# Does a Session of Endurance Training with Three Different Intensities Affect the Cerebral Dopamine Neurotrophic Factor, superoxide dismutase, and malondialdehyde Levels of Cerebral Cortex in Male Rats?

# Hossein Shirvani<sup>1</sup>, Jalil Aslani<sup>1</sup>, Ziya Fallah Mohammadi<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Exercise Physiology Research Center, Baqiyatallah University of Medical Sciences, Tehran, Iran, <sup>2</sup>Department of Exercise Physiology, Faculty of Sport Sciences, University of Mazandaran, Babolsar, Iran

### Abstract

**Background and Objectives:** Parkinson's disease through abnormalities in the body's control centers causes symptoms such as tremor at rest, bradykinesia, muscular rigidity, and postural instability. The disease occurs due to the degeneration of cells secreting a substance called dopamine (catecholamine neurotransmitter). The purpose of this study was to investigate the effect of a session of endurance training with three different intensities on cerebral dopamine neurotrophic factor (CDNF), superoxide dismutase (SOD), and malondialdehyde (MDA) levels of cerebral cortex in male rats. **Materials and Methods:** The rats were divided into two main control and training groups. The training group consisted of low-, moderate-, and high-intensity trainings. The training groups (three groups with 24 rats in total), after getting acquainted with the rodent treadmill, were dealt with an acute training session with three different intensities. The CDNF level of the cerebral cortex was measured by ELISA assay, and the SOD and MDA levels of cerebral cortex by spectrophotometry. Data were analyzed using one-way analysis of variance and least significant difference *post hoc* test. **Results:** The acute training with different intensities significantly increases the CDNF and SOD levels of cerebral cortex and prevents the increase in MDA level of cerebral cortex.

Key words: Cerebral dopamine neurotrophic factor, endurance training, superoxide dismutase, malondialdehyde

## INTRODUCTION

Here the training targets many aspects of brain function and has a widespread impact on the overall health of the brain. The training increases synaptic variability by directly affecting the synaptic structure and enhancing synaptic strength, as well as by strengthening the mechanisms associated with variability, including neurogenesis, metabolism, and vascular function. These structural and functional changes have been proven by the training in different regions of the brain and have been well studied in the hippocampus. The main mechanism of mediating these broad benefits of the training

in the brain is the induction of central and peripheral growth factors and growth factor cascades that lead to structural and functional changes.<sup>[1]</sup> Neurotrophic factors are secretory proteins that bind to their target receptors to prevent the reduction in the neuronal cells.<sup>[2]</sup> Cerebral dopamine neurotrophic factor (CDNF) is a newly detected neurotrophic agent with neurotrophic, neuroprotective, and neuroregenerative activities.<sup>[3]</sup> The CDNF has the

#### Address for correspondence:

Ms. Jalil Aslani, Exercise Physiology Research Center, Baqiyatallah University of Medical Sciences, Tehran, Iran. E-mail: aslani\_jalil68@yahoo.com

**Received:** 01-05-2018 **Revised:** 28-05-2018 **Accepted:** 08-06-2018 ability to protect the function of dopaminergic cells in mouse models of Parkinson's disease.<sup>[4]</sup> Furthermore, the CDNF protein can be useful in the treatment of Parkinson's disease.<sup>[2]</sup> However, the mechanism of neuroprotection of the CDNF is not well defined.<sup>[2]</sup> The CDNF is a protein playing a major role not only in the survival of neurons but also in the survival, proliferation, and differentiation of non-neuronal cells and tissues. The CDNF is distributed mainly in central nervous system cells including the hippocampus, cerebral cortex, midbrain, cerebellum, substantia nigra, and corpus striatum.<sup>[5]</sup> Human studies suggested hippocampal atrophy with Parkinson's disease.<sup>[6]</sup> The neurons of substantia nigra and corpus striatum are damaged in the Parkinson's disease, and hippocampus is the most vulnerable brain area to oxidative stress because of their high ability in neuronal variability.<sup>[7]</sup>

Oxidative stress following the formation of free radicals is thought to play a major role in the neuropathology of the disease.<sup>[8]</sup> The intrastriatal injection of 6-hydroxydopamine (6-OHDA) at a predetermined dosage in rats results in progressive and gradual loss of dopaminergic neurons in the substantia nigra whose trend is similar to the neuropathology of the Parkinson's disease and is considered as a valid empirical model for showing the stages of the onset of the disease.<sup>[9]</sup> The neurotoxin 6-OHDA through producing free radicals, which in turn have cytotoxic effect, disrupts calcium homeostasis by increasing the penetration or exacerbation of release from intracellular reserves,<sup>[10]</sup> affecting the genetic regulation and induction of apoptosis<sup>[3]</sup> and causing neuronal death. For the last three decades, levodopa has been employed as the best medicine for Parkinson's treatment. Apart from the positive effects of this drug, its long-term usage results in side effects such as turbulence (excitement and stimulation), hallucinations, psychiatric problems, dyspareunia, and excessive sexuality,<sup>[11]</sup> encouraging further search for better treatment and prevention methods for the disease.

Recent research has shown that there is a relationship between tremor and immobility.<sup>[12]</sup> In this regard, the training is important and it is shown to prevent orthopedic problems associated with its primary symptoms.<sup>[13]</sup> The training can change the level of neurotransmitter release, such as glutamate, dopamine, acetylcholine, and serotonin in the brain.<sup>[14]</sup> Evidence suggests that the training will activate the dopaminergic system of the brain and increase the dopamine present in corpus striatum. These findings increase the likelihood that the training reduces the vulnerability of dopaminergic neurons to 6-OHDA.<sup>[15]</sup> In this area, researchers have argued that the exercises increasingly enhance survival rate and resistance to brain damage and increase the nerve growth of the hippocampus.<sup>[16]</sup> Among the various training patterns, voluntary wheel running, compulsory treadmill run, and resilient muscular movement are the most commonly used training models. These trainings, apart from their physical benefits, improve cognitive function and facilitate neuroregeneration after brain damage. The training seems to be effective in improving brain function by balancing redox state, which increases resistance to oxidative stress and accelerates oxidative stress elimination.<sup>[17]</sup> The training increases the survival of the nerve cells and facilitates the functioning of the brain after injury. Some concluded that overtraining fatigue can lead to the production of free radicals, while short-term submaximal training with 70% maximal oxygen consumption may reduce lipid peroxidation.<sup>[18]</sup> In an overview article, regular training has reduced oxidative stress, and overtraining has increased the oxidative stress.<sup>[19]</sup>

Linden et al. (2007) examined the protective effect of CDNF on 6-OHDA-mediated Parkinsonian mice and found that injectable CDNF into corpus striatum retained the function of dopaminergic neurons and prevented the degeneration of these neurons.<sup>[4]</sup> In the only study regarding training and changes in the levels of CDNF, it has been shown that a long-term volunteer training activity increases the CDNF level of cerebral cortex in an experimental mice model of 6-OHDA (Fallah Mohammadi et al., under press). Apparently, volunteer training activities have a neuroprotective role in counteracting the 6-OHDA neurotoxicity, which is applied by the CDNF. Can the endurance training protect neurodegeneration from injectable toxins by increasing the CDNF levels in other parts of the brain? Therefore, due to the fact that the protective effects of endurance training with different intensities on the CDNF, superoxide dismutase (SOD) and MDA levels of cerebral cortex in male rats have not been studied so far, and the purpose of this study was to determine the impact of a session of endurance training with three different intensities on CDNF, SOD, and MDA levels of cerebral cortex in male rats.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

#### The study animals

In this study, 32 male Wistar rats (aged twelve weeks) were obtained from the Pasteur Institute of Amol. The animals were transferred to the laboratory for 2 weeks to adapt to the new environment as groups of four rats in transparent polycarbonate cages at a temperature of

20°C–24°C, humidity of 45%–55%, and kept in 12: 12h light-dark cycle. During the research period, the animals had free access to food (Pellet, Bahapparvar Co., Iran) and water (through special bottles).

#### The animal grouping

The rats after 7 sessions of getting acquainted with the activity on the rodent treadmill were divided randomly into two main control and training groups. The training groups consisted of low-, moderate-, and high-intensity trainings. Since the weight of the animals was not exactly the same, they were weighed and classified in cages with a weight difference of 20 g to homogenize the subjects in terms of weight. Then, a mouse was selected randomly from each of the cages with a determined weight category and placed in the main groups. We tried to get the average weight between the different groups as close as possible. Accordingly, the mean weight of the rats in different groups after the study classification was  $210 \pm 7$  g on average.

#### The training protocol

The training groups (three groups with 24 rats in total), after getting acquainted with the rodent treadmill (Faculty of Physical Education, Mazandaran University), were dealt with an acute training session with three different intensities. The maximum stress failure criterion of the mice was the contact of each subject during the 2 min 5 times with shocker of the rodent treadmill [Table 2].

#### **Biopsy**

At first, the mice were anesthetized by combining ketamine and xylazine at a ratio of 60:40. The mouse head was cut off with a special scissor; the whole brain was removed from the braincase and immediately placed in liquid nitrogen. The hippocampus was then dissected from other parts of the brain. The tissues were kept at -80°C. After homogenization with centrifugation, the CDNF levels of the groups were measured by a laboratory kit (CUSABIO, China). Coefficient of dispersion and sensitivity of this method are 0.039 ng/ml and 8%, respectively.

Table 1: The changes the weight of subjects in groups			
Groups	Weight (g)	n	
Control (pre-test)	215.4	8	
Low-intensity training	214.7	8	
Moderate-intensity training	215.3	8	
High-intensity training	213.8	8	

# Measuring superoxide dismutase enzyme activity, protein, and malondialdehyde of cerebral cortex

The SOD activity was measured by the spectrophotometry and the protein content using a conventional Bradford method based on the reference. The MDA level was measured based on the thiobarbituric acid reaction at a boiling point using the spectrophotometry according to Aslani *et al.*<sup>[20]</sup>

#### RESULTS

The changes in the CDNF levels of cerebral cortex and the weight of subjects in all groups are shown in Table 1, which are as follows:

The normal distribution of data was investigated using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. One-way analysis of variance showed that there is a significant difference between the CDNF, SOD, and MDA levels of cerebral cortex after a session of endurance training with different intensities (P = 0.025, P = 0.006, and P = 0.0008). The results of the least significant difference post hoc test showed no significant difference between the CDNF [Chart 1] and SOD levels [Chart 2] of cerebral cortex in the low-intensity and control groups (P = 0.28 and P = 0.22, respectively). In addition, the mean CDNF level showed no significant difference between the low- and moderate-intensity groups (P = 0.28), as well as between the moderate- and high-intensity groups (P =0.28). A significant difference was seen in the CDNF level between low- and high-intensity groups, as well as between high-intensity group and control group. Furthermore, the SOD level was increased significantly among all groups (except for control and low-intensity groups). Among all groups, the training with different intensities significantly prevents the increase in MDA level [Chart 3] of cerebral cortex.

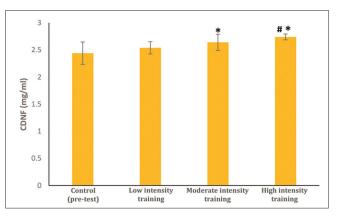
### DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effect of training with different intensities on the CDNF, SOD, and MDA levels of cerebral cortex in male rats. This is the first study to investigate the effect of different intensities of training on CDNF, SOD, and MDA levels of cerebral cortex. The main finding of this study showed a significant relationship between training and changes in CDNF, SOD, and MDA levels of cerebral cortex. The study results revealed that an increase in the training intensity significantly increased the CDNF and SOD levels and

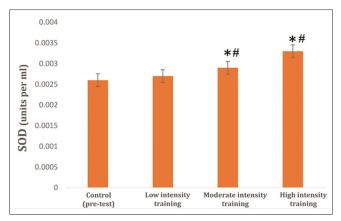
Table 2: The training protocol			
Groups	Training status	n	Description
Control (pre-test)	-	8	The untrained group kept in the cage during the training period (determining the effect of age and weight)
Low-intensity training	Training	8	The group that was practiced with a training session at 15 m/min for 30 min on the rodent treadmill and was sacrificed 2 h after the end of the training
Moderate-intensity training	Training	8	The group that was practiced with a training session at 25 m/min for 30 min on the rodent treadmill and was sacrificed 2 h after the end of the training
High-intensity training	Training	8	The group that was practiced with a training session at 12 m/min, followed by adding 3 m every 3 min to reach a final speed of 24 m/min. From this point on, the subjects were active until stress failure and then sacrificed after 2 h

also prevented the increase in the MDA level. It can be said that the high-intensity training more than the low- and moderate-intensity trainings has been able to increase the CDNF levels of cerebral cortex. In this study, the CDNF and SOD levels showed a direct correlation with training intensity. No research has been done so far to investigate the effect of trainings with different intensities on the CDNF, SOD, and MDA levels of cerebral cortex. As a result, the findings of this study will be compared with studies that investigated the effects of training with different intensities and protocols in various tissues regarding the neurotrophic factors.

The physical exercise increases the activity of the endogenous antioxidant system in the brain. It has been suggested that several factors, including genes, neurotransmitters and neurotrophins, contribute to the useful effect of the training on the functions of the brain. The neurotrophins include nerve growth factor, basic fibroblast growth factor, insulin-like growth factor 1, brain-derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF), and neurotrophic factor 3 to 7 play a key role in the survival, differentiation, communication, and formation of neurons.<sup>[21]</sup> Michael et al. in 2009 showed that the glial cell line-derived neurotrophic factor (GDNF) prevents dopamine depletion. They also attributed the training's usefulness to increase the amount of endogenous antioxidants and reduce the destructive degree of oxidative stress. Increasing the antioxidant capacity through training occurs by increasing glutathione peroxidase, SOD, catalase, and heat shock protein. The training with increased expression of neurotrophins, including the GDNF, can lead to an improvement in intracellular defense against reactive oxygen species

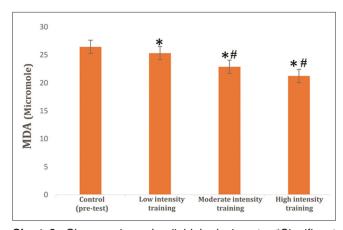


**Chart 1:** Changes in cerebral dopamine neurotrophic factor in rats. \*Significant difference with control group. #Significant difference with low-intensity group



**Chart 2:** Changes in superoxide dismutase in rats. \*Significant difference with control group. #Significant difference with low-intensity group

(ROS), thereby increasing the antioxidant capacity. The GDNF also prevents dopaminergic neuronal vulnerability



**Chart 3:** Changes in malondialdehyde in rats. \*Significant difference with control group. #Significant difference with low-intensity group

and increases dopamine secretion. Reducing the destructive degree of oxidative stress occurs when training creates a moderate oxidative stress to prevent severe stress. This action happens by establishing compatibility. The findings of this study indicate that the endurance training affects brain mitochondria by the increase in antioxidant capacity and a reduction in the oxidative factors. Reducing these oxidative factors explains the increased protective factors of the brain.<sup>[22]</sup> One of the profound effects of endurance training is to stimulate mitochondrial survival by increasing the number of mitochondria that is developed after a few weeks of training. This increase in the number of mitochondria causes high-energy availability, the low production of ROS, and other beneficial processes that all play a neuroprotective role. 4 weeks of voluntary training on treadmill by male and female mice showed an increase in density and function of mitochondria. These findings suggest that training through enhancing mitochondrial production is likely to be effective in preventing diseases associated with mitochondrial defects such as aging and degenerative disorders.<sup>[23]</sup> The findings from animal studies support the concept that the training may induce mechanisms regulating BDNF that enhances neuronal variability that is another effective mechanism from training.<sup>[17]</sup> It can be guessed that the mesencephalic astrocyte-derived neurotrophic factor (MANF) and CDNF may be activated as a result of stimulation of physiological damage. Although the CDNF and MANF affect dopaminergic and cortical neurons, more studies are needed to find more about their effects on peripheral nervous system neurons or other types of neurons in living organisms.<sup>[24]</sup> As mentioned, the neurotrophins are important in the treatment of neurological diseases. The CDNF has been considered for its importance in the treatment of neuronal

diseases such as Parkinson's disease. Today, drug therapy is used to treat Parkinson's disease. L-Dopa is used as the main drug for the treatment of Parkinsonian people. This medication has side effects; for example, the dopamine increases the frontal lobe of the brain. It also increases the level of stress-related hormone such as serum corticosterone.<sup>[25]</sup> These two factors may be two major mental health concerns for Parkinson's patients. For this reason, researchers are trying to find better ways to cure. One of these strategies is the increase in neurotrophic factors. Parkinson's disease results in dopamine deficiency in the corpus striatum and indirectly in the cortical dysfunction. The increases in glutamate transfer in the basal ganglia are observed in Parkinson's disease. and glutamate mediates excitotoxicity. It has been suggested that this agent may lead to the neurodegeneration. High concentrations of extracellular glutamate act as a neurotoxin and cause cellular damage and cell death in Parkinson's patients.<sup>[26]</sup> The BDNF regulates the release of glutamate from cortical neurons.<sup>[27]</sup> Recently, the CDNF is known as neurotrophin. The CDNF may be important, like the BDNF, to regulate the release of glutamate in the cerebral cortex. Several studies have been conducted on the effects of neurotrophins on nervous system diseases. In the studies on neuroprotective effects, it has been concluded that injection of 10 µg of CDNF into corpus striatum 6 h before injection of 6-OHDA into corpus striatum significantly reduced the rotational behavior by 2 and 4 h after intoxication. Furthermore, the number of hydroxylase-positive tyrosine (TH-positive) dopaminergic cells in substantia nigra and TH fibers positive in corpus striatum was significantly higher in the rats exposed to the CDNF. It has been shown that the CDNF is a protein released into in vitro environment to dopaminergic neurons from death. The save neuroprotective effects of CDNF are dose-dependent, as 3 µg of the CDNF significantly reduced rotational behavior in Parkinsonian rats and increased the number of TH-positive cells in substantia nigra, which was lower than that of effect with 10 µg. The protective effects of CDNF were significantly lower at the dose of 1  $\mu$ g.<sup>[28]</sup> The studies on neuroregeneration indicated that the injection of 10 µg of CDNF into corpus striatum 4 weeks after injection of 6-OHDA into corpus striatum resulted in the recovery of functional activity of the dopaminergic system in corpus striatum-substantia nigra in adult rats. The implementation of training programs is one of these ways of increasing neurotrophins. Researchers have argued that physical activity has beneficial effects on brain health, including energy metabolism, synaptic variability, increased cognitive function-related proteins, and mitochondrial function.

Training can also have a protective effect against several neurological diseases such as Parkinson's and Alzheimer's.<sup>[28]</sup> Several studies have been conducted on the effects of training on neurotrophic factors. For example, in a study conducted by Mirzaei et al., the effects of three training periods of 30, 60, and 90 min on treadmill for 8 weeks were investigated on the changes in the hippocampus BDNF. A study of the levels of hippocampal BDNF in training groups of 30, 60, and 90 min showed that the levels of hippocampus BDNF were significantly increased in the 60-min training group compared to the 30-min training group, sham group, and control. The levels of hippocampal BDNF in the 90-min training group were significantly increased compared to sham and control groups. As we know, severity and duration have a direct impact on the protective responses.<sup>[29]</sup> It has also been shown that the training intensity affects on neurogenesis and the expression of BDNF mRNA and N-methyl-D-aspartate receptor type 1, vascular endothelial growth factor, and fetal liver kinase-1 in the hippocampus of rat aged 5 weeks. Hence, the intensity is the effective factor on the expression of neurotrophins.<sup>[30]</sup> The neuroprotective property of CDNF is similar to the GDNF.<sup>[24]</sup> The GDNF is affected by physical activity and is increased by training, so it can be assumed that the training has an upregulatory property for GDNF.<sup>[31]</sup> In a study conducted by Sakner in 2012, passive training increased the GDNF.<sup>[32]</sup> The mechanism of action of the CDNF may be similar to that of the GDNF. There are three important mechanisms in place for the training effect on the brain of Parkinson's patients: One of these mechanisms is the GDNF that is a factor in the survival of neurons and the morphological differentiation of dopaminergic neurons. This factor binds to the cell surface and activates the tyrosine kinase signal.<sup>[33]</sup> Following the activation of tyrosine kinase, a number of intracellular signaling pathways stimulate cell growth and survival, including Ras and mitogen-activated protein kinase.<sup>[34]</sup> Another possible mechanism for GDNF action is that GDNF rescues dopamine-producing neurons from cell death with the upregulation of antioxidant enzymes such as glutathione peroxidase, SOD, and catalase. The mechanism of action of the CDNF may be similar to that of the GDNF. The reason for a significant increase in CDNF in a high-intensity training group may be the presence of oxidative stress that occurs by high-intensity training compared to the low- and moderate-intensity training groups. Recent studies have shown that the CDNF and its equivalent of MANF against endoplasmic reticulum (ER) stress exhibit cellular protective property. Extreme ER stress leads to the activation of apoptosis signaling, and the CDNF prevents this action. The

crystal structure of C-terminal MANF and CDNF supports the theory that it can act as a protective protein against ER stress and subsequently cell death. As stated, the dopaminergic neurons are degenerated in the Parkinson's disease.<sup>[26]</sup> The MANF level was increased in the brain of adult rats after developing pathological and harmful conditions such as ischemia, indicating regulation of neuronal survival and synaptic variability.<sup>[24]</sup>

In conclusion, the present study indicated that the CDNF and SOD levels were significantly increased in the moderate-intensity training higher than in the low-intensity training as well as in high-intensity training more than in the moderate intensity. In addition, training with different intensities prevented the increase in MDA level. Therefore, high-intensity training pattern can be used to prevent neurodegenerative diseases such as Parkinson's disease.

## **CONCLUSION**

This is the first research to investigate the effect of training with different intensities on the CDNF, SOD, and MDA levels of cerebral cortex. The result of this study showed that training can increase the CDNF levels of cerebral cortex in healthy rats. Due to the importance of CDNF in Parkinson's disease, it can be said that training may be considered as a factor in the prevention of Parkinson's disease.

## REFERENCES

- 1. Cotman CW, Berchtold NC, Christie LA. Exercise builds brain health: Key roles of growth factor cascades and inflammation. Trends Neurosci 2007;30:464-72.
- Hellman M, Peränen J, Saarma M, Permi P 1H, 13C and 15N resonance assignments of the human mesencephalic astrocyte-derived neurotrophic factor. Biomol NMR Assign 2010;4:215-7.
- Lotharius J, Dugan LL, O'Malley KL. Distinct mechanisms underlie neurotoxin-mediated cell death in cultured dopaminergic neurons. J Neurosci 1999;19:1284-93.
- 4. Lindholm P, Saarma M. Novel CDNF/MANF family of neurotrophic factors. Dev Neurobiol 2010;70:360-71.
- 5. Sun ZP, Gong L, Huang SH, Geng Z, Cheng L, Chen ZY. Intracellular trafficking and secretion of cerebral dopamine neurotrophic factor in neurosecretory cells. J Neurochem 2011;117:121-32.
- 6. Apostolova L, Alves G, Hwang KS, Babakchanian S, Bronnick KS, Larsen JP, *et al.* Hippocampal

and ventricular changes in Parkinson's disease mild cognitive impairment. Neurobiol Aging 2012;33:2113-24.

- Saravia FE, Revsin Y, Gonzalez Deniselle MC, Gonzalez SL, Roig P, Lima A, *et al.* Increased astrocyte reacti vity in the hippocampus of murine models of type 1 diabetes: The nonobese diabetic (NOD) and streptozotocin-treated mice. Brain Res 2002;957:345-53.
- Olanow CW. Oxidation reactions in Parkinson's disease. Neurology 1990;40:suppl 32-7.
- 9. Gerlach M, Riederer P. Animal models of Parkinson's disease: An empirical comparison with the phenomenology of the disease in man. J Neural Transm 1996;103:987-1041.
- 10. Sautter J, Kupsch A, Earl CD, Oertel WH. Degeneration of pre-labelled nigral neurons induced by intrastriatal 6-hydroxydopamine in the rat: Behavioural and biochemical changes and pretreatment with the calcium-entry blocker nimodipine. Exp Brain Res 1997;117:111-9.
- 11. Rhodes JS, Gammie SC, Garland T Jr. Neurobiology of mice selected for high voluntary wheel-running activity. Integr Comp Biol 2005;45:438-55.
- 12. Sterm MB. Parkinson disease. Early Diagnosis and management. J Fam Prace 2005;36:439-46.
- 13. Wu SY, Wang TF, Yu L, Jen CJ, Chuang JI, Wu FS, *et al.* Running exercise protects the substantia nigra dopaminergic neurons against inflammation-induced degeneration via the activation of BDNF signaling pathway. Brain Behav Immun 2011;25:135-46.
- Naderi A, Alaei H, Sharifi MR, Hoseini M. The comparison between effect of short-term and midterm exercise on the enthusiasm of the male rats to self-administer morphine. Iran J Basic Med Sci 2006;9:1608-15.
- Yoon MC, Shin MS, Kim TS, Kim BK, Ko IG, Sung YH, *et al.* Treadmill exercise suppresses nigrostriatal dopaminergic neuronal loss in 6-hydroxydopamine-induced Parkinson's rats. Neurosci Lett 2007;423:12-7.
- Johnson RA, Rhodes JS, Jeffrey SL, Garland T Jr., Mitchell GS. Hippocampal brain-derived neurotrophic factor but not neurotrophin-3 increase more in mice selected for increased voluntary wheel running. Neuroscience 2003;121:1-7.
- 17. Radak Z, Kumagai S, Taylor AW, Naito H, Goto S. Effects of exercise on brain function: Role of free radicals. Appl Physiol Nutr Metab 2007;32:942-6.
- Lovlin R, Cottle W, Pyke I, Kavanagh M, Belcastro AN. Are indices of free radical damage related to exercise intensity. Eur J Appl Physiol Occup Physiol 1987;56:313-6.

- 19. Radak Z, Chung HY, Koltai E, Taylor AW, Goto S. Exercise, oxidative stress and hormesis. Ageing Res Rev 2008;7:34-42.
- 20. Aslani J, Moghaddam AH, Mohammadi ZF, Ismaili AH, Mohammadi R. Effects of hydro-alcoholic extract of *Eriobotrya japonica* Lindl. Flowers on CDNF, SOD and MDA levels of cerebral cortex in experimental model of Parkinson's disease in rat. Iran J Med Aromatic Plants 2015;31:332-41.
- 21. Praag HV. Neurogenesis and exercise: Past and future directions. Neuromolecular Med 2008;10:128-40.
- 22. Swain RA, Harris AB, Wiener EC, Dutka MV, Morris HD, Theien BE, *et al.* Prolonged exercise induces angiogenesis and increases cerebral blood volume in primary motor cortex of the rat. Neuroscience 2003;117:1037-46.
- 23. Mabandla MV, Russell VA. Voluntary exercise reduces the neurotoxic effects of 6-hydroxydopamine in maternally separated rats. Behav Brain Res 2010;211:16-22.
- 24. Lindholm P, Voutilainen MH, Laurén J, Peränen J, Leppänen VM, Andressoo JO, *et al.* Novel neurotrophic factor CDNF protects and rescues midbrain dopamine neurons *in vivo*. Nature 2007;448:73-7.
- Carey RJ, Pinheiro-Carrera M, Dai H, Tomaz C, Huston JP. L-DOPA and psychosis: Evidence for L-DOPA-induced increases in prefrontal cortex dopamine and in serum corticosterone. Biol Psychiatry 1995;38:669-76.
- 26. Liguz-Lecznar M, Skangiel-Kramska J. Vesicular glutamate transporters (VGLUTs): The three musketeers of glutamatergic system. Acta Neurobiol Exp (Wars) 2007;67:207-18.
- Zhang Z, Fan J, Ren Y, Zhou W, Yin G. The release of glutamate from cortical neurons regulated by BDNF via the trkB/Src/PLC-γ1 pathway. J Cell Biochem 2013;114:144-51.
- 28. Ferreira AF, Real CC, Rodrigues AC, Alves AS, Britto LR. Short-term, moderate exercise is capable of inducing structural, BDNF-independent hippocampal plasticity. Brain Res 2011;1425:111-22.
- 29. Mirzaei S, Hajizadehmoghaddam A, Falahmohammadi Z, Fathi R. The effect of eight weeks endurance training at different durations on brain derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF) of hippocampus in male rats. J Sport Biomotor Sci 2013;6:83-90.
- 30. Lou SJ, Liu JY, Chang H, Chen PJ. Hippocampal neurogenesis and gene expression depend on exercise intensity in juvenile rats. Brain Res 2008;1210:48-55.
- Cohen AD, Tillerson JL, Smith AD, Schallert T, Zigmond MJ. Neuroprotective effects of prior limb use in 6-hydroxydopamine-treated rats: Possible role of GDNF. J Neurochem 2003;85:299-305.

- 32. Sackner MA. Whole body periodic acceleration: "Passive exercise" for Parkinson's disease. JPRLS 2012;2:1-5.
- 33. Al-Jarrah M. Exercise training and rehabilitation of the brain in Parkinson's disease. Clin Med Res 2013;2:11-7.
- 34. Berchtold NC, Chinn G, Chou M, Kesslak JP,

Cotman CW. Exercise primes a molecular memory for brain-derived neurotrophic factor protein induction in the rat hippocampus. Neuroscience 2005;133:853-61.

Source of Support: Nil. Conflict of Interest: None declared.