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# **Original Article : Open Access**

# **Marrubin natural immunomodulator: Studies on the suppressive effect on phagocytic nitric oxide and pharmacokinetic prediction**

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# **1. Introduction**

Oxidative stress and inflammation are interconnected processes implicated in various diseases. Oxidative stress arises from an imbalance between free radicals and antioxidants in the body (Segu Prathyusha, 2023). These free radicals, including reactive oxygen species (ROS), can damage cellular components, leading to tissue injury and inflammation (Valko *et al.,* 2007).

Inflammation is the body's response to harmful stimuli, such as pathogens or tissue damage, characterized by redness, swelling, heat, and pain (Afroz Alam and Adnan Ahmad Khan, 2022). Chronic inflammation and hyper immune activation can result from persistent oxidative stress and are associated with numerous health conditions, including acute bacterial or viral infections specifically SARS-CoV-2 infection, cardiovascular diseases, diabetes, and neurodegenerative disorders (Khushi Parnami and Sarla Lakhawat, 2022; Biswas, 2016). Free radicals play a significant role in

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inflammation by contributing to oxidative stress, which damages cells and tissues (Ghezzi, 2000; Pizzino *et al.,* 2017). Inflammation, characterized by the body's immune response to injury or infection, leads to the production of free radicals (Li and Kong, 2009). Excessive free radicals can cause oxidative damage to biomolecules like lipids, proteins, and DNA, exacerbating inflammation (Butterfield *et al.,* 2002).

Suppression of free radicals is crucial because oxidative stressinduced inflammation is implicated in various diseases, including cardiovascular diseases, cancer, diabetes, and neurodegenerative disorders (Segu Prathyusha, 2023). Antioxidants counteract the harmful effects of free radicals by neutralizing them or promoting their decomposition (Kim and Park, 2016). They are essential in maintaining cellular homeostasis and preventing oxidative damage (Forni *et al.,* 2019). Suppressing free radicals through antioxidants can help mitigate inflammation-associated tissue damage and reduce the risk of chronic diseases (Greanious *et al.,* 2021). Hence, understanding the role of free radicals in inflammation and the necessity of their suppression is crucial for developing therapeutic strategies to combat inflammation-related pathologies. Natural compounds, derived from plants or other natural sources, help combat oxidative damage by scavenging free radicals and reducing oxidative stress levels (Chaturvedi *et al.,* 2012). Substances like resveratrol and pterostilbene have been identified as potent

antioxidants, capable of modulating oxidative damage and mitigating the effects of oxidative stress (Awaneet Kaur *et al.,*2023). Additionally, natural compounds induce cytoprotective effects by ameliorating oxidative stress through their inherent antioxidant activities (Subramoniam, 2014).

Marrubin, a compound found in *Marrubium vulgare* (white horehound), exhibits various biological activities as reported in research papers. Pharmacological studies have highlighted its antinociceptive properties, demonstrating effectiveness against pain as evidenced by the writhing test (Adesina, *et al.,* 2017). Additionally, *M. vulgare* extracts containing marrubin have been associated with antispasmodic effects (Sultana *et al.,* 2016). This compound contributes to the plant's therapeutic effects, including its use as an expectorant and antispasmodic agent in treating respiratory conditions like bronchitis and whooping cough (Adesina *et al.,* 2017; Alamgeer *et al.,* 2018). The biological activities of marrubin contribute to the medicinal properties attributed to *M. vulgare* in traditional medicine (Amri *et al.,* 2017; Alamgeer *et al.,* 2018).

In this study, we evaluated if, the marrubin holds promise for therapeutic interventions targeting oxidative stress-related conditions. Additionally, *in silico* physicochemical and ADMET (absorption, distribution, metabolism, excretion, and toxicity) studies were conducted to predict the biological potential of these compounds to identify their selectively in cancer cells, leading to cell death, thus showing potential in cancer therapy.

### **2. Materials and Methods**

# **2.1 Collection of compounds and sample preparation (1mg/ml stock solution)**

Marrubin was selected based on available literature (Amri *et al.,* 2017; Popoola *et al.,* 2013) for their potential biological activity and purchased from Bench Chem and Sigma Aldrich (Table 1). We used 1 mg/ml of the stock solution by the addition of one milligram of the compound in 50 µl DMSO, solubilised, and if needed sonication is done till the compound is solubilised completely. 950 µl phosphate buffer saline was added to get the final concentration of 1mg/ml and stored in a freezer at 4°C until use.

**Table 1: Selected marrubin compounds reported for their biological activity**

S. No.	<b>Structure</b>	<b>IUPAC</b> name	Compound code
		$(1R, 4S, 8S, 9R, 10R, 12R)$ -9-[2-(furan-3-yl)	<b>MBN</b>
		ethyl]-9-hydroxy-4,8,10-trimethyl-2-oxat	
	$H_3C$ <b>UOH<sub>CH<sub>3</sub></sub></b>	ricyclo $[6.3.1.04, 12]$ dodecan-3-one	
	H., Ĥ $H_3C$		

# **2.2 Determination for oxidative burst by chemiluminescence assay**

A chemiluminescence assay was performed as published before (Choudhary *et al.,* 2013). Different concentrations of test compounds 1 µg/ml, 10 µg/ml and 100 µg/ml were set in 96 well white flat bottom plates, incubated at 37ºC for 15 min in the thermostat chamber of luminometer with 1:20 dilution of whole blood in HBSS<sup>++</sup>. Control wells established HBSS<sup>++</sup> and cells without the test compound. Following incubation luminol  $(7\times10^{-5}$  M), and serum opsonized zymosan (SOZ) were added into each well except blank wells that contain HBSS<sup>++</sup> only to detect free radicals. Intracellular reactive oxygen detecting probe luminometer was used to detect oxidative burst reactive oxygen species (ROS) production. The level of the ROS was measured as relatively light units for 50 min using repeat scan mode.

# **2.3 NBT assay for superoxide production**

Macrophages J774  $(1 \times 10^7)$  cells/ml were suspended in a medium, and 100 µl of macrophages were placed in 96-well plates in the RPMI media with FBS. Nitro blue tetrazolium assay was done as prescribed earlier (Soomro *et al.,* 2023). Cells and test compound were incubated for 30 min at 37°C, after incubation 100 ul of 1mg/ ml NBT solution was added and 50 ul of phorbol-12- myristate-13 acetate (PMA). Diphenyleneiodonium was used as a negative control after addition at a concentration of 10 µg/ml to activate the cells and after an additional 90 min incubation. Blue formazan was dissolved in DMSO and the absorbance was measured at 570 nm. Controls were set as cells in a medium rather than without a test compound. Percent inhibition of NBT reduction was calculated.

# **2.4 Measurement of NO in cell culture supernatant**

 J774 macrophage cells and U 138MG neuronal cells were collected and adjusted to a concentration of  $10<sup>6</sup>$  cells/ml, and 200 µl of cells were added to a 96-well microtiter plate. Lipopolysaccharide from *E. coli* was added at a final concentration of 30 µg/ml to activate the macrophage cells, inducing NO production. Test compound was added initially at a concentration of  $25 \mu g/ml$  in activated J774 cells and neuronal cells for detection of % inhibition of nitric oxide release. Identification of IC<sub>50</sub> value J774 cells were incubated with three different concentrations 25, 50 and 100  $\mu$ g/ml, then incubated at  $37^{\circ}$ C,  $5\%$  CO<sub>2</sub> for 24 h. After incubation, cell culture supernatants were collected and immediately processed for nitrite accumulation studies using the Griess method. The Griess method used 50  $\mu$ l of 1% sulfanilamide in 2.5% phosphoric acid added to 50 µl of the cell culture supernatant, followed by 50  $\mu$ l of 0.1% naphthyl ethylenediamine dihydrochloride in 2.5% phosphoric acid. Absorbance was read at 550 nm after incubation for 10 min at 23°C. The micromolar concentration of sodium nitrite was calculated from a standard curve generated using sodium nitrite as the reference compound. The findings were described as means  $\pm$  standard deviation (SD) of triplicate readings. This method provides a simple and reliable way to evaluate the ability of test compounds to modulate NO production in activated J774 macrophage cells, which can be useful in screening for potential anti-inflammatory or immunomodulatory agents (Soomro *et al.,* 2020).

### **2.5** *In vitro* **cytotoxicity assay**

The MTT assay is a commonly used method to measure cell viability and proliferation. In this assay, 3T3 fibroblast cells were plated in a 96-well plate and treated with different concentrations of test compound for 48 h. After that, the cells were washed and MTT was added to the wells. MTT is reduced by mitochondrial dehydrogenases in viable cells to form a coloured formazan product. The dissolution of formazan was done in DMSO, and then the absorbance was measured at 570 nm using a microplate reader. The  $IC_{50}$  values, which represent the concentration of the compounds required to hinder cell viability by fifty per cent, were calculated. Cyclohexamide, a known inhibitor of protein synthesis, was used as a positive control to compare the effect of the test compounds on cell viability. The percentage of cell viability was calculated using the formula:

$$
\% Cell viability = \frac{Total viable cells(unstained)}{Total cells( viable + dead)} \times 100
$$

The viable cell count was calculated as the average viable cell count per square x dilution factor x 10 (Sreenivasagan *et al.,* 2020).

### **2.6 Physicochemical and pharmacokinetic predictions of thiourea compounds**

Swiss ADME (http://www.swissadme.ch/index.php) and PreADMET (https://preadmet.bmdrc.kr/) predicted the physicochemical and pharmacokinetic profiles of marrubin. The cellline cytotoxicity was predicted by CLC-Pred (http://way2drug.com/Cell-line/) and toxicity by protox II.

# **2.7 Statistics**

To determine the statistical significance of the results, a paired *t*test was used to compare the mean values of the experimental test conditions with their respective controls. A *p*-value of 0.05 was regarded to signify a considerable difference between the two groups, denoted as  $*$   $p$ <0.05. A *p*-value of less than 0.001 (1%) was regarded to signify a highly considerable difference, denoted as \*\* *p*<0.001.

# **3. Results**

### **3.1 Effect of compounds on superoxide production O<sup>2</sup>**

Phagocytic NADPH oxidase is activated by phorbol myristate acetate (PMA) in mouse macrophages and initiates the protein kinase C (PKC) pathway. The PKC pathway led to the generation of superoxide anions (Soomro *et al*., 2019). PMA-activated cells were treated and exposed to 25 µg/ml of compound and the effect on superoxide was detected by NBT reduction assay. MBN was found to suppress the superoxide production slightly with a per cent inhibition of 22 % (Table 2).

# **3.2 Effect of compounds on HOCl production**

During the myeloperoxidase-dependent intracellular killing process of phagocytosis HOCl, hypochlorous acid is produced that can be detected with Luminol enhanced chemiluminescence technique (Soomro *et al*., 2019). The study demonstrated that comp does not possess inhibitory activity against ROS production in whole blood cells activated with zymosan. The  $IC_{50}$  value for MBN was found to be >100  $\mu$ g/ml, IC<sub>50</sub> value of the standard anti-inflammatory drug ibuprofen (11.8  $\pm$  1.2 µg/ml) was used for comparison (Table 2).

**Table 2: Effect of compounds on ROS, NO, and O<sup>2</sup> – production in activated macrophages and neutrophils and cytotoxicity analys is**

Compounds	ROS (HOCI) $IC_{so} \pm SD \mu g/ml$	Superoxide $O$ , $\%$ inhibition $\pm$ SD	Nitric oxide (NO) $\%$ inhibition $\pm$ SD	Nitric oxide $(NO) IC_{50}$	Cytotoxicity $IC_{so} \pm SD \mu g/ml$
<b>MBN</b>	>100	$22.85 \pm 0.6$	$40.7 \pm 1.7$	$35.3 \pm 2^*$	>25
Standard drugs	Ibuprofen $11.8 \pm 1.2$ $u\frac{g}{m}$	Diphenyl iodonium $92 \pm 0.94$ %	monomethyl L $NG$ arginine $64 \pm 0.05\%$	$NG$ monomethyl L arginine $24 \pm 0.2\%$	Cyclohexamide $0.13 \pm 0.02$ $\mu$ g/ml



**Figure 1: Effect of Marrubin (MBN) on nitric oxide (NO) release as optical density (nm) by LPS-activated J774 mouse macrophage cells (2 × 10<sup>5</sup> ) incubated in the presence (25, 50, 100 µg/ml) or absence of the compound (J774 cells alone), in presence of inhibitor of nitric oxide LNMMA and U 138MG neuronal cells incubated with and without MBN for 48 h. The supernatant was analyzed for the presence of nitrite using the Griess method. Values are expressed as mean ± SD for triplicate experiments.**

In this experiment, three different concentrations were used. The minimum concentration used was  $1 \mu g/ml$  and the maximum was  $100 \mu g/ml$ , did not depict the real bilogical potential of the compound as reported earlier. However, we can assume that increasing the compunds concentration may inhibt the HOCl production.

### **3.3 Effect of compounds on nitric oxide (NO)**

Lipopolysaccharide (LPS) activates toll-like receptor 4 (TLR4) on macrophages, leading to the production of inducible nitric oxide synthase (iNOS) and subsequent production of nitric oxide (NO) (Forte *et al.,* 2016). In the study, we investigated the effect of the test compound on NO production in macrophages activated with LPS. The results showed that test compound had moderate inhibition of NO at 25 µg/ml with 40% inhibition. To further investigate the inhibitory concentration, we used three concentrations increasing from 25 to 100 µg/ml and the results were intriguing that increasing concentration suppressed NO in a dose-dependent manner showing potential therapeutic effect with IC<sub>50</sub> 35.3  $\pm$  2 and possessing no impact on the constitutional form of nitric oxide release by neuronal cells (Figure 1).

### **3.4 Effect of compound on cytotoxicity**

The viability of 3T3 Fibroblast cells was studied in the presence of compounds at several concentrations of 50, 5 and 0.5 µg/ml. Results were compared with cyclohexamide which is used as a standard cytotoxic drug (Rochette *et al.,* 2013). The tested MBN showed no toxicity up to 25 µg/ml suggesting that increasing concentration to get possible biological effect is applicable (Table 3 and Figure 2). 3T3 NIH mouse fibroblast cell lines were incubated in the absence and presence of varying concentrations of MBN for 48 h. The cytotoxic effects of MBN were determined using the MTT assay, as described in the text. The effect of the cytotoxic drug cyclohexamide was also determined for comparison.



**Figure 2: Effect of MBN on cellular toxicity.**

# **3.5 Physicochemical and pharmacokinetic predictions of MBN compounds**

Marrubin, underwent comprehensive *in-silico* analysis, including ADMET, physicochemical properties, and evaluation of their anticancer effects, utilizing web-based tools (Soomro *et al.,* 2019). The predictive studies revealed that compound possess significant potential as therapeutic agents, with favourable gastrointestinal absorption and permeability across the blood-brain barrier. The predicted profile suggested that the compound was noncarcinogenic, nephrotoxic, and non-mutagenic. Its predicted lethal dose  $(LD_{\epsilon_0})$  was moderate (244 mg/kg), indicating that this compound was not lethal. Since the compound had a molecular weight, of 332.43 g/mol it violated no rule of Lipinski's rule of five, which applies to oral drugs. Gastrointestinal absorption measures were high and bioavailability measures were significant with a score of 0.55. The compound showed cross blood-brain barrier permeability. The skin permeation of the compound was also -5.68. The compound does not act as a P-glycoprotein substrate and it does not act as an inhibitor of CYP1A2, CYP2C19, or CYP2C9. However, it is a CYP2D6 inhibitor and not a CYP3A4 inhibitor. The compound depicted no pan assay interference compounds (PAIN) alerts or brenkcriteria, suggesting it was safe. The cytotoxicity of different cancer cell line predictions showed that it could exhibit activity toward Colon adenocarcinoma (DLD-1), Adult B acute lymphoblastic leukaemia (NALM-6), and non-small cell lung cancer. 3 stage (NCL-H838), and Metastatic melanoma (SK-MEL-1), while it shows activity on nontumor cell lines toward embryonic lung fibroblast (WI-38 VA13).

# **Table 3: Prediction studies of marrubin**



# **4. Discussion**

In our investigation, the effect of marrubin on a series of free radicals in activated phagocyte cells was observed. The activation of NADPH oxidase by phorbol myristate acetate (PMA), leads to superoxide anion generation through the protein kinase C (PKC) pathway (Soomro *et al.,* 2019). Marrubin possesses minimal inhibitory effect towards superoxide production. In contrast, the modulation of ROS production particularly HOCl detected by chemiluminescence technique in response to zymosan activation (Lu *et al.,* 2006) showed no significant activity. Despite the lack of inhibitory activity against ROS production, there is a need for further investigation because the minimum concentration was used in these experiments and could be increased to identify therapeutic effects keeping in view the toxicity profile.

Furthermore, our study identified the physiological effects of compounds to specifically modulate inflammatory responses on nitric oxide (NO) production in macrophages activated by lipopolysaccharide (LPS) (Soomro *et al.,* 2019). The dosedependent increase in the inhibitory effect of marrubin implies a correlation between concentration and effectiveness. This suggests that higher concentrations of the compound result in stronger inhibition, indicating a potential for therapeutic application. By effectively modulating NO levels, the compound may offer therapeutic benefits in managing cardiovascular conditions and other inflammatory disorders. These findings emphasise the compound's potential as a targeted intervention for NO-related pathologies (Moncada and Higgs, 1991).

Furthermore, our evaluation of cytotoxicity in fibroblast cells provided valuable insights into the safety profile of MBN

compounds. This assessment is crucial in determining the potential toxicity of compounds intended for therapeutic use, especially considering fibroblast's role in tissue repair and maintenance. The results indicating a lack of cytotoxic effects on fibroblast cells suggest that MBN compound may exhibit a favourable safety profile, a critical aspect for their consideration in therapeutic applications (Rochette *et al.,* 2013).

*In silico* analysis of marrubiin revealed its pharmacokinetic and toxicological properties, indicating its potential as a therapeutic agent. The compound demonstrated high gastrointestinal absorption and significant bioavailability, suggesting favourable pharmacokinetics. Furthermore, marrubiin exhibited cross-bloodbrain barrier permeability, enhancing its potential for central nervous system-related applications. Toxicity predictions suggested marrubin to be noncarcinogenic, nonmutagenic, and with moderate nephrotoxicity, with a predicted  $LD_{50}$  of 244 mg/kg, indicating low acute toxicity. Additionally, marrubiin showed inhibitory effects on CYP2D6 but not on CYP3A4, highlighting its potential interactions with certain drug-metabolizing enzymes. Overall, these findings suggest that marrubin possesses promising pharmacokinetic and safety profiles for further therapeutic development (Soomro and Sangi*,* 2019).

# **5. Conclusion**

The findings regarding natural compounds MBN and its potential as therapeutic agents for inflammation are ameliorating. The observed significant suppression of the nitric oxide release by activated phagocytes by marrubin, along with prediction studies indicating its potential to reduce inflammation by inhibiting nitric oxide free radical generation, holds promise.

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# **Conflict of interest**

The authors declare no conflict of interest relevant to this article.

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