

**UNIVERSIDADE FEDERAL DE SANTA MARIA  
CENTRO DE CIÊNCIAS NATURAIS E EXATAS  
PROGRAMA DE PÓS-GRADUAÇÃO EM CIÊNCIAS BIOLÓGICAS:  
BIOQUÍMICA TOXICOLÓGICA**

**ESTUDO DO POTENCIAL ANTIOXIDANTE DA ESPÉCIE *Caryocar coriaceum* Wittm.  
EM MODELOS EXPERIMENTAIS *IN VITRO* E *IN VIVO***

**Sandra Mara Pimentel Duavy**

**Santa Maria, RS  
2016**

Sandra Mara Pimentel Duavy

**ESTUDO DO POTENCIAL ANTIOXIDANTE DA ESPÉCIE *Caryocar coriaceum* Wittm.  
EM MODELOS EXPERIMENTAIS *IN VITRO* E *IN VIVO***

Tese apresentada ao Programa de Pós-Graduação  
em Ciências Biológicas: Bioquímica Toxicológica  
da Universidade Federal de Santa Maria (UFSM),  
como requisito para obtenção do título de Doutora  
em Bioquímica Toxicológica

Orientadora: Nilda Berenice de Vargas Barbosa  
Co-orientador: José Galberto Martins da Costa

Santa Maria, RS  
2016

**Sandra Mara Pimentel Duavy**

**ESTUDO DO POTENCIAL ANTIOXIDANTE DA ESPÉCIE *Caryocar coriaceum* Wittm.  
EM MODELOS EXPERIMENTAIS *IN VITRO* E *IN VIVO***

Tese apresentada ao Programa de Pós-Graduação  
em Ciências Biológicas: Bioquímica Toxicológica  
da Universidade Federal de Santa Maria (UFSM),  
como requisito para obtenção do título de Doutora  
em Bioquímica Toxicológica

Aprovada em 29 de abril de 2016

---

Prof<sup>a</sup> Dra. Nilda Berenice de Vargas Barbosa - UFSM  
(Presidente/Orientadora)

---

Prof<sup>o</sup> Dr. José Galberto Martins da Costa – URCA  
(Co-Orientador)

---

Prof<sup>a</sup> Dra. Cristiane Lenz Dalla Corte - UNIPAMPA

---

Prof<sup>o</sup> Dr. Denis Rosemberg - UFSM

---

Prof<sup>o</sup> Dr. Vanderlei Folmer - UNIPAMPA

---

Prof<sup>o</sup> Dr. Irwin Rose Alencar de Menezes - URCA

Santa Maria, RS

2016

## AGRADECIMENTOS

A Deus por me dar a vida e com ela a possibilidade de escolher os caminhos a serem percorridos, não me desamparando em momento algum. Agradeço por ter me conduzido na direção de pessoas que não só ajudaram na pesquisa, mas que passaram a fazer parte da minha vida. Senhor, obrigada por ser a força que me faz acreditar e seguir...

Aos meus amados e constantes pais, por não desviar o olhar de mim e me acompanhar física e/ou espiritualmente com amor e abnegação por onde ando. Mãe, a senhora é uma bênção na minha vida.

Ao amado e fiel amigo, meu filho Joaquim, que apesar de tão pequeno foi adquirindo maturidade e no seu tempo foi entendendo pouco a pouco a caminhada da mãe. Como é grandioso o amor, é indescritível a sensação de amar!

Aos meus irmãos, Suênia Duavy e Paulo Duavy, que mesmo imbuídos em seus problemas cotidianos torcem pelo meu crescimento profissional.

À orientadora e amiga Nilda Vargas Barbosa pela confiança e apoio desde o início; por ter aberto o seu laboratório, por ter propiciado condições para eu desenvolver essa pesquisa e por compreender cada momento pessoal que atravessei.

Ao professor doutor e co-orientador José Galberto Martins da Costa pela disponibilidade com que me acolheu em seu laboratório para os importantes passos iniciais e as oportunas conversas sobre a pesquisa. À Fabíola Rodrigues, Fábio Rodrigues, Walmir e Valéria do LPPN da URCA pela ajuda nos momentos iniciais. À Larissa e Lidianny, acadêmicas de enfermagem, pela ajuda na coleta e manuseio do pequi.

A Assis Ecker, quantas afinidades! Uma pessoa que se dedicou a “minha” pesquisa diuturnamente desde o desenho experimental até a submissão dos manuscritos, um amigo que em todos os momentos se mostrou disponível a trabalhar nessa pesquisa como se fosse a sua própria, com certeza um amigo que vai além das fronteiras do trabalho.

A Gerson Torres, uma bela e amada surpresa da vida. Obrigada pela sua contribuição na execução de vários testes e pelas sugestões durante todo o trabalho.

Aos colegas dos laboratórios de Nilda e João da UFSM, Matheus dos Santos, Alessandro Prestes, Vanise Hallas, Gabriel Macedo, Litiele Cruz e René e Emily Wackzuk que fazem do laboratório um ambiente de cooperação mútua; à Gerlânia Leite pela amizade e alegre convívio, à Angélica Ramos e Rafael Ferreira (*in memoriam*) por se dedicarem aos experimentos durante a primeira etapa desse estudo e em especial a Rodrigo Seeger, pela participação em diversas etapas da pesquisa.

À Irene Maciel pelo apoio imprescindível no cuidado com Joaquim e comigo. À Marta Maria Almeida por me ajudar em conselhos, incentivos e convívio durante todos os anos em que nos conhecemos. À Cleide Correia, pela recente amizade, pelos planejamentos das viagens, pelas conversas de apoio e estímulo, "... um dia a gente termina".

Aos professores e funcionários do Programa de Pós-Graduação da UFSM. Em especial ao professor João Batista Teixeira da Rocha pela corajosa iniciativa de expandir o conhecimento para outros cantos do país e contribuir para o crescimento individual e institucional na região do Cariri. Lembro também da professora Maria Ester Pereira pela atenção com que sempre me tratou. E o professor Antônio Álamo Feitosa Saraiva pela coordenação do doutorado na URCA.

“MESMO QUANDO TUDO PARECE DESABAR, CABE A MIM DECIDIR ENTRE RIR OU CHORAR, IR  
OU FICAR, DESISTIR OU LUTAR; PORQUE DESCOBRI NO CAMINHO INCERTO DA VIDA QUE O  
MAIS IMPORTANTE É O **DECIDIR**”

(Cora Coralina)

## RESUMO

### ESTUDO DO POTENCIAL ANTIOXIDANTE DA ESPÉCIE *Caryocar coriaceum* Wittm. EM MODELOS EXPERIMENTAIS *IN VITRO* E *IN VIVO*

AUTORA: Sandra Mara Pimentel Duavy

ORIENTADORA: Nilda Berenice de Vargas Barbosa

Apesar da diversidade das espécies encontradas na Chapada do Araripe, Cariri cearense, são escassos os estudos com *Caryocar coriaceum* Wittm. (*C. coriaceum*), planta que origina um fruto altamente consumido na culinária regional. O óleo extraído da polpa também é bastante usado na medicina popular para o tratamento de infecções respiratórias e doenças articulares. Pesquisas com óleo da polpa vêm consolidando propriedades terapêuticas da espécie. No entanto, esse é o primeiro estudo com extratos de folhas da planta e óleo da polpa da fruta que avalia marcadores de estresse oxidativo e a expressão gênica de enzimas antioxidantes *in vivo*, usando *Drosophila melanogaster*. A atividade antioxidant da atividade dos extratos de folhas e da casca do fruto também foi avaliada em testes *in vitro*. Os compostos fenólicos majoritários dos extratos identificados por HPLC-DAD foram queracetina, ácido clorogênico e elágico. Nos testes *in vitro*, os extratos exibiram semelhante e significante atividade sequestradora de radical DPPH<sup>•</sup> e OH<sup>•</sup>; foram efetivos em reduzir e quinar ferro, assim como, diminuíram a peroxidação lipídica induzida pelo ferro e a produção de espécies reativas induzidas por cálcio em homogenato de fígado de ratos. No entanto, os extratos não modificaram os níveis O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> em mitocôndrias tratadas com antimicina A. Na etapa do estudo *in vivo*, as moscas foram pré-tratadas com uma dieta contendo extrato aquoso da folha (EAF) (1 e 5 mg/g dieta) e/ou óleo da polpa de pequi (OPP) (1, 5 e 10mg/g dieta) durante 7 dias, seguida pela exposição ao paraquat (PQ) (10mM) por 24 horas. Um terceiro tratamento foi realizado com EAF concomitantemente a exposição ao PQ (1mM) por 5 dias. A análise da geotaxia negativa foi realizada para avaliar a habilidade locomotora das moscas. O homogenato de moscas foi usado para analisar marcadores de estresse oxidativo especificamente, a determinação da atividade da catalase (CAT) e da Glutatona S-Transferase (GST), os níveis de EROs e da peroxidação lipídica. Foram avaliadas as expressões de mRNA de genes de enzimas antioxidantes CAT, superóxido dismutase (SOD), Tioredoxina redutase-1 (TrxR-1), Tioredoxina T (TrxT) e da proteína Keap 1, através de qRT-PCR. As moscas expostas ao PQ apresentaram um significante prejuízo no comportamento locomotor, um aumento expressivo dos marcadores do estresse oxidativo e na expressão de mRNA para CAT, SOD, Trx R-1, Trx T e Keap 1. As concentrações do EAF e do OPP, em todos os tratamentos, reduziram significativamente os níveis de MDA e revertem o prejuízo locomotor induzido pela exposição ao PQ. Em ambos os tratamentos com EAF, as moscas expostas ao PQ tiveram uma diminuição dos níveis de EROs e da atividade de CAT e GST. As moscas submetidas ao tratamento concomitante com EAF e PQ apresentaram uma diminuição significativa na expressão dos genes Trx R-1 e Trx T, a qual havia sido aumentada no grupo exposto somente ao PQ. No pré-tratamento com OPP (10mg/g dieta), um efeito similar foi verificado na expressão dos genes CAT, SOD, Keap 1 e Trx T. Os dados obtidos mostram que os tratamentos com o EAF de *C. coriaceum* e o OPP reduziram os marcadores de estresse oxidativo induzidos por PQ e sugerem que este efeito pode estar relacionado, pelo menos em parte com a modulação do sistema antioxidante. Este estudo colaborou para aumentar o conhecimento sobre as propriedades farmacológicas da espécie *C. coriaceum* bem como para potencializar seu uso como alimento funcional.

**Palavras-chave:** *Caryocar coriaceum* Wittm., pequi, estresse oxidativo, enzimas antioxidantes, *Drosophila melanogaster*.

## ABSTRACT

### EVALUATION OF THE ANTIOXIDANT POTENTIAL FROM *Caryocar coriaceum* Wittm. *IN VITRO AND IN VIVO*

AUTHOR: Sandra Mara Pimentel Duavy

ADVISOR: Nilda Berenice de Vargas Barbosa

Despite the diversity of species found in the National Araripe Forest, Ceará Cariri, there are few studies with *Caryocar coriaceum* Wittm (*C. coriaceum*), a plant that produces a highly consumed fruit in regional cuisine. The oil extracted from the pulp is also widely used in popular medicine for the treatment of respiratory infections and joint diseases. Studies with oil pulp have consolidated therapeutic properties of species. However, this is the first study with plant leaf extracts and oil from the fruit pulp that assesses markers of oxidative stress and gene expression of antioxidant enzymes *in vivo* using *Drosophila melanogaster*. The antioxidant activity of leaf and fruit peel extracts was evaluated *in vitro*. The major phenolic compounds from extracts, identified by HPLC-DAD, were quercetin, chlorogenic acid and ellagic. In *in vitro* tests, the extracts exhibited similar and significant DPPH<sup>•</sup> and OH<sup>•</sup> scavenging activity, were effective in reducing and chelating iron as well as decreasing lipid peroxidation and production of reactive oxygen species induced by iron and calcium, respectively, in liver homogenate. The extracts did not change the levels O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> in mitochondria treated with antimycin A. In *in vivo* study, flies were pretreated with a diet containing aqueous leaf extract (AEL) (1 and 5 mg/g diet) and/or pequi pulp oil (PPO) (1, 5 and 10mg/g diet) for 7 days followed by exposure to paraquat (PQ) (10mM) for 24 hours. A third treatment was performed concomitantly with AEL and PQ (1mM) for 5 days. The analysis of the negative geotaxis was performed to evaluate locomotor ability of flies. Flies homogenate was used to analyze oxidative stress markers specifically activity of catalase (CAT) and glutathione-s-transferase (GST), levels of ROS and peroxidation lipid by levels of TBARS. We evaluated the mRNA expression of antioxidant enzyme genes CAT, superoxide dismutase (SOD), Thioredoxin reductase-1 (Trx R-1), Thioredoxin T (Trx T) and Keap 1 protein by qRT-PCR. Flies exposed to PQ showed a significant impairment in locomotor activity, increase in oxidative stress markers and gene expression of CAT, SOD, Trx R-1, Trx T and Keap 1. The concentrations AEL and OPP, in all treatments, reduced significantly lipid peroxidation levels and reversed locomotor changes induced by exposure to PQ. In both AEL treatments, flies exposed to PQ had a reduction in ROS levels and CAT and GST activities. Flies concomitantly treated with AEL and PQ exhibited a significant decrease in expression of Trx R-1 and Trx T genes, which were increased in the PQ group. Pre-treatment with PPO of 10mg/g diet, we verified a decrease the expression of genes CAT, SOD, Keap 1 and Trx T, which were increased in the group exposed to PQ alone. The data obtained in this study show that the treatment with AEL and PPO reduced oxidative stress markers induced by PQ and suggest that this effect may be related, at least in part, to the antioxidant system modulation. Moreover, these results will collaborate to extend the knowledge about the scientific properties of *C. coriaceum* as well as point it as a promising functional food.

**Keywords:** *Caryocar coriaceum* Wittm., pequi, oxidative stress, antioxidants enzymes, *Drosophila melanogaster*.

## **LISTA DE FIGURAS**

### **INTRODUÇÃO**

Figura 1 - A) Pequizeiro. B) Folha do pequizeiro. C) Pequi, fruto do pequizeiro. Mi: Mesocarpo interno ou polpa; Me: Mesocarpo externo (casca do fruto).....	18
Figura 2 – Localização geográfica da Chapada do Araripe.....	19
Figura 3 – Fórmula estrutural do ácido clorogênico.....	23
Figura 4 – Estrutura química do ácido elágico.....	24
Figura 5 – Estrutura nuclear dos flavonóides.....	25
Figura 6 – A) Reação de transferência de elétron. B) Redução do Fe <sup>+3</sup> .....	26
Figura 7 – Produção de EROs na mitocôndria.....	28
Figura 8 – Produção de lipoperoxidação e formação de EROs.....	31
Figura 9 – Mecanismo de defesa antioxidante enzimático.....	32
Figura 10 – <i>Drosophila melanogaster</i> .....	33
Figura 11 – Ciclo redox do paraquat.....	37

## **LISTA DE TABELAS**

Tabela 1 - Composição do óleo da polpa de <i>C. coriaceum</i> comparada a da espécie <i>C. brasiliense</i> .....	20
Tabela 2 – Características de algumas Espécies Reativas de Oxigênio (EROs).....	27

## **LISTA DE ESQUEMAS**

Esquema 1 - Compostos fenólicos encontrados nos alimentos vegetais.....	22
---	----

## **MANUSCRITO 1**

Figure 1. Representative high performance liquid chromatography profile of (a) AEL, (b) EEL and (c) EEB from <i>C. coriaceum</i> .....	44
	45
Figure 2. DPPH scavenging activity from <i>C. coriaceum</i> extracts.....	
Figure 3. Hydroxyl radical scavenging activity of the AEL (A), EEL (B) and EEB (C) from <i>C. coriaceum</i> .....	46
Figure 4. Chelating and reducing activity of AEL (A), EEL (B) and EEB (C) from <i>C. coriaceum</i> . The extracts (50µg/ml) were incubated in a medium containing Fe <sup>+2</sup> and/or Fe <sup>+3</sup> in the presence of θ-phenanthroline (300µM). ....	47
Figure 5. Effect of extracts from <i>C. coriaceum</i> on lipid peroxidation induced by FeSO <sub>4</sub> in liver homogenate. The liver samples were incubated for 1h with FeSO <sub>4</sub> (50µM) in the presence of AEL (A), EEL (B) or EEB (C). ....	47
Figure 6. Effect of AEL (A), EEL (B) and EEB (C) from <i>C. coriaceum</i> on mitochondrial superoxide radical formation stimulated by Antimycin A-induced.....	48
Figure 7. Effect of AEL (A), EEL (B) and EEB (C) from <i>C. coriaceum</i> on calcium-induced ROS overproduction in liver homogenate.....	49

## **LISTA DE TABELA**

Table 1. Quantification of some phenolic compounds from <i>C. coriaceum</i> .....	45
---	----

## **MANUSCRITO 2**

Figure 1. High performance liquid chromatography profile of <i>C.coriaceum</i> aqueous leaf extract.....	74
Figure 2. Survival curve of flies exposed to paraquat and pre-treated with AEL (A), co-treated with AEL (B) and pre-treated with CCPO (C) from <i>C. coriaceum</i> .....	75
Figure 3. Effect of leaf extract and oil pulp of pequi on negative geotaxis assay in flies exposed to paraquat.....	76
Figure 4. Effect of leaf extract and oil pulp of pequi on dichlorofluorescein fluorescence levels (DCF) in <i>D. melanogaster</i> exposed to paraquat.....	77

Figure 5. Effect of leaf extract and oil pulp of pequi on TBARS levels (MDA) in flies exposed to paraquat.....	78
Figure 6. Effect of leaf extract and oil pulp of pequi on CAT and GST activity in flies exposed to paraquat.....	79
Figure 7. qRT-PCR analyses of CAT, SOD, Keap1, Trx R - 1, Trx T gene expression of flies exposed to paraquat and treated with leaf extract and oil pulp of Pequi.....	80-81

### **LISTA DE TABELAS**

Table 1. Quantification of some phenolic compounds from <i>C. coriaceum</i> .....	74
Table 2. qRT-PCR Primer Sequence .....	82

## LISTA DE ABREVIATURAS E SIGLAS

$^1\text{O}_2$ : Oxigênio singlet  
ATP: Adenina Trifosfato  
CAT: Catalase  
CTE: Cadeia Transportadora de Elétrons  
DCFH-DA: Diacetato de Diclorofluoresceína  
DNA: Ácido Desoxirribonucleico  
EAF: Extrato Aquoso de Folhas  
EEC: Extrato Etanólico de Cascas  
EEF: Extrato Etanólico de Folhas  
ER: Espécies Reativas  
ERO: Espécies Reativas de Oxigênio  
 $\text{Fe}^{+2}$ : Íon ferroso  
 $\text{Fe}^{+3}$ : Íon férrico  
FMN: Flavina Mononucleotídeo  
G6PDH: Glicose 6-Fosfato Desidrogenase  
GPx: Glutationa Peroxidase  
GR: Glutationa Redutase  
GSH: Glutationa Reduzida  
GSSG: Glutationa Disulfito  
GST: Glutationa-S-Transferase  
 $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ : Peróxido de Hidrogênio  
HPLC: High-Performance Liquide Chromatografy  
Keap 1: Kelch-like ECH-associated Protein 1  
 $\text{L}^\cdot$ : Radical Lipídico  
 $\text{LOO}^\cdot$ : Radical Peroxil  
LOOH: Hidroperóxido Lipídico  
MDA: Malondialdeído  
 $\text{NADP}^+$ : Nicotinamida Adenina Dinucleotídeo Fostato  
NADPH: Nicotinamida Adenina Dinucleotídeo Fosfato, forma reduzida  
Nrf2: Fator relacionado ao NF-E2  
 $\text{O}_2^-$ : Ânion Superóxido  
 $\text{OH}^\cdot$ : Radical Hidroxil  
OPP: Óleo da Polpa de Pequi  
qRT-PCR: Reação em Cadeia de Polimerase quantitativa associada à Transcrição Reversa)  
RNA: Ácido Ribonucléico  
SOD: Superóxido Dismutase  
TBARS: Substâncias Reativas ao Ácido Tiobarbitúrico  
TRX: Tioredoxina  
TrxR-1: Tioredoxina Redutase

## SUMÁRIO

<b>1</b>	<b>INTRODUÇÃO</b>	<b>14</b>
1.1	PEQUI – CARYOCAR CORIACEUM WITTM.	16
1.2	COMPOSTOS FENÓLICOS	20
1.3	ESTRESSE OXIDATIVO	25
1.3.1	<b>Espécies Reativas de Oxigênio (EROS)</b>	<b>25</b>
1.3.2	<b>Ferro</b>	<b>28</b>
1.3.3	<b>Peroxidação lipídica</b>	<b>29</b>
1.3.4	<b>Defesa antioxidante endógena</b>	<b>30</b>
1.4	<i>DROSOPHILA MELANOGASTER</i>	32
1.4.1	<b>Genes envolvidos na defesa antioxidante</b>	<b>33</b>
1.5	PARAQUAT	35
1.6	OBJETIVO GERAL	36
1.6.1	<b>Objetivos específicos</b>	<b>36</b>
<b>2</b>	<b>MANUSCRITO</b>	<b>38</b>
2.1	MANUSCRITO 1	38
2.2	MANUSCRITO 2	53
<b>3</b>	<b>DISCUSSÃO</b>	<b>83</b>
<b>4</b>	<b>CONCLUSÃO</b>	<b>89</b>
	<b>REFERÊNCIAS</b>	<b>91</b>
	<b>ANEXO A-</b> Atividade antioxidante dos EAF, EEF e EEC de <i>C. coriaceum</i> em testes <i>in vitro</i> e em fígado de ratos	<b>106</b>

## **APRESENTAÇÃO**

A tese está dividida em **INTRODUÇÃO**, que contempla uma revisão da literatura sobre os assuntos abordados, os **OBJETIVOS** gerais e específicos da tese.

Os materiais e métodos assim como os resultados obtidos nessa pesquisa estão descritos no item **MANUSCRITOS** e nele constam tópicos, Introdução, Materiais e Métodos, Resultados, Discussão e Referências. No item **DISCUSSÃO E CONCLUSÕES** encontram-se descritos comentários relacionados ao que se considera mais relevante dentro do que foi pesquisado. E por fim, as **REFERÊNCIAS**, item que apresenta as citações feitas na INTRODUÇÃO e DISCUSSÃO.

## 1 INTRODUÇÃO

Muitas das propriedades biológicas das plantas usadas para fins medicinais estão associadas à sua constituição de compostos bioativos, como os compostos fenólicos (MATOS, 2000). Em sua grande parte, estes compostos do metabolismo da planta exibem funções de proteção ao vegetal e capacidade antioxidante contra danos oxidativos (DZIKI et al., 2014).

Grande parte das doenças em humanos tem sua origem e/ou progressão em reações deletérias de base oxidativa, que são em parte responsáveis por injúrias moleculares que ocorrem na célula (HALLIWELL, 2007a; HOFER et al., 2014). Consequentemente, o interesse pela pesquisa com produtos naturais que possam potencialmente retardar ou atenuar os danos teciduais associados ao estresse oxidativo tem crescido consideravelmente nas últimas décadas (SUDATI et al., 2013; RANGEL-HUERTA et al., 2015).

O estresse oxidativo resultante do desequilíbrio entre a produção excessiva de Espécies Reativas de Oxigênio (ERO) e a depleção de agentes redutores, pode culminar com danos no material genético, causar peroxidação lipídica e inativar enzimas do sistema de defesa (CADENAS e DAVIES, 2000; WEIDINGER e KOZLOV, 2015). Os diferentes organismos são dotados de antioxidantes enzimáticos e de antioxidantes não-enzimáticos (FRIDOVICH, 1995; PEREZ et al., 2009). Dentre os antioxidantes exógenos, destacam-se os carotenóides e compostos fenólicos conhecidos como antioxidantes naturais (VELIOGLU et al., 1998).

A capacidade antioxidante dos compostos fenólicos basicamente pode ser comprovada pelo potencial em sequestrar radicais livres e quitar metais pró-oxidantes (PERRON e BRUMAGHIM, 2009; COSTA et al., 2012). Isso explica, em parte, a correlação entre a ingestão de vegetais ricos em compostos fenólicos e a redução do risco de doenças, como as cardiovasculares (KRIS-ETHERTON et al., 2002). Estes também podem modular a expressão gênica de enzimas antioxidantes nos processos intracelulares envolvidos na defesa contra o estresse oxidativo (MANACH et al., 2005; JI et al., 2013).

No nordeste do Brasil, na Chapada do Araripe, estado do Ceará, o fruto oleaginoso da árvore *C. coriaceum* Wittm., popularmente conhecido como pequi, é comumente usado na culinária e na medicina tradicional. Nesta última, salienta-se o amplo uso para o tratamento de doenças inflamatórias (OLIVEIRA et al., 2010b; RIBEIRO et al., 2014).

Experimentalmente já foi demonstrado que o óleo da polpa do fruto reduz lesões gástricas induzidas por etanol e AAS (ácido acetil salicílico) em camundongos (QUIRINO et al., 2009). No entanto, estudos sobre os possíveis mecanismos envolvidos nos efeitos benéficos oriundos do pequi são escassos na literatura. Da mesma forma, poucos trabalhos exploram a espécie *C. coriaceum*, principalmente as folhas da planta e a casca do fruto.

Embora não se tenham muitos estudos experimentais com a espécie *C. coriaceum*, sabe-se que extratos das folhas da espécie *Caryocar brasiliense* (*C. brasiliense*), exibem atividade hepatoprotetora, anti-fúngica, anti-bactericida e antitumoral (PASSOS et al., 2002; PAULA-JÚNIOR, 2006; ROESLER et al., 2008). O chá das folhas de *C. brasiliense* é comumente usado como regulador do fluxo menstrual pela população (ALMEIDA et al., 1994). A polpa e o óleo da amêndoa são usados pela população na cicatrização de feridas e no tratamento de doenças do aparelho respiratório (KHOURI et al., 2007).

Em ambas as espécies, *C. brasiliense* e *C. coriaceum*, o estudo sobre a composição fitoquímica do fruto prevalece em relação às pesquisas com a casca e a folha da planta. Em extrato da casca de *C. brasiliense* tem sido relatada uma alta concentração de quercetina e componentes ácidos, como ácido gálico e ácido quínico (ROESLER et al., 2007; ROESLER et al., 2008). O extrato da folha de *C. coriaceum* apresenta alta concentração de rutina, quercetina e ácido clorogênico (ARARUNA et al., 2013). É possível que esses componentes, sejam responsáveis, pelo menos em parte, pelas propriedades farmacológicas da espécie (LEOPOLDINI et al., 2006).

Estudos farmacológicos e/ou toxicológicos em modelos alternativos tem aumentado notavelmente nas últimas décadas, entre eles a mosca da fruta, *Drosophila melanogaster* (*D. melanogaster*), uma vez que compartilha diversos genes que justificam a pesquisa de algumas doenças humanas de base oxidativa (BENFORD et al., 2000).

Pautada, nas informações citadas acima e considerando o uso do fruto e das folhas da planta de *C. coriaceum* na medicina popular bem como a falta de conhecimento científico sobre as propriedades bioquímicas dessa espécie, torna-se necessária a realização de estudos com este foco. Assim, o presente trabalho foi desenvolvido com a finalidade de investigar o potencial antioxidante da espécie *C. coriaceum*, enfatizando as folhas (Figura 1B), a casca e o óleo da polpa do fruto. Os testes foram realizados em modelos experimentais *in vitro* e *in vivo* usando *Drosophila melanogaster*.

## 1.1 PEQUI – CARYOCAR CORIACEUM WITTM.

O pequizeiro é uma espécie arbórea nativa do cerrado brasileiro (Figura 1A) pertencente à família *Caryocaraceae* e a ordem *Malpighiales* e é representada por dois gêneros: *Caryocar* e *Anthodiscus*, com 25 espécies (ASCARI et al., 2013). Dentre as espécies do gênero *Caryocar*, destacam-se no Brasil: *C. brasiliense*, *C. coriaceum*, *C. villosum*, *C. cuneatum* e *C. glabrum* (ARAÚJO, 1995; PAULA-JÚNIOR, 2006; ASCARI et al., 2013).

O fruto, popularmente conhecido como pequi, é constituído por exocarpo ou pericarpo, de coloração esverdeada ou marrom-esverdeada, mesocarpo externo, camada branca com coloração pardo-acinzentada e mesocarpo interno (polpa) de coloração amarelada, que constitui a porção comestível do fruto e separa-se facilmente do mesocarpo externo quando maduro (Figura 1C). O endocarpo, que é espinhoso, protege a semente ou amêndoas, que é revestida por um tegumento fino e marrom, sendo também uma porção comestível (RAMOS e SOUZA, 2011) (Figura 1). A polpa e a semente compreendem aproximadamente 25% do fruto e a casca (epicarpo mais mesocarpo externo), 75% (QUIRINO et al., 2009).

O óleo da polpa do fruto de *C. coriaceum*, possui excelente valor nutricional com elevada concentração de lipídios, especificamente, ácido graxo oleico (55,79%), ácido palmítico (34,18%) e ácido linoléico (1,80%). Por ser rico em ácido graxo monoinsaturado (LIMA et al., 1981, COSTA et al., 2011, Tabela 1) apresenta baixa velocidade de oxidação comparado a ácidos graxos com um número maior de ligações duplas (WENZEL, 2013). Também é rico em vitamina A e minerais, especialmente fósforo, cálcio, cobre e ferro (OLIVEIRA et al., 2010a; RAMOS e SOUZA, 2011).

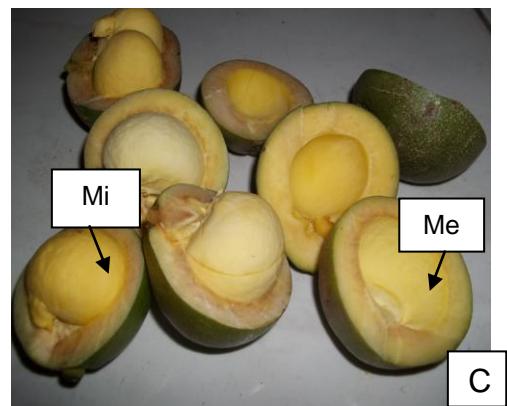
Em pesquisa voltada para avaliar o conhecimento, uso e gestão de *C. coriaceum* em uma comunidade da Chapada do Araripe, Sousa Júnior e colaboradores (2013) constataram que 96,4% dos informantes usam o fruto como alimento e em relação ao seu derivado, 96,4% produz o óleo, sendo que 82,1% usam para fins medicinais e 5,3% na produção de cosméticos.



A



B



C

Figura 1 - A) Pequizeiro (OLIVEIRA, 2016); B) Folha do pequizeiro; C) Pequi, fruto do pequizeiro. Mi: Mesocarpo interno ou polpa; Me: Mesocarpo externo (casca do fruto). Fonte: Autora.

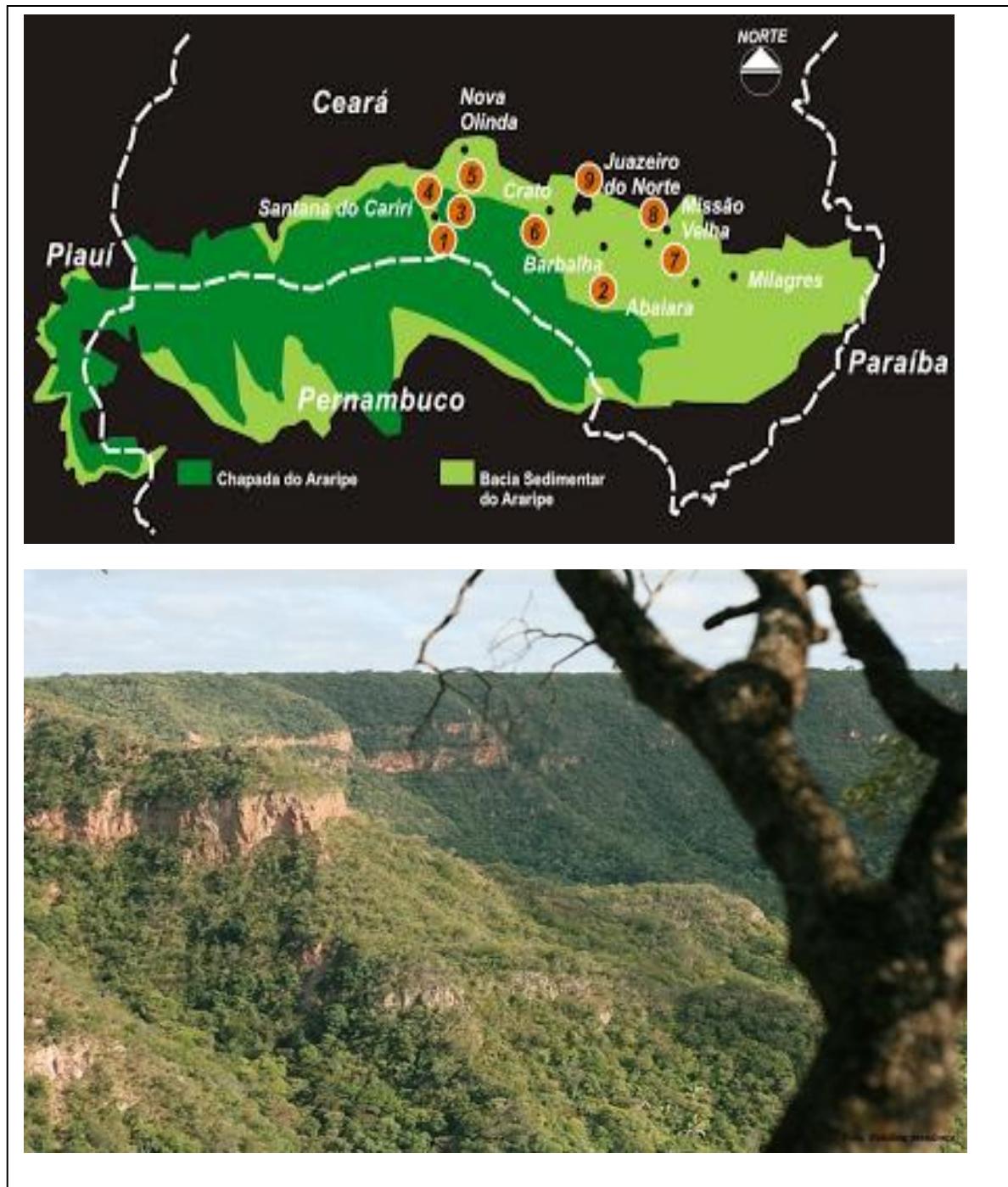


Figura 2 - Localização geográfica da Chapada do Araripe. (Fonte: [www.chapadadoararipe.com](http://www.chapadadoararipe.com))

Tabela 1 - Composição do óleo da polpa de *C. coriaceum* comparada à espécie *C. brasiliense*.

Ácido graxo	g/100g óleo			
	<i>C.coriaceum</i> <sup>a</sup>	<i>C.coriaceum</i> <sup>b</sup>	<i>C.brasiliense</i> <sup>c</sup>	<i>C.brasiliense</i> <sup>d</sup>
Palmitic (C16:0)	34.18	31.65	34.4	40.2
Palmitoleic (C16:1)	0.27	–	2.1	1.4
Estearic (C18:0)	1.73	1.83	1.8	2.3
Oleic (C18:1)	55.79	64.21	57.4	53.9
Linoleic (C18:2)	1.80	2.29	2.8	1.5
Linolenic (C18:3)	–	–	1.0	0.7
Araquidic (C20:0)	–	–	–	0.2
Heptadecenoic (C17:1)	5.86	–	–	–
Eicosenoic (C20:1)	0.37	–	–	–

<sup>a</sup>Present research; <sup>b</sup>Figueiredo et al, 1989; <sup>c</sup>Brasil, 1985; <sup>d</sup>Facioli et al, 1998 (Fonte: Costa et al, 2011).

Experimentalmente já foi demonstrado que o óleo da polpa e da semente do fruto exibem propriedades anti-inflamatórias em lesões gástricas e feridas cutâneas (QUIRINO et al., 2009; OLIVEIRA et al., 2010b; SARAIVA et al., 2011).

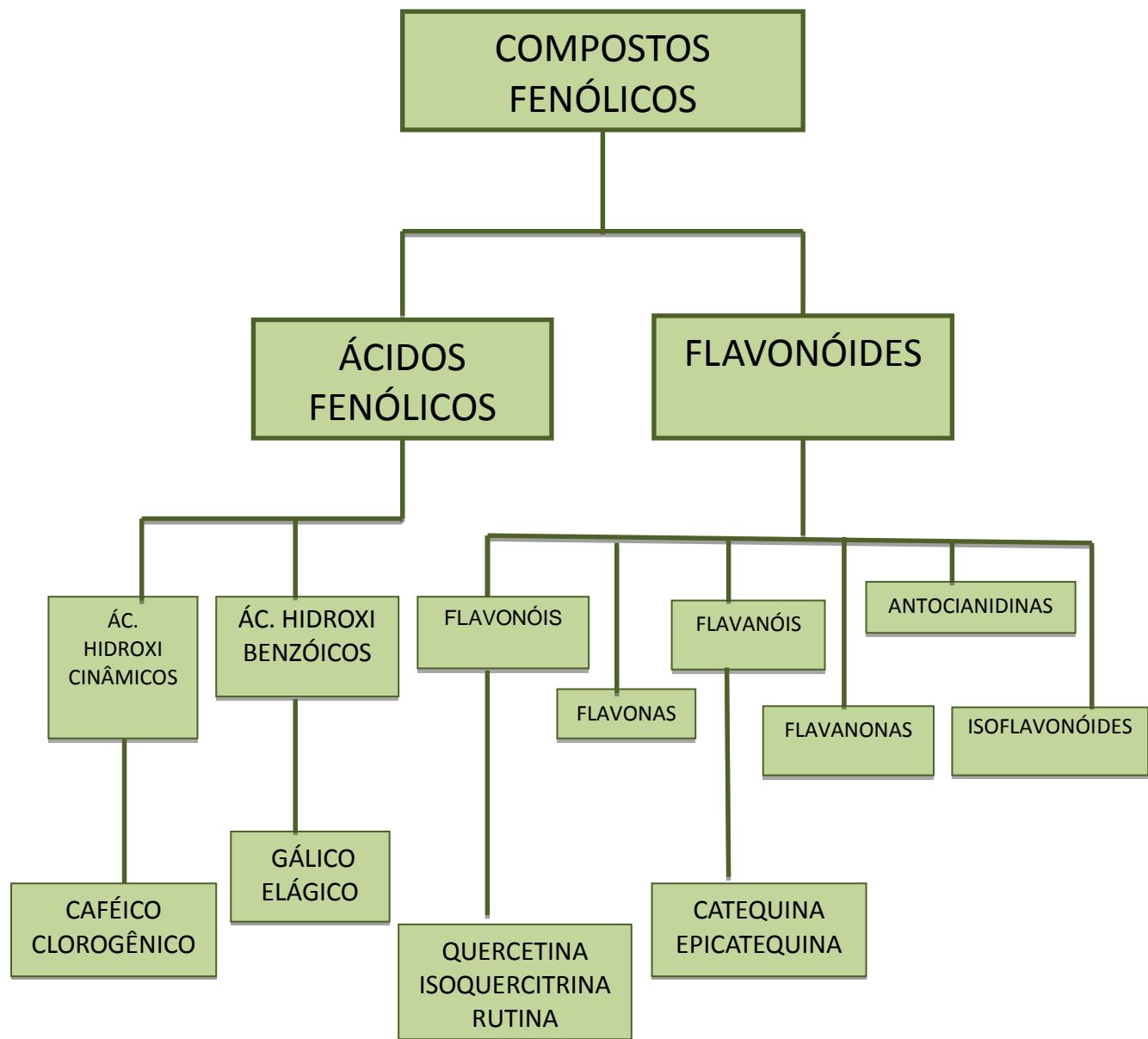
Estudos sobre os mecanismos envolvidos nos efeitos benéficos da espécie *C. coriaceum* são escassos na literatura e poucos trabalhos exploram partes como as folhas da planta e a casca do fruto, as quais também usadas na medicina popular, no entanto em menor escala quando comparados ao fruto (ASCARI et al, 2010) (Figura 1). Buscam-se fontes naturais de antioxidantes, como as cascas e folhas para aplicação

sustentável na indústria cosmética, farmacêutica e nutricional, partes do vegetal muitas vezes desperdiçada durante o processamento do vegetal.

## 1.2 COMPOSTOS FENÓLICOS

Os compostos fenólicos estão presentes em todos os vegetais consumidos ou não como alimentos, e se relacionam a processos metabólicos e de proteção das plantas (MATOS, 2000; SIMÕES et al., 2001), ocorrem na natureza como misturas de ésteres, éteres ou ácidos livres (MARQUES e FARAH, 2009) e são considerados potentes antioxidantes (DUARTE-ALMEIDA et al., 2006).

Os compostos fenólicos encontram-se agrupados em classes em função da sua estrutura química (MANACH et al, 2004) e são classificados em dois grandes grupos, flavonoides e ácidos fenólicos (Esquema 1) (LIMA et al., 2007; SATO et al., 2011), e segundo Manach et al. (2004), dividido em quatro categorias: ácidos fenólicos, flavonóides, estilbenos e lignanos; sendo os ácidos fenólicos e flavonóides os mais estudados. Os ácidos fenólicos são fenóis simples pela sua estrutura química e apresentam duas constituições distintas, ácido hidroxicinâmico, maior subgrupo de compostos fenólicos (GÜLÇİN, 2006) exemplificado pelos ácidos caféico e clorogênico e, o ácido benzoico, exemplificado pelos ácidos elágico e gálico (ROBINNS, 2003, LOSSO et al., 2004).



Esquema 1 - Compostos fenólicos encontrados nos alimentos vegetais.  
Adaptado de LIMA, 2008

O ácido gálico possui grupo hidroxil na posição *meta* e *para*, e isso confere a alta habilidade sequestradora desse fenol (MATHEW et al., 2015). O ácido caféico e suas formas conjugadas (cafeoil éster) compreendem uma família de compostos com largo espectro de atividade biológica, como a atividade anti-inflamatória, antioxidante, antiglicação, antiviral e hepatoprotetora (MARQUES e FARAH, 2009; BASTOS et al., 2009). Gülçin (2006) ressalta o alto poder antioxidante do ácido caféico e clorogênico em diferentes sistemas.

O ácido clorogênico, composto abundantemente presente nos alimentos, é o maior representante do ácido hidroxinâmico. É um éster formado entre o ácido quínico e o caféico (ácido 5-cafeoilquínico) (SATO et al., 2011) (Figura 3). Em estudo sobre as propriedades antioxidantes do ácido clorogênico e ácido caféico em intestino de ratos submetidos a lesão por isquemia/reperfusão, foi identificada a atividade sequestradora do ânion superóxido pelo ácido caféico (SATO et al., 2011). Segundo Gülçin, 2006, o ácido caféico possui efetiva atividade antioxidante, uma vez que pode quelar íons ferrosos devido a presença de grupos hidroxil na sua estrutura química.

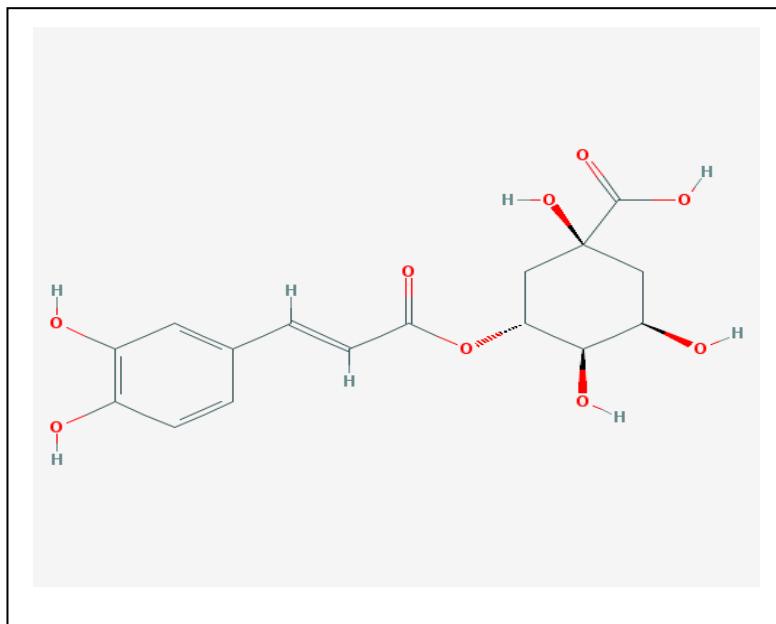


Figura 3 - Fórmula estrutural do ácido clorogênico (Fonte: U. S. National Library of Medicine/ National Center for Biotechnology Information, <http://pubchem.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/compound/1794427#section=Top>).

O ácido elágico é outro composto fenólico com atividade sequestradora atribuída às suas 4 OH nos anéis fenólicos unidas a estrutura benzofurano (HAYES et al., 2011) (Figura 4). Pode ser encontrado na forma livre ou glicolisada e está comumente presente em frutas como morango, romã, castanhas e uvas (LOSSO et al., 2004). A atividade antioxidante de um composto fenólico geralmente depende dos números e posições de grupos hidroxilas em relação ao grupo funcional carboxila (RICE-EVANS et al., 1996). Em vários testes realizados com produtos naturais disponíveis comercialmente foi determinada elevada atividade antioxidante do ácido elágico (HAYES et al., 2011).

A presença de hidroxilas fenólicas do ácido elágico é capaz de complexar o ferro em sistemas de Fe<sup>+3</sup> contendo ascorbato, diminuindo a disponibilidade de Fe<sup>+2</sup> (MATTOS, 2009; GINANI, 2005). Em sua grande parte, os compostos fenólicos exibem elevada capacidade antioxidante, possivelmente atribuída à atividade redutora e/ou quelante de íons metálicos como o ferro e à inativação de reações radicalares (OLIVEIRA et al., 2009; MAQSOOD et al., 2014). Em adição as suas propriedades antioxidantes, os compostos fenólicos podem agir como moduladores do estresse oxidativo na célula (ROMERO-JIMÉNEZ et al., 2005), através da doação de elétron pela presença do grupo catecol.

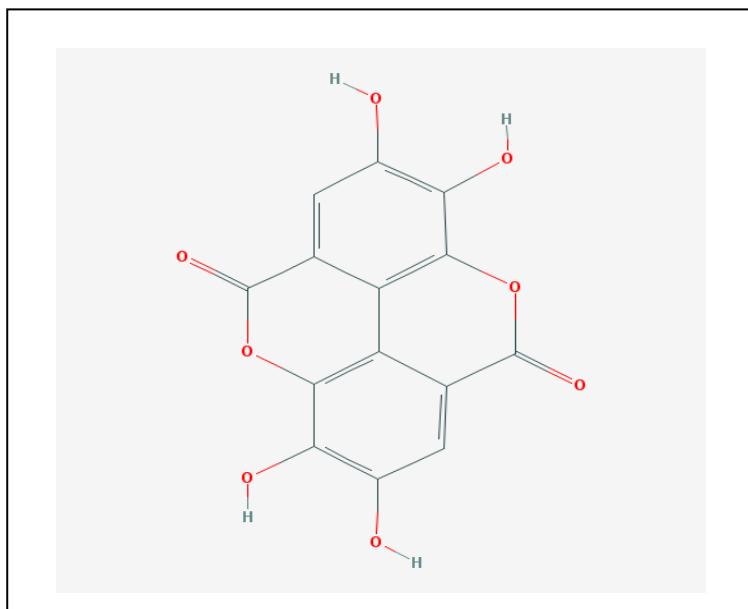


Figura 4 - Estrutura química do ácido elágico ((Fonte: U. S. National Library of Medicine/ National Center for Biotechnology Information, <http://pubchem.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/compound/1794427#section=Top>).

Em geral, os vegetais são ricos em ácidos fenólicos e como possuem também elevado teor de flavonóides, exercem possivelmente um maior papel protetor contra danos oxidativos (JIMENEZ-DEL-RIO et al., 2010). Os flavonóides, encontrados em plantas, são formados pela combinação de fenilalanina e tirosina com unidades de acetato (SOTIBRÁN et al., 2011) e podem ser divididos em subclasses conforme a posição dos grupos hidroxil e metoxil (ROSSO, 2013) e de acordo com a hidrogenação e a substituição do heterociclo, diferenciam-se em flavanóis, flavonas, flavenóis, flavanonas, antocianidinas e isoflavonóides (LIMA, 2008) (ESQUEMA 1). Eles são caracterizados por ter 15 carbonos (C6-C3-C6) no seu centro, o qual é composto por dois anéis fenólicos A e B e uma cadeia de 3 carbonos que pode ou não formar o terceiro anel (C). Suas atividades biológicas dependem da estrutura química e dos constituintes ligados a molécula, como açúcares, hidroxilas, carboxila entre outros que poderão modular o direcionamento intracelular destes compostos (RICE-EVANS et al., 1996; HUBER e RODRIGUEZ-AMAYA, 2008) (Figura 5).

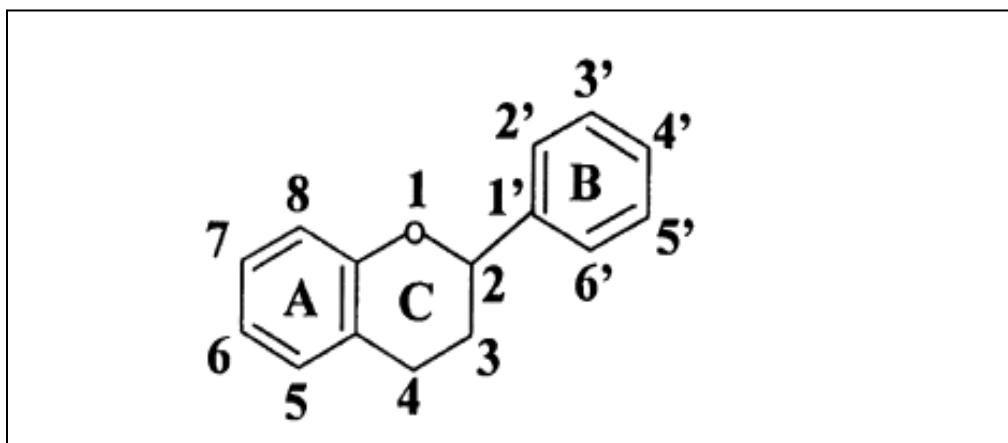


Figura 5 - Estrutura nuclear dos flavonóides (Fonte: HEIM et al, 2002)

Os flavonóides operam indiretamente em várias vias de proteção celular como na complexação de íons metais de transição (OLIVEIRA, et al., 2009), devido a seus múltiplos grupos hidroxila e o grupo carbonil na posição 4 do anel C (LEOPOLDINI et al., 2006) assim como no potencial de redução, determinante no sequestro de EROs devido a sua estrutura orto-dihidroxi no anel B (grupo catecol) (PANNALA et al., 2001) e a 2,3 dupla ligação em conjugação com a função 4-oxo no anel C (HUBER e RODRIGUEZ-AMAYA, 2008; KING e YOUNG, 1999; WAHSHA et al., 2012; LEOPOLDINI et al., 2011).

Flavonóides com o grupo catecol no anel B (ex.: queracetina), formam radical semi-quinona, os quais não são capazes de oxidar a GSH (Glutationa), importante

antioxidante não-enzimático (PANNALA et al., 2001). A quercetina e a rutina são efetivos queladores de metais de transição (HEIM et al., 2002), pois sequestram o  $\text{Fe}^{+2}$  evitando que se torne disponível para a reação de Fenton (LEOPOLDINI et al., 2006; PARDO-ANDREU et al., 2005).

Os compostos fenólicos com grupos catecol promovem maior efetivação da atividade antioxidante devido ao aumento do potencial padrão de redução do  $\text{Fe}^{+3}$ , comparada aos compostos fenólicos com grupo galol (Figura 6A e 6B) (PERRON e BRUMAGHIM, 2009).

A presença de compostos fenólicos na alimentação se torna uma alternativa na proteção contra danos associados ao ferro, uma vez que esses compostos também interferem na absorção desse metal (HALLIWELL, 2007b).

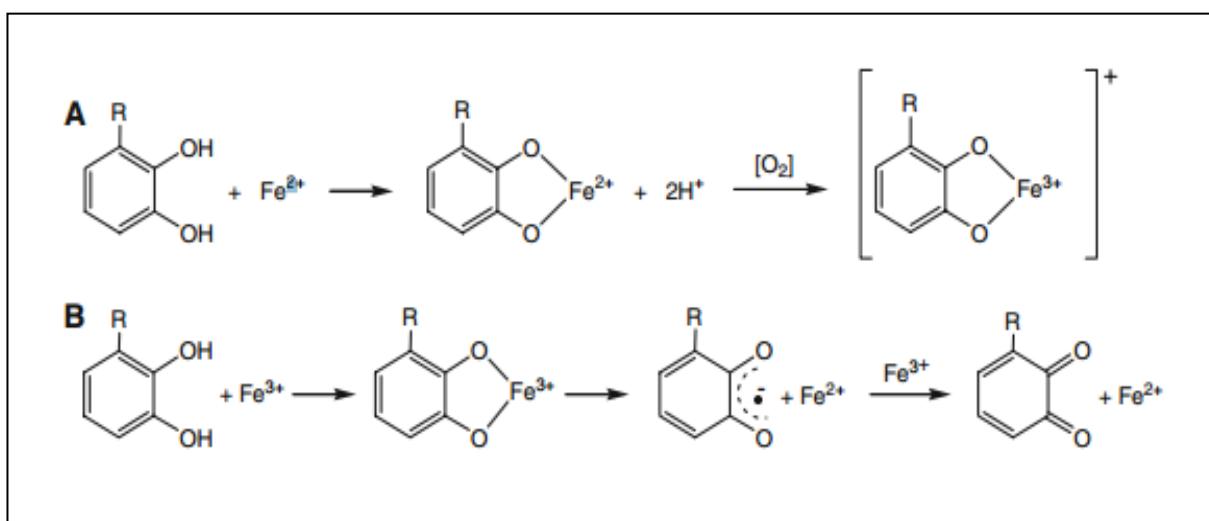


Figura 6 - A) Reação de transferência de elétron na presença de oxigênio gerando um complexo polifenólico- $\text{Fe}^{+3}$ . B) Redução do  $\text{Fe}^{+3}$ , formação de semiquinona e quinona e  $\text{Fe}^{+2}$ . R=H, OH. (Fonte: PERRON e BRUMAGHIM, 2009).

### 1.3 ESTRESSE OXIDATIVO

#### 1.3.1 Espécies Reativas de Oxigênio (EROS)

Espécies Reativas de Oxigênio (EROs), as quais incluem radicais livres tais como ânion superóxido ( $\text{O}_2^{\cdot-}$ ), radical hidroxil ( $\text{OH}^{\cdot}$ ) e não-radicais como peróxido de hidrogênio ( $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ ) e oxigênio singlet ( ${}^1\text{O}_2$ ) são formas de oxigênio ativadas que exacerbam o dano celular (HALLIWELL e GUTTERIDGE, 1998; GÜLÇİN et al., 2002a,

2002b, 2006; ROESLER et al., 2007) através de danos oxidativos em macromoléculas como ácidos nucléicos, proteínas, lipídios e carboidratos (ABOLAJI et al., 2014).

As EROs ou provocam ou são resultantes de reações de óxido-redução do metabolismo normal ou patogênico (HALLIWELL e GUTTERIDGE, 1998). Essas espécies podem ser resultantes do metabolismo do oxigênio, do nitrogênio e do enxofre e participam de vários processos biológicos, tais como na sinalização celular do sistema imune, na regulação celular e na apoptose. No entanto, a excessiva formação de EROs podem resultar no desenvolvimento de algumas doenças por meio do estresse oxidativo fenômeno caracterizado pelo desequilíbrio entre a produção de espécies reativas e as defesas antioxidantes (HALLIWELL e GUTTERIDGE, 2007; OLIVEIRA et al., 2009; ROSSO, 2013) (Tabela 2).

Tabela 2 – Características de algumas Espécies Reativas de Oxigênio (EROs).

EROs	Representação	Características
Ânion radical superóxido	$O_2^{\cdot-}$	Estado reduzido do $O_2$ Formado nas reações de autooxidação e na CTE; pode liberar ferro da ferritina
Peróxido de hidrogênio	$H_2O_2$	Estado reduzido do $O_2$ Capaz de atravessar membranas celulares capaz de reduzir e oxidar íons metálicos
Radical hidroxil	$OH^{\cdot}$	Estado reduzido do $O_2$ Formado a partir da reação de Fenton Alta reatividade e ataca biomoléculas
Hidroperóxido lipídico	$LOOH$	Formado a partir de reações entre radicais livres e lipídeos da membrana
Radical alcoxil e radical peroxil	$RO^{\cdot}$ e $ROO^{\cdot}$	Participam da cadeia da peroxidação lipídica

Fonte: Mattos (2009). CTE: Cadeia Transportadora de Elétrons

A maior produção de ERO's acontece na mitocôndria (CADENAS e DAVIES, 2000; VALKO et al., 2007; MURPHY, 2009) (Figura 7). Os complexos I e III estão principalmente envolvidos na transferência de elétrons na cadeia respiratória. Dois elé-

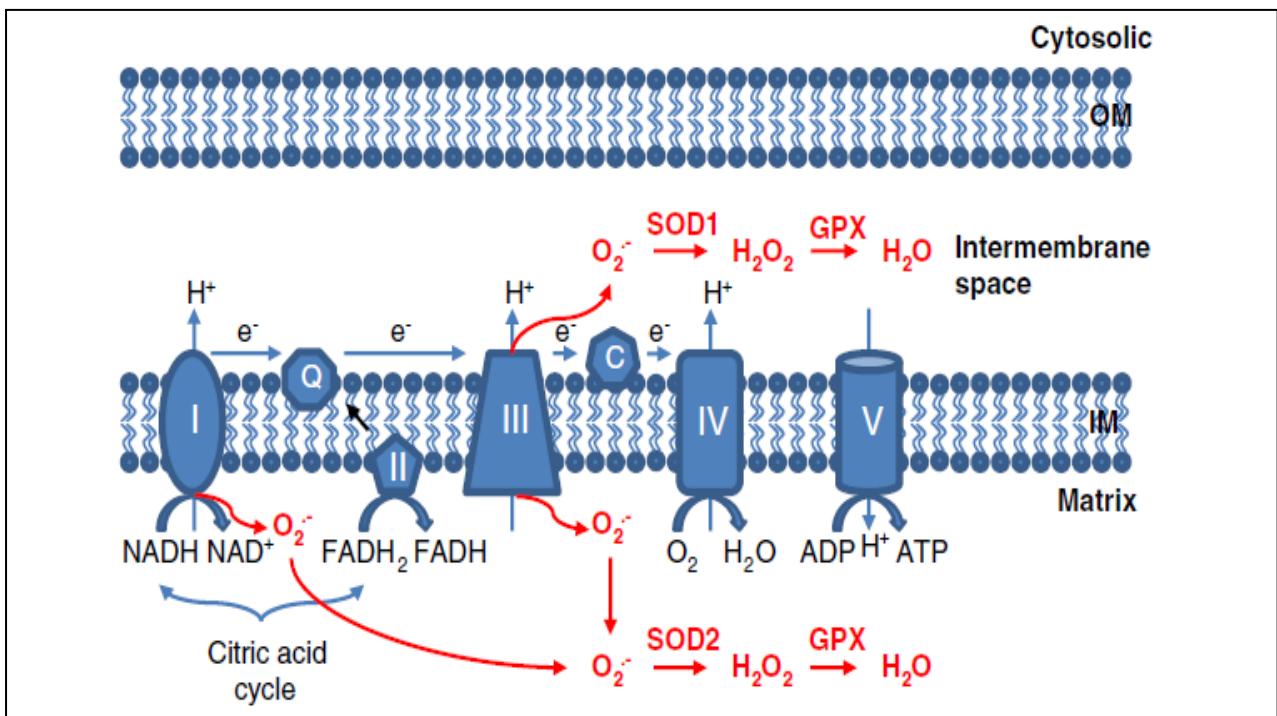


Figura 7 – Produção de EROs na mitocôndria. Elétrons ( $e^-$ ) doados de NADH e FADH<sub>2</sub> atravessam a CTE e resultam finalmente na redução de O<sub>2</sub> em H<sub>2</sub>O no complexo IV. A produção de EROs é resultado do vazamento de  $e^-$  para formar O<sub>2</sub><sup>·-</sup> no complexo I e III. O O<sub>2</sub><sup>·-</sup> é produzido dentro da matriz no compexo I, enquanto que no complexo III o O<sub>2</sub><sup>·-</sup> é liberado na matriz e no espaço intramembrana. O O<sub>2</sub><sup>·-</sup> é dismutado pelas superóxidos dismutase (SOD1 e 2). O H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> é reduzido a H<sub>2</sub>O pela glutationa peroxidase (GPx). IM: dentro da membrana; OM: fora da membrana (LI et al., 2013).

trans doados do NADH + H<sup>+</sup> para o complexo I (NADH dehidrogenase) ou do succinato para o complexo II (succinato dehidrogenase) são passados sequencialmente para ubiquinona (coenzima Q ou CoQ) e em seguida resulta em ubisemiquinona (CoQH<sup>·</sup>) e então ubiquinol (CoQH<sub>2</sub>). Ubiquinol transfere seus elétrons para o complexo III (ubiquinol: citocromo c oxidoreduktase), o qual os transfere para o citocromo c. Do citocromo c, os elétrons escoam para o complexo IV (citocromo c oxidase controla a geração de EROs) e finalmente para 1/2O<sub>2</sub> resultando em H<sub>2</sub>O (WALLACE, 2005).

O predominante sítio de produção de O<sub>2</sub><sup>·-</sup> está no complexo I. O O<sub>2</sub><sup>·-</sup> formado a partir do O<sub>2</sub> pela adição de um elétron, é considerado uma importante fonte biológica de EROs, e apesar de ser um fraco oxidante, dar origem ao poderoso radical OH<sup>·</sup>, bem como ao <sup>1</sup>O<sub>2</sub>, ambos contribuem para o estresse oxidativo (SAEED et al., 2012).

O  $\text{O}_2^-$  também é gerado por algumas enzimas como a xantina oxidase e flavoproteínas. O dano biológico direto causado pelo  $\text{O}_2^-$  frequentemente envolve reações com outros radicais (ex.  $\text{NO}\cdot$ ) ou com íons de ferro em proteínas ferro-enxofre, esse último processo pode causar a liberação do íon  $\text{Fe}^{+2}$  do sítio (HERMES-LIMA et al., 1994) bem como levar a um dano oxidativo adicional a outros componentes celulares, uma vez que o ferro livre pode promover, via reação de Fenton, a formação do  $\text{OH}^\cdot$  (NORDBERG e ARNÉR, 2001; HALLIWELL e GUTTERIDGE, 2007; PERRON e BRUMAGHIM, 2009).

As mitocôndrias são os componentes celulares mais importantes na produção de  $\text{O}_2^-$  e  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  em mamíferos (CADENAS e DAVIES, 2000). Apesar de não ser um radical e ser considerado um agente fracamente oxidante (SOARES, 2013), o  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  atua como subproduto na formação de radicais reativos via oxidação com metais de transição. O  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  pode atravessar rapidamente as membranas celulares, e uma vez dentro da célula, pode reagir com íons de ferro e cobre gerando o  $\text{OH}^\cdot$  que é altamente reativo (HERMES-LIMA et al., 1994; FERREIRA e MATSUBARA, 1997). Além disso, todo sistema biológico que gera  $\text{O}_2^-$  também gera  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  através da dismutação de duas moléculas de  $\text{O}_2^-$  pela ação da superóxido dismutase (SOD).

A produção de  $\text{O}_2^-$  e  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  pela cadeia respiratória fornece condições necessárias para a química de Fenton levando a formação do radical  $\text{OH}^\cdot$ . Em sistemas biológicos o  $\text{OH}^\cdot$  é o agente mais reativo, reage rapidamente e inespecificamente com alvos celulares próximos, como as bases purina e pirimidina do DNA, proteínas, carboidratos e lipídios, inclusive ácidos graxos poliinsaturados das membranas celulares (FERREIRA e MATSUBARA, 1997), o qual remove hidrogênio alilico do ácido graxo insaturado iniciando a oxidação lipídica (ROSSO, 2013; CADENAS e DAVIES, 2000; VALKO, et al., 2006).

### **1.3.2 Ferro**

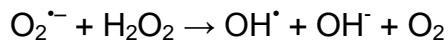
O ferro apresenta múltiplas funções no organismo, participando da síntese de DNA, do transporte de elétrons e de oxigênio e como cofator de enzimas e proteínas. O ferro pode doar e receber elétrons, participando de reações (Fenton e autoxidação –  $\text{Fe}^{+2}$ ) que culminam com a formação de  $\text{OH}^\cdot$ . O  $\text{Fe}^{+2}$  é conhecido como uma das espécies pró-oxidantes mais importantes na peroxidação via reação de Fenton (HALLIWELL e GUTTERIDGE, 1984; GUTTERIDGE, 1987). Devido à capacidade que o DNA tem pra

se ligar ao ferro, a reação de Fenton pode acontecer próxima a sua cadeia e o OH<sup>·</sup> formado pode reagir com o DNA e causar danos às bases nitrogenadas como também ao açúcar 2-desoxirribose (HERMES-LIMA, 2004).

O ferro livre catalisa a reação de produção de EROs através da reação de Haber - Weiss. A forma férrica (Fe<sup>+3</sup>) também pode formar OH<sup>·</sup> na presença de um agente redutor como glutationa, ascorbato ou O<sub>2</sub><sup>·-</sup> (MORELLI et al., 2003).

A bioquímica do ferro é estudada em muitos experimentos voltados para danos oxidativos. Apesar do conhecimento que os polifenóis podem se ligar ao ferro, a habilidade de quelação desse metal pelo grupo catecol ou galol é uma importante ferramenta para averiguar a atividade antioxidante exibida por produtos naturais (PERRON e BRUMAGHIM, 2009).

Reação de Haber-Weiss:



Reação de Fenton (HOFER et al., 2014)



### 1.3.3 Peroxidação lipídica

Os lipídeos das membranas celulares são um dos principais alvos das EROs, em especial o OH<sup>·</sup>. A ação inicial sobre o ácido graxo poliinsaturado pela abstração do H, resulta em radical lipídico (L<sup>·</sup>) o qual sofre oxidação gerando radical peroxil (LOO<sup>·</sup>) que pode reagir com outros ácidos graxos insaturados, alterando a estrutura e permeabilidade da célula (NIKI, 2014; MAQSOOD et al., 2014).

Com a reação em cadeia são formados os hidroperóxidos lipídicos e outros produtos intermediários entre eles malonildialdeído (MDA), acroleína e 4-hidroxi-nonenal (GROTTO et al., 2009) (Figura 8). Esses reagem facilmente com proteínas e DNA (STYSKAL et al., 2012). Segundo Valko (2006), os flavonoides inibem a lipoperoxidação pelo sequestro de radicais peroxil.

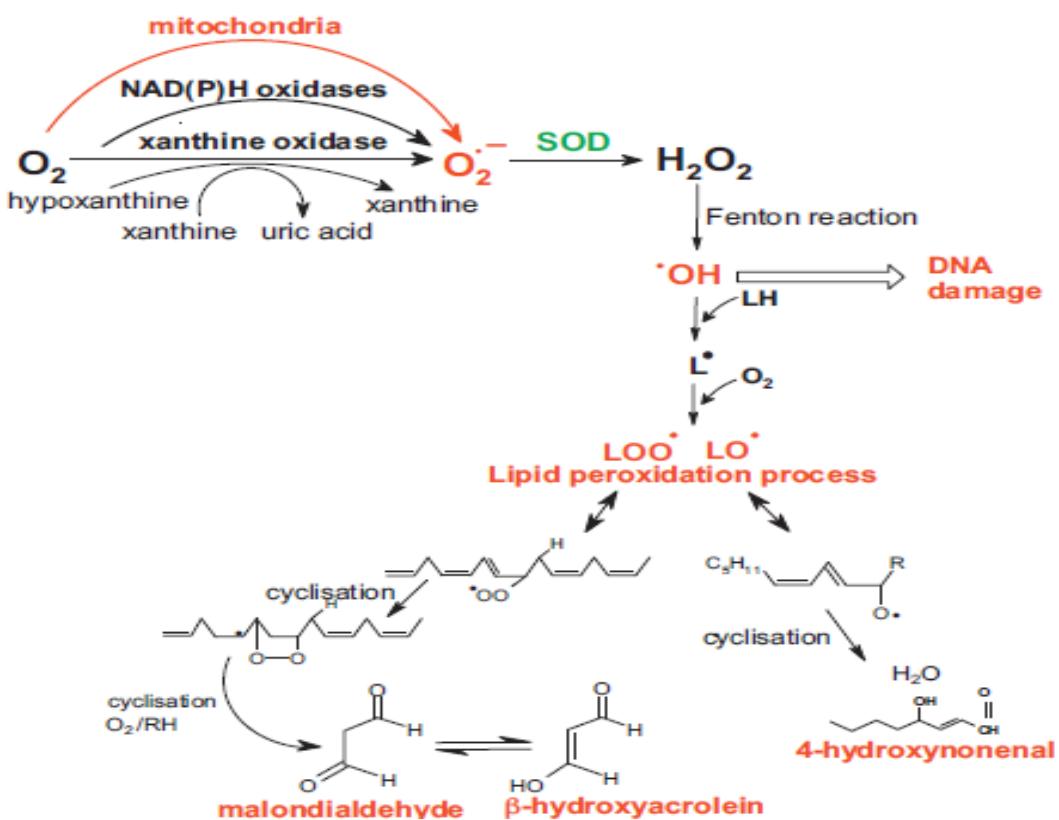


Figura 8 – Processo de lipoperoxidação e formação de EROs. O  $\text{O}_2^-$  é formado pela redução do  $\text{O}_2$  mediado pela NAD(P)H oxidase e xantina oxidase.  $\text{O}_2^-$  é dismutado pela SOD para formar  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ . O  $\text{Fe}^{+2}$  pode quebrar  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  formando  $\cdot\text{OH}$  (Reação de Fenton). O  $\cdot\text{OH}$  pode abstrair um elétron do ácido graxo poliinsaturado (LH) para resultar em radical lipídico ( $\text{L}^\cdot$ ). O  $\text{L}^\cdot$  interage com o  $\text{O}_2$  produzindo  $\text{LOO}^\cdot$  (radical peroxil). Malondialdeído (MDA),  $\beta$ -hidroxiacroleína e 4-hidroxinonenal são produtos intermediários. O MDA pode reagir com as bases citosina, adenina e guanina de DNA. (Fonte: JOMOVA e VALKO, 2011).

### 1.3.4 Defesa antioxidante endógena

Para os sistemas biológicos é importante o equilíbrio entre os agentes pró-oxidantes e o sistema de defesa antioxidante, encontrado principalmente no meio intracelular.

O sistema de defesa pode ser dividido em duas categorias, enzimático e a não-enzimático. A defesa que envolve o sistema enzimático inclui a SOD, CAT, glutationa peroxidase (GPx), glutationa redutase (GR), glutationa-s-transferase (GST), glicose 6-fosfato desidrogenase (G6PDH), tioredoxina (Figura 9), e o sistema não enzimático envolve glutationa (GSH), ubiquinol,  $\alpha$ -tocoferol (vitamina E),  $\beta$ -caroteno, flavonóides, polifenóis entre outros (NIKI, 2014).

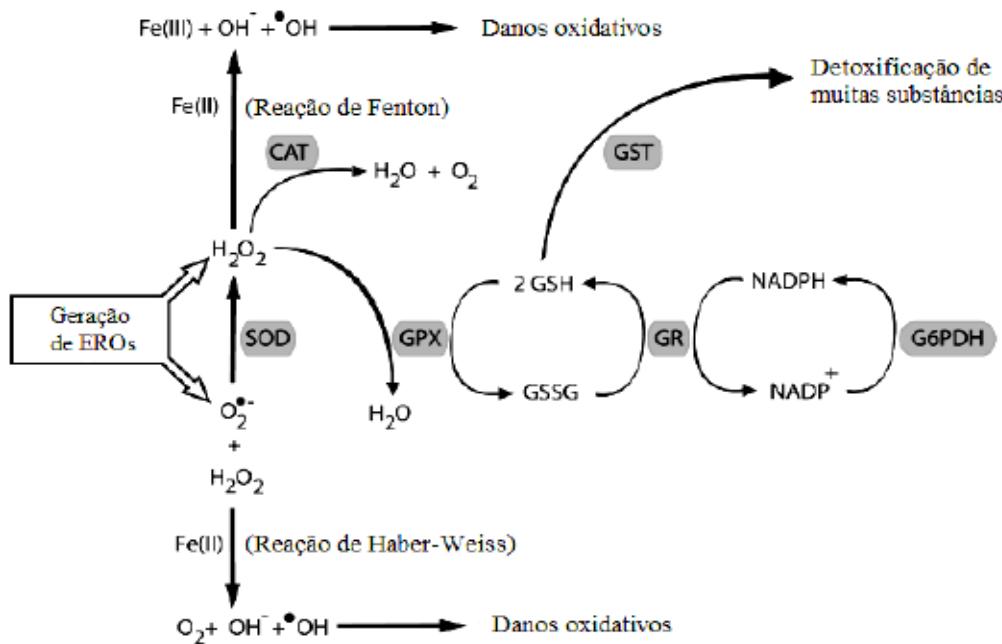


Figura 9 – Mecanismo de defesa antioxidante enzimático. SOD: Superóxido dismutase; GPX: Glutationa peroxidase; CAT: Catalase; GSH: Glutationa; GSSG: Glutationa oxidada; GR: Glutationa redutase; NADPH: Fosfato de dinucleotídeo de dicotinamida e adenina; G6PDH: Glicose 6-fosfato desidrogenase (Fonte: MATTOS, 2009).

O  $\text{O}_2^-$  é convertido em  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  pela enzima SOD dependente Cu/Zn ( $\text{Cu/ZnSOD}$ ,  $\text{Sod1}$  - citosol) ou pela SOD dependente de Mn ( $\text{MnSOD}$ ,  $\text{Sod2}$  - mitocôndria) (NORDBERG e ARNER, 2001). O  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  é mais estável do que  $\text{O}_2^-$  e pode se difundir para fora da mitocôndria e entrar no citosol e núcleo.  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  pode ser convertido a  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  pela GPx (mitocondrial e citósica) ou pela CAT nos peroxissomos. No entanto,  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ , pode reagir com  $\text{Fe}^{+2}$  via reação de Fenton, para produzir  $\text{OH}^\cdot$ . A GR reduz GSSG (forma oxidada) à GSH, depletando NADPH (FERREIRA e MATSUBARA, 1997, LUSHCHAK, 2014). A enzima G6PDH recicla  $\text{NADP}^+$  a NADPH. A GST conjuga eletrófilos hidrofóbicos,  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  e hidroperóxidos lipídicos com a glutationa e auxilia a excreção (NITURE, 2014; ABOLAJI, et al., 2014; HALLIWELL, 1999).

O uso suplementar de vitaminas antioxidantes (C, E e  $\beta$ -caroteno) tem sido apontado como efetivo na prevenção de doenças crônicas. No entanto deve ser considerado que estudos *in vitro*, mesmo em sistemas que mimetizem o meio biológico, ficam longe de serem conclusivos quando comparados as reais reações metabólicas do ser humano (OLIVEIRA et al., 2009).

#### 1.4 DROSOPHILA MELANOGLASTER

A *D. melanogaster* (Figura 10) tem sido usada como um modelo animal alternativo para o estudo de mecanismos envolvidos na patogênese de diversas doenças humanas (BIER, 2005). Além disso, é considerado um modelo importante para a pesquisa de genes alvos de várias patologias (de acordo com o Centro Europeu para a Validação de Métodos Alternativos (ECVAM) (BENFORD et al., 2000). Além de compartilhar inúmeros genes, a *D. melanogaster* e os humanos conservam vias metabólicas e sinalizadoras em comum (BENTON, 2008). Os mecanismos bioquímicos envolvidos no crescimento e metabolismo em *D. melanogaster* também mostram marcantes similaridades aos de roedores e humanos (RUSTEN et al., 2004). Muitos órgãos que controlam a absorção, armazenamento e metabolismo em humanos estão presentes como complexos celulares em moscas, desempenhando as mesmas funções (SCOTT et al., 2004; ROVENKO et al., 2015).



Figura 10 – *Drosophila melanogaster* (Fonte: autor).

Por várias décadas o uso de *D. melanogaster* tem se destacado em avaliações genotóxicas (CASTRO et al., 2008), de envelhecimento (SUN et al., 2010; BOYD et al., 2011; TERÁN et al., 2012; PENG et al., 2012), de comportamento e doenças neurológicas (SUDATI et al., 2013; KIM et al., 2011) e de estresse oxidativo (BOURG, 2001; SOTIBRÁN et al., 2011;) possivelmente por causa do sequenciamento do genoma (KIM et al, 2011) e da similaridade genética comparada aos mamíferos.

É um modelo pouco dispendioso e de fácil manutenção e reprodução (CASTRO et al., 2008). Na biologia celular e molecular, as moscas são usadas como modelo

experimental para análise dos processos que envolvem as doenças humanas uma vez que 177 dos 289 genes relacionados a doenças em humanos, são encontrados na mosca e tem a mesma função que em humanos (RUBIN et al., 2000).

O genoma da *D. melanogaster* contém cerca de 60% de homólogos em loci de doenças em humanos, sendo um modelo usado para analisar a ação de agentes terapêuticos sobre os sistemas celulares, bioquímicos e genéticos (ZHANG et al., 2014; YAMAMOTO et al., 2014). Acrescenta-se a essas pesquisas, a utilização de linhagens transgênicas para mimetizar condições patológicas humanas e o melhor entendimento dos efeitos sobre a genética (JAHROMI et al., 2013).

Considerando estudos voltados para o estresse oxidativo, a espécie *D. melanogaster* possui superóxido dismutase (SOD) dependente de Cu/Zn (Cu/ZnSOD) no citosol, SOD dependente de Mn na mitocôndria (MnSOD) e CAT. A existência da Glutatona peroxidase (GPx) é controversa. Alguns autores consideram que os insetos possuem níveis de atividade dessa enzima muito baixos e indetectáveis (SMITH e SHRIFT, 1979; SIMMONS et al., 1987; AHMED et al., 1989), e outros autores relatam a sua ausência (SOHAL et al., 1990), assim como da Glutatona redutase (GR) (SOHAL et al., 1990; LUSHCHAK, 2014). A SOD participa da dismutação do  $O_2^-$  em  $H_2O_2$ , enquanto CAT converte  $H_2O_2$  em  $H_2O$ . O sistema tioredoxina presente, através da enzima Tioredoxina redutase (Trx-R) desempenha além da sua função normal, a redução da GSSG (Glutatona oxidada) (BOURG, 2001; CHENG et al., 2007).

Considerando o exposto, ensaios com *D. melanogaster* que avaliam a atividade enzimática antioxidante constituem importante ferramenta de pesquisa sobre o estresse oxidativo. Acrescenta-se a essas abordagens, efetivo uso de *D. melanogaster* com compostos tóxicos como paraquat (1,1'-dimetil-4,4'-bipiridina dicloreto) para reproduzir fenótipos de doenças (DINIS-OLIVEIRA et al., 2006).

#### **1.4.1 Genes envolvidos na defesa antioxidante**

Os animais possuem um sistema de defesa adaptativo às reações ocasionadas pelo estresse oxidativo (NITURE, 2014). Acredita-se que o estresse oxidativo gere a ativação de uma bateria de genes relacionados com a proteção celular (ZOU et al., 2000). Falhas nesse mecanismo geram um acúmulo de espécies reativas que podem causar lesão ao DNA e danos às membranas celulares, além de mutagenicidade, apoptose e câncer (MATÉS et al., 1999).

Em grande parte, o sistema de defesa ajusta sua ação dependente dos eventos oxidativos da célula além de estimular a expressão de genes específicos que codificam enzimas antioxidantes ou responsáveis pela produção de antioxidantes (OUCHI, 2011). Em *Drosophila*, a defesa celular contra as EROs inclui os sistemas redox da GSH e o da tioredoxina (Trx) (WAHL et al., 2005), SOD, CAT e GPx (ZHANG et al., 2014). Entre os antioxidantes exógenos, os flavonoides presentes em plantas agem no sequestro de EROs e outros radicais livres (ZHANG et al., 2014).

O sistema enzimático SOD1/CAT e os sistemas Trx/TrxR constituem defesa contra EROs em *Drosophilas* (MISSIRLIS et al., 2001). A respeito da CAT, moscas adultas submetidas a vários insultos como a exposição a 10 mM por 24 hs de paraquat, não responderam significativamente a expressão da CAT, sugerindo que a expressão dessa enzima pode ser coordenada por programa genético intrínseco da espécie ou talvez por que os níveis da CAT em *Drosophilas* tendem a permanecer relativamente estáveis em respostas a insultos oxidativos médios (KLICHKO et al., 2004; BOURG, 2001).

Uma ampla variedade de funções celulares da tioredoxina (TRX) foi relatada em várias células e organismos, incluindo estresse oxidativo contra a injúria celular. O genoma de *Drosophila* contém 3 genes da família TRX, nominalmente Dhd, expressa predominantemente em fêmeas (SALZ et al., 1994), Trx-2, expressa em todos os tecidos (BAUER et al., 2002) e TrxT, expressa predominantemente em machos (SVENSSON et al., 2003; UMEDA-KAMEYAMA et al., 2007), os quais contêm um centro ativo para TRX (TSUDA et al., 2010).

A TrxR, também chamada de Dmtrxr-1 para *Drosophila*, está relacionada a TrxR de mamíferos (GROMER et al., 2003). Recentemente, em *D. melanogaster* foi identificada a ausência da GR (WAHL et al., 2005; CHENG et al., 2007; MISSIRLIS, 2001). A TrxR tioredoxina redutase, relaciona-se a uma variedade de análises bioquímicas e em *D. melanogaster* é particularmente importante por que seu produto, Trx-SH<sub>2</sub>, em substituição a GR, funciona como o principal redutor de GSSG (HOLMGREN, 1985; GROMER et al., 2003; WAHL et al., 2005; MISSIRLIS et al., 2003). TRX, gene ativado por estímulos oxidativos e desempenha um papel crucial na resposta celular como a expressão de genes e funções antioxidantes como a doação de elétrons de tioredoxinas peroxidases (TPx), enzimas que reduzem o peróxido de hidrogênio (BAUER et al., 2002; HOLMGREN, 1985).

O fator de transcrição NF-E2-related factor 2 (Nrf2) associado ao Kelch-like ECH-associated Protein 1 (Keap1) funciona como sensor do estresse oxidativo e eletrofílico

(NITURE, 2014), sendo reconhecido por aumentar as defesas celulares. Em condições fisiológicas, o Nrf2 interage com Keap 1, resultando em supressão da atividade do Nrf2 e degradação pelo proteosoma (VOMHOF-DEKREYA e PICKLO SR, 2012). Quando a célula sofre injúria pelas EROs, os grupos tióis da proteína Keap 1 são oxidados, inviabilizando a interação com Nrf2, a super regulação desses genes codificam enzimas antioxidantes, SOD, CAT, GPx e GST (NITURE, 2014).

Compostos antioxidantes e fitoquímicos controlam a expressão do Nrf2 e promovem a indução de genes que codificam enzimas antioxidantes, dentre elas, catalase, GST e enzimas envolvidas na biossíntese da glutationa (LUSHCHAK, 2014, VOMHOF-DEKREY e PICKLO SR, 2012).

### 1.5. PARAQUAT

O herbicida paraquat (PQ) (1,1'-dimetil-4,4'-bipiridina dicloreto,  $\text{PQ}^{+2}$ ) é usado mundialmente na proteção de plantas contra ervas daninhas. Tem sido usado como um potente indutor de estresse oxidativo em vários estudos com *D. melanogaster* (HOSAMANI e MURALIDHARA, 2013; CASSAR et al., 2015; ). Sua toxicidade está associada a geração de EROs (AUGUSTYNIAK et al., 2015). O PQ inibe o complexo III da CTE por formar um radical monocáton que reage com o  $\text{O}_2$  para gerar  $\text{O}_2^{\cdot-}$  (RZENICZAK et al, 2011; SOTIBRÁN, et al., 2011), o qual gera outras ERs,  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  e  $\text{OH}^{\cdot}$ , capazes de danificar o DNA, proteínas e lipídios (FRIDOVICH, 1978). O PQ também oxida equivalentes redutores como NADPH e GSH (BUS e GIBSON, 1984; RZENICZAK, 2011; SOTIBRÁN et al., 2011) (Figura 11).

Tem sido mostrado que o PQ pode penetrar na membrana interna mitocondrial e inibir o complexo I pela produção de  $\text{O}_2^{\cdot-}$  (JAHROMI et al., 2013; CASSAR et al., 2015) (Figura 11).

Neste contexto, vários estudos tem demonstrado a efetividade de compostos antioxidantes contra os danos induzidos por paraquat (BLANCO-AYALA et al., 2014). Em *Drosophilas*, a exposição ao PQ além de causar estresse oxidativo, tem sido usado para avaliar o papel antioxidante de compostos naturais (RZENICZAK et al., 2011; HOSAMANI e MURALIDHARA, 2013). No entanto são poucas as informações sobre como as moscas respondem a extratos e óleo vegetais, ricos em compostos fenólicos.

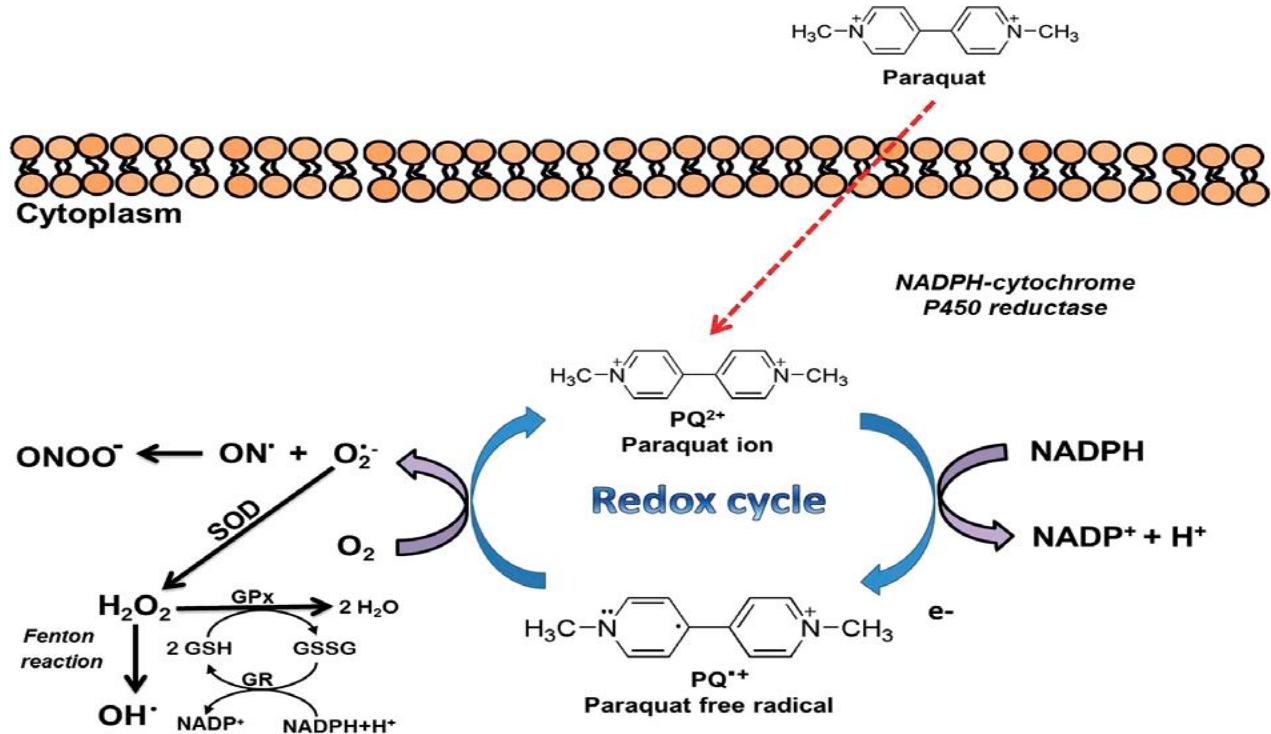


Figure 11. Ciclo redox do Paraquat. O PQ interfere na transferência de elétrons através da inibição da redução do NADP<sup>+</sup> a NADPH. O PQ<sup>2+</sup> é reduzido a PQ<sup>+</sup> o qual pode reagir espontaneamente com oxigênio levando a formação do O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> e OH (BLANCO-AYALA et al., 2014; BUS e GIBSON, 1984).

## 1.6 OBJETIVO GERAL

Esse trabalho teve como objetivo geral investigar o potencial antioxidante de extratos de folha e da casca e óleo da polpa do fruto de *C. coriaceum* *in vitro* e em modelos experimentais *in vivo* usando a *D. melanogaster* como organismo alvo.

### 1.6.1 Objetivos específicos

#### *In vitro*

- Determinar a composição química dos extratos de folhas e de cascas do fruto de *C. coriaceum*;
- Investigar a atividade antioxidante dos extratos de folhas da planta e de casca do fruto através de testes que avaliem: capacidade de redução/quelação de íons

ferro; sequestro de radicais livres; inibição de peroxidação lipídica e produção de EROs.

*In vivo*

- Em *D. melanogaster* expostas ao PQ, avaliar o efeito do pré e co-tratamento com extrato aquoso da folha e do pré-tratamento com óleo da polpa de pequi sobre:
  - o tempo de sobrevivência;
  - o desempenho locomotor;
  - os níveis de peroxidação lipídica e produção de EROs;
  - a atividade das enzimas CAT e GST;
  - a expressão de CAT, SOD, TrxR-1 e da proteína Keap 1

## 2. MANUSCRITO

### 2.1 MANUSCRITO 1

# Preliminary *in vitro* evaluation of *Caryocar coriaceum* Wittm. leaf and bark extracts as antioxidants

Sandra Mara Duavy<sup>1</sup>, Angelica Ramos<sup>1</sup>, Gerson Torres<sup>1</sup>, Assis Ecker<sup>1</sup>, Rodrigo Seeger<sup>1</sup>, João Batista Teixeira da Rocha<sup>1</sup>, José Galberto Martins da Costa<sup>2</sup>, Nilda Vargas Barbosa<sup>1\*</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Departamento de Bioquímica e Biologia Molecular, Programa de Pós-Graduação em Ciências Biológicas: Bioquímica Toxicológica, Universidade Federal de Santa Maria (UFSM), Campus Universitário - Camobi, 97105-900 Santa Maria, RS, Brazil.

<sup>2</sup>Departamento de Química, Universidade Regional do Cariri (URCA), Campus Pimenta, 63105-000 Crato, CE, Brazil.

\*Corresponding author:

Dra. Nilda Vargas Barbosa

Departamento de Bioquímica e Biologia Molecular

CEP 97105-900, Santa Maria, RS, Brazil

Tel: 55-55-3220-8140

Fax: 55-55-3220-8978

E-mail: [nvbarbosa@yahoo.com.br](mailto:nvbarbosa@yahoo.com.br)

## Abstract

*Caryocar coriaceum* Wittm (*C. coriaceum*) has been traditionally used as wound healing and for the treatment of inflammatory diseases. This is the first study was carried out to evaluate the *in vitro* antioxidant activity of the tree leaf and fruit bark extracts from *C. coriaceum*. The extract bioactive polyphenolics were identified by HPLC-DAD. The extracts exhibited a similar and significant DPPH and hydroxyl radical scavenging activity and were effective in reducing and chelating iron. Indeed, the extracts diminished lipid peroxidation ferrous-induced and reactive species overproduction calcium-induced in liver homogenate. The extracts did not modify the levels of superoxide radical in liver mitochondria treated with antimycin A. The major phenolic compounds extracts were quercetin, chlorogenic and ellagic acid. Our findings showed that the extracts from species *C. coriaceum* were strong antioxidants *in vitro* and point that they might be useful as potent sources of natural antioxidant for further *in vivo* studies.

## Industrial Relevance

This study demonstrated, for the first time, the *in vitro* antioxidant action of leaf and bark fruit extracts from species *C. Coriaceum*, whose fruit known as Pequi is used in folk medicine and commonly employed for culinary purposes. The extracts were able to scavenge free radicals, modulate iron redox state and inhibit lipid peroxidation and reactive oxygen species (ROS) overproduction. These abilities probably are associated with the high content of bioactive compounds found in the extracts, namely: quercetin, rutin and ellagic, chlorogenic, caffeic and gallic acids. In addition to the pharmacological activities already documented toward fruit known as Pequi, which is used in folk medicine and employed for culinary purposes, the results obtained here point important biological properties of other plant parts, fact that potentiate the industrial use of species *C. coriaceum* as functional/nutraceutical food.

**Key Words:** *Caryocar coriaceum* Wittm; pequi; antioxidants; oxidative stress

## 1. Introduction

It is known that the installation and progression of a variety of human illness have a free radical basis<sup>1-3</sup>. Reactive oxygen species (ROS) are produced in the body under physiological and/or pathological conditions and they become noxious to cells when their levels exceed the antioxidant machinery. Reactive species comprise superoxide anion ( $O_2^-$ ) and hydrogen peroxide ( $H_2O_2$ ), which are formed principally inside the mitochondria. These species can subsequently generate more reactive substances such as hydroxyl radical ( $OH^{\cdot}$ ) which are extremely toxic to the biological molecules, cause lipid peroxidation in cell membranes, and inactivate enzymes<sup>4-7</sup>. Human are well endowed with enzymatic defenses (superoxide dismutase (SOD), catalase (CAT), glutathione peroxidase (GPx), glutathione-S-transferase (GST), thiredoxin reductase (TRx) in addition to non-enzymatic antioxidants (glutathione, vitamins, trace elements). Additionally, carotenoids and phenolic compounds are well-known natural antioxidants that increase the cell resistance to oxidative insults<sup>8-10</sup>. As corollary, the interest for remedial natural that could potentially retard oxidative stress has grown considerably in the scientific community in last decades. In general, the phytochemicals present in the plants used for medicinal purposes are strong antioxidants by reducing and/or chelating transition metals, scavenging free radicals or blocking their production<sup>11,12</sup>. Besides, there is a current worldwide interest in antioxidants from natural sources since plants empirically used in folk medicine are generally free of adverse effects.

The Araripe Chapada, in northeastern Brazil (Ceará State), has an extraordinary biological diversity; and many species of this region have been traditionally used as medicine by local population. Among these highlight the species *C. coriaceum* Wittm, whose fruit popularly known as Pequi is widely employed for culinary purposes and in folk medicine for the treatment of inflammatory diseases, respiratory problems and rheumatic aches<sup>11,13,14</sup>. In general, there is a lack of scientific information about the biological activities of *C. coriaceum* and the few researches found in the literature were carried out toward anti-inflammatory activity from Pequi pulp oil. Studies have proven the efficacious of pulp oil against topical inflammation, bacterial infections and cutaneous wound healing<sup>13-16</sup>.

In a limited way, other parts of plant have been empirically utilized by local population and deserve a special attention. For example, the leaves from *C. coriaceum* are regularly used as tea to treat viral infections<sup>17,18</sup>. But there are few points of evidence about their biological properties.

Given the need to establish new and safe sources of natural antioxidants, the barks from Pequi, which are discarded in high scale due to lack of any scientific knowledge about their properties<sup>17</sup>, in addition to leaves were also target of this study. Particularly, we investigated the antioxidant potential of leaves and fruit bark extracts from *C. coriaceum*, analyzing the in vitro ability of them in inhibiting lipid peroxidation, scavenging free radicals, reducing/chelating iron and blocking ROS production.

## 2. Materials and Methods

### 2.1. Collection of plant materials

Fresh leaves and fruit from *C. coriaceum* were collected in the Floresta Nacional do Araripe, GPS 7° 21' 53, 1° S, 39° 28' 42, 6° W, Crato, Ceará State, Brazil. A voucher specimen (n. 6684) was deposited in the "Herbárium Dárdamo de Andrade Lima" - HCDAL from Universidade Regional do Cariri (URCA).

### 2.2. Preparation of crude extracts

The aqueous extract of leaves (AEL) was obtained by infusion of the air-dried leaves (642g) in hot water (96°C) for 2 hours. The resulting solution was frozen and then dried by lyophilization, yielding approximately 9.65%. To ethanolic extract preparations, the leaves (520g) and barks (1364g) (epicarpo + external mesocarpo) were washed in tap water, dried and cut. The ethanolic extract of leaves (EEL) and fruit bark (EEB) were obtained by exhaustive extraction with cold ethanol for 72h. Afterward, the solvent was distilled at 60°C in a rotary evaporator<sup>19</sup>, yielding approximately 16.78% and 11.46% of EEL and EEB, respectively. The dry residue was stored at -20°C until use.

### 2.3. Chemicals

Orto-phenanthroline, quercetin, rutin, catechin, gallic acid, chlorogenic acid, ellagic acid and acid cafeic were acquired from Sigma Chemical Co. (St. Louis, MO, USA). The probes 2',7'-dichlorofluorescein diacetate (DCF-DA) and dihydroethidium were purchased from Molecular Probes (Eugene, OR, USA). All other chemicals were of analytical grade.

### 2.4. Quantification of phenolic compounds by HPLC-DAD

Reverse phase chromatographic analyses were carried out under gradient conditions using C<sub>18</sub> column (4.6mm x 250mm) packed with 5µm diameter particles. The mobile phase was water containing 2% acetic acid (A) and methanol (B), and the composition gradient was: 5% (B) for 2min; 25% (B) until 10min; 40, 50, 60, 70 and 80% (B) every 10min; following the method described by Bolignon et al. (2012)<sup>20</sup> with slight modifications. The leaves and bark extracts (10mg/mL) extracts from *C. coriaceum* and mobile phase were filtered through 0.45µm membrane filter (Millipore) and then degassed by ultrasonic bath prior to use. The flow rate was 0.8mL/min and the injection volume was 40µl. Stock solutions of standards references were prepared in the HPLC mobile phase at a concentration range of 0.050 – 0.25mg/mL for quercetin and rutin, and 0.020 – 0.200 mg/mL for gallic, chlorogenic and caffeic acids. Quantification was carried out by integration of the peaks using the external standard method, at 257 nm for gallic acid, 325 nm for chlorogenic and caffeic acids, and 365 for quercetin and rutin. The chromatography peaks were confirmed by comparing its retention time with those of reference standards and by DAD spectra (200 to 600 nm). Calibration curve for gallic acid: Y = 25681x + 1536.2 (r = 0.9971); chlorogenic acid: Y = 27235x + 1604.6 (r = 0.9799); caffeic acid: Y = 23674x + 1288.4 (r = 0.9993); rutin: Y = 29767x + 1258.7 (r = 0.9989) and quercetin: Y = 28077x + 1741.5 (r = 0.9965). All chromatography operations were carried out at ambient temperature and in triplicate<sup>21</sup>.

## 2.5. Animals

Adult male Wistar rats (30 days old), weighing 150–200g, were purchased from our own breeding colony. The animals were housed in plastic cages and maintained at 22-24°C, on a 12h light/12h dark cycle, with free access to food (Supra®, Brazil) and water. All experiments were performed in accordance with guidelines of the Committee on Care and Use of Experimental Animal Resources approved by the institutional review board of Federal University of Santa Maria, Santa Maria, RS, Brazil (0089.0.243.000-07).

## 2.6. Tissue preparation

The animals were euthanized and the liver was quickly dissected, placed on ice and homogenized in cold 10mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5 (1/10, w/v). The homogenate was centrifuged for 10min at 4000 x g (25°C) to yield the low-speed supernatant fractions (S1) used for lipid peroxidation assay.

## 2.7. Liver mitochondria isolation

Mitochondria were isolated from liver of rats accordingly Brustovetsky and Dubinsky (2000)<sup>22</sup> with some modifications. Liver was homogenized in the isolation buffer I containing 225mM mannitol, 75mM sucrose, 1mM K<sup>+</sup>EGTA, 0.1% bovine serum albumin (BSA) and 10 mM HEPES (pH 7.2) (KOH). The homogenate was centrifuged at 2.000 g for 7 min at 4°C. The resultant supernatant was centrifuged at 12.000 g for 10 min at 4°C. The pellet obtained from second centrifugation was re-suspended in the buffer II (225 Mm mannitol, 75mM sucrose, 1mMK<sup>+</sup>EGTA and 10mM K<sup>+</sup>- HEPES pH 7.2) and centrifuged at 12.000 x g for 10 min at 4°C. Then, the last supernatant was discarded, and the pellet was re-suspended in the buffer III containing 100mM sucrose, 65mMKCl, 10mM K<sup>+</sup>-HEPES and 50µM EGTA pH 7.2 to obtain the mitochondrial suspension.

## 2.8. DPPH radical scavenging assay

DPPH radical scavenging activity of extracts was performed using the stable free radical DPPH (1,1-diphenyl-2-picrylhydrazyl) accordingly the method described by Choi et al. (2002)<sup>23</sup>. DPPH solution (0.3mM in ethanol) was added to the medium containing the extracts at final concentrations from 10 to 250µg/mL or ethanol. The mixture was incubated for 30 minutes in dark at room temperature. Ascorbic acid (AA) was used as reference standard. The ability of extracts in scavenging the DPPH radical was monitored at 517nm, using Elisa microplate reader, and calculated using the following equation:

$$\% \text{ Inhibition} = ((\text{Abs}_{\text{DPPH}} - \text{Abs}_{\text{Extr}})/\text{Abs}_{\text{DPPH}}) \times 100 \text{ (Eq. A).}$$

The results were expressed as % inhibition in relation to the AA.

## 2.9. Hydroxyl radical scavenging assay

The scavenging assay for hydroxyl radical was performed accordingly the standard method of Halliwell and Gutteridge (1987)<sup>24</sup>, with some modifications. Hydroxyl radical was generated by the following pro-oxidative conditions: H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, FeSO<sub>4</sub>, and FeSO<sub>4</sub> plus H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. The assay quantifies the product from 2-deoxyribose degradation, malondialdehyde (MDA), by its condensation with the thiobarbituric acid (TBA). First, deoxyribose (3mM) was incubated at room temperature for 20 min with 50mM potassium phosphate buffer (pH 7.4) plus FeSO<sub>4</sub> (0.05mM) or H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (1mM) or H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> plus FeSO<sub>4</sub>. Afterwards, the systems were incubated at 37°C for 60 min in the presence or absence of extracts (25, 50, 100 e 250µg/mL). The reactions were stopped by addition of TBA 0.8% and trichloroacetic acid (TCA) 2.8%. The medium was heated for 20 min at 100°C. Absorbance was determined at 532nm and the results were expressed as % protection against 2-deoxyribose degradation, following the equation:

$$\% \text{ Inhibition} = [(A_0 - (A_1-A_2)) / A_0] * 100 \text{ where } A_0 \text{ was the absorbance of the control, } A_1 \text{ the absorbance of the sample and } A_2 \text{ the absorbance of the blank (Eq B).}$$

## **2.10. Iron chelating and reducing activities**

$\text{Fe}^{2+}$ chelating and  $\text{Fe}^{3+}$ reducing abilities of extracts were determined by 1,10- $\theta$ -phenanthroline assay, according to the method described by Mathew and Abraham (2006)<sup>25</sup>, with modifications. Briefly, fresh prepared  $\text{FeSO}_4$  and/or  $\text{FeCl}_3$  (final 100 $\mu\text{M}$ ) were added in a medium containing 0.9% saline, 0.1M Tris-HCl pH 7.4and the different extracts at final concentration of 50 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ . The reaction mixture was incubated for 10 min at 37°C. Afterwards, the 1,10- $\theta$ -phenanthroline (final 300 $\mu\text{M}$ ) was added in the medium and the absorbance of the orange complex formed was measured until 150 min at 510nm using a microplate reader (Spectra Max, USA). To check if the absorbance loss in the systems containing extract plus  $\text{FeSO}_4$  could be by chelation or oxidation of  $\text{Fe}^{+2}$  to  $\text{Fe}^{+3}$  during the incubation period, ascorbic acid (final 5mM) was added to the medium after 90 min of reaction. For system containing  $\text{FeCl}_3$ , the addition of AA had as objective to verify and compare the potential reductive from extracts.

## **2.11. Lipid peroxidation assay**

The capability of extracts in inhibiting liver lipid peroxidation ferrous-induced was determined by measuring the levels of thiobarbituric acid reactive substances (TBARS) as described by Ohkawa et al. (1979)<sup>26</sup>. Briefly, samples of liver homogenate (100 $\mu\text{L}$ ) were incubated with  $\text{FeSO}_4$  (50 $\mu\text{M}$ ) in the presence or absence of different concentrations of extracts (2.5, 5, 10, 25, 50, 100 and 250 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ ) at 37 °C for 1 hour. The color reaction was carried out by the addition of 8.1% sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS), acetic acid (pH 3.4) and 0.6% TBA. The reaction mixtures were incubated at 97°C for 1h. After, the samples were centrifuged for 2 min at 6000 rpm and the absorbance of the supernatant read at 532nm. The results were as expressed as percentage of control.

## **2.12. Mitochondrial radical superoxide production**

The superoxide radical released from mitochondria was detected using the dihydroethidium red fluorescent dye<sup>22</sup>. The production was determined in liver mitochondria (0.5mg/mL) and the reaction was carried out in a medium containing buffer III, pyruvate (5mM), dihydroethidium (10 $\mu\text{M}$ ) and different concentrations of extracts (1, 5, 10, 25, 50 and 100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ ). The reaction was initiated by addition of pyruvate (5mM) and the fluorescence was detected at 30°C in a Shimadzu spectrophotometer. The excitation and emission fluorescent wavelengths were 550 and 585nm, slit (3 and 5) respectively. The positive control signal was produced by addition of Antimycin A (5 $\mu\text{M}$ ).

## **2.13. Estimation of reactive oxygen species (ROS) production**

ROS determination was based on the deacetylation of the 2',7'-dichlorofluorescein diacetate (DCF-DA) and its subsequent oxidation by intracellular reactive species to dichlorofluorescein (DCF), a fluorescent compound<sup>27</sup>. Briefly, ROS over production was induced by  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  (200 $\mu\text{M}$ ) and determined in a medium containing liver homogenate, 2',7'-dichlorofluorescein diacetate (2.5 $\mu\text{M}$ ), 10mM Tris-HCl pH 7.4 and the different extracts (1, 5, 10, 25 and 50 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ ).The incubation was performed for 1h in the dark until fluorescence measurement. DCF fluorescence intensity emission was recorded at 525nm with 488nm excitation, with slit widths of 1.5nm. Results were expressed as percentage in the relation to the control.

## **2.14. Protein determination**

The protein content was determined according Lowry et al. (1951)<sup>28</sup> with bovine serum albumin as standard.

## **2.15. Statistical analysis**

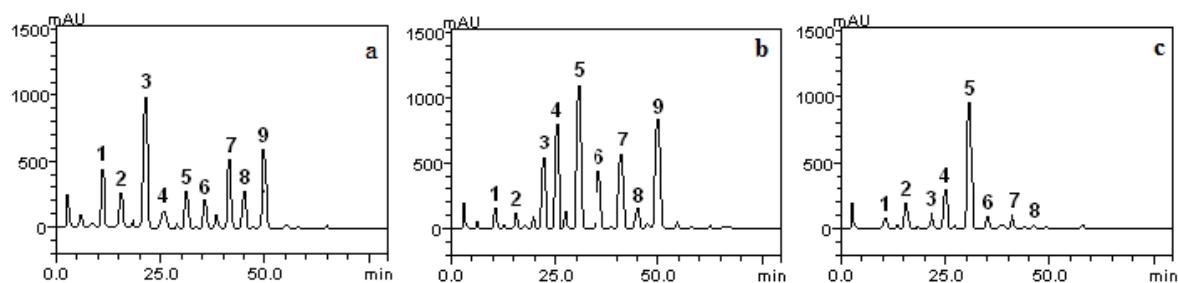
Data are expressed as mean  $\pm$  SEM and were analyzed by means of the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and the Bonferroni's multiple comparison tests when appropriate.

Differences between groups were considered significant when  $p < 0.05$ . The graphics were made using the GraphPad Prism 6.0 (GraphPad Software, San Diego, CA, USA).

### 3. Results and Discussion

The present study was aimed to investigate the *in vitro* antioxidant potential of plant targeting the leaves and the bark fruit, parts less explored from species *Caryocar coriaceum*. Our results revealed that the aqueous (AEL) and ethanolic (EEL) extracts from the leaves and bark (EEB) fruit displayed antioxidant activity through different mechanisms, namely: ability of scavenging free radical, chelating/reducing iron and inhibiting lipid peroxidation and ROS generation.

At molecular level, the imbalance in favor to high free radical concentration can lead to damage in DNA, membrane systems, proteins and lipid peroxidation<sup>29-35</sup>. As corollary, there is a growing interest towards utilization of medicinal plants, since they constitute a rich source of various phytochemicals with powerful antioxidant properties. Among these, the phenolic compounds highlight as strong exogen antioxidants, increasing the cell resistance to oxidative stress. In this class, the flavonoids and phenolic acids have been subject of numerous studies by possessing high potency to scavenge free radicals and to inhibit free radical initiated lipid peroxidation *in vitro* and *in vivo*<sup>36,37</sup>. The antioxidant capacity of phenolic compounds depends considerably of their molecular structure. In flavonoids, the catechol group is essential for both free radical reducing activity and formation of chelates<sup>38,39</sup>. In phenolic acids, the catechol group is responsible for metal chelating while the reducing capacity is played by the pyrogallol and carboxylic groups<sup>40</sup>. In our study, the major chemical constituents found in the AEL and EEL from *C. coriaceum* were the flavonoids quercetin (28.61mg/g and 36.54mg/g, respectively) and rutin (25.34mg/g and 27.11mg/g, respectively) and the phenolic acids ellagic, 48.63mg/g in the EEL, chlorogenic, 45.90mg/g in the AEL, furthermore caffeic and gallic (Figures 1). In the extract obtained from fruit bark (EEB) was identified a high concentration of ellagic acid (43.61mg/g) (Table 1). Accordingly to literature reports, the acids chlorogenic, gallic, and caffeic, and the flavonoids rutin and quercetin were also identified as main components in hydro-ethanolic extract from *C. coriaceum* leaves<sup>41</sup>. Regarding composition of fruit bark extracts, there is no additional information in the literature.



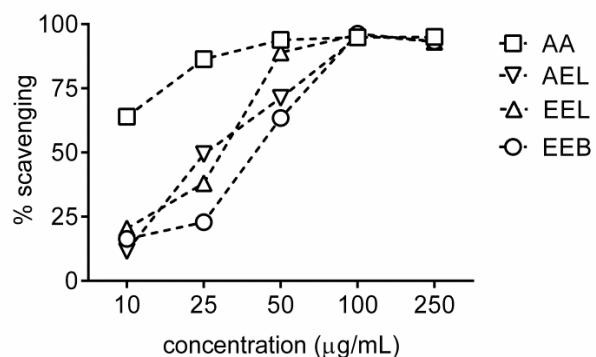
**Figure 1.** Representative high performance liquid chromatography profile of (a) AEL, (b) EEL and (c) EEB from *C. coriaceum*. Gallic acid (peak 1), catechin (peak 2), chlorogenic acid (peak 3), caffeic acid (peak 4), ellagic acid (peak 5), epicatechin (peak 6), rutin (peak 7) isoquercitrin (peak 8) and quercetin (peak 9).

**Table 1.** Quantification of some phenolic compounds from *C. coriaceum*.

Compounds	AEL (mg/g)	EEL (mg/g)	EEB (mg/g)
Gallic acid	21.34 ± 0.01	6.14 ± 0.03	5.32 ± 0.04
Catechin	12.71 ± 0.02	5.52 ± 0.01	0.71 ± 0.02
Chlorogenic acid	45.90 ± 0.02	26.17 ± 0.03	5.08 ± 0.03
Caffeic acid	8.56 ± 0.05	34.29 ± 0.02	14.19 ± 0.03
Ellagic acid	13.07 ± 0.01	48.63 ± 0.01	43.61 ± 0.05
Epicatechin	12.18 ± 0.01	22.05 ± 0.01	5.67 ± 0.01
Rutin	25.34 ± 0.03	27.11 ± 0.01	5.03 ± 0.01
Isoquercitrin	13.75 ± 0.04	8.36 ± 0.01	1.26 ± 0.02
Quercetin	28.61 ± 0.03	36.54 ± 0.02	-

Results are expressed as mean ± SEM from three independent experiments performed in duplicate.

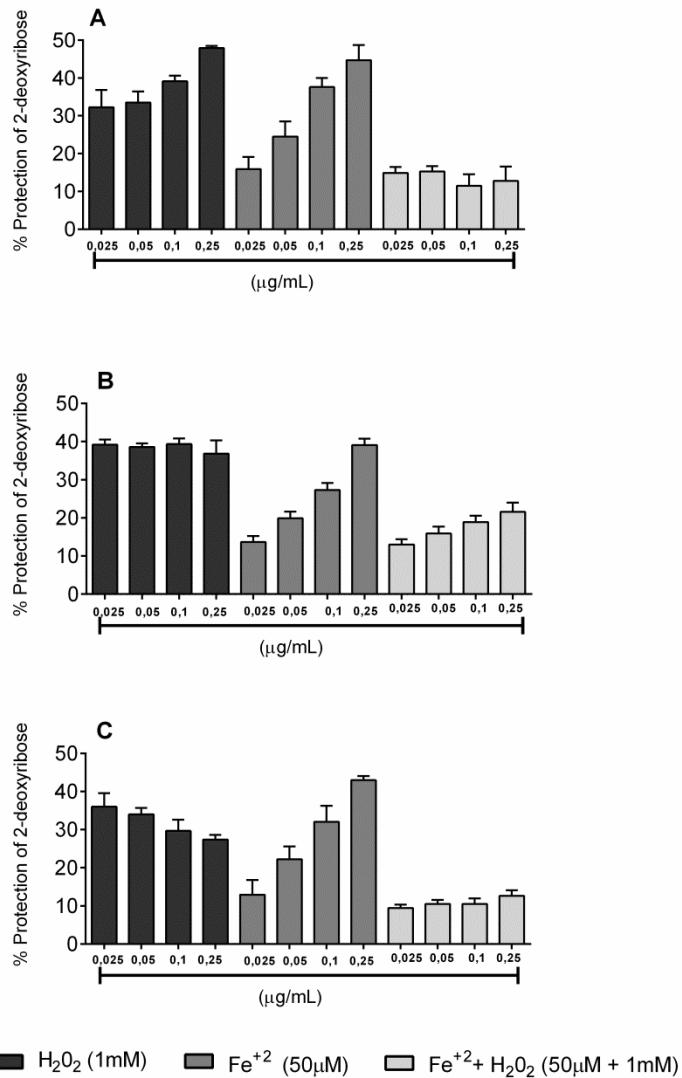
As free radicals are major mediators of the initiation and propagation of oxidative events, the potential for sequestering them is commonly assessed as an important parameter to determine the antioxidant effect of an extract. Here we observe that the different extracts from *C. coriaceum* were able to scavenge the radicals DPPH<sup>·</sup> and OH<sup>·</sup> generated in the chemical systems. The data of figure 2 show that in the highest concentrations (100 and 250 µg/mL), the DPPH scavenging activity exhibited by extracts was similar to the found for AA. The IC<sub>50</sub> values found to the AA, EEL, AEL and EEB were 6.5, 26.37, 27.20 and 38.66 µg/mL respectively.



**Figure 2.** DPPH scavenging activity from *C. coriaceum* extracts. Results are expressed as % inhibition in relation to the acid ascorbic (AA), used as positive control. The values are expressed as means ± S.E.M (n=4). One-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni post test ( $p<0.05$ ).

The extracts exhibited a similar response profile to quench the hydroxyl radical generated by the different chemical systems in the 2-deoxyribose degradation assay (Figures 3). The quenching activity towards radical OH<sup>·</sup> was more pronounced in the system containing Fe<sup>+2</sup> or

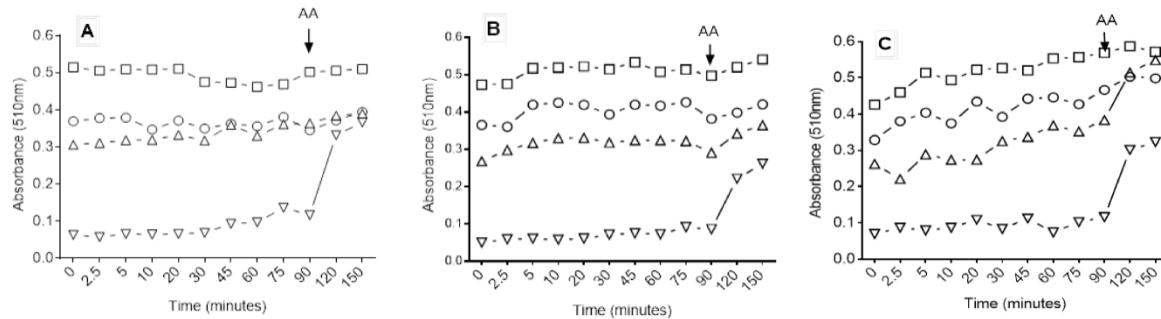
$\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  alone than  $\text{Fe}^{+2}$  plus  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ . This difference regarding the potential of extracts among the systems might be related with the quantity of radical formed, which is more pronounced under Fenton-reaction conditions.



**Figure 3.** Hydroxyl radical scavenging activity of the AEL (**A**), EEL (**B**) and EEB (**C**) from *C. coriaceum*. The values are expressed as means  $\pm$  S.E.M (n=4). One-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni post test (p<0.05).

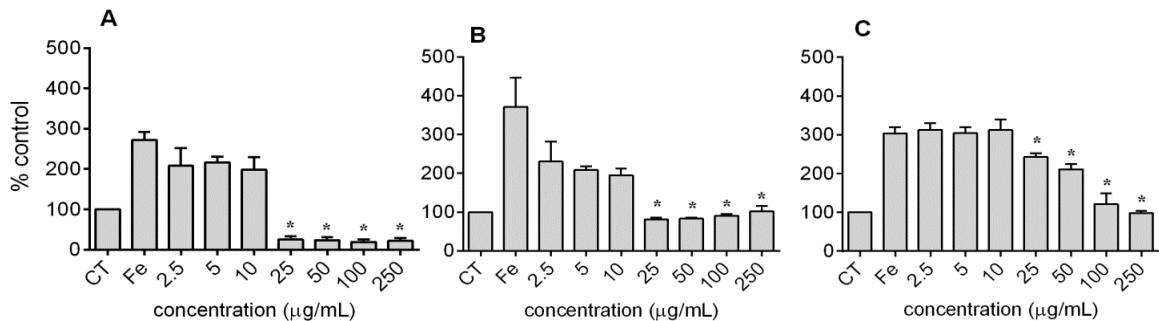
In addition to electron and/or hydrogen donating abilities, the antioxidant power of a natural product can be mediated by its capacity in chelating transition metals. In this scenario highlights the role of iron, since free  $\text{Fe}^{+2}/\text{Fe}^{+3}$  is considered important route for  $\text{OH}^\cdot$  generation via Fenton reaction. Besides,  $\text{Fe}^{+2}/\text{Fe}^{+3}$  can initiate and propagate lipid peroxidation via hydroxyl radical or perferryl and ferryl ions formation<sup>42</sup>. Generally, antioxidants protect against iron toxicity by chelating and/or maintaining it in a redox state unable to reduce molecular oxygen<sup>42,43</sup>. In this sense, here we observed that chelating activity and reducing power was more pronounced for the leaf extracts since there was a marked increase of absorbance in the medium containing EEB after addition of AA (Figures 4). These

results suggest that the extracts from *C. coriaceum* tested are able to modulate the redox status of metal i.e. reducing  $\text{Fe}^{+3}$  and chelating  $\text{Fe}^{+2}$ , properties that might represent to biological systems overloaded by iron a protective mechanism against oxidative insults.



**Figure 4.** Chelating and reducing activity of AEL (A), EEL (B) and EEB (C) from *C. coriaceum*. The extracts ( $50\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ ) were incubated in a medium containing  $\text{Fe}^{+2}$  and/or  $\text{Fe}^{+3}$  in the presence of  $\theta$ -phenanthroline ( $300\mu\text{M}$ ).  $\text{Fe}^{+2}/\text{Fe}^{+3}$  ( $100\mu\text{M}$ ) Ascorbic acid (AA) was added in the reaction medium at 90 min (arrow). □  $\text{Fe}^{+2}$  control; ○ extract +  $\text{Fe}^{+2}$ ; △ extract +  $\text{Fe}^{+3}$ ; ▽  $\text{Fe}^{+3}$  control. The values are expressed as means  $\pm$  S.E.M ( $n=4$ ). One-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni post test

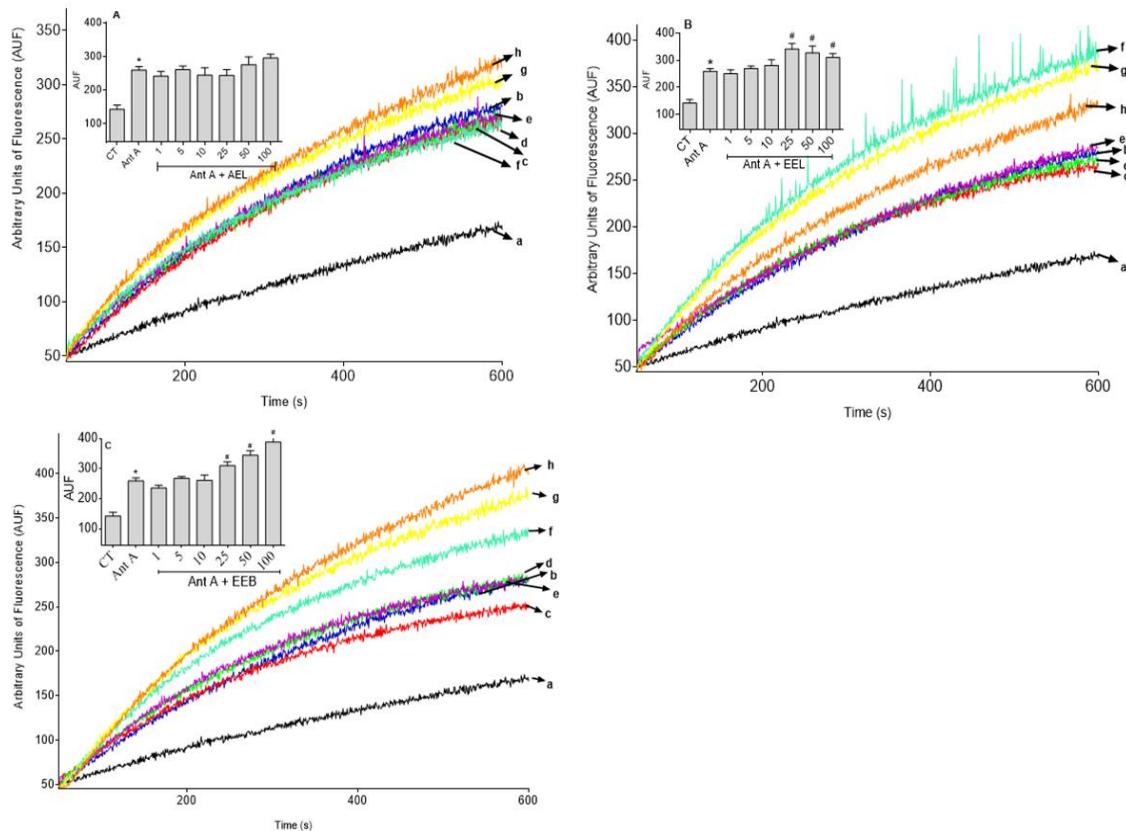
In addition, the extracts were effective in inhibiting lipid peroxidation in liver homogenate from concentration of  $25\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ . This potential was not concentration-dependent manner and was more pronounced for the AEL and EEL than EEB (Figures 5). As this event was induced by ferrous, it is probable that the iron chelating ability of extracts had contributed to the reduction on the TBARS levels. Consistent with these findings, Roesler et al. (2008)<sup>44</sup> reported that bark ethanolic extract from species *Caryocar brasiliense*, a native pequi tree of the Brazilian Cerrado, was able to inhibit lipid peroxidation  $\text{FeCl}_3$ -induced in rat liver.



**Figure 5.** Effect of extracts from *C. coriaceum* on lipid peroxidation induced by  $\text{FeSO}_4$  in liver homogenate. The liver samples were incubated for 1h with  $\text{FeSO}_4$  ( $50\mu\text{M}$ ) in the presence of AEL (A), EEL (B) or EEB (C). The values are expressed as means  $\pm$  S.E.M ( $n=4$ ). \*Denoted  $p<0.05$  from  $\text{Fe}^{+2}$  group. One-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni post test ( $p<0.05$ ).

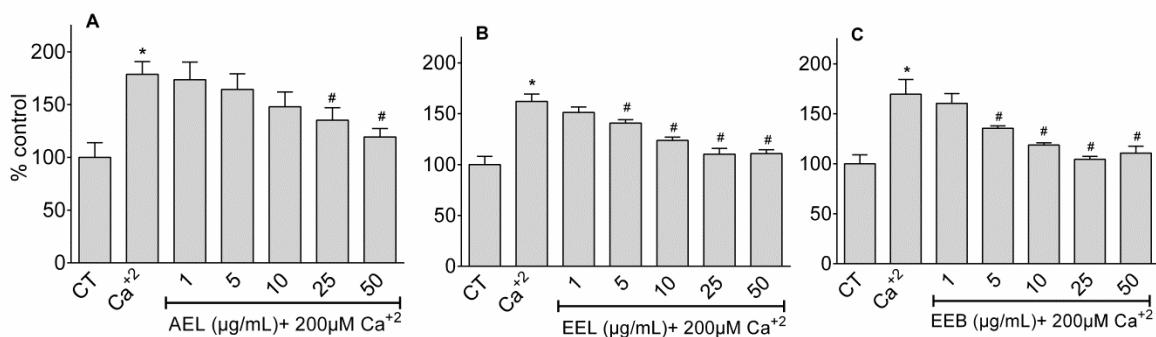
We also evaluated the potential of extracts in diminishing ROS levels using liver homogenate and mitochondria. In mitochondria, the complexes I and III are considered the most important sites of  $\text{O}_2^-$  production. Complex I produces  $\text{O}_2^-$  from the reaction of  $\text{O}_2$  with the reduced FMN, whose reduction is defined by the NADH/NAD<sup>+</sup> ratio. Complex III

produces  $O_2^-$  by passage of electrons of Coenzyme Q pool to cytochrome C. When the complex III is inhibited by antimycin A, the complex yields more  $O_2^-$ , which may be released to both sides of the inner membrane<sup>45</sup>. This  $O_2^-$  is released from complex III to both sides of the inner membrane. Taken together, complex I and III are the two main sites of operation mitochondrial that lead to  $O_2^-$  production and driving the  $H_2O_2$  efflux from mitochondria<sup>46,47</sup>. Herein, we investigated if the extracts from *C. coriaceum* could modulate the levels of  $O_2^-$  formed directly by mitochondria, particularly by complex III site. We verified that the extracts were not able to scavenging the radical  $O_2^-$  generated by liver mitochondria (Figures 6).



**Figure 6.** Effect of AEL (A), EEL (B) and EEB (C) from *C. coriaceum* on mitochondrial superoxide radical formation stimulated by Antimycin A-induced. Lines (a) Control; (b) Antimycin A; (c) Extract 1 $\mu$ g/mL + Antimycin A; (d) Extract 5 $\mu$ g/mL + Antimycin A; (e) Extract 10 $\mu$ g/mL + Antimycin A; (f) Extract 25 $\mu$ g/mL + Antimycin A; (g) Extract 50 $\mu$ g/mL + Antimycin A; (h) Extract 100 $\mu$ g/mL + Antimycin A. The values are expressed as fluorescence intensity  $\pm$  SEM (n=4). \*Denoted p<0.05 as compared to the control; #Denoted p<0.05 as compared to the Antimycin A. One-way ANOVA followed Bonferroni post test (p<0.05).

On the other hand, the extracts reduced the levels of ROS in liver homogenate. The AEL was able to diminish the levels of ROS stimulated by  $Ca^{+2}$  at concentrations of 25 and 50 $\mu$ g/mL (Figure 7A). For EEL and EEB this effect on ROS levels was observed from 5 $\mu$ g/mL (Figures 7B and 7C). These set of data suggest that the extracts might counteract other reactive species formed from  $O_2^-$  mitochondrial, such as  $H_2O_2$  and  $OH^-$ . Along with the other findings found here, it is plausible suppose that this effect on ROS levels is, at least in part, related with the iron chelating ability of extracts and the consequent diminution of reactive species generated via Fenton-reaction.



**Figure 7.** Effect of AEL (A), EEL (B) and EEB (C) from *C. coriaceum* on ROS overproduction stimulated by calcium in liver homogenate. The values are expressed as mean  $\pm$  S.E.M (n=4). \*Denoted  $p<0.05$  compared to the control group. #Denoted  $p<0.05$  compared to the paraquat group One-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni post test ( $p<0.05$ ).

## Conclusion

In conclusion, the results presented in this study revealed, for the first time, that the leaf and bark fruit extracts from species *C. coriaceum* were strong antioxidants. It is probable that the potential in quenching free radicals, chelating/reducing iron, diminishing lipid peroxidation and ROS over production is related with the phenolic compounds present in the extracts. Collectively, the data provide additional information on the species *C. coriaceum* and support the view that leaves and bark fruit could be promising antioxidant agents for further *in vivo* studies.

**Conflict of interest:** The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest.

**Acknowledgments:** The financial support by FAPERGS/Pronex, Pronem, CAPES and CNPq is gratefully acknowledged. J.B.T.R and N.V.B are the recipients of CNPq fellowships.

## 4. References

- 1.Halliwell B. Dietary polyphenols: good, bad, or indifferent for your health? *Cardiovasc Res.* 2007; 73:341-347.
- 2.Dai D-F, Chiao YA, Marcinek DJ, Szeto HH, Rabinovitch PS. Mitochondrial oxidative stress in aging and healthspan. *Longevity & Healthspan.* 2014; 3:1-22.
- 3.Hofer T, Jorgensen TO, Olsen RL. Comparison of food antioxidants and iron chelators in two cellular free radical assays: strong protection by luteolin. *J Agricult Food Chem.* 2014; 62:8402-8410.
- 4.Cadenas E, Davies KJA. Mitochondrial free radical generation, oxidative stress, and aging. *Free Radic Biol Med.* 2000; 29:222–230.
- 5.Barreiros ALBS, David JM, David JP. Estresse oxidativo: relação entre geração de espécies reativas e defesa do organismo. *Quim Nova.* 2006; 29:113-123.
- 6.Tong L, Chuang C-C, Wu S, Zuo L. Reactive oxygen species in redox cancer therapy. *Cancer Lett.* 2015; 367:18-25.
- 7.Weidinger A, Kozlov AV. Biological activities of reactive oxygen and nitrogen species: oxidative stress versus signal transduction. *Biomolecules.* 2015; 5:472-484.
- 8.Velioglu YS, Mazza G, Gao L, Oomah BD. Antioxidant activity and total phenolics in selected fruits, vegetables, and grain products. *J Agricult Food Chem.* 1998; 46: 4113-4117.

- 9.Costa DC, Costa HS, Albuquerque TG, Ramos F, Castilho MC, Sanches-Silva A. Advances in phenolic compounds analysis of aromatic plants and their potential applications. *Trends Food Sci & Technol.* 2015; 45:336-354.
- 10.Rangel-Huerta OD, Pastor-Villaescusa B, Aguilera CM, Gil AG. A systematic review of the efficacy of bioactive compounds in cardiovascular disease: phenolic compounds. *Nutrients.* 2015; 7:5177-5216.
- 11.Oliveira MEB de, Guerra NB, Maia A de HN, et al. Características químicas e físico-químicas de pequis da Chapada do Araripe, Ceará. *Rev. Bras. Frutic.* 2010; 32:114-125.
- 12.Mathew S, Abraham TE, Zakaria ZA. Reactivity of phenolic compounds towards free radicals under *in vitro* conditions. *J Food Sci Technol.* 2015; 52:5790-5798.
- 13.Quirino G da S, Leite G de O, Rebelo LM, et al. Healing potential of pequi (*Caryocar coriaceum* Wittm.) fruit pulp oil. *Phytochem Lett.* 2009; 2:179-183.
- 14.Costa JGM, Brito SAB, Nascimento EMM, Botelho MA, Rodrigues FFG, Coutinho HDM. Antibacterial properties of pequi pulp oil (*Caryocar coriaceum*. Wittm.). *Int J Food Prop.* 2011; 14:411–416.
- 15.Saraiva RA, Araruna MKA, Oliveira RC, et al. Topical anti-inflammatory effect of *Caryocar coriaceum* Wittm. (Caryocaraceae) fruit pulp fixed oil on mice ear edema induced by different irritant agents. *J Ethnopharmacol.* 2011; 136:504-510.
- 16.Ribeiro DA, Oliveira LGS de, Macêdo DG de, et al. Promising medicinal plants for bioprospection in a Cerrado area of Chapada do Araripe, Northeastern Brazil. *J Ethnopharmacol.* 2014; 155:1522-1533.
- 17.Corrêa MP. *Dicionário das plantas úteis do Brasil e exóticas cultivadas*. Ministério da Agricultura, Rio de Janeiro; 1926.
- 18.Agra MF, Freitas PF, Barbosa-Filho JM. Synopsis of the plants known as medicinal and poisonous in Northeast of Brazil. *Revista Brasileira de Farmacognosia* 2007;17:114–40.
- 19.Matos FJA. *Introdução a fitoquímica experimental*. Universidade Federal do Ceará (UFC), Fortaleza; 1997.
- 20.Boligon AA, Brum TF, Frolich JK, Froeder ALF, Athayde ML. HPLC/DAD profile and determination of total phenolic, flavonoids, tannins, and alkaloids contents of *Scutia buxifolia* Reissek stem bark. *Res J Phytochem.* 2012; 6:84–91.
- 21.Sabir SM, Rocha JBT. Water-extractable phytochemicals from *Phyllanthus niruri* exhibit distinct *in vitro* antioxidant and *in vivo* hepatoprotective activity against paracetamol-induced liver damage in mice. *Food Chem.* 2008; 111:845-851.
- 22.Brustovetsky N, Dubinsky JM. Limitations of cyclosporine A inhibition of the permeability transition in CNS mitochondria. *J Neurosci.* 2000; 20:8229–8237.
- 23.Chi CW, Kim SC, Hwang SS, et al. Antioxidant activity and free radical scavenging capacity between Korean medicinal plants and flavonoids by assay-guided comparison. *Plant Sci.* 2002; 53:1161-1168.
- 24.Halliwell B, Gutteridge JMC, Aruoma OI. The deoxyribose method: a simple “Test-tube” assay for determination of rate constants for reactions of hydroxyl radicals. *Anal Biochem.* 1987; 165:215-219.
- 25.Mathew S, Abraham TE. Studies on the antioxidant activities of cinnamon (*Cinnamomum verum*) bark extracts, through various *in vitro* models. *Food Chem.* 2006; 94:520-528.
- 26.Ohkawa H, Ohishi N, Yagi K. Assay for lipid peroxides in animal tissues by thiobarbituric acid reaction. *Anal Biochem.* 1979; 95:351-358.
- 27.Hempel SL, Buettner GRO, Malley YQ, Wessels DA, Flaherty DM. Dihydrofluorescein diacetate is superior for detecting intracellular oxidants: comparison with 2',7'-dichloro dihydrofluorescein diacetate, 5 (and 6)-carboxy-2',7'-dichloro dihydrofluorescein diacetate, and dihydrorhodamine 123. *Free Radic Biol Med.* 1999; 27:146-159.

- 28.Lowry OH, Rosebrough NJ, Farr AL, Randall RJ. Protein measurement with the Folin phenol reagent. *J Biol Chem.* 1951; 193:265-275.
- 29.Oliveira FFB de, Araújo JCB de, Pereira AF, et al. Antinociceptive and anti-inflammatory effects of *Caryocar coriaceum* Wittm fruit pulp fixed ethyl acetate extract on zymosan-induced arthritis in rats. *J Ethnopharmacol.* 2015; 174:452-463.
- 30.Ferreira ALA, Matsubara LS. Radicais livres: conceitos, doenças relacionadas, sistema de defesa e estresse oxidativo. *Rev Assoc Med Bras.* 1997; 43:61-68.
- 31.Kowaltowski AJ, Vercesi AE. Mitochondrial damage induced by conditions of oxidative stress. *Free Radic Biol Med.* 1999; 26:463-471.
- 32.Lobo V, Patil A, Phatak A, Chandra N. Free radicals, antioxidants and functional foods: impact on human health. *Pharmacogn Rev.* 2010; 4:118-126.
- 33.Burton GJ, Jauniaux E. Oxidative stress. *Best Pract Res Cl Ob.* 2011; 25:287–299.
- 34.Jomova K, Valko M. Health protective effects of carotenoids and their interactions with other biological antioxidants. *Eur J Med Chem.* 2013; 70:102-110.
- 35.Komolafe K, Olaleye TM, Omotuyi OI, et al. *In vitro* antioxidant activity and effect of *Parkia biglobosa* bark extract on mitochondrial redox status. *J Acupunct Meridian Stud.* 2014; 7:202-210.
- 36.Heim KE, Tagliaferro AR, Bobilya DJ. Flavonoid antioxidants: chemistry, metabolism and structure-activity relationships. *J Nutr Biochem.* 2002; 13:572-584.
- 37.Oliveira DM de, Bastos DHM. Biodisponibilidade de ácidos fenólicos. *Quim Nova.* 2011; 34:1051-1056.
- 38.Pannala AS, Chan TS, O'brien PJ, Rice-Evans CA. Flavonoid b-ring chemistry and antioxidant activity: fast reaction kinetics. *Biochem Biophys Res Co.* 2001; 282:1161-1168.
- 39.Kara I, Kara Y, Kiraz AÖ, Mammadov R. Theoretical calculations of a compound formed by Fe<sup>+3</sup> and tris (catechol). *Spectrochim Acta A.* 2015; 149:592-599.
- 40.Rice-Evans CA, Miller NJ, Paganga G. Structure-antioxidant activity relationships of flavonoids and phenolic acids. *Free Radic Biol Med.* 1996; 20:933-956.
- 41.Araruna MKA de, Santos KKA, Costa JGM da, et al. Phenolic composition and *in vitro* activity of the Brazilian fruit tree *Caryocar coriaceum* Wittm. *Eur J Integr Med.* 2013; 5:178–183.
- 42.Farina M, Avila DS, Rocha JBT, Aschner M. Metals, Oxidative stress and neurodegeneration: a focus on iron, manganese and mercury. *Neurochem Int.* 2013; 62:575–594.
- 43.Valko M, Morris H, Cronin MT. Metals, toxicity and oxidative stress. *Curr Med Chem.* 2005; 12:1161-1208.
- 44.Roesler R, Catharino RR, Malta LG, Eberlin MN, Pastore GM. Antioxidant activity of *Caryocar brasiliense* (pequi) and characterization of components by electrospray ionization mass spectrometry. *Food Chem.* 2008; 110:711-717.
- 45.Murphy MP. How mitochondria produce reactive oxygen species. *Biochem J.* 2009; 417:1-13.
- 46.Turrens JF. Mitochondrial formation of reactive oxygen species. *J Physiol.* 2003; 552:335-344.
- 47.Sena LA, Chandel NS. Physiological roles of mitochondrial reactive oxygen species. *Mol Cell.* 2012; 48:158-167.

## List of Abbreviations

DPPH: 1,1-diphenyl-2-picrylhydrazyl  
 ROS: Reactive Oxygen Species

AEL: Aqueous Extract of Leaves  
AA: Ascorbic Acid  
EEL: Ethanolic Extract of Leaves  
EEB: Ethanolic Extract of Bark  
DCF-DA: 2',7'-Dichlorofluorescein Diacetate  
 $\text{Fe}^{+2}$ : Ferrous ion  
 $\text{Fe}^{+3}$ : Ferric ion  
 $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ : Hydrogen Peroxide  
HPLC: High-Performance Liquide Chromatografy  
MDA: Malondialdehyde  
 $\text{OH}^{\cdot}$ : Hydroxyl Radical  
TBARS: Thiobarbituric Acid Reactive Substances  
 $\text{O}_2^{\cdot-}$ : Superoxide Anion  
ANOVA: Analysis of Variance

**List of Table and Figures**

**Table 1.** Quantification of some phenolic compounds from *C. coriaceum*.

**Figure 1.** Representative high performance liquid chromatography profile of (a) AEL, (b) EEL and (c) EEB from *C. coriaceum*. Gallic acid (peak 1), catechin (peak 2), chlorogenic acid (peak 3), caffeic acid (peak 4), ellagic acid (peak 5), epicatechin (peak 6), rutin (peak 7) isoquercitrin (peak 8) and quercetin (peak 9).

**Figure 2.** DPPH scavenging activity from *C. coriaceum* extracts. Results are expressed as % inhibition in relation to the acid ascorbic (AA), used as positive control. The values are expressed as means  $\pm$  S.E.M (n=4). One-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni post test ( $p<0.05$ ).

**Figure 3.** Hydroxyl radical scavenging activity of the AEL (A), EEL (B) and EEB (C) from *C. coriaceum*. The values are expressed as means  $\pm$  S.E.M (n=4). One-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni post test ( $p<0.05$ ).

**Figure 4.** Chelating and reducing activity of AEL (A), EEL(B) and EEB(C)from *C. coriaceum*. The extracts (50 $\mu$ g/ml) were incubated in a medium containing  $\text{Fe}^{+2}$  and/or  $\text{Fe}^{+3}$  in the presence of  $\theta$ -phenanthroline (300 $\mu$ M). Ascorbic acid (AA) was added in the reaction medium at 90 min (arrow). Legend: □  $\text{Fe}^{+2}$  control; ○ extract +  $\text{Fe}^{+2}$ ; △ extract +  $\text{Fe}^{+3}$ ; ▽  $\text{Fe}^{+3}$  control. The values are expressed as means  $\pm$  S.E.M (n=4). One-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni post test ( $p<0.05$ ).

**Figure 5.** Effect of extracts from *C. coriaceum* on lipid peroxidation induced by  $\text{FeSO}_4$  in liver homogenate. The liver samples were incubated for 1h with  $\text{FeSO}_4$  (50 $\mu$ M) in the presence of AEL (A), EEL (B) or EEB (C). The values are expressed as means  $\pm$  S.E.M (n=4). \*Denoted  $p<0.05$  from  $\text{Fe}^{+2}$  group. One-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni post test ( $p<0.05$ ).

**Figure 6.** Effect of AEL (A), EEL (B) and EEB (C) from *C. coriaceum* on mitochondrial superoxide radical formation stimulated by Antimycin A-induced. Lines (a) Control; (b) Antimycin A; (c) Extract 1 $\mu$ g/mL + Antimycin A; (d) Extract 5 $\mu$ g/mL + Antimycin A; (e) Extract 10 $\mu$ g/mL + Antimycin A; (f) Extract 25 $\mu$ g/mL + Antimycin A; (g) Extract 50 $\mu$ g/mL + Antimycin A; (h) Extract 100 $\mu$ g/mL + Antimycin A. The values are expressed as fluorescence intensity  $\pm$  SEM (n=4). \*Denoted  $p<0.05$  as compared to the control; #Denoted  $p<0.05$  as compared to the Antimycin A. One-way ANOVA followed Bonferroni post test ( $p<0.05$ ).

**Figure 7.** Effect of AEL (A), EEL (B) and EEB (C) from *C. coriaceum* on calcium-induced ROS overproduction in liver homogenate. The values are expressed as mean  $\pm$  S.E.M (n=4). \*Denoted  $p<0.05$  compared to the control group. #Denoted  $p<0.05$  compared to the calcium group. One-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni post test ( $p<0.05$ ).

## 2.2 MANUSCRITO 2

**Diets supplemented with leaf extract and pequi pulp oil from *Caryocar coriaceum* Wittm Protect *Drosophila melanogaster* Against Locomotor Deficits and Oxidative Stress induced by Paraquat.**

Sandra Mara Duavy<sup>a</sup>, Assis Ecker<sup>a</sup>, Gerson Torres<sup>a</sup>, João Batista Teixeira da Rocha<sup>a</sup>, José Galberto Martins da Costa<sup>b</sup> and Nilda Vargas Barbosa<sup>a</sup>

<sup>a</sup>Departamento de Bioquímica e Biologia Molecular, Programa de Pós-Graduação em Ciências Biológicas: Bioquímica Toxicológica, Universidade Federal de Santa Maria (UFSM), Campus Universitário - Camobi, 97105-900 Santa Maria, RS, Brazil.

<sup>b</sup>Departamento de Química, Universidade Regional do Cariri (URCA), Campus Pimenta, 63105-000 Crato, CE, Brazil.

\*Corresponding author:

Dra. Nilda Vargas Barbosa

Departamento de Bioquímica e Biologia Molecular

CEP 97105-900, Santa Maria, RS, Brazil

Tel: 55-55-3220-8140

Fax: 55-55-3220-8978

E-mail: [nvbarbosa@yahoo.com.br](mailto:nvbarbosa@yahoo.com.br)

## Abstract

The species *Caryocar coriaceum* Wittm (*C. coriaceum*), is popularly employed in northeast of Brazil for culinary purposes and in folk medicine. The oil from its fruit, called Pequi, is commonly used to treat inflammatory problems, while its leaves are used to treat viral infections. However, the scientific knowledge about the pharmacological properties from these plant parts is still scarce. Thus, this study aimed to explore the *in vivo* antioxidant potential of aqueous extract of the leaves (AEL) and Pequi pulp oil (PPO) on the oxidative effects induced by paraquat (PQ) in *D. melanogaster*. The flies were fed with either standard or AEL and PPO supplemented diets before (pré-treatment for 7 days) or concomitantly (co-treatment for 5 days) to PQ exposure. In experimental trials, the flies exposed to PQ had locomotor deficits and a high mortality rate. PQ also induced significant changes in the antioxidant/oxidant status of flies (e.g., increase in levels of reactive oxygen species (ROS) and lipid peroxidation; increase in the activity of antioxidant enzymes (catalase and glutathione-S-transferase) and a marked up-regulation in mRNA expression of stress-related genes (catalase, superoxide dismutase, thioredoxin reductase and Keap-1)). The AEL and PPO treatments were similarly effective in protecting flies against the mortality, locomotor changes and oxidative stress induced by PQ exposure. No signal of toxicity was observed in flies fed with AEL and PPO alone. Our findings provide evidence that the consumption of AEL and PPO may confer protection toward human illness and/or conditions that have a free radical basis, by exhibiting antioxidant role.

**Keywords:** *Caryocar coriaceum*, Pequi, *Drosophila melanogaster*, Paraquat, Oxidative stress

## Introduction

The genus *Caryocar* has 16 species, including *Caryocar coriaceum* Wittm. (*C. coriaceum*) (Caryocaraceae family). *C. coriaceum* are widely distributed in northeast of Brazilian, particularly, in the Araripe National Forest located in the state of Ceará (CE) (ASCARI et al, 2013). The fruit of *C. coriaceum* known as Pequi, is commonly employed for culinary purposes and in folk medicine. In addition to traditional ethnopharmacological use, Pequi has been explored as a functional food. In Cariri Region of Ceará, in addition to the extensive culinary use of the pequi, the fruit is processed for oil production in several homemade small industries. In fact, the pequi oil can be found in all the popular markets from cities of Cariri region.

The pequi oil is rich in carotenoids and phenolic acids and it is popularly used to healing and relieve respiratory and inflammatory problems (LIMA et al, 2007; MATOS, 2007; RIBEIRO et al, 2014). Some findings have confirmed the efficacy of pequi oil as anti-inflammatory and wound healing in *in vivo* experimental models (DE OLIVEIRA et al, 2010;

SARAIVA et al, 2011). However, the medicinal use of pequi oil is empirical and scientific researches about its pharmacology and/or toxicology are still scarce and deserve special attention. In addition, the scientific establishment of the beneficial effects of pequi oil will stimulate the exploitation of pequi fruit as a functional food and will aggregate value to its products. Studies have also been carried out with leaves from Pequi trees that are popularly used to treat viral infections (AGRA et al, 2007; CORREA, 1926). But there are only few points of scientific evidence supporting the antimicrobial effects of the leaves from *C. coriaceum* (ARARUNA et al., 2013).

The interest in natural antioxidant compounds that can attenuate cellular oxidative damage, as well as the use of alternative models to investigate the therapeutic potential of natural antioxidants, has grown considerably in recent decades (DOGANLAR, O and DOGANLAR, Z, B. 2015; EMBUSCADO 2015; SOUZA et al, 2014; SUDATI et al, 2013; CRUZ et al, 2015). Among the non-mammalian model organisms, the fruit fly *Drosophila melanogaster* (*D. melanogaster*), has been proven highly successful for addressing a wide variety of biological aspects. It has been estimated that about 60% of a set of 289 human disease-causing genes have homologues in the fly (YAMAMOTO et al, 2014). In addition, many molecular pathways involved in the control of development, metabolism and neurological processes in the fly are evolutionary conserved in other organisms, including humans (VITUSHYNSKA et al, 2015; WOLF et al, 2006). The fly is also considered an advantageous tool due to its low cost, short life cycle, rapid development and feasibility for medium/high throughput screenings (BOYD et al, 2011; DEMIR et al, 2013; BELLEN and YAMAMOTO, 2015).

Considering the large use of *C. coriaceum* as a food and as a folk medicinal plant and the scarcity of scientific knowledge about the pharmacological properties of this species, this study aimed to explore the *in vivo* antioxidant potential of aqueous extract of the leaves (AEL) and Pequi pulp oil (PPO) from *C. coriaceum* against the oxidative damage induced by paraquat (PQ) in *D. melanogaster*. Furthermore, we characterized by HPLC-DAD some phenolics and flavonoids compounds present in the extract. The pulp oil tested here had its composition identified by CG-MS in a previous study from our group where was identified the presence of oleic acid (55.79%), palmitic acid (34.18%), heptadecenoic acid (5.86%), linoleic acid (1.80%), estearic acid (1.73%), eicosenoic acid (0.37%) and palmitoleic acid (0.27%) (COSTA et al, 2011).

## Material and Methods

### Chemicals

Gallic acid, ellagic acid, chlorogenic acid, acetic acid, caffeic acid were purchased from Merck (Darmstadt, Germany). Paraquat (1,1'-dimethyl-4,4'-bipyridinium dichloride), quercetin, rutin, isoquercitrin, epicatechin, catechin, malondialdehyde (MDA), thiobarbituric acid (TBA) were acquired from Sigma Chemical Co. (St. Louis, MO, USA). The probe 2',7'-dichlorofluorescein diacetate (DCF-DA) was purchased from Molecular Probes (Eugene, OR, USA). All other reagents were commercial products of the highest purity grade available.

### Quantification of oil composition and phenolics and flavonoids compounds

Reverse phase chromatographic analyses were carried out under gradient conditions using C<sub>18</sub> column (4.6 mm x 150 mm) packed with 5µm diameter particles a Hewlett-Packard GC/MS, model 5971. The mobile phase was water containing 2% acetic acid (A) and methanol (B), and the composition gradient was: 5% of B until 2 min and changed to obtain 25%, 40%, 50%, 60%, 70% and 100% B at 10, 20, 30, 40, 50 and 60 min, respectively, following the method described by Sabir et al. (2012) with slight modifications. *C. coriaceum* aqueous extract leaves was analyzed at a concentration of 20 mg/mL. The presence of nine compounds was investigated, namely, gallic acid, caffeic acid, chlorogenic acid, ellagic acid, catechin, epicatechin, quercetin, isoquercitrin and rutin. Identification of these compounds was performed by comparing their retention time and UV absorption spectrum with those of the commercial standards. The flow rate was 0.6 ml/min, injection volume 50 µl and the wavelength were 257 nm for gallic acid, 280 nm catechin and epicatechin, 327 nm for caffeic, ellagic and chlorogenic acids, and 365 nm for quercetin, isoquercitrin and rutin. The samples and mobile phase were filtered through 0.45 µm membrane filter (Millipore) and then degassed by ultrasonic bath prior to use. Stock solutions of standards references were prepared in the HPLC mobile phase at a concentration range of 0.030 – 0.400 mg/ml for quercetin, isoquercitrin, rutin, epicatechin and catechin; and 0.050 – 0.350 mg/ml for gallic, chlorogenic, caffeic and ellagic acids. The chromatography peaks were confirmed by comparing its retention time with those of reference standards and by DAD spectra (200 to 500 nm). Calibration curve for gallic acid: Y = 14063x + 1247.8 (r = 0.9995); caffeic acid: Y = 12438x + 1527.1 (r = 0.9999); chlorogenic acid: Y = 10972x + 1375.4 (r = 0.9998); ellagic acid: Y = 13084x + 1256.9 (r = 0.9997); rutin: Y = 11782 + 1460.3 (r = 0.9997); quercetin: Y = 12895x + 1342.5 (r = 0.9993); isoquercitrin: Y = 10982x + 1242.1 (r = 0.9996); catechin: Y = 13560x + 1438.4 (r = 0.9991); epicatechin: Y = 13945x + 1173.9 (r = 0.9989). All chromatography operations were

carried out at ambient temperature and in triplicate (BOLIGON et al, 2012). The limit of detection (LOD) and limit of quantification (LOQ) were calculated based on the standard deviation of the responses and the slope using three independent analytical curves, as defined by Sabir et al. (2012). LOD and LOQ were calculated as  $3.3$  and  $10 \sigma/S$ , respectively, where  $\sigma$  is the standard deviation of the response and  $S$  is the slope of the calibration curve.

### **Leaf extract and oil preparation**

Leaves and fruits of *C.coriaceum* were collected in the Araripe National Forest, GPS  $7^{\circ} 21' 53$ ,  $1^{\circ}$  S,  $39^{\circ} 28' 42$ ,  $6^{\circ}$  W, Crato, Ceará State, Brazil. A voucher specimen of plant was deposited under number 6684 at the "Herbárium Dárdano de Andrade Lima" - HCDAL from Universidade Regional do Cariri (URCA). The aqueous extract of leaves (642g) was obtained by infusion in hot water for 2 hours. The resulting aqueous solution was frozen and then dried by lyophilization, yielding 9,65%. The fruit pulp fixed oil was extracted using a Soxhlet extractor with hexane at  $60^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 4 hours, from 1297.7g of pulp, yielding 3.46% which was stored in amber bottle and kept in refrigerator.

To carry out this research in the Araripe National Forest, the current study was also approved (No. 6041246) by the SISBIO, which is the System for Authorization and Information on Biodiversity of the Chico Mendes – Institute for Biodiversity Conservation (ICMBio), the agency in charge of managing FLONA-Araripe.

### **Flies Stock**

*D. melanogaster* wild-type (Canton-S strain) was obtained from National Species Stock Center, Bowling Green, OH, USA. The flies were reared in 2,5 x 6,5 cm bottles and maintained in a humidified (60%), temperature-controlled incubator with 12 hours on/off light cycle at  $24^{\circ}\text{C}$ . All experiments were performed with the same strain and young flies with 2-days old (both gender).

Two foods were used in the experimental protocols: Agar and corn based mixture. For agar medium, the standard food contained 1% w/v brewer's yeast; 2% w/v sucrose; 0.5% w/v powdered milk; 1% w/v agar and 0.08% v/w methyl p-hydroxybenzoate antifungal (Nipagin®). For corn medium, the standard food contained 39 % coarse and 32 % medium corn flour, 10 % wheat germ, 14 % sugar, 2 % milk powder, 1 % salt, 1 % soybean flour, 1 % rye flour, a pinch of methyl p-hydroxybenzoate antifungal (Nipagin®) and lyophilized yeast.

## **Experimental design**

**Pre-treatment with leaf extract:** Flies were fed with agar standard diet supplemented or not with AEL (at final concentration of 1 and 5 mg/g of diet) for 7 days. Then, the standard diet was removed and flies were fed for 24h with 4% sucrose solution containing or not PQ (at final concentration of 10 mM). The solution was soaked in filter papers, which were changed daily.

**Co-treatment with leaf extract:** Flies were fed with either 4% sucrose solution or 4% sucrose solution containing PQ (at final concentration of 1mM) plus AEL (at final concentration of 1 and 5 mg/mL) for 5 consecutive days. The solution was soaked in filter papers, which were changed daily.

**Pre-treatment with Pequi pulp oil:** Flies were fed with corn based diet supplemented or not Pequi pulp oil (PPO) for 7 days. PPO was added to the diet to give a final concentration of 1, 5 or 10mg/g of diet. Afterwards, the diet was removed and flies were fed with either 4% sucrose solution or 4% sucrose solution containing PQ (at final concentration of 10 mM). The solution was soaked in filter papers that were changed daily.

The biochemical assays were performed 24 h after the end of each protocol. The flies were euthanized after exposure to paraquat.

## **Survival rate**

Survival rate was evaluated by counting the number of living flies daily. A total of 150 flies per group were included in the survival data. The total number of flies represents the sum of three independent experiments (50 flies/ each treatment repetition).

## **Negative geotaxis assay**

The locomotor performance of flies was assessed using the negative geotaxis assay as previously described (FEANY and BENDER, 2000; ABOLAJI et al. 2014). Flies were sorted under a brief ice anesthesia (5 min) and then transferred to test tubes, which were used as vertical glass column (length: 10 cm, diameter: 1,5 cm). After recovery from cold exposure, flies were gently tapped to the bottom of the tube and the number of flies able to climb 6 cm was recorded. The flies that reached the top of the column and those that remained at the bottom were counted separately after 6 seconds. Around 10 flies were put in each column and the total number of flies (90 flies per group) represents the sum of three independent experiments.

### **Whole-fly homogenate preparation**

Briefly, ice-anesthetized flies were separated and manually homogenized in appropriate buffers for each assay. Following centrifugation at 4°C, the supernatant ( $S_1$ ) was maintained on ice until the biochemical assays. For enzymatic activity and reactive oxygen species (ROS) measurements, twenty flies were homogenized in a 20mM phosphate buffer, pH 7.4. The homogenate was centrifuged at 3500 x g during 5min. For lipid peroxidation evaluation, twenty flies were homogenized in 50mM Tris-HCl buffer pH 7.4. The homogenate was centrifuged at 560 x g for 15 min.

### **Reactive Oxygen Species (ROS) determination**

ROS levels were measured in whole flies homogenate (2.5  $\mu$ L) using the oxidant sensing fluorescent probe, 2',7'-dichlorofluorescein diacetate (DCF-DA) 5 $\mu$ M (HEMPEL et al., 1999). The DCF-DA is hydrolyzed by esterases to form non fluorescent DCF-H, which can be oxidized by ROS to form the fluorescent 2',7'-dichlorofluorescein (DCF). Oxidation to dichlorofluorescein (DCF-DA) was determined at 488 nm excitation and 525 nm emission and the fluorescence was detected in a Shimadzu spectrophotometer. The values are expressed as arbitrary units of fluorescence (AUF).

### **Lipid peroxidation determination**

The lipid peroxidation was performed by measuring the content of thiobarbituric acid reactive substances (TBARS), assayed according to Ohkawa (1979) with some modifications. Briefly,  $S_1$  (200  $\mu$ L) was incubated for 1 hour at 37°C. Afterwards, 100  $\mu$ L of 8.1% SDS, 500 $\mu$ L of 0.8% TBA, 500 $\mu$ L of 20% Acetic Acid pH 3.5 and deionized water were added to the samples and incubated for 1 hour at 100°C. The absorbance was measured at 532 nm. The results were expressed in nmol of MDA/mg of protein.

### **Catalase (CAT) activity**

CAT activity was determined spectrophotometrically according to Aebi (1984), with some modifications. Kinetic analysis of CAT activity was started by adding of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (300mM) to the reaction medium along with  $S_1$  (20 $\mu$ L). The decrease in the optical density at 240 nm was measured over 2 min at 25°C and the results were linear with regard to time and amount of  $S_1$ . One unit of CAT was considered as the amount of enzyme which decomposes 1  $\mu$ mol H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>/ minute at pH 7.0 at 25°C. The activity was expressed as units of CAT/mg protein (U/mg protein).

### **Glutathione-S-Transferase (GST) activity**

GST activity was determined according to the method described by Habig et al (1974), adapted to microplates. To evaluate the activity of GST was added 0.1M TFK pH 7.5 buffer to the reaction medium along with S<sub>1</sub> (20µL). This method is based on the principle that GST enzyme catalyzes the conjugation of 1-chloro-2,4-dinitrobenzene to reduced glutathione 100mM (GSH), originating a thioether (S-2,4-dinitrophenyl glutathione) which can be monitored by the increase in absorbance at 340nm. The molar extinction coefficient used for CDNB (1mM) was 9.6 mM<sup>-1</sup>cm<sup>-1</sup>. The results were expressed as milliunits of enzyme activity/mg of protein (mU/mg protein).

### **RNA Isolation and analysis of mRNA expression by qRT-PCR (quantitative real-time polymerase chain reaction)**

Total RNA was extracted from whole flies using Trizol Reagent (Invitrogen). Three separate samples were collected from each group and duplicate measurements were conducted. The gene-specific primer sequences were based on published sequences in GenBank Overview (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genbank/>). The primers were designed using Primer 3 program version 0.4.0 (<http://frodo.wi.mit.edu/primer3/>) and custom made by Invitrogen. The total RNA was treated with DNase I (Invitrogen), and complementary DNA (cDNA) was synthesized with M-MLV reverse transcriptase (RT) enzyme and random primers using the manufacturer's protocol (Invitrogen). Quantitative real-time polymerase chain reaction was performed in 20 µL PCR mixture containing 1µL RT product (cDNA) as template, 1x PCR buffer, 25mM dNTPs, 0.2 mM of each primer of interest, 1.5-5.0 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 0.1x SYBR Green I (molecular probes), and 1U Taq DNA polymerase (Invitrogen). The thermal cycle was carried out using a StepOne Plus real-time PCR system (Applied Biosystems, NY) according to the following protocol: activation of the Taq DNA polymerase at 95°C for 5 min, followed by 40 cycles of 15 s at 95°C, 15 s at 60°C, and 25 s at 72°C. The fluorescent signal produced from the amplification was acquired at the end of the polymerization step at 72°C. Threshold and baselines were manually determined using the StepOne Software v2.3 (Applied Biosystems, NY) and the CT (cycle threshold) value for each sample was calculated and recorded using 2<sup>-ΔCT</sup>. For each well, analyzed in triplicate, the ΔCT was obtained by subtracting the GPDH CT value from the CT value of the gene of interest. Levels of gene expression in all groups were shown as a ratio of the standard control group value. The experiment was repeated three times with independently isolated RNA samples.

qPCR analysis was performed using primers sequences to catalase (CAT), superoxide dismutase (SOD), thioredoxin reductase isoform (Trx R-1) and Keap-1 Nrf2 repressor (Table 1). All experiments were calculated in relation to GPDH gene. Three independent experiments were performed with 20 flies of each group and qRT-PCR quantification was performed in duplicate.

### **Protein determination**

The protein content in the whole body homogenates was determined by the method of Lowry et al (1951).

### **Statistical analysis**

Data were analyzed by one-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) followed by Bonferroni's multiple comparison tests when appropriate, and expressed as mean  $\pm$  SEM. Differences between groups were considered significant when  $p < 0.05$ . The graphics were made using the Graph Pad Prism 6.0 (GraphPad Software, San Diego, CA, USA). N experimental, total de moscas.

## **Results**

### **Analysis of phenolic and flavonoid compounds by HPLC**

Quantitative analyses of phenolic compounds from aqueous extract of *C. coriaceum* leaves by HPLC revealed that chlorogenic acid (45.90 mg/g), quercetin (28.61 mg/g), rutin (25.34mg/g) and gallic acid (21.34mg/g) were the major compounds found in the extract (Table 1 and Figure 1).

### **Survival rate**

**AEL Co-treatment:** The data of figure 2A show the survival rate of flies fed with AEL enriched medium for 5 consecutive days and concomitantly exposed to PQ 1mM. PQ exposure induced a prominent mortality manifested from day 2 onwards. The percentage of deaths in last day of exposure was approximately 50%. The flies exposed to PQ and fed with AEL had an increase in the survival rate in comparison to group exposed to PQ alone. After 5 days of exposure to PQ, the protective effect afforded by AEL at concentrations of 1 and 5mg/g diet was 16.48% and 24.61%, respectively (Figure 2A). No difference between control and AEL groups were observed in this parameter.

**AEL Pre-treatment:** The figure 2B show the survival rate of flies fed with AEL enriched medium for 7 days before exposure to PQ 10mM. The exposure of flies to PQ culminated with a high mortality rate, which progressed with the duration of exposure. In this protocol, the effect of PQ on survival of flies was not prevented and/or palliated by AEL pre-treatments (Figure 2B). The intake of AEL enriched medium did not cause mortality significant at any of the tested concentrations when compared to the control.

**PPO Pre-treatment:** The figure 2C show the survival rate of flies fed with PPO enriched medium for 7 days before exposure to PQ 10mM. As verified for AEL pre treatment, PQ exposure caused a severe time dependent manner mortality, which was not prevented and/or attenuated by pre-treatment with PPO at any of the tested concentrations (Figure 2C). The survival rate of flies fed with PPO was not statistically different from control group.

### Negative geotaxis assay

**AEL Co-treatment:** The flies exposed to PQ 1mM had an impairment of locomotor activity of  $\approx 25\%$  when compared to the control group (measured on day 5). The flies maintained in a medium enriched with AEL 1 and 5mg/mL of diet exhibited an improvement in the locomotor performance of  $\approx 14\%$  and  $18\%$  respectively when compared to the PQ (Figure 3A). No statistical difference was found between AEL and control groups in climbing behavior.

**AEL Pre-treatment:** The exposure of flies to PQ 10mM culminated with an impairment of locomotor activity of  $\approx 66\%$  when compared to the control group (Figure 3B). Flies fed with a medium enriched with AEL 1 mg/g of diet exhibited an improvement of  $\approx 47\%$  in this parameter (Figure 3B). Different, the pre-treatment with AEL 5mg/g of diet did not afford protection against the locomotor deficits induced by PQ. There was no statistical difference between AEL and control groups.

**PPO Pre-treatment:** In this protocol, PQ 10 mM caused impairment in the locomotor performance of  $\approx 28\%$  when compared to the control group (Figure 3C). The locomotor alterations induced by PQ were attenuated in flies fed with PPO 1 (19%), 5 (17%) and 10 mg/g of diet (22%) (Figure 3C). The climbing behavior of flies fed with PPO was not affected when compared to the control group.

### ROS levels

**AEL Co-treatment:** The exposure to PQ 1mM for 5 days caused a significant elevation in ROS levels of flies when compared to the control group (Figure 4A). In flies fed with AEL 1 and

5 mg/mL of diet, the PQ-induced increase in ROS levels was rescued to the basal values. AEL *per se* did not alter this parameter in flies.

**AEL Pre-treatment:** The exposure of flies to PQ 10 mM also culminated with a marked increase in ROS levels when compared to the control group (Figure 4B). Similar to co-treatment, the flies maintained in a medium enriched with AEL 1 and 5 mg/g of diet for 7 days before PQ exposure had a significant reduction in ROS levels. There was no statistical difference between AEL and control groups.

**PPO Pre-treatment:** In this protocol, the increase in ROS induced PQ 10 mM was not lowered in flies pre-treated with PPO at any of the tested concentrations (Figure 4C). There was no significant difference in this parameter between PPO and control groups.

### TBARS levels

**AEL Co-treatment:** The exposure of flies to PQ 1mM for 5 days culminated with a marked increase in TBARS levels (Figure 5A). The flies simultaneously maintained in medium enriched with both AEL 1 and 5 mg/mL of diet had a significant reduction in TBARS levels when compared to PQ group. There was not statistical difference between AEL and control group in this parameter.

**AEL Pre-treatment:** A marked elevation in TBARS levels was observed in flies exposed to PQ 10mM. The levels of TBARS were lower in flies fed with AEL 1 and 5 mg/g of diet when compared to PQ group (Figure 5B). There was not statistical difference between AEL and control group.

**PPO Pre-treatment:** Similar to AEL, the pre-treatment of flies with PPO was able to counteract the effect of PQ at all tested concentrations (Figure 5C). There was not statistical difference between PPO and control groups.

### Catalase and GST activities

**AEL Co-treatment:** The exposure of flies to PQ 1mM for 5 consecutive days was associated with a significant elevation in the activity of enzymes CAT and GST (Figure 6A). The PQ-induced increases in CAT and GST activities were lowered by treatment with AEL in both tested concentrations (Figure 6A). AEL *per se* did not change CAT and GST enzymes when compared to the control (Figure 6A).

**AEL Pre-treatment:** In this protocol, the exposure of flies to PQ 10 mM caused an increase in CAT activity without alter GST activity (Figure 6B). The effect of PQ on CAT activity was

palliated by pre-treatment of flies with AEL in both tested concentrations (Figure 6B). AEL *per se* did not alter the activity of enzymes when compared to the control.

**PPO Pre-treatment:** In this protocol, the flies exposed to PQ 10 mM had an increase in the activity of both enzymes CAT and GST (Figure 6C). This effect of PQ was significantly reduced in flies fed with PPO at concentration of 1 mg/g of diet. PPO *per se* did not change the activity of these enzymes when compared to the control group.

### mRNA expression of antioxidant genes

**AEL Co-treatment:** As depicted in figure 7A, the exposure of flies for 5 consecutive days to PQ 1mM caused an up-regulation of CAT, SOD, Keap-1 and Trx R-1 mRNA expression (Figure 7A). The effects of PQ on Trx R-1 and Keap-1 were prevented by AEL in both tested concentrations. The PQ-induced increases in CAT and SOD mRNA expression were not modified by AEL co-treatment (Figure 7A). The expression of enzymes was not affected by AEL treatments when compared to the control group.

**AEL Pre-treatment:** The exposure of flies to PQ 10 mM was associated with an up-regulation of CAT, SOD, Keap-1 and Trx R-1 mRNA expression (Figure 7B). The elevation in Trx R-1 and Keap-1 mRNA expression was mitigated by AEL in both tested concentrations. In CAT mRNA expression, the protective effect of AEL was observed only at concentration of 1mg/g of diet. The PQ-induced increase in SOD mRNA expression was not modified by AEL pre-treatment at any tested concentrations (Figure 7B).

**PPO Pre-treatment:** In this protocol, mRNA expression of CAT, SOD, Keap-1 and Trx R-1 were also increased in flies exposed to PQ 10 mM (Figure 7C). The pre-treatment with PPO, at concentration of 10 mg/g of diet, was effective in blunting the changes induced by PQ in CAT, SOD and Keap 1 mRNA expression (Figure 7C). No statistical difference was found between PPO and control groups.

## Discussion

In Brazil, the flora from Araripe National Forest is rich in various endemic species that highlight as important sources of medicinal plants and food functional. The species *C. coriaceum* Wittm, called Pequizeiro, is widely known in the region due its fruit Pequi. It is commercialized as food and popularly used in traditional medicine to treat several ailments (OLIVEIRA et al, 2010; ALMEIDA e SILVA, 1994). In addition to its dietary use, the oil extracted from Pequi is recognized as a potent anti-inflammatory and healing agent, and most of scientific studies toward species are performed with the fruit pulp oil (QUIRINO et al, 2009; SARAIVA et al, 2011; BATISTA et al, 2010). The biological properties from other plant parts are less known. Here, we

investigated the potential antioxidant *in vivo* of leaves and fruit pulp oil from *C. coriaceum*, considering basically the following aspects: 1) although the oil is recognized by composition with carotenoids and phenolic acids, *in vivo* studies about its potential antioxidant are still scarce in the literature; 2) the empirical use of plant leaves as tea and the recent data from our lab regarding its antioxidant activity *in vitro*. Overall, the results obtained in this work demonstrated that both pequi pulp oil and leaf extract were able to palliate the detrimental effects elicited by PQ in *D. melanogaster*, protecting the flies against motor and redox disturbances induced by toxin.

The herbicide PQ has been extensively used in various studies to induce oxidative stress, including in experimental models employing *D. melanogaster* (AUGUSTYNIAK et al, 2015). PQ and other neurotoxins such as rotenone and MPTP (1-methyl-4-phenyl-1,2,3,6-tetrahydropyridine) are known by eliciting ROS overproduction and mitochondrial dysfunctions (viz., mitochondrial complex I inhibition). Numerous evidence have suggested that exposure of flies to these neurotoxins cause death of dopaminergic neurons, which leads to the movement disorder similar to that of Parkinson's disease (NICHOLS, 2006).

As expected, in our experimental protocols the flies exposed to PQ had motor deficits and also high mortality rate. In addition, PQ exposure elicited significant changes in responses related to the antioxidant/oxidant status of flies, such as increase in levels of ROS and lipid peroxidation; increase in activity of antioxidant enzymes and a marked up-regulation in mRNA expression of stress-related genes.

In addition to large use as genetic tool, *D. melanogaster* has been successfully utilized to test the efficacy of natural products against several toxin types, especially pro-oxidant agents (SUDATI et al, 2013; TERNES et al, 2014; ABOLAJI et al, 2014). The fly antioxidant defense system is represented by enzymes SOD, CAT, GST and TrxR. Thioredoxin reductase from *D. melanogaster* is a member of the glutathione reductase family that catalyzes the transfer of reducing equivalents between NADPH and thioredoxin, having a critical role in cycling GSSG/GSH and regulating the intracellular redox homeostasis of flies where glutathione reductase is absent (MISSIRLIS et al, 2003; WAHL et al, 2005; CHENG et al, 2007). In mammalian, the expression of these antioxidant enzyme genes is thinly controlled by Nrf-2/Keap1/ARE pathway. Nrf-2 is a redox-sensitive transcription factor that in the presence of oxidative stress dissociates from inhibitory protein Keap-1 and translocates to the nucleus, binding to DNA in a sequence known as antioxidant response element (ARE), leading to the overexpression of multiple antioxidant/detoxifying genes. Like vertebrates, *D. melanogaster* possesses a conserved Nrf2/Keap 1 pathway to orchestrate the cellular defenses against

xenobiotic compounds and oxidative insults (MISRA et al, 2011). This pathway is constituted by the transcription factor CncC - *cap'n'collar* (Nrf2 ortholog) and by the repressor Keap1. Under oxidative stress, the interaction between Keap1 and CncC is disrupted, causing the translocation of CncC to the nucleus. In the nucleus, CncC forms a heterodimer with Maf-s proteins (Musculo-Aponeurotic Fibrosarcoma), which also bind to ARE (MISRA et al, 2011; 2013). In this context, herein we observed that the production enhanced of ROS and lipid peroxidation in flies exposed to PQ was accompanied by increasing activity of CAT and GST enzymes as well as expression of Keap1 and antioxidant genes CAT, SOD and Trx R-1. Taken together, these data suggest that the CncC/Nrf2 from *Drosophila* was activated as a compensatory response to oxidative events induced by PQ; probably ROS and products from lipid peroxidation. Although we have not evaluated the activity of all proteins expressed by mRNA of these genes, the increased activity of CAT and GST enzymes provides subsidies to confirm this hypothesis since the enzymes catalyze respectively reactions toward detoxification of ROS and compounds as malondialdehyde, 4-hydroxy-nonenal and acrolein (AYALA et al, 2014; OAKLEY, 2011).

Among all parameters analyzed, only the mortality of flies exposed to PQ was not rescued by leaf extract and pequi pulp oil intake. Both treatments were effective in protecting flies from locomotor changes and oxidative stress induced by PQ exposure, presenting in all tests a similar potential. Important, no toxicity signal was associated with the consumption of leaf extract and/or pequi pulp oil. Considering the ethnopharmacologic use of both, this fact might represent a safety indicative when extrapolated to vertebrates.

In general, our data in accordance with other studies employing *D. melanogaster* as organism model to test and/or screen the effectiveness of natural products against pro-oxidants (PENG et al, 2009; PENG et al, 2012; SUN et al, 2010). Here, the new is the fact that this work constitutes the first investigation towards antioxidant action of species *C. coriaceum* in an *in vivo* model. Moreover, our findings give emphasis to utilization of leaves, part little explored from species when compared to the fruit pulp oil. Probably the beneficial effects offered by treatments are related with the content of flavonoids and phenolic compounds from plant. We don't analyzed the composition of fruit pulp oil because in a previous study from our group was evidenced that the oil used contained oleic acid (55.79%), palmitic acid (34.18%), heptadecenoic acid (5.86%), linoleic acid (1.80%), estearic acid (1.73%), eicosenoic acid (0.37%) and palmitoleic acid (0.27%) (COSTA et al, 2011). In turn, in leaf extract we identified quercitin, rutin, chlorogenic acid and gallic acid as the main bioactive constituents. A similar profile constitutive was also found in a hydroethanol extract of leaves of *C. coriaceum* Wittm (ARARUNA et al., 2013). These phytochemicals are recognized and used as standard antioxidants by their radical

scavenging and metal chelating activities in numerous studies *in vitro* and *in vivo* (HEIM et al, 2002; LEOPOLDINI, et al, 2006; SATO et al, 2011; NUNES et al, 2012; HELENO et al, 2015; EMBUSCADO 2015). In order to mimic the popular use, here we opted by utilizing leaf crude extract, a complex mixture, where these compounds may be acting alone or synergistically to exert protection.

Taken together, our findings provide evidence that the consumption of fruit pulp oil and leaves from Pequizeiro may confer an important antioxidant effect towards human illness and/or conditions that have a free radical basis. The present study also offers subsidies to secure the use of the species as a functional food and ethnopharmacologic product.

## REFERENCES

- ABOLAJI, A. O.; KAMDEM, J. P.; LUGOKENSKI T. H.; NASCIMENTO T. K.; WACZUK, E. P.; FAROMBI, E. O.; LORETO, É. L. S.; ROCHA, J. B. T. Involvement of oxidative stress in 4-vinylcyclohexene-induced toxicity in *Drosophila melanogaster*. **Free Radical Biology and Medicine**, v. 71, p. 99–108, 2014.
- AEBI H. Catalase *in vitro*. **Method Enzymol.** v. 105, p. 121-6, 1984.
- AGRA, M. F.; FREITAS, P. F.; BARBOSA-FILHO, J. M. Synopsis of the plants known as medicinal and poisonous in Northeast of Brazil. **Revista Brasileira de Farmacognosia**. v. 17, p. 114–40, 2007.
- ALMEIDA, S.P.; SILVA, J.A. **Piqui e buriti: importância alimentar para a população dos cerrados**. Planaltina: CPAC, 1994. 38p. (Documentos, 54).
- ARARUNA, M. K. A.; SANTOS, K. K. A.; COSTA, J. G. M.; COUTINHO, H. D. M.; BOLIGON, A. A.; STEFANELLO, S. T.; ATHAYDE, M. L.; SARAIVA, R. A.; ROCHA, J. B. T.; KERNTOPF, M. R.; MENEZES, I. R. A. Phenolic composition and in vitro activity of the Brazilian fruit tree *Caryocar coriaceum* Wittm. **European Journal of Integrative Medicine**. v. 5; p. 178–183, 2013.
- ASCARI, J.; TAKAHASHI, J. A.; BOAVENTURA, M. A. D. The phytochemistry and biological aspects of Caryocaraceae family. **Rev. Bras. Pl. Med.**, Campinas, v.15, n.2, p.293-308, 2013.
- AUGUSTYNIAK, M.; NOCÓN, L.; KEDZIORSKI, A.; LASZCZYCA, P.; SAWCZYN, T.; TARNAWSKA, M.; ZAWISZA-RASZKA, A. DNA damage in grasshopper *Chorthippus brunneus* (Orthoptera) hatchlings following paraquat exposure. **Chemosphere**. v. 125, p. 212–219, 2015.
- AYALA, A.; MUÑOZ, M. F.; ARGÜELLES, S. Lipid Peroxidation: Production, Metabolism, and Signaling Mechanisms of Malondialdehyde and 4-Hydroxy-2-Nonenal. **Oxidative Medicine and Cellular Longevity**. 31 p, 2014.
- BATISTA, J. S.; SILVA, A. E.; RODRIGUES, C. M. F.; COSTA, K. M. F. M.; OLIVEIRA, A. F.; PAIVA, E. S.; NUNES, F. V. A.; OLINDA, R. G. Avaliação da atividade cicatrizante do óleo de pequi (*Caryocar coriaceum* Wittm) em feridas cutâneas produzidas experimentalmente em ratos. **Arq. Inst. Biol.**, São Paulo, v. 77, n. 3, p. 441-447, jul./set., 2010.
- BELLEN, H. J.; YAMAMOTO, S. Morgan's Legacy: Fruit Flies and the Functional Annotation of Conserved Genes. **Cell**, v. 163, n. 3, p. 772, 2015.
- BOLIGON, A. A.; BRUM, T. F.; FROLHICH, J. K.; FROEDER, A. L. F.; ATHAYDE, M. L. HPLC/DAD profile and determination of total phenolic, flavonoids, tannins, and alkaloids contents of *Scutia buxifolia Reissek* stem bark. **Research Journal of Phytochemistry**. v. 6, p. 84–91, 2012.

BOYD, O.; WENG, P.; SUN, X.; ALBERICO, T.; LASLO, M.; OBENLAND, KERN, D. M. B.; ZOU, S. Nectarine promotes longevity in *Drosophila melanogaster*. **Free Radical Biology & Medicine.** v. 50, p.1669–1678, 2011.

CHENG , Z.; ARSCOTT, L.D.; BALLOU, D. P.; WILLIAMS, J. R. The Relationship of the redox potentials of thioredoxin and thioredoxinreductase from *Drosophila melanogaster* to the enzymatic mechanism: reduced thioredoxin is the reductant of glutathione in *Drosophila*. **Biochemistry.** v. 46, p. 7875-7885, 2007.

CORRÊA, M. P. **Dicionário das plantas úteis do Brasil e exóticas cultivadas.** Rio de Janeiro: Ministério da Agricultura, v.1, 1926. 747p.

COSTA, J. G. M.; BRITO, S. A.; NASCIMENTO, E. M. M.; BOTELHO, M. A.; RODRIGUES F. F. G.; COUTINHO, H. D. M. Antibacterial properties of pequi pulp oil (*Caryocar coriaceum* Wittm.). **International Journal of Food Properties.** v. 14, p. 411–416, 2011.

CRUZ, L. C.; ECKER, A.; DIAS, R. S.; SEEGER, R. L.; BRAGA, M. M.; BOLIGON, A. A.; MARTINS, I. K.; COSTA-SILVA, D. G.; BARBOSA, N. V.; CAÑEDO, A. D.; POSSER, T.; FRANCO, J. L. Brazilian Pampa Biome Honey Protects Against Mortality, Locomotor Deficits and Oxidative Stress Induced by Hypoxia/ Reperfusion in Adult *Drosophila melanogaster*. **Neurochem Res.** v. 41. p. 116–129, 2016.

DE OLIVEIRA, M. L. M.; NUNES-PINHEIRO, D. C. S.; TOMÉ, A. R.; MOTA, E. F.; LIMA-VERDE, I. A.; PINHEIRO, F. G. D.; CAMPELLO, C. C.; DE MORAIS, S. M. *In vivo* topical anti-inflammatory and wound healing activities of the fixed oil of *Caryocar coriaceum* Wittm, seeds. **Journal of Ethnopharmacology**, v. 129, n. 2, p. 214-219, 2010.

DEMIR, E., TURNA, F., VALES, G., KAYA, B., CREUS, A.; MARCOS, R. *In vivo* genotoxicity assessment of titanium, zirconium and aluminium nanoparticles, and their microparticulated forms, in *Drosophila*. **Chemosphere.** v. 93, n. 10, p. 2304-2310, 2013.

DOGANLAR, O.; DOGANLAR, Z. B. Responses of antioxidant enzymes and heat shock proteins in *Drosophila* to treatment with a pesticide mixture. **Arch. Biol. Sci.**, Belgrade, v. 67, n. 3, p. 869-876, 2015.

EMBUSCADO, M. E. Spices and herbs: Natural sources of antioxidants – a mini review. **Journal of Functional Foods.** v. 18, p. 811–819, 2015.

FEANY, M. B.; BENDER, W. W. A *Drosophila* model of Parkinson's disease. **Nature.** v. 404, 2000.

HABIG,.;W, PABST, M. J.; JACOBY, W. B. Gluthathione-S-Transferase: the first step in mercapturic acid formation. **J Biol Chem.** v. 249, p. 1730-9, 1974.

HEIM, K. E.; TAGLIAFERRO, A. R.; BOBILYA, D. J. Flavonoid antioxidants: chemistry, metabolism and structure-activity relationships. **Journal of Nutritional Biochemistry.** v. 13, p. 572–584, 2002

HELENO, S. A.; MARTINS, A.; QUEIROZ, M. J.R.P.; FERREIRA, I.C.F.R. Bioactivity of phenolic acids: Metabolites versus parent compounds: A review. **Food Chemistry.** v. 173, p. 501–513, 2015.

HEMPEL, S. L.; BUETTNER, G. R. O.; MALLEY, Y. Q.; WESSELS, D. A.; FLAHERTY, D. M. Dihydrofluoresceindiacetate is superior for detecting intracellular oxidants: comparison with 2,7-dichlorodihydrofluoresceindiacetate, 5 (and) 6)-carboxy-2,7-dichloro dihydrofluoresceindiacetate, and dihydrorhodamine 123. **Free Radical Biology & Medicine.** v 27, p. 146–159, 1999.

LEOPOLDINI, M.; RUSSO, N.; CHIODO, S.; TOSCANO, M. Iron chelation by the powerful antioxidant flavonoid quercetin. **J. Agric. Food Chem.** v. 54, p. 6343-6351, 2006.

LIMA, A.; SILVA, A. M. O.; TRINDADE, R. A.; TORRES, R. P.; MANCINI FILHO, J. Composição química e compostos bioativos presentes na polpa e na amêndoia do pequi (*Caryocar brasiliense* Camb.). **Revista Brasileira de Fruticultura**, v.29, n.3, p.695-698, 2007.

LOWRY, O.H.; ROSEBROUGH, N. J.; FARR, A. L.; RANDALL, R. J. Protein measurement with the Folin phenol reagent. **J Biol Chem.** v.193, p. 265-75, 1951.

MATOS, F. J. A. **Plantas medicinais: guia de seleção ao emprego de plantas usadas em fitoterapia no Nordeste do Brasil**, 3 ed. Fortaleza: Imprensa Universitária, 2007, 394 pp.

MISRA, J. R.; HORNER, M. A.; LAM, G.; THUMMEL, C. S. Transcriptional regulation of xenobiotic detoxification in *Drosophila*. **Genes & development** v. 25, p. 1796–1806, 2011.

MISRA, J. R.; LAM, G.; THUMMEL, C. S. Constitutive activation of the Nrf2/Keap1 pathway in insecticide-resistant strains of *Drosophila*. **Insect Biochemistry and Molecular Biology.** v 43, p. 1116-1124, 2013.

MISSIRLIS, F.; RAHLFS, S.; DIMOPOULOS, N.; BAUER, H.; BECKER, K.; HILLIKER, A.; PHILLIPS, J. P.; JÄCKLE, H. A Putative Glutathione Peroxidase of *Drosophila* Encodes a Thioredoxin Peroxidase That Provides Resistance against Oxidative Stress But Fails to Complement a Lack of Catalase Activity. **Biol. Chem.**, v. 384, p. 463 – 472, 2003  
NICHOLS, C. D. *Drosophila melanogaster* neurobiology, neuropharmacology, and how the fly can inform central nervous system drug discovery. **Pharmacol Ther.** v. 112, p. 677-700, 2006.

NUNES, X.P.; SILVA, F. S.; GUEDES, J. R. da S. A.; LIMA, J.T.; RIBEIRO, L. A. de A.; QUINTANS, J. R. L. J.; BARBOSA FILHO, J. M. Biological oxidations and antioxidant activity of natural products. Disponível em: [www.intechopen.com](http://www.intechopen.com). Phytochemicals as Nutraceuticals – Global Approaches to Their Role in Nutrition and Health. 2012.

OAKLEY, A. J. Glutathione transferases: a structural perspective. **Drug Metabolism**, v. 43, n. 2, p. 138-151, 2011.

OHKAWA, H.; OHISHI, N.; YAGI, K. Assay for lipid peroxides in animal tissues by thiobarbituric acid reaction. **Analytical Biochemistry**. v.95, p. 351–358, 1979.

OLIVEIRA, M. E. B.; GUERRA, N. B.; MAIA, A. de H. N.; ALVES, R. E.; MATOS, N. M dos S.; SAMPAIO, F. G. M.; LOPES, M. M. T. Característica químicas e físico-químicas de pequis da Chapada do Araripe, Ceará. Revista Brasileira de Fruticultura, v.32, n 1, p. 114-125, 2010.

PENG, C.; CHAN, H. Y. E.; LI, Y. M.; HUANG, Y.; CHEN, Z. Y. Black tea theaflavins extend the lifespan of fruit flies. **Experimental Gerontology**. v. 44, p. 773–783, 2009.

PENG, C.; ZUO, Y.; KWAN, K. M.; LIANG, Y.; MA. K.Y.; CHAN, H.Y. E.; HUANG, Y.; YU, H.; CHEN, Z. Blueberry extract prolongs lifespan of *Drosophila melanogaster*. **Experimental Gerontology**. v. 47, p. 170–178, 2012.

QUIRINO, G. S.; LEITE, G de O.; REBELO, L. M.; TOMÉ, A. da R, COSTA, J. G. M.; CARDOSO, A. H.; CAMPOS, A, R. Healing potential of Pequi (*Caryocar coriaceum* Wittm.) fruit pulp oil. **Phytochemistry Letters**. v.2, p. 179–183, 2009.

RIBEIRO, D. A.; OLIVEIRA, L. G. S. de; MACÊDO, D. G. de; MENEZES, I. R. A. de; COSTA, J. G. M. da; SILVA, M. A. P. da; LACERDA, S. R.; SOUZA, M. M. de A. Promising medicinal plants for bioprospection in a Cerrado area of Chapada do Araripe, Northeastern Brazil. **Journal of Ethnopharmacology**. v. 155, p. 1522–1533, 2014.

SABIR, S. M.; AHMAD, S. D.; HAMID, A.; KHAN, M. Q.; ATHAYDE, M. L.; SANTOS, D. B.; BOLIGON, A. A.; ROCHA, J. B. T. Antioxidant and hepatoprotective activity of ethanolic extract of leaves of *Solidago microglossa* containing polyphenolic compounds. **Food Chemistry**, p. 741-747, 2012.

SARAIVA, R. A.; ARARUNA, M. K. A.; OLIVEIRA, R. C.; MENEZES, K. D. P.; LEITE, G. O.; KERNTOPF, M. R.; COSTA, J. G. M.; ROCHA, J. B. T.; TOMÉ, A. R.; CAMPOS, A. R.; MENEZES, I. R. A. Topical anti-inflammatory effect of *Caryocar coriaceum* Wittm. (Caryocaraceae) fruit pulp fixed oil on mice ear edema induced by different irritant agentes. **Journal of Ethnopharmacology**. v. 136, p. 504– 510, 2011.

SATO, Y.; ITAGAKI, S.; KUROKAWA, T.; OGURA, J.; KOBAYASHI, M.; HIRANO, T.; SUGAWARA, M.; ISEKI, K. *In vitro* and *in vivo* antioxidant properties of chlorogenic acid and caffeic acid. **International Journal of Pharmaceutics**. v. 403, p. 136–138, 2011.

SOUZA, R. K. D.; SILVA, M. A. P. da, MENEZES, I. R. A. de, RIBEIRO, D. A.; BEZERRA, L. R.; SOUZA, M. M. de A. Ethnopharmacology of medicinal plants of carrasco, northeastern Brazil. **Journal of Ethnopharmacology**. v. 157, p. 99–104, 2014.

SUDATI, J. H.; VIEIRA, F. A.; PAVIN, S. S.; DIAS, G. R. M.; SEEGER, R. L.; GOLOMBIESKI, R.; ATHAYDE, M. L.; SOARES, F. A.; ROCHA, J. B. T.; BARBOSA, N. V. *Valeriana officinalis* attenuates the rotenone – induced toxicity in *Drosophila melanogaster*. **Neurotoxicology**. v. 37, p. 118-126, 2013.

SUN, X.; SEEBERGER, J.; ALBERICO, T.; WANG, C.; WHEELER, C. T.; SCHAUSS, A. G.; ZOU, S. Açai palm fruit (*Euterpe oleracea* Mart.) pulp improves survival of flies on a high fat diet. **Experimental Gerontology**. v. 45, p. 243–251, 2010.

TERNES, A. P. L.; ZEMOLIN, A. P.; CRUZ, L. C. DA.; SILVA, G. F. DA.; SAIDELLES, A. P. F.; PAULA, M. T. DE.; WAGNER, C.; GOLOMBIESKI, R. M.; FLORES, É. M. DE M.; PICOLOTO, R. S.; PEREIRA, A. B.; FRANCO, J. L.; POSSER, T. *Drosophila melanogaster* –

an embryonic model for studying behavioral and biochemical effects of manganese exposure. **EXCLI Journal.** v. 13, p. 1239-1253, 2014.

VITUSHYNSKA, M. V.; MATIYTSIV, N. P.; CHERNYK Y. I. Influence of Tissue Specific Superoxide Dismutase Gene Expression in Brain Cells on *Drosophila melanogaster* Sensitivity to Oxidative Stress and Viability. **Cytology and Genetics**, v. 49, n. 2, p. 95–101, 2015.

WAHL, M. C.; IRMLER, A.; HECKER, B.; SCHIRMER, R. H.; BECKER, K. Comparative structural analysis of oxidized and reduced thioredoxin from *Drosophila melanogaster*. **J. Mol. Biol.** v. 345, p. 1119–1130, 2005.

WOLF, M. J.; AMREIN, H.; IZATT, J. A.; CHOMA, M. A.; REEDY, M. C.; ROCKMAN, H.A. *Drosophila* as a model for the identification of genes causing adult human heart disease. **Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.** v.103, p. 1394-1399, 2006.

YAMAMOTO S.; JAISWAL, M.; CHARNG, W.L.; GAMBIN, T.; KARACA, E.; MIRZA, G.; WISZNIEWSKI, W.; SANDOVAL, H.; HAELETERMAN, N.A.; XIONG, B. et al. A *Drosophila* Genetic Resource of Mutants to Study Mechanisms Underlying Human Genetic Diseases. **Cell.** v. 159, p. 200–214, 2014.

Table 1. Quantification of some phenolic compounds from *C. coriaceum* Wittm. aqueous leaf extract

Compounds	Aqueous extract (mg/g)
Gallic acid	21.34 ± 0.01
Catechin	12.71 ± 0.02
Chlorogenic acid	45.90 ± 0.02
Caffeic acid	8.56 ± 0.05
Ellagic acid	13.07 ± 0.01
Epicatechin	12.18 ± 0.01
Rutin	25.34 ± 0.03
Isoquercitrin	13.75 ± 0.04
Quercetin	28.61 ± 0.03

Results are expressed as mean ± S.E.M of three determinations.

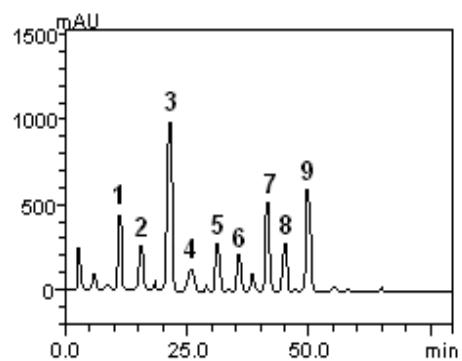


Figure 1. High performance liquid chromatography profile of *C. coriaceum* aqueous leaf extract. Gallic acid (peak 1), catechin (peak 2), chlorogenic acid (peak 3), caffeic acid (peak 4), ellagic acid (peak 5), epicatechin (peak 6), rutin (peak 7) isoquercitrin (peak 8) and quercetin (peak 9).

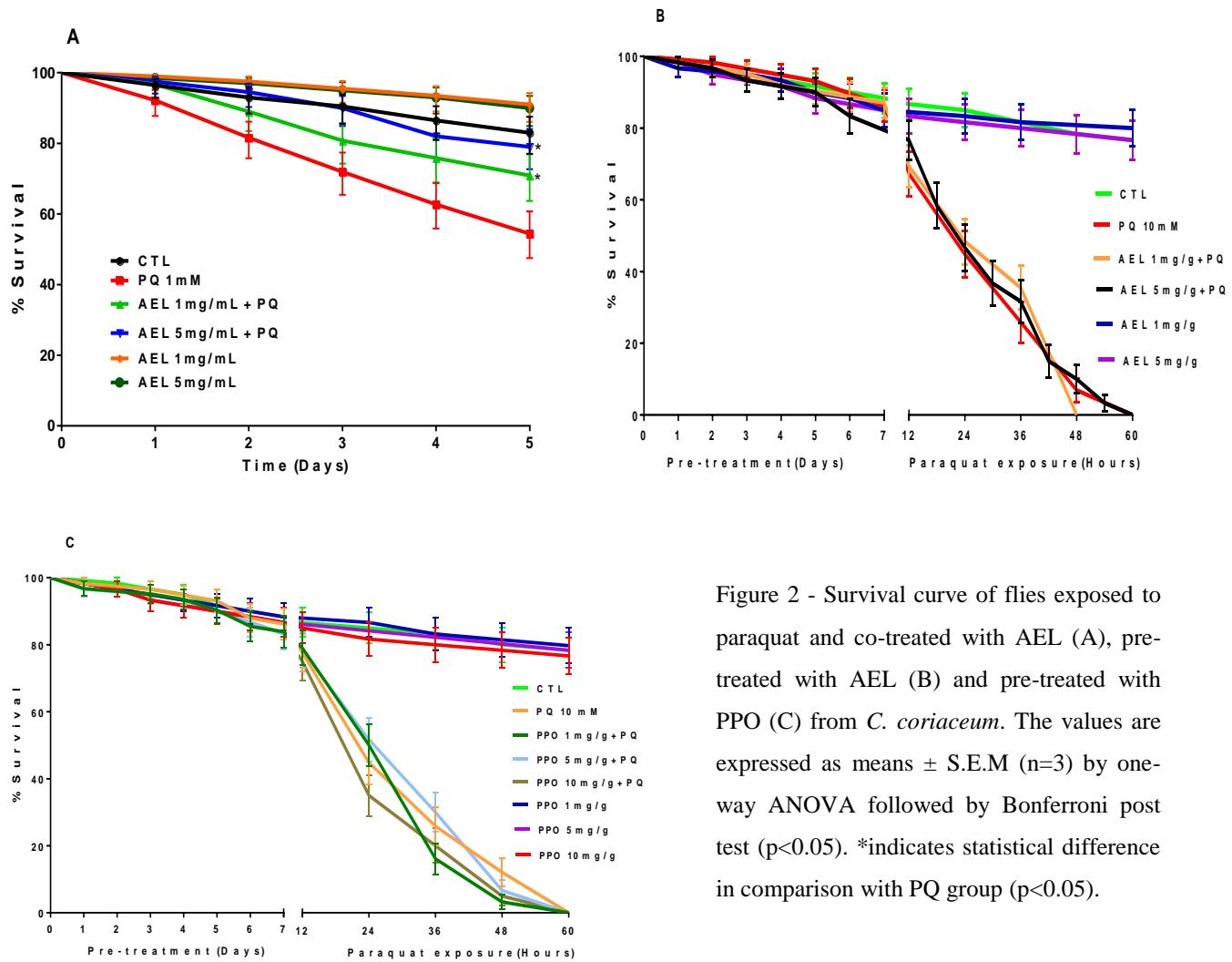


Figure 2 - Survival curve of flies exposed to paraquat and co-treated with AEL (A), pre-treated with AEL (B) and pre-treated with PPO (C) from *C. coriaceum*. The values are expressed as means  $\pm$  S.E.M ( $n=3$ ) by one-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni post test ( $p<0.05$ ). \*indicates statistical difference in comparison with PQ group ( $p<0.05$ ).

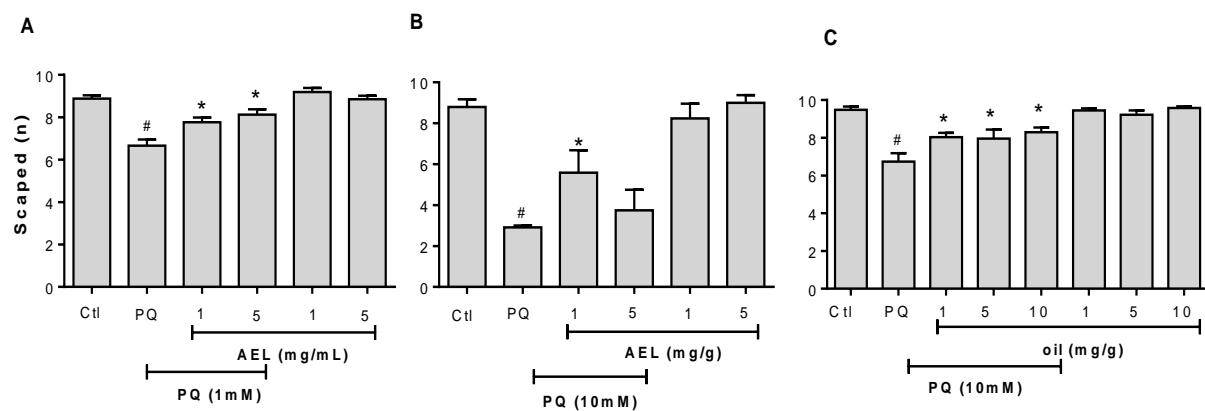


Figure 3. Effect of leaf extract and oil pulp of pequi on negative geotaxis assay in flies exposed to paraquat. Flies co-treated with AEL (A), pre-treated with AEL (B) and pre-treated with PPO (C). The values are expressed as means  $\pm$  S.E.M (n=3) by One-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni post test ( $p<0.05$ ). #indicates statistical difference compared to control ( $p<0.05$ ). \*indicates statistical difference in comparison with PQ group ( $p<0.05$ ).

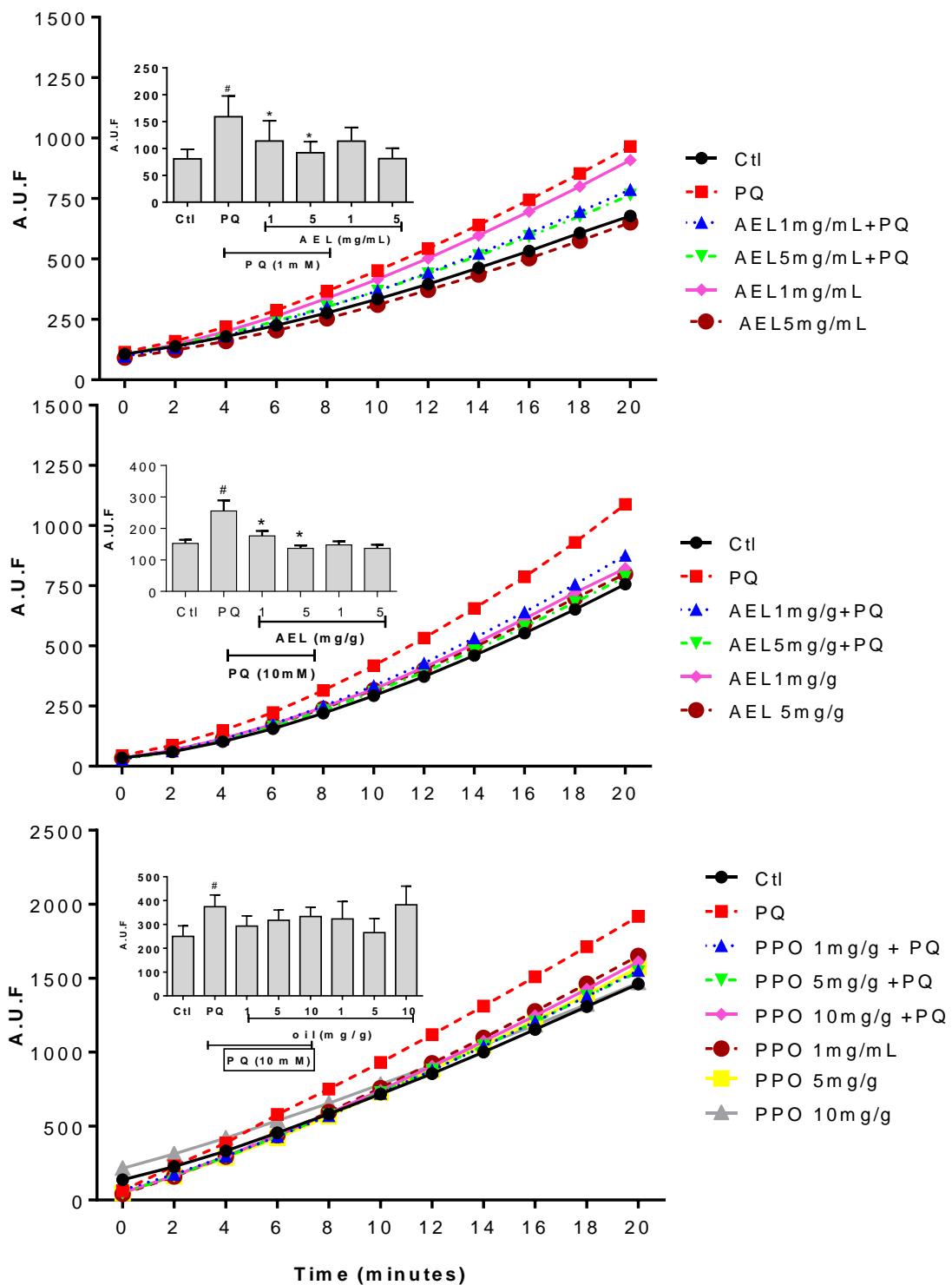


Figure 4. Effect of leaf extract and oil pulp of pequi on dichlorofluorescein fluorescence levels (DCF) in *D. melanogaster* exposed to paraquat. Flies co-treated with AEL (A), pre-treated with AEL (B) and pre-treated with PPO (C). The values are expressed as means  $\pm$  S.E.M (n=3) by one-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni post test ( $p<0.05$ ). # indicates statistical difference compared to control ( $p<0.05$ ). \* indicates statistical difference in comparison with PQ group ( $p<0.05$ ).

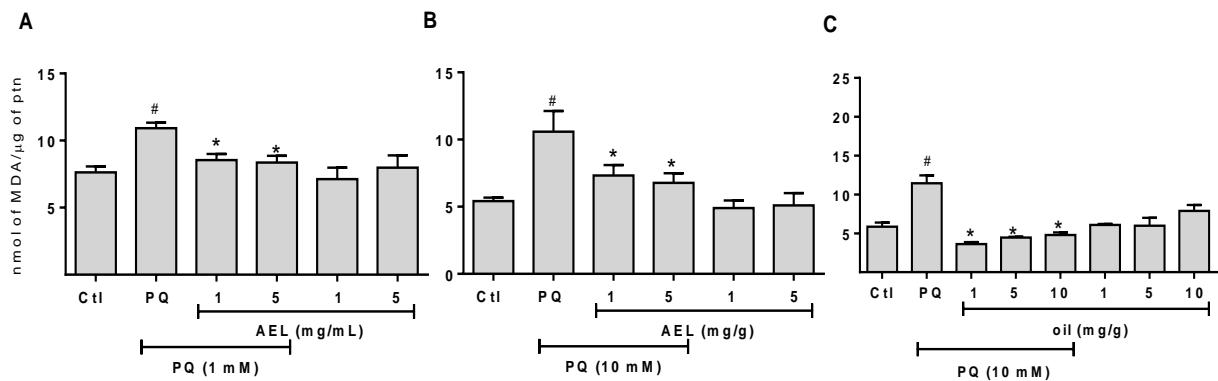


Figure 5. Effect of leaf extract and oil pulp of pequi on TBARS levels (MDA) in flies exposed to paraquat. Flies co-treated with AEL (A), pre-treated with AEL (B) and pre-treated with PPO (C). The values are expressed as means  $\pm$  S.E.M (n=3) by one-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni post test ( $p<0.05$ ).  $\#$ indicates statistical difference compared to control ( $p<0.05$ ).  $*$ indicates statistical difference in comparison with PQ group ( $p<0.05$ ).

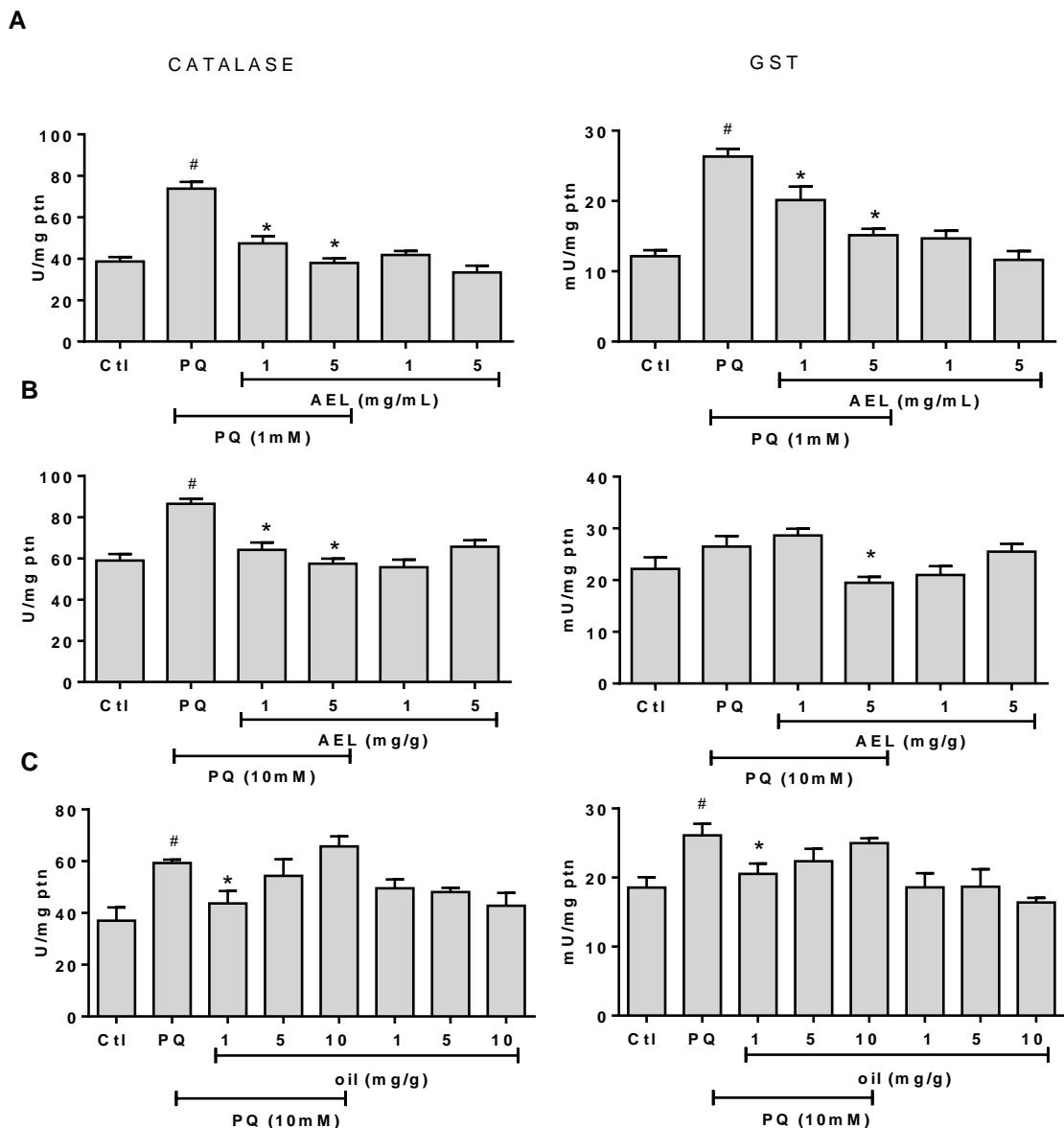
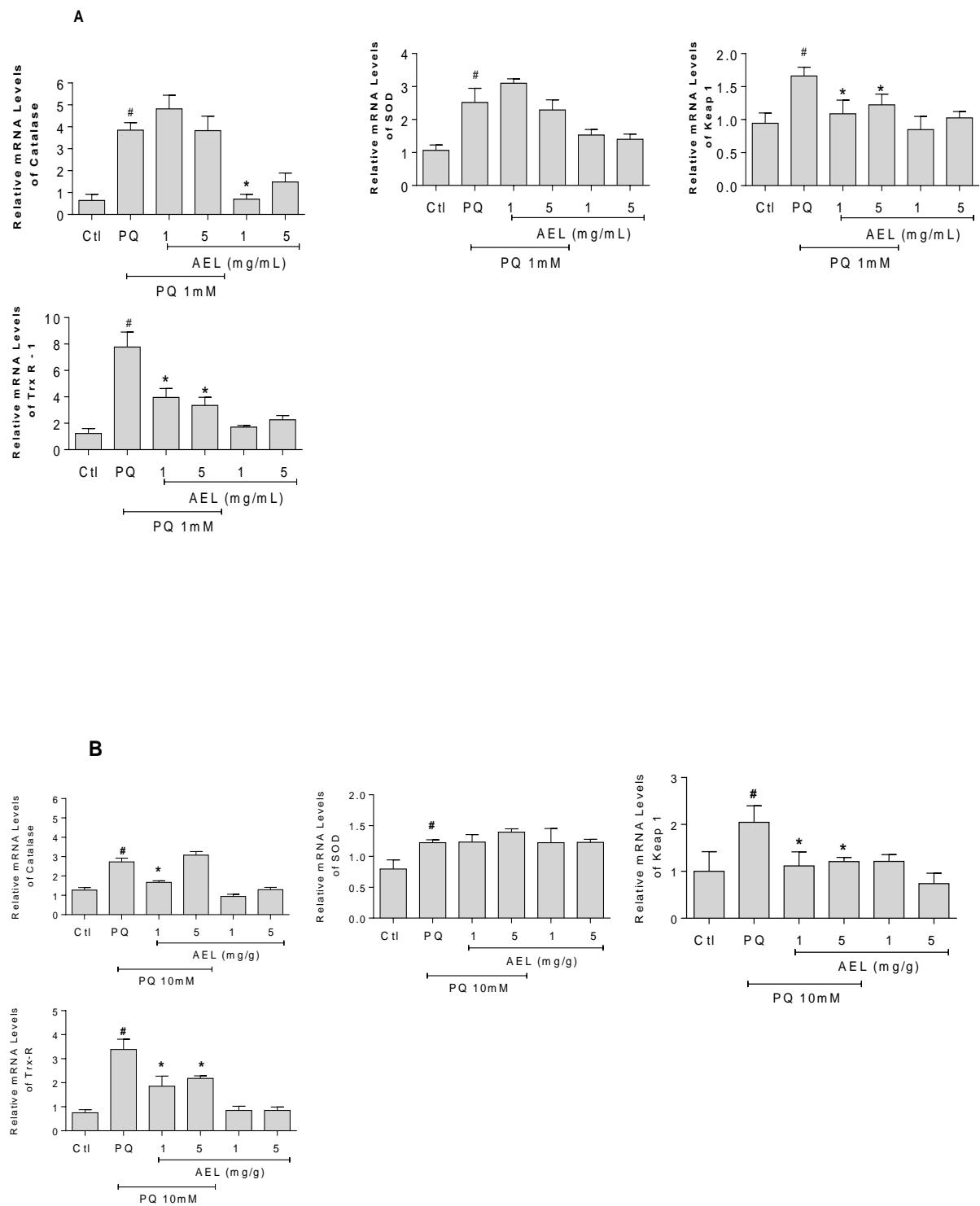


Figure 6. Effect of leaf extract and oil pulp of pequi on CAT and GST activity in flies exposed to paraquat. Flies co-treated with AEL (A), pre-treated with AEL (B) and pre-treated with PPO (C). The values are expressed as means  $\pm$  S.E.M (n=6) by one-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni post test ( $p<0.05$ ). # indicates statistical difference compared to control ( $p<0.05$ ). \* indicates statistical difference in comparison with PQ group ( $p<0.05$ ).



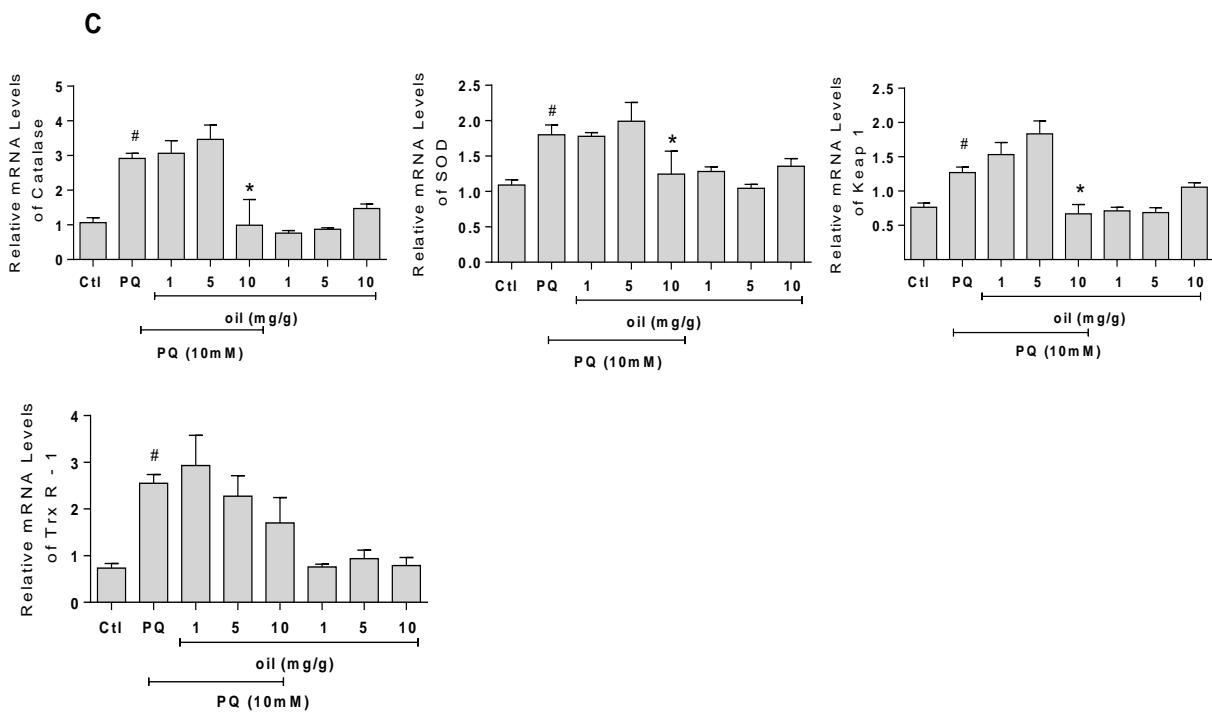


Figure 7. qRT-PCR analyses of CAT, SOD, Keap1, Trx R - 1 gene expression of flies exposed to paraquat and treated with leaf extract and oil pulp of Pequi. Flies co-treated (A) and pre-treated with AEL (B), pre-treated with PPO (C). GPDH was used as the reference gene to calculate the relative transcript levels of the interest genes. The values are expressed as mean  $\pm$  S.E.M by one-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni post test ( $p < 0.05$ ) of three independent biological replicates carried out in duplicates. # indicates statistical difference compared to control ( $p < 0.05$ ). \* indicates statistical difference in comparison with PQ group ( $p < 0.05$ ).

Table 2. Sequences of qRT-PCR primers

Primers	Sequência
GPDH left	5' ATGGAGATGATTGCTTCGT 3'
GPDH right	5' GCTCCTCAATGGTTTCCA 3'
Catalase left	5' ACCAGGGCATCAAGAATCTG 3'
Catalase right	5' AACTTCTTGGCCTGCTCGTA 3'
SOD left	5' GGAGTCGGTGATGTTGACCT 3'
SOD right	5' GTTCGGTGACAACACCAATG 3'
Keap 1 left	5' CCAACTCCTCAAGGAGCAG 3'
Keap 1 right	5' CGCGACAAATATCATCCTT 3'
Trx R left	5' CGTTCTATTGTGCTGCGTGG 3'
Trx R right	5' AGCTTGCCATCATCCTGCTT 3'

**List of Figures**Table 1. Quantification of some phenolic compounds from *C. coriaceum* Wittm. aqueous leaf extract.

Table 2 – qRT-PCR Primer Sequence

Figure 1. High performance liquid chromatography profile of *C.coriaceum* aqueous leaf extract. Gallic acid (peak 1), catechin (peak 2), chlorogenic acid (peak 3), caffeic acid (peak 4), ellagic acid (peak 5), epicatechin (peak 6), rutin (peak 7) isoquercitrin (peak 8) and quercetin (peak 9).

Figure 2. Survival curve of flies exposed to paraquat and co-treated with AEL (A), pre-treated with AEL (B) and pre-treated with PPO (C) from *C. coriaceum*. The values are expressed as means  $\pm$  S.E.M (n=3) by One-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni post test ( $p<0.05$ ). \*indicates statistical difference in comparison with PQ group ( $p<0.05$ ).

Figure 3. Effect of AEL and PPO on negative geotaxis assay in flies exposed to paraquat. Flies co-treated with AEL (A), pre-treated with AEL (B) and pre-treated with PPO (C).The values are expressed as means  $\pm$  S.E.M (n=3) by One-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni post test ( $p<0.05$ ). # indicates statistical difference compared to control ( $p<0.05$ ). \*indicates statistical difference in comparison with PQ group ( $p<0.05$ ).

Figure 4. Effect of AEL and PPO on dichlorofluorescein fluorescence levels (DCF) in *D. melanogaster* exposed to paraquat. Flies co-treated with AEL (A), pre-treated with AEL (B) and pre-treated with PPO (C). The values are expressed as means  $\pm$  S.E.M (n=3) by one-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni post test ( $p<0.05$ ). #indicates statistical difference compared to control ( $p<0.05$ ). \*indicates statistical difference in comparison with PQ group ( $p<0.05$ ).

Figure 5. Effect of AEL and PPO on TBARS levels (MDA) in flies exposed to paraquat. Flies co-treated with AEL (A), pre-treated with AEL (B) and pre-treated with PPO (C). The values are expressed as means  $\pm$  S.E.M (n=3) by one-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni post test ( $p<0.05$ ). #indicates statistical difference compared to control ( $p<0.05$ ). \*indicates statistical difference in comparison with PQ group ( $p<0.05$ ).

Figure 6. Effect of AEL and PPO on CAT and GST activity in flies exposed to paraquat. Flies co-treated with AEL (A), pre-treated with AEL (B) and pre-treated with PPO (C). The values are expressed as means  $\pm$  S.E.M (n=6) by one-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni post test ( $p<0.05$ ). #indicates statistical difference compared to control ( $p<0.05$ ). \*indicates statistical difference in comparison with PQ group ( $p<0.05$ ).

Figure 7. qRT-PCR analyses of CAT, SOD, Keap1, Trx R - 1 gene expression of flies exposed to paraquat and treated with AEL and PPO. Flies co-treated with AEL (A), pre-treated with AEL (B), pre-treated with PPO (C).

GPDH was used as the reference gene to calculate the relative transcript levels of the interest genes. The values are expressed as mean  $\pm$  S.E.M by one-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni post test ( $p<0.05$ ) of three independent biological replicates carried out in duplicates. <sup>#</sup>indicates statistical difference compared to control ( $p<0.05$ ). \*indicates statistical difference in comparison with PQ group ( $p<0.05$ ).

### 3 DISCUSSÃO

Nas últimas décadas muitas pesquisas têm sido desenvolvidas na tentativa de encontrar produtos naturais ricos em compostos bioativos e propriedades medicinais voltadas para doenças de caráter oxidativo (THOMASSET et al., 2007; GÜLÇİN et al., 2010). Neste contexto, são escassos os estudos com a espécie *C. coriaceum*, cujo fruto Pequi, particularmente o óleo da polpa, é usado empiricamente para o tratamento de infecções respiratórias, artrites e cicatrização (OLIVEIRA et al., 2010b; RIBEIRO et al., 2014). Estudos com o óleo da polpa vêm consolidando a atividade anti-inflamatória e cicatrizante do mesmo em modelos experimentais *in vivo* (QUIRINO et al., 2009; SARAIVA et al., 2011; OLIVEIRA et al., 2015). No entanto, estudos com outras partes da planta *C. coriaceum* são escassos na literatura. Assim, o presente estudo objetivou investigar extratos de folhas da planta, da casca e do óleo do fruto sobre parâmetros de estresse oxidativo em modelos experimentais *in vitro* e *in vivo*, e engloba resultados que podem ser considerados inéditos na literatura.

Na primeira etapa do estudo foi determinada a composição química e o potencial antioxidante de extratos de folhas e casca do fruto de *C. coriaceum* *in vitro*. Para tal finalidade, foi avaliado o potencial dos extratos em inibir a formação do radical DPPH<sup>•</sup>, seqüestrar o radical OH<sup>•</sup> produzido em sistemas contendo Fe<sup>+2</sup>, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> e Fe<sup>+2</sup> com H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> pela degradação da 2-desoxirribose, e em quesar e/ou reduzir íons ferro através do teste usando a θ-fenantrolina. Em homogenato de fígado de ratos foi verificado o potencial dos extratos em reduzir a peroxidação lipídica induzida por ferro (TBARS) e a produção de EROs induzida pelo cálcio medida através da DCFH-DA. Em mitocôndrias hepáticas foi avaliado o papel dos extratos sobre a produção de O<sub>2</sub><sup>•-</sup>. Os resultados mostraram que o EAF, EEF e EEC apresentaram como constituintes polifenólicos predominantes, os ácidos clorogênico, elágico, caféico, gálico, queracetina e rutina. Estes constituintes também foram identificados em extrato hidroalcoólico de folha de *C. coriaceum* (ARARUNA et al., 2013). Os compostos fenólicos são amplamente estudados pelo elevado potencial em sequestrar radicais livres e inibir a lipoperoxidação *in vitro* e *in vivo* (HEIM et al., 2002; OLIVEIRA e BASTOS, 2011).

As propriedades antioxidantes desses compostos estão relacionadas às suas estruturas moleculares (PANNALA et al., 2001), ratificada pela presença dos grupos funcionais catecol (conhecido como piro-catecol ou 1,2-diidroxibenzeno) e pirogalol (ou galol) presentes em flavonoides e ácidos fenólicos, os quais participam de reações de

redução e formação de quelatos com metais (RICE-EVANS et al., 1996; NUNES et al., 2012; KARA et al., 2015).

É sabido que a produção exacerbada de espécies reativas está relacionada com danos à molécula de DNA, proteínas e membranas celulares (LOBO et al., 2010; BURTON e JAUNIAUX 2011; JOMOVA e VALKO, 2013). Como consequência, a crescente busca por produtos naturais como fontes de compostos bioativos com potencial para aumentar a resistência celular a esse tipo de dano (KIM et al., 2006, COSTA et al., 2012). Nossos resultados apontam que os extratos testados apresentam atividade antioxidante *in vitro* por diferentes mecanismos, dentre esses: habilidade em sequestrar radicais livres, reduzir e quelar ferro, inibir a peroxidação lipídica e a produção excessiva de espécies reativas.

Os diferentes extratos foram efetivos em sequestrar os radicais DPPH<sup>•</sup> e OH<sup>•</sup> gerados em sistemas químicos *in vitro*. O OH<sup>•</sup> foi mais efetivamente neutralizado na presença isolada de Fe<sup>+2</sup> ou H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, comparado ao sistema contendo Fe<sup>+2</sup> + H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> simultaneamente. Isso poderia ser atribuído a maior quantidade de radical OH<sup>•</sup> formado no meio direto da reação de Fenton. A reação de Fenton constitui uma importante rota de produção de OH<sup>•</sup> (HEIM et al., 2002). O Fe<sup>+2</sup>/Fe<sup>+3</sup> também pode iniciar e propagar a peroxidação lipídica via OH<sup>•</sup>, perferril ou íons ferril (FARINA et al., 2013). Neste cenário, foi evidenciado que os extratos foram capazes de modular o estado redox do metal, através da redução do Fe<sup>+3</sup> e quelação do Fe<sup>2+</sup>. No geral, os produtos naturais com ação antioxidante protegem contra a toxicidade do ferro pela quelação e/ou manutenção de um estado redox incapaz de reduzir o oxigênio molecular (VALKO et al., 2005; FARINA et al., 2013).

Os extratos também foram efetivos em inibir a peroxidação lipídica em homogenato de fígado induzida por ferro. É provável que este efeito esteja relacionado com a capacidade dos extratos em quelar ferro. De acordo com tais constatações, Roesler et al., (2008) relataram que o extrato etanólico da casca de *C. brasiliense* foi capaz de inibir a lipoperoxidação induzida pelo FeCl<sub>3</sub> em amostras de fígado de ratos.

Para analisar a ação dos extratos sobre os níveis de EROs *in vitro*, foram utilizados homogenato de fígado e mitocôndrias, uma vez que nestas, os complexos I e III são considerados os sítios mais importantes de produção de O<sub>2</sub><sup>•-</sup> (MURPHY, 2009; SENA e CHANDEL 2012). Os extratos não alteraram os níveis de O<sub>2</sub><sup>•-</sup> produzidos neste ensaio. É útil a estimativa da produção de O<sub>2</sub><sup>•-</sup> em mitocôndrias isoladas *in vivo*, no entanto os dados devem ser analisados com cautela, uma vez que as EROs

produzidas sofrem ação rápida do sistema de defesa antioxidante (MURPHY, 2009). Além disso, o uso de marcadores do  $O_2^-$  como o dihidroetidio fornece informações importantes sobre a produção mitocondrial desse radical, mas a avaliação é limitada (MURPHY, 2009).

Por outro lado, em homogenato de fígado, os extratos neutralizaram outras espécies reativas ( $H_2O_2$  e  $OH^-$ ). Associando todos os resultados, é possível que o efeito dos extratos sobre os níveis de EROs também envolva a habilidade de quelação dos mesmos e consequente diminuição de espécies reativas geradas pela reação de Fenton.

Os resultados encontrados nessa primeira etapa subsidiaram o desenho experimental a ser desenvolvido *in vivo* com *D. melanogaster* e apontaram o EAF como promissor agente antioxidante. Através da curva de sobrevivência e dos resultados obtidos nos testes realizados, verificou-se que o consumo de EAF não causou toxicidade em *D. melanogaster*. Em relação ao estudo com moscas, não há dados na literatura sobre o efeito do extrato de folhas e óleo da polpa da fruta de *C. coriaceum* em modelos de estresse oxidativo induzido pela exposição ao PQ. As moscas foram tratadas com EAF (pré e co-tratamento) e OPP (pré-tratamento) e expostas ao PQ. O herbicida PQ inibe o complexo I da CTE e reage com o  $O_2$  para gerar  $O_2^-$  e consequentemente causar danos oxidativos à célula (SOTIBRÁN et al., 2011; JAHROMI et al., 2013; BARBISAN et al., 2014). As moscas expostas ao PQ apresentaram mudanças significativas em marcadores de estresse oxidativo, como: aumento na produção de ERO, nos níveis de MDA e na atividade e expressão de enzimas antioxidantes.

Os compostos fenólicos, através da habilidade de doação de elétron pela presença do grupo catecol tem um papel importante contra o estresse oxidativo (VELIOGLU et al., 1998; JIMENEZ-DEL-RIO et al., 2010). De acordo com Valko e colaboradores (2006), os compostos fenólicos podem modular a peroxidação lipídica pelo sequestro de radicais peroxil. Isso poderia explicar o efeito do EAF em reduzir os níveis de MDA. Os níveis de MDA também foram significativamente reduzidos pelo tratamento com OPP, o que pode ser atribuído a sua constituição rica em ácido graxo monossaturado - oleico (COSTA et al., 2011). Segundo Moghadam et al (2013), a composição de ácidos graxos das membranas pode criar uma maior propensão a oxidação. Dessa forma, o ácido graxo monossaturado tem baixa velocidade de

oxidação comparada a ácidos graxos com mais de uma dupla ligação (WENZEL, 2013; NIKI, 2014).

Em estudo com a polpa da espécie *C. brasiliense* foi verificado um perfil lipídico semelhante ao OPP de *C. coriaceum* (COSTA et al., 2011) e elevado conteúdo de carotenóides e fenólicos totais (LIMA et al., 2007). Enfatiza-se que os carotenoides são sequestradores hidrofóbicos encontrados nas membranas celulares os quais podem inibir ou interromper reações em cadeia de lipoperoxidação pela reação com radicais peroxil (CHAUDIÈRE e FERRARI-LLOU, 1999; HOFER et al., 2014). Dessa forma, pode-se associar os baixos níveis de MDA detectados nas moscas tratadas com OPP com o aumento da absorção de carotenoides, uma vez que a *D. melanogaster* possui uma proteína transmembrana responsável por essa absorção (KIEFER et al., 2002). Neste cenário é importante destacar a semelhança entre os genes de *D. melanogaster* com os genes de seres humanos relacionados a patologias e vias metabólicas, a qual possibilita extrapolar aos seres humanos os resultados obtidos com esse modelo alternativo.

Embora as EROs, em condições fisiológicas, apresentam funções importantes nos processos biológicos da célula, a produção excessiva dessas espécies induzem a danos oxidativos (FRIDOVICH, 1978; ABOLAJI et al., 2014). CAT e GST constituem importantes linhas de defesa contra o estresse oxidativo em moscas (BOURG, 2001; PENG et al., 2012; NITURE et al., 2014), como comprovado nesse estudo, uma vez que a exposição ao PQ gerou um desequilíbrio na produção de EROs e aumento significativo na atividade dessas enzimas (LUSHCHAK, 2014). A elevação da atividade da CAT pode ser uma resposta adaptativa a superprodução do peróxido de hidrogênio, evidenciada pelo aumento na oxidação da DCFH em moscas expostas ao PQ em diferentes tratamentos.

Os tratamentos das moscas com o EAF e OPP reverteram o aumento das atividades da CAT causado pelo insulto oxidativo decorrente da exposição ao PQ. Contudo, somente as moscas pré-tratadas com EAF apresentaram diminuição na expressão da CAT comparada ao grupo exposto apenas ao PQ. Klichko et al (2004) ao estudarem a expressão da CAT em moscas expostas a vários insultos ambientais, como PQ, aquecimento e  $H_2O_2$  não obtiveram respostas significativas, sugerindo que a expressão gênica da CAT pode ser regulada por um programa genético intrínseco; outros resultados semelhantes também foram encontrados na literatura (ABOLAJI et al., 2014).

Considerando os tratamentos com EAF e OPP, a exposição ao PQ causou uma significante indução da proteína Keap 1, inibidor do Nrf2, e da expressão dos genes CAT, SOD e Trx R-1 comparada ao grupo controle. O efeito do PQ em induzir aumento da regulação de genes envolvidos no estresse oxidativo como Nfr2 através da resposta ARE (Elemento de Resposta Antioxidante) causando um aumento da concentração de enzimas antioxidantes, tais como, CAT, SOD, GST já foi observado em outros trabalhos e reproduzido em nossos experimentos com as enzimas CAT e GST (SYKIOTIS e BOAHMANN, 2008; KASPAR et al., 2009).

Outros genes de defesa envolvidos na modulação do estresse oxidativo em *Drosophila*s são os do sistema tioredoxina. A *D. melanogaster* possui várias tioredoxinas que diferem em sua localização celular e funções. A TrxT localiza-se no núcleo e suas propriedades bioquímicas são pobramente caracterizadas (WAHL et al., 2005; UMEDA-KAMEYANA et al., 2007). Por não possuir a glutationa redutase (BAUER et al., 2002), o sistema tioredoxina (TRX) assume uma grande importância, pois recicla GSSG (WAHL et al., 2005; CHENG et al., 2007), e é formado por proteínas induzidas pelo estresse oxidativo e funciona no controle da via redox como um efetivo antioxidante e modulador de alguns fatores de transcrição (AIGAKI et al., 2002).

A elevada expressão dos genes TrxR-1 e da Keap 1 pelo PQ foi modulada pelos tratamentos com EAF e OPP. Acredita-se que os flavonóides são capazes de estimular a transcrição de enzimas antioxidantes através da ativação do ARE pelo fator de transcrição Nrf2, conforme descrito por Kong et al, (2001). Os genes que apresentam a sequência ARE na região promotora são GPx, SOD, CAT, GST (GUERRA, 2011) e Trx (NORDBERG e ARNÉR, 2001). O Nrf2 é um fator de transcrição do núcleo acionado em resposta celular a um insulto oxidativo, o qual se conecta com a Keap 1. Em resposta a elevados níveis de EROs, a Keap 1 sofre oxidação dos grupos protéicos e induz o Nrf2 a codificar enzimas antioxidantes (SURH et al, 2008; SYKIOTIS e BOAHMANN, 2008; VOMHOF-DEKREY e PICKLO SR 2012; NITURE et al., 2014; LUSHCHAK, 2014).

A partir desse estudo considera-se que os extratos de folhas e da casca assim como o óleo da polpa do pequi apresentaram atividade antioxidante possivelmente atribuída a ação individual ou sinergística dos compostos fitoquímicos presentes. Em *D. melanogaster*, o consumo de extrato de folha e óleo da polpa de pequi conferiu importante proteção contra estresse oxidativo gerado pelo paraquat fornecendo

subsídios para uso dessas partes da planta da espécie *C. coriaceum* como alimento funcional ou farmacológico.

## 4 CONCLUSÃO

A partir dos resultados obtidos com essa tese, concluiu-se que:

### Análise *in vitro*

- ▶ Os compostos fenólicos predominantes identificados no extrato aquoso da folha foram o ácido clorogênico e a quercetina, no extrato etanólico da folha, o ácido elágico e a quercetina, e no extrato etanólico da casca do fruto, o ácido elágico.
- ▶ O ácido clorogênico e a quercetina possuem grupo catecol, importante estrutura química possivelmente envolvida na redução de agentes oxidativos e na atividade antioxidante dos extratos.
- ▶ Os extratos apresentaram proteção contra a degradação da desoxirribose em sistemas isolados contendo  $\text{Fe}^{+2}$  ou  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ , potencial de quelação e de redução do íon ferro, inibição da peroxidação lipídica e da produção de EROs, em homogenato de fígado *in vitro*.
- ▶ Os extratos provaram ser efetivos em diminuir os marcadores de estresse oxidativo *in vitro* (Anexo A).

### Análise *in vivo*

- ▶ Em *D. melanogaster*, a exposição ao paraquat causou aumento da mortalidade, distúrbio na atividade de locomoção, aumento na produção de EROs e dos níveis de MDA, assim como aumento da atividade e expressão de enzimas antioxidantes nos diferentes tratamentos, caracterizando um eficiente modelo de estresse oxidativo induzido por esse herbicida.
- ▶ Os tratamentos com extrato aquoso da folha e óleo da polpa do pequi protegeram as moscas contra as alterações causadas pelo paraquat quanto ao desempenho de locomoção, a redução dos níveis de EROs e de MDA, além da diminuição da elevada atividade das enzimas CAT e GST, para níveis próximos ao controle.
- ▶ Com o aumento da expressão das enzimas pela ação do paraquat, os tratamentos foram efetivos e modular a expressão da Keap 1, TrxR-1 e TrxT, a níveis próximos do controle.
- ▶ Os tratamentos com extrato da folha e óleo da polpa de *C. coriaceum* conferiram proteção às moscas contra os danos causados pelo paraquat em *D. melanogaster*.

## PERSPECTIVAS

Esse estudo proporcionou um aumento do conhecimento científico sobre as propriedades biológicas da espécie *Caryocar coriaceum*, a indicação do uso farmacológico de outras partes da planta, além do óleo da polpa e o fortalecimento do uso do pequi como alimento funcional. A partir dos resultados obtidos poderemos dar continuidade a pesquisa e realizar estudos com os seguintes objetivos:

- Avaliar a expressão protéica dos genes estudados pela técnica de Western blotting;
- Determinar o efeito dos tratamentos com extratos de folha e óleo da polpa de *C. coriaceum* em moscas mutantes para os genes relacionados a via estudada;

## REFERÊNCIAS

- ABOLAJI, A. O.; KAMDEM, J. P.; LUGOKENSKI, T. H.; NASCIMENTO, T. K.; WACZUK, E. P.; FAROMBI, E. O.; LORETO, É. L. DA S.; ROCHA, J. B. T. Involvement of oxidative stress in 4-vinylcyclohexene-induced toxicity in *Drosophila melanogaster*. **Free Radical Biology and Medicine.** v. 71, p. 99–108, 2014.
- AHMED, S.; BEILSTEIN, M.A.; PARDINI, R.S. Glutathione peroxidase activity in insects: A reassessment. **Arch. Insect Biochem. Biophys.** v. 12, p. 31-49, 1989.
- AIGAKI, T.; SEONG, Ki-H.; MATSUO, T. Longevity determination genes in *Drosophila melanogaster*. **Mechanisms of Ageing and Development.** v. 123, p. 1531-1541, 2002.
- ALMEIDA, S.P.; SILVA, J.A. **Piqui e buriti: importância alimentar para a população dos cerrados.** Planaltina: CPAC, 1994. 38p. (Documentos, 54)
- ARARUNA, M., K. A.; SANTOS, K. K. A.; COSTA, J. G. M. da; COUTINHO, H. D. M.; BOLIGON, A. A.; STEFANELLO, S. T.; ATHAYDE, M. L.; SARAIWA, R. A.; ROCHA, J. B. T. da; KERNTOPF, M. R.; MENEZES, I.R.A. de. Phenolic composition and in vitro activity of the Brazilian fruit tree *Caryocar coriaceum* Wittm. **European Journal of Integrative Medicine.** v. 5, p. 178–183, 2013.
- ARAÚJO, F. D. A review of *Caryocar brasiliense* (Caryocaraceae) – an economically valuable species of the central Brazilian cerrado. **Economy Botany.** v. 49, p. 40-48, 1995.
- ASCARI, J.; TAKAHASHI, J. A.; BOAVENTURA, M. A. D. Phytochemical and biological investigations of *Caryocar brasiliense* Camb. **Boletín Latinoamericano y del Caribe de Plantas Medicinales y Aromaticas.** v. 9, n. 1, p. 20-28, jan. 2010.
- ASCARI, J.; TAKAHASHI, J. A.; BOAVENTURA, M. A. D. The phytochemistry and biological aspects of Caryocaraceae family. **Revista Brasileira de Plantas Medicinais.** Campinas, v. 15, n. 2, p. 293-308, 2013.
- AUGUSTYNIAK, M.; NOCÓN, Ł.; KEDZIORSKI, A.; ŁASZCZYCA, P.; SAWCZYN, T.; TARNAWSKA, M.; ZAWISZA-RASZKA, A. DNA damage in grasshopper *Chorthippus brunneus* (Orthoptera) hatchlings following paraquat exposure. **Chemosphere.** v. 125, p. 212–219, 2015.
- BARBISAN, F.; MÂNICA-CATTANI, M.F.; AIGAKI, T.; TRINDADE, L.; ALGARVE, T.; RIBEIRO, E. E.; CRUZ, I.B. DA. Guaraná supplementaion in diets different macronutrient proportions affect positively *Drosophila melanogaster* survival exposed to paraquat. **Planta Med.** v. 80, 2014.
- BASTOS, D. H. M.; ROGERO, M. M.; ARÉAS, J. A. G. Effects of dietary bioactive compounds on obesity induced inflammation. **Arquivos Brasileiros de Endocrinologia e Metabologia.** v. 53, n. 5, 2009.

BAUER, H.; KANZOK, S. M.; SCHIRMER, R. H. Thioredoxin-2 but Not Thioredoxin-1 Is a Substrate of Thioredoxin Peroxidase-1 from *Drosophila melanogaster*. **The Journal of Biological Chemistry**. v. 277, n. 20. p. 17457–17463, 2002.

BENFORD, D. J.; HANLEY, B.A.; BOTTRILL, K.; OEHLSCHLAGER, S.; BALLS, M.; BRANCA, F, et al. Biomarkers as predictive tools in toxicity testing. **ATLA: Alternatives to Laboratory Animals**. v. 28, p. 119-31, 2000.

BENTON, R. Chemical sensing in *Drosophila*. **Current Opinion in Neurobiology**. v. 18, p. 357–363, 2008.

BIER, E. Drosophila, the Golden Bug, Emerges As a Tool for Human Genetics. **Nature Reviews: Genetics**, v.6, n. 1, p.9-23, jan 2005.

BLANCO-AYALA, T.; ANDÉRICA-ROMERO, A.; PEDRAZA-CHAVERRI, J. New insights into antioxidant strategies against paraquat toxicity. **Free Radical Research**. v. 48, p. 623–40, 2014.

BOURG, E. Oxidative stress, aging and longevity in *Drosophila melanogaster*. **Federation of European Biochemical Societies - FEBS Letters**. v. 498, p. 183-186, 2001.

BOYD, O.; WENG, P.; SUN, X.; ALBERICO, T.; LASLO, M.; OBENLAND, D. M.; KERN, B.; ZOU, S. Nectarine promotes longevity in *Drosophila melanogaster*. **Free Radical Biology and Medicine** v. 50, p. 1669–1678, 2011.

Brasil. Ministério da Indústria e do Comércio - Secretaria de Tecnologia e Indústria **Produção de Combustíveis Líquidos a partir de Óleos Vegetais**. 1985. 161p.

BURTON, G. J.; JAUNIAUX, E. Oxidative stress. **Best Practice & Research Clinical Obstetrics & Gynaecology**. v. 25, n. 3, p.287-299, 2011.

BUS, J. S.; GIBSON, J. E. Paraquat: model for oxidant-initiated toxicity. **Environmental Health Perspectives**. v. 55, p. 37-46, 1984.

CADENAS E.; DAVIES, K. J. A. Mitochondrial free radical generation, oxidative stress, and aging. **Free Radical Biology & Medicine** v. 29, p. 222–30, 2000.

CASSAR, M.; ISSA, A-R.; RIEMENSPERGER, T.; PETITGAS, C.; RIVAL, T.; COULOM, H.; ICHÉ-TORRES, M.; HAN, K-A.; BIRMAN, S. A dopamine receptor contributes to paraquat-induced neurotoxicity in *Drosophila*. **Human Molecular Genetics**. v. 24, n. 1, 2015.

CASTRO, A. J. S.; GRISOLIA, C. K.; ARAÚJO, B. C., DIAS, C. D.; DUTRA, E. S. NEPOMUCENO, J. C. Recombinogenic effects of the aqueous extract of pulp from pequi fruit (*Caryocar brasiliense*) on somatic cells of *Drosophila melanogaster*. **Genetics and Molecular Research**. v. 7, n. 4, p. 1375-1383, 2008.

CHAUDIÈRE, J.; FERRARI-ILIOU, R. Intracellular Antioxidants: from Chemical to Biochemical Mechanisms. **Food and Chemical Toxicology**. v. 37, n. 9, p. 949-962, 1999.

CHENG, Z.; ARSCOTT, L. D.; BALLOU, D. P.; JR, C. H. W. The Relationship of the Redox Potentials of Thioredoxin and Thioredoxin Reductase from *Drosophila melanogaster* to the Enzymatic Mechanism: Reduced Thioredoxin Is the Reductant of Glutathione in *Drosophila*. **Biochemistry**. v. 46, p. 7875-7885, 2007.

COSTA, J. G.M.; BRITO, S. A.; NASCIMENTO, E. M. M.; BOTELHO, M. A.; RODRIGUES, F. F.G.; COUTINHO, H. D. M. Antibacterial properties of pequi pulp oil (*Caryocar coriaceum* - Wittm.). **International Journal of Food Properties**. v. 14, p. 411-416, 2011.

COSTA, J. G. M. da, LEITE, G. de O.; DUBOIS, A. F.; SEEGER, R. L.; BOLIGIN, A. A.; ATHAYDE, M. L.; CAMPOS, A. R.; ROCHA, J. B. T da. Antioxidant effect of *Stryphnodendron rotundifolium* Martius extracts from Cariri-Ceará state (Brazil): potential involvement in its therapeutic use. **Molecules**. v. 17, p. 934-950, 2012.

DINIS-OLIVEIRA, R. J.; REMIAO, F.; CARMO, H.; DUARTE, J. A.; NAVARRO, A. S.; BASTOS, M. L.; CARVALHO, F. Paraquat exposure as an etiological factor of Parkinson's disease. **Neurotoxicology**. v. 27, p. 1110-1122, 2006.

DUARTE-ALMEIDA, J. M.; SANTOS, R. J.; FENOVESE, M. I.; LAJOLO, F. M. Avaliação da atividade atioxidante utilizando sistema  $\beta$ -caroteno/ácido linoléico e método de seqüestro de radicais DPPH. **Ciência e Tecnologia de Alimentos**. v. 26, n. 2, p. 446-452, 2006.

DZIKI, D.; ROZYLO, R.; GAWLIK-DZIKI, U.; SWIECA, M. Current trends in the enhancement of antioxidant activity of wheat bread by the addition of plant materials rich in phenolic compounds. **Trends in Food Science & Technology**. v. 40, p. 48-61, 2014.

FACIOLI, N. L.; GONÇALVES, L. A. G. Piqui (*Caryocar brasiliense* Camb) oil triglyceride composition modification by enzymatic way. **Quim Nova**. v. 21, p. 16-19, 1998.

FARINA M.; AVILA. D. S.; ROCHA, J. B. T.; ASCHNER, M. Metals, oxidative stress and neurodegeneration: A focus on iron, manganese and mercury. **Neurochemistry International**. v. 62, p. 575-594, 2013.

FERREIRA, A. L. A.; MATSUBARA, L. S. Radicais livres: conceitos, doenças relacionadas, sistema de defesa e estresse oxidativo. **Revista da Associação Médica do Brasil**, v. 43, n. 1, p. 61-8, 1997.

FIGUEIREDO, R. W.; MAIA, G. A.; FIGUEIREDO, E. A. T. Propriedades fisico-químicas e composição dos ácidos graxos da fração lipídica da polpa e amêndoas do pequi (*Caryocar coriaceum* Wittm.). **Ciência Agronômica**. v. 20, p. 135-139, 1989.

FRIDOVICH, I. Superoxide radical and superoxide dismutases, **Annu. Rev. Biochem.**, v. 64, p. 97–112, 1995.

FRIDOVICH, I. The biology of oxigen radicals. **Science**. v. 201, p. 875-880, 1978.

GINANI, J.S. **Estudo da ação antioxidante *in vitro* do polifenol ácido elágico**. 2005. Dissertação. Universidade de Brasília, 2005.

GROMER, S.; JOHANSSON, L.; BAUER, H.; ARSCOTT, L. D.; RAUCH, S.; BALLOU, D. P.; WILLIAMS, C. H.; Schirmer, R. H.; ARNÉR, E. S. J. Active sites of thioredoxin reductases: Why selenoproteins? **Proceedings of the National Academy of Science - PNAS**. v. 100, n. 22, p. 12618–12623, October, 2003.

GROTTO, D.; MARIA, L. S.; VALENTINI, J.; PANIZ, C.; SCHMITT, G.; GARCIA, S. C.; POMBLUM, V. J.; ROCHA, J. B. T.; FARINA, M. Importance of the lipid peroxidation biomarkers and methodological aspects for malondialdehyde quantification. **Quim. Nova**, v. 32, n. 1, p. 169-174, 2009.

GUERRA, J. F. da C. Polpa de açaí modula a produção de espécies reativas de oxigênio por neutrófilos e a expressão gênica de enzimas antioxidantes em tecido hepático de ratos. 2011. Dissertação. (Mestrado em Ciências Biológicas). Universidade Federal de Ouro Preto, 2011.

GÜLÇİN, I. Antioxidant activity of caffeic acid (3,4-dihydroxycinnamic acid). **Toxicology**. v. 217, p. 213–220, 2006.

GÜLÇİN, I., BÜYÜKOKUROGLU, M.E., OKTAY, M., KÜFREVİOĞLU, O.I. On the *in vitro* antioxidant properties of melatonin. **J. Pineal Res.** v. 33, p. 167–171, 2002a.

GÜLÇİN, I.; HUYUT, Z.; EL MASTAS, M. Radical scavenging and antioxidant activity of tannic acid. **Arabian Journal of Chemistry**. v. 3, n. 1. p. 43-53, 2010.

GÜLÇİN, I.; OKTAY, M.; KÜFREVİOĞLU, O.I.; ASLAN, A. Determination of antioxidant activity of lichen *Cetraria islandica* (L) Ach. **Journal of Ethnopharmacology**. v. 79, p. 325–329, 2002b.

GUTTERIDGE, J.M. Ferrous-salt-promoted damage to deoxyribose and benzoate. The increased effectiveness of hydroxyl-radical scavengers in the presence of EDTA. **Biochemical Journal**. v. 243, p. 709-714, 1987.

HALLIWELL , B.; GUTTERIDGE, J. M. C. **Free Radical Biology and Medicine**. 4 ed. United States: OUP Oxford, 2007. 245 p.

HALLIWELL B. Antioxidant defense mechanism: from the beginning to the end (of the beginning). **Free Radical Research**. v. 31, p. 261-272, 1999.

HALLIWELL, B. Biochemistry of oxidative stress. **Biochemical Society Transactions**. v. 35, p. 1147-1150, 2007a.

HALLIWELL, B. Dietary polyphenols: good, bad or indiferente for your health? **Cardiovascular Research**. v. 73, n. 2, p. 341-7, jan. 2007b.

HALLIWELL, B., GUTTERIDGE, J. M. C. In: Free Radicals in Biology and Medicine. Oxford University Press: Oxford, U.K., 1998.

HALLIWELL, B.; GUTTERIDGE, J. M. C. Oxygen toxicity, oxygen radicals, transition metals and disease. **Biochemical Journal**. v. 219, p. 1-14, 1984.

HAYES, J. E.; ALLEN, P.; BRUNTON, N.; O'GRADY, M. N.; KERRY, J. P. Phenolic composition and *in vitro* antioxidant capacity of four comercial phytochemical products: Olive leaf extract (*Olea europaea* L.), lutein, sesamol and ellagic acid. **Food Chemistry**. v. 126, p. 948–955, 2011.

HEIM, K. E.; TAGLIAFERRO, A. R.; BOBILYA, D. J. Flavonoid antioxidants: chemistry, metabolismo and structure-activity relationships. **Journal of Nutrition Biochemistry**. v. 13, p. 572-584, 2002.

HERMES-LIMA, M. **Oxygen in Biology and Biochemistry: Role of Free Radicals, in Functional Metabolism: Regulation and Adaptation** (ed K. B. Storey), John Wiley & Sons, Inc., Hoboken, NJ, USA. doi: 10.1002/047167558X.ch12. 2004.

HERMES-LIMA, M.; WANG, E. M.; SCHULMAN, H. M.; STOREY, K. B.; PONKA, P. Deoxyribose degradation catalyzed by Fe(III)-EDTA: Kinetic aspects and potential usefulness for submicromolar iron measurements. **Molecular and Cellular Biochemistry**. v. 137, p. 65-73, 1994.

HOFER, T.; JORGENSEN, T. O.; OLSEN, R. L. Comparison of food antioxidants and iron chelators in two cellular free radical assays: strong protection by luteolin. **Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry**. v. 62, p. 8402–10, 2014.

HOLMGREN, A. Thioredoxin. **Annual Review of Biochemistry**. v. 541, n. 1, p. 237-71, 1985.

HOSAMANI R; MURALIDHARA. Acute exposure of *Drosophila melanogaster* to paraquat causes oxidative stress and mitochondrial dysfunction. **Archives of Insect Biochemistry and Physiology**. v. 83, p. 25-40, 2013.

HUBER, L. S.; RODRIGUEZ-AMAYA, D. B. Flavonóis e flavonas: fontes brasileiras e fatores que influenciam a composição em alimentos. **Alimentação e Nutrição Araraquara**. v.19, n.1, p. 97-108, jan./mar. 2008.

JAHROMI, S. R.; HADDADI, M.; SHIVANANDAPPA, T.; RAMESH, S. R. Neuroprotective effect of *Decalepis hamiltonii* in paraquat-induced neurotoxicity in *Drosophila melanogaster*: Biochemical and Behavioral Evidences. **Neurochemical Research**. v. 38, n. 12, p. 2616-2624, 2013.

JI, L.; JIANG, P.; LU, B.; SHENG, Y.; WANG, X.; WANG, Z. Chlorogenic acid, a dietary polyphenol, protects acetaminophen-induced liver injury and its mechanism. **Journal of Nutritional Biochemistry**. v. 24, p. 1911–1919, 2013.

JIMENEZ-DEL-RIO, M.; GUZMAN-MARTINEZ, C.; VELEZ-PARDO, C. The effects of polyphenols on survival and locomotor activity in *Drosophila melanogaster* exposed to iron and paraquat. **Neurochemical Research.** v. 35, n. 2, p. 227–238, 2010.

JOMOVA, K.; VALKO, M. Advances in metal-induced oxidative stress and human disease. **Toxicology.** v. 283, p. 65–87, 2011.

JOMOVA, K.; VALKO, M. Health protective effects of carotenoids and their interactions with other biological antioxidants. **European Journal of Medicinal Chemistry.** v. 70, p. 102-110, 2013.

KARA, I.; KARA, Y.; KIRAZ, A. O.; MAMMADOV, R. Theoretical calculations of a compound formed by Fe+3 and tris (catechol). **Spectrochimica Acta Part A: Molecular and Biomolecular Spectroscopy.** v. 149, p 592–599, 2015.

KASPAR, J. W.; NITURE, S. K.; JAISWAL, A. K. Nrf2:INrf2 (Keap1) signaling in oxidative stress . **Free Radical Biology and Medicine.** v. 47, p. 1304 – 1309, 2009.

KHOURI, J.; RESCK, I. S.; POÇAS-FONSECA, M.; SOUSA, T. M. M.; PEREIRA, L. O.; OLIVEIRA, A. B. B.; GRISOLIA, C. K. Anticlastogenic potential and antioxidant effects of an aqueous extract of pulp from the pequi tree. **Genetics and Molecular Biology.** v. 30, n. 2, p. 442-448, 2007.

KIEFER, C.; SUMSER, E.; WERNET, M. F.; LINTIG, J. V. A class B scavenger receptor mediates the cellular uptake of carotenoids in *Drosophila*. **PNAS.** v. 99, n. 16, 2002.

KIM K, TSAO R, YANG R, CUI S. Phenolic acid profiles and antioxidant activities of wheat bran extracts and the effects of hydrolysis conditions. **Food Chem.** v. 95, p. 466–473, 2006.

KIM, S-II.; JUNG, Je-W.; AHN, Y-J.; RESTIFO, L. L.; KWON, H-W. *Drosophila* as a model system for studying lifespan and neuroprotective activities of plant-derived compounds. **Journal of Asia Pacific Entomology.** v. 14, n. 4, p. 509–517, 2011.

KING, A.; YOUNG, G. Characteristics and occurrence of phenolic phytochemicals. **Journal of the American Dietetic Association,** v. 99, n. 2, p. 213-218, 1999.

KLICHKO, V. I.; RADYUK, S. N.; ORR, W. C. Profiling catalase gene expression in *Drosophila melanogaster* during development and aging. **Archives of Insect Biochemistry and Physiology.** v. 56, p. 34-50, 2004.

KONG, A. N.; OWUOR, E.; YU, R.; HEBBAR, V.; CHEN, C.; HU, R.; MANDLEKAR, S. Induction of xenobiotic enzymes by the MAP kinase pathway and the antioxidant or electrophile response element (ARE/ApRE). **Drug Metabolism Reviews.** v. 33, p. 255-71, 2001.

KRIS-ETHERTON, P.M.; HECKER, K.D.; BONANOME, A.; COVAL, S.M.; BINKOSKI, A.E.; HILPERT, K.F.; GRIEL, A.E.; ETHERTON, T.D. Bioactive compounds in foods:

Their role in the prevention of cardiovascular disease and cancer. **American Journal of Medicine.** v. 113, p. 71S–88S, 2002.

LEOPOLDINI, M.; NINO R.; CHIODO, S.; TOSCANO, M. Iron chelation by the powerful antioxidant flavonoid quercetin. **Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry.** v. 54, p. 6343-6351, 2006.

LEOPOLDINI, M.; RUSSO, N.; TOSCANO, M. The molecular basis of working mechanism of natural polyphenolic antioxidants. **Food Chemistry.** v. 125, p. 288-306, 2011.

LIMA, A de. **Caracterização química, avaliação da atividade antioxidante in vitro e in vivo, e identificação dos compostos fenólicos presentes no pequi (*Caryocar brasiliense*, Camb.).** 2008. 182 p, Tese. (Doutorado em Ciências dos Alimentos) – Universidade de São Paulo, 2008.

LIMA, A de.; SILVA, A. M. de O.; TRINDADE, R. A.; TORRES, R. P.; MANCINI-FILHO, J. Composição química e compostos bioativos presentes na polpa e na amêndoia do pequi (*Caryocar brasiliense*, Camb). **Revista Brasileira de Fruticultura**, v. 29, n.3, 2007.

LIMA, M.T.; MAIA, G. A.; GUEDES, Z. B. L.; ORIÁ, H. F. Composição de ácidos graxos da fração lipídica do pequi (*Caryocar coriaceum* Wittm.). **Ciência Agronômica.** v.12, n. 1/2, p.93-96, 1981.

LOBO V, PATIL A, PHATAK A, CHANDRA N. Free radicals, antioxidants and functional foods: impact on human health. **Pharmacogn Rev.** v. 4, p. 118–126, 2010.

LOSSO, J. N.; BANSODE, R. R.; TRAPPEY, A.; BAWADI, H. A.; TRUAX, R. *In vitro* antiproliferative activities of ellagic acid. **The Journal of Nutritional Biochemistry**, v.15, n. 11, p. 672-678, 2004.

LUSHCHAK, V. I. Free radicals, reactive oxygen species, oxidative stress and its classification. **Chemico-Biological Interactions.** v. 224, p. 164-175, 2014.

MANACH, C.; MAZUR, A.; SCALBERT, A. Polyphenols and prevention of cardiovascular diseases. **Current Opinion in Lipidology.** v. 16, p 77-84, 2005.

MANACH, C.; SCALBERT, A.; MORAND, C.; REMECY, C.; JIMENEZ, L. Polyphenols food sources and bioavailability. **American Journal of Clinical Nutrition.** v. 79, n. 5, p. 727-747, 2004.

MARQUES, V.; FARAH, A. Chlorogenic acids and related compounds in medicinal plants and infusions. **Food Chemistry.** v. 113, p. 1370-1376, 2009.

MATÉS, J. M.; SEGURA, J. M.; PÉREZ-GÓMEZ, C.; ROSADO, R.; OLALLA, L.; BLANCA, M.; SÁNCHEZ-JIMÉNEZ, F. M. Antioxidant Enzymatic Activities in Human Blood Cells after an Allergic Reaction to Pollen or House Dust Mite. **Blood Cells, Molecules, and Diseases.** v. 25, n. 7, p. 103-109, april 1999.

MATHEW, S.; ABRAHAM, T. E.; ZAKARIA, Z. A. Reactivity of phenolic compounds towards free radicals under in vitro conditions. **J Food Sci Technol.** v. 52, n 9, p. 5790–5798, 2015.

MATOS, F.J.A. **Plantas Medicinais: Guia de Seleção e Emprego de Plantas Usadas em Fitoterapia no Nordeste do Brasil.** 2 ed. Fortaleza: Imprensa Universitária, 2000. 346p.

MATTOS, T. C. G de. **Mecanismos de ação antioxidante dos ácidos caféico e tântico em sistemas contendo íons ferro.** 2009. Dissertação. (Mestrado em Química). Universidade de Brasília. 2009.

MAQSOOD, S.; BENJAKUL, S.; ABUSHELAIBI, A.; ALAM, A. Phenolic compounds and plant phenolic extracts as natural antioxidants in prevention of lipid oxidation in seafood: A detailed review. **Comprehensive Reviews in Food Science and Food Safety.** v.13, p. 1125-1140, 2014.

MISSIRLIS, F.; PHILLIPS, J.P.; JACKLE, H. Cooperative action of antioxidant defense systems in *Drosophila*. **Current Biology.** v. 11, p. 1272-1277, 2001.

MISSIRLIS, F.; RAHLFS, S.; DIMOPOULOS, N.; BAUER, H.; BECKER, K.; HILLIKER, A.; PHILLIPS, J.; JÄCKLE, H. A putative glutathione peroxidase of *Drosophila* encodes a thioredoxin peroxidase that provides resistance against oxidative stress but fails to complement a lack of catalase activity. **The Journal of Biological Chemistry.** v. 384, p. 463-472, 2003.

MOGHADAM NN, HOLMSTRUP M, PERTOLDI C, LOESCHCKE V. Age-induced perturbation in cell membrane phospholipid fatty acid profile of longevity-selected *Drosophila melanogaster* and corresponding control lines. **Experimental Gerontology** v. 48, p. 1362–1368, 2013.

MORELLI, R.; RUSSO-VOLPE, S.; BRUNO, N.; LO SCALZO, R. Fenton-dependent damage to carbohydrates: free radical scavenging activity of some simple sugars. **Journal of Agricultural Food Chemistry.** v. 51, n. 25, p. 7418-7425, 2003.

MURPHY, M.P. How mitochondria produce reactive oxygen species. **Biochemical Journal.** v. 417, p. 1-13, 2009.

NIKI, E. Role of vitamin E as a lipid-soluble peroxy radical scavenger: *in vitro* and *in vivo* evidence. **Free Radical Biology and Medicine.** v. 66, p. 3-12, 2014.

NITURE, S. K.; KHATRI, R.; JAISWAL, A. K. Regulation of Nrf2-an update. **Free Radical Biology & Medicine.** v. 66, p. 36-44, 2014.

NORDBERG, J.; ARNER, E. S. J. Reactive oxygen species, antioxidants, and the mammalian thioredoxin system. **Free Radical Biology and Medicine.** v. 31, n. 11, p. 1287–1312, 2001.

NUNES, X. P.; SILVA, F. S.; ALMEIDA, J. R. G. da S.; LIMA, J. T.; RIBEIRO, L. A. de A.; QUINTANS JR, L. J.; BARBOSA FILHO, J. M. **Biological Oxidations and Antioxidant**

**Activity of Natural Products, Phytochemicals as Nutraceuticals – Global Approaches to Their Role in Nutrition and Health, Dr Venketeshwer Rao (Ed.), Disponível em: <http://www.intechopen.com/books/phytochemicals-as-nutraceuticals-globalapproaches-to-their-role-in-nutrition-and-health/biological-oxidations-and-antioxidant-activity-of-naturalproducts>. 2012.**

OLIVEIRA, M. E. B.; GUERRA, N. B.; MAIA, A. de H. N.; ALVES, R. E.; MATOS, N. M dos S.; SAMPAIO, F. G. M.; LOPES, M. M. T. Característica químicas e físico-químicas de pequis da Chapada do Araripe, Ceará. **Revista Brasileira de Fruticultura**, v. 32, n 1, p. 114-125, 2010a.

OLIVEIRA, A. C. de.; VALENTIM, I. B.; GOULART, M. O. F.; SILVA, C. A.; BECHARA, E. J. H.; TREVISAN, M. T. S. Fontes vegetais naturais de antioxidantes. **Química Nova**. v. 32, n. 3, p. 689-702, 2009.

OLIVEIRA, D. M. de ; BASTOS, D. H. M. Biodisponibilidade de ácidos fenólicos. **Química Nova**. v. 34, n.6, p.1051-1056, 2011.

OLIVEIRA, F. F. B. DE.; ARAÚJO, J. C. B.; PEREIRA, A. F.; BRITO, G. A. C., GONDIM, D. V.; RIBEIRO, R. DE A.; MENEZES, I. R. A. DE M.; VALE, M. L. Antinociceptive and anti-inflammatory effects of *Caryocar coriaceum* Wittm fruit pulp fixed ethyl acetate extract on zymosan-induced arthritis in rats. **Journal of Ethnopharmacology**. 2015.

OLIVEIRA, M. L. M. de.; NUNES-PINHEIRO, D. C. S.; TOMÉ, A. R.; MOTA, E. F.; LIMA-VERDE, I. A., PINHEIRO, F. G. D.; CAMPELLO, C. C.; DE MORAIS, S. M. *In vivo* topical anti-inflammatory and wound healing activities of the fixed oil of *Caryocar coriaceum* Wittm, seeds. **Journal of Ethnopharmacology**, v. 129, n. 2, p. 214-219, 2010b.

OLIVEIRA, C. C. Avaliação do Potencial anticonvulsivante do *Caryocar coriaceum*. 2016. p. Tese (Doutorado em Bioquímica Toxicológica). Universidade Federal de Santa Maria, Santa Maria – Rio Grande do Sul, 2016.

OUCHI, R. Y. **Avaliação dos efeitos do brometo de etidio em *Drosophila melanogaster* (Diptera- Drosophilidae)**". 2011. 119p. Tese. (Doutorado em Biologia Animal). Universidade Estadual Paulista, São Paulo – São José do Rio Preto, 2011.

PANNALA, A. S.; CHAN, T. S.; O'BRIEN, P. J.; RICE-EVANS, C. A. Flavonoid B-ring chemistry and antioxidant activity: fast reaction kinetics. **Biochemical and Biophysical Research Communications**. v. 282, p. 1161–1168, 2001.

PARDO-ANDREU, G.; DELGADO, R.; VELHO, J.; INADA, N. M.; CURTI, C.; VERCESI, A. E. *Mangifera indica* L. extract (Vimang) inhibits Fe<sup>+2</sup>-citrate-induced lipoperoxidation in isolated rat liver mitochondria. **Pharmacological Research**. v. 51, p. 427-435, 2005.

PASSOS, X. S.; CASTRO, A. C. M.; PIRES, J. S.; GARCIA, A. C. F.; CAMPOS, F. C.; FERNANDES, O. de F. L.; PAULA, J. R.; FERREIRA, H. D.; SANTOS, S. da C.; FERRI, P. H.; SILVA, M. do R. R. Composition and antifungal activity of the essentialoils of *Caryocar brasiliensis*. **Pharmaceutical Biology**. v. 41, n. 5, p. 319-324, 2003.

PASSOS, X. S.; SANTOS, S. da C.; FERRI, P. H.; FERNANDES, O. de F. L.; PAULA, T. de F.; GARCIA, A. C. F.; SILVA, M. do R. R. Atividade antifúngica de *Caryocar brasiliense* (Caryocaraceae) sobre *Cryptococcus neoformans*. **Revista da Sociedade Brasileira de Medicina Tropical.** v. 35, n. 6, p. 623-627, nov-dez, 2002.

PAULA-JUNIOR, W. D.; ROCHA, F. H.; DONATTI, L.; FADEL-PICHETH, C. M. T.; WEFFORT-SANTOS, A. M. Leishmanicidal, antibacterial, and antioxidant activities of *Caryocar brasiliense* Cambess leaves hydroethanolic extract. **Revista Brasileira de Farmacognosia.** v. 16, p. 625-30, 2006.

PENG, C.; ZUO, Y.; KWAN, K. M.; LIANG, Y.; MA, K. Y.; CHAN, H. Y. E.; HUANG, Y.; YU, H.; CHEN, Z-Y. Blueberry extract prolongs lifespan of *Drosophila melanogaster*. **Experimental Gerontology.** v. 47, p. 170-178, 2012.

PEREZ, V.I.; BOKOV, A.; VAN REMMEN, H. Is the oxidative stress theory of aging dead? **Biohim. Biophys. Acta.** v. 1790, n. 10, p. 1005–1014, 2009.

PERRON, N. R.; BRUMAGHIM, J. L. A review of the antioxidant mechanisms of polyphenol compounds related to iron binding. **Cell Biochemistry and Biophysics.** v. 53, n. 2, p. 75-100, 2009.

QUIRINO, G. da S.; LEITE, G. O.; REBELO, L. M.; TOMÉ, A. R.; COSTA, J. G. M. da; CARDOSO, A. H.; CAMPOS, A. R. Healing potential of Pequi (*Caryocar coriaceum* Wittm,) fruit pulp oil. **Phytochemistry Letters.** v. 2, p.179-183, 2009.

RAMOS, K. M. C.; SOUZA, V. A. B. de. Características físicas e químico-nutricionais de frutos de pequiáceiro (*Caryocar coriaceum* Wittm.) em populações naturais da região Meio-Norte do Brasil. **Revista Brasileira de Fruticultura.** v. 33, n. 2, p. 500-508, 2011.

RANGEL-HUERTA, O. D.; PASTOR-VILLAESCUSA, B.; AGUILERA, C. M.; GIL, A. G. A systematic review of the efficacy of bioactive compounds in cardiovascular disease: phenolic compounds. **Nutrients.** v. 7, p. 5177-5216, 2015.

RIBEIRO, D. A.; OLIVEIRA, L. G. S. DE; MACÊDO, D. G. DE; MENEZES, I. R. A. DE; COSTA, J. G. M. DA; SILVA, M. A. P. DA; LACERDA, S. R.; SOUZA, M. M. DE A. Promising medicinal plants for bioprospection in a Cerrado area of Chapada do Araripe, Northeastern Brazil. **Journal of Ethnopharmacology.** v. 155, p. 1522–1533, 2014.

RICE-EVANS, C.; MILLER, N. J.; PAGANGA, G. Structure-antioxidant activity relationship of flavonoids and phenolic acids. **Free Radical Biology & Medicine.** v. 20, p.933-956, 1996.

ROBBINS, R. J. Phenolic acids in foods: an overview of analytical methodology. **Journal of Agricultural Food Chemistry.** v. 51, p. 2866-2887, 2003.

ROESLER, R.; CATHARINO, R. R.; MALTA, L. G.; EBERLIN, M. N.; PASTORE, G. Antioxidant activity of *Caryocar brasiliense* (pequi) and characterization of components by electrospray ionization mass spectrometry. **Food Chemistry.** v. 110, p. 711–717, 2008.

ROESLER, R.; MALTA, L. G.; CARRASCO, L. C.; HOLANDA, R. B.; SOUSA, C. A. S.; PASTORE, G. Atividade antioxidante de frutas do cerrado. **Ciência e Tecnologia de Alimentos.** v. 27, n.1, p. 53-60, 2007.

ROMERO-JIMENEZ, M.; CAMPOS-SANCHEZ, J.; ANALLA, M.; MUÑOZ-SERRANO, A.; ALONSO-MORAGA, A. Genotoxicity and anti-genotoxicity of some traditional medicinal herbs. **Mutation Research.** v. 585, p. 147–155, 2005.

ROSSO, V. V de. Bioactivities of brazilian fruits and the antioxidant potential of tropical biomes. **Food and Public Health.** v. 3, n.1, p. 37-51, 2013.

ROVENKO, B. M.; PERKHULYN, N. V.; GOSPODARYOV, D. V.; SANZ, A.; LUSHCHAK, O. V.; LUSHCHAK, V. I. High consumption of fructose rather than glucose promotes a diet-induced obese phenotype in *Drosophila melanogaster*. **Comparative Biochemistry and Physiology Part A.** v. 180, p. 75–85, 2015.

RUBIN, G. M.; YANDELL, M. D.; WORTMAN, J. R.; GABOR, G. L.; NELSON, C. R.; HARIHARAN, I. K.; FORTINI, M. E.; LI, P. W.; APWEILER, R.; FLEISCHMANN, W.; CHERRY, J. M.; HENIKOFF, S.; SKUPSKI, M. P.; MISRA, S.; ASHBURNER, M.; BIRNEY, E.; BOGUSKI, M. S.; BRODY, T.; BROKSTEIN, P.; CELNIKER, S. E.; CHERVITZ, S. A.; COATES, D.; CRAVCHIK, A.; GABRIELIAN, A.; GALLE, R. F.; GELBART, W. M.; GEORGE, R. A.; GOLDSTEIN, L. S. B.; GONG, F.; GUAN, P.; HARRIS, N. L.; HAY, B. A.; HOSKINS, R. A.; LI, J.; LI, Z.; HYNES, R. O.; JONES, S. J. M.; KUEHL, P. M.; LEMAIRE, B.; LITTLETON, J. T.; MORRISON, D. K.; MUNGALL, C.; O'FARRELL, P. H.; PICKERAL, O. K.; SHUE, C.; VOSSHALL, L. B.; ZHANG J.; ZHAO, Q.; ZHENG, X. H.; ZHONG, F.; ZHONG, W.; GIBBS, R.; VENTER, J. C.; ADAMS, M. D.; LEWIS, S. Comparative genomics of the eukaryotes. **Science.** v. 287, p. 2204-2215, 2000.

RUSTEN, T. E.; LINDMO, K.; JUHASZ, G.; SASS, M.; SEGLEN, P. O.; BRECH, A.; STENMARK, H. Programmed autophagy in the *Drosophila* fat body is induced by ecdysone through regulation of the PI3K pathway. **Developmental Cell.** v. 7, n. 2, p. 179-92, 2004.

RZEZNICZAK, T. Z.; DOUGLAS, L. A.; WATTERSON, J. H.; MERRITT, T. J. S. Paraquat administration in *Drosophila* for use in metabolic studies of oxidative stress. **Analytical Biochemistry.** v. 419, p. 345–347, ago. 2011.

SAEED, N. KHAN, M. R.; SHABBIR, M. Antioxidant activity, total phenolic and total flavonoid contents of whole plant extracts *Torilis leptophylla* L. **BMC complementary and alternative medicine.** v. 12, n. 1, p. 221, 2012.

SALZ, H. K.; FLICKINGER, T. W.; MITTENDORF, E.; PELLICENA-PALLE, A.; PETSCHEK, J. P.; ALBRECHT, E. B. The *Drosophila* Maternal Effect Locus deadhead

Encodes a Thioredoxin Homolog Required for Female Meiosis and Early Embryonic Development. **Genetics.** v. 136, p. 1075-1086, 1994.

SARAIVA, R. A.; ARARUNA, M. K. A.; OLIVEIRA, R. C.; MENEZES, K. D. P.; LEITE, G. O.; KERNTOPF, M. R.; COSTA, J. G. M.; ROCHA, J. B. T.; TOMÉ, A. R.; CAMPOS, A. R.; MENEZES I. R. A. Topical anti-inflammatory effect of *Caryocar coriaceum* Wittm. (Caryocaraceae) fruit pulp fixed oil on mice ear edema induced by different irritant agentes. **Journal of Ethnopharmacology.** v. 136, p. 504– 510, 2011.

SATO, Y.; SHIROU, I.; KUROKAWA, T.; OGURA, J.; KOBAYASHI, M.; HIRANO, T.; SUGAWARA, M.; ISEKI, K. *In vitro* and *in vivo* antioxidant properties of chlorogenic acid and caffeic acid. **International Journal of Pharmaceutics.** v. 403, p. 136–138, 2011.

SCOTT, R. C.; SCHULDINER, O.; NEUFELD, T. P. Role and regulation of starvation-induced autophagy in the *Drosophila* fat body. **Developmental Cell.** v. 7, p. 167-78, 2004.

SENA, L. A.; CHANDEL, N. S. Physiological roles of mitochondrial reactive oxygen species. **Mol Cell** v. 48, p. 158- 67, 2012.

SIMMONS, R.W.; JAMALL, I.S.; LOCKSHIN, R.A. The effect of selenium deficiency on peroxidative injury in the house fly, *Musca domestica*: a role for glutathione peroxidase. **FEBS Lett.** v. 218, p. 251-254, 1987.

SIMÕES, C. M.; SCHENKEL, E. P.; GOSMANN, G.; MELLO, J. C. P.; MENTZ, L.A.; PETROVICK, P. R. (org.) **Farmacognosia: da planta ao medicamento.** 3 ed. Porto Alegre / Florianópolis: Editora da Universidade UFRGS / Editora da UFSC, 2001.

SMITH, J.; SHRIFT, A. Phylogenetic distribution of glutathione peroxidase. **Comp. Biochem. Physiol.**, v. 63B, p. 39-44, 1979.

SOARES, J. de J. **Avaliação da atividade antioxidante *in vitro* e *in vivo* de extratos preparados a partir das folhas de *Syzygium cumini* (L.) Skeels.** Dissertação. (Mestrado em Bioquímica) Fundação Universidade Federal do Pampa programa de pós-graduação em bioquímica.Uruguaiana, RS, 2013.

SOHAL, R.S.; ARNOLD, L.; ORR, W.C. Effect of age on superoxide dismutase, catalase, glutathione reductase, inorganic peroxides, TBA-reactive material, GSH/GSSG, NADPH/NADP<sup>+</sup> and NADH/NAD<sup>+</sup> in *Drosophila melanogaster*. **Mechanisms of Ageing and Development.** v.56, n. 3, p. 223-235, 1990.

SOTIBRÁN, A. N. C.; ORDAZ-TÉLLEZ, M. G.; RODRÍGUEZ-ARNAIZ, R. Flavonoids and oxidative stress in *Drosophila melanogaster*. **Mutation Research.** v. 726, p. 60-65, 2011.

SOUZA JÚNIOR, J. R.; ALBUQUERQUE, U. P.; PERONI, N. Traditional knowledge and management of *Caryocar coriaceum* Wittm. (Pequi) in the brazilian savanna, northeastern Brazil. **Economic Botany.** v. 67, n. 3, p. 225–233, 2013.

STYSKAL, J.; VAN REMMEN, H.; RICHARDSON, A.; SALMON, A. B. Oxidative stress and diabetes: What can we learn about insulin resistance from antioxidant mutant mouse models? **Free Radical Biology and Medicine**. v. 52, n. 1, p.46-(13), 2012.

SUDATI, J. H.; VIEIRA, F. A.; PAVIN, S. S.; DIAS, G. R. M.; SEEGER, R. L.; GOLOMBIESKI, R.; ATHAYDE, M. L.; SOARES, F. A.; ROCHA, J. B. T.; BARBOSA, N. V. *Valeriana officinalis* attenuates the rotenone induced toxicity in *Drosophila melanogaster*. **Neurotoxicology**. v.37, p. 118-126, 2013. Disponível em: <<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.neuro.2013.04.006>>. Acesso em: 04 de julho de 2014.

SUN, X.; SEEBERGER, J.; ALBERICO, T.; WANGA, C.; WHEELER, C. T.; SCHAUSS, A. G.; ZOU, S. Açaí palm fruit (*Euterpe oleracea* Mart.) pulp improves survival of flies on a high fat diet. **Experimental Gerontology**. v. 45, p. 243–251, jan. 2010.

SURH, Y-J.; KUNDU, J. K.; NA, H-K. Nrf2 as a Master Redox Switch in Turning on the Cellular Signaling Involved in the Induction of Cytoprotective Genes by Some Chemopreventive Phytochemicals. **Planta Med.** v. 74, p. 1526–1539, 2008.

SVENSSON, M. J.; CHEN, J. D.; PIRROTTA, V.; LARSSON, J. The thioredoxin T and deadhead gene pair encode testis- and ovary-specific thioredoxins in *Drosophila melanogaster*. **Chromosoma**. v. 112, p. 133-143, 2003.

SYKIOTIS, G. P.; BOHMANN, D. Keap1/Nrf2 signaling regulates oxidative stress tolerance and lifespan in *Drosophila*. **Dev Cell**. v. 14, n. 1, p. 76–85, 2008.

TERÁN, R.; BONILLA, E.; MEDINA-LEENDERTZ, S.; MORA, M.; VILLALOBOS, V.; PAZ, M.; ARCAYA, J. L. The life span of *Drosophila melanogaster* is affected by melatonin and thioctic acid. **Investigacion Clinica**. v. 53, n. 3, p. 250-261, 2012.

THOMASSET, S.C.; BERRY, D.P.; GARCEA, G.; MARCZYLO, T.; STEWARD, W.P.; GESCHER, A.J. Dietary polyphenolic phytochemicals-promising cancer chemopreventive agents in humans? A review of their clinical properties. **Int. J. Cancer**. v. 120, p. 451-458, 2007.

TSUDA, M.; OOTAKA, R.; OHKURA, C.; KISHITA, Y.; SEONG, KI-H.; MATSUO, T.; AIGAKI, T. Loss of Trx-2 enhances oxidative stress-dependent phenotypes in *Drosophila*. **FEBS Letters**. v. 584, p. 3398–3401, 2010.

UMEDA-KAMEYAMA, Y.; TSUDA, M.; OHKURA, C.; MATSUO, T.; NAMBA, Y.; OHUCHI, Y.; AIGAKI, T. Thioredoxin suppresses parkin-associated endothelin receptor-like receptor-induced neurotoxicity and extends longevity in *Drosophila*. **The Journal of Biological Chemistry**. v. 282, n. 15, p. 11180-11187, April 13, 2007.

U. S. National Library of Medicine/ National Center for Biotechnology Information. Disponível em: <<http://pubchem.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/compound/1794427#section=Top>>. Acesso em: 15 jun 2015

VALKO, M., LEIBFRITZ. D., MONCOL, J., CRONIN, M.T.D., MAZUR, M., TELSER, J. Free radicals and antioxidants in normal physiological functions and human disease. **The International Journal of Biochemistry and Cell Biology**, v. 34, p. 44-84, 2007.

VALKO M, MORRIS H, CRONIN MT. Metals, toxicity and oxidative stress. **Curr Med Chem.** v. 12, p. 1161-1208, 2005.

VALKO, M.; RHODES, C. J.; MONCOLA, J.; IZAKOVIC, M.; MAZURA, M. Free radicals, metals and antioxidants in oxidative stress-induced cancer. **Chemico-Biological Interactions**, v. 160, p. 1-40, 2006.

VELIOGLU, Y. S.; MAZZA, G.; GAO, L.; OOMAH, B. D. Antioxidant activity and total phenolics in selected fruits, vegetables, and grain products. **Journal of Agricultural Food Chemistry**. v. 46, p. 4113-7, 1998.

VOMHOF-DEKREYA, E. E.; PICKLO SR, M. J. The Nrf2-antioxidant response element pathway: a target for regulating energy metabolism. **Journal of Nutritional Biochemistry**. v. 23, p. 1201–1206, 2012.

WAHL, M. C.; IRMLER, A.; HECKER, B.; SCHIRMER, R. H.; BECKER, K. Comparative structural analysis of oxidized and reduced thioredoxin from *Drosophila melanogaster*. **Journal of Molecular Biology**. v. 345, p. 1119-1130, 2005.

WAHSHA, M.; AL-OMARI, A.; HASSAN, M.; ABUADAS, F. A.; AHMED, E. T.; MOSTAFAVI, K.; MORADI, M.; GHOTBI, M. Protective action of flavonoids extracted from different jordanian plants against oxidative stress. **International Journal of Biological & Pharmaceutical Research**. v. 3, n. 3, p. 450-456, 2012.

WALLACE, D. C. A mitochondrial paradigm of metabolic and degenerative diseases, aging and cancer: A dawn for evolutionary medicine. Downloaded from [www.annualreviews.org](http://www.annualreviews.org) by Universidade Federal da Santa Maria on 05/27/13. [www.annualreviews.org](http://www.annualreviews.org) • Mitochondrial & Age-Related Diseases. **Annu. Rev. Genet.** v. 39, p. 359-407, 2005.

WEIDINGER, A.; KOZLOV, A. V. Biological activities of reactive oxygen and nitrogen species: oxidative stress versus signal transduction. **Biomolecules**. v. 5, p. 472-84, 2015.

WENZEL, G. E. **Radicais livres, antioxidantes nutracêuticos fenólicos e polifenólicos vegetais**. São Leopoldo: Ed. UNISINOS, 2013.

YAMAMOTO, S., JAISWAL, M., CHARNG, W.L., GAMBIN, T., KARACA, E., MIRZAA, G., WISZNIEWSKI, W., SANDOVAL, H., HAELETERMAN, N.A., XIONG, B., et al. A *Drosophila* Genetic Resource of Mutants to Study Mechanisms Underlying Human Genetic Diseases. **Cell**. v. 159, p. 200–214, 2014.

ZHANG, Z.; HAN, S.; WANG, H.; WANG, T. Lutein extends the lifespan of *Drosophila melanogaster*. **Archives of Gerontology and Geriatrics**. v. 58, p. 153-159, 2014.

ZOU, S.; Meadows, S.; SHARP, L.; JAN, L. Y.; JAN, Y. N. Genome-wide study of aging and oxidative stress response in *Drosophila melanogaster*. **PNAS**. v. 97, n. 25, p. 13726–13731, December, 2000.

**ANEXO A – Atividade antioxidante dos EAF, EEF e EEC de *C. coriaceum* em testes *in vitro* e em fígado de ratos.**

EXT.	IC <sub>50</sub> (µg/mL) DPPH*	(% Proteção 2-DR *)			Ophe (Abs) aos 90min [Ctl/Ext]		(% MDA [Ctl/Ext])	Proteção	
		H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub>	Fe <sup>+2</sup>	H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> + Fe <sup>+2</sup>	Quelação	Redução		(AUF) O <sub>2</sub> <sup>•-</sup> [Ctl/Ext] **	(%) EROs [Ctl/Ext]***
EAF	27,20	47,92	44,71	12,78	0,502 / 0,345	0,116 / 0,364	272,41 / 22,15	259,04 / 295,04	178,67 / 119,31
EEF	26,37	36,84	39,11	21,60	0,497 / 0,382	0,085 / 0,291	371,12 / 101,25	259,04 / 309,91	162,18 / 110,79
EEC	38,66	27,39	42,96	12,64	0,569 / 0,466	0,115 / 0,383	303,74 / 97,64	259,04 / 388,56	169,67 / 110,70

\*Considerada a concentração dos extratos de 250 µg/mL; \*\* Considerada a concentração dos extratos de 100 µg/mL; \*\*\* Considerada a concentração dos extratos de 50 µg/mL; Abs.: Absorbância; Ctl MDA: Induzido com Fe<sup>+2</sup>; Ctl O<sub>2</sub><sup>•-</sup>: Induzido com Antimicina A; Ctl EROs: Induzido com Ca<sup>+2</sup>; Ext. Extrato; AUF: Arbitrary Units of Fluorescence; EROs: Espécies Reativas de Oxigênio; 2-DR: 2-deoxirribose.