

**UNIVERSIDADE FEDERAL DA GRANDE DOURADOS**

**ANÁLISE TOXICOGENÉTICA E ATIVIDADE  
ANTIMICOBACTERIANA *in vitro* DO COMPOSTO  
FLAVONA**

**VANESSA VILAMAIOR DE SOUZA**

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**ANÁLISE TOXIGENÉTICA E ATIVIDADE  
ANTIMICOBACTERIANA *in vitro* DO COMPOSTO FLAVONA**

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Orientador: Dr. JULIO HENRIQUE ROSA

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ATA DA DEFESA DE DISSERTAÇÃO DE MESTRADO APRESENTADA PELA CANDIDATA VANESSA VILAMAIOR DE SOUZA, ALUNA DO PROGRAMA DE PÓS-GRADUAÇÃO STRICTO SENSU EM CIÊNCIAS DA SAÚDE ÁREA DE CONCENTRAÇÃO “FARMACOLOGIA”, REALIZADA NO DIA 19 DE AGOSTO DE 2014.

Aos dezenove dias do mês de agosto de dois mil e quatorze (19/08/2014), às 13h30min, em sessão pública, realizou-se, na sala cinco do Bloco da FCS da Universidade Federal da Grande Dourados, a Defesa de Dissertação de Mestrado intitulada **“ATIVIDADE ANTIMICOBACTERIANA, TOXICIDADE AGUDA, GENOTOXICIDADE E MUTAGENICIDADE DA FLAVONA (2-FENIL-4H-1-BENZOPIRANO-4-ONA) EM CAMUNDONGOS”** apresentada pela mestrandona VANESSA VILAMAIOR DE SOUZA, do Programa de Pós-Graduação Mestrado em Ciências da Saúde, à Banca Examinadora constituída pelos professores Dr. Júlio Henrique Rosa Croda/UFGD (presidente/orientador), Dra. Cândida Aparecida Leite Kassuya/UFGD (membro titular), Dr. Fábio Juliano Negrão/ UFGD e Dra. Alexeia Baruffati Grisolia (membro titular). Iniciados os trabalhos, a presidência deu a conhecer a candidata e aos integrantes da Banca as normas a serem observadas na apresentação da Dissertação. Após a candidata ter apresentado a sua Dissertação, os componentes da Banca Examinadora fizeram suas arguições, que foram intercaladas pela defesa da candidata. Terminadas as arguições, a Banca Examinadora, em sessão secreta, passou aos trabalhos de julgamento, tendo sido a candidata considerada **APROVADA**, fazendo jus ao título de **MESTRE EM CIÊNCIAS DA SAÚDE**. Nada mais havendo a tratar, lavrou-se a presente ata, que vai assinada pelos membros da Banca Examinadora.

Dourados, 19 de agosto de 2014.

Dr. Júlio Henrique Rosa Croda

Dra. Cândida Aparecida Leite Kassuya

Dr. Fábio Juliano Negrão

Dra. Alexeia Baruffati Grisolia

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## **Dedicatória**

*Dedico aos meus pais Elis Regina e Antonio, meus irmãos Alexsandra e Geandro e a minha sobrinha Isabella.*

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## **1 INTRODUÇÃO**

A tuberculose (TB) é uma doença crônica infecciosa transmissível, causada pela bactéria de morfologia bacilar, *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* também conhecido como Bacilo de Koch. Vários aspectos devem ser considerados para a manutenção da TB em nosso meio destacando-se, a posição socioeconômica desfavorável, comorbidade de tuberculose HIV/AIDS, etilismo, diabetes, tabagismo, dependência química, dificuldade de acesso aos serviços de saúde, o envelhecimento da população, a urbanização desordenada e processos migratórios contribuíram de maneira significativa para que a doença ainda hoje não tenha sido erradicada (Barreto, 2009; Bignall, 1971).

A forma pulmonar da TB é a mais comum, o indivíduo pode adquiri-la a medida que entra em contato com o bacilo em suspensão emitido por um paciente portador. Cerca de um terço da população mundial está infectada com o *M. tuberculosis*, e a chance de desenvolver a forma ativa da doença é de 10% durante a vida (Barbosa e Costa, 2014).

A TB está concentrada em um grupo de 22 países, no ano de 2012 foi registrado um total de 8,6 milhões de pessoas que desenvolveram a doença, deste montante, 1,3 milhão evoluiu para óbito (WHO, 2013). No mesmo período, no Brasil, foram notificados 71.230 casos, a taxa de incidência foi de, 36.7/100.000 habitantes, colocando o Brasil na 17<sup>a</sup> posição entre os países com alta carga da doença (Brasil, 2013; SINAN, 2014).

O tratamento da TB é prolongado, dura no mínimo seis meses. O uso inadequado e o abando do tratamento podem resultar no surgimento de cepas monorresistentes, caracterizadas pela resistência do bacilo a pelo menos um medicamento utilizado para o tratamento e cepas multidroga resistentes (MDR) que são resistentes às drogas isoniazida e rifampicina. A resistência é agravada quando as cepas se tornam resistentes a pelo menos rifampicina e isoniazida, uma quinolona (ofloxacina, levofloxacina, moxifloxacina) e um medicamento injetável de segunda linha (amicacina, canamicina, capreomicina), são então consideradas cepas extremamente resistentes (Arbex et al., 2010; Dalcolmo et al., 2007).

A elevação das taxas de incidência da TB e o surgimento de cepas resistentes ocasionou a necessidade da realização de novos ensaios de triagem, bem como, a síntese de novos fármacos e testes de susceptibilidade. Dessa forma, a indústria farmacêutica

procura a implementação de terapias medicamentosas que sejam eficientes tanto, na redução do período de tratamento quanto na eliminação de infecções persistentes (Warner e Mizrahi, 2004).

Dentro dos compostos utilizados como base para as novas formulações, as pesquisas apontam para a utilização de plantas medicinais, as quais, são fonte de compostos como os metabólitos secundários (fontes potenciais de drogas) contidos em extratos e óleos essenciais com importância terapêutica (Dolly et al., 2012).

O conhecimento popular é responsável por propagar dentro das comunidades as propriedades terapêuticas das plantas, e é a partir das indicações populares que vários estudos químicos e farmacológicos têm início (Mathias et al, 2013). Nos últimos anos, a pesquisa sobre plantas medicinais tem atraído à atenção em todo o mundo por serem fonte de substâncias químicas que são potenciais substratos para síntese de novas drogas (Bellik et al., 2012).

Assim, se faz necessária à busca por drogas eficazes no tratamento de diversas doenças sendo necessários estudos acerca da segurança e eficácia de seu uso. A partir da pesquisa realizada pelo nosso grupo de pesquisa, o qual extraímos fase metanólica das folhas de *Annona sylvatica* (CIM = 184,33 mm/mL). A fração FAE (Fração Acetato de etila), resultante do fracionamento, teve CIM = 115,2 mm/mL. Detectou-se ainda a CIM do composto isolado luteolina (236,8 mm/mL) a qual pertence à classe das flavonas, em sua estrutura ocorre a ligação de hidroxilas nas posições C3, C4, C5 e C7.

O presente estudo teve como finalidade verificar a atividade antimicobacteriana *in vitro* de flavona sem nenhum radical de hidroxila (2-fenil-4H-1-benzopirano-4-ona) e análise toxicológica *in vivo* através dos testes de toxicidade aguda, genotoxicidade e mutagenicidade.

## 2 REVISÃO DA LITERATURA

### 2.1 Tuberculose: Doença e epidemiologia

A infecção tuberculosa é endêmica, causada pelo *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* ou bacilo de Koch pode afetar praticamente todos os órgãos, mas tem especial predisposição pelos pulmões, o que provavelmente se deva, a alta oxigenação do órgão e de o bacilo ser aeróbio estrito. A evolução ocorre em ciclos lentos, podendo apresentar as mais diversas complicações (Demachki et al., 2013; Pellenz, et al, 2011; Rodrigues et al., 2013).

A partir do momento que o bacilo adentra ao organismo, rapidamente acomete o pulmão que forma como resposta tubérculos e corpos cavernosos. Quando o indivíduo infectado tosse, espirra ou fala, expectora milhares de gotículas (1 a 10 µm de diâmetro) no ar, cada uma contém em média um quarto de bacilos, que podem se manter suspensos no ar por várias horas, podendo assim, serem aspirados e contaminarem outras pessoas. As vias aéreas são a principal forma de propagação da doença (Araujo et al, 2013, Carvalho et al., 2011). Outro meio de contágio é, a inoculação direta que ocorre através da pele lesionada, é mais comum em patologistas ou outros profissionais de laboratórios que manipulam tecidos infectados (Campos et al., 2011).

Após atingir os alvéolos pulmonares, os bacilos sofrem a ação do sistema imunológico. A resposta imunológica inata desencadeia uma resposta inflamatória que envolve os macrófagos alveolares locais e o recrutamento de neutrófilos e monócitos, aumento progressivo de linfócitos T e B, muitas vezes a infecção poderá ser eliminada por esse mecanismo (Capone et al., 2006).

Os macrófagos, neutrófilos e monócitos circundam os macrófagos infectados, células dentríticas e fibroblastos, formando o característico granuloma tuberculoso. O granuloma é o principal mecanismo que limita a disseminação da micobactéria, criando assim a interação da resposta entre os linfócitos T e os macrófagos ativados pelo infeferon- $\gamma$ , os quais impedem a multiplicação do *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*, assim a doença pode apresentar longos períodos de latência, e reativar quando ocorrer algum desequilíbrio da resposta do sistema imunológico frente ao bacilo (Turolla e Nascimento, 2006).

O risco de doença pulmonar ativa é baixo após uma exposição ao organismo, mas

aumenta sob condições de estresse ou em um ambiente confinado no qual ocorrem exposições repetidas (San Pedro e Oliveira, 2013; Selig et al., 2012). Segundo estimativas, 1/3 da população mundial está infectada pelo *M. tuberculosis*, desse total 5 a 10% irá desenvolver a doença. Pacientes co-infectados TB/HIV existe um incremento de 10% ao ano de desenvolvimento de doença ativa. Nesses casos está recomendado o tratamento da tuberculose latente (Barbosa e Costa, 2014).

Os fatores que contribuem para o desenvolvimento da doença podem estar associados ao ambiente, ao hospedeiro (idade, sexo, estado nutricional, imunológico e doenças intercorrentes) e a linhagem do *M. tuberculosis* (Ferreira e Pinto, 2010; Vicentin et al., 2002).

Ainda podem predispor o desenvolvimento da doença fatores como: o abuso de drogas injetáveis, a infecção recente nos últimos 2 anos, a silicose, o diabetes *mellitus*, a gastrectomia, o uso prolongado com corticosteroide, a doença renal em estágio avançado, as síndromes de má absorção crônicas, ou baixo peso corporal (10% ou mais de peso abaixo do ideal) e o etilismo (Brasil, 2002; Brasil, 2005).

Estima-se que, no ano de 2012, ocorreram 8,6 milhões de casos incidentes, dos quais 400.000 seriam pacientes coinfetados com HIV e 1,3 milhão de óbitos entre pacientes não portadores de HIV (Lönnoroth et al., 2010; WHO 2013). No mesmo período, no Brasil, foram notificadas 71.230 pessoas, a taxa de incidência foi de aproximadamente de 36,7/100.000 habitantes e uma taxa de cura de 69,2% e a de abandono 11,9% (Brasil, 2013; SINAN, 2014).

Os gastos financeiros são relevantes, visto que, a tuberculose dentre as doenças infecciosas, é a nona causa de internação e ocupa o vigésimo sétimo lugar em gastos com internação no Sistema Único de Saúde (SUS), e é a quarta causa de mortalidade no Brasil (Brasil, 2013). Estima-se que entre 2013 – 2015 serão necessários US\$ 8 bilhões por ano nos países de renda média e baixa para o tratamento e controle da tuberculose, desse montante US\$ 5 bilhões serão destinados para o tratamento da tuberculose comum, US\$ 2 bilhões para o tratamento de MDR-TB e XDR-TB e US\$ 1 bilhão para o tratamento de pacientes com HIV/TB.

## 2.2 Tratamento

A descoberta de novas drogas para o tratamento da tuberculose se iniciou no final dos

anos de 1940, nesse período houve a descoberta da estreptomicina (monoterapia). Com o surgimento de cepas resistentes fez-se necessário a descoberta de fármacos, como ácido para-aminossalicílico (PAS), isoniazida, pirazinamida, etionamida, etambutol e capreomicina (Mitchison, 1990).

Atualmente a terapia é baseada em: Rifampicina (R), Isoniazida (I), Pirazinamida (Z), Etambutol (E), Estreptomicina (S) e Etionamida (Et) - via oral, cujos os mecanismos estão descritos no quadro 1. A forma de tratamento é baseada em casos novos, falência terapêutica e recidiva: Esquema I (Básico), 2RHZ / 4RH, recomendado para todas as formas de tuberculose pulmonar e extrapulmonar. Esquema II, 2 RHZ/7RH, recomendado para a forma meningo encefálica da tuberculose; Esquema III (reforçado), 2RHZE/4RHE, recomendado nos casos de recidiva após cura ou retorno após abandono; esquema IV, 3SZE/9EEt, recomendado nos casos de falência de tratamento. A duração do tratamento é caracterizada no esquema I (6 meses), esquema II (9 meses), esquema III (6 meses) e esquema IV (12 meses) (Brasil, 2002).

Quando ocorre falência no esquema terapêutico básico, é proposto um esquema constituído por estreptomicina, etambutol, terizidona, pirazinamida e uma quinolona (levofloxacina ou ofloxacina). Na impossibilidade de se utilizar a estreptomicina, esta é substituída por amicacina. Em 2009 o etambutol foi incluído no esquema de tratamento, mais especificamente, na fase intensiva (engloba os dois primeiros meses) com o objetivo de diminuir a transmissibilidade e evitar o uso da rifampicina neste momento, para assim minimizar a resistência (Kritski, 2010; Reffino-Netto, 2001; Selig et al., 2012).

**Quadro 1.** Mecanismo de ação dos principais antimicobacterianos

Medicamento	Mecanismo de ação
<b>Rifampicina</b>	Liga-se de forma irreversível ao RNA-polimerase DNA-dependente, impedindo a produção de RNA e a síntese de Proteínas
<b>Isoniazida</b>	Quelação de íons cobre essenciais para a célula bacteriana; interfere também na enzima micolase-sintetase, importante na síntese de ácido micólico
<b>Etambutol</b>	Inibição da síntese de ácido nucleicos da célula bacteriana
<b>Pirazinamida</b>	Provavelmente semelhante a isoniazida
<b>Estreptomicina</b>	Se liga de forma irreversível ao ribossomo bacteriano, produzindo bloqueio ou alterações profundas na síntese de Proteínas
<b>Etionamida</b>	Age na enzima nicotinamida adenina-dinucleotídeo

Fonte: Bisaglia et al., 2013

### 2.3 Resistência micobacteriana

Uma preocupação recente, é a resistência dos bacilos frente ao tratamento, a resistência pode ser classificada como: monorresistente - o bacilo se torna resistente a pelo menos um medicamento utilizado para o tratamento ou polirresistente - o bacilo se torna resistente a mais de um medicamento, mas não à combinação de isoniazida e rifampicina.

As cepas MDR apresentam resistência a rifampicina, isoniazida, enquanto que, as cepas XDR apresentam resistência a pelo menos rifampicina e isoniazida, uma quinolona (ofloxacina, levofloxacina, moxifloxacina) e um medicamento injetável de segunda linha (amicacina, canamicina, capreomicina) (Conde et al., 2009; Dalcolmo et al., 2007).

As formas XDR-TB e MDR- TB não respondem ao tratamento preconizado de seis

meses com drogas de primeira linha, podendo levar dois anos ou mais para tratar com drogas menos eficazes, mais tóxicas e com custo mais elevado. Para o tratamento da forma MDR - falência do esquema básico e resistência à rifampicina e isoniazida, a terapia é composta por: Estreptomicina (S), etambutol (E), ofloxacina (O), pirazinamida (Z) e terizidona (T) (WHO, 2013).

A resistência do patógeno causador da tuberculose aos medicamentos utilizados no tratamento, constitui uma barreira para a obtenção do sucesso do esquema terapêutico adotado. Pode ocorrer por conta de um contato prévio do *M. tuberculosis* com o medicamento ou a falha do uso da medicação (principal fator para a formação da resistência). O contato inicial bacilo-fármaco ocorre por conta da administração de esquemas terapêuticos inadequados, irregularidade na administração do medicamento e o controle insatisfatório do indivíduo durante o tratamento (Conde et al., 2009; Pablos-Mendez et al., 2002).

Aproximadamente 3,7% dos pacientes portadores de tuberculose, possuem a forma resistente da doença. Em 2012, cerca de 450 mil pessoas teriam sido diagnosticadas com MDR-TB, o que corresponde a um aumento de 42% em relação ao ano anterior. A maioria dos casos esteve concentrado na China, Índia e Rússia. Embora os casos de XDR sejam mais raros, estudos apontam que aproximadamente 9,6% de MDR possuem características de XDR-TB (WHO, 2013).

Em 2013, no Brasil foram notificados 148 casos novos de monorresistência, 50 de polirresistência, 525 de multirresistência e 21 de resistência extensiva (Fraga et al., 2014). O aumento das taxas de incidência de MDR-TB e XDR-TB tem impulsionado a busca de novas alternativas farmacológicas efetivas que possam reduzir o período de tratamento, bem como minimizar as reações adversas causadas pela terapia.

## **2.4 Novas alternativas terapêuticas para o tratamento da tuberculose**

Planta medicinal é qualquer espécie de planta que contenha substâncias que podem ser utilizadas para fins terapêuticos ou ainda possua princípios ativos que sirvam como precursores da síntese de novos medicamentos (Mitchison, 2004). As plantas e, por conseguinte os produtos naturais são utilizados para fins medicinais. Atualmente os fitoterápicos são responsáveis por cerca de 40% dos fármacos disponíveis no mercado, sendo 70% antimicrobianos e antitumorais (Farnsworth et al., 1985; WHO, 2009).

A busca de novos fármacos menos tóxicos e mais ativos para o tratamento da tuberculose tem estimulado os pesquisadores a investigar novos compostos para o tratamento desta doença (Calixto e Yunes, 2001). As propriedades terapêuticas dos produtos naturais vem sendo alvo de estudo há décadas, mas principalmente desde a descoberta e industrialização da aspirina e penicilina. Outros exemplos clássicos de plantas medicinais utilizadas como fármacos são: o ácido acetilsalicílico (aspirina) proveniente da planta *Salix alba* L. analgésico, antitérmico, anti-inflamatório e antiagregante plaquetário, a vincristina e a vimblastina da planta *Catharanthus roseus* utilizadas no tratamento de alguns tipos de câncer e ainda a digoxina e a digitoxina, potentes glicosídeos cardiotônicos extraídos de *Digitalis purpúrea* L. e a *D. lanata*, respectivamente (Andrade et al., 1997).

As plantas produzem metabólitos secundários que possuem características químicas variadas e são encontrados em grupos - famílias ou gêneros - de plantas, os produtos do metabolismo secundário constituem os chamados “produtos naturais”. Adicionalmente são utilizados em escala industrial para produção de inseticidas, corantes, flavorizantes e medicamentos (Newman e Cragg, 2007).

A diversidade química das plantas permite o isolamento de metabólitos farmacologicamente significativos, através de vias metabólicas secundárias elas produzem alcalóides, flavonóides, isoflavonóides, cumarinas, taninos, glicosídeos, poliacetilenos, terpenos e óleos, que, por vezes, são específicos a determinadas famílias, gêneros ou espécies. Estes complexos químicos podem estar presentes em diferentes partes da planta, por isso, é importante pesquisar a planta em sua totalidade, a fim de, identificar quais locais possuem maiores concentrações de ativos (Behling et al., 2004; Filho e Yunes, 1998).

## **2.5 Plantas e produtos naturais com atividade antimicobacteriana**

As propriedades antimicobacterianas de plantas medicinais estão sendo cada vez mais analisadas em diferentes partes do mundo. Estudos anteriores demonstram sua atividade contra *M. tuberculosis*, como *Clavija procera* B. Stahl, *S. aintabensis* e *T. sibthorpii*, que apresentaram atividade contra estirpes resistentes (Rojas et al., 2006; Tülin et al., 2013). Assim como outras plantas também apresentaram atividade antimicobacteriana tais como: *Faurea saligna* Harv, *Parinari curatellifolia* Planch ex Benth (Leon-Diaz et al., 2010), *Abelmoschus esculentus* Moench (Chimponda e Mukanganyama, 2010).

*Aristolochia taliscana* Gancho (Webster et al., 2010); *Securidaca longepedunculata* Fres, *Maerua edulis* (Gilg & Gilg-Ben.) DeWolf (Luo et al., 2011) *Acorus cálamo* L. var. *americanus* (Webster et al., 2010 ).

A maioria dos medicamentos sintéticos que estão disponibilizados no mercado possuem origem de produtos naturais (Veiga-Junior et al., 2005). Estima-se que 50% dos medicamentos utilizados para o tratamento de infecções sejam oriundos de produtos naturais ou semi-sintéticos, sendo 19,4% dos produtos naturais utilizados para síntese de medicamentos sintéticos (Pretto, 2005).

Algumas flavonas já foram isoladas e testadas frente cepas virulentas de *M. tuberculosis*, apresentando uma CIM considerável como: 3'-O-dimetoxi-5, 6,4 '-triidroxiflavona (MIC 200 mcg/mL) cirsimaritin (MIC de 50 ng/mL), eupatilin (MIC de 50 ng/mL), salvigenin (MIC 100 mcg/ml), (Warner e Mizraki, 2004), 7 - metoxiflavona (MIC 12,5-50 ug/ml) e 5,4 '-di-hidroxi-7-metoxiflavona (MIC 25)-50 ug/mL) (Castellar et al., 2011).

O nosso grupo de pesquisa da rede de pesquisa Pró Centro-Oeste verificou a atividade do extrato bruto e frações e compostos da *Annona sylvatica*. A fração hexânica apresentou atividade, assim foi possível isolar o composto ativo, a luteolina com uma MIC de 236,89 mcg/mL (Araujo et al., 204).

A apigenina (4',5,7-triidroxiflavona) foi testada a fim de inibir a hialuronidase, utilizado como única fonte de carbono para a estirpe de *M. tuberculosis* H37Rv. Através desse estudo, verificou-se que a apigenina inibiu a atividade da hialuronidase, havendo assim a inibição da micobactéria (Hirayama et al., 2007). Provavelmente, o mecanismo de ação da flavona ocorra devido a essa inibição, uma vez que o efeito possa ser atribuído à ausência do substituinte (por exemplo, metoxilo e hidroxilo) no anel A e B, fazendo com que não haja bloqueio estérico efeito entre o grupo carbonilo na posição C-4 da flavona, fornecendo também uma maior interação eletrostática, hidrofóbicas, ligações de hidrogênio com os receptores. Fazendo com que haja ação proteínas e consequentemente inibindo algumas enzimas bacterianas e interferindo nas suas vias de síntese (Dornas et al., 2007).

### **2.5.1 Flavonóides**

Entre a classe de compostos secundários presentes em plantas medicinais com propriedades farmacológicas merece destaque os flavonóides (polifenóis), que são compostos formados por um esqueleto de difenil propano (C<sub>6</sub>C<sub>3</sub>C<sub>6</sub>) e dois anéis

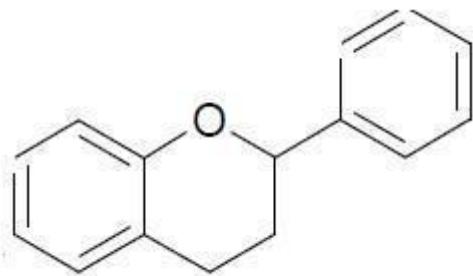
benzênicos ligados a um anel pirano, de forma livre (aglicona) ou ligados a açúcares (glicosídeos) (Behling et al., 2004) (Figura. 1) A classe é dividida em mais de 10 diferentes subclasses dentre elas os flavonóis, flavonas, isoflavonas, antocianinas e flavononas (Arts e Hollman, 2005).

Os flavonóides estão distribuídos no reino vegetal e podem estar presentes em todas as partes das plantas, desde as raízes até as flores e frutos. Distinguem-se entre si pela coloração, vários representantes possuem a cor amarela, e agem na atração de insetos para a polinização de plantas (Yao et al, 2004).

Para que as diferentes classes de flavonóides sejam formadas, ocorrem modificações estruturais, como: adição ou redução, metilação de grupos hidroxila ou do núcleo dos flavonóides, hidroxilação, dimerização (biflavonóides), glicosilação de grupos hidroxila (O-glicosídeos) ou em algum núcleo carbônico (C-glicosídeos) (Balasundram et al., 2006).

Os flavonóides têm atividade antioxidante, devido à capacidade de estabilizar radicais livres e espécies reativas de oxigênio, essas propriedades se devem aos grupos hidroxilas ligadas à estrutura do anel aromático. A ação antioxidante pode ser potencializada com a adição de grupos hidroxilas, caso ocorra ligação a glicosídeos pode ocorrer à redução da atividade antioxidante. Estes fatores contribuem para a deslocalização de elétrons nos núcleos aromáticos, concedendo a estabilidade do radical que passa a não ter energia suficiente para reagir (Galati e Brien, 2004).

Os flavonóides possuem atividade anti- hemolítica, anticarcinogênica, peroxidase lipídica, formação de radicais superóxido e apoptose celular (Duthie e Dobson, 1999; Lee et al., 2003; Undege et al., 2004). Além disso, têm propriedades de modulação do reparo do DNA, antialérgicas, antimicrobianas, vasoprotetoras, antitumorais e anti-inflamatórias (Erlund, 2004; Harbone, 1999; Martens e Mithofer, 2005; Miean e Mohamed, 2001; Muanda et al., 2010).

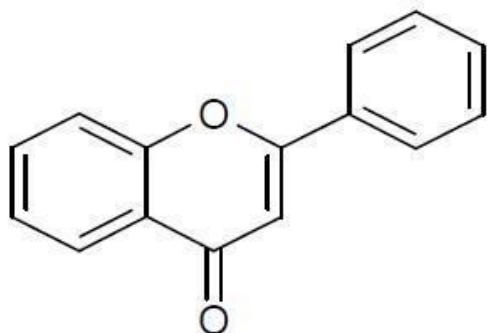


**Figura 1.** Estrutura química dos flavonoides (Balasundram et al, 2006).

## 2.5.2 Flavona

### 2.5.2.1 Propriedades químicas

A flavona (2-fenil-4H-1-benzopirano-4-ona) pertence ao grupo dos flavonóides, contém um anel característico e não há nenhum substituinte em sua estrutura (Figura 2), é encontrada em plantas como a salsa, o endro, e alguns grãos de cereais (Canivenc – Lavier et al., 1996; Choi et al., 2002).



**Figura 2.** Estrutura química da flavona (Martens e Mithofer, 2005)

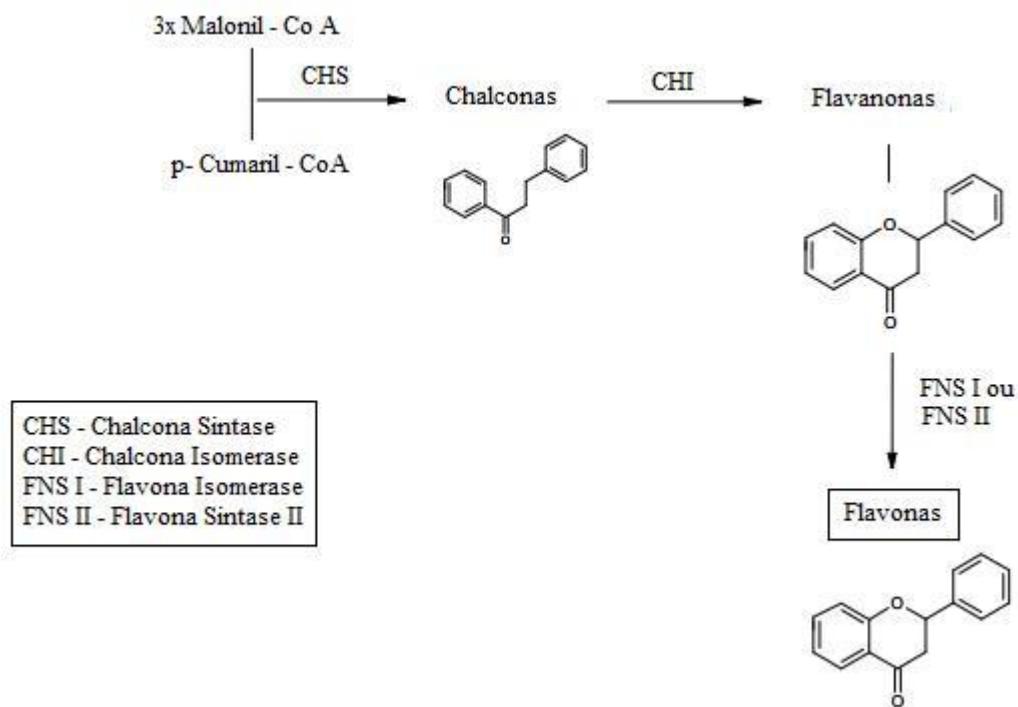
As flavonas são divididas em subgrupos o que depende da presença ou ausência de hidroxilação, *O*-metilação, metilação e isoprenilação, existe assim, uma infinidade de combinações estruturais, é possível que atualmente existem mais de 300 flavonas com ausência de açúcar na estrutura e pelo menos 500 glicosadas (Ullmannova e Popescu, 2007).

A salsa é uma erva que contém elevada concentração da flavona apigenina (5,7,4'-tridroxiflavona) e de crisoeriol (3'- *O*- metiluteolina). A apigenina é encontrada em grãos

de cereais, ervas e alguns vegetais (Middleton et al., 2000). A luteolina ( $5,7,3',4'$ -tetraidroxoflavona) outra flavona encontrada em abundância está presente no brócolis, cenoura e cebola. A pimenta vermelha e o aipo são as maiores fontes tanto de apigenina quanto de luteolina (Kromhout, 2001; Peterson e Dwyer, 1998).

Algumas flavonas metoxiladas conferem sabor amargo a frutas cítricas, como a nobiletina ( $5,6,7,8,3',4'$ - hematoxiflavona), sinesetina ( $5,6,7,3',4'$ - pentametoxiflavona), tangeritina ( $5,6,7,8,4'$ - pentametoxiflavona) (Van Zanden et al., 2005).

A síntese das flavona ocorre por duas vias diferentes que utilizam o mesmo substrato (Figura 3).



**Figura 3.** Esquema adaptado da síntese da flavona (Harbone, 1999).

### 2.5.2.2 Atividades biológicas

As propriedades terapêuticas da flavona dependem de sua estrutura e orientação dos grupos na molécula. Pequenas quantidades da substância pode agir como estimulante cardíaco e dentro do grupo das flavonas algumas são antibacterianas, antialérgicas, calmantes, e ainda, há aquelas que inibem ou estimulam sistemas de algumas enzimas como a Glutationa S-Transferase, UDP-Glicuroniltransferase 1 e isoformas 1A e 2B do citocromo P450 responsáveis pela biotransformação de xenobióticos (Fotsis et al., 1998).

Segundo estudos, a flavona pode afetar uma variedade de genes responsáveis pelo controle da proliferação celular e a resposta a danos ao DNA, por exemplo, como ocorre no processo de apoptose - células malignas expostas a flavona tendem a passar por esse processo. Células normais quando lesionadas podem recuperar sua capacidade proliferativa quando expostas a esse metabólito (Caltagirone et al., 2000).

O potencial terapêutico da flavona faz desta, um possível alvo para aplicação na área farmacêutica (Galati e Brien, 2004). Estudos epidemiológicos sugerem que, uma alta ingestão de flavona pode estar associada a uma redução de alguns tipos de câncer como, por exemplo, câncer do pulmão e do cólon, além da inflamação crônica e da osteoporose (Bektic et al., 2006; Collins e Franzblau, 1997; Palomino et al., 2002).

Células neurais com estresse oxidativo tiveram maior sobrevida quando expostas ao extrato de *Scutellaria baicalensis* (solidéu-de-baicak) que apresenta em sua composição quatro flavonas: wogonia (5,7-driidroxi-8-metoxiflavona), baicaleína (5,6,7-triidroxiflavona), skullpflavona I (5,2'-diidroxi-7,8-dimetoxiflavona), skullpflavona II (5,6'-diidroxi-6,7,8,2'-tetrametoxiflavona), nestes estudos as flavonas teriam apresentado o efeito de sequestro direto de espécies reativas de oxigênio (Ahmed et al., 1994).

A epigenina, luteolina, nobiletina e a tangeritina, tem atividades antimutagênica e inibem o crescimento de algumas células cancerosas (carcinoma de células escamosas) (Kromhout, 2001).

As flavonas epigenina e a luteolina atuam inibindo a atividade da proteína de resistência a multidroga em 47 e 53% respectivamente, a epigenina na dose de 80 µl mol. L<sup>-1</sup> inibem alguns tipos de câncer como o de cólon, pele, tireóide e células de leucemia e ainda pode prevenir e tratar a doença proliferativa prostática. A epigenina inibe a topoisomerase I e a luteolina promove apoptose em células malignas a medida que causa danos ao DNA (Fotsis et al., 1998; Kromhout, 2001; Peterson e Dwyer, 1998; Van Zanden et al., 2005).

## 2.6 Testes in vitro

Novas metodologias que visam a triagem da viabilidade celular tem sido implementadas, as metodologias mais modernas são REMA (Resazurin Reduction Microtiter Assay) e MTT (dimethyl thiazolyl diphenyl tetrazolium salt) dentre outros, diferem-se da turbidimetria e da contagem de UFC (Unidade formadora de colônia) por

serem mais rápidas, terem um custo menor e um alto rendimento (Mosmann, 1983).

Para o ensaio do REMA é utilizada como substância reveladora a Resazurina, que tem potencial REDOX (Óxido-Redução), com mudança colorimétrica é um indicador de fluorescência que indica o metabolismo celular. A análise de proliferação de células serve para avaliar a viabilidade celular e auxilia na descoberta de drogas (Adoian e Buchbauer, 2010).

O corante resazurina é um indicador de viabilidade celular que utiliza o poder redutor natural de células vivas para converter resazurina para a molécula fluorescente, resorufina. A resazurina é um composto não-tóxico, permeável que é de cor azul e não fluorescente. Ao entrar em contatos com as células é reduzida a resorufina, que produz fluorescência vermelho brilhante. As células viáveis convertem a resazurina em resorufina, gerando, assim, uma medida quantitativa da viabilidade e citotoxicidade (Ahmed et al., 1994).

O teste MTT é utilizado para micobactérias e avalia a ação antimicobacteriana de compostos isolados frente a uma cepa padronizada, e determina a quantidade de cepas viáveis. Nesta técnica o azul de tetrazólio liga-se a enzimas desidrogenases mitocondriais formando um substrato cromogênico o qual é um indicador de oxi-redução (Mosmann, 1983).

## 2.7 Toxicologia de produtos naturais

As plantas medicinais são utilizadas para o tratamento de enfermidades mesmo havendo fármacos sintéticos utilizados para essas mesmas doenças. Mas, assim como ocorre com as drogas sintéticas é importante cautela na utilização destas plantas, uma vez que, podem ser dotadas de substâncias tóxicas que podem levar a morte (Ferreira e Pinto, 2010).

Alguns dos efeitos tóxicos de substâncias presentes em plantas são: i) hepatotóxicos como apiol, safrol, lignanas e alcaloides pirrolizídínicos; ii) a ação tóxica renal que pode ser provocada por terpenos e saponinas e iii) algumas dermatites ocasionadas por espécies com abundância de lactonas sesquiterpênicas. Um exemplo é o confrei (*Symphytum officinale L.*) tradicionalmente utilizado pela população com cicatrizante por conta da alantoína presente, contudo, a planta também apresenta alcaloides pirrolizídínicos que além de hepatotóxicos são comprovadamente carcinogênicos (Behling et al., 2004).

Os óleos essenciais obtidos das plantas medicinais também podem ter propriedades

tóxicas, alguns provenientes de frutos cítricos têm alto índice de defurano cumarinas em sua constituição e como consequência possuem atividade fotossensibilizante, os óleos da canela, funcho e alho tem um nível alto de cinamaldeído e podem causar reação alérgica de contato, o óleo da noz-moscada pode ocasionar alucinações o que se deve provavelmente pela presença da miristicina e da elemicina (Adorjan e Buchbauer, 2010).

No Brasil os estudos de toxicidade pré-clínica para fitoterápicos são normatizados pela Resolução N° 90/04 da Agência Nacional de Vigilância Sanitária que é baseada nas normas preconizadas pela OMS que por sua vez recomenda que sejam realizados estudos de toxicidade aguda e de genotoxicidade quando houver uso contínuo e prolongado do medicamento em humanos (ANVISA, 2004; Turolla e Nascimento, 2006; WHO, 1997).

Testes *in vivo* são importantes para que seja feita a observação dos efeitos dos extratos das plantas nos modelos animais utilizados. Destaca-se, o modelo utilizado de toxicidade aguda. Os testes de toxicidade aguda visam estabelecer um estudo que determina qual é a espécie mais sensível e o índice de letalidade, os extratos, compostos ou frações são administrados em uma ou várias doses em um período de 24 horas (Brasil, 1996). A maioria dos estudos pré-clínicos de produtos sintéticos ou naturais envolve a utilização de parâmetros bioquímicos, hematológicos e anatomo-patológicos (Oliveira et al., 2010).

## 2.8 Genotoxicidade e mutagenicidade

Os agentes genotóxicos apresentam a capacidade de interagir com o DNA, formando alterações oxidativas ou rompendo a fita de DNA, o que compromete sua replicação e a transmissão genética. Normalmente a lesão é reparada pelo próprio organismo ou as células são eliminadas, quando a infecção é persistente, pode ocorrer mutação (alterações hereditárias), que pode se perpetuar nas células filhas durante o processo de replicação, nesses casos o agente causador é denominado mutagênico (Eastmond et al., 2009).

Os ensaios de genotoxicidade desempenham um papel significativo na síntese de novos fármacos, devem ser efetuados nas fases iniciais, a fim de presumir uma possível atividade genotóxica e/ou carcinogênica e para subsidiar na obtenção de novas estruturas químicas com menor atividade tóxica (Freitas et al., 2013; Gollapudi e Krislma, 2000). Os ensaios de genotoxicidade *in vivo* detectam a genotoxicidade e a potencial

carcinogenicidade de agentes químicos ou físicos. Esses danos podem ser avaliados através dos ensaios: Cometa, micronúcleo, apoptose e fagocitose.

O ensaio cometa é realizado em microgel, é empregado no processo de eletroforese e quantificação através da detecção de quebras das fitas do DNA, em células individuais, usando microscopia. A sensibilidade da versão alcalina é maior, pois possibilita a expressão máxima dos danos em fitas simples (Tice et al., 2000).

O teste de micronúcleo visa a quantificação de fragmentos cromossômicos ou de cromossomos inteiros que não estão acoplados ao grupamento de cromossomos de uma célula - provendo, um pequeno núcleo individual, chamado micronúcleo (MN). A análise detecta aberrações cromossômicas em organismos eucarióticos, aplicada na detecção de agentes que prejudicam tanto o processo de ligação dos cromossomos às microfibrilas do fuso como aqueles que induzem quebras cromossômicas (Maluf et al., 2001).

No processo de fagocitose, os corpos apoptóticos são retirados do tecido por macrófagos, esta sinalização ocorre devido a translocação da fosfatidilserina do lado interno para o lado externo da membrana “marcando” as células que deverão ser fagocitadas, a leitura do teste é feita de maneira visual através da leitura de lâminas coradas especificamente (Fenech, 2000; Nicholson e Thornberry, 1997).

Além do mecanismo de “marcação” outro mecanismo pode ser atribuído para o processo de fagocitose como por exemplo, o aumento da quantidade sérica de plaquetas, estas, aderem as áreas lesionadas. Quando ligadas, as plaquetas têm sua estrutura modificada fazendo que haja a expressão de fosfolipídios (carga negativa) e receptores de glicoproteínas, assim, ocorre a liberação de mediadores químicos, tais como, o tromboxano (aglomeração de plaquetas) (Rang et al., 2003). Durante a ativação das plaquetas inúmeros fatores quimiotáticos são liberados (fator de agregação plaquetária), necessários para o crescimento e reparação, recrutando células do tecido, tais como macrófagos (Rang et al., 2003).

O processo de fagocitose do *M. tuberculosis* por macrófagos alveolares desencadeiam fatores imunopatológicos da tuberculose. O macrófago possui a capacidade de fagocitar micobactéria e elimina-la pela circulação sanguínea ou linfática, porém se não o fizer, esta multiplica-se intracelularmente. Desencadeando lesão pulmonar ou áreas secundárias (Henry, 1999).

## 3 OBJETIVOS

### 3.1 Objetivo Geral

Avaliar o efeito antimicobacteriano *in vitro* e os efeitos toxicológicos da exposição aguda da flavona por meio de modelos experimentais *in vivo*.

### 3.2 Objetivos Específicos

- Avaliar o efeito antimicobacteriano *in vitro*;
- Avaliar a toxicidade sistêmica provocada pela exposição aguda da flavona, através da análise de sinais clínicos de toxicidade; parâmetros bioquímicos e hematológicos;
- Avaliar a genotoxicidade e mutagenicidade “*in vivo*” da flavona em camundongos através do ensaio cometa, teste do micronúcleo e fagocitose.

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6   **Toxicogenetic analysis and in vitro antimycobacterial activity of flavone  
7    compound**

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10

11   Vanessa Vilamaior de Souza<sup>1</sup>, Flávio Henrique Souza de Araújo<sup>2</sup>, Claudia Rodrigues  
12   Berno<sup>2</sup>, Rodrigo Juliano Oliveira<sup>2</sup>, Flora Martinez Figueira Moreira<sup>1</sup>, Candida Aparecida  
13   Leite Kassuya<sup>1</sup>, Julio Croda<sup>1,3\*</sup>.

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17   1 Faculty of Health Sciences, Federal University of Grande Dourados, Dourados, MS,  
18   Brazil;

19   2 Federal University of Mato Grosso do Sul (UFMS), Campo Grande, MS, Brazil.

20   3 Oswaldo Cruz Foundation, Campo Grande, Brazil

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**5 ANEXOS**

25 \*Corresponding author: Faculdade de Ciências da Saúde, Universidade Federal da Grande  
26 Dourados, Dourados/MS, 79825-070, MS, Brazil, Phone: +55 67 3410-2321, Fax: +55 67  
27 3410-2326. E-mail address: candida2005@gmail.com

28 **Abstract**

29 Previous studies from our group have shown that the ethyl acetate extract fraction obtained  
30 from *Annona sylvatica* and the flavonoid luteolin showed anti-mycobacterial activity *in*  
31 *vitro*. As the compound flavone (2-phenyl-4H-1-benzopyran-4-one) belongs to the group  
32 of flavonoids and has close structural similarity to luteolin, we decided to examine the  
33 antimicrobial activity, acute toxicity as well as the genotoxic and mutagenic actions of this  
34 flavone. For this purpose, the resazurin reduction microtiter assay (REMA), the acute  
35 toxicity test as well as comet assays, the micronucleus test and phagocytosis assay were  
36 performed. The flavone showed anti-mycobacterial activity at a minimal inhibitory  
37 concentration (MIC) of 28.90 µg/mL while no signs of toxicity were detected in  
38 hematological and biochemical patterns analyzed by the acute toxicity test in female mice  
39 (the dose range was 175 to 2000 mg/Kg). In the micronucleus assay, the flavone did not  
40 exerted mutagenic activity. Splenic phagocytosis was increased by approximately 1.48-  
41 fold compared to that of the negative control. Our results show that the flavone does not  
42 have either acute toxicity or mutagenic activity and can act as an anti-mycobacterial agent  
43 and increase phagocytosis, which appears to enhance the immune response.

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45 **Key words:** Flavone; acute toxicity; antimycobacterial activity; mutagenic activity; mice.

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50        **Introduction**

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52        Flavonoids obtained from medicinal plants or foods have been used for prevention and  
53        treatment of disease. For example, flavonoid-enriched diets have been associated with a  
54        reduced incidence and mortality of prostate cancer (Haddad et al., 2006). Dietary bioactive  
55        flavonoids have the potential to restore microglial cells to a more quiescent state (Johnson,  
56        2015) and plants rich in flavonoids such as *Satureja aintabensis* and *Thymus sibthorpii* are  
57        capable of killing Mycobacteria strains (Askun et al., 2013).

58        No new treatment for tuberculosis has been developed in the last 20 years and new  
59        drugs or alternative therapeutics are needed. Extracts or compounds obtained from plants  
60        display anti-mycobacterial activity, for example: *Acorus calamus*, *Heracleum maximum*  
61        (Webster et al., 2010), *Parinari curatellifolia* (Chimponda and Mukanganyama, 2010),  
62        *Aristolochia taliscana* Gancho (León-Díaz et al., 2010); *Maerua edulis*, *Securidaca*  
63        *longepedunculata*, *Zanthoxylum capense*, and *Tabernaemontana elegans* (Luo et al.,  
64        2011).

65        Previous studies from our group have shown that the ethyl acetate extract fraction  
66        obtained from *Annona sylvatica*, and the flavonoid luteolin both showed anti-  
67        mycobacterial activity *in vitro* (Araujo et al., 2014). Also, several studies corroborated the  
68        possibility that flavonoids might provide "a model" for anti-tuberculosis drug design  
69        (Askun et al., 2013). Indeed flavonoid tests against micobacteria have shown that several  
70        flavonoids may be considered to be antimicobacterial. Flavonoids are classified as  
71        constitutive antimicrobial substances, recently termed as "Phytoanticipins," especially  
72        those belonging to prenylated flavonoids and isoflavones, but not excluding other classes  
73        of compounds (Barron and Ibrahim, 1996).

74 With a successful of luteo lin against *M. tuberculosis* *in vitro*, we decided to test the  
75 flavone, a compound with structure similar to luteolina against *M. tuberculosis*. The safety  
76 study of isolated flavone is relevant because several material products in masked contain  
77 the flavone compound. Toxicological genetic, such as the micronucleus test and the comet  
78 assay, are tests widely accepted by international agencies, government institutons,  
79 ANVISA (Sanitary Surveillance Agency) and OECD (Organization for Economic  
80 Cooperation in Development) Test Guideline 487 (OECD 2010), Test Guideline 489  
81 (OECD 2014).

82 For development of new chemicals or drug candidates prior to entering the market  
83 (Witte et al., 2007). Micronucleus is a moninvasive cytogenetic technique that can detect  
84 chromosomal mutations, wich are involved in risk of development of carcinogenesis  
85 (Fenech, 2000; Carbonari et al., 2005).

86 In the current work, the antimicobacterial activity flavones was demonstrated *in vitro*,  
87 and toxicity analysis was performed by testing for acute oral toxicity in mice as well by  
88 assaying the flavone for genotoxic and mutagenic actions in experimental mouse models..

89

## 90 **Materials and Methods**

91

92 The synthetic flavone (2-phenyl-4H-1-benzopyran-4-ona), middle Brook 7H9  
93 culture medium, isoniazid, resazurin, cyclophosphamide, agarose, Ethidium Bromide,  
94 acridine orange used to perform the tests was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich® Co. LLC  
95 (St. Louis, MO, USA). Other drugs and reagents were of analytical grade.

96

## 97 **Experiment 1: Minimum Concentration Inhibitory (MIC)**

98       The Minimum Concentration Inhibitory assay was performed according to Araujo  
99       et al. (2014) with minor modifications described by Palomino et al. (2002). An aliquot of  
100      the *M. tuberculosis* H37Rv ATCC 27294 strain (700 µL of the frozen strain) was grown  
101      into 80 ml of Middle Brook 7H9 culture medium supplemented with 10% OADC (oleic  
102      acid, bovine albumin fraction V, dextrose and catalase) and 0.5% of glycerol (carbon  
103      source). Then, incubation was performed at 35 °C at 100 rpm in an Incubator Shaker. For  
104      all drugs, the first solution was prepared 10 mg/ml. The flavone and rifampicin solutions  
105      were prepared with DMSO while the isoniazid (INH) solution was made in sterile water.  
106      To conduct the tests, serial solutions of flavone (0.98 to 250 µg/ml) and of reference drugs  
107      (0.004 to 1 µg/ml) were prepared in supplemented Middlebrook 7H9 and a 100 µl of  
108      bacterial suspension ( $5 \times 10^5$  UFC/ml) was then added to each solution in a 96-well plate.  
109      Plates were incubated for 7 days at 37°C, after 30 µl of resazurin (Sigma-Aldrich) in sterile  
110      water (0.01%) was added to the whole plate, and the samples were incubated for 24 hours  
111      at 37°C. At the end of this period, the plates were read by measuring the optical density at  
112      492 nm. MIC was defined as the lowest concentration resulting in 90% growth inhibition  
113      of *M. tuberculosis*. A sample with MIC <250 µg/mL was defined as active against *M.*  
114      *tuberculosis*. Assays were performed in duplicate.

115

## 116      **Experiment 2: Acute Oral Toxicity**

117      **Animals** - Experiments were performed using female Swiss mice (28 - 32g, n = 9)  
118      provided by the Federal University of Mato Grosso do Sul (UFMS). Animals were  
119      maintained under a light-dark cycle of 12 h with controlled humidity (60-80%) and  
120      temperature ( $22 \pm 1$  ° C). Animals were acclimated to the experimental environment for at  
121      least 2 h before testing and were used only once during the experiment. The procedures  
122      were performed in accordance with approval by the Ethics Committee on Animal Use

123 (CEUA) of the Federal University of Grande Dourados (Protocol. 005/2010).

124 **Doses and Treatment -** Toxicity studies were based on protocol 425 from the OECD  
125 (OECD, 2006; OECD, 2008 and the protocols established by ANVISA (ANVISA, 2010).

126 According to the established protocol, 9 animals were used and each received a single oral  
127 administration of the compound flavone. Initially one of the animals received a dose of 175  
128 mg/kg and was observed at 30 minutes, 1, 2, 4, 6, 12, 24 and 48 h. After this period, a  
129 second animal received a dose of 560 mg/ kg, after 48 hours the third animal received a  
130 dose of 1792 mg/kg and after an additional 48 h a fourth animal received a dose of 2000  
131 mg/kg. After the last dose administered no deaths were observed and according to the  
132 protocol, 4 more animals received 2000 mg/kg while the control group received the vehicle  
133 (0.1 % of tween 80, 0.2 % DMSO in saline 0.9%) used for diluting flavones. The animals  
134 fasted for 2 h before the administration of flavone with free access only to water; food was  
135 allowed 3 h after administration. The body weight of the animals was checked on the first  
136 day and on the next 14 days following administration. During the experimental period, the  
137 animals were observed daily for clinical aspects, including posture, seizures/tremors,  
138 consistency and appearance of the feces, eyelid closure, piloerection, appearance of skin  
139 and hair, stress, salivation eyes, behavior, body weight and consumption of food and water.

140 **Evaluation of Acute Toxicity -** Initially, the animals were anesthetized with ketamine and  
141 xylazine (25 mg/Kg and 10 mg/Kg, respectively) and after anesthesia, the animals were  
142 euthanized by cervical dislocation and the presence of macroscopic alterations in organs  
143 such as spleen, heart, liver, lungs and kidneys was assessed for appearance, color, size,  
144 weight and consistency.

145

146 **Experiment 3: Genetic toxicological evaluations**

147 **Chemical Agents, animals and experimental design -** The same animal was used for

148 comet, micronucleus and Splenic Phagocytosis Assay. Experiments were performed using  
149 female Swiss mice ( $n = 25$ , weighing 28-32g, aged approximately 60 days), provided by  
150 the UFMS. Procedures were also approved by the Ethics Committee on Animal Use  
151 (CEUA) of the Federal University of Grande Dourados (Protocol. 005/2010).  
152 The animals were divided into the following groups: **Group 1** - Control: intraperitoneal  
153 injection of saline (0.1 mL/10g of body weight, ip); Hydroalcoholic solution (1:1) was  
154 orally administered (0.1 mL/10g of body weight, vo); **Group 2** - Positive control:  
155 intraperitoneal injection of cyclophosphamide (100 mg/kg of body weight, i.p.); Saline was  
156 orally administered; **Groups 3, 4 and 5:** Intraperitoneal injection of saline solution and  
157 flavone by the oral route (175, 560, 1792 mg/kg). The animals received a single dose of  
158 flavone. The vehicle (same solution used to dissolve flavone) used was 0.1 % of tween 80,  
159 0.2 % DMSO in saline 0.9%.

160 Following the administration of the compounds, 20  $\mu$ L of peripheral blood were  
161 collected for the micronucleus test at 24 hours (T1), 48 hours (T2) and 72 hours (T3) post  
162 injection. T1 samples were collected for comet assay. After 72 hours, the animals were  
163 anesthetized with ketamine and xylazine (25 mg/kg and 10 mg/kg, respectively) and  
164 peripheral blood for hematologic and biochemical analyses were collected on retroorbital  
165 Plexus. Following this, the animals were euthanized by cervical dislocation for organ  
166 harvesting.

167 **Comet Assay** - After 24 hours of treatment with flavone, 20  $\mu$ l of blood was collected by  
168 caudal puncture and was homogenized with 120  $\mu$ L of LPM agarose (1.5%) at 37 °C and  
169 was subsequently deposited on slides previously prepared with agarose (5%) and slides  
170 were immediately covered with coverslips (24x60 mm). The slides were kept at 4 ° C for  
171 20 minutes to solidify the agarose. Thereafter, the slides were protected from light to  
172 prevent additional DNA damage.

173 After this period, the coverslips were removed and the slides submerged in recently  
174 prepared lysis solution and kept at 4 °C. The lysis solution is composed of (890 mL of  
175 stock lysis solution – 2.5 M of NaCl, 100 mM of EDTA, 10 mM of Tris, exact pH of 10.0  
176 adjusted with solid NaOH, 890.0 mL of milli-Q water, 1.0 mL of Triton and 10.0 mL of  
177 DMSO) and submersion was over a period of 1 hour at 4 °C in the dark.

178 Afterwards, the slides were transferred to a horizontal electrophoresis tank, which  
179 contained buffer solution with pH higher than 13.0 (300.0 mM of NaOH and 1.0 mM of  
180 EDTA at pH 13.0, which was prepared from a stock solution of NaOH 10.0 N and 200.0  
181 mM of EDTA, pH 10.0), the slides were maintained in the tank for a period of 20 minutes  
182 at 4 °C for DNA denaturation. Electrophoresis was carried out at 25 V and 30 mA (25  
183 V/cm) and the slides were then neutralized with a sequence of 3 cycles of 5 minute  
184 immersion in buffer with pH 7.5 (0.4 M Tris - HCl) and then dried at room temperature  
185 and fixed in absolute ethanol for 10 minutes. For the DNA analyses, the slides were stained  
186 with 100µL of ethidium bromide (0.002 mg / mL). Slides were observed with a  
187 fluorescence microscope using the 40x objective and a 515-560 nm excitation filter. One  
188 hundred cells were analyzed and classified by length and intensity of the tail. Class 0 - no  
189 damage; Class 1 - cells with tail inferior to the nucleus diameter; Class 2 – cells with tail size 1  
190 and 2 times the diameter of the nucleus; Class 3 - cells with tail 2 times superior the diameter  
191 of the nucleus. Cells containing fully fragmented nuclei were not included in the calculations.  
192 At the end of the analysis, the *score* of each treatment was determined by multiplying the  
193 number of nuclei counted in each class by the class value (0, 1, 2 or 3) (Navarro et al., 2014).

194 **Micronucleus Assay of Peripheral Blood** - After treatment, blood from the tail of each  
195 animal was collected at three different times (T1, T2 and T3). Twenty microliters of blood  
196 was deposited on slides previously prepared with acridine orange (1mg/ml). The slides  
197 were placed in a freezer at -20 ° C. The count of polychromatic erythroblasts with

198 micronuclei was determined under a fluorescence microscope with blue light (488 nm)  
199 using a 100x objective and 2,000 cells were observed (Navarro et al., 2014).

200 **Splenic Phagocytosis Assay** - One third of the spleen was ground in a physiological  
201 solution. One hundred microliters of the suspension was placed on a previously prepared  
202 slide with 20 $\mu$ L of acridine orange (1mg/mL) and then slides were covered with coverslips.  
203 The slides were maintained frozen until the time of readings, which were made using a  
204 400x fluorescence microscope, equipped with a 420-490 nm excitation filter and a 520 nm  
205 barrier filter. Analyzes were conducted according to the protocol established by Navarro et  
206 al. (2014), which evaluated the presence or absence of phagocytosis.

207 **Statistical Analysis** - The mean  $\pm$  standard error (SEM) was calculated, and  
208 ANOVA/Tukey's tests were performed at  $p < 0.05$  using GraphPad Prism software  
209 (version 3.02; Graph-Pad Software Inc., San Diego, CA, USA).

210

## 211 **Results and discussion**

212

213 The MIC value of flavone against a strain *M. tuberculosis* H37Rv ATCC 27294  
214 was 28.90  $\mu$ g/mL while values determined as standards were 0.030 mM/mL for isoniazid  
215 and 0.019 for rifampicin. Negative controls tested included myrtenol, limonene, cineol and  
216 camphor (others isolated substances from plants), which did not exhibit ability to kill *M.*  
217 *tuberculosis* at low concentrations.

218 Flavonoids are secondary metabolites obtained from the plant kingdom and which  
219 have a diversity of structures and biological activities. Depending on the basic structure,  
220 compounds belonging to flavonoid class may be divided into the flavone, flavonole and  
221 flavonone subclasses (Bravo, 1998). Because Araujo et al. (2014) showed that luteolin and

222 products of *A. sylvatica* have a potential role in killing *M. tuberculosis* without toxicity in  
223 acute toxicity, we focused our studies on flavone antimicobacterial activity and safety.

224 Other studies have reported the effects of the six natural flavones against a strain of  
225 *M. tuberculosis* with respective lowest *concentration* of an antimicrobial that will inhibit  
226 the growth of a microorganism (MIC): 3'-O-dimethoxy-5, 6,4 '-trihydroxyflavone (MIC  
227 200 µg/mL) cirsimarinin (MIC 50 µg/mL), eupatilin (MIC 50 µg/mL), salvigenin (MIC  
228 100 µg/mL), 7-methoxyflavone (MIC 12.5-50 µg/mL) and 5,4 '-dihydroxy-7-  
229 methoxyflavone (MIC 25-50 µg/mL) (Castellar et al., 2011) and luteolin (MIC of 236.89  
230 µg/mL) (Araujo et al., 2014). Also, synthetic flavones like 3,6-dimethoxy flavone, 6,2'-  
231 dimethoxy flavone (both with values higher than 100 µg/mL) and 6,3'-dimethoxy flavone  
232 (MIC 100 µg/mL) also demonstrated antimicobacterial activity (Jayshree et al., 2012). The  
233 antimicobacterial activities of flavonoids and flavones have already been reported by (Lin  
234 et al., 2002; Brown et al., 2007, Sivakumar et al., 2007; Zheng et al., 2014). The results led  
235 Zheng et al. (2014) to conclude that flavonoids provide a basis for rational structural  
236 design and discovery of novel anti-tuberculosis drugs. Our study corroborates and extends  
237 this work and contributes another flavone with higher antimicobacterial activity than  
238 observed for other flavone compounds *in vitro*.

239 With regard to structure and activity, it seems that the flavone compound has the  
240 same structure as apigenin, luteonin and other flavones. All of them have pharmacologic  
241 structures suitable for the development of new drugs. When 3 or 4 hydroxyl groups are  
242 added to flavone, 4',5,7-Trihydroxyflavone (apigenin) or 3',4',5,7-Tetrahydroxyflavone  
243 (luteolin), respectively, the antimicobacterial activity is decreased in case of luteolin  
244 (Araujo et al., 2014) or extinguished in case of apigenin (Chen et al., 2010). Another  
245 consideration is the methoxy group; when methoxy groups were added to flavone

246 structures, the anti-tubercular activity was reduced or eliminated (Jayshree et al., 2012). In  
247 addition to the direct effect of flavones against *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*, apigenin and  
248 quercetin are hyaluronidase inhibitors that also inhibited hyaluronan dependent growth of  
249 *M. tuberculosis* (Hirayama et al. (2009)). *M. tuberculosis* increase of hyaluronan synthase  
250 expression is a mechanism of mycobacteria pathogenesis according to Hirayama et al.  
251 (2009). These results lead us to suggest that flavone and its natural and synthetic  
252 derivatives can play an important role in protection against *M. tuberculosis*, but more  
253 studies are needed to evaluate their effectiveness *in vivo*.

254 Thus, studies of acute toxicity and genetic toxicological studies are required by the  
255 Brazilian Health Surveillance Agency (ANVISA) to regulate and register phytotherapeutic  
256 products in order to evaluate the safety of their use (ANVISA, 2004, OECD, 2008). In  
257 addition, flavonoids are considered to have relatively little toxicity when compared to  
258 compounds such as the alkaloid class of drugs. However, some flavonoids such as flavone,  
259 kaempferol, and other flavonoids have mutagenic properties (Middleton et al., 2000).

260 The animals used in the present study were exposed to flavone and did not exhibit  
261 clinical signs of toxicity at the doses administered and no significant changes were  
262 observed in water and food intake. Furthermore, the absolute and relative weight of the  
263 organs (liver, kidneys and lungs) showed no statistically significant difference (data not  
264 shown). Hematological analysis demonstrated that the values of hematocrit, hemoglobin,  
265 platelet count, erythrocytes and total and differential count of leukocytes in the treated  
266 animals were similar to the negative control, indicating that the product provided has no  
267 effect on circulating blood cells or their production (Table 1). The levels of neutrophils,  
268 eosinophils, monocytes, basophils and lymphocytes remained within the reference range,  
269 while platelets had an average of 366,000 in groups treated with flavone, and 348,000 and

326,000 in the positive control and negative control respectively (Table 1). The biochemical profile indicated a difference in aminotransferase enzyme and urea in the group treated with cyclophosphamide, indicating the occurrence of acute injury. Treated groups had results similar to the negative control group. There was no significant statistical difference in the levels of Aspartate Aminotransferase (AST), Alanine Aminotransferase (ALT), Urea (U) and Creatinine (Cr) in the treated groups (Table 2). Thus, it was found that after the acute exposure of animals to flavone, no sign of toxicity was detected.

The intermediary dose of the flavone was genotoxic (increase of 1.36-fold compared to that of the negative control;  $p>0.05$ ). However, the highest and the lowest doses did not show evidence of genotoxicity (Table 3). Thus, there is a tendency observed in Table 3 for an increase of DNA damage. It is likely that these lesions were not fixed in DNA because the same doses did not show a mutagenic (effect Table 4). Taken together, these data suggest that the genotoxic lesions may be capable of repair (Oliveira et al., 2015).

The genotoxic and mutagenic effects of flavone were examined respectively through the comet and micronucleus assays in peripheral blood. With these techniques it is possible to detect changes in DNA (*i.e.* single-strand breaks, double alkali-labile sites, cross-linking, loss of excision repair), clastogenic damage and / or damage to the mitotic spindle (Oliveira et al., 2007; Hermeto et al., 2015).

Table 4 presents the evaluation of the mutagenic effects following acute treatment with flavone. There was no statistically significant difference ( $P> 0.05$ ) between the negative control and treated groups, demonstrating the absence of mutagenic effects. The positive control group (cyclophosphamide) showed a significant increase ( $p <0.05$ ) in the number of micronuclei, of 6.22-, 4.39- and 4.09-fold at 24, 48 and 72h, respectively, compared to that of the negative control (Table 4).

294 Through 72h, no sign of mutagenic activity was observed and thus the data suggest  
295 that the flavone metabolites are also non-mutagenic. The same data did not show a dose-  
296 response correlation because the increase in the dose did not result in an increase in the  
297 frequency of micronuclei in the groups treated with the flavone. Also, data from these  
298 groups did not show a linear reduction in the frequency of micronuclei after 72h, as  
299 observed in the positive control (Table 4). In this group, the results showed a relationship  
300 with cyclophosphamide metabolism, in which reducing the amount of the chemical and its  
301 metabolites (mutagens) in the stock reduced the frequency of DNA damage over 72 hours.

302 The decrease in the frequency of DNA damage caused by cyclophosphamide and  
303 its metabolites can be explained by the body's detoxification capacity, which can occur  
304 through NADPH-mediated oxidation by various aldehyde dehydrogenases (ALDH1A1 and  
305 ALDH3A1) or by another pathway, the conjugation of CP with glutathione by various  
306 glutathione S-transferases (GSTs; GSTA1, GSTM1, GSTP1 and GSTT1) (Pinto et al.,  
307 2009).

308 Immunomodulation was confirmed in the treatments with flavone and  
309 cyclophosphamide because of the increase in the splenic phagocytosis of approximately  
310 1.63-, 1.46- 1.48- and 1.48-fold for the chemotherapy drug and the doses of 175, 560 e  
311 1792 mg/kg, respectively, when compared to that in the negative control group ( $p<0.05$ )  
312 (Table 5). In the comet, micronuclei and splenic phagocytosis assays, a dose-response  
313 correlation was not observed. However, cells with genotoxic and mutagenic damage  
314 (clastogenic or aneuploid) can be removed from the circulatory system by the spleen  
315 (Table 5), which is a well-established and very important function of this organ (Lima et  
316 al., 2013).

317

318 **Conclusion**

319

320 Our results show that flavone does not have either acute toxicity or mutagenic  
321 activity and can act as an anti-mycobacterial agent and increase phagocytosis, which seems  
322 to change the immune response positively. These findings that flavones may have  
323 therapeutic applications against tuberculosis.

324

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## APÊNDICE

**Table 1 – Effect of flavone on hematological parameters**

<b>Experimental group</b>	<b>Red cells</b>	<b>Hematocrit</b>	<b>Hemoglobin</b>	<b>Neutrophil</b>	<b>Lymphocyt</b>
<b>Negative Control</b>	9.24 ± 0.39 <sup>a</sup>	44.40 ± 4.83 <sup>a</sup>	14.46 ± 1.60 <sup>a</sup>	43.80 ± 3.49 <sup>a</sup>	56.20 ±3.49 <sup>a</sup>
<b>Positive Control</b>	9.66 ± 0.13 <sup>a</sup>	46.60 ± 1.34 <sup>a</sup>	15.4 ± 0.55 <sup>a</sup>	53.00 ± 6.89 <sup>a</sup>	45.60 ±7.02 <sup>a</sup>
<b>Flavone/175 mg/Kg</b>	9.28 ± 0.19 <sup>a</sup>	42.80 ± 1.92 <sup>a</sup>	14.2 ± 0.84 <sup>a</sup>	42.00 ± 2.54 <sup>a</sup>	57.60 ±3.04 <sup>a</sup>
<b>Flavone/560 mg/Kg</b>	9.56 ± 0.36 <sup>a</sup>	44.80 ± 3.34 <sup>a</sup>	15.0 ± 1.22 <sup>a</sup>	46.00 ± 1.58 <sup>a</sup>	54.00 ±1.58 <sup>a</sup>
<b>Flavone/1792 mg/Kg</b>	9.34 ± 0.40 <sup>a</sup>	43.40 ± 3.98 <sup>a</sup>	14.6 ± 1.14 <sup>a</sup>	49.00 ± 2.00 <sup>a</sup>	49.8 ± 2.94 <sup>a</sup>

Letters indicate statistically significant differences.

**Table 2- Effect of flavone on biochemical parameters**

<b>Experimental group</b>	<b>Urea</b>	<b>Creatinine</b>	<b>Alkaline Phosphatase</b>
<b>Negative Control</b>	47.80 ± 4.06 <sup>b</sup>	0.36 ± 0.05 <sup>b</sup>	117.40 ± 1.67 <sup>c</sup>
<b>Positive Control</b>	69.00 ± 7.17 <sup>a</sup>	0.50 ± 0.07 <sup>c</sup>	115.80 ± 1.48 <sup>b</sup>
<b>Flavone/175 mg/Kg</b>	44.40 ± 3.87 <sup>b</sup>	0.28 ± 0.08 <sup>b</sup>	115.80 ± 3.11 <sup>b</sup>
<b>Flavone/560 mg/Kg</b>	44.00 ± 2.54 <sup>c</sup>	0.30 ± 0.07 <sup>b</sup>	114.60 ± 3.78 <sup>a</sup>
<b>Flavone/1792 mg/Kg</b>	44.60 ± 2.71 <sup>b</sup>	0.26 ± 0.05 <sup>a</sup>	117.00 ± 2.91 <sup>b</sup>

Letters indicate statistically significant differences.

**Table 3 - Effect of flavone total of injured cells and mean frequency between different classes for Swiss female mice.**

<b>Experimental group</b>	<b>Damaged cells</b>	<b>Damage classes</b>				<b>Escore</b>
		<b>0</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	
<b>Control</b>	13.60±0.51 <sup>a</sup>	86.40 ± 0.51	13.00 ± 0.45	0.60 ± 0.25	0.00 ± 0.00	14.20 ± 0.66 <sup>a</sup>
<b>Cyclophosphamide</b>	85.40 ± 0.68 <sup>c</sup>	14.60 ± 0.68	68.20 ± 0.58	13.80 ± 0.66	3.40 ± 0.40	106.00 ± 1.64 <sup>c</sup>
<b>Flavone/175 mg kg</b>	17.20±0.66 <sup>ab</sup>	82.80 ± 0.66	17.20 ± 0.66	0.00 ± 0.00	0.00 ± 0.00	17.20 ± 0.66 <sup>ab</sup>
<b>Flavone/560mg kg</b>	18.60±0.25 <sup>b</sup>	81.40 ± 0.24	17.60 ± 0.40	1.00 ± 0.31	0.00 ± 0.00	19.60 ± 0.40 <sup>b</sup>
<b>Flavone/1792mg kg</b>	17.00±1.58 <sup>ab</sup>	82.20 ± 0.86	0.00 ± 0.00	0.00 ± 0.00	0.00 ± 0.00	17.00 ± 1.58 <sup>ab</sup>

Letters indicate statistically significant differences.

**Table 4 - Effect of flavone on micronucleus test**

<b>Experimental group</b>	<b>24 h (T1)</b>	<b>48(T2)</b>	<b>72(T3)</b>
<b>Control</b>	7.4±0.93 <sup>a</sup>	9.8±1.8 <sup>a</sup>	8.4±1.36 <sup>a</sup>
<b>Cyclophosphamide</b>	46±1.95 <sup>b</sup>	43±1.34 <sup>b</sup>	34.3±2.54 <sup>b</sup>
<b>Flavone/175 mg kg</b>	8.4±1.03 <sup>a</sup>	6±0.84 <sup>a</sup>	6.2±1.07 <sup>a</sup>
<b>Flavone /560 mg kg</b>	9.2±0.97 <sup>a</sup>	5.4±0.6 <sup>a</sup>	8.4±1.21 <sup>a</sup>
<b>Flavone/1792 mg kg</b>	9±1.45 <sup>a</sup>	8.2±0.86 <sup>a</sup>	8.4±1.50 <sup>a</sup>



# REGULATORY TOXICOLOGY AND PHARMACOLOGY

## AUTHOR INFORMATION PACK

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*Regulatory Toxicology and Pharmacology*, Official Journal of the International Society for Regulatory Toxicology and Pharmacology, reports the concepts and problems involved with the generation, evaluation, and interpretation of **experimental animal and human data** in the larger perspective of the **societal** considerations of protecting human health and the environment. The journal is devoted to reports of significant developments, public opinion, scientific data, and ideas that bridge the gap between scientific information and the **legal aspects of toxicological and pharmacological regulations**.

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Reference to a chapter in an edited book:

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

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