

Antioxidant and Anti-Hypercholesterolemic Potential of *Vitis vinifera* Leaves

Sushma Devi and Randhir Singh*

ABSTRACT

Background: Grapes (*Vitis vinifera*) are universally appreciated fruit for their delicacy, nutrition and accepted as functional food. The objective of the present study was to evaluate antioxidant and anti-hypercholesterolemic potential of *Vitis vinifera* leaves extract. **Methods:** Qualitative and quantitative phytochemical screening of methanolic (VVM) and aqueous (VVAE) extract was carried out to identify the phytoconstituents. Antioxidant potential was evaluated by employing *in-vitro* and *in vivo* assays. The anti-hypercholesterolemic activity was evaluated by inducing hypercholesterolemia with high cholesterol diet for 21 days in experimental animals.

Results: In VVME, total tannins, total flavonoids and total phenolic contents were found to be present in major amount. Both extract has significant *in-vitro* and *in-vivo* antioxidant efficacy. Different doses i.e. 100, 200 and 400 mg/kg of VVM and VVAE significantly attenuated the lipid levels. Moreover, VVME was found to be more effective as compared to VVAE and also, effectiveness was confirmed with histological results. **Conclusion:** It can be concluded that antioxidant and anti-hypercholesterolemic efficacy of *Vitis vinifera* might be due to presence of antioxidant property and active phytoconstituents.

Key words: *Vitis vinifera*, Antioxidant, Hypercholesterolemia, Cholesterol Diet, Total Phenolic Content Etc.

Sushma Devi and Randhir Singh*

Department of Pharmaceutical Sciences, Maharishi Markandeshwar University, Mullana, Ambala, INDIA.

Correspondence

Prof. (Dr.) Randhir Singh, Department of Pharmaceutical Sciences, Maharishi Markandeshwar University, Mullana, Ambala, INDIA.

Phone number: +91-9896029234

E-mail: randhirsingh.dahiya@gmail.com,

History

- Submission Date: 07-06-2016;
- Review completed: 02-12-2016;
- Accepted Date: 04-05-2017

DOI : 10.5530/pj.2017.9.4.565

Article Available online at:
<http://www.phcogj.com/vol9issue4>

Copyright

© 2017 Phcog.Net. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International license.



INTRODUCTION

Nowadays, functional foods are emerging field in food science. Functional foods are known to have positive effects on human health such as prevention of CVD, cancer, reducing cholesterol risk and regulating the digestive system. Grapes, fruit and their extract are already used as functional food.¹ Moreover, research on commercial activities on functional food and/or ingredients are in great demand. However, there are few reports on the antioxidant activities and antilipidemic effects of *Vitis vinifera*, although it is well known that many plants have antioxidant and free radical scavenging activities.

Free radical oxidative stress, usually resulting from deficient natural anti-oxidant defenses, has been implicated in the pathogenesis of a wide variety of clinical disorders, such as the degenerative diseases, aging and the progressive decline in the immune functions. The pathological roles of free radicals have been implicated in a wide range of inflammatory diseases.² As well as, it has been reported that hypercholesterolemia is increased free radical production and reduced free radical scavenging effect. Therefore, certain natural products with antioxidant activities may have potential anti-hypercholesterolemia actions. So, the present work was designed to evaluate the antioxidant and anti-hypercholesterolemic potential of VVME and VVAE of *Vitis vinifera* leaves.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Chemical used

Cholesterol (Hi Media) cholic acid (Hi Media), Simvastatin (sample from beta drugs pvt. ltd), Aluminium chloride (Nice chemicals), Ascorbic acid (Sigma), DPPH (SD Fine), Folin ciocalteu reagent (Sigma), Gallic acid, Methanol (Nice chemicals) and spectrophotometric analysis was carried out by using UV spectrophotometer (Shimadzu). Erba diagnostic kits were used for estimation of total cholesterol, total triglyceride and HDL levels in serum.

Plant material

Fresh leaves of *Vitis vinifera* was collected on April 2013 from the Tau Devial National herbal park, Khizrabad, Haryana, India and authenticated by Dr. Shiddamallayya N., National Ayurveda Dietetics Research Institute, Bangalore, India (specimen number RRCBI-MUS-125).

Preparation of extract

Leaves of *Vitis vinifera* was washed in water and shade dried. The dried leaves were grinded into coarse powder. Then, plant material was packed into soxhlet and extraction was carried with soxhlation for 72 hrs using methanol aqueous. The extract was concentrated using vacuum rotary evaporator at 40°C, dried and stored in a refrigerator at 4°C throughout

Cite this article: Harde PA, Shah MB. Pharmacognostic Studies and HPLC Analysis of Roots of *Helicteres isora* (L.). Pharmacogn J. 2017;9(4):565-72.

the duration of study.³ The % yield of VVME and VVAE was found as 8.4% and 11.2% w/w, respectively.

Qualitative estimation of Phytoconstituents

The qualitative phytochemical screening of VVME and VVAE was carried out to determine phytoconstituents present by using standard test.⁴⁻⁵

Quantitative estimation of Phytoconstituents

Total phenolic content⁶

Total phenolic content in the extracts was determined with Folin ciocalteu reagent using gallic acid as a standard. Different concentrations (50, 100, 150, 250, and 500 mg/l) of gallic acid solutions were prepared. 1 ml of solution was taken in 25 ml volumetric flask, 10 ml distilled water was added to each and then 1.5 ml of the folin ciocalteu reagent was added and mixed well. After 8-10 min, 4 ml sodium carbonate solution (7.5% w/v) was added and volume was adjusted upto 25 ml. Solutions were kept at 40°C for 30 min and absorbance was determined at 765 nm against the blank and plot absorbance vs concentration. The concentration of total phenols was expressed as mg/g of gallic acid equivalent dry weight and experiment was performed in triplicate.

Total flavonoids content⁷

The aluminum chloride colorimetric method was used to determine the flavonoid content of plant extracts. 0.5 mg/ml of extract solution was added into 1.5 ml of methanol. 0.1 ml of 10% aluminium chloride was added followed by incubation for 5 minutes after which 0.1 ml potassium acetate (1 M). Finally, 2.8 ml distill water was added and shaken and kept at room temperature for 30 min. Absorbance of the sample was noted at 420 nm with UV spectrophotometer. Rutin was used as the standard for the calibration curve. From the rutin stock solution 10, 20, 30, 50 and 100 mg/l solutions was prepared. Similarly, in place of extract sample 0.5 ml of rutin solution was added. Flavonoid contents were expressed as mg/g rutin equivalent dry weight. A yellow color indicated the presence of flavonoids. From the standard graph, the amount of total flavonoids content in the sample as per absorbance values were calculated and expressed as rutin equivalents (mg/g).

Total tannin content⁸

Total tannin content was estimated using vanillin hydrochloride method. Vanillin hydrochloride (mix equal volume of 8% HCl in methanol and 4% vanillin in methanol) was freshly prepared. 1 ml of extract solution was added in 5 ml vanillin hydrochloride reagent and allowed to stand for 20 min. Rutin stock containing 10 mg rutin/ml of different concentrations 10, 20, 30, 50 and 100 mg/ml was prepared with methanol and absorbance was measured at 490 nm. Total tannin content in the sample was calculated from the standard graph.

Total alkaloids content⁹

1 mg extract was dissolved in dimethyl sulphoxide (DMSO) and 1 ml of 2 N HCl was added and filtered. Transferred the sample into separating funnel and 5 ml of bromocresol green solution was added and 5 ml of phosphate buffer (pH 4.7). 1, 2, 3 and 4 ml chloroform was added by vigorous shaking, collected in volumetric flask (10 ml) and volume was made up with chloroform. Stock solution of atropine was prepared and concentrations 20, 40, 60, 80 and 100 µg/ml was prepared in the similar manner as extract. Absorbance was measured at 470 nm with an UV/Visible spectrophotometer and expressed as mg of atropine/g of extract.

Total saponins content¹⁰

1 ml of plant extract sample was added in methanol (80%) and 2 ml of vanillin in ethanol and mixed well. Then, 2 ml H₂SO₄ (70%) was added and heated at temperature 60°C in water bath for 10 min. Absorbance of

sample was noted at 544 nm against blank. Diosgenin was used as standard and calibration curve was prepared. The different concentration of Diosgenin 10, 20, 40, 80, 150 µg/ml was used for preparing standard curve. From the standard graph, the amount of saponins in the sample as per absorbance values was calculated and expressed as diosgenin equivalents (mg/g).

Total steroids content¹⁰

1 ml of plant extract sample was added in a 10 ml volumetric flask and 2 ml H₂SO₄ (4 N) and 2 ml ferric chloride (0.5% W/V) was added into the extract. Then, 0.5 ml potassium hexacyanoferrate (III) solution (0.5%) was added. The mixture was heated in the water bath at temperature 70±20°C for 30 min. The volume was made up with distill water and absorbance was noted at 780 nm against blank. Cycloartenol was used as standard and different concentration of cycloartenol 10, 20, 40, 80, 160 µg/ml was used for absorbance and standard curve. From the standard graph, the amount of steroid in the sample as per absorbance values was calculated and expressed as cycloartenol equivalent (mg/g).

Total terpenoids content¹¹

Take 100 g of plant powdered material was soaked in alcohol for 20-25 h. Then, filtered and extracted with petroleum ether. Extract was evaporated, weighed and ether extract treated as total terpenoids content.

Antioxidant activity (in vitro)

DPPH radical scavenging activity¹²

The hydrogen-donating ability of each extract was examined according to the method previously described in the presence of a DPPH stable radical. Ascorbic acid at various concentrations (10-200 µg/ml) was used as standard. The antioxidant activity was calculated as % inhibition using formula: % inhibition = (A_{blank} - A_{sample}) / A_{blank} * 100

A_{blank} = absorbance of the control

A_{sample} = absorbance in the presence of the extract.

Superoxide radical scavenging activity¹³

NBT (Nitro blue tetrazolium reagent) was used to generate the superoxide radical by auto oxidation of hydroxylamine hydrochloride and reduced into nitrite. Different concentrations (20-500 µg/ml) of sample were prepared and 1 ml of 50 mM sodium carbonate, 0.4 ml of 24 mM NBT 0.2 ml of 0.1 mM EDTA solution was added. The absorbance was recorded at 560 nm in 0 min. The reaction starts after adding 0.4 ml of 1 mM hydroxylamine hydrochloride in the above solution and incubated at 25°C for 15 minute.

Hydroxyl radical scavenging activity¹⁴

Hydroxyl radical generation by phenylhydrazine was measured by 2-deoxyribose degradation assay. 1 mM deoxyribose, was added in 50 mM phosphate buffer (pH 7.4) containing 0.2 mM phenylhydrazine hydrochloride in a test tube. Incubation was terminated after 1 hour. 1 ml of TCA (2.8%) and thiobarbituric acid (1% w/v) was added in reaction mixture and mixture was heated for 10-15 min on water bath, cooled and the absorbance was measured at 532 nm.

Nitric oxide scavenging activity¹⁵

For estimation of nitric oxide scavenging activity of extracts, nitrite detection method was used. Sodium nitroprusside (10 mM) in 0.5 M phosphate buffer (pH 7.4) used as source of NO in an aqueous solution. Further, the sample was incubated for 60 min at 37°C and Griess reagent (α-naphthyl-ethylenediamine 0.1% in water and sulphanilic acid 1% in H₃PO₄ 5%) was added. For the control reagent, same reaction mixture prepared without the extract but equivalent amount of distilled water.

Antioxidant activity index¹⁶

Antioxidant activity index (AAI) was determined by the 2,2-diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl method proposed by Scherer and Godoy. Antioxidant activity index (AAI) was calculated by the formula:

$$AAI = \text{final concentration of DPPH in control} / IC_{50}$$

According to the AAI scale:

AAI < 0.5 poor antioxidant activity

0.5 < AAI < 1.0 moderate antioxidant activity

1.0 < AAI < 2.0 strong antioxidant activity

AAI > 2.0 very strong antioxidant activity

Animals

Wistar rats (both sex) were used in the study and experimental protocol was duly approved by Institutional Animal Ethics Committee (MMCP/IAEC/13/36). Animals were kept as per the guidelines of committee for the purpose of control and supervision of experiments on animals (CPC-SEA) in Department of Pharmaceutical Sciences, Maharishi Markandeshwar University, Ambala, India. Animals were fed normal chow diet and *ad libitum* under controlled environmental condition of temperature (24-28°C), relative humidity 60-70% and natural light/dark cycle (12:12).

Antioxidant activity (in vivo)¹⁷

Both extracts were administered in experimental animals for 7 days with different doses (100, 200 and 400 mg/kg) and serum was separated with centrifugation at a speed of 3000 rpm for 10 min. The level of reduced glutathione and catalase was measured in serum.

Estimation of reduced glutathione¹⁸

Reduced glutathione level was estimated by Moran *et al.* method. 1 ml of serum was added in 6 ml phosphate buffer 0.2 M (pH 8.0) and 1 ml DTNB 0.6 mM. Then, mixture was incubated at room temperature for 10 min. The absorbance was noted at 412 nm and standard curve was prepared by using different concentrations (0-50 µg/ml) of GSH. GSH concentration was calculated using dilution factor and expressed as µg/mg of protein.

Estimation of catalase activity¹⁹

The reaction mixture (2 ml) was containing 1.5 ml H₂O₂ (10 mM) in 50 mM phosphate buffer (pH 7.0). 0.5 ml supernatant was added and reaction started. The absorbance was noted at 240 nm and phosphate buffer (50 mM, pH 7.0) was used as standard. The extinction coefficient of 0.04 mM⁻¹cm⁻¹ was used and it was expressed as U/mg protein. The unit of catalase is defined as the quantity, which decomposes 1.0 µmole of H₂O₂ per min at pH 7.0 and 25°C, while the H₂O₂ concentration falls from 10.3 to 9.2 mM.

Induction of hypercholesterolemia with cholesterol diet²⁰⁻²¹

Wistar Albino rats (200-220 g) were procured under controlled environmental conditions. Atherosclerosis was induced by administration of cholesterol diet (cholesterol 2% w/w and cholic acid 0.5% w/w along with basal diet) for 21 days. Simvastatin (dose 10 mg/kg), VVME and VVAE (dose 100 mg/kg, 200 mg/kg and 400 mg/kg) were administered for 21 days.

Changes in body weight

The change in the body weights was recorded weekly and % change in body weights was calculated using formula:

$$\% \text{ change in weight} = (\text{final weight} - \text{initial weight}) / \text{initial weight} \times 100$$

Biochemical estimations

At the end of study, blood was collected via retro-orbital plexus and centrifuged at 3000 rpm for 10 min and serum was separated. The serum

glucose, triglycerides, total cholesterol and HDL level was measured using enzymatic kits. The levels of LDL and VLDL were calculated using Friedewald equation.

Liver functions test²²

The levels of SGOT and SGPT were also analysed in the blood samples at the end of study using diagnostic kits.

Histopathological studies

Then, animals were sacrificed and heart was isolated for histopathology. A portion of heart tissue was dissected out and fixed in 10% formalin solution and histopathological studies were carried out.

Atherogenic Index²³

Atherogenic index and % protection was also calculated at the end of study using formulas:

Statistical analysis

All the data were shown mean values and represented as mean ± SEM. Statistical analysis was done with Dunnett's multiple comparison tests using Graph pad Instat 1.0 software (version 3.10). In statistical analysis, p < 0.05 was considered to be significant; b = vs cholesterol control; c = vs 100 mg/kg dose; d = vs 200 mg/kg dose; p < 0.05 = *; p < 0.01 = ^; p < 0.001 = ...

RESULTS

Qualitative and Quantitative estimation of phytoconstituents

VVME and VVAE revealed that flavonoids, phenolic, tannins, saponins, steroids and terpenoids were present. Moreover, alkaloids were present in VVME (Table 1). In VVME, total tannins content, total flavonoids content and total phenolic content was found to be present in major amounts (Table 2).

In vitro antioxidant activity of VVME and VVAE

In DPPH scavenging assay, 500 µg/ml of VVME and VVAE produced 68.25% and 62.08% inhibition. Whereas, in hydroxyl radical scavenging activity, 500 µg/ml of VVME and VVAE produced 54.06% and 52.75% inhibition, respectively. In superoxide radical scavenging assay ascorbic acid, VVME and VVAE produced 76.15%, 60.50% and 54.92% inhibition, respectively. In nitric oxide radical assay, ascorbic acid, VVME and VVAE have 86.20%, 65.07% and 56.09% inhibition, respectively. Antioxidant effect of VVME in different assay is in following order: DPPH > Nitric oxide > Superoxide > Hydroxyl radicals. VVME was found to have strong antioxidant effect than VVAE. The antioxidant effect was found in following order: ascorbic acid > VVME > VVAE.

DPPH generate free radical and widely used to determine the antioxidant potential of various drugs and plant extracts. The inhibition mechanism of lipid oxidation is one of the known free radical scavenging activity that occurs exogenously in human body.^{24,25} Although superoxide anion is a weak oxidant and has important role in the generation of other ROS, like hydroxyl radical, hydrogen peroxide, or singlet oxygen which contribute to oxidative stress in living systems.²⁶ The present study suggested that there is a strong correlation between superoxide and hydroxyl radical scavenging activity and phenolics (22.27 ± 1.69), flavonoid (34.10 ± 0.26) and tannins (33.27 ± 0.32) contents of VVME. Nitric oxide (NO) scavengers from the extracts compete with oxygen, leading to reduced production of nitrite ions. There is no significant correlation was found between NO radicals scavenging activity and phenolics. Hence, bioactive substances other than phenolics, tannins and flavonoids may be the reason for scavenging activity in extracts.

IC₅₀ values of ascorbic acid, VVME and VVAE is shown in table 3. IC₅₀ is used to express the concentration or amount of samples/extracts desired

to scavenge 50% of the free radicals. The scavenging activity of a sample/extract is inversely proportional to the IC_{50} value.

Antioxidant Activity Index (AAI) of ascorbic acid, VVME and VVAE was found to be $4.43 > 2.05 > 1.48$ respectively. According to AAI, both ascorbic acid and VVME lies into very strong category and VVAE lies into strong antioxidant category.¹⁶

In vivo antioxidant activity

Administration of different doses of VVME and VVAE significantly elevated the serum catalase level and serum reduced glutathione level. The increase in the amount of serum catalase was found to be dose dependent. In VVME 400 mg/kg, the level of reduced glutathione and catalase was found maximum (6.32 ± 1.12 μ g/mg of protein and 7.55 ± 2.66 μ M/min/mg of protein) as compared to other groups (Table 4). As a preliminary step towards unveiling the mechanism of actions of these extracts in oxidative stress, their effects on common oxidative stress marker enzymes such as serum glutathione and catalase was estimated. The significant increase in serum GSH suggested that the activation of the GSH synthetic pathway does not occur as outcome of an increased production of free radicals and with non-significant depletion of the total protein.² Also, it could be indirect pathway that one or more constituents of extract probably have some biochemical action on GSH production or affect the reduction process of GSSG to GSH. In addition, molecular evidence also suggest that the ability of some phenolic compounds to activate c-glutamylcysteine synthetase (a rate-limiting enzyme in GSH synthesis).²⁷ According to a study, due to plant bioactive secondary metabolites, the increment in GSH concentration contributes to the chemoprevention against environmental carcinogens.²⁸ Glutathione is vital intracellular free radicals scavenging agent and co-substrate for various enzymes. Also, it has an important role in the degradation of H_2O_2 and molecule itself undergoes oxidation process from its reduced state GSH to its oxidized state GSSG. It is active against free radicals, peroxide and other toxic compounds and protects the cells. GSH, majorly, involve into metabolism, catalysis and transportation. In kidney, GSH involve in the reabsorption of amino acids during transportation.²⁹ Enzymatic antioxidant systems such as catalase, glutathione peroxidase, play a coordinated role in the prevention of oxidative damage by ROS. On the other hand, catalases have heme proteins and protect the cells from toxic effects of ROS. They convert H_2O_2 into water and molecular oxygen. During aerobic metabolism, superoxide anion is being produced as a byproduct. Superoxide dismutase breaks it up into H_2O and H_2O_2 and then H_2O_2 is converted to H_2O and O_2 by catalase.³⁰ Administration of extracts enhanced the antioxidant enzymes (GSH and catalase) activity in a dose dependent manner. The improved antioxidant enzymes activity may offer an effective defense system and prevent from the damage of free radicals.²

Finally it can be concluded that secondary metabolites act as small molecular weight antioxidants and perform directly as antiradical agent or break chain reaction of free radical and interact with transition metals. Plants secondary metabolites can act indirectly include inhibition of ROS-generating enzymes such as xanthine oxidase or induce nitric oxide synthase or up-regulate the SOD or other enzymes activity.³¹ Phenolic compounds have the capability to adsorb or neutralize or quench ROS. Also, flavonoids or related compounds exhibit *in vitro* and *in vivo* antioxidant potential.³²

Change in body weight of experimental animals

Hyperlipidemia or hypercholesterolemia in rats can be induced by supplementing cholesterol diet (sub-acute model).³³ Excessive cholesterol feeding leads to susceptibility to hypercholesterolemia and arteriosclerosis and further promotes the development of obesity and dyslipidemia in both humans and rodents by altering the plasma cholesterol and triglyc-

eride levels.³⁴ According to literature, hypercholesterolemia animals are used to study the cholesterol homeostasis as convenient models. As well as, to understand the association between cholesterol metabolism disorders, a atherogenesis or possible treatments to reduce lipid levels in drug trials.³⁵ Also, administration of cholesterol diet significantly changes in the body weight of rats during the experimentation. The body weights of animals were measured weekly during 21 days of treatment. The % change in body weight of VVME 100 mg/kg, 200 mg/kg and 400 mg/kg group animals were found to be 14.6%, 12.9% and 13.2%, respectively. The % change in body weight of VVAE 100 mg/kg, 200 mg/kg and 400 mg/kg groups were found to be 23.8%, 23.7% and 19.8% respectively.

Effect of VVME and VVAE on glucose level

200 mg/kg and 400 mg/kg of VVME significantly lowered the glucose level as compared to cholesterol control (Figure 1)

Effect of VVME and VVAE on lipid level

The total cholesterol level was found to be significantly elevated in experimental animals and different doses of VVME and VVAE produced a significant attenuation in serum cholesterol level. The maximum attenuation in total cholesterol level was found in VVAE 200 mg/kg (140.2 mg/dl). The total triglyceride level was elevated in the experimental animals and administration of different doses of VVME and VVAE significantly attenuated the triglyceride level. The maximum attenuation in triglyceride level was found in VVME 400 mg/kg group (115.5 mg/dl). Similarly, LDL level was also found to be significantly elevated in experimental animals and different doses of VVME and VVAE produced a significant attenuation in LDL level. The VLDL level was found to be significantly attenuated in cholesterol control as compared to normal control. Whereas, HDL level was found to be decreased in experimental animals and administration of different doses of VVME and VVAE significantly elevated the HDL level after 21 days treatment. (Figure 2-6)

High cholesterol diets acts as extrinsic inducer and significantly increase the cholesterol, triglyceride, LDL levels and decrease HDL level. Increase in LDL has been indicated one of the risk factors in development of atherosclerosis and other related cardiovascular disorders.³⁶ High triglyceride levels also a marker and important risk factor that influences lipid deposition and clotting mechanisms. Numerous experimental reports showed that cholesterol and high dietary fat induce hypercholesterolemia in animal models.^{37,38} Similar results were also observed with the high cholesterol diet animals have increase lipid status and increased lipid level act as indicator of establishment of hypercholesterolemia in animal models.

HDL cholesterol is inversely connected with total cholesterol and several evidences are available regarding this fact. A reduction in HDL level may impair the clearance of cholesterol from the arterial wall and speed up the development of atherosclerosis that further lead to ischemic heart diseases.³⁹

Effect of VVME and VVAE on SGOT and SGPT level

Administration of cholesterol diet resulted in elevation of SGOT and SGPT levels in cholesterol control animals as compared to normal control after 21 days. Administration of different doses of VVME and VVAE significantly attenuated the elevated SGOT and SGPT levels. (Figure 7) The elevated level in cholesterol control animals may be due to leakage of the enzymes into the serum and damage the integrity of the heart and liver. Also, increased level of these enzymes is reported as indicators of deliberate risk of cardiovascular disease.⁴⁰ In case of severe hepatocellular injury, SGOT and SGPT are released into serum. In the absence of viral hepatitis and alcoholism, increased SGPT level can lead to a higher risk of cardiovascular disease with more risk in women. Also a high SGOT content is found in heart which becomes more elevated in myo-

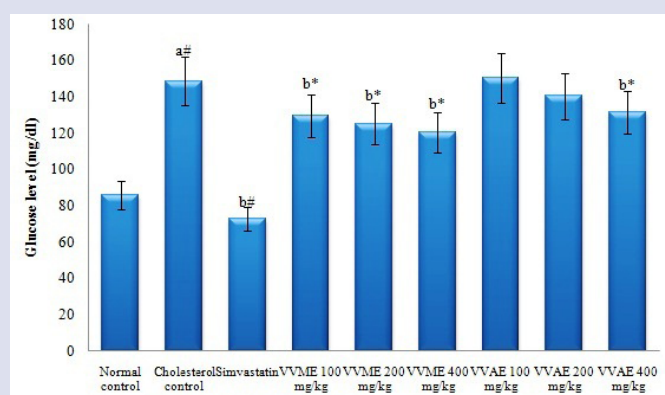


Figure 1: Effect of VVME and VVAE on glucose level in cholesterol induced hypercholesterolemia. Values are represented as mean \pm SEM, n=6. In statistical analysis, p<0.05 was considered to be significant; a = vs normal control; b = vs cholesterol control; p< 0.05 = *; p< 0.01 = \wedge ; p< 0.001 = #.

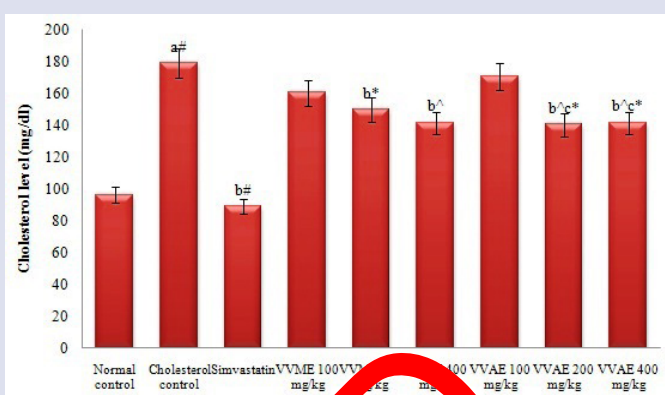


Figure 2: Effect of VVME and VVAE on cholesterol level in cholesterol induced hypercholesterolemia. Values are represented as mean \pm SEM, n=6. In statistical analysis, p<0.05 was considered to be significant; a = vs normal control; b = vs cholesterol control; p< 0.05 = *; p< 0.01 = \wedge ; p< 0.001 = #.

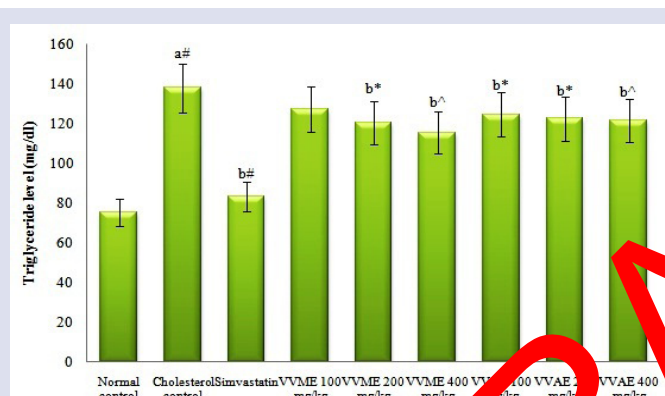


Figure 3: Effect of VVME and VVAE on triglyceride level in cholesterol induced hypercholesterolemia. Values are represented as mean \pm SEM, n=6. In statistical analysis, p<0.05 was considered to be significant; a = vs normal control; b = vs cholesterol control; p< 0.05 = *; p< 0.01 = \wedge ; p< 0.001 = #.



Figure 4: Effect of VVME and VVAE on LDL level in cholesterol induced hypercholesterolemia. Values are represented as mean \pm SEM, n=6. In statistical analysis, p<0.05 was considered to be significant; a = vs normal control; b = vs cholesterol control; c = vs 100 mg/kg dose; p< 0.05 = *; p< 0.01 = \wedge ; p< 0.001 = #.

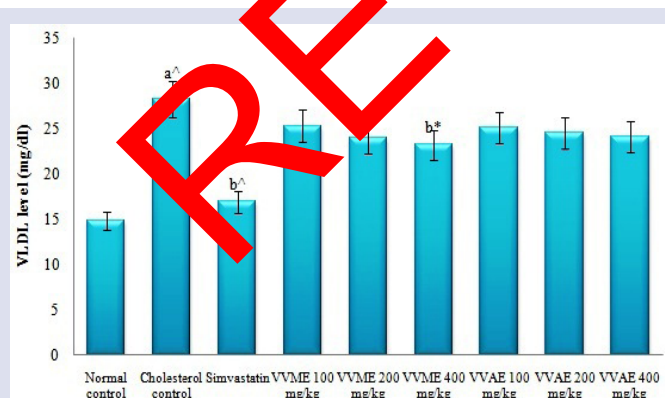


Figure 5: Effect of VVME and VVAE on VLDL level in cholesterol induced hypercholesterolemia. Values are represented as mean \pm SEM, n=6. In statistical analysis, p<0.05 was considered to be significant; a = vs normal control; b = vs cholesterol control; p< 0.05 = *; p< 0.01 = \wedge ; p< 0.001 = #.

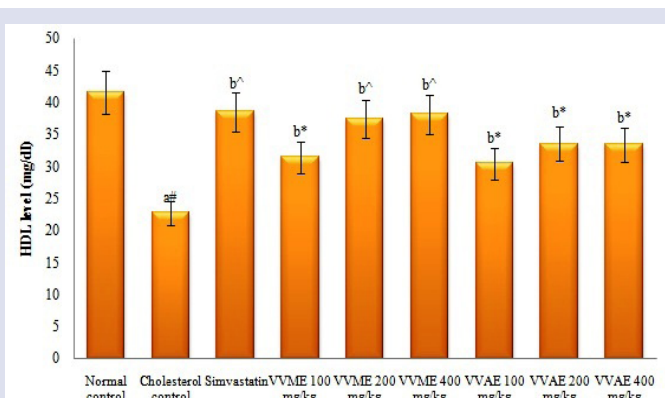


Figure 6: Effect of VVME and VVAE on HDL level in cholesterol induced hypercholesterolemia. Values are represented as mean \pm SEM, n=6. In statistical analysis, p<0.05 was considered to be significant; a = vs normal control; b = vs cholesterol control; p< 0.05 = *; p< 0.01 = \wedge ; p< 0.001 = #.

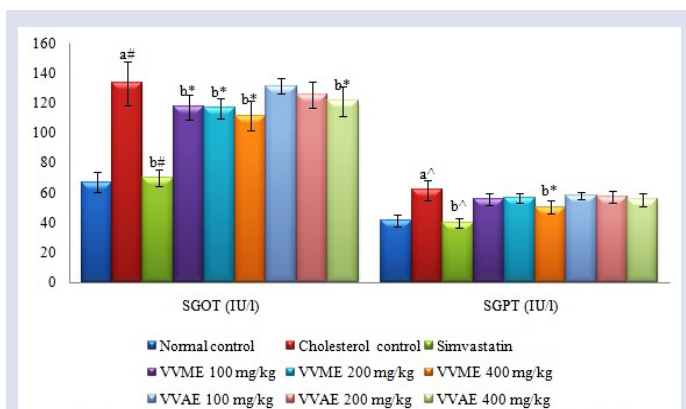


Figure 7: Effect of VVME and VVAE on SGOT and SGPT level in cholesterol induced hypercholesterolemia. Values are represented as mean \pm SEM, n=6. In statistical analysis, $p < 0.05$ was considered to be significant; a = vs normal control; b = vs cholesterol control; $p < 0.05 = *$; $p < 0.01 = ^\wedge$; $p < 0.001 = \#$.

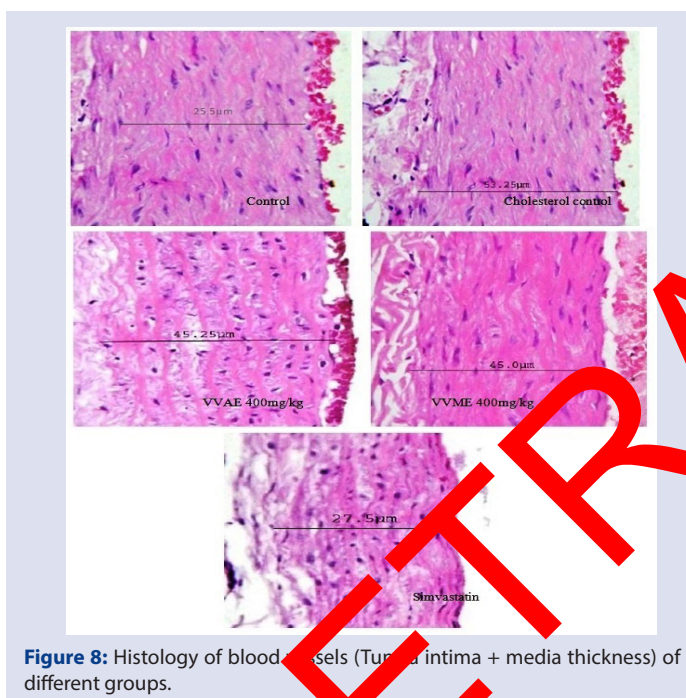


Figure 8: Histology of blood vessels (Tunica intima + media thickness) of different groups.

cardiac infarction case.⁴¹ As well as, in the present study, histology results showed the disruption of endothelial lining in aorta, presence of foamy macrophage, increased thickness of lining and cardiovascular distress in cholesterol fed rats.

Histopathology of blood vessels

The histology of blood vessels (Tunica intima + media thickness) in cholesterol induced atherosclerosis is shown in 8. In normal control section, the layers of artery and endothelial lining appeared intact and tunica intima, media and adventitia appeared within normal limits. The thickness of tunica intima + media was found to be 25.5 μ m. In cholesterol control section, the layers of artery appeared intact except for disruption of the endothelial lining. Within the tunica intima and media were seen lipids containing elongated smooth muscle cells in single and aggregates of foamy macrophages. The tunica intima + media thickness was found to be 53.2 μ m. In Atorvastatin section, the layers of artery and endothelial lining appeared intact. The tunica intima, media and adventitia appeared

within normal limits. The thickness of tunica intima + media was found to be 27.5 μ m. In VVME 400 mg/kg section, the layers of artery appeared intact and few areas appeared disrupted. There were seen few scattered lipid containing spindle cells between the tunica intima and tunica media. Tunica adventitia appeared within normal limits and thickness was found to be 45.0 μ m. In VVAE 400 mg/kg section, layers of artery appeared intact except for disruption of the endothelial lining. Within tunica intima and media were seen lipids containing smooth muscle cells in single and aggregates of foamy macrophages. The thickness of tunica intima + media was found to be 45.25 μ m.

Effect on atherogenic index and % protection

The cholesterol control showed significant atherogenic index as compared to normal control (0.422 - high risk). In VVME 400 mg/kg found lowest atherogenic index (0.120) and maximum % protection as compared to other experimental groups. (Table 5) In 400 mg/kg of VVME group, atherogenic index and lipid profile were significantly improved with an improvement in the thickening of aortic wall. It can be state that decreased lipid levels might be an experimental tool to determine anti-atherogenicity of plant extract or other metabolites. As well as, histological assessment can be considered primary to determine the degree of degeneration of atherosclerosis in biochemical markers.⁴²

CONCLUSION

Grapes are utilised and grape skins and seeds produced in large quantities by the winemaking industry are increasingly used to obtain functional food ingredients.¹ Grapes are the better source of antioxidative constituents than skins of grape/wine byproducts. Functional ingredients of grape include several flavonoids with a phenolic nature such as monomeric flavanols, dimeric, trimeric and polymeric procyanidins, and phenolic acids.^{43,44} A few reports also indicated that extract of *Vitis vinifera* have strong antioxidant activity.⁴⁵ According to literature, flavonoids possess many pharmacological activities like antihyperlipidemic, hypoglycemic and antidiabetic activities. The presence of tannins and saponins in medicinal plant causes the inhibition of lipid absorption. So, it may be concluded that antioxidant and anti-hypercholesterolemic efficacy of *Vitis vinifera* might be due to presence of antioxidant property and active phytoconstituents.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

Authors convey their gratitude to Beta Drugs Pvt. Ltd. and Maharishi Markandeshwar University for support of this project.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

Authors have no conflict of interest.

ABBREVIATION USED

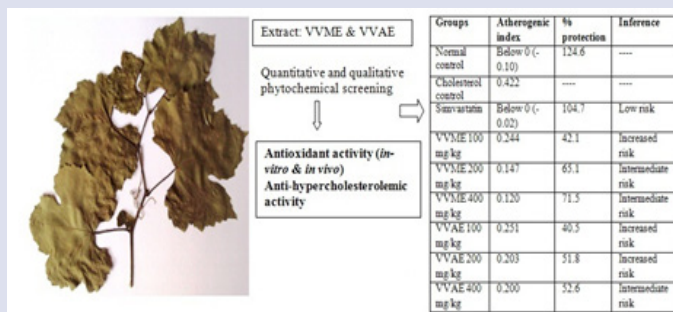
AAI: Antioxidant activity index; CVD: Cardiovascular disease; DPPH: 2,2-diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl; DTNB: 5,5'-Dithiobis(2-nitrobenzoic acid); EDTA: Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid; GSH: Glutathione; GSSG: Glutathione disulfide; HDL: High density lipoproteins; LDL: Low density lipoproteins; NBT: Nitro blue tetrazolium; NO: Nitric oxide; ROS: Reactive oxygen species; SGOT: Serum glutamic oxaloacetic transaminase; SGPT: Serum glutamic pyruvic transaminase; SOD: Superoxide Dismutase; TCA: Trichloroacetic acid; VLDL: Very low density lipoproteins; VVAE: *Vitis vinifera* aqueous extract; VVME: *Vitis vinifera* methanolic extract

REFERENCES

- Zhou T, Zhang T, Liu W, Zhao G. Physicochemical characteristics and functional properties of grape (*Vitis vinifera* L.) seeds protein. International journal of

- food science & technology. 2011;46(3):635-41. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2621.2010.02532.x>.
2. Rahman K. Studies on free radicals, antioxidants, and co-factors. Clinical interventions in aging. 2007;2(2):219. PMID:18044138 PMCID:PMC2684512.
 3. Handa SS, Khanuja SP, Longo G, Rakesh DD. Extraction Technologies for Medicinal and Aromatic Plants, no. 66. Italy: United Nations Industrial Development Organization and the International Centre for Science and High Technology. Trieste. 2008.
 4. Khandelwal KR. Practical Pharmacognosy, twelfth ed. Nirali Prakashan, Pune 2004.
 5. World Health Organization. WHO guidelines for assessing quality of herbal medicines with reference to contaminants and residues.
 6. Bali EB, Açık L, Elçi P, Sarper M, Avcu F, et al. *In vitro* anti-oxidant, cytotoxic and pro-apoptotic effects of *Achillea teretifolia* Willd extracts on human prostate cancer cell lines. Pharmacognosy magazine. 2015 Oct;11(Suppl 2):S308. <https://doi.org/10.4103/0973-1296.166060>; PMID:26664020 PMCID:PMC4653342.
 7. Stankovic MS. Total phenolic content, flavonoid concentration and antioxidant activity of *Marrubium peregrinum* L. extracts. Kragujevac J Sci. 2011;33(2011):63-72.
 8. Padma R, Parvathy NG, Renjith V, Kalpana PR, Rahate P. Quantitative estimation of tannins, phenols, and antioxidant activity of methanolic extract of *Imperata cylindrica*. Int J Res Pharm Sci. 2013;4(1):73-7.
 9. Rahmalia A, Esyanti RR, Iriawati. A Qualitative and quantitative evaluation of terpenoid and alkaloid in root and stem of pasak bumi (*Eurycoma longifolia* Jack). J Matematika Dan Sains. 2011; 16: 49-52.
 10. Patra A, Jha S, Sahu AN. Antidiabetic activity of aqueous extract of *Eucalyptus citriodora* hook. in alloxan induced. Pharmacogn Mag. 2009;5(19): 51-54.
 11. Odoh UE, Ndubukwu RI, Inya-Agha SI, Osadebe PO, Uzor Philip FEM. Antidiabetic activity and phytochemical screening of *Acalypha wilkesiana* (Euphorbiaceae) Mull arg. roots in alloxan induced diabetic rats. Scientific Res Essays. 2014;9:204-12. <https://doi.org/10.5897/SRE2014.5824>.
 12. Shukla S, Mehta A, John J, Singh S, Mehta P, et al. Antioxidant activity and total phenolic content of ethanolic extract of *Caesalpinia bonducella* seeds. Food and Chemical Toxicology. 2009;47(8):1848-51. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fct.2009.04.040>; PMID:19422871.
 13. Hinneburg I, Dorman HD, Hiltunen R. Antioxidant activities of extracts from selected culinary herbs and spices. Food chemistry. 2006;97(1):122-9. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2005.03.028>.
 14. Rao BK, Kesavulu MM, Giri R, Rao CA. Antidiabetic and hypolipidemic effects of *Momordica charantia* Hook. fruit powder in alloxan-diabetic rats. Journal of ethnopharmacology. 1999;67(1):103-9. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0378-8741\(99\)00004-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0378-8741(99)00004-5).
 15. Batiston WP, Swami AM, Sandra TMG, Jesui VV, Nishan ED, Maito M. Total phenolic content and antioxidant capacity of methanolic extracts of *Centella asiatica*. Acta Scientiarum. 2013; 35: 581-5.
 16. Raut NA, Gaikwad NJ. Antidiabetic activity of hydro-ethanol extract of *Cyperus rotundus* in alloxan induced diabetes rats. Fitoterapia. 2006;77(7):585-8. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fitote.2006.09.003>; PMID:17056202.
 17. Lukačinová A, Mojžiš J, Beňačka R, Keller J, Maguš T, et al. Preventive effects of flavonoids on alloxan-induced diabetes mellitus in rats. Acta Veterinaria Brno. 2008;77(2):175-82. <https://doi.org/10.2754/avb200877020175>.
 18. Okonkwo TJ, Okonkwo CJ. Antioxidant properties of *Diospyros preussi* (Ebenaceae Gurke) seed oil. Tropical Journal of Pharmaceutical Research. 2009;8(6).
 19. Ahmad N, Mukhtar H. Green tea polyphenols and cancer: biologic mechanisms and practical implications. Nutrition review. 1999;57(3):78-83. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1753-4887.1999.tb00607.x>; PMID:10101921.
 20. Machhi JP, Saini NN. Study of antihyperlipidemic activity of polyherbal preparation using rats as experimental animal model. International Journal of Pharmaceutical Sciences and Research. 2012;3(10):4010.
 21. Parasuraman S, Ramurugan S, Christopher PV, Petchi RR, Yeng WY, et al. Evaluation of Antidiabetic and Antihyperlipidemic Effects of Hydroalcoholic Extract of Leaves of *Ocimum sanctum* (Lamiaceae) and Prediction of Biological Activity of its Phytoconstituents. Pharmacognosy research. 2015;7(2):156. <https://doi.org/10.4103/0974-8490.151457>; PMID:25829789 PMCID:PMC4357966.
 22. Shao F, Gu L, Chen H, Liu R, Huang H, Ren G. Comparison of hypolipidemic and antioxidant effects of aqueous and ethanol extracts of *Crataegus*. Pharmacogn Mag. 2016; 12(45): 64-69. <https://doi.org/10.4103/0973-1296.176049>; PMID:27019563 PMCID:PMC4787339.
 23. Millán J, Pintó X, Mu-oz A, Zú-iga M, Rubiés-Prat J, Pallardo LF. Lipoprotein ratios: Physiological significance and clinical usefulness in cardiovascular prevention. Vasc Health Risk Manag. 2009; 5: 757-65. PMID:19774217 PMCID:PMC2747394.
 24. Cotelle N, Bernier JL, Catteau JP, Pommery J, Wallet JC, Gaydou EM. Antioxidant properties of hydroxy-flavones. Free Radical Biology and Medicine. 1996;20(1):35-43. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0891-5849\(95\)02014-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/0891-5849(95)02014-4).
 25. Barros L, Ferreira MJ, Queiros B, Ferreira IC, Baptista P. Total phenols, ascorbic acid, β -carotene and lycopene in Portuguese wild edible mushrooms and their antioxidant activities. Food chemistry. 2007;103(2):413-9. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2006.07.038>.
 26. Rahal A, Kumar A, Singh V, Yadav B, Tiwari R, et al. Oxidative stress, prooxidants, and antioxidants: the interplay. BioMed research international. 2014. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2014/761264>; PMID:24587990 PMCID:PMC3920909.
 27. Olukanni OD, Akande OT, Alagbe YO, Adeyemi OS, Olukanni AT, et al. Lemon juice elevated level of reduced glutathione and improved lipid profile in Wistar rats. American-Eurasian Journal of Agricultural & Environmental Sciences. 2013;13(9):1246-51.
 28. Abraham SK, Singh SP. Anti-genotoxicity and glutathione S-transferase activity in mice pretreated with caffeinated and decaffeinated coffee. Food and chemical toxicology. 1999;37(7):733-9. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0278-6915\(99\)00053-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0278-6915(99)00053-8).
 29. Alam MN, Bristi NJ, Rafiqzaman M. Review on *in vivo* and *in vitro* methods evaluation of antioxidant activity. Saudi Pharmaceutical Journal. 2013;21(2):143-52. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sjps.2012.01.002>; PMID:24936134 PMCID:PMC4052538.
 30. Sharma P, Jha AB, Dubey RS, Pessarakli M. Antioxidant, oxygen species, oxidative damage, and antioxidant defense mechanisms in plants under stressful conditions. Journal of Botany. 2012. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2012/217037>.
 31. Malomo SO, Odeh A, Yakubu MT. *In vitro* and *in vivo* antioxidant activities of the aqueous extract of *Celastrus argenteus* leaves. Indian journal of pharmacology. 2011;53(3):278. <https://doi.org/10.4103/0253-7613.81519>; PMID:21713091 PMCID:PMC313079.
 32. Cartea ME, Francés J, M, Soengas P, Velasco P. Phenolic compounds in Brassica vegetables. Molecules. 2010;16(1):251-80. <https://doi.org/10.3390/molecules16010251>; PMID:2093847.
 33. Vogel HG. Drug Discovery and Evaluations. Pharmacological assays. Vogel WH, Schölkens B, Sandow J, Müller G and Vogel WF. Springer-Verlag Berlin Heidelberg New York. 2nd edition 2002. <https://doi.org/10.1007/3-540-29837-1>.
 34. Klop B, Elte J, Cabezas MC. Dyslipidemia in obesity: mechanisms and potential targets. Nutrients. 2013;5(4):1218-40. <https://doi.org/10.3390/nu5041218>; PMID:234084 PMCID:PMC3705344.
 35. Otunola GA, Oloyede OB, Oladiji AT, Afolayan AA. Effects of diet-induced hypercholesterolemia on the lipid profile and some enzyme activities in female Wistar rats. African Journal of Biochemistry Research. 2010;4(6):149-54.
 36. Bitzur R, Cohen H, Kamari Y, Shaish A, Harats D. Triglycerides and HDL cholesterol. Diabetes care. 2009;32(suppl 2):S373-7. <https://doi.org/10.2337/dc09-S343>; PMID:19875584 PMCID:PMC2811435.
 37. Cheng JY, Shih MF. Preventing dyslipidemia by *Chlorella pyrenoidosa* in rats and hamsters after chronic high fat diet treatment. Life sciences. 2005;76(26):3001-13. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lfs.2004.10.055>; PMID:15850594.
 38. Shao F, Gu L, Chen H, Liu R, Huang H, et al. Comparison of hypolipidemic and antioxidant effects of aqueous and ethanol extracts of *Crataegus pinnatifida* fruit in high-fat emulsion-induced hyperlipidemia rats. Pharmacognosy magazine. 2016;12(45):64. <https://doi.org/10.4103/0973-1296.176049>; PMID:27019563 PMCID:PMC4787339.
 39. Vergeer M, Holleboom AG, Kastelein JJ, Kuivenhoven JA. The HDL hypothesis: does high-density lipoprotein protect from atherosclerosis? Journal of lipid research. 2010;51(8):2058-73. <https://doi.org/10.1194/jlr.R001610>; PMID:20371550 PMCID:PMC2903818.
 40. Botros M, Sikaris KA. The de Ritis ratio: the test of time. Clin Biochem Rev. 2013;34(3):117-30. PMID:24353357 PMCID:PMC3866949.
 41. Kim W, Flamm SL, Di Bisceglie AM, Bodenheimer HC. Serum activity of alanine aminotransferase (ALT) as an indicator of health and disease. Hepatology. 2008;47(4):1363-70. <https://doi.org/10.1002/hep.22109>; PMID:18366115.
 42. Agbai EO, Njoku CJ, Nwafor A. Effect of aqueous extract of *Annona muricata* seed on atherogenicity in streptozotocin-induced diabetic rats. African Journal of Pharmacy and Pharmacology. 2015;9(30):745-55. <https://doi.org/10.5897/AJPP2015.4389>.
 43. Chai TT, Khoo CS, Tee CS, Wong FC. Alpha-glucosidase inhibitory and antioxidant potential of antidiabetic herb *Alternanthera sessilis*: Comparative analyses of leaf and callus solvent fractions. Pharmacognosy Magazine. 2016;12(48):253. PMID:27867265 PMCID:PMC5096269.
 44. Kirthikar KR, Basu BD. Indian Medicinal Plants, 2nd edition Dehra Dun. Bishen Singh, Mahendra Pal Singh, 1993; 607-8.
 45. Sapakal VD, Shikalgar TS, Ghadge RV, Adnaik RS, Naikwade NS, et al. *In vivo* screening of antioxidant profile: a review. J Herbal Med Toxicol. 2008;2(2):1-8.

GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT



SUMMARY

- In methanolic extract, total tannins, total flavonoids and total phenolic contents were found in major amount.
- Different doses of extracts significantly attenuated the lipid levels and effectiveness was confirmed with histological results.
- VVME was found to be more effective as compared to VVAE.
- Antioxidant and anti-hypercholesterolemic efficacy of *Vitis vinifera* might be due to presence of antioxidant property and active phytoconstituents.

AUTHOR PROFILE



Sushma Devi: Sushma Devi, Ph.D. Scholar (Pharmacology) in Maharshi Markandeya University, Mullana, Haryana, India.



Randhir Singh: Dr. Randhir Singh, Prof. (Pharmacology) in Maharshi Markandeya University, Mullana, Haryana, India. Presently working on a project of DST under the Young Scientist Award.

Cite this article: Devi S, Singh R. Antioxidant and Anti-hypercholesterolemic potential of *Vitis vinifera* leaves. Pharmacog J. 2017;9(4):565-72.