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FACULDADE DE AGRONOMIA  
PROGRAMA DE PÓS-GRADUAÇÃO EM ZOOTECNIA

DEJANI MAÍRA PANAZZOLO

**ATIVIDADE ANTIMICROBIANA E ANTIOXIDANTE DE *SOLANUM AMERICANUM*  
E *SOLANUM CORYMBIFLORUM* COM POTENCIAL USO EM ENFERMIDADES  
DE REBANHOS LEITEIROS**

Porto Alegre  
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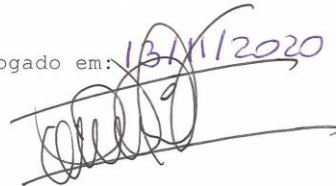
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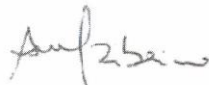


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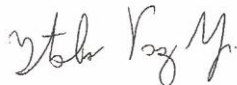
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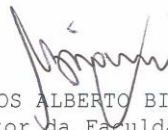
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Our doubts are traitors and make us lose  
good we oft might win, by fearing to  
attempt.”

William Shakespeare

# ATIVIDADE ANTIMICROBIANA E ANTIOXIDANTE DE *SOLANUM AMERICANUM* E *SOLANUM CORYMBIFLORUM* COM POTENCIAL USO EM ENFERMIDADES DE REBANHOS LEITEIROS<sup>1</sup>

Autora: Dejeni Maíra Panazzolo

Orientadora: Dr. Vivian Fischer

**Resumo:** A mastite é uma inflamação da glândula mamária que tem como causa principal infecções bacterianas. É a doença que mais utiliza antimicrobianos no sistema de produção, comprometendo a sustentabilidade e gerando problemas de saúde pública. Seguindo o conhecimento tradicional de povos nativos, que utilizam solanáceas para tratamento de mastite, o objetivo desse estudo foi realizar uma pesquisa bio-guiada sobre a atividade antimicrobiana e antioxidante a partir da elaboração de extratos: aquoso (AQU), metanólico (MET) e alcaloídico (ALK), das espécies de *Solanum americanum* (SA) e *Solanum corymbiflorum* (SC). Os extratos foram utilizados em ensaio de microdiluição em caldo e coloração com cristal violeta, para avaliar a multiplicação bacteriana e a formação do biofilme de *Staphylococcus aureus* e *Escherichia coli*, e à reação com o radical DPPH, para avaliar a capacidade antioxidante. Os dados de absorbância foram obtidos por densidade ótica e submetidos à análise de variância (ANOVA). As médias foram comparadas pelos testes de Dunnett e Tukey, adotando um nível de significância de  $P < 0.05$ . Seguindo a pesquisa bio-guiada, os extratos que apresentaram atividade biológica foram submetidos à caracterização química através de cromatografia em camada delgada (CCD), cromatografia líquida de alta eficiência (CLAE) e espectrometria de massas (EM) de alta resolução. O extrato AQU de SA estimulou a multiplicação de *S. aureus* e *E. coli*. O extrato MET de SC estimulou a formação do biofilme para *S. aureus*, mas reduziu essa capacidade em relação à *E. coli*. O extrato ALK de ambas as espécies inibiu a formação de biofilme de *S. aureus*. Com base na comparação de dados quanto à massa exata, via de fragmentação e ao espectro UV, foi possível indicar a presença do alcaloide *N-trans-feruloiltiramina* ( $m/z$  314.1382) no extrato ALK de SA. Todos os extratos de SA e o extrato MET de SC à 250  $\mu\text{g/mL}$  apresentaram mais de 50% de atividade antioxidante. Os resultados obtidos nestes ensaios *in vitro* podem estar relacionados ao conhecimento tradicional que utiliza folhas de SC no tratamento e redução dos sintomas da mastite. O presente estudo evidenciou a inibição da formação do biofilme de *S. aureus* e a ação antioxidante como potenciais modos de atuação dos compostos ativos.

**Palavras-chave:** alcaloides; biofilmes bacterianos; produção animal; solanáceas

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<sup>1</sup> Tese de Doutorado em Zootecnia - Produção Animal, Faculdade de Agronomia, Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul, Porto Alegre, RS, Brasil. (122 p.). Junho, 2020.

## ANTIMICROBIAL AND ANTIOXIDANT ACTIVITY OF *SOLANUM AMERICANUM* AND *SOLANUM CORYMBIFLORUM* WITH POTENTIAL USE ON DAIRY COWS DISEASES<sup>2</sup>

Author: Dejana Máira Panazzolo

Supervisor: Dr. Vivian Fischer

**Abstract:** Mastitis is a mammary gland inflammation caused mainly by bacterial infections. It is the disease that most uses antimicrobials in the production system, compromising sustainability and generating public health problems, such as the development of resistant strains. Following the traditional knowledge of native tribes, who use solanaceous to treat mastitis, the aim of this study was to conduct a bio-guided research on antimicrobial and antioxidant activity based on elaboration of extracts: aqueous (AQU), methanolic (MET), and alkaloid (ALK), from the species *Solanum americanum* (SA) and *Solanum corymbiflorum* (SC). The extracts were used in a broth microdilution assay and stained with violet crystal, to evaluate the bacterial growth and biofilm formation of *Staphylococcus aureus* and *Escherichia coli*, and to the reaction with the radical DPPH, to evaluate the antioxidant capacity. The absorbance data were obtained by optical density and subjected to statistical analysis (ANOVA). The means compared by the Dunnett and Tukey tests, adopting a significance level of  $P < 0.05$ . Following bio-guided research, extracts that showed biological activity were subjected to chemical characterization through thin layer chromatography (TLC), high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC), and high-resolution mass spectrometry (HRMS). AQU extract of SA stimulated the growth of *S. aureus* and *E. coli*. MET extract of SC stimulated biofilm formation for *S. aureus* but reduced this ability for *E. coli*. The ALK extract from both species inhibited biofilm formation *S. aureus*. Based on the data comparison of exact mass, fragmentation pathway and UV spectrum, it was possible to indicate the presence of the alkaloid *N-trans*-feruloyltyramine ( $m/z$  314.1382) in the ALK extract of SA. All the extracts of SA and the MET extract of SC at 250  $\mu\text{g/mL}$  showed more than 50% of antioxidant activity. The results obtained in these *in vitro* tests may be related to the traditional knowledge that uses SC leaves in the treatment and reduction of mastitis symptoms. The present study showed the inhibition of the biofilm formation of *S. aureus* and the antioxidant action as potential modes of action of the active compounds.

**Keywords:** alkaloids; animal production; bacterial biofilm; solanaceous

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<sup>2</sup> Doctoral Thesis in Animal Science, Faculdade de Agronomia, Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul, Porto Alegre, RS, Brazil. (122 p.). June, 2020



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## Lista de abreviaturas

AQU: Extrato aquoso  
MET: Extrato metanólico  
ALK: Extrato alcaloídico  
SC: *Solanum corymbiflorum*  
SA: *Solanum americanum*  
ANOVA: Análise de variância  
CCD: Cromatografia em camada delgada  
CLAE: Cromatografia líquida de alta eficiência  
EM: Espectrometria de massas  
UV: Ultravioleta  
MRSA: *S. aureus* resistente à meticilina  
IIM: Infecções Intramamárias  
CTA: Conhecimento tradicional associado  
CCS: Contagem de células somáticas  
DEL: Dias em leite  
LPS: Lipopolissacarídeo  
MHC: Complexo de histocompatibilidade  
IL: Interleucina  
IFN: Interferon  
TNF: Fator de necrose tumoral  
ERO: Espécies reativas do oxigênio

## **CAPÍTULO I**

## 1. Introdução

A produção animal é um importante setor consumidor de antimicrobianos, basicamente utilizados de forma terapêutica, profilática e como aditivos zootécnicos (PEREIRA; SCUSSEL, 2017). Doenças infecciosas são as principais causas do uso terapêutico, e, dentre elas, a mastite é a principal causa deste uso em rebanhos leiteiros. Entende-se por mastite a inflamação da glândula mamária desencadeada por uma infecção ou trauma, caracterizada por alterações físicas, químicas e bacteriológicas do leite, além de alterações patológicas no tecido glandular (ZHAO; LACASSE, 2008). É a doença que mais causa prejuízos para a cadeia produtiva do leite, independentemente do nível produtivo ou tecnológico da propriedade. Causando perdas tanto para o produtor quanto para a indústria leiteira, principal razão pela qual é uma das doenças mais estudadas mundialmente (GREEN; BRADLEY, 2013).

Como a produção de leite é uma atividade que demanda alto custo e o produtor trabalha com uma baixa margem de lucro, a capacidade produtiva é o ponto crucial entre manter-se ou abandonar a atividade. Ressalta-se que a mastite por *S. aureus* apresenta baixa taxa de cura no rebanho (<25%) e vacas com recidivas geralmente são abatidas precocemente (RAINARD, 2005). Além dos custos, há uma progressiva preocupação com saúde pública, uma vez que a resistência aos antimicrobianos tem sido fortemente associada à transmissão horizontal entre humanos e animais (RICHARDSON et al., 2018).

A baixa taxa de cura está associada aos fatores de virulência desenvolvidos por microrganismos patogênicos. Dentre os vários mecanismos, o que mais afeta a produção leiteira é a capacidade de algumas cepas em formar biofilmes, através da expressão de genes que regulam a produção de adesinas (BUDRI et al., 2015; MELO et al., 2013). Esse fato, associado a períodos de imunossupressão do sistema imunológico favorecem a instalação e desenvolvimento da patogenia. SILVA et al., (2016) sugerem que compostos do metabolismo secundário de plantas podem regular a expressão de genes inibindo fatores de virulência, como a formação de biofilme. Estes produtos naturais de plantas tem sido utilizados na alimentação animal como aditivos fitogênicos sendo potenciais substituintes aos antimicrobianos utilizados como melhoradores de desempenho (LILLEHOJ et al., 2018). Antioxidantes são recomendados para suplementação na dieta de vacas leiteiras



para auxiliar no fortalecimento do sistema imunológico no período de transição (SPEARS; WEISS, 2008).

Produtores de leite da região sul do Brasil utilizam-se do Conhecimento Tradicional Associado (CTA) a uma espécie de solanácea endêmica utilizada por tribos indígenas para tratamento de inflamações decorrentes de infecções, incluindo a mastite (KELLER; PRANCE, 2012; KELLER, 2003). Estudos recentes com folhas e frutos de *Solanum corymbiflorum* em modelos murinos apresentaram forte atividade anti-inflamatória, corroborando com o uso tradicional para tratar doenças de pele em humanos (PIANA et al., 2016a, 2016b). A etnoveterinária é uma prática bem aceita para descoberta de novos princípios ativos através dos compostos fornecidos na dieta (MUBARACK et al., 2011). Portanto, o presente estudo objetivou avaliar duas espécies de solanáceas consumidas pelos ruminantes, *Solanum americanum* e *Solanum corymbiflorum*, quanto à atividade antimicrobiana, formação de biofilme e atividade antioxidante *in vitro*, além de realizar a caracterização fitoquímica do extrato promissor através do ensaio bio-guiado.

No primeiro capítulo é apresentada uma revisão bibliográfica sobre o uso de antimicrobianos na produção animal, resistência antimicrobiana, pré-disposição a infecções no período periparto, caracterização da mastite bovina englobando temas como fatores de virulência e imunologia da glândula mamária. Em seguida uma breve definição dos compostos secundários e seu uso na nutrição animal. Por fim, a importância das solanáceas e a caracterização das espécies utilizadas no estudo. O segundo capítulo, em formato de artigo, aborda o efeito dos extratos sobre a multiplicação bacteriana e a formação do biofilme sobre as principais bactérias causadoras de mastite, assim como a caracterização química do extrato de alcaloides, que apresentou capacidade de inibir a formação do biofilme de *S. aureus*. O terceiro capítulo, apresenta a avaliação da capacidade antioxidante e o comportamento cinético dos extratos, juntamente com as considerações finais, referências bibliográficas e material suplementar da tese.

## 2. Revisão bibliográfica <sup>3</sup>

### 2.1 Antimicrobianos na produção animal

A produção animal é um importante setor consumidor de antimicrobianos, utilizados com objetivos mais amplos do que na medicina humana. No rebanho leiteiro a forma terapêutica, assim como nos humanos, é usada no controle do agente patogênico para tratamento de doenças infecciosas do animal ou do rebanho, como mastite, retenção de placenta e metrite. A forma profilática consiste na prevenção contra possíveis infecções, e a forma metafilática conhecida como tratamento de animais de contato, visa utilização de antimicrobiano em todo rebanho para evitar a disseminação do agente, tendo como exemplo clássico para estes dois usos a terapia vaca seca em vacas leiteiras. Os antimicrobianos também são usados como aditivo zootécnico; neste caso, os animais não estão acometidos com doenças, a finalidade é melhorar o desempenho através de promotores de crescimento fornecidos na dieta (PEREIRA; SCUSSEL, 2017).

A principal causa de uso terapêutico de antimicrobianos na produção leiteira é devido à mastite, considerada a doença que mais afeta a cadeia produtiva do leite por conta da prevalência e ocorrência, e por ser extremamente comum, sobretudo na forma subclínica. Como estratégia para erradicação de microrganismos contagiosos, um plano de cinco pontos de controle da mastite foi desenvolvido por volta de 1960, pelo Instituto Nacional de Pesquisa sobre Laticínios na Inglaterra. Esse plano tinha como foco a manutenção da máquina de ordenha, a desinfecção dos tetos após a ordenha, o tratamento de casos clínicos, a terapia para vaca seca e a política de abate dos animais infectados. Uma extensão destas práticas de manejo foi adotada pelo Conselho Nacional de Mastite dos Estados Unidos, passando por várias modificações até se tornar o conhecido, e atualmente utilizado, Programa de Controle de Mastite (Anexo A) sendo adotado ao redor do mundo e considerado fundamental para o gerenciamento da saúde do úbere (HILLERTON; BOOTH, 2018).

Com a progressão da resistência bacteriana, estas estratégias de controle e prevenção tem se mostrado ineficientes em conter o avanço dos casos de mastite.

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<sup>3</sup> Parte desta revisão será publicada na revista **Spei Domus**

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Os antimicrobianos têm sido amplamente usados no período seco para a prevenção de novos casos, mas também para tratamento de animais que desenvolveram a doença durante a lactação. De acordo com OLIVER; MURINDA, (2012) esta prática tem aumentado o risco de resíduos no leite e favorecido o surgimento de genes relacionados à resistência aos antimicrobianos. Por ser um problema de saúde pública, há uma crescente preocupação com o uso consciente de antimicrobianos na produção animal. Uma técnica que tem sido amplamente difundida nos últimos anos é a cultura na fazenda, uma vez que ela pode identificar os patógenos de forma rápida e assertiva, possibilitando a tomada de decisão como a escolha das estratégias de tratamento que potencializam a taxa de cura (LAGO et al., 2011), ou em casos que é prevista a recuperação espontânea do animal (DODD; NEAVE; KINGWILL, 1964), pode-se evitar o tratamento, reduzindo o uso de antimicrobianos.

## 2.2 Resistência aos antimicrobianos

Resistência bacteriana é a capacidade de um microrganismo de resistir à atividade inibitória de um antimicrobiano em um nível de suscetibilidade considerado normal, esse processo ocorre em cepa anteriormente suscetível devido à adaptação prolongada do microrganismo ao antimicrobiano, resultado da evolução da cepa para sobreviver determinadas condições (LOO; LAI; MANSOR, 2019). Segundo estes autores, a resistência pode ser adquirida por meio de mutação do gene ou transferência horizontal de genes de outro microrganismo, que inclui conjugação, transformação e transdução. A capacidade de alguns patógenos, como o *S. aureus*, de entrarem em diferentes populações de espécies hospedeiras é uma grande ameaça à saúde pública e à segurança dos alimentos (RICHARDSON et al., 2018). Estes autores ressaltam que os genes associados à resistência antimicrobiana estão distribuídos entre hospedeiros humanos e animais, refletindo práticas distintas de uso de antibióticos na medicina e na agricultura. Na produção animal, os bovinos se apresentam como os principais reservatórios de MRSA (*S. aureus* resistente à meticilina) devido às interações horizontais bem-sucedidas com os humanos (RICHARDSON et al., 2018).

Dentre as inúmeras espécies de bactérias que causam mastite, apenas algumas são prevalentes e constituem um problema real (RAINARD et al., 2018). Um dos microrganismos mais importantes é o *S. aureus* que responde por cerca de

um terço dos casos de mastite severa ou subclínica (LI et al., 2017). Casos de resistência e multirresistência já foram relatados para cepas de *S. aureus* recuperadas em casos de mastite clínica e subclínica contra ampicilina, enrofloxacina, eritromicina, penicilina, pirlimicina e tetraciclina, sendo que algumas cepas apresentaram resistência a múltiplos medicamentos (OLIVEIRA; LANGONI; HULLAND, 2012). A multirresistência bacteriana afeta o sucesso do tratamento (PHOPHI; PETZER; QEKWANA, 2019), tornando-se um problema de saúde pública, pois afeta diretamente a saúde humana. Por outro lado, embora menos prevalente, *E. coli* é um importante agente causador de mastite clínica, especialmente na forma aguda, doença comum e geralmente fatal em vacas leiteiras devido à endotoxemia e coagulação intravascular disseminada (GUERRA et al., 2019; HERRY et al., 2017).

O conceito de saúde única prevê a segurança dos alimentos tendo uma interface entre a saúde humana, do animal e do ambiente, principalmente sob a perceptiva de produção e segurança de alimentos lácteos, uma vez que grande parte das bactérias envolvidas tem potencial zoonótico (GARCIA; OSBURN; CULLOR, 2019). *S. aureus* tem se mostrado resistente à meticilina (MRSA) desde a década de 1960, logo após a introdução dessa classe de penicilinas na prática clínica humana, e sendo uma das principais causas de infecções bacterianas nos serviços de saúde (LEE et al., 2018). Devido à sua toxicidade, a meticilina foi substituída por penicilinas mais estáveis como a oxacilina, mas mesmo assim, o termo MRSA continua sendo utilizado e em meados dos anos 2000 começou a ser associado à produção animal (LEE et al., 2018). Segundo estes autores, esse patógeno tem uma variação geográfica notável, variando de baixa prevalência na Escandinávia até a mais alta prevalência na Ásia e, principalmente, na América do Sul (Fig. 1). Essa variação se deve a fatores como diferenças nas práticas de controle da infecção entre os países e características dos patógenos em circulação, sendo que o sucesso desta bactéria é devido à extensa gama de fatores de virulência associados a ela (LEE et al., 2018). No Brasil, o controle do uso de antimicrobianos na pecuária ainda não é restritivo como na União Europeia, por isso há uma grande responsabilidade do setor pecuário em reduzir o uso de antimicrobianos no sistema produtivo.

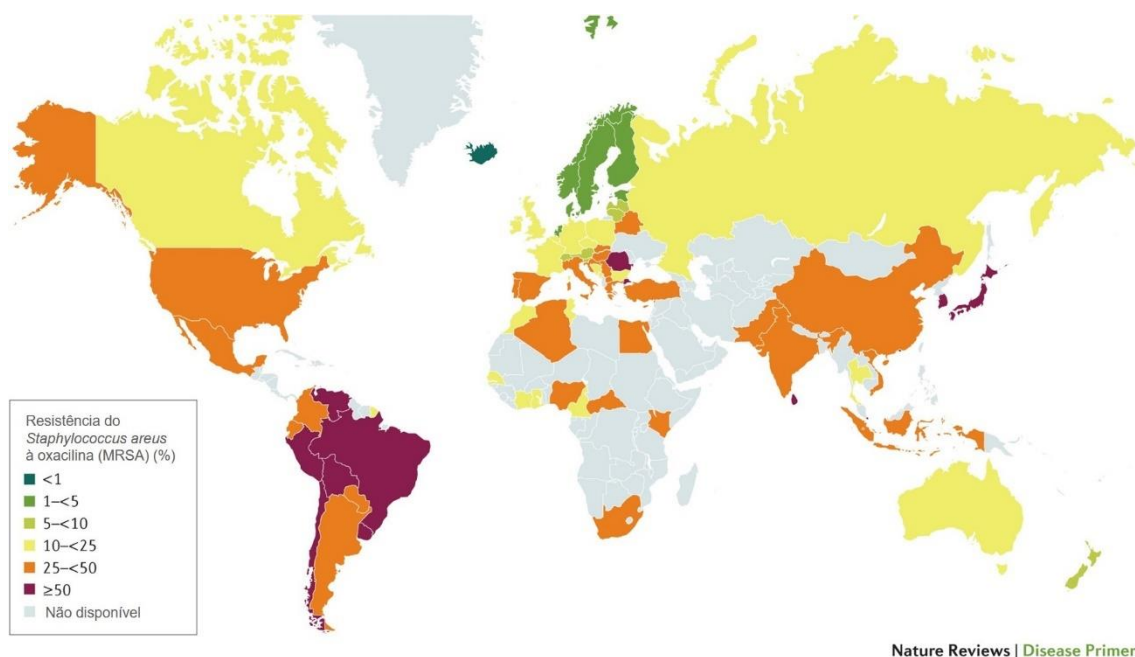


Figura 1. Porcentagem de isolados de *Staphylococcus aureus* resistentes à oxacilina em humanos. Os dados foram retirados do Centro de Dinâmica de Doenças, Economia e Políticas (CDDEP). Países que apresentam resistência acima de 50% na América Latina são listados como: Bolívia, Brasil, Chile, Peru, Uruguai e Venezuela.

**Fonte:** Adaptado de LEE et al., (2018).

### 2.3 Imunossupressão periparturiente

A mastite é causada por uma série de fatores ligados a três pilares principais: o animal, o patógeno e o ambiente em que eles estão inseridos. Segundo DERAKHSHANI et al. (2018), os fatores intrínsecos ao animal são genótipo, capacidade da resposta imune, ordem de parição, estágio de lactação e características anatômicas do úbere, enquanto os fatores ligados aos patógenos envolvem interações microbianas, fatores de virulência e desencadeamento de respostas pró e anti-inflamatórias. Por sua vez, os fatores ambientais estão relacionados às práticas de manejo como condições das instalações, higiene na ordenha, manejo nutricional, fatores estressantes e uso de antimicrobianos.

A aproximação do parto gera declínio na função imune do animal devido a mudanças fisiológicas, como a liberação de hormônios de estresse (BURTON; ERSKINE, 2003; SORDILLO; STREICHER, 2002), pelo fato de o animal passar de não-lactante para lactante e por conta de manejos como reagrupamento de lotes e, principalmente, a ordenha. Estes fatores fazem parte do período de transição, que engloba as três semanas que antecedem o parto e três semanas após o início da lactação (DRACKLEY, 1999). A Fig. 2 apresenta um esquema da suscetibilidade às

infecções intramamárias (IIM) em relação às mudanças na fisiologia e no ambiente da vaca antes e durante a primeira lactação.

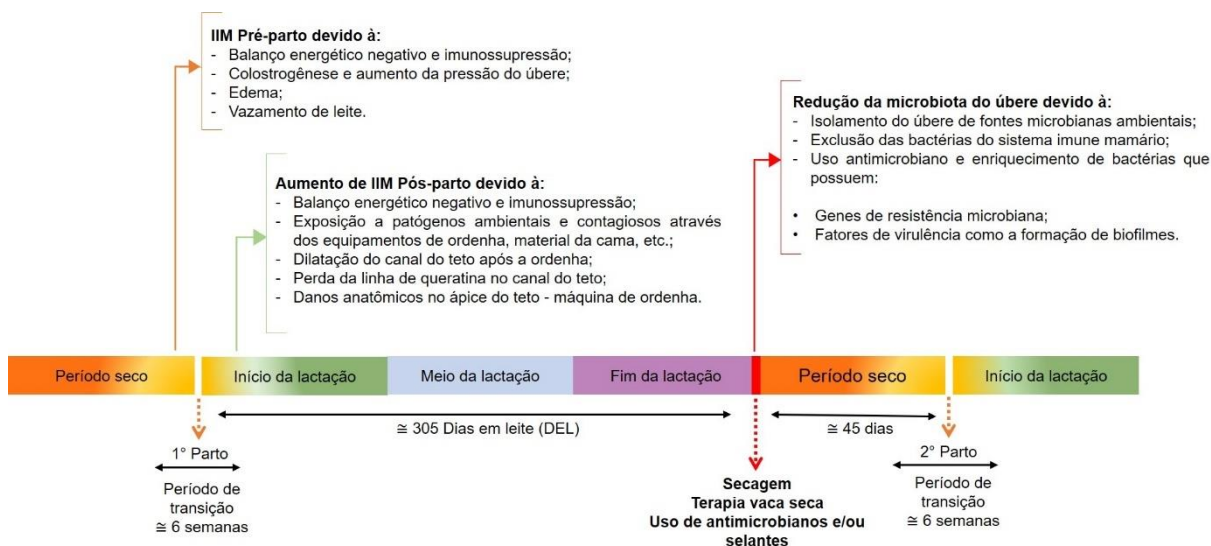


Figura 2. Flutuações especulativas na suscetibilidade das IIM e diversidade da microbiota do úbere. **Fonte:** Adaptado de DERAKHSHANI et al. (2018).

A inflamação da glândula mamária é desenvolvida por alterações metabólicas, fisiológicas, lesões traumáticas e, frequentemente, por infecções bacterianas. E outras causas como o acúmulo de leite dentro do úbere quando a data do parto se aproxima, resultando no aumento da pressão intramamária (OVIEDO-BOYSO et al., 2007; PAULRUD, 2005). A primeira linha de defesa contra patógenos é barreira física representado pelo tampão de queratina (no ápice do teto), o músculo do esfíncter e o canal do teto (PAULRUD, 2005; SORDILLO; STREICHER, 2002). Durante o período seco, este tampão é considerado o primordial para evitar a penetração de microrganismos, mas ao aproximar-se da data do parto, a glândula mamária inicia o processo de colostrogênese; o acúmulo de leite aumenta a pressão intramamária, dilatando o canal do teto e liberando secreção, comprometendo a barreira contra IIM (SORDILLO; STREICHER, 2002). Após a ordenha o canal do teto permanece relaxado, aumentando as chances de invasão bacteriana, sendo usual a adoção da estratégia de ofertar alimentação aos animais no intuito que permaneçam em estação até o completo fechamento do esfíncter, evitando assim, entrada de patógenos, item 2. do Programa de Controle de Mastite (Anexo A).

Microrganismos ambientais e contagiosos invadem o úbere através do canal do teto, ultrapassando as barreiras físicas de proteção, e alcançam o interior do úbere. Os neutrófilos (também chamados neutrófilos leucócitos polimorfonucleares) são recrutados dos vasos sanguíneos para o lúmen alveolar através de um processo chamado diapedese e desempenham um papel fundamental contra a IIM (ver item 2.4.2). Além dos neutrófilos, macrófagos e linfócitos são recrutados para o sítio da infecção, e juntamente com as células epiteliais dos alvéolos danificados, originam as células somáticas do leite. A contagem de células somáticas (CCS) é um indicador de saúde do úbere (SURIYASATHAPORN et al., 2006). O desenvolvimento deste escore permite quantificar a relação linear entre mastite subclínica e redução da produção de leite (RUEGG, 2017).

A terapia vaca seca consiste na infusão de antimicrobianos diretamente na glândula mamária a fim de expor a bactéria ao princípio ativo, aumentando a chance de cura e prevenindo novas IIM. A tendência é que no Brasil este procedimento seja banido, assim como em países europeus. De acordo com DERAKHSHANI et al. (2018) esta prática gera disbiose no possível microbioma mamário (Fig. 2), o que pode interferir no aumento da resistência e fatores de virulência de bactérias patogênicas, além de eliminar algumas bactérias benéficas para o equilíbrio do microbioma. Apesar de ser recomendada pelos especialistas por longas décadas, segundo GREEN; BRADLEY (2013), a terapia vaca seca não é uma prática sustentável, podendo ser substituída por selantes de teto. Na era pós antibiótico, o que se busca é a prevenção e não a cura, evitando assim perdas futuras e a resistência gerada, sucessivamente, a cada surgimento de novas classes de antimicrobianos.

#### *2.4 Classificação e caracterização da mastite*

A mastite é classificada quanto aos agentes etiológicos em contagiosa e ambiental, e quanto à sua patogenia em subclínica e clínica que apresenta 3 graus de severidade (Fig. 3). Há uma forte relação inversa entre o recrutamento de neutrófilos e o resultado de uma infecção intramamária, vacas com cura espontânea geralmente têm uma resposta rápida e maciça característica da mastite aguda, enquanto animais com resposta lenta sofrem com infecções crônicas (BURTON; ERSKINE, 2003). Essa resposta é devido às características intrínsecas dos

patógenos, como exemplo clássico utilizamos *E. coli*, principal causador de mastite tóxica aguda e *S. aureus*, responsável pelo desenvolvimento de uma infecção crônica e subclínica (Fig. 3).

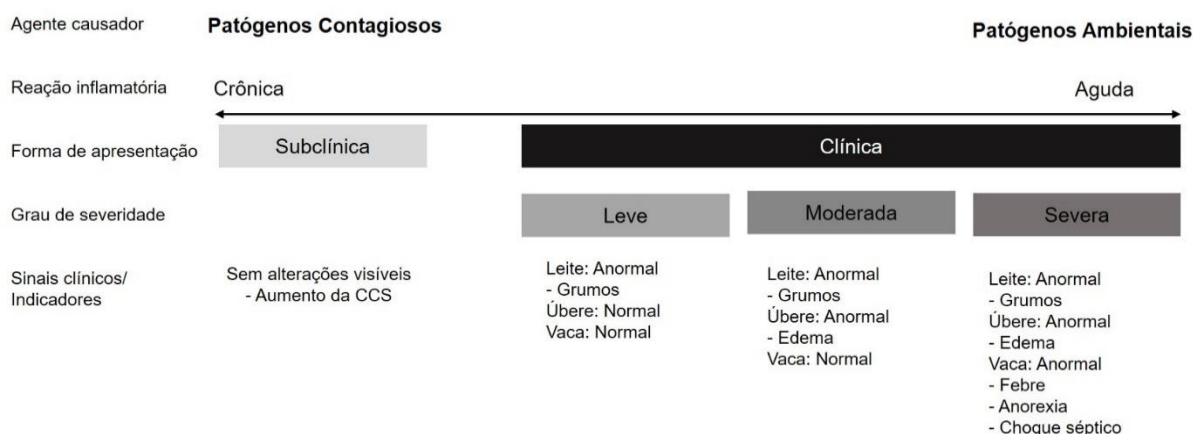


Figura 3. Classificação da mastite quando à etiologia e patogenia associados aos sinais clínicos.  
**Fonte:** Panazzolo, 2020.

Os patógenos contagiosos são transmitidos entre animais, dos contaminados para os sadios, ou entre os quartos do mesmo animal pelo equipamento ou manipulação durante a ordenha. Por esse motivo há uma preocupação com a transmissão horizontal entre humanos e animais (RICHARDSON et al., 2018), e o esforço em eliminar o animal, que não responde ao tratamento, do rebanho (RAINARD, 2005), item 8. do Programa de Controle de Mastite (Anexo A). Eles são responsáveis principalmente por infecções crônicas e subclínicas que se manifestam pelo aumento da CCS no leite. Esse grupo inclui: *Streptococcus agalactiae*, *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Corynebacterium bovis* e *Mycoplasma spp* (BURTON; ERSKINE, 2003; OVIEDO-BOYSO et al., 2007).

Os patógenos ambientais estão relacionados às instalações e condições de higiene ao qual o animal está inserido, e fazem parte deste grupo as enterobactérias como a *Escherichia coli* e *Klebsiella spp*, além de bactérias gram-positivas com o *Streptococcus dysgalactiae* e o *Streptococcus uberis*. (OVIEDO-BOYSO et al., 2007; RUEGG, 2012). O plano de controle de mastite não é eficiente em controlar estes patógenos, que geralmente surgem em estações chuvosas relacionados às questões de falta de higiene, principalmente associados à qualidade da cama e manejo durante a ordenha.



Como consequência direta da mastite ocorrem gastos com teste de diagnóstico (em caso de mastite subclínica), serviço de veterinário e medicamentos, descarte de leite (com presença de resíduos) e aumento da mão-de-obra (para manejar os animais infectados para o final da linha de ordenha). Os custos indiretos se relacionam com a perda de produção futura, comprometimento da reprodução, descarte precoce de animais (abate prematuro) e reposição de animais que foram abatidos (HEIKKILÄ et al., 2018; RAINARD, 2005; ROLLIN; DHUYVETTER; OVERTON, 2015; RUEGG, 2012).

A extensão da perda econômica é muito variável entre os países, dependendo de fatores como preço do leite, custos de tratamento e custos de reposição (HALASA et al., 2007). Esta perda também está relacionada com a forma que cada microrganismo interage com a glândula mamária. HEIKKILÄ et al. (2018) relatam que a perda é específica ao patógeno e à patogenia da doença, sendo que na forma clínica por *E. coli* é possível observar perdas diárias de 3,5 kg e que, ao final de 305 dias em leite (DEL) somam uma perda de 10,6% na produção acumulada. Em relação a *S. aureus*, que provoca principalmente a forma subclínica, foram detectadas perdas de 7,1% (2,3 kg/dia), não diferindo da perda por mastite clínica que foi de 2,2 kg/dia (HEIKKILÄ et al., 2018).

#### 2.4.1 Fatores de virulência

*Staphylococcus aureus* é um agente oportunista com reconhecida capacidade de evasão do sistema imunológico, certamente devido aos inúmeros fatores de virulência de que dispõe para se adaptar às condições e seguir infectando o hospedeiro (LEE et al., 2018). É considerado o mais virulento e difícil de eliminar do rebanho, pois causa infecção subclínica de longa duração (RAINARD et al., 2018; REYHER et al., 2012). Devido à baixa taxa de cura, o alto custo do tratamento e à necessidade de eliminar o reservatório de infecção para evitar a disseminação no rebanho, as vacas são abatidas precocemente (RAINARD, 2005; ROLLIN; DHUYVETTER; OVERTON, 2015; RUEGG, 2012). Dentre os motivos do insucesso do tratamento na mastite associada ao *S. aureus* é a capacidade desta bactéria em formar biofilme no interior da glândula mamária, fator que impede o fluxo adequado e o acúmulo de antibiótico no local alvo, consequentemente a destruição bacteriana é interrompida (RAZA et al., 2013; SAGLAM et al., 2017).

O processo de estabelecimento de biofilme é conhecido por ter etapas definidas: a fixação inicial e formação de microcolônia; maturação de bactérias aderidas em um biofilme diferenciado; e destacamento e dispersão das células planctônicas dos biofilmes (COSTERTON; STEWART; GREENBERG, 1999). A fixação de *S. aureus* no epitélio e acúmulo em multicamadas é direcionada por genes específicos, destaca-se a produção de adesinas intercelulares através dos genes *icaA*, *icaD*, and *bap* tendo como consequência a formação de biofilme (BUDRI et al., 2015). SILVA et al. (2016) consideram que muitos compostos secundários de plantas podem agir tendo como alvo os fatores de virulência, como por exemplo, alguns flavonoides são capazes de regular negativamente genes *icaA* e *icaD*, associados à adesão e acúmulo bacteriano no biofilme.

Essa mudança de estilo de vida planctônio para microcolônia, favorece a sobrevivência em ambientes hostis e aumenta a resistência bacteriana no úbere. Segundo MELO et al., (2013), quando 94 cepas de *S. aureus* foram coletadas de rebanhos leiteiros 98,9% dos isolados apresentaram genes *icaA* e *icaD*, conseqüentemente produziram forte fixação do biofilme *in vitro*. Geralmente cepas que são multirresistentes a antibióticos produzem biofilme mais forte e podem persistir na fazenda por mais de 3 anos (KIM et al., 2019). Estes mesmos autores destacam que mais de 60% dos quartos mamários apresentavam CCS maior que 200.000 células/mL, evidenciando as perdas devido à mastite subclínica e à dificuldade de eliminação dos estafilococos do rebanho.

De acordo com LEE et al., (2018), *S. aureus* tem a habilidade de apresentar resistência a qualquer classe de antibióticos pouco tempo depois do início da utilização do princípio ativo. A capacidade de formar biofilme lhe confere proteção, resistindo à resposta imune e aos antibióticos. A falha do sistema imunológico em eliminar o patógeno por causa do biofilme causa danos ao tecido alveolar, aumentando a CCS no leite, prolongando a duração da infecção e falha na cicatrização (SHARMA; JEONG, 2013). Os estafilococos entram na glândula mamária através do canal do teto, utilizando o leite como nutriente para multiplicar-se e como veículo para disseminar-se nos ductos e alvéolos do tecido secretor da glândula mamária, colonizando e lesionando o epitélio (Fig. 4), fator que desencadeia a resposta inflamatória (RAINARD, 2005). De acordo com os mesmos autores, o fraco sucesso da antibioticoterapia e a falta de vacinas estimulam a eliminação dos animais infectados a fim de controlar a propagação da infecção.

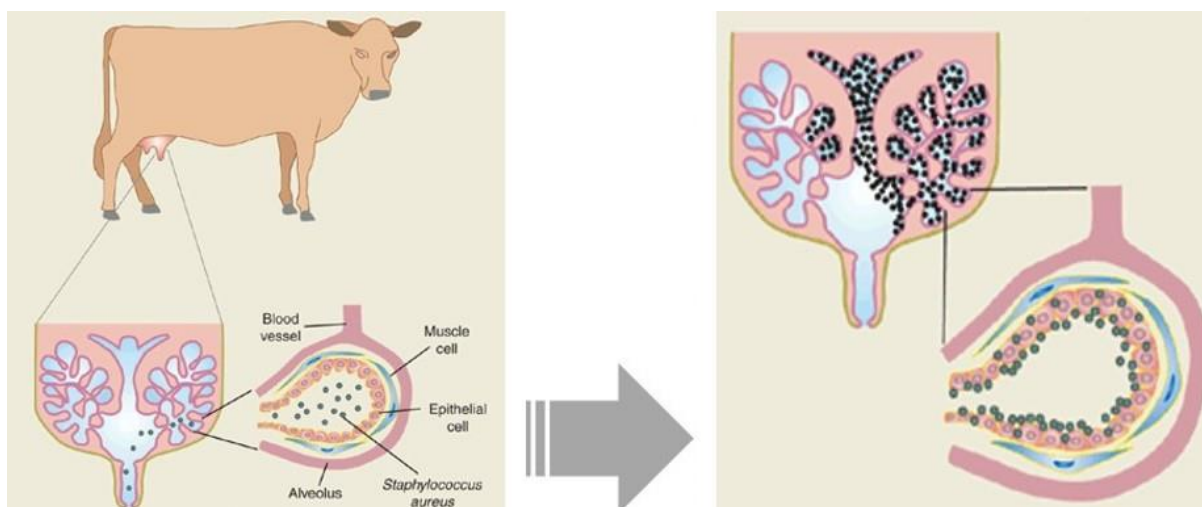


Figura 4. Colonização dos alvéolos mamários por *S. aureus*.  
**Fonte:** Adaptado de Rainard (2005).

Patógenos ambientais têm muitos fatores de virulência que favorecem o desenvolvimento de mastite (GUERRA et al., 2019). As cepas patogênicas de *E. coli* utilizam mecanismo semelhante a outros patógenos que consiste na colonização de um local da mucosa, evasão da defesa do hospedeiro, multiplicação e dano ao tecido. Elas são capazes de produzir adesinas que além de interagir com as células hospedeiras, formam estruturas protéicas que se projetam para fora da superfície celular e identificam receptores nas células alvo (KAPER; NATARO; MOBLEY, 2004). *E. coli* é capaz de formar biofilme, estimulado por um fator estressor, como a subdosagem de antibióticos (COSTA et al., 2012). No entanto, seu efeito mais poderoso é a rápida multiplicação e a liberação de parte de suas membranas que estimulam fortemente o sistema imunológico do hospedeiro, o que pode desencadear um choque séptico (GUERRA et al., 2019). Esse fato deve-se à membrana celular conter lipopolissacarídeos (LPS), específicos de bactérias gram-negativas liberados quando a bactéria se multiplica ou é fagocitada, e que estimula fortemente a reação do sistema imunológico.

#### 2.4.2 Imunologia da glândula mamária

Durante a fase inicial da infecção, após a diapedese, predomina a resposta imune inata mediada pelos macrófagos, neutrófilos, células NK, células dendríticas e fatores solúveis como a lactoferrina, sistema complemento, lisozima e enzima lactoperoxidase. Se o agente não for eliminado pelas células da imunidade

inata é necessária a ativação da imunidade específica, onde o agente patogênico é reconhecido pelas células apresentadoras de antígenos e apresentado via MHC às diferentes populações linfoides (RIOLLET; RAINARD; POUTREL, 2000; SORDILLO; STREICHER, 2002). Um número elevado de neutrófilos viáveis é benéfico para a defesa da glândula mamária, uma vez que agem contra as bactérias impedindo a infecção. Eles liberam citocinas pró-inflamatórias (ex: interleucinas (IL), interferons (IFN) e fator de necrose tumoral (TNF)) que possuem efeitos locais e sistêmicos. A IL-1 e o TNF- $\alpha$  estimulam a secreção de IL-8, importante mediador da migração de neutrófilos, por ativar as células endoteliais a expressarem mais selectina E e P, fazendo com que os neutrófilos se liguem mais firmemente ao endotélio, aumentando o fluxo destas células para o sítio da infecção (BURTON; ERSKINE, 2003). Segundo estes autores, vacas com cortisol circulante (na ocasião do parto) reduzem a diapedese, assim as bactérias proliferam livremente aumentando a chance de mastite. Esta migração de neutrófilos do sangue para o foco da infecção é essencial para a defesa da glândula mamária e a rapidez do recrutamento, e a quantidade de neutrófilos recrutada, são determinantes para o resultado da infecção (PAAPE *et al.*, 2002; RIOLLET; RAINARD; POUTREL, 2000).

A elevada produção de citocinas ativa os macrófagos e os neutrófilos tornando-os capazes de realizar um mecanismo chamado “explosão respiratória”, aumentando a sua capacidade de eliminar bactérias através da liberação de espécies reativas do oxigênio (ERO): peróxido de hidrogênio, superóxido e radicais de hidroxila. Porém, estes oxidantes não destroem somente as bactérias, mas também o tecido da área circundante (PAAPE *et al.*, 2002). O aumento da atividade de enzimas endógenas como a catalase, superóxido dismutase e glutatona auxiliam no equilíbrio redox do ambiente, eliminando espécies reativas. Quando este equilíbrio é comprometido, ocorre um processo chamado estresse oxidativo (ELLAH, 2013; HALLIWELL; GUTTERIDGE, 2015). Se a resposta inflamatória aguda permitir a eliminação das bactérias, cessa o recrutamento do neutrófilos e a CCS retorna aos níveis saudáveis, normalmente abaixo de 200.000 células/mL de leite. Mas, se as bactérias sobrevivem a inflamação e a migração dos neutrófilos continuam causando danos ao parênquima mamário e reduzindo a produção de leite; é o caso das infecções por *S. aureus*, que são crônicas e subclínicas (RIOLLET; RAINARD; POUTREL, 2000).

### *2.5 Compostos secundários e nutrição animal*

Em condições de pastejo, com adequada disponibilidade de forragem, os ruminantes exercem sua seletividade sobre plantas ou parte delas que podem beneficiá-los em termos de bem-estar e saúde (PROVENZA et al., 2003; PROVENZA; VILLALBA, 2010; VILLALBA et al., 2014). Esses autores sugerem que compostos secundários ativos de plantas podem afetar os sistemas digestivo e imunológico, podendo fazer parte de uma estratégia preventiva dos animais para resistir a doenças, tornando-se uma alternativa para a saúde de longo prazo, bem como estratégias econômicas, ecológicas e socialmente eficazes para produção sustentável.

As plantas produzem compostos do metabolismo primário: carboidratos, proteínas e lipídeos, nutrientes que servem de base para a alimentação animal. Mas também produzem compostos do metabolismo secundário, que podem ser classificados, de acordo com a via biossintética do ácido chiquímico e do mevalônico, em três grupos principais: terpenos, compostos fenólicos e alcaloides (PERES, 2015). Eles não são essenciais para a sobrevivência celular das plantas, mas desempenham um papel importante na defesa do organismo contra fatores bióticos e abióticos (PAGARE et al., 2015). Geralmente, compostos do metabolismo secundário não tem função nutricional para os mamíferos, mas nas plantas uma das principais tarefas é atuar contra infecções fúngicas e bacterianas que podem afetar seu desenvolvimento (PAGARE et al., 2015; PERES, 2015). Muitos desses compostos têm baseado estudos para uso como substituintes aos antimicrobianos sintéticos utilizados comercialmente. Uma vez ingeridos pelos animais, esses compostos são metabolicamente eliminados de diferentes maneiras via urina, fezes e/ou leite.

Estudos com vacas leiteiras mostram que elas podem ingerir plantas ricas em compostos secundários, como os terpenos (LEJONKLEV et al., 2013; POULOPOULOU et al., 2012; VIALON et al., 2000), compostos fenólicos (OLAGARAY; BRADFORD, 2019; TEDESCO et al., 2004) e alcaloides (DE NIJS et al., 2017; HOOGENBOOM et al., 2011). Desde que eles podem ser transferidos do trato gastrointestinal para a glândula mamária e, portanto, para o leite (LEJONKLEV et al., 2013) é possível que eles possam interferir diretamente no crescimento bacteriano dentro da glândula mamária (TORNAMBÉ et al., 2008) e/ou ter atividade

sobre o sistema imunológico, uma vez que grande parte destes compostos, principalmente flavonoides, apresentam atividade antioxidante.

O período de transição é uma fase estressante para vacas leiteiras (DRACKLEY, 1999) e predispõe a muitas doenças, como por exemplo mastite, retenção de placenta, metrite, hipocalcemia, cetose, etc. Segundo SPEARS; WEISS, (2008), esse fato se deve ao surgimento do estresse oxidativo, enquanto as células do sistema imunológico são estimuladas a produzirem EROs, ao mesmo tempo são sensíveis à peroxidação, deste modo as defesas do organismo ficam comprometidas. Vitamina E, caroteno, selênio, cobre, cromo e zinco estão envolvidos no sistema antioxidante e sua deficiência causa depressão no sistema imunológico (SPEARS; WEISS, 2008). Forragens verdes são fontes ricas de compostos com ação antioxidante, por outro lado volumosos conservados são deficientes e uma estratégia para manter a saúde de vacas leiteiras confinadas é realizar a suplementação destes compostos na dieta, como aditivos. Os aditivos alimentares não possuem função nutricional, porém tem a capacidade de modular o metabolismo animal.

Espécies de solanáceas têm sido utilizadas na produção animal com o intuito de alcançar atividades imunomoduladoras. As raízes de *Solanum nigrum* utilizadas na alimentação de camarões, previamente desafiados com uma bactéria gram-negativa, demonstraram ter efeito imunoestimulante aumentando a resistência à doença. Este efeito foi devido ao aumento da explosão respiratória e da atividade da enzima superóxido dismutase (HARIKRISHNAN et al., 2011). Também na área da aquicultura, frações das folhas de *Solanum trilobatum* solúveis em água e hexano foram injetadas em tilápias, para avaliar mecanismos imunológicos. Houve significativa resistência contra a bactéria *Aeromonas hydrophila*, além de reforçar parâmetros imunológicos inespecíficos (DIVYAGNANESWARI; CHRISTYBAPITA; MICHAEL, 2007).

De acordo com CHOUBEY et al., (2015), a maior dose de um suplemento contendo *S. nigrum* na dieta de cabras aumentou a atividade antioxidante das enzimas glutathione peroxidase, glutathione transferase e catalase, além de reduzir o cortisol sanguíneo de maneira dose dependente. A espécie *Solanum glaucophyllum* é rica em vitamina D, composto que desempenha papel fundamental na homeostase do cálcio no sangue (ISHII et al., 2015). Segundo os mesmos autores, ao suplementar vacas com cerca de 36 g de folhas de *S. glaucophyllum*,

aproximadamente 3 dias antes do parto, esta espécie de solanácea demonstrou eficiência em reduzir os casos de hipocalcemia no pós-parto. Esse efeito foi devido à presença de vitamina D3 que quando suplementada em alta concentração manteve o nível sérico de cálcio após o parto.

### 2.6 Importância e caracterização das Solanáceas

Nos últimos anos, a influência dos radicais livres sobre o desenvolvimento de doenças tem despertado o interesse pela nutraceutica. Essa área combina a alimentação com a prevenção de doenças, os chamados alimentos funcionais que tem como foco melhorar o estado de saúde em humanos (PERES, 2015). Dentre eles, o aumento da popularidade do *Lycium barbarum* tem sido relacionado a atividades imunomoduladoras, através de atividades antioxidantes e anti-inflamatórias (WANG et al., 2017). Grande parte das plantas produzem compostos do metabolismo secundário, e muitos deles previnem doenças devido à atividade antioxidante que apresentam, como por exemplo os carotenóides e os flavonóides (PERES, 2015). As solanáceas são reconhecidas como uma família que inclui espécies de grande valor econômico, alimentício e terapêutico (BOHS, 2007), sendo que *Solanum melongena* é um dos vegetais com maior atividade antioxidante conhecida (HONG; LEE; KIM, 2018). As solanáceas são tradicionalmente usadas quanto as suas propriedades medicinais, alucinógenas e venenosas, devido à presença de alcaloides (KUTCHAN, 1995). No Quadro 1 a seguir, são distribuídas filogeneticamente algumas espécies de solanáceas de alto valor alimentício e/ou seus princípios ativos amplamente conhecidos e utilizados mundialmente.

Quadro 1. Filogenia da Família Solanaceae

Sub-Família	Clado	Espécie
Solanoideae		<i>Coffea arábica</i> (Café - cafeína)
	<i>Ipomoeae</i>	<i>Ipomoeae purpurea</i> <i>Ipomoeae batatas</i> (Batata-doce) <i>Ipomea cairica</i>
	<i>Nicotineae</i>	<i>Nicotiana tomentosiformis</i> <i>Nicotiana undulata</i> <i>Nicotiana tabacum</i> (Tabaco - nicotina) <i>Nicotiana glauca</i>
	<i>Lycieae</i>	<i>Grabowskia duplicata</i> <i>Lycium cestroides</i> <i>Lycium barbarum</i> (Goji berry)
	<i>Hyoscyameae</i>	<b><i>Atropa beladonna</i></b> (Atropina, beladonina e hiosciamina) <i>Hyoscyamus niger</i> (Escopolamina e hiosciamina)
	<i>Datureae</i>	<i>Datura stramonium</i> (Escopolamina)

Continuação: Filogenia da Família Solanaceae

<b>Solanoideae</b>	<i>Capsiceae</i> <i>Liciantes</i>	<i>Capsicum frutescens</i> (Pimenta - capsaicina) <i>Capsicum annuum</i> (Pimentão)
	<i>Physaleae</i> Sub: <i>Physalinae</i> <i>Lochrominae</i> <i>Withaninae</i>	<i>Physalis peruviana</i> <i>Physalis angulata</i> <i>Withania somnifera</i> <i>Lochroma loxense</i>
	<i>Solaneae</i>	<i>Solanum dulcamara</i> <b><i>Solanum nigrum</i></b> (Solanina e solamargina) <i>Solanum bulbocastanum</i> <i>Solanum tuberosum</i> (Batata – solanina e chaconina) <i>Solanum commersonii</i> <i>Solanum pennellii</i> <i>Solanum neorickii</i> <i>Solanum chilense</i> <i>Solanum peruvianum</i> <i>Solanum habrochaites</i> <i>Solanum galapagense</i> <i>Solanum pimpinellifolium</i> <i>Solanum lycopersicum</i> (Tomate - tomatidina) <i>Solanum melongena</i> (Beringela) <i>Solanum torvum</i> <i>Solanum wrightii</i>

Fonte: Adaptado de (AMIRYOUSEFI; HYVÖNEN; POZAI, 2018; HIDAYAT et al., 2016; KUTCHAN, 1995; OLMSTEAD et al., 2008; PERES, 2015).

Muitos equívocos ocorrem quando se trata de solanáceas, certamente devido à semelhança de algumas espécies em relação aos frutos, pequenos e negros (Fig. 05). *Atropa belladonna* apresenta alto potencial farmacológico devido seu principal composto, alcaloide atropina. *Solanum nigrum* foi uma denominação atribuída às solanáceas que possuíam frutos negros, portanto várias espécies que possuem os frutos negros ainda são erroneamente denominadas dessa forma. Para uma revisão aprofundada sobre *Black Nightshades* do Velho Mundo visitar SÄRKINEN et al., (2018). De acordo com estes autores, estas espécies são endêmicas da Europa e Ásia, porém devido à semelhança botânica podem ser facilmente confundidas com espécies encontradas no continente americano.





Figura 5. Frutos negros das espécies: *Atropa belladonna* (A) e *Solanum nigrum* (B).

**Fonte:** Jardim Botânico da Universidade de Trás-os-Montes e Alto Douro.

Acesso: <https://jb.utad.pt/> em 10/09/2020.

Dentro da família das solanáceas, o gênero *Solanum* é o que mais tem representantes e se distribui amplamente no Rio Grande do Sul com mais de 60 espécies nativas, divididas em três subgêneros: *Solanum*, *Leptostemonum* e *Bassovia* (que se divide em duas seções) de acordo com o Quadro 2 a seguir.

Quadro 2. Filogenia do gênero *Solanum* no Rio Grande do Sul

Sub-Gênero	Seção	Espécie
<i>Solanum</i>		<i>S. adscendens</i> <i>S. alatirameum</i> <b><i>S. americanum</i></b> <i>S. amygdalifolium</i> <i>S. arenarium</i> <i>S. campaniforme</i> <i>S. cassioides</i> <i>S. chacoense</i> <i>S. chenopodioides</i> <i>S. commersonii</i> <i>S. compressum</i> <i>S. concinnum</i> <i>S. delicatulum</i> <i>S. flaccidum</i> <i>S. gemellum</i> <i>S. granulosoleprosum</i> <i>S. hirtellum</i> <i>S. inodorum</i> <i>S. laxum</i> <i>S. mauritianum</i> <i>S. megalochiton</i> <i>S. nigrescens</i> <i>S. odoriferum</i>

Continuação: Filogenia do gênero *Solanum* no RS

		<i>S. pabstii</i> <i>S. paranense</i> <i>S. pseudocapsicum</i> <i>S. pseudoquina</i> <i>S. ramulosum</i> <i>S. reitzii</i> <i>S. sanctae-catharinae</i> <i>S. sarachoides</i> <i>S. subsylvestris</i> <i>S. trachytrichium</i> <i>S. viscosissimum</i>
<i>Leptostemonum</i>		<i>S. aculeatissimum</i> <i>S. affine</i> <i>S. aparadense</i> <i>S. atropurpureum</i> <i>S. bistellatum</i> <i>S. capsicoides</i> <i>S. guaraniticum</i> <i>S. hasslerianum</i> <i>S. palinacanthum</i> <i>S. paniculatum</i> <i>S. platense</i> <i>S. reflexum</i> <i>S. reineckii</i> <i>S. sisymbriifolium</i> <i>S. vaillantii</i> <i>S. variabile</i> <i>S. viarum</i> <i>S. wacketii</i>
<i>Bassovia</i>	<i>Cyphomandropsis</i> (espécies provindas de <i>Solanum</i> )	<i>S. fusiforme</i> <i>S. glaucophyllum</i> <i>S. iraniense</i> <i>S. johanna</i> <i>S. pelagicum</i>
	<i>Pachyphylla</i> (espécies provindas de <i>Cyphomandra</i> , 1995)	<b><i>S. corymbiflorum</i></b> <i>S. diploconos</i> <i>S. sciadostylis</i>

Fonte: Adaptado de (BOHS, 1995; MENTZ et al., 2007; SOARES; MENTZ, 2006).

### 2.6.1 *Solanum corymbiflorum*

*Solanum corymbiflorum* (Sendtn.) Bohs (syn. *Cyphomandra corymbiflora*), popularmente conhecida como “baga-de-veado, cuião-de-veado”, é uma espécie arbustiva e ocorre na floresta da metade norte do estado do Rio Grande do Sul, sendo observada em Floresta Ombrófila Densa, Floresta Ombrófila Mista e Floresta Estacional Decidual da região do Alto Uruguai (Fig. 06). Ela se distribui pelo bioma Mata Atlântica, relatada nos estados de Rio Grande do Sul, Santa Catarina e

Paraná, geralmente cresce em clareiras de florestas primárias ou locais de vegetação secundária, como margem de estradas, trilhas e pastagens (BOHS, 1989). Faz parte de diversas formações vegetais, tanto campestres quanto florestais, sendo comumente encontrada na borda de florestas e locais alterados, como margens de estradas (SOARES; MENTZ, 2006).

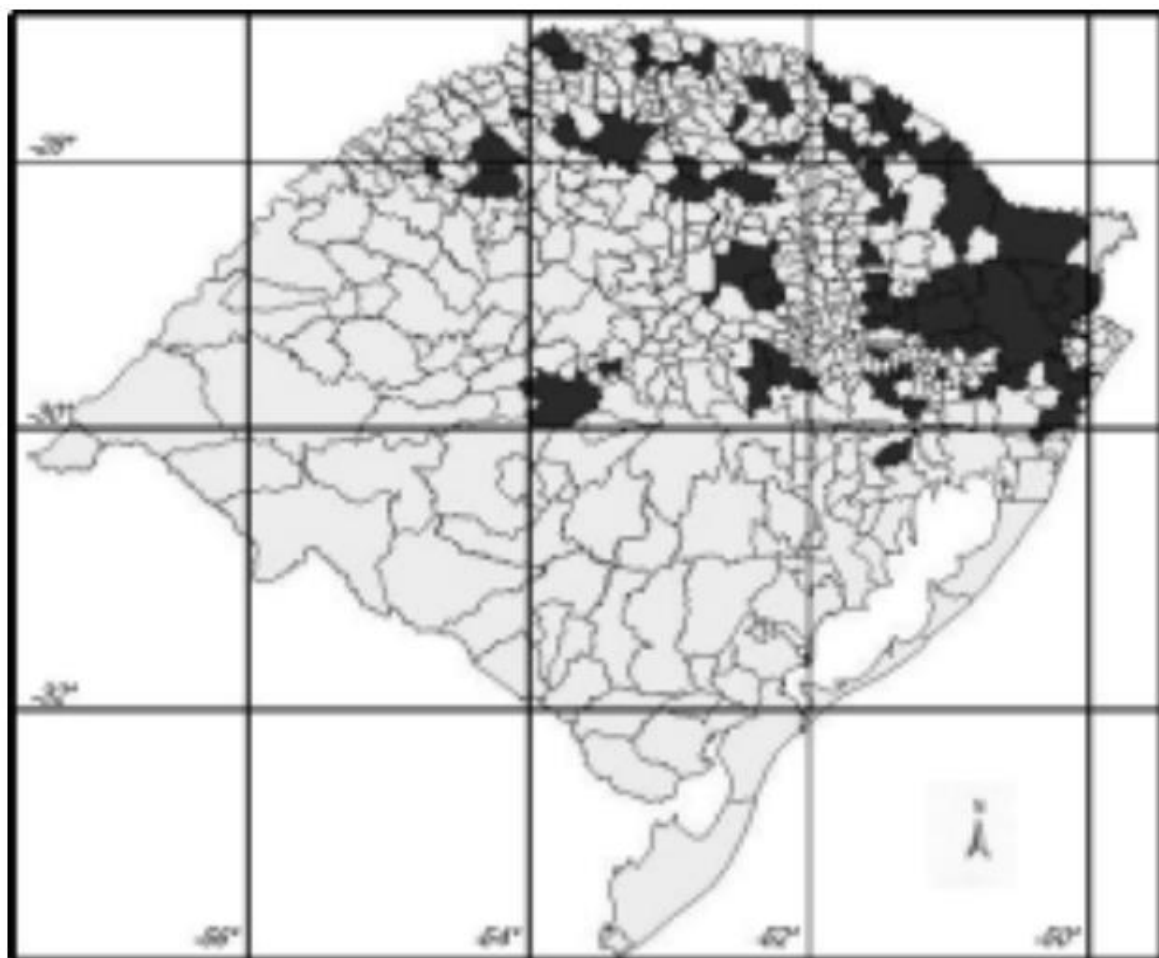


Figura 6. Mapa de ocorrência de *Solanum corymbiflorum* no Rio Grande do Sul  
Fonte: (SOARES; MENTZ, 2006).

Ela se caracteriza como arbustos ou arvoretas de 0,8 a 1,5 m de altura, são inermes (sem acúleos ou espinhos). As folhas são membranáceas com a superfície recoberta por tricomas (SOARES; MENTZ, 2006). A floração e frutificação ocorrem duas vezes ao ano, geralmente é possível encontrar flores em maio e novembro (Fig. 7).

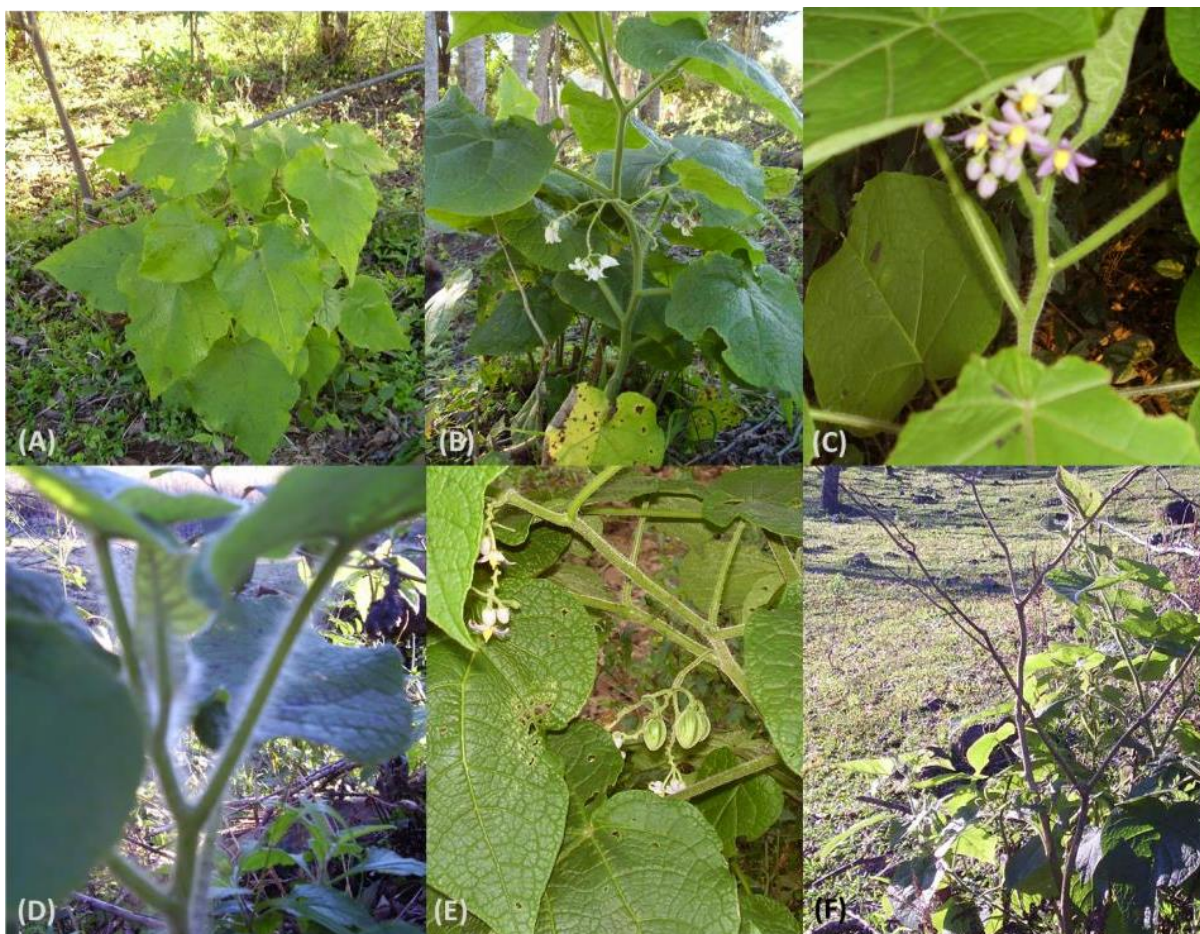


Figura 7. *Solanum corymbiflorum* localizada na região no noroeste do RS.

(A) Estrutura da planta (B) Flores de cor branca (C) Flores de cor lilás (D) Tricomas em planta jovem (E) Frutificação (F) Senescência e brotação de novos galhos.

Fonte: Panazzolo, 2020.

Segundo Keller (2003), a seleção das plantas que possuíam ou não propriedades medicinais era determinada por atributos como forma, cor ou características marcantes, esse método era chamado de “Doutrina da assinatura ou semelhança”. Atualmente, cerca de 40% das plantas medicinais utilizadas por povos tradicionais (comunidades indígenas) seguem esta doutrina. A planta *S. corymbiflorum* tem seu uso associado ao tratamento de inflamações e seu nome ‘hierba del sapo’ está relacionado à capacidade dos sapos de inflarem quando expostos ao perigo (KELLER, 2003). Segundo Keller and Prance (2012), esta espécie se estende pela Argentina, Paraguai e Brasil usada por diversas tribos para muitas finalidades conforme o Quadro 3, onde se observa que um dos propósitos de uso é o tratamento da mastite por membros da comunidade indígena Guarani (KELLER; PRANCE, 2012). De acordo com Keller (2003) colônias de imigrantes brasileiros vivem no entorno dessa comunidade e se dedicam à agricultura primária.



Quadro 3. *Solanum corymbiflorum* de acordo com seu nome e uso tradicional

Idioma/Dialeto	Nomes	Aplicações
Português	Baga de bugre (baya de indio) Baga de veado (baya de venado) Bordão de veado (corazón de venado)	Alcoolismo Sarna Picadas de carrapato Furúnculos Dor de cabeça
Espanhol	Tomate de monte Pata de cuervo	<b>Mastite</b> Taquicardia
TupíGuaraní	Oriva (frutal frondosa)	Lumbago
Guaraní Ava Chiripa	Manduchu	Otite
Guaraní Mbya	Yryvuka'a (hierba Del jote) Kururuka'a (hierba del sapo)	Retenção de líquidos

Fonte: Adaptado de KELLER e PRANCE (2012).

Devido à proximidade geográfica e à distribuição botânica no bioma adjacente à região nordeste do Rio Grande do Sul, a prática foi adotada pelos agricultores locais que, usando princípios de etnoveterinária, fornecem a planta na alimentação de vacas leiteiras acometidas com sintomas clínicos de mastite: “*Toda planta é colhida, seca na sombra e fornecida por 4 ou 5 dias na dieta de vacas que apresentam sinais clínicos de mastite. Aproximadamente 50 gramas de matéria seca por dia*” (comunicação pessoal). Estudo realizado recentemente por Piana et al. (2016), comprova a eficiência do extrato das folhas como potente anti-inflamatório tópico, sendo capaz de inibir o edema causado por uma irritação na pele, através da redução da atividade da mieloperoxidase da mesma forma que o controle dexametasona.

### 2.6.2 *Solanum americanum*

*Solanum americanum* Mill. está distribuída globalmente nas áreas de trópicos e subtropicais; provavelmente nativo do continente americano, mas com poucas evidências sobre sua origem (SÄRKINEN et al., 2018). É muito comum nas Américas Central, do Norte e do Sul, coloniza solos perturbados e é encontrada em áreas abertas, ao longo de estradas, clareiras e nas costas de praias, desde o nível do mar até 2.000 metros acima dele (KNAPP et al., 2019; MENTZ et al., 2007). No Brasil, é conhecida como “maria-preta, maria-pretinha” (SILVA et al., 2017). Em muitos lugares, é considerado sinônimo de *Solanum nigrum* Linn, que é nativa da Eurásia. Segundo SÄRKINEN et al., (2018), análises moleculares mostram que é possível diferenciar estas espécies através de contagem de cromossomos, mas sua

identificação visual é relativamente difícil (Fig. 8 e 9). *S. nigrum* é uma espécie autoaloplóide e pode ser derivada de um cruzamento entre *S. villosum* (tetraplóide) e *S. americanum* (diplóide). Outra característica que estes autores citam para distinguir *S. nigrum* de *S. americanum* é o tamanho sementes e o número destas por baga.

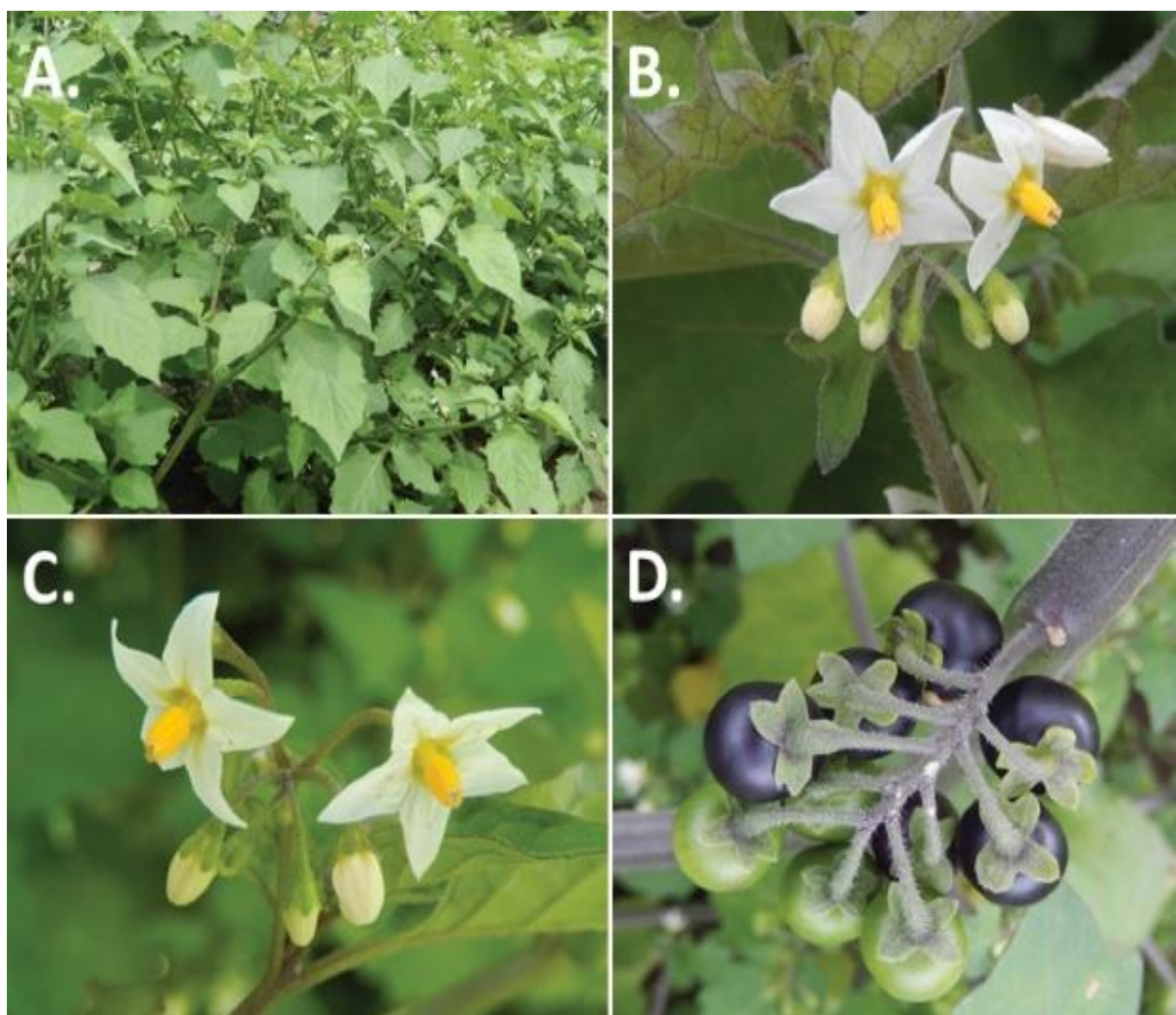


Figura 8. *Solanum nigrum* endêmica da Eurásia.

Quanto ao seu (A) hábito de crescimento, (B) inflorescência (indumento denso) (C) inflorescência (indumento esparso) (D) frutos pretos totalmente maduros, lóbulos de cálice permanecendo deprimidos ou ligeiramente espalhados.

**Fonte:** Adaptado de (KNAPP et al., 2019).

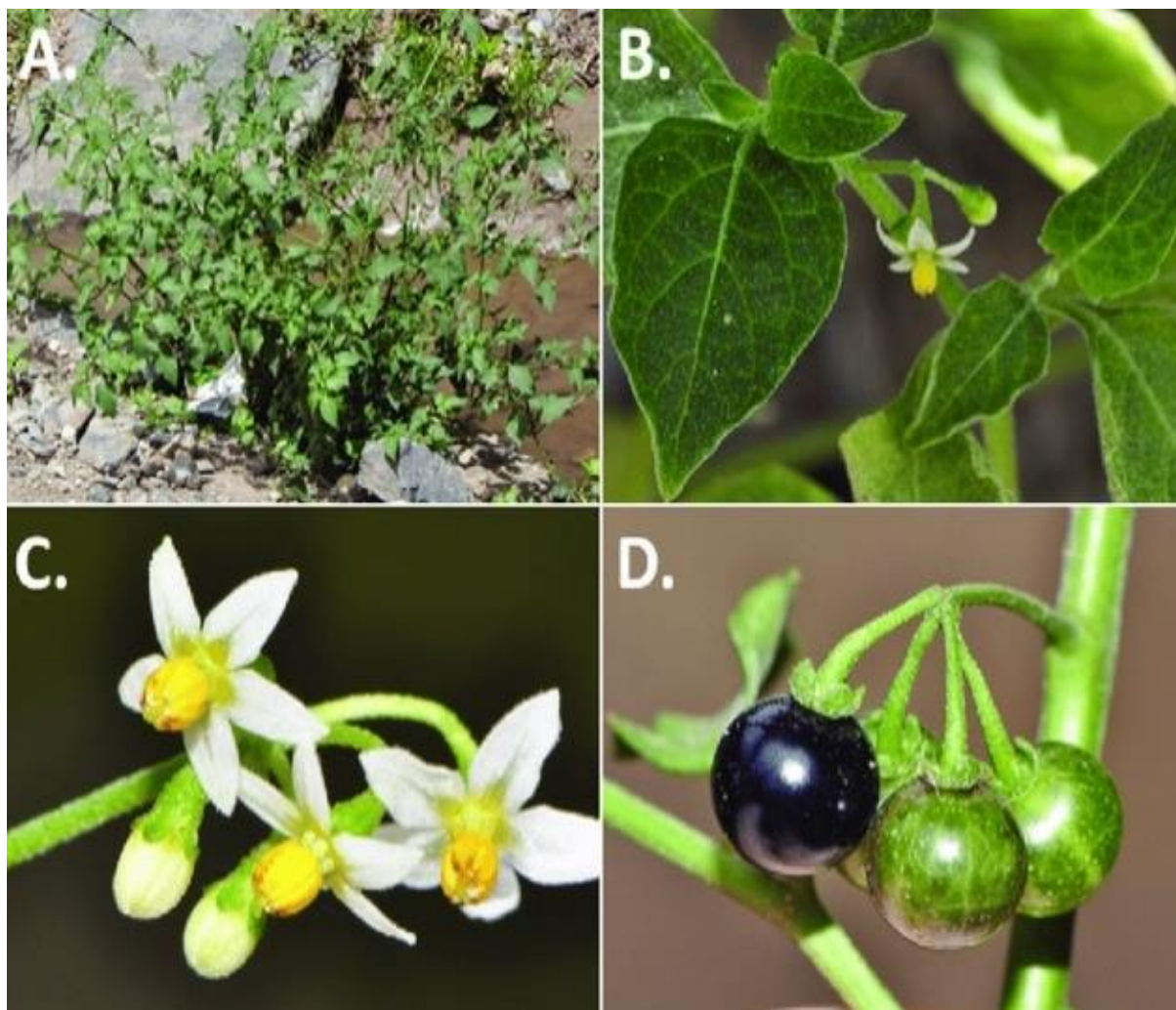


Figura 9. *Solanum americanum* distribuída em todo continente americano. Quanto ao seu (A) hábito de crescimento, (B) folhas e inflorescências jovens (C) botões e flores (D) frutos pretos maduros e brilhantes com lóbulos de cálice refletidos.  
**Fonte:** Adaptado de (KNAPP et al., 2019).

*Solanum americanum* é naturalmente distribuída na vegetação secundária do Rio Grande do Sul (MENTZ et al., 2007) e considerada uma erva daninha invasora de lavouras, principalmente na horticultura (BIANCO; CARVALHO; BIANCO, 2010). Está presente dentro das propriedades leiteiras fazendo parte da vegetação nos piquetes de pastejo dos animais (Fig. 10). Dessa forma, *S. americanum* é uma espécie que cresce espontaneamente em pastagens sendo consumida por vacas leiteiras em pastejo (*comunicação pessoal*). Enquanto *S. corymbiflorum* é suplementada na dieta de animais que apresentam sintomas clínicos de mastite, como inchaço, vermelhidão e alterações físico-químicas do leite (*comunicação pessoal*).





Figura 10. *Solanum americanum* localizada na região sul do RS.  
(A) Estrutura da planta com frutos maduros (B) Flores brancas – em beira de cercas e estradas (C) Dentro dos piquetes de vacas leiteiras (D) Planta consumida durante pastejo.  
**Fonte:** Panazzolo, 2020.



### 3. Hipótese e objetivos

Os compostos presentes nas folhas das espécies *S. americanum* e *S. corymbiflorum* apresentam ação antibacteriana e antioxidante.

Objetivo geral:

Verificar se os extratos metanólico, alcaloídico e aquoso de folhas das espécies *Solanum corymbiflorum* e *Solanum americanum* apresentam atividade antimicrobiana e antioxidante.

Objetivos específicos:

1. Verificar a capacidade dos extratos em inibir o crescimento de *S. aureus* e *E. coli*;
2. Avaliar a capacidade dos extratos em inibir a formação do biofilme de *S. aureus* e *E. coli*;
3. Avaliar a atividade antioxidante dos extratos.
4. Realizar a caracterização fitoquímica dos extratos através do ensaio bio-guiado.

## CAPÍTULO II

### **Ethno-veterinary use of Solanaceae species as a tool to reduce a virulence factor in dairy cow mastitis<sup>4</sup>**

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<sup>4</sup> Este capítulo é apresentado de acordo com as normas de publicação do ***Journal of Ethnopharmacology***.

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**Ethno-veterinary use of Solanaceae species as a tool to reduce a virulence factor in dairy cow mastitis**

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## ABSTRACT

*Ethnopharmacological relevance:* *Solanum corymbiflorum* (Sendtn.) Bohs is naturally distributed in the range of native vegetation in the southern states of Brazil and Argentina, popularly known as “baga-de-veado”. As an ethnoveterinary practice by local’s native tribes, the dried plant is mixed into the diet offered to dairy cows showing clinical mastitis. *Solanum americanum* Mill. is known as “maria-pretinha” and naturally occurs in the boundaries of paddocks being grazed by dairy cows in the south of Brazil.

*Aim of the study:* Perform a bio-guided search of antibacterial compounds in the leaves of *Solanum corymbiflorum* (SC) and *Solanum americanum* (SA), evaluating the bacterial growth and biofilm formation of *Staphylococcus aureus* and *Escherichia coli*, and perform chemical characterization of the promising extract.

*Materials and methods:* Three forms of extraction were performed on each plant’s leaves: aqueous (AQU), alkaloid (ALK), and methanolic (MET), that were further evaluated at two initial concentrations (10 and 250  $\mu\text{g/mL}$ ). The biological tests on the bacteria planktonic growth and adhesion ability of bacteria to forming biofilm in extracts presence were evaluated by broth microdilution and violet crystal staining methods, respectively. The absorbance data (ABS), measured by optical density, were subjected to analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Dunnett’s test was used as a means comparison test, adopting a 5% significance level. The chemical characterization was determined by thin-layer chromatography (TLC), high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC), and high-resolution spectrometry mass (HRMS).

*Results:* AQU extract of SA stimulated the planktonic growth of *S. aureus* and *E. coli*. MET extract of SC stimulated biofilm formation for *S. aureus* but reduced this ability for *E. coli*. ALK extracts of both species were able to inhibit the biofilm formation for *S. aureus*. Based on the correspondence data on exact mass, isotopic ratio, fragmentation pathway, and UV spectrum, it is possible to suggest the presence of the *N-trans-feruloyltyramine* ( $m/z$  314.1382) in ALK extract of SA, an alkaloid already reported in *Solanum* species.

*Conclusion:* The ALK extracts of the leaves of *Solanum corymbiflorum* and *Solanum americanum* inhibited biofilm formation of *S. aureus*. This effect can be considered beneficial as it can reduce the main virulence factor that affects milk production in

cases of mastitis and may explain its use following the traditional associated knowledge in dairy cows.

*Keywords:* alkaloids, antibacterial, antibiofilm, *Solanum corymbiflorum*, *Solanum americanum*, Traditional Associated Knowledge

## 1. Introduction

*Solanum corymbiflorum* (Sendtn.) Bohs (syn. *Cyphomandra corymbiflora*), popularly known as “baga-de-veado, cuião-de-veado, cordão-de-veado” is naturally distributed in the southern states of Brazil and border areas with Argentina (Bohs, 1989; Keller and Prance, 2012; Mentz et al., 2007), growing in clearings of primary forests, places of secondary vegetation or countryside formations, on forest edges and altered locations such as margins of roadsides, trails, and pastures (Bohs, 1989; Soares and Mentz, 2006). Local communities of indigenous tribes in the Misiones Province of Argentine use SC in the mastitis treatment (Keller and Prance, 2012). The use of medicinal plants in the associated traditional knowledge is a powerful tool to search for active compounds in plants (Mubarack et al., 2011). This practice has been adopted by local smallholders’ dairy farms that use traditional knowledge to treat their herds. The plant is harvested, dried in the shade, and further mixed with food and fed for 4 to 5 days to cows showing clinical signs of mastitis (*personal communication*).

*Solanum americanum* Mill. is globally distributed in the tropics and subtropics areas; possibly native in the American continent, but with little evidence about its origin (Särkinen et al., 2018). It is very common in Central, North and South America, colonizes disturbed soil and it is found in open areas, along with roadsides, tree openings and on the back of beaches, from the sea level to 2,000 m above sea level (KNAPP et al., 2019; MENTZ et al., 2007). In southern Brazil, it is known as “maria-preta, maria-pretinha” widely distributed in the Rio Grande do Sul state and generally considered a weed (Mentz et al., 2007; Silva et al., 2017), occurring in paddocks where it is consumed by grazing dairy cows (*personal communication*).

A previous study with SC found anti-edematogenic activity, corroborating the traditional use of skin diseases. They attributed this effect to the presence of phytochemicals such as polyphenols, flavonoids and alkaloids present in this

species. It is worth to notice the high content of phenolic compounds, especially the acids chlorogenic, caffeic, rosmarinic, gallic and rutin (Piana et al., 2016). Moreover, some species of Solanaceae are known to be rich sources of alkaloids, compounds with a wide variety of biological activities. In studies with SA, these phytochemical classes were also reported, especially the phenolic acids, flavonoids and alkaloids (Silva et al., 2017; Vagula et al., 2018).

Mastitis is an inflammation of the mammary gland caused by microbial infection and it is characterized by physical, chemical, and bacteriological changes in milk and by pathologic changes in the glandular tissue (Zhao and Lacasse, 2008). Among the numerous bacteria that cause mastitis, only a few species are prevalent and constitute a real issue (Rainard et al., 2018). One of the most important microorganisms causing mastitis is *Staphylococcus aureus* that accounts for about one-third of the cases of severe or subclinical mastitis (Li et al., 2017). Among the reasons for the failure of treatment in *S. aureus*-associated mastitis is the abscess formation surrounded by thick fibrous capsules in the mammary gland, that can prevent the adequate flow and accumulation of antibiotic on-target site, and thus, bacterial destroying is interrupted (Raza et al., 2013; Saglam et al., 2017). The failure of the immune system to eliminate the pathogen because of the biofilm can damage the alveolar tissue, increasing the somatic cell count (SCC) present in the milk, extending the duration of the infection and healing failure (Sharma and Jeong, 2013).

Antibiotics have been widely used in dairy production to improve performance and control diseases caused by gram-positive and gram-negative bacteria, especially during the dry-off period to prevent mastitis (Garciaa et al., 2019). These practices have increased the risk of residues in milk favoring bacterial resistance to antimicrobials (Oliver and Murinda, 2012). The resistance of *S. aureus* recovered in cases of clinical and subclinical mastitis against ampicillin, enrofloxacin, erythromycin, penicillin, pirlimycin, and tetracycline have been reported, including having an isolate that presented resistance to multiple drugs (Oliveira et al., 2012). Multiple drug resistance affects treatment success (Phophi et al., 2019) and may become a public health problem. On the other hand, *E. coli* is an important agent causing clinical mastitis, especially in an acute form, a common and usually fatal disease in lactating dairy cows due to endotoxemia and disseminated intravascular coagulation (Guerra et al., 2019; Herry et al., 2017).

The ethnoveterinary practice may be an effective approach for tackling problems like mastitis, and prospection of plants used by the traditional knowledge may identify those more promising species, leading to the identification of active fractions or molecules with antimicrobial properties (Doss et al., 2012; Kalayou et al., 2012). Usually, traditional knowledge uses the dried plant material directly, administering it into the animal's feed (Mubarack et al., 2011). Plant natural products added to the animal diet are called phytogetic additives and may enhance health status of farm animals (Lillehoj et al., 2018). But, the effects of SC and SA, when ingested by ruminants, are still unknown. Therefore, the aim of this study was to conduct a bio-guided assay testing the aqueous, methanolic and alkaloid extracts of *Solanum corymbiflorum* and *Solanum americanum* on bacteria planktonic growth and biofilm formation of *S. aureus* and *E. coli*. This study also aimed to characterize the compounds in the extract with the most promising results.

## **2. Material and methods**

### *2.1 Plant material: source, sampling, and identification*

The leaves of SC and SA were harvested at the edge of secondary vegetation and in dairy cows' paddocks located in the northwest of Rio Grande do Sul (27°47'12" S, 53°00'57" W), Brazil, between October and November 2017. The specimens were identified and deposited as exsiccates in the Herbarium of the Institute of Natural Sciences (ICN – UFRGS) under the registration number: *Solanum americanum* Mill: ICN 195408 and *Solanum corymbiflorum* Bohs: ICN 195409. The authors registered the species according to the new Brazilian legislation about the access to the biodiversity - Law 13.123/15 and Decree 8772/16 (Silva and Oliveira, 2018) in the National System of Genetic Heritage and Associated Traditional Knowledge under registration number A382EE. Approximately 2 kg of fresh leaves were dried at room temperature ( $\pm 25$  °C) in a ventilated place, ground in particle size of 2 mm and stored in paper bags on Pharmacognosy's laboratory of the UFRGS.

### *2.2 Extraction methods and chemical characterization*

Three extraction methods were used for each specimen: SC and SA following the AQU, MET and ALK extraction methods used in the Pharmacognosy's laboratory. The MET and ALK extracts were subjected to a TLC analysis to search alkaloids. Then, the ALK extract was subjected to liquid chromatography and mass spectrometry.

**Aqueous extraction (AQU):** A ratio of 2.85 g of ground leaves for every 100 mL of distilled water was used (0.2:10 w/v). The sample was extracted with warm water (40°C) for 30 min until it reached room temperature. The solution was filtered using a filter paper, frozen, lyophilized (Savant Micro Modulyo, United States) to obtain the AQU extract, and stored at -20°C until use (Li et al., 2008).

**Methanolic extraction (MET):** Methanolic extraction followed the method described by Scopel et al. (2010). Briefly, extractive solutions were made using a ratio of 1 g of ground leaves mixed into 20 ml of methanol (1:20 w/v). Extraction proceeded twice with turbolysis (Ultra Turrax Marconi – speed 3 for 3 min equivalent to 9000 RPM), ultrasound (Ultrasound bath cleaner at 132 w power – for 10 minutes), and maceration overnight (Table 1). Total methanolic extract (100 ml) was filtered using filter paper. Methanol was evaporated from the sample using a rotary evaporator (Buchi rotavapor V-710, Switzerland) at 40°C under a maximal pressure of 340 mbars. The dried extract was resuspended in ethyl ether and washed with Mili-Q® water to remove chlorophyll, and frozen (-20°C) for later lyophilization (Savant Micro Modulyo, United States).

Table 1. Process of methanolic extraction

Quantity and process	Running time	Total of methanol
2 × 20 mL => Turbolysis	3 min	40 mL
2 × 20 mL => Ultrasound	10 min	40 mL
1 × 20 mL => Maceration	24 h (overnight)	20 mL

**Alkaloid extraction (ALK):** The extraction of total alkaloids was performed according to Reis et al. (2019), mixing 10 g of the ground dried leaves and 100 ml of 10% HCl (v/v) on an ultrasound water bath at 50°C (twice for 15 min). The samples were gravity filtered and the supernatant washed with dichloromethane (3 × 100 mL). The aqueous fraction was alkalinized with 25% ammonium hydroxide (v/v) until pH 9. This alkaline aqueous solution was partitioned with dichloromethane (3 × 100 mL). The organic residue was filtered over anhydrous sodium sulfate (to remove the aqueous residue) and the solvent was evaporated under reduced pressure to recover the alkaloid rich residue.



**Thin layer chromatography analysis (TLC):** The extracts of SC were subjected to TLC in the silica gel plate (60GF<sub>254</sub>). MET extract used a solution of ethyl acetate – methanol – H<sub>2</sub>O (100: 13.5: 10 v / v) and ALK extract used dichloromethane: methanol (9.8: 0.2 v / v) as the eluent system. The samples were evaluated at 254 and 365 nm (Hildebert Wagner and Bladt, 1996).

**High-performance liquid chromatographic analysis (HPLC):** The ALK extracts were resuspended in methanol 2 mL, filtered through a 0.45 µm membrane (Millipore®, Bedford, UK), and injected on a Waters Alliance e2695 with a diode arrangement detector (PDA Waters 2998). Collecting 20 spectra per second over a range of 210 to 400 nm, and using the software Empower 3 HPLC (Waters®) for data acquisition. The chromatographic column employed was the reverse phase C18 (Luna Phenomenex® 100A, 5µm, 250 × 4.60 mm) coupled to a reversed-phase pre-column (Security Guard Cartridges™ Fusion Phenomenex®; 4.0 × 3.0 mm) on a linear elution gradient. For the development of an adequate chromatographic system, several conditions of sample preparation and composition of the mobile phase were tested. The gradual elution system used was composed of water: trifluoroacetic acid (TFA) 0.01% (mobile phase A, v/v), and acetonitrile: TFA 0.08% (mobile phase B, v/v); the flow rate used was 0.7 mL min<sup>-1</sup> and 45 min of analysis. The gradient started with solvent A at 95% (0–7 min), 75% (2 min); 65% (10 min), 63% (6 min); 40% (10 min); 10% (4 min) and returned to A at 95% kept constant for the next minute to allow the spine to balance before the next run.

**High-resolution electrospray ionization mass spectrometry (HRMS-ESI):** The ALK extracts were resuspended in methanol for analysis in positive and negative electrospray ionization (ESI) modes, according to Rosales et al. (2019). The individual solutions were infused directly into the ESI source via a syringe pump (Harvard Apparatus, Hamilton, Reno, Nevada), at a flow rate of 180 µL min<sup>-1</sup>. The ESI mass spectrometry (ESI(+)-MS) and tandem ESI(+)-MS/MS were acquired using a hybrid high-resolution and high-accuracy micrOTOF-Q mass spectrometer (Bruker Scientific®, Billerica, USA) under the following conditions: capillary and cone voltages were set to +3500 and +40 V, respectively, with a desolvation temperature of 200 °C. The collision-induced dissociations energy (CID) for the ESI (+) MS-MS was optimized in automatic mode for each component. Diagnostic ions in different fractions were identified by the comparison of their ESI (+)-MS/MS dissociation patterns with those of compounds identified in previous studies. For data acquisition

and processing, time-of-flight (TOF) control and data analysis software (Bruker Scientific®) were used. The data were collected in the 100–1000  $m/z$  range, at the speed of two scans per second, providing 50.000 FWHM resolution, at 200  $m/z$ . For exceptionally reliable identification of the target compound by ESI–Q–TOF, the accepted accuracy threshold for confirmation of elemental compositions was established as  $\leq 5$  ppm (Brenton and Godfrey, 2010).

### 2.3 Biological assays

**Planktonic bacterial growth assay:** The AQU, MET and ALK extracts of SC and SA were diluted in 5% of dimethyl sulphoxide (DMSO). The AQU extract of SC did not dilute in DMSO; therefore, no data were obtained for this treatment. The strains of *Escherichia coli* (ATCC25922) and *Staphylococcus aureus* (ATCC25904 – a strong biofilm-producing) were cultured in Mueller Hinton agar plates and incubated at 37°C overnight. Planktonic susceptibility test was performed by broth microdilution assay using a 96-well polystyrene flat-bottom microtiter plate (COSTAR 3599; Corning, NY, USA). Each well had a volume of 80  $\mu\text{L}$  of bacterial suspensions (1.0 McFarland) + 40  $\mu\text{L}$  of tryptone soy broth (TSB) (Oxoid Ltd., England) + 80  $\mu\text{L}$  of extracts (10 or 250  $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ ) or 80  $\mu\text{L}$  of Milli-Q® water for positive control. The results of planktonic susceptibility were measured as absorbance data by the optical density (OD) with reading at 600 nm (Epoch – Biotek Spectrophotometer) and shown as the difference at the beginning (time 0) and at the end of the incubation (24 hours) (Antunes et al., 2010).

**Biofilm formation assay:** Following the incubation period (37°C for 24 h) the content of the wells was removed and washed three times with sterile saline. The remaining attached bacteria were heat-fixed at 60 °C for 1 h. The planktonic bacterial cells adherent in a layer biofilm formed was stained with 0.4% crystal violet for 15 min at room temperature. The stain bound to the cells was solubilized with 99.5% ethanol (Sigma–Aldrich Co., USA) and absorbance was measured at 570 nm (Spectramax M2e Multimode Microplate Reader, Molecular Devices, USA). The assays were performed in triplicate for each isolate and repeated independently three times to minimize the variability in absorbance measurements. The positive control was considered to represent 100% of bacterial adhesion for biofilm formation. Values

lesser than 100% represent inhibition of biofilm formation in comparison to the control (Antunes et al., 2010; Trentin et al., 2011).

## 2.4 Statistical analysis

Absorbance (ABS) data for the studied variables: bacterial planktonic growth and biofilm formation were tested for normality (Shapiro-Wilk test), homogeneity of variances (Levene's test) and subsequently subjected to analysis of variance (ANOVA) according to a completely randomized design (CRD) with 11 treatments (Fig. 1) performed in triplicate (average of three wells) with three replications. Variables that did not follow the normal distribution underwent a logarithmic transformation. Statistical model:  $y_{ij} = \mu + \tau_j + \varepsilon_{ij}$ , where  $\mu$  is a common parameter for all treatments known as the global mean and  $\tau_j$  is a characteristic parameter of the treatment known as the treatment effect.  $\varepsilon_{ij}$  is a random error component that incorporates all other sources of experiment variability such as the difference between experimental units (test material/equipment). Dunnett's test was used as the means comparison test of all treatments with the positive control. Differences were adopted when  $P \leq 0.05$ , all analyzes were performed by SAS 9.4 procedures.

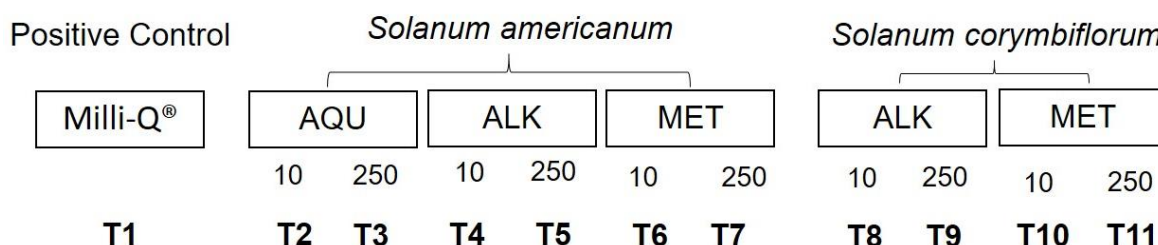


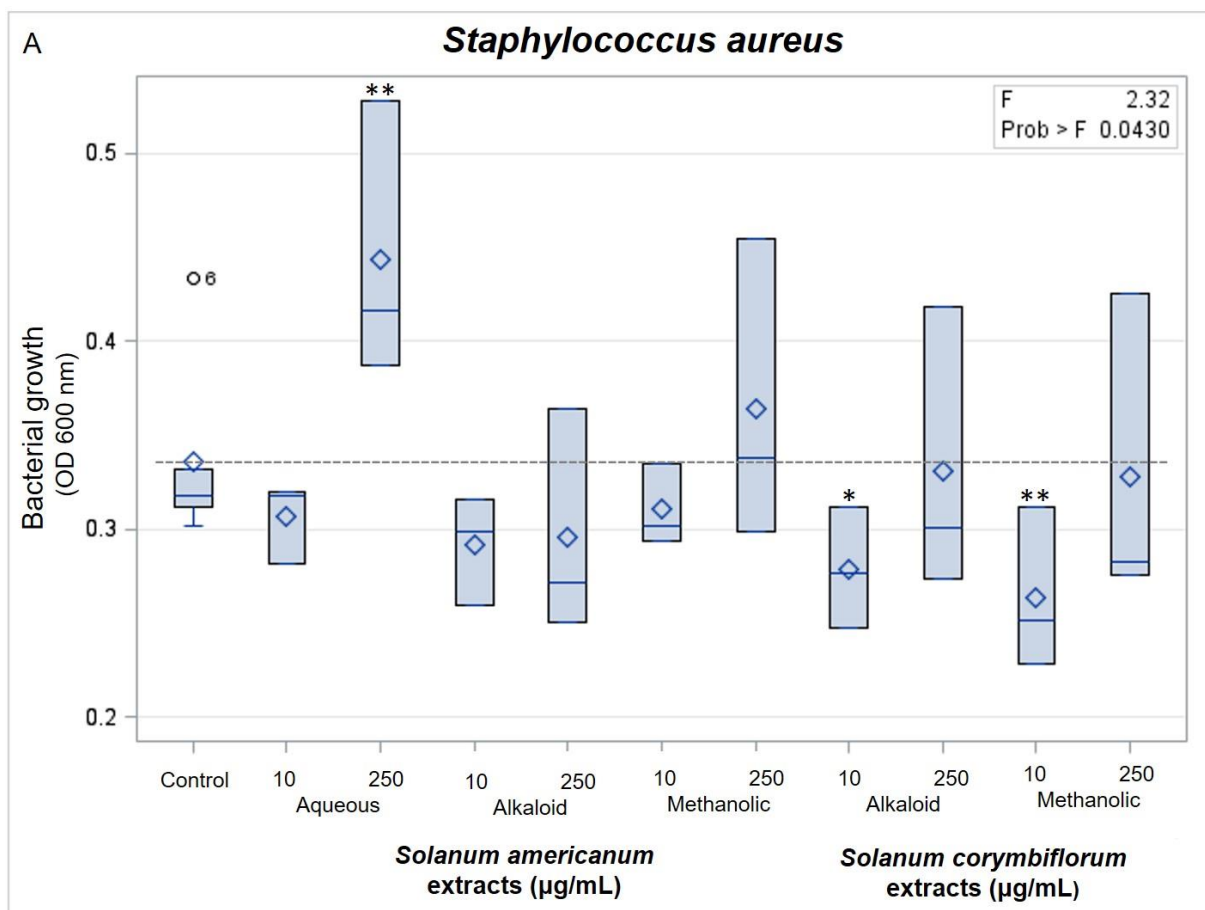
Figure 1. Treatments description subjected to statistical analysis. The concentrations used for each extract were 10 or 250  $\mu\text{g/mL}$ .

## 3. Results

### 3.1 Effect of extracts on bacterial growth

Significant differences were found for bacterial planktonic growth (Table 01 in Supplementary Material). In a descriptive analysis, several treatments inhibited the *S. aureus* planktonic growth (Fig. 2A), while many of them stimulated bacterial growth for *E. coli* (Fig. 2B). Except for the AQU extract of SA that stimulated the planktonic growth of both bacteria, *S. aureus* ( $P \leq 0.05 = 0.0432$ ), and *E. coli* ( $P \leq 0.05 = 0.0117$ ) in 250  $\mu\text{g/mL}$  (Fig. 2A and B). It was not possible to obtain the results for the AQU extract of SC because the sample did not dilute in the DMSO. MET extract of SC

reduced the growth of *S. aureus* in 10  $\mu\text{g/mL}$  ( $P \leq 0.05 = 0.0216$ ) but stimulated the planktonic growth of *E. coli* at the higher concentration ( $P \leq 0.05 = 0.0058$ ). Trends in ALK extract of SC and MET extract of SA are shown in Table 1 of the Supplementary Material.



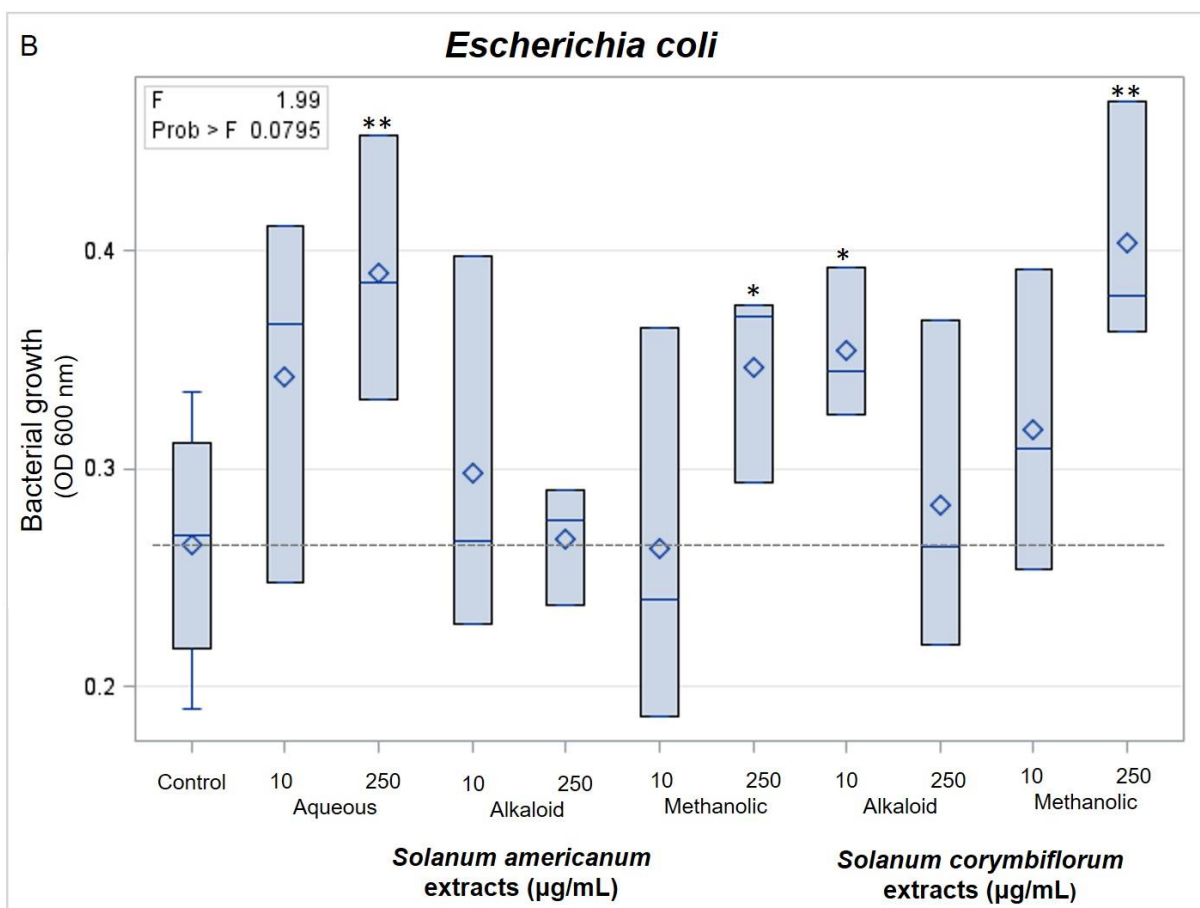


Figure 2. Effect of AQU, ALK, and MET extracts of SA and SC leaves on bacterial growth of *S. aureus* (A) and *E. coli* (B) strains.

Each bar represents the range of variation within the treatment, the line represents the median and diamond the mean. The dashed line represents the control's mean compared with treatments means (one-way ANOVA followed by post hoc bilateral Dunnett's test). Where \*\*\* = highly significant difference ( $P \leq 0.001$ ), \*\* = significant difference ( $P \leq 0.05$ ) and \* = trends ( $0.05 < P < 0.10$ ).

### 3.2 Effect of plant extracts on biofilm's formation

Significant differences were found for biofilm formation for these gram-positive and negative strains (Table 2 in Supplementary Material). In a descriptive analysis, some extracts inhibited the biofilm formation for *S. aureus* and *E. coli*. (Fig. 3A and 3B). ALK extracts of both species, SA ( $P \leq 0.05 = 0.0034$ ) and SC ( $P \leq 0.05 = 0.0208$ ), inhibited the biofilm formation for *S. aureus* at 250 µg/mL (Fig. 3A), but had no effect on *E. coli* (Fig. 3B). MET extract of SC significantly stimulated the biofilm formation of *S. aureus* at the higher concentration ( $P \leq 0.001 = 0.0011$ ) but inhibited for *E. coli*. ( $P \leq 0.05 = 0.0145$ ). AQU extracts also inhibited the biofilm formation for *E. coli* in both concentrations, 10 ( $P \leq 0.05 = 0.0451$ ) and 250 µg/mL ( $P \leq 0.001 = 0.0006$ ), without effects on *S. aureus*. Trends in MET extract of SA and SC are shown in Table 2 of the Supplementary Material.

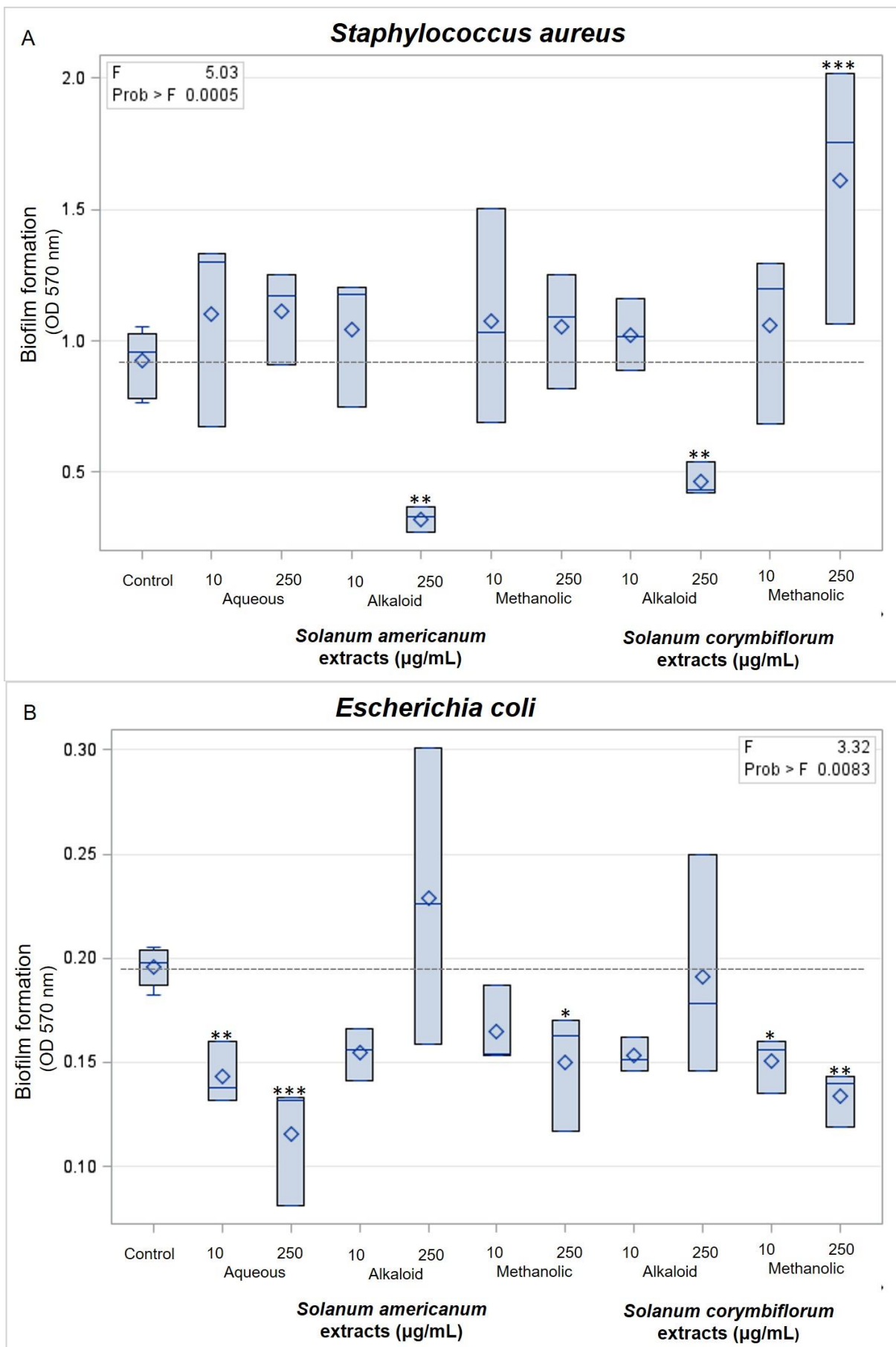


Figure 3. Effect of AQ, ALK, and MET extracts of SA and SC leaves on biofilm formation of *S. aureus* (A) and *E. coli* (B) strains

Each bar represents the range of variation within the treatment, the line represents the median and diamond the mean. The dashed line represents the control's mean compared with treatments means (one-way ANOVA followed by post hoc bilateral Dunnett's test). Where \*\*\* = highly significant difference ( $P \leq 0.001$ ), \*\* = significant difference ( $P \leq 0.05$ ) and \* = trends ( $0.05 < P < 0.10$ ).

### 3.3 Chemical characterization: TLC, HPLC and HRMS

A preliminary phytochemical analysis to detect the major components of the extracts was carried out. TLC was used in the MET and ALK (Fig. 4) extract of SC leaves. Fig. 4 B and C shows spots characteristic of phenolic compounds, but not reactive to alkaloids (Fig. 4 D). Fig. 4 E and F, ALK extract showed an orange color specific to detect the presence of alkaloids (Hildebert Wagner and Bladt, 1996).

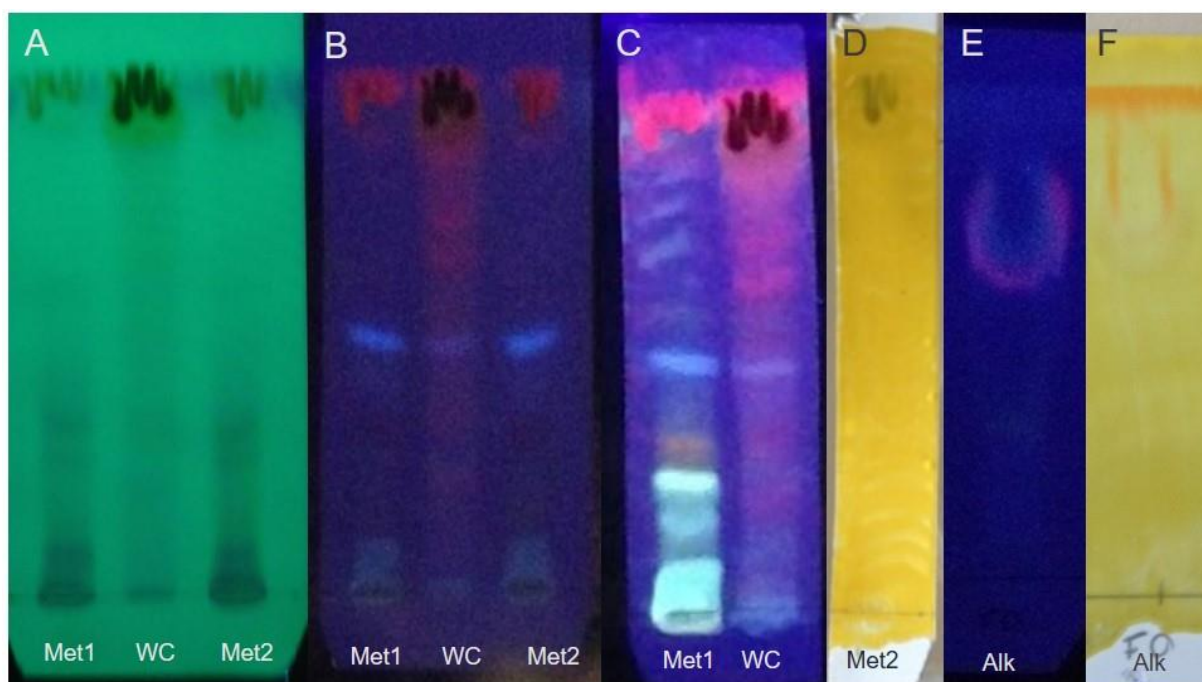


Figure 4. TLC of MET and ALK extracts of SC leaves.

A) TLC plate with 3 lanes with the same sample of the MET extract at 254 nm. The central lane with the presence of chlorophyll (WC) and the first (Met1) and the last (Met2) band after removing the chlorophyll with petroleum ether. B) Light blue spots in 365 nm. C) Spots with PEG 400 reagent in 365 nm. D) Dragendorff's reagent. E) ALK extract spots in 365 nm. F) Dragendorff's reagent.

In the Fig. 5 A and B, the chromatographic profiles of the ALK extract contain the main peaks for SA and SC, as well as the UV spectra corresponding for these peaks. Although the retention time of the two samples was similar, only peak 2 showed wavelength of  $\lambda_{\max}$  239 in both species. The peak 6 of SA shows absorption at wavelengths of  $\lambda_{\max}$  220, 290, and 317 nm. The peaks 8, 9 and 10 of the chromatograms of SA (Fig. 5 A) presented spectra with characteristics evidencing



absorption in a longer wavelength (Fig. 1 in Supplementary Material), which may characterize the presence of flavonoids in the extract, while no peaks were observed in SC at 400 nm wavelength (Fig. 2 in Supplementary Material). Chromatograms for SA and SC were obtained at wavelengths between 220 and 400 nm (Fig. 1 and 2 in Supplementary Material) with most peaks showing better absorption at 254 nm, a characteristic attributed to alkaloids (Sangster and Stuart, 1965).

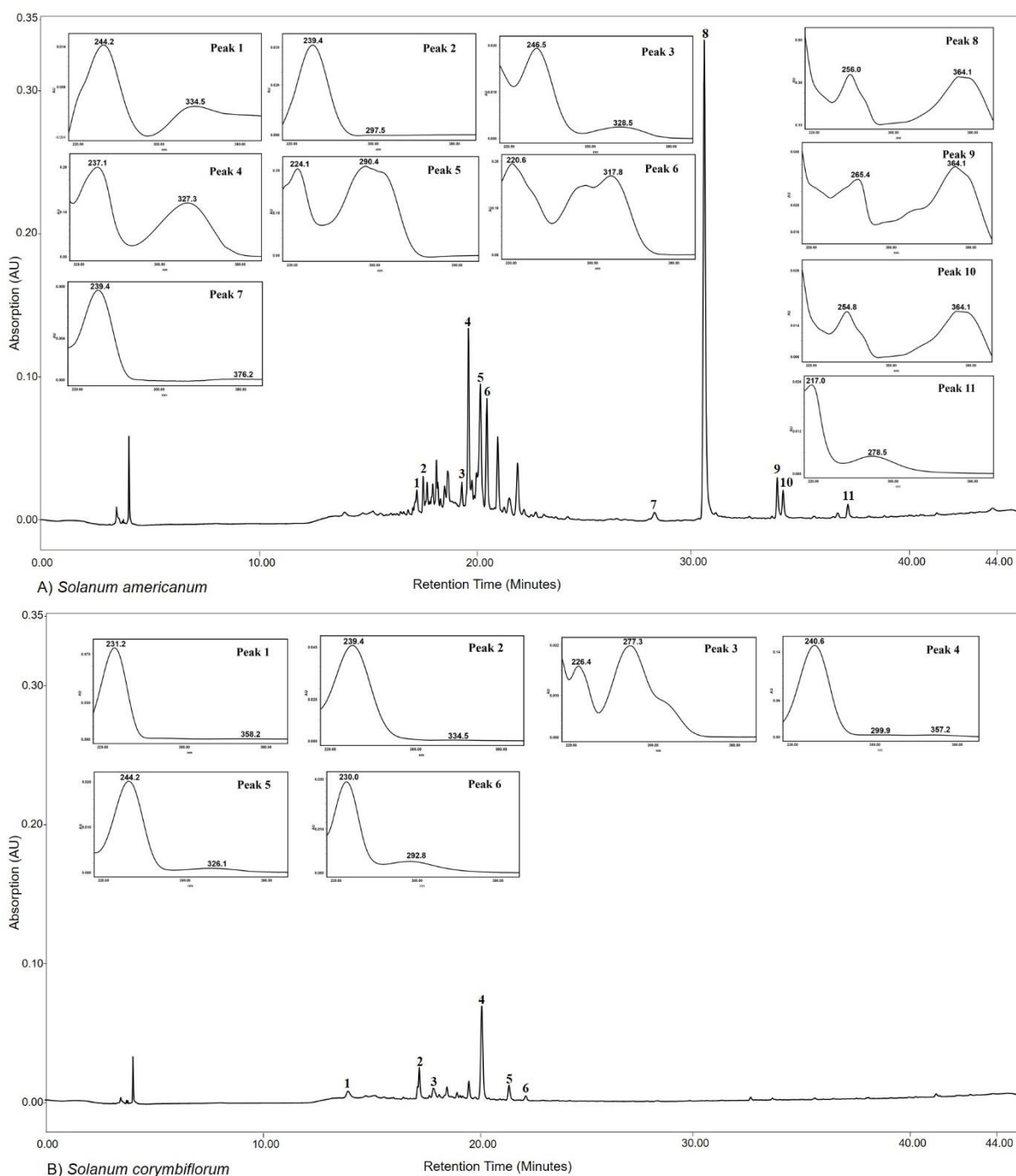


Figure 5. Chromatographic profiles by HPLC-DAD of ALK extract of SA and SC. Above the chromatogram are shown the UV spectra corresponding to the main peaks, at 254 nm.



Table 04 (Supplementary material) shows some compounds with one possible indication and the Fig. 3 (Supplementary material) shows the full mass spectrum HRMS carried-out from the ALK extracts of SA and SC in positive and negative ionization mode. The search for compounds carried out, by comparison, showed the molecular ion at  $m/z$  314.1382 founded in this spectrum was comparable with the exact mass, isotopic ratio, and fragmentation pathway (Fig. 6) suggesting the presence of the compound *N-trans*-feruloyl tyramine.

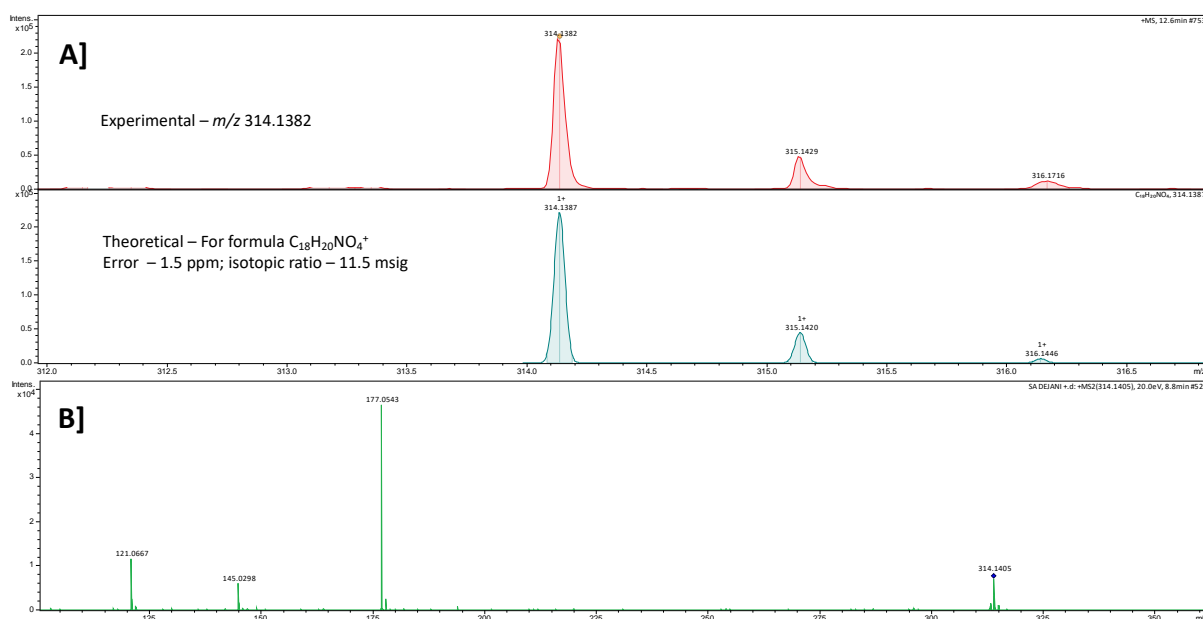


Figure 6. ESI (+) MS-MS of *N-trans*-feruloyl tyramine in ALK extract of SA. In A] the comparison between the  $m/z$  exact of experimental and theoretical for elementary formula  $C_{18}H_{20}NO_4^+$ ; in B] the pattern fragmentation for  $m/z$  314.

#### 4. Discussion

The application of antibiotics for many years, with underuse, overuse, and misuse of many active compounds, increased the selective pressure resulting in the development of generations of resistant microbes (Davies, 1996). According to these authors, gene exchange is a universal property of bacteria, and in this respect, the importance given to horizontal transference has increased, as they can carry genes for pathogenicity. In dairy production, the treatment of mastitis represents the greatest use of antibiotics, representing a high cost of the productive system (Zafalon et al., 2007), in addition to the fact that cattle are the main reservoirs of methicillin-resistant *S. aureus*, due to successful horizontal interactions with humans (Richardson et al., 2018).

For this reason, research on natural plant products in the animal production sector has grown, to the detriment of the use of synthetic chemical compounds. The different extraction methods used in raw material may affect differently microorganisms because the solvent can carry distinct compounds (Tiwari et al., 2011). Our result showed this fact as extracts at low and high concentrations presented distinct effects on growth of *S. aureus* and *E. coli*. For example, only the high dose of the AQU extract of SA significantly stimulated the planktonic growth of *S. aureus* and *E. coli*. This activity might be related to the capability of water to extract starch (Tiwari et al., 2011) supplying nutrients which favored the growth gram-positive and negative species. On the other side, MET extract of SC in the lowest concentration inhibited the planktonic growth for *S. aureus*, without consistent inhibitory effect when 250  $\mu\text{g/mL}$  was tested (Fig. 2A). The same effect tended to occur with ALK extract of SC. Generally, a linear effect could be expected, with increasing dose, increased growth inhibition would occur (Abbas et al., 2014).

We also verified the distinct effects of extracts according to the Solanum species. For example, MET extract of SA had no effect on *S. aureus* and *E. coli* growth compared with the control. But the MET extract of SC inhibited growth of *S. aureus* while it stimulated for *E. coli* (Fig. 2B). Stimulated growth also tended to occur with MET extract of SA and ALK extract of SC. The fact that these extracts stimulate the planktonic growth of *E. coli* can be dangerous since your most powerful effect is the rapid multiplication and the release of part of its membranes. This process strongly stimulates the host's immune system and which can trigger a septic shock leading to the animal at death (Guerra et al., 2019; Herry et al., 2017).

If it causes the death of the bacteria resistance in the strains can be induced, this factor accompanies the schedule for the development of new drugs. According to Davies, (1996), the explain is: "If resistance is biochemically possible, it will occur." Antivirulence therapy is an alternative approach to control these infections reducing their severity and allowing clearance by the host's immune system (Cegelski et al., 2008). Plant natural products have been increasingly reported as effective alternatives to the current antivirulence agents, like alkaloids and flavonoids that act regulating bacteria's communication and inhibiting the release of adhesins, responsible for biofilm attachment (Silva et al., 2016). According to the same authors, the most recognized bacterial virulence factors, developed to evade the

immune system and the action of antibiotics, are quorum sensing (QS), biofilms, motility, toxins, pigments, enzymes, and surfactants.

The first step in the formation of biofilm is the adhesion of planktonic bacteria, that is, free-living to an abiotic or biotic surface (Costerton et al., 1999), and in the case of dairy cows, it occurs in the cells of the mammary epithelium. Federman et al. (2016) found that citrus oil can inhibit adhesion of *S. aureus in vitro*, however, they did not discuss the importance of this fact. According to Silva et al. (2016), inhibition of bacterial adhesion seems to be the most promising strategy since bacteria in the planktonic lifestyle are likely to be more susceptible. Biofilms have been reported as possessing susceptibilities towards antibiotics that are 100 to 1000 times less than equivalent populations of planktonic bacteria (Gilbert et al., 2002). This means that not only are biofilms frequently encountered but they are more difficult to eliminate, and ineffective treatments are more likely to be deployed against them (Gilbert et al., 2002). Our results evidence that the ALK extracts of SA and SC were able to inhibit biofilm formation *S. aureus* at 250  $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$  (Fig. 3A). According to Patel et al. (2013), gram-positive bacteria are more susceptible than gram-negative bacteria to plant extracts. Some factors of virulence appear to be fundamental to many pathogens, and drugs targeting these elements should exhibit broader spectrum activity. However, many antivirulent drugs should be designed to target specific pathogens and virulence factors unique to their pathogenic cascades (Cegelski et al., 2008; Mertenat et al., 2020).

Methanol is a universal solvent due to the ability to remove most compounds, including flavonoids and alkaloids present in the leaf extract (Daji et al., 2018). The hypothesis is that the low proportion of alkaloids on methanolic extract interacted with the flavonoids, with possible counteract effects, and were not effective in inhibiting the biofilm formation. Indeed they might have functioned as a stressful factor for *S. aureus* stimulating the adhesion of the biofilm to prevent the destruction of planktonic cells, as it occurs with sub-lethal doses of antibiotics (Aka and Haji, 2015; Costa et al., 2012; Song et al., 2016). This might explain why the MET extract of SC reduced the growth of planktonic bacteria in 10  $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$  (Fig. 2A) and increased biofilm formation at 250  $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$  (Fig. 3A).

*Staphylococcus aureus* is a contagious pathogen, considered the most virulent and difficult to eliminate from the herd because it causes a long-lasting subclinical infection in dairy herds (Rainard et al., 2018; Reyher et al., 2012). Due to the low

healing rate, high treatment cost, and the need to eliminate the infection reservoir to prevent spread into the herd, cows are slaughtered early (Rainard, 2005; Rollin et al., 2015; Ruegg, 2012). *S. aureus* can attach to the mammary gland epithelium, being able to proliferate, and accumulate cells in multiple layers, that favors survival in hostile environments and increases resistance, persisting inside the cow's udder (Melo et al., 2013). According the same authors, when 94 strains of *S. aureus* were collected from dairy herds, 98.9% of them produced strong biofilm's adherence and presented *icaA* and *icaD* genes. The *icaA*, *icaD*, and *bap* genes are responsible for the production of intercellular adhesins (Budri et al., 2015). According to Kim et al. (2019), strains that are multidrug-resistant produce stronger biofilms and can persist for on-farm over 3 years.

Silva et al. (2016) reported that the use of solanaceous alkaloids as tomatidine and capsaicin on *S. aureus* can block or reduce the expression of several genes, such as *hla*, responsible to produce alpha toxin, also known as alpha hemolysin. The release of enzymes is another virulence factor presented by several bacteria, mainly by *S. aureus*. Hemolysin provokes acute mastitis and is associated with pathological changes observed during the course of staphylococci infections, such as the formation of abscesses, hemorrhagic, and necrotic lesions (Da Silva et al., 2012). Some flavonoids were able to down regulate *icaA* and *icaD* genes, which are associated with adhesion and bacterial accumulation in biofilm (Silva et al., 2016).

AQU extract of SA and MET extract of SC in both concentrations, like that MET extract of SA in the higher concentration tended to inhibit biofilm formation for *E. coli* strain. But, considering that these same extracts also stimulated planktonic growth (Fig. 2B and 3B), and, generally, spontaneous cure of the animal occurs in the case of *E. coli* mastitis, we focused the present study in the effect of ALK extracts on *S. aureus*, considered a major problem of the farms.

Considering the previous reports about the *Solanum* ssp. (Cai et al., 2010; Chen et al., 2013; Kanada et al., 2012; Silva et al., 2017; Syu et al., 2001), the results obtained in the present study may suggest the presence of *N-trans-feruloyltyramine* ( $m/z$  314.1382). The indication of the compound was based on a match of data, such as accurate mass (Wang et al., 2017), fragmentation pathway (Jiao et al., 2018; Kang et al., 2018; Nishioka et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2017) and UV spectrum (Etalo et al., 2013; Jiang et al., 2015). The precursor ion ( $m/z$ ) and the

fragmentation pathway (ms/ms) can be evidenced in Fig. 7, as well as the full spectrum in the positive mode of ALK extract of SA (Fig. 6). The peak 6 of SA chromatogram (Fig. 4 A) shows an absorption very similar with a standard  $\lambda_{\max}$  228, 294 and 319 nm used to identify *N-trans-feruloyltyramine* in *Solanum lycopersicum* (Etalo et al., 2013) and in *Arcangelisia gusanlung*  $\lambda_{\max}$  220, 293 and 319 nm (Jiang et al., 2015). Therefore, we consider the above information as a positive although indirect indication of its presence in the ALK extract of SA.

A study with rats indicates that when supplying 20 mg/kg of *N-trans-feruloyltyramine* orally, much of this compound is metabolized and some metabolites may appear in the feces, but part of it remained unchanged in the urine (Xu et al., 2018). This fact supports the hypothesis that it can be eliminated together with milk secretion and act directly on bacteria within the mammary gland. *N-trans-feruloyltyramine* can also positively influence the immune system, acting as an antioxidant and anti-inflammatory, through inhibition of nitric oxide (NO), prostaglandins, and reactive oxygen species (ROS) in the face of induction with LPS, without presenting toxicity to the macrophages of rats (Jiang et al., 2015). This ability to inhibit the release of NO and ROS may reduce cellular damage within the mammary gland. This characteristic is interesting from the point of view of animal production, as it may reduce somatic cells in milk (CCS), decreasing the negative effects on milk production and composition.

## 5. Conclusion

The ALK extracts of SA and SC showed promising potential to be used in the treatment or prevent of mastitis caused by *S. aureus* due to its action reducing the biofilm formation. This can make planktonic bacteria more susceptible to the action of the antimicrobials or to the action of the immune system. We do not encourage the use of these Solanaceae for mastitis caused by *E. coli*, as the same extracts that reduce biofilm formation also increase planktonic growth, which may aggravate the acute and systemic condition of the disease. Our results can corroborate the traditional knowledge associated with local smallholder dairy farmers who use it to treat mastitis.

## Ethical considerations

This study was approved by the post-graduation Commission and Ethic committee in Use of Animals (CEUA – UFRGS), number 37824, as part of thesis project: Potential use of plants of *Solanum* genus on diseases of dairy herds - Anti-inflammatory and antimicrobial characteristics.

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### Supplementary material

#### Tables

Table 1. Descriptive statistics with means, standard deviation (SD), coefficient of variation (CV) and significance level of each treatment on the bacterial planktonic growth variable.

	<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>				<i>Escherichia coli</i>			
	Mean	SD	CV	<i>P&gt;F</i>	Mean	SD	CV	<i>P&gt;F</i>
<b>Control</b>	0.335	0.048	14.49	-	0.265	0.054	20.68	-
<b>SAMET10</b>	0.310	0.021	7.00	0.5422	0.263	0.091	34.82	0.9684
<b>SAMET250</b>	0.364	0.081	22.30	0.5873	0.346	0.045	13.10	<b>0.0903*</b>
<b>SAALK10</b>	0.291	0.028	9.84	0.2195	0.298	0.088	29.75	0.4853
<b>SAALK250</b>	0.295	0.060	20.47	0.1967	0.267	0.027	10.26	0.9627
<b>SAAQU10</b>	0.306	0.021	6.97	0.4703	0.342	0.084	24.75	0.1065
<b>SAAQU250</b>	0.443	0.074	16.78	<b>0.0432**</b>	0.390	0.060	15.52	<b>0.0117**</b>
<b>SCMET10</b>	0.263	0.043	16.46	<b>0.0216**</b>	0.318	0.069	21.82	0.2604
<b>SCMET250</b>	0.328	0.084	25.63	0.6676	0.404	0.056	14.09	<b>0.0058**</b>
<b>SCALK10</b>	0.278	0.032	11.67	<b>0.0914*</b>	0.354	0.034	9.86	<b>0.0642*</b>
<b>SCALK250</b>	0.331	0.076	23.12	0.7722	0.283	0.076	26.94	0.6955

SA = *Solanum americanum*; SC = *Solanum corymbiflorum*; MET = methanolic; AQU = aqueous; ALK = alkaloid

ANOVA followed by Dunnett's test. Where \*\*\* = highly significant difference ( $P \leq 0.001$ ), \*\* = significant difference ( $P \leq 0.05$ ) and \* = trends ( $0.05 < P < 0.10$ ).

Table 2. Descriptive statistics with means, standard deviation, coefficient of variation and significance level of each treatment on the biofilm formation variable.

	<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>				<i>Escherichia coli</i>			
	Mean	SD	CV	<i>P&gt;F</i>	Mean	SD	CV	<i>P&gt;F</i>
<b>Control</b>	0.924	0.124	13.48	-	0.188	0.018	9.96	-
<b>SAMET10</b>	1.076	0.410	38.12	0.4237	0.164	0.019	11.74	0.3080
<b>SAMET250</b>	1.055	0.218	20.72	0.4890	0.150	0.028	19.19	<b>0.0786*</b>
<b>SAALK10</b>	1.044	0.254	24.33	0.5272	0.154	0.012	8.15	0.1394
<b>SAALK250</b>	0.322	0.048	15.12	<b>0.0034**</b>	0.228	0.071	31.06	0.2100
<b>SAAQU10</b>	1.102	0.372	33.78	0.3479	0.143	0.014	10.28	<b>0.0451**</b>
<b>SAAQU250</b>	1.111	0.177	15.96	0.3254	0.115	0.029	25.78	<b>0.0006***</b>
<b>SCMET10</b>	1.058	0.327	30.94	0.4803	0.150	0.013	8.93	<b>0.0952*</b>
<b>SCMET250</b>	1.612	0.493	30.61	<b>0.0011***</b>	0.134	0.013	9.75	<b>0.0145**</b>
<b>SCALK10</b>	1.023	0.135	13.20	0.6018	0.153	0.008	5.34	0.1258
<b>SCALK250</b>	0.465	0.066	14.21	<b>0.0208**</b>	0.191	0.053	27.83	0.9731

SA = *Solanum americanum*; SC = *Solanum corymbiflorum*; MET = methanolic; AQU = aqueous; ALK = alkaloid

ANOVA followed by Dunnett's test. Where \*\*\* = highly significant difference ( $P \leq 0.001$ ), \*\* = significant difference ( $P \leq 0.05$ ) and \* = trends ( $0.05 < P < 0.10$ ).

Table 3. Value of precursor ion, possible elemental composition, error, isotopic ratio, collision energy-dissociation and fragmentation pathway of the alkaloid extracts of *S. americanum* (SA) and *S. corymbiflorum* (SC) on positive and negative mode ESI QTOF-MS.

Entry	Precursor ion ( <i>m/z</i> )	Elementar composition	Error (ppm)	Isotopic ratio (mSig)	CID (eV)	Fragmentation MS/MS (%)	Reference/Compound
<i>S. americanum</i>							
1	274.2740	C <sub>16</sub> H <sub>36</sub> NO <sub>2</sub> <sup>+</sup>	0.1	60.0	15.0	274.2713 (100) <b>256.2621 (39)</b> 230.2463 (8) 212.2329 (4)	(Tao et al., 2016)
2	314.1382	C <sub>18</sub> H <sub>20</sub> NO <sub>4</sub> <sup>+</sup>	1.5	11.5	15.0	<b>177.0544 (100)</b> <b>121.0666 (13)</b> <b>315.1429 (11)</b> <b>145.0270 (12)</b>	(Wang et al., 2017) <i>N-trans-feruloyl tyramine</i>
3	338.3404	C <sub>22</sub> H <sub>44</sub> NO <sup>+</sup>	4.1	82.3	15.0	338.3404 (100) <b>321.3137 (21)</b> <b>303.3018 (16)</b> <b>130.0809 (13)</b> <b>97.1012 (5)</b> <b>115.1148 (4)</b> <b>149.1308 (3)</b>	(Tao et al., 2016) Unknown
4	479.2700	C <sub>32</sub> H <sub>35</sub> N <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> <sup>+</sup>	-1.4	44.0	30.0	443.2742 (100) 281.1582 (72) 317.1819 (54) 425.2697 (48)	Unknown
5	282.1221	C <sub>11</sub> H <sub>16</sub> N <sub>5</sub> O <sub>4</sub> <sup>-</sup>	-4.8	10.9	35.0	119.0512 (100) 162.0603 (16) 132.0562 (13) 174.0585 (6) 145.0298 (5)	Unknown
6	591.2484	C <sub>23</sub> H <sub>35</sub> N <sub>2</sub> O <sub>6</sub> <sup>-</sup>	3.7	36.0	37.7	205.0545 (100) 223.0644 (43) 367.1133 (38) 591.2484 (12)	Unknown
<i>S. corymbiflorum</i>							
1	284.3311	C <sub>19</sub> H <sub>42</sub> N <sup>+</sup>	0.4	27.1	35.0	284.3311 (100) 102.1295 (40) 285.3345 (26) 105.0705 (12) 240.2333 (7)	Unknown
2	339.2042	C <sub>16</sub> H <sub>27</sub> N <sub>4</sub> O <sub>4</sub> <sup>-</sup>	-1.3	25.6	40.0	183.0160 (100) 112.9864 (70) 339.2042 (56) 184.0160 (14) 340.2121 (10)	Unknown
3	325.1868	C <sub>14</sub> H <sub>29</sub> O <sub>8</sub> <sup>-</sup>	1.2	37.6	35.0	325.1864 (100) 183.0153 (89) 326.1878 (20) 184.0159 (11) 216.0151 (10)	Unknown
4	144.0450	C <sub>9</sub> H <sub>6</sub> NO <sup>-</sup>	3.6	17.4	35	144.04050 (100) 126.0328 (40) 116.0508 (45) 117.0350 (24) 115.0392 (17)	Unknown

## Figures

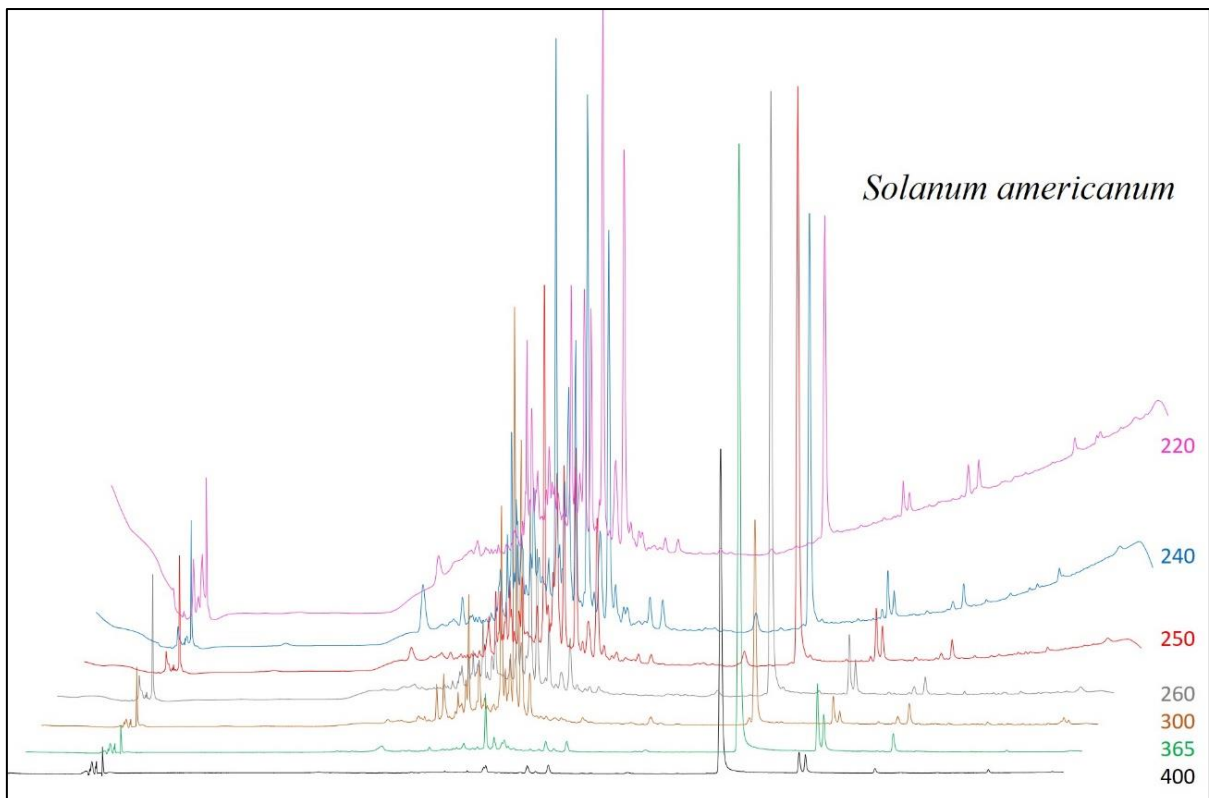


Figure 1. Chromatographic profiles of the ALK extract of SA compared in an overlay on different wavelengths by HPLC – DAD

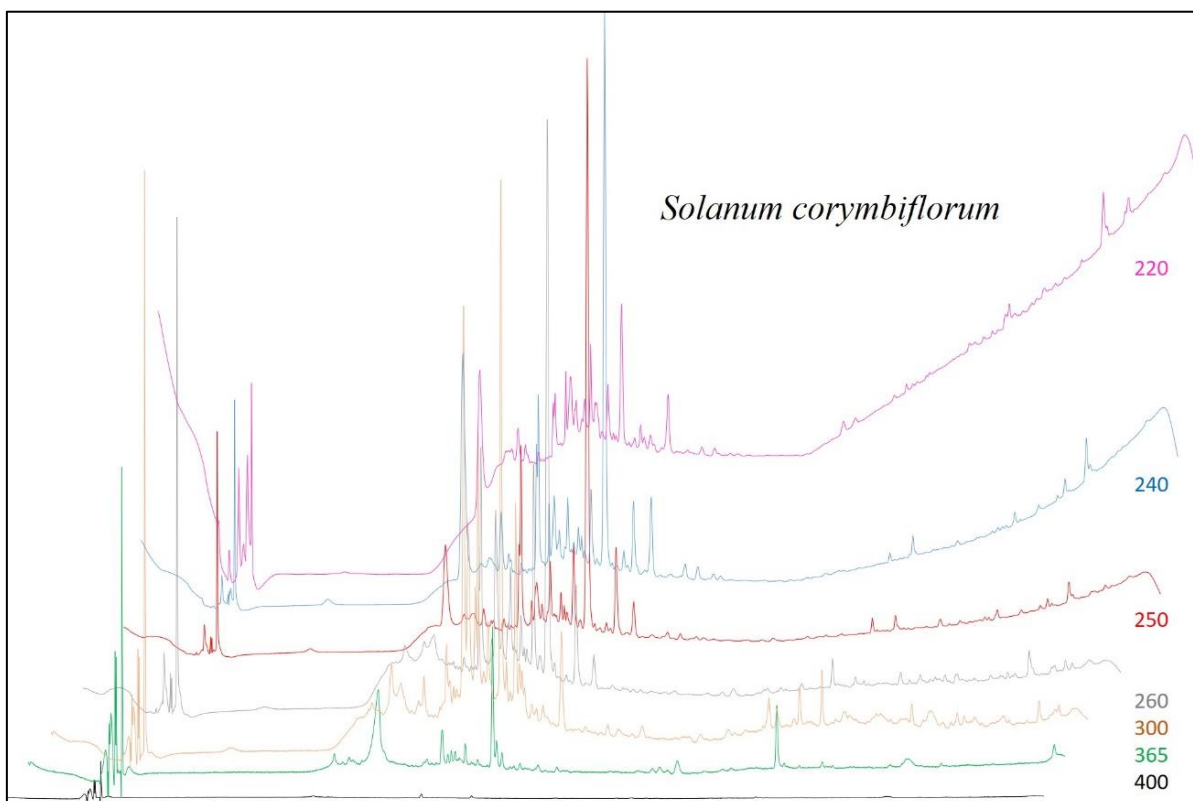


Figure 2. Chromatographic profiles of the ALK extract of SC compared in an overlay on different wavelengths by HPLC – DAD

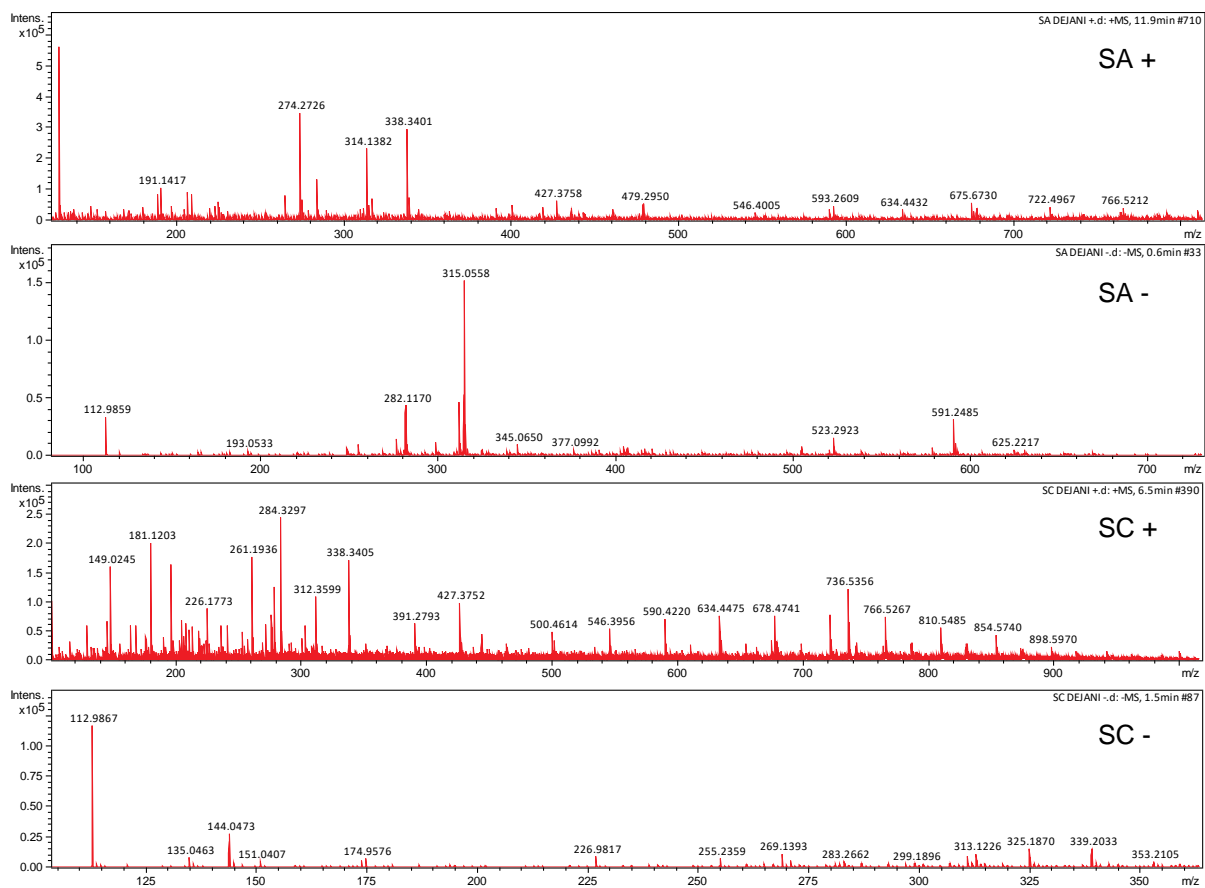


Figure 3. Typical spectra of HRMS for ALK extracts of *Solanum americanum* and *Solanum corymbiflorum*.

Base peak chromatogram (BPC) under positive and negative ionization mode.



## CAPÍTULO III

**Antioxidant activity of Solanaceae species naturally distributed in dairy farms<sup>5</sup>**

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**Antioxidant activity of Solanaceae species naturally distributed in dairy farms**

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## ABSTRACT

*Ethnopharmacological relevance:* *Solanum corymbiflorum* (Sendtn.) Bohs is native in the southern states of Brazil and in Argentina, where indigenous tribes offer it as a food for dairy cows showing clinical signs of mastitis. *Solanum americanum* Mill. is naturally distributed in range pastures and it is consumed by grazing dairy cows although considered as a weed by dairy farmers in the south of Brazil.

*Aim of the study:* Perform a bio-guided search for the antioxidant activity of the compounds present in the leaves of *Solanum corymbiflorum* (SC) and *Solanum americanum* (SA).

*Materials and methods:* Three forms of extraction were performed using each plant's leaves: aqueous (AQU), alkaloid (ALK), and methanolic (MET). These extracts were evaluated for their ability to scavenge free radicals through the DPPH radical in the concentrations of 250, 125, 62.5, 31.2, 15.6, and 7.8  $\mu\text{g/mL}$ , and its kinetic behavior in the first 30 min of reaction. The absorbance data (ABS), measured by optical density, were transformed to antioxidant activity (AA%) and subjected to analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by Tukey's test, adopting  $P \leq 0.05$ .

*Results:* MET extract of SA presented antioxidant activity like BHT in the concentrations of 125 and 62.5  $\mu\text{g/mL}$ . AQU and ALK extracts of SA and MET extract of SC presented more than 50 % of antioxidant activity at 250  $\mu\text{g/mL}$ . kinetic behavior shows that MET extract of SA was more efficient than BHT in quenching DPPH radical at 62.5  $\mu\text{g/mL}$ .

*Conclusion:* MET extracts of SC and SA, as well as AQU and ALK extracts of SA show strong ability of scavenging free radicals tested *in vitro*. Further studies are necessary to test if these extracts present antioxidant activity *in vivo* and may contribute to reduce the clinical symptoms of mastitis, a fact that may be associated with traditional use in dairy cows.

*Keywords:* antioxidant, ethnoveterinary practices, Solanaceae, *Solanum americanum*, *Solanum corymbiflorum*, Traditional Associated Knowledge

## 1. Introduction

*Solanum corymbiflorum* (Sendtn.) Bohs (syn. *Cyphomandra corymbiflora*), popularly known as “baga-de-veado, cordão-de-veado” is endemic in the south region of Brazil and Argentina (Bohs, 1989; Keller and Prance, 2012; Mentz et al., 2007). In the local communities’ medicine practices, indigenous tribes of the Misiones Province of Argentine use in the inflammation treatment, e.g leaves can be applied as a hot poultice and friction are used to relieve low back pain, headaches, scabies, tick bite, boils, mastitis, otitis and feet inflammation due to fluid retention (Keller and Prance, 2012). According Keller, (2003) colonies of Brazilian immigrants live in the vicinity of this community and are dedicated to primary agriculture. For this reason, smallholders’ dairy farmers in the south region of Brazil use this specie to treat dairy cows with mastitis symptoms (*personal communication*).

*Solanum americanum* Mill., known as “maria-pretinha” (Silva et al., 2017), is also found in the natural range in the south region of Brazil. In many places is considered a synonym for *Solanum nigrum* Linn, (for relevant details about differences see SÄRKINEN et al., 2018). *S. nigrum* (SN) has been used in northwestern Pakistan, its leaves applied on the skin to cure eczema and edible fruits to cure fever (Sher et al., 2015). Li et al. (2008) reported that SN aqueous extract stimulated the host immune system by increasing the size of the spleen and thymus, the number of CD4+ T lymphocytes as well as the ratio of CD4+/CD8+ T lymphocyte. *S. americanum* is widely distributed in the Rio Grande do Sul state (Mentz et al., 2007), and usually considered as a weed, naturally occurring in paddocks where it is consumed by grazing dairy cows (*personal communication*).

Despite its use based on the claimed traditional knowledge, the effects of SC and SA when ingested by ruminants are still not studied. On the other hand, radical scavenging activity and anti-inflammatory properties of these species have been reported when the extracts of leaves or fruits are applied directly to the wounds and inflamed tissues (Piana et al., 2016b, 2016a; Silva et al., 2017; Vagula et al., 2018). To the best of our knowledge, there is no information about the antioxidant effects comparing these extracts obtained of leaves of *S. americanum* and *S. corymbiflorum*. Therefore, the aim of this study was to conduct a bio-guided assay to test the free radical scavenging capacity and the kinetic reaction of the aqueous, methanolic and alkaloid extracts of *Solanum corymbiflorum* and *Solanum americanum*.

## 2. Material and methods

### 2.1 Plant material: source, sampling, and identification

The leaves of SC and SA were harvested at the edge of secondary vegetation and in dairy cows' paddocks located in the northwest of Rio Grande do Sul (27°47'12" S, 53°00'57" W), Brazil, between October and November 2017. The specimens were identified and deposited as exsiccates in the Herbarium of the Institute of Natural Sciences (ICN – UFRGS) under the registration number: *Solanum americanum* Mill: ICN 195408 and *Solanum corymbiflorum* Bohs: ICN 195409. The authors registered the species according to the new Brazilian legislation about the access to the biodiversity - Law 13.123/15 and Decree 8772/16 (Silva and Oliveira, 2018) in the National System of Genetic Heritage and Associated Traditional Knowledge under registration number A382EE. Approximately 2 kg of fresh leaves were dried at room temperature ( $\pm 25$  °C) in a ventilated place, ground in particle size of 2 mm and stored in paper bags on Pharmacognosy's laboratory of the UFRGS.

### 2.2 Extraction and chemical characterization

Three extraction methods were used for each specimen, SC and SA, following the AQU, MET and ALK extraction methods used in the Pharmacognosy's laboratory. The MET and ALK extracts were subjected to a TLC analysis to search alkaloids. Then, the ALK extract was subjected to liquid chromatography and mass spectrometry.

**Aqueous extraction (AQU):** A ratio of 2.85 g of ground leaves to 100 mL of distilled water was used (0.2:10 w/v). The sample was extracted with warm water (40°C) for 30 min until it reached room temperature. The solution was filtered on a filter paper, frozen, lyophilized (Savant Micro Modulyo, United States) to obtain the AQU extract, and stored at -20°C until use.

**Methanolic extraction (MET):** Methanolic extraction followed the method described by Scopel et al., (2010). Briefly, extractive solutions were made using a ratio of 1 g of ground leaves mixed into 20 ml of methanol (1:20 w/v). Extraction proceeded twice with turbolysis (Ultra Turrax Marconi – speed 3 for 3 min equivalent to 9000 RPM), ultrasound (Ultrasound bath cleaner at 132 w power – for 10 minutes), and maceration overnight (Table 01). Total methanolic extract (100 ml) was filtered using filter paper. Methanol was evaporated from the sample using a rotary evaporator (Buchi rotavapor V-710, Switzerland) at 40°C under a maximal pressure of 340

mbars. The dried extract was resuspended in ethyl ether and washed with Mili-Q® water to remove chlorophyll, and frozen (-20°C) for later lyophilization (Savant Micro Modulyo, United States).

Table 1. Process of methanolic extraction.

Quantity and process	Running time	Total of methanol
2 × 20 mL => Turbolysis	3 min	40 mL
2 × 20 mL => Ultrasound	10 min	40 mL
1 × 20 mL => Maceration	24 h (overnight)	20 mL

**Alkaloid extraction (ALK):** The extraction of total alkaloids was performed according to Reis et al. (2019), mixing 10 g of the ground dried leaves and 100 ml of 10% HCl (v/v) on an ultrasound water bath at 50°C (twice for 15 min). The samples were gravity filtered and the supernatant washed with dichloromethane (3 × 100 mL). The aqueous fraction was alkalinized with 25% ammonium hydroxide (v/v) until pH 9. This alkaline aqueous solution was partitioned with dichloromethane (3 × 100 mL). The organic residue was filtered over anhydrous sodium sulfate (to remove the aqueous residue) and the solvent was evaporated under reduced pressure to recover the alkaloid rich residue.

### 2.3 Antioxidant activity

**DPPH radical scavenging activity:** The free radical scavenging capacity of the extracts of SA and SC was evaluated in the presence of DPPH radical (2,2-diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl radical). The sample stock solution of each extract was diluted to a final concentration of 250 µg mL<sup>-1</sup> in methanol (MeOH). A total of 300 µL of the sample was added to 2.700 µL of a 0.3 mM DPPH methanol solution in a cuvette and placed on the spectrophotometer Agilent. Absorbance data (ABS) were obtained by optical density measured at 517 nm every 30 seconds, for the first 5 minutes, then every 5 minutes for up to 30 minutes (Xie and Schaich, 2014). The radical scavenging ability was transformed into antioxidant activity (AA%), calculated as follows: (AA %) = 100 – [(ABS sample – ABS blank) x 100/ ABS control], where: ABS sample = is the absorbance of extracts; ABS blank = is the absorbance of pure

MeOH, and ABS control = is the absorbance of MeOH in DPPH solution (Nascimento et al., 2011). MeOH was used as blank, while DPPH solution plus MeOH was used as the negative control. The positive control was BHT (Butylated Hydroxytoluene) in the same concentrations of the sample. After calculating the scavenging capacity, a serial dilution was performed adjusted to the 250, 125, 62.5, 31.12, 15.62, and 7.81  $\mu\text{g/mL}$ , based on previous concentrations on antibacterial studies with these plants extracts. All tests were done at room temperature.

#### 2.4 Statistical analysis

ABS data were obtained in triplicate, expressed as mean  $\pm$  SD, and transformed into antioxidant activity percentage. AA % data did not follow the normal distribution and were transformed into new data set log using the formula:  $z = x + y$ , where  $z = \text{tAA}$  (transformed AA);  $x = \text{repetition}$  and  $y = \text{AA}$ . Data were tested for normality by Shapiro-Wilk ( $P \geq 0.05 = 0.9782$ ) and homogeneity of variances by Levene's test ( $P > 0.05 = 0.9334$ ) and subjected to analysis of variance (Procedure ANOVA of SAS®). Tukey's test was used to compare means and significant differences were declared when  $P \leq 0.05$ .

### 3. Results

AQU and ALK extracts of SA as well as the MET extracts of both species showed antioxidant activity higher than 50% at 250  $\mu\text{g/mL}$ . It is worth to notice that 31.1  $\mu\text{g/mL}$  of BHT and 62.5  $\mu\text{g/mL}$  of MET extract of SA reached 90% antioxidant activity (Table 2).

Table 2. Percentage of radical scavenging of *Solanum corymbiflorum* and *Solanum americanum* extracts in different concentrations.

$\mu\text{g/mL}$	Antioxidant activity (%)						
	BHT	<i>Solanum corymbiflorum</i>			<i>Solanum americanum</i>		
		Aqueous	Methanolic	Alkaloid	Aqueous	Methanolic	Alkaloid
250	93.58	18.34	58.7	12.5	83.13	90.81	53.04
125	93.34	5.65	24.24	-	-	91.78	46.17
62.5	91.29	-	14.48	-	36.77	91.45	-
31.1	91.96	-	-	-	11.4	29.98	13.04
15.6	83.28	-	-	-	-	17.73	-
7.81	69.51	-	-	-	-	11.03	-

Antioxidant activity did not differ significantly between BHT and MET of SA extract at 125 and 62.5  $\mu\text{g/mL}$  (Fig. 1). Highest antioxidant activity was observed at 250  $\mu\text{g/mL}$  of BHT, but the MET extract of SA also showed strong ability to eliminate the DPPH radical compared to a consolidated commercial antioxidant (BHT).

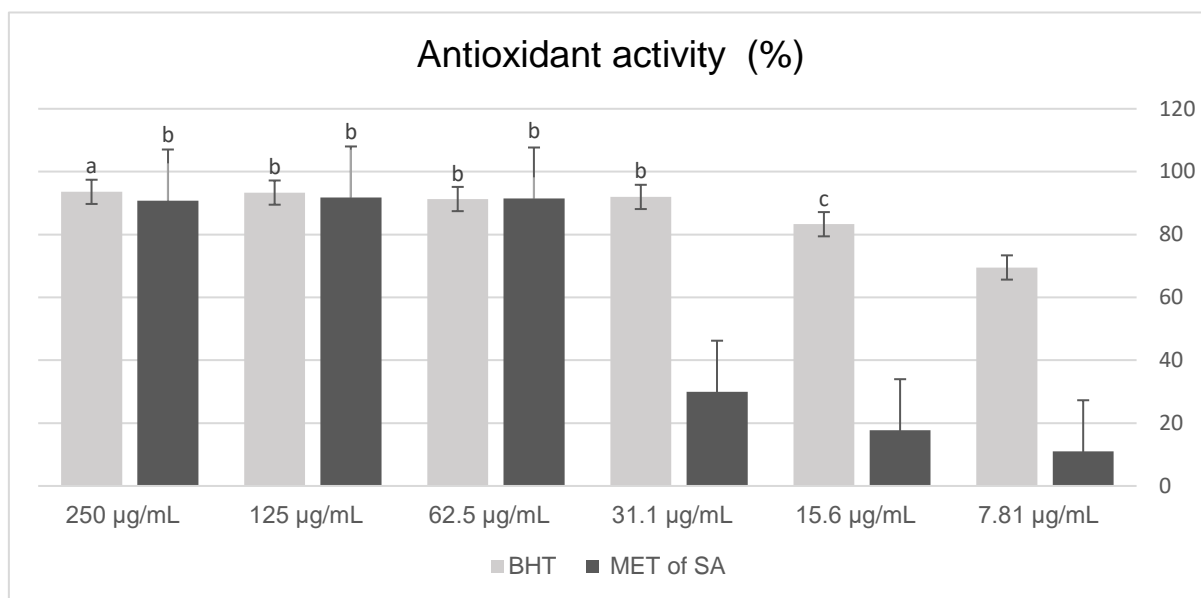


Figure 1. Antioxidant activity of BHT compared to methanolic extract of *Solanum americanum*.

<sup>a, b</sup> Means with the same letter are not significantly different ( $P < 0.05$ ) on ANOVA followed by Tukey's test. The bars show the standard error.

The evaluation of kinetic behavior in a short term (performed every 5 minutes, for 30 min) indicates that BHT antioxidant activity occurs in a dose-dependent way, where the percentage of radical scavenging activity is directly proportional to the reaction time (Fig.2A). The kinetic effect of MET extract of SA indicated fast and strong extinction of DPPH radical with concentrations equal or greater to 62.5  $\mu\text{g/mL}$  as the sample reached the plateau around 5 minutes after starting the reaction (Fig. 2B). BHT and MET extract of SA showed differences in kinetic behavior within the same concentration (Fig.2C). MET extract of SA started quenching around 60% of DPPH radical and reached almost 90% of activity 5 minutes after the beginning of the reaction, while BHT started with 20% of activity and reached 90% after 20 minutes. In Fig. 2D, AQU and ALK extracts of SA and MET extract of SC at 250  $\mu\text{g/mL}$  concentration showed more than 50% at the end of 30 minutes.



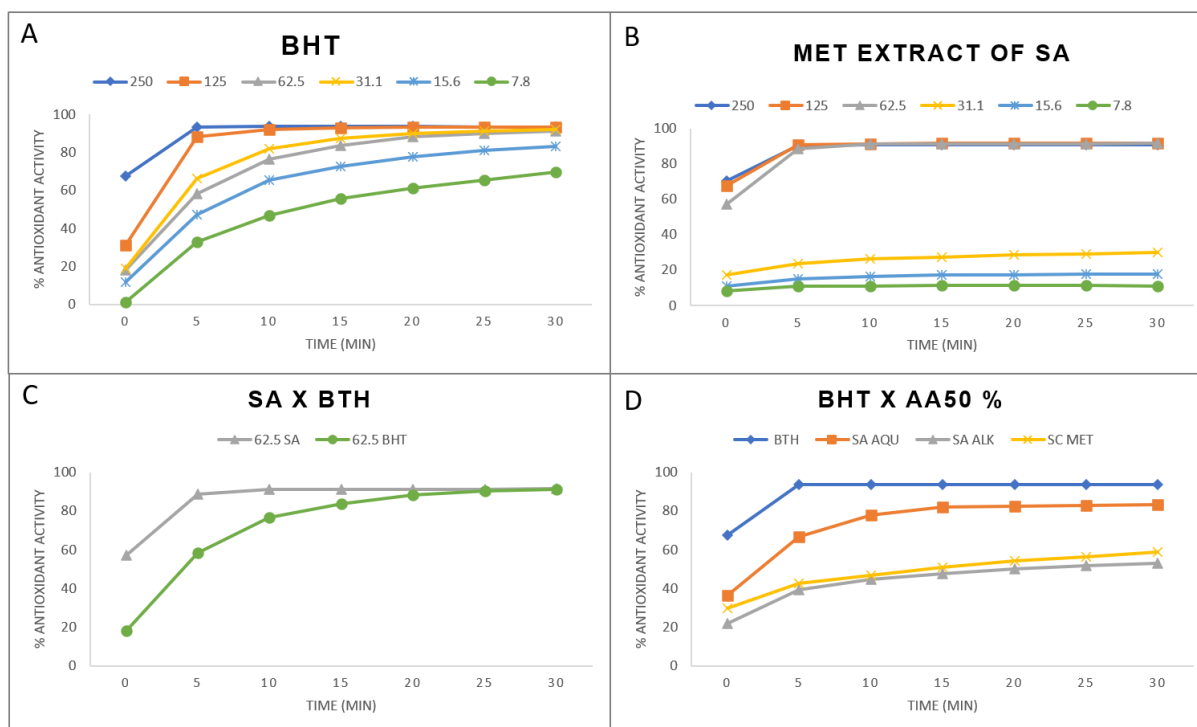


Figure 2. Kinetic behavior of BHT and extracts of *Solanum americanum* and *Solanum corymbiflorum* on quenching DPPH radical.

A) BHT effect in all concentrations. B) Effect of MET extract of SA in all concentrations. C) MET extract of SA and BHT in 62.5  $\mu\text{g/mL}$ . D) Extracts that showed more than 50% AA at 250  $\mu\text{g/mL}$ .

#### 4. Discussion

This study aimed to evaluate the antioxidant capacity of two species of Solanaceae consumed by dairy cows. The main contribution of this study is to show that the extracts of both species SA and SC present *in vitro* antioxidant capacity. The strong activity of the MET extract of SA for scavenging DPPH radical might be related to the ability of methanol (MeOH) to extract polyphenols during the extraction processes (Tiwari et al., 2011). Phenolic compounds are recognized for having a hydroxyl group (-OH) that inhibits reactive oxygen species (ROS), that interrupts the lipid peroxidation chain reaction (Halliwell and Gutteridge, 2015). Polyphenols may exert anti-inflammatory effects notably by radical scavenging activities, regulation of cellular activities in inflammatory cells, modulation of the actives of enzymes, and on the production of the pro-inflammatory cytokines, that help to prevent diseases in humans (Hussain et al., 2016) and animals (Celi, 2010).

Piana et al. (2016b) reported good scavenging radical activity of the ethanolic extract of SC leaves, where the  $\text{SC}_{50}$  value (scavenging concentration required to quench the DPPH radical in 50%) was 23.94 mg/mL, like ascorbic acid and quercetin standards. These authors attributed this effect to a high content of total polyphenols,

flavonoids and alkaloids found in this specie (Piana et al., 2016a). In the present study, we found similar effects but at a higher dose, as the methanolic extract was efficient at 250  $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ . Piana et al. (2016b) also verified anti-edematogenic and anti-inflammatory effects against topical dermatitis in a croton oil induced model by the inhibition of myeloperoxidase activity (Piana et al., 2016b). Vagula et al. (2018) reported that aqueous and chloroform extracts of ripe fruits of *S. americanum* Mill presented significant anti-inflammatory activity. These studies confirm the popular use of SA and SC for reducing the edema formation and the cell infiltrates when applied onto the injured tissue. In the other hand, our study considers the possibility of adding these compounds into the diet, as the traditional knowledge already have been recommending, to help reduce inflammation effects in the mammary gland.

Mastitis is an inflammatory reaction of the mammary gland to bacterial infections or trauma. To combat the infection, the immune system sends phagocytes to the infection site, and through cytokines, they become activated and increase the “respiratory burst” releasing toxic free radicals to bacteria. However, these free radicals also reach the alveolar tissue causing damage in the alveoli of the mammary gland tissue, compromising the secretion of milk. During the early lactation period, both clinical and subclinical mastitis are associated with the release of free radicals, increasing total oxidant capacity, and decreased total antioxidant capacity in milk (Ellah, 2013). *In vitro* and *in vivo* studies indicate that the use of antioxidants and other protective compounds in mastitis control programs is worth investigating, because they may aid in alleviating damage to secretory cells and, thus, reduce subsequent milk loss (Zhao and Lacasse, 2008).

The antioxidant capacity varied according to the *Solanum* species and extract, verified by the good antioxidant activity on all extracts of SA only the MET extract presented high antioxidant activity in both species. However, more important than the percentage of antioxidant activity at a given time, the speed with which these molecules can quench free radicals is more meaningful. It is worth to notice that DPPH is a stable radical that persists for hours in solution, and thus it may not reflect the effects in living tissues (e.g. mammary gland tissue), where most active radicals such as hydroxyl radicals, superoxide anion, nitric oxide, and lipid peroxy have lifetimes in the order of milliseconds to seconds. In this case, the number of reactive groups of the antioxidant compound is less important than the speed with which each group can quench the radicals present (Xie and Schaich, 2014).

Antioxidants can quench DPPH radicals by electron and hydrogen transfer: if the reaction is extremely fast in the order of few seconds, free radical stabilization occurred mostly by electron transfer, while when it is slower it might indicate the transfer mechanism of hydrogen atoms (Xie and Schaich, 2014). Vagula et al. (2018) showed that SA has caffeic acid, which has a fast reaction pattern (Xie and Schaich, 2014), and may explain the antioxidant activity exhibited by MET (90%), AQU (83%), and ALK (53%) extracts of SA for quenching radicals. On the other side, the leaves of SC have chlorogenic, caffeic, rosmarinic and gallic acids (Piana et al., 2016b) that have fast and medium reaction patterns (Xie and Schaich, 2014), that might be related to less expressive antioxidant activity than SA.

The detection of *N-trans*-feruloyltyramine in the ALK extract of SA is (*data not are shown*) may positively influence the immune system, inhibiting the production of nitric oxide (NO), prostaglandin E2 (PGE2) and reactive oxygen species (ROS) in lipopolysaccharide-stimulated cells (Jiang et al., 2015). As grazing animals consume these plants distributed in wide range of natural vegetation, we speculate that several secondary compounds may be eliminated through the milk (de Nijs et al., 2017; Hoogenboom et al., 2011; Lejonklev et al., 2013; Viallon et al., 2000). Before their elimination, these compounds of plant's secondary metabolism may act protecting mammary gland tissue from the action of free radicals. Further studies are needed to confirm whether free-range animals consume these plants during grazing or following supplementation and in amounts necessary to allow antioxidant effects to be detected in the mammary gland.

## 5. Conclusion

MET extracts of *S. americanum* and *S. corymbiflorum* as well as AQU and ALK extracts of *S. americanum* show strong scavenging free radicals' activity in *in vitro* conditions. Our results corroborate the traditional knowledge associated with local smallholder dairy farmers who use it to alleviate clinical symptoms and treat mastitis. Both *S. corymbiflorum* and *S. americanum* present potential anti-inflammatory effects.

## Ethical considerations

This study was approved by the post-graduation Commission and Ethic committee

in Use of Animals (CEUA – UFRGS), number 37824, as part of thesis project: Potential use of plants of *Solanum* genus on diseases of dairy herds - Anti-inflammatory and antimicrobial characteristics.

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#### 4. Considerações Finais

Esse estudo teve como objetivo evidenciar cientificamente a validade do emprego de *Solanum corymbiflorum*, seguindo o conhecimento tradicional associado de povos indígenas. Assim como testar o potencial de uso de outra solanácea, *Solanum americanum*, distribuída em propriedades leiteiras e naturalmente consumida pelas vacas em pastejo, sobre atividades biológicas intrínsecas à mastite bovina. Esperava-se verificar ação antimicrobiana, com redução do crescimento dos principais patógenos, um gram-positivo e outro gram-negativo, causadores da mastite bovina. A esperada atividade antimicrobiana do extrato de alcaloides não foi observada. Porém, sabendo que os microrganismos, principalmente o *S. aureus* tem a capacidade de desenvolver um fator de virulência sobre qualquer mecanismo que possa causar sua morte, esse resultado não foi considerado negativo.

Com base no ensaio *in vitro* e na análise estatística realizada com dados de distribuição paramétrica, este estudo mostrou que o extrato de alcaloides, das duas espécies de solanáceas, é capaz de inibir a formação de biofilme do *S. aureus*. A questão de prevenir a adesão e o acúmulo em biofilme pode ser relevante para obter sucesso no tratamento de mastite por esse agente, reduzindo os custos de perdas por mastite no futuro. E como consequência, reduzir o uso de antimicrobiano, tanto para medidas profiláticas como para tratamento.

De forma semelhante, o extrato aquoso de SA e o extrato metanólico de SC inibiram a adesão do biofilme de *E. coli*, porém estes mesmos extratos estimularam sua multiplicação bacteriana. Esse fato indica que essas espécies podem não ser eficazes na prevenção do estabelecimento da infecção, gerando dúvidas sobre a relevância na redução da adesão do biofilme.

As solanáceas em geral possuem expressiva capacidade antioxidante, o que foi confirmado pelo resultado obtido com *Solanum americanum*, que apresentou uma capacidade antioxidante similar à de um antioxidante comercial (BHT), em baixas concentrações. Além disso, as solanáceas apresentaram uma velocidade de reação rápida, que pode ser muito relevante para as condições *in vivo*. Todavia, a transposição dos resultados *in vitro* para *in vivo* não pode ser realizada. Portanto, entre as sugestões para a continuidade dessa linha de pesquisa, envolvem estudos *in vivo* sobre a avaliação de toxicidade destes extratos e da atividade biológica sobre a fisiopatologia da mastite.

Além de um estudo fitoquímico aprofundado para elucidação estrutural, quantificação e isolamento de todos os compostos presentes no extrato de alcaloides de ambas as espécies. Estas avaliações poderão apontar doses seguras de compostos ativos a serem fornecidos através da dieta.

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## ANEXOS

## Anexo A. Programa de Controle de Mastite.

**RECOMMENDED MASTITIS CONTROL PROGRAM**

605 Columbus Avenue South | New Prague, MN 56071 | Phone 952-758-2146 | Fax 952-758-5813

Name / Farm: \_\_\_\_\_ Date: \_\_\_\_\_

**1. Establishment of Goals for Udder Health**

- Set realistic targets for average herd somatic cell count (SCC) or linear score and clinical mastitis rate.
- Review goals on a timely basis, with input from the Herd Udder Health Advisory Team (veterinarian, producer, herd manager, milking personnel and advisors).
- Prioritize management changes to achieve stated goals.
- Other: \_\_\_\_\_

**2. Maintenance of a Clean, Dry, Comfortable Environment**

- Ensure proper stall usage by ensuring adequacy of stall size and design and provide adequate space in loose yards for the number of cows housed.
- Maintain clean, dry, and comfortable stalls and yards through appropriate bedding management.
- Keep cow traffic areas clean and dry.
- Ensure ventilation system is functioning properly.
- Ensure cows at pasture have uncontaminated lying areas.
- Control detrimental environmental influences (heat stress, frostbite, stray voltage, etc.).
- Ensure that cows remain standing after milking (provide fresh feed and water).
- Other: \_\_\_\_\_

**3. Proper Milking Procedures**

- Examine foremilk to facilitate early detection of clinical mastitis and proper milk letdown.
- Ensure teats are clean and dry before milking.
- If local regulations allow, apply pre-milking teat disinfectant that completely covers the teat skin and allow it to remain on teats for at least 30 seconds then dry teats using a properly washed and disinfected cloth towel for use on one cow, or a single service paper towel.
- Wear clean gloves during the milking process to limit spread of contagious pathogens.
- Attach teat cups squarely and level with the udder within 90 seconds of udder preparation.
- Adjust cluster during milking to prevent liner slips and squawks.
- With manual removal, avoid machine stripping and shut off vacuum to the claw before removing cluster.
- Apply teat disinfectant immediately following teat cup removal, and assure complete coverage of teats.

- Any teat disinfectant should be selected based on documented efficacy data which can be found on the NMC website ([www.nmconline.org](http://www.nmconline.org)).
- To optimize mastitis control and reduce costs, teat dipping is preferred to spraying as the method of disinfectant application.
- Milk cows with confirmed contagious intramammary infections last.
- Other: \_\_\_\_\_

**4. Proper Maintenance and Use of Milking Equipment**

- Install or update equipment to ISO 5707 (International Organization for Standardization, "Milking machine installations—Construction and performance").
- Service, maintain, and regularly evaluate equipment function according to manufacturer's guidelines, using dynamic evaluation methods and an appropriate record form.
- Replace liners and other rubber and plastic parts regularly, according to manufacturer's guidelines.
- Replace broken or cracked inflations and short milk tubes immediately.
- Thoroughly wash and sanitize equipment after each milking.
- Other: \_\_\_\_\_

**5. Good Record Keeping**

- For each case of clinical mastitis, record cow identification, date detected, days in milk, quarter(s) affected, number and type of treatments, outcome of treatments (i.e. return to normal milk, time to discard milk) and the causative bacterial pathogen if a sample was cultured on-farm or in a laboratory.
- Use a computerized or manual record system to manage information, such as individual cow SCC data, on the prevalence and incidence of subclinical mastitis.
- Other: \_\_\_\_\_

**6. Appropriate Management of Clinical Mastitis During Lactation**

- Develop and implement a herd clinical mastitis treatment protocol with the Herd Udder Health Advisory team.
- Carefully consider the economic ramifications of therapy decisions.
- Collect a pre-treatment milk sample aseptically for microbiological culture so that antimicrobial susceptibility tests can be used when appropriate.

- Use an appropriate therapeutic regimen; use drugs according to the protocol, or as recommended by the health advisors.
- Prior to infusion, disinfect the teat with a germicide and scrub the teat-end with an alcohol swab.
- For infusion of intramammary antibiotics, use a single-dose, regulatory approved product by the partial insertion method.
- Do not treat chronic non-responsive infections.
- Observe the correct withdrawal period for the antibiotic used, as stated on the label. If extra-label drug use is necessary, follow regulatory guidelines under the supervision of a veterinarian (i.e. in the systemic treatment of coliform mastitis).
- Always follow recommended drug storage guidelines and observe expiration dates.
- Clearly identify all treated cows, and record all treatments in a permanent record.
- When necessary, test milk for inhibitory substances before consignment.
- Other: \_\_\_\_\_

#### 7. Effective Dry Cow Management

- Decrease the energy density of the ration during late lactation to reduce milk production before dry-off.
- Dry cows off abruptly and dry treat each quarter immediately following the last milking of lactation.
- Disinfect teats and scrub the teat-end with an alcohol swab before infusing.
- Treat all quarters of all cows with a commercially available approved [long-acting] dry-cow antibiotic and/or an approved internal teat sealant.
- Use the partial insertion method of dry treatment infusion.
- Disinfect teats immediately following infusion using any approved post milking disinfectant teat dip.
- Provide adequate dry cow nutrition to enhance immune system function.
- Maintain a clean, dry, comfortable environment for dry cows. Dry cow environmental management is important to minimize exposure to pathogens.
- In situations of high environmental pathogen exposure, use an internal or external teat sealant for dry cows in addition to any antimicrobial product.
- In herds with coliform mastitis problems, vaccinate with a core antigen endotoxin vaccine following manufacturer's directions.
- Clip flanks and udders to remove excess body hair. Udder singeing may be useful to ensure hair removal.
- Other: \_\_\_\_\_

#### 8. Maintenance of Biosecurity for Contagious Pathogens and Marketing of Chronically Infected Cows

- Request bulk tank and individual cow SCC data. For suspect animals, further diagnostic efforts may be indicated to identify cases of subclinical mastitis prior to purchasing cows.
- If possible, obtain aseptically collected milk samples for bacteriological culture from cows prior to purchase.
- Isolate recently purchased cows, and milk separately, until there is assurance of the absence of intramammary infection.
- Segregate cows with a persistently high SCC or linear score (i.e. SCC greater than 200,000 or linear score greater than or equal to 4.0 for several months) and observe response to dry treatment or other recommended therapy.
- Market or permanently segregate cows persistently infected with *Staphylococcus aureus* or other non-responsive microbial agents (*Mycoplasma*, *Nocardia*, *Pseudomonas*, or *Arcanobacterium pyogenes*).
- Consider udder health status of first-calf heifers as this can impinge on herd biosecurity.
- Other: \_\_\_\_\_

#### 9. Regular Monitoring of Udder Health Status

- Enroll in an individual cow SCC program or use some other monitor of subclinical infections.
- Use a sensitive cow-side monitor of inflammation in cows suspected of infection and in high risk periods (i.e. early lactation).
- Monitor distributions of high SCC cows, and rates of change to elevated SCC.
- Conduct milk bacteriological culture of clinical cases and high SCC cows regularly.
- Monitor udder health for the herd using reports from the regional regulatory agency or milk marketing organization and DHI.
- Calculate clinical mastitis rates and distributions regularly, paying particular attention to infections in heifers.
- Use SCC and clinical mastitis records to evaluate protocols, and to make treatment and marketing decisions.
- Other: \_\_\_\_\_

#### 10. Periodic Review of Mastitis Control Program

- Obtain objective evaluations from veterinarian, industry field person or extension representative.
- A step-by-step approach to the review, and a standard evaluation form are useful.
- Make use of the entire Herd Udder Health Advisory Team: veterinarian, producer, herd manager, milking personnel, and advisors.
- Other: \_\_\_\_\_



## Anexo B: Normas utilizadas para a preparação dos Capítulos II e III

Guide for Authors: JOURNAL OF ETHNOPHARMACOLOGY  
An Interdisciplinary Journal Devoted to Indigenous Drugs

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The *Journal of Ethnopharmacology* is dedicated to the exchange of information and understandings about people's use of plants, fungi, animals, microorganisms and minerals and their biological and pharmacological effects based on the principles established through international conventions. Early people, confronted with illness and disease, discovered a wealth of useful therapeutic agents in the plant and animal kingdoms. The empirical knowledge of these medicinal substances and their toxic potential was passed on by oral tradition and sometimes recorded in herbals and other texts on *materia medica*. Many valuable drugs of today (e.g., atropine, ephedrine, tubocurarine, digoxin, reserpine) came into use through the study of indigenous remedies. Chemists continue to use plant-derived drugs (e.g., morphine, taxol, physostigmine, quinidine, emetine) as prototypes in their attempts to develop more effective and less toxic medicinals.

**Please note that figures and tables should be embedded in the text as close as possible to where they are initially cited.** It is also mandatory to upload separate graphic and table files as these will be required if your manuscript is accepted for publication.

### Classification of your paper

Please note that upon submitting your article you will have to select **at least one classification** and **at least three of the given keywords**. You can preview the list of classifications and keywords. This information is needed by the Editors to more quickly process your article. In addition to this, you can submit free keywords as described below under "Keywords".

#### 1:CLASSIFICATIONS

- 1.01:Anaesthesia
- 1.02:Anthropological and historical studies in ethnopharmacology
- 1.03:Cardiovascular system
- 1.04:Central nervous system
- 1.05:Clinical studies
- 1.06:Commentaries
- 1.07:Ear, nose, and oropharynx
- 1.08:Endocrine system
- 1.09:Eye
- 1.10:Gastro-intestinal system
- 1.11:Immunological products and vaccines
- 1.12:Infections
- 1.13:Malignant disease and immunosuppression
- 1.14:Musculoskeletal and joint diseases
- 1.15:Nutrition and blood
- 1.16:Obstetrics, gynaecology, and urinary-tract disorder

- 1.17:Quality traditional medicines
- 1.18:Respiratory system
- 1.19:Reviews
- 1.20:Skin
- 1.21:Toxicology and safety
- 1.22:Systems biology and omics

**2:KEYWORDS**

- 2.004:abortion
- 2.008:acne
- 2.012:adaptogenic
- 2.016:aging
- 2.020:AIDS
- 2.024:alkaloids
- 2.028:allergy
- 2.032:alzheimer
- 2.036:anaemia
- 2.040:analgesic
- 2.044:angiogenesis
- 2.045:antinociceptive
- 2.048:anthelmintic
- 2.052:anthraquinones
- 2.056:anthropology
- 2.060:antiamoebic
- 2.064:antiarrhythmic
- 2.068:antifungal
- 2.072:antihistamine
- 2.076:antimicrobial
- 2.080:antimycobacteria
- 2.084:antioxidant
- 2.088:antiplatelet
- 2.092:antiprotozoal
- 2.096:antispasmodic
- 2.100:antiviral
- 2.104:anxiolytic
- 2.108:aphrodisiac
- 2.112:apoptosis
- 2.113:Archeology
- 2.116:arrow poisons
- 2.120:arthritis
- 2.124:asthma
- 2.128:atherosclerosis
- 2.132:Ayurveda
- 2.136:botany
- 2.137:Bone healing
- 2.140:bronchodilators
- 2.144:calcium channels
- 2.145:biocides
- 2.148:cancer
- 2.152:carbohydrates
- 2.156:carcinogenesis

2.160:cardiovascular  
2.164:chemotaxonomy  
2.168:chromatography  
2.172:clinical trials  
2.176:cognitive performance  
2.180:contraception  
2.184:corticosteroids  
2.188:cosmetics  
2.192:cough  
2.196:coumarins  
2.200:cyclooxygenase  
2.204:cytotoxicity  
2.208:dementia  
2.212:dental hygiene  
2.216:depression  
2.220:dermatosis  
2.224:diabetes  
2.228:diarrhea  
2.232:diterpenoids  
2.236:diuretic  
2.240:drug metabolism  
2.244:drug tolerance  
2.248:drug transport  
2.252:drugs of abuse  
2.256:eczema  
2.260:epilepsy  
2.264:erectyl dysfunction  
2.268:essential oil  
2.272:ethnozoology  
2.276:expectorant  
2.284:fertility  
2.288:fever  
2.292:flavonoids  
2.296:gastric ulcer  
2.300:gene expression  
2.304:genomics  
2.308:gout  
2.312:hallucinogenic  
2.316:hepatotoxic  
2.320:historical sources  
2.324:HIV  
2.328:honey  
2.332:hypertension  
2.336:hypnotic  
2.340:ileum  
2.344:immunomodulation  
2.348:inflammation  
2.352:influenza  
2.356:Kampo medicine  
2.360:laxative

2.364:leishmaniasis  
2.368:leukocytes  
2.372:lignans  
2.376:lipids  
2.380:liver  
2.384:lymphocytes  
2.388:macrophages  
2.392:malaria  
2.396:mast cells  
2.400:metabolism  
2.404:metabolomics  
2.408:monoterpenoids  
2.412:multidrug resistance  
2.416:mutagenesis  
2.420:myocardial infarction  
2.424:nematodes  
2.428:neurodegenerative disorders  
2.432:neuroleptic  
2.436:neutrophils  
2.440:obesity  
2.444:ophthalmology  
2.448:osteoporosis  
2.452:pain  
2.456:parasites  
2.460:parkinson  
2.464:peptides  
2.468:phenylpropanoids  
2.472:pharmacodynamics  
2.476:pharmacokinetics  
2.480:phytochemistry  
2.488:plant conservation  
2.492:polyphenols  
2.496:polysaccharides  
2.500:prodrug  
2.504:propolis  
2.508:proteomics  
2.512:psoriasis  
2.516:quality control  
2.520:radical scavenger  
2.524:regulatory affairs  
2.528:renal pharmacology  
2.532:reproductive pharmacology  
2.536:saponins  
2.540:sedatives  
2.544:sesquiterpenoids  
2.548:signal transduction  
2.552:steroids  
2.556:stress  
2.560:sweeteners  
2.564:synergy

2.568:systems biology  
2.572:tannins  
2.576:terpenes  
2.580:theories of illness  
2.588:toxins  
2.592:traditional chinese medicine  
2.596:transcriptomics  
2.600:transport  
2.604:triterpenoids  
2.608:trypanosomes  
2.612:Unani medicine  
2.616:vasoconstriction  
2.620:venoms  
2.624:veterinary ethnopharmacology  
2.628:warts  
2.630:Bioavailability  
2.632:Biodiversity Convention  
2.634:Conservation  
2.635:Constipation  
2.636:ethics  
2.637:Intellectual Property rights  
2.638:Iridoids  
2.639:Molecular biology  
2.640:Statistics  
2.641:Traditional medicine Europe, Mediterranean, Near East  
2.642:Traditional medicine Asia & Oceania  
2.643:Traditional medicine Africa  
2.644:Traditional medicine Northern America  
2.645:Traditional medicine Meso- and Southern America  
2.646:wound healing

### **The "rules of 5"**

The Editors and Editorial Board have developed the "Rules of 5" (Editorial, Volume 103, Issue 3, 20 February 2006, Pages 309-310) for publishing in JEP. We have produced five clear criteria that each author needs to think about before submitting a manuscript and setting the whole process of editing and reviewing at work. The rules should also be useful for the reviewing of papers.

The rules are the following:

#### **1. Out of scope**

The paper should report on traditional use or present results on pharmacological or toxicological studies (positive or negative) that are directly related to the traditional use. These data should eventually contribute to evidence-based traditional medicines.

Immediate rejection criteria:

- I. Papers that use ethnopharmacology as an excuse to study an activity which is not related to the traditional use are not accepted, e.g. antitumor effect of plant used against diabetes.
- II. Testing of extracts or plant parts that have no relation to the traditional use, e.g. pharmacological and phytochemical studies on a series of plants of one genus, of which only a few are actually used traditionally, do not fit in the scope.
- III. Papers on health effects of food are not in the scope of the journal.
- IV. Studies on pure compounds are not accepted if not clearly related to a plant and its traditional use.
- V. At random screening of plants for activity.

## **2. Too preliminary**

A paper must be based on a thorough and extensive study, using proper controls. Immediate rejection criteria:

- I. Antimicrobial activity with single dose, or very high concentration, measuring only inhibition zones and no MIC values, no information on type of activity (-cidal or growth inhibition), microorganisms not relevant for use.
- II. Single dose studies with very few animals, no dose-response studies.
- III. In-vitro assays with single dose or very high concentration.
- IV. No proper controls.
- V. Repetition of a simple bioassay for yet another extract or plant.

## **3. In-vitro antioxidant activity**

Antioxidant activity is present in all plants. Screening with in-vitro assays thus has little meaning if no clear evidence is given for in-vivo activity.

Immediate rejection criteria:

- I. Only chemical in-vitro assays
- II. No direct connection with claimed traditional use
- III. No positive controls
- IV. Isolation of very common antioxidant compounds (e.g. flavonoids)
- V. Not at a relevant dose in in-vivo situation

## **4. Ethnopharmacological and ethnobotanical surveys normally need to report primary (absolute) data reporting how many times a (botanical) drug has been cited for a certain use and application.**

Authors must comply with all relevant standards in the field.

Immediate rejection criteria:

- I. Species are listed without presenting the primary data including details about their therapeutic use in the region/culture of study.
- II. No information about the ethnographic background of the study or about the methods used.

- III. No information about identification and documentation of the plants (voucher specimen).
- IV. The ethnopharmacological frame of reference/theory that forms the basis of the study is not spelled out, e.g. no information about how disease diagnosis and practices related to specific plant medical uses were observed and verified.
- V. No information on the protection of the biodiversity rights of indigenous people or local government

### 5. Lack of novelty

The study must represent a novel approach to the study of the activity, i.e. not more or less repeating what has already been published with similar results, but e.g. only using another extract of the same plant, or, in case of antimicrobial activity, some other microorganisms.

Immediate rejection criteria:

- I. Repetition of well-known data
- II. Use of non-specific pharmacological test methods or of phytochemical screening methods
- III. Use of pharmacological assays or clinical trials which are not internationally recognized as valid and relevant
- IV. Identification of only well-known ubiquitous compounds with little or no relation to activity (e.g. vitamins, sitosterol)
- V. List of use of plants in certain area that confirms already known regional practices

**Authors are encouraged to submit video material or animation sequences** to support and enhance your scientific research. For more information please see the paragraph on video data below.

### Types of paper

The *Journal of Ethnopharmacology* will accept the following contributions:

1. Original research articles - whose length is not limited and should include Title, Abstract, Methods and Materials, Results, Discussion, Conclusions, Acknowledgements and References. As a guideline, a full length paper normally occupies no more than 10 printed pages of the journal, including tables and illustrations.
2. Short Communications - whose average length is not more than 4 pages in print (approx. 2000-2300 words, including abstract and references). A maximum of 2 illustrations (figures or tables) is allowed. See paragraph below for description and format.
3. Letters to the Editors.
4. Reviews - Authors intending to write review articles should consult and send an outline to the Reviews Editor (see inside front cover for contact information) before preparing their manuscripts. The organization and subdivision of review articles can be arranged at the author's discretion. Authors should keep in mind that a good

review sets the trend and direction of future research on the subject matter being reviewed. Tables, figures and references are to be arranged in the same way as research articles in the journal. Reviews on topics that address cutting-edge problems are particularly welcome.

Outlines for potential reviews need to include:

- A detailed abstract using the structure provided in the guidelines
- An annotated table of contents
- A short CV of the lead author

5. Book reviews - Books for review should be sent to the Reviews Editor.

6. Commentaries - *invited*, peer-reviewed, critical discussion about crucial aspects of the field but most importantly methodological and conceptual-theoretical developments in the field and should also provide a standard, for example, for pharmacological methods to be used in papers in the *Journal of Ethnopharmacology*. The scientific dialogue differs greatly in the social / cultural and natural sciences, the discussions about the common foundations of the field are ongoing and the papers published should contribute to a transdisciplinary and multidisciplinary discussion. The length should be a maximum of 2-3 printed pages or 2500 words. Please contact the Reviews Editor [j.ethnopharmacol@pharmacy.ac.uk](mailto:j.ethnopharmacol@pharmacy.ac.uk) with an outline.

7. Conference announcements and news.

### Submission checklist

Please click [here](#) to download the Submission **Checklist**. This is a mandatory file during submission. Upload the completed checklist and choose the file type as "Checklist".

You can use this list to carry out a final check of your submission before you send it to the journal for review. Please check the relevant section in this Guide for Authors for more details.

### JOURNAL OF ETHNOPHARMACOLOGY CHECKLIST

Have you consulted the author-pack and verified that your submission adheres to the "Rules of 5"? YES

Have you provided a list of all authors which clearly states the contribution of each coauthor to the article? YES

Is the corresponding author's postal address, telephone numbers and e-mail address provided in full? YES

Have you included a list of all authors' email addresses? NO

Do you declare that all the listed authors have read and approved the submitted manuscript? NO



Do you declare that this manuscript/data, or parts thereof, has not been submitted for possible publication to another journal or that the work has previously been published elsewhere? YES

Is the title precise, clear and specific (do not use uncommon acronyms)? YES

Have you provided a clear and easily verifiable scientific reference to the traditional or clinical use of the herbal medicine under investigation (inserted directly next to the related traditional use)? YES

Do you declare that the present study was performed according to international, national and institutional rules considering animal experiments, clinical studies and biodiversity rights? YES

Does the activity studied clearly relate to the traditional use? YES

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Surveys – have you provided absolute/primary quantitative data on the frequency of plant use as mentioned in the interviews? And is there a critical assessment of the traditional uses considering regional and global uses and known scientific information on the chemistry and biological effects? NA

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Is the abstract in the required structured format? (Ethnopharmacological relevance, Materials and methods, Results, Conclusion) YES

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Chan K., et al. (2012) Good practice in reviewing and publishing studies on herbal medicine, with special emphasis on traditional Chinese medicine and Chinese *Materia Medica*. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology* 140: 469-475.

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## 5. VITA

Dejani Máira Panazzolo nasceu no dia 24 de junho de 1990 no município de Engenho Velho – RS, (na época distrito de Constantina – RS), filha de Celda Panazzolo e Ademar Panazzolo.

Cursou o ensino fundamental na Escola Estadual de Ensino Médio Gottfried Thomas Westerich no município de Novo Xingu de 2000 a 2004. E o ensino médio na Escola Estadual de Ensino Médio São José no município de Constantina, de 2005 a 2007. Em 2008, ingressou no Curso de Zootecnia na Universidade Federal de Santa Maria/Centro de Educação Norte do Rio Grande do Sul (UFSM/Cesnors). Tendo desenvolvido vários estágios não curriculares durante o curso. Em 2012, desenvolveu o estágio final supervisionado no Grupo de Pesquisa em Nutrição de Ruminantes, sob orientação do Prof. Harold Ospina Patiño (*In memoriam*).

No ano de 2013 e 2014, cursou o Mestrado em Zootecnia pelo Programa de Pós-Graduação em Zootecnia na Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul (UFRGS). Em 2016, iniciou o curso de Doutorado junto ao mesmo Programa, na área de concentração Produção Animal, como discente bolsista pela CAPES.