

**Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul  
Instituto de Ciências Básicas da Saúde  
Departamento de Bioquímica  
Programa de Pós-Graduação em Ciências Biológicas: Bioquímica**

**TESE DE DOUTORADO**

**MODULAÇÕES ENERGÉTICAS CEREBRAIS PERMITEM A MANUTENÇÃO DE CRISES  
EPILEPTICAS PROLONGADAS**

**Ben Hur Marins Mussulini**

**Porto Alegre, RS, Brasil**

**Março de 2017**

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**Doutorando**

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**Renato Dutra Dias.**

*“Tudo o que é afirmado sem provas,  
pode ser negado sem elas”.*

**(Euclídes)**

*“A melhor maneira que o homem dispõe para se  
aperfeiçoar, é aproximar-se de Deus”.*

**(Pitágoras)**

*“Ninguém poderá jamais aperfeiçoar-se, se não tiver  
o mundo como mestre. A experiência se adquire na prática”.*

**(William Shakespeare)**

*“Quem pensa pouco,  
Se equivoca muito”.*

**(Leonardo Da Vinci)**

*“Não vos lamenteis inutilmente,  
mas maravilhai-vos com o princípio da transitoriedade  
e dele aprendei a vacuidade da vida humana.*

*Não alimenteis vãos desejos de que  
as coisas mutáveis se tornem imutáveis.”*

**(Buda)**

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**Parte I**



## Resumo

Epilepsia é uma desordem neurológica que afeta o sistema nervoso central, predispondo o paciente a crises recorrentes, as quais apresentam uma alta demanda energética cerebral, e que culminam na depleção dos níveis de glicose cerebrais conforme a crise epilética progride de aguda (até 5 min) à prolongada (de 5 min até algumas horas). A presente tese mapeou os diferentes modelos de crises e síndromes epiléticas com enfoque em peixe-zebra, no intuito de selecionar o melhor modelo em nosso universo experimental para investigar quais outros substratos energéticos poderiam ser utilizados pelo cérebro frente ao hipometabolismo da glicose em crises epiléticas prolongadas induzidas por pentilenotetrazol. Hipotetizou-se um ambiente produtor de peróxido de hidrogênio como agente modulatório do metabolismo energético neste tipo de crise epilética. Para tanto se caracterizou o protocolo de respirometria de alta resolução em dissociado cerebral de peixe-zebra adulto. Os peixes foram expostos a pentilenotetrazol por diferentes tempos. Detectou-se um desacoplamento entre o metabolismo da glicose e o consumo de O<sub>2</sub> para produção de ATP em crises epiléticas prolongadas de 20 min. Neste momento, testou-se o impacto dos seguintes substratos energéticos sobre o consumo de O<sub>2</sub> para produção de ATP: L-glutamato, L-glutamina, L-lactato, e β-hidroxibutirato. Também foi avaliado o sistema pró/antioxidante em amostras de cérebro de peixe-zebra adulto submetido a crises epiléticas prolongadas por 20 min (CEUA – 28043). Os resultados indicam o uso do L-glutamato e da L-glutamina como substratos energéticos para a manutenção de crises epiléticas prolongadas, e um ambiente favorável à produção de peróxido de hidrogênio, pela redução da atividade do Complexo I mitocondrial, pelo aumento da atividade das enzimas superóxido dismutase e glutathione peroxidase, e pelo aumento da oxidação de diclorofluoresceína. A literatura aponta para uma inibição da glicerol-3-fosfato-desidrogenase e piruvato-cinase, e uma ativação da glicose-6-fosfato-desidrogenase por aumento de peróxido de hidrogênio, o que culmina na diminuição da utilização da glicose como substrato energético. A completa oxidação do glutamato na presença de baixos níveis de piruvato ocorre via saída do malato da matriz mitocondrial e sua conversão a piruvato pela enzima málica. Ambas as enzimas produtoras de Fosfato de dinucleótido de nicotinamida e adenina reduzida citadas acima apresentam atividade aumentada no modelo de convulsão abordado. Portanto, o metabolismo glutamatérgico é fundamental para a manutenção energética, e para a atividade de defesas antioxidantes em momentos de crises epiléticas prolongadas induzidas por pentilenotetrazol em peixe zebra adulto.

**Palavras-chave:** Peixe-zebra; Epilepsia; Pentilenotetrazol; Mitocôndria; Metabolismo Cerebral; Estresse Oxidativo.

### Abstract

Epilepsy is a brain disorder, which promotes the predisposition to events of high energy expenditure known as epileptic seizure. As epileptic seizure progress from acute (until 5 min of duration) to prolonged (above 5 min of duration), lower is the concentration of glucose in the brain. This thesis mapped all models of zebrafish epileptic seizure and epileptic syndrome to choose the best model in our experimental conditions to evaluate the impact of other substrates under glucose brain hypometabolism related to prolonged epileptic seizure induced by pentylentetrazole. It was hypothesized that an environment with high concentrations of hydrogen peroxide could be connecting with the fast metabolic modulation in this model. To do so, the high-resolution respirometry protocol for zebrafish brain dissociated was characterized. Fish were exposed to pentylentetrazole by different duration. There was a decoupling between glucose brain metabolism and O<sub>2</sub> consumption to ATP synthesis after 20 min of exposure to pentylentetrazole. At this moment, the impact of the following substrates were measured under O<sub>2</sub> consume to ATP synthesis: L-glutamate, L-glutamine, L-lactate, and β-hydroxybutyrate. The redox balanced was evaluated as well (CEUA – 28043). Data indicate L-glutamate and L-glutamine as the main energy substrate to maintain prolonged epileptic seizure. There was an environment prone to hydrogen peroxide, because mitochondrial complex I activity was impered, and the enzymes superoxide dismutase and glutamine peroxidase were activity, as well as the oxidation of diclorofluoresceine was increased. Hydrogen peroxide activates glucose-6-phosphate-dehydrogenase, and inhibits glycerol-3-phosphate-dehydroganase as well as piruvate kinase. Therefore the glucose metabolism would be modulated to antioxidant defense instead of glycolysis. In low pyruvate concentrations, malate from glutamate is transported to the cytosol and converted to pyruvate and Nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate. The activity of glucose-6-phosphate-dehydrogenase and citosolic malic enzyme were increased. Therefore, glutamate metabolismo is imperative to energy maintain prolonged epileptic seizure and to antioxidante defense to avoid further damage.

**Palavras-chave:** Zebrafish; Epilepsy; Pentylentetrazole; Mitochondria; Brain Metabolism; Oxidative Stress.

### Lista de Abreviaturas

- $\alpha$ -KG:  $\alpha$ -cetoglutarato
- $\beta$ -HB:  $\beta$ -hidroxibutirato
- $\Delta G^0$ : Energia livre de Gibbs
- AST: Aspartato-amino-transferase
- ATM: Ataxia telangiectasia cinase
- ATP: Adenosina trifosfato
- CA: Ácido Caínico
- CAT: Catalase
- CO<sub>2</sub>: Dióxido de carbono
- CoA: Coenzima<sub>A</sub>
- Complexo I: NADH-ubiquinona-oxidoreductase
- Complexo II: Succinato-ubiquinona-oxidoreductase
- Complexo III: Complexo Citocromo *bc1*
- Complexo IV: Citocromo *c* oxidase
- Complexo V: F<sub>1</sub>-F<sub>o</sub>-ATP sintase
- DNA: Ácido desoxirribonucleico
- EAAT: Transportado de aminoácidos excitatórios
- F-1,6-BisP: Frutose 1,6-Bisfosfato
- FADH<sub>2</sub>: Dinucleótido de flavina e adenina reduzida
- FCCP: Carbonil cianida-p-trifluorometoxifenilhidrazona
- FDG: Fluordesoxiglicose
- Fe-S: Ligação ferro-enxofre
- G-1-P: Glicose-1-fosfato
- G-6-P: Glicose-6-fosfato
- G6PDH: Glicose-6-fosfato-desidrogenase
- GABA: Ácido gama-aminobutírico
- GABA<sub>A</sub>: Receptor ionotrópico GABA<sub>A</sub>
- GAPDH: Glicerol-3-fosfato-desidrogenase
- GDH: Glutamato-desidrogenase

GLS: Glutaminase

GLUT: Transportador de Glicose

Gpx: Glutathione peroxidase

GR: Glutathione reductase

GSH: Glutathione

GSSG: Glutathione oxidada

H<sup>+</sup>-*Leak*: Vazamento de prótons

H<sub>2</sub>O: Água

H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>: Peróxido de Hidrogênio

Hz: Hertz

IM: Membrana interna mitocondrial

I.P.: Intraperitonal

KCN: Cianeto de potássio

LDH: Lactato Desidrogenase

MCT: Transportador de

ME: Enzima málica

mtDNA: Ácido desoxirribonucleico mitocondrial

NOX: Espécies reativas de óxido nítrico

Na<sup>+</sup>/K<sup>+</sup> ATPase: Sódio Potássio ATPase

NADH: Dinucleótido de nicotinamida e adenina reduzida

NADPH: Fosfato de dinucleótido de nicotinamida e adenina reduzida

O<sub>2</sub>: Oxigênio

O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>: Superóxido

Olig: Oligomicina

OXPPOS: Fosforilação oxidativa

PC: Piruvato carboxilase

PK: Piruvato cinase

Prx: Peroxirredoxina

PTZ: Pentilenotetrazol

Q: Coenzima<sub>Q</sub>

RNA: Ácido ribonucleico

ROS: Espécies reativas de oxigênio

ROX: Consumo de oxigênio residual

SE: *Status Epilepticus*

SDH: Succinato-desidrogenase

siRNA: Ácido ribonucleico de interferência

SNC: Sistema Nervoso Central

SOD: Superóxido-dismutase

STE: Sistema Transportador de Eletrons

TRT: Coteúdo de tiol reduzido total

## **I. Introdução**

### **I.1. Epilepsia**

Epilepsia é uma desordem do sistema nervoso central (SNC), caracterizada pela predisposição a crises epiléticas recorrentes que podem levar a alterações neurobiológicas, cognitivas, psicológicas e sociais (Fisher, 2015). Aproximadamente 15,5 bilhões de dólares são gastos anualmente nos Estados Unidos da América com o tratamento de pacientes epiléticos, e estima-se uma prevalência de 50 milhões de pacientes no mundo e 2,4 milhões de novos casos ao ano (Theodore *et al.*, 2006). De 30 a 50 novos casos a cada 100.000 habitantes ocorrem em países desenvolvidos, número este que pode ser de duas a três vezes maior em países subdesenvolvidos (Ndoye *et al.*, 2005), local onde se encontram em torno de 80% dos pacientes epiléticos (Dua *et al.*, 2006; Hongoro e Normand, 2006). A duração e frequência de crises epiléticas não são uma constante (Fisher *et al.*, 2014). Crises epiléticas são divididas em dois grupos (Berg e Millichap, 2013): crise epilética focal, na qual uma fração do SNC origina e mantém a crise epilética; e crise epilética generalizada, na qual ambos os hemisférios apresentam hiperatividade. Crise epilética tônico-clônica (“grande mal”), ou espasmódica são exemplos do segundo grupo (Panayiotopoulos, 2011; Fisher, 2014), caso em que o paciente alterna episódios de tonia e extensão muscular com contrações musculares involuntárias. Esta desordem também é classificada mediante presença ou ausência de etiologia definida, sendo intitulada como sintomática ou criptogênica, respectivamente (Engel, 2011; Shorvon, 2011). Infelizmente, 60% dos pacientes não possuem etiologia definida e classificados como criptogênicos, 30% são refratários aos tratamentos farmacológicos (Xiao *et al.*, 2015), e 75% dos pacientes epiléticos que habitam países em desenvolvimento não recebem o tratamento adequado (“falha terapêutica”) (Nwani *et al.*, 2013). Portanto, a procura por novos tratamentos para solucionar a refratariedade e a falha terapêutica (Newton e Garcia, 2012) e um maior esclarecimento etiológico das epilepsias são foco constante de estratégias inovadoras de pesquisa, como por exemplo, a procura de novos modelos animais para mimetizar esta desordem.

### **I.2. *Danio rerio***

A utilização do modelo animal peixe-zebra (*Danio rerio*) é uma inovação na pesquisa básica que contribuiu para solucionar hipóteses científicas. Estudos desenvolvidos na década de oitenta (Streisinger *et al.*, 1981; Chakrabarti *et al.*, 1983; Streisinger, 1983; Walker e Streisinger, 1983; Stewart *et al.*, 2014) e noventa (Vennstrom e Lagerkrantz, 1995) levaram pesquisadores a mapear o genoma desta espécie, o qual apresenta 70%

de ortologia com o genoma humano (Howe *et al.*, 2013). Entre as características dessa espécie para a pesquisa biomédica encontram-se alta homologia fisiológica e genética com humanos. O SNC desse organismo apresenta alta similaridade morfológica e funcional com mamíferos (Gerlai, 2011; Lopes Da Fonseca *et al.*, 2013; Suen *et al.*, 2013), os circuitos neurocomportamentais mapeados por p-ERK indicam a presença de 294 regiões anatómicas encefálicas as quais são subdivididas em prosencéfalo, mesencéfalo e rombencéfalo, sem a presença de neocortex como os mamíferos (Randlett *et al.*, 2015). Por ser um animal de pequeno porte, a varredura farmacológica de novos compostos apresenta custo-benefício expressivo ao comparar-se com roedores, além de possuir uma barreira hemato-encefálica com similar permeabilidade a macromoléculas quando comparado a mamíferos (Jeong *et al.*, 2008; Eliceiri *et al.*, 2011). Paradigmas comportamentais adaptados a essa espécie permitem estudos neuropsicológicos complexos (Gerlai, 2010; 2011). Ferramentas moleculares permitem a visualização *in vivo* da atividade neuronal e de redes neurais frente a estímulos em tempo real (Tian *et al.*, 2009; Akerboom *et al.*, 2012). Por fim, a diluição em água ou injeção intraperitoneal (i.p.) de compostos reduzem os custos da pesquisa (Alfaro *et al.*, 2011). Frente a essas características, pesquisadores utilizam este modelo animal para mimetizar desordens que afetam o SNC (Kalueff *et al.*, 2014).

### **I.3. Peixe-zebra como modelo animal para o estudo de crises e síndromes epilépticas**

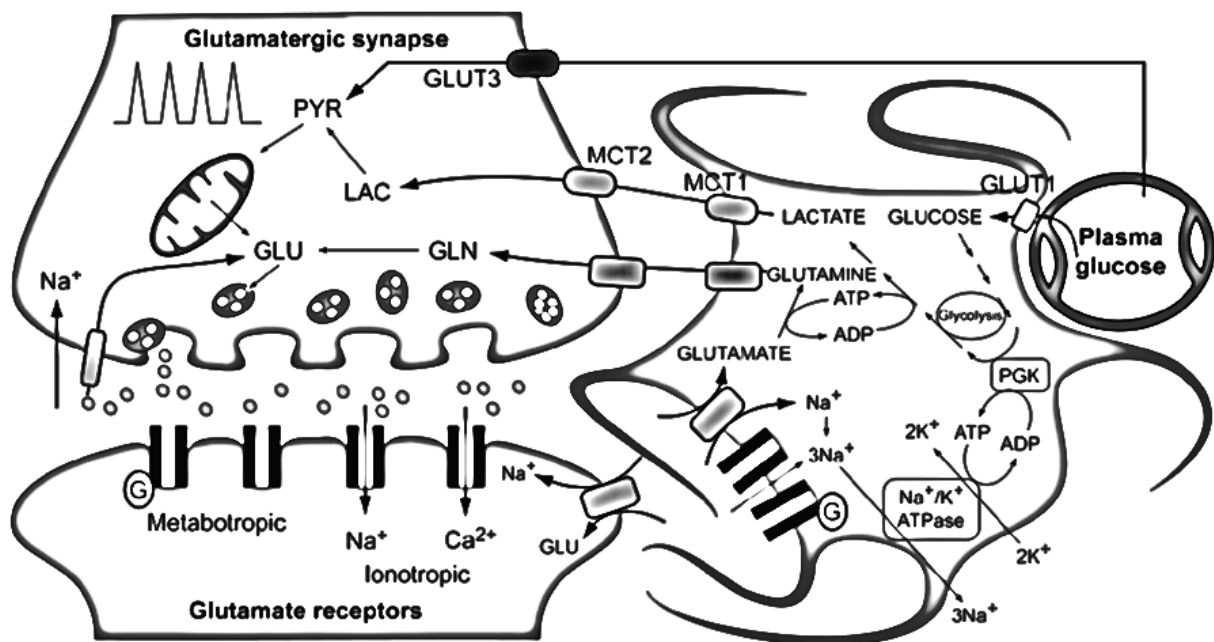
Compostos pró-convulsivos que afetam o balanço entre os sistemas excitatórios e inibitórios do SNC são utilizados para o desenvolvimento de modelos não genéticos de crises epilépticas (Zhou e Danbolt, 2014; Leke e Schousboe, 2016). O composto pentilenotetrazol (PTZ) inibe os receptores ionotrópicos do tipo GABA<sub>A</sub> reduzindo a capacidade do sistema inibitório, resultando em hiperexcitabilidade cerebral e em crises epilépticas agudas ou prolongadas. O PTZ é o agente pró-convulsivo mais utilizado na indústria farmacêutica para o desenvolvimento de novas terapias e foi o primeiro modelo de crise epiléptica a ser estudado em peixe-zebra (Baraban *et al.*, 2005). Uma vez que o peixe-zebra apresentou perfil comportamental e eletrofisiológico de crises epilépticas, novos modelos foram desenvolvidos nesta espécie, entre eles: ácido domoico (Tiedeken e Ramsdell, 2007), pilocarpina (Eddins *et al.*, 2010), febre (Hunt *et al.*, 2012), gingotoxina (Hashiguchi *et al.*, 2015), alliglicina (Leclercq *et al.*, 2015) e ácido cáínico (CA) (Alfaro *et al.*, 2011). Entre os modelos genéticos encontram-se: Angelman (Hortopan *et al.*, 2010), Lowe (Ramirez *et al.*, 2012) e Dravet (Baraban *et al.*, 2013). O modelo animal ideal deve apresentar os mecanismos causais da patologia (validação de construto), o perfil fenotípico da crise epiléptica (validação de face) e a resposta anticonvulsiva frente a tratamentos clínicos já validados (validação de predição) (Grone e Baraban, 2015). Apesar do modelo de crise epiléptica prolongada

induzida por PTZ em peixe-zebra apresentar validações de face e predição, o mesmo carece de validações de construto, uma vez que os mecanismos relacionados a predisposições de crises epiléticas espontâneas são pouco abordadas, por exemplo, a bioenergética cerebral, a qual alterara o balanço entre neurotransmissores excitatórios e inibitórios do SNC.

#### **I.4. Metabolismo de sinapses excitatórias**

A glicose é captada pelo SNC através de transportadores de glicose (GLUTs) presentes entre a barreira hemato-encefálica, os astrócitos (GLUT1), e os neurônios (GLUT3) (Pan e Kastin, 2016). A glicólise ocorre no citosol e é a primeira etapa da oxidação da glicose resultando na produção de ATP, NADH e piruvato (Hyder *et al.*, 2006). Os astrócitos apresentam uma baixa oxidação de piruvato e alta oxidação de glicose comparada aos neurônios (Ivanov *et al.*, 2014). O acúmulo de NADH e piruvato no citosol astrocitário eleva a síntese de lactato o qual é exportado para o espaço extracelular e captado pelos neurônios por intermédio de transportadores de ácidos monocarboxílicos (MCT), MCT 1 e MCT 2, respectivamente. Uma vez no citosol neuronal, o lactato será convertido a piruvato e oxidado na matriz mitocondrial (Pellerin e Magistretti, 2012), podendo ser completamente oxidado a CO<sub>2</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>O e utilizado para a síntese de ATP (Jha *et al.*, 2012). Durante o processo de oxidação do piruvato,  $\alpha$ -cetoglutarato pode ser convertido a glutamato e exportado ao citosol para síntese de proteínas, glutathione e vesiculado como neurotransmissor (Whitelaw e Robinson, 2013). Após a despolarização neuronal, o glutamato é liberado na fenda sináptica atuando sobre receptores pós-sinápticos e retirado da fenda sináptica por transportadores de glutamato (EAATs), astrocitários majoritariamente (Danbolt *et al.*, 2016). Esse processo consome 75% da energia do SNC (Nehlig e Coles, 2007) e representa 80% da neurotransmissão cortical (Sibson *et al.*, 1998). Portanto, a reciclagem do glutamato é fundamental para reduzir o custo energético anaplerótico (Schousboe *et al.*, 2014). O glutamato é convertido à glutamina nos astrócitos, a qual é exportada para o espaço extracelular, captada pelos neurônios e reconvertida a glutamato (Parpura *et al.*, 2016), o qual é oxidado ou re-vesiculado (Mckenna, 2007). Desta maneira a glicose está diretamente vinculada a um harmonioso balanço entre anabolismo e catabolismo de outras moléculas presentes no SNC, com atividade excitatória e energética (Mergenthaler *et al.*, 2013) (**Figura 1**).





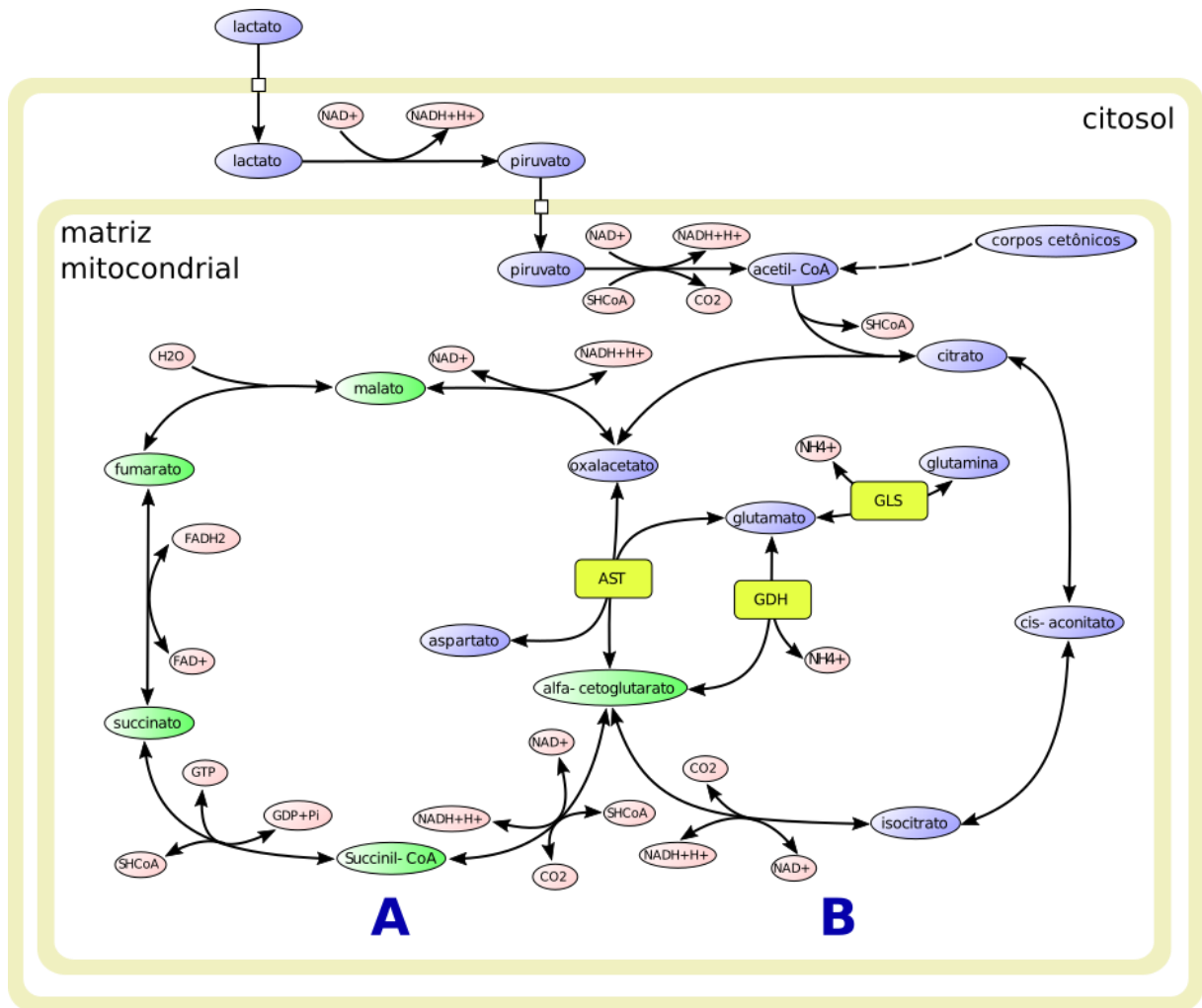
**Figura 1. Bioenergética da sinapse tripartite excitatória.** Representado da direita para a esquerda um vaso sanguíneo, o astrócito, e uma sinapse glutamérgica. A glicose é transportada do vaso sanguíneo para as células cerebrais pela atividade de transportadores de glicose (GLUTs), sendo o GLUT1 e o GLUT3 os transportadores astrocitários e neuronais, respectivamente. No astrócito, a glicose é oxidada a piruvato no processo denominado glicólise. O excesso de piruvato não oxidado na mitocôndria é convertido a lactato, o qual é exportado para o meio extracelular pelo transportador de ácidos monocarboxilatos (MCT1). O neurônio captará tanto glicose (GLU3) quanto lactato (MCT2) e converterá ambos a piruvato, o qual será oxidado na mitocôndria. Durante o processo de oxidação do piruvato, o  $\alpha$ -cetoglutarato poderá ser convertido a glutamato e exportado ao citosol neuronal, no qual será internalizado em vesículas para utilização como neurotransmissor. Mediante despolarização, as vesículas contendo glutamato fundem-se à membrana plasmática liberando este transmissor na fenda sináptica. O glutamato atua em receptores no neurônio pós-sináptico e a sinalização é terminada mediante tamponamento e captação de glutamato pela atividade de transportadores presentes nos neurônios e nos astrócitos, sendo esta última célula responsável por 90% da captação de glutamato cerebral. Este transporte se dá por cotransporte glutamato- $\text{Na}^+$ - $\text{H}^+$ . Para equilibrar o gradiente iônico celular, a  $\text{Na}^+/\text{K}^+$  ATPase é ativada, consumindo 50% do ATP cerebral, produzido nos astrócitos majoritariamente pela glicólise. Após o glutamato ser captado pelos astrócitos, no citosol celular há a conversão desta molécula a glutamina, processo o qual consome ATP. A glutamina é exportada ao meio extracelular e captada pelos neurônios e convertida a glutamato. Seja por ação da glutaminase, seja pela captação, os neurônios glutamatergicos reciclam o glutamato, reduzindo os custos anapleróticos do sistema de neurotransmissão.  $\text{Na}^+$ : Sódico,  $\text{K}^+$ : Potássio,  $\text{Na}^+/\text{K}^+$  ATPase: Transportador sódio potássio ATPase, ATP: Adenosina trifosfato (modificada de (Kandel *et al.*, 2013)).

### I.5. Outros substratos energéticos são oxidados no SNC além de glicose

O ciclo de Krebs ocorre na matriz mitocondrial a partir da síntese de citrato pela atividade da enzima citrato-sintase, cujos substratos são acetil-CoA e oxaloacetato. Após uma cadeia de eventos coordenados haveria a produção de NADH,  $\text{FADH}_2$ ,  $\text{CO}_2$  e ATP, reciclando de forma cíclica o oxaloacetato inicial. Entretanto, essa representação simplista do ciclo de Krebs não justifica o balanço molecular encontrado em diferentes estados alimentares e patológicos. Contudo, ao estudar a cinética molecular das enzimas que compõem o ciclo do ácido cítrico, percebe-se que o mesmo pode ser fragmentado em duas etapas. Existe um ciclo A que se inicia na oxidação do  $\alpha$ -cetoglutarato e finda na síntese de malato, e existe o ciclo B que parte da redução do oxaloacetato

à oxidação de isocitrato. O ciclo A ocorre de três a cinco vezes mais rápido comparado ao ciclo B (**Figura 2**), o que propicia cineticamente a utilização de  $\alpha$ -cetogluturato como substrato energético.

O glutamato pode ser o substrato de diferentes rotas metabólicas vinculadas ao consumo ou síntese de ATP (Yelamanchi *et al.*, 2016). Após a captação de glutamina, a mesma pode ser convertida no citosol à glutamato, pela atividade da glutaminase (GLS), e ser transportado à matriz mitocondria para ser oxidado pela ação das enzimas glutamato-desidrogenase (GDH) e aspartato-aminotransferase (AST), tendo como produto o  $\alpha$ -cetogluturato (Mckenna *et al.*, 2016). Estudos recentes utilizando técnicas de siRNA indicam uma colaboração maior da enzima GDH para a oxidação do glutamato quando comparado a colaboração da enzima AST (Yu *et al.*, 1982; Karaca *et al.*, 2015; Nissen *et al.*, 2015; Schousboe, 2017). Caso acetil-CoA não seja um fator limitante do ciclo de Krebs, a oxidação de glutamato via GDH permite utilizar o esqueleto de carbono desta molécula para fins anapleróticos, maximizando a eficiência de oxidação mitocondrial (**Figura 2**). Para que acetil-CoA não seja um fator limitante, outras duas vias metabólicas são fundamentais. A primeira ocorre tanto no estado alimentado, quanto no jejum e foi previamente representado na **Figura 1**. Decorrente da glicólise no astrócito, os níveis de lactato se elevam, sendo transportados para o espaço extracelular, captado pelo neurônio e convertido a piruvado pela enzima lactato-desidrogenase (LDH), fornecendo piruvato, por conseguinte, acetil-CoA ao ciclo de Krebs (Cruz *et al.*, 2012). Já em casos de jejum, o metabolismo hepático de moléculas de ácidos-graxos elevam os níveis de acetil-CoA na matriz mitocondrial de células deste órgão por um processo intitulado  $\beta$ -oxidação (Houten *et al.*, 2016). Os acetil-CoA disponíveis na matriz mitocondrial poderão ser oxidados, mas seu excesso pode ser convertido a acetoacetato pela atividade da enzima acetoacetato Descarboxilase ou  $\beta$ -hidroxibutirato pela ação da enzima  $\beta$ -hidroxibutirato-desidrogenase (BDH) consumindo NADH nesta reação (Wust *et al.*, 2017). Os corpos cetônicos acetatoacetato e  $\beta$ -hidroxibutirato são liberados na corrente sanguínea a passam a barreira hemato-encefálica, sendo reconvertidos a acetil-CoA no SNC (Egan e D'agostino, 2016). Uma vez que a  $\beta$ -oxidação produz NADH em excesso, os corpos cetônicos presentes no plasma tendem a apresentar uma maior presença de  $\beta$ -hidroxibutirato, o qual a ser convertido a acetil-CoA libera NADH para o metabolismo energético (Gorman, L. *et al.*, 2016). A **Figura 2** representa o impacto do lactato e dos corpos cetônicos sobre a capacidade de oxidação máxima mitocondrial.

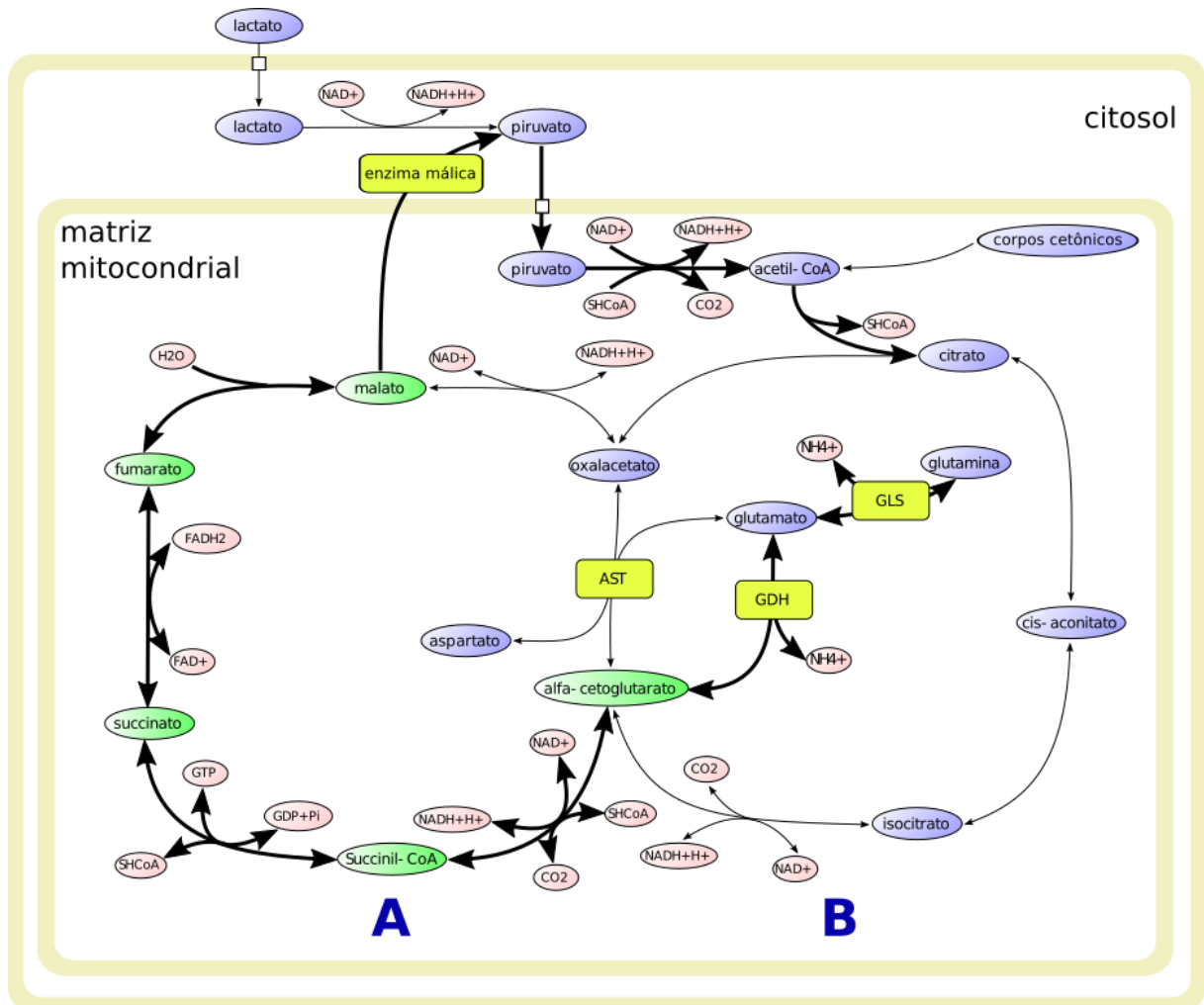


**Figura 2. Eficiência máxima do ciclo de Krebs em células do SNC.** Acima encontra-se a representação cinética do ciclo do ácido tricarbóxico (TCA). A cinética de reações do ciclo A é de 3 a 5 vezes maior comparada a cinética do ciclo B. Os esqueletos de carbono provenientes de piruvato, corpos cetônicos, glutamato e glutamina alimentam o TCA. Enzimas importantes para a compreensão da proposta desta tese encontram-se em Amarelo: glutamato desidrogenase (GDH); glutaminase (GLS); aspartato aminotransferase (AST). Em preto as vias enzimáticas reversíveis e não reversíveis do TCA. Os ciclos A e B encontram-se em cinética máxima de atividade (Nissen *et al.*, 2015), sendo abastecidos por esqueletos de carbonos provenientes da síntese de acetil-CoA e síntese de  $\alpha$ -cetoglutarato (Yudkoff *et al.*, 1994; Panov *et al.*, 2009). A glutamina convertida a glutamate pela GLS (Marquez *et al.*, 2016), o lactato convertido a piruvato pela enzima LDH (Valvona *et al.*, 2016), e o  $\beta$ -hidroxibutirato é convertido a acetil-CoA pela atividade da enzima BDH (Achanta e Rae, 2017) (figura feita por Ben Hur Marins Mussulini).

Durante quadros hipoglicêmicos, a atividade da AST na oxidação de glutamato é imperativa (Skytt *et al.*, 2012). Essa forma de oxidação truncada inicia pela transaminação do glutamato a  $\alpha$ -cetoglutarato pela atividade da AST consumindo níveis de oxalacetato e permitindo que o ciclo A permaneça ativo, uma vez que o processo final de oxidação do glutamato será a formação de uma nova molécula de oxaloacetato (Parpura *et al.*, 2017) (**Figura 3**). Em contra partida o prejuízo energético frente à completa oxidação do glutamato limita a capacidade energética da célula. Neste sentido, é provável que fisiologicamente tanto o ciclo A quanto B estejam



acetil-CoA estarão reduzidos, haverá um acúmulo de malato na matriz mitocondrial. Neste sentido, malato será exportado ao citosol e clivado a piruvato pela enzima málica (ME), permitindo a completa oxidação do glutamato. Este processo produz 25 mol de ATP por mol de glutamato ao comparar-se com o ciclo truncado, o qual produz 10 mol de ATP por mol de glutamato. Além disso, os baixos níveis de oxaloacetato na matriz mitocondrial neuronal, não inibirão a succinato desidrogenase (SDH), permitindo a continuidade da oxidação.



**Figura 4. Completa oxidação do glutamato em SNC.** Acima encontra-se a representação cinética do ciclo do ácido tricarbóxico (TCA). A cinética de reações do ciclo A é de 3 a 5 vezes maior comparada a cinética do ciclo B. Os esqueletos de carbono provenientes de glutamato e glutamina alimentam o TCA. Enzimas importantes para a compreensão da proposta desta tese encontram-se em amarelo: glutamato desidrogenase (GDH); glutaminase (GLS); aspartato aminotransferase (AST). Em preto as vias enzimáticas reversíveis e não reversíveis do TCA. Setas tênues de coloração preta indicam atividade enzimática reduzida. O ciclo A encontra-se com cinética máxima de atividade (Nissen *et al.*, 2015), sendo abastecido por esqueletos de carbonos provenientes da síntese de  $\alpha$ -cetoglutarato (glutamato). Para que os cinco carbonos do glutamato sejam convertidos a cinco moléculas de  $\text{CO}_2$ , o glutamato é metabolizado pela atividade da GDH e o malato proveniente da oxidação do ciclo A é exportado ao citosol. Uma vez fora da matriz mitocondrial, o malato é convertido a piruvato pela atividade da enzima málica (ME) citosólica. O piruvato então adentra a matriz mitocondrial, completando a oxidação do glutamato pelo TCA (Parpura *et al.*, 2017) (figura feita por Ben Hur Marins Mussulini).

## I.6. Incongruência energética de crises epilépticas prolongadas

Apesar de representar apenas 2% da massa corporal, o cérebro consome 20% do oxigênio ( $O_2$ ) e 25% da glicose diária (Belanger *et al.*, 2011). Para concluir os processos fisiológicos basais da atividade cerebral em uma frequência de despolarização de 4 Hz estima-se um consumo de 30 a 50  $\mu\text{g ATP/g/min}$  (Hardie *et al.*, 2012). Ao avaliar a frequência de despolarização neuronal em caso de crises epilépticas, a mesma pode elevar-se a 30 Hz (Truccolo *et al.*, 2011), esperando-se um aumento do consumo de ATP (Gorman, G. S. *et al.*, 2016). O metabolismo cerebral está relacionado ao controle de crises epilépticas e processos epileptogênicos (Rowley *et al.*, 2015). Por exemplo, a glicólise pode estar acentuada durante atividade cerebral ictal, momento eletrofisiológico de hiperatividade, e apresentar uma redução na atividade dessa via metabólica durante momentos interictais (Stafstrom *et al.*, 2008), como resultado de uma diminuição bioenergética mitocondrial (Lee *et al.*, 2012). Crises epilépticas são um sintoma comum em pacientes afetados por doenças mitocondriais (Liang *et al.*, 2012), associadas a alterações no sistema transportador de elétrons (STE) (Tenney *et al.*, 2014). Por outro lado, a glicose não seria o principal substrato energético para a manutenção de crises epilépticas prolongadas, tendo em vista a capacidade glicolítica restrita dos neurônios (Zsurka e Kunz, 2015). Além disso, pacientes afetados pela síndrome de disfunção dos transportadores de glicose apresentam crises epilépticas, mesmo com mitocôndrias saudáveis (Larsen *et al.*, 2015). Pacientes epilépticos refratários quando avaliados por emissão de pósitron por 18F-fluorodesoxiglicose apresentam um hipometabolismo glicolítico ipsilateral ao foco epiléptico (Hodolic *et al.*, 2016). Durante crises epilépticas prolongadas há redução dos níveis de glicose encefálicos conforme a crise epiléptica tende a se estender (Theodore *et al.*, 2004). Deste modo, o papel de outros substratos energéticos deve ser vital à manutenção de crises epilépticas prolongadas (Aas *et al.*, 1993; Mckenna, 2012; McNally e Hartman, 2012).

Após um potencial de ação, as concentrações de glutamato elevam-se na fenda sináptica a concentrações de até 1 mM e após 10 ms retorna a 20 nM (Dzubay e Jahr, 1999; Katagiri *et al.*, 2001). A captação de glutamato ocorre contra gradiente valendo-se da atividade da bomba  $\text{Na}^+/\text{K}^+$  ATPase (Danbolt, 2001), a qual consome 50% do ATP cerebral (Danbolt *et al.*, 2016) (**Figura 1**). Em um estudo recente de nosso grupo de pesquisa a captação de glutamato foi avaliada após a indução de *status epilepticus* (SE) por Li-Cl-pilocarpina em fatias de hipocampo de ratos jovens (De Oliveira *et al.*, 2011). As fatias de hipocampo foram expostas a duas concentrações de glutamato para o experimento de captação deste neurotransmissor, a primeira concentração foi de 1  $\mu\text{M}$  e a segunda concentração foi de 100  $\mu\text{M}$ . A captação de glutamato frente a primeira concentração encontrou-se diminuída, contudo, frente à segunda concentração testada, a captação de glutamato

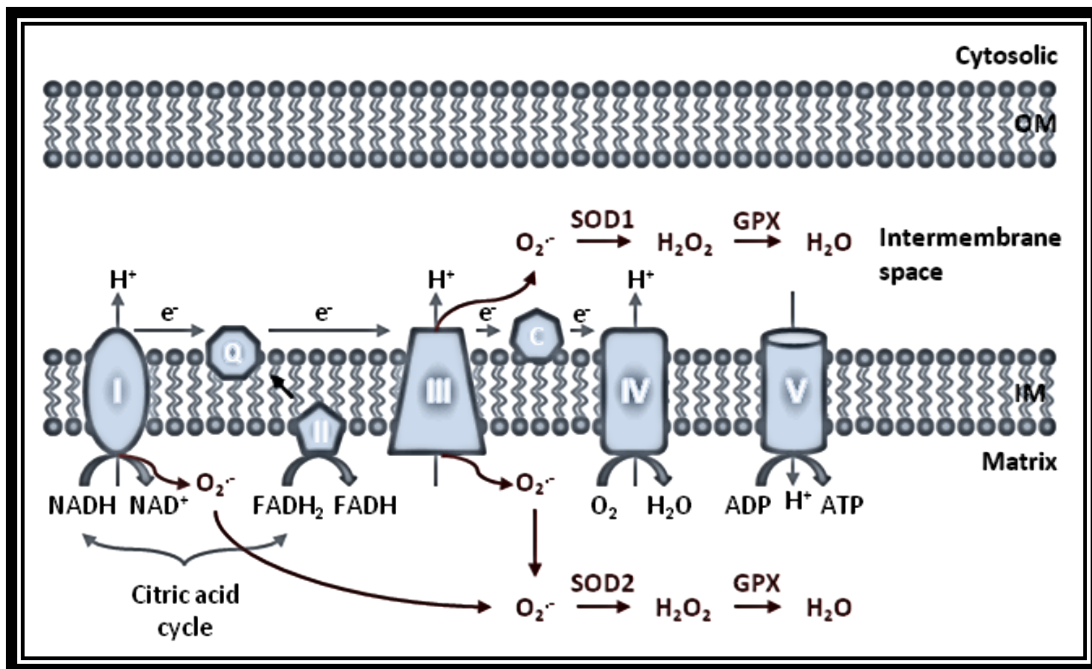
não apresentou alterações quando comparado ao controle. A captação (Zimmer *et al.*, 2017) e oxidação (Schousboe, 2017) de glutamato modulam a captação de glicose. Além disso, a completa oxidação de glicose pode ocorrer mesmo em um momento de hipometabolismo da glicose (Parpura *et al.*, 2017). Estaria o glutamato em altas concentrações na fenda sináptica sendo captado para manter energeticamente a crise epiléptica prolongada (Schousboe *et al.*, 2011; Sarikaya, 2015; Hodolic *et al.*, 2016)?

Além do glutamato, outros substratos energéticos estão presentes no SNC. Estudos *in vitro* que avaliam o impacto metabólico da glutamina utilizam uma janela de concentrações entre 0,1 e 0,5 mM (Simpson e Sherrard, 1969). O lactato extracelular pode aumentar de 1 a 10 mM em episódios de crises epilépticas prolongadas (Orringer *et al.*, 1977); níveis de corpos cetônicos na concentração de 0,7 mM são encontrados em SNC de pacientes epilépticos sujeitos a dieta cetogênica (Seymour *et al.*, 1999). Essas mudanças metabólicas devem ser um forte indício de uma mudança de preferência de substrato energético do SNC frente a crises epilépticas prolongadas.

### **I.7. Mitocôndria e *Danio rerio***

A mitocôndria é resultado, provavelmente, da simbiose entre uma  $\alpha$ -proteobacteria e um eucarioto há 1,5 bilhões de anos (Steele *et al.*, 2014). O grande avanço eucariótico deve-se a esse motivo, uma vez que as novas capacidades bioenergéticas moleculares possibilitaram o custo da síntese de moléculas mais complexas, como ácidos nucleicos e lipídeos, aumentando a probabilidade do surgimento de seres multicelulares (Lane e Martin, 2010). Visto como a usina energética celular por sintetizar altas concentrações de ATP, por um processo chamado de fosforilação oxidativa (oxphos), a mitocôndria possui seu próprio material genético, o qual ao decorrer da evolução migrou em parte para o núcleo eucariótico (Gray, 2012). O DNA mitocondrial (mtDNA) é uma constante nos vertebrados e é capaz de codificar 22 RNAs de transferência, 2 RNAs ribossomais e 13 proteínas componentes do STE (Anderson *et al.*, 1981). A mitocôndria é fundamental para processos anabólicos (Rygiel *et al.*, 2016), detoxificantes (Yoshimi *et al.*, 2016), sinalizatórios (Mills e O'Neill, 2016), tamponantes (Del Arco *et al.*, 2016), apoptóticos (Zhao *et al.*, 2016) e catabólicos (Iommarini *et al.*, 2017), os quais podem ser associados com a formação de espécies reativas de oxigênio (ROS) resultante de disfunções no oxphos (Yu *et al.*, 2017) (**Figura 5**). O mtDNA do peixe-zebra se assemelha ao humano em termos genéticos e funcionais (Broughton *et al.*, 2001). A utilização do peixe-zebra para estudar patologias mitocondriais é de grande relevância (Sasagawa *et al.*, 2016) e a continua validação de construto envolvendo modelos patológicos nesta

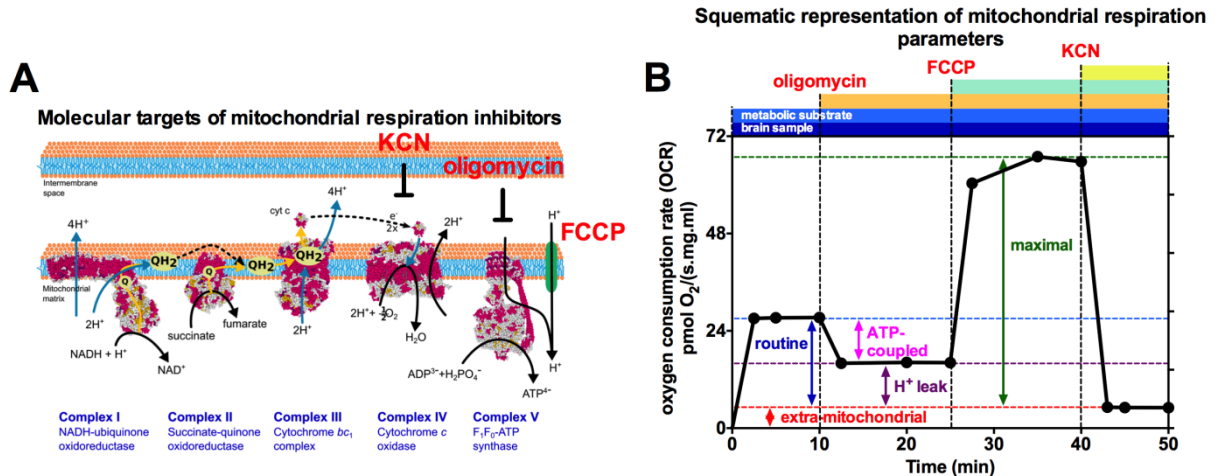
espécie é imprescindível para o aumento do impacto translacional desse modelo animal (A roadmap for precision medicine in the epilepsies, 2015).



**Figura 5. Contribuição do Sistema Transportador de Elétrons (STE) para a produção de espécies reativas de oxigênio (ROS).** Da esquerda para a direita na membrana interna mitocondrial (IM), estão representados: Complexo I (I); coenzima-Q (Q); Complexo II (II); Complexo III (III); Citocromo C (C); ATPsintase (V); próton ( $H^+$ ); elétron ( $e^-$ ). Tanto o I quanto o III contribuem para a produção de superóxido ( $O_2^{\cdot-}$ ), o qual é detoxificado pelas enzimas superoxidodismutases (SODs), ao convertê-lo em peróxido de hidrogênio ( $H_2O_2$ ) no espaço intermembrana (SOD1 presente entre IM e membrana citosólica (CM)) e na matriz mitocondrial (SOD2). Por sua vez o  $H_2O_2$  será convertido a  $H_2O$  pela enzima glutatona peroxidase (Gpx). O STE é alimentado de  $e^-$  provenientes do NADH e  $FADH_2$  produzidos no TCA, e convertidos a  $NAD^+$  e  $FADH$  pelos I e II, respectivamente. O gradiente de  $H^+$  no espaço intermembrana é formado pela atividade do I, III e IV, o qual é consumido pela atividade de V, utilizando a força protomotriz para a síntese de ATP. Para manter a força protomotriz, os  $H^+$  que retornam a matriz mitocondrial são convertidos a água ( $H_2O$ ), pela ação do IV com consumo de oxigênio ( $O_2$ ), (modificado de (Zhuo *et al.*, 2012)).

Entre as diferentes técnicas em potencial para elucidar o impacto de diferentes substratos energéticos sobre o metabolismo cerebral encontra-se a respirometria de alta resolução. O aparelho Oxygraph-2K Oroboros® permite inferir o consumo de  $O_2$  em tempo real da amostra em relação às seguintes variáveis: atividade dos Complexos I-IV; atividade da ATPsintase; consumo de  $O_2$  máximo;  $H^+$ -Leak; capacidade de reserva; consumo de  $O_2$  residual (ROX); e o impacto de substratos energéticos sobre o metabolismo celular (Davuluri *et al.*, 2016). Em suma, o equipamento disponibiliza um microambiente de temperatura, pressão e concentração de  $O_2$  controlados, frente à utilização de um meio de incubação específico. Caso o preparado celular da amostra seja de dissociados cerebrais em um meio contendo apenas glicose, será possível inferir o quanto a amostra utiliza deste substrato para a produção de ATP acoplado ao consumo de  $O_2$ . O mesmo raciocínio é feito ao adicionar outros substratos energéticos durante o experimento (Figura 6).



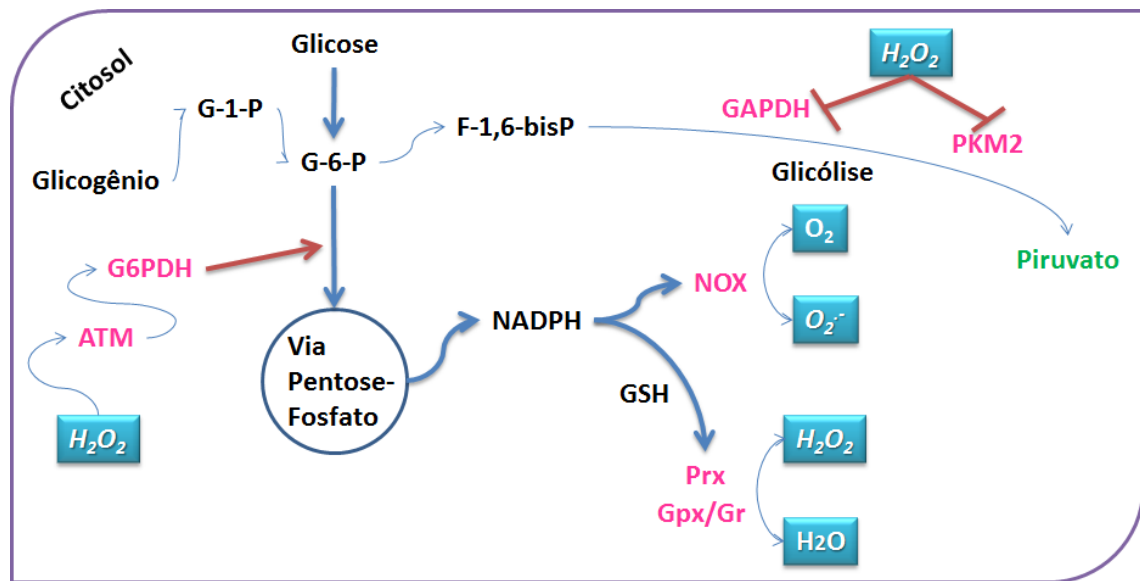


**Figura 6. Impacto da modulação farmacológica sobre o consumo de O<sub>2</sub>.** (A) A estrutura de cada complexo respiratório presente na membrana interna mitocondrial foi obtida conforme descrito: NADH-ubiquinona oxireductase (complexo I) do organismo *Thermus thermophilus* (PDB ID 4HEA), succinato-quinona oxireductase (complexo II) do organismo *Escherichia coli* (PDB ID 2WDV), complexo citocromo bc<sub>1</sub> (complexo III) do organismo *Bos taurus* (PDB ID 1PP9), citocromo c oxidase (complexo IV) do organismo *Bos taurus* (PDB ID 3AG4), F<sub>1</sub>F<sub>0</sub>-ATP sintase (complexo V) do organismo *Escherichia coli* (PDB ID 5T4Q), e citocromo c do organismo *Equus caballus* (PDB ID 1HRC). Oligomicina (Olig) é o inibidor do complexo V, carbonil cianido-p-trifluorometoxifenilhidrazona (FCCP) é um desacoplador da membrana interna mitocondrial, cianeto de potássio (KCN) é o inibidor do complexo IV. (B) Taxa de consumo de oxigênio (OCR) é avaliado antes e depois da adição dos fármacos descritos em A. A adição de cada composto está detalhado na parte superior do gráfico. O consumo de O<sub>2</sub> de rotina está representado em azul, o consumo de O<sub>2</sub> acoplado a síntese de ATP está representado em rosa, o consumo de O<sub>2</sub> máximo está representado em verde, o consumo de O<sub>2</sub> acoplado ao vazamento de H<sup>+</sup> está representado em roxo, e o consumo de O<sub>2</sub> residual (ROX) está representado em vermelho (figura feita por Diogo Losch de Oliveira).

### 1.8. Efeito Janus das mudanças metabólicas do glutamato

A completa oxidação do glutamato com reduzidas concentrações de piruvato intracelular pode ser prejudicial à fisiologia celular (Panov *et al.*, 2009) (**Figura 4**). A redução dos níveis de oxaloacetato na matriz mitocondrial resultante deste processo de oxidação pode elevar o ROS, uma vez que a SDH não sofrerá inibição por oxaloacetato (Zeylemaker *et al.*, 1969). A SDH é uma fração do complexo II mitocondrial, o potencial acúmulo de elétrons neste complexo pode levar a um processo chamado de transporte reverso de elétrons (Scialo *et al.*, 2016), no qual os elétrons migram do complexo 2 para o complexo 1, propiciando a reação de Fenton (Mittler, 2017). O resultado é o aumento da atividade das enzimas SOD e da Gpx, uma vez que os níveis de catalase (CAT) no SNC são irrisórios (Sani *et al.*, 2006; Gabryel *et al.*, 2016). Para que a glutathiona (GSH) seja eficiente como defesa antioxidante, sua reciclagem pela atividade da enzima glutathiona reductase (GR) é fundamental, a qual consome NADPH (Massarsky *et al.*, 2017). O H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> é capaz de modular a glicólise, aumentando indiretamente a atividade da glicose-6-fosfato-desidrogenase (G6PDH) e inibindo as enzimas glicerol-3-fosfato-desidrogenase (GAPDH) e piruvato-cinase (PK) (**Figura 7**). Logo, a redução do aporte de

glicose como uma moeda metabólica para produção de ATP, no intuito de acelerar a via das pentoses-6-fosfato, seria fundamental para a produção de NADPH e redução de ROS (Lloret *et al.*, 2016).



**Figura 7. Regulação da glicólise por ação do peróxido de hidrogênio (H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>).** Representado em roxo um citosol celular genérico. Com o aumento da presença de espécies reativas de O<sub>2</sub> (ROS) a concentração intracelular de H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> eleva-se causando dano ao DNA. A enzima Ataxia telangiectasia cinase (ATM) presente no núcleo celular, é exportada ao citosol mediante dano oxidativo do DNA. A ATM ativa a glicose-6-fosfato-desidrogenase (G6PDH), a qual desvia a glicose-6-fosfato (G-6-P) da glicólise para a via das pentose-fosfato, aumentando a produção de NADPH, para maior eficiência de sistemas antioxidantes como por exemplo o balanço de glutatona (GSH) e o balanço de atividade enzimático da glutatona peroxidase (Gpx) e glutatona redutase (Gr), peroxidoxina (Prx) e NADPH oxidase (NOX). Concomitante, a oxidação promovida pelo H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> sobre as enzimas gliceraldeído-3-fosfato-desidrogenase (GAPDH) e piruvato-cinase (PKM2), inibe a atividade de ambas enzimas resultando em uma redução da atividade glicolítica celular (modificado de (Shiloh e Ziv, 2013; Kang *et al.*, 2015)).

### I.9. Hipótese

Perante o desequilíbrio redox que há em crises epiléticas, o papel do metabolismo da glicose conectado a via das pentoses-fosfato, a redução do aporte desta molécula, e o aumento no consumo de ATP para a manutenção do evento epilético, hipotetizou-se a possibilidade do SNC central utilizar outras moléculas presentes no mesmo como fonte majoritária de produção de ATP ao invés da Glicose.

**I.9. Objetivo Geral**

Investigar a bioenergética cerebral do modelo de crises epiléticas prolongadas induzida por pentilenotetrazol em peixe-zebra adulto.

**I.10. Objetivos Específicos**

- Delimitar os diferentes modelos de crises e síndromes epiléticas em peixe-zebra.
- Avaliar a contribuição da D-glicose, L-glutamato, L-glutamina, L-lactato, e  $\beta$ -hidroxibutirato sobre a manutenção metabólica mitocondrial cerebral pela medida de consumo de  $O_2$  para a produção de ATP em crises epiléticas prolongadas induzidas por pentilenotetrazol em peixe-zebra adulto.
- Avaliar o balanço redox de cérebro de peixe-zebra adulto, exposto a pentilenotetrazol 10 mM por 20 min.

**Parte II**

## II.1. Capítulo I

### **Zebrafish as an Animal Model to Study Epileptic Seizures and Epileptic Syndromes**

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#### **Tema:**

Revisão das dificuldades atuais enfrentadas na área terapêutica relacionada à epilepsia e como utilizar as potencialidades do peixe-zebra para superar os altos índices de epilepsias criptogênicas, falhas terapêuticas, refratariedades e comorbidades comportamentais associadas à epilepsia.

#### **Principal conclusão:**

Apesar dos avanços em utilizar o peixe-zebra como modelo animal para o estudo das crises epiléticas e síndromes epiléticas, uma grande parcela da literatura científica foca em realizar validações de face e predição, sem estudar os mecanismos patológicos de cada modelo em peixe-zebra dificultando um comparativo translacional e ressaltando a importância de novos trabalhos focando validações de construto.

#### **Contribuição à formação do aluno:**

Escrever um artigo de revisão expande a compreensão do modelo animal além de potencializar a capacidade do aluno em defender pontos de vistas de forma crítica.

#### **Objetivo:**

Selecionar o modelo de crises epilética prolongada em peixe-zebra para investigar as mudanças na bioenergética cerebral que potencialmente contribuiriam para a manutenção deste evento.

## REVIEW ARTICLE

# Zebrafish as an Animal Model to Study Epileptic Seizures and Epileptic Syndromes

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**Abstract: Background:** Epilepsy is a chronic disorder of the brain. Globally, an estimated 2.4 million people are diagnosed with epilepsy each year. Recent studies have shown that 70% of epileptic patients can be successfully treated with anti-epileptic drugs. Unfortunately, 30% of the patients still suffer from intractable epilepsy, a problem that represents a difficult scientific challenge. Crucial genetic research and high throughput drug screening are combined together to search for treatment for refractory seizures.

**Goals.** Development of new animal models amenable to genetic manipulation and drug screening, e.g. the zebrafish (*Danio rerio*), is an important goal and represents a promising step. In this review, we summarize general aspects of epilepsy and the advances through history, and emphasize the importance of the zebrafish as an animal model representing new research strategies leading to proper treatment of human epilepsy. We also describe the advances in research using both the larvae and adult zebrafish, and discuss the barriers which zebrafish must overcome to become a better animal model for a variety of neurological disorders, including epileptic seizures and epilepsy. **Conclusion.** Even though zebrafish larvae seem to be more attractive as a tool, adult zebrafish are also very valuable, as they can be used to study the impact of genetic manipulation and drugs on behavioral changes after seizures.



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## 1. EPILEPSY: GENERAL ASPECTS AND EPIDEMIOLOGY

Epilepsy is a chronic brain disorder which is characterized by an enduring predisposition to generate epileptic seizures and by the neurobiological, cognitive, psychological and social conse-

quences of this condition [1]. By definition, epilepsy requires the occurrence of at least one epileptic seizure, which is an outcome from excessive and hypersynchronous electrical discharges in a group of neurons from one or more regions of the brain. Epileptic seizures range from short to prolonged and severe seizures, from less than 1 per year to several per day [2]. Epileptic seizures are classified into two major groups, in terms of their origin within the brain [3]. The first group is represented by focal epileptic seizures, in which only a portion of the brain is affected. This type of seizure can be subdivided to simple focal seizure vs.

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dyscognitive focal seizure. Simple focal seizure is characterized by slightly shifted emotions and/or moods, involuntary jerking and twitching in body parts, and unusual sensory experiences, such as seeing flashing lights, without loss of consciousness. Dyscognitive focal seizures are associated with loss of consciousness or awareness during seizure manifestation. The second group, called generalized epileptic seizures, affects both sides of the brain and it is frequently subdivided into six subgroups. Absence seizures cause brief unawareness of surroundings and actions, staring blankly until the seizure is over with possible repetitive body movement. In the past, this type of seizure is also called “petit mal”. Atonic seizures cause loss of muscle tonus leading to a sudden fall or collapse. Clonic seizures lead to rhythmic, repeated jerking movements. Myoclonic seizure cause sudden jerking movements or twitches. Tonic seizures are characterized by muscular tonus increased, often leading to the patient to fall to the ground. Finally, tonic-clonic seizures, also called as “grand mal” seizures, lead to loss of consciousness, and violent tonic and clonic movements of entire body, associated with loss of sphincter control [4, 5].

Epilepsy with a known cause is called symptomatic or structural/metabolic epilepsy. The causes of symptomatic epilepsy could be brain damage from prenatal or perinatal injuries (e.g. a hypoxia or trauma during birth, low birth weight), congenital abnormalities with associated brain malformations, severe head injury, stroke, or numerous CNS disorders (e.g. meningitis, encephalitis, neurocysticercosis, and brain tumor), respectively [2, 6]. Last, the most common type of epilepsy, which affects 6 out of 10 people with epilepsy, is called cryptogenic epilepsy.

According to the World Health Organization (WHO), approximately US\$ 15.5 billion is spent in the United States of America each year to treat and care for epileptic patients. It is estimated that 50 million people around the world suffer from this disorder, and 2.4 million new cases are diagnosed each year [7]. In high-income countries, annual new cases are between 30 and 50 per 100 000 people in the general population. In developing countries, the prevalence of the disease can be up to two times higher [8]. This may be due to the increased risk of endemic conditions such as malaria or neurocysticercosis, higher incidence of traffic-accidents, birth-related complications, poor medical infrastructure, few preventative health

programs and low accessibility to care. As a result, 80% of epileptic patients live in developing countries [9].

More than 60% of patients respond positively to the first anti-epileptic drug prescribed, and almost all patients will become seizure-free after treatment. Two to five years after diagnosis, 50 percent of patients will be able to withdraw the anti-epileptic medication [10]. Recent studies have shown that 70% of children and adults with epilepsy can be successfully treated with anti-epileptic drugs (AEDs). Unfortunately, 30% of epileptic patients still suffer from intractable epilepsy, or develop intolerance to the available drugs [11]. Furthermore, 75% of epileptic patients who live in developing countries do not receive correct treatment, a problem known as the “therapeutic gap” [12]. Epilepsy has significant economic implications in terms of health-care needs, premature death and lost work productivity [13]. Therefore, search for new therapies to treat the 30% of refractory patients and solve therapeutic gap are important goals [14]. Accordingly to WHO, there are simple, cost-effective ways to treat epilepsy in resource-poor settings, thereby significantly reducing treatment gaps [15].

Another important point about epilepsy is prevention. Around half of people who suffer head injury will develop epilepsy. Therefore, one of the most effective prevention is to use adequate gear when riding a bike, respect transit rules, never drive under the effect of drugs, and reduce risk factors for stroke, like obesity [16]. Adequate perinatal care can reduce new cases of epilepsy. The use of drugs and other methods to decrease body temperature of a child under fever can also reduce the chance of febrile seizures. Central nervous system infections are common causes of epilepsy in tropical areas [17, 18, 19]. Unfortunately, cryptogenic epilepsy, which affects 60% of all patients, has no clear etiology. Thus, research must be done to develop new therapies and to unveil the mechanism behind idiopathic epilepsy.

## **2. ZEBRAFISH: GENERAL ASPECTS**

Production of clones of homozygous diploid zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) introduced zebrafish to the modern science [20, 21]. In 1981, George Streisinger *et al.* were able to generate clones of homozygous fish from individual homozygotes, which facilitated genetic analyses of this verte-

brate, including the use of mutagenesis [22, 23, 24]. Subsequently, Christiane Nüsslein-Volhard published a study describing 1200 mutant zebrafish isolated in a large-scale screen [55]; and Howe *et al.* (2013) performed genome sequencing of zebrafish and correlated it to the human genome [56]. This small aquatic vertebrate has become popular in biomedical research. It is a vertebrate species with high physiological and genetic homology to humans. Its advantages include easy genetic manipulation, and similarity of its central nervous system (CNS) morphology and function to those of higher order vertebrates [27-31]. In addition, zebrafish presents a tight junction-based blood–brain barrier similar to that of higher vertebrates, with substantial macromolecule permeability, which makes this model an attractive organism for high throughput screenings and drug discovery. In addition, zebrafish possess rapid development and a relatively long lifespan [32, 33]. Therefore, they may represent an ideal species for medium- and high-throughput screens for genetic mutations and small molecules [34-37]. The close parallels between mammalian and zebrafish behavioral paradigms further increase the interest for this species for neuroscience research.

Transparency and external development of embryos and larvae allow gene expression visualization by using fluorescent probes and reporter genes [38]. The increase of molecular tools available for high-resolution live-imaging has recently been expanded to include genetically encoded fluorescent calcium indicator GCaMP proteins, which can reveal the spatio-temporal activities of excitable cells such as neurons, in intact, living zebrafish [39-42]. In addition, chemicals can be added to the holding water of the fish, which readily facilitates pharmacological interventions. All these characteristics motivated researchers to model human brain disorders using zebrafish [43].

### 3. ZEBRAFISH AS AN ANIMAL MODEL TO STUDY EPILEPTIC SEIZURES AND EPILEPSY SYNDROMES

The study *Genes controlling and mediating locomotion behavior of the zebrafish embryo and larva* was the first work describing behavioral alterations in zebrafish that correlated with epileptic seizures [44]. The study identified zebrafish with motor deficits and uncovered an array of mutations in potential epilepsy-linked genes [45]. After this

pioneering work, several other studies have been performed for modeling genetic and non-genetic causes of epileptic seizure and epilepsy in zebrafish.

#### 3.1. Non-Genetic Models of Epileptic Seizures

Non-genetic models of epileptic seizures have been important through history of the discovery and development of antiepileptic drugs. Usually, non-genetic models focus on the modulation of the equilibrium between excitatory and inhibitory neurotransmitter systems, i.e. increasing the activity of glutamatergic neurotransmission [46] or by decreasing the GABAergic neurotransmission [47]. In this context, the first study describing a model of epileptic seizure in larvae zebrafish used this paradigm. Pentylentetrazole (PTZ) was the first non-genetic model for zebrafish [48]. More recently, other zebrafish seizure models were developed, such as domoic acid [49], pilocarpine [50], fever [51], and kainic acid (KA) [52]. Despite the great importance of each study, all of them evaluated epileptic seizures, but not epilepsy. Below we describe these non-genetic models of epileptic seizure for zebrafish.

##### 3.1.1. Pentylentetrazole

The first work evaluating epileptic seizures in zebrafish was published by Baraban *et al.* [48]. These authors evaluated the behavioral, electrophysiological and molecular changes that occur in larvae zebrafish by exposing it in a range of PTZ (GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor antagonist) concentrations (2.5 – 15 mM). They detected a behavioral profile similar to seizures described in three distinct stages in humans. Initially, fish dramatically increased their swim activity (Stage I), which was followed by a rapid “whirlpool-like” circling swim behavior (Stage II), and subsequent culmination of a series of brief clonus-like convulsions leading to a loss of posture, e.g. fish falling to one side and remaining immobile for 1–3 s (Stage III). Behavioral profile and latency to each behavioral measure was dose-dependent and only 75% of the animals presented stage III when immersed in 15 mM concentration of PTZ. Using a CCD camera and a video tracking software, the authors were able to observe these stages and correlated them with distance travelled. Furthermore, they have shown important changes in c-Fos expression in the brain of PTZ treated animals, and also analyzed temporal



changes in electrographic activity during seizure [48].

Berghmans *et al.* detected that the zebrafish PTZ induced-seizure model was highly sensitive to drugs that affect the brain by distinct mechanisms. Therefore, it was suggested that zebrafish could be used for primary screening of potential anti-seizure drugs. In order to perform the first AED high-throughput screen in zebrafish, they used a multi-well plate with different drugs in each well containing a zebrafish. Different from rodents, which each model respond to few AEDs, the zebrafish PTZ model was shown to be responsive to almost all known first-line AED drugs. Unfortunately, many of the drugs tested are able to induce sedative effects, and the analyses were only extended to locomotor activity measurements [53]. Afrikanova *et al.* (2013) evaluated the effect of distinct AED on zebrafish PTZ model by using electrographic measurements associated with behavioral analysis. This was the first study to define a proper toxicological evaluation of the compounds [54].

Unfortunately, to our knowledge, no study has been done using pro-convulsant drugs in association with PTZ. This type of experiment would elucidate whether distance travelled is a good parameter to measure seizure Stage III. The definition of stage III includes length of immobility associated with seizure. Thus, if a compound induces more seizures and at the same time increases the length of immobility it could be misjudged as an anti-seizure compound. For example, Baxendale *et al.* (2012) performed a concentration–response curve of PTZ for larvae zebrafish from 1.25 to 80 mM. Animals immersed in the highest concentration presented a similar distance travelled as the control group [55]. Thus, new investigations aiming to clarify whether the distance travelled is a good measure for AED activity must be performed.

Kim *et al.* [56] were able to induce three consecutive seizures by immersing adult zebrafish in PTZ at 10 mM for 30 min, and measured memory. The animals presented a decline of learning ability only after the third seizure. The first description of behavioral seizure phenotype correlated with endocrine changes was performed in the same year. It suggested a critical window of seizure evaluation at 20 min. The seizure was induced by caffeine (250mg/L; 1.3mM), PTZ (1.5g/L; 11.0mM)

and picrotoxin (100mg/L; 0.17mM). The animals exhibited seizures similar to those seen in larvae (hyperactivity bouts, tonic movements, circular and corkscrew swimming). Furthermore, the authors showed increased whole-body cortisol levels after seizure, suggesting the possibility to study stress effects at postictal moment [57]. In 2012, the same research group showed that animals immersed in 11 mM of PTZ displayed high expression of *c-Fos* in the brain [58]. At almost the same time, another important article was published. Connecting cognitive impairments and epilepsy, Lee *et al.* [59] published the first study reversing the decline of memory after seizure by pre-treatment with valproic acid. They confirmed that in that model heat-shock protein 70 (*hsp70*) mRNA was overexpressed after seizure similarly to what has been found in rodent models. In the next year, neurochemical and electrophysiological studies started. Siebel *et al.* [60] performed a study showing the impact of seizure on purinergic system signaling using a range of PTZ concentrations from 5 mM to 15 mM during 20 min of exposure. Based on this concentration and time window, Pineda *et al.* [61] published the first EEG study of adult zebrafish using the PTZ seizure model. Here we draw attention to the study “*Recording the adult zebrafish cerebral field potential during pentylenetetrazole seizures*”, particularly to figure 5, which shows a correlation between time to seizure onset and the PTZ concentration exposure curve. On one hand, the EEG profile showed electrographic seizure by increased brain activity after 3 min of animals exposed to 15 mM of PTZ. On the other hand, animals exposed to 7.5 mM concentration of the drug took almost 10 min to exhibit electrographic seizure activity. Thus, even though few studies claim to have performed AED screening in adult zebrafish, none performed a proper protocol of PTZ-induced seizure. Gupta *et al.* [62], showed that fish immersed in PTZ at 6 mM exhibited seizure onset around 6 min after PTZ exposure, which does not follow EEG description by Pineda *et al.*, [61]. Siebel *et al.* [63], suggest rampamycin as a potential AED, but PTZ-induced seizure began within 4 min when 7.5 mM concentration of the drug was employed. In the same study, larval zebrafish were used to test the hypothesis. Unfortunately, Baraban *et al.* [48] found no seizure score III in larvae exposed to PTZ at this concentration. This may be due to over simplification of seizure-like behavior analysis in adult zebrafish. As adult zebrafish present a fully developed cen-

tral nervous system, as well as body anatomy, it is hoped that more detailed and sophisticated analyses may be performed.

Could the seizure stages of adult zebrafish be misjudged if the larval zebrafish is used to measure it? To answer this question, we needed to evaluate whether adult zebrafish exposed to PTZ displays a detailed seizure score. Mussulini *et al.*, [64] showed that animals exposed to 5 to 15 mM of PTZ presented a seizure similar to what was observed in response to KA exposure [42] as follows: stage 0, short swimming mainly in the bottom of the tank; stage I, increased swimming activity and high frequency of opercula movement; stage II, burst swimming, left and right movements, and erratic movements; stage III, circular movements; stage IV, clonic-seizure-like behavior (abnormal whole-body rhythmic muscular clonus); stage V, fall to the bottom of the tank, tonic-seizure like behavior (sinking to the bottom of the tank, loss of body posture, and principally by tonic extension of the body); stage VI, death. Concentrations below 10 mM of PTZ presented a high variability of latency to seizure onset. Animals exposed to 5 mM of PTZ did not present immobility neither fell to the bottom of the tank after clonic-seizure like behavior, suggesting that larval stage III happens in two separate stages in the adult. Animals exposed to 10 mM presented a seizure profile similar to those observed by Pineda *et al.* [61]. In addition, PTZ brain concentration was similar to rodent PTZ model and mortality ratio was around 30% within 72 h after seizure. Therefore, for future studies the concentration of 10 mM of PTZ appears to be adequate to study seizures as well as to investigate the anticonvulsant action of selected drugs in adult zebrafish. Pagnussat *et al.* [65] have evaluated the anxiety levels and scototaxis in adult zebrafish subjected to PTZ-induced seizures (10 mM of PTZ). The authors observed a similar latency to seizure as that demonstrated by Mussulini *et al.* [64]. Moreover, the study showed that when animals were exposed to PTZ in groups of 3 (triplets) the latency to reach the stage IV was higher when compared to a single animal.

### 3.1.2. Domoic Acid Epileptic Seizure Model

Domoic acid (DA) is a neurotoxin produced by diatoms of the genus *Pseudonitzschia* that targets the limbic system to induce tonic-clonic seizures. Tiedeken *et al.* [49] published a study evaluating the effects of DA in zebrafish larvae. Embryos

were microinjected with DA at concentrations ranging from 0.12 to 1.26 ng/mg egg weight. Seven days later, the larval animals were treated with PTZ to evaluate their sensitivity to the chemical convulsant. *In ovo* 0.4 ng/mg DA exposure reduced the latency for the first PTZ seizure in larval fish and increased the severity of seizures, which was determined by seizure staging and behavioral parameters. The seizure score used in this work was the same as described by Baraban *et al.* [48]. This approach demonstrates that *in ovo* exposure to DA may reduce the threshold to chemically induced seizures in larval fish and increase the severity of seizure. There are many published studies about DA exposure in zebrafish larvae, but the main focus was not epilepsy. In this context, Lefebvre *et al.* [67] published a study showing the impact of intracoelomic injection of DA on adult zebrafish, which resulted in a behavioral seizure profile similar to that of larval zebrafish. Authors performed a microarray analysis and observed a transcriptional profile similar to that associated with neuronal apoptosis following a putative activation of protective pathways.

### 3.1.3. Kainic Acid Epileptic Seizure Model

It is well established in rodent models that KA induces seizures and epilepsy through overstimulation of the excitatory system. However, the first study involving adult zebrafish was performed only in 2011. Alfaro *et al.* [42] described a new seizure profile in adult zebrafish by injecting KA intraperitoneally (1-8 mg/Kg). The animals presented the following responses: Stage I, immobility and hyperventilation of the animal; Stage II, whirlpool-like swimming behavior; Stage III, rapid movements from right to left; Stage IV, abnormal and *spasmodic muscular contractions*; Stage V, rapid whole-body clonus-like convulsions; Stage VI, sinking to the bottom of the tank and *spasms* for several minutes; Stage VII, death. Seizure profile and lethality indicates that 6 mg/Kg is an adequate dose in this model. Even though the temporal profiles of seizure behavioral manifestation induced by PTZ present a different sequence of score from KA model all manifestations are similar. It indicates similar brain regions were activated in a temporally different manner, suggesting the importance of electrophysiology studies involving neurocircuitry to elucidate the trigger mechanism of seizure in zebrafish. In the same study, this research group showed that the neurotransmission pathway involving the induction of epileptic seizure was conserved between

zebrafish and rodents, because animals pretreated with antagonists of the glutamatergic system (MK-801, DNQX) were able to block the seizure behavior manifestation. The innovation of the study regarding the use of a new epileptic model using zebrafish is as important as the use of compounds injected intraperitoneally. The possibility to avoid drug getting in contact with gills, eyes and skin connected to the reduced amount of new compound tests elevates the use of adult zebrafish to drug screening making the fish more reliable with rodent models and even less expensive.

In the last few years, non-pharmacological treatment strategies to manage refractory epilepsies are increasingly being considered, including the use of diet [68]. Thus, in 2012, the same research group evaluated the impact of the polyunsaturated fatty acid docosahexaenoic (DHA) diet supplementation on seizure sensibility evoked in adult zebrafish [69]. The results showed a reduction in the severity of seizure, and suggested the possibility of using zebrafish for compound screening during their entire life. Thus, new toxicological experiments could be designed to lower refractoriness.

In order to evaluate the effects of early-life-induced seizures on the seizure susceptibility at adulthood, Menezes *et al.* [70] have evaluated the impact of an early life KA exposure (500  $\mu$ M for 30 min) on seizure tolerance after 2 months. Animals exposed to KA at 24 and 360 hpf presented no alteration in the seizure profile at 2 months later when animals were injected with 6 mg/Kg of KA. On the other hand, animals exposed to KA 196 hpf presented a higher tolerance to seizure when injected with 6 mg/Kg of KA 2 months later. Although the research question was simple, the study emphasized the use of zebrafish as an animal model for the investigation of the impact of early epileptic seizure on later development, and established a time and dose window to work with larval zebrafish. We hope to see new articles evaluating the neurocognitive changes of such alteration, as well as the impact of seizure during development on adulthood by letting the animals live for 6 mpf or more time.

Castell *et al.* [71] exposed eggs of zebrafish during 72 h to KA 100  $\mu$ M in order to evaluate the neuroprotective effects of a polyphenolic extract from olive pit. Although the study suffered from lack of adequate controls, the authors have observed neurochemical alterations involving the cholinergic system (similar to those seen in the

KA rodent model), which instigates many researchers to use the model to study Alzheimer's disease [72].

#### **3.1.4. Pilocarpine Epileptic Seizure Model**

Treatment with high-dose of pilocarpine, a cholinergic muscarinic agonist, induces seizures in rodents following systemic or intracerebral administration. In 2011, Vermoesen *et al.* [40] published a study about the epileptic seizure model induced by pilocarpine in zebrafish larvae. Larvae exposed to 30 mM pilocarpine presented subtle convulsive behaviors such as lurching/head banging, head-to-tail undulations, increased mouth movements, tremor, body contortions, and loss of posture. The objective of the study was to test antidepressants as potential anti-seizure compounds. Citalopram, bupropion, or reboxetine were tested and presented such effect. In 2013, Baraban [73] published a study with a simple method to record extracellular field potentials in the larval zebrafish forebrain. The method provides a robust *in vivo* read-out of seizure-like activity during exposure of larvae to 40 mM pilocarpine. Large-amplitude multi-spike burst discharge in these samples was evoked. Lopes *et al.* [74] published a study in 2016 evaluating c-Fos expression 1 day after zebrafish larvae were exposed to 60 mM pilocarpine. c-Fos was overexpressed similarly to what was found by Baraban *et al.* [48]. However, no brain regions were evaluated. Even though this model has been tested from perspectives of behavioral and electrophysiological phenotypes and overexpression of c-Fos, it is important to note that the above-mentioned studies used three different pilocarpine concentrations, which suggests that a new study to evaluate these differences with a detailed dose response analysis is required.

#### **3.1.5. Ginkgotoxin Epileptic Seizure Model**

Ginkgotoxin (4-O-methylpyridoxine) is a neurotoxin naturally occurring in *Ginkgo biloba*. Various supplements from this plant are available in Japan, and widely used for alleviating medical conditions [75]. However, overuse or accidental ingestion of *Ginkgo biloba* has been reported to induce epileptic seizures, unconsciousness and irritability due to an overdose of ginkgotoxin. To investigate its effects, Lee *et al.* [76] exposed zebrafish larvae to 3 and 5 dpf to ginkgotoxin 0.2, 0.5, 1 mM for 2 hours. The behavioral profile was characterized by the following: stage 0, no or low

swimming activity; stage I, mildly increased swimming activity; stage II, whole body convulsion and misshaped, were observed similar to Baraban *et al* [48]. The toxin did not affect larvae development and morphology, however, ginkgotoxin-induced malformation of optic stalk and spinal cord neurons. GABA and Pyridoxal-5-phosphate were able to attenuate the effects of Ginkgotoxin, but not the effects of PTZ. This study is an example of how zebrafish can be used to expand our knowledge of epilepsy etiology.

### 3.1.6. Allylglycine Epileptic Seizure Model

(D,L)-allylglycine (AG, 2-amino-4-pentenoic acid) interferes with the synthesis of GABA via a mixed-mechanism including the inhibition of glutamate decarboxylase, leading to decreased GABA levels and increased glutamine concentrations in the brain [77]. Leclercq *et al.* [78] hypothesized that zebrafish larvae could present a complex seizure behavior if immersed in (D,L)-allylglycine. The larvae were placed individually in the wells of a 96-well plate; ten larvae were used per treatment group. Allylglycine was used in the concentration range of 30–300 mM; AEDs were tested at their respective maximal tolerated concentrations (MTCs): Valproate (VPA-0.5 mM), Topiramate (TPM-200  $\mu$ M), Diazepam (DZP-16  $\mu$ M), Levetiracetam (LEV-10 mM), and Phenobarbital (PHT-100  $\mu$ M). There was a similar seizure behavioral profile as defined by Baraban *et al.* [48], which started 2 h after the incubation with Allylglycine. Full seizure scores were observed after 8 h of exposure. Electrophysiological discharges indicated neuronal hyperactivity after 90 – 120 min of exposure with full brain behavior activity from 187 min to 480 min. Furthermore, after 90 min of exposure brain GABA levels decreased to 70% of the original concentration. Both Valproate and diazepam were able to present anti-seizure effects. The only missing point in the study was the absence of c-Fos expression analysis, which would have enabled the authors to compare their results with those of other epileptic seizure models.

### 3.1.7. Fever Epileptic Seizure Model

Febrile seizures are triggered by a rise in body temperature (i.e., hyperthermia or fever) in the absence of CNS infection or metabolic disorder. Hunt *et al.* [51] hypothesized that activation of thermo sensitive TRPV channels in response to an increase in brain temperature might promote ab-

normal neuronal excitability and the subsequent exacerbation of excitability via increased glutamate-mediated synaptic transmission resulting in febrile seizures. To test it, zebrafish larvae were exposed to temperature fluctuation. Hyperthermia (HT)-induced seizures were initially associated with “ictal-like” multi-spike, large amplitude, long-duration burst discharges (>1 s) that progressed to include shorter, small amplitude, high frequency events detected by patch clamp analysis. The waveform was similar to PTZ, 4-aminopyridine or linopirdine and it had duration between 2 and 7 min. Quantitative PCR was used to assess the developmental expression profile for TRPV channels and glutamate receptor subunits, because TRPV channels are closely connected to  $Ca^{+2}$  flux and NMDA receptor activity [79]. Acute HT-induced seizures appear to involve increased activities of both TRPV4 channels and post-synaptic NMDA-type glutamate receptors, quantified by both RT-PCR and pharmacologically. GABA (1 mM) or the GABA re-uptake inhibitors nipecotinic acid (1 mM) and NO-711 (100  $\mu$ M) did not alter HT-induced seizure duration. RN-1734 (0.5–1 mM), a TRPV4 channel antagonist, produced a significant reduction of HT seizure activity; capsazapine (100  $\mu$ M), a TRPV1 channel antagonist had no effect. MK-801 (1 mM), a competitive NMDA receptor antagonist, or ifenprodil (1 mM), a NR1 and NR2B specific NMDA receptor antagonist, significantly reduced HT-induced seizure duration. This latter study emphasized the use of NMDA receptor antagonist to control febrile seizures, and explored the correlation between temperature and an excitatory neurotransmitter system. Although the above-mentioned study has been well designed, the zebrafish larvae epileptiform activity was detected between 25–28° C. This result opposes with the international recommendations for housing and husbandry zebrafish, which recommends a temperature of 28 °C for breeding and raising fish. Furthermore, the epileptiform activity was increased under 28°C and the higher activity occurs around 33°C. Thus, more research regarding this model must be performed, and an analysis seizure-related behavior phenotypes should be added [80].

## 3.2. Genetic Models of Epileptic Seizures and Epilepsy Syndromes

Teng *et al.* [81] published the first study using morpholinos in zebrafish to study genetic condi-

tions of epilepsy. This study and subsequent ones including those on Angelman syndrome [82], Lowe syndrome [83] and Dravet syndrome [84] began to reinforce the potential of zebrafish not only to study genetic aspects of epilepsy, but also as a model for drug screening, which would be quite difficult in rodent models [85]. The continued high-throughput mutagenesis research efforts can lead us to additional epilepsy phenotypes resulted from clinically relevant genes [86, 87]. The morpholino approach is effective during early development and allows rapid manipulation of genes related to epilepsy, including *Kcnq92*, *Lgi1* [81] and *Chd2* [88]. Below we describe genetic models of epileptic seizure and epilepsy syndromes using zebrafish.

### 3.2.1. Knockdown of *Lgi1a* Gene

*LGI1* gene mutations are related to a genetic disorder described as autosomal dominant partial epilepsy with auditory features- or autosomal dominant lateral temporal lobe epilepsy [89]. *LGI1* encodes a secreted protein which contains a leucine-rich repeat (LRR) domain flanked by cysteine clusters at the N-terminal end and a beta-propeller repeat in the C-terminal region [90].

Teng *et al.* [81], employed ‘morpholinos’ (MO), modified antisense oligonucleotides, and used them to knock down expression of *lgi1a* generating the first model of genetically linked epilepsy in zebrafish. Two MO-targeting strategies were designed: MO-E3 to create aberrant mRNA processing by interfering with splicing within the gene. This generates a non-functional protein by interfering with splicing and MO-ATG to interfere with translation by targeting the *lgi1a* initiation codon. Fish injected with high doses (3 ng) of MO-E3 showed a variety of hyperactive phenotypes, which consisted predominantly of an erratic swimming behavior typified by a tight circling motion and/or jerky directional swimming, similar to early stages of PTZ-induced seizures. In parallel, 3 ng of MO-ATG resulted in morphants displaying an even more intense hyper-activity, although 40% of these fish died by 2–3 dpf. In contrast, 1 ng of MO-ATG did not induce death, but it also did not cause behavioral/developmental abnormalities. Activity was measured over a 2h period of PTZ exposure (2.5 mM), and the results showed that average activity increased in MO-E3 morphants when compared to other groups. As important as the phenotype, the study evaluated apoptosis of

brain cells, suggesting the potential of the model to study neuroprotection.

### 3.2.2. Mind bomb Mutant Zebrafish

Disruption of E3 ubiquitin ligase activity, leads to a failure in Notch signaling, excessive numbers of neurons, and depletion of neural progenitor cells [91]. Because developmental brain abnormalities are recognized as an important feature of childhood neurological disorders such as epilepsy and autism [92], Hortophan *et al.* [82] determined whether zebrafish mutants for E3 ubiquitin ligase would display epilepsy phenotype. To do so, adult zebrafish mutant lines (*mibhi904*; *mibta52b*; *tcphi3564*; *hdachi1618*; *dtlhi447*) were obtained from the Zebrafish International Resource Center (ZIRC). Offspring from these mutants were sorted at 2 or 3 dpf based on morphology. Recurrent spontaneous multi-spike bursts were observed in 93% of *mibhi904* mutants. Prolonged burst discharges were similar in waveform to those classified as ‘ictal-like’ following exposure to 15 mM PTZ. Abnormal electrical discharge was not observed in gap-free recordings from *tcphi3564* mutants between 3 and 6 dpf or *hdachi1618* mutants at 3 dpf. Identifiable offspring from *mibta52b* or *dtlhi447* mutants were not viable beyond 2 dpf. Behavioral changes were analyzed in *mibhi904* mutants. Mutant zebrafish larvae showed stage I and Stage 3 described by Baraban *et al.* [48]. The study identified a collection of gene transcripts that may be responsible for the abnormal electrical discharge and epileptic activities observed.

### 3.2.3. Lowe Syndrome

Lowe syndrome is caused by mutation of gene encoding OCRL1, a type II inositol polyphosphate 5-phosphatase responsible for defects in the central nervous system, eyes and kidneys [93]. Until 2011, the mechanisms by which loss of OCRL1 leads to the phenotypic manifestations of Lowe syndrome were unclear, in part, because of the lack of an animal model that would recapitulate the disease phenotype [94]. Therefore Ramirez *et al.* [83] proposed a new animal model to study Lowe syndrome. The authors, introduced a point mutation by PCR using site-directed mutagenesis Quick change method, and then measured susceptibility to heat-induced seizures in zebrafish larvae. OCRL1-deficient zebrafish embryos were more susceptible to seizures. Electrophysiological recordings taken from the forebrain of OCRL1 mutant and control embry-

os revealed that while the temperature for seizure initiation was the same for control and mutant embryos, the OCRL1 mutants had significantly longer seizure duration than the control. Spontaneous seizure activity was not observed over the 45 min duration of the electrophysiological recordings. Deficiency of OCRL1, which was enriched in the brain, leads to neurological defects similar to those reported in Lowe syndrome patients. In OCRL1 deficient embryos, Akt/PKB signaling was reduced and there was both increased apoptosis and reduced proliferation, most strikingly in the neural tissue. Furthermore, mortality rate for the mutant in the first 3 weeks of life was 60%, while WT control group showed mortality rate of 20%. The study indicated a novel role for OCRL1 in neural development, and supported a model whereby dysregulation of phosphoinositide metabolism and clathrin-mediated membrane traffic leads to the neurological symptoms of Lowe syndrome. The contribution of the study to the field was remarkable; it finally connected the hypothesis of OCRL1 to Lowe syndrome through the use of a proper animal model, which was made possible by the ease of genetic manipulation in zebrafish. Because of potential contradiction involving seizure evoked by temperature, it would be important to replicate the study using other pro-seizure compounds.

### 3.2.4. Dravet Syndrome

Mutations in SCN1A gene are associated with generalized epilepsy with febrile seizures plus a more severe disorder known as Dravet syndrome (DS) [95]. SCN1A gene encodes the voltage gated sodium channel alpha-subunit NaV1.1 [96]. In zebrafish, the voltage gated sodium channel family consists of four sets of duplicated genes: *scn1Laa* and *scn1Lab*, *scn4aa* and *scn4ab*, *scn5Laa* and *scn5Lab*, and *scn8aa* and *scn8ab*, and *scn1Lab*, a gene that shares 77% identity with human SCN1A, and is expressed in the CNS. A zebrafish mutant for this gene was discovered previously in a chemical mutagenesis screen using the optokinetic response as an assay. These types of screens are based on inducing random point mutations using the alkylating agent N-ethyl-N-nitrosourea; the resulting mutations are typically loss-of-function and recessive. Then, reverse-transcriptase and quantitative (q) PCR revealed a decrease in mRNA expression for *scn1Lab* in mutant larvae at 3, 5 and 7 days post fertilization. The target of Baraban *et al.* [84] study was to characterize *scn1Lab* mutants at the molecular and behavioral levels, and to

evaluate if the mutants exhibited spontaneous drug-resistant seizures and then used them in a novel high-throughput screening programme to identify compounds that ameliorate the epilepsy phenotype. Forebrain extracellular field recordings from paralyzed and agar-immobilized *scn1Lab* mutants showed frequent brief interictal-like bursts and large-amplitude, long duration, ictal-like events starting at 3 dpf and progressively becoming more prominent between 4 and 7 dpf. Mutants had elevated levels of swim activity and exhibited unprovoked seizure-like behavior consisting of whole-body convulsions and rapid undirected movement starting at 4 dpf. This behavior is similar to what is classified as Stage III seizure in larvae exposed to PTZ [48].

Spontaneous electrographic seizures were also recorded after application of different drugs (all at 1 mM concentration). Epileptiform event frequency (interictal- and ictal-like discharges) and the fractional time spent seizing in *scn1Lab* mutants were reduced by valproate, diazepam, potassium bromide and stiripentol, respectively. Burst durations were not significantly changed for any of these drug exposures, even though the anti-seizure effect of these drugs, the use of 1 mM is extremely high. Furthermore, first-line AEDs were not able to attenuate the seizures. Also, ketogenic diet started at 4dpf for 48h reduced seizure-like behavior and the forebrain records showed suppression of burst activity. Therefore, in this study we have the presence of a classical point in epilepsy, e.g. recurrent-seizure, and refractoriness, allowing zebrafish to be used to overcome the great problem of epilepsy field research. Besides that, a screen of 320 compounds identified a compound called clemizole that inhibits convulsive behaviors and electrographic seizures, a US Food and Drug Administration (FDA)-approved compound, which could only be tested by zebrafish characteristics.

To increase the potential use of *scn1a* mutant zebrafish larvae, 1000 compounds (drug library) were tested to evaluate their potential in unprovoked seizure events [97]. Moreover, other two recently suggested compounds for DS treatment (huperzine A and fenfluramine) were also screened. Animals had their behavior analyzed and EEG recorded (field recordings were obtained from forebrain structures). In the analysis of locomotor seizure behavior, two tested compounds reduced 44% the threshold for inhibition of seizure. Among the 1012 compounds screened, only 20 (or

1.97%) were found to significantly inhibit spontaneous seizure behavior in *scn1Lab* mutants.

Among these drugs only four were classified as positive nontoxic (visible heartbeat or movement response to stimulation) and these four compounds discussed below were further tested using an electrophysiology approach. A suppression of epileptiform electrographic discharge activity was noted in mutants exposed to dimethadione. Norfloxacin, theobromine, and cytarabine were false positives. Finally, in the locomotion assay, huperzine A failed to significantly alter *scn1Lab* seizure behavior at any concentration tested. In contrast, huperzine A was effective at 1 mM in the acute PTZ assay. In the locomotion assay, fenfluramine significantly reduced mutant mean swim velocity at concentrations between 100 and 500  $\mu$ M; 1 mM fenfluramine was toxic in the *scn1Lab* and PTZ assays. The fenfluramine-treated *scn1Lab* mutant exhibited a suppression of spontaneous electrographic seizure discharge to levels similar to controls at 500  $\mu$ M, but only a partial reduction in electrographic activity at 250  $\mu$ M.

This study emphasized the use of EEG techniques even though the behavior approaches presented positive results. Although significant changes in behavior were detected, detection of such changes using video-tracking remains an issue for drug screening. Even though distance travelled has been shown to be closely related to EEG epileptic seizure activity [54], the seizure behaviors, including tremor events and all stages used to characterize larval epilepsy have not been possible to automatically record by any software. Therefore, a study screening more than 1000 compounds and selecting just some potential candidates could underestimate the effect of many other drugs.

### **3.2.5. CHD2 Mutation Sharing Features with Dravet Syndrome**

After a whole-exome sequencing in nine Dravet-Syndrome-affected individuals, a heterozygous de novo mutation was revealed in CHD2 (encoding chromodomain helicase DNA binding protein 2) by Suls *et al.* [88]. In order to establish evidence of the implication of CHD2 in the development of epilepsy, CHD2 was knocked down in zebrafish by using targeted morpholino (MO) antisense oligomers (called E2I2-MO).

E2I2-MO showed morphological and behavioral alterations when compared to Control-MO lar-

vae. Chd2 E2I2-MO showed abnormal motor patterns with frequent whirlpool-like movements. Occasionally, larvae also presented pectoral-fin and jaw twitching and whole-body trembling. Field-potential recordings were assessed on larval brain to confirm whether this behavior could have been a result of seizure activity. Chd2 E2I2-MO-injected larvae displayed ictal-like discharges and this spiking pattern was similar to pre-ictal discharges observed in immature hippocampi of a mouse model of temporal lobe epilepsy [98]. The study provided evidence that de novo loss-of-function mutations in CHD2 are connected to epileptic encephalopathy and generalized seizures.

### **3.2.6. Prickle1a Mutation Increases Seizure Sensibility**

A genetic screening in epilepsy patients identified mutations in the PRICKLE locus (PK1 and PK2), suggesting an association of PK with epilepsy. Mei *et al.* [99], used the zebrafish larvae as a model and characterized *pk1a* function in drug induced seizures. In order to investigate the role of abnormal *pk1a* forms in the developing nervous system, they also explored novel aspects of *pk1a* function in neurite outgrowth in the retina and evaluated biochemical properties of epilepsy-related mutant forms. Morpholino was used to knockdown *pk1a* in zebrafish. In response to exposure to the seizure-inducing drug PTZ, *pk1a* morphants showed significantly higher level of activity compared with control morphants. Valproic acid (VPA), an antiepileptic drug, was able to suppress the increased motility in *pk1a* mutant. The *pk1a* knockdown induced inner plexiform layer defects, confirmed by an increase of ubiquitylation, which is probably independent of proteosomal degradation. Although no EEG data were obtained to confirm epileptic seizure behavior, the study correlates the role of *pk1a* gene for epilepsy outcomes and offers a model of further drug screening to reduce refractoriness under this syndrome.

### **3.2.7. EAST Syndrome**

EAST syndrome is a severe disorder characterized by infantile-onset epilepsy, debilitating ataxia, sensorineural deafness and a salt-wasting tubulopathy, and it is caused by malfunction of potassium channel [100]. The KCNJ10 is expressed in the distal tubule of the kidney in humans and mice [101], in glial cells of the cerebral cortex and cere-

bellar cortex, in the inner ear, and in satellite cells of the auditory nerve [102].

First, using bioinformatics tools, Mahmood *et al.* [103] found an orthologous gene of human KCNJ10 in the zebrafish genome, referred to as *knj10a*. Subsequently, *knj10a* was cloned from RNA of 120hpf fish, clones were sequenced, and to study the function of this gene, heterologous expression was performed in *Xenopus* oocytes and barium-sensitive, inwardly rectifying and K<sup>+</sup>-selective currents were analyzed. The authors concluded that *knj10a* closely resembled human KCNJ10. Subsequently, these authors designed antisense morpholino oligonucleotides (MO). Fish injected with 0.5-2 ng of either MO, but not a control MO, displayed abnormal movements and showed statistically significant increase of frequency of spontaneous contractions. This increase behavior of the fish returned to normal levels when they were co-injected with *knj10a* (0.5 ng) with normal human WT KCNJ10 cRNA (50 pg). Whereas cRNA containing the human R65P mutation associated with EAST syndrome, was not able to control morphant spontaneous contractions. In addition to an increased frequency of spontaneous contractions at 30 hpf, which could indicate that neurons are hyperexcitable, several other abnormal movement phenotypes were detected in *knj10a* morphants at 120 hpf. In an experiment that measured touch-evoked escape response, morphants were found to exhibit circling locomotion with frequent 'loops' around their vertical axis. Furthermore, swimming appeared labored and morphants struggled to maintain an upright posture and performed excessive fin movements that did not accompany locomotion. They also showed abnormal facial movements. All these behaviors were interpreted as ataxia. On occasions, larvae would have a burst of speed, usually in one direction so they would continue to try to swim forward even when they hit the wall of the dish, followed by a sudden and complete loss of posture, and this behavior was described previously in larvae presenting seizure [48]. Also, *knj10a* morphants has a reduced swim speed compared to WT or p53 morphant larvae (a MO control for toxicity).

To examine if these locomotion defects could be due to morphological defects in the nervous system, 120 hpf larvae were examined by using anti-acetylated  $\alpha$ -tubulin immunohistochemistry. No defects in any part of the central or peripheral nervous

system of *knj10a* morphants were found, suggesting that the locomotion defects were due to physiological defects caused by loss of Kcnj10a. Channel functionality was further examined by expressing ZF Kcnj10a in *Xenopus* oocytes. Barium-sensitive, inwardly rectifying and K<sup>+</sup>-selective currents were observed, which closely resembled those of human KCNJ10. The only missing aspect was EEG confirmation of epileptic seizures, a missing piece that was obtained in a subsequent study.

In order to develop and validate a reliable method for stable long-term recording of EEG activity in zebrafish, which would be less prone to artifacts than current invasive techniques, Zdebik *et al.* [104], used antisense morpholino oligonucleotides (MO) to knock-down *knj10* in zebrafish larvae. Electrophysiological recording was made by placing a single glass electrode on the skin overlying the optic tectum of *knj10a* morphant or PTZ-treated fish. Also, some anti-epileptic drugs were added to the surrounding agarose-embedded fish, including diazepam and pentobarbitone to test the methodology. Fish showed spontaneous contractions at 30 hpf, consistent with epileptic seizures. At 120 hpf, a rapid increase in locomotion was observed which was accompanied by reduced ability to change direction, followed by a loss-of-posture in *knj10a* morphant, similarly to what was observed in the PTZ- zebrafish seizure model. Electroencephalogram recordings with the *knj10a* morphant at 120 hpf showed similar activity to fish treated with PTZ, although this activity found in *knj10a* was less pronounced than in PTZ-treated fish. Antiepileptic treatment with pentobarbitone effectively suppressed the dominating seizure activity. In contrast, diazepam was not able to control seizure KCNJ10 zebrafish knock-down. The study was of great importance to prove the presence of epileptic seizure activity in this model of spontaneous seizure detectable using electrophysiological methods. Furthermore, it also provided a new technique with which one can analyze EEG in zebrafish without injuring the animal. Thus, this method may allow subsequent tests using the same animal, which makes this approach more acceptable from the perspective of ethical use of animals in research. We hope to see subsequent studies using more pro-seizure drugs and AEDs to increase the value of this technique, and the potential use of it on adult zebrafish.



#### 4. PERSPECTIVES AND FUTURE CHALLENGES

Epilepsy is characterized as a group of disorders with many different clinical manifestations, such as behavioral alterations, electrographic signatures, pharmacological profiles and histological abnormalities. People with distinct etiologies who suffer from epilepsy can display a similar seizure symptomatology; this is why epilepsy is called a spectrum disorder, and not a unitary disease. The epilepsies are classified in distinct subcategories and different animal models are used to study each condition in particular. Thus, to study epilepsy, the animal model must recapitulate the causal mechanism(s) (construct validity), the phenotypic features (face validity) and the treatment responses seen clinically (predictive validity) in the human condition.

At least 50% of adults with epilepsy have one or more comorbidity in life [105]. People with epilepsy exhibited significantly higher chances for social phobia, agoraphobia, generalized anxiety disorder, depression, and suicidality compared with the population without epilepsy [106]. For all of these disorders, at least one experimental model paradigm has been already created with adult zebrafish. Anxiety disorders are extensively explored using adult zebrafish [107]. The first study was conducted by Levin *et al.* [108]. Animals exposed to a new aquarium present stereotyped diving behaviors, thigmotaxis, reduction of top exploration, increased homebase formation [109], increased erratic behaviors and freezing/immobility, elevated whole body cortisol levels [110] and brain c-fos expression [111]. The zebrafish is a social animal, and many studies have been performed investigating the shoaling behavior in this species. Shoaling behavior is highly explored in response to acute stress (novelty, predator, or alarm pheromone exposure), which induces changes in zebrafish shoals, including tightening the shoals, as well as increased thigmotaxis and bottom dwelling. This behavior is related to fear responses, which can be explored by distinct protocols such as, Light–dark box (avoidance of white compartment [112]); Predator fish exposure (increase escape behavior [113]); and Alarm pheromone exposure (elevated whole body cortisol [114]). Furthermore, depression [115] could be induced in zebrafish by unpredictable chronic stress [116], sleep deprivation [117] and restrain

stress [118]. These behaviors are highly sensitive to anxiolytic and anxiogenic agents [119, 120]. Therefore, the close parallels between mammalian and adult zebrafish behavioral paradigms suggest the potential use of this fish to screening drugs that may be applied to treat seizures and also its associated comorbidities [121].

To reach this goal, zebrafish must overcome another barrier. The postictal state has not been properly characterized and described in zebrafish. Since some focal or generalized epileptic seizures merge cognitive, behavioral and sensorimotor impairments into the postictal state [122], it is important to describe it for all models of epileptic seizures and epilepsy described in this review. Likely, the obstacle lies in the difficulties to perform long-term *in vivo* electrophysiological studies in this model. By matching the EEG recording with alteration of behavior, it may be possible to establish the fundamental time window of manifestations that allows researchers to investigate critical points of epileptic seizures, such as postictal period. To be able to perform this characterization using zebrafish, new technological approaches must be developed [123]. New technologies developed for rodents and birds could be adapted to zebrafish. A removable miniature microdrive-headstage waterproof assembly for extracellular recordings of single unit activity in swimming mice already has been proposed [124], and could be adapted for zebrafish. Another possibility is the use of wireless technology. Charng *et al.* [125] developed a tool to perform conscious wireless electroretinogram (ERG) and visual evoked potential (VEP) recording, a method that requires surgical implants and allows researchers to record stable and repeatable signals over at least 1 month. This new technology could be also used to clearly define each seizure behavior stage/score, crucial to screening drug experiments.

For zebrafish larvae, increased travelled distance has been used as measurement of seizure activity [48]. However, this parameter presents some misinterpretation since animals exposed to proconvulsive drugs may present long periods of immobility. Moreover, the sedative effect of many putative AED molecules may also misevaluated in larval zebrafish seizure models. In this case, the motion tracking systems to date available are the limitation since these systems are not able to automatically detect seizure stages/scores in zebrafish larvae. It will be necessary to develop

algorithms that can automatically measure seizure related behavioral responses and correlate them to electrophysiological measures in a freely swimming fish for proper future conclusions, and to overcome motion tracking limitations.

## CONCLUSION

The impact of zebrafish as a model to study epileptic seizures and epilepsy is irrefutable. Zebrafish are not only used for drug screening, but also for discovering new etiologies, describing mechanisms and for the investigation of the comorbidities associated with epilepsy. We need new technologies to record brain activity in freely swimming animals to study epileptogenesis and to define postictal time lapse to work with neuropsychiatric comorbidities after seizure in zebrafish. The zebrafish seems to be a powerful experimental tool for the modeling of many disorders including epilepsy, and as any other animal model, the zebrafish too demands new expertise to maximize its applicability.

## CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors confirm that this article content has no conflict of interest.

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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ADHD	=	Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder
AED	=	Anti-epileptic Drug
(D,L)-allylglycine	=	AG, 2-amino-4-pentenoic acid
AKT	=	Protein Kinase B
Ca <sup>2+</sup>	=	Calcium

CHD2	=	Chromodomain Helicase DNA Binding Protein 2
CNS	=	Central Nervous System
DA	=	Domoic Acid
DS	=	Dravet Syndrome
DZP	=	Diazepam
EAST	=	Epilepsy Ataxia Sensorineural-deafness Tubulopathy
EEG	=	Electroencephalogram
ERG	=	Electroretinogram
EVP	=	Visual Evoked Potential
FDA	=	US Food and Drug Administration
GABA	=	Gamma-Amino Butyric Acid
GABA <sub>A</sub>	=	Gamma-Amino Butyric Acid Receptor A
HT	=	Hyperthermia
K <sup>+</sup>	=	Potassium
KA	=	Kainic Acid
LEV	=	Levetiracetam
LRR	=	Leucine-rich Repeat
MCTs	=	Maximal Tolerated Concentrations
MO	=	Morpholino
NaV1.1	=	Voltage Gated Sodium Channel 1.1
NMDA	=	N-metil D-Aspartate
OCRL1	=	Type II Inositol Polyphosphate 5-phosphatase
p53	=	53 kDa protein (apoptosis signaling)
PCR	=	Polymerase Chain Reaction
PHT	=	Phenobarbital
PK	=	PRICKLE 1a
PTZ	=	Pentylentetrazole

TPM	=	Topiramate
TRP	=	Thermo Sensitive Channels
VPA	=	Valproate

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## II.2. Capítulo II

### **Brain Metabolic Preference Shifts Under Prolonged Epileptic Seizure Episodes in Adult Zebrafish**

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Artigo submetido ao periódico Journal of Cerebral Blood Flow and Metabolism.

#### **Tema:**

Elucidar o papel da glicose e de outros substratos energéticos na manutenção de crises epiléticas prolongadas utilizando o modelo animal de imersão do peixe-zebra em pentilenotetrazol por até 20 min pela medida de consumo de O<sub>2</sub> para síntese de ATP.

#### **Principal conclusão:**

Após 20 min de crise epilética prolongada o cérebro de peixe-zebra apresenta uma redução na utilização de glicose acoplada ao consumo de O<sub>2</sub> à síntese de ATP. Em contra-partida, o L-glutamato passa a suprir energeticamente as crises epiléticas prolongadas pela medida de consumo de O<sub>2</sub> acoplado à síntese de ATP. Apesar da L-glutamina desempenhar papel similar, a mesma encontra-se reduzida em SNC de pacientes epiléticos. como substrato energético. O  $\beta$ -hydroxybutirato foi capaz de atenuar o efeito frente a uma utilização aguda. Portanto o L-glutamato é o principal substrato energético cerebral de crises epiléticas prolongadas induzidas por pentilenotetrazol em peixe-zebra adulto.

#### **Contribuição à formação do aluno:**

Treinamento na metodologia de respirometria de alta resolução.

#### **Objetivo:**

Avaliar a contribuição da D-glicose, L-glutamato, L-glutamina, L-lactato, e  $\beta$ -hidroxibutirato sobre a manutenção metabólica mitocondrial cerebral pela medida de consumo de O<sub>2</sub> para a produção de ATP em crises epiléticas prolongadas induzidas por pentilenotetrazol em peixe-zebra adulto.

### II.3. Capítulo III

#### **Glucose-6-phosphate Dehydrogenase and Cytosolic Malic Enzyme Are Important to Antioxidant Defense During Prolonged Epileptic Seizure Induced by Pentylentetrazole in Adult Zebrafish.**

Ben Hur Marins Mussulini\*, Lúcia Von Mengden, Gabriela Lazzarotto, Emerson Santos, Suelen Baggio, Ivi Juliana Bristot, Renato Dutra Dias, Maria Elisa Calcagnotto, Fabio Klamt, Diogo Losch de Oliveira\*

Artigo será submetido ao periódico Free Radical Biology & Medicine.

#### **Tema:**

Investigar se ocorre um ambiente favorável à produção de  $H_2O_2$ , e se o mesmo está vinculado a modulações que poderiam explicar a alteração metabólica cerebral de glicose para outros substratos energéticos e o impacto desta mudança sobre o sistema de defesa antioxidante em crises epiléticas prolongadas.

#### **Principal conclusão:**

Após 20 min de crise epilética ocorre um aumento no ROX, diminuição na atividade do complexo I do STE e aumento da atividade da SOD indicando um ambiente favorável à produção de  $H_2O_2$ . Para combater o estresse oxidativo (aumento de TBARS, redução de tióis totais, redução de potencial antioxidante total e aumento de oxidação de DCF), nota-se a redução dos níveis de GSH e aumento da atividade da Gpx sem alteração na atividade da GR, necessitando um aumento dos níveis de NADPH citosólicos. A glicose é desviada para a via das pentoses-fosfato e a oxidação completa do L-glutamato eleva a atividade da ME citosólica.

#### **Contribuição à formação do aluno:**

Aprendizado de técnicas relevantes à análise de estresse oxidativo.

#### **Objetivo:**

Avaliar o balanço redox de cérebro de peixe-zebra adulto, exposto a pentilenotetrazol 10 mM por 20 min, para elucidar uma mudança bioenergética drástica em um curto espaço de tempo.



**Parte III**

### III.1. Discussão

Tendo em vista a escala evolutiva dos vertebrados, a alta conservação e função mitocondrial nestes grupos e a importância desta organela frente a quadros patológicos, nosso objetivo foi validar a bioenergética cerebral do modelo de crise epiléptica prolongada induzida por PTZ em peixe-zebra, por intermédio da técnica de respirometria de alta resolução em amostra de cérebro (Kalueff *et al.*, 2014), seguindo as normas do livro “*Mitochondrial pathways and respiratory control: An introduction to OXPHOS analysis*” (Gnaiger, 2014).

Perante o desequilíbrio redox que há em crises epiléticas, o papel do metabolismo da glicose conectado a via das pentoses-fosfato, a redução do aporte desta molécula, e o aumento no consumo de ATP para a manutenção do evento epilético, hipotetizou-se a possibilidade do SNC central utilizar outras moléculas presentes no mesmo como fonte majoritária de produção de ATP ao invés da Glicose. Uma vez que o metabolismo glicolítico é imprescindível à avaliação do objetivo desta tese, a integridade celular foi um ponto crítico (Brand e Nicholls, 2011). Inicialmente, optou-se por uma dissociação enzimática por tripsina, contudo danos à membrana celular e alteração do funcionamento de transportadores de substratos pode ser resultante deste processo de digestão da matriz extracelular (Huang *et al.*, 2010). Outro ponto negativo ao adotar um processo de dissociação celular é o tempo de preparação de amostra. Por utilizarmos um modelo de crise epiléptica prolongada aguda, o tempo de preparação de amostra poderia superar o tempo de crise epiléptica o que poderia resultar em erros de interpretações de dados (Brown *et al.*, 2008). Além disso, os passos de centrifugação de amostra com mudanças bruscas de temperatura podem alterar o perfil metabólico da amostra (Haukaas *et al.*, 2016). Portanto, optou-se por uma técnica de dissociação celular mecânica clássica. Realizou-se o protocolo de homogeneização mecânica para evitar futuras “praticidades custosas”. Utilizou-se três controles de integridade celular o azul de tripam, a atividade da LDH no sobrenadante, e o aumento no consumo de O<sub>2</sub> ao expor a amostra a succinato. Apenas tumores cerebrais apresentam transportadores de succinato na membrana celular em SNC (Pajor, 2006; Zhunussova *et al.*, 2015), portanto qualquer alteração no consumo de oxigênio poderia ser um indicativo de redução de integridade de membrana após a preparação celular (Dunkley *et al.*, 2008). Tanto o método de dissociação mecânica, quanto o enzimático apresentaram resultados semelhantes. Contudo o primeiro método leva a uma menor perda de tecido durante o processo. Uma vez que havia perda de tecido durante a preparação, realizamos uma curva de tecido por consumo de O<sub>2</sub>, observando linearidade entre 1 e 3 cérebros utilizados na preparação do dissociado celular. Além disso, trabalhar com 8 mg de tecido (2 cérebros) aumentou a replicabilidade experimental e por isso optou-se por essa quantidade de tecido em cada passo a seguir.

Para mimetizar o ambiente extracelular cerebral utilizou-se a solução salina balanceado de Hanks com adição de HEPES- $\text{Na}^+$  para evitar potencial acidificação promovida pelos substratos a serem testados. Apesar de oligomicina (Olig) 8  $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$  reduzir drasticamente o consumo de  $\text{O}_2$ , essa variação poderia ser um indicativo de dano mitocondrial por toxicidade promovida pela Olig e não da inibição completa da ATPsintase (Gnaiger, 2014). Portanto, optou-se por utilizar Olig 4  $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ . O ionóforo FCCP possui uma faixa restrita entre dose máxima e efeito tóxico mitocondrial, adicionou-se o composto à amostra em concentrações contínuas de 0,05  $\mu\text{M}$  até atingir a concentração ideal de 0,25  $\mu\text{M}$ . Por fim, preparou-se KCN sempre próximo ao fim do experimento, cuja concentração foi 1 mM (Pesta e Gnaiger, 2012).

Estudos de crises epiléticas, com utilização de peixe-zebra como modelo animal, focam no perfil fenotípico da crise, expressão de *c-Fos* e registros eletrofisiológicos (Grone e Baraban, 2015). Este cenário começou a mudar com um estudo utilizando larvas de peixe-zebra geneticamente modificadas para expressar a síndrome epilética de Dravet (Baraban *et al.*, 2013). O metabolismo energético destes animais apresentou uma redução da atividade glicolítica e não alteração metabólica mitocondrial quando expostos ao PTZ (Kumar *et al.*, 2016). No estudo em questão, utilizou-se o equipamento Seahorse® e larvas vivas para inferir os resultados. Portanto, a modulação metabólica foi global, não respondendo nosso objetivo. Decorrente da revisão sistemática dos modelos de crises e síndromes epiléticas e da limitação de importação de animais geneticamente modificados, as escolhas ficaram restritas a modelos químicos de indução. O CA é um agente pró-convulsivo por ter papel agonista ao receptor ionotrópico glutamatérgico do tipo cainato. Peixe-zebras injetados i.p. com CA apresentam crises epiléticas prolongadas que podem durar entre algumas horas e alguns dias. Este modelo não possui caracterização eletrofisiológica, portanto, delimitar uma janela de tempo de estudo com o objetivo proposto poderia acarretar em uma alta variabilidade nos dados. Além disso, um dos substratos a serem testados seria o L-glutamato, uma vez que ainda há muito debate sobre o impacto dessa molécula sobre o metabolismo da perspectiva de sinalização celular, utilizar o modelo de CA poderia culminar em uma resposta ambígua (Bhangoo e Swanson, 2013). Até o momento, não foi descrito nenhum modelo de crises epiléticas prolongadas induzidas por pilocarpina em peixe-zebra adulto. Por experiência prática com o modelo de crise epilética prolongada induzida por PTZ (Mussulini *et al.*, 2013), optou-se por este modelo para inferir se havia um hipo ou hipermetabolismo da glicose acoplado ao consumo de  $\text{O}_2$  à produção de ATP em amostras de dissociado celular cerebral. Este modelo já foi caracterizado da perspectiva fenotípica (Wong *et al.*, 2010; Mussulini *et al.*, 2013; Mussulini B.H., 2016), genética (Stewart *et al.*, 2012) e eletrofisiológica (Pineda *et al.*, 2011). Utilizou-se a concentração de PTZ 10 mM para indução de crises epiléticas decorrente da replicabilidade experimental. Os

peixes apresentaram crises tônico-clônicas após 2,5 min de imersão, variabilidade entre escore convulsivos até 5 min de imersão, e crises tônico-clônicas até 20 min de imersão. Mesmo após a retirada dos animais do PTZ a crise epilética persiste por até 40 min (Pineda *et al.*, 2011). Este é o tempo limite de exposição com mortalidade aceitável, uma vez que este é um parâmetro importante para varredura de fármacos anticonvulsivos, e já foi demonstrado que a eficiência de novos fármacos pode ser testada com uma faixa de mortalidade entre 25% e 35% após a indução de crises epiléticas (Goodman *et al.*, 1953). O peixe retorna a apresentar apenas escore zero de crise epilética 1 h após a retirada do animal da solução de PTZ. Baseado em trabalho prévio de nosso laboratório optou-se como tempo final 3 h após a retirada do animal da solução de PTZ (Mussulini *et al.*, 2013).

Tanto o hipometabolismo quanto o hipermetabolismo de glicose acoplado ao consumo de O<sub>2</sub> foram detectados. Após 20 min de imersão do animal em PTZ 10 mM, o dissociado cerebral apresentou uma redução no consumo de O<sub>2</sub> acoplado à síntese de ATP, quando apenas glicose foi o substrato energético fornecido a amostra. Estudos utilizam D-glicose 5.5 mM como fonte energética em seus tampões, não sendo um fator limitante à atividade cerebral (Liesa e Shirihai, 2013). Em contrapartida, 1h após a retirada dos animais da solução de PTZ 10 mM o dissociado celular cerebral apresentou um aumento no consumo de O<sub>2</sub> acoplado à síntese de ATP, quando apenas glicose foi o substrato energético fornecido a amostra. Experimentos realizados *in vitro* sugerem que, durante a crise epilética prolongada, a glicólise pode encontrar-se diminuída favorecendo a via das pentoses-fosfato, e 24 h após o momento de hiperexcitabilidade há um aumento na utilizando de glicose como substrato energético o que pode ser associado à neurodegeneração (Rodriguez-Rodriguez *et al.*, 2012). O peixe-zebra apresenta alta plasticidade cerebral após danos, então uma janela de tempo menor que reflita os achados *in vitro* não é uma surpresa (Baumgart *et al.*, 2012; Schmidt *et al.*, 2014).

Apesar do hipermetabolismo da glicose acoplado ao consumo de O<sub>2</sub> à síntese de ATP ser foco de etiologias epiléticas (Sarıkaya, 2015), esta alteração metabólica ocorre em um momento de ausência da manifestação comportamental da crise epilética prolongada induzida por PTZ em peixe-zebra (Mussulini *et al.*, 2013). Este tipo de modulação sugere o papel do sistema purinérgico na inibição da crise epilética (Cieslak *et al.*, 2017), contudo a falta de estudos avaliando a presença de ATP e seus produtos de hidrólise na fenda sináptica neste modelo de crise epilética limita uma discussão aprofundada (Siebel *et al.*, 2011; Siebel *et al.*, 2015). Por outro lado, o hipometabolismo da glicose acoplado ao consumo de O<sub>2</sub> à síntese de ATP, após 20 min de crises epiléticas prolongadas, fomenta o debate das incongruências energéticas para o funcionamento do SNC em um momento de hiperexcitabilidade. Para atingir o objetivo proposto pela tese, ao estabilizar a respiração de rotina, em amostras de dissociados celulares de cérebros de peixe zebra expostos à água ou ao PTZ

por 20 min, adicionaram-se ao oroboros® os substratos apresentados a seguir e avaliou-se o consumo de O<sub>2</sub> à síntese de ATP em cada situação na presença de glicose.

A respiração de rotina aumentou ao adicionar-se L-glutamato 1mM a amostra controle. O L-glutamato é um neurotransmissor excitatório do SNC, permitindo o influxo de Ca<sup>+2</sup> nos neurônios e astrócitos presentes na amostra e acelerando o ciclo de Krebs, elevando a respiração de rotina (Nedergaard *et al.*, 2002). A despolarização celular e captação de glutamato é um sinal para mitocôndrias deslocarem-se do corpo celular para a região sináptica e acelerar o metabolismo deste aminoácido a  $\alpha$ -cetoglutato (Ward *et al.*, 2000; Chang *et al.*, 2006; Mckenna *et al.*, 2016; Robinson e Jackson, 2016). Apesar da concentração de L-glutamato 1 mM ser considerada excitotóxica em estudos *in vitro*, a mesma se apresenta na fenda sináptica em eventos de despolarização celular (Danbolt *et al.*, 2016). O mesmo impacto não foi detectado sobre a respiração de rotina em amostras de dissociados celulares de cérebros de peixe-zebra imersos em PTZ por 20 min, contudo, ambas concentrações testadas elevaram o O<sub>2</sub> para produção de ATP a níveis de controle (Karaca *et al.*, 2015).

L-glutamina conecta sistemas de detoxificação, neurotransmissão, metabolismo entérico e gliconeogênese (Stumvoll *et al.*, 1999), síntese de GABA (Behar e Rothman, 2001), reciclagem de glutamato, reações de transaminações e defesas antioxidantes (Newsholme *et al.*, 2003). Decorrente de todas essas funções, a oxidação de glutamina ocorre apenas em concentrações elevadas deste substrato energético (Schousboe *et al.*, 1993; Tani *et al.*, 2014). Dissociados celulares de peixe-zebra imersos em PTZ por 20 min apresentaram similar consumo de O<sub>2</sub> para a síntese de ATP comparada ao controle quando L-glutamina 0,5 mM foi adicionado como substrato energético ao experimento. Durante processos epileptogênicos em roedores e humanos, há uma redução progressiva dos níveis cerebrais de glutamina e da atividade da glutamina-sintetase (Bidmon *et al.*, 2008). Mediante a redução na eficiência do ciclo glutamato-glutamina, a probabilidade de o glutamato retornar ao neurônio por intermédio da fenda sináptica é alta, potencializando a hiperexcitabilidade (Eid *et al.*, 2016). Portanto, as alterações metabólicas para manter as crises epilépticas prolongadas deve ser estudada focando seu impacto sobre os processos neurodegenerativos (Bryant *et al.*, 2009).

O metabolismo cerebral depende de altas concentrações de lactato extracelular (Pellerin, 2008), encontrando-se na faixa de 1 mM neste ambiente (Machler *et al.*, 2016). Durante crises epilépticas prolongadas essa concentração pode elevar-se a 10 mM ou mais (Dulac *et al.*, 2014), a qual pode apresentar um efeito tamponante de Ca<sup>+2</sup> (Ohbuchi *et al.*, 2010), e reduzindo a frequência de despolarização celular (Bozzo *et al.*, 2013). Apesar da “propaganda” negativa sobre o lactato, o mesmo foi capaz de elevar o consumo de O<sub>2</sub> para a produção de ATP em amostras de peixe-zebra imersos em PTZ por 20 min, similar ao que ocorre em modelos de

acidente vascular cerebral (Laird *et al.*, 2013). Seja pela ação quelante de  $\text{Ca}^{+2}$ , seja por um aumento no  $\text{H}^+$  Leak o lactato não foi capaz de elevar tal parâmetro a níveis de controle. Uma vez que haja uma redução na utilização de glicose como substrato energético acoplado ao consumo de  $\text{O}_2$  para a produção de ATP no modelo de crise epiléptica prolongada utilizado neste estudo, em nenhum momento inferiu-se a atividade da glicólise, assim como o aumento de lactato pode ser resultante da atividade periférica em um momento de crise tônico-clônico prolongada (Lipka e Bulow, 2003). O metabolismo do lactato depende da enzima LDH, a qual é citosólica e reforça a integridade celular do protocolo proposto.

A dieta cetogênica é utilizada como tratamento para pacientes refratários e sua eficiência já foi observada no modelo de indução de status epiléticos por injeção i.p. de ácido cáinico e síndrome de Dravet utilizando o peixe-zebra como modelo animal (Sierra *et al.*, 2012; Kumar *et al.*, 2016). A exposição aguda do  $\beta$ -hidroxibutirato levou ao aumento do consumo de  $\text{O}_2$  para a síntese de ATP, porém não a nível de controle. Em contra partida, outros parâmetros de homeostase mitocondrial, como consumo de  $\text{O}_2$  máxima da amostra, foi restaurado a níveis de controle (Gano *et al.*, 2014). Entretanto, o impacto do  $\beta$ -hidroxibutirato 0,7 mM sobre o controle sugere a necessidade de futuros estudos, principalmente em relação à acetilação de enzimas mitocondriais (Juge *et al.*, 2010; Kim *et al.*, 2015).

Peixe-zebras imersos na solução de PTZ 10 mM por 20 min apresenta uma redução no consumo de  $\text{O}_2$  para a síntese de ATP se apenas glicose for o substrato energético disponível em amostras de dissociado celular cerebral. L-glutamato, L-glutamina, L-lactato e  $\beta$ -hidroxibutirato, foram capazes de reverter este parâmetro de forma total ou parcial. Redução na velocidade máxima de consumo de  $\text{O}_2$  pode ser um indicativo de dano mitocondrial (Brand e Nicholls, 2011), contudo esse parâmetro é dependente da força protomotriz mitocondrial, uma vez que é avaliada pelo retorno dos  $\text{H}^+$  do espaço entre membranas para a matriz mitocondrial. Em um primeiro momento o resultado referente a este parâmetro poderia ser um indício de dano mitocondrial, contudo, frente a adição de outros substratos energéticos o mesmo parâmetro voltou a apresentar atividade em níveis de controle. Portanto, a redução no consumo do  $\text{O}_2$  máximo aparenta ser um resultado da redução de substratos energéticos, decorrente de uma redução do metabolismo da glicose, o que leva a uma redução dos níveis de NADH e  $\text{FADH}_2$  comprometendo a força protomotriz e reduzindo o consumo de  $\text{O}_2$  para a produção de ATP. Frente a substratos energéticos oxidados na matriz mitocondrial, ou que é oxidado a piruvato esse parâmetro foi reestabelecido, indicando uma mudança nos padrões energéticos para sustentar a crise epiléptica prolongada sem dano aparente mitocondrial, o que ocorre em casos de exercício físico intenso e atividade mitocondrial muscular (Moggetti *et al.*, 2016). Uma vez que o KCN pode comprometer outras enzimas que utilizam  $\text{O}_2$  como substrato

energético (Patriarca *et al.*, 1971), neste estudo não foi abordado nenhum tipo de discussão referente ao consumo de oxigênio residual e ao ROS. Portanto, a utilização de um protocolo de inibição dos Complexos I e III seria o mais apropriado para avaliar o ROX.

Frente a alterações metabólicas expressivas em um curto espaço de tempo, os dados dessa tese apontam para uma alteração de função enzimática por variação do balanço  $\text{NAD}^+/\text{NADH}$  (Allmann e Bringaud, 2017), do balanço  $\text{FAD}^+/\text{FADH}_2$  (Venneti e Thompson, 2017), do balanço  $\text{ADP}/\text{ATP}$  (Saunier *et al.*, 2016) e por aumento de  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  (Peters *et al.*, 2016). Da perspectiva experimental, avaliar o balanço energético também seria uma proposta de difícil interpretação, uma vez que a hiperexcitabilidade cerebral eleva o *turnover* destas moléculas (Dona *et al.*, 2016). Uma vez que o estresse oxidativo já foi avaliado nesta espécie, da perspectiva de enzimologia clássica (Pereira *et al.*, 2016), optou-se por esta proposta para elucidar a modulação metabólica proposta por esta tese.

A atividade do complexo I encontra-se alterado em patologias associadas à neurodegeneração (Schapira, 1998) como, Parkinson (Bose e Beal, 2016), Alzheimer (Onyango *et al.*, 2017), e epilepsia (Frey *et al.*, 2017). Por ser um sítio com presença de ligações Fe-S, um desequilíbrio na função deste complexo é alvo de estudos que avaliam o impacto de ROS sobre as patologias mencionadas (Pitkanen e Robinson, 1996). Detectou-se uma redução de 33% da atividade do complexo I e aumento de 50% no ROX comparado ao controle no modelo de crise epiléptica prolongada induzida por PTZ em peixe-zebra. Similar a modelos roedores de SE ocorre a ativação do sistema antioxidante por intermédio do aumento da atividade da SOD (Mori *et al.*, 1991). Macromoléculas são alvos de oxidação do  $\text{O}_2^-$ , formando ligações irreversíveis, portanto a ativação da SOD e a conversão dessa espécie de oxigênio a  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  reduz o risco de ROS e possibilita a ativação de outras defesas antioxidantes (Demaurex e Schwarzlender, 2016). Apesar de mais estável ao comparar-se com o  $\text{O}_2^-$ , o  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  pode ser clivado de forma espontânea a radicais hidroxilas e aumentar os riscos de ROS se o sistema antioxidante não estiver em eficiência plena (Brand, 2016). Em nível periférico a enzima responsável por detoxificar  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  é a CAT, entretanto a expressão desta enzima em nível de SNC encontra-se reduzida ou nula (Craig e Housley, 2016), basta comparar a atividade basal da SOD e da CAT. Portanto, a defesa antioxidante cerebral depende do sistema de detoxificação via atividade da Gpx e dos níveis de GSH (Rae e Williams, 2016). Nossos dados indicam uma redução dos níveis de GSH, similar ao observado em pacientes (Mueller *et al.*, 2001). Uma vez que houve um ambiente favorável a produção de  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  esperava-se uma redução drástica dos níveis de GSH mediante o aumento expressivo da atividade da GPx, o que não foi observado sugerindo uma reciclagem eficiente de GSH (Bellissimo *et al.*, 2001). Em contra partida, não se observou alteração da atividade

da enzima GR, similar a outros modelos de crises epiléticas prolongadas (Lei *et al.*, 2016). Outro motivo para uma não alteração da GR pode ser em parte pela estratégia metodológica escolhida, a qual consiste em adicionar NADPH e GSSG em excesso ao sistema de incubação. Caso controle e tratado possuam os mesmos níveis de expressão enzimática frente a mesma concentração de substratos enzimáticos, a formação de produto será a mesma, não significando que ambos os grupos encontravam-se em mesmas condições de GSSG e NADPH intracelulares.

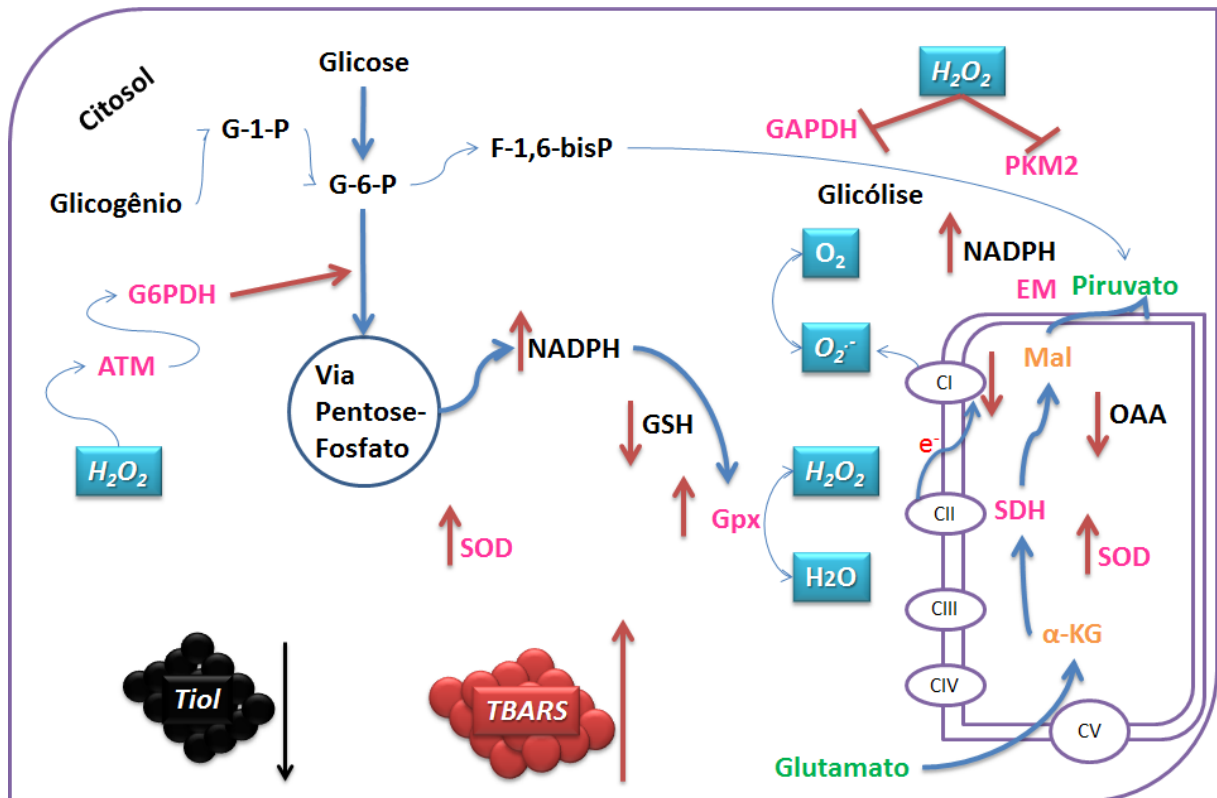
Em contrapartida, a atividade elevada da enzima Gpx dependeria de elevados níveis de NADPH intracelulares (Brown *et al.*, 2014). Portanto, avaliou-se a atividade da G6PDH e ME citosólica. Em condições favoráveis à produção de H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> como a observada em crise epilética prolongadas induzidas por PTZ em peixe-zebra adulto ocorre um aumento no ROX, diminuição na atividade do complexo I do STE e aumento da atividade da SOD indicando um ambiente favorável à produção de H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. Para combater o estresse oxidativo (aumento de TBARS, redução de tióis totais, redução de potencial antioxidante total e aumento de oxidação de DCF), ocorre a ativação da enzima G6PDH, o que resulta no desvio da glicólise à via das pentoses-fosfato no intuito de maximizar a produção de NADPH (Kang *et al.*, 2015; Lee-Young *et al.*, 2016). Essa enzima apresentou um aumento de atividade na faixa de 30% ao comparar-se com o controle após a crise epilética prolongada induzida por PTZ em amostras de cérebro de peixe-zebra. Essa enzima apresenta um aumento de atividade na faixa de 35% ao comparar-se com o controle após a crise epilética prolongada induzida por PTZ em amostras de cérebro de peixe-zebra. Ambas enzimas desempenham papel fundamental na sobrevivência neuronal em episódios de hiperexcitabilidade e são novos alvos de pesquisa para o desenvolvimento de terapias farmacológicas (Bolanos *et al.*, 2008; Hadera *et al.*, 2016). Mesmo com a ativação do sistema antioxidante e da ativação dessas enzimas metabólicas detectamos dano oxidativo. O sistema antioxidante é ativo em um intervalo de tempo posterior ao aumento de ROS (Birben *et al.*, 2012). É provável que no momento escolhido para avaliação do estresse oxidativo, as defesas antioxidantes estejam sendo ativadas após a presença de um dano inicial, o que corresponde ao aumento de ROX, aumento de ROS, redução do potencial antioxidante total da amostra, aumento de dano lipídico e redução de grupamentos tióis totais (TRT). A presença de estresse oxidativo promove a ativação de defesas antioxidantes de forma direta (SOD, Gpx, GSH), e por forma indireta modula o metabolismo (**Figura 8**).

Apesar de resultados contundentes na literatura apontarem uma relação entre o aumento de glicose em SNC e aumento de atividade cerebral, esse conceito pode estar equivocado (D'Amico e Kowalska, 2014; Greve *et al.*, 2016; Reid *et al.*, 2016; Stoessl, 2017). Estudos apontam para um aumento na marcação de FDG em focos



epilépticos durante crises (Joo *et al.*, 2015; Sarikaya, 2015), técnica utilizada para mapear regiões cerebrais operáveis de pacientes epilépticos refratários (Willmann *et al.*, 2007). O que essa tese indica é que, mesmo perante tais achados, um fator não está necessariamente vinculado a outro em termos de produção de ATP para a manutenção de crises epilépticas prolongadas por parte da atividade mitocondrial. Avalia-se o astrócito como principal célula de acesso da glicose ao SNC (Jurcovicova, 2014), sendo a oxidação da glicose nessa célula um processo vital para o acúmulo de lactato extracelular, o qual será o principal substrato energético celular (Machler *et al.*, 2016). A glicose captada pelos neurônios via GLUT3 é utilizada para funções como síntese de ribonucleotídeos (Hay, 2016), NADPH (Amorini *et al.*, 2016), neurotransmissores (Volkow *et al.*, 2017), glicoproteínas (Garcia-Ayllon *et al.*, 2017), moléculas precursoras de glutatona (Pacold *et al.*, 2016), aminoácidos (Amorini *et al.*, 2017), entre outras funções (Langhans *et al.*, 2016). Esperar que o neurônio consuma glicose como fonte energética é inviável para a manutenção de células com expectativa de vida de décadas. É tão inesperado, que processos de neurodegeneração são acompanhados de mudanças energéticas, nas quais essas células passam a dar preferência à utilização de glicose como substrato energético (Divakaruni *et al.*, 2017). Uma vez que o único substrato energético a disposição da amostra seja glicose é de se esperar que a amostra como um todo a utilize como substrato energético acoplado ao consumo de O<sub>2</sub> para síntese de ATP, fato este que não se altera nos 5 min iniciais de crises epilépticas induzidas por PTZ em peixe-zebra adulto. Em um momento de desequilíbrio do sistema redox, onde o aumento de NADPH, e até mesmo de moléculas utilizadas para a síntese de GSH, há uma desvinculação na utilização de glicose acoplada ao consumo de O<sub>2</sub> para síntese de ATP. O cenário aponta para a possível utilização de glutamato e glutamina, ambos precursores de  $\alpha$ -KG, contudo, estudos envolvendo espectrometria de massa indicam que glutamina só seria utilizada como fonte energética em casos de excesso molecular (Zhu *et al.*, 2017), essa seria a principal diferença ao comparar-se os resultados das amostras cerebrais de peixe-zebra expostos ao PTZ por 20 min, na presença de glicose + glutamato 0,1 mM e glicose + glutamina 0,1 mM. Uma vez que a amostra apresenta todos os tipos celulares cerebrais, e que o astrócito tende a produzir lactato ao invés de consumi-lo (Dienel, 2014), pode estar subestimando o papel desta célula e por isso não elevar essa resposta a níveis de controle, o que ambiciona novos estudos para validar a bioenergética de diferentes tipos celulares do SNC de peixe-zebra (Jourdain *et al.*, 2016). Em termos de metabolismo do  $\beta$ -HB, o mesmo encontra-se em baixas concentrações plasmáticas, mesmo ao decorrer de crises epilépticas prolongadas (Paoli *et al.*, 2013), portanto o resultado esperado é a não alteração no parâmetro de consumo de O<sub>2</sub> para síntese de ATP visto ao expor a amostra à  $\beta$ -HB 0,1 mM. Em termos de desequilíbrio redox é complicado definir casualidade. A hiperexcitabilidade em si pode levar a este

desequilíbrio, contudo, a oxidação completa do glutamato em um momento de declínio de piruvato intracelular pode contribuir para uma aceleração da atividade do complexo II e para o transporte reverso de elétrons para o complexo I, propiciando o aumento de  $O_2^-$  ativando SOD, elevando os níveis de  $H_2O_2$ , levando a um consumo de GSH e ativação da Gpx, culminando na necessidade de NADPH ativando G6PDH e ME no processo. Apenas com futuros estudos será possível detalhar o que é causa e o que é consequência das mudanças metabólicas necessárias para manter as crises epiléticas prolongadas.



**Figura 8. Modulação do metabolismo cerebral promovido por espécies reativas de oxigênio contribuem para a mudança do padrão energético de crises epiléticas prolongadas.** Representado em roxo um citosol celular genérico. Também em roxo no canto direito inferior encontra-se uma mitocôndria com sua membrana interna e externa e os cinco complexos do STE: complexo I (CI), complexo II (CII), complexo III (CIII), complexo IV (CIV), complexo V (CV). Em laranja, inserido na mitocôndria, encontra-se um resumo do ciclo B do TCA. Em verde, substratos energéticos que adentram o TCA. Em rosa encontra-se todos os processos enzimáticos discutidos nesta tese. Com o aumento da presença de espécies reativas de  $O_2$  (ROS) a concentração intracelular de  $H_2O_2$  eleva-se causando dano ao DNA. A enzima Ataxia telangiectasia cinase (ATM) presente no núcleo celular, é exportada ao citosol mediante dano oxidativo do DNA. A ATM ativa a glicose-6-fosfato-desidrogenase (G6PDH), a qual desvia a glicose-6-fosfato (G-6-P) da glicólise para a via das pentose-fosfato, aumentando a produção de NADPH, para maior eficiência de sistemas antioxidantes como por exemplo o balanço de glutatona (GSH) e o balanço de atividade enzimática da glutatona peroxidase (Gpx). Concomitante, a oxidação promovida pelo  $H_2O_2$  sobre as enzimas gliceraldeído-3-fosfato-desidrogenase (GAPDH) e piruvato-cinase (PKM2), inibe a atividade de ambas resultando em uma redução da atividade glicolítica celular. Decorrente da restrição energética, o sistema nervoso central passa a utilizar outras fontes energéticas, como o L-glutamato. A oxidação completa do glutamato na presença de piruvato em baixas concentrações reduz a concentração de oxaloacetato mitocondrial, a succinato desidrogenase passa a trabalhar em sua eficiência máxima, o que promove o transporte reverso de elétrons do complexo II para o complexo I aumentando a produção de superóxido e diminuindo a atividade do último, elevando a atividade da SOD. Para evitar os efeitos deletérios desta espécie reativa de oxigênio, a glutatona peroxidase é ativada consumindo níveis intracelulares da NADPH que são repostos pela via das pentoses fosfato e pela atividade da enzima málica citosólica no processo de oxidação completa do glutamato, ambas atividades aumentadas neste momento. Apesar da modulação, ocorre dano oxidativo por aumento de lipoperoxidação (TBARS) e oxidação de grupamentos tióis em proteínas (Tiol). Uma vez que o ciclo se estabelece devido a uma necessidade energética ele se retroalimenta. Dados desta tese somados a imagem modificada de (Kang *et al.*, 2015).

### **III.2. Conclusão**

Modulações energéticas cerebrais permitem a manutenção de crises epiléticas prolongadas induzidas por pentilenotetrazol em peixe-zebra adulto, a qual promove um desbalanço no sistema Redox celular que retroalimenta a necessidade da utilização de L-glutamato, L-glutamina, L-lactato e  $\beta$ -hidroxibutirato, uma vez que o metabolismo da D-glicose é imperativo para o combate ao estresse oxidativo.

### **III.3. Perspectivas**

Esta tese é o início de uma nova linha de pesquisa em nosso laboratório. Para poder chegar a melhores conclusões de nossos achados, três novos projetos terão início em março de 2017. O primeiro projeto aperfeiçoará o protocolo de dissociação celular. O segundo projeto visará avaliar o impacto sinalizatório do glutamato sobre o metabolismo energético. O terceiro projeto caracterizará a detecção de níveis de  $H_2O_2$  pelo equipamento oxygraph 2K® e modulará farmacologicamente a atividade das enzimas glicose-6-fosfato-desidrogenase e enzima-málica citosólica para confirmação dos achados desta tese.

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In addition, authors must provide the proper name of the ethical [guidelines](#) or standards that governed conduct of the study (the responsible committee on human experimentation (institutional or regional)) or the [Helsinki Declaration of 1975](#) (and as revised in 1983).

It must be confirmed that written, informed consent was obtained from all subjects or their legal representatives. It is the author's responsibility to ensure that a patient anonymity is carefully protected. Authors should mask patients' eyes and remove patients' names from figures unless they obtain written consent from the patients or their legal guardian. Authors should be **guided** by the [ICMJE Recommendations for the Conduct, Reporting, Editing, and Publication of Scholarly Work in Medical Journals](#). Please also refer to the [ICMJE Recommendations for the Protection of Research Participants](#).

#### 4.7 Clinical trials

*JCBFM* endorses the ICMJE requirement that clinical trials are registered in a WHO-approved public trials registry at or before the time of first patient enrolment. However, consistent with the [AllTrials campaign](#), retrospectively registered trials will be considered if the justification for late registration is acceptable. The trial registry name and URL, and registration number must be included at the end of the abstract. Authors reporting phase II and phase III randomized controlled trials should refer to the [Consolidated Standards of Reporting Trials \(CONSORT\) recommendations](#) to facilitate the complete and transparent reporting of trial findings. Reports that do not conform to the [CONSORT guidelines](#) and Checklist may need to be revised before formal review.

#### 4.8 Reporting guidelines

The relevant [EQUATOR Network](#) reporting [guidelines](#) should be followed depending on the type of study. For example, all randomized controlled trials submitted for publication should include a completed [Consolidated Standards of Reporting Trials \(CONSORT\)](#) flow chart as a cited figure, and a completed CONSORT checklist as a supplementary file.

For guiding principles for reporting statistical methods and results please consult the SAMPL [Guidelines for Biomedical Journals](#): <http://www.equator-network.org/wp-content/uploads/2013/03/SAMPL-Guidelines-3-13-13.pdf>

For example, authors reporting tumor markers prognostic studies are encouraged to follow the [REMARK guidelines](#) for complete and transparent reporting.

For describing human biospecimens, we recommend referring to the BRISQ reporting [guidelines](#) (Biospecimen Reporting for Improved Study Quality) and ensuring at least Tier 1 characteristics are provided ([doi: 10.1002/cncy.20147](https://doi.org/10.1002/cncy.20147)).

All authors reporting systematic reviews should refer to the [PRISMA guidelines](#).

Other resources can be found at [NLM's Research Reporting Guidelines and Initiatives](#).

#### 4.9 Animal Experiments

For experiments involving animals (or material from animals, such as cell cultures, brain slices) submitted for publication, the following must be stated explicitly in the Material and Methods section:

- the full proper name (NOT "local" ethics committee) of the institutional or licensing committee which approved the experimental protocols and any relevant details regarding animal welfare and drug side effects;
- the name of the **guidelines/regulations** which governed how the experiments were CONDUCTED;
- a statement confirming that the experiments have been REPORTED following/in compliance with the ARRIVE **guidelines** (Animal Research: Reporting in Vivo Experiments) for how to REPORT animal experiments <https://www.nc3rs.org.uk/arrive-guidelines>. This means that you will be required to confirm compliance with the ARRIVE **guidelines both** in the submission site, where you will be asked to fill out a [detailed check sheet](#), and in the Materials and Methods section of your manuscript.

#### 4.10 Image integrity and standards

Images submitted with a manuscript for review should be minimally processed (for instance, to add arrows to a micrograph). Authors should retain their unprocessed data and metadata files, as Editors may request them to aid in manuscript evaluation. If unprocessed data is unavailable, manuscript evaluation may be stalled until the issue is resolved.

A certain degree of image processing is acceptable for publication, but the final image must correctly represent the original data and conform to community standards. The **guidelines** below will aid in accurate data presentation at the image processing level:

- Authors should list all image acquisition tools and image processing software packages used. Authors should document key image-gathering settings and processing manipulations in the Methods section.
- Images gathered at different times or from different locations should not be combined into a single image, unless it is stated that the resultant image is a product of time-averaged data or a time-lapse sequence. If juxtaposing images is essential, the borders should be clearly demarcated in the figure and described in the legend.
- Touch-up tools, such as cloning and healing tools in Photoshop, or any feature that deliberately obscures manipulations, is to be avoided.
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For gels and blots, positive and negative controls, as well as molecular size markers, should be included on each gel and blot – either in the main figure or an expanded data supplementary figure. The display of cropped gels and blots in the main paper is encouraged if it improves the clarity and conciseness of the presentation. In such cases, the cropping must be mentioned in the figure legend.

- Vertically sliced gels that juxtapose lanes that were not contiguous in the experiment must have a clear separation or a black line delineating the boundary between the gels.
- Cropped gels in the paper must retain important bands.
- Cropped blots in the body of the paper should retain at least six band widths above and below the band.
- High-contrast gels and blots are discouraged, as overexposure may mask additional bands.
- Authors should strive for exposures with grey backgrounds. Immunoblots should be surrounded by a black line to indicate the borders of the blot, if the background is faint.
- For quantitative comparisons, appropriate reagents, controls and imaging methods with linear signal ranges should be used.

Microscopy adjustments should be applied to the entire image. Threshold manipulation, expansion or contraction of signal ranges and the altering of high signals should be avoided. If 'pseudo-coloring' and nonlinear adjustments (for example 'gamma changes') are used, this must be disclosed. Adjustments of individual color channels are sometimes necessary on 'merged' images, but this should be noted in the figure legend. We encourage inclusion of the following with the final revised version of the manuscript for publication:

- In the Methods section, specify the type of equipment (microscopes/objective lenses, cameras, detectors, filter model and batch number) and acquisition software used. Although we appreciate that there is some variation between instruments, equipment settings for critical measurements should also be listed.
- The display lookup table (LUT) and the quantitative map between the LUT and the bitmap should be provided, especially when rainbow pseudo-color is used. It should be stated if the LUT is linear and covers the full range of the data.
- Processing software should be named and manipulations indicated (such as type of deconvolution, three-dimensional reconstructions, surface and volume rendering, 'gamma changes', filtering, thresholding and projection).
- Authors should state the measured resolution at which an image was acquired and any downstream processing or averaging that enhances the resolution of the image.

The data will be published in the online version of *JCBFM*, or detailed information provided in the articles on how the data can be obtained.

Examples of data types include but are not limited to: statistical data files, replication code, text files, audio files, images, videos, appendices, and additional charts and graphs necessary to understand the original research. The Editors may also grant exceptions for data that cannot legally or ethically be released. All data submitted should comply with Institutional or Ethical Review Board requirements and applicable government regulations. [For further information, please contact the Editorial Office.](#)

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An inherent principle of publication is that others should be able to replicate and build upon the authors' published claims. Therefore, a condition of publication in the *JCBFM* is that authors are required to make materials, data and associated protocols promptly available to readers without undue qualifications.

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These repositories coordinate public release of the data with the journal's publication date either advance online publication (Online First) or, through print/online publication. This option should be used when possible, but it is the authors' responsibility to communicate with the repository to ensure that public release is made promptly on the journal's Online First (or print/online) publication date. Any supporting data sets for which there is no public repository must be made available as Supplementary Information files that will be accessible on <http://jcbfm.sagepub.com> upon publication. In cases where it is technically impossible for such files to be provided to the journal, the authors must make the data available to Editors and peer-reviewers at submission, and directly upon request to any reader on and after the publication date, the author providing a URL or other unique identifier in the manuscript.

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#### 4.12 Sharing materials

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For biological materials such as mutant strains and cell lines, *JCBFM* requires authors to use established public repositories when one exists (for example, Jackson Laboratory, the European Mouse Mutant Archive (EMMA), the European Conditional Mouse Mutagenesis Program (EUCOMM), the Knockout Mouse Project (KOMP), Addgene, RIKEN Bioresource Centre, the Mutant Mouse Regional Resource Centers, American Type Culture Collection (Americas), American Type Culture Collection (Asia/Europe), UK Stem Cell Bank), and provide accession numbers in the manuscript.

##### Cell lines:

The distribution of human cell lines used in research should not be hindered by restrictions from donors. Researchers developing cell lines must investigate and disclose any restrictions associated with the human or other tissue they are using, particularly if someone else collected the samples, if the samples come from multiple clinical sources or if they come from several legal jurisdictions. If a scientist needs to create cell lines that might be used for as-yet-unforeseen purposes, only tissue with no restrictions should be used. Authors of papers that involve consent forms must, at time of submitting the manuscript, make Editors aware of any limits that result from those forms.

##### Flow cytometry:

Every manuscript that contains flow cytometry experiments should identify in the Methods section all antibody reagents by clone identifier, vendor and fluorochrome. Authors should identify the instrument and software used to collect and analyse experimental data. Axes labels for plots or graphs depicting flow cytometry data should state the marker (for example, CD4) and the axes scales (log or linear) should be clearly visible. Authors should provide numerical analysis for the number of cells analysed and the absolute numbers or percentages (with statistics stated in either the text, legend or in a supplementary table) of the relevant cell population(s) within post-sort fractions. Hints for good general practice in the description of flow cytometry experiments can be found at the MIFlowCyt Standards section of SourceForge.

For papers describing a new cell population or for which a given sorted cell population is critical to the main message imparted by the new work, authors should describe in a supplementary figure or two the full gating strategy used for the experiments described in the manuscript. A figure depicting the 'gates' used to identify sorted subsets is useful and should be provided to the referees on request. These data would include preliminary forward and side scatter gates of the starting cell population, indicating where boundaries between 'positive' and 'negative' staining cell populations are defined. For preliminary sorts that use 'cocktails' of antibodies to exclude certain cell populations, for example, lineage-minus (Lin-), the antibodies and fluorochromes that are contained in the 'cocktail' need to be specified for the 'dump' channel.

For further information about accessibility of biological data and materials, see the following: Cech, T. R. (2003), Sharing Publication-Related Data and Materials: Responsibilities of Authorship in the Life Sciences. DOI: [10.17226/10613](https://doi.org/10.17226/10613).

##### Sharing data sets

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##### DNA and protein sequences

Protein sequences: Uniprot

DNA and RNA sequences: Genbank/European Nucleotide Archive(ENA)/DDBJ, Protein DataBank, UniProt.

DNA and RNA sequencing data (traces for capillary electrophoresis and short reads for next-generation sequencing): NCBI trace and short-read archive, ENA's Sequence Read Archive.

When publishing reference genomes, the assembly must be made available in addition to the sequence reads.

This policy includes even short stretches of novel sequence information such as epitopes, functional domains, genetic markers, or haplotypes. Short novel sequences must include surrounding sequence information to provide context.

The sequences of all RNAi, antisense and morpholino probes must be included in the paper or deposited in a public database, with the accession number quoted. When an unpublished library is included in the paper, at minimum the sequences of the probes central to the conclusions of the paper must be presented.

Simple genetic polymorphisms should be submitted to dbSNP. For data linking genotyping and phenotyping information, we strongly recommend submission to dbGAP or EGA, two repositories that have mechanisms for access control for human health-related phenotypes.

##### Macromolecular structures

Authors of papers describing structures of biological macromolecules must provide atomic coordinates and related experimental data (structure factor amplitudes/intensities for crystal structures, or restraints for NMR structures) upon request of Editors for the purposes of evaluating the manuscript, if they are not already freely accessible in a publicly available and recognized database (for example, Protein DataBank, Uniprot, Nucleic Acids Database or Biological Magnetic Resonance Databank). Electron microscopy-derived density maps and coordinate data must be deposited in EMDB.

Where there is no public repository and if the data sets are too large to submit to the journal online, authors should either consult the journal Editorial Office for advice or provide five separate copies of these data to the Editors in an appropriate format (for example, CD or DVD) for the purposes of peer-review. If authors wish to deposit work into a Protein DataBank (PDB) please contact the Editorial Office.

#### Microarray data

MIAME-compliant microarray data: deposit in GEO or ArrayExpress upon submission to the journal. Data must be MIAME-compliant, as described at the MGED web site specifying microarray standards.

#### Crystallographic data for small molecules

Manuscripts reporting new three-dimensional structures of small molecules from crystallographic analysis should include a .cif file and a structural figure with probability ellipsoids for publication as Supplementary Information. The structure factors for each structure should also be submitted. Both the structure factors and the structural output must have been checked using the IUCR's CheckCIF routine, and a PDF copy of the output must be included at submission, together with a justification for any alerts reported. Crystallographic data for small molecules should be submitted to the Cambridge Structural Database and the deposition number referenced appropriately in the manuscript. Full access must be provided on publication.

#### Other datasets

In addition to the above-mentioned mandatory requirements for data submission to community-endorsed public databases, JCBFM strongly recommends deposition of other types of data sets into appropriate public repositories that are at an earlier stage of development. Examples of such repositories that facilitate sharing large data sets, some of which can offer the option of anonymous referee access to data before publication, include:

For proteomics data: PRIDE, PeptideAtlas, Tranche

For protein interaction data: IMEx consortium of databases including DIP, IntAct and MINT

For chemical compound screening and assay data: PubChem

Other databases recommended include IntAct and the Global Proteome Machine Organization.

Earth sciences databases recommended include Pangaea, the publishing network for geoscientific and environmental data; PetDB, for geochemical data of rocks on the ocean floor; and GEOROC, geochemistry of rocks from the oceans and continents.

See also: World Data Center system; National Climatic Data Center.

Astronomy and Astrophysics: NucAstroData; Plasma gate; Smithsonian/NASA astrophysics data system; SIMBAD astronomical database; UK solar system data centre.

Physics: NIST physical reference data; Hepdata reaction data.

Biology: NBII; ITIS (taxonomy); NCBI taxonomy; Species 2000; National Center for Ecological Analysis and Synthesis; Dryad.

#### 4.13 Pre-print servers

In the case of working manuscripts or early drafts of manuscripts posted on a pre-print servers: Authors should alert the Editor when submitting their manuscript if they have posted it on a pre-print server. Authors should not post an updated version of their manuscript on the pre-print server while it is being peer reviewed for possible publication in the journal. If the article is accepted for publication, the author may re-use their work according to the journal's self-archiving policy.

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## 5. Publishing policies

### 5.1 Publishing ethics

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Guia para autores do periódico Free Radical Biology & Medicine.



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## AUTHOR INFORMATION PACK

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### DESCRIPTION

*Free Radical Biology and Medicine* is an international, interdisciplinary journal that publishes original contributions and reviews on a broad range of topics relating to **redox biology, signaling, biological chemistry** and medical implications of **free radicals, reactive species, oxidants** and **antioxidants**.

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[2] W. Strunk Jr., E.B. White, *The Elements of Style*, fourth ed., Longman, New York, 2000.

Reference to a chapter in an edited book:

[3] G.R. Mettam, L.B. Adams, How to prepare an electronic version of your article, in: B.S. Jones, R.Z. Smith (Eds.), *Introduction to the Electronic Age*, E-Publishing Inc., New York, 2009, pp. 281–304.

Reference to a website:

[4] Cancer Research UK, Cancer statistics reports for the UK. <http://www.cancerresearchuk.org/aboutcancer/statistics/cancerstatsreport/>, 2003 (accessed 13.03.03).

Reference to a dataset:

[dataset] [5] M. Oguro, S. Imahiro, S. Saito, T. Nakashizuka, Mortality data for Japanese oak wilt disease and surrounding forest compositions, *Mendeley Data*, v1, 2015. <http://dx.doi.org/10.17632/xwj98nb39r.1>.

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Book:

[2] Van Faassen, E.; Vanin, A., eds. *Radicals For Life: the Various Forms of nitric oxide*. Amsterdam: Elsevier; 2007.

Chapter in edited book:

[3] Zuo, L.; Clanton, T. L. Detection of reactive oxygen and nitrogen species in tissues using redox-sensitive fluorescent probes. In: Sen, C. K.; Packer, L., eds. *Redox cell biology and genetics, part A. Methods in enzymology*, volume 352. San Diego: Academic Press; 2002: 307-325.

Abstract:

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**Anexo A.3.**

Carta da Comissão de Ética no Uso de Animais.



## CARTA DE APROVAÇÃO

Comissão De Ética No Uso De Animais analisou o projeto:

Número: 28043

Título: ESTUDO DOS PARÂMETROS NEUROQUÍMICOS, COMPORTAMENTAIS, FARMACOLÓGICOS E ELETROFISIOLÓGICOS DA CONVULSÃO EM PEIXE-ZEBRA (Danio rerio) ADULTO INDUZIDA POR PENTILENOTETRAZOL

Pesquisadores:

### Equipe UFRGS:

DIOGO LOSCH DE OLIVEIRA - coordenador desde 01/11/2014  
MARIA ELISA CALCAGNOTTO - pesquisador desde 01/11/2014  
Eduardo Pacheco Rico - pesquisador desde 01/11/2014  
Sandro Daniel Cordova - Aluno de Doutorado desde 01/11/2014  
Fernanda Cenci Vuaden - desde 01/11/2014  
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SUELEN BAGGIO - Aluno de Mestrado desde 01/11/2014  
CHAIRINI CÁSSIA THOMÉ - desde 01/11/2014  
EMERSON SANTOS DA SILVA - desde 01/11/2014  
NATÁ EZEQUIEL SEHN DA ROSA - desde 01/11/2014

### Equipe Externa:

Carlos Eduardo Leite - pesquisador desde 01/11/2014

***Comissão De Ética No Uso De Animais aprovou o mesmo , em reunião realizada em 10/11/2014 - Sala 330 - Anexo I do Prédio da Reitoria - Campus Centro/UFRGS- Av Paulo Gama, 110 - Bairro Farroupilha - Porto Alegre, em seus aspectos éticos e metodológicos, para a utilização de 4259 peixes-zebra, de acordo com as Diretrizes e Normas Nacionais e Internacionais, especialmente a Lei 11.794 de 08 de novembro de 2008 que disciplina a criação e utilização de animais em atividades de ensino e pesquisa.***

Porto Alegre, Terça-Feira, 18 de Novembro de 2014

STELA MARIS KUZE RATES  
Coordenador da comissão de ética

### Lista de Artigos Publicados

1. Baggio S, Mussulini BH, de Oliveira DL, Zenki K, Santos E, Rico E. Embryonic alcohol exposure promotes long-term effects on cerebral glutamate transport of adult zebrafish. *Neuroscience Letters*, 2017, Volume 636, pages 265-269.
2. Mussulini BH, Baggio S, Moro L, Dias RD, Calcagnotto ME, Rico EP, de Oliveira DL. Zebrafish as an Animal Model to Study Epileptic Seizures and Epileptic Syndromes. *Current Psychopharmacology*. 2016, Issue 2 (5) 194 – 210.
3. Schmitz F, Pierozan P, Rodrigues AF, Biasibetti H, Coelho DM, Mussulini BH, Pereira MS, Parisi MM, Barbé-Tuana F, de Oliveira DL, Vargas CR, Wyse AT. Chronic Treatment with a Clinically Relevant Dose of Methylphenidate Increases Glutamate Levels in Cerebrospinal Fluid and Impairs Glutamatergic Homeostasis in Prefrontal Cortex of Juvenile Rats. *Mol Neurobiol*. 2016 May;53(4):2384-96.
4. Vuaden FC, Savio LE, Rico EP, Mussulini BH, Rosemberg DB, de Oliveira DL, Bogo MR, Bonan CD, Wyse AT. Methionine Exposure Alters Glutamate Uptake and Adenine Nucleotide Hydrolysis in the Zebrafish Brain. *Mol Neurobiol*. 2016 Jan;53(1):200-9.
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6. Ibrahim M\*, Mussulini BH\*, Moro L, de Assis AM, Rosemberg DB, de Oliveira DL, Rocha JB, Schwab RS, Schneider PH, Souza DO, Rico EP. Anxiolytic effects of diphenyl diselenide on adult zebrafish in a novelty paradigm. *Prog Neuropsychopharmacol Biol Psychiatry*. 2014 Oct 3;54:187-94.
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9. Rosemberg DB, Braga MM, Rico EP, Loss CM, Córdova SD, Mussulini BH, Blaser RE, Leite CE, Campos MM, Dias RD, Calcagnotto ME, de Oliveira DL, Souza DO. Behavioral effects of taurine pretreatment in zebrafish acutely exposed to ethanol. *Neuropharmacology*. 2012 Sep;63(4):613-23.
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15. de Oliveira DL, Bavaresco C, Mussulini BH, Fischer A, Souza DO, Wyse AT, Wofchuk S. Early life LiCl-pilocarpine-induced status epilepticus reduces acutely hippocampal glutamate uptake and Na<sup>+</sup>/K<sup>+</sup> ATPase activity. *Brain Res*. 2011 Jan 19;1369:167-72.
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