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INGRIDD AYSLANE TORRES DE ARAÚJO RIBEIRO

**ÓLEOS ESSENCIAIS DE *Croton rudolphianus* e *Algrizea macrochlamys* NO
COMBATE À DOENÇAS TROPICAS NEGLIGENCIADAS:
Esquistosomose e dengue**

Recife

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Tese apresentada ao Programa de Pós-graduação em Bioquímica e Fisiologia da Universidade Federal de Pernambuco, como requisito parcial para obtenção do título de Doutor em Bioquímica e Fisiologia.

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Orientadora: Prof^a. Dr^a. Maria Tereza dos Santos Correia

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*Dedico este trabalho a
minha amada família*

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*“Para realizar grandes conquistas, devemos
não apenas agir, mas também sonhar; não
apenas planejar, mas também acreditar.”*

Anatole France

RESUMO

Doenças tropicais negligenciadas (DTNs) são patologias que ocorrem predominantemente nos países em desenvolvimento. A esquistossomose é uma doença parasitária que no Brasil é causada por *Schistosoma mansoni*, enquanto a dengue é uma flavovirose transmitida, principalmente, por *Aedes aegypti*. Devido ao caráter endêmico dessas doenças, torna-se importante pesquisas por estratégias para combatê-las. O estudo de substâncias de origem vegetal, como os óleos essenciais (OEs), tem sido alvo para combater diferentes patologias. Este trabalho teve como objetivo avaliar o potencial tóxico dos OEs das folhas de *Croton rudolphianus* e *Algrizea macrochlamys* frente *Biomphalaria glabrata*, hospedeiro intermediário da esquistossomose, cercárias de *S. mansoni* e do inseto *A. aegypti*. A composição química dos OEs foi determinada por análise de CG-EM. Os testes de toxicidade sobre *B. glabrata* foram realizados com embriões e adultos. Os ensaios cercaricidas foram realizados com cercárias de *S. mansoni*. Os bioensaios com *A. aegypti* foram realizados usando ovo, larva e pulpa. O ensaio ecotoxicológico foi realizado com *Artemia salina*. O óleo de *C. rudolphianus* mostrou ser tóxico para todas as fases embrionárias de *B. glabrata* testadas ($CL_{50} = 126,54, 133,51, 143,53$ e $161,95 \mu\text{g/mL}$ para as fases de blástula, gástrula, trocófora e véliger, respectivamente). Para os caramujos adultos e cercárias tratados com óleo de *C. rudolphianus* a CL_{50} foi de $47,88$ e $14,81 \mu\text{g/mL}$, respectivamente. Esse óleo também apresentou efeito genotóxico para hemócitos de *B. glabrata*. O óleo de *A. macrochlamys* apresentou ação tóxica para embriões de *B. glabrata* ($CL_{50} = 55,70, 56,83, 52,85$ e $49,85 \mu\text{g/mL}$ para as fases de blástula, gástrula, trocófora e véliger, respectivamente). Esse óleo também apresentou ação tóxica para adultos de *B. glabrata* ($CL_{50} = 46,15 \mu\text{g/mL}$) e cercárias de *S. mansoni* ($CL_{50} = 11,36 \mu\text{g/mL}$). O (*E*)-cariofileno, composto majoritário de ambos OEs, apresentou ação tóxica para embriões de *B. glabrata* ($CL_{50} = 10,08, 10,27, 11,43$ e $12,5 \mu\text{g/mL}$ para as fases de blástula, gástrula, trocófora e véliger, respectivamente) e cercárias de *S. mansoni* ($CL_{50} = 3,32 \mu\text{g/mL}$ e $CL_{90} = 5,45 \mu\text{g/mL}$). O óleo de *C. rudolphianus* também causou mortalidade em larvas quarto instar de *A. aegypti* ($CL_{50} = 21.86 \mu\text{g/mL}$) e diminuiu a taxa de eclosão de ovos de *A. aegypti*. Entretanto, este óleo não apresentou efeito tóxico para pupas de *A. aegypti*. O OE de *A. macrochlamys* não apresentou nenhuma toxicidade para larvas e pupas de *A. aegypti*, mas causou uma diminuição na taxa de eclosão dos ovos de *A. aegypti*. O ensaio com organismo não alvo demonstrou que o óleo de *A. macrochlamys* não apresentou toxicidade. Por sua vez, o OE de *C. rudolphianus* foi mais tóxico para adultos de *B. glabrata*, cercárias de *S. mansoni* e larvas de *A. aegypti* do que para organismo não alvo testado (*A. salina*). Os resultados

demonstraram que os óleos de *A. macrochlamys* e *C. rudolphianus* são potencial ferramenta para o controle da esquistossomose e dengue, uma vez que ambos apresentaram efeitos deletérios contra o hospedeiro intermediário da esquistossomose, cercárias de *S. mansoni* e pelo menos uma fase do ciclo de *A. aegypti*.

Palavras-chave: *Croton*. Dengue. Esquistossomose. Inseticida. Metabólitos secundários. Moluscicida.

ABSTRACT

Neglected tropical diseases (NTDs) include a set of diseases that occur predominantly in developing countries. Schistosomiasis is a parasitic disease that in Brazil is caused by *Schistosoma mansoni*, while dengue is a flavovirose transmitted mainly by *Aedes aegypti*. Due to the endemic character of these diseases, the search for strategies to combat them becomes important. The study of substances from plants, such as essential oils (EOs), has been targeted to combat different pathologies. This work aimed to evaluate the toxic potential of EOs from leaves of *Croton rudolphianus* and *Algrizea macrochlamys* against *Biomphalaria glabrata*, intermediate host of schistosomiasis, cercariae of *S. mansoni* and the insect *A. aegypti*. The chemical composition of EOs was performed by GC-MS analysis. The toxicity tests on *B. glabrata* were carried out with embryos and adults. The cercaricidal assays were performed with cercariae of *S. mansoni*. The bioassays with *A. aegypti* were performed using egg, larvae and pupae. The ecotoxicological test was performed with *Artemia salina*. *C. rudolphianus* oil showed to be toxic for all embryonic phases of *B. glabrata* tested ($LC_{50} = 126.54, 133.51, 143.53$ and $161.95 \mu\text{g/mL}$ for blastulae, gastrulae, trochophore and veliger phases, respectively). For adult snails and cercariae treated with *C. rudolphianus* oil the LC_{50} was 47.88 and $14.81 \mu\text{g/mL}$, respectively. This oil also had a genotoxic effect on *B. glabrata* hemocytes. *A. macrochlamys* oil showed toxic action for embryos of *B. glabrata* ($LC_{50} = 55.70, 56.83, 52.85$ and $49.85 \mu\text{g/mL}$ for the blastulae, gastrulae, trochophore and veliger phases, respectively). This oil also showed toxic action for adults of *B. glabrata* ($LC_{50} = 46.15 \mu\text{g/mL}$) and cercariae of *S. mansoni* ($LC_{50} = 11.36 \mu\text{g/mL}$). The (*E*)-caryophyllene, major compound of both EOs, showed toxic action to embryos of *B. glabrata* ($LC_{50} = 10.08, 10.27, 11.43$ and $12.5 \mu\text{g/mL}$ for blastulae, gastrulae, trochophore and veliger phases, respectively), and *S. mansoni* cercariae ($LC_{50} = 3.32 \mu\text{g/mL}$). *C. rudolphianus* oil also caused mortality in fourth instar larvae of *A. aegypti* ($LC_{50} = 21.86 \mu\text{g/mL}$) and decreased the hatching rate of *A. aegypti* eggs. However, this oil did not show toxic effect on pupae of *A. aegypti*. The EO of *A. macrochlamys* did not present any toxicity to fourth instar larvae and pupae of *A. aegypti*, but caused a decrease in the hatching rate of *A. aegypti* eggs. The non-target organism assay showed that *A. macrochlamys* oil was not toxic. In turn, *C. rudolphianus* EO was more toxic to adults of *B. glabrata*, cercariae of *S. mansoni*, and larvae of *A. aegypti* than to the non-target organism tested (*A. salina*). The results showed that the oils of *A. macrochlamys* and *C. rudolphianus* are a potential tool for the control of schistosomiasis and dengue, since both had deleterious effects.

against the intermediate host of schistosomiasis, *S. mansoni* cercariae and at least one phase of the life cycle of *A. aegypti*.

Keywords: *Croton*. Dengue. Insecticide. Molluscicide. Secondary metabolites. Schistosomiasis.

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ABTS	2,2'-azino-bis-(3-etylbenzotiazolina-6- acido sulfônico)
ANVISA	Agência Nacional de Vigilância Sanitária
CG-EM	Cromatografia gasosa acoplada à espectrometria de massa (do inglês: GC-MS)
CL ₅₀	Concentração letal para 50% da população (do inglês: LC ₅₀)
CL ₉₀	Concentração letal para 90% da população (do inglês: LC ₉₀)
CL _{99,9}	Concentração letal para 99,9% da população (do inglês: LC _{99,9})
CL ₁₀₀	Concentração letal para 100% da população (do inglês: LC ₁₀₀)
CLAE	Cromatografia líquida de alta eficiência (do inglês: HPLC)
CMI	Concentração mínima inibitória (do inglês: MIC)
DPPH	1,1-difenil-2-picrilhidrazil
DTN	Doença Topical Negligenciada (no plural: DTNs)
IC ₅₀	Inibição de crescimento para 50% da população
IDH	Índice de Desenvolvimento Humano
MVA	Mevalonato ou ácido mevalônico (em inglês: mevalonate).
MEP	Metileritritol 4-fosfato (em inglês: methylerythritol 4-phosphate)
OE	Óleo essencial (no plural: OEs)
OMS	Organização Mundial da Saúde (no inglês: WHO)
PCE	Programa de Controle da Esquistossomose
PZQ	Praziquantel
SEVS	Secretaria Executiva de Vigilância em Saúde
SUS	Sistema Único de Saúde

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1 INTRODUÇÃO

As doenças tropicais negligenciadas (DTNs) incluem um conjunto de doenças que ocorrem majoritariamente nos países em desenvolvimento. Elas são responsáveis por elevada morbidade e mortalidade (BRASIL, 2020a). Normalmente, as DTNs estão relacionadas com a falta de saneamento adequado, água potável, habitação adequada, e serviços de saúde. Elas ainda causam grande impacto econômico, social e político, pois afetam negativamente a aprendizagem, a produtividade e a renda da população (ROSÁRIO *et al.*, 2017).

A esquistossomose é uma DTN causada por vermes trematóides do gênero *Schistosoma* (WHO, 2018a). Ela é endêmica em 78 países distribuídos entre as Américas, África, Ásia e Europa (WHO, 2018b). No Brasil, a esquistossomose é causada pela espécie *Schistosoma mansoni*, que utiliza caramujos do gênero *Biomphalaria* como hospedeiro intermediário (NEVES, 2016). Devido a sua extensa distribuição geográfica, altos índices de infecção e eficiência na transmissão da esquistossomose a espécie *Biomphalaria glabrata* é considerada o hospedeiro intermediário de *S. mansoni* mais importante nas Américas (BRAGA *et al.*, 2012; BRASIL, 2014).

Uma das principais formas de combate a esta doença ocorre por meio do controle dos caramujos vetores (BRASIL, 2017), atualmente, o único moluscicida recomendado pela Organização Mundial de Saúde é a niclosamida (Bayluscide®, Bayer) (COLLEY *et al.*, 2014). Substância sintética com comprovada eficiência contra os moluscos, porém apresenta alto custo em sua aplicação, se decompõe sob luz solar e apresenta elevado nível de toxicidade para organismos não-alvo, como peixes, anfíbios e plantas (FARIA *et al.*, 2018)

A dengue, outra DTN, é uma doença viral que causa sérios problemas econômicos e a saúde da população que residem nas regiões tropicais e subtropicais (CHURAKOV *et al.*, 2019). Ela é transmitida por mosquitos, do gênero *Aedes*, principalmente da espécie *Aedes aegypti*. Esse mosquito também transmite os vírus da chikungunya, zika e febre amarela (WHO, 2017; WHO, 2019a). A forma mais eficiente de prevenção da dengue é através do controle dos mosquitos (AGUIAR *et al.*, 2016), que atualmente é realizada através da utilização de inseticidas sintéticos (BRASIL, 2020b).

No entanto, o uso de moluscicidas e inseticidas sintéticos trazem várias desvantagens, como eliminação de espécies não alvo, desenvolvimento de populações resistentes, além do alto custo (MARTINS *et al.*, 2014; ZARA, 2016). Por esse motivo, é importante desenvolver pesquisas científicas voltadas para a descoberta de novas substâncias com estas ações e que

sejam menos tóxicas ao ambiente. Os compostos derivados do metabolismo secundário dos vegetais, como os óleos essenciais (OEs), seriam uma possível fonte dessas substâncias.

Os OEs são uma mistura complexa de substâncias voláteis e lipofílicas (PAVELA; BENELLI, 2016). Esses óleos possuem diversas funções para plantas, como por exemplo, atrair polinizadores e dispersores de sementes, proteger contra patógenos, além de proteger o aparelho fotossintético contra altas temperaturas (PAVELA; BENELLI, 2016; SHARIFI-RAD *et al.*, 2017). Alguns deles possuem diversas atividades biológicas, como inseticida (RIBEIRO *et al.*, 2020), antimicrobiana (ARAÚJO *et al.*, 2017) e antinociceptiva (XIMENES *et al.*, 2013; NOGUEIRA *et al.*, 2015).

Esses óleos podem ser encontrados em diversas famílias vegetais, como Anacardiaceae, Annonaceae, Euphorbiaceae, Fabaceae, Lamiaceae e Myrtaceae. Na família Euphorbiaceae, o gênero mais diverso é o *Croton*, que possui cerca de 1300 espécies (BRITO *et al.*, 2018). Algumas espécies desse gênero são empregadas na medicina popular para tratar diversas enfermidades (BARRERA *et al.*, 2016), como diabetes, constipação intestinal, diarreia e outros problemas digestivos, feridas externas, febre, colesterol alto, hipertensão, inflamação, dor, úlceras, obesidade, dentre outras (ALVES, 2017). *Croton rudolphianus* é uma espécie endêmica do Brasil, e há relatos na literatura que seu OE possui atividade antimicrobiana e inseticida contra *Sitophilus zeamais* (RIBEIRO 2016a; RIBEIRO *et al.*, 2020)

Por sua vez, o gênero *Algrizea* pertence à família Myrtaceae e possui duas espécies endêmicas no Brasil distribuídas na Bahia e Pernambuco (FLORA DO BRASIL, 2020a). Há relatos que o OE de *Algrizea minor* possui efeito antioxidante, antinociceptivo e antimicrobiano (VERAS *et al.*, 2019). No entanto, não há relatos para atividades biológicas com o OE de *Algrizea macrochlamys*.

Diante do exposto, esse trabalho teve como objetivo avaliar o efeito dos OEs obtidos a partir das folhas de *C. rudolphianus* e *A. macrochlamys* frente ao caramujo hospedeiro intermediário da esquistossomose (*B. glabrata*), cercárias de *S. mansoni*, ovos, larvas e pupas de *A. aegypti*, bem como, testar a ecotoxicidade desses OEs utilizando o organismo não-alvo *A. salina*.

1.1 OBJETIVOS

1.1.1 Objetivo geral

Avaliar o potencial tóxico dos OEs extraídos das folhas de *C. rudolphianus* e *A. macrochlamys* sobre o hospedeiro intermediário da esquistossomose (*B. glabrata*), cercárias de *S. mansoni* e *A. aegypti* (ovos, larvas e pulpas), bem como, testar a ecotoxicidade dos OEs utilizando a *A. salina* (organismo não-alvo).

1.1.2 Objetivos específicos

- Obter e caracterizar quimicamente por meio da cromatografia gasosa acoplada a espectrometria de massas (CG-EM) os OEs das folhas de *C. rudolphianus* e *A. macrochlamys*;
- Avaliar a toxicidade do OE de *C. rudolphianus* contra o molusco *B. glabrata* em diferentes estágios embrionários (blástula, gástrula, trocófora e veliger) e fase adulta, cercárias de *S. mansoni* e *A. salina* (organismo não-alvo);
- Investigar o efeito citotóxico do OE de *C. rudolphianus* nos hemócitos de *B. glabrata*;
- Avaliar a toxicidade do OE de *A. macrochlamys* e do seu composto majoritário ((E)-cariofileno), também contra embriões e adultos de *B. glabrata*, cercárias de *S. mansoni* e *A. salina* (organismo não-alvo);
- Analisar o efeito dos OEs de *C. rudolphianus* e *A. macrochlamys* sobre pupas e larvas no quarto instar do principal vetor da dengue, bem como, a interferência destes óleos na eclosão de ovos de *A. aegypti*.

2 FUNDAMENTAÇÃO TEÓRICA

2.1 DOENÇAS TROPICAIS NEGLIGENCIADAS

As doenças tropicais negligenciadas (DTNs), causadas por agentes infecciosos ou parasitas, incluem um conjunto de doenças que ocorrem predominantemente nos países em desenvolvimento e são responsáveis por elevada morbidade e mortalidade. Estas enfermidades incapacitam ou matam milhões de pessoas e representam uma necessidade médica importante até os dias atuais (BRASIL, 2020a).

As áreas onde se concentram as DTNs têm como principal característica a marca da pobreza e do subdesenvolvimento, e compreendem principalmente as regiões da África Subsaariana, Ásia e América Latina. A maioria dessas doenças é determinada pelo acesso insuficiente à água potável, ao saneamento, à habitação adequada, à educação e aos serviços de saúde. Além disso, elas podem causar complicações crônicas que afetam negativamente a aprendizagem, a produtividade e a renda (ROSÁRIO *et al.*, 2017).

As DTNs causam grande impacto econômico, social e político, e podem ser classificadas em três categorias baseado na emergência, controle e disponibilidade de medicamentos (Tabela 1) (LINDOSO; LINDOSO, 2009).

Tabela 1 - Distribuição das DTNs de acordo com categorias baseadas na Organização Mundial de Saúde (OMS).

Categoria 1	Categoria 2	Categoria 3
Doença descontrolada e emergindo (ex.: dengue, tripanossomíase humana africana e leishmaniose).	Doença possui controle disponível, porém a mesma ainda persiste (ex.: malária e esquistossomose).	Doença com estratégia de controle eficaz, na qual a carga de doença está caindo e há um plano para sua eliminação (ex.: lepra, doença de Chagas, filariose linfática e oncocercose).

Fonte: Lindoso e Lindoso (2009).

Várias DTNs ocorrem no Brasil, principalmente nas regiões Norte e Nordeste, onde há áreas com menor Índice de Desenvolvimento Humano (IDH). A malária, esquistossomose, dengue, doença de Chagas, leishmaniose, hanseníase, oncocercose e filariose linfática são as DTNs com maior prevalência no Brasil (ROSÁRIO *et al.*, 2017).

2.2 ESQUISTOSSOMOSE

2.2.1 Aspectos gerais da esquistossomose

A esquistossome é uma doença parasitária de veiculação hídrica, de caráter agudo ou crônico, causada por vermes trematódeos do gênero *Schistosoma* (WHO, 2018a). Ela encontra-se distribuída entre a Ásia, África, América e Oriente Médio (MARTINS-MELO *et al.*, 2014; SCHOLTE *et al.*, 2014, WHO, 2018a). Além disso, é considerada um importante problema de saúde pública, sendo prevalente em comunidades pobres sem acesso à água potável e saneamento adequado (SCHOLTE *et al.*, 2014, WHO, 2018a).

Estima-se que mais de 240 milhões de pessoas no mundo estão infectadas por esses trematódeos e cerca 700 milhões vivem em áreas consideradas de risco (WHO, 2018a). Adicionalmente, de acordo com a Organização Mundial da Saúde (WHO, 2018a), pelo menos 66,5 milhões de pessoas foram infectadas e 218 milhões necessitaram de tratamento preventivo para esquistossomose em 2015.

Em relação aos parasitas que causam essa doença, eles pertencem ao Filo Platelminto, Classe Trematoda e Família Schistosomatidae. São representados por vermes que parasitam mamíferos, crocodilianos e aves, tendo como habitat o sistema venoso desses animais (NEVES, 2016). Algumas características diferenciam o gênero *Schistosoma* dos demais trematódeos, são digenéticos; apresentam uma fase de desenvolvimento infectante para o hospedeiro definitivo (cercárias); e na fase adulta apresentam sexos distintos (dióicos) e dimorfismo sexual (SILVA *et al.*, 2008). As fêmeas são mais longas (7-17 mm de comprimento), finas e possuem tegumento liso. Por sua vez, os machos são robustos, medem 6-12 mm de comprimento, possuem tegumento coberto por tubérculos e espinhas, e um canal ginecóforo para abrigar à fêmea e fecundá-la (CDC, 2017), como mostra a Figura 1.

Figura 1 - Adultos de *S. mansoni*.



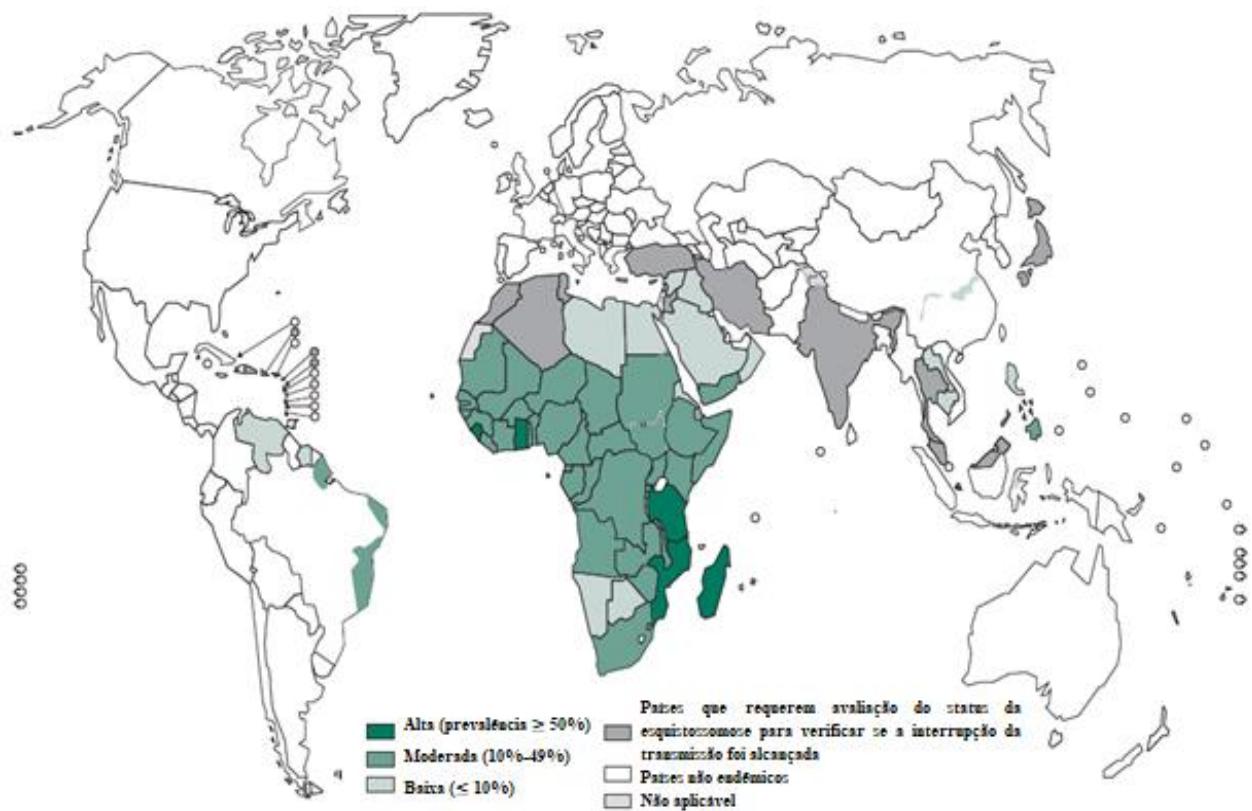
Nota: A fêmea é a mais fina e reside no canal ginecóforo do macho, que é o mais espesso.

Fonte: CDC (2017).

2.2.2 Aspectos epidemiológicos da esquistossomose

A esquistossomose é classificada como DTN e é endêmica em áreas tropicais e subtropicais (Figura 2). Sua distribuição é focal, uma vez que, a transmissão depende de hospedeiros intermediários específicos (caramujos do gênero *Biomphalaria*, *Bulinus* e *Oncomelaniae*) e atividades humanas infecciosas (WHO, 2018a).

Figura 2 - Distribuição da esquistossomose no mundo em 2012.



Fonte: WHO (2015).

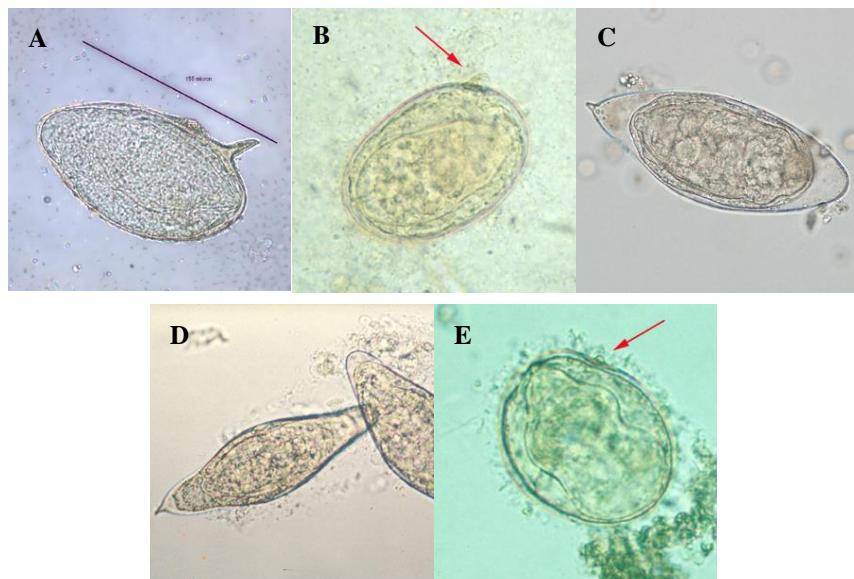
Conforme a Organização Mundial de Saúde (WHO, 2018a), há duas principais formas de esquistossomose, intestinal e urogenital, causada por seis espécies de *Schistosoma*: *S. mansoni*, *S. japonicum*, *S. haematobium*, *S. mekongi*, *S. guineenses* e *S. intercalatum*, sendo as três primeiras as mais relevantes. Além disso, as espécies desse gênero utilizam caramujos gastrópodes aquáticos como hospedeiros intermediários do seu ciclo de vida (WHO, 2018a). A Tabela 2 mostra à distribuição geográfica das espécies a cima, e seus respectivos hospedeiros intermediários.

Tabela 2 - Distribuição geográfica e hospedeiros intermediários das espécies parasitas do gênero *Schistosoma*.

Espécie	Distribuição geográfica	Hospedeiro intermediário
<i>S. mansoni</i>	África, Oriente Médio, Caribe, Brasil, Venezuela e Suriname	<i>Biomphalaria</i> spp.
<i>S. japonicum</i>	China, Indonésia e Filipinas	<i>Oncomelania</i> spp.
<i>S. mekongi</i>	Vários distritos do Camboja e da República Democrática Popular do Lau	<i>Neotricula aperta</i>
<i>S. guineenses</i> e <i>S. intercalatum</i>	Áreas da floresta tropical da África Central	<i>Bulinus</i> spp.
<i>S. haematobium</i>	África, Oriente Médio e Córsega (França)	<i>Bulinus</i> spp.

Fonte: WHO (2018a).

Geralmente, as espécies que infectam o homem são facilmente identificadas através do tamanho e morfologia do ovo (Figura 3), origem geográfica do isolado e a especificidade pelo hospedeiro intermediário (CDC, 2017). Desses espécies de *Schistosoma* citadas acima, a *S. mansoni* possui maior distribuição global e a única espécie causadora da esquistossomose no Brasil (BERGQUIST, 2002).

Figura 3 - Ovos das diferentes espécies de *Schistosoma*.

Nota: O tamanho e a morfologia do ovo variam de acordo com cada espécie. **A.** *S. mansoni* (espinho lateral proeminente perto da extremidade posterior). **B.** *S. japonicum* (ovos maiores e mais redondos que as outras espécies, e espinho menor). **C.** *S. haematobium* (são eliminados na urina e possuem espinho terminal conspícuo). **D.** *S. intercalatum* (semelhante aos ovos de *S. haematobium*, porém mais longos e eliminados nas fezes). **E.** *S. mekongi* (ovos semelhantes aos de *S. japonicum*, porém menores).

Fonte: CDC (2017).

A esquistossomose é endêmica em 78 países distribuídos entre as Américas, África, Ásia e Europa (WHO, 2018a; WHO, 2018b). Além disso, 92% das pessoas que necessitam de

terapia preventiva contra esquistossomose vivem no continente Africano (WHO, 2018b). Os principais países da África afetados por esta doença, são: Nigéria, Etiópia, República Democrática do Congo, Moçambique, Quênia, República Unida da Tanzânia, Camarões, Uganda, Malawi e Gana (WHO, 2015).

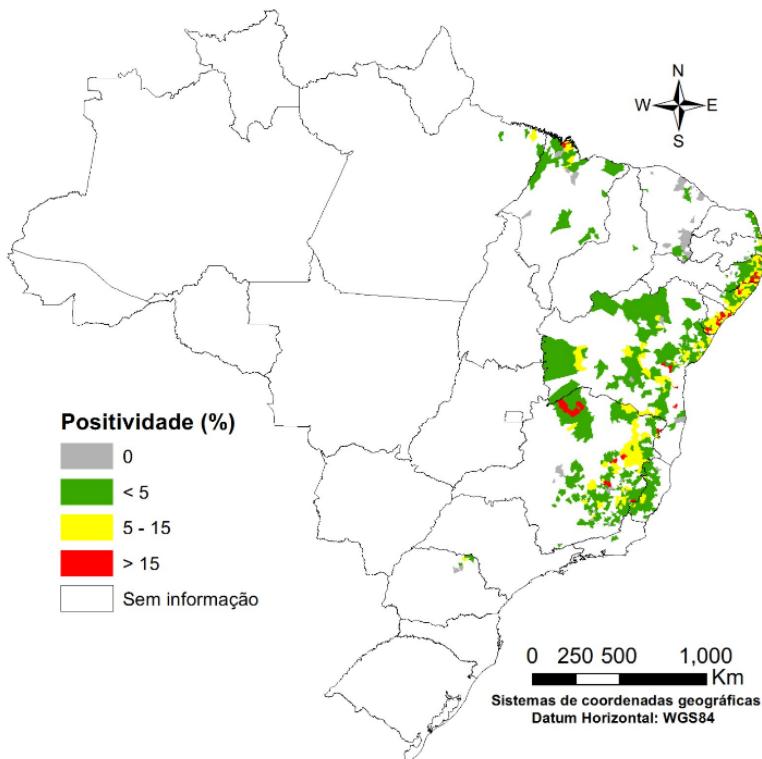
A esquistossomose foi erradicada com sucesso na Tunísia e Japão, e controlada na China. No entanto, continua predominante na Indonésia e Filipinas. A morbidade associada a *S. mekongi* foi controlada em Camboja, mas focos endêmicos persistem na República Democrática Popular do Lau (WHO, 2015).

Em 2014, foi relatado a presença de focos de transmissão de esquistossomose urogenital na Europa. A doença foi descrita, atingindo a França, Alemanha e Itália, acreditando-se que a infecção tenha se iniciado em Córsega (França), em um rio ao norte de Porto-Vecchio, um destino turístico popular. Possivelmente, a chegada da esquistossomose nesses países está relacionada com migração de pessoas infectadas de regiões endêmicas da África, para a Europa, uma vez que o parasita (*S. haematobium*) tem distribuição exclusiva em países africanos (BOISSIER *et al.*, 2015).

O Brasil responde por aproximadamente 96% dos casos de esquistossomose de toda América Latina e Caribe (MARTINS-MELO *et al.*, 2015). Outros focos de transmissão no continente americano são: Colômbia, Venezuela, Porto Rico, República Dominicana, Santa Lúcia, Guadalupe, Martinica, São Cristóvão e Nevis, Monserrate, Haiti, San Martin e Suriname. Muitos pesquisadores acreditam que a esquistossomose chegou ao Brasil no período colonial com a vinda de escravos africanos infectados pelo *S. mansoni*, e se expandiu devido à migração de pessoas infectadas para áreas com novas atividades econômicas e produção industrial (MORAES *et al.*, 2014). No Brasil, estima-se que aproximadamente 1,5 milhões de pessoas vivem em áreas sob risco de contrair essa doença, onde, a maioria delas estão localizadas nos estados do Nordeste (BRASIL, 2018a).

A esquistossomose tem uma área de transmissão extensa no Brasil, com áreas de endemias e focais abrangendo 19 dos 27 estados, concentrando-se nas regiões Nordeste e Sudeste (Figura 4) (MARTINS-MELO *et al.*, 2014). Os principais estados atingidos são: Alagoas, Sergipe, Bahia, Minas Gerais, Espírito Santo, Paraíba, Rio Grande do Norte e Pernambuco. Os estados do Pará, Maranhão, Piauí, Ceará, Rio de Janeiro, São Paulo, Santa Catarina, Paraná, Rio Grande do Sul são considerados áreas focais com menor número de prevalência da doença (BRASIL, 2018a; VITORINO *et al.*, 2012).

Figura 4 - Distribuição da esquistossomose no Brasil entre 2010 a 2015.



Fonte: Brasil (2018b).

O estado de Pernambuco ocupa o terceiro lugar em prevalência da doença na Região Nordeste, dos 186 municípios do Estado, 102 são endêmicos para esquistossomose. Na região endêmica da zona da mata ocorre em 46 municípios. Além disso, a expansão da esquistossomose para o litoral do Estado vem sendo registrada desde 1992, com a detecção de casos agudos da doença em indivíduos de classe média/alta e focos do hospedeiro intermediário da esquistossomose, caramujos do gênero *Biomphalaria* (BARBOSA *et al.*, 2014; SILVA; DOMINGUES, 2011).

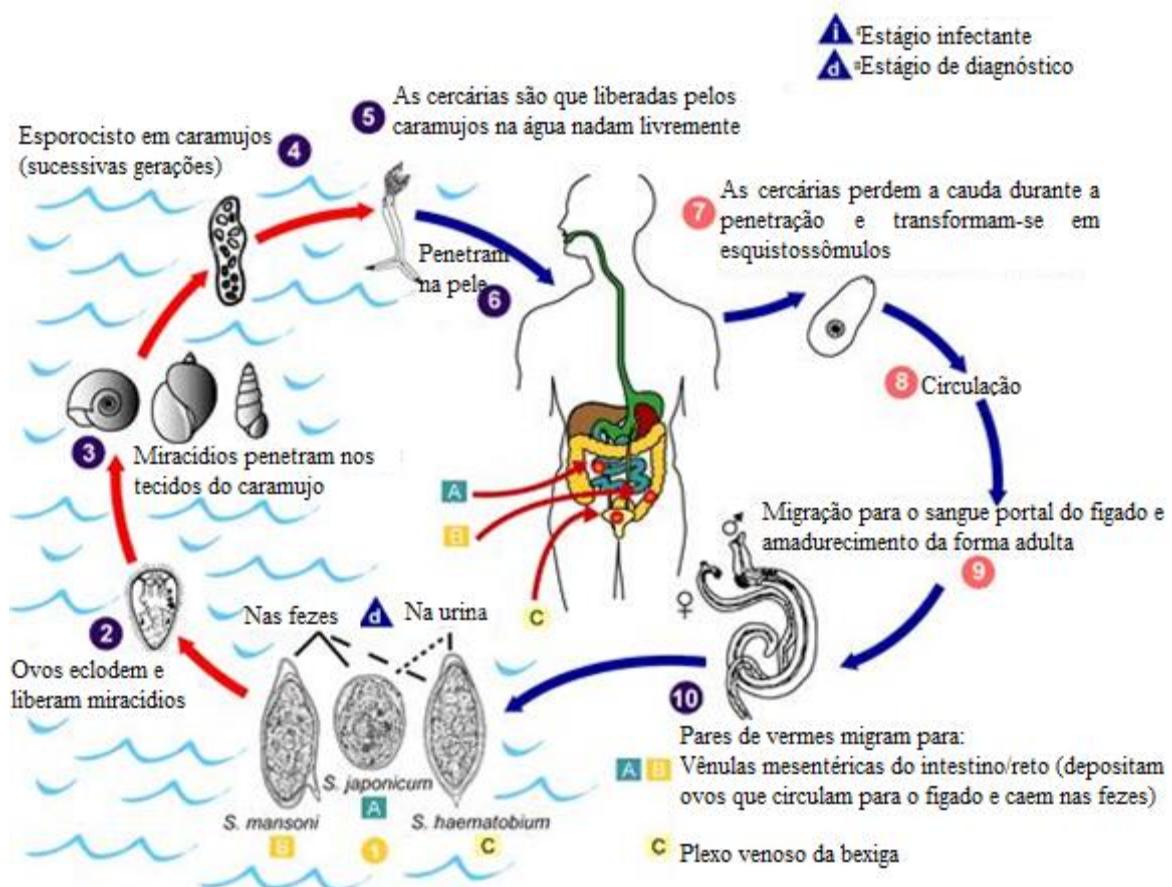
2.2.3 Ciclo biológico de *S. mansoni*

S. mansoni apresenta um complexo ciclo biológico (Figura 5), demonstrando uma excelente capacidade adaptativa entre o parasito, seus hospedeiros intermediário e definitivo, e meio ambiente (NEVES, 2016). O seu ciclo de vida é composto por duas fases: uma fase assexuada e outra sexuada (BARSOUM *et al.*, 2013).

A fase assexuada do ciclo de vida de *S. mansoni* inicia-se quando as fezes de indivíduos contaminados, contendo ovos do parasito, entram em contato com a água doce. Os ovos (Figura 3), em contato com a água e estimulado por alguns fatores (temperaturas mais altas, luz intensa

e oxigenação da água), ecodem, liberando miracídios (Figura 6A), que são a forma infectante dos caramujos (hospedeiros intermediários). A capacidade do miracídio em penetrar o caramujo se limita a 8 horas após a sua eclosão e é notavelmente influenciada pela temperatura. Nesse período, a ação em conjunto dos intensos movimentos miracidianos e enzimas proteolíticas liberadas por sua glândula de penetração, permitem ao miracídio ultrapassar os tecidos do caramujo do gênero *Biomphalaria*. Em seguida, após 48 horas da infecção do hospedeiro intermediário, o parasita sofre replicações transformando-se em esporocisto, que dará origem a forma infectante de vertebrados, as cercárias. Essa fase do ciclo de vida no caramujo requer de 4 a 6 semanas antes que as cercárias sejam liberadas. Além disso, um único miracídio gera em torno de 100 a 300 mil cercárias (NEVES, 2016; BARSOUM *et al.*, 2013).

Figura 5 - Ciclo de vida de *S. mansoni*.



Nota: O ciclo biológico de *S. mansoni* apresenta uma alternância de gerações entre o hospedeiro intermediário, moluscos do gênero *Biomphalaria* spp., e os hospedeiros definitivos vertebrados, dentre eles o homem.

Fonte: CDC (2017).

As cercárias (Figura 6B) liberadas na água nadam a procura do seu hospedeiro definitivo permanecendo ativas por até 48 horas em condições favoráveis, no entanto, o período de maior

infectividade ocorre nas primeiras 8 horas após a liberação delas no meio aquático. As cercárias se fixam na pele ou mucosas do hospedeiro, preferencialmente entre os folículos pilosos, com o auxílio de suas duas ventosas e de uma substância mucoprotéica secretada por suas glândulas acetabulares. Ao atingir os capilares subcutâneos, o parasito perde a cauda bífida, se transformando em esquistossômulo, esse processo dura de 5 a 15 minutos (NEVES, 2016).

Figura 6 - Miracídio e cercária de *S. mansoni*. **A.** Miracídio. **B.** Cercária.



Fonte: Brasil (2014).

Os esquistossômulos, por sua vez, migram para os pulmões cerca de 7 dias após a penetração e posteriormente, para o sistema intra-hepático, podendo usar duas vias para realizar essa migração. (i) via sanguínea, tradicionalmente aceita, os esquistossômulos saem das arteríolas pulmonares e dos capilares alveolares, ganhando as veias pulmonares (pequena circulação) chegando ao lado esquerdo do coração, acompanhando o fluxo sanguíneo, disseminados pela aorta (grande circulação) até o sistema intra-hepático onde se fixam. Pela (ii) via transtissular, os esquistossômulos saem dos alvéolos pulmonares através da penetração do parênquima pulmonar, pleura e diafragma, alcançando a cavidade peritoneal e perfurando a cápsula e parênquima hepático, chegando ao sistema porta intra-hepático (NEVES, 2016).

Uma vez no sistema porta intra-hepático, os esquistossômulos se alimentam e se desenvolvem transformando-se em machos e fêmeas 25 a 28 dias após a penetração. Posteriormente, migram, acasalados (fase sexuada), para a veia mesentérica inferior, onde farão oviposição. As fêmeas realizam a postura dos ovos na veia mesentérica inferior e, aproximadamente, 400 ovos são postos por dia, demorando cerca de 8 dias para se tornarem maduros (formação completa do miracídio). Cerca de metade dos ovos vão para o exterior junto com o bolo fecal, a outra metade fica no intestino ou fígado. Os ovos podem ser observados 42 dias após a infecção, nas fezes do hospedeiro (BARBOZA *et al.*, 2012; BARSOUM *et al.*, 2013; COLLEY *et al.*, 2014; NEVES, 2016; VITORINO *et al.*, 2012).

A morbidade causada pela esquistossomose é induzida não pela presença do próprio verme no organismo, mas pelos ovos postos por ele. Já que, muitos deles não são eliminados nas fezes, permanecendo por um longo tempo no intestino e fígado, causando uma resposta imunológica no hospedeiro (BURKE *et al.*, 2009; COLLEY *et al.*, 2014).

2.2.4 Aspectos clínicos da esquistossomose

A infecção por *S. mansoni* pode ocasionar manifestações clínicas distintas, dependente da idade do paciente, estado nutricional, localização do parasita, intensidade do parasitismo, resposta imune à infecção e reação do organismo do paciente a presença do ovo de *Schistosoma* (CASTRO, 2009; CARVALHO *et al.*, 2008).

A esquistossomose pode ser classificada em duas fases: aguda e crônica. A fase aguda se divide em duas fases distintas: fase pré-postural e a fase pós-postural. A fase pré-postural possui sintomatologia variada e ocorre cerca de 10 a 35 dias após a infecção. Nesse período alguns pacientes são assintomáticos, e outros apresentam sintomas, como: dermatite cercariana, mal-estar, com ou sem febre, tosse, dores musculares, desconforto abdominal e hepatite aguda (BRASIL, 2014; NEVES, 2016).

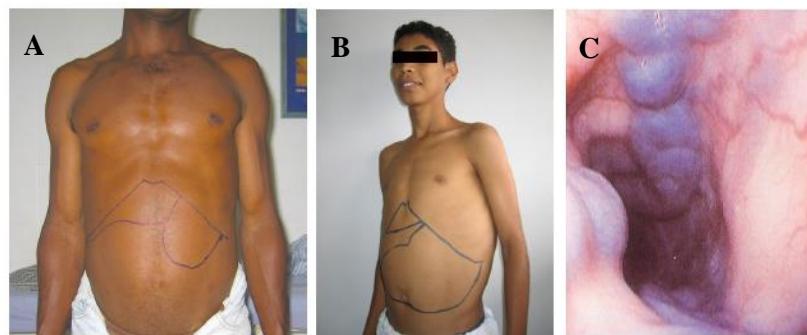
A fase pós-postural aparece em torno de 50 a 120 dias após a infecção, nessa fase começa a postura de ovos, principalmente, no intestino e fígado, e até mesmo no pulmão. Esses ovos provocam uma resposta imunológica no hospedeiro, resultando na formação de granulomas (COLLEY *et al.*, 2014). Os sintomas dessa fase incluem febre alta, sudorese, calafrios, emagrecimento, diarréia, cólicas, tosse, hepatoesplenomegalia discreta, linfademias, leucocitose com eosinofilia. A maioria dos casos evolui para esquistossomose crônica (BRASIL, 2014; CASTRO, 2009; NEVES, 2016).

O início da fase crônica dá-se por volta do sexto mês após infecção. Podem surgir sinais de progressão da doença em diversos órgãos, chegando a causar hipertensão pulmonar e portal, ascite, hepatoesplenomegalia, ruptura de varizes do esôfago (Figura 7). Essa fase apresenta-se nas seguintes formas: hepatointestinal, hepática e hepatoesplênica (BRASIL, 2017).

A forma hepatointestinal é caracterizada pela presença de surtos diarréicos, intercalados com constipação intestinal crônica. Na forma hepática há fibrose no fígado sem esplenomegalia, e pode ser assintomática ou sintomática, exibindo os mesmos sintomas da forma hepatointestinal (BRASIL, 2014; BRASIL, 2017; NEVES, 2016). Por sua vez, na esquistossomose hepatoesplênica os sintomas característicos são: hipertensão portal, levando à hepatoesplenomegalia e ao aparecimento de varizes no esôfago (Figura 7); dores abdominais;

alterações das funções intestinais; diminuição acentuada da função do fígado e ascite; encefalopatia hepática, que pode evoluir para o coma hepático e a morte (BRASIL, 2014; BRASIL, 2017).

Figura 7 - Pacientes com esquistossomose hepatoesplênica.



Nota: **A.** Adulto com aumento do fígado e baço. **B.** Adolescente com aumento do fígado e baço. **C.** Varizes no esôfago causada pela hipertensão portal.

Fonte: Brasil (2014).

2.2.5 Diagnóstico e tratamento da esquistossomose

O diagnóstico da esquistossomose é realizado através de exames laboratoriais, além disso, o histórico do paciente e o fato de ser originário ou ter morado em áreas endêmicas orientam o médico no diagnóstico desta doença. Os métodos de diagnóstico podem ser categorizados em diretos e indiretos (BRASIL, 2017).

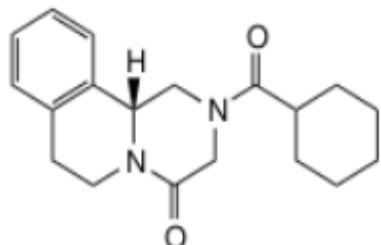
Os diretos consistem na visualização ou demonstração da presença de ovos de *S. mansoni* nas fezes ou tecidos. Os indiretos são baseados em mecanismos imunológicos envolvendo reações de antígeno-anticorpo. Adicionalmente, o diagnóstico também pode ser realizado por exames de imagem, como: ultrassonografia de abdômen, ressonância magnética, radiografia do tórax, endoscopia digestiva alta, entre outros (BRASIL, 2017).

O tratamento dessa enfermidade tem como finalidade sua cura, redução da carga parasitária do hospedeiro, e minimização da produção e eliminação dos ovos de *Schistosoma*. Visando impedir a evolução para as formas crônicas da doença, além de prevenir a transmissão da esquistossomose (GOMES *et al.*, 2016a; VITORINO *et al.*, 2012). O tratamento pode ser direcionado individualmente ou em nível populacional (tratamento coletivo) (GOMES *et al.*, 2016a).

Atualmente, o único medicamento utilizado no tratamento da esquistossomose é o praziquantel (PZQ) (Figura 8), um derivado da isoquinolina-pirazina. Ele atua em vermes

adultos, no entanto, possui pouca eficácia contra os outros estágios de *Schistosoma* (COLLEY *et al.*, 2014). Sua ação esquistossomicida ocorre dentro de 15 minutos após sua administração (VITORINO *et al.*, 2012). A dose padrão utilizada no tratamento de *S mansoni* é 50 mg/kg para adultos e de 60 mg/kg para crianças (BRASIL, 2017). Os efeitos colaterais mais comuns do PZQ são: dor abdominal, cefaleia, tonturas, sonolência (COLLEY *et al.*, 2014; NEVES, 2016), palpitação, vômito, prurido, distúrbios visuais e tremores. Os índices de cura da esquistossomose mansônica com uso do praziquantel variam de 60% a 90%, associada à substancial redução da carga parasitária e de produção de ovos pelo *S. mansoni* (VITORINO *et al.*, 2012).

Figura 8 - Estrutura química do Praziquantel (PZQ).



Fonte: Rios (2015).

Diante do exposto, é necessário implementar estratégias para controlar a disseminação dessa doença que atinge milhões de pessoas por ano.

2.2.6 Estratégias de controle e prevenção da esquistossomose

Os principais métodos de controle da esquistossomose envolvem o tratamento de pessoas infectadas pelo uso de quimioterapia por meio do PZQ; interrupção do ciclo de vida do hospedeiro intermediário através do controle químico; e medidas complementares como: educação em saúde, saneamento básico e higiene (BRASIL, 2017; TLAMÇANI; ER-RAMI, 2014).

O único agente moluscicida utilizado em campanhas de controle dessa doença é a niclosamida (COLLEY *et al.*, 2014). No entanto, há várias controvérsias sobre o seu uso. Esse assunto será abordado de forma mais ampla no tópico 2.3.3.

Alguns países, como o Brasil e China, criaram programas específicos para o controle da esquistossomose. Esses programas, geralmente, dão mais atenção ao uso de quimioterapia em massa, utilizando o PZQ para reduzir o número de pessoas infectadas nas regiões endêmicas (GURARIE *et al.*, 2015).

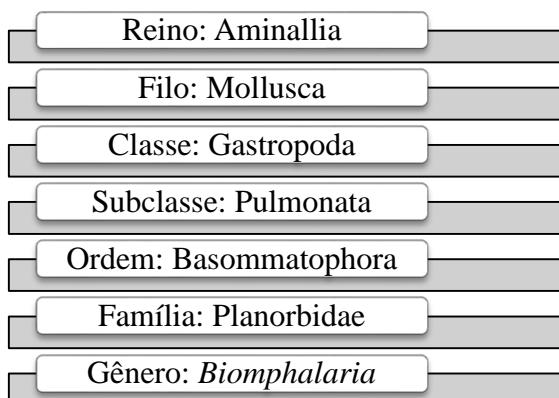
No Brasil, há o “Programa de Controle da Esquistossomose” (PCE), que atualmente é responsável por capacitar e dar suporte aos municípios nas ações que envolvem o diagnóstico e tratamento da infecção. Adicionalmente, ele identifica os focos de moluscos vetores (caramujos do gênero *Biomphalaria*), incentiva as ações de controle, a mobilização social, a educação em saúde e a inserção dos dados gerados no sistema de informação correspondente (QUITES *et al.*, 2016)

Em Pernambuco, a Secretaria Executiva de Vigilância em Saúde (SEVS) vem desenvolvendo desde 2011 o Programa Sanar. Esse programa tem como objetivo reduzir ou eliminar as DNTs, como a esquistossomose (GOVERNO DO ESTADO DE PERNAMBUCO, 2018).

2.3 GÊNERO *Biomphalaria*

No Brasil, a esquistossomose é causada pela espécie *S. mansoni*, que usa caramujos do gênero *Biomphalaria* como hospedeiro intermediário (NEVES, 2016). A classificação taxonômica desses caramujos pode ser observada na Figura 9.

Figura 9 - Classificação taxonômica dos caramujos hospedeiros intermediários de *S. mansoni*.



Fonte: Neves (2016).

Mesmo sendo hermafroditas, ou seja, podem se autofecundar, eles têm preferência pela reprodução cruzada. A maturidade sexual dos caramujos é atingida a partir de 30 dias de idade.

As posturas de ovos são realizadas quase que diariamente, geralmente a noite, e as desovas são depositadas em qualquer estrutura sólida submersa. Os ovos são contidos em massas gelatinosas, que podem conter até mais de 100 ovos. Os embriões contidos nos ovos passam por alguns estágios de desenvolvimento, o quais estão discutidos no próximo tópico, até seu completo desenvolvimento e eclosão. Esse processo dura de 7 a 9 dias após a postura dos ovos (NEVES, 2016).

Foram identificadas onze espécies pertencentes a esse gênero no Brasil. No entanto, apenas três delas foram encontradas eliminando cercárias na natureza sendo, portanto, hospedeiras de *S. mansoni* nas Américas, são elas: *Biomphalaria glabrata* (Say, 1818), *Biomphalaria straminea* (Dunker, 1848) e *Biomphalaria tenagophila* (D'orbigny, 1835) (NEVES, 2016). Além disso, infecções experimentais foram documentadas nas espécies *Biomphalaria peregrina* (D'orbigny, 1835), *Biomphalaria amazonica* (Paraense, 1966) e *Biomphalaria cousini* (Paraense, 1966), mas nunca foram encontradas com infecção natural (BRASIL, 2014; NEVES, 2016). *B. glabrata* é uma espécie que merece destaque, pois é um dos hospedeiros intermediários de *S. mansoni* mais importante nas Américas (NEVES, 2016), por isso essa espécie será abordada no tópico 2.3.2.

2.3.1 Características embrionárias dos moluscos do gênero *Biomphalaria*

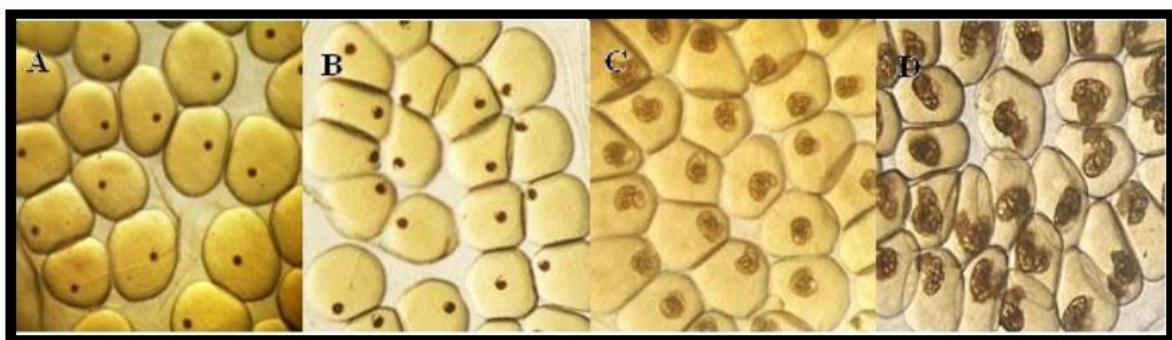
O estudo da embriologia de caramujos do gênero *Biomphalaria* é importante tanto para conhecer as etapas de desenvolvimento das espécies desse gênero quanto para controle da esquistossomose, uma vez que, os embriões que não forem erradicados com uso de substâncias moluscicidas logo que eclodirem poderão habitar novamente as áreas tratadas e continuar o ciclo da esquistossomose.

Normalmente, os caramujos do gênero *Biomphalaria* fazem a oviposição próximo a superfície da água, e seus embriões passam por sete estágios de desenvolvimento até a eclosão, são eles: blástula, gástrula, trocófora jovem, trocófora, véliger jovem, véliger e hippo stage (KAWANO *et al.*, 1992; KAWANO *et al.*, 2008).

O ovo inicialmente passa por diversas clivagens mitóticas até atingir o primeiro estágio de desenvolvimento embrionário, blástula, cerca de 15 horas após a primeira clivagem (Figura 10A). O estádio seguinte de gástrula tem início após 24 horas da primeira clivagem (Figura 10B). Na gastrulação o embrião contém três camadas celulares: a ectoderme, mesoderme e endoderme (KAWANO, 1995). Ao final da gastrulação, cerca de 39 horas após a primeira clivagem, há o aparecimento da boca. O terceiro estágio, trocófora (Figura 10C), ocorre entre

48 a 87 horas da primeira clivagem e é caracterizado pela formação do prototroco que separa o corpo em duas partes (região pré-trocal e pós-trocal). A região pré-trocal dará origem a região cefálica, placa apical, futura região dos olhos e tentáculos e da vesícula cerebral. Enquanto na região pós-trocal encontra-se a boca, situada abaixo da placa apical e na região oposta encontra-se a glândula da concha. O estágio de véliger (Figura 10D), 96 a 120 horas após a primeira clivagem, é caracterizado pela formação da concha e do velum, este originado a partir do prototroco e responsável pela intensa movimentação do embrião. No hipostase, 144 horas após a primeira ciclagem, há o aparecimento de tentáculos bem desenvolvidos e dos olhos, que, a princípio, se evidenciam como um halo pigmentado na região das placas cefálicas. Neste estádio há a formação quase completa de um caramujo jovem. A partir do sétimo dia após a primeira clivagem, a temperatura de 25 °C os caramujos podem eclodir das desovas (KAWANO *et al.*, 1992; KAWANO *et al.*, 2008).

Figura 10 - Embriões da *B. glabrata* em diferentes estádios de desenvolvimento embrionário.



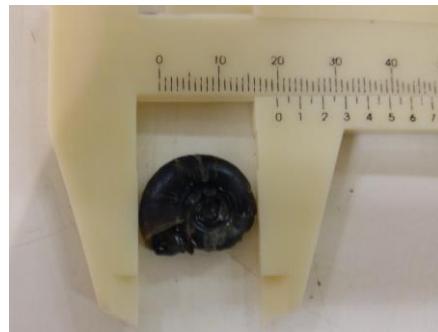
Nota: **A.** blástula, **B.** gástrula, **C.** trocófora e **D.** véliger.

Fonte: Araújo (2016).

2.3.2 A espécie *B. glabrata*

B. glabrata (Figura 11), maior molusco da família Planorbidae, é um dos hospedeiros intermediários de *S. mansoni* mais importante nas Américas, em decorrência de sua extensa distribuição geográfica, altos índices de infecção e eficiência na transmissão da esquistossomose – altamente suscetível ao trematódeo (BRAGA *et al.* 2012; BRASIL, 2014; NEVES, 2016). Adicionalmente, de acordo com Neves (2016) pesquisas relatam que mais de 80% das infecções por *S. mansoni* ocorrem devido à transmissão por *B. glabrata*, além disso, há relatos que um único caramujo dessa espécie possa eliminar até 18 mil cercarias por dia.

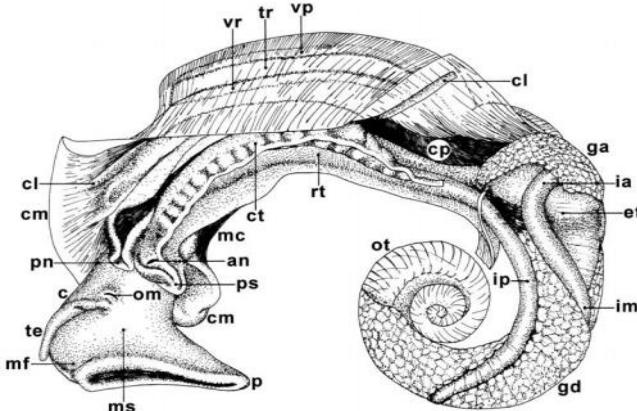
Figura 11 - *B. glabrata* (Say, 1818).



Fonte: A autora (2020).

Essa espécie apresenta como característica concha lisa de coloração escura que possui a função de proteção e abrigo do corpo do molusco, envolvendo as vísceras (Figura 12), com seis a sete giros arredondados, aumentando gradativamente, podendo atingir até 40 mm de diâmetro e 11 mm de largura (BRASIL, 2014; NEVES, 2016). A principal característica da sua anatomia interna é a presença de uma crista renal pigmentada, que confere característica exclusiva dessa espécie (NEVES, 2016; REY, 2001).

Figura 12 - Esquema de um animal do gênero *Biomphalaria* retirado da concha, com a indicação de seus órgãos internos.



Nota: Massa cefalopodal (ms), cavidade pulmonar (cp), mufla (mf), tentáculo (te), colo (c), abertura genital masculina (om), colar ou borda do manto (cm), pseudobrânquia (ps), pneumostoma (pn), abertura anal (an), músculo columelar (mc), crista lateral (cl), crista retal (ct), veia renal (vr), veia pulmonar (vp), tubo renal (tr), reto (rt), glândula do albúmen (ga), intestino anterior (ia), intestino médio (im), intestino posterior (ip), estômago (et), glândula digestiva (gd), pé (p), ovoteste (ot).

Fonte: Paraense (1975).

B. glabrata possui uma ampla distribuição geográfica, sendo sua presença notificada em 16 estados brasileiros (Alagoas, Bahia, Espírito Santo, Goiás, Maranhão, Minas Gerais, Pará, Paraíba, Paraná, Pernambuco, Piauí, Rio Grande do Norte, Rio Grande do Sul, Rio de Janeiro,

São Paulo, Sergipe), além do Distrito Federal, abrangendo cerca de 806 municípios (Figura 13) (CARVALHO *et al.*, 2008; BRASIL, 2014; NEVES, 2016).

Figura 13 - Distribuição espacial da espécie *B. glabrata* no Brasil.



Fonte: Carvalho *et al.* (2008).

De acordo com Carvalho *et al.* (2008), a área central de sua distribuição corresponde, principalmente, aos estados da Bahia, Minas Gerais e Espírito Santo. Adicionalmente, *B. glabrata* ocorre de forma quase contínua, para o norte, numa faixa costeira que compreende os estados de Sergipe, Alagoas, Pernambuco, Paraíba e Rio Grande do Norte. Está ausente no estado do Ceará e apenas uma população é reportada no estado do Piauí. No estado do Maranhão são encontradas várias populações distribuídas pelo interior e litoral (CARVALHO *et al.*, 2008).

Na região Sul, *B. glabrata* ocorre no estado do Paraná, com um aglomerado na divisa com o estado de São Paulo. Ocorre em uma única população no estado do Rio Grande do Sul. Além do mais, a espécie foi encontrada na região metropolitana de Porto Alegre, que se localiza cerca de 500 km do município mais ao sul do Brasil, onde era conhecida a presença de *B. glabrata*. Essas observações são relevantes, uma vez que, *B. glabrata* pode alcançar outras regiões do sul do Brasil ou mesmo países vizinhos como Argentina, Paraguai e Uruguai, até o momento livres da doença (CARVALHO *et al.*, 2008).

Uma das estratégias de controle e prevenção da esquistossomose seria a interrupção do ciclo de vida dos moluscos hospedeiros intermediários dessa doença, através do uso de substâncias chamadas moluscicidas.

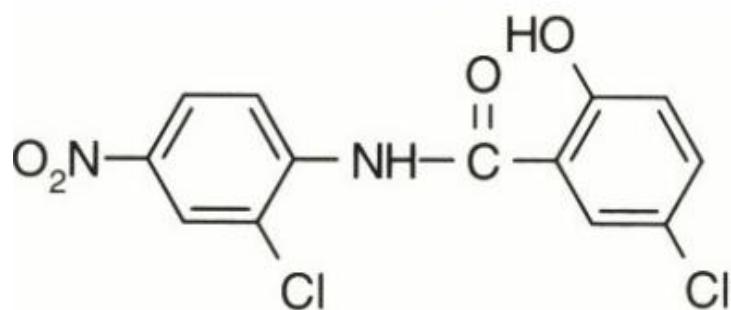
2.3.3 Moluscicida utilizado no controle dos hospedeiros intermediários da esquistossomose

As substâncias denominadas moluscicidas são utilizadas para o controlar moluscos que causam prejuízo as culturas ou são vetores de patologias. Esses moluscicidas podem ser classificados em sintéticos e naturais (CANTANHEDE *et al.*, 2010).

Os sintéticos são largamente empregados em programas de controle da esquistossomose com o objetivo de combater os caramujos vetores da doença. Estima-se que aproximadamente 7.000 produtos químicos, tais como sulfato de cobre, hidróxido de cálcio, e niclosamida, foram testados com este objetivo. No entanto, poucos mereceram destaque (CANTANHEDE *et al.*, 2010; NEVES, 2016; REY *et al.*, 2001).

Como mencionado anteriormente, a niclosamida (Figura 14) é o único agente moluscicida utilizado em campanhas de controle da esquistossomose (COLLEY *et al.*, 2014). É produzida comercialmente pela Bayer e recomendada pela Agência Nacional de Vigilância Sanitária (ANVISA) e a OMS. Essa substância possui elevada toxicidade frente a caramujos, 1 µg/mL causa 100% de mortalidade em 8 horas de exposição para os gêneros *Biomphalaria* e *Bulinus* (REY *et al.*, 2001). No entanto, é tóxica contra espécies não-alvo, como peixes, anfíbios e outros organismos aquáticos, produzindo um impacto ambiental negativo ao ecossistema aquático (COLLEY *et al.*, 2014). Ainda, possui custo elevado, é fotodegradável e não previne a recolonização de áreas previamente tratadas (RAPADO, 2012; OLIVEIRA-FILHO; PAUMGARTTEN, 2000; ABREU *et al.*, 2002).

Figura 14 - Estrutura química da niclosamida.



Fonte: Brasil (2018c).

Nesse contexto, pesquisas científicas direcionadas à descoberta de substâncias de origem vegetal com ação moluscicida vem sendo cada vez mais estimuladas (CANTANHEDE *et al.*, 2010; MARTINS *et al.*, 2014; MIYASATO *et al.*, 2012; ROCHA-FILHO *et al.*, 2015).

No Brasil, as primeiras pesquisas com moluscicidas naturais de origem vegetal demonstraram atividade de extratos aquosos do caule de *Sejania* sp. (cipó-timbó) e *Sapindus saponaria* L. (saboneteira) contra *B. glabrata* (CANTANHEDE *et al.*, 2010).

Atualmente, há pesquisas com látex (OLIVEIRA-FILHO *et al.*, 2010), extratos (FARIA *et al.*, 2018; MEDINA *et al.*, 2009; ROCHA-FILHO *et al.*, 2015), e óleos essenciais (DIAS *et al.*, 2013; FONTES-JÚNIOR *et al.*, 2012; TELES *et al.*, 2010) de plantas de diversas famílias frente aos hospedeiros intermediários da esquistossomose.

O Látex de *Euphorbia milli* foi tóxico para embriões de *B. glabrata* (OLIVEIRA-FILHO *et al.*, 2010). Além disso, o extrato hidroalcoólico e a fração acetetato de etila de *Manilkara subsericea* mostrou serem tóxicos para *B. glabrata* com um tempo de exposição de 96 horas ($CL_{50} = 118,70$ e $23,41 \mu\text{g/mL}$, respectivamente). Três substâncias isoladas desse mesmo vegetal, queracetina, miracetina e ácido ursólico, também mostraram ser tóxicas para a mesma espécie de caramujo mencionado anteriormente ($CL_{50} = 1,57$, $0,05$ e $0,08 \mu\text{g/mL}$, respectivamente) (FARIA *et al.*, 2018). Os extratos de hexânico e etanólico das folhas, metanólico do caule, e o ácido caurenóico de *Croton floribundus* também apresentaram ação moluscicida contra *B. glabrata*, com valores de CL_{50} de $37,4$, $14,8$, $4,2$ e $1,16 \mu\text{g/mL}$, respectivamente (MEDINA *et al.*, 2009). Além disso, extrato aquoso de *Moringa oleifera* apresentou efeito tóxico para *B. glabrata* com um tempo de exposição de 24 horas ($CL_{50} = 2,37 \text{ mg/mL}$) (ROCHA-FILHO *et al.*, 2015). Por sua vez, a ação moluscicida de OEs será abordada no tópico 2.7.3.

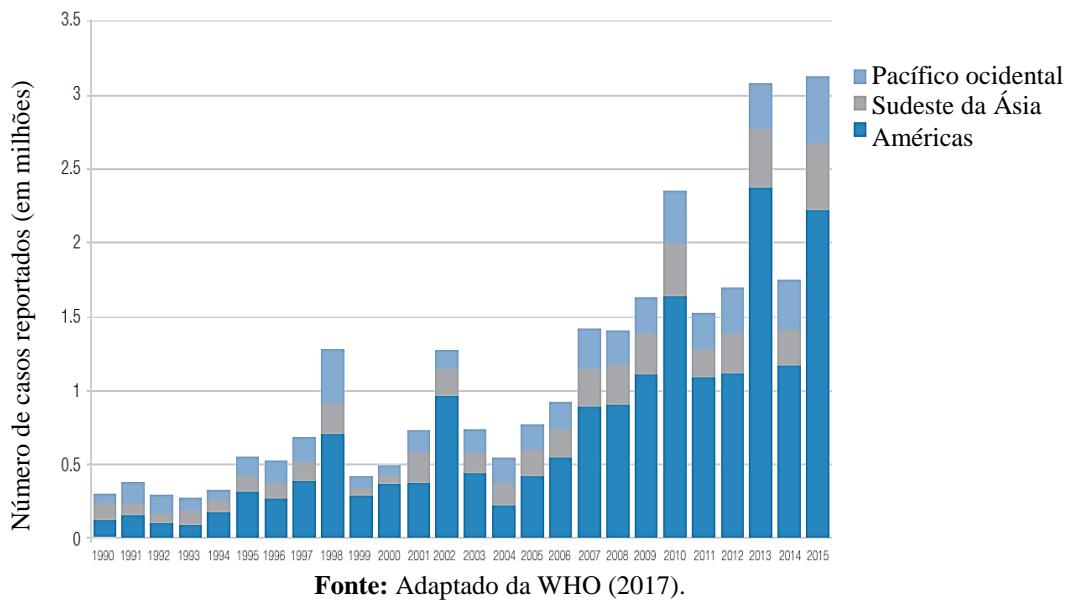
2.4 DENGUE

2.4.1 Aspectos gerais e epidemiológicos da dengue

A dengue é uma arbovirose que causa sérios problemas de saúde e econômicos nas regiões tropicais e subtropicais (CHURAKOV *et al.*, 2019). O seu vírus é transmitido por mosquitos, principalmente da espécie *Aedes aegypti* e, em menor extensão, *Aedes albopictus* (WHO, 2017; WHO, 2019a).

A incidência dessa doença cresceu drasticamente em todo o mundo nas últimas décadas, como mostra a Figura 15. Além disso, acredita-se que o número real de casos dessa doença seja subnotificado, pois a maioria deles são assintomáticos ou classificados erroneamente (WHO, 2019a).

Figura 15 - Casos de dengue notificados à OMS, por região, 1990–2015.



Fonte: Adaptado da WHO (2017).

A cada ano, cerca de 390 milhões de casos de dengue são notificadas, dos quais 96 milhões se manifestam clinicamente com qualquer gravidade da doença. Ao mesmo tempo, estima-se que 3,9 bilhões de pessoas, em 128 países, estão em risco de infecção pelo vírus da dengue (WHO, 2019a).

Atualmente, ela é endêmica em mais de 100 países nas regiões da África, Américas, Mediterrâneo Oriental, Sudeste Asiático e Pacífico Ocidental, e se tornou uma das principais causas de hospitalização e morte entre crianças e adultos nessas regiões (WHO, 2019a).

Acredita-se que a dengue seja endêmica em muitas partes do continente Africano por causa da presença da doença e a alta prevalência de anticorpos contra o vírus da dengue em investigações sorológicas. Atualmente, 22 países da África, como Angola, República da Maurícia, Moçambique, República Unida da Tanzânia e Burkina Faso, notificaram surtos de dengue (WHO, 2017).

Estima-se que mais de 1,8 bilhões de pessoas estejam em risco de contrair a doença nos países da Ásia-Pacífico. Em 2015, mais de 450 mil casos de dengue foram notificados nessa região. Na Europa, a transmissão local do vírus foi relatada pela primeira vez na Croácia e na França em 2010. Foi relatado um surto na ilha da Madeira (Portugal) em 2012 resultou em mais de dois mil casos e importação de casos em 17 outros países europeus. A transmissão autóctone da dengue foi relatada duas vezes no sul da França em 2015 (WHO, 2017).

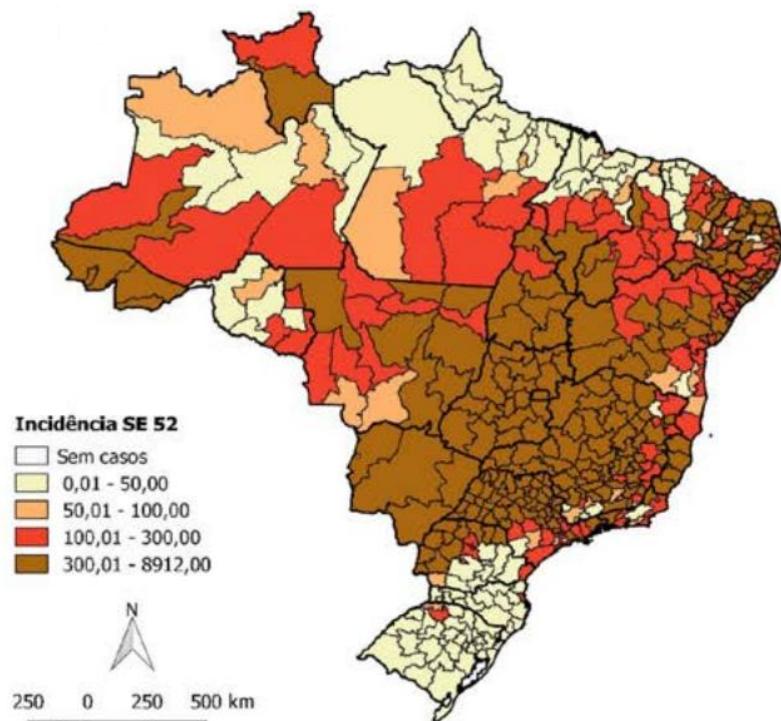
Por sua vez, na região do Pacífico Ocidental, em 2015, mais de 44 mil casos de dengue foram relatados, com uma taxa de letalidade de 0,22%. A maior incidência desses casos nessa região foi nas Filipinas, no Camboja e na Malásia. No Mediterrâneo Oriental há relatado de

dengue nas duas décadas. Essa doença está emergindo como um grande problema de saúde pública no Paquistão, na Arábia Saudita e no Iêmen, com repetidos surtos em centros urbanos (WHO, 2017).

Entre os anos 1960 de 1970 a transmissão dos vírus da dengue foi interrompida em grande parte da Região das Américas, após campanhas para erradicar *A. aegypti*. No entanto, como a vigilância de vetores não foi mantida, os mosquitos prosperaram e surtos de dengue ocorreram no Caribe e nas Américas Central e do Sul (WHO, 2017). Entre os anos de 2001 a 2009, cerca de 30 países das Américas notificaram mais de 6 milhões casos de dengue, nos quais quase 181 mil deles foram de dengue hemorrágica com aproximadamente 2500 mortes. A Venezuela, Brasil, Costa Rica, Colômbia, Honduras e México foram responsáveis por mais de 75% de todos os casos na região (WHO, 2010). Atualmente, essa região vem relatando o maior número de casos de dengue, porém, apresentando menor taxa de letalidade de todas as regiões da OMS (WHO, 2017). Em 2016, foram notificados mais de 2,3 milhões casos dessa doença na região das Américas, onde o Brasil contribuiu com pouco menos de 1,5 milhões de casos (WHO, 2019a).

O Brasil possui relatos de dengue em todos os 27 estados, concentrando-se nas regiões Sudeste, Centro-oeste, Nordeste e Norte (Figura 16) (BRASIL, 2020c).

Figura 16 - Situação epidemiológica da dengue no Brasil em 2019.



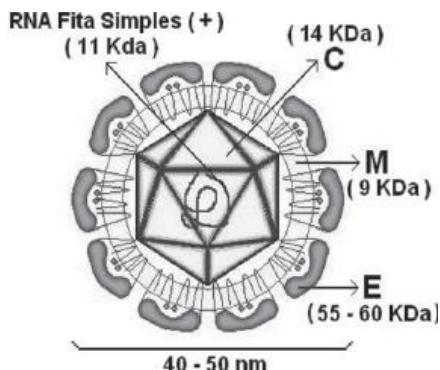
Fonte: Brasil (2020c).

2.4.2 O vírus da dengue e sua transmissão

A dengue é causada por um arbovírus da família Flaviviridae e do gênero *Flavivirus* (BIASSOTTI *et al.*, 2017). Esse vírus possui RNA de polaridade positiva como material genético e contém cerca 11.000 nucleotídeos que codificam três tipos diferentes de moléculas de proteínas (C, M e E) que formam a partícula viral. O vírus da dengue (DENV) tem formato esférico e diâmetro de 40 a 60 nanômetros (nm) (Figura 17) (DETTOGNI; LOURO, 2017).

No momento foram identificados quatro sorotipos para o vírus causador da dengue (DENV-1, DENV-2, DENV-3 E DENV-4). Quando uma pessoa é infectada por um dos quatro sorotipos, torna-se imune a todos os tipos de vírus durante alguns meses e em seguida mantém-se imune, pelo resto da vida, ao tipo pelo qual foi infectado. Além disso, infecções subsequentes (infecção secundária) por outros sorotipos aumentam o risco de desenvolvimento de dengue grave, também conhecida como dengue hemorrágica (WHO, 2019a).

Figura 17 - Morfologia do vírion de um *Flavivirus*.



Nota: Kda: quilodaltons; C: proteína do capsídeo; M: proteína da membrana; E: proteína do envelope; nm: nanômetros.

Fonte: Dettogni e Louro (2017).

A transmissão do DENV ocorre através da picada de mosquitos fêmeas do gênero *Aedes*, que adquire o vírus enquanto se alimenta do sangue de uma pessoa infectada (BIASSOTTI *et al.*, 2017). Dentro do mosquito, o vírus infecta intestino e depois se espalha para as glândulas salivares durante um período de 8 a 12 dias. Após esse período, o vírus pode ser transmitido para seres humanos durante a alimentação (WHO, 2019b). Por isso, os indivíduos sintomáticos ou assintomáticos infectados são os principais multiplicadores do vírus, servindo como fonte do vírus para os mosquitos não infectados. Também há registro de transmissão por transfusão sanguínea. Na gravidez, a infecção pelo vírus da dengue não passa da grávida para feto, porém

pode ocasionar aborto ou parto prematuro. Além do mais, as gestantes têm maior chance de desenvolver o quadro grave dessa doença (BRASIL, 2019a).

2.4.3 Aspectos clínicos, diagnóstico e tratamento da dengue

Os sintomas, formas de diagnóstico e tratamento da dengue estão descritos na tabela abaixo (Tabela 3).

Tabela 3 - Sintomas, diagnóstico e tratamento da dengue.

Sintomas	Diagnóstico	Tratamento
Febre alta (39 a 40 °C), dor de cabeça, dores no corpo e articulações, prostração, fraqueza, vômito, dor atrás dos olhos, erupção, coceira na pele, manifestações hemorrágicas e colapso circulatório (nas formas grave da doença).	Exames laboratoriais de sorologia, biologia molecular e isolamento viral.	Analgésicos e antitérmicos, hidratação (oral ou venosa), e internação hospitalar (para paciente com a forma grave da doença).

Fonte: WHO (2019a) e Brasil (2019ab).

A infecção por dengue pode ser assintomática, leve ou grave, e raramente causa a morte. No entanto, idosos e pessoas com doença crônica - como diabetes e hipertensão - têm maior risco de desenvolver dengue grave e outras complicações que podem levar à morte (WHO, 2019a; BRASIL, 2019b).

2.4.4 Estratégias de controle e prevenção da dengue

Atualmente, a forma mais eficiente de prevenção da dengue é a erradicação dos mosquitos vetores, uma vez que, a vacina disponível para a dengue possui várias contraindicações (AGUIAR *et al.*, 2016) e ainda não está disponível no sistema único de saúde (SUS) (DOMINGUES; GARCIA, 2020). No momento, outra vacina contra dengue está sendo desenvolvida pelo Instituto Butantan. Essa vacina que encontra-se em fase de teste, e até o presente momento é considerada potencialmente eficaz (INSTITUTO BUTANTAN, 2020).

No Brasil, o controle do mosquito *A. aegypti* é feito por forma mecânica, biológica e química (BRASIL, 2019b). O controle mecânico do vetor da dengue compreende ações preventivas simples, eficazes e integradas, como a eliminação de água armazenada em

possíveis criadouros (ex.: em vasos de plantas, pneus, garrafas plásticas, piscinas sem uso e sem manutenção, tampas de garrafas, entre outros) (BRASIL, 2019b) e ações que diminuem o contato do mosquito com o homem, através de telas em portas e janelas (ZARA, 2016), e uso de mosquiteiros (BRASIL, 2019b). O controle biológico utiliza parasitas, patógenos ou predadores naturais para o controle de populações do vetor, como o peixes que comem as larvas do mosquito *A. aegypti*. Por sua vez, o controle químico é realizado através do uso de inseticidas sintéticos das classes dos carbamatos, piretróides e organofosforados para controlar as diferentes fases dos insetos, como as larvas e mosquitos adultos (BRASIL, 2020b). No entanto, o uso de inseticidas sintéticos traz várias desvantagens, como eliminação de espécies não alvo, desenvolvimento de populações resistentes, além do alto custo (ZARA, 2016).

Algumas pesquisas relatam que materiais vegetais apresentam atividades inseticidas frente ao *A. aegypti*. Como por exemplo, os extratos de hexano, acetato de etila, metanol e etanol de *Crotalaria pallida* mostraram ser tóxicos para larvas de *A. aegypti* com um tempo de exposição de 24 horas. As CL₅₀ foram de 366,16, 346,27, 262,02, 245,79 mg/mL, respectivamente. Além disso, os extratos metanólico e etanólico inibiram a eclosão de ovos de *A. aegypti* (TAKAGI *et al.*, 2020). O OE de *Aniba rosaeodora* também apresentou efeito tóxico para larvas de *A. aegypti* com um tempo de exposição de 24 horas, a CL₅₀ foi de 41,07 µg/mL (FERREIRA *et al.*, 2020)

Nos tópicos anteriores foi mostrado os aspectos gerais, epidemiológicos, sintomas, diagnóstico, tratamento e estratégias de controle e prevenção da dengue. Por sua vez, o próximo tópico abordará o principal vetor da dengue: a espécie *A. aegypti*

2.5 A ESPÉCIE *A. aegypti*

A. aegypti (Figura 18) é um inseto que pertence a família Culicidae e que se originou no continente africano e, provavelmente, dispersou-se para América no período colonial. Esses mosquitos encontram-se distribuídos nas regiões tropicais e subtropicais, e possuem uma grande capacidade de dispersão e adaptação ao meio, além disso, eles podem ser encontrados em áreas urbanas, suburbanas e rurais (SILVA *et al.*, 2018; TOLLE, 2009).

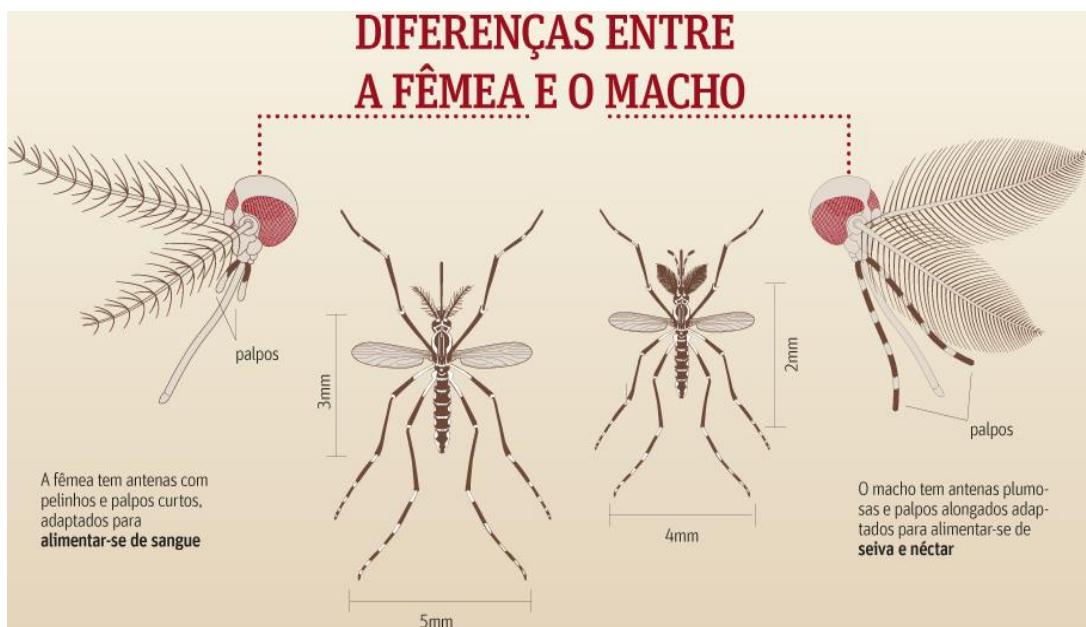
Na fase adulta de *A. aegypti* ocorre dimorfismo sexual, onde há diferença no tamanho dos mosquitos, nas antenas e no aparelho bucal. As fêmeas são maiores que os machos; possuem antenas pilosas, enquanto os machos possuem antenas plumosas; e o aparelho bucal das fêmeas é modificado para se alimentar de sangue, já a aparelho bucal dos machos é modificado para alimentação de néctar (Figura 19) (ZETTEL; KAUFMAN, 2020).

Figura 18 - Mosquitos de *A. aegypti* (Linnaeus, 1762).



Fonte: CDC (2020).

Figura 19 - Dimorfismo sexual em mosquito *A. aegypti* adulto.



Fonte: Marques (2020).

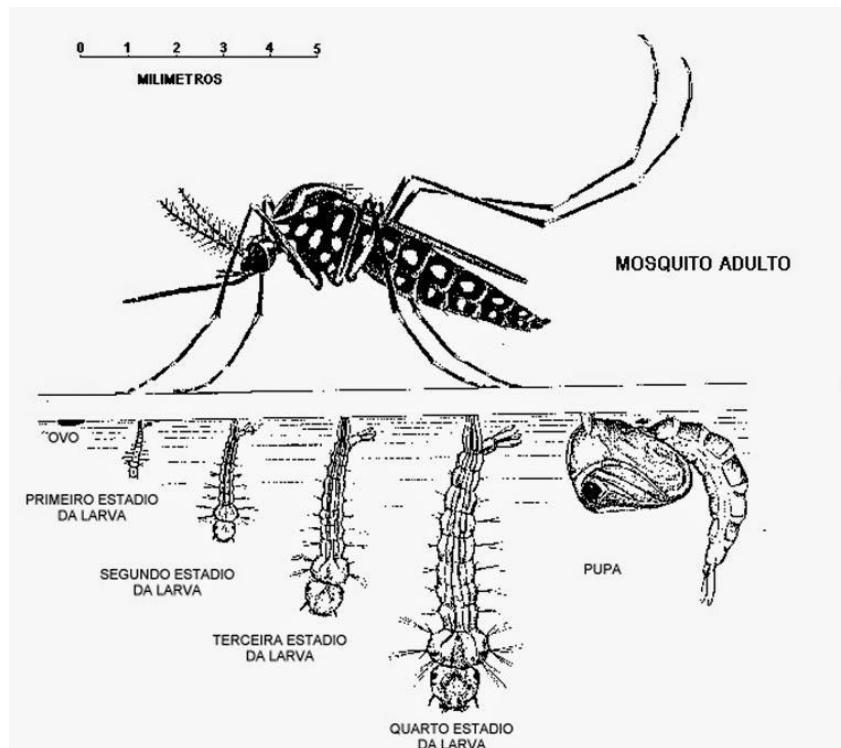
2.5.1 Ciclo de vida do *A. aegypti*

O ciclo de vida completo desse inseto é composto por quatro fases, ovo, larva, pupa e mosquito adulto (Figura 20) (SILVA *et al.*, 2018), na qual as fases de larva e pupa requerem um ambiente com água parada para seu desenvolvimento (BRASIL, 2019a). Esse ciclo varia de acordo com a temperatura, disponibilidade de alimentos e quantidade de larvas existentes no mesmo criadouro. Em condições ambientais favoráveis, leva um período de sete a dez dias da eclosão do ovo até o desenvolvimento do mosquito adulto (BRASIL, 2019c).

Após a cópula, as fêmeas de *A. aegypti* precisam realizar a hematofagia para o desenvolvimento e maturação completa dos ovos (Figura 21A). Geralmente, elas fazem oviposição três dias após a ingestão de sangue, e os ovos são postos em superfícies próximas a locais com água parada. Eles medem cerca de 1 mm de comprimento e possuem contorno

alongado e fusiforme. Mesmo sendo necessário água para a eclosão dos ovos, parte deles podem ficar viáveis por mais de 450 dias sem ter contato com água (BRASIL, 2020d).

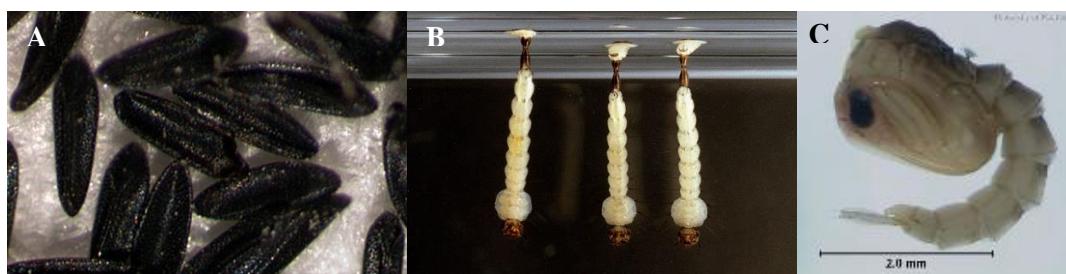
Figura 20 - Ciclo de vida do *A. aegypti*.



Fonte: Santos (2016).

Após a cópula, as fêmeas de *A. aegypti* precisam realizar a hematofagia para o desenvolvimento e maturação completa dos ovos (Figura 21A). Geralmente, elas fazem oviposição três dias após a ingestão de sangue, e os ovos são postos em superfícies próximas a locais com água parada. Eles medem cerca de 1 mm de comprimento e possuem contorno alongado e fusiforme. Mesmo sendo necessário água para a eclosão dos ovos, parte deles podem ficar viáveis por mais de 450 dias sem ter contato com água (BRASIL, 2020d).

Figura 21 - Ovos, larvas e pupa de *A. aegypti*.



Fonte: Brasil (2020d), Zettel e Kaufma (2020).

Após a eclosão dos ovos, as larvas (Figura 21B) se alimentam de partículas orgânicas presentes na água, e elas passam por quatro instares (L1, L2, L3 e L4). O primeiro ínstare (L1) surge após eclosão do ovo. Os instares L2 e L3 caracterizam-se por constante alimentação. Por sua vez, no final do quarto e último ínstare (L4), a larva cessa sua alimentação para a transformação em pupa (BRASIL, 2020d).

A fase de pupa (Figura 21C) caracteriza-se por ser uma etapa de transição entre o ambiente aquático e o terrestre (FORATTINI, 2002). Normalmente, as pupas transformam-se em adultos após cerca de 48h. Os mosquitos adultos apresentam coloração escura e o tórax revestido por escamas escuras e branco-prateadas, o abdômen escurecido com manchas anelares branco-prateadas e as pernas traseiras possuem faixas brancas semelhantes a listras (Figura 18) (CLEMONS *et al.*, 2010).

2.5.2 Outras doenças transmitidas pelo *A. aegypti*

A febre amarela, chikungunya e zika são doenças causadas por vírus que, assim como a dengue, são transmitidas pelo *A. aegypti*. Elas causam sintomas similares em humanos, como febre alta de 4 a 12 dias e dor nas articulações. No entanto, cada uma tem sua patologia única, com altas taxas de mortalidade para febre amarela, mas raramente por chikungunya e zika (SOUZA-NETO *et al.*, 2019).

A febre amarela é uma doença infecciosa, não contagiosa, de curta duração (no máximo de 12 dias) e de gravidade variável (CAVALCANTE; TAUÍL, 2017). Em áreas urbanas a disseminação dessa doença ocorre através da picada de mosquitos *A. aegypti* infectados pelo vírus da febre amarela. Os sintomas mais frequentes incluem febre, calafrios, dor de cabeça, dor no corpo, náuseas, vômitos, fraqueza e fadiga (BRASIL, 2020e). As formas graves dessa doença é caracterizada por insuficiência hepática e renal, e hemorragia, podendo levar a morte (CAVALCANTE; TAUÍL, 2017). A principal ferramenta de prevenção e controle da febre amarela é a vacina, que está disponível no sistema único de saúde (BRASIL, 2020e).

A Chikungunya se caracteriza por febre, dor articular intensa e debilitante, cefaleia e mialgia. Essa doença possui alguns sintomas semelhantes aos da dengue, mas se diferencia da mesma pela poliartrite/artralgia simétrica (principalmente nos punhos, tornozelos e cotovelos), que normalmente melhora após 10 dias, no entanto, pode durar meses (DONALISIO; FREITAS, 2015). O nome Chikungunya significa "aquele que se curva", no idioma africano Makonde, em razão posição antalgica que os pacientes adquirem durante o período de doença (HONÓRIO *et al.*, 2015). Além disso, algumas pessoas podem desenvolver quadros mais

graves com manifestações neurológicas, como encefalite, meningoencefalite, mielite e síndrome Guillain-Barré, cutâneas bolhosas e miocardite (DONALISIO; FREITAS, 2015).

O vírus da zika, além de ser transmitidos por *A. aegypti* e *A. albopictus*, também pode ser transmitido por transfusão sanguínea, via sexual e pela grávida ao feto (LUZ *et al.* 2015). Os sintomas mais comuns dessa doença são manchas vermelhas na pele, dor articular, conjuntivite, dor de cabeça e febre, que persistem por aproximadamente 7 dias (BRASIL, 2019c). Algumas complicações podem manifestar com a infecção por zika vírus, como a síndrome de Guillain-Barré. A infecção por zika vírus em mulheres grávidas também pode levar a morte fetal, insuficiência placentária, restrição de crescimento fetal e microcefalia congênita (WHO, 2020). Entre março de 2015 e abril de 2016, mais de 5000 casos de microcefalia foram relatados entre recém-nascidos no Brasil, em decorrência ao surto de zika no país (SCHRAM, 2016).

Diante do que foi mostrado, o uso de materiais vegetais vem recebendo grandes incentivos para o combate tanto aos moluscos causadores da esquistossomose quanto para o combate ao mosquito *A. aegypti*. Diversas plantas vem sendo testadas como possíveis agentes moluscicidas e inseticidas (FARIAS *et al.*, 2018; ROCHA-FILHO *et al.*, 2015; DIAS *et al.*, 2013), porém pouco se sabe sobre seus metabolitos ativos.

2.6 METABÓLITOS SECUNDÁRIOS DOS VEGETAIS

O Reino Vegetal possui uma grande diversidade de espécies que podem ser empregadas como alternativas na síntese de produtos químicos utilizados para diversos fins (WINK, 2015), como no controle de insetos pragas (RIBEIRO *et al.*, 2020; SANTOS *et al.*, 2017), vetores de doenças (PAVELA; BENELLI, 2016), bem como no tratamento de diversas enfermidades (BRUSOTTI *et al.*, 2014). Dessa maneira, estudos sobre essas potenciais fontes de compostos biologicamente ativos são necessárias (RIBEIRO, 2016a).

Os vegetais possuem dois metabolismos responsáveis pela produção de metabólitos com diferentes funções, são eles: (i) metabólitos primários e (ii) metabólitos secundários. Os primários são substâncias imprescindíveis ao desenvolvimento e sobrevivência dos organismos, e desempenham funções essenciais no vegetal, como, fotossíntese, respiração e transporte de soluto. Além do mais, os compostos envolvidos no metabolismo primário possuem uma distribuição universal nas plantas (ANULIKA *et al.*, 2016; VERMA; SHUKLA, 2015), por exemplo, açúcares, proteínas, ácidos nucléicos, lipídios.

Por outro lado, os metabólitos secundários podem estar presentes ou não nos vegetais dependendo das variáveis ecológicas (ANULIKA *et al.*, 2016; VERMA; SHUKLA, 2015). Eles desempenham um papel importante nas interações entre as plantas e o ambiente, como na defesa contra herbívoros, patógenos, e estresses ambientais, bem como, na atração de polinizadores e microrganismos simbiontes (ZAYNAB *et al.*, 2018; VERMA; SHUKLA, 2015). Esses compostos podem ser armazenados em vacúolos ou em algumas estruturas secretoras, como por exemplo, tricomas e ductos de resina (PAVELA; BENELLI, 2016). Além disso, esses metabólitos secundários possuem uma contribuição significante nas indústrias farmacêutica, nutricional e cosmética (VERMA; SHUKLA, 2015), e alguns deles são específicos de gêneros e espécies podendo ser utilizados como caracteres taxonômicos na classificação das plantas (AHARONI; GALILI, 2011).

A síntese de metabólitos secundários está intimamente associada a vias de metabolismo primário, como a glicólise, a via do chiquimato, ciclo do ácido tricarboxílico e produção de aminoácidos aromáticos e alifáticos (AHARONI; GALILI, 2011). No entanto, a extração, purificação e caracterização dos metabólitos secundários ainda é um grande desafio no processo de descoberta de novos compostos bioativos, uma vez que, esses metabólitos estão presentes em pequenas quantidades no material vegetal (BRUSOTTI *et al.*, 2014).

Dentre as substâncias sintetizadas pelos vegetais como metabólitos secundários, encontram-se os componentes dos OEs (BAKKALI *et al.*, 2008), o qual será abordado mais a frente.

2.6.1 Biossíntese de metabólitos secundários em vegetais

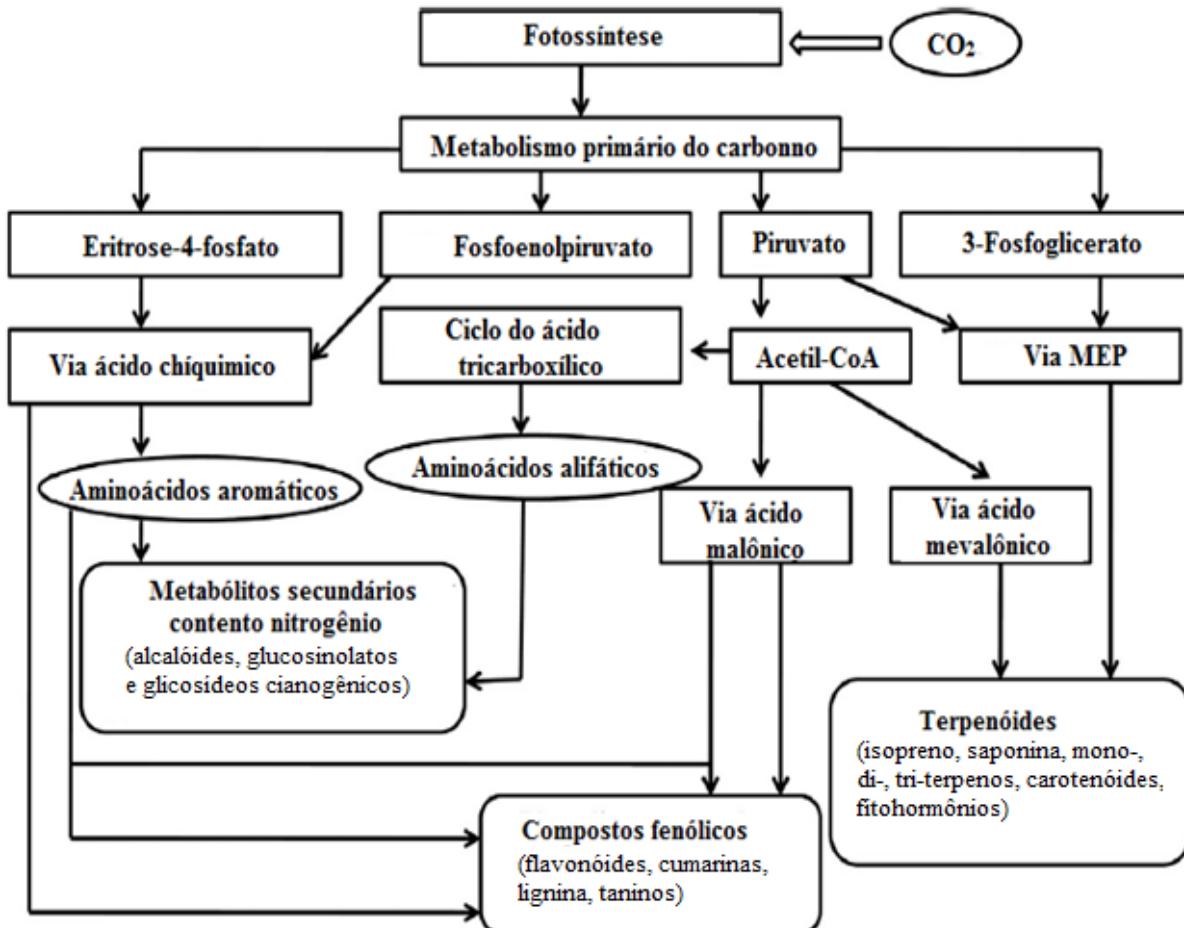
Os metabólitos secundários dos vegetais podem ser divididos em três grupos quimicamente distintos, são eles: terpenos, compostos fenólicos (fenilpropanóides e flavonóides) e compostos nitrogenados (alcalóides, glicosídeos cianogênicos e glucosinolatos) (ANULIKA *et al.*, 2016; VERMA; SHUKLA, 2015). A Figura 22 mostra o esboço geral das vias de biossíntese dos metabólitos secundários em vegetais.

2.6.1.1 Terpenos

Os terpenos ou terpenóides são considerados o maior grupo de metabólitos secundários dos vegetais, e normalmente são insolúveis em água. Eles são formados pela fusão de unidades de cinco carbonos (unidade de isopreno) (Figura 23), e classificados de acordo com número

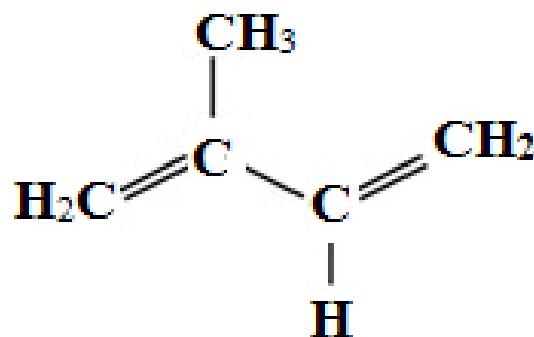
dessas unidades que se ligam entre si, como mostra a Tabela 4 (ANULIKA *et al.*, 2016; VERMA; SHUKLA, 2015; WINK, 2015).

Figura 22 - Esboço geral das vias de biossíntese dos metabólitos secundários em vegetais.



Fonte: Verma e Shukla (2015).

Figura 23 - Estrutura química do isopreno (C_5H_8).



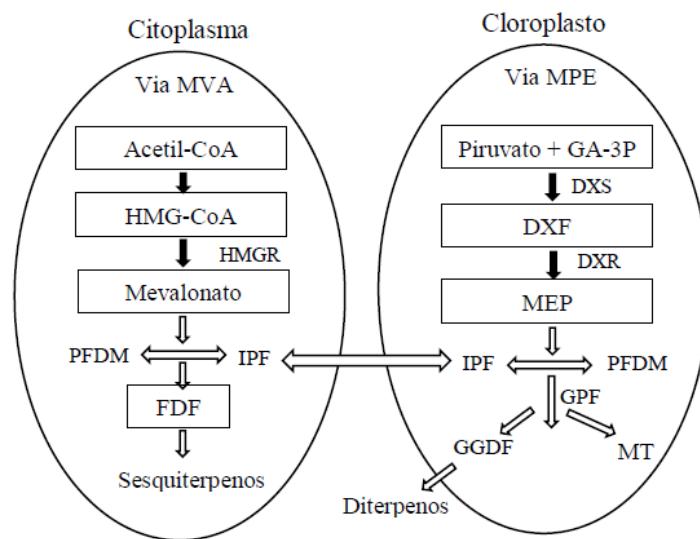
Fonte: Ribeiro (2016a).

Tabela 4 - Classificação dos terpenos encontrados nos vegetais.

Número de unidades de isopreno	Número de átomos de carbono	Classe	Exemplos
1	5	Isopreno	Cadeia lateral das citocininas
2	10	Monoterpenos	Óleos essenciais
3	15	Sesquiterenos	Ácido abscísico
4	20	Diterpenos	Giberelina e paclitaxel
6	30	Triterpenos	Brassinoesteróide e saponinas
8	40	Tetraterpenos	Carotenoides e xantofilas
N	N	Politerpenos	Borracha

Fonte: adaptado de Anulika *et al.* (2016), Verma e Shukla (2015), e Wink (2015).

Os terpenos são sintetizados a partir de duas vias metabólicas distintas. A primeira via ocorre no citoplasma através do mevalonato ou ácido mevalônico (em inglês: MVA, mevalonate). A segunda nos cloroplastos pelo metileritritol 4-fosfato (em inglês: MEP, methylerythritol 4-phosphate) derivado piruvato ou 3-fosglicerato (Figura 24) (PAVELA; BENELLI, 2016; VERMA; SHUKLA, 2015; WINK, 2015).

Figura 24 - Vias do Mevalonato (MVA) e metileritritol 4-fosfato (MPE).

Nota: HMG-CoA: 3-hidroxi-3-metilglutaril coenzima A; HMGR: 3-hidroxi-3-metilglutaril redutase; PFDM: pirofosfato de dimetilalilo; IPF: isopentenil pirofosfato; FDP: farnesil difosfato; GA-3P: gliceraldeído-3-fosfato; DXS: 1-desoxi-D-xilulose 5-fosfato sintase; DXF: 1 desoxi-D-xilulose 5-fosfato; DXR: 1-desoxi-D-xilulose 5-fosfato reductoisomerase; GPF: geranyl pirofosfato; GGDF geranilgeranil difosfato; MT: monoterpenos.

Fonte: Adaptado de Pavela e Benelli (2016).

Os terpenos desempenham um importante papel defensivo nas plantas, pois muitos deles são tóxicos e possuem efeito deterrente na alimentação de insetos e mamíferos herbívoros (ANULIKA *et al.*, 2016). Alguns deles ainda desempenham um papel importante no crescimento das plantas, como por exemplo, giberelinas (diterpeno), esteróis (triterpenos), carotenóides (tetraterpenos) e ácido abscísico (sesquiterpenos) (VERMA; SHUKLA, 2015). Além disso, estudos mostraram que eles interagem com as membranas celulares, aumentando a fluidez e a permeabilidade dessas membranas, podendo ocasionar o fluxo descontrolado de íons e metabólitos, e até mesmo o vazamento das células resultando em morte celular por necrose ou apoptose (WINK, 2015).

2.6.1.2 Compostos fenólicos

Considerados o segundo principal grupo de metabólitos secundários de plantas, os compostos fenólicos são formados por pelo menos um anel aromático com no mínimo um grupamento hidroxila (OH-). Esses compostos podem ser sintetizados por duas rotas metabólicas são elas: a do ácido malônico e a do ácido chiquímico (Figura 22). A rota do ácido malônico é altamente significativa em bactérias e fungos, mas é menos comum em plantas superiores. Por sua vez, a via ácido chiquímico é mais comum nos vegetais, sendo ela responsável pela biossíntese da maioria dos compostos fenólicos nesses organismos (VERMA; SHUKLA, 2015; RIBEIRO, 2016a).

Esses compostos exercem funções importantes nos vegetais, incluindo crescimento, defesa contra diferentes estresses bióticos ou abióticos, e reprodução. Eles também podem ser utilizados como um indicador de estresse, uma vez que, há um aumento na síntese de compostos fenólicos em vegetais expostos a produtos químicos e condições de estresse (RIBEIRO, 2016a; VERMA; SHUKLA, 2015).

2.6.1.3 Compostos nitrogenados

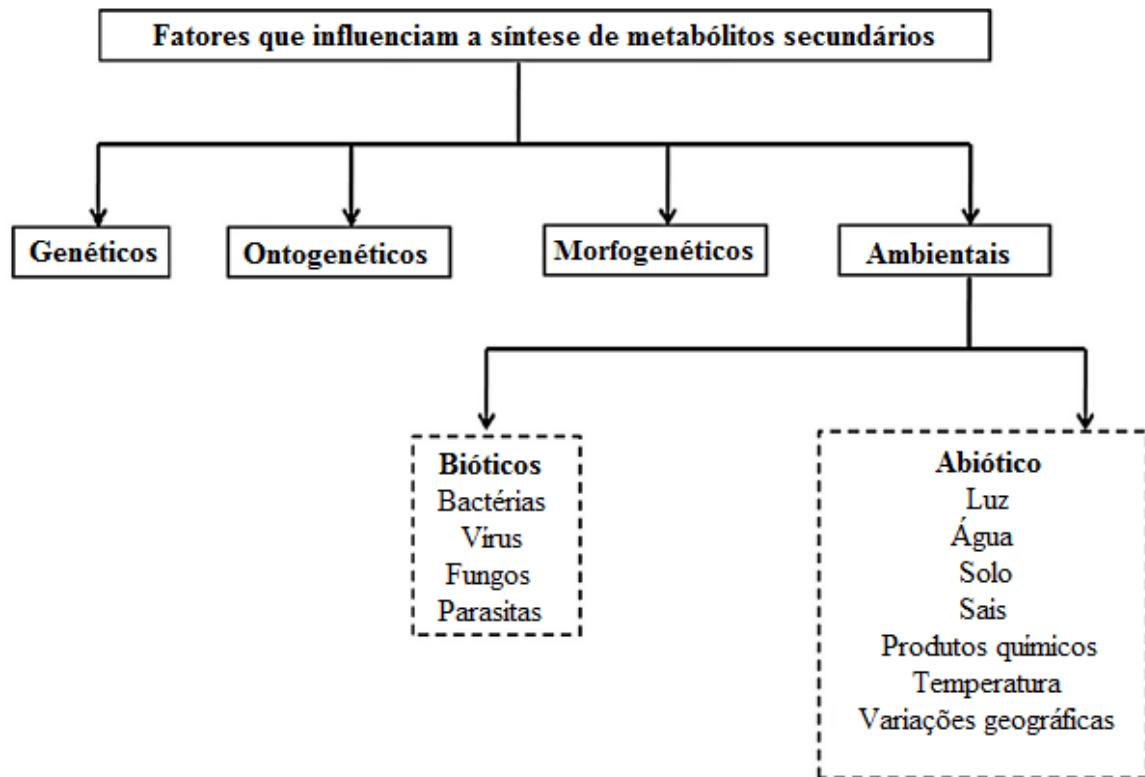
Os compostos contendo nitrogênio representam a terceira classe de metabólitos secundários. Glicosídeos cianogênicos, glucosinolatos e alcaloides são exemplos desses compostos. Eles são sintetizados tanto a partir de alguns aminoácidos aromáticos, como tirosina e triptofano (ambos derivados do ácido chiquímico) quanto aminoácidos alifáticos como a ornitina e lisina (VERMA; SHUKLA, 2015). Alguns compostos nitrogenados encontrados nos

vegetais, como glicosídeos cianogênicos e glucosinolatos, fazem parte do sistema de defesa desses organismos (ANULIKA *et al.*, 2016).

2.6.2 Fatores que influenciam a biossíntese de metabólitos secundários

Como mostra a Figura 25, a síntese dos metabólitos secundários é influenciada por quatro principais fatores. Dentre eles, os genéticos, ontogenéticos, morfogenéticos e ambientais, como detalhados a seguir.

Figura 25 - Fatores que afetam a síntese dos metabólitos secundários em vegetais.



Fonte: Verma e Shukla (2015).

2.6.2.1 Fatores genéticos

A síntese das enzimas utilizadas nas rotas metabólicas dos produtos naturais está diretamente relacionada com o código genético (processos de transcrição e tradução). Então, se houver alguma alteração nos genes do vegetal isso pode acarretar a síntese de diferentes enzimas que vão catalizar diferentes reações metabólicas e gerar um metabólito secundário distinto (RIBEIRO, 2016a; VERMA; SHUKLA, 2015).

2.6.2.2 Fatores ontogenéticos

A ontogenia é toda a sequência de eventos envolvidos no desenvolvimento de um organismo. Os vegetais passam por diversos estágios de desenvolvimento, que começam a partir da semente, seguido por estágio de plântulas, juvenil, de maturação e termina no estágio de senescência (VERMA; SHUKLA, 2015). Durante essas diferentes fases, os vegetais possuem necessidades distintas, como proteção, atração de polinizadores e dispersores de sementes, que influencia diretamente a síntese e a acumulação de metabólitos secundários.

2.6.2.3 Fatores morfogenéticos

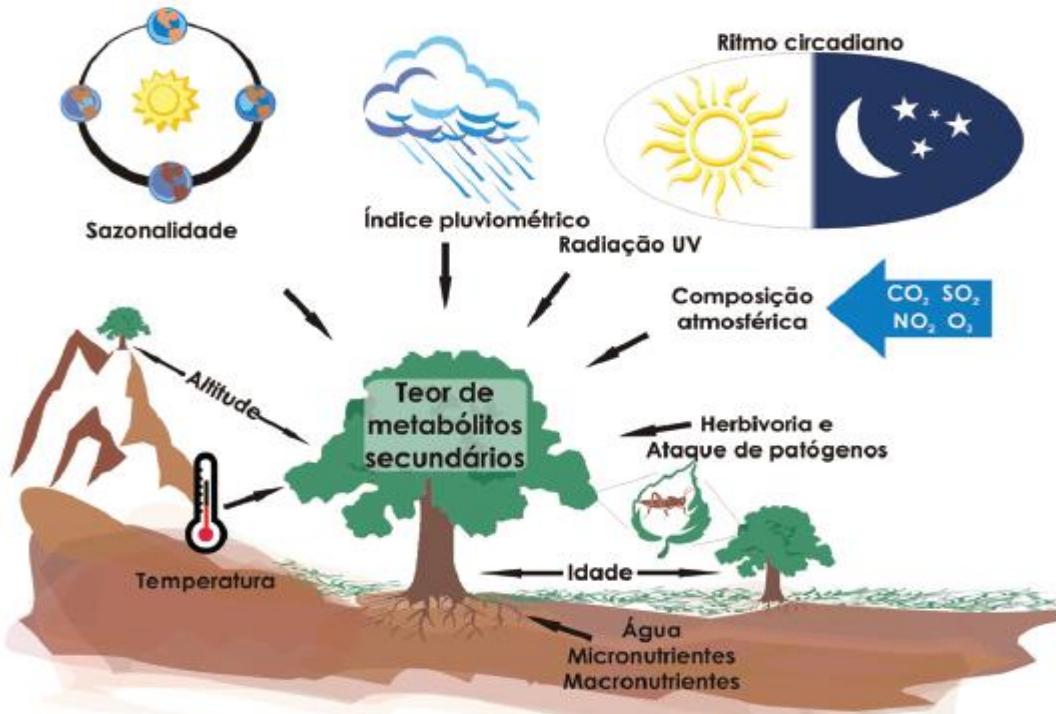
Os vegetais possuem tecidos com funções especializadas, como armazenamento, secreção, suporte e transporte. De acordo com Verma e Shukla (2015), diferentes tecidos possuem vias metabólicas distintas, e consequentemente metabólitos secundários diferentes. Sendo assim, a biossíntese de determinado metabólito pode estar restrita a um tecido específico (RIBEIRO, 2016a).

2.6.2.4 Fatores ambientais

As plantas interagem com o ambiente para sua sobrevivência e são influenciadas por vários fatores ambientais, incluindo estímulos abióticos e bióticos que regulam a síntese de metabólicos secundários (VERMA; SHUKLA, 2015).

- Fatores abióticos: os vegetais interagem com o ambiente e entram em contato com diversos fatores abióticos, como mostra a Figura 26, que influenciam o desenvolvimento e a sobrevivência dos mesmos. Um desequilíbrio entre esses componentes pode causar estresses e consequentemente alterar a produção e acúmulo de metabólitos secundários (VERMA; SHUKLA, 2015).
- Fatores bióticos: os vegetais são fisicamente atacados por muitos agentes biológicos, como bactérias, fungos, nematoides, vírus, entre outros, que causam estresse nas plantas. Para se protegerem desses ataques as plantas utilizam seus alguns dos seus metabólitos secundários que possuem atividades antimicrobianas e inseticidas (VERMA; SHUKLA, 2015).

Figura 26 - Principais fatores ambientais que influenciam a síntese de metabólitos secundários nos vegetais.



Fonte: Gobbo-Neto e Lopes (2007).

2.7 ÓLEOS ESSENCIAIS

2.7.1 Definição, características e importância dos OEs

OEs são misturas lipofílica complexa de metabólitos secundários, constituídas principalmente por monoterpenos e sesquiterpenos. Esses óleos são produzidos e secretados por tricomas glandulares, cavidades e canais secretores que estão difundidos na superfície dos órgãos vegetais, particularmente nas folhas e flores (PAVELA; BENELLI, 2016; SHARIFI-RAD *et al.*, 2017). Eles caracterizam-se por serem líquidos a temperatura ambiente, altamente voláteis, possuírem baixo peso molecular e densidade geralmente mais baixa que a água, na maioria das vezes são límpidos, apresentam forte odor, e normalmente são obtidos por destilação a vapor ou hidrodestilação (BAKKALI *et al.*, 2008; TUREK; STINTZING, 2013).

Os OEs, geralmente, desempenham papéis importantes na defesa dos vegetais contra herbívoros e patógenos (PAVELA; BENELLI, 2016; SHARIFI-RAD *et al.*, 2017). Devido a essas propriedades de defesa, esses óleos são alternativas para uso como pesticidas de origem vegetal (KAMANULA *et al.*, 2017; RIBEIRO *et al.*, 2020), com a finalidade de minimizar os danos ecológicos. Adicionalmente, os OEs são importantes na reprodução das plantas, uma vez

que, o aroma e sabor dos mesmos podem atrair agentes polinizadores e dispersores de sementes (PAVELA; BENELLI, 2016), atuando assim no ciclo de vida do vegetal. Eles também desempenham papel importante na termotolerância dos vegetais, protegendo o aparelho fotossintético e ajudando a manter a atividade fotossintética sob estresse de alta temperatura (PAVELA; BENELLI, 2016).

Além da importância ecológica, os OEs também são importantes na economia, em virtude das suas aplicações nas indústrias de alimentos, cosméticos, farmacêuticas, entre outras. Devido a suas propriedades antioxidante, antimicrobiana, anti-inflamatórias, hidratantes e cicatrizantes os OEs e seus compostos são utilizados na fabricação de perfumes (NOUR, 2018), maquiagens, aditivos alimentares, produtos sanitários e agrícolas (BAKKALI *et al.*, 2008).

Adicionalmente, alguns óleos são empregados na aromaterapia, como os óleos de lavanda e ylang-ylang utilizados no tratamento de estresse, ansiedade e depressão (ALI *et al.*, 2015). Em virtude de alguns OEs possuírem propriedades repelentes, outro importante uso desses óleos é na fabricação de repelentes aplicados sobre a pele (BAKKALI *et al.*, 2008).

2.7.2 Composição química e métodos de extração dos OEs

Os componentes dos OEs podem ser divididos em dois grupos de origens biosintéticas distintas: (i) terpenos, e (ii) constituintes aromáticos, todos caracterizados por baixo peso molecular (Figura 27) (BAKKALI *et al.*, 2008; DHIFI *et al.*, 2016).

Vale ressaltar que a composição química dos OEs é determinada geneticamente, porém, ela pode ser modificada por vários fatores, como parte do vegetal (morfogenéticos), fase de desenvolvimento do vegetal (oncogenéticos), fatores ambientais (abióticos e bióticos) (VERMA; SHUKLA, 2015), quimiotipo, época de colheita, forma de secagem do material, entre outros (BAKKALI *et al.*, 2008).

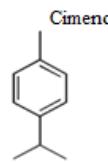
De acordo com Bakkali *et al.* (2008), os OEs podem conter cerca de 20 a 60 compostos em concentrações bastante distintas. Além disso, eles são caracterizados, geralmente, por dois ou três compostos majoritários em concentrações razoavelmente altas (20-70%) em comparação com outros componentes presentes em menores quantidades. Esses compostos majoritários podem estar relacionados com as atividades biológicas presentes nos óleos (BAKKALI *et al.*, 2008). No entanto, outros autores atribuem as atividades biológicas a ação sinérgica entre os compostos (YOU *et al.*, 2014), ou até mesmo a um composto específico (RIBEIRO *et al.*, 2020). Também foi sugerido que a atividade dos compostos majoritários pode ser modulada por outros compostos em menores concentrações (BAKKALI *et al.*, 2008).

Figura 27 - Estrutura química dos componentes dos OEs.

1. Terpenos

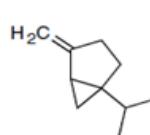
-Monoterpenos

Carboneto monocíclico



Cimeno y

Sabineno



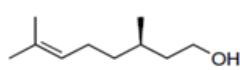
Carboneto bicíclico

Alfa-pineno



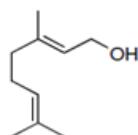
Beta-pineno

Álcool acílico
Citronelol

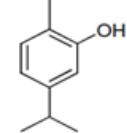


Citronelol

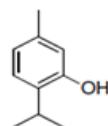
Geraniol



Fenol
Carvacrol

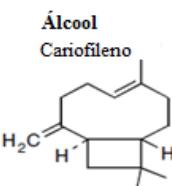
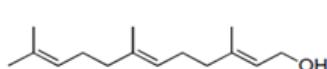


Timol



-Sesquiterpenos

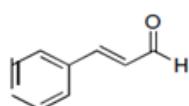
Carboneto
Famesol



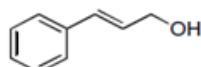
Álcool
Cariofileno

2. Compostos aromáticos

Aldeído
Cinamaldeído

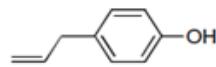


Álcool
Álcool de cinamilo

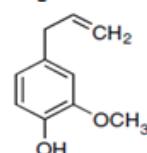


Fenol

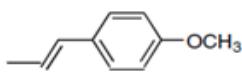
Chavicol



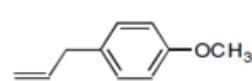
Eugenol



Derivados de metoxi
Anetol

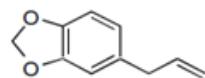


Metil chavicol



Derivados de dioximetileno

Safrol



Fonte: Bakkali *et al.* (2008).

Em relação ao método para identificação química dos componentes dos OEs, a Cromatografia Gasosa acoplada à Espectrometria de Massas (CG-EM) vem sendo utilizada habitualmente em diversos trabalhos (KADHIM *et al.*, 2016; RIBEIRO *et al.*, 2020; SANTOS *et al.*, 2017). Além desse método, a Cromatografia Líquida de Alta Eficiência (CLAE) também pode ser utilizada com a mesma finalidade (RIBEIRO, 2016a).

Os OEs podem ser obtidos por diferentes métodos de extração e é importante ressaltar que as propriedades desses óleos dependem do método de extração utilizado (RIBEIRO, 2016a). Esses métodos podem ser classificados em duas categorias: convencionais/métodos clássicos e inovadores/métodos avançados (ASBAHANI *et al.*, 2015; ROOHINEJAD *et al.*, 2018).

Os métodos convencionais são normalmente baseados na destilação por aquecimento, sendo exemplos de métodos convencionais a hidrodestilação, arraste a vapor e prensagem a frio (ASBAHANI *et al.*, 2015). Por sua vez, os métodos inovadores objetivam reduzir o tempo de extração, uso de solvente, consumo de energia, emissões de CO₂, e ter a maior probabilidade de conservar a composição química dos OEs. Extração por fluido supercrítico, extração assistida por ultrassom e por micro-ondas, são exemplos de alguns métodos inovadores (ASBAHANI *et al.*, 2015).

A hidrodestilação é o método convencional menos complexo utilizado na extração de OEs. Nesse método o material vegetal é aquecido junto com água destilada dentro de um balão de vidro, no qual o vapor, proveniente do aquecimento do material e da água, passa por um condensador e a mistura de água e óleo, previamente condensada, vai para um decantador a fim de ser separada por densidade. Por sua vez, o arraste a vapor é um método clássico baseado no mesmo princípio da hidrodestilação, mas, nesse método não há contato direto entre o material vegetal e água (ASBAHANI *et al.*, 2015).

A prensagem a frio é um método de extração mecânica utilizado na extração de OEs de frutas cítricas. Durante o processo de extração as frutas são prensadas e delas é extraído tanto o OE, que anteriormente estava nas glândulas de armazenamento, quanto o suco. Em seguida, é feita uma centrifugação com a finalidade de separar o OE puro, que pode ser utilizado nas indústrias alimentícias e farmacêuticas, e como aromatizante (ASBAHANI *et al.*, 2015).

A extração por fluido supercrítico baseia-se no uso solventes em estado supercrítico, o que significa que eles estão sujeitos a temperaturas e pressões acima de seu ponto crítico (REYES-JURADO *et al.*, 2015). O dioxido de carbono é um solvente bastante usado na extração por fluido supercrítico de compostos de plantas, pois ele não é tóxico, atinge o estado supercrítico em pressões relativamente baixas e perto da temperatura ambiente, além de não ser inflamável (ASBAHANI *et al.*, 2015). O processo de extração utilizando esse método consiste em duas etapas: (i) extração do componentes solúveis em um solvente supercrítico e (ii) separação dos solutos extraídos do solvente. Essa separação entre os compostos solúveis do solvente supercrítico pode ser realizada modificando as propriedades termodinâmicas do solvente supercrítico, alterando a temperatura ou pressão do sistema, por exemplo (REYES-JURADO *et al.*, 2015).

Na metodologia de ultrassom o material vegetal é imerso em água ou em algum solvente orgânico e, concomitantemente é submetido à ação de ultrassons. Essas ondas de ultrassom induzem a vibração mecânica das paredes e membranas dos vegetais e isso ocasiona a rápida

liberação dos OEs, com uma relativa diminuição na temperatura empregada durante o processo de extração (ASBAHANI *et al.*, 2015; RIBEIRO, 2016a).

Na extração assistida por micro-ondas o aquecimento é instantâneo e ocorre no interior da amostra, levando a extrações muito rápidas. Nesse método a extração ocorre devido a alterações na estrutura celular causadas por ondas eletromagnéticas (REYES-JURADO *et al.*, 2015). A aplicação da extração de OEs usando micro-ondas reduz drasticamente o tempo de extração e o volume de solvente necessário (ASBAHANI *et al.*, 2015).

2.7.3 Uso de OEs no controle dos hospedeiros intermediários da esquistossomose e de *A. aegypti*

Há uma diversidade de vegetais que possuem efeitos tóxicos contra moluscos e insetos, especialmente, entre as espécies da família Euphorbiaceae (PEREIRA *et al.*, 2017). Essas substâncias de origem vegetal, geralmente, são uma alternativa segura, biodegradável e de baixo custo quando comparado com a niclosamida.

Os OEs podem ser uma alternativa para o controle dos hospedeiros intermediários da esquistossomose e dos vetores da dengue, uma vez que, constituem uma fonte rica de compostos bioativos que são, geralmente, biodegradáveis e não-tóxicos, potencialmente adequados para uso em programas de controle (FONTES-JÚNIOR *et al.*, 2012). Vários óleos demonstram efeito tóxico contra os caramujos do gênero *Biomphalaria*, hospedeiros intermediários da esquistossomose, e frente ao *A. aegypti*, como os citados na Tabela 5.

2.8 FAMÍLIA EUPHORBIACEAE

A família Euphorbiaceae é uma das mais complexas, maiores e mais diversas famílias de angiosperma. Ela é composta por cerca de 334 gêneros e mais de 8000 espécies, que estão distribuídas nas regiões tropical e sub-tropical, especialmente na África e América. Essa família é considerada uma importante fonte de compostos bioativos, como terpenos, taninos, alcaloides e esteroides (ISLAM *et al.*, 2019; RAMALHO *et al.*, 2018).

Tabela 5 - OEs com efeito tóxico para os hospedeiros intermediários da esquistossomose e *A. aegypti*

OEs	Parte vegetal/ Família	Efeito tóxico	Referências
<i>Critus limon</i>	Casca do fruta/ Rutaceae	Moluscicida frente a <i>B. glabrata</i> ($CL_{50} = 13,18 \mu\text{g/mL}$).	Jorge (2017)
<i>Croton rhamnifoloides</i>	Folhas/ Euphorbiaceae	Inseticida frente a larvas de <i>A. aegypti</i> no quarto instar ($CL_{50} = 122,35$ e $89,03 \mu\text{g/mL}$, para os OEs fresco e armazenado, respectivamente) e efeito deterrente de oviposição para <i>A. aegypti</i> .	Santos <i>et al.</i> (2014)
<i>Cymbopogon winterianus</i>	Folhas/ Poaceae	Moluscicida frente a <i>B. tenagophila</i> (CL_{50} e $CL_{100} = 60$ e $80 \mu\text{g/mL}$, respectivamente).	Costa <i>et al.</i> (2015)
<i>Eugenia punicifolia</i>	Partes aéreas/ Myrtaceae	Moluscicida frente a <i>B. glabrata</i> (CL_{50} e $CL_{90} = 98,91$ e $170,13 \mu\text{g/mL}$, respectivamente).	Ribeiro <i>et al.</i> (2016b)
<i>Hyptis dilatata</i>	Partes aéreas/ Lamiaceae	Moluscicida frente a <i>B. glabrata</i> (CL_{50} e $CL_{90} = 112,64$ e $182,33 \mu\text{g/mL}$, respectivamente).	Ribeiro <i>et al.</i> (2016b)
<i>Lippia acutidens</i>	Partes aéreas/ Verbenaceae	Moluscicida frente a <i>B. glabrata</i> (CL_{50} e $CL_{90} = 76,08$ e $98,5 \mu\text{g/mL}$, respectivamente).	Ribeiro <i>et al.</i> (2016b)
<i>Lippia gracilis</i>	Folhas e partes aéreas/ Verbenaceae	Moluscicida frente a <i>B. glabrata</i> ($CL_{50} = 62,2 \mu\text{g/mL}$; (CL_{50} e $CL_{90} = 19,09$ e $27,41 \mu\text{g/mL}$, respectivamente).	Teles <i>et al.</i> (2010), Ribeiro <i>et al.</i> (2016b)
<i>Schinus terebinthifolius</i>	Folhas/ Anacardiaceae	Inseticida frente larvas e pupas de <i>A. aegypti</i> ($CL_{50} = 0,370$ e $0,552 \text{ mg/mL}$ e $CL_{99,9} = 2,30$ e $2,361 \text{ mg/mL}$, respectivamente).	Bortolucci <i>et al.</i> (2019)
<i>Syagrus coronata</i>	Semente/ Arecaceae	Inseticida para larvas de <i>A. aegypti</i> no quarto instar ($CL_{50} = 21,07 \mu\text{g/mL}$) e efeito deterrente de oviposição para <i>A. aegypti</i> .	Santos <i>et al.</i> (2017)
<i>Syzygium cumini</i>	Folhas/ Myrtaceae	Moluscicida frente a <i>B. glabrata</i> ($CL_{50} = 90 \mu\text{g/mL}$).	Dias <i>et al.</i> (2013)
<i>Porophyllum ruderale</i>	Folhas/ Asteraceae	Moluscicida frente a <i>B. glabrata</i> ($CL_{50} = 774,82 \mu\text{g/mL}$).	Fontes-Júnior <i>et al.</i> (2012)
<i>Zingiber officinale</i>	Rizomas/ Zingiberaceae	Inseticida para larvas de <i>A. aegypti</i> no terceiro instar ($CL_{50} = 76,07 \mu\text{g/mL}$).	Gomes <i>et al.</i> (2016b)

Nota: CL_{50} : Concentração letal para 50% da população; CL_{90} : Concentração letal para 90% da população.

Ela compreende gêneros de grande importância econômica e com grande potencial de pesquisa, como *Hevea*, *Manihot*, *Ricinus* e *Croton*. São exemplos de espécies dos gêneros citados acima: *Hevea brasiliensis*, conhecida popularmente como seringueira, *Manihot esculenta*, conhecida como macaxeira, aipim, mandioca e cassava, e *Ricinus communis*, conhecida como mamona (RIBEIRO, 2016a). Adicionalmente, o gênero *Croton* é um dos mais estudado devido a seus compostos biologicamente ativos (RAMALHO *et al.*, 2018).

2.8.1 Gênero *Croton*

Croton é o mais diverso gênero da família Euphorbiaceae e possui cerca de 1300 espécies distribuídas, principalmente, na região tropical (BRITO *et al.*, 2018). Cerca 350 espécies de *Croton* foram descritas no Brasil, e elas têm sido reportadas na Caatinga, Campos Rupestres, Campos Sulinos, Cerrado, Floresta Amazônica, Mata Atlântica, Campos de Altitude e Restingas (SECCO *et al.*, 2012). Por sua vez, 35 espécies desse gênero ocorrem no estado de Pernambuco e a maior parte delas tem distribuição exclusiva da Caatinga (SILVA *et al.*, 2010).

Diversas espécies desse gênero são empregadas na medicina popular para tratar diversas enfermidades, como infecções, resfriados, febre, ansiedade, anorexia, distúrbios gastrointestinais, inflamações, úlceras, cólicas, câncer (BARRERA *et al.*, 2016). Por exemplo, a espécie *Croton linearis* é utilizada para tratar febre associada a infecções, reduzir dor, tratar resfriados e possui efeito sedativo (DÍAZ *et al.*, 2019). *Croton zehntneri*, conhecido popularmente como "canela da cunha", é empregado no tratamento de ansiedade, anorexia, distúrbios gastrointestinais, possui efeito sedativo e estimula apetite (ALMEIDA *et al.*, 2018). *Croton cajucara*, conhecido popularmente como "sacaca", é usada no tratamento de diabetes, colesterol alto e problemas gastrointestinais (BARRERA *et al.*, 2016).

Esses efeitos farmacológicos relatados em várias espécies do gênero *Croton* foram atribuídos a diferentes tipos de compostos, mas principalmente a terpenos, alcaloides, flavonóides e outros compostos fenólicos (MARCELINO *et al.*, 2012). Adicionalmente, algumas delas são aromáticas, indicando a presença de OEs (ALMEIDA *et al.*, 2018).

2.8.1.1 Composição química dos OEs do gênero *Croton*

A composição química dos OEs obtidos de espécies do gênero *Croton* é bem diversa. De acordo com Salatino e colaboradores (2007), esses óleos são constituídos usualmente por terpenos (mono e sesquiterpenos) e fenilpropanóides. Na Tabela 6 é possível observar os

componentes majoritários dos OEs das folhas de algumas espécies do gênero *Croton*. O (*E*)-cariofileno e o germacreno D são os compostos mais representativos da classe dos sesquiterpenos nesses OEs.

Tabela 6 - Composição química dos OEs obtidos das folhas de algumas espécies do gênero *Croton*.

Espécies	Compostos majoritários	Referência
<i>C. adamantinus</i>	Metil-eugenol (14,81%), 1,8-cineol (13,74%) e (<i>E</i>)-cariofileno (5,80%).	Ximenes <i>et al.</i> (2013)
<i>C. argyrophyllus</i>	Espatulenol (22,80%), (<i>E</i>)-cariofileno (15,41%), α -pineno (14,07%), e biciclogermacreno (10,43%).	Cruz <i>et al.</i> (2017)
<i>C. blanchetianus</i>	Eucaliptol (16,9%), (<i>E</i>)-cariofileno (15,9%) e germacreno D (14,5%).	Rodrigues <i>et al.</i> (2019)
<i>C. campestres</i>	(<i>E</i>)-cariofileno (15,91%), 1,8-cineol (16,98%) e germacreno D (14,51%).	Oliveira-Tintino <i>et al.</i> (2018)
<i>C. ceanothifolius</i>	Biciclogermacreno (26,3%), germacreno D (14,7%) e (<i>E</i>)-cariofileno (11,7%).	Araújo <i>et al.</i> (2020)
<i>C. cordiifolius</i>	1,8-Cineol (25,09%) e α -felandreno (15,43%).	Nogueira <i>et al.</i> (2015)
<i>C. conduplicatus</i> (<i>C. heliotropifolius</i>)	1,8-cineol (16,76 - 18,99%), α -felandreno (8,73 - 13,47%), biciclogermacreno (5,51 - 13,76%), (<i>E</i>)-cariofileno (6,95 - 9,75%) e espatulenol (3,98 - 7,80%).	Almeida <i>et al.</i> (2014)
<i>C. grewioides</i>	α -pinene (47,43%).	Medeiros <i>et al.</i> (2017)
<i>C. linearis</i>	Guaiol (7,93%), eudesma-4(15),7-dien-1 β -ol (4,94%) e guai-a-3,10(14)-dien-11-ol (4,52%).	Díaz <i>et al.</i> (2018)
<i>C. rhamnifolioides</i>	Espatulenol (22,46%) e 1,8-cineol (18,32%).	Vidal <i>et al.</i> (2016)
<i>C. rudolphianus</i>	Composto desconhecido (40,9%), Metil chavicol (22,96%), (<i>E</i>)-cariofileno (4,22%), eugenol (4,03%), bicicloelemeno (3,96%), biclogermacreno (3,81%) e espatulenol (2,79%).	Ribeiro <i>et al.</i> (2020)
<i>C. piauhiensis</i>	(<i>E</i>)-cariofileno (21,01-34,69%), D-limoneno (13,47-16,35%), γ - terpineno (8-10,08%), germacreno D (8,71-10,42%).	Silva <i>et al.</i> (2019)
<i>C. tetradenius</i>	Cânfora (25,49%), γ -Terpineol (15,06%), α -terpinene (6,48%).	Carvalho <i>et al.</i> (2016)
<i>C. zehntneri</i>	Estragole (90,1 %).	Fonseca <i>et al.</i> (2019)

2.8.1.2 Atividades biológicas dos OEs do gênero *Croton*

Os OEs das espécies do gênero *Croton* possuem diversas atividades biológicas como podem ser observadas na tabela abaixo (Tabela 7).

Tabela 7 - Atividades biológicas dos OEs de espécies do gênero *Croton*.

Espécies	Atividades biológicas	Referências
<i>C. adamantinus</i> (folhas)	Atividade antinociceptiva, cicatrizante e antimicrobiana.	Ximenes <i>et al.</i> (2013)
<i>C. argyrophyllloides</i> (folhas)	Efeito inseticida contra ovos e larvas de <i>A. aegypti</i> ($CL_{50} = 116,2$ e $94,6 \mu\text{g/mL}$, respectivamente). Deterrente de oviposição para <i>A. aegypti</i> ($CL_{50} = 458 \mu\text{g/mL}$).	Lima <i>et al.</i> (2013)
<i>C. argyrophyllus</i> (folhas e partes aéreas)	Efeito inseticida contra larvas terceiro e quarto instar de <i>A. aegypti</i> (CL_{50} e $CL_{90} = 0,31$ e $0,70 \text{ mg/mL}$; $5,92$ e $8,94 \text{ mg/mL}$, respectivamente). Atividade antibacteriana e efeito antioxidante (DPPH e ABTS).	Cruz <i>et al.</i> (2017) e Brito <i>et al.</i> (2018)
<i>C. campestris</i> (folha)	Efeito antiproliferativo para as linhagens de câncer MCF-7 (mama), OVCAR-3 (ovário), 786-0 (rim), HT29 (cólon) e K-562 (leucemia) ($IC_{50} = 8,61, 10,34, 30,85, 9,94$ e $22,35 \mu\text{g/mL}$, respectivamente)	Monteiro <i>et al.</i> (2017)
<i>C. cordiifolius</i> (folhas)	Atividade antinociceptiva	Nogueira <i>et al.</i> (2015)
<i>C. grewioides</i> (<i>C. zehntneri</i>) (folhas)	Efeito inseticida contra ovos, larvas terceiro instar e pulpas de <i>A. aegypti</i> ($CL_{50} = 45,7, 26,2$ e $456,6 \mu\text{g/mL}$, respectivamente). Deterrente de oviposição para <i>A. aegypti</i> ($CL_{50} = 45,3 \mu\text{g/mL}$).	Lima <i>et al.</i> (2013)
<i>C. heliotropiifolius</i> (folhas e parte áerea)	Atividade inseticida frente <i>Tribolium castaneum</i> . Atividade antibacteriana contra <i>B. subtilis</i> e <i>S. aureus</i> ($CMI = 62,5$ e $500 \mu\text{g/mL}$, respectivamente).	Magalhães <i>et al.</i> (2015), Araújo <i>et al.</i> (2017)
<i>C. nepetaefolius</i> (folhas)	Efeito inseticida contra ovos e larvas terceiro instar de <i>A. aegypti</i> ($CL_{50} = 141,3$ e $66,4 \mu\text{g/mL}$, respectivamente).	Lima <i>et al.</i> (2013)
<i>C. rhamnifolioides</i> (folhas)	Ação moduladora de gentamicina e oxacilina para as espécies <i>E. coli</i> e <i>S. aureus</i> , amoxilina para <i>P. aeruginosa</i> . Atividade inseticida para larvas de <i>A. aegypti</i> ($CL_{50} = 89,03$ - $122,35 \mu\text{g/mL}$). Efeito deterrente de oviposição para mosquitos de <i>A. aegypti</i> nas concentrações de 50 a 100 $\mu\text{g/mL}$.	Vidal <i>et al.</i> (2016), Santos <i>et al.</i> (2014)
<i>C. sonderianus</i> (folhas)	Efeito inseticida contra ovos, larvas e pulpas de <i>A. aegypti</i> ($CL_{50} = 143,2, 54,5$ e $494,9 \mu\text{g/mL}$, respectivamente).	Lima <i>et al.</i> (2013)
<i>C. piauhiensis</i> (folhas)	Efeito inseticida contra larvas terceiro instar de <i>A. aegypti</i> ($CL_{50} = 252,5$ - $336,8 \mu\text{g/mL}$).	Silva <i>et al.</i> (2019)
<i>C. pulegioidorus</i> (folhas)	Efeito inseticida frente <i>T. castaneum</i> .	Magalhães <i>et al.</i> (2015)
<i>C. tetradenius</i> (folhas)	Efeito inseticida contra larvas e mosquitos de <i>A. aegypti</i> ($CL_{50} = 0,152$ e $1,842 \text{ mg/mL}$, respectivamente).	Carvalho <i>et al.</i> (2016)
<i>C. zambesicus</i> (caule)	Atividade antibacteriana. Efeito antiproliferativo para as linhagens de câncer de cólon (HT29 e HCT116) e mama (MCF7 e MDA-MB23) ($IC_{50} = 23,81, 25,40, 41,37$ e $53,77 \mu\text{g/mL}$, respectivamente).	Yagi <i>et al.</i> (2016)

Nota: DPPH: 1,1-difenil-2-picrilhidrazil, ABTS: 2,2'-azino-bis-(3-etylbenzotiazolina-6- acido sulfônico), CL_{50} : Concentração letal para 50% da população, CL_{90} : Concentração letal para 90% da população, CMI: Concentração mínima inibitória, IC_{50} : Inibição de crescimento para 50% da população.

2.8.2 A espécie *C. rudolphianus*

C. rudolphianus (Figura 28), popularmente conhecido como velame-branco, é uma espécie endêmica do Brasil pertencente à família Euphorbiaceae e à ordem Malpighiales (RIBEIRO *et al.*, 2020). Ela é encontrada nos estados de Alagoas, Bahia, Ceará, Minas Gerais, Paraíba, Pernambuco, Piauí e Sergipe (FLORA DO BRASIL, 2020b), crescendo em vegetação de Caatinga, Campos Rupestres, Mata Atlântica e sobre solo argiloso com afloramento rochosos (SILVA *et al.*, 2010).

Figura 28 - *Croton rudolphianus* Müller Argoviensis.



Nota: A. ramos, B. folha, C. inflorescências e fruto.

Fonte: Ribeiro (2016a).

Seus exemplares podem variar de 80 a 150 cm de altura, possuem látex translúscido, folhas alternas, frequentemente dispostas no ápice dos ramos, inflorescência solitária e racemiforme, flores estaminadas (3-4 mm) e pistiladas (3-5 mm), e possuem cápsulas orbicular e amarronzada. As sementes são elipsóides, rugosas e castanhas (SILVA *et al.*, 2009).

O OE isolado das folhas frescas de *C. rudolphianus*, coletadas no Parque Nacional do Vale do Catimbau (Caatinga), apresentou atividade inseticida contra o gorgulho do milho, *Sitopilus zeamais*, usando diferentes metodologias, como toxicidade por ingestão ($CL_{50}= 102.66 \mu\text{L/g}$), contato ($CL_{50}= 70.64 \mu\text{L/mL}$) e fumigação (43.75% de mortalidade na contração de 64 $\mu\text{L/L}$). Esse óleo também apresentou atividade atrativa para *S. zeamais*, o que pode ser utilizado para montar armadilhas visando proteger as mercadorias armazenadas do gorgulho do milho (RIBEIRO *et al.*, 2020). Além disso, o OE de *C. rudolphianus* apresentou atividade contra algumas bactérias fitopatogênicas, como *Pectobacterium carotovorum* subsp. *carotovorum*, *Ralstonia solanacearum*, *Xanthomonas campestris* pv. *campestris*, *Xanthomonas campestris*

pv. *malvacearum*, *Xanthomonas campestris* pv. *viticola* (RIBEIRO, 2016a). Os compostos majoritários desse OE estão descritos na Tabela 6

Outra família vegetal que possuem inúmeras espécies produtoras de OEs é a Myrtaceae. Os OEs das espécies dessa família, geralmente, apresentam atividades biológicas (YOKOMIZO; NOKAOKA-SAKITA, 2014).

2.9 FAMÍLIA MYRTACEAE

Myrtaceae é uma família de angiospermas que possui cerca de 140 gêneros e aproximadamente 6000 espécies distribuídas por toda região tropical (FRAUCHES *et al.*, 2016; LUCAS *et al.*, 2019). No Brasil, a família Myrtaceae é representada por 23 gêneros e mais 1020 espécies, e encontra-se distribuída em todas as regiões do país (FLORA DO BRASIL, 2020c).

Os membros dessa família são árvores ou arbustos com grande importância ecológica, uma vez que, suas flores e frutos carnudos são fonte de alimentos para diversos animais, como mamíferos, pássaros e insetos (STAGGEMEIER *et al.*, 2017). Além disso, a família Myrtaceae possui grande valor econômico, pois várias espécies dessa família são usadas como alimento, que são tanto consumidas frescas, quanto usadas na confecção de sobremesas, geleias, vinhos, licores e vinagre (FRAUCHES *et al.*, 2016).

Em adição, muitas espécies dessa família são utilizadas na medicina popular no tratamento de algumas doenças. O pó das sementes da azeitona-roxa (*Syzygium cumini*), por exemplo, é usado na medicina popular indiana no tratamento da diabetes de mellitus, inflamações, infecções e diarréia (FRAUCHES *et al.*, 2016).

Os gêneros mais representativos dessa família são: *Eucalyptus* (300 espécies), *Malaleuca* (100 espécies), *Eugenia* (600 espécies), *Myrcia* (300 espécies), *Psidium* (100 espécies) e *Syzygium* (200 espécies) (FRAUCHES *et al.*, 2016).

Existe um gênero da família Myrtaceae que é endêmico do Brasil e só ocorre em dois estados do Nordeste (Bahia e Pernambuco): *Algrizea* (FLORA DO BRASIL, 2020a). Esse gênero foi descrito em 2006 (PROENÇA *et al.*, 2006) e possui duas espécies que ocorrem em regiões de altitudes, e podem crescer em terrenos rochosos.

Veras *et al.* (2019) caracterizaram o OE das folhas da espécie *Algrizea minor* e descreveram suas atividades biológicas. Esse óleo possuiu efeito antioxidante, antinociceptivo e antimicrobiano (VERAS *et al.*, 2019). No entanto, não há relatos para atividade biológica com o OE de *Algrizea macrochlamys*.

2.9.1 A espécie *A. macrochlamys*

A. macrochlamys (Figura 29) é uma espécie endêmica do Nordeste do Brasil pertencente à família Myrtaceae e à ordem Mytales. Ela é encontrada na Bahia e Pernambuco, crescendo em vegetação de Caatinga e Campos Rupestres (FLORA DO BRASIL, 2020d).

Seus exemplares são arbustos que variam de 100 a 250 centímetros de altura, possui folhas oposta e inflorescência tipo dicásio terminal ou sub terminal. As flores apresentam 2,5 a 7 mm de altura com cerca de 70 a 85 estames e ovulo bilocular com 3 a 6 óvulos por lóculo. Os frutos apresentam coloração vinho quando maduros com cerca de 2 sementes por fruto (PROENÇA *et al.*, 2006).

Figura 29 - *A. macrochlamys* (DC.) Proença & NicLugh.



Fonte: A autora (2020).

3 RESULTADOS

Os resultados dessa pesquisa estão apresentados na forma de artigos.

3.1 ARTIGO 1 - TOXIC EFFECT OF *Croton rudolphianus* ESSENTIAL OIL FROM LEAVES AGAINST *Biomphalaria glabrata* AND *Schistosoma mansoni* CERCARIAE

ARTIGO A SER SUBMETIDO AO PERIÓDICO ACTA TROPICA

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Highlights

- *C. rudolphianus* EO from leaves possess lethal effects on adults and embryos of *B. glabrata*.
- For *B. glabrata* adults, LC₅₀ and LC₉₀ were 47.88 and 78.86 µg/mL, respectively.
- The oil presented genotoxic effect to *B. glabrata* hemocytes.
- Mortality to *S. mansoni* cercariae at all concentration tested was observed.
- Less toxicity for *A. salina* than for *B. glabrata* and *S. mansoni* was observed.

Abstract

This research investigated the effect of the *Croton rudolphianus* leaves essential oils (EO) on *Biomphalaria glabrata* embryos (on different development stages) and adults, *Schistosoma mansoni* cercariae. It was possible to identify 31 compounds in the *C. rudolphianus* EO through GC-MS analysis. The major compounds from this oil were (*E*)-caryophyllene (17.33%), unknown compound (16.87%), bicyclogermacrene (7.1%), δ-cadinene (6.62%) and germacrene D (5.38%). After incubation for 24 h, the EO of *C. rudolphianus* induced the occurrence of non-viable embryos (dead and malformed), with a LC₅₀ value of 126.54, 133.51, 143.53 and 161.95 µg/mL and LC₉₀ value of 202.61, 216.48, 232.98 and 271.16 µg/mL to blastulae, gastrulae, trophophore and veliger embryonic stages, respectively. The EO was more effective to *B. glabrata* adults (LC₅₀ and LC₉₀ = 47.89 and 78.86 µg/mL, respectively), and *S. mansoni* cercariae (LC₅₀ and LC₉₀ = 14.81 and 22.15 after 120 minutes of exposure, respectively) than *B. glabrata* embryos. Concerning to micronucleus assay, the mean frequency of apoptosis, binucleation and micronucleus were 45.33 ± 3.51 , 19.33 ± 1.53 and 0.67 ± 0.58 per 1000 cells at 25 µg/mL, which is the highest concentration tested. The oil killed *A. salina* with a LC₅₀ and LC₉₀ values (68.33 and 111.5 µg/mL, respectively) higher than that determined for adult snails and *S. mansoni* cercariae. In conclusion, *C. rudolphianus* EO had toxic effect on *B. glabrata* adults and embryos, and *S. mansoni* cercariae. Besides, this oil showed to be genotoxic to hemocytes of *B. glabrata*. Concerning to non-target organism assay, *C. rudolphianus* EO was less toxic to *A. salina* than to adult snails and *S. mansoni* cercariae. Due to this, the EO from *C. rudolphianus* leaves is a potential alternative for schistosomiasis control. It would be remarkable to perform other tests with non-target species.

Keywords: embriotoxicity; lethal concentration; natural product; neglected diseases; schistosomiasis; molluscicidal agents.

1. Introduction

Schistosomiasis (or bilharziasis) is a parasitic illness caused by worms of the genus *Schistosoma* (Colley et al., 2014). This sickness is mostly found in tropical and sub-tropical regions, underprivileged populations without suitable sanitary conditions and drinkable water (WHO, 2019). According to World Health Organization (WHO, 2019), the schistosomiasis affects about 240 million people in the world, and around 700 million people live in risk zones for schistosomiasis.

Schistosoma mansoni is the main specie of the genus *Schistosoma* that infects humans in Africa, the Arabian Peninsula, and South America, which use *Biomphalaria* snails as intermediate host and causes hepatic and intestinal schistosomiasis (Araújo et al., 2018a; Rey, 2014; Scholte et al., 2014). In Brazil, the specie *Biomphalaria glabrata* is a vector of *S. mansoni* (Araújo et al 2018b) and its distributed in the northeast, north, southeast and south regions of this country (Scholte et al., 2012).

According to World Health Organization (WHO, 2019) the control of this disease involve chemotherapy, basic sanitary services, hygiene education and snails control. Nowadays, the niclosamide is the only compound recommended by WHO for use as a molluscicidal. Nevertheless, the utilization of this compound might lead to many disadvantages, such as, toxicity to non-target species (WHO, 2017), sunlight sensibility, elevated cost (Martins et al., 2014) and development of resistant population (WHO, 2017). In this sense, the search for natural and low cost molluscicidal agents is crucial.

Natural plants products, such as extracts, lectins and essential oils (EOs), are regarded valuable sources of new bioactive compounds (Nicoletti et al., 2016). Currently, some of this products have been tested about their molluscicidal activities (Gomes et al., 2019a; Gomes et al., 2019b; Rocha-Filho et al., 2015; Sá et al., 2016) and many of them possess toxic effect against snails, being a promising alternative to control of this animals.

EOs are complex compounds that are formed by the secondary metabolites from plants. These compounds are involved in the mechanism of defense against several natural enemies (Bakkali et al., 2008). Some EOs possess a range of biological activities, such as antimicrobial (Khalil et al., 2018), antioxidant (Avanço et al., 2017), insecticidal (Santos et al., 2017; Ribeiro et al., 2020). In fact, numerous researchers have described the effect of plants EOs against *B.*

glabrata, main intermediate host for transmission of schistosomiasis (Gomes et al., 2019a; Gomes et al., 2019b; Araújo et al., 2019).

Croton genus belongs to Euphorbiaceae family and presents approximately 1,300 species largely found in tropical regions (Brito et al., 2018). *Croton rudolphianus* Müll. Arg, is an endemic specie of Brazil and found from the Northeast to Southeast areas (Silva et al., 2010; Ribeiro et al., 2020). Thus, this study aimed to investigate the effect of the EO from *C. rudolphianus* leaves on adults and embryos of *B. glabrata* and cercariae *S. mansoni*, besides, its toxicity in non-target organisms (*Artemia salina* Leach).

2. Materials and Methods

2.1 Plant collection and extraction of the EO

The collection of *C. rudolphianus* leaves (Sisbio 26743-3) was performed in September 2016 at Parque Nacional do Catimbau ($8^{\circ}34'19.8''S$ $37^{\circ}14'12.3''W$), located in Pernambuco state, Brazil; under authorization of the Instituto Chico Mendes de Conservação da Biodiversidade (ICMBio). A sample (voucher number IPA 91.091) was placed at the Herbarium *Dárdano de Andrade Lima* (IPA, Recife, PE, Brazil).

The procedure to EO extraction was adapted from Ribeiro et al. (2020). A blender was used to triturate fresh leaves (300 g) with distilled water (3 L), and thereafter, this mixture was subject to hydrodistillation technique during 4 h. The EO was stowed in amber glass recipients at $-4^{\circ}C$ until the chemical characterization and biological tests. The EO yield was determined as a percentage based on the plant weight (% w/w).

2.2 Chemical analysis of the EO

The chemical analysis from EO of *C. rudophianus* leaves was executed using a gas chromatography (model 7890A; Agilent Technologies; Palo Alto, CA, USA) fitted out with an Agilent J&W non-polar HP-5msTM column (30 m x 0.25 mm.; 0.25 μ m film thickness) and connected to a selective mass detector (model 5975C; Agilent Technologies; Palo Alto, CA, USA). The oven temperature was programmed for $40^{\circ}C$ and increased by $4^{\circ}C$ /min until $230^{\circ}C$ where it was maintained for 5 min. It was used helium as a carrier gas at a flow rate of 1 mL/min, sustained at a constant pressure of 7.0 psi. The interface with MS was set at $230^{\circ}C$;

quadrupole temperature was set at 150 °C; mass spectra were recorded at 70 eV in Electron impact ionization mode and scanned in the range *m/z* 35-350 at a speed of 1.0 s/scan.

An EO solution was prepared in n-hexane at 2 mg/mL, then 1 µL of this solution was injected in split mode (1:50). The identification of individual components was performed comparing previously reported retention index values gotten from co-injection of a standard solution of linear C9-C30 hydrocarbons (Sigma-Aldrich) obtained in second the equation of Van den Dool and Kratz (1963). Afterward, the MS results gotten for each component were compared with library of mass spectral from GC-MS system (MassFinder 4, NIST08 and Wiley Registry™ 9th Edition) and with spectra from Adams, 2009.

An aliquot of 1 µl of the sample solution was injected on a Trace GC Ultra gas chromatography (Thermo Scientific, Milan, Italy) equipped with a flame ionization detector (FID) (Thermo Scientific, Milan, Italy), a split/splitless injector and a VB-5 fused silica capillary column (ValcoBond 30m x 0.25 mm; film thickness 0.25 mm) (Valco Instruments Company Inc., Houston, TX, EUA), to quantify the relative amount of each compound in relation to the total amount of compounds in the oil. The temperature conditions of the oven was the same as reported above. It was employed nitrogen as carrier gas at a flow rate of 1 L/min and inlet pressure 30 psi. The detector and injector temperature were set to 250 °C. This process was conducted in splitless mode and repeated thrice.

2.3 Molluscicidal assay

2.3.1 Snails

B. glabrata adults, free from *Schistosoma mansoni* infection, were reared at the *Laboratório de Radiobiologia* of the *Centro de Biociências* of the *Universidade Federal de Pernambuco* (Recife, Brazil) in plastics aquarium (50 x 23 x 17 cm) with filtered water pH 7.0 and at temperature of 25 ± 2 °C. Daily, the animals were fed with organic lettuce leaves, and the aquariums water were changed once a week. Polyethylene sheets (10 x 10 cm) were placed on aquarium where the mollusks were cultured to allow the snails oviposition.

2.3.2 Bioassays using embryos of *B. glabrata*

This assay was carried out according to Araújo et al. (2018a, 2018b). Briefly, intact egg masses containing 100 embryos at blastulae, gastrulae, trochophore and veliger (0-15, 24-39,

48-87 and 96-111 hours after spawning, respectively) (Kawano et al., 1992) stage were chosen in a stereomicroscope (Wild M3B, Heerbrugg, Switzerland) based on following criteria: intact eggs masses and one embryo per egg. These embryos were placed in Petri dishes (60 mm x 15 mm). Then, the eggs masses were exposed for 24h to a solution of *C. rudolphianus* oil prepared with 0.3% tween 80 at 50, 100, 150, 200, 250 and 300 µg/mL, filtered water (C-, negative control), 0.3% of tween 80 (CSC, co-solvent control) and 1 µg/mL niclosamide (Bayluscide®, Bayer) (NCL, positive control). After this period, the eggs were washed with filtrated water and putted in Petri dishes with filtered water at 25 ± 2 °C. During 7 consecutive days, the embryos were observed with a stereomicroscope to determine the number of viable and non-viable (dead or malformed) embryos. This bioassay had two independents experiments and it was replicated thrice (totalizing 600 embryos per treatment).

2.3.3 Bioassays using adults of *B. glabrata*

Molluscicidal bioassays of *C. rudolphianus* EO were carried out based on Silva et al. (2018). Groups of ten *B. glabrata* (*S. mansoni* negative) with 13 ± 1 mm shell diameter were putted in plastic container (60 mL) and exposed to EO solution (0.3% tween 80) at 12.5, 25, 50, 75 and 100 µg/mL for 48h at 25 ± 2 °C. In the control groups, the snails were treated to filtered water (C-, negative control), 0.3% of tween 80 (CSC, co-solvent control) and 1 µg/mL niclosamide (Bayluscide®, Bayer) (NCL, positive control). After that, the animals were washed with filtrated water, placed in a recipient full of filtrated water, fed with lettuce and observed daily for 7 days at 25 ± 2 °C to record the mortality rate. The death was confirmed when the snails show inactivity, discolored color in the body and shell, and heart beats absence. The test was carried out in triplicate for each treatment totalizing 30 snails per treatment.

2.3.4 Citotoxicity: micronucleus assay using hemocytes of *B. glabrata*

The micronucleus assay was conducted to assess the genotoxicity caused in hemocytes of *B. glabrata* adult snails that were exposed to sublethal concentrations of EO from *C. rudolphianus* leaves. This assay was carried out according to Silva et al. (2019), and it was composed by 5 treatments, filtrated water (C-, negative control), 0.3% of tween 80 (CSC, co-solvent control) and 15, 20 and 25 µg/mL of *C. rudolphianus* oil. Each treatment contained 5 snails, which were exposed for 48 hours. After this period, the mollusks were washed under filtrated water and dried with absorbent tissue paper. Then, the hemolymph collection was

realized by a puncture in the cephalopodal region with a pipette. Aliquots of 100 µL of hemolymph were deposited on microscopy slides with 100µL ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA) in Ringer's solution 10mM. Subsequently, the slides were putted in humidified chamber at 25 ± 2 °C for 30 minutes. Afterwards, the hemocytes were fixed with 200 µL of glutaraldehyde in Ringer's solution at 1% for 10 minutes and then washed with Ringer's solution. After dried, the slides were stained with Giemsa (5% v/v) for 2 minutes, washed again with distilled water, and dried at 25 ± 2 °C. The slides were analyzed in optical microscope (Kyowa Medilux-12, Japan) with 100 x magnification. The morphological changes observed in the cells were classified: as apoptosis, binucleation and micronucleus, as described elsewhere (Silva et al., 2019). For each treatment was analyzed 1000 hemocytes. This test was performed in thrice totalizing 3000 cells per treatment.

2.4 Cercarial activity

The cercaricide bioassays of the *C. rudolphianus* oil were carried out according to Silva et al. (2019). *B. glabrata* snails infected with *S. mansoni* (Belo Horizonte strain) were exposed to artificial light (60 W) during 2h for liberation of cercariae. An oil solution of *C. rudolphianus* was prepared using 0.3% tween 80 to achieve the final concentrations of 5, 10, 15, 20 and 30 µg/mL. A suspension of 100 cercariae was kept in a watch glass and exposed to those concentrations of oil. In the control groups, the cercariae were exposed to filtered water (pH 7.0) (C-, negative control), 0.3% of tween 80 (CSC, co-solvent control) and 1.0 µg/mL niclosamide (Bayluscide®, Bayer) (NCL, positive control). The assays were kept at 27 ± 2 °C. The mortality of cercariae was observed with a stereomicroscope (Wild M3B, Heerbrugg, Switzerland) at 15, 30, 60 and 120 minutes after exposure to *C. rudolphianus* EO. The bioassay was performed in triplicate and repeated twice (totalizing 600 cercariae per treatment). The mortality rate and cercariae behaviour (motility, atypical rotations and vibrations) were registered. The LC₅₀ and LC₉₀ were calculated in the end of the assay after 120 minutes.

2.5 Bioassay using larvae of *A. salina*

The brine shrimp (*A. salina*) was used as non-target organism to evaluate the *C. rudolphianus* oil environmental toxicity. This test was executed in accordance with Araújo et al. (2018b). Briefly, 20 mg of eggs from *A. salina* were hatched in a plastic container with 400 mL of natural seawater at 25 ± 2 °C, pH 8.0, under constant aeration for 48h. After this period,

ten larvae were treated with an oil solution of *C. rudolphianus* (0.3% tween 80) at concentrations 12.5, 25, 50, 75, 100 and 120 µg/mL diluted in natural sea water (5 ml). In the control groups, the larvae were treated to sea water (C-, negative control), 0.3% of tween 80 diluted in seawater (CSC, co-solvent control) and 1 µg/mL niclosamide (NCL, positive control). After 24 h, the mortality rate were recorded. Two independent assays were peformed in quadruplicate for each treatment totalizing 80 larvae per treatment.

2.6 Data analysis

The results were expressed by mean ± Standard Deviation (SD). The One-way fixed-effects ANOVA and Tukey's test (significance at $p < 0.05$) were obtained using the Graph prism 5.0 software for Windows (GraphPad Software, San Diego, California, USA). The lethal concentrations required to kill 50% and 90% of individuals (LC₅₀ and LC₉₀) were obtained using the probit analysis with a reliability interval of 95% in StatPlus version 5.98 for Windows.

3. Results

3.1 Yield and chemical analysis of the EO

The EO from *C. rudolphianus* leaves had a yield of 0.96% (w/w; 2.88 g). It was possible to identified 31 compounds (Table 1) by GC-MS analysis. The majors compounds found in the *C. rudolphianus* oil were (*E*)-caryophyllene (17.33%), unknown compound (16.87%), bicyclogermacrene (7.1%), δ-cadinene (6.62%) and germacrene D (5.38%).

3.2 Toxicity to embryos and adults of *B. glabrata*

EO of *C. rudolphianus* promoted an increase in a dose dependent manner of the occurrence of non-viable embryos (dead and malformed) in all embryonic stages of *B. glabrata*. The total of non-viable embryos ranged from 5% to 100%. All embryonic stages showed statistic differences between the treatments. Blastulae and gastrulae stages were the most sensitive to *C. rudolphianus* oil, showing 100% of non-viable embryos at 250 and 300 µg/mL. On the other hand, embryos at veliger stage were less sensitive to this oil. Besides that, trophophore stage only present 100% of non-viable embryos at 300 µg/mL. Mortality reached 100% during NCL treatment at 1 µg/mL in all embryonic stages. On the other hand, C- and

CSC treatments showed a total of viable embryos higher than 98%. The LC₅₀ and LC₉₀ to blastulae, gastrulae, trochophore, and veliger are shown in (Table 2).

This EO was also toxic to *B. glabrata* adults in a dose dependent manner (Figure 1). The NCL and the treatment at 100 µg/mL of the *C. rudolphianus* oil resulted in 100% mortality of *B. glabrata* adults in 48h, while in C- and CSC was observed no mortality. At 12.5, 25, 50 and 75 µg/mL were observed a mortality rate of 10 ± 0, 16.67 ± 5.77, 53.33 ± 5.77 and 83.33 ± 5.77%, respectively. Statistical analysis revealed significant differences in mortality between the treatments ($F_{7,16} = 468.5; p < 0.0001$) and LC₅₀ and LC₉₀ are shown in (Table 3).

3.3 Micronucleus assay

The *C. rudolphianus* oil promoted an increase in a dose dependent manner of the occurrence of morphological changes, such as apoptosis and binucleation, in hemocytes of *B. glabrata*. The control groups only present apoptosis with a mean frequency of 1.67 ± 0.58 and 1.33 ± 0.58 per 1000 cells to C- and CSC, respectively (Figure 2a). The most abundant morphological alterations observed in the hemocytes treated with *C. rudolphianus* EO was apoptosis. The treatments at 15, 20 and 25 µg/mL showed a frequency of apoptotic cells of 8.33 ± 1.15, 21.67 ± 3.06 and 45.33 ± 3.51 per 1000 cells, which are statistically different to the control (Figure 2a) ($F_{4,10} = 217.3; p < 0.0001$). On the other hand, micronucleus was the less abundant morphological changes observed in this study. The mean frequency of micronucleus for all treatment with *C. rudolphianus* oil were the same (0.67 ± 0.58 per 1000 cells) (Figure 2b). For this morphological changes no difference between the treatments were observed ($F_{4,10} = 2; p = 0.17$). The mean frequency of binucleation found at 15, 20 and 25 µg/mL were 6 ± 1, 17.33 ± 2.08 and 19.33 ± 1.53 per 1000 cells, respectively, and this results were statistically similar in the last two concentrations (Figure 2c) ($F_{4,10} = 169.3; p < 0.0001$).

3.4 Toxicity to *S. mansoni* cercariae

The mortality of *S. mansoni* cercariae exposed to *C. rudolphianus* oil increased with the concentration and exposure time. These results are shown in the Table 4. After 15 minutes of exposure, the highest concentration (30 µg/mL) present 15.83% of mortality. In the end of this assay, after 120 minutes, the same concentration showed 100% mortality. Oppositely, the lowest concentration (5 µg/mL) only present significative mortality (8.17%) after 120 minutes. The death of cercariae was followed by structural separation of the cercariae in the tail and

body. Additionally, since the first minute of exposure it was observed changes in cercariae motility at all concentrations, such as, decrease in the motility and rotation in the own axis. The control groups (C- and CSC) showed absence of mortality, preservation of the body and tail and normal movements of swimming. However, the NCL group present 100% mortality after just one minute of exposure. After 120 minutes of exposure time all treatments showed significant differences when compared to the control ($F_{7,40} = 1497; p < 0.0001$). The LC₅₀ and LC₉₀ value calculated after 120 minutes of exposure time are shown in Table 3.

3.5 Toxicity to non-target organisms

The bioassay with non-target organisms revealed that *C. rudolphianus* EO was not toxic to *A. salina* at 12.5 µg/mL. However, above 25 µg/mL were found significant results. The NCL (1 µg/mL) and the treatment at 120 µg/mL of the *C. rudolphianus* oil resulted in 100% mortality of *A. salina*, while in C- and CSC had absence of mortality. At 12.5, 25, 50, 75 and 100 µg/mL were observed a mortality of 2.5 ± 4.63, 10 ± 7.56, 27.78 ± 6.77, 61.25 ± 8.35 and 81.25 ± 6.41%, respectively. Statistical analysis revealed significant differences in *A. salina* mortality between doses ($F_{8,63} = 572.2; p < 0.0001$). The LC₅₀ and LC₉₀ are shown in (Table 3).

4. Discussion

The EO from *C. rudolphianus* (1.14 %) obtained by Ribeiro et al. (2020) presents similar yield than the oil of *C. rudolphianus* from this study (0.96%). Several EOs from leaves of *Croton* species also possess similar yield than the obtained EO from *C. rudolphianus* leaves. For example, *Croton cajucara* (0.97%) (Chaves et al., 2006), *Croton cordiifolius* (0.81%) (Nogueira et al., 2015) and *Croton rhamnifolioides* (accepted name: *Croton heliotropiifolius*) (0.80%) (Santos et al., 2014).

The majoritarian compounds of *C. rudolphianus* oil obtained in this study were: (*E*)-caryophyllene, bicyclogermacrene, δ-cadinene, and germacrene D. Similar results were obtained by Ribeiro et al. (2020), where *C. rudolphianus* oil presented (*E*)-caryophyllene (4.22%) and bicyclogermacrene (3.81%) as some of its majoritarian compounds. Several EO's from *Croton* species possess the same majoritarian compounds than the obtained in this research, for example, (*E*)-caryophyllene was found in *Croton eriocladius* (24.1%), *Croton campestris* (23%), *Croton glandulosus* (8.9%), *Croton chaetocalyx* (7.1%) (Turiel et al., 2016) and *C. rhamnifolioides* (6.33%) (Santos et al., 2014). The *C. chaetocalyx*, *C. glandulosus*, *C.*

eriocladus and *C. campestris* showed bicyclogermacrene in the respectively percentage 13.9, 9.6, 5.2 and 4.7 % (Turiel et al., 2016). The δ -cadinene represents 8 and 4.8% of the oils from *C. chaetocalyx* (Turiel et al., 2016) and *C. cajucara* (Azevedo et al., 2014). The germacrene D was found in *C. campestris* (13.7%), *C. chaetocalyx* (9.3%), and *C. eriocladus* (17.9%) (Turiel et al., 2016).

The EO from *C. rudolphianus* leaves caused mortality in all stage of development of *B. glabrata* embryos. However, the initial embryonic stages (blastulae and gastrulae) are more susceptible to this oil than final stages (trochophore and veliger), as shown in the Table 2. The usnic acid from *Cladonia substellata* (lichen) (Araújo et al., 2018b), piplartine amide isolated from *Piper tuberculatum* (Rapado et al., 2013) and dichloromethane fraction from *Liagora farinose* (algae) extract (Miyasato et al., 2012) showed toxic effects to *B. glabrata* embryos. In the present study, the results were similar. The initial embryonic stages were more sensible to those substances and extract than the final stages. According to Rapado et al. (2011; 2013) and Miyasato et al. (2012), the higher sensibility might be associated to intensive cell proliferation activity at the beginning of embryos development. The potassium usnate from *C. substellata* (Araújo et al., 2018a) and ether extract of *Ramalina aspera* (lichen) (Silva et al., 2019) also present toxic effect in all development stage of embryos from *B. glabrata*. However, the initial embryonic stages were more resistant to those natural products than the final stages, contrary to the results obtained with *C. rudolphianus* oil.

The EO of *C. rudolphianus* also presented toxicity against *B. glabrata* adults with a LC₅₀ and LC₉₀ = 47.88 and 78.86 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$, respectively, being below than the recommended by WHO (1983) (LC₉₀ \leq 100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$), which is a very good result pointing that the *C. rudolphianus* oil might be used as a molluscicidal agent. Besides, the adult snails were more sensitive to *C. rudolphianus* oil than embryos. Others EO from leaves also present molluscicidal effect. For example, the EO from *Lippia gracilis* (Verbenaceae), which have (*E*)-caryophyllene as one of its major constituents same that *C. rudolphianus* oil, exhibited molluscicidal activity against *B. glabrata* adults with LC₅₀ and LC₉₀ of 62.2 and 82.8 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$, respectively (Teles et al., 2010). The EOs from leaves of *Pimenta dioica* (Myrtaceae) and rhizome of *Zingiber officinale* (Zingiberaceae) also presented lethal effect against *B. glabrata* (LC₅₀ = 18.62 and 56.23 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$, respectively; Gomes et al., 2019a; Gomes et al., 2019b).

Many species from Euphorbiaceae family showed molluscicidal activity (WHO, 1983), for example, the extracts from seeds and leaves of *Croton macrostachyus* using different solvents (water, ethanol, petroleum ether and chloroform) were toxic to *Biomphalaria* sp. and *Bulinus* sp. (Garoy et al., 2017). The crude methanolic, n-hexane and ethyl acetate extracts from

aerial parts of *Euphorbia laurifolia* present toxic effect to *B. glabrata* (LC_{50} = 8.89, 9.43 and 5.57 $\mu\text{g/mL}$; LC_{90} = 11.60, 12.32 and 7.28 $\mu\text{g/mL}$, respectively) (Mogollón-Morales et al., 2016). The latex of *Euphorbia umbellata* presented lethal effects to *B. glabrata* (LC_{50} value of 1.36 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ and LC_{90} value of 3.69 $\mu\text{g/mL}$) (Pereira et al., 2017). The latex from *Euphorbia milii* showed toxic effect against *B. glabrata* adults and in embryos (LC_{50} = 0.27 and 34.03 $\mu\text{g/mL}$, respectively; Oliveira-Filho et al., 2010; Oliveira-Filho; Paumgartten, 2000). Similar to results found in this research, the *B. glabrata* adults were more sensitive to *E. milii* latex than embryos. This fact might be related with egg gelatinous capsule and egg membrane, which provide some protection for embryo, since to achieve the embryos the substances should be capable to get inside in the egg gelatinous capsule and cross the egg membrane (Miyasato et al., 2012).

The micronucleus assay has been used as an index for genotoxic damage in various organisms, such as fish, amphibians and mollusks, exposed to several substances (Rocha; Rocha, 2016). The results have shown that *C. rudolphianus* oil present genotoxic effect to hemocytes of *B. glabrata* at all concentrations tested, due to the presence of cells with morphological changes, such as apoptosis and binucleation. None study was found with hemocytes of *B. glabrata* treated with EOs, for this reason the results of micronucleus assay realized in this reasearch with hemocytes of *B. glabrata* were compared with other substances.

The apoptosis process occurs in both pathological and physiological circumstances (Oral et al., 2016). This point can explain the fact of apoptosis had been the only morphological alteration found in the control groups, probably as physiological process. However, it also was noticed that the number of such apoptotic cells increased with *C. rudolphianus* oil concentrations, which might be related with a pathological process. The apoptosis observed in the hemocytes of *B. glabrata* might be linked to the presence of terpenes, such as (*E*)-caryophyllene, bicyclogermacrene, germacrene D, once those compounds increase the permeability and fluidity of the cells membranes, leading to uncontrolled efflux of metabolites and ions and even to cell leakage, resulting in cell death by apoptosis (Wink, 2015). Similar results were found using ether extract of *R. aspera* in hemocytes of *B. glabrata*, the number of apoptotic cells increased with the concentration (Silva et al., 2019). This extract at 6.5, 7.5 and 8.5 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ showed a frequency of apoptotic cells of 32.66, 81.66 and 364.33 per 1000 cells (Silva et al., 2019). The oxyfluorfen (herbicide) also showed the presence of apoptotic cells in *B. glabrata* hemocytes, at 0.5 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ showed a frequency of apoptotic cells of 37.75 per 1000 cells (Lima et al., 2019).

Micronucleus occurs when a chromosome or chromosome fragment is not incorporated into one of the nuclei during the process of cell division (Minhas et al., 2016). The cells that possess micronucleus have suffered unrepaired DNA damage, and they are considered unviable (Hintzsche et al., 2012). In this study, it was not possible to observe a significant difference between the micronucleus frequency of the controls and the treatments with EO. Similar results were obtained in erythrocytes of *Tilapia rendalli* exposed to 5 and 15 µg/mL of Roundup® (herbicide) during 5 and 10 days (Pires et al., 2018). The oxyfluorfen and ether extract of *R. aspera* promoted the presence of micronucleus in hemocytes of *B. glabrata* (Lima et al., 2019; Silva et al., 2019). At 0.5 µg/mL of oxyfluorfen was possible to observe a micronucleus frequency of 1.8 per 1000 cells (Lima et al., 2019). The extract of *R. aspera* at 6.5, 7.5 and 8.5 µg/mL showed a micronucleus frequency of 2.33, 5.66 and 3.66 per 1000 cells (Silva et al., 2019).

Binucleation, which is the presence of two nuclei in a cell, occurs when the nucleus divides without cytoplasmic division. This occurs due to some damage in the cell membrane, such as peroxidation (Minhas et al., 2016). In this study, the frequency of binucleation increase with the *C. rudolphianus* EO concentration with the highest mean frequency of binucleated cells was 19.33 per 1000 cells at 25 µg/mL. The oxyfluorfen also presented similar results, at 0.25 and 0.5 µg/mL showed a binucleation frequency of 4 and 11.4 per 1000 cells, respectively in hemocytes of *B. glabrata* (Lima et al., 2019). On the other hand, the frequency of binucleated cells in *B. glabrata* hemocytes decrease with the concentration of the ether extract of *R. aspera* increased (Silva et al., 2019).

In addition to its molluscicidal and genotoxic effects to *B. glabrata*, the EO from *C. rudolphianus* leaves also showed lethal effect against *S. mansoni* cercariae (LC_{50} and LC_{90} = 14.81 and 22.15 µg/mL, respectively), which is the infectious form for humans. (Colley et al., 2014). EO from *C. rudolphianus* leaves also caused changes in cercariae motility, decrease in the motility and rotation in the own axis. According to Araújo et al. (2018a), these characteristics are not compatible with the cercariae infectious ability. Therefore, *C. rudolphianus* oil can be considered a significant tool for of the schistosomiasis. Other natural products showed effect to *S. mansoni* cercariae as potassium usnate (Araújo et al., 2018b) and divaricatic acid (Silva et al., 2018), with LC_{50} calculated after 120 minutes of exposure of 0.71 and 0.89 µg/mL, respectively, which is a better result than the one found in this study. The curcumin, a compound isolated from *Curcuma longa*, showed toxic effect to *S. mansoni* cercariae with LC_{50} and LC_{90} of 6.36 and 23.80 µg/mL after 60 minutes (Matos et al., 2020). The kaurenoic acid isolated from *C. floribundus* extract also present toxic effect to *S. mansoni*

cercariae, at 10 µg/mL during 30 minutes of exposure was observed 99.5% of mortality (Medina et al., 2009).

C. rudolphianus oil was more toxic to *B. glabrata* adults (LC₅₀ and LC₉₀ of 47.88 and 78.86 µg/mL, respectively) and *S. mansoni* cercariae (LC₅₀ and LC₉₀ of 14.81 and 22.15 µg/mL, respectively) than *A. salina* (LC₅₀ and LC₉₀ of 68.33 and 111.5 µg/mL, respectively). Hence, it might be possible use of *C. rudolphianus* EO as a molluscicide and cercaricide agent. Similar results were observed in the EOs from *Syzygium cumini* (Dias et al., 2013) and *Cymbopogon winterianus* (Rodrigues et al., 2013), which present molluscicidal effects to *B. glabrata* snails (LC₅₀ = 90 and 54 µg/mL, respectively) and showed a lower toxicity to *A. salina* with LC₅₀ of 175 and 181 µg/mL, respectively.

5. Conclusion

C. rudolphianus EO presented toxicity to adults and embryos in all development stage of *B. glabrata*. As well as, it also caused mortality in *S. mansoni* cercariae, which is the phase that infects human. Furthermore, it was less toxic to non-target organism (*A. salina*) than to *B. glabrata* adults and *S. mansoni* cercariae. Due to it, this EO might be a promising alternative to control schistosomiasis.

Competing interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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Figures legends

Figure 1 - Mortality of *B. glabrata* adults treated with the essential oil *C. rudolphianus* leaves for 48h. The Tukey's tests was used to evaluate significant differences between treatments, which is represented by different letters ($p < 0.05$). The data are expressed as average \pm SD (n=30). C- (negative control): filtered and dechlorinated water; CSC (co-solvent control): 0.3% of tween 80; and NCL (niclosamide): 1 μ g/mL positive control.

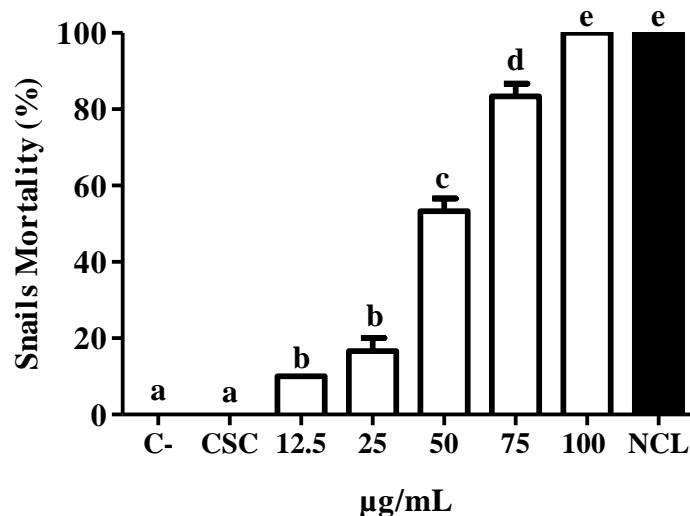
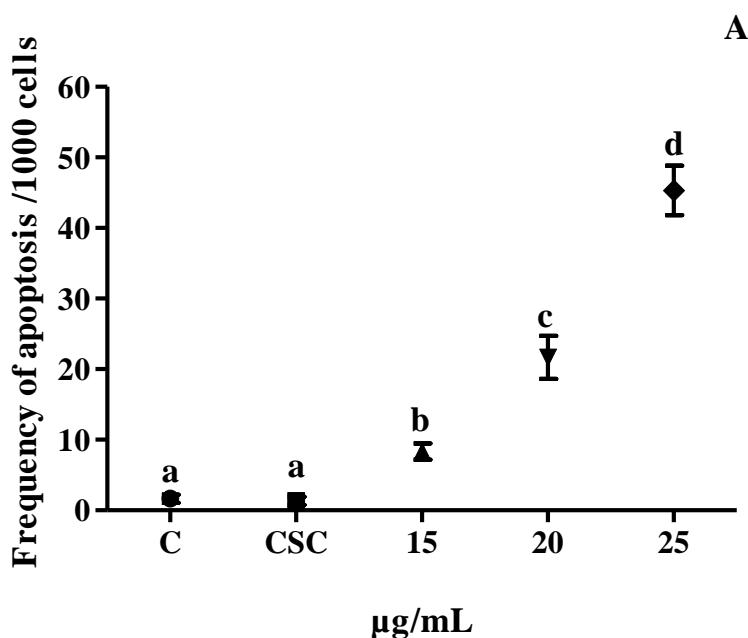
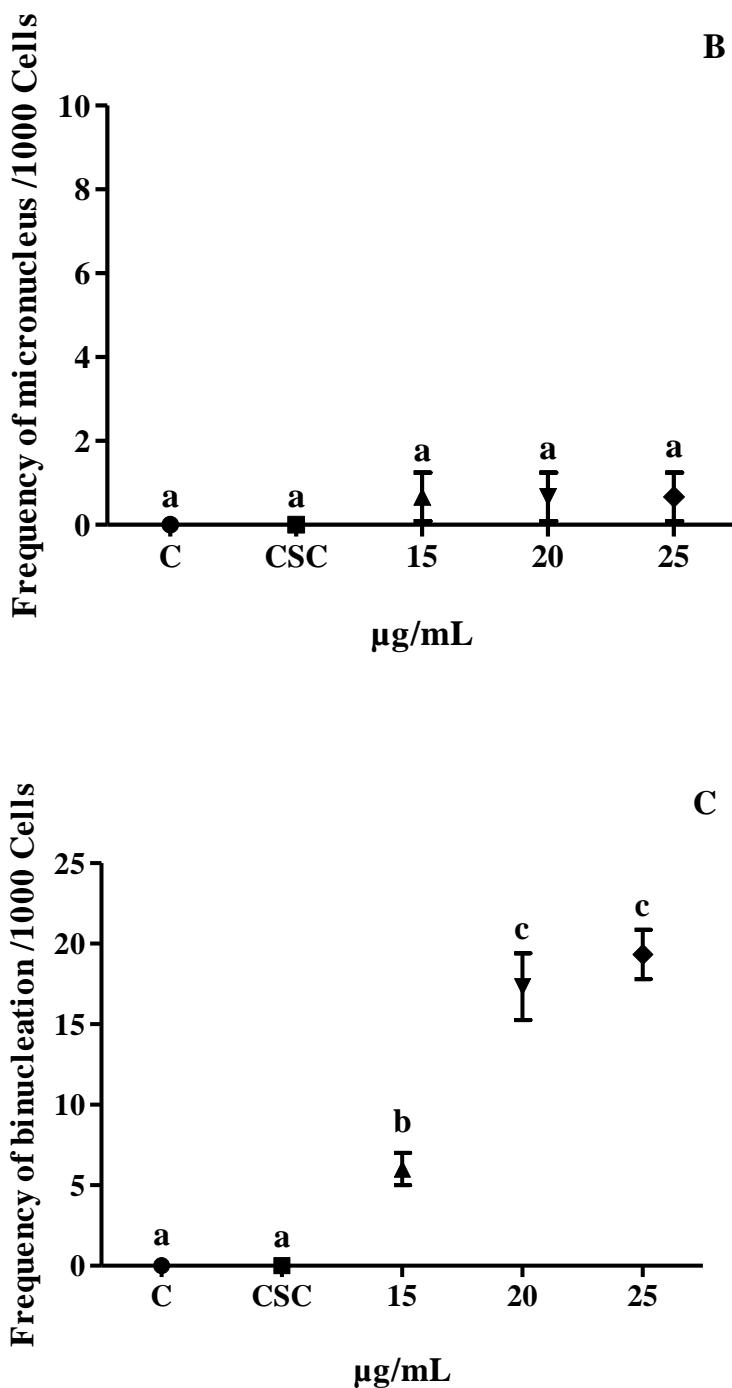


Figure 2 - Average of number of alterations per 1000 cells found in hemocytes of *B. glabrata* adults treated with the essential oil *C. rudolphianus* leaves for 48h at 15, 20 and 25 $\mu\text{g/mL}$. The Tukey's tests was used to evaluate significant differences between treatments. These differences are represented by different letters ($p < 0.05$). The data are expressed as average \pm SD (n=3000). C- (negative control): filtered and dechlorinated water; CSC (co-solvent control): 0.3% of tween 80. **(A)** Number of apoptosis per 1000 cells analyzed. **(B)** Number of micronucleus per 1000 cells analyzed. **(C)** Number of binucleation per 1000 cells analyzed.





Tables

Table 1 - Organic compounds contained in the essential oil from *C. rudolphianus* leaves.

Compound	RI calc ¹	RI lit ²	Relative area (%) \pm SD
α -Pinene	931	932	4.22 ± 0.23
Sabinene	972	988	0.25 ± 0.02
β -Myrcene	991	1002	0.30 ± 0.02
α -Phellandrene	1003	1014	0.01 ± 0.00
α -Terpinene	1015	1021	0.01 ± 0.00

Limonene	1027	1022	3.78 ± 0.19
(E)- β -Ocimene	1048	1026	0.23 ± 0.02
γ -Terpinene	1058	1054	0.17 ± 0.00
Terpinolene	1087	1065	0.01 ± 0.00
Bicycloelemene	1338	1336	1.05 ± 0.12
α -Cubebene	1351	1348	1.00 ± 0.06
Cyclosativene	1366	1369	0.01 ± 0.00
α -Copaene	1377	1374	1.47 ± 0.05
β -Bourbonene	1386	1387	0.01 ± 0.00
β -Cubebene	1391	1387	4.25 ± 0.15
α -Gurjunene	1411	1409	0.01 ± 0.00
(E)-Caryophyllene	1421	1419	17.33 ± 0.23
β -Copaene	1430	1430	0.78 ± 0.04
epi-Cedrane	1445	1447	0.10 ± 0.01
α -Humulene	1455	1452	1.48 ± 0.06
allo-Aromadendrene	1462	1458	0.41 ± 0.02
trans-Cadina-1(6),4-diene	1475	1475	0.86 ± 0.02
Germacrene D	1483	1480	5.38 ± 0.17
Bicyclogermacrene	1498	1500	7.10 ± 0.12
Germacrene A	1507	1508	0.10 ± 0.01
Cubebol	1517	1514	2.30 ± 0.43
δ -Cadinene	1525	1522	6.62 ± 0.08
trans-Cadina-1,4-diene	1534	1533	0.29 ± 0.01
Germacrene B	1559	1559	0.13 ± 0.04
Spathulenol	1580	1577	0.26 ± 0.07
Unknown	1680	-	16.87 ± 2.60

¹Retention index calculated from retention times in relation to those of a series of *n*-alkanes separated on a non-polar DB-5 capillary column. ²Retention index obtained from literature (Adams, 2007).

Table 2 - Effect of *C. rudolphianus* essential oil on *B. glabrata* embryonic stages.

Embryonic stages	Concentrations* µg/mL	Nº of dead embryos (%)	Nº of malformed embryos (%)	Total of non-viable embryos (%)	Mean of non-viable embryos ± SD	LC ₅₀ (confidence limits) µg/mL	LC ₉₀ (confidence limits) µg/mL
Blastulae	C-	4 (0.67)	3 (0.5)	7 (1.17)	1.17 ± 0.75 a		
	50	28 (4.67)	26 (4.33)	54 (9)	9 ± 1.90 b		
	100	237 (39.50)	19 (3.17)	256 (42.67)	42.67 ± 1.86 c	126.54 (124.83 – 128.25)	202.61 (200.9 – 204.32)
	150	252 (42)	98 (16.33)	350 (58.33)	58.33 ± 1.97 d		
	200	426 (71)	54 (9)	480 (80)	80 ± 3.41 e		
	250	588 (98)	12 (2)	600 (100)	100 ± 0 f		
	300	600 (100)	0 (0)	600 (100)	100 ± 0 f		
	C-	4 (0.67)	6 (1)	10 (1.67)	1.67 ± 0.82 a		
	50	36 (6)	16 (2.67)	52 (8.67)	8.67 ± 1.21 b		
	100	213 (35.5)	36 (6)	249 (41.5)	41.5 ± 5.89 c	133.51 (131.64 – 135.38)	216.48 (214.61 – 218.85)
Gastrulae	150	184 (30.67)	136 (22.67)	320 (53.33)	53.33 ± 3.08 d		
	200	206 (34.33)	224 (37.33)	430 (71.67)	71.67 ± 7.5 e		
	250	320 (53.33)	280 (46.67)	600 (100)	100 ± 0 f		
	300	597 (99.5)	3 (0.5)	600 (100)	100 ± 0 f		
	C-	3 (0.50)	3 (0.5)	6 (1)	1 ± 0.63 a		
Trochophore	50	36 (6)	4 (0.67)	40 (6.67)	6.67 ± 1.37 a		
	100	104 (17.33)	126 (21)	230 (38.33)	38.33 ± 5.72 b	143.53 (141.52 – 145.54)	232.98 (230.97 – 234.99)
	150	265 (44.17)	45 (7.5)	310 (51.67)	51.67 ± 1.51 c		
	200	358 (59.67)	42 (7)	400 (66.67)	66.67 ± 7.87 d		
	250	448 (74.67)	102 (17)	550 (91.67)	91.67 ± 3.78 e		
Veliger	300	345 (57.5)	255 (42.5)	600 (100)	100 ± 0 f		
	C-	5 (0.83)	3 (0.5)	8 (1.33)	1.33 ± 1.03 a		
	50	27 (4.5)	3 (0.5)	30 (5)	5 ± 0.89 a		
	100	194 (32.33)	6 (1)	200 (33.33)	33.33 ± 3.98 b	161.95 (159.49 – 164.41)	271.16 (268.7 – 273.62)
	150	266 (44.33)	3 (0.5)	269 (44.83)	44.83 ± 3.49 c		
	200	343 (57.17)	7 (1.17)	350 (58.33)	58.33 ± 2.25 d		
	250	452 (75.33)	38 (6.33)	490 (81.67)	81.67 ± 2.25 e		
	300	516 (86)	79 (13.17)	595 (99.17)	99.17 ± 3.43 f		

*Each concentration was performed in triplicate and repeated twice (n = 600). C-: filtered water. The Tukey's tests was used to evaluate significant differences between treatments, which is represented by different letters (p < 0.05)

Table 3 - Lethal concentrations to *B. glabrata* adults, *S. mansoni* cercariae and *A. salina* treated with *C. rudolphianus* essential oil.

Bioassay	LC ₅₀ (confidence limits) µg/mL	LC ₉₀ (confidence limits) µg/mL
<i>B. glabrata</i> adults	47.88 (44.3 – 51.5)	78.86 (75.26 – 82.46)
<i>S. mansoni</i> cercariae*	14.81 (14.65 – 14.97)	22.15 (21.99 – 22.31)
<i>A. salina</i>	68.33 (65.67 – 70.99)	111.5 (108.84 – 114.16)

* After 120 minutes of exposure time

Table 4 - Mortality rate to *S. mansoni* cercariae treated with *C. rudolphianus* essential oil in relation to exposure time. The data are expressed as average ± SD (n=600). The Tukey's tests was used to evaluate significant differences between treatments, which is represented by different letters (p < 0.05).

Experimental groups	Exposure time (minutes)			
<i>C. rudolphianus</i> EO (µg/mL)	15	30	60	120
5	0 a	0 a	1 ± 1.26 a	8.17 ± 1.94 a
10	0 a	0 a	7.67 ± 1.37 b	21 ± 3.46 b
15	0 a	7.67 ± 2.25 b	16.5 ± 2.95 c	40 ± 4.15 c
20	4 ± 3.69 b	20 ± 3.35 c	37.33 ± 3.88 d	80.33 ± 5.29 d
30	15.83 ± 4.5 C	23.5 ± 4.93 c	49.33 ± 4.27 e	100 e
Control groups				
C-	0 a	0 a	0 a	0 f
CSC	0 a	0 a	0 a	0 f
NCL	100 d	100 d	100 f	100 e

3.2 ARTIGO 2 - EFFECT OF THE ESSENTIAL OIL FROM *Algrizea macrochlamys* LEAVES AND ITS MAJORITARIAN COMPOUND ((E)-CARYOPHYLLENE) ON *Biomphalaria glabrata* ADULTS AND EMBRYOS, AND *Schistosoma mansoni* CERCARIAE

ARTIGO A SER SUBMETIDO AO PERIÓDICO ACTA TROPICA

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Highlights

- Oil lethal effects on *B. glabrata* embryos and adults was proven.
- (E)-caryophyllene showed toxic action to *B. glabrata* embryos.
- *A. macrochlamys* oil had LC₅₀ and LC₉₀ = 46.15 and 61.99 µg/mL, respectively to *B. glabrata* adults.
- Mortality to *S. mansoni* cercariae at all concentration tested of *A. macrochlamys* oil and (E)-caryophyllene was observed.

- This oil and (*E*)-caryophyllene did not show significative mortality to *A. salina*.

Abstract

This research aimed to assess the chemical composition and toxicity against the intermediate host of schistosomiasis (*Biomphalaria glabrata*) and non-target organism (*Artemia salina*) from the essential oil (EO) of *Algrizea macrochlamys* leaves and its majoritarian compound ((*E*)-caryophyllene). As well as evaluated the toxicity of this oil and compound against *Schistosoma mansoni* cercariae. The GC/MS analysis revealed 74 compounds, which 56 were identified. The majoritarian constituents of *A. macrochlamys* oil were (*E*)-caryophyllene (15.10%), followed by γ -eudesmol (13.43%), β -eudesmol (7.76%), α -eudesmol (7.36%), guaiol (5.62%) and germacrene D (5.18%). The EO of *A. macrochlamys* and (*E*)-caryophyllene showed toxic effect in a dose dependent manner on *B. glabrata* at all embryonic stage assayed in this study. In addition, the oil was toxic to *B. glabrata* adults in a dose dependent manner after 24h exposure ($LC_{50} = 46.15 \mu\text{g/mL}$ and $LC_{90} = 61.99 \mu\text{g/mL}$). However, the (*E*)-caryophyllene at all concentrations assayed did not show any mortality rate in adults. Moreover, *A. macrochlamys* oil and (*E*)-caryophyllene cause mortality of *S. mansoni* cercariae ($LC_{50} = 11.36$ and $3.32 \mu\text{g/mL}$ and $LC_{90} = 22.47$ and $5.45 \mu\text{g/mL}$, respectively). The oil and its major compound also decreased the motility of the cercariae, which decrease the ability of these organisms to infect humans. Both oil and (*E*)-caryophyllene did not present toxicity to the non-target organism used in this study.

Keywords: Cercariae; lethal concentration; molluscicidal agents; neglected disease; schistosomiasis.

1. Introduction

Schistosomiasis is a parasitic disease caused by trematode worms of the genus *Schistosoma*. This disease has been reported in 78 countries, and is prevalent in tropical and subtropical areas, particularly in poor communities without access to safe drinking water and adequate sanitation (WHO, 2020). In Brazil, schistosomiasis is caused by the species *Schistosoma mansoni*, which uses snails of the genus *Biomphalaria* as an intermediate host (Neves, 2016). Due to its high rates of infection, extensive geographical distribution and

efficiency in the transmission of schistosomiasis, the species *Biomphalaria glabrata* is considered the most important intermediate host of *S. mansoni* in the Americas (Brasil, 2014).

In accordance with the World Health Organization (WHO, 2020), the strategies control of this disease involves chemotherapy with praziquantel, sanitation, health education, and control of intermediate hosts using molluscicidal agents. Nowadays, the niclosamide (Bayluscide®, Bayer) is the only molluscicide recommended by the World Health Organization Pesticide Evaluation Scheme (WHOPES) (WHO, 2017). However, its use can cause some damage to the environment, because of its toxicity to organism such as amphibians, fishes, and aquatic plants (Martins et al., 2014; WHO, 2017).

Essential oils (EOs) are a mixture of substances originated from plants of secondary metabolism. Usually, the EOs are liquid, soluble in organic solvents, volatile and less dense than water (Oliveira et al., 2019). The EOs play an important role in plants such as the protection against herbivores and microorganisms, plant-plant interaction and pollination (Maffei et al., 2011). Some of them had a wide spectrum of biological activities, such as insecticidal (Santos et al., 2017; Ribeiro et al., 2020), antimicrobial, antioxidant (Veras et al., 2019), and molluscicidal (Gomes et al., 2019).

The Myrtaceae family comprises about 150 genera and 4,630 species of woody shrubs to tall trees. This family is mostly distributed in tropical and subtropical regions, presents large dispersion in Americas and Australia, although it is found all over the world (Dluzniewski et al., 2018). Several species of this family have been used in folk medicine, mainly as an antimicrobial, antioxidant, anti-inflammatory agent and to reduce the blood cholesterol level (Ebadollahi, 2013). Besides that, various studies have reported that EOs from Myrtaceae family showed a good potential to control the intermediate host of *S. mansoni* (Dias et al., 2013; Gomes et al 2019; Pinheiro et al., 2017).

The *Algrizea* genus has two species, *Algrizea minor* and *Algrizea macrochlamys* (Sobral et al., 2010). The EO from the first specie has chemical composition, antimicrobial and antioxidant activities described (Veras et al., 2019). However, for the EO from *A. macrochlamys* there is no records of biological activities studies. In this sense, this work aimed to investigate the toxic effect from the EO of *A. macrochlamys* leaves and its majoritarian compound, (*E*)-caryophyllene, in embryos at all development stage and adults of *B. glabrata*, and *S. mansoni* cercariae, as well as, test their environment toxicity in non-target organism.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1 Collection of plant material and EO extraction

Leaves of *A. macrochlamys* were collected in March 2016 from shrubs in the *Parque Nacional do Catimbau*, Pernambuco, Brazil. Voucher specimens was deposited at the Herbarium of the *Instituto Agronômico de Pernambuco* (IPA, Recife, PE, Brazil), with number IPA 96257.

The extraction of EO was carried out according to Ribeiro et al. (2020), where the fresh leaves (200 g) were triturated with distilled water (2 L) and subjected to the process of hydrodistillation using a Clevenger apparatus for 6 hours. The oil was stored at 4 °C until chemical analysis and biological assays, and its yield was calculated as a percentage based on plant weight (% w/w).

2.2 Chemical characterization of EO

The chemical analysis of the EO from *A. macrochlamys* leaves was carried out using a gas chromatograph (model 7890A; Agilent Technologies; Palo Alto, CA, USA) equipped with an Agilent J & W non-polar HP-5ms™ column (30 m x 0.25 mm id.; 0.25 µm film thickness) and coupled to a selective mass detector (model 5975C; Agilent Technologies; Palo Alto, CA, USA).

An EO solution was prepared in *n*-hexane (2 mg/mL), then 1 µL of this solution was injected in split mode (1:50) with the injector temperature set to 250 °C. The oven temperature was programmed for 40 °C minutes and increased by 4 °C /min until 230 °C where it was maintained at this temperature for 5 min. It was used helium as a carrier gas at a flow rate of 1 mL/min, sustained at a constant pressure of 7.0 psi. The interface with MS was set at 230 °C; quadrupole temperature was set at 150 °C; mass spectra were recorded at 70 eV in Electron impact ionization mode and scanned in the range *m/z* 35-350 at a speed of 1.0 s/scan.

The individual components of the EO were identified by comparison of retention index (RI), obtained by co-injection of each oil sample with C₉-C₃₀ linear hydrocarbons (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) and calculated according to the Van den Dool and Kratz equation (1963), with those reported in the literature. The MS data acquired for each component were compared with those stored in the mass spectral library of the GC-MS system (MassFinder 4, NIST08 and Wiley Registry™ 9th Edition) and with published spectra (Adams, 2009) in order

to confirm identity. Whenever possible, identity of compounds was confirmed using retention times and mass spectra of authentic standards available in the *Laboratório de Ecologia Química* (UFPE). The peak areas on the chromatograms were integrated using the software Agilent MSD Productivity ChemStation (Agilent Technologies, Palo Alto, USA) to obtain the total ion current signal, which was used to determine the relative percentages of each oil component.

2.3 Molluscicidal assay

2.3.1 Maintenance of snails

B. glabrata adults, not infected by *S. mansoni*, were raised in the *Departamento de Biofísica e Radiobiologia, Centro de Biociências, Universidade Federal de Pernambuco, Brazil*. They were maintained in plastic aquarium (50 x 23 x 17 cm) with filtered and dechlorinated water at a temperature of 25 ± 2 °C. The snails were feed daily with organic lettuce, and water of the aquarium were change once a week. Polyethylene sheets (10 x 10 cm) were placed in the aquarium to allow the snail's oviposition.

2.3.2 Bioassays using *B. glabrata* embryos and adults

The bioassay using embryos was performed according to Araújo et al. (2018ab). Briefly, solutions of *A. macrochlamys* oil (30, 40, 50, 60, 70 and 80 µg/mL) and, its majoritarian compound, (*E*)-caryophyllene (Sigma-Aldrich: purity $\geq 80\%$) (5, 10, 15, 20 and 25 µg/mL) were prepared with 0.3% of tween 80. After that, 100 embryos were selected using a stereomicroscope (Wild M3B, Heerbrugg, Switzerland) based on following criteria: intact eggs masses and one embryo per egg. After that, they were placed in the Petri dishes (60 x 15 mm). Then, the embryos were exposed to the *A. macrochlamys* oil and (*E*)-caryophyllene for 24h at 25 ± 2 °C. In the control groups, the embryos were exposed for 24h to dechlorinated water (negative control, C-), 0.3% of tween 80 (co-solvent control, CSC) and 1 µg/mL niclosamide (positive control, NCL). After this period, the egg masses were washed under filtered water and placed in Petri dishes containing filtered and dechlorinated water at 25 ± 2 °C. The number of viable and non-viable (dead and malformed) embryos were determined by observation during 7 consecutive days using a stereomicroscope. The embryonic stage used in this assay were blastulae (0-15 h after spawning), gastrula (24 - 39 h), trochophore (48 - 87 h) and veliger (96 - 111 h) (Kawano et al., 1992). This assay was performed in triplicate.

The bioassay with *B. glabrata* adults was carrying out in accordance with World Health Organization (WHO, 1965). Briefly, groups of 10 snails with 12-14 mm of shell diameter were put in plastics recipients (80 mL) containing solutions of EO from *A. macrochlamys* at 30, 40, 50, 60 and 70 µg/mL and (*E*)-caryophyllene (5, 10, 15, 20 and 25 µg/mL) for 24h at 25 ± 2 °C. In the control groups, the adult snails were exposed for 24h to dechlorinated water (negative control, C-), 0.3% of tween 80 (co-solvent control, CSC) and 1 µg/mL niclosamide (positive control, NCL). Subsequently, the snails were washed under filtrated water, fed with lettuce and observed daily for 7 days at 25 ± 2 °C to record the mortality. The death was confirmed by snail's inactivity; discolored color on the body and shell, and heart beats absence. This bioassay was performed in triplicate.

2.4 Bioassay with *S. mansoni* cercariae

The cercaricide assays were performed according to Silva et al. (2019). *B. glabrata* snails infected with *S. mansoni* (Belo Horizonte strain) were exposed to artificial light (60 W) during 2h for liberation of cercariae. The solutions of *A. macrochlamys* oil and (*E*)-caryophyllene were prepared using 0.3% tween 80. The concentrations used in the cercaricidal bioassay with *A. macrochlamys* oil were 1, 5, 10, 15, 20 and 25 µg/mL. To (*E*)-caryophyllene the concentrations used in this assay were 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6 µg/mL. A suspension of 100 cercariae was kept in a watch glass and exposed to those concentrations. In the control groups, the cercariae were exposed to filtered water (pH 7.0) (negative control, C-), 0.3% of tween 80 (co-solvent control, CSC) and 1.0 µg/mL niclosamide (Bayluscide, Bayer) (positive control, NCL). The assays were maintained at 28 ± 1 °C. The mortality of cercariae was observed with a stereomicroscope (Wild M3B, Heerbrugg, Switzerland) after 15, 30, 60 and 120 minutes after exposure to the EO or (*E*)-caryophyllene. The bioassays were performed in triplicate. The mortality rate and cercariae behaviour, such as motility, atypical rotations and vibrations, were registered. The LC₅₀ and LC₉₀ were calculated in the end of the assay after 120 minutes.

2.5 Assessment of environmental toxicity in non-target organisms (*Artemia salina*)

The *A. macrochlamys* oil and (*E*)-caryophyllene toxicity evaluation on non-target organisms was performed according to Araújo et al (2018b) using *A. salina*. Briefly, 20 mg of encysted eggs of *A. salina* were hatched in a plastic container with 400 mL of natural seawater at 25 ± 2 °C, pH 8.0, under constant aeration for 48h. Afterwards, 10 newly hatched larvae were

separated and exposed to *A. macrochlamys* oil in 0.3% tween 80 at 30, 40, 50, 60, 70 and 80 µg/mL and (*E*)-caryophyllene in 0.3% tween 80 at 5, 10, 15, 20 and 25 µg/mL diluted in natural sea water (5 mL) for 24h. In the controls groups, the larvae were exposed to sea water (negative control, C-), 0.3% of tween 80 diluted in seawater (co-solvent control, CSC) and 1 µg/mL niclosamide (positive control, NCL). After the exposure time, the mortality rate were recorded. This assay was performed in quadruplicate.

2.6 Statistical analysis

The results were expressed by average ± standard deviation (SD). The Graph prism 5.0 software for Windows (GraphPad Software, San Diego, California, USA) was used to perform the One-way fixed-effects ANOVA and Tukey's test (significance at p < 0.05). The LC₅₀ and LC₉₀ (lethal concentrations required to kill 50% and 90% of individuals) were performed using probit analysis with a reliability interval of 95% in StatPlus version 5.98 for Windows.

3. Results

3.1. Acquisition and chemical constitution of the oil

The yield of EO obtained by hydrodistillation of fresh leaves from *A. macrochlamys* was 3.4 ± 0.7% (w/w). This oil was composed of 74 constituents, which 56 were identified. The sum of the identified components represented more than 88% of the EO. Sesqui- and monoterpenes accounted for 84.50% and 4.03% of the oil, respectively. (*E*)-caryophyllene (15.10%), γ-eudesmol (13.43%), β-eudesmol (7.76%), α-eudesmol (7.36%), guaiol (5.62%) and germacrene D (5.18%) were the major compounds (Table 1).

3.2 Toxicity to embryos and adults of *B. glabrata*

The EO from *A. macrochlamys* leaves and (*E*)-caryophyllene, which is the major compound of *A. macrochlamys* oil, have toxic effect in a dependent dose manner on *B. glabrata* embryos at all embryonic stage assayed in this study. The trochophore and veliger stages were more sensitive to *A. macrochlamys* oil than the other phases. On the other hand, the blastulae and gastrulae stages were more sensitive to (*E*)-caryophyllene than trochophore and veliger. The control groups showed more than 98% viability. However, NCL at 1 µg/mL presented

100% of mortality in all embryonic stage. The LC₅₀ and LC₉₀ of all embryonic stage are shown in the Tables 2 and 3 to the *A. macrochlamys* oil and (*E*)-caryophyllene, respectively.

This oil also showed toxic effects against *B. glabrata* adults in a dependent dose manner after 24h exposure. Nevertheless, the (*E*)-caryophyllene at all concentration tested (5-25 µg/mL) did not show any mortality rate. The controls groups C- and CSC present absence of mortality. On the other hand, the NCL at 1 µg/mL presented 100% of mortality. The treatments with the EO from *A. macrochlamys* at 30, 40, 50, 60 and 70 µg/mL present 6.67, 36.67, 56.67, 80 and 100% of mortality after 7 days, respectively (Figure 1). These treatments showed significant differences when compared to the control ($F_{7,16}=185.8$; $p < 0.0001$). The LC₅₀ for *B. glabrata* adults treated with *A. macrochlamys* oil was 46.15 (44.29- 47.97) µg/mL and LC₉₀ was 61.99 (60.15 – 63.83) µg/mL.

3.3 Toxicity to *S. mansoni* cercariae

The toxicity from *A. macrochlamys* oil to cercariae of *S. mansoni* increased with the concentration and exposure time. These results are shown in the Tables 4 and 5. The highest concentration of *A. macrochlamys* EO (25 µg/mL) and (*E*)-caryophyllene (6 µg/mL) at 15 minutes showed a mortality rate of $38.67 \pm 3.5\%$ and $29 \pm 7.07\%$, in the end of the experiment, after 120 minutes, the mortality rate were 100%. In addition to death, the oil and (*E*)-caryophyllene caused changes in the motility of the cercariae, such as, decrease in the motility and rotation in the own axis. The control groups (C- and CSC) did not present any mortality and the cercariae showed normal movements of swimming, and preservation of the body and tail. On the other hand, the NCL group present 100% mortality in the first minute of exposure. According to the statistical analysis, there were significant differences among the concentrations assayed after 120 minutes of exposure time to *A. macrochlamys* oil and (*E*)-caryophyllene ($F_{6,14} = 193.4$; $p < 0.0001$; $F_{5,12} = 109.4$; $p < 0.0001$). The LC₅₀ were 11.36 (11.05 – 11.67) and 3.32 (3.25 – 3.39) µg/mL and LC₉₀ were 22.47 (22.16 – 22.78) and 5.45 (5.38 – 5.52) µg/mL to *A. macrochlamys* EO and (*E*)-caryophyllene, respectively. Both values calculated after 120 minutes.

3.6 Toxicity to non-target organisms

In relation to the non-target organism toxicity bioassay, *A. macrochlamys* oil (30- 80 µg/mL) and (*E*)-caryophyllene (1-25 µg/mL) in all treatment assayed did not show any statistics

relevant toxicity to *A. salina*. The controls groups C- and CSC presented no mortality. However, the NCL at 1 µg/mL presented 100% of mortality.

4. Discussion

The yield of the EO from leaves of *A. macrochlamys* are 3.4 % (w/w), which is better than other species from Myrtaceae family, such as, *Campomanesia aurea* (0.17%), *Campomanesia xantocarpha* (0.02%), *Myrciaria delicatula* (0.19%), *Calyptrothecia clusiifolia* (0.15%), *Calyptrothecia concinna* (0.16%), *Myrcia splendens* (0.01%), *Eugenia osoriana* (0.19%), *Myrciaria tenella* (0.08%), *Myrceugenia reitzii* (1.59%) (Amaral et al., 2018), *Myrcia eximia* (0.01 - 0.36%) (Ferreira et al., 2020), *Eugenia hiemalis* (0.04 - 0.12%) (Zatelli et al., 2016).

The *A. macrochlamys* EO majoritarian compounds, (*E*)-caryophyllene, γ-eudesmol, β-eudesmol, α-eudesmol, guaiol and germacrene D, can also be found in EOs of species of the same family. For example, the (*E*)-caryophyllene was found in *M. eximia* (20.3-15%), *M. tenella* (17.2%), *C. clusiifolia* (6.7%), *M. splendens* (5.6%), *C. aurea* (5.1%), *E. osoriana* (4.1%) (Ferreira et al., 2020) and *A. minor* (3.76%) (Veras et al., 2019). The β-eudesmol and guaiol were found in *C. xantocarpha* (6.0 and 2.3%, respectively) and *M. delicatula* (3.1 and 2%, respectively) (Ferreira et al., 2020). The *A. minor* and *M. eximia* showed germacrene D (4.67 and 0.08 - 2.93%, respectively) (Veras et al., 2019; Ferreira et al., 2020). These data point similarity among the chemical composition of the EOs from *A. macrochlamys* leaves and other species of Myrtaceae.

The EO from leaves of *A. macrochlamys* and (*E*)-caryophyllene induced mortality in all stage of development of *B. glabrata* embryos. To *A. macrochlamys* oil, the final stages (trochophore and veliger) were more susceptible than the initial embryonic stages (blastulae and gastrulae) (Table 2). Similar results were found in the *B. glabrata* embryos treated with potassium usnate at 1-5 µg/mL (Araújo et al., 2018a) and ether extract of *Ramalina aspera* (lichen) at 10-30 µg/mL (Silva et al., 2019). According to Araújo et al. (2018a), this happen because in the final stages of development, the embryos are completely formed and the substance, in this case *A. macrochlamys* oil, has a greater area of contact with the mollusk, thus enabling a great action of the oil. The opposite happened with (*E*)-caryophyllene, the blastulae and gastrulae stages were more sensitive to this compound than trochophore and veliger (Table 3). Similar results have been observed in *B. glabrata* embryos treated with usnic acid from *Cladonia substellata* (lichen) (Araújo et al., 2018b), piplartine amide isolated of *Piper*

tuberculatum (Rapado et al., 2013) and dichloromethane fraction of the extract from *Liagora farinose* (algae) (Miyasato et al., 2012).

According to the World Health Organization (WHO, 1983), crude preparation of the plant material, such as EOs, should be active at 100 µg/mL or less and kill 90% of snails exposed for 24h. In turn, pure molecules, such as (*E*)-caryophyllene, should cause 90% mortality in concentrations equal to or less than 20 µg/mL. (*E*)-caryophyllene did not cause any mortality to *B. glabrata* adults in all concentrations assayed (5-25 µg/mL). In contrast, the EO of *A. macrochlamys* leaves showed toxic effect on adults of *B. glabrata*, with LC₅₀ and LC₉₀ values of 46.15 and 61.99 µg/mL, respectively, being below that recommended by WHO (1983). Other EOs from leaves of the same family, Myrtaceae, also show molluscicidal activity. For example, the EO of *Pimenta dioica* showed toxic effect to *B. glabrata* (LC₅₀ = 18.62 µg/mL; Gomes et al 2019), which is a better result than the one found in this study. *Syzygium cumini* EO from leaves showed molluscicidal effect against *B. glabrata* after 24h of exposure, with LC₅₀ and LC₉₀ of 107 and 240 µg/mL (Dias et al., 2013). The EO from *Eugenia uniflora* had deleterious effect on *Biomphalaria tenagophila* (LD₁₀₀ = 60 µg/mL) and *Lymnaea columella*, an intermediate host of the parasite *Fasciola hepatica*, (LD₁₀₀ = 100 µg/mL) after 24h of exposure (Pinheiro et al., 2017).

Extracts from Myrtaceae species also present molluscicidal effect, such as the methanolic extract from fruits, barks and leaves of *Callistemon viminalis* cause death on *Biomphalaria alexandrina* (LC₅₀= 6.2, 32 and 40 µg/mL, respectively) after 24h of exposure (Gohar et al., 2014). The methanolic extracts from leaves of *Callistemon citrinus*, *Eucalyptus globulus*, and *Melaleuca styphelioides* were toxic to *B. alexandrina* after 24h of exposure, with a LC₉₀ values of 37.8, 245.5 and 783.4 µg/mL, respectively (Mohamed et al., 2018; Al-Sayed et al., 2014).

A. macrochlamys oil and (*E*)-caryophyllene had toxic effect to *S. mansoni* cercariae at all concentration assayed, which is the infectious form for humans (Colley et al., 2014), with LC₅₀= 11.36 and 3.32 µg/mL and LC₉₀ = 22.47 and 5.45 µg/mL, respectively, calculated after 120 minutes. In addition to cause the death of *S. mansoni* cercariae, this oil and its major compound decreased the motility of these organisms. According to Araújo et al. (2018a), these characteristics are not compatible with the cercariae infectious ability. Similarly, to the results found in this study, other natural products also showed toxic effect to *S. mansoni* cercariae, such as, potassium usnate Araújo et al. (2018a) and divaricatic acid (Silva et al., 2018). The potassium usnate possess LC₅₀ and LC₉₀ values calculated after 120 minutes of 0.71 and 2.41 µg/mL, respectively (Araújo et al., 2018a), and the divaricatic acid present a LC₅₀ of 0.89 µg/mL (Silva et al., 2018), which is a better result than the one found in this study.

The oil from *A. macrochlamys* and (*E*)-caryophyllene did not showed any significant toxicity to *A. salina* at all concentration assayed, which is a very good point because the oil and its majoritarian compound are toxic to embryos and adults of *B. glabrata*, cercariae of *S. mansoni*, but is not toxic to non-target organisms, in this case *A. salina*. Notwithstanding, the niclosamide, the only moluscicide recommend by WHOPES (WHO, 2017), at 1 µg/mL showed a mortality rate of 100% to *B. glabrata* (embryos an adults), cercariae of *S. mansoni* and to the non-target organism (*A. salina*). Hence, it might be possible use *A. macrochlamys* oil and (*E*)-caryophyllene as molluscicide and cercaricide agent. Nevertheless, futures research about this EO toxicity in others non-target species are necessary. Dias et al. (2013) evaluated the toxicity to *Syzygium cumini* EO to *A. salina*, in addition to molluscicide tests with *B. glabrata* (LC₅₀ and LC₉₀ of 107 and 240 µg/mL). The LC₅₀ of *S. cumini* EO to *A. salina* was 175 µg/mL, which is worse result than the one found in this study. The EO from *P. dioica* was more toxic to *A. salina* (LC₅₀ = 14.13 µg/mL) than to *B. glabrata* (LC₅₀ = 18.62 µg/mL; Gomes et al 2019).

In conclusion, the EO from *A. macrochlamys* leaves show a high potential to control the *S. mansoni* intermediate host (*B. glabrata*) in its embryonic and adult stages. This oil also had toxic effect to *S. mansoni* cercariae and is not toxic to non-target organism (*A. salina*). The (*E*)-caryophyllene, the majoritarian compound of *A. macrochlamys* oil, also might be a candidate to control schistosomiasis, because its showed toxic effect to embryos of *B. glabrata* and *S. mansoni* cercariae, besides it did not show any toxicity to *A. salina*.

Competing interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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Figures legends

Figure 1 - Mortality of *B. glabrata* adults exposed to the essential oil from *A. macrochlamys* leaves for 24h. The Tukey's tests was used to evaluate significant differences between treatments, which is represented by different letters ($p < 0.05$). The data are expressed as average \pm SD (n=30). C- (negative control): filtered and dechlorinated water; CSC (co-solvent control): 0.3% of tween 80; and NCL (niclosamide): 1 μ g/mL positive control.

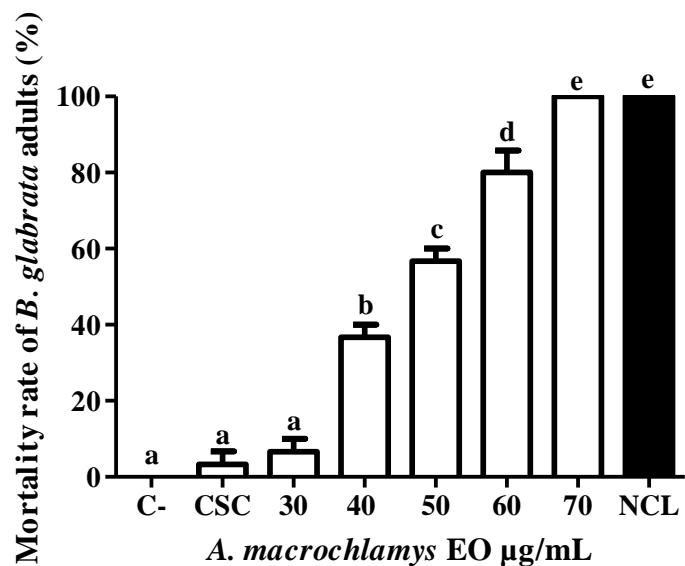


Table 1 - Organic compounds contained in the essential oil from *A. macrochlamys* leaves.

Compounds	RI cal ¹	RI lit ²	Relative area % \pm SD
α -Thujene	925	924	0.02 \pm 0.03
α -Pinene	932	932	0.33 \pm 0.27
Sabinene	972	969	0.01 \pm 0.01
β -Pinene	974	979	0.27 \pm 0.20
Myrcene	992	988	0.02 \pm 0.02
α -Phellandrene	1003	1002	0.01 \pm 0.02
α -Terpinene	1016	1014	0.02 \pm 0.04
p-Cymene	1024	1022	0.04 \pm 0.04
Limonene	1028	1024	0.17 \pm 0.10

1,8-Cineole	1030	1026	2.02 ± 0.71
γ -Terpinene	1059	1054	0.09 ± 0.13
(Z)-linalool oxide (furanoid)	1073	1067	0.02 ± 0.03
(Z)-linalool oxide (furanoid)	1088	1084	0.02 ± 0.03
Terpinolene	1088	1086	0.02 ± 0.04
Linalool	1100	1095	0.26 ± 0.18
Terpinene-4-ol	1178	1074	0.09 ± 0.05
α -Terpineol	1191	1186	0.64 ± 0.22
N.I.	1329		0.01 ± 0.02
δ -Elemene	1339	1335	0.39 ± 0.19
α -Cubenene	1351	1345	0.61 ± 0.13
α -Ylangene	1373	1373	0.04 ± 0.02
α -Copaene	1378	1374	1.44 ± 0.22
β -Bourbonene	1387	1387	0.27 ± 0.09
β -Cubebene	1392	1387	0.23 ± 0.06
β -Elemene	1394	1389	0.98 ± 0.17
α -Gurjunene	1412	1409	0.57 ± 0.15
(E)-Caryophyllene	1422	1417	15.10 ± 2.23
β -Copaene	1431	1430	0.17 ± 0.04
γ -Elemene	1436	1434	0.06 ± 0.02
α -Guaiene	1441	1437	0.18 ± 0.05
Guaia-6,9-diene	1446	1442	0.08 ± 0.03
(E)-3,5-Muuroladiene	1453	1451	1.31 ± 0.32
Humulene	1456	1452	2.98 ± 0.62
9-epi-Caryophyllene	1463	1464	0.60 ± 0.17
(E)-Cadina-1(6),4-diene	1476	1475	1.42 ± 0.42
γ -Muurolene	1480	1478	0.23 ± 0.04
Germacrene D	1483	1484	5.18 ± 0.91
β -Selinene	1489	1489	0.18 ± 0.03
N.I.	1491		0.07 ± 0.04
(E)-Muurola-4(14),5-diene	1494	1493	0.93 ± 0.46
Viridiflorene	1497	1496	0.89 ± 0.41
Bicyclogermacrene	1500	1500	2.49 ± 1.41
α -Muurolene	1503	1500	0.57 ± 0.11
N.I.	1510		0.11 ± 0.03
N.I.	1512		0.16 ± 0.05
γ -Cadinene	1517	1513	0.32 ± 0.11
δ -Cadinene	1526	1522	4.02 ± 1.17
(Z)-Calamenene	1527	1528	2.02 ± 0.58
Zonarene	1529	1528	0.89 ± 0.18
(E)-Cadina-1,4-diene	1536	1533	1.08 ± 0.20
N.I.	1541		0.15 ± 0.01
α -Calacorene	1545	1544	0.12 ± 0.04
N.I.	1551		2.75 ± 0.78
N.I.	1556		0.13 ± 0.06
Germacrene B	1561	1559	0.09 ± 0.05
N.I.	1566		0.04 ± 0.01
N.I.	1570		0.26 ± 0.15

Spathulenol	1580	1577	0.65 ± 0.45
N.I.	1587		1.65 ± 0.90
N.I.	1595		0.39 ± 0.19
N.I.	1597		0.22 ± 0.08
Guaiol	1601	1600	5.62 ± 4.48
N.I.	1606		0.48 ± 0.21
5-epi-7-epi- α -Eudesmol	1610	1607	0.51 ± 0.18
N.I.	1613		0.34 ± 0.11
N.I.	1617		0.27 ± 0.04
10-epi-gama-Eudesmol	1623	1622	1.34 ± 0.32
N.I.	1632		1.70 ± 0.80
γ -Eudesmol	1636	1630	13.43 ± 3.65
N.I.	1644		0.43 ± 0.05
N.I.	1647		2.19 ± 0.66
β -Eudesmol	1656	1649	7.76 ± 0.73
α -Eudesmol	1660	1652	7.36 ± 1.46
Bulnesol	1672	1670	2.48 ± 2.18

¹Retention index calculated from retention times in relation to those of a series of *n*-alkanes separated on a non-polar DB-5 capillary column. ²Retention index obtained from literature (Adams, 2007). N.I.: not identified.

Table 2 - Effect of *A. macrochlamys* essential oil on *B. glabrata* embryonic stages.

Embryonic stages	Concentrations* µg/mL	Nº Dead embryos (%)	Nº of Malformed embryos (%)	Total of non-viable embryos (%)	Mean of non-viable embryos ± SD	LC ₅₀ (confidence limits) µg/mL	LC ₉₀ (confidence limits) µg/mL
Blastulae	C-	0	1 (0.33)	1 (0.33)	0.33 ± 0.58 a		
	30	8 (6.27)	3 (1)	11 (3.67)	3.67 ± 3.06 a		
	40	20 (6.67)	16 (5.33)	36 (12)	12 ± 1.73 ab		
	50	53 (17.67)	31 (10.33)	84 (28)	28 ± 2 b	55.70 (55.20 - 56.20)	71.36 (70.86 - 71.86)
	60	148 (49.33)	29 (9.67)	177 (59)	59 ± 4.58 c		
	70	234 (78)	14 (4.67)	248 (82.67)	82.67 ± 15.14 d		
	80	297 (99)	3 (1)	300 (100)	100 ± 0 e		
	C-	5 (1.67)	0	5 (1.67)	1.67 ± 1.15 a		
Gastrulae	30	12 (4)	3 (1)	15 (5)	5 ± 2 a		
	40	12 (4)	11 (3.67)	23 (7.67)	7.67 ± 1.53 a		
	50	61 (20.33)	21 (7)	82 (27.33)	27.33 ± 4.04 b	56.83 (56.32 - 57.34)	72.94 (72.43 - 73.45)
	60	141 (47)	16 (5.33)	157 (52.33)	52.33 ± 3.51 c		
	70	222 (74)	19 (6.33)	241 (80.33)	80.33 ± 3.51 d		
	80	300 (100)	0	300 (100)	100 ± 0 e		
	C-	2 (0.67)	0	2 (0.67)	0.67 ± 0.58 a		
	30	15 (5)	1 (0.33)	16 (5.33)	5.33 ± 1.53 a		
Trochophore	40	49 (16.33)	20 (6.67)	69 (23)	23 ± 5.29 b		
	50	103 (34.33)	20 (6.67)	123 (41)	41 ± 1.73 c	52.85 (52.29 - 53.41)	70.56 (70 - 71.12)
	60	149 (49.67)	34 (11.33)	183 (61)	61 ± 1.73 d		
	70	228 (76)	25 (8.33)	253 (84.33)	84.33 ± 4.62 e		
	80	300 (100)	0	300 (100)	100 ± 0 f		
	C-	0	1 (0.33)	1 (0.33)	0.33 ± 0.58 a		
	30	9 (3)	13 (4.33)	22 (7.33)	7.33 ± 1.53 a		
	40	40 (13.33)	58 (19.34)	98 (32.67)	32.67 ± 5.51 b		
Veliger	50	64 (21.33)	92 (30.67)	156 (52)	52 ± 13.75 bc	49.85 (49.31 - 50.39)	69.95 (69.41 – 70.49)
	60	148 (49.33)	52 (17.34)	200 (66.67)	66.67 ± 7.77 c		
	70	201 (67)	57 (19)	258 (86)	86 ± 9.64 cd		
	80	300 (100)	0	300 (100)	100 ± 0 d		

*Each concentration was performed in triplicate (n = 300). C-: filtered water. The Tukey's tests was used to evaluate significant differences between treatments, which is represented by different letters (p < 0.05).

Table 3 - Effect of (*E*)-caryophyllene, major compound of *A. macrochlamys* essential oil, on *B. glabrata* embryonic stages.

Embryonic stages	Concentrations* µg/mL	Nº of dead embryos (%)	Nº of malformed embryos (%)	Total of non-viable embryos (%)	Mean of non-viable embryos ± SD	LC ₅₀ (confidence limits) µg/mL	LC ₉₀ (confidence limits) µg/mL
Blastulae	C-	3 (1)	2 (0.67)	5 (1.67)	1.67 ± 0.58 a		
	1	11 (3.67)	25 (8.33)	36 (12)	12 ± 3.61 a		
	5	11 (3.67)	72 (24)	83 (27.67)	27.67 ± 3.06 b	10.08 (9.83 – 10.33)	19.05 (18.8 – 19.3)
	10	10 (3.33)	127 (42.34)	137 (45.67)	45.67 ± 8.5 c		
	15	13 (4.33)	183 (61)	196 (65.33)	65.33 ± 5.86 d		
	20	19 (6.33)	255 (85)	274 (91.33)	91.33 ± 1.15 e		
	25	300 (100)	0	300 (100)	100 e		
	C-	2 (0.67)	1 (0.33)	3 (1)	1 ± 0 a		
	1	16 (5.33)	20 (6.67)	36 (12)	12 ± 1 b		
	5	24 (8)	49 (16.33)	73 (24.33)	24.33 ± 5.13 c	10.27 (10.01 – 10.53)	19.25 (18.99 – 19.51)
Gastrulae	10	21 (7)	128 (42.67)	149 (49.67)	49.67 ± 4.16 d		
	15	39 (13)	149 (49.67)	188 (62.67)	62.67 ± 2.52 e		
	20	66 (22)	205 (68.33)	271 (90.33)	90.33 ± 1.15 f		
	25	300 (100)	0	300 (100)	100 e		
	C-	2 (0.67)	3 (1)	5 (1.67)	1.67 ± 0.58 a		
Trochophore	1	17 (5.67)	11 (3.67)	28 (9.33)	9.33 ± 1.53 a		
	5	24 (8)	44 (14.67)	68 (22.67)	22.67 ± 1.15 b	11.43 (11.16 – 11.7)	20.9 (20.63 – 21.17)
	10	46 (15.33)	85 (28.34)	131 (43.67)	43.67 ± 6.66 c		
	15	116 (38.67)	58 (19.34)	174 (58)	58 ± 8.72 d		
	20	170 (56.67)	77 (25.66)	247 (82.33)	82.33 ± 3.21 e		
Veliger	25	300 (100)	0	300 (100)	100 f		
	C-	1 (0.33)	3 (1)	4 (1.33)	1.33 ± 1.15 a		
	1	14 (4.67)	12 (4)	26 (8.67)	8.67 ± 0.58 a		
	5	48 (16)	14 (4.67)	62 (20.67)	20.67 ± 2.52 ab	12.5 (12.21 – 12.79)	22.77 (22.48 – 23.06)
	10	66 (22)	60 (20)	126 (42)	42 ± 17.78 bc		
	15	89 (29.67)	66 (22)	155 (51.67)	51.67 ± 11.72 cd		
	20	116 (38.67)	106 (35.33)	222 (74)	74 ± 2.65 d		
	25	300 (100)	0	300 (100)	100 ± 0 e		

*Each concentration was performed in triplicate (n = 300). C-: filtered water. The Tukey's tests was used to evaluate significant differences between treatments, which is represented by different letters (p < 0.05).

Table 4 - Mortality rate to *S. mansoni* cercariae treated with *A. macrochlamys* essential oil in relation to exposure time. The data are expressed as average \pm SD (n = 300). The Tukey's tests was used to evaluate significant differences between treatments, which is represented by different letters ($p < 0.05$).

Experimental groups	Exposure time (minutes)			
	15	30	60	120
<i>A. macrochlamys</i> EO (μ g/mL)				
1	0 a	4.67 \pm 1.53 a	7.67 \pm 2.08 ab	11.33 \pm 3.21 a
5	0 a	8.33 \pm 2.08 a	16.67 \pm 3.51 bc	28.67 \pm 3.51 b
10	0 a	10.33 \pm 2.52 a	24.33 \pm 5.51 c	39.67 \pm 9.02 b
15	3.67 \pm 1.53 a	28.33 \pm 5.03 b	40 \pm 4.58 d	57.67 \pm 2.52 c
20	28.67 \pm 6.03 b	39 \pm 4 b	69 \pm 4 e	88 \pm 6.56 d
25	38.67 \pm 3.51 c	64.67 \pm 6.66 c	100 f	100 d
Control groups				
C-	0 a	0 a	0 a	0 a
CSC	0 a	0 a	0 a	0 a
NCL	100 d	100 d	100 f	100 d

Table 5 - Mortality rate to *S. mansoni* cercariae treated with (*E*)-caryophyllene in relation to exposure time. The data are expressed as average \pm SD (n = 300). The Tukey's tests was used to evaluate significant differences between treatments, which is represented by different letters ($p < 0.05$).

Experimental groups	Exposure time (minutes)			
	15	30	60	120
(<i>E</i>)-Caryophyllene (μ g/mL)				
1	0 a	5 \pm 3 ab	13 \pm 4.36 b	18.67 \pm 3.51 b
2	0.33 \pm 0.58 a	7.33 \pm 2.52 ab	20.67 \pm 1.53 b	30.67 \pm 2.08 bc
3	6 \pm 2 a	19 \pm 3.61 bc	25.33 \pm 2.52 b	39 \pm 4 c
4	7.67 \pm 3.21 ab	29.67 \pm 5.69 c	40.33 \pm 5.86 c	54.33 \pm 5.03 d
5	15 \pm 5 b	28 \pm 10.15 c	41.67 \pm 3.06 c	78 \pm 9.85 e

6	24 ± 7.07 c	44.5 ± 4.95 d	77 ± 11.31 d	100 f
Control groups				
C-	0 a	0 a	0 a	0 a
CSC	0 a	0 a	0 a	0 a
NCL	100 d	100 e	100 f	100 f

3.3 ARTIGO 3 - TOXIC EFFECTS OF *Algrizea macrochlamys* AND *Croton rudolphianus* ESSENTIAL OILS FROM LEAVES ON *Aedes aegypti*

ARTIGO A SER SUBMETIDO AO PERIÓDICO PARASITOLOGY RESEARCH

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Abstract

This study aimed to evaluate the toxic potential of the essential oils (EOs) from *Algrizea macrochlamys* and *Croton rudolphianus* leaves against eggs, fourth instar larvae, and pupae from the main vector of dengue, *Aedes aegypti*. These oils were obtained by hidrodestilation. The chemical characterization of the EOs were performed by GC-MS analysis. The majoritarian compounds from *A. macrochlamys* oil were (*E*)-caryophyllene (15.10%), followed by γ -eudesmol (13.43%), β -eudesmol (7.76%), α -eudesmol (7.36%), guaiol (5.62%) and germacrene D (5.18%). On the other hand, (*E*)-caryophyllene (17.33%), unknown compound (16.87%), bicyclogermacrene (7.1%), δ -cadinene (6.62%) and germacrene D (5.38%) were the majoritarian compounds from *C. rudolphianus* oil. The *A. macrochlamys* oil did not showed any toxic action to fourth instar larvae of *A. aegypti*. On the other hand, *C. rudolphianus* oil cause mortality on larvae of *A. aegypti*, with a LC₅₀ value of 21.86 μ g/mL. The EOs from *A. macrochlamys* and *C. rudolphianus* did not showed any mortality to pupae from *A. aegypti*. Both oils present ovicidal effect to eggs of *A. aegypti*. The highest concentration of EOs from *A. macrochlamys* (300 μ g/mL) and *C. rudolphianus* (250 μ g/mL) assayed reduce hatching rate of eggs from *A. aegypti* in 55.34% in relation to control. Thus, *A. macrochlamys* and *C. rudolphianus* oils represent promising sources of bioactive compounds against *A. aegypti*.

Keywords: Dengue fever; essential oils; mosquitoes; natural insecticide; secondary metabolites.

1. Introduction

The dengue is a mosquito-borne viral infection caused by a virus from Flaviviridae family. The symptoms of this illness include severe headache, muscle and joint pains, pain behind the eyes, nausea, vomiting and rash. (WHO, 2020a). According to World Health Organization (2020a), in recent decades the worldwide incidence of dengue has increased dramatically, besides that, about half of the global population is now at risk to get this disease.

The dengue is transmitted by mosquitoes mainly of the specie *Aedes aegypti*, which are found in tropical and sub-tropical regions (Silva et al., 2018). Those mosquitoes also transmit chikungunya virus (CHIKV), Zika virus (ZIKV) and yellow fever virus (Kraemer et al., 2019; WHO, 2020a).

Chikungunya is characterized by fever, severe and debilitating joint pain, headache and myalgia. Some people may develop more severe conditions from this disease, with neurological manifestations, such as encephalitis, meningoencephalitis, myelitis and Guillain-Barre syndrome, bullous skin and myocarditis (Donalisio; Freitas, 2015). The most common symptoms of Zika virus are red patches on the skin, joint pain, conjunctivitis, headache and fever (Brasil, 2019). Zika virus infection in pregnant women can also lead to fetal death, placental failure, fetal growth restriction and congenital microcephaly (WHO, 2020b). The most frequent symptoms of yellow fever include fever, chills, headache, body pain, nausea, vomiting, weakness and fatigue (Brasil, 2020). The severe forms of this disease are characterized by liver and kidney failure, and hemorrhage, leading to death (Cavalcante; Tauil, 2017).

Currently, the most efficient way to prevent those disease transmitted by *A. aegypti* is to eradicate vector mosquitoes, normally using chemical insecticides such as organophosphates (Shaw; Catteruccia, 2019). However, the use of this synthetic substances can cause several damages to the human health and environment (Benelli, 2015), besides, the development of resistant populations of mosquitoes (Bravo et al., 2011).

Many products derived from plants have been assayed about their insecticidal effect against insects, such as lectins (Oliveira et al., 2016), extracts (Gebrezihier et al., 2018) and essential oils (EOs) (Ribeiro et al., 2020; Santos et al., 2017a).

EOs are liquid mixtures of volatile compounds derived from plant secondary metabolic (Pavela; Benelli, 2016; Sharifi-Rad et al., 2017). Those oils are normally obtained by hydro or steam distillation, and characterized by a strong odor (Bakkali et al., 2008; Kar et al., 2018). They play an important role in the protection of plants against herbivores and microorganisms, pollination and plant-plant interactions (Maffei et al., 2011). Due to this, many studies have been reported showing biological activities from essential oils, such as antimicrobial (Araújo et al., 2017; Brito et al., 2018), insecticide (Ribeiro et al., 2020; Santos et al., 2017a), molluscicidal (Costa et al., 2015). Several EOs also have been described as potent larvicidal, pupicidal and for had oviposition-deterrant effect against *A. aegypti* (Bortolucci et al., 2019; Gomes et al., 2016; Santos et al., 2017a; Santos et al., 2014).

The *Croton* genus belonging to Euphorbiaceae family and possess about 1300 species broadly found in tropical regions (Brito et al., 2018). Some EOs from species of *Croton* genus have revealed insecticide effects, such as *Croton linearis* (Amado et al., 2020), *Croton rhamnifoloides* (Santos et al., 2014) *Croton nepetaefolius* (Santos et al., 2017b) to *Aedes aegypti*, and *Croton pulegioidorus* (Silva et al., 2019a) to *Sitophilus zeamais*. *Croton rudolphianus* Müll. Arg., popularly known as “velame-branco”, is a species endemic in Brazil, distributed through the Northeast to Southeast regions (Silva et al., 2010). The EO from this specie showed insecticidal and attractive effects to *Sitophilus zeamais*, the major compounds of this oil were a not known compound (40.90%) and methyl chavicol (22.96%) (Ribeiro et al., 2020).

Algrizea is a genus of the Myrtaceae family endemic to two states in the Northeast (Bahia and Pernambuco). Currently, this genus has two species: *Algrizea minor* and *Algrizea macrochlamys* (Proença et al., 2006; Sobral et al., 2010). Veras et al. (2019) characterized the EO of *A. minor* leaves and described their biological activities. However, there is no information about the chemical composition and biological activities of the EO of *Algrizea macrochlamys*.

Due to this, this paper aimed to evaluate the ovicidal, larvicidal, and pupicidal effects to the EOs obtained from *A. macrochlamys* and *C. rudolphianus* leaves against *A. aegypti*.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1 Plant material and essential oil extraction

Leaves of *A. macrochlamys* and *C. rudolphianus* were collected in March and September 2016, respectively, at *Parque Nacional do Vale do Catimbaú* (PARNA do Catimbaú, Pernambuco, Brazil). Voucher specimens of *A. macrochlamys* and *C. rudolphianus* were deposited at the Herbarium of the *Instituto Agronômico de Pernambuco* (IPA, Recife, PE, Brazil), with numbers IPA 96.257 and IPA 91.091, respectively. The EOs of *A. macrochlamys* and *C. rudolphianus* leaves were obtained by hidrodestilation (100g of fresh leaves and 1L of distilled water) in a Clevenger-type apparatus for 4 - 6h, according Ribeiro et al. (2020).

2.2 GC-MS analysis

The chemical characterization from these EOs were executed using GC-MS analysis. The majoritarian compounds from *A. macrochlamys* oil were (*E*)-caryophyllene (15.10%), followed by γ -eudesmol (13.43%), β -eudesmol (7.76%), α -eudesmol (7.36%), guaiol (5.62%) and germacrene D (5.18%). On the other hand, (*E*)-caryophyllene (17.33%), unknown compound (16.87%), bicyclogermacrene (7.1%), δ -cadinene (6.62%) and germacrene D (5.38%) were the majoritarian compounds from *C. rudolphianus* oil.

2.4 Bioassay with *A. aegypti*

2.4.1 Insects

The insects colony used in this study belongs to Rockefeller strain and it was maintained in the laboratory at $70\% \pm 5\%$ relative humidity and $28 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$, under a 12:12 light-dark photoperiod. *A. aegypti* adults were maintained in cages (33 × 33 × 33 cm) and fed with on 10% sucrose solution (males) and bird blood (females) once a week. To eggs collection, a recipient with distilled water and a piece of filter paper (support for oviposition) were placing in the cage three days after the blood meal. The eggs were hatched by submersion in distilled water, and larvae were maintained in plastic basins and fed on a diet of commercial cat food.

2.4.2 Larvicidal bioassay

This bioassay was carrying out using the method recommended by the World Health Organization (2005), with modifications. A stock solution at 200 and 100 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ of *A.*

macrochlamys and *C. rudolphianus* oils, respectively, were prepared with 0.1% tween 80 and distilled water. Early fourth instar larvae of *A. aegypti* were transferred to disposable cups (20 larvae per cup) containing EOs at different concentrations prepared by dilution of the stock solution with distilled water. To *A. macrochlamys* oil was used concentrations at 10, 50, 100, 150 and 200 µg/mL, and the *C. rudolphianus* oil was used at 10, 15, 20, 25, 30 and 35 µg/mL. The concentrations were defined through pilot tests carried out before the experiments. The control (C) was a solution at 0.1% tween 80. To determine LC₅₀ values, the number of dead larvae was determined after 48 h of incubation at 70% ± 5% relative humidity and 28 ± 1 °C, under a 12:12 light-dark photoperiod. Larvae were considered dead when did not respond to mechanical stimulus or were unable to reach the surface solution (WHO, 2005). The experiments were performed in triplicate.

2.3 Pupicidal bioassays

The same procedure was carried out to the pupicidal bioassay using 24h pupae of *A. aegypti*. Different concentrations (50, 100, 150, 200, 300, 500 and 700 µg/mL) were prepared in disposable cups by dilution of the stock solutions (700 µg/mL) of *A. macrochlamys* and *C. rudolphianus* oils with distilled water. Then, twenty pupae (10 males and 10 females) were transferred these cups. The control (C) was a solution at 0.1% tween 80. After 48h of incubation at 28 ± 1 °C, under a 12:12 light-dark photoperiod, the number of dead pupae was determined. Three independent experiments were performed.

2.4 Ovicidal bioassay

This assay was performed in accordance with the methodology described by Santos et al. (2017a). The eggs (50 per test) adhered on filter paper were selected by considering their integrity and counted using a stereomicroscope (Leica M80). Subsequently, the eggs were placed into 50 mL backers containing different concentrations of *A. macrochlamys* (150, 200, 250 and 300µg/mL) and *C. rudolphianus* oils (100, 150, 200 and 250 µg/mL). Percent egg viability was calculated by dividing the number of larvae that emerged from the eggs after 72 hours treatment by the number of eggs.

2.5 Statistic analysis

The results were expressed by mean \pm Standard Deviation (SD). The One-way fixed-effects ANOVA and Tukey's test (significance at $p < 0.05$) were performed in Graph prism 5.0 software for Windows (GraphPad Software, San Diego, California, USA). In addition, the StatPlus version 5.98 for Windows was used to perform LC₅₀ (lethal concentrations required to kill 50% of individuals).

3. Results and Discussion

Numerous EOs have been demonstrated insecticidal effects against a range spectrum of insects (Lira et al., 2015; Ribeiro et al., 2020; Santos et al., 2017a). Besides that, they are, generally, low cost and cause less damage to the environment and people when compared to synthetic insecticides (Blank et al., 2019). In search for alternative ways to the control of the dengue fever vector, the oils from leaves of *A. macrochlamys* and *C. rudolphianus* were tested against *A. aegypti*. However, the EO from *A. macrochlamys* did not possess any larvicidal effect to fourth instar of *A. aegypti* larvae after 48 hours at all concentration tested (10-200 µg/mL). On the other hand, *C. rudolphianus* oil was effective in promoting the death of this larvae after 48 hours (Figure 1), with a LC₅₀ value of 21.86 [20.51 – 23.25] µg/mL. No mortality was observed in the control. Statistical analysis revealed significant differences in mortality between doses ($F_{6,14} = 43.46$; $p < 0.0001$).

Other EOs also exhibited larvicidal effect against *A. aegypti*, such as the oils from *Syagrus coronata* (Santos et al., 2017a), *Piper marginatum*, *Piper aduncum* and *Piper arboreum* (Santana et al., 2015). The EO from *Syagrus coronata* (Arecaceae) seeds showed toxic effects to fourth instar from *A. aegypti*, with a LC₅₀ value of 21.07 µg/mL (Santos et al., 2017a), which is quite similar to the results found in *C. rudolphianus* oil (LC₅₀ = 21.86 µg/mL). The oils from *P. marginatum*, *P. aduncum* and *P. arboreum* (Piperaceae) leaves were less active against *A. aegypti* larvae than *C. rudolphianus* oil since they showed LC₅₀ values of 34, 46 and 55 µg/mL, respectively) (Santana et al., 2015).

Some EOs from Euphorbiaceae family possess effect against larvae of *A. aegypti*. As example, the EOs from leaves, stalks and inflorescences of *Croton jacobinensis* and the EO from *Croton piauhiensis* and *Croton rhamnifoloides* leaves showed toxic effects to third instar larvae of *A. aegypti*. The LC₅₀ values were 79.3, 117.2 and 65.8 µg/mL (Pinto et al., 2016), 336.8 µg/mL (Silva et al., 2019b) and 89.03 µg/mL (Santos et al., 2014), which are less active to *A. aegypti* than *C. rudolphianus* oil (LC₅₀ = 21.86 µg/mL). The oil from leaves of *Croton*

argyrophyllus also had a toxic effect against larvae in the third and fourth instars of *A. aegypti* (LC₅₀ and LC₉₀ of 0.31 and 0.70 mg/mL; 5.92 and 8.94 mg/mL, respectively) (Cruz et al., 2017). The oil from *Croton tetradenius* leaves present toxic effect against *A. aegypti* larvae in the third or fourth instar, the LC₅₀ and LC₉₀ after 24 h of exposure were 152 and 297 µg/mL (Carvalho et al., 2016), which are worse results than the ones found in this study.

The (*E*)-caryophyllene, the major compound from both EOs, showed a weak deleterious effect to larvae of *A. aegypti* with LC₅₀ values in the range of 1038-1202 µg/mL (Silva et al., 2008; Dória et al., 2010). Due to it, this compound may not be the main responsible for the larvicidal effect observed in the *C. rudolphianus* oil. Germacrene D, other main compound from the oils, possess better larvidal effect to *A. aegypti* (LC₅₀ = 63.3 µg/mL) (Kiran et al., 2006) when compared to (*E*)-caryophyllene. According to some authors (You et al., 2014; Bakkali et al., 2008), the biological activities from EOs, in this case deleterious effect to *A. aegypti*, may be related to synergistic action among the compounds, a particular compound, or the main components can be modulated by other minor molecules.

In relation to pupicidal bioassay, the EOs of *A. macrochlamys* and *C. rudolphianus* did not show any mortality for pupae at all concentrations assayed (50 - 700 µg/mL) in 48 hours. The control group also did not present mortality. Unlike the results found in this study, the EOs from *Croton sonderianus* and *Croton grewioides* possess toxic effects to pupae of *A. aegypti*, with LC₅₀ value of 494.9 and 456.6 µg/mL, respectively (Lima et al., 2013). The *Eucalyptus globulus* oil possess pupicidal effect to pupae of *A. aegypti*, with LC₅₀ and LC₉₀ values of 144.5 and 741.3 µg/mL, respectively (Kaura et al., 2019).

The EOs from *A. macrochlamys* and *C. rudolphianus* showed ovicidal proprieties, because these oils decreased the eggs hatching rate of *A. aegypti* in all concentration assayed, when compared with control, as showed in Table 1. The highest concentration of EOs from *A. macrochlamys* (300 µg/mL) and *C. rudolphianus* (250 µg/mL) assayed reduced the eggs hatching rate of *A. aegypti* in 55.34% in relation to the control. Statistical analysis revealed significant differences in mortality between doses from *A. macrochlamys* and *C. rudolphianus* EOs ($F_{4,10} = 31.85$; $p < 0.0001$ / $F_{4,10} = 66.54$; $p < 0.0001$, respectively). Similar results were found by Lima et al (2013), the EOs from aerial parts of *Croton argyrophyilloides*, *Croton nepetaefolius*, *Croton sonderianus* and *Croton grewioides* decreased the eggs hatching rate of *A. aegypti* (LC₅₀= 116.2, 141.2, 143.2 and 45.7 µg/mL, respectively). These oils also possess toxic effects to third instar of *A. aegypti* larvae, with a LC₅₀ value of 94.6, 66.4, 54.5 and 26.2 µg/mL, respectively (Lima et al., 2013). The oil from *Azadirachta indica* (neem), *Eucalyptus* sp., *Syzygium aromaticum* (clove) reduced the eggs hatching rate of *A. aegypti* (Mirza; Zehra,

2018), similar to *A. macrochlamys* and *C. rudolphianus* oils. However, *S. coronata* EO from seeds did not possess ovicidal properties (Santos et al., 2017a).

4. Conclusion

A. macrochlamys oil from leaves did not present any toxic effect to larvae and pupae of the main dengue vector. However, this oil possess ovicidal effect to eggs from *A. aegypti*, and it could be a tool to control the hatching rate from eggs of the main dengue vector. On the other hand, the EO from *C. rudolphianus* leaves possess toxic effect to eggs and larvae in the fourth instar of *A. aegypti*. Thus, *A. macrochlamys* and *C. rudolphianus* oils represent promising sources of bioactive compounds against *A. aegypti*.

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Figures legends

Figure 1 - Larvicidal effect of the essential oil from *C. rudolphianus* leaves against *A. aegypti*.

The data are expressed as average \pm SD (n=60). The Tukey's tests was used to evaluate significant differences between treatments, which is represented by different letters ($p < 0.05$).

C: negative control (0.1%, v/v, Tween 80).

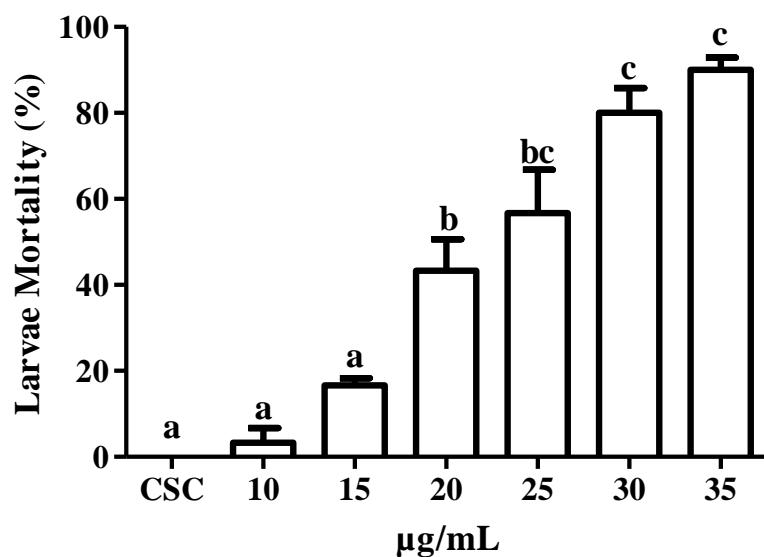


Table 1 - Effect of *A. macrochlamys* and *C. rudolphianus* essential oils on hatching of *A. aegypti* eggs. The data are expressed as average \pm SD (n=150). The Tukey's tests was used to evaluate significant differences between treatments, which is represented by different letters (p < 0.05). C: negative control (0.1%, v/v, Tween 80).

Treatment	Hatching rate (%) \pm SD
Control	78.67 \pm 3.06 a
EO from <i>A. macrochlamys</i> ($\mu\text{g/mL}$)	
150	48 \pm 7.21 bc
200	31.33 \pm 6.11 c
250	28 \pm 9.17 c
300	23.33 \pm 7.57 c
EO from <i>C. rudolphianus</i> ($\mu\text{g/mL}$)	
100	48.67 \pm 4.16 b
150	42.00 \pm 7.21 b
200	29.33 \pm 3.06 c
250	23.33 \pm 4.16 c

4 CONCLUSÕES

O OE obtido a partir das folhas de *C. rudolphianus* apresentou efeito moluscicida contra adultos e todas as fases embrionárias testadas (blástula, gástrula, trocófora e veliger) de *B. glabrata*, e cercárias de *S. mansoni*. Adicionalmente, esse óleo possuiu efeito citotóxico para hemócitos de *B. glabrata* e apresentou uma baixa toxicidade para *A. salina* (organismo não alvo).

Por sua vez, o OE das folhas de *A. macrochlamys* mostrou ser tóxico contra adultos e embriões (nas fases de blástula, gástrula, trocófora e veliger) de *B. glabrata*, e cercárias de *S. mansoni*. Além disso, esse óleo não apresentou nenhum efeito tóxico para o organismo não alvo testado (*A. salina*) nas concentrações utilizadas nesse estudo.

O (*E*)-cariofileno, composto majoritário dos dois OEs, apresentou efeito deletério contra todas as fases embrionárias testadas (blástula, gástrula, trocófora e veliger) de *B. glabrata* e cercárias de *S. mansoni*, além disso, não foi tóxico para o organismo não alvo testado (*A. salina*).

Os óleos de *A. macrochlamys* e *C. rudolphianus* reduziram a taxa de eclosão dos ovos de *A. aegypti*. Além disso, o OE de *C. rudolphianus* apresentou ação tóxica para larvas no quarto instar de *A. aegypti*.

Devido ao exposto, esses dois OEs e o composto (*E*)-cariofileno poderiam ser utilizados no futuro como ferramentas para o controle de duas doenças tropicais negligenciadas: esquistossomose e dengue.

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APÊNDICE A – ARTIGO PUBLICADO NO PERIÓDICO CROP PROTECTION

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Chemical characterization and insecticidal effect against *Sitophilus zeamais* (maize weevil) of essential oil from *Croton rudolphianus* leaves



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ABSTRACT

The control of insect pests (such as *Sitophilus zeamais*) depends mostly on the utilization of synthetic pesticides. Nevertheless, the application of these pesticides leads to many problems; environmental contamination, development of insect resistance, and adverse effects on human health are some of them. This study investigated the chemical constitution, insecticidal activity, and feeding deterrent and repellent effects on *S. zeamais* of essential oil (EO) obtained from *Croton rudolphianus* leaves. Fifty-four compounds were revealed in the *C. rudolphianus* oil. The major compounds of the oil consisted of an unknown compound (40.90%), methyl chavicol (22.96%), (E)-caryophyllene (4.22%), eugenol (4.03%), bicycloelemene (3.96%), bicyclogermacrene (3.81%), and spathulenol (2.79%). The EO was toxic to *S. zeamais* when ingested (LC_{50} 102.66 μ L/g) and caused changes in the nutritional parameters (relative consumption rate, relative biomass gain, and efficiency of food conversion). The oil was also toxic by contact (LC_{50} 70.64 μ L/mL) and fumigation [64 μ L/L in the air caused the highest mortality (43.75%)]. However, no repellent property was detected. The results of this study showed that EO from *C. rudolphianus* leaves is toxic in different ways to *S. zeamais* adults, pointing to its potential use for grain protection.

1. Introduction

Sitophilus zeamais Motschulsky (Coleoptera: Curculionidae), also known as the maize weevil, is a cosmopolitan insect and considered the primary pest of maize; it also attacks wheat, rice, sorghum, and processed food (Tripathi, 2018). The maize weevil can infect healthy grains during cultivation and storage (Suleiman et al., 2015). According to Ojo and Omoloye (2012), *S. zeamais* and other storage insect pests (such as *Sitophilus oryzae*, *Sitotroga cerealella*, and *Prostephanus truncatus*) are responsible for about 14–50% and 1–2% of maize loss during each season in developing and developed countries, respectively. Maize weevil infestations affect food security, nutritional value, seed viability, and market value (Goñi et al., 2017). Additionally, the infestation increases the temperature and moisture content of the stored grains, which may favor the growth of fungi like *Aspergillus flavus* (Chu et al., 2013). It

is estimated that the Brazilian production of maize in 2019/2020 will be around 98.4 million tons (Companhia Nacional de Abastecimento, 2019); it is, however, reported that 20% of this amount will be lost due to the attack of pests on crops, mainly *S. zeamais* (Silva et al., 2017). In this scenario, the control of this insect is extremely important.

The control of maize weevils depends mostly on the use of chemical insecticides (e.g. bifenthrin, fenitrothion, and pirimiphos-methyl). Nevertheless, the uncontrolled application of these substances leads to many problems such as environmental contamination, development of resistant insects, and adverse effects on human health (Bravo et al., 2011). This fact has highlighted the need for more environmentally friendly pesticides, which are safe for humans (Dutta, 2015; Ebadiollahi, 2011). In this respect, primary and secondary metabolites from plants, such as lectins, organic and aqueous extracts, and essential oils (EOs), have been reported as insecticidal agents against insect pests (Benelli

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et al., 2017; Raliya et al., 2018).

EOs are volatile compounds derived from secondary plant metabolites. They are characterized by a strong odor and are usually involved in defense mechanisms against a large spectrum of natural enemies, such as insects and microorganisms (Arnason et al., 2004; Balkali et al., 2008). For this reason, many studies have investigated the insecticidal effects of EOs. For example, EO from *Alpinia purpurata* inflorescences was described as an insecticidal agent against *S. zeamais* (Lira et al., 2015), EOs from *Croton heliotropifolius*, *Croton pulegioides*, *Myracrodruon urundeuva*, and *Ocimum basilicum* were active against *Tribolium castaneum* (Magalhães et al., 2015), and EO from *Croton rhamnifoloides* caused mortality in *Aedes aegypti* (Santos et al., 2014).

The *Croton* genus (Euphorbiaceae family) includes about 1300 species broadly found in tropical regions (Brito et al., 2018). Some EOs from species of that genus have demonstrated insecticide effects (Magalhães et al., 2015; Santos et al., 2014; Lima et al., 2013). *Croton rudolphianus* Müll. Arg., commonly known as "velame-branco", is a species endemic to Brazil, distributed throughout the Northeast to Southeast regions (Silva et al., 2010). The chemical characterization and insecticidal potential of its EO have never been investigated. The aims of this study were to determine the chemical composition of EO extracted from *C. rudolphianus* leaves, to evaluate the survival and nutritional parameters of *S. zeamais* that ingested an artificial diet containing the oil, and to assess the oil's toxicity by contact and fumigation.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Plant material and EO extraction

Fresh leaves of *C. rudolphianus* were collected from the *Parque Nacional do Catimbau*, Pernambuco ($8^{\circ} 34' 01.7'' S$ $37^{\circ} 14' 31.6'' W$), Brazil, in December 2014 and March and April 2015. A voucher specimen (number 91,091) was deposited in the Herbarium of the *Instituto Agronômico de Pernambuco* (IPA, Recife, Brazil). The *Instituto Chico Mendes de Conservação da Biodiversidade* (ICMBio) authorized the collection of plant material (SISBIO 26743). The accession number in the *Sistema Nacional de Gestão do Patrimônio Genético e do Conhecimento Tradicional Associado* (SisGen) is AC7C705.

EO extraction was performed by using a hydrodistillation technique in a Clevenger apparatus for 6 h; fresh leaves (200 g) were triturated with distilled water (2 L) by using a blender. Subsequently, the EO was transferred to amber-glass vials. This procedure was carried out according to Santos et al. (2014), with modifications, and repeated thrice using material from different collections. The extraction yield was expressed in % \pm SD (w/w). The three oil samples were then pooled and stored in amber-glass at 4 °C until chemical analysis and biological assays were performed.

2.2. Chemical composition analysis of the EO

The chemical constitution analysis of the *C. rudolphianus* EO was carried out using a gas chromatograph (model 7890A; Agilent Technologies, Palo Alto, CA, USA) equipped with an Agilent J&W non-polar HP-5ms™ column (30 m \times 0.25 mm; 0.25 µm film thickness) and coupled to a selective mass detector (model 5975C; Agilent Technologies; Palo Alto, CA, USA).

The oven temperature was programmed at 40 °C for 5 min, increased by 2 °C/min until a temperature of 230 °C was reached, and remained constant at this level for 5 min. Helium carrier gas flow was maintained at 100 kPa. The interface with mass spectrometry (MS) was set at 230 °C. The quadrupole temperature was set at 150 °C. Mass spectra were recorded at 70 eV in electron impact ionization mode and scanned in the range *m/z* 35–350 at a speed of 0.5 s/scan.

An oil solution was prepared with pooled EO and hexane (1:50, v/v, with hexane) and a 1 µL aliquot of this solution was injected in split mode (1:50) in a mass spectrometer. To identify the components of the

EO, we compared the Retention Indices (RI) reported in the literature and those we acquired by co-injecting a standard solution of linear C9–C30 hydrocarbons (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) obtained in accordance with the equation of Van den Dool and Kratz (1963). To confirm the identification of the compounds, the mass spectrum results obtained for each component were matched to the mass spectral library of the GC-MS system (MassFinder 4, NIST08, and Wiley Registry™ 9th Edition) and to published spectra (Adams, 2009).

The same oil solution was analyzed on a Trace GC Ultra gas chromatograph (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) equipped with a flame ionization detector (FID), a split/splitless injector, and a Hamilton Bonaduz (Bonaduz Switzerland) HB-5 fused silica capillary column (30 m \times 0.25 mm; film thickness 0.25 µm) to quantify the relative amount of each compound in relation to the total amount of compounds in the oil. The oven temperature conditions were the same as described above for the GC-MS analysis. The detector and injector temperatures were set to 250 °C. A 1 µL aliquot of the sample was injected three times in splitless mode.

2.3. Insecticidal assay

2.3.1. Insects

A *S. zeamais* colony was reared at the *Laboratório de Bioquímica de Proteínas, Departamento de Bioquímica, Universidade Federal de Pernambuco*, Recife, Brazil, in glass containers (1 L capacity) covered with non-woven fabric and kept in a BOD chamber at a 12:12 L:D photoperiod, 28 \pm 2 °C, and 70% relative humidity. Their diet consisted of non-transgenic organic maize grains (100 g per container). Male and female insects (30–60 days old) were used in the assays. The authorization number of the *Instituto Chico Mendes de Conservação da Biodiversidade* (ICMBio) for rearing *S. zeamais* was 36301.

2.3.2. Assessment of the ingestion toxicity of the EO

For this bioassay, an artificial diet was prepared for the insects in accordance with Lira et al. (2015) by using autoclaved wheat flour (2.0 g; Dona Benta®, Bunge Alimentos S.A., Benevides, PA, Brazil) in a 5 mL oil solution (in 1% Tween 80). The concentrations used in this test were 31.25, 62.5, and 125 µL/g (µL of neat oil/g of wheat flour). In the control treatment, the diet was prepared with 5 mL of a solution consisting of 1% Tween 80 and autoclaved wheat flour. Subsequently, five aliquots (200 µL) of the suspension or control treatments, which were measured with a micropipette fitted with a disposable tip cut at the narrow end (2 mm of internal diameter) were added in Petri dishes with known weight (90 mm \times 100 mm). The dishes were left to dry in an oven for 48 h at 30 °C. Then, twenty *S. zeamais* adults were transferred to each dish. After 7 days in darkness at 28 \pm 2 °C the weights of the broken flour disks and the weights and mortality rate of the insects were recorded. These tests were conducted five times.

The deterrent and nutritional indices were determined by using the toxicity results obtained by ingestion assays. The feeding deterrence index (FDI) was calculated by the formula FDI (%) = 100 \times (C-T)/C, according to Isman et al. (1990), where C and T represent the diet consumption in the control and treatment groups, respectively. Based on these values, the diets including oil were classified in accordance with Liu et al. (2007) as follows: no feeding deterrence (FDI < 20%), weak (50% $>$ FDI \geq 20%), moderate (70% $>$ FDI \geq 50%), or strong (FDI \geq 70%) feeding deterrence.

The relative consumption rate was calculated as (RCR) = (mg of biomass ingested)/(mg of initial insect biomass \times days). The relative biomass gain rate was calculated as (RBG) = (mg of biomass gained)/(mg of initial insect biomass \times day). Then, the efficiency of food conversion was calculated as (ECI) (%) = 100 \times (biomass gained)/(food ingested). All these nutritional parameters were calculated in accordance with Xie et al. (1996).

2.3.3. Assessment of the contact toxicity of the EO

To evaluate the contact toxicity of *C. rudolphianus* oil, we used a method described by Lira et al. (2015). Briefly, solutions of *C. rudolphianus* oil were prepared in 1% (v/v) Tween 80. The concentrations used in this bioassay were 0.75, 1.88, 7.5, 37.5, and 75 µL/mL. Then, 0.5 µL of these solutions was topically applied on the back of the insects' thoracic region by using a micropipette. The insects in the negative control group were treated with 0.5 µL of 1% (v/v) Tween 80. Twenty insects were used in each assay and maintained in plastic recipients (4.0 cm wide and 6.0 cm long). The plastic recipients were kept for 7 days in darkness at 28 ± 2 °C. The mortality rate was recorded after 7 days. The tests were conducted five times.

2.3.4. Assessment of the fumigant toxicity of the EO

This bioassay was carried out in accordance with the method proposed by Chu et al. (2010). Briefly, the lid of the plastic recipient (4.0 cm wide, 6.0 cm long, and 80 mL in volume) was covered with a filter paper that had previously been impregnated with 1.28, 2.56, or 5.12 µL of neat EO from *C. rudolphianus* to achieve final concentrations of 16, 32, and 64 µL/L in the air, respectively. In the control group, we used paper that did not receive any treatment. Polytetrafluoroethylene (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) was applied around the paper in order to prevent the insects from coming into contact with it. Twenty *S. zeamais* adults were put in each recipient. After the evaporation time (30 s) had passed, the lids were tightly closed in order to form a sealed chamber. The insects stayed in these closed containers for 24 h at 28 ± 2 °C. After that, the insects were placed in clean recipients and incubated for 7 days in darkness at 28 ± 2 °C. After the incubation period, the mortality rate was recorded. The tests were conducted five times.

2.3.5. Assessment of the repellent effect of the EO

The repellent assay was performed by using arenas analogous to those described by Lira et al. (2015). Each arena was formed by three plastic recipients (4.0 cm wide and 6.0 cm long), where the central recipient was connected symmetrically with the two other recipients through silicone tubes (11.5 mm diameter and 7.0 cm long). Filter papers were used to cover the lids of the recipients on the left and right sides. The papers on the left side were impregnated with 20 µL of the EO solution at 18.5, 37.5, and 75 µL/mL in 1% Tween 80. The filter papers on the right side were impregnated with 20 µL of 1% Tween 80 (control). After that, ten insects were placed in the central recipient. The arenas were kept in darkness, at 28 ± 2 °C, for 7 days. To calculate the repellency index (REI), the number of *S. zeamais* present in each container was registered once after the incubation period. The REI was obtained according to Mazzonetto and Vendramim (2003) as $2T/(T + C)$, where T is the percentage of *S. zeamais* in the oil recipient (treatment) and C is the percentage of *S. zeamais* in the control recipient. Standard deviations (SD) were calculated and the results were considered as attractive effect ($REI \pm SD > 1$) or repellent effect ($REI \pm SD < 1$). Each assay had four replicates in different arenas.

2.4. Statistical analysis

Data were expressed as mean ± SD. The GraphPad Prism 5.0 software for Windows (GraphPad Software, San Diego, California, USA) was used to perform one-way fixed effects ANOVA and Tukey's tests (significance at $p < 0.05$) for the assays of toxicity by ingestion, contact, and fumigation and for the repellent test. The lethal concentration required to kill 50% of insects (LC_{50}) was calculated by StatPlus version 5.98 (AnalystSoft, Canada) for Windows by probit analysis with a reliability interval of 95% by using the mortality rates calculated by Abbott's correction for the assays of toxicity by ingestion and contact.

3. Results

3.1. Acquisition and chemical constitution of the oil

The EO yield obtained by the hydrodistillation of *C. rudolphianus* leaves was $1.138 \pm 0.25\%$ (w/w) and a total of 2.28 g was extracted. The GC-MS analysis revealed 54 volatile compounds (Table 1). The sum of the identified compounds corresponded to more than 50% of the total components detected in the EO. Among the identified compounds, sesquiterpenes were the dominant compound class (24.41%) followed by phenylpropanoids (22.96%) and monoterpenes (5.15%). We could not

Table 1
Relative amount of chemical constituents of the essential oil of *C. rudolphianus* leaves.

Compounds	RI calc. ^a	RI lit. ^b	Relative amount (%)	SD
α-Pinene	932	932	0.08	0.01
Myrcene	990	988	0.18	0.01
Limonene	1027	1024	0.72	0.00
(E)-β-Ocimene	1048	1044	0.09	0.00
Linalool	1099	1095	0.05	0.00
Methyl chavicol	1198	1195	22.96	0.02
NI	1331	–	0.29	0.02
Bicycloleocene	1338	–	3.96	0.46
NI	1353	–	0.12	0.01
Eugenol	1358	1356	4.03	0.08
α-Copaene	1377	1374	0.21	0.00
β-Cubenene	1387	1387	0.13	0.00
β-Elemene	1393	1389	0.50	0.01
(E)-Caryophyllene	1421	1417	4.22	0.04
β-Copaene	1431	1430	0.24	0.00
α-(E)-Bergamotene	1438	1432	0.21	0.00
Aromandrene	1440	1439	0.26	0.00
NI	1447	–	0.14	0.01
(E)-3,5-Muuroladiene	1452	1451	0.12	0.00
Humulene	1455	1452	0.64	0.01
9-epi-Caryophyllene	1464	1464	0.36	0.01
(E)-Cadin-1(6),4-diene	1476	1475	0.15	0.00
γ-Muurolene	1479	1478	0.23	0.01
Germacrene D	1482	1480	1.24	0.01
Bicyclogermacrene	1499	1499	3.81	0.06
Germacrene A	1509	1508	0.16	0.00
γ-Cadinene	1515	1513	0.43	0.00
δ-Cadinene	1525	1522	1.14	0.02
(E)-Cadin-1,4-diene	1535	1533	0.10	0.00
NI	1543	–	0.10	0.00
NI	1564	–	0.06	0.00
NI	1570	–	0.57	0.00
Spathulenol	1581	1577	2.79	0.03
NI	1589	–	0.91	0.01
NI	1597	–	0.32	0.01
NI	1601	–	0.20	0.01
NI	1608	–	0.32	0.01
NI	1615	–	0.13	0.00
NI	1628	–	0.15	0.01
1-epi-Cubanol	1631	1627	0.71	0.00
NI	1642	–	0.36	0.01
NI	1647	–	0.54	0.01
NI	1659	–	0.48	0.02
NI	1671	–	1.14	0.02
NI	1683	–	40.90	0.92
NI	1698	–	0.12	0.04
(2E,6Z)-Farnesal	1715	1713	0.22	0.06
(2Z, 6E)-Farnesol	1722	1722	0.53	0.05
(2E,6E)-Farnesal	1743	1740	0.26	0.01
NI	1749	–	0.07	0.00
NI	1766	–	0.42	0.06
NI	1775	–	0.07	0.01
(2E,6E)-Methyl farnesoate	1785	1783	1.79	0.01
NI	1792	–	0.05	0.00

^a Linear Retention Indices (RI) calculated from retention times in regard to a standard mixture of hydrocarbons separated on a non-polar DB-5 capillary column.

^b LRI literature from Adams (2007), NI: not identified compound, SD: standard deviation.

elucidate the major constituent of the oil, which alone accounted for about 40.90% of the composition. Further major constituents were phenylpropanoid methyl chavicol (22.96%), the sesquiterpene (*E*-caryophyllene (4.22%), the monoterpene eugenol (4.03%), and the sesquiterpenes bicycloelemene (3.96%), bicyclogermacrene (3.81%), and spathulenol (2.79%).

3.2. Assessment of the ingestion toxicity

The increase of the *C. rudolphianus* oil concentration in the diet led to an increase in the mortality of *S. zeamais* adults (Fig. 1). The mean mortality rates of *S. zeamais* after 7 days were 1.4 ± 0.9 , 3.4 ± 0.5 , 5.4 ± 1.1 , and 13.6 ± 1.0 insects for the control, 31.25, 62.5, and 125 $\mu\text{L/g}$ treatments, respectively. Statistical analysis revealed significant differences in mortality between doses ($F_{3,14} = 195.1$; $p < 0.0001$) and the LC₅₀ was 102.66 (93.12–112.21) $\mu\text{L/g}$. Furthermore, the presence of *C. rudolphianus* oil in the diet interfered with all the parameters of insect nutrition. After 7 days of treatment, three nutritional parameters were analyzed: relative consumption rate, relative biomass gain rate, and efficiency in the conversion of ingested food. Relative consumption rates differed significantly among treatments ($F_{3,12} = 285.8$; $p < 0.0001$) and showed that insects ingested significantly more food in the diet with EO included at a 125 $\mu\text{L/g}$ rate than in the control diet (Fig. 2A).

The relative biomass gain rates (Fig. 2B) were equal to the control in the 31.25 and 62.5 $\mu\text{L/g}$ treatments and lower in the 125 $\mu\text{L/g}$ concentration ($F_{3,12} = 30.98$; $p < 0.0001$). In respect to the efficiency in the conversion of ingested food, there was also a significant difference among treatments ($F_{3,10} = 55.95$; $p < 0.0001$). In the treatments with oil at the 62.5 and 125 $\mu\text{L/g}$ concentrations, the efficiency was lower than in the control treatment (Fig. 2C). In relation to the feeding-deterrence index, no deterrence was observed at any of the concentrations tested.

3.3. Assessment of toxicity by contact

The EO of *C. rudolphianus* leaves caused the death of *S. zeamais* when applied topically on the insects (Fig. 3). Mortality increased with increasing oil concentrations applied on the insects ($F_{5,23} = 55.27$; $p < 0.0001$). The LC₅₀ determined was 70.64 (62.96–78.31) $\mu\text{L/mL}$.

3.4. Assessment of fumigant toxicity and repellent effect

The *C. rudolphianus* EO had a fumigant toxicity effect on *S. zeamais* adults. An increase in oil concentration was directly related to an increase in insect mortality (Fig. 4). The highest mortality rate ($43.75 \pm 4.79\%$) was observed in the 64 $\mu\text{L/L}$ treatment in the air. According to

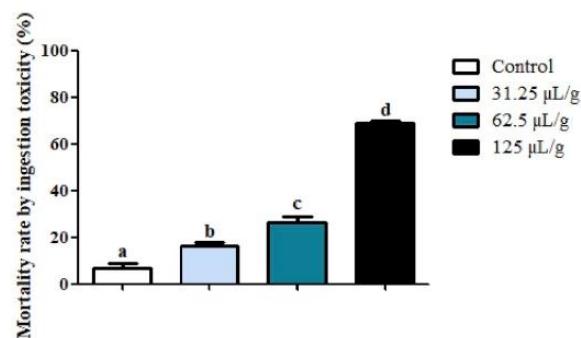


Fig. 1. Mortality rate of *S. zeamais* that were 7 days on an artificial diet containing *C. rudolphianus* essential oil. The control was 1% (v/v) Tween 80. The Tukey's test was used to evaluate significant differences between treatments [represented by different letters ($p < 0.05$)]. Each bar corresponds to the mean \pm SD of five replicates.

the statistical analysis, there were significant differences among the concentrations assayed ($F_{2,8} = 7.90$; $p = 0.0127$).

The *C. rudolphianus* oil did not have a repellent effect at any of the tested concentrations. On the contrary, REI values ranged from 1.55 to 1.36, without significant differences among treatments ($F_{2,8} = 0.8459$; $p = 0.4642$), indicating an attractive action.

4. Discussion

The EO yield of *C. rudolphianus* leaves ($1.138 \pm 0.25\%$) can be compared to that of oils extracted from leaves of other *Croton* species found in Brazil, such as the red variation of *Croton cajucara* (0.97%) (Chaves et al., 2006), *Croton cordifolius* (0.81%) (Nogueira et al., 2015), *Croton rhamnifoloides* (accepted name: *Croton heliotropifolius*) (0.80%), and *Croton regelianus* (0.80%) (Santos et al., 2014; Bezerra et al., 2009).

In general, some EOs from *Croton* species' leaves contain the major constituents of *C. rudolphianus* detected in this study. For instance, *Croton zehntneri* (accepted name: *Croton grewioides*) has methyl chavicol (93.6%) (Donati et al., 2015); *Croton campestris*, *Croton conduplicatus* (accepted name: *C. heliotropifolius*), *Croton argyrophyllus*, *C. rhamnifoloides*, and *Croton adamantinus* contain (*E*-caryophyllene (17.0%, 2.96–9.14%, 6.79%, 4.37–6.33%, and 5.80%, respectively) (Almeida et al., 2013, 2014; Ramos et al., 2013; Santos et al., 2014; Ximenes et al., 2013); *C. campestris*, *C. argyrophyllus*, *C. conduplicatus*, and *Croton heterocalyx* oils contain bicyclogermacrene (16.2%, 14.6%, 1.06–13.76%, and 11.2%, respectively) (Almeida et al., 2013, 2014; Ramos et al., 2013; Moreno et al., 2009); *C. conduplicatus* and *C. heterocalyx* oils contain spathulenol (3.98–13.38% and 6.9%, respectively) (Almeida et al., 2014; Moreno et al., 2009).

When ingested, the oil from the *C. rudolphianus* leaves caused mortality in *S. zeamais*; it did not, however, have any feeding deterrent effect. Furthermore, the insects fed more on the artificial diet with the 125 $\mu\text{L/g}$ EO concentration than they did on the control and other diets, while showing reduced efficiency in the conversion of the ingested food. Although they ate more food than insects in the other treatment groups, the insects treated with the 125 $\mu\text{L/g}$ EO concentration had a lower weight gain, indicating a difficulty in *S. zeamais* to incorporate the nutrients from their diet. These results indicate an interesting potential of *C. rudolphianus* oil for the control of *S. zeamais*, since the insects preferred to feed on diets containing this oil, which may be toxic for them. It could be suggested that the anti-nutritional properties and the mortality rates observed in this study are possibly related to post intake effects caused by the oil compounds.

Some natural products, such as EO and lectins, have been evaluated for toxicity by ingestion in *S. zeamais*. The ingestion of the *Alpinia purpurata* inflorescences EO did not kill the insects in 7 days; it did, however, decrease the biomass gain rate and the efficiency in the conversion of ingested food (Lira et al., 2015) and had an anti-nutritional effect similar to that caused by the *C. rudolphianus* oil. The lectins from *Myracrodruon urundeuva* and *Schinus terebinthifolius* leaves and *Opuntia ficus-indica* cladodes also had anti-nutritional effects when ingested by *S. zeamais* (Napoleão et al., 2013; Camaroti et al., 2018; Souza et al., 2018).

The *C. rudolphianus* EO also had a toxicity by contact effect on *S. zeamais* adults ($\text{LC}_{50} = 70.64 \mu\text{L/mL}$). Previous studies showed that the major compounds of *C. rudolphianus* EO, such as methyl chavicol and eugenol [$(\text{LC}_{50} = 76.1$ and $186.2 \mu\text{g/cm}^2$, respectively; Zaiò et al., 2018)] have insecticidal effects by contact against *S. zeamais* and other stored-grain pests, corroborating our results. The latter compound also had a contact toxicity effect on *S. oryzae* (Chaubey, 2016), *Sitophilus granarius* (Plata-Rueda et al., 2018), and the early fourth-instar of *Sphodoptera littoralis* (Hummelbrunner and Isman, 2001). Moreover, methyl chavicol and (*E*-caryophyllene have also shown insecticidal effects by contact against *T. castaneum* ($\text{LD}_{50} = 20.41$ and $41.72 \mu\text{g/adult}$, respectively) and *Liposcelis bostrychophila* ($\text{LD}_{50} = 30.22$ and $74.11 \mu\text{g/adult}$, respectively) (Guo et al., 2015).

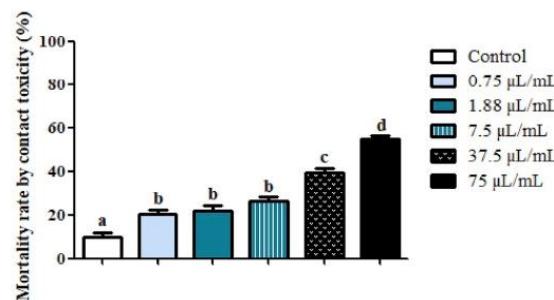
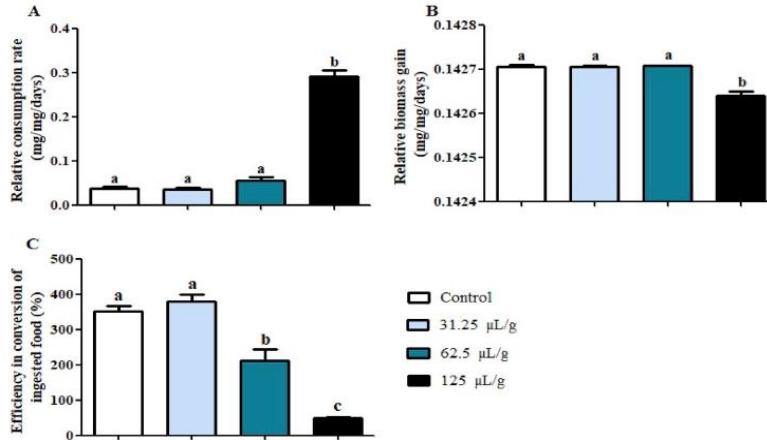


Fig. 3. Mortality rate in *S. zeamais* by contact toxicity of *C. rudolphianus* essential oil. The control was 1% (v/v) Tween 80. The Tukey's test was used to evaluate significant differences between treatments [represented by different letters ($p < 0.05$)]. Each bar corresponds to the mean \pm SD of five replicates.

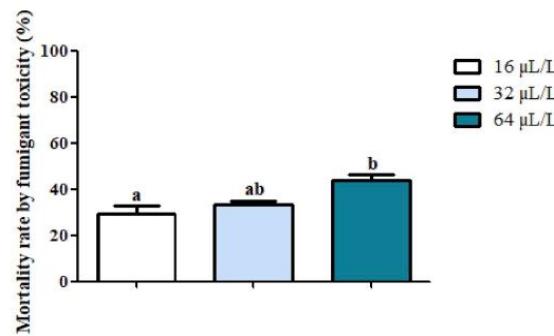


Fig. 4. Mortality rate in *S. zeamais* by fumigant toxicity of *C. rudolphianus* essential oil. No mortality was observed in the control group. The Tukey's test was used to evaluate significant differences between treatments [represented by different letters ($p < 0.05$)]. Each bar corresponds to the mean \pm SD of five replicates.

Fig. 2. Nutritional parameters of *S. zeamais* adults maintained on artificial diets containing solutions of *C. rudolphianus* essential oil at 31.25, 62.5, 125 µL/g, or the control (1% Tween 80). (A) Relative consumption rate: quantity of food ingested (mg) per mg of body. (B) Relative biomass gain rate: biomass (mg) obtained every day per mg of initial body weight. (C) Efficiency in conversion of ingested food (%): quantity of ingested food turned into biomass by insects. The Tukey's test was used to evaluate significant differences between treatments [represented by different letters ($p < 0.05$)]. Each bar corresponds to the mean \pm SD of five replicates.

Many EOs (and their major constituents) from members of the Euphorbiaceae family have been found to possess fumigant toxicity effects on *S. zeamais* and other grain pests. For example, the EOs from *C. heliotropifolius* and *C. pulegioides* leaves were found to be toxic by fumigation against *T. castaneum* (Magalhães et al., 2015). The oil from *C. pulegioides* leaves also caused the death of *Rhyzopertha dominica* adults ($LC_{50} = 48.66 \mu\text{L/L}$ in air) (Souza et al., 2016), which is better result than the one found in this study. The EOs from *C. grewioides* leaves and stems exhibited toxicity against the Mexican bean weevil (*Zabrotes subfasciatus*) ($LC_{50} = 4.0$ and $13.7 \text{--} 48.66 \mu\text{L/L}$ in air, respectively) (Silva et al., 2008). The *Mallotus apelta* EO was toxic by fumigation on *S. zeamais* ($LC_{50} = 48.42 \text{ mg/L}$ in air; Liu et al., 2014). Furthermore, the compound methyl chavicol had a fumigant toxicity effect on *S. zeamais* adults ($LC_{50} = 14.10 \text{ mg/L}$ in air; Zhou et al., 2012). The compounds (E)-caryophyllene and eugenol were toxic by fumigation to *S. oryzae* ($LC_{50} = 1.98 \mu\text{L/cm}^3$; $LC_{50} = 0.167$ and $0.152 \mu\text{L/cm}^3$ for 24 and 48 h, respectively) (Chaubey, 2012, 2016). Methyl chavicol, (E)-caryophyllene, and eugenol constituted around 31% of the *C. rudolphianus* leaves' EO, therefore these compounds are possibly related to the fumigant effect observed in this paper.

The mechanism of the *C. rudolphianus* EO toxicity on *S. zeamais* may be related to an acetylcholinesterase (AChE) inhibition. Evidence for this comes from studies by López and Pascual-Villalobos (2014) and Chauhan (2012, 2016), who found that some of the major constituents of the *C. rudolphianus* EO, i.e., methyl chavicol, (E)-caryophyllene, and eugenol, exert a strong inhibition of AChE on congeneric *S. oryzae*. AChE is an enzyme responsible for the catalysis of the acetylcholine hydrolysis (neurotransmitter), which acts by transmitting the message from one neuron to another in the nervous system in several organisms. When an AChE inhibition occurs, there is an acetylcholine accumulation at the cholinergic synapses, disturbing nerve impulse transmission (López and Pascual-Villalobos, 2014).

The potential repellent effects of EOs and their chemical constituents against insects have been evaluated for many plant species (Mossa, 2016). In this paper, the EO of *C. rudolphianus* exerted an attractive effect on *S. zeamais* adults ($REI > 1$), which could be useful in traps aiming to protect stored commodities from the maize weevil (Bayisa et al., 2017). However, methyl chavicol (Bedini et al., 2016), (E)-caryophyllene (Benelli et al., 2012), and eugenol (Chauhan, 2016), from the three primary components of *C. rudolphianus* EO, were found to have repellent activity against *S. zeamais*, *Sitophilus granarius*, and *S. oryzae*, respectively. In addition, methyl chavicol and (E)-caryophyllene also have repellent effects against *R. dominica* and *Tribolium confusum* (Bedini et al., 2016; Bougherra et al., 2015). A previous paper indicates that the

attractive effect of EOs is commonly attributed to a synergistic action among the compounds (You et al., 2014). However, in some cases the EO effect is related to a particular compound. It has also been suggested that the activity of the main components can be modulated by other minor molecules (Bakkali et al., 2008). In our study, it is possible that the major component of the *C. rudolphianus* EO, which was not identified, is involved in this attractive effect.

In summary, the EO from *C. rudolphianus* leaves represents a promising alternative for maize weevil management, due to its many different modes of action and its attractive effects that could be useful in creating lures in maize weevil traps.

Author contributions

Ingrid A.T.A. Ribeiro: Conceptualization, Data curation, Formal analysis, Investigation, Methodology, Writing – original draft. Writing – review & editing. **Rosimere da Silva:** Investigation. **Alexandre G. Silva:** Data curation; Formal analysis; Resources. **Paulo Milet-Pinheiro:** Data curation; Formal analysis; Investigation; Writing - review. **Patrícia M.G. Paiva:** Funding acquisition; Methodology; Resources. **Daniela M.A.F. Navarro:** Data curation; Formal analysis; Funding acquisition; Methodology; Resources; Supervision; Validation; Writing - review. **Márcia V. Silva:** Conceptualization; Funding acquisition; Project administration; Resources; Supervision. **Thiago H. Napoleão:** Conceptualization; Data curation; Formal analysis; Funding acquisition; Investigation; Methodology; Resources; Supervision; Validation; Writing - original draft; Writing - review & editing. **Maria T.S. Correia:** Conceptualization; Formal analysis; Funding acquisition; Project administration; Resources; Supervision; Writing - review.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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ANEXO A - ACTA TROPICA (GUIDE FOR AUTHORS)



ACTA TROPICA

AUTHOR INFORMATION PACK

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DESCRIPTION

Acta Tropica, is an international journal on infectious diseases that covers public health sciences and biomedical research with particular emphasis on topics relevant to human and animal health in the tropics and the subtropics.

Its scope includes the biology of pathogens and vectors, host-parasite relationships, mechanisms of pathogenicity, clinical disease and treatment, and we welcome contributions in basic or applied research in disciplines such as epidemiology, disease ecology, diagnostics, interventions and control, mathematical modeling, public health and social sciences, climate change, parasite and vector taxonomy, host and parasite genomics, biochemistry and immunology and vaccine testing.

Contributions may be in the form of original research papers, review articles, short communications, opinion articles, or letters to the Editors.

Only manuscripts of high scientific significance and innovation will be considered for publication. Manuscripts of minimal international relevance, case reports, and control strategies at very early inconclusive laboratory stages of development will not be considered for publication.

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Editors and the Editorial Board of *Acta Tropica* provide the following guidelines to help authors prepare manuscripts of high quality that can be considered for publication. Maximize your chances of acceptance by making sure your manuscript: Matches the scientific scope of the journal, Presents results that significantly advance science including innovative new approaches, Meets quality standards of presentation and literature citation, Demonstrates potential health or biomedical impact.

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All clinicians and researchers dealing with tropical diseases, including parasitologists, microbiologists, immunologists and epidemiologists

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Acta Tropica publishes original research papers, short communications, review articles and letter to the editor. Original papers **should normally not exceed 10 printed pages** including tables and figures. Short communications should not exceed 4 printed pages including tables and figures. Manuscripts must be accompanied by a letter signed by all the authors. Submission of a paper to *Acta Tropica* is understood to imply that it has not previously been published (except in an abstract form), and that it is not being considered for publication elsewhere. The act of submitting a manuscript to *Acta Tropica* carries with it the right to publish the paper. Responsibility for the accuracy of the material in the manuscript, including bibliographic citations, lies entirely with the authors. Letters to the Editor is considered for publication provided it does not contain material that has been submitted or published elsewhere. The text, not including references, must not exceed 1000 words. The letter can have one figure or small table. When a letter refers to an article recently published in *Acta Tropica*, the opportunity for reply will be given to the authors of the original article. Such a reply will be published along with the letter. Start the letter with "Dear Editor".

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Acta Tropica publishes the following types of papers:

1. *Original research articles*
2. *Short Communications*
3. *Review articles*
4. *Opinion articles*
5. *Letters to the Editor*

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Reference to a journal publication with an article number:

Van der Geer, J., Hanraads, J.A.J., Lupton, R.A., 2018. The art of writing a scientific article. *Heliyon*. 19, e00205. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.heliyon.2018.e00205>.

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ANEXO B – PARASITOLOGY RESEARCH (GUIDE FOR AUTHORS)

Submission guidelines

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[Instructions for Authors](#)

[Before you submit: Editorial checklist](#)

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References

Citation

Cite references in the text by name and year in parentheses. Some examples:

Negotiation research spans many disciplines (Thompson 1990).

This result was later contradicted by Becker and Seligman (1996).

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The list of references should only include works that are cited in the text and that have been published or accepted for publication. Personal communications and unpublished works should only be mentioned in the text. Do not use footnotes or endnotes as a substitute for a reference list.

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Article by DOI

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Book

South J, Blass B (2001) The future of modern genomics. Blackwell, London

Book chapter

Brown B, Aaron M (2001) The politics of nature. In: Smith J (ed) The rise of modern genomics, 3rd edn. Wiley, New York, pp 230–257

Online document

Cartwright J (2007) Big stars have weather too. IOP Publishing PhysicsWeb. <http://physicsweb.org/articles/news/11/6/16/1>. Accessed 26 June 2007

Dissertation

Trent JW (1975) Experimental acute renal failure. Dissertation, University of California

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ISSN LTWA

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Supply all figures electronically.

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Name your figure files with "Fig" and the figure number, e.g., Fig1.eps.

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Do not use faint lines and/or lettering and check that all lines and lettering within the figures are legible at final size.

All lines should be at least 0.1 mm (0.3 pt) wide.

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Vector graphics containing fonts must have the fonts embedded in the files.

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To add lettering, it is best to use Helvetica or Arial (sans serif fonts).

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Do not include titles or captions within your illustrations.

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All figures are to be numbered using Arabic numerals.

Figures should always be cited in text in consecutive numerical order.

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Summary of requirements

The above should be summarized in a statement and placed in a ‘Declarations’ section before the reference list under a heading of ‘Consent to participate’ and/or ‘Consent to publish’. Other declarations include Funding, Conflicts of interest/competing interests, Ethics approval, Consent, Data and/or Code availability and Authors’ contribution statements.

Please see the various examples of wording below and revise/customize the sample statements according to your own needs.

Sample statements for "Consent to participate":

Informed consent was obtained from all individual participants included in the study.

Informed consent was obtained from legal guardians.

Written informed consent was obtained from the parents.

Verbal informed consent was obtained prior to the interview.

Sample statements for “Consent to publish”:

The authors affirm that human research participants provided informed consent for publication of the images in Figure(s) 1a, 1b and 1c.

The participant has consented to the submission of the case report to the journal.

Patients signed informed consent regarding publishing their data and photographs.

Sample statements if identifying information about participants is available in the article:

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List of Repositories

Research Data Policy

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Mandatory deposition Suitable repositories

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DNA and RNA sequences Genbank

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EMBL Nucleotide Sequence Database (ENA)

DNA and RNA sequencing dataNCBI Trace Archive

NCBI Sequence Read Archive (SRA)

Genetic polymorphisms dbSNP dbVar

European Variation Archive (EVA)

Linked genotype and phenotype data dbGAP

The European Genome-phenome Archive (EGA)

Macromolecular structure

Worldwide Protein Data Bank (wwPDB)

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Data availability statements

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