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PROGRAMA DE PÓS-GRADUAÇÃO EM RECURSOS NATURAIS

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**TECNOLOGIA SOCIAL PARA O TRATAMENTO DE ÁGUA PARA CONSUMO  
HUMANO COM COAGULANTE À BASE DE CACTOS RORAIMENSES**

BOA VISTA, RR  
2023

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Tese apresentada ao Programa de Pós-graduação em Recursos Naturais da Universidade Federal de Roraima, para obtenção do título de doutora em Ciências Ambientais (Recursos Naturais).  
Linha de pesquisa: Bioprospecção.

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Tese apresentada como pré-requisito para a conclusão do curso de doutorado em Ciências Ambientais (Recursos Naturais) da Universidade Federal de Roraima, defendida em 03 de julho de 2023 e avaliada pela seguinte banca examinadora:

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**Prof.<sup>a</sup> Dra. Denise Machado Duran Gutierrez**  
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Dedico ao meu filho Oscar Riss, que desde o  
meu ventre, me deu forças para vencer as  
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“É necessário dizer que não é a quantidade de informações, nem a sofisticação em Matemática que podem dar sozinhas um conhecimento pertinente, mas sim a capacidade de colocar o conhecimento no contexto”

(Edgar Morin, 2000)

## RESUMO

O principal desafio desta pesquisa está relacionado ao fornecimento de água potável para comunidades carentes e/ou residentes em locais de difícil acesso na região Amazônica. A falta de saneamento, o adoecimento pelo consumo de água sem qualidade afeta milhões de brasileiros. Desta forma, desenvolver estratégias seguras, de baixo custo e eficazes para tratar a água de consumo a partir de cactos do lavrado de Roraima, contribuirá para a qualidade de vida das comunidades que não têm acesso à água potável, além de proteger o ambiente, pela diminuição no lançamento de poluentes. Diante disto, o objetivo desta pesquisa, precursora na região, foi desenvolver uma tecnologia social para o tratamento de água para consumo humano, com coagulante à base de cactos roraimenses. Preliminarmente, foi realizado um ensaio para verificar o potencial de coagulação do cacto quanto à turbidez da água do rio Branco. Para desenvolvimento da tecnologia social procedeu-se a caracterização das águas superficiais e subterrâneas na comunidade ribeirinha de Santa Maria do Boiaçu, medindo-se a turbidez, o pH, os coliformes totais e termotolerantes e os ensaios de coagulação em equipamento *Jar Test*, de acordo com o *Standard Methods for the Examination of Water and Wastewater*. Para a prospecção fitoquímica e as atividades biológicas, o extrato etanólico de *Cereus jamacaru* foi avaliado quanto à capacidade antioxidant, determinada pelos métodos de DPPH e ABTS e quanto ao teor de compostos fenólicos totais pela adaptação do método Folin-Ciocalteau. O perfil químico foi analisado pelo método APCI-MS e a toxicidade a partir da CL50 em ensaio agudo com *Artemia salina*. O coagulante natural do cacto *C. jamacaru* do lavrado de Roraima possui ação coagulante para o tratamento da água destinada ao consumo humano, podendo ser utilizado tanto para águas superficiais quanto para subterrâneas, independente da sazonalidade. A tecnologia social produzida com a comunidade ribeirinha de Santa Maria do Boiaçu, a partir do extrato de *C. jamacaru*, demonstrou eficácia na coagulação da água, permitindo o seu consumo e possibilitando que outras comunidades em condição de vulnerabilidade possam produzir o coagulante natural e obter água de qualidade, visto moradores foram treinados e certificados, podendo atuar como multiplicadores. Este fato, além de propiciar qualidade de vida aos moradores, protege o ambiente e contempla dois importantes Objetivos de Desenvolvimento Sustentável proposto pela Organização das Nações Unidas: 3: Saúde e bem-estar e 6: Água potável e saneamento.

**Palavras-chaves:** Qualidade da água. Saúde humana. Biocoagulante. Amazônia. Estudo Fitoquímico. Comunidades Ribeirinhas.

## ABSTRACT

The main challenge of this research is related to the supply of potable water for needy communities and/or residents in places of difficult access in the Amazon region. The lack of sanitation, illness due to the consumption of poor quality water affects millions of Brazilians. In this way, developing safe, low-cost and effective strategies to treat drinking water from cacti from the lavrado of Roraima will contribute to the quality of life of communities that do not have access to drinking water, in addition to protecting the environment, through decrease in the release of pollutants. Given this, the objective of this research, a precursor in the region, was to develop a social technology for the treatment of water for human consumption, with a coagulant based on Roraima cacti. Preliminarily, an assay was carried out to verify the coagulation potential of the cactus in relation to the turbidity of the water in the Branco River. For the development of social technology, surface and groundwater were characterized in the riverside community of Santa Maria do Boiaçu, measuring turbidity, pH, total and thermotolerant coliforms and coagulation tests in Jar Test equipment, according to the Standard Methods for the Examination of Water and Wastewater. For phytochemical prospecting and biological activities, the ethanolic extract of *Cereus jamacaru* was evaluated for its antioxidant capacity, determined by the DPPH and ABTS methods, and for the content of total phenolic compounds by adapting the Folin-Ciocalteau method. The chemical profile was analyzed by the APCI-MS method and the toxicity from the LC50 in an acute test with *Artemia salina*. The natural coagulant of the cactus *C. jamacaru* from the lavrado of Roraima has a coagulant action for the treatment of water intended for human consumption, and can be used for both surface and groundwater, regardless of seasonality. The social technology produced with the riverside community of Santa Maria do Boiaçu, based on the extract of *C. jamacaru*, proved to be effective in coagulating water, allowing its consumption and allowing other vulnerable communities to produce the natural coagulant and obtain quality water, since residents were trained and certified, being able to act as multipliers. This fact, in addition to providing quality of life for residents, protects the environment and includes two important Sustainable Development Goals proposed by the United Nations: 3: Health and well-being and 6: Drinking water and sanitation.

**Keywords:** Water quality. Human health. Biocoagulant. Amazon. Phytochemical Study. Riverside Communities

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## 1 INTRODUÇÃO

No Brasil, além da demanda por água de qualidade, a escassez de recursos financeiros para os sistemas de saneamento básico tem estimulado pesquisas que aperfeiçoem os processos de coagulação e floculação, assim como o emprego de coagulantes naturais no tratamento da água (RICHTER, 2009). A região com maior abundância e disponibilidade de recursos hídricos é a Amazônica. Entretanto, as condições sanitárias, a drenagem de esgotos e o tratamento de água são precários, agravando o problema da saúde humana com incidência sobre a mortalidade infantil conforme apontou o relatório da “Agenda pela Infância e Adolescência na Amazônia”, do Fundo das Nações Unidas para a Infância (UNICEF, 2018). De acordo com o Sistema Nacional de Informações sobre o Saneamento Básico, no Brasil 34,2 milhões de pessoas não têm acesso à água tratada (SNIS, 2019).

O problema da falta de saneamento básico se intensifica na região Amazônica quando pensamos nas populações que vivem em áreas de difícil acesso, pois a disponibilidade econômica e a complexidade tecnológica de alguns métodos de tratamento de água inviabilizam a implantação em algumas localizações (MELLO, 2018), tornando-se soluções distantes da realidade e cultura local da região. A Tecnologia Social (TS) surge como uma alternativa, capaz de solucionar problemas essenciais, como à demanda por água potável, promovendo, assim, a saúde e melhorias ambientais (MENDOLA, 2019). A TS é definida como um “Conjunto de técnicas, metodologias transformadoras, desenvolvidas e/ou aplicadas na interação com a população e apropriadas por ela, que representam soluções para inclusão social e melhoria das condições de vida” (DAGNINO, 2011, p. 1) tal definição norteará esta pesquisa.

Para o fornecimento de água de qualidade à população e suas atividades cotidianas, a água captada para abastecimento passa por um processo de tratamento nas Estações de Tratamento de Água (ETA). Esse processo consiste basicamente em quatro etapas, a coagulação e a floculação, a decantação, a filtração e pôr fim a cloração e a fluoretação. A coagulação se destaca por ser um processo que envolve a aplicação de produtos químicos que possibilitam a remoção de compostos que estão dissolvidos na água e a desestabilização de suspensões coloidais e sólidos que não podem ser removidos por sedimentação ou filtração. Intimamente ligada à coagulação está à floculação, durante a qual as partículas desestabilizadas pelo coagulante aglutanam-se e formam flocos passíveis de decantação (LIMA JUNIOR, 2018; RICHTER, 2009).

De acordo com Lima Junior e Abreu (2018), os principais coagulantes empregados no tratamento das águas públicas são os sais inorgânicos, tais como sulfato de alumínio, cloreto férrico, sulfato ferroso e policloreto de alumínio. Oladoja et al. (2017) afirmam que os coagulantes à base de alumínio são rotineiramente mais utilizados devido ao seu baixo custo e sua eficiência no tratamento convencional da água.

Durante o tratamento da água, o acúmulo de resíduos de hidróxidos metálicos não biodegradáveis, gerados durante os processos de coagulação e floculação, a alta concentração de lodo que apresenta potencial ecotóxico (OLADOJA et al., 2017) e a relação com patologias que afetam o sistema nervoso central, como demências e doenças de Alzheimer e Parkinson, são alguns dos resultados da aplicação dos coagulantes inorgânicos ao tratamento da água para consumo humano (WALTON, 2013).

Seguindo os princípios da química verde propostos na década de 90, Lima Junior e Abreu (2018) afirmam que o desenvolvimento de coagulantes e floculantes, baseados em matérias-primas naturais biodegradáveis abundantes na natureza, denominados coagulantes naturais ou biocoagulantes, vêm ganhando cada vez mais espaço nas pesquisas voltadas para as tecnologias ambientais. Os coagulantes naturais seguem o conceito de material eco-friendly, aqueles projetados para causar o menor dano natural possível.

Estudar espécies vegetais com potencial de coagulação apresentam grandes vantagens, a saber: alta disponibilidade de matéria-prima, muitas vezes renovável; baixa corrosividade sobre o sistema de distribuição hídrica; diminuição de até cinco vezes do volume de lodo gerado no processo de tratamento da água; em geral, não apresentam riscos à saúde humana e animal e redução de custos e perigos nos processos de tratamento (TEIXEIRA et al., 2017).

Os estudos com cactos destinados ao tratamento de água têm recebido grande atenção, em razão da sua composição química e estrutural visto possuírem nutrientes, proteínas, amilose, ácido málico, resina, vitaminas e celulose (ZARA; THOMAZINI; LENZ, 2012). Porém, pesquisas com a aplicação de cactos no tratamento de água são ainda escassas, sendo essa pesquisa precursora na região.

Neste contexto, o problema desta pesquisa está centrado na possibilidade de que a qualidade de vida de comunidades ribeirinhas amazônicas pode ser melhorada com a adoção de tecnologia social a base de coagulantes naturais, a partir de cactos roraimenses, para o tratamento da água. Para apresentar respostas ao problema norteador desta pesquisa foram feitas as seguintes arguições: i. O coagulante à base do cacto Mandacaru do lavrado de Roraima possui ação coagulante para o tratamento da água destinado ao consumo humano? ii. Há diferença de eficiência entre as concentrações do coagulante e a origem da água a ser

tratada? iii. A sazonalidade afeta o desempenho do coagulante natural à base do Mandacaru? iv. O coagulante natural à base de cacto pode ser considerado uma tecnologia social? Assim o objetivo geral desta pesquisa foi desenvolver um coagulante à base de cactos roraimenses para tratar a água destinada ao consumo humano em comunidade ribeirinha da Bacia do rio Branco em Roraima.

De forma sintética, nesta pesquisa foi utilizado o cacto *Cereus jamacaru* De Candolle, popularmente, conhecido como Mandacaru, que compõe a fitofisionomia do lavrado, para avaliar o potencial de coagulação no tratamento da água. Destarte, o estudo foi desenvolvido dentro do contexto Amazônico, considerando a conjuntura ambiental, espacial, temporal e principalmente social, ressaltando-se a destacada importância do lavrado de Roraima para a conservação da biodiversidade e dos recursos hídricos. Para o desenvolvimento da tecnologia social a comunidade de Santa Maria do Boiaçu recebeu capacitação para a produção do coagulante natural, que foi certificada pelo Departamento de Ensino do Campus Novo Paraíso do Instituto Federal de Roraima, conforme processo nº 23230.000230.2023-65.

Visando ampliar a disseminação do conhecimento, inclusive agilizando a elaboração da tese, bem como o processo de avaliação pelos membros da banca examinadora, o Programa de Pós-graduação em Recursos Naturais da Universidade Federal de Roraima (PRONAT-UFRR), permite que o discente apresente a tese no formato compacto, a partir dos artigos produzidos, conforme as normas para apresentação de trabalhos técnico-científicos da UFRR, aprovada pela Resolução n.º 08/2017-CEPE/UFRR (UFRR, 2017).

Portanto, esta tese é formada por três artigos, os quais estão organizados seguindo a sequência dos objetivos específicos, proporcionando uma melhor compreensão. Após cada artigo não publicado, estão dispostas as normas para submissão de cada revista científica, para qual o artigo foi submetido, conforme estabelece a referida resolução.

O primeiro artigo, intitulado “*Effect of amazon cactus (*Cereus jamacaru*) as a natural coagulant for the removal of turbidity from surface water*”, teve o objetivo de analisar o potencial de ação do coagulante natural de cactos por meio de um ensaio preliminar. Este artigo foi publicado no Periódico Tchê Química, que no ato da submissão apresentava Qualis B1 (2013-2016) na área de Ciências Ambientais. Nesta pesquisa concluiu-se que cacto amazônico *C. jamacaru* demonstra eficácia de coagulação na análise da turbidez da água amostrada.

Para atender o segundo objetivo desta tese, foi elaborado o artigo “*Social technology for water treatment in a riverine community in the lower branco river region, Roraima, extreme north of Brazil*”, cujo os objetivos foram verificar a eficiência do coagulante à base

de cactos em águas superficiais e subterrâneas em duas escalas sazonais; e adaptar o método de obtenção do coagulante natural para ser aplicado em comunidades como Tecnologia Social com capacidade de tratar a água para o consumo humano. Este artigo foi submetido para a Revista Brasileira de Tecnologia Social, que apresenta *Qualis* B1, na área de Ciências Ambientais, conforme quadriênio 2017-2019. A conclusão desta pesquisa demonstra que a tecnologia social produzida junto à comunidade ribeirinha de Santa Maria do Boiaçu tem eficácia na coagulação por meio da análise dos parâmetros de turbidez e pH, sem influência da sazonalidade.

O terceiro artigo, intitulado “*Phytochemical prospecting and biological activity of the ethanolic extract of cacti from the “lavrado” region of Roraima, Brazil*”, teve como objetivo realizar um *screening* fitoquímico do cacto Mandacaru da região de lavrado do estado de Roraima. Este artigo foi submetido para a Journal Gaia Scientia, cujo *Qualis* de referência é B1 em Ciências Ambientais. Tal estudo revelou 35 compostos secundários no extrato etanólico dos cladódios do cacto *C. jamacaru*, além de fornecer evidências substanciais de que este cacto é uma fonte potente de antioxidantes e não apresenta toxicidade.

Parte dos resultados desta pesquisa foram submetidos ao CATALISA ICT uma iniciativa articulada pelo Sebrae Nacional, com a parceria de entidades do ecossistema de inovação, com o objetivo de acelerar e fomentar negócios inovadores de base tecnológica, para alavancar geração de riqueza e bem-estar para a sociedade. A proposta foi classificada até a segunda fase onde alcançou nota máxima na avaliação do quesito impacto social.

A proposta de produção da tecnologia social envolvendo o extrato do cacto, centralidade desta pesquisa, está participando do Programa Centelha Roraima, uma iniciativa promovida pelo Ministério da Ciência, Tecnologia e Inovações (MCTI) e pela Financiadora de Estudos e Projetos (Finep), em parceria com o Conselho Nacional de Desenvolvimento Científico e Tecnológico (CNPq), com o Conselho Nacional das Fundações Estaduais de Amparo à Pesquisa (Confap), e a Fundação CERTI. Em Roraima, o programa é executado pela Fundação de Amparo à Pesquisa e Inovação de Roraima (FAPERR), e a proposta ocupa a quarta colocação na fase 2 de um total de 3 fases. A etapa atual visa o desenvolvimento de um projeto com foco na viabilidade e no desenvolvimento do empreendimento. O programa Centelha visa estimular a criação de empreendimentos inovadores e disseminar a cultura empreendedora no estado de Roraima.

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**2 “EFFECT OF AMAZON CACTUS (*Cereus jamacaru*) AS A NATURAL COAGULANT FOR THE REMOVAL OF TURBIDITY FROM SURFACE WATER”**

Disponível no link: <https://www.tchequimica.com/Periodico42.pdf>

**EFEITO DO CACTO AMAZÔNICO (*Cereus jamacaru*) COMO COAGULANTE NATURAL PARA A REMOÇÃO DA TURBIDEZ DE ÁGUAS SUPERFICIAIS****EFFECT OF AMAZON CACTUS (*Cereus jamacaru*) AS A NATURAL COAGULANT FOR THE REMOVAL OF TURBIDITY FROM SURFACE WATER**

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**RESUMO**

**Introdução:** O Brasil sofre com a falta de saneamento básico e esse fato se intensifica na região Amazônica quando pensamos nas populações vivendo em áreas de difícil acesso. A aplicação de coagulantes naturais surge como uma alternativa promissora, apresenta metodologia simples, de baixo custo, de fácil reprodução e acessível, promovendo a saúde e melhorias ambientais. O uso de coagulantes químicos pode acarretar malefícios ao ambiente e à saúde humana. **Objetivo:** Portanto, o objetivo desse estudo foi avaliar o efeito de coagulação de uma espécie de cacto amazônico aplicado ao tratamento de água para consumo humano.

**Métodos:** Para o estudo, coletou-se cerca de 500 gramas da parte aérea do *Cereus jamacaru* às margens da BR 174 na região do lavrado de Roraima. No laboratório, foram retirados os espinhos, o material vegetal foi lavado, cortados a uma espessura de um centímetro, secos em estufa a 60 °C por 36 horas, triturados em liquidificador e peneirados até a obtenção de um pó, o qual foi testado como coagulante natural. A água utilizada no estudo foi coletada do Rio Branco no município de Boa Vista-RR e caracterizada quanto a sua turbidez inicial.

**Resultados:** A dosagem de 0,2g do coagulante natural de cacto apresentou significativa redução na turbidez da água de estudo, deixando-a dentro dos padrões de potabilidade estabelecidos para as águas subterrâneas.

**Discussão:** A coagulação no contexto sanitário é evidenciada em razão da remoção de partículas microscópicas associadas aos microrganismos patogênicos, normalmente encontrados nas águas brutas e com velocidade de sedimentação muito reduzida. Substituir substâncias químicas poluidoras por coagulantes naturais no tratamento da água para consumo humano contribui para a qualidade de vida. **Conclusão:** O cacto amazônico *Cereus jamacaru* demonstrou eficácia de coagulação para a análise do parâmetro turbidez da água para consumo humano.

**Palavras-chave:** Qualidade da água, Saúde humana, Biocoagulante

**ABSTRACT**

**Background:** Brazil suffers from a lack of basic sanitation in many regions, intensified in the Amazon region due to its difficult access. The application of natural coagulants is a promising alternative since it eliminates the use of chemicals, is a simple, low-cost method that is easy to reproduce, and is accessible to any community, thus promoting health and environmental improvements. On the other hand, the use of chemical coagulants can cause harm to the environment and human health. **Aim:** Therefore, the objective of this study was to evaluate the coagulation effect of a species of Amazonian cactus applied in the treatment of water for human consumption.

**Methods:** For the study, about 500 grams of the aerial part of the *Cereus jamacaru* was collected on the banks of the BR 174 in the region of Roraima. The spines were removed in the laboratory, the plant material was washed, cut to a thickness, dried in an oven at 60 °C for 36 hours, then ground and sieved until obtaining a powder, which was tested as a natural coagulant. The water used in the study was collected from the Branco River in Boa Vista, Roraima, and characterized its initial turbidity. **Results:** The dosage of 0.2g of the natural cactus coagulant showed a significant reduction in the turbidity of the study water, leaving it within the potability standards established for groundwater. **Discussion:** Coagulation in the sanitary context is evidenced by the removal of

microscopic particles associated with pathogenic microorganisms, normally found in raw water and with very low sedimentation speed. Replacing polluting chemical substances with natural coagulants in the treatment of water for human consumption contributes to the quality of life. **Conclusion:** The Amazonian cactus *Cereus jamacaru* demonstrated coagulation efficiency for analyzing the turbidity parameter of water for human consumption.

**Keywords:** Quality water, Human health, Biocoagulant

## 1. INTRODUCTION:

According to the National Information System on Basic Sanitation, 39.4 million Brazilians do not have access to treated water (BRASIL, 2018). The problem of lack of basic sanitation intensifies in the Amazon region of Brazil, principally due to its difficult access areas. In addition, economic viability and the complexity of the operation may make it impossible to implement specific water treatment methods in some locations (MELLO, 2018). To supply good quality water to the population for their daily activities, water intended for supply goes through a treatment process in water treatment plants (ETA). The conventional and most commonly used treatment in Brazilian ETAs consists of four stages: coagulation and flocculation, decantation, filtration, and finally, chlorination and fluoridation. Coagulation stands out as a process involving the application of chemicals that allow the removal of dissolved compounds in the water and the destabilization of colloidal suspensions and solids that cannot be removed by sedimentation or filtration. Closely linked to coagulation is flocculation, during which particles destabilized by the coagulant coalesce and form flakes amenable to decantation (LIMA JUNIOR, 2018; RICHTER, 2009).

Following the principles of green chemistry proposed in the 90s, Lima Junior and Abreu (2018) state that the development of coagulants and flocculants, based on biodegradable natural raw materials abundant in nature, called natural coagulants or biocoagulants, has been gaining more and more space in research focused on environmental technologies since natural coagulants follow the concept of eco-friendly material, those designed to cause the least harm to nature. Therefore, studies with cacti that can be used for water treatment have received great attention due to their chemical composition since they have nutrients with coagulation potential (ZARA; THOMAZINI; LENZ, 2012). Furthermore, during water treatment, the accumulation of residues of non-biodegradable metal hydroxides generated during coagulation and flocculation processes, the high concentration of sludge that

presents ecotoxic potential (OLADOJA *et al.*, 2017), and the relationship with pathologies that affect the central nervous system, such as dementia and Alzheimer's and Parkinson's diseases, are some of the results of the application of chemical coagulants to the treatment of water for human consumption (CHUA *et al.*, 2019; FERMINO *et al.*, 2017; WALTON, 2013). Such hazards make studies with natural coagulants advantageous as there is a high availability of raw materials, are often renewable, have low corrosiveness on the water distribution system, and there is a decrease of up to five times in the volume of sludge generated in the water treatment process. In addition, they do not present risks to human and animal health, and there is a significant reduction in costs and dangers in the treatment processes (TEIXEIRA *et al.*, 2017).

Mandacaru (*C. jamacaru*) is a cactus native to Brazil, abundant in the northeast region of the country (ZARA; THOMAZINI; LENZ, 2012) and found in the Roraima field (OLIVEIRA, 2016; PASSOS, 2019). According to Cavalcante (2013), some metabolic and structural adaptations are necessary, so that species of the cactus family can survive in different environments, including adverse ones. Studies with cactus intended for water treatment have received significant attention due to their chemical and structural composition since they contain nutrients, proteins, amylose, malic acid, resin, vitamins, and cellulose (ZARA; THOMAZINI; LENZ, 2012). However, research on the application of cactus in water treatment is still scarce, and it is worth mentioning that no records were found about this application with species from the Amazon region of Brazil.

This study was developed in the context of the Brazilian Amazon and considered the environmental, spatial, temporal, and mainly social conjuncture. The state of Roraima is located in the northwest of the northern region of Brazil and is predominated by rainforest vegetation; however, in the central-eastern region, there is a huge strip of farmland known as "lavrado", a local name given to the savanna region. The farmland of Roraima is highly important for conserving biodiversity and water resources; therefore, the cactus *Cereus jamacaru* De Candolle (popularly

known as Mandacaru) was studied for treating water. Furthermore, due to its polymers, which have coagulating and flocculating action, it is believed that the cactus is not only effective but also safer in the treatment of water, thus promoting lower impacts on the environment and human health. Therefore, the objective of this study was to evaluate the coagulation effect of a species of Amazonian cactus applied to water treatment for human consumption.

## 2. MATERIALS AND METHODS:

Raw water samples from the Branco River were collected near the extraction point used by the Water and Sewage Company of Roraima (CAER), located in the city of Boa Vista, state of Roraima, Brazil, under geographic coordinates 760511 E, 312928 N. The collection was carried out in March 2021 in a period of drought in the State of Roraima. 12 liters of water were collected, stored in amber glasses, placed in a styrofoam box containing ice for cooling and transported to the laboratory of the Federal University of Roraima. Coagulation assays were performed on the same day of collection. Water characterization before and after treatment was performed by measuring turbidity (Akso TU430) based on the 20th Standard Methods for the Examination of Water and Wastewater (APHA; AWWA; WEF, 2017).

### 2.1. Preparation of the natural coagulant

The natural coagulant (NC) was prepared with 500 grams (g) of the aerial part of *C. jamacaru*, which was collected in the agricultural region of Roraima. First, the spines of the plant material were removed and discarded, and then the cactus was washed under running water, cut into pieces of about 1 centimeter (cm), and placed on trays (Figure 1a). These were then placed in an oven at 60 °C for drying (MILLER et al., 2008; OTHMANI et al., 2020).

After drying, the cactus pieces were ground in a household blender and sieved to provide a powder (Figure 1b) with particles of about 300 micrometers ( $\mu\text{m}$ ) in diameter. This powder was stored in a sealed container, dated and identified, and kept in a refrigerator until the tests were performed using the jar test equipment.

### 2.2. Coagulation test

The coagulation assay was performed using jar test equipment (Afakit AT-700) with six

jars with a blade speed regulated for two mixing regimes: fast (150 rpm for three minutes); slow (60 rpm for 17 minutes); plus a sedimentation time of 30 minutes with the equipment turned off (Table 1). In the jars, 400 milliliters (mL) of raw water were used according to the adapted methodology of Zara et al. (2012).

The dosages of the natural coagulant of cactus and the aluminum sulfate (control) were determined according to values obtained in the literature and in the pre-assays of this study. They were 0.032 g of aluminum sulfate (Zara et al., 2012) and 0.01, 0.02, 0.04, 0.05, 0.1, 0.2, 0.3, 0.4 and 0.5 g of natural cactus coagulant (ORTIZ; ASTUDILLO; MARTÍNEZ, 2013; FEDALA et al., 2015), which were applied directly to the 400 mL of water contained in individual jars. At the end of the coagulation assay, samples of the treated water were collected from each jar with a 20 mL graduated pipette, and a new turbidity measurement was performed.

**Table 1.** Stages and rotation speeds and duration for each step of the coagulation assay.

Stages	Rotation/Duration
Rapid mixing	150 rpm/3 minutes
Slow mixing	60 rpm/17 minutes
Sedimentation	0/30 minutes

## 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION:

### 3.1. Results

The raw water used in the coagulation test showed initial turbidity of 23 turbidity units (NTUs). After this test, a new turbidity measurement was performed (Table 2). The potability standard for human consumption water is established by Ordinance No. 888, of May 4, 2021, by the Brazilian Ministry of Health (BRASIL, 2021) and has a maximum limit of 5 NTUs established as a standard in the turbidity parameter of the distribution network.

The decreased efficacy of turbidity removal with increased dosage of the natural coagulant (Figure 2) demonstrated in this study corroborates the results of Pichler et al. (2012), who used the mucilage of cacti *Opuntia ficus-indica* in water treatment and observed that, by increasing the dose of mucilage, after sedimentation of the flakes, the turbidity of the supernatant also increased.

### 3.2. Discussion

Although the use of natural coagulants is a sustainable alternative for treating water for human consumption, the application of forms, such as powders, mucilage, or unpurified extracts, directly in the water to be treated leads to an increase in organic matter, thus leaving the water more turbid.

Choy *et al.* (2014) attribute the increase in organic matter to the presence of lipids, biomolecules that do not participate in the coagulation process. Although it was not possible to perform quantification tests of organic matter, this effect can be observed when verifying the initial turbidity of 23 NTUs of the water used in this study with the highest coagulant dosage of 0.5 g of cactus powder that presented the lowest efficiency for removal and left the water with a greenish appearance. However, it is possible to improve the treated water quality using filters, considering that the flakes formed by biomolecules are usually large and easily retained and do not require more advanced filtration systems (PICHLER *et al.*, 2012).

Unlike some studies, which demonstrated that the higher the turbidity of the water to be treated, the better the efficiency of natural coagulants, the effect observed in the present study was satisfactory for the sample of water with low turbidity (23 NTUs). In a comparative study with aluminum sulfate, Pichler, Young, and Alcantar (2012) obtained excellent results with the cactus of the genus *Opuntia* by demonstrating that the same turbidity removal efficiency could be obtained with the cactus using a dosage 300 times lower than that of the chemical coagulant.

Pritchard *et al.* (2010) used a natural coagulant based on *Moringa oleifera* seed to treat water with a turbidity of 40 NTUs and 200 NTUs, and the removal efficiency at the end of treatment was 50% and 90%, respectively. A possible justification for this behavior lies in the fact that both *Moringa oleifera* and cacti are considered polyelectrolytes, i.e., they are flocculating polymers with different ionic charges that act in the formation of flakes and assist in coagulation.

For Baghvand *et al.* (2010), low turbidity waters have a small amount of colloidal matter, i.e., this lower concentration of colloids suspended in water limits the contact rate between particles and flocculating polymers, thus hindering the coagulation process and consequently the performance of the coagulant. Therefore, an alternative for treating low turbidity waters is the

addition of synthetic turbidity in order to create the formation of heavier flakes, which settle more easily.

### 4. CONCLUSIONS:

The Amazonian cactus *C. jamacaru* demonstrated coagulation efficacy in the analysis of the turbidity of the sampled water. Replacing polluting chemicals with natural coagulants in water treatment for human consumption contributes to the quality of life by helping communities that do not have access to clean water and protecting the environment. It is possible to suggest the execution of new studies that seek to perform other tests of the physicochemical parameters and the zeta potential to guarantee the effectiveness and safety of cactus application as a natural coagulant for the treatment of water for human consumption.

### 5. DECLARATIONS

#### 5.1. Study Limitations

The study is limited to the sample size and the period of the collection of the samples.

#### 5.2. Acknowledgements

We thank the Postgraduate Program in Natural Resources at the Federal University of Roraima and the Novo Paraíso Campus of the Federal Institute of Roraima, for supporting the research.

#### 5.3. Funding source

The authors funded this research.

#### 5.4. Competing Interests

There are no potential conflict of interest in this publication.

#### 5.5. Open Access

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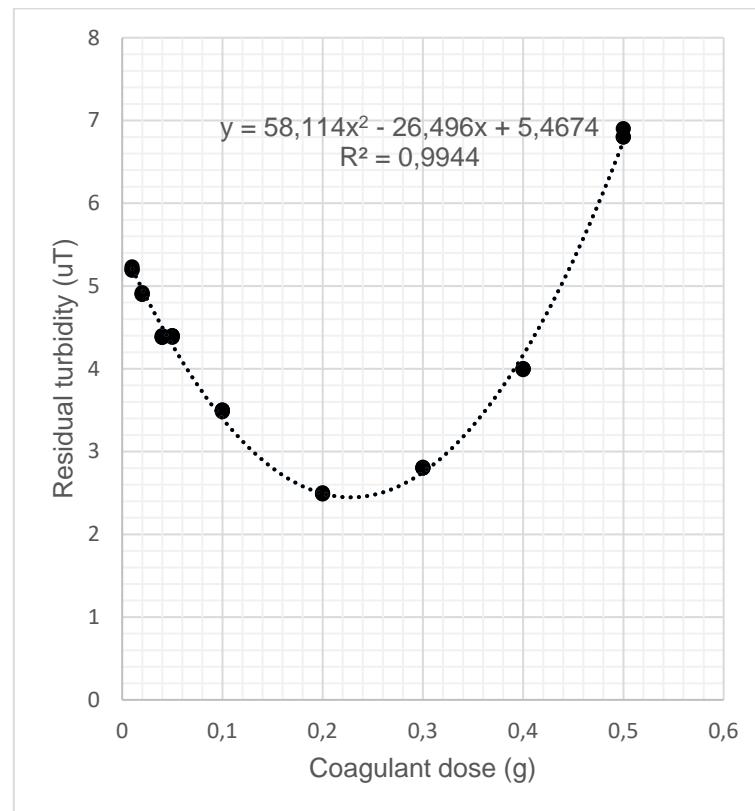
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**Figure 1.** a. Plant material processing. b. Coagulant powder. **Source:** the authors

**Table 2.** Turbidity removal values for each dosage and coagulants used.

Initial turbidity of water sample (NTUs)	Dosage of coagulants (g)	Turbidity after application of coagulants (NTUs)
	0.032 g aluminum sulphate (control)	2.5
	0.01 g of cactus	
	NC	5.24
	0.02 g of cactus	4.91
	NC	
	0.04 g of cactus	
	NC	4.5
	0.05 g of cactus	
	NC	4.43
23	0.1 g	
	of cactus NC	3.49
	0.2 g of cactus	
	NC	2.49
	0.3 g of cactus	
	NC	2.80
	0.4 g	
	of cactus NC	3.99
	0.5 g of cactus	
	NC	7



**Figure 2.** Removal of turbidity vs. the dosage of coagulants. **Source:** the authors

### 3 “SOCIAL TECHNOLOGY FOR WATER TREATMENT IN A RIVERINE COMMUNITY IN THE LOWER BRANCO RIVER REGION, RORAIMA, EXTREME NORTH OF BRAZIL”

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1    **Social technology for water treatment in a riverine community in the Lower  
2    Branco River Region, Roraima, Extreme North of Brazil**

3  
4    Jordana Souza Paula Riss, Leovergildo Rodrigues Farias, Glécio Ísavo Araújo, Pedro Aurélio  
5    Costa Lima Pequeno, Marcos José Salgado Vital  
6  
7

8    **Abstract -** Brazil suffers from the problem of lack of basic sanitation, and this fact is  
9    intensified in the Amazon region, as a large part of the population lives in areas of  
10   vulnerability. The use of chemical coagulants causes harm to the environment and human  
11   health. The application of natural coagulants emerges as a promising alternative, as it  
12   dispenses with the use of chemicals, presents a simple, low-cost, easy-to-reproduce  
13   methodology that is accessible to any community, promoting health and environmental  
14   improvements. The objective of this study was to produce a natural coagulant based on  
15   Amazonian cacti to treat water intended for human consumption in a riverside community.  
16   For the study, about 500 grams of the aerial part of *Cereus jamacaru* was collected in the  
17   community of Santa Maria do Boiaçu-RR. The thorns were removed, and the cactus was  
18   washed, cut, accommodated in trays and taken to the sun. After drying, the cactus pieces were  
19   crushed and sieved. The water samples for the study were collected at 3 points and the  
20   treatability test was carried out in the laboratory. Statistical analyzes revealed that the natural  
21   cactus-based coagulant is an efficient social technology for the treatment of groundwater and  
22   surface water.

23  
24    **Keywords:** Potability, Amazon, Water quality, Riverine, Cacti.  
25  
26

27    **Tecnologia social para tratamento de água em uma comunidade ribeirinha  
28    na Região do Baixo Rio Branco, Roraima, Extremo Norte do Brasil**  
29

30    **Resumo -** O Brasil sofre com o problema da falta de saneamento básico, e esse fato se  
31    intensifica na região Amazônica, pois uma grande parte da população vive em áreas de  
32    vulnerabilidade. O uso de coagulantes químicos causa malefícios ao ambiente e à saúde  
33    humana. A aplicação de coagulantes naturais surge como uma alternativa promissora, pois  
34    dispensa o uso dos químicos, apresenta metodologia simples, de baixo custo, de fácil

35 reprodução e acessível a qualquer comunidade, promovendo saúde e melhorias ambientais. O  
36 objetivo desse estudo foi produzir um coagulante natural à base de cactos amazônicos para  
37 tratar a água destinada ao consumo humano em uma comunidade ribeirinha. Para o estudo,  
38 coletou-se cerca de 500 gramas da parte aérea do *Cereus jamacaru* na comunidade de Santa  
39 Maria do Boiaçu-RR. Os espinhos foram removidos, e o cacto foi lavado, cortado,  
40 acomodados em bandejas e levados ao sol. Após a secagem, os pedaços de cactos foram  
41 triturados e peneirados. As amostras de água para estudo foram coletadas em 3 pontos e  
42 realizado o ensaio de tratabilidade em laboratório. As análises estatísticas revelaram que o  
43 coagulante natural à base de cacto é uma eficiente tecnologia social para o tratamento de  
44 águas subterrâneas e superficiais.

45

46 **Palavras-chaves:** Potabilidade. Amazônia. Qualidade de água. Ribeirinho. Cactos.

47

## 48 **Introduction**

49 Difficulties in accessing water are not always related to water scarcity. The region  
50 with the greatest abundance and availability of water resources is the Amazon, especially  
51 taking into account the low population density. However, sanitary conditions, drainage of  
52 sewage and water treatment are poor, thus aggravating the problem of human health and  
53 causing an impact on infant mortality, as pointed out in the report of the “Agenda for  
54 Childhood and Adolescence in the Amazon”, of the United Nations Children’s Fund  
55 (UNICEF, 2018). According to the National Information System on Basic Sanitation, one in  
56 every 6 Brazilians do not have access to treated water (SNIS, 2019).

57 The problem of lack of basic sanitation is intensified in the Amazon region when one  
58 considers the populations living in areas of difficult access, since the cost and technological  
59 complexity of some water treatment methods make implementation in some locations  
60 unfeasible (MELLO, 2018) and, thus, a far cry from the reality and local culture of the region.  
61 Due to the custom that Amazonian communities have of inhabiting the banks of rivers, or  
62 near streams and water sources, this situation of lack of water is alleviated, but low access to  
63 good quality water is a reality that is experienced in the region (GOMES et al., 2021).

64 Social technology (ST) emerges as an alternative that is capable of solving essential  
65 problems, such as the demand for drinking water, and can promote health and environmental  
66 improvements (MENDOLA, 2019). ST is defined as any low-cost product, technique or

67 method that can be easily reproduced and applied, and which presents solutions for social  
68 transformation (DOMINGOS; RIBEIRO, 2015; BATISTA et al., 2021).

69 For the supply of quality water to the population for its daily activities, the water  
70 collected for supply goes through a treatment process at water treatment plants (WTP). This  
71 process basically consists of the steps of coagulation and flocculation, decantation, filtration  
72 and ends with chlorination and fluoridation. Coagulation is a process that involves the  
73 application of chemicals that allow an accelerated removal of compounds that are dissolved in  
74 water and the destabilization of colloidal suspensions and solids that cannot be removed by  
75 sedimentation or filtration. Closely linked to coagulation is flocculation, during which the  
76 particles destabilized by the coagulant agglutinate and form flakes that are capable of settling  
77 (LIMA JUNIOR, 2018; RICHTER, 2009).

78 The importance of coagulation in the sanitary context is evidenced by the removal of  
79 microscopic particles associated with pathogenic microorganisms, which are usually found in  
80 raw water and have a very reduced sedimentation rate (LIBÂNIO, 2010). According to Lima  
81 Junior and Abreu (2018), the main coagulants used in the treatment of waters for public use  
82 are inorganic salts, such as aluminum sulfate, ferric chloride, ferrous sulfate and aluminum  
83 polychloride. Oladoja et al. (2017) affirm that aluminum-based coagulants are more routinely  
84 used due to their low cost and efficiency in conventional water treatment. However, there is  
85 always a negative effect in the use of these chemical coagulants, for example, the toxicity of  
86 aluminum ions to aquatic life when in concentrations greater than 50 µg/L (LIMA;  
87 ALMEIDA; VICENTINI, 2020), as well as a possible relationship with pathologies that affect  
88 the central nervous system, such as dementia, Alzheimer's and Parkinson's, which are caused  
89 by excessive use of aluminum salts (ANG; MOHAMMAD, 2020) The damage done to public  
90 health and aquatic life has therefore motivated researchers to explore greener and more  
91 sustainable water treatment technologies (LIMA; ALMEIDA; VICENTINI, 2020).

92 Natural coagulants achieve a treatment efficiency that is analogous to chemical  
93 coagulants (KARANJA; FENGTING; NG'ANG'A, 2017). Multiple studies have sought to  
94 establish the effectiveness of cacti as a biocoagulant, and the species *Opuntia ficus-indica*,  
95 *Opuntia dillenii* and *Opuntia stricta* are the best known and studied. Cacti are present in all  
96 major Brazilian biomes: Amazon, Caatinga, Cerrado, Atlantic Forest, Pampa and Pantanal  
97 (ZAPPI; TAYLOR, 2020). They are also abundant in the northeastern region of Brazil  
98 (ZARA; THOMAZINI; LENZ, 2012), and in the north in the state of Roraima (OLIVEIRA,  
99 2016; PASSOS, 2019).

100 According to Karanja et al. (2017), the use of cactus as a coagulant first requires an  
101 overview of its efficacy levels and optimal conditions of use, especially with regard to pH,  
102 and the research of Beyene et al. (2016) demonstrates the potential of powdered cactus for  
103 removing turbidity, a fact that led the authors to suggest its use in water treatment.  
104 This study was developed within the Amazonian context and considers the environmental,  
105 spatial, temporal and especially social conjuncture. Therefore, the cactus *Cereus jamacaru* De  
106 Candolle, popularly known in the region as “mandacaru”, which makes up the  
107 phytophysionomy of the area (OLIVEIRA, 2016; PASSOS, 2019), was used to evaluate its  
108 coagulation potential in water treatment. The ST proposal of this research consisted in the  
109 production of a natural coagulant based on the mandacaru cactus that was initially bench  
110 tested in the laboratory by analyzing the turbidity parameter. Then, the preparation technique  
111 was adapted to the material resources available in the riverine community of Santa Maria do  
112 Boiaçu, located in the lower Branco River region, Roraima, extreme north of Brazil. This  
113 adaptation aimed at simplifying the preparation, and thus enable the production and  
114 application of the coagulant by the community. In January 2022, the invitation to the  
115 community was made official and a workshop on good practices in the production of natural  
116 coagulant was held. The first water collections were carried out in three catchment points by  
117 the community; these being two wells and the banks of the river. The physicochemical  
118 parameters analyzed were pH, turbidity, and microbiological parameters for total and fecal  
119 coliforms.

120 The guiding questions of this research are i) Does the coagulant based on the  
121 mandacaru cactus produced by the community have sufficient coagulant action for the  
122 treatment of water intended for human consumption? (ii) Is there a difference in efficiency  
123 between the concentrations of the coagulant and the source of the water to be treated? and iii)  
124 Does seasonality affect the performance of mandacaru-based natural coagulant?

125 In order to obtain an easily replicated social technology, the objective of this research  
126 was to produce a coagulant based on cacti from Roraima to treat water destined for human  
127 consumption in a riverine community of the Branco River basin in Roraima.

128

129

## 130 **Materials and methods**

131

## 132 **Study area**

133        The study was developed in the riverine community of Santa Maria do Boiaçu, which  
134      is located in the lower Branco River region, on the left margin of the Branco River, in the  
135      municipality of Rorainópolis, state of Roraima ( $00^{\circ} 30' 33''$  N,  $61^{\circ} 47' 19''$  W) (RORAIMA,  
136      2010). The lower Branco River region, located on the southern borders of the state of  
137      Roraima with the northwest of the state of Amazonas, is a region of difficult access, as there  
138      are no roads, and boats are the most used means of transport to reach the riverine community  
139      of Santa Maria do Boiaçu (CAVALCANTE et al., 2020). The region is composed of 20  
140      communities that are part of the municipalities of Rorainópolis and Caracaraí (Figure 1).

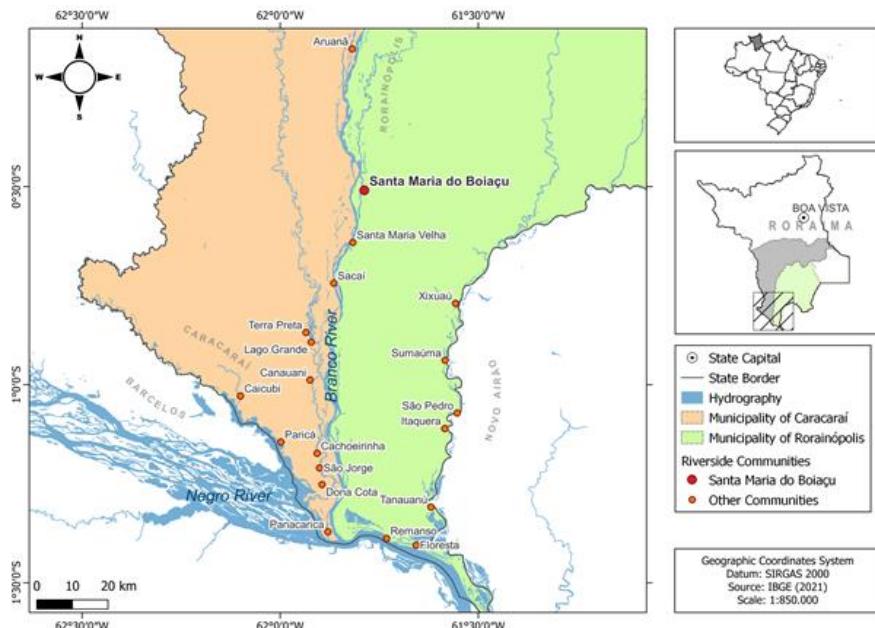
141        The communities that are located on the right margin of the river belong to the  
142      municipality of Caracaraí and those located on the left margin belong to the municipality of  
143      Rorainópolis. In December 2021, the first telephone contact was made with the president of  
144      the Community Fund of the District of Santa Maria do Boiaçu in order to present the research  
145      proposal to the entire community. In January 2022, a letter was sent to the leadership  
146      officializing the invitation to the community to participate in the workshop on the production  
147      of a natural coagulant based on cacti for water treatment, with the inclusion of 15 participants  
148      which, after training for the production of natural coagulant, were certified by the Federal  
149      Institute of Roraima.

150        Of the 15 people who participated in the natural coagulant production workshop, 11  
151      were female and 4 were male, including housewives, fishermen, doctors, teachers, students  
152      and farmers with an average age of 32 years. Participants were nominated by the president of  
153      the community in order to include at least one member of each family residing in Santa Maria  
154      do Boiaçu. On January 14, 2022, in the morning, the community was introduced to the team  
155      and the project. During the afternoon, the production of the coagulant was started, which  
156      consisted of 3 phases: cutting, drying and grinding. For 3 days, the participants followed the  
157      drying step in the sun and on the fourth day, the crushing step was performed. Participants  
158      also followed the stage of collecting water from the community's three supply points, two  
159      wells and the river.

160        There are three main water sources that supply the community of Santa Maria do  
161      Boiaçu; two artesian wells and the Branco River itself. The community does not have a water  
162      treatment plant, i.e., there is no quality control system for the water consumed by the people  
163      who live there.

164  
165

**Figure 1 - Map of the lower Branco River region, showing the community of Santa Maria do Boiaçu, Roraima**



166

167

**Source:** Adaptação IBGE (2021)

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169

## Preparation of the social technology together with the community

170

To obtain the powdered cacti that was used as a natural coagulant, we used the methodology adapted from that proposed by Miller et al. (2008) and by Othmani et al. (2020). The natural coagulant was prepared with 500 g of the aerial part of the mandacaru cactus collected in the community of Santa Maria do Boiaçu. The thorns of the plant material were removed with a knife and discarded. Then, the cactus was washed under running water, cut into pieces of about 1 cm, placed on trays and left in the sun for three days. After drying, the cactus pieces were ground in a household blender and/or mills and sieved with the help of sieves. This powder was stored in a clean, hermetic container, dated and identified, until the completion of the laboratory treatability tests using the jar test.

180

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## Assessment of water quality in the community

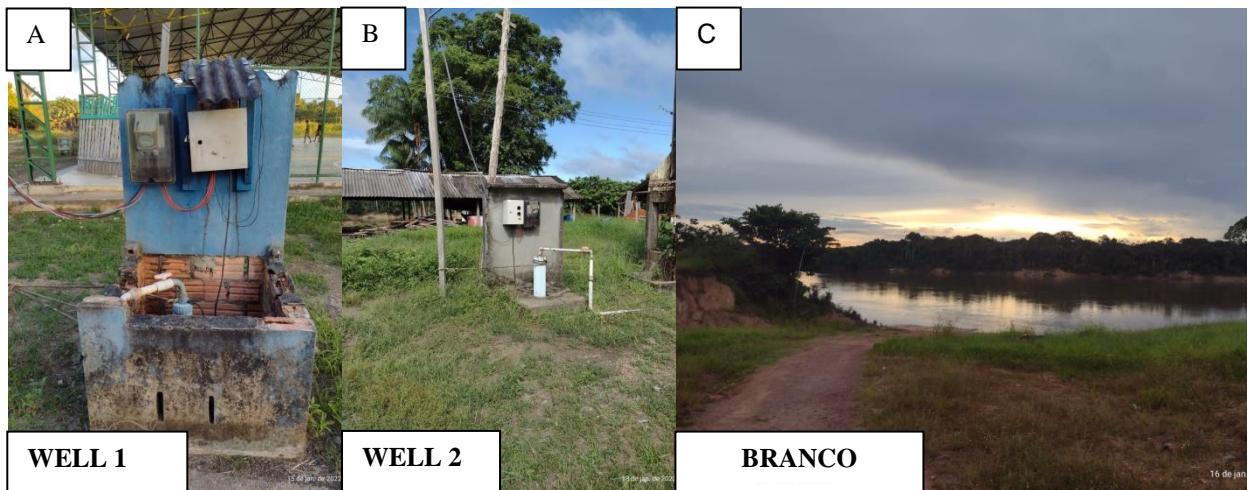
182

The initial assessments of water quality were carried out at the three points of water collection for consumption used by the community, two groundwater wells that here are named Well 1 and Well 2, and the banks of the Branco River (surface water) (Figure 2). Two

186 collections were performed, during the dry and rainy periods, in order to assess whether  
187 seasonality influences the coagulation process. The first collection was carried out on January  
188 19<sup>th</sup>, 2022 after the production of the natural coagulant by the community; the second on June  
189 16<sup>th</sup>, 2022.

190

191 **Figure 2** – Water supply sources and sample collection sites in the community of  
192 Santa Maria do Boiaçu.



Source: Riss

193

194 The surface and groundwater were characterized by measuring turbidity using a  
195 portable turbidimeter (Hanna, Hi93703c), pH, with pH meter (Del Lab DLA-PH) and total  
196 and fecal coliforms (COLIFORMESBAC). For all collections, the Standard Methods for the  
197 Examination of Water and Wastewater (APHA, 2017) were used as a basis.

198

199

## 200 **Sample collection**

201

202 A total of twelve liters of water samples were collected from each of the three points.  
203 These were stored in amber bottles, packed in a thermal box containing ice for refrigeration  
204 and then transported to the laboratory at the Federal Institute of Roraima, for testing.

205

206

## 207 **Coagulation test**

208

209        The coagulation test was performed in triplicate for the three collection points using  
 210 jar test equipment (Alfakit, AT-700) comprising six jars with the paddle speed regulated in  
 211 two mixing gradients: fast (150 rpm for three minutes); slow (60 rpm for 17 minutes). The  
 212 sedimentation time was 30 minutes with the equipment turned off, and used 400 milliliters  
 213 (mL) of raw water, according to methodology adapted from Zara et al. (2012).

214        The dosages of the cactus-based natural coagulant were determined according to  
 215 values obtained in the literature and in pre-assays of this study. Concentrations of 0.01, 0.02,  
 216 0.04, 0.05, 0.1, 0.2, 0.3, 0.4 and 0.5 g of natural cactus coagulant (VILLABONA ORTIZ;  
 217 ASTUDILLO; MARTÍNEZ, 2013; FEDALA et al., 2015) applied directly to the 400 mL of  
 218 water contained in individual jars. At the end of the coagulation test, samples of the treated  
 219 water were collected from each of the jars with the aid of a 20 mL graduated pipette and a  
 220 new turbidity and pH measurement was performed to verify the effect of the natural coagulant  
 221 on the samples.

222

223

## 224 **Results and discussion**

225

226

227

## 228 **Studied water**

229

230        Brazilian Ordinance No. 888/2021 defines water for human consumption as drinking  
 231 water intended for ingestion, preparation and production of food and personal hygiene,  
 232 regardless of its origin (BRASIL, 2021). Therefore, it must meet the minimum potability  
 233 standards and be within physicochemical and microbiological parameters presented in Table  
 234 1.

235        **Table 1** - Parameter values established by Ordinance No. 888/2021 regarding the quality  
 236 of water intended for human consumption

Parameter	Maximum values permitted (MVP)	Unit
<b>Turbidity (surface water)</b>	Up to 5.0	uT
<b>Turbidity (groundwater)</b>	Up to 1.0	uT

<b>pH</b>	6-9	-
<b>Thermotolerant</b>	Absent in 100 mL	-
<b>coliforms</b>		

237 **Source:** Adapted from Brasil (2021).

238  
239 The raw water samples from the Branco River, and from well 1 and well 2 showed  
240 different values of initial pH and initial turbidity for the different collection seasons and the  
241 absence of coliforms, as shown in Table 2. During the dry and rainy season, the water from  
242 the Branco River and from one of the wells (Point 1) that supplies the community did not  
243 meet the minimum standard for the turbidity parameter established by Ordinance No.  
244 888/2021, though they did present initial pH within the standards.

245  
246 **Table 2** – Values of initial turbidity, initial pH and coliforms during different seasons in the  
247 riverine community of Santa Maria do Boiaçu, Roraima.

<b>Sample</b>	<b>Season</b>	<b>Initial</b>	<b>Initial</b>	
		<b>turbidity (uT)</b>	<b>pH</b>	<b>Coliforms</b>
<b>Branco River</b>	dry	26.17	7.3	Absent
<b>Point 1 (well)</b>		5.99	6.57	Absent
<b>Point 2 (well)</b>		0.39	7.3	Absent
<b>Branco River</b>	rainy	7.18	6.87	Absent
<b>Point 1 (well)</b>		0.67	6.86	Absent
<b>Point 2 (well)</b>		0.41	6.88	Absent

248 **Source:** Riss

## 249 250 251 **Coagulation test**

252  
253 Figure 3a shows the efficiency of turbidity removal according to the coagulation  
254 test using different concentrations of the cactus-based coagulant. It is noted that by  
255 increasing the concentration of the natural coagulant the turbidity increases. This  
256 behavior of a decrease in turbidity removal efficacy with the increasing dosage of the  
257 natural coagulant demonstrated in this study corroborates the results of Pichler et al.

258 (2012), who used cactus mucilage in water treatment and observed that when they  
259 increased the dose of mucilage, the turbidity of the supernatant after sedimentation of the  
260 flakes also increased. Although the use of natural coagulants is a sustainable alternative  
261 for treating water for human consumption, the application of forms, such as powders,  
262 mucilage or unpurified extracts, directly in the water to be treated leads to an increase in  
263 organic matter, which leaves the water more cloudy.

264 Choy et al. (2014) attribute the increase in organic matter to the presence of lipids,  
265 which are biomolecules that do not participate in the coagulation process. Although it was  
266 not possible to perform organic matter quantification tests, this effect can be observed in  
267 the initial turbidity of 26.17 uT of the water from the Branco River. This used the highest  
268 coagulant dosage of 0.5 g of the cactus powder and presented the lowest removal  
269 efficiency and left the water with a greenish appearance. However, it is possible to  
270 improve the quality of treated water using filters, since the flakes formed by the  
271 biomolecules are usually large and easily retained, and do not require more advanced  
272 filtration systems (PICHLER et al., 2012).

273 Figure 3 presents the results of the parameter turbidity after the application of the  
274 natural coagulant in the water samples collected in the community of Santa Maria do  
275 Boiaçu, Branco, Roraima. The action of the natural coagulant in the removal of turbidity  
276 of water from the different points and collection season is evidenced in Figure 3b, when  
277 comparing the initial turbidity and the final turbidity, corroborating the results of Karanja  
278 et al. (2017) who obtained a satisfactory reduction between the initial and final turbidity  
279 when using *Opuntia ficus-indica* mucilage. Such results led the researchers to infer that  
280 cactus mucilage is efficient as a natural agent for water treatment.

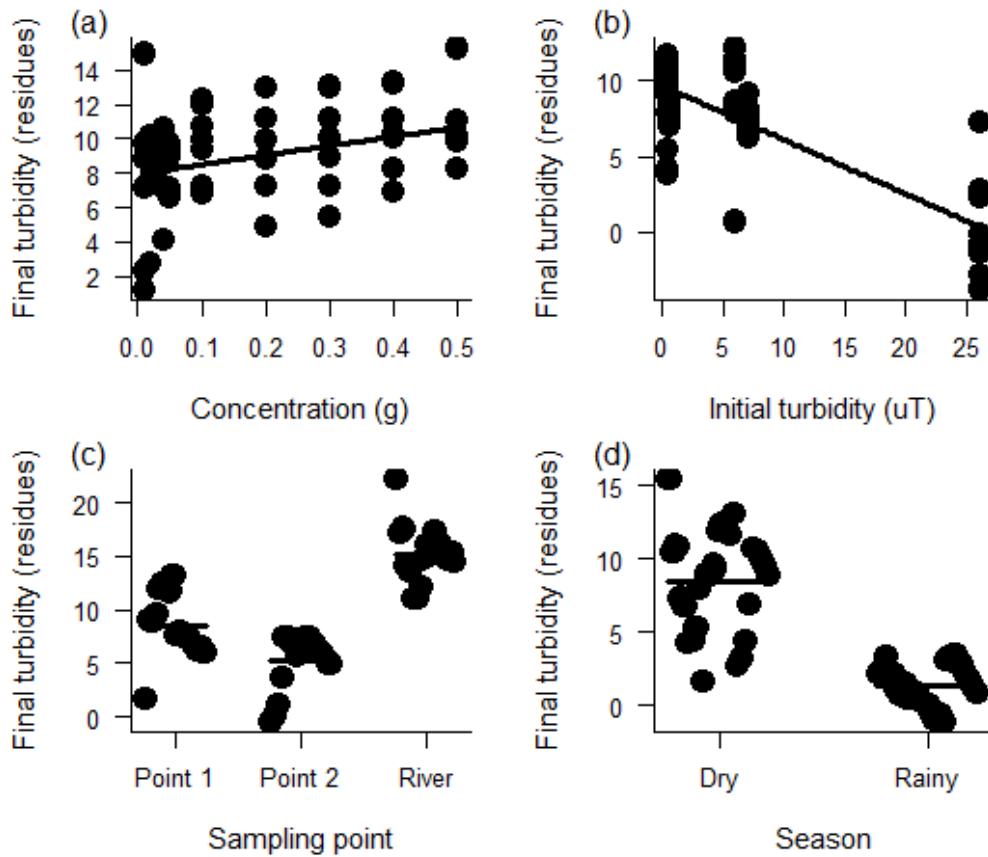
281 Unlike some studies that have shown that the higher the turbidity of the water to be  
282 treated, the better the efficiency of natural coagulants, the effect observed in the present  
283 study was satisfactory (Figure 3c) for samples of surface and groundwater with low  
284 turbidity (Table 2). Pritchard et al. (2010) used a natural coagulant based on *Moringa*  
285 *oleifera* seed in the treatment of water with a turbidity of 40 uT and 200 uT, and the  
286 removal efficiencies at the end of the treatment were 50% and 90% respectively. Nishi et  
287 al. (2011) observed that there was a better removal efficiency in water samples with a  
288 turbidity of 350 and 450 uT. A possible justification for this behavior lies in the fact that  
289 both *M. oleifera* and cacti are considered polyelectrolytes, in other words, they are  
290 flocculating polymers with different ionic charges that act on the formation of flakes and  
291 assist in coagulation.

292 For Baghvand et al. (2010), low turbidity waters have a small amount of colloidal  
 293 matter, i.e., this lower concentration of suspended colloids in the water limits the contact  
 294 rate between the particles and the flocculating polymers, thus hindering the coagulation  
 295 process and, consequently, the performance of the coagulant. An alternative to treating  
 296 low turbidity waters consists in adding synthetic turbidity to provide the formation of  
 297 heavier flakes, which makes them more likely to settle. In the present study, no addition of  
 298 synthetic turbidity was required. The crude water samples collected in the rainy season  
 299 presented the lowest initial turbidity values (7.18 uT, 0.67 uT and 0.41 uT), when  
 300 compared to the dry season (26.17 uT, 5.99 uT and 0.39 uT) for the Branco River, Point 1  
 301 and Point 2, respectively; and, after the coagulation test, the turbidity levels remained the  
 302 lowest, as shown in Figure 3d.

303

304 **Figure 3** - Results of the turbidity parameter after the application of the natural  
 305 coagulant in the water samples collected in the community of Santa Maria do Boiaçu,  
 306 Roraima.

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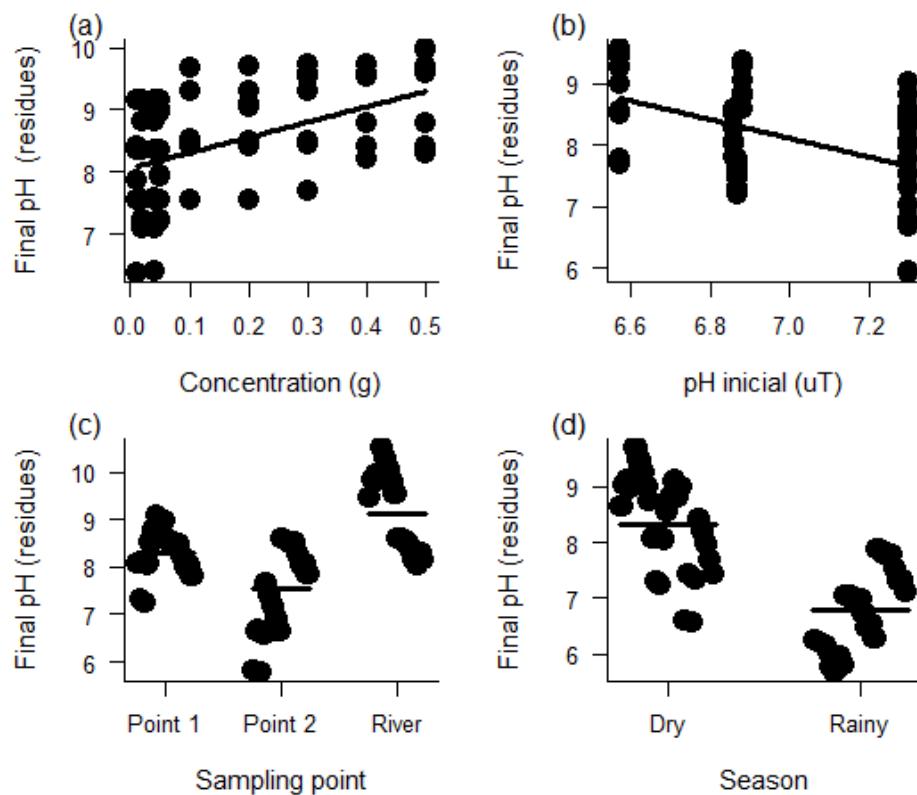
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311 The study by Beyene, Hailegebrial and Dirersa (2016) makes a comparison  
 312 between cactus powder and aluminum sulfate, and reveals that cactus powder is more  
 313 efficient in maintaining pH. In the present study, there was no comparison between the  
 314 natural coagulant and the chemical coagulant, and all samples collected had the pH within  
 315 the expected limit of 6-9. What can be observed is that as the dose of the natural coagulant  
 316 increased, the pH also increased (Figure 4a); and the doses of coagulant used maintained  
 317 the pH levels within the desirable limits (Figure 4b). The lowest pH values with the  
 318 application of the natural coagulant were maintained at Point 2 (Figure 4c). In the rainy  
 319 season, the lowest pH values were obtained when compared to the dry season (Figure 4d).  
 320 Karanja et al. (2017) emphasize the importance of studies that present efficacy levels and  
 321 optimal pH conditions when using cacti as a coagulant. In studies using *Opuntia* cactus  
 322 powder, the authors found no significant effects for the pH parameter.

323

324 **Figure 4** - Results of the pH parameter after the application of the natural  
 325 coagulant in the water samples collected in the community of Santa Maria do Boiaçu.  
 326 Branco, Roraima.

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328

329

330

331    **Conclusion**

332

333       The social technology produced together with the riverine community of Santa Maria  
334       do Boiaçu demonstrated effectiveness in coagulation through the analysis of turbidity and pH  
335       parameters, thus allowing their consumption. Replacing polluting chemicals with natural  
336       coagulants in the treatment of water for human consumption will contribute to quality of life,  
337       and enables any community in a vulnerable condition to produce the natural coagulant and  
338       obtain quality water, in addition to protecting the environment and contemplating two  
339       important sustainable development goals proposed by the United Nations - health and well-  
340       being and drinking water and sanitation. Therefore, it is possible to suggest the execution of  
341       new works that seek to perform other tests of physicochemical parameters, coliforms,  
342       characterization of natural coagulants obtained from Amazonian cacti, and toxicity and  
343       oxidation tests in order to ensure an effective application of cactus coagulants in the treatment  
344       of water for human consumption.

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#### 4 “PHYTOCHEMICAL PROSPECTING AND BIOLOGICAL ACTIVITY OF THE ETHANOLIC EXTRACT OF CACTI FROM THE “LAVRADO” REGION OF RORAIMA, BRAZIL”

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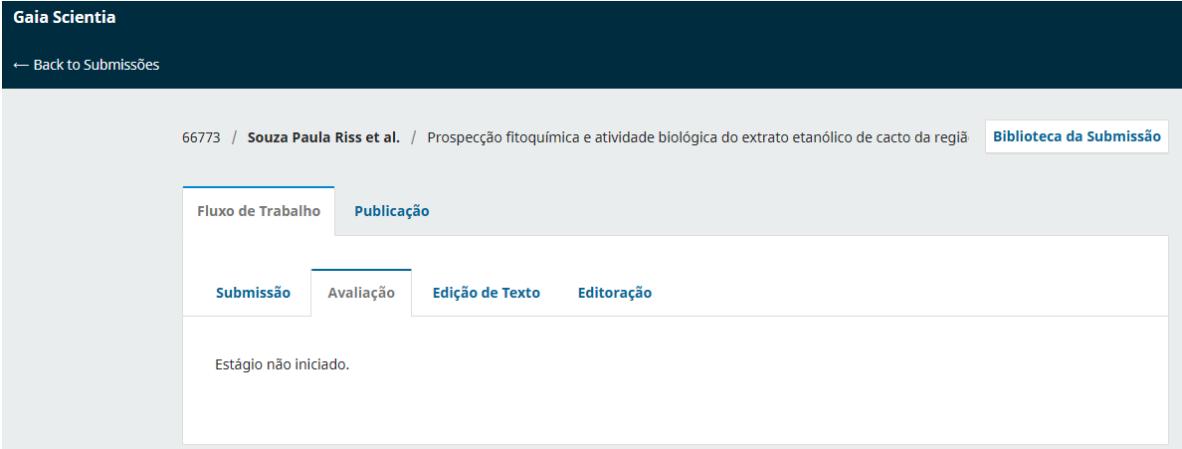
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1           **Prospecção fitoquímica e atividade biológica do extrato etanólico de cacto da região do**  
2           **lavrado de Roraima, Brasil**

4       Jordana Souza Paula Riss, Leovergildo Rodrigues Farias, Neyla Raquel dos Santos Rodrigues, Rajá  
5       Vidya Moreira dos Santos, Ana Paula Folmer Correa, Marcos José Salgado Vital

6  
7

8       **Resumo**

9       Lavrado é uma terminologia local dada à região das savanas de Roraima que tem uma elevada  
10      importância para a conservação da biodiversidade e dos recursos hídricos. É composto por  
11      vegetações de pequeno, médio e grande porte que permeiam lagos e igarapés, em grande parte  
12      ladeados por veredas de buritizais (*Mauritia flexuosa*) e com ocorrência de cactos Mandacaru  
13      (*Cereus jamacaru* De Candolle). Este trabalho consistiu na prospecção fitoquímica e atividades  
14      biológicas do extrato etanólico do *C. jamacaru* coletado no lavrado de Roraima. O extrato foi  
15      avaliado quanto à capacidade antioxidante, determinada pelos métodos de DPPH e ABTS, e quanto  
16      ao teor de compostos fenólicos totais. O perfil químico foi analisado pelo método APCI-MS. A  
17      toxicidade foi avaliada a partir da análise de CL50 em ensaio agudo com *Artemia salina* L. Na  
18      prospecção fitoquímica obteve-se a presença dos metabolites secundários: fenóis, taninos,  
19      alcalóides, flavonóides, sesquiterpenolactonas e outras lactonas, saponinas, esteróides,  
20      triterpenóides, flavonas, flavonóis, flavonas, chalconas, auronas e isoflavonas. A avaliação da  
21      capacidade antioxidante foi de 63,8% para o DPPH e de 92,3% nas análises de ABTS. Os valores de  
22      compostos fenólicos totais foram 102,4 mg EAG100 g<sup>-1</sup>. O extrato etanólico não apresentou  
23      letalidade frente *A. salina* nas concentrações de 2250, 2000, 1500, 1250, 1000, 500, 250 e 125  
24      μg.mL<sup>-1</sup>. A atividade antimicrobiana não apresentou inibição nos microrganismos testados em  
25      concentrações de até 1 mg/mL.

26

27       **Palavras-chave:** Fitoquímica, Atividade antioxidante, Toxicidade, Atividade antibacteriana,  
28       Mandacaru.

29

30

31       **Prospección fitoquímica y actividad biológica del extracto etanol de cactus de la región de**  
32       **lavrado de Roraima, Brasil**

33

34       **Resumen**

35 Lavrado es una terminología local dada a la región de sabanas de Roraima que tiene de gran  
36 importancia para la conservación de la biodiversidad y los recursos hídricos. Y compuesta por  
37 vegetación pequeña, mediana y grande que impregna lagos y arroyos, en gran parte flanqueada por  
38 caminos de buritizais (*Mauritia flexuosa*) y con la aparición de Cactus Mandacaru (*Cereus*  
39 *jamacaru* De Candolle). Este trabajo consistió en la prospección fitoquímica y actividades  
40 biológicas del extracto etanólico de *C. jamacaru* colectado en el lavrado de Roraima. El extracto  
41 fue evaluado por su capacidad antioxidante, determinada por los métodos DPPH y ABTS, y por el  
42 contenido de compuestos fenólicos totales. El perfil químico se analizó por el método APCI-MS. La  
43 toxicidad se evaluó a partir del análisis CL50 en un ensayo agudo con *Artemia salina* L. En la  
44 prospección fitoquímica se obtuvo la presencia de metabolitos secundarios: fenoles, taninos,  
45 alcaloides, flavonoides, sesquiterpenolactonas y otras lactonas, saponinas, esteroides, triterpenoides,  
46 flavonas, flavonoles, flavonas, chalconas, auronas e isoflavonas. La valoración de la capacidad  
47 antioxidante fue del 63,8% para DPPH y del 92,3% en los análisis ABTS. Los valores de  
48 compuestos fenólicos totales fueron de 102.4 mg EAG100 g<sup>-1</sup>. El extracto etanólico no mostró  
49 letalidad contra *A. salina* a las concentraciones de 2250, 2000, 1500, 1250, 1000, 500, 250 y 125  
50 µg.mL<sup>-1</sup>. La actividad antimicrobiana no mostró inhibición en los microorganismos ensayados a  
51 concentraciones de hasta 1 mg/mL.

52

53 **Palabras clave:** Fitoquímica, Actividad antioxidante, Toxicidad, Actividad antibacteriana,  
54 Mandacaru.

55

56

57 **Phytochemical prospecting and biological activity of the ethanolic extract of cacti from the  
58 “lavrado” region of Roraima, Brazil**

59

60 **Abstract**

61 Lavrado is a local terminology for the savanna and steppic savanna region of Roraima that has a  
62 high importance for the conservation of biodiversity and water resources. It is composed of small,  
63 medium and large-sized vegetation that permeates lakes and streams, which are largely flanked by  
64 rows of buriti palms (*Mauritia flexuosa*), as well as the occurrence of mandacaru cacti (*Cereus*  
65 *jamacaru* De Candolle). This work consists of the phytochemical prospection and biological  
66 activities of the ethanolic extract of *C. jamacaru* collected in the lavrado region of Roraima. The  
67 extract was evaluated for its antioxidant capacity, which was determined using DPPH and ABTS  
68 methods, and for its total phenolic compounds. The chemical profile was analyzed using the APCI-

69 MS method, and toxicity was evaluated via the LC<sub>50</sub> analysis in an acute toxicity assay using  
70 *Artemia salina* L. In the phytochemical prospection, the presence of the following secondary  
71 metabolites was observed: phenols, tannins, alkaloids, flavonoids, sesquiterpene lactones and other  
72 lactones, saponins, steroids, triterpenoids, flavones, flavonols, chalcones, aurones and isoflavones.  
73 The evaluation of antioxidant capacity was 63.8% in the DPPH and 92.3% in ABTS analyses. The  
74 values of total phenolic compounds were 102.4 mg GAE.100 g<sup>-1</sup>. The ethanolic extract did not  
75 present lethality against *A. salina* in the concentrations of 2,250, 2,000, 1,500, 1,250, 1,000, 500,  
76 250 and 125 µg.mL<sup>-1</sup>. The antimicrobial activity showed no inhibition in the microorganisms tested  
77 at concentrations up to 1 mg/mL.

78

79 **Keywords:** Phytochemistry, Antioxidant activity, Toxicity, Antibacterial activity, Mandacaru.

80

81

## 82 Introduction

83

84 Cacti are succulent dicotyledons of a wide range of shapes and sizes, they can be trees,  
85 shrubs, vines, epiphytes or geophytes. Stems (stalks) can be columnar, plump, globular, tuberculate,  
86 rib-shaped, winged or flattened, though they are usually segmented without leaves and have thorns  
87 (Barthlott and Hunt 1993).

88

89 In the Americas, cacti are found from the coastal plains to mountains with an altitude of  
90 about 3,000 m. Of the four areas identified as centers of cactus diversity, Brazil ranks third in this  
91 ranking. It is very common to associate the occurrence of cacti with places of extreme droughts;  
92 however, certain cacti inhabit other environments, for example, the shady and humid forests of the  
93 Amazon and the Atlantic Forest. Cacti are present in all major Brazilian biomes: Amazon, Caatinga,  
94 Cerrado, Atlantic Forest, Pampas and Pantanal (Zappi and Taylor 2020).

95

96 The state of Roraima is located in the northwest of the northern region of Brazil, with a  
97 predominance of the Amazon Rainforest; however, there is also a huge strip of “lavrado” in the  
98 central-eastern part (Barbosa and Campos 2011). The mandacaru (*Cereus jamacaru*) is a cactus that  
99 is native to Brazil and can reach up to 10 meters high. It has a woody trunk of about 60 cm in  
100 diameter, and many erect stems that form a compact top (Zara et al. 2012). It is abundant in the  
northeastern region of Brazil (Zara et al. 2012), but is also found in the “lavrado” of Roraima  
(Oliveira 2016; Passos 2019).

101

102 *C. jamacaru* has as its main phytochemical components two amines (tyramine and N-methyltyramine), in addition to the presence of hordenine and tyrosine. In its cladodes, there is the

103 presence of flavonoids, tannins, anthraquinone saponins and often  $\beta$ -sitosterol (Da Silva et al.  
104 2017). This diversity of the metabolites, which have pharmacological activity, justifies their use as  
105 anti-inflammatory, antibacterial, sympathomimetic drugs and they also have a possible karyotonic  
106 activity (Davet et al. 2009; Necchi et al. 2012).

107 Cacti of the genera *Opuntia* and *Latifaria* are the most studied for the treatment of water, but  
108 these studies are considered recent when compared with other natural coagulants such as *Moringa*  
109 *oleifera* (Yin 2010). Natural coagulants, derived from cacti, have also become an alternative for the  
110 removal of organic contaminants in waters, since they are a natural, abundant, biodegradable and  
111 low-cost biomaterial (Rebah 2017).

112 Thus, this study consists of the phytochemical screening of the ethanolic extract of *C.*  
113 *jamacaru* collected in the “lavrado”, in terms of its antioxidant capacity, its toxicity and  
114 antimicrobial activity, with the aim of using the powder of this cactus as a natural coagulant in the  
115 treatment of water for human consumption.

116

117

## 118 Materials and methods

119

120 This study was developed in the laboratories of the Graduate Program in Natural Resources  
121 (PRONAT) of the Federal University of Roraima.

122

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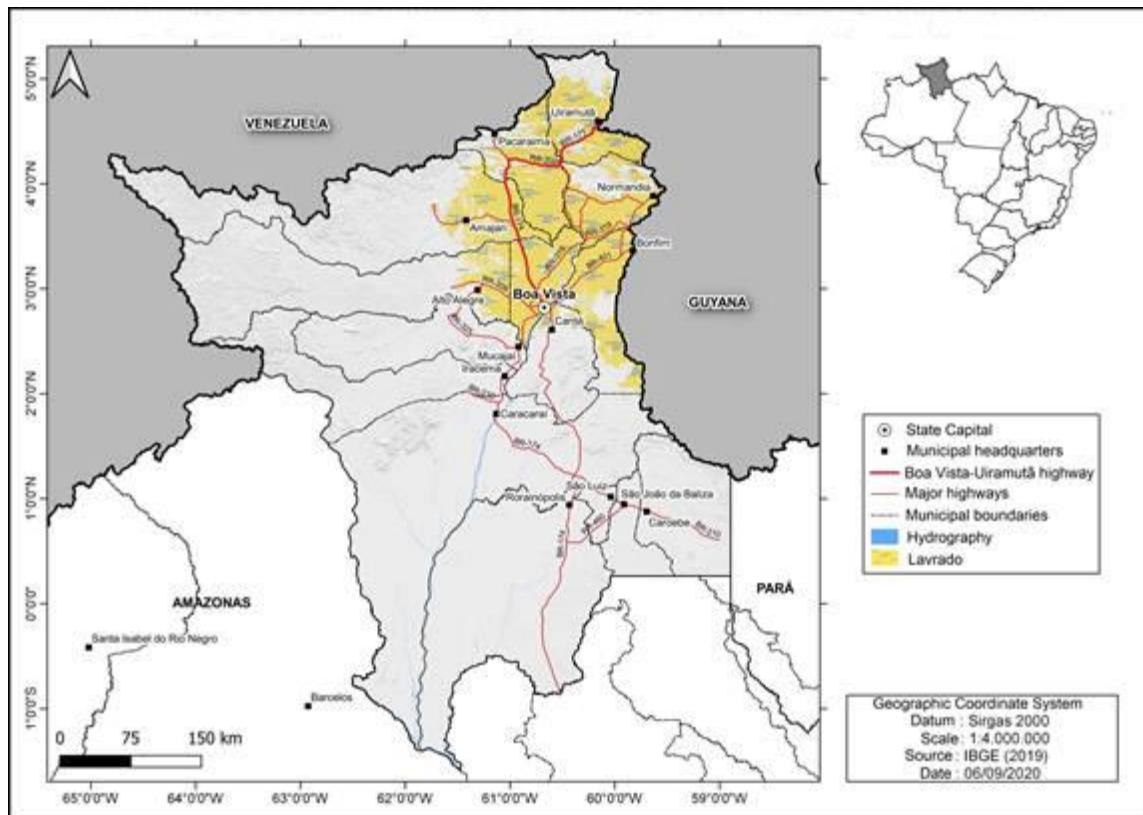
## 124 Description of the area of cactus collection

125

126 Comprising an area of 230,104 km<sup>2</sup>, the “lavrado” in Roraima borders Guyana and a part of  
127 Venezuela (Figure 1), with altitudes ranging between 400 and 800 meters in an extensive  
128 mountainous area of Precambrian origin (Miranda and Absy 2000).

129 For the present study, cacti were collected in the “lavrado” on the verges of the BR 174, RR-  
130 202 and RR-171 highways between Boa Vista nd Uiramutã (Figure 1). Prior to the collection stage,  
131 a mapping of the occurrence of cacti in the studied area was carried out with the help of GPS  
132 equipment (Garmin, etrex 20). Such mapping was a primary factor in determining the species of  
133 cactus to be studied.

134

135  
136**Figure 1.** Map of the spatial distribution of the “lavrado” of Roraima and the Boa Vista-Uiramutá highway where the collections of cacti were carried out.

137

138      **Source:** Author

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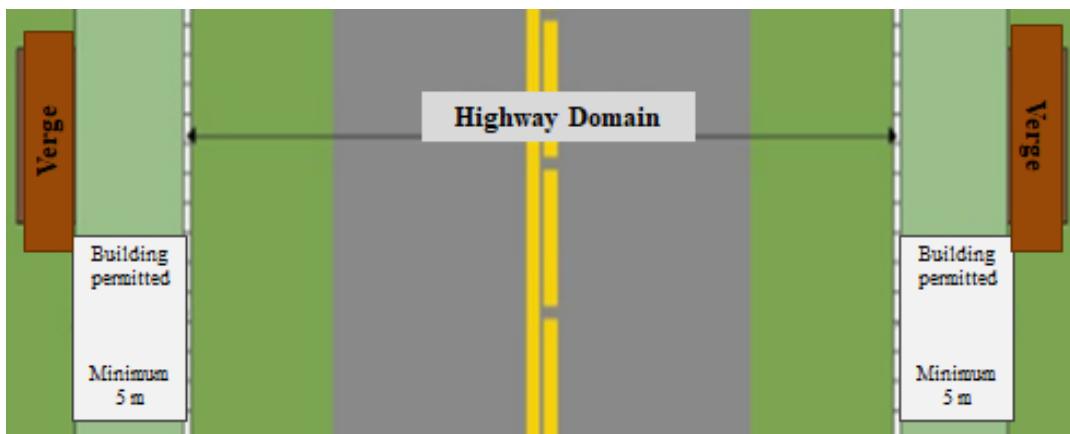
Considering that the path of the study runs through indigenous lands that require authorization for collection, it was decided to map the occurrence of cacti in the public domain, respecting the minimum limit of the verges of the highways. According to Resolution N°. 9, of August 12, 2020, the domain of the highway is the physical basis on which a highway is based, which consists of the roadway, verges, hard shoulders, signage and the safety lanes. The limits are defined by an executive highway project, public utility decrees or expropriation projects. The verge, on the other hand, refers to the area along the public domain lanes of highways (Brasil 2020). The minimum limit of this strip is at least five meters according to Brazilian Law No. 13913/2019 (Brasil 2019) (Figure 2).

149

150

151

152      **Figure 2.** Illustrative scheme of the domain of highways and verges where the cacti were  
 153      collected.



154  
 155      **Source:** Adapted from Empresa Gaúcha de Rodovias (2019).

156

157      **Preparation of the extract**

158

159      For the study, about 1,200 g of the aerial part of *Cereus jamacaru* was used. Thorns from  
 160      plant material were removed with a knife, then the cladodes were washed under running water, cut,  
 161      and placed on trays. The pieces were dried in an air circulation oven at 37 °C for 3 days, and then  
 162      ground to a powder and stored in a dark and hermetically sealed container. The ethanolic extract of  
 163      the cladodes of the cactus was prepared using the maceration method. A total of 320 g of powdered  
 164      cactus was added to 3.0 liters of absolute ethyl alcohol, and left for 7 days. After this period, the  
 165      extract was filtered through analytical filter paper and concentrated under reduced pressure in a  
 166      rotary evaporator. Then, the obtained extract was stored and conserved until the completion of the  
 167      analyses (Martins et al. 2022).

168

169

170      **Analysis of the chemical profile using high-resolution mass spectrometry with atmospheric  
 171      pressure chemical ionization (APCI-MS)**

172

173      The ethanolic extract of *C. jamacaru* was solubilized in HPLC-grade methanol to generate a  
 174      stock solution of 1,000 ppm. Aliquots (10 µL) of this solution were transferred to vials containing 1  
 175      mL of methanol. Then, 5 µL of the diluted solutions were analyzed by direct insertion in the trap ion  
 176      mass spectrometer (LCQ Fleet), which was equipped with an APCI source operating in positive and  
 177      negative modes. The analytical parameters used were: discharge current: 5 µA; vaporizer  
 178      temperature: 320 °C; capillary temperature: 220 °C; sheath gas: 30 psi; aux gas: 10 Arb, mass range,

179 m/z 100-1000. MS/MS spectra were acquired using helium as the collision gas and energy ranging  
180 between 20-30%.

181

182

183 **Qualitative classification of secondary metabolites**

184

185 Phytochemical prospection was performed by adapting the methodology proposed by  
186 Barbosa et al. (2004). The ethanolic extract was tested for phenols, tannins, phenolic substances,  
187 flavones, flavonols, chalcones, isoflavones, saponins, free steroids, free pentacyclic triterpenoids  
188 and alkaloids.

189

190

191 **Sequestering activity of 2,2-diphenyl-1 picrylhydrazyl radical (DPPH)**

192

193 The antioxidant activity of the *C. jamacaru* extract was determined using the *in vitro*  
194 photocalorimetric method performed via free radical scavenging using DPPH (2,2-diphenyl-1-  
195 picrylhydrazyl). The samples were prepared by adding 3.9 mL of DPPH solution (60 µM) in 100 µL  
196 of extract solutions, which were diluted in methanol at µM/mL concentrations, in triplicate. After  
197 the reaction time of 30 minutes, the absorbances of the prepared samples were read on the UV-Vis  
198 spectrophotometer with the wavelength adjusted to 515 nm. As a negative control, a mixture of 3.9  
199 mL of DPPH solution and 100 µL of control solution (Trolox) was used. The antioxidant activity of  
200 the samples was expressed in IC<sub>50</sub> (inhibitory concentration), which was defined as the mg.mL<sup>-1</sup> of  
201 sample required to inhibit the formation of DPPH radicals by 50% (Mensor et al. 2001; Sousa et al.  
202 2007).

203

204 **2,2'-Azino-bis-(3-ethylbenzothiazoline)-6-sulfonic radical (ABTS)**

205

206 The sequestering activity of the ethanolic extract was determined using the methodology  
207 described by Rhee et al. (2001). The ABTS radical solution (ABTS•+) was prepared by reacting 5  
208 mL of ABTS solution (7 mmol L<sup>-1</sup>) with 88 µL of K<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> solution (140 mmol L<sup>-1</sup>) and allowing the  
209 mixture to stand in the dark (at room temperature) for 12-16 hours before use. For the assay, the  
210 ABTS+ solution was diluted with 5 mmol L<sup>-1</sup> PBS buffer solution (pH 7.4) to an absorbance of 0.7

211 ( $\pm 0.02$ ) at 734 nm. A sample of 10  $\mu\text{L}$  (500 mg.mL $^{-1}$ ) was mixed with 1 mL of diluted ABTS+  
212 solution and the absorbance (at 734 nm) was measured after 6 min. The percentage decrease in  
213 absorbance was calculated compared to that of the controls. The antioxidant activity value of the  
214 extract was compared with the BHT control (synthetic antioxidant). The result was also expressed  
215 in milligrams of equivalent.

216

217

218 **Total phenolic contents**

219

220 The total phenolic content was determined using the Folin-Ciocalteau method, modified by  
221 Roesler et al. (2007), by which an extract was used at a ratio of 1:10 (w/v). The quantification  
222 process was minimized to a total volume scale of 1.0 mL. From this solution, 200  $\mu\text{L}$  of the extract  
223 were taken, added to 800  $\mu\text{L}$  of distilled water, 1 mL of Folin-Ciocalteau reagent and 2 mL of 20%  
224 sodium carbonate. The absorbance (Abs) of the liquid fraction was determined at 760 nm in a  
225 spectrophotometer (Biochrom Libra S12). The result was expressed in gallic acid equivalents (mg  
226 GAE.100 g $^{-1}$ ).

227 All readings were performed in triplicate and, with the means of the data, the difference in  
228 absorbance between the samples and the control was calculated, with the antioxidant activity (AA)  
229 percentages determined using Equation (1).

230

231 Inhibition of activity (%) = (1-B)/A x 100 (1)

232 Where:

233 A = Absorbance of control solution.

234 B = Absorbance of the solution in the presence of the extract.

235

236

237 **Toxicity test using *Artemia salina***

238

239 In a round-shaped aquarium that served as an incubator, an artificial saline solution (20 g of  
240 sea salt per 1.0 L of distilled water) was added and exposed to the light of a 40 W lamp with  
241 aeration, and with a pH of between 8 and 9. After 24 hours, the nauplii (10 units) were placed in test

tubes containing the extract of *C. jamacaru* dissolved in DMSO (dimethylsulfoxide) 1% and supplemented with 5 mL of artificial seawater. Concentrations of extracts of 2,250, 2,000, 1,500, 1,250, 1,000, 500, 250 and 125  $\mu\text{g.mL}^{-1}$  were tested in triplicate. DMSO was used as the positive control, and was prepared in a similar way to the samples. After 24 hours, the number of dead and living nauplii was counted and the percentage of mortality calculated (Meyer et al. 1982).

247

248

#### 249 Determination of antimicrobial activity

250

251 Following the Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute (CLSI, 2009) the determination of  
252 antimicrobial activity and minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) were performed using the disc  
253 diffusion method. For the bacteria, standard strains (ATCC) were used, with Gram-positive:  
254 *Staphylococcus aureus* (ATCC25923), *Enterococcus faecalis* (ATCC00531), *Bacillus cereus*  
255 (ATCC9634) and *Listeria monocytogenes* (ATCC7644), and Gram-negative: *Escherichia coli*  
256 (ATCC10536), *Klebsiella pneumoniae* (ATCC700603) and *Enteric salmonella* (ATCC13076). For  
257 the evaluation of antifungal activity, a standard strain of the American Type Culture Collection  
258 (ATCC), *Candida albicans* (ATCC10231), was used. The microorganisms were cultured and  
259 maintained in tryptone soy agar (TSA) and incubated at 37 °C for 24 hours. The density of the  
260 microbial suspension was adjusted to approximately  $10^8$  CFU/mL by comparing it with the  
261 MacFarland scale (Biomerieux, Italy). This suspension was diluted in sterile saline (0.85%) and,  
262 subsequently, the microorganisms were made into a carpet, adding sterile filter paper discs (6 mm  
263 Ø) with an aliquot of 20  $\mu\text{L}$  of the extract in certain concentrations, ranging from 500 to 100  $\mu\text{g.mL}^{-1}$   
264. For the disc diffusion test, halos with a diameter  $\geq 6$  mm were considered inhibitory. The  
265 antimicrobials amoxilin, vancomycin and fluconazole discs were used as the positive control.

266

267

#### 268 Results and discussion

269

270 Below we present the results and discussions regarding the phytochemical prospection,  
271 chemical profile and biological activities of the ethanolic extract of *C. jamacaru* from the “lavrado”  
272 in Roraima.

273

274

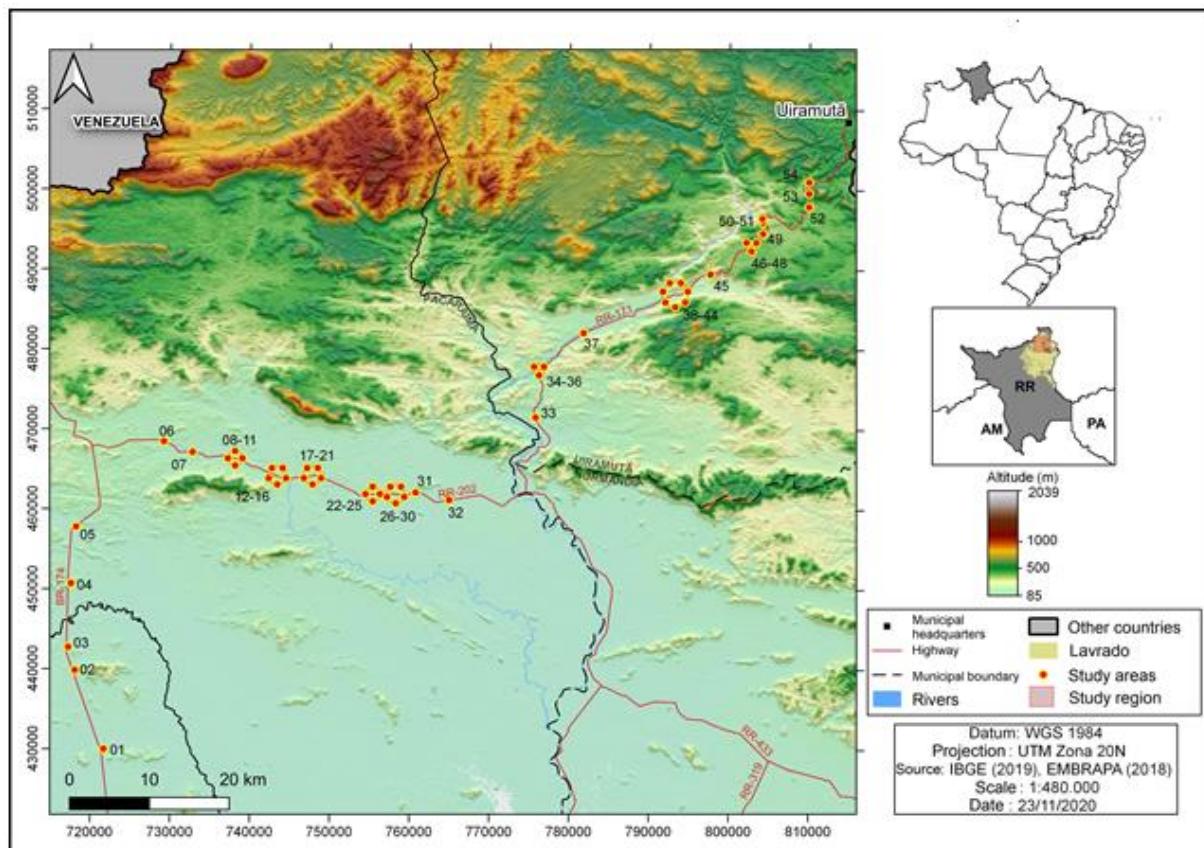
275

276    **Mapping the occurrence of cacti in the lavrado**

277

278       The occurrences of cacti were recorded along a route of 290 km, within the five-meter limit  
 279       of the verges, on the BR-174, RR-202 and RR-171 highways, totaling 54 points (Figure 3). The  
 280       mandacaru (*C. jamacaru*) proved to be the most abundant in this study area, as its occurrence was  
 281       recorded at all points. Only at point 2 of the route were two other species found, namely *Melocactus*  
 282       *neryi* and *Cereus paraensis*.

283       **Figure 3.** Location of occurrence points of cacti on the verges of the highway between Boa Vista  
 284       and Uiramutã, Roraima.



285

286       **Source:** Author

287

288       Samples of mandacaru cladodes were collected on the banks of the BR-171 in the  
 289       municipality of Uiramutã, Roraima, at point 33 of the map at  $04^{\circ}15' 32.01''$  N  $60^{\circ} 30' 51.12''$  W.  
 290       After collection, the plant material was sent to the herbarium at the Federal University of Roraima  
 291       in order to obtain botanical identification and the ethanol extract in the laboratory.

292

293

294   **Extract yield**

295

296   From 320 grams of powdered cladodes of *C. jamacaru*, we obtained 1,324 grams of ethanolic  
297   extract, which is equal to a yield of approximately 0.41%.

298

299

300   **Phytochemical prospection**

301

302   The metabolites found in the crude ethanolic extract of cladodes were phenols, tannins,  
303   alkaloids, flavonoids, sesquiterpene lactones saponins, steroids, triterpenoids and flavones (Table  
304   1).

305

306   **Table 1.** Results of phytochemical prospection of the ethanolic extract of cladodes of *C.*  
307   *jamacaru*.

308

Secondary metabolites	Results	Secondary metabolites	Results
<i>Phenols</i>	+	<i>Saponins</i>	+
<i>Tannins</i>	+	<i>Steroids</i>	+
<i>Alkaloids</i>	+	<i>Triterpenoids</i>	+
<i>Flavonoids</i>	+	<i>Flavones, flavonols, chalcones, aurones and isoflavones</i>	+
<i>Sesquiterpene lactones and other lactones</i>	+		

309   (-) Absence; ( + ) Presence

310

311

312   The results obtained in the prospection provide information on the chemical classes that  
313   make up the extracts. However, it is worth mentioning that there are variations in the profile of  
314   secondary metabolites of plant species that have been attributed to biotic and abiotic factors  
315   (Hernandez et al. 2022) The presence of tannins and phenolic compounds in the present study  
316   corroborate the studies of Dias, Simão, Verib and Carasek (2013) who detected these two  
317   substances in the aqueous methanolic extract of the peel of manacaru fruits (*Cereus*  
318   *fernambucensis*), a species belonging to the same family as *C. jamacaru*. The results are also

similar to the studies conducted by Felker et al. (2005), Davet et al. (2009) and Medeiros et al. (2019), who detected the presence of tannins, alkaloids, anthraquinones, phenol and flavonoids in the cladodes of *C. jamacaru*.

The results of this prospection corroborate the studies of De Almeida et al. (2022), who found the presence of phenols, flavones, flavonols, xanthones and saponins in the ethanolic extract of *C. jamacaru* cladodes. Unlike in the present study, terpenoids were only found in the peel and pulp of ripe and semi-ripe fruits. The authors also detected tannins in their samples.

Phytochemicals such as flavonoids, tannins and alkaloids have anti-inflammatory properties. El-Beltagi et al. (2019) attributed this good antibacterial activity to the tannins present in the cactus *Opuntia ficus-indica*. Alkaloids have been reported to be responsible for antibacterial activity in some plants. This probably explains the reason why plants containing these basic alkaloids and alkaloid salts have good antibacterial properties (El-beltagi et al. 2019).

331

332

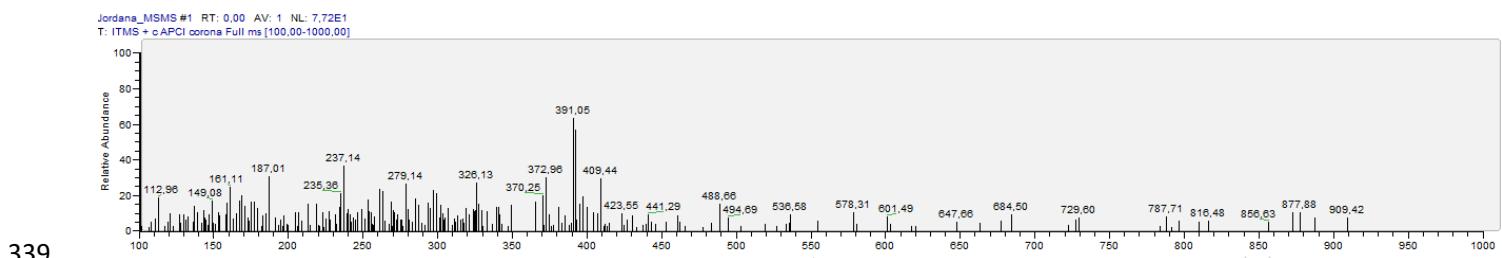
### 333 Chemical profile

334

335 The spectrum of the chemical profile of the ethanolic extract of *C. jamacaru* obtained by  
336 APCI-MS is represented in Figure 4.

337

338 **Figure 4.** APCI-MS mass spectra of the ethanolic extract of *C. jamacaru*



339

340

341 The possible compounds identified in the positive and negative ionization modes in the  
342 fragments are described in Table 2.

343

344 **Table 2.** Compounds identified in the ethanolic extract of *C. jamacaru*

345

Possible identification	m/z	MS/MS	Reference
<b>Quercetin</b>	301	179; 151	Campelo et al. (2021)
<b>Quercetin hexoside</b>	463	301	Campelo et al. (2021)

<b>Quercetin-3-O-arabinoyl glycoside</b>	595	301	Campelo et al. (2021)
<b>Quercetin di-deoxyhexose</b>	755	446	Campelo et al. (2021)
<b>(Epi) catechin - (Epi) catechin (procyanidin B IV)</b>	577	451; 425; 407; 289; 287	Campelo et al. (2021)
<b>Catechin</b>	289	125; 179; 205; 231; 245	Campelo et al. (2021)
<b>P-coumaric acid</b>	165	119; 147	Campelo et al. (2021)
<b>Caffeic acid</b>	179	135	Campelo et al. (2021)
<b>Ferulic acid</b>	193	134; 149; 178	Campelo et al. (2021)
<b>Apigenin-6-C-glucoside (isovitexin)</b>	431	269; 341	Campelo et al. (2021)
<b>Taxifolin hexoside</b>	435	285; 303; 399	Campelo et al. (2021)
<b>Naringenin hexoside II</b>	433	271; 313; 415	Campelo et al. (2021)
<b>Kaempferol 3-rutinoside-7-rhamnoside</b>	739	593	Campelo et al. (2021)
<b>Kaempferol-3-O-rutinoside</b>	593	285, 255	Campelo et al. (2021)
<b>Benzoic acid derivative</b>	205	143, 125, 81	Campelo et al. (2021)
<b>Benzoic acid derivative</b>	411	205, 143, 125, 81	Campelo et al. (2021)
<b>Benzoic acid derivative</b>	369	205, 125	Campelo et al. (2021)
<b>Saccharide</b>	371	249, 231, 175, 113	Campelo et al. (2021)
<b>Isorhamnetin-3-O-dirhamnosyl glucoside</b>	769	623, 315	Campelo et al. (2021)
<b>Isorhamnetin-3-O-rutinoside</b>	623	315, 300	Campelo et al. (2021)
<b>Oxo-dihydroxy-octadecenoic acid</b>	327	229, 211	Campelo et al. (2021)
<b>L-arginine</b>	175	116	Campelo et al. (2021)
<b>3-O-methylquercetin</b>	317	301; 274; 273	Campelo et al. (2021)
<b>Sucrose</b>	381	201; 219	Campelo et al. (2021)
<b>Apigenin mono-C-glycosidic</b>	433	361; 349; 337; 323	Campelo et al. (2021)
<b>Myricetin-hexose</b>	743	431; 611; 743	Campelo et al. (2021)
<b>D-tyramine</b>	137.2		Schwartz et al. (2010)
<b>N-methyltyramine</b>	151		Schwartz et al. (2010)
<b>Hordenine</b>	165.2		Schwartz et al. (2010)
<b>D-tyrosine</b>	181.2		Schwartz et al. (2010)
<b>Oleic acid</b>	282.4		Schwartz et al. (2010)

<b>Acetic acid</b>	60.1	Schwartz et al. (2010)
<b>Camphor</b>	152.2	Schwartz et al. (2010)
<b>Cysteine</b>	121.2	Schwartz et al. (2010)
<b>Geranylacetone</b>	194	Schwartz et al. (2010)

346

347        In the class of flavonols, the presence of quercetin glycosylates, kaempferol, myricetin and  
 348 isorhamnetin is widely associated with several beneficial health effects, as they present antioxidant,  
 349 anticancer, anti-inflammatory, antiviral, cardioprotective, and other properties (Wang et al. 2018).  
 350 Phenolic acids, among them caffeic acid,  $\rho$ -coumaric acid and ferulic acid, stand out for being some  
 351 of the most studied phenolic compounds in cactus species due to their antioxidant action and  
 352 potential to prevent or delay the appearance of symptoms of transmissible diseases (Del Socorro  
 353 and Camarena 2019).

354        The main compounds that are produced by cacti and which have nutritional or  
 355 pharmacological properties are polyphenols, alkaloids, betalains, terpenes and fatty acids (DAS et  
 356 al. 2020). Hordenine, N-methyltyramine and tyrosine are some of the most commonly detected  
 357 alkaloids in cacti. According to Vencioneck Dutra et al. (2018), the alkaloids tyramine and N-  
 358 methyltyramine are compounds produced by *C. jamacaru* that are chemical markers of this species.  
 359 Such compounds were identified in the present study with an m/z of 137.2 and 151, respectively.

360        Oleic acid is known for its beneficial health effects, and is an unsaturated fatty acid that can  
 361 prevent cardiovascular disease (Bakari et al. 2017). Vitamins can be found in both the pulp and skin  
 362 of cacti (El-beltagi et al. 2019). Previous studies have indicated that there is a higher concentration  
 363 of vitamin C (ascorbic acid) in the fruit of cacti (*Opuntia ficus-indica*) than that found in common  
 364 fruits such as apple, banana or grape. Vitamin C is an important antioxidant and reduces the adverse  
 365 effects of reactive oxygen species that cause damage to macromolecules, such as lipids, DNA and  
 366 proteins, which are related to cardiovascular disease, cancer and neurodegenerative diseases.

367

368

### 369        Antioxidant activity

370

371        The values obtained in the radical sequestration methods (DPPH and ABTS) and total phenolic  
 372 contents are presented in Table 3.

373

374

375

376

377 **Table 3** - Antioxidant activity of the ethanolic extract of cladodes of *C. jamacaru*.

378

	<b>Phenolic Compounds</b>	<b>DPPH Radical</b>	<b>ABTS Radical</b>
	<b>Total (mg GAE.100 g<sup>-1</sup>)</b>	<b>IC<sub>50</sub> (mg.mL<sup>-1</sup>)</b>	<b>(μMTrolox g<sup>-1</sup>)</b>
<b>Ethanolic Extract</b>	102.4 ± 0.05	69.8 ± 0.2	1.843,4 ± 5,74
<b>Gallic Acid</b>	2,931.04 ± 8.8	-	-
<b>Ascorbic Acid</b>	-	100.2 ± 2.26	1.978,4 ± 7,12
<b>BHT</b>	-	94.5 ± 3.4	1.368,7 ± 4,98

379

(-) Absence

380

BHT: butylated hydroxytoluene

381

382 DPPH and ABTS assays are methods used to measure the antioxidant's ability to scavenge  
 383 free radicals, which are the main factor in biological damage caused by stress. In studies conducted  
 384 by Vencioneck Dutra et al. (2018), the hydroalcoholic extract of *C. jamacaru* was able to inhibit the  
 385 activity of DPPH radicals by up to 57.36% and ABTS antioxidant activity by up to 65.76% when  
 386 compared to the standards. The results of the present study were even more satisfactory, the  
 387 ethanolic extract of the cladodes of *C. jamacaru* showed antioxidant activity of 92.3% for the ABTS  
 388 method and 63.8% for the DPPH method. El-beltagi et al. (2019) attributed the excellent  
 389 antioxidantizing activity of cactus extract to flavonoids. The authors claim that flavonoids are more  
 390 efficient antioxidants than vitamins, since phenolic compounds are able to slow down pro-oxidative  
 391 effects on proteins, DNA and lipids via the generation of stable radicals.

392

393 A study conducted with the alkaloid tyramine, a compound detected in the extract of *C.*  
*jamacaru*, showed strong sequestering activity in the DPPH assay, as well as reducing power,  
 394 reaching an 86.34% inhibition of the DPPH radical, which may have contributed to the overall  
 395 antioxidant activity (Yen and Hsieh 1997). The phenolic levels of the cladodes of *C. jamacaru* were  
 396 lower than the results obtained by Santos-Zea et al. (2011) who found a minimum of 318.1 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>  
 397 and 1 g kg<sup>-1</sup>, and Medina-Torres et al. (2013) who found 1 g kg<sup>-1</sup> in the cladodes of Mexican cacti  
 398 using methanol as an extractive vehicle. De Wit et al. (2019) observed that the total phenolic  
 399 contents are always higher in the stem and seeds of cacti than in their fruits. In this study, levels of  
 400 phenolic compounds in the cladodes were 102.4 ± 0.05 mg GAE.100 g<sup>-1</sup>. A possible explanation for  
 401 obtaining lower levels is the use of ethanol as an extractive vehicle. Methanol has a higher polarity  
 402 than ethanol due to its hydrocarbon chain being smaller than that of ethanol.

403     **Determination of antimicrobial activity (AMA)**

404

405           There was no inhibition of microbial activity with the *C. jamacaru* ethanolic extract at the  
 406 concentrations tested. Unlike the present study, Davet et al. (2009) demonstrated the antibacterial  
 407 potential of the ethanolic extract of mandacaru stems against *Streptococcus epidermidis*,  
 408 *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and *Escherichia coli*. The reason why the extract  
 409 did not show halo inhibition can be attributed to the concentration tested. Rabe and Staden (1997)  
 410 relate the absence or slight activity in some extracts to the low concentrations of antibacterial  
 411 compounds in the extracts.

412           Leyva-Jimenez et al. (2018) tested the 80% ethanol extract of the peel of the fruit of *C.*  
 413 *jamacaru* and the best inhibition halo obtained was of 10 mm and, of the eight bacteria tested, the  
 414 extract inhibited only three. The authors attributed to the inhibition of microbial growth to the  
 415 presence of certain flavonoids such as rutin or chrysin. Flavonoids are effective against microbial  
 416 pathogens, since they are a phenolic hydroxyl compound; as the number of -OH groups increase in  
 417 the natural structure of the compound, toxicity to microorganisms increases (Bardakci et al. 2019).

418

419

420     **Toxicity test**

421

422           In the toxicity tests, the number of dead nauplii was confirmed by visualization with the aid  
 423 of a magnifying glass after 24 hours, and it was found that the nauplii still showed movement. The  
 424 results obtained are expressed in Table 4.

425         **Table 4-** Results of toxicity test using *Artemia salina* nauplii

426

	2250 µg. mL <sup>-1</sup>	2000 µg. mL <sup>-1</sup>	1500 µg. mL <sup>-1</sup>	12500 µg. mL <sup>-1</sup>	1000 µg. mL <sup>-1</sup>	500 µg. mL <sup>-1</sup>	250 µg. mL <sup>-1</sup>	125 µg. mL <sup>-1</sup>	C1	C2
S	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
D	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
T	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
X	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

427         S= Sample; D= Duplicate; T= Triplicate; X= Mean; M= Dead; C= Control

428

429        The toxicity test against *A. salina* was performed with the ethanolic extract. The bioassay  
430    was performed in triplicate, and live, dead, or paralyzed nauplii were counted, and then mortality  
431    was determined at a concentration between 2,250 µg. mL<sup>-1</sup> and 125 µg.mL<sup>-1</sup>. Once the mortality  
432    count is determined, toxicity is considered low when the 50% lethal dose (LD<sub>50</sub>) is greater than  
433    1,000 µg.mL<sup>-1</sup> and high when the LD<sub>50</sub> is less than 1,000 µg.mL<sup>-1</sup> (Meyer et al. 1982). With the  
434    determination of the data, it was observed that the ethanolic extract does not present lethality  
435    against *A. salina*, as there was no mortality in the lethal dose range.

436        This result demonstrates that the *C. jamacaru* extract has no toxicity. Unlike the study by  
437    Sánchez et al. (2016), who evaluated the toxicity of the extract of *O. ficus-indica*, also a member of  
438    the *Cactaceae* family and popularly known as the “prickly pear”, and found that a concentration of  
439    100 µg/mL was able to eliminate about 60% of the microcrustaceans.

440

441

## 442    **Conclusions**

443

444        This research identified compounds belonging to the phenolic, tannin, alkaloids, flavonoids,  
445    sesquiterpene lactones, saponins, steroids, triterpenoids and flavones in the ethanolic extract of the  
446    cladodes of the cactus *C. jamacaru* cactus from Roraima. Such findings provide substantial  
447    evidence that this cactus is a potent source of antioxidant and does not exhibit toxicity. Even  
448    without having shown antimicrobial activity, the *C. jamacaru* cactus can be used as a natural  
449    coagulant.

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## 5 CONCLUSÕES

O coagulante natural do cacto *C. jamacaru* do lavrado de Roraima possui ação coagulante para o tratamento da água destinada ao consumo humano, podendo ser utilizado tanto para águas superficiais quanto para subterrâneas, independente da sazonalidade.

A prospecção fitoquímica e atividade biológica realizada com o extrato etanólico de *C. jamacaru* evidenciaram o potencial antioxidante e a ausência de toxicidade, ratificando a sua utilização como uma tecnologia social para o tratamento de água para o consumo humano.

A tecnologia social desenvolvida pode ser replicada, visto que a comunidade de Santa Maria do Boiaçu recebeu capacitação e certificação para a produção do coagulante natural, podendo atuar como multiplicadores da tecnologia.

A tecnologia social produzida com a comunidade ribeirinha de Santa Maria do Boiaçu, a partir do *C. jamacaru*, demonstrou eficácia na coagulação da água, permitindo o seu consumo e possibilitando que outras comunidades em condição de vulnerabilidade possam produzir o coagulante natural e obter água de qualidade. Este fato, além de propiciar qualidade de vida aos moradores, protege o ambiente e contempla dois importantes Objetivos de Desenvolvimento Sustentável proposto pela Organização das Nações Unidas: 3: Saúde e bem-estar e 6: Água potável e saneamento.

Dada à importância socioeducacional desta pesquisa, é possível sugerir a execução de novos trabalhos que busquem analisar o extrato aquoso de modo a garantir uma maior eficácia de aplicação do coagulante natural de cacto no tratamento da água para consumo humano, observando-se as condicionantes ambientais. Faz-se necessário o monitoramento da produção do coagulante e da sua utilização pela comunidade.

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