

# Anthocyanin-rich Açai (*Euterpe oleracea* Mart.) Fruit Pulp Fractions Attenuate Inflammatory Stress Signaling in Mouse Brain BV-2 Microglial Cells

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**ABSTRACT:** Age-related diseases of the brain compromise memory, learning, and movement and are directly linked with increases in oxidative stress and inflammation. Previous research has shown that supplementation with berries can modulate signaling in primary hippocampal neurons or BV-2 mouse microglial cells. Because of their high polyphenolic content, fruit pulp fractions of açai (*Euterpe oleracea* Mart.) were explored for their protective effect on BV-2 mouse microglial cells. Freeze-dried açai pulp was fractionated using solvents with different polarities and analyzed using HPLC for major anthocyanins and other phenolics. Fractions extracted using methanol (MEOH) and ethanol (ETOH) were particularly rich in anthocyanins such as cyanidin, delphinidin, malvidin, pelargonidin, and peonidin, whereas the fraction extracted using acetone (ACE) was rich in other phenolics such as catechin, ferulic acid, quercetin, resveratrol, and synergic and vanillic acids. Studies were conducted to investigate the mitigating effects of açai pulp extracts on lipopolysaccharide (LPS, 100 ng/mL) induced oxidative stress and inflammation; treatment of BV-2 cells with açai fractions resulted in significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) decreases in nitrite production, accompanied by a reduction in inducible nitric oxide synthase (iNOS) expression. The inhibition pattern was emulated with the ferulic acid content among the fractions. The protection of microglial cells by açai pulp extracts, particularly that of MEOH, ETOH, and ACE fractions, was also accompanied by a significant concentration-dependent reduction in cyclooxygenase-2 (COX-2), p38 mitogen-activated protein kinase (p38-MAPK), tumor necrosis factor- $\alpha$  (TNF $\alpha$ ), and nuclear factor  $\kappa$ B (NF- $\kappa$ B). The current study offers valuable insights into the protective effects of açai pulp fractions on brain cells, which could have implications for improved cognitive and motor functions.

**KEYWORDS:** açai pulp, anthocyanins, inflammation, oxidative stress, microglia

## ■ INTRODUCTION

The vulnerability of the central nervous system (CNS) to oxidative and inflammatory stress increases with age and has been postulated to be a leading contributing factor to the alarming rise in many age-related neurodegenerative diseases such as Alzheimer's disease, Parkinson's disease, dementia, Huntington's disease, multiple sclerosis, prion disease, and others.<sup>1,2</sup> Due to the impact and immense loss caused by these diseases in terms of quality of life and lifespan as well their skyrocketing economic burden on society, the search for preventative, mitigative, and curative strategies has intensified. Fruits and vegetables rich in polyphenols have been shown to provide protection against an array of human diseases such as cancer and cardiovascular disease, including those involving the CNS.<sup>3–5</sup> Prominent among these polyphenol-rich foods are edible berries (e.g., strawberry or blueberry), known for their high levels of flavonoids, particularly anthocyanins. Berries have been shown to improve age-related motor and cognitive deficits in rat and human studies.<sup>5–8</sup> In previous studies using aged animals we have observed beneficial cognitive improvements

associated with a reduction in both inflammatory and oxidative stress in key regions of the brain involved in memory and learning.<sup>4,9–12</sup>

Dietary polyphenols have been shown to modulate a number of cellular processes in the brain, including the activation state of microglia. Microglial activation can result in the generation of cytotoxic intermediates and is associated with a variety of age-related and neurodegenerative conditions.<sup>13</sup> In vitro, microglial activation can be induced with the bacterial cell wall component lipopolysaccharide (LPS). Exposure of microglial cells and aged animals to LPS or a neuroexcitotoxic agent such as kainic acid results in the initiation of intracellular signaling cascades, leading to nuclear translocation of the transcription factor nuclear factor  $\kappa$ B (NF- $\kappa$ B) and expression of pro-inflammatory enzymes such as inducible nitric oxide

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synthase (iNOS) and inducible cyclooxygenase-2 (COX-2), as well as inflammatory mediators such as nitric oxide (NO), and cytokines, such as interleukin-1 $\beta$  (IL-1 $\beta$ ) and tumor necrosis factor- $\alpha$  (TNF $\alpha$ ).<sup>7,13–16</sup> Studies in our laboratory have demonstrated that blueberries, strawberries, and walnuts attenuate the production of inflammatory mediators in LPS-activated mouse BV-2 microglial cells and that at least part of the berry-induced reductions in stress-mediated signaling might involve decreases in NO production and iNOS expression as well as reduction in IL-1 $\beta$ , TNF $\alpha$ , NF- $\kappa$ B, and IGF-1 in critical regions of stress-induced rat brain.<sup>16</sup>

There are three primary species of the genus *Euterpe* in the Amazon region, that is, *Euterpe precatoria*, *Euterpe edulis*, and *Euterpe oleracea*. These palm tree species bear fruits widely consumed by Amazonian natives and are also exported globally. *Euterpe oleracea* is the most commonly consumed fruit. The pulp of the fruit of *E. oleracea* has received considerable attention among food scientists due to its extraordinarily high antioxidant capacity in vitro when compared to other fruits and berries against all reactive oxygen species, especially the superoxide anion, and hydroxyl, peroxy, and peroxy nitrite radicals. Açai pulp has been extensively studied for its nutritional and phytochemical composition and bioactivity.<sup>17,18</sup> Unlike most fruits and berries, it also has a remarkable number of phytochemicals, in addition to ample amounts of mono- and polyunsaturated fatty acids within its pulp. Phytochemical analyses indicate that, apart from being rich in anthocyanins such as cyanidin, delphinidin, malvidin, pelargonidin, and peonidin, açai pulp also possesses high concentrations of luteolin, quercetin, dihydrokaempferol, and chrysoeriol (a unique flavone), along with a number of other polyphenolics.<sup>17–20</sup> In vitro studies showed that açai extracts, as well as individual flavonoids of açai, exhibit potent anti-inflammatory, anticarcinogenic, antioxidant, and certain neuroprotective properties.<sup>20–25</sup> The health benefits of açai pulp consumption have been demonstrated in humans, in a randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled, crossover study, with healthy subjects from 19 to 52 years of age administered an açai pulp-rich juice in which the pulp had not been clarified or filtered.<sup>26</sup> The study reported significant reductions in lipid peroxidation during oxidative stress, as well as a rapid increase in antioxidant activity in the serum, increasing cellular protection from reactive oxygen species, as measured by the cell-based antioxidant protection in erythrocytes (CAP-e) assay. Apart from being a potent antioxidant and anti-inflammatory agent, studies using the fruit fly (*Drosophila melanogaster*) have shown that when açai pulp is added to a high-fat diet, it extends lifespan via modification of the c-Jun N-terminal kinase (JNK) signaling pathway. Açai may also produce analgesic effects in mice, possibly mediated via modulation of the levels of prostaglandins.<sup>27,28</sup> Furthermore, the effect of açai pulp in reducing pain has been confirmed in an open-label clinical pilot study in humans, where oral consumption of an açai fruit and berry blend significantly reduced inflammation, improving joint motion and altering pain perception.<sup>29</sup> However, the effect of açai fractions on brain cells and the signaling mechanisms involved in interneuronal communications have not been examined.

Thus, in the present study, we have examined the effects of different fractions of açai pulp on BV-2 microglial cells subjected to LPS-induced insults, through the measurement of oxidative- and inflammatory-stress-induced signals, including nitric oxide (NO) release, and levels of inducible nitric oxide

synthase (iNOS), cyclooxygenase-2 (COX-2), mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK), tumor necrosis factor  $\alpha$  (TNF $\alpha$ ), and nuclear factor  $\kappa$ B (NF- $\kappa$ B). The study also offers insights on the recovery of microglial cells during chemically induced stress and their tolerance to various polyphenol-rich fractions extracted from açai pulp.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

**Açai Fractions.** Pasteurized, freeze-dried açai pulp, prepared from naturally ripened açai fruits harvested in the Amazon delta, was kindly donated by AIBMR Life Sciences (Puyallup, WA). Polyphenols from the fruit pulp were fractionated with solvents of various polarities such as ethanol (ETOH), methanol (MEOH), ethyl acetate (ETAC), and acetone (ACE) (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO). One hundred grams of finely powdered, freeze-dried açai pulp was initially extracted in 400 mL each of petroleum ether followed by 400 mL of chloroform for 36 h at room temperature with continuous stirring, to remove the oils, lignans, gums, and other petroleum ether-soluble components. The leftover pulp was extracted with 400 mL of ETAC for 36 h at room temperature, with continuous stirring. After removal of the ETAC through vacuum filtration, the remaining pulp was subsequently extracted using 400 mL each of ACE, MEOH, and ETOH, with pulp being in each solvent for 36 h with continuous agitation. Each filtrate was clarified further through vacuum filtration on a Buchner funnel, the solvents were removed via rotary evaporation, and each fraction was freeze-dried to remove all traces of moisture and solvents. ETAC and ACE were used to extract major non-water-soluble flavonoids, anthocyanins and other polyphenolics, whereas ETOH and MEOH were used to extract most of the water-soluble polyphenolic components. The yields of freeze-dried fractions from 100 g of açai pulp were 5.171 g (oily) for petroleum ether, 1.809 g for chloroform (oily), 2.007 g for ETAC, 2.302 g for ACE, 2.817 g for MEOH, and 5.712 g for ETOH. For cell experiments, equal quantities of dried açai fractions were reconstituted in DMSO (Sigma-Aldrich) and diluted in cell culture growth media such that the concentration of DMSO in the treatments was never above 0.01%.

**Analysis of Phenolic Compounds in Açai Berry Extracts.** Dried/lyophilized açai berry extracts (100 mg) were dissolved in 1 mL of 1% formic acid in MEOH solution and were analyzed for the presence of some known phenolic compounds on an Agilent 1200 series HPLC system (Agilent Technologies, Palo Alto, CA), with a photodiode array detector, using an Inertsil ODS-2 (5  $\mu$ m, 4.6  $\times$  250 nm) column (GL Sciences, Inc., USA, Torrance, CA). The volume of injection was 20  $\mu$ L. For analysis of anthocyanins the mobile phase consisted of 5% formic acid in H<sub>2</sub>O (A) and H<sub>2</sub>O/AcCN/formic acid, 50:45:5 (B), eluted according to the following gradient: initial 20% B, 0–10 min ramp to 25% B, 10–20 min ramp to 33% B, 20–40 min ramp to 100% B, 40–43 min at 100% B. The anthocyanins were monitored at  $\lambda$ 520 nm. Under these conditions, the retention times were as follows: delphinidin-3-O-glucoside, 10.02 min; cyanidin-3-O-glucoside, 13.48 min; cyanidin-3-O-rutinoside, 13.54 min; pelargonidin-3-O-glucoside, 17.34 min; malvidin-3-O-glucoside, 20.05 min; and peonidin-3-O-glucoside, 22.08 min. The anthocyanins were quantitated from a calibration curve of a mixture of standards prepared in 0.1% HCl in MEOH/H<sub>2</sub>O (80:20).

Other phenolic compounds were analyzed at  $\lambda$ 280 nm, eluted according to the following solvent gradient [1% formic acid in H<sub>2</sub>O (A), 1% formic acid in MEOH (B)]: 0–3 min, 0–5% B; 3–45 min, 5–70% B; 45–48 min, 70–100% B; 48–51 min, 100% B. Under these conditions, the retention times were as follows: catechin, 18.68 min; vanillic acid, 22.21 min; synergic acid, 23.70 min; ferulic acid, 29.31 min; resveratrol, 34.35 min; and quercetin, 40.82 min. The phenolic compounds were quantitated from a calibration curve of a mixture of standards prepared in 1% formic acid in MEOH. Standards for all anthocyanins and quercetin were purchased from Chromadex (Irvine, CA); catechin, resveratrol, and vanillic acid were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich Co.; ferulic acid was from Indofine Chemical Co., Inc. (Hillsborough, NJ).

**Table 1.** HPLC Phenolic Content Analysis for Major Anthocyanins and Other Major Polyphenols in Açai Pulp Fractions, Extracted Using Different Solvents<sup>a</sup>

açai fraction	major anthocyanins (expressed as ng/mg dry extract ± SD)					
	cyanidin glucoside	cyanidin rutinoside	delphinidin glucoside	malvidin glucoside	pelargonidin glucoside	peonidin glucoside
ETAC	192.94 ± 53.77	74.53 ± 25.91	trace	trace	13.94 ± 5.09	24.45 ± 3.91
ACE	724.32 ± 91.3	1043.01 ± 176.4	78.36 ± 0.36	110.0 ± 9.5	45.82 ± 2.73	263.51 ± 28.76
MEOH	3461.87 ± 2.08	5851.95 ± 230.9	1064.82 ± 386.1	74.87 ± 2.6	115.2 ± 19.5	774.95 ± 32.68
ETOH	2771.69 ± 7.46	4878.67 ± 8.20	553.16 ± 90.88	66.50 ± 0.72	95.96 ± 4.48	564.09 ± 4.73
açai fraction	other major polyphenols (expressed as ng/mg dry extract ± SD)					
	flavanol	hydroxycinnamic acid	flavonol	stilbenoid	hydroxybenzoic acid	
	catechin	ferulic acid	quercetin	resveratrol	syringic acid	vanillic acid
ETAC	411.08 ± 5.49	1197.54	54.27 ± 1.77	trace	28.47 ± 0.06	135.63 ± 9.04
ACE	5935.8 ± 128.5	2975.40 ± 40.17	2389.8 ± 15.04	889.9 ± 26.6	1135.4 ± 4.8	1499.3 ± 30.51
MEOH	1901.6 ± 193.3	4565.39 ± 207.0	580.67 ± 0.30	42.42 ± 0.88	1312.6 ± 4.8	161.5 ± 100.7
ETOH	235.21 ± 8.21	2304.70 ± 16.79	170.03 ± 10.88	none	609.73 ± 3.6	57.05 ± 31.02

<sup>a</sup>Major components in each fraction, injected at 100 mg/mL concentration, were identified on the basis of the retention time, using a calibration chromatogram obtained from a mixture of known standards. The data are presented as average ng/mg dry extract from duplicate analyses. Trace refers to a peak observed, but below the limit of quantitation.

**Cell Culture.** BV-2 murine microglial cells (generously provided by Dr. Van Eldik, University of Kentucky, Lexington, KY) were plated on 12-well plates for immunohistochemical analysis at a density of 50000 cells per well or on 96-well plates for the enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) at a density of 10000 cells per well and maintained in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM; Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) supplemented with 10% fetal calf serum, 100 U/mL penicillin, and 100 µg/mL streptomycin (Invitrogen) at 37 °C in a humidified incubator under 5% CO<sub>2</sub>. After 16–20 h of incubation, when the cells were nearly 70% confluent, cells were pretreated with either açai extract diluted in media or control media for 4 h and then stimulated with LPS (Sigma-Aldrich) at 100 ng/mL overnight. The açai extract concentrations ranged from 50 to 1000 µg/mL for the MEOH, ETAC, and ACE fractions and from 10 to 250 µg/mL for the ETOH fraction. All treatment groups were assayed in duplicates, in 6six separate experiments.

**Cell Viability and Cytotoxicity.** Optimal treatment concentration as well as toxicity of different fractions of açai pulp on BV-2 microglial cells was determined using a two-color fluorescence cell viability assay that is based on the simultaneous determination of live and dead cells using live/dead viability/cytotoxicity kits (Molecular Probes—Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA). The assay measures two recognized parameters of cell viability, intracellular esterase activity and plasma membrane integrity. In brief, BV-2 microglial cells, seeded in 96-well culture plates, were treated with various concentrations (50 µg–10 mg/mL) of açai pulp fractions for 24 h, except for the control and DMSO vehicle controls. At the end of treatment, the cells were stained for 30 min with calcein AM, which is cleaved by esterases in live cells, producing cytoplasmic green fluorescence measured at 530 nm, and ethidium homodimer-1, which stains nucleic acids of the membrane-collapsed or dead cells with red fluorescence measured at 630 nm. Images were captured with a Nikon TE200U inverted microscope. Percent live cells were calculated as the average number of live cells divided by the number of total cells in each field of view, from 10 randomly selected regions in each well.

**Nitrite Quantification.** To assess the production of nitric oxide (NO) from BV-2 cells, extracellular release of nitrite (NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>), which is one of the major, stable, and nonvolatile breakdown products of NO, was measured by the Griess reagent system (Promega, Madison, WI) according to the manufacturer's instructions. One hundred microliters of cell-conditioned medium supernatant was mixed with 25 µL of Griess reagent (0.1% *N*-1-naphthylethylenediamine dihydrochloride and 1% sulfanilamide in 5% phosphoric acid) in a 96-well plate and incubated at room temperature for 20 min. Absorbance was read at 548 nm, and the concentration of nitrite was calculated with the linear equation derived from the standard curve generated by known concentrations of sodium nitrite.

**Western Blots.** Following experimental treatments, cells were washed in ice-cold PBS, and 75 µL of CellLytic-M Cell Lysis Reagent (Sigma-Aldrich), containing mammalian protease inhibitor cocktail at 1:100 dilution (Roche, Basel, Switzerland), PMSF (10 µg/mL), and sodium fluoride (50 mM) (Sigma-Aldrich), was applied to each well. Cells were lysed at 4 °C with agitation for 15 min and centrifuged at 12000g for 15 min at 4 °C. The protein concentration of the resulting supernatant lysates was quantified with the DC protein assay (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA). Equal amounts of denatured protein samples were separated by 8% SDS-PAGE and electrophoretically transferred to nitrocellulose membrane. Primary antibodies for iNOS (Upstate-Millipore, Billerica, MA), COX-2 (Santa Cruz Biotech, Santa Cruz, CA), total and phospho NF-κB (Abcam, Cambridge, MA), and p38-MAPK (Abcam) were used at 1:1000 dilution for incubation overnight at 4 °C. After washing in TBST, the signal was detected using an electrochemiluminescence (ECL) detection kit (Amersham Corp., Arlington Heights, IL). Following ECL development, the images of the blots were acquired and band densities were analyzed using a BioImaging System (EC<sup>3</sup> Darkroom, UVP, Upland CA) and LabWorks Imaging Acquisition and Analysis software (version 4.5, UVP). β-Actin was used as a loading control marker.

**TNFα ELISA.** Quantification of TNFα, a key cytokine in the development of several inflammatory disorders, in cell-conditioned media was performed with an ELISA (R&D Systems, Minneapolis, MN) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Cleavage of membrane-bound TNFα by TACE/ADAM17 releases a 55 kDa soluble trimetric form of TNFα, which can be quantified in the cell supernates spectrophotometrically. In brief, 50 µL of cell-conditioned medium was added to a 96-well plate and incubated for 2 h. Following washing, TNFα conjugate was added to each well and incubated for a further 2 h. Wells were washed again, and substrate solution was added to each well, followed by stop solution and measurement of absorbance at 450 nm. TNFα concentration for each sample was calculated from the linear equation derived from the standard curve of known concentrations of the recombinant TNFα.

**Data Analysis.** The quantitative data were analyzed by two-way ANOVA with pretreatment (açai fraction + LPS vs LPS alone) and dose as experimental factors. Post hoc comparisons were performed using Fisher's least significant difference (LSD) test, when either the main effect of pretreatment or interaction was significant. All statistical analyses were performed using SYSTAT software (SPSS, Chicago, IL). Results were considered to be statistically significant if the observed significance level with açai pretreatment was  $p < 0.05$  (\*) or  $p < 0.001$  (\*\*) versus LPS. Note that for each dependent measure, those cells treated with LPS alone were statistically higher than the control conditions without LPS, which were not different (data not shown). Additionally, the açai fractions with no LPS did not increase any of the

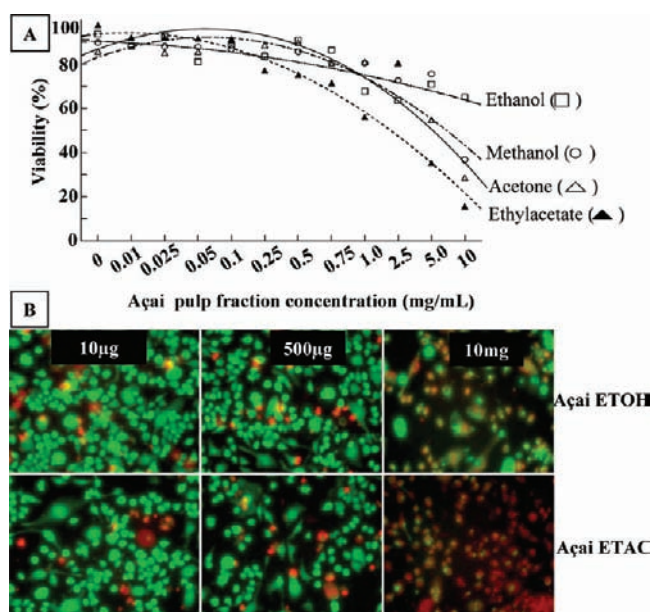


dependent measures compared to control conditions (data not shown).

## RESULTS

**Fractional Analysis of Açai Pulp.** HPLC analysis to determine the major polyphenolics in different soluble fractions of açai pulp yielded a highly variable distribution of compounds across the fractions as described in Table 1. MEOH and ETOH fractions had substantially higher amounts of anthocyanins, followed by ACE, and relatively low levels in the ETAC fractions. With respect to other polyphenols, such as catechin, ferulic acid, quercetin, resveratrol, synergic acid, and vanillic acids, ACE and MEOH fractions had substantially higher amounts, followed by ETOH and ETAC fractions.

**Effect of Açai Pulp Extracts on Viability of Microglial Cells.** Cytotoxicity measurements for various açai extracts on BV-2 microglial cells, at extract concentrations ranging from 50  $\mu\text{g}$  to 10  $\text{mg}/\text{mL}$ , had variable dose–response effects on viability when compared to control (Figure 1). None of the



**Figure 1.** Effect of various solvent fractions of açai pulp on the viability of BV-2 microglial cells assessed using a live/dead viability/cytotoxicity kit (A), which measures the live-cell esterase activity with green fluorescence and membrane-compromised dead cells with red fluorescence. Percent live cells was calculated as the average number of live cells in each field of view from 10 randomly selected regions using a fluorescent microscope. Panel B is the representation of the fluorescent images of BV-2 microglial cells treated with ETOH and ETAC fractions of açai pulp.

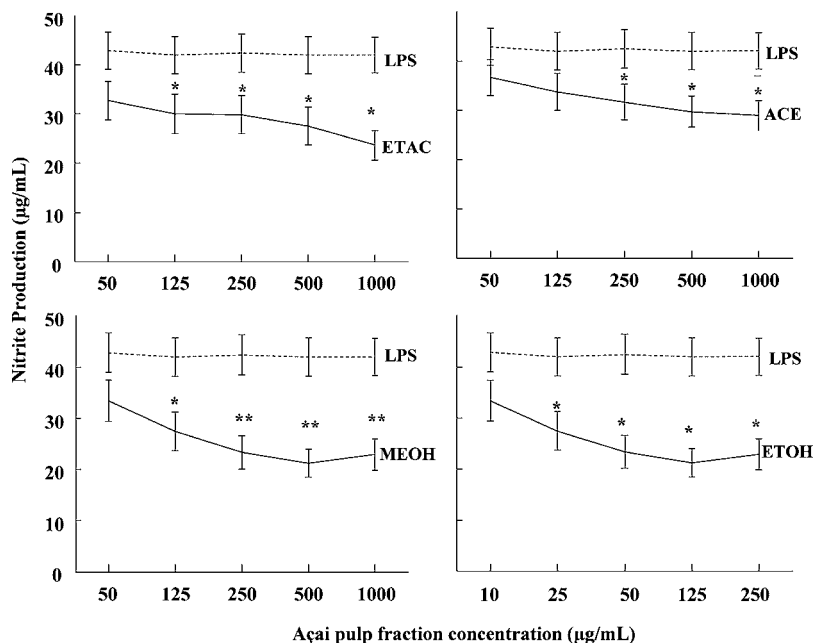
four fractions (ETAC, ACE, MEOH, and ETOH) significantly compromised the viability of the BV-2 microglial cells up to 2.5  $\text{mg}/\text{mL}$ ; however, higher concentrations such as 5–10  $\text{mg}/\text{mL}$ , particularly of ETAC and ACE fractions, reduced the viability of the cells. On the basis of the viability results, subsequent experiments were carried out at concentrations ranging from 25 to 1000  $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ . No differences were observed between cells treated with LPS plus DMSO and LPS without DMSO, verifying that DMSO had no significant effect on the cells. Also, each açai pulp fraction (with no subsequent LPS exposure) had no effect on the microglial cell measurements compared to control medium-treated cells.

**Açai Pulp Fractions Attenuate Reactive Nitrogen Species and Pro-inflammatory Mediators.** Exposure of brain cells to oxidative stress, primarily caused by the generation of reactive oxygen or nitrogen species, sets off a cascade of events resulting in the death of neurons, ultimately leading to declines in cognitive and motor functions. However, pretreatment of microglial cells with açai pulp fractions significantly attenuated the production of reactive nitrogen species as well as expression of pro-inflammatory mediator proteins. The results are discussed below.

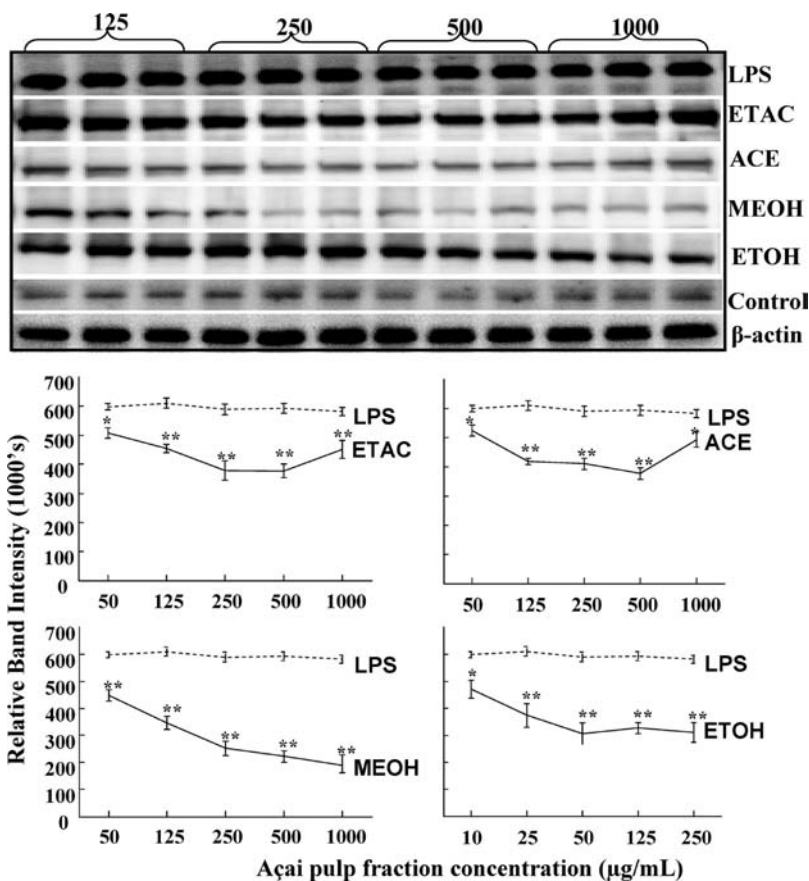
**NO Production.** Pretreatment of microglia with the individual açai pulp fractions significantly attenuated LPS-induced NO production (Figure 2). Significant main effects were observed for pretreatment ( $p < 0.001$ ), whereas the dose by pretreatment interactions were not significant. The anthocyanin-rich MEOH fraction was the most effective in reducing the extracellular release of NO, a direct measurement for the release of reactive oxygen species (\*\*,  $p < 0.001$  for 0.25–1  $\text{mg}/\text{mL}$ ). All other fractions (ETAC, ACE, and ETOH) also significantly (\*,  $p < 0.05$ ) inhibited NO production, at concentrations  $\geq 250 \mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ . A relatively large variability in data points is observed for spectrophotometric-based assays compared to that of Western blot-based analysis. Therefore, except for the MEOH fraction above 250  $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ , the level of significance observed is only at  $p < 0.05$ . Overall, the inhibition of nitrite follows the pattern of relative content of ferulic acid in each of these fractions. It has been well reported that ferulic acid is highly reactive with nitrites and acts as an antioxidant and chemoprotectant by inhibiting the formation of *N*-nitroso compounds in vivo.<sup>30,31</sup>

**iNOS.** LPS-induced expression of iNOS, which produces the inflammatory mediator NO, was significantly reduced by pretreatment with all fractions of açai pulp (Figure 3). Overall, significant effects were observed for pretreatment and pretreatment by dose interactions at  $p < 0.05$ . MEOH and ETOH fractions significantly inhibited iNOS expression (\*\*,  $p < 0.001$ ) in a dose-dependent manner. Interestingly, these two fractions have relatively higher concentrations of anthocyanins such as cyanidin glucoside, cyanidin rutinoside, and delphinidin glucoside, as well as ferulic acid, compared to ETAC and ACE fractions. Even though a direct dose–response was observed with respect to NO production, the linear relationship with respect to iNOS inhibition was not observed for the ETAC and ACE fractions because of apparent saturation effects on the iNOS enzyme at concentrations  $>500 \mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ .

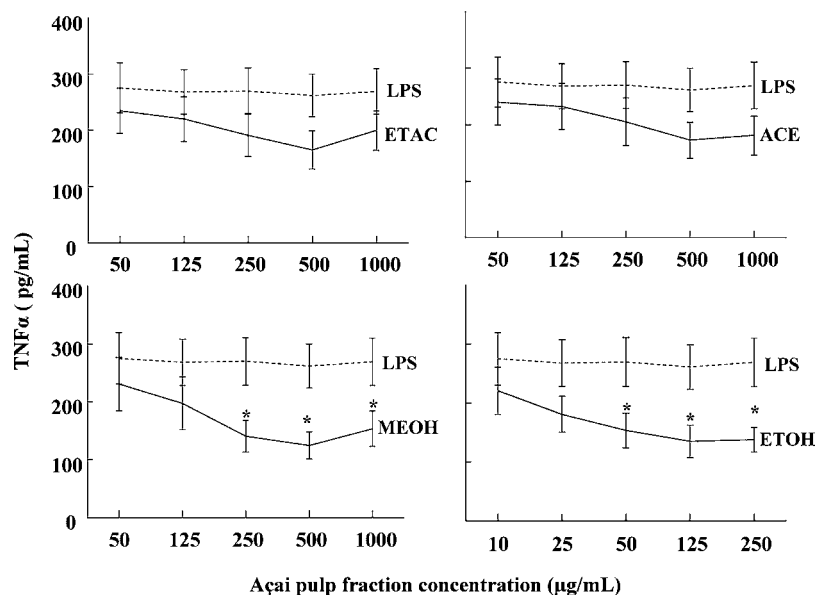
**TNF $\alpha$ .** A reduction in the release of the inflammatory cytokine TNF $\alpha$  into the media following LPS exposure of microglial cells (Figure 4) was observed by pretreatment with all four açai fractions with varied levels of significance ( $p = 0.009$  for ETAC,  $p = 0.016$  for ACE,  $p < 0.001$  for MEOH and ETOH). However, the pretreatment by dose interaction effects were not significant. There were no significant reductions in TNF $\alpha$  by ETAC or ACE pretreatment when compared to that of LPS alone for any of the concentrations tested. MEOH and ETOH fractions were significant (\*,  $p < 0.05$ ) only at concentrations at and above 250 and 50  $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ , respectively. One contributing factor for the effectiveness of the MEOH and ETOH fractions can be attributed to the presence of high concentrations of anthocyanins. The large variability of the data observed for ELISA (similar to the nitrite release assay), when compared to those from Western blots, could be the reason for the relatively low response in the inhibition of TNF $\alpha$  release.



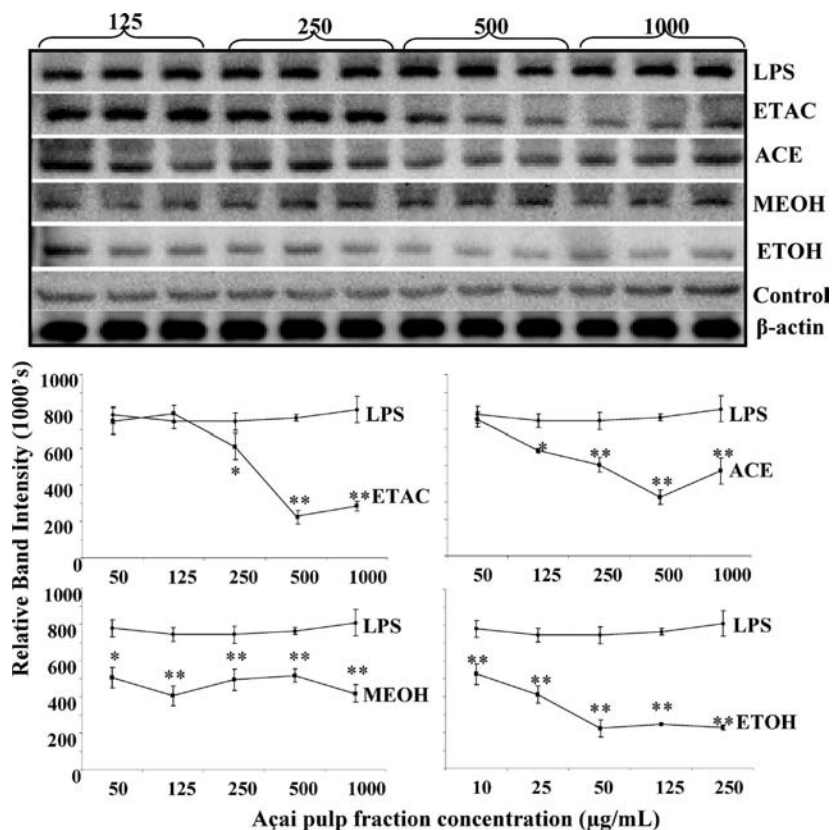
**Figure 2.** Production of extracellular nitrite ( $\text{NO}_2^-$ ) in BV-2 microglial cells pretreated (4 h) with various fractions of açai pulp extracts and stimulated with LPS (100 ng/mL). Data are expressed as the mean  $\pm$  SEM and quantified using Greiss reagent. Each açai fraction pretreatment was compared against LPS treatment alone. Comparative post hoc analyses were made by Fisher's LSD with significance at (\*)  $p < 0.05$  and (\*\*)  $p < 0.001$  versus LPS.



**Figure 3.** Suppression of iNOS activated by LPS (100 ng/mL) with pretreatment (4 h) of various açai pulp fractions in BV-2 microglial cells. The Western blot immunoreactive band density is expressed as the mean  $\pm$  SEM with level of significance at (\*)  $p < 0.05$  and (\*\*)  $p < 0.001$  of pretreatment versus LPS alone by Fisher's LSD. The blots for the initial fractions (50  $\mu\text{g/mL}$  ETAC, ACE, and MEOH and 10  $\mu\text{g/mL}$  ETOH) are not shown.



**Figure 4.** Reduction in LPS-induced TNF $\alpha$  in BV-2 microglial cells pretreated with different açai pulp fractions. Data were assayed by ELISA, and the values are expressed as the mean  $\pm$  SEM. Cytokines released into the media (pg/mg of protein) by the treatment groups were compared against LPS (100 ng/mL) by Fisher's LSD with level of significance at (\*)  $p < 0.05$  and (\*\*)  $p < 0.001$  versus LPS alone.

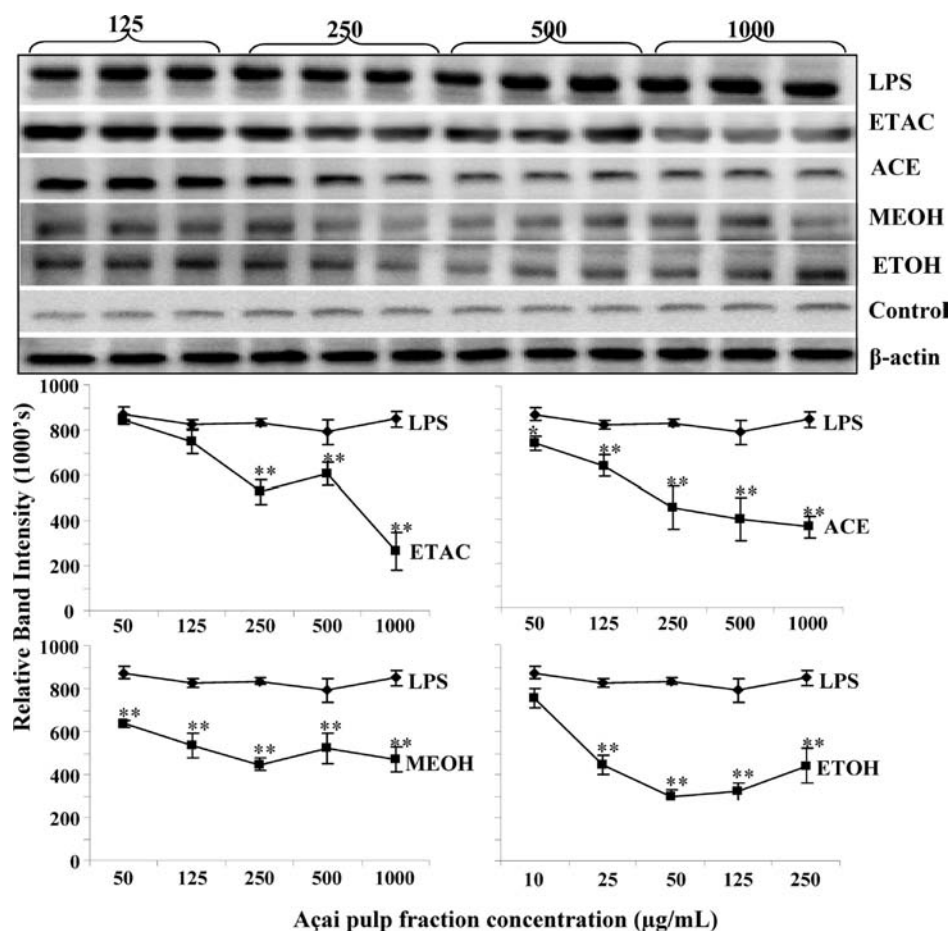


**Figure 5.** Effect of various açai pulp fractions pretreatment (4 h) in the reduction of LPS-stimulated activation of p38-MAPK in BV-2 microglial cells. The values for each treatment are expressed as the mean  $\pm$  SEM for the immunoreactive bands with level of significance at (\*)  $p < 0.05$  and (\*\*)  $p < 0.001$  versus LPS alone (100 ng/mL) by Fisher's LSD. The blots for the initial fractions (50  $\mu$ g/mL ETAC, ACE, and MEOH and 10  $\mu$ g/mL ETOH) are not shown.

**Açai Pulp Fractions Affect the Signaling Pathways Linked to Inflammation in Microglial Cells.** Correlating with the results of suppression of both pro-inflammatory mediators and reactive nitrogen species, pretreatment with açai pulp extracts significantly affected the signaling markers linked

to inflammation. The specific effects on key signaling proteins are discussed below.

**p38-MAPK.** The significant increase in p38-MAPK phosphorylation by LPS was attenuated by pretreatment (4 h) with açai pulp fractions (Figure 5). All four fractions of açai



**Figure 6.** Suppression of phosphorylation of NF- $\kappa$ B (pNF- $\kappa$ B) by açai pulp fraction pretreatment followed by overnight LPS (100 ng/mL) stimulation in BV-2 microglial cells. The values are expressed as the mean  $\pm$  SEM for the immunoreactive bands of the Western blots with level of significance at (\*)  $p < 0.05$  and (\*\*)  $p < 0.001$ . Statistical comparisons are made between açai pretreatment versus LPS alone. The blots for the initial fractions (50  $\mu$ g/mL ETAC, ACE, and MEOH and 10  $\mu$ g/mL ETOH) are not shown.

had significant inhibitory effects (\*\*,  $p < 0.001$ ) on p38-MAPK activation. The inhibition of p38-MAPK phosphorylation by açai fractions exhibited a dose-dependent pattern with the main effects also being significant for pretreatment as well as dose by pretreatment interaction ( $p < 0.001$ ). Following a similar pattern, anthocyanin-rich MEOH and ETOH fractions were highly effective even at the lowest concentrations tested (50 and 10  $\mu$ g/mL, respectively), whereas the ETAC fraction only began showing the inhibitory effects at 250  $\mu$ g/mL. Linear dose responses were observed for ACE and ETAC fractions, whereas MEOH and ETOH showed apparent saturation effects.

**NF- $\kappa$ B.** Phosphorylation of NF- $\kappa$ B results in its translocation into the nucleus, where it binds to DNA, leading to the expression or activation of many inflammatory genes. LPS significantly increased NF- $\kappa$ B phosphorylation compared to control (Figure 6). However, these increases in NF- $\kappa$ B activation were significantly attenuated by pretreatment with açai fractions. Except for the ETAC fraction ( $p = 0.148$ ), all other fractions effectively reduced the phosphorylation of NF- $\kappa$ B in a dose-dependent manner ( $p < 0.001$ ). The main effects were also significant for pretreatment, as well as dose by pretreatment interaction. MEOH and ETOH fractions were highly significant even at low concentrations (50 and 25  $\mu$ g/mL, respectively), and these effects correlate with the levels of anthocyanins such as glycosides of cyanidin, delphinidin, malvidin, pelargonidin, and peonidin. Even though a dose-

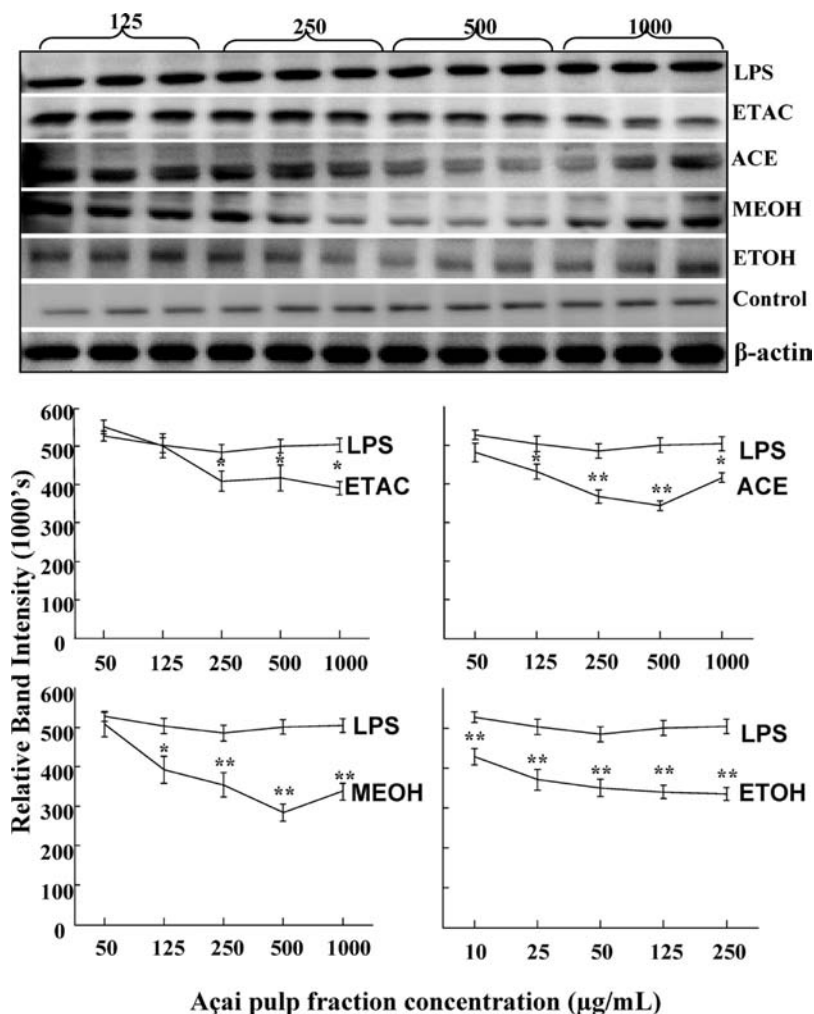
dependent inhibition of NF- $\kappa$ B phosphorylation was observed for ACE, MEOH, and ETOH fractions, an apparent saturation effect was observed at higher concentrations for MEOH and ETOH fractions.

**COX-2.** Expression of COX-2 was measured in microglial cells, as it is responsible for the formation of inflammatory mediators called prostanoids. Pretreatment of microglia with the individual açai pulp fractions significantly ( $p \leq 0.001$ ) attenuated LPS-induced increases in COX-2 expression (Figure 7). The dose by pretreatment interactions were significant for all of the fractions except for ETOH. However, the ETOH fraction, which contains the most polyphenolics per unit weight of the pulp, as well as a higher concentration of anthocyanins, was highly significant (\*\*,  $p < 0.001$ ) in inhibiting COX-2 even at 10  $\mu$ g/mL concentration. The ETAC fraction, which is low in most of the major polyphenolics, was effective only at concentrations  $\geq 250$   $\mu$ g/mL, whereas ACE and MEOH were significantly effective at  $\geq 125$   $\mu$ g/mL.

## DISCUSSION

An age-associated increase in neurodegenerative disorders is primarily attributed to excessive neuroinflammation as a result of neurotoxicity induced by reactive oxygen species, trauma, hypoxia/ischemia, toxic agents, and systemic infections by viruses and bacteria.<sup>32–34</sup> Microglial cells, which are derived from myeloid cells and are an important type of resident





**Figure 7.** Reduction in COX-2 expression when BV-2 cells were pretreated (4 h) with various açai pulp fractions followed by LPS (100 ng/mL) stimulation. The values are expressed as the mean  $\pm$  SEM for the immunoreactive bands of the Western blots. Each açai fraction pretreatment was compared against LPS alone with level of significance at (\*)  $p < 0.05$  and (\*\*)  $p < 0.001$  by Fisher's LSD. The blots for the initial fractions (50  $\mu$ g/mL ETAC, ACE, and MEOH and 10  $\mu$ g/mL ETOH) are not shown.

immune cell in the brain, protect neurons from oxidative stress and inflammation.<sup>15</sup> However, under a highly activated state caused by stressors such as LPS, these microglial cells produce inflammatory molecules such as cytokines, superoxide, and nitric oxide, ultimately leading to a cascade of pro-inflammatory proteins, in turn leading to the death of neurons.<sup>14,35</sup>

Bioavailability of natural polyphenols is generally considered to be low in the brain due to the presence of the blood–brain barrier; however, previous reports indicate the presence of anthocyanins, flavonoids such as catechins and quercetin, stilbenoids such as resveratrol, and phenolic acids in brain tissues of animals.<sup>35,36</sup> The results from the current study suggest that pretreatment of BV-2 microglial cells with the individual açai pulp fractions was protective against LPS-induced NO release, iNOS production, COX-2 expression, NF- $\kappa$ B phosphorylation, TNF $\alpha$  release, and p38-MAPK activation. The study is mainly focused on the main effects of each of the açai pulp fractions based on their phytochemical content. The reduction of oxidative stress and inflammation is comparable to what we have observed for walnut, blueberry, strawberry, and other berries, such as cranberry and raspberry, in both in vitro and in vivo studies.<sup>6–12</sup> The stress reduction effects can be attributed to an array of phytochemicals abundant in the açai

pulp. Apart from the known major anthocyanins, flavonoids, phenolic acids, and stilbenoid provided in Table 1, açai pulp is also rich in proanthocyanidins, tannins, and phyosterols ( $\beta$ -sitosterol, stigmasterol,  $\Delta$ 5-avenasterol, campesterol), along with 9–12% lipids including oleic acid, palmitic acid, linoleic acid, palmitoleic acid, stearic acids, and other fatty acids in trace amounts.<sup>20</sup> The MEOH and ETOH açai fractions appear to be the most effective against the LPS-induced increases in inflammatory and free radical mediators, as these fractions contain the highest concentrations of most of the anthocyanins and ferulic acid. Also, the MEOH and ETOH fractions contain the most water-soluble components that will be readily amenable to in vitro assays.

Pro-inflammatory enzymes such as COX-2 and iNOS produce mediators such as prostaglandin E<sub>2</sub> (PGE<sub>2</sub>) and nitric oxide, respectively.<sup>37</sup> iNOS-derived NO, COX-2-derived PGE<sub>2</sub>, and pro-inflammatory cytokines such as IL-1 $\beta$ , IL-6, and TNF $\alpha$  have been identified as key players in inflammatory processes of the neuronal system<sup>38</sup> and are known to activate microglia and astrocytes. Because our anthocyanin-rich fractions (MEOH and ETOH) also contain catechin, resveratrol, and other phenolic compounds, a possible synergistic as well as cell-specific activity



of açai fractions may be contributing to the attenuation of TNF $\alpha$ , parallel to previous results.<sup>39</sup>

LPS-derived inflammation significantly increases NO production, which in turn causes tissue toxicity after reaction with superoxide anions through the production of peroxynitrite anions and peroxynitrous acid.<sup>38</sup> NO is synthesized from L-arginine by NOS either by a constitutive (cNOS) or an inducible (iNOS) form, and iNOS primarily causes the inflammatory effects of NO.<sup>38</sup> The relative effect on the reduction in NO production observed after pretreatment with different açai fractions may be attributed to the relative content of phenolic hydroxycinnamic acids such as ferulic acid. In animal experiments, ferulic acid is known to inhibit the formation of N-nitroso compounds, leading to reduced levels of serum N-nitrosamines, which are highly carcinogenic in nature.<sup>30,31</sup> In vitro evidence also suggests that ferulic acid can react very rapidly and quantitatively with equimolar quantities of nitrite.<sup>31</sup> Anthocyanins have also been reported to inhibit NO production.<sup>34</sup> Similar to our previous findings using blueberry and strawberry extracts<sup>3–12,16</sup> which also contain high amounts of anthocyanins, açai fruits with their relatively much higher concentrations of similar compounds<sup>19</sup> could possibly boost brain health at much lower quantities.

NF- $\kappa$ B is an important transcription factor, and p38-MAPK pathways are involved in regulating inflammatory gene expression in neurons.<sup>1</sup> p38-MAPK is critical in long-term memory formation through the activation of cyclic-AMP response element-binding (CREB) protein, as well as in synaptic plasticity.<sup>40</sup> However, previous studies indicate that MAPKs are critical for the LPS-induced expression of iNOS and extracellular release of NO in microglial cells.<sup>33,34,41</sup> Earlier studies also suggest that the inhibition of the LPS-derived increase in pro-inflammatory proteins such as iNOS, COX-2, PGE<sub>2</sub>, and IL-1 $\beta$  is associated with the negative regulation of p38 MAPK.<sup>38,42,43</sup> COX-2 is a key enzyme for the biosynthesis of PGE<sub>2</sub>, which is transcriptionally regulated by NF- $\kappa$ B. Similarly, iNOS activity is also known to be controlled transcriptionally by NF- $\kappa$ B.<sup>43</sup> It has been reported that LPS-induced activation of p38-MAPK can modulate the promoter function of NF- $\kappa$ B, through increased phosphorylation (pNF- $\kappa$ B).<sup>42,44</sup> All of the inhibitory effects were correlated with the relative content of anthocyanins in each of the açai fractions. Therefore, it can be inferred from the current results that anthocyanin-rich açai fractions negatively modulate p38-MAPK signaling, which in turn down-regulates the phosphorylation of NF- $\kappa$ B, transcriptionally suppressing the production of iNOS and COX-2.

Taken together, the results indicate that LPS-mediated up-regulation of p38-MAPK and NF- $\kappa$ B was attenuated by açai pulp fractions, which in turn down-regulated iNOS and COX-2 in BV-2 microglial cells. TNF $\alpha$  can activate NF- $\kappa$ B post-translationally and regulates many pro-inflammatory genes, including cytokines.<sup>45</sup> Therefore, attenuation of TNF $\alpha$  by açai fractions can also be attributed to the NF- $\kappa$ B-derived transcriptional changes observed in other inflammatory mediators. In conclusion, effective reduction in oxidative damage and inflammation in brain cells is likely to be an effective intervention to reduce the incidence of age-related neurodegenerative disorders. These results, similar to those of our previous studies with blueberries, suggest that consumption of açai pulp may contribute to “health span” in aging, as it is able to combat some of the inflammatory and oxidative mediators of aging at the cellular level. To determine if açai fruit

is able to reverse or allay age-related motor or cognitive deficits, experiments are being planned to feed aged rats açai-supplemented diets.

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