

## Asian hornet Vespa velutina nigrithorax venom: Evaluation and identification of the bioactive compound responsible for human keratinocyte protection against oxidative stress

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Nhi Thao Le, David D. da Silva, Cyril Colas, Éric Darrouzet, Patrick Baril, et al.. Asian hornet Vespa velutina nigrithorax venom: Evaluation and identification of the bioactive compound responsible for human keratinocyte protection against oxidative stress. Toxicon, 2020, 176, pp.1-9. 10.1016/j.toxicon.2020.01.001. hal-02794316

## HAL Id: hal-02794316 https://univ-tours.hal.science/hal-02794316v1

Submitted on 19 Jun 2020

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| 1  | Asian hornet Vespa velutina nigrithorax venom: Evaluation and identification  |
|----|---|
| 2  | of the bioactive compound responsible for Human Keratinocyte protection   |
| 3  | against oxidative stress  |
| 4  |   |
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#### 26 Abstract

The present study aimed to explore the potential use of antioxidant molecules of the 27 28 Asian hornet venom (Vespa velutina nigrithorax) to prevent or reduce skin aging. We developed a first technical platform that combined a DPPH radical scavenging 29 chemical assay and cytotoxicity and ROS (reactive oxygen species) production in 30 31 HaCaT keratinocyte cells exposed to UVB to evaluate the antioxidant property of V. 32 velutina venom. We further employed Thin Layer Chromatography (TLC) combined with the DPPH assay as a targeted separation approach to isolate the antioxidant 33 34 compounds responsible for the free radical scavenging property of V. velutina venom. In parallel, the latter was fractionated by a HPLC-DAD non-targeted separation 35 approach. From this experiment, nine fractions were generated which were again 36 evaluated separately for their antioxidant properties using DPPH assays. Results 37 showed that only one fraction exhibited significant antioxidant activity in which 38 39 serotonin was identified as the major compound by a UHPLC-ESI-QTOF HRMS/MS 40 approach. We finally demonstrated, using purified serotonin molecule, that this bioactive structure is mostly responsible for the free radical scavenging property of 41 the crude venom as evidenced by DPPH and ROS assays in HaCaT cells exposed to 42 UVB. 43

44

Key words: Antioxidant activity; Keratinocyte; Mass spectrometry; Reactive
 oxygen species; Thin Layer Chromatography; *Vespa Velutina* Venom.

47

48

**Abbreviations** 

| 50 | DPPH                   | 2,2-Diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl                      |
|----|------------------------|--|
| 51 | HPLC-DAD               | High-performance liquid chromatography-Diode       |
| 52 |                        | Array Detector                                     |
| 53 | LC-MS                  | Liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry            |
| 54 | ROS                    | Reactive Oxygen Species                            |
| 55 | RSA                    | Radical scavenging activity                        |
| 56 | TLC                    | Thin layer Chromatography                          |
| 57 | UHPLC-ESI-QTOF HRMS/MS | Ultra-high performance liquid chromatography-      |
| 58 |                        | electrospray ionization-quadrupole-time of flight- |
| 59 |                        | high resolution mass spectrometry-tandem mass      |
| 60 |                        | spectrometry                                       |
| 61 | UVB                    | Ultraviolet B                                      |
| 62 | V. velutina            | Vespa velutina                                     |

#### 64 **1. Introduction**

65 Skin aging can seriously alter a person's physical appearance, which in some cases can have a negative impact on the person's social life. There are two main pathways 66 responsible for the aging process in human skin: firstly, intrinsic aging or natural 67 aging caused by the passage of time or by the deleterious effect of skin matrix 68 metalloproteinases (MMP-1) that degrade structural skin proteins such as collagen 69 fiber (Quan and Fisher, 2015); secondly, extrinsic aging or photoaging that is mostly 70 71 caused by skin surface exposure to ultraviolet (UV) rays (Kusumawati et al., 2018). 72 UV irradiation results in the formation of reactive oxygen species (ROS) in cells, in 73 which ions and free radicals derived from oxygen such as hydrogen peroxide  $(H_2O_2)$ , hydroxyl radical (OH), oxygen (O<sub>2</sub>), and superoxide (O<sub>2</sub><sup>-)</sup> (Sharma et al., 2012) are 74 known to be toxic in cells. Free radicals are molecules with unpaired electrons that 75 76 are highly unstable and tend to react with enzymes, receptors or the cellular lipid 77 membrane. They remove electrons from any molecule in their path and create new 78 free radicals. These reactions occur continuously, inducing skin structure damage or 79 cell function disorders. To deal with this impact, antioxidants have been used for 80 many years in cosmetics to improve the skin defense (Kusumawati and Indrayanto, 81 2013).

The use of natural substances from plants has been shown to have outstanding advantages, not only in traditional but also in modern cosmetic treatments, and these substances are now considered as a natural reservoir for antioxidant and anti-aging molecules. Bioactive compounds from animals have also been exploited in the search for therapeutic and cosmetic ingredients. In a recent review on cosmetic applications of animal sources, products from the honey bee (*Apis mellifera L.*) such as royal jelly, bee propolis and bee venom were documented as a reliable source of

89 novel compounds with skin wound healing properties in mice and anti-inflammatory properties (Garraud et al., 2017). There is some evidence that a secretion of the 90 91 mollusk Cryptomphalus aspersa possesses an antioxidant property in vitro and induces fibroblast proliferation by promoting the extracellular matrix assembly that 92 can be applied for wound healing (Brieva et al., 2008). Spider venom (Argiope 93 lobate) was recently studied as a potential inhibitor of melanogenesis in skin aging 94 and a polyamine ArgTX-636 was identified as the novel class of melanogenesis 95 96 inhibitors both in vitro and in B16F10 cells (Verdoni et al., 2016). In other studies, venoms from Hymenoptera were recently reported as a potential source for 97 98 pharmacology and cosmetic applications while bee venom was found to possess significant antimicrobial activity on different bacterial species (Morais et al., 2011; 99 100 Surendra et al., 2011). Moreover, cosmetics containing crude honeybee venom that was obtained by electric shock had a positive effect on acne vulgaris both in vitro and 101 102 in vivo (Han et al., 2013). A research of active compounds in venom showed that a 103 low molecular weight protein (6.7 kDa) isolated from Indian Naja naja snake venom 104 can increase the antioxidant enzymes of Ehrlich ascites carcinoma mice (Das et al., 105 2011). Also, the Chrysaora quinquecirrha (sea nettle) nematocyst venom peptide fraction as proved to possess a significant antioxidant property against Ehrlich 106 107 ascites carcinoma in Swiss Albino mice (Balamurugan et al., 2010). Moreover, crude bee venom and phospholipase A2-free bee venom were also reported to exhibit an 108 109 inhibitory property on matrix metalloproteinase (MMP-1) in HaCaT and HDF (Human 110 dermal fibroblasts) human skin cells (Lee et al., 2015), while other studies have 111 reported the potential antioxidant activity of hornet venom (Yang et al., 2011) and bee venom (Sobral et al., 2016; Somwongin et al., 2018). 112

113 Vespa velutina nigrithorax is an alien species from Asia that was accidentally introduced into Europe, first in southwest France (Monceau et al., 2014). Generally, 114 115 Vespid venom comprises multiple potential bioactive compounds: low molecular 116 weight compounds (bioamines such as histamine, tyramine and catecholamine (Piek, 117 2013) or pheromones such as aliphatic ketones and alcohols (Cheng et al., 2017)), 118 peptides (occupying up to 70% of the dried venom, the most popular peptides being 119 mastoparan and wasp kinins), and proteins (neurotoxins, proteases, phospholipases) 120 (Piek, 2013). Surprisingly, up to now the venom of the Vespa velutina nigrithorax 121 species has been generally ignored as a potential natural source of bioactive 122 compounds, and it was only recently that a study was carried out on Vespa velutina venom to investigate its toxin composition. From this analysis, 293 putative toxin-123 124 encoding sequences were identified in which the main groups of interest were 125 hemostasis-impairing toxins, neurotoxins, proteases, antimicrobial proteins and peptides (Liu et al., 2015). In two other papers, V. velutina venom was reported to 126 127 contain apamine and melittin with structures similar to those found in the honeybee 128 (Shi et al., 2003; Su- fang et al., 2003).

To our knowledge, the antioxidant property has not been studied in V.velutina 129 130 venom. In this study, we demonstrated that V. velutina venom possesses a strong 131 antioxidant potential for the protection of keratinocytes against ROS. Our objective in 132 this study was to identify the compounds responsible for this property in V. velutina 133 venom. To deal with this challenge, an analytical methodology combined with 134 biological assays was developed to determine and purify the bioactive compounds. 135 Traditionally, HPLC and free radical scavenging DPPH assays are used to isolate 136 and identify the antioxidants from a complex mixture (Zhu et al., 2013). However, 137 these approaches have disadvantages such as non-targeted sample collection,

138 significant sample consumption and, in the case of HPLC-DPPH online, the installation of specific and costly equipment (Bandoniene and Murkovic, 2002). Thin 139 140 layer chromatography (TLC) is a simple, rapid and targeted method that is 141 compatible with direct derivatization by DPPH solution and thus can help to visibly 142 locate the antioxidants on the plate surface (Lam et al., 2016). Therefore, in our study we conducted TLC and HPLC separations in parallel to collect active antioxidant 143 144 compounds in V. velutina venom. Then high performance liquid chromatography 145 coupled with high-resolution mass spectrometry was used for structural identification 146 of the active compounds. In order to confirm the involvement of these molecules in 147 the antioxidant mechanism, the identified compounds were tested in DPPH and ROS assays in HaCaT cells exposed to UVB. 148

#### 149 **2. Material and methods**

#### 150 **2.1. Materials.**

151 Vespa velutina nigrithorax workers were provided by the Institute of Research on Insect Biology (IRBI) located in Tours, France. The hornets were collected in the 152 Indre-et-Loire (France) in October (2017) and were stocked at -80°C before use. 2,2-153 154 Diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl (DPPH), serotonin, ascorbic acid, and ninhydrin were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich (Saint Quentin Fallavier, France). Butanol, methanol, 155 156 acetonitrile, formic acid, and acetic acid were HPLC grade and were purchased from VWR (Fontenay-sous-Bois, France). The Bradford reagents were purchased from 157 158 Bio-Rad. Ultra-pure water was obtained from the Purelab water system of Elga 159 LabWater.

#### 161 **2.2. Extraction of venom and preparation**

162 A venom sample was pooled from 183 frozen hornets. The extraction protocol was based on existing methods (Dias et al., 2014; Peiren et al., 2005; Sookrung et al., 163 164 2014) with some modifications to adapt it to our case. The stinger apparatus was gently pulled from the tip of the animal abdomen by forceps. The venom reservoir 165 (about 1 mm in length, white and transparent) was collected and separated from the 166 167 stinger apparatus, then washed with water to eliminate contaminants from the 168 intestinal tract. Each venom reservoir was pressed against the Eppendorf tube wall to 169 collect the venom inside. The empty reservoir was then removed with forceps from 170 the tube. 100 µL of ultra-pure water was added and the tube was then homogenized 171 in vortex, followed by a centrifugation step at 10 000 xg for 15 min at 4°C. The 172 supernatant was then collected, filtered through a 0.22-µm syringe filter (Merck, Germany) and stored at -20°C. This venom solution was named Vv (Venom Vespa 173 174 *velutina*) in our study. The venom protein concentration was determined by Bradford 175 assay (Bradford, 1976) (Bio-Rad Protein Assay protocol for microtiter plate) and 176 found to contain a concentration of protein of 18.75 mg protein/mL.

177

#### 178 **2.3.** Thin layer chromatography (TLC) collection: "targeted method"

The 10x20 cm TLC silica gel 60  $F_{254}$  glass plate (Merck) used for this separation method was pre-washed with methanol to eliminate contaminants. Different development solvent systems for TLC separation were screened and the optimized elution solvent system was selected (supplementary data, figure 1.S) and used in the present study. Then 7 µL of venom (Vv) was diluted in 20 µL of water and spotted in four bands (5µL/band) to collect a significant amount of active spots and two control bands (1µL/band) for antioxidant detection and revelation with ninhydrin on the plate

by a TLC autosampler (Linomat IV, CAMAG Muttenz, Switzerland). The instrumental 186 187 parameters were as follows: a band 10 mm in length at the constant application rate 188 of 5s/µL, a space of 8 mm between each band and a 20 mm start position. The plate 189 was developed with the selected development solvent (1-butanol/acetic acid/water, 190 4:1:2, v/v/v) without the chamber pre-condition until the migration line reached 7 cm. 191 The parts of the TLC plate containing each control band after elution were separated 192 from the rest of the plate. The control band for antioxidant detection was revealed by 193 manually dipping the plate in the 0.05% DPPH methanolic solution (Badarinath et al., 194 2010). The other control band was used for peptide-amino acid detection and was 195 sprayed with a 0.1% ninhydrin ethanolic solution. The samples were then heated in a drying oven at 110°C for 5 min. In the part of the plate containing bands for venom 196 197 collection, the antioxidant spot was obtained by scraping the band at the same R<sub>f</sub> as 198 the antioxidant band observed in the control band. The extraction of active 199 compounds was carried out according to the protocol of Zhang et al. (Zhang et al., 200 2015) with the following modifications. Briefly, the silica powder was extracted with 201 200 µl of ultra-pure water and incubated in ice for 20 min (vortex for 2 min was performed twice). The extraction procedure was repeated once to recover as much 202 203 active compound as possible. Then, the mixture was centrifuged twice at 12000 xg at 204 4°C for 20 min to collect the pre-cleared supernatant, the supernatant was lyophilized 205 and stored at -20°C.

206

#### 207 2.4. RP-HPLC-DAD collection: "non-targeted method"

 $10 \ \mu$ L of venom (Vv) was precipitated with  $40 \ \mu$ l of ice cold methanol (Want et al., 209 2006) (solvent screening result not shown) for 20 min at -20°C to eliminate proteins. 210 The supernatant was then recovered after a centrifugation step at 10 000 xg for 10 211 min at 4°C. The precipitation process was repeated twice and the supernatants were pooled and named Vv0. 15µL of Vv0 supernatant was injected into the HPLC Agilent 212 213 1100-DAD system through the 2x125 mm LiChroCART Purosphere Star RP-18 214 endcapped 5 µm column (Sigma Aldrich, France). The column was maintained at 30°C and eluted using a linear gradient with solvent A containing 0.1% formic acid in 215 water and solvent B containing 0.1% formic acid in acetonitrile: 2-5% solvent B in 5 216 217 min and 5-50% B from 5 to 15 min, then an increase to 60% B in 5 min at a constant 218 flow rate of 0.3 mL/min. The fractions were manually collected following the peak 219 detection at 214 nm, 254 nm and 280 nm and lyophilized and stored at -20°C.

220

#### 221 **2.5. DPPH assay for antioxidant activity**

The lyophilized fractions acquired from TLC-DPPH or RP-HPLC-DAD separation were re-dissolved in the initial volume of crude venom used in each separation method. The crude venom Vv was then diluted with ultra-pure water to obtain a concentration of 28 µg protein/mL. The fractions were also diluted with the same dilution factor as the crude venom to ensure that the percentage of each compound in the fractions was equivalent to that in the crude venom. The DPPH assay was subsequently performed in a 96-well microplate with these fractions.

The radical scavenging activity (RSA) of venom was evaluated by the DPPH assay, following a previously described method (Lu et al., 2014). 100 $\mu$ L of solution of Vv crude venom, Vv0 precipitated venom or fraction from TLC and HPLC were added in triplicate to the 96-well microplate. For IC<sub>50</sub> determination of crude venom, various concentrations in ultra-pure water were prepared between 0.24 to 31.25  $\mu$ g protein/mL. 100  $\mu$ L of 0.2 mM DPPH methanolic solution was then added to each well. The plate was shaken manually, kept in darkness at 37°C for 30 min before reading the absorbance at 515 nm using a Thermo scientific Multiskan GO UV/Vis microplate spectrophotometer. Ultra-pure water and ascorbic acid were used for blank and positive control, respectively. Radical scavenging activity (RSA) was determined as the percent of DPPH inhibition. The IC<sub>50</sub> of these compounds was graphically determined by Graphpad Prism 6.0 (USA) and used for antioxidant activity comparison.

242

# 243 2.6. Identification of antioxidant compounds by high resolution mass 244 spectrometry

The fractions showing the highest % RSA in both approaches TLC and HPLC-DAD 245 were analyzed with RP-HPLC-MS using the Dionex Ultimate 3000 UHPLC 246 247 (Darmstadt, Germany) coupled with a Bruker Daltonik ESI-QTOF-HRMS system 248 (Bremen, Germany). 1 µL of the fraction was injected into a Acquity Waters 2.1x50 249 mm BEH C18 1.7µm column (Saint-Quentin-en-Yvelines, France) maintained at 42°C 250 and eluted at a flow rate of 0.5 mL/min with a gradient starting at 2% of solvent B, 251 maintained for 0.2 min and increased to 50% of solvent B from 0.2 to 3 min (solvent A consisted of 0.1% formic acid in water and solvent B was 0.08% formic acid in 252 253 acetonitrile). The eluate was then loaded into an ESI-QTOF-MS mass spectrometer 254 system with the following parameters: 4500V of capillary voltage; 2.0 bar of nebulizer 255 gas; 9.0 L/min at 200°C of dry gas; 1 Hz of frequency and the spectrum was acquired in positive mode over the range 50-1660 m/z. The MS/MS scans were carried out 256 with the peak of interest obtained at the collision energies of 10 eV, 20 eV, and 30 257 eV. The data were handled by Compass DataAnalysis software (Bruker) and 258 259 submitted to the online MassBank database (https://massbank.eu/MassBank/) for identification. 260

261

#### 262 **2.7. Human keratinocyte cell culture and treatments**

The immortalized human keratinocyte cell line HaCaT was obtained from ATCC, 263 cultured in high glucose Dulbecco's modified Eagle's media (DMEM) supplemented 264 with 10% heat-inactivated fetal calf serum, 50 IU mL<sup>-1</sup> penicillin, 50 mg mL<sup>-1</sup> 265 streptomycin and 2 mM glutamine and maintained in a humidified atmosphere of 5 % 266  $CO_2$  at 37°C. Before treatment, the cells were plated at a density of 2x10<sup>4</sup> cells/well 267 in 96-well plates overnight to reach about 90% of confluence the following day and 268 269 then treated with venom extracts or purified molecules in serum-free media. For the 270 cytotoxic assay, the Cell Proliferation kit II (XTT- Roche) was employed to evaluate the potential toxicity of extracts according to the manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, 271 272 at the indicated time post-treatment, the XTT solution at a final concentration 0.3 273 mg/ml was added to each well and incubated for 4 hours at 37°C to form orange-274 colored formazan produced by viable cells. The intensity of coloration was then 275 quantified by measuring the absorbance with a specific absorbance filter at 450nm 276 using a Victor spectrophotometer (PerkinElmer, Waltham, MA, USA). The data were expressed as percentage of viability by normalizing the absorbance value detected in 277 non-treated cells to the arbitral value of 100 %. For the ROS protection assay, the 278 279 cells were also plated in 96-well plates as indicated above but treated with the 280 compounds for six hours at 5 % CO2 at 37°C before loading the 200 µL of 2'7' 2',7'-Dichlorofluorescin diacetate at 10 µM in PBS (DCF-DA Sigma Aldrich, France) for 20 281 min. After a quick wash in PBS, the plate was irradiated at 25 mJ/cm<sup>2</sup> and then 282 283 incubated for 30 min at 37°C at 5% CO<sub>2</sub>. Then, the fluorescence values at 485-535 284 nm were read with the same spectrophotometer. Non-UVB irradiated cells were used 285 as internal control to measure the basal level of ROS content in cells. The final data

were expressed as the percentage of ROS production by normalizing the absorbance
value detected in non-treated cells to the arbitral value of 100 %. All experiments
were repeated at least three times in triplicate.

289

#### 290 **2.8. Statistical analysis**

The tests were carried out in triplicate or in quintuplicate and performed at least twice. The significant difference between bioactivity values was evaluated by an ANOVA test. These statistical analyses were done with Rstudio software (version 1.0.153) and statistical significance was set at p<0.05. Graphpad Prism 6.0 was used to construct IC<sub>50</sub> and graphics in inhibition activity.

296

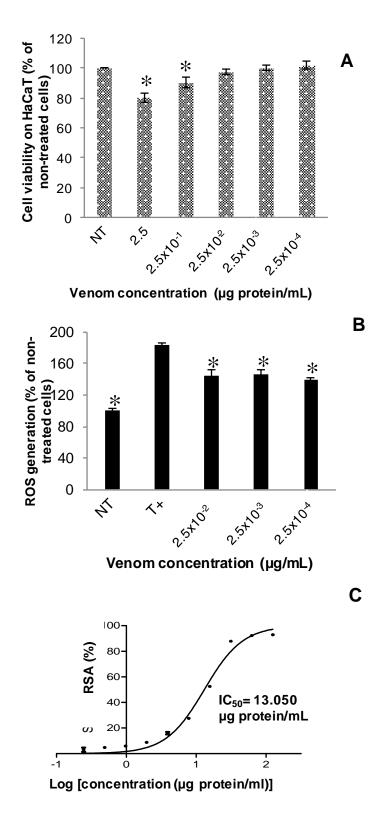
#### **3. Results and discussion**

#### 298 **3.1.** Antioxidant activity of *Vespa velutina* crude venom

The antioxidant activity of V. velutina venom was tested in HaCaT immortalized 299 300 human keratinocytes exposed to UVB as a source of ROS induction. This assay is 301 considered as a crucial criterion for the screening of antioxidant activity in cosmetics (Dunaway et al., 2018). We first performed a cytotoxicity assay to determine the 302 303 concentration of venom that was well tolerated by the cells, as the relative toxicity of 304 compounds at low concentration is a key point when considering a potential human 305 application. Our results from the XTT assay, shown on Fig.1.A, demonstrated a slight toxicity of the venom at concentrations of  $2.5 \times 10^{-1}$  and  $2.5 \mu g$  protein/mL. No 306 307 significant toxicity was observed when the concentration of venom tested ranged from 2.5x10<sup>-4</sup> to 2.5x10<sup>-2</sup> µg protein/mL after 48 hours of incubation. It has been 308 309 recently reported that bee venom (Apis mellifera L.) induces a strong toxicity (60%) 310 loss of cell viability compared with the control) in HaCaT cells at 3 µg/mL (Lee et al.,

311 2015). Our results demonstrate therefore that V. velutina venom is better tolerated by HaCaT cells than the bee venom. Non-toxic concentrations were then employed to 312 313 evaluate the reduction effect of venom in ROS generation. According to figure 1.B, irradiation of HaCaT cells with UVB (named T+) resulted in a substantial production 314 315 of ROS. Remarkably, when the cells were pre-incubated with V. velutina venom for 48 hours, a significant reduction in ROS production was detected in the tested 316 317 concentration range. However, no dose-response effect was observed in this range. 318 The crude venom extract appears to reach its maximum activity even with the low 319 concentration applied, indicating that it has a strong anti-oxidant property against the 320 production of ROS induced by UVB.

These initial results prompted us to identify the molecules responsible for this activity. 321 322 First, a simple assay was applied to quickly screen for compounds possessing 323 antioxidant activities. The DPPH assay is an easy, sensitive and rapid method for investigation of the free radical scavenging activity of a compound by 324 325 spectrophotometry (Kedare and Singh, 2011). The results of this assay shown in 326 figure 1.C demonstrated that V. velutina venom (Vv) has a free radical scavenging property. Remarkable significant inhibition of DPPH was observed in a dose-327 response manner. The IC50 of V. velutina venom Vv was graphically calculated as 328 329 13.050 µg protein/mL.



331 Figure 1. Antioxidant activity evaluation of Vespa velutina venom (Vv). (A) XTT cytotoxicity assay of V. velutina venom in HaCaT cells for 48h. The value is 332 333 expressed as Mean ± SD, n=3. NT: Non-treated cells. \*: significant discrimination versus non-treated group at p<0.05 in ANOVA test (R software). (B) Reactive oxygen 334

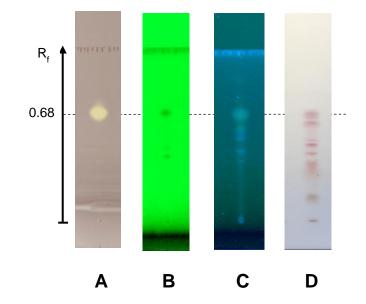
335 species (ROS) reduction effect of V. velutina venom in HaCaT cells irradiated by UVB, the cells were cultured for 48h. NT: Non-treated cells, T+: HaCaT cell irradiated 336 with UVB without adding venom, \*: significant discrimination versus T+ group at 337 p<0.05 in ANOVA test (R software). (C) Dose-response curve of V. velutina venom 338 339 on DPPH radical scavenging activity assay measured at 515 nm. These results are 340 representative of three independent experiments, the value is expressed as Mean ± 341 SD, n=3. RSA: Radical scavenging activity.  $IC_{50}$  was calculated by Graphpad Prism 342 6.0.

343

#### **344 3.2. Detection and isolation of antioxidant compound in TLC plate**

The advantage of the DPPH assay is that antioxidant spots can be directly detected 345 on the plate and the active fractions visible on the surface can then be collected by 346 347 scraping. It is known from the literature that peptides and amino acids can be 348 separated by thin layer chromatography (Bhusan et al., 1989; Neda et al., 2012). In a 349 second step, we therefore conducted TLC separation of V. velutina venom (Vv) 350 whose composition is rich in proteins, peptides and amino acids. As shown in figure 2.A, one intense yellow spot was detected with DPPH 0.05% methanolic solution at 351 the  $R_f = 0.68$  while no yellow spots were detected in the elution zone. It was therefore 352 353 deduced that the compounds responsible for the antioxidant activity of the venom 354 were mainly located in this yellow spot. To obtain more information on the property of this spot, different detection methods were applied. As shown in figure 2.B and 2.C, 355 356 this spot can be detected under a UV lamp at 254 nm or 366 nm. It was assumed to 357 possess conjugated C=C double bonds in the structure. The ninhydrin reagent is 358 used to detect ammonia and primary amines by generating a purple Schiff base 359 compound, or a yellow-orange iminium salt in the case of secondary amines

(Friedman and Williams, 1974). Figure 2.D shows that there are many purple bands, indicative of the amine-rich profile of *V. velutina* venom (Vv). The spot at  $R_f = 0.68$ reacted with ninhydrin solution and produced a purple spot. Therefore, we hypothesized that molecules present in the yellow spot possessed structures containing the amine group. This spot (named S-TLC) was then scraped for in-plate antioxidant activity and structure identification (Zhang et al., 2015).



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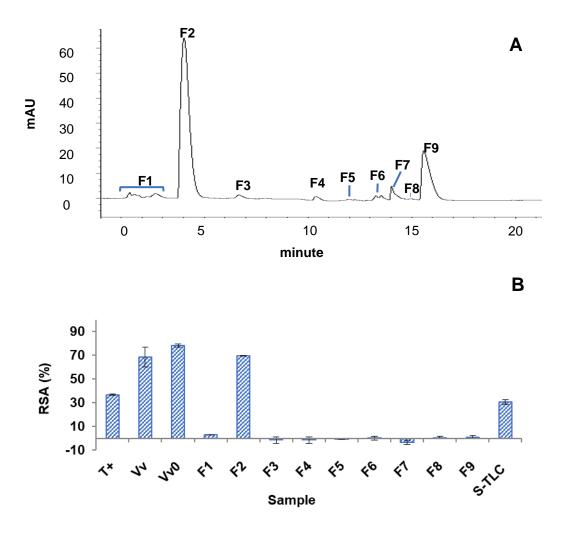
Figure 2. DPPH scavenging activity detection and separation of *Vespa velutina* venom (Vv) on TLC silica gel plate 60. The elution solvent was 1-butanol : acetic acid : water = 4:1:2 (v:v:v) in 90 min. (A) Detection by immersing in DPPH 0.05% solution. The yellow zone on the purple background detected by DPPH presents an antioxidant activity. (B) UV detection at 254 nm. (C) UV detection at 366 nm. (D) Detection by spraying with ninhydrin 0.1% solution. The orange/yellow zone indicates the presence of primary or secondary amines in the molecule.

374

#### 375 **3.3. Isolation of the compound of interest by RP-HPLC**

376 Although the TLC technique is simple and rapid, it can be contaminated by 377 interferences from the migration system and it has a poor recovery for spot collection. 378 RP-HPLC was therefore carried out to enable comparison with antioxidant isolation 379 on the TLC plate. Several fractions were collected to determine which of them had an antioxidant activity using a DPPH assay in a microtiter plate. The previous TLC 380 381 results indicated that this main spot corresponds to a peptide or simple amino acids. Therefore, we eliminated the protein of V. velutina venom (Vv) by precipitation with 382 the organic solvent method (Want et al., 2006) (methanol was chosen as the most 383 384 suitable and effective solvent compared to acetone and acetonitrile, result not shown) 385 before injection into the HPLC system.

As can be seen from figure 3.A, nine fractions were separated from the venom by 386 387 RP-18 HPLC-DAD at 254 nm and their antioxidant activities were evaluated as shown in figure 3.B. To verify the influence of the protein precipitation step, the 388 389 antioxidant activity of crude V. velutina venom (Vv) and precipitated venom (Vv0) 390 were investigated. Figure 3.B shows that antioxidant activity was mostly retained 391 after precipitation. Among the HPLC fractions, only fraction F2 collected at 4 min 392 showed a marked DPPH scavenging activity (69.59%). It is thought that F2 might be 393 the main fraction responsible for the antioxidant activity of V. velutina venom (Vv). The abundant fraction F9 (high absorbance at 254 nm) was used as a non-active 394 395 reference for antioxidant identification. In parallel, the antioxidant activity of the active 396 spot collected from the TLC approach was also confirmed with the DPPH assay. 397 However, only mild inhibition was observed in comparison with that of F2, indicating 398 that the quantity of active molecules that can be collected by TLC is much lower than 399 that obtained by HPLC.



400

Figure 3: RP-HPLC chromatogram of precipitated venom (Vv0) and active
antioxidant detection by DPPH scavenging activity assay (A) RP-HPLC-DAD
profile of precipitated venom at 254 nm (B) DPPH scavenging activity assay of RPHPLC-DAD fractions and TLC-active spot.

405

#### 406 **3.4. Identification of antioxidant compound**

The active spot  $R_f = 0.68$  (S-TLC) from the TLC method and the active fraction F2 from the RP-HPLC method were analyzed by LC-MS. The non-active fraction (F9) was used as negative control. Their LC-MS profiles were studied to compare the targeted and non-targeted approaches and identify the antioxidant compound. As can be seen from figure 4.A, the S-TLC and F2 fractions contain a common peak at  $t_r$  412 =0.95 min which was not present in the non-active fraction F9, indicating that this
413 peak is the main molecule responsible for the antioxidant activity.

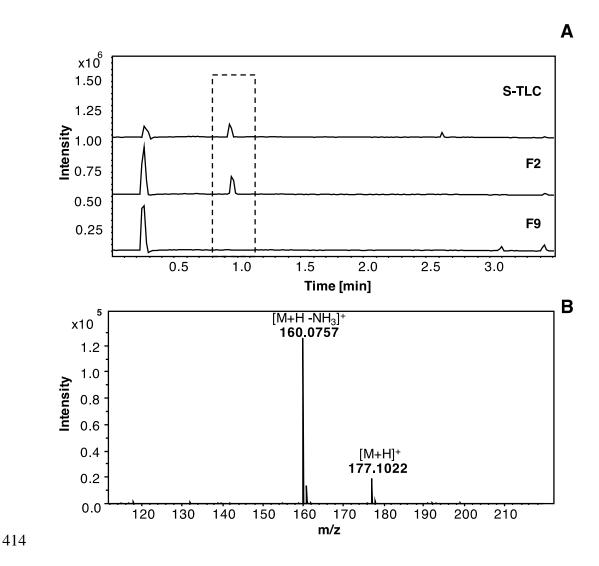
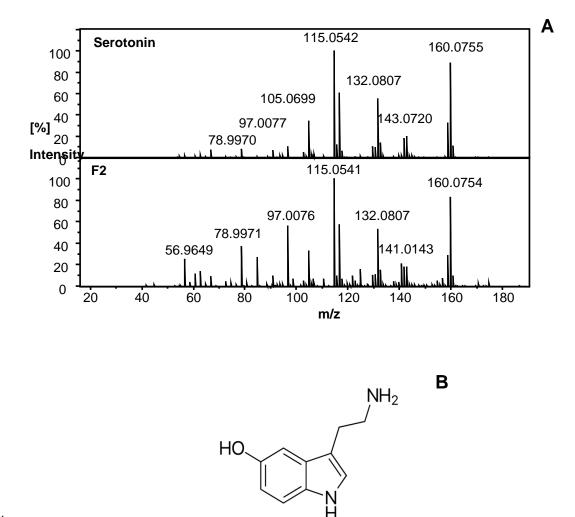


Figure 4: LC-MS profile of active fraction obtained from TLC and RP-HPLC separation. (A) Comparison of LC-MS profiles among active spots scraped from TLC glass plate, RP-HPLC active fraction and RP-HPLC non-active fraction. The dotted line indicates the coincident peak of two active fractions obtained from two distinct collection methods (S-TLC and F2). This peak is not present in the non-active fraction (F9). (B) Mass spectrum of coincident peak at the  $t_r = 0.95$  min.

422 The mass spectrum corresponding to the peak at  $t_r$ = 0.95 min reveals a singlecharge ion  $[M+H]^+$  at m/z 177.1022 with a major fragment  $[M+H-NH_3]^+ m/z$  160.0757. 423 424 Using the Smart formula tool (Compass DataAnalysis software, Bruker), we deduced 425 that this ion corresponds to a compound with a molecular weight of 176.0943 Da and 426 with a molecular formula  $C_{10}H_{12}N_2O$  (the mass error of ion  $[M+H]^+$  is 0.1 ppm, msigma = 8.5, theoretical mass  $[M+H]^+$  = 177.1023). Additionally, the MS/MS profile 427 428 of ion [M+H]<sup>+</sup> at *m/z* 177.1022 was acquired by FIA-ESI-QTOF-HRMS/MS at different 429 collision energies (10 eV, 20 eV, 30eV) from the two active fractions. On applying the MS/MS profiles to the online database library (https://massbank.eu/MassBank/), the 430 active compound present in the F2 and S-TLC fractions was determined as 431 serotonin. The standard serotonin analyzed in MS/MS showed a similar mass 432 433 fingerprint (Fig 5.A and 5.B).



434

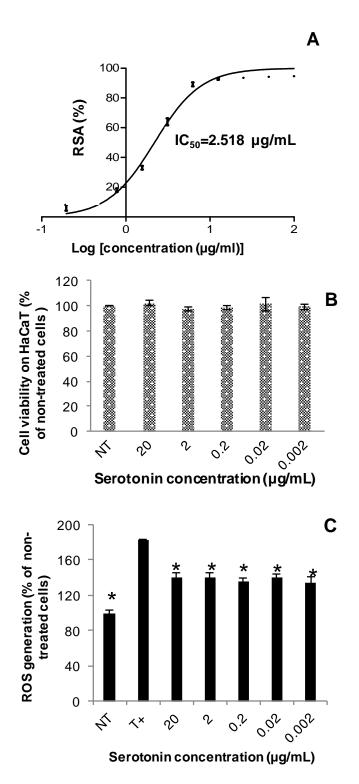
Figure 5: Coincident peak characterization. (A) MS/MS profile at the collision
energy 30 eV of *m/z* 177.1022 of serotonin (upper spectrum) and active fraction F2
(lower spectrum). (B) Primary chemical structure of serotonin.

438

#### 439 **3.5. Serotonin antioxidant activity evaluation**

To confirm serotonin as the compound responsible for antioxidant activity in *V. velutina* venom (Vv), a serotonin standard was tested for its antioxidant property by DPPH assay on a TLC plate (supplementary data figure S.2). Results of this experiment indicate that serotonin presents a strong antioxidant activity as demonstrated by the presence of a yellow spot at the same  $R_f = 0.68$  as that of crude venom. Moreover, in the detection with ninhydrin 0.1%, serotonin also displays a 446 purple-orange spot at  $R_f = 0.68$ , which can be explained by its amine structure 447 containing one primary amine and one secondary amine (see figure 5.B).

448



450 Figure 6: Antioxidant activity of serotonin. (A) Dose-response curve of serotonin
451 in DPPH scavenging activity assay measured at 515 nm, results are expressed as

452 Mean ± SD, n=3. RSA: Radical scavenging activity. IC<sub>50</sub> was calculated by Graphpad 453 Prism 6.0. (B) XTT cytotoxicity assay of serotonin in HaCaT cells for 48h. Results are 454 expressed as Mean ± SD, n=3. NT: Non-treated cells \*: significant discrimination versus non-treated group at p<0.05 in ANOVA test (R software). (C) Reactive oxygen 455 456 species (ROS) reduction effect of serotonin in HaCaT cells irradiated by UVB. Results are expressed as Mean ± SD, n=3. T+: HaCaT cell irradiated by UVB without 457 adding venom. NT: Non-treated cells \*: significant discrimination versus T+ group at 458 459 p<0.05 in ANOVA test (R-software).

460

461 The cytotoxicity assay revealed that serotonin is not toxic for the HaCaT cells in the concentration ranging from 0.002 to 20 µg/mL (equivalent to 0.01136-113.6 µM) (Fig. 462 6.B). Serotonin was then tested at the same concentration range in the ROS cellular 463 464 assay to evaluate the strength of its antioxidant property in keratinocytes. As shown in Fig. 6.C, serotonin decreases the production of ROS in HaCaT cells exposed to 465 466 UVB in comparison with the positive control T+ ( $\approx$  40-48%) at all concentrations 467 used. However, no dose-response effect was observed, showing that these concentrations reached the maximum of capacity and therefore that lower 468 concentrations of serotonin may also possess a significant antioxidant capability. 469 470 Consequently, we demonstrate that serotonin has a considerable protective property 471 against oxidation in HaCaT cells exposed to UVB. In a recent paper, serotonin was demonstrated to decrease the viability of HaCaT cells when a concentration >10 µM 472 473 was used; the effect was even more pronounced when a concentration >100 µM was 474 evaluated (Choi et al., 2010). Additionally, serotonin was not found to have any 475 inhibition property against ROS produced in HaCaT cells exposed to  $H_2O_2$  at 476 concentrations of 1 µM and 10 µM. In another review, serotonin was described as a

477 causative agent for increased ROS generation in diabetes mellitus (Yang et al., 2017). In our study, the results show that serotonin has a cytoprotective property in 478 479 UVB-irradiated HaCaT cells at a low concentration and is not toxic at a higher concentration (e.g. 0.01136-113.6 µM). These results were also supported by 480 481 research into the mechanism involving serotonin as an antioxidant agent and its interaction with lipid membranes, protecting them from oxidation (Azouzi et al., 2017). 482 Moreover, a conformational space study of serotonin recently indicated that the 483 484 structure of the indole ring is a reactive site for free-radical scavenging activity 485 (Lobayan and Schmit, 2018).

Although our study has succeeded in confirming the antioxidant property of serotonin found in Asian hornet venom on UVB-irradiated keratinocyte cells, it is necessary to discuss the role of serotonin in the venom and the applicability of this compound in cosmetics.

490 Serotonin is a well-known neurotransmitter with vasoactive, immunomodulatory, and 491 growth factor properties. This compound produces pro-inflammation, vasodilation and 492 pro-edema (Slominski et al., 2002). In some studies, serotonin is reported to be frequently well represented in Vespid venom and to be derived from tryptophan in 493 494 venom-producing cells. This bioactive amine is generally considered to be the major 495 pain-producing factor in Vespid venom for defense purposes, in particular toward 496 vertebrate attackers (Piek, 2013; Weisel-Eichler and Libersat, 2004). In the case of 497 marine snail venom, serotonin has been known to induce muscular paralysis or 498 vasodilation in prey, thereby increasing the distribution of the other venom 499 compounds (Weisel-Eichler and Libersat, 2004).

500 In human skin, the detection of serotonin and serotonergic machinery including its 501 transporters and receptors in the epidermis have proved the serotonin production

502 capability of this organ. This expression may be involved in the regulatory function of the skin and serotonin may be part of this system (Sansone and Sansone, 2013; 503 504 Slominski et al., 2002). Another study has shown that serotonin can enhance cell proliferation and cell migration in both keratinocytes and fibroblasts, making serotonin 505 506 a potential therapeutic candidate for wound healing (Sadig et al., 2018). Therefore, in 507 an injection of Asian hornet venom into the human skin, serotonin will certainly react as a pain-producing molecule but will also simultaneously induce the effects related 508 509 to its strong antioxidant property and its impact on the skin serotonergic system. 510 However, in view of the strong influence of serotonin on human monoaminergic systems, the use of Asian hornet venom or serotonin as a cosmetic ingredient seems 511 512 complicated.

513

#### **4. Conclusions**

515 This study is the first to investigate the antioxidant activity of Asian hornet venom 516 (*Vespa velutina nigithorax*). We demonstrate that this venom showed an inhibition 517 capability against HaCaT intracellular Reactive Oxygen Species at a low 518 concentration  $(2.5 \times 10^{-4} \text{ to } 2.5 \times 10^{-2} \mu \text{g protein/mL})$  without cytotoxicity.

A biotechnologically-oriented strategy was developed using TLC-DPPH targeted and HPLC-DPPH non-targeted separation methods to purify the active fraction. Serotonin was identified by UHPLC-ESI-QTOF-HRMS/MS as the major active compound responsible for free radical scavenging activity in this venom.

Since this compound has a harmful effect on the human nervous system, the direct
use of serotonin as a new cosmetic ingredient should be considered with caution.
Nevertheless, these results contribute to current knowledge in bioactivity research of

this insect and the methodology applied in this study can be exploited in the searchfor other biological targets.

528

#### 529 Acknowledgment

We express our acknowledgement to Mr. Yoan LAURENT of the Centre de Biophysique Moléculaire (CBM, CNRS UPR4301) for the XTT cytotoxicity and ROS assay performed on HaCaT cells. This research was supported by ARD 2020 Cosmetosciences, a global training and research program dedicated to the cosmetic industry. Located in the heart of the cosmetic valley, this program led by University of Orléans is funded by the Région Centre-Val de Loire.

536

#### 537 Supporting Information

Figure S.1: Screening of elution solvent system for Vespa velutina venom (Vv)
separation on TLC plate. Silica gel 60 plate: (A) 1-butanol: acetic acid: water =
4:1:2 (v:v:v) (B) 1-butanol: acetic acid: water = 4:1,5:3 (v:v:v) (C) Acetonitrile:
methanol: water = 5:1:1 (v:v:v) (D) Chloroform: methanol: ammoniac 35% = 2:2:1
(v:v:v). RP-18 W plate: (E) Methanol: water = 7:3 (v:v)

543

**Figure S.2:** TLC profile of crude venom (Vv) and serotonin on TLC silica gel 60 plate (Merck) by reagent: (1) DPPH/methanol (2) Ninhydrin/ethanol. The elution solvent was 1-butanol : acetic acid : water = 4:1:2 (v:v:v) for 90 min.

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#### 713 **Figure captions**

## Figure 1. Antioxidant activity evaluation of *Vespa velutina* venom (Vv). (A) XTT cytotoxicity assay of *V. velutina* venom in HaCaT cells for 48h. The value is expressed as Mean $\pm$ SD, n=3. NT: Non-treated cells. \*: significant discrimination versus non-treated group at p<0.05 in ANOVA test (R software). (B) Reactive oxygen species (ROS) reduction effect of *V. velutina* venom in HaCaT cells irradiated by

UVB, the cells were cultured for 48h. NT: Non-treated cells, T+: HaCaT cell irradiated with UVB without adding venom, \*: significant discrimination versus T+ group at p<0.05 in ANOVA test (R software). (C) Dose-response curve of *V. velutina* venom on DPPH radical scavenging activity assay measured at 515 nm. These results are representative of three independent experiments, the value is expressed as Mean ± SD, n=3. RSA: Radical scavenging activity. IC<sub>50</sub> was calculated by Graphpad Prism 6.0.

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Figure 2. DPPH scavenging activity detection and separation of *Vespa velutina* venom (Vv) on TLC silica gel plate 60. The elution solvent was 1-butanol : acetic acid : water = 4:1:2 (v:v:v) in 90 min. (A) Detection by immersing in DPPH 0.05% solution. The yellow zone on the purple background detected by DPPH presents an antioxidant activity. (B) UV detection at 254 nm. (C) UV detection at 366 nm. (D) Detection by spraying with ninhydrin 0.1% solution. The orange/yellow zone indicates the presence of primary or secondary amines in the molecule

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Figure 3: RP-HPLC chromatogram of precipitated venom (Vv0) and active
antioxidant detection by DPPH scavenging activity assay (A) RP-HPLC-DAD
profile of precipitated venom at 254 nm (B) DPPH scavenging activity assay of RPHPLC-DAD fractions and TLC-active spot.

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Figure 4: LC-MS profile of active fraction obtained from TLC and RP-HPLC
 separation. (A) Comparison of LC-MS profiles among active spots scraped from
 TLC glass plate, RP-HPLC active fraction and RP-HPLC non-active fraction. The
 dotted line indicates the coincident peak of two active fractions obtained from two

distinct collection methods (S-TLC and F2). This peak is not present in the non-active fraction (F9). (B) Mass spectrum of coincident peak at the  $t_r = 0.95$  min.

Figure 5: Coincident peak characterization. (A) MS/MS profile at the collision
energy 30 eV of *m/z* 177.1022 of serotonin (upper spectrum) and active fraction F2
(lower spectrum). (B) Primary chemical structure of serotonin.

749

750 Figure 6: Antioxidant activity of serotonin. (A) Dose-response curve of serotonin 751 in DPPH scavenging activity assay measured at 515 nm, results are expressed as 752 Mean ± SD, n=3. RSA: Radical scavenging activity. IC<sub>50</sub> was calculated by Graphpad 753 Prism 6.0. (B) XTT cytotoxicity assay of serotonin in HaCaT cells for 48h. Results are 754 expressed as Mean ± SD, n=3. NT: Non-treated cells \*: significant discrimination 755 versus non-treated group at p<0.05 in ANOVA test (R software). (C) Reactive oxygen 756 species (ROS) reduction effect of serotonin in HaCaT cells irradiated by UVB. 757 Results are expressed as Mean ± SD, n=3. T+: HaCaT cell irradiated by UVB without 758 adding venom. NT: Non-treated cells \*: significant discrimination versus T+ group at 759 p<0.05 in ANOVA test (R-software).

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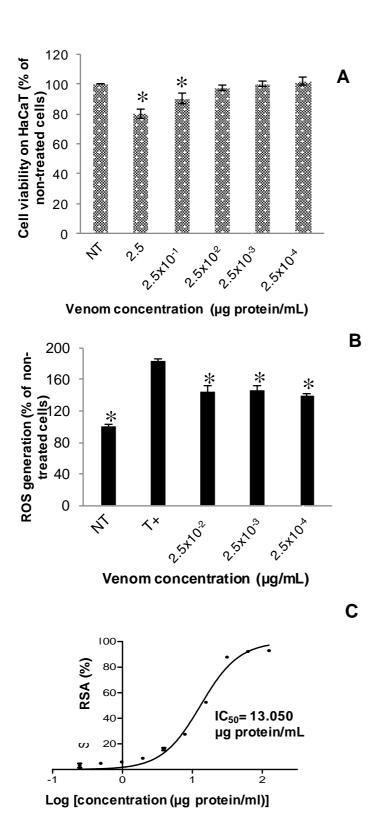
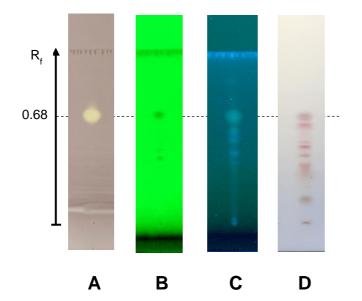


Figure 1. Antioxidant activity evaluation of *Vespa velutina* venom (Vv). (A) XTT cytotoxicity assay of *V. velutina* venom in HaCaT cells for 48h. The value is expressed as Mean  $\pm$  SD, n=3. NT: Non-treated cells. \*: significant discrimination versus non-treated group at p<0.05 in ANOVA test (R software). (B) Reactive oxygen

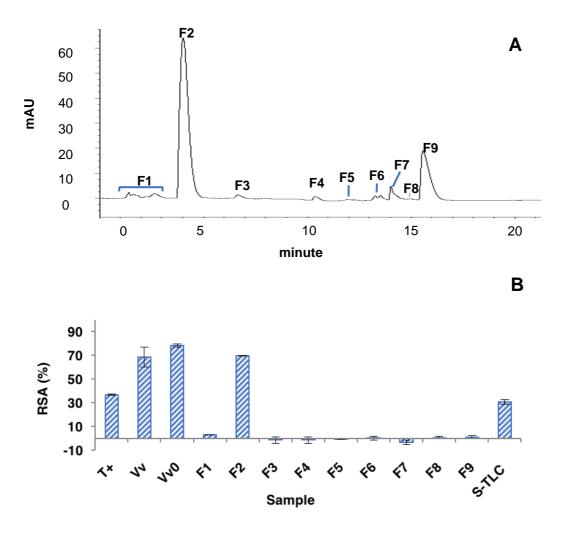
species (ROS) reduction effect of *V. velutina* venom in HaCaT cells irradiated by UVB, the cells were cultured for 48h. NT: Non-treated cells, T+: HaCaT cell irradiated with UVB without adding venom, \*: significant discrimination versus T+ group at p<0.05 in ANOVA test (R software). (C) Dose-response curve of *V. velutina* venom on DPPH radical scavenging activity assay measured at 515 nm. These results are representative of three independent experiments, the value is expressed as Mean  $\pm$  SD, n=3. RSA: Radical scavenging activity. IC<sub>50</sub> was calculated by Graphpad Prism 6.0.

Single column fitting image



**Figure 2. DPPH scavenging activity detection and separation of** *Vespa velutina* **venom (Vv) on TLC silica gel plate 60.** The elution solvent was 1-butanol : acetic acid : water = 4:1:2 (v:v:v) in 90 min. (**A**) Detection by immersing in DPPH 0.05% solution. The yellow zone on the purple background detected by DPPH presents an antioxidant activity. (**B**) UV detection at 254 nm. (**C**) UV detection at 366 nm. (**D**) Detection by spraying with ninhydrin 0.1% solution. The orange/yellow zone indicates the presence of primary or secondary amines in the molecule.

1.5-column fitting image, in color



**Figure 3: RP-HPLC chromatogram of precipitated venom (Vv0) and active antioxidant detection by DPPH scavenging activity assay (A)** RP-HPLC-DAD profile of precipitated venom at 254 nm **(B)** DPPH scavenging activity assay of RP-HPLC-DAD fractions and TLC-active spot.

2-column fitting image

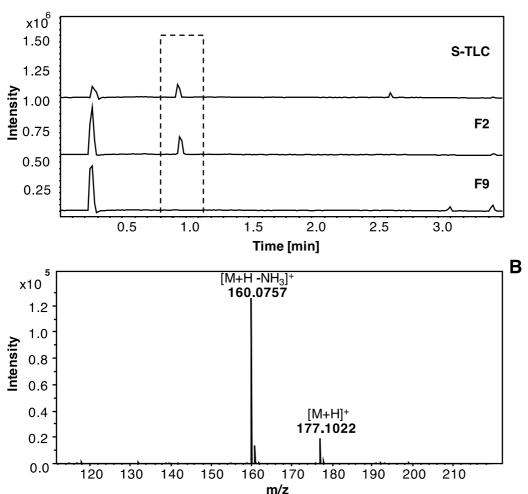
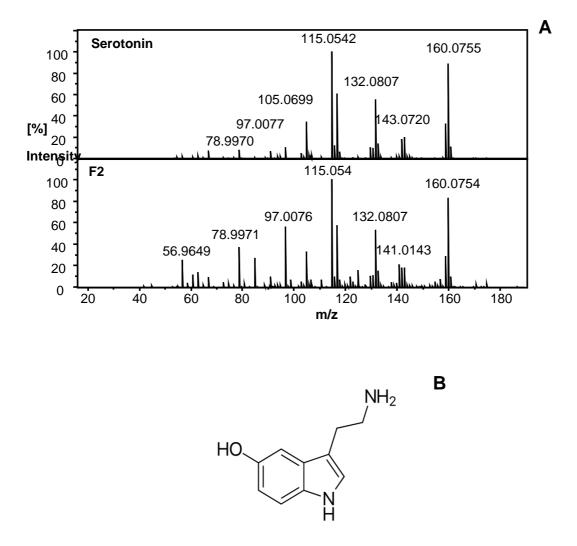


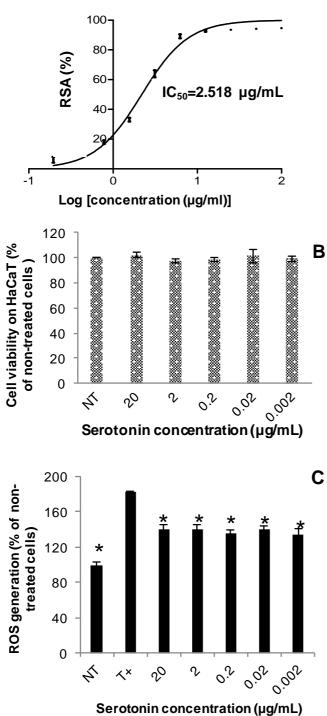
Figure 4: LC-MS profile of active fraction obtained from TLC and RP-HPLC separation. (A) Comparison of LC-MS profiles among active spots scraped from TLC glass plate, RP-HPLC active fraction and RP-HPLC non-active fraction. The dotted line indicates the coincident peak of two active fractions obtained from two distinct collection methods (S-TLC and F2). This peak is not present in the non-active fraction (F9). (B) Mass spectrum of coincident peak at the  $t_r = 0.95$  min.

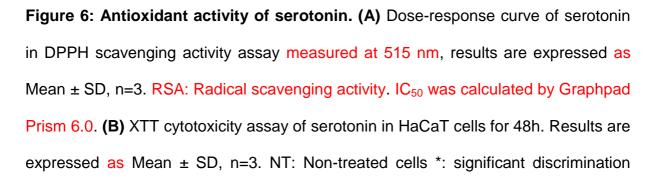
2-column fitting image



**Figure 5: Coincident peak characterization. (A)** MS/MS profile at the collision energy 30 eV of m/z 177.1022 of serotonin (upper spectrum) and active fraction F2 (lower spectrum). **(B)** Primary chemical structure of serotonin.

2-column fitting image





versus non-treated group at p<0.05 in ANOVA test (R software). **(C)** Reactive oxygen species (ROS) reduction effect of serotonin in HaCaT cells irradiated by UVB. Results are expressed as Mean  $\pm$  SD, n=3. T+: HaCaT cell irradiated by UVB without adding venom. NT: Non-treated cells \*: significant discrimination versus T+ group at p<0.05 in ANOVA test (R-software).

Single column fitting image

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