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**Desenvolvimento de um extrato
hidroetanólico das folhas de
Plantago australis (Kunth) Rahn
padronizado em verbascosídeo e
determinação de sua segurança
toxicológica**

Universidade Federal de Ciências da Saúde
de Porto Alegre

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Orientador: Dra. Dinara Jaqueline
Moura
Co-orientadora: Dra. Jenifer Saffi

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*“Daher ist die Aufgabe nicht sowohl zu
sehen was noch Keiner gesehen hat,
als, bei Dem, was Jeder sieht, zu
denken, was noch Keiner gedacht hat.”*

(Arthur Schopenhauer)

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Apresentação

Este trabalho foi desenvolvido no Laboratório de Genética Toxicológica da Universidade Federal de Ciências da Saúde de Porto Alegre. O projeto foi subsidiado pela Fundação de Amparo à Pesquisa do Estado do Rio Grande do Sul (FAPERGS) e pela Coordenação de Aperfeiçoamento de Pessoal de Nível Superior (CAPES).

A dissertação está dividida em quatro partes. A primeira parte contém o referencial teórico sobre o tema deste trabalho; na segunda parte é apresentado, no Capítulo I, um artigo de revisão a ser submetido à revista *Phytotherapy Research*; na terceira parte é apresentado no Capítulo II um artigo de dados, a ser submetido à revista *Journal of Ethnopharmacology*, e na quarta parte apresentam-se as considerações finais do trabalho, conclusões, perspectivas e anexos com resultados adicionais e informações sobre as revistas.

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Lista de abreviaturas utilizadas

AAS: ácido acetilsalicílico

ALT: alanina transaminase

AST: aspartato transaminase

CLAE: cromatografia líquida de alta eficiência

DNA: *deoxyribonucleic acid* (ácido desoxirribonucleico)

DPPH•: radical 2,2-difenil-1-picrilhidrazila

His⁻: auxotrofia para histidina

His⁺: prototrofia para histidina

MN: micronúcleo

MTT: (4,5-dimetiltiazol-2-il)2,5-difenil brometo de tetrazolium

NRU: ensaio de captação do vermelho neutro (*neutral red uptake*)

OECD: *Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development*

(Organização para a Cooperação e Desenvolvimento Econômico)

OMS: Organização Mundial da Saúde

UVA: radiação ultravioleta do tipo A

UVB: radiação ultravioleta do tipo B

XTT: 2,3-bis-(2-metoxi-4-nitro-5-sulfofenil)-5-fenilalanina carbonil-2H-tetrazolium hidróxido

Resumo

Introdução: *Plantago australis* Kunth (Rahn) (Plantaginaceae) é uma planta perene da América Latina, muito encontrada no sul do Brasil e popularmente conhecida como “tansagem”. Suas folhas e sementes são usadas no tratamento de diversas doenças e sintomas, e sua composição fitoquímica inclui inúmeros metabólitos, e dentre eles, o verbascosídeo tem sido amplamente estudado. Pouco se sabe ainda sobre a segurança toxicológica de ambos.

Objetivos: O presente estudo teve o objetivo de desenvolver um extrato hidroetanólico das folhas de *P. australis*, através de planejamentos experimentais, utilizando extração por ultrassom e o verbascosídeo como marcador. Em seguida, foi determinada a segurança toxicológica do extrato e do verbascosídeo em modelos *in vitro*.

Material e métodos: A preparação dos extratos etanólicos (70%) das folhas de *P. australis* foi feita pelos métodos de extração por percolação e ultrassom. A extração pelo ultrassom foi otimizada através de planejamentos experimentais (fatorial completo 2² e metodologia de superfície de resposta). As análises por CLAE/DAD visaram à pesquisa dos constituintes fitoquímicos aucubina, baicaleína, ácidos ursólico e oleanólico e verbascosídeo. O método de quantificação do constituinte fitoquímico presente nos extratos foi validado. A segurança toxicológica do extrato otimizado e do constituinte fitoquímico (verbascosídeo) foi avaliada por ensaios de mutagenicidade e genotoxicidade (teste de *Salmonella*/microsoma e ensaio cometa), citotoxicidade (MTT, NRU), além de fototoxicidade para o constituinte fitoquímico presente.

Resultados: Análises preliminares por CLAE/DAD demonstraram a presença do constituinte verbascosídeo nos extratos produzidos. A otimização da extração de verbascosídeo pelo método de extração por ultrassom apresentou maior rendimento com o tempo de extração de 40 min e temperatura do banho-maria de 25 °C. A avaliação *in vitro* da segurança toxicológica revelou que tanto o extrato quanto o verbascosídeo não induzem mutagenicidade e genotoxicidade nas concentrações testadas, enquanto que a citotoxicidade só foi observada nas maiores concentrações de ambos. Além disso, o verbascosídeo não demonstrou fototoxicidade nas concentrações utilizadas no teste.

Conclusão: O conjunto de resultados permitiu elaborar um extrato hidroetanólico das folhas de *P. australis* padronizado em verbascosídeo a 6%. Quanto à segurança toxicológica *in vitro* de ambos, não foram demonstradas atividades genotóxicas e mutagênicas, e a citotoxicidade foi vista apenas em concentrações elevadas, bem como o verbascosídeo não se mostrou fototóxico. Estes resultados embasam a segurança de uso do extrato hidroetanólico e do verbascosídeo.

Abstract

Introduction: *Plantago australis* Kunth (Rahn) (Plantaginaceae) is a perennial plant in Latin America, much found in Southern Brazil and popularly known as "tansagem". The leaves and seeds are used in the treatment of various diseases and symptoms and their phytochemical composition includes numerous metabolites, and among them, verbascoside has been widely studied. Little is yet known about the toxicological safety of both of them.

Objectives: This study aimed to develop a hydroethanolic extract of the leaves of *P. australis*, by experimental design with ultrasound-assisted extraction, using verbascoside as an marker. Then it was determined the toxicological safety of the extract and verbascoside in *in vitro* models.

Material and methods: Preparation of hydroethanolic extract (70%) of *P. australis* leaves was taken by percolation and ultrasound methods. Ultrasound-assisted extraction was optimized by complete factorial design (2²) and response surface methodology. The analysis by HPLC/DAD aimed to research the phytochemical constituents aucubin, baicalein, oleanolic and ursolic acids and verbascoside. The quantification method of the phytochemical constituent was validated. The toxicological safety of the optimized extract and the phytochemical constituent was evaluated by mutagenicity and genotoxicity tests (Ames test and comet assay), cytotoxicity (MTT and NRU), and a phototoxicity assay was carried out with the phytochemical constituent.

Results: Preliminary analysis by HPLC/DAD showed the presence of the constituent verbascoside in produced extracts. The optimization of verbascoside extraction by ultrasound showed higher performance at the

extraction time of 40 min and water-bath temperature at 25 °C. The *in vitro* evaluation of toxicological safety revealed that both the extract and verbascoside did not induce mutagenicity and genotoxicity in all concentrations tested, while the cytotoxicity was only observed at the highest concentrations. Furthermore, verbascoside showed no phototoxicity in all concentrations used in the test.

Conclusion: The results allowed the development of a hydroethanolic extraction method of the leaves of *P. australis*, standardized in verbascoside (6%). As for *in vitro* toxicological safety of both of them, genotoxic and mutagenic activities were not demonstrated and cytotoxicity was seen only at high concentrations, as well as verbascoside did not show phototoxic effects. These results support the safety use of the hydroethanolic extract and verbascoside.

1. Introdução

A Organização Mundial da Saúde (OMS) considera plantas medicinais aquelas empregadas com a finalidade de prevenir, aliviar, curar ou modificar um estado fisiológico ou patológico, ou como fonte e matéria-prima para fármacos e medicamentos (Rates, 2001). Apesar de apresentarem diferentes alvos e mecanismos de ação, esse grupo tem sido pouco investigado, uma vez que o estudo fitoquímico e biológico de plantas envolve apenas uma pequena parcela do reino vegetal, se comparada ao amplo conhecimento etnofarmacológico e às inúmeras espécies espalhadas pelo mundo (Filho e Yunes, 1998; Simões *et al.*, 2004).

Os produtos naturais fazem parte do cotidiano da humanidade há milhares de anos, e vêm acompanhando desde então o desenvolvimento das civilizações. Como prova disso, podemos citar a medicina tradicional chinesa, com seus diversos preparados vegetais atualmente difundidos pelo mundo, as técnicas químicas egípcias e greco-romanas para a preservação de corpos e o desenvolvimento de venenos utilizados para fins de defesa (Viegas Jr. *et al.*, 2006).

O valor dessa sabedoria popular tem o reconhecimento da medicina moderna, ainda mais quando observada a dificuldade de acesso às políticas públicas de saúde enfrentada em diversos países. Neste contexto, e em razão de fatores como sua notória biodiversidade e o conhecimento empírico indígena trazido desde os tempos da colonização, o Brasil destaca-se como um importante cenário na exploração de plantas medicinais e investigação de novas moléculas com potencial terapêutico (Simões *et al.*, 2004; Calixto, 2005).

Atualmente, a indústria farmacêutica vem resgatando o segmento fitoterápico, aplicando cada vez mais investimentos nessa área. Por esse motivo, nota-se também a intensificação dos esforços para que se tenha uma legislação mais rigorosa e clara referente aos fitoterápicos, garantindo o máximo de segurança no seu uso, e devido à complexidade química apresentada pelas plantas, faz-se necessário um rigoroso controle de qualidade desde o cultivo, passando pela coleta e extração, até a eventual elaboração do medicamento final. Para tal, o aporte financeiro e tecnológico ao estudo botânico, químico e farmacológico dessas espécies é evidente, proporcionando a pesquisa de novas drogas e o aprimoramento da utilização e do registro de fitoterápicos, evitando assim o uso indiscriminado e a possível extinção de muitas espécies vegetais (Turolla e Nascimento, 2006).

1.1. Família Plantaginaceae

A família Plantaginaceae, comumente incluída na ordem Plantaginales, subclasse Asteridae (Cronquist, 1988), foi reclassificada na ordem Lamiales devido a diversos estudos filogenéticos, morfológicos, embriológicos e químicos, que deslocaram os dois demais gêneros para o nível de subgêneros (Rahn, 1996).

Atualmente é aceita a inclusão de 90 gêneros e 2000 espécies em Plantaginaceae (Albach *et al.*, 2005; APG, 2016), que em razão da diversificação evolutiva resultaram nas mais variadas morfologias, sendo que no Brasil são descritos 25 gêneros e 130 espécies. Especificamente sobre o gênero *Plantago*, em torno de 250 espécies são conhecidas mundialmente,

com distribuição principalmente nas regiões temperadas, incluindo o sul e sudeste do Brasil. No Brasil existem 16 espécies do gênero *Plantago*, popularmente conhecidas como tansagem ou tanchagem, sendo seis dessas espécies endêmicas (Souza e Hassemer, 2016).

Em sua grande maioria, as espécies de *Plantago* são ervas perenes ou anuais, de caráter invasor, distribuição restrita a cosmopolita e difícil taxonomia, tendo nos tricomas e sementes as maiores diferenças morfológicas (Rahn, 1996; Rønsted *et al.*, 2002; Ishikawa *et al.*, 2009; Meudt, 2012). As tansagens são muito utilizadas na medicina popular, tendo as atividades anti-inflamatória e cicatrizante como as mais descritas (Lorenzi, 1982; Chiang *et al.*, 2003), e as espécies *P. australis* L., *P. lanceolata* L., *P. major* L. e *P. ovata* Forssk. as mais estudadas (Helfer *et al.*, 2011).

1.1.1. Farmacologia do gênero *Plantago* e de seus constituintes fitoquímicos

A família Plantaginaceae tem sido alvo de diversos estudos norteados pela relação entre a composição fitoquímica de suas espécies e atividades farmacológicas, sejam elas *in vitro* ou *in vivo*. No gênero *Plantago*, mais especificamente, os extratos *n*-hexano e etil-acetato de *P. asiatica* L. foram testados quanto à sua atividade antioxidante pelo método de capacidade de absorbância de radicais oxigenados. Os resultados demonstraram que a forma etil-acetato do extrato exerceu notável capacidade sequestrante de radicais livres (Amakura *et al.*, 2012).

Muito utilizadas na medicina chinesa, *P. depressa* Willd. e *P. lanceolata* foram descritas em diferentes estudos como portadoras de atividade gastroprotetora. A primeira espécie foi eficaz em casos de constipação e a segunda, em um estudo mais aprofundado com seu extrato etanólico, teve seus efeitos antiespasmódicos reproduzidos em modelos de contração do íleo e da traqueia em porquinhos-da-índia (Fleer e Verspohl, 2007; Shen *et al.*, 2010). A *P. lanceolata* também possui descrita atividade antioxidante pela redução do radical 2,2-difenil-1-picrilhidrazila (DPPH•) em ensaios *in vitro* (Adam *et al.*, 2009).

O extrato etanólico das folhas de *P. major*, por sua vez, foi testado em ratos submetidos ao modelo de hepatotoxicidade induzida por paracetamol. Os resultados demonstraram marcante redução de citocinas pró-inflamatórias, bem como dos níveis séricos de alanina transaminase (ALT) e aspartato transaminase (AST), importantes marcadores de disfunção hepática (Hussan *et al.*, 2015). Em outro estudo, o mesmo tipo de extrato apresentou atividade sequestradora de radicais livres em ensaios com mitocôndrias de fígado de rato e na linhagem de carcinoma hepatocelular humano (Mello *et al.*, 2015). Por fim, o extrato hidroalcoólico da mesma espécie foi submetido a testes *in vivo* para o tratamento da asma e comparado ao medicamento padrão, a teofilina. Os achados revelaram que ratos asmáticos tratados com o extrato de *P. major* apresentaram normalização das características histopatológicas do pulmão, evidenciando sua atividade protetora contra a doença (Farokhi e Khaneshi, 2013).

Amplamente empregada na medicina popular, diversas preparações de *P. ovata* foram relatadas na literatura devido a uma gama de atividades

farmacológicas. Suas fibras, por exemplo, demonstraram efeito protetor na mucosa duodenal de coelhos submetidos a lesões por ácido acetilsalicílico (AAS), provavelmente mediante a limitação da penetração do AAS nas células do epitélio local. De maneira semelhante, suas folhas e sementes possuem relatos de eficácia no tratamento de úlceras pépticas e da constipação (Fernández-Bañares *et al.*, 1999; Sahagún *et al.*, 2015), bem como na redução do desconforto gastrointestinal causado pela doença de Parkinson, estabilizando os níveis séricos do medicamento padrão do tratamento, a levodopa, aumentando sua eficácia terapêutica (Fernandez-Martinez *et al.*, 2014).

Um estudo ecológico realizado na Espanha também correlacionou o consumo de *P. ovata* e a mortalidade por câncer colorretal, e os achados revelaram que, entre 1995 e 2000, o consumo da planta foi inversamente proporcional à mortalidade pela doença, com valor significativo (López *et al.*, 2009). Quanto à atividade hipolipemiante, a casca de *P. ovata* é conhecida por sua propriedade redutora dos níveis séricos de colesterol, e este efeito foi comprovado também pelas suas sementes, que em um modelo *in vivo* diminuíram os níveis da lipoproteína de baixa densidade (LDL) mediante alteração do metabolismo hepático e ação direta na regulação enzimática da síntese e catabolismo do colesterol (Romero *et al.*, 2002).

O gênero *Plantago* contém quatro grupos principais de compostos biologicamente ativos: compostos fenólicos, flavonoides, glicosídeos iridoides e terpenoides (Rønsted *et al.*, 2000; Samuelsen, 2000). Essas classes compreendem dezenas de metabólitos e têm sido amplamente estudadas em razão da etnofarmacologia associada às tansagens.

Os compostos fenólicos têm papel essencial na reprodução, crescimento e defesa das espécies vegetais, bem como são responsáveis pela coloração de plantas e pelo sabor dos frutos (Balasundram *et al.*, 2006; Huang *et al.*, 2009). Dentre esses, o ácido clorogênico tem descritas as atividades antioxidante em modelos *in vitro* e de isquemia intestinal, antidiabética e como potencializador dos efeitos do 5-fluorouracil em modelos *in vitro* utilizando linhagens celulares de carcinoma hepatocelular humano (Sato *et al.*, 2010; Chowdhury *et al.*, 2014; Yan *et al.*, 2015).

Dois compostos dessa classe foram inicialmente isolados em plantagináceas e possuem atividades farmacológicas descritas na literatura. A plantaginina foi estudada em razão de seu efeito protetor na membrana celular renal por meio de ensaios *in vitro* em células do túbulo proximal, demonstrando efetiva prevenção da perda de lactato desidrogenase local, comprovando sua elevada proteção da membrana renal (Yokozawa *et al.*, 1999), enquanto que o plantamajosídeo teve a atividade antiespasmódica testada e comprovada em modelos *in vivo* utilizando porquinhos-da-índia (Fleer e Verspohl, 2007).

Os flavonoides compõem um dos maiores grupos de produtos naturais encontrados na natureza, caracterizando-se como importante fonte de novos compostos com potencial terapêutico (Cazarolli *et al.*, 2008). A apigenina, por exemplo, teve atividade inibitória comprovada em modelos celulares de melanoma, leucemia e glioblastoma (Wang *et al.*, 1999; Caltagirone *et al.*, 2000; Santos *et al.*, 2015;). A baicaleina exibiu atividade sinérgica com penicilâmicos contra *Staphylococcus aureus* produtores de penicilinas. Da mesma forma, induziu citotoxicidade e supressão de metaloproteinases em células de câncer mamário, e atividades anti-inflamatória mediante inibição de

marcadores pró-inflamatórios em modelos *in vivo* de pancreatite e mastite, e antioxidante *in vivo* na proteção renal contra danos causados pela cisplatina e *in vitro* na inibição da produção de espécies reativas de oxigênio por neutrófilos (Reina *et al.*, 2013; Chang *et al.*, 2015; He *et al.*, 2015; Li *et al.*, 2015; Qian *et al.*, 2015; Sahu *et al.*, 2015; Santos *et al.*, 2015).

A luteolina, um flavonoide amplamente encontrado em diversas plantas, teve evidenciada em ensaios *in vitro* e *in vivo* as propriedades antiespasmódica, anti-inflamatória e neuroprotetora, antimicrobiana contra *Candida glabrata*, antitumoral por inibição da angiogênese local e protetora da membrana celular renal. A rutina, ou vitamina P, tem mostrado efeitos similares sobre a integridade renal, além de efeitos inibitórios contra linhagens celulares de glioblastoma (Yokozawa *et al.*, 1999; Fleer e Verspohl, 2007; Talib *et al.*, 2012; Ambasta *et al.*, 2015; Nabavi *et al.*, 2015).

Não tão estudados, o crisoeriol apresentou efeito broncodilatador em testes com porquinhos-da-índia; a hispidulina exibiu inibição da peroxidação lipídica *in vitro* e demonstrou-se antiproliferativa em células de câncer mamário, e a homoplantaginina foi capaz de modular a sensibilidade à insulina mediante inibição da inflamação em modelo celular de células de endotélio umbilical humano. Por fim, os compostos mangiferina e escutelareina suprimiram a expressão de marcadores inflamatórios e a geração de radicais livres em modelos de ratos (Sanz *et al.*, 1994; Talib *et al.*, 2012; Wu *et al.*, 2012; Khan e Gilani, 2015; Tsubaki *et al.*, 2015).

Os iridoides constituem uma importante classe de metabólitos no reino vegetal, atuando principalmente na proteção das espécies contra predadores, sendo por isso, encontrados em um largo grupo de plantas, geralmente na

forma de glicosídeos (Dinda *et al.*, 2007; Tundis *et al.*, 2008). Neste grupo, a aucubina tem sido amplamente estudada, tendo comprovada sua eficácia *in vitro* na redução da lipotoxicidade e do estresse do retículo endoplasmático na doença hepática gordurosa não alcoólica, no tratamento de alergias inflamatórias, na inibição de marcadores pró-inflamatórios e radicais livres e na proteção de fibroblastos de pele humana contra a radiação ultravioleta do tipo B (UVB). Da mesma forma, em um modelo *in vivo*, o composto apresentou atividade cicatrizante em feridas orais, acelerando a recuperação da matriz epitelial em ratos (Ho *et al.*, 2005a; Ho *et al.*, 2005b; Park *et al.*, 2007; Shim *et al.*, 2007; Oku *et al.*, 2011; Lee *et al.*, 2013; Zhang *et al.*, 2013; Lee *et al.*, 2014).

Outro iridoide largamente analisado é o catalpol, que em modelo celular apresentou capacidade de inibir a proliferação celular e induzir apoptose em células de câncer ovariano, reduzir a apoptose neuronal e a secreção de marcadores pró-inflamatórios. Em experimentos envolvendo linhagens celulares e ratos, o composto atenuou o déficit cognitivo e estresse oxidativo, os danos neuronais e aumentou a angiogênese pós-oclusão arterial; produziu efeito antidepressivo similar ao cloridrato de fluoxetina; preveniu o envelhecimento ovariano e a falência renal; reduziu a alergia inflamatória e a pancreatite aguda. Finalmente, um estudo conduzido com testes *in vitro* em células de linfócitos humanos e *in vivo* em ratos comprovaram a atividade radioprotetora do catalpol mediante redução da produção de radicais livres (Park *et al.*, 2007; Oku *et al.*, 2011; Chen *et al.*, 2012; Chen *et al.*, 2013; Gao *et al.*, 2014; Zhu *et al.*, 2010; Haicheng *et al.*, 2014; Wang *et al.*, 2014; Xiao *et al.*, 2014; Zhu *et al.*, 2015).

O asperulosídeo desempenhou importante atividade hipolipemiante em ratos, reduzindo o peso corporal, a ingesta de alimentos e os níveis plasmáticos de glicose e lipídeos, bem como a alergia inflamatória e os sintomas de artrite reumatoide em modelos *in vivo* com ratos e *in vitro* com lisozimas de ovos de galinha, respectivamente (Li *et al.*, 2006; Oku *et al.*, 2011; Fujikawa *et al.*, 2012). O ácido geniposídico e o mussaenosídeo também apresentaram características anti-inflamatórias, sendo o primeiro detentor de propriedades antioxidantes, todos em ensaios *in vitro* (Park *et al.*, 2007; Vogl *et al.*, 2013; Zhang *et al.*, 2013).

Outra classe, os terpenoides são os constituintes básicos dos óleos essenciais em plantas, atuando principalmente como repelentes, hormônios e na interação entre diferentes espécies vegetais e com seus predadores e patógenos (Grassmann, 2005). Dentre os representantes desse grupo, o linalol demonstrou efeitos analgésicos ao reduzir a dor aguda em ratos, induziu citotoxicidade via estimulação da imunidade antitumoral em linhagens celulares de câncer de cólon, fígado, mama e pulmão, e apresentou atividade antioxidante por meio da inibição da peroxidação lipídica e do sequestro de radicais livres em ensaios *in vitro* com pâncreas de ratos (Obboh *et al.*, 2015; Yang, *et al.*, 2015).

O β -sitosterol, em estudos *in vitro* e *in vivo*, revelou importante atividade quimiopreventiva contra modelos de câncer de cólon, e sua propriedade anti-inflamatória foi evidenciada em testes *in vitro* por indução de edema de pata em ratos (Baskar *et al.*, 2010; Chittur *et al.*, 2011; Bhalke e Pal, 2012). O ácido 18 β -glicirretínico, por sua vez, mostrou resultados promissores no tratamento da malária, inicialmente em triagem *in vitro* utilizando *Plasmodium falciparum*,

posteriormente confirmados em ensaios *in silico* seguidos de um modelo de infecção em ratos. Ainda, o mesmo composto foi empregado em ensaios *in vivo* com ratos, como estratégia terapêutica na esclerose múltipla, sendo capaz de modular a ativação da micróglia, promover a remielinização e inibir a inflamação do sistema nervoso (Kalani *et al.*, 2013; Zhou *et al.*, 2015).

Por último, um conjunto de dois ácidos triterpênicos é alvo de diferentes estudos envolvendo inúmeros alvos terapêuticos. Os ácidos oleanólico e ursólico vêm sendo amplamente testados e ambos demonstraram possuir as atividades antidiabética por inibição da enzima α -glicosidade e regulação da sinalização da insulina, antimicrobiana contra *Streptococcus mutans*, e hepatoprotetora e hipolipemiante via inibição da peroxidação lipídica em ensaios *in vivo* com ratos (Ho *et al.*, 2005b; Lee *et al.*, 2013; Lee *et al.*, 2014; Oku *et al.*, 2011; Reina *et al.*, 2013; Shim *et al.*, 2007; Zhang, Su, e Zhang, 2013; Park *et al.*, 2015; Rezaei-Golmisheh *et al.*, 2015).

A atividade antioxidante desses dois compostos também é conhecida, sendo o ácido oleanólico, em modelos experimentais com ratos, capaz de recuperar a atividade de enzimas antioxidantes e melhorar as funções renal e hepática, além de agir indiretamente na proteção contra a citotoxicidade induzida por radicais livres, uma vez que aumenta a expressão de fatores de transcrição sensíveis ao estresse oxidativo (Gao *et al.*, 2009; Wang *et al.*, 2010a). De maneira semelhante, o ácido ursólico suprimiu a geração de peróxido de hidrogênio em mitocôndrias de ratos, conferindo-o possível caráter cardioprotetor, e também mediou efeito protetor no dano ao DNA gerado por radicais livres induzidos por radiação UVB (Ramachandran e Prasad, 2008; Liobikas *et al.*, 2011).

No que diz respeito à atividade antitumoral, tanto o ácido oleanólico como o ursólico possuem diversos mecanismos descritos. O ácido oleanólico apresentou considerável inibição tumoral em camundongos transplantados com células de câncer pancreático humano e inibição da proliferação e aumento do estresse oxidativo em linhagens celulares de adenocarcinoma mamário (Hsu *et al.*, 2005; Jutooru *et al.*, 2010; Sánchez-Quesada *et al.*, 2015). O ácido ursólico, por sua vez, exerceu bloqueio do crescimento tumoral em linhagem celular de sarcoma, inibiu a proliferação de linhagens tumorais de leucemia e câncer de língua, e induziu apoptose em células dos cânceres de mama, fígado e estômago, fragilizou os mecanismos de sobrevivência de células de carcinoma pulmonar e aumentou a citotoxicidade em células de glioma (Manu e Kuttan, 2008; Wang *et al.*, 2010b; Wang *et al.*, 2012; Mazumder *et al.*, 2013; Li *et al.*, 2014a; Kim e Moon, 2015; Kim *et al.*, 2015; Zhang *et al.*, 2015).

Em estudos distintos, o ácido oleanólico reduziu o estresse oxidativo em comparações realizadas entre células de câncer de mama e de epitélio normal, inibiu potencialmente a enzima acetilcolinesterase, reduzindo a morte neuronal e o déficit de memória induzida pelo acúmulo de placas β -amiloides em ensaios *in vivo* de doença de Alzheimer em ratos, regulou a sinalização pró-inflamatória por supressão gênica, e apresentou propriedade antiparasitária contra *Leishmania donovani* (Yoo e Park, 2012; Hwang *et al.*, 2014; López *et al.*, 2015; Sánchez-Quesada *et al.*, 2015). Por outro lado, o ácido ursólico melhorou a atuação de enzimas-chave no controle do metabolismo lipídico e regulou a intolerância à glicose, reduzindo a esteatose hepática e mostrando-se como um potente candidato no tratamento da doença hepática gordurosa não alcoólica e da obesidade, bem como teve papel neuroprotetor contra a doença de

Alzheimer, uma vez que foi capaz de inibir a acetilcolinesterase, reduzir os danos oxidativo causados pelo acúmulo de placas β -amiloides e bloquear suas citocinas pró-inflamatórias (Kunkel *et al.*, 2012; Yoo e Park, 2012; Li *et al.*, 2014b).

1.1.2. *Plantago australis* (Kunth) Rahn

A espécie *P. australis* (Figura 1) é uma planta perene e largamente distribuída em toda a América Latina. No Brasil, sua ocorrência é mais acentuada nas regiões Sudeste e Sul, sendo expressivamente encontrada nos três estados do Sul. Seu habitat é adaptado a ambientes fortemente modificados pela ação humana, formando densas populações nos mais variados tipos de solo. A floração ocorre geralmente de setembro a fevereiro, podendo acontecer também nos outros meses do ano (Helfer *et al.*, 2011).



Figura 1: Habitat de *P. australis*. Fonte: Arquivo fotográfico do autor (2015).

Suas raízes são adventícias, escondidas entre numerosas raízes secundárias fibrosas, caule com comprimento de 0,4 a 0,7 cm e folhas com 7,0 a 34,3 cm x 2,5 a 5,5 cm, margem inteira ou levemente denteada e ápice agudo. Seu pecíolo não é distinto da lâmina, a inflorescência é laxa, com 13 a 23 cm de comprimento, e a bráctea tem 1,6 a 3,9 x 1,0 a 1,5 mm. O ovário possui três lóculos, com um óvulo por lóculo, originando três sementes, cada uma com 1,2 a 2,8 x 1,0 a 1,4 mm (Figura 2) (Rocha *et al.*, 2002; Helfer *et al.*, 2011).

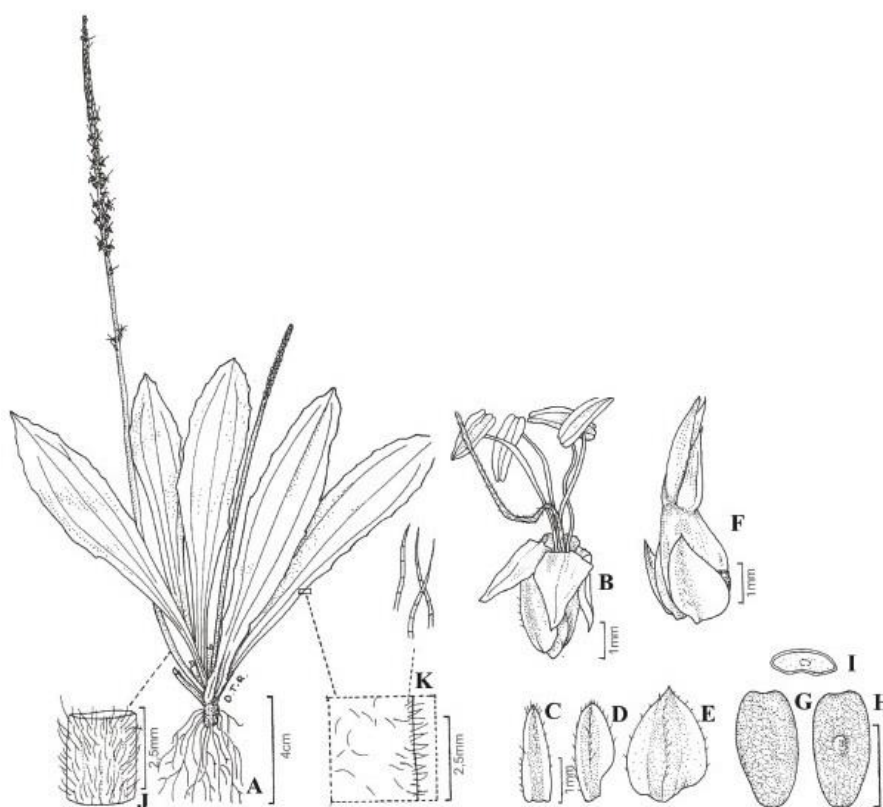


Figura 2: Morfologia de *P. australis* (A: hábito; B: flor; C: bráctea; D: sépala anterior; E: sépala posterior; F: fruto; G: semente, face externa; H: semente, face interna; I: semente, corte transversal; J: tricomas e escapo; K: tricomas, detalhe). Fonte: Adaptado de Helfer *et al.*, 2011.

1.1.2.1. Composição química de *P. australis* e atividades farmacológicas relacionadas

Estudos primários com *P. australis* identificaram na planta o composto verbascosídeo (Figura 3) (Andary *et al.*, 1988), e posteriormente outro trabalho utilizando um extrato hidroetanólico da planta identificou o glicosídeo irioide aucubina (Figura 4) e os derivados do ácido cafeico, isoverbascosídeo (Figura 5) e salidosídeo (Figura 6) (Rønsted *et al.*, 2000).

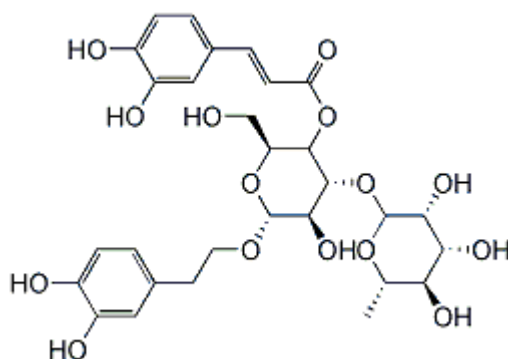


Figura 3: Estrutura química do verbascosídeo. Fonte: Biosynth Chemistry & Biology (2016).

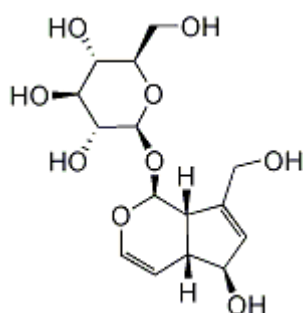


Figura 4: Estrutura química da aucubina. Fonte: Biosynth Chemistry & Biology (2016).

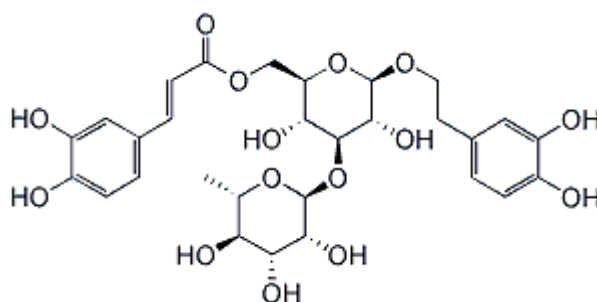


Figura 5: Estrutura química do isoverbascosídeo. Fonte: Biosynth Chemistry & Biology (2016).

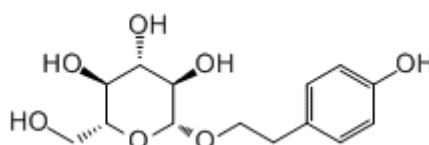


Figura 6: Estrutura química do salidrosideo. Fonte: Biosynth Chemistry & Biology (2016).

O conhecimento etnofarmacológico de *P. australis* é difundido, e seu uso está relacionado ao tratamento de doenças renais e da bexiga, às atividades antiviral, antimicrobiana e anti-inflamatória para a garganta e ovários, e como cicatrizante, antiulceroso e antidiarreico (Souza *et al.*, 2004; Andrade-Cetto, 2009).

Embora ainda pouco estudada se comparada a outras espécies da família, *P. australis* já tem algumas atividades farmacológicas comprovadas. Seu extrato aquoso foi capaz de inibir a replicação do vírus da estomatite vesicular em ensaios *in vitro*, sem apresentar efeitos citotóxicos, enquanto que o extrato hidroalcoólico das folhas, sementes e dos frutos demonstrou propriedades analgésica e anti-inflamatória em ratos. A atividade gastroprotetora do extrato etanólico das folhas da espécie foi relatada em diferentes modelos de indução de úlceras em ratos, tendo sido capaz de reduzir o índice de úlceras e inclusive aumentar a secreção da camada

mucoprotetora estomacal (Abad *et al.*, 1999; Bürger *et al.*, 2002; Palmeiro *et al.*, 2002).

Da mesma forma, pouco se sabe sobre a toxicidade de *P. australis* e seus extratos. O único estudo realizado verificou a toxicidade subcrônica do extrato aquoso das folhas da planta em ratos. Os animais foram submetidos a 60 dias de administração diária do extrato nas concentrações de 850 e 1700 mg/kg, e foram monitorados quanto ao peso e parâmetros bioquímicos e histopatológicos. Os resultados demonstraram elevação dos níveis séricos de alanina transaminase na menor concentração testada do extrato, indicando possível hepatotoxicidade do mesmo, embora avaliações toxicológicas adicionais devam ser realizadas para fins de confirmação dos resultados (Palmeiro *et al.*, 2003).

1.1.2.2. Verbascosídeo: componente majoritário do extrato hidroetanólico de *P. australis*

O verbascosídeo, também conhecido como acteosídeo, pertence ao grupo dos glicosídeos fenilpropanoides, ou glicosídeos feniletanoides, e é amplamente distribuído em plantas dicotiledôneas pertencentes a famílias como Gesneriaceae, Lamiaceae, Oleaceae, Orobanchaceae, Scrophulariaceae, Verbenaceae e Plantaginaceae, sendo por isso um dos compostos mais estudados em *Plantago* ssp. (Li *et al.*, 2014b; Zhang *et al.*, 2015). Estruturalmente, esse composto é formado por quatro grupamentos químicos: o ácido cafeico, uma aglicona feniletanoide, uma molécula de glicose e um grupamento ramnose (Figura 7) (Wen *et al.*, 2016).

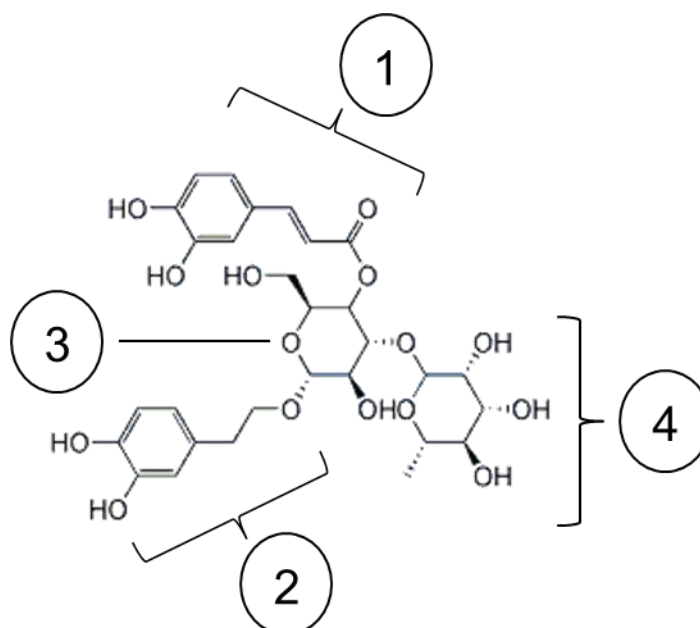


Figura 7: Estrutura química do verbascosídeo e seus grupamentos. 1: ácido cafeico; 2: aglicona feniletanoide; 3: glicose; 4: ramnose. Fonte: Adaptado de Biosynth Chemistry & Biology (2016).

Sua farmacologia envolve a atividade antígeno-tóxica via proteção de células sanguíneas periféricas e leucêmicas humanas contra danos ao DNA induzidos pelo peróxido de hidrogênio; gastroproteção pela redução das contrações do íleo e da traqueia induzidas por diversos agonistas em modelos *in vivo*, e atividades anti-inflamatória e cicatrizante em modelos *in vitro* utilizando células leucêmicas, macrófagos murinos e células de queratinócitos tratados com marcadores pró-inflamatórios, e *in vivo* mediante modelo de lesão ocular em leporídeos (Fleer e Verspohl, 2007; Korkina *et al.*, 2007; Fabiani *et al.*, 2008; Speranza *et al.*, 2010; Gyurkovska *et al.*, 2011; Ambrosone *et al.*, 2014).

Quanto à farmacocinética, ensaios *in vivo* revelaram que sua absorção por via oral é imediata e sua concentração plasmática é proporcional à dose administrada. Sua biodisponibilidade em mamíferos de pequeno porte foi de

apenas 1%, enquanto que nos de grande porte essa taxa atingiu 4%, com tempo de meia-vida de 90 minutos e eliminação rápida (Wen *et al.*, 2016).

1.2. Análise fitoquímica no desenvolvimento de medicamentos fitoterápicos

A pesquisa fitoquímica tem um papel essencial nos estudos químicos de espécies de interesse popular, principalmente quando não se tem ainda um conhecimento completo sobre a planta em questão. Essa etapa permite elucidar os diferentes compostos presentes no vegetal, identificando seus grupos de metabólitos, que posteriormente possam vir a ser utilizados como marcadores analíticos e ativos no desenvolvimento de extratos e fitoterápicos (Simões *et al.*, 2004; Leite, 2009).

Avanços no entendimento da fitoquímica e o desenvolvimento de novas técnicas são importantes e estão diretamente relacionados ao progresso nessa área. Com base nesses requisitos, nota-se que a qualidade da matéria-prima vegetal é primordial para o bom andamento da análise fitoquímica. De um modo geral, amostras frescas da planta são ideais para o processo de extração, embora em alguns casos o material triturado e seco também seja útil (Harborne, 1998).

A extração e a purificação amostral são passos cruciais na análise de plantas medicinais, uma vez que constituem as etapas iniciais da preparação das amostras. A escolha do método e do solvente de extração influencia no tipo de substância a ser extraída, sendo que para a extração de compostos hidrofílicos usam-se solventes polares como metanol, etanol e acetato de etila,

enquanto que os constituintes lipofílicos são melhor obtidos com os solventes diclorometano puro ou misturado com metanol. Costumeiramente, o etanol é um dos solventes mais utilizados em razão de sua propriedade preliminar de extrair diversos componentes, e para os processos seguintes, o extrato é filtrado e concentrado por rotaevaporação, tendo o processo de liofilização como etapa opcional (Harborne, 1998; Sasidharan *et al.*, 2011).

Em seguida, os métodos cromatográficos garantem uma análise qualitativa e/ou quantitativa da amostra em questão. Essa etapa envolve fatores determinantes no processo, como a escolha das fases móvel e estacionária, a relação de polaridade entre elas e a variação do método a ser empregado, onde podemos citar as cromatografias em camada delgada, gasosa e líquida de alta eficiência (Nyiredi, 2004).

Devido à sua versatilidade e robustez, a cromatografia líquida de alta eficiência (CLAE) é umas das técnicas mais utilizadas na análise de produtos naturais, sendo atualmente considerada a impressão digital do controle de qualidade dessas matérias-primas. Esse sistema é capaz de oferecer características como a alta resolução, rápida separação, monitoramento contínuo da eluição, e automação dos processos com a possibilidade de melhoramento dos dados obtidos (Sarker *et al.*, 2005; Fan *et al.*, 2006; Swami *et al.*, 2008).

Brevemente, o sistema é composto por uma bomba de eluição da fase móvel, um dispositivo de injeção da amostra, uma coluna cromatográfica contendo a fase estacionária e por onde a fase móvel é eluída juntamente com a amostra, um detector responsável por emitir sinais elétricos correspondentes aos analitos encontrados, que são interpretados e registrados na forma de

picos cromatográficos por um programa computacional acoplado ao sistema. A detecção dos picos amostrais dependerá da afinidade da amostra pelas fases móvel e estacionária, sendo que quanto maior esse fator pela fase estacionária, mais lentamente a amostra eluirá pela coluna e mais tardiamente o pico será detectado, ocorrendo o contrário caso a afinidade for maior pela fase móvel (Sasidharan *et al.*, 2011).

Dessa forma, a análise de extratos vegetais por CLAE é um importante passo para a análise de extratos vegetais, contribuindo para o posterior desenvolvimento de testes biológicos. Tais resultados servem de base para a condução e otimização dos ensaios pré-clínicos subsequentes, exigidos para o registro de fitoterápicos.

1.3. Ensaios pré-clínicos no desenvolvimento de medicamentos fitoterápicos

Devido à relevância socioeconômica que o uso de plantas medicinais exerce na qualidade de vida de grande parte da população, principalmente àquelas de baixa renda, o processo de levantamento, resgate de informações e identificação de espécies é de fundamental importância para garantir a segurança de seus usuários (Rodrigues e Carvalho, 2001; Silva *et al.*, 2010).

A classificação e consequente normatização dos fitoterápicos variam conforme o país ou região. Enquanto que nos Estados Unidos as preparações à base de plantas são consideradas suplementos nutricionais, na Europa e no Brasil esses produtos são categorizados como medicamentos. Em razão dessas diferenças, observam-se condutas distintas em relação aos ensaios

para o registro de fitoterápicos, a fim de se garantir a máxima eficácia e segurança no uso desses medicamentos (Figura 8) (Turolla e Nascimento, 2006).

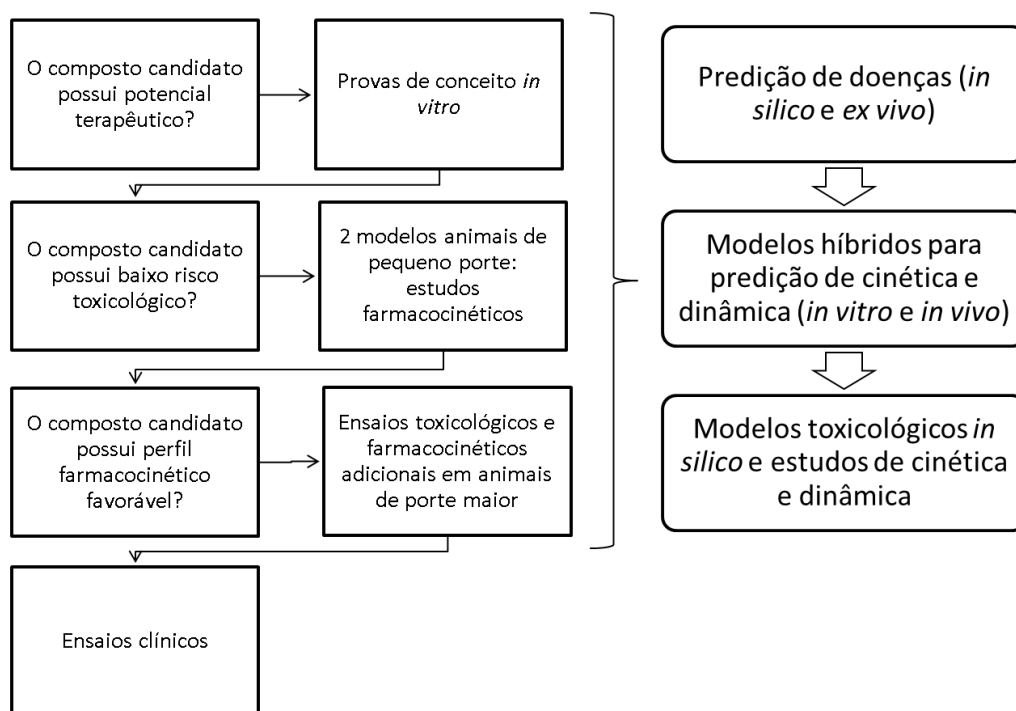


Figura 8: Fluxo tradicional para a avaliação de compostos e/ou fitoterápicos com potencial terapêutico. Fonte: Adaptado de Turolla e Nascimento, 2006.

Atualmente, várias diretrizes são utilizadas na condução de ensaios pré-clínicos para os diferentes tipos de medicamentos, sendo o *Guideline for Testing of Chemicals*, da *Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development* (OECD), o mais aceito. O guia prevê uma série de testes de citotoxicidade, genotoxicidade e mutagenicidade, que objetivam melhorar a validade e a aceitação internacional dos dados obtidos; otimizar os recursos disponíveis; racionalizar o uso de animais de laboratório e minimizar as questões comerciais dos produtos (OECD, 2016). No Brasil, o registro de medicamentos e o registro e a notificação de produtos tradicionais fitoterápicos

é regido pela RDC nº 26/2014, da Agência Nacional de Vigilância Sanitária (Anvisa, 2014).

1.3.1. Ensaios de citotoxicidade

A citotoxicidade pode ser entendida como a capacidade intrínseca de qualquer material ou composto de promover modificações metabólicas em células de cultura, acarretando ou não em morte celular. Essa propriedade pode ser mensurada por ensaios de viabilidade celular que comparam as taxas de células sobreviventes e mortas (Freshney, 2011).

Os ensaios de citotoxicidade *in vitro* são os primeiros testes realizados, e por isso são extremamente úteis para a definição da toxicidade basal do composto estudado nos estágios iniciais do desenvolvimento farmacológico. Dessa forma, podem-se definir os limites de concentração das substâncias para os ensaios posteriores, além de prever informações e parâmetros adicionais para testes de genotoxicidade e mutagenicidade (Eisenbrand *et al.*, 2002; Putnam *et al.*, 2002).

Dentre os ensaios mais empregados, grande parte baseia-se na avaliação da alteração da permeabilidade celular (uso de corantes, como o azul de Trypan); da função mitocondrial, como o (4,5-dimetiltiazol-2-il)2,5-difenil brometo de tetrazolium (MTT) e o 2,3-bis-(2-metoxi-4-nitro-5-sulfofenil)-5-fenilalanina carbonil-2H-tetrazolium hidróxido (XTT); da função lisossomal, como a captação do corante vermelho neutro (NRU), e nas alterações da morfologia e proliferação celular (ensaio clonogênico e de proliferação celular) (Eisenbrand *et al.*, 2002; Riss *et al.*, 2011).

O NRU, em especial, é recomendado pela OECD para a avaliação da citotoxicidade de compostos, servindo como teste preliminar na definição de doses e na condução dos ensaios subsequentes, principalmente os relacionados à toxicidade oral aguda sistêmica. Brevemente, esse modelo baseia-se na capacidade das células viáveis incorporarem o corante vermelho neutro, que é fracamente catiônico, em seus lisossomos, que possuem matriz aniônica. Agentes tóxicos podem modificar a superfície celular ou a membrana lisossomal, fragilizando seu sistema e causando alterações que podem vir a ser irreversíveis. Esses eventos acarretam na inibição do crescimento ou morte celular, ocasionando a redução da captação do corante e consequente queda da viabilidade celular (OECD, 2010).

Além disso, o NRU consiste na etapa final da avaliação de outro importante ensaio, a fototoxicidade de compostos. O conceito de fototoxicidade é atribuído a uma substância quando essa apresenta uma resposta tóxica se aplicada ao corpo seguida de exposição à luz, ou que é induzida por irradiação da pele após a administração sistêmica de uma substância (OECD, 2004). A predição *in vitro* da fototoxicidade de compostos é extremamente acessível e validada por diversos órgãos regulatórios. O teste baseia-se na comparação da citotoxicidade de uma substância em contato com a linhagem celular de fibroblastos de ratos (3T3), na ausência e presença de radiação ultravioleta do tipo A (UVA), seguida do ensaio de NRU, 24 h após a exposição ao agente testado (Peters e Holzhütter, 2004).

1.3.2. Ensaios de genotoxicidade e mutagenicidade

O objetivo principal dos estudos de genotoxicidade e mutagenicidade é detectar compostos capazes de induzir danos ao DNA de maneira direta ou indireta, discriminando mutações em células germinativas (devido ao seu possível envolvimento na etiologia de defeitos genéticos humanos herdáveis) e somáticas (envolvidas em transformações neoplásicas). Devido aos diferentes tipos de danos existentes, a abordagem usual prevê uma bateria de testes que, ao serem compilados, fornecem informações sobre mutações em genes, aberrações cromossômicas e a potencial indução de carcinogenicidade (Eastmond *et al.*, 2009).

Como testes preconizados para essa fase de estudos de segurança toxicológica, um dos ensaios mais utilizados é a eletroforese de célula única em gel de agarose, também conhecido como ensaio cometa. Capaz de detectar quebras simples e duplas na molécula de DNA, assim como oxidação de purinas e pirimidinas, o ensaio cometa consiste em fixar células tratadas com o agente de interesse em lâminas pré-cobertas com gel de agarose, submetê-las a uma solução de lise para que o material genético fique exposto. Após lisadas, essas lâminas são submetidas a uma corrente elétrica em uma cuba contendo uma solução tampão, e o material genético, que possui carga negativa, tenderá a migrar para o polo positivo da cuba, sendo que quanto mais degradado esse estiver, maior será sua taxa de migração. Em seguida, as lâminas são fixadas e coradas para avaliação dos danos ao DNA, sob microscopia ótica convencional (Collins, 2004).

O teste de micronúcleos (MN), por sua vez, pode indicar possíveis alterações citogenéticas com consequentes modificações cromossômicas. Os MN são pequenas massas nucleares, delimitadas por membrana e separadas do núcleo principal, formadas a partir de quebras nas fitas de DNA ou devido à ruptura de fibras do fuso acromático, e, portanto passíveis de ocorrerem somente em células que estão em divisão celular. Dessa forma, a detecção de MN representa perda de cromatina, sendo por isso considerada uma mutação, uma vez que pode ser transmitida às células filhas no ciclo de divisão seguinte (Fenech, 2000).

O princípio do teste *in vitro* baseia-se no bloqueio da citocinese celular com citocalasina-B em culturas tratadas com o agente em estudo, a fim de se sincronizar as células e excluir danos causados por alterações na cinética da divisão celular. Como a citocalasina-B bloqueia a citocinese, mas não impede a divisão celular, as células tratadas por esse composto acabam adquirindo o caráter binucleado, e na sequência são submetidas a um tratamento hipotônico, fixadas em lâminas de microscopia e coradas para posterior contagem de células binucleadas com e sem a presença de MN (Bonacker *et al.*, 2004).

Na avaliação da carcinogênese, apesar do uso dos ensaios já citados, outro modelo, o teste de *Salmonella*/microsoma, possui acurácia mais elevada, podendo detectar agentes carcinogênicos causadores de substituição de pares de base e de mutações do tipo *frameshift* (alteração do quadro de leitura dos códons) (Kim *et al.*, 2013). Diferentemente dos demais, esse teste faz uso de cepas específicas da bactéria *Salmonella typhimurium*, que carregam mutações em genes envolvidos na síntese do aminoácido histidina.

Uma vez constituindo-se de cepas mutantes auxotróficas (*His*-), elas necessitam da histidina para seu crescimento, porém não a produzem. Por esse motivo, o método testa a capacidade da substância de interesse criar mutações que resultem na reversão da bactéria ao seu estado prototrófico (*His*+) quando inserida em um meio livre de histidina. A contagem é feita levando-se em conta o número de colônias formadas, comparando-as com o controle do teste. Adicionalmente, enzimas metabolizadoras podem ser inseridas, a fim de se certificar de que os achados do teste possam vir a ser causados não pelo agente em questão, mas sim por seus metabólitos (Ames *et al.*, 1973; Hakura *et al.*, 1999).

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2. Objetivos

2.1. Objetivo geral

Desenvolver um extrato etanólico das folhas de *Plantago australis*, padronizado com o composto verbascosídeo, e avaliar a segurança toxicológica deste extrato e do verbascosídeo em modelos *in vitro*.

2.2. Objetivos específicos

- a) Realizar uma revisão bibliográfica sobre a família Plantaginaceae, seus constituintes fitoquímicos e atividades farmacológicas relacionadas.
- b) Elaborar extratos etanólicos a 70% das folhas de *P. australis*, empregando diferentes métodos de extração (ultrassom e percolação).
- c) Realizar análises qualitativas, por cromatografia líquida de alta eficiência (HPLC/DAD), para verificar a presença dos principais constituintes fitoquímicos citados na literatura para a espécie.
- d) Desenvolver um método por HPLC/DAD para a quantificação do seu marcador analítico, o verbascosídeo.
- e) Otimizar o processo extrativo, utilizando a técnica de ultrassom, para obtenção de um extrato hidroetanólico a 70%, padronizado em verbascosídeo.
- f) Realizar uma validação de metodologia analítica por HPLC/DAD para a quantificação do verbascosídeo.

- g) Realizar o teste de *Salmonella*/microsossoma em cepas de *Salmonella* tratadas com o extrato hidroetanólico de *P. australis* e com o verbascosídeo.
- h) Realizar testes de viabilidade celular pelos métodos de redução do (4,5-dimetiltiazol-2-il)2,5-difenil brometo de tetrazolium (MTT) e captação do vermelho neutro em células de fibroblastos pulmonares de hamster chinês (V79) tratadas com o extrato hidroetanólico de *P. australis* e com o verbascosídeo.
- i) Realizar o ensaio cometa (versão alcalina) em células V79 tratadas com o extrato hidroetanólico de *P. australis* e com o verbascosídeo.
- j) Realizar o ensaio de fototoxicidade em células de fibroblastos embrionários de *Mus musculus* (3T3) tratadas com o verbascosídeo.

3. Capítulo I – artigo de revisão

**A review of the therapeutic potential of the major constituents from
species of *Plantago* (Plantaginaceae)**

Artigo a ser submetido à revista *Phytotherapy Research*

(Para facilitar a leitura do manuscrito as tabelas foram inseridas no texto)

**A review of the therapeutic potential of the major constituents from species of
Plantago (Plantaginaceae)**

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Abstract

Plantago is a largely used genus in folk medicine. Belonging to the Plantaginaceae family, this genus has a cosmopolite distribution and includes about 250 species. Some of these species have been used for millennia for the treatment of several diseases, and different extract forms and isolated compounds, such as iridoid glucosides, phenolic compounds, flavonoids and terpenoids, have already been related to important biological activities. Some extracts from *Plantago* species showed analgesic, anti-asthmatic, anti-inflammatory, antioxidant, antitumoral, gastroprotective, hypolipemiant and neuroprotective properties, while isolated compounds are related to antidiabetic, anti-inflammatory, antioxidant, antitumoral, hypolipemiant and neuroprotective properties. On the other hand, isolated compounds are also related to angiogenic, antidepressant, antidiabetic, antigenotoxic, antimicrobial, photoprotective, radioprotective, renal membrane protection and wound healing activities. This information, once collected, may be helpful to guide researches and to support further investigation about the common properties of *Plantago* species and evaluation as a source of active compounds.

Introduction

The Plantaginaceae as currently accepted (APG, 2016) comprise a morphologically very diverse family which includes approximately 90 genera and 2000 species (Albach et al., 2005). One of the largest among these genera, *Plantago* L. is a cosmopolitan genus which includes about 250 species of herbs or rarely subshrubs concentrated in temperate regions and at high elevations in the tropics (Pilger, 1937; Rahn, 1996; Hassemer et al., 2015, 2016). Here we follow the subgeneric classification of *Plantago* as in Rønsted et al. (2002), with the updates of Hoggard et al. (2003), i.e., accepting *Littorella* P.J.Bergius as a genus separate from *Plantago*.

The classification and identification of *Plantago* is known to be notoriously difficult, because of a very simplified morphology and complicated taxonomy (Rahn, 1996; Ishikawa et al., 2009; Tay et al., 2010a, 2010b; Meudt, 2011; Shipunov, 2015). Therefore, it is very frequent that herbarium specimens of *Plantago* are found to be misidentified. Furthermore, sometimes studies focusing on aspects of *Plantago* other than taxonomy are not careful regarding species identification and nomenclature, which results in unreliable, unverifiable and ultimately non-repeatable results. Therefore, maximum care should be taken to correctly identify and present the species included in any research, preferably with the help of specialist taxonomists.

Some species of *Plantago* have been shown to have biologically active compounds with several pharmacological activities (Marlett et al., 2000; Samuelsen, 2000; Fischer et al., 2004; Singh, 2007; Barua et al., 2011; Beara et al., 2012a, 2012b; Weryszko-Chmielewska et al., 2012; Zhou et al., 2013). Also, species of *Plantago* have been shown to contain at least four classes of biologically active compounds: iridoid glucosides (i.e., aucubine and catalpol), phenolic compounds (i.e., verbascoside, chlorogenic acid and vannilic acid), flavonoids (i.e., baicalein and baicalin) and terpenoids (i.e., oleanolic acid and ursolic acid) (Rønsted et al., 2000; Samuelsen, 2000).

These compounds have been largely studied due their potential pharmacological activity, and combined with the traditional folk use of some species of *Plantago*, comprise an important source of research. In this review, our aim was to analyze the major isolated constituents of species of *Plantago* and their biological activities – described or not in this genus – however the traditional uses will be considered.

Ethnopharmacology

Some species of *Plantago* have been used in traditional medicine around the world, in the treatment of inflammation, cancer, disorders of reproduction, respiratory, digestive and skin systems (Chiang et al., 2003). The leaves and seeds are the most commonly used parts of the plant, as infusion or as fresh leaves forms (Vogl et al., 2013a).

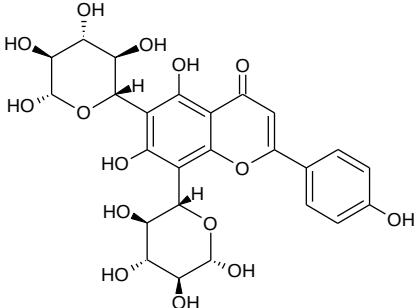
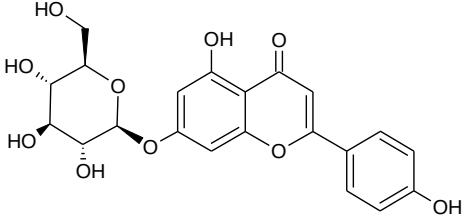
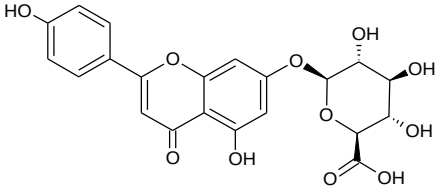
As example, seeds of *P. ovata* Forssk. are used in medicine as a mild laxative in southern Europe and India. In Japan, *P. asiatica* L. is used as anti-inflammatory, against diarrhea, atitussive and as antiasthmatic (Samuelsen et al., 1999). *Plantago major* L. has been used for hundreds of years in Taiwan for treating colds, conjunctivitis and hepatitis (Chiang et al., 2003). In Brazil, leaves and seeds of *P. major* are used as antiseptic, anti-inflammatory and antibacterial, and *P. australis* Lam. has been used in southern Brazil as a laxative, diuretic, anti-inflammatory, anti-bacterial and wound healing (Palmeiro et al., 2002). *Plantago lanceolata* L. can be used as syrup or tea, as well as fresh leaves and was indicated to insects bites, viral infects, skin and respiratory tract (Vogl et al., 2013a) . In Norway, the leaves of *P. major* are well known in traditional medicine for its wound healing properties (Samuelsen et al., 1999).

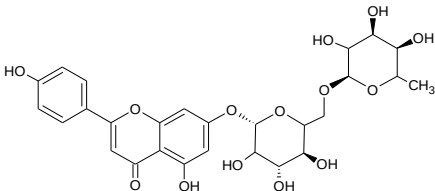
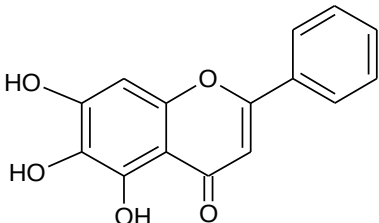
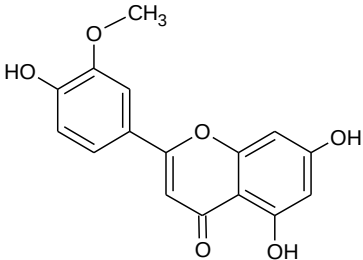
Phytochemistry and chemotaxonomy

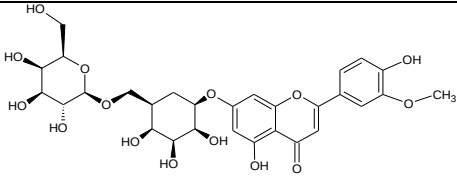
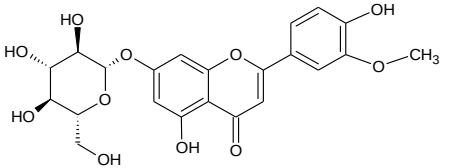
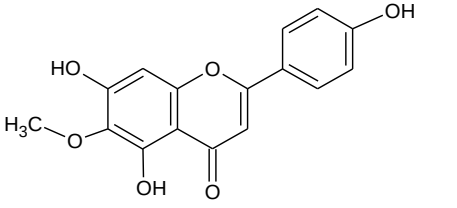
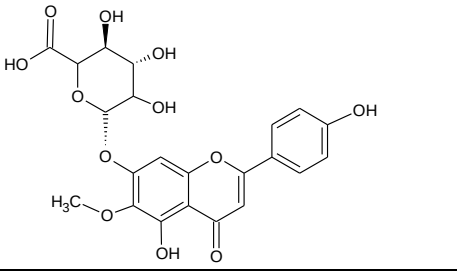
Flavonoids

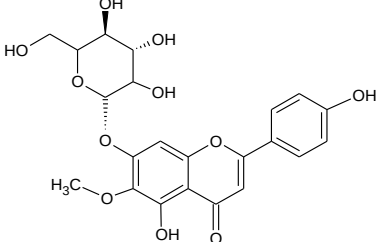
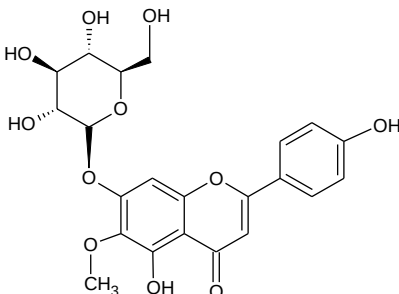
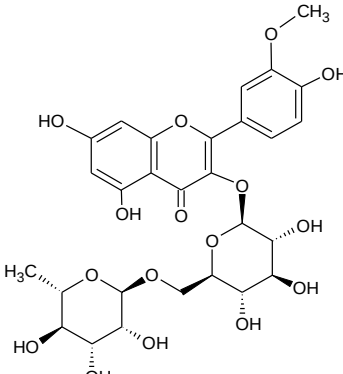
Flavonoids are polyphenolic compounds biosynthesized from acetic acid and shikimic acid pathways, and they are predominantly present in nature as glycosides. Its diffuse presence in nature makes flavonoids the major group of natural products known (Cazarolli et al., 2008).

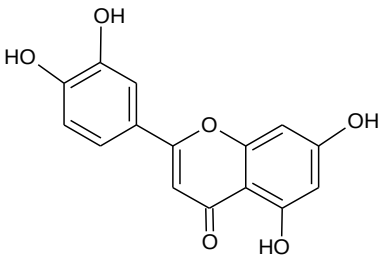
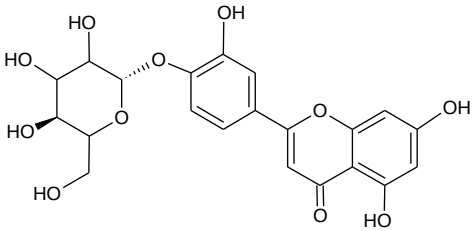
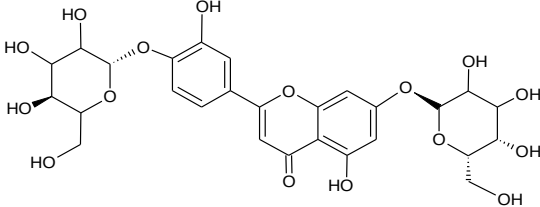
The flavonoids from *Plantago* and their chemical structures are listed in Table 1.

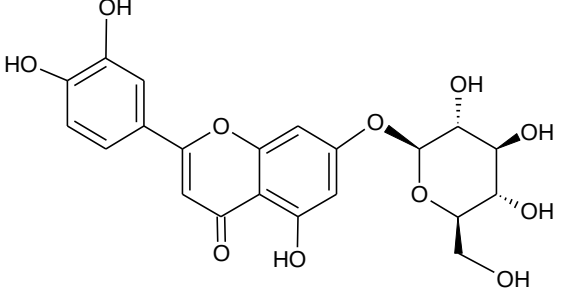
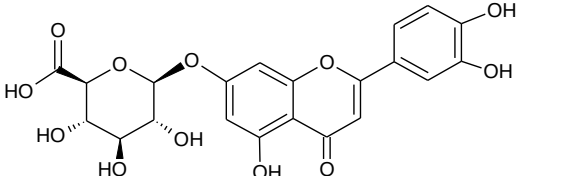
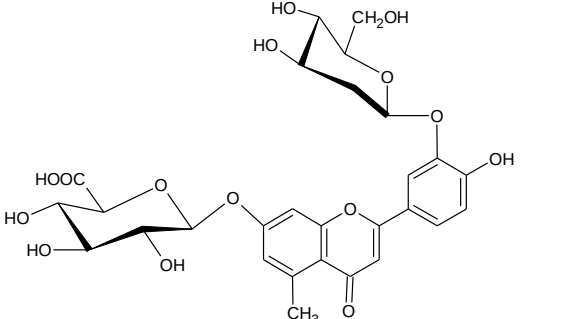
			
Apigenin-7-glucoside 	<i>P. major</i> L. <i>P. lanceolata</i> L. <i>P. albicans</i> L. <i>P. ovata</i> Forssk. <i>P. notata</i> Lag. <i>P. ciliata</i> Desf. <i>P. afra</i> L. <i>P. phaeostoma</i> Boiss. & Heldr. <i>P. coronopus</i> L. <i>P. holosteam</i> Scop. <i>P. schwarzenbergiana</i> Schur <i>P. argentea</i> Chaix <i>P. maritima</i> L. <i>P. media</i> L.	Leaves and stems Leaves and stems Leaves and stems Leaves and stems Leaves and stems Leaves and stems Leaves and stems Leaves and stems Leaves and stems Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts	Kawashty et al., 1994 Kawashty et al., 1994 Kawashty et al., 1994 Kawashty et al., 1994 Kawashty et al., 1994 Kawashty et al., 1994 Kawashty et al., 1994 Kawashty et al., 1994 Janković et al., 2012 Janković et al., 2012 Janković et al., 2012 Beara et al., 2009 Beara et al., 2009 Beara et al., 2009
Apigenin-7-glucuronide 	<i>P. lanceolata</i> L. <i>P. phaeostoma</i> Boiss. & Heldr.	Leaves and stems Leaves and stems	Kawashty et al., 1994 Kawashty et al., 1994

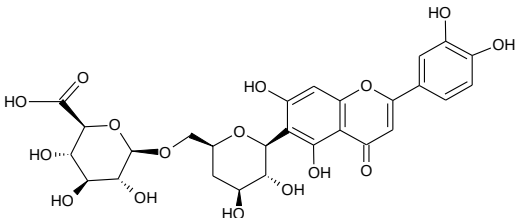
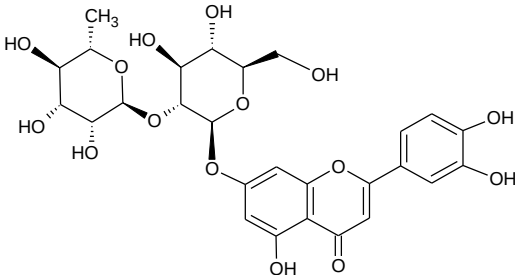
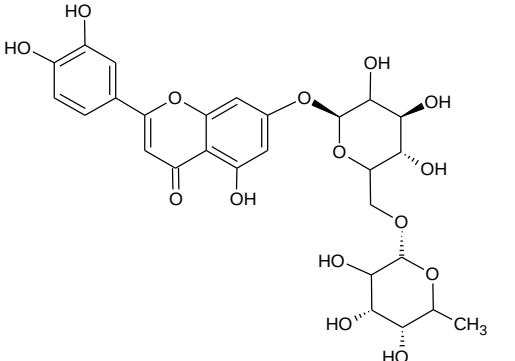
Apigenin-7-rutinoside 	<i>P. amplexicaulis</i> Cav.	Leaves and stems	Kawashty et al., 1994
Baicalein 	<i>P. major</i> L.	Leaves	Maksyutina et al., 1971
Chrysoeriol 	<i>P. albicans</i> L. <i>P. afra</i> L. <i>P. phaeostoma</i> Boiss. & Heldr.	Leaves and stems Leaves and stems Leaves and stems	Kawashty et al., 1994 Kawashty et al., 1994 Kawashty et al., 1994
Chrysoeriol-7-gentiobioside	<i>P. albicans</i> L. <i>P. cylindrica</i> Forssk. <i>P. afra</i> L.	Leaves and stems Leaves and stems Leaves and stems	Kawashty et al., 1994 Kawashty et al., 1994 Kawashty et al., 1994

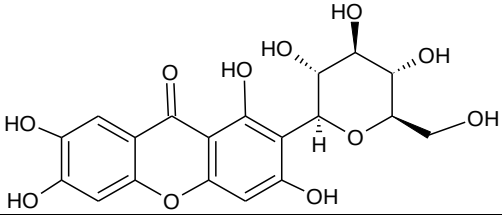
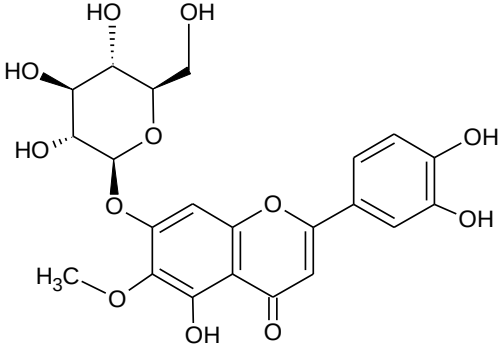
			
Chrysoeriol-7-glucoside 	<i>P. afra</i> L. <i>P. squarrosa</i> Murray <i>P. phaeostoma</i> Boiss. & Heldr.	Leaves and stems Leaves and stems Leaves and stems	Kawashty et al., 1994 Kawashty et al., 1994 Kawashty et al., 1994
Hispidulin 	<i>P. major</i> L.	Leaves and stems	Kawashty et al., 1994
Hispidulin-7-glucuronide 	<i>P. major</i> L.	Leaves and stems	Kawashty et al., 1994
Hispidulin-7-glucoside	<i>P. major</i> L. <i>P. asiatica</i> L.	Leaves and stems Leaves	Kawashty et al., 1994 Kawashty et al., 1994

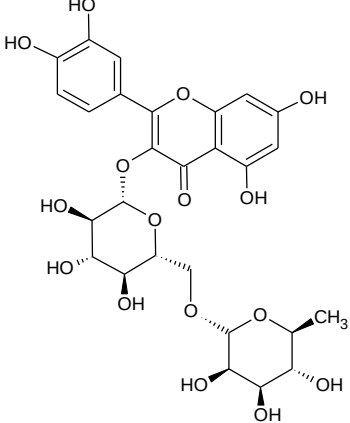
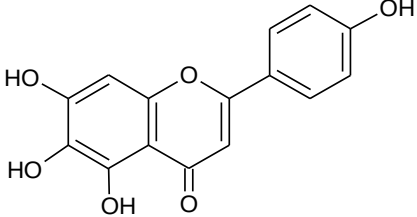
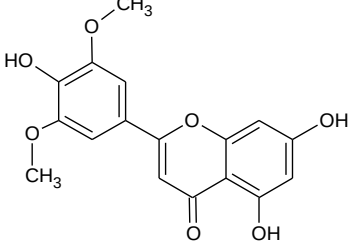
			
Homoplantaginin 	<i>P. major</i> L. <i>P. asiatica</i> L.	Aerial parts Aerial parts	Skari et al., 1999 Aritomi, 1967
Isorhamnetin-3-rutinoside 	<i>P. albicans</i> L. <i>P. cylindrica</i> Forssk. <i>P. notata</i> Lag.	Leaves and stems Leaves and stems Leaves and stems	Kawashty et al., 1994 Kawashty et al., 1994 Kawashty et al., 1994

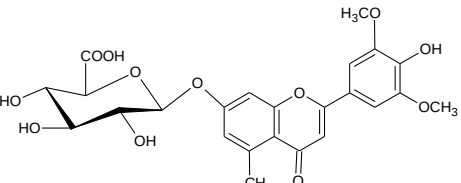
Luteolin 	<i>P. commutata</i> Guss. <i>P. lanceolata</i> L. <i>P. atrata</i> Hoppe <i>P. coronopus</i> L. <i>P. holostium</i> Scop. <i>P. schwarzenbergiana</i> Schur <i>P. reniformis</i> Beck	Leaves and stems Leaves and stems Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts	Kawashty et al., 1994 Fleer & Verspohl, 2007 Janković et al., 2012 Janković et al., 2012 Janković et al., 2012 Janković et al., 2012 Janković et al., 2012
Luteolin-4'-glucoside 	<i>P. ovata</i> Forssk.	Leaves and stems	Kawashty et al., 1994
Luteolin-7-diglucoside 	<i>P. major</i> L.	Leaves and stems	Kawashty et al., 1994
Luteolin-7-glucoside	<i>P. major</i> L. <i>P. commutata</i> Guss. <i>P. crypsoides</i> Boiss. <i>P. lanceolata</i> L. <i>P. lagopus</i> L.	Leaves and stems Leaves and stems Leaves and stems Leaves and stems Leaves and stems	Kawashty et al., 1994 Kawashty et al., 1994 Kawashty et al., 1994 Kawashty et al., 1994 Kawashty et al., 1994

	<i>P. albicans</i> L. <i>P. cylindrica</i> Forssk. <i>P. ovata</i> Forssk. <i>P. notata</i> Lag. <i>P. ciliata</i> Desf. <i>P. afra</i> L. <i>P. squarrosa</i> Murray <i>P. atrata</i> Hoppe <i>P. coronopus</i> L. <i>P. holostium</i> Scop. <i>P. argentea</i> Chaix <i>P. maritima</i> L.	Leaves and stems Leaves and stems Leaves and stems Leaves and stems Leaves and stems Leaves and stems Leaves and stems Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts	Kawashty et al., 1994 Kawashty et al., 1994 Kawashty et al., 1994 Kawashty et al., 1994 Kawashty et al., 1994 Kawashty et al., 1994 Kawashty et al., 1994 Janković et al., 2012 Janković et al., 2012 Janković et al., 2012 Beara et al., 2009 Beara et al., 2009
Luteolin-7-glucuronide 	<i>P. commutata</i> Guss. <i>P. crypsoides</i> Boiss. <i>P. lanceolata</i> L. <i>P. arenaria</i> Waldst. & Kit.	Leaves and stems Leaves and stems Aerial parts Leaves and stems	Kawashty et al., 1994 Kawashty et al., 1994 Fleer & Verspohl, 2007 Kawashty et al., 1994
Luteolin-7-glucuronide-3'-glucoside 	<i>P. crypsoides</i> Boiss. <i>P. commutata</i> Guss. <i>P. amplexicaulis</i> Cav. <i>P. lanceolata</i> L. <i>P. arabica</i> Boiss.	Leaves and stems Leaves and stems Leaves and stems Leaves and stems Leaves and stems	Kawashty et al., 1994 Kawashty et al., 1994 Kawashty et al., 1994 Kawashty et al., 1994 Kawashty et al., 1994

Luteolin-7-glucuronylglucoside 	<i>P. amplexicaulis</i> Cav.	Leaves and stems	Kawashty et al., 1994
Luteolin-7-neohesperidoside 	<i>P. lagopus</i> L.	Leaves and stems	Kawashty et al., 1994
Luteolin-7-rutinoside 	<i>P. lagopus</i> L.	Leaves and stems	Kawashty et al., 1994
Mangiferin	<i>P. atrata</i> Hoppe	Aerial parts	Janković et al., 2012

 The structure shows a flavone core (nepetin) with a glucose molecule attached at the 7-position via an O-glycosidic bond. The glucose is in its cyclic pyranose form with specific stereochemistry indicated by wedges and dashes.			
Nepetin-7-glucoside  The structure shows a flavonol core (quercetin) with a glucose molecule attached at the 3-position via an O-glycosidic bond. It also features a methoxy group at the 7-position and two hydroxyl groups at the 3' and 4' positions of the B-ring.	<i>P. major</i> L.	Leaves and stems	Kawashty et al., 1994
Rutin	<i>P. atrata</i> Hoppe	Aerial parts	Janković et al., 2012

			
Scutellarein 	<i>P. major</i> L.	Leaves	Maksyutina et al., 1971
Tricin 	<i>P. afra</i> L. <i>P. squarrosa</i> Murray <i>P. phaeostoma</i> Boiss. & Heldr. <i>P. arabica</i> Boiss. <i>P. arenaria</i> Waldest. & Kit. <i>P. pumila</i> L.f.	Leaves and stems Leaves and stems Leaves and stems Leaves and stems Leaves and stems Leaves and stems	Kawashty et al., 1994 Kawashty et al., 1994 Kawashty et al., 1994 Kawashty et al., 1994 Kawashty et al., 1994 Kawashty et al., 1994
Tricin-7-glucuronide	<i>P. afra</i> L.	Leaves and stems	Kawashty et al., 1994

	<i>P. squarrosa</i> Murray <i>P. arabica</i> Boiss. <i>P. arenaria</i> Waldst. & Kit. <i>P. pumila</i> L.f.	Leaves and stems Leaves and stems Leaves and stems Leaves and stems	Kawashty et al., 1994 Kawashty et al., 1994 Kawashty et al., 1994 Kawashty et al., 1994
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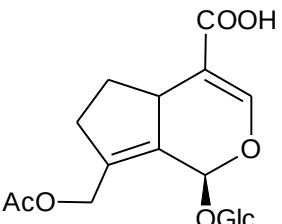
Iridoid glucosides

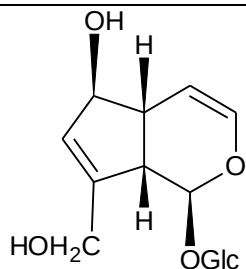
Iridoids are secondary metabolites commonly related with plant protection from predators. They are basically formed by a cyclopenta[*c*]pyran and are found in a large group of plants, mainly as glucosides (Tundis et al., 2008) .

The iridoid glucosides from *Plantago* and their chemical structures are listed in Table 2.

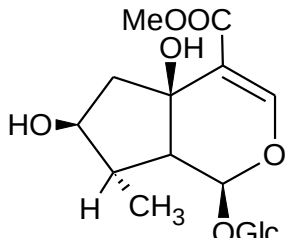
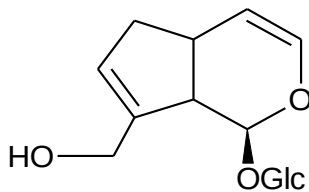
Table 2

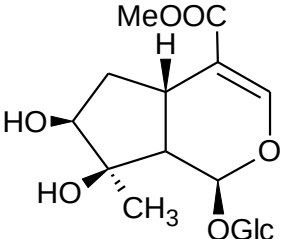
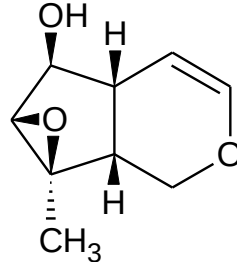
Iridoid glucosides from *Plantago*.

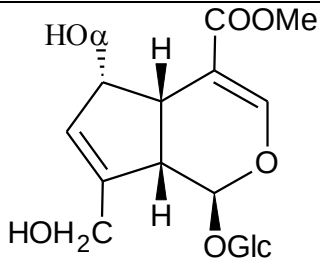
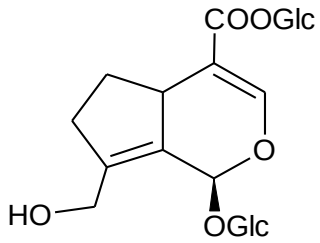
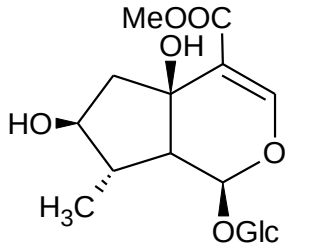
Iridoid glucoside	<i>Plantago</i> species	Part of plant	References
Alpinoside 	<i>P. lundborgii</i> Sparre <i>P. alpina</i> L. <i>P. debilis</i> R.Br.	Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts	Rønsted et al., 2000 Jensen et al., 1996 Rønsted et al., 2003
Arborescoside	<i>P. arborescens</i> Poir. <i>P. ovata</i> Forssk. <i>P. webbii</i> Barnéoud <i>P. palmata</i> Hook.f. <i>P. spathulata</i> Hook.f.	Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts	Rønsted et al., 2000 Rønsted et al., 2000 Rønsted et al., 2000 Rønsted et al., 2003 Rønsted et al., 2003

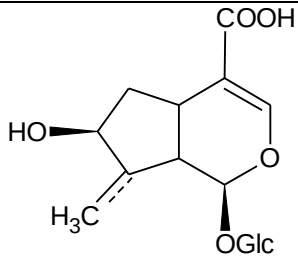
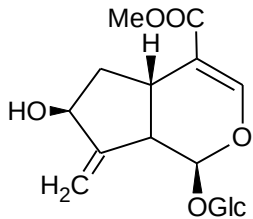
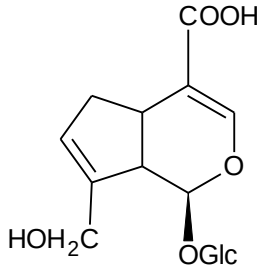


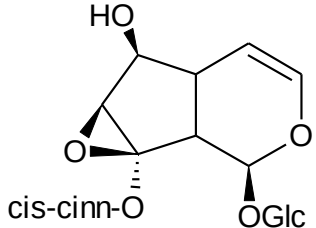
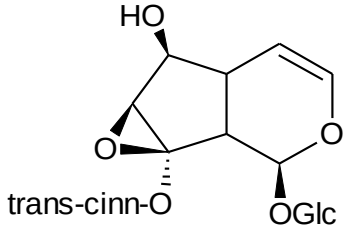
<i>P. lanceolata</i> L.	Aerial parts	Taskova et al., 2002
<i>P. altissima</i> L.	Aerial parts	Taskova et al., 2002
<i>P. argentea</i> Chaix	Aerial parts	Taskova et al., 2002
<i>P. lagopus</i> L.	Aerial parts	Taskova et al., 2002
<i>P. afra</i> L.	Aerial parts	Taskova et al., 2002
<i>P. amplexicaulis</i> Cav.	Aerial parts	Rønsted et al., 2000
<i>P. australis</i> Lam.	Aerial parts	Rønsted et al., 2000
<i>P. cretica</i> L.	Aerial parts	Rønsted et al., 2000
<i>P. stauntonii</i> Reichardt	Aerial parts	Rønsted et al., 2000
<i>P. lundborgii</i> Sparre	Aerial parts	Rønsted et al., 2000
<i>Littorella uniflora</i> (L.) Asch.	Aerial parts	Rønsted et al., 2000
<i>P. maritima</i> L.	Aerial parts	Rønsted et al., 2000
<i>P. webbii</i> Barnéoud	Aerial parts	Rønsted et al., 2000
<i>P. ovata</i> Forssk.	Aerial parts	Rønsted et al., 2000
<i>P. raoulii</i> Decne.	Aerial parts	Rønsted et al., 2000
<i>P. arborescens</i> Poir.	Aerial parts	Rønsted et al., 2000
<i>P. reniformis</i> Beck	Aerial parts	Rønsted et al., 2000
<i>P. bellardii</i> All.	Aerial parts	Rønsted et al., 2000
<i>P. patagonica</i> Jacq.	Whole plant	Bowers, 1996
<i>P. myosuros</i> Lam.	Whole plant	Franzyc et al., 1998
<i>P. hookeriana</i> Fisch. & C.A.Mey.	Aerial parts	Damtoft et al., 1994
<i>P. sempervirens</i> Crantz	Aerial parts	Damtoft et al., 1994
<i>P. alpina</i> L.	Aerial parts	Andrzejewska-Golec et al., 1984
<i>P. asiatica</i> L.	Whole plant	Jensen et al., 1996
<i>P. holosteum</i> Scop.	Aerial parts	Oshio & Inouye, 1982
<i>P. reniformis</i> Beck	Aerial parts	Janković et al., 2012
<i>P. schwarzenbergiana</i> Schur	Aerial parts	Janković et al., 2012
<i>P. tandilensis</i> (Pilg.) Rahn	Aerial parts	Janković et al., 2012
<i>P. palmata</i> Hook.f.	Aerial parts	Rønsted et al., 2003
<i>P. rugelii</i> Decne.	Aerial parts	Rønsted et al., 2003

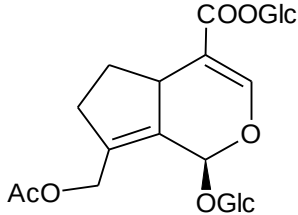
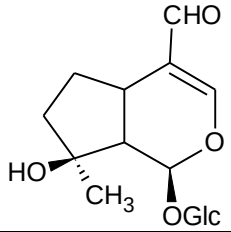
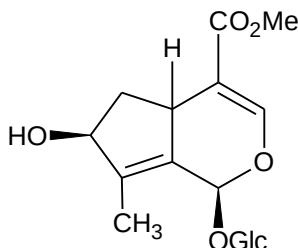
	<i>P. maxima</i> Juss. ex Jacq. <i>P. camtschatica</i> Link <i>P. debilis</i> R.Br. <i>P. spathulata</i> Hook.f. <i>P. tomentosa</i> Lam. <i>P. serraria</i> L. <i>P. arenaria</i> Waldst. & Kit. <i>P. aristata</i> Michx.	Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts	Rønsted et al., 2003 Rønsted et al., 2003 Rønsted et al., 2003 Rønsted et al., 2003 Rønsted et al., 2003 Rønsted et al., 2003 Rønsted et al., 2003 Rønsted et al., 2003
Auroside (5-hydroxy-8-epiloganin) 	<i>P. sempervirens</i> Crantz <i>P. maxima</i> Juss. ex Jacq.	Aerial parts Aerial parts	Rønsted et al., 2003 Rønsted et al., 2003
Bartsioside 	<i>P. afra</i> L. <i>P. arborescens</i> Poir. <i>P. sempervirens</i> Crantz <i>P. webbii</i> Barnéoud <i>P. arenaria</i> Waldst. & Kit. <i>P. subulata</i> L. <i>P. arenaria</i> Waldst. & Kit. <i>P. sarcophylla</i> Boiss. & Zohary	Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts	Andrzejewska-Golec et al., 1993 Andrzejewska-Golec et al., 1984 Andrzejewska-Golec et al., 1984 Andrzejewska-Golec et al., 1984 Andrzejewska-Golec et al., 1984 Rønsted et al., 2000 Rønsted et al., 2003 Rønsted et al., 2003
Caryoptoside	<i>P. maxima</i> Juss. ex Jacq.	Aerial parts	Rønsted et al., 2003

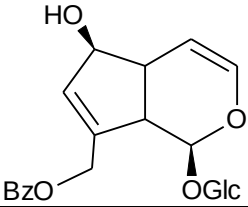
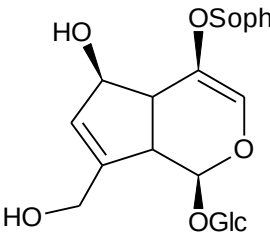
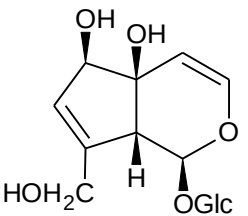
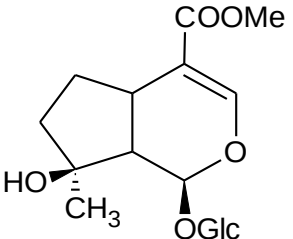
			
Catalpol 	<i>P. major</i> L. <i>P. atrata</i> Hoppe <i>P. lagopus</i> L. <i>P. lanceolata</i> L. <i>P. altissima</i> L. <i>P. argentea</i> Chaix <i>P. amplexicaulis</i> Cav. <i>P. lundborgii</i> Sparre <i>P. nivalis</i> Boiss. <i>P. ovata</i> Forssk. <i>P. patagonica</i> Jacq. <i>Littorella uniflora</i> (L.) Asch. <i>P. cornuti</i> Gouan <i>P. hookeriana</i> Fisch. & C.A.Mey. <i>P. tandilensis</i> (Pilg.) Rahn <i>P. aristata</i> Michx.	Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Ground parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts	Murai et al., 1996 Taskova et al., 2002 Taskova et al., 2002 Taskova et al., 2002 Taskova et al., 2002 Taskova et al., 2002 Rønsted et al., 2000 Rønsted et al., 2000 Rønsted et al., 2000 Rønsted et al., 2000 Rønsted et al., 2000 Rønsted et al., 2000 Rønsted et al., 2000 Handjieva et al., 1992 Damtoft et al., 1994 Rønsted et al., 2003 Rønsted et al., 2003
Deacetylasperulosidic acid methyl ester	<i>P. lagopus</i> L. <i>P. altissima</i> L. <i>P. lanceolata</i> L.	Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts	Taskova et al., 2002 Handjieva et al., 1991 Handjieva et al., 1991

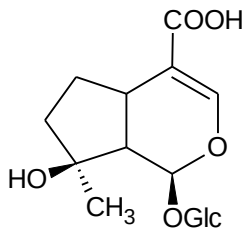
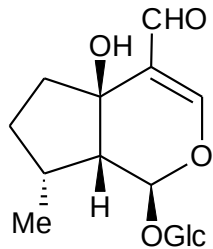
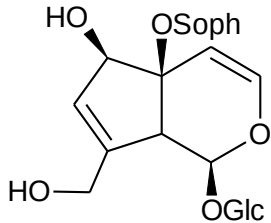
			
Desacetylhookerioside 	<i>P. subulata</i> L. <i>P. altissima</i> L. <i>P. tenuiflora</i> Waldst. & Kit. <i>P. serraria</i> L.	Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts	Rønsted et al., 2000 Jensen et al., 1996 Rønsted et al., 2003 Rønsted et al., 2003
Epiloganin 	<i>P. maxima</i> Juss. ex Jacq.	Aerial parts	Rønsted et al., 2003
Gardoside	<i>P. major</i> L. <i>P. arborescens</i> Poir. <i>P. atrata</i> Hoppe <i>P. lundborgii</i> Sparre <i>P. nivalis</i> Boiss. <i>P. ovata</i> Forssk.	Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts	Murai et al., 1996 Rønsted et al., 2000 Rønsted et al., 2000 Rønsted et al., 2000 Rønsted et al., 2000 Rønsted et al., 2000

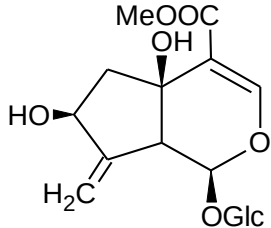
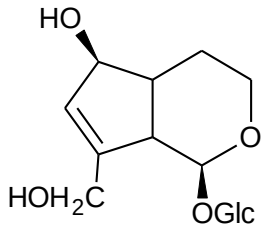
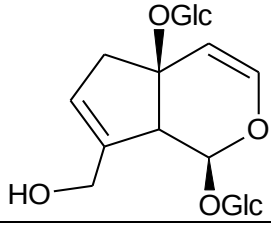
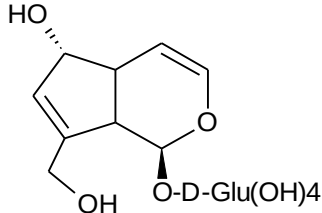
	<i>P. reniformis</i> Beck <i>P. stauntonii</i> Reichardt <i>P. webbii</i> Barnéoud <i>P. alpina</i> L. <i>P. altissima</i> L. <i>P. palmata</i> Hook.f. <i>P. maxima</i> Juss. ex Jacq. <i>P. tenuiflora</i> Waldest. & Kit. <i>P. camtschatica</i> Link <i>P. spathulata</i> Hook.f. <i>P. serraria</i> L. <i>P. tandilensis</i> (Pilg.) Rahn	Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts	Rønsted et al., 2000 Rønsted et al., 2000 Rønsted et al., 2000 Jensen et al., 1996 Jensen et al., 1996 Rønsted et al., 2003 Rønsted et al., 2003 Rønsted et al., 2003 Rønsted et al., 2003 Rønsted et al., 2003 Rønsted et al., 2003
Gardoside methyl ester 	<i>P. maxima</i> Juss. ex Jacq. <i>P. tomentosa</i> Lam.	Aerial parts Aerial parts	Rønsted et al., 2003 Rønsted et al., 2003
Geniposidic acid 	<i>P. major</i> L. <i>P. tenuiflora</i> Waldest. & Kit. <i>P. coronopus</i> L. <i>P. lanceolata</i> L. <i>P. bellardii</i> All. <i>P. lundborgii</i> Sparre <i>P. reniformis</i> Beck <i>P. alpina</i> L. <i>P. asiatica</i> L. <i>P. serraria</i> L.	Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Seeds Aerial parts	Murai et al., 1996 Taskova et al., 2002 Taskova et al., 2002 Taskova et al., 2002 Rønsted et al., 2000 Rønsted et al., 2000 Rønsted et al., 2000 Jensen et al., 1996 Toda et al., 1985 Rønsted et al., 2003

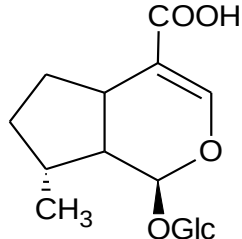
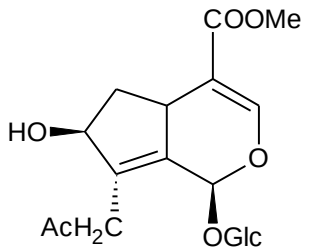
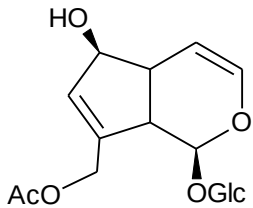
	<i>P. sarcophylla</i> Boiss. & Zohary <i>P. altissima</i> L. <i>P. ovata</i> Forssk. <i>P. aristata</i> Michx. <i>P. palmata</i> Hook.f. <i>P. rugelii</i> Decne. <i>P. camtschatica</i> Link <i>P. debilis</i> R.Br. <i>P. spathulata</i> Hook.f. <i>P. tomentosa</i> Lam.	Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts	Rønsted et al., 2003 Rønsted et al., 2003 Rønsted et al., 2003 Rønsted et al., 2003 Rønsted et al., 2003 Rønsted et al., 2003 Rønsted et al., 2003 Rønsted et al., 2003 Rønsted et al., 2003 Rønsted et al., 2003
Globularicisin 	<i>P. tandilensis</i> (Pilg.) Rahn	Aerial parts	Rønsted et al., 2003
Globularin 	<i>P. lanceolata</i> L. <i>P. altissima</i> L. <i>P. argentea</i> Chaix <i>P. lagopus</i> L. <i>P. tandilensis</i> (Pilg.) Rahn	Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts	Rønsted et al., 2003 Rønsted et al., 2003 Rønsted et al., 2003 Rønsted et al., 2003 Rønsted et al., 2003
Hookeroside	<i>P. altissima</i> L. <i>P. hookeriana</i> Fisch. & C.A.Mey. <i>P. tomentosa</i> Lam.	Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts	Jensen et al., 1996 Damtoft et al., 1994 Rønsted et al., 2003

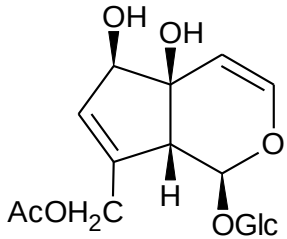
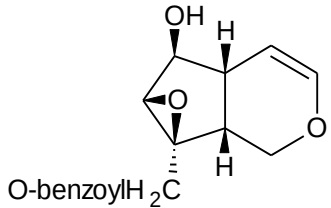
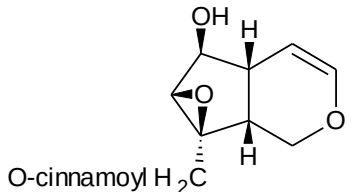
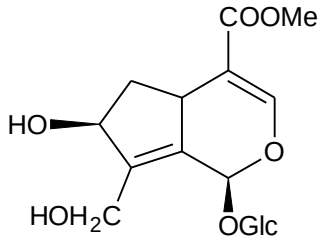
	<i>P. tandilensis</i> (Pilg.) Rahn	Aerial parts	Rønsted et al., 2003
Ixoroside 	<i>P. major</i> L.	Aerial parts	Afifi et al., 1990
Majoroside 	<i>P. major</i> L. <i>P. cornuti</i> Gouan <i>P. camtschatica</i> Link	Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts	Handjieva et al., 1991 Taskova et al., 2002 Rønsted et al., 2003
Melampyroside (10-benzoylaucubin)	<i>P. major</i> L.	Aerial parts	Rønsted et al., 2003

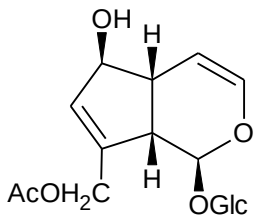
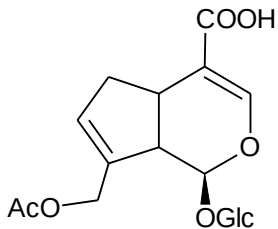
			
Mellitoside 	<i>P. major</i> L. <i>P. subulata</i> L. <i>P. media</i> L. <i>P. maritima</i> L. <i>P. cornuti</i> Gouan <i>P. alpina</i> L.	Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts	Murai et al., 1996 Taskova et al., 2002 Taskova et al., 2002 Rønsted et al., 2000 Rønsted et al., 2003 Rønsted et al., 2003
Monomellitoside 	<i>P. subulata</i> L. <i>P. media</i> L. <i>P. alpina</i> L.	Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts	Taskova et al., 2002 Taskova et al., 2002 Jensen et al., 1996
Mussaenoside 	<i>P. maxima</i> Juss. ex Jacq.	Aerial parts	Rønsted et al., 2003

Mussaenosidic acid 	<i>P. arborescens</i> Poir. <i>P. nivalis</i> Boiss. <i>P. sempervirens</i> Crantz <i>P. webbii</i> Barnéoud <i>P. alpina</i> L. <i>P. maxima</i> Juss. ex Jacq. <i>P. sarcophylla</i> Boiss. & Zohary	Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts	Rønsted et al., 2000 Rønsted et al., 2000 Rønsted et al., 2000 Rønsted et al., 2000 Jensen et al., 1996 Rønsted et al., 2003 Rønsted et al., 2003
Plantarenaloside 	<i>P. major</i> L. <i>P. afra</i> L. <i>P. coronopus</i> L. <i>P. sempervirens</i> Crantz <i>P. webbii</i> Barnéoud <i>P. arenaria</i> Waldst. & Kit. <i>P. lagopus</i> L.	Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts	Afifi et al., 1990 Taskova et al., 2002 Rønsted et al., 2000 Rønsted et al., 2000 Rønsted et al., 2000 Andrzejewska-Golec et al., 1984 Afifi et al., 1990
Rehmannioside D 	<i>P. maritima</i> L.	Aerial parts	Rønsted et al., 2000
Strictoloside	<i>P. maxima</i> Juss. ex Jacq.	Aerial parts	Rønsted et al., 2003

			
3,4-dihydroaucubin 	<i>P. atrata</i> Hoppe <i>P. subulata</i> L. <i>P. asiatica</i> L.	Aerial parts Aerial parts Whole plant	Handjieva et al., 1991 Saadi et al., 1991 Oshio et al., 1982
6-deoxymellitoside 	<i>P. subulata</i> L.	Aerial parts	Rønsted et al., 2000
6-epiaucubin 	<i>P. subulata</i> L.	Aerial parts	Andrzejewska-Golec et al., 1984

			
10-acetoxymajoroside	<i>P. major</i> L. <i>P. tenuiflora</i> Waldst. & Kit. <i>P. cornuti</i> Gouan	Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts	Taskova et al., 2002 Taskova et al., 2002 Rønsted et al., 2003
			
10-acetylaucubin	<i>P. media</i> L. <i>P. subulata</i> L.	Aerial parts Aerial parts	Rønsted et al., 2003 Rønsted et al., 2003
			
10-acetylmonomellitoside	<i>P. subulata</i> L. <i>P. media</i> L.	Aerial parts Aerial parts	Taskova et al., 2002 Taskova et al., 2002

			
10-benzoylcatalpol	<i>P. lagopus</i> L. <i>P. hookeriana</i> Fisch. & C.A.Mey. <i>P. patagonica</i> Jacq. <i>P. aristata</i> Michx. <i>P. tandilensis</i> (Pilg.) Rahn	Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts	Taskova et al., 2002 Damtoft et al., 1994 Rønsted et al., 2000 Rønsted et al., 2003 Rønsted et al., 2003
			
10-cinnamoylcatalpol	<i>P. lanceolata</i> L. <i>P. altissima</i> L. <i>P. argentea</i> Chaix <i>P. lagopus</i> L.	Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts	Taskova et al., 2002 Taskova et al., 2002 Taskova et al., 2002 Taskova et al., 2002
			
10-hydroxymajoroside	<i>P. major</i> L. <i>P. tenuiflora</i> Waldst. & Kit. <i>P. cornuti</i> Gouan <i>P. rugelii</i> Decne.	Aerial parts Aerial parts Ground parts Aerial parts	Taskova et al., 2002 Taskova et al., 2002 Handjieva et al., 1992 Rønsted et al., 2003
			

10-o-acetylaucubin 	<i>P. subulata</i> L. <i>P. media</i> L.	Aerial parts Aerial parts	Taskova et al., 2002 Taskova et al., 2002
10-o-acetylgeniposidic acid 	<i>P. alpina</i> L. <i>P. tomentosa</i> Lam.	Aerial parts Aerial parts	Jensen et al., 1996 Rønsted et al., 2003

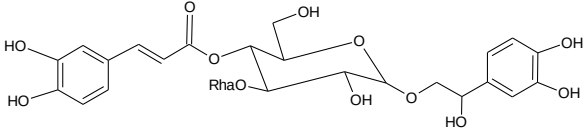
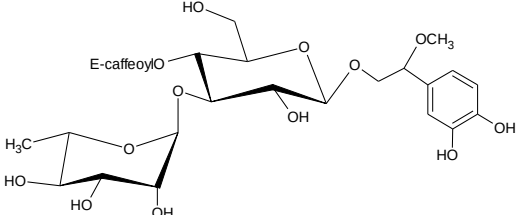
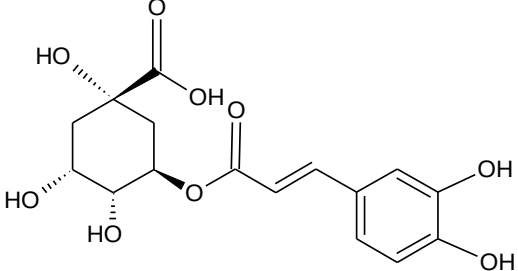
Other phenolic compounds

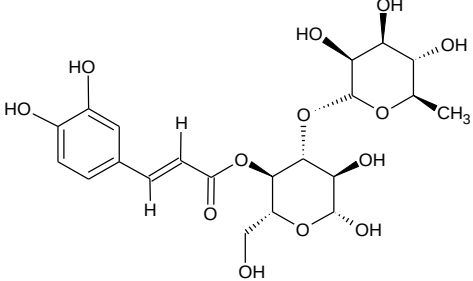
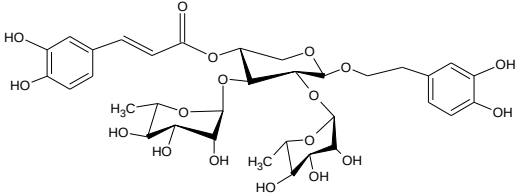
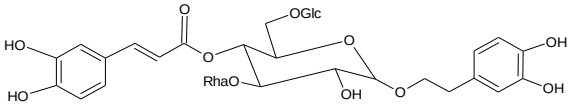
In addition to the flavonoids, they are other phenolic compounds in *Plantago*. These compounds are structurally formed by an aromatic ring, bearing one or more hydroxyl group. They have an essential role in the reproduction, growth and defense of plants, and are responsible for the color of plants and flavor of fruits (Balasundram et al., 2006; Huang et al., 2010).

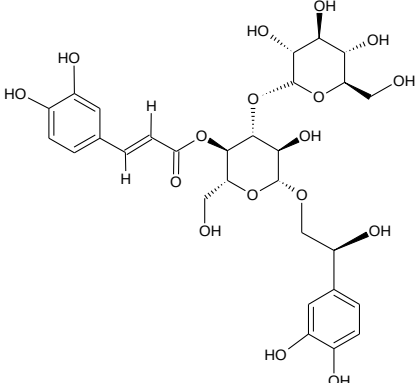
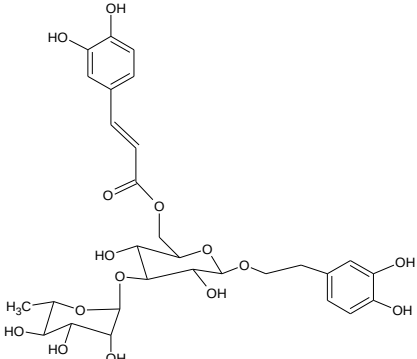
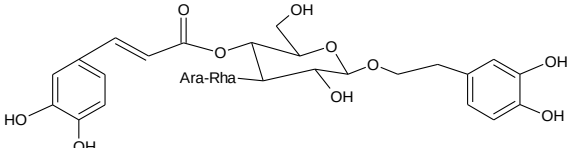
The phenolic compounds from *Plantago* and their chemical structures are listed in Table 3.

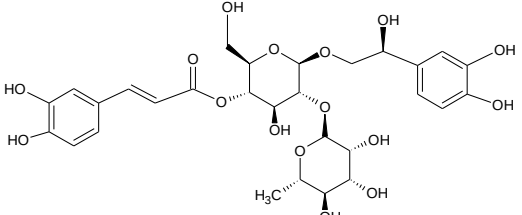
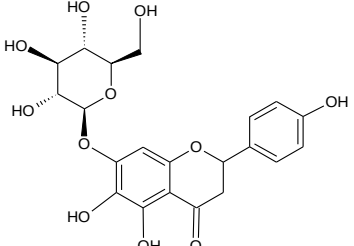
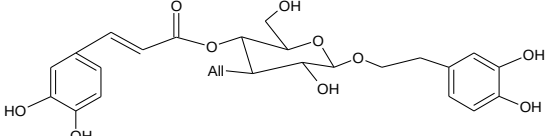
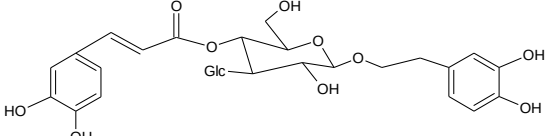
Table 3
Phenolic compounds from *Plantago*.

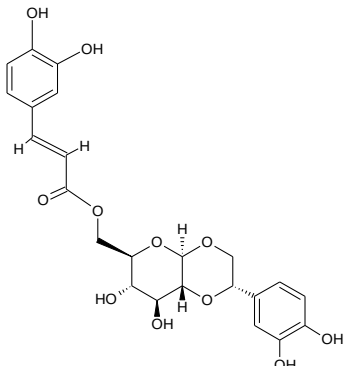
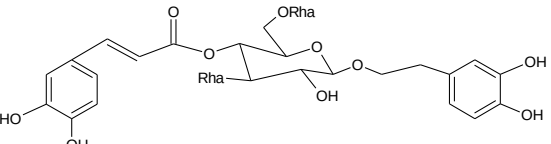
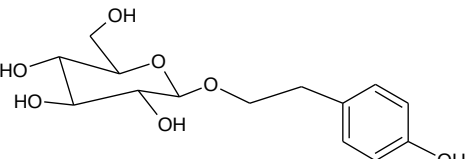
Phenolic compounds	<i>Plantago</i> species	Part of plant	References
β -Hydroxyacteoside	<i>P. tenuiflora</i> Waldst. & Kit.	Aerial parts	Rønsted et al., 2003

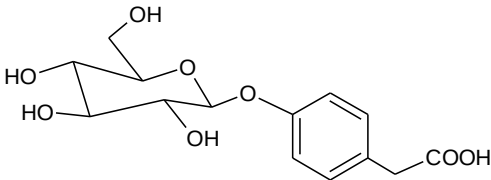
	<i>P. camtschatica</i> Link <i>P. tomentosa</i> Lam. <i>P. crassifolia</i> Forssk. <i>P. macrorhiza</i> Poir. <i>P. depressa</i> Willd. <i>P. serraria</i> L. <i>P. macrorhiza</i> Poir. <i>P. lanceolata</i> L.	Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts	Rønsted et al., 2003 Rønsted et al., 2003 Rønsted et al., 2003 Rønsted et al., 2003 Nishibe et al., 1993 Rønsted et al., 2003 Rønsted et al., 2003 Fleer & Verspohl, 2007
Campenoside I 	<i>P. depressa</i> Willd.	Aerial parts	Nishibe et al., 1993
Chlorogenic acid 	<i>P. major</i> L. <i>P. cretica</i> L. <i>P. bellardii</i> All.	Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts	Rønsted et al., 2003 Rønsted et al., 2000 Rønsted et al., 2000
Cistanoside F	<i>P. depressa</i> Willd.	Aerial parts	Nishibe et al., 1993

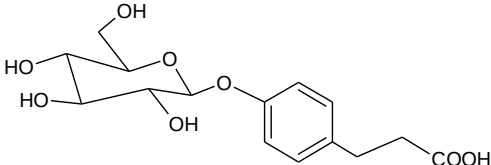
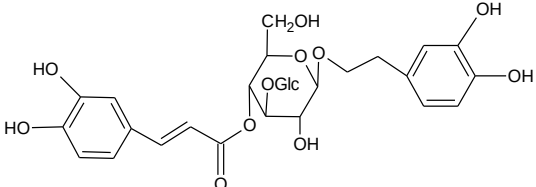
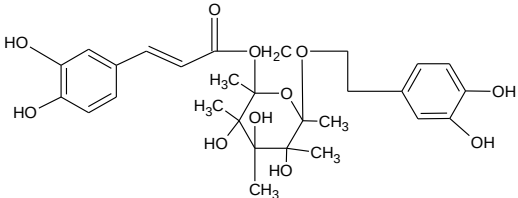
			
Crassifolioside 	<i>P. crassifolia</i> Forssk.	Leaves	Andary et al., 1988
Echinacoside 	<i>P. maritima</i> L.	Aerial parts	Rønsted et al., 2000
Hellicoside	<i>P. asiatica</i> L.	Aerial parts	Ravn et al., 1990

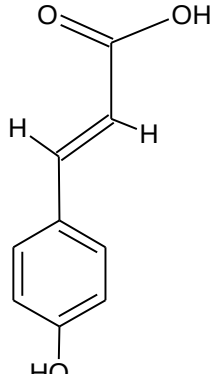
			
Isoverbascoside 	<i>P. australis</i> Lam. <i>P. lanceolata</i> L.	Aerial parts Aerial parts	Rønsted et al., 2000 Murai et al., 1995
Lavandufolioside 	<i>P. lanceolata</i> L.	Aerial parts	Murai et al., 1995
Orobanchoside	<i>P. depressa</i> Willd.	Aerial parts	Nishibe et al., 1993

			
Plantaginol 	<i>P. asiatica</i> L.	Aerial parts	Ravn et al., 1990
Plantalloside 	<i>P. crassifolia</i> Forssk. <i>P. myosuroides</i> Lam.	Aerial parts Aerial parts	Rønsted et al., 2003 Rønsted et al., 2003
Plantamajoside 	<i>P. major</i> L. <i>P. asiatica</i> L. <i>P. palmata</i> Hook.f. <i>P. tenuiflora</i> Waldst. & Kit. <i>P. debilis</i> R.Br. <i>P. sarcophylla</i> Boiss. & Zohary <i>P. media</i> L. <i>P. arborescens</i> Poir.	Aerial parts Leaves Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts	Zubair et al., 2012 Ravn et al., 1990 Biringanine et al., 2007 Rønsted et al., 2003 Rønsted et al., 2003 Rønsted et al., 2003 Andary et al., 1988 Rønsted et al., 2000

	<i>P. webbii</i> Barnéoud <i>P. lagopus</i> L. <i>P. bellardii</i> All. <i>P. ovata</i> Forssk. <i>P. lanceolata</i> L.	Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts	Rønsted et al., 2000 Rønsted et al., 2003 Rønsted et al., 2003 Rønsted et al., 2000 Murai et al., 1995
Plantasioside 	<i>P. asiatica</i> L.		
Poliumoside 	<i>P. tandilensis</i> (Pilg.) Rahn	Aerial parts	Rønsted et al., 2003
Salidroside 	<i>P. maxima</i> Juss. ex Jacq. <i>P. australis</i> Lam. <i>P. coronopus</i> L. <i>P. tandilensis</i> (Pilg.) Rahn	Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts	Rønsted et al., 2003 Rønsted et al., 2000 Rønsted et al., 2000 Rønsted et al., 2003

		<i>P. atrata</i> Hoppe <i>P. nivalis</i> Boiss. <i>P. lagopus</i> L. <i>P. lanceolata</i> L. <i>P. cretica</i> L. <i>P. bellardii</i> All. <i>P. ovata</i> Forssk. <i>P. lundborgii</i> Sparre <i>P. patagonica</i> Jacq. <i>P. hookeriana</i> Fisch. & C.A.Mey. <i>P. altissima</i> L. <i>P. alpina</i> L. <i>P. holosteum</i> Scop. <i>P. reniformis</i> Beck <i>P. schwarzenbergiana</i> Schur	Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts Aerial parts	Rønsted et al., 2003 Rønsted et al., 2003 Rønsted et al., 2003 Fleer & Verspohl, 2007 Rønsted et al., 2003 Rønsted et al., 2003 Rønsted et al., 2000 Rønsted et al., 2003 Rønsted et al., 2000 Damtoft et al., 1994 Jensen et al., 1996 Jensen et al., 1996 Janković et al., 2012 Janković et al., 2012 Janković et al., 2012
2-[4-(β-D-glucopyranosyloxy) acetic acid	phenyl]	<i>P. tandilensis</i> (Pilg.) Rahn	Aerial parts	Rønsted et al., 2003
				
3-[4-(β-D-glucopyranosyloxy) propionic acid	phenyl]	<i>P. aristata</i> Michx.	Aerial parts	Rønsted et al., 2003

			
3,4-dihydroxy-β-phenethyl-O-β-D-glucopyranosyl (1 $\rightarrow$ 3)-4-O-caffeoyl-β-D-glucopyranoside 	<i>P. major</i> L.	Leaves	Ravn et al., 1988
3,4-dihydroxyphenethyl alcohol-6-O-caffeoyl-β-D-glucoside 	<i>P. asiatica</i> L.	Aerial parts	Ravn et al., 1990
4-Hydroxycinnamic acid	<i>P. lanceolata</i> L.	Whole plant	Dalar et al., 2012

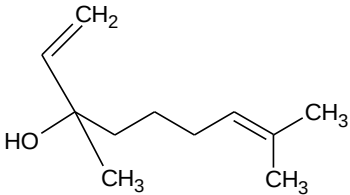
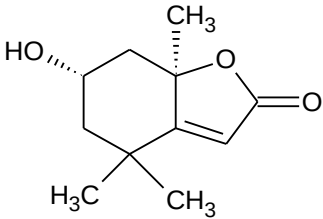
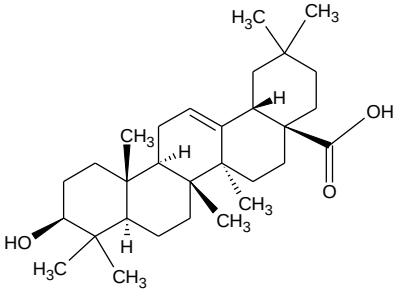
			
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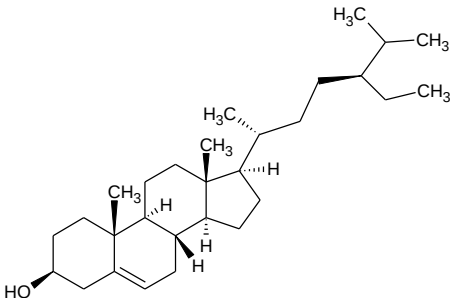
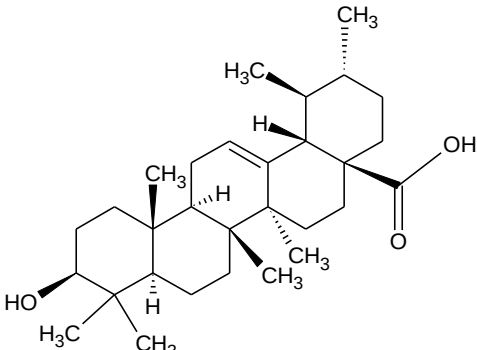
Terpenoids

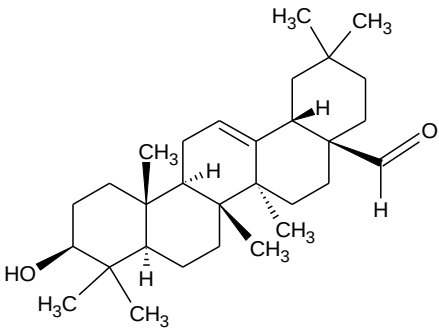
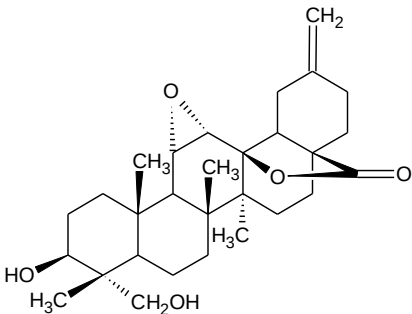
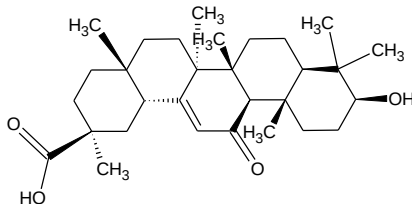
Terpenoids are derived from five-carbone isoprene units, synthetized either by the mevalonate or the methylerythritol-4-phosphate (MEP) pathway. They are the basic constituents of essential oils in plants, and play roles as repellants, plant-plant and plant-pathogen/herbivore interaction, and hormones (Graßmann, 2005).

The terpenoids from *Plantago* and their chemical structures are listed in Table 4.

Table 4
Terpenoids from *Plantago*.

Terpenoid	<i>Plantago</i> species	Part of plant	References
Linalool 	<i>P. major</i> L. <i>P. asiatica</i> L.	Whole plant Leaves	Chiang et al., 2003 Chung et al., 2007
Loliolid 	<i>P. major</i> L. <i>P. lanceolata</i> L.	Leaves Leaves	Pailer & Haschke-Hofmeister, 1969 Tóth et al., 1976
Oleanolic acid 	<i>P. major</i> L.	Leaves	Abud et al., 2012

Sitosterol 	<i>P. major</i> L. <i>P. lanceolata</i> L. <i>P. ovata</i> Forssk.	Aerial parts Leaves Seeds	Kolak et al., 2011 Pankoke & Müller, 2013 Nakamura et al., 2005
Ursolic acid 	<i>P. major</i> L. <i>P. lanceolata</i> L.	Whole plant Leaves	Ringbom et al., 1998 Sosa et al., 2011

3β-hydroxyolean-12-en-28-al 	<i>P. amplexicaulis</i> Cav.	Aerial parts	Salama & Saffan., 2003
11α, 12α-Epoxy-3β, 23-dihydroxy-30-norolean-20(29)-en-28, 13-β-olide 	<i>P. amplexicaulis</i> Cav.	Aerial parts	Salama & Saffan, 2003
18β-glycyrrhetic acid 	<i>P. major</i> L.	Leaves	Ringbom et al., 1998

Biological activities of *Plantago* constituents

Analgesic activity

The analgesic activity of *P. australis* hydroalcoholic extract on mice was evaluated by acetic acid induced writhing, and the analgesic effect was probably reported by the inhibition of prostaglandin synthesis (Palmeiro et al., 2002). Linalool also was performed to reduce the acute pain in mice treated with paclitaxel. The results offer evidence for the involvement of peripheral opioids in this mechanism, promoting an anti-hyperalgesia (Katsuyama et al., 2012).

Antidiabetic activity

Recent studies revealed that triterpenes, as oleanolic and ursolic acids, have antidiabetic activity. Both of them exhibited higher inhibition of α -glucosidase enzyme, with more satisfactory results than the positive control, acarbose, in *in vitro* experiments. Oleanolic acid also regulates the intracellular redox status and directly modulates the carbohydrate metabolism and insulin signaling, and ursolic acid may exhibits immunomodulatory effects by growing insulin levels and modulating blood glucose levels in *in vivo* models (Jang et al., 2009; Castellano et al., 2013; López et al., 2015).

Antigenotoxic activity

Additionally results obtained from a study who submitted human breast cancer cells and noncancerous human mammary epithelial MCF10A cells, revealed that oleanolic acid can reduce oxidative stress and oxidative damage to the DNA in the epithelial cells (Sánchez-Quesada et al., 2015). Other studies, this time involving the verbascoside, indicated a protection of human peripheral blood cells and human leukemia HL-60 cells against H₂O₂-induced DNA damage, and no genotoxic effects in the *Drosophila* wing spot test. However, when tested in human lymphocytes, verbascoside induced genotoxicity reported by the increase chromosome aberrations and chromatid exchanges (Fabiani et al., 2008; Santoro et al., 2008; Santos-Cruz et al., 2012).

Anti-inflammatory activity

Hydrosoluble fiber of *P. ovata* showed protective effect in duodenal mucosa of rabbits submitted to acetylsalicylic acid (AAS)-induced lesions, probably by limiting AAS penetration in epithelial cells (Sahagún et al., 2015). Similarly, *P. ovata* leaves has been used in the treatment of peptic ulcer, and its seeds are largely used in constipation cases (Fernández-Bañares et al., 1999). In the other hand, *P. major* leaf extract was tested in rats with acetaminophen-induced hepatotoxicity. As results, the plant extract revealed significantly anti-inflammatory property, reducing the proinflammatory cytokine and hepatic enzymes (ALT and AST) levels (Hussan et al., 2015). The anti-inflammatory activity of *P. australis* hydroalcoholic extract on mice was evaluated by the rat paw edema induced by carrageenan, and the favorable results were probably reported by the inhibition of prostaglandin synthesis (Palmeiro et al., 2002)

In vitro and *in vivo* assays showed that mussaenoside and geniposidic acid have potent anti-inflammatory activity by targeting mediators of inflammation and reducing the induced edema in rats (Carrillo-Ocampo et al., 2013; Vogl et al., 2013b). Another study revealed that geniposidic acid also inhibits cyclooxygenase enzymes activities, together with the other iridoids, aucubin, catalpol and verbascoside. In addition, catalpol ameliorates acute pancreatitis in rats by inhibiting activation of nuclear factor kappa B (NF- κ B) (Park et al., 2007; Gyurkovska et al., 2011; Xiao et al., 2014). The NF- κ B inhibition by baicalein, mangiferin and oleanolic acid was also verified in LPS-induced mastitis, collagen-induced arthritis – both in mice, and in an *in vitro* assay with RAW 264.7 macrophage cell line, respectively, suggesting its use in clinical treatment of rheumatoid arthritis, oxidative stress induced diseases related to inflammatory consequences and mastitis (Hwang et al., 2014; He et al., 2015; Tsubaki et al., 2015).

Due the role of inflammation in the development of insulin resistance, an *in vitro* study using homoplantagin showed its participation in the modulation of insulin sensitivity in endothelial cells. This compound usefully decreased nitric oxide production, inhibiting inflammation and ameliorating the endothelial dysfunction (Wu et al., 2012). Other anti-inflammatory properties were verified in several studies with sitosterol, who inhibited inflammatory genes expression in keratinocytes – which may be useful in the treatment of alopecia, and significantly reduced carrageenan rat paw edema, as well as with verbascoside, who reduced pro-inflammatory cytokines expression and reactive oxygen species (ROS) production in cultured cells with pro-inflammatory stimuli (Speranza et al., 2010; Chittur et al., 2011; Bhalke & Pal, 2012).

Antimicrobial activity

Compound baicalein exhibited synergistic activity with penicillins against penicillinase-producing *Staphylococcus aureus*. The triterpenes oleanolic and ursolic acids significantly inhibited the peptidoglycan biosynthesis in *Streptococcus mutans*, and oleanolic acid displayed antiparasitic activity against *Leishmania donovani* (Talib et al., 2012; López et al., 2015; Park et al., 2015; Qian et al., 2015).

In the search for new anti-malarial drugs, *in vitro* studies involving 18 β -glycyrrhetic acid revealed its significant anti-malarial potential against *Plasmodium falciparum*. These results allowed an *in silico* trial which confirmed that this compound holds drug-like properties, and to support these results, an *in vivo* evaluation indicated a dose dependent activity of 18 β -glycyrrhetic acid in the Swiss mice infection test (Kalani et al., 2013).

Antioxidant activity

N-hexane, ethyl acetate (EtOAc) and water extracts of the whole part of *P. asiatica* were tested for their antioxidant activity by the oxygen radical absorbance capacity (ORAC) method. As results, EtOAc extract showed the mostly marked antioxidant activity, and was chromatographed by HPLC, resulting in seven isolated compounds, all of them with markedly antioxidant activity (Amakura et al., 2012). Another research, this time involving *P. major* ethanolic extract, exhibited significant free radical scavenger activity against DPPH radicals in isolated rat liver mitochondria and in human hepatocellular carcinoma HepG2 cells, with no cytotoxic effects. *P. lanceolata* extract also performed similar activity on the reduction of DPPH radical (Adam et al., 2009; Mello et al., 2015).

According two studies, baicalein and aucubin played important role in antioxidant defenses. First, both of them inhibited ROS production by human neutrophils, and baicalein also exerted up-regulation antioxidant defense in cisplatin-induced renal damage (Reina et al., 2013; Sahu et al., 2015). Similarly, chlorogenic acid showed antioxidant properties in an intestinal ischemia-reperfusion model, sitosterol contributed to the antioxidant activity of compounds produced by carbonyl-amine reactions and linalool inhibited some pro-oxidant lipid peroxidation in rats' pancreas (Hidalgo et al., 2009; Sato et al., 2011; Oboh et al., 2015).

Several studies with oleanolic and ursolic acids have been shown their antioxidant activity. An *in vitro* study involving oleanolic acid resulted in a higher

protection of cells against cytotoxicity induced by ROS generation induced by tert-Butyl hydroperoxide (tBHP) and alloxan, and also protected rats' liver against tetrachloride-induced injury (Bai et al., 2007; Gao et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2010). On the other hand, ursolic acid showed significant radical scavenger activity using the DPPH assay, as well as modulated the UVB-induced ROS in human lymphocytes (Ramachandran & Prasad, 2008; do Nascimento et al., 2013).

Antitumoral activity

According López et al. (2009), the consumption of *P. ovata* appears to be inversely associated with colorectal cancer mortality. Similarly, but not described in *Plantago*, apigenin have shown inhibitory effects against melanoma and its metastatic potential, leukaemia and glioblastoma (as rutin) in cell lines (Wang et al., 1999; Caltagirone et al., 2000; Santos et al., 2015).

Other studies conducted in cell lines have shown that baicalein and isoharmnetin are involved in the induced cytotoxicity and by downregulating the matrix metalloproteinase activity in human breast cancers. Catalpol suppresses proliferation and induces apoptosis in ovarian cancer; linalool shows cytotoxic effects by stimulating antitumor immunity and β -sitosterol has chemopreventive activity against colon cancer models, including *in vivo* models (Baskar et al., 2010; Chang & Shen, 2014; Gao et al., 2014; Chang et al., 2015; Li et al., 2015a).

The triterpene, mainly oleanolic and ursolic acids, are broadly described as antitumor compounds. Oleanolic acid showed considerable tumor inhibition in nude mice transplanted with human pancreatic cancer L3.6PL cells (Jutooru et al., 2010). Also, it reported cytotoxicity, although it was weak, and inhibition of proliferation and increase of oxidative stress in human breast adenocarcinoma MCF-7 and MDA-MB-231 cells (Hsu et al., 2005; Sánchez-Quesada et al., 2015). Meanwhile, ursolic acid exercised blockade in tumor growth in mouse sarcoma S180 cells, and also inhibited proliferations of HL-60 and human tongue cancer TSCC- α cells (Manu & Kuttan, 2008; Wang et al., 2012a; Wang et al., 2012b), and induced apoptosis of MCF-7 cells. Recent studies presented more mechanistic effects of ursolic acid in several cancer types, as by weakening surveillance mechanisms in mice lung carcinoma cells, by causing cytotoxicity in mouse glioma C6 cells, and by inhibiting the invasive phenotype or promoting apoptosis of human gastric cancer SNU-484 and SGC-7901 cells, respectively (Mazumder et al., 2013; Li et al., 2014a; Kim & Moon, 2015; Kim et al.,

2015). Due its poor solubility, experiments involving nanosized delivery systems loading ursolic acid indicated that these nanoparticles could inhibit the growth of mouse hepatocellular carcinoma H22 cells and induce more efficiently apoptosis (Zhang et al., 2015).

Gastroprotective activity

A Chinese study with medicinal plants described that *P. depressa* Willd. is commonly used in stomach gas and constipation cases (Shen et al., 2010). Similarly, ethanolic spissum extract of *P. lanceolata* and its compounds luteolin, acteoside (verbascoside) and plantamajoside were investigated for antispasmodic activity on isolated ileum and trachea of the guinea-pig. The results showed that the extract decreased the contractions of the trachea and the ileum induced by various agonists, and these results were also demonstrated by the compounds luteolin, acteoside and plantamajoside (Fleer & Verspohl, 2007).

Two studies tested aucubin as possible therapy against non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD). The results demonstrated that both compounds regulate lipotoxicity by enhancing lysosomal activity and inhibiting the endoplasmic reticulum stress in HepG2 cells (Lee et al., 2013; Lee et al., 2014). Rats with severe acute pancreatitis were also submitted to a treatment with baicalein, and the compound protected the animals against many pro-inflammatory cytokines effects (Li et al., 2015b).

Another research, this time involving ursolic acid, the compound improved key enzymes in the controlling lipids metabolism, decreasing the hepatic steatosis and constituting this terpenoid as a new candidate for NAFLD therapy (Li et al., 2014b). Oleanolic and ursolic acids also showed similar effects *in vivo*, revealing that these compounds can exert hepatoprotective and hypolipidemic properties by lowering the lipid peroxidation in the liver (Rezaei-Golmisheh et al., 2015).

Hypolipemiant activity

The *P. ovata* husks are largely used to decrease plasma cholesterol, and similarly effect was noted when the seeds of *P. ovata* were tested in guinea pigs. As results, the administration of seeds reduced plasma triglycerides and LDL cholesterol by altering hepatic and bile acid metabolism, acting directly in regulatory enzymes of cholesterol synthesis and its catabolism (Romero et al., 2002).

The anti-obesity activity of asperuloside was evaluated in rats, and the effect of this compound suggested its important role by suppressing the body weight, food intake and plasma levels of glucose, insulin and lipids, and increasing many enzymes related to the metabolic function in several organs under high-fat diet conditions (Fujikawa et al., 2012). As well as in NAFLD, ursolic acid has potential capacity to increase skeletal muscle and brown fat, regulating the glucose intolerance and reducing the obesity (Kunkel et al., 2012).

Neuroprotective effects

A recent clinical trial evaluated the effects of *P. ovata* in Parkinson patients treated with levodopa, since this plant is commonly used to reduce the symptoms of gastrointestinal disorders caused by this disease. As results, *P. ovata* stabilized levodopa concentrations by causing a homogenization of its absorption, improving the pharmacotherapy (Fernandez-Martinez et al., 2014).

Oleanolic and ursolic acids have shown potential inhibition of acetylcholinesterase (AChE). The cleavage of acetylcholine by this enzyme has a strong correlation with the degree of cognitive loss in patients with Alzheimer's disease (AD). *In vitro* assays demonstrated that the ursolic acid inhibits AChE activity and also reduces beta-amyloid(A β)-induced oxidative damage, as well acts blocking the proinflammatory cytokines production stimulated by A β , playing a neuroprotective role against AD. Oleanolic acid has similar functions, reducing the neuronal death and the A β -induced memory deficit in *in vivo* assays (Yoo & Park, 2012).

Another constituent, the 18 β -glycyrrhetic acid, has been used in *in vivo* assays as a therapeutic strategy for multiple sclerosis (MS). This terpenoid could modulate the microglia activation, inhibiting the central nervous system inflammation, promoting the remyelination and suppressing the disease severity of autoimmune encephalomyelitis (Zhou et al., 2015). The iridoid catalpol also acts as an important neuroprotective compound, by attenuating cognitive deficit, oxidative stress and neuronal damage in *in vivo* tests, and decreasing the apoptosis in LPS-induced neurodegeneration in *in vitro* models (Chen et al., 2013a; Haicheng et al., 2014). Finally, luteolin has many studies due its neuroprotective effects, suggesting its use in cases of autism spectrum disorders, AD, Parkinson's disease, diabetes-associated cognitive decline, traumatic brain injury and multiple sclerosis (Kempuraj et al., 2008; López-Lázaro, 2009; Choi et al., 2014; Hu et al., 2014; Xu et al., 2014).

Respiratory tract activity

The *P. major* is widely used for treatment of respiratory diseases. Thus, an *in vivo* study compared the hydro-alcoholic extract of *P. major* and the standard therapy with theophylline, and the results showed that the administration of *P. major* extract in asthmatic rats reestablished the lung histopathologic characteristics, evidencing its protective effect in asthma (Farokhi & Khaneshi, 2013).

About the compounds described in *Plantago*, chrysoeriol has been related as a selective bronchodilator, according a study which tested its properties in guinea pigs. The results demonstrated a relaxant effect in airways through K⁺ channel activation (Khan & Gilani, 2015).

Wound healing activity

An *in vivo* study examined the effects off 0.1% aucubin on oral wound healing. As results, both re-epithelization and matrix formation of mice buccal mucosa treated with aucubin occurred earlier when compared with the control group. The number of inflammatory cells was also fewer, making aucubin a useful compound to topical wound healing formulations (Shim, et al., 2007).

According two different studies, verbascoside also showed wound healing activity. First, a study involving adult hares performed the corneal epithelial wound healing activity of liposomal eyedrops containing verbascoside. The effect of this administration was positive, reducing the latency time to three hours and the healing process to 48 hours (Ambrosone et al., 2014). Another study, with *in vitro* and *in vivo* experiments, verified that verbascoside significantly inhibited chemokines secretion and exhibited anti-inflammatory action in the excision wound model (Korkina et al., 2007).

Other activities

Experiments using mice reported the involvement of the iridoid catalpol with the central monoaminergic system. As results, catalpol may produce an antidepressant-like effect, by increasing serotonin levels, and not affecting levels of norepinephrine or dopamine, equating this compound to the clinical antidepressant fluoxetine (Wang et al., 2014).

Catalpol also plays an important role in brain angiogenesis by upregulating erythropoietin and vascular endothelial growth factor and decrease neurological deficits in a rat model of stroke (Zhu et al., 2010). In addition, it was demonstrated ovarian anti-

aging properties in female rats' models by nourishing ovarian tissues and improving the quality of follicles (Wei et al., 2014) . At last, this compound proved allergy-preventive effects in *in vivo* experiments (Oku et al., 2011).

There are some studies involving radioprotective and photoprotective effects of the natural compounds in cultured cells and mice submitted to a treatment with catalpol before irradiation. Probably by its effects on reducing ROS generation, catalpol inhibited ionizing radiation-induced cell apoptosis *in vitro* and increased plasma endogenous antioxidants *in vivo* (Chen et al., 2013b). Similarly, aucubin significantly reduced UVB-induced oxidative stress in human skin fibroblasts by inhibiting matrix metalloproteinase-1 production, reducing skin photoaging (Ho et al., 2005).

Finally, some compounds displayed relation with renal membrane protection. The first study, performed in cultured renal cells, concluded that the treatment with flavonoids luteolin, plantaginin and rutin inhibited the release of lactate dehydrogenase and decreased the lipid peroxidation, making them as effective protector compounds on the renal cellular membrane (Yokozawa et al., 1999). In the other hand, an *in vivo* study submitted mice with renal ischemia/reperfusion-injury (IRI) to a treatment with catalpol, and as results, this compound significantly reduced some inflammatory markers, attenuating renal IRI and contributing to the renal protection (Zhu et al., 2015).

Concluding remarks

Plantago has been largely studied in the medical field. Its traditional folk use in treating several diseases makes its species a significant source of studies of new molecules with therapeutic properties. In this context, different compounds such as iridoid glucosides, phenolic compounds, flavonoids and terpenoids, have shown some biological activities, involving *Plantago* extracts or isolated compounds, with significantly results, mainly related to the antidiabetic, anti-inflammatory, antioxidant, antitumoral, hypolipemiant and neuroprotective activities.

Due the requirement for new researching lines to provide new drugs development, and due the long traditional use of species of *Plantago*, it seems to be worth the effort of exploring this plant genus further.

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4. Capítulo II – artigo de dados

Toxicological safety evaluation of an hydroethanolic extract from leaves of *Plantago australis* and its major compound, verbascoside

Artigo a ser submetido à revista *Journal of Ethnopharmacology*

(Para facilitar a leitura do manuscrito as tabelas e figuras foram inseridas no
texto)

**Toxicological safety evaluation of an hydroethanolic extract from leaves of
Plantago australis and its major compound, verbascoside**

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Abstract

Ethnopharmacological relevance: *Plantago australis* (Kunth) Rahn is a perennial plant widely distributed in Latin America, and its seeds and leaves are used in folk medicine to treat many diseases and conditions. Among its various chemical compounds, verbascoside is one of the most present, and has several pharmacological activities described, but there is no information about the toxicity of both of them.

Aims of the study: The aims of the present study were to optimize the extraction of verbascoside from *P. australis* leaves through ultrasound methods. Also, a validated HPLC method to quantify verbascoside was developed, and we evaluated the toxicological safety of extraction and verbascoside in *in vitro* assays.

Materials and methods: Dried leaves of *P. australis* were submitted to different extraction methods (percolation and ultrasound). The optimization of the ultrasound extraction was carried out by complete factorial design (2^2) and response surface methodology (RSM). Furthermore, HPLC analysis was performed for the estimation of aucubin, baicalein, oleanolic acid, uroslic acid and verbascoside as marker compounds. Mutagenicity of PAHE and verbascoside was performed by *Salmonella*/microsome mutagenicity assay. Cytotoxicity and genotoxicity were carried out in Chinese hamster lung fibroblast V79 cells, by reduction of tetrazolium salt (MTT) and neutral red uptake (NRU) assay, and alkaline comet assay, respectively. Due the potential use of verbascoside in skin formulations, its phototoxicity was tested in *Mus musculus* embryo fibroblast 3T3 cells by the NRU phototoxicity assay.

Results: Among the marker compounds, only verbascoside was founded in PAHE, and its highest concentration was obtained in the ultrasound-assisted extraction (UAE) method, optimized in 40 min and 25 °C, and the method validation was successfully applied. Both PAHE and verbascoside did not show mutagenic or genotoxic activities. Cytotoxicity assays demonstrated that both of them reduced cell viability only in the highest concentrations, and verbascoside has no phototoxic properties.

Conclusion: The extraction of verbascoside from *P. australis* leaves through ultrasound methods was optimizing. The HPLC method to quantify verbascoside was validated. The results suggest the toxicological safety of PAHE and verbascoside, corroborating the use of *P. australis* in folk medicine, and also propose verbascoside as a potential ingredient in skin formulations.

Keywords: *Plantago australis*, hydroethanolic extract, verbascoside, response surface methodology, mutagenicity, cytotoxicity, genotoxicity, phototoxicity.

1. Introduction

Medicinal plants are part of the humanity's daily lives for thousands of years. As examples, the traditional Chinese medicine, and the Egyptian and Greco-Roman chemical techniques are widely used until today (Viegas Jr. et al., 2006). Despite their different therapeutic targets and pharmacological mechanisms, plants have been poorly investigated, since the phytochemical and biological study of plants involves only a small portion of the plant kingdom, when compared to the ethnopharmacological knowledge of different species around the world (Filho and Yunes, 1998; Simões et al., 2004).

In addition, due the plants' chemical complexity, it is necessary a strict quality control from cultivation, through the harvest and extraction, till the eventual development of a phytotherapeutic product, supporting the financial and technological funding to botanical, chemical and pharmacological studies of plants, providing the research for new drugs and thus avoiding the indiscriminate use and the possible extinction of some plants (Turolla and Nascimento, 2006).

Plantago australis (Kunth) Rahn (Plantaginaceae) is a perennial plant, popularly known as *tansagem* or *transagem*, and is outspread in all Latin America, with a widely distribution in Southern Brazil (Helfer et al., 2011). In folk medicine, *P. australis* is largely used because its anti-inflammatory, antimicrobial, antiviral, gastric antiulcer, antidiarrheal and healing properties, as well as in the treatment of kidney, bladder and ovary diseases, but there is a lack of results on its safety (Palmeiro et al., 2003; Souza et al., 2004; Andrade-Cetto, 2009).

Phytochemical studies revealed several compounds in *P. australis*, some of them already having pharmacological activities described. As examples, we have the iridoid glucoside aucubine and the phenolic compounds, salidroside, isoverbascoside and verbascoside, which were described in hydroethanolic extracts (Andary et al., 1988; Rønsted et al., 2000).

Verbascoside, also known as acteoside, is an ester structurally formed by the phenylpropanoid caffeic acid, the phenylethanoid hydroxytyrosol and the sugar α -L-rhamnopyranosyl-(1 $\rightarrow$ 3)- β -D-glucopyranose. Belonging to the caffeoyl phenylethanoid glycoside group, it is widely founded in numerous plant families, including

Plantaginaceae, and therefore is one of the most studied compounds in *Plantago* (Li et al., 2014b; Zhang et al., 2015; Wen et al., 2016). Pharmacologically, verbascoside has antigenotoxic, gastric antiulcer, anti-inflammatory and healing activities (Fleer and Verspohl, 2007; Korkina et al., 2007; Fabiani et al., 2008; Speranza et al., 2010; Gyurkovska et al., 2011; Ambrosone et al., 2014).

Due to the limited studies about *P. australis*, especially in relation to its toxicity, and also because of the need to improve the plant phytochemical analysis, this study aims to develop a hydroethanolic extract of the leaves of *P. australis* standardized in its analytical marker, verbascoside, and determinate the toxicological safety of the extract and the marker in *in vitro* models.

2. Material and methods

2.1. Chemicals

DMEM (Dulbeco's Modified Eagle Medium), FBS (fetal bovine serum), newborn calf serum, PBS (phosphate-buffered saline), trypsin-EDTA, L-glutamine, penicillin/streptomycin and Trypan blue were obtained from Gibco-BRL (Grand Island, NY, USA). MTT (3-(4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide), neutral red, MMS (methyl methanesulfonate), aucubin, baicalein, oleanolic acid, ursolic acid, verbascoside and Cytochalasin-B were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO, USA). Acetic acid, acetonitrile, ethanol, formic acid, methanol and phosphoric acid were purchased from EMD Millipore (Darmstadt, Germany).

2.2. Plant material

The leaves of *P. australis* (Kunth) Rahn were collected in the city of Santa Cruz do Sul, RS, Brazil, in October of 2014, in a delimited area under coordinates 29°41'46.8"S 52°26'27.4"W. The plant was identified by the specialist botanic M.Sc. Gustavo Hassemer (Statens Naturhistoriske Museum, Københavns Universitet, Denmark), and the voucher specimen (ICN: 179648) was deposited in the herbarium of Federal University of Rio Grande do Sul (UFRGS), Brazil. The leaves were dried in a greenhouse (renewal of air) at 40 °C, manually triturated and submitted to a sieve analysis (Bertel, Brazil). Triplicates of PAHE were prepared by two different techniques, percolation and ultrasound.

2.3. Ultrasound-assisted extraction and optimization of process parameters

The ultrasound-assisted extraction (UAE) was performed in an ultrasonic water bath (Unique Group USC 1800, São Paulo, Brazil). The bath consisted of a rectangular container with 37 kHz transducers annealed to the bottom. In experimental runs, 2.5 g of grounded *P. australis* leaves were mixed in 25 mL of a hydroethanolic solution (30% water and 70% ethanol) and sonicated in an ultrasonic bath under different temperature and time parameters, according optimization of process parameters. The extracts were paper-filtered and concentrated by rotary evaporator at low temperature (<40 °C) under vacuum, until dried evaporated the solvent. The mass yields (y%) were also calculated, and the extracts were stored at -20 °C until further use.

The extraction of the verbascoside content by ultrasound was performed by employing various extraction conditions. In this study, a complete full factorial design (2²) with two levels and two factors was applied to determine the best combination of extraction variables. The factors selected include extraction time from 30 and 60 min. and temperature from 25 and 40 °C. All of the extractions variations were performed in triplicate.

A central composite design of response surface methodology (RSM) was used to optimize the verbascoside concentration. The RSM is a collection of statistically based experimental designs that have been established as a convenient method for optimizing several processes (Paz et al., 2015). In this study, RSM was used to optimize the extraction of verbascoside from *P. australis*. Table 1 shows the experimental condition of RSM. All extracts were paper-filtered and concentrated by rotary evaporator at low temperature (<40 °C) under vacuum, until dried evaporated the solvent. The mass yields (y%) were also calculated, and the extracts were stored at -20 °C until further use.

Table 1
RSM employed for the extraction of *P. australis* leaves.

Variables			Levels		
		Code units	-1	0	1
1	Temperature (°C)	X ₁	25	30	35
2	Extraction time (min)	X ₂	45	60	75

2.4. Percolation

One hundred grams of *P. australis* leaves were mixed in 130 mL of a hydroethanolic solution, followed by 2 h of stirring and rest. The material was passed to a percolation system, covered with the hydroethanolic solution and rested for 24 h. After this, the percolation system was opened with a flow of 1.0 mL/min until complete 1 L of percolated solution. The extract was paper-filtered and concentrated by rotary evaporator at low temperature (<40 °C) under vacuum, until dried evaporated the solvent. The mass yields (y%) was also calculated, and the extracts were stored at -20 °C until further use.

2.5. High performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) analysis

The HPLC method was developed in a Shimadzu Prominence (Japan) chromatograph equipped with a quaternary, low-pressure mixing pump and inline vacuum degassing, controlled by a CBM-20A interface module, an automatic injector (SIL-20A) and Diode Array Detector (SPD-M20A). The separation was carried out by a gradient system, using a reverse-phase Phenomenex Luna 5 mm C18(2) (250 x 4.0 mm²) column maintained at 30 °C. All compounds were identified, when present, by comparing the retention times of samples and its authentic standard. The compounds were analyzed qualitatively and whenever possible the quantification was performed and expressed in percentage, correlating the area of the analyte in sample with the area of the authentic standard.

The HPLC conditions to analyze verbascoside were made according Li et al. (2005), with some modifications. The mobile phase consisted of 2% (v/v) acetic acid solution (solvent A) and acetonitrile (solvent B). The composition gradient used was: 2% (B) to 25% (B) in 40 min, 25% (B) to 100% (B) in 5 min, 100% (B) to 2% (B) in 5 min. The injection volume was 10 µL with a flow rate of 1.0 mL/min, and the samples were monitored at 320 nm. Aucubin was analyzed according Kartini et al. (2012). The mobile phase comprised 93% Milli-Q[®] water and 7% acetonitrile, the injection volume was 20 µL with a flow rate of 0.6 mL/min, and the samples were monitored at 204 nm. Baicalein was analyzed allowing a method described by Gao et al. (2008). The mobile phase consisted of methanol (solvent A) and a 0.1% (v/v) formic acid solution (solvent B). The composition gradient was: 55% (B) to 40% (B) in 20 min, 40% (B) to 30% (B) in 20 min, 30% (B) to 55% (B) in 5 min. The injection volume was 10 µL with a flow rate of 0.6 mL/min, and the samples were monitored at 270 nm. Oleanolic and ursolic

acids were analyzed based in Tarvainen et al. (2010). The mobile phase comprised 90% acetonitrile and 10% of a 1% (v/v) phosphoric acid solution, the injection volume was 10 µL with a flow rate of 0.5 mL/min, and the samples were monitored at 206 nm.

2.6. Verbascoside method validation by HPLC

The current HPLC-DAD assay was validated for selectivity, linearity, intraday and inter-day precisions, accuracy and robustness according RE 899/2003 (Brazil, 2003). The selectivity of the HPLC method was examined by peak identification; no interferences appeared at the retention time of verbascoside in the chromatogram from sample solution and standard solution. The linearity was studied in a range of concentrations to 49.6 to 74.4 µg/mL (49.6, 55.8, 62, 68.2 and 74.4 µg/mL) from the verbascoside standard solution (1 mg/mL). Each sample was analyzed in triplicate. The calibration curves were obtained by the analysis of least squares linear regression of the verbascoside peak area vs. the verbascoside concentration. The mean, standard deviation (SD) and coefficient of variation (CV) were calculated for each concentration. Besides, we estimated the values of the slope and intercept, correlation and determination coefficients. The precision of the method was evaluated by repeatability and intermediate precision. Repeatability was examined by six evaluations of the same concentration sample, on the same day (intraday), under the same experimental conditions. The intermediate precision was assessed by carrying out the analysis on different day (inter-day) and also by other analyst performing the analysis in the same laboratory (between-analysts). Accuracy was evaluated by the addition (fortification) of verbascoside in three levels of concentration: low (49,6 µg/ml), medium (62 µg/ml) and high (74,4 µg/ml), in PAHE. Recovery (R%) was calculated according to the following equation: $R\% = (\text{measured concentration} / \text{nominal concentration}) \times 100$.

2.7. *Salmonella*/microsome mutagenicity assay

Salmonella typhimurium strains TA98, TA97a, TA100, TA1535, and TA102 were provided by MOLTOX® (Molecular Toxicology Inc., USA). Mutagenicity was assayed according to the preincubation procedure. The S9 metabolic activation mixture (S9 mix) was prepared according to Maron and Ames (1983). Briefly, 100 µL of test bacterial cultures ($1-2 \times 10^9$ cells/mL) were incubated at 37 °C with different amounts of PAHE and verbascoside in the presence or absence of S9 mix for 20 min, without shaking. Subsequently, 2 mL of soft agar (0.6% agar, 0.5% NaCl, 50 µM histidine, 50

μM biotin, pH 7.4, 42 °C) were added to the test tube and poured immediately onto a plate of minimal agar (1.5% agar, Vogel-Bonner E medium, containing 2% glucose). Aflatoxin B1 (1.0 $\mu\text{g}/\text{plate}$) was used as positive control for both strains in the presence of metabolic activation (with S9 mix). In the absence of metabolic activation, 4-nitroquinoline-oxide (4-NQO, 0.5 $\mu\text{g}/\text{plate}$) was used for TA98, TA97a, and TA102 strains and sodium azide (1 $\mu\text{g}/\text{plate}$) was employed for TA100 and TA1535 strains. Plates were incubated in the dark at 37 °C for 48 h before counting the revertant colonies. Assays were repeated three fold and the plating for each dose was in triplicate.

2.8. Cells culture and treatments

Chinese hamster lung fibroblast V79 cells and *Mus musculus* embryo fibroblast 3T3 cells were obtained from the Rio de Janeiro Cell Bank (Rio de Janeiro, RJ, Brazil). V79 cells were cultured under standard conditions in DMEM supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated FBS, 0.2 mg/mL L-glutamine, 100 IU/mL penicillin and 100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ streptomycin, and 3T3 cells were cultured in the same conditions, but using newborn calf serum. Cells were kept in tissue-culture flasks at 37 °C in a humidified atmosphere containing 5% CO_2 in air and were harvested by treatment with 0.15% trypsin-0.08% EDTA in PBS. For all treatments, water stock solutions of *P. australis* and verbascoside were prepared immediately prior to. The appropriate concentrations were obtained by dilution of stock solutions in distilled water. The solvent control (distilled water) included in the tests were found to be negative.

2.9. MTT assay

The V79 cells were seeded in a 96-well tissue culture microtiter plate ($1 \times 10^5/\text{mL}$) in complete media and grown for 24h prior to treatment with PAHE and verbascoside before evaluation by MTT assay, allowing Huang et al. (2010). Briefly, after treatments, cells were washed with PBS before the addition of 100 μL serum-free media containing yellow tetrazolium salt (1 mg/mL) dye and incubated for 3 h at 37 °C. After incubation, the supernatant was removed, the residual purple formazan product solubilized in 200 μL DMSO and its absorbance measured at 570 nm. The absorbance of negative control cells was set as 100% viability and the values of treated cells were calculated as percentage of control.

2.10. Neutral red uptake assay

To the neutral red uptake (NRU) assay, V79 cells were seeded in a 96-well tissue culture microtiter plate (1.3×10^5 /mL) in complete media and grown for 24 h prior to treatment with PAHE and verbascoside before evaluation, according Borenfreund and Puerner (1985), with some modifications. Briefly, after treatment, cells were washed with 250 μ l of PBS before the addition of 250 μ l of neutral red dye (25 μ g/ml) dissolved in serum-free media and incubated for 3 h at 37 °C in a humidified 5% CO₂ incubator. Cells were washed with PBS, and 125 μ l of a desorb solution (ethanol:acetic acid:water, 50:1:49) was added followed by gentle shaking for 30 min for complete dissolution. Absorbance was recorded at 540 nm using a microtiter plate reader. Cell viability was expressed as a percentage of the control.

2.11. Alkaline comet assay

The alkaline comet assay was performed as previously described by Singh et al. (1988), with minor modifications. Briefly, 60 μ L of V79 cell suspension (1×10^4) treated with PAHE or verbascoside were mixed with 180 μ L low-melting point agarose, spread on two normal agarose precoated microscope slide, and placed at 4°C for 10 min to allow for solidification. Cells were lysed in high concentration of salt and detergent solution (2.5 M NaCl, 100 mM Na₂EDTA, 10 mM Tris with 1% Triton X-100 and 10% DMSO freshly added) for 24 h. Slides were removed from lysing solution and washed three times with PBS. Subsequently, cells were exposed to alkali conditions (300 mM NaOH/1 mM Na₂EDTA, pH>13, 15 min, 4 °C) to allow DNA unwinding and expression of alkali-labile sites. Electrophoresis was conducted for 20 min at 25 V and 300 mA, and after this, the slides were neutralized and silver stained. MMS, at 50 μ g/mL concentration, was used as positive control, and the vehicle as negative control. One hundred cells were scored visually according to the tail length and the amount of DNA present in the tail. Each comet was given an arbitrary value of 0 to 4 (0, undamaged; 4, maximally damaged), as described by Collins et al. (1995). Damage score was thus assigned to each sample and can range from 0 (completely undamaged: 100 cells $\times$ 0) to 400 (with maximum damage: 100 cells $\times$ 4).

2.12. Phototoxicity assay

The *in vitro* 3T3 NRU phototoxicity test was carried out as described by the OECD guideline 432 (2004). Briefly, 96-well plates were seeded with 1×10^5 cells/mL 3T3 cells, and subsequently incubated at 37 °C in a humidified 5% CO₂ incubator for 48 h. After this, the media was removed and the cells were washed with PBS and exposed to various concentrations of verbascoside for 1 h. Following incubation for 24 h in a CO₂ incubator at 37°C, duplicate plates were either exposed to UVA/visible light at 5 J/cm² in a UV instrument (Vilber-Lourmat, Eberhardzell, Germany) or kept in the dark for 50 min. Following irradiation, the media were discarded from all the plates and the cells were washed with culture medium. The cells were then reincubated in culture medium overnight. On day 3, the medium was removed and the cells were washed with PBS and added to 150 µL of neutral red medium (100 µg/ml, serum-free). Samples were then incubated for 3 h in a CO₂ incubator at 37°C, and subsequently 100 µL of desorb solution (ethanol:acetic acid:water, 50:1:49) was added to the plates. Absorbance was recorded at 540 nm using a microtiter plate reader. Cell viability was expressed as a percentage of the control. Norfloxacin, at 120 µg/mL concentration, was used as positive control, and the own media as negative control.

2.13. Statistical analysis

Complete factorial design and RSM were analyzed by ANOVA, according Teófilo and Ferreira (2006). All *in vitro* experiments were independently repeated at least threefold, with triplicate samples for each treatment, and results are expressed as mean $\pm$ SD and statistical significance was determined by One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) followed by Dunnett's test or Tukey's test using statistical software GraphPad Prism®, version 5 (La Jolla, CA, USA). In all comparisons, $p < 0.05$ was considered as indicating statistical significance. A test substance was considered mutagenic from the *Salmonella*/microsome assay when significant ANOVA variance was observed, and the mean number of revertants on test plates was at least twice as high as that observed in the negative control plates (or at least three times higher, for the TA1535 strain).

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Plant extraction, optimization and validation of the analytical method

Two different methods of plant extraction were used in this study, and their yields and verbascoside concentration are presented in Table 2. As results, the UAE

method provided the highest verbascoside concentration and the percolation the highest y%.

Table 2

Yields of the different techniques of *P. australis* leaves extraction.

Extraction technique	y%	Verbascoside concentration (%)
Percolation	10,43	5,5411 ± 0,1409
UAE – PAHE*	9,92	6,2604 ± 0,0185**

*PAHE - ultrasonic bath at 37 kHz for 40 min at 25 °C. **Results repeatability.

In this study, we investigated the presence of aucubin, baicalein, oleanolic acid, ursolic acid and verbascoside in percolation extract and ultrasound-assisted extract. Only verbascoside was present in extracts. The chromatograms of *P. australis* extracts and verbascoside standard are presented in Fig. 1.

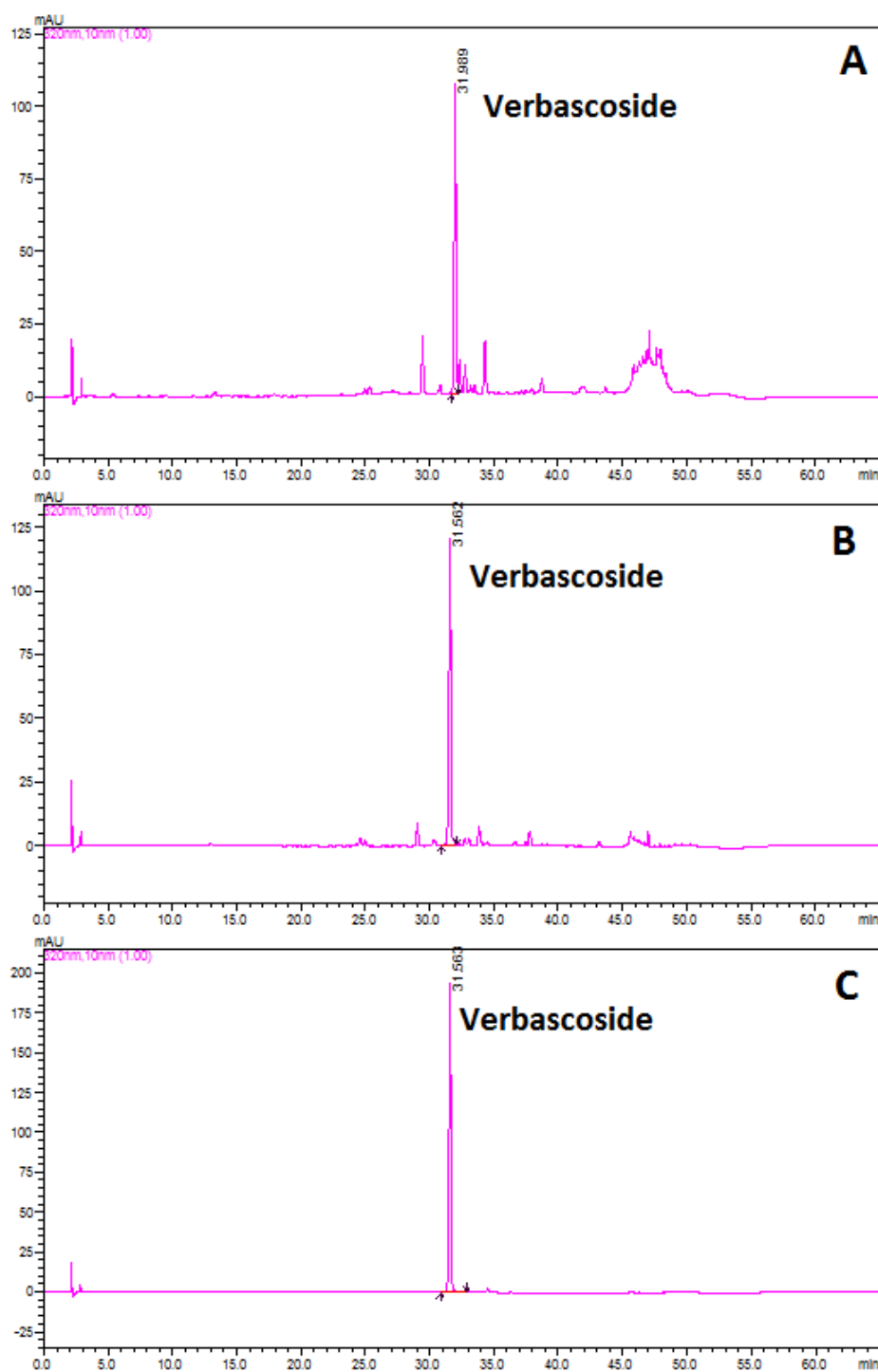


Fig. 1. Chromatograms of percolation extract (A), ultrasound-assisted extraction (B) and standard verbascoside (C).

In 2^2 full factorial design, attention was specifically focused on the two selected factors, according to the list presented above in Table 3, with two values for each factor. This experimental program provides the opportunity to analyze the influence of a pertinent selection of experimental parameters on a verbascoside concentration. In this

modeling procedure, it was chosen for simplicity to represent the influence of each factor through a linear variation. By analyzing the results quantitatively, it results from this assumption, the correlation between the verbascoside concentration and the two selected factors (X_1, X_2) can be represented by the following polynomial model:

$$Y = 3,522 + 0,1312 X_1 - 0,776 X_2 + 0,331 X_1 X_2 + 0,054197.$$

Table 3

Experiment matrix of 2^2 full factorial design and respective responses.

Experiment	Independent variables		Symbol code		Verbascoside concentration (%) (mean $\pm$ SD)
	Extraction Time (min)	Temperature ($^{\circ}$ C)	X_1	X_2	
1	30	40	-1	1	2,903 $\pm$ 0,063
2	60	40	1	1	3,365 $\pm$ 0,030
3	30	25	-1	-1	4,010 $\pm$ 0,165
4	60	25	1	-1	3,810 $\pm$ 0,055

The sign of each coefficient shows how the related factor influences the response. If the coefficient is positive, the response is increased (synergistic effect) as the factor moves from low level to high level; the contrary is obtained (inverse relationship/antagonist effect) if the coefficient is negative (Deshmukh, 2013). Thereafter, the optimum variable values were identified as 60 min and 25 $^{\circ}$ C and these conditions were applied to the RSM process.

The RSM was used to optimize the effect of process variables (time and temperature) on extraction procedure. The influence of selected parameters was evaluated by a central composite design, where time was modulated from 60 to 45 and 75 min, and temperature was modified from 25 to 30 and 35 $^{\circ}$ C. Results from this modulation are described in Table 4.

Table 4

Experiment matrix of RSM design – modulation step and respective responses.

Experiments	Variables		Symbol code		Verbascoside concentration (%) (mean $\pm$ SD)
	Time (min)	Temperature ($^{\circ}$ C)	Time	Temperature	
1	45	25	-1	-1	4,714 $\pm$ 0,148
2	75	25	1	-1	4,176 $\pm$ 0,160
3	45	35	-1	1	3,944 $\pm$ 0,147
4	75	35	1	1	3,107 $\pm$ 0,068
5	60	30	0	0	4,323 $\pm$ 0,106
6	60	30	0	0	4,400 $\pm$ 0,162
7	60	30	0	0	4,516 $\pm$ 0,048

The first step of RSM design revealed that the response variable, which presented the highest verbascoside concentration (4.714 %), was observed in 45 min and 25 °C. Therefore, in the displacement step of RSM design, temperature parameter was fixed at 25 °C and time parameter was moved to 40 and 50 min. The results are outlined in Table 5.

Table 5

Experiment matrix of RSM design – displacement step and respective responses.

Experiments	Variables		
	Time (min)	Temperature (°C)	Verbascode concentration (%) (mean $\pm$ SD)
1	40	25	6,079 $\pm$ 0,09
2	40	25	6,169 $\pm$ 0,209
3	40	25	6,040 $\pm$ 0,021
4	50	25	4,491 $\pm$ 0,09
5	50	25	4,822 $\pm$ 0,160
6	50	25	5,697 $\pm$ 0,255

Based on these results, the optimal extraction point of verbascoside was estimated in 40 min and at 25 °C. After this, a *P. australis* hydroethanolic extract (PAHE) was prepared using 395.0 g of leaves and 3950 mL of hydroethanolic solution (30% water and 70% ethanol) and sonicated in an ultrasonic bath at 37 kHz for 40 min at 25 °C. The extract was paper-filtered and concentrated by rotary evaporator at low temperature (<40 °C) under vacuum, until dried evaporated the solvent. The mass yield (y%) was calculated and the extract was stored at -20 °C until further use. The PAHE was used in the validation of method.

To evaluate the selectivity, the retention times of the verbascoside in the chromatograms of the standard and samples solutions and the respective UV–PDA spectra were compared. Similarities in retention times and the same UV absorption profile were observed in the chromatograms of the standard and sample solutions. The purity of verbascoside peak constituent was checked by a diode array detector coupled to the HPLC system, comparing the UV spectra of verbascoside peak with those of the authentic sample. So, the proposed chromatographic method has adequate selectivity for verbascoside analysis in PAHE.

The precision of the method was obtained at two levels: in the first, repeatability assay was carried to evaluate the concordance between the results within a short period

of time with the same analyst and the same instrumentation. The second level, which comprises the intermediate precision, analyzes the correlation between the results obtained in different days with different analysts. The results of these tests are shown in Table 6.

Table 6

Results of the precision tests for determination of verbascoside in PAHE.

Test	Verbascoside concentration (%)			Mean $\pm$ SD (%CV)
Repeatability	6,2600 6,2880	6,2328 6,2782	6,2569 6,2463	6,2604 $\pm$ 0,0185 (0,2952)
Intermediate precision (analyst 2)	6,2593 6,2425	6,2512 6,2353	6,2659 6,2011	6,2426 $\pm$ 0,0231 (0,3702)

Linearity was evaluated on a calibration curve constructed with methanol standard solutions of verbascoside in the range of 50.0–80.0 $\mu\text{g/mL}$. A linear model was adjusted to the experimental data of the calibration (peak area and concentration) by applying the linear regression technique and a lack of fit test at 95% confidence (Table 7). Results demonstrated that the linear model is appropriate to establish the relationship between the area and the concentration. The recuperation (R) values for the three levels of fortification of verbascoside were in the extract of *P. australis* were 92.15% (low), 96.78% (medium) and 97.04% (high).

Table 7

Linear regression analysis of calibration curves (n=2).

Analyte	Linearity range ($\mu\text{g/mL}$)	Regression equation	Correlation coefficient (r^2)
Verbascoside	50 - 80	$y = 24713x + 175618$	0,9952

3.2 *In vitro* assays

To determine the safety of medicines, systematic toxicological studies must be performed using experimental models to predict toxicity and to set criteria for selecting a safe dose in humans. Despite the popular use of *P. australis* in traditional medicine as anti-inflammatory and wound healing, little information on *P. australis* toxicity is available. In this sense in this work, the hydroethanolic extract of *P. australis*

standardized in its analytical marker verbascoside, were tested to determine the toxicological safety *in vitro* models.

The PAHE was tested for TA100 strain toxicity at concentrations of 100–5,000 µg/plate in Salmonella/microsome assay. The test-substance was considered toxic if the mutagenic index (colony counts on the test plate/average counts on the negative control plates; MI) value was lower than 0.60 in at least two of the tested concentrations. The results of the range-finder experiment were used to define the dose range to be applied in the mutagenicity test, which concentration range should be the highest allowed by the toxicity or the solubility of the test substance. The range finding results indicate no cytotoxicity in tested concentrations. No PAHE mutagenicity effect was detected, even at the highest concentration, on TA97a (detects frameshift mutation in DNA target –C–C–C–C–C–; +1 cytosine), TA98 (detects frameshift mutation in DNA target –C–G–C–G–C–G–), TA100 and TA1535 (base-pair substitution mutation results from the substitution of a leucine [GAG] by a proline [GGG]) or TA102 (detect oxidative and alkylating mutagens by an ochre mutation TAA in the hisG gene), in the absence or presence of metabolic activation (Table 6). The verbascoside also be tested using TA100 at concentration of 10-500 µg/plate in microsome assay and in the same way no verbascoside mutagenicity was observed in TA98 and TA100 strains (Table 7). The results on the mutagenic potential of verbascoside are conflicting. Santos-Cruz et al. (2012) showed absence of mutagenic effect of verbascoside using the *Drosophila* wing spot test. On the other hand, Santoro et al. (2008) indicates that verbascoside induces a significant increase of structural chromosome aberrations (CAs) and sister chromatid exchanges (SCEs) on normal human lymphocytes associated with a reduction of the MI, besides, these authors observed enhanced protein expression levels of PARP-1 and p53 that are key regulatory proteins involved in cell proliferation and DNA repair.

Table 8.Induction of *his+* revertants in *S. typhimurium* strains by *Plantago australis* hydroethanolic extract (PAHE) with and without metabolic activation (S9 mix).

<i>S. typhimurium</i> strains											
Substance	Concentration (µg/plate)	TA98		TA97a		TA100		TA1535		TA102	
		Rev/plate ^a	MI ^b	Rev/plate ^a	MI ^b	Rev/plate ^a	MI ^b	Rev/plate ^a	MI ^b	Rev/plate ^a	MI ^b
Without metabolic activation (-S9)											
NC ^c	-	22.7±0.6	-	95.0±11.8	-	114.3±12.1	-	8.3±2.5	-	445.3±52.5	-
PAHE	100	24.3±5.5	1.07	91.3±14.2	0.96	89.7±15.1	0.78	12.3±1.5	1.48	429.7±28.4	0.96
	500	24.0±2.6	1.06	85.7±16.0	0.90	112.0±9.6	0.98	11.7±4.0	1.40	486.3±45.0	1.09
	1000	32.7±7.1	1.44	69.7±18.2	0.73	116.0±11.8	1.01	14.0±3.6	1.68	470.0±48.0	1.06
	2000	28.7±5.5	1.26	73.3±9.8	0.77	110.7±10.2	0.97	12.0±3.0	1.44	569.0±26.2*	1.28
	5000	50.3±11.5***	2.22	106.3±19.2	1.12	142.0±3.5*	1.24	11.3±0.6	1.36	727.3±55.7***	1.63
PC ^d	0.5 (4NQO) 1 (NaN ₃)	370.0±28.3***	16.32	521.0±36.8***	5.48	2658.0±681.7***	23.25	540.0±46.6***	64.83	4832.0±616.6***	10.85
With metabolic activation (+S9)											
NC ^c	-	31.7±2.9	-	125.3±25.2	-	143.3±17.8	-	11.7±2.3		429.7±28.5	-
PAHE	100	40.7±5.5	1.28	125.0±13.0	1.00	158.0±13.1	1.10	7.7±3.5	0.66	473.3±77.5	1.10
	500	31.3±5.7	0.99	114.0±4.4	0.91	166.0±2.6	1.16	8.7±3.8	0.74	433.0±21.0	1.01
	1000	32.0±2.6	1.01	109.0±13.8	0.87	159.3±9.0	1.11	13.7±3.1	1.17	459.7±9.1	1.07
	2000	33.7±7.6	1.06	115.7±2.1	0.92	169.7±5.9*	1.18	12.0±4.4	1.03	423.0±37.7	0.98
	5000	35.7±3.2	1.13	103.0±10.8	0.82	174.0±6.2*	1.21	12.0±4.6	1.03	414.3±50.8	0.96
PC ^d	1 (AFB ₁)	715.0±63.6***	22.58	706.0±99.0***	5.63	400.5±27.6***	2.79	119.0±18.5***	10.20	1598.0±19.8***	3.72

^aNumber of revertants/plate: mean of three independent experiments ± SD; ^bMI: mutagenic index (n°. of *his+* induced in the sample/n°. of spontaneous *his+* in the negative control); ^cNC: negative control (phosphate buffer pH 7.4 used as a solvent for the extract). ^dPC: positive control (-S9) sodium azide to TA100 and TA1535; 4-NQO to TA97a, TA98 and TA102; (+S9) aflatoxin B₁; Significantly different in relation to the negative control. * $p < 0.05$; *** $p < 0.001$ (ANOVA, Dunnett's test).

Table 9.

Induction of *his*⁺ revertants in *S. typhimurium* TA98 and TA100 strains by verbascoside with and without metabolic activation.

Substance	Concentration (µg/plate)	TA98		TA100	
<i>Without metabolic activation (S9)</i>		Rev/plate ^a	MI ^b	Rev/plate ^a	MI ^b
NC ^c	-	24.3±1.2	-	128.3±17.0	-
Verbascoside	10	28.0±7.9	1.15	127.0±7.0	0.99
	25	27.7±6.0	1.14	120.3±7.1	0.94
	50	26.0±3.0	1.10	141.0±12.1	1.10
	100	35.7±6.5	1.47	128.0±14.0	1.00
	500	38.3±7.1*	1.58	154.3±6.5	1.20
4NQO ^d	0.5	165.0±27.7***	6.78	-	-
NaN ₃ ^e	1	-		1460.0±50.9***	11.38
<i>With metabolic activation (S9)</i>		Rev/plate	MI	Rev/plate	MI
NC	-	41.0±10.4	-	140.3±17.0	-
Verbascoside	10	38.3±6.4	0.93	131.0±13.9	0.93
	25	38.3±7.5	0.93	144.0±23.1	1.03
	50	43.0±2.0	1.05	158.3±10.3	1.13
	100	41.3±7.1	1.01	152.0±32.4	1.08
	500	34.7±3.2	0.85	155.0±14.7	1.10
AFB-1 ^f	1	296.0±40.5***	7.22	910.0±183.8***	6.49

^aNumber of revertants/plate; mean ± SD; ^bMI: mutagenic index (n°. of *his*⁺ induced in the sample/n°. of spontaneous *his*⁺ in the negative control); ^c Negative control (phosphate buffer pH 7.4 used as solvent of the verbascoside); ^d 4-nitroquinoline oxide used as positive control (without S9mix) to TA98; ^esodium azide used as positive control (without S9mix) to TA100; ^faflatoxin B₁ used as positive control (with S9mix) to TA98 and TA100. Significantly different in relation to the NC. ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$ (ANOVA, Dunnett's test).

The MTT and NRU assays were used in order to obtain information on PAHE and verbascoside in V79 cells. The results are showed in Fig. 3. The PAHE induces a significant cytotoxicity in concentrations up to 1000 µg/mL in both assays. After verbascoside treatment there is a cytotoxic effect at 50µg/mL and higher by NRU assay. MTT reduction assesses the functional integrity of mitochondria based on the enzymatic reduction of a tetrazolium salt by the mitochondrial dehydrogenase of viable cells. NRU is based on accumulation of the dye in the lysosome of viable cells. The use of different tests confirms the PAHE and verbascoside induces cytotoxic effects only at higher tested concentrations. Previously, was determined the effect of oral administration of crude aqueous extract of the leaves from *P. australis* on some biochemical, hematological and histopathological parameters in rats and the authors did not show significant changes in relation to control animals (Palmeiro et al., 2003).

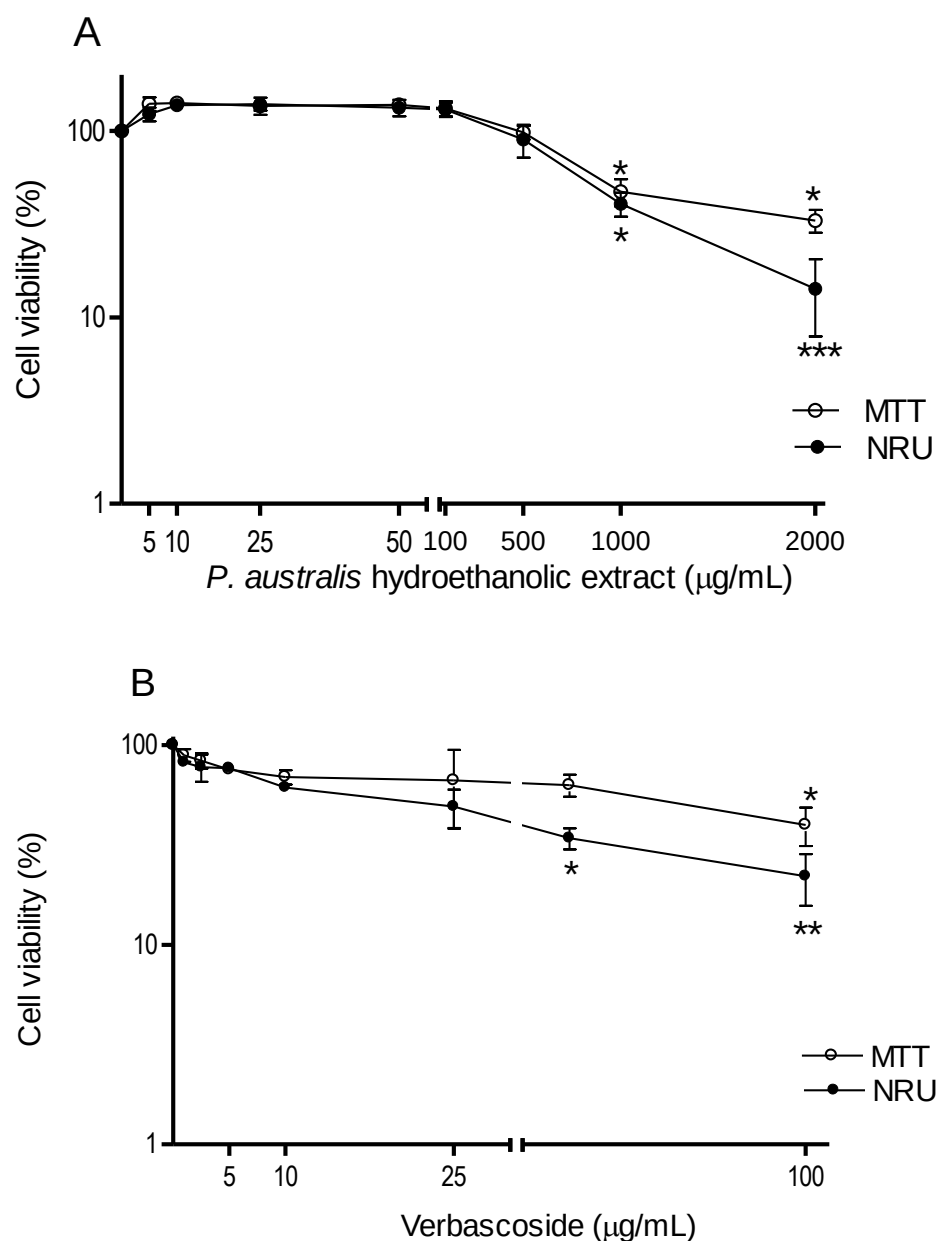


Fig. 3. Sensitivities of V79 cells to PAHE (A) and verbascoside (B). Cells were exposed to treatments for 24 h and cell viability was assessed by MTT and NRU assays right after the treatment. Results are expressed as percentage of control group growth for each data point and represent the mean ($\pm$ SE) of three independent experiments. * $p \leq 0.05$; ** $p \leq 0.01$. *** $p \leq 0.001$ (ANOVA Tukey's test).

To increase the knowledge about genotoxicity safe we also evaluated the induction of DNA single- and double-strand breaks and alkali-labile sites in the V79 mammalian cells using alkaline comet assay. Our results showed that PAHE and verbascoside does not generate DNA-strand breaks at tested concentrations (Fig. 4). The comet assay has achieved the status of a standard test in the battery of tests used to

assess the genotoxic safety of novel drugs (Hartmann et al., 2003; Collins, 2004). The results presented here indicate that the PAHE and verbascoside are not genotoxic by comet assay. These results are in accordance with Ames test presented before.

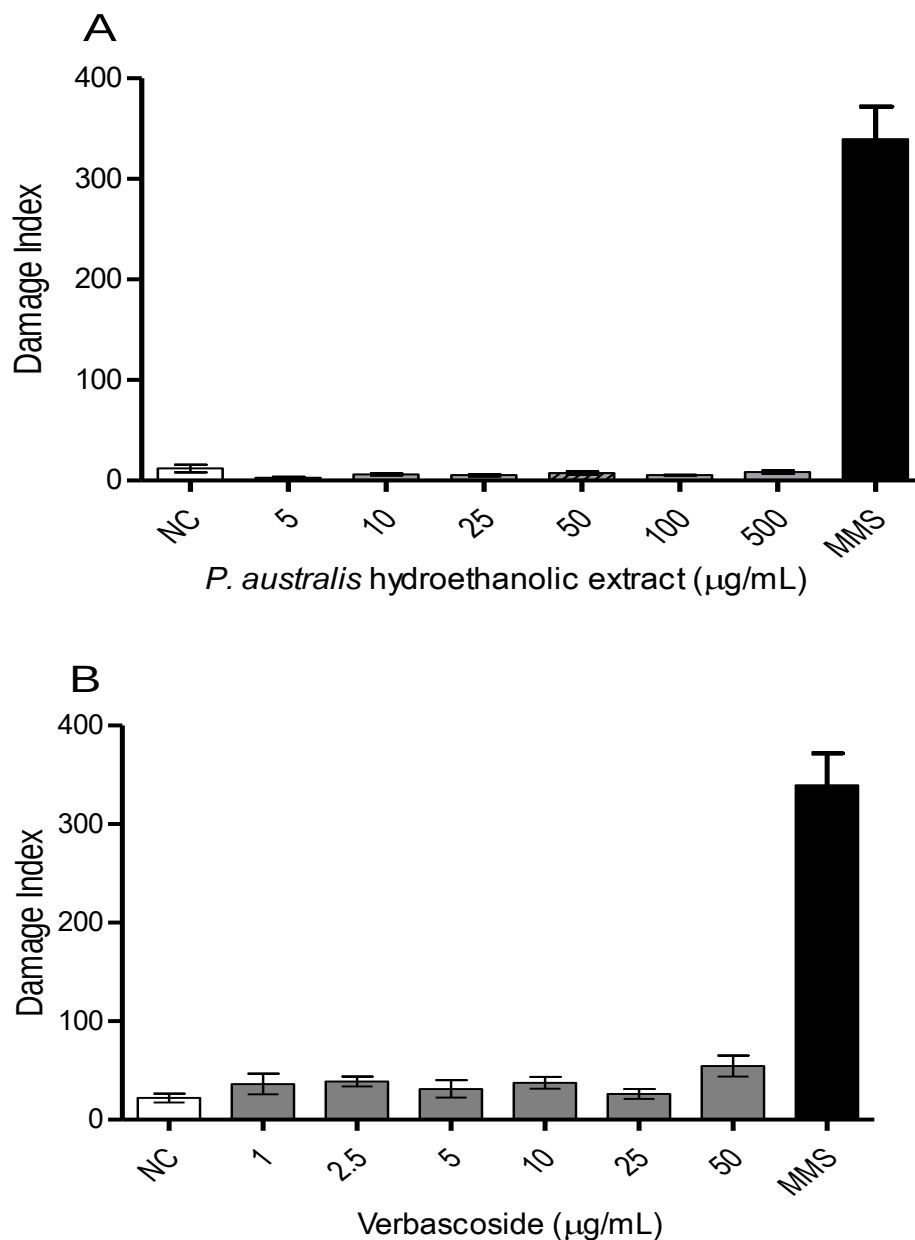


Fig. 4. Induction of DNA damage (relative tail intensity) measured with the alkaline comet assay in V79 cells treated for 24 h with PAHE (**A**) and verbascoside (**B**). **NC** = control group; **MMS** = positive control group. Results are expressed as damage index of control group damage for each data point and represent the mean ($\pm$ SE) of three independent experiments (ANOVA Tukey's test).

In view of verbascoside potential use in cosmetics as active ingredient in solution or in dermocosmetic preparations, by presenting properties such as skin repair

promotes and ameliorates skin inflammation due to its ROS scavenging, antioxidant, iron chelating and anti-inflammatory activity (Kostyuka et al., 2011; Speranza et al., 2010; Espozito et al., 2010), we decided evaluated its phototoxicity properties. 3T3 NRU phototoxicity was tested *in vitro* according to the OECD 432 guideline. For the assay, norfloxacin was selected as a positive control, as the OECD guideline suggests that this drug exhibits phototoxicity by UV irradiation in 3T3 cells. The phototoxicity factor (PIF) of norfloxacin was 19.1, confirming the phototoxicity rate (data not shown). Various concentrations of verbascoside were tested and as shown in Fig. 5, no difference in cell cytotoxicity profile was observed with and without UV, suggesting that verbascoside did not induce phototoxicity in this *in vitro* 3T3 NRU phototoxicity test.

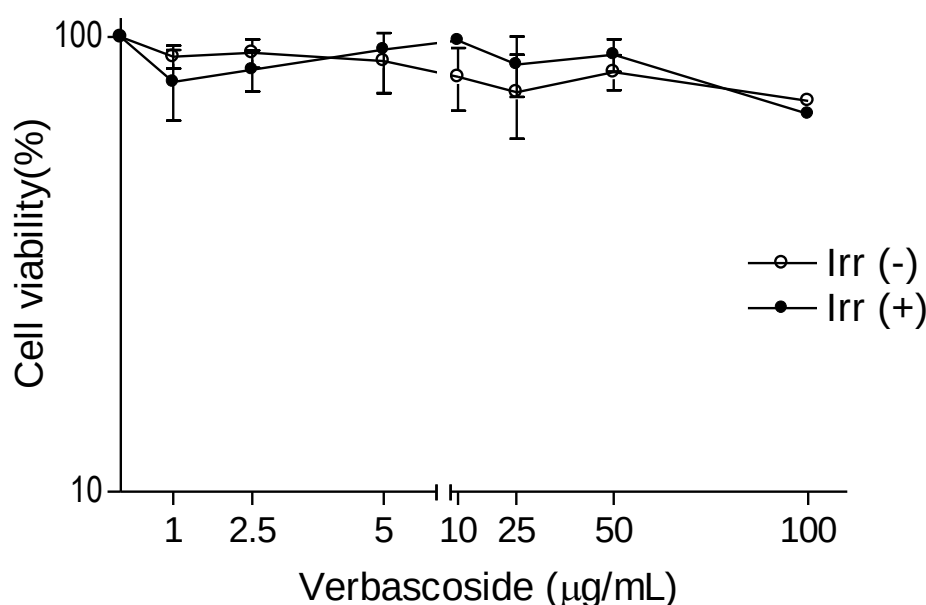


Fig. 5. Phototoxicity data for verbascoside in the 3T3 NRU phototoxicity assay. 3T3 cells were treated for 1 h with different concentrations of verbascoside and irradiated with UVA (5 J/cm²). **Irr (-)** = response in the 3T3-NRU assay in the absence of UVA irradiation; **Irr (+)** = response in the 3T3-NRU assay in the presence of UVA irradiation. Results are expressed as percentage of control group growth for each data point and represent the mean ($\pm$ SE) of three independent experiments (ANOVA Tukey's test).

4. Conclusion

The extraction of verbascoside from *P. australis* leaves through ultrasound methods was optimized. The HPLC method to quantify verbascoside was validated. Our *in vitro* assays demonstrated that PAHE does not exert mutagenic and genotoxic effects

in all tested concentrations, and its cytotoxicity was observed only in higher concentrations, suggesting *P. australis* as a safe plant to be used as an herbal remedy. Our analytical marker, verbascoside, showed similar effects in the mutagenic, genotoxic and cytotoxic assays. Additionally, we demonstrated that verbascoside has no phototoxic effects, making this compound a potential candidate to active ingredient in skin formulations, corroborating its anti-inflammatory and healing activity.

Conflict of Interest

The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest.

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5. Considerações finais

Tendo em vista a ampla utilização de plantas medicinais pela população, muitas vezes sem levar em consideração os potenciais riscos toxicológicos que norteiam este conhecimento empírico, faz-se plausível a padronização e investigação das características fitoquímicas, biológicas e toxicológicas destes preparados vegetais.

A presente dissertação, intitulada “Desenvolvimento de um extrato hidroetanólico das folhas de *Plantago australis* (Kunth) Rahn padronizado em verbascosídeo e determinação de sua segurança toxicológica”, teve por objetivo desenvolver, otimizar e padronizar um extrato hidroetanólico das folhas de *P. australis* mediante um marcador, o verbascosídeo, utilizando-se de modelos matemáticos atrelados a análises fitoquímicas por HPLC. Uma vez elaborado o extrato, ele e seu marcador verbascosídeo foram submetidos a uma bateria de ensaios *in vitro* para determinação da segurança toxicológica.

Ao final do trabalho, considerou-se que os objetivos foram adequadamente atingidos, constituindo um importante passo para a realização de teste adicionais *in vitro* e *in vivo* com o intuito de corroborar o uso de ambos, seja na forma empírica ou como possível matéria-prima para a indústria farmacêutica.

6. Conclusão

Esse trabalho confirma a difundida utilização de espécies da família Plantaginaceae na medicina caseira, embora os relatos sobre *P. australis* serem mais escassos, bem como descreve inúmeros compostos encontrados nessas plantas, muitos deles com atividade farmacológica documentada. Dessa forma, os resultados obtidos no presente estudo permitiram demonstrar que:

- O método de extração que apresentou o maior rendimento em massa foi a percolação e o método que apresentou maior rendimento em verbascosídeo foi o ultrassom.
- Análises preliminares por CLAE dos extratos produzidos por percolação e ultrassom permitiram identificar o verbascosídeo em ambos os extratos.
- A otimização do processo de extração de verbascosídeo por ultrassom revelou que o ponto ótimo de extração foi em 40 min e a temperatura de 25 °C.
- Um extrato etanólico, a 70%, foi desenvolvido, utilizando os parâmetros do processo de otimização da extração, sendo ao final padronizado em 6% de verbascosídeo.
- A validação do método de quantificação do verbascosídeo por CLAE foi bem sucedida, com resultados de seletividade, precisão, linearidade e exatidão significativos, garantindo a correta quantificação do verbascosídeo no extrato.

Além disso, a segurança toxicológica *in vitro* do extrato hidroetanólico das folhas de *P. australis* e do seu marcador verbascosídeo, foi verificada e demonstrou resultados satisfatórios:

- Ambos não apresentaram atividade mutagênica no teste de *Salmonella*/microsoma.
- Tanto o extrato quanto o verbascosídeo não apresentaram citotoxicidade em baixas concentrações quando testados em células V79 mediante dois diferentes métodos colorimétricos, o MTT e o NRU, cujos resultados foram similares. Concentrações maiores de ambos demonstraram-se citotóxicas.
- Não foi verificada indução significativa de dano ao DNA pelo extrato e pelo verbascosídeo na versão alcalina do ensaio cometa em células V79.
- O verbascosídeo não apresentou fototoxicidade quando testado em células 3T3, indicando seu potencial uso em formulações dérmicas com ação cicatrizante e anti-inflamatória.

7. Perspectivas

O conjunto de dados obtidos nesse trabalho possibilitou padronizar um extrato etanólico das folhas de *P. australis*, bem como validar a metodologia para a quantificação do verbascosídeo. Da mesma forma, foi possível realizar e determinar a segurança toxicológica do extrato e do seu marcador mediante ensaios *in vitro* de mutagenicidade, citotoxicidade, genotoxicidade e fototoxicidade. Desta forma, as perspectivas de continuidade do presente estudo incluem:

- a) Avaliar a genotoxicidade do verbascosídeo por meio do ensaio *in vitro* de formação de micronúcleos.
- b) Realizar ensaio *in vitro* para a avaliação da fototoxicidade do extrato hidroetanólico de *P. australis*.
- c) Avaliar a mutagenicidade do extrato hidroetanólico de *P. australis* e do verbascosídeo por meio do teste *in vitro* de mutação gênica em células de linfoma de camundongos.
- d) Realizar ensaios de toxicidade aguda, subcrônica e de segurança toxicológica em ratos *Wistar*.
- e) Elaborar uma formulação fitoterápica utilizando o extrato hidroetanólico de *P. australis*.

8. Anexos

8.1. Ensaio de genotoxicidade do extrato hidroetanólico de *P. australis* pelo teste de formação de MN em células V79

Dando continuidade aos ensaios de segurança toxicológica do extrato hidroetanólico de *P. australis* e de seu marcador analítico, verbascosídeo, foi verificado o potencial mutagênico do extrato pelo ensaio de formação de MN em células V79. Brevemente, as células V79 foram tratadas com diferentes concentrações do extrato, mantidas em meio completo e incubadas por 24 h sob condições normais. Após, as mesmas foram lavadas com o próprio meio e foi adicionada a citocalasina-B, mantendo-as em cultivo por mais 21 h. em seguida, as células foram tripsinizadas e a suspensão celular foi centrifugada, ressuspendida em tratamento hipotônico com 0,075 M KCl e mantida a 4 °C por 3 min. As células foram então centrifugadas fixadas em lâminas de microscopia com uma solução de metanol:ácido acético (3:1). As lâminas foram coradas com uma solução de Giemsa 10% por 3 a 4 min. O controle positivo do teste foi o metilmetanosulfonato (MMS), e os micronúcleos foram contados em 1000 células binucleadas por tratamento, conforme Fenech (2000).

A frequência de MN encontrada nas concentrações mais altas do extrato foi em torno de duas vezes maior que o controle negativo do teste, com significância estatística (Figura 9), sugerindo uma possível mutagenicidade do extrato em concentrações elevadas, embora o mesmo não tenha sido visualizado no teste *Salmonella*/microsossoma e no ensaio cometa.

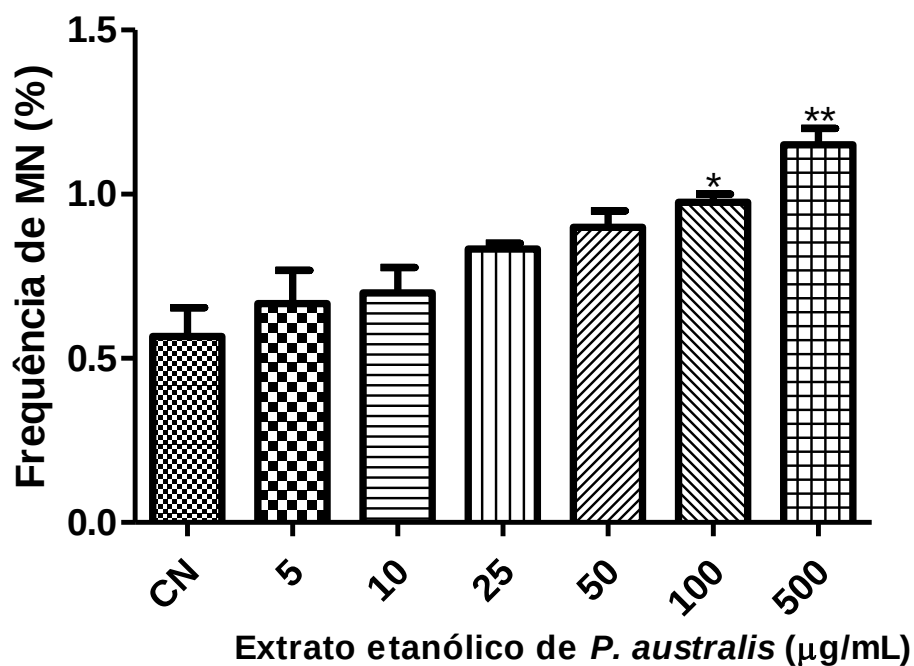


Figura 9. Frequência de micronúcleo (MN) em células V79 tratadas por 24 h com diferentes concentrações do extrato hidroetanólico de *P. australis*. **CN** = grupo controle negativo. Os resultados estão expresso em frequência de MN (%) em comparação ao CN, e cada barra representa a média ($\pm$ DP) de três experimento independentes realizados em triplicata. (* $p \geq 0,05$; ** $p \geq 0,01$).

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