

University of Massachusetts Amherst
ScholarWorks@UMass Amherst

Masters Theses 1911 - February 2014

2012

Accessing The Bioavailability Of Phytochemicals In Caco-2 Cell Model And Developing A Sensitive Method For The Detection And Quantification Of These Compounds

Hana Shatara Sobers

University of Massachusetts Amherst

Follow this and additional works at: <https://scholarworks.umass.edu/theses>

 Part of the [Food Science Commons](#)

Sobers, Hana Shatara, "Accessing The Bioavailability Of Phytochemicals In Caco-2 Cell Model And Developing A Sensitive Method For The Detection And Quantification Of These Compounds" (2012). *Masters Theses 1911 - February 2014*. 950.

Retrieved from <https://scholarworks.umass.edu/theses/950>

This thesis is brought to you for free and open access by ScholarWorks@UMass Amherst. It has been accepted for inclusion in Masters Theses 1911 - February 2014 by an authorized administrator of ScholarWorks@UMass Amherst. For more information, please contact scholarworks@library.umass.edu.

**ACCESSING THE BIOAVAILABILITY OF PHYTOCHEMICALS IN CACO-2
CELL MODEL AND DEVELOPING A SENSITIVE METHOD FOR THE
DETECTION AND QUANTIFICATION OF THESE COMPOUNDS**

A Thesis Presented

by

HANÁ SHATARA SOBERS

Submitted to the Graduate School of the
University of Massachusetts Amherst in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF SCIENCE

September 2012

Food Science

© Copyright by Haná Shatara Sobers 2012

All Rights Reserved

**ACCESSING THE BIOAVAILABILITY OF PHYTOCHEMICALS IN CACO-2
CELL MODEL AND DEVELOPING A SENSITIVE METHOD FOR THE
DETECTION AND QUANTIFICATION OF THESE COMPOUNDS**

A Thesis Presented

by

HANÁ SHATARA SOBERS

Approved as to style and content by:

H. Xiao, Chair

D.J. McClements, Member

E.A. Decker, Member

E.A. Decker, Department Head
Department of Food Science

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to thank my advisor, Dr. Hang Xiao, for his support and guidance. I am especially thankful to him for being so understanding and having faith in me over the last couple years. I would also like to thank my committee members, Dr. Eric Decker and Dr. David Julian McClements, for being on my Committee and for their valuable feedback. Thanks to the faculty and staff of the Department of Food Science for helping me with all my needs as a student. A special thank you to Dr. Ronald Labbe and Fran Kostek for all their assistance they provided me. To my lab mates, I would like to thank all of them for their support and making the long nights and weekends in the lab enjoyable and for not turning on the lights when I was doing my experiments.

It's impossible to express my gratitude in words to my beloved family members – my sister, my three little brothers, my parents (Yuma & Baba), my other parents (Mummy & Da) and my two little baby boys (who were born during the making of this thesis) – for all their love, understanding and encouragement. Last but not least, to my loving husband, THANK YOU!

ABSTRACT

ACCESSING THE BIOAVAILABILITY OF PHYTOCHEMICALS IN CACO-2 CELL MODEL AND DEVELOPING A SENSITIVE METHOD FOR THE DETECTION AND QUANTIFICATION OF THESE COMPOUNDS

SEPTEMBER 2012

HANÁ SHATARA SOBERS, B.S., PURDUE UNIVERSITY
M.S., UNIVERSITY OF MASSACHUSETTS AMHERST

Directed by: Professor H. Xiao

Numerous studies have found certain unmethylated phytochemicals to possess anti-carcinogenic activity; however, they have been associated with poor oral bioavailability which is a major limiting factor in their usage in chemopreventative treatment. The purpose of this study was to investigate if methylation of a compound would affect bioavailability, in terms of transport and permeability, in a Caco-2 cell model as well as the effect of cell viability and cellular uptake in human colon cancer cell lines. Furthermore, a new analytic method using reversed-phase high performance liquid chromatography coupled with electrochemical detector (HPLC-EC) for the detection and quantification of resveratrol and pterostilbene was developed.

This new method was simple, rapid, and more sensitive compared to other detection methods used to analyze resveratrol and pterostilbene. Linear range, limit of detection (LOD), precision and recovery were used to validate this new analytical

method. There was a significant increase in intracellular uptake and stronger growth inhibitory of pterostilbene in human cancer cells lines in comparison to resveratrol. Resveratrol exhibited a higher and more rapid rate of transport than pterostilbene across the Caco-2 monolayer regardless of the concentration tested and direction. Pterostilbene exhibited little difference in the rate of transport from either direction. The HCT-116 colon cells had intracellular uptake of each of the polymethoxyflavones (PMFs) tested. Transport was observed by all the PMFs and each had different rates of transport. Overall, location and amount of methyl groups had an effect on bioavailability of a compound and these compounds show promise as chemopreventative agents.

Keywords: Resveratrol; Pterostilbene; Polymethoxyflavones (PMF); Caco-2 cells; Transport; Permeability; Bioavailability; Electrochemical (EC) detection

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	iv
ABSTRACT.....	v
LIST OF TABLES	xi
LIST OF FIGURES	xii
CHAPTER	
1. INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Cancer	1
1.1.1 Statistics	1
1.1.2 Definition	1
1.1.3 Chemoprevention.....	3
1.2 Phytochemicals	3
1.2.1 Methylated vs. Unmethylated	3
1.2.2 Polymethoxyflavones.....	4
1.2.3 Stilbenes.....	8
1.2.3.1 Resveratrol	9
1.2.3.2 Pterostilbene.....	11
1.3 Bioavailability.....	12
1.3.1 Overview	12
1.3.2 Bioavailability of Compounds of Interest.....	14
1.3.4 Caco-2 cell Monolayer Model	16

2.	RAPID METHOD FOR THE DETERMINATION OF RESVERATROL AND PTEROSTILBENE BY REVERSED-PHASE HIGH PERFORMANCE LIQUID CHROMATOGRAPHY WITH ELECTROCHEMICAL DETECTION	19
2.1	Abstract.....	19
2.2	Introduction.....	20
2.3	Materials and Methods.....	22
2.3.1	Chemicals and reagents.....	22
2.3.2	Instrumentation	22
2.3.3	Chromatographic Conditions	22
2.3.4	Preparation of standards.....	23
2.3.5	Analyses of Juice Samples.....	23
2.4	Results and Discussion	24
2.4.1	Optimization of Chromatographic Conditions.....	24
2.4.2	Voltametric Behavior of Resveratrol and Pterostilbene	25
2.4.3	Linearity and Range.....	28
2.4.4	LOD and LOQ	29
2.4.5	Accuracy/Recovery Studies	29
2.4.6	Precision.....	30
2.4.7	Analysis of resveratrol and pterostilbene in commercial juice products.....	31
2.5	Conclusion	32
3.	COMPARISON OF THE CELLULAR UPTAKE AND INHIBITORY EFFECTS OF RESVERATROL AND ITS METHYLATED ANALOGUE PTEROSTILBENE ON HUMAN COLON CANCER CELLS	34

3.1	Abstract.....	34
3.2	Introduction.....	35
3.3	Materials and Methods.....	36
3.3.1	Materials	36
3.3.2	Cell culture treatment.....	37
3.3.3	Cell Viability Assay.....	37
3.3.4	Cellular Uptake Assay	38
3.3.4.1	Cytosol Faction	38
3.3.4.2	Membrane Fraction.....	39
3.3.5	HPLC analysis	39
3.3.6	Statistical Analysis.....	40
3.4	Results & Discussion	41
3.4.1	Growth inhibition on Caco-2	41
3.4.2	Cellular Uptake of 3 Colon Cancer Cell Lines	42
3.5	Conclusion	48
4.	COMPARISON OF PERMEABILITY AND TRANSPORT OF RESVERATROL AND ITS METHYLATED ANALOGUE PTEROSTILBENE IN HUMAN INTESTINAL CACO-2 CELLS.....	50
4.1	Abstract.....	50
4.2	Introduction.....	51
4.3	Materials and Methods.....	52
4.3.1	Materials	52
4.3.2	Cell Culture - Caco-2.....	53
4.3.3	Transport Experiments.....	53
4.3.4	HPLC analysis	54

4.3.5 Data Analysis	55
4.4 Results and Discussion	56
4.4.1 Overall.....	56
4.4.2 Resveratrol	62
4.4.3 Pterostilbene.....	63
4.5 Conclusion	63
5. COMPARISON OF THE CELLULAR UPTAKE, PERMEABILITY AND TRANSPORT OF POLYMETHOXYFLAVONES (PMFS)	66
5.1 Abstract.....	66
5.2 Introduction.....	67
5.3 Materials and Methods.....	68
5.3.1 Materials and Reagents	68
5.3.2 Cell Culture Treatment	69
5.3.4 Cellular Uptake Assay	69
5.3.5 Transport Experiments.....	70
5.3.6 Sample Analysis.....	70
5.3.7 Data Analysis.....	71
5.4 Results & Discussion	72
5.4.1 Cellular Uptake of PMFs in HCT-116 cancer cells	72
5.4.2 Transport of PMFs by Caco-2 cells	75
5.5 Conclusion	77
6. FUTURE RESEACH.....	80
BIBLIOGRAPHY	82

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
Table 1.1 PMFs used in the different experiments	7
Table 2.1 Voltametric behavior of resveratrol and pterostilbene.	28
Table 2.2 Linearity, LOD, and LOQ for resveratrol and pterostilbene.	28
Table 2.3 Accuracy/Recovery data of resveratrol and pterostilbene standards.	30
Table 2.4 Precision data of resveratrol and pterostilbene standards.	31
Table 2.5 Amount of resveratrol and pterostilbene in different juice products.	32
Table 4.1 Apparent permeability coefficients of different concentrations of resveratrol and pterostilbene through Caco-2 monolayers	62
Table 5.1 Apparent permeability coefficients of the PMFs through Caco-2cell monolayers.....	77

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
1.1 Cancer arises from a loss of normal growth control.....	2
1.2 Chemical structure of (a) resveratrol and (b) pterostilbene.	9
1.3 Overview of Bioavailability and ADME.	13
1.4 Determinants of oral bioavailability and a decision-tree to assess their role.....	14
1.5 Diagram of the Caco-2 cell monolayer cultivated on a permeable filter support.....	16
1.6 Possible compound transport pathways across the intestinal mucosa, illustrating (1) transcellular and (2) paracellular modes of passive transport, (3) transcytosis, (4) carrier-mediated transport and (5) efflux transport.	17
2.1 Representative chromatograms of resveratrol and pterostilbene at different potentials.	25
2.2 The effect of electrochemical cell potential on the peak area (μC) for (a) resveratrol and (b) pterostilbene.	27
3.1 Growth inhibitory effect of resveratrol and pterostilbene on CaCo-2 human colon adenocarcinoma cells..	42
3.2 Cellular uptake of resveratrol and pterostilbene in the cytosol of (a)Caco-2, (b)HT-29, and (c)HCT-116 human colon cancer cell lines. Colon cancer cells were incubated with $10\mu\text{M}$ of (d) resveratrol or (e) pterostilbene in complete medium for various time periods.....	46
3.3 Cellular uptake ratio of pterostilbene to resveratrol in the cytosol of Caco-2, HT-29, and HCT-116 human colon cell lines. The cells were incubated with $10\mu\text{M}$ resveratrol or pterostilbene in complete medium for (a) 0.5, (b) 1 and (c) 2 hour	47
4.1 The transport from the apical to the basolateral compartment of (a) resveratrol and (b) pterostilbene across the Caco-2 monolayer	58

4.2 The transport from the basolateral to the apical compartment of (a) resveratrol and (b) pterostilbene across the Caco-2 monolayer	59
4.3 Cumulative fraction transport from the apical to the basolateral compartment of (a) resveratrol and (b) pterostilbene across the Caco-2 monolayer.	60
4.4 Cumulative fraction transport from the basolateral to the apical compartment of (a) resveratrol and (b) pterostilbene across the Caco-2 monolayer.....	61
5.1 Percentage of cellular uptake in HCT-116 human colon cancer cells of PMF4, 5 and 7 from the PMF mixture in comparison to uptake of PMF3 from the same mixture	74
5.2 Cumulative fraction transported from the apical to the basolateral compartment for PMF3, PMF4 and PMF7 across the Caco-2 cell monolayer..	76

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Cancer

1.1.1 Statistics

According to the World Health Organization (WHO), cancer accounts for more deaths worldwide than HIV/AIDs, malaria, and tuberculosis combined and will soon surpass heart disease and stroke as the most prevailing cause of death globally (WHO, 2011). In the United States, one in every four deaths is due to cancer exceeded only by heart disease. It is estimated that almost 1.65 million new cases of cancer will be diagnosed this year alone in the United States.

The probability of an American male developing cancer over his lifetime is a one in two while for woman it is a one in three likelihood. In the United States, the most common cancer in men is prostate and for women, it is breast cancer; lung and colorectal cancers are the second and third most common cancers in both men and women (American Cancer Society, 2011). These staggering statistics has sparked a surge in cancer research.

1.1.2 Definition

Cancer arises from the transformation of a normal cell into an abnormal cell that divides without control. In general, this is a multistage process that advances from a pre-cancerous lesion to malignant tumors. Cancer cells can invade and spread to other parts of the body through the blood stream and lymph system. Even though cancer can develop

in nearly any tissue of the body, each type of cancer has its distinctive features yet the fundamental processes that generate cancer are similar in all forms of the disease. A majority of all colon cells are adenocarcinomas, which produce and release mucus and other fluids (Ruoslahti, 1996; Weinberg, 1996). Using natural occurring compounds has materialized as a plausible approach for cancer management and prevention (Francy-Guilford and Pezzuto, 2008; Khan et al., 2008; Surh, 2003; Syed et al., 2007).

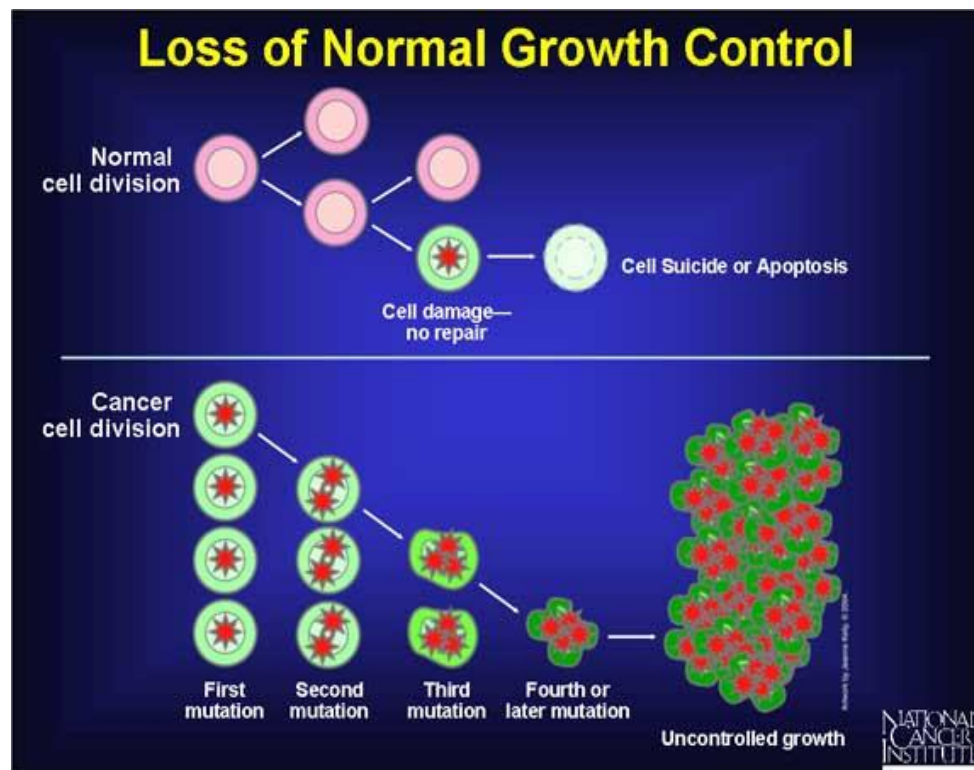


Figure 1.1 Cancer arises from a loss of normal growth control (National Cancer Institute, 2012)

1.1.3 Chemoprevention

Chemoprevention can be defined as managing cancer by which the disease can be prevented, hindered or reversed via administration of one or more compounds of natural and/or synthetic origin (Siddiqui et al., 2008; Sporn and Suh, 2002; Surh, 2003).

Numerous epidemiological studies have linked fruit and vegetable consumption with a reduced risk of cancer (Aggarwal and Shishodia, 2006; Center et al., 2009; Gusman et al., 2001; McCullough et al, 2011). Multiple phytochemicals have been identified as potential cancer fighting agents and subsequently, resulted in an explosion in the supplement market selling these compounds to prevent cancer.

There are different ways to approach the use of phytochemicals as chemopreventive agents. One method would be to incorporate foods rich with that compound into ones diet. A whole food approach exist all ready for other disease and ailments such as the use of soy base foods to reduce osteoporosis and cardiovascular disease (Karp et al., 2007; Scheiber et al., 2001). Another approach would be to put the phytochemical in a tablet or a power. Overall chemoprevention can be an easier and cheap strategy to manage cancer in comparison to the more traditional methods (Eg. Chemotherapy, Organ Removal).

1.2 Phytochemicals

1.2.1 Methylated vs. Unmethylated

A phytochemical can be defined as any chemical that is produced naturally by a plant. Many phytochemicals, in particular flavonoids and stilbenes, are plant metabolites

deriving from the phenylpropanoid metabolism and shikimate pathways with a small number of exceptions (Stafford, 1990; Watts et al., 2006). Unmethylated phytochemicals have been studied most extensively (Pan and Ho, 2008; Walle et al., 2007).

Even though unmethylated phytochemicals have the potential to be great candidates as chemoprevention agents, they have been associated with poor oral bioavailability, which is a major limiting factor in their potency and usage as an additive in food products. These compounds have low bioavailability because of the free hydroxyl groups which gives rise to rapid intestinal/hepatic conjugation and/or sulfation and excretion (Wen and Walle, 2006). The methylation of the free hydroxyl group(s) on compound leads to a reduction in susceptible to glucuronic acid or sulfate conjugation, resulting in improved metabolic stability (Walle, 2007). There is also an improved transport through biological membranes (like intestinal absorption) and an increase in oral bioavailability because of methylation (Walle, 2007; Wilson et al., 2008). Walle and others (2007) have observed an increase in effectiveness by methylated compounds to inhibit cancer cell growth. Despite being present in nature and their great potential in cancer prevention, they lack the anti-oxidant effects that are usually linked with free hydroxyl groups.

1.2.2 Polymethoxyflavones

Polymethoxyflavones (PMFs) refer to a distinctive class of flavonoids containing two or more methoxy groups on benzo- γ -pyrone skeleton (C₆-C₃-C₆) with a carbonyl group at the C₄ position. In nature, PMFs are present exclusively in the citrus genus, particularly in the peel of mandarin oranges (*Citrus reticulata*) and sweet oranges (*Citrus sinensis*). Cultivation of citrus is thought to have begun around 4,000 years ago

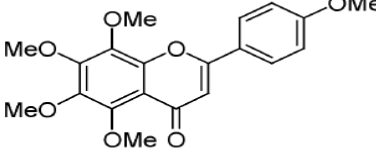
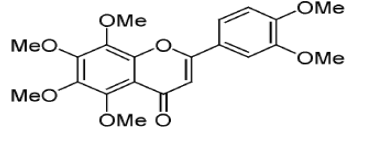
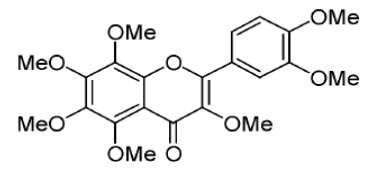
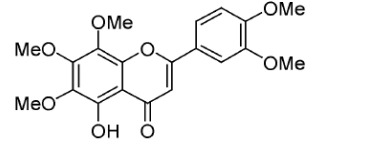
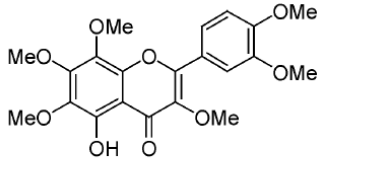
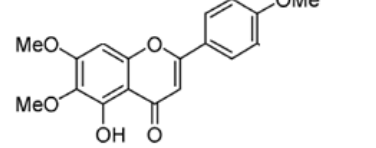
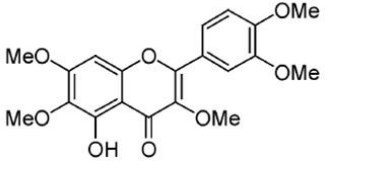
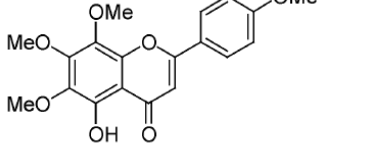
in Southeast Asia and moved gradually west to Northern Africa, the Mediterranean, and then to southern Europe by the Middle Ages (Bruening et al., 2010). In traditional Chinese medicine, they have used citrus peel to treat and alleviate a wide range of ailments like respiratory infections, indigestion and ringworm infections (Ou, 1999). More than 20 PMFs have been isolated and identified from different tissues of citrus plants (Li et al., 2006). (See Table 1.1 for a complete list of all the PMFs that were utilized in this thesis).

The projected forecast for 2012, as of July 2012, on the global production of oranges is 51.1 million metric tons (MMT) and 22.6 MMT for tangerine/mandarin. In the United States, the predicted quantity is 8.1 MMT for productions of oranges and slightly more than 0.5 MMT for tangerine/mandarin. Most of the tangerine/mandarin produced are expected to be entirely consumed leaving only about 6% for processing. Of the oranges grown worldwide, an estimated 28.5 MMT will be consumed leaving the remainder amount for processing, which is expected to be approximately 22.2 MMT. An anticipated 2.2MMT of orange juice will be produced worldwide which will yield a considerable amount of orange peel by-product that could potentially be used for medical purposes (USDA: Foreign Agricultural Service, 2012).

PMFs have been shown to exhibit an expansive range of biological activities, including anti-atherogenic (Whitman et al., 2005), anti-inflammatory (Chen et al., 2007; Choi et al., 2007; Manthey et al, 2001; Middleton et al., 2000) and anti-oxidant (Li et al., 2007a). PMFs have recently received a lot of attention because they have been shown to have greater anti-carcinogenic activity than other flavones (Li et al., 2007a; Xiao et al., 2009).

Tangeretin, one of the most copious PMFs in citrus peels, has widely been accepted as having excellent anti-carcinogenic activity (Chen et al., 2007; Morley et al., 2007). Sergeev and his colleagues (2006) demonstrated that both PMF3 and PMF4 induce apoptosis by raising the amount of intracellular Ca^{2+} resulting from the depletion of the Ca^{2+} endoplasmic reticulum and influx of Ca^{2+} from the extracellular space in human breast cancer cell. Pan et al. (2007) observed induced growth inhibition of human cancer cells by PMF4 as well as induction of apoptosis in human promyelocytic leukemia cells through modulation of mitochondrial functions by PMF4. There has however been a lag in the investigation on the bioavailability of PMFs.

Table 1.1 PMFs used in the different experiments

Abbreviation	Structure	Name	Molecular Formula	Molecular Mass (g/mol)
Tan (Tangeretin)		5,6,7,8, 4' – penamethoxyflavone	C ₂₀ H ₂₀ O ₇	372
PMF1 (Nobiletin)		5,6,7,8, 3',4' – hexamethoxyflavone	C ₂₀ H ₁₉ O ₈	402
PMF2		3,5,6,7,8, 3',4' – heptamethoxyflavone	C ₂₂ H ₂₄ O ₉	432
PMF3		5 – hydroxyl – 6,7,8,3',4' – pentamethoxyflavone	C ₂₀ H ₂₀ O ₈	388
PMF4		5 – hydroxyl – 3,6,7,8,3',4' – hexamethoxyflavone	C ₂₁ H ₂₂ O ₉	418
PMF5		5 – hydroxyl – 6,7,4' – trimethoxyflavone	C ₁₅ H ₁₃ O ₆	328
PMF6		5-hydroxyl - 3,6,7,3',4' – pentamethoxyflavone	C ₂₀ H ₁₉ O ₈	388
PMF7		5- hydroxyl-6,7,8,4' – tetramethoxyflavone	C ₁₉ H ₁₆ O ₇	358

1.2.3 Stilbenes

The word stilbene was derived from the Greek word *stilbos*, which means shining (Likhstenshtein, 2010). Stilbenes are small molecular weight compounds (between 200 to 300 g/mol) produced in response to excessive ultraviolet exposure; microbial, fungal or viral attack; or injury (Fauconneau et al., 1997). They are created by means of the phenylpropanoid pathway, using phenylalanine ammonia lyase, cinnamate-4-hydroxylase, stilbene synthase and 4-Coumarate-CoA ligase. The core chemical structure of stilbene compounds is 1,2-diphenylethylene (Watts et al., 2006). They are found in a wide range of plants and fruits, including *Vitis* and *Vaccinium* berries (Rimando et al., 2004.) Stilbenes have been shown to possess a wide range of biological activities such as anti-inflammation (Garodia et al., 2007; Juan et al., 2008; Ndiaye et al., 2011) and anti-carcinogenic (Chillemi et al., 2007; Rimano and Suh, 2008).

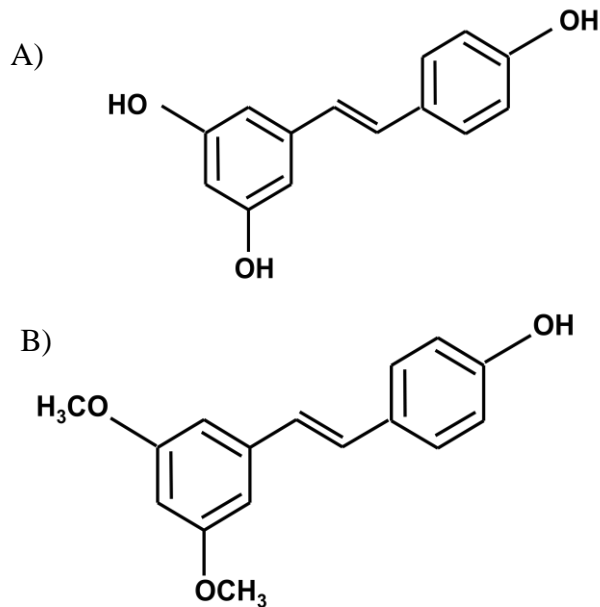


Figure 1.2 Chemical structure of (a) resveratrol and (b) pterostilbene.

1.2.3.1 Resveratrol

Resveratrol (3,4',5-trihydroxy-*trans*-stilbene) (Figure 1.2B) is the most extensively investigated stilbene. They can be found in foods like berries, grapes and peanuts (Rimando et al., 2004). There has been a long held notation that resveratrol from red wine is responsible for “French Paradox”. It was back in the 1819 when an Irish doctor, Samuel Black, first noticed that the French ate a lot of fatty foods yet stayed healthy. This epidemiological phenomenon is that the French population has a drastically lower incidence of cardiovascular disease than other developed countries despite having a diet high in saturated fats. The French drink a lot of red wine, which resveratrol is a major component (Kopp, 1998; Vidavalur et al., 2006). Numerous studies have shown that resveratrol has the ability to block human platelet aggregation and eicosanoid

syntheses, which may lower the chances of one developing cardiovascular disease (Bertelli et al., 1995; Pace-Asciak et al., 1995; Yoshiyuki et al., 1985).

Each year, hundreds of studies are published on the therapeutic activities of resveratrol ranging from an anti-oxidant (Bhat and Pezzuto, 2002; Chanvitayapongs, et al. 1997) to anti-tumoural (Bishayee, 2009; Jang et al. 1997). It has also been shown to be a powerful anti-carcinogenic agent because of its low toxicity and capability of modulating numerous molecular pathways involved in cancer progression (Athar et al., 2009). These pathways play a key role in anti-apoptosis, angiogenesis, cell cycle progression and tumor invasion. In a mouse study executed by Cui et al. (2010), they reported significant reduction in the incidence and multiplicity of tumors when mice were feed resveratrol. They demonstrated that resveratrol can abate colitis; therefore, decrease the potentially for colon cancer associated with colitis. In ovarian cancer cells, resveratrol has been shown to cause apoptois, cell cycle arrest and detachment (Raj et al., 2008). Jang et al. (1997) demonstrated the capability of resveratrol to block the development of skin cancer at initiation, promotion and progression stages. Resveratrol has also been showed to suppressing cancer progression in other cancers like breast, gastrointestinal tract, lung and prostate (Bishayee, 2009).

Despite all the accolades resveratrol has received as a cancer chemopreventive agent, it has a low systemic bioavailability due to it metabolizing rapidly once it is ingested (Asensi et al., 2002; Delmas et al., 2011; Walle, 2011), which may lessen its efficacy in humans. Therefore, there has been great effort to consider resveratrol derivatives, which may have better bioavailability profiles.

1.2.3.2 Pterostilbene

Pterostilbene (*trans*-3,5-dimethoxy-4'-hydroxystilbene) (Figure 1.2A), a naturally dimethylether analogue of resveratrol, has recently gained a upsurge of interest because it has been shown to have similar biological activities as resveratrol (Rimando et al., 2002). It has been proven to be as effective as resveratrol in successfully inhibiting the carcinogenesis in mice epidermis. They were both also able to decreased the expression and activity of COX-2 and inducible nitric oxide synthase (iNOS) (Cichocki, 2008).

In an *in vitro* study done on human gastric carcinoma cells, pterostilbene caused cell cycle arrest and induced apoptosis (Pan et al., 2007). Pterostilbene was capable of suppressing aberrant crypt foci (ACF) formation, which occurs prior to colorectal polyps. ACF is one of the earliest transformation observed in the colon that might lead to cancer (Suh et al., 2007). Other studies have shown pterostilbene has the potential to prevention and treatment of other cancers like breast, liver and lung (Alosi et al., 2010; Pan et al., 2009; Schneider et al., 2010). In a side-by-side comparison of the effects of resveratrol and pterostilbene on human colon cancer, pterostilbene had stronger apoptosis-inducing effect and was more potent in inhibiting colony formation than resveratrol (Nutakul et al., 2011). Methylation may play a part in why there are these stark differences. From all the research thus far, pterostilbene is an appealing candidate for cancer prevention and treatment.

1.3 Bioavailability

1.3.1 Overview

The bioavailability is an overall result of absorption, distribution, metabolism and excretion (ADME).

- Absorption describes a compound's capability to pass into the systemic circulation following oral administration.
- Distribution explains how well a compound reaches the target tissue.
- Metabolism is the rate that a nutrient/compound is eliminated from the systemic circulation, following its initial absorption.
- Excretion is the rate that a compound is excreted from the systemic circulation and ultimately the body.

Figure 1.3 provides a graphic depiction of the bioavailability/ADME process. Thus, bioavailability is determined by the combination of the rates of all these factors. The bioavailability of a compound can therefore be defined as the amount of nutrient/compound that reaches the blood circulation system and ultimately the target tissue. Therefore, only the unbound fraction of a compound will reach the target tissue to be able to interact with the molecular target (Balani et al., 2005; Van de Waterbeemd et al., 2003).

Since oral administration is a widely employed method for the delivery of drugs and foods, the effectiveness of a compound is dependent on their intestinal absorption to get into systemic circulation to subsequently reach the intended tissue. The intestinal

epithelium is a key determinant for the oral absorption of ingested pharmaceuticals, food ingredients and toxins (Tong and Wen, 2008).

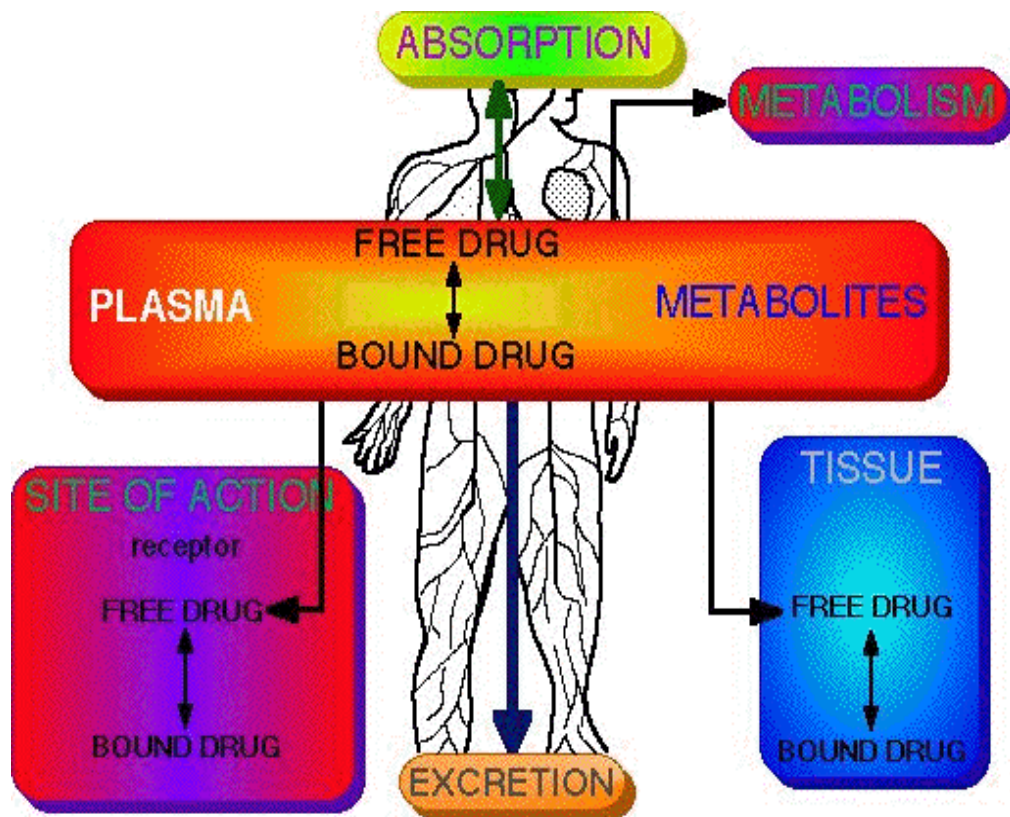


Figure 1.3 Overview of Bioavailability and ADME (Bourne, 2010).

Usually the first sets of experiments executed to understand the bioavailability of a compound are absorption studies (Figure 1.4.). Permeability measures the ability and velocity of a compound to cross through the intestinal membranes into the blood circulation system. Permeability denotes the overall effects of influx and efflux in the body. Intestine like cells such as Caco-2 cells can be used to predict permeability.

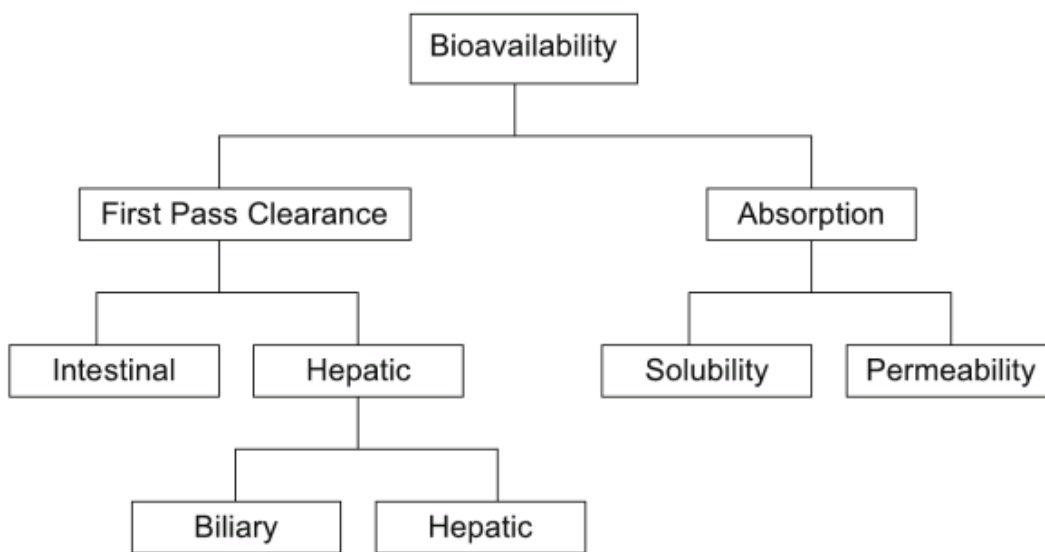


Figure 1.4 Determinants of oral bioavailability and a decision-tree to assess their role (Borchardt, 2006).

1.3.2 Bioavailability of Compounds of Interest

There have been a scarce number of investigations on the bioavailability of PMFs. There have been more studies done on the solubility of PMFs which is a key factor when accessing the absorption and bioavailability of PMFs but it alone doesn't provide a complete picture on overall bioavailability. When Murakami and his colleagues (2001) conducted an *in vitro* study using Caco-2 cell monolayer to evaluate the absorption of PMF1 and luteolin (unmethlyated PMF), more PMF1 was transported to the basolateral compartment than luteolin after 4 hours. Also, PMF 1 accumulated in the Caco-2 cell monolayer while luteolin did not. They concluding PMF 1 had higher permeability.

An *in vivo* study was also carried out on the same two compounds by Murakami et al. (2002). Each compound was given independently by gastirc intubation to male rats SD and after 1, 4 and 24 hours of administration, the concentrations were calculated.

There results revealed that during the 1 to 4 hour periods, PMF1 was detected in stomach, small and large intestines, kidney and liver; in contrast, luteolin was predominantly detected in the gastrointestinal tract of the rats during 1 to 4 hour period following a single dose administration. Also, PMF 1 tended to be localized in the mucous membrane and muscularis at 1 and 4 hours time marks. Overall, PMF 1 had a wider distribution and accumulation in tissues.

Numerous *in vitro* and *in vivo* studies on absorption, transport and bioavailability have been done on resveratrol but not significant amounts have been conducted on pterostilbene. Kapetanvico et al. (2011) demonstrated that when pterostilbene and resveratrol were administered orally to rats, pterostilbene and resveratrol were approximately 80% and 20% bioavailable, respectively. Pterostilbene had greater bioavailability and total plasma levels of both parent compound and metabolites than resveratrol. These differences are a hint that the *in vivo* biological activity of pterostilbene might be greater than that of resveratrol. Also, suggesting that methylation may affect bioavailability.

Walle and his colleagues at Medical University of South Carolina have conducted a number of studies comparing bioavailability of unmethylated and methylated flavonoids. In one study, they showed a 5 to 8 fold higher rate of intestinal permeability by methylated flavonoids compared to their corresponding unmethylated counterpart (Walle et al., 2006). In another study, again they demonstrated methylated compound had better absorption and high oral bioavailability as well as tissue accumulation *in vivo* in the rats (Walle et al., 2006).

1.3.4 Caco-2 cell Monolayer Model

Caco-2 cell monolayers have been extensively used for years as a tool to test permeability, assess the oral absorption potential and study the absorption mechanism of compounds (Gan et al., 1993). Caco-2 cells originate from human colonic adenocarcinoma cell lines. Typically after 21 days of growth, the Caco-2 cells differentiate into a monolayer with micro villus structures and many other biochemical and functional characteristics of small intestinal villus epithelium. The cells form tight junctions, express many brush border enzymes, some CYP isozymes, and phase II enzymes (such as glucuronidase, glutathione-S-transferases and sulfotransferase) (Hubatsch et al., 2007; Lind et al., 2007).

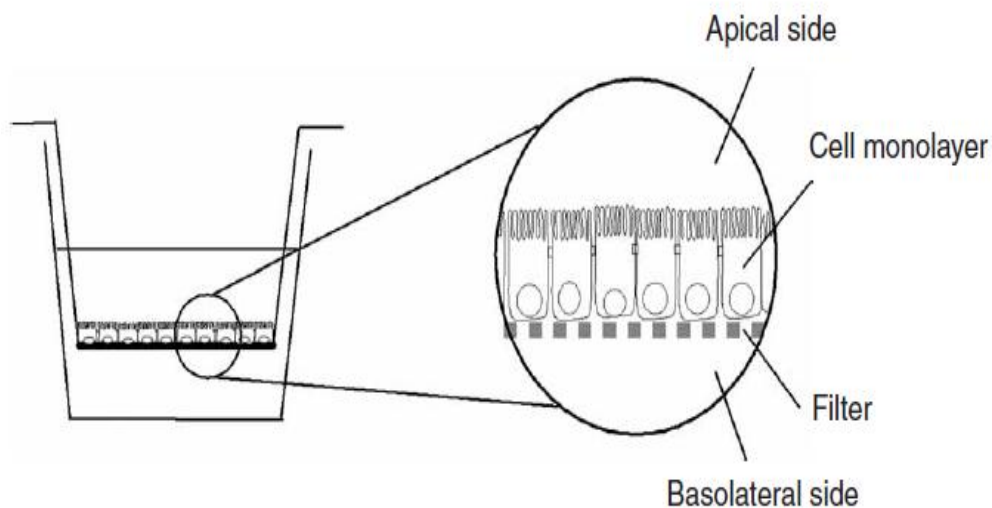


Figure 1.5 Diagram of the Caco-2 cell monolayer cultivated on a permeable filter support. Test compound is place on the apical or basolateral compartments. (Hubatch et al., 2007).

In the transport/permeability experiments, Caco-2 cells are cultivated on permeable filters in which they represent the intestinal environment in that lumen is separated from the bloodstream by the intestinal epithelial monolayer (Figure 1.5). Trans-epithelial passage of molecules from the apical to the basolateral side of the monolayer can be easily measured in different experimental conditions, thus allowing discriminating factors involved in transport mechanisms. To better mimic what is happening in the body, different pH solutions can be used in each compartment. A pH of 6.5 can be used in apical compartment to represent the pH of the upper small intestine under fasted conditions while a pH of 7.4 can be used in the basolateral compartment to replicate the pH of blood in the body (Deferme et al., 2008; Fallingborg, 1989; Lind et al. 2007).

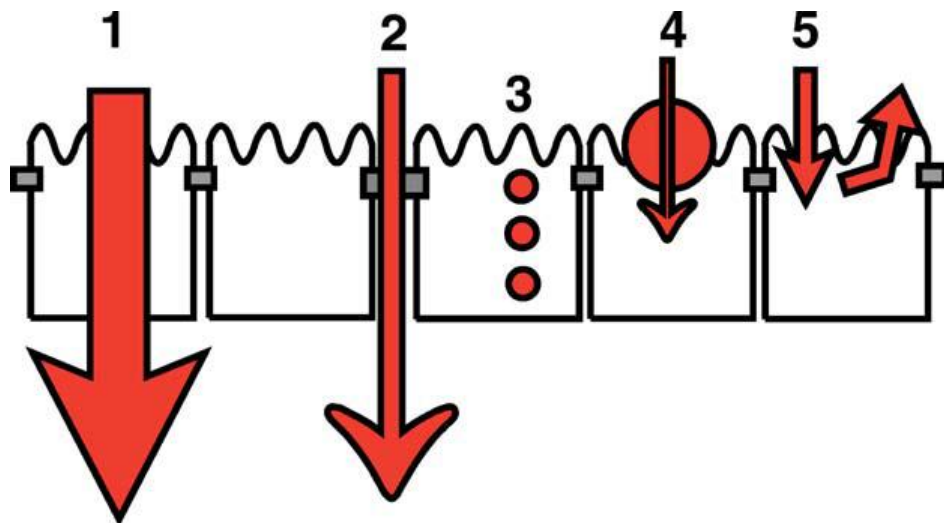


Figure 1.6 Possible compound transport pathways across the intestinal mucosa, illustrating (1) transcellular and (2) paracellular modes of passive transport, (3) transcytosis, (4) carrier-mediated transport, and (5) efflux transport. A combination of these routes often defines the overall transepithelial transport rate of nutrients and drug (Deferme et al., 2008).

Caco-2 cell monolayer experiments provide valuable information regarding (i) intestinal permeability, (ii) transport mechanisms - paracellular, transcellular or active carrier (Figure 1.6), (iii) role of intestinal metabolism and (iv) influence of p-glycoprotein efflux system. There are potentially three datasets that can be obtained from the Caco-2 cell experiments and they are the following:

- The apparent permeability (P_{app}) from apical compartment to the basolateral compartment represents the overall effect of transportation carried out by both absorptive transporters and secretory transporters.
- The apparent permeability (P_{app}) from basolateral compartment to apical compartment measures the effects of secretory transporters only.
- The ratio of P_{app} from basolateral compartment to apical compartment over the P_{app} from apical compartment to the basolateral compartment evaluates efflux. If the ratio is greater than 3, then there is a greater possibility of efflux will occur. This means a compound is being pumped out too quickly from the blood circulation system, which will have an effect on the amount of compound in the systemic circulation and thus affect the absorption and bioavailability of the compound.

Therefore, Caco-2 cell model experiments offer vital insight in the preliminary phase of compound discovery on intestinal permeability, transport, absorption through membranes and overall potential bioavailability (Walle et al., 2003).

CHAPTER 2

RAPID METHOD FOR THE DETERMINATION OF RESVERATROL AND PTEROSTILBENE BY REVERSED-PHASE HIGH PERFORMANCE LIQUID CHROMATOGRAPHY WITH ELECTROCHEMICAL DETECTION

2.1 Abstract

Resveratrol (3,5,4'-trihydroxy-*trans*-stilbene) and pterostilbene (*trans*-3,5-dimethoxy-4'-hydroxystilbene) both belong to the stilbene family. They have an array of pharmacological properties from anti-atherosclerosis to anti-carcinogenic. The aim of this study was to develop a simple, rapid and highly sensitive method using reversed-phase high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) equipped with an electrochemical (EC) detector for the quantification of resveratrol and pterostilbene. The developed analytical method was fully validated in terms of accuracy, linearity and precision. The recovery rates were between 96.59% and 109.01%. Both calibration curves showed excellent linearity with correlation coefficient (r^2) greater than 0.999. The limit of detection (LOD) values was lower than those obtained by other detectors published in the literature. The precision for the retention times and peak areas were both below 9%. The method was applied to quantify resveratrol and pterostilbene from commercial juice products. The proposed method could be useful for prospective nutritional, pharmacological and toxicological research on resveratrol and pterostilbene.

Keywords: Resveratrol; Pterostilbene; Stilbene; High performance liquid chromatography (HPLC); Electrochemical detection (EC)

2.2 Introduction

Stilbenes, a small family of polyphenolic compounds, have received increased attention over the past decade due to their array of pharmacological properties, including anti-atherosclerosis (Ko et al., 1999; Luo et al., 2008, Pace-Asciak et al., 1995) and anti-carcinogenic activity in various biological systems (Namasivayam, 2011; Paul et al., 2010; Rimano and Suh, 2008). Of all the stilbenes, resveratrol (3,5,4'-trihydroxy-*trans*-stilbene) has been most extensively investigated for its potential health benefits to humans such being anti-oxidant (Gescher, 2008; Rimando and Suh, 2008). Despite all the accolades resveratrol has received, it has low systemic bioavailability (Asensi et al., 2002; Delmas et al., 2011; Walle, 2011), which may lower its efficacy in humans; therefore, has lead researchers to investigate resveratrol derivatives.

Pterostilbene (*trans*-3,5-dimethoxy-4'-hydroxystilbene), a dimethylether analogue of resveratrol, has been shown to have anti-carcinogenic (Paul et al., 2010; Tolomeo et al., 2005), anti-diabetic (Amarnath and Pari, 2006; Pari and Satheesh, 2006; Szkudelski and Szkudelska, 2011) and anti-inflammatory activity (Remsberg et al., 2007). In some cases, it possesses stronger inhibitory activity (Billack et al., 2008; Huang et al., 2007; Paul et al, 2010;) and overall better pharmacokinetic characteristics than resveratrol (Lin et al., 2009).

Numerous analytical techniques have been proposed for the separation, identification, and determination of stilbenes. Researchers overall prefer the employment of high performance liquid chromatographs (HPLC) for qualitative and quantitative measurements of resveratrol and pterostilbene (Buiarelli et al., 2006; Gocan, 2009; Kolouchová-Hanzlíková et al., 2004; Rodríguez-Bernaldo de Quiró et al. 2007). When

compared to other systems, HPLC has higher resolution, columns that can be used again without regeneration or repacking and quicker cycle times. Furthermore, the mobile phase of these systems can be varied during the analysis producing a gradient elution. HPLC coupled with UV detector is the most prevalently used for quantification of stilbenes (Dong, 2005; Lin et al., 2009); however, HPLC coupled with mass spectrometry (MS) and fluorescence (FL) detectors are also commonly used (Buiarelli et al., 2006, Remsberg et al., 2007) for detection of stilbens.

Because of its high selectivity and excellent sensitivity, HPLC with electrochemical (EC) detector has become more popular in the determination of stilbenes in complex matrices (Jandera et al., 2005; Benova et al., 2008). EC detector does not exploit a physical property of an analyte, like UV and fluorescence detectors, but induce a chemical change that results from an electrochemical reaction. EC has the ability to detect resveratrol in the low pg range (Gocan, 2009). However, in the literature, there are few validated analytical methods, if any, for the determination of pterostilbene with HPLC-EC using a multichannel array.

In this study, a validated HPLC method with multi-channel EC detection was developed for the quantitative analysis of resveratrol and pterostilbene. The capability of the HPLC system was evaluated with the following factors: peak shape, linearity, detection limits, accuracy, recovery and precision. Potentials of electrodes and mobile phase were also evaluated to see how they can aid in optimizing the analytical conditions.

2.3 Materials and Methods

2.3.1 Chemicals and reagents

All organic solvents utilized, acetonitrile (ACN), methanol (MeOH), tetrahydrofuran (THF), trifluoroacetic acid (TFA) were of HPLC grade and purchased from Fisher Scientific (Fairlawn, NJ, USA). Ammonium Acetate (99%) was purchased from EMD Chemicals Inc. (Gibbstown, NJ, USA). Highly purified *trans*-resveratrol (99%) and pterostilbene(98%) were obtained from Quality Phytochemical LLC (NJ, USA).

2.3.2 Instrumentation

The CoulArray® HPLC system was obtained from ESA (Chelmsford, MA, USA) and equipped with a binary solvent delivery system (model 584), an auto-sampler (model 542), a CoulArray® Multi-Channel EC detector (model 6210 - two cells, each cell contains four channels), and a UV detector. Data collection, processing and instrument control were achieved using the CoulArray 3.06 software.

2.3.3 Chromatographic Conditions

Ascentis RP-Amide reversed-phase HPLC column (15 cm x 4.6 mm id, 3 µm) from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO, USA) was used to analyze compounds. The mobile phase consisted of 50% water, 40% ACN, 10% THF and 50mM ammonium acetate. The pH of the mobile phase was adjusted with TFA to achieve a pH range between 3.5 to 3.8. Mobile phase was filtered through a 0.45µm membrane filter from Millipore (Bedford, MA, USA). Both EC detector cells (each contains four channels) were used

and detection potentials were set at 200, 300, 400, 500, 600, 700, 800 and 900 mV. The temperature of the auto-sampler was set to 4°C. The flow rate was set to 1.0 ml/min.

2.3.4 Preparation of standards

The stock solution of each compound was prepared in DMSO. These solutions were protected from light and stored in the darkness at 4°C when not in use. The concentrations ranges for both compounds were between 0.001 and 10µL and were prepared by a serial of dilution with 50% MeOH just before each experiment. A 10µL volume was injected in the HPLC.

2.3.5 Analyses of Juice Samples

A total of 6 juices (2 Grape Juices, 2 Blueberry Juices, and 2 Mix Fruit Juices) were analyzed. They were purchased from local supermarkets (Amherst, MA, USA). A volume of 400µL of juice and 100 µL MeOH were vortexed together for 1 minute. The juice/MeOH mixture was extracted with equal volume of ethyl acetate for a total of three times. The ethyl acetate collected was pooled together and evaporated to dryness. Samples were reconstituted in 400µL 50% MeOH and analyzed using the HPLC-EC method developed in this study to determine the amount of resveratrol and pterostilbene in each sample.

2.4 Results and Discussion

2.4.1 Optimization of Chromatographic Conditions

The aim of this study was to achieve in a single HPLC run the separation of resveratrol and pterostilbene in a respective short period of time with relatively simple gradient profile. This method was able to successfully attain this goal. A representative chromatogram of resveratrol and pterostilbene at various potentials is illustrated in Figure 2.2.

Mobile phase with water-MeOH-THF and water-ACN-THF using the same gradient profile were evaluated. It was determined that the mobile phase composed of water-ACN-THF attained superior resolution and better retention time than the water-MeOH-THF mobile phase. There were no interfering peaks co-eluted from the mobile phase or with compounds of interest. ACN was also selected as the organic solvent of choice over MeOH due to issues with high pressure associated with MeOH as a solvent. EC detector is a very sensitive detector that can be effected by the pH and ionic strength of the buffer system in the mobile phase (Benova et al., 2008). Therefore, ammonium acetate was added to stabilize the pH value of mobile phase. The retention time of resveratrol and pterostilbene were around 4 and 12.5 minutes, respectively. After evaluation, the optimal conditions were achieved with mobile phase of water-ACN-THF (50:40:10, v/v/v) containing 50mM ammonium acetate and the flow rate of 1.0 ml/min.

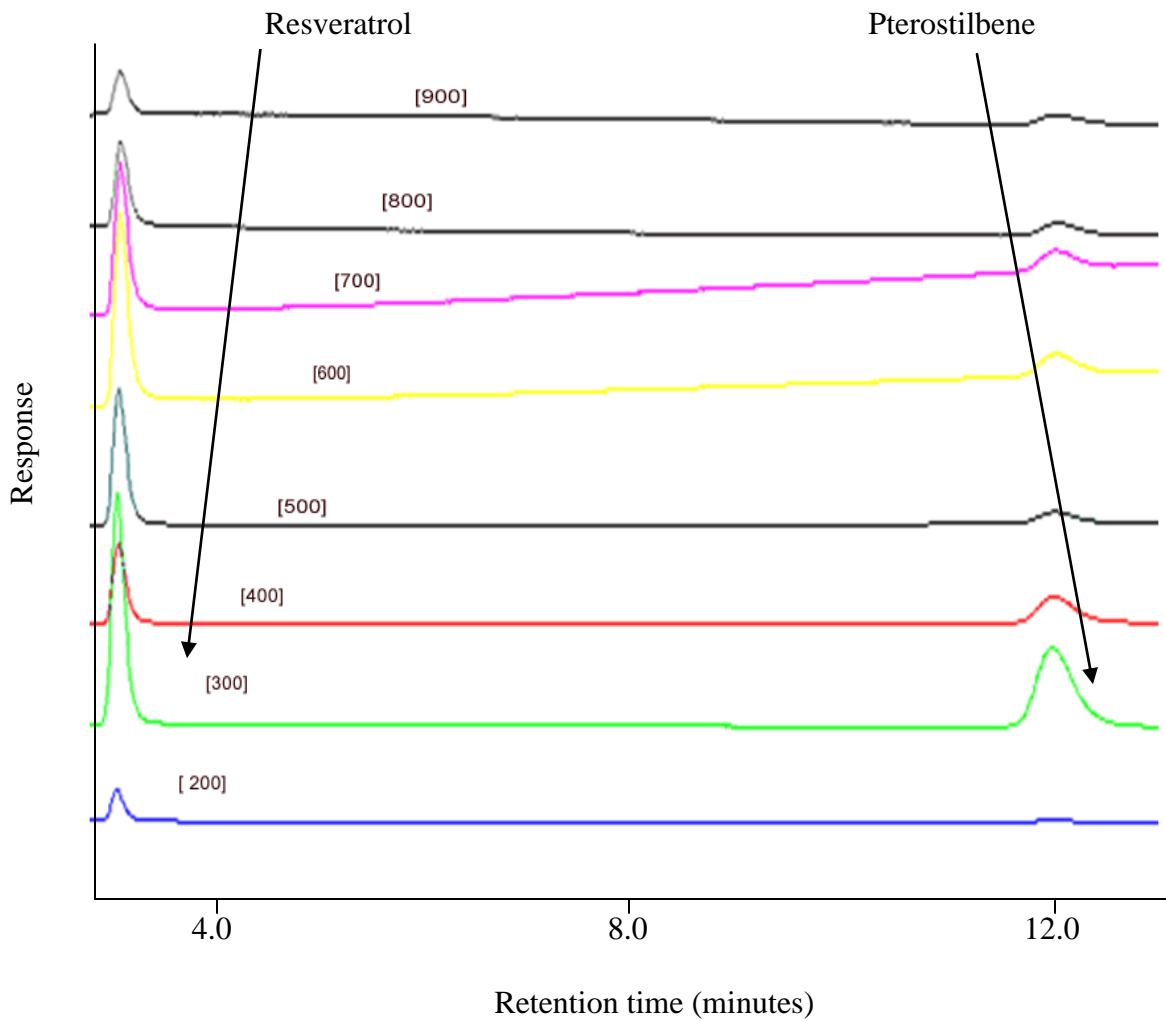


Figure 2.1 Representative chromatograms of resveratrol and pterostilbene at different potentials. Potentials with dominant peaks of compounds are noted on the figure.

2.4.2 Voltametric Behavior of Resveratrol and Pterostilbene

The electrochemical detection offers different and reproducible signal responses to a compound at the oxidation or reduction potential applied across the individual flow-through cells connected in series. The correlation between potential utilized on electrochemical cells and the peak area of the target compound was evaluated. Each

stilbene was subject a series of electric voltages in 100mV increments on EC detector concurrently for HPLC analysis. This allowed for the study to establish optimal potential for resveratrol and pterostilbene based on the observed voltametric behavior of the compounds.

Table 2.1 highlights the ratios of pre/postdominant peak area and electrochemical cell potential of the dominant peak of each compound. The dominant peak area corresponds with the electrochemical cell potential generating the maximum intense signal. The predominant and postdominant peak areas were designated as the signals of the detection cells preceding and succeeding the dominant peak area channel, respectively. As depicted in Figures 2.1 and 2.2, for both resveratrol and pterostilbene, the electric voltage of 300mV generated the largest peak.

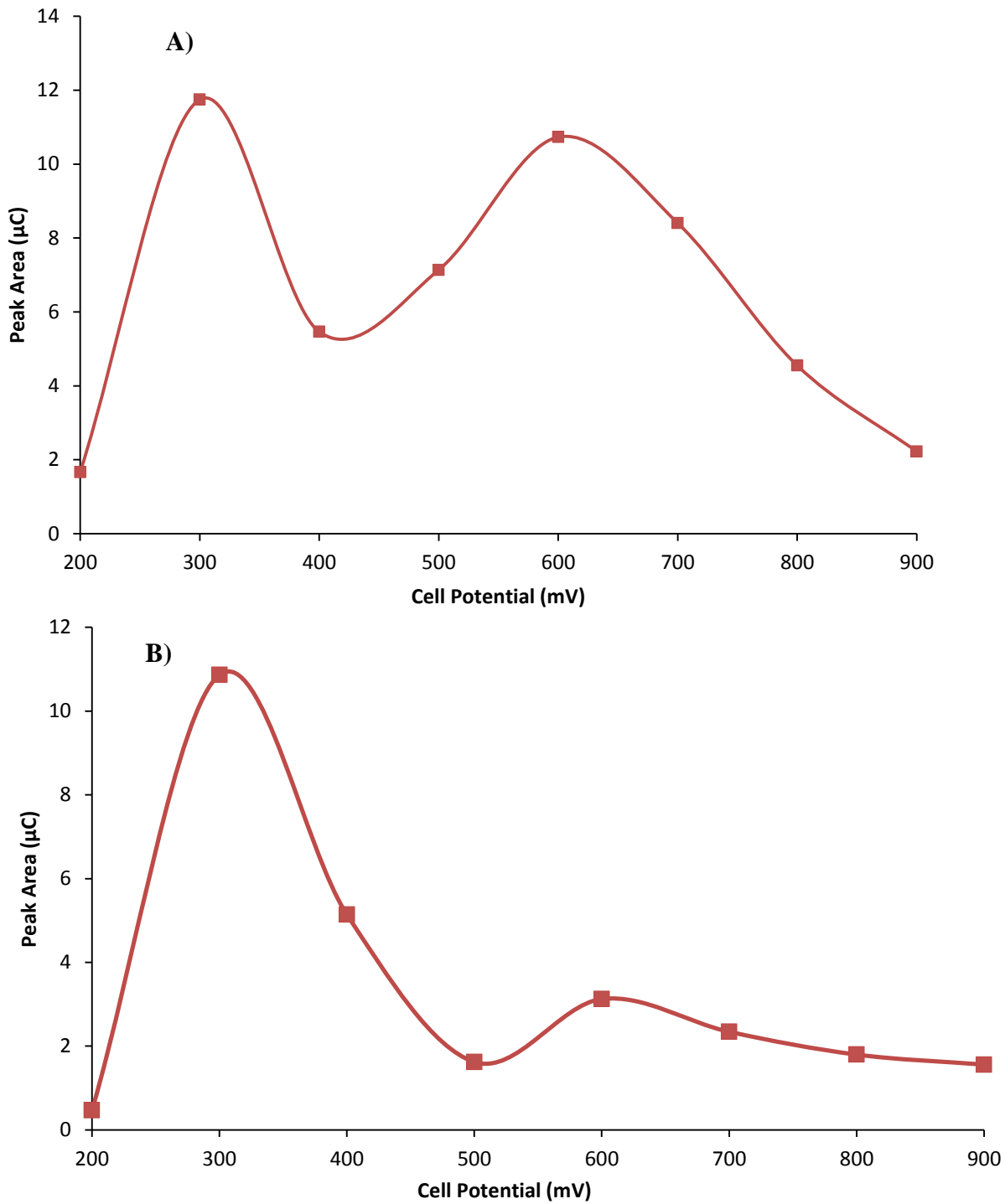


Figure 2.2 The effect of electrochemical cell potential on the peak area (μC) for (a) resveratrol and (b) pterostilbene. The concentration for each compound was $5\mu\text{M}$.

Table 2.1 Voltametric behavior of resveratrol and pterostilbene.

Compound	Potential of the Dominant Peak (mV)	Ratio of Peak Area ^a	
		Predominant	Postdominant
Resveratrol	300	0.14	0.04
Pterostilbene	300	0.36	0.33

a. The ratios are associated with the dominant peak area of the compound of interest.

2.4.3 Linearity and Range

The linearity of the detector response was assessed by analyzing the calibration graphs of resveratrol and pterostilbene. The graphs were constructed based on plotting the peak area of the compound of interest against the corresponding concentrations.

Linear regression analysis was used to determine the linearity of the analytical method.

Table 2.2 lists the regression equations and correlation coefficients (r^2) for resveratrol and pterostilbene. The concentration range between 0.001 μM and 10 μM were utilized. The correlation coefficients (r^2) were greater than 0.999 for both resveratrol and pterostilbene indicating good linearity for the tested concentration ranges for each compound.

Table 2.2 Linearity, LOD, and LOQ for resveratrol and pterostilbene.

Compound	Concentration range (μM)	Linear regression equation	Correlation coefficient, r^2	LOD (ng/ml)	LOQ (ng/ml)
Resveratrol	0.001 - 10	$y = 4368.9x + 77.696$	0.9997	0.29	1.0
Pterostilbene	0.001 - 10	$y = 4530.1x + 71.95$	0.9996	2.0	6.7

2.4.4 LOD and LOQ

The limit of detection (LOD) and limit of quantification (LOQ) were calculated based on method outlined by the International Conference of Harmonisation (ICH 2005). The LOD was defined by lowest measured concentration that can be detected above baseline noise with a signal-to-noise (S/N) ratio of 3:1. Similarly, the LOQ was determined S/N of 10:1.

As indicated in Table 2.2, pterostilbene had higher LOD and LOQ values than resveratrol. The LOD and LOQ values presented here were lower than values acquired from other HPLC with EC detector (Benova et al., 2008; Kolouchová-Hanzlíková et al., 2004) as well as to usage of other detectors like FL and UV (Buiarelli et al., 2006; Gocan, 2009; Rodríguez-Bernaldo de Quirós et al., 2007). For resveratrol, this method had LOD value that was at least 100 times lower than with UV detection (Vian et al., 2005). Also, the LOD and LOQ values for pterostilbene in this study were lower than those obtained by other detectors published in the literature (Remsburg et al., 2007; Lin et al., 2009).

2.4.5 Accuracy/Recovery Studies

The accuracy of this HPLC procedure was evaluated on the recovery of known amounts of compound. Accuracy is based on the closeness of the result obtained to the true concentration. The compounds were injected three times at four different concentration levels (0.005, 0.05, 0.5, and 5 μ M). The results from accuracy studies for resveratrol and pterostilbene are shown in Table 2.3. The highest concentration (5 μ M) for both compounds had the lowest RSD values.

For resveratrol, the recovery range was from 96.59% to 109.01% with RSD less than 2.05%. The lower concentrations (0.005 and 0.05 μ M) had similar recovery

percentage. The highest concentration (5 μ M) had highest percentage of recovery of 109.01%. The recovery range for pterostilbene was between 99.53% to 106.29% with the RSD less than 2.35%. The lowest concentration (0.005 μ M) had highest percentage of recovery of 106.29%.

Table 2.3 Accuracy/Recovery data of resveratrol and pterostilbene standards.

Compound	Concentration(μ M)	% Recovery	% RSD (n=3)
Resveratrol	0.005	96.59	2.05
	0.05	96.23	0.82
	0.5	104.80	0.40
	5	109.01	0.04
Pterostilbene	0.005	106.29	1.00
	0.05	101.88	2.35
	0.5	99.53	1.31
	5	100.93	0.21

2.4.6 Precision

The precision for this study was determined based on repeatability (intraday variation) and intermediate precision (interday variation) (ICH, 2005). Intraday variation was evaluated by analyzing four different concentration levels (0.005, 0.05, 0.5, and 5 μ M) with triplicate injection within the same day; whereas, interday variation was analyzing four different concentration levels (0.005, 0.05, 0.5, and 5 μ M) on three separate days under the same experimental conditions.

For the intraday variation, resveratrol RSD values for retention time were between 0.00 - 0.23% and the RSD values for peak area were between 0.04% to 1.91%. The RSD

values for retention time ranged from 0.04 to 0.49% and the RSD values for peak area were between 0.21% to 2.46% for pterostilbene. (See Table 2.4)

For interday variation of resveratrol, the percent RSD of the retention time and peak were between 1.70% to 2.70% and 0.39% to 7.60%, respectively. For pterostilbene, RSD values for retention time were between 1.86% to 3.36% and the RSD values for peak area were in the range of 4.20 to 8.54%.

Table 2.4 Precision data of resveratrol and pterostilbene standards.

Compound	Concentration (μM)	Intraday variation (%RSD)(n=3)		Interday variation (%RSD)(n=3)	
		Retention time	Peak area	Retention time	Peak area
		Resveratrol	0.005	0.23	1.91
	0.05	0.23	0.76	2.02	0.39
	0.5	0.13	0.40	2.70	7.37
	5	0.00	0.04	1.70	7.60
Pterostilbene	0.005	0.28	1.34	2.15	8.54
	0.05	0.49	2.45	2.19	4.31
	0.5	0.16	1.35	3.46	4.20
	5	0.04	0.21	1.86	7.83

2.4.7 Analysis of resveratrol and pterostilbene in commercial juice products

The amount of resveratrol and pterostilbene present in the six different brands of juices were determined by the HPLC method developed for this paper. The results listed in Table 2.5. All the samples that contained blueberries juice (Blueberry Juice 1 and 2; Mix Juice Blend 1 and 2) had pterostilbene present. Blueberry Juice 1 had the highest concentration of resveratrol and pterostilbene. Blueberry Juice 1 contained organic

blueberry juice concentrate. Resveratrol can naturally be found in great abundance in grapes and there is a significant amount also found in blueberries. In nature, there is more pterostilbene found in blueberries than in grapes, which would explain why there is little, if any, pterostilbene found in the grape juices samples (Rimando et al., 2004).

Table 2.5 Amount of resveratrol and pterostilbene in different juice products.

Juice Sample	Resveratrol (μM)	Pterostilbene(μM)
Grape Juice 1	0.451	Trace Amount
Grape Juice 2	1.988	None
Blueberry Juice 1	6.584	0.021
Blueberry Juice 2	1.963	0.016
Mix Juice Blend 1	2.205	0.005
Mix Juice Blend 2	0.950	0.002

2.5 Conclusion

In conclusion, this method developed, by using HPLC coupled with an EC detector for the determination of resveratrol and pterostilbene, was simple, rapid and highly sensitive. Linear, range, repeatability and intermediate precision, LOD, LOQ and recovery were used to successfully validate this analytical method.

When this method is compared to HPLC methods using other detectors for the detection of resveratrol and pterostilbene, like UV and fluorescence, this method was faster and provides greater sensitivity (Buiarelli et al., 2006; Gocan, 2009; Lui et al., 2009; Rodríguez-Bernaldo de Quirós et al., 2007; Remsberg, 2007). In our lab, this method has been used to analyze small amounts of resveratrol and pterostilbene for permeability and cellular uptake experiments as well as determine the concentration of resveratrol and pterostilbene in various food products. The application of this method

will allow for analyzing large quantities of samples in a relatively short period of time, in addition to be able to detect trace amounts of resveratrol and pterostilbene for future nutritional, toxicological, and pharmacological research.

CHAPTER 3

COMPARISON OF THE CELLULAR UPTAKE AND INHIBITORY EFFECTS OF RESVERATROL AND ITS METHYLATED ANALOGUE PTEROSTILBENE ON HUMAN COLON CANCER CELLS

3.1 Abstract

Colon cancer is the third most commonly diagnosed cancer. Numerous epidemiological studies have revealed a relation between high consumption of fruits and vegetables with reduced risk of colon cancer. Resveratrol and pterostilbene are stilbene compounds found in fruits such as grapes and blueberries. The aim of this study was to compare the cellular uptake and inhibitory effects of resveratrol and pterostilbene on human colon cancer cells. Pterostilbene had a stronger inhibitory effect than resveratrol on Caco-2 human colon cancer cell line. Pterostilbene IC_{50} value was approximately 2.5 times lower than resveratrol. The cellular uptake of resveratrol and pterostilbene in three human colon cancer cells (Caco-2, HT-29, and HCT-116) was examined. The cellular uptake of pterostilbene was around 2 to 3 fold higher than of resveratrol in all colon cancer cells. The increased intracellular uptake and stronger growth inhibitory by pterostilbene maybe contributed to the two methyl groups on pterostilbene. Pterostilbene is an appealing candidate for cancer prevention.

Keywords: Resveratrol; Pterostilbene; Uptake; Colon Cancer; MTT

3.2 Introduction

In 2012, the World Health Organization (WHO) projected that cancer will be the most prevailing cause for death worldwide surpassing heart disease and stroke.

According to the American Cancer Society (2012), cancer is the second most common cause of death in the United States and accounts for about one in every fourth deaths.

The third most commonly diagnosed cancer in the United States is colon cancer and there has been noticeable increase in incidents in adults under the age of 50 (Siegel, 2009).

These staggering statistics has triggered a surge of interest in cancer prevention. Diet and lifestyle has received much attention since they are effective means of prevention. They are both major contributing factors as to whether or not one develops cancer (Center et al, 2009; McCullough et al, 2011). Having a diet abundant in fruit and vegetables is essential in maintaining good health. Numerous epidemiological studies have revealed a relation between high consumption of fruits and vegetables associated with a reduced risk of colon cancer (Rimando and Suh, 2008; Van Duijnhoven et al., 2009).

Resveratrol has been shown to exert anti-carcinogenic properties (Athar et al., 2009). *In vitro* models, Aggarwal et al. (2000) and Juan et al. (2008) have demonstrated resveratrol ability to be anti-angiogenic, anti-proliferative and proapoptotic. Furthermore, resveratrol has been shown to inhibit tumor progression in multiple sites such as breast, gastrointestinal tract and skin (Bishayee, 2009). In spite of all its potent as anti-cancer agent (Gupta et al., 2011; Li et al., 2010), the bioavailability of resveratrol has been a concern due to its rapidly metabolizing leaving small amounts of unconjugated

resveratrol in the systemic circulation (Asensi et al., 2002; Kapetanovic et al., 2010). This has sparked research to explore resveratrol derivatives.

Pterostilbene (*trans*-3,5-dimethoxy-4'-hydroxystilbene), a dimethylether analogue of resveratrol, has been shown to exhibit strong inhibitory activity against different cancer cell lines (Billack et al., 2008; Huang et al., 2007; Paul et al., 2010) and overall better pharmacokinetic characteristics than resveratrol (Lin et al., 2009; Remsberg et al., 2007; Wilson et al., 2008). *In vivo* study, pterostilbene had a longer plasma half-life in comparison to resveratrol (Ferrer et al., 2005), which is why pterostilbene is an interesting compound to investigate as a potential compound for use in chemoprevention.

The objective of this study is to see if the structural differences between resveratrol and pterostilbene would affect their inhibitory effects in Caco-2 - colon cancer cell line as well as compare the cellular uptake of the two compounds in three human colon adenocarcinoma cell lines.

3.3 Materials and Methods

3.3.1 Materials

Highly purified *trans*-resveratrol (99%) and pterostilbene (98%) were obtained from Quality Phytochemical LLC (NJ, USA). All organic solvents utilized were of HPLC grade and purchased from Fisher Scientific (Fairlawn, NJ, USA). Ammonium Acetate (99%) was purchased from EMD Chemicals Inc. (Gibbstown, NJ, USA). All three human colon adenocarcinoma cell lines were obtained from American Type Cell Collection (Manassas, VA, USA). Penicillin and streptomycin were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich

(St. Louis, MO, USA). Dulbecco's modified eagle medium (DMEM), McCoy's 5A media, fetal bovine serum (FBS), *MEM non-essential amino acid*, HEPES and other cell culture supplies were purchased from Mediatech Inc. (Herndon, VA, USA).

3.3.2 Cell culture treatment

Caco-2 cells were maintained in DMEM containing glucose, L-glutamine, and sodium pyruvate, supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum, 0.1% *MEM non-essential amino acid*, 6mM HEPES, 100 U/ml penicillin, and 0.1 mg/ml streptomycin. HCT116 and HT-29 were maintained in McCoy's 5A media supplemented with 5% heat inactivated FBS, 100 U/mL of penicillin, and 0.1mg/mL streptomycin.

All cell lines were kept at 37°C in atmosphere of 5% CO₂ and 95% air. Cells were subcultured at 70-90% confluency with media changed every 2 to 3 days for Caco-2 cells and every other day for HCT116 and HT29. Cell lines used were between 15 and 30 passages. DMSO was utilized as the agent to deliver resveratrol and pterostilbene. The final concentration of DMSO in all experiments did not exceed 0.1%.

3.3.3 Cell Viability Assay

Caco-2 cells were seeded in 96-well plates at a density of 10,000 cells/well. After 24 hours of incubation, media was replaced and cells were treated with serial concentrations of resveratrol and/or pterostilbene in 200µl in complete serum media except for the control samples that contained media with only 0.1% DMSO. At the end of treatment period of 48 hours, cells were subject to 3-(4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide (MTT) assay; therefore, the media was replaced with 100µl of fresh complete media containing 0.5mg/ml of MTT (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO,

USA). After 2 hours of incubation at 37°C, the media containing MTT was removed and the reduced formazan dye was solubilized by the addition of 100µl of DMSO per well. After lightly tipping the plate to dissolve the DMSO, the absorbance was evaluated at 570nm using a spectrophotometric microtiter plate reader (Elx800TM absorbance microplate reader, BioTek Instrument, Winooski, VT, USA). Results were expressed as percentage of viable with 100% representing the control cells treated with only DMSO.

3.3.4 Cellular Uptake Assay

The colon cancer cells (400 cells/ml) were suspended in 1ml of culture media containing different concentrations of resveratrol and/or pterostilbene in glass tube and then were incubated at 37°C in atmosphere of 5% CO₂ and 95% air for 0.5, 1, or 2 hours. After incubation, the cell suspension was centrifuged at 2000 rpm for 2 minutes at 4°C. Supernatant was then removed and cells were rinsed with 1ml of ice-cold PBS (1X; pH 7.25) and centrifuged at 1000 rpm for 1 minute at 4°C. After centrifugation, supernatant was again removed and 1ml of cytosol buffer (pH 7.5, 10mM-Tris-HCL, 1mM EDTA, 1mM MgCl₂) was added. The solution was kept on ice for 5 minutes before cells were sonicated with a probe sonicator and transferred to eppendorf tubes. The cells were then centrifuged at 14,000rpm for 25 minutes at 4°C. The supernatant was used to determine protein amount by BCA assay (Foster et al., 2001).

3.3.4.1 Cytosol Fraction

After centrifugation, the supernatant was transferred to a new tube. 180µl of supernatant was added to 120µl of MeOH (40% MeOH concentration). The 300µl of ethyl acetate (equal volume to the supernatant/MeOH solution) was added to

supernatant/MeOH and centrifuged at 10,000 rpm for 5 minutes at 4°C. The ethyl acetate layer (top layer) was collected. Ethyl acetate was added again to the supernatant-MeOH solution and centrifuged at 10,000rpm for 5 minutes at 4°C. Then ethyl acetate was collected again. The collected ethyl acetate extracts were evaporated to dryness and reconstituted in 180µl of 50% MeOH and analyzed using HPLC-EC. The peak areas were compared to standards and the cellular uptake was normalized for cellular protein.

3.3.4.2 Membrane Fraction

The membrane buffer (pH 6.5, 25mM HEPES, 150mM NaCl, 10% Triton, 60mM OCG) was added to the cell pellet. After 30 minutes on ice, 80µl of MeOH was added and solution was vortexed. 200µl of ethyl acetate was added to membrane-MeOH solution. The solution was centrifuged at 10,000rpm for 5 minutes at 4°C. The ethyl acetate (top layer) was collected. Ethyl acetate was added again to the membrane-MeOH solution and centrifuged at 10,000rpm for 5 minutes at 4°C. Then ethyl acetate was collected. The collected ethyl acetate were evaporated to dryness and reconstituted in 120µl of 50% MeOH and analyzed by HPLC-EC. The peak areas were compared to standards.

3.3.5 HPLC analysis

Samples were analysed on CoulArray® HPLC system, obtained from ESA (Chelmsford, MA, USA), equipped with a binary solvent delivery system (model 584), an auto-sampler (model 542), a CoulArray® Multi-Channel EC detector (model 6210) consisted of two cells, each cell contains 4 channels, and a UV detector. Ascentis RP-

Amide column (15 cm x 4.6 mm id, 3 μ m) from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO, USA) was used. Data collection, processing and instrument control were achieved using the CoulArray 3.06 software.

The mobile phase used consisted of 50mM ammonium acetate in 50% water, 40% ACN, and 10% THF. The pH of the mobile phase was adjusted with TFA to achieve a pH range between 3.5 to 3.8 and then filtered through a 0.45 μ m membrane filter from Millipore (Bedford, MA, USA). Both EC detector cells were used and detection potentials were set to 300, 400, 500, 600, 700, 800 and 900 mV. The flow rate was set to 1.0 ml/min. The temperature of the auto-sampler was set to 4°C. This detection method has high selectivity and excellent sensitivity even at low concentrations.

3.3.6 Statistical Analysis

Data were expressed as mean \pm standard error mean (SEM). Statistical significance of mean difference between two groups was calculated by using Student's two-tailed t-test. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) model with Dunnett multiple comparison was used when comparing more than two groups' differences. A significance level of $P < 0.05$ was used for all tests.

3.4 Results & Discussion

3.4.1 Growth inhibition on Caco-2

The colorimetric assay MTT was utilized to determine cell viability; therefore, determining the growth inhibition effect of resveratrol and pterostilbene on Caco-2 colon cancer cells. The cell viability is directly proportional to the intensity of the color in the solution in each well (Mosmann, 1983). The results showed that both resveratrol and pterostilbene caused dose-dependent growth inhibition of the cell viability of Caco-2 colon cancer cells (Figure 3.1). Resveratrol IC_{50} value was estimated to be around $207\mu\text{M}$ while pterostilbene attained a significantly lower IC_{50} value of approximately $79\mu\text{M}$. Pterostilbene was around 2.6 times more potent than resveratrol in hindering growth.

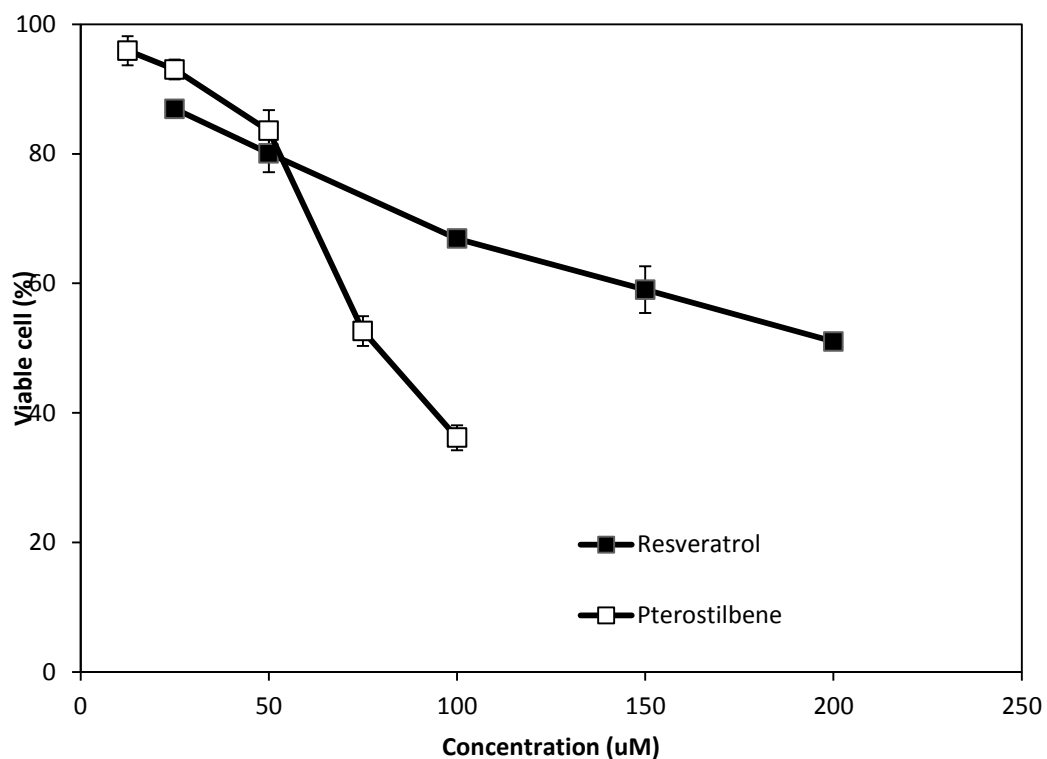


Figure 3.1 Growth inhibitory effect of resveratrol and pterostilbene on CaCo-2 human colon adenocarcinoma cells. Cells were seeded on 96-well plates for 24 hours. After this period of time, cells were treated with serial concentrations of resveratrol or pterostilbene. After 48 hours of treatment, growth inhibition was measured by MTT assay as described in material and method section. Each point represents the mean \pm SEM. (n=6).

3.4.2 Cellular Uptake of 3 Colon Cancer Cell Lines

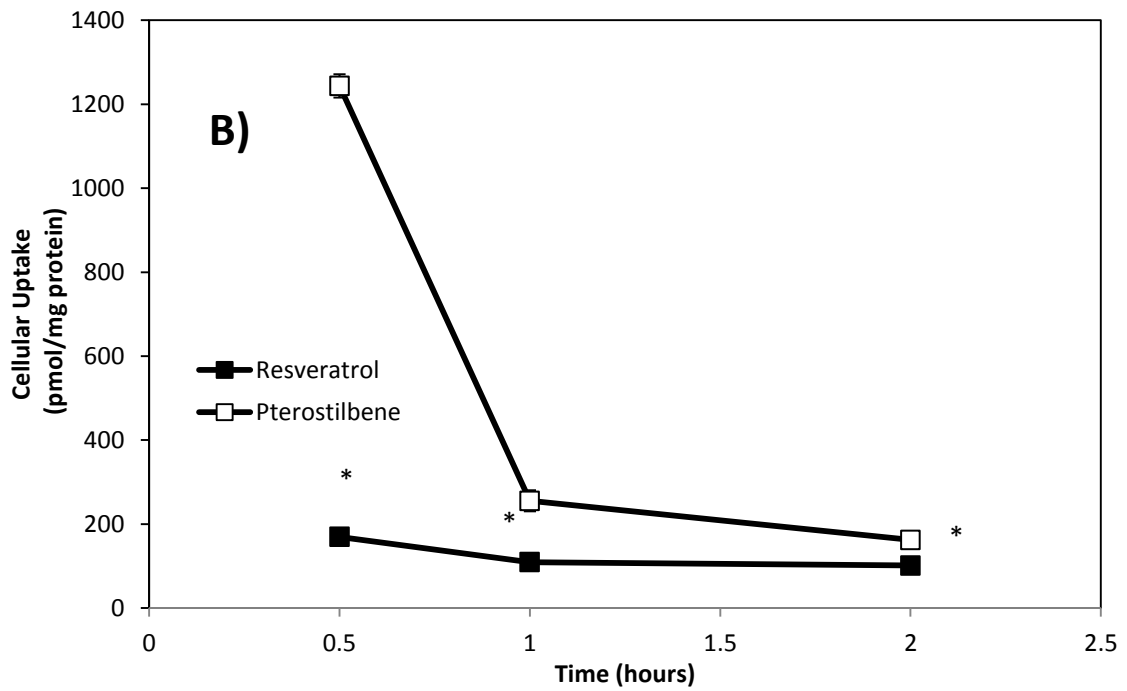
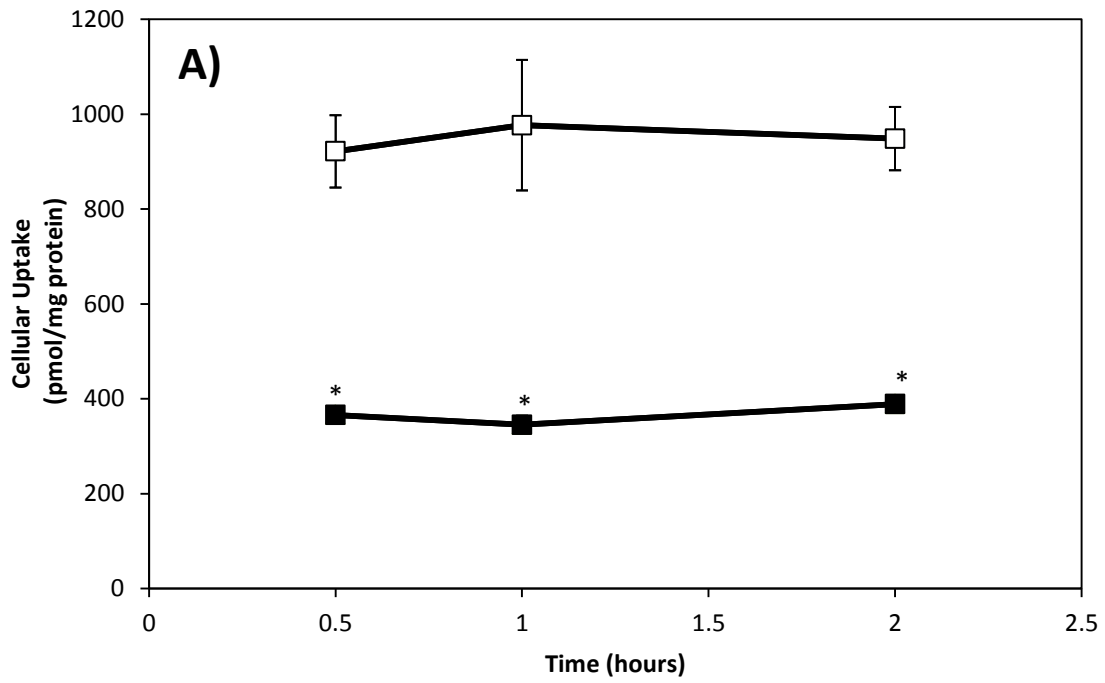
The cellular uptake of resveratrol and pterostilbene in three different human colon cell lines, Caco-2, HT-29 and HCT-116 were evaluated. The results revealed that in all cell lines the cellular uptake of pterostilbene in the cytosol was statistical significantly higher than resveratrol (Figures 3.2A, B and C). Similar results were obtained when the membrane fraction of the cellular uptake of the colon cell lines were examined (Results

not shown). Also, there were no synergistic or inhibitor effects observed when cells were exposed to both compounds at the same time.

After 0.5 hours of exposure, all cells lines were statistically different from each other in the presences of either compound (Figures 3.2D and E). There was no difference between HT-29 and HCT-116 cellular uptake of resveratrol or pterostilbene at the 1 hour and 2 hour incubation periods. Caco-2 had the most cellular uptake of resveratrol for all treatment times in comparison to HT-29 and HCT-116. However, when cells were exposed to pterostilbene, HT-29 had the most cellular uptake at 0.5 hours but then uptake amounts reduce to that similar to HCT-116 for other treatment times (1 and 2 hour).

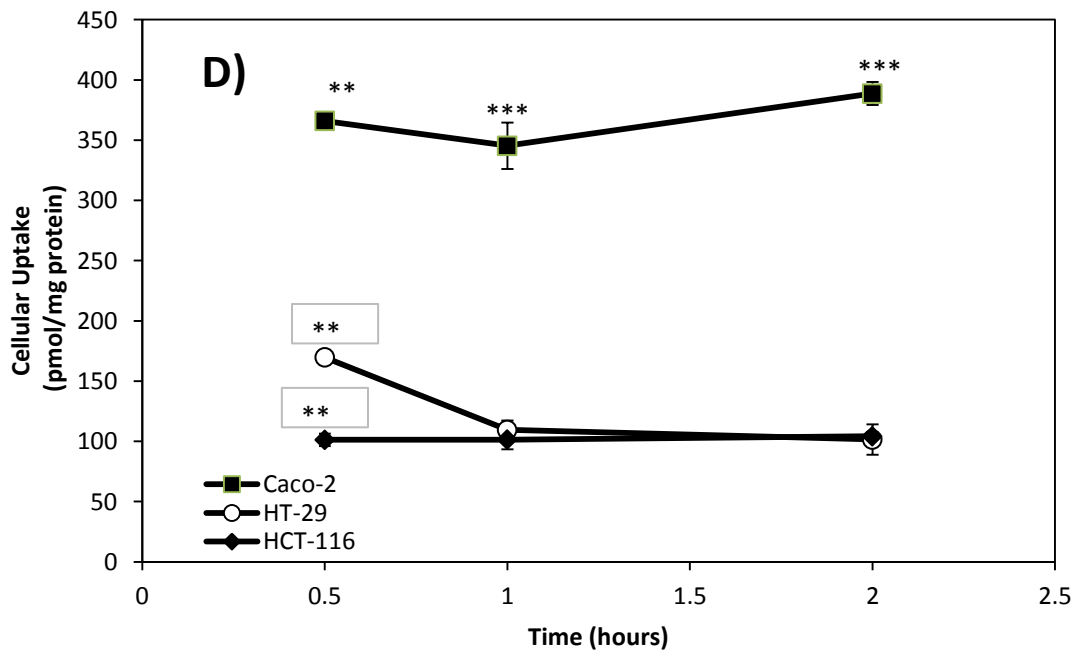
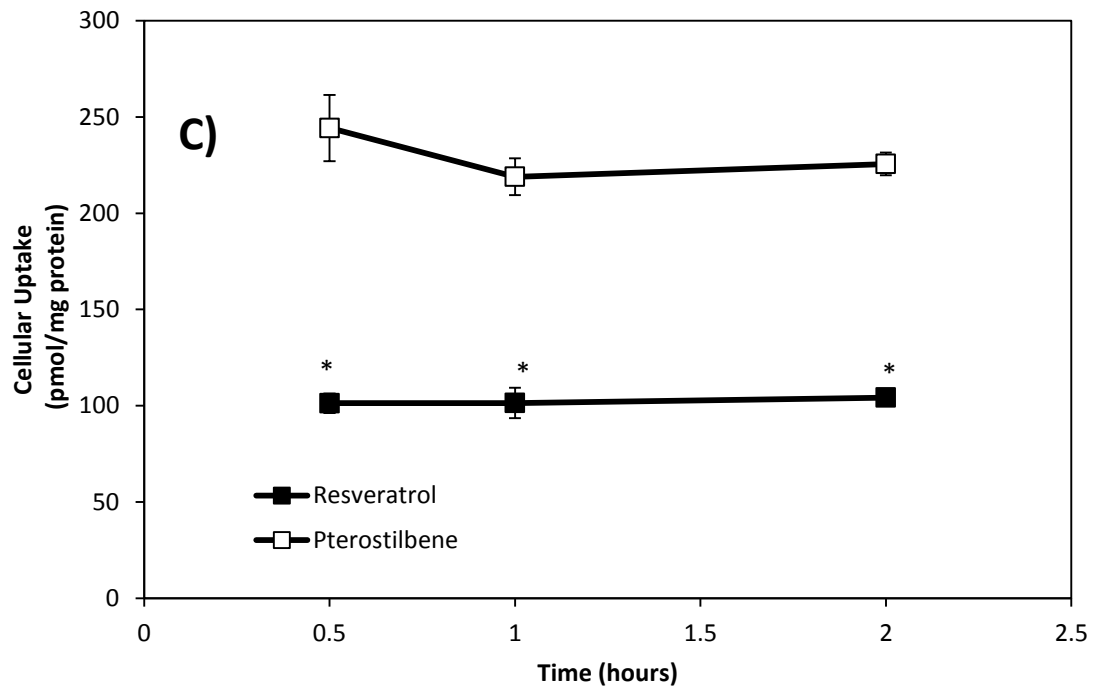
In examining the overall cellular uptake ratio of pterostilbene to resveratrol in the different colon cell lines, HCT-116 and Caco-2 had similar ratios (Figures 3.3A, B, and C). HT-29 exhibits a considerably higher ratio of cellular uptake of pterostilbene to resveratrol at 0.5 hours compared to the two other cell lines by approximately four folds. However, HT-29 uptake levels off to similar ratios as the 1 hour and 2 hour time pulls as the other cell lines. The cellular uptake treatments clearly illustrated that pterostilbene was taken up into the cell more readily than resveratrol.

Since a cell suspension was used to determine cellular uptake, resveratrol and pterostilbene had more accessibility to the cells than conventional uptake methods, where cells are grown to confluence in plastic plates that merely allow apical membrane access. Also, this method alleviates any difficulties that may occur from scraping cells from the plastic plates; therefore, decreasing the variation after sample collection. (Henry et al. 2005; Sacclui et al., 2002; Vaidyanathan and Walle, 2003).



Continued on next page

Figure 3.2, continued



Continued on next page

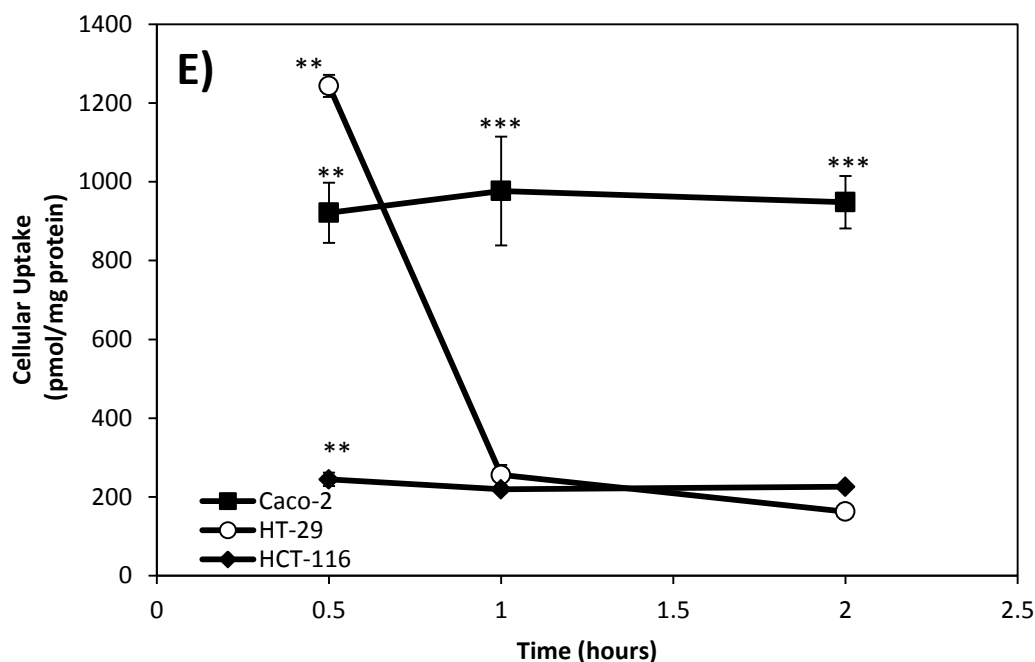


Figure 3.2 Cellular uptake of resveratrol and pterostilbene in the cytosol of (a)Caco-2, (b)HT-29, and (c)HCT-116 human colon cancer cell lines. Colon cancer cells were incubated with 10 μ M of (d) resveratrol or (e) pterostilbene in complete medium for various time periods. Each point represents the mean (n=3) \pm SEM. * indicates a statistical significance between resveratrol and pterostilbene in the same cell line at the same incubation period. ** indicates a statistical significance between all cell lines at the same incubation period. *** indicates only a statistical significance between Caco-2 and other cells lines (HT-29 and HCT-116) but not between each other (HT-29 and HCT-116) at the same incubation period.

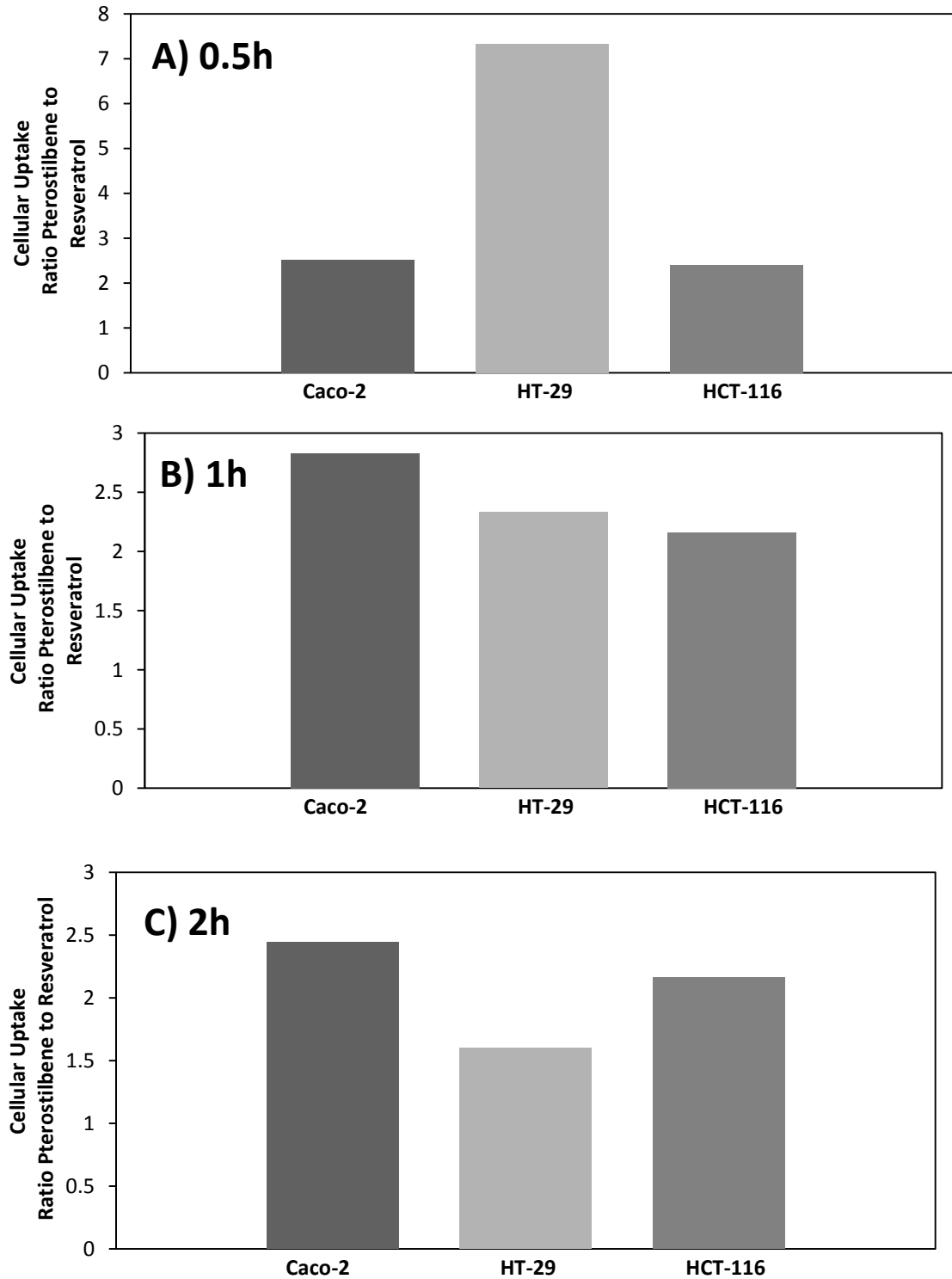


Figure 3.3 Cellular uptake ratio of pterostilbene to resveratrol in the cytosol of Caco-2, HT-29, and HCT-116 human colon cell lines. The cells were incubated with 10 μ M resveratrol or pterostilbene in complete medium for (a) 0.5, (b) 1, and (c) 2 hours.

3.5 Conclusion

The present study is part of our lab's current investigation on accessing the bioavailability and potential health benefits of methylated flavones. In this study, there was an examination of the effects of resveratrol and pterostilbene on three different human colon cancer cell lines – Caco-2, HT-29, and HCT-116. Both resveratrol and pterostilbene are naturally occurring stilbenes that have the same core structure but differ by their functional groups. Pterostilbene has methoxy groups on the 3 and 5 positions on the phenyl ring A instead of the hydroxyl groups that resveratrol contains at these positions.

MTT viability assay was used to determine the growth inhibition of the resveratrol and pterostilbene. The assay revealed that pterostilbene had a stronger inhibitory effect than resveratrol on Caco-2. Pterostilbene IC_{50} value was approximately more than 2.5 times lower than that of resveratrol. In our lab has also explored the inhibitor effects of resveratrol and pterostilbene on other human colon cancer lines (HCT116 and HT-29) and similar results were observed (Nutakul et al., 2011).

These findings are in agreement with prior reports that showed the methoxylated derivative have higher bioactivity and increased toxic activity (Huang et al., 2007; Wilson et al., 2008). Previous studies have shown that the structural difference of the stilbene compounds contribute to difference in their activities (Joseph et al. 2008; Ovesna and Horvathova-Kozics, 2005; Stivala et al., 2001). Other methylated flavones have shown to have more potent inhibition of growth versus unmethylated counterparts as well (Walle et al., 2007).

Bioavailability is key factor that can influence the efficacy of bioactive of a compound. Only bioavailable compounds can be accessible to the target cells to be bioactive for these cells. The results obtain suggest greater potency of pterostilbene than resveratrol could potential be because of greater cellular uptake of the pterostilbene. Therefore, we investigated cellular uptake of resveratrol and pterostilbene in three human colon cancer cell lines – Caco-2, HT-29, and HCT-116.

The cellular uptake experiments demonstrated a significant higher uptake of the pterostilbene than resveratrol in all cell lines. The substitution of hydroxy with methoxy group makes pterostilbene more lipophilic than resveratrol (Cichocki, 2008;Paul et al., 2009), therefore, pterostilbene may be able to permeate the plasma membrane of the cell and in turn enter the cytosol of the cell more readily than that of resveratrol (Tolomeo et al., 2005). As a consequence of better cellular uptake, the higher intracellular levels of pterostilbene can cause more potent inhibitory effects on the colon cancer cells in comparison to resveratrol. There may also be the probability that each colon cancer cell have different preference in taking up pterostilbene and resveratrol.

In conclusion, on the basis of the above findings, pterostilbene has stronger anti-carcinogenic effect and better bioavailability in comparison to resveratrol in human colon cancer cells. This study highlights that pterostilbene merits additional investigation as a chemopreventive agent in humans against colon cancer.

CHAPTER 4

**COMPARISON OF PERMEABILITY AND TRANSPORT OF RESVERATROL
AND ITS METHYLATED ANALOGUE PTEROSTILBENE IN HUMAN
INTESTINAL CACO-2 CELLS**

4.1 Abstract

Resveratrol and pterostilbene are both structurally related stilbene compounds that have been shown to possess a wide range of therapeutic benefits. Caco-2 cells monolayers were utilized to evaluate the transport of resveratrol and/or pterostilbene from apical to the basolateral compartment and from the basolateral to apical compartment. Samples were analyzed using high-performance liquid chromatography equipped with electrochemical (HPLC-EC). Resveratrol exhibited a higher rapid rate of transport than pterostilbene across the Caco-2 monolayer regardless of the concentration tested and direction. The transport of resveratrol was linear for only an hour; whereas, the transport of pterostilbene stability increased for the first 3 hours and did not reach a plateau until 6 hours into examination. There was little difference in the rate of transport of pterostilbene in either direction. Pterostilbene had an extended period of linear transport than resveratrol, suggesting less extensive pre-systemic metabolism than resveratrol which may lead to greater bioavailability and biological activity than resveratrol. Further research is warranted to investigate how these closely related structures can be utilized effectively for cancer prevention.

Keywords: Resveratrol; Pterostilbene; Stilbene; Caco-2; Permeability; Transport

4.2 Introduction

Resveratrol and pterostilbene are both naturally derived polyphenol compounds belonging to the stilbene family. It has long been postulated that resveratrol, which is present in wine, maybe the reason for the “French Paradox”. This epidemiological phenomenon is that the French population has a drastically lower incidence of cardiovascular disease despite having a diet higher in fat than other populations (Vidavalur et al., 2006). Resveratrol has been show to block human platelet aggregation, which may lower ones chance of developing cardiovascular disease (Bertelli et al., 1995; Pace-Asciak et al., 1995). Pterostilbene exhibit similar properties as resveratrol as well as its own distinctive therapeutic benefits (Rimando, 2002).

It is not clearly understood how resveratrol and even a greater extent pterostilbene obtain access to an intended cellular site of action. Furthermore, little is known about their absorption and bioavailability in humans. Various studies have demonstrated that resveratrol is well absorbed *in vitro*; yet, *in vivo*, it has very low bioavailability (Goldberg et al., 2003; Walle et al., 2004). Pterostilbene appears to have greater biological activity based on having relatively higher bioavailiability than resveratrol *in vivo* (rats) (Lin et al., 2009; Remerg et al., 2008).

For any compound of interest, their overall absorpition, distribution, metabolism, excretion and toxicity are crucial in evaulating a compounds prospective as a therapeutic agent (Balani, 2005; Tetko et al., 2006). Since oral administration is a widely employed method for the delivery of drugs and foods, the effectiveness of a compound is dependent on their intestinal absorption to get into systemic circulation to subsequently reach the

intended tissue. The intestinal epithelium is a key determinant for the oral absorption of ingested pharmaceuticals, food ingredients and toxins (Tong and Wen, 2008).

The usage of Caco-2 monolayer to predict the intestinal absorption of compounds is routinely utilized (Lind et al., 2007). Artursson and Karlson (1991) demonstrated a good correlation between the rate of transport across Caco-2 cell monolayer to the amount absorbed in humans by oral administration of a compound. These cells maintain several of the functional and morphological characteristics of the *in vivo* intestinal epithelial cells; therefore, Caco-2 cell monolayer is a vital model for *in vitro* absorption screening (Fossati et al., 2008).

The intent of this study was to compare the permeability and transport of resveratrol and its methylated analogue, pterostilbene, in Caco-2 cell model that were cultured as monolayers on transwells. Samples were analyzed using high-performance liquid chromatography equipped with electrochemical (HPLC-EC).

4.3 Materials and Methods

4.3.1 Materials

Highly purified *trans*-resveratrol (99%) and pterostilbene (98%) were obtained from Quality Phytochemical LLC (NJ, USA). All organic solvents utilized were of HPLC grade and purchased from Fisher Scientific (Fairlawn, NJ, USA). Ammonium Acetate (99%) was purchased from EMD Chemicals Inc. (Gibbstwon, NJ, USA). The human colon adenocarcinoma cell line, Caco-2, was obtained from American Type Cell Collection (ATCC, Manassas, VA, USA). Polyester (PET) transwell inserts with a pore size of 0.4 μ m and growth area of 4.67 cm² were purchased from Corning Costar

Corporation (New York, USA). Penicillin and streptomycin were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO). Dulbecco's modified eagle medium (DMEM), fetal bovine serum (FBS), *MEM non-essential amino acid*, HEPES and other cell culture supplies were purchased from Mediatech Inc. (Herndon, VA, USA).

4.3.2 Cell Culture - Caco-2

Caco-2 were cultured in DMEM containing glucose, L-glutamine and sodium pyruvate, supplemented with 10% FBS, 0.1% *MEM non-essential amino acid*, 10mM HEPES, 100 U/ml penicillin, and 0.1 mg/ml streptomycin at 37°C in an atmosphere of 5% CO₂ and 95% air. The cells were split when 70-90% confluent, using trypsin/EDTA, and media was changed every 2 to 3 days.

Caco-2 cells utilized were between 15 and 40 passages. The culture medium was changed three times a week after seeding and experiments were performed after 21 - 27 days of post-seeding. The final concentration of DMSO in all experiments did not exceed 0.1%.

4.3.3 Transport Experiments

The transwell inserts was seeded with 2.5×10^5 cells/ml of Caco-2 cells. The culture medium was changed three times a week after seeding and experiments were performed after 21 to 27 days post seeding. Culture medium was changed 12 to 24 hours prior to performing experiments. The culture medium was removed from both chambers and the cells were washed twice for 30 minutes with pre-incubated (37°C) Hank's balanced salt solution (HBSS). The pH of HBSS in apical compartment was 6.5 and 7.4 for basolateral compartment.

Samples from both compartments were withdrawn at specific times and the volume take from each compartment was replenished to the initial volume with the appropriate HBSS. Each sample was analyzed by HPLC-EC.

4.3.4 HPLC analysis

Samples were analysed on CoulArray® HPLC system, obtained from ESA (Chelmsford, MA, USA), equipped with a binary solvent delivery system (model 584), an auto-sampler (model 542), a CoulArray® Multi-Channel EC detector (model 6210) consisted of two cells, each cell contains 4 channels, and a UV detector. Ascentis RP-Amide column (15 cm x 4.6 mm id, 3 µm) from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO, USA) was used. Data collection, processing and instrument control were achieved using the CoulArray 3.06 software.

The mobile phase used consisted 50% water, 40% ACN, 10% THF and 50mM ammonium acetate. The pH of the mobile phase was adjusted with TFA to achieve a pH range between 3.5 to 3.8 and then filtered through a 0.45µm membrane filter from Millipore (Bedford, MA, USA). Both EC detector cells were used and detection potentials were set to 300, 400, 500, 600, 700, 800 and 900 mV. The flow rate was set to 1.0 ml/min. The temperature of the auto-sampler was set to 4°C.

This detection method has high selectivity and excellent sensitivity even at low concentration. The range of validation (0.001 - 5µM) was linear with coefficients of correlation more than 0.999 (Dong et al., 2010). Samples were stored at -20° C until analysis.

4.3.5 Data Analysis

Apparent permeability coefficient, P_{app} , (cm/s) of a compound was calculated by using the equation below (Hubatch et al., 2007).

$$P_{app} = \frac{\Delta Q}{\Delta t} \times \frac{1}{A \times C_0}$$

dQ/dt is steady-state appearance rate of compound in receiver compartment ($\mu\text{mol/s}$)

A is the surface area of the filter (4.67 cm^2)

C_0 is the initial concentration in the donor compartment (μM)

$$FA_{cum} = \frac{1}{A} \sum_{K=1}^i \frac{[C_R(t_k) - fC_R(t_{k-1})]V_R}{[C_D(t_{k-1}) + C_D(t_k)]/2}$$

The cumulative fraction transported, FA_{cum} , (cm) for each experiment was also evaluated. See the equation above. This equation takes into account the weighted normalized cumulative amount of a compound transported, where the amount of transported compound in each time pulls is weighted by the inverse average driving force (donor concentration for that time pull) (Hubatch et al., 2007).

Data were expressed as mean \pm standard error mean (SEM). Statistical significance of mean difference between two groups was calculated by using Student's two-tailed t-test. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) model with Dunnett multiple comparison was used when comparing more than two groups' differences. A significance level of $P < 0.05$ was used for all tests.

4.4 Results and Discussion

4.4.1 Overall

Caco-2 cell monolayers were utilized to evaluate the transport rate of resveratrol and/or pterostilbene from apical to the basolateral compartment and from the basolateral to apical compartment. The transport of the resveratrol and pterostilbene were monitored over an 8 hour time period at three different concentrations (10, 25 and 50 μ M). Samples from both compartments were taken at each time pull and replaced with buffer. Samples were subsequently analyzed by HPLC-EC without any further preparation.

The concentration range we employed some claim is slightly lower than the range of a compound in the gastrointestinal lumen following oral dose (Kerns and Di, 2008) while others say slightly higher than expected in the gastrointestinal lumen after drinking a cup of juice or glass of red wine (Fremont, 2000; Gescher, 2008). To better mimic what occurs in the body after oral administration of a compound, a pH gradient was used, where an acidic pH of 6.5 was utilized in the apical compartment and a neutral pH of 7.4 was utilized in the basolateral compartment (Lind et al. 2007). The acidic microclimate models the pH of the upper small intestine under fasted conditions and the neutral pH (7.4) in the basolateral side mimics the pH of the blood (Fallingborg et al., 1989; Deferme et al., 2008).

When either resveratrol or pterostilbene were loaded on the apical or basolateral compartment, they both were detected on the opposite side at the first time pull of 30 minutes and throughout the 8 hours incubation period. Both compounds at all three concentrations evaluated, clearly demonstrated transcellular absorption (Figures 4.3 and

4.4). When both resveratrol and pterostilbene were added to the apical compartment at the same time together (data not shown), there was no synergistic effect occurred.

Table 4.1 summarizes the P_{app} for the first hour of transport for resveratrol and pterostilbene. There was a distinctive difference between rates that resveratrol and pterostilbene had across the Caco-2 monolayer and how concentration and direction effect transports of these compounds.

The efflux ratio (P_{app} of basolateral compartment to apical compartment / P_{app} of apical compartment to basolateral compartment) for resveratrol and pterostilbene were both less than 3 indicating that no efflux is occurring.

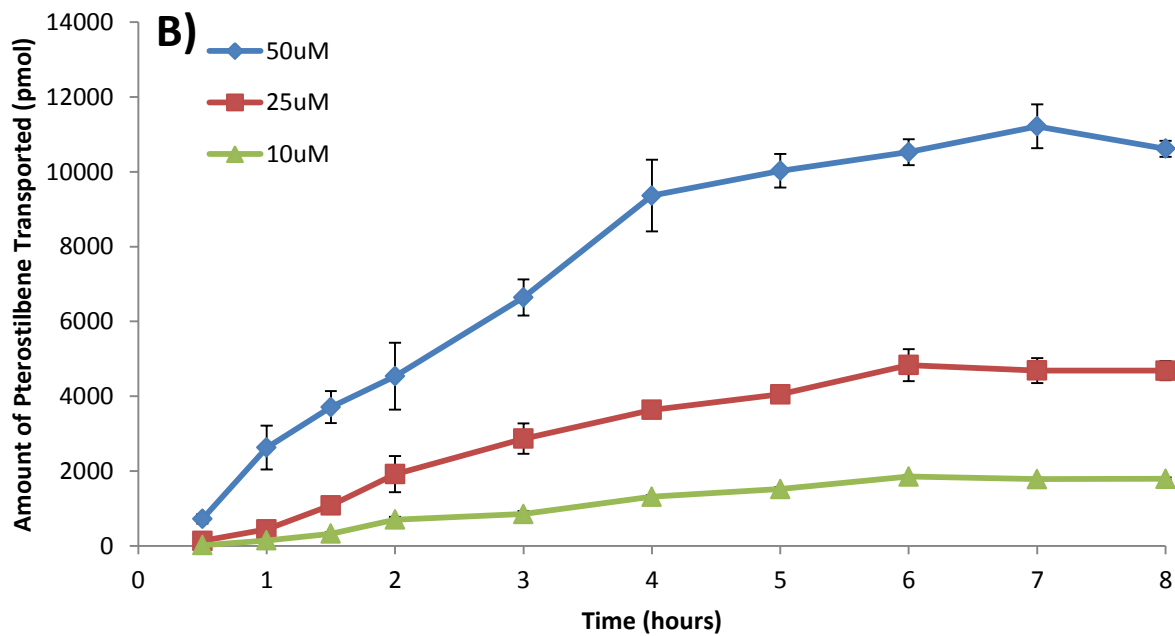
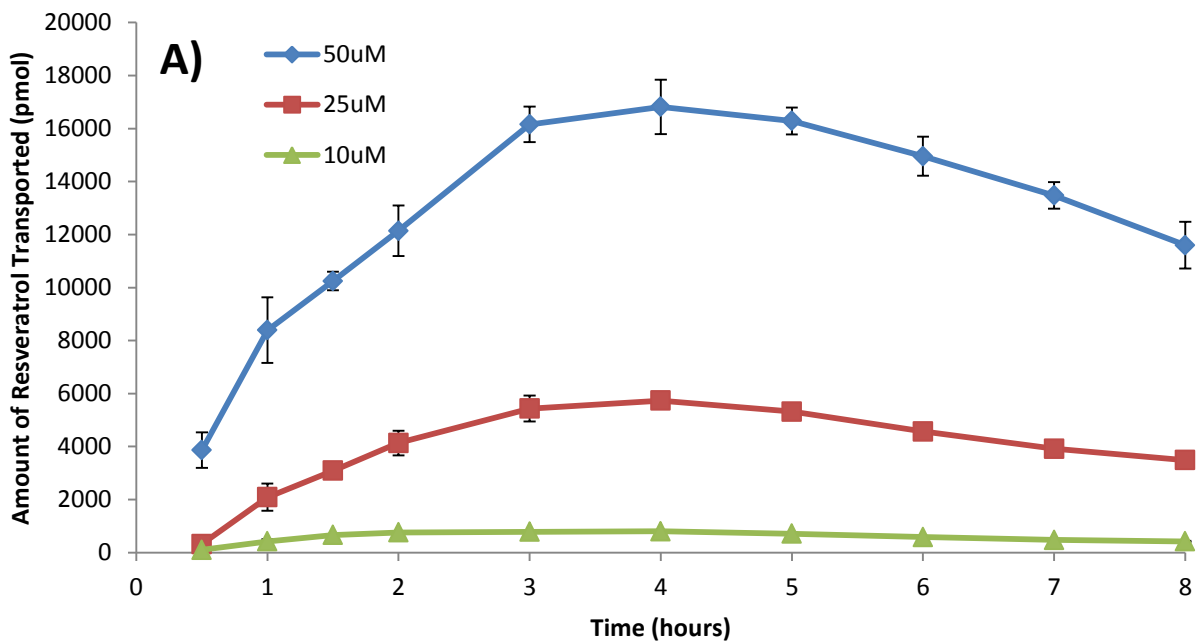


Figure 4.1 The transport from the apical to the basolateral compartment of (a) resveratrol and (b) pterostilbene across the Caco-2 monolayer. Each point represents the mean ($n=4$) \pm SEM.

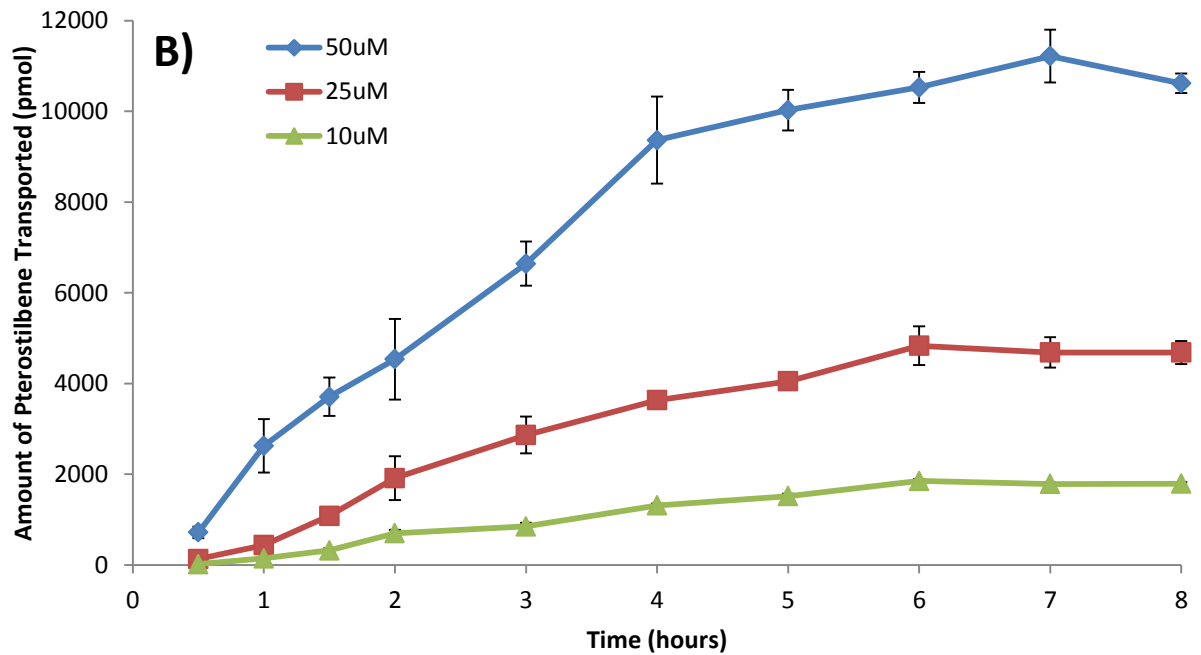
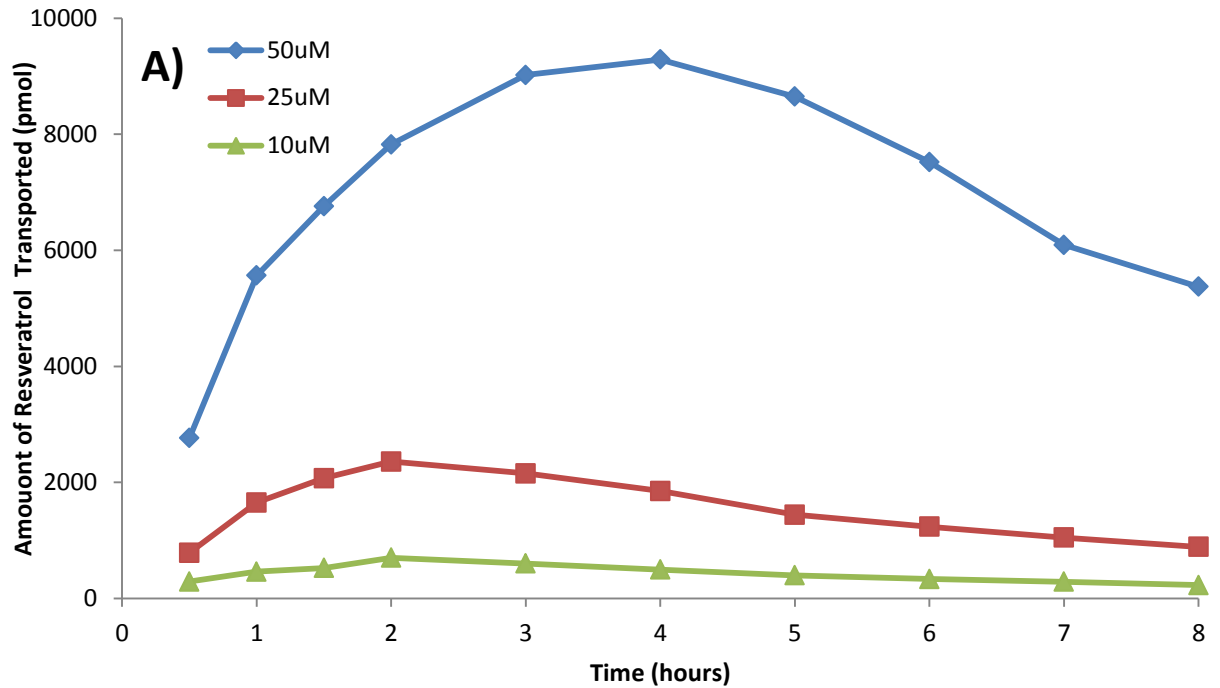


Figure 4.2 The transport from the basolateral to the apical compartment of (a) resveratrol and (b) pterostilbene across the Caco-2 monolayer. Each point represents the mean ($n=4$) \pm SEM.

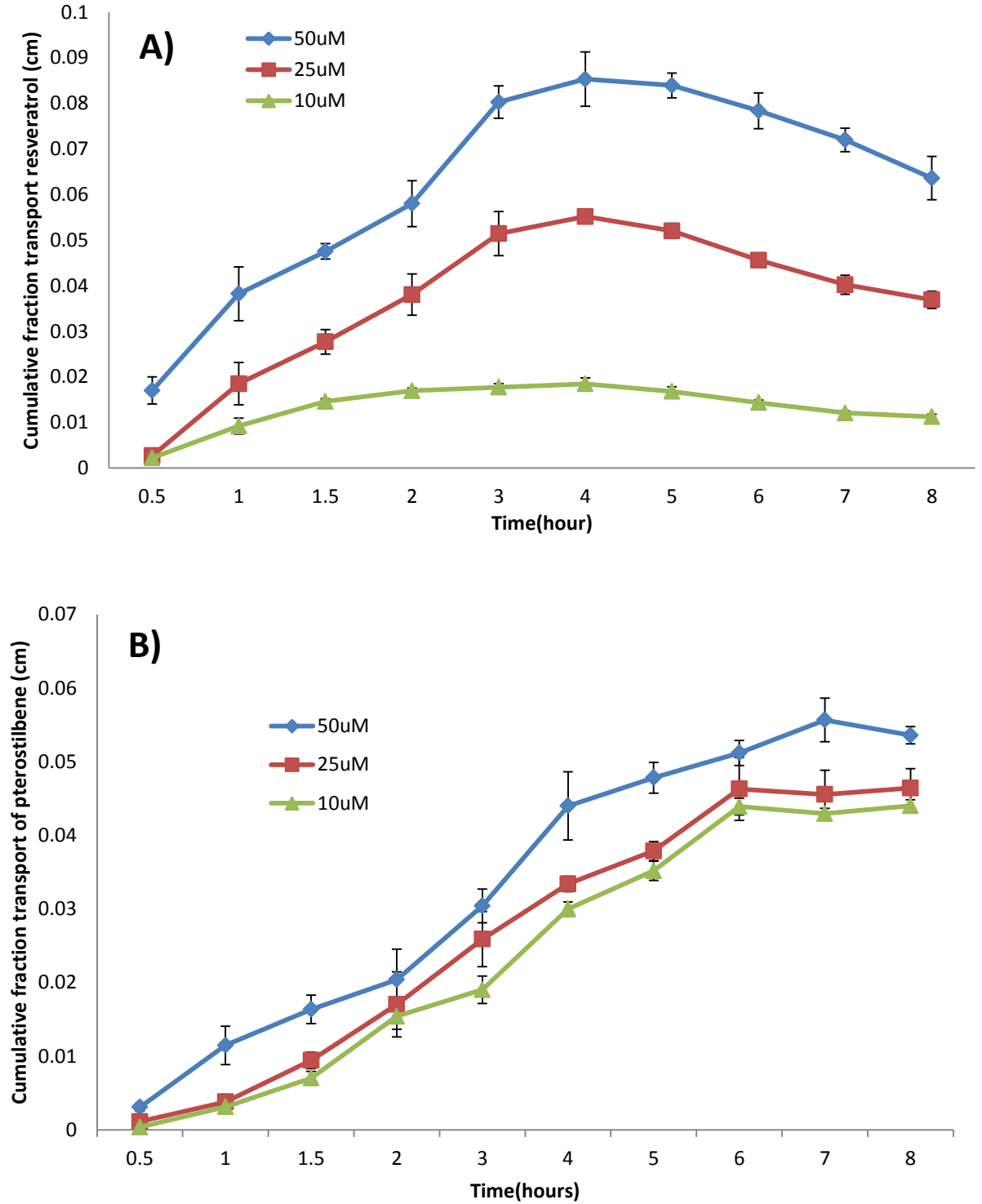


Figure 4.3 Cumulative fraction transport from the apical to the basolateral compartment of (a) resveratrol and (b) pterostilbene across the Caco-2 monolayer. Each point represents the mean (n=4) \pm SEM.

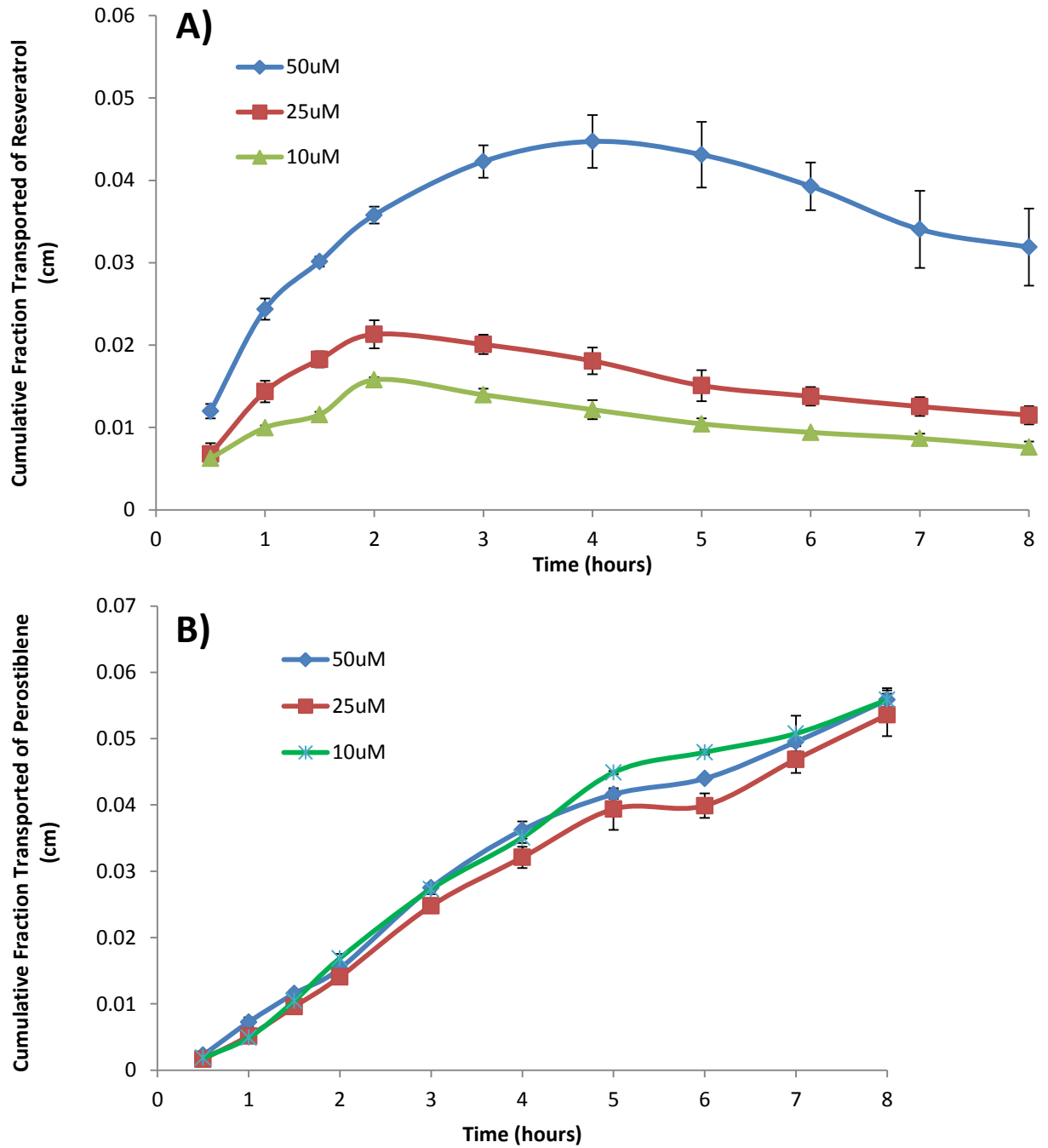


Figure 4.4 Cumulative fraction transport from the basolateral to the apical compartment of (a) resveratrol and (b) pterostilbene across the Caco-2 monolayer. Each point represents the mean ($n=4$) \pm SEM.

Table 4.1 Apparent permeability coefficients of different concentrations of resveratrol and pterostilbene through Caco-2 monolayers

Compound	Concentration (μM)	Transport Direction	
		$P_{\text{app}}^{\text{a}}$: Apical to Basolateral	$P_{\text{app}}^{\text{a}}$: Basolateral to Apical
Resveratrol	10	4.4 \pm 0.9	2.8 \pm 0.8
	25	10.2 \pm 0.2	4.5 \pm 0.7
	50	12.1 \pm 0.6	6.9 \pm 0.7
Pterostilbene	10	2.6 \pm 0.3	3.0 \pm 0.2
	25	3.5 \pm 0.5	2.5 \pm 0.3
	50	4.5 \pm 1.5	3.0 \pm 0.2

a. P_{app} is expressed in cm/sec ($\times 10^{-6}$). Values are means \pm SEM. $n=4$.

4.4.2 Resveratrol

For the first hour of transport of resveratrol across the Caco-2 monolayers, there was a linear increase in the amount of resveratrol transported when added to either compartment (Figures 4.3A and 4.4A). However after 3 hours of inhibition, there was plateau in transport of resveratrol, regardless of what compartment resveratrol was loaded into. Also, there were slightly lower amount of resveratrol transported when resveratrol was added on the basolateral compartment.

Transcellular absorption from the apical to basolateral compartment was observed at all concentrations and appears to be concentration dependent (Figure 4.5A). As the concentration of resveratrol increase from 10 μM to 50 μM , the transport rate from the apical to basolateral compartment more than doubled (Table 5.1).

The basolateral to apical flux of resveratrol was lower than transport from apical to basolateral compartment (Figure 5.6A). Since there was limited linearity in transport

of resveratrol with time, this could imply considerable metabolism of resveratrol by the Caco-2 cells (Walle et al., 2007).

4.4.3 Pterostilbene

Transport of pterostilbene across the Caco-2 monolayer increased steadily for the first three hours (Figure 4.3B and 4.4B). It took twice as long for pterostilbene to reach plateau than resveratrol which was after 6 hours of incubation.

Pterostilbene, unlike resveratrol, did not exhibit concentration dependence when it was added to basolateral compartment (Figure 4.6B). Transport was virtually identical for each concentration and direction which demonstrates the absence of direction-dependent transport (Figures 4.5B and 4.6B).

This suggests that the transport of pterostilbene across Caco-2 monolayers is probably through a passive diffusion mechanism.

4.5 Conclusion

The objective of this study was to examine the transport of resveratrol and pterostilbene across Caco-2 cell monolayer. Even though resveratrol and pterostilbene have the same core structure; they differ in their functional groups. Resveratrol contain 3,5-dihydroxy motif on the phenyl A ring, while pterostilbene has 3,5-dimethoxy motif. Resveratrol is the mostly studied stilbene; however, research on the absorptions of other stilbene, especially ones with methylated groups, are still limited.

The usage of human intestinal cell line Caco-2 cultivated on permeable membranes is a well accepted model of human intestinal absorption. It is critical to understand the bioavailability of stilbenes in order to figure out their potential actions *in*

vivo. Gres *et al.* (1998) determined that Papp values $>2 \times 10^{-6}$ cm/sec from Caco-2 cell experiments ought to correlate with efficient intestinal absorption. As a result, it is predicted that both resveratrol and pterostilbene can be effectively absorbed in humans. Other stilbene have reported to have lower transport rates than both resveratrol and pterostilbene (Kim *et al.*, 2008)

Resveratrol exhibited a higher and more rapid rate of transport than pterostilbene across the Caco-2 monolayer regardless of the concentration tested (10, 25 and 50 μ M) and direction. The transport of resveratrol was linear for only one hour; whereas, pterostilbene transport stability increased for the first 3 hours and did not reach a plateau until 6 hours into examination. Regardless of what compartment pterostilbene was put into and concentration examined (10, 25, 50), there was little difference in the rate of transport of pterostilbene.

Previous studies also observed a reduction in transport of resveratrol over time from the apical to basolateral compartment, which was clearly concentration dependent (Kadlas *et al.*, 2003; Maier-Salamon *et al.*, 2006; Li *et al.*, 2003;). Human studies demonstrated peak levels resveratrol were reached at 30 minutes and one hour times after oral dosing and rapidly declined afterwards (Goldberg *et al.*, 2003). Since transport of resveratrol had limited linearity over time, this could possibly be linked with increased amount of resveratrol being metabolized over time. This could indicate low oral bioavailability, due to the fact this has been observed in other polyphenols (Walle *et al.*, 1999).

The transport of pterostilbene in this study clearly demonstrated passive diffusion permeation. Pterostilbene has been reported to not metabolized as quickly and have

longer plasma half-life than resveratrol (Ferrer et al., 2005). Lin et al. (2009) demonstrated pterostilbene has better pharmacokinetic characteristics than resveratrol. Pterostilbene may have higher bioavailability than resveratrol, since the substitution of the hydroxyl with methoxy group increases metabolic stability of most compounds.

In conclusion, this data showed that even though resveratrol absorbed more rapidly than pterostilbene in the Caco-2 cell model, both would be efficiently absorbed in the human intestine. The data revealed that pterostilbene had extended period of linear transport than resveratrol suggesting less extensive pre-systemic metabolism than resveratrol which may lead to greater bioavailability and biological activity than resveratrol. Further research is warranted to investigate how these closely related structures can be utilized for different therapeutic uses.

CHAPTER 5

**COMPARISON OF THE CELLULAR UPTAKE, PERMEABILITY AND
TRANSPORT OF POLYMETHOXYFLAVONES (PMFS)**

5.1 Abstract

Polymethoxyflavones (PMFs) naturally exist in citrus genus and accumulating amount of evidence suggesting they have health-promoting benefits but there has been a lack of research on examining their bioavailability. Samples were analyzed using high-performance liquid chromatography equipped with electrochemical (HPLC-EC). A cell suspension in glass tubes were used to determine cellular uptake in HCT-116 human colon cells. Caco-2 cells monolayers were used to evaluate the transport of PMFs from apical to the basolateral compartment. The HCT-116 human colon cells had intracellular uptake of each of the polymethoxyflavones (PMFs) tested. Transport was observed by all the PMFs and each had different permeability rates. Overall, the results demonstrated that location and amount of methyloxly groups have an effect on intracellular levels of the PMF in HCT-116 and the rate of transport.

Keywords: Polymethoxyflavones, Permeability; Transport Caco-2 cells, Cancer, Bioavailability

5.2 Introduction

Polymethoxyflavones (PMFs) exist almost exclusively in the citrus fruits in nature, particularly in the peel of sweet oranges and mandarin oranges (Li et al., 2006). Currently, more than 20 PMFs have been isolated and identified. For centuries, orange peels have been used in Asian culture to heal various ailments (Ou, 1999). PMFs have been well documented on their broad array of biological activities, such as anti-atherogenic (Whitman et al., 2005), anti-carcinogenic (Ikeda et al., 2006; Manthey and Najla, 2002) and anti-inflammatory (Li et al., 2006).

It is estimated that 2.2 million metric tons (MMT) of orange juice will be produced worldwide this year (USDA: Foreign Agricultural Service, 2012) which will yield a considerable amount of orange peel by-product. There are some PMFs in commercial juices due to the industrial process being contaminated with peel constituents (Gattuso *et al.*, 2007) but most PMFs will come from the peel by-product of the orange juice process which could potentially be used for therapeutic purposes.

However, there is a scarce amount of research out on the bioavailability of PMFs. For any compound, the overall effects of absorption, distribution, metabolism, and excretion are vital in examining a compound's prospective as a therapeutic agent. The term bioavailability is defined as the fraction of an ingested component that eventually ends up in the blood systemic circulation system and target tissue (Van de Waterbeemd et al., 2003).

Caco-2 cells model is widely used *in vitro* model to examine intestinal transport, biotransformation and bioavailability at the cellular level. They have similar

morphology as human intestinal epithelial cells such as forming polarized monolayers in cultures and differentiate into cells (Fossati et al., 2008; Lind et al., 2007).

This study will focus on the following PMFs:

- 5-hydroxy-6,7,8,3',4'-pentamethoxyflavone (PMF3)
- 5-hydroxy-3,6,7,8,3',4'-hexamethoxyflavone (PMF4)
- 5-hydroxy-6,7,8,4'-tetramethoxyflavone (PMF7)

See Table 1.1 for chemical structure of these PMFs as well as other PMFs used in this study. The object of this study was to investigate if cellular uptake of PMFs occurs in HCT-116 colon cancer cells and to evaluate their transport in Caco-2 cell models.

5.3 Materials and Methods

5.3.1 Materials and Reagents

All organic solvents utilized, acetonitrile (ACN), methanol (MeOH), tetrahydrofuran (THF) and trifluoroacetic acid (TFA), were of HPLC grade and purchased from Fisher Scientific (Fairlawn, NJ, USA). Ammonium Acetate (99%) was purchased from EMD Chemicals Inc. (Gibbstown, NJ, USA). Penicillin and streptomycin were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO, USA). Dulbecco's modified eagle medium (DMEM), McCoy's 5A media, fetal bovine serum (FBS), *MEM non-essential amino acid*, HEPES and other cell culture supplies were obtained from Mediatech Inc. (Herndon, VA, USA). Polyester (PET) transwell inserts with a pore size of 0.4 μ m and growth area of 4.67 cm² were purchased from Corning Costar Corporation (New York, USA).

Both human colon adenocarcinoma cell lines, Caco-2 and HCT116, were obtained from American Type Cell Collection (ATCC, Manassas, VA, USA). PMFs were isolated from sweet orange (*Citrus sinensis*) peel extract (cold pressed oil) and dissolved in dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO). They were identified by MS, UV and NMR (Li et al., 2006). DMSO was used as the vehicle to deliver PMFs and the final concentration of DMSO in all experiments was 0.1% in culture media.

5.3.2 Cell Culture Treatment

HCT-116 were maintained in McCoy's 5A media supplemented with 5% heat inactivated FBS, 100 units/mL of penicillin, and 0.1 mg/mL of streptomycin at 37°C in an atmosphere of 5% CO₂ and 95% air. Cells were kept sub-confluent and culture media were changed every other day. HCT-116 cells utilized were between 10 and 25 passages.

Caco-2 were cultured in DMEM containing glucose, L-glutamine and sodium pyruvate, supplemented with 10% FBS, 0.1% *MEM non-essential amino acid*, 10mM HEPES, 100 U/ml penicillin, and 0.1 mg/ml streptomycin at 37°C in an atmosphere of 5% CO₂ and 95% air. The cells were split when 70-90% confluent, using trypsin/EDTA, and media was changed every 2 to 3 days. Caco-2 cells used were within 15 to 40 passages.

5.3.4 Cellular Uptake Assay

HCT-116 human colon adenocarcinoma cells (200 cells/ml) were suspended in 1ml of culture media containing different PMFs in glass culture tube and then incubated at 37°C with atmosphere of 5% CO₂ and 95% air for a given period of time (0.25, 0.5, 1 and 2 hours). After incubation, cell suspensions were centrifuged in a benchtop

centrifuges at 12000rpm for 5 minutes. The supernatant was then removed and cells were suspended with 1ml of ice-cold PBS (1x; pH7.25) and then sonicated. The cells suspension was again centrifuged (12000rpm for 5 minute). From the supernatant obtained, some was collected and reserved for the protein analysis by Bicinchoninic Acid (BCA) assay (Wang et al., 2008).

Equal amount of supernatant and MeOH were sonicated and then centrifuge again (12000rpm for 5 minutes). The supernatant obtained was collected for the HPLC analysis to determine the amount of PMF in the cytosol faction.

5.3.5 Transport Experiments

The transwell inserts was seeded with 2.5×10^5 cells/ml of Caco-2 cells. The culture medium was changed three times a week after seeding and experiments were performed after 21 to 27 days post seeding. Culture medium was changed 12 to 24 hours prior to performing experiments. The culture medium was removed from both chambers and the cells were washed twice for 30 minutes with pre-incubated (37°C) Hank's balanced salt solution (HBSS). The pH of HBSS in apical compartment was 6.5 and 7.4 for basolateral compartment.

Samples from both compartments were withdrawn at specific times and the volume take from each compartment was replenished to the initial volume with the appropriate HBSS. Each sample was analyzed by HPLC-EC.

5.3.6 Sample Analysis

Samples were analyzed on CoulArray® HPLC system, obtained from ESA (Chelmsford, MA, USA). It was equipped with a binary solvent delivery system (model

584), an auto-sampler (model 542), a CoulArray® Multi-Channel EC detector (model 6210) consisted of two cells (each cell contains 4 channels) and a UV detector. Ascentis RP-Amide column (15 cm x 4.6 mm id, 3 µm) from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO, USA) was used. Data collection, processing and instrument control were achieved using the CoulArray 3.06 software.

The mobile phase used consisted of 50% water, 40% ACN, 10% THF and 50mM ammonium acetate. The pH of the mobile phase was adjusted with TFA to achieve a pH range between 3.5 to 3.8 and then filtered through a 0.45µm membrane filter from Millipore (Bedford, MA, USA). Both EC detector cells were used and detection potentials were set to 200, 300, 400, 500, 600, 700 and 800mV. The flow rate was set to 1.0 ml/min. The temperature of the auto-sampler was set to 4°C.

This detection method has high selectivity and excellent sensitivity even at low concentration. The range of validation (0.001 - 5µM) was linear with coefficients of correlation more than 0.999. Samples were stored at -20° C until analysis.

5.3.7 Data Analysis

Apparent permeability coefficient, P_{app} , (cm/s) of a compound was calculated by using the equation below (Hubatch et al., 2007).

$$P_{app} = \frac{\Delta Q}{\Delta t} \times \frac{1}{A \times C_0}$$

dQ/dt is steady-state appearance rate of compound in receiver compartment (µmol/s)

A is the surface area of the filter (4.67 cm²)

C_0 is the initial concentration in the donor compartment (µM)

$$FA_{cum} = \frac{1}{A} \sum_{K=1}^i \frac{[C_R(t_k) - fC_R(t_{k-1})]V_R}{[C_D(t_{k-1}) + C_D(t_k)]/2}$$

The cumulative fraction transported, FA_{cum} (cm), for each experiment was also calculated. See the equation above. This equation takes into account the weighted normalized cumulative amount of a compound transported, where the amount of transported compound in each time pulls is weighted by the inverse average driving force (donor concentration for that time pull) (Hubatch et al., 2007).

Data was expressed as mean \pm standard error mean (SEM). Statistical significance of mean difference between two groups was calculated by using Student's two-tailed t-test. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) model with Dunnett multiple comparison was used when comparing more than two groups' differences. A probability of less than 0.05 ($p < 0.05$) was deemed statistically significant.

5.4 Results & Discussion

5.4.1 Cellular Uptake of PMFs in HCT-116 cancer cells

The ability of a compound to generate a biological effect depends on if it can first enter the target cell. This study attempts to provide this insight by evaluating the intracellular levels of PMFs in HCT-116 human colon adenocarcinoma cells. The results were normalized with the amount of cytosolic protein (Foster *et al.*, 2001). An array of different cellular uptake experiments were performed. Individual PMFs were examined

and then assessed to see if combined with other PMFs there would be an increase in cellular uptake of the PMF of interest. Some experiments had HCT-116 cells exposed to one PMF for 24 hours prior to treatment and then exposed to another PMF to determine if later PMF would have greater intracellular uptake because cells were exposed to another PMF prior.

Overall, there was no synergistic effect observed when an additional PMF was added to the cellular uptake experiment to see if it would have an effect on the other PMF (the one of interest). There was dose dependent observed; therefore, the intracellular levels of PMF in the cell would increase with a increase in the amount of PMF exposed to the cells (More PMF added the more was uptaken). When PMF4, PMF5 and PMF7 were compared to the uptake of PMF3 from PMF mixture (25uM of each), there was less PMF4, PMF5 and PMF7 uptake in comparison to PMF3 (Figure 5.1). Slightly less PMF7 was uptake in comparison to PMF 4 and PMF5.

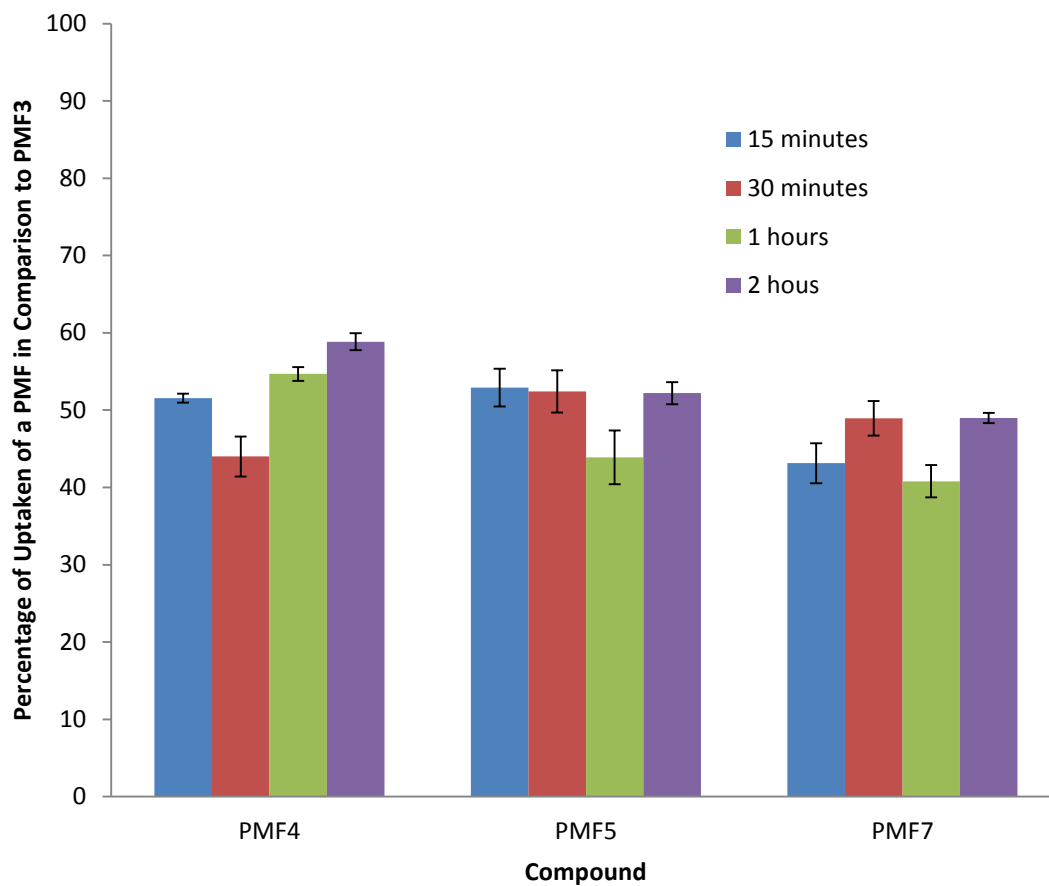


Figure 5.1 Percentage of cellular uptake in HCT-116 human colon cancer cells of PMF4, 5 and 7 from the PMF mixture in comparison to uptake of PMF3 from the same mixture. The values are mean \pm SEM (n=3).

5.4.2 Transport of PMFs by Caco-2 cells

A scarce number of studies exist on the transport of PMFs, in particular the PMFs which were examined in this study. The ability of a compound to be effectively absorbed in human intestine is a critical step in determining its bioavailability. Caco-2 cell monolayers were utilized to evaluate the transport of PMFs from apical to the basolateral compartment. The apical-to-basolateral transport of the PMF3, 4 and 7 were monitored over an 8 hour time period using a concentration of 2.5 μ M. An assortment of other transport experiments was also performed. A pH gradient was used to examine the transport of PMFs because this better mimics what happens in the body after oral administration of a compound (Lind et al. 2007). In the apical compartment, the acidic microclimate (pH 6.5) mimics the pH of the upper small intestine under fasted conditions and the neutral pH (7.4) in the basolateral side imitates the pH of the blood (Fallingborg et al., 1989; Deferme et al., 2008).

When PMFs were individually loaded on to the apical compartment, PMF3 and PMF4 were observed on the opposite compartment at 30 minutes and throughout the 8 hour experiment. However, PMF7 was not detected until 90 minutes into the transport experiment at the same concentration as the other PMFs. Even when the concentration of PMF7 was double to 5 μ M, it was not detected on the opposite compartment until 30 minutes into the experiment. There was no significance increase or change overall in the transport of the PMFs when all PMFs were added to the apical compartment in comparison to when only individual PMFs were added to the apical compartment. Other combinations with other compounds (PMF1, PMF2, Resveratrol and Pterostilbene) were

evaluated to see if there would be significance change to transport of the PMF3, PMF4 and PMF7 but no such observation was detected.

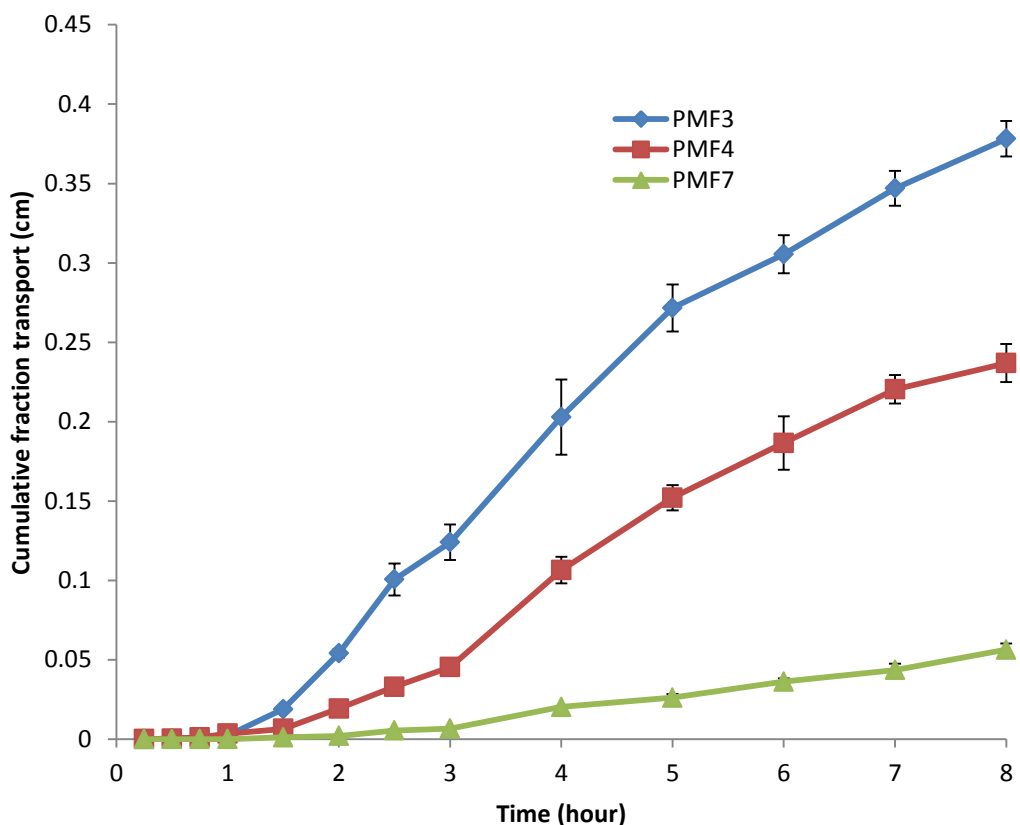


Figure 5.2 Cumulative fraction transported from the apical to the basolateral compartment for PMF3, PMF4 and PMF7 across the Caco-2 cell monolayer. Each point represents the mean \pm SEM. n=4.

Transcellular absorption clearly occurred for all the PMFs (Figure 5.2). PMF3 had the largest amount of transported to the basolateral compartment and largest apparent permeability coefficient in comparison to PMF4 and PMF7 (Table 5.1). PMF7 had the lowest amount of compound transfer across the Caco-2 monolayer. There was a progressive increase in transport of both PMF3 and PMF4 for the first 5 hours of

transport yet PMF7 had a steady increase in transport throughout the transport experiment.

Table 5.1 Apparent permeability coefficients of the PMFs through Caco-2 cell monolayers.

Compound	P_{app}^a
PMF3	22.3±2.5
PMF4	7.4±0.8
PMF7	1.2±0.2

a. P_{app} is expressed in cm/sec ($\times 10^{-6}$). The values are means \pm SEM. n=4.

5.5 Conclusion

This study is part of an ongoing exploration in our lab on the synthesis, mechanisms and potential health effects of PMFs. PMFs have sparked interest due to their wide spectrum of biological effects as an anti-inflammatory (Huang and Ho, 2010; Lai et al., 2011; Li et al., 2007 a & b) and anti-carcinogenic (Morley et al., 2007, Pan et al., 2007; Qui et al., 2011). Despite their health potential, the investigation on the bioavailability of PMFs has lagged behind. This study provides some insight on the cellular uptake of PMFs in HCT-116 colon cancer cells and the transport of these compounds in a Caco-2 cell model.

The cellular uptake of PMF3, PMF4 and PMF7 in HCT-116 colon cancer cells was observed and similar results were obtained in our lab when cellular uptake was examined in another colon cell line, HT-29. Our lab has demonstrated that PMF3, PMF4 and PMF7 have strong inhibitory effects on the growth of the cancer cells in HCT-116, which may be in part due to their ability to easily be uptaken by the colon cancer cell

lines. Our lab has also shown that these PMFs (3, 4 and 7) have different effects on the cell cycle of colon cancer cells indicating that these three PMFs inhibit colon cancer cell growth by different mechanisms (Qiu et al., 2010 & 2011). The number of methoxy groups and their position may be the reason for why one PMF has higher intracellular levels than another in HCT-116. It is plausible that there is a difference in preference by the colon cancer cells line for uptake of certain PMFs. The exact mechanism by which methoxylation may modulate the bioavailability of PMFs is a topic that warrants more research.

Bioavailability of a compound is the amount of the compound that can reach the blood circulatory system and target tissue (Van de Waterbeemd et al., 2003). Walle and his colleagues (Walle, 2007; Walle *et al.*, 2007; Wen and Walle, 2006) have demonstrated that methoxylation of PMFs have higher hepatic metabolic stability and intestinal absorption compared to unmethylated polyphenols. The low bioavailability and poor absorption of these unmethylated flavones is due to extensive conjugative metabolism in the intestine and liver because of the free hydroxyl groups which gives rise to rapid intestinal/hepatic conjugation and/or sulfation and excretion (Wen and Walle, 2006).

There has been investigations done on the *in vitro* absorption of nobiletin, a PMF1, versus luteolin, a polyhydroxyflavonoid (unmethylated), and results revealed that nobiletin had higher permeability and accumulated in the differentiated Caco-2 cell monolayer while luteolin did not (Murakami *et al.*, 2001). Gres *et al.* (1998) reported if a compound has a P_{app} values $>2 \times 10^{-6}$ cm/sec from Caco-2 cell model experiments then the compound should be associated with efficient intestinal absorption. Therefore, PMF 3

and PMF4 can be predicted to be associated with being able to be absorbed in the human intestines, where PMF7 is less likely. More research is necessary to see what will occur if concentrations are increased as well as what would occur if PMFs are placed in the basolateral compartment.

In summary, the results in this study suggest PMFs have the potential to facilitate intestinal absorption *in vivo* in human because of their capability to be transported in the *in vitro* absorption Caco-2 cell model. Along with other results attained from our lab, these observations demonstrate that PMFs as promising agents in cancer therapy and prevention but future research efforts are needed to understand their mechanism of transport.

CHAPTER 6

FUTURE RESEACH

To compliment the research executed in this thesis, future work should continue to focus on exploring the potential of methylated phytochemicals as cancer –fighting compounds. Also, work ought to continue to utilize *in vitro* research models to evaluate bioavailability of compounds. Furthermore, because of its sensitivity and high selectivity, HPLC-EC should be evaluated for usage in the separation, identification, and determination of other phytochemicals.

Based on the work done on the side-by-side comparison of resveratrol and pterostilbene, pterostilbene had higher intracellular uptake on all three cancer cells examined than resveratrol. Also, pterostilbene had stronger inhibition on the cell viability on Caco-2 human colon cancer cells than resveratrol and similar results were observed in other human colon cancer cells lines (Nutakul *et al.*, 2011). This data suggests that pterostilbene has superior anti-carcinogeic effect than resveratrol. Thus, it is worth performing other side-by-side comparison of resveratrol and pterostilbene on other cancer cells lines to see if similar results are obtained.

The preliminary experimentation preformed on certain PMFs revealed some new insight on their bioavailability. They have different rates of transport but more research is needed to determine what type of transport is occurring. Since transport experiments on PMFs evaluated only the permeability of PMFs from the apical side to the basolateral side, the next step would be to evaulate transport of PMFs from basolateral compartment to apical compartment. This type of experiment could provide additional information on the effect of secretory trasporters. Also, allows one to calculate the ratio of $P_{app} B$ to A /

P_{app} A to B (P_{app} basolateral compartment to apical compartment over P_{app} apical compartment to basolateral compartment) for each PMF which would aid in determining if efflux possibility would occur (Walle *et al.*, 2003). Therefore, a better picture could be drawn on the absorption of PMFs.

For all the compounds examined, determining the exact mechanism by which the methoxylation effect intestinal absorption and modulates the bioavailability is an attractive topic for future investigation. The natural progression would be to examine the metabolism of these compounds and assess whether the metabolic products (metabolites) have any biological and pharmacological properties. Knowledge of both a compounds absorption and metabolism can aid in determining a compounds potential biological functions *in vivo* (Masimirembwa *et al.*, 2003; Mohutsky *et al.*, 2006).

Bioavailability is an important factor that can dictate the efficacy of bioactive dietary components. The bioavailability of a these compounds studied in this thesis can be compromised *in vivo* because of their physicochemical properties, such as being highly hydrophobic with poor solubility in both water and oil at body temperature. Therefore, encapsulating and developing a delivery systems for these compounds would aid in enhancing their bioavailability *in vivo* so bioactive compounds can reach the intended target tissue.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Aggarwal, B. B., Bhardwaj, A., Aggarwal, R. S., Seeram, N. P., Shishodia, S., & Takada, Y. (2004). Role of resveratrol in prevention and therapy of cancer: Preclinical and clinical studies. *Anticancer Research*, 24(5A), 2783-2840.
- Aggarwal, B. B., & Shishodia, S. (2006). Molecular targets of dietary agents for prevention and therapy of cancer. *Biochemical Pharmacology*, 71(10), 1397-1421.
- Akao, Y., Itoh, T., Ohguchi, K., Iinuma, M., & Nozawa, Y. (2008). Interactive effects of polymethoxy flavones from citrus on cell growth inhibition in human neuroblastoma SH-SY5Y cells. *Bioorganic & Medicinal Chemistry*, 16(6), 2803-2810.
- Alosi, J. A., McDonald, D. E., Schneider, J. S., Privette, A. R., & McFadden, D. W. (2010). Pterostilbene inhibits breast cancer in vitro through mitochondrial depolarization and induction of caspase-dependent Apoptosis1. *Journal of Surgical Research*, 161(2), 195-201.
- Amarnath, S. M., & Pari, L. (2006). The antioxidant role of pterostilbene in streptozotocin-nicotinamide-induced type 2 diabetes mellitus in wistar rats. *Journal of Pharmacy and Pharmacology*, 58(11), 1483-1490.
- American Cancer Society. *Cancer facts & figures 2010*. <http://www.cancer.org/Research/CancerFactsFigures/CancerFactsFigures/cancer-facts-and-figures-2010>
- American Cancer Society. (2011). *Colorectal cancer facts & figures 2011-2013.*, 2011, from <http://www.cancer.org/acs/groups/content/@epidemiologysurveillance/documents/document/acspc-028323.pdf>
- Artursson, P., & Karlsson, J. (1991). Correlation between oral drug absorption in humans and apparent drug permeability coefficients in human intestinal epithelial (caco-2) cells. *Biochemical and Biophysical Research Communications*, 175(3), 880-885.
- Asensi, M., Medina, I., Ortega, A., Carretero, J., Baño, M. C., Obrador, E., et al. (2002). Inhibition of cancer growth by resveratrol is related to its low bioavailability. *Radical Biology and Medicine*, 33(3), 387-398.
- Athar, M., Back, J. H., Kopelovich, L., Bickers, D. R., & Kim, A. L. (2009). Multiple molecular targets of resveratrol: Anti-carcinogenic mechanisms. *Archives of Biochemistry and Biophysics*, 486(2), 95-102.

- Balani, S. K., Miwa, G. T., Gan, L., Wu, J., & Lee, F. W. (2005). Strategy of utilizing in vitro and in vivo ADME tools for lead optimization and drug candidate selection. *Current Topics in Medicinal Chemistry*, 5(11), 1033-1038.
- Benová, B., Adam, M., Onderková, K., Královský, J., & Krajíček, M. (2008). Analysis of selected stilbenes in polygonum cuspidatum by HPLC coupled with CoulArray detection. *Journal of Separation Science*, 31(13), 2404-2409.
- Bertelli, A. A., Giovannini, L., Giannesi, D., Migliori, M., Bernini, W., Fregoni, M., et al. (1995). Antiplatelet activity of synthetic and natural resveratrol in red wine. *International Journal on Tissue Reactions*, 17(1), 1-3.
- Bhat, K. P. L., & Pezzuto, J. M. (2002). Cancer chemopreventive activity of resveratrol. *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences*, 957(1), 210-229.
- Billack, B., Radkar, V., & Adiabouah, C. (2008). In vitro evaluation of cytotoxic and anti-proliferative properties of resveratrol and several of its analogs. *Cellular Molecular Biology Letters*, 13(4), 555-569.
- Bishayee, A. (2009). Cancer prevention and treatment with resveratrol: From rodent studies to clinical trials. *Cancer Prevention Research*, 2(5), 409-418.
- Borchardt, R. T., Kerns, E. H., Hageman, M. J., Thakker, D., R., & Stevens, J. L. (Eds.). (2006). *Optimizing the "drug-like" properties of lead in drug discovery* Springer.
- Bourne, D. W. (2010). *Biopharmaceutics and pharmacokinetic introduction*. Retrieved May,25, 2010, from <http://www.boomer.org/c/p4/c03/c03.html>
- Bruening, G., Bove, J., Citron, P., Miller, P. W., & Nault, L. R. (2010). *Strategic planning for the florida citrus industry: Addressing citrus greening*. Washington, DC: National Academy of Sciences.
- Buiarelli, F., Coccioli, F., Jasionowska, R., Merolle, M., & Terracciano, A. (2006). Chromatographic analysis of *trans*-resveratrol in italian wines: Comparisons between FL, UV and MS detection. *Chromatographia*, 64(7), 47-481.
- Center, M. M., Jemal, A., & Ward, E. (2009). International trends in colorectal cancer incidence rates. *Cancer Epidemiology Biomarkers & Prevention*, 18(6), 1688-1694.
- Chanvitayapongs, S., Draczynska-Lusiak, B., & Sun, A. K. (1997). Amelioration of oxidative stress by antioxidants and resveratrol in PC12 cells. *Neuroreport*, 8(6), 1499-1502.
- Charoensinphon, N., Qui, P. Q., Dong, P., Ngauv, P., & Xiao, H. (2010). Inhibition of lung cancer cell growth by polymethoxyflavones from sweet orange [Abstract]. *The Journal of Federation of American Societies for Experimental Biology*, 24

- Chen, K., Weng, M., & Lin, J. (2007). Tangeretin suppresses IL-1 β -induced cyclooxygenase (COX)-2 expression through inhibition of p38 MAPK, JNK, and AKT activation in human lung carcinoma cells. *Biochemical Pharmacology*, 73(2), 215-227.
- Chillemi, R., Sciuto, S., Spatafora, C., & Tringali, C. (2007). Anti-tumor properties of stilbene-based resveratrol analogues: Recent results. *Nat Prod Comm*, 2(4), 499-513.
- Choi, S., Ko, H., Ko, S., Hwang, J., Park, J., Kang, S., et al. (2007). Correlation between flavonoid content and the NO production inhibitory activity of peel extracts from various citrus fruits. *Biological and Pharmaceutical Bulletin*, 30(4), 772-778.
- Cichocki, M., Paluszczak, J., Szaefer, H., Piechowiak, A., Rimando, A. M., & Baer-Dubowska, W. (2008). Pterostilbene is equally potent as resveratrol in inhibiting 12-O-tetradecanoylphorbol-13-acetate activated NF κ B, AP-1, COX-2, and iNOS in mouse epidermis. *Molecular Nutrition & Food Research*, 52(S1), S62-S70.
- Cui, X., Jin, Y., Hofseth, A. B., Pena, E., Habiger, J., Chumanevich, A., et al. (2010). Resveratrol suppresses colitis and colon cancer associated with colitis. *Cancer Prevention Research*, 3(4), 549-559.
- Deferme, S., Annaert, P., & Augustijns, P. (2008). In vitro screening models to assess intestinal drug absorption and metabolism. *Drug absorption studies: In situ, in vitro and in silico models* (pp. 182-215) Springer.
- Delmas, D., Aires, V., Limagne, E., Dutartre, P., Mazué, F., Ghiringhelli, F., et al. (2011). Transport, stability, and biological activity of resveratrol. *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences*, 1215(1), 48-59.
- Dong, M. W. (2005). HPLC instrumentation in pharmaceutical analysis: Status, advances, and trends. In S. Ahuja, & M. W. Dong (Eds.), *Handbook of pharmaceutical analysis by HPLC- volume 6* (pp. 47-76) Elsevier Academic Press.
- Dong, P., Qiu, P., Zhu, Y., Li, S., Ho, C., McClements, D. J., et al. (2010). Simultaneous determination of four 5-hydroxy polymethoxyflavones by reversed-phase high performance liquid chromatography with electrochemical detection. *Journal of Chromatography A*, 1217(5), 642-647.
- Fallingborg, J., Christensen, L. A., Ingeman-Nielsen, M., Jacobsen, B. A., Abilgaard, K., & Rasmussen, H. H. (1989). pH-profile and regional transit times of the normal gut measured by a radiotelemetry device. *Alimentary Pharmacology & Therapeutics*, 3(6), 605-614.

- Fauconneau, B., Waffo-Teguo, P., Huguet, F., Barrier, L., Decendit, A., & Merillon, J. (1997). Comparative study of radical scavenger and antioxidant properties of phenolic compounds from vitis vinifera cell cultures using in vitro tests. *Life Sciences*, 61(21), 2103-2110.
- Ferrer, P., Asensi, M., Segarra, R., Ortega, A., Benlloch, M., Obrador, E., et al. (2005). Association between pterostilbene and quercetin inhibits metastatic activity of B16 melanoma. *Neoplasia*, 7(1), 37-47.
- Fossati, L., Dechaume, R., Hardillier, E., Chevillon, D., Prevost, C., Bolze, S., et al. (2008). Use of simulated intestinal fluid for caco-2 permeability assay of lipophilic drugs. *International Journal of Pharmaceutics*, 360(1-2), 148-155.
- Francy-Guilford, J., & Pezzuto, J. M. (2008). Mechanisms of cancer chemopreventive agents: A perspective. *Planta Medica*, 74(13), 1644-1650.
- Frémont, L. (2000). Biological effects of resveratrol. *Life Sciences*, 66(8), 663-673.
- Fulda, S. (2010). Resveratrol and derivatives for the prevention and treatment of cancer. *Drug Discovery Today*, 15(17-18), 757-765.
- Gan, L. S., Hsyu, P. H., Pritchard, J. F., & Thakker, D. (1993). Mechanism of intestinal absorption of ranitidine and ondansetron: Transport across cac-2 cell monolayer. *Pharmaceutical Research*, 10, 1722-1725.
- Garodia, P., Ichikawa, H., Malani, N., Sethi, G., & Aggarwal, B. B. (2007). From ancient medicine to modern medicine: Ayurvedic concepts of health and their role in inflammation and cancer. *Journal of the Society for Integrative Oncology*, 5(1), 25-37.
- Gattuso, G., Barreca, D., Gargiulli, C., Leuzzi, U., & Caristi, C. (2007). Review: Flavonoid composition of citrus juices. *Molecules*, 12, 1641-1673.
- Gescher, A. J. (2008). Resveratrol from red grapes - pedestrian polyphenol or useful anticancer agent? *Planta Medica*, 74(13), 1651-1655.
- Gocan, S. (2009). Analysis of stilbenes in wine by HPLC: Recent approaches. *Journal of Liquid Chromatography & Related Technologies*, 32(11), 1598-1643.
- Goldberg, D. M., Yan, J., & Soleas, G. J. (2003). Absorption of three wine-related polyphenols in three different matrices by healthy subjects. *Clinical Biochemistry*, 36(1), 79-87.

- Grès, M., Julian, B., Bourrié, M., Meunier, V., Roques, C., Berger, M., et al. (1998). Correlation between oral drug absorption in humans, and apparent drug permeability in TC-7 cells, A human epithelial intestinal cell line: Comparison with the parental caco-2 cell line. *Pharmaceutical Research*, 15(5), 726-733.
- Gupta, S. C., Kannappan, R., Reuter, S., Kim, J. H., & Aggarwal, B. B. (2011). Chemosensitization of tumors by resveratrol. *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences*, 1215(1), 150-160.
- Gusman, J., Malonne, H., & Atassi, G. (2001). A reappraisal of the potential chemopreventive and chemotherapeutic properties of resveratrol. *Carcinogenesis*, 22(8), 1111-1117.
- Henry, C., Vitrac, X., Decendit, A., Ennamany, R., Krisa, S., & Merillon, J. M. (2005). Cellular uptake and efflux of trans-piceid and its aglycone trans-resveratrol on the apical membrane of human intestinal caco-2 cells. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, 53, 798-803.
- Huang, X., Ruan, B., Wang, X., Xu, C., Ge, H., Zhu, H., et al. (2007). Synthesis and cytotoxic evaluation of a series of resveratrol derivatives modified in C2 position. *European Journal of Medicinal Chemistry*, 42(2), 263-267.
- Huang, Y., & Ho, S. (2010). Polymethoxy flavones are responsible for the anti-inflammatory activity of citrus fruit peel. *Food Chemistry*, 119(3), 868-873.
- Hubatsch, I., Ragnarsson, E., G.E., & Artursson, P. (2007). Determination of drug permeability and prediction of drug absorption in caco-2 monolayers. *Nature Protocols*, 2(9), 2111-2119.
- ICH. (2005). *International conference of harmonisation of technical requirements for requirements for registration for registration of pharmaceuticals for human use (ICH harmonised tripartite guideline): Validation of analytical procedures: Text and methodology: Q2:(R1)*
http://www.ich.org/fileadmin/Public_Web_Site/ICH_Products/Guidelines/Quality/Q2_R1/Step4/Q2_R1_Guideline.pdf
- Ikeda, M., Ken-Ichi, M., Keiko, M., Hiroyuk, Keiko, S., Takuji, T., & Takehiko, N. (2006). Chemopreventive effects of nobiletin against genotoxicity induced by 4-(methylnitrosamino)-1-(3-pyridyl)-1-butanone (NNK) in the lung of gpt delta transgenic mice. *Genes and Environment*, 28(3), 84-91.
- Jandera, P., Skeríková, V., Rehová, L., Hájek, T., Baldriánová, L., Skopová, G., et al. (2005). RP-HPLC analysis of phenolic compounds and flavonoids in beverages and plant extracts using a CoulArray detector. *Journal of Separation Science*, 28(9-10), 1005-1022.

- Jang, M., Cai, L., Udeani, G. O., Slowing, K. V., Thomas, C. F., Beecher, C. W., et al. (1997). Cancer chemopreventive activity of resveratrol, a natural product derived from grapes. *Science*, 275(5297), 218-220.
- Joseph, J. A., Fisher, D. R., Cheng, V., Rimando, A. M., & Shukitt-Hale, B. (2008). Cellular and behavioral effects of stilbene resveratrol analogues: Implications for reducing the deleterious effects of aging. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, 55(22), 10544-10551.
- Juan, M. E., Wenzel, U., Daniel, H., & Planas, J. M. (2008). Resveratrol induces apoptosis through ROS-dependent mitochondria pathway in HT-29 human colorectal carcinoma cells. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, 56(12), 4813-4818.
- Kaldas, M. I., Walle, U. K., & Walle, T. (2003). Resveratrol transport and metabolism by human intestinal caco-2 cells. *Journal of Pharmacy and Pharmacology*, 55(3), 307-312.
- Kapetanovic, I., Muzzio, M., Huang, Z., Thompson, T., & McCormick, D. (2011). Pharmacokinetics, oral bioavailability, and metabolic profile of resveratrol and its dimethylether analog, pterostilbene, in rats. *Cancer Chemotherapy and Pharmacology*, 68(3), 593-601.
- Karp, H., Vaihia, K., Kärkkäinen, M., Niemistö, M., & Lamberg-Allardt, C. (2007). Acute effects of different phosphorus sources on calcium and bone metabolism in young women: A whole-foods approach. *Calcified Tissue International*, 80(4), 251-259.
- Kerns, E. H., & Di, L. (2008). *Drug-like propertiers: Concepts, structure design and methods: From ADME to toxicity optimization* Academic Press.
- Khan, N., Afaq, F., & Mukhtar, H. (2008). Cancer chemoprevention through dietary antioxidants: Progress and promise. *Antioxidants & Redox Signaling*, 10(1), 475-510.
- Kim, S., Ahn, J., Shon, D., Kim, J., Kim, M., & Ha, T. (2008). Comparison of the permeability of stilbene analogues in caco-2 cells. *Food Science and Biotechnology*, 17(3), 675-678.
- Ko, S., Lee, S., & Whang, W. (1999). *Anti-platelet aggregation activity of stilbene derivatives from rheum undulatum* Pharmaceutical Society of Korea.
- Kolouchová-Hanzlíková, I., Melzoch, K., Filip, V., & Smidrkal, J. (2004). Rapid method for resveratrol determination by HPLC with electrochemical and UV detections in wines. *Food Chemistry*, 87(1), 151-158.

- Kopp, P. (1998). Resveratrol, a phytoestrogen found in red wine. A possible explanation for the condundum of the "french paradox"? *European Journal of Endocrinology*, 138(6), 619-620.
- Lai, C., Tsai, M., Cheng, A., Li, S., Lo, C., Wang, Y., et al. (2011). Chemoprevention of colonic tumorigenesis by dietary hydroxylated polymethoxyflavones in azoxymethane-treated mice. *Molecular Nutrition & Food Research*, 55(2), 278-290.
- Li, N., Shi, Z., Tang, Y., Yang, J., Wang, Z., Song, S., et al. (2010). Targeting the development of resveratrol as a chemopreventive agent. *Drug Development Research*, 71(6), 335-350.
- Li, S., Lo, C., & Ho, C. (2006). Hydroxylated polymethoxyflavones and methylated flavonoids in sweet orange (*Citrus sinensis*) peel. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, 54(12), 4176-4185.
- Li, S., Pan, M., Lai, C., Lo, C., Dushenkov, S., & Ho, C. (2007a). Isolation and syntheses of polymethoxyflavones and hydroxylated polymethoxyflavones as inhibitors of HL-60 cell lines. *Bioorganic and Medicinal Chemistry*, 15(10), 3381-3389.
- Li, S., Sang, S., Pan, M., Lai, C. L., Lo, C. L., Yang, C. S., et al. (2007b). Anti-inflammatory property of the urinary metabolites of nobiletin in mouse. *Bioorganic Medicinal Chemistry Letters*, 17(18), 5177 - 5181-5181.
- Li, Y., Shin, G., Yu, C., Kosmeder, J. W., Hirschelman, W. H., Pezzuto, J. M., et al. (2003). Increasing the throughput and productivity of caco-2 cell permeability assays using liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry: Application to resveratrol absorption and metabolism. *Combinatorial Chemistry & High Throughput Screening*, 6(8), 757-767.
- Likhtenshtein, G. (2010). *Stilbenes: Applications in chemistry, life sciences and materials science*. Weinheim, Germany: WILEY-VCH Verlag GmbH & Co. KGaA.,.
- Lin, H., Yue, B., & Ho, P. C. (2009). Determination of pterostilbene in rat plasma by a simple HPLC-UV method and its application in pre-clinical pharmacokinetic study. *Biomedical Chromatography*, 23(12), 1308-1315.
- Lind, M. L., Jacobsen, J., Holm, R., & Müllertz, A. (2007). Development of simulated intestinal fluids containing nutrients as transport media in the caco-2 cell culture model: Assessment of cell viability, monolayer integrity and transport of a poorly aqueous soluble drug and a substrate of efflux mechanisms. *European Journal of Pharmaceutical Sciences*, 32(4-5), 261-270.

- Luo, Q., Sun, L., Si, J., & Chen, D. (2008). Hypocholesterolemic effect of stilbenes containing extract-fraction from *cajanus cajan* L. on diet-induced hypercholesterolemia in mice. *Phytomedicine*, *15*(11), 932-939.
- Maier-Salamon, A., Hagenauer, B., Wirth, M., Gabor, F., Szekeres, T., & Jäger, W. (2006). Increased transport of resveratrol across monolayers of the human intestinal caco-2 cells is mediated by inhibition and saturation of metabolites. *Pharmaceutical Research*, *23*(9), 2107-2115.
- Manthey J.A., Guthrie N., & Grohmann K. (2001). Biological properties of citrus flavonoids pertaining to cancer and inflammation. *Current Medicinal Chemistry*, *8*(2), 135-153.
- Manthey, J. A., & Guthrie, N. (2002). Antiproliferative activities of citrus flavonoids against six human cancer cell lines. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, *50*(21), 5837-5843.
- Masimirembwa, C. M., Bredberg, U., & Andersson, T. B. (2003). Metabolic stability for drug discovery and development: Pharmacokinetic and biochemical challenges. *Clinical Pharmacokinetics*, *42*, 515-528.
- McCullough, M. L., Patel, A. V., Kushi, L. H., Patel, R., Willett, W. C., Doyle, C., et al. (2011). Following cancer prevention guidelines reduces risk of cancer, cardiovascular disease and all-cause mortality. *Cancer Epidemiology Biomarkers & Prevention*, *20*(6), 1089-1097.
- Middleton, E., Kandaswami, C., & Theoharides, T. C. (2000). The effects of plant flavonoids on mammalian cells: Implications for inflammation, heart disease, and cancer. *Pharmacological Reviews*, *52*(4), 673-751.
- Mohutsky, M. A., Chien, J. Y., & Ring, B.J., Wrighton, S.A. (2006). Predictions of the in vivo clearance of drugs from rate of loss using human liver microsomes for phase I and phase II biotransformations. *Pharm Res*, *23*, 654-662.
- Morley, K. L., Ferguson, P. J., & Koropatnick, J. (2007). Tangeretin and nobiletin induce G1 cell cycle arrest but not apoptosis in human breast and colon cancer cells. *Cancer Letters*, *251*(1), 168-178.
- Mosmann, T. (1983). Rapid colorimetric assay for cellular growth and survival: Application of proliferation and cytotoxicity assay. *Journal of Immunology Methods*, *65*(1-2), 55-63.
- Murakami, A., Kuwahara, S., Takahashi, Y., Ito, C., Furukawa, H., Ju-Ichi, M., et al. (2001). In vitro absorption and metabolism of nobiletin, a chemopreventive polymethoxyflavonoid in citrus fruits. *Bioscience, Biotechnology, and Biochemistry*, *65*(1), 194-197.

- Murakami, A., Koshimizu, K., Ohigashi, H., Kuwahara, S., Kuki, W., Takahashi, Y., et al. (2002). Characteristic rat tissue accumulation of nobiletin, a chemopreventive polymethoxyflavonoid, in comparison with luteolin. *Biofactors*, 16(3), 73-82.
- Namasivayam, N. (2011). Chemoprevention in experimental animals. *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences*, 1215(1), 60-71.
- National Cancer Institute. (2012). *What is cancer?*, 2012, from <http://www.cancer.gov/cancertopics/cancerlibrary/what-is-cancer>
- Ndiaye, M., Kumar, R., & Ahmad, N. (2011). Resveratrol in cancer management: Where are we and where we go from here? *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences*, 1215(1), 144-149.
- Nutakul, W., Sobers, H. S., Qiu, P., Dong, P., Decker, E. A., McClements, D. J., et al. (2011). Inhibitory effects of resveratrol and pterostilbene on human colon cancer cells: A side-by-side comparison. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, 59(20), 10964-10970.
- Ou, M. (1999). *Regular chinese medicine handbook*. Taiwan: Warmth Publishing Ltd.
- Ovesna, Z., & Horvathova-Kozics, K. (2005). *Structure-activity relationship of trans-resveratrol and its analogues.. Neoplasma*, 52(6), 450-455.
- Pace-Asciak, C. R., Hahn, S., Diamandis, E. P., Soleas, G., & Goldberg, D. M. (1995). The red wine phenolics trans-resveratrol and quercetin block human platelet aggregation and eicosanoid synthesis: Implications for protection against coronary heart disease. *Clinica Chimica Acta*, 235(2), 207-219.
- Pan, M., Chang, Y. C., Badmaev, V., Nagabhushanam, K., & Ho, C. H. (2007). Pterostilbene induces apoptosis and cell cycle arrest in human gastric carcinoma cells. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, 55(19), 7777-7785.
- Pan, M., Chiou, Y., Chen, W., Wang, J., Badmaev, V., & Ho, C. (2009). Pterostilbene inhibited tumor invasion via suppressing multiple signal transduction pathways in human hepatocellular carcinoma cells. *Carcinogenesis*, 30(7), 1234-1242.
- Pan, M., & Ho, C. (2008). Chemopreventive effects of natural dietary compounds on cancer development. *Chemical Society Reviews*, 37(11), 2558-2574.
- Pan, M., Lai, Y., Lai, C., Wang, Y., Li, S., Lo, C., et al. (2007). 5-hydroxy-3,6,7,8,3',4'-hexamethoxyflavone induces apoptosis through reactive oxygen species production, growth arrest and DNA damage-inducible gene 153 expression, and caspase activation in human leukemia cells. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, 55(13), 5081-5091.

- Pari, L., & Satheesh, M. A. (2006). Effect of pterostilbene on hepatic key enzymes of glucose metabolism in streptozotocin- and nicotinamide-induced diabetic rats. *Life Sciences*, 79(7), 641-645.
- Paul, S., DeCastro, A. J., Lee, H. J., Smolarek, A. K., So, J. Y., Simi, B., et al. (2010). Dietary intake of pterostilbene, a constituent of blueberries, inhibits the β -catenin/p65 downstream signaling pathway and colon carcinogenesis in rats. *Carcinogenesis*, 31(7), 1272-1278.
- Paul, S., Mizuno, C. S., Lee, H. J., Zheng, X., Chajkowisk, S., Rimoldi, J. M., et al. (2010). *In vitro* and *in vivo* studies on stilbene analogs as potential treatment agents for colon cancer. *European Journal of Medicinal Chemistry*, 45(9), 3702-3708.
- Paul, S., Rimando, A. M., Lee, H. J., Ji, Y., Reddy, B. S., & Suh, N. (2009). Anti-inflammatory action of pterostilbene is mediated through the p38 mitogen-activated protein kinase pathway in colon cancer cells. *Cancer Prevention Research*, 2(7), 650-657.
- Qiu, P., Dong, P., Guan, H., Li, S., Ho, C., Pan, M., et al. (2010). Inhibitory effects of 5-hydroxy polymethoxyflavones on colon cancer cells. *Molecular Nutrition & Food Research*, 54(S2), S244-S252.
- Qiu, P., Guan, H., Dong, P., Li, S., Ho, C., Pan, M., et al. (2011). The p53-, bax- and p21-dependent inhibition of colon cancer cell growth by 5-hydroxy polymethoxyflavones. *Molecular Nutrition & Food Research*, 55(4), 613-622.
- Qiu, P., Guan, H., Ping, Guo, S., Zheng, J., Li, S., Chen, Y., et al. (2011). The inhibitory effects of 5-hydroxy-3,6,7,8,3',4'- hexamethoxyflavone on human colon cancer cells. *Molecular Nutrition & Food Research*, 55(#), 1523-1532.
- Raj, M. H. G., Abd Elmageed, Z. Y., Zhou, J., & Gaur, R. L. (2008). Synergistic action of dietary phyto-antioxidants on survival and proliferation of ovarian cancer cells. *Gynecol Oncol*, 110(3), 432-438.
- Remsberg, C. M., Yáñez, J. A., Ohgami, Y., Vega-Villa, K. R., Rimando, A. M., & Davies, N. M. (2008). Pharmacometrics of pterostilbene: Preclinical pharmacokinetics and metabolism, anticancer, antiinflammatory, antioxidant and analgesic activity. *Phytotherapy Research*, 22(2), 169-179.
- Remsberg, C. M., Yáñez, J. A., Roupe, K. A., & Davies, N. M. (2007). High-performance liquid chromatographic analysis of pterostilbene in biological fluids using fluorescence detection. *Journal of Pharmaceutical and Biomedical Analysis*, 43(1), 250-254.

- Rimando, A. M., Kalt, W., Magee, J. B., Dewey, J., & Ballingto, J. R. (2004). Resveratrol, pterostilbene, and piceatannol in vaccinium berries. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, 52(15), 4713-4719.
- Rimando, A. M., & Suh, N. (2008). Biological/Chemopreventive activity of stilbenes and their effect on colon cancer. *Planta Med*, 74(13), 1635-1643.
- Rimando, A. M., Cuendet, M., Desmarchelier, C., Mehta, R., Pezzuto, J., & Duke, S. (2002). Cancer chemopreventive and antioxidant activities of pterostilbene, a naturally occurring analogue of resveratrol. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, 50(12), 3453-3457.
- Rodríguez-Bernaldo de Quirós, A., López-Hernández, J., Ferraces-Casais, P., & Lage-Yusty, M. A. (2007). Analysis of non-anthocyanin phenolic compounds in wine samples using high performance liquid chromatography with ultraviolet and fluorescence detection. *Journal of Separation Science*, 30(9), 1262-1266.
- Ruoslahti, E. (1996). How cancer spreads: Tumor cells roam the body by evading the controls that keep normal cells in place. *Scientific American*, 275(3), 72 - 77.
- Sacclui, M., Stivala, L. A., Maiani, G., Bugianesi, R., & Vannini, V. (2002). Flavonoids uptake and their effect on cell cycle of human colon adenocarcinoma cells (Caco2). *British Journal of Cancer*, 86(10), 1645-1651.
- Scheiber, M. D., Liu, J. H., Subbiah, M. T. R., Rebar, R. W., & Setchell, K. D. (2001). Dietary inclusion of whole soy foods results in significant reductions in clinical risk factors for osteoporosis and cardiovascular disease in normal postmenopausal women. *Menopause*, 8(5), 384-392.
- Schneider, J. G., Alosi, J. A., McDonald, D. E., & McFadden, D. W. (2010). Pterostilbene inhibits lung cancer through induction of Apoptosis1. *Journal of Surgical Research*, 161(1), 18-22.
- Sergeev, I. N., Li, S., Colby, J., Ho, C., & Dushenkov, S. (2006). Polymethoxylated flavones induce Ca²⁺-mediated apoptosis in breast cancer cells. *Life Sciences*, 80(3), 245-253.
- Siddiqui, I. A., Afaq, F., Adhami, V. M., & Mukhtar, H. (2008). Prevention of prostate cancer through custom tailoring of chemopreventive regimen. *Chemistry Biology InteractA*, 171, 122-132.
- Siegel, R. L., Jemal, A., & Ward, E. M. (2009). Increase in incidence of colorectal cancer among young men and women in the united states. *Cancer Epidemiology Biomarkers & Prevention*, 18(6), 1695-1698.

- Sporn, M., & Suh, N. (2002). Chemoprevention: An essential approach to controlling cancer. *Nature Reviews Cancer*, 2(7), 537-543.
- Stafford, H. A. (1990). *Flavonoid metabolism*. Boca Raton, FL: CRC Press.
- Stivala, L. A., Savio, M., Carafoli, F., Perucca, P., Bianchi, L., Maga, G., et al. (2001). Specific structural determinants are responsible for the antioxidant activity and the cell cycle effects of resveratrol. *Journal of Biological Chemistry*, 276(25), 22586-22594.
- Suh, N., Paul, S., Hao, X., Simi, B., Xiao, H., Rimando, A. M., et al. (2007). Pterostilbene, an active constituent of blueberries, suppresses aberrant crypt foci formation in the azoxymethane-induced colon carcinogenesis model in rats. *Clinical Cancer Research*, 13(1), 350-355.
- Surh, Y. (2003). Cancer chemoprevention with dietary phytochemicals. *Nature*, 3, 768-780.
- Syed, D. N., Khan, N., Afaq, F., & Mukhtar, H. (2007). Chemoprevention of prostate cancer through dietary agents: Progress and promise. *Cancer Epidemiology, Biomarkers and Prevention*, 16(11), 2193-2203.
- Szkudelski, T., & Szkudelska, K. (2011). Anti-diabetic effects of resveratrol. *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences*, 1215(1), 34-39.
- Tetko, I. V., Bruneau, P., Mewes, H., Rohrer, D. C., & Poda, G. I. (2006). Can we estimate the accuracy of ADME-Tox predictions? *Drug Discovery Today*, 11(15-16), 700-707.
- Tolomeo, M., Grimaudo, S., Di Cristina, A., Roberti, M., Pizzirani, D., Meli, M., et al. (2005). Pterostilbene and 3'-hydroxypterostilbene are effective apoptosis-inducing agents in MDR and BCR-ABL-expressing leukemia cells. *The International Journal of Biochemistry & Cell Biology*, 37(8), 1709-1726.
- Tong, W., & Wen, H. (2008). Preformulation aspects of insoluble compounds. In R. Liu (Ed.), *Water-insoluble drug formation* (2nd ed., pp. 61-90) CRC Press.
- USDA: Foreign Agricultural Service. (2012). *Citrus: World markets and trade (july 2012)*, 2012, from <http://www.fas.usda.gov/psdonline/circulars/citrus.pdf>
- Vaidyanathan, J. B., & Walle, T. (2003). Cellular uptake and efflux of the tea flavonoid - epicatechin-3-gallate in the human intestinal cell line caco-2 *Journal of Pharmacology and Experimental Therapeutics*, 307(2), 745-752.

- Van de Waterbeemd, H., Lennernäs, H., & Artursson, P. (Eds.). (2003). *Methods and principles in medicinal chemistry* (18th ed.). Weinheim, Germany: Wiley-VCH: Veri GmbH & Co. KGaA.
- Van Duijnhoven, F. J., Bueno-De-Mesquita, H. B., Ferrari, P., Jenab, M., Boshuizen, H. C., Ros, M. M., et al. (2009). Fruit, vegetables, and colorectal cancer risk: The european prospective investigation into cancer and nutrition. *The American Journal of Clinical Nutrition*, 89(5), 1441-1452.
- Vian, M. A., Tomao, V., Gallet, S., Coulomb, P. O., & Lacombe, J. M. (2005). Simple and rapid method for cis- and trans-resveratrol and piceid isomers determination in wine by high-performance liquid chromatography using chromolith columns. *Journal of Chromatography A*, 1085(2), 224-229.
- Walle, T. (2007). Methoxylated flavones, a superior cancer chemopreventive flavonoid subclass? *Seminars in Cancer Biology*, 17(5), 354-362.
- Walle, T., Walgren, R. A., Walle, U. K., Galijatovic, A., & Vaidyanathan, J. B. (2003). Understanding the bioavailability of flavonoids through studies in caco-2 cells. In C. A. Rice-Evens, & L. Packer (Eds.), *Flavonoids in health and disease* (2nd ed., pp. 349 - 361). London: Marcel Dekker, Inc.
- Walle, T. (2011). Bioavailability of resveratrol. *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences*, 1215(1), 9-15.
- Walle, T., Hsieh, F., DeLegge, M. H., Oatis, J. E., Jr, & Walle, U. K. (2004). High absorption but very low bioavailability of oral resveratrol in humans. *Drug Metabolism and Disposition*, 32(12), 1377-1382.
- Walle, T., Ta, N., Kawamori, T., Wen, X., Tsuji, P. A., & Walle, U. K. (2007). Cancer chemopreventive properties of orally bioavailable flavonoids—Methylated versus unmethylated flavones. *Biochemical Pharmacology*, 73(9), 1288-1296.
- Walle, U. K., Galijatovic, A., & Walle, T. (1999). Transport of the flavonoid chrysin and its conjugated metabolites by the human intestinal cell line caco-2. *Biochemical Pharmacology*, 58(3), 431-438.
- Wang, Z., Li, S., Ferguson, S., Goodnow, R., & Ho, C. (2008). Validated reversed phase LC method for quantitative analysis of polymethoxyflavones in citrus peel extracts. *Journal of Separation Science*, 31(1), 30-37.
- Watts, K. T., Lee, P. C., & Schmidt-Dannert, C. (2006). Biosynthesis of plant-specific stilbene polyketides in metabolically engineered *escherichia coli*. *BMC Biotechnology*, 6, 22-33.

- Weinberg, R. A. (1996). How cancer arises: An explosion of research is uncovering the long-hidden molecular underpinnings of cancer—and suggesting new therapies. *Scientific American*, 275(3), 62 - 71.
- Wen, X., & Walle, T. (2006). Methylated flavonoids have greatly improved intestinal absorption and metabolic stability. *Drug Metabolism and Disposition*, 34(10), 1786-1792.
- Wen, X., & Walle, T. (2006). Methylation protects dietary flavonoids from rapid hepatic metabolism. *Xenobiotica*, 36(5), 387-397.
- Whitman, S., Kurowska, E., Manthey, J., & Daugherty, A. (2005). Nobiletin, a citrus flavonoid isolated from tangerines, selectively inhibits class A scavenger receptor-mediated metabolism of acetylated LDL by mouse macrophages. *Atherosclerosis*, 178(1), 25-32.
- Wilson, M., Rimando, A., & Wolkow, C. (2008). Methoxylation enhances stilbene bioactivity in caenorhabditis elegans. *BMC Pharmacology*, 8(1), 15-25.
- World Health Organization. (2011). *Cancer -fact sheet N°297.*, 2011, from <http://www.who.int/mediacentre/factsheets/fs297/en/index.html>
- Xiao, H., Yang, C. S., Li, S., Jin, H., Ho, C., & Patel, T. (2009). Monodemethylated polymethoxyflavones from sweet orange (citrus sinensis) peel inhibit growth of human lung cancer cells by apoptosis. *Molecular Nutrition & Food Research*, 53(3), 398-406.
- Yee, S. (1997). In vitro permeability across caco-2 cells (colonic) can predict in vivo (small intestinal) absorption in Man—*Fact or myth*. *Pharmaceutical Research*, 14(6), 763-766.
- Yoshiyuki, K., Hiromichi, O., & Shigeru, A. (1985). Effects of stilbenes on arachidonate metabolism in leukocytes. *Biochimica Et Biophysica Acta (BBA) - Lipids and Lipid Metabolism*, 834(2), 275-278.