



UNIVERSIDADE
ESTADUAL de LONDRINA

SANDRA SATIE MIZOKAMI

**ÁCIDO CAURENÓICO DA *SPHAGNETICOLA TRILOBATA*
(L.) PRUSKI INIBE A DOR INFLAMATÓRIA:
EFEITO NA PRODUÇÃO DE CITOCINAS E ATIVAÇÃO DA
VIA NO/GMPc/PKG/K+ATP**

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Orientador: Prof. Dr. Waldiceu Aparecido Verri Junior.

Londrina
2012

**Catálogo elaborado pela Divisão de Processos Técnicos da Biblioteca Central da
Universidade Estadual de Londrina**

Dados Internacionais de Catalogação-na-Publicação (CIP)

M685a Mizokami, Sandra Satie.

Ácido caurenóico da *Sphagneticola trilobata* (L.) Pruski inibe a dor
inflamatória: efeito na produção de citocinas e ativação da via
NO/GMPc/PKG/K+ATP / Sandra Satie Mizokami. – Londrina, 2012.
81 f.: il.

Orientador: Waldiceu Aparecido Verri Junior.

Dissertação (Mestrado em Patologia Experimental) – Universidade Estadual de
Londrina, Centro de Ciências Biológicas, Programa de Pós-Graduação em Patologia
Experimental, 2012.

Inclui bibliografia.

1. Dor – Tratamento – Teses. 2. Inflamação – Teses. 3. Diterpenos – Uso
Terapêutico – Teses. 4. Citocinas – Teses. 5. Óxido nítrico – Teses. 6. Rato como
animal de laboratório – Teses. I. Verri Junior, Waldiceu Aparecido. II.
Universidade Estadual de Londrina. Centro de Ciências Biológicas. Programa de
Pós-Graduação em Patologia Experimental. III. Título.

CDU 616.8-009.7

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Londrina, 19 de março de 2012.

*Dedico este trabalho aos meus pais,
Francisco e Eunice, que estão sempre ao meu
lado me apoiando em tudo que faço e a
minha querida irmã Miriam.*

AGRADECIMENTOS

Agradeço a Deus, pelas graças concedidas, me acompanhando nos momentos felizes e alegres, tristes e difíceis de minha vida.

Agradeço aos meus pais que não mediram esforços para me educar e proporcionar o melhor para a minha formação, não só acadêmica, mas como pessoa. Em especial à minha mãe, fonte de minha admiração e exemplo de garra, determinação e sucesso, que me ensinou a nunca desanimar e desistir, mesmo frente às adversidades e tropeços da vida.

À minha irmã, que é uma amiga e confidente. Presente em todos os momentos da minha vida, me aconselhando e me ajudando a seguir em frente.

Ao Prof. Dr. Waldiceu Aparecido Verri Júnior, por me aceitar em seu laboratório e proporcionar a satisfação de participar da sua equipe de pesquisa. Agradeço pelos ensinamentos, pela paciência e atenção. Mais que um orientador o senhor é um sinônimo de admirável dedicação e inteligência. Muito obrigada!

Aos professores do programa de mestrado em Patologia Experimental, que foram fundamentais para minha formação.

Aos técnicos Zui e Pedro, pela grande ajuda fornecida, pelos reagentes emprestados e pesados, as cantorias e piadas, pelas técnicas ensinadas e pelos 'puxões de orelha' em relação à limpeza do biotério.

Aos colegas de laboratório: Ana Carla, Bárbara, Carla, Cássia, Felipe, Gabriela, Giovana, Jean, Karla, Kenji, Larissa, Mab, Miriam, Nayara, Paula, Renata, Renato, Suelen, Sérgio, Talita, Thacy e Victor. Obrigada pela disposição em me ajudar, pela amizade, pelos momentos de descontração, pelos conselhos, pelas caminhadas para aliviar o estresse e o cansaço. Em especial a Ana Carla, Cássia e Larissa, pela paciência em ensinar as técnicas e a ajudar com os experimentos, na interpretação dos resultados, nas montagens dos gráficos e pelas explicações. Obrigada!

Ao professor Dr. Nilton Syogo Arakawa, que disponibilizou a droga utilizada neste trabalho, sem ela nada seria feito. E também por aceitar o convite em participar da banca examinadora.

Aos professores Dr. Sergio Ricardo Ambrosio e Dr. Wander Rogério Pavanelli por terem aceitado o convite de participar da banca examinadora e disponibilizar seu tempo.

Ao professor Dr. Emerson José Venancio por aceitar o convite em participar da banca examinadora.

Aos professores e técnicos do laboratório de farmacologia da Faculdade de Medicina de Ribeirão Preto-USP pela parceria no desenvolvimento e realização deste trabalho.

Aos que não citei, mas que me ajudaram de forma direta ou indireta no percurso e realização deste trabalho.

Ao apoio financeiro do Conselho Nacional de Pesquisa (CNPq, Brasil) e Coordenadoria de Aperfeiçoamento de Pessoal de Nível Superior (CAPES, Brasil).

*"A mente que se abre para uma nova idéia
jamais voltará ao seu tamanho original"*
Albert Einstein

*"O sábio procura a ausência da dor
e não o prazer" Aristóteles*

MIZOKAMI, Sandra Satie. **Ácido caurenóico da *Sphagneticola trilobata* (L.) Pruski inibe a dor inflamatória:** efeito na produção de citocinas e ativação da via NO/GMPc/PKG/K+ATP. 2012. 81 f. Dissertação (Mestrado em Patologia Experimental) – Universidade Estadual de Londrina. Londrina, 2012.

RESUMO

Ácido caurenóico (AC) é um diterpeno presente em muitas plantas, incluindo a *Sphagneticola trilobata* (L.) Pruski. A única evidência do seu efeito antinociceptivo é em inibir as contorções abdominais induzida por ácido acético em camundongos. Portanto, nós aprofundamos o estudo do efeito analgésico do AC e seus mecanismos de ação em diferentes modelos nociceptivos em camundongos. O tratamento com AC via intraperitoneal e via oral, inibiu de maneira dose-dependente a nocicepção inflamatória induzida pela administração de ácido acético. O tratamento oral com AC também inibiu a nocicepção induzida por fenil-*p*-benzoquinona, ambas as fases do teste da formalina e no teste com Adjuvante completo de *Freund's* (CFA). O composto AC também inibiu a hiperalgesia mecânica na inflamação aguda induzida pela carragenina e PGE₂, e inflamação prolongada induzida pelo CFA. Quanto aos mecanismos de ação do AC, houve inibição da produção de citocinas pró-inflamatórias TNF- α e IL-1 β . Além disso, o efeito analgésico do AC foi inibido pelos pré-tratamentos com L-NAME, ODQ, KT5823 e glibenclamida, demonstrando que o efeito analgésico também é dependente da ativação da via NO/GMPc/PKG/canais de potássio dependentes de ATP, respectivamente. Esses resultados demonstram que AC apresenta efeito analgésico e que seus mecanismos envolvem a inibição na produção de citocinas e ativação da via NO/GMPc/PKG/K+ATP.

Palavras-chave: Ácido caurenóico. Citocina. Óxido nítrico. Dor Inflamatória. K⁺ATP.

MIZOKAMI, Sandra Satie. **Kaurenoic acid from *Sphagneticola trilobata* (L.) Pruski inhibits inflammatory pain: effect on cytokine and activation of NO/cGMP/PKG/K+ATP channels signaling pathway.** 2012. 81 f. Dissertation (Master's degree in Experimental Pathology) – Universidade Estadual de Londrina, Londrina, 2012.

ABSTRACT

Kaurenoic acid (KA) is a diterpene present in many plants including *Sphagneticola trilobata* (L.) Pruski. The only evidence on its antinociceptive effect is that it inhibits the writhing response induced by acetic acid in mice. Therefore, we further addressed the analgesic effect of KA in different models of pain and its mechanisms in mice. Intraperitoneal and oral treatments with KA dose-dependently inhibited inflammatory nociception induced by acetic acid. The oral treatment with KA also inhibited the nociception induced by phenyl-*p*-benzoquinone, both phases of formalin test and Complete Freund's Adjuvant (CFA). Compound KA also inhibited acute carrageenin- and PGE₂-, and chronic CFA-induced inflammatory mechanical hyperalgesia. Mechanistically, KA inhibited the production of hyperalgesic cytokines TNF α and IL-1 β . Furthermore, the analgesic effect of KA was inhibited by L-NAME, ODO, KT5823 and glybenclamide treatments demonstrating that its analgesic effect also depends on activation of the NO/cGMP/PKG/K+ATP channels signaling pathway, respectively. These results consistently demonstrate that KA presents analgesic effect, and that its mechanisms involve the inhibition of cytokine production and activation of the NO/cGMP/PKG/K+ATP channels signaling pathway.

Keywords: Kaurenoic acid. Cytokine. Nitric oxide. Inflammatory pain. K+ATP.

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LISTA DE ABREVIATURAS E SIGLAS

ALT	Alanina aminotransferase
AMPc	Adenosina monofosfato cíclico
AST	Aspartato aminotransferase
ATP	Adenosina trifosfato
BALF	<i>Bronchoalveolar lavage fluid</i>
Cg	Carragenina
CFA	<i>Complete Freund's Adjuvant</i>
DMSO	Dimetilsulfóxido
ELISA	Ensaio Imunoenzimático
ERK	<i>Extracellular-signal-regulated Kinase</i>
GGT	Gama-glutamilttransferase
GMPc	Guanosina monofosfato cíclico
HPLC	<i>High-performance liquid chromatography</i>
IASP	<i>International Association for the Study of Pain</i>
Ig E	Imunoglobulina E
IL-1 β	Interleucina 1beta
IL1RI	IL-1 <i>receptor</i>
IP3	Inositol fosfato
i.p.	Intraperitoneal
i.pl	Intraplantar
JNK	<i>c- Jun N-terminal Kinase</i>
KA	<i>Kaurenoic acid</i>
KC	queratinocitos
KT5823	inibidor das proteínas quinases dependente de GMPc/PKG
L-NAME	L-nitro-arginina metil ester; inibidor não seletivo da oxido nítrico sintase
LPS	Lipopolissacarídeo
MAPK	<i>Mitogen-activated protein kinase</i>
MDA	Malondialdeído
MPO	Mieloperoxidase
NO	<i>Nitric oxid</i>
NOS	<i>Nitric oxid sintase</i>

ODQ	1H-[1,2,4]oxadiazolo[4,3-a]quinoxalin-1-one; inibidor da guanilato ciclase
PBQ	phenil- <i>p</i> -benzoquinona
PGE	Prostaglandina
PGE ₂	Prostaglandina E2
PKA	<i>Protein Kinase A</i>
PKC	<i>Protein Kinase C</i>
PKG	<i>Protein Kinase G</i>
PLA ₂	<i>phosfolipase A2</i>
TNF-α	<i>Tumor necrosis factor alfa</i>
TPA	12-O-tetradecanoilforbol acetato
VLC	<i>Vaccum Liquid Chromatography</i>
v.o.	via oral
δ	Deslocamento químico (ppm)

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1 INTRODUÇÃO

1.1 Processo inflamatório

O desenvolvimento da reação inflamatória tem por função destruir ou inativar o agente agressor e reparar o tecido lesionado através dos processos de regeneração ou cicatrização. O processo inflamatório apresenta alterações vasculares e celulares e envolve o desenvolvimento de quatro sinais cardinais: rubor, calor, edema e dor. Dependendo da intensidade e extensão do processo inflamatório pode ocorrer a perda da função (COTRAN, 2000).

Dentre as alterações vasculares que ocorrem durante a inflamação temos a vasodilatação de arteríolas e vênulas e abertura de capilares induzida pela liberação de mediadores químicos. Este processo induz ao aumento do volume sanguíneo no local, resultando no rubor ou eritema, e aumento da temperatura local. O aumento do volume local eleva a pressão hidrostática em conjunto com a vasodilatação e abertura de lacunas entre as células endoteliais, contribuindo para o aumento da permeabilidade e extravassamento de líquido rico em proteínas (exsudado) e formação do edema (COTRAN, 2000).

Apesar do volume sanguíneo aumentar no foco inflamatório, há diminuição da sua velocidade de passagem devido a abertura de capilares. Essa redução da velocidade permite a saída dos leucócitos da coluna central do fluxo sanguíneo ou sua marginalização para a periferia do vaso. Essa marginalização contribui para a posterior transmigração dos leucócitos, embora não seja o único fator envolvido. Ademais, ativação de células residentes como macrófagos e mastócitos induz a produção de citocinas como fator de necrose tumoral alfa (TNF- α) e interleucina-1beta (IL-1 β), as quais ativam as células endoteliais que passam a expressar moléculas de adesão da família das selectinas. As selectinas são glicoproteínas que apresentam um domínio N-terminal extracelular que se ligam a açúcares. Temos a E-selectina presente no endotélio, a P-selectina presente no endotélio e em plaquetas e a L-selectina em leucócitos. Essa ligação a carboidratos fornece uma interação fraca entre leucócitos e endotélio vascular resultando no rolamento. A ligação das selectinas aos respectivos carboidratos tem a função de

moléculas de adesão, mas também de receptores resultando na ativação das integrinas. As integrinas interagem com moléculas de adesão da superfamília das imunoglobulinas permitindo a adesão firme dos leucócitos ao endotélio e posterior transmigração (COTRAN, 2000).

Esta emigração dos leucócitos ativados para o foco inflamatório ocorre através de substâncias quimioatratadoras. Dentre elas podemos citar os produtos bacterianos, componentes do sistema complemento C3a e C5a, leucotrienos, citocinas e quimiocinas. Os leucócitos ao chegarem ao foco inflamatório fagocitam o agente agressor e podem contribuir para o desenvolvimento da dor. De fato, a inibição do recrutamento celular reduz o desenvolvimento da hiperalgesia. Em modelo de inflamação induzida pela carragenina, os leucócitos recrutados, principalmente neutrófilos, contribuem para o desenvolvimento da hiperalgesia por produzirem a prostaglandina E₂ (CUNHA, 2008).

1.1.1 Dor

A capacidade de experimentar a dor tem um papel protetor: ela nos adverte de dano tecidual real ou iminente e suscita respostas reflexas coordenadas e comportamentais para manter tais danos ao mínimo (WOOLF, MANNION, 1999).

A dor é um sentimento desagradável porém essencial para o sistema de defesa do corpo. Se não sentíssemos dor não teríamos, por exemplo, a ação de retirada do braço em cima da chama quente ou quando nos furamos com algo. Segundo a *International Association from the Study of Pain* (IASP), a dor é considerada uma experiência sensorial e emocional desagradável associada ao dano tecidual potencial ou real (MERSKEY, BODDUK, 1994). Na prática experimental é utilizado o termo nocicepção para referir-se ao estímulo nocivo através do dano tecidual captados por nociceptores localizados nas terminações das fibras nervosas. Ademais são empregados os termos alodinia e hiperalgesia, sendo o primeiro utilizado para designar dor decorrente de um estímulo não doloroso, como estímulos mecânicos e térmicos inócuos, e hiperalgesia, ao aumento da resposta a estímulos nocivos (CUNHA, 2004; VALERIO, 2009; FERREIRA Jr, 2010).

A percepção do estímulo nocivo ou nociceptivo, seja ele químico, mecânico ou físico, capaz de provocar injúria tecidual é detectado por nociceptores (neurônios nociceptivos). Os nociceptores são terminações nervosas livres de fibras aferentes primárias, e são elas que, quando ativadas, conduzem os estímulos nocivos.

Existem três tipos principais de fibras aferentes primárias que transmitem os estímulos periféricos ao sistema nervoso central: as fibras do tipo A β , A δ e as do tipo C. As fibras A δ e A β são mielinizadas e as do tipo C são amielinizadas. As fibras A δ conduzem os estímulos mais rapidamente, em torno de 5-30 m/s e respondem a estímulos térmicos e mecânicos, enquanto as fibras do tipo C conduzem os estímulos a uma baixa velocidade ($< 1\text{m/s}$) porém com maior intensidade e respondem a estímulos de origem térmica, mecânica ou química (FERREIRA, 2009). Existem também uma outra classe de nociceptores chamados de “silenciosos” ou “adormecidos” (*silent* ou *sleeping nociceptors*) descritos por Schaible e Schimidt em 1988. Estes nociceptores não respondem a estímulos térmicos e mecânicos, mas são ativados durante o processo inflamatório.

Durante a resposta imune contra o agente agressor ou estressor são liberados mediadores inflamatórios intermediários e finais. Eles ativam receptores que causam a sensibilização neuronal através da modificação do limiar de ativação de canais iônicos, como os de sódio, cálcio e potássio, presente na membrana de neurônios e induzem uma alteração nos potenciais de repouso levando à transmissão do estímulo doloroso da periferia até a medula espinal e, da medula espinal até o sistema nervoso central (tálamo e córtex somatossensorial), onde será interpretada como dor (WILLIS, 1985; RUSSO, BROSE, 1998; WOOLF, COSTIGAN, 1999).

Vários mediadores químicos como endotelinas, substância P, prostaglandina (PG) e aminas simpáticas, sensibilizam de maneira direta os nociceptores (VERRI, 2006). Prostaglandinas e aminas agem sobre as fibras C e nociceptores silenciosos ativando segundos mensageiros como a via da adenosina monofosfato cíclico (AMPC), proteínas quinases (PKA e PKC), fosforilando canais de sódio e levando ao aumento do influxo intracelular de sódio (Na^+). O resultado disto é a despolarização e consequente excitabilidade da membrana neuronal e

transmissão do impulso nervoso (FERREIRA, 1994; CUNHA, 1999; VERRI, 2006).

Tem sido relatada a participação da via das proteínas quinases ativadas por mitógenos (MAPKs) na geração da hiperalgesia. A MAPK é ativada pela fosforilação de resíduos de tirosina e treonina e independente da ativação da PKA e PKC (DINA, 2003). Existem três principais MAPK: quinase ativada por receptores extracelulares (ERK), quinase-N-terminal c-Jun (JNK) e a p38 MAPK. A ERK está envolvida na proliferação e diferenciação celular e no desenvolvimento da plasticidade neuronal, a p38 e a JNK quinase são proteínas ativadas pelo estresse e participam na resposta à lesão e morte celular. A ativação da ERK no gânglio da raiz dorsal e no corno dorsal de neurônios contribui para o desenvolvimento e manutenção da hipersensibilidade à dor e a p38 tem sido implicada em estados de dor aguda e crônica, neuropática e inflamatória (JIN, 2003).

Existem diferentes modelos experimentais no qual pode se avaliar a eficácia de um fármaco com prováveis propriedades analgésica e anti-inflamatória. Dentre eles podemos citar os modelos de dor manifesta como as contorções abdominais induzidas por ácido acético e fenil-p-benzoquinona, adjuvante completo de Freund (CFA) e teste da formalina. Nesses modelos, o estímulo inflamatório induz a liberação de mediadores que ativam os nociceptores induzindo uma resposta comportamental considerada nociceptiva por ser inibida por fármacos analgésicos. No caso da formalina, este teste apresenta duas fases, sendo os primeiros 5-10 minutos do teste mediados pela liberação de histamina e serotonina, e receptores acoplados a canal iônico. Já a segunda fase é considerada inflamatória, pois depende da produção de citocinas e outros mediadores (VERRI, 2006).

Em outro modelo, o da carragenina, no qual avaliamos a hiperalgesia mecânica, a carragenina desencadeia a produção de citocinas pró-inflamatórias como o TNF- α , IL-1 β e quimioquinas como a CXCL1 (KC, quimioquinas derivada de queratinócitos) em camundongos. Essas citocinas induzem a produção de prostaglandina E₂, que por sua vez sensibiliza os nociceptores induzindo a hiperalgesia (dor) (VERRI, 2006). Ademais, a carragenina induz um aumento do estresse oxidativo que é detectado como redução da forma reduzida da glutathione. Esse aumento do estresse oxidativo ou produção de radicais livres pode contribuir para a produção de citocinas pró-inflamatórias. Ao mesmo tempo em que ocorre a

liberação de citocinas pró-inflamatórias também ocorre a liberação de citocinas anti-inflamatórias que contrabalanceiam o desenvolvimento da resposta inflamatória como a IL-10, a qual inibe a produção de TNF- α e IL-1 β (BRASILEIRO FILHO, 2006). Dessa forma, existem alguns modelos que são extremamente úteis para a avaliação do efeito e mecanismos de ação de drogas anti-inflamatórias e analgésicas.

1.1.2 Citocinas

As citocinas são um grupo de proteínas que participam ativamente na imunidade inata e adaptativa e também são consideradas mediadores importantes na sensibilização dos nociceptores e no dano neuronal (VERRI, 2006, 2007). As citocinas são produzidas e liberadas em resposta a uma variedade de estímulos inflamatórios, como parasitas, vírus, fungos, bactérias e seus produtos tóxicos (lipopolissacarídeos - LPS), ou em resposta a outras citocinas (VERRI, 2007). Possuem baixo peso molecular, entre 5 kD e 140 kD, e geralmente tem tempo de meia vida curto. Atualmente, já foram descritas mais de 200 citocinas diferentes (BILATE, 2007).

A ação das citocinas ocorre após sua ligação a receptores específicos expressos em células-alvo, no qual desencadeia transdução de sinais no interior da célula (BILATE, 2007). Elas podem agir de maneira autócrina, parácrina ou hormonal, ou seja, as citocinas podem agir em receptores da própria célula produtora, em receptores de células vizinhas e/ou distantes, sendo transportadas pela corrente sanguínea. Há também outro grupo particular de citocinas denominadas quimiocinas (citocinas quimiotáticas) que agem em receptores de membrana acoplados à proteína G (VERRI, 2006) controlando a adesão, quimiotaxia e ativação de vários tipos de leucócitos e o recrutamento de células inflamatórias. As quimiocinas também atuam na hematopoiese, angiogênese, diferenciação celular e metástase de tumores (KRAYCHETE, 2006; BILATE, 2007).

Atualmente é bem aceito que citocinas constituem uma ligação entre injúria celular ou reconhecimento imunológico e os sinais da inflamação local e sistêmicos (BLACKWELL, CRISTMAN, 1996; DINARELLO, 2000; HOPKINS, 2003;

CUNHA, FERREIRA, 2003; CONTI, 2004; VERRI, 2006).

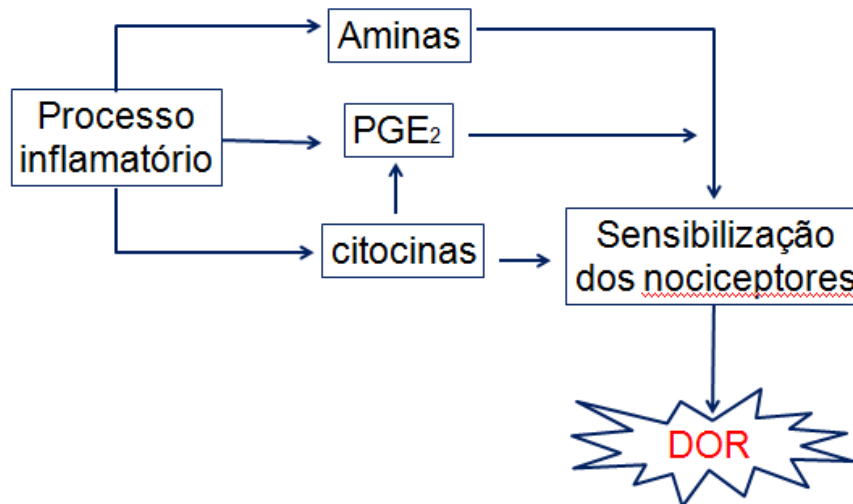
Cunha e colaboradores (1992) demonstraram a participação de citocinas na hiperalgesia mecânica induzida pela administração de carragenina (Cg) em ratos. Uma cascata de citocinas é liberada por células residentes ou que migraram para o foco inflamatório e são responsáveis pela liberação de mediadores finais (prostaglandina, aminas simpáticas e endotelinas) que sensibilizam os nociceptores (CUNHA, 1992, 2005; VERRI, 2004, 2005). Verificou-se também que periféricamente o TNF- α induz hipernocicepção através de duas vias independentes e paralelas: TNF- α ou CXCL1/KC (equivalente a IL-8 em humanos) $\rightarrow$ IL-1 β $\rightarrow$ PGE₂ e, CXCL1 $\rightarrow$ aminas simpáticas em camundongos (CUNHA, 2005). Assim, a inibição da produção de citocinas é um mecanismo analgésico importante.

Também existem evidências que o TNF induz a ativação espinal da p38 MAPK na medula espinal nos gânglios da raiz dorsal (JI, 2002; KRAYCHETE, 2006) aumentando a condutividade de canais de sódio dependente de voltagem. A IL-1 β ativa o receptor para IL-1 β tipo I (IL1RI) induzindo a ativação das proteínas quinases específicas (ex. PKC) que causa a sensibilização neuronal. Há também, expressão desses receptores no gânglio da raiz dorsal, sugerindo a ação autócrina e parácrina da IL-1 β no processo sensorial (SOMMER, 2004; KRAYCHETE, 2006). Corroborando a importância da IL-1, em modelos murinos de neuropatia, a administração de antagonistas de receptores IL1RI reduz o comportamento doloroso dos animais (SOMMER, 1999; KRAYCHETE, 2006).

Em resposta à liberação de citocinas pró-inflamatórias há a liberação de citocinas anti-inflamatórias como a IL-10, que inibe a produção de TNF- α e IL-1 β (VERRI, 2006; BILATE, 2007).

Uma desregulação ou ativação exagerada de citocinas pró-inflamatórias implica em várias doenças como sepse, artrite reumatóide, doença de Crohn's ou esclerose múltipla (SOMMER, KRESS, 2004). Com base no conhecimento das citocinas e sua relação com doenças inflamatórias, tem se utilizado medicamentos que inibem ou controlam sua produção e liberação. Considerando a importância das citocinas em várias doenças e como moléculas imunomoduladoras, são utilizados atualmente várias citocinas recombinantes,

anticorpos, receptores solúveis e antagonistas de receptores de citocinas na prática clínica e vários estão em testes clínicos (BILATE, 2007). Desta forma, drogas que modulem a produção e/ou ação de citocinas são importantes e apresentam perspectivas de desenvolvimento clínico.



1.1.3 Óxido Nítrico

O óxido nítrico (NO) é formado pela óxido nítrico sintase (NOS) a partir da L-arginina tendo como subproduto a L-citrulina. Existem três isoformas de NOS: NOS neuronal (nNOS), NOS endotelial (eNOS) e NOS induzível (iNOS). A nNOS e eNOS são vias constitutivas dependentes de Ca^{+2} e agem em baixas concentrações. A iNOS é independente de Ca^{+2} intracelular e é ativada por macrófagos estimulados por bactérias, toxinas e citocinas e requer algumas horas para ser expressa, mas uma vez sintetizada, libera quantidades maiores de NO. Há relatos da existência de uma quarta isoforma a mNOS presente em mitocôndrias (DUSSE, 2003; COELHO, 2009; MICLESCU, GORDH, 2009).

O NO está envolvido em muitos processos biológicos como vasodilatação do endotélio, relaxamento do músculo liso, inibição da adesão e agregação plaquetária, potencialização e depressão de longo prazo no hipocampo e cerebelo, age como neurotransmissor com capacidade potencializadora, atuando

na memória e no aprendizado e regulação e liberação de outros neurotransmissores (FLORA FILHO, ZILERSTEIN, 2000; CERQUEIRA, 2002; COELHO, 2009). Desempenha sua função também no sistema imune, no qual ele é o principal mediador citotóxico de células imunes efectoras, sendo uma das mais importantes moléculas reguladora do sistema imune (DUSSE, 2003).

Porém, é importante resaltar que o NO possui papel dubio no qual em altas concentrações o NO pode ser citotóxico não só contra microrganismos mas para o próprio hospedeiro e está relacionado a algumas doenças como a asma, artrite reumatóide, choque séptico, doenças neurodegenerativas (Alzheimer e esclerose múltipla), lesões ateroscleróticas, tuberculose e gastrite induzida por *Helicobacter pylori* (BARRETO, 2005; COELHO, 2009).

Vários estudos demonstram que o NO participa na resposta inflamatória podendo ter efeitos tanto pró como anti-inflamatório, tais efeitos dependem da concentração, do local de atuação e do modelo utilizado para se avaliar a dor (MICLESCU, GORDH, 2009).

O óxido nítrico formado pela NOS é rapidamente permeável através de membranas biológicas e ativa a enzima guanilato ciclase solúvel que produz um aumento nos níveis de guanosina monofosfato cíclico (GMPc). O GMPc estimula a proteína quinase dependente de GMPc, a proteína quinase G (PKG), que pode fosforilar diversas proteínas e ativar canais de potássio sensíveis ao ATP (K^+ ATP), levando a hiperpolarização ou a saída de Ca^{+2} do citoplasma (MONCADA, 1991; PRADO, 2002; ARUL, KONDURI, 2009; COELHO, 2009), contribuindo para a vasodilatação e modulação da transmissão sináptica (MICLESCU, GORDH, 2009).

A via de sinalização NO/GMPc/PKG/canais K^+ ATP contribui para a anti-hiperalgesia em modelos animais de dor e vem sendo alvo de diversos estudos de substâncias potencialmente analgésicas. Drogas que bloqueiam de maneira direta a hiperalgesia agem bloqueando a sensibilização dos nociceptores por promover a abertura dos canais de potássio sensíveis a ATP, no qual a saída desse íon da célula contrabalançaria o limiar de ativação aumentado devido à modulação de canais de sódio e cálcio durante a sensibilização neuronal (SACHS, CUNHA, FERREIRA, 2004; FERREIRA, 2008).

Para se avaliar o efeito de drogas sobre a via de sinalização do óxido nítrico são utilizados diversos inibidores da via L-arginina/NO/GMPc, uma vez que o uso de inibidores irá inibir a produção de NO e seus efeitos subsequentes (FILHO, ZILBERSTEIN, 2000; FERREIRA, 2008). Todas as isoformas de NOS podem ser inibidas por análogos da arginina N-substituídos como a L^G-monometil-L-arginina (L-NMMA), N-imino-etil-L-ornitina (L-NIO), L^G-amino-L-arginina (L-NAA), L^G-L-arginina (L-NA) e L^G-nitro-L-arginina metil-éster (L-NAME) (DUSSE, 2003).

A figura 1 mostra alguns inibidores da via L-arginina/NO/GMPc utilizados em experimentos.

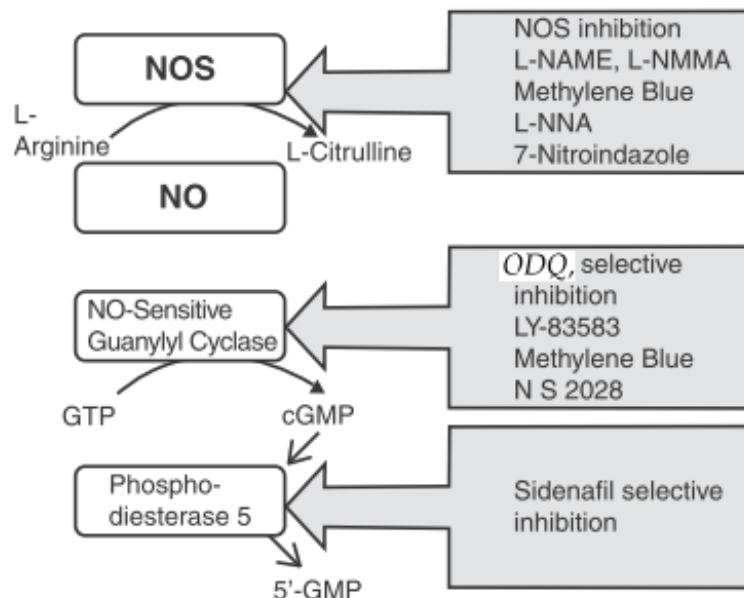


Figura 1: Via do óxido nítrico/guanosina monofosfato cíclico e seus inibidores. Oxido nítrico sintase (NOS) cataliza a formação de óxido nítrico (NO) pela L-arginina. NO ativa a guanilil ciclase solúvel (cGMP), que é catalizada pela guanosina trifosfato (GTP). No final da cascata o cGMP-específico fosfatidilesterase tipo 5 hidrolase (5'-GMP). Inibidores: L-NAME, N-nitro-L-arginina metil-éster, um bloqueador da NOS; ODQ, 1H-[1, 2, 4] oxadiazolo[4, 3-a]quinoxalin-1-one, um bloqueador seletivo da NO sensível a guanilato ciclase; Sildenafil, um bloqueador seletivo da 5'-cGMP (leva a um aumento dos níveis de cGMP). *Fonte:* MICLESCU, GORDH, 2009.

1.2 Ácido caurenóico

Vários diterpenos vem sendo estudados na literatura por apresentar potencial biológicos e na pratica clinica, dentre eles destaca-se o ácido *ent*-kaur-16-en-19-oic ou ácido caurenóico (AC) (Figura 2), um diterpeno presente em diversas plantas entre as quais destacam-se a *Annona glabra*, *Aralia continentalis*, *Copaifera langsdorffii*, *Mikania glomerata*, *Mikania laevigata*, *Sphagneticola trilobata*, *Vigueira robusta* e *Xylopia frutescen* (CAVALCANTI, 2006; DE CARLI, 2009; LIN, 2009; SANTOS, 2005; SILVA, 2002; TIRAPELLI, 2004;).

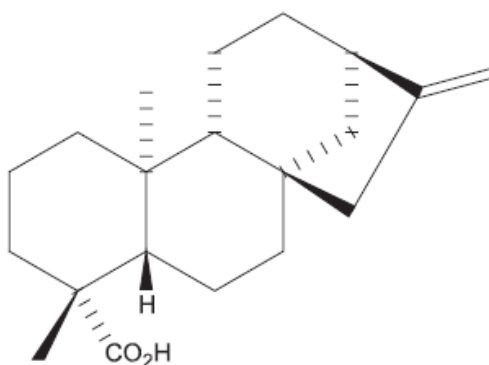


Figura 2 : Estrutura química do ácido caurenóico (Fonte: TIRAPELLI, 2004)

O AC apresenta diversas propriedades farmacológicas, dentre elas ação antibacteriana, no qual o extrato de plantas do gênero da *Mikania* contendo frações de AC inibiu o crescimento e a adesão de *Streptococcus mutans* (YATSUDA, 2005), o crescimento de *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Staphylococcus epidermidis* e *Bacillus cereus*, porem foi ineficaz contra o crescimento de bactérias gram negativas como *Escherichia coli* e *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (SILVA, 2002). Demonstrou atividade *in vitro*, contra formas tripomastigotas de *Trypanossoma cruzi* (VIEIRA, 2002). Foi observada também atividade antifúngica ao inibir o crescimento de *Candida albicans* (DE CARLI, 2009; SANTOS, 2005).

Possui também efeito anti-tumorigênico no qual o AC apresentou atividade citotóxica contra diferentes linhagens de células tumorais da próstata,

cólon, mama (COSTA-LOTUFO, 2002; HENRY, 2006;) e uma inibição de mais de 95% no crescimento de células obtidas de crianças com leucemia (COSTA-LOTUFO, 2002).

O AC na dose de 10 mg/Kg diminuiu a concentração de glicose no sangue em ratos diabéticos induzido por aloxano, mostrando ser um agente hipoglicemiante (BRESCIANI, 2004).

Tirapelli em 2004 verificou *in vitro*, o efeito do ácido caurenóico em modelo de contração de artérias isoladas de ratos. O endotélio da artéria aorta íntegra ou seus anéis foram conectados a um transdutor de força e as contrações do músculo induzidas por fenilefrina ou cloreto de potássio (KCl). O pré-tratamento com AC reduziu as contrações induzidas por fenilefrina e KCl tanto no endotélio da aorta íntegra quanto nos anéis aórticos e causou o relaxamento do vaso. Isto se deve ao fato do ácido caurenóico bloquear os canais de cálcio pela ativação da via NO/GMPc e abertura dos canais de potássio (TIRAPELLI, 2004).

Cho e colaboradores (2010) avaliaram a atividade anti-espasmótica do diterpeno AC extraído da raiz da *Aralia cordata*. Em seus experimentos foram avaliados a ação do AC na resistência das vias aéreas na fase imediata e tardia da asma induzida por Ig-E em porcos sensibilizados com ovalbumina. Foram avaliados também o recrutamento de neutrófilos e a presença de mediadores químicos no fluido lavado broncoalveolar (BALF). O AC na dose de 50 mg/Kg diminuiu a resistência das vias aéreas na fase tardia da asma ($40,52\% \pm 3,75\%$), o recrutamento de neutrófilos para o pulmão (de $8,85 \pm 0,95 \times 10^5$ células para $3,51 \pm 0,70 \times 10^5$ células) e a liberação de histamina e a atividade da fosfolipase A2 (PLA₂) analisadas no BALF.

A ação analgésica do ácido caurenóico foi demonstrada por Block em 1998. Extrato composto de ácido caurenóico extraído da *Wedelia paludosa* (ou *Sphagneticola trilobata*) foi administrado intraperitoneal (i.p.) nas doses de 1-60 mg/Kg em camundongos. A dose de 3 mg/Kg do extrato inibiu 55% o número de contorções induzido pela administração de ácido acético 0,6%, inibição maior que com o tratamento com acetaminofeno, ácido acetilsalicílico, indometacina e dipirona (35, 38, 38 e 33% de inibição, respectivamente, na dose de 10 mg/Kg).

Ademais, a aplicação tópica do AC inibiu a formação de edema de orelha induzido por óleo de cróton e 12-O-tetradecanoilforbol acetato (TPA) em camundongos (BOLLER, 2010; DE CARLI, 2009). O AC extraído da *Aralia continentalis* também inibiu a formação de edema de pata induzido por Cg, porém não inibiu significativamente a produção de PGE₂ na concentração de 100µM em culturas de células RAW 264.7 ativadas por LPS. Os autores sugerem que esta diferença na atividade anti-inflamatória em modelos *in vivo* e *in vitro* pode estar relacionada ao mecanismo de ação do AC, como a inibição de citocinas pró-inflamatórias, embora, não tenha sido demonstrado que o AC iniba a produção de citocinas (LIN, 2009).

Em modelos de colite induzido pela administração de ácido acético, o AC reduziu significativamente o dano tecidual e o ganho de peso úmido do cólon. Diminuiu de maneira dose-dependente a atividade da mieloperoxidase (MPO), uma enzima presente dentro dos leucócitos e utilizada de forma indireta na análise de migração de leucócitos, especialmente neutrófilos, para o local inflamado, e diminuiu também a concentração de malondialdeído (MDA), um indicador da lipoperoxidação lipídica. Em modelos de colite induzida por ácido acético o aumento da MPO e MDA podem gerar radicais livres e consequente instalação do processo inflamatório e a formação de ulcerações (PAIVA, 2003).

Bürger e colaboradores em 2005 avaliaram a toxicidade aguda e subaguda do AC. Camundongos receberam por via oral (v.o.) extrato hidroalcoólico contendo AC na dose 100-4.000 mg/Kg em uma única dose (toxicidade aguda) ou durante 15 dias (toxicidade subaguda). Os comportamentos dos animais durante o tratamento e amostras de sangue e tecido foram analisados. O tratamento agudo e subagudo com AC não apresentou nenhuma mudança no comportamento em relação a ganho ou perda de peso, alterações no sistema respiratório, nervoso e gastrointestinal, não apresentou também nenhum efeito cutâneo ou aumento da taxa de mortalidade. A análise dos níveis de aspartato aminotransferase (AST), alanina aminotransferase (ALT) e gama-glutamilttransferase (GGT) não demonstrou lesão hepatocelular e a análise macroscópica do fígado, pulmão, coração, baço e rim não apresentou nenhuma alteração em relação à cor e textura, indicando que o AC não apresenta toxicidade quando administrado em altas doses e por período mais longo.

Baseados nestes dados nós propomos investigar o efeito analgésico do AC em diferentes modelos nociceptivos e determinar seus possíveis mecanismos de ação.

2. OBJETIVOS

2.1 Objetivo geral

Investigar a atividade analgésica do ácido caurenóico, extraído da *Sphagneticola trilobata* (L.) Pruski, em diferentes modelos de dor inflamatória, bem como elucidar seu(s) mecanismo(s) de ação.

2.2 Objetivos específicos

- Avaliar o efeito analgésico do AC em diferentes vias de administração e dose-dependência;
- Avaliar o efeito analgésico do tratamento com AC em modelos experimentais através de diferentes estímulos nociceptivos (ácido acético, modelo da carragenina, formalina, CFA);
- Avaliar o efeito anti-inflamatório do AC em modelos de dor inflamatória aguda e prolongada;
- Avaliar se AC inibe a hiperalgesia induzida por mediadores que sensibilizam os nociceptores como a PGE₂;
- Avaliar se o efeito analgésico do AC estaria relacionado à inibição da produção de citocinas pró-hiperalgésicas como o TNF- α e IL-1 β ;
- Verificar a participação da via NO/GMPC/PKG/K+ATP no efeito analgésico do AC.

3 ARTIGO PARA PUBLICAÇÃO

Este é um trabalho realizado no Laboratório de Dor, Inflamação, Neuropatia e Câncer, formado pelo artigo científico: Kaurenoic acid from *Sphagneticola trilobata* (L.) Pruski inhibits inflammatory pain: effect on cytokine production and activation of NO/GMPc/PKG/K+ATP channels signaling pathway. Sandra S. Mizokami, Nilton S. Arakawa, Sergio R. Ambrosio, Ana C. Zarpelon, Rubia Casagrande, Thiago H. Ferreira, Fernando Q. Cunha, Waldiceu Aparecido Verri Júnior.

As formatações do artigo seguem as normas da revista *Journal of Natural Products* (Anexo).

Kaurenoic acid from *Sphagneticola trilobata* (L.) Pruski inhibits inflammatory pain: effect on cytokine production and activation of NO/GMPc/PKG/K+ATP channels signaling pathway. Sandra S. Mizokami,[†] Nilton S. Arakawa,[‡] Sergio R. Ambrosio,[§] Ana C. Zarpelon,[†] Rubia Casagrande,[‡] Thiago M. Cunha,[⊥] Sergio H. Ferreira,[⊥] Fernando Q. Cunha,[⊥] Waldiceu A. Verri, Jr.^{*,†}

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Abstract

Kaurenoic acid (**1**) is a diterpene present in many plants including *Sphagneticola trilobata* (L.) Pruski. The only evidence on its antinociceptive effect is that it inhibits the writhing response induced by acetic acid in mice. Therefore, we further addressed the analgesic effect of **1** in different models of pain and its mechanisms in mice. Intraperitoneal and oral treatments with **1** dose-dependently inhibited inflammatory nociception induced by acetic acid. The oral treatment with **1** also inhibited the nociception induced by phenyl-*p*-benzoquinone, both phases of formalin test and Complete Freund's Adjuvant (CFA). Compound **1** also inhibited acute carrageenin- and PGE₂-, and chronic CFA-induced inflammatory mechanical hyperalgesia. Mechanistically, **1** inhibited the production of hyperalgesic cytokines TNF α and IL-1 β . Furthermore, the analgesic effect of **1** was inhibited by L-NAME, ODQ, KT5823 and glybenclamide treatments demonstrating that its analgesic effect also depends on activation of the NO/cGMP/PKG/K+ATP channels signaling pathway, respectively. These results consistently demonstrate that **1** presents analgesic effect, and that its mechanisms involve the inhibition of cytokine production and activation of the NO/cGMP/PKG/K+ATP channels signaling pathway.

Key words: Kaurenoic acid, cytokine, nitric oxide, inflammatory pain, K+ATP.

Introduction

Kaurenoic acid or *ent*-kaur-16-*en*-19-oic acid (**1**) is a diterpene obtained from a great number of plants, and is a major compound in *Sphagneticola trilobata* (*Wedelia paludosa*, *Acmella brasiliensis*, Asteraceae)¹, which is popularly known in Brazil as “*Arnica-do-mato*”, “*pseudo-arnica*”, “*picão-da-praia*” and “*vedélia*”. There is evidence that **1** presents biological effects by inhibiting the inflammatory process such as carrageenin-induced paw edema^{2,3} and TPA-induced ear edema.⁴ Furthermore, in a model of asthma in guinea pigs, **1** inhibited the ovalbumin challenge-induced airway resistance in immunized animals as well as the production of histamine and activity of phospholipase A₂.⁵ *In vitro* experiments also demonstrated that **1** inhibits LPS-induced production of nitric oxide^{2,3} and prostaglandin E₂ (PGE₂) as well as the expression of cyclooxygenase-2 and inducible NO synthase (iNOS) in RAW 264.7 macrophages.³ This inhibition of cyclooxygenase-2 and iNOS expression was probably related to inhibition of NFκB activation.³ On the other hand, there is also evidence that **1** does not inhibit LPS-induced NFκB activation, nitrite production or mRNA expression of pro-inflammatory cytokines such as TNF-α and IL-1β, and cyclooxygenase-2.⁶ Thus, the possible effect of **1** in these inflammatory pathways is still controversial and was only addressed *in vitro*.

Additional relevant biological effects of **1** are the vasorelaxant effect via NO/cyclic guanosine monophosphate (cGMP)/protein kinase G (PKG)/ATP sensitive potassium channels (K⁺ATP) and calcium channels depending on the experimental model;⁷ and anti-microbial effects against *Bacillus cereus* and *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*.^{8,9}

Sphagneticola trilobata is popularly used for rheumatic inflammatory diseases and fever.^{1,11} Of note, rheumatic diseases such as rheumatoid arthritis are accompanied by pain.¹² In this sense, it was demonstrated that **1** inhibits acetic acid-induced writhing response in mice.^{11,13} However, it remains to be determined if **1** inhibits inflammatory pain in other models and its analgesic mechanisms.

In terms of inflammatory pain, the sensitization of primary nociceptive neurons (nociceptors) occurs during inflammation, producing an increase in pain sensation (hyperalgesia). This sensitization is caused by direct action of inflammatory

mediators such as prostaglandins (e.g., PGE₂, PGI₂) and sympathetic amines (e.g., dopamine, epinephrine) on their receptors present in the membrane of nociceptors. It is also accepted that the release of these direct-acting hyperalgesic mediators is preceded by the release of a cascade of cytokines.^{14,15} In the carrageenin model of paw inflammation, this cascade is initiated with the release of TNF- α .¹⁶ Additionally, increasing attention has been drawn to the activation of the via NO/cGMP/PKG/K+ATP channels (nitric oxide/cyclic guanosine monophosphate/protein kinase G/ATP sensitive potassium channels) as an important analgesic signaling pathway since it is activated by morphine and other drugs.¹⁷

In view of the information presented above, it was investigated as to whether the antinociceptive effect of **1** depends on counteracting cytokines production/release and activation of the NO/cGMP/PKG/K+ATP channels analgesic signaling pathway in inflammatory pain.

Results and Discussion

Kaurenoic acid (1) Inhibits Writhing response Induced by Acetic Acid and Phenyl-*p*-Benzoquinone (PBQ). In the first series of experiments, the antinociceptive effect of **1** was evaluated in acetic acid and PBQ induced pain-like behavior. Mice were treated with **1** (3-30 mg/kg; DMSO 2% diluted in saline) ip (Figure 1A) or po (Figure 1B) 30 min before injection of acetic acid 0.8% or with 10 mg/kg of **1** po 30 min before injection of phenyl-*p*-benzoquinone (1890 μ g/kg, Figure 1C), or vehicle (saline or DMSO 2% diluted in saline, respectively). All doses of **1** inhibited acetic acid-induced writhing response without differences between doses when it was administrated ip (Figure 1A). On the other hand, the po treatment with **1** produced a dose-dependent inhibition of acetic acid-induced writhing with significant differences between the doses of 10 and 30 compared to 3 mg/kg of **1**, and there was no difference between the doses of 10 and 30 mg/kg of **1** (Figure 1B). This difference might be related to **1** pharmacokinetics since ip absorption is expected to be faster than po absorption, and there were no differences in the effect of **1** at the doses of 10 and 30 mg/kg irrespectively to the route of administration. Therefore, it is unlikely that **1** is susceptible to gastrointestinal environment. In this sense, the dose of 10 mg/kg po of **1** was selected for next experiments regarding overt pain-like

behavior. Previous data also detected that **1** inhibits acetic acid-induced writhing response.^{11,13} The po treatment with **1** also inhibited PBQ-induced writhing. Acetic acid and PBQ models of writhing response share some mechanisms as well as some mechanisms are model specific. For instance, these models share the participation of prostanoids.¹⁸ In fact, the treatment with indomethacin (cyclooxygenase inhibitor, 5 mg/kg, ip, 40 min) inhibited acetic acid (Figure 1A)- and PBQ (Figure 1C)-induced writhing response.

Kaurenoic acid (1) Inhibits Paw Flinch and Time Spent Licking the Paw Induced by Formalin and Complete Freund's Adjuvant (CFA). Mice were treated with **1** as described above and received 25 μ L of formalin 1.5% intraplantarly (i.pl.). Compound **1** inhibited both phases of formalin test regarding paw flinching (Figure 2A) and time spent licking the paw (Figure 2B). The first phase of formalin test is considered to be a direct effect of formalin in TRPA1 receptors present in primary nociceptive neurons¹⁹ together with the involvement of histamine and serotonin release/action on nociceptors.²⁰ Considering that **1** inhibits histamine release in a model of asthma,⁵ it is possible that this mechanism contributes to the inhibition of the first phase of formalin test. The second phase of the formalin test depends on indirect mechanisms such as prostaglandin and cytokine production.²¹ Therefore, **1** could be inhibiting the action of direct and indirect acting inflammatory mediators. The CFA-induced inflammation is also dependent on cytokine production.⁸ In Figures 2C and 2D, it was detected that **1** inhibited both paw flinching and licking behaviors induced by CFA (10 μ L/paw), respectively.

Treatment with Kaurenoic Acid (1) inhibits Carrageenin- and CFA-induced Mechanical Hyperalgesia. Next, the antinociceptive effect of **1** was tested in the carrageenin (100 μ g/paw)- and CFA (10 μ L/paw)-induced mechanical hyperalgesia models. The po treatment with **1** dose-dependently (1-10 mg/kg) inhibited carrageenin-induced mechanical hyperalgesia (Figure 3A). No significant effects were observed with 1 mg/kg. On the other hand, 3 mg/kg of **1** significantly inhibited carrageenin-induced hyperalgesia at 1 and 3 h after stimulus, and 10 mg/kg inhibited the carrageenin-induced mechanical hyperalgesia 1-5 h after stimulus with significant differences compared to the dose of 1 mg/kg of **1** (Figure 3A). Therefore,

10 mg/kg of **1** was selected for mechanical hyperalgesia-related experiments. Indomethacin treatment significantly inhibited carrageenin-induced mechanical hyperalgesia (Figure 3A). To further address the possible therapeutic usefulness of the compound, mice were daily treated with **1** starting 1h after CFA i.pl. injection during 7 days (Figure 3B). There was significant inhibition of mechanical hyperalgesia at all time points evaluated except in the first day after CFA injection for both **1** and control drug indomethacin (Figure 3B).

In addition to inflammatory hyperalgesia, **1** also inhibits carrageenin-induced paw edema,^{2,3} supporting a wider potential therapeutic applicability of **1** in inflammatory conditions.

Kaurenoic Acid (1) Inhibited TNF- α and IL-1 β Production Induced by Carrageenin. Carrageenin-induced inflammatory hyperalgesia is mediated by a cascade of cytokines.¹⁶ In turn, the hyperalgesic role of cytokines is mediated by the production of final sensitizing mediators such as PGE₂ and sympathetic amines.^{16,22,23} Three h after injection of carrageenin mice were terminally anesthetized and the cutaneous plantar tissue was collected for cytokine (TNF- α and IL-1 β) measurement (Figure 4). Compound **1** inhibited carrageenin-induced production of TNF- α (Figure 4A) and IL-1 β (Figure 4B) in the paw tissue. This inhibition of cytokine production by **1** might account for the inhibition of cyclooxygenase-2 expression³ since both cytokines induce it.^{14,16} Furthermore, the present data demonstrating the inhibition of cytokine production by **1** sheds light in a controversy on whether it inhibits or not NF κ B activation and mRNA expression of TNF- α and IL-1 β as determined in vitro,^{3,6} indicating that these mechanisms might be of importance in vivo and the inhibition of cytokine production is probably related to the inhibition of NF κ B activity as previously described.³ It is noteworthy to mention that, to our knowledge, this is the first study to demonstrate that **1** inhibits cytokine production. Besides being important cytokines in carrageenin hyperalgesia, TNF- α and IL-1 β are considered important targets to control a great number of inflammatory diseases.²⁴

Kaurenoic Acid (1) Reduced PGE₂-induced Mechanical Hyperalgesia. Mice were treated with **1** (10 mg/kg, po) or vehicle 30 min before i.pl. injection of

PGE₂ (100 ng/paw) (Figure 5). There was significant inhibition of PGE₂-induced mechanical hyperalgesia at 3 h by **1** treatment. Since PGE₂ acts directly on nociceptive neurons to produce mechanical hyperalgesia, it is likely that the analgesic effect of **1** might be through activation of neuronal events.^{14,16}

Kaurenoic Acid (1) Inhibits Inflammatory Pain by Activating the NO/cGMP/PKG/K+ATP Channels Signaling Pathway. Mice were treated with L-NAME (NOS inhibitor, 10-90 mg/kg, ip) 60 min before **1** (10 mg/kg, po) treatment (figure 6A). After additional 30 min, mice received i.pl. injection of carrageenin (100 µg/paw), and mechanical hyperalgesia was evaluated 1, 3 and 5 h after injection of carrageenin. Corroborating the data presented above, **1** inhibited the carrageenin-induced mechanical hyperalgesia. In turn, L-NAME dose-dependently inhibited **1** analgesic effect. The dose of 10 mg/kg of L-NAME did not affect **1** antinociception, and the doses of 30 and 90 mg/kg of L-NAME significantly inhibited **1** effect. The dose of 90 was also statistically different of the 10 mg/kg dose of L-NAME. There was no difference between the doses of 30 and 90 mg/kg of **1** (Figure 6A). Similar results were obtained at 1 and 5 h after carrageenin injection (data not shown), but we presented only the 3rd h to increase the clarity of data. Therefore, in addition to inhibition of cytokine production, the antinociceptive effect of **1** depends on induction of NO production. Although we did not determine the isoform of NOS responsible for **1**-induced NO production, it has been shown that selective inhibitors of nNOS and eNOS, but not iNOS, reduced the vasorelaxing effects of **1**.⁷ This information⁷ also explains the apparent contradiction with previous data demonstrating that **1** inhibits LPS-induced NO production and iNOS expression.^{3,6} Therefore, it is likely that **1** presents a dual effect on NO production since it can increase NO production by activating nNOS and eNOS,⁷ and reduce NO production by inhibiting the expression of iNOS.³ In the present experimental conditions, it is very likely that **1** is activating nNOS, because a series of studies demonstrated that nNOS-derived NO is a prominent analgesic mechanism shared by morphine, diclofenac and other clinically available drugs.¹⁷ NO also inhibits the hyperalgesia induced by PGE₂ and other direct acting hyperalgesic mediators.¹⁷ Thus, the present result on the role of NO in the analgesic effect of **1** explains the inhibition of PGE₂-induced hyperalgesia (Figure 5). NO activates the cGMP/PKG/K+ATP channels signaling pathway to induce

analgesia, therefore, the next experiments assessed whether **1** would also activate similar mechanisms to reduce inflammatory mechanical hyperalgesia. Mice were treated with ODQ (Figure 6B, soluble cGMP inhibitor; 0.3 mg/kg, ip, diluted in 2% DMSO in saline, 30 min), KT5823 (Figure 6C, PKG inhibitor; 0.5 µg/mice, ip, diluted in 2% DMSO in saline, 5 min), glybenclamide (Figure 6D, K+ATP channels blocker; 0.3 mg/kg, ip, diluted in 5% of Tween 80 in saline, 45 min) or the respective vehicle before **1** (10 mg/kg, po). After additional 30 min mice received i.pl. injection of carrageenin (100 µg/paw). Again, **1** significantly inhibited the carrageenin-induced mechanical hyperalgesia at 1, 3 and 5 h after stimulus, and the treatment with ODQ (Figure 6B), KT5823 (Figure 6C) or glybenclamide (Figure 6D) significantly inhibited **1** analgesic effect. Thus, the analgesic effect of **1** depends on the activation of the NO/cGMP/PKG/K+ATP channels signaling pathway, which diminishes the nociceptive transmission resulting in diminished inflammatory mechanical hyperalgesia.¹⁷

Kaurenoic Acid (1) Showed no Muscle-relaxing or Sedative Effects. Per oral treatment with 10 mg/kg of **1** did not alter the motor response of the test animals 1.5, 3.5 and 5.5 h after treatment ($n = 6$). These time points were based on the 30 min of pretreatment plus 1, 3 and 5 h until mechanical hyperalgesia measurement in the carrageenin model. The vehicle control responses and **1**-treated animals in the rota-rod test were: 120 s vs 120 s (1.5 h); 120 s vs 120 s (3.5 h); and 120 s vs 120 s (5.5 h), respectively (data not shown). These results support the notion that **1** is diminishing the nociceptive threshold induced by inflammation, and not that the mice are incapable of responding because of muscle-relaxing or sedative effects.²⁵ Previous data showed that **1** reduces methamphetamine-induced locomotor enhancement suggesting sedative effects.¹³ However, this effect was achieved with 300 mg/kg of **1**, a 30 fold higher dose compared to the present experimental condition.

Kaurenoic Acid (1) did not Exhibit Any Effect in the Hot Plate Test in Naive Mice. Mice were treated with **1** (10 mg/kg, po route) or morphine hydrochloride (8 mg/kg, ip route) and the thermal nociception was evaluated before, and 1.5, 3.5 and 5.5 h after treatment (data not shown) in the same manner as for rota-rod test.

Morphine hydrochloride treatment increased the thermal nociceptive threshold as expected because of its central analgesic effects. On the other hand, **1** did not alter the thermal threshold of mice (data not shown). This result further supports a peripheral neuronal effect of **1** upon inflammatory pain, since the hot plate test is considered to be modulated by supraspinal mechanisms.²⁶

In conclusion, the present study has further analyzed the antinociceptive activity of **1** upon inflammatory pain and has provided novel evidence on its effect in a variety of inflammatory pain models and for its mechanism of action. The antinociceptive mechanisms of action of **1** may depend on: (a) inhibition of pro-hyperalgesic cytokine production, TNF α and IL-1 β ; (b) inhibition of cyclooxygenase-2, and consequently PGE₂ production;^{2,3} (c) reduction of hyperalgesia produced by a directly acting mediator such as PGE₂; (d) activation of the NO/cGMP/PKG/K+ATP channels signaling pathway. As a consequence, there is reduced sensitization of nociceptors due to reduced cytokine and PGE₂^{2,3} production and reduced nociceptive transmission related to activation of the NO/cGMP/PKG/K+ATP channels signaling pathway. Therefore, the presence in high concentrations of **1** it presents promising antinociceptive activity, it merits further pre-clinical and clinical investigation.

Experimental Section

General Experimental Procedures. Nuclear Magnetic Resonance (NMR) spectra were run on a Bruker DPX 400 spectrometer (400 MHz for ¹H and 100 MHz for ¹³C). Samples were dissolved in CDCl₃, and the spectra were calibrated with the solvents signals at δ 7.26 (¹H) and δ 77.0 (¹³C). Vacuum Liquid Chromatography (VLC) was carried out using silica gel 60H (Merck, art. 7736) in glass columns with 5-10 cm i.d.²⁷ High Performance Liquid Chromatography (HPLC) analyses were accomplished using a Shimadzu CBM-20A liquid chromatography controller, operating with the LCsolution software, equipped with a Shimadzu UV-DAD detector SPD-M20A and a Shimadzu ODS column (4.6 x 250 mm, 5 μ m, 100 Å).

In vivo experiments, mice received per oral (1, 3, 10 and 30 mg/kg) or intraperitoneal (3, 10 and 30 mg/kg) treatment with kaurenoic acid (**1**) or vehicle (2% DMSO in saline) 30 min before inflammatory stimulus. The doses of inflammatory

stimuli were determined previously in our laboratory in pilot studies and based on previous work.^{16,18,25,28-30} Mechanical hyperalgesia was evaluated 1-5 h after carrageenin (100 µg/paw), 3 h after PGE₂ (100 ng/paw), or 1-7 days after CFA (10 µL/paw) stimulus. All inflammatory stimuli induced only ipsilateral (in the paw the stimulus was injected) mechanical hyperalgesia. IL-1β and TNF-α levels were evaluated 3 h after carrageenin (100 µg/paw) injection. The writhing response was evaluated for 20 min after po injection of acetic acid or phenyl-p-benzoquinone. The paw flinching and licking nociceptive responses were quantified for 30 min after formalin 1.5% (25 µL/paw) or CFA (10 µL/paw) injection.

Plant Material. The air-dried roots of *Sphagneticola trilobata* were collected in September 2011 at Horto de Plantas Medicinais (23°19'41"S/51°12'14"W) of Centro de Ciências Agrárias at Universidade Estadual de Londrina (UEL). A voucher specimen was identified by Profa. Dra. Vieira, A.O.S. of the Departamento de Biologia Animal e Vegetal (Centro de Ciências Biológicas, UEL) and was deposited at Herbário da Universidade Estadual de Londrina (FUEL) no. 49306, collected by N.S. Arakawa-001.

Isolation and Identification of kaurenoic acid (1). The air-dried roots was pulverized and then exhaustively extracted with dichloromethane (900 mL) at room temperature, to give 1,2 g crude extract, which was suspended in 300 mL methanol/H₂O (9:1) and filtered. The soluble fraction was partitioned using n-hexane (300 mL, four times), which resulted in 0.7 g n-hexane-soluble fraction after solvent evaporation under reduced pressure. The n-hexane-soluble fraction was chromatographed over Silica gel 60 (0.063 – 0.200 mm) using vacuum chromatography with n-hexane and increasing amounts of ethyl acetate as eluents (250 mL each fraction). The second fraction (0.41 g) was washed with cold methanol, to afford kaurenoic acid (KA, *ent*-kaur-16-en-19-oic acid; 800 mg, purity 96%, as determined by HPLC), which was identified by spectroscopic analysis, compared by HPLC with authentic standard and comparison with literature data.^{31,32}

Animals. Male Swiss mice (25-30 g) from the Universidade Estadual de Londrina, Londrina, Parana, Brazil were used in this study. Mice were housed in standard clear plastic cages with free access to food and water, a light/dark cycle of 12:12 h, and kept at 21 °C. All behavioural testing was performed between 9 a.m.

and 5 p.m. in a temperature-controlled room. Animal care and handling procedures were approved by the Ethics Committee of the Universidade Estadual de Londrina (process number 1440.2011.09). All efforts were made to minimize the number of animals used and their suffering.

Nociception Tests. Electronic Pressure-meter Test. Mechanical hyperalgesia was tested in mice as previously reported.³³ In a quiet room, mice were placed in acrylic cages (12×10×17 cm) with wire grid floors, 15-30 min before the start of testing. The test consisted of evoking a hindpaw flexion reflex with a hand-held force transducer (electronic anesthesiometer; Insight, Ribeirao Preto, SP, Brazil) adapted with a 0.5 mm² polypropylene tip. The investigator was trained to apply the tip perpendicularly to the central area of the hindpaw with a gradual increase in pressure. The end point was characterized by the removal of the paw followed by clear flinching movements. After the paw withdrawal, the intensity of the pressure was recorded automatically. The value for the response was an average of three measurements. The animals were tested before and after treatment. The results are expressed by delta (Δ) withdrawal threshold (in g) calculated by subtracting the zero-time mean measurements from the mean measurements 3 h after stimulus. Withdrawal threshold was 9.1 ± 0.4 g (mean $\pm$ SEM; $n = 30$) before injection of the hyperalgesic agents (e.g., PGE₂, CFA or carrageenin).

Writhing Response Tests. The phenyl-*p*-benzoquinone (PBQ) and acetic acid-induced writhing models were performed as previously described.¹⁸ PBQ (diluted in DMSO 2%/saline, 1890 μ g/kg), acetic acid (0.8% v/v, diluted in saline, 10 mL/kg), or vehicle was injected into the peritoneal cavities of mice pre-treated with kaurenoic acid (**1**) (3-30 mg/kg, ip route). Each mouse was placed in a large glass cylinder and the intensity of nociceptive behaviour was quantified by counting the total number of writhes occurring between 0 and 20 min after stimulus injection. The writhing response consisted of a contraction of the abdominal muscle together with a stretching of hind limbs. The intensity of the writhing response was expressed as the cumulative writhing score over 20 min. Different individuals administered each test, prepared solutions to be injected, and performed the injections.

Formalin Test. The number of paw flinches and time spent licking the paw were determined between 0-30 min after intraplantar injection of 25 μ L of formalin 1.5%, as previously described.^{25,34} The period was divided in intervals of 5 min, and clearly demonstrated the presence of the first and second phases, which are characteristic of the method.^{25,34} Results were presented as first (0-15 min) and second phase (20-30 min).

Hot Plate Test. Mice were placed in a 10 cm-wide glass cylinder on a hot plate (IITC Life Science Inc. Woodland Hills, CA) maintained at 55 °C. Two control latencies at least 10 min apart were determined for each mouse. The normal latency (reaction time) was 5–9 s. The latency was also evaluated 1.5, 3.5 and 5.5 h after test compound administration. The reaction time was scored when the animal jumped or licked its paws. A maximum latency (cut-off) was set at 30 s to avoid tissue damage.²³

Measurement of Motor Performance. In order to discard possible non-specific muscle relaxant or sedative effects of kaurenoic acid (**1**), mice motor performance was evaluated on the rota-rod test.²⁸ The apparatus consisted of a bar with a diameter of 2.5 cm, subdivided into six compartments by disks 25 cm in diameter (Ugo Basile, Model 7600). The bar rotated at a constant speed of 22 rotations per min. The animals were selected 24 h previously by eliminating those mice that did not remain on the bar for two consecutive periods of 180 s. Animals were treated with vehicle (Tween 80 20% in saline) or **1** (10 mg/kg, po), and testing was performed 1.5, 3.5 and 5.5 h after treatment. The cut-off time used was 180 s.

Cytokine Measurement. Mice were treated with vehicle or kaurenoic acid (**1**) (10 mg/kg, po) 30 min before carrageenin (100 μ g/paw) stimulus. Three h after the injection of carrageenin, mice were terminally anesthetized, and the skin tissues were removed from the injected and control paws (saline and naive). The samples were homogenized in 500 μ L of buffer containing protease inhibitors, and IL-1 β and TNF- α levels were determined as described previously^{29,30} by an enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) using eBioscience kits. The results are expressed as picograms (pg) of cytokine/paw. As a control, the concentrations of these cytokines

were determined in animals injected with saline.

Statistical Analysis. Results are presented as mean $\pm$ S.E.M. of experiments made on 5 (Figures 3A, 4-6) or 6 (Figures 1-2, 3B) animals per group, and are representative of two separate experiments. Differences between groups were evaluated by analyses of variance (one-way ANOVA) followed by the Tukey's test. Statistical differences were considered to be significant at $p < 0.05$.

Acknowledgment. The authors gratefully acknowledge the technical assistance of Pedro S. R. Dionísio Filho. This work was supported by grants from Fundação de Amparo à Pesquisa do Estado de São Paulo (FAPESP, Brazil), Conselho Nacional de Pesquisa (CNPq, Brazil), Coordenadoria de Aperfeiçoamento de Pessoal de Nível Superior (CAPES, Brazil), and Fundação Araucária (Brazil).

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Legends to Figures

Figure 1. Kaurenoic acid (**1**) inhibits writhing response induced by acetic acid and phenyl-*p*-benzoquinone (PBQ). Mice were treated ip (Panel A) or po (Panel B) with **1** (3-30 mg/kg) or vehicle (DMSO 2% diluted in saline) 30 min before an acetic acid (Panel A) injection. In another set, mice were treated with **1** (10 mg/kg, po, 30 min) vehicle 30 min before a phenyl-*p*-benzoquinone (PBQ, Panel C) injection. Control groups were treated with indomethacin (5 mg/kg, ip) 40 min before acetic acid or PBQ injection. The cumulative number of writhings (writhing score) was evaluated for 20 min. $n = 6$ mice per group per experiment, representative of two separate experiments. [$* p < 0.05$ compared with the saline group, $^{\#} p < 0.05$ compared to the vehicle group and $** p < 0.05$ compared to the dose of 3 mg/kg of **1** (one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey test)].

Figure 2. Kaurenoic acid (**1**) inhibits paw flinch and time spent licking the paw induced by formalin and complete Freund's adjuvant (CFA). Mice were treated with **1** (10 mg/kg, po, 30 min) or vehicle before the injection of formalin (25 μ L of 1.5% formalin in saline, Panels A and B) or CFA (10 μ L/paw, Panels C and D). The total number of flinches (Panels A and C) and time spent licking the paw (Panels B and D) were evaluated for 30 min and expressed between 0-15 and 20-30 min (Panels A and B) or the cumulative number (Panels C and D). $n = 6$ mice per group per experiment, representative of two separate experiments. [$* p < 0.05$ compared with the saline group, $^{\#} p < 0.05$ compared to the vehicle group (one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey test)].

Figure 3. Treatment with kaurenoic acid (**1**) inhibits carrageenin- and CFA-induced mechanical hyperalgesia. Mice were treated with **1** (1-10 mg/kg, po, 30 min) or vehicle before the carrageenin (100 μ g/paw) injection (Panel A). In another set, mice were treated daily **1** (10 mg/kg, po) starting 1 h after CFA (10 μ L/paw) injection (Panel B). Control groups were treated with indomethacin 40 min (5 mg/kg, ip) before carrageenin or every 24 h starting 1 h after CFA (2 mg/kg, po). The intensity of hyperalgesia was measured 1-5 h (Panel A) or every 24 h (Panel B) by the electronic pressure-meter test. $n = 5$ mice per group per experiment, representative of two

separate experiments. [$* p < 0.05$ compared with the saline group, $^{\#} p < 0.05$ compared to the vehicle group and $** p < 0.05$ compared to the dose of 1 mg/kg of **1** (one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey test)].

Figure 4. Kaurenoic acid (**1**) inhibited TNF- α and IL-1 β production induced by carrageenin. Mice were treated with **1** (10 mg/kg, po, 30 min) or vehicle before the i.pl. injection of carrageenin. Three hours after carrageenin injection, mice were sacrificed and paw skin samples were collected for the determination of TNF- α and IL-1 β production. $n = 5$ mice per group per experiment, representative of two separate experiments. [$* p < 0.05$ compared with the saline group, and $^{\#} p < 0.05$ compared to the vehicle group (one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey test)].

Figure 5. Kaurenoic acid (**1**) reduced PGE₂-induced mechanical hyperalgesia. Mice were treated with **1** (10 mg/kg, po, 30 min) or vehicle before PGE₂ (100 ng/paw) injection. The intensity of mechanical hyperalgesia was measured 3 h after stimulus injection by the electronic pressure-meter test. $n = 5$ mice per group per experiment, representative of two separate experiments. [$* p < 0.05$ compared with the saline group, $^{\#} p < 0.05$ compared to the vehicle group (one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey test)].

Figure 6. Kaurenoic acid (**1**) inhibits inflammatory pain by activating the NO/cGMP/PKG/K+ATP channels signaling pathway. Mice were treated with L-NAME (NOS inhibitor, 10-90 mg/kg, ip) 60 min before **1** (10 mg/kg, po) treatment (Panel A). After additional 30 min, mice received i.pl. injection of carrageenin (100 μ g/paw), and mechanical hyperalgesia was evaluated after 3 h. Mice were treated with ODQ (Panel B, soluble cGMP inhibitor; 0.3 mg/kg, ip, diluted in 2% DMSO in saline), KT5823 (Panel C, PKG inhibitor; 0.5 μ g/mice, ip, diluted in 2% DMSO in saline, 5 min), glybenclamide (Panel D, K+ ATP channels blocker; 0.3 mg/kg, ip, diluted in 5% of Tween 80 in saline, 45 min) or the respective vehicle before **1** (10 mg/kg, po). After additional 30 min mice received i.pl. injection of carrageenin (100 μ g/paw). Mechanical hyperalgesia was measured 1, 3 and 5h after stimulus injection. $n = 5$ mice per group per experiment, representative of two separate experiments. [$* p < 0.05$ compared with the saline group, $^{\#} p < 0.05$ compared to the vehicle(s) group, $** p < 0.05$ compared to the groups treated only with **1**, and $^f p < 0.05$ compared to the dose of 10 mg/kg of L-NAME (Panel A) (one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey test)].

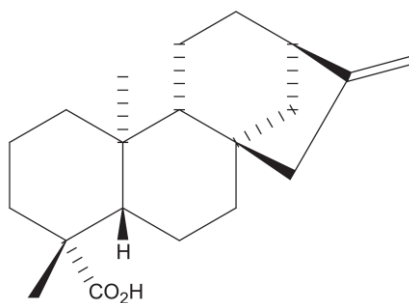
Structure Sheet**1**

Figure 1

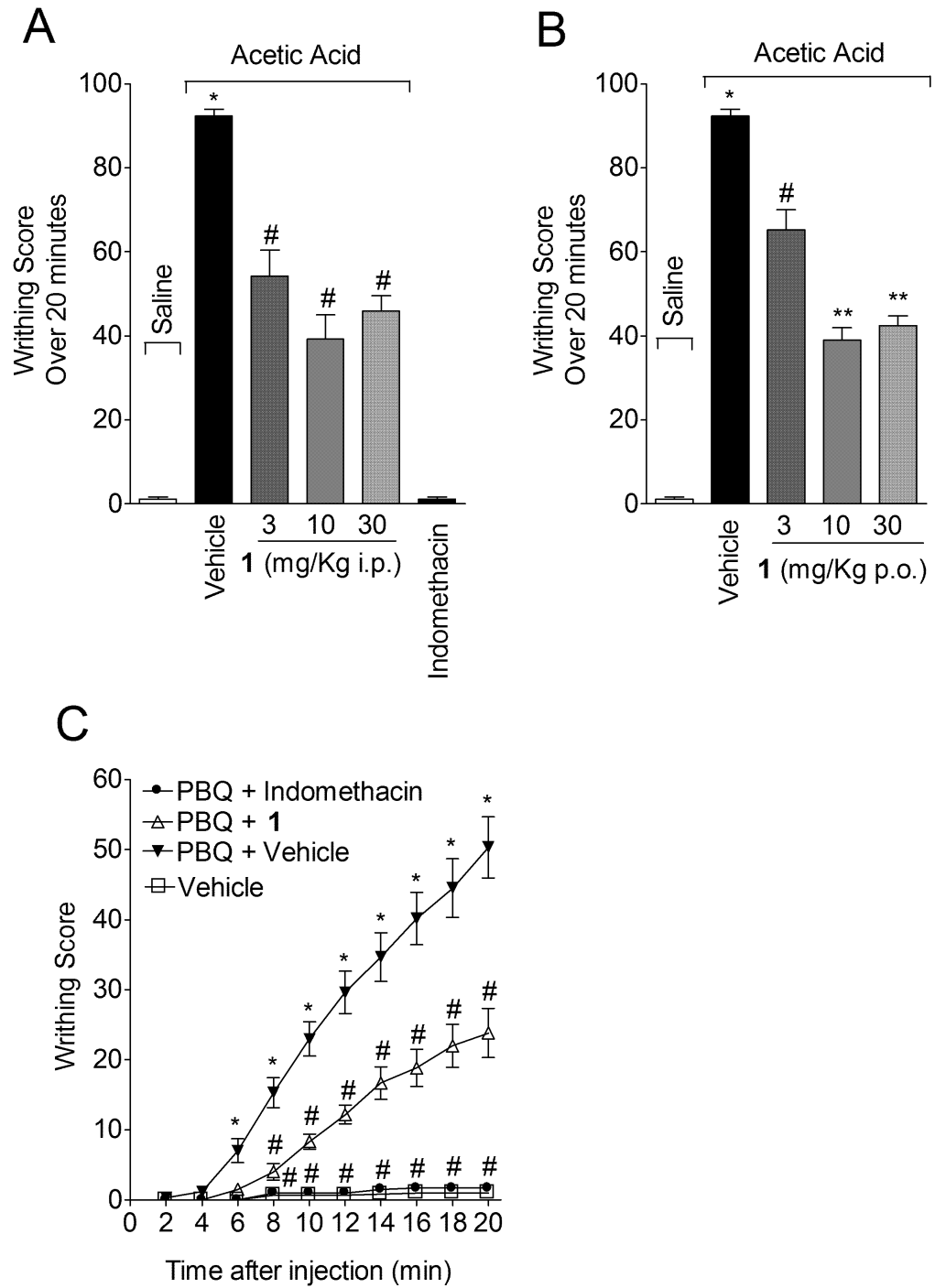


Figure 2

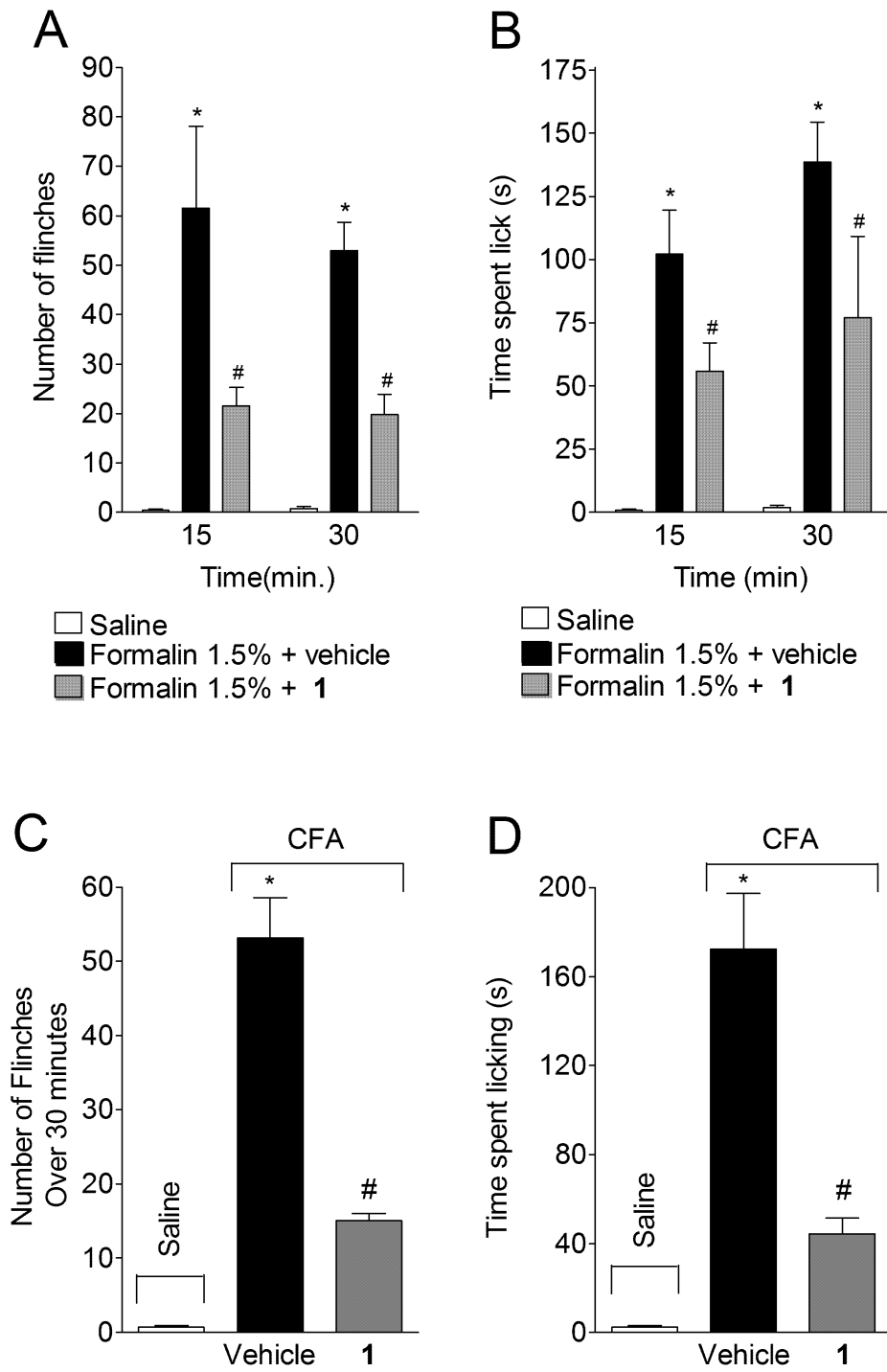


Figure 3

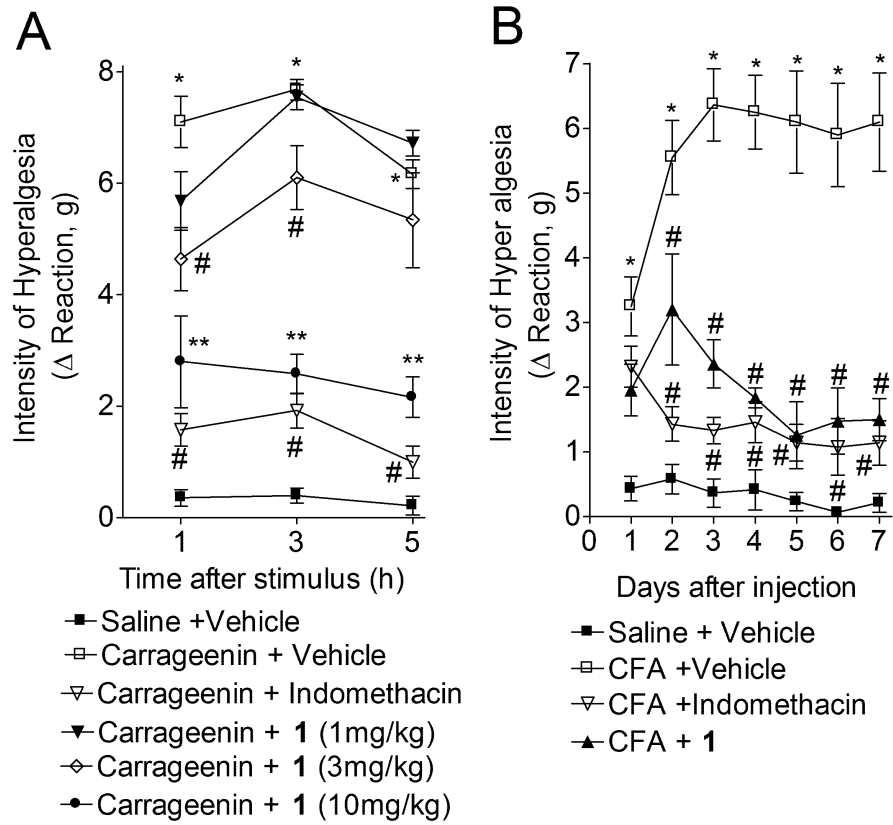


Figure 4

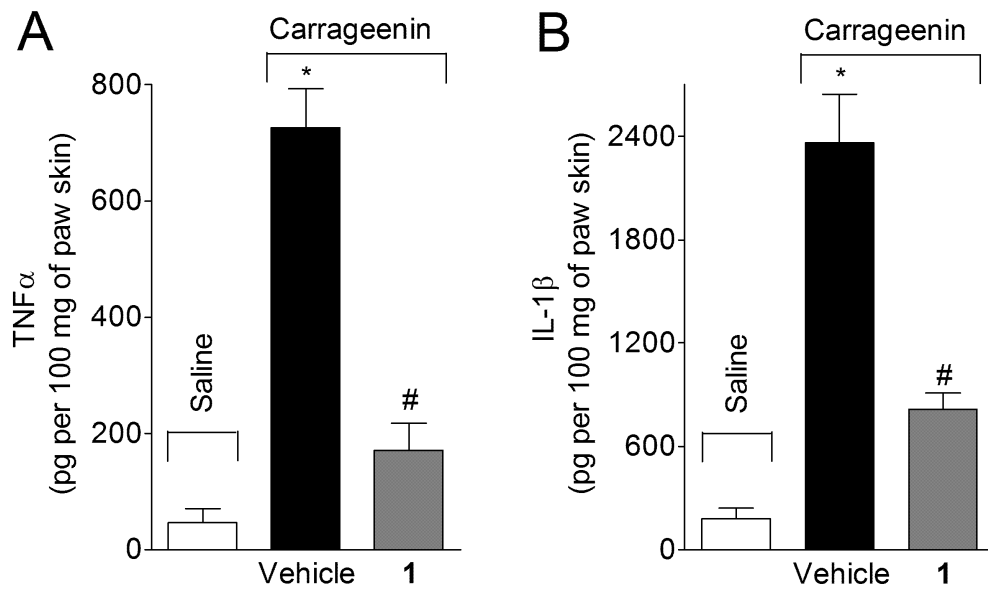


Figure 5

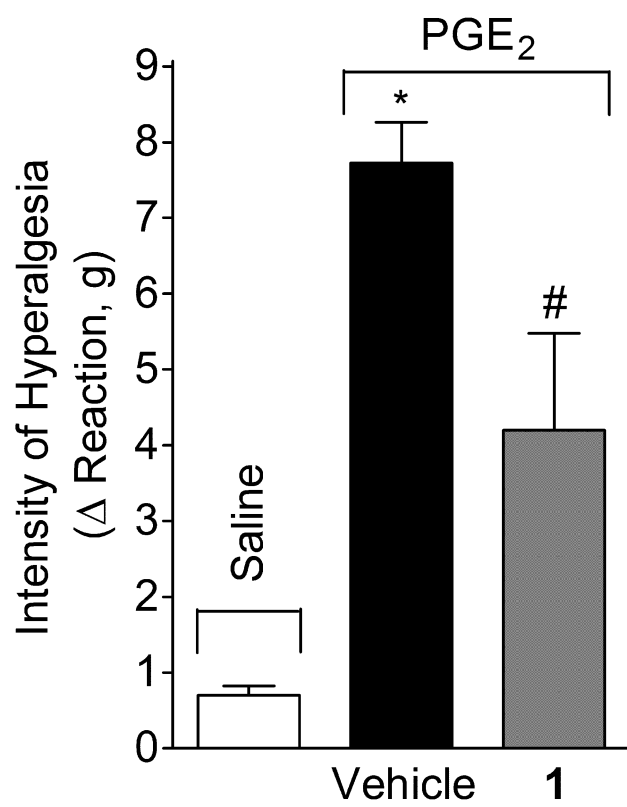
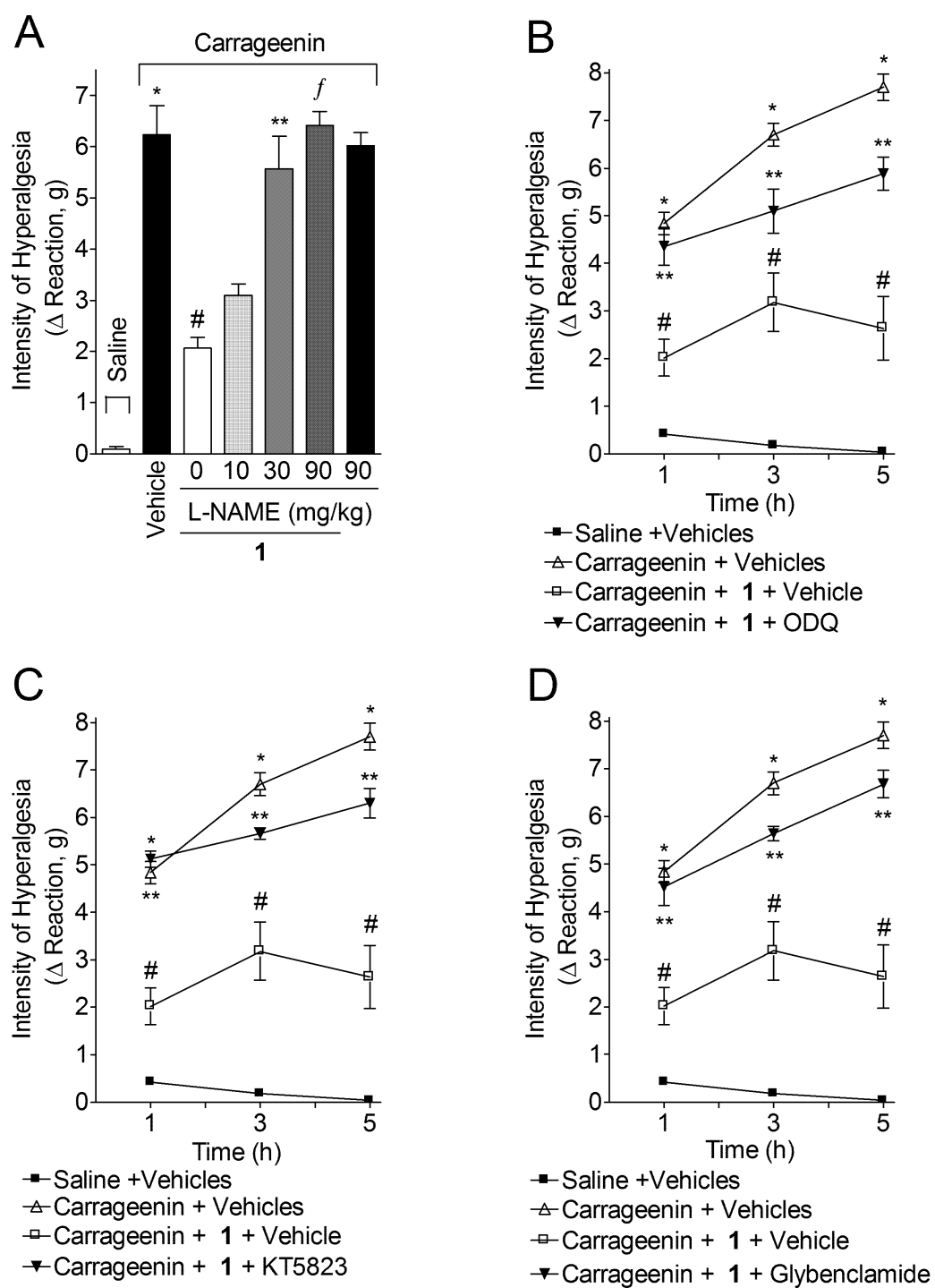


Figure 6



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ANEXOS

ANEXO A

Preparation and Submission of Manuscripts

Title Page

The title should appear on a separate page and should be followed by the author names and the institution name and address. The title, author name(s), and affiliations should all appear on their own respective line of text. Place an asterisk after the name of the author to whom enquiries regarding the paper should be directed and include that author's telephone and fax numbers and e-mail address. Author affiliations must be footnoted using the following symbols in order (which should be used as superscripts): †, ‡, §, ⊥, ||, ∇, O. In article titles, it is not necessary to use words like "new" or "novel" (with the latter referring specifically to a compound based on an unprecedented carbon skeleton) or to specify the number of new substances obtained.

Abstract

The abstract, detailing, in one paragraph, the problem, experimental approach, major findings, and conclusions, should appear on the second page. It should be double spaced and should not exceed 200 words for Full Papers and Reviews or 100 words for Notes and Rapid Communications. Compounds mentioned in the abstract, and given as specific Arabic numerals that are bolded in the text, should also be accompanied in the abstract by the same bolded numerals. The abstract should be on a separate page and should be untitled.

Introduction

The manuscript should include an untitled introduction stating the purpose of the investigation and relating the manuscript to similar research.

Results and Discussion

The results should be presented concisely. Tables and figures should be designed to maximize the presentation and comprehension of the experimental data. The

discussion should interpret the results and relate them to existing knowledge in the field in as clear and brief a fashion as possible. Authors submitting a manuscript as a Note should omit the heading "Results and Discussion". For Full Papers of unusual length, subheadings may be included within the Results and Discussion section.

Experimental Section

The presentation of specific details about instruments used, sources of specialized chemicals, and related experimental details should be incorporated into the text of the Experimental Section as a paragraph headed General Experimental Procedures. The general order for inclusion should be as follows: melting points; optical rotations; UV spectra; CD spectra; IR spectra; NMR spectra; mass spectra; and chromatographic and other techniques.

In a separate paragraph, experimental biological material should be reported as authenticated if cultivated or from a natural habitat, and the herbarium deposit site and voucher number should be recorded. The month and year when the organisms were collected should be stated, and it is recommended that the exact collection location be provided using a GPS navigation tool. All microorganisms used experimentally should bear a strain designation number and the culture collection in which they are deposited. The scientific name (genus, species, authority citation, and family) should be presented when first mentioned in the body of the manuscript. Thereafter, the authority should be eliminated, and the generic name should be reduced (except in tables and figure legends) to the first capital letter of the name (but avoid ambiguity, if two or more generic names have the same first letter).

If the biological material has not been identified as to species, the manuscript will not be considered for publication unless a special protocol has been followed. Thus, a voucher specimen of the organism should be deposited with a recognized taxonomist for the particular group of organisms in question. The taxonomist should then assign to the specimen an identifying number unique to the organism so that any additional collections of the same organism would bear this same number. The number will be retained until the organism is completely identified. The taxonomist should write a brief taxonomic description to be included in the manuscript, which should state how the organism in question relates morphologically to known species. Contributors are

encouraged to use DNA sequence analysis to assist with the taxonomic identification of unknown microorganisms, and to deposit these data in GenBank (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/>). Photographs of incompletely identified organisms may be included as Supporting Information. Authors should be aware of the fact that large-scale collection of marine or terrestrial organisms may have ecological effects. Authors describing an investigation derived from large-scale collections should thus include a statement in their manuscript (in the “Biological Material” paragraph of the Experimental Section) explaining why the collection had no significant adverse ecological effect or justifying such effect in terms of the benefit from the resulting work.

Authors who purchase dried “herbal remedies” or other materials from companies must make provision for their proper deposit in a herbarium, for access by future workers. When a commercially available extract is obtained, the extraction procedure from the organism of origin must be specified. The identification of the extract should be supported by an HPLC trace of known secondary metabolite constituents of the organism, which should be included in the manuscript as Supporting Information.

When physical and spectroscopic data are presented in the body of the manuscript, the following general style must be used (with the various commonly used techniques presented in this same order):

Romucosine (1): colorless needles (CHCl₃); mp 152–153 °C; [α]_{25D} –110 (c 0.4, CHCl₃); UV (EtOH) λ_{max} (log ϵ) 235 (4.23), 275 (4.18), 292 (sh) (3.52), 325 (3.41) nm; IR (Nujol) ν_{max} 1680, 1040, 920 cm^{–1}; ¹H NMR (CDCl₃, 400 MHz) δ 8.11 (1H, d, J = 7.6 Hz, H-11), 7.54–7.28 (2H, m, H-9, H-10), 7.27 (1H, m, H-8), 6.59 (1H, s, H-3), 6.10, 5.97 (each 1H, d, J = 1.5 Hz, OCH₂O), 4.86 (1H, dd, J = 13.7, 4.4 Hz, H-6a), 4.44 (1H, m, H-5a), 3.77 (3H, s, NCOOCH₃), 3.06 (1H, m, H-7a), 2.99 (1H, m, H-5b), 2.91 (1H, m, H-7b), 2.82 (1H, m, H-4a), 2.61 (1H, m, H-4b); ¹³C NMR (CDCl₃, 100 MHz) δ 155.8 (C, NCOOCH₃), 146.8 (C, C-2), 143.0 (C, C-1), 135.8 (C, C-7a), 130.7 (C, C-11a), 128.7 (CH, C-8), 127.79 (C, C-3a), 127.78 (CH, C-9), 127.2 (CH, C-10), 127.0 (CH, C-11), 125.6 (C, C-3b), 117.3 (C, C-1a), 107.6 (CH, C-3), 100.9 (CH₂, OCH₂O), 52.7 (CH₃, NCOOCH₃), 51.7 (CH, C-6a), 39.2 (CH₂, C-5),

34.5 (CH₂, C-7), 30.4 (CH₂, C-4); EIMS *m/z* 323 [M]⁺ (98), 308 (28), 292 (5), 262 (20), 248 (21), 236 (81), 235 (100), 206 (17), 178 (27), 88 (17); HREIMS *m/z* 323.1152 (calcd for C₁₉H₁₇O₄N, 323.1158).

The correct presentation of NMR spectroscopic data is shown in the table below.

Table 1. NMR Spectroscopic Data (400 MHz, C₆D₆) for Aurilides B (1) and C (2)

position	aurilide B (1)			aurilide C (2)	
	δ_C , type	δ_H (<i>J</i> in Hz)	HMBC ^a	δ_C	δ_H (<i>J</i> in Hz)
1	170.0, C			170.2	
2	58.9, CH	3.23, m	1, 3, 4, 5	59.6	3.08, m
3	13.8, CH ₃	1.21, d (7.1)	1, 2	14.0	1.25, d (7.1)
4	36.1, CH ₃	2.63, s	2, 5	36.8	2.55, s
5	172.1, C			172.1	
6	54.3, CH	5.12, dd (9.0, 7.4)	5, 7, 9	54.4	5.15, dd (9.0, 5.0)
7	31.0, CH	1.97, m		32.0	1.98, m
8	20.1, CH ₃	1.15, d (7.0)	6, 7, 9	20.4	1.17, d (7.0)
9	17.3, CH ₃	1.25, d (7.0)	6, 7, 8	17.5	1.28, d (7.0)
10	169.9, C			170.11	
11	51.8, CH ₂	4.40, d (18.0)	10, 12, 13	51.9	4.39, d (18.0)
		3.80, d (18.0)			3.80, d (18.0)
12	36.8, CH ₃	3.23, s	11, 13	37.1	3.22, s
13	170.0, C			170.14	
14	58.6, CH	5.24, d (10.0)	13, 18, 19, 20	58.7	5.26, d (10.0)
15	33.9, CH	2.48, m	14, 16, 18	34.1	2.49, m
16	27.4, CH ₂	1.86, 1.30, m	14, 15, 17	27.6	1.89, 1.30, m
17	12.1, CH ₃	1.03, t (7.1)		12.2	1.03, t (6.9)
18	14.8, CH ₃	0.85, d (7.0)	15, 16	15.1	0.86, d (7.0)
19	30.7, CH ₃	2.88, s	20	30.6	2.85, s
20	173.1, C			173.2	
21	54.7, CH	4.78, dd (8.8, 8.8)	20, 22	54.9	4.75, dd (8.6, 7.5)
22	31.7, CH	1.98, m		31.0	1.95, m
23	18.1, CH ₃	0.89, d (6.0)	21, 22, 24	18.9	0.88, d (6.0)
24	20.2, CH ₃	0.90, d (6.0)	23	20.3	0.90, d (6.0)
25	170.3, C			170.3	
26	78.5, CH	4.90, d (6.1)	25, 27, 31	80.4	4.54, d (7.5)
27	37.2, CH	2.17, m	26, 30	30.5	2.36, m
28	26.1, CH ₃	1.50, 1.14, m	29	18.7	1.00, d (7.0)
29	11.8, CH ₃	0.83, t (7.7)	27, 28	18.4	0.88, d (7.0)
30	14.9, CH ₃	1.03, d (6.0)	26, 27, 28	169.7	
31	169.3, C			128.3	
32	128.0, C			146.0	7.75, t (9.0)
33	145.3, CH	7.74, t (9.0)	31, 42	30.9	2.14, m
34	30.9, CH ₂	2.19, m	32, 33, 42	71.2	3.98, m
35	71.0, CH	3.97, m	34	41.2	2.02, m
36	41.1, CH	2.07, m	43	82.6	5.17, d (11.2)
37	82.5, CH	5.18, d (11.2)	1, 36, 38, 44	132.1	
38	131.4, C			134.6	5.62, t (7.7)
39	134.2, CH	5.61, t (7.7)	37, 44	21.4	1.95, 1.92, m
40	21.4, CH ₂	1.95, 1.92, m	38, 39, 41	14.3	0.89, t ^b
41	14.1, CH ₃	0.89, t ^b	39, 40	12.8	1.95, s
42	12.7, CH ₃	1.95, s	31, 32, 33	10.1	0.66, (7.0)
43	10.2, CH ₃	0.64, d (7.0)	35, 36, 37	11.4	1.54, s
44	11.3, CH ₃	1.54, s	37, 38, 39		
NH (1)		7.69 br, d (9.1)	10		7.66 br, d (9.1)
NH (2)		6.75 br, d (8.8)	25		6.70 br, d (8.8)

^aHMBC correlations, optimized for 6 Hz, are from proton(s) stated to the indicated carbon.

^bSignal partially obscured.

The correct format to present elemental analysis data is: anal. C 72.87, H 11.13%, calcd for C₃₇H₆₈O₆, C 73.02, H 11.18%. The structures of compounds are expected to be supported by high-resolution mass spectrometry or elemental analysis. Melting point determinations should not be provided for compounds described as “amorphous solids”. The unit of concentration to be used for optical rotation

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- (2) Cordell, G. A. *Introduction to Alkaloids: A Biogenetic Approach*; John Wiley & Sons: New York, 1981; p 43.
- (3) Pelletier, S. W.; Mody, N. V. In *The Alkaloids*; Rodrigo, R. G. A., Ed.; Academic Press: New York, 1981; Vol. 18, Chapter 2, pp 100–216.
- (4) Zheng, G.; KAKisawa, H. *Chin. Sci. Bull.* **1990**, 35, 1406–1407; *Chem. Abstr.* **1991**, 114, 43213m.

(5) Meyer, B. N. Brine Shrimp Toxicity: Certain Components of *Stapelia*, *Coryphantha*, *Lupinus*, and *Quinoa*. Ph.D. Thesis, Purdue University, West Lafayette, IN, 1983, p 35.

(6) Davis, R. U.S. Patent 5,708,591, 1998.

(7) The biogeographic zone comprising Madiera, the Canary Islands, the Cape Verde Islands, and the Azores.

For additional information on the reference and note format to use, see *The ACS Style Guide*, 3rd ed. (2006) (<http://pubs.acs.org/books>), available from Oxford University Press, Order Department, 2001 Evans Road, Cary, NC 27513 (<http://www.oup.com>).

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- *Nomenclature of Inorganic Chemistry, Recommendations, 1990*; Blackwell Scientific Publications: Oxford, England, 1990.
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- *Nomenclature of Organic Chemistry, Sections A–F and H*; Pergamon Press: Elmsford, NY, 1979.
- *Compendium of Macromolecular Nomenclature*; Blackwell Scientific Publications: Oxford, England, 1991.
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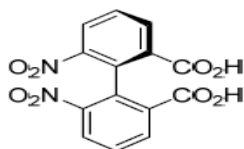
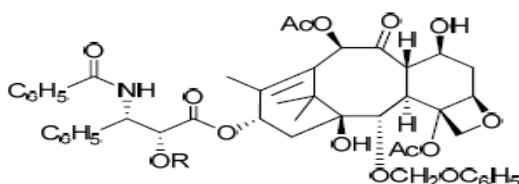
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