

Centro de Investigación Científica de Yucatán, A.C. Posgrado en Ciencias Biológicas

CARACTERIZACIÓN QUÍMICA Y ACTIVIDAD BIOLÓGICA DE PROPÓLEOS PRODUCIDOS EN EL ESTADO DE YUCATÁN

Tesis que presenta

Mercedes Guadalupe Herrera López En opción al título de Doctor en Ciencias Biológicas (Opción Recursos Naturales)

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RECONOCIMIENTO

Por medio de la presente, hago constar que el trabajo de tesis de Mercedes Guadalupe Herrera López titulado "Caracterización química y actividad biológica de propóleos producidos en el estado de Yucatán fue realizado en las unidades de Biotecnología y Recursos Naturales, en las líneas de Investigación de Agrobiodiversidad para la Sustentabilidad Ecológica y Cultural, grupo de Plantas Aromáticas y Biotecnología de Productos Naturales, en el Laboratorio de Química Orgánica del Centro de Investigación Científica de Yucatán, A.C. bajo la dirección de la Dra. Luz María Calvo Irabién y del Dr. Luis Manuel Peña Rodríguez, en el Programa de Posgrado en Ciencias Biológicas, Opción de Recursos Naturales de este Centro.

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RESUMEN

El propóleo es producido por las abejas a partir de resinas colectadas de brotes o exudados de plantas; es utilizado para sellar grietas y reducir el riesgo de enfermedades dentro de la colmena. La composición química del propóleo está estrechamente relacionada con la vegetación cercana al sitio de recolección y la especie de abeja que lo produce. Las propiedades medicinales de los propóleos son bien conocidas, reportándose hasta ahora actividades como antimicrobiana, antiinflamatoria, antioxidante y citotóxica. Dado que los estudios sobre la composición química y la actividad biológica del propóleo producido en México, y particularmente en Yucatán, son limitados, el objetivo principal de este proyecto fue llevar a cabo la caracterización de la composición química de propóleos producidos por Apis mellifera y por abejas sin aquijón de las especies: Melipona beecheii, Trigona nigra, Nannotrigona perilampoides, Scaptotrigona pectoralis, Partamona bilineata y Plebeia frontalis, colectados en diversas localidades de la Península de Yucatán, y relacionar dicha composición con probables fuentes botánicas. Un segundo objetivo fue la evaluación de la actividad biológica de los propóleos analizados. Los resultados obtenidos permitieron detectar 93 metabolitos secundarios en las diferentes muestras; los triterpenos resultaron ser los metabolitos mayoritarios de los propóleos yucatecos. El uso de análisis multivariados permitió establecer diferencias entre la composición química de los propóleos producidos por A. mellifera y abejas sin aguijón. Asimismo, se demostró que, si bien existe variación en la composición del propóleo producido por A. mellifera en dos tipos de vegetación, las diferencias observadas no resultaron significativas. La evaluación de los extractos de propóleo en diferentes modelos para la detección de actividad biológica, mostró que ninguna de las muestras posee actividad antimicrobiana o antiproliferativa, en tanto que nueve extractos mostraron actividad citotóxica contra la línea celular de cáncer cervicouterino y cinco fueron activos contra la línea celular de cáncer de mama. Adicionalmente, tres extractos mostraron una baja actividad anti-AGES y otros tres mostraron actividad antioxidante. Los metabolitos responsables de la actividad antioxidante en los extractos de propóleo se identificaron como lípidos resorcinólicos y se demostró que provienen de la resina de Mangifera indica. Este es el primer reporte sobre la composición química y actividad biológica de propóleos producidos por cinco de las seis especies de abejas sin aquijón analizadas. Los resultados de esta investigación confirman que la composición química de los propóleos yucatecos es particularmente diferente a la reportada para otras muestras de propóleo colectadas en diferentes regiones del mundo, y que una de las principales fuentes botánicas para la producción de este material es la resina de *Bursera simaruba*. Finalmente, la marcada actividad citotóxica de los extractos de propóleo, particularmente la del propóleo de abejas sin aguijón, sienta las bases para el desarrollo de futuras investigaciones con el propósito de identificar los metabolitos responsables de esta actividad.

ABSTRACT

Propolis is produced by bees from resins collected from buds or plant exudates; it is used to seal cracks and reduce the risk of diseases within the hive. The chemical composition of propolis is closely related to the vegetation near the collection site and the bee species that produces it. The medicinal properties of propolis are well known, with activities reported as antimicrobial, antiinflammatory, antioxidant and cytotoxic. Since studies on the chemical composition and biological activity of propolis produced in Mexico, and particularly in Yucatan, are limited, the main objective of this project was to carry out the characterization of the chemical composition of propolis produced by Apis mellifera and by stingless bees of the species Melipona beecheii, Trigona nigra, Nannotrigona perilampoides, Scaptotrigona pectoralis, Partamona bilineata and Plebeia frontalis, collected in different locations of the Yucatan Peninsula, and relate this composition with probable botanical sources. A second objective was the evaluation of the biological activity of the analyzed propolis. The results obtained allowed the detection of 93 secondary metabolites in the different samples; triterpenes turned out to be the major metabolites of yucatecan propolis. The use of multivariate analysis allowed establishing differences between the chemical composition of the propolis produced by A. mellifera and the stingless bees. Likewise, it was shown that although there is variation in the composition of propolis produced by A. mellifera in two types of vegetation, the differences observed were not significant. The evaluation of propolis extracts in different models for the detection of biological activity showed that none of the samples has antimicrobial or antiproliferative activity, while nine extracts showed cytotoxic activity against the cervical cancer cell line and five were active against the line breast cancer cell. Additionally, three extracts showed a low anti-AGEs activity and three others showed antioxidant activity. The metabolites responsible for antioxidant activity in propolis extracts were identified as resorcinolic lipids and were shown to come from the Mangifera indica resin. This is the first report on the chemical composition and biological activity of propolis produced by five of the six species of stingless bees studied. The results of this investigation confirm that the chemical composition of the yucatecan propolis is particularly different to that reported for other samples of propolis collected in different regions of the world, and one of the main botanical sources for the production of this material is the resin of Bursera simaruba. Finally, the marked cytotoxic activity of propolis extracts, particularly those of stingless

bees,	provides	the basis	for the	developme	nt of	future	research	with	the	purpose	of
identify	ying	the	metabol	lites re	espor	nsible	for	th	is	activ	ity.

INTRODUCCION

Si bien la miel es el producto apícola de uso más extendido, existen otros productos de las abejas por los que la humanidad ha mostrado gran interés, entre ellos se pueden mencionar la cera, el polen, la jalea real y el propóleo. Sacerdotes del antiguo Egipto aprovechaban este último como medicina y como ungüento embalsamador desde hace al menos tres mil años (Kuropatnicki *et al.*, 2013).

El propóleo es un material elaborado por las abejas corbiculadas de las tribus Apini y Meliponini, a partir de exudados vegetales resinosos que colectan de algunas plantas y que mezclan con ceras producidas por las abejas en glándulas especializadas (Lotti *et al.*, 2010; Salatino *et al.*, 2011). Los propóleos producidos por especies de abejas sin aguijón (tribu Meliponini) también son llamados geopropóleos, pues algunas abejas mezclan las resinas colectadas con materiales como tierra y restos vegetales (Barth, 2004; Barth y Fernandes, 2003).

El propóleo es utilizado dentro de la colmena para diversos fines, incluyendo la reducción de flujos de aire, la inhibición del crecimiento microbiano y la protección contra invasores (Quezada-Euán, 2018); algunas abejas silvestres también los utilizan para la construcción de la colmena (Salatino *et al.*, 2005; Simone-Finstrom y Spivak, 2010).

La composición de los propóleos presenta gran variación (Huang *et al.*, 2014), esto se debe, en general, a factores extrínsecos a las abejas como la temperatura y humedad ambiental, así como el estado ontogénico y fisiológico de las plantas de donde se obtienen los materiales para su fabricación (Bankova, 2009; Langenheim, 2003), y a su vez, a factores intrínsecos como la especie de abeja o incluso diferencias genéticas entre abejas de la misma especie (Salatino *et al.*, 2011; Sawaya *et al.*, 2006).

A la fecha, se han identificado más de trecientos metabolitos en distintas muestras de propóleo colectadas alrededor del mundo; sin embargo, las investigaciones se han centrado en materiales producidos por *A. mellifera* (Toreti *et al.*, 2013), en tanto que el conocimiento de la composición química y actividad biológica de propóleo de abejas sin aguijón es muy escaso.

INTRODUCCION

Actualmente, el conocimiento sobre la composición y la actividad biológica del propóleo producido en México, tanto por *A. mellifera* como por abejas sin aguijón, es limitado. Con base en lo anterior, los objetivos de esta investigación fueron caracterizar químicamente los propóleos colectados en la Península de Yucatán, analizar el efecto de la especie de abeja y de la vegatación sobre la composición del propóleo, identificar algunas fuentes botánicas del material y evaluar la actividad biológica de las diferentes muestras.

ANTECEDENTES

1.1. El propóleo

El propóleo es un producto resinoso elaborado por abejas de las tribus Apini y Meliponini, cuya composición varía de acuerdo a factores como la especie y el tipo de vegetación del sitio (Huang *et al.*, 2014; Salatino *et al.*, 2011; Toreti *et al.*, 2013). Análisis de propóleos producidos por *A. mellifera* muestran que en promedio están conformados por 55% de resinas y/o bálsamos, 30% de ceras excretadas por las abejas, 7% de aceites esenciales, 5% de polen y 3% de materiales varios (Huang *et al.*, 2014).

1.2. Propóleos producidos por Apis mellifera

Los propóleos más estudiados a nivel mundial son los producidos por A. mellifera. Salatino et al. (2011) propusieron una clasificación de estos con base en sus patrones quimio-geográficos (Figura 1.1), señalando que el propóleo tipo I ocurre en climas templados (oeste de Asia, Europa y Norte américa), su principal fuente botánica es el exudado resinoso del álamo (Populus nigra, Salicaceae); los principales componentes encontrados en este tipo de propóleo son flavonoides sin sustituyentes en el anillo B como la crisina y ésteres de fenil propanoides como el fenil éster del ácido cafeico. El propóleo tipo II es el llamado propóleo verde brasileño, su principal fuente de resina es Baccharis dracunculifolia y contiene principalmente fenil propanoides prenilados como la artepilina y ácidos cafeoilquínicos. El propóleo tipo III se encuentra en Cuba y Venezuela, donde la principal fuente de resina son flores de especies del género Clusia; contiene principalmente benzofenonas preniladas como la nemorosona. El propóleo tipo IV es encontrado en regiones del pacífico como Taiwan y Oceanía; este tipo de propóleo deriva de exudados de los frutos de la especie Macaranga tanarius, sus componentes principales son geranil flavanonas. Finalmente, el propóleo tipo V se encuentra en Grecia, Creta y Turquía, contiene principalmente diterpenos como el ácido isocuprésico o antraquinonas como el crisofanol. Las fuentes principales de estos diterpenos son especies de la familia Cupressaceae, las cuales son bastante cultivadas en dichas

regiones; sin embargo, nada se ha sugerido aún sobre el origen específico de las antraquinonas (Salatino *et al.*, 2011).



Figura 1.1. Distribución de algunos tipos de propóleo. I. Flavonoides sin sustituyentes en el anillo B (*e.g.* crisina 1) y ésteres de fenilpropanoides (*e.g.* fenil éster de ácido cafeico o CAPE 2). II. Fenil propanoides prenilados (*e.g.* artepilin C, 3) y ácidos cafeoilquínicos (*e.g.* ácido clorogénico 4). III. Benzofenonas polipreniladas (*e.g.* nemorosona 5). IV. Geranil flavonoides (*e.g.* nimfaeol- β 6). V. Diterpenos (*e.g.* ácido isocuprésico, 7) o antraquinonas (*e.g.*8). Modificado de Salatino *et al.*, 2011.

1.3. Propóleos producidos por abejas sin aguijón

El propóleo producido por abejas sin aguijón más estudiado es el de Brasil, donde 89 de las especies son endémicas (Lavinas *et al.*, 2018). El propóleo del género *Melipona* es el más estudiado, tal como el de *M. monduri*, que esta compuesto principalmente por ácido gálico e isómeros del ácido comúnico (Santos *et al.*, 2017); *M. orbignyi* conformado por ácidos aromáticos, alcoholes y terpenos (Campos *et al.*, 2014) y *M. fasciculata*, que presenta ácidos fenólicos y taninos hidrolizables (Dutra *et al.*, 2014), triterpenos y ácidos anacárdicos (Araujo *et al.*, 2015) como components principales.

Recientemente, se analizaron nueve muestras de propóleo producido por *M. subnitida* colectadas en diferentes meses, de donde se identificaron 51 compuestos fenólicos entre los que se encuentran el ácido elágico y 12 flavonoides (Souza *et al.*, 2018b).

Además también existen análisis sobre propóleo de *Scaptotrigona postica,* compuesto principalmente por flavonoides (Ferreira *et al.*, 2017) y el propóleo de *S. depilis* que contiene fitoesteroles, terpenos, compuestos fenólicos y tocoferol (Bonamigo *et al.*, 2017), así como el propóleo producido por *Frieseomellita longipes* en el que el componente mayoritario fue el sesquiterpeno β -cariofileno (Souza *et al.*, 2018a).

A su vez, en sitios como Vietnam (Nguyen *et al.*, 2017) y Malasia (Zhao *et al.*, 2017) se ha reportado la composición de propóleo producido por *Trigona minor* y *Heterotrigona itama*, respectivamente, ambos conteniendo principalmente triterpenos tipo cicloartano.

1.4. Propiedades biológicas de los propóleos

Numerosos estudios han revelado diversas actividades biológicas de los propóleos, entre las que se encuentran la antibacteriana, antimicótica, antioxidante, antiinflamatoria, cicatrizante, citotóxica, anestésica, antitumoral y hepatoprotectora (Bankova *et al.*, 2014; Huang *et al.*, 2014; Toreti *et al.*, 2013).

1.4.1. Actividad antimicrobiana

La actividad antimicrobiana del propóleo varía entre muestras colectadas en distintas regiones geográficas; el propóleo producido por *A. mellifera* colectado en Grecia contiene los diterpenos totarol y totarolona, que presentaron actividad contra *Staphylococcus aureus*, *S. epidermis*, *Pseudomona aeruginosa* y *Escherichia coli* (Popova *et al.*, 2009); en colectas de Indonesia, se reportó a la propolina como el metabolito con mayor actividad contra *S. aureus* (Trusheva *et al.*, 2011).

Son pocos los estudios relacionados con la actividad antifúngica de propóleos contra hongos fitopatógenos y alteradores de alimentos; en particular, se reportó actividad antifúngica contra *Aspergillus versicolor* en la conservación de quesos (Aly y Elewa, 2007). Adicionalmente, se ha evaluado la actividad antimicótica de propóleo de diferentes regiones de Argentina, encontrando que la actividad contra los hongos fitopatógenos

Fusarium sp, Macrophomina sp, Phomopsis sp, Aspergillus niger y *Thichoderma spp*, está relacionada con los flavonoides galangina y pinocembrina (Chaillou y Nazareno, 2009).

Los propóleos elaborados por abejas sin aguijón también poseen actividades terapéuticas; diversos estudios sugieren una actividad similar a los propóleos producidos por *A. mellifera* (Pereira *et al.*, 2008).

En el propóleo de *Melipona quadrifasciata anthidioides* se reportó al ácido kaurenoico como el principal responsable de su actividad antibacterial (Velikova *et al.*, 2000); en extractos de propóleo colectados en colonias del género *Trigona*, los metabolitos mayoritarios fueron alcanos, ácidos tiofílicos, ácidos aromáticos, azúcares, ésteres y terpenos, y presentaron actividad antimicrobiana contra microorganismos como *Bacillus subtilis, Staphylococcus epidermidis, Candida glabrata y Streptococcus pyogenes* (Choudhari *et al.*, 2012).

Recientemente se reportó que el extracto de *F. longipes* mostró actividad contra *B. cereus*, *S. aureus*, *P. aeruginosa* y *E. coli* (Souza *et al.*, 2018a) y los extractos de propóleo de *M. quadrifasciata* y *T. angustula* mostraron actividad contra *S. aureus* y *Enterococcus faecalis* (Torres *et al.*, 2018).

1.4.2. Actividad antioxidante

Se han reportado varios trabajos que evaluaron la actividad antioxidante en propóleos elaborados por *A. mellifera* de lugares como Brasil (Silva *et al.*, 2006; Frozza *et al.*, 2013; Righi *et al.*, 2011), Portugal (Falcao *et al.*, 2013), Korea (*Ahn et al., 2004; Choi et al.*, 2006), China (Ahn *et al.*, 2007), Uruguay (Silva *et al.*, 2011), Chile (Russo *et al.*, 2004), Turquía (Gulcin *et al.*, 2010), Italia (Gregoris y Stevanato, 2010), Grecia (Kalogeropoulos *et al.*, 2009) y México (Velazquez *et al.*, 2007); de igual manera, en propóleos producidos por abejas sin aguijón de Argentina (Brodkiewicz *et al.*, 2018), Indonesia (Pratami *et al.*, 2017; Zainal *et al.*, 2014) y Brasil (Araújo *et al.*, 2016; Pazin *et al.*, 2017; Torres *et al.*, 2018). En estos trabajos se relaciona la actividad antioxidante con la cantidad de fenoles totales, pues metabolitos como galangina, ácido cafeico y su éster fenetílico, ácido ferúlico, quercetina y catequina (Figura 1.2) han sido reportados como los principales responsables de esta actividad.



Figura 1. 2. Metabolitos fenólicos reportados como activos en una gran cantidad de investigaciones. 1- galangina, 2- ácido cafeico y 3- su ester fenetílico, 4- ácido ferúlico, 5- quercetina y 6- catequina.

1.4.3. Actividad antiproliferativa y citotóxica

Se han analizado múltiples muestras de propóleo en la búsqueda de metabolitos con actividad antiproliferativa y citotóxica, encontrando a los componentes fenólicos como responsables de dichas actividades en muestras de *A. mellifera* de Nueva Zelanda (Catchpole *et al.*, 2015), China (Usia *et al.*, 2002), Brasil (Banskota *et al.*, 1998) y Países Bajos (Banskota *et al.*, 2002); sin embargo, en propóleo griego reportan al diterpeno manol (Figura 1.3) como el metabolito con una mayor actividad antiproliferativa contra células de adenocarcinoma de colon humano (Pratsinis *et al.*, 2010), en propóleo de Birmania se reportó al ácido (22Z,24E)-3-oxocicloart-22,24-dien-26-oico, un triterpeno tipo cicloartano (Figura 1.3), como el metabolito con mayor actividad citotóxica contra células de melanoma (Li *et al.*, 2009) y en una muestra de propóleo colectado en Cuba se

identificó a la nemorosona (Figura 1.3), un acilfloroglucinol policíclico poliprenilado, como el metabolito más activo contra células de cáncer de mama (Popolo *et al.*, 2011).



Figura 1.3. Metabolitos bioactivos identificados recientemente en propóleos. 1) manol, 2) ácido (22*Z*,24*E*)-3-oxocicloart-22,24-dien-26-oico, 3) nemorosona, 4) cardol.

En muestras de propóleo de abejas sin aguijón de la especie *Trigona laeviceps* colectadas en Tailandia, se encontró actividad antiproliferativa contra células de carcinoma de colon (Umthong *et al.*, 2009). El propóleo de *Mellipona scutelaris* colectado en Brasil, compuesto principalmente por benzofenonas, presentó actividad antiproliferativa contra varias líneas celulares cancerígenas (Cunha *et al.*, 2016). En una muestra de Indonesia producida por *Trigona incisa* se identificó al cardol (5-pentadecil resorcinol) (Figura 1.3) como el metabolito más activo contra células de cáncer de colon (Kustiawan *et al.*, 2015). Existe un gran número de publicaciones considerando la acción antitumoral de los propóleos y sus constituyentes, lo que indica su potencial para desarrollar nuevos agentes antitumorales (Watanabe *et al.*, 2011).

1.5. La apicultura en México

En México la apicultura es una actividad comercial de gran importancia. En 2007 se produjeron 114,002 toneladas de miel, 1,048 toneladas de cera, 65 toneladas de propóleo y 29 toneladas de polen (INEGI, 2007).

De acuerdo con los diferentes climas y vegetación, el país está dividido en cinco regiones apícolas (Figura 1.4), las cuales comprenden: la región Norte, Costa del Pacífico, Golfo, Altiplano y Península de Yucatán, esta última es la más importante por su volumen de producción de miel, aportando el 72% de la producción nacional (INEGI, 2007).



Figura 1.4. Regiones apícolas de México (INEGI, 2007).

La región Península de Yucatán está formada por los estados de Campeche, Yucatán, Quintana Roo y parte de Chiapas (noroeste) y Tabasco (oriente); el 18.3% de la producción nacional de miel se obtiene sólo del estado de Yucatán, ubicándolo en la posición número dos, después de Campeche. En contraste, la producción de propóleo sólo llega a 30 kilos, a pesar de la gran infraestructura apícola que tiene el estado (INEGI, 2007).

1.6. Meliponicultura en la Península de Yucatán

Apis mellifera es la especie de abeja más utilizada para la obtención de miel, a partir de su introducción a la Península de Yucatán en 1880 (Ortiz *et al.*, 2016); sin embargo, la apicultura a escala comercial en la Península de Yucatán fue desarrollada desde tiempos precolombinos utilizando abejas nativas sin aguijón (Chambo, 2016).

La meliponicultura fue desarrollada utilizando principalmente abejas de la especie Melipona beecheii, la cual fue aprovechada por los Mayas de la región dentro de sus

solares; la preferencia se sigue observando en agricultores yucatecos actuales que continúan explotando domésticamente a esta especie (Ayala, 1999; González-Acereto, 2012; Pino *et al.*, 2006). Un inventario de colmenas realizado en 2004, ubicó 400 meliponicultores con un total aproximado de 4,500 colmenas en troncos (hobones) (González-Acereto *et al.*, 2006); sin embargo, no se encontraron datos sobre volúmenes de producción de miel, ceras o propóleos. Además de esta especie de abeja sin aguijón, en la Península de Yucatán se distribuyen al menos 16 especies más cuyos productos (miel, cera, propoleo) son aprovechados en menor medida (González-Acereto, 2012). Las especies son: *Mellipona beecheii, M. yucatanica, Plebeia frontalis, P. moureana, P. parkeri, P. pulcra, Nannotrigona perilampoides, Trigona nigra, T. fulviventris*, T. *fuscipennis, Trigonisca maya, Trogonisca pipioli, Cephalotrigona zexmeniae, Lestrimelitta niitkib, Partamona orizabaensi y Scaptotrigona pectoralis* (Ayala, 1999).

1.7. Estudios sobre propóleo realizados en México

Los estudios reportados sobre propóleo en la zona apícola Norte se han llevado a cabo en el estado de Sonora, donde reportaron la presencia de flavonoides como componentes mayoritarios, principalmente pinocembrina, pinobanksina y crisina; las resinas utilizadas por las abejas en esa zona provienen de plantas del género *Populus*, en estos mismos trabajos también se encontró una importante actividad antiproliferativa de los extractos analizados (Hernandez *et al.*, 2007; Li *et al.*, 2010).

De la región Altiplano se tienen dos reportes, uno de propóleos colectados en San Luis Potosí, donde se reporta actividad antimicrobiana contra bacterias como *E. coli, Salmonella typhimurium*, y *Sterptococcus agalactiae* (Carrillo *et al.*, 2011), mientras que muestras colectadas en el estado de México presentaron flavonas, derivados del ácido cinámico y del ácido cafeico que fueron activos contra *S. aureus* y *Vibrio cholerae* (Londono *et al.*, 2010).

No se encontraron reportes de propóleos en las zonas Costa del Pacífico ni Golfo.

En la región Península de Yucatán (Figura 1.4) se tienen reportes sobre propóleos colectados en Campeche, Quintana Roo y Yucatán. Los propóleos de Champotón, Campeche, contienen principalmente flavanonas, isoflavanos y pterocarpanos y se propuso a las resinas de plantas del género *Dalbergia* como probable fuente botánica; en
otros trabajos con colectas de varias localidades de ese mismo estado, se reportó actividad antimicrobiana contra *Pseudomona aeruginosa* y *S. typhimurium*; la presencia de esta actividad se correlacionó con el disolvente utilizado para la obtención de los extractos, así como con el sitio de colecta (Lotti *et al.*, 2010; Tolosa y Cañizares, 2002).

En el estado de Quintana Roo se encontraron triterpenos pentacíclicos como componentes mayoritarios tales como α - y β -amirina y sus derivados, así como esteroles; esta muestra no mostró actividad antioxidante, antifúngica ni antimicrobiana; se propuso como fuente botánica de este propóleo la resina del árbol de *Bursera simaruba (Boisard et al.*, 2015). En el estado de Yucatán sólo hay un reporte publicado acerca de la composición de propóleo, en el cual se compara una muestra producida por *A. mellifera* y una de *Melipona beecheii*, encontrando diterpenos como componentes mayoritarios (Pino *et al.*, 2006).

Se reporta sólo un estudio referente a propóleo producido por abejas sin aguijón de la especie *Melipona beecheii* de colectas de Veracruz, donde se encontraron terpenoides como componentes mayoritarios (Torres-González *et al.*, 2016).

La información acerca de la composición y la actividad biológica de propóleo colectado en México es limitada, y más aún, la información sobre propóleo producido por abejas sin aguijón; sin embargo, en los últimos años este producto ha cobrado interés, tanto que, en octubre de 2017 se publicó la Norma Oficial Mexicana NOM-003-SAG/GAN-2017: Propóleos, producción y especificaciones para su procesamiento; en donde los parámetros medidos son el contenido de flavonoides y fenoles totales y la determinación de la actividad antimicrobiana. La caracterización química y la determinación de la actividad biológica del propóleo yucateco será un precedente para futuras investigaciones.

JUSTIFICACIÓN

El conocimiento sobre la composición química y la actividad biológica de los propóleos en México y en particular en Yucatán, es muy limitado, por lo que la caracterización química y la evaluación de la actividad biológica de los propóleos producidos en Yucatán, además de generar conocimientos sobre la naturaleza de este material, permitirá establecer la importancia farmacológica y económica que podría dársele a este producto de las abejas que, hasta ahora, ha sido poco aprovechado.

HIPÓTESIS

La composición del propóleo del estado de Yucatán varía dependiendo de la especie de abeja y de la vegetación presente en el sitio de colecta, por lo que presentará distintas actividades biológicas.

OBJETIVO GENERAL

Describir la variabilidad en la composición química y la actividad biológica de propóleos colectados en el estado de Yucatán y su relación con la vegetación circundante y la especie de abeja que lo produce.

OBJETIVOS ESPECÍFICOS

- Determinar la composición química de los propóleos producidos en distintas localidades de Yucatán y a su vez, el efecto que tienen el tipo de abeja y la vegetación sobre la composición.
- II. Evaluar la actividad antimicrobiana, antioxidante, anti-AGEs, antiproliferativa y citotóxica de los propóleos colectados en el estado de Yucatán.
- III. Relacionar la composición química de las muestras de propóleos con la flora resinífera circundante.



CHEMICAL PROFILING AND MULTIVARIATE ANALYSIS OF SOUTHEASTERN MEXICAN PROPOLIS

Resumen

El uso del propóleo representa para las abejas el principal mecanismo de defensa para sus colmenas, pues es utilizado dentro y fuera de estas para sellar grietas, reducir el crecimiento microbiano y embalsamar invasores. Las abejas productoras de propóleo, también conocidas como abejas corbiculadas, pertenecen a las tribus Apini y Meliponini; sin embargo, a nivel mundial, los estudios sobre su composición y actividad biológica se han concentrado más en propóleo producido por la especie A. mellifera. De manera general se sabe que la composición del propóleo depende de varios factores entre los que se encuentran la especie de abeja que lo produce, la vegetación que circunda el área de colecta, la estacionalidad, entre otros. Los análisis multivariados se han utilizado como herramientas para encontrar patrones y relaciones entre varias muestras de propóleos y variables que expliquen las diferencias en su composición. En México, las investigaciones acerca de la composición química de propóleo producido tanto por A. mellifera como por abejas sin aguijón, son limitadas. En este estudio se analizaron 45 muestras de propóleos producidas por A. mellifera y las especies de abejas sin aguijón M. beecheii, Trigona nigra, Nannotrigona perilampoides, Partamona bilineata, Scaptotrigona pectoralis, y Plebeia frontalis, colectadas en 33 localidades dentro de la Península de Yucatán. Mediante el uso de análisis multivariados se determinó que la composición de los propóleos depende principalmente de la especie de abeja que lo produce.

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2.1. INTRODUCTION

The use of propolis by humans is as old as the use of honey; there are reports that suggest its use by ancient Egyptians to alleviate many ailments and for embalming (Kuropatnicki *et al.*, 2013). Resin collecting bees known as corbiculate bees or bees with basket for pollen, such as the honey bees (Apini tribe) and the stingless bees (Meliponini tribe), produce propolis, the latter called geopropolis too (Barth, 2004; Barth y Fernandes, 2003). These bees mix resins, or other type of materials, actively secreted or exuded from the wounds or buds of different plants with wax produced in specialized glands inside the bees (Bankova, 2005; Martins *et al.*, 2014; Salatino *et al.*, 2011).

Bees use propolis to seal gaps and protect the hive against airflow, reduce microbial growth, embalm invaders, and prevent external moisture. The thin layer of propolis provides an impermeable layer that keeps a constant humidity inside the hive and represents the main mechanism used by bees to prevent microbial infection of larvae and honey stores, representing the main defense mechanism used by bees, mainly for stingless bees (Kuropatnicki *et al.*, 2013; Simone-Finstrom y Spivak, 2010).

Due to the use of propolis given by bees, it is expected that it would become a significant natural product with various applications for human use. The knowledge of the medicinal properties of propolis has survived in traditional folk medicine and it is extensively used in herbal medicine in Eastern Europe. It is known to have antimicrobial, astringent, anti-inflammatory, anaesthetic, antioxidant, antitumoural, immunomodulatory and hepatoprotective effects, among others (Bankova *et al.*, 2014; Kuropatnicki *et al.*, 2013; Toreti *et al.*, 2013). This diverse biological activity of propolis depends on its constituents and these constituents depend in turn, on various factors related with its elaboration by bee species (Pazin *et al.*, 2017).

Most studies are concentrated on propolis from *A. mellifera* (Huang *et al.*, 2014; Salatino *et al.*, 2011; Toreti *et al.*, 2013). Salatino *et al.*, (2011) published a review in which honeybee propolis was divided into five types, according to their chemo-geographic patterns. Propolis type I is present in temperate zones (West Asia, Europe and North America), it is mainly composed of flavonoids without substituents in ring B and esters of phenylpropanoids. Propolis type II, known as Brazilian green propolis, principally contains prenylated phenylpropanoids and caffeoylquinic acids. Propolis type III is found in Cuba

and Venezuela, contains mainly prenylated benzophenones. Propolis type IV is found in pacific regions such as Taiwan and Oceania, the principal components are geranil flavanonas. Finally, propolis type V is found in Greece, Crete and Turkey and contains mainly diterpenes (Huang *et al.*, 2014).

In Mexico, reports on the chemical composition of propolis produced by *A. mellifera* are limited. Propolis from the northern zone of Mexico mainly contains flavonoids (Li *et al.*, 2010; Li *et al.*, 2011). In the Yucatan Peninsula, one sample of propolis from Campeche has been reported and the components were saponins, flavonoids, pterocarpans and leucoanthocyanidins (Lotti *et al.*, 2010). Recently, in a propolis sample from Quintana Roo, pentacyclic triterpenes (α - and β -amyrenone and α - and β -amyrin) and some sterols were identified as main components (Boisard *et al.*, 2015).

Compared with the propolis of *A. mellifera*, there is little information about propolis of stingless bees. The propolis of stingless bees has been mostly studied in Brazil, were the main species reported are from the *Melipona* genus, species like *M. monduri* where the main component was gallic acid and communic acid isomers (Santos *et al.*, 2017) and *M. orbignyi* propolis that contains mainly aromatic acids, alcohols and terpenes (Campos *et al.*, 2014) and *M. fasciculata* where the main components were phenolic acids and hydrolyzable tannins (Dutra *et al.*, 2014).

Other species studied is *Scaptotrigona postica*, the propolis produced for this bee is mainly composed for flavonoids also found in green propolis produced by *A. mellifera* (Ferreira *et al.*, 2017).

However, there are also some researches that compare the propolis produced by different species of bees, *e.g.* propolis samples of 12 species of stingless bees and one sample of *A. mellifera* from different sites of Brazil were analyzed. In this work, samples were grouped in types according to the main components present, being galic acid, diterpenic-, triterpenic-type metabolites, and some mixed types. They report that there is not any systematic way in choosing the plant source choice by Meliponinae, it is more or less randomly (Velikova *et al.*, 2000).

In other work samples of three Brazilian stingless bees species were analyzed, such as *M. compressipes*, *Tetragona clavipes* and *M. quadrifasciata*; samples were different between them, the main components were terpenoids and phenolics in different proportions

concluding that these species of bees use different plant species sources (Bankova *et al.*, 1998).

Regarding propolis of stingless bees from other regions, recently, the composition of propolis produced in Asia of the genus *Lepidotrigona*, *Tetragonula*, *Trigona* and *Heterotrigona* has been reported and the main components were xanthones and terpenoids (Nguyen *et al.*, 2017; Pratami *et al.*, 2017; Sanpa *et al.*, 2015; Vongsak *et al.*, 2015; Zhao *et al.*, 2017).

In Veracruz, Mexico, propolis produced by *Melipona beecheii* was analyzed and terpenoids were found to be the main metabolites (Torres-González *et al.*, 2016). In the Yucatan Peninsula, the composition of propolis of *A. mellifera* and *M. beecheii* was compared finding that the characteristic compounds from both propolis were diterpenes, but some qualitative differences between the samples were observed (Pino *et al.*, 2006).

In spite of the enormous variation reported for the composition of propolis worldwide, studies that investigate factors responsible for this variation are scarce. Variation in propolis composition can be due to several factors that are both extrinsic and intrinsic to bees. Within the extrinsic factors, the characteristics of the vegetation surrounding propolis sampling sites is one of the most important (Castro Ishida *et al.*, 2011; Salatino *et al.*, 2011; Toreti *et al.*, 2013). Among the intrinsic factors, the bee species, or even races within species, have been reported as a major factor in order to understand the differences in propolis composition. Anatomical and behavioral differences in bee species determine preferences for different resins, botanical sources, and, therefore, for the observed chemical variation in propolis samples (Bankova, 2009; Bruijn y Sommeijer, 1997; Leonhardt y Blüthgen, 2009; Salatino *et al.*, 2011; Sawaya *et al.*, 2009). In addition, genetic differences among bees of the same species have also been addressed as an importan factor (Custodio *et al.*, 2003; Salatino *et al.*, 2011).

In recent years, multivariate analyzes have been used as tools to find patterns and relationships between several propolis samples and explanatory variables (Clarke *et al.*, 2014). The influence of factors such as altitude (Andelkovic *et al.*, 2017) and season of collection (Maraschin *et al.*, 2016), as well as type of vegetation (Andelkovic *et al.*, 2017; Chasset *et al.*, 2016; Morlock *et al.*, 2014; Mot *et al.*, 2010; Watson *et al.*, 2006) have been reported to affect propolis composition. Likewise, multivariate analysis have shown differences in the composition of propolis collected by *A. mellifera* and *Tetragonisca*

angustula, finding that *A. mellifera* propolis is highly region dependent, whereas *T. angustula* propolis is nearly constant through the studied sites, suggesting that *T. angustula* has a marked preference for the same plant source among the different sites (Sawaya *et al.*, 2006).

In this study, several propolis samples of different bee species were collected in various sites of Yucatan in southeastern Mexico. Multivariate analyses were used in order to contribute to the understanding of the variation observed in propolis. The specific questions addressed were:

Since propolis can vary depending on the bee species that produces them, are there differences in the composition of the ethanol extracts of propolis produced by *Apis mellifera* and different stingless bee species?

Because the composition of propolis varies according to the vegetation matrix surrounding the beehives, is there an effect of the sample geographical origin on the composition of the propolis extracts?

2.2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.2.1. Propolis samples

Samples of *A. mellifera* were obtained during visits to beekeepers that collaborate with the "Sociedad de Solidaridad Social de Responsabilidad Limitada Apícola Maya de Yucatán". A total of 27 samples from *A. mellifera* were provided by beekeepers from different apiaries (Figure 2.1), which are listed in Table 2.1. Meliponiculture is practiced by very few beekeepers, thus the collection of samples of this type of propolis was less extensive. Propolis of stingless bees were collected in beehives of two institutions, the first is the campus of Ciencias Biológicas y Agropecuarias de la Facultad de Medicina Veterinaria y Zootecnia of the Universidad Autónoma de Yucatán (FMVZ-UADY), and the second institution was the Colegio de Postgraduados (COLPOS), campus Campeche. Additional samples were collected from apiaries of local beekeepers, specialized in this type of bees. A total of 18 samples of propolis of stingless bees were collected in six locations (Table 2.2, Figure 2.2).

In turn, a survey was carried out among each beekeeper to know what plant species the bees could be using to obtain materials to produce propolis.

Code	Location	Vegetation type
Am1	Dzemul	Deciduous forest
Am2	Molas	Deciduous forest
Am3	Maxcanu	Deciduous forest
Am4	Nohuayun	Deciduous forest
Am5	Opichen	Deciduous forest
Am6	Santa Elena	Deciduous forest
Am7	Motul	Deciduous forest
Am8	Hunucmá	Deciduous forest
Am9	Halacho	Deciduous forest
Am10	Kinchil	Deciduous forest
Am11	Kimbila	Deciduous forest
Am12	Suma	Deciduous forest
Am13	Tepakan	Deciduous forest
Am14	San Antonio Ebula	Deciduous forest
Am15	San Antonio Ebula	Semi-deciduous forest
Am16	San Antonio Ebula	Semi-deciduous forest
Am17	Oxkutzcab	Semi-deciduous forest
Am18	Cantamayec	Semi-deciduous forest
Am19	Quintana Roo	Semi-deciduous forest
Am20	Mayapan	Semi-deciduous forest
Am21	Calotmul	Semi-deciduous forest
Am22	Sierra de Tekax	Semi-deciduous forest
Am23	Tahdziu	Semi-deciduous forest
Am24	Temax	Semi-deciduous forest
Am25	Libre Union	Semi-deciduous forest
Am26	Tekal de Venegas	Semi-deciduous forest
Am27	Yaxcaba	Semi-deciduous forest

Table 2.1. Locations where propolis samples from *Apis mellifera* were obtained and type of vegetation reported for each site.

Am = Apis mellifera

Code	Specie	Mayan synonym	Location	Vegetation type
Mb1	Melipona beecheii		Xmatkuil	Deciduous forest
Mb2	Melipona beecheii		Xcunya	Deciduous forest
Mb3	Melipona beecheii	Xunan-kab	Mani	Semi-deciduous forest
Mb4	Melipona beecheii		Tekax	Semi-deciduous forest
Tn1	Trigona nigra		Xmatkuil	Deciduous forest
Tn2	Trigona nigra		Xmatkuil	Deciduous forest
Tn3	Trigona nigra	Sak-xic	San Antonio Ebula	Semi-deciduous forest
Tn4	Trigona nigra		Sihochac	Semi-deciduous forest
Tn5	Trigona nigra		Sihochac	Semi-deciduous forest
Tn6	Trigona nigra		Sihochac	Semi-deciduous forest
Tn7	Trigona nigra		Sihochac	Semi-deciduous forest
Sp1	Scaptotrigona pectoralis	K´an´tsak	Xmatkuil	Deciduous forest
Sp2	Scaptotrigona pectoralis		Sierra de Tekax	Semi-deciduous forest
Np1	Nannotrigona perilampoides	Bo´ol	Xmatkuil	Deciduous forest
Np2	Nannotrigona perilampoides		Tekax	Semi-deciduous forest
Pf1	Plebeia frontalis	Us-kab	Xmatkuil	Deciduous forest
Pf2	Plebeia frontalis		Sierra de Tekax	Semi-deciduous forest
Pb	Partamona bilineata	X´nuk	Tekax	Semi-deciduous forest

Table 2.2. Species and common Mayan of stingless bees that produce the propolis collected, location and type of vegetation reported in sampling sites.

The sample code indicates the first letter of the genus and species in addition to sample number for each bee species.



Figure 2.1. Collection sites of propolis samples produced by *Apis mellifera* bees in the state of Yucatan.



Figure 2.2. Collection sites of propolis samples produced by stingless bees in the state of Yucatan.

2.2.2. Preparation of extracts

The collected samples of propolis were grounded to a homogeneous powder using liquid nitrogen; a portion (1 g) of the ground propolis was extracted three times (2 h) with ethanol (20 mL), at room temperature. The combined filtrates were kept overnight at -18° C and then filtered to separate precipitated waxes, removing the solvent under reduced pressure (Boisard *et al.*, 2015).

2.2.3. GC-MS analyses of propolis extracts

Analyzes were carried out in the Laboratory of Natural Substances and their Structural Analogues (SONAS) at the University of Angers, France. The 45 samples were analyzed injecting 8 μ L of extract at a concentration of 1% (1mg/100 μ L ethanol), without derivatization, in a chromatograph GCMS-QP2010 SE Shimadzu, with an ionization voltage of 70 eV. The separation was carried out using a column Phenomenex Zebron (30

m × 0.25 mm Ø thickness of 0.25 μ m). Helium was used as a carrier gas (2 mL/min) and a temperature program of 110 °C (0.5 min), 110-280 °C (20 °C/min), 280 °C (20 min), 280-300 °C (5 °C/min), 300 °C (2 min).

2.2.4. Methodology used for identification

From the complete chromatograms, the first tentative identification was carried out according to the library of flavors and fragrances of natural and synthetic compounds of Shimadzu (FFNSC2) and the library of the National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST11) available in the equipment. The minimum similarity percentage taken for the identification was 70%. In addition, the linear retention index for each metabolite was calculated using a series of alkanes (Zellner *et al.*, 2008) which was then compared with those reported in different databases (Adams, 2017; Babushok *et al.*, 2011). Tentative identifications were based on metabolites that match the identification obtained from the libraries, the fragmentation patterns and the linear retention index. Definitive identification for some metabolites was carried out by comparing them with available commercial references and samples previously purified in the laboratory.

A compositional matrix was built using as variables the relative abundance of each metabolite (% of the total area of the chromatogram), placed in columns according to their retention times, and the propolis samples placed in rows. From this matrix the metabolites which had a relative abundance < 1% were eliminated, a final matrix with 93 columns was used for statistical analysis. The number of rows (samples) varied depending on the analysis performed.

2.2.5. Multivariate statistical analysis

Multivariate analyses were performed to evaluate the effect of different bee species on propolis composition, comparing two groups of samples: i) propolis from *A. mellifera* (Am) vs propolis from different species of stingless bees samples (Sb). ii) A second analysis was performed comparing propolis samples among the seven different species of stingless bees. Likewise, the effect of vegetation on propolis composition was evaluated by comparing the 27 *A. mellifera* samples collected from beehives located in deciduous and semi-deciduous forests.

In order to perform the multivariate analysis, a Log(x+1) transformation was used for relative abundance values (% chromatogram area) (Clarke *et al.*, 2014); this way,

similarities between the samples will not depend only on the metabolites with the higher abundances, since metabolites that are present in lower abundances can also be consider. Similarities were evaluated using the Bray-Curtis similarity index (S), obtained from the transformed matrix. This matrix captures the similarities (or differences) in the presence-absence in addition to the abundance of the metabolites in the samples that are being compared (Clarke *et al.*, 2014); S value increases with the degree of similarity, a coefficient of S = 100 would represent samples with identical composition and a coefficient of S = 0 indicates samples have no metabolites in common.

The ordination method used was non-Metric Multidimensional scaling (nMDS), this method was used in order to construct a graphical representation or the configuration of samples in a user specified number of dimensions (usually two). The similarity of samples decreases with the distance in the nMDS plot (Clarke *et al.*, 2014; Dittmar *et al.*, 2007). The stress value indicates the distortion between the similarity ranks and the corresponding distance ranks in the ordination; thus, the principle of the nMDS algorithm is to choose a configuration of points which minimizes this degree of stress. Ordinations with low stress values in the range 0.2-0.05 corresponds to an adequate representation of data similarities, values greater than 0.25 should be considered with a great deal of attention (Clarke *et al.*, 2014). The shade plot is a visual representation of the data matrix, the intensity of grey shading is linearly proportional to the relative abundance of the metabolite, white represents absence and black represents the highest weighted count in the matrix (Clarke *et al.*, 2014).

The analysis of similarities test (ANOSIM) by analogy with the acronym ANOVA (analysis of variance) was used to determine if the differences between samples, according to each factor (bee species and vegetation type), were statistically significant under the null hypothesis Ho: there are no differences in the propolis composition according to the species or vegetation. If two groups of samples are statistically different in their chemical composition, the dissimilarities between the groups should be greater than those within the groups. The ANOSIM statistic R is based on the difference of mean ranks between groups and within groups, R is approximately zero if the null hypothesis is true, so that similarities between and within groups will be the same on average. A set of 999 permutations is randomly calculated to build the null distribution of R (Clarke *et al.*, 2014).

For the determination of the average contributions of each metabolite to the average overall Bray-Curtis dissimilarity index, a similarity percentage analysis (SIMPER) was used. SIMPER analysis was used to evaluate the contribution of different metabolites in order to explain differences (% variation) among the propolis samples (Clarke *et al.*, 2014). Multivariate analyzes were performed using the Plymouth Routines In Multivariate Ecological Research (PRIMER) version 7 (Clarke *et al.*, 2014).

2.3. RESULTS

2.3.1. Identification of metabolites present in propolis extracts

A total of 93 metabolites (\geq 1% area) were detected in the propolis samples representing on average, 94% of the total relative abundance. 20 metabolites were identified unequivocally, while 44 metabolites were identified tentatively and the probable class of 12 metabolites was defined, 17 metabolites were not identified. Sesquiterpenes, fatty acids, diterpenes, alkenes, alkanes, phenolic lipids, lipids, flavonoid, long chain alcohols, sterols, lignane and triterpenes were the type of metabolites identified. Certain metabolites were exclusive to each of the studied bee species; 17 metabolites were present only in Am propolis samples (*e.g.* kaura-5,16-dien-18-ol, octacosanol, 5,23-ergostadienol acetate) while 15 metabolites were found only in samples from Sb (*e.g.* sandaracopimarinal, totarol, lignoceric alcohol); however most of these exclusive metabolites were detected only in one sample of each bee type (*e.g.* cubebinolide, carissanol dimethyl ether, manoyl oxide, β sitosterol, Table 2.3).

Linear				Classification
retention			<u>.</u>	
Index	Identification	Am	Sb	
1434	NI 1⁴ <i>m/z</i> 100	0.73 (0.26-1.79)	-	unknown
1614	Spathulenol ¹	0.78 (0.16-1.58)	0.93 (0.32-1.72)	Sesquiterpene
1624	Caryophyllene oxide ¹	0.66 (0.17-1.91)	0.79 (0.34-1.57)	Sesquiterpene
1708	Eudesmol ²	1.00 (0.30-2.13)	1.34 (0.76-2.70)	Sesquiterpene
1762	Myristic acid ¹	1.29 (0.22-4.44)	-	Fatty acid
1883	Bulnesol ²	1.15 (0.34-2.35)	1.61 (0.67-3.32)	Sesquiterpene
1964	Palmitic acid ¹	1.52 (0.26-6.41)	1.61 (0.29-7.58)	Fatty acid
1985	NI 2 ⁴ <i>m/z</i> 59	1.97	-	
2000	Palmitic Acid ethyl ester ²	0.29 (0.18-0.41)	1.13 (0.39-1.88)	Fatty acid
2010	9-Eicosene ²	-	1.18	Alkene
2074	Manoyl oxide ²	-	7.19	Diterpene
2104	Manool ²	1.11 (0.27-2.26)	1.14 (0.28-2,27)	Diterpene
2146	Oleic Acid ¹	1.86 (0.32-8.84)	1.29 (0.27-5.80)	Fatty acid
2166	Stearic acid ²	0.58 (0.17-0.99)	1.94	Fatty acid
2199	Stearic Acid ethyl ester ²	0.64 (0.24-1.62)	1.55 (0.44-4.18)	Fatty acid
2238	Lauric acid, ethyl ester ²	-	1.71	Fatty acid
2283	9-Tricosene ²	0.55 (0.35-0.83)	3.75	Alkene
2304	Alkane 1 ³	0.72 (0.27-1.64)	1.12 (0.78-1.47)	Alkane
2313	NI 3⁴ <i>m/z</i> 71	-	1.03 (0.36-1.72)	
2339	Alkane 2 ³	-	0.95 (0.33-1.59)	Alkane
2345	Sandaracopimarinal ²	-	0.97 (0.40-2.21)	Diterpene
2366	Totarol ²	-	1.31 (0.38-2.24)	Diterpene
2376	Grandiflorenic Acid ¹	2.68 (0.92-7.54)	5.50 (0.39-15.06)	Diterpene
2401	NI $4^4 m/z$ 285	1.20 (0.37-2.04)	0.69	
2439	Isopimarol ²	0.93 (0.41-2.38)	0.95(0.45-1.35)	Diterpene
2483	Alkene 1 ³	0.76 (0.31-1.43)	0.55 (0.31-0.85)	Alkene
2.00				,

Table 2.3. Relative abundance of metabolites identified in propolis samples according to type of bee that collects propolis. Maximum and minimum abundance values between samples are showing in parentheses.

2491	Grandiflorenic acid methyl ester ²	3.30 (0.93-7.98)	5.95 (1.34-17.52)	Diterpene
2504	Alkane 3 ³	0.96 (0.23-2.67)	1.49 (0.21-4.28)	Alkane
2510	Kaura-5,16-dien-18-ol ²	0.75 (0.45-1.06)	-	Diterpene
2513	Phenol-3-pentadecyl ¹	0.93 (0.42-1.74)	0.86 (0.52-1.21)	Phenolic lipid
2528	Methyl communate ²	1.23 (0.45-3.56)	1.71 (0.21-4.84)	Diterpene
2532	Naringenin ²	0.93	1.48	Flavonoid
2537	Alkane 4 ³	0.39	1.07 (0.29-1.92)	Alkane
2577	Alkane 5 ³	3.57 (0.60-6.55)	0.80 (0.27-1.58)	Alkane
2618	Batilol ¹	0.81 (0.30-2.79)	1.10 (0.33-1.57)	Alkylglycerol
	1-Phenyl-3-(2-cyclohexylethyl)-6-		· · · · · ·	,
2628	cyclopentylhexane ²	1.77 (0.35-2.76)	9.12 (0.70-17.56)	Various
2646	NI 5 ⁴ <i>m/z</i> 197	2.30	-	
2682	Alkene 2 ³	0.63 (0.24-1.13)	0.88 (0.32-2.83)	Alkene
2690	Lignoceric alcohol ²	-	1.29 (0.43-2.17)	Fattyalcohol
2697	9-Methylandrostan-3-yl acetate ²	4.03 (0.38-7.69)	1.142 (0.26-2.79)	Various
2703	Alkane 6 ³	0.90 (0.22-1.69)	1.03 (0.51-2.81)	Alkane
2716	$C_{23}H_{38}O^2$	2.94 (0.41-9.55)	2.30 (0.50-7.04)	Phenolic lipid
2726	Phenol-3-heptadecyl ²	2.10	-	Phenolic lipid
2733	Alkane 7 ³	0.57 (0.23-0.91)	1.07 (0.39-1.77)	Alkane
2814	1,3-Benzenediol-5-pentadecyl ¹	2.16	1.03 (0.34-1.72)	Phenolic lipid
2822	3-Methyloctacosane ²	0.81 (0.29-2.65)	1.15 (0.63-1.68)	Alkane
2833	NI 6 ⁴ <i>m/z</i> 370	1.03 (0.98-1.08)	1.75	
2881	Alkene 3 ³	0.73 (0.34-1.40)	1.02 (0.28-3.25)	Alkene
2890	Alkene 4 ³	-	0.95 (0.34-1.57)	Alkene
2923	$C_{25}H_{42}O^2$	5.25 (0.35-22.25)	3.54 (0.67-10.88)	Phenolic lipid
2933	NI 7 ⁴ <i>m/z</i> 358	2.36	-	
2996	1,3-Benzenediol-5-(8,11-heptadecadienyl) ¹	4.35 (1.78-6.94)	3.33	Phenolic lipid
3017	1,3-Benzenediol-5-(12-heptadecenyl) ¹	1.59 (0.42-6.06)	1.76 (0.26-5.48)	Phenolic lipid
			, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	Long chain
3082	Long chain alcohol 1 ³	0.44 (0.35-0.50)	2.91 (0.81-6.58)	alcohol
3128	$C_{27}H_{46}O^2$	3.60 (0.58-8.78)	Ì1.11 ´	Phenolic lipid
3150	Cholesterol ²	-	1.91	Sterol
3192	Cubebinolide ²	2.03	-	Lignane
3214	Carissanol dimethyl ether ²	4.83	-	Lignane
				5

1,3-Benzenediol-5-(14-nonadecenyl) ¹	2.48	1.18 (0.60-2.86)	Phenolic lipid
Lanost-8-en-3-ol acetate ²	0.98 (0.54-1.28)	0.95 (0.27-1.97)	Triterpene
Anthricin ²	2.32	0.42	Lignane
			Long chain
Octacosanol ²	1.29 (0.26-2.44)	-	alcohol
Lanosterol ²	1.76 (1.36-2.18)	0.73 (0.29-1.22)	Triterpene
NI 8 ⁴ <i>m/z</i> 488	9.00	-	
5,23-Ergostadienol acetate ²	1.05 (0.96-1.15)	-	Sterol
NI 9 ⁴ <i>m/z</i> 398	1.19	-	
NI ⁴ 10 m/z 424	0.65	1.41	
Cholesta-8,24-dien-3-yl acetate ²	1.42 (0.26-3.28)	1.57 (0.23-3.77)	Sterol
β-Sitosterol ¹	-	3.36	Sterol
Cycloartenol acetate ²	2.16 (0.31-5.10)	2.79 (0.32-7.86)	Triterpene
Olean-12-en-3-one ¹	10.02 (1.09-26.26)	8.38 (3.78-12.75)	Triterpene
Cycloeucalenol acetate ²	2.79 (0.61-7.73)	2.73 (1.18-4.68)	Triterpene
β-Amyrin ¹	7.58 (2.37-18.53)	6.48 (2.55-11.18)	Triterpene
Cycloartenol ²	1.72 (0.23-3.91)	1.45 (0.34-4.19)	Triterpene
Lupenone ¹	21.56 (1.44-52.32)	27.44 (11.04-63.60)	Triterpene
Betulic acid ²	6.50 (0.22-19.72)	7.37 (1.01-17.10)	Triterpene
α -Amyrin ¹	12.63 (2.17-22.82)	14.31 (5.82-20.74)	Triterpene
Lupeol ¹	15.37 (5.92-31.27)	15.85 (9.01-22.71)	Triterpene
Simiarenol ²	1.67 (0.52-3.65)	2.05 (0.26-4.62)	Triterpene
Lanosta-8,24-dien-3-β-ol acetate ²	1.60 (0.29-5.77)	2.01 (0.54-4.08)	Triterpene
NI 11 <i>m/z</i> 424 ⁴	-	1.31	
NI 12 <i>m/z</i> 300 ⁴	-	1.24	
9,19-Cyclolanostan-3-ol, 24-methylene ²	3.85 (1.07-12.18)	1.56 (0.24-2.89)	Triterpene
β-Amyrin acetate ¹	9.63 (0.66-34.78)	1.46 (0.52-3.10)	Triterpene
13,27-Cycloursan-3-one ²	0.97 (0.39-1.70)	0.80 (0.56-1.05)	Triterpene
13,27-Cycloursan-3-ol acetate ²	2.87 (0.70-11.21)	0.84 (0.27-1.42)	Triterpene
Lupenol acetate ²	11.66 (0.97-28.63)	3.43 (0.76-7.98)	Triterpene
Dammarenediol II ¹	4.16	-	Triterpene
NI 13 ⁴ <i>m/z</i> 468	1.41 (0.38-2.90)	-	
NI 14 ⁴ <i>m/z</i> 468	1.25	1.93	
NI 15⁴ <i>m/z</i> 440	-	1.61 (0.26-3.79)	
	1,3-Benzenediol-5-(14-nonadecenyl) ¹ Lanost-8-en-3-ol acetate ² Anthricin ² Octacosanol ² Lanosterol ² NI 8 ⁴ m/z 488 5,23-Ergostadienol acetate ² NI 9 ⁴ m/z 398 NI ⁴ 10 m/z 424 Cholesta-8,24-dien-3-yl acetate ² β-Sitosterol ¹ Cycloartenol acetate ² Olean-12-en-3-one ¹ Cycloartenol ² Lupenone ¹ Betulic acid ² α -Amyrin ¹ Lupeol ¹ Simiarenol ² Lanosta-8,24-dien-3-β-ol acetate ² NI 11 m/z 424 ⁴ NI 12 m/z 300 ⁴ 9,19-Cyclolanostan-3-ol, 24-methylene ² β-Amyrin acetate ¹ 13,27-Cycloursan-3-one ² 13,27-Cycloursan-3-ol acetate ² Lupenol acetate ² Dammarenediol II ¹ NI 13 ⁴ m/z 468 NI 14 ⁴ m/z 468 NI 15 ⁴ m/z 440	1,3-Benzenediol-5-(14-nonadecenyl)12.48Lanost-8-en-3-ol acetate20.98 (0.54-1.28)Anthricin22.32Octacosanol21.29 (0.26-2.44)Lanosterol21.76 (1.36-2.18)NI 84m/z 4889.005,23-Ergostadienol acetate21.05 (0.96-1.15)NI 94m/z 3981.19NII4 10 m/z 4240.65Cholesta-8,24-dien-3-yl acetate21.42 (0.26-3.28)β-Sitosterol1-Cycloartenol acetate22.16 (0.31-5.10)Olean-12-en-3-one110.02 (1.09-26.26)Cycloeucalenol acetate22.79 (0.61-7.73)β-Amyrin17.58 (2.37-18.53)Cycloartenol21.72 (0.23-3.91)Lupenone121.56 (1.44-52.32)Betulic acid26.50 (0.22-19.72)α-Amyrin112.63 (2.17-22.82)Lupeol115.37 (5.92-31.27)Simiarenol21.67 (0.52-3.65)Lanosta-8,24-dien-3-β-ol acetate21.60 (0.29-5.77)NI 11 m/z 4244-NI 12 m/z 3004-9.19-Cycloursan-3-ol, 24-methylene 23.85 (1.07-12.18)β-Amyrin acetate19.63 (0.66-34.78)13,27-Cycloursan-3-ol acetate22.87 (0.70-11.21)Lupenol acetate22.87 (0.70-11.21)Lupenol acetate22.87 (0.70-11.21)Lupenol acetate22.87 (0.70-11.21)Lupenol acetate22.87 (0.70-11.21)NI 134m/z 4681.41 (0.38-2.90)NI 144m/z 4681.25NI 154m/z 4681.25	1,3-Benzenediol-5-(14-nonadecenyl)12.481.18 (0.60-2.86)Lanost-8-en-3-ol acetate20.98 (0.54-1.28)0.95 (0.27-1.97)Anthricin22.320.42Octacosanol21.29 (0.26-2.44)-Lanosterol21.76 (1.36-2.18)0.73 (0.29-1.22)NI 8 ⁴ m/z 4889.00-System1.19-NI 9 ⁴ m/z 3981.19-NI 10 m/z 4240.651.41Cholesta-8,24-dien-3-yl acetate21.42 (0.26-3.28)1.57 (0.23-3.77)β-Sitosterol1-3.36Cycloartenol acetate22.16 (0.31-5.10)2.79 (0.32-7.86)Olean-12-en-3-one110.02 (1.09-26.26)8.38 (3.78-12.75)Cycloartenol21.72 (0.23-3.91)1.45 (0.34-4.19)Lupeone121.56 (1.44-52.32)27.44 (11.04-63.60)Betulic acid26.50 (0.22-19.72)7.37 (1.01-17.10)α-Amyrin112.63 (2.17-22.82)14.31 (5.82-20.74)Lupeol115.37 (5.92-31.27)15.85 (9.01-22.71)Simiarenol21.67 (0.52-3.65)2.05 (0.26-4.62)Lanosta-8,24-dien-3-β-ol acetate21.60 (0.29-5.77)2.01 (0.54-4.08)NII 11 m/z 4244-1.31NI 12 m/z 3004-1.249,19-Cyclolanostan-3-ol, 24-methylene 23.85 (1.07-12.18)1.56 (0.24-2.89)β-Amyrin acetate19.63 (0.66-34.78)1.46 (0.52-3.10)13.27-Cycloursan-3-one20.97 (0.39-1.70)0.80 (0.56-1.05)13.27-Cycloursan-3-one20.97 (0.39-1.70)0.80 (0.56-1.05)13.27-Cycloursan-3-one2

3635	NI 16 ⁴ <i>m/z</i> 422	2.92 (1.14-6.21)	0.87 (0.40-1.25)	
3684	NI 17 ⁴ <i>m/z</i> 454	2.16	-	
Total GC				
peak area				
%		96 (86 – 99)	93 (84 – 100)	
¹ Metabolite	s identified using commercial samp	ples or purified metabolites	· · · · · ·	
² Metabolite	s tentatively identified (by comparis	son with libraries and linear retention ra	ites)	
³ Determina	tion of the probable class of metab	olites		
⁴ Non identif	ied (possible molecular ion shown)		
Am = Apis ı	mellifera samples			
Sb = Stingle	ess bees samples			

2.3.2. Effect of the bee species on propolis composition

2.3.2.1. Apis mellifera vs Meliponini propolis extracts

Triterpenes were the only type of metabolites present in all samples, a higher average relative abundance (79%) was found in samples from Apis mellifera (Am); with relative abundances of 44 and up to 95% chromatogram area, compared with propolis from stingless bees (Sb) with an average relative abundance of 68.65% and relative abundances between 99.1 to 30.8% (Table 2.4). The second type of metabolites with the highest average relative abundance in Am samples were phenolic lipids with an average relative abundance of 8%, some samples of this group had abundances of 41% and there were also samples where this type of metabolites were not detected. The abundance of phenolic lipids in Sb samples was lower having an average relative abundance of 5% (0-32%; Table 2.4). Diterpenes was the type of metabolite with the second highest average relative abundances in samples of Sb with an average relative abundance of 14.4%; presenting samples with abundances of 39% and samples where they were not detected; samples of Am showed a lower average relative abundance (4%; range 0-23%) of diterpenes. Fatty acids showed a very similar average relative abundance on both bee types (3.87% for Am and 3.57% for Sb); however, the highest abundances were found in samples of Sb (Table 2.4). Only one flavonoid, naringenin, was detected in a single sample of each bee type with a relative abundance of 0.93 and 1.49% in Am and Sb, respectively.

Table 2.4. Average relative abundances (% chromatogram area) of the metabolites present in ethanol extracts of propolis samples collected from the hive of Am and six species of stingless bees. Maximum and minimum abundance values between samples are shown in parentheses.

Type of metabolite	Am	Sb
Triterpene	79.45 (95.04-44.21)	68.65 (99.15-30.76)
Diterpene	4.95 (23.72-0.0)	14.48 (39.72-0.0)
Phenolic lipid	8.94 (41.24-0.0)	5.43 (32.51-0.0)
Fatty acid	3.87 (17.20-0.0)	3.57 (23.10-0.0)
Alkane	2.48 (10.91-0.0)	3.20 (13.83-0.0)
Sterol	1.32 (3.28-0.0)	2.50 (5.28-0.0)
Sesquiterpene	1.82 (5.86-0.0)	2.40 (5.40-0.0)
Long chain	1.56 (4.65-0.0)	2.19 (6.58-0.0)
Alkene	1.45 (3.96-0.0)	2.10 (8.84-0.0)
Flavonoid	0.93	1.49

Lipid	0.82 (2.65-0.0)	1.16 (1.68-0.0)	
Lignane	6.87		

Am = Apis mellifera samples

Sb = Stingless bees samples

The nMDS ordination plot of propolis samples from the two bee types presented a stress value of 0.2 indicating that the plot corresponds to a reliable representation of the data; most of the samples from Am or Sb were grouped closer to their corresponding bee-type (Figure 2.3). As expected, this grouping suggests differences among the propolis composition in samples from Am and Sb.

Results obtained from the ANOSIM test (global R = 0.21, P = 0.0001, n = 45) indicated a significant difference between these groups rejecting the null hypothesis, confirming that the composition of propolis samples depends on the type of bee that collects and elaborates the propolis. The results obtained from the SIMPER analysis indicated that both groups had a total average dissimilarity of 53.6%. Lupenol acetate (Figure 2.4), with an average abundance of 2.1% in Am and 0.9% in Sb, was the metabolite that contributed most (5.1% of the total dissimilarity) to the differentiation between these two groups of propolis, and was present in 88% of Am and 66% of Sb samples (Table 2.5, Figure 2.5). In addition, lupenol relative abundance was considerable higher in most Am samples (11.66%; Table 2.3). A similar pattern was observed for β -amyrin acetate (Table 2.3, Figure 2.4 and 2.5). On the contrary, grandiflorenic acid, metabolite that contributes with the 3.9% of total dissimilarity (Table 2.5) was present in 72% of Sb samples and only in 22% of Am samples (Figure 2.4 and 2.5); this metabolite presented a higher average relative abundance in Sb (5.50%) (except *Melipona beecheil*) in comparison with Am (2.68%) (Table 2.3).



Figure 2.3. Non-metric multidimensional scaling (nMDS) ordination showing differences between Am (\blacktriangle) and Sb (\bigstar) propolis samples based on Bray-Curtis similarities calculated from Log(x+1) transformed relative abundances (% chromatogram area) of metabolites. Am = Apis mellifera samples; Sb = Stingless bees samples: Mb = Melipona beecheii; Tn = Trigona nigra; Sp = Scaptotrigona pectoralis; Np = Nannotrigona perilampoides; Pb = Plebeia frontalis; Pb = Plebeia formatis; Pb =

Metabolite	Average abundance in Am	Average abundance in Sb	Contribution to the dissimilarity (%)	Dissimilarity cumulated (%)
Lupenol acetate	2.12	0.93	5.17	5.17
β-Amyrin acetate	1.61	0.38	5.04	10.21
Grandiflorenic Acid	0.25	1.14	3.9	14.11
α-Amyrin	1.96	2.39	3.82	17.93
Grandiflorenic acid methyl ester	0.13	1.06	3.73	21.66
Lupenona	2.82	3.24	2.94	24.6
Lupeol	0.59	0.3	2.83	27.43
Cycloeucalenol acetate	0.84	1.14	2.74	30.17
Olean-12-en-3-one	2.04	2.19	2.54	32.71
Simiarenol	0.23	0.66	2.41	35.12
Cycloartenol acetate	0.38	0.42	2.28	37.4
Palmitic acid	0.68	0.32	2.25	39.64
Oleic Acid	0.75	0.43	2.23	41.88
9,19-Cyclolanostan-3-ol, 24-methylene	0.47	0.44	2.23	44.1
Betulic acid	0.44	0.29	2.16	46.27
Cycloartenol	0.51	0.59	2.14	48.4
β-Amyrin	2.04	1.85	1.99	50.39

Table 2.5. Metabolites that contribute to the 50% of the dissimilarity between the Am and Sb groups. Metabolites are presented in decreasing contribution to the Bray-Curtis index.

Am = Apis mellifera samples

Sb = Stingless bees samples



Figure 2.4. Metabolites that contributes more to the dissimilarity of samples from *A. mellifera* and stingless bees: Lupeol acetate (1), β -amyrine acetate (2), grandiflorenic acid (3), α -amyrin (4), grandiflorenic acid methyl ester (5) and lupenone (6).



Figure 2.5. Shade plot, with linear grey scale for the 50 most important metabolites in the propolis grouping according to bee type. Am (\blacktriangle) = *Apis mellifera*, and Sb (\blacktriangle) = Stingless bees; samples 1-14 were collected in deciduous forests and samples 15-27 in semi-deciduous forest.

Metabolites that were common in both types, and therefore, contribute less to dissimilarity among samples were lupenone, which is present in all samples, and β -amyrin, olea-12-en-3-one and α -amyrin (Figure 2.5).

There were also considerable differences in the composition of propolis among samples of the same bee type. SIMPER analysis indicated that samples of the group Am had an average dissimilarity of 49% (Data no show).

2.3.2.2. Comparison among stingless bees species

The nMDS ordination plot for stingless bees propolis samples, with a stress factor of 0.14, grouped together samples corresponding to the same stingless bee species. This pattern could be observed more clearly in those species with more than two propolis samples. Samples from *Trigona nigra* were placed closer together, while *Melipona beecheii* showed a higher intra-specific variation (Figure 2.6). In the nMDS ordination plot, samples could be grouped in three clusters according to their similarities-dissimilarities in propolis composition: i) *Partamona bilineata*, ii) *Trigona nigra* and iii) *Scaptotrigona pectoralis*, *Nannotrigona perilampoides*, *Melipona beecheii* and *Plebeia frontalis* (Table 2.6, Figure 2.6).

The results of the ANOSIM test (global R = 0.626, P = 0.001) indicated a significant difference in the chemical composition of the propolis extracts according to the stingless bee species that collects and process it. In order to determine between-group differences, the value of R was examined for each pairwise comparison (Table 2.6). R values close to unity indicate a complete separation of the groups and R values close to zero imply small or no segregation in propolis composition (Clarke *et al.*, 2014).

Partamona bilineata sample showed a clear separation from the other five species having an R value of one in all pairwise comparisons. T*rigona nigra* was different from the four remaining species *Scaptotrigona pectoralis* (R = 0.96), *Nannotrigona perilampoides* (R = 0.71), *Melipona beecheii* (R = 0.69) and *Plebeia frontalis* R = 0.45).



Figure 2.6. Non-metric multidimensional scaling (nMDS) ordination of propolis samples according to the stingless bee species: ▼ *Melipona beecheii*, ■ *Trigona nigra*, ◆ *Scaptotrigona pectoralis*, ● *Nannotrigona perilampiodes*, +*Plebeia frontalis* and X *Partamona bilineata*. Analysis is based on Bray-Curtis similarities of the log(x+1) transformed relative abundances of metabolites (% chromatogram area).



Figure 2.7. Shade plot, with linear grey scale for the 50 most important metabolites in the grouping according to the stingless bee species: $\checkmark M$. beecheii, $\blacksquare T$. nigra, $\diamond S$. pectoralis, $\bullet N$. perilampiodes, + P. frontalis and X P. bilineata.

Table 2.6. R values from the pairwise tests of ANOSIM analysis between stingless bee species.

	М.	N.	P.	Р.	S.
	beechell	perliampoides	trontalis	biiineata	pectoralis
Ν.	0.03				
perilampoides	6				
P. frontalis	0	- 0.75			
P. bilineata	1	1	1		
S. pectoralis	0.14	0	0.5	1	
T. nigra	0.69	0.71	0.45	1	0.96

According to the results obtained from the SIMPER analysis, the metabolites that contributed more to the dissimilarities between propolis samples from stingless bee species were some triterpenes, different from those that characterize the extracts of *A. mellifera*: lupeol, cycloartenol acetate and β -amyrin, diterpenes: grandiflorenic acid and their methyl ester and the fatty acids palmitic acid, oleic acid and stearic acid ethyl ester

(Table 2.7, Figure 2.8); this is because the analysis takes into account both, the presence/absence of the metabolites in the samples and their abundances. Thus palmitic and oleic acids were the metabolites that explained why the sample of propolis produced by *P. bilineata* is separated from the other samples (Figure 2.7, Table 2.7) and grandiflorenic acid was present in higher abundances in propolis samples from *T. nigra* compared to samples of *S. pectoralis*, *N. perilampoides* and *M. beecheii* (Figure 2.7, Table 2.7).

Table 2.7. Dissimilarities (%) between propolis samples from stingless bee species. Total dissimilarity between the groups is shown in bold. The two metabolites with major contribution to the total dissimilarity are shown; % contribution is shown in parentheses.

	M. beecheii	Ν.	P. frontalis	P. bilineata	S. pectoralis
		perilampoides			
Ν.	47.62 %				
perilampoides	lupeol (6.7%)				
	α-amyrin				
	(6.26%)				
P. frontalis	50.05%	51.58%			
	Grandiflorenic	α-Amyrin			
	acid methyl	(6.98%)			
	ester (6.86%)	Lupeol			
	β-amyrin	(5.69%)			
	(4.5%)				
P. bilineata	67.45%	71.19%	66.43%		
	Palmitic acid	Palmitic acid	Palmitic acid		
	(4.68%)	(4.84%)	(4.29%)		
	Oleic Acid	Oleic Acid	Oleic Acid		
	(3.96%)	(4.32%)	(3.84%)		
S. pectoralis	48.19%	50.98%	55.74%	64.66%	
	α -Amyrin	Lupeol (6.8%)	Grandiflorenic	Palmitic	
	(6.64%)	α-Amyrin	acid methyl	acid	
	Cycloartenol	(6.73%)	ester (6.15%)	(4.28%)	
	acetate		Cycloartenol	Cycloartenol	
	(6.07%)		acetate	acetate	
_ ,			(5.62%)	(4.17%)	
L. nıgra	48.22%	45.87%	39.87%	60.04%	54.85%
	Grandiflorenic	Grandiflorenic	β-Amyrin	Palmitic	Grandiflorenic
	Acid (8.02%)	Acid (6.64%)	(5.36%)	acid (4.3%)	acid methyl
	Grandifiorenic			Stearic Acid	ester (6.56%)
	acid methyl	(6.48%)	Acid (4.62%)	ethyl ester	Grandiflorenic
	ester (7.47%)			(3.66%)	Acid (6.38%)



Figure 2.8. Metabolites that contributes more to the dissimilarity between stingless bees samples: lupeol (1), cycloartenol acetate (2), β -amyrin (3), grandiflorenic acid (4), grandiflorenic acid methyl ester (5) palmitic acid (6) oleic acid (7) and stearic acid ethyl ester (8).

2.3.6. Effect of the site of origin on the composition of Yucatecan propolis

Based on the vegetation information obtained from the map in Figure 2.1, propolis samples were classified according to their geographical coordinates, as samples collected in deciduous (DF) and semi-deciduous (SDF) tropical forest.

In the nMDS ordination plot (Figure 2.9) there is no clear separation of the propolis samples obtained in the two different vegetation types. The stress value indicates that the plot corresponds to a reliable representation of the data. Results obtained from the ANOSIM test (global R = 0.081, P = 0.06) showed that there is no significant difference in the chemical composition of propolis samples according to the type of vegetation; therefore the null hypothesis is accepted.





Since meliponiculture is not very frecuent in Yucatan, it is difficult to have experimental designs in which different bee species can be compared under the same botanical sources. Our study considered two sites where propolis samples from different bee species were collected, Sierra de Tekax and Xmatkuil (Table 2.2). Because bee species share the same botanical sources in these sites, comparisons that are more precise can be made in order to evaluate the effect of bee species on propolis composition. Comparison among propolis collected in Tekax of *P. frontalis* (pf2) vs Am22 and *S. pectoralis* (Sp2) showed that samples from large Am22 and the medium stingless bee Sp2 were more similar among them compared with the propolis from the small stingless bee Pf2 (Figure 2.6). Similarly, in Xmatkuil site, propolis from five species of stingless bees were collected: one big species (*M. beecheii*), two medium size species (*T. nigra* and *S. pectoralis*) and two small ones (*N. perilampoides* and *P. frontalis*). Propolis from *M. beecheii* was considerably distinct, especially in the number and relative abundance of fatty acids and diterpenes, in comparison with the other four species (Tn1, Tn2, Sp1, Np1 and Pf1, Figure 2.7); in addition, in this site was also observed an importan variation in

propolis samples collected from the same species (Tn1 and Tn2, Figure 2.7). Specific experiments with sufficient samples are needed in order to confirm these observations.

With respect to the species used by bees, mentioned by beekeepers, the most mentioned was the species of *Gymnopodium floribundum*, followed by *B. simaruba*, *Piscidia piscipula*, *Lysiloma latisiliquum*, *Acmella filipes*, *Sabal mexicana*, *Bourreria pulchra*, and *Vitex gaumeri*.

2.4. DISCUSSION

Even though the polyphenols have been frecuently reported as major components of A. mellifera propolis (Huang et al., 2014; Salatino et al., 2011; Toreti et al., 2013), these results showed that yucatecan propolis from A. mellifera and from six species of stingless bees have triterpenes, both, pentacyclic and cycloartane type, as major components; while only the polyphenol naringenin was detected in one sample of each group. Although triterpenes have not been reported by Salatino et al. (2011) as characteristic natural products present in the five proposed propolis types, recently, there have been an increasing number of reports of triterpenes as major components, especially in tropical propolis samples. These reports include both A. mellifera (Boisard et al., 2015; Bracho-Pérez et al., 2009: Carol et al., 2017; Kardar et al., 2014; Nina et al., 2016; Omar et al., 2017) and stingless bees (Sanpa et al., 2015; Santos Pereira et al., 2003; Torres-González et al., 2016; Zhao et al., 2017). Comparisons of propolis composition are limited due to the absence of a standardized protocol for its evaluation. This is particularly important because it has been shown that results of propolis composition depend on extraction method, solvent type and chromatographic method used for identification of metabolites (Huang et al., 2014).

Significant differences were found in the chemical composition of propolis according to the type of bee that produces it. Triterpenes lupeol acetate, β -amyrin acetate, α -amyrin, lupenona and lupeol were the metabolites with the highest contribution to the dissimilarity observed between propolis samples from *Apis mellifera* and stingless bees, this is because they had a different distribution and abundances among the samples. These metabolites are pentacyclic triterpenes and have been reported as resin components in the large tropical families Burseraceae, Dipterocarpaceae, and Anacardiaceae; in a previous work, *Bursera simaruba* was proposed as the botanical source of several of these pentacyclic triterpenes (Herrera-López *et al.*, 2019). Some of the the phenolic lipids, which

were the second type of metabolites with the highest average relative abundance in Am samples, are the resorcinolic lipids, and it was found that these metabolites come from the resin of *Mangifera indica* (Capitulo VI).

Diterpenes grandiflorenic acid and grandiflorenic acid methyl ester were particularly important in stingless bees propolis. This is the first report on the presence of these metabolites as propolis components; both metabolites have been reported in the leaves of *Wedelia trilobata*, a species found in the Yucatan Peninsula (Balekar *et al.*, 2014). Further studies are needed in order to confirm the botanical source of these metabolites.

Likewise, in the case of the comparison among samples of stingless bees, the most important metabolites in order to explain the differences found in the propolis composition were the triterpenes lupeol, α -amyrin, cycloartenol acetate, and β -amyrin; the diterpenes grandiflorenic acid and its methyl ester, and the fatty acids palmitic, oleic and stearic acid ethyl ester. The chemical composition of propolis from stingless bees has been scarcely studied; most of the reports are from Brazilian species (Bankova *et al.*, 1998; Cisilotto *et al.*, 2018; Velikova *et al.*, 2000). This is the first report of propolis composition from *T. nigra*, *S. pectoralis*, *N. perilampoides*, *P. frontalis* and *P. bilineata*.

Melipona beecheii is considered a bee of great importance for the Mayan people since ancient times (Ortiz *et al.*, 2016; Quezada-Euán, 2005; Vit *et al.*, 2013); hence, this species has aroused a greater interest among researchers. Pino *et al.* (2006) compared the volatile fraction of propolis from *A. mellifera* and *M. beecheii*, both collected in Yucatan, Mexico, where spathulenol, caryophyllene oxide, palmitic acid and manool were the only common metabolites found with the samples analyzed in this study. The observed differences between our results and this could be due not only to collection sites, but also to the extraction method (Likens-Nickerson distillation).

The differences found in the propolis composition from the studied bee species could be due to different factors; the first factor is the body size, this variable has been related with the ability to collect pollen and nectar, in both, *Apis mellifera* and stingless bees species (Abou-Shaara, 2014; Araújo *et al.*, 2004; Rodrigues y Ribeiro, 2014), based in the observed positive correlation between body size and flight distance (Araújo *et al.*, 2004). Although there is no information regarding bee flight ranges and the ability of resin foraging, and based on the assumption that a bigger body size is related with a higher ability of collecting resins, this could partially explain differences found in propolis composition between *Apis mellifera* and different species of stingless bees (Table 2.8).

Species	Total body length	Maximum flight range
	(mm)	(m)
Apis mellifera	13 ¹	5000 ²
Mellipona beecheii	9.7-10.7 ¹	2,400 ²
Trigona nigra	5.7 ¹	1159* ³
Partamona bilineata	5.6 ¹	800 ²
Scaptotrigona pectoralis	5.2-5.4 ¹	1,200* ³
Nannotrigona perilampoides	4.1-4.2 ¹	600 ³
Plebeia frontalis	3.5-4.4 ₁	No data

Table 2.8. Characteristics of body size and flight ranges of the studied bee species.

* indicates the flight range of the genus, not the species. ¹(Quezada-Euán, 2018),
 ²(Quezada-Euán, 2005), ³(Enriquez *et al.*, 2006).

Among the species of stingless bees, the largest in size is *M. beecheii*, some authors have mentioned that the Mayan people used *M. beecheii* because its larger capacity of honey production possibly due to a larger foraging area (Ortiz *et al.*, 2016). Even if *M. beecheii* is the largest bee among stingless bees, it has a flight range of about half the distance compared with *A. mellifera*.

The medium size bees (5-6 mm)*T. nigra*, *P. bilineata* and *S. pectoralis*, have lower flight ranges, around half the range of *M. beecheii* (Table 2.8); while the small size bees (3-4 mm) *N. perilampoides* and *P. frontalis*, have an even lower flight ranges (Ayala, 1999).

Based on body size and flight ranges, *A. mellifera* could reach a higher amount and diversity of resins sources in comparison with stingless bees. Similarly, among stingless bees, *M. beechii* will show the highest diversity of sources and *N. perilampoides* and *P. frontalis* would be the most limited species in the botanical sources these species could reach for resin collection.

In addition to body size, the preference of bee species for certain botanical sources has been documented as an explanation for the observed differences in propolis composition; under the same vegetation, and even if there is a large number of resiniferous species on

the site, different bee species may have a preference for specific resin sources (Leonhardt y Blüthgen, 2009; Salatino *et al.*, 2011; Sawaya *et al.*, 2006).

Various authors have highlighted that vegetation is one of the most important factors to explain the observed differences in propolis composition (Ahn *et al.*, 2004; Chasset *et al.*, 2016; Kalogeropoulos *et al.*, 2009; Mot *et al.*, 2010; Watson *et al.*, 2006); however, according to the results presented in this investigation, samples of *A. mellifera* propolis collected in two different types of vegetation showed no significant differences. These results could be due mainly because there are no considerable differences among the botanical sources of resins collected for propolis elaboration in the studied sites. Although, according to a map for vegetation types in Yucatan, the sites where the propolis samples were collected could be classified in two different vegetation types, deciduous and semi-deciduous forest (Figure 2.1), it is well known that ecosystems found throughout the Yucatan Peninsula have suffered important natural and anthropogenic disturbances, resulting in changes to the primary vegetation (Caamal-Maldonado y Armendariz-Yañez, 2002; Zamora *et al.*, 2008).

In addition, apiaries are generally located near human settlements where the original vegetation has been transformed, mainly through deforestation and the introduction of cultivars or ornamental plant species. Therefore, it is probable that most of the studied sites share resiniferous species characteristic of secondary vegetation, as well as introduced and cultivated species, this would explain, in turn, why the botanical source of the bioactive resorcinol lipids identified in the sample collected in Hunucmá is the resin of *M. indica*.

In order to elucidate the relationship between resin botanical sources and propolis composition, detailed studies are needed to characterize the diversity, composition and structure of the vegetation surrounding the propolis sampling sites (Caamal-Maldonado y Armendariz-Yañez, 2002; Zamora *et al.*, 2008), and, to verify if any of the species mentioned by beekeepers (besides *B. simaruba*) are actually used to collect propolis production material, since among them, *L. latisiliquum*, *P. piscipula* and *S. mexicana* have been reported as resin producers plants (Langenheim, 2003).

The variability in the composition of propolis produced by different stingless bees collected in the same site, could be related with differences in flight ranges and abilities for resin collection while, the differences found between samples collected by the same species in the same site could be explained by genetic factors (Salatino *et al.*, 2011).
2.5. CONCLUSIONS

These results suggest that the main explanatory factor for the observed differences in the composition of yucatecan propolis is the type of bee that collects resins and elaborates the propolis. Different foraging abilities, as well as preferences for specific botanical sources among bee species, could explain the observed variation.

Triterpenes were present in all the samples of propolis analyzed; these natural products were the major components of *A. mellifera* propolis, while propolis from stingless bees were dominated by diterpenes and fatty acids.

Lupeol acetate and β -amyrine were characteristic triterpenes of *A. mellifera* propolis; grandiflorenic acid and grandiflorenic acid methyl ester were the main metabolites in propolis from stingless bees species.

Propolis variability is multifactorial; environmental conditions as well as particular bee species biology and characteristics act together in order to determine propolis composition.

CAPITULO III

ACTIVIDAD BIOLÓGICA DE PROPÓLEOS COLECTADOS EN EL ESTADO DE YUCATÁN

3.1. INTRODUCCIÓN

Dado que los insectos sociales viven en grandes grupos que constantemente interactúan, existe un incremento en el riesgo de incidencias de enfermedades o en la evolución de parásitos especializados, por lo que es necesario contar con estrategias que permitan reducir la presencia de estos problemas dentro de la comunidad (Simone-Finstrom y Spivak, 2010).

Un mecanismo de inmunidad social en las abejas de las tribus Apini y Meliponini, es la recolección de exudados de plantas que aparecen en la corteza de los troncos, en la superficie de algunos frutos o típicamente en los ápices (brotes, hojas primordiales y hojas jóvenes); los cuales, son llevados a la colonia y mezclados con cera para elaborar propóleos (Simone-Finstrom y Spivak, 2010).

Muchas veces, estas resinas vegetales son producidas por las plantas como mecanismo de defensa frente a ataques de otros seres vivos, principalmente para proteger ápices y hojas jóvenes, estructuras altamente valiosas para la supervivencia (Dangl y Jones, 2001; Toreti *et al.*, 2013). La presencia de defensas químicas en tejidos jóvenes se debe, probablemente, a la ausencia de defensas físicas presentes en tejidos maduros como cortezas y tricomas rígidos (Toreti *et al.*, 2013); la colecta de exudados de estos tejidos jóvenes es un elemento indispensable para la producción de propóleos, producto natural rico en sustancias con actividad biológica.

Dentro de las principales propiedades biológicas encontradas en propóleos están: la actividad antiviral, antiinflamatoria, hepatoprotectora, antitumoral, antioxidante y cicatrizante (Falcao *et al.*, 2013; Huang *et al.*, 2014; Toreti *et al.*, 2013).

Dado que una de las principales funciones del propóleo es proteger la colmena contra agentes microbianos (Campos *et al.*, 2014), se ha estudiado intensamente la actividad antibacteriana de extractos de propóleos y sus componentes, sobre todo los producidos por *A. mellifera*, contra un amplio rango de bacterias (Bankova *et al.*, 1995; Bankova *et*

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al., 1996; Hegazi y El Hady, 2001; Mazzuco *et al.*, 1996). De manera general se sabe que las bacterias Gram (+) son más susceptibles a los metabolitos presentes en los propóleos que las Gram (–); esta actividad varía de acuerdo a las distintas regiones geográficas donde son colectadas y también depende del pH del medio de cultivo (Marcucci, 1995).

Extractos de propóleos con actividad antimicrobiana pueden presentar también una marcada actividad antioxidante (Choi *et al.*, 2006; Hegazi y El Hady, 2001), la cual está relacionada con el estudio del estrés celular y de los radicales libres. La señalización que perciben las células favorecen respuestas celulares como la proliferación, diferenciación y muerte celular, el descontrol de estas respuestas está relacionado con el desarrollo de enfermedades como el cáncer o enfermedades crónico degenerativas o inflamatorias, en las que las especies reactivas de oxígeno desencadenan efectos adversos secundarios (Dichi *et al.*, 2014), por lo que es importante identificar productos naturales y/o nuevas sustancias que puedan neutralizar estos radicales libres para prevenir el estrés oxidativo (Bonamigo *et al.*, 2017).

La principal característica de un antioxidante es el retraso o inhibición del daño oxidativo a las células mediante la estabilización del radical libre (Dichi *et al.*, 2014). La actividad antioxidante de propóleos tanto de *A. mellifera* como de abejas sin aguijón se ha relacionado con el contenido de fenoles, entre los más reportados se encuentran la galangina, el ácido cafeico y su éster fenetílico, el ácido ferúlico, la quercetina y la catequina (Araújo *et al.*, 2016; Huang *et al.*, 2014; Pazin *et al.*, 2017; Zainal *et al.*, 2014).

Algunos metabolitos con actividad antimicrobiana y/o antioxidante a menudo pueden inhibir la formación de los productos finales de glicación avanzada (AGEs por sus siglas en inglés) (Harris *et al.*, 2011; Kim y Kim, 2003), los cuales, son productos de la reacción no enzimática del grupo carbonilo de azúcares reductores y grupos amino de proteínas o lípidos (Boisard *et al.*, 2014; Khangholi *et al.*, 2015). La formación y/o acumulación de estos AGEs contribuye a la patogénesis de varias enfermedades como la diabetes, insuficiencia renal e inflamación (Boisard *et al.*, 2014) por lo que la inhibición de su formación se considera una aproximación terapéutica.

Hay un solo trabajo donde se analiza la actividad anti-AGEs en propóleo francés, en el cual se encontró que varias de las muestras que se analizaron presentaron actividad tanto anti-AGEs como actividad antioxidante (Boisard *et al.*, 2014).

Por otro lado, se ha reportado que algunos metabolitos con actividad antioxidante y anti-AGEs también están relacionados con la actividad antiproliferativa de células tumorales y la actividad citotóxica en líneas celulares cangerígenas (Frozza *et al.*, 2013; Usia *et al.*, 2002). La principal característica de las células cancerosas es su alta velocidad de proliferación la cual no está regulada porque tienen la capacidad para evadir la apoptosis y las señales supresoras del crecimiento e invasión de tejidos (Delgado y Romo, 2015).

La quimioterapia es un tratamiento de rutina para el cáncer; sin embargo, no es siempre efectiva debido a la resistencia de las células y a los efectos tóxicos que presenta (Sülsen y Martino, 2018), por este motivo se vuelve importante la búsqueda de nuevos productos naturales con propiedades quimio protectoras de baja toxicidad.

Recientemente, el propóleo ha recibido especial atención como fuente de prevención y tratamiento del cáncer, existe un gran número de publicaciones sobre la acción antitumoral de los propóleos y sus compuestos (Watanabe *et al.*, 2011). Se ha podido identificar en extractos de propóleos de varias partes del mundo, a los metabolitos fenólicos como los principales responsables de dicha actividad (Banskota *et al.*, 1998; Catchpole *et al.*, 2015; Kumazawa *et al.*, 2008; Usia *et al.*, 2002).

También se han encontrado otro tipo de metabolitos con actividad citotóxica, tal es el caso del manol en propóleo griego (Pratsinis *et al.*, 2010), o el aislamiento de un triterpeno tipo cicloartano presente un extracto de propóleo de Birmania (Li *et al.*, 2009) y la nemorosona que fue identificada en una muestra de propóleo colectado en Cuba (Popolo *et al.*, 2011). En propóleos colectados en Sonora, México, se han reportado también metabolitos de tipo flavonoide con actividad citotóxica y antiproliferativa (Li *et al.*, 2010; Li *et al.*, 2011). Estos hallazgos revelan el potencial que tienen los propóleos en el desarrollo de nuevos agentes antitumorales.

Los propóleos producidos en el estado de Yucatán podrían convertirse en un subproducto valioso de la actividad apícola si se genera conocimiento acerca de las potenciales actividades biológicas que puedan presentar.

Con base en lo anterior se determinó la actividad antimicrobiana contra Escherichia coli, Shigella flexneri, Erwinia carotovora, Xanthomonas campestris, Bacillus subtilis, Bacillus cereus, Staphylococcus aureus, Pseudomona syringaey Candida albicans, y a su vez, la actividad antioxidante, anti-AGEs, citotóxica y antiproliferativa de los extractos de propóleo obtenidos.

3.2. MATERIALES Y MÉTODOS

3.2.1. Actividad antimicrobiana

La actividad antimicrobiana fue analizada mediante el método de difusión en agar. Se prepararon suspensiones celulares de cada uno de los microorganismos (Tabla 3.1) utilizando un nefelómetro (1 × 10^8 células/mL). Esta suspensión fue inoculada de forma masiva en placas de agar soya tripticaseína utilizando un hisopo estéril. Por otro lado, se prepararon discos de papel filtro de 6 mm de diámetro que fueron impregnados con 20 µL del extracto etanólico de propóleo a una concentración del 5% (5mg/100µL) lo que da como resultado una cantidad de 1 mg de extracto en cada disco utilizado.

Microorganismo	Tipo de tinción Gram	Tipo de patógeno
Escherichia coli	Negativa	Humano
Shigella flexneri	Negativa	Humano
Erwinia carotovora	Negativa	Fito patógeno
Xanthomonas campestris	Negativa	Fito patógeno
Bacillus subtilis	Positiva	Humano
Bacillus cereus	Positiva	Humano
Staphylococcus aureus	Positiva	Humano
Pseudomona syringae	Negativa	Fito patógeno
Candida albicans	Hongo	Humano

Tabla 3.1. Microorganismos utilizados para la determinación de la actividad antimicrobiana de los extractos etanólicos de propóleo.

En cada caja Petri se colocaron siete discos, un control positivo (impregnado con gentamicina para las bacterias y neomicol para la levadura), un control negativo (impregnado con diclorometano) y cinco extractos (Figura 3.1A); el análisis se realizó por triplicado. Después de incubar las placas 24 horas a 37 °C se midió el radio del halo de inhibición de los extractos activos (Figura 3.1B).



Figura 3.1. A) Vista superior de la caja inoculada y ubicación de los discos de papel. B) Medida del halo de inhibición.

A partir de las medidas de los halos de inhibición de los extractos y del control se calculó el porcentaje de inhibición relativo de acuerdo a la siguiente fórmula:

Porcentaje de inhibicíon = $\frac{Halo de inhibición del extracto (mm)}{Halo de inhibición del control positivo(mm)}$ × 100

La actividad antimicrobiana de los extractos se clasificó de acuerdo asu porcentaje de inhibición (Rodríguez y Zevallos, 2014), como se muestra en la Tabla 3.2.

Actividad antimicrobiana	Porcentaje de inhibición
Inactivo	< 40%
Poco activo	40-50%
Moderadamente activo	51-75%
Buena actividad	>76%

 Tabla 3.2. Clasificación de la actividad antimicrobiana según el porcentaje de inhibición.

3.2.2. Actividad antioxidante

3.2.2.1. Actividad antioxidante cualitativa

Se usaron cromatofolios de aluminio impregnados con gel de sílice 60 F_{254} (E. M. Merck DC-Alufolien, de 0.25 mm de espesor), se utilizaron los sistemas de elución hexano:éter etílico (6:4) agregando 1 mL de ácido fórmico (CH₂O₂) por cada mL de sistema de elución y diclorometano:metanol 19:1 (Teerasripreecha *et al.*, 2012). Las placas fueron impregnadas con AgNO₃ (250 mg de AgNO₃ disueltos en 5 mL de acetonitrilo) para mejorar la separación de los metabolitos. Se eluyeron dos placas con el mismo sistema,

una placa fue revelada sumergiéndola en una disolución de ácido fosfomolíbdico al 5% y calentada con una pistola de aire caliente durante 1 o 2 min (Figura 3.2). La segunda placa fue revelada con una disolución del radical 2,2-difenil-1-picrilhidracilo (DPPH•) (Brand-Williams *et al.*, 1995). El radical DPPH• disuelto en metanol (de color morado) es rociado sobre el cromatofolio previamente eluído, la actividad antioxidante se observa con una decoloración a la altura de los metabolitos activos (Figura 3.2).

Se calcularon los factores de retención (R_f's por sus siglas en inglés) de los metabolitos visualizados mediante la siguiente formula:



 $\mathsf{R}_{\mathit{f}} = \frac{\text{Distancia recorrida por un componente}}{\text{Distancia recorrida por el disolvente}}$



3.2.2.2. Determinación cuantitativa de la actividad antioxidante

La evaluación de la actividad antioxidante se llevó a cabo siguiendo la metodología de reducción del DPPH• previamente reportada (Brand-Williams *et al.*, 1995) con algunas modificaciones. Se prepararon diferentes concentraciones de cada extracto (0.1, 0.01, 0.001, 0.0001 mg de extracto/mL de etanol) y se agregaron 200 µL a 1,800 µL de DPPH•

(0.1 m*M* en etanol). Después de 30 min de reposo en obscuridad, se midió la absorbancia a 515 nm, el porcentaje de DPPH• restante se calculó utilizando la fórmula:

% decoloración =
$$\frac{1 - (absorbancia promedio)}{absorbancia promedio del blanco} (× 100)$$

Para las mediciones espectrofotométricas se utilizó metanol como blanco y ácido ascórbico (1%) como control positivo.

3.2.3. Actividad anti-AGES

EL ensayo anti-AGEs se llevó a cabo siguiendo la metodología reportada por Sero *et al.*, (2013). Los 45 extractos (1 µg a 1 mg) fueron incubados con D-ribosa (0.5 *M*) y albúmina de suero bovino (BSA, 10 mg/mL) en una solución reguladora de fosfato (50 m*M*, pH 7.4) en placas de microtitulación negras (96 pozos) a 37°C por 24 h en un sistema cerrado. Se midió la fluorescencia de los AGEs vesperlisina (λ exc 370 nm; λ em 440 nm) y la pentosidina (λ exc 335 nm; λ em 385 nm) usando un espectrofluorímetro Infinite M200 (Tecan, Lyon, France).

Para evitar el fenómeno de disminución en la intensidad de la fluorescencia (quenching), la fluorescencia resultante de la incubación del BSA (10mg/mL) en las mismas condiciones fue restada en cada medición de la fluorescencia de los extractos. El control negativo (100% de inhibición de formación de AGEs) consistió en pozos con únicamente BSA. Un control sin inhibición de formación de AGEs consistió en pozos con BSA (10 mg/mL) y D-ribosa (0.5 *M*). El volumen final del ensayo fue de 100 μ L; el porcentaje de formación de AGEs de cada extracto se calculó siguiendo la fórmula:

AGEs (%) = Intensidad de fluorescencia (muestra) – Intensidad de fluorescencia (blanco de muestra)×100 Intensidad de fluorescencia (control) – Intensidad de fluorescencia (blanco control)

Las curvas de dosis-efecto fueron optimizadas con una ecuación dosis-respuesta sigmoidal utilizando el programa Sigma Plot 12.0, el cual calcula los valores de IC_{50} . Los resultados fueron comparados con los productos de referencia aminoguanidina y quercetina.

CAPITULO III

3.2.4. Actividad antiproliferativa

3.2.4.1. Procedimientos generales

Los bioensayos fueron realizados dentro de una campana de flujo laminar (NuAire clase II, tipo A2). Las líneas celulares se mantuvieron dentro de una incubadora de CO₂ con camisa de agua y filtro HEPA (NuAire). Para la determinación del efecto biológico se utilizó sulforrodamina B (SRB, Sigma). Se determinó la densidad óptica en las células previamente tratadas y teñidas con SRB mediante un lector de microplacas multimodo GloMax (Promega).

3.2.4.2. Líneas celulares

Las líneas celulares normales y tumorales fueron crecidas bajo la supervisión de la Dra. Rosa Esther Moo Puc de la Unidad Médica de Alta Especialidad del Instituto Mexicano del Seguro Social. Para los ensayos citotóxicos y antiproliferativos se utilizaron las líneas celulares tumorales de mama (MCF-7 y MDA-MB-231), cérvix (HeLa y SiHa) y células normales de riñón de mono verde (Vero). Las líneas celulares fueron cultivadas y mantenidas en fase logarítmica de crecimiento con medio DMEM suplementado con 10% de suero fetal bovino (SFB). También se empleó 10,000 U de penicilina y 10 mg/mL de estreptomicina para inhibir el crecimiento de bacterias Gram negativas y positivas, respectivamente. Igualmente, se utilizó 2.5 μ g/mL de anfotericina B para inhibir el crecimiento de hongos, a una atmósfera del cultivo con 95% de humedad y 5% de CO₂ a 37 °C.

3.2.4.3. Análisis estadístico de los resultados

Los resultados fueron sometidos a un análisis del modelo de log(inhibidor) *vs* respuesta normalizada, empleando el paquete estadístico Prisma 5 (GraphPad Software), para obtener las concentraciones citotóxicas del 50% (CC₅₀) o concentraciones inhibitorias medias (CI₅₀) del crecimiento celular. Además, el nivel de nocividad en células normales se evaluó determinando el índice selectivo (IS) (Mena-Rejon *et al.*, 2009).

3.2.4.4. Bioensayo de actividad antiproliferativa

Las células fueron incubadas en placas para cultivo celular de 96 pozos. A cada pozo se le adicionaron 100 μ L de medio con una densidad celular de 50,000 células/mL. Transcurridas 24 h (confluencia celular de 60-70%), el medio fue retirado para añadir a

cada pozo 100 μL de nuevo medio con SFB. A su vez, se adicionó cada concentración de los extractos o compuestos a evaluar (50, 25, 12.5, 6.25 μg/mL), y se incubó durante un periodo de 48 h. Al cabo de este tiempo, se realizó la técnica de tinción descrita para SRB (Skehan *et al.*, 1990). Los resultados de la actividad antiproliferativa se reportan como concentración inhibitoria media (Cl₅₀) en μg/mL.

3.2.5. Actividad citotóxica

Los procedimientos generales, líneas celulares y el análisis estadístico fueron los mismos que para la actividad antiproliferativa.

3.2.5.1. Bioensayo de actividad citotóxica

Las células fueron incubadas en placas para cultivo celular de 96 pozos. A cada pozo se le adicionó 100 µL de medio con una densidad celular de 50,000 células/mL. Transcurridas 24 h (confluencia celular de 90%), el medio fue retirado para añadir a cada pozo 100 µL de nuevo medio sin SFB. A su vez, se adicionó cada concentración de los extractos o compuestos a evaluar (50, 25, 12.5, 6.25 µg/mL), y se incubó durante un periodo de 48 h. Posteriormente se adicionó a cada pozo 100 µL de ácido tricloroacético al 10% con la finalidad de fijar las células; se incubó a 4 °C por 30 min. Seguidamente se retiró el sobrenadante, y se adicionó a cada pozo 100 µL de la disolución de SRB (0.1% SRB en ácido acético al 1%), dejando transcurrir 15 min. Se retiró el sobrenadante y se realizaron cuatro lavados con ácido acético al 1% para eliminar el exceso de colorante. La tinción se solubilizó con 200 µL de tris-base (10 mM). Consecutivamente, se midió la densidad óptica de la disolución a 560 nm, empleando un espectrofotómetro. La inhibición del crecimiento se determinó usando la fórmula [(D.O control – D.O extracto o producto puro) / D.O control] x 100. Cada evaluación se realizó por triplicado. Los resultados de la actividad citotóxica se reportan como concentración citotóxica media (CC_{50}) en µg/mL.

3.3. RESULTADOS

3.3.1. Actividad antimicrobiana

En general los extractos de los propóleos analizados mostraron una actividad antimicrobiana baja. En la Figura 3.3 se observan los halos de inhibición alrededor de los discos de papel previamente impregnados con los extractos de propóleos.



Figura 3.3. Discos de papel impregnados con los extractos en las cajas Petri, A) ningún extracto mostró actividad, B) los cinco extractos tienen un halo de 1 mm, C) el extracto tres tiene un halo de 2 mm, D) el extracto 3 tiene un halo de 3 mm; (+) control positivo (10mm), (-) control negativo.

Ningún extracto mostró actividad contra las bacterias *S. aureus* o *E. carotovora;* sin embargo, de los 45 extractos analizados, 21 tuvieron actividad contra al menos una especie de microorganismo de los cuales, 16 extractos de propóleo fueron de *A. mellifera* y cinco de abejas sin aguijón, el porcentaje de inhibición de las muestras activas se muestra en la Tabla 3.3.

Únicamente dos extractos tuvieron actividad contra C. *albicans*, mientras que seis extractos tuvieron actividad contra *B. cereus* y cinco contra *B. subtilis*: solamente un extracto mostró actividad contra *X. campestris*, teniendo el mayor porcentaje de inhibición de todos los extractos analizados (30%) (Tabla 3.3); sin embargo, aún siendo el extracto con mayor actividad, al tener un porcentaje menor al 40%, es considerado inactivo (Tabla 3.3) (Rodríguez y Zevallos, 2014).

Seis extractos presentaron actividad contra *E. coli* y cinco contra *S. flexneri*, mientras que 12 extractos tuvieron actividad contra *P. syringae*, todas con un porcentaje de inhibición de 10% (Tabla 3.3) por lo que, de acuerdo a la clasificación de la Tabla 3.3, realmente se consideran inactivos.

Tabla 3.3. Porcentaje de inhibición de los extractos activos.

Clave	C.	В.	В.	Х.	E.	S.	Р.
	albicans	cereus	subtilis	campestris	coli	flexneri	syringae
Am4	20				20		

Am5					10	20	10	
Am6					10	10	10	
Am8							10	
Am11							10	
Am13					10		10	
Am14			10		20	10	10	
Am17							10	
Am18		20						
Am19	10						10	
Am20					10			
Am22						10	10	
Am23		20		30				
Am24		10						
Am25		10	10			10	10	
Am26		10						
Np1							10	
Np2		20					10	
Tn3			20					
Tn6			10					

Am = muestras de *A. mellifera* colectadas en distintos sitios, Np = muestras de *N. perilampoides* colectadas en dos sitios, Tn = muestras de *T. nigra* colectadas en dos sitios.

3.3.2. Actividad antioxidante

Unicamente tres de los 45 extractos analizados presentaron actividad antioxidante: el extracto de propóleo producido por *A. melífera* proveniente de Hunucmá (Am8) y los producidos por las abejas sin aguijón *M. beecheii* (Mb4) y *Plebeia frontalis* (Pf2), ambas colectadasen Tekax (Figura 3.4). La actividad antioxidante cuantitativa de estos extractos mostró que el extracto Am8 fue el más activo (IC₅₀= 0.71 mg/mL) (Tabla 3.4).

Eluyente Hx:AcOEt:MeOh 90:8:2 Claves 1- Am24 Ļ 2- Am7 Am1 4- Am26 5- Am10 0.82 6- Am8 7- Am22 8- Am11 8- Am11 9- Am23 10- Am20 11- Am3 12- Am2 13- Mb4 14- Mb3 0.47 0.32 0.17-0.08 15- Np2 16- Pb 10 11 17- Sp2 18- Pf2 A. mellifera Abejas Abejas A. mellifera sin aguijón sin aguijón

b)

a)





Figura 3.4. a) Determinación de la actividad antioxidante de los extractos utilizando el sistema Hx:Ac:MeOH 90:8:2. b) Extractos con actividad antioxidante utilizando el sistema Hx:Et₂O 6:4 + ácido fórmico.

Extracto	IC ₅₀	R ² de la
Exilacio	(mg/mL)	curva
Am8	0.71	0.9945
Mb4	844.6	0.9932
Pf2	2907.02	0.9238
Vitamina C	0.053	0.9996

Tabla 3.4. IC₅₀ de los extractos con actividad antioxidante.

Am = muestra de A. mellifera, Mb = muestra de M.

beecheii, Pf = muestra P. frontalis.

3.3.3. Actividad anti-AGEs

De los 27 extractos de propóleo producidos por *A. mellifera* analizados, únicamente los extractos Am25 y Am26 presentaron actividad anti-AGEs, ambos presentaron una mejor

inhibición de la formación de vesperlisina (Tabla 3.5). De los 18 extractos de propóleo producidos por abejas sin aguijón analizados únicamente el extracto del propóleo Tn3, producido por *T. nigra,* presentó inhibición de la formación de pentosidina, con una IC_{50} superior a la del control; en este caso la vesperlisina no se pudo medir, ya que al momento de leer los resultados la muestra estaba turbia (Tabla 3.5).

Muestra	Vesperlisina (IC₅₀) en mg/mL	Pentosidina (IC₅₀) en mg/mL
Am25	0.4	> 1
Am26	0.5	1
Tn3	N. D.	0.9
Aminoguanidina (+)	1	0.2

Tabla 3.5. Concentración inhibitoria máxima media (IC_{50}) (mg/mL) de los extractos de propóleos activos.

N. D. = no determinada, Am = muestras de *A. mellifera* colectadas en dos sitios, Tn = muestra de *T. nigra*.

3.3.5. Actividad antiproliferativa

Ningún extracto mostró una marcada actividad antiproliferativa contra ninguna línea celular cancerígena comparada con los controles. En la línea SiHa el extracto que tuvo una menor IC₅₀ fue la muestra de *A. mellifera* Am8 (61.61 ± 1.2 µg/mL); sin embargo, además de que es una concentración alta comparada con el control positivo, su índice selectivo fue bajo (1.6). Para la línea HeLa el extracto de propóleoTn2 producido por *T. nigra* presentó el valor menor de IC₅₀ (95.67 ± 1.0 µg/mL) con un índice selectivo de 1.0, mientras que para la línea MDA la IC₅₀ menor fue dada por el extracto de la muestra de propóleo producida por *A. mellifera* Am10 (32.16 ± 1.2 µg/mL) con un índice selectivo de 3.1; para la línea MCF7 la muestra con la IC₅₀ menor fue Am26 (89.96 ± 1.0) con un índice selectivo de 1.1. La mayor parte de los índices selectivos tuvieron valores menores a 2.

Extracto	Vero	SiHa	HeLa	MDA	MCF7
Am1	>100	>100	>100	81.88 ± 1.0 (1 2)	>100
Am2	>100	97.16 ± 1.0 (1.0)	>100	(1.2) 45.91 ± 1.1 (2.2)	>100
Am3	>100	>100	>100	>100	>100
Am4	>100	>100	>100	87.32 ± 1.0 (1.1)	>100
Am5	>100	>100	>100	>100	>100
Am6	>100	>100	>100	>100	>100
Am7	>100	>100	>100	50.04 ± 1.1 (2.0)	>100
Am8	>100	61.61 ± 1.2 (1.6)	>100	41.79 ± 1.1 (2.4)	>100
Am10	>100	87.43 ± 1.0 (1.1)	>100	32.16 ± 1.2 (3.1)	>100
Am11	>100	>100	>100	97.8 ± 1.1 (1.0)	>100
Am12	>100	>100	>100	>100	>100
Am13	>100	>100	>100	>100	>100
Am14	>100	>100	>100	>100	>100
Am15	>100	93.68 ± 1.1 (1.1)	>100	>100	>100
Am16	>100	>100	>100	>100	>100
Am17	>100	>100	>100	>100	>100
Am18	>100	89.32 ± 1.1 (1.1)	>100	60.94 ± 1.1 (1.6)	>100
Am19	>100	>100	>100	79.46 ± 1.1 (1.3)	>100
Am20	>100	>100	>100	>100	>100
Am21	>100	>100	>100	88.07 ± 1.0 (1.2)	>100
Am22	>100	>100	>100	68.23 ± 1.0 (1.5)	>100
Am23	>100	76.49 ± 1.2 (1.3)	97.84 ± 1.0 (1.0)	63.41 ± 1.1 (1.6)	>100
Am24	>100	94.49 ± 1.0 (1.0)	>100	44.79 ± 1.1 (2.2)	>100
Am25	>100	>100	>100	76.17 ± 1.2 (1.3)	>100
Am26	>100	67.02 ± 1.2 (1.5)	>100	47.73 ± 1.1 (2.1)	89.96 ± 1.0 (1.1)
Am27	>100	>100	>100	76.49 ± 1.1 (1.3)	>100
Mb1	>100	>100	>100	>100	>100
Mb2	>100	>100	>100	>100	>100
Mb3	>100	>100	>100	>100	>100
Mb4	>100	>100	>100	>100	>100
Tn1	>100	>100	>100	>100	>100
Tn2	>100	>100	95.67 ± 1.0 (1.0)	>100	>100

Tabla 3.6. Datos de IC₅₀ de actividad antiproliferativa (μ g/mL) e índice selectivo de los extractos en varias líneas celulares de cáncer

Tn3	>100	>100	>100	>100	>100
Tn4	>100	>100	>100	>100	>100
Tn5	>100	>100	>100	>100	>100
Tn6	>100	>100	>100	>100	>100
Tn7	>100	>100	>100	>100	>100
Sp1	>100	>100	>100	>100	>100
Sp2	>100	>100	>100	>100	>100
Np1	>100	>100	>100	>100	>100
Np2	>100	>100	>100	>100	>100
Pf1	>100	>100	>100	>100	>100
Pf2	>100	>100	>100	>100	>100
Pb	>100	>100	>100	>100	>100
Docetaxel	0.1	0.07 (1.42)	0.05 (2.0)	0.05 (2.0)	0.008 (12.5)

Am = muestras de *A. mellifera*, Mb = muestras de *M. beecheii*, Tn = muestras de *T. nigra*, Sp = muestras de *S. pectoralis*, Np = muestras de *S. pectoralis*, Pf = muestras de *P. frontalis*, Pb = muestra de *P. bilineata*.

3.3.4. Actividad citotóxica

Los resultados obtenidos a partir del análisis de la actividad citotóxica se muestran en la Tabla 3.7, de los 26 extractos de propóleos colectados *por A. mellifera*; únicamente Am23 fue activo contra la línea celular decáncer cervico-uterino (SiHa), con un índice de selectividad de 6.2 mientras que, de los 18 extractos de propóleos de abejas sin aguijón ocho fueron activos.

Tabla 3.7. Concentración citotóxica media (CC₅₀) de los extractos de propóleos sobre varias líneas celulares cancerígenas (μ g/mL). El índice selectivo se muestra entre paréntesis.

Extracto	Vero	SiHa	HeLa	MDA	MCF7
Am1	>100	68.64 ± 1.1 (1.5)	>100	81.88 ± 1.0 (1.2)	>100
Am2	>100	51.61 ± 1.0 (1.8)	75.96 ± 1.2 (1.3)	45.91 ± 1.1 (2.2)	65.86 ± 1.1 (1.5)
Am3	>100	>100	>100	>100	>100
Am4	>100	90.02 ± 1.0 (1.1)	>100	87.32 ± 1.0 (1.1)	>100
Am5	>100	>100	>100	>100	>100
Am6	>100	>100	>100	>100	>100
Am7	>100	38.98 ± 1.0 (2.6)	98.69 ±1.2 (1.0)	50.04 ± 1.1 (2.0)	75.23 ± 1.1 (1.3)
Am8	86.94 ± 1.0	36.17 ± 1.1 (2.4)	>100	41.79 ± 1.1 (2.4)	46.87 ± 1.1 (1.9)
Am10	>100	34.5 ± 1.0 (3.0)	>100	32.16 ± 1.2 (3.1)	67.55 ± 1.0 (1.5)
Am11	>100	>100	>100	97.8 ± 1.1 (1.0)	>100
Am12	>100	>100	>100	>100	>100
Am13	>100	70.33 ± 1.0 (1.4)	>100	>100	>100
Am14	>100	66.66 ± 1.1	>100	53.29 ± 1.1	79.97 ± 1.0

		(1.5)		(1.9)	(1.2)	
Am15	>100	36.42 ± 1.0	>100	>100	>100	
-		(2.7) 46 14 + 1 0		94 96 + 1 1		
Am16	>100	(2.2)	>100	(1.1)	>100	
Δm17	>100	74.63 ± 1.0	>100	×100	>100	
/	2100	(1.3)	2100	0.04 . 4.4	2100	
Am18	>100	31.39 ± 1.1 (3.2)	>100	60.94 ± 1.1 (1.6)	>100	
A 4 O	. 100	71.92 ± 1.1	. 100	(1.6) 79.46 ± 1.1	. 100	
Am19	>100	(1.4)	>100	(1.3)	>100	
Am20	>100	>100	>100	>100	>100	
Am21	>100	>100	>100	88.07 ± 1.0 (1.2)	>100	
A	400	62.95 ± 1.1	100	(1.2) 68.23 ± 1.0	90.22 ± 1.2	
Amzz	>100	(1.6)	>100	(1.5)	(1.1)	
Am23	>100	16.02 ± 1.1	82.9 ± 1.2	63.41 ± 1.1	>100	
		(0.2) 41 51 + 1 0	(1.2)	(1.0) 44 79 + 1 1	691+11	
Am24	>100	(2.4)	>100	(2.2)	(1.4)	
Am25	>100	79.89 ± 1.0	>100	76.17 ± 1.2	>100	
/ 11120	20.06	(1.2)	70 47 1 2	(1.3)	52.12 + 1.2	
Am26	89.96 ± 1 0	39.79 ± 1.1 (2.3)	(2.47 ± 1.3)	47.73 ± 1.1 (2.1)	53.13 ± 1.2 (1 7)	
A 07	. 100	51.52 ± 1.0	(1.1)	(2.1) 76.49 ± 1.1	(1.1)	
Am27	>100	(1.9)	>100	(1.3)	>100	
Mb1	>100	19.69 ± 1.1	>100	27.16 ± 1.1	74.55 ± 1.0	
		(5.1) 12 97 + 1 0	549+11	(3.7) 183+12	(3.9) 59 8 + 1 0	
Mb2	>100	(7.7)	(1.8)	(5.5)	(3.4)	
Mb3	>100	47.28 ± 1.0	>100	43.79 ± 1.1	54.62 ± 1.1	
moo	2100	(2.1)	2100	(2.3)	(1.8)	
Mb4	>100	48.08 ± 1.0 (2 1)	>100	57.87 ± 1.1 (1 7)	70.29 ± 1.0 (1 4)	
Tn4	87.01 ±	2.52 ± 1.3	29.48 ± 1.2	2.45 ± 1.3	49.96 ± 1.1	
INI	1.0	(39.7)	(3.4)	(35.5)	(1.7)	
Tn2	89.92 ±	3.22 ± 1.9	26.95 ± 1.2	12.88 ± 1.1	48.85 ± 1.1	
	1.0	(31.1) 16.31 ± 1.0	(3.7)	(7.0) 41.49 + 1.1	(1.0) 44.99 + 1.1	
Tn3	>100	(6.1)	>100	(2.4)	(1.2)	
Tn4	>100	25.45 ± 1.1	37.49 ± 1.1	35.04 ± 1.1	72.81 ± 1.1	
		(3.9)	(2.7) 26.21 ± 1.1	(2.8) 25.22 ± 1.1	(1.4) 60.45 ± 1.1	
Tn5	>100	(9.2)	(2.8)	(2.8)	(2.1)	
Tn6	97.94 ±	30.56 ± 1.1	27.59 ± 1.2	36.71 ± 1.1	74.94 ± 1.1	
1110	1.0	(3.3)	(3.6)	(2.7)	(1.3)	
Tn7	93.37 ±	27.82 ± 1.0	28.4 ± 1.2	31.82 ± 1.1	60.88 ± 1.1	
• •	1.0	(3.0) 96.77 ± 1.1	(3.32)	(2.9) 70.7 ± 1.0	(1.5)	
Sp1	>100	(1.0)	>100	(1.4)	>100	
Sp2	>100	54.94 ± 1.2	>100	65.79 ± 1.1	87.06 ± 1.0	
-4-		(1.8) 7 62 ± 1 4	19 21 - 1 1	(1.5) 21 06 ± 1 2	(1.1) 73 55 ± 1 1	
Np1	>100	(13.1)	40.31 ± 1.1 (2.1)	21.30 ± 1.2 (4.5)	(2.4)	
Nn2	\100	68.81 ± 1.0	<u>(</u>)	52.08 ± 1.1	72.63 ± 1.1	
мра	2100	(1.4)	2100	(1.9)	(1.4)	

Pf1	>100	9.69 ± 1.1 (10.3)	41.58 ± 1.1 (2.4)	9.61 ±1.2 (10.4)	50.53 ± 1.1 (3.0)	
Pf2	>100	51.47 ± 1.0 (1.9)	>100	57.76 ± 1.3 (1.7)	47.23 ± 1.1 (2.1)	
Pb	>100	65.42 ± 1.2 (1.5)	>100	60.19 ± 1.0 (1.7)	80.95 ± 1.0 (1.2)	
Docetaxel	1.05	0.18 (5.8)	0.07 (14.6)	0.15 (7.0)	0.008 (131.2)	

Am = muestras de *A. mellifera*, Mb = muestras de *M. beecheii*, Tn = muestras de *T. nigra*, Sp = muestras de *S. pectoralis*, Np = muestras de *S. pectoralis*, Pf = muestras de *P. frontalis*, Pb = muestra de *P. bilineata*.

De los cuatro extractos de propóleos producidos por *M. beecheii* dos fueron activos, Mb1 presentó actividad citotóxica contra la línea celular SiHa con una CC_{50} de $16.02 \pm 1.1 \mu$ g/mL y un índice selectivo (IS) de 5.1, mientras que el extracto de la muestra Mb2 presentó actividad contra la misma línea celular ($CC_{50} = 12.97 \pm 1.0 \mu$ g/mL, IS = 7.7) y además contra la línea celular de cáncer de mama MDA con una CC_{50} de 18.3 ± 1.2 μ g/mL y un IS de 5.5 (Tabla 3.7).

Cuatro de los siete extractos de propóleos producidos por *T. nigra* presentaron actividad citotóxica, Tn1 y Tn2 presentaron actividad contra las líneas celulares SiHa y MDA; Tn1 con CC₅₀ similares en ambas líneas ($2.52 \pm 1.3 \text{ y} 2.45 \pm 1.3 \text{ µg/mL}$, respectivamente) e índices selectivos altos (39.7 para SiHa y 35.5 para MDA), mientras que Tn2 presentó una CC₅₀ mucho menor contra la línea celular SiHa ($3.22 \pm 1.9 \text{ µg/mL}$) con un índice selectivo de 31.1 y un CC₅₀ mayor contra la línea MDA con un índice selectivo menor ($12.88 \pm 1.1 \text{ µg/mL y } 7.0$, respectivamente) como puede observarse en la Tabla 3.7.

Los extractos Tn3 y Tn5 únicamente presentaron actividad contra la línea SiHa con CC_{50} mayores (16.31 ± 1.0 y 10.9 ± 1.2 µg/mL, respectivamente) con índices selectivos de 6.1 y 9.2 (Tabla 3.7).

Las muestras colectadas en Xmatkuil (Np1 y Pf1) producidas por dos especies distintas (*N. perilampoides* y *P. frontalis*), presentaron actividad contra las dos líneas celulares SiHa y MDA, Np1 con una CC₅₀ menor para SiHa (7.62 ± 1.4 µg/mL, SI = 4.5) que para MDA (21.96 ± 1.2 µg/mL, SI = 4.5) y Pf1 presentó una CC₅₀ y un índice selectivo similar en ambos casos (CC₅₀ = 9.69 ± 1.1 y 9.61 ±1.2 µg/mL, SI = 10.3 y 10.4, respectivamente) (Tabla 3.7).

Ningún extracto mostró actividad citotóxica contra las células no cancerosas (Vero).

Se realizó un análisis multivariado para determinar cuáles son los metabolitos que diferencian a las muestras con actividad citotóxica de las muestras inactivas, sin embargo, los resultados indicaron que se necesita un mayor número de muestras para poder identificarlos.

3.4. DISCUSIÓN

En el capitulo II de esta investigación se determinó que tanto los extractos de propóleos de *A. mellifera* como de abejas sin aguijón están compuestos principalmente por triterpenos, esto podría explicar porqué los extractos analizados en este trabajo fueron inactivos contra los microorganismos probados (> 40% de porcentaje de inhibición) ya que los metabolitos que han sido reportados como los que les confieren la actividad biológica a propóleos colectados en otras zonas son de tipo fenólico (Huang *et al.*, 2014; Salatino *et al.*, 2011; Toreti *et al.*, 2013).

En el capítulo VI se concluye que los metabolitos que confieren actividad antioxidante a los extractos analizados son lípidos resorcinólicos, provenientes de la resina de *M. indica*, especie cultivada con presencia frecuente en los sistemas agrícolas de la Península de Yucatán. La variación en la abundancia relativa de este tipo de metabolitos en los extractos refuerza la hipótesis de que la composición de los propóleos esta relacionada con la vegetación que circunda el sitio de colecta (Huang *et al.*, 2014; Salatino *et al.*, 2011), por lo que es probable que en los sitios donde se colectaron las tres muestras que presentaron actividad antioxidante haya una mayor cantidad de árboles que produzcan lípidos resorcinólicos.

Como se mencionó anteriormente, algunos metabolitos con actividad antioxidante a menudo pueden inhibir la formación de AGEs (Harris *et al.*, 2011; Kim y Kim, 2003), se esperaría que los tres extractos que fueron activos en el ensayo de reducción del radical DPPH también tuvieran actividad anti-AGEs; sin embargo, esto no sucedió, pues las muestras con dichas actividad fueron diferentes, indicando que no hay correlación entre la presencia de los metabolitos y estas actividades.

Ya que en un estudio sobre propóleo producido por *T. incisa* colectado en Indonesia se había identificado al lípido resorcinólico 5-pentadecil-resorcinol como el responsable de la actividad antiproliferativa de ese extracto (Kustiawan *et al.*, 2015), y en propóleo de *A. mellifera* colectado en Thai también se había relacionado a los lípidos resorcinólicos con

la actividad antiproliferativa (Teerasripreecha *et al.*, 2012), se esperaría que al menos las muestras que contienen este metabolito, junto con otros lípidos resorcinólicos (que fueron las muestras con actividad antioxidante), presentaran actividad antiproliferativa; sin embargo, ninguno de los extractos fue activo.

De igual forma, no se encontraron reportes en la literatura acerca del uso de estas mismas líneas celulares para la determinación de la actividad citotóxica o antiproliferativa utilizando extractos de propóleo.

Los resultados obtenidos sobre la determinación de la actividad citotóxica son muy importantes, en primer lugar, debido a que los extractos que presentaron una mayor actividad citotóxica son de muestras de propóleos colectadas por abejas sin aguijón, hasta la fecha, no se contaba con reportes sobre su composición ni sobre las actividades biológicas que pueden presentar.

Además, es importante mencionar que de acuerdo al Instituto Nacional del Cancer, un extracto es considerado un agente anticáncer prometedor para el desarrollo de fármacos si presenta un valor de IC_{50} menor a 30 µg/mL (Oliveira *et al.*, 2015); mientras que valores de índices selectivos (SI) ≥ 2 pueden ser considerados prometedores (Demirgan *et al.*, 2016; Oliveira *et al.*, 2015; Tantengco y Jacinto, 2015), aunque muchas veces este valor cambia con respecto al autor.

Cabe destacar que todos los extractos de propóleos con actividad citotóxica analizados en esta investigación presentaron CC_{50} menores a 30 µg/L y valores de IS mayores a dos, lo que aumenta su potencial para ser explorados en el descubrimiento y desarrollo de nuevos agentes anticancerígenos.

Comparando la composición química de los extractos con actividad citotóxica, se puede observar que metabolitos triterpénicos mayoritarios como la olean-12-en-3-ona, la β -amirina y la lupenona, están presentes en todas las muestras, lo que indica que no son los que les confieren la actividad citotóxica a los extractos, por lo que los metabolitos bioactivos deben estar entre los metabolitos minoritarios (Figura 3.5).





De cuatro muestras de propóleos de *M. beecheii* analizadas, dos presentaron actividad citotóxica (Mb1 y Mb2), probablemente debido a la presencia de distintas fuentes de resinas en los sitios de colecta, la muestra Mb1 solamente presentó actividad citotóxica

contra la línea celular SiHa, mientras que la muestra Mb2, además de la actividad contra esta línea, también tuvo actividad contra la línea celular MDA.

Las muestras colectadas en Xmatkuil fueron propóleos colectados por cinco especies distintas de abejas sin aguijón, cuatro de las cuales presentaron actividad citotóxica (*M. beecheii*, *T. nigra*, *N. perilampoides* y *P. frontalis*), lo que indica que la elección de exudados depede de la abeja que los colecta.

A su vez, el hecho de que de las cuatro muestras de propóleo de *T. nigra* colectadas de distintas colmenas en el mismo apiario en Sihochac (Tn4-Tn7), únicamente la muestra Tn5 presentó actividad citotóxica, indica que hay diferencia en la composición del propóleo incluso dentro de la misma especie y la misma localidad, esto puede deberse a distintas necesidades que la colmena tenga.

A pesar de que los extractos analizados en esta investigación no contienen metabolitos fenólicos, que son los reportados mayormente como bioactivos en otros propóleos (Banskota *et al.*, 2002; Banskota *et al.*, 1998; Li *et al.*, 2008; Li *et al.*, 2011), aún así presentaron actividad citotóxica, esto permite deducir que los metabolitos activos son de otra naturaleza.

CAPITULO IV

ORÍGEN BOTÁNICO DE TRITERPENOIDES DE PROPÓLEO YUCATECO *

RESUMEN

El propóleo es un material resinoso producido por las abejas a partir de exudados de plantas. Los metabolitos más comunes encontrados en los propóleos son los polifenoles que poseen diferentes actividades biológicas; sin embargo, hasta la fecha, hay varios reportes que describen la presencia de triterpenoides en propóleos. En este trabajo se describe el aislamiento y la identificación de los triterpenoides ácido mangiferólico (1), ácido *iso*-mangiferólico (2) y damarenediol II (3), junto con un número de triterpenos pentacíclicos ubicuos, del extracto de una muestra de propóleo colectado en Yucatán, México. Mientras que los cicloartanos 1 y 2 han sido reportados previamente de propóleos colectados en África, Asia y Sudamérica, este es el primer reporte del dammarano 3 como componente en propóleo. El origen botánico de 3 y de los triterpenos pentacíclicos ha sido rastreado a la resina de *Bursera simaruba*, un árbol comúnmente encontrado en la Península de Yucatán. Los resultados de esta investigación confirman la cercana relación entre la flora que rodea la colmena y la composición química de los propóleos.

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CAPITULO IV

4.1. INTRODUCTION

Propolis is a resinous material produced by bees from buds and plant exudates; bees use this material to seal crevices and holes in the hive and to embalm small intruders in order to prevent decomposition (Simone-Finstrom y Spivak, 2010); propolis is usually composed of plant resins (50%), waxes (30%), essential and aromatic oils (10%), pollen (5%) and other organic and inorganic components (5%).

It is well known that the composition of propolis depends mainly on the plant source used by the bees to collect the resins or exudates (Huang *et al.*, 2014; Wagh, 2013); consequently propolis is often classified using the name of the source plant, identified by observing the collection patterns of the bees and/or by comparing the chemical profile of the plant materials with that of the propolis extract (Huang *et al.*, 2014).

Propolis is broadly classified into two main groups: propolis from temperate regions, originating mainly from poplar (*Popolus* spp) tree exudates, which are rich in phenolics such as flavonoids, aromatic acids and their esters (Bankova *et al.*, 2000), and propolis from tropical regions where bees use plants of different genus, *e.g. Clusia* in Cuba, Brazil and Venezuela; *Macaranga* in the pacific and African regions; *Baccharis* in southeast Brazil; and *Dalbergia* in Brazil and Nepal, as their main source of resin (Cuesta-Rubio *et al.*, 2007; Kumazawa *et al.*, 2008; Mendonca-Melo *et al.*, 2017; Salatino *et al.*, 2011; Trusheva *et al.*, 2004; Velikova *et al.*, 2000), which are rich in prenylated derivatives of *p*-coumaric acids, diterpenes, lignans, prenylated benzophenones and prenylated flavonoids (Kardar *et al.*, 2014).

Recently, propolis samples have been classified according to their geographical origin (Kardar *et al.*, 2014; Salatino *et al.*, 2011; Toreti *et al.*, 2013), with five types of propolis recently recognized on the basis of their chemo-geographic patterns (Salatino *et al.*, 2011). To date, however, there is an increasing number of reports describing the presence of pentacyclic triterpenes as the main components of propolis (Boisard *et al.*, 2015; Bracho-Pérez *et al.*, 2009; Kardar *et al.*, 2014; Nina *et al.*, 2016; Omar *et al.*, 2017; Tamfu-Alfred *et al.*, 2016).

Mexico is the eight honey-producing country in the world, with the Yucatan Peninsula contributing 37% of the national production (SIAP, 2018); however, and despite having an

important apiarian infrastructure, propolis production in Mexico and the Yucatan peninsula can be considered minimum.

As a result, studies on the chemical composition and/or biological activity of Mexican and Yucatecan propolis are limited; there are reports of antimicrobial activity in a propolis sample collected in Campeche, Mexico (Tolosa y Cañizares, 2002) and about the presence of flavanones, isoflavans and pterocarpans in a sample of red propolis from Champoton, Mexico (Lotti *et al.*, 2010); there is also a study correlating antimicrobial activity and composition of propolis collected in central Mexico (Londono *et al.*, 2010), and reports about the chemical composition and biological activity of propolis samples collected in Sonora, Mexico (Hernandez *et al.*, 2007; Li *et al.*, 2010); as well as the GC–MS analysis of propolis samples collected in Yucatan, Mexico (*Pino et al.*, 2006).

Recently, we reported the identification of a number of pentacyclic triterpenes as the main constituents of a propolis sample collected in Quintana Roo, Mexico (Boisard *et al.*, 2015); here we wish to describe the isolation and identification of the triterpenoids mangiferolic acid (1), *iso*-mangiferolic acid (2), and dammarenediol II (3) from the crude extract of a propolis sample collected in Yucatan, Mexico.

4.2. MATERIAL AND METHODS – EXPERIMENTAL

4.2.1. General experimental procedures

NMR, Bruker Avance III (spectra recorded in CDCI₃ at 500 MHz for¹H and 125 MHz for ¹³C, using the residual solvent signal as reference).

HPLC analyses of samples (injection volume 10 μ L) were carried out on a Waters Alliance e2695 system and 2998 PDA detector connected to a computerized data station using Waters Empower software; separations were carried out in a Phenomenex Luna C18 column (150 × 4.6 mm, 5 μ m) using a binary mobile phase of water (A) and acetonitrile (B), with a flow rate of 1.0 mL/min and an A/B (%) gradient elution of 53/47 to 28/72 (27 min), increase B to 81% (1 min), to 93% (17 min), andto 100% in the last minute. The UV detector was set at 215 nm.

Analytical TLC was carried out using aluminum-backed silica gel plates (Merck, 0.2 mm); chromatograms were visualized using a solution of phosphomolybdic acid (20 g) and ceric sulfate (2.5 g) in 500 mL of 5% sulfuric acid followed by drying and heating. Preparative

TLC (prep.TLC) was carried out using glass-coated 20×20 cm silica gel plates (Merck, 0.25 mm) impregnated with AgNO₃. Flash and open CC purifiations were carried out using AgNO₃-impregnated silica gel (Merck 200 - 400 and Sigma-Aldrich 70 - 230 mesh, respectively).

4.2.2. Preparation of AgNO₃-impregnated silica gel plates for prep. TLC and silica gel for column chromatography

Silica gel plates were eluted with a 5% $AgNO_3$ solution in acetonitrile and allowed to dry before use; silica gel (10 g) was combined with 50 mL of a 5% $AgNO_3$ solution in acetonitrile and allowed to stand for 5 min before evaporating the solvent.

4.2.3. Collection and extraction of propolis and plant material

Propolis was collected in February 2015 by Mr. Lino Mex Mex, a beekeeper of Apis mellifera in Hunucma, Yucatan, Mexico (Am8). The resin sample of Bursera simaruba (L) Sarg. was obtained in March 2016 from the resinous material flowing freely from the outer bark (Figure S1) of a tree growing in an area close to the beehive in Hunucma, Yucatan, Mexico. The resin samples taken from the peduncles of "Ataulfo" and "Cardenal" varieties of *M. indica* were obtained in April 2017 and May 2018, respectively, from trees growing in an area close to the beehive in Hunucma, Yucatan, Mexico. The sample of propolis was ground to a homogeneous powder using liquid nitrogen and a portion (1 g) was extracted with ethanol at temperature (20 mL, three times. 2 room h). The combined fitrates were kept overnight at -18 °C and then filtered to remove precipitated waxes (Boisard et al., 2015). Evaporation of the solvent under reduced pressure yielded 738 mg (73.8%) of crude propolis extract. The collected resins samples of B. simaruba (1 g), M. indica var. "Ataulfo" (0.7 g), and M. indica var. "Cardenal" (0.5 g). were extracted following the same protocol described previously for the propolis sample to produce 300, 2.9, and 13.9 mg of crude extract, respectively.

4.2.4. GC–MS analysis of propolis extract

The sample was analyzed non-derivatized in an Agilent Technologies Gas Chromatograph 6890N connected to an Agilent Technologies Mass Detector 5975B, with an ionization voltage of 70 eV; the separation was carried out using an Agilent HP-5MS column (30 m \times 0.250 mm Ø with 0.25 film thickness), helium as a carrier gas (1 mL/min)

and a temperature program of 110 °C (2 min), 110 - 260 °C(15 °C/min), 260 °C (3 min), 260-280 °C (2 °C/min), 280 °C (5 min), 280-300 °C (5 °C/min), 300 °C (30 min). Injector and detector temperatures were set to 280 °C and 150 °C, respectively. The major triterpenoids observed in the chromatographic profile of the propolis extract were identified as β -amyrenone, β -amyrin, lupenone, lupeol and β -amyrin acetate by comparing their retention time values with those of commercial samples (β -amyrin and lupeol; Extrasynthese) or authentic samples prepared in the laboratory (β -amyrenone, lupenone, and β -amyrin acetate).

4.2.5. Purification of propolis extract

A portion (420 mg) of the crude propolis extract was dissolved in dichloromethane and adsorbed in 800 mg of silica gel (200-400 mesh). The sample was placed on top of a chromatographic column (5 \times 20 cm) and separated by flash CC using AgNO₃impregnated silica gel and a mixture of hexane:ethyl ether 6:4 + 1 µl/ml of formic acid as eluent. The collected fractions were combined into twelve (1a to 12a) semi-purified fractions. Open CC (1.5 × 30 cm) purification of fraction 8a (91 mg) using AgNO₃impregnated silica gel and a mixture of dichloromethane:methanol 19.5:0.5 as eluent yielded semi-purified fractions 9b (6.1 mg), 10b (11.9 mg) and 11b (4.4 mg), which were combined and purified by multiple-elution (four times) prep. TLC using AqNO₃impregnated silica gel plates and a mixture of dichloromethane:methanol 19:1 as eluent to produce fraction A (4.7 mg) identified as mangiferolic acid (1). Similarly, fractions 6a (14.8 mg) and 7a (67.7 mg) were combined and purified by open CC (1.5 x 30 cm) using AgNO₃-impregnated silica gel and a mixture of dichloromethane:methanol 19.5:0.5 as eluent to yield semipurified fractions 3c (8.7 mg) and 4c (10.3 mg), which were combined and purified by multiple-elution (four times) prep. TLC using AqNO₃-impregnated silica gel plates and a mixture of dichloromethane: methanol 19:1 as eluent to produce fractions B (3.2 mg) and C (5.2 mg) identified as iso-mangiferolic acid (2) and dammarenediol II (3). respectively.

Mangiferolic acid (1). White, 4.7 mg, solid; NMR¹H and NMR-¹³C (see Table S1).

Iso-mangiferolic acid (2). White, 3.2 mg, solid; NMR¹H and NMR-¹³C (see Table S1).

Damnarenediol II (3). White, 5.2 mg, solid; NMR¹H and NMR-¹³C (see Table S1); EM (m/z) 55, 69, 95, 109, 207, 426.

CAPITULO IV

4.3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Initial GC-MS analysis of the propolis crude extract produced a chromatographic profile showing only triterpenoids as the main constituents. Of these, the ubiquitous pentacyclic triterpenes β -amyrenone, β -amyrin, lupenone, lupeol and β -amyrin acetate were identified as the main components (Figure 4.1), by comparing them with commercial or authentic samples. In an attempt to identify the minor components in the sample of yucatecan propolis, purification of the crude extract resulted in the isolation of three fractions (A-C), each showing a single component by TLC. The ¹H-NMR spectrum of the main component infraction A showed two one-proton signals at δ 0.34 and 0.56, characteristic of the C19-methylene protons in a cycloartane skeleton, and the carbon signals in the ¹³C-NMR spectrum confirmed its triterpenoid nature. A detailed analysis of the spectroscopic data of the isolated metabolite (Table S1) allowed its identification as mangiferolic acid (1) (Figure 4.2), reported as the first published example of a triterpenic acid containing a cyclopropane ring (Corsano y Mincione, 1965; Escobedo-Martinez *et al.*, 2012).

The ¹H-NMR and ¹³C-NMR spectra of the main component in fraction B proved to be very similar to those of **1**, with the main difference being that the H-3 proton signal (δ 3.47) in the ¹H-NMR of the main component in fraction B showed the characteristic coupling pattern (bdd, *J* = 2.9 Hz) of an equatorial proton with the axial and equatorial protons of a neighboring methylene; on this basis, and by comparing its spectroscopic data with those reported in the literature (Escobedo-Martinez *et al.*, 2012; Silva *et al.*, 2005), the second purified metabolite was identified as *iso*-mangiferolic acid (**2**) (Figure 4.2).

The ¹H and ¹³C-NMR spectroscopic data of the major component in fraction C proved to be identical to those reported for dammarenediol II (**3**) (Figure 4.2) (Satiraphan, 2012), a triterpene first reported from Dammar resin (Mills y Werner, 1955). The GC-MS analysis of **3** showed a single component with a fragment ion at m/z 426 [M⁺–H2O], which coincided with the triterpenoid structure and the molecular formula (C₃₀H₅₂O₂) of **3**. The 20S-configuration of **3** was confirmed by a detailed analysis of its ¹³C NMR spectrum data, since it has been reported that the chemical shift of C-21 and C-22 in dammarenediol II (24.9 and 40.5 ppm, respectively) are significantly different than those in dammarenediol-I (23.5 and 41.8 ppm, respectively) (Hu *et al.*, 2017; Satiraphan, 2012; Tansakul *et al.*, 2006).



Figure 4.1. A) GC-MS chromatographic profile of propolis extract. B) GC-MS chromatographic profile of *B. simaruba* resin extract. C) Overlay of the GC-MS chromatographic profile of *B. simaruba* resin extract with that of pure dammarenediol (3). Triterpenes identified β -amyrenone (**a**), β -amyrin (**b**), lupenone (**c**), lupeol (**d**), β -amyrin acetate (**e**), dammarenediol II (**f**).

The cycloartanes mangiferolic acid (1) and *iso*-mangiferolic acid (2) have been reported from samples of propolis collected in Cameroon (Kardar *et al.*, 2014), Myanmar (Li *et al.*, 2009), and Indonesia (Trusheva *et al.*, 2011); however, dammarenediol II (3) has not, to date, been reported as a constituent of propolis. Even though metabolites **1-3** have been reported to occur together with common pentacyclic triterpenoids in the resin of the mango (*M. indica*) tree (Anjaneyulu y Radhika, 2000; Anjaneyulu *et al.*, 1989; Ediriweera *et al.*, 2017; Escobedo-Martinez *et al.*, 2012; Silva *et al.*, 2005) neither the three metabolites nor any other triterpenoids could be detected in significant amounts in the chromatographic profiles obtained from GC-MS and HPLC analyses of the resin extract of two mango tree varieties (Ataulfo and Cardenal) (Figs. S2-S6) growing close to the beehive, and known to be commonly cultivated for commercial purposes in the Yucatan Peninsula (Fernández-Concha *et al.*, 2010).

The absence of triterpenoids in the resin extract of the two *M. indica* varieties found in Yucatan, although unexpected, coincides with previous reports describing important variations in the composition and/or content of common pentacyclic terpenoids, cycloartenols and dammaranes between *M. indica* varieties and between parts of the mango trees (Anjaneyulu y Radhika, 2000).

Metabolites **1** and **2** have also been reported to occur in species belonging to the Pinaceae (Li *et al.*, 2015) and Anacardiaceae (Grace *et al.*, 2016) families growing in

temperate zones, while mangiferolic acid (1) has been isolated from extracts of tropical plants belonging to the Clusiaceae family, specifically from the *Garcinia* genus (Bui *et al.*, 2016; Jamila *et al.*, 2014; Jong *et al.*, 2013; Parveen *et al.*, 1991).

The flora of the Yucatan Peninsula lists a significant number of resinous species belonging to the Anacardiaceae family and *Garcinia intermedia* as the only species of the *Garcinia* genus (Fernández-Concha *et al.*, 2010). We are currently investigating the resin extracts of a number of these species in order to identify the botanical origin of **1** and **2**, as well as that of some of the major pentacyclic triterpenoids (*e.g.* lupenone and β -amyrin acetate) found in the propolis sample.

The fact that the resin extract of *B. simaruba* has been reported to contain primarily pentacyclic triterpenes such as α -and β -amyrin derivatives and sterols (Peraza-Sánchez *et al.*, 1995), and that these metabolites have been recently identified as the major components in a propolis sample collected in the nearby state of Quintana Roo (Boisard *et al.*, 2015), prompted us to investigate the minor components in the resin extract of this tree commonly found in the Yucatan Peninsula and popular with bees collecting resin (Figure S1).



Figure 4.2. Triterpenoids from Yucatecan propolis: mangiferolic acid (1), *iso*-mangiferolic acid (2), dammarenediol II (3).

The chromatographic profile obtained from the GC-MS analysis of the resin extract of *B. simaruba* (Figure 4.1) showed, in addition to the major triterpenoids mentioned above, a minor component having the same retention time ($t_R = 32.0$ min, Figure 4.1) and fragmentation pattern (Fig. S7) as those of pure dammarenediol II (**3**) (Kim *et al.*, 2015).

This finding confirmed the resin of *B. simaruba* as the botanical origin of **3** and several of the major pentacylic triterpenes found in the propolis sample; this result is also supported by the fact that **3** has been reported as a constituent in the resin of trees belonging to the *Canarium* genus, which are native to tropical Africa and southern Asia and belong, like *B. simaruba*, to the Burseraceae family.

4.4. CONCLUSIONS

The presence of only dammarenediol II (3) and several of the major pentacyclic triterpenes in both the propolis sample and the resin extract of *B. simaruba* indicates that bees did not use the resin of a single tree to prepare the propolis sample used in this investigation. Furthermore, the fact that all of the identified metabolites have been reported from tropical plants confirms the close relationship between the geographic zones and the resinous plants used by the bees to prepare their propolis.

4.5. ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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4.6. APPENDIX A. SUPPLEMENTARY DATA

Supplementary material related to this article can be found, in the online version, at doi: <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.phytol.2018.10.015</u>.

Botanical origin of triterpenoids from Yucatecan propolis

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Figure S1. Stingless bee (*Trigona nigra*) collecting resin from the trunk of *Bursera simaruba*.

	N	1angiferolic acid (1)	lso-i	<i>lso</i> -mangiferolic acid (2)		Dammarenediol II (3)	
Positi on	¹³ C	¹ H	¹³ C	¹ H	¹³ C	¹ H	
1	32.0	1.59 (m)	27.5	1.3 (m)	39.0	1.15 (m), 1.75 (m)	
2	30.4	1.77 (m), 1.73 (m)	28.2	1.9 (m), 1.6 (m)	27.4	1.64 (m)	
3	78.9	3.28 (dd <i>J</i> = 11.2, 4.7 Hz)	77.3	3.47 (t <i>J</i> = 2.9)	79.0	3.20 (dd, <i>J</i> = 11.6, 4.7 Hz, 1H)	
4	40.5		39.6		39.0		
5	47.1	1.26 (m)	41.1	1.79 (m)	55.9	0.75 (d <i>J</i> = 11.6)	
6	21.1	1.62 (m)	21.1	1.49 (m), 0.84 (m)	18.3	1.47 (m), 1.55 (m)	
7	28.2	1.31 (m)	28.6	1.6 (m)	35.2	1.32 (m), 1.57 (m)	
8	48.0	1.47 (m)	48.1	1.49 (m)	40.4		
9	20.0		19.8		50.6	1.31 (m)	
10	26.0		26.5		37.1		
11	26.5	1.24 (m)	26.3	2.01(m)	21.6	1.27 (m), 1.51 (m)	
12	32.9	1.59 (m)	32.9	1.57 (m)	25.4	1.5 (m), 1.75 (m)	
13	45.4		45.3		42.3	1.62 (m)	
14	48.8		48.9		50.3		
15	35.5	1.39 (m)	35.5	1.32 (m)	31.2	1.47 (m), 1.07 (m)	
16	26.1	1.10 (m)	25.9	1.08 (m)	27.6	1.27 (m), 1.82 (m)	
17	52.2	1.58 (m)	52.2	1.56 (m)	49.9	1.75 (m)	
18	18.1	0.93 (m)	19.3	0.86 (s)	16.3	0.88 (s)	
19	29.7	0.56 (d <i>J</i> = 4.56), 0.34 (d <i>J</i> = 4.56)	29.8	0.52 (d $J = 4.2$), 0.35 (d $J = 4.2$)	15.5	0.97	
20	36.0	1.30 (m)	36.0	1.29 (m)	75.5		
21	19.3	0.94 (d <i>J</i> = 6.53)	18.1	0.92 (d <i>J</i> = 6.5)	24.8	1.14 (s)	
22	34.8	1.61 (m)	34.8	1.61 (m)	40.5	1.45 (m)	
23	25.9	1.33 (m)	25.7	1.14 (m)	22.6	2.07 – 2.00 (m)	
24	145.9	6.90 (dd <i>J</i> = 5.95, 1.48)	145.9	6.84	124. 7	5.12 (dd, <i>J</i> = 7.1 Hz)	
25	126.4		126.3		131. 7		
26	169.6		170.0		25.8	1.69 (s)	
27	12.1	1.81 (s)	12.1	1.83 (s)	17.8	1.62 (s)	
28	18.2	0.78 (s)	18.1	0.98 (s)	28.0	0.97 (d, <i>J</i> = 8.4 Hz)	
29	14.0	0.78 (s)	21.3	0.96 (s)	15.4	0.77 (s)	
30	25.5	0.98 (s)	26.0	0.84	16.5	0.84 (s)	
41.1.5.15.4							

Table S1. Spectroscopic data of mangiferolic acid (1), iso-mangiferolic acid (2), and dammarenediol II (3) isolated from *A. mellifera* propolis (Am8) collected in Hunucmá, Yucatan.

 $^1\text{H-NMR}$ (CDCl₃, 500 MHz) and $^{13}\text{C-NMR}$ (CDCl₃, 125 MHz)



Figure S2. HPLC chomatographic profiles: a) Resin extract of M. indica var. Cardenal. b) Mangiferolic acid (1). c) Overlay of the chromatographic profile of the resin extract of *M. indica* var. Cardenal (black line) with that of mangiferolic acid (1) (blue line).


Figure S3. HPLC chomatographic profiles: a) Resin extract of *M. indica* var. Cardenal. b) iso-mangiferolic acid (2). c) Overlay of the chromatographic profile of the resin extract of *M. indica* var. Cardenal (black line) with that of iso-mangiferolic acid (2) (blue line).



Figure S4. HPLC chomatographic profiles: a) Resin extract of *M. indica* var. Ataulfo. b) Mangiferolic acid (1). c) Overlay of the chromatographic profile of the resin extract of *M. indica* var. Ataulfo (black line) with that of mangiferolic acid (1) (blue line).



Figure S5. HPLC chomatographic profiles: a) Resin extract of *M. indica* var. Ataulfo. b) iso-mangiferolic acid (2). c) Overlay of the chromatographic profile of the resin extract of *M. indica* var. Ataulfo (black line) with that of iso-mangiferolic acid (2) (blue line).



Figure S6. GC-MS chromatographic profiles: a) Resin extract of *M. indica* var. Ataulfo. b) Resin extract of *M. indica* var. Cardenal. c) Resin extract of *B. simaruba*.



Figure S7. a) Fragmentation pattern of dammarenediol II (3) from the GC-MS analysis (component at t_R 32.0 min) of the resin extract of *B. simaruba*. b) Fragmentation pattern of pure dammarenediol II (3). c) Fragmentation pattern of dammarenediol II (3) reported in the literature (Jung, *et al.*, 2015).



Figure S8. HPLC chomatographic profile of the propolis extract.



Figure S9. HPLC chomatographic profile of the resin of *B. simaruba*.

LÍPIDOS RESORCINÓLICOS CON ACTIVIDAD ANTIOXIDANTE AISLADOS DE PROPÓLEO YUCATECO*

RESUMEN

El propóleo es un material producido por las abejas a partir de una combinación de exudados de plantas y ceras, que se utiliza para rellenar grietas en la colmena y para defenderse de intrusos y microorganismos patógenos; es reconocido por sus numerosas actividades biológicas y su composición química depende de las fuentes botánicas cercanas a la colmena. El objetivo de esta investigación fue aislar e identificar los metabolitos con actividad antioxidante presente en una muestra de propóleo colectada en Yucatán, México. La purificación de los metabolitos bioactivos se realizó mediante cromatografía de argentacion, mientras que la combinación de los datos de ¹H-RMN, LDI, GC-MS y del origen biosintético permitió su identificación como lípidos resorcinólicos. Finalmente, la resina de *Mangifera indica* se identificó como una de las fuentes botánicas de estos metabolitos.

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5.1. INTRODUCTION

Propolis is a material that bees produce by collecting exudates of plants and mixing it with wax and other materials; it is used by the bees to condition their nests, to fill out cracks in the beehive and to defend the beehive against intruders and pathogenic microorganisms (Boisard *et al.*, 2015; Simone-Finstrom y Spivak, 2010; Trusheva *et al.*, 2011).

The odor, color and chemical constitution of propolis depends on the botanical sources close to the beehive, as well as the geographic and climatic conditions of the region (Huang *et al.*, 2014; Schmidt *et al.*, 2014).

Recently, five types of propolis have been identified according to their chemogeographic patterns (Salatino *et al.*, 2011): propolis type I, commonly found in temperate zones of West Asia, Europe and North America, where its main source is the resinous exudate of the poplar tree (*Populus nigra*, Salicaceae) and its main components are flavonoids without substituents in ring B and phenylpropanoid acids and their esters; propolis type II, also called Brazilian green propolis, whose main source of resin is *Baccharis dracunculifolia* and contains prenylated phenylpropanoids and caffeoylquinic acids; propolis type III, found in Cuba and Venezuela, which contains mainly prenylated benzophenones and its main source of resin are the flowers of *Clusia* spp; propolis type IV, also known as Pacific type, is found in Taiwan and the Okinawa region where is derived from exudates of the fruits of *Macaranga tanarius* and its main components are geranil flavanones; finally, propolis type V, found in Greece, Crete and Turkey, contains mainly diterpenes and anthraquinones, and its main sources are plants of the Cupressaceae family.

Propolis is also recognized for its many biological activities including antimicrobial, antitumor, antiinflammatory, antioxidant and hepatoprotective (Bankova *et al.*, 2014; Toreti *et al.*, 2013).

Temperate poplar propolis (type I) and Brazilian green propolis (type II) are the two best known and most investigated types of propolis, particularly in terms of their biological activity and the polyphenolic metabolites they contain; these include artepilin C, the phenethyl ester derivative of caffeic acid, caffeic acid, chrysin, galangin, quercetin, apigenin, kaempferol and pinocembrin (Huang *et al.*, 2014; Salatino *et al.*, 2011).

Recently, propolis has been recognized as an important source of plant bioactive metabolites since bees, independently of the geographical zone, are always able to find and use appropriate plant sources for propolis production (Huang *et al.*, 2014; Popova *et al.*, 2013); not surprisingly a wide variety of biologically active secondary metabolites have been reported from propolis samples collected in lesser known regions of the world, including cytotoxic cycloartane triterpenoids from Myanmar propolis (Li *et al.*, 2009), cytotoxic galangin-derived flavonoids from mexican propolis (Li *et al.*, 2010), and phenolic lipids with antioxidant activity from Asia (Popova *et al.*, 2013; Teerasripreecha *et al.*, 2012; Trusheva *et al.*, 2011) and Africa (Kardar *et al.*, 2014).

Here we wish to describe the isolation and identification of resorcinolic lipids with antioxidant activity from a sample of propolis collected in Yucatan, Mexico.

5.2. EXPERIMENTAL

5.2.1. General

Analytical thin layer chromatography (TLC) was carried out using aluminum-backed silica gel plates (Merck, 0.2 mm); chromatograms were visualized using a solution of phosphomolybdic acid (20 g) and ceric sulfate (2.5 g) in 500 mL of 5% sulfuric acid followed by drying and heating. Preparative TLC (prep TLC) was carried out using glass-coated 20 × 20 cm silica gel plates (Merck, 0.25 mm) impregnated with AgNO₃. Flash column chromatography purifications were carried out using silica gel (Merck) 200-400 mesh, and open column chromatography purifications were carried out using AgNO₃-impregnated silica gel (Sigma-Aldrich) 70-230 mesh. NMR analyses were carried out in a Bruker Avance III (400 MHz) or an Agilent-AR premium COMPACT (600 MHz); samples were dissolved in CDCl₃ and the residual solvent signal was used as reference.

5.2.2. LDI analysis

General LDI experiments were carried out in linear negative mode on a Biflex III time of flight (TOF) mass spectrometer (Bruker Billerica, MA, USA), equipped with a 337 nm pulsed nitrogen laser (model VSL-337i, Laser Sciences Inc., Boston, MA). Spectra were acquired within a mass range of 20-2,000 *m*/*z* in automatic mode. An overall of 150 acquisitions were summed for obtaining final spectra. Acceleration voltage was set to 19 kV, pulse ion extraction was 200 ns, and laser frequency was 5 Hz. Applied laser energy was individually adapted to sample requirements and is expressed as percent of maximal

laser power as well as calculated theoretical values in μJ based on the instrument's settings. Samples C3 and C4 were analyzed at a laser power of 90% (112 μJ) while 70% (105 μJ) was used for C5.

5.2.3. Preparation of AgNO₃-impregnated silica gel plates for prep TLC

Silica gel plates were eluted with a 5% AgNO₃ solution in acetonitrile and allowed to dry before use.

Preparation of AgNO₃-impregnated silica gel for column chromatography

Silica gel (10 g) was combined with 50 mL of a 5% AgNO₃ solution in acetonitrile and allowed to stand for 5 minutes before evaporating the solvent.

5.2.4. Collection and extraction of propolis

Propolis was collected in February 2015 by Mr. Lino Mex Mex, a beekeeper of *Apis mellifera* in Hunucmá, Yucatán, Mexico. The propolis sample (Am8) was ground to a homogeneous powder using liquid nitrogen and 1 g of the propolis powder was extracted three times (2 h) with ethanol (20 mL), at room temperature. The combined filtrates were kept overnight at –18°C and then filtered to remove waxes (Boisard *et al.*, 2015). Finally, the solvent was evaporated under reduced pressure to obtain 738 mg (73.8%) of propolis extract.

5.2.5. Collection and extraction of plant material

The resin sample of *Mangifera indica* was obtained in April 2017 from a tree growing in an area close to the beehive in Hunucmá, Yucatán, Mexico. The resin (0.9 g) was extracted using the procedure previously described for the propolis sample to yield 13.9 mg (1.5%) of the corresponding resin crude extract.

5.2.6. GC-MS analysis of propolis extract

The samples were analyzed in an Shimadzu Gas Chromatograph GCMS-QP2010 SE with an ionization voltage of 70 eV; the separation was carried out using a phenomenex Zebron column (30 m × 0.250 mm Ø with 0.25 film thickness), with helium as a carrier gas (2 mL/min) and a temperature program of 110 °C (0.5 min), 110-280 °C (20°C/min), 280 °C (20 min), 280-300 °C (5 °C/min), 300 °C (2 min). Injector and detector temperatures were set to 280 °C and 150 °C, respectively.

5.2.7. GC-MS analysis of propolis extract

The sample was analyzed in an Agilent Technologies Gas Chromatograph 6890N connected to an Agilent Technologies Mass Detector 5975B, with an ionization voltage of 70 eV; the separation was carried out using an Agilent HP-5MS column (30 m × 0.250 mm \emptyset with 0.25 film thickness), with helium as a carrier gas (1 mL/min) and a temperature program of 110 °C (2 min), 110-260 °C (15 °C/min), 260 °C (3 min), 260-280 °C (2 °C/min), 280 °C (5 min), 280-300 °C (5 °C/min), 300 °C (30 min). Injector and detector temperatures were set to 280 °C and 150 °C, respectively. Preliminary identification of the different components was carried out by comparing their fragmentation patterns with those contained in the NIST 05 data base.

5.2.8. Determination of antioxidant activity

The assay for the reduction of the 2,2-diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl radical (DPPH) was carried out following a modified procedure on a previously reported methodology (Brand-Williams *et al.*, 1995). In brief, different concentrations of each extract were prepared (1 × 10^{-1} to 1 × 10^{-4} g extract/mL ethanol) and 200 µL were added to 1800 µL of DPPH (0.1 m*M* ethanol). After 30 min the absorbance was measured at 540 nm. The percentage of remaining DPPH was calculated using the formula % DPPH = [(AbsDPPH 0.1 m*M*)t = 0/(Abs DPPH sample)t = 30]+100. Methanol was used as a blank and ascorbic acid (1%) as a positive control. The assay was run three times for each extract.

5.2.9. First purification of propolis extract (Figure S1a)

A portion (400 mg) of the propolis extract was dissolved in dichloromethane and adsorbed in 800 mg of silica gel. The sample was placed on top of a chromatographic column and separated by flash column chromatography (5 × 20 cm) eluting with a mixture of hexane:ethylacetate:methanol 90:8:2. The collected fractions were combined into 17 (A1-A17) semipurifed fractions on the basis of their TLC chromatographic profiles. Further purification of active fraction A13 (217 mg) by flash column chromatography (3 × 20 cm) eluting with hexane:ethylether 6:4 yielded 11 (B1-B11) new semipurified fractions. Finally, prep TLC purification of active fraction B5 (9 mg) using a multiple elution (4X) with dichloromethane:methanol 19:1 on AgNO₃-impregnated silica gel plates produced eight fractions (C1-C8) of wich fractions **C3** (1.2 mg), **C4** (1.0 mg) and **C5** (1.3 mg) were active in the DPPH radical reduction assay.

5.2.10. Second purification of propolis extract (Figure S1b)

A portion (420 mg) of the crude propolis extract (Am8) was dissolved in dichloromethane and adsorbed in 800 mg of silica gel (200-400 mesh). The sample was placed on top of a chromatographic column (5 x 20 cm) and separated by flash CC using a mixture of hexane:ethyl ether 6:4 + 1µL/mL of formic acid. The collected fractions were combined into eleven (D1 to D1I) semipurifed fractions. Open CC (1.5 x 30 cm) purification of fraction D5 (67.7 mg) using AgNO₃-impregnated silica gel and a mixture of dichloromethane:methanol 19:1 as eluent yielded semipurified fractions E2 (4.2 mg), E3 (19 mg) and E4 (6.2 mg) that were combined and purified by multiple-elution (four times) prep TLC using a mixture of dichloromethane:methanol 19:1 on AqNO₃-impregnated silica gel plates to produce fraction F3 (1.8 mg). Similarly, open CC (1.5 × 30 cm) purification of fractions D6 (14.8 mg) and D7 (67.7 mg) combined yielded semipurified fractions G3 (8.7 mg) and G4 (10.3 mg) that were combined and purified by multiple-elution (four times) prep TLC using a mixture of dichloromethane:methanol 19:1 on AgNO₃-impregnated silica gel plates to produce fraction H3 (1.8 mg). Finally, open CC (1.5 × 30 cm) purification of fraction D8 (91.2 mg) yielded the semipurified fractions 15 (11 mg) and 16 (9.9 mg) that were combined and purified multiple-elution (four times) prep TLC using mixture by а of dichloromethane:methanol 19:1 on AqNO₃-impregnated silica gel plates to produce fraction J2 (1.8 mg). Prep TLC purification of fractions I9 (6.1 mg), I10 (11.9 mg) and I11 (4.4 mg) combined using a multiple-elution (four times) with a mixture of dichloromethane:methanol 19:1 on AgNO₃-impregnated silica gel plates yielded fractions K3 (3.1 mg) and K4 (2.8 mg). K4 it turned out to be a pure compound (8).

1,3-Benzenediol-5-(8,11-heptadecadienyl) (**8**): White, 2.8 mg, oil; NMR¹H (see Table S2); EM (m/z) 344 M⁺, 124, 67, 55.

5.3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The bioassay-guided purification of the propolis extract, which showed a potent (IC₅₀ 0.71 mg/mL) antioxidant activity when tested in the DPPH reduction assay, produced fraction B5 apparentely containing a single antioxidant component on the basis of its TLC profile (Figure S11a). However, the GC-MS analysis of the same fraction indicated the presence of four major components (Figure S11b), all of them with a base peak at m/z 124 and a fragmentation pattern (Figure 5.1a) coinciding with that of resorcinolic lipid structures, in the data base. The fact that the fragment ion of the base peak, which can be explained by

a methyl-substituted 1,3-benzenediol structure (Figure 5.1b), is common to all the components in fraction B5 suggested that they all shared the same resorcinolic basic structure but differed in the length of the lipidic hydrocarbon chain.





Phenolic lipids have often been reported as inseparable mixtures from species of the Anacardiaceae family and from propolis samples collected in different parts of the world (Kardar *et al.*, 2014; Popova *et al.*, 2013; Silva *et al.*, 2008; Teerasripreecha *et al.*, 2012; Trusheva *et al.*, 2011); accordingly, various attempts to purify the components in fraction B5 using ordinary chromatographic methods proved to be unsuccessful. However, argentation chromatography, *i.e.* the impregnation of silica gel and other adsorbents with silver nitrate, has been commonly used to separate structurally-similar metabolites such as triglycerides and lipids, terpenes, essential oils components and resin constituents which differ in the number or geometry of their double bonds (Lawrence, 1968; Vries, 1964) and previous reports have described the use of argentation chromatography as an alternative to separate homologues of phenolic lipids with varying degrees of side-chain unsaturation (Kozubek y Tyman, 1999). In this investigation, argentation of silica gel plates greatly improved the separation of the bioactive components in fraction B5 (Figure S12); prep-TLC purification of fraction B5 using silica gel plates impregnated with silver nitrate produced the purified bioactive fractions **C3-C5** (Figure S13).

While fractions **C3** and **C5** each showed a single bioactive metabolite on TLC, fraction **C4** appeared to be a mixture of the metabolites in fractions **C3** and **C5**. The ¹H-NMR of **C3** (Figure S14, Table S2) showed the expected signals for a resorcinolic lipid structure (Kozubek y Tyman, 1999), namely two signals corresponding to three aromatic protons at 6.24 (2H) and 6.17 (1H) ppm, one two-proton signal at 4.64 ppm, corresponding to the

protons of the two phenolic hydroxyl groups, a two-proton triplet at 2.48 ppm, corresponding to the protons of the benzylic methylene, and a three proton triplet at 0.87 ppm, corresponding to the terminal methyl group of the hydrocarbon chain. However, both the LDI and GC-MS analyses of C3 showed the presence of two components with parent ion peaks at m/z 319/347 and 320/348, respectively (Figure S15), corresponding to the molecular formulae $C_{21}H_{36}O_2/C_{23}H_{40}O_2$. To identify the two components in C3 it was necessary to consider the biosynthetic origin of resorcinolic lipids; taking into account that the hydrocarbon chain of resorcinolic lipids originates from a fatty acyl-CoA starter unit (Figure S16) (Baerson et al., 2010; Cook et al., 2010; Dewick, 2009; Funa et al., 2006; Schultz et al., 2006), and the fact that there are only one C-16 (palmitic) and one C-18 (stearic) fully saturated fatty acids, the bioactive resorcinolic lipids in C3 were identified as 1,3-benzenediol-5-pentadecyl (4) and 1,3-benzenediol-5-heptadecyl (5) (Figure 5.2). Both bioactive metabolites have previously been reported to co-occur in Merulius incarnatus (Jin y Zjawiony, 2006) and triticale bran (Agil et al., 2011), and in propolis samples from Cameroon (Kardar et al., 2014) and Indonesia (Trusheva et al., 2011). Additionally, 5 has been reported from the latex of Mangifera indica (Bandyopadhyay et al., 1985).



Figure 5.2. Structures of resorcinolic lipids identified by GC-MS in the propolis sample Am8.

The ¹H-NMR of C5 (Figure S17, Table S2) showed the same signals observed in the spectrum of C3 plus one two-proton signal at 5.35 and a four-proton signal at 2.02 ppm corresponding to vinylic and allylic protons, respectively; these signals suggested the presence of a double bond in the lipid part of the molecule. This was confirmed by the LDI and GC-MS analyses of C5, which showed two components with parent ion peaks at m/z345/373 and 346/374 (Figure S18), corresponding to molecular formulae $C_{23}H_{38}O_2/C_{25}H_{42}O_2$ and confirming the presence of an extra unsaturation in the resorcinolic lipid structure. The location of the double bond in the lipidic chain of resorcinolic lipids is often established by analyzing the fragmentation pattern of the corresponding dimethyl disulfide-trimethylsilyl derivatives after GC-MS analyses (Kardar et al., 2014; Lawrence, 1968). In this case, the bioactive resorcinolic lipids in **C5** were identified by combining the information from their biosynthetic origin and their MS fragmentation pattern after GC-MS analysis. Even though there are five C18-carbon fatty acids with one unsaturation ($\Delta 3$, 6, 9, 11 or 13) that can be used as a starting unit to produce a resorcinolic lipid with a molecular weight of 346, and there are four 20-carbon fatty acids with one unsaturation (Δ 9, 11, 13 or 15) that can be used as a starting unit to produce a resorcinolic lipid with a molecular weight of 374, the fragmentation pattern of both components in the GC-MS analysis of C5 showed a fragment ion at m/z 97 (Figures S19 and S20); since this fragment can only be explained by an allylic cleavage in a 5-omega fatty acid, the bioactive resorcinolic lipids in C5, one with a $\Delta 13$ 18-carbon and the other with a $\Delta 15$ 20carbon fatty acyl-CoA starter units, were identified as 1,3-benzenediol-5-(12-heptadecenyl) (6) and 1,3-benzenediol-5-(14-nonadecenyl) (7), respectively (Figure 5.2). Metabolite 6 has been reported from the peel of the mango (M. indica) fruit (Cojocaru et al., 1986), while 7 has been isolated from the roots of Ardisia silvestris (Hoang Anh et al., 1996) as well as from wheat bran oil (Iwatsuki et al., 2003); additionally, both metabolites have been reported from triticale bran (Agil et al., 2011) and a propolis sample from Cameroon (Kardar et al., 2014). Finally, and even though C4 appeared to be a mixture of the metabolites in C3 and C5, its LDI and GC-MS analyses (Figure S21) showed only two components with parent ion peaks at m/z 319/373 and 320/374, respectively, indicating that the purified fraction C4 was in fact a mixture of the bioactive resorcinolic lipids 4 and 7.

In an attempt to obtain the resorcinolic lipids **4-9** in pure form and/or isolate other resorcinolic lipids, a second portion of the same propolis extract was purified using

argentation chromatography throughout the purification process, this resulted in the isolation of bioactive fractions H3, K3 and K4, none of which showed a similar composition to that of fraction B5. However, the GC-MS analysis of H3 showed three major components corresponding to the bioactive resorcinolic lipids 4, 5 and 7. A similar analysis of **K4** showed the presence of a single component (Figure S22) with a parent ion peak at m/z 344, corresponding to a molecular formula of C₂₃H₃₆O₂; the number of unsaturation sites calculated from the formula suggested a resorcinolic lipid structure with two double bonds in the hydrocarbon chain. This was confirmed by a four vinylic proton multiplet at 5.35 ppm in the ¹H-NMR spectrum of **K4** (Figure S23), together with two signals at 2.77 (2H) and 2.05 (4H) ppm, corresponding to the six protons of three allylic methylenes (Figure S23, Table S2). Since linoleic acid is the only 18-carbon fatty acid with two double bonds ($\Delta 9$ and $\Delta 12$) that can act as a starter unit, the bioactive resorcinolic lipid in K4 was identified as 1,3-benzenediol-5-(8,11-heptadecadienyl) (8) (Figure 5.2). Metabolite 8 has also been reported from *M. incarnatus* (Jin y Zjawiony, 2006) and the peel of mango (*M.* indica) fruits (Knodler et al., 2008), as well as from propolis samples in Indonesia (Trusheva et al., 2011) and Brazil (Silva et al., 2008). Finally, the GC-MS analysis of K3 showed the presence of four components (Figure S23), three of them identified as the bioactive resorcinolic lipids 6, 7, and 8. The unknown component showed a parent ion peak at m/z 318, corresponding to a molecular formula of C₂₁H₃₄O₂ which suggested a resorcinolic lipid having a mono-unsaturated 16-carbon fatty acyl-CoA as the starter unit. Since palmitoleic acid is the only known 16-carbon mono-unsaturated fatty acid, the unknown bioactive component in K3 was identified as 1,3-benzenediol-5-(8-pentadecenyl) (9) (Figure 5.2), a metabolite previously reported from *M. incarnatus* (Jin y Zjawiony, 2006).

Since resorcinolic lipids have been reported to be present in the fruits and resin of *Mangifera indica* (Aguilar-Ortigoza *et al.*, 2003; Kardar *et al.*, 2014), we compared the GC-MS chromatographic profile of the resin of a mango tree (*M. indica*) growing close to the beehive, with the chromatographic profile of the active fractions, and were able to detect the presence of resorcinolic lipids **4**, **6**, **8** and **9** in the resin of the tree (Figure 5.3). This result confirms the resin of *M. indica* as one of the botanical sources of this type of metabolites in the propolis sample collected in Yucatan.



Figure 5.3. GC-MS chromatographic profiles of purified fractions H3 (a), K3 (b) and K4 (c), and of *M. indica* resin (d).

In a recent work, it was found that this propolis sample is composed mainly of triterpenes, and the resin of *B. simaruba* was determined as the botanical source of several of them (Herrera-López *et al.*, 2019). These results, together with those found in this work, indicate that bees use more than a single botanical source of resins, and that the Yucatecan propolis has a composition very different from the composition of propolis collected in other places.

5.4. CONCLUSIONS

The results of this investigation confirm the importance of argentation for the separation of structurally-related resorcinolic lipids and the relevance of LDI, GC-MS and biosynthetic origin data to unequivocally identify structurally-related resorcinolic lipids. Finally, the results obtained allowed the identification of metabolites **4-9** as those responsible for the antioxidant activity originally detected in the propolis crude extract.

5.5. SUPPLEMENTARY INFORMATION

Supporting information for this article is available on the WWW under http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/cbdv.2018xxxxx.

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5.7. SUPPLEMENTARY INFORMATION

Resorcinolic lipids from Yucatecan propolis

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Figure S13. Fractions obtained after prepTLC purification of fraction B5 using AgNO₃impregnated silica gel plates; analytical TLC plates impregnated with AgNO₃ and visualized with phosphomolybdic acid reagent (a) and DPPH (b).

Table S2. ¹H-NMR data of purified fractions C3-C5 and K4.

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Chromatographic procedures used for the purification of the propolis extract, TLC chromatographic profile, ¹H-NMR data, LDI spectrums, GC-MS chromatographic profiles and fragmentation patterns of fractions obtained and the biosynthetic pathway of resorcinol lipids are included.



Figure S10. Chromatographic procedures used for the purification of the propolis extract.



Figure S11. a) TLC chromatographic profile of fraction B5 visualized with phosphomolybdic acid reagent (left) and DPPH (right; metabolites with antioxidant activity appear as yellow spots on a purple background); b) GC-MS chromatographic profile of fraction B5 showing four major components.



Figure S12. a) TLC chromatographic profile of fraction B5 on a normal plate visualized with phosphomolybdic acid reagent; b) TLC chromatographic profile of fraction B5 on a plate impregnated with silver nitrate, visualized with phosphomolybdic acid reagent; c) TLC chromatographic profile of fraction B5 on a plate impregnated with silver nitrate, visualized with phosphomolybdic acid reagent; c) TLC chromatographic profile of fraction B5 on a plate impregnated with silver nitrate, visualized with phosphomolybdic acid reagent; c) TLC chromatographic profile of fraction B5 on a plate impregnated with silver nitrate, visualized with phosphomolybdic acid reagent; c) TLC chromatographic profile of fraction B5 on a plate impregnated with silver nitrate, visualized with phosphomolybdic acid reagent; c) TLC chromatographic profile of fraction B5 on a plate impregnated with silver nitrate, visualized with phosphomolybdic acid reagent; c) TLC chromatographic profile of fraction B5 on a plate impregnated with silver nitrate, visualized with phosphomolybdic acid reagent; c) TLC chromatographic profile of fraction B5 on a plate impregnated with silver nitrate, visualized with DPPH (metabolites with antioxidant activity appear as yellow spots on a purple background).



Figure S13. Fractions obtained after prepTLC purification of fraction B5 using AgNO₃impregnated silica gel plates; analytical TLC plates impregnated with AgNO₃ and visualized with phosphomolybdic acid reagent (a) and DPPH (b; metabolites with antioxidant activity appear as yellow spots on a purple background).
 Table S2. ¹H-NMR data of purified fractions C3-C5 and K4.

Fraction	Metabolite (s)	¹ H-NMR data
(Fraction	1,3-benzenediol-5-	δ0.87 (m, C <u>H₃</u>), 2.48 (t, J7.9 Hz, H1′), 4.64 (s, O <u>H</u>), 6.17 (t, J
C3)	pentadecyl (4) and 1,3-	2.3 Hz, H2), 6.24 (d, <i>J</i> 2.3 Hz, H4/H6).
	benzenediol-5-	
	heptadecyl (2)	
(Fraction	1,3-benzenediol-5-	δ 0.88 (m, C <u>H₃</u>), 1.99-2.02 (m, -C <u>H₂</u> -CH=CH-C <u>H₂</u> -), 2.50-2.45
C4)	pentadecyl (4) and 1,3-	(t, J 7.6 Hz, H1′), 4.64 (s, OH), 5.35 (m, C <u>H</u> =C <u>H</u>), 6.17 (t, J 2.3
	benzenediol-5-(14-	Hz, H2), 6.24 (d, <i>J</i> 2.3 Hz, H4/H6).
	nonadecenyl) (7)	
(Fraction	1,3-benzenediol-5-(12-	δ0.89 (m, C <u>H</u> ₃) 1.99-2.03 (m, -CH2-CH=CH-CH2-), 2.46-2.51
C5)	heptadecenyl) (6) and	(t, J 7.6 Hz, H1′), 4.64 (s, OH), 5.35 (m, CH=CH), 6.17 (t, J 2.2
	1,3-benzenediol-5-(14-	Hz, H2), 6.24 (d, J 2.3 Hz, H4/H6).
	nonadecenyl) (7)	
(Fraction	1,3-benzenediol-5-	δ0.89-0.87 (3H. m. H-17′).1.32 (16H. CH ₂), 2.05 (4H. dd. J
K 4)	(8,11-heptadecadienyl)	7.8,7.3 Hz, H7/H13′), 2.48 (2H, t, J7.8 Hz, H-1′), 2.77 (2H, t, J
, í	(8)	7.2 Hz, H-10′), 5.35 (4H, m, H-8′/H-9′/H-11′/H-12′), 6.17 (1H,
		d, J 3.0 Hz, H-2), 6.24 (2H, t, J 1.8 Hz, H-4/H-6).



Figure S14. ¹H-NMR spectrum (CDCI₃, 400 MHz) of purified fraction C3.



Figure S15. a) LDI spectrum (negative mode) and b) GC-MS chromatographic profile of of purified fraction C3.



Figure S16. Biosynthetic origin of resorcinolic lipids.

-2E+05 -1E+05 -1E+05 -1E+05 1E+05 -1E+05 90000 80000 70000 60000 50000 40000 30000 -20000 10000 -0

4.5 Figure S17. ¹H-NMR spectrum (CDCI₃, 400 MHz) of purified fraction C5.

4.0 f1 (ppm)

3.5

3.0

2.5

1.5

1.0

0.5

2.0

7.5

7.0

6.5

6.0

5.5

5.0



Figure S18. a) LDI spectrum (negative mode) and b) GC-MS chromatographic profile of purified fraction C5.

CAPITULO V



Figure S19. Mass spectrum of 1,3-benzenediol-5-(12-heptadecenyl) (6)



Figure S20. Mass spectrum of 1,3-benzenediol-5-(14-nonadecenyl) (7).



Figure S21. a) LDI spectrum (negative mode) and b) GC-MS chromatographic profile of purified fraction C4.







Figure S23. ¹H-NMR spectrum (CDCI₃, 400 MHz) of purified fraction K4.



6.1. DISCUSION GENERAL

En este trabajo se utilizaron métodos multivariados para analizar la composición química de 45 muestras de propóleo y relacionar la variación observada con el tipo de abeja y con el tipo de vegetación circundante. Los análisis multivariados permiten comparar un conjunto grande de muestras y explorar diversas relaciones entre ellas, por lo que su uso es cada vez más frecuente (Andelkovic *et al.*, 2017; Chasset *et al.*, 2016; Kasote *et al.*, 2014; Maraschin *et al.*, 2016; Morlock *et al.*, 2014; Mot *et al.*, 2010; Watson *et al.*, 2006).

No se encontraron diferencias significativas en la composición de los propóleos producidos por *A. mellifera* de acuerdo al sitio de colecta, las explicaciones probables son la colecta selectiva (Salatino *et al.*, 2011) y la vegetación relativamente homogénea presente en los sitios de colecta (Kasote *et al.*, 2014; Watson *et al.*, 2006). Sin embargo, sí se encontraron diferencias significativas entre muestras de propóleo producidas por distintas especies sin aguijón, incluso entre muestras producidas por la misma especie colectadas en el mismo apiario pero en distintas colmenas, esto demuestra que los factores presentados como responsables de la variabilidad en la composición de los propóleos no son mutuamente excluyentes, es decir, no influye únicamente la especie de abeja que colecta las resinas, también influye la fuente de resina que la abeja tenga disponible para colectar materiales, la elección de la abeja y otros factores ambientales. La producción de propóleo es un proceso complejo, multifactorial, en el que interactúan diversos organismos (abejas-plantas) con el medio ambiente que los rodea.

La caracterización química de estos propóleos permitió observar que los metabolitos con una mayor abundancia relativa en los extractos de propóleo tanto de *A. mellifera* como de las especies de abejas sin aguijón son los triterpenos.

Los resultados indican que los metabolitos con actividad anti-AGEs y citotóxica no son triterpenos, pues este tipo de metabolitos están presentes en prácticamente todas las muestras, por lo que los metabolitos bioactivos en los extractos de propóleos deben ser metabolitos minoritarios de otro tipo estructural.

Estos resultados contribuyen al conocimiento sobre la composición del propóleo de la región para poder darle un valor agregado a este producto de las abejas. Si bien es cierto que entre las actividades biológicas probadas, a excepción de la actividad citotóxica, no hubieron actividades muy relevantes, se cuenta con información acerca de su composición y algunas de las fuentes que utilizan las abejas para su producción, dicha información podría favorecer indirectamente a la conservación de los hábitats naturales y seminaturales de las abejas, y de esta forma reducir el riesgo bajo el que se encuentran estas especies, que no solamente son importantes para la producción de miel si no también son importantes polinizadores en los ecosistemas que habitan (Vit *et al.*, 2013).

6.2. CONCLUSIONES Y PERSPECTIVAS

6.2.1. CONCLUSIONES

La composición de los propóleos varía principalmente por la especie de abeja que colecta las resinas para su producción; si bien la especie de abeja es el principal factor, también se pudo observar que existen diferencias en la composición de los propóleos debido a la elección de las resinas que hacen las abejas e incluso, debido a la variación de las resinas obtenidas de una misma fuente vegetal.

La caracterización química de estos propóleos indica que están compuestos principalmente por triterpenos, esto podría enriquecer la clasificación de Salatino *et al.*, (2011), donde no reporta la existencia de propóleo que contenga mayormente triterpenos y que algunas de las fuentes botánicas sean *B. simaruba* y *M. indica*.

Aunque las actividades antimicrobiana, antioxidante, anti-AGEs y antiproliferativa presentadas por estos propóleos no resultaron significativas, aún se pueden evaluar los extractos en otros modelos biológicos.

6.2.2. PERSPECTIVAS

Los resultados de esta investigación son un primer acercamiento al estudio de la composición de los propóleos producidos en el estado de Yucatán, a partir de este trabajo, se podrían caracterizar directamente sitios específicos de interés como el de

Hunucmá o el sitio de Xmatkuil, que fue donde se colectaron las muestras con mayor actividad citotóxica, para determinar, además de *B. simaruba* y *M. indica*, qué otras fuentes de resinas están utilizando las abejas para producir su propóleo.

Estos resultados podrían ser utilizados también, para complementar la norma Mexicana NOM-003-SAG/GAN-2017 sobre la producción y especificaciones para el procesamiento de los propóleos, puesto que en ella solamente se determinan flavonoides y fenoles totales en la caracterización química (utilizando métodos colorimétricos) y únicamente se evalúan la actividad antimicrobiana y la antioxidante; tomando en cuenta estos parámetros, aunque las muestras de propóleos colectadas representaran una fuente importante de metabolitos bioactivos, no se podrían comercializar por que no cumplirían con la norma.

Se debe realizar un fraccionamiento de los extractos y evaluar las fracciones obtenidas en el ensayo de actividad citotóxica, esto con el fin de avanzar en la identificación de los metabolitos bioactivos, pudiendo utilizar análisis multivariados y, a partir de los resultados, realizar una purificación bio-dirigida para la identificación y elucidación de los metabolitos bioactivos.

Los componentes mayoritarios de los extractos de propóleos fueron triterpenos; estos metabolitos han sido analizados por sus efectos antiinflamatorios (Han y Bakovic, 2015), por lo que se debe determinar esta actividad para los extractos analizados en este trabajo, debido a que utilizando los mismos datos cromatográficos se podría realizar un análisis multivariado para detectar cuales están relacionados con la actividad biológica.

En el capítulo IV se determinó que una de las fuentes de resinas utilizadas por las abejas para producir los propóleos es la resina de *B. simaruba*, sin embargo, no todos los triterpenos identificados en el extracto de propóleo fueron detectados en la resina del árbol, por lo que sería importante determinar que otra fuente de resinas podrían estar utilizando las abejas para la producción de sus propóleos; este conocimiento podría ser utilizado para sembrar dichas especies vegetales en sitios cercanos a los apiarios con el fin de mejorar la disponibilidad de sus materias primas y a su vez, comprobar si de esta manera se puede estandarizar la composición de los propóleos.

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