Iqbal M, Sharma SD, Okazaki Y, Fujisawa M, Okada S. Dietary supplementation of curcumin enhances antioxidant and phase II metabolizing enzymes in ddY male mice: Possible role in protection against chemical carcinogenesis and toxicity. Pharmacol Toxicol 2003;92:33–38.
- [45] Shukla PK, Khanna VK, Khan MY, Srimal RC. Srimal, Protective effect of curcumin against lead neurotoxicity in rat. Hum Exp Toxicol 2003;22:653–658.
- [46] Kim DS, Park SY, Kim JK. Curcuminoids from Curcuma longa L. (Zingiberaceae) that protect PC12 rat pheochromocytoma and normal human umbilical vein endothelial cells from beta A (1–42) insult. Neurosci Lett 2001;303:57–61.
- [47] Ono K, Hasegawa K, Naiki H, Yamada M. Curcumin has potent anti-amyloidogenic effects for Alzheimer's betaamyloid fibrils *in vitro*. J Neurosci Res 2004;75:742–750.
- [48] Fraustchy SA, Hu W, Kim P, Miller SA, Chu T, Harris-White ME, Cole GM. Phenolic anti-inflammatory antioxidant reversal of Abeta-induced cognitive deficits and neuropathology. Neurobiol Aging 2001;22:993–1005.
- [49] Lim GP, Chu T, Yang F, Beech W, Frautschy SA, Cole GM. The curry spice curcumin reduces oxidative damage and

amyloid pathology in an Alzheimer transgenic mouse. J Neurosci 2001;21:8370-8377.

- [50] Vajragupta O, Boochoong P, Watanabe H, Tohda M, Kummasud N, Sumanont Y. Manganese complexes of curcumin and its derivatives; evaluation for the radical scavenging ability and neuroprotective activity. Free Radic Biol Med 2003;35:1632–1644.
- [51] Kelloff GJ, Crowell JA, Hawk ET. Strategy and planning for chemopreventive drug development: clinical development plans II. J Cell Biochem Suppl 1996;26:54–71.
- [52] Chainani-Wu N. Safety and anti-Inflammatory activity of curcumin: A Component of Tumeric (*Curcuma longa*). J Altern Complement Med 2003;9:161–168.
- [53] Srimal RC, Dhawan BN. Pharmacology of diferuloyl methane (curcumin), a non-steroidal anti-inflammatory agent. J Pharm Pharmacol 1973;25:447–452.
- [54] Heo HJ, Kim DO, Shin SC, Kim MJ, Kim BG, Shin DH. Effect of antioxidant flavonone, naringenin, from Citrus junos on neuroprotection. J Agric Food Chem 52(2004): 1520–1525.
- [55] Cheng F, Breen K. On the ability of four flavonoids, baicilein, luteolin, naringenin and quercetin, to suppress the Fenton reaction of the iron ATP complex. Biometals 2000;13:77–83.
- [56] Jeon SM, Bok SH, Jang MK, Lee MK, Nam KT, Park YB, Rhee SJ, Choi MS. Antioxidative activity of naringin and lovastatin in high cholesterol-fed rabbits. Life Sci 2001;69:855–866.
- [57] Lee MK, Bok SH, Jeong TS, Moon SS, Lee SE, Park YB, Choi MS. Supplementation of naringenin and its synthetic derivative alters antioxidant enzyme activities of erythrocyte and liver in high cholesterol-fed rats. Bioorg Med Chem 2002;10:2239–2244.
- [58] van Acker FA, Schouten O, Haenen GR, van der Vijgh WJF, Bast A. Flavonoids can replace α -tocopherol as an antioxidant. FEBS Lett 2000;473:145–148.
- [59] Tsai TH. Determination of naringin in rat blood, brain, liver, and bile using microdialysis and its interaction with cyclosporine A, a P-glycoprotein modulator. J Agric Food Chem 2002;50:6669-6674.
- [60] Youdim KA, Dobbie MS, Kuhnle G, Proteggente AR, Abbott NJ, Rice-Evans C. Interaction between flavonoids and the blood-brain barrier: *in vitro* studies. J Neurochem 2003;85:180–192.
- [61] Peng HW, Cheng FC, Huang YT, Chen CF, Tsai TH. Determination of naringenin and its glucuronide conjugate in rat plasma and brain tissue by high-performance liquid chromatography. Chromatogr B Biomed Sci Appl 1998;714:369-374.
- [62] Youdim KA, Qaiser MZ, Begley DJ, Rice-Evans CA, Abbott NJ. Flavonoid permeability across an in situ model of the blood-brain barrier. Free Radic Biol Med 2004;36:592–604.
- [63] Manach C, Donovan J. Pharmacokinetics and Metabolism of dietary flavonoids. Free Rad Res 2004;38:771–785.

RIGHTSLINKA)