

Journal of Pharmacognosy and Phytochemistry

Available online at www.phytojournal.com



E-ISSN: 2278-4136 P-ISSN: 2349-8234 JPP 2015; 3(5): 05-11 Received: 06-11-2014 Accepted: 30-11-2014

Razali Mohamed Salleh

Faculty of Sport Science & Recreation, Universiti Teknologi MARA, 40450 Shah Alam, Selangor, Malaysia.

Mizaton Hazizul Hasan

Faculty of Pharmacy, Universiti Teknologi MARA, 42300 Bandar Puncak Alam, Selangor, Malaysia.

Aishah Adam

Faculty of Pharmacy, Universiti Teknologi MARA, 42300 Bandar Puncak Alam, Selangor, Malaysia.

Correspondence: Razali Mohamed Salleh Faculty of Sport Science & Recreation, Universiti Teknologi MARA, 40450 Shah Alam, Selangor, Malaysia.

Phenolic compound and antioxidant levels of Prismatomeris glabra

Razali Mohamed Salleh, Mizaton Hazizul Hasan, Aishah Adam

Abstract

A decoction of the roots of Prismatomeris glabra (PG), family Rubiaceae, has been traditionally used by rural people for wellness effects. However, there are no scientific data to support the folkloric use of this plant. This research was thus conducted to determine whether aqueous extract of PG roots possess antioxidant capacity. PG extract was prepared by boiling powdered roots for 10 minutes before drying in a spray dryer. Antioxidant capacity was determined using photochemiluminescent method, DPPH radical scavenging assay, ferric reducing antioxidant power (FRAP) assay, tert-butyl hydroperoxide (tert-BOOH) induced lipid peroxidation assay and by measurement of the end product of lipid peroxidation, malondialdehyde, produced in vivo. Antioxidant studies showed that PG did not possess high antioxidant capacity as compared to phenolic antioxidant standards. In vitro, lipid- and water-soluble antioxidant capacities of PG were 36.61±1.39 µg/mg of ascorbic acid equivalent and 8.28±1.23 µg/mg of trolox equivalent, respectively. Total phenolic content of the extract was 6.82±0.71%. PG scavenged DPPH radicals, reduced ferric ions and inhibited tert-BOOH-induced lipid peroxidation with values of $239.31 \pm 70.48 \ \mu g/ml \ (EC_{50}), \ 0.298 \pm 0.026 \ \mu mol \ Fe^{2+}/mg \ and \ 188.7 \pm 15.3 \ (IC_{50}), \ respectively. In vivo,$ PG (500 mg/kg/d, p. o., acute and 7-day daily dosing) did not affect malondialdehyde levels of major organs and plasma. In conclusions, aqueous extract of PG roots possess about a third the antioxidant capacity of ascorbic acid and a tenth the antioxidant capacity of trolox, a vitamin E analogue. Thus, PG roots may not be an important source of antioxidants, although it apparently has sufficient antioxidant capacity to enhance wellness.

Keywords: Prismatomeris glabra (PG), antioxidant, phenol, root.

1. Introduction

Prismatomeris glabra (*P. glabra*) is a tropical plant which normally grows on hillsides and ridges of tropical forests at altitudes up to 700 m. The plant owns several traditional names, but is famously known as Aji Samat. It is occasionally used in wellness remedies. According to users of the plant, a decoction of its roots is traditionally used for various purposes such as alertness, to induce feeling of freshness and as illness medication. However, there is no scientific evidence to support the plant's folkloric use, which is a setback for future commercialization of this plant.

Antioxidant assay is one of the experimental studies that can be associated with investigation of wellness effects of a substance ^[1]. This is because antioxidants provide defense mechanisms against free radicals and reactive species that are formed by the body or which enter the body ^[2]. Free radicals are atoms or molecules which possess an unpaired electron in their outermost orbitals, making them highly reactive. Excessive generation of free radicals and reactive oxygen species (ROS) in excess of antioxidant capacity has been associated with many diseases such as atherosclerosis leading to incidence of stroke ^[3, 4, 5], development of cancer ^[6, 7], brain ischemia with consequent brain damage ^[8], impairment of internal organs, such as heart ^[9], kidneys ^[10], liver ^[11], pancreas ^[12] and lungs ^[13, 14], which may lead to the onset of cardiac dysfunction ^[15], kidney failure ^[10], liver failure ^[16] and diabetes ^[17]. Low antioxidant levels are also associated with lower resistance of the immune system and high susceptibility to infections ^[18]. Ability of antioxidants to protect tissues and internal organs makes them a potent class of substances in the body ^[19]. Hence, the search for new sources of antioxidants is being continuously made.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Preparation of PG Aqueous Extract

PG plants were collected from the tropical jungle in the Peninsular under supervision of jungle officers.

The plants were verified by phytologists from Forest Research Institute of Malaysia (FRIM). The plant was given a voucher code of PT/UiTM/AS1 and kept in the Faculty's herbarium. Fresh roots of the plants were chipped into small pieces within 24-48 h of collection and dried at 45 °C in the oven for three days. Dry root chips were grounded to crude powder before every 100 g of them were boiled in 1 L of distilled water for 10 minutes. The suspension from the boiling process was filtered using filter paper. The filtrate was collected and dried using laboratory spray dryer (Büchi Mini Spray Dryer B-290). PG aqueous extract powder was kept in -20 °C freezer until use.

2.2. Antioxidant analysis

Measurement of antioxidant capacity of PG extract was done *in vitro* and *in vivo*. Measurement of antioxidant activity *in vitro* was conducted for measuring lipid-soluble and watersoluble antioxidants capacity, total phenolic content, 2,2'diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl (DPPH) scavenging ability, ferric reducing antioxidant power (FRAP) and tert-butyl hydroperoxide-induced lipid peroxidation inhibition ability. Measurement of antioxidant activity *in vivo* was done by determination of MDA, a biomarker to measure the level of lipid peroxidation, in selected organs and serum of mice that were treated with PG aqueous extract.

- chemiluminescence analysis: (a) Photo Lipid-soluble antioxidants (ACL) and water-soluble antioxidants (ACW) capacities were measured using а photochemiluminescence technique (Photochem[®], Analytic Jena AG, Germany). Briefly, radicals are synthesized by ultraviolet radiation of a photosensitizer. These radicals are partially eradicated by antioxidants (samples). The remaining radicals are quantified by luminescence detector. The antioxidant samples were quantified by comparing luminescence generation of their inhibitory effect with luminescence generation of inhibitory effect of a standard antioxidant, e.g. ascorbic acid for ACW and Trolox for ACL^[20, 21, 22].
- (b) Total phenolic content analysis: Total phenolic compound was determined using Folin-Ciocalteu reagent based on an established method ^[23] using catechin as the standard antioxidant. This method is based on calorimetric technique by Lowry (1951) ^[24]. Principally, the use of Folin-Ciocalteu reagent is to react with reducing substances to form chromogens that can be detected by spectrophotometer. Phenolic content in the sample was determined from a standard curve of catechin.
- (c) DPPH radical scavenging analysis: DPPH radical scavenging assay was conducted using an established protocol ^[25]. DPPH is a stable free radical molecule that acquires delocalized electron or unpaired electron that gives rise to the dark violet color that can be detected by spectrophotometer at the absorbance of about 520 nm^{[26,} ^{27]}. When a solution of DPPH is mixed with reducing agent or antioxidant, DPPH is reduced and violet color disappears and is changed to pale yellow due to the presence of picryl group ^[27]. Results from DPPH method can be interpreted by the EC_{50} value, an efficient concentration of substrate that causes 50% loss of DPPH activity (colour), that was used by many workers [27, 28, 29, ^{30]}. Quercetin, trolox, gallic acid and ascorbic acid were used as standards, whereas ethanol was used as blank. Absorbance of blank was subtracted from sample or standard absorbance values to obtain the percentage

inhibition.

- (d) FRAP assay: FRAP analysis was performed using an established method [31]. It determines total antioxidant capacity of a sample by using antioxidants as reductants in a redox-linked colorimetric method. In principle, TPTZ (2, 4, 6-tripyridyl-s-triazine) reacts with ferrous (Fe²⁺) to form a deep blue-purple color of ferrous tripyridyl triazine (Fe II TPTZ). When FRAP working solution is prepared by mixing TPTZ with ferric chloride, ferric tripyridyl triazine (Fe III TPTZ) is formed. At acidic pH, when antioxidant sample is added into the solution. Fe III TPTZ is reduced to Fe II TPTZ. The change of color can be detected at an absorbance of 593 nm by spectrophotometer. The ability of antioxidant in the sample/standard to reduce $Fe^{3\scriptscriptstyle +}$ (FeCl_3) to $Fe^{2\scriptscriptstyle +}$ was determined by comparing absorbance of the sample/standard to the standard curve for FeSO₄.
- Tertiary-butyl hydroperoxide-induced **(e)** lipid peroxidation inhibition assay: Inhibition of tertiarybutyl hydroperoxide-induced lipid peroxidation was determined by assaying for the product of lipid malondialdehyde peroxidation, (MDA) by the thiobarbituric acid reactive substance (TBARS) method ^[24, 32, 33, 34]. Principally, MDA reacts with thiobarbituric acid (TBA) to form a 1:2 MDA-TBA adduct substance under acidic condition and high temperature (95 - 100 °C). The reactive substance can be read using spectrofluorometer at excitation wavelength of 515 nm and emission wavelength of 553nm. Percentage of inhibition was plotted against sample/control concentration in graph and concentration at 50% inhibition (IC50) of sample/control was able to be determined. A serial dilution of MDA solution was used as standard. Trolox (6-hydroxy-2, 5, 7, 8-tetramethylchroman-2-carboxylic acid, 97%) was used as positive control. Methanol was used as blank.
- Determination of organ lipid peroxidation by **(f)** malondialdehyde-thiobarbituric acid reactive substances (MDA-TBARS) assay: The use of laboratory animals in this study was approved by the university ethic board and all animals were treated in standard protocols. Eighteen healthy Mus musculus mice were selected and randomly divided into 2 groups which were labeled for control (n=9) and PG-treated (n=9) groups. Control group was treated with 0.1 ml/10 g p.o./day of 0.9% normal saline for 7 days. PG-treated group was given a dose of 500 mg/kg of PG aqueous extract by administrating the group with 0.1 ml/10g p.o./day of 50 mg/ml PG dissolved in 0.9% normal saline for 7 days. Chow and water were given ad libitum. Mice were maintained under standard condition with 12h-12h of light and dark cycle. On the 8th day, mice were sacrificed through cervical dislocation following minimal anaesthetic. While heart was still pumping, blood was immediately collected through cardiac puncture and kept into heparin tube and glass test tube. Lung, heart, liver and kidneys were harvested and weighed. Blood was centrifuged at $300 \ge g$ for 15 min for separation of plasma. The organs were homogenized for a few seconds before they were centrifuged at 4 °C and for 15 min to separate the supernatant from the pellet. Supernatant was taken up and kept in -80 °C freezer before further analysis. Determination of lipid peroxidation in these organs using MDA as marker was based on previously established method ^[33]. MDA plasma

was measured using high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) based on established method ^[35, 36].

2.3. Statistical analysis

Data were expressed as mean \pm SD. Independent-samples ttest was used for selected comparisons between samples. Alpha value was set *a priori* at *p*<0.05.

3. Results

3.1. Lipid- and water-soluble antioxidant and total phenolic content of PG

The lipid- and water-soluble antioxidant capacity of PG aqueous extract was $36.61\pm1.39 \ \mu g$ trolox equivalent/mg (n=4) and $8.28\pm1.23 \ \mu g$ ascorbic acid equivalent/mg (n=4), respectively. Total phenolic content of PG extract was $68.2\pm7.1 \ m g$ catechin equivalent/g (n=3).

3.2. Scavenging DPPH radical by PG

EC₅₀ of PG root extract at scavenging DPPH radicals was 239.31±70.48 µg/mL. The EC₅₀ of PG was compared with those of antioxidant pure compounds, namely trolox, ascorbic acid, gallic acid and quercetin. The EC₅₀ values for trolox, ascorbic acid, gallic acid and quercetin were 7.65±0.50, 7.51±0.61, 7.17±1.341, 8.43±0.69 µg/ml, respectively. EC₅₀ for scavenging of DPPH radicals by PG extract was about 30 times larger than those of the pure antioxidant compounds, indicating that PG was much less potent than these pure compounds.

3.3. Ferric reducing antioxidant power (FRAP) of PG

Ferric reducing antioxidant power (FRAP) of PG root extract was compared to those of pure compounds, viz, trolox, gallic acid and curcumin at same concentration of 100 µg/ml. FRAP values for PG (0.298±0.026 µmol Fe²⁺/mg) was very low when compared to reducing power of gallic acid (16.565±0.695 µmol Fe²⁺/mg), trolox (7.461±0.421 µmol Fe²⁺/mg) or curcumin (4.723±0.325 µmol Fe²⁺/mg).

3.4. Inhibition of tertiary-butyl hydroperoxide induced lipid peroxidation by PG

PG extract elicited concentration-dependent inhibition of tertiary-butyl hydroperoxide (*tert*-BOOH)-induced lipid peroxidation. A concentration of 1000 µg/mL elicited more than 85% inhibition of *tert*-BOOH-induced lipid peroxidation. Percentage inhibition of *tert*-BOOH-induced lipid peroxidation of between 20 to 40% was achieved with PG concentrations of 10 and 100 µg/mL, respectively. Median inhibitory concentration (IC₅₀) of PG was compared to those of antioxidant standards, trolox and quercetin. PG extract was not as potent as trolox or quercetin at inhibition of lipid peroxidation induced by *tert*-BOOH. IC₅₀ values of trolox and quercetin were about 20 and 90 fold smaller than that of PG root extract.

3.5. In vivo antioxidant assay of PG

To determine if PG extract exerted antioxidant activity *in vivo*, mice were sub-acutely dosed with the extract (500 mg/kg, p.o./day) for 7 days. Levels of malondialdehyde (MDA), a short chain aldehyde which is a product of lipid peroxidation, were measured in organs after 7 days of repeated treatments. The data showed MDA of control and PG-treated groups to be similar. In both groups, highest MDA level was seen in heart followed by lung, kidney and liver (Figure 1). Even though

MDA in kidney, heart and lung of controls appeared higher than those of PG-treated group, the difference was not significant. Plasma MDA levels of both control and PG-treated groups after daily treatment for 7 days were also similar (Figure 2).

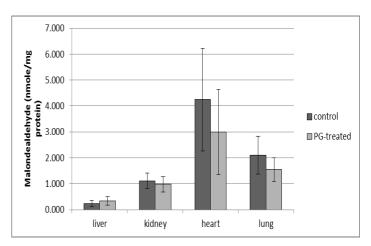


Fig 1: MDA level (nmol/mg protein) in liver, kidney, heart and lung of control and PG-treated mice after daily treatment for 7 days. Mean±S.D. (n=9 per group). No significant difference between groups (p>0.05, unpaired t-test).

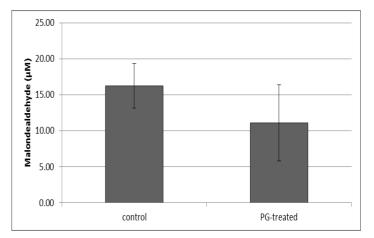


Fig 2: Plasma MDA level of the control and PG-treated mice after daily treatment for 7 days (sub-acute). Mean±S.D. (n=9 per group). No significant difference between groups (p>0.05, unpaired t-test).

4. Discussion

Lipid-soluble antioxidant capacity of PG aqueous extract was 36.61±1.39 µg trolox equivalent (TE)/mg, whereas its watersoluble antioxidant capacity was 8.28±1.23 µg acid ascorbic equivalent (AAE)/mg. Both values were expressed based on dry weight of PG extract. However, when both values were recalculated based on dry weight of PG roots, they were 20 fold lower than the respective values based on dry weight of extract. From the process of preparing a decoction of dry PG roots, approximately only 70% of aqueous solution was recovered after filtration. This filtrate was spray dried which resulted in recovery of approximately 3.5% of dry powder. If these antioxidant capacities are expressed in mmol/100 g, lipid soluble and water soluble antioxidant capacities would be equivalent to 0.731 mmol/100 g and 0.235 mmol/100 g of dry root, respectively. When these values are combined, total antioxidant capacity of PG root is 0.966 mmol/100 g of dry

root. A comparison of this value to antioxidant capacities of other plant sources such as cereals, vegetables and fruits ^[37, 38] showed that the antioxidant capacity of PG root to be fair.

Dried roots of PG were boiled at a concentration of 100 g per litre of distilled water for extraction.

Thus, lipid- and water-soluble antioxidant capacities of PG can also be expressed as 0.731 and 0.235 mmol/L, respectively. Antioxidant content equivalent to ascorbic acid (AAE) of PG root aqueous extract was four times lower than antioxidant capacities of various green teas, but similar to Chinese oolong and African roibos ^[39].

Total phenolic content of PG root aqueous extract equivalent to milligram of catechin (catechin equivalent, CE) was 68.2 ± 7.1 mg/g of sample or $6.82\pm0.71\%$ of CE in weight per weight percentage. Based on dry root weight, total phenolic content was 3.4 ± 0.4 mg CE/g or $0.34\pm0.04\%$. There was no previous data on phenolic content of PG roots. PG total phenolic content that was expressed per 100g of dry root, was 340 mg CE. This figure is much higher than that of water extract of tropical fruits such as pineapple, banana (*Pisang mas*) and guava and other sources ^[41, 42, 43]. Phenolic content can be categorized into high, moderate or low at values of 486, 133 or 10 mg/kg, respectively ^[40]. Based on this category, phenolic content of PG is considered high.

DPPH is a stable radical and in the presence of a substance that can donate an electron or a hydrogen atom, i.e. an antioxidant, DPPH is changed to non-radical form ^[26]. This is shown by a change in colour from purple to yellow and can be measured by a decreased in absorbance at 517 nm. In alcoholic solution, DPPH radical (purple coloured) absorbance which can be read at 517 nm, disappears when antioxidants scavenge the radicals by donating hydrogen atoms to become a stable diamagnetic molecule of diphenyl-picrylhydrazine (yellow colour), thus allowing determination of antiradical power of antioxidants ^[44, 45]. The median effective concentration value, EC₅₀, is used to indicate efficacy of antioxidant scavengers of DPPH radicals. EC₅₀ is defined as the concentration of substrate that causes 50% loss of the DPPH activity ^[27] and is used by many ^[46, 47, 48].

PG inner root skin is orange in colour. When PG roots were boiled, the colour of the decoction ranged from dark orange to brown. Reconstitution of samples of aqueous extract of PG produced solutions that were normally orange in colour. Therefore, during assay, colour factor of sample was subtracted by use of a colour blank at each PG concentration. EC₅₀ of PG root extract for inhibition of DPPH radicals was 239.31±70.48 µg/mL. Effect of PG on scavenging DPPH was compared with that of antioxidant pure compounds i.e. trolox, ascorbic acid, gallic acid and quercetin (Table 4). EC₅₀ of PG root extract was about 30 times larger than those of antioxidant pure compounds, indicating that its potency as scavenger of DPPH radicals was about 3 folds lower. However, when DPPH radical scavenging activity of PG root extract was compared to other antioxidant sources [48, 49, 50, 51, 52, 53, 54, 55]. PG shows comparable ability of scavenging activity.

Even though DPPH is a stable radical, its stock solution can slowly deteriorate ^[26]. To overcome this, the assay is best conducted under a nitrogen atmosphere and if a burette is used, it should be covered with aluminium foil ^[27]. This should reduce loss of DPPH free radicals up to about 2 - 4 percent a week ^[27]. To overcome difficulties associated with decomposition of DPPH stock solution, freshly prepared solutions were used. Furthermore, DPPH assay was done under dim-light and test tubes were covered with aluminium foil. DPPH was incubated with samples for 10 minutes. This incubation period was within the range of reaction times (from 5 to 30 min) that were practiced by previous workers; 5 min ^[28]; 10 min ^[29]; 30 min ^[26, 30]. Reaction time is influenced by types of substrates and antioxidants ^[56, 57].

FRAP assay is the only assay that directly measures reducing ability of a sample in a redox-linked colorimetric reaction. An antioxidant is an electron-donating reductant, thus FRAP assay was used to determine reducing power of an antioxidant substrate ^[37]. In this assay, colourless ferric ion (Fe³⁺) was oxidized by antioxidant to form ferrous ion (Fe^{2+}) which later formed blue-coloured Fe²⁺/TPTZ complex. Colour absorbance of the complex was read at 593 nm, it may change according to reduction intensity of sample ^[42]. Ferric reducing power of PG root extract was 0.298 ± 0.026 µmole Fe²⁺/mg or 29.8±2.6 mmole Fe²⁺/100g of dry weight. FRAP value of PG root extract was about a fold lower than of curcumin and about 20 and 50 times lower than trolox (vitamin E analogue) and gallic acid, respectively. When FRAP value of PG was recalculated based on raw sample, FRAP was equivalent to 1.49 mmole $Fe^{2+}/100$ g dry weight of roots, which is comparable to other sources of antioxidants [37, 38, 42].

Aqueous extract of PG roots demonstrated more than 85% inhibition of lipid peroxidation at 1000 μ g/mL. From concentration-response curves, trolox elicited 50% inhibition (IC₅₀) of lipid peroxidation at 8.4±0.7 μ g/mL while IC₅₀ for PG was 188.7±15.3 μ g/mL. Inhibition of lipid peroxidation by PG was concentration-dependent. Although not as potent as trolox at inhibiting lipid peroxidation, PG demonstrated comparable effects to other natural sources ^[2, 49, 53].

PG root extract was administered sub-acutely (daily treatment for 7 days) to mice for determination of antioxidant activity in vivo. Mice were dosed every day with PG at 500 mg/kg body weight p.o.. Following subacute dosing, mice were killed and malondialdehyde (MDA), a short chain aldehyde which is an end product of lipid peroxidation was measured in organs using the thiobarbituric acid reducing substances (TBARS) assay. This assay is a valid measure of MDA as most of TBARS is MDA and can be efficiently determined using spectrophotometry or spectrofluorometry ^[58, 59]. TBARS levels in plasma and organs of PG-treated mice were not significantly different from control following sub-acute treatment. TBARS levels in organs and plasma of the control group was only slightly higher than those of PG-treated group giving no indication that PG had a protective effect in organs. However, since animals used in this study were not induced with oxidative stress by use of pro-oxidative agents, the actual protective effect afforded by PG extract was not truly studied.

Amongst villagers, the traditional way of taking PG is to first cut freshly collected roots into small chips which are then dried for a few days in the sun. Infusion of dried root chips is prepared by boiling for several minutes. The liquid obtained is filtered before it is taken. Normally the root chips are reboiled and reused until the brownish colour of the filtrate has disappeared. To prepare an aqueous extract of PG roots, this traditional process was followed except that the filtrate was immediately dried prior to storage. Furthermore, root chips were not reused.

Usage of PG roots as a traditional remedy for maintenance of health and for wellness is most likely associated with its antioxidant capacity which was first time measured in this study. PG roots have higher antioxidant capacity when compared on a weight to weight basis to many fruits and vegetables. Total antioxidant capacity of dried, freshly collected roots was comparable to those of many vegetables and was higher than some fruits. Preparation of aqueous extract of PG roots resulted in enhancement of total antioxidant capacity as the extract was about 21 times more active than the dried, freshly collected roots. Green tea is a well known source of antioxidants ^[60]. In comparison to green tea, antioxidant capacity in terms of ascorbic acid equivalents of the dried, freshly collected roots was about 2 magnitudes lower (~ 0.2 vs 20 mmol AAE/L). Total phenolic content is a measure of reducing power ^[61, 62, 63]. Total phenolic content of PG was about a magnitude higher (340 vs ~ 30 mg CE/100 g) than those of common beverages viz tea, coffee or cocoa. In terms of DPPH radical scavenging, aqueous extract of PG roots showed comparable activity to methanolic extract of herbs (C. asiatica, T. foenumgraceum, P. alba), about a magnitude lower scavenging activity of P. niruri (200 vs ~ 20 µg/mL) and about half that of roots of *P. grandiflora*. Another measure of reducing power as an indicator of antioxidant activity is determined via FRAP assay. FRAP value of aqueous extract of PG roots was about 2 magnitudes lower than those of reference pure compounds $(0.3 \text{ vs } 7 \text{ or } 5 \text{ } \mu\text{mole})$ Fe²⁺/mg). On the other hand, FRAP value of aqueous extract of PG roots was 2 magnitudes higher than those of tea/coffee/cocoa (30 vs 0.3 µmole Fe²⁺/mg) and a magnitude higher than those of vegetables (30 vs 3 or 2 μ mole Fe²⁺/mg). A reference standard of antioxidant activity is lipid peroxidation inhibitory activity [64, 65]. Lipid peroxidation is a condition whereby lipid is oxidized by radicals or reactive oxygen species leading to oxidative stress and cell damage ^[66]. In absence or reduced capacity of protective mechanisms i.e. antioxidants, pro-oxidant effects predominate leading to development of oxidative stress ^[67]. In the laboratory, lipid peroxidation can be induced by many chemicals and can be seen in many types of tissue injuries ^[68]. In this study, tertbutyl hydroperoxide was used as lipid peroxidation inducer in rat liver microsomes. PG root extract demonstrated high protective ability against peroxidation at 1000 µg/mL. Lipid peroxidation inhibitory activity of aqueous extract of PG roots was comparable to those of pure flavonoid compounds of R. alaternus and twice the activity of extracts of P. alba, S. androgynus and D. hamiltonii roots. In comparison to reference antioxidant pure compounds i.e. trolox and vitamin C, PG was about 23 to 12 times, respectively, less active at inhibition of microsomal lipid peroxidation.

5. References

- 1. Kennedy ET. Evidence for nutritional benefits in prolonging wellness. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 2006; 6(83):410S-414S.
- 2. Ben Ammar R, Bhouri W, Ben Sghaier M, Boubaker J, Skandrani I, Neffati A *et al.* Antioxidant and free radicalscavenging properties of three flavonoids isolated from the leaves of *Rhamnus alaternus L.* (Rhamnaceae): A structure-activity relationship study. Food Chemistry 2009; 116:258–264.
- 3. Li Z, Mao HZ, Abboud FM, Chapleau MW. Oxygenderived free radicals contribute to baroreceptor dysfunction in atherosclerotic rabbits. Circulation Research 1996; 79:802–811.
- Ammar Jr RF, Gutterman DD, Brooks LA, Dellsperger KC. Free radicals mediate endothelial dysfunction of coronary arterioles in diabetes. Cardiovascular Research 2000; 47:595–601.
- 5. El Kossi MMH, Zakhary MM. Oxidative stress in the

context of acute cerebrovascular stroke. Stroke 2000; 31:1889–1892.

- Valko M, Rhodes CJ, Moncol J, Izakovic M, Mazur M. Free radicals, metals and antioxidants in oxidative stressinduced cancer. Chemico-Biological Interactions 2006; 160:1–40.
- Soobrattee MA, Bahorun T, Aruoma OI. Chemopreventive actions of polyphenolic compound in cancer. Biofactors 2006; 27:19–35.
- 8. Floyd RA. Role of oxygen free radicals in carcinogenesis and brain ischemia. FASEB Journal 1990; 4:2587–2597.
- 9. Zweier JL. Measurement of superoxide-derived free radicals in the reperfused heart. Journal of Biological Chemistry 1988; 263(3):1363–1357.
- Zhong Z, Arteel GE, Connor HD, Yin M, Frankenberg MV, Stachlewitz RF *et al.* Cyclosporin A increases hypoxia and free radical production in rat kidneys: prevention by dietary glycine. American Journal of Physiology 1998; 275(Renal Physiol 44):F595–F604.
- 11. Poli G. Liver damage due to free radicals. British Medical Bulletin 1993; 49(3):604–620.
- 12. Schoenberg MH, Birk D, Beger HG. Oxidative stress in acute and chronic pancreatitis. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition 1995; 62:1306S–1314S.
- 13. Taylor CG, Bray TM. Effect of hyperoxia on oxygen free radical defence enzymes in the lung of zinc-deficient rats. Journal of Nutrition 1991; 121:460–466.
- Arimoto T, Kadiiska MB, Sato K, Corbett J, Mason RP. Synergistic production of lung free radicals by diesel exhaust particles and endotoxin. American Journal of Respiratory and Critical Care Medicine 2005; 171:379– 387.
- 15. Supinski GS, Callahan LA. Diaphragmatic free radical generation increases in an animal model of heart failure. Journal of Applied Physiology 2005; 99:1078–1084.
- 16. Anderson KM, Harris JE. Selected features of nonendocrine pancreatic cancer. Experimental Biology and Medicine 2001; 226(6):521–537.
- 17. Tabatabaie T, Vasquez-Weldon A, Moore DR, Kotake Y. Free radicals and the pathogenesis of type 1 diabetes – cell cytokine-mediated free radical generation via cyclooxygenase-2. Diabetes 2003; 52:1994–1999.
- Kashima K, Sato N, Sato K, Shimizu H and Mori M. Effect of epalrestat, an aldose reductase inhibitor, on the generation of oxygen-derived free radicals in neutrophils from streptozotocin-induced diabetic rats. Endocrinology 1998; 139:3404–3408.
- Konishi T. Brain oxidative stress as basic target of antioxidant traditional oriental medicines. Neurochemical Research 2009; 34:711–716.
- 20. Lewin G, Popov I. Photochemiluminescent detection of antiradical activity; III: a simple assay of ascorbate in blood plasma. Journal of Biochemistry and Biophysics Methods 1994; 28:277–282.
- 21. Popov I, Lewin G. Photochemiluminescent detection of antiradical activity; IV: testing of lipid-soluble antioxidants. Journal of Biochemistry and Biophysics Methods 1996; 31:1–8.
- Popov I, Lewin G. Oxidants and Antioxidants Part B Antioxidative homeostasis: characterization by means of chemiluminescent technique. Methods Enzymology 1999; 300:437–456.
- 23. Singleton VL, Rossi JA. Colorimetry of total phenolics with phosphomolybdic-phosphotungstic acid reagents.

American Journal of Enology and Viticulture 1965; 16:416-417.

- 24. Lowry OH, Rosebrough NJ, Farr AL, Randall RJ. Protein measurement with folin/ phenol reagent. Journal of Biological Chemistry 1951; 193:265-275.
- 25. Atsumi T, Iwakura I, Kashiwagi Y, Fujisawa S, Ueha T. Free radical scavenging activity in the non-enzymatic fraction of human saliva: a simple DPPH assay showing the effect of physical exercise. Antioxidants and Redox Signaling 1999; 1:537–546.
- 26. Blois MS. Antioxidant determinations by the use of a stable free radical. Nature 1958; 26:1199–1200.
- 27. Molyneux P. The use of the stable free radical diphenylpicrylhydrazyl (DPPH) for estimating antioxidant activity. Songklanakarin Journal of Science and Technology 2004; 26(2):211-219.
- 28. Lebeau J, Furman C, Bernier JL, Duriez P, Teissier E, Cotelle N. Antioxidant properties of di-tertbutylhydroxylated flavonoids. Free Radical Biology and Medicine 2000; 29(9):900–912.
- 29. Schwarz K, Bertelsen G, Nissen LR, Gardner PT, Heinonen MI, Hopia A *et al.* Investigation of plant extracts for the protection of processed foods against lipid oxidation. Comparison of antioxidant assays based on radical scavenging, lipid oxidation and analysis of the principal antioxidant compounds. European Food Research and Technology 2001; 212:319–328.
- 30. Kim JK, Noh JH, Lee S, Choi JS, Suh H, Chung HY *et al.* The first total synthesis of 2,3,6-tribromo-4,5dihydroxybenzyl methyl ether (TDB) and its antioxidant activity. Bulletin Korean Chemical Society 2002; 23(5):661–662.
- 31. Benzie IFF, Strain JJ. Ferric reducing/Antioxidant power assay: direct measure of total antioxidant activity of biological fluids and modified version for simultaneous measurement of total antioxidant power and ascorbic acid concentration. Methods Enzymology 1999; 299:15–27.
- 32. Cadenas E, Ginsberg M, Rabe U and Sies H. Evaluation of tocopherol antioxidant activity in microsomal lipid peroxidation as detected by low-level chemiluminescence. Biochemistry Journal 1984; 223:755-759.
- Ledwozyw A, Michalak J, Stepich A, Kadziolka A. The relationship between plasma triglyceride, cholesterol, total lipids and lipid peroxidation products during human atherosclerosis. Clinica Chimica Acta 1986; 155:275-284.
- 34. Fauconneau B, Waffo-Teguo P, Huguet F, Barrier L, Decendit A, Merillon JM. Comparative study of radical scavenger and antoxidant properies of phenolic compounds from *Vitis vinifera* cell cultures using *in vitro* tests. Life Sciences 1997; 61:2103-2110.
- 35. Hong YL, Yeh SL, Chang CY, Hu ML. Total plasma malondialdehyde levels in 16 Taiwanese college students determined by various thiobarbituric acid tests and an improved high-performance liquid chromatography-based method. Clinical Biochemistry 2000; 33(8):619–625.
- 36. Pilz J, Meineke I, Gleiter CH. Measurement of free and bound malondialdehyde in plasma by high-performance liquid chromatography as the 2,4-dinitrophenylhydrazine derivative. Journal Chromatography B: Biomedical Sciences Applications 2000; 742(2):315-325.
- Halvorsen BL, Holte K, Myhrstad MCW, Barikmo I, Hvattum E, Remberg SF *et al.* A systematic screening of total antioxidants in dietary plants. Journal of Nutrition 2002; 132:461–471.

- 38. Pellegrini N, Serafini M, Colombi B, del Rio D, Salvatore S, Bianchi M *et al.* Total antioxidant capacity of plant foods, beverages and oils consumed in Italy assessed by three different *in vitro* assays. Journal of Nutrition 2003; 133:2812–2819.
- 39. Vertuani S, Bosco E, Braccioli E, Manfredini S. Water soluble antioxidant capacity of different teas – determination by photochemiluminescence. Nutrafoods 2004; 3(2):5-11.
- 40. Weinbrenner T, Fitó M, de la Torre R, Saez GT, Rijken P, Tormos C *et al.* Olive oils high in phenolic compounds modulate oxidative/antioxidative status in men. Journal of Nutrition 2004; 134:2314–2321.
- 41. Alothman M, Bhat R, Karim AA. Antioxidant capacity and phenolic content of selected tropical fruits from Malaysia, extracted with different solvents. Food Chemistry 2009; 115:785–788.
- 42. Abbe Maleyki MJ, Azrina A, Amin I. Assessment of antioxidant capacity and phenolic content of selected commercial beverages. Malaysian Journal of Nutrition 2007; 13(2):149–159.
- 43. Shaiban M, al-Mamary M, al-Habori M. Total antioxidant activity and total phenolic contents in Yemeni smoked cheese. Ma1aysian Journal of Nutrition 2006; 12(1):87-92.
- 44. Matthäus B. Antioxidant activity of extracts obtained from residues of different oilseeds. Journal Agriculture and Food Chemistry 2002; 50:3444–3452.
- 45. Gülçin İ. Antioxidant activity of caffeic acid (3,4dihydroxycinnamic acid). Toxicology 2006; 217:213–220.
- 46. Brand-Williams W, Cuvelier ME, Berset C. Use of a free radical method to evaluate antioxidant activity. Food Science and Technology 1995; 28:25–30.
- 47. Xu J, Chen S and Hu Q. Antioxidant activity of brown pigment and extracts from black sesame seed (*Sesamum indicum L.*). Food Chemistry 2005; 91:79–83.
- 48. Rocha-Guzmán NE, Gallegos-Infante JA, González-Laredo RF, Reynoso-Camacho, R, Ramos-Gómez M, Garcia-Gasca T *et al.* Antioxidant activity and genotoxic effect on HeLa cells of phenolic compounds from infusions of *Quercus resinosa* leaves. Food Chemistry 2009; 115:1320–1325.
- 49. Subhasree B, Baskar R, Keerthana RL, Susan RL, Rajasekaran P. Evaluation of antioxidant potential in selected green leafy vegetables. Food Chemistry 2009; 115:1213–1220.
- Sun YP, Chou CC, Yu RC. Antioxidant activity of lacticfermented Chinese cabbage. Food Chemistry 2009; 115:912–917.
- 51. Harish R, Shivanandappa T. Antioxidant activity and hepatoprotective potential of *Phyllanthus niruri*. Food Chemistry 2006; 95:180–185.
- 52. Mau JL, Tsai SY, Tseng YH, Huang SJ. Antioxidant properties of methanolic extracts from *Ganoderma tsugae*. Food Chemistry 2005; 93:641–649.
- 53. Srivastava A, Harish SR, Shivanandappa T. Antioxidant activity of the roots of *Decalepis hamiltonii* (Wight & Arn.). LWT 2006; 39:1059–1065.
- 54. Zhao GR, Xiang ZJ, Ye TX, Yuan YJ, Guo ZX. Antioxidant activities of *Salvia miltiorrhiza* and *Panax notoginseng*. Food Chemistry 2006; 99:767–774.
- 55. Lee JY, Hwang WI, Lima ST. Antioxidant and anticancer activities of organic extracts from *Platycodon grandiflorum* A. De Candolle roots. Journal of

Ethnopharmacology 2004; 93:409-415.

- Bondet V, Brand-Williams W, Berset C. Kinetics and mechanisms of antioxidant activity using the DPPH• free radical method. Food Science and Technology 1997; 30:609–615.
- 57. Sánchez-Moreno C, Larrauri JA, Saura-Calixto F. Free radical scavenging capacity and inhibition of lipid oxidation of wines, grape juices and related polyphenolic constituents. Food Research International 1999; 32:407–412.
- 58. Valenzuela A. The biological significance of malondialdehyde determination in the assessment of tissue oxidative stress. Life Sciences 1991; 48(4):301–309.
- 59. Repetto M, Semprine J, Boveris A. Lipid peroxidation: chemical mechanism, biological implications and analytical determination. In Tech 2012; 1:3–30.
- Cabrera C, Artacho R, Giménez R. Beneficial effects of green tea—a review. J American College of Nutrition 2006; 25(2):79–99.
- 61. Mousavinejad G, Emam-Djomeh Z, Rezaei K, Khodaparast MHH. Identification and quantification of phenolic compounds and their effects on antioxidant activity in pomegranate juices of eight Iranian cultivars. Food Chemistry 2009; 115:1274–1278.
- 62. Froehlicher T, Hennebelle T, Martin-Nizard F, Cleenewerck P, Hilbert JL, Trotin F *et al.* Phenolic profiles and antioxidative effects of hawthorn cell suspensions, fresh fruits, and medicinal dried parts. Food Chemistry 2009; 115:897–903.
- 63. Song FL, Gan RY, Zhang Y, Xiao Q, Kuang L, Li HB. Total phenolic contents and antioxidant capacities of selected Chinese medicinal plants. International Journal of Molecular Sciences 2010; 11(6):2362-2372.
- 64. Wood LG, Gibson PG, Garg ML. Biomarkers of lipid peroxidation, airway inflammation and asthma. European Respiratory Journal 2003; 21:177-186.
- 65. Ray S, De K, Sengupta C, Roy K. QSAR study of lipid peroxidation-inhibition potential of some phenolic antioxidants. Indian Journal of Biochemistry and Biophysics 2008; 45:198–205.
- 66. Halliwell B, Gutteridge JMC. Free Radicals in Biology and Medicine, Edn 3, Clarendon Press, Oxford, 1999.
- 67. Sies H. Oxidative stress: Introductory remarks. Oxidative Stress, Sies, H (Ed.). Academic, New York, 1985, 1-7.
- 68. Oliveira AA, Almeida JPC, Freitas RM, Nascimento VS, Aguiar LMV, Júnior HVN *et al.* Effects of Levetiracetam in lipid peroxidation level, nitrite–nitrate formation and antioxidant enzymatic activity in mice brain after pilocarpine-induced seizures. Cellular and Molecular Neurobiology 2007; 27(3):395-406.