

1 **IN-VITRO CYTOTOXICITY OF EXTRACTS OF SELECTED MALARIA MEDICINAL**
2 **PLANTS USED BY TRADITIONAL HEALERS OF KERICHO EAST SUB-COUNTY,**
3 **KENYA**

4
5 **ABSTRACT:**

6 **Background**

7 Malaria is a fatal disease which affects people of all ages; especially pregnant women, young
8 children < 5 years, and the elderly because of their weakened immune systems. The currently used
9 anti-malarial drugs have been linked to a variety of negative side effects including the parasite
10 resistance. Additionally, the costs associated with the conventional malaria management
11 approach are arguably high, particularly for people living in low-income countries, highlighting
12 the need for alternative and complementary approaches. Medicinal plants therefore are a viable
13 alternative since they are arguably less expensive and easily accessible. However, there is limited
14 information on safety and efficacy of the plants. This study was designed to investigate the
15 cytotoxic activities of polar and non-polar crude extracts solvents of selected plants used by
16 traditional healers in Kericho East Sub-County to treat malaria.

17 **Materials and methods**

18 Plants studied included *Pittosporum viridiflorum* (stem barks), *Phytolacca dodecandra* (Leaves),
19 and *Gardenia ternifolia* (roots barks). Plant parts selected were collected from Kericho East Sub-
20 county; Kapsoit, Kaitui, and Fort-Ternan. Their crude extracts were obtained from hexane,
21 dichloromethane (DCM), Methanol (MeOH), and 5% H₂O/MeOH. In vitro cytotoxic effects and
22 safety of the studied plants' extracts were identified using mammalian Vero E6 cells.

23 **Results**

24 Most of the plants tested yielded impressive cytotoxicity results, indicating that therapeutic doses
25 could be achieved at safe concentrations. However, *P. viridiflorum* hexane, DCM, MeOH, and
26 5% H₂O/MeOH crude extracts were toxic to the cultured cells expressing the mean CC₅₀ ± SE of
27 65.11±0.40, 25.63±0.23, 87.94 ±0.59 and 98.54±0.66 µg/ml, respectively.

28 **Conclusion**

29 *G. ternifolia* and *P. dodecandra* have offered hope in the treatment of malaria since their crude
30 extracts have demonstrated no toxicity. The study found *P. viridiflorum* crude extracts to be toxic
31 but there is the possibility of isolating safe nontoxic compound/s because they were less toxic at
32 lower doses. This study therefore identified potential plants that could be used to develop novel
33 anti-plasmodial agents.

34 **Key words:** Anti-malarial drugs; *Anopheles* mosquito; Medicinal plants; Malaria; Cytotoxicity

36 **1. Introduction**

37 Malaria is a potentially fatal disease caused by a protozoan parasite transmitted through the bites
38 of the female *Anopheles* mosquito. It is estimated that over 241 million people worldwide are
39 affected, with 627 000 deaths occurring each year [1]. Expectant mothers and children aged 0 to
40 5 years are the most vulnerable groups to malarial infections [2]. Malaria is frequently associated
41 with poverty, but it is also a cause of poverty and a significant impediment to economic
42 development. In the year 2021, the World Health Organization (WHO) forecasts over 241
43 million malaria cases, with Sub-Saharan Africa accounting for more than 95% of all cases. [1].
44 In the year 2017, 3,215,116 of *Plasmodium falciparum* cases were reported in Kenya [3].
45 Additionally, the World Health Organization [4] estimates that over 3.2 billion people in 91
46 countries are at high risk of contracting malaria. The high mortality rates of malaria subjects are

47 of great concern in light of the rising statistics. Many studies have found that parasites are
48 becoming more resistant to conventional anti-malarials [5, 6]. Furthermore, the toxicities and
49 adverse events associated with conventional antimalarial drugs render them ineffective in
50 malaria treatment, necessitating the urgent need for alternative and complementary approaches
51 [7, 8]. In addition, conventional treatment regimens face the challenge of high production costs,
52 necessitating the search for less expensive, yet effective alternatives [27,28].
53 For thousands of years, plants have played an important role in the treatment of malaria.
54 Therefore, herbal medicine has been used throughout history, making it the oldest form of
55 healthcare known to humanity. WHO endorses its use and considers it one of the most effective
56 strategies for combating emerging diseases [3]. Plants have been found to contain powerful
57 antimalarial compounds such as quinine and artemisinin. As a result, medicinal plants represent a
58 vast reservoir from which powerful antimalarial drugs can be developed. It is regarded as one of
59 the world's most reliable methods of achieving total health because it is less expensive than
60 conventional medicine. Traditional medicine serves the primary healthcare needs of
61 approximately 80% of the world's population [9]. Affordability, availability, and accessibility are
62 the primary reasons for people's reliance on herbal medicine [10]. Medicinal plant use is also
63 integrated into most African cultures, making it more acceptable than conventional medicine
64 [11]. Because of the numerous bioactive compounds found in herbal drugs, increasing research
65 data has demonstrated their potential [12]. These phytochemicals have been identified as
66 potential leads for some currently used drugs, including anti-cancers, analgesics, and anti-
67 malarials [13].
68 Despite the tremendous contribution and potential of medicinal plants, particularly in the
69 treatment of malaria, no scientific data exists to validate the claimed antimalarial safety.

70 Investigated medicinal plantparts and their constituents (*Pittosporumviridiflorum Sims. var.*
71 *viridiflorum*(S.L) local name *Chepngororiot*(stem barks), *Phytolaccadodecandra L Herit*local
72 name *Patkawet* (leaves) and *Gardenia ternifolia*Schum.&Thonn local name *Kipulwet* (roots
73 barks) are majorly used by Kipsigis people in Kericho County, Kenya for the management of
74 malaria[14].Their unknown toxicities despite long history of use in anti-malarial and anti-
75 plasmodial activities informed the current study.

76 **Materials and methods**

77 **2.1 Plant parts collection**

78 Plant parts (roots, barks for *Gardenia ternifolia*Schum.&Thonn, leaves for
79 *Phytolaccadodecandra L Herit*, and stem barks for *Pittosporumviridiflorum Sims. var.*
80 *viridiflorum*) were collected in Kericho County, specifically in the Kapsoit, Kaitui, and Fort-
81 Ternan areas with the help of a traditional herbalist. The parts were then transported to the Kisii
82 University laboratory for crude extract removal.

83 **1.2 Crude extractions**

84 The collected plants parts were then air-dried for one week at room temperature in a well-aerated
85 room before being grounded into coarse powder usingKisii University laboratory mill. Crude
86 extracts were then prepared following the procedure stated by [15] with some few
87 modifications.Briefly, 100 g powder of each plant part extract were macerated in 300 ml of each
88 hexane, DCM, MeOH and 5% H₂O/MeOH methanol at room temperature for 72 hours. The
89 extracts were then filtered using double-layer Whatman's number one filter papers and
90 concentrated with a rotary evaporator using different boiling points ranging from 60–80°C for 5
91 hrs. Additionally, for 5% H₂O/MeOH methanol plant crude extracts, it required another process
92 of mixing the solution with ethyl acetate to remove water. After 24 hours, the mixture was

93 separated into two layers using a separating funnel. The upper layer contained all of the organic
94 substances, while the lower layer was the aqua phase, which was heavier and carried the water
95 components. Following the removal of the aqua phase, the organic phase was passed through a
96 rotary evaporator to remove ethyl acetate, which was concentrated at temperatures ranging from
97 60°C to 80°C.

98 **2.3 Cytotoxicity studies**

99 The growth-inhibition assay was performed on actively dividing sub-confluent Vero E6
100 cells(Kurokawa et al., 1995). Vero E6 cells were grown in 25 ml cell culture flasks incubated at
101 37°C in 5% CO₂ in Eagle's minimum essential medium (MEM) (GIBCO, Grand Island, NY)
102 supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS). When the cells reached confluence, they were
103 seeded with 5×10⁴ cells/well in 24-well plates and incubated at 37°C for 2 days. Positive and
104 negative controls including chloroquine and untreated Vero E6 cells respectively were set up.
105 The culture medium was replaced with fresh MEM containing test extracts at various
106 concentrations, and the cells were incubated for another 2 days. Trypsinization was used to
107 detach cells from each sample in triplicate wells, and the number of viable cells was determined
108 using a trypan blue exclusion test. To count viable cells, a haemocytometer was used. CC₅₀
109 (concentration required to cause visible alterations in 50% of intact cells) was estimated using
110 inhibition data plotted as dose-response curves using nonlinear regression analysis. Mean CC₅₀
111 (X±SE) < 100 µg/mL was considered toxic. Additionally, at each drug concentration, the results
112 were also recorded as optical density (OD) per well. The data was entered into Microsoft Excel
113 2016 and expressed as a percentage of the untreated controls using the formula described below
114 [16].

115 Percentage cell growth inhibition = $\left(\frac{A-B}{A}\right) \times 100$

116 Where; A = the OD of the untreated cells

117 B = the OD at each drug concentration

118 The Percentage Yield of the Crude Extract was also calculated using the formula below;

119
$$\text{Percentage Yield} = \frac{\text{weight of extracts obtained}}{\text{weight of powder used for extractions}} \times 100$$

120 2.4 Data analysis

121 The statistical significance between the means of the data was analyzed using chi-square where

122 P-value of less than 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

123 3. Results

124 3.1 Crude extracts percentage yield

125 Following extraction, the respective extracts' percentage yields were calculated. The results
126 revealed that, in general, high percentage yields were recorded in 5% H₂O/MeOH of all plants
127 parts followed by MeOH, Hexane and lastly DCM (Table 1).

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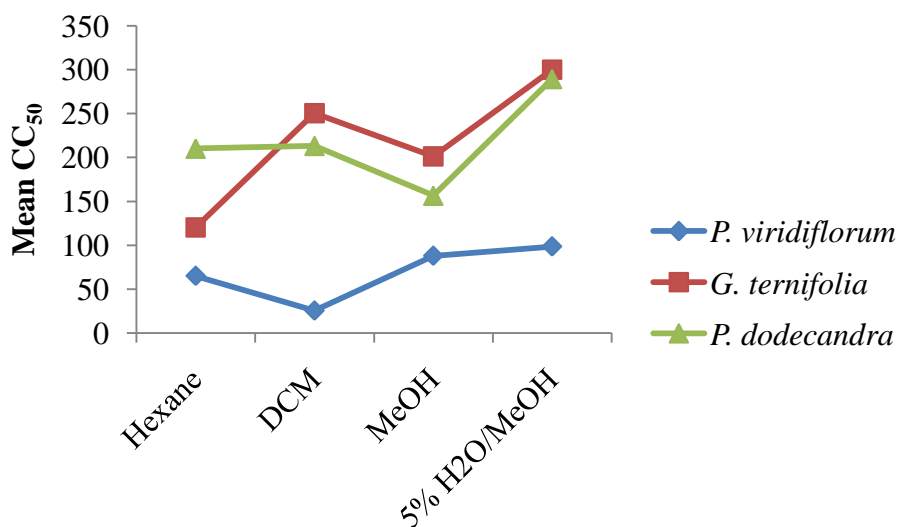
131 **Table 1: Plants parts and the percentage yield**

Plant name	Plant parts used	Extraction solvent	% Yield
<i>Gardenia</i>	Roots bark	Hexane	2.43
<i>ternifolia</i> Schum.		Dichloromethane (DCM)	0.53
& Thonn.		Methanol (MeOH)	3.65
		5% H ₂ O/MeOH	6.84
<i>Pittosporum viridi</i>	Bark	Hexane	2.92
<i>florum</i> Sims. var.		Dichloromethane (DCM)	0.94

<i>viridiflorum</i> (S.L)		Methanol (MeOH)	4.01
		5% H ₂ O/MeOH	6.03
<i>Phytolacadodeca</i>	Leaves	Hexane	2.36
<i>ndra</i> L Herit		Dichloromethane (DCM)	0.42
		Methanol (MeOH)	2.94
		5% H ₂ O/MeOH	7.97

132 3.2 Cytotoxicities of plants crude extracts

133 *P. viridiflorum* crude extracts showed no toxicity in lower doses (10 µg/ml<) while in high
 134 dosage (>10 µg/ml<) it showed the maximum cell harmfulness when exposed to Vero E6 cells
 135 expressing the mean CC₅₀ ± SE of 65.11±0.40, 25.63±0.23, 87.94 ±0.59 and 98.54±0.66µg/mL
 136 Hexane, DCM, MeOH and 5% H₂O/MeOH, respectively (Fig 1).

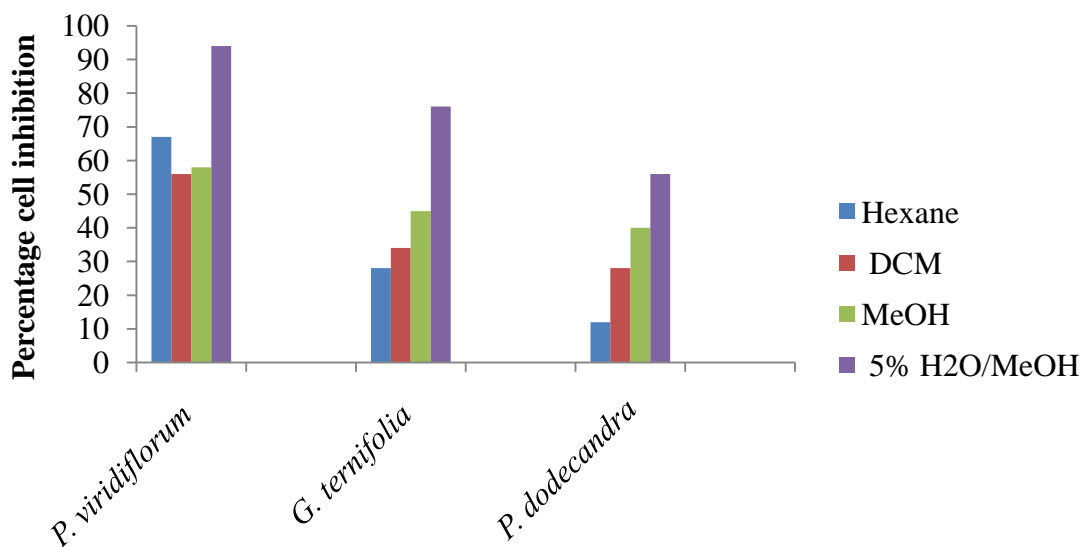


137
 138 **Figure 1: Mean CC₅₀ of *P. viridiflorum*, *G. ternifolia* and *P. dodecandra* crude extracts**

139 3.3 Vero E6 cells inhibition

140

141 *P. viridiflorum* crude extracts had a high percentage of Vero E6 cells inhibited, with 5%
 142 H₂O/MeOH showing the highest percentage of inhibition across all concentrations (Fig 2).



143
 144 **Figure 2: Percentage cell inhibition of *P.viridiflorum*, *G. ternifolia* and *P. dodecandra* crude**
 145 **extracts**

146 3.4 Associations between Vero E6 cells inhibition and plants crude extract concentration

147 A statistical significant association between the Vero E6 cells inhibition and all plants crude
 148 extracts seeded in different concentrations was observed ($\chi^2 = 19.91$; d.f = 5, $P < 0.001$), ($\chi^2 =$
 149 74.16 ; d.f = 5, $P < 0.001$), ($\chi^2 = 96.22$; d.f = 5, $P < 0.001$), ($\chi^2 = 84.33$; d.f = 5, $P < 0.001$), ($\chi^2 =$
 150 27.56 ; d.f = 5, $P < 0.001$), ($\chi^2 = 67.35$; d.f = 5, $P < 0.001$) in Hexane, DCM, MeOH and 5%
 151 H₂O/MeOH respectively.

152 Discussion

153 *P. viridiflorum* crude extracts of Hexane, DCM, MeOH and 5% H₂O/MeOH showed toxicity in
 154 high dosage in the present study despite the plant parts being is used for malaria and fevers in
 155 Kericho with IC₅₀ of 3–10 µg/ml [14], East Africa [17], and its DCM crude extracts of the whole
 156 plant showing an in vitro antimalarial activities in South Africa with IC₅₀ of 3 µg/ml [18].

157 Additionally, *P. lanatum*, a related species of *P. viridiflorum* plant, had leaves that were toxic to
158 brine shrimp (LC50, 27.4 µg/ml) [19]. It is unclear whether the inhibition is the result of a
159 specific antiplasmodial action or general cytotoxicity, but an in vitro test in the present study
160 with a lower dose less than 10µg/ml showed no toxicity, hence indicating that the toxic
161 compounds may not be the same as the active constituents. The present study was in agreement
162 with the study of [20] which stated that methanol and water extracts of *P. viridiflorum* had the
163 highest level of cell cytotoxicity on Vero E6 cells in high dosage, with CC₅₀ values of 18.08 and
164 69.21 µg/ml respectively. Furthermore, in the same study [20], mice treated with a 100 mg/kg
165 methanol extract of *P. viridiflorum* died within 24 hours. The present study showed that *P.*
166 *viridiflorum* 5% H₂O/MeOH was less toxic than DCM, MeOH and Hexane extracts. This means
167 the polar component of *P. viridiflorum* plant is less toxic than the non-polar component. This
168 suggests that traditional herbalist practitioners who prepare plant parts by boiling them in meat
169 soup (water plus fat in the meat) have less toxicity when using the plant as an antimalarial agent
170 than other traditional herbalist practitioners who ferment the plant parts with honey, resulting in
171 the addition of ethanol, an organic (non-polar) solvent. The current study supported the findings
172 of [20], which found that the water extract was less toxic than the methanol extract. The current
173 study contradicted the findings of [21], which found that the stem bark extracts from this plant
174 had no cytotoxicity or brine shrimp lethality. These findings appear to validate their traditional
175 use as antimalarials [22]. In order to continue working on this plant, since the plant have been
176 proven to have antiplasmodial activity, bioactivity guided isolation will allow the separation of
177 active molecules from toxic constituents.

178 In the current study, *G. ternifolia* and *P. dodecandra* Hexane, DCM, MeOH, and 5%
179 H₂O/MeOH crude extract plant roots bark showed no signs of toxicity, similar to the study of

180 [23], which found that in an acute oral toxicity test, a hydroalcoholic stem bark extract of *G.*
181 *ternifolia* did not cause any observable damage in the studied mice at 2,000 mg/kg. Previous
182 research have shown that if the LD₅₀ value of a test chemical is three times greater than the
183 minimum effective dose, the extract is considered a good candidate for further investigation [24]
184 & [25].Therefore, *G. ternifolia* and *P. dodecandra* have offered hope in the treatment of malaria
185 since their crude extracts of Hexane, DCM, MeOH, and 5% H₂O/MeOH roots bark have
186 demonstrated antiplasmodial activity similar to chloroquine and mefloquine in the study of (15)
187 with no toxicity. The study of [26] disagreed with the present study because it assessed the
188 cytotoxicity activities of a 20.0% aqueous ethanol extract of *G. ternifolia* roots using the brine
189 shrimp lethality test with an LC₅₀ value of 54.5g/ml.These differences might be attributed to
190 location and time in which the plants were collected as well as the different physiographic
191 factors which influence plant phytochemicals.

192 **Conclusion**

193 *P. viridiflorum* extracts were toxic in Vero E6 cells at the test dose, but there is the possibility of
194 isolating safe nontoxic compound/s because they were less toxic at lower doses. Similar to this
195 study, (22) and (20) reported different levels of toxicities in samples of the same plant species
196 collected in different regions, emphasizing the importance of georeference, implying that the
197 location and, most likely, time of plant collection may influence the amount and composition of
198 the toxic components. It is unknown whether such factors influenced the phytochemical
199 composition of the *P. viridiflorum*, *G. ternifolia* and *P. dodecandra* plants, which has been linked
200 to present or lack of cytotoxicity in East and South Africa.Hence, it would be of interest to
201 isolate active constituents for identification, antiplasmodial evaluation, and further toxicological

202 screening, where caution should be exercised if these plants are to be promoted as medicinal
203 plants for malaria treatment.

204 **Ethical Approval**

205 Ethical clearance to conduct this research was granted by Kenya Medical Research Institute
206 (KEMRI) ethical review committee and permitted by the National Commission for Science
207 Technology and Innovation (NACOSTI). The research was conducted in accordance with the
208 established SERU guidelines.

209

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291

292

UNDER PEER REVIEW

293

APPENDIX

294 Appendix I: Photos of *Gardenia ternifolia* Schum.&Thonn., *Pittosporum viridiflorum* Sims.

295 var. *viridiflorum* (S.L) and *Phytolacacododecandra* L Herit



296

297 *Gardenia ternifolia* Schum.&Thonn.



298

299 *Pittosporum viridiflorum* Sims. var. *viridiflorum* (S.L)



300

301 *Phytolacacododecandra* L Herit