

## Kinetics of the Antioxidant Activities of *Solanum macrocarpon* and *Crassocephalum rubens* by DPPH Radical Scavenging Method

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### ABSTRACT

Kinetics of the antioxidant activities of two edible vegetables; *Solanum macrocarpon* (*S. macrocarpon*) and *Crassocephalum rubens* (*C. rubens*) was investigated. The methanolic extracts of the samples were tested with 2,2-diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl (DPPH) at different times (30, 50, 70 and 90 minutes). UV-Visible Spectroscopy technique was employed to evaluate the ability of the plant extracts to scavenge DPPH radicals by measuring the absorbance at the various experimental times. The concentration of sample required to inhibit 50 % of the DPPH free radical ( $IC_{50}$ ) and kinetic parameter (rate constant  $k_2$ ) were determined from the absorbances values. *S. macrocarpon* and *C. rubens* had DPPH scavenging potency with  $IC_{50}$  values of  $2.18 \times 10^{-2} \text{ mgml}^{-1}$  and  $6.27 \times 10^{-2} \text{ mgml}^{-1}$  respectively. This implied that *S. macrocarpon* is a more potent antioxidant than *C. rubens*. The rate constant for the hydrogen atom abstraction by DPPH ( $k_2$ ) in the presence of *S. macrocarpon* is  $2.70 \times 10^{-3} \pm 0.0006 \text{ mlmg}^{-1} \text{ min}^{-1}$  with  $R^2$  value of 0.709 while for *C. rubens*, the rate constant is  $6.89 \times 10^{-4} \pm 0.03 \times 10^{-4} \text{ mlmg}^{-1} \text{ min}^{-1}$  with  $R^2$  value of 0.987 using Pseudo-first order kinetics model. However, under second order kinetics, the rate constant,  $k_2$ , for *S. macrocarpon* is  $4.73 \times 10^{-1} \pm 0.020 \text{ mM}^{-1} \text{ min}^{-1}$  with  $R^2$  value of 0.993 while *C. rubens* has  $k_2$  value of  $5.55 \times 10^{-2} \pm 0.00236 \text{ mM}^{-1} \text{ min}^{-1}$  with  $R^2$  value of 0.795. Thus, the depletion of DPPH by *S. macrocarpon* followed a second order kinetics while that of *C. rubens* followed a Pseudo first order kinetics.

**Keywords:** Kinetics, DPPH, Antioxidant, UV-Vis spectroscopy,  $IC_{50}$

### Introduction

Free radicals (known as electrically charged molecules) have unpaired electrons which make them attractive to electrons from other substances to neutralize themselves. These free radicals in the presence of reactive oxygen species play a vital role in the pathogenesis of many diseases such as ischemic heart disease, atherosclerosis, cancer, etc [1, 2]. A free radical is defined as a molecule or molecular fragments containing one or more unpaired electrons in its outermost atomic or molecular orbital and

is capable of independent existence [3, 4]. Most biologically relevant free radicals are derived from oxygen and nitrogen and their corresponding reactive oxygen species (ROS) and reactive nitrogen species (RNS). Common examples of ROS are hydrogen peroxide, singlet oxygen, hydroxyl radical, nitric oxide radical, superoxide anion, hypochlorite radical and various lipid peroxides while peroxy nitrite radical, nitrogen dioxide radical and nitrogen trioxide radical are examples of RNS [5, 6].

Living organisms are capable of producing various compounds as a part of their antioxidant defence. Naturally occurring antioxidants include a range of enzymes (for example superoxide dismutase, glutathione peroxidase), iron-binding proteins (for example transferrin, lactoferrin), vitamins C, and E; carotenoids, flavonoids and other plant phenolics [7]. There exist also numerous synthetic antioxidants such as glutathione donors, superoxide dismutase and catalase mimetics, derivatives of vitamins C and E, N-acetyl-cysteine, xanthine oxidase inhibitors and various lipid-soluble chain breaking and transition metal binding compounds [8].

Many plants including vegetables have been categorized as sources of natural antioxidants that can protect against oxidative stress, thus, play an important role in the chemoprevention of diseases that have their aetiology and patho-physiology in reactive oxygen species [9 – 13]. Some compounds possessing antioxidant activity are in clinical use for the treatment of various conditions, although they were not primarily developed as antioxidants [7]. For example; sulphasalazine and its active metabolite, 5-aminosalicylic acid used in the treatment of inflammatory bowel diseases exert free radical scavenging activity [14]. Reactive species formed from sulphasalazine and 5-aminosalicylic acid oxidation can be scavenged by vitamin C.

Although, there have been several investigations into the radical scavenging activities of some plants as natural sources of antioxidants [15-19]. However, there are still large gaps to be filled in the studies and the understanding of the kinetics and mechanisms of action of these natural sources of antioxidants. Phenolics from red sweet potato and purple corn have been reported to exhibit faster reaction kinetics than phenolics from blue berries and that phenolics from red sweet potato also react faster to stabilize DPPH radicals as compared to Trolox, which is a powerful antioxidant [20]. Phenolic antioxidants have also been shown to react slowly with DPPH reaching steady state in one to six hours or

longer [21]. This suggests that antioxidant activity using DPPH should be evaluated over time. In a study carried out on tropical fruits, it was reported that all the ten fruits presented different kinetic periods [22].

This present study investigates the kinetics of the free radical scavenging capacity of rag leaf (*C. rubens*) and egg plant (*S. macrocarpon*) using 2,2-diphenyl-1-picryl-hydrazyl radical (DPPH) to evaluate their effectiveness as source of antioxidant and to understand the kinetics of their antioxidant activities.

## Materials and Methods

### *Plant collection*

*S. macrocarpon* and *C. rubens* leaves were sourced and purchased in their fresh form from a popular market in Ilorin East Local Government Area of Kwara State, Nigeria at their commercially marketable maturity. These plants were then verified and authenticated in the herbarium of Plant Biology Department, University of Ilorin with voucher number UILH/001/1063 and UILH/001/1062 respectively.

### *Preparation of plant extracts*

The samples were rinsed with distilled water; air dried at room temperature to constant weight and then pulverized. 100 g of powdered leaf material was macerated with 1.0 litre of methanol for 5 days. The methanol extract was then filtered using Whatman filter paper and concentrated under vacuum at 40 °C using a rotary evaporator (Buchi rotavapor R-124). Finally, the crude extracts obtained were stored at 4 °C prior to antioxidant tests.

### *Calibration of 2, 2-diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl (DPPH)*

0.001 g of DPPH was dissolved in 100 ml of methanol to give a stock solution of  $2.54 \times 10^{-2}$  mM. Serial dilutions were made to obtain concentrations of  $1.27 \times 10^{-2}$ ,  $6.35 \times 10^{-3}$ ,  $3.18 \times 10^{-3}$ ,  $1.59 \times 10^{-3}$ ,  $7.95 \times 10^{-4}$  and  $3.98 \times 10^{-4}$  mM. Absorbance of the various concentrations was measured at wavelength

of 517 nm as the wavelength of maximum absorbance using a UV-Vis Spectrophotometer (Beckman coulter). A graph of absorbance against concentration was plotted and the slope of the graph represents the molar absorptivity of DPPH.

#### DPPH free radical scavenging assay

The antioxidant potential of the methanolic crude extracts was determined on the basis of their scavenging activity of the stable DPPH free radical using the method described in literature with modifications [23]. The stock solutions of the extracts were prepared to the concentration of  $1.00 \text{ mgmL}^{-1}$ . Dilutions were made to obtain  $5.0 \times 10^{-1}$ ,  $2.5 \times 10^{-1}$ ,  $1.25 \times 10^{-1}$ ,  $6.25 \times 10^{-2}$ ,  $3.13 \times 10^{-2}$ ,  $1.56 \times 10^{-2}$ ,  $7.81 \times 10^{-3}$ ,  $3.91 \times 10^{-3}$  and  $1.95 \times 10^{-3} \text{ mgmL}^{-1}$ . 2 mL each of the diluted solutions, was mixed with 2 mL of DPPH methanolic solution of concentration of  $2.542 \times 10^{-2} \text{ mM}$ . The mixtures were then vigorously shaken and allowed to stand at room temperature for 30, 50, 70 and 90 minutes in the dark. The absorbances of the mixtures were measured at 517 nm using a UV-Vis spectrophotometer (Beckman coulter). A mixture of the DPPH solution and methanol only was used as the control. The results were obtained in triplicate and mean values were used for further calculation. The scavenging activity of the DPPH radical was expressed as percentage inhibition using the following equation (19):

$$\% \text{ Inhibition} = \left[ \frac{A_B - A_S}{A_B} \right] \times 100 \quad (1)$$

Where  $A_B$  is the absorbance of the control reaction (containing all reagents except the test compound), and  $A_S$  is the absorbance of the test compound.

The  $IC_{50}$  value of the samples, which is the concentration of sample required to inhibit 50 % of the DPPH free radical, was calculated from the graph of percentage inhibition plotted against extract concentration.

#### Kinetics analysis

The concentrations of DPPH at various time intervals were calculated using the relation from Beer-Lambert law:

$$A = \epsilon cl \quad (2)$$

Where A = Absorbance,  $\epsilon$  = Molar absorptivity of DPPH, c = Concentration and l = Path length.

The integrated form of Second-order reaction equation was applied to the experimental results for *S.macrocapon* and *C.rubens*.

$$\frac{1}{[DPPH]_t} = k_2 t + \frac{1}{[DPPH]_0} \quad (3)$$

Where  $(DPPH)_0$  and  $(DPPH)_t$  are the DPPH concentrations at time zero and any time 't' respectively. A plot of  $\frac{1}{[DPPH]_t}$  against time

gives a slope,  $k_2$  [24]. Second order anti-radical kinetics determination was adapted from a reported work [25] using DPPH and antioxidants of the extracts:

$$\frac{-d[DPPH]}{dt} = k_2 [DPPH] [Antioxidant] \quad (4)$$

The second order rate constant ( $k_2$ ) was determined with the anti-radical compound (Antioxidant) in large excess as compared with the radical compound (DPPH), thus forcing the reaction to behave as first order in DPPH.

$$\frac{-d[DPPH]}{dt} = k_1 [DPPH] \quad (5)$$

Where  $k_1 = k_2 (\text{Antioxidant})$  (6)

(Antioxidant) is assumed to remain constant throughout the reaction and can be modified to obtain different  $k_1$  values. The change in (DPPH) by change in time will give  $k_1$  values. Determination of  $k_1$  was repeated using different antioxidant concentration for each sample and the mean gave the overall  $k_1$ .

Therefore, DPPH was depleted from the medium under pseudo first-order conditions following the equation:

$$[DPPH] = [DPPH]_0 e^{-k_1 t} \quad (7)$$

Where (DPPH) is the radical concentration at any time (t),  $(DPPH)_0$  is the radical concentration at time zero and  $k_1$  is the pseudo first order constant. This constant ( $k_1$ ) is linearly dependent on the concentration of the antioxidant and from the slope of these plots,  $k_2$  was determined.

The percentage of DPPH remaining at anytime t can be determined as:

$$\% DPPH_{remaining} = \frac{A_t}{A_0} \times 100 \text{ ---- (8)}$$

Where  $A_0$  is the initial absorbance and  $A_t$  is the absorbance at time t, both measured at 517 nm respectively.

plots of percentage DPPH against time showed the disappearance pattern of DPPH with time in the presence of each extract [26].

## Results and Discussion

### Calibration of DPPH

The measure of how well the DPPH absorbs light at a wavelength of 517 nm (The Molar absorptivity ( $\epsilon$ )) was obtained from a plot of Absorbance against concentration. The plot obtained is presented in figure 1. From the plot, a linear regression from the origin was obtained with  $R^2 = 0.99898$ . The slope of the graph which corresponds to the Molar absorptivity of DPPH is obtained as  $100.02 \pm 1.06 \text{ (mM)}^{-1}$ . This value will be used to calculate the concentration of DPPH after an incubation time (t) using equation 2.

### Antioxidant activity

The % Inhibitions of DPPH of *S.macrocapon* and *C.rubens* are shown in Table 1 and Table 2 respectively.

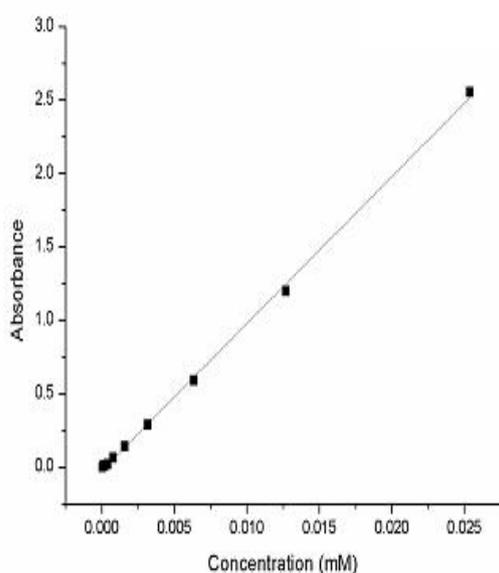


Figure 1: DPPH Calibration Curve

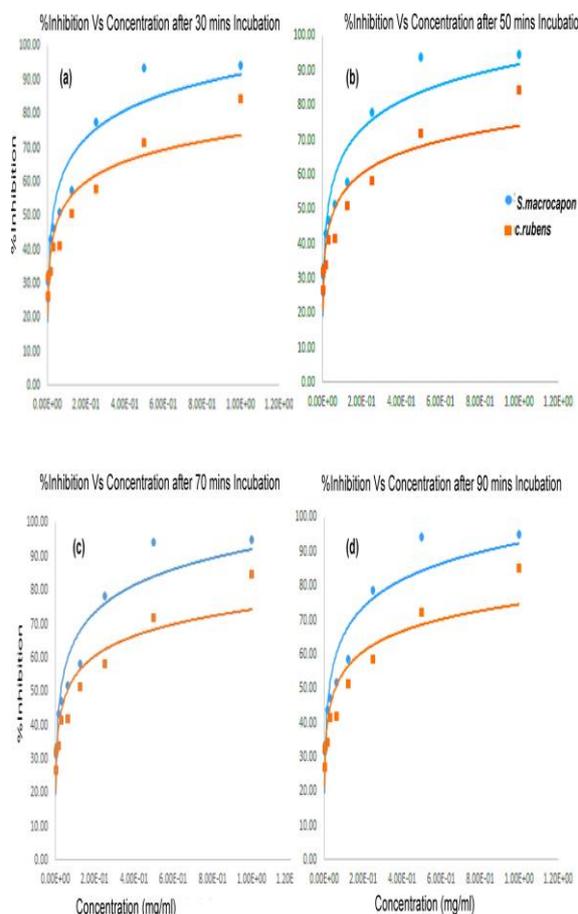
Table 1: % Inhibition of *S.macrocapon*

Concentration (mg/ml)	%Inhibition (30 mins)	% Inhibition (50 mins)	% Inhibition (70 mins)	% Inhibition (90 mins)
1.00	94.43	94.64	94.95	95.20
$5.00 \times 10^{-1}$	93.60	93.78	94.13	94.38
$2.50 \times 10^{-1}$	77.72	77.97	78.28	78.53
$1.25 \times 10^{-1}$	57.58	57.84	58.15	58.44
$6.25 \times 10^{-2}$	51.06	51.37	51.64	51.91
$3.13 \times 10^{-2}$	46.53	46.81	47.01	47.30
$1.56 \times 10^{-2}$	42.84	43.10	43.37	43.63
$7.81 \times 10^{-3}$	32.72	33.09	33.40	33.69
$3.91 \times 10^{-3}$	30.65	30.98	31.23	31.57
$1.95 \times 10^{-3}$	25.61	25.96	26.28	26.52

Table 2: % Inhibition of *C.rubens*

Concentration (mg/ml)	% Inhibition (30 mins)	% Inhibition (50 mins)	% Inhibition (70 mins)	% Inhibition (90 mins)
1.00	84.27	84.56	84.80	85.11
$5.00 \times 10^{-1}$	71.48	71.81	72.05	72.30
$2.50 \times 10^{-1}$	57.84	58.13	58.37	58.67
$1.25 \times 10^{-1}$	50.67	50.99	51.21	51.52
$6.25 \times 10^{-2}$	41.24	41.53	41.79	41.99
$3.13 \times 10^{-2}$	40.86	41.19	41.41	41.67
$1.56 \times 10^{-2}$	33.44	33.74	33.98	34.31
$7.81 \times 10^{-3}$	32.43	32.75	33.01	33.21
$3.91 \times 10^{-3}$	31.64	31.86	32.10	32.45
$1.95 \times 10^{-3}$	26.28	26.61	26.81	27.05

The  $IC_{50}$  values were obtained from the plot of % Inhibition against concentration. The results are presented in Figure 2 for both samples at 30, 50, 70 and 90 minutes incubation time respectively. In addition, Table 3 showed the corresponding  $IC_{50}$  for the two samples at various times.



**Figure 2:** % Inhibition curve of *S. macrocarpon* and *C. rubens* after (a). 30 mins. (b). 50 mins, (c). 70 mins and (d). 90 mins of incubation

**Table 3:**  $IC_{50}$  for *S. macrocarpon* and *C. rubens*

Time (mins)	$IC_{50}$ ( $\times 10^{-2}$ mg/ml)	
	<i>S. macrocarpon</i>	<i>C. rubens</i>
30	2.18	6.27
50	2.74	6.04
70	2.67	5.88
90	2.61	5.69

From the results obtained, the  $IC_{50}$  is inversely related to the antioxidant capacity of the compounds. The lower the  $IC_{50}$  value, the higher the antioxidant activity of the compound as reported by Villano *et al.* [26]. *S. macrocarpon* is a more potent vegetable that could scavenge free radicals than *C. rubens* as shown by the lowest  $IC_{50}$  value across all the time (Table 3). This is in close

agreement with Bondet *et al.* [21], which indicate that most antioxidants react slowly with DPPH and suggest that antioxidant activity using DPPH should be evaluated over time. The antioxidant activity obtained in this study is comparable with those obtained by Tailor & Goyal [27] but less than that of Olajire & Azeez [28]. This could be due to methods used for the analysis and the medium of extraction as pointed out by Li *et al.* [29].

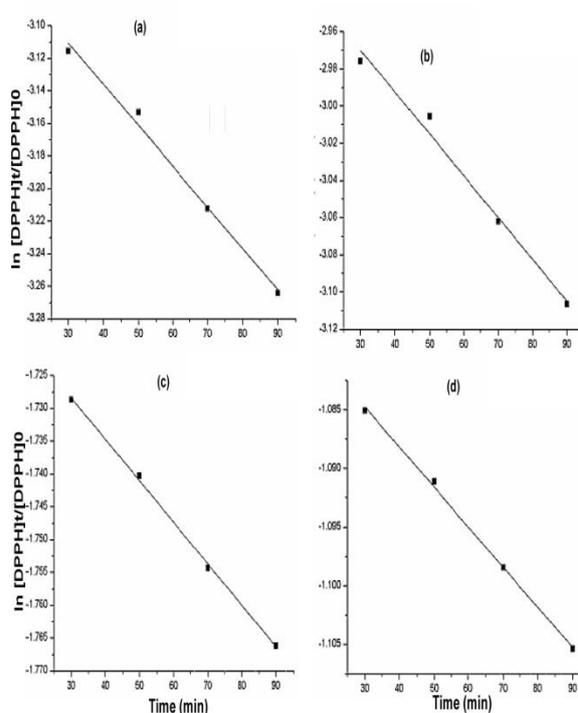
### Kinetic analysis

Considering the depletion of *S. macrocarpon* extracts under Pseudo-first order condition (Equation 7), the results obtained are presented in Figure 3. The rate constant  $k_1$  for the reaction of the antioxidant in the extract and DPPH was obtained from the slopes of the plots. Second order rate constant  $k_2$  was obtained by linear regression fitting of  $k_1$  and antioxidant concentration following Equation 6.

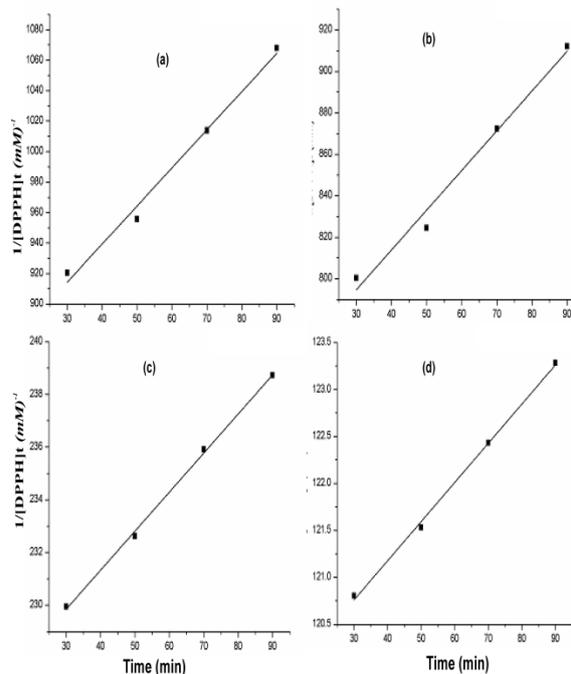
The average value obtained for  $k_2$  was  $0.0027 \pm 0.0006$   $\text{mlmg}^{-1}\text{min}^{-1}$  with a linear regression coefficient of 0.709.

However, considering the depletion of *S. macrocarpon* extracts under Second order condition (Equation 3), the results obtained are as presented in Figure 4.

The Second-order rate constant  $k_2$  was calculated from the slopes of the plots with the average to be the overall  $k_2$ . From the plots, an average  $k_2$  value of  $0.473 \pm 0.020$   $(\text{mM})^{-1}\text{min}^{-1}$  was obtained with a linear regression coefficient of 0.993. Also of note is that the  $k_2$  value decreased with reduction in the concentration of extract. This implies that samples at high concentration reacted within a short time and also slow kinetic behaviour implies longer period before steady state is attained. These results are in agreement with those obtained by Sladjana *et al.* [30] and Nikolaos & Maria [31]. The results indicate that when extracts of *S. macrocarpon* were added to DPPH solution, the DPPH radicals were better depleted under Second-order condition due to the higher  $R^2$  value obtained when compared with that of pseudo first order condition



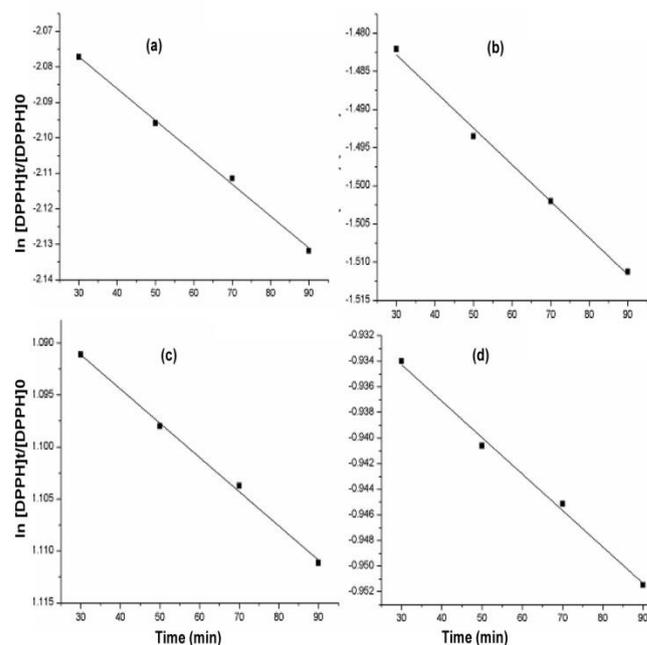
**Figure 3:** Plots of  $\ln (DPPH)_t/(DPPH)_0$  versus time for *S.macrocapon* at concentrations of (a) 1.00 mg/ml, (b) 0.50 mg/ml (c) 0.25 mg/ml and (d) 0.125 mg/ml



**Figure 4:** Plots of  $1/(DPPH)_t$  versus time for *S.macrocapon* at concentrations of (a) 1.00 mg/ml, (b) 0.50 mg/ml (c) 0.25 mg/ml and (d) 0.125 mg/ml

For *C.rubens* extracts depleted under Pseudo-first order condition (Equation 7),

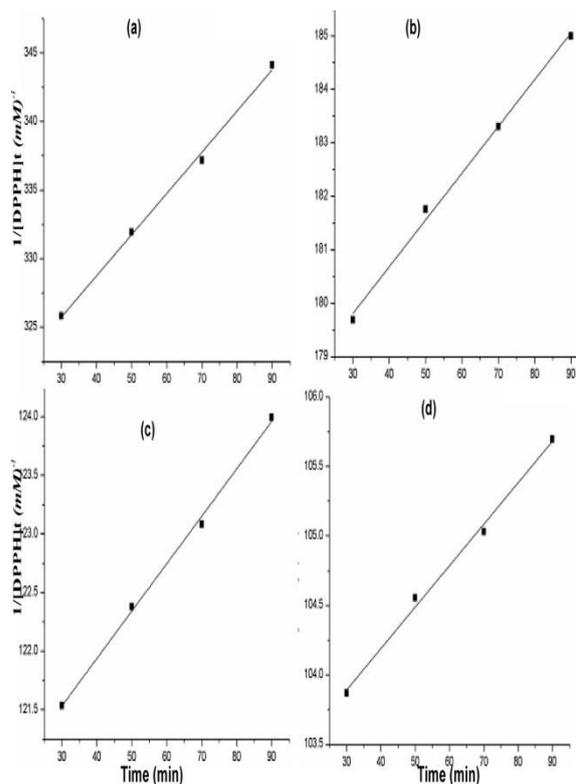
the results obtained are presented in Figure 5. When the experimental data was plotted, a linear fit curve was employed and an average regression coefficient of 0.99 was obtained. The rate constant  $k_1$  for the reaction of the antioxidant in the extract and DPPH was obtained from the slopes for the plots. Second order rate constant  $k_2$  was obtained by linear regression fitting of  $k_1$  and antioxidant concentration following Equation 6.



**Figure 5:** Plots of  $\ln (DPPH)_t/(DPPH)_0$  versus time for *C.rubens* at concentrations of (a) 1.00 mg/ml, (b) 0.50 mg/ml (c) 0.25 mg/ml and (d) 0.125 mg/ml.

The average value of  $6.89 \times 10^{-4} \pm 0.03 \times 10^{-4} \text{ mlmg}^{-1}\text{min}^{-1}$  with a linear regression coefficient of 0.987 was obtained for  $k_2$ . However, considering the depletion of *C.rubens* extracts under Second order conditions (Equation 3), the results obtained are as presented in Figure 8.

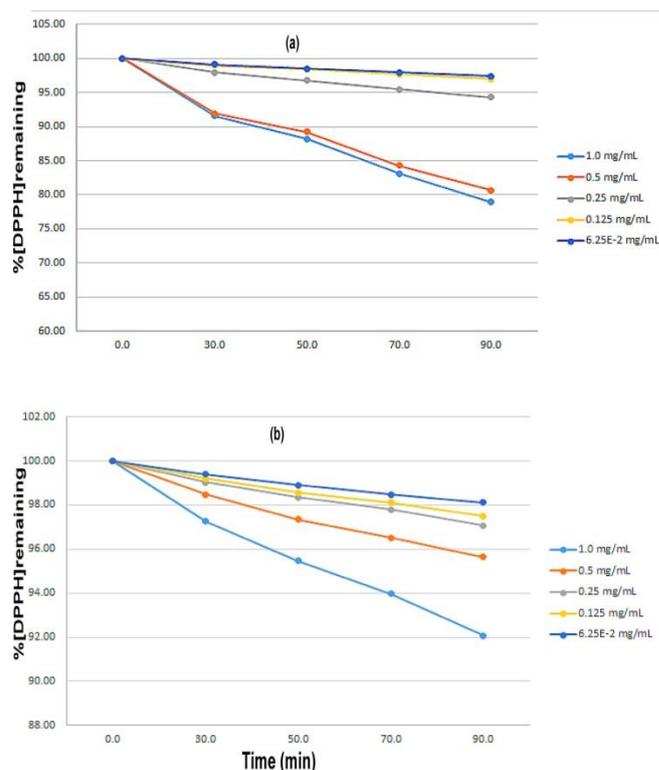
From the plots, an average  $k_2$  value of  $0.05551 \pm 0.00236 \text{ (mM)}^{-1}\text{min}^{-1}$  was obtained with a linear regression coefficient of 0.795. Based on the  $R^2$  value, *C.rubens* extracts were better depleted under pseudo first order condition with a  $k_2$  value of  $6.89 \times 10^{-4} \pm 0.03 \times 10^{-4} \text{ mlmg}^{-1}\text{min}^{-1}$  having a linear regression coefficient of 0.987.



**Figure 6:** Plots of  $1/(\text{DPPH})_t$  versus time for *C. rubens* at concentrations of (a) 1.00 mg/ml, (b) 0.50 mg/ml (c) 0.25 mg/ml and (d) 0.125 mg/ml.

Also, the results show that the  $k_2$  values for extracts from *S. macrocarpon* were higher than that from *C. rubens* extracts. This implies that the antioxidants from *S. macrocarpon* have faster reaction kinetics than the antioxidants of *C. rubens*. Figure 7 presents the disappearance pattern of DPPH free radicals with time in the presence of the extracts within a time of 90 minutes.

Figure 7 presents the disappearance pattern of DPPH free radicals with time in the presence of methanol extracts of *S. macrocarpon* and *C. rubens* within a time of 90 minutes. The free radical scavenging pattern presented is monophasic, characterised by a slow step of degradation of the antioxidant concentration as the time of reaction increases for all concentrations of the extracts used. This result is in close agreement with results obtained by Bondet *et al.* [21] which indicate that most antioxidants react slowly with DPPH and suggest that antioxidant activity using DPPH should be evaluated overtime.



**Figure 7:** Disappearance pattern of DPPH Free radicals with Time in (a) *S. macrocarpon* and (b) *C. rubens*

## Conclusions

The results from this study confirmed their potency of the two edible vegetables as a natural source of antioxidant and revealed that *S. macrocarpon* has higher free radical scavenging activity than *C. rubens*. It was also shown that under the experimental conditions, *S. macrocarpon* has a higher DPPH radicals scavenging potential as reflected in its higher rate constant ( $k_2$ ) for the process and is best described by the second order reaction kinetics. However, the DPPH scavenging potential of *C. rubens* has lower rate constant value and its best described by a pseudo first order kinetics

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