

Original Research Article

***In vitro* antiplasmodial, cytotoxic and antioxidant effects, and phytochemical constituents of eleven plants used in the traditional treatment of malaria in Akwa Ibom State, Nigeria**

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Abstract

Purpose: To evaluate the antiplasmodial effects of eleven plants (*Bombax buonopozense*, *Carica papaya*, *Anthocleista djalonenensis*, *Milicia excelsa*, *Heterotis rotundifolia*, *Homalim letestui*, *Starchystarpheta cayennensis*, *Ocimum gratissimum*, *Cleistopholis patens*, *Chromolaena odorata* and *Hippocratea africana*) reportedly used in the treatment of malaria in Akwa Ibom State of Nigeria.

Methods: Phytochemical analysis was done by standard methods, while *in vitro* antiplasmodial evaluation was carried out using *Plasmodium falciparum* chloroquine-sensitive and chloroquine-resistant strains using lactate dehydrogenase (pLDH) assay. Cytotoxicity test was undertaken by MTT assay on LLC-MK2 cells and the concentration killing 50 % of the cells (CC₅₀) was calculated. Antioxidant activity of the ethanol extract was evaluated by 2,2-diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl (DPPH) assay.

Results: *Milicia excelsa*, *Heterotis rotundifolia* and *Chromolaena odorata* had moderate antiplasmodial activity. *Ocimum gratissimum* and *Hippocratea africana* were weakly active. *Milicia excelsa* showed a considerable level of cytotoxicity, while *Bombax buonopozense* exhibited moderate cytotoxicity. *Bombax buonopozense* (95.3 %) and *Ocimum gratissimum* (92.0 %) exhibited high DPPH scavenging effect comparable to Vitamin C (98.7 %). There was a significant correlation ($p < 0.05$) between DPPH inhibition and the total phenolic contents of the eleven plants studied ($r^2 = 0.6616$), between DPPH inhibition and flavonoids ($r^2 = 0.3553$), between antiplasmodial activity and saponin content ($r^2 = 0.3992$), and between the two antiplasmodial evaluation assay methods ($r^2 = 0.614$).

Conclusion: The results of this work provide some justification for the use of *Milicia excelsa*, *Heterotis rotundifolia*, *Chromolaena odorata*, *Ocimum gratissimum* and *Hippocratea africana* in the treatment of malaria.

Keywords: Antiplasmodial, Antioxidant, Cytotoxicity, Phytochemicals, Antimalaria

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INTRODUCTION

World estimate of infections and mortality from malaria annually is 500 million and 2.7 million, respectively. Ninety percent of these infections occur in Africa. Malaria causes about 3000 deaths daily and reduces economic growth by 1.3% per annum in endemic areas [1]. Malaria is the commonest disease in Nigeria, and accounts for a quarter of all cases of the disease in Africa [2]. The spread of *Plasmodium falciparum* resistance to antimalarial drugs has hampered malaria control program. Resistance to Artesunate-Amodiaquine combination therapy, the popular choice for malaria treatment in Nigeria and parts of Africa, has been reported [3]. This development has made the search for novel antimalaria drugs a necessity.

Plants are used as medicine by about 60 % of the world's population [4]. Only 10% of the 250,000 species of plants in the world, have been screened for biological activity [4]. Many Nigerians use plants as remedies against malaria. *In vitro* antiplasmodial and/or *in vivo* antimalarial effects have been demonstrated in the extracts of 45 out of 51 plant species tested. The major proportion of malaria mortality occur in sub-Saharan African regions, it is necessary to encourage studies on plants from these regions.

This study was therefore undertaken to evaluate the antiplasmodial potential of eleven plants used in Akwa Ibom state, Nigeria, for the treatment of malaria. Evaluation of the antioxidant activity of the plants and quantification of some of their phytochemical components were also undertaken. Correlation among the evaluated parameters was determined.

EXPERIMENTAL

Plant collection and extraction

The plants were collected from Uyo metropolis, Akwa Ibom State, Nigeria, in June 2016. They were identified by Professor Margaret Bassey of the department of Botany and Ecological Studies, University of Uyo. The voucher number was assigned to each of the plants as shown in Table 1 and voucher specimens deposited in the herbarium of the Department of Pharmacognosy and Natural Medicine, University of Uyo, Nigeria. The plant materials were air dried and pulverized. Each of the powdered plant material (200 g) was macerated with 70 % ethanol (2 L) for 72 h. The extracts were filtered and concentrated using a rotary evaporator and dried in a desiccator with silica gel.

Quantification of phytochemicals

Determination of Alkaloids was performed according to the method of Harborne [5]. Estimation of saponins was done according to the method of Obdoni and Ochuko [6]. Total phenolic content was determined following the method of Singleton and Rossi [7]. Flavonoid content was evaluated by the method of Ahn *et al* [8]. The quantitative content of carotenoids and lycopene in the leafy extract is determined using the colorimetric method described by Nagata and Yamashita [9].

In vitro antiplasmodial effect

Stock solutions were prepared by dissolving 2 mg dry crude extracts in 200 μ L dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) from Sigma (MO, USA) and then diluting with complete culture medium to make 2000 μ g/mL. All solutions were sterilized by passing through 0.22 μ m syringe-adapted filters (Corning®, NY, USA) and stored at 4°C until use. *Plasmodium falciparum* Chloroquine-sensitive (CS2) and *Plasmodium falciparum* Chloroquine-resistant (W2mef) strains were cultured *in vitro* [10] with modifications. Parasites were grown in uninfected O+ human red blood cells as host cells and maintained in complete malaria culture medium composed of RPMI-1640 medium supplemented with NaHCO₃ (2 mg/mL), hypoxanthine (10 μ g/mL), glucose (2 mg/mL), albumax II (1 %) and gentamicin (10 μ g/mL). The parasite cultures were incubated in CO₂ (5 %), O₂ (5 %) and N₂ (90 %) at 37 °C. All the solutions were sterilized with 0.22 μ m syringe-adapted filters (Corning®, NY, USA). *In vitro* antiplasmodial activity of the extracts were evaluated using parasite lactate dehydrogenase (pLDH) assay.

Different concentrations of extracts were incubated with non-synchronized 1% parasitized red blood cells (pRBCs) at 2% hematocrit (hct) in 96 well microtiter plates (Costar®, Corning, NY, USA). Quinine was used as positive control. The test was performed in triplicate for each concentration. Wells with only 1% pRBCs at 2% HCT without extract, were included as negative controls (100 % parasite growth). Wells without pRBCs but with red blood cells only at 2 % HCT served as blank controls. Parasites cultures with extracts were maintained for 48 h at 37 °C in CO₂ (5 %), O₂ (5 %), and N₂ (90 %). After 48 h of incubation, the plates were frozen overnight at -20 °C and antiplasmodial activity was evaluated using pLDH assay performed as described previously. The concentration of the extracts that inhibited fifty percent of the parasite growth (IC₅₀)

was determined by GraphPad Prism, version 7.03

***In vitro* cytotoxicity test**

Stock solutions were prepared by dissolving 1 mg dry crude extracts in 200 μ L DMSO (Sigma MO, USA) and then diluting with cell culture medium to make 100 μ g/mL. All the solutions were sterilized by using 0.22 μ m syringe-adapted filters (Corning®, NY, USA) and kept at 4 °C until use. Cytotoxicity was determined on LLC-MK2 monkey kidney epithelial cells. The cells were grown in DMEM culture medium which was supplemented with 10 % fetal bovine serum (FBS, Life Technologies) and 1 % penicillin/Streptomycin. Trypsinated cells were distributed in 96 well microtiter plates at a density of 10,000 cells/well in a volume of 100 μ L per well and incubated for 48 h before adding the extracts. After 48 h, the medium was removed completely from each well, and 100 μ L of fresh culture medium was then added. Thereafter, 100 μ L of crude extract (2000 μ g/mL) was added in row H and then serially diluted to row B to give concentrations ranging from 1000 – 15.6 μ g/mL. Cells in row A served as controls without drug (100 % growth). The cells with or without extracts were incubated in CO₂ (5 %), O₂ (5 %), N₂ (90 %) incubator at 37 °C for 72 h before determining their viability. Each concentration was determined in triplicate. Cell viability was determined using MTT assay and the cytotoxic activity was determined according to the previous studies [11]. The percentage viability and percentage mortality were calculated from the absorbance values using Microsoft Excel. The mean results of the percentage mortality were plotted against the logarithms of concentrations using HN-NonLin V1.1 (2002) and GraphPath Prism software. Regression equations obtained from the graphs were used to calculate cytotoxic concentration fifty (CC₅₀), which is the concentration that killed 50 % of the cells.

Evaluation of DPPH-radical scavenging activity

The DPPH antioxidant capacity of the extracts, and vitamin C were evaluated by the method of Enujiugha [12]. A solution of DPPH (0.1 mm) was prepared in methanol and 0.5 ml of this solution added to 1.5 ml of test sample in ethanol at different concentrations (50 - 250 mg/ml). The solutions were vortexed thoroughly and incubated in the dark for about 30 minutes. The absorbance was measured at 517 nm against blank samples. Inhibition (H) of free radical DPPH was calculated as in Eq 1.

$$H (\%) = \{(Ab - As)/Ab\}100 \dots\dots\dots (1)$$

where Ab and As are the absorbance of blank and test samples, respectively.

Statistical analysis

Data are expressed as mean \pm standard error of the mean (SEM) and analyzed using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with the aid of GraphPad Prism software, version 7.03 for Windows, GraphPad Software, San Diego, California USA). Values of $p < 0.05$ were considered significant.

RESULTS

The names, voucher numbers, and parts of the plants studied are shown in Table 1.

***In vitro* antiplasmodial property**

The antiplasmodial property of the extracts on two reference laboratory strains of *P. falciparum* is presented in Table 2. Considering significant activity in terms of IC₅₀ below 10 on at least two strains, five out of the eleven tested extracts can be classified as having promising activity.

Table 1: Plants studied and their voucher numbers

Plant name (family)	Part	Voucher no.
<i>Anthocleista djalonensis</i> (Gentianaceae)	Roots	UUPH45a
<i>Bombax buonopozense</i> (Malvaceae)	Leaves	UUPH31a
<i>Carica papaya</i> (Caricaceae)	Leaves	UUPH18a
<i>Chromolaena odorata</i> (Asteraceae)	leaves	UUPH10c
<i>Cleistopholis patens</i> (Annonaceae)	Root	UUPH4f
<i>Heterotis rotundifolia</i> (Melastomataceae)	leaves	UUPH48a
<i>Hippocratea africana</i> (Celastraceae)	Root	UUPH34a
<i>Homalim letestui</i> (Flacourtiaceae)	Stem bark	UUPHA69i
<i>Milicia excelsa</i> (Moraceae)	Stem bark	UUPH50b
<i>Ocimum gratissimum</i> (Labiataea)	leaves	UUPH38a
<i>Starchystarpheta cayennensis</i> (Verbenaceae)	Leaf	UUPH78c

Table 2: Antiplasmodial activity (IC₅₀) of the extracts on chloroquine-sensitive *Plasmodium falciparum* (CS2) and *Plasmodium falciparum* Chloroquine-resistant (W2mef) strains

Plant	IC ₅₀ on CS2	IC ₅₀ on W2 (µg/mL)	Observation
<i>Anthocleista djalensis</i>	3.55 ± 0.95	>1000	Inactive
<i>Bombax buonopozense</i>	2.94 ± 0.03	125.23 ± 8.23	Inactive
<i>Carica papaya</i>	>1000	>1000	Inactive
<i>Chromolaena odorata</i>	3.89 ± 0.92	7.12 ± 4.88	Moderately active
<i>Cleistopholis patens</i>	21.43 ± 2.45	14.68 ± 1.02	Inactive
<i>Heterotis rotundifolia</i>	4.63 ± 0.02	7.80 ± 0.73	Moderately active
<i>Hippocratea africana</i>	15.66 ± 2.92	6.95 ± 0.09	Weakly active
<i>Homalim letestui</i>	>1000	222.20 ± 2.24	Inactive
<i>Milicia excelsa</i>	6.43 ± 1.27	3.88 ± 2.49	Moderately active
<i>Ocimum gratissimum</i>	23.23 ± 3.35	4.17 ± 0.23	Weakly active
<i>Starchystarpheta cayennensis</i>	>1000	>1000	Inactive
Quinine	0.09 ± 0.005	0.12.50 ± 0.03	

IC₅₀ < 0.03 : Highly active ; 0.03 < IC₅₀ < 2.5: active ; 2.5 < IC₅₀ < 10 : moderately - weakly active; IC₅₀ > 10 : inactive [15]. Mean and SEM values were generated from three replicates of each assay

Cytotoxicity profiles of the extracts

Table 3 presents the cytotoxic concentration 50% (CC₅₀) for the extracts on the LLC-MK2 Monkey kidney epithelial cell line. From this data, two out of the 11 extracts exhibited moderate toxicity against LLC-MK2 cell line, namely *Milicia excelsa* and *Bombax buonopozense*, with CC₅₀ between 10 and 30 µg/mL.

Antioxidant activity of the extracts

Results of DPPH scavenging property of the plant extracts are shown in Figure 1.

Phytochemical profile of the extracts

The composition of phytochemical constituents of the plants are as shown in Table 4.

The results of the correlation analysis are shown in Table 5

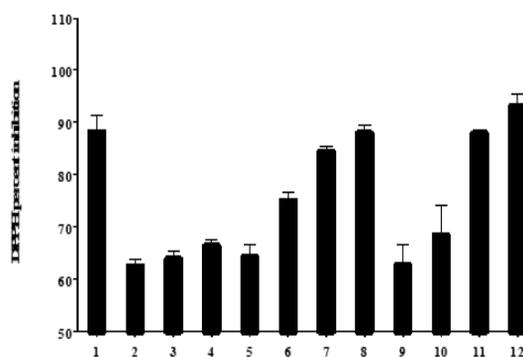


Figure 1: DPPH percent inhibition of the plants. 1. *Bombax buonopozense*, 2. *Carica papaya*, 3. *Anthocleista djalensis*, 4. *Milicia excelsa*, 5. *Heterotis rotundifolia*, 6. *Homalim letestui*, 7. *Starchystarpheta cayennensis*, 8. *Ocimum gratissimum*, 9. *Cleistopholis patens*, 10. *Chromolaena odorata*, 11. *Hippocratea africana*, 12. Vitamin C

Table 3: Cytotoxicity (CC₅₀) of the plant extracts

Plant	CC ₅₀ on LLC-MK2 (µg/mL)	Observations
<i>Anthocleista djalensis</i>	316.83 ± 1.70	Non-cytotoxic
<i>Bombax buonopozense</i>	22.12 ± 6.38	Moderately cytotoxic
<i>Carica papaya</i>	170.54 ± 6.96	Non-cytotoxic
<i>Chromolaena odorata</i>	35.17 ± 3.79	Non-cytotoxic
<i>Cleistopholis patens</i>	415.63 ± 6.82	Non-cytotoxic
<i>Heterotis rotundifolia</i>	542.63 ± 15.45	Non-cytotoxic
<i>Hippocratea africana</i>	48.60 ± 4.11	Non-cytotoxic
<i>Homalim letestui</i>	52.41 ± 10.15	Non-cytotoxic
<i>Milicia excelsa</i>	10.95 ± 0.55	Cytotoxic
<i>Ocimum gratissimum</i>	486.38 ± 4.57	Non-cytotoxic
<i>Starchystarpheta cayennensis</i>	438.97 ± 13.20	Non-cytotoxic
Gleevec (Imatinib)		Weakly cytotoxic

CC₅₀, = Cytotoxic concentration 50 %. CC₅₀ < 5: highly toxic; 5 < CC₅₀ < 10: cytotoxic; 10 < CC₅₀ < 30: Moderately to weakly cytotoxic; CC₅₀ > 30: Non-cytotoxic [14]. Mean and SEM values were generated from three replicates of each assay

Table 4: Phytochemical composition of the plants

Plant	Phenolics (mg/mL)	Flavonoids (mg/mL)	β -Carotene (mg/100 mL)	Lycopene (mg/100 mL)	Saponins (% w/w)	Alkaloids (% w/w)
<i>Anthocleista djalensis</i>	0.0508±0.01	0.0031±0.000	0.0436±0.00	0.0129±0.002	0.26±0.01	0.44±0.01
<i>Bombax buonopozense</i>	0.2912±0.03	0.0058±0.000	0.4199±0.01	0.0895±0.005	0.10±0.01	0.32±0.01
<i>Carica papaya</i>	0.0881±0.01	0.0309±0.004	0.8220±0.03	0.1045±0.006	0.94±0.01	4.98±0.08
<i>Chromolaena odorata</i>	0.0858±0.01	0.0198±0.004	7.4955±0.09	0.8723±0.007	0.32±0.01	3.32±0.05
<i>Cleistopholis patens</i>	0.1715±0.01	0.0115±0.001	0.4666±0.03	0.0893±0.002	0.44±0.01	3.86±0.03
<i>Heterotis rotundifolia</i>	0.1611±0.02	0.0152±0.002	2.9937±0.06	0.1978±0.006	0.22±0.01	2.48±0.02
<i>Hippocratea africana</i>	0.3973±0.02	0.1938±0.006	0.3721±0.03	0.0094±0.000	0.84±0.01	2.42±0.02
<i>Homalim letestui</i>	0.1662±0.03	0.0103±0.001	0.0343±0.00	0.0063±0.000	0.32±0.01	0.42±0.01
<i>Milicia excelsa</i>	0.1270±0.03	0.0109±0.001	0.0436±0.00	0.0092±0.000	0.24±0.01	1.38±0.03
<i>Ocimum gratissimum</i>	0.6800±0.03	0.0796±0.001	0.9096±0.04	0.0563±0.002	0.44±0.01	4.72±0.09
<i>Stachytarpheta cayennensis</i>	0.3666±0.03	0.0675±0.002	0.6779±0.01	0.0522±0.004	1.28±0.07	3.26±0.03

Table 5: Correlation (r^2) between phytochemicals and activities (antiplasmodial, cytotoxicity and antioxidants)

Activity	Phenolics	Flavonoids	β -Carotene (mg/100 ml)	Lycopene (mg/100 ml)	Saponins (%)	Alkaloids (%)
Antiplasmodial	0.004119	0.008835	0.07506	0.07574	0.3992*	0.03498
cytotoxicity	0.1087	0.01321	0.06315	0.09560	0.04415	0.2226
DPPH inhibitory activity	0.6616*	0.3553*	0.004784	0.01254	0.05372	0.007468

* $P < 0.05$ (two-tailed)

DISCUSSION

Stembark extract and root of *Milicia excelsa* are used to treat fever and malaria in the southern part of Nigeria [15]. The result of this study showed that *Milicia excelsa* possessed *in vitro* antiplasmodial activity, thereby justifying the ethnobotanical use of the plant extract for the treatment of malaria. The results of this study also showed that the stem bark of the plant is cytotoxic (CC₅₀ on LLC-MK2 is 10.95 ± 0.55 µg/mL). The root extract of the plant has earlier been reported to be cytotoxic. This plant should therefore be used with caution because of its cytotoxicity.

The leaf of *Carica papaya* is reportedly used in ethnomedicine for malaria treatment, but the result of this study does not confirm this claim.

The methanol leaf extract of *B. buonopozense* has been reported to possess significant antiplasmodial activity thus confirming its traditional use in malarial therapy [16]. But the ethanol leaf extract used in this study did not show any antiplasmodial activity. However, the antiplasmodial property of plant extracts has been reported to vary with the solvent used for extraction and this may account for the differences between the reported antiplasmodial property of the plant and the results obtained in this study.

Anthocleista djalensis leaf extract reportedly exhibited a significant antiplasmodial activity [17]. However, in this study the root extract was found to be inactive. This shows that, unlike the leaf and stem bark, the root extract of the plant may not have any beneficial antiplasmodial activity. This study shows that the ethanol leaf extract of *Heterotis rotundifolia* plant possesses moderate antiplasmodial activity. There is scanty information in literature on the antiplasmodial activity of this plant.

From the results of this study, the stem bark of *Homalim letestui*, did not possess antiplasmodial activity. This result is in tandem with earlier report [18]. However, *in vivo* study reported the significant antiplasmodial activity of the root [23]. Therefore, the root, rather than the stem bark and leaf, of the plant could be exploited further for malaria treatment.

The results of this study showed of *Stachytarpheta cayennensis* leaves do not possess antiplasmodial activity. This result is at variance with the report that the leaf extract exhibited significant blood schizonticidal property comparable to chloroquine [19].

In this study ethanol extract of the leaf of *Ocimum gratissimum* possessed weak antiplasmodial activity. This result agrees with the report of the antiplasmodial activity of the leaves on *P. falciparum* F32. The results of this work showed that the root extract of *Cleistopholis*

patens possesses no antiplasmodial effect and is non-cytotoxic. However, the stem bark is reportedly used in the treatment of malaria in Cameroon [20].

Leaf extract of *Chromolaena odorata* according to this study show moderate antiplasmodial activity. This agrees with the reported antiplasmodial activity of the plant [21]. Results of the antiplasmodial activity of the root extract of *Hippocratea africana* show that the root extract is moderately active, in agreement with the reported activity of the ethanol root extract of the plant.

There was a significant correlation ($r^2 = 0.6616$, $p < 0.05$) between the DPPH percent inhibition and total phenolic contents of the eleven plant extracts tested in this study. The correlation between DPPH inhibitory activity and flavonoids was also significant ($r^2 = 0.3553$, $p < 0.05$). This is expected since phenolics in general and flavonoids in particular are well known to be responsible for the antioxidant properties of plants.

Similarly, the correlation between antiplasmodial activity and saponin content of the plant extracts was significant ($r^2 = 0.3992$, $p < 0.05$). This result show that the antiplasmodial components of these plants may be reasonably attributable to their saponin contents. Many saponins have been known to exhibit antiplasmodial properties. There was no significant correlation between the antiplasmodial and antioxidant effects of the plants. The two antiplasmodial evaluation assays using *Plasmodium falciparum* Chloroquine-sensitive (CS2) and *Plasmodium falciparum* Chloroquine-resistant (W2mef) strains) had a significant correlation of 0.614.

CONCLUSION

The results of this study provide some support for the use of *Milicia excelsa*, *Heterotis rotundifolia*, *Chromolaena odorata*, *Ocimum gratissimum* and *Hippocratea africana* in malaria treatment. *Milicia excelsa* and *Bombax buonopozense* should be used with caution because of their cytotoxicity. *Bombax buonopozense* and *Ocimum gratissimum* show high DPPH inhibitory activity comparable to that of vitamin C.

DECLARATIONS

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Conflict of interest

No conflict of interest is associated with this work.

Contribution of authors

We declare that this work was done by the authors named in this article and all liabilities pertaining to claims relating to the content of this article will be borne by the authors.

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