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Daniela Thomas da Silva

**CARACTERIZAÇÃO QUÍMICA E ATIVIDADES BIOLÓGICAS DE
EXTRATIVOS OBTIDOS DE *Nectandra grandiflora* Nees E *Ocotea
lancifolia* (Shott) Mez**

Santa Maria, RS, Brasil
2016

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Tese apresentada ao Curso de Pós-graduação em Engenharia Florestal, da Universidade Federal de Santa Maria (UFSM, RS) como requisito parcial para a obtenção do título de **Doutora em Engenharia Florestal**.

Orientadora Prof^a. Dr^a Berta Maria Heinzmann

Santa Maria, RS, Brasil
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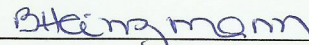
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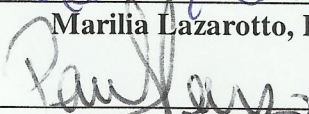
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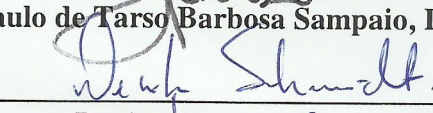
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RESUMO

CARACTERIZAÇÃO QUÍMICA E ATIVIDADES BIOLÓGICAS DE EXTRATIVOS OBTIDOS DE *Nectandra grandiflora* Nees E *Ocotea lancifolia* (Schott) Mez

AUTORA: DANIELA THOMAS DA SILVA
ORIENTADORA: BERTA MARIA HEINZMANN

A presente tese visa contribuir com o conhecimento químico e o potencial biológico de espécies arbóreas da família Lauraceae nativas do Brasil, assim como encontrar aplicações para os extrativos identificados. Desse modo, extrativos foram obtidos das espécies *Nectandra grandiflora* Nees e *Ocotea lancifolia* (Schott) Mez e estudados de acordo com os seguintes objetivos: I) Avaliar se o óleo essencial (OE) de *N. grandiflora* (OENG) e seu constituinte majoritário, (+)-deidrofuquinona (DHF), apresentam potencial fungitóxico frente a fungos apodrecedores de madeira; II) Verificar se a variabilidade da produção de OE, composição química e atividade antifúngica de uma população de *O. lancifolia* durante um ano; III) Caracterizar detalhadamente os extrativos foliares de *O. lancifolia* e verificar seu potencial como antioxidante e como agente preservante de madeira; IV) Avaliar a influência de três métodos de extração sobre o rendimento de extrato etanólico de *N. grandiflora*, suas propriedades químicas e físicas e V) Avaliar o potencial sedativo-anestésico do OE de *N. grandiflora* e do constituinte DHF em modelo animal. Os OE foram obtidos através da hidrodestilação e analisados em cromatografia gasosa. A análise multivariada foi usada para verificar a variabilidade dos OE de folhas, inflorescências e frutos de *O. lancifolia* (OEOL) durante o ano de coleta. Os extratos etanólicos foram obtidos através da extração convencional com uso de Soxhlet, ultrassom e micro-ondas e as técnicas de cromatografia líquida (CL-EM), infravermelho e termogravimétrica foram usadas para as caracterizações principais. Nos ensaios antifúngicos utilizaram-se isolados de *Pycnoporus sanguineus*, *Gloeophyllum trabeum*, *Trametes versicolor* e *Fusarium moniliforme*. A atividade antioxidante dos extratos foi avaliada através da metodologia de redução dos radicais DPPH e ABTS. Os efeitos sedativo-anestésicos foram avaliados em juvenis de jundiá e as concentrações testadas foram: 23-828 mg/L de OENG e 9-160 mg/L de DHF. O OENG (5 µL/mL) inibiu o crescimento micelial fúngico a partir de 70% com IC₅₀ iguais a 0,39 e 1,22 µL/mL para *G. trabeum* e *P. sanguineus*, respectivamente. A DHF (1,25 mg/mL) também foi efetiva contra os fungos mencionados (76.06-79.45%). Maiores teores de OEOL obtidos de folhas foram observados na primavera (1,03%) e no verão (0,96%), sendo o óxido de cariofileno o constituinte predominante, enquanto que o β-quenopodiol, encontrado em duas amostras, foi a principal diferença química detectada pela análise multivariada. O OEOL de folhas apresentou maior atividade fungitóxica contra *F. moniliforme* (67,5%). As análises de CL-EM indicaram a presença de derivados da quercetina nos extratos de ambas as espécies. Entre os métodos de extração avaliados, o convencional mostrou rendimento e estabilidade térmica superiores para os extratos de *N. grandiflora*, no entanto as composições químicas dos diferentes extratos foram semelhantes. Potencial antioxidante foi verificado para todos os extrativos avaliados. Amostras de madeiras tratadas com extrativos de *O. lancifolia* a 4% apresentaram perdas de massa menores que 8%. Os animais expostos a 92-828 mg/L de OENG e a 50-160 mg/L de DHF atingiram o estágio de anestesia. Diante dos resultados, foi possível identificar diferentes classes de metabólitos secundários nas espécies estudadas e delinear suas promissoras aplicações, no âmbito dos antioxidantes naturais, anestésicos para uso veterinário e agentes fungitóxicos.

Palavras-chave: Antioxidantes naturais. Efeito depressor central. Lauraceae. Potencial fungitóxico. Produtos derivados de plantas. Variabilidade química.

ABSTRACT

CHEMICAL CHARACTERIZATION AND BIOLOGICAL ACTIVITIES OF THE EXTRACTIVES OBTAINED FROM *Nectandra grandiflora* Nees AND *Ocotea lancifolia* (Schott) Mez

AUTHOR: DANIELA THOMAS DA SILVA

ADVISOR: BERTA MARIA HEINZMANN

This study aimed to contribute to the chemical knowledge and biological potential of two native trees of the Lauraceae family from Brazil as well as to find applications for the identified extractives. This way, the extractives obtained from *Nectandra grandiflora* Nees and *Ocotea lancifolia* (Schott) Mez were studied according to the following: I) Assessment of the *N. grandiflora* essential oil (EONG) fungicidal potential and its major constituent, (+)-dehydrofukinone (DHF), against wood-rot fungi; II) Verification of the changes on the EO production, chemical composition and antifungal activity in a population of *O. lancifolia* during one year; III) Characterization of leaf extractives from *O. lancifolia* and verification of their antioxidant potential as well as their properties as a wood-preserving agent; IV) Evaluation of the influence of three extraction methods on the yields of ethanolic extracts from *N. grandiflora*, and their chemical and physical properties and V) Assessment of the sedative and anesthetic potential of the *N. grandiflora* EO and DHF in an animal model. The EO were obtained by hydrodistillation and analyzed through gas chromatography. Multivariate analysis was used to assess the changes on the EO of leaves, inflorescences and fruits from *O. lancifolia* (EOOL) over a year of collection. The ethanolic extracts were obtained by conventional extraction using Soxhlet, ultrasound and microwave techniques and liquid chromatography (LC-MS), infrared and thermogravimetry were used for main characterization. Isolates of *Pycnoporus sanguineus*, *Gloeophyllum trabeum*, *Trametes versicolor* and *Fusarium moniliforme* were used for antifungal assays. The extracts antioxidant activity was evaluated by DPPH and ABTS radical reduction methodology. The sedative-anesthetic effects were evaluated in silver catfish juveniles and the tested concentrations were 23-828 mg/L of EONG and 9-160 mg/L of DHF. The EONG (5 µL/mL) promoted micelial inhibition above 70% with IC₅₀ ranged from 0.39 to 1.22 µL/mL for *G. trabeum* and *P. sanguineus*, respectively. The DHF (1.25 mg/mL) was effective against the both fungi (76.06-79.45%). High yields of leaves EOOL were observed in the spring (1.03%) and in the summer (0.96%), being caryophyllene oxide the predominant constituent, while β-chenopodiol, found in two samples, it is the main chemical difference detected by multivariate analysis. Leaves EOOL presented better antifungal activity against *F. moniliforme* (67.5%). The LC-MS analysis indicated the presence of quercetin-derivatives in the extracts of both tree species. Among the evaluated extraction methods, the conventional one showed superior yield and thermal stability for *N. grandiflora* extracts; however, the chemical compositions of different extracts were similar. The antioxidant potential was verified for all assessed extractives. Wood samples treated with 4% of *O. lancifolia* extractives presented mass loss lower than 8%. Animals exposed to 92-828 mg/L of EONG and 50-160 mg/L reached the anesthesia stage. Analyzing the results, different classes of secondary metabolites were identified in the studied species outlining their promising applications as natural antioxidants, anesthetics for aquatic animals and fungicidal agents.

Keywords: Natural antioxidants. Central depressant effect. Lauraceae. Fungicidal potential. Plant-derived products. Chemical variability.

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1 APRESENTAÇÃO

O uso múltiplo da floresta se tornou imprescindível para atender aos requisitos do manejo florestal sustentável, objetivando alcançar os modelos de desenvolvimento social, ambiental e econômico dos ecossistemas (GUARIGUATA et al., 2010; CRONKLETON; GUARIGUATA; ALBORNOZ, 2012). Aproximadamente dois terços da diversidade biológica do mundo são encontrados nas zonas tropicais, especialmente nos países em desenvolvimento (VIEIRA; BIZZO; DESCHAMPS, 2010). Desta biodiversidade, pertencem os ecossistemas florestais, principalmente as florestas tropicais que possuem potencial para geração de produtos madeireiros e produtos florestais não-madeireiros (PFNM) dentre outros bens e serviços ecossistêmicos (GUARIGUATA et al., 2010).

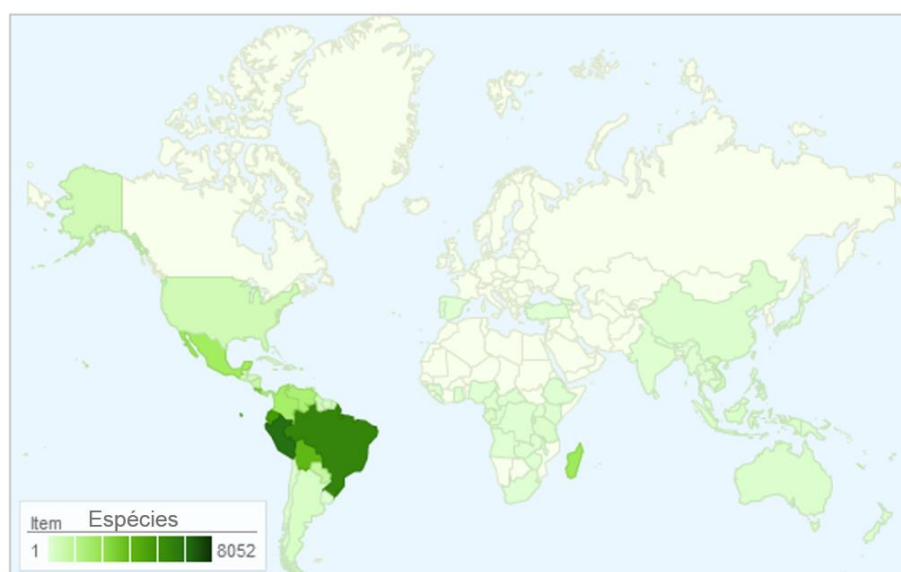
Os PFNM têm sido reconhecidos como uma importante ferramenta para a conservação e manejo dos recursos naturais, além de fornecer meios alternativos de subsistência para as comunidades extrativistas (ARNOLD; PÉREZ, 2001). Dentre os PFNM, os extrativos vegetais (óleos essenciais, borracha, alcaloides, flavonoides, etc.), são as matérias-primas que possuem expressivo valor comercial no âmbito nacional e internacional. No Brasil, o sesquiterpenoide α -bisabolol encontrado no óleo essencial da madeira de espécie nativa candeia (*Eremanthus erythropappus* (DC.) MacLeish), os alcaloides pilocarpina e espilantol extraídos do jaborandi (*Pilocarpus microphyllus* Stapf ex Wardlew.) e do jambu (*Spilanthes acmella* (L.) Murr.), ambas espécies nativas. Ademais, a óleo-resina obtida de plantios comerciais da exótica adaptada *Pinus elliottii* Engelm, juntamente com os anteriormente citados, configuram alguns dos produtos extrativos com elevada importância econômica (PINHEIRO, 2002; HOMMA, 2012; SCOLFORO; DE OLIVEIRA; DAVIDE, 2012; MISSIO et al., 2015).

Os resíduos florestais gerados a partir da exploração madeireira e de processos industriais também são considerados uma fonte de extrativos vegetais. Dentre os resíduos florestais, as cascas e as folhas constituem uma fonte pouco explorada, no entanto, promissora a partir da qual compostos naturais ou fitoquímicos podem ser extraídos como produtos de valor agregado (DEVAPPA; RAKSHIT; DEKKER, 2015). A valorização de resíduos é uma oportunidade de obter lucro de forma sustentável na cadeia produtiva florestal (NAVARRETE et al., 2011). Um exemplo que podemos associar à área florestal, é a produção de óleos essenciais de espécies de *Citrus* sp., subprodutos da grande indústria brasileira de suco de laranja, que possuem expressivo valor comercial, sendo usados como ingredientes para cosméticos, perfumes, alimentos e bebidas. (BIZZO; HOVELL; REZENDE, 2009; REZZADORI; BENEDETTI; AMANTE, 2012).

Todavia, além do conhecimento sobre a biologia e a ecologia de espécies nativas, é necessário realizar pesquisas que incluam a identificação de novos compostos bioativos e de novas fontes de substâncias (HOMMA, 2012). Da mesma maneira, a otimização da utilização dos subprodutos e/ou resíduos florestais vai ao encontro de investigações no âmbito tecnológico que prima pela economia, ecologia assim como por processos inovadores de extração e de purificação dos extrativos vegetais (COSTA et al., 2015; DEVAPPA; RAKSHIT; DEKKER, 2015). Esses aspectos são também, impulsionados pela crescente restrição do uso de produtos sintéticos, com elevada toxicidade, longa permanência e persistência no meio ambiente, pelos órgãos reguladores e fiscalizadores.

Nesse contexto, entre as famílias botânicas que são alvos de pesquisas científicas e que apresentam espécies, comercialmente, reconhecidas, está a família Lauraceae Juss. (MARQUES, 2001). Mundialmente distribuída e, predominantemente, tropical (Figura 1) é uma família que compreende cerca de 50 gêneros e em torno de 2.500 a 3.000 espécies de árvores e arbustos (VAN DER WERFF; RICHTER, 1996). No Brasil, são reconhecidos 24 gêneros e, aproximadamente, 441 espécies de Lauráceas, presentes nos domínios fitogeográficos Amazônia, Caatinga, Cerrado, Mata Atlântica e Pantanal (FLORA DO BRASIL 2020, 2016)¹.

Figura 1 – Distribuição mundial da família Lauraceae



Fonte: Adaptado de Tropicos.org. (<http://tropicos.org/NamePage.aspx?nameid=42000016&tab=maps>).

¹ Flora do Brasil 2020: É um sistema online e parte integrante do Programa ReFlora, desenvolvido para a elaboração da Flora do Brasil Monografada, estabelecida para 2020.

Os gêneros *Nectandra* Rol. ex Rottb. e *Ocotea* Aubl. são os principais gêneros da família Lauraceae, distribuídos pelo continente Americano (Tropical e Subtropical). O gênero *Ocotea* é representado mundialmente por cerca de 350 espécies. Já no Brasil, são reconhecidas 172 espécies até o momento, dentre elas 112, são endêmicas. *Nectandra* é o segundo maior gênero da família com aproximadamente 118 espécies, e dessas, 46 são encontradas no território nacional (BAITELLO, 2001; QUINET, 2005; FLORA DO BRASIL 2020, 2016). Ambos os gêneros possuem espécies conhecidas pela produção de um amplo e diversificado espectro de metabólitos secundários e pelo potencial químico e/ou biológico.

Estudos científicos realizados com *Nectandra grandiflora* Nees (canela-amarela) e *Ocotea lancifolia* (Schott) Mez (canela-pilosa), demonstraram que essas espécies são importantes sob o ponto de vista florestal, fitoquímico e biológico (CAMARGO et al., 2013; SILVA et al., 2015). Desse modo, a presente tese foi fundamentada a partir de estudos realizados com os extrativos vegetais obtidos de ambas as espécies e que envolvem propriedade depressora do sistema nervoso central (SILVA et al., 2013; GARLET et al., 2016), potencial antitumoral (MORENO et al., 1993), e as propriedades antioxidante (RIBEIRO et al., 2005; CAMARGO, 2011), acaricida (BARBOSA et al., 2013) e antiparasitária (FOURNET et al., 2007).

A tese está apresentada em forma de artigos científicos, os quais estão inseridos em quatro seções. De modo geral, o primeiro artigo científico (publicado na Revista *Drewno*) avalia o efeito fungitóxico do óleo essencial de *N. grandiflora* e de seu constituinte majoritário contra fungos apodrecedores de madeira. O artigo científico 2 aborda a variabilidade da composição química dos óleos essenciais de folhas e órgãos reprodutores de *O. lancifolia* e do seu potencial fungistático frente a *Fusarium moniliforme*. O artigo científico 3, publicado no periódico *International Biodeterioration & Biodegradation*, caracteriza os extrativos obtidos de folhas de *O. lancifolia* visando o seu uso no âmbito da conservação de produtos madeireiros, ao passo que o artigo científico 4 avalia os extratos etanólicos de folhas de *N. grandiflora* obtidos a partir de métodos alternativos de extração.

Nos resultados adicionais são apresentadas a identificação do constituinte majoritário do óleo essencial de *N. grandiflora* e avaliação da sua atividade sedativo-anestésica. A seção 7 é destinada à discussão geral, na qual buscou-se realizar uma interpretação dos resultados obtidos, bem como correlacioná-los com a literatura específica e entre si. A tese é finalizada com a conclusão, referências, apêndices e anexos.

1.1 REFERENCIAL TEÓRICO

1.1.1 Metabólitos secundários

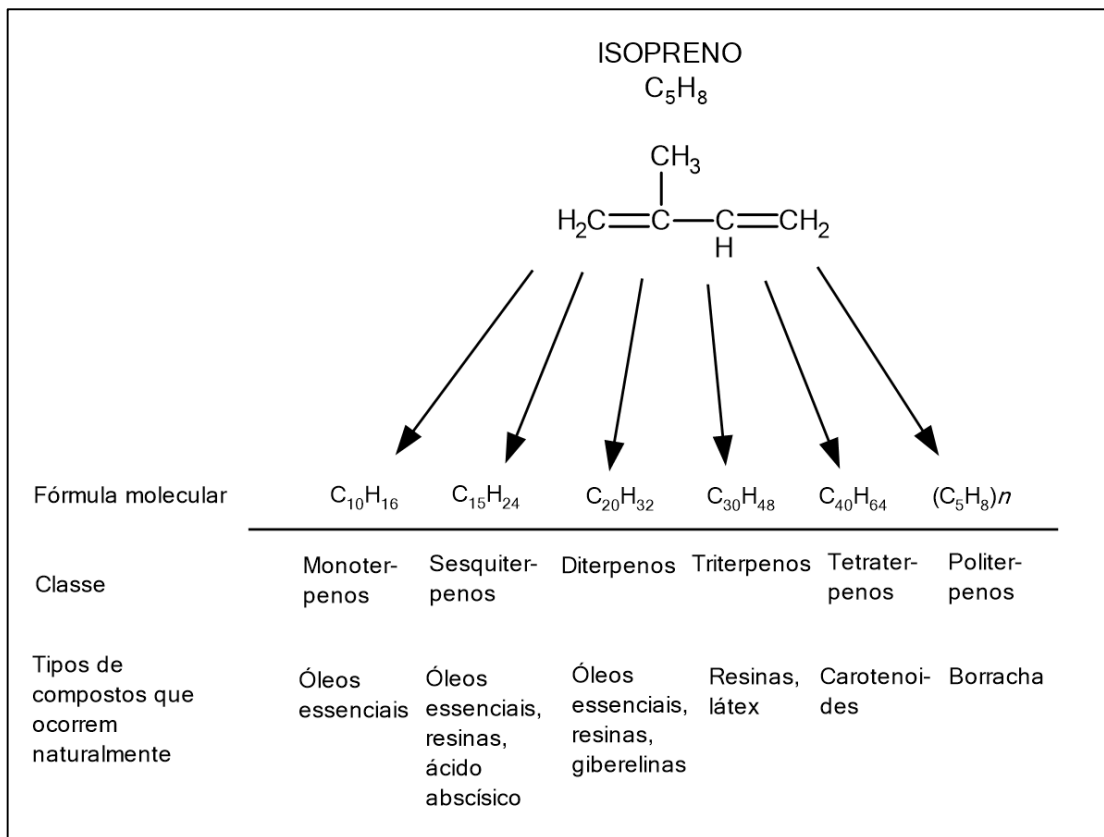
Os metabólitos secundários são moléculas de baixo peso molecular quando comparados às macromoléculas de proteínas e ácidos nucleicos, por exemplo. Os metabólitos secundários estão presentes em todas as espécies vegetais e exercem importantes e diferentes papéis ecológicos (MOORE et al., 2014). Além disso, são, geralmente, moléculas orgânicas com extrema complexidade química e que requerem um grande número de passos enzimáticos específicos para a sua produção (GANG, 2005; PALLARDY, 2008). Os principais metabólitos secundários são classificados em terpenoides, compostos fenólicos e compostos nitrogenados.

1.1.1.1 Terpenoides

Os terpenos ou terpenoides são sintetizados enzimaticamente a partir da acetil-coenzima A e do piruvato/gliceraldeído-3-fosfato, que conduzem à produção de isômeros de isopreno (C_5H_8) via plastídios ou citoplasma (Figura 2, página 13). As enzimas sintetizadoras de terpenoides (terpeno sintases) não estão envolvidas em outras vias biossintéticas, o que acarreta em altos custos enzimáticos para a sua produção quando comparados com outros metabólitos (DUDAREVA; PICHERSKY; GERSHENZON, 2004; PALLARDY, 2008; SCHWAB; DAVIDOVICH-RIKANATI; LEWINSOHN, 2008).

Os terpenoides constituem uma das mais diversas famílias de produtos naturais, com mais de 40.000 estruturas conhecidas (MOORE et al., 2014). Muitos dos terpenoides produzidos não são voláteis, no entanto estão envolvidos em importantes processos vegetais como na estrutura da membrana (esteróis), na fotossíntese (carotenoides) e na regulação do crescimento (ácido abscísico e giberelinas). Os terpenoides também constituem os principais componentes dos óleos essenciais (também chamados de óleos voláteis, óleos etéreos ou essências), resinas, látex e borrachas naturais, considerados como extrativos vegetais (PALLARDY, 2008; SCHWAB; DAVIDOVICH-RIKANATI; LEWINSOHN, 2008).

Figura 2 – Relações entre os compostos isoprenoides



Fonte: Adaptado de Pallardy (2008).

n: representa o número de unidades isoprênicas formadoras da cadeia polimérica.

Os principais constituintes dos óleos essenciais são substâncias de cadeia linear ou cíclica, de baixo peso molecular e são constituído, em sua maioria, por monoterpenos, sesquiterpenos ou diterpenos (PALLARDY, 2008). Podem apresentar, em sua estrutura, diferentes grupos químicos funcionais como ésteres, éteres, aldeídos, álcoois, ácidos, cetonas, óxidos, peróxidos, entre outros. Os constituintes dos óleos essenciais são os responsáveis pelos aromas e odores encontrados em diferentes órgãos vegetais e estão envolvidos nas interações entre plantas, e entre plantas e herbívoros ou polinizadores, e na defesa contra microorganismos (CARDOZA; TUMLINSON, 2006; MUMM; HILKER, 2006; GLINWOOD; NINKOVIC; PETTERSSON, 2011; FARRÉ-ARMENGOL et al., 2013). Em situações de estresse abiótico, os óleos voláteis também contribuem para a proteção das folhas e meristemas contra a perda de água, na termotolerância e na detoxificação de espécies reativas de oxigênio, (GLINWOOD; NINKOVIC; PETTERSSON, 2011).

As famílias botânicas Pinaceae, Apiaceae, Myrtaceae, Lauraceae, Rutaceae, Lamiaceae, Astereaceae, Oleaceae e Piperaceae são reconhecidas por suas espécies apresentarem óleos essenciais (FIGUEIREDO et al., 2008; PALLARDY, 2008). Alguns dos principais óleos essenciais comerciais são extraídos de folhas de *Thuja occidentalis* L. (tuia-vulgar), *Picea mariana* (Mill.) Britton, Sterns & Poggenb. (abeto), *Abies balsamea* (L.) Mill. (abeto balsâmico), *Tsuga canadensis* (L.) Carrière (cicutina oriental), *Mentha arvensis* L. (menta japonesa), *Mentha x piperita* L. (hortelã-pimenta), *Cinnamomum camphora* (L.) J. Presl (cânfora), *Lavandula x intermedia* Emeric ex Loisel. (lavandim) e *Corymbia citriodora* (Hook.) K.D. Hill & L.A.S. Johnson (eucalipto citronela). Também compõem o mercado mundial de óleos essenciais aqueles obtidos a partir da madeira de *Juniperus virginiana* L. (cedro) e *Eremanthus erythropappus* Blume (candeia), das cascas de *Betula lenta* L. (bétula-doce) e de *Cinnamomum zeylanicum* (canela) e dos frutos de *Syzygium aromaticum* (L.) Merr. & L.M. Perry (cravo-da-índia) e do pericarpo de espécies de *Citrus* sp. (laranja, lima e limão) (PALLARDY, 2008; BIZZO; HOVELL; REZENDE, 2009; HOMMA, 2012).

A resina ou goma resina é uma mistura heterogênea de ácidos resinosos ($C_{20}H_{30}O_2$), ácidos graxos, ésteres desses ácidos, esteróis, álcoois e gorduras. Tanto coníferas como latifoliadas sintetizam resinas, mas aquelas produzem maiores quantidades (0,8 a 25%). As resinas comerciais mais importantes são as óleo-resinas, obtidas a partir de espécies de *Pinus* sp. Essas consistem em 66% de ácidos resinosos, 25% de terebintina (terpenos), 7% de materiais não voláteis e 2% de água (PALLARDY, 2008). O Brasil se destaca na produção mundial de óleo-resina, principalmente a partir de plantios de *P. elliotti*. Atrás apenas da China, a produção nacional de resina na safra de 2015/2016 foi de aproximadamente 96 mil toneladas (ARESB, 2016).

1.1.1.2 Compostos fenólicos

Nas plantas, os compostos fenólicos são fundamentais para diversas atividades biológicas como a floração, a dispersão de sementes e a polinização, devido a suas cores atrativas, participando na sinalização, nas funções estruturais (componentes da parede celular vegetal) e nas etapas de desenvolvimento (alongação radicular e expansão foliar, por exemplo) (NACZK; SHAHIDI, 2004; PALLARDY, 2008). Esses compostos atuam também como estratégias de defesa das plantas, em condições de estresse abiótico, como a incidência de luz ultravioleta ou

excesso de luminosidade (MUCHUWETI et al., 2007), ou ainda como fitoalexinas e inibidores alimentares (NACZK; SHAHIDI, 2004).

Compostos fenólicos derivam da fenilalanina e da tirosina, através das vias biossintéticas do chiquimato e do acetato. Estruturalmente, contêm um anel aromático com um ou mais substituinte hidroxila e variam desde uma simples molécula fenólica até compostos com alto grau de polimerização, como os taninos (NACZK; SHAHIDI, 2004). Os últimos, juntamente com os flavonoides, são referidos como polifenóis, estão localizados no vacúolo da célula vegetal e apresentam solubilidade em água quando combinados com mono ou polissacarídeos (glicosídeos) (HARBORNE, 1984; BALASUNDRAM; SUNDRAM; SAMMAN, 2006).

A diversidade estrutural dos compostos fenólicos proporcionou até o momento a identificação de cerca de 8.000 polifenóis, que são classificados conforme a Tabela 1. Esses compostos são amplamente encontrados nos alimentos vegetais (frutas, cereais, hortaliças, legumes, chocolates, etc.), e nas bebidas (vinho, cerveja, chá, café, etc.), sendo os responsáveis pelas propriedades organolépticas dos alimentos (MUCHUWETI et al., 2007; DAI; MUMPER, 2010).

Tabela 1 – Classificação dos compostos fenólicos em plantas

Classe	Estrutura carbônica	Exemplos
Fenóis simples, benzoquinonas	C ₆	Catecol, fenol
Ácidos hidroxibenzóicos	C ₆ -C ₁	Ácido vanílico, ácido siríngico
Acetofenol, ácidos fenilacéticos	C ₆ -C ₂	2-hidroxiacetofenona
Ácidos hidroxicinâmicos, fenilpropanoides (cumarinas, isocumarinas, cromonas)	C ₆ -C ₃	Eugenol, ácido cafeico, ácido cumárico
Naftoquinonas	C ₆ -C ₄	β-lapachona
Xantonas	C ₆ -C ₁ -C ₆	Mangiferina
Estilbenos, antraquinonas	C ₆ -C ₂ -C ₆	Ácido lunulárico, tectoquinona
Chalconas, flavonoides, isoflavonoides	C ₆ -C ₃ -C ₆	Quercetina, cianidina, rotenona
Lignanas, neolignanas	(C ₆ -C ₃) ₂	Pinoresinol
Biflavonoides	(C ₆ -C ₃ -C ₆) ₂	Gingentina
Polímeros	(C ₆ -C ₃) _n	Ligninas
	(C ₆ -C ₃ -C ₆) _n	Taninos condensados

Fonte: Adaptado de Harborne (1984) e Balasundram, Sundran e Samman (2006).
n: representa o número de unidades fenilpropanoídicas formadoras da cadeia polimérica.

Os compostos fenólicos têm despertado interesse mundial devido as suas potentes propriedades antioxidantes, seus efeitos deletérios na prevenção de doenças associadas ao estresse oxidativo e por estarem presentes na dieta alimentar humana, em abundância (MANACH et al., 2004). Alguns polifenóis mostraram ser quase ou tão poderosos quanto os carotenoides e as Vitaminas C e E em relação ao poder antioxidante (HARBORNE; WILLIAMS, 2000; DAI; MUMPER, 2010).

A atividade antioxidante dos compostos fenólicos se deve principalmente, a sua estrutura química, duplas ligações, grupos funcionais presentes (principalmente grupos hidroxila) e pela posição que ocupam no anel aromático, bem como pelo tamanho da cadeia dos substituintes presentes no esqueleto básico (BORS; MICHEL, 2002; ANGELO; JORGE, 2007). Essas características desempenham um papel importante na neutralização ou sequestro de radicais livres e na quelatação de metais de transição, agindo tanto na etapa de iniciação como na propagação do processo oxidativo (SOUSA et al., 2007).

Os flavonoides, compostos amplamente encontrados na alimentação humana, compreendem diferentes subclasses, entre elas flavonas, flavanonas, chalconas, isoflavonas, flavonóis, flavanóis, antocianidinas, auronas, etc. (NACZK; SHAHIDI, 2004; COSTA et al., 2015). São, geralmente, substâncias hidroxiladas nas posições 3, 5, 7, 3', 4' e/ou 5'; grupos esses que podem ser metilados, acetilados, sulfatados ou prenilados (RIJKE et al., 2006). Nas plantas, os flavonoides estão presentes em diferentes etapas biológicas, agindo na defesa e sinalização durante a fase de reprodução, na proteção contra os danos deletérios da irradiação ultravioleta sofridos pelos vegetais e na produção de nódulos em raízes de leguminosas (YANG, 1998; RIJKE et al., 2006).

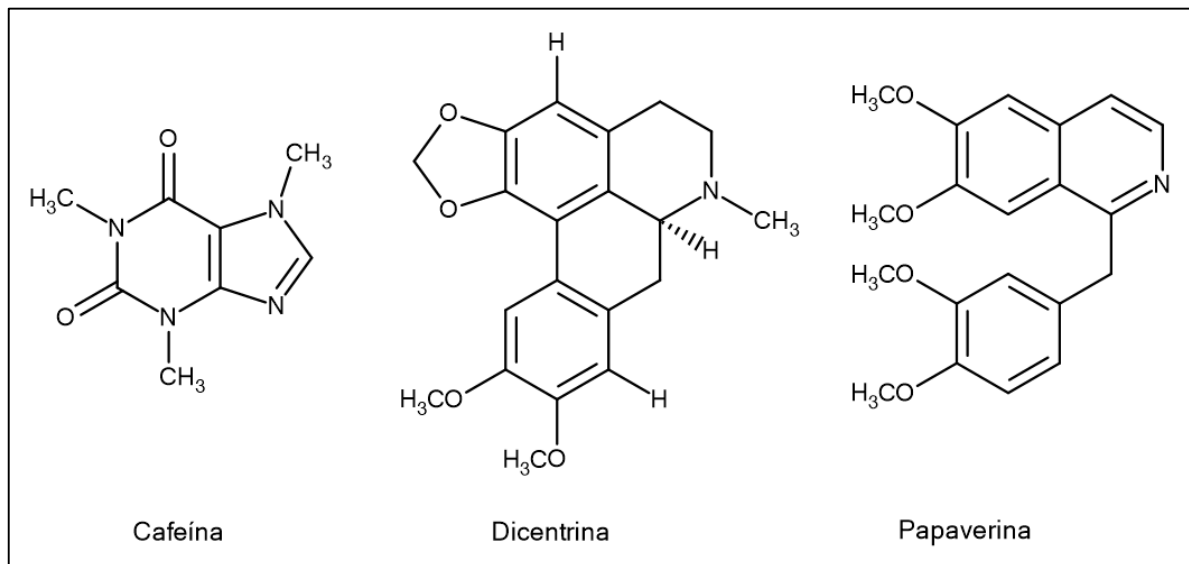
Os taninos possuem alto peso molecular (entre 600 a 3000 unidades de massa atômica) e são classificados em taninos condensados (chamados também de proantocianidinas) e taninos hidrolisáveis. Os primeiros são oligômeros e polímeros de flavan-3-ol (catequina) e/ou flavan-3,4-diol (leucocianidina). Já os taninos hidrolisáveis (galotaninos e os elagitaninos) são ésteres dos ácidos gálico e elágico glicolisados, formados a partir do chiquimato, onde os grupos hidroxilas do açúcar são esterificados com os ácidos fenólicos (MONTEIRO et al., 2005; ANGELO; JORGE, 2007).

1.1.1.3 Compostos que contêm nitrogênio

Mesmo que somente 2% da matéria seca das plantas consista de nitrogênio, há um grande número de diferentes substâncias orgânicas que contêm esse elemento. Os aminoácidos estão envolvidos na biossíntese de praticamente todos os compostos nitrogenados presentes nas plantas, como os alcaloides, glicosídeos cianogênicos, aminas, purinas, etc. (HARBORNE, 1984).

Os alcaloides, dos quais mais de 12.000 foram identificados pela ciência química, constituem a maior classe de compostos nitrogenados. Estruturalmente, esses metabólitos contêm um ou mais átomos de nitrogênio, geralmente localizados no anel heterocíclico (Figura 3) (ZIEGLER; FACCHINI, 2008). Nas plantas, os alcaloides estão relacionados com a regulação do crescimento, atração ou repelência de insetos (HARBORNE, 1984).

Figura 3 – Exemplos de alcaloides e suas estruturas químicas



Fonte: Adaptado de Ziegler e Facchini (2008) e Guterres et al. (2013).

As famílias botânicas quimicamente conhecidas pela presença de espécies produtoras de alcaloides e das atividades biológicas relacionadas a estes compostos são: Asteraceae, Ranunculaceae, Rubiaceae, Rutaceae, Solanaceae, Liliaceae, Leguminosae, Papaveraceae, Menispermaceae e Loganiaceae (HARBORNE, 1984; LU et al., 2012). Entre os alcaloides derivados de espécies arbóreas, a quinina encontrada no gênero *Cinchona* (Rubiaceae) é reconhecida por seu uso no tratamento da malária e como analgésico e antitérmico (PALLARDY, 2008).

1.1.2 Métodos de extração e purificação

O primeiro e fundamental passo para a análise química de extrativos vegetais é a extração, uma vez que é necessário separar os componentes desejados dos tecidos de sustentação para a sua posterior caracterização (SASIDHARAN et al., 2010). Os metabólitos secundários podem ser extraídos a partir de uma amostra vegetal fresca, congelada ou seca (secagem ao ar, em estufas ou liofilização) e normalmente antes do processo de extração as amostras, já secas, são moídas, trituradas e homogeneizadas (DAI; MUMPER, 2010). O rendimento e a qualidade do extrativo obtido são influenciados pelo preparo inicial da amostra, técnica de extração empregada, tempo e temperatura de extração, razão material vegetal: solvente, assim como pela natureza química e características físicas da amostra (NACZK; SHAHIDI, 2004; DAI; MUMPER, 2010). A Tabela 2 (página 19) compila exemplos de métodos de extração usados para a obtenção das principais classes de metabólitos secundários.

No caso dos óleos essenciais, a destilação por arraste de vapor d'água e a hidrodestilação são as técnicas mais antigas e ainda usadas atualmente, pois configuram o método mais simples, eficiente e de baixo custo (MANZAN et al., 2003; DONELIAN et al., 2009). A prensagem à frio é um método industrial utilizado para a extração de óleos essenciais presentes no pericarpo de frutos, principalmente das espécies do gênero *Citrus* (BIZZO; HOVELL; REZENDE, 2009). A enfloração (*enfleurage*, em francês) é a técnica empregada para a obtenção de óleos essenciais de flores delicadas, através de cera ou gordura animal (PENSUK; PADUMANONDA; PICHAENSOONTHON, 2011). O uso de fluido supercrítico (DONELIAN et al., 2009) e de sistemas hifenados (CHEMAT et al., 2006) vem ganhando atenção por resultarem em altos rendimentos de extração, menores perdas por degradação térmica e obtenção de óleos essenciais de melhor qualidade (DE CASTRO; JIMÉNEZ-CARMONA; FERNANDEZ-PEREZ, 1999).

Tabela 2 – Exemplos de diferentes técnicas de extração aplicadas para a obtenção de metabólitos secundários em plantas

(continua)

Metabólito secundário	Técnica de extração	Solvente	Condições de extração	Amostra	Referência
Óleo essencial	Hidrodestilação	Água	Tempo: 3 h	Folhas de <i>Nectandra megapotamica</i> (Spreng.) Mez	Amaral et al. (2015)
	Destilação a vapor		Tempo: 2 h	Folhas de <i>Pogostemon cablin</i> (Blanco) Benth	Donelian et al. (2009)
	Extração por fluido supercrítico	CO ₂	Tempo: 100 min; Pressão: 190 bar; Temp.: 50 °C	Raízes de <i>Vetiveria zizanioides</i> L.	Danh et al. (2009)
			Tempo: 340 min; Temp.: 40-50 °C; Pressão: 8,5 a 14 MPa; Fluxo CO ₂ : 6,0 x 10 ⁻³ kg/min	Folhas de <i>Pogostemon cablin</i> (Blanco) Benth	Donelian et al. (2009)
	Micro-ondas/destilação a vapor	Água	Tempo: 10 min; Potência: 500 W; Freq.: 2,45 GHz	Flores de <i>Lavandula angustifolia</i> Mill.	Chemat et al. (2006)
	Micro-ondas/hidro-destilação		Tempo: 40 min	Frutos de <i>Coriandrum sativum</i> L.	Sourmaghi et al. (2015)
	Enfloração (<i>Enfleurage</i>)	Gordura de búfalo	100 g/extração/noite; N° de extrações: 14; Ao final, extração com etanol	Flores de <i>Michelia alba</i> DC.	Pensuk, Padumanonda e Pichaensoonthon (2011)
Prensagem a frio		Processo industrial	Pericarpo de <i>Citrus</i> sp.	Bizzo, Hovell e Rezende (2009)	
Compostos fenólicos	Maceração	Água, etanol 80%; metanol 80%	Temp. ambiente; Tempo: 2 h	Casca de <i>Acacia molíssima</i> Willd.	Naima et al. (2015)
	Refluxo	Etanol 95%	Tempo: 4 h; Temp.: 70 °C; N° de extrações: 2	Frutos de <i>Rhodomyrtus tomentosa</i> (Ait.) Hassk	Wu et al. (2015)
	Soxhlet	Etanol 95%	Tempo: 8 h	Flores de <i>Melilotus officinalis</i> (L.) Lam.	Martino et al. (2006)
	Ultrassom	Etanol 70%	Tempo: 2 h	Folhas de <i>Buddleia officinalis</i> Maxim	Pan et al. (2010)
			Potência: 240 W; Tempo: 30 min; Temp.: 50 °C	Folhas de <i>Haberlea rhodopensis</i> Friv.	Mihaylova et al. (2015)

Tabela 2 – Exemplos de diferentes técnicas de extração aplicadas para a obtenção de metabólitos secundários em plantas

					(conclusão)
Compostos fenólicos	Ultrassom	Etanol 50%	Tempo: 60 min	Flores de <i>Melilotus officinalis</i> (L.) Lam.	Martino et al. (2006)
	Micro-ondas	Metanol	Potência: 360 W; Tempo: 60 min	Raízes de <i>Paramignya trimera</i> (Oliv.) Guillaum	Nguyen et al. (2015)
		Etanol 50%	Potência: 100 W; Temp.: 50 °C; 2 ciclos de 5 min	Flores de <i>Melilotus officinalis</i> (L.) Lam.	Martino et al. (2006)
	Extração por líquido pressurizado	Metanol	Pressão: 10 Mpa; Temp.: 90 °C; Tempo: 10 min	Partes aéreas de <i>Lavandula spica</i> L. e <i>Valeriana officinalis</i> L.	Dobiáš et al. (2010)
		Etanol 50%	Pressão: 6,8 MPa; Temp.: 100 °C	Frutos de <i>Vitis labrusca</i> L.	Monrad et al. (2010)
	Extração por fluido supercrítico	CO ₂	Temp.: 45 °C; Pressão: 355 bar; Tempo: 15 min; Co-solvente: metanol 15% Temp.: 50 °C; Pressão: 30 Mpa; Co-solventes: acetato de etila e metanol 10%	Frutos de <i>Pistacia vera</i> L. Sementes de <i>Psidium guajava</i> L	Goli, Barzegar e Sahari (2005) Castro-Vargas et al. (2010)
Alcaloides	Maceração		Temp.: 18 °C	Folhas de <i>Ocotea macrophylla</i> (Kunth)	Barrera e Suárez (2009)
	Ultrassom	Etanol	Freq.: 45 kHz; Potência: 250 W; Extração otimizada: Tempo: 47 min; Temp.: 66 °C; Etanol 59%	Raízes de <i>Coptis chinensis</i> Franch	Teng e Choi (2014)

Fonte: Tabela compilada pela autora.

Temp.: temperatura; min.: minutos; Freq.: frequência.

Diversos métodos e condições de extração podem ser aplicados para a obtenção dos compostos fenólicos a partir de matrizes vegetais. No entanto, a escolha do método mais adequado, está relacionada, dentre outros aspectos, com a solubilidade dos compostos fenólicos. Essa solubilidade é governada pelas propriedades do solvente usado (polaridade, viscosidade e pressão de vapor), grau de polimerização dos compostos de interesse, interação dos fenóis com outros constituintes e a formação de complexos insolúveis (NACZK; SHAHIDI, 2004; DAI; MUMPER, 2010; REZAIE et al., 2015). Desse modo, não existe um procedimento uniforme ou completamente satisfatório para a extração de todos os compostos fenólicos ou de uma classe específica de substâncias a partir de materiais de origem vegetal (NACZK; SHAHIDI, 2004).

Técnicas convencionais como a maceração, refluxo à quente ou a extração com o uso de Soxhlet são ainda utilizadas para a obtenção de compostos fenólicos e alcaloides, entretanto apresentam algumas desvantagens como a degradação dos compostos de interesse, longos tempos de extração e altos custos econômicos (JACOTET-NAVARRO et al., 2015).

A extração assistida por ultrassom ou micro-ondas, a extração com fluido supercrítico e fluido pressurizado, como apresentado na Tabela 2, ou ainda aquela realizada partir de sistemas hifenados (WEI et al., 2013) estão ganhando popularidade devido ao aumento da especificidade frente à molécula-alvo, redução do tempo de extração e dos resíduos de solventes gerados (ZHANG; YANG; WANG, 2011; WIJNGAARD et al., 2012; REZAIE et al., 2015).

Após o processo de extração, é necessário realizar a purificação dos óleos essenciais ou dos extratos obtidos para isolar substâncias ou para remover compostos indesejáveis que foram co-extraídos, tais como lipídeos, carboidratos, gorduras, resinas, terpenos e clorofila (NACZK; SHAHIDI, 2004; COSTA et al., 2015). Os óleos essenciais podem ser fracionados através de colunas cromatográficas, utilizando gel de sílica (adsorvente) e um sistema eluente composto, na maioria dos casos, por dois solventes orgânicos em distintas proporções, como hexano: acetona (95:5), hexano: acetato de etila (98:2), etc. (BENOVIT et al., 2015). No caso dos compostos fenólicos, diferentes abordagens de purificação são usadas, como a extração líquido-líquido (EGUA et al., 2014), cromatografia por coluna em gel de sílica e/ou em gel de dextrana² (Sephadex) (RIBEIRO et al., 2005) e distintos sistemas de eluição, dependendo da classe de compostos que se deseja obter (NACZK; SHAHIDI, 2004).

Nas extrações líquido-líquido, passos sequenciais são realizados, incluindo, inicialmente, o uso de solventes não polares (para remover lipídeos, carotenoides e clorofilas),

² Polissacarídeo de elevado peso molecular formado por unidades de α -D-glicose, ligadas predominantemente por ligações α -1,6-glicopiranosil na cadeia principal (GIL et al., 2008).

solventes polares (para remover açúcares, ácidos orgânicos e fenóis com baixo peso molecular) e, ainda, solvente aquoso (para remover polifenóis polimerizados). No entanto, esse procedimento demanda tempo e muitas vezes tem baixos rendimentos (COSTA et al., 2015). Após o fracionamento e a purificação dos óleos essenciais e extrativos, os solventes são removidos a vácuo em rota-evaporador e encaminhados para as análises químicas de identificação e quantificação.

1.1.3 Métodos quantificação e identificação

Vários métodos de quantificação e identificação de extrativos têm sido desenvolvidos. Contudo, não existe uma estratégia ou uma metodologia padronizada que possa determinar, simultaneamente, todos os compostos de uma matriz vegetal, em especial de plantas aromáticas (COSTA et al., 2015).

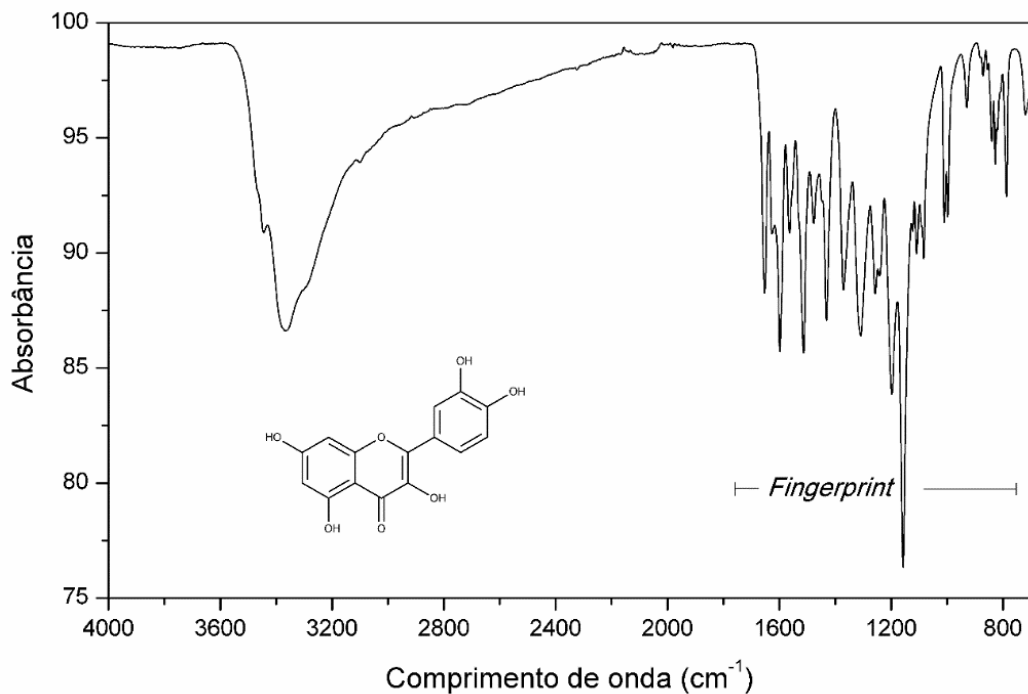
A cromatografia gasosa (CG) e cromatografia líquida (CL) são usadas amplamente para a separação de produtos naturais. A identificação e a elucidação estrutural é alcançada usando a combinação dessas duas técnicas com a espectrometria de massas, por exemplo (NACZK; SHAHIDI, 2004). Técnicas não-cromatográficas, como a espectroscopia de infravermelho com transformada de Fourier (FTIR) e a espectrofotometria de absorção no ultravioleta e visível (UV/Vis) também podem ser utilizadas para identificação de compostos bioativos (SASIDHARAN et al., 2010).

Muitos ensaios espectrofotométricos têm sido usados para quantificar diferentes classes de compostos fenólicos como antocianinas, flavonoides ou taninos, por serem técnicas simples e rápidas (DAI; MUMPER, 2010). O método de Folin-Ciocalteu, uma modificação do método Folin-Denis (SWAIN; HILLIS, 1959), é amplamente utilizado para determinação de fenóis totais de diferentes extratos de plantas. O ácido gálico é usado como padrão, porém é um teste não-específico que detecta todos os grupos fenólicos. O método de vanilina é utilizado para detectar proantocianidinas (taninos condensados) e o $AlCl_3$ é usado para quantificar flavonoides totais e ácido cinâmico (SWAIN; HILLIS, 1959; NACZK; SHAHIDI, 2004; METROUH-AMIR; DUARTE; MAIZA, 2015). Não obstante, os métodos espectrofotométricos apresentam desvantagens a exemplo da obtenção de resultados subestimados ou superestimados, além de originar resultados, muitas vezes, não-comparáveis (DAI; MUMPER, 2010).

A espectroscopia de FTIR pode ser uma valiosa ferramenta para a caracterização e detecção de grupos funcionais (bandas químicas) presentes em extrativos de plantas ainda

desconhecidos (SASIDHARAN et al., 2010; GRASEL; FERRÃO; WOLF, 2016). Esta técnica consiste em determinar a absorção dos compostos na região do infravermelho médio do espectro eletromagnético (normalmente entre 400-4000 cm^{-1}). Além disso, os espectros de FTIR apresentam características e padrões únicos na região chamada de *fingerprint* ou região das impressões digitais (800-1800 cm^{-1}) o que permite diferenciar e identificar moléculas, como pode-se observar no espectro da quercetina³ representado na Figura 4 (SASIDHARAN et al., 2010; HERRERA et al., 2015).

Figura 4 – Espectro FTIR da quercetina

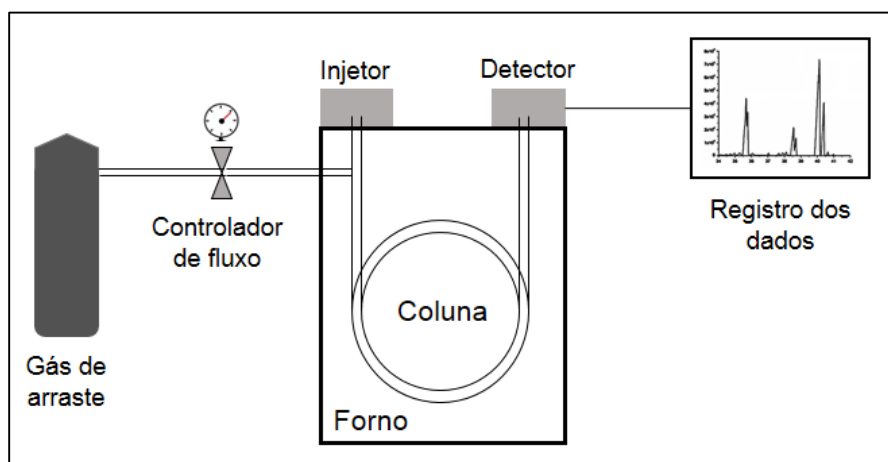


Fonte: Autora.

Os constituintes voláteis são analisados através da CG e quando combinada com a espectroscopia de massas (EM) oferece grande sensibilidade e seletividade para as moléculas, obtendo-se informações referentes às estruturas e à massa molecular das substâncias. Nesse sistema hifenado, as amostras são injetadas no cromatógrafo à gás e arrastadas por um gás (fase móvel) através de uma fase estacionária, a coluna cromatográfica até o detector (Figura 5).

³ Flavonoide comercial extraído de plantas como a faveira, conhecido por apresentar elevado poder antioxidante, sendo usado como controle positivo em estudos científicos (HOMMA, 2012).

Figura 5 – Esquema da análise por cromatografia gasosa

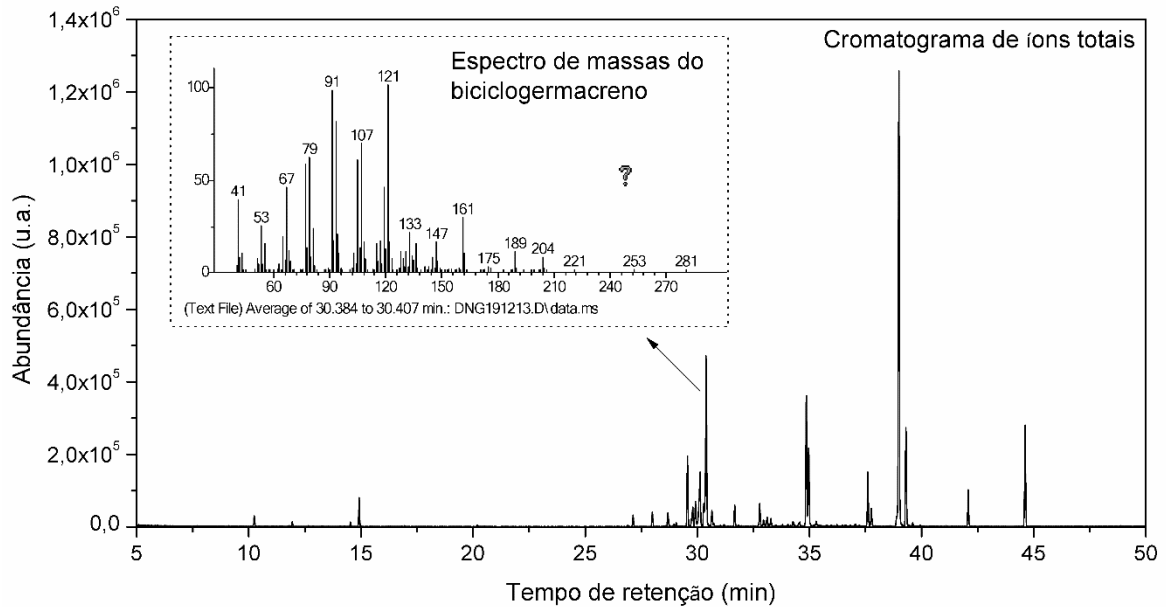


Fonte: Autora.

A fase estacionária propicia a distribuição dos componentes da mistura entre as duas fases através de processos físicos e químicos, como a adsorção, diferenças de solubilidade, volatilidade ou partição (CHIARADIA; COLLINS; JARDIM, 2008). Na fase móvel, o gás utilizado é chamado de gás de arraste, pois não interage com a amostra, apenas a transporta através da coluna cromatográfica até o detector, onde os componentes separados são detectados. O gás de arraste mais utilizado é o Hélio, seguido do Hidrogênio, e as colunas cromatográficas capilares de sílica são as mais indicadas para a análise dos óleos essenciais (CHIARADIA; COLLINS; JARDIM, 2008; STEŠEVIĆ et al., 2016). Além do espectrômetro de massas, outros detectores podem ser acoplados à CG, como o detector por ionização em chama (DIC) e o detector por captura de elétrons (DCE). Ao final da análise por CG-EM, obtém-se o chamado cromatograma de íons totais e o espectro de massas das substâncias presentes no óleo essencial (Figura 6, página 25).

Separações dos compostos fenólicos podem ser alcançadas usando cromatografia líquida (CL), uma vez que os compostos possuem diferentes taxas de migrações determinados pela escolha correta das fases estacionária e móvel (constituída por um solvente orgânico e um solvente aquoso) (DAI; MUMPER, 2010). Normalmente, colunas C₁₈ com fases móveis acidificadas com ácido fórmico ou ácido acético são empregadas na CL e a detecção dos compostos é realizada através de detectores de UV-Vis devido aos anéis aromáticos e ligações duplas dos compostos fenólicos que permitem a absorção na região do UV ou do UV/Vis (COSTA et al., 2015).

Figura 6 – Cromatograma de íons totais do óleo essencial de folhas de *Nectandra grandiflora* Nees e espectro de massas do biciclogermacreno obtidos através da cromatografia gasosa acoplada à espectroscopia de massas



Fonte: Autora.

Separações dos compostos fenólicos podem ser alcançadas usando cromatografia líquida (CL), uma vez que os compostos possuem diferentes taxas de migrações determinados pela escolha correta das fases estacionária e móvel (constituída por um solvente orgânico e um solvente aquoso) (DAI; MUMPER, 2010). Normalmente, colunas C_{18} com fases móveis acidificadas com ácido fórmico ou ácido acético são empregadas na CL e a detecção dos compostos é realizada através de detectores de UV-Vis devido aos anéis aromáticos e ligações duplas dos compostos fenólicos que permitem a absorção na região do UV ou do UV/Vis (COSTA et al., 2015).

Outros detectores mais sofisticados, a exemplo o arranjo de fotodiodo (DAD) que permite a obtenção do espectro de ultravioleta de cada substância eluída da coluna são, também, utilizados, assim como as técnicas hífenadas DAD e UV-fluorescência e DAD acopladas a detectores de massas. A CL acoplada a EM (CL-EM) é uma técnica eficaz para analisar e identificar extrativos complexos de diferentes órgãos vegetais e devido a sua universalização, a EM é, atualmente, utilizada para a quantificação de moléculas (NACZK; SHAHIDI, 2004; GOUVEIA-FIGUEIRA; CASTILHO, 2015; COSTA et al., 2015).

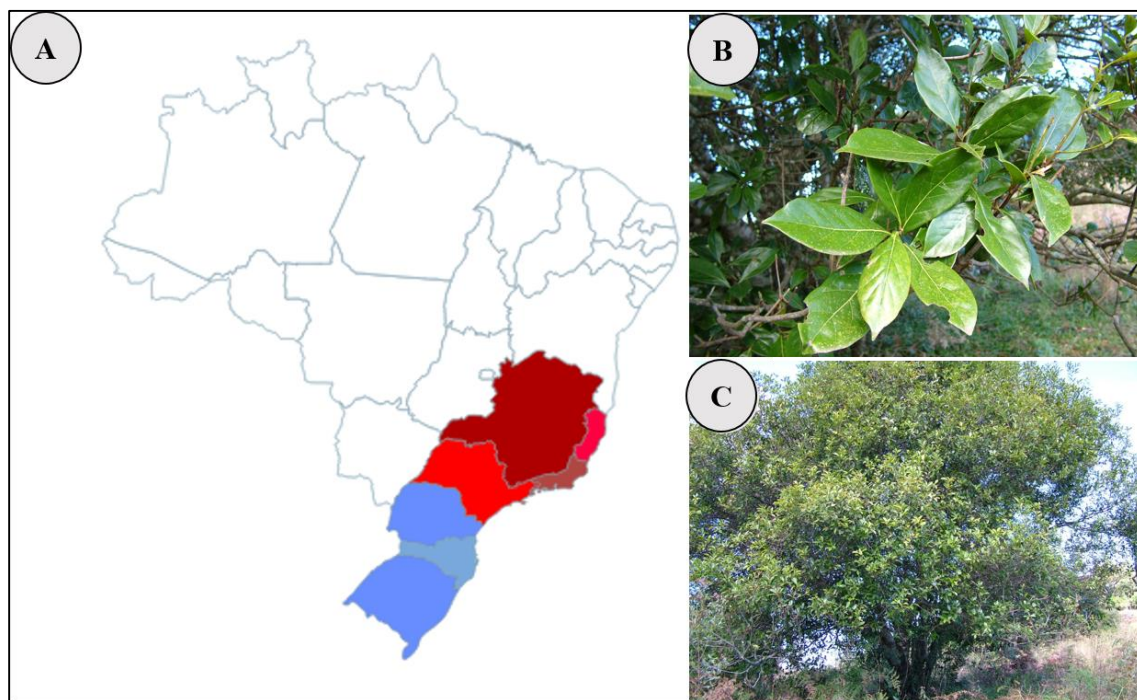
A espectroscopia de Ressonância Magnética Nuclear (RMN) é um método mais sofisticado e complexo que permite a identificação inequívoca de substâncias isoladas ou de

componentes específicos presentes em um extrato (RIBEIRO et al., 2005; COSTA et al., 2015). É um método indispensável quando o metabólito vegetal secundário isolado apresenta estrutura inédita.

1.1.4 *Nectandra grandiflora* Nees

Conhecida popularmente como “canela-amarela”, “canela-fedida” e “canela-cheirosa”, *Nectandra grandiflora* Nees é uma espécie arbórea perenifólia de pequeno porte e com significativa regeneração na floresta (PIZATTO, 1999; LORENZI, 2002). Considerada como endêmica do Brasil, *N. grandiflora* é encontrada ao longo da extensão territorial que compreende os estados de Minas Gerais e Rio Grande do Sul (RS) (Figura 7), onde participa da composição florística das Florestas do Alto Uruguai, Serra do Sudeste, Depressão Central e Campos de Cima da Serra (SOBRAL et al., 2006). É frequente em formações semiabertas como matas ciliares, capoeiras e matas de pinhais, podendo também ocorrer em altitudes de até 1300 m, preferindo sítios bem drenados e a encosta superior de morros (MARCHIORI, 1997; LORENZI, 2002).

Figura 7 – Ocorrência da espécie *Nectandra grandiflora* no Brasil (A), detalhe das folhas (B) e habitat natural de um indivíduo amostrado no município de Jaguari (RS, Brasil)



Fonte: A: Flora do Brasil 2020 (2016); B e C: Longhi, S. J.

As folhas, flores, casca e a madeira possuem odor característico, fortemente adocicado (ZANON; GOLDENBERG; MORAES, 2009). A madeira apresenta boa durabilidade e pode ser empregada na construção civil e os frutos são fonte de alimento para a avifauna. A fenologia da espécie varia conforme sua localização, tendo a floração reportada entre os meses de maio a dezembro e a frutificação, de outubro a fevereiro (ZANON; GOLDENBERG; MORAES, 2009).

Zanon, Goldenberg e Moraes (2009, p. 26) descrevem a morfologia de *N. grandiflora* a partir de coletas realizadas no Paraná da seguinte maneira:

Árvore 1,5-12 m. Folhas alternas nos ramos e ápice dos râmulos, lâmina 7,7-11×3,0-4,5 cm, obovada ou raramente elíptica, ápice curto-cuspidado a cuspidado, base atenuada a aguda, coriácea, face adaxial glabra, nervura primária sulcada ou impressa, secundárias impressas, face abaxial glabra, nervura primária e secundárias salientes, sem tufo de pelos axilares. Inflorescências na axila de catafilos ou logo abaixo, acima da inserção do primeiro nó foliar, raramente na axila de folhas normais, pedúnculo 1,3-5,5 cm. Flores 6-8 mm de diâmetro, receptáculo internamente e externamente glabro; tépalas externas glabras na face abaxial, papiloso-tomentosas na face adaxial, as internas com triângulo basal glabro na face abaxial, papiloso-tomentosas na face adaxial; anteras das séries I e II quadradas, transverso-retangulares ou largamente triangulares com ápice agudo, totalmente papiloso-puberulentas, filetes ausentes, na série III retangulares com ápice truncado, totalmente papiloso-puberulentas, filetes com 0-20% do comprimento das anteras, glândulas globosas, estaminódios clavados; ovário globoso, estilete com 10-20% do comprimento do ovário. Fruto elipsoide, 15-18×10-11 mm, com cúpula basal.

Na revisão sobre o gênero *Nectandra* realizada por Grecco et al. (2016), 199 diferentes substâncias foram identificadas a partir de 32 espécies, sendo os alcaloides e lignoides, seguidos pelos terpenoides, as classes de extrativos mais abundantes. Estudos fitoquímicos da espécie *N. grandiflora* reportaram a presença de substâncias pertencentes a diferentes classes de metabólitos secundários, entre elas alcaloides, flavonoides, neolignanais e óleos essenciais (GRECCO et al., 2016).

Os alcaloides (+)-laurolistsina, laurotetanina, (+)-boldina e (+)-isoboldina, além do sesquiterpeno ácido cóstico no extrato etanólico da casca do tronco de *N. grandiflora* foram isolados por Moreno et al. (1993). Já o fracionamento bioguiado do extrato etanólico foliar da espécie resultou no isolamento de três neolignanais, entre elas a burchelina, do ácido protocatéquico e de dois flavonoides glicosilados, 3-*O*- β -ramnosil-campferol e 3-*O*- β -ramnosil-quercetina (RIBEIRO; SILVA; BOLZANI, 2002; RIBEIRO et al., 2005). Através do método de hidrodestilação, óleos essenciais foram extraídos de folhas de *N. grandiflora* e apresentaram 0,75% de rendimento no período que corresponde à primavera (SILVA et al., 2015). Entretanto, a composição química não sofreu influência da sazonalidade, sendo

identificados 50 diferentes constituintes, predominantemente sesquiterpenoides, dentre eles deidrofuquinona, biciclogermacreno, valenceno entre outros não identificados (SILVA, 2013). A presença majoritária de sesquiterpenos no óleo essencial de *N. grandiflora*, dentre eles γ -muroлено, β -selineno, γ -amorfeno, eremoligenol, gimnomitrol, eremofilona e esclareno foi verificada por Cunico et al. (2010).

Na medicina popular, *N. grandiflora* é utilizada como antirreumática, diurética e digestiva (CORRÊA, 1984). Um ensaio antitumoral foi realizado com o extrato etanólico de cascas de *N. grandiflora*, no qual verificou-se inibição de 59,2% do crescimento de células do sarcoma 180 e de 61,5% do carcinoma de Ehrlich (MORENO et al., 1993). Já o extrato etanólico obtido das folhas apresentou propriedade antioxidante no método do β -caroteno (RIBEIRO; SILVA; BOLZANI, 2002) e no método de redução do radical DPPH (RIBEIRO et al., 2005), assim como potencial antimicrobiano frente às bactérias *Staphylococcus aureus* (CUNICO et al., 2010), *Plesiomonas shigelloides*, *Acinetobacter calcoaceticus* e *Aeromonas hydrophila* (GARLET et al., 2015).

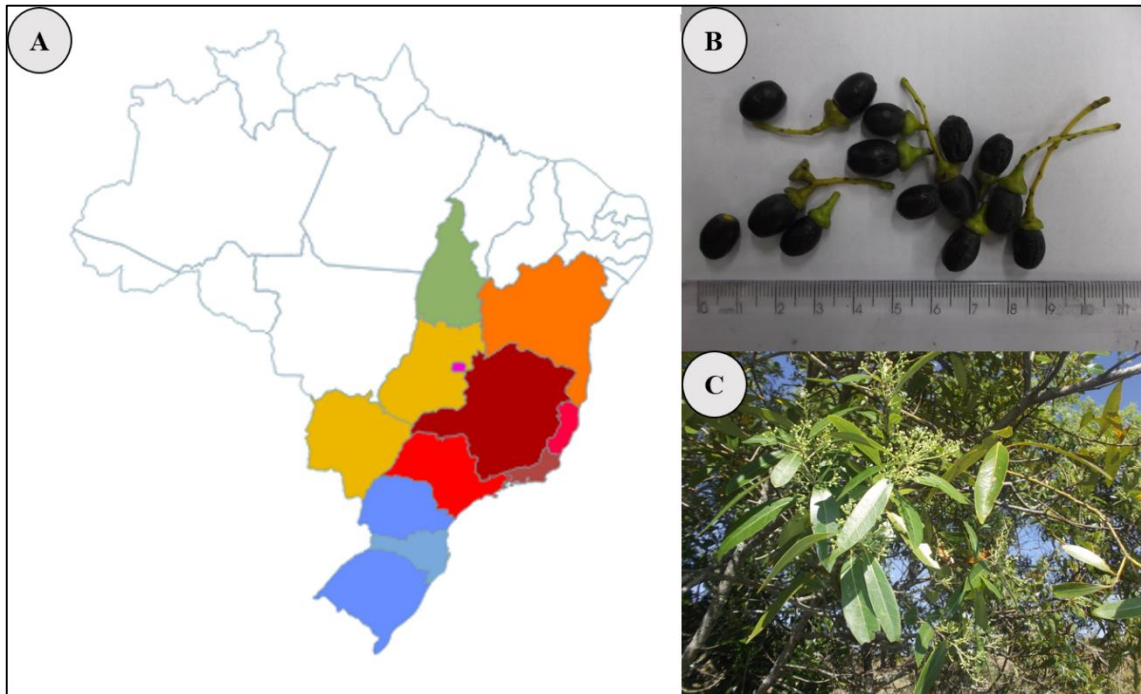
1.1.5 *Ocotea lancifolia* (Shott) Mez

Ocotea lancifolia (Shott) Mez (sinonímia *Ocotea pulchra* Vattimo-Gil), é uma espécie arbórea nativa do Paraguai e do Brasil, ocorrendo ao longo dos estados de Tocantins, Bahia, Minas Gerais até o Rio Grande do Sul (Figura 8, página 29). Encontrada nos domínios fitogeográficos Cerrado e Mata Atlântica, a espécie é frequente em matas ciliares, áreas alagadas e campos rupestres. Conhecida popularmente como “canela”, “canela-pilosa” e “canela-sabão” no Brasil, e como “laurel né” no Paraguai, *O. lancifolia* é considerada como secundária tardia e zoocórica, com floração entre os meses de março a junho e frutificação entre maio a novembro (BAITELLO, 2001; MORAES, 2005; SOBRAL et al., 2006; CAMARGO et al., 2013; BROTTTO; CERVI; SANTOS, 2013).

Segundo Brotto et al. (2010), *O. lancifolia* se assemelha, vegetativamente, às espécies *O. paranaensis* Brotto, Baitello, Cervi & E.P.Santos, *O. pulchella* (Nees) Mez e *O. bicolor* Vattimo-Gil, porém diferencia-se delas pelas seguintes características morfológicas:

Ápice da folha agudo, 6-10 pares de nervuras secundárias, ausência de domácias nas folhas, indumento da flor em forma de pubérulo ou em algumas vezes ausente, fruto elipsoide e margem da cúpula do fruto dupla (BROTTTO et al., 2010, p. 60).

Figura 8 – Ocorrência da espécie *Ocotea lancifolia* no Brasil (A), detalhe dos frutos (B) e ramos com folhas e inflorescências (C) coletados no distrito de Santo Antônio (Santa Maria, RS, Brasil)



Fonte: A: Flora do Brasil 2020 (2016); B e C: Arquivo pessoal.

Brotto, Cervi e Santos (2013, p. 64) descrevem a *O. lancifolia* da seguinte maneira:

Árvores, 7 m altura; ramos cilíndricos, glabros. Folhas alternas; pecíolo 0,3–1 cm de comprimento, 0,1–0,2 cm de espessura; subcanaliculado, glabro; lâmina 4,5–13 x 1–3 cm, estreito-elíptica ou lanceolada, ápice agudo, base cuneada, revoluta, ambas as faces glabras, reticulação densa, conspícua, nervura principal subsaliente, secundárias planas, 6–10 pares, ângulo de divergência 25°–50°, nervação broquidódroma, domácias ausentes.

E os órgãos reprodutivos de *O. lancifolia* são assim caracterizados:

Inflorescências axilares e subterminais; tirsoide 3–12 cm de comprimento, multiflora, aureo-pubérula. Flores unissexuadas, pubérulas ou glabrescentes; estaminadas com pedicelo 1,5–4 mm de comprimento; hipanto inconspícuo, internamente glabrescente; tépalas 2,5–3 mm de comprimento, ovalado-elípticas, reflexas, glabrescentes em ambas as faces, papilas inconspícuas no ápice; estames das séries I e II 1,8–2,8 mm de comprimento, filetes tão longos quanto as anteras, glabrescentes, anteras ovalado-retangulares, ápice obtuso, glabras, locelos superiores introrsos e inferiores lateral-introrsos; estames da série III 2–2,8 mm de comprimento, filetes tão longos quanto as anteras, glabros, anteras retangulares, ápice obtuso, locelos superiores lateral-introrsos e inferiores lateral-extrorsos; estaminódios ausentes; pistiloide cerca de 2,5–3,3 mm de comprimento, estipiforme, glabrescente; pistiladas com estaminódios 0,7–0,9 mm de comprimento; pistilo cerca de 2,5 mm de comprimento, glabrescente, ovário globoso, estilete curto, estigma subcapitado. Cúpulas cerca de 0,7 × 0,7 cm, obcônicas, margem dupla. Frutos cerca de 1,3 × 0,9 cm, elipsoides (BROTTO; CERVI; SANTOS, 2013, p. 64).

O gênero *Ocotea* compõe o maior número de espécies com usos medicinais, relacionados, majoritariamente, com a presença de óleos essenciais, alcaloides e neolignanas (MARQUES, 2001; ZANIN; LORDELLO, 2007). O primeiro estudo fitoquímico sobre *O. lancifolia* foi realizado no Paraguai por Fournet et al. (2007). Neste trabalho, foi descrito o isolamento de treze alcaloides da classe das isoquinolonas, dentre eles coclaurina, (-)-caverina, (+)-laurotetanina, (+)-domesticina e (+)-isoboldina. Camargo (2011) caracterizou 17 substâncias na composição química foliar de espécimes coletados no Mato Grosso do Sul, compreendendo oito sesquiterpenos, duas protoantocianidinas e um flavonoide, dois diterpenos e dois esteroides. Dentre os sesquiterpenos, sete apresentaram esqueleto eremofilano, sendo seis inéditos na literatura (CAMARGO et al., 2013). Folhas de *O. lancifolia* coletadas em São Francisco de Assis (RS) apresentaram 0,80 % de óleo essencial e através da análise química foram detectados óxido de cariofileno, epóxido de calareno e τ -elemeno como constituintes majoritários (SILVA et al., 2013).

Na medicina popular, a espécie *O. lancifolia* é usada como antiparasitária e antirreumática (FOURNET et al., 2007). A literatura científica sobre os aspectos biológicos de *O. lancifolia* é escassa, sendo reportada atividade antiprotozoária do alcaloide (-)-caverina contra a forma promastigota de *Trypanosoma cruzi* e *Leishmania amazonensis* e hepatotoxicidade do alcaloide (+)-domesticina (FOURNET et al., 2007). Atividade antioxidante do extrato bruto e das frações hexânicas e hidrometanólicas de folhas de um espécime de *O. lancifolia* foi detectado por Camargo (2011), com valores de IC₅₀ entre 1,65 e 5,92 $\mu\text{g/mL}$, através do teste do radical DPPH. Camargo (2011) também verificou a inatividade dos extratos para a toxicidade em *Artemia salina*, assim como inatividade genotóxica. Silva et al. (2013) relataram propriedades sedativa e anestésica do óleo essencial de folhas de *O. lancifolia* utilizando modelo animal (jundiás).

1.2 PROPOSIÇÃO

A presente tese apresenta a caracterização de substâncias obtidas do metabolismo secundário das espécies florestais *Nectandra grandiflora* Nees e *Ocotea lancifolia* (Schott) Mez. Desse modo, objetiva-se aprofundar o conhecimento fitoquímico, ecológico e biológico de espécies da flora brasileira para o aumento do portfólio de moléculas ativas e para a geração de subsídios no desenvolvimento de bioprodutos.

Nesse sentido, esta tese tem como objetivos específicos:

- I) Investigar a atividade antifúngica sobre as espécies *Pycnoporus sanguineus* e *Gloeophyllum trabeum* e o potencial sedativo-anestésico do óleo essencial de folhas de *N. grandiflora*;
- II) Fracionar o óleo essencial de folhas de *N. grandiflora* visando isolar e identificar seu principal constituinte e avaliá-lo quanto à atividade antifúngica sobre *P. sanguineus* e *G. trabeum* e efeito depressor central em jundiás;
- III) Analisar as variações sobre o rendimento, composição química e propriedade antifúngica contra *Fusarium moniliforme* do óleo essencial de folhas, inflorescências e frutos de *O. lancifolia* em uma população de ocorrência natural durante um ano;
- IV) Extrair, fracionar e caracterizar os compostos fenólicos presentes nos extratos foliares de *O. lancifolia* e estudar sua aplicabilidade como antioxidantes e preservantes de madeira frente a *Trametes versicolor* e *G. trabeum*;
- V) Avaliar a influência de diferentes métodos de extração sobre o rendimento, composição química e atividade antioxidante de extratos foliares de *N. grandiflora*.

1.3 MATERIAIS E MÉTODOS

1.3.1 Material vegetal e caracterização das áreas de coleta

1.3.1.1 *Ocotea lancifolia*

Partes aéreas de *Ocotea lancifolia* (Schott) Mez foram coletadas em um fragmento florestal ripário, entre 2013 e 2014, localizado no distrito de Santo Antão, no município de Santa Maria (RS, Brasil) sob as coordenadas geográficas 29°37' Sul e 53°52' Oeste (Figura 9). O material vegetal foi identificado pelo Pesquisador João Batista Baitello e uma exsicata está arquivada sob o número 6.399 no Herbário do Departamento de Ciências Florestais da Universidade Federal de Santa Maria (HDCF/UFSM).

Figura 9 – Área de coleta da espécie *Ocotea lancifolia* localizada no distrito de Santo Antão (Santa Maria, RS, Brasil)



Fonte: Base de dados Google.

A área de coleta está localizada a, aproximadamente, 180 m de altitude, e seu entorno é utilizado para o pastoreio. O clima da região é do tipo *Cfa*, segundo a classificação climática de Köppen, caracterizado como subtropical húmido, com verões quentes, invernos

amenos e precipitação distribuída uniformemente durante o ano, alcançando 1691 mm (EMBRAPA, 2011). Em termos de vegetação, pertence à Floresta Estacional Decidual e está localizado sob a formação geológica do Rebordo do Planalto da Bacia do Paraná com o predomínio de Neossolos e Cambissolos (NASCIMENTO; SOUZA, 2010).

1.3.1.2 *Nectandra grandiflora*

Para os estudos com a espécie *Nectandra grandiflora* Nees, coletas de folhas foram realizadas em área rural destinada ao pastoreio, entre 2011 e 2013, localizada no distrito de Fontana Freda, do município de Jaguari (RS, Brasil), sob as coordenadas geográficas 29°26' Sul e 54°40' Oeste, (Figura 10). A espécie foi identificada pelo Professor Solon Jonas Longhi, e uma exsicata encontra-se depositada no Herbário do Departamento de Biologia sob o registro 13.162 (SMDB/UFSM).

Figura 10 – Área de coleta da espécie *Nectandra grandiflora* localizada no distrito de Fontana Freda (Jaguari, RS, Brasil)



Fonte: Base de dados Google.

O clima da região de coleta é do tipo *Cfa* (Köppen), com chuvas bem distribuídas em todos os meses do ano, com temperatura do mês mais quente superior à 22 °C e a do mês mais frio entre -3 °C e 18 °C (MORENO, 1961; EMBRAPA, 2011). O domínio fitogeográfico da área experimental pertence à Floresta Estacional Decidual e o relevo é caracterizado como levemente ondulado, predominando o solo Argissolo Vermelho (STRECK et al., 2008).

1.3.2 Obtenção dos óleos essenciais

Para a obtenção dos óleos essenciais, o material vegetal fresco e previamente dividido em fragmentos menores que 1 cm (200-500 g), foi submetido à hidrodestilação durante 3 h, utilizando-se o aparelho Clevenger modificado (EUROPEAN PHARMACOPOEIA, 2010) acoplado a um balão de fundo redondo, com capacidade para 5 L. Após o período de extração, os óleos essenciais foram coletados em provetas graduadas, para a determinação do volume, e na sequência foram pesados em balança analítica para o cálculo do rendimento (% m/m) e densidade (g/mL). Posteriormente, os óleos essenciais foram armazenados em frascos de vidro âmbar, vedados e conservados à -4 °C.

1.3.3 Fracionamento do óleo essencial de *N. grandiflora*

O fracionamento do óleo essencial e o isolamento do seu constituinte majoritário ocorreu através de três colunas cromatográficas (CC). Na primeira CC, 11 g de óleo essencial bruto foram adicionados a 630 g de sílica gel 60 (30,5 cm x 7,2 cm ϕ) e eluída com hexano-acetona (95:5 v/v). Frações de 45 mL foram reunidas em nove principais frações de acordo com o seu perfil cromatográfico e concentradas em rota-evaporador sob pressão reduzida a 40 °C. O perfil cromatográfico das frações foi analisado em cromatoplasmas de sílica gel 60 F₂₅₄, reveladas através de vanilina sulfúrica e UV 365 nm. As frações resultantes 4 e 5 foram agrupadas (2,8 g) e submetidas a outra CC (43,2 cm x 4,1 cm ϕ , 260 g de sílica gel 60, hexano-éter etílico 95:5 com fluxo de 1,25 mL/min). Dessa CC, as frações 6 e 7 (1,4 g) foram adicionadas a uma terceira CC (66 cm x 2,4 cm ϕ , 90 g de sílica gel 60 impregnada com 10% de AgNO₃, hexano-acetona 95:5 com fluxo de 1,0 mL/min). Entre as quatro frações obtidas, a fração 1 (1 g) correspondeu ao constituinte isolado deidrofuquinona, identificado de acordo com os dados de Ressonância Magnética Nuclear (RMN), espectro de massas registrado nas

espectrotecas e em comparação com outros estudos científicos (SCHENATO et al., 2001; ALKHATHLAN et al., 2005; BOLZAN, 2007).

1.3.4 Obtenção dos extratos etanólicos de *N. grandiflora*

Para obtenção dos extratos etanólicos de *N. grandiflora*, folhas foram secas à temperatura ambiente (25 °C), moídas com uso de moinho Willey, e extraídas com etanol 95% (razão material: solvente; 1:20) usando três diferentes métodos: extração convencional, extração assistida por ultrassom e extração assistida por micro-ondas, segundo metodologia adaptada de Nguyen et al. (2015).

A extração convencional foi realizada com aparelho Soxhlet (15 g de folhas/repetição) até a exaustão completa do material vegetal (24 h), a extração assistida por ultrassom foi executada usando um banho de ultrassom (Elmasonic S 70H) com refluxo a uma potência de 750 W e à 50 °C, e a extração assistida por micro-ondas foi realizada através de um micro-ondas de escala laboratorial (CEM Discover Microwave) à 50 °C e a potência controlada pelo sistema. As duas últimas técnicas foram executadas durante 30 min (5 g de folhas/repetição).

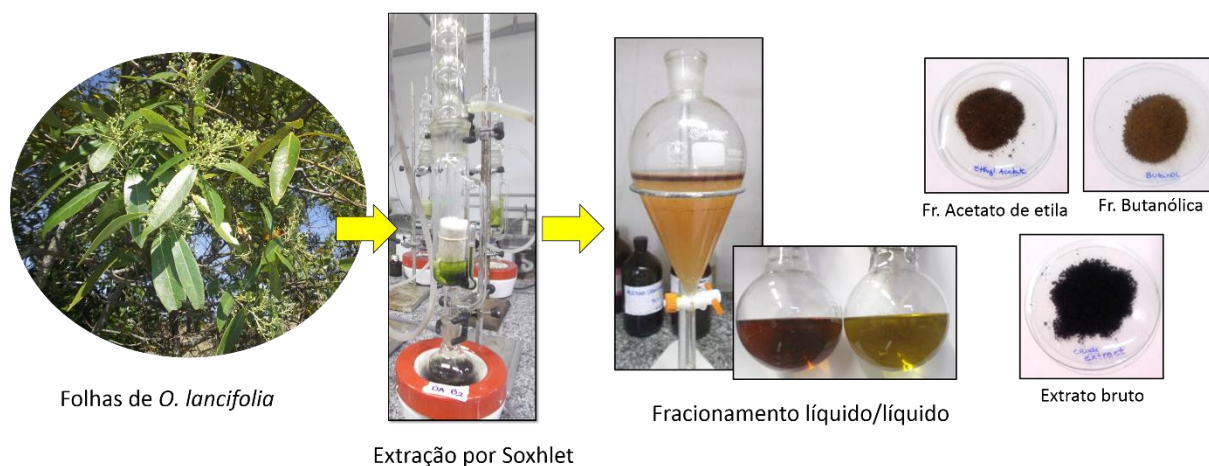
Após o período de extração, os extratos etanólicos obtidos foram resfriados à temperatura ambiente e filtrados em papel filtro. O solvente foi removido à 50 °C sob pressão reduzida em rota-evaporador e os rendimentos mensurados (g de extrato seco/100 g de planta seca). Para os ensaios espectrofotométricos, uma pequena alíquota dos extratos foi dissolvida em metanol (Grau HPLC) a uma concentração de 0,5 mg/mL.

1.3.5 Obtenção dos extratos etanólicos e frações purificadas de *O. lancifolia*

Folhas (590 g) de *O. lancifolia* foram secas à temperatura ambiente (25 °C), moídas com uso de moinho Willey e submetidas a percolação à quente com auxílio de Soxhlet e extraídas com etanol 95% (razão material: solvente; 1:20) até a exaustão completa do material vegetal. O solvente foi removido através do rota-evaporador à 50 °C sob pressão reduzida, obtendo-se 175 g de extrato etanólico seco. Em torno de 90 g esse extrato foi fracionado para a obtenção de frações enriquecidas em compostos fenólicos, conforme metodologia adaptada de Egua et al. (2014). Inicialmente, ocorreu a ressuspensão do extrato bruto em água destilada (2500 mL) e, em seguida, o mesmo foi particionado exaustivamente através de consecutivas extrações líquido/líquido com solventes de polaridade crescente: diclorometano (2000 mL), acetato de etila (2000 mL) e butanol (1000 mL) (Figura 11). Após a evaporação, os extrato

bruto e as frações foram mantidos em dessecador com sílica e, na sequência, foram liofilizados. Para as determinações espectrofotométricas, uma alíquota do extrato bruto e das frações purificadas foi dissolvida em metanol (Grau HPLC) a uma concentração de 0,5 mg/mL.

Figura 11 – Extração, fracionamento e obtenção de frações purificadas de *Ocotea lancifolia*



Fonte: Autora.

Fr.: Fração.

1.3.6 Caracterização química

1.3.6.1 Ensaios espectrofotométricos

Todos os ensaios espectrofotométricos foram realizados em um espectrofotômetro UV/Vis modelo JASCO V-630. Curvas de calibração padrão foram preparadas com ácido gálico (Scharlau 99,5%) (0-0,2 mg/mL; $R^2=0,990$), quercetina (Sigma Aldrich >95%) (0-0,1 mg/mL; $R^2=0,991$) e catequina (Sigma Aldrich >96%) (0-0,3 mg/mL; $R^2=0,994$) conforme as metodologias descritas a seguir, o que permitiu a avaliação dos resultados espectrofotométricos das amostras dos extratos etanólicos de *N. grandiflora* e do extrato bruto e das frações enriquecidas de *O. lancifolia*.

1.3.6.1.1 Conteúdo de fenóis totais

O conteúdo de fenóis totais foi determinado pela técnica Folin-Ciocalteu (Merck) com algumas modificações (CÂNDIDO; SILVA; AGOSTINI-COSTA, 2015). Em um balão

volumétrico com capacidade de 10 mL, alíquotas (0,25 mL) das amostras foram adicionadas a 2,5 mL de água destilada e 0,25 mL do reagente de Folin-Ciocalteu, previamente diluído 1:10 em água destilada. Após 5 min, foram adicionados a 0,25 mL de solução aquosa carbonato de sódio (75 mg/mL) (Sharlau 99,8%) e, em seguida, a solução obtida foi ajustada para 10 mL com água destilada. Após 60 min de incubação à temperatura ambiente, a absorbância das amostras foi determinada a 725 nm, em triplicata. Os resultados foram expressos como mg equivalentes de ácido gálico por g de amostra seca.

1.3.6.1.2 Conteúdo de flavonoides

O método de complexação com AlCl_3 (METROUH-AMIR; DUARTE; MAIZA, 2015) foi empregado para detectar o conteúdo de flavonoides nos extratos obtidos. Nesta técnica, a 1 mL das amostras foi adicionado 2 mL de AlCl_3 (Sigma Aldrich 99%) em solução metanólica à 2%. A absorbância das soluções foi mensurada a 410 nm após 15 min de incubação à temperatura ambiente, em triplicata. Os resultados foram expressos em mg equivalentes de quercetina por g de amostra seca.

1.3.6.1.3 Conteúdo de taninos condensados

Os taninos condensados foram estimados por ensaio utilizando vanilina (Panreac 99%) e ácido sulfúrico (SWAIN; HILLIS, 1959). Desse modo, 0,05 mL das amostras foram adicionados a 2 mL do reagente vanilina (1 g de vanilina dissolvido em 100 mL de ácido sulfúrico 6,2 M). A solução foi mantida em temperatura ambiente por 20 min e a absorbância mensurada a 500 nm. As leituras das absorbâncias foram feitas em triplicata e os resultados foram expressos em mg equivalentes de catequina por g de amostra seca.

1.3.6.2 Espectroscopia no Infravermelho

As estruturas químicas, especialmente, os grupos funcionais presentes nos diferentes extratos etanólicos e frações foram analisados através da espectroscopia de infravermelho por transformada de Fourier (FTIR). Os espectros foram obtidos a partir da submissão das amostras de extratos e frações purificadas moídas ao espectrofotômetro PerkinElmer. Para cada espectro FTIR foram realizadas oito varreduras entre os comprimentos de onda $700\text{-}4000\text{ cm}^{-1}$, com uma resolução de 4 cm^{-1} e corrigidas contra um ambiente de ar (HERRERA et al., 2014).

1.3.6.3 Cromatografia gasosa

Os componentes dos óleos essenciais foram analisados quantitativamente por cromatografia gasosa (CG) em um cromatógrafo gasoso 7890A (Agilent) equipado com detector de ionização por chama (DIC). Para a separação dos constituintes, utilizou-se uma coluna capilar de sílica HP-5 (5% fenil, 95% metilsiloxano; 30 m x 0,25 mm x 0,25 µm de espessura de fase). O gás de arraste utilizado foi Hélio (1 mL/min) e o volume de injeção das amostras 1,0 µL (1:1000/2:1000 em hexano; v/v) em modo *split* (razão 1:50). A temperatura inicial do forno foi de 40 °C, mantida isotermicamente por 4 min e, gradualmente, elevada até 320 °C à 4 °C/min. O tempo total de análise foi 76 min, em que injetor e detector foram operados à 300 °C.

As análises qualitativas foram realizadas em um cromatógrafo gasoso 7890A acoplado a um detector de espectrometria de massas Agilent modelo 5975C com ionização por impacto de elétrons a 70 eV e analisador do tipo quadrupolo. A coluna capilar usada foi HP5-MS (5% fenil, 95% metilsiloxano; 30 m x 0,25 mm x 0,25 µm de espessura de fase). As temperaturas do injetor, interface, fonte de íons e detector foram mantidas a 250 °C, 280 °C, 230 °C e 150 °C, respectivamente. O modo Scan, na faixa de massa de 40 a 320 amu, foi utilizado para confirmação dos espectros de massas. O Hélio (1 mL/min) foi usado como gás de arraste e o aquecimento do forno programado como descrito anteriormente.

Os constituintes dos óleos essenciais foram identificados comparando-se seus índices de retenção de Kovats (IR), os quais foram calculados através de uma curva de padrão de *n*-alcanos injetados nas condições descritas anteriormente e pela fragmentação dos espectros de massas com os dados documentados nas espectrotecas (ADAMS, 2009; NIST, 2009). Todas as análises cromatográficas dos óleos essenciais foram realizadas através do *software* MS Chemstation Data Analysis (Agilent Technologies, versão 2.0). A quantificação dos constituintes dos OE foi realizada através do método de normalização de área e os dados foram expressos em porcentagem (PINHEIRO et al., 2016).

1.3.6.4 Cromatografia líquida

A composição química dos extratos e das frações enriquecidas de *N. grandiflora* e *O. lancifolia* foi analisada através da cromatografia líquida de alta eficiência, conduzida em um sistema UPLC (Waters) com detector de arranjo de fotodiodo acoplado a um espectrômetro de

massas. Os espectros UV foram obtidos entre 200 e 500 nm e a detecção específica foi realizada a 280 nm (absorbância máxima). A separação cromatográfica ocorreu através de uma coluna C₁₈ (Acquity; 100 x 2,1 mm i.d., 1,7 µm) a 40 °C. A fase móvel foi constituída por dois solventes: água-ácido fórmico (0,1% A) e metanol (B), e a eluição seguiu o seguinte perfil: 0-25 min 95% A; 25-27,7 min 1% A e 27,7-30 min 5% A, com um fluxo de 300 µL/min. As amostras foram preparadas a uma concentração de 200 µg/mL em metanol: água (1:1) e alíquotas de 10 µL foram injetadas para a análise (INBARAJ et al., 2010).

Os espectros de massa foram adquiridos usando LCT Premier XE (Waters) equipado com uma fonte de ionização por *electrospray* (ESI) operada no modo positivo. Os parâmetros experimentais foram configurados da seguinte maneira: voltagem capilar: 500 V, voltagem do cone: 100 V e os íons detectados entre 100-1000 *m/z*. Os constituintes foram identificados através dos dados de absorbância máxima, tempo de retenção, peso molecular e fragmentação dos íons em comparação com dados descritos na literatura científica (RIBEIRO; SILVA; BOLZANI, 2002; RIBEIRO et al., 2005; SEERAM et al., 2006).

1.3.6.5 Ressonância Magnética Nuclear

A espectroscopia por Ressonância Magnética Nuclear, mais conhecida como espectroscopia por RMN, foi usada para a identificação de substâncias isoladas presentes no óleo essencial de *N. grandiflora*. Os espectros de RMN foram obtidos através do equipamento Bruker HPX 400 FT a 400 MHz para análise de próton (¹H) e a 100 MHz para análise de carbono (¹³C), utilizando-se tetrametilsilano como padrão interno e clorofórmio deuterado (CDCl₃) como solvente.

1.3.7 Caracterização física

1.3.7.1 Análise termogravimétrica (TGA)

O comportamento térmico dos extratos etanólicos e frações purificadas foi conduzido em atmosfera de nitrogênio, usando o analisador termogravimétrico TGA/SDTA RSI (Mettler Toledo). As amostras (4-10 mg) foram aquecidas à 10 °C/min, de 20 a 700 °C, aplicando um fluxo de 10 mL/min. Para os cálculos quantitativos, foram determinadas a quantidade de massa desprendida da amostra estudada (curva TG) e a razão de perda de massa (DTG, derivada da curva TG) durante a reação ao longo do aumento de temperatura (HERRERA et al., 2014).

1.3.7.2 Teste de solubilidade

Para investigar a solubilidade dos extratos e frações purificadas, as amostras foram previamente diluídas em solvente orgânico (DMSO ou Etanol, grau HPLC) e analisadas através do equipamento Cellometer Vision (Nexcelom Bioscience LLC, Lawrence, MA). Cada solução/amostra foi precisamente pipetada (0,02 mL) para a câmara de contagem descartável Nexcelom para determinação da concentração de partículas não dissolvidas (partículas/ μ L) e o tamanho de partículas (μ m). Após inserir a câmara de contagem no equipamento, um estágio automatizado foi acionado, visando mover a própria câmara linearmente em quatro diferentes locais, para a geração de imagens e análise sequencial pelo sistema, em que as partículas são identificadas e contadas através do *software* Cellometer.

1.3.8 Ensaios biológicos

1.3.8.1 Atividade antioxidante

1.3.8.1.1 Ensaio da redução do radical DPPH

O ensaio para avaliação da atividade antioxidante dos extratos através do teste de redução do radical DPPH (2,2-difenil-1-picril-hidrazila, Sigma Aldrich) foi realizado de acordo com Dudonné et al. (2009). Alíquotas de 0,02 mL de diferentes concentrações das amostras (0,5-2,0 mg /mL em metanol) foram adicionadas a 2 mL da solução metanólica estoque de DPPH (0,06 mM). Após 30 min de incubação à temperatura ambiente, as absorbâncias foram mensuradas em triplicata no comprimento de onda de 517 nm. A quercetina foi usada como controle positivo. A percentagem de redução do radical DPPH foi calculada pela seguinte fórmula (1):

$$\text{Redução do radical (\%)} = \frac{A_{\text{controle } t=30} - A_{\text{amostra } t=30}}{A_{\text{DPPH } t=0}} \times 100 \quad (1)$$

Onde, A_{controle} : absorbância do controle (2 mL de solução estoque de DPPH e 0,02 mL de metanol); A_{amostra} : absorbância da amostra; t =tempo (min) no qual a absorbância foi lida e A_{DPPH} : absorbância da solução estoque de DPPH.

A concentração da amostra que apresentou eficiência antioxidante capaz de reduzir a concentração inicial de DPPH em 50% (IC₅₀) foi calculada pela análise de probito (FINNEY, 1971) e os resultados foram expressos como mg de extrato por mL de solução.

1.3.8.1.2 Ensaio da redução do radical ABTS

O potencial antioxidante dos extratos também foi avaliado através do ensaio do radical ABTS [2,2'-azino-bis(3-etilbenzotiazolina-6-ácido sulfônico)] (Sigma Aldrich), segundo metodologia de Re et al. (1999). Os extratos secos foram diluídos em metanol (0,5-2,0 mg/mL) e uma alíquota de 0,04 mL foi adicionada a uma solução de ABTS. Essa solução foi preparada através da adição de 7 mM de ABTS e 2,45 mM de persulfato de potássio (Panreac 98%) em água (50 mL) por 12-16 h à temperatura ambiente e ao abrigo de luz. Então, a absorbância da solução de ABTS foi ajustada para $0,60 \pm 0,02$ em 734 nm com etanol: água (1:1). Cada amostra foi lida em triplicata entre 1-6 min após a adição do reagente e a % de redução do radical ABTS foi calculada como descrito no ensaio do radical DPPH.

1.3.8.2 Atividade antifúngica *in vitro*

1.3.8.2.1 Ensaio frente a fungos de podridão de madeira

O ensaio antifúngico contra fungos de podridão da madeira foi realizado conforme técnica do crescimento radial (WANG; CHEN; CHANG, 2005). Inicialmente, isolados de *Pycnoporus sanguineus* (L.) Murrill e *Gloeophyllum trabeum* (Pers.) Murrill obtidos do Laboratório de Produtos Florestais da Universidade Federal de Brasília (UFB), serão cultivados em meio nutritivo preparado com batata, sacarose e ágar (BSA: 200 g de batata, 20 g de sacarose e 18 g de ágar em 1 L de água destilada) à 25 ± 4 °C e fotoperíodo de 12 h por 15 dias em incubadora BOD (Demanda Bioquímica de Oxigênio). Após, os meios nutritivos BSA suplementados com óleo essencial (previamente diluído em etanol 95% 1:1) e vertidos nas placas de petri (9 cm ϕ) foram inoculados com discos de 15 mm ϕ contendo o micélio fúngico. O óleo essencial de *N. grandiflora* foi testado nas concentrações de 0 (controle), 0,25; 0,50; 1,0; 3,0 e 5,0 $\mu\text{L/mL}$ e após sete dias de incubação o crescimento micelial foi mensurado. Da mesma forma, a atividade fungitóxica do constituinte isolado deidrofuquinona foi analisado em concentração equivalente ao encontrado em 5 $\mu\text{L/mL}$ (4,63 $\mu\text{g/mL}$) de óleo essencial, sendo

igual a 1,25 µg/mL. O crescimento da colônia fúngica foi estimado pela média de duas medidas perpendiculares e o índice de crescimento micelial foi calculado pela seguinte fórmula (2):

$$\text{ICM (mm)} = \frac{dt}{n_1} + \frac{dt}{n_2} + \frac{dt}{n_5} + \frac{dt}{n_7} \quad (2)$$

Onde, n = dias após o início do experimento e dt = média dos diâmetros da colônia fúngica (mm), após 7 dias.

A inibição do crescimento micelial (%) foi calculada através da fórmula (3):

$$\text{Inibição (\%)} = \frac{\text{ICM}_c - \text{ICM}_t}{\text{ICM}_c} \times 100 \quad (3)$$

Onde, ICM_c = índice de crescimento micelial do controle e ICM_t = índice de crescimento micelial do tratamento.

Os dados de concentração-resposta foram analisados por probito (FINNEY, 1971), obtendo-se a concentração efetiva de 50% de inibição micelial (IC_{50}) e os intervalos de confiança (95%). Os resultados de ICM do constituinte isolado e do óleo essencial foram comparados através do teste-t, à um nível de significância de $P < 0,05$.

1.3.8.2.2 Ensaio frente a *Fusarium moniliforme*

Isolados de *Fusarium moniliforme* J. Sheld foram isoladas de sementes de *Pinus elliottii*, no laboratório de Fitopatologia Florestal (UFESM). Para a obtenção do inóculo, os isolados foram cultivados em BSA à 25 ± 4 °C e fotoperíodo de 12 h por 10 dias em incubadora BOD. Discos de 8 mm ϕ contendo o micélio foram transferidos assepticamente para placas de petri (9 cm ϕ) com meio de cultivo BSA, suplementado com antibacteriano comercial (Estreptomomicina a 0,04%) e com os óleos essenciais de *O. lancifolia* a uma concentração final de 1 µL/mL. Objetivando detectar diferenças na propriedade antifúngica entre os óleos essenciais de partes aéreas de *O. lancifolia*, quatro tratamentos foram avaliados: dois *pools* de óleos essenciais obtidos de folhas (T1 e T2), determinados a partir da análise multivariada, amostras de óleos essenciais de inflorescências (T3) e de frutos (T4) (ver artigo 2). O etanol 95% foi usado como controle negativo (1 µL/mL) e a nistatina (solução comercial de 100.000 UIA) como controle positivo (FRATERNALE et al., 2011). As placas foram mantidas nas mesmas condições de crescimento anteriormente descritas durante 7 dias e os tratamentos avaliados em quatro

replicatas. A porcentagem de inibição do crescimento micelial foi calculada a partir da seguinte equação (4):

$$\text{Inibição (\%)} = \frac{dc-dt}{dc} \times 100 \quad (4)$$

Em que, dc e dt são as médias dos diâmetros das colônias fúngicas do controle e do tratamento, respectivamente, após sete dias (WANG; CHEN; CHANG, 2005).

1.3.8.3 Teste de apodrecimento acelerado

Amostras de lâminas (esterilizadas em autoclave à 120 °C por 15 min) de *Betula pubescens* Ehrh. (bétula) foram impregnadas durante 24 h (por imersão superficial) com soluções etanólicas de extrato bruto e frações purificadas de *O. lancifolia* nas concentrações de 1% e 4% (% m/v). Após a secagem em estufa à 103 °C, as lâminas impregnadas foram colocadas em placas de petri pré-inoculadas com *Trametes versicolor* (L.) e *G. trabeum* (isolados obtidos do Laboratório de Produtos Florestais, Universidade Federal de Brasília). As placas foram mantidas à 23 ± 2 °C e umidade relativa de 60 ± 5 °C durante nove semanas em incubadora BOD (UNE-EN 84, 1997), como mostra a Figura 12.

Figura 12 – Placa de petri representativa do ensaio de apodrecimento acelerado com *Betula pubescens*



Fonte: Autora.

Após o período de incubação, as lâminas foram, cuidadosamente, limpas para a remoção do micélio e secas à 103 ± 2 °C em estufa durante 24 h (peso constante). Finalizando esse processo, a porcentagem de perda de massa foi calculada através da comparação das massas das lâminas, que revelou diferenças antes e após o ensaio de apodrecimento.

1.3.8.4 Atividade sedativo-anestésica

A atividade sedativo-anestésica do óleo essencial de *N. grandiflora* e do constituinte isolado deidrofuquinona foi realizada em juvenis de jundiá [*Rhamdia quelen* (Quoy & Gaimard, 1824)] conforme protocolo adaptado de Gomes et al. (2011) e Garlet et al. (2016). Esse protocolo envolve seis estágios: sedação leve (S1), sedação profunda (S2), perda parcial e perda total de equilíbrio (S3a e S3b, respectivamente), anestesia profunda (S4) e colapso medular (S5). O experimento consiste em transferir os animais para tanques com água aerada contendo a substância a ser testada ou óleo essencial diluídos em etanol 95% (1:10) em diferentes concentrações finais. Após a indução, os animais foram transferidos para tanques contendo somente água para a mensuração do tempo de recuperação⁴. O tempo máximo de observação em cada estágio foi 30 min, incluindo a fase de recuperação. Após, os animais eram transferidos para tanques de 40 L e observados durante 48 h para detectar possíveis sinais de doença ou mortalidade. A Comissão de Ética no Uso de Animais da UFSM através do Parecer nº 74/2014 (Anexo A) aprovou o presente protocolo experimental.

O óleo essencial de *N. grandiflora* foi avaliado em seis diferentes concentrações (23, 46, 92, 276, 460 e 828 mg/L) e a atividade do constituinte majoritário (+)-deidrofuquinona, foi analisada em concentração proporcional à detectada em 460 mg/L de óleo essencial (=90 mg/L). Após os resultados preliminares, o constituinte isolado foi testado em outras concentrações (9, 50 e 160 mg/L), realizando também a comparação com o controle positivo, neste caso, o eugenol (Fluka) na concentração de 50 mg/L (CUNHA et al., 2010). Um aquário contendo água aerada e etanol 95% na maior concentração usada para diluir as amostras foi usado como controle negativo.

⁴ Os animais foram considerados recuperados quando apresentavam reação a estímulo externo e nado normal (GOMES et al., 2011).

2 ARTIGO 1 – Chemical composition and inhibitory effects of *Nectandra grandiflora* leaves essential oil against wood decay fungi

O artigo *Chemical composition and inhibitory effects of Nectandra grandiflora leaves essential oil against wood decay fungi* foi publicado na Revista *Drewno*.

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CHEMICAL COMPOSITION AND INHIBITORY EFFECTS OF *NECTANDRA GRANDIFLORA* LEAVES ESSENTIAL OIL AGAINST WOOD DECAY FUNGI

*The environmental toxicity and potential human health problems that can be caused by most common wood preservatives are pushing forward the search of safe preservatives from renewable resources. Consequently, several studies have been realized to assess the potential of plant extracts in terms of fungal resistance for wood products. In this context, the present work aims to evaluate the inhibitory effects of essential oil obtained from the leaves of *Nectandra grandiflora* against wood decay fungi. Chemical characterization was carried out by gas chromatography and the antifungal activity was performed by the radial growth technique. Firstly, the potato sucrose agar medium was supplemented with essential oil at concentrations ranging from 0 (control) to 5.0 $\mu\text{L}\cdot\text{mL}^{-1}$. Afterwards, mycelial discs of *Pycnoporus sanguineus* and *Gloeophyllum trabeum* were transferred to the plates and the results were evaluated by the probit method. Chemical analysis revealed a complex mixture of sesquiterpenoids in the essential oil, which presented dehydrofukinone as a major compound. The essential oil and dehydrofukinone proved to be effective in the mycelial growth control of *G. trabeum* and *P. sanguineus*. These preliminary reports demonstrated the suitability of the *N. grandiflora* essential oil as a component of preservative solutions.*

Keywords: antifungal property, wood preservatives, Lauraceae, volatile components

Introduction

Some fungal species can be pathogenic to forest and urban trees and consequently, they deteriorate wood products [Bento et al. 2014]. Wood decay fungi are mainly responsible for the destruction of structural elements of the cell wall that can result in economic and material losses and subsequently, reduces

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the wood quality [Stangerlin et al. 2013]. Among the most important saprophytic wood-rot basidiomycetes, are *Pycnoporus sanguineus* (white-rot fungi) and *Gloeophyllum trabeum* (brown-rot fungi) which are able to degrade wood components. The first species attacks the lignocellulosic materials, while the second destroys the polysaccharide constituents.

Although traditional synthetic fungicides such as arsenate-based wood preservatives are very effective, its continued employment has led to environmental pollution, resistance development and human health toxicity [Yoon et al. 2013]. Plants produce large amounts of secondary metabolites for protection against adverse environmental conditions and biological pests. Extractives and isolated components, therefore, from individuals of diverse botanical families have been studied and have demonstrated promissory potential to fungal control [Cowan 1999; Schultz and Nicholas 2002; Wang et al. 2005; Sen et al. 2009].

In addition to the low toxicity, the application of substances from vegetal resources could improve the efficacy of antifungal products through its synergistic effects including a positive interaction between the components. Hwang et al. [2007], Schultz and Nicholas [2002] reported the usefulness of the combined use of tannins, heartwood extractives and synthetic biocides. In this background, the study aims to investigate the influence of essential oil extracted from *Nectandra grandiflora* leaves, on the mycelial growth of two species of wood-rot fungi. Additionally, a comparison of the antifungal property of essential oil and its major constituent, dehydrofukinone, was performed.

Materials and methods

Essential oil obtainment

Leaves of the *Nectandra grandiflora* Nees were collected on a native population located in the Jaguari city, South of Brazil (at 29° 26' S and 54° 40' W). The fresh leaves were fragmented and afterwards the essential oil was extracted by a hydrodistillation process using a Clevenger-type apparatus for three hours. The essential oil yield was quantified based on the mass weight (0.7 g per 100 g of dried leaves). An aliquot of the obtained extractive was chemically analysed by gas chromatography.

Chemical characterization and quantification

The chemical composition of the essential oil was determined by an Agilent 7890A gas chromatograph connected to a mass spectrometer 5075C (GC-MS) using a non-polar HP5-MS fused silica (5% phenyl, 95% methylsiloxane) capillary column (30 m × 0.25 mm i.d. × 0.25 mm film thickness), and an electron ionization mode at 70 eV. The carrier gas was helium at a flow rate of 1.0 mL·min⁻¹, injector and detector temperatures of 150°C and 280°C,

respectively, the split inlet injection mode (ratio 1:100), oven temperature at 40°C for four minutes, and up to 320°C at 4°C·min⁻¹ were the employed parameters. Quantitative evaluation was performed in triplicate using a flame ionization detector (GC-FID), according to Silva et al. [2015]. The constituents were then identified by comparison of the retention indices and mass spectra with libraries [NIST-EPA-NIH 2009; Adams 2009].

Following the chemical characterization, three chromatography columns (CC) were performed to fractionate the leaves essential oil and to isolate the main constituent. In the first CC, 11 g of essential oil were added to 630 g of silica gel 60 (7.2 × 30.5 cm) and eluted with hexane-acetone (95:5 v/v). Fractions of 45 mL were gathered in nine main fractions based on the thin layer chromatography (TLC) profile and concentrated under reduced pressure at 40°C. The TLC was carried out on silica gel 60 F₂₅₄ chromatoplates and the spots were detected by vanillin sulfuric acid-UV 365 nm.

The fractions 4 and 5 were grouped (2.8 g) and submitted to another CC (4.1 × 43.2 cm, 260 g silica gel 60, hexane-ethyl ether 95:5 at 1.25 mL/min). From the resulting ten main fractions, 6 and 7 were grouped (1.4 g) and submitted to the third CC (2.4 × 66 cm, 90 g of silica gel sixty impregnated with 10% AgNO₃, hexane-acetone 95:5 at 1.0 mL/min) [Williams and Mander 2001]. Among the four main fractions obtained, the fraction 1 (1 g) was identified as dehydrofukinone (100% purity), according to Schenato et al. [2001], Alkhatlan et al. [2005], Bolzan [2007] and Silva et al. [2015].

Antifungal activity

The antifungal assay was evaluated by the radial growth technique [Wang et al. 2005]. All assays were carried out in quadruplicate. Primarily, potato sucrose agar (200 g, 20 and 18 g in 1 L of distilled water) medium was supplemented with essential oil at concentrations of 0 (control), 0.25, 0.50, 1.0, 2.0 and 5.0 µL/mL, which were dissolved in ethanol (1:1), and placed into the Petri dishes. Mycelial discs (1.5 cm diameter) were then transferred aseptically to the center of the plates and incubated at 25 ± 4°C in 12 h-photoperiod for seven days.

In another experiment, the inhibition effect of dehydrofukinone was analysed at equivalent concentration to that detected in 5 µL/mL (4.63 µg/mL) of essential oil. Thereby, considering the density of essential oil (0.926 g/mL), the substance purity (100%) and the content of dehydrofukinone in essential oil (26.85%), dehydrofukinone was tested at 1.25 µg/mL. This assay was performed as mentioned above.

The growth of the fungal colony was estimated by an average of two perpendicular measurements and mycelial-growth rate was calculated using the following equation (1).

$$MGR \text{ (mm)} = \frac{dt}{n_1} + \frac{dt}{n_2} + \frac{dt}{n_5} + \frac{dt}{n_7} \quad (1)$$

where: n – days of the beginning of the experiment,
 dt – average diameters of fungal colony (mm).

Mycelial-growth inhibition (%) was calculated through the equation (2).

$$\% \text{ inhibition} = \frac{MGR_c - MGR_t}{MGR_t} \times 100 \quad (2)$$

where: MGR_c – mycelial-growth rate of control,
 MGR_t – mycelial-growth rate of treatment.

The concentration-response data of the first experiment were analysed by probit analysis [Finney 1971] to obtain the 50% lethal concentration (LC_{50}) values and 95% confidence interval (CI). Mycelial-growth rate (MGR) results of dehydrofukinone in comparison with the essential oil were evaluated by t-test. A significant difference was considered at a level of $P < 0.05$.

Results and discussion

Chemical characterization

GC-MS and GC-FID analysis led to the identification of twenty-four components, representing 73.16% of the total essential oil obtained from *N. grandiflora* leaves. The chemical composition revealed a complex mixture of sesquiterpenoids in the extractive (tab. 1) and the chromatogram of GC-MS peaks is shown in figure 1A. The major volatile components were dehydrofukinone (26.85%, fig. 1B), valencene (6.89%), kaurene (6.03%), aristolochene<4,5-di-epi> (5.41%), selin-11-en-4- α -ol (5.34%) and bicyclogermacrene (5.06%).

In comparison with other studies about the chemical compositions of the essential oils of the *Nectandra* species, differences in the major components could be observed. According to Amaral et al. [2015], *N. megapotamica* presented the highest quantities of monoterpenes such as α - and β -pinene, similar to those detected for the essential oil of *N. membranacea* leaves [Wu et al. 2006]. The sesquiterpenoid atractylone was extracted from the leaves of *N. salicina* amounting to 14.6% of essential oil [Ciccio et al. 2009]. Conversely, previous reports showed dehydrofukinone as the main component of the leaf extracts from the *Senecio* species [Bohlmann et al. 1981; Nachman 1983]. To date, this compound was only described in the Lauraceae target by Garlet et al. [2016].

Table 1. Chemical composition of the essential oil obtained from *N. grandiflora* leaves

RT ^a	Component	RI ^b calc	RI lib ^c	Content (%) ^d	Identification
10.4	α -Pinene	931	930 ^N	0.37	RI, MS
12.0	β -Pinene	973	975 ^N	0.25	RI, MS
14.7	Z- β -Ocimene	1039	1038 ^N	0.30	RI, MS
15.0	E- β -Ocimene	1049	1047 ^N	1.38	RI, MS
17.1	Linalool	1100	1100 ^N	0.41	RI, MS
20.3	Z-3-Hexenyl butyrate	1188	1186 ^N	0.95	RI, MS
27.3	β -Elemene	1393	1391 ^N	3.29	RI, MS
28.1	β -Caryophyllene	1420	1418 ^N	0.80	RI, MS
28.8	α -Guaiene	1442	1441 ^N	1.38	RI, MS
29.2	α -Caryophyllene	1455	1454 ^N	0.49	RI, MS
29.7	Aristolochene<4,5-di-epi>	1471	1473 ^A	5.41	RI, MS
30.1	α -Amorphene	1482	1485 ^A	0.71	RI, MS
30.3	Valencene	1489	1488 ^A	6.89	RI, MS
30.4	Z- β -Guaiene	1495	1493 ^A	1.84	RI, MS
30.5	Bicyclogermacrene	1498	1500 ^A	5.06	RI, MS
30.8	Germacrene A	1506	1509 ^A	0.24	RI, MS
31.8	Kessane	1541	1539 ^A	2.68	RI, MS
32.9	Spathulenol	1579	1578 ^N	1.49	RI, MS
34.2	Humulane-1,6-dien-3-ol	1624	1619 ^N	0.31	RI, MS
34.4	Eremoligenol	1632	1631 ^A	0.36	RI, MS
35.1	Selin-11-en-4- α -ol	1657	1660 ^A	5.34	RI, MS
37.4	Isobicyclogermacreanal	1741	1734 ^A	0.33	RI, MS
39.0	Dehydrofukinone	1807		26.85	MS, NMR
44.8	Kaurene	2039	2043 ^N	6.03	RI, MS
Components identified				73.16	

^aRetention time; ^bRetention indices relative to n-alkanes (C8-C31) on a HP5-MS capillary column; ^cretention index from libraries: ^AAdams [2009]; ^NNational Institute of Standards and Technology – U.S. Environmental Protection Agency – National Institutes of Health [NIST-EPA-NIH 2009]; ^dContent obtained by GC-FID.

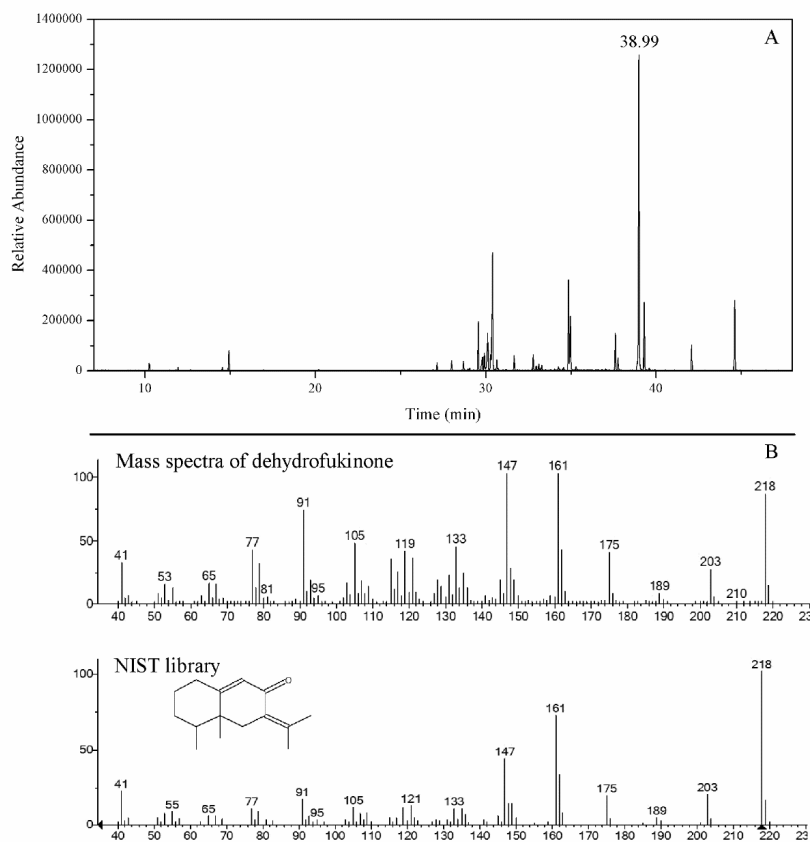


Fig. 1. GC-MS chromatogram of the essential oil from *N. grandiflora* leaves (A) and mass spectra of dehydrofukinone (B) in comparison to NIST library [NIST-EPA-NIH 2009]

Moreover, *N. grandiflora* is an endemic tree from Brazil and its leaves were employed in local medicine as a diuretic and digestive [Correa 1984]. There are a few studies about the biological activities of this plant [Moreno et al. 1993], however, little is known about its essential oil.

Antifungal activity

Regarding the antifungal assay, the essential oil of the *N. grandiflora* proved to be effective in the inhibiting of *P. sanguineus* and *G. trabeum* and the detected activity was in a concentration-dependent manner (tab. 2).

Table 2. Mycelial-growth inhibition (%) of essential oil o from *N. grandiflora* leaves against *P. sanguineus* and *G. trabeum*

Fungi species	Concentration ($\mu\text{L}/\text{mL}$)	Inhibition mean \pm SEM (%)	LC ₅₀ \pm SEM ($\mu\text{L}/\text{mL}$) 95% confidence limits	Intercept	Slope	χ^2
<i>P. sanguineus</i>	0.25	26.75 \pm 0.99	1.22 \pm 0.16 (0.96-1.61)	4.91	1.06	1.50
	0.50	33.34 \pm 0.46				
	1.0	46.57 \pm 1.08				
	2.0	52.20 \pm 0.93				
	5.0	79.03 \pm 0.41				
<i>G. trabeum</i>	0.25	47.82 \pm 0.46	0.39 \pm 0.26 (0.015-0.84)	5.42	1.02	2.27
	0.50	55.24 \pm 0.75				
	1.0	61.70 \pm 1.40				
	2.0	69.53 \pm 3.69				
	5.0	94.76 \pm 0.63				

χ^2 values were calculated by probit method [Finney 1971].

The calculated χ^2 values were obtained and compared with tabulated χ^2 to verify the adequacy of results for the probit model. All values showed appropriate fit, with calculated χ^2 lower than tabulated χ^2 (7.81). The CI values obtained after seven days of treatment did not overlap, indicating the significant differences between the effects of essential oil on both fungi species. *G. trabeum*, however, seems to be more vulnerable to essential oil, because it presented the lowest LC₅₀ (0.39 \pm 0.26 $\mu\text{L}/\text{mL}$) and CI values (0.015-0.84 $\mu\text{L}/\text{mL}$). Our results agree with Yen and Chang [2008], who proposed that the antifungal activity is strongly related to the fungal species.

Furthermore, figure 2 shows a comparative analysis of antifungal effects among essential oil and the isolated substance against *P. sanguineus* and *G. trabeum*.

The t-test showed no significant difference between the MGR results of essential oil and dehydrofukinone with respect to *P. sanguineus* (8.03 \pm 1.05 mm and 9.89 \pm 0.74 mm, respectively; $P = 0.171$). This similarity, however, was not found in the *G. trabeum* assay, which showed more susceptibility to the essential oil. Such behavior could be explained by the synergistic or additive effects of substances present in *N. grandiflora* essential oil [Schultz and Nicholas 2002; Yen and Chang 2008]. Mycelial-growth inhibition results observed in this work, ranged from 76.06% to 79.45% for dehydrofukinone and it was greater than 80.56% for essential oil. Secondary metabolites such as essential oils are a promising source of active substances that can provide the fungal protection of wood surfaces. Some studies reported the potential use of essential oil from *Cinnamomum osmophloeum* [Wang et al. 2005] and *Eucalyptus camaldulensis* leaves [Salem et al. 2016], as well as pure substances [Marei et al. 2012] with this purpose.

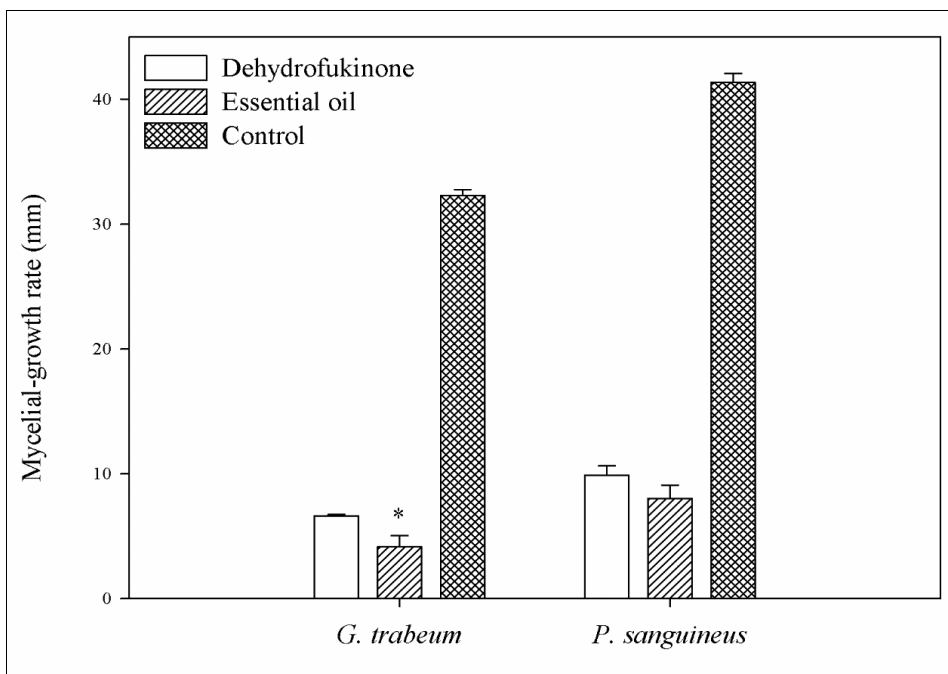


Fig. 2. Comparative analysis of mycelial-growth rate (MGR) concerning essential oil from *N. grandiflora* leaves (4.63 µg/mL) and dehydrofukinone (1.25 µg/mL) against *G. trabeum* and *P. sanguineus*

*Indicates significant differences among essential oil and dehydrofukinone by t-test ($P < 0.05$).

Conclusions

The essential oil of *Nectandra grandiflora* leaves was mainly composed of sesquiterpenoids and among them dehydrofukinone was the major one. Preliminary findings display the *in vitro* efficacy of leaves extractives from *N. grandiflora* against two wood-rot fungi. Moreover, the results suggested that the detected effect is partially due to dehydrofukinone. The essential oil and its major component can then be applied as a natural fungicide in wood treatments.

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3 ARTIGO 2 – Changes in content, chemical composition and antifungal activity of *Ocotea lancifolia* (Schott) Mez essential oils

O artigo *Changes in content, chemical composition and antifungal activity of Ocotea lancifolia* (Schott) Mez essential oils está formatado de acordo com as normas do periódico ao qual foi submetido, Journal of Essential Oil Research.

Changes in content, chemical composition and antifungal activity of *Ocotea lancifolia* (Schott) Mez essential oils

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Abstract

This study aimed to investigate the variability in content, chemical composition and antifungal property of the essential oils (EO) of *Ocotea lancifolia* over one year. The EO were obtained by hydrodistillation from fresh leaves and reproductive organs collected from 12 trees over the four seasons, and the yields were calculated on dry weight basis. Chemical composition was established by gas chromatography and the variability was assessed by multivariate procedures. Furthermore, the *in vitro* antifungal activity was evaluated against *Fusarium moniliforme*. Higher yields of leaves OE were obtained in spring and summer. Sesquiterpenoids constituted the dominant fraction in all EO. Caryophyllene oxide and bicyclogermacrene were the major constituents in healthy trees, while β -chenopodiol stood out in damaged trees. The chemical composition of EO was not significantly affected by seasonality. Nevertheless, microbiological damage and development stage of reproductive organs appear to influence EO production and chemical composition, as well as their antifungal property.

Keywords: caryophyllene oxide; cluster analysis; essential oil variability; *Fusarium*; Lauraceae; *Ocotea lancifolia*.

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1. Introduction

The study of Lauraceae species is based on the economic, ecological and scientific worldwide importance of their representatives for wood, flavors, essences, medicine and food supplies (1-3). One of its largest genus is *Ocotea* Aubl., which comprises 300-350 species of plants mainly distributed in tropical and subtropical America. This genus is represented by 172 species in Brazil where 112 species are endemic (1,4).

Ocotea lancifolia (Schott) Mez (sin. *Ocotea pulchra* Vattimo-Gil) is a native tree in Paraguay and Brazil, and it is found in the “Cerrado” and “Mata Atlântica” Brazilian biomes. Regarding its distributional area, *O. lancifolia* is known by folk names as “canela”, “canela-pilosa” (Brazil), “laurel né” (Paraguay) and it is mostly found in riparian areas (1,5).

There is few scientific information describing the phytochemical and biological properties of *O. lancifolia*. Camargo et al. (5) isolated six new eremophilane sesquiterpenes from the leaves of a specimen of *O. lancifolia* and Fournet et al. (6) reported antiprotozoal potential of the alkaloid (-)-caaverine to treat *Leishmania* and *Trypanosoma cruzi*. Regarding the essential oil (EO) from leaves, Silva et al. (7) revealed its sedative and anesthetic properties in fish. However, in the last cited work, the species *O. lancifolia* was misidentified as *O. acutifolia* Nees (Mez).

Essential oils are a mixture of secondary metabolites broadly distributed in the plant kingdom, which often present a defense function in the plants acting against water loss, abiotic stress and natural enemies as herbivores (8). However, the genetic factors, metabolic state, synthesized tissues, eco-physiological and environmental conditions can influence the content, chemical composition and consequently, the biological properties of plant extractives (9). In this way, a study aiming to characterize the EO changes should consider the aspects that can culminate on its heterogeneity (10).

Species of the *Fusarium* genus are associated to a strong damage to agriculture and forestry as well as to diseases affecting animal and human health (11,12). The species *Fusarium moniliforme* (Sheld.) produces several mycotoxins, as detected in maize kernel rot and seedling blight (13). Several strategies for controlling the fungal growth and mycotoxins synthesis employ chemical treatments, which can be toxic to human beings, animals and environment and thus stimulate the search of new active substances from plant sources. In this way, EOs have been studied as fungicide agents because they are rich in bioactive substances with potential biological interest, since they possess lower toxicity as the synthetic ones (12).

Regarding the fact that there is no report about the possible influence of vegetative cycle and different plant organs on the EO production of *O. lancifolia*, this work aimed to evaluate EO variations in an adult population of *O. lancifolia*, over one year. Moreover, in order to detect a possible effect of the chemical variability on the EO biological property, the *in vitro* antifungal activity of EO against *F. moniliforme* was investigated.

2. Experimental

2.1 *Plant material and essential oil (EO) extraction*

Plant material was harvested from trees belonging to a single native population growing in Santo Antônio district, located in Santa Maria, RS, Southern Brazil (at 29°37' S; 53°52' W; 180 m). This local presents a *Cfa* climate (Köppen), characterized as humid subtropical, with hot summer, mild winter and rainfall uniformly distributed over the year, reaching 1691 mm (14). The experimental region is covered by a vegetation classified as Deciduous Seasonal Forest and belongs to the Slope of Plateaus of the Parana River basin geological formation with Neosoils and Cambisoils (15).

The samples of *O. lancifolia* leaves were collected from three different adult individuals per season, totalizing 12 sampled trees (Table 1), codified as T1-12_L, over a year, from April 2013 to March 2014. The collection of reproductive organs occurred when they were present in the selected trees. In this way, inflorescences were picked up twice, the first in April (T1_I) and the second one in May 2013 (T2_I), while the fruits were sampled from five individuals, between July and November 2013 (T4-8_F). Voucher specimen (n. 6399) was identified by Dr. João Batista Baitello and deposited in the Herbarium of Forest Sciences Department at the Federal University of Santa Maria (UFSM).

Fresh leaves (400-600 g), inflorescences (100-150 g) and fruits (100-500 g) were fractionated and submitted, separately, to hydrodistillation in Clevenger-type apparatus for 3 hours (23). After the extraction, the EO were stored at -4°C until chemical analysis and bioassay. Samples of plant material (10-20 g) were dried in an oven at 50°C during seven days for further EO yields calculation on dry-weight basis (w/w %).

2.2 *Chemical analysis*

The EO qualitative analysis was carried out on an Agilent 7890A gas chromatograph coupled to a 5975C mass spectrometer (GC-MS) using a non-polar HP5-MS fused silica capillary column (5% phenyl; 95% methylsiloxane, 30 m x 0.25 mm i.d. x 0.25 µm film thickness), electron ionization mode at 70 eV, acquisition mass range between 40 to 320 amu in scan mode. Helium was used as carrier gas with a flow rate 1.0 mL/min, and injector and detector temperatures were set at 250 and 280°C, respectively. The oven temperature was kept at 40°C for 4 min and then gradually raised to 320°C at 4°C/min. Sample solutions (1:1000 in hexane, v/v) of 1 µL were injected in split inlet mode (ratio 1:100).

Linear retention indexes were calculated using a homologous series of C₇-C₃₁ n-alkanes injected under the same conditions of the samples. The identification of the EO constituents

was achieved by matching the retention indexes and spectral fragmentation pattern from the National Institute of Standards and Technology Mass Spectral Library (16) and from a private reference Library (17).

The quantitative analysis was performed on an Agilent 7890A gas chromatograph equipped with a flame ionization detector (GC-FID) using a non-polar HP-5 fused silica capillary column (5% phenyl; 95% methylsiloxane) with the same dimensions as the ones described for GC-MS. Parameters of analysis were the same as mentioned above, with exception of split ratio (1:50) and both injector and detector temperatures (300 °C). All quantitative analyses were performed in triplicate, and the percentages of each constituent are expressed as mean value.

2.3 *In vitro* antifungal bioassay

The ascomycete *Fusarium moniliforme* J. Sheld (teleomorph *Gibberella moniliformis*), obtained from the Phytopathology Laboratory (UFMS), was isolated from seeds of *Pinus elliotii* Engelm. In order to reach the inoculum, the fungi was cultured in potato sucrose agar medium (PSA: potato 200, sucrose 20 and agar 18 g/L in distilled water) for 10 days at 25 ± 4 °C and 12 h-photoperiod. An agar plug (8 mm-diameter) comprising the mycelium was transferred aseptically to the center of 9 cm-diameter sterilized plates containing PSA supplemented with a commercial antibacterial (Streptomycin at 0.04%) and the EO samples at 1 µL/mL final concentration. Aiming to detect the differences on antifungal property among the EOs from aerial organs, the assessed treatments were aliquots of leaves EO (two *pools*, denominating I and II, and derived from groups originated by multivariate procedures; see results) and of T1_I and T6_F samples. Ethanol was used as negative control (1 µL/mL) and nystatin (100,000 UIA commercial solution) as positive control (18). The plates were maintained at the same growing

conditions described above, for seven days and all treatments were evaluated in four replicates. Diameter of fungal growth was measured and expressed as mean percentage of mycelial-growth inhibition by the equation (1):

$$\text{Inhibition \%} = \frac{d_c - d_t}{d_c} \times 100 \quad (1)$$

Where d_c and d_t are fungal colony average diameters of control and treatment, respectively (19).

2.4 Statistical procedures

The seasonal trends of EO chemical composition regarding the sampled trees were investigated by hierarchical cluster analysis (HCA), using the Ward's method with Euclidean distance as dissimilarity measure. Results obtained from the HCA analysis were then complemented by principal component analysis (PCA) (20). In this way, two data matrices were built using average values of peak integrations obtained from GC-FID analysis where the constituents ($\geq 1.0\%$ at least in one sample) were considered independent variables and the tree samples as cases (21). Then, the first matrix data was created using 12 samples of leaves EO and 38 independent variables. The second one was composed by two samples of inflorescences EO and five samples of fruits EO, totaling 55 variables.

The Pearson product moment correlation was used to describe the relationships among the major component (caryophyllene oxide) and the other four most abundant constituents in leaves EO samples ($n=12$). Results of leaves EO yields ($n=3$ for each season) and antifungal assay ($n=4$ for each treatment) were subjected to normality and homogeneity of variance evaluation (Shapiro-Wilk and Levene tests, respectively). Afterwards, these data were

evaluated by analysis of variance followed by Tukey test and the significance was accepted when $P < 0.05$. The last cited analyses were carried out on Sigma Plot (ver. 11) software. For multivariate analysis, the data were subjected to the Statistica statistical software (ver. 9) and Origin (ver. 9).

3. Results and Discussion

3.1 EO contents

Leaves EO extracted in spring and summer presented the highest average yields (1.03 and 0.96%, respectively), differing statistically ($F=7.104$; $P < 0.0001$) from winter and autumn (Table 2). It is worth noting that the maximum leaves EO content was verified in a summer-sampled individual (1.31%; Table 2). In this season occurs the highest light intensity and temperatures, factors that could lead to the increasing of yields, as recently reported for another Lauraceae species, *Nectandra megapotamica* (Spreng.) Mez (22). In the same way, hydric stress may promote significant changes in concentrations of secondary metabolites, as terpenoids (9,10). High volatile contents seems to be directly related with drought conditions, as previously reported to *Rosmarinus officinalis* L. and *Mentha spicata* L. (23).

The floral initiation time for the same species is modified by climate, site conditions and could vary from year to year, as well as due to different locations (24). In the present study, *O. lancifolia* inflorescences were observed between April and May 2013, i.e. during the autumn. The tree sampled in April 2013 (T1_I) revealed 2.49% of EO in inflorescences (Table 3); however, its leaves, collected at the same time, showed only 0.71% (T1_L; Table 2). This last value was not a complete surprise, since Silva et al. (7) described a similar yield (0.80%) for leaves EO from an individual of *O. lancifolia* harvested at the same phenological period in São

Francisco de Assis (Southern Brazil). Our finding suggests the translocation or competition of metabolic fuels, which probably occur due to attraction/pollination events (22). Furthermore, according to Razavi et al. (25), the flowering period possibly affects the leaves EO content in a negative way.

The fruit ripening is characterized by changes in color, texture, flavor, aroma, metabolism and gene expression. Fruit growth involves many degrees of cell division and expansion and these processes can lead up to 15 weeks in many tree species (24). The fruit of *O. lancifolia* is a berry type, characteristic of the genus *Ocotea* (26). In addition, the reproductive organ presents a green color when unripe (July to October), and at the end of ripening process, it displays a purple-black color (November). Concerning the EO, the unripe fruits collected in September (T6_F) showed a high EO content (1.58%) while the mature fruits provided only 0.34% (T8_F; Table 3). The reduction of the EO content during fruit maturation can also indicate translocation or competition of metabolic fuels. Moreover, according to Pallardy (24), mature fruits are rich in carbohydrates, fats, proteins and growth hormones.

3.2 *EO composition*

GC-MS and GC-FID analyses led to the identification and quantification of 26, 30 and 31 components, representing 79.7-92.4%, 83.1-86.2% and 70.3-77.5% of the total volatile composition from leaves, inflorescences and fruits, respectively (Figure 1; Tables 2 and 3).

Scientific data revealed that the EO from *Ocotea* species are chemically variable exhibiting mainly mono and sesquiterpenoids (27,28) or phenylpropanoids (2). In this work, sesquiterpenoids were the major component class, standing out in all plant organs collected over the year of study with average percentages of 79.2% in leaves, 81.3% in inflorescences and 69.1% in fruits EO.

In the present work, caryophyllene oxide predominated in almost all the leaves EO of the selected trees followed by bicyclogermacrene, allo-himachalol, bulnesol, Z-nerolidyl acetate and calarene epoxide. Caryophyllene oxide and calarene epoxide presented highest values in leaves EO (46.4% and 6.72%, respectively). Silva et al. (7) detected 56.9% and 11.7% for the same constituents in the EO of the same species collected in São Francisco de Assis. However, the compounds quantification carried out by Silva et al. (7) was not performed through a FID detector but by a GC-MS TIC analysis, which may lead to a different results. Besides the detector, changes in the percentages of these chemical constituents may occur due to genetic variation, geographical origin and environmental conditions (9).

In two leaves EO samples (T2_L and T4_L, see Table 2), a considerable larger amount of β -chenopodiol was verified. This eudesmane-derived sesquiterpenoid has already been detected only in Chenopodiaceae species (29). Furthermore, these both leaves samples also demonstrated the lowest EO yields between the evaluated trees (0.27 and 0.08%, respectively; Table 2). The reproductive organs harvested from these two trees (T2_I and T4_F, respectively), also showed a decreasing in the EO contents: 0.55% in T2_I and 0.38% in T4_F. Furthermore, at the collection time, both trees had indicative aspect of a microbial attack suggesting a possible explanation for the changes in the EO content and chemical composition (9,30).

Concerning the fruits EO, an important aspect is the percentage changes of some constituents during the ripening process. The average content of the major compound, caryophyllene oxide, in mature fruits (T8_F; November) was almost half the quantity found in fruits of healthy trees at intermediate maturation stages (48.8%; Table 3). Moreover, there is an increase in the quantities of bulnesol, atractylone and allo-himachalol in the mature fruits, which may be closely related to the seeds dispersion event. On the other hand, floral buttons collected in April (T1_I) showed 34.9% of caryophyllene oxide; however, its percentage

decreased to 2.5% at the end of the flowering period (T2_I). This fact may be related to the pollination event or alternatively to the already mentioned microbial attack of tree collected in May (T2). Therefore, additional studies are necessary to understand this difference, since the literature describes the increase of caryophyllene oxide, along with other volatile components, in response to insect attack or mechanical damage (31). The EO chemical variation among individuals can be better observed by multivariate procedures, as described below.

3.3 *Multivariate analyses*

3.3.1 *Leaves EO*

In order to investigate the similarity and relationship between the EO compositions of *O. lancifolia* individuals, HCA and PCA were performed. The application of HCA to the chemical composition of leaves EO resulted in two main groups in distance of 75 units (Figure 2a). By this method, it is clearly demonstrated that the chemical differentiation of leaves EO and their consequent separation into groups did not happen because of the four-season variation on *O. lancifolia* in the studied area.

The first group (cluster I) contained all samples except those presenting lower EO content and higher quantities of β -chenopodiol (Figure 2a). Cluster I was also characterized by the highest levels of caryophyllene oxide in EO (average of 40.6%) and bicyclogermacrene (6.7%). Cluster II composed by T2_L and T4_L had a β -chenopodiol average contribution of 19.9% while kaurene appears with 14.5%. Additionally, the EO from T2_L and T4_L were also characterized by a low content of caryophyllene oxide (3.5%). Data of Euclidean distances confirms the discrepancy between T2_L and other samples presenting distance units ranging from 37.1 to 46.9. An equivalent behavior was observed in T4_L EO, which showed Euclidean

distance up to 53.4 units in relation to T7_L. The greatest similarity was registered between T10_L and T11_L trees samples (3.4 units).

The PCA is one of the multivariate statistical procedures used to identify the most significant traits in a data set (32). The HCA findings were supported by the PCA results, which reduced the 38 initial variables to only six PC (1-6), that explained 94.21% of the original data variability. The first PC (PC1) explained most of the variance (63.23%) and the subsequent PC2 accounted 8.72% (Figure 3). Since these first components had a great percentage share of phytochemical variance among the observations/cases, a scatter plot of PC1 and PC2 was applied to determine the relationships between the variables and EO samples. Then, all tree samples situated on the left plane of Figure 3 were associated to the variables caryophyllene oxide and bicyclogermacrene, shifting to the same direction. The positions of T2_L and T4_L reflected high contents of β -chenopodiol and kaurene, because of their position on the right plane in the graphic.

3.3.2 *Reproductive organs EO*

In the HCA of reproductive organs EO, two main groups were designed in distance of 62.5 units (Figure 2b). Cluster I was composed by five samples presenting high caryophyllene oxide and bicyclogermacrene contents (averages of 41.7 and 8.1%, respectively). On the other hand, cluster II was constituted by T2_I and T2_F and is characterized by the predominance of β -chenopodiol (27.9%) as occurred on cluster II of leaves EO. The samples T2_I and T6_F presented the highest Euclidean distance (65 units) while the closest EO samples were T5_F and T7_F (7.4 units).

Through the PCA, 55 variables were gathered in six principal components conferring 100% of the total variance. The first three PC represented 45.96, 20.16 and 14.04%, respectively. By plotting PC1 and PC2 (Figure 4), the grouping of samples shifted to the right

in the graphic, and this can be explained by the high levels of caryophyllene oxide and bicyclogermacrene, which occurred in almost all fruits EO. In the same way, the samples T2_I and T4_F are correlated to the variables β -chenopodiol and Z-nerolidyl acetate composing the cluster II. Moreover, the position of sample T4_F suggested its relation to β -*E*-ocimene due to their similar displacement. According to literature, plants under biological attack emit mixtures of volatiles and the presence of β -*E*-ocimene could be related to an indirect defense of the sampled individual (33,34). Finally, the sample T1_I moved to the center of the plane, which implies that this sample was also influenced by the variable β -chenopodiol (5.96%; see Table 3).

Overall, the PCA confirmed the findings of the HCA and demonstrated that EO compositions were influenced mainly by the presence of caryophyllene oxide and β -chenopodiol. Consequently, these constituents appear to be decisive for the *O. lancifolia* EO separation in different chemical groups.

Regarding the relationships between the major components of leaves EO, only two constituents were positively correlated to caryophyllene oxide: calarene oxide (Pearson correlation coefficient = 0.939; $P < 0.0001$) and bicyclogermacrene (coefficient = 0.970; $P < 0.0001$). Other compounds were negatively correlated to the major constituent: β -chenopodiol (coefficient = -0.961; $P < 0.0001$), Z-nerolidyl acetate (coefficient = -0.957; $P < 0.0001$) and kaurene (coefficient = -0.923; $P < 0.0001$). In fact, the pathogen type can affect the level of chemical variation through changes in gene expression. Consequently, there is some influence on plant physiological response (10,35).

3.4 *In vitro* antifungal assay

All EO treatments were efficient in controlling *F. moniliforme* because the *in vitro* mycelial-growth inhibition was observed, and all tested samples showed higher antifungal activity than nystatin (at the tested concentration), which was used as positive control (Figure 5). Furthermore, a statistically significant difference among treatments was observed ($F=42.402$; $P<0.001$), and the *pool-I* of leaves EO promoted 67.5% of mycelial inhibition. This value was statistically similar to the EO obtained from fruits (T6_F) and from inflorescences (T1_I). However, the *pool-II* of leaves EO showed less inhibitory potential than other tested EOs. Ethanol used as diluent did not interfere on *F. moniliforme* mycelial growth.

Essential oils are one of the most promising classes of natural products that can be used as pest control agents (36). Furthermore, comparing literature data, *O. lancifolia* EO were more efficient on *F. moniliforme* mycelial growth inhibition than *Chrysanthemum coronarium* EO (37) as well as the EO obtained from some medicinal plants (38).

Caryophyllene oxide, the major component of *pool-I* of leaves EO, T1_I and T6_F has been described as suitable for use in cosmetics and drugs industries and as food preservative, and has been studied as an antifungal agent (39,40). Although other compounds found in *O. lancifolia* EO have no reported antifungal activity or presented low-moderate effect, as bulnesol and allo-himachalol (41), the assayed EO seems to have an antifungal potential.

Another important aspect of the observed antifungal property is the possible combination of different EO components that can result in synergistic, additive or antagonistic effects (42). The evaluation of associated agents is an alternative that has proved to be promising to design antifungal products (43).

Our findings testify the importance to understand the relationship between plant biotic stress and pathogen-induced chemical diversity. This knowledge can contribute to prevent the

reduction on standard quality and production of plant extractives because these factors may lead to changes on the final desired product. On the other hand, this strategy can be further used to induce the production of secondary metabolites of interest in plants.

4. Conclusion

The variation in yield and chemical composition detected in the *O. lancifolia* EO from different organs may have resulted primarily from pathogen-damage but also from genetic and/or physiologic factors as well as from the interaction among them. Moreover, the changes in chemical composition also affected the EO *in vitro* antifungal activity against *F. moniliforme*. Caryophyllene oxide predominated in the EO obtained from plant organs during the four calendar-based seasons but its percentage reduced in the individuals attacked by microorganisms, which presented higher content of β -chenopodiol. *Fusarium moniliforme* showed mycelial growth susceptibility when treated with *O. lancifolia* EO and the antifungal effect did not differ among the EOs obtained from leaves, unripe fruits and inflorescences of healthy individuals. However, more tests should be conducted with other plant pathogenic fungi, and in order to explain the EO mechanisms of action.

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Table 1. Selected *Ocotea lancifolia* trees with corresponding data.

Tree	GPS localization*		Collection Month	Plant organ	Code
1	-29°37'44.3"	-53°52'25.6"	April	Leaves	T1_L
				Inflorescences	T1_I
2	-29°37'44.5"	-53°52'25.2"	May	Leaves	T2_L
				Inflorescences	T2_I
3	-29°37'43.5"	-53°52'24.7"	June	Leaves	T3_L
4	-29°37'44.5"	-53°52'26.6"	July	Leaves	T4_L
				Fruits	T4_F
5	-29°37'46.0"	-53°52' 29.0"	August	Leaves	T5_L
				Fruits	T5_F
6	-29°37'46.1"	-53°52'29.1"	September	Leaves	T6_L
				Fruits	T6_F
7	-29°37'46.2"	-53°52'27.6"	October	Leaves	T7_L
				Fruits	T7_F
8	-29°37'46.3"	-53°52'28.1"	November	Leaves	T8_L
				Fruits	T8_F
9	-29°37'45.9"	-53°52'26.9"	November	Leaves	T9_L
10	-29°37'45.9"	-53°52'26.6"	January	Leaves	T10_L
11	-29°37'45.7"	-53°52'29.5"	February	Leaves	T11_L
12	-29°37'45.7"	-53°52'29.3"	March	Leaves	T12_L

* Planimetric Datum WGS84.

Table 2. Chemical composition of leaves essential oils obtained from twelve *Ocotea lancifolia* trees harvested for over a year in Santa Maria, RS, Brazil.

Peak	Constituent	RI calc	RI ref	Composition Percentage ^c											
				Autumn			Winter			Spring			Summer		
				April	May	June	July	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Nov	Jan	Feb	March
				T1_L	T2_L	T3_L	T4_L	T5_L	T6_L	T7_L	T8_L	T9_L	T10_L	T11_L	T12_L
1	α -Pinene	932	930 ^a	1	0,1					1,7					
2	<i>E</i> - β -Ocimene	1049	1047 ^a	3.6	4.3	3.5	4.9	2.6	3.1	2.1	2.0	2.0	3.8	4.3	4.1
3	α -Guaiene	1440	1440 ^a	1.6	3.7	1.7	5.0	1.5	0.7	0.9	0.8	1.6	1.4	1.6	1.6
4	γ -Muurolene	1478	1480 ^a		0.8		1.2	0.6				1.0			
5	Amorpha-4,7(11)-diene	1482	1481 ^b	0.5	0.8	1.8	0.6				1.0				
6	<i>Z</i> -Eudesma-6,11-diene	1487	1489 ^a		0.9	1.6	1.9								
7	α -Selinene	1496	1494 ^a				1.5								
8	Bicyclogermacrene	1498	1500 ^b	6.1	2.1	5.8		5.9	6.3	7.3	7.0	7.8	7.3	6.7	7.3
9	Aciphyllene	1500	1501 ^b				1.7								
10	δ -Guaiene	1507	1510 ^b	0.6	1.2	1.1	2.1	0.6			0.8		0.7	0.7	
11	δ -Cadinene	1525	1524 ^a		0.8		1.5								
12	Caryophyllene oxide	1550	1549 ^a	40.6	7.0	38.0		36.4	42.2	46.4	39.4	42.2	41.6	40.7	38.6
13	Germacrene B	1559	1561 ^b		1.4	1.3	1.9				1.3	1.4			
14	<i>Z</i> -Isoeugenol acetate	1564	1568 ^b		0.9		2.2								
15	Spathulenol	1579	1578 ^a	1.3	1.0	2.5	2.7	1.8	2.0		1.4				
16	Eudesmol-5-epi-7epi- α	1603	1607 ^b	2.0	1.2	2.6	2.0	1.6	1.5	2.6	3.1	1.6	3.0	2.4	3.7
17	Hinesol	1642	1642 ^b	1.5	3.9	2.4	3.8	3.0	1.6	2.8	2.3	2.9	2.3	2.9	3.5
18	Allo-himachalol	1656	1662 ^b	8.0	1.5	6.5	1.6	6.2	5.7	5.9	6.3	5.9	6.8	7.2	7.4
19	Bulnesol	1668	1671 ^b	6.9	1.2	7.1		6.0	5.1	4.8	5.7	5.4	5.6	6.5	6.4
20	<i>Z</i> -Nerolidyl acetate	1682	1677 ^b	4.2	9.3	3.6	8.7	3.8	3.1	3.1	4.1	4.9	3.4	3.6	3.9
21	Calarene epoxide*	1716	-	4.6	1.4	4.1	1.7	4.5	5.5	6.7	5.6	5.4	6.0	5.3	5.8
22	α -Costol	1777	1774 ^b	0.5		0.7		0.7	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.7	1.0	0.7	0.8

23	<i>E</i> -Isovalencenol	1784	1783 ^a	0.6		0.8		0.7	1.0	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.3	0.9	1.2
24	β -Chenopodiol	1793	1811 ^b	4.2	20.9	2.2	17.4	2.7	2.3	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.3	2.1	1.2
25	Eudesm-11-en-4- α ,6- α -diol	1813	1808 ^b	1.3		1.6		1.7	1.6	1.2	1.3	1.2	1.9	1.4	1.6
26	Kaurene	2040	2043 ^b	3.0	11.9		17.1	5.3	3.6	3.4	2.2	2.3	1.4		
Identified compounds				92.4	79.7	90.7	82.0	87.5	90.5	91.6	88.0	90.1	91.3	88.1	88.3
Monoterpenoids				5.1	5.7	4.8	5.9	3.7	7.6	3.3	2.8	3.0	6.4	5.5	5.4
Sesquiterpenoids				84.3	61.7	85.9	58.9	78.0	79.3	84.9	83.1	84.8	83.6	82.6	82.9
Diterpenoids				3.0	11.9	0.0	17.1	5.3	3.6	3.4	2.2	2.3	1.4	0.0	0.0
Yield (w/w %)				0.71	0.27	0.83	0.08	0.79	0.81	0.86	1.06	1.17	1.31	0.76	0.81
Average yield (w/w %)				0.60B			0.56B			1.03A			0.96A		

RT: retention time; RI calc: calculated Kovats retention index; RI ref: reference Kovats retention index; ^a: Adams, 2009 and ^b: NIST, 2009.

* Identification based only on mass spectra.

^cThe oils percentage composition was computed by GC-FID peak areas, calculated as mean values of three injections from each sample.

Uppercase letters indicate significant differences among four calendar-based season EO yields, by Tukey test (P<0.05).

Table 3. Chemical composition of reproductive organs essential oils from seven *Ocotea lancifolia* trees harvested between April and November 2013 in Santa Maria, RS, Brazil.

Peak	Constituent	RI calc	RI ref	Composition Percentage ^c						
				Inflorescences		Fruits				
				April	May	July	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov
T1_I	T2_I	T4_F	T5_F	T6_F	T7_F	T8_F				
1	Z-β-Ocimene	1039	1037 ^a	0.3	0.3	1.0	0.5	0.4	0.1	0.9
2	E-β-Ocimene	1049	1047 ^a	1.6	2.0	6.2	2.8	3.1	0.6	4.6
3	Linalool	1101	1100 ^a	0.51	0.3	0.9	1.4	0.5	0.5	0.7
4	β-Caryophyllene	1420	1418 ^a		2.3	1.7	0.5			1.0
5	α-Guaiene	1440	1440 ^a	1.8	6.0	2.0	1.7	1.1	0.4	1.6
6	γ-Muurolene	1478	1474 ^a	0.9	3.0	4.7				
7	Germacrene D	1482	1481 ^a			0.9				1.0
8	γ-Himachalene	1485	1482 ^b							1.2
9	β-Selinene	1487	1487 ^a		1.3	1.7				2.4
10	Bicyclogermacrene	1498	1500 ^b	8.1			8.9	9.9	6.7	6.9
11	δ-Selinene	1497	1492 ^b			2.4				
12	β-Chamigrene	1500	1503 ^a		1.5					
13	E-β-Guaiene	1500	1502 ^b	0.8	1.6	2.6				1.1
14	δ-Guaiene	1507	1508 ^a			2.2	1.9			
15	γ-Cadinene	1515	1517 ^a		0.70	2.2				1.3
16	δ-Cadinene	1525	1524 ^a		0.9	1.8				
17	Caryophyllene oxide	1550	1549 ^a	34.9	2.5		46.2	52.1	48.1	27.9
18	Germacrene B	1559	1561 ^b	0.9	2.6	1.2	1.12			2.03
19	Spathulenol	1579	1582 ^a	3.7		2.8				
20	Viridiflorol	1585	1583 ^a	1.5	1.4					
21	Eudesmol-5-epi-7-epi-α	1603	1607 ^b	2.3	0.8	2.3	1.7	1.6	1.2	1.6
22	Hinesol	1643	1641 ^b	1.5	2.7	3.3	2.1	1.4	1.5	1.6

23	Cubenol	1647	1646 ^b		2.6	2.8			2.3	
24	Allo-himachalol	1656	1662 ^b	4.7	1.7	3.0			1.7	6.7
25	Atractylone	1659	1658 ^b	4.9					1.6	4.6
26	Bulnesol	1668	1671 ^b							2.9
27	Z-Nerolidyl acetate	1681	1677 ^b	2.9	4.5	4.6				
28	Calarene epoxide*	1716	-	4.7	1.1	1.5	0.8	0.7	0.8	1.0
29	Eremophilane	1735	1736 ^b			1.5			0.2	
30	Eremophilone-8-hydroxy-dihydro	1757	1757 ^b	0.7			0.7	0.8	1.2	
31	α -Costol	1778	1774 ^b	1.3			1.1	2.7	3.2	1.4
32	<i>E</i> -Isovalencenol	1784	1793 ^b	0.6			1.5	1.9	3.8	
33	β -Chenopodiol	1796	1811 ^b	6.0	38.7	17.1				0.9
34	Kaurene	2040	2043 ^b		1.1					
Compounds identified				86.2	83.1	70.3	77.5	76.2	74.0	73.4
Monoterpenoids				2.7	2.9	8.1	4.6	4.0	1.1	6.2
Sesquiterpenoids				83.5	79.1	62.2	69.1	73.0	74.0	67.2
Diterpenoids				0.0	1.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Yield (w/w %)				2.49	0.55	0.38	0.95	1.58	1.18	0.34

RT: Retention time; RI calc: calculated Kovats retention index; RI ref: reference Kovats retention index; ^a: Adams, 2009 and ^b: NIST, 2009.

* Identification based only on mass spectra.

^cThe oils percentage composition was computed by GC-FID peak areas, calculated as mean values of three injections from each oil.

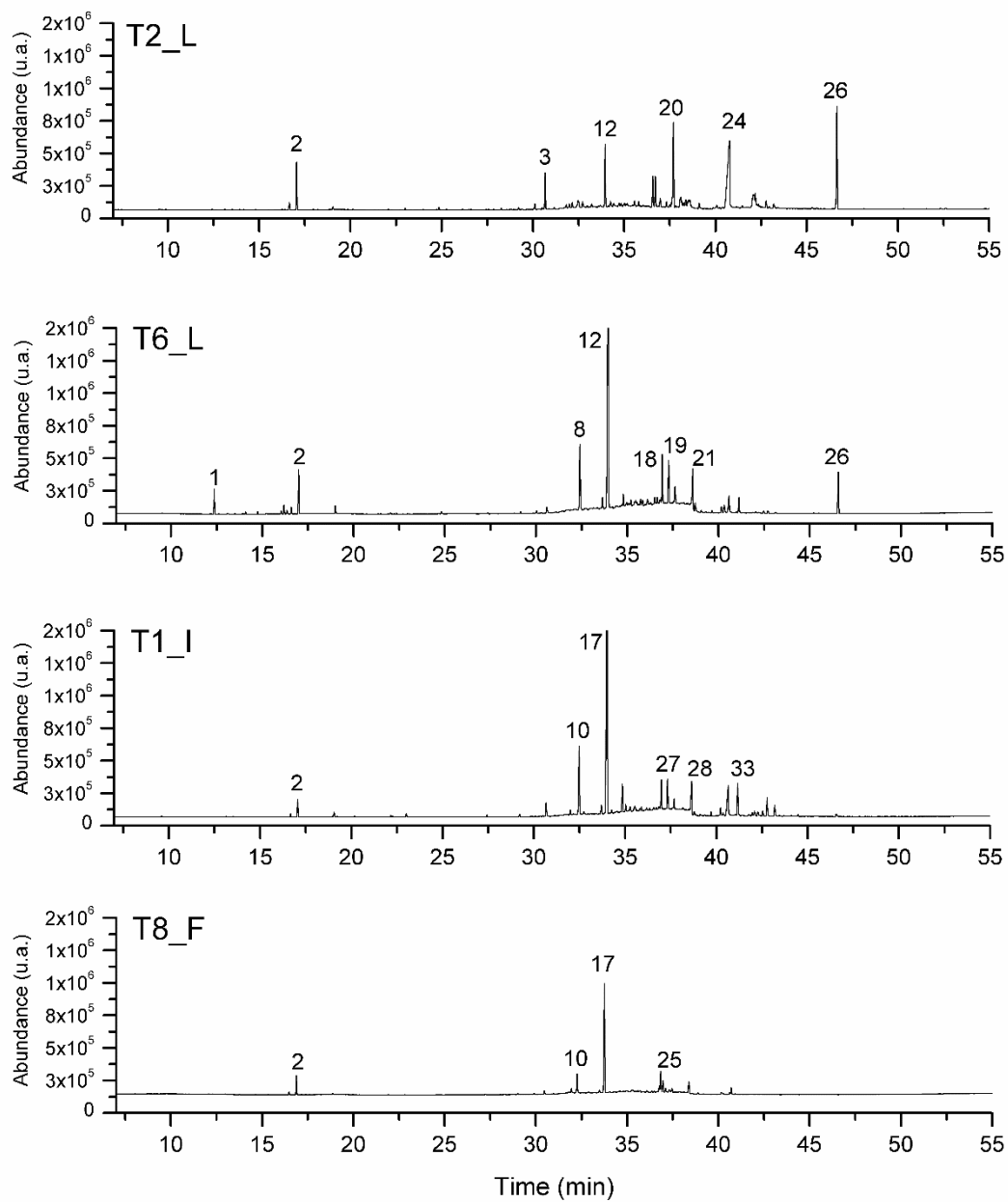


Figure 1. GC-FID chromatogram profiles of *Ocotea lancifolia* essential oils. Peak numbers are listed in Table 2 and 3.

T2_L and T6_L: leaves essential oils; T1_I: inflorescences essential oils; T8_F: fruits essential oils.

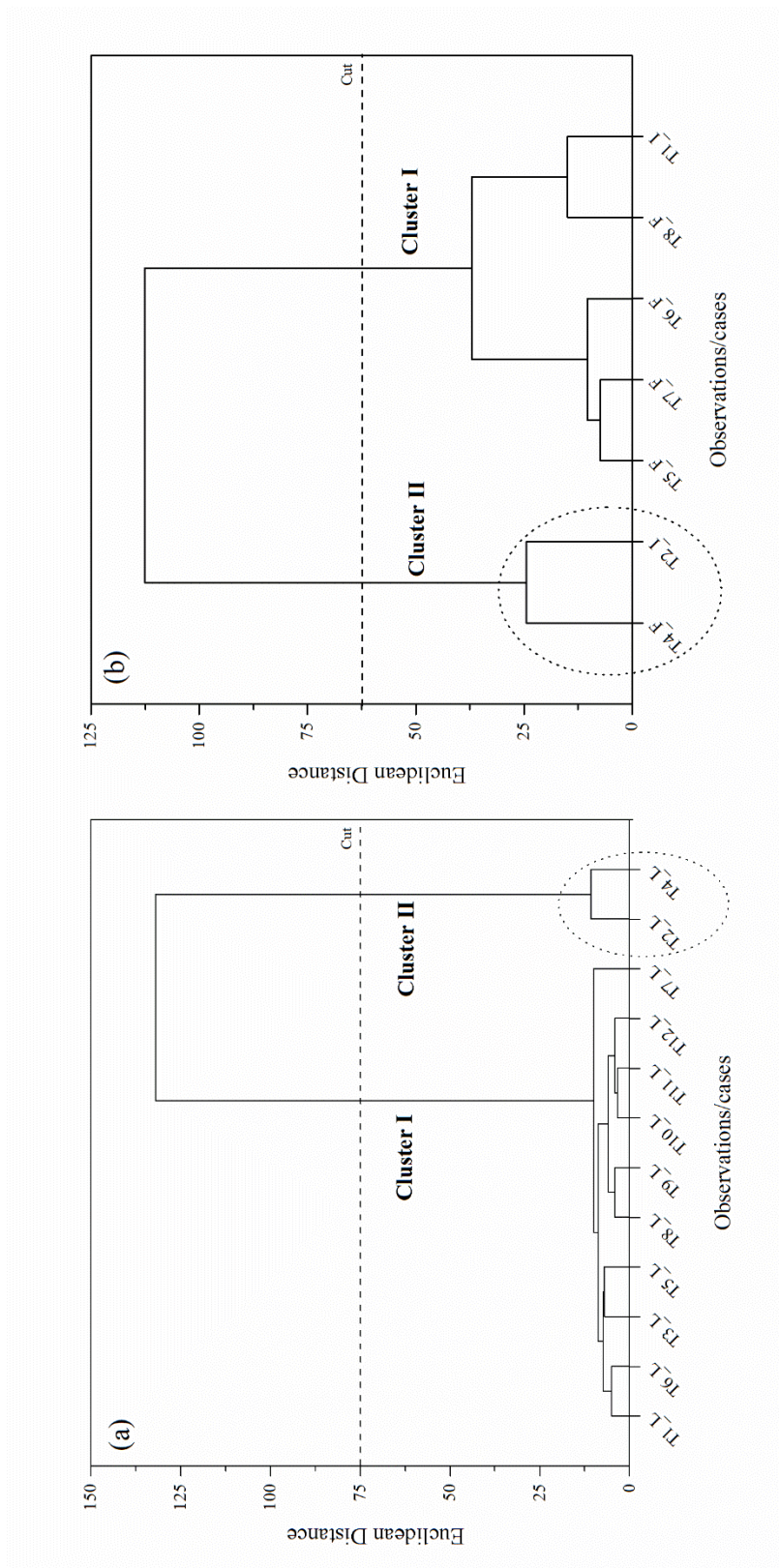


Figure 2. Hierarchical cluster analysis of chemical composition from the leaves essential oils (EO) (a) and reproductive organs EO (b) from *Ocotea lancifolia* by Ward's method.

T1_L to T12_L: essential oils obtained from leaves, see Table 2. T2_F to T8_F: essential oils obtained from fruits, see Table 3. T1_I and T2_I: inflorescences essential oils. see Table 3.

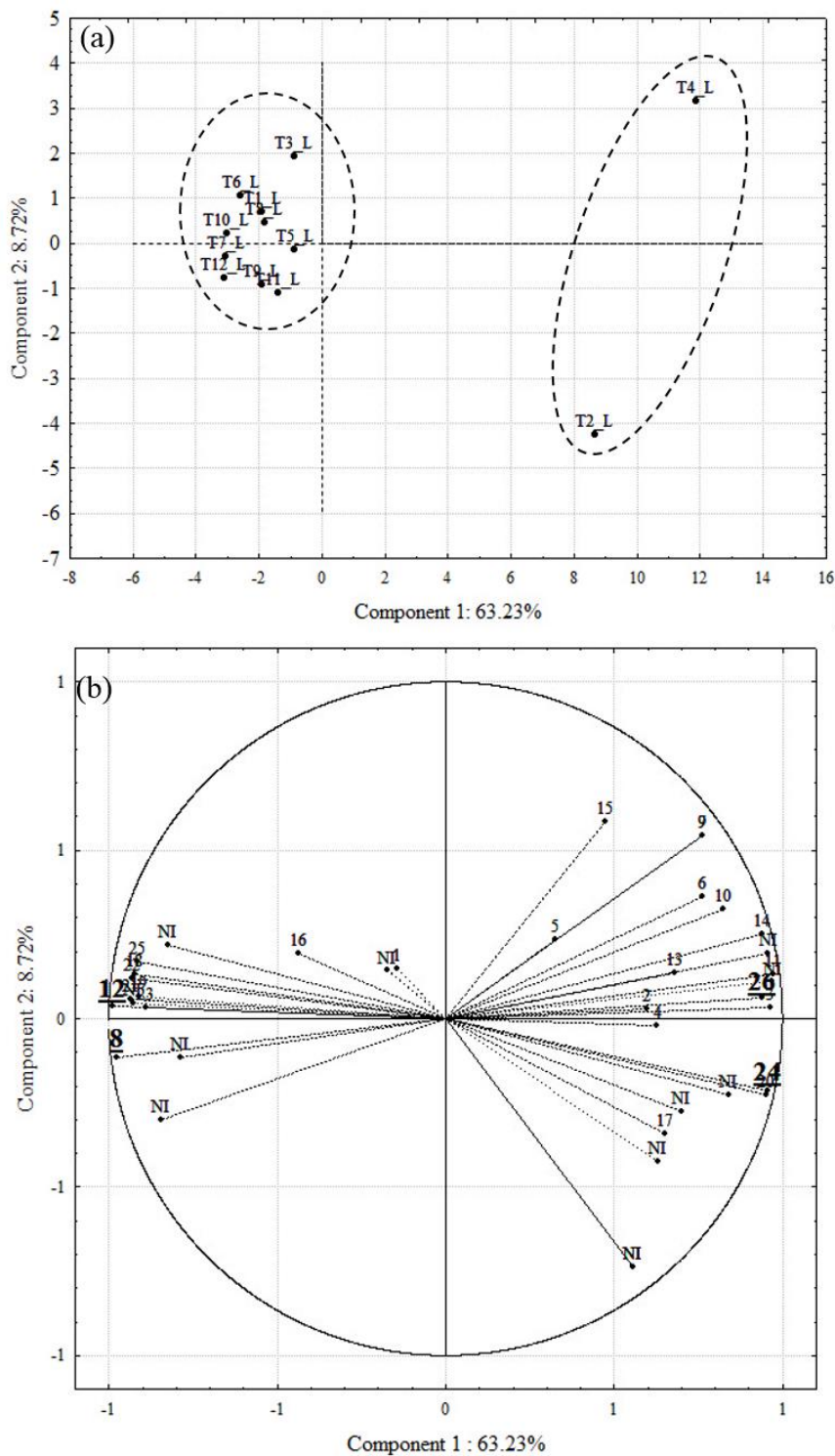


Figure 3. Scatter plot of first two main components of leaves essential oils (EO) from *Ocotea lancifolia* representing (a) cases dispersion of 12 sampled trees (T1_L to T12_L) and (b) variable dispersion (EO constituents in concentrations $\geq 1.0\%$ at least in one sample).

The constituents numbers are presented in Table 2, where 8= Bicyclogermacrene; 12= Caryophyllene oxide; 24= β -Chenopodiol and 26= Kaurene.

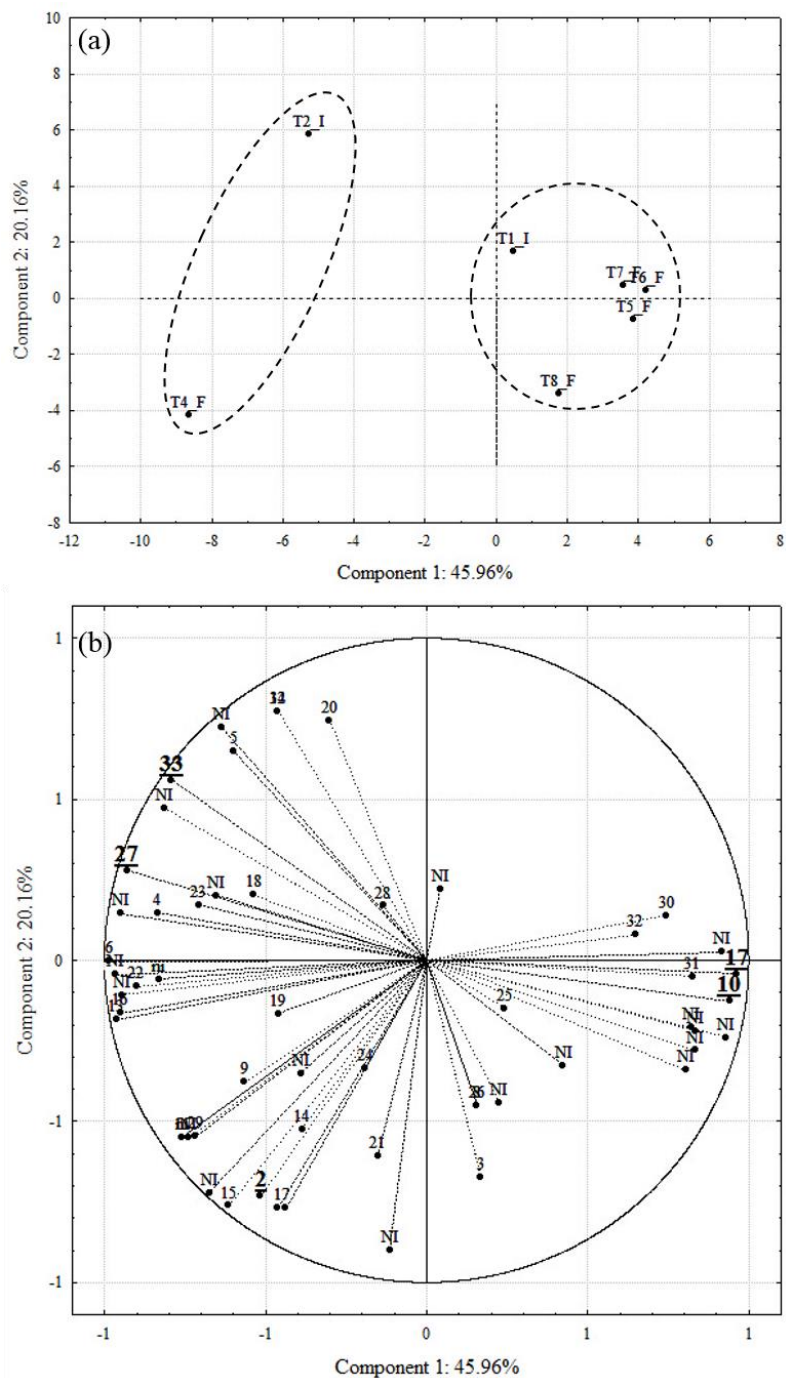


Figure 4. Scatter plot of two main components of *Ocotea lancifolia* essential oils (EO) obtained from reproductive organs (inflorescences and fruits) representing (a) the cases dispersion of 7 sampled trees (T1_I; T2_I; T4_F to T8_F) and (b) variable dispersion (EO constituents in concentrations $\geq 1.0\%$ at least in one sample).

The constituents numbers are presented in Table 3, where 2= β -E-Ocimene; 10= Bicyclogermacrene; 17= Caryophyllene oxide; 27= Z-Nerolidyl acetate and 33= β -Chenopodiol.

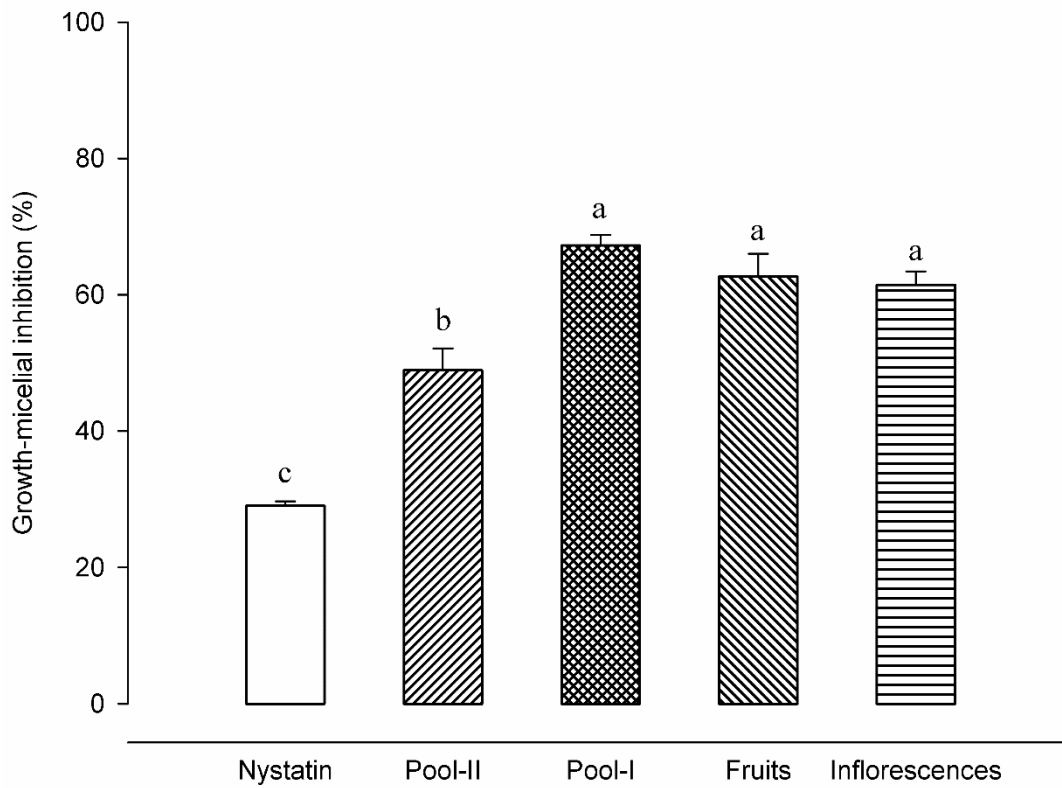


Figure 5. *In vitro* antifungal activity of *Ocotea lancifolia* essential oils (at 1 $\mu\text{L}/\text{mL}$) obtained from leaves (*pool-I* and *pool-II*), fruits (T6_F) and inflorescences (T1_I) in comparison to nystatin (positive control; 100,000 UIA) against *Fusarium moniliforme*.

Lowercase letters indicated significant difference among the treatments by Tukey test ($P < 0.05$).

ARTIGO 3 – Physicochemical characterization of leaf extracts from *Ocotea lancifolia* and its effect against wood-rot fungi

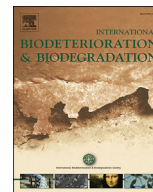
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Physicochemical characterization of leaf extracts from *Ocotea lancifolia* and its effect against wood-rot fungi



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ABSTRACT

This study is designed to evaluate the physicochemical properties and the decay resistance of leaf extracts obtained from a native Brazilian tree *Ocotea lancifolia*. Ethanol was used to obtain crude extract from milled leaves, which was further partitioned with ethyl acetate and butanol achieving two phenolic-rich fractions. Furthermore, wood veneers were impregnated with crude extract and its fractions (at 1 and 4%), and evaluated against two wood-destroying fungi. Firstly, Fourier transform infrared and thermogravimetric analysis confirmed chemical differences on structure, stability and purity of the evaluated extract samples. Crude extract presented lower total phenolic content (178 mg GAE/g dried sample) and lower antioxidant activity than its fractions. Moreover, the fractions showed 360–405 mg GAE/g dried sample and a high scavenging effect ($IC_{50} < 0.75$ mg/mL). Chromatographic analysis revealed the presence of quercetin-derived monoglucosides in all samples, such as quercetin-3-O-rhamnoside (~20–22% in crude extract and ethyl acetate fraction) and quercetin-3-O-glucoside in butanolic fraction (20.71%). Crude extract and ethyl acetate fraction at 4% were the most effective treatments to reduce the action of two wood-rot fungi (mass loss < 8%). Overall, leaf extracts from *O. lancifolia* can provide a renewable source of antioxidants and eco-friendly wood preservatives.

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1. Introduction

A constant concern in wood industries is to find alternative methods to prolong service life of wood and its products against biological degradation and preserve the environment. Traditional wood preservatives (creosote, pentachlorophenol, arsenical compounds), owing to environmental reasons, have been banned or have limited use in outdoor applications (Schultz and Nicholas, 2002; Evans, 2003; Singh and Singh, 2012). Against this background, several approaches have been made to enhance the wood durability against different types of rot and environmental factors, such as wood modification by heat treatment (Boonstra et al., 2007), wax treatments (Lesar and Humar, 2011) and by

acetylation (Rowell et al., 2009). Simultaneously, novel eco-friendly preservatives from natural resources have been tested and some of these are actually marketed under the brands LifeTime[®] and Termilone[®] (based on *Eremophila mitchellii* wood oil) (Singh and Singh, 2012).

In this regard, the kingdom *plantae* possess a huge source of active substances, and on average, natural compounds are more easily degradable and safer to human and animal health than some synthetic products (Wang et al., 2005; Harvey, 2008). Phenolic compounds are one of the most widespread groups of secondary metabolites, and are constituted by hydroxylated aromatic rings and functional derivatives (Dai and Mumper, 2010). Taking into account the biological activities detected in phenolic extractives, several studies have been conducted to assess their efficacy against wood-rot fungi (Wang et al., 2005; Sen et al., 2009; Tascioglu et al., 2013; Bento et al., 2014). Moreover, there are certain limitations, including specific legislation remarks, fixation and leachability rates as well as toxicological aspects of the extractives that could

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hinder the commercialization of plant-based preservatives (Sen et al., 2009; Singh and Singh, 2012).

However, some techniques have been recognized as effective for increasing the preservative uptake such as enzymatic polymerization (Rättö et al., 2004), combination of antioxidant additives with organic biocides (Schultz and Nicholas, 2002), or using fixing agents as polymers (Xu et al., 2013). In addition, Life Cycle Assessment (LCA) is a valuable tool to evaluate the environmental performance of treated product from the cradle to the grave, important for selection and use of techniques. In this way, the first step requires gathering basic information about materials and processes for manufacture the desired product in an experimental scale, emphasizing the reduction of environmental impact due to the use of natural compounds (Singh and Singh, 2012; Davidson et al., 2016).

The genus *Ocotea* (Lauraceae) is found mainly in the tropical zones of the world and many of their species are source of diverse products such as natural extracted compounds, fuelwood and timbers of different qualities (Marques, 2001). Besides the previous biological studies of *Ocotea* species from Brazilian flora (Marques et al., 2003; Monte Neto et al., 2007; Barbosa et al., 2013), there are few published studies about *Ocotea lancifolia* (Schott) Mez. This medium-size tree is widely distributed among Cerrado and Atlantic Forest biomes, with a natural distribution of 167 individuals per hectare (França and Stehmann, 2004; Sobral et al., 2006). Moreover, *O. lancifolia*, described as non-toxic, shows a potential source of phytochemicals for medicinal and insecticidal applications (Fournet et al., 2007; Camargo, 2011; Barbosa et al., 2013; Camargo et al., 2013); nevertheless, the way to obtain these value-added products it is through sustainable forest management.

In the approach of multiple-use from natural forests, the present study aims to obtain the leaf crude extract from *Ocotea lancifolia* and its partition to achieve phenolic-rich fractions and perform a detailed characterization in order to find industrial applications as natural antioxidants and wood-preserving bio-agents.

2. Material and methods

2.1. Plant material

Leaves of *Ocotea lancifolia* (Shott) Mez were collected in Santa Maria city (Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil) at 29°37' South and 53°52' West. Plant material was identified by João Batista Baitello and a voucher specimen is archived under number 6399 at the Herbarium of Forest Sciences Department, Federal University of Santa Maria (HDCE/UFMS).

2.2. *Ocotea lancifolia* leaf extracts

Leaves of *Ocotea lancifolia* were air-dried (at 25 °C) and reduced to fine powder (passed through 40-mesh screen) using a laboratory Wiley mill, obtaining 590 g of raw material. Then, it was placed into a Soxhlet apparatus and extracted with ethanol (1:20, material to solvent) under reflux until total exhaustion. The solvent was removed at 50 °C under pressure obtaining 175 g of dried ethanolic extract. Approximately 90 g of this extract was dissolved in distilled water, and fractionated with solvents of increasing polarity by consecutive liquid/liquid partition (Egua et al., 2014). Afterwards, part of the ethyl acetate (EA) and butanolic (BU) fractions and unfractionated ethanolic extract (crude extract; CE) were dissolved in methanol (0.5 mg/mL) in order to measure the total phenolic, flavonoid and condensed tannins contents.

2.3. Total phenolic content

Total phenolic content was determined by Folin-Ciocalteu

technique adapted from Cândido et al. (2015). Aliquots (0.25 mL) of the samples (CE, EA and BU) were mixed with 2.5 mL of distilled water and 0.25 mL of the Folin-Ciocalteu reagent (previously diluted 1:10 with distilled water). After 5 min, 0.25 mL of sodium carbonate (75 mg/mL aqueous solution) was added and adjusted to 10 mL with distilled water. The absorbance was measured at 725 nm after 60 min at room temperature. Gallic acid was used as the standard for calibration curve (0–0.2 mg/mL; $R^2 = 0.990$) and the results were expressed as mg of gallic acid equivalents (GAE) per gram of dried sample.

2.4. Flavonoid content

The $AlCl_3$ method (Metrouh-Amir et al., 2015) was applied to detect flavonoid content of *O. lancifolia* extracts. 1 mL of samples (CE, EA and BU) was added to 2 mL of 2% $AlCl_3$ methanolic solution and the absorbance recorded at 410 nm after 15 min of incubation. Results were shown as mg of quercetin equivalent (QE) per gram of dried sample from the calibration curve (0–0.1 mg/mL; $R^2 = 0.991$).

2.5. Condensed tannins content

Condensed tannins were estimated by the vanillin/ H_2SO_4 assay (Swain and Hillis, 1959). Briefly, 2 mL of vanillin reagent (1 g of vanillin dissolved in 100 mL of sulphuric acid 6.2 M) was mixed with 0.05 mL of samples (CE, EA and BU). The solution was kept at room temperature for 20 min and the absorbance measured at 500 nm. Readings were taken in triplicate and the results were expressed as mg of catechin equivalent (CAE) per gram of dried sample, from the calibration curve (0–0.3 mg/mL; $R^2 = 0.994$) with standard.

2.6. LC-UV/ESI-MS analysis

LC-UV analysis was performed on a UPLC (Waters) system with a UV-visible photodiode array detector (PDA) coupled to a mass spectrometer. The UV spectra were recorded between 200 and 500 nm and specific detection at 280 nm (absorption maximum). An Acquity C₁₈ column (100 × 2.1 mm i.d., 1.7 μm) at 40 °C was used for chromatography separation. The mobile phase was constituted by two solvents: water-formic acid (0.1%, A) and methanol (B), and the elution had the following profile: 0–25 min 95% A, 25–27.7 min 1% A and 27.7–30 min 5% A at a flow rate of 300 μL/min. Samples (CE, EA and BU) were prepared at 200 μg/mL of concentration in methanol: water (1:1) and 10 μL aliquots were injected for analysis.

Mass spectra were acquired using a LCT Premier XE (Waters) equipped with an electrospray ionization (ESI) source operated in the positive mode. The experimental parameters were set as follows: the capillary voltage was 500 V; cone voltage was 100 V and ions were recorded in the range of m/z 100–1000.

2.7. Infrared analysis

Chemical structure of samples (CE, EA and BU) was characterized by Fourier Transform Infrared analysis (FTIR), and the spectra were recorded on a Perkin Elmer spectrophotometer. Few milligrams of the samples were examined using the module for eight scans and the scanning wavelength of infrared was 750–4000 cm^{-1} at a resolution of 4 cm^{-1} . After scanning, the bands of the FTIR profile were assigned and categorized.

2.8. Antioxidant capacities

2.8.1. DPPH scavenging assay

DPPH (1,1-diphenyl-2-picrylhydrazyl) scavenging assay was

carried out following a modified method of Dudonné et al. (2009). Briefly, different concentrations of extract samples in methanol (0.02 mL) were added to 2 mL of DPPH methanol solution (0.06 mM). The absorbance was taken at 517 nm after 30 min of incubation at room temperature. Quercetin was used as positive control. Percent of DPPH radical inhibition was calculated by the following formula:

$$\text{DPPH inhibition} = \frac{A_{\text{control } t=30} - A_{\text{sample } t=30}}{A_{\text{DPPH } t=0}} \times 100 (\%)$$

In this formula, A_{control} : absorbance of the control (2 mL of DPPH solution plus 0.02 mL of methanol), A_{sample} : absorbance of the sample, t : time (min) at which absorbance was read and A_{DPPH} : absorbance of the DPPH solution.

DPPH radical inhibition (IC_{50}) of leaf extracts was calculated by probit analysis and the results were assumed as mg of extractive per mL of solution.

2.8.2. ABTS scavenging assay

The antioxidant activity was also performed by 2,2'-azinobis-(3-ethylbenzothiazoline-6-sulfonic acid) (ABTS) spectrophotometric assay (Re et al., 1999). Extract samples were diluted in methanol to obtain different concentrations and an aliquot (0.04 mL) was added to 2 mL of ABTS radical solution. This solution was prepared mixing ABTS (7 mM) and potassium persulfate (2.45 mM) in water and standing in the dark at room temperature for 12–16 h before use. Then, the absorbance of radical solution was adjusted to 0.60 ± 0.02 at 734 nm in ethanol: water (1:1). The absorption of each sample was measured between 1 and 6 min after being added to the reagent and inhibition rate (%) on ABTS radical was calculated as the DPPH assay.

2.9. Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA)

Thermal behaviour of extracts was conducted in a nitrogen atmosphere using a Mettler Toledo TGA/SDTA RSI analyzer. Samples (5–10 mg) of CE, EA and BU were placed in a crucible and scanned from 25 to 700 °C at a heating rate of 10 °C/min. The gas flow rate was 10 mL/min. For quantitative calculations, response factors between the weight gain (TG) and the mass loss rate (DTG) were determined.

2.10. Solubility of leaf extracts

To investigate the extracts solubility in organic solvents, CE, EA and BU were diluted in ethanol at 1% and 4% w/v. Each sample solution was precisely pipetted (0.02 mL) into a Nexcelom disposable counting chamber [Cellometer Vision equipment (Nexcelom Bioscience LLC, Lawrence, MA)], and the particle dispersion analyzed to determine the concentration of undissolved samples and particles sizes (average size from 1 to 35 μm) by Cellometer software.

2.11. Wood material

For retention, leaching, wood durability and colorimetric analysis, veneer samples from downy birch (*Betula pubescens* L.) and beech (*Fagus sylvatica* L.) were cut into dimensions about 25 mm (T) x 15 mm (L) and with a thickness, approx. of 1.0–2.0 mm. All veneer specimens were oven-dried at 103 ± 2 °C for 24 h, weighed (to the nearest 0.01 g) and sterilized at 120 °C for 15 min. The moisture content of the specimens was calculated in accordance to UNE-EN 13183-1 (2002) (Table 1).

Table 1

Moisture content and thickness of veneer samples control.

Sample	Treatment	Moisture content (103 ± 2 °C)	Thickness (mm)
Beech	Control	6.47 ± 0.58	1.12 ± 0.23
Downy birch	Control	7.29 ± 0.45	2.23 ± 0.28

2.12. Retention test of extracts

In order to determine the retention of the extracts in wood products, veneers were superficially impregnated by immersion (20 h) with the following treatments: CE, EA and BU, diluted in ethanol at 1% and 4% w/v ($n = 6$ treatments, in triplicate). After impregnation period, the samples were oven-dried 103 ± 2 °C for 24 h and the uptake levels due to extract/fractions solutions was calculated based on the following equations:

$$\text{WPG} = \frac{M_1 - M_0}{M_0} \times 100 (\%)$$

where, WPG is the weight percentage gain of veneer sample after impregnation, M_1 is the weight of the sample after test and M_0 is the weight before treatment, both expressed as the dry weights (g) at 103 °C.

$$\text{Uptake} = \frac{M \times C}{V} \times 10 \left(\frac{\text{kg}}{\text{m}^3} \right)$$

In this equation, M : the difference between dry weights ($M_1 - M_0$) in grams, C : grams of extractive in 100 g of the treatment solution and V : volume of veneer sample in cm^3 .

2.13. Leaching test

The leaf extract/fractions fixation efficiency was evaluated by leaching test according the standards UNE-EN 84 (1997) and UNE-CEN/TS 15119-1 (2008). Firstly, the samples (three replicates by treatment) and untreated veneers (controls) were placed into 25 mL of distilled water (grade 3) under vacuum for 20 min (4 Kpa). Then, the leached solution was renewed with fresh water over 14 days (nine replacements). After this process, the leached samples were dried at 103 ± 2 °C for 24 h and the retained rate (%) of leaf extract/fraction was determined by the equation:

$$\text{Retained} = \frac{[\bar{U}_{\text{sample}} - (\bar{WL}_{\text{sample}} - \bar{WL}_{\text{control}})]}{\bar{U}_{\text{sample}}} \times 100 (\%)$$

In this equation, \bar{U}_{sample} : mean uptake level (%) of sample solution after treatment, \bar{WL}_{sample} : mean weight loss (%) of extract sample after leaching test and $\bar{WL}_{\text{control}}$: mean weight loss (%) of control after leaching test.

The extract/fractions loss during the water replacements was tracked by UV spectrophotometer. Firstly, three calibration curves (0–0.25 mg/mL) were performed: CE at 350 nm ($R^2 = 0.997$), EA at 380 nm ($R^2 = 0.999$) and BU at 370 nm ($R^2 = 0.999$). Afterwards, an aliquot (1 mL) of methanol was mixed with 1 mL of leaching water solution of each treatment and quantitative analyzed at corresponding wavelength.

2.14. Colorimetric analysis

The colour of impregnated downy birch and beech veneers were measured by a Konica Minolta CM-2600d device and expressed using the CIE-Lab colour space coordinate system L^* , a^* ,

and b^* (lightness, red-green-axis, and yellow-blue axis). The overall colour changes (ΔL^* ; Δa^* and Δb^*) were also calculated for each treatment and control samples. Furthermore, colorimetric changes due to leaching of impregnated and untreated veneers were followed. The values shown are the average of six measurements for each veneer sample.

2.15. Decay resistance test

To measure the antifungal activity of CE, EA and BU, the white-rot *Trametes versicolor* and brown-rot *Gloeophyllum trabeum* strains were furnished by Laboratory of Forest Products, Federal University of Brasilia, Brasilia, Brazil. The experiment was conducted in petri dishes (9 cm ϕ) pre-inoculated with one mycelium-agar plug. Then, veneers of downy birch impregnated as mentioned in section 2.12 were added and maintained at 23 ± 2 °C and $60 \pm 5\%$ of relative humidity over nine weeks. Four replicates of each impregnation treatment per test fungus were used plus untreated control veneers. Veneers treated with pure solvent (ethanol) was evaluated as negative control. After incubation period, the veneers were carefully cleaned to remove the surface mycelium. The weight loss percent was calculated by the differences between oven-dried weight at 103 ± 2 °C for 24 h before and after the decay test (UNE-CEN/TS 839, 2010).

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Chemical characterization

The amount of total phenolic compounds, flavonoid and condensed tannins showed significant differences ($P < 0.05$; Table 2) between CE and fractions from *Ocotea lancifolia*. As expected, CE showed the lowest polyphenolic contents in all

Table 2

Comparison of total phenolic compounds, flavonoids and condensed tannins contents, and antioxidant activities of *Ocotea lancifolia* leaf extract and corresponding fractions.

Sample	Total phenolic content (mg GAE/g)	Flavonoid content (mg QE/g)	Tannin content (mg CAE/g)	Antioxidant activity IC ₅₀ values (mg/mL)	
				DPPH	ABTS
CE	178.75 \pm 12.9c	83.94 \pm 2.0c	157.60 \pm 2.6b	1.10 \pm 0.1 a	0.31 \pm 0.0 a
EA	360.04 \pm 16.2b	178.93 \pm 1.0a	331.85 \pm 2.4a	0.73 \pm 0.1 b	0.001 \pm 0.0 c
BU	405.09 \pm 16.8a	112.43 \pm 1.9b	324.70 \pm 1.9a	0.57 \pm 0.1 b	0.06 \pm 0.0 b

Data are reported as mean \pm standard deviation. Different letters within the columns refer to means statistically different by Tukey's post hoc test ($P < 0.05$).

CE: Crude extract; EA: Ethyl acetate fraction; BU: Butanolic fraction; GAE: Gallic acid equivalent; QE: Quercetin equivalent; CAE: Catechin equivalent.

Table 3

Phenolic compounds detected in *Ocotea lancifolia* leaf extract and corresponding fractions by LC-UV/ESI-MS, in the positive mode.

Proposed structure	Peak	Rt (min)	λ_{\max} (nm)	MW	[M+H] ⁺ (m/z)	[M+Na] ⁺ (m/z)	Fragment ions (m/z)	% Estimated		
								CE	EA	BU
Quercetin-3-O-glucoside	A	10.16–10.24	256, 354	464	465	487	303	8.62	7.44	20.71
Quercetin-3-O-glucoside	A*	10.41	256, 354	464	465	487	303	–	5.72	–
Quercetin-3-O-arabinoside	B	10.61–10.65	255, 354	434	ND	457	303 , 312, 289	2.77	5.12	–
Kaempferol-3-O-glucoside	C	11.12	264, 351	448	449	471	287 , 317	–	–	20.96
Quercetin-3-O-glucuronide	D	11.43	264, 350	478	ND	501	303	–	–	25.19
Quercetin-3-O-rhamnoside	E	11.43–11.44	256, 349	448	ND	471	291 , 303 , 265	20.85	22.94	–
Isorhamnetin-3-O-glucoside 7-O-rhamnoside	F	11.64–11.70	254, 353	624	625	647	317 , 291	7.01	–	7.71
Kaempferol-3-O-pentoside	G	12.30	264, 348	418	ND	441	287 , 291	5.05	10.39	–
Catechin/Epicatechin	H	15.27	252	290	291	313	ND	–	0.35	–
Total identified								44.30	51.96	74.57

The base peaks are in bold; Rt: Retention time; A*: Diametric adduct; ND: not detected. CE: Crude extract; EA: Ethyl acetate fraction; BU: Butanolic fraction.

evaluated assays. In the case of ethanolic extracts, unwanted compounds are also extracted (organic acids, sugars, chlorophylls, terpenoid derivatives and lipids) and can affect the chemical determination of polyphenolic derivatives (Chirinos et al., 2007). Thus, the purification process is necessary to obtain polyphenol-rich fractions with low impurities content (Chirinos et al., 2007; Dai and Mumper, 2010). The solubility of compounds is influenced by the solvent nature and their polarity (Naczek and Shahidi, 2004).

The fractions EA and BU presented superior results in terms of polyphenols, but significant differences occurred in the flavonoid and total phenolic content assays (Table 2). The flavonoids are a group of phenolic compounds with low molecular weight and wide structural diversity based on functional attachments produced through oxidation, glycosylation and methylation (Harborne and Williams, 2000). Thus, these chemical variations promote polarity deviations that affects their solubility.

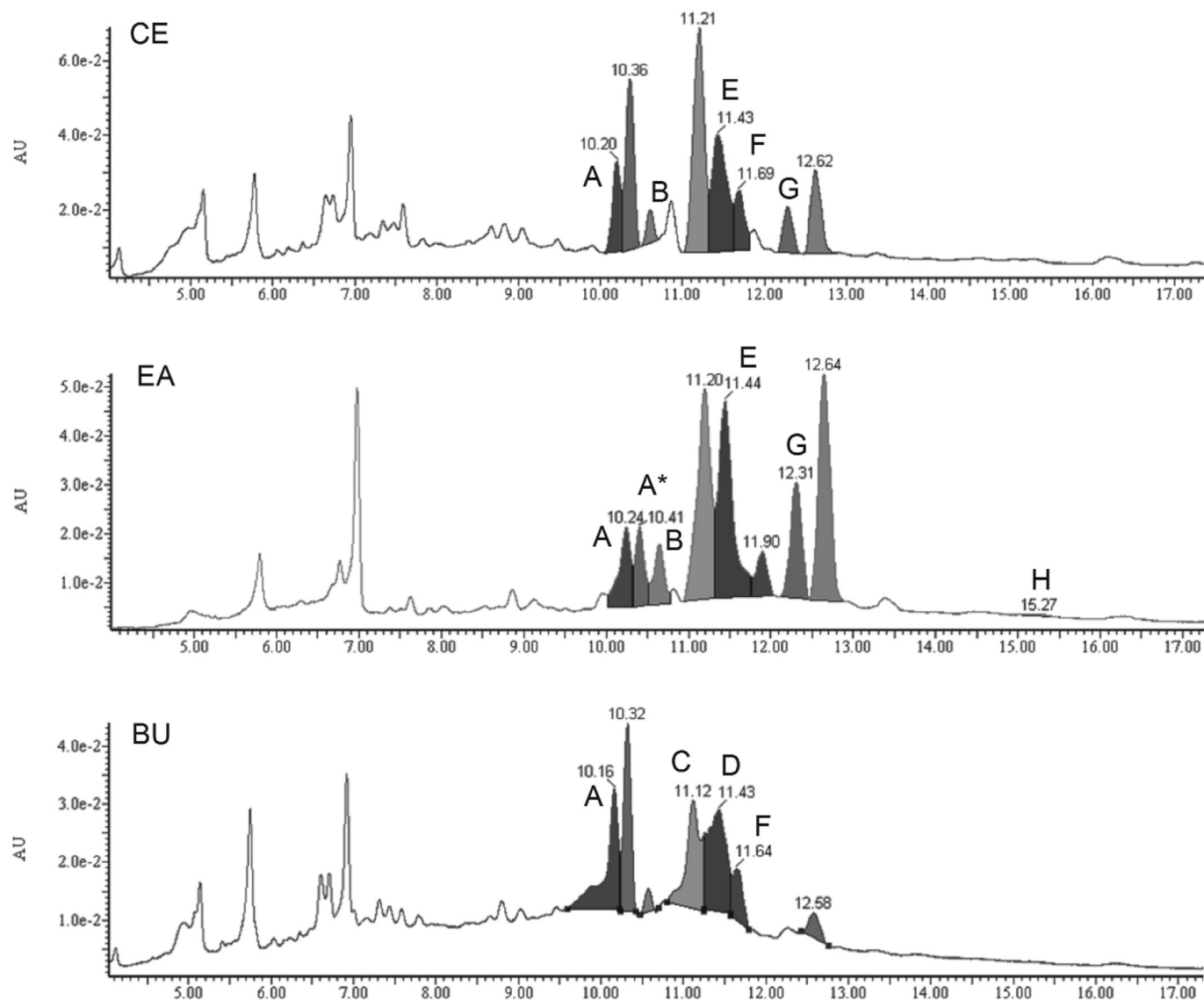
The higher flavonoid yield in EA (178.93 \pm 1.0 mg QE/g) compared with BU (112.43 \pm 1.9 mg QE/g) can be explained by the existence of less polar substances in this class of *O. lancifolia* leaf extracts. Concerning the total phenolic content, BU showed maximum value of the samples tested, and this content is due to compounds of higher polarity, such as tannins.

Several methods have been used for determining the phenolics in plant extracts. Among these techniques, HPLC is the most widely used and usually carried out with a UV/Vis and MS detectors to elucidate its composition (Naczek and Shahidi, 2004; Costa et al., 2015). By using this technique, several phenolic compounds found in leaf extract/fractions from *O. lancifolia* were identified and summarized in Table 3.

This analysis was effective to identify approximately 44%, 51% and 74% of the total composition of CE, EA and BU, respectively. Among the eight identified structures in the LC-UV/PAD chromatograms (Fig. 1), mainly flavonoid monoglucosides derived from quercetin were found in all the analyzed samples. This flavonoid profile is often described as part of the chemical composition of *Ocotea* sp. extracts (Batista et al., 2010; Garrett et al., 2012).

The low concentration of polyphenols detected in CE can be due to the presence of interfering substances, as mentioned above (Dai and Mumper, 2010). This fact limits the standardization of methodologies for separation, identification and quantitation of all phenolics found in samples with high recovery (Costa et al., 2015). However, among the five polyphenols identified in the CE, quercetin-3-O-rhamnoside was the most abundant (20.85%, Fig. 1).

In the same way, EA contained 22.94% of quercetin-3-O-rhamnoside along with four monoglucosides derived from quercetin and kaempferol. Ethyl acetate is a less polar solvent, which concentrates phenolic compounds, and presents the most appropriate polarity to the solubilization of less polar monoglucosides. Otherwise, as



Peak C

Peak D

Peak E

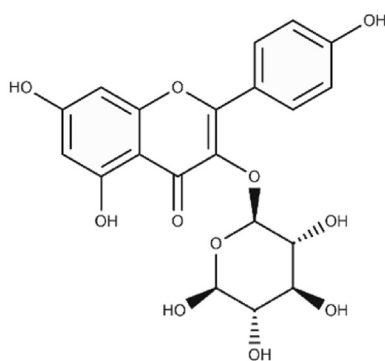
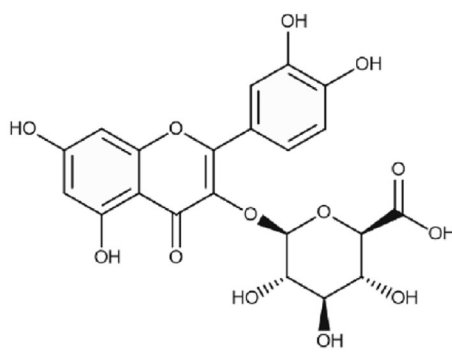
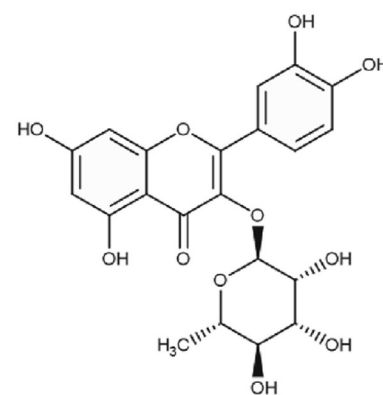
Kaempferol-3-*O*-glucosideQuercetin-3-*O*-glucuronideQuercetin-3-*O*-rhamnoside

Fig. 1. LC-UV/PAD chromatograms at 280 nm of the leaf extract and fractions from *Ocotea lancifolia* and chemical structures of the three main identified compounds (Peak labels are listed in Table 2). CE: Crude extract; EA: Ethyl acetate fraction; BU: Butanolic fraction.

expected, BU contained more polar compounds and exhibits, besides three monoglucosides, the presence of diglucoside (isorhamnetin-3-O-glucoside-7-O-rhamnoside).

3.2. Structure analysis

The FTIR spectra (Fig. 2) of leaf extract/fractions from *O. lancifolia* exhibited slight variations in bands of absorbance and show the presence of alcohol, phenol, carbonyl and amine functional groups. The stretching vibration at 3500–3200 cm^{-1} , correspond to hydroxyl group in aliphatic, phenolic and acid structures. The stretching vibrations corresponding to the peaks between 2950 and 2850 cm^{-1} could be assigned to C–H stretch of aliphatic structures ($-\text{CH}_2$ and $-\text{CH}_3$), and were only visible on CE and EA. Likewise, the band at approximately 1705 cm^{-1} characterizes the presence of carbonyl groups (C=O) is not visible in BU fraction. This fact is in accordance with its major chemical composition, in which prevail tannins.

Moreover, the peaks 1600 cm^{-1} and 1550–1400 cm^{-1} (C=C vibration of aromatic rings) present the same intensity in all extracts. The peak at 1358 cm^{-1} could be assigned to O–H in plane bending vibration. A weak peak at 1240 cm^{-1} is due to the C–O stretching vibrations of alcohols and phenols. The peak at 885 cm^{-1} was assigned to aromatic C–H out of plane vibration.

The main differences were found in BU when compared with other analyzed samples, presenting less vibration on C–H bands. However, the occurrence of O–H groups in all extracts confirmed the presence of phenolic substances in *O. lancifolia* such as flavonoids and tannins as well as compounds with COOH functional groups, as phenolic organic acids, which frequently occur in plant secondary metabolites. On the other hand, the weak peak at 1240 cm^{-1} may also characterize C–N stretching vibrations of isoquinoline alkaloids, which often have aromatic rings in their structures and have been described in *Ocotea* species (Fournet et al., 2007).

3.3. Antioxidant activities

Leaf extract/fractions from *O. lancifolia* exhibited scavenging activities against DPPH and ABTS free radicals in a concentration-dependent manner. As expected, the fractions presented lower

IC₅₀ values when compared to the CE (Table 2). The antioxidant capacities of CE were relatively lower than quercetin (antioxidant used as positive control), but was enough to reduce approximately 80% of both free radicals at 2 mg/mL.

The antioxidant activity of the tested samples based on estimated IC₅₀ values, when considered with DPPH radical inhibition, presented the following order: quercetin > BU and EA > CE. In ABTS radical assay, a similar pattern was detected. Based on the IC₅₀ values, the samples exhibited ABTS scavenging capacity as follows: quercetin and EA > BU > CE.

Despite impurities, results indicate the CE sample shows scavenging activity on tested radicals. According to Dudonné et al. (2009), the quantity of phenolic compounds in plant extracts contributes strongly to its antioxidant capacity, as demonstrated by the studied fractions. Furthermore, natural antioxidants are an interesting alternative due to their variety of structures and chemical interactions, and can insure safety and quality of different products (Kasangana et al., 2015).

3.4. TGA

The thermogravimetric analysis shows the decomposition temperatures of the materials, and appears as shoulders in the TG and as peaks in the DTG curves (Shebani et al., 2008). Results of TG/DTG analysis under nitrogen atmosphere of *O. lancifolia* leaf extracts are illustrated in Fig. 3.

The degradation starts at onset temperature (T_0), and corresponds to dehydration of the sample (70–160 °C), caused by moisture removal (Odetoje et al., 2013). The corresponding peak is more intense on EA, where 9.24% of the total sample was lost by water desorption, while in the CE and BU, this value ranged between 4 and 6%.

In the case of the CE, the decomposition process continued two steps more: T_1 at 250 °C, resulting in a weight loss of about 27.76% and T_2 at 365 °C. The DTG profile of EA showed a slight peak at 243 °C (T_1) with a maximum rate of weight loss at 310 °C (T_2). Otherwise, the thermal analysis of BU fraction exhibited a different DTG curve, with a main loss-mass peak at 280 °C (T_1), which correspond to a 23.01% sample decrease.

The residual weight of extracts at 700 °C amounting between 2.16 and 3.38 mg, where the highest extract residue was

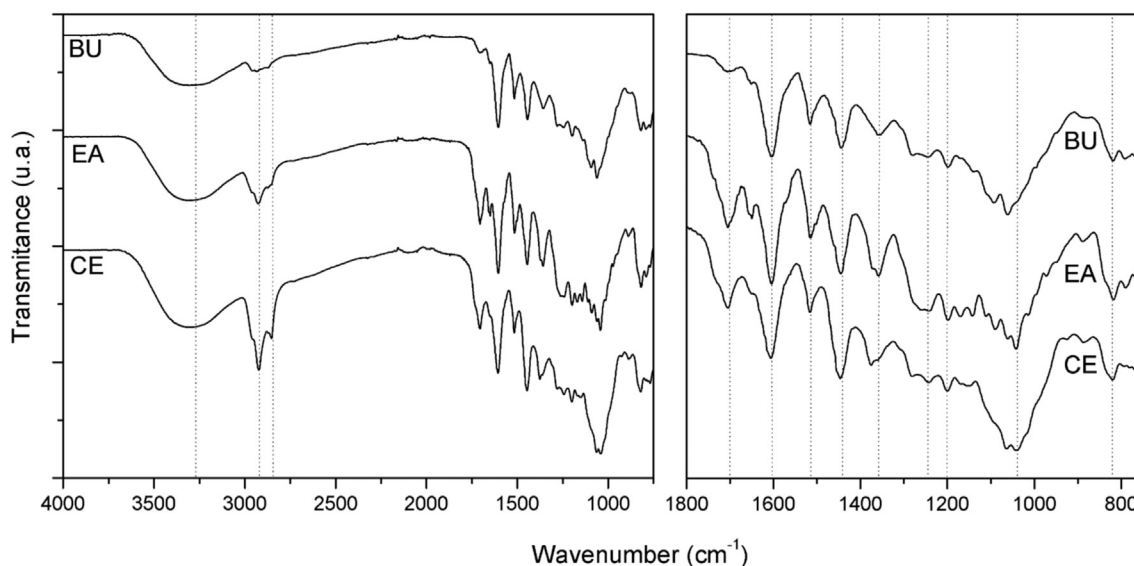


Fig. 2. FTIR spectra of leaf extract and corresponding fractions obtained from *Ocotea lancifolia*. Wavenumber range 4000–800 cm^{-1} (left) and fingerprint region 1800–800 cm^{-1} (right).

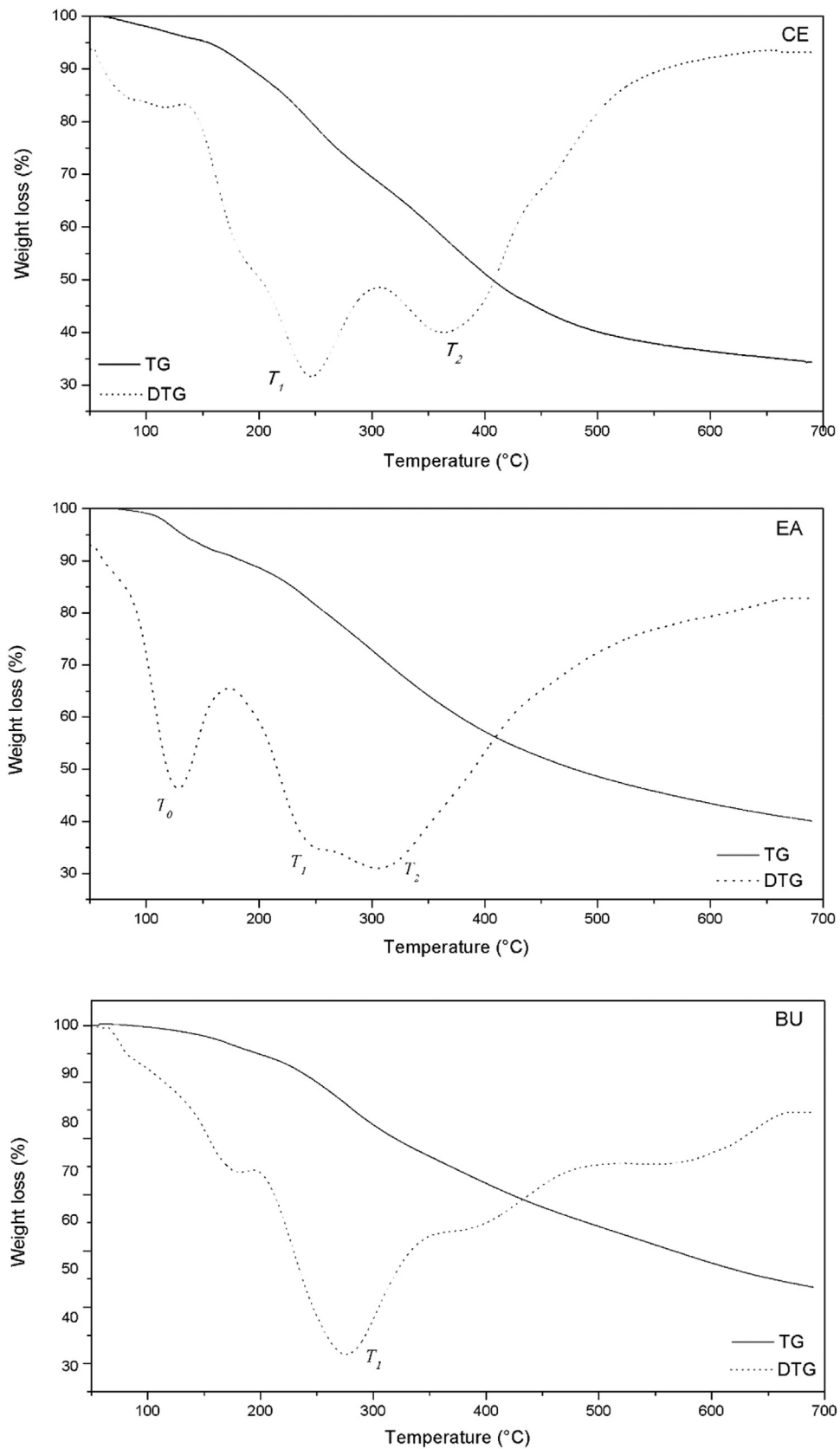


Fig. 3. TG and DTG curves of crude extract (CE) and corresponding fractions (EA: ethyl acetate; BU: butanolic) obtained from *Ocotea lancifolia*.

determined for BU (46.48%) and the lowest for CE (34.58%). The fraction EA showed a weight loss of about 40.65%.

The difference found among the analyzed samples could be explained by decomposition of CE in the different fractions (Ross et al., 2009), since they may contain impurities, as mentioned above. Furthermore, the purification process of CE clearly resulted in two fractions with more purity concerning the polyphenolic compounds and stability. In addition, substances with similar degradation profiles compose both evaluated fractions.

3.5. Solubility and retention measurement

The solubility study of *O. lancifolia* leaf extract/fractions in ethanol displays some interesting results about size distribution and concentration of its undissolved particles (per μL of solution) (Fig. 4).

In this way, fractions presented better solubility in ethanol than CE, with EA being the most soluble, showing a precipitated concentration of 113 particles/L at 1% and 116 particles/ μL at 4%. However, 172 and 256 particles/ μL was found for BU fraction tested at 1% and 4%, respectively. Conversely, for CE, the concentration of undissolved particles was about 468/ μL at 1% and 283/ μL at 4%.

Analyzing the particle size in each extract solution at 1%, a similar average size of 6 μm was found, indicating that fractionation of CE decreases the impurities or particle heterogeneity, and thus, the fractions were better solubilized. On the other hand, in the dissolutions at 4%, the average size of particles remained stable in EA and slightly increased in BU. However, the particle size in CE reached 8 μm ; this increase value is probably due to oversaturation of BU solution and subsequent formation of agglomerates.

Concerning the uptake levels of CE and fractions on veneer samples, similar profiles between the evaluated treatments and wood species were found (Table 4). Veneers treated with extract/fractions at 1% showed WPG of approximately 1.0–1.4%. However, impregnation with 4% concentration of extract/fractions reached a maximum WPG of 3.6% using beech veneer and EA. Control veneers (treated with pure solvent) did not affect the uptake data since weight changes were not observed in the veneers.

The penetration of extracts into wood is very difficult because of its porous structure in addition to the morphological characters of the natural extract (Sen et al., 2009). Since only softwoods were tested, such results in penetration depth of solutions can be correlated with the particle size of extracts, especially in the veneers treated with 1% of extracts.

Furthermore, to achieve a successful product, it is necessary to obtain a permanent high uptake of the tested samples, perhaps using additives that bond chemically to the extracts and thus contribute to permanent penetration into the wood (Sen et al., 2009). The addition of wood preservative salts such as borax and aluminium sulphate or boric acid at lower concentrations (~1%) has been shown to be effective to increase the uptake levels of extracts into wood-based products (Bernardi and Popoff, 2009; Sen et al., 2009).

3.6. Leachability and colorimetric results

Leaching provides fast assessment of extracts to obtain an approximation of changes during service life and an important step to determine the antifungal resistance. Fig. 5 shows the leaf extract/fractions retention by the impregnated veneers after leaching and quantification of extract/fraction emission ($\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$) using UV spectrometry. Differences on the fixation levels between the leaf extract/fractions, concentrations and veneer samples were observed.

Fixation of EA and BU were more efficient at 1% concentration (40–50%) compared with CE (around 30%), when using downy

birch veneers. Conversely, the uptake level on beech veneers was only better with BU (about 57%). Comparing the extracts at 4%, CE and EA have a high retained rate (about 40–50%) and BU showed lower retention values (approx. 30%), using either veneers.

These results did not show tendency regarding the extract/fraction used, but the increasing concentration showed a positive effect on CE and EA, with lower leaching rate. An explanation of behaviour of veneers treated with 4% of BU can be attributed to unfixed fraction on wood surfaces, which can be easily leached (Sen et al., 2009).

At the same time as the leaching test, aliquots of water in contact with samples were analyzed by UV spectrometry, since all phenolic compounds exhibit intense absorption in the UV region of the spectrum. Consequently, it was possible to confirm the leaf extract/fractions emissions from the impregnated veneers during the test.

The results indicated that the release of phenolic compounds was more pronounced on veneers impregnated at 4%, mainly on the first four water replacements and for BU (Fig. 5, right side). On the other hand, at concentration 1% the emission of phenolic compounds was lower, steady and slightly higher in BU. In fact, the remaining extracts exhibit solubility in water, mainly those found in the BU, which is majority composed by glycosylated substances and tannins.

Comparing the total quantity of extract emissions for both veneers species, the highest emission was obtained from the samples treated with BU 4% (326.33 and 340.27 mg/m^2 for beech and downy birch, respectively) and the lowest result was determined from the samples treated with EA 1% (131.82 and 119.10 mg/m^2 for beech and downy birch, respectively). These values were above those found for copper emissions from wood treated with copper-based preservatives (Temiz et al., 2014). The daily leaching of extracts (flux $\text{mg}/\text{m}^2/\text{day}$) decrease significantly after the first four water replacements, and at end of the test, the emission flux ranged from 0.46 $\text{mg}/\text{m}^2/\text{day}$ to 1.88 $\text{mg}/\text{m}^2/\text{day}$.

Regarding the colorimetric results, Fig. 6 shows the colorimetric parameters (L^* , a^* , b^* , ΔL^* , Δa^* , Δb^*) of veneer samples before and after the leaching test. Firstly, the colour setup was measured according to the colorimetric profile of the raw veneer used; the veneers presented high lightness ($L^* = 60\%$ to 80%) and a^* and b^* values were average. The effect of impregnation on veneers was clearly detected only in the L^* value, with decreasing of L^* in all samples after impregnation, as well as at higher concentration of the extract/fractions.

Changes in the lightness values were expected because the extracts present a dark appearance and the L^* value on the impregnated substrate should gradually decrease with the extract/fractions concentration, since these samples are precursors to stain formation (Sandoval-Torres et al., 2010). After leaching of samples, the variation in colour parameters showed different trends. On untreated veneers a clear decrease of parameters L^* a^* b^* was observed with pronounced changes in a^* and b^* , representing an approximation to the grey values (Pandey, 2005).

Concerning the impregnated and washed samples, the lightness increased on beech veneers especially at a concentration of 1%. Besides, the parameter a^* progressively decreased with beech veneers and b^* remained relatively stable. According to Gierlinger et al. (2004), the redness (a^*) and lightness (L^*) index are more correlated with wood extractive content and in this study additional extracts were impregnated by immersion. The leached beech veneers did not show a clear trend, but L^* index increased after the leaching cycles and variations in the yellowness index b^* were more pronounced. According to Sandoval-Torres et al. (2010) the b^* index is more affected by environmental factors than L^* and a^* index, and is primarily related to the lignin photochemistry of wood samples.

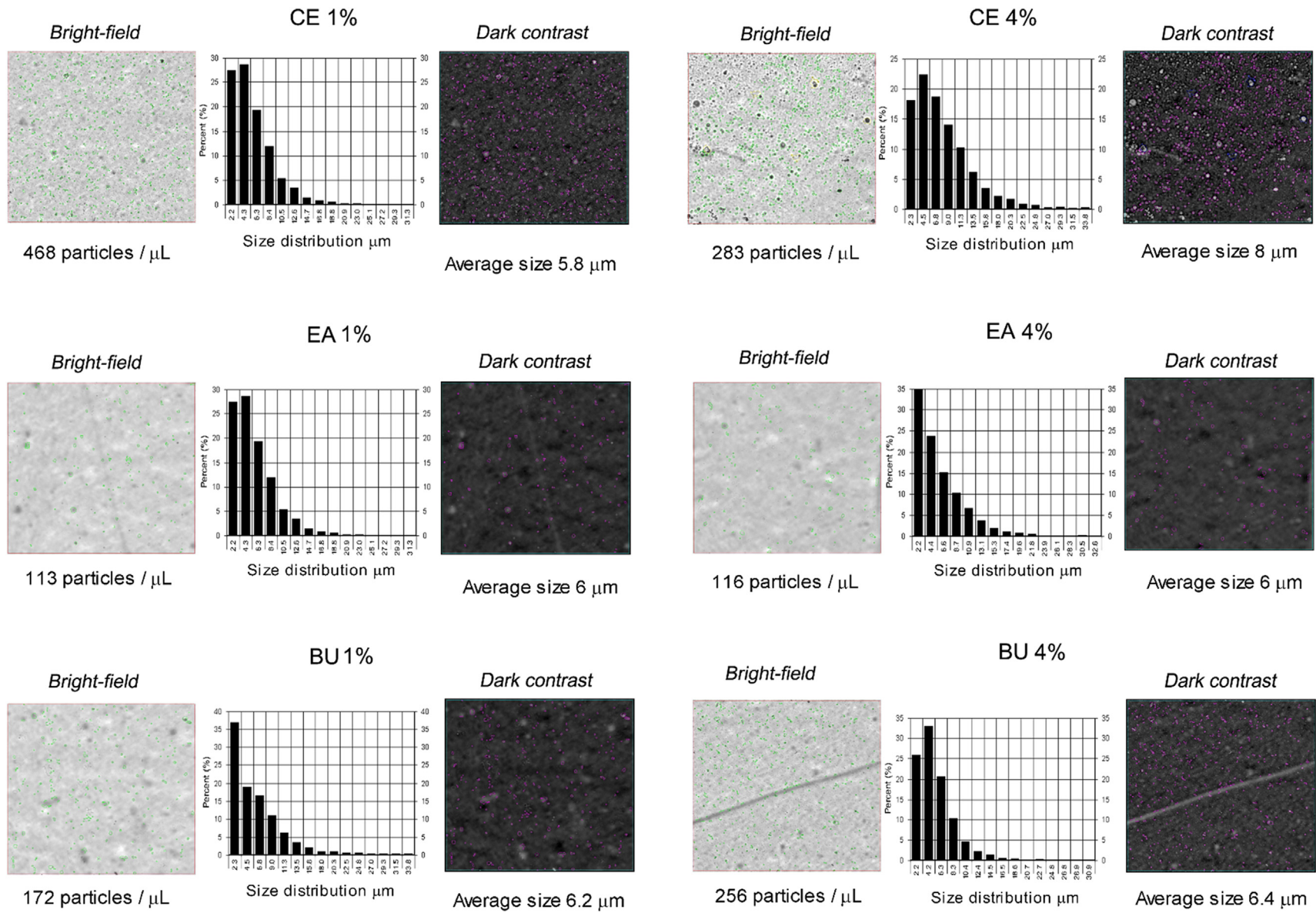


Fig. 4. Dispersion measurement of *Ocotea lancifolia* leaf extract and corresponding fractions with ethanol as solvent. CE: Crude extract; EA: Ethyl acetate fraction; BU; Butanolic fraction.

Table 4

Uptake levels of wood species treated with *Ocotea lancifolia* leaf extract and corresponding fractions.

	Solutions and concentrations	Wood samples	Uptake levels	
			%	kg/m ³
1	1% CE	Downy birch	1.4 ± 0.4	0.09 ± 0.03
		Beech	1.4 ± 0.3	0.10 ± 0.02
2	4% CE	Downy birch	3.3 ± 1.3	0.83 ± 0.03
		Beech	3.3 ± 0.9	0.94 ± 0.25
3	1% EA	Downy birch	1.2 ± 0.3	0.08 ± 0.02
		Beech	1.3 ± 0.2	0.08 ± 0.01
4	4% EA	Downy birch	3.3 ± 1.1	0.82 ± 0.28
		Beech	3.6 ± 0.5	1.01 ± 0.15
5	1% BU	Downy birch	1.1 ± 0.4	0.07 ± 0.03
		Beech	1.4 ± 0.3	0.10 ± 0.02
6	4% BU	Downy birch	3.2 ± 0.6	0.79 ± 0.15
		Beech	2.7 ± 0.3	0.77 ± 0.08

Data are reported as mean ± standard deviation. CE: Crude extract; EA: Ethyl acetate fraction; BU: Butanolic fraction.

3.7. Decay resistance test

Average mass loss (%) for the downy birch veneers exposed to *G. trabeum* and *T. versicolor* are shown in Table 5. The effects of extract/fractions and concentrations on the mass loss for all fungi species were evaluated by statistical approach.

Untreated control samples of downy birch gave mean mass loss of 48.1%, indicating strong fungal activity of white-rot fungi under

the test conditions. A linear relationship was found between concentration and mass loss when veneers treated with CE and EA were compared. However, the increased concentration did not reduce mass loss of veneers impregnated with BU. This fraction presented the lowest antifungal effect, reaching 68.7% of mass loss when in contact with white-rot fungus, and can be considered as non-resistant to *T. versicolor* (ASTM D2017-81, 1995ASTM, astm:1995).

Results of brown-rot fungi test (*G. trabeum*) showed similar mass loss trend to that found in the white-rot fungi assay. At the end of the test period, exposure to *G. trabeum* resulted in 48.2% of mass loss for downy birch control samples. Increases in extractive solution concentrations resulted in significant reductions of mass loss in veneers treated with CE and EA. The highest antifungal activity was recorded on veneers treated with CE and EA at 4% (mass loss of 6.6% and 7.2%, respectively); these values are consistent with the “highly resistance class” (ASTM D2017-81, 1995ASTM, astm:1995). Veneers treated with ethanol did not shown any effect on durability of the tested samples.

According to Eaton and Hale (1993), wood samples exposed to white-rot fungus, generally exhibited more weight loss than brown-rot fungi. This fact was not observed in our study, since both fungal species degraded the untreated downy birch veneers with equivalent intensity. Furthermore, the results indicate a slight higher susceptibility of the white-rot fungi to CE and EA tested. On the other hand, downy birch veneers impregnated with BU promoted a higher growth of *T. versicolor* than control, although

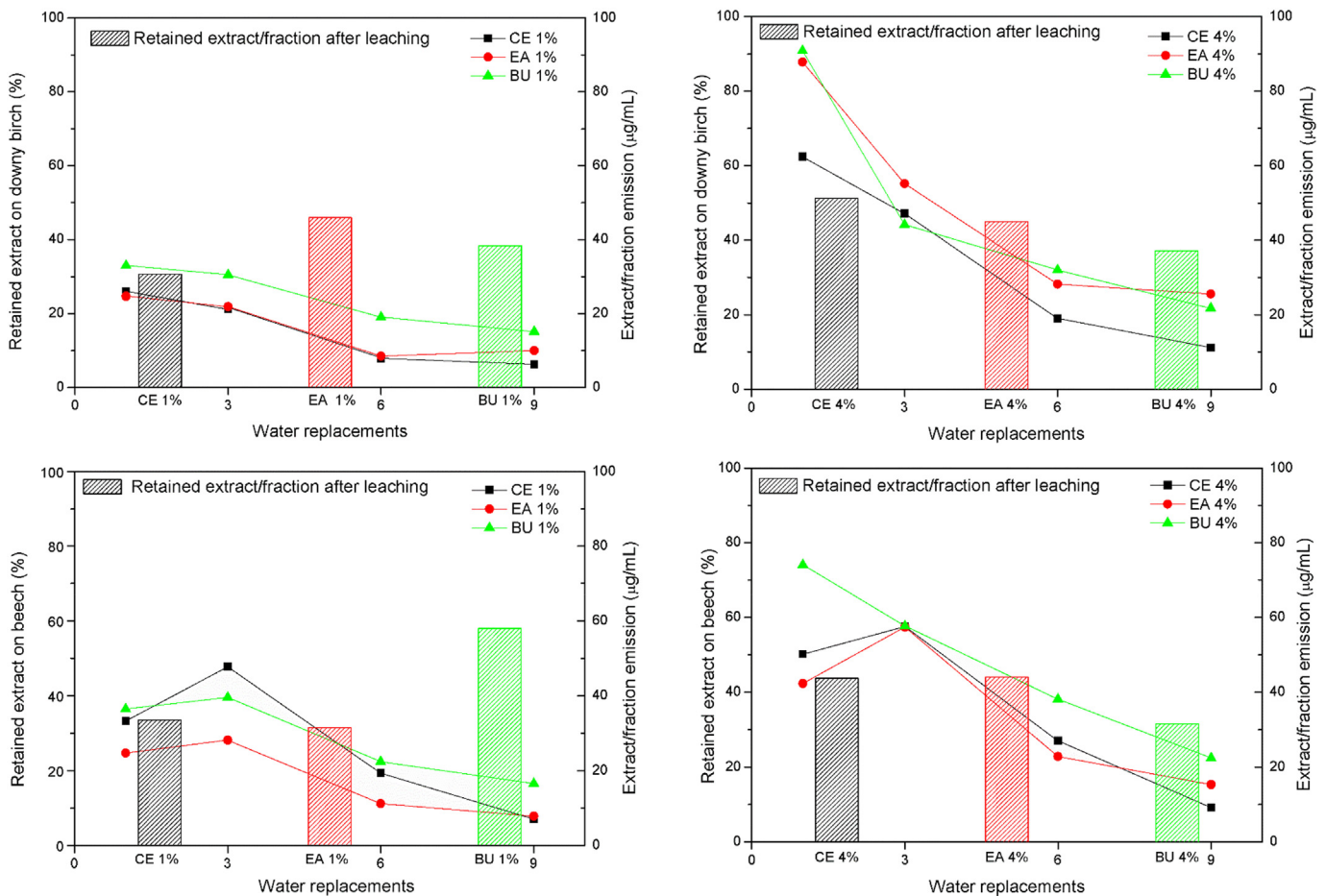


Fig. 5. Measurement of *Ocotea lancifolia* leaf extract and corresponding fractions on veneers after leaching cycles and UV evaluation of extract/fraction emission. CE: Crude extract; EA: Ethyl acetate fraction; BU: Butanolic fraction.

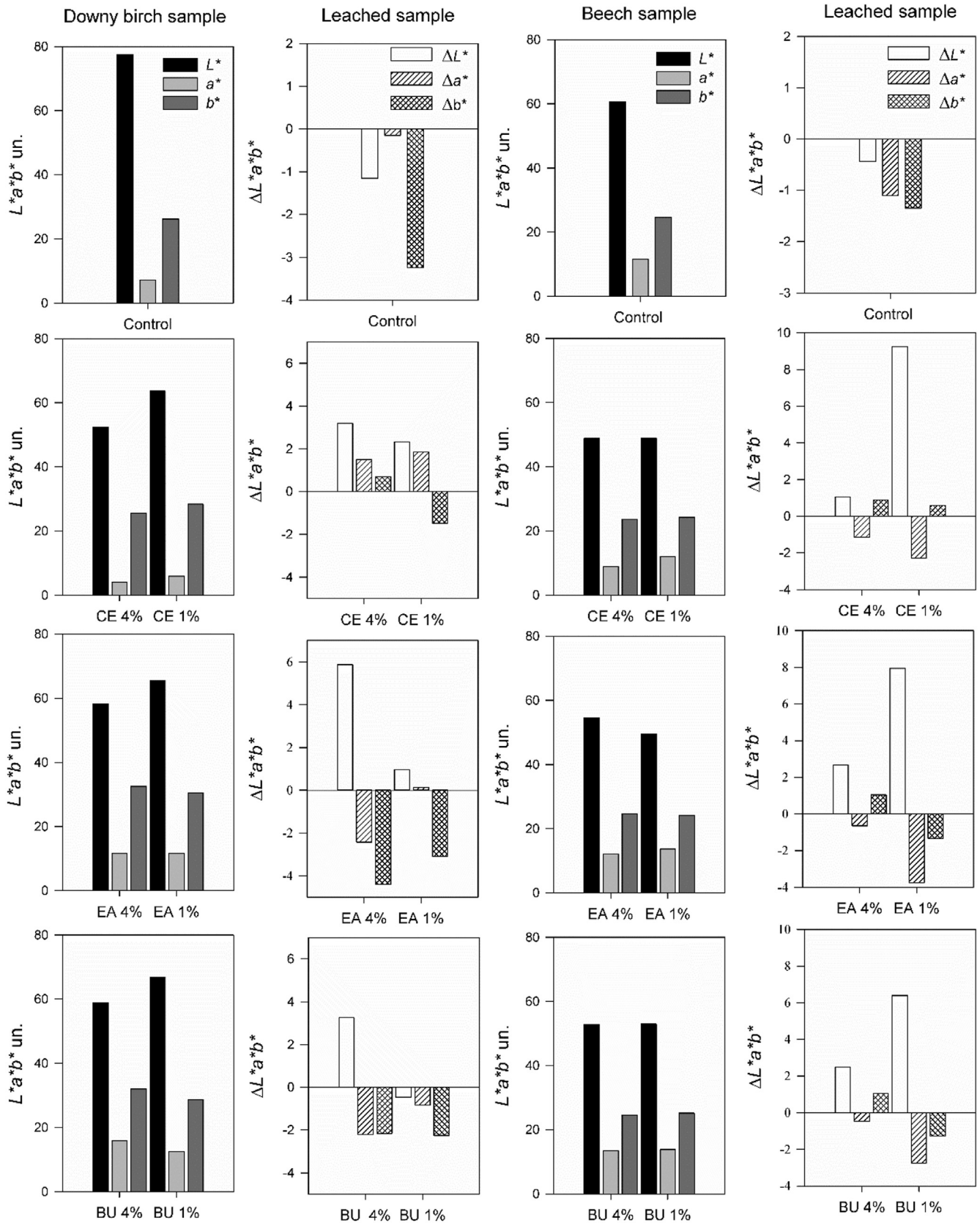


Fig. 6. Colorimetric determinations of veneers samples impregnated with *Ocotea lancifolia* leaf extract and corresponding fractions, before and after leaching test. CE: Crude extract; EA: Ethyl acetate fraction; BU: Butanolic fraction. L^* : Lightness index; a^* : Redness index; b^* : Yellowness index.

Table 5

Average mass loss (%) of downy birch veneers treated with different concentrations of *Ocotea lancifolia* leaf extract and corresponding fractions due to fungi-induced decay after nine weeks.

No.	Treatment	Mass loss (%)	
		<i>G. trabeum</i>	<i>T. versicolor</i>
1	CE 1%	15.5 ± 5.1ab	57.7 ± 24.1b
2	CE 4%	6.6 ± 2.7a	3.1 ± 0.6a
3	EA 1%	17.5 ± 3.7b	1.8 ± 0.4a
4	EA 4%	7.2 ± 5.2a	2.3 ± 0.7a
5	BU 1%	18.5 ± 5.8b	68.7 ± 8.0b
6	BU 4%	22.9 ± 3.8b	55.4 ± 10.5b
	Control samples	48.2 ± 9.3c	48.1 ± 6.6b

Data are reported as mean ± standard deviation. Different letters within the columns refer to means statistically different by Tukey test ($P < 0.05$). CE: Crude extract; EA: Ethyl acetate fraction; BU: Butanolic fraction.

statistical differences were not detected. Dorado et al. (2001) reported that especially white-rot fungi could use some extractives as food source.

The samples CE and EA at 4% of concentration level showed significantly high antifungal strength against both fungal species tested, indicating that these extracts can impart significant resistance against wood-rot fungi. The positive effect of plant extracts on reducing biological attack on wood-based products has already been described (Yen and Chang, 2008; Sen et al., 2009; Xu et al., 2013). It is remarkable that the CE sample can contain high amounts of sesquiterpenoids as caryophyllene oxide (Silva et al., 2013). This compound has been described as antifungal agent (Yang et al., 2000) suggesting the role of sesquiterpenoids in the decay resistance of CE.

In addition, *O. lancifolia* leaf extracts showed similar effectiveness compared with other plant-based preservatives, even at lower concentrations. For example, treatments prepared with 10% of camphor leaf extracts showed antifungal effect in bamboo samples, losing less than 17% of mass after fungal exposure (Xu et al., 2013); besides, treatments with cinnamaldehyde at 1% reduced fungal attack on wood between 10 and 20% (Chittenden and Singh, 2011). Some commercial extracts such as *Rhus coriaria*, *Quercus macrolepis* and *Pinus brutia* (tannin-rich extractives) were used to impregnate beech specimens leading to a mass reductions between 4 and 13%, when tested at 4% concentration level (Sen et al., 2009). In another study, high antifungal properties were observed for mimosa and quebracho extracts assessed at 9% and 12% of preservative solutions (Tascioglu et al., 2013).

4. Conclusions

In this study crude extract and phenolic-rich fractions of *Ocotea lancifolia* leaves were characterized and their antioxidant and antifungal activities were reported. Overall, the refined fractions presented superior thermal stability, higher phenolic content and antioxidant activity than crude extract. However, the butanolic fraction was not effective against wood-rot fungi unlike the ethyl acetate fraction. Despite impurities, the crude extract reduced the fungal attack on downy birch veneer samples. According to the results, crude extract and ethyl acetate fraction at 4% showed good performance as plant-based preservative compared to untreated veneer. Moreover, this work opened new perspectives for *Ocotea lancifolia* leaf extracts as a source of antioxidants.

Acknowledgements

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4 ARTIGO 4 – Effect of extraction methods on phytochemicals, thermal stability and antioxidant activity of *Nectandra grandiflora* Nees leaves

O artigo *Effect of extraction methods on phytochemicals, thermal stability and antioxidant activity of Nectandra grandiflora Nees leaves* está formatado de acordo com o normas dessa Universidade.

EFFECT OF EXTRACTION METHODS ON PHYTOCHEMICALS, THERMAL STABILITY AND ANTIOXIDANT ACTIVITY OF *Nectandra grandiflora* NEES LEAVES

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ABSTRACT

This study is aimed to investigate the effect of three different extraction methods (conventional using Soxhlet, ultrasound-assisted and microwave-assisted) on phytochemical yield, phenolic composition, physical characteristics, and antioxidant property of *Nectandra grandiflora* leaves. Results indicate conventional method extracted the maximal yield of phytochemicals (22.16%). However, the chemical composition was similar in the obtained extracts, confirmed firstly, by infrared spectra and then by chromatographic analysis. By this last analysis, quercetin-3-*O*-rhamnoside was detected as the major constituent (57.75-65.14%). Conventional method provide an ethanolic extract with superior thermal stability than those achieved by ultrasound and microwave-assisted extraction, defined by the remnant mass at the end of the pyrolysis process. Furthermore, the extraction methods weakly affected the antioxidant capacities and high radical inhibition results were found for *N. grandiflora* extracts (> 80% at 2 mg mL⁻¹). Overall, the evaluated extraction methods were effective on providing ethanolic extracts from *N. grandiflora* as potential natural antioxidants.

Keywords: Bioactive compounds, Extraction methods, Lauraceae, Natural antioxidants, Quercitrin.

1. INTRODUCTION

Nectandra grandiflora Nees (Family Lauraceae), commonly known as “canela-amarela” or “canela-fedida”, is a medium-sized tree with white flowers, endemic of Brazilian Atlantic forest and Cerrado biomes (LORENZI, 2002). This species is used in traditional medicine, mainly for its diuretic, digestive and antirheumatic properties (CORRÊA, 1984). There are few scientific studies available regarding its bioactive phenolic compounds. Flavonoid glycosides and neolignans were detected in the leaf extracts of this plant (RIBEIRO; SILVA; BOLZANI, 2002; RIBEIRO et al., 2005); however, these studies have been focused on conventional extraction (Soxhlet).

Several techniques have been described for extracting active compounds from plants during the last years. These procedures include the traditional Soxhlet and heat reflux extraction (PAN; NIU; LIU, 2002; YANG et al., 2013), ultrasound-assisted extraction (HEMWIMOL; PAVASANT; SHOTIPRUK, 2006; RODRÍGUEZ-PÉREZ et al., 2015) and microwave-assisted extraction (ZHANG; YANG; LIU, 2008; DAHMOUNE et al., 2015). Besides, supercritical fluid and pressurized extraction (CASTRO-VARGAS et al., 2010; MONRAD et al., 2010) or the combination of these extraction techniques have also been applied (WEI et al., 2013).

On the other hand, many natural matrix products are thermally unstable and may degrade under thermal extraction (WEI et al., 2013). Besides, large consumption of solvents, energy and lengthy extraction time are some drawbacks that should be taken into account. The ideal extraction procedure has to retain the maximum of the bioactive constituents in a shortest processing time with low economic costs (WANG et al., 2016) and low environmental impact (VILKHU et al., 2008). Additionally, the method should be simple, safer for users and present a level of automation for industrial application (VILKHU et al., 2008; ZHANG et al., 2016).

In general, the selection of an appropriate extraction procedure depends on the type of compound to be extracted as well as the development of the technique (WIJNGAARD et al., 2012). Several studies reported the efficiency of microwave-assisted extraction (MAE) and ultrasound-assisted extraction (UAE) for increasing the content of polyphenols (DAHMOUNE et al., 2015; NGUYEN et al., 2015). In MAE, the microwave energy is used to heat polar solvents in contact with solid samples for recovering the target compounds (DELAZAR et al., 2012). Likewise, the UAE involves a superficial disrupt of plant tissue, allowing the penetration of solvent into cell walls through the acoustic cavitation (WANG et al., 2008).

On this background, the present work is aimed to describe the phenolic composition of leaf extracts from *N. grandiflora* obtained by alternative techniques (MAE and UAE) and to compare these extractives with those found using a Soxhlet extraction. Furthermore, in order to evaluate the influence of the extraction methods over the extract properties, thermal analysis and antioxidant activity were performed.

2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

2.1 PLANT MATERIAL

The aerial parts of *N. grandiflora* were collected from a natural habitat in Jaguari county, in the South of Brazil (29°26' S and 54°40' W), in December 2013. Leaves were separated from the branches and fractionated in order to achieve the ethanolic extracts. The plant was identified by Solon Jonas Longhi and a voucher specimen is archived under number 13,162 at the Herbarium of Biology Department (SMDB, Federal University of Santa Maria, Brazil).

2.2 PREPARATION OF ETHANOLIC EXTRACTS

Leaves were air-dried at room temperature, milled and then extracted with ethanol (ratio of raw material to solvent 1:20) using three different methods: conventional solvent extraction (CE), ultrasound-assisted extraction (UAE) and microwave-assisted extraction (MAE) (NGUYEN et al., 2015). The extraction procedures were as follows:

The CE was performed using Soxhlet apparatus (ca. 15 g per replicate) until the total exhaustion of the plant material (24 h), UAE was carried out using an ultrasonic cleaner Elmasonic S 70H at a power of 750 W and 50°C, and MAE was done with CEM Discover microwave at 50°C and power controlled by the equipment. Both UAE and MAE were performed during 30 min using ca. 5 g per replicate.

After the extraction period, the ethanolic extracts were cooled to room temperature and filtered. The solvent was evaporated at 50 °C under vacuum and then, the yields were measured by gram of extract based on dried weight (DW) per 100 gram of dried plant.

2.3 TOTAL PHENOLIC CONTENT

The total phenolic content (TPC) of *N. grandiflora* leaf extracts was measured spectrophotometrically by the Folin-Ciocalteu's method, as described by Cândido et al. (2015), with some modifications. Dried extracts were solubilised in methanol at final concentration of 0.5 mg/mL. Aliquots of these samples (0.25 mL) were mixed with 2.5 mL of distilled water and 0.25 mL of the Folin-Ciocalteu reagent (previously diluted 1:10 with distilled water). After 5 min, 0.25 mL of sodium carbonate (75 mg/mL in aqueous solution) was added and adjusted to 10 mL with distilled water. The mixtures were kept at room temperature for 60 min and the absorbance was measured at 725 nm. Gallic acid (0–0.2 mg/mL) was used for calibration of a standard curve. The calibration curve was linear at $R^2 = 0.99$, and the results were expressed as milligrams of gallic acid equivalents per gram of plant extracts dried weight (mg GAE/g DW). Triplicate measurements were taken and data were presented as mean \pm standard deviation.

2.4 FLAVONOID CONTENT

The flavonoid content (FLC) of the leaf extracts was determined by the $AlCl_3$ technique (METROUH-AMIR; DUARTE; MAIZA, 2015). Briefly, 1 mL of methanolic extract solution (0.5 mg/mL) was added to 1 mL of 2% $AlCl_3$ methanolic solution. Absorption readings at 410 nm were taken after 15 min of incubation at room temperature against a blank, in triplicate. The results were expressed as mg of quercetin equivalent per gram of dried weight (mg QE/g DW) from a calibration curve (0-0.1 mg/mL; $R^2=0.99$).

2.5 CONDENSED TANNINS CONTENT

The vanillin method adapted from Swain and Hillis (1959) was applied to detect the condensed tannins content (TC) in the leaf extracts. 50 μ L of samples (0.5 mg/mL in methanol) was mixed with 2 mL of vanillin reagent (1% of vanillin dissolved in 6.2 M of sulphuric acid). The mixtures were maintained at room temperature for 20 min and the absorbance was recorded at 500 nm. Readings were taken in triplicate and the results were determined from the catechin calibration curve (0-0.3 mg/mL; $R^2=0.99$) and expressed as mg of catechin equivalent per gram of dried weight (mg CAE/g DW).

2.6 INFRARED ANALYSIS

In order to determine the functional groups presents in different leaf extracts (CE, UAE and MAE) from *N. grandiflora*, the Fourier Transform Infrared (FTIR) analysis was applied. Infrared spectra were recorded using milled samples subjected to a PerkinElmer spectrophotometer at a resolution of 4 cm⁻¹ over the 700-4000 cm⁻¹ range. Eight scans were recorded, averaged for each spectrum and corrected against ambient air as background (HERRERA et al., 2014).

2.7 DETERMINATION OF THE EXTRACTS COMPOSITION BY LC-UV/ESI-MS

LC-UV/ESI-MS analysis was performed on a UPLC (Waters) system with a UV-Vis photodiode array detector (PAD) and coupled to a mass spectrometer. UV spectrum was recorded between 200 and 500 nm and the UV detection was measured at 280 nm. An Acquity C₁₈ column (100 x 2.1 mm i.d., 1.7 μm) at 40 °C was used to chromatography separation. The mobile phase was constituted by two solvents: water-formic acid (0.1%, A) and methanol (B), and the gradient elution had the following profile: 0-25 min 95% A, 25-27.7 min 1% A and 27.7-30 min 5% A at a flow rate of 300 μL/min. Extract samples were prepared at 200 μg/mL in methanol: water (1:1) and 10 μL aliquots were injected for analysis (INBARAJ et al., 2010).

Mass spectra were acquired using a LCT Premier XE (Waters) equipped with an electrospray ionization (ESI) source operated in the positive mode. The experimental parameters were set as follows: the capillary voltage was 500 V; cone voltage was 100 V and ions were recorded in the range of m/z 100-1000.

2.8 THERMOGRAVIMETRIC ANALYSIS

Thermal behavior of leaf extracts (CE, UAE and MAE) was conducted in a nitrogen atmosphere using a Mettler Toledo TGA/SDTA RSI analyser. The heating applied to the samples (4-8 mg) was 10 °C/min from 20 to 700 °C with a flow rate of 10 mL/min. For the quantitative calculations, the response factors between the weight gain (TG) and the mass loss rate (DTG) were determined (HERRERA et al., 2014).

2.9 SCANNING ELECTRON MICROSCOPY ANALYSIS

Powder leaves of *N. grandiflora* were observed under scanning electron microscopy (SEM) using a JSM-6460 (Jeol Ltd, Japan; Zeiss ULTRA Plus, Carl Zeiss SMT AG, Germany)

for morphological characterization before and after the extraction processes. Three samples of the powders (untreated and residues of UAE and MAE) were dried at 50 °C until constant mass in oven for preparing leaves samples to further analysis. Then, dried particles were fixed on a specific carbon film support and copper sputter-coated for SEM analysis.

2.10 SOLUBILITY MEASUREMENT OF EXTRACTS

To investigate the extracts solubility in organic solvents, CE, UAE and MAE extracts were diluted in DMSO at a concentration of 10 mg/mL and the solubility was analysed by a Cellometer Vision equipment (Nexcelom Bioscience LLC, Lawrence, MA). Each extract was precisely pipetted (0.02 mL) into a Nexcelom disposable counting chamber to determinate the concentration of undissolved extracts (particles/ μ L) and the particles sizes (average size from 1 to 35 μ m) by Cellometer software.

2.11 ANTIOXIDANT ACTIVITIES

2.11.1 DPPH assay

The DPPH (2,2-diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl) radical scavenging activity of the extracts was carried out according to Dudonné et al. (2009). A 0.02 mL aliquot of leaf extracts at different concentrations (0.5, 1 and 2 mg/mL in methanol) was added to 2 mL of DPPH methanolic solution (0.06 mM) and kept at room temperature for 30 min. The absorbance was measured at 517 nm and quercetin was utilized as positive control. Inhibition rate on DPPH radical was calculated by the following equation:

$$\% \text{ inhibition} = \frac{A_{\text{control } t=30} - A_{\text{sample } t=30}}{A_{\text{DPPH } t=0}} \times 100$$

Where, A_{control} is the absorbance of the control (2 mL of DPPH solution plus 0.02 mL of the solvent); A_{sample} is the absorbance of the extract sample; t is the time (min) at which absorbance was read and A_{DPPH} is the absorbance of the blank at time = 0. The experiment was performed in triplicate.

2.11.2 ABTS assay

The antioxidant capacity was also evaluated by ABTS spectrophotometric assay according to Re et al. (1999). Extract samples were diluted in methanol at three different concentrations (0.5, 1 and 2 mg/mL) and an aliquot (0.04 mL) was added to 2 mL of ABTS radical solution. This solution was prepared by mixing ABTS (7 mM) and potassium persulfate (2.45 mM) in water for 12-16 h at room temperature in the dark. Then, the absorbance of radical solution was adjusted to 0.60 ± 0.02 at 734 nm in ethanol: water (1:1). Each extract sample was measured between 1-6 min and the inhibition rate (%) of ABTS radical was calculated as described to DPPH assay.

2.12 STATISTICAL PROCEDURE

The results are expressed as the mean of three measurements \pm standard deviation. Normality (Shapiro-Wilk) and Equal Variance (Levene) tests were performed before the statistical approach. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted for the values of total phenolic, flavonoid and tannin contents, as well as for antioxidants data, followed by Tukey test ($P < 0.05$).

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1 EXTRACTION YIELDS AND PHYTOCHEMICALS CONTENTS

Extraction yield refers to the percentage of ethanolic extract obtained from a dried plant sample through an extraction technique (NGUYEN et al., 2015). The three extraction methods applied on *N. grandiflora* leaves showed significant different yields of phytochemicals (Table 1). Conventional Soxhlet method present the highest yield (22.12 g DW/100 g dried plant), followed by UAE and MAE. The highest yield achieved by CE can be explained by application of heat during a longer period compared to UAE and MAE.

However, the process time used in UAE and MAE was significantly shorter (30 min) than for CE; taking the energy consumption into account, UAE and MAE appears as favourable extraction methods for the *N. grandiflora* leaves. These findings are agreeing with Mustapa, Martin, Mato, & Cocero (2015), who found superior yield of *Clinacanthus nutans* extracts by CE in relation to MAE. According to Chirinos et al. (2007), after 60 min, increasing extraction

time using an orbital shaker did not significantly improve the phytochemical yield and can enhance the risk of phenolic oxidation.

Table 1 – Effect of extraction method on the phytochemical yields, total phenolic (TPC), flavonoid (FLC) and condensed tannins (TC) contents of leaf extracts obtained from *Nectandra grandiflora* Nees.

Extraction				
Method	Yield (g DW/100 g dried plant)	TPC (mg GAE/g DW)	FLC (mg QE/g DW)	TC (mg CAE/g DW)
CE	22.16 ± 1.18 ^a	279.00 ± 7.32 ^a	150.85 ± 0.71 ^a	117.35 ± 4.50 ^b
UAE	13.99 ± 2.58 ^b	254.94 ± 7.58 ^b	114.50 ± 0.71 ^b	130.50 ± 2.43 ^a
MAE	8.21 ± 2.74 ^c	229.62 ± 1.85 ^c	123.83 ± 3.60 ^b	114.67 ± 6.22 ^b
F	28.32	62.55	22.40	10.44
P	< 0.001	<0.001	0.002	0.011
MSD	2.28	10.18	5.47	8.54

Lowercase letters indicate significant differences among the extraction methods for the same column by Tukey test ($P < 0.05$). CE: Conventional Soxhlet extraction; UAE: Ultrasound-assisted extraction; MAE: Microwave-assisted extraction; DW: Extract based on dried weight; GAE: Equivalent gallic acid; QE: Equivalent quercetin; CAE: Equivalent catechin; MSD: Minimum Significant Difference.

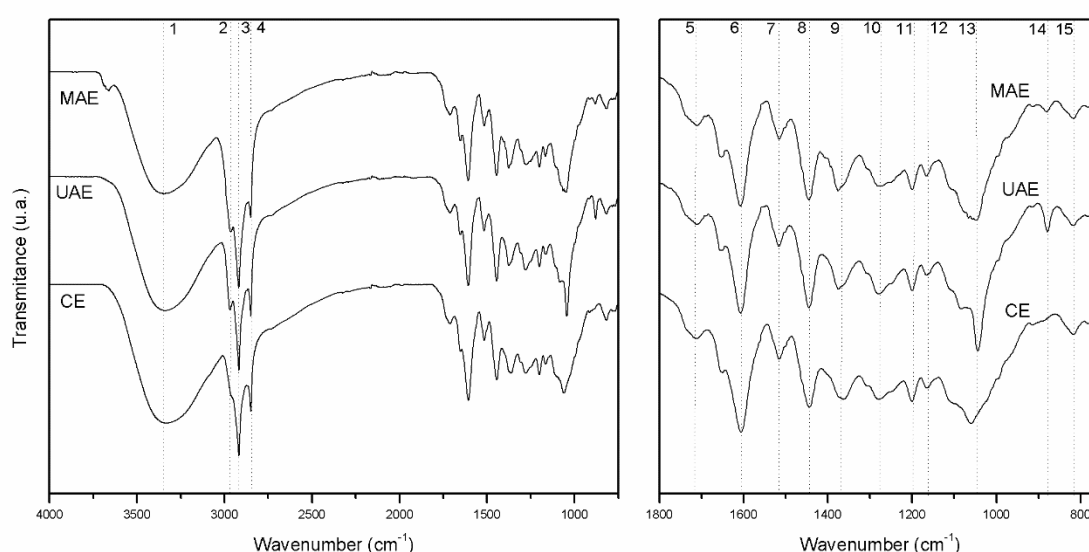
Nectandra is a genus of Lauraceae family, recognized by species possessing a high chemical diversity and amount of phenolic phytochemicals (MACÍAS-VILLAMIZAR; CUCASUÁREZ; COY-BARRERA, 2015). In this work, the three extraction methods were able to recover high contents of total phenolic compounds, flavonoid and condensed tannins. However, the values determined in the extracts significantly depend on the applied extraction method (Table 1).

The CE extract presented superior values of total phenolic and flavonoid contents (279 mg GAE/g DW and 150.85 mg QE/g DW, respectively) than UAE and MAE extracts. On the other hand, UAE was able to recover the maximum amount of condensed tannins (130.50 mg CAE/g DW), significantly different when compared to extracts obtained by CE and MAE. In this way, the tannin obtainment seems to be affected by acoustic cavitation process (ZHANG et al., 2008) and has been described as potential option for leather industry (SIVAKUMAR et al., 2010). Furthermore, the condensed tannins have low stability, and this fact may help to explain the lower contents obtained by CE and MAE, since high temperatures are applied, which can cause the degradation of these compounds (ZHANG; YANG; LIU, 2008).

3.2 FTIR ANALYSIS

Leaf extracts exhibited similar absorption bands in FTIR spectra with slight differences in the extract obtained by CE. The spectra are presented in Figure 1 and the assignments are given in Table 2.

Figure 1 – FTIR spectra of leaf extracts obtained from *Nectandra grandiflora* Nees, by conventional Soxhlet extraction (CE), ultrasound-assisted extraction (UAE) and microwave-assisted extraction (MAE).



Wavenumber range 4000–800 cm^{-1} (left) and fingerprint region 1800–750 cm^{-1} (right); band assignments are shown in Table 2.

Analysis of the FTIR spectra ranging from 3400–3200 cm^{-1} shows the sum of different vibrational bands of –OH groups. The elongated “U” shape around this region is characteristic of alcoholic and phenolic compounds (AJUONG; REDINGTON, 2004; GRASEL; FERRÃO; WOLF, 2016). The region of 2945–2845 cm^{-1} is composed by the overlapping of the CH_2 , and CH_3 stretching asymmetric and symmetric vibrations; possibly derived from carbohydrates (PING et al., 2012).

However, these first analysed regions do not present conclusive marks to identify the nature of the phytochemicals. Then, several authors described the FTIR spectral fingerprinting region (1800–750 cm^{-1}) because the target functional groups appeared primarily in this range (LIU et al., 2014).

One weak peak at 1709 cm^{-1} shows the presence of the carbonyl group, possibly due to dimmer saturated acids (AJUONG; REDINGTON, 2004). The detected signals in the range 1615-1440 cm^{-1} (peaks 6-8) are assigned to aromatic ring stretching vibrations. A strong and intense peak at 1606 cm^{-1} corresponds to within-ring skeletal stretch, alongside with the stretching of the C=C–C aromatic bond that appears at 1515 cm^{-1} .

Table 2 – Peaks and assignments of FTIR spectra of leaf extracts from *Nectandra grandiflora* Nees (PING et al., 2012; LIU et al., 2014; GRASEL; FERRÃO; WOLF, 2016).

Main vibrational bands of extracts (wavenumbers, cm^{-1})			Assignment	Peak number ^a
CE	UAE	MAE		
3314	3321	3322	–OH stretching vibration	1
-	2945	2946	Methylene asymmetrical stretching vibration	2
2917	2917	2918	Methylene asymmetrical stretching vibration	3
2849	2849	2850	Methylene/methyl symmetrical stretching vibration	4
1709	1710	1709	C=O stretching vibration in acids	5
1605	1606	1606	Within-ring skeletal bands	6
1515	1515	1515	Aromatic C=C–C stretching vibration	7
1443	1444	1444	Aromatic ring vibration	8
1361	1374	1375	OH in-plane bending in primary and secondary alcohols	9
1275	1277	1271	C–O stretch of pyran ring	10
1199	1199	1199	C-OH deformation in phenols	11
1164	1164	1165	Aromatic CH in-plane bending vibration	12
1059	1043	1046	C–O stretching vibration	13
-	878	879	Aromatic CH out-of-plane bending vibration	14
815	816	816	Aromatic CH out-of-plane bending vibration	15

^a Peak number refers to the assignments in Figure 1.

The peak in the region of 1375-1361 cm^{-1} is assigned to hydroxyl in plane bending of primary and secondary alcohols (AJUONG; REDINGTON, 2004; LIU et al., 2014). Furthermore, leaf extracts from *N. grandiflora* also absorb in the region of 1277-1271 cm^{-1} , which corresponds to the C–O asymmetrical stretching vibration arise from the pyran-derived ring structure of flavonoids (PING et al., 2012). The peak around 1200 cm^{-1} is associated with C-OH stretches of phenols

The region of 1154-1046 cm^{-1} (peak 13) can be assigned to the C–H in-plane deformation of aromatic compounds (PING et al., 2012). The extract obtained by UAE exhibit

a strong and intense peak, while the other extracts only exhibit shoulders in this region. Finally, between 920-750 cm^{-1} is the region of aromatic C–H out of plane bending vibration, mostly with signals of low intensities (GRASEL; FERRÃO; WOLF, 2016). The extract obtained by UAE shows a medium-intensity signal at 878 cm^{-1} , while this signal was lower for MAE extract and not appear in CE extract. Another low-intensity peak, at 816 cm^{-1} , can be seen in FTIR spectra of all extracts.

The presence of peaks due to hydroxyl and carbonyl vibration indicates that there some polar compounds in the *N. grandiflora* leaf extracts, such as flavonoids, neolignans and phenolic acids, which are consistent with the total phenolic, flavonoid and condensed tannins contents found in this study and other scientific studies (RIBEIRO; SILVA; BOLZANI, 2002; RIBEIRO et al., 2005).

3.3 LC-UV/ESI-MS ANALYSIS

In the chromatography analysis of *N. grandiflora* leaf extracts six phenolic compounds were detected based on retention time, UV (wavelength of maximum absorbance) and mass spectra parameters. The molecular mass of the compounds was obtained from their positive ion electrospray mass spectra (ESI-MS), which described the corresponding protonated pseudo molecular ions as well as the sodium adduct ion (Table 3).

All extracts presented the same phenolic profile (Figure 2) with some differences on estimated percentage of the compounds. More than 67.73% of the total chemical composition was established, achieving 78.66% in the CE sample. The compounds identified are glycosylated flavonols, of which quercetin-3-*O*-rhamnoside (quercitrin) was the most abundant in the extract obtained by CE (65.14%). Kaempferol-3-*O*-rhamnoside (afzelin) and myricetin-3-*O*-rhamnoside (myricitrin) were also detected, but at low concentrations (< 7.86%).

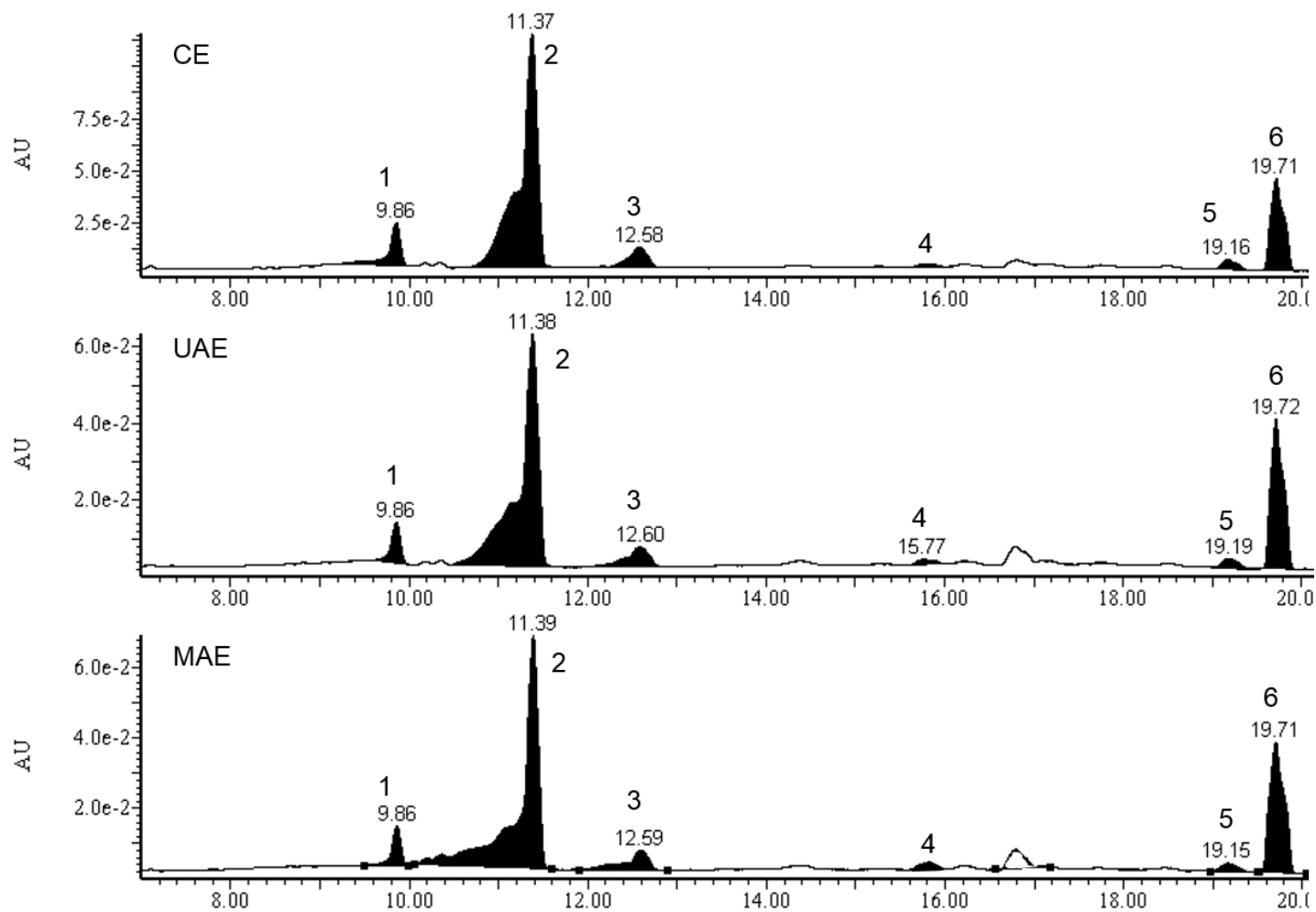
The peak numbers 4-6 were not identified by LC-MS technique, and taking into account their UV spectrum (absorbance maximum in the 251-255 nm range) and MW data (< 238 MW), these peaks could be referred to low-molecular substances such as polyalcohol or phenolic acids. Besides, according to Rijke et al. (2006), flavonoids display a typical UV spectrum, with a first absorbance maximum in the 240–285 nm range and a second one in the 300–550 nm range, as exhibited by quercitrin and myricitrin.

Table 3 – Phenolic compounds detected in the leaf extracts obtained from *Nectandra grandiflora* Nees by LC-UV-ESI/MS in the positive mode.

Proposed compound	Peak	t_R (min)	λ_{max} (nm)	MW	$[M+H]^+(m/z)$	$[M+Na]^+(m/z)$	Fragment ions (m/z)	% Estimated		
								CE	UAE	MAE
Myricetin-3- <i>O</i> -rhamnoside	1	9.9	259, 353	464	ND	487	319 , 273, 341	7.86	4.91	4.75
Quercetin-3- <i>O</i> -rhamnoside	2	11.4	256, 350	448	ND	471	303 , 325	65.14	60.82	57.75
Kaempferol-3- <i>O</i> -rhamnoside	3	12.6	264, 353	432	ND	455	287 , 218, 309	5.66	6.08	5.23
Unidentified	4	15.8	254	234	ND	257	161 , 217	0.68	1.29	1.00
Unidentified	5	19.2	251	218	219	241	191 , 219	2.22	1.88	1.75
Unidentified	6	19.8	255	238	ND	261	149 , 219, 137	18.44	25.01	25.33
Total identified								78.66	71.81	67.73

The base peak are in bold; CE: Conventional Soxhlet extraction; UAE: Ultrasound-assisted extraction; MAE: Microwave-assisted extraction; ND: not detected.

Figure 2 – LC-UV/PAD chromatograms at 280 nm of the leaf extracts from *Nectandra grandiflora* Nees obtained by conventional Soxhlet extraction (CE), ultrasound-assisted extraction (UAE) and microwave-assisted extraction (MAE). For peak identification, see Table 3.



In previous studies, the compounds quercitrin and afzelin were identified in the ethanolic extract of *N. grandiflora* leaves collected in São Paulo, Brazil (RIBEIRO; SILVA; BOLZANI, 2002; RIBEIRO et al., 2005). Besides, Ribeiro et al. (2005) found protocatechuic acid, a naturally occurring phenolic acid, as constituent of *N. grandiflora* extracts.

3.4 TG/DTG PROFILES

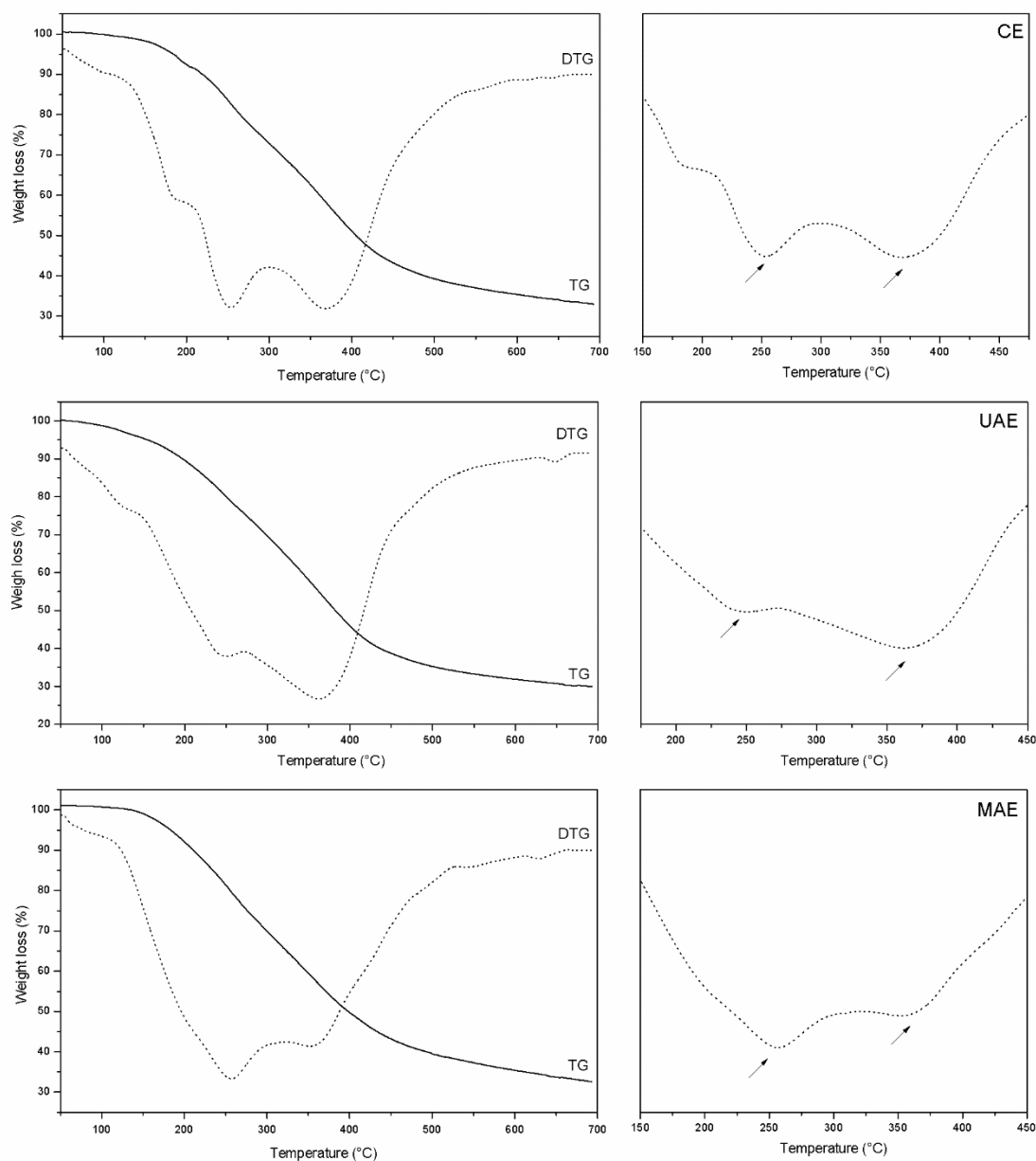
The thermal analysis was carried out to characterize the decomposition stages and thermal stability of *N. grandiflora* leaf extracts. The TG/DTG curves of all extracts exhibited similar decomposition patterns, as shown in Figure 3.

In all extracts, DTG curve showed a slight mass-loss within the temperature range 50-180 °C, and consisted mainly of water desorption (ROSS et al., 2009). At this moment, the thermal stability begins to decrease gradually and the different decompositions stages initiate (TENORIO; MOYA, 2013).

The degradation process of leaf extracts of *N. grandiflora* occurred in two mainly stages between 200 °C and 700 °C. The first step, approximately at 250-270 °C, indicates the main loss attributed to polysaccharides and aliphatic structures. In the second range, at 350-370 °C, the thermal breakdown of more stable aromatic compounds may have occurred (CARBALLO et al., 2008).

At the end of the TG analysis (about 700 °C), a remnant mass of 32.76, 29.85 and 31.88% for CE, UAE and MAE extracts, respectively, was verified. The percentage of residues in the CE sample can be attributed to the higher presence of phenolic substances, which tend to convert in fixed carbon during pyrolysis process (MISSIO et al., 2014).

Figure 3 – Thermogravimetric analysis of leaf extracts from *Nectandra grandiflora* Nees obtained by different techniques

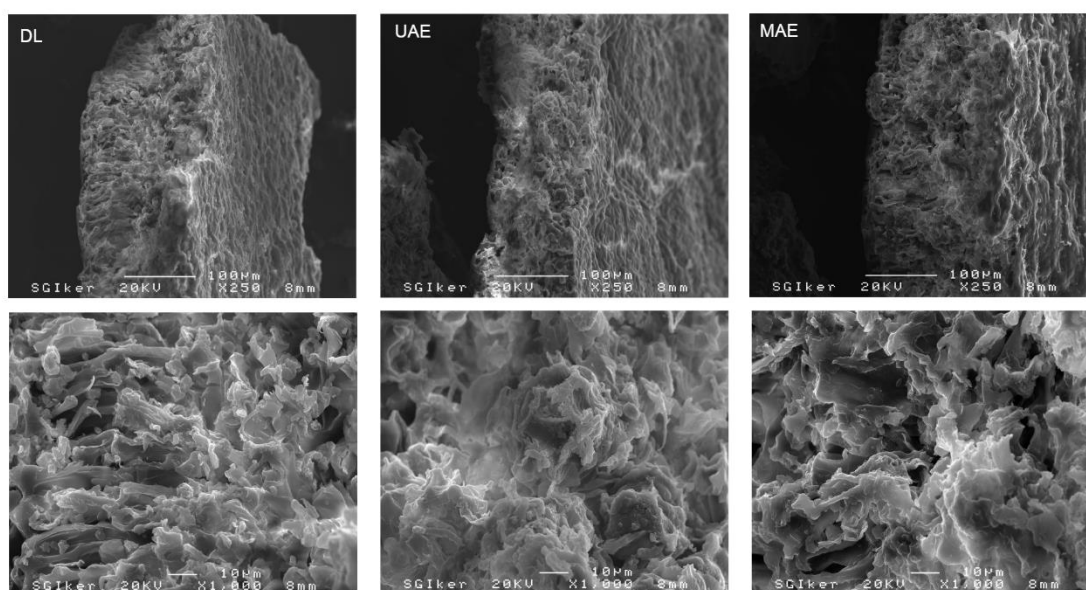


CE: Conventional Soxhlet extraction; UAE: Ultrasound-assisted extraction; MAE: Microwave-assisted extraction. The arrows indicate the temperatures where the greatest mass loss occurred.

3.5 SEM ANALYSIS

In order to understand the mechanical effects of cavitation and microwave, the residues of treated *N. grandiflora* leaves using UAE and MAE methods were examined by SEM and compared with untreated control. Figure 4 displays the micrographs with structural features of the samples.

Figure 4 – Scanning electron microscopic images of untreated *Nectandra grandiflora* dried leaves (DL) and of residues from ultrasound-assisted extraction (UAE) and microwave-assisted extraction (MAE).



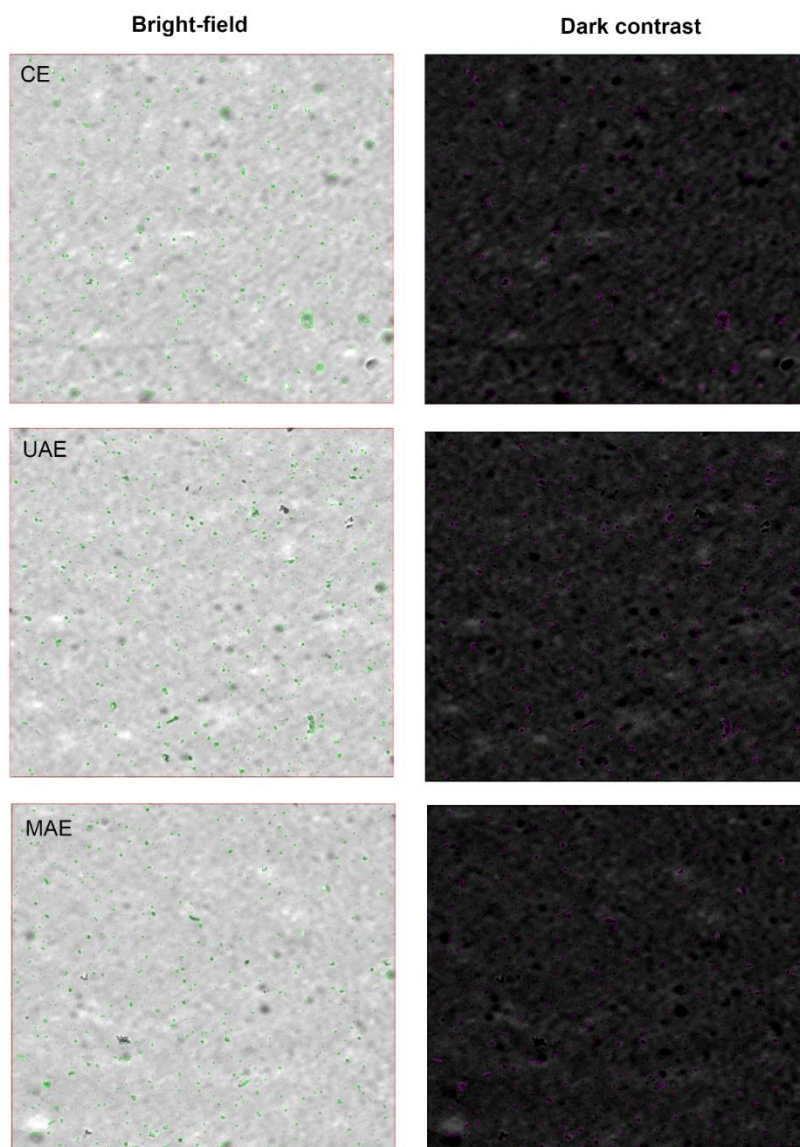
Comparing the residues from UAE and MAE and control, differences on the surfaces of the leaves particles can be viewed. After the UAE and MAE treatments, signals of destruction on the cell walls and surfaces with a crumbled texture were observed in the samples. These morphological characteristics were not visible in the untreated control.

The bubbles generated by acoustic cavitation during UAE enhance the solvent penetration into plant material and aid in the disruption of the cell wall releasing the intracellular content (XIA et al., 2011). On the other hand, the surface of MAE sample was destroyed because the potential electromagnetic of waves accelerate cell rupture by sudden temperature rise and internal pressure inside the cell of plant sample (ZHANG; YANG; LIU, 2008).

3.6 SOLUBILITY RESULTS

The solubility of the ethanolic extracts obtained was evaluated using an organic solvent and then analysing the optical images formed by the solutions (Figure 5). Furthermore, the results of size distribution and the concentration of undissolved particles (per μL of solution) were provided.

Figure 5 – Solubility measurement of leaf extracts from *Nectandra grandiflora* using DMSO as solvent.



CE: Conventional Soxhlet extraction; UAE: Ultrasound-assisted extraction; MAE: Microwave-assisted extraction

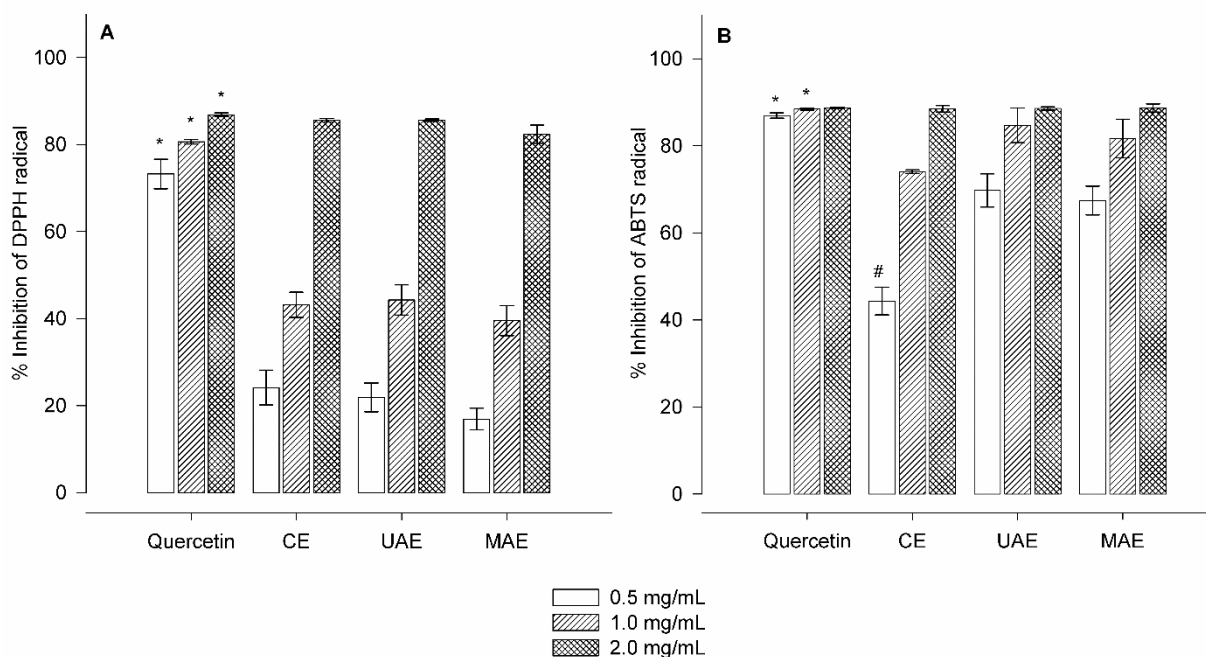
Overall, the extraction methods analysed in this work produce extracts with similar physical characteristics regarding the solubility. The solution prepared with CE sample presented an average concentration of 3.98×10^6 particles/ μL , while UAE presented 3.49×10^6 particles/ μL and 3.31×10^6 particles/ μL for solution of MAE. Pronounced variation on the average diameter of the undissolved particles among the extract solutions was not observed. A variation was detected mainly between the MAE and CE samples ($4.9 \mu\text{m}$ and $5.1 \mu\text{m}$, respectively). The method applied is a fast assessment that provides useful information such as

particle size and organic solubilisation, which are important topics in the chemistry of natural materials and regarding environment issues (MARTINS; LOPES; ANDRADE, 2013).

3.7 ANTIOXIDANT CAPACITIES

Regarding to the antioxidant activities of leaf extracts, Figure 6 presents the results obtained from DPPH and ABTS radicals assays in comparison with quercetin, used as positive control. An antioxidant effect in a concentration-dependent manner was verified in both tests and with all samples.

Figure 6 – Antioxidant capacities on DPPH (A) and ABTS (B) free radicals of leaf extracts obtained from *Nectandra grandiflora* Nees.



* Indicate significant differences among the extraction methods for the same concentration by Tukey test ($P < 0.05$). CE: Conventional Soxhlet extraction; UAE: Ultrasound-assisted extraction; MAE: Microwave-assisted extraction; Quercetin: Positive control.

The extracts obtained from the three extraction methods showed good scavenging activities to reduce the stable radical DPPH to yellow-coloured 2,2-diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazine (Figure 6). Besides, results indicate that there are not significant difference between the tested concentrations. At the concentration of 2 mg/mL, the inhibition of DPPH radical achieved

85.59% with CE and UAE extracts and 82.39% with MAE sample. Quercetin reached 86.85% of inhibition at 2 mg/mL.

On the ABTS radical cation decolourization assay, the leaf extracts have a similar inhibition rate to that found against DPPH radical. At highest concentration, there was no statistical difference between all samples, including quercetin (Figure 6). At lower concentrations, UAE presented better values than CE and MAE procedures; however these values were lower than those achieved by the positive control.

These findings illustrate that the antioxidant capacity of *N. grandiflora* leaf extracts was weakly affected by extraction methods (NGUYEN et al., 2015). Natural antioxidants obtained from plants are generally needed to counteract the damage of reactive oxygen species to cells (WU et al., 2015). The detected positive results can be assigned to the phytochemicals presents in the leaf extracts.

Probably the most active natural phenolics in the studied extracts are flavonoids, because they presented specific structural characteristics, which promote antioxidant activity. The *o*-catechol group on the B-ring is the most important of them (PIETTA, 2000), as occurred in quercetin derivatives; major compounds detected in this study. However the same partial structure appears in protocatechuic acid (KAKKAR; BAIS, 2014), already described in *N. grandiflora* (RIBEIRO et al., 2005).

Other flavonoid chemical characteristics cooperate to the antioxidant properties as the three-hydroxyl groups on the B-ring (present in myricetin derivatives) and the α,β -unsaturated carbonyl system on the C-ring (WU et al., 2015). These aspects confer great stability to the phenolic radical as soon it is formed after one H radical donation to DPPH (RIBEIRO et al., 2005; VUNDAĆ; BRANTNER; PLAZIBAT, 2007).

4. CONCLUSION

The experimental results indicate ultrasound-assisted (UAE) and microwave-assisted (MAE) extraction techniques as effective to recover bioactive compounds from *Nectandra grandiflora* leaves. Despite the fact that higher phytochemical yield was achieved by conventional Soxhlet extraction (CE), chemical composition, thermal stability and antioxidant activity did not present great differences to that found with the alternative techniques (MAE and UAE). Besides, MAE and UAE are time-saving extraction techniques with lower energy consumption comparing to CE; however, it is necessary to optimize UAE and MAE conditions

to increase extraction yields. Furthermore, leaves of *N. grandiflora* could be an interesting phytochemical source for the natural antioxidants market.

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5 RESULTADOS ADICIONAIS

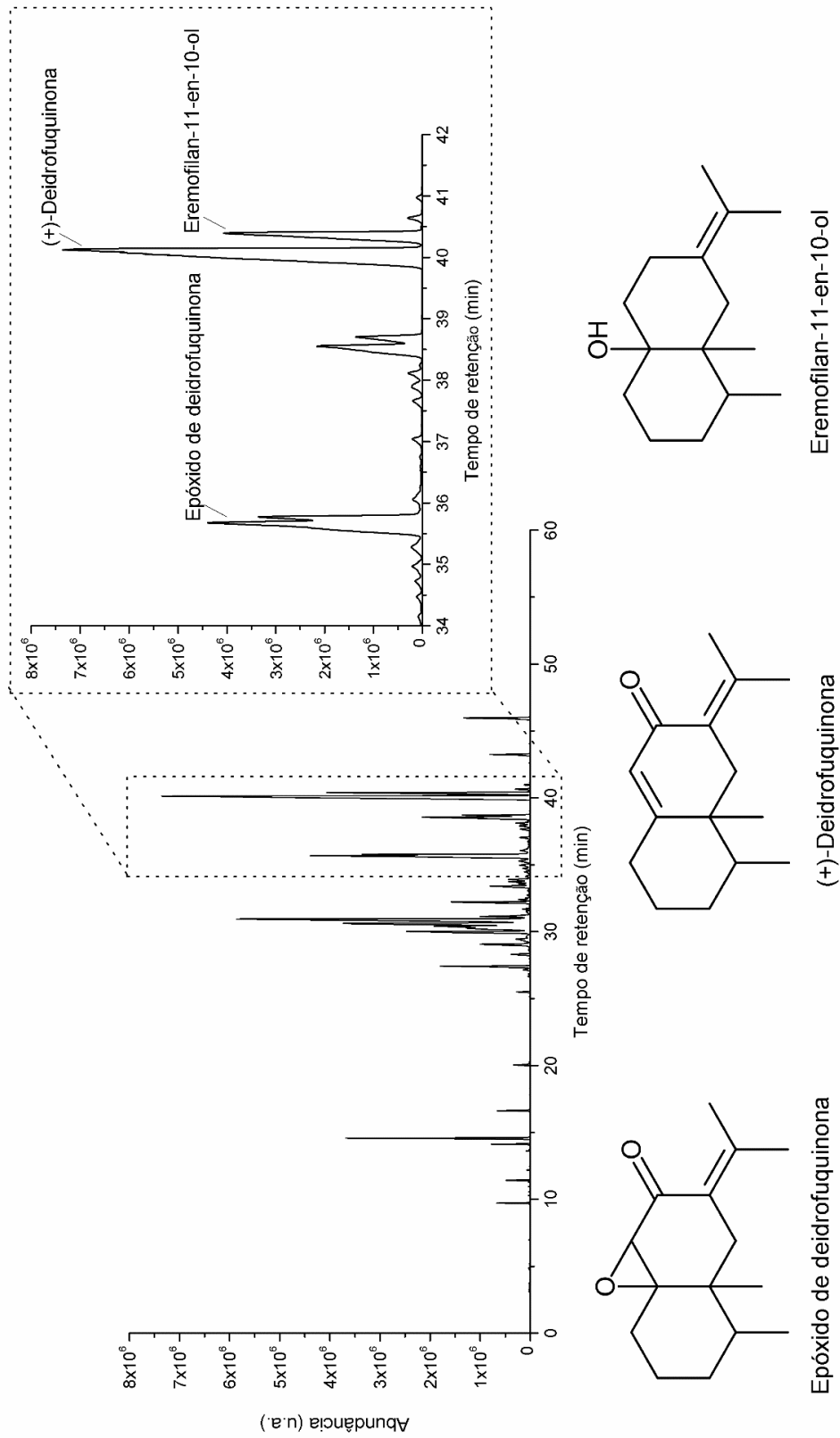
Os resultados apresentados no presente capítulo se referem a dados obtidos a partir da avaliação da atividade sedativo-anestésica do óleo essencial (OE) obtido de folhas de *N. grandiflora* e aqueles referentes às análises químicas que permitiram a identificação do constituinte majoritário, (+)-deidrofuquinona (DHF). Também se verificou a influência da substância isolada sobre o efeito depressor central em jundiás verificado para o OE. Todos os resultados descritos nessa seção foram patenteados pelo grupo de pesquisa do Laboratório de Extrativos Vegetais no Instituto de Nacional de Propriedade Industrial (INPI) sob o registro BR 102014 0136304 (Apêndice A) e estão sendo compilados juntamente com outros ensaios para sua posterior publicação científica.

Em relação aos dados obtidos através das análises químicas do OE estudado, a Figura 13 (página 125) apresenta o perfil cromatográfico gerado a partir da cromatografia gasosa (CG). As análises de CG-EM e CG-DIC revelaram a presença de 33 constituintes no OE, totalizando 86,62% da composição volátil (Tabela 3, página 126). Os 12 sesquiterpenoides identificados compreenderam aproximadamente 79,8% e os monoterpenoides estão representados por nove diferentes constituintes (4,23%).

Após o fracionamento do OE e através das técnicas cromatográficas, em que os espectros de RMN foram comparados a dados de RMN ^1H , ^{13}C e DEPT 135° encontrados em literatura específica (SCHENATO et al., 2001; ALKHATHLAN et al., 2005; BOLZAN, 2007) foi possível isolar e identificar o constituinte DHF $[\alpha]_D = + 173,38$ (c 0,0992, CHCl_3). Esse constituinte está presente no OE em concentrações maiores que 19%, sendo considerado o composto majoritário do OE de *N. grandiflora*.

O espectro de RMN ^{13}C da substância isolada apresentou um conjunto de quinze sinais, permitindo definir os seguintes grupos: quatro metílicos (CH_3), quatro metilênicos (CH_2), dois metínicos (CH) e cinco carbonos quaternários. O espectro de massas da substância DHF (cujo nome químico é 4b,5b-eremofil-7(11)9-dien-8-ona) apresentou pico do íon molecular (M^+) em m/z 218, indicando, em conjunto com as informações presentes nos espectros de RMN ^1H , ^{13}C e DEPT 135° a fórmula molecular $\text{C}_{15}\text{H}_{22}\text{O}$, conforme apresentado nas Tabelas 4 e 5 (páginas 127 e 128) e nos Apêndices B-D.

Figura 13 – Cromatograma de íons totais e estruturas das substâncias isoladas do óleo essencial de *Nectandra grandiflora* Nees



Fonte: Autora.

Tabela 3 – Composição química do óleo essencial de *Nectandra grandiflora* Nees

N.	Constituinte	IR _{EXP}	IR _{REF}	%	Identificação
<i>Hidrocarbonetos monoterpênicos</i>					
1	α -Pinoeno	931	930 ^N	0,69	IR, EM
2	Canfeno	944	945 ^N	0,08	IR, EM
3	β -Pinoeno	972	974 ^N	0,54	IR, EM
4	(Z)- β -Ocimeno	1038	1037 ^N	0,18	IR, EM
5	(E)- β -Ocimeno	1049	1048 ^N	0,88	IR, EM
<i>Monoterpenoides oxigenados</i>					
6	Limoneno	1025	1026 ^N	0,40	IR, EM
7	Eucaliptol	1028	1028 ^N	0,36	IR, EM
8	β -Linalol	1099	1100 ^N	0,84	IR, EM
9	(Z)-3-Hexenil-1 butirato	1187	1186 ^N	0,26	IR, EM
<i>Hidrocarbonetos sesquiterpênicos</i>					
10	δ -Elemeno	1336	1338 ^A	1,06	IR, EM
11	β -Bourboneno	1384	1388 ^N	0,42	IR, EM
12	β -Elemeno	1392	1391 ^N	4,57	IR, EM
13	β -Cariofileno	1418	1418 ^N	0,74	IR, EM
14	α -Guaieno	1441	1440 ^N	1,81	IR, EM
15	α -Cariofileno	1453	1454 ^N	0,60	IR, EM
16	Aristolocheno<4,5-de-epi->	1470	1473 ^A	5,32	IR, EM
17	τ -Muroleno	1478	1480 ^N	3,43	IR, EM
18	Valenceno	1482	1483 ^N	9,31	IR, EM
19	Biciclogermacreno	1498	1500 ^A	10,95	IR, EM
20	Germacreno A	1505	1509 ^A	0,30	IR, EM
21	γ -Cadineno	1516	1513 ^A	0,13	IR, EM
22	δ -Cadineno	1523	1523 ^N	0,28	IR, EM
<i>Sesquiterpenoides oxigenados</i>					
23	Elemol	1549	1549 ^A	0,75	IR, EM
24	Espatuleno	1579	1578 ^N	1,30	IR, EM
25	Humulan-1,6-dien-3-ol	1623	1619 ^N	0,24	IR, EM
26	Eremoligenol	1631	1631 ^A	0,30	IR, EM
27	τ -Cadinol	1642	1642 ^N	0,34	IR, EM
28	Epóxido de deidrofuquinona	1656	-	7,56	EM, RMN
29	Selin-11-en-4- α -ol	1659	1659 ^A	4,61	IR, EM
30	(+)-Deidrofuquinona	1813	-	19,64	EM, RMN
31	Eremofilan-11-en-10-ol	1824	-	6,22	EM, RMN
<i>Diterpenoides</i>					
32	Rimueno	1931	1930 ^N	0,91	IR, EM
33	Caureno	2040	2043 ^A	1,60	IR, EM
Monoterpenoides totais				4,23	
Sesquiterpenoides totais				79,88	
Diterpenoides				2,51	
Total identificado				86,62	

Fonte: Autora.

IR_{EXP}: Índice de retenção de Kovats experimental; IR_{REF}: Índice de retenção de Kovats de referência; ^A: Adams, 2009 e ^N: NIST, 2009; EM: Espectro de massas; RMN: Ressonância Magnética Nuclear.

Por meio do fracionamento do OE, também foi possível isolar e elucidar dois constituintes inéditos no OE de *N. grandiflora*: o epóxido de deidrofuquinona (7,56%) e o eremofilan-11-en-10-ol (6,22%). Esses constituintes, juntamente com DHF, são sesquiterpenoides de semelhante estrutura química, possuindo esqueleto eremofilano (Figura 14). Entre os demais componentes majoritários identificados, bicilogermacreno, valenceno e selinen-11-4- α -ol compreenderam 10,95%, 9,31% e 4,61% do OE, respectivamente (Tabela 3, página 126).

Tabela 4 – Valores de deslocamentos químicos (δ) observados no espectro de RMN ^{13}C (100 MHz, CDCl_3) da substância (+)-deidrofuquinona em comparação com os dados da literatura

C	Experimental		Bolzan (2007)		Schenato et al. (2001)	Alkhatlan et al. (2005)
	δ (ppm)	DEPT 135°	δ (ppm)	DEPT 135°	δ (ppm)	δ (ppm)
1	126,09	CH	126,13	CH	126,02	126,20
2	192,16	C	192,26	C	192,24	192,45
3	128,13	C	128,17	C	128,12	128,26
4	41,01	CH ₂	41,05	CH ₂	41,01	41,11
4a	41,83	C	41,88	C	41,86	41,97
5	42,47	CH	42,51	CH	42,48	42,58
6	32,48	CH ₂	32,52	CH ₂	32,51	32,62
7	26,46	CH ₂	26,51	CH ₂	26,47	26,56
8	30,50	CH ₂	30,55	CH ₂	30,51	30,61
8a	168,55	C	168,64	C	168,66	168,84
9	142,09	C	142,18	C	142,14	142,28
10	22,49	CH ₃	22,54	CH ₃	22,54	26,7
11	21,96	CH ₃	22,00	CH ₃	22,00	22,11
12	16,00	CH ₃	16,04	CH ₃	16,01	16,10
13	15,39	CH ₃	15,42	CH ₃	15,43	15,54

Fonte: Autora.

Tabela 5 – Valores dos deslocamentos químicos (δ) observados no espectro de RMN ^1H (400 MHz, CDCl_3) para a substância (+)-deidrofuquinona em comparação com os dados da literatura

H	Experimental		Bolzan (2007)		Schenato et al. (2001)	Alkathlan et al. (2005)
	δ (ppm)	Multipleteo	δ (ppm)	Multipleteo	δ (ppm)	δ (ppm)
H-C1	5,65	s	5,73	s	5,74	5,72
Ha-C4	2,79 (<i>J</i> 15 Hz)	d	2,88 (<i>J</i> 13,6 Hz)	d	2,88	2,88
Hb-C4	2,04	m	2,12	m	2,15-2,37	2,12
H-C5	1,40	m	~1,48	m		1,85
Há-C6	~1,48	m	~1,58	m		1,39-1,55
Hb-C6	1,33	m	~1,43	m		1,39-1,55
Há-C7	2,18	m	~2,27	m		1,39-1,55
Hb-C7	1,78	m	~1,85	m		1,39-1,55
Há-C8	2,14	m	~2,25	m		2,24-2,26
Hb-C8	2,07	m	~2,13	m		2,24-2,26
10-Me	2,01	s	2,09	s	2,09	2,02
11-Me	1,76	s	1,84	s	1,85	1,82
12-Me	0,88	s	0,97	s	0,97	0,96
13-Me	0,87 (<i>J</i> 4 Hz)	d	0,95 (<i>J</i> 6,36 Hz)	d	0,96	0,94

Fonte: Autora.

O OE de folhas de *N. grandiflora* mostrou efeito sedativo-anestésico através do protocolo experimental testado com jundiás (ver seção 1.3.6.4), como revela a Figura 14 (página 129). O controle de etanol (8 mL), utilizado na preparação da diluição da maior concentração de OE testada, não produziu sedação nos animais quando aplicado individualmente nos aquários (controle negativo).

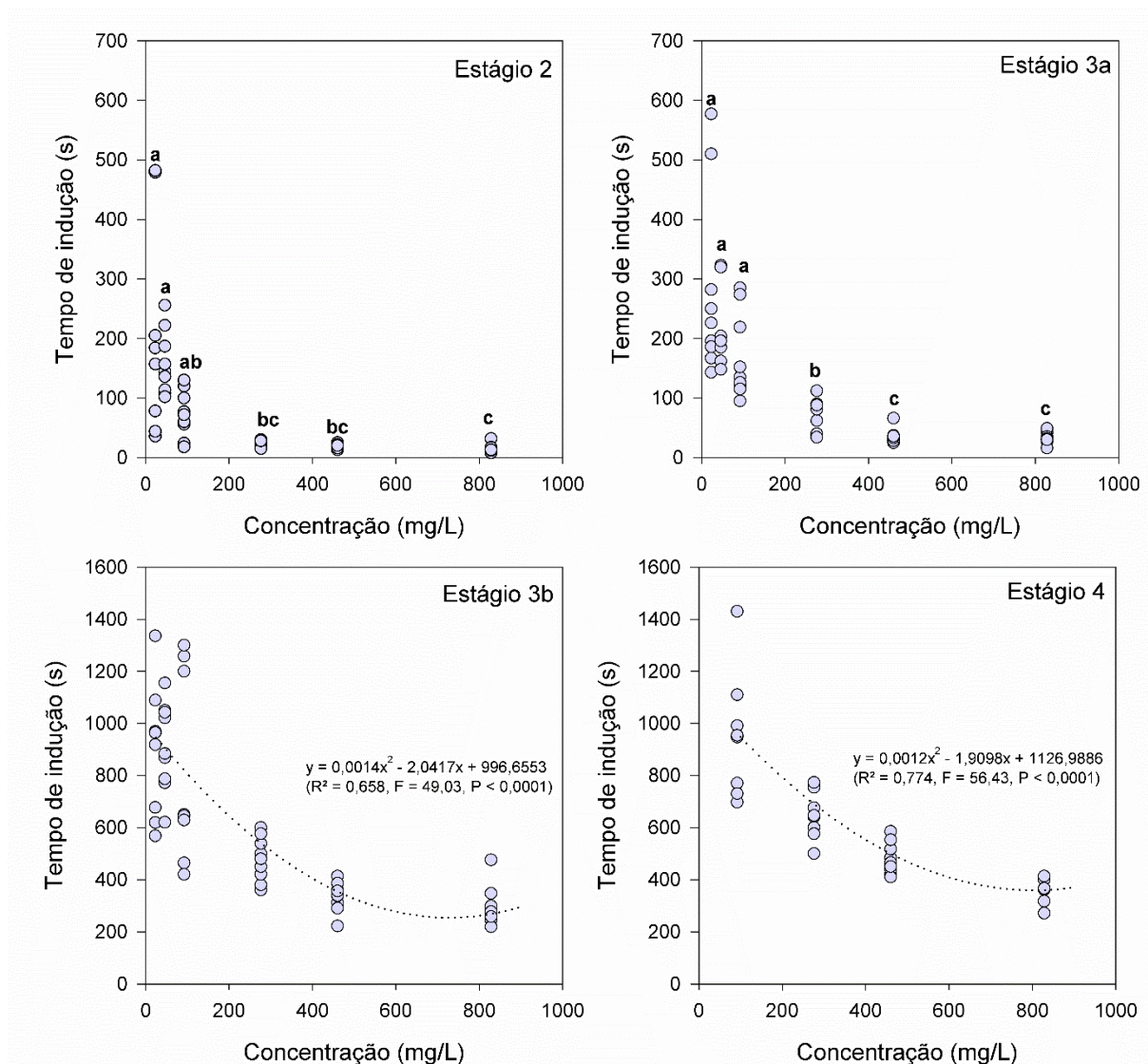
Os jundiás expostos a 92-828 mg/L de OE alcançaram anestesia profunda (estágio S4) entre 6-15 min, enquanto baixas concentrações do extrativo (23-46 mg/L) induziram perda total de equilíbrio (estágio S3b). Por meio da análise de regressão, uma correlação positiva entre as concentrações de OE testadas e o tempo requerido para a indução anestésica foi observada nos estágios 3b e 4.

Em relação ao tempo de recuperação dos animais, todos aqueles expostos a 23 e 46 mg/L de OE recuperaram⁵ dentro de 15 a 22 min. No entanto, 22%, 33% e 55% dos animais expostos às concentrações intermediárias de 92, 276 e 460 mg/L, respectivamente, não voltaram

⁵ Animais foram considerados recuperados quando demonstraram nado normal e reação a estímulo externo (GOMES et al., 2011).

ao comportamento normal dentro de 30 min (período máximo de observação). Nenhum animal avaliado na concentração de 828 mg/L recuperou durante o tempo pré-estabelecido de observação (30 min). Além dos animais apresentarem perda de muco durante as fases de indução e de recuperação, após 48 h, 55% de taxa de mortalidade foi observada na maior concentração de OE avaliada.

Figura 14– Efeito do óleo essencial de *Nectandra grandiflora* Nees sobre o sistema nervoso central de jundiás



Fonte: Autora.

Os dados estão apresentados como média \pm desvio padrão (n=9). As letras minúsculas indicam diferenças significativas entre as concentrações no estágio 2 (ANOVA por Kruskal-Wallis, com pós teste de Dunn, $P < 0,05$) e no estágio 3a (ANOVA com pós teste de Tukey, $P < 0,05$).

A Tabela 6 exibe os dados referentes ao experimento realizado com o constituinte isolado DHF. A menor concentração de DHF avaliada induziu os estágios de sedação profunda (estágio S2) e perda parcial de equilíbrio (estágio S3a), enquanto que a anestesia profunda foi alcançada com as concentrações entre 50 e 160 mg/L em 5-7 min. Uma relação positiva entre o aumento da concentração de DHF e a diminuição do tempo necessário para a indução anestésica foi detectada para os estágios 2, 3a e 3b através da análise de regressão.

Tabela 6 – Atividade sedativo-anestésica da substância isolada (+)-deidrofuquinona (DHF) em jundiás e a sua comparação ao óleo essencial de *Nectandra grandiflora* Nees (OE) e ao eugenol (controle positivo)

Amostras (mg/L)	Tempo de indução (s)				Recuperação (s)
	Estágio 2	Estágio 3a	Estágio 3b	Estágio 4	
Controle	–	–	–	–	–
DHF					
9	192,4 ± 11,6	264,0 ± 24,9	–	–	376,1 ± 38,8
50	13,6 ± 1,0	41,2 ± 4,4	371,2 ± 19,6*	465,0 ± 47,1 ^a	981,1 ± 77,7
90	10,5 ± 0,8	32,9 ± 3,6	313,7 ± 20,4 [#]	373,7 ± 37,4 ^b	912,3 ± 27,4
160	5,9 ± 0,6	21,4 ± 3,3	235,9 ± 7,9	320,9 ± 14,7 ^b	> 1800
Regressão	$y = 2480,4x^{-1,235}$ (R ² = 0,945)	$y = 1671,4x^{-0,895}$ (R ² = 0,880)	$\ln y = 448,31 - 0,004x$ (R ² = 0,644)	–	$y = -0,2034x^2 + 26,758x + 151,78$ (R ² = 0,798)
DMS				104,47	
OE					
460	26,0 ± 3,0 [#]	75,1 ± 3,4 [#]	258,9 ± 8,7	323,5 ± 12,9	> 1800
Eugenol					
50	13,7 ± 0,8	30,5 ± 2,4	185,7 ± 5,9	372,7 ± 15,2	947,2 ± 143,1

Fonte: Autora.

Os dados estão apresentados como média ± erro padrão da média (n=8). As letras minúsculas indicam diferenças significativas entre as concentrações no estágio 4 para DHF através do teste Tukey (P<0,05). #P<0,05, DHF (90 mg/L) e OE em concentração proporcional (460 mg/L) usando t-test. *P<0,05, DHF e Eugenol (ambos a 50 mg/L) através do teste de Mann Whitney. DMS: Diferença Mínima Significativa. Nas equações, x= concentração da amostra (mg/L); y = tempo para atingir o estágio de indução ou recuperação em segundos (s).

Em concentrações proporcionais de OE (460 mg/L) e DHF (90 mg/L), foram demonstradas diferenças significativas no tempo de indução nos estágios 2, 3a e 3b. Os animais expostos a substância DHF alcançaram os estágios de sedação e perda parcial de equilíbrio em tempos menores que o OE, contrário do observado para os estágios 3b e 4. Os resultados sugerem que a DHF pode ser a principal responsável pela atividade sedativa observada no óleo

essencial de *N. grandiflora*. Entretanto, outras substâncias presentes no OE podem estar contribuindo para que o estágio de anestesia profunda seja induzido em menor tempo pelo OE.

Ademais, a substância DHF provocou efeitos depressores sem diferenças significativas em relação ao eugenol, usado como controle positivo, em uma mesma concentração (50 mg/L). A única exceção a esse padrão foi o estágio 3b, induzido em tempo menor pelo eugenol, aproximadamente 3 min, enquanto que os peixes expostos a DHF alcançaram o estágio 3b em torno de 6 min.

Em relação aos efeitos adversos que podem limitar a aplicação de substâncias na aquicultura, estão as taxas de mortalidade verificadas nos ensaios de laboratório. Nesse caso, 12% e 37% dos animais morreram após o período de exposição às concentrações de 90 mg/L e 160 mg/L de DHF. Desse modo, considerando os seguintes resultados obtidos no teste com 50 mg/L de DHF: indução à anestesia em tempos considerados baixos (7 min), semelhante ao encontrado para o eugenol (em torno de 5 min), recuperação dos peixes observada em até 16 min e sem mortalidade animal, esse composto mostrou-se promissor como agente anestésico na referida concentração.

Ademais, tais resultados são importantes sob o ponto de vista farmacológico, pois a busca de novos fármacos com propriedades sedativas e anestésicas mesmo em modelo experimental com jundiás, permite conhecer potenciais agentes sedativos em protocolos utilizando mamíferos, tais como roedores. Os dados encontrados pela autora também podem contribuir para o aumento do portfólio de moléculas ativas e podem servir como base para outras pesquisas científicas, a exemplo de Garlet et al. (2016).

6 DISCUSSÃO GERAL

O Brasil é considerado o país com a maior biodiversidade do planeta, com 46.206 espécies de plantas nativas reconhecidas até o momento. Essa biodiversidade está distribuída ao longo dos seis principais biomas (FLORA DO BRASIL 2020, 2016), contudo a Mata Atlântica é considerada uma importante fonte de matérias-primas como madeiras, extrativos vegetais e de alimentos (frutos e sementes) (DI STASI; HIRUMA-LIMA, 2002). Atrélado a essa importância, o surgimento e o desenvolvimento de cidades, contribuíram, significativamente, para a fragmentação da Mata Atlântica e à extinção de espécies da fauna e da flora ao longo das décadas (MORELLATO; HADDAD, 2000). De acordo com Ribeiro et al. (2009), as reservas naturais de Mata Atlântica protegem somente 9% da floresta remanescente e 1% da floresta original, o que implica em uma estimativa entre 11,4 a 16% de Mata Atlântica Brasileira.

Em vista disso, estudos de conservação e de utilização sustentável dos recursos naturais estão sendo desenvolvidos, entre eles pesquisas voltadas a busca de novas moléculas ativas a partir de espécies vegetais nativas (VIEIRA; BIZZO; DESCHAMPS, 2010) e ao manejo dessas espécies produtoras de importantes extrativos (SCOLFORO et al., 2004), ou ainda a domesticação de espécies nativas (HOMMA, 2012). As espécies nativas brasileiras apresentam um amplo espectro de compostos naturais, que têm sido uma fonte de princípios ativos e ingredientes, inicialmente, para a medicina tradicional e culinária (DI STASI; HIRUMA-LIMA, 2002). Atualmente, companhias farmacêuticas e biotecnológicas estão, constantemente, buscando bioquímicos naturais que impõem alto valor agregado em diversos segmentos, como médico e de química fina (DEVAPPA; RAKSHIT; DEKKER, 2015). Os antioxidantes naturais, por exemplo, representam 38% do mercado de antioxidantes, sendo promissores, especialmente, nos setores alimentício e cosmético (NAVARRETE et al., 2011).

É comprovado por meio de estudos científicos que os extrativos vegetais desempenham diversas funções biológicas nas plantas, dentre elas, polinização e dispersão de sementes, defesa contra micro-organismos, insetos fitófagos, radiação ultravioleta, eliminação de espécies reativas de oxigênio, dentre outras funções (ANGELO; JORGE, 2007; MUCHUWETI et al., 2007; GLINWOOD; NINKOVIC; PETTERSSON, 2011). Além disso, os extrativos são considerados os principais responsáveis pela durabilidade natural da madeira, sendo importantes para proteção e vida útil dos produtos madeireiros (ALLOUI et al., 2004; KIRKER et al., 2013).

Em relação à biodegradação de produtos madeireiros, há uma significativa preocupação dos órgãos ambientais no que consta à utilização de substâncias sintéticas, que envolve a toxicidade e os efeitos residuais gerados por esses produtos (WANG; CHEN; CHANG, 2005; SINGH; SINGH, 2012). Desse modo, tornou-se uma necessidade a busca de alternativas *eco-friendly* (amigas do ambiente) que tenham toxicidade insignificante para a saúde humana e animal, além de possuírem uma taxa maior de absorção e/ou biodegradabilidade pelo meio ambiente. Preenchendo essa lacuna, muitas substâncias de origem vegetal têm demonstrado atividade antifúngica contra diferentes espécies fúngicas. A exemplo, Boulogne et al. (2012), realizou uma revisão sobre substâncias antifúngicas e inseticidas produzidas pelas plantas, identificaram a potencialidade de 1064 espécies de plantas que apresentaram propriedade antifúngica. Dentre os extrativos vegetais eficientes na proteção contra o ataque fúngico estão os óleos essenciais (OE) e seus constituintes isolados (WANG; CHEN; CHANG, 2005; MAREI; ABDEL RASOUL; ABDELGALEIL, 2012), flavonoides (BENTO et al., 2014) e taninos (TASCIOGLU et al., 2013).

A degradação fúngica da madeira inicia pela penetração da hifa através do lúmen da célula vegetal através de uma intensa secreção de metabólitos extracelulares, principalmente enzimas, promovida pelo fungo. As enzimas, por sua vez, trabalham sinergicamente, clivando pontes de hidrogênio e ligações covalentes dos polímeros vegetais de sustentação, o que resulta em monômeros de glicose que podem ser digeridos pelas hifas, e assim gerando energia para que elas possam penetrar na membrana plasmática da célula vegetal e adentrar no metabolismo intracelular (OLIVEIRA et al., 2005; CARVALHO et al., 2009).

Os mecanismos inibitórios dos extrativos vegetais sobre o crescimento dos fungos se dividem basicamente em: inibição de enzimas intra e extracelulares (como β -(1,3)-glicano sintase, celulase e a metil pectina esterase), bloqueio de esteroides da membrana fúngica (ergosterol), poder antioxidante e através da quelação (complexação) metálica (SCHULTZ; NICHOLAS, 2002; MAREI; ABDEL RASOUL; ABDELGALEIL, 2012; TIAN et al., 2012). Marei et al. (2012) mostraram que as enzimas pectil metil esterase e celulase são alvos de componentes dos OE, entre eles os monoterpenoides como timol e *S*-limoneno, que causaram forte efeito inibitório da celulase. Já Tian et al. (2012), verificaram que o OE de *Anethum graveolens* L. foi responsável pela inibição da síntese de ergosterol, ocasionando lesão na membrana plasmática de *Aspergillus flavus* Link.

Em relação ao poder antioxidante de extrativos vegetais como fator de inibição fúngica, o estudo realizado por Yen e Chang (2008), avaliou conhecidos antioxidantes, dentre eles

quercetina, catequina e eugenol, contra fungos apodrecedores de madeira. Esses compostos também foram testados em combinação com o cinamaldeído, potente antifúngico contra fungos de podridão. Os autores desse trabalho identificaram forte efeito sinérgico entre eugenol e cinamaldeído contra *Laetiporus sulphureus* (Bull.) Murrill, efeito aditivo entre os flavonóis com cinamaldeído contra *L. sulphureus*, mas contra *Lenzites betulina* (L.) Fr. houve antagonismo (YEN; CHANG, 2008). Tais dados podem ser uma plausível explicação para os resultados descritos obtidos pela no artigo 1, que descreve os efeitos antifúngicos diferenciados para o OE de *N. grandiflora* e DHF, na dependência da espécie fúngica ensaiada. Como houve diferença significativa entre o crescimento micelial de *Gloeophyllum trabeum* exposto a DHF (a 90 mg/L, concentração proporcional a sua ocorrência no OE) e ao OE (ICM= $6,64 \pm 0,10$ mm e $4,14 \pm 0,90$ mm, respectivamente), é possível que tenha ocorrido uma interação positiva entre os constituintes do OE, com potenciação, efeito sinérgico ou aditivo. No entanto, na análise comparativa considerando-se o efeito observado no teste com *Pycnoporus sanguineus*, não houve diferença entre DHF e o OE, sugerindo que o constituinte isolado DHF seja o principal responsável pelo efeito inibitório detectado.

Os resultados do teste de apodrecimento acelerado apresentados no artigo 3, realizado com o extrato bruto e as frações enriquecidas de folhas de *O. lancifolia*, também podem ser explicados por meio da interação positiva entre os constituintes presentes no extrato bruto estudado, que mostrou ser mais eficiente que a fração butanólica, rica em flavonoides. Extratos etanólicos são frequentemente constituídos de metabólitos secundários de estrutura polifenólica, entretanto outras classes de substâncias polares como os terpenoides glicosilados também podem ser extraídas pelo etanol, solvente orgânico utilizado nas extrações (TAKETA et al., 2000). Nesse caso, o extrato bruto de *O. lancifolia* pode compreender além de derivados da quercetina, sesquiterpenoides como o óxido de cariofileno (SILVA et al., 2013), sesquiterpenoide descrito na literatura como agente antifúngico (YANG et al., 2000).

Betula pubescens, usada no teste de apodrecimento acelerado, é uma árvore nativa e abundante no norte da Europa e da Ásia e que não apresenta características específicas de solo para se desenvolver, sendo frequente em áreas úmidas, em solos compactos e com baixo teor de nutrientes (HYNENEN et al., 2009). Resultados promissores de redução de perda de massa foram observados com lâminas dessa espécie impregnadas com o extrato bruto e com a fração acetato de etila de *O. lancifolia*. Tais resultados sugerem que a atividade protetora contra fungos apodrecedores também possa ocorrer em algumas espécies exóticas com plantios comerciais no

Brasil, como o caso de *Eucalyptus* e *Pinus*, fortemente adaptados às condições edofoclimáticas encontradas no território brasileiro.

Considerando os resultados obtidos nos ensaios antioxidantes em que se utilizou os radicais DPPH e ABTS, foi comprovado que os extrativos foliares de *N. grandiflora* e *O. lancifolia* são potenciais agentes inativadores de radicais livres. A inibição ou a prevenção da oxidação de materiais oxidáveis através da inibição de radicais livres diminui o estresse oxidativo⁶, importante fator para o desenvolvimento de doenças crônicas degenerativas, incluindo doenças coronárias, câncer e envelhecimento (AMES; SHIGENAGA; HAGEN, 1993).

Os extratos etanólicos de *N. grandiflora* e *O. lancifolia* apresentaram IC₅₀ iguais a 0,97 ± 0,05 e 1,10 ± 0,08 mg/mL respectivamente no ensaio do DPPH, similares ao encontrado na literatura científica para ambas as espécies (RIBEIRO; SILVA; BOLZANI, 2002; CAMARGO, 2011) e para a quercetina na presente tese (antioxidante usado como referência; IC₅₀ = 0,08 ± 0,05 mg/mL). Um dos fatores que contribui para atividade antioxidante dos extratos é a presença de grupos hidroxilas nos anéis aromáticos A e C dos compostos flavonoídicos (ex. quercetina-3-*O*-ramnosideo, quercetina-3-*O*-glicuronideo e campferol-3-*O*-glicosideo) que conferem grande estabilidade ao radical fenólico assim que é formado, após a doação de um hidrogênio ao radical livre DPPH (RIBEIRO et al., 2005; DAI; MUMPER, 2010). Além disso, a estrutura *o*-catecólica frequentemente presente no anel B contribui, significativamente, para o potencial antioxidante dos flavonoides (BORS; MICHEL, 2002).

Em relação aos rendimentos fitoquímicos, as espécies *N. grandiflora* e *O. lancifolia* apresentam alto rendimento do extrato etanólico foliar em relação a outras espécies de Lauraceae, como *O. macrophylla* (17,1%) (BARRERA; SUÁREZ, 2009) e *N. megapotamica* (16,5%) (DA SILVA FILHO et al., 2004). Espécimes de *O. lancifolia* coletadas em Mato Grosso do Sul produziram 48,6% e 31,6% de extrato etanólico a partir de folhas e galhos respectivamente (CAMARGO, 2011). Esses valores são maiores que o encontrado na presente tese e descritos no artigo 2 (aprox. 28%). Ribeiro et al. (2002) detectaram um rendimento de somente 0,26% de extrato etanólico de folhas de *N. grandiflora* coletadas em São Paulo, quase 100 vezes menor que o obtido no artigo 4, cerca de 22%. Portanto, há uma variabilidade na produção de metabólitos secundários em *N. grandiflora*, além de ocorrer nos OE (SILVA,

⁶ O estresse oxidativo é um estado desbalanceado onde quantidades excessivas de espécies reativas de oxigênio (ex. ânion superóxido, peróxido de hidrogênio, radical hidroxila) superam a capacidade antioxidante endógena, levando à oxidação de variedades de biomacromoléculas, como enzimas, proteínas, DNA e lipídeos.

2013), também parece ocorrer em constituintes de estrutura polifenólica que são extraídos pelo etanol (EGUA et al., 2014).

Contudo, se ressalta que Ribeiro et al. (2002) e Camargo (2011) não especificaram o método de extração empregado em seus trabalhos. O método de extração escolhido é importante fator para o conhecimento fitoquímico das espécies, podendo influenciar diretamente no teor de extrativo obtido, nas propriedades químicas e físicas, e conseqüentemente sobre as propriedades biológicas detectadas para os extrativos vegetais (DAI; MUMPER, 2010). Ademais, outros fatores que podem influenciar a quantidade de extrativo obtida é a razão amostra: solvente e o tamanho da partícula da matriz vegetal a qual foi submetida ao processo de extração (NACZK; SHAHIDI, 2004; COSTA et al., 2015). Estudos têm sido desenvolvidos para otimizar os processos de extração a partir de fontes vegetais, processos esses que objetivam alcançar maiores rendimentos de compostos, menor consumo de solvente em tempos de extração reduzidos (WIJNGAARD et al., 2012). Os dados encontrados no artigo 4, revelam que os três diferentes métodos de extração testados para *N. grandiflora* diferiram principalmente quanto ao rendimento de extrativos, sendo a extração convencional com uso do Soxhlet a mais eficiente. Entretanto, a composição química e a capacidade antioxidante dos extratos etanólicos foram similares, sugerindo-se a necessidade da otimização das extrações por ultrassom e micro-ondas que focam no aumento do teor de extrativos e/ou de moléculas ativas.

A identificação dos compostos fenólicos realizada com o auxílio da técnica de CLUE-EM realizar uma estimativa dos compostos fenólicos, dentre eles se detectou a quercetina-3-*O*-ramnosídeo (57-65%) e o campferol-3-*O*-ramnosídeo (5-6%) nos extratos de *N. grandiflora*, indo ao encontro do estudo realizado por Ribeiro et al. (2002). No caso do extrato etanólico de *O. lancifolia*, a técnica aplicada proporcionou a identificação de cinco diferentes substâncias, totalizando, aproximadamente, 44% da composição química total do extrato, sendo quercetina-3-*O*-ramnosídeo o constituinte majoritário (20,85%). As frações hexânica e hidrometanólica, obtidas por meio da partição do extrato bruto de folhas e galhos de *O. lancifolia*, configuraram o trabalho de Camargo (2011), no qual foram isoladas e identificadas dezessete substâncias, dentre elas, oito sesquiterpenos, duas proantocianidinas, um flavonoide (epicatequina), dois diterpenos, dois esteroides, o poliprenol 12-ficaprenol e o α -tocoferol. Dessa forma, sugere-se que além de verificar a co-eluição de compostos através dos fragmentos de massas obtidos pelo EM, a extração de constituintes não-fenólicos pode ter ocorrido. Exemplos desses constituintes são sesquiterpenoides, diterpenoides (SILVA et al., 2013) e aqueles mencionados por Camargo (2011).

Outro aspecto importante identificado está descrito no artigo 2 em que variações na composição volátil de OE de uma população natural de *O. lancifolia* foram abordadas. Uma variação intraespecífica relacionada à produção e composição química de OE entre os indivíduos amostrados de *O. lancifolia* foi encontrada com a presença expressiva do constituinte β -quenopodiol em duas amostras de OE (T2_L e T4_L). O constituinte volátil β -quenopodiol também foi identificado nos OE dos órgãos reprodutivos de *O. lancifolia* que constavam nos indivíduos na época da coleta correspondente (inflorescências e frutos). Essas amostras, além da variabilidade química do OE, apresentaram baixo rendimento desse extrativo, em comparação aos outros indivíduos coletados e analisados no decorrer do ano de pesquisa.

Explicações para a diversidade química estão atreladas à estrutura etária da população vegetal (MOORE; FOLEY, 2005), bem como às interações bióticas que geralmente modificam os perfis dos metabólitos secundários, através da indução de respostas defensivas (KESSLER; BALDWIN, 2002). Além disso, foi comprovado que constituintes de OE como terpenoides podem atuar como defensores diretos das plantas uma vez que apresentam toxicidade generalizada (MOORE et al., 2014). Entre as classes de substâncias que atuam na defesa direta das plantas estão as contidas nas óleo-resinas, e alguns terpenoides a exemplo do limoneno, 1,8-cineol, mirceno e humuleno (DAS et al., 2013). Segundo Moore et al. (2014) tanto a diversidade quantitativa de componentes de OE quanto a qualitativa influenciam as interações ecológicas das plantas que possuem compostos voláteis.

O descobrimento de novas atividades biológicas a partir de matrizes naturais, e principalmente de espécies da flora nativa pouco estudadas, torna-se fundamental para avaliar o potencial dos remanescentes florestais, áreas de preservação permanente e reservas legais de propriedades rurais. Esses estudos permitem verificar a potencialidade química das moléculas e fármacos que podem ser obtidos das populações naturais, agregando valor aos produtos extraídos. Ademais, tais pesquisas vão ao encontro das diretrizes estabelecidas no Código Florestal (BRASIL, 2012), o qual incentiva e permite o uso sustentável de áreas de proteção natural.

Os resultados descritos na presente tese fornecem base para a geração de produtos como antioxidantes naturais, importantes para os setores de cosméticos, de medicamentos e de conservação de alimentos, por exemplo. Os anestésicos, são de fundamental importância para a aquicultura brasileira, um ramo que cresce significativamente no país. Mesmo que limitações ainda existam para o uso comercial de produtos naturais, citam-se as marcas já registradas Aqui-

S® e Termilone® empregados na aquicultura e na indústria madeireira, respectivamente. Substâncias provenientes de matrizes vegetais, como a quercetina (extraída da faveira) e o α -bisabolol, extraído do tronco da candeia, também configuram importantes ingredientes para diferentes produtos comerciais (PINHEIRO, 2002; HOMMA, 2012).

A patente registrada no INPI configura a *N. grandiflora* uma planta com possibilidades para atrair interesses da indústria nacional e mundial. Além disso, o presente estudo serviu como subsídio para o desenvolvimento de outras pesquisas do grupo de pesquisas do Laboratório de Extrativos Vegetais, incluindo projetos de iniciação científica e de pós-graduação. Esses projetos visam a descoberta de novas atividades biológicas para os metabólitos secundários de *O. lancifolia* e *N. grandiflora* e que contribuirão também para a geração de bioprodutos úteis a saúde humana e animal.

7 CONCLUSÃO

Os resultados encontrados na presente tese demonstraram que as espécies florestais *Nectandra grandiflora* e *Ocotea lancifolia* são fontes de diferentes classes de metabólitos secundários, a exemplo de óleos essenciais e flavonoides, sendo também promissoras sob o ponto de vista biológico. Dentre as principais conclusões, destacam-se as mencionadas a seguir:

- I) O óleo essencial obtido de folhas de *N. grandiflora* foi eficiente no controle micelial *in vitro* de duas espécies de fungos apodrecedores de madeira (*Gloeophyllum trabeum* e *Pycnoporus sanguineus*), assim como apresentou atividades sedativo-anestésicas em juvenis de jundiás;
- II) O constituinte majoritário do óleo essencial de *N. grandiflora* foi isolado e identificado como (+)-deidrofuquinona, sendo também fungitóxico e eficiente agente anestésico;
- III) O estudo químico do óleo essencial de uma população natural de *O. lancifolia* demonstrou que o óxido de cariofileno é o principal constituinte volátil e a variabilidade sobre o teor e composição química pode ter sido influenciada pelo dano fitopatogênico e/ou fatores fisiológicos dos indivíduos de *O. lancifolia* amostrados;
- IV) Derivados da quercetina foram detectados na composição química do extrato etanólico e das frações acetato de etila e butanólica obtidos das folhas de *O. lancifolia*, os quais exibiram forte atividade antioxidante;
- V) O extrato etanólico e a fração acetato de etila de *O. lancifolia* se mostraram eficientes para a redução da perda de massa em lâminas de *Betula pubescens* tratadas na concentração de 4% e expostas a *Trametes versicolor* e *G. trabeum* e podem ter potencial para o desenvolvimento de agentes preservantes de produtos madeireiros;
- VI) Os diferentes métodos de extração avaliados exerceram influência sobre o rendimento final de extrato etanólico, no entanto a análise química detectou a presença predominante de quercetina-3-*O*-ramnosídeo nos extratos foliares de *N. grandiflora*;

- VII) Os extratos etanólicos de *N. grandiflora* também apresentaram forte potencial antioxidante frente aos radicais DPPH e ABTS.

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APÊNDICE A – PATENTE DE INVENÇÃO



República Federativa do Brasil
Ministério da Indústria, Comércio Exterior
e Serviços
Instituto Nacional da Propriedade Industrial

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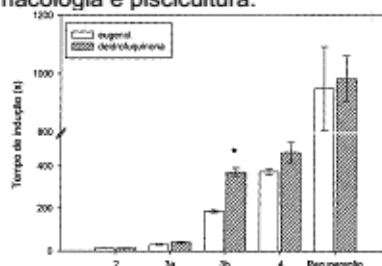
(54) Título: MÉTODO DE SEDAÇÃO E/OU ANESTESIA EM ANIMAIS E USO DE DEIDROFUQUINONA

(51) Int. Cl.: A61K 31/122; A61K 36/54; A61P 25/20

(73) Titular(es): UNIVERSIDADE FEDERAL DE SANTA MARIA

(72) Inventor(es): BERTA MARIA HEINZMANN, BERNARDO BALDISSEROTTO, SOLON JONAS LONGHI, DANIELA THOMAS DA SILVA, LENISE DE LIMA SILVA, NADIA HELENA BIANCHINI, QUELEN IANE GARLET

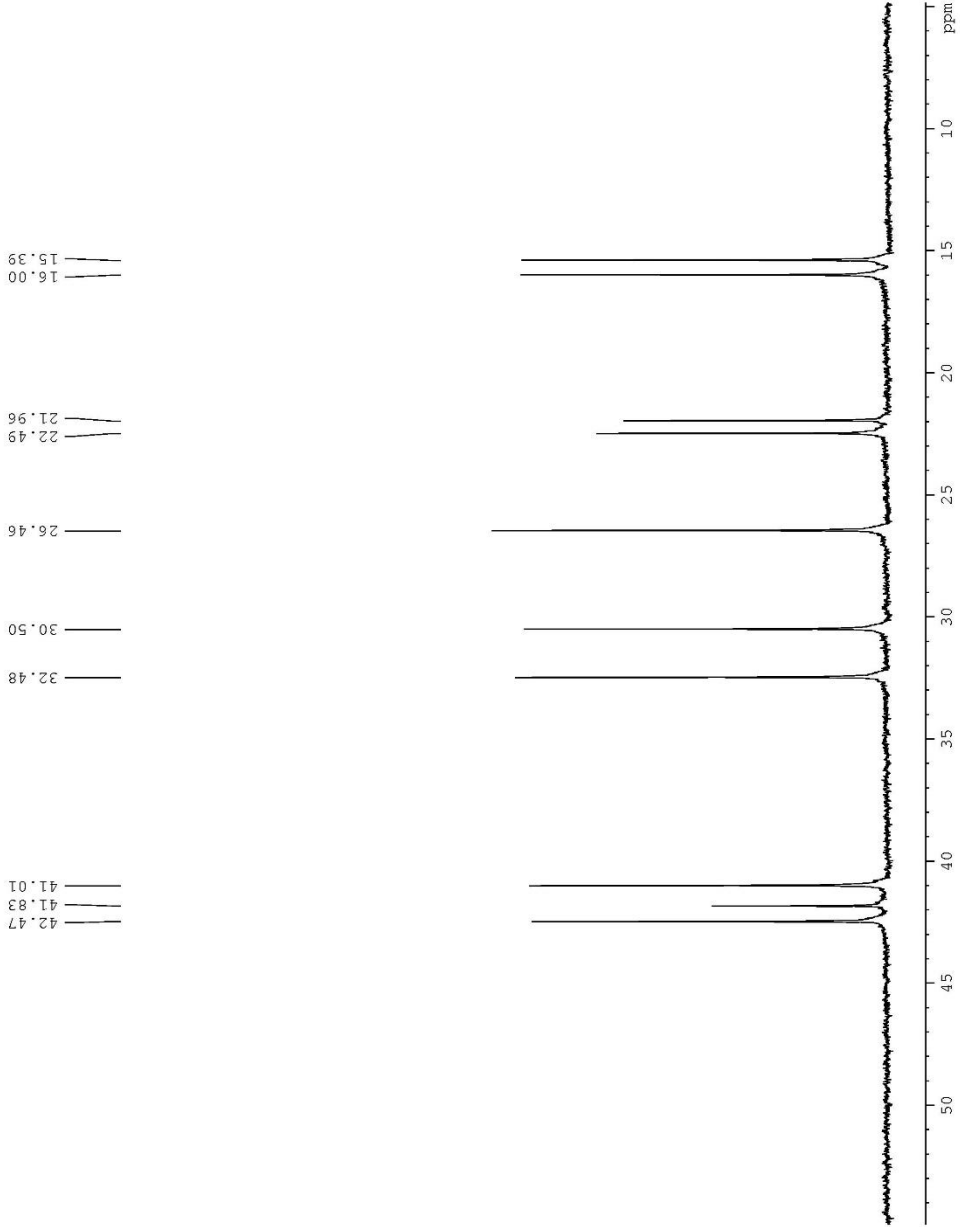
(57) Resumo: MÉTODO DE SEDAÇÃO E/OU ANESTESIA EM ANIMAIS E USO DE DEIDROFUQUINONA A presente invenção descreve um método de sedação e/ou anestesia em animais compreendendo animais aquáticos e o uso de deidrofuquidona. Especificamente, a presente invenção refere-se a um método de sedação e/ou anestesia em animais compreendendo a aplicação de deidrofuquinona, seus enantiômeros ou seus sais farmacologicamente aceitáveis em um meio aquático contendo animais e em uma concentração final de pelo menos 5 mg/L. Em específico, a deidrofuquinona é extraída do óleo essencial de *Nectandra grandiflora*. A presente invenção situa-se nos campos da fitoquímica, farmacologia e piscicultura.



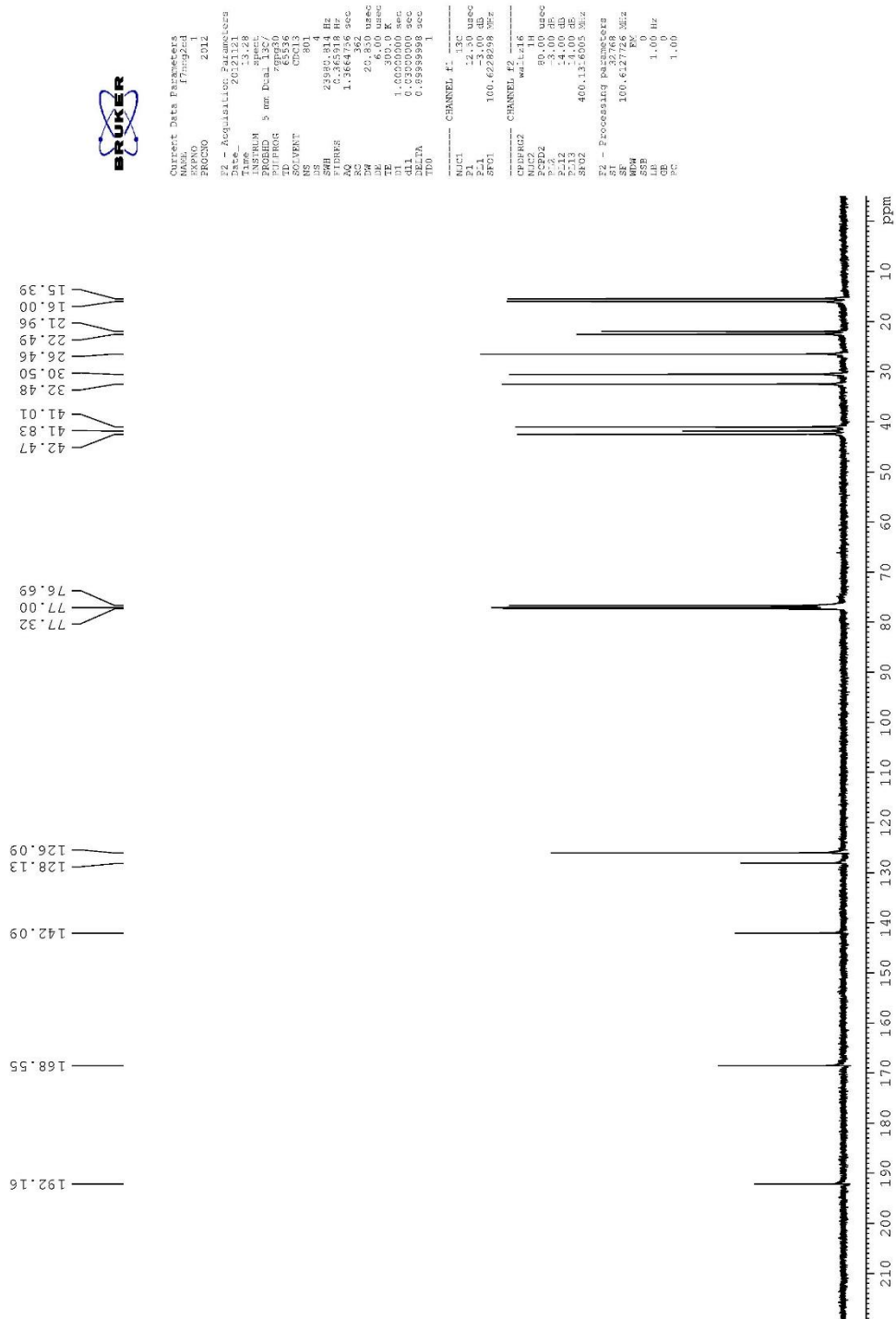
APÊNDICE B – ESPECTROS DE RMN ¹³C DA SUBSTÂNCIA (+) - DEIDROFUQUINONA.



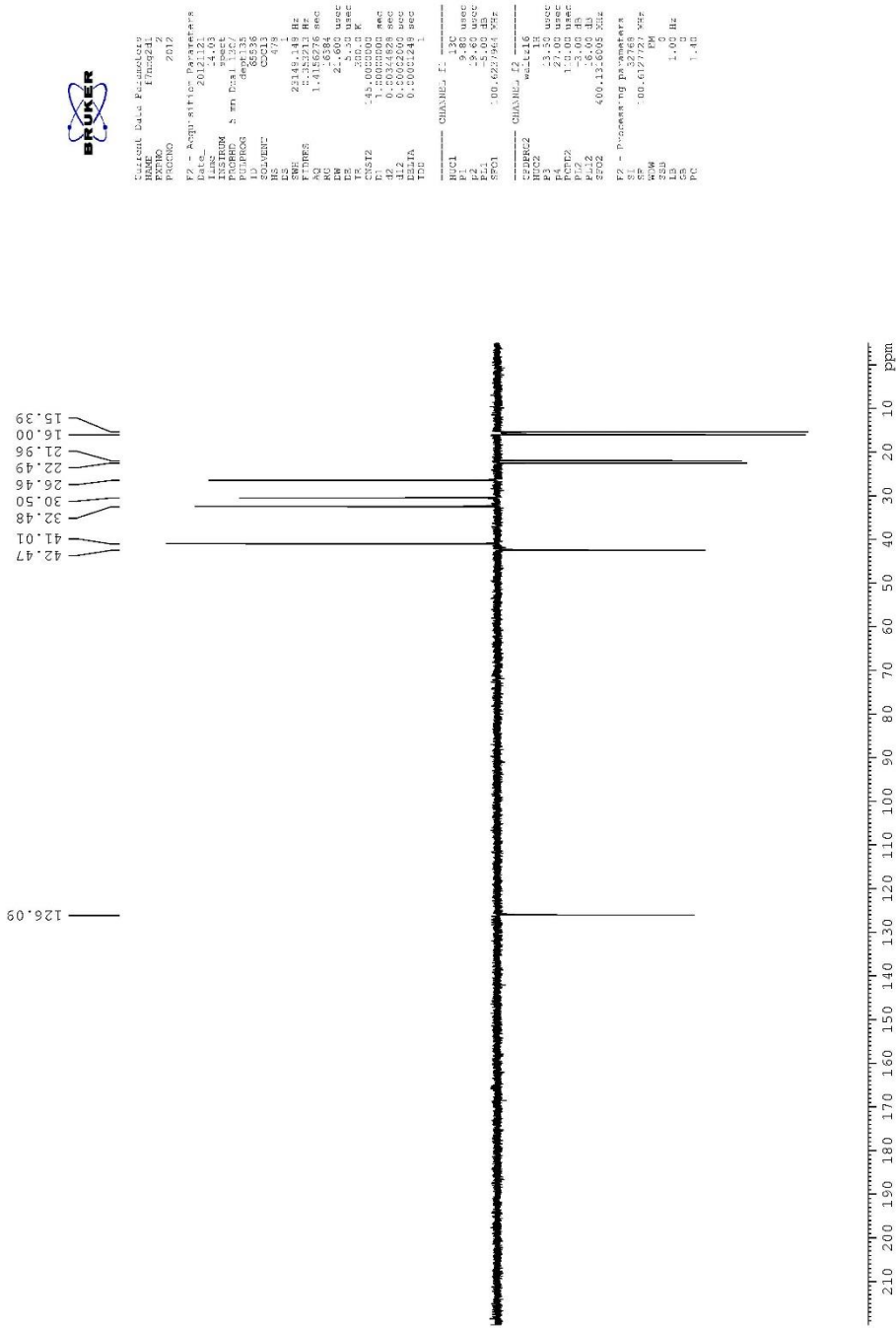
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 DELTA: 0.03999999 sec
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 NUC1: 13C
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 PL1: 0.00 dB
 SFO1: 100.626369 MHz
 ===== CHANNEL f2 =====
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Continuação Apêndice B – Ampliação do espectro de RMN ¹³C da substância (+) - deidrofuquinona.

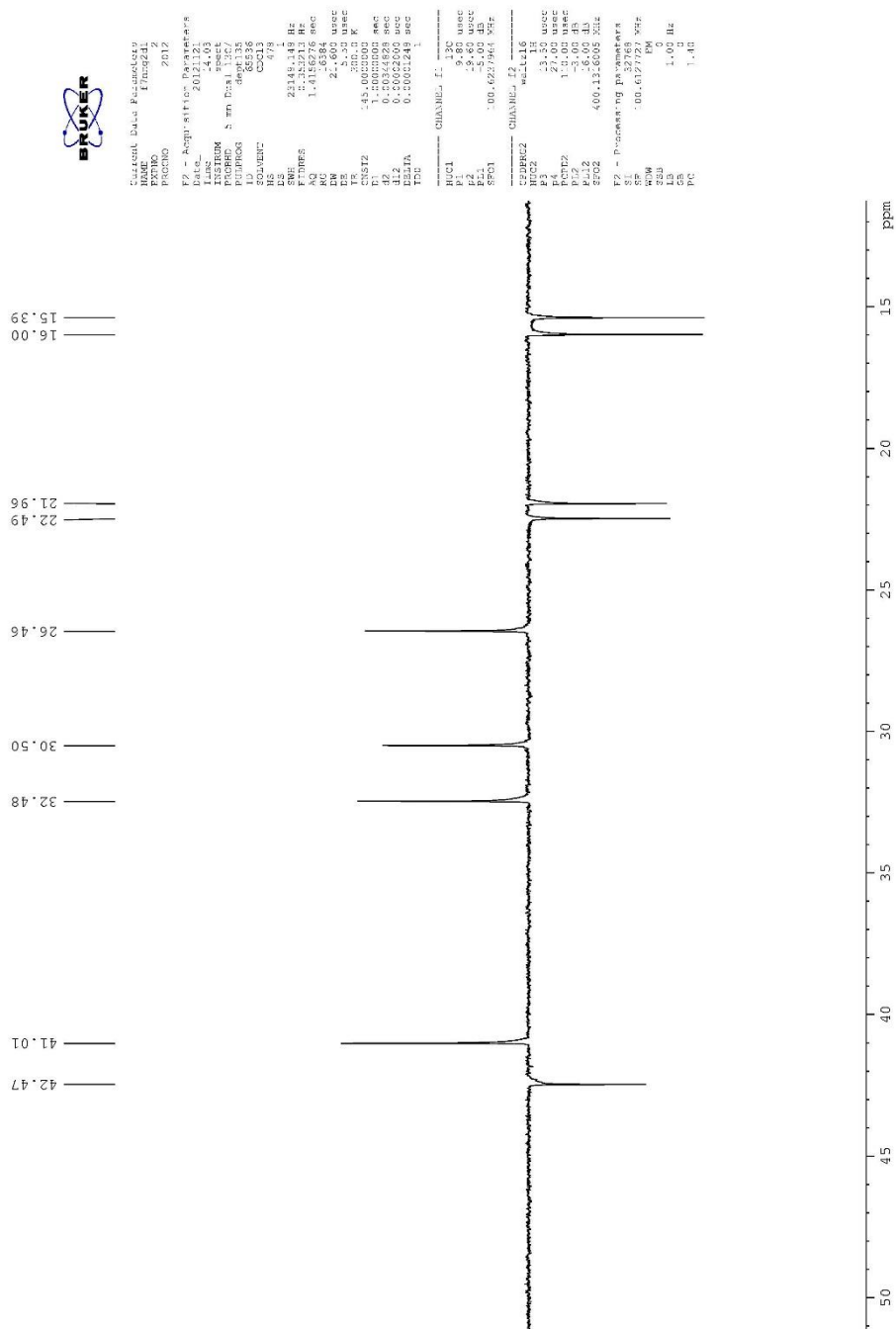


APÊNDICE C – ESPECTROS DE DEPT 135° DA SUBSTÂNCIA (+) - DEIDROFUQUINONA.

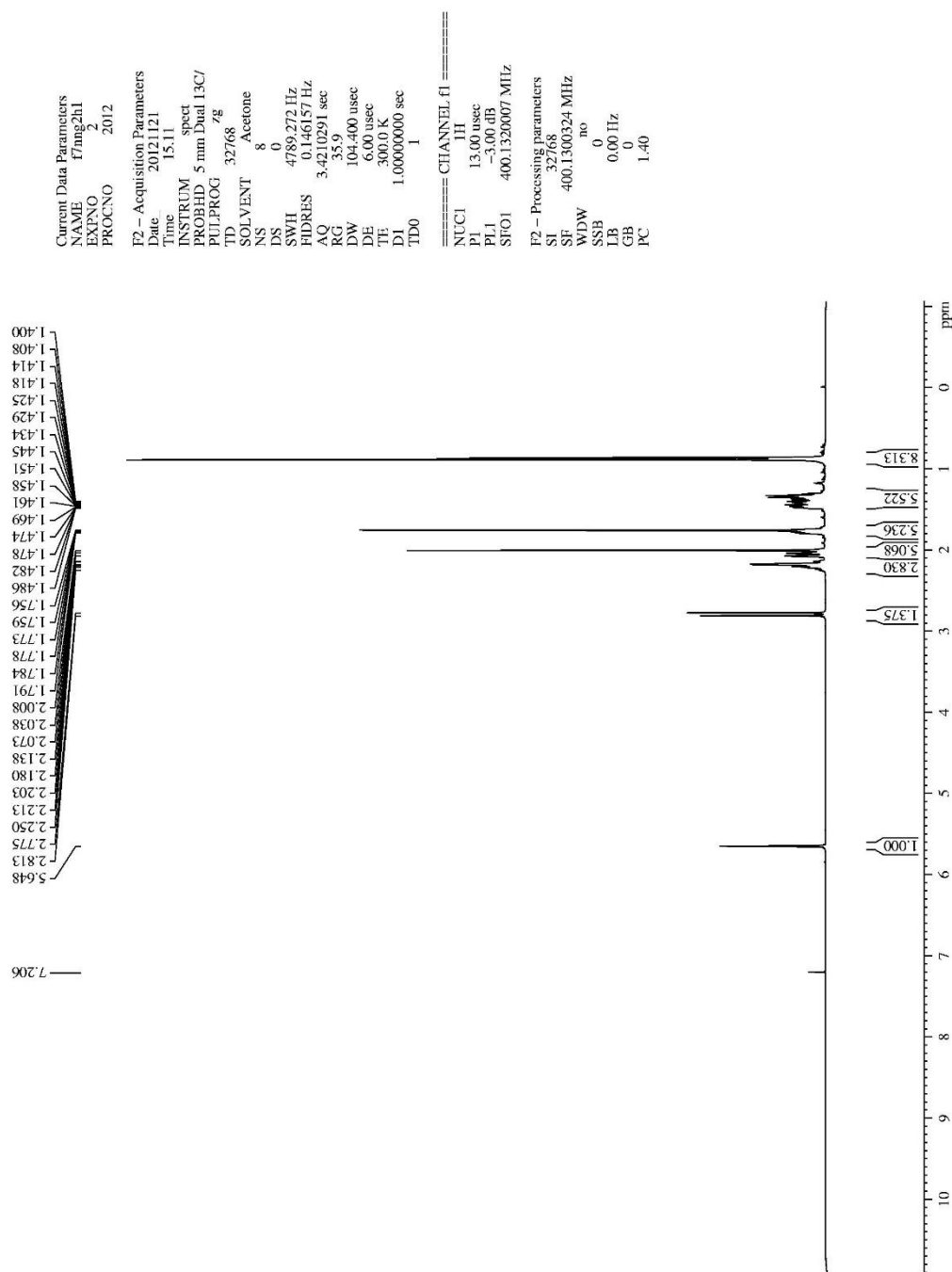


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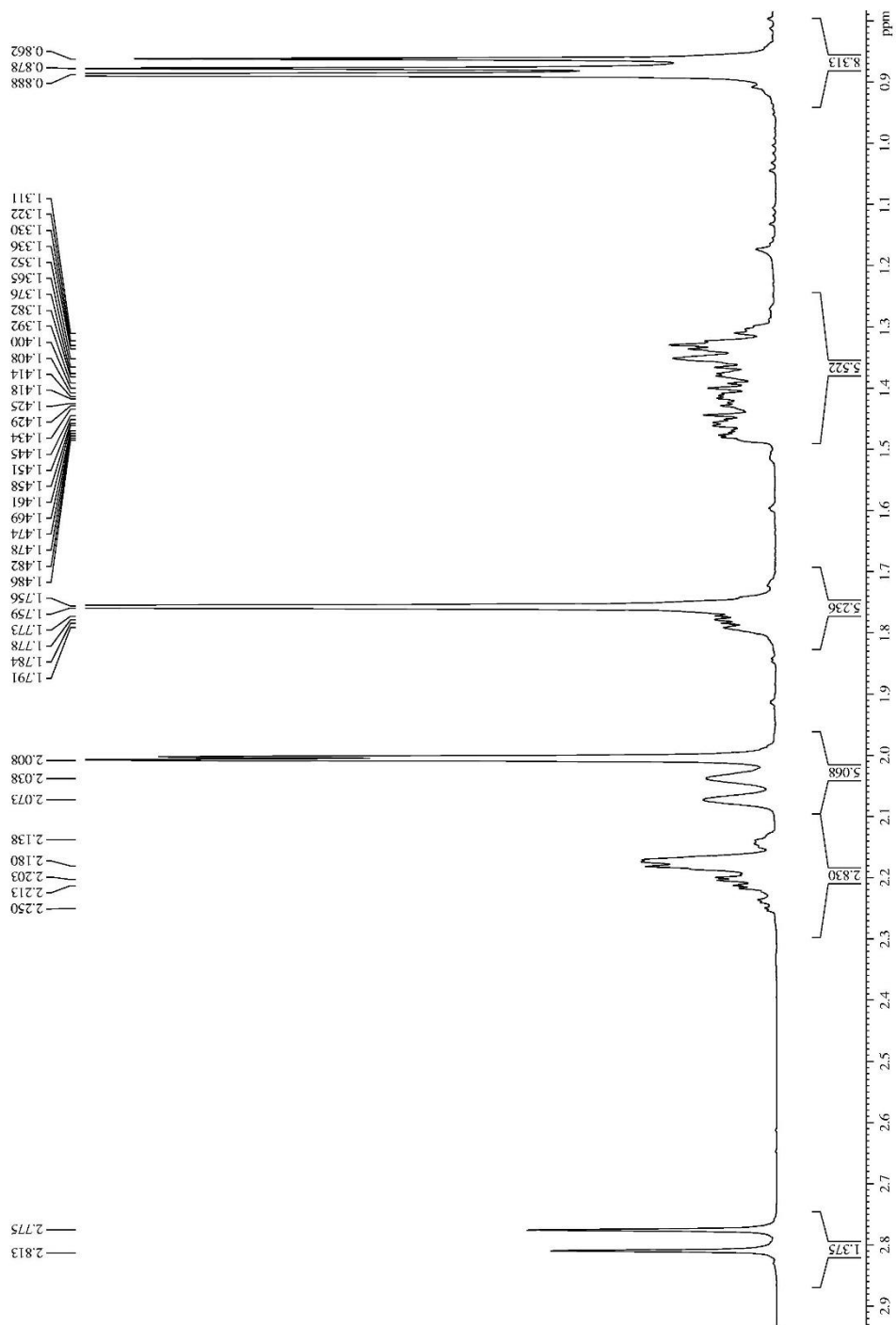
Continuação Apêndice C – Ampliação do espectro de RMN DEPT 135° da substância (+)
- deidrofuquinona.



APÊNDICE D – ESPECTROS DE RMN ¹H DA SUBSTÂNCIA (+) - DEIDROFUQUINONA.



Continuação Apêndice D – Ampliação do espectro de RMN ^1H da substância (+) - deidrofuquina.



ANEXO A – PARECER Nº 74/2014 DA COMISSÃO DE ÉTICA NO USO DE ANIMAIS**UNIVERSIDADE FEDERAL DE SANTA MARIA
PRÓ-REITORIA DE PÓS-GRADUAÇÃO E PESQUISA
COMISSÃO DE ÉTICA NO USO DE ANIMAIS-UFSM****CARTA DE APROVAÇÃO**

A Comissão de Ética no Uso de Animais-UFSM, analisou o protocolo de pesquisa:

Título do Projeto: "Óleos essenciais de diversas plantas na água e na ração como antimicrobianos, antiparasitários, anestésicos, promotores do crescimento e no transporte de peixes e camarões."

Número do Parecer: 074/2014

Pesquisador Responsável: Prof. Dr. Bernardo Baldisserotto

Este projeto foi **APROVADO** em seus aspectos éticos e metodológicos. Toda e qualquer alteração do Projeto, assim como os eventos adversos graves, deverão ser comunicados imediatamente a este Comitê.

OBS: Anualmente deve-se enviar à CEUA relatório parcial ou final deste projeto.

Os membros da CEUA-UFSM não participaram do processo de avaliação dos projetos onde constam como pesquisadores.

DATA DE APROVAÇÃO: 11/09/2014.

Santa Maria, 12 de setembro de 2014.

Prof.ª Dr.ª Vania Lucia Loro
Vice-Coordenadora da Comissão de Ética no Uso de Animais- UFSM