Neuroprotective Effect of Curcumin on Kainic Acid Model of Epilepsy in Male Swiss Albino Mice

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ABSTRACT
Oxidative stress resulting from excessive free-radical release is likely implicated in the initiation and progression of epilepsy. The potential neuroprotective effect of curcumin (CUR) on KA-induced epilepsy in mice was evaluated. Twenty-four male Swiss Albino mice were divided into four groups. Group I (Control group) mice received no drugs. Group II (epilepsy-induced group): mice administered with a single dose of KA (10 mg/kg b.wt) intraperitoneally (i.p). Group III: (epilepsy + CUR protected group) mice received CUR (200 mg/kg b.wt/day/orally) for 7 days before KA administration. Group IV: (epilepsy + CUR treated group): mice first injected with KA (10 mg/kg b.wt/i.p.) then after 15 min. CUR was administered as in group III for 3 consecutive days. The obtained results showed that, KA-induced epilepsy in mice caused significant decrease in serum sialic acid (SA), and brain tissue SOD, CAT, GPx activities and GSH concentration. However, serum TNF-α, IL-1β and brain tissue nitric oxide NO, L-MDA levels, caspase-3, DNA-fragmentation, 8-hydroxy-2-deoxyguanosine 8-OHdG, activator protein-1 activator protein-1 AP-1 and Myeloperoxidase MPO were significantly increased. Administration of CUR was able to mitigate KA-induced epilepsy through rising of serum SA and brain tissue enzymatic antioxidants status and GSH and declining NO, L-MDA, caspase-3, DNA-fragmentation, 8-OHdG, AP-1 and MPO in brain tissue. The microscopical examination of brain tissues obtained from rats injected with KA showed variable pathological changes represented mainly in hemorrhage, edema, neural degeneration and encephalomalacia. Meanwhile, curcumin injection was able to reduce the severity of these alterations with variable degree especially in epilepsy+curcumin treated group. These results suggest that, CUR may be successful in the treatment of epilepsy by its radical scavenging, anti-inflammatory and antiapoptotic activities and regenerating endogenous antioxidant mechanism. Also, curcumin protects mice brain against KA induced neuronal damage, decrease the severity of epilepsy and attenuated kainite induced inflammation and apoptosis.

Keywords: Curcumin, kainic acid, epilepsy, apoptosis; antioxidant enzymes, caspase-3, histopathology.

1. INTRODUCTION
Epilepsy is a chronic condition characterized by recurrent unprovoked seizures. It affects about 3 million people in the United States and approximately 65 million people worldwide. Epilepsy affects people of all ages and both genders. Every year, nearly 150,000 new cases of epilepsy are diagnosed in the United States. A seizure is an abnormal electrical discharge in the brain that causes alteration in consciousness, sensation, and behavior. When the risk of spontaneous seizures is sufficiently high, generally after two spontaneous seizures, the patient is diagnosed with epilepsy. Epilepsy is a disorder with many possible causes. Epilepsy may develop because of an abnormality in brain wiring, an imbalance in inhibitory and excitatory neurotransmitters, or some combination of these factors. Primary epilepsy (50%) is idiopathic (unknown cause). In secondary epilepsy (50%), referred as acquired epilepsy, seizures may result from a variety of conditions including trauma, anoxia, metabolic imbalances, tumors, encephalitis, drug
withdrawal seizures, or neurotoxicity. The most common risk factors for epilepsy are cerebrovascular disease, brain tumors, alcohol, traumatic head injuries, malformations of cortical development, genetic inheritance, and infections of the central nervous system [1].

A relationship between status epilepticus (SE) and oxidative stress has recently begun to be recognized both in animal models. It has been established that blood flow, energy, and oxygen are increased during seizure and that SE induces the production of redundant reactive oxygen species (ROS). Compared with other organs, the brain uses the highest amount of oxygen and contains a high concentration of polyunsaturated fatty acids that are easily peroxidated, which makes it particularly susceptible to oxidative stress. Similarly, increased oxidative stress contributes to seizure-induced brain injury and subsequently results in epilepsy. In turn, ROS may be a contributing factor in the generation of epileptic seizures in animal models and in patients [2].

Curcumin has been reported to act as a free radical scavenger and an antioxidant, thus inhibiting lipid peroxidation and oxidative DNA damage [3]. Furthermore, both experimental and epidemiological evidence have shown beneficial influence of curcumin on seizures, oxidative stress and cognitive impairment [4]. Some studies reported that, co-administration of curcumin with antiepileptic drugs like valproic acid, phenytoin, phenobarbitone and carbamazepine in sub-therapeutic doses increased latency to seizures and reduced oxidative stress without altering their pharmacokinetics [5]. Moreover, DU et al., (2009) [6] showed that, curcumin has anticonvulsant effects against seizures induced by kainic acid (KA). Accordingly, the present study was designed to evaluate the beneficial and the potential protective effect of curcumin against kainic acid-induced epilepsy in Swiss albino mice.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1 Experimental animals:
Twenty four male Swiss albino mice of 6-8 weeks old and weighting 25-30 g were used in this study. Mice were housed in separated metal cages and kept at constant environmental and nutritional conditions throughout the period of experiment. The animals were fed on constant ration and water was supplied ad libitum. The mice were left 14 days for acclimatization before the beginning of the experiment.

Curcumin (purity ~99%) was manufactured by Fluka Co. for chemicals and purchased from El-goumhouria Co. for Trading Chemicals Medicines and Medical Appliances, Egypt.

2.2 Preparation and dosage of Curcumin:
Curcumin was freshly prepared by dissolved in 7% DMSO solution then complete to 100 ml distilled water, and was administered every day orally at a dose of (200 mg/kg b.wt) [7].

2.3 Induction of Brain epilepsy:
Epilepsy was induced in mice by a single intraperitoneal injection of kainic acid at a dose of (10 mg/kg body weight). Kainic acid has been purchased by Sigma Chemical Co. (St. Louis, Mo, USA) and purchased from Schnelldorf, Germany through the Egyptian International Center for Import Cairo, Egypt. KA was dissolved in normal saline and the PH of KA solution was adjusted to 7.2±0.1.

Following administration of KA all mice were observed for behavioral alteration (groom in, rearing, wt dog shakes, jam movement, hind limb scratching, urination, defecation, salivation, head nodding, incidence and latency of convulsions and mortality over a period of 4 hours [8].

2.4 Experimental design:
Mice were randomly divided into four main equal groups, 6 animals each, placed in individual cages and classified as follows:
Group I: Control normal group: Mice received no drugs, served as untreated control for all experimental groups.
Group II: (epilepsy-induced group): Mice administered with a single dose of KA (10 mg/kg b.wt. intraperitoneally), served as epilepsy non treated group.
Group III: (epilepsy + CUR protected group): Mice received CUR (200 mg/kg b.wt/orally) and daily for 7 successive days prior to KA injection (10 mg/kg b.wt./i.p).
Group IV: (epilepsy + CUR treated group): Mice injected with KA (10 mg/ kg b.wt./i.p) after 15 min. mice were treated with CUR (200 mg/kg b.wt/day, orally) for three days.

2.5 Sampling:
Blood samples and tissue specimens (brain tissues) were collected after 12 hours and 3 days from the onset of KA administration.

2.5.1- Blood:
Blood samples for serum separation were collected by ocular vein puncture at the end of each experimental period in dry, clean, and screw capped tubes and serum was separated by centrifugation at 2500 r.p.m for 15 minutes. The clean, clear serum was separated by automatic pipette and received in dry sterile samples tube and kept in a deep freeze at -20°C until used for subsequent biochemical analysis. All sera were analyzed for the determination of sialic acid, TNF-alpha and IL-1β.

2.5.2- Tissue samples (Brain tissue):
- For biochemical analysis:
The skull was opened carefully and the brain was quickly removed, cleaned by rinsing with ice-cold isotonic saline, cleared off blood, then blotted between
2 filter papers. The brain tissue samples were quickly frozen in a deep freeze at -20 °C for consequent biochemical analysis.

Briefly, 0.5 gm from each brain tissues were minced into small pieces, homogenized with ice cold phosphate buffer saline (PBS) (i.e., 50 mM potassium phosphate, PH 7.5, 0.1 mM EDTA) to make 10% homogenates using tissue homogenizer. The homogenates were centrifuged at 6,000 r.p.m. for 15 minute at 4°C. The resulting supernatant was directly used for determination of the following biochemical parameters: SOD, CAT, GPx, GSH, L-MDA, NO, caspase-3, DNA fragmentation, 8-hydroxy-2-deoxyguanosine (8-OHdG), activator protein-1 (AP-1) and Myeloperoxidase (MPO).

b- For histopathological examination:
Brain samples from all studied groups were fixed in 25 % neutral formalin for twenty four hours; and then washed by running water over night. The washed samples were dehydrated by using ascending grades concentrations of ethyl alcohol starting with 50% and ending with absolute alcohol. Following the clearing of dehydrated samples, the samples were placed in a crucible containing soft paraffin and kept in an oven at 56°C for 12 hours. The samples were then blocked in hard paraffin and cut into sections of about 5 microns in thickness. Sections were stained with Harris haematoxylin and eosin, for general histopathological examination following the protocol of Bancroft and Stevens, (1996) [9].

2.6 Biochemical analysis:
Serum sialic acid, TNF-α and IL-1β were determined using human sialic acid ELISA kit (Cat.No.CSB-E09605h), Beyaert and Fiers, (1998) [10], and Rat IL-1 beta ELISA (RayBiotech, Inc Company, Cat #: ELR-IL1b), respectively. Moreover, brain tissues SOD, CAT, GPx, GSH, L-MDA, NO, caspase-3, DNA-fragmentation, 8-OHdG, activator protein-1 (AP-1) and MPO were determined according to the methods described by Kakkar et al., (1984) [11]; Luck, (1974) [12]; Gross et al., (1967) [13]; Moron et al., (1979) [14]; Mesbah et al., (2004) [15]; Vodovozt, (1996) [16]; Rat Caspase 3 (Casp-3) ELISA Kit (CUSABIO BIOTECH CO., LTD) Cat.No.CSB-E08857r; Shi et al., (1996) [17]; StressMarq Biosciences Inc’s StressXpress® EIA Kits (Cat# SKT-120-96 (96 well kit)); mice activator protein-1 ELISA kit (MBS Company, Cat. No. KT-702740) and Rats Myeloperoxidase ELISA kit (Kamiya Biomedical Company, Cat. No.KT-60345) according to the manufacturer’s instruction, respectively.

Table 1: Protective and treatment effect of curcumin on serum sialic acid and TNF-α concentrations and brain tissue SOD, CAT and GPx activities of kainic acid-induced epilepsy in mice.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Serum sialic acid(mg/ml)</th>
<th>Serum TNF-α (pg/ml)</th>
<th>Brain SOD(U/g.tissue)</th>
<th>Brain CAT(mmol/g.tissue)</th>
<th>Brain GPx(ng/g.tissue)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>12 hours</td>
<td>3 days</td>
<td>12 hours</td>
<td>3 days</td>
<td>12 hours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>41.23</td>
<td>48.36</td>
<td>33.59</td>
<td>33.34</td>
<td>38.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KA (epilepsy)</td>
<td>±4.19a</td>
<td>±4.01a</td>
<td>±3.79a</td>
<td>±2.99b</td>
<td>±5.06a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>19.31</td>
<td>17.75</td>
<td>57.64</td>
<td>81.74</td>
<td>68.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KA (epilepsy)</td>
<td>±3.27b</td>
<td>±2.14d</td>
<td>±2.85b</td>
<td>±1.90e</td>
<td>±1.96b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curcumin</td>
<td>36.58</td>
<td>26.19</td>
<td>45.39</td>
<td>47.12</td>
<td>14.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>protected</td>
<td>±1.75c</td>
<td>±1.39e</td>
<td>±2.25c</td>
<td>±2.27b</td>
<td>±1.00c</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>untreated</td>
<td>42.54</td>
<td>35.65</td>
<td>45.64</td>
<td>41.74</td>
<td>33.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curcumin</td>
<td>±3.4a</td>
<td>±2.34d</td>
<td>±0.49a</td>
<td>±2.89b</td>
<td>±3.31a</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data are presented as (Mean±S.E) S.E = Standard error.
Mean values with different superscript letters in the same column are significantly different at (P<0.05).

http://ijcns.aiseonpublishers.net/content/2016/4/ijcns447-460.pdf
Table 2: Protective and treatment effect of curcumin on brain tissue L-MDA, GSH and NO concentrations, caspase-3 activity and DNA fragmentation percent of kainic acid-induced epilepsy in mice.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Brain L-MDA (mmol/g.tissue)</th>
<th>Brain GSH (ng/g.tissue)</th>
<th>Brain Nitric Oxide (mmol/g.tissue)</th>
<th>Brain Caspase-3 (ng/g.tissue)</th>
<th>Brain DNA fragmentation %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>12 hours</td>
<td>3 days</td>
<td>12 hours</td>
<td>3 days</td>
<td>12 hours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>49.21±12.34d</td>
<td>52.14±15.59c</td>
<td>4.57±0.57a</td>
<td>4.79±0.22b</td>
<td>29.63±4.35c</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KA (epilepsy)</td>
<td>115.91±10.02a</td>
<td>139.39±0.64a</td>
<td>1.78±0.34c</td>
<td>2.27±0.19a</td>
<td>86.03±5.59a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curcumin</td>
<td>87.30±8.05b</td>
<td>82.41±9.37bc</td>
<td>2.35±0.26ab</td>
<td>3.31±0.50bc</td>
<td>49.41±6.00b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curcumin treated</td>
<td>58.40±9.84cd</td>
<td>52.08±6.39c</td>
<td>3.11±1.18ab</td>
<td>2.56±0.55c</td>
<td>81.46±4.43a</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data are presented as (Mean±S.E). S.E = Standard error. Mean values with different superscript letters in the same column are significantly different at (P≤0.05).

3.2 Protective and treatment effect of curcumin on brain tissue L-MDA, GSH and NO concentrations, caspase-3 activity and DNA fragmentation percent of kainic acid-induced epilepsy in mice:

The obtained results demonstrated in table (2) revealed that, administration of KA induced epilepsy in mice caused significant decrease in brain tissue GSH concentration and significantly increased L-MDA, NO, Caspase 3, and DNA fragmentation when compared with normal control group. Meanwhile, protection and treatment with curcumin administration in epilepsy-induced mice significantly increased GSH level and markedly decreased and attenuate the increase of NO and L-MDA concentrations, Caspase 3 activity and DNA fragmentation in brain tissues when compared with KA non-treated group.

![A](image1.png)  
**A**  
Brain of mice (induction of epilepsy by KA) showing severe congestion of meningeal blood vessels with degenerative changes of blood vessels wall. Notice also, perivascular hemorrhage (arrow). H & E, x 400

![B](image2.png)  
**B**  
Brain of mice (induction of epilepsy by KA) showing severe edema in the brain substances (arrow). H & E, x 200

![C](image3.png)  
**C**  
Brain of mice (induction of epilepsy by KA) showing focal mononuclear infiltration in the brain substance (arrow). Notice also, vacuolization of the brain substances with glial cell degeneration. H & E, x 200

![D](image4.png)  
**D**  
Brain of mice (induction of epilepsy by KA) showing diffuse malacia in the brain substances. H & E, x 200
Brain of curcumin protected (curcumin+KA) rats showing mild degenerative changes of neurons of cerebellum. H & E, x 200

Brain of curcumin protected (curcumin+KA) rats showing nearly normal appearance of glial cells. H & E, x 200

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>12 hours</th>
<th>3 days</th>
<th>12 hours</th>
<th>3 days</th>
<th>12 hours</th>
<th>3 days</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>32.68±5.36</td>
<td>28.4±5.07</td>
<td>3.40±0.36</td>
<td>3.83±0.56</td>
<td>56.42±2.00</td>
<td>142.19±8.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KA (epilepsy)</td>
<td>307.6±36.71</td>
<td>310.8±46.89</td>
<td>6.99±0.95</td>
<td>7.24±0.74</td>
<td>6.81±1.99</td>
<td>9.36±0.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curcumin protected</td>
<td>209.8±27.48</td>
<td>160.5±42.21</td>
<td>4.05±0.16</td>
<td>3.67±0.37</td>
<td>157.88±4.85</td>
<td>166.96±20.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curcumin treated</td>
<td>984.6±35.50</td>
<td>132.82±22.91</td>
<td>6.11±0.94</td>
<td>6.83±0.19</td>
<td>183.11±14.54</td>
<td>222.5±11.26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data are presented as (Mean±S.E) S.E = Standard error.
Mean values with different superscript letters in the same column are significantly different at (p≤0.05).

3.3 Protective and treatment effect of curcumin on serum IL-1β concentration and brain tissue 8-OHdG, AP-1 and MPO of kainic acid-induced epilepsy in mice:
The obtained data demonstrated in table (3) revealed that, a significant increase in serum IL-1β level and brain tissue 8-OHdG, AP-1 and MPO were observed in KA-induced epilepsy in male mice group. On the other hand, protection and treatment with curcumin administration in KA induced epilepsy in mice resulted in a significant decrease in serum IL-1β level and brain tissue 8-OHdG, AP-1 and MPO when compared with epilepsy-induced non treated group.

3.4 Histopathological examination:
The microscopical examination of the brain of mice of control untreated group showing normal histopathological structure. The brain of mice received Kainic acid-induced epilepsy show marked congestion of the meningeal blood vessels with degeneration of the endothelial cells lining of these blood vessels with perivascular hemorrhage (fig. 1A). Additionally, congestion of cerebral and cerebellar blood vessels with perivascular hemorrhage was seen. Multifocal hemorrhages were also noticed in different sites particularly brain stem. Proliferation of ependymal cells with degenerative changes of some of these cells was the most common findings in this group. Moreover, extensive edema in the brain substances was observed (fig. 1B). Focal mononuclear infiltration in the brain substance mainly lymphocytes with glial cell degeneration was also detected (fig. 1C). Furthermore, diffuse vacuolation with the presence of multiple areas of malacia with neural degeneration (fig. 1D) was also observed. Moreover, the neuron in the brain of these mice showing different degenerative changes mainly tyrolysis as most of neurons became rounded, swollen and more eosinophilic. Neurophagia was characterized by engulfing of microglia cells to the necrotic neurons. Furthermore, the brain showed numerous microglia cells around the degenerated neurons manifested by microgliosis. Perineuronal edema and vaculations were also noticed around the degenerated neurons.

Meanwhile, the microscopical examination of the brain of mice injected with Kainic acid +CUR protected group revealed congestion of the meningeal and brain blood vessels with perivascular hemorrhage with variable degree of neural degeneration (fig. 1E). Moreover, the neurons of the purkinje cell layer of the cerebellum showing different degree of lysis and apoptosis.

Interestingly, the histopathological examination of the brain tissues obtained from mice administered Kainic acid + CUR treated group revealed congestion of blood vessels with perivascular edema. Moreover, mild degenerative changes of neuron in the cerebellum were also demonstrated (fig. 1F). However, apoptotic changes in the purkinje cell layer was demonstrated only in one treated mice.

Epilepsy is one of the leading neurological disorders affecting 50 million of worlds total population, requiring long term antiepileptic drug (AED) therapy.
[18]. Despite treatment with AED, epilepsy remains refractory in one third of patient. Generation of ROS in brain is considered as one of the leading causes of generalized epilepsy associated with recurrent seizures. Some studies have demonstrated neuroprotective effect of curcumin against cerebral ischemic injury or traumatic brain injury [19]. Sng et al., (2006) [20] reported that, pretreatment with curcumin attenuates histone modifications in kainate-induced status epilepticus. The obtained results revealed that, a significant decrease in serum KA concentration was observed after 12 hours and 3 days in KA-induced epilepsy group. Bonfanti, (2006) [21]mentioned that, sialic acids play an important role in many neuronal processes including axonal growth plasticity. Moreover, Johnson et al. (2004) [22] indicated that the glycosidic linkage of sialic acid is a potential target for superoxide and other related ROS. Charged sialic acid residues have also been proposed to be the moieties responsible for the effects of divalent ions on channel gating behavior. The extracellular membrane surface contains a substantial amount of negatively charged sialic acid residues. Some of the sialic acids are located close to the pore of voltage-gated channel, substantially influencing their gating properties. However, the role of sialylation of the extracellular membrane in modulation of neuronal and network activity remains primarily unknown. The level of sialylation is controlled by neuraminidase (NEU), the key enzyme that cleaves sialic acids. Who showed that, NEU treatment causes a large depolarizing shift of voltage-gated sodium channel activation/inactivation and action potential (AP) threshold without any change in the resting membrane potential of hippocampal CA3 pyramidal neurons. Cleavage of sialic acids by NEU also reduced sensitivity of sodium channel gating and AP threshold to extracellular calcium. At the network level, exogenous NEU exerted powerful anticonvulsive action both in vitro and in acute and chronic in vivo models of epilepsy. In contrast, a NEU blocker (N-acetyl-2,3-dehydro-2-deoxyneuraminicacid) dramatically reduced seizure threshold and aggravated hippocampal seizures. Thus, sialylation appears to be a powerful mechanism to control neuronal and network excitability. Who propose that, decreasing the amount of extracellular sialic acid residues can be a useful approach to reduce neuronal excitability and serve as a novel therapeutic approach in the treatment of seizures[23]. Curcumin administration in KA induced epilepsy in mice resulted in significant increase in serum SA level when compared with epilepsy-induced non treated group. Sialic acid (SA) is the generic term given to a family of acetylated derivatives of neuraminic acid which occur mainly at terminal positions of glycoprotein and glycolipids oligosaccharide side-chains. Several biological functions have been suggested for SA, such as stabilizing the conformation of glycoproteins and cellular membranes, assisting in cell-cell recognition and interaction, contributing to membrane transport, providing binding sites for ligands for the membrane receptor functions, and affecting the function, stability and survival of glycoproteins in blood circulation [24]. In the present study CUR may help in protection of brain tissue from KA-induced epilepsy due to its constructive effect on rising serum sialic acid level in both protecting and treatment periods. A significant increase in serum TNF-α concentration was observed in KA-induced epilepsy in mice. These results are nearly similar to those reported by Mahaveer et al., (2011) [25] who recorded that, the brain level of TNF-alpha was significantly raised after KA-administration in rats. Also, Kerschensteiner et al., (2009) [26]showed that, activated microglia and astrocytes after KA treatment release a large amount of inflammatory mediators such as NO, TNF-alpha, and IL-1β. Seizures and status epilepticus induced by chemical or electrical means stimulates a massive inflammatory response in the brain that consists of increased levels of cytokines, including IL-1β. In addition, IL-1β inhibits glutamate reuptake by astrocytes and enhances its astrocytic release via tumor necrosis factor-alpha (TNF-α) induction [27]. TNF-alpha is mainly produced by microglia and astrocytes in the CNS. KA-activated microglia expressed high levels of TNF-α mRNA and protein. As with many other cytokines, TNF-α bears neuroprotective properties in contrast to its well-known deleterious role as a pro-inflammatory cytokine, which implies an intricate biological balance in immune and inflammatory responses mediate by TNF-α [28]. However, Zhu et al., (2010) [29] suggested that, TNF-alpha derived from KA-activated microglia can increase the excitotoxicity of hippocampal neurons and can induce neuronal apoptosis in vitro and in vivo. Pro-inflammatory cytokine TNF-α has been implicated in playing an important role in the neuronal apoptosis caused by a variety of brain insults as well as the neurodegenerative disorders [30]. These biochemical results could clarify the pathological alterations detected in the brain tissues of KA-treated group. Protection and treatment with curcumin administration in KA induced epilepsy in mice resulted in significant decrease in serum TNF-alpha level when compared with KA- non treated group. Similarly, Wang et al., (2010) [31] revealed that, curcumin reduces the amyloid-β-stimulated inflammatory responses in primary astrocytes. Also, Lim et al., (2001) [32] reported that, low and high doses of curcumin significantly lowered oxidized proteins and interleukin-1 beta (IL-1β), a pro-inflammatory cytokine elevated in the brains of these mice. Who demonstrated the beneficial effects of curcumin on oxidative damage and amyloid β pathology in a transgenic mouse model of Alzheimer disease (AD). Moreover, curcumin administration has been reported to attenuate cognitive deficits, neuroinflammation, and plaque pathology in AD models [33]. In the present study CUR may be help in protection of brain tissue from KA-induced epilepsy due to its positive effect on decreasing serum TNF-alpa concentrations in both protective and treatment periods.
The obtained data revealed that, a significant decrease in brain tissue enzymatic antioxidants (SOD, CAT and GPx) activities were observed in KA-induced epilepsy in male mice. Similarly, Bechman et al., (2002)[34] demonstrated that, KA-induced increased seizure susceptibility is associated with mitochondrial oxidative stress in the hippocampus (increased mitochondrial lipid peroxidation and protein oxidation and mitochondrial loss of glutathione homeostasis), that KA-induced mitochondrial dysfunction is attributable to decreased Mn-SOD protein expression, mitochondrial membrane potential, and uncoupling protein (UCP)-2 mRNA expression, and that KA-induced activation of caspase-3 triggered by cytochrome c release potentiates neuronal degeneration. These findings may indicate that, endogenous mitochondrial antioxidant systems do not respond rapidly enough to oxidative stress. Moreover, Erakovic et al., (1997)[35] reported that, an acute decrease in regional brain antioxidant levels was observed following electroconvulsive shock in rats. Who showed reduced SOD and glutathione peroxidase (GPx) activities in the hippocampus and the frontal cortex two hours after a single electroconvulsive shock. In patients with progressive myoclonic epilepsy, the activity of the cytosolic superoxide dismutase (SOD1) was reported to be low[36]. Mitochondrial manganese superoxide dismutase(SOD2) was found to be down-regulated in the cerebral cortex of patients with epilepsy in contrast to non epileptic subjects [37]. GPx and CAT levels in neuronal tissue appear too low for the prevention of peroxide-induced lesions. Furthermore, neuronal cell membranes contain high levels of polyunsaturated fatty acids. Studies conducted by modulating the level of SOD in a mouse model of epilepsy have given us insights into the role antioxidant system in the prevention of oxidative stress and a see mingly causal role of oxidative damage in seizure. It has been shown that over expression of Mn SOD, 0.5- 2 fold, can attenuate kainite induced seizures, however animals with diminished Mn SOD levels showed an exacerbation of Kainate induced seizure and hippocampal damage, which was attenuated with antioxidant treatment [38]. Curcumin administration in KA induced epilepsy in mice resulted in a significant increase in brain tissue SOD, CAT and GPx activities when compared with epilepsy non treated group. Similarly, Wang et al., (2012) [39] demonstrated that, pretreatment with curcumin at doses of 100 and 300 mg/kg significantly delayed the onset of pilocarpine-induced limbic seizures and status epilepticus. These doses of curcumin also counteracted pilocarpine-induced changes in hippocampal NOS, SOD, and LDH activities and GSH content. Taken together, these results indicate that the anticonvulsant properties of curcumin may at least in part be mediated by the central nitric oxide system and free radical production. In present study CUR may be help in protection of brain tissue from KA-induced epilepsy due to its positive effect on increasing enzymatic antioxidants in both protective and treatment periods. Administration of KA induced epilepsy in mice significantly increased L-MDA concentration when compared with normal control group. KA exposure can significantly increase the production of malondialdehyde (MDA) and 4-hydroxy-alkenals, suggesting an increase in lipid peroxidation [40]. Although lipid peroxidation level increases in brain during epileptic seizures [41]. The increase in superoxide production and oxidative DNA damage following KA administration are indications of KA-induced mitochondrial and oxidative damage [42]. Similarly, Parihar and Hemnani (2003) [43] demonstrated that, hippocampal neurons are susceptible to oxidative attack by free radicals. A 3-fold increase in lipid peroxidation were observed after administration of KA. Also, Huang et al., (2004) [44] reported that, elevation of protein oxidation and lipid peroxidation were observed in the hippocampus at early time points (i.e. 4 and 24 h) post-KA administration. The nervous system is more susceptible to the damaging effect of oxidative stress, due to the high content of polyunsaturated fatty acids that are susceptible to lipid peroxidation. Lipid peroxidation, mediated by ROS, is believed to be an important cause of destruction and damage to cell membranes in accordance with the increases in ROS, the MDA level was also significantly increased, indicating the presence of enhanced lipid peroxidation [45]. Furthermore, MDA was increase 2 h post-pilocarpine-induced status epilepsy(SE) in the cortex [46]. Additionally, lipid radicals have been detected in the extracellular space during KA-induced seizure activity using in vivo electron spin resonance microdialysis in freely moving rats, suggesting a progression of lipid peroxidation during seizure activity which may lead to neuronal damage in the hippocampus following acute seizure activity [47]. Curcumin administration in epilepsy-induced in mice markedly decreased and attenuated the increased of L-MDA concentrations in brain tissues when compared with KA group. These results are nearly similar to those reported by Agarwal et al., (2011) [48] who recorded that, different doses of curcumin (50, 100 and 200 mg/kg, p.o.) administration in pentylene tetrazole (PTZ)-treated rats significantly decreases MDA and increase glutathione levels. Moreover, repeated PTZ administration has significantly increased the free radical generation as indicated by increased MDA and decreased the GSH level in the rat brain. Curcumin administration with dose dependent manner, significantly decreases MDA and increases GSH levels (two oxidative stress markers) in the brain – tissue of PTZ-kindled mice [49]. Curcumin has been reported to act as a free radical scavenger and an antioxidant, thus inhibiting lipid peroxidation and oxidative DNA damage [3]. The decrease in MDA level in the groups treated with curcumin as compared to the vehicle treated KA group indicates attenuation of lipid peroxidation.

Kainic acid- induced epilepsy in mice exhibited a significant decrease in brain tissue GSH level when
compared with normal control group. Similarly, Shin et al. (2009) [50] demonstrated that, administration of KA caused a decrease in reduced form of glutathione (GSH) levels in the hippocampus. So that intravenous GSH administration protected against KA-induced neuronal loss in the hippocampus and subsequent development of edema. Therefore, GSH may protect neuronal cells against KA neurotoxicity through a mechanism associated with ROS scavenging [42]. Moreover, Ong et al., (2006) [51] demonstrated that, even though GSH decreases in neurons after KA injection, there is an up-regulation of GSH synthesis in reactive astrocytes 3 days to 6 weeks after kainate injection. It has been reported that, KA-induced seizure activity impairs glutathione homeostasis and negatively correlates with the GSH/ GSSG ratio or GPx activity. The decrease in GSH is associated with increased levels of GSSG and therefore, a lower ratio of GSH/ GSSG usually evident after KA[50]. Kainic acid -induced neurotoxicity involves the peroxidation of lipids, a decrease in glutathione content and an accumulation of 4-hydroxynonenal an especially neurotoxic end product of lipid peroxide decomposition and direct treatment with GSH have been shown to protect against KA -induced neurotoxicity [52]. Curcumin treatment in epilepsy-induced in mice significantly increased GSH levels in brain tissues when compared with KA non-treated group. Similarly, Piper et al., (1998) [53] reported that, increase in the levels of glutathione by curcumin indicates its antioxidant property possibly by increasing the endogenous defense of the brain to combat oxidative stress induced by KA. Also, there was a simultaneous significant increase in the glutathione levels in the curcumin (100 and 200 mg/ kg, i.p) of PTZ treated mice as compared to control group. Glutathione is the most abundant intracellular thiol and low molecular weight tripeptide found in living cells. It reacts with the free radicals and can protect cells from singlet oxygen, hydroxyl radical and superoxide radical damage. The increase in levels of glutathione by curcumin indicates its antioxidant property possibly by increasing the endogenous defense of the brain to combat oxidative stress induced by KA [54].

Administration of KA in mice exhibited a significant increase in brain tissue NO level. The increase concentrations of NO and decreased levels of GSH support the role of oxidative stress in KA mediated epilepsy [55]. Systemic or intracerebral KA injections may result in consistent epileptic activity. During an experiment in which KA was injected directly into the CA3 area of the hippocampus, an increase in NO synthesis was demonstrated, contributing to cell death by apoptosis in the CA3 area of the hippocampus after the induction of an status epilepsy (SE) in the experimental temporal lobe [56]. Also, KA administration increases the generation of ROS and RNS by neuroglia, Microglia can produce large a mounts of soluble factors like NO [57]. Elevated production of NO by increased activity of iNOS is thought to contribute to KA-induced neuronal damage [58]. Moreover, Yoshida et al., (2002) [59] demonstrate that, injection of kainate into the hippocampus induces seizure activity and NO synthesis in the contra lateral hippocampus and that both responses are attenuated by the specific neuronal NOS inhibitor. Curcumin administration in epilepsy-induced mice markedly decrease and attenuate the increased of NO concentration in brain tissues when compared with KA group. Flavonoids exerted NO production inhibitory activity in several cell lines and cultures (mouse peritoneal macrophages). This effect was probably caused by flavonoid inhibitory effect on expression of inducible NOS but not by the inhibition of its activity. Flavonoids also possess the ability to directly scavenge molecules of NO [60]. Similarly, He et al., (2010) [61] reported that, curcumin significantly inhibits the apoptosis of pre-oligodendrocytes and expression of either iNOS or NOX in the LPS-activated microglia. In in vivo studies, curcumin decreases activated microglia and inhibits microglial expression of iNOS and translocation of p67-phox and gp91-phox to microglial cell membranes in neonatal rat brains following LPS injection. Moreover, Hana et al., (2006) [62] showed that, treatment of diabetic rats with curcumin reduced eNOS and iNOS levels in association with reduced oxidative DNA and protein damage. Curcumin has the ability to inhibit iNOS induction by LPS in the mammary glands and to scavenge NO radicals and reduce TNF-α, which might explain, at least partly, its therapeutic properties in inflammation, which curcumin has shown potential antioxidant, anti-inflammatory and cytokine-inhibitory effects [63].

A significant increase in brain tissue Caspase 3 activity, DNA fragmentation and 8-OHdG were observed in KA-induced epilepsy in mice. Caspases are a family of aspartate-specific cysteine proteases. Caspase-3 is among the most studied regulators of apoptosis in the setting of seizure-induced neuronal death. Induction of caspase-3 mRNA and protein occurs within the hippocampus and extrahippocampal regions after seizures [64]. These results are nearly similar to those reported by Henshall et al., (2001) [65] who reported that, caspase-3 like protease activity was increased within the ipsilateral hippocampus following seizures. A putatively selective caspase-3 inhibitor significantly improved neuronal survival bilaterally within the hippocampal CA3/CA4 subfields following seizures. Also, Henshall et al., (2000) [66] establish that, caspase-activated DNase, which is activated by caspase-3, is involved in DNA fragmentation and apoptotic neuronal cell death in rhinal cortex and hippocampus following SE. Moreover, Mouser et al., (2006) [67] suggests that, caspase 3 activity is crucial for cellular alterations during epileptogenesis. KA induces different neurodegeneration among CA1, CA3 and the dentate gyrus (DG-hilus) regions which may be due to that the stratum lucidum region of CA3 is highly enriched with high-affinity KA binding sites [36]. Narkilahiti et al., (2003) [68] suggested that, SE-mediated nuclear caspase 3 activation may activate caspase-activated DNase (CAD) results in DNA fragmentation and apoptosis. The express of active caspase 3 in the glial
fibrillary acidic protein (GFAP)-positive radial glial cells was increased after KA-injection, suggests that caspase 3 functions as a regulatory molecule in neurogenesis [69]. The co-injection of caspase 3 inhibitor prevent KA-mediated increase of radial glial cells, newly born neurons, and activated microglia, but not the astrogliosis, suggesting that astroglial caspase 3 was activated after gross astrogliosis, which then regulate microglial activation and neurogenesis. Microglia has been described to be a mediator of neurogenesis [70]. Henshall et al., (2000) [66] showed that, caspase-3 is cleaved and becomes active within brain regions exhibiting cell death following seizures induced by intra amygdaloid KA. These events occurred in a sequential manner over a time course compatible with downstream consequences of caspase-3 activation, such as DNA fragmentation. Further, caspase-3 protein likely translocates to the nucleus where it is localized with fragmented DNA. Additionally, Caspase-3 has a central role in this cascade, and is known to activate cytoplasmic DNase, which subsequently migrates to the nucleus and fragments the DNA. Because caspases are differentially activated during epileptogenesis as demonstrated by (Gorter et al., 2007) [71]. Selective inhibition of caspase-3 in vivo may confer significant protection against seizure-induced brain injury, and inhibition of caspase-3 may therefore provide a novel neuroprotective approach as an adjunct to anticonvulsant therapy. Furthermore, systemic administration of kainate results in apparent DNA fragmentation in a precise and predictable anatomical distribution that is correlated with seizure severity. DNA fragmentation is a delayed effect of kainate [72]. Additionally, DNA fragmentation occurs within 24 h of KA administration and is maximal by 72 h. In general DNA fragmentation in mice is transitory, disappearing by 1 week after treatment [73]. Also, in rat experimental models, systemic kainic acid, which induces seizures, increased cerebral 8-OHdG levels, up to seven-fold within 72 h. This was compatible with the patient [74]. Oxidative DNA damage could be evoked within a few days after epilepticus status begins, and neuroimaging changes may continue for some time beyond this. The researchers speculate that augmented oxidative stress was associated with refractory epilepticus status in the patient, because 8-OHdG is increased in the brain, including the amygdale and hippocampus, in the seizure-induced rat, and is associated with increased DNA fragmentation that results in neuronal cell death. Hence, serial measurements of oxidative stress markers in acute encephalitis, encephalopathy or status epilepticus could clarify the relationships between acute brain damage and FR [57]. Kainate administration to adult rats produced high levels of 8-OHdG, a marker of oxidative DNA damage. mtDNA was reported to be the major source for 8-OHdG in these experiments. the documented increase of 8-OHdG preceded overt cell death [75].

Curcumin administration in epilepsy-induced mice markedly decrease and attenuate the increased of caspase-3 activity and DNA fragmentation in brain tissues when compared with KA non-treated group. It should be taken into account that the effect of antioxidants on recovery from oxidative DNA damage may be justified by at least two different explanations: 1) by stimulating the activity of repair enzymes or 2) through a direct protection against oxidation [76]. In addition, Ibrahim et al., (2007) [77] proved that, treatment of rats with either curcumin or chlorophyllin revealed lower DNA fragmentation percentages. These results coincide with that of Siddique et al., (2010) [78] who stated that, curcumin inhibits the generation of ROS that are responsible for the DNA damage. Also, this action of curcumin was explained by Piwocka et al., (2001) [79] who stated that curcumin leads to attenuated DNA fragmentation due to the elevation of GSH. Furthermore, Madkour, (2012) [80] showed that, oral intake of curcumin to lambda cyhalothrin (LCT)-intoxicated rats exhibited significant decrease in liver enzymes activities and lipid peroxidation, significant increase in antioxidant enzymes activities and partial inhibition in DNA fragmentation. Caspase-3 is a key executioner of apoptosis, which is activated by an initiator caspase such as caspase-9. These activated caspases cleave many cellular substrates, ultimately leading to cell death. In addition, Song et al., (2005) [81] found that, curcumin could down-regulate pro-caspase-9 and pro-caspase-3 expression in a time-dependent manner on the HT-29 cells. Furthermore, curcumin was shown to activate caspases 9, 3, and 8 in the colon cancer cell lines SW480 and SW620 [82]. Additionally, Henshall et al., (2000) [66] revealed that, caspase-3 is cleaved and becomes active within brain regions exhibiting cell death following seizures induced by intra amygdaloid KA. These events occurred in a sequential manner over a time course compatible with downstream consequences of caspase-3 activation, such as DNA fragmentation. Furthermore, caspase-3 protein likely translocates to the nucleus where it is localized with fragmented DNA. Selective inhibition of caspase-3 in vivo may confer significant protection against seizure-induced brain injury, and inhibition of caspase-3 may therefore provide a novel neuroprotective approach as an adjunct to anticonvulsant therapy. In the present study CUR, may be help in protection of brain tissue from KA-induced epilepsy due to its helpful effect on decrease caspase-3 activity, DNA fragmentation and 8-OHdG in both protective and treatment periods.

A significant increase in brain tissue activator protein-1 were observed in KA-induced epilepsy in mice. These results are nearly similar to those reported by Feng et al. (1997) [83] who shown that, kainate caused increases in AP-1 DNA-binding activity in the hippocampus and that there were differences in the components of AP-1 complexes at different stages after kainite treatment. It is possible that the short-term and long-term AP-1 complexes play different roles in the regulation of neuronal function. The short-term AP-1

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complex may mediate the induction of certain genes that respond to stimuli in an acute fashion ranging from minutes to hours. On the other hand, the long-term AP-1 complex may be associated with the changes in neuronal plasticity that often require protracted time periods ranging from days to months [84]. Moreover, This is supported by in vivo evidence of increased hippocampal AP-1 binding within an hour after seizure, just before increased NGF gene expression [85]. However, the chronic increase in hippocampal AP-1 binding activity after kainic acid-induced seizures is not linked to chronically elevated NGF mRNA expression. Similarly, after kainate induced seizures, JunB and JunD are major components of AP-1 binding at early and late time points, respectively [86].

It is generally accepted that oxidative stress upregulates the expression of inflammatory genes via activation of redox-responsive transcription factors. Indeed, activation of activator protein-1 (AP-1) and nuclear factor kB (NF-kB) is considered to contribute to the general regulation of a number of inflammatory genes by cellular oxidative stress and/or intracellular glutathione levels [87]. Also, Cowie et al. (1994) [88] suggests that, seizure-induced NGF expression in the brain is predominantly, if not fully, regulated through AP-1 activation. Moreover, Szekely et al., (1990) [89] evidence that, the composition of AP-1 binding changes with time after depolarization and seizures. Additionally, Hsu et al. (1993) [90] shown that changes in AP-1 composition can increase or suppress transactivation of target genes in a number of systems. Furthermore, Ogata et al., (2001) [91] suggesting that, endogenous GSH may be partly involved in the underlying molecular mechanisms of transcription control by KA. Changes in AP-1 DNA-binding activity were qualitatively similar to those observed with NF-kB in the adult rat brain.

Curcumin administration in epilepsy-induced mice markedly decrease and attenuate the increased of activator protein-1 in brain tissues when compared with KA-induced epilepsy non-treated group. Curcumin also suppresses the activation of AP-1 in TNF-α activated bevine aortic endothelial cell [92]. Curcumin has anti-inflammatory and anti-tumor activity. Anti-inflammatory action may be due to leukotriene inhibition. Its curcuminoids (curcumin) and volatile oil are both partly responsible for the anti-inflammatory activity. Curcuminoids induce glutathione S-transferase and are potent inhibitors of cytochrome P450. Curcumin acts as a free radical scavenger and antioxidant, inhibiting lipid peroxidation and oxidative DNA damage. It also inhibits activation of NF-kB4, AP-1 function [93]. Curcumin also suppresses the activation of several transcription factors that are implicated in carcinogenesis. It suppresses the activation of nuclear factor kappa B (NF-kB), activator protein 1 (AP-1), and at least two of the signal transducer and activator of transcription proteins (STAT3, STAT5), and modulates the expression of early growth response protein 1 (Egr-1), peroxisome proliferators associated receptor gamma (PPAR-γ), β-catenin, and Nrf-2. Curcumin also modulates expression of genes involved in cell proliferation, cell invasion, metastasis, angiogenesis, and resistance to chemotherapy. It has been shown to down regulate the expression of antiapoptotic (Bcl-2, BclXL), cyclooxygenase-2 (COX-2), matrix metalloproteinase (MMP)-9, tumor necrosis factor (TNF), cyclin D1, and the adhesion molecules [7]. Also, Parodi et al. (2006) [94] examined the effect of oral administration of curcumin on proinflammatory cytokines and destructive connective tissue remodeling in experimental AAAs. Curcumin-treated mice exhibited relative decreases in aortic tissue activator protein (AP)-1 and NF-kB DNA binding activities and significantly lower aortic tissue concentrations of IL-1β, IL-6, MCP-1, and MMP-9. Curcumin suppressed the development of experimental AAAs along with the structural preservation of medial elastin fibers and reduced aortic wall expression of several cytokines, chemokines, and proteinases known to mediate aneurismal degeneration. In the present study RES and CUR, may be help in protection of brain tissue from KA-induced epilepsy due to its helpful effect on decrease activator protein-1 in both protective and treatment periods.

A significant increase in brain tissue MPO was observed in KA-induced epilepsy in mice. These results are nearly similar to those reported by Pattie (2004) [95] who suggested that, myeloperoxidase expression was increased in tissue with Alzheimer pathology where it localized to amyloid plaques and, surprisingly, neuronal populations in both the neocortex and the molecular layer of the hippocampus. These observations raise the possibility that the enzyme represents one pathway for promoting oxidative stress in AD. However, Leeuwenburgh et al. (1997) [96] establish that, increased myeloperoxidase expression and associated production of oxidants may contribute to tissue injury during chronic inflammation in both peripheral diseases such as atherosclerosis and diseases of the CNS such as multiple sclerosis and AD. Inhibition of myeloperoxidase activity may prove to be a valuable therapeutic target beyond general antioxidant regimens to slow oxidative mediated damage in these diseases. Also, Barone et al., (1995) [97] shown that, at 3 days after ischemia MPO activity increases dramatically, peaking at 5 days, before decreasing to preischemic values by 15 days. The increase and peak in MPO activity at 5 days has previously been demonstrated histologically to be the result of a dramatic increase in monocyte and macrophage accumulation within the ischemic brain, and corresponds to a time when neutrophils were reported to be decreasing. Myeloperoxidase (MPO) is a heme protein expressed at high levels in neutrophils [98], and is a potent proinflammatory mediator [99].

Chronic inflammation of the large intestine predominantly comprises lymphocytes and plasma cells exacerbation, neutrophils migrate and degranulate substances like MPO. It is an enzyme found in primary granules of polymorph nuclear neutrophils.
and used as an index for the severity of digestive inflammation [100]. Myeloperoxidase is secreted by the neutrophils whenever there is inflammation and therefore the number of neutrophils is directly correlated with myeloperoxidase activity. Chang et al. (2011) [101] establish that, a distinguishing feature of rotenone-exposed brain-resident immune cells is an increase in the activity and level of MPO that is undetectable under normal conditions. Mounting evidence points to an important role of oxidative injury, including MPO-derived oxidants, in the pathogenesis of neurodegenerative disorders. The underlying mechanism is believed to involve oxidative damage to various cell components, including proteins, carbohydrates, lipids, and nucleic acids, because of overproduction of free radicals, leading to impairment of cellular functions and ultimately cell death. MPO, MPO-derived oxidants, and increased levels of lipid peroxidation have been demonstrated to be present in affected brain tissues of patients with AD, Parkinson’s disease (PD), and multiple sclerosis (MS)[102]. Curcumin administration in epilepsy-induced mice markedly decrease and attenuate the increased of MPO in brain tissues when compared with KA-induced epilepsy non-treated group. Also, administration of curcumin markedly reduced the MPO activity, confirming the anti-inflammatory effect of curcumin. The present results are well-matched with previous reports from other experimental models of ulcerative colitis[103]. In the present study CUR, may be help in protection of brain tissue from KA-induced epilepsy due to its helpful effect on decreasing MPO in both protective and treatment periods. Curcumin have been shown to scavenge the free radicals and thereby acts as good antioxidant. Its role as an antioxidant may be due to in part its ability to down regulate nitric oxide formation, which is a key element in inflammation and may contribute to carcinogenesis. The antioxidant activity of the curcuminoids (the active part in curcumin) comes by advantage of their chemical structure. In the present work the administration of curcumin either prior or post to KA treatment induced some improvement in pathological changes observed in the brain tissues of KA treated mice’s. These results could be attributed to the antioxidant properties and it can abolish oxidative stress. Moreover, curcumin has been shown to inhibit lipid peroxidation using linoleate, a polyunsaturated fatty acid that is able to be oxidized and form a fatty acid radical [104]. Furthermore, curcumin a polyphenolic antioxidant has the ability of suppression of expression of the isozyme cyclooxygenas. Its efficacy appears to be related to induction of glutathione S-transferase enzyme, which is responsible of inhibition of injuries induced in tissue. It also inhibits the prostaglandin E (PGE2) production. Curcumin has been shown to suppress the activation of NF-kB, an inducible transcription factor that regulates the expression of a host of genes involved in inflammation, cellular proliferation and cell survival [32].

4. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the present study demonstrated that, CUR possesses significantly neuroprotection and treatment effects against brain epilepsy and oxidative damage in brain tissue induced by KA in mice. Since, curcumin was able to ameliorate serum biochemical parameters, enzymatic and non-enzymatic antioxidant defense system, prevent DNA fragmentation in brain tissue. Based on the data of the current study, the effect of CUR against KA-induced brain lesions can be attributed to the inhibitory effects and its reduction of NO and inflammatory markers as well as its antipapoptic effect. We recommended that, administration of diet rich in the antioxidant CUR is very important for protection of different body tissue, especially brain tissue, against oxidative stress or even inflammation.

5. REFERENCES

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