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# Identification of evodiamine as the bioactive compound in evodia (*Evodia rutaecarpa* Benth.) fruit extract that activates human peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor gamma (PPARγ)



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#### 1. Introduction

The dried unripe fruit from *Evodia rutaecarpa* Benth., known as Wu zhu yu in China, has long been used in traditional Chinese medicine for the treatment of gastrointestinal disorders (abdominal pain, dysentery), headache, amenorrhea, and postpartum hemorrhage [1–3]. It also has a history of use as a cardiotonic, a central stimulant with transient hypertensive and positive inotropic and chronotropic effects [4,5]. In phytochemical studies, the indoloquinazoline alkaloids from the Evodia fruit (*Evodiae fructus*), evodiamine and rutaecarpine,

## ABSTRACT

The dried unripe fruit from *Evodia rutaecarpa* Benth., known as Wu zhu yu in China, has long been used in traditional Chinese medicine. In this research, we provide evidence that evodia fruit extract activates peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor gamma (PPAR $\gamma$ ) and, as identified through HPLC fractionation and mass spectroscopy, the activating phytochemical is evodiamine. Evodiamine was shown to bind to and activate PPAR $\gamma$ . It was also shown to activate PPAR $\gamma$ -regulated gene expression in human hepatoma cells similar to known PPAR $\gamma$  ligands and that the expression was blocked by a PPAR $\gamma$  specific antagonist.

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have been linked to these cardiotonic effects via activation of the vanilloid receptor [6] and subsequent production of calcitonin gene-related peptide [7]. These compounds also act on other cardiovascular-related targets, rutaecarpine inhibits platelet aggregation and evodiamine is a vasorelaxant [8,9].

Rutaecarpine and evodiamine have also been shown to act at additional biological targets. In inflammation, rutaecarpine directly inhibits COX-2 enzymatic activity [10], while evodiamine inhibits COX-2 gene expression via an NF- $\kappa$ B/Akt dependent pathway [11,12]. In aberrant cell growth, evodiamine has been shown to inhibit cellular growth, invasion, and metastasis of a wide variety of tumor cells, while having little toxicity on normal human peripheral blood cells [13]. In energy metabolism, evodiamine affects biological targets involved in obesity and adipocyte maturation while reducing diabetic complications in vivo [14,15]. It has been shown to block adipogenesis by activating ERK thru EGFR activation and PKC $\alpha$  [15,16].

Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor gamma (PPAR $\gamma$ ) is a ligand activated nuclear receptor that directly binds to and regulates gene expression (for review see [17]). Its activation

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Abbreviations: COX-2, cyclooxygenase-2; ERK, extracellular signal-regulated kinase; EGFR, epidermal growth factor receptor; FABP1, human fatty acid binding protein 1; HMGCS2, 3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl-CoA synthase 2; HPRT1, hypoxanthine phosphoribosyltransferase; LBD, ligand-binding domain; PCK1, phosphoenolpyruvate carboxykinase 1; PPAR, peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor; PKC $\alpha$ , protein kinase C alpha; TR-FRET, time-resolved fluorescence resonance energy transfer; UAS, upstream activating sequence.

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affects energy metabolism as well as inflammation and tumor growth. In adipocytes, PPAR $\gamma$  activation stimulates lipids and glucose uptake, leading to lipid storage. However, evodiamine blocks PPAR $\gamma$  induced adipogenesis [18]. Therefore, evodiamine is not an obvious PPAR $\gamma$  agonist. PPAR $\gamma$  ligands have a positive effect on insulin action and improve glucose tolerance in diabetic animals and humans, as well as improvements in inflammation and cognitive function [17]. These observations are consistent with the effects seen for evodiamine in obesity, diabetic, and Alzheimer's disease animal models [14,15,19].

In this research, we showed that evodia fruit extracts demonstrate a robust response in a PPAR $\gamma$  luciferase reporter assay. We further identified through HPLC fractionation and mass spectroscopy that the activating phytochemical is evodiamine.

#### 2. Materials and methods

#### 2.1. Chemicals and reagents

Evodiamine, rutaecarpine, and PPAR $\gamma$  agonists, rosiglitazone, and troglitazone were obtained from Sigma Corporation (St. Louis, MO). Evodiamine is a synthetic product (Sigma Corp.) and as such is a mixture of chiral forms [20,21]. The PPAR $\gamma$  antagonist, T0070907, and PPAR $\alpha$  agonist, GW-7647, were from Tocris Biologicals (Minneapolis, MN).

Vectors pGL4.35 9XUAS luc2P and pFN26A BIND, and Fugene 6 were purchased from Promega Inc. (Madison, WI). Restriction enzymes were from New England Biolabs (Ipswich, MA), D-luciferin was from Biotium (Hayward, CA), and LanthaScreen TR-FRET PPAR $\gamma$  competitive binding assay was from Life Technologies (Grand Island, NY).

Dulbecco's minimum essential media (DMEM), Ham's F-12K (Kaighn's, F12K) media, Dulbecco's phosphate buffered saline (DPBS), fetal bovine serum (FBS), pennicillin/streptomycin, and amphotericin B were purchased from Fisher Scientific (Pittsburgh, PA); hygromycin from EMD Millipore (Temecula, CA); and bovine serum albumin (BSA), G-418, and  $\beta$ -mercaptoethanol (BME) were purchased from Sigma Corporation (St. Louis, MO).

RNeasy Plus Mini kit, and quantitative polymerase chain reaction (qPCR) primer sets for human fatty acid binding protein 1 (FABP1), phosphoenolpyruvate carboxykinase 1 (PCK1), 3hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl-CoA synthase 2 (HMGCS2), and the housekeeping gene, hypoxanthine phosphoribosyltransferase 1 (HPRT1) were purchased from Qiagen (Toronto, ON). First strand cDNA synthesis kit, iScript, and the real-time qPCR kit, SsoFast EvaGreen, were from Bio-Rad Laboratories (Hercules, CA).

#### 2.2. Evodia rutaecarpa fruit extracts

*E. rutaecarpa* fruit was harvested from plants cultivated in China. The fruit was dried, milled into a homogenous feedstock, and extracted at room temperature for 24 h in methanol or chloroform using a ratio of 1:10 (fruit:solvent). The extract was filtered, and solvent was removed by drying under nitrogen. The resulting solids were quantified by mass, suspended in the original extraction solvent, aliquoted, re-dried, sealed, and stored at -80 °C. Before biological testing, the dried solids

were suspended in 70:30 DMSO:water, shaken for 2 h, and diluted in cell culture media prior to assay.

Powdered *E. rutaecarpa* fruit extract was suspended in methanol:water (50:50) at 50 mg/mL, sonicated for 10 min, then filtered through a 0.45  $\mu$ m PVDF membrane syringe filter into an autosampler vial for UPLC fractionation and LC-MS analysis.

#### 2.3. UPLC fractionation and LC-MS analysis

Chromatographic separation was performed on an Acquity UPLC-H chromatograph with photodiode array detector (PDA) and XBridge Shield RP18 (5  $\mu$ m, 4.6  $\times$  250 mm) column. The mobile phase solutions used for gradient separation were: A, 0.1% acetic acid in water and B, 0.1% acetic acid in acetonitrile. The mobile phase gradient (A:B), at ambient temperature and a flow rate of 0.8 mL/min, was initially set at 95:5 and linearly changed to 0:100 from 0 to 30 min, held for 2 min, and then, returned to initial conditions at 32.1 min and held till 35 min. The injection volume was 40  $\mu$ L for both samples and standards and the chromatogram recorded between 210 and 800 nm at a 1.2 nm resolution.

The effluent was split after the PDA, with the majority going to a fraction collector configured for 96 well plates with 2 mL/well volume. Fractions were collected at 20 s intervals for 32 min. The plates were frozen at -80 °C overnight, and the solvent was removed by freeze drying. The sample plates were sealed and stored dry at -20 °C until assayed for activity.

The remaining effluent was directed to a Waters Synapt G2 mass spectrometer equipped with an electrospray ion source and operated at 25 V cone voltage. Accurate mass spectra were collected in positive ion mode from m/z 100 to 1200 at 0.5 s/ scan, with alternating spectra collected at 0 V and 20 V collision energy in the transfer cell (MS<sup>e</sup> mode). The mass spectra, UV spectra, and fractions were time aligned for identification of active compounds.

#### 2.4. Plasmid constructs

To study the activation of PPAR $\gamma$  and PPAR $\alpha$  in a luciferase reporter assay, Gal4-PPARy-ligand-binding domain (LBD) and Gal4-PPAR $\alpha$ -LBD vectors were created in a modified pFN26A (BIND) vector (Promega, Inc.). The barnase gene was excised and a short cloning region (5'cgcagagctcaaaagcg-3') was inserted at the PvuI/EcoRI site to create pBIND3. The PPARy-LBD (residues 203-477) was qPCR amplified from human MGC: 5041 (pSPORT6; Open Biosystems, Inc.) using forward and reverse primers 5'acgatcgaacagctgaatccagagtccgctga-3' and 5'-tctagactagtacaag tccttgtagatctcctgcaggagc-3', incorporating pvul and xbal sites at the 5' and 3' ends, respectively. The PPAR $\gamma$ -LBD fragment was then ligated into the pBIND3 Pvul/Xbal site forming a Gal4-PPAR $\gamma$ -LBD fusion protein. Similarly, the PPAR $\alpha$ -LBD (residues 201-468) vector was created using forward and reverse primers, 5'-cgatcgcagacctcaaatctctgggc-3' and 5'gaattcagtacatgtctctgtagatctcttgc-3', to amplify the PPAR $\alpha$ -LBD from mouse MGC:18607 (Invitrogen). The PPARa-LBD fragment was then ligated into the pBIND3 PvuI/EcoRI site forming a Gal4-PPAR $\alpha$ -LBD fusion protein.

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