



Ethnopharmacological communication

Venom's antinociceptive property in the primitive ant *Dinoponera quadriceps*

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ABSTRACT

Ethnopharmacological relevance: In northeastern Brazil, *Dinoponera* (Ponerinae) ants macerate are used to treat ear ache and its sting, rheumatism, and back pain. Such a popular use is a relevant fact that called for experimental evaluation of the antinociceptive activity of *Dinoponera* venom.

Materials and methods: *Dinoponera quadriceps* venom (DqV; 5–500 µg/kg; i.v.) or morphine (3.4 mg/kg; s.c.) were evaluated in mice models of nociception ($n=8$ animals/group). Negative controls received sterile saline (0.9% NaCl; i.v.).

Results: DqV showed 64% protein content and exhibited antinociceptive activity, without affecting motor function, in the tests: formalin (72%), writhing (52%), von Frey (71%) and hot plate (45%). The antinociceptive activity was abolished under protein denaturant conditions.

Conclusions: This study provided the first demonstration of the antinociceptive property of *Dinoponera quadriceps* venom in mice models of chemical, mechanical and thermal nociception, corroborating the popular use and suggesting its potential therapeutic utilization in painful conditions.

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1. Introduction

Dinoponera (Ponerinae) is a primitive and strictly Neotropical ant genus, with six known species considered the biggest ants of the world (3–4 cm in length), (Kempf, 1971). Similar to the other *Dinoponera* species, *Dinoponera quadriceps* Santschi, 1921 (“falsa tocandira”, “trinca-cunhão”), has ground-dwelling habits and their common prey are medium size to large arthropods that they subdue with their sting (Araújo and Rodrigues, 2006). Like many ants of basal and more derived groups (i.e. Ponerinae, Pseudomyrmecinae, Myrmicinae), as well as other hymenopteran species (bees and wasps), *Dinoponera* ants have a sting apparatus, located in the last portion of the gaster, formed by the sting itself along with two associated glands: Dufour's gland and venom gland. In ants and other hymenopterans, the main function of venom is prey capture and/or defense (Buschinger and Maschwitz, 1984; Schmidt, 1986).

Primitively, the composition of hymenopteran venoms is a complex mixture of biologically active proteins and other proteinaceous elements (Schmidt, 1986). The venom of *Paraponera clavata* (Ponerinae) contains a peptide (poneratoxin) that blocks sodium

channels in frog skeletal muscle fibers (Duval et al., 1992). Some hymenopteran protein venom components from *Apis mellifera* (melittin) (Merlo et al., 2011) and from the social wasp *Polybia occidentalis* (Thr⁶-bradykinin) exhibit antinociceptive properties (Mortari et al., 2007). Few studies have explored the use of ant venoms in the folk medicine. However, there is a description of the popular use of *Dinoponera* sp. for earache in Ichu-Bahia (northeastern Brazil): the product obtained from crushed ants is applied in the ear using a piece of cotton (Costa Neto, 2011). *Dinoponera* sp. sting is also said to be useful to treat rheumatism and back pain (Costa Neto et al., 2006). In addition, there are descriptions of *Dinoponera* sp. popular use for asthma treatment (Costa Neto et al., 2006; Alves and Rosa, 2007). The aim of this study is to evaluate the antinociceptive property of *Dinoponera quadriceps* venom in mice.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Materials

Dinoponera quadriceps nests were collected (IBAMA authorization no. 28794-1) in the “Serra de Maranguape”, a small mountain range located in the littoral zone of the Ceará state (northeastern Brazil), and kept in plastic boxes (63 cm × 42 cm and 12 cm high), at 30 ± 2 °C, with a 12/12 h light/dark cycle, and PVC tubes (4 cm in diameter, 38 cm in length) as nesting sites. Ants were fed *ad libitum* on *Tenebrio molitor* larvae. To collect the venom,

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Dinoponera quadriceps workers were seized in the thorax region and its sting was introduced in a capillar tube to induce venom secretion. Venom was then transferred to a tube containing 10 mM ammonium acetate buffer (pH 6.8), lyophilized and stored at -20°C . Protein content was evaluated by the colorimetric method ($A_{595\text{ nm}}$).

Male Swiss mice (25–35 g), maintained at 25°C under a 12/12 h light/dark cycle with food and water *ad libitum*, were brought to the laboratory at least 1 h before the experiments, approved by the Animal Care and Use Committee (UECE—11221997-7/45).

Drugs and reagents were purchased from Sigma, St. Louis, MO, USA (λ -carrageenan), Nova Química, São Paulo, SP, Brazil (Diazepan), Isofar, Rio de Janeiro, RJ, Brazil (formaldehyde and acetic acid).

2.2. Nociception models

Mice ($n=8$ animals/group) received *Dinoponera quadriceps* venom (DqV; 5–500 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$) by intravenous (i.v.) route or morphine (3.8 mg/kg) by subcutaneous (s.c.) route 30 min before injection of the nociceptive agents. Negative controls received sterile saline (0.9% NaCl; 50 $\mu\text{L}/10$ g body weight; i.v.).

Formalin test: formalin (2.5% v/v; 20 $\mu\text{L}/\text{paw}$) was injected by subcutaneous (s.c.) intraplantar route in the animal right hind paws and the time (s) in which they spent licking their paws was registered during the first (P1: 0–5 min) and second (P2: 15–30 min) phases of the test (Shibata et al., 1989).

Writhing test: acetic acid (0.8% v/v; 0.1 mL/10 g body weight) was injected by intraperitoneal (i.p.) route and the number of abdominal writhes was registered during 10–30 min (Koster et al., 1959).

von Frey test: animals were individually placed in clear acrylic boxes with raised platforms of wire mesh to allow access to the ventral surface of hind paws from 15 to 30 min. Hypernociception was induced by s.c. injection of 1% carrageenan (300 $\mu\text{g}/\text{paw}$) and the frequency of paw withdrawal in response to six applications of the flexible von Frey filament (0.8 g) was measured before (T0) and from 1 to 5 h after carrageenan (von Frey, 1896).

Hot plate test: mice were placed on a hot plate at $55 \pm 0.5^{\circ}\text{C}$ for up to 25 s and the reaction latency of thermal stimulus (time to start licking or shaking hind paws or jumping) was registered. Treatment with DqV at r.t. or at $100^{\circ}\text{C}/1$ h was performed before the test. The reaction latency was recorded at baseline and after 1–5 h (Hunskaar et al., 1986).

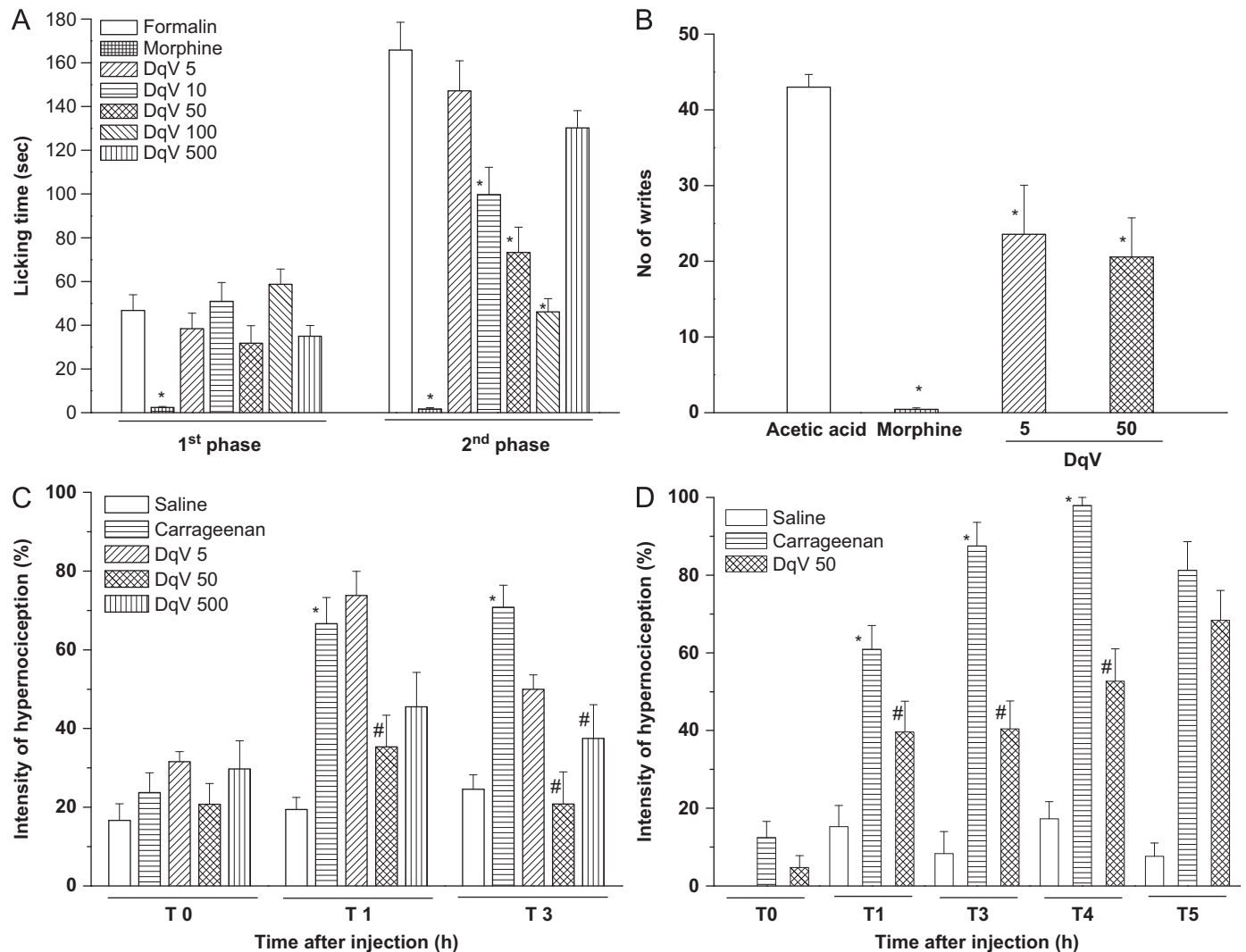


Fig. 1. Inhibitory effect of DqV in models of chemical and mechanical nociception. Mice were treated with DqV (5, 10, 50, 100 and 500 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$; i.v.) or morphine (3.8 mg/kg, s.c.) 30 min before nociceptive stimuli: (A) Formalin (2.5% v/v; 20 μL ; s.c.), (B) acetic acid (0.8% v/v; 0.1 mL/10 g body weight; i.p.), (C, D) von Frey test (1% carrageenan; 300 $\mu\text{g}/\text{paw}$; s.c.). Mean \pm SEM ($n=8$). ANOVA and Bonferroni's test. * $p < 0.05$ vs. formalin, acetic acid or saline. # $p < 0.05$ vs. carrageenan.

To verify interference in the animals motor function, DqV or diazepam was injected and the animals permanence on the rotarod was recorded (Dunham and Miya, 1957).

Results were analyzed by ANOVA and Bonferroni's test ($p < 0.05$).

3. Results and discussion

The first phase of the formalin test reproduces a neurogenic response, associated to direct activation of transient potential ankyrin (TRPA-1) receptors (McNamara et al., 2007), that are also involved in the second phase. Activation of these receptors leads to changes in neurons of the dorsal spinal cord and release of inflammatory mediators from peripheral tissues, such as prostaglandins, histamine, serotonin, bradykinin (Shibata et al., 1989), cytokines (Chichorro et al., 2004) and nitric oxide (NO) (Moore et al., 1991). DqV inhibited only the second phase: at 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$ by 40% (99.8 ± 12.4 s), 50 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$ by 56% (73.3 ± 11.5 s) and 100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$ by 72% (46.1 ± 6.0 s) and morphine nearly abolished both phases compared to formalin (165.8 ± 12.7 s) (Fig. 1A). DqV antinociceptive effect in the second phase suggests inhibition of inflammatory process, as previously demonstrated for the venom of *Apis mellifera* and its protein compound melittin (Merlo et al., 2011).

The writhing test is useful for evaluation of peripheral antinociceptive activity since the intraperitoneal injection of acetic

acid triggers the release of inflammatory mediators, such as bradykinin, prostaglandins, substance P and cytokines (Ribeiro et al., 2000) that activate chemosensitive nociceptors leading to inflammatory pain. DqV reduced the number of writhes elicited by acetic acid (43.0 ± 1.7) at 5 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$ by 45% (23.6 ± 6.5) and at 50 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$ by 52% (20.6 ± 5.2). Morphine completely inhibited these writhing (Fig. 1B). This result validates the antinociceptive effect of DqV, demonstrated in the formalin test, and suggests peripheral analgesic activity targeting inflammatory mediators.

The von Frey test is a hypernociception model that assesses inflammatory pain, in which the phlogistic agent carrageenan reproduces a biphasic response. The initial phase (1–2 h) is associated to participation of inflammatory mediators, such as histamine, serotonin and bradykinin, and the late phase (2–4 h) with prostaglandins and NO (Posadas et al., 2004). DqV inhibited the carrageenan-elicited hypernociception from 1 to 4 h (Fig. 1C, D): in the 1st hour, only at 50 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$ by 47% (DqV: 35.4 ± 8.0 vs. carrageenan: $67.0 \pm 6.6\%$), and in the 3rd hour, at 50 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$ by 71% ($20.8 \pm 8.2\%$) and 500 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$ by 47% ($37.5 \pm 8.6\%$) vs. carrageenan: $70.8 \pm 5.6\%$. DqV effect at the most active dose (50 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$) lasted until 4 h after stimuli, showing 46% inhibition (DqV: $97.91 \pm 2.08\%$ vs. carrageenan: $52.7 \pm 8.3\%$). This finding corroborates those obtained in the models previously described in this study, as well the anti-inflammatory and antinociceptive effects of other Hymenoptera venoms (Mortari et al., 2007; Merlo et al., 2011).

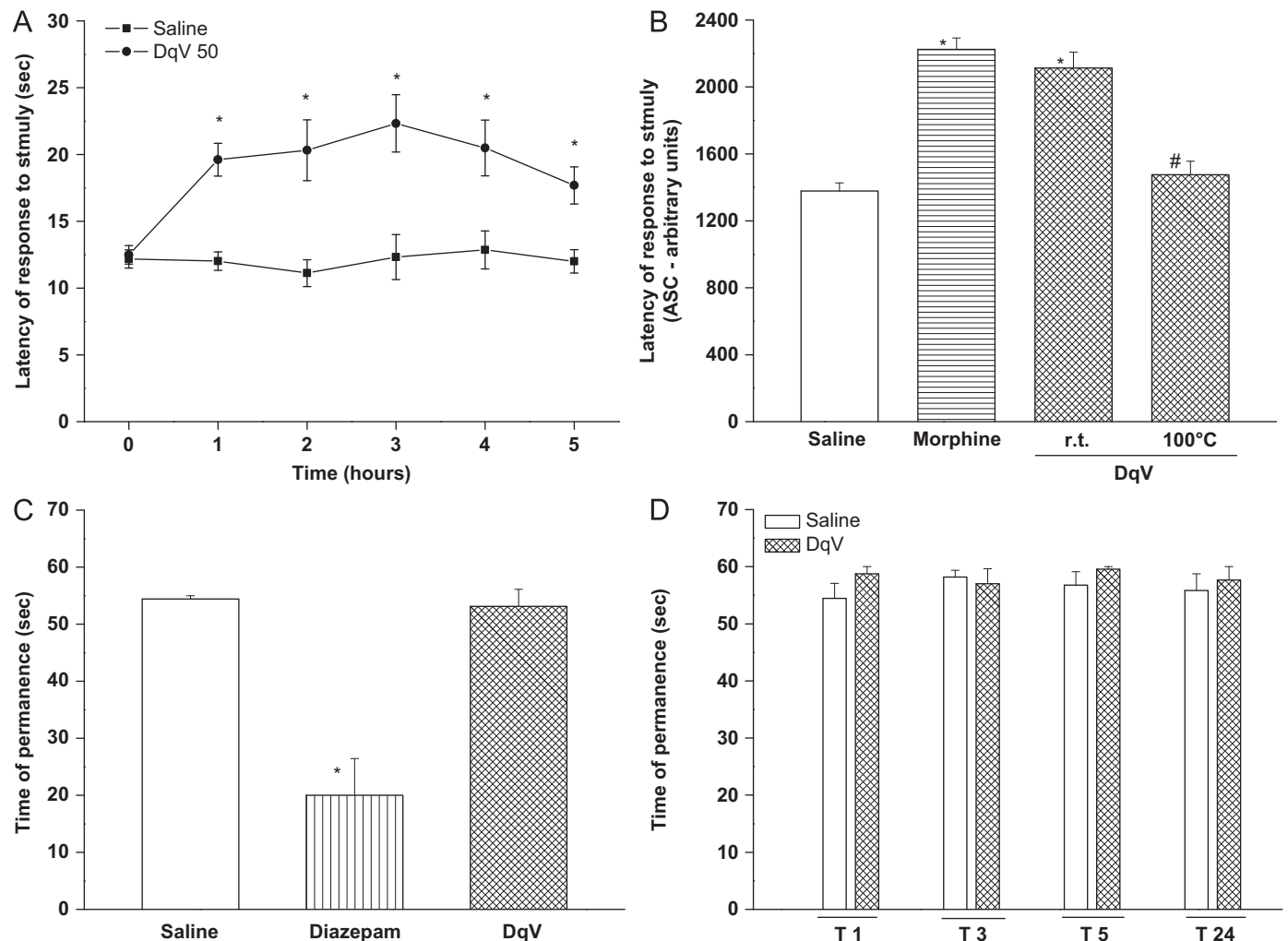


Fig. 2. Effect of DqV in model of thermal nociception and motor coordination. Mice were treated with DqV (50 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$; i.v at r.t. or 100 °C/1 h), morphine (3.8 mg/kg, s.c.) or diazepam (5 mg/kg i.p.) 30 min before tests. Hot plate (55 ± 0.5 °C): (A) time course and (B) area under time-course (AUC—from 0 to 3 h). Rota-rod (C) at 30 min and (D) from 1 to 24 h. Mean \pm SEM ($n=8$). ANOVA and Bonferroni's test. * $p < 0.05$ vs. saline. # $p < 0.05$ vs. DqV (r.t.).

The hot plate test reproduces pain associated to neurotransmission, either primarily in the spinal cord and/or higher levels of the central nervous system or via indirect mechanisms (Hunnskaar et al., 1986). DqV (50 µg/kg) increased the latency of response to thermal stimuli from 1 to 5 h, with maximal effect at 3 h (DqV: 22.3 ± 2.1 s vs. control: 12.3 ± 1.6 s) (Fig. 2A). Central antinociceptive effect of a bradykinin structural analog isolated from other Hymenoptera venom had been suggested (Mortari et al., 2007). Moreover, a protein component of DqV is most likely responsible for its antinociceptive effect, since proteins account for 64.4% of venom content and DqV antinociceptive activity was abolished when the venom was exposed to high temperature. Morphine, similar to DqV (r.t.), showed antinociceptive activity (Fig. 2B). Besides, as member of a basal group of predatory ants (Ponerinae), it is expected that *Dinoponera quadricaps* produces proteinaceous venoms. Studies with *Dinoponera* venoms had shown presence of proteins, as in *Dinoponera australis* (Johnson et al., 2010).

Another important demonstration from this study was that DqV (50 µg/kg), different from the sedative agent diazepam that decreased the time (s) of animals permanence (20 ± 6.4 vs. saline: 49.6 ± 7.4) in the rota-rod, did not interfere with animal's motor function at any time (30 min, from 1 to 5 h and 24 h) after DqV administration (Fig. 2C, D).

Summarizing, the antinociceptive property of *Dinoponera quadricaps* venom demonstrated here could be of clinical interest in painful conditions associated to hypernociception and allergic inflammation, simulated in our experimental models, such as rheumatism, earache and back pain, already used by the population in northeastern Brazil. The scientific validation of this property can also be extended to other pathological conditions (i.e. neuropathic pain, burns) and populations.

4. Conclusion

This study provided the first demonstration of the inhibitory property of the proteinaceous venom extracted from *Dinoponera quadricaps* in mice models of chemical, thermal and mechanical nociception, corroborating the popular use and suggesting its potential therapeutic utilization in algic conditions.

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