



## Bioassay-guided evaluation of herbal drugs and medicinal plants

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### ABSTRACT

Many important drugs are derived from compounds originally discovered in plants, and there is now increasing interest in searching for new therapeutically useful molecules from natural sources. The naturally occurring compound will, in all likelihood, only provide the starting point for development of analogues, but the most important step in the discovery process is the identification of this source of interesting biological activity. Several approaches to discovery of activities are outlined below. The ethnobotanical route, Bioassay guided serendipity, Straight serendipity, Exploitation of chemotaxonomic knowledge, Investigations based on chemical ecology. The examples are taken from higher plants, but should be remembered that bio active molecules can be found from many other sources of biological material for investigation eg) pteridophytes, fungi, algae, marine organisms and animal venoms.

**Keywords:** Bioassay, Herbal Drugs, Medicinal Plants.

### INTRODUCTION

The resource of biological material for investigation is virtually unlimited. With higher plants alone, current estimates are that the world contains between 250, 000 and 350,000 species, while in total there may be as many as 30 million species of all types. Therefore, many plants may have the capacity for producing many more secondary metabolites than they normally do. The possibilities of stimulating quiescent synthetic pathways could lead to a further expansion of the natural product library. Prospects of herbal research: There is a worldwide “green” resolution, which is reflected in the belief that herbal remedies are safer and less damaging to the human body than synthetic drugs. Furthermore, underlying this upsurge of interest in plants is the fact that many important drugs in use today were derived from plants (or) from starting molecules of plant origin. Digoxine/digitoxin, thevinka alkaloids, reserpine and tubocurarine are some important examples. Plants have also yielded molecules, which are extremely valuable tools in the characterisation of enzymes and the classification of receptor systems where physostigmine, morphine, muscarine, atropine, nicotine and are important examples.

Virtually every human society evolved an indigenous health care system to cope with illness. In western technologically advanced societies, traditional pre-science notions of the causes of disease and how to manage it have given way to modern ideas based on scientific biomedical theories. In the less technologically developed societies, traditional modes of thought still dominates the forms of medical practice seen in those societies. We mustn't ignore the thought behind these systems for 2 reasons.

First, it is the continued use of plants for the treatment of disease in these systems that have invigorated our interest in phytotherapy.

Second, the experience from cultural practices of medicine can often be of value in the bio medical scientist's search for understanding of complex aspects of healing [1].

#### Bioassay-guided evaluation of *Dioscorea villosa* (DV)

*Dioscorea villosa* (DV) has been used in Brazil as an alternative medicine to attenuate menopause symptoms, as well as for the treatment of joint pain and rheumatoid arthritis. In spite of the popular use of DV for the treatment of various disorders, there are limited scientific data regarding safety aspects of this herb. In this regard, we carried out to evaluated both antinociceptive and anti-inflammatory activities in

experimental models and assess the toxic effects of the acute (single dose) and subchronic (30 days) oral administration of dry extract of *Dioscorea villosa* in rodents [2].

## Methodology

The LC analyses were performed to assess the presence of the diosgenin in samples of DV. The antinociceptive study of DV was performed using models of acetic acid-induced writhing and formalin-induced pain in mice. The anti- inflammatory study was accomplished by leukocyte migration to the peritoneal cavity. A dry extract of DV was tested at doses of 100, 200 and 400 mg/kg (per os or p.o.). The toxicological properties of the dry extract were evaluated by toxicity assays of acute (5 g/kg, single dose) and subchronic (1 g/kg/day, 30 days) treatment. Haematological, biochemical, and histopathological parameters were studied. The results are expressed as mean  $\pm$  S.D., and statistical analysis of the data were performed with the Student's t-test or one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by Tukey's test. In all cases differences were considered significant if  $p < 0.05$  [3].

## RESULTS

HPLC-DAD analysis of the extract from DV revealed the presence of diosgenin as the major compound. Doses of 200 and 400 mg/kg significantly reduced the amount of acetic acid- induced writhing in relation to the vehicle ( $p < 0.0001$ ). In the first phase, using the formalin-induced neurogenic pain test, only the 400 mg/kg dose of DV showed significant inhibition of neurogenic pain ( $p < 0.001$ ). In the second phase, 200 and 400 mg/kg of DV showed significant inhibition of inflammatory pain ( $p < 0.0001$ ). Significant inhibition of leukocyte migration was observed with doses of 100 ( $p < 0.001$ ), 200 ( $p < 0.01$ ) and 400 mg/kg ( $p < 0.01$ ). Haematological, biochemical and histopathological data obtained in both acute and subchronic toxicological assays revealed only unremarkable changes, which are unlikely to indicate DV toxicity with oral administration. We found that DV possesses antinociceptive and anti-inflammatory properties in rodent models. In addition, no acute or subchronic toxicity was evident when the herbal extract was administered orally. These results supporting the folkloric usage of the plant to treat various inflammatory diseases [4, 5].

### Bioassay Guided Evaluation of Medicinal Plant (*Pseudelephantopus Spicatus*)

#### Material and Methods

##### Collection of Plant Material

For the purpose of botanical identification, small branches or twigs with reproductive structures, healthy leaves, stipules, bark and wood samples from each plant were collected in duplicate following accurate documentation. Mature *P. spicatus* leaves were collected from

##### Preparation of Plant Extract

For the preparation of the crude extract, about 2-3kg of plant or plant parts were cleaned by washing with tap water followed by distilled water. The sample was air-dried for about 2-3 weeks, and the dried samples were pulverized using a sterile electricblender. The half portion of the

pulverized leaves was soaked in pure absolute ethanol, and the other was soaked in 50:50 ethanol-water mixtures for three days. Each solution was filtered with Whatman No. 1 filterpaper and concentrated at 40°-50°C under reduced pressure using the rotary evaporator [21]. For the preparation of the plant decoction, about 1 kg fresh and clean samples of the plant were cut into pieces and boiled insufficient amount of distilled water (1:2 ratio) for 5 minutes. The mixture was filtered, cooled and stored in glass containers and freeze-dried until all the water was removed to give concentrated decoction. It was then kept until required. Stock solutions were prepared. Thirty milligrams of dried samples from decoction, crude ethanol extract and crude ethanol-water extract, were dissolved with 3000 ppm ethanol and distilled water respectively and then sonicated to dissolve the dried samples. From the stock solution, 10, 100, 500, and 1000 ppm concentrations were prepared by the addition of 5 ppm, 50 ppm, 250 ppm and 500 ppm of solution, respectively in a 20 mL test tube. Addition of a minimal amount of dimethylsulfoxide (DMSO) was done to completely dissolve the solution in each test tube.

#### Brine Shrimp Lethality Bioassay: Hatching of Brine

**Shrimp:** Brine shrimp (*Artemia salina*) lethality bioassay was carried out to investigate the cytotoxicity of extracts of medicinal

plants. Artificial seawater was prepared by dissolving 40 grams of natural table salt in every liter of distilled water. Sea water was kept in a small tank, and *A. salina* eggs were added to the divided tank [21]. Constant temperature (around 37° C) was maintained and constant supply of oxygen was carried out. Brine shrimps were allowed to mature and hatch as nauplii for two days. The newly hatched shrimp was collected using a dropper.

#### Assay Proper

Ten brine shrimp larvae were introduced into each sample vials containing different concentrations of the extracts. Seawater was added to make a total volume of 5 ml.

The vials were maintained under illumination. Survivors were counted after 6, and 24 hours and the deaths at control and each dose level were determined [6].

#### Lethal concentration Determination

After 6h and 24h, the lethal concentrations of the *P. spicatus* extract resulting to 50% mortality of the brine shrimp (LC50) were determined. Then, by means of a trendline fit linear regression analysis (MS Excel version 7) the dose-response data were transformed into a straight line. From the best-fit line obtained the LC50 was derived.

**Statistical Analysis:** Reed-Muench statistical method was used to determine the relative toxicity of the *P. spicatus* extracts to living organisms. It was done by testing the response of *A. salina* under various concentrations of the extract. LC50 represents the dose lethal to the half members of the *A. salina*. This was determined by plotting the mortality

(y-axis) versus log of concentration (x-axis). The concentration that rendered 50% mortality was the LC50.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

*spicatus* extracts on the brine shrimp after 6 and 24-hour exposure. The extract obtained from decoction and ethanol-water extract exhibited no lethality on the brine shrimps at any of the concentrations at 6h and 24h. The brine shrimps were still actively moving, and no signs of behavioral changes were observed. Crude plant extract with LC50 value of less than 1000 ppm is toxic while non-toxic (inactive) if it is higher than 1000 ppm<sup>20</sup>. Since the LC50 in the both of this extract taken from decoction and ethanol-water mixture was higher than 1000 ppm, it was considered inactive. It may be because the active components present in the *P. spicatus* were not extracted through the two methods mentioned above. Even though decoction process is economical due to its low cost in terms of instrumentation and reagents<sup>21</sup> it may be an inefficient process given that ingredients may be damaged during the prolonged heating of substances, and other ingredients may be oxidized and lose activity<sup>22</sup>.

During the decoction process, many aromatic herbs with high levels of volatile oils are easily lost through evaporation<sup>23</sup>.

Also, ethanol-water mixture extraction process was still ineffective and it is in accordance with the previous study in which the alcohol/water mixture (typically 20–40% alcohol) is actually a poor medium for extraction. It is because it causes the desired components to condense out of the liquid therefore none is left in the finished product<sup>24</sup>. The ethanol extract of *P. spicatus* showed a toxicity effect at 6h and 24h, with LC50 value at 944.07 and 266.07 ppm, respectively. This suggests that the extract could have compounds that are cytotoxic as the LC50 value was lower than 1000 ppm<sup>[4]</sup>.

Shrimp mortality rate at different concentrations in the ethanol extract was found to increase with increasing concentration of the sample, and it clearly shows that the extraction with ethanol was a better way of obtaining *P. spicatus* extract bioactive components. The previous studies show that ethanolic extract of *P. spicatus* demonstrated strong biological activity toward *Leishmania amazonensis*<sup>8</sup>. Ursolic acid and the two

hirsutinolides (the 8-acetyl-13-O-ethylpiptocarphol and 8, 13-diacetyl- piptocarphol 8-acetyl-13-Oethyl-piptocarphol) isolated through phytochemical screening might be responsible for its pharmacological activities thus giving support to its use in Peru<sup>[7]</sup>.

## CONCLUSION

Nanosponges are nano sized colloidal carrier so they easily penetrate through skin. Due to their small size and porous nature they can bind poorly-soluble drugs within the matrix and improve their bioavailability of drug and they also increase the solubility of poorly soluble drugs. The nanosponges have the ability to incorporate many drugs and release them in a controlled and predictable manner at the target site. Topical nanosponge can be more patient compliant and

provide sufficient patient benefits by reducing repeated doses and side effects. Nanosponges can be effectively incorporated into topical drug delivery system for retention of dosage form on skin. Nanosponges are tiny mesh-like structures that may revolutionise the treatment of many diseases and this technology is five times more effective at delivering drugs for cancer than conventional methods. These are self-sterilizing as their average pore size is 0.25 μm where bacteria cannot penetrate. .

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