

Biomolecules and Biomedicine

ISSN: 2831-0896 (Print) | ISSN: 2831-090X (Online) Journal Impact Factor® (2024): 2.2

CiteScore® (2024): 5.2 www.biomolbiomed.com | blog.bjbms.org

The BiomolBiomed publishes an "Advanced Online" manuscript format as a free service to authors in order to expedite the dissemination of scientific findings to the research community as soon as possible after acceptance following peer review and corresponding modification (where appropriate). An "Advanced Online" manuscript is published online prior to copyediting, formatting for publication and author proofreading, but is nonetheless fully citable through its Digital Object Identifier (doi®). Nevertheless, this "Advanced Online" version is NOT the final version of the manuscript. When the final version of this paper is published within a definitive issue of the journal with copyediting, full pagination, etc., the new final version will be accessible through the same doi and this "Advanced Online" version of the paper will disappear.

## RESEARCH ARTICLE

Rajan et al: TUDCA and Syndopa in PD mouse model

# TUDCA combined with Syndopa protects the midbrain and gut from MPTP toxicity in a Parkinson's disease mouse model:

## Immunohistochemical evidence

Mahalakshmi Rajan<sup>1,3</sup>, Senthilkumar Sivanesan<sup>1\*</sup>, Kalpana Ramachandran<sup>2</sup>, Pankaj Goyal<sup>4</sup>, Priya Palanivelu<sup>5</sup>, Anamitra Ghosh<sup>6</sup>, Rajagopalan Vijayaraghavan<sup>1</sup>, and Smitha S Vasavan<sup>7</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Research and Development, Saveetha Institute of Medical and Technical Sciences, Chennai, India;

<sup>2</sup>Department of Anatomy, Sri Ramachandra Medical College and Research Institute, Chennai, India;

<sup>3</sup>Department of Anatomy, Sri Muthukumaran Medical College and Research Institute, Chennai, India;

<sup>4</sup>Department of Biotechnology, Central University of Rajasthan, Ajmer, India;

<sup>5</sup>Department of Anatomy, KMCH Institute of Health Sciences and Research, Coimbatore, India;

<sup>6</sup>Baylor College of Medicine, Houston, Texas, USA;

<sup>7</sup>Department of Anatomy, PMS College of Dental Science and Research, Thiruvananthapuram, India.

\*Correspondence to Senthilkumar Sivanesan: senbio@gmail.com

**DOI:** https://doi.org/10.17305/bb.2025.12519

#### **ABSTRACT**

Neuro-inflammation plays a significant role in the neurodegenerative processes associated with Parkinson's disease (PD). A hallmark of PD is the degeneration of dopaminergic neurons within the nigrostriatal pathway. The standard treatment for PD is Syndopa (a combination of levodopa and carbidopa). However, while Syndopa alleviates symptoms, it is also associated with numerous side effects in patients. Research has demonstrated the protective effects of Tauroursodeoxycholic acid (TUDCA) in mitigating the neuropathological consequences of PD in several preclinical studies. Nonetheless, further investigation is necessary to delineate the role of TUDCA in PD therapeutics. Although the efficacy of TUDCA monotherapy in PD has been explored, there is a lack of preclinical research examining the additive effects of TUDCA in conjunction with Syndopa therapy. In this study, we utilized an MPTP (1-methyl-4-phenyl-1,2,3,6-tetrahydropyridine) mouse model of PD to evaluate the potential therapeutic benefits of TUDCA monotherapy and the combined effects of TUDCA and Syndopa therapy, compared to standard Syndopa treatment. We conducted immunohistochemical (IHC) assessments of  $\alpha$ -synuclein expression in the gut and substantia nigra pars compacta (SNpc), as well as tyrosine hydroxylase and NF-kB expression in the striatum and SNpc regions, to investigate the efficacy of the test drugs. The immunohistochemical findings indicate that both TUDCA monotherapy and the combination therapy of TUDCA and Syndopa significantly reduced MPTP-induced alterations in the expression levels of α-synuclein, tyrosine hydroxylase, and NFκB in the striatum and SNpc regions. Additionally, the MPTP-induced changes in α-synuclein expression in the gut were notably reversed by these treatments. Collectively, these results suggest that incorporating TUDCA with Syndopa may represent a promising therapeutic strategy to address the pathophysiological challenges associated with PD.

**Keywords:** Parkinson's disease, PD, MPTP, TUDCA, Syndopa, α-synuclein, substantia nigra

#### INTRODUCTION

Parkinson's disease (PD) often referred to as paralysis agitants, is a brain degenerative condition that affects the central nervous system's extra pyramidal motor neurons. It is one of the detrimental neurodegenerative conditions in the elderly, next to Alzheimer's disease (AD) [1]. James Parkinson was the first to describe the cardinal manifestations of PD. Pathologically it is classified as synucleinopathy, along with other conditions that have Lewy bodies [2]. It is predicted following dopaminergic neuronal death in the SNpc pars compacta (SNpc), depleted striatal dopamine levels and proteinaceous clumps within neuronal cell bodies called Lewy bodies, which stain for α-synuclein [3]. Neuronal degeneration with Lewy bodies is not only restricted to the dopaminergic system, and it also affects the non-dopaminergic neuronal system and peripheral nervous system [4].

About 90 % cases of PD occur sporadically and are due to unknown etiology. The remaining 10 % cases are familial which occur due to mutations in SNCA, GBA, LRRK2, and PINK1/parkin genes [5,6]. Although the exact cellular mechanisms contributing to dopaminergic degeneration in PD are ambiguous, it is believed that oxidative stress, neuroinflammation, and mitochondrial dysfunction play a major role in the depletion of dopaminergic cells in sporadic & familial PD [7,8]. Glial cells which have significant role in antioxidant defense [3] are known to release several pro-inflammatory mediators and phagocytose cellular debris when activated by dying neurons [7,9,10]. This further contributes to the degeneration of neurons with provoked inflammation and cell death that aggravates to intensify the neurodegenerative process [11]. In fact, glial activation contributes significantly to the development of neuronal dysfunction in PD.

Clinically PD is manifested by motor symptoms viz., resting tremor, bradykinesia, muscle rigidity, and postural imbalance [12]. In addition to the above mentioned "cardinal" motor symptoms, PD also manifests in the form of other non-motor symptoms that include dysphagia, speech problems, constipation, anxiety, depression, orthostatic hypotension, micturition abnormalities and cognitive problems. Several of these are recognized as prodromal symptoms of PD or risk factors for the illness [13,14].

In PD patients, the caudate nucleus and putamen become excessively active and continuously produce excitatory signals to the corticospinal tract due to the destruction of dopaminergic neurons, which causes rigidity. Dopamine is the inhibitory transmitter released in these regions. Levodopa, or L-dopa (LD), a precursor of dopamine, is a commonly used treatment

drug for PD symptoms. However, there are certain harmful effects associated with L-dopa therapy, such as hypotension, nausea, gastrointestinal hemorrhage, sleeplessness, disorientation, auditory hallucinations [15].

1-methyl 4-phenyl 1,2,3,6-tetrahydropyridine (MPTP) is used for developing PD in animal model, which reproduce the neurodegeneration. MPTP being a lipophilic component easily crosses the blood brain barrier and combines with astrocytes where it is metabolized by monoamine oxidase (MAO) into its active metabolite MPP+ [16,17]. MPP+ has tropism for dopaminergic neurons and actively taken up by the DA neurons, where it is believed to cause neurodegeneration in those neurons by inducing mitochondrial dysfunction, oxidative stress, inflammation, excitotoxicity and aggregation of inclusion bodies [18-21].

LD, a commonly used drug to relieve PD symptoms poses many adverse responses. The episodes of various motor symptoms due to dopa resistance and non-motor symptoms which encompass autonomic dysfunctions, mood and cognitive impairment and drug linked side effects (psychosis, motor fluctuations and dyskinesia) are the notable features [22,23]. Owing to longer half-life of dopamine agonists, they are being increasingly used in the treatment of PD as monotherapy or as a combination drug [24]. The present research scenario focuses on identifying an effective treatment which will be better than LD or by implementing pharmacological approaches to reduce the LD dose levels to prevent side effects. Although, α-synuclein accumulation seems to play a major role in PD and considered as one of the most supported hypotheses among several, the exact pathogenic mechanisms of PD is still unclear and warrants more detailed investigations. The course of PD involves several events which includes mitochondrial dysfunction, neuroinflammation and faulty protein clearance mechanisms [19]. But how these various events cooperate and integrate with each other remains incompletely understood [25]. While this movement disorder occurs due to damage of dopaminergic neurons in the SNpc, other brain regions are also critically affected [11,26] and extensive investigations are underway. Several seminal works have indicated the importance and significance of gut dysfunctions in PD pathogenesis. Although the LBs are identified as pathological hallmarks of PD containing mostly the aggregated  $\alpha$ -synuclein protein, how they lead to neurodegeneration is still obscure.

Tauroursodeoxycholic acid (TUDCA), a natural bile acid is an endogenous taurine conjugate of ursodeoxycholic acid (UDCA), that is employed in the management of cholestatic liver diseases. It crosses the blood-brain barrier and found to be nontoxic. Research has been

conducted widely to know the beneficial role of TUDCA in many non-liver diseases such as neurodegenerative diseases. In fact, TUDCA has shown considerable neuroprotective role in mouse models of Alzheimer's and Huntington's diseases [27-30].

The proposed mechanisms of TUDCA's neuroprotective activity in an experimental model of PD includes activation of the pro-survival Ser/Thr kinase Akt and anti-oxidative mechanisms dependent on nuclear factor E2-related factor 2 (Nrf2) pathway, as well as parkin mediated mitochondrial turnover [31-34]. However, studies that support the gut protective mechanisms of TUDCA in PD are not found.

Brain histomorphological studies can be used to delineate TUDCA's neuroprotective role and efficacy in PD. So far, the therapeutic potential of TUDCA has been tested as monotherapy in PD preclinical research. In the present work, we tested TUDCA's pharmacological potential in MPTP intoxicated mice through immunohistochemical studies involving brain and gut samples. Notably, in the present work, TUDCA was tested either alone and as an additional drug along with syndopa to explore the neuroprotective benefits.

#### **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

#### Animals

The Mass Biotech animal facility in Chengalpattu, India, supplied C57BL/6 mice (male), which were 2-3 months old and weighed 30-40 g. The mice were allowed for 7-days acclimatization followed by 26 days of experimentation. Mice were kept in a clean environment with a relative humidity of 30 to 40% and a photoperiod of 12 hours of light and 12 hours of darkness. Throughout the investigation, the mice had unrestricted access to food and water.

## Mice grouping and experimental protocol

The mice were randomly segregated into five groups, each having six mice as below: The randomization of animals was done by Random Number Table method: Each mouse was labelled with a specific number code (Non-sequential), and then numbers were drawn randomly from a table to assign individual mouse into various groups. The group allocation was masked until interventions started. Group 1 was considered as control which received normal saline (0.2 mL/mouse i.p.). Group 2 received MPTP (30 mg/kg/day i.p.) dissolved in saline for 5 days. Group 3 was given TUDCA (150 mg/kg/day i.p.) dissolved in phosphate buffer saline (PBS) for 21 days following MPTP administration for 5 days (30 mg/kg/day

i.p.). Group 4 received syndopa (12 mg/kg/day p.o.) dissolved in filtered water for 21 days following MPTP administration for 5 days (30 mg/kg/day i.p.). Group 5 received TUDCA (150 mg/kg/day i.p.) and syndopa (12 mg/kg day p.o.) for 21 days following MPTP administration (30 mg/kg/day i.p.) for 5 days. For additive/enhanced therapy: the time interval maintained each day between the TUDCA and Syndopa treatments for mice was 2 hrs.

## Cardiac perfusion and preservation of gut and midbrain tissues

At the end of experimentation procedures, an isoflurane inhalation anesthesia protocol was followed to perform a cardiac perfusion with normal saline (0.9% NaCl). The mice skull was carefully opened to dissect the midbrain without mechanical damage. The midbrain was kept on ice and subsequently cleaned with ice-cold phosphate-buffered saline (PBS), pH 7.4. A portion of cut midbrain and gut tissues were fixed with 10% neutral buffered formalin, dehydrated and then subjected to paraffin embedding and sectioning (5 µm thickness) for the purpose of immunohistochemical analysis. While sampling the gut tissues, the colon (distal) region was processed for IHC staining. The technician who processed and stained the tissues for histological studies as well as the pathologist who did the interpretation of slides were blinded to the group identity at all stages of histological processing and quantification.

## Immunostaining of tyrosine hydroxylase protein expression in striatum and SNpc

Slides containing midbrain sections were de-paraffinized with washes in xylene for 5-min, 1-min washes in a descending series of ethanol: 100%, 95%, 80%, 70%. The antigen retrieval was performed with sodium citrate buffer. Briefly, 2.94g of trisodium citrate dihydrate was dissolved in 95mL distilled water and then the pH was adjusted to 6.0 using 1N NaOH to obtain antigen retrieval buffer. Added 5mL of 0.1% Tween-20 and mixed well before adjusting the final volume to 100mL with distilled water. After antigen retrieval, slides were kept in 5% hydrogen peroxide in methanol to quench endogenous peroxidase activity. Slides were washed in running tap water for 10 min, 5 min in 0.1 M Tris, blocked in 3% fetal bovine serum (FBS) (SD Fine Chem, India.). Slides were incubated in primary antibody overnight at 4°C. The Tyrosine hydroxylase (Sigma-Aldrich) primary antibody was used at 1:2000 dilution with 0.5-1% formic acid (SRL Pvt Ltd, India). After washing the primary antibody with 0.1 M Tris for 5 min, incubation with goat anti-rabbit biotinylated IgG (Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA) at 1:1000 for 1 h was performed. 0.1 M Tris buffer was used to rinse off the biotinylated antibody for 5 min, then incubated with avidin-biotin

solution (Abcam, USA) for 1 h. Slides were then rinsed for 5 min with 0.1 M Tris, then the sections were stained with diaminobenzidine (DAB) (SRL Pvt Ltd, India) to visualize the immune positive cells. TH immune positive areas were observed under light binocular microscope (OLYMPUS CX23 Model).

## Immunohistochemical studies of NF-kb protein expression in striatum and SNpc

The de-paraffinization of slides with xylene and washing protocol in descending series of ethanol were as detailed in previous IHC methods section. After antigen retrieval (as described in previous tyrosine hydroxylase IHC methods section) slides were incubated in 0.3% hydrogen peroxide in methanol to quench endogenous peroxidase activity. Slices were blocked in PBS containing 0.2% Triton X-100 and 10% normal goat serum at 37 °C for 45 min. Slides were incubated at 4°C temperature in primary antibodies overnight. The rabbit anti-NFκB (Sigma-Aldrich) primary antibody was used at 1:2000 dilution. After rinsing the primary antibody with 0.1 M Tris for 5 min, the sections were incubated with goat anti-rabbit biotinylated IgG in 1:500 at 37 °C for 45 min. The subsequent steps such as washing of biotinylated antibody, incubation with avidin-biotin solution, rinsing with 0.1 M Tris and staining process with DAB to visualize the immune positive cells were exactly followed as indicated above in TH immunohistochemical study protocol.

# Immunohistochemical evaluation of α-synuclein protein expression in gut, and SNpc

For the evaluation of gut alpha-synuclein IHC expression, the transverse section of mucosa and submucosa of colon were analyzed. The gut and midbrain sections were de-paraffinized with 2 sequential 5-min washes in xylene, 1-min washes in a descending grade of ethanol: 100%, 100%, 95%, 80%, 70%. After antigen retrieval, slides were incubated in 5% H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> in methanol to quench endogenous peroxidase activity. Using running tap water the slides were washed off (10 min), in 0.1 M Tris (5 min), then blocked with 2% fetal bovine serum (FBS). Incubation with primary antibody was performed overnight at 4°C. The anti-α-synuclein primary antibody (Abacam, USA) was used at 1:1000 dilution. After rinsing off the primary antibody, the slides were treated with secondary antibody (goat anti-rabbit biotinylated IgG) at 1:1000 dilution for 1 hr. The remaining steps were followed exactly as detailed in previous IHC methodology to visualize the α-synuclein positive immunoreactivity.

## **Analysis and Quantification of IHC slides**

The tyrosine hydroxylase, NFκB and α-synuclein immune positive areas detected in the target tissues were detected under a light binocular microscope (OLYMPUS CX23 Model) and the captured images were measured and quantified using Image-J software version 1.54 (Source: http://rsbweb.nih.gov/ij/download.html).

#### **Ethical statement**

Animals were housed and well maintained by adhering to the Committee for the Control and Supervision of Experiments on Animals (CCSEA), India, guidelines and protocols. The study procedures adhered to the IAEC guidelines and principles, and the research proposal was accepted by the Saveetha Medical College Institutional Animal Ethics Committee (SU/CLAR/RD/34/2023).

## Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was performed using GraphPad Prism software (GraphPad, La Jolla, CA, USA) using one-way ANOVA. Multiple comparisons were done using the Tukey test. The results are calculated as mean  $\pm$  SD, and data are shown as mean  $\pm$  SD. P values of <.05 were considered statistically significant. In all the main figures, the statistically significant data are shown as '\*' according to the P values.

#### **RESULTS**

## Evaluation of tyrosine hydroxylase protein expression in striatum and SNpc

The immunoreactivity of TH positive fibres in striatum (Figure 1 and Supplemental Figure A1 with lower magnification-200x) of control, MPTP-PD, TUDCA, syndopa and TUDCA + syndopa groups were 94.6, 18.5, 72.2, 56.1, and 79.5% and if differences were significant (P < 0.001). Compared to control, MPTP-PD and syndopa group showed significant differences in TH expression levels (P < 0.0001, and <0.05, respectively). By contrast, compared to control group, TUDCA, TUDCA + syndopa group did not show significant (P > 0.05) changes respectively. The syndopa group compared with MPTP-PD showed statistically significant changes (P < 0.001). When syndopa group was compared with TUDCA monotherapy group, there was no statistical significance (P > 0.05). A similar trend was noticed when TUDCA group was compared with TUDCA + syndopa (P > 0.05). However, statistical significance exists when TUDCA + syndopa group was compared with syndopa group (P < 0.05).

The immunoreactivity of TH positive fibres in the SNpc (Figure 2) of control, MPTP-PD, TUDCA, syndopa and TUDCA + syndopa groups were 90.4, 45.3, 78.6, 64.1, and 83.9% respectively. Compared to control group, MPTP-PD group showed significant decrease in the TH protein expression levels (P < 0.01). Compared to control group, syndopa group did not show significant differences (P > 0.05) and likewise compared to control group, TUDCA group and TUDCA + syndopa group also did not reveal significant differences in the TH expression levels (P > 0.05). A comparison of MPTP-PD group with either TUDCA group or TUDCA + syndopa group revealed statistically significant difference (P < 0.01). There was no significant difference when syndopa group was compared with MPTP group (P > 0.05). When syndopa group was compared with either TUDCA or TUDCA + syndopa, no statistical significance was noticed (P > 0.05). Likewise, comparison of TUDCA group with TUDCA + syndopa demonstrated no statistical level significance (P > 0.05). However, the efficacy of TUDCA + syndopa was marginally better than TUDCA monotherapy, whereas syndopa alone treatment didn't significantly improve the TH positive fibres in SNpc (P > 0.05).

## Evaluation of NF-kb protein expression in SNpc and striatum

In striatum (Figure 3 & Supplemental Figure A2 with magnification-400x), the intensity of NF-kB positive cells of control, MPTP-PD, TUDCA, syndopa and TUDCA + syndopa groups were estimated as 7.2, 43.3, 22.8, 29.3 and 18.2% respectively. Compared to control group, MPTP-PD group showed significant differences in the NF-kb expression levels (P < 0.0001). Compared to MPTP-PD group, TUDCA group & TUDCA + syndopa additive group exhibited significant differences in the expression levels (P < 0.01). A comparison made between syndopa group and MPTP-PD group revealed no statistical significance (P > 0.05) although syndopa treatment reduced NF-kB levels reasonably. There was no statistical significance (P > 0.05) when group comparison was performed across all the drug intervened groups [syndopa Vs TUDCA; syndopa Vs TUDCA + syndopa & TUDCA Vs TUDCA + syndopa]. Overall, the NF-kB protein expression levels were significantly reduced in the TUDCA monotherapy group and TUDCA plus syndopa intervention group when compared with MPTP-PD group.

The intensity of NF-kB indicating cells in the SNpc (Figure 4 & Supplemental Figure A3 with magnification-400x) of control, MPTP-PD, TUDCA, syndopa and TUDCA + syndopa groups were shown as 5.70, 35.48, 17.82, 23.15 and 13.00%. Compared with control, MPTP-PD showed significant differences in the expression levels (P<0.0001). Whereas, in various

drug treated groups (TUDCA, syndopa and TUDCA + syndopa), the NF-kB expression levels were significantly reduced compared to PD-MPTP group (P < 0.01, 0.05 and 0.001 respectively). As mentioned above for striatum, statistical significance didn't exist (P > 0.05) when the various drug intervention groups were compared with each other.

## Gut level changes in α-synuclein protein expression

The intensity of  $\alpha$ -synuclein positive cells in gut samples (Figure 5 & Supplemental Figure A4 with lower magnification-200x) of control, MPTP-PD, TUDCA, syndopa and TUDCA + syndopa groups were manifested as 2.90, 62.63, 31.90, 32.22, 22.56 %. Compared with control, MPTP-PD group revealed significant upregulation of  $\alpha$ -synuclein positive expression (P < 0.001). By contrast, syndopa, TUDCA and TUDCA + syndopa treatments led to notable reductions in the gut  $\alpha$ -synuclein expression levels as compared to MPTP-PD group and the values were found to be statistically significant (P < 0.05). The group comparisons made across the various drug treatment groups didn't exhibit statistical level significance (P > 0.05)

## Assessment of α-synuclein protein expression in SNpc

The intensity of  $\alpha$ -synuclein positive cells (Figure 6 & Supplemental Figure A5 with lower magnification-200x) in control, MPTP-PD, TUDCA, SYNDOPA and TUDCA+SYNDOPA groups were found to be 6.06, 75.80, 49.28, 55.08, and 47.4%. Compared with control group, MPTP-PD, TUDCA, syndopa and TUDCA + syndopa showed strikingly elevated levels of  $\alpha$ -synuclein (P < 0.0001, 0.001, 0.0001 and 0.001 respectively). TUDCA (P < 0.01), syndopa (P < 0.05) and TUDCA + syndopa (P < 0.01) groups also showed significant difference in the expression levels when compared with MPTP-PD group implicating the efficacies of drugs. There was no detectable level of statistical significance when the drug intervention groups were compared with each other (P > 0.05).

## **DISCUSSION**

While PD is clinically diagnosed with cardinal motor symptoms which arises due to nigrostriatal degeneration, multiple pathologies coincide with PD pathogenesis. But it remains unclear which pathology is initiated first to trigger nigrostriatal degeneration [35]. The current IHC data shows prominent expression of  $\alpha$ -synuclein in the MPTP intoxicated mice gut samples when compared to control group. Several notable works have emphasized that misfolded  $\alpha$ -synuclein is first formed in the enteric nerves before it could be detected in the brain. But, it is still intriguing whether PD starts first in the gut or brain region. While many investigations support evidence that MPTP administration increases alpha-synuclein

expression in gut tissue, metabolic perturbation in gut & gut dysbiosis, [36,37] the first and foremost region to be affected by MPTP is still under investigations. However, a recent publication by Heng et al (2022) has mentioned that MPTP stimulate synucleinopathies first in the gut to take part in the etiology and progression of PD. Heng et al confirmed that synucleinopathies existed in the stomachs of both chronic and acute (single) 1-methyl-4phenyl-1,2,3,6-tetrahydropyridine (MPTP) injected mice. They first showed a significant elevation of aggregated and nitrated α-synuclein in the enteric glial cells (EGCs) of the gastric myenteric plexus. Next, they tried to prove this mechanism by giving single MPTPinjection to mice. Stomach synucleinopathies were noticed well before they could be visualized in the nigrostriatal system i.e. 12 h after MPTP injection. High monoamine oxidase-B (MAO-B) activity and low superoxide dismutase (SOD) activity possessed by the stomach made it more susceptible to MPTP-induced oxidative stress and hence manifested with increased reactive oxygen species (ROS) in the stomach and 4-hydroxynonenal (4-HNE) in the EGCs 3h after MPTP exposure. Noticeably, a considerable hike in nitrated α-synuclein in the EGCs occurred after 3 h and 12 h of MPTP exposure. Taken together, the work of Heng et al (2022) demonstrated that the enteric glial cells could be new contributors to synucleinopathies in the stomach. Therefore, it was reinforced that the early-initiated gut synucleinopathies may be influencing the adjacent neurons in the myenteric plexus and the CNS.

Based on epidemiological and histological findings, the gastrointestinal problems (constipation) and  $\alpha$ -synuclein inclusions were detected early in the ENS many years before the propagation of motor symptoms and inclusions in the CNS [38]. Another study depicted by Luk et al. (2012) [39] showed the ability of  $\alpha$ -synuclein to undergo a 'prion-like' misfolding and aggregation process implicating that the disease may start in the peripheral organs such as the ENS and then progress to the CNS via the dorsal motor nucleus of the vagus thereby affecting the brain stem, mid- and fore-brain and ultimately the cerebral cortex [38,40].

The process by which misfolded  $\alpha$ -synuclein present in the enteroendocrine cells (EECs) spreads from the gut epithelium to the brain was depicted by Haggerty et al. [41]. The same group have also shown how the neuron-like features of enteroendocrine cells (EECs) connects to enteric nerves and take part in the dissemination of  $\alpha$ -synuclein misfolding from gut and brain. The ability of TUDCA-syndopa enhanced therapy in reducing the gut  $\alpha$ -

synuclein levels is evident from the present IHC findings which implicates amelioration of MPTP toxicity and early PD symptoms in mice.

While loss of dopaminergic neurons is the primary cause of MPTP toxicity in brain, considerable number of research works have depicted that MPTP intoxication in mice and non-human primates can trigger α-synuclein expression in SNpc [42-44]. In another report, a significant decrease (80–89%) in tyrosine hydroxylase (TH)-positive SNpc neurons in the side ipsilateral to MPTP administration in young and old MPTP treated Rhesus Monkeys were manifested along with increased α-syn expression in the SN region [45]. Moreover, MPTP is still a widely used PD model for the preclinical testing of various pharmacological agents [46-48]. Although prolonged L-dopa treatment could be responsible for down-regulation of TH which is involved in dopamine synthesis, it may potentially lead to L-dopainduced dyskinesia. This could be the plausible reason that restoration of TH expression levels in striatum by syndopa is not convincing like other drug treatment groups. In SNpc, the TH expression was improved in syndopa group, although the value was not statistically significant in comparison with MPTP group.

Neuroinflammation is an injurious pathological event in PD and AD. NF-κB, a key marker of neuroinflammation is widely studied in PD models to explore both the pathological states of the disease and the efficacy of test drugs [49]. Neuroinflammation in SNpc was greatly attributed to the progression of PD in mice [50]. NF-κB increased significantly in the striatum and SNpc of MPTP induced mice [51,52]. Using a mouse model of PD, it was proven that drugs which inhibited NF-κB activation in the SNpc region circumvented the dopaminergic neuronal loss effectively. So far, the anti-inflammatory potentials of TUDCA in PD midbrains are less studied and therefore the present research involving an MPTP model mice fills the research gap through IHC findings.

Decreased tyrosine hydroxylase and increased α-synuclein expression in midbrain and striatum has been depicted in MPTP and other chemical induced PD models [53-55]. PD patients brain tissues had shown significantly reduced DA content based on several published works [56,57]. Dopamine synthesis is triggered by TH via tyrosine hydroxylation to L-dopa (Precursor of dopamine). Importantly, the activity of tyrosine hydroxylase in the brains of PD patients and PD mice has been shown to be significantly reduced [58-60]. TH+ antibodies can detect the dopaminergic neurons in the SNpc pars compacta region in MPTP induced mice [61]. The number of TH+ neurons in the SNpc were significantly reduced with

increased numbers of activated microglia in MPTP-treated mice [62]. Therefore, pharmacological approaches aimed at reducing TH levels in striatum and SN regions in MPTP models were useful to reduce PD complications [63,64]. It is evident that MPTP can activate glial cells in both the striatum and SNpc regions of the brain to alter the proinflammatory markers, which is responsible for the promotion of neuroinflammation and neurodegeneration [65].

TUDCA intervention either alone or administered along with syndopa reversed these changes considerably by reducing the damage caused by MPTP toxicity. The syndopa treatment also rendered better effect to counteract the MPTP toxicity as shown in the present work. While striatal TH expression was significantly improved in syndopa treatment group, there was no significant restoration of TH in SNpc region following syndopa treatment. The region wise variations depicted by syndopa seems interesting and needs extensive investigations. The anti-inflammatory effect of syndopa in striatum is not pronounced in this MPTP model. All the three drug intervention groups significantly inhibited  $\alpha$ -synuclein accumulation in gut tissues of MPTP intoxicated mice and the data is shown perhaps for the first time in the present study.

TUDCA crosses the blood–brain barrier (BBB) [66] to elicit neuroprotective response. TUDCA's anti-apoptotic mechanisms elicited in hepatocytes were found to mimic in neuronal cells as well [27-29]. Based on extensive literature evidence it appears that bile acids can be used to defend against neuronal cellular programmed death pathways. Drugs that restored the loss of TH levels in the subsantia nigra (SNpc) and striatal regions were found to be beneficial in ameliorating PD problems in MPTP, α-Synuclein and 6-hydroxydopamine models [67-70]. Protein oxidation, autophagy and α-synuclein aggregation were attenuated by TUDCA when administered to mice before MPTP induction [71]. According to Rosa et al. [34], TUDCA pre-treatment to mice prevented the MPTP toxicity by increasing the numbers of TH-positive cells in the striatum. By contrast, the present study supports the efficacy of TUDCA post-treatment in an MPTP model of PD. In addition, our current findings suggest therapeutic potentials of TUDCA and syndopa additive therapy than TUDCA monotherapy for PD. Although the comparisons made across the various drug treatment groups were not significant in most of the study parameters, the mean values of TUDCA + syndopa group showed a better trend compared to other drug groups tested.

Preclinical studies postulate that TUDCA's therapeutic functions rely on anti-apoptotic and anti-neuroinflammatory mechanisms apart from suppression of oxidative stress and mitochondrial damage. From the present research findings, it is evident that TUDCA's anti-inflammatory effect in PD brain (both striatum and SNpc) is convincing when administered alone and found to be better when syndopa treatment was added. It also acts as a chaperone to sustain the stability and correct folding of proteins. Intriguingly, phase II clinical trials in AD have shown TUDCA as a safe and a potential drug. AD is one of the common neurodegenerative diseases which tested hydrophilic bile acids as a therapeutic agent. While much more clinical evidence is being gathered for the other diseases, TUDCA holds promise for the treatment of neurodegenerative diseases [72]. Combinatorial therapy is gaining more attention in recent years for many neurological disorders including PD [73-75]. Our earlier works which tested embelin and levodopa combination therapy is an additional proof of preclinical evidence to substantiate the importance and efficacy of combined therapy in the amelioration of PD complications [24,76].

Study Limitations: (i) The present study didn't test the behavioral parameters (functional activity) to assess the additive effects of TUDCA and syndopa treatments in PD model mice. Therefore, future works rely on these preclinical data to validate the drug efficacies and to ensure the potential for cure in translational research (ii) the validity of the MPTP model is not high and this model does not feature all the problems/symptoms of PD patients, and (iii) it seems likely that antioxidant monotherapy is insufficient for disease modification in humans.

#### **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

We thank Mr. Austin Job, laboratory assistant, for providing technical assistance in animal studies. Histology interpretation was provided by Dr. P. Chitra, pathologist from Bright Care Research Centre, Chennai, India.

**Conflicts of interest:** Authors declare no conflicts of interest.

Funding: Authors received no specific funding for this work.

Data availability: The complete data sets in support of this work is available with the

Corresponding author and will be shared upon request.

**Submitted:** 09 April 2025

Accepted: 24 July 2025

Published online: 04 August 2025

#### REFERENCES

- 1. Adamu A, Li S, Gao F, Xue G. The role of neuroinflammation in neurodegenerative diseases: current understanding and future therapeutic targets. Front Aging Neurosci. 2024 Apr 12;16:1347987. <a href="https://doi.org/10.3389/fnagi.2024.1347987">https://doi.org/10.3389/fnagi.2024.1347987</a>
- 2. Peelaerts W, Bousset L, Van der Perren A, Moskalyuk A, Pulizzi R, Giugliano M, Van den Haute C, Melki R, Baekelandt V. α-Synuclein strains cause distinct synucleinopathies after local and systemic administration. Nature. 2015 Jun 18;522(7556):340–4. https://doi.org/10.1038/nature14547
- 3. Sofroniew MV, Vinters HV. Astrocytes: biology and pathology. Acta Neuropathol (Berl). 2010 Jan;119(1):7–35. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00401-009-0619-8
- 4. Jagmag SA, Tripathi N, Shukla SD, Maiti S, Khurana S. Evaluation of models of Parkinson's disease. Front Neurosci. 2016 Jan 19;9:503. Available from: <a href="https://doi.org/10.3389/fnins.2015.00503">https://doi.org/10.3389/fnins.2015.00503</a>
- 5. Thomas B, Beal MF. Parkinson's disease. Hum Mol Genet. 2007 Oct 15;16(Spec No. 2):R183–R194. https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/17911161/
- 6. Martin I, Dawson VL, Dawson TM. Recent Advances in the Genetics of Parkinson's Disease. Annu Rev Genomics Hum Genet. 2011 Sep 22;12(1):301–25. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-genom-082410-101440
- 7. Hald A, Lotharius J. Oxidative stress and inflammation in Parkinson's disease: is there a causal link? Exp Neurol. 2005 Jun;193(2):279–90. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.expneurol.2005.01.013
- 8. Vila M, Ramonet D, Perier C. Mitochondrial alterations in Parkinson's disease: new clues. J Neurochem. 2008 Oct;107(2):317–28. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1471-4159.2008.05604.x
- 9. Choi SS, Lee HJ, Lim I, Satoh J ichi, Kim SU. Human Astrocytes: Secretome Profiles of Cytokines and Chemokines. Borlongan CV, editor. PLoS ONE. 2014 Apr 1;9(4):e92325. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0092325
- 10. Morizawa YM, Hirayama Y, Ohno N, Shibata S, Shigetomi E, Sui Y, et al. Reactive astrocytes function as phagocytes after brain ischemia via ABCA1-mediated pathway. Nat Commun. 2017 Jun 22;8(1):28. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-017-00037-1
- 11. Hirsch EC, Breidert T, Rousselet E, Hunot S, Hartmann A, Michel PP. The Role of Glial Reaction and Inflammation in Parkinson's Disease. Ann N Y Acad Sci. 2003 Jun;991(1):214–28. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1749-6632.2003.tb07478.x

- 12. Kalia LV, Lang AE. Parkinson's disease. The Lancet. 2015 Aug;386(9996):896–912. https://doi.org/10.1016/s0140-6736(14)61393-3
- 13. Berg D, Postuma RB, Adler CH, Bloem BR, Chan P, Dubois B, et al. MDS research criteria for prodromal Parkinson's disease: MDS Criteria for Prodromal PD. Mov Disord. 2015 Oct;30(12):1600–11. https://doi.org/10.1002/mds.26431
- 14. Postuma RB, Aarsland D, Barone P, Burn DJ, Hawkes CH, Oertel W, et al. Identifying prodromal Parkinson's disease: Pre-Motor disorders in Parkinson's disease. Mov Disord. 2012 Apr 15;27(5):617–26. https://doi.org/10.1002/mds.24996
- 15. Colle D, Santos DB, Naime AA, Gonçalves CL, Ghizoni H, Hort MA, et al. Early Postnatal Exposure to Paraquat and Maneb in Mice Increases Nigrostriatal Dopaminergic Susceptibility to a Re-challenge with the Same Pesticides at Adulthood: Implications for Parkinson's Disease. Neurotox Res. 2020 Jan;37(1):210–26. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12640-019-00097-9
- 16. Chiba K, Trevor A, Castagnoli N. Metabolism of the neurotoxic tertiary amine, MPTP, by brain monoamine oxidase. Biochem Biophys Res Commun. 1984 Apr;120(2):574–8. https://doi.org/10.1016/0006-291x(84)91293-2
- 17. Greenamyre JT, Hastings TG. Parkinson's--Divergent Causes, Convergent Mechanisms. Science. 2004 May 21;304(5674):1120–2. https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1098966
- 18. Heikkila RE, Hess A, Duvoisin RC. Dopaminergic Neurotoxicity of 1-Methyl-4-Phenyl-1,2,5,6-Tetrahydropyridine in Mice. Science. 1984 Jun 29;224(4656):1451–3. https://doi.org/10.1126/science.6610213
- 19. Maiti P, Manna J, Dunbar GL. Current understanding of the molecular mechanisms in Parkinson's disease: Targets for potential treatments. Transl Neurodegener. 2017 Dec;6(1):28. https://doi.org/10.1186/s40035-017-0099-z
- 20. Javitch JA, D'Amato RJ, Strittmatter SM, Snyder SH. Parkinsonism-inducing neurotoxin, N-methyl-4-phenyl-1,2,3,6 -tetrahydropyridine: uptake of the metabolite N-methyl-4-phenylpyridine by dopamine neurons explains selective toxicity. Proc Natl Acad Sci. 1985 Apr;82(7):2173–7. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.82.7.2173
- 21. Fujimaki T, Saiki S, Tashiro E, Yamada D, Kitagawa M, Hattori N, et al. Identification of Licopyranocoumarin and Glycyrurol from Herbal Medicines as Neuroprotective Compounds for Parkinson's Disease. Ariga H, editor. PLoS ONE. 2014 Jun 24;9(6):e100395. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0100395

- 22. Thanvi BR, Lo TCN. Long term motor complications of levodopa: clinical features, mechanisms, and management strategies. Postgrad Med J. 2004 Aug 5;80(946):452–8. https://doi.org/10.1136/pgmj.2003.013912
- 23. Encarnacion EV, Hauser RA. Levodopa-Induced Dyskinesias in Parkinson's Disease: Etiology, Impact on Quality of Life, and Treatments. Eur Neurol. 2008;60(2):57–66. https://doi.org/10.1159/000131893
- 24. Ramachandra VH, Sivanesan S, Koppal A, Anandakumar S, Howell MD, Sukumar E, et al. Embelin and levodopa combination therapy for improved Parkinson's disease treatment. Transl Neurosci. 2022 Jun 29;13(1):145–62. https://doi.org/10.1515/tnsci-2022-0224
- 25. Kouli A, Torsney KM, Kuan WL. Parkinson's Disease: Etiology, Neuropathology, and Pathogenesis. Exon Publ. 2018 Dec 21;3–26. https://doi.org/10.15586/codonpublications.parkinsonsdisease.2018.ch1
- 26. Dong-Chen X, Yong C, Yang X, Chen-Yu S, Li-Hua P. Signaling pathways in Parkinson's disease: molecular mechanisms and therapeutic interventions. Signal Transduct Target Ther. 2023 Feb 21;8(1):73. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41392-023-01353-3
- 27. Keene CD, Rodrigues CMP, Eich T, Chhabra MS, Steer CJ, Low WC. Tauroursodeoxycholic acid, a bile acid, is neuroprotective in a transgenic animal model of Huntington's disease. Proc Natl Acad Sci. 2002 Aug 6;99(16):10671–6. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.162362299
- 28. Nunes AF, Amaral JD, Lo AC, Fonseca MB, Viana RJS, Callaerts-Vegh Z, et al. TUDCA, a Bile Acid, Attenuates Amyloid Precursor Protein Processing and Amyloid-β Deposition in APP/PS1 Mice. Mol Neurobiol. 2012 Jun;45(3):440–54. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12035-012-8256-y
- 29. Rodrigues CMP, Stieers CL, Keene CD, Ma X, Kren BT, Low WC, et al. Tauroursodeoxycholic Acid Partially Prevents Apoptosis Induced by 3-Nitropropionic Acid: Evidence for a Mitochondrial Pathway Independent of the Permeability Transition. J Neurochem. 2000 Dec;75(6):2368–79. https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1471-4159.2000.0752368.x
- 30. Ved R, Saha S, Westlund B, Perier C, Burnam L, Sluder A, et al. Similar Patterns of Mitochondrial Vulnerability and Rescue Induced by Genetic Modification of α-Synuclein, Parkin, and DJ-1 in Caenorhabditis elegans. J Biol Chem. 2005 Dec;280(52):42655–68. https://doi.org/10.1074/jbc.m505910200
- 31. Castro-Caldas M, Carvalho AN, Rodrigues E, Henderson CJ, Wolf CR, Rodrigues CMP, et al. Tauroursodeoxycholic Acid Prevents MPTP-Induced Dopaminergic Cell Death

- in a Mouse Model of Parkinson's Disease. Mol Neurobiol. 2012 Oct;46(2):475–86. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12035-012-8295-4
- 32. Moreira S, Fonseca I, Nunes MJ, Rosa A, Lemos L, Rodrigues E, et al. Nrf2 activation by tauroursodeoxycholic acid in experimental models of Parkinson's disease. Exp Neurol. 2017 Sep;295:77–87. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.expneurol.2017.05.009
- 33. Rosa AI, Fonseca I, Nunes MJ, Moreira S, Rodrigues E, Carvalho AN, et al. Novel insights into the antioxidant role of tauroursodeoxycholic acid in experimental models of Parkinson's disease. Biochim Biophys Acta BBA Mol Basis Dis. 2017 Sep;1863(9):2171–81. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bbadis.2017.06.004
- 34. Rosa AI, Duarte-Silva S, Silva-Fernandes A, Nunes MJ, Carvalho AN, Rodrigues E, et al. Tauroursodeoxycholic Acid Improves Motor Symptoms in a Mouse Model of Parkinson's Disease. Mol Neurobiol. 2018 Dec;55(12):9139–55. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12035-018-1062-4
- 35. Chu Y, Hirst WD, Federoff HJ, Harms AS, Stoessl AJ, Kordower JH. Nigrostriatal tau pathology in parkinsonism and Parkinson's disease. Brain. 2024 Feb 1;147(2):444–57. https://doi.org/10.1093/brain/awad388
- 36. Heng Y, Li YY, Wen L, Yan JQ, Chen NH, Yuan YH. Gastric Enteric Glial Cells: A New Contributor to the Synucleinopathies in the MPTP-Induced Parkinsonism Mouse. Mol Basel Switz. 2022 Nov 1;27(21):7414. https://doi.org/10.3390/molecules27217414
- 37. Aktas B. Gut Microbial Alteration in MPTP Mouse Model of Parkinson Disease is Administration Regimen Dependent. Cell Mol Neurobiol. 2023 Aug;43(6):2815–29. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10571-023-01319-7
- 38. Braak H, de Vos RAI, Bohl J, Del Tredici K. Gastric alpha-synuclein immunoreactive inclusions in Meissner's and Auerbach's plexuses in cases staged for Parkinson's disease-related brain pathology. Neurosci Lett. 2006 Mar 20;396(1):67–72. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neulet.2005.11.012
- 39. Luk KC, Kehm V, Carroll J, Zhang B, O'Brien P, Trojanowski JQ, et al. Pathological α-synuclein transmission initiates Parkinson-like neurodegeneration in nontransgenic mice. Science. 2012 Nov 16;338(6109):949–53. https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1227157
- 40. Holmqvist S, Chutna O, Bousset L, Aldrin-Kirk P, Li W, Björklund T, et al. Direct evidence of Parkinson pathology spread from the gastrointestinal tract to the brain in rats. Acta Neuropathol (Berl). 2014 Dec;128(6):805–20. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00401-014-1343-6

- 41. Haggerty T, Credle J, Rodriguez O, Wills J, Oaks AW, Masliah E, et al. Hyperphosphorylated Tau in an α-synuclein-overexpressing transgenic model of Parkinson's disease: Tauopathy in transgenic mice and PD. Eur J Neurosci. 2011 May;33(9):1598–610. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1460-9568.2011.07660.x
- 42. Hu S, Hu M, Liu J, Zhang B, Zhang Z, Zhou FH, et al. Phosphorylation of Tau and α-Synuclein Induced Neurodegeneration in MPTP Mouse Model of Parkinson's Disease. Neuropsychiatr Dis Treat. 2020 Mar 4;16:651–63. https://doi.org/10.2147/NDT.S235562
- 43. Leem YH, Park JS, Park JE, Kim DY, Kang JL, Kim HS. Papaverine inhibits α-synuclein aggregation by modulating neuroinflammation and matrix metalloproteinase-3 expression in the subacute MPTP/P mouse model of Parkinson's disease. Biomed Pharmacother Biomedecine Pharmacother. 2020 Oct;130:110576. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biopha.2020.110576
- 44. Purisai MG, McCormack AL, Langston WJ, Johnston LC, Di Monte DA. Alphasynuclein expression in the substantia nigra of MPTP-lesioned non-human primates. Neurobiol Dis. 2005 Dec;20(3):898–906. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.nbd.2005.05.028
- 45. Vermilyea SC, Guthrie S, Hernandez I, Bondarenko V, Emborg ME. α-Synuclein expression is preserved in substantia nigra GABAergic fibers of young and aged neurotoxin-treated rhesus monkeys. Cell Transplant. 2019;28(5):547–556. https://journals.sagepub.com/doi/full/10.1177/0963689719835794.
- 46. Mustapha M, Mat Taib CN. MPTP-induced mouse model of Parkinson's disease: A promising direction of therapeutic strategies. Bosn J Basic Med Sci. 2021 Aug 1;21(4):422–33. https://doi.org/10.17305/bjbms.2020.5181
- 47. Meredith GE, Rademacher DJ. MPTP mouse models of Parkinson's disease: an update. J Park Dis. 2011;1(1):19–33. https://doi.org/10.3233/jpd-2011-11023
- 48. Wang LY, Yu X, Li XX, Zhao YN, Wang CY, Wang ZY, et al. Catalpol exerts a neuroprotective effect in the MPTP mouse model of Parkinson's disease. Front Aging Neurosci. 2019 Nov 15;11:316. https://doi.org/10.3389/fnagi.2019.00316
- 49. Chandra R, Hiniker A, Kuo YM, Nussbaum RL, Liddle RA. α-Synuclein in gut endocrine cells and its implications for Parkinson's disease. JCI Insight. 2017 Jun 15;2(12):e92295. https://doi.org/10.1172/jci.insight.92295
- 50. Wang Q, Liu Y, Zhou J. Neuroinflammation in Parkinson's disease and its potential as therapeutic target. Transl Neurodegener. 2015 Dec;4(1):19. https://doi.org/10.1186/s40035-015-0042-0

- 51. Choi DY, Liu M, Hunter RL, Cass WA, Pandya JD, Sullivan PG, et al. Striatal Neuroinflammation Promotes Parkinsonism in Rats. Gendelman HE, editor. PLoS ONE. 2009 May 8;4(5):e5482. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0005482
- 52. Bellucci A, Bubacco L, Longhena F, Parrella E, Faustini G, Porrini V, et al. Nuclear Factor-κB Dysregulation and α-Synuclein Pathology: Critical Interplay in the Pathogenesis of Parkinson's Disease. Front Aging Neurosci. 2020 Mar 24;12:68. https://doi.org/10.3389/fnagi.2020.00068
- 53. Ghosh A, Roy A, Liu X, Kordower JH, Mufson EJ, Hartley DM, et al. Selective inhibition of NF- B activation prevents dopaminergic neuronal loss in a mouse model of Parkinson's disease. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0704908104
- 54. Alam G, Edler M, Burchfield S, Richardson JR. Single low doses of MPTP decrease tyrosine hydroxylase expression in the absence of overt neuron loss. NeuroToxicology. 2017 May;60:99–106. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuro.2017.03.008
- 55. Goloborshcheva VV, Kucheryanu VG, Voronina NA, Teterina EV, Ustyugov AA, Morozov SG. Synuclein Proteins in MPTP-Induced Death of Substantia Nigra Pars Compacta Dopaminergic Neurons. Biomedicines. 2022 Sep 14;10(9):2278. https://doi.org/10.3390/biomedicines10092278
- 56. Kozina EA, Khakimova GR, Khaindrava VG, Kucheryanu VG, Vorobyeva NE, Krasnov AN, et al. Tyrosine hydroxylase expression and activity in nigrostriatal dopaminergic neurons of MPTP-treated mice at the presymptomatic and symptomatic stages of parkinsonism. J Neurol Sci. 2014 May;340(1–2):198–207. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jns.2014.03.028
- 57. Ramesh S, Arachchige ASPM. Depletion of dopamine in Parkinson's disease and relevant therapeutic options: A review of the literature. AIMS Neurosci. 2023;10(3):200–31. https://doi.org/10.3934/neuroscience.2023017
- 58. Silver D. Impact of Functional Age on the Use of Dopamine Agonists in Patients With Parkinson Disease. The Neurologist. 2006 Jul;12(4):214–23. https://doi.org/10.1097/01.nrl.0000215782.78763.fa
- 59. Kastner A, Hirsch EC, Agid Y, Javoy-Agid F. Tyrosine hydroxylase protein and messenger RNA in the dopaminergic nigral neurons of patients with Parkinson's disease. Brain Res. 1993 Mar;606(2):341–5. https://doi.org/10.1016/0006-8993(93)91005-d
- 60. Kolacheva A, Alekperova L, Pavlova E, Bannikova A, Ugrumov MV. Changes in Tyrosine Hydroxylase Activity and Dopamine Synthesis in the Nigrostriatal System of Mice

- in an Acute Model of Parkinson's Disease as a Manifestation of Neurodegeneration and Neuroplasticity. Brain Sci. 2022 Jun 14;12(6):779. https://doi.org/10.3390/brainsci12060779
- 61. Rausch WD, Wang F, Radad K. From the tyrosine hydroxylase hypothesis of Parkinson's disease to modern strategies: a short historical overview. J Neural Transm. 2022 Jun;129(5–6):487–95. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00702-022-02488-3
- 62. Smeyne RJ, Breckenridge CB, Beck M, Jiao Y, Butt MT, Wolf JC, et al. Assessment of the Effects of MPTP and Paraquat on Dopaminergic Neurons and Microglia in the Substantia Nigra Pars Compacta of C57BL/6 Mice. Tansey MG, editor. PLOS ONE. 2016 Oct 27;11(10):e0164094. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0164094
- 63. He X, Yang S, Zhang R, Hou L, Xu J, Hu Y, et al. Smilagenin Protects Dopaminergic Neurons in Chronic MPTP/Probenecid—Lesioned Parkinson's Disease Models. Front Cell Neurosci. 2019 Feb 5;13:18. https://doi.org/10.3389/fncel.2019.00018
- 64. Rehman IU, Khan A, Ahmad R, Choe K, Park HY, Lee HJ, et al. Neuroprotective Effects of Nicotinamide against MPTP-Induced Parkinson's Disease in Mice: Impact on Oxidative Stress, Neuroinflammation, Nrf2/HO-1 and TLR4 Signaling Pathways. Biomedicines. 2022 Nov 14;10(11):2929. https://doi.org/10.3390/biomedicines10112929
- 65. Gao HM, Kotzbauer PT, Uryu K, Leight S, Trojanowski JQ, Lee VMY. Neuroinflammation and Oxidation/Nitration of α-Synuclein Linked to Dopaminergic Neurodegeneration. J Neurosci. 2008 Jul 23;28(30):7687–98. https://doi.org/10.1523/jneurosci.0143-07.2008
- 66. Rodrigues CMP, Solá S, Sharpe JC, Moura JJG, Steer CJ. Tauroursodeoxycholic Acid Prevents Bax-Induced Membrane Perturbation and Cytochrome *c* Release in Isolated Mitochondria. Biochemistry. 2003 Mar 1;42(10):3070–80. https://doi.org/10.1021/bi026979d
- 67. Douma EH, Stoop J, Lingl MVR, Smidt MP, Van Der Heide LP. Phosphodiesterase inhibition and Gucy2C activation enhance tyrosine hydroxylase Ser40 phosphorylation and improve 6-hydroxydopamine-induced motor deficits. Cell Biosci. 2024 Oct 25;14(1):132. https://doi.org/10.1186/s13578-024-01312-7
- 68. Stayte S, Rentsch P, Tröscher AR, Bamberger M, Li KM, Vissel B. Activin A Inhibits MPTP and LPS-Induced Increases in Inflammatory Cell Populations and Loss of Dopamine Neurons in the Mouse Midbrain In Vivo. Lee J, editor. PLOS ONE. 2017 Jan 25;12(1):e0167211. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0167211
- 69. Williams GP, Schonhoff AM, Jurkuvenaite A, Gallups NJ, Standaert DG, Harms AS. CD4 T cells mediate brain inflammation and neurodegeneration in a mouse model of

- Parkinson's disease. Brain. 2021 Aug 17;144(7):2047–59. https://doi.org/10.1093/brain/awab103
- 70. Wu DC, Jackson-Lewis V, Vila M, Tieu K, Teismann P, Vadseth C, et al. Blockade of Microglial Activation Is Neuroprotective in the 1-Methyl-4-Phenyl-1,2,3,6-Tetrahydropyridine Mouse Model of Parkinson Disease. J Neurosci. 2002 Mar 1;22(5):1763–71. https://doi.org/10.1523/jneurosci.22-05-01763.2002
- 71. Cuevas E, Burks S, Raymick J, Robinson B, Gómez-Crisóstomo NP, Escudero-Lourdes C, et al. Tauroursodeoxycholic acid (TUDCA) is neuroprotective in a chronic mouse model of Parkinson's disease. Nutr Neurosci. 2022 Jul 3;25(7):1374–91. https://doi.org/10.1080/1028415x.2020.1859729
- 72. Khalaf K, Tornese P, Cocco A, Albanese A. Tauroursodeoxycholic acid: a potential therapeutic tool in neurodegenerative diseases. Transl Neurodegener. 2022 Jun 4;11(1):33. https://doi.org/10.1186/s40035-022-00307-z
- 73. Rabin ML, Stevens-Haas C, Havrilla E, Rosenstein A, Toffey B, Devi T, et al. Complementary Therapies for Parkinson's Disease: What's Promoted, Rationale, Potential Risks and Benefits. Mov Disord Clin Pract. 2015 Sep;2(3):205–12. https://doi.org/10.1002/mdc3.12170
- 74. Elkouzi A, Vedam-Mai V, Eisinger RS, Okun MS. Emerging therapies in Parkinson disease repurposed drugs and new approaches. Nat Rev Neurol. 2019 Apr;15(4):204–23. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41582-019-0155-7
- 75. Lamptey RNL, Chaulagain B, Trivedi R, Gothwal A, Layek B, Singh J. A Review of the Common Neurodegenerative Disorders: Current Therapeutic Approaches and the Potential Role of Nanotherapeutics. Int J Mol Sci. 2022 Feb 6;23(3):1851. https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms23031851
- 76. Koppal A, Sivanesan S, Ramachandra VH, Sukumar E, Vijayaraghavan R. Embelin and Levodopa Combination Therapy Mitigates Parkinson's Disease Complications in Mice. Indian J Pharm Educ Res. 2021 Jun 13;55(2s):s468–78. https://doi.org/10.1515/tnsci-2022-0224

# TABLES AND FIGURES WITH LEGENDS

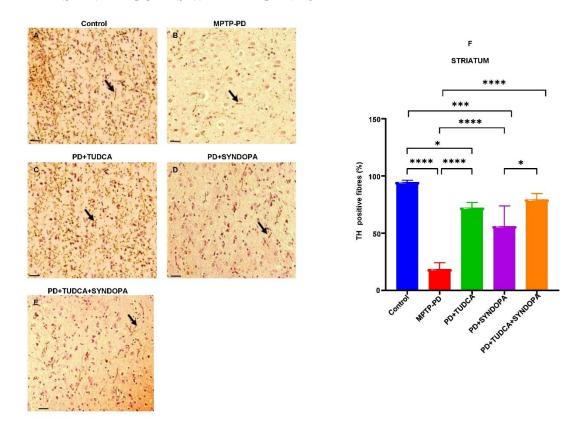


Figure 1. Tyrosine hydroxylase expression analysis in the brain striatum. The midbrain sections of mouse brains were immunostained with a specific anti-tyrosine hydroxylase (TH) antibody. The TH-positive fibers in the striatum were observed under the light microscope and counted. A-E) The representative microscopic images of the various study groups are shown here. Magnification – 400X; Scale bar –  $20 \mu m$ . F) The bar diagram shows the % expression of TH fibers in the brain striatum. The data are represented as means + SD (n=5 or 6). \*P < .05; \*\*\*P < .001; \*\*\*\*P < .0001.

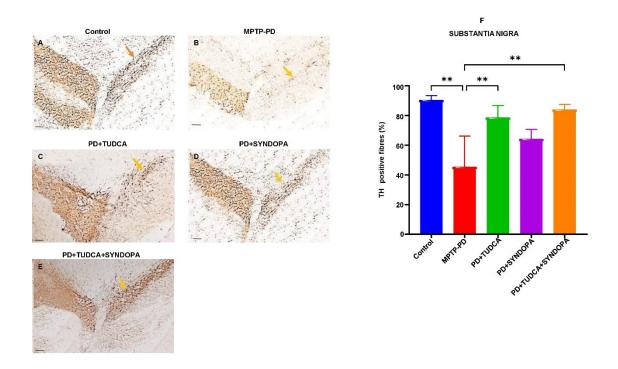


Figure 2. Tyrosine hydroxylase expression analysis in the brain SNpc. The midbrain sections of mouse brains were immunostained with a specific anti-tyrosine hydroxylase (TH) antibody. The TH-positive fibers in SNpc were observed under the light microscope and counted. A-E) The representative microscopic images of the various study groups are shown here. Magnification – 200X; Scale bar – 200  $\mu$ m. F) The bar diagram shows the % expression of TH fibers in the brain SNpc. The data are represented as means + SD (n= 5 or 6). \*\*P< .01.

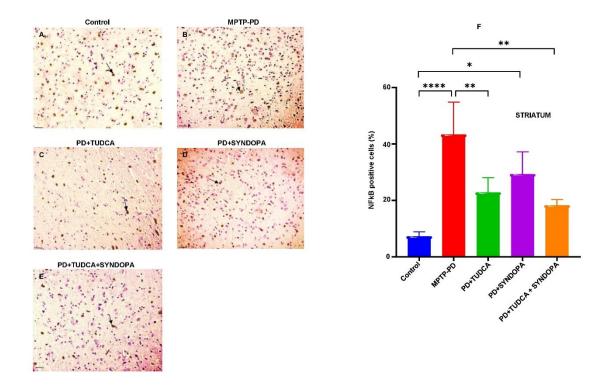


Figure 3. NF-kB expression analysis in the brain striatum. The midbrain sections of mouse brains were immunostained with a specific anti-NF-kB antibody. The NF-kB-positive cells in the striatum were observed under the light microscope and counted. A-E) The representative microscopic images of the various study groups are shown here. Magnification -600X; Scale bar  $-50 \mu m$ . F) The bar diagram shows the % expression of NF-kB in the brain striatum. The data are represented as means + SD (n=5 or 6). \*P < .05; \*\*P < .01; \*\*\*\*P < .0001.

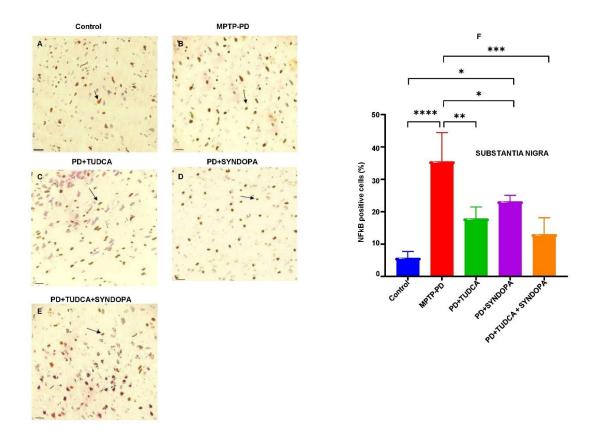


Figure 4. NF-kB expression analysis in the brain SNpc. The midbrain sections of mouse brains were immunostained with a specific anti-NF-kB antibody. The NF-kB-positive cells in the SNpc were observed under the light microscope and counted. A-E) The representative microscopic images of the various study groups are shown here. Magnification – 600X; Scale bar – 50  $\mu$ m. F) The bar diagram shows the % expression of NF-kB in the brain SNpc. The data are represented as means + SD (n=5 or 6). \*P < .05; \*\*P < .01; \*\*\*P < .001; \*\*\*\*P < .001.

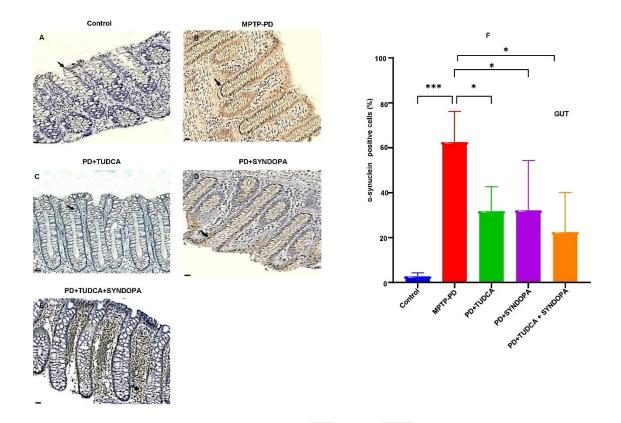


Figure 5. The expression analysis of α-synuclein in the gut. The transverse sections of mucosa and submucosa tissues were immunostained with a specific anti-α-synuclein antibody. The α-synuclein-positive cells in gut tissues were observed under the light microscope and counted. A-E) The representative microscopic images of the various study groups are shown here. Magnification – 400X; Scale bar – 200 μm. F) The bar diagram shows the % expression of α-synuclein in the mucosa and submucosa tissues of the gut. The data are represented as means + SD (n=5 or 6). \*P < .05; \*\*\*P < .001.

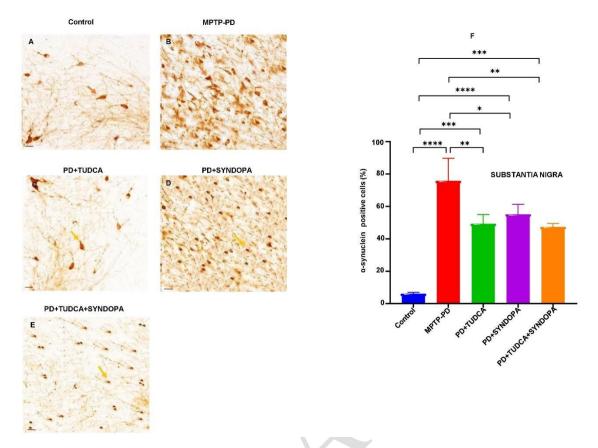


Figure 6. The expression analysis of α-synuclein in the brain SNpc. The midbrain sections of mouse brains were immunostained with a specific anti-α-synuclein antibody. The α-synuclein-positive cells in the SNpc were observed under the light microscope and counted. A-E) The representative microscopic images of the various study groups are shown here. Magnification – 400X; Scale bar – 50 μm. F) The bar diagram shows the % expression of α-synuclein in the brain SNpc. The data are represented as means + SD (n=5 or 6). \*P< .05; \*\*P< .01; \*\*\*P< .001; \*\*\*P< .001.

# SUPPLEMENTAL DATA

Supplemental data are available at the following link:

https://www.bjbms.org/ojs/index.php/bjbms/article/view/12519/3979