

PHYTOCHEMICAL AND PHARMACOLOGICAL STUDY ON SELECTED INDONESIAN WEEDS EXTRACTS: A NOVEL INSIGHT TO ANTI-SHIGELLOSIS

SRI AGUNG FITRI KUSUMA*, ADE ZUHROTUN, DWI RAHMAT NOARI

Department of Biology Pharmacy, Faculty of Pharmacy, Universitas Padjadjaran, Sumedang, West Java, Indonesia 45363

Email: s.a.f.kusuma@unpad.ac.id

Received: 11 Jul 2022, Revised and Accepted: 20 Aug 2022

ABSTRACT

Objective: Elephant grass (*Pennisetum purpureum* S.), weed grass (*Imperata cylindrica* L.), pearl grass (*Hedyotis corymbosa* L.) and nut grass (*Cyperus rotundus* L.) are selected weeds found in Indonesia which have been used as ruminants feeding with a complete diet component and evidently reported that bioactive contents of weeds provide more protection to microbial attack than that of crops. This has led to an increase interest in the investigation of weed extracts as anti-shigellosis agents for humans and animals, but there is still no data regarding on phytochemical and pharmacological of our selected weeds as an anti-shigellosis. Therefore, the objectives of this study was to analyze phytochemical and anti-shigellosis properties of those selected weeds towards sensitive (S) and resistant *S. dysenteriae* (R) strains of ampicillin, chloramphenicol, and cotrimoxazoles.

Methods: Phytochemical screening was done using the standard method and further analyzed by thin-layer chromatography (TLC). The anti-shigellosis activity was evaluated using the agar diffusion method; meanwhile, the minimal inhibitory concentration (MIC) and minimal bactericidal concentration (MBC) value was determined using the microdilution method.

Results: In general, weeds contain flavonoids, steroid, and quinone compounds. The resulted anti-shigellosis showed that all weed extracts produced higher inhibition to sensitive than resistant strains. The MIC-MBC values of each weed on sensitive and resistant, respectively, were as follow: *P. purpureum* S (S= \geq 1.25%; R= \geq 2.5% w/v); *I. cylindrica* (S= \geq 5.0%; R= \geq 2.5 -10.0%w/v); *H. corymbosa* (S= \geq 2.5%; R= \geq 2.5-10%w/v); and *C. rotundus* (S= \geq 2.5-5.0%; R= \geq 5.0 -10%w/v). From these data, all of these weeds have the potential to complement antibiotics that are no longer effective in the treatment of shigella infections.

Conclusion: In summary, *P. purpureum* extract could be promoted as a novel supplement phytopharmaceutical for the treatment of bacillary dysentery.

Keywords: *Pennisetum purpureum* S., *Imperata cylindrica* L., *Hedyotis corymbosa* L., *Cyperus rotundus* L., *Shigella dysenteriae*, Resistant

© 2022 The Authors. Published by Innovare Academic Sciences Pvt Ltd. This is an open access article under the CC BY license (<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>) DOI: <https://dx.doi.org/10.22159/ijap.2022.v14s4.PP09> Journal homepage: <https://innovareacademics.in/journals/index.php/ijap>

INTRODUCTION

Shigellosis is a gastrointestinal disease form of bacterial diarrhea mix with fever caused by the *Shigella* species, notably occur in children [1, 2]. It can be direct spread from a person with poor sanitation, or transmitted from the ingestion of contaminated food. In 2018, WHO has been noticed this infection as priority pathogen due to the increasing of antibiotic resistance, no available vaccine and high mortality burden approximately 13.2% of all diarrhoeal deaths worldwide [3, 4]. Without proper treatment, shigellosis can progress to a life-threatening systemic disease called hemolytic uremic syndrome, which is characterized by thrombocytopenia, hemolytic uremia, and kidney failure [5].

Treatment of shigellosis can be administered with antimicrobial agents such as tetracycline, ampicillin, cotrimoxazole, chloramphenicol, ciprofloxacin, pivmecillinam, ceftriaxone and azithromycin [6, 7]. In Indonesia, *S. dysenteriae* have been reported to be resistant against ampicillin (82%), cotrimoxazole (84%), and chloramphenicol (82%) [8]. In addition, this resistance also reported for other antibiotics, such as: ciprofloxacin, ceftriaxone, and azithromycin [9, 10]. Current WHO guidelines recommend to choose fluoroquinolones (first-line), β -lactams (second-line) and cephalosporins (second-line) which considered to have better effectiveness [1]. But unfortunately, they also found to be resistant to the current treatment in some countries [11, 12]. Therefore, an appropriate complement drug to face the era of increasing anti-shigellosis resistance is important to be found. This condition encourages scientists to investigate for new sources of anti-shigellosis agents from various sources such as herbal materials.

Several plant families are known to have antidysenteric activity, including the Poaceae family, such as species *Desmostachya bipinnata* L. and *Cyanodon dactylon* [13, 14]; Rubiaceae family such as the species *Nauclea latifolia* Sm. and *Paederia foetid* L. [15, 16]; and the family Cyperaceae, such as *Cyperus rotundus* Linn and *Cyperus tegetum* [17, 18]. Several types of grass belonging to the above family are known to be commonly used as the main feed for ruminants.

According to a survey conducted by researchers on Indonesian farms in Lembang district, it shows that livestock in that location are very rarely exposed to infectious diseases such as dysentery. This probably suspected that the livestock's resistance comes from the grass they consumed. Elephant grass (*Pennisetum purpureum* S.), weed grass (*Imperata cylindrica* L.), pearl grass (*Hedyotis corymbosa* L.) and nut grass (*Cyperus rotundus* L.) are selected weeds found in Indonesia which have been used as ruminants feeding with a complete diet component and evidently reported that bioactive contents of weeds provide more protection to microbial attack than that of crops [19-21]. This has led to an increase the interest in the investigation of weed extracts as anti-shigellosis agents for humans and animals, but there is still no data regarding on phytochemical and pharmacological of our selected weeds as an anti-shigellosis. This study will offer a novel insight of new plants that were not only effective against *S. dysenteriae* in general but also that were resistant to several anti-shigellosis antibiotics that had been used so far with a broad-spectrum. Therefore, in this study, we used three isolates of *S. dysenteriae* obtained from food and beverages were resistant to several antibiotics such as ampicillin, chloramphenicol, and cotrimoxazole which isolated from our previous work.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Plant materials

The plant materials were consisted of Elephant grass (*Pennisetum purpureum* S.), weed grass (*Imperata cylindrica* L.), pearl grass (*Hedyotis corymbosa* L.) and nut grass (*Cyperus rotundus* L.), which was identified at the Department of Biology, Padjadjaran University with reference no. 66/HB/02. The weed used were fresh weed collected from the Manoko plantation, Lembang, West Java.

Bacterial strains and growth medium

S. dysenteriae (ATCC 13313) strain and three isolates of *S. dysenteriae* (1st generation) obtained from food and beverages which were resistant to several antibiotics such as ampicillin (isolate 1), chloramphenicol (isolate

2), and cotrimoxazole (isolate 3). The tested bacteria were maintained in Shigella-Salmonella (SS) (Pronadisa), Mueller-Hinton agar (MHA) (Merck) and Mueller-Hinton broth (MHB) (Oxoid).

Sample collection, processing and extraction

The fresh weed is then dried at a temperature below 30 °C to avoid decomposition of the thermolabile chemical components. Weed must be protected from direct sunlight because of the potential for chemical transformation caused by ultraviolet radiation. To prevent heat and humidity from building up, air circulation around the weed is essential. The weed is not piled up, and if necessary a fan is used to regulate airflow while drying the weed. After drying, the dried weed was chopped to improve the extraction efficiency by increasing the surface area. Chopping also reduces the amount of solvent used because dried weed can be loaded more densely. Each dried weed was weighed and then extracted by maceration method using 70% ethanol as solvent. After soaking with fresh solvent, the dried weed was kept for 24 h. After that the solvent was transferred through a filter and then a new fresh solvent was added, stirred and left overnight. This process was carried out for 24 h in three times. After replacing the solvent three times, the chemical components of the plant were almost completely used up. All the liquid extract obtained was then concentrated with a rotary evaporator at a temperature of 40 °-50 °C and continued with re-evaporation over a water bath at a temperature of 40 °C until the weight of the extract was constant. Each plant was given the same treatment. Then, the water content of the extract was determined using the distillation of toluene [22].

Phytochemical screening

Phytochemical screening was carried out to determine the group of compounds contained in each thick extract of the weed using a standard method, including alkaloids, flavonoids, tannins, saponins, polyphenols, quinones, monoterpene and sesquiterpenoids, triterpenoids and steroids [23].

Thin layer chromatography (TLC)

Thin Layer Chromatography (TLC) profile of weed ethanol extract was determined using a stationary phase in the form of a silica gel plate GF 254 and a mobile/developer phase in the combination of n-hexane: ethyl acetate (40: 60) and ethyl acetate: methanol (60: 40) solvents. On the starting line (1 cm from the edge) of a 10 x 2 cm silica gel plate, the ethanol extract was spotted using a capillary tube. The plate is left for some time until the solvent evaporates. The plate was placed in a chromatographic vessel, which has been previously saturated with the developer solution. The chromatographic process was stopped when the developer liquid reaches the finish line. The chromatogram pattern was observed in visible light, under UV lamps at 254 and 366 nm. Each observed spot was calculated as its Rf value [24].

Antibacterial activity test

The antibacterial activity of each weed extract was performed using the agar diffusion method. The weed extract stock solution was

reconstituted using 10% DMSO, then diluted serially starting from 800 mg/ml. Bacterial suspension was prepared by inoculating 2 or 3 Ose of colonies from bacterial slant agar into a 5 ml of sterile physiological NaCl. The turbidity of bacterial suspension was adjusted to achieve a concentration of 1.5×10^8 CFU/ml (0.5 McFarland's standard). The bacterial suspension and 0.5 McFarland's standard were held in front of light on a white background with contrasting black lines. If the bacterial suspension is too turbid, the suspension should be diluted with sterile physiological NaCl. Conversely, if the density of bacterial suspension was too light, then some Ose of bacterial colonies was taken into the suspension and compared to 0.5 McFarland's standard. A 20 µl of prepared bacterial suspension was poured into a sterile petri-disc containing 20 ml liquid MHA, then homogenized and allowed it to be solidified. The inoculated plates then perforated to make holes as the extract storage in certain concentration (200-800 mg/ml) in a volume of 50 µl. The test was done in triplicates. The plates then incubated at 37 °C for 24 h. The diameter of inhibition zones was measured [25].

MIC and MBC determination

MICs of the weed extracts against all tested *S. dysenteriae* were determined by microdilution assay using 96-well microtiter plates. The wells were filled with 100 µl sterile MHB, then the extract in a volume of 100 µl was serially diluted in a two-fold dilution, starting from 100 to 1.5625 mg/ml with sterile MHB as the diluent. Subsequently, 100 µl of the last concentration was discharged, thus the tested medium per well was 100 µl. Each well then inoculated with 100 µl bacterial suspension (1×10^4 cfu/ml), except the negative control well. The inoculated microdilution plate was then incubated at 37 °C for 24 h. The turbidity of each well was observed to determine the MIC value of the extract. Then 10 µl of MIC result sample was subcultured on to the surface of MHA and incubated at 37 °C for 24 h. This subculture method was performed to determine the MBC values of the extracts by observing the presence of bacterial colonies [26].

RESULTS

The characteristics of the extract are yellowish black, bitter, sweet smelling, and thick for elephant grass; yellowish black, bitter, sweet smelling, and thick for weeds grass; greenish-black, bitter, fragrant with tea, and thick to pearl grass; black-green, bitter, sweet-smelling, and thick for nut grass. Phytochemical screening was carried out to determine the class of secondary metabolites contained in the extracts, presented in table 1.

From optimization results, it was found that the mobile phases have good resolution, including: n-hexane: ethyl acetate (40: 60) and ethyl acetate: methanol (60: 40). Thus, both mobile phases were chosen in determining the chromatographic profile. The results were shown in fig. 1-2 and table 2-3.

Table 1: Yield of extract and phytochemical contents

Plant	% yield	Water content (%)	Phytochemical contents						
			Alkaloids	Flavonoids	Saponins	Tannins	Polyphenol	Steroid	Quinones
<i>Pennisetum purpureum</i> S.	14.82	25	-	+	+	+	+	+	+
<i>Imperata cylindrica</i> L.	11.04	20	-	+	-	-	-	+	+
<i>Hedyotis corymbosa</i> L.	12.42	15	-	+	-	+	-	+	+
<i>Cyperus rotundus</i> L.	7.80	15	-	+	-	-	-	+	+

Notes: (+) presence; (-) absence

Table 2: TLC results with n-hexane: ethyl acetate (40: 60) as the mobile phase

Spot No.	Rf	Visible light	UV light		Detection on extract of
			254 nm	366 nm	
1	0.06	-	-	Orange	HC
2	0.08	-	-	red	PP, IC, HC, CR
3	0.20	-	-	red	PP, IC, HC, CR
4	0.46	-	-	blue	HC
5	0.74	-	-	red	PP, IC, HC, CR
6	0.86	-	-	red	PP, IC, HC, CR

Notes: *Pennisetum purpureum* S. (PP); *Imperata cylindrica* L. (IC); *Hedyotis corymbosa* L. (HC); *Cyperus rotundus* L. (CR)

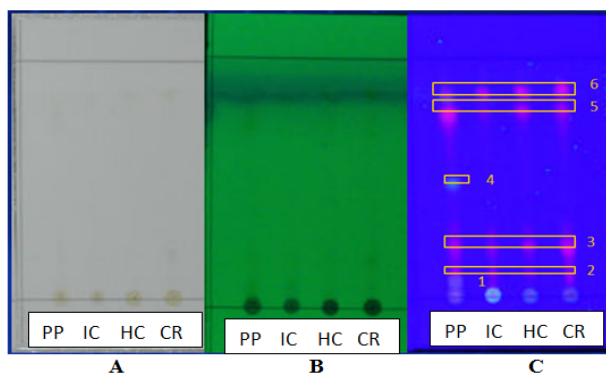


Fig. 1: TLC Profile of weeds ethanol extract with n-hexane: ethyl acetate (40: 60) as the mobile phase. Notes: *Pennisetum purpureum* S. (PP); *Imperata cylindrica* L. (IC); *Hedyotis corymbosa* L. (HC); *Cyperus rotundus* L. (CR); A. Visible light; B. 254 nm UV light; C. UV light 366 nm; 1-6= Rf

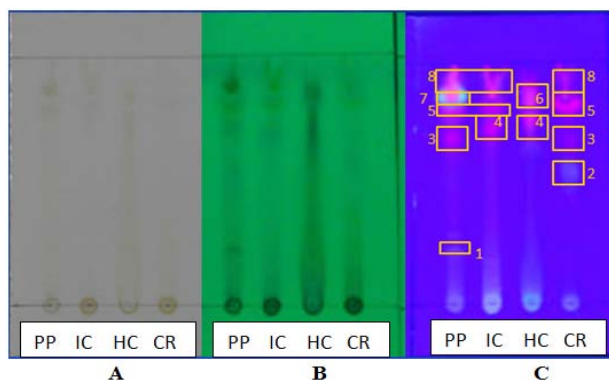


Fig. 2: TLC Profile of weeds ethanol extract with ethyl acetate: methanol (60: 40) as the mobile phase. Notes: *Pennisetum purpureum* S. (PP); *Imperata cylindrica* L. (IC); *Hedyotis corymbosa* L. (HC); *Cyperus rotundus* L. (CR); A. Visible light; B. 254 nm UV light; C. UV light 366 nm; 1-6= Rf

Table 3: TLC results with ethyl acetate: methanol (60: 40) as the mobile phase

Spot No.	Rf	Visible light	UV light		Detection on an extract of
			254 nm	366 nm	
1	0.20	-	brown	Light blue	HC
2	0.44	-	brown	blue	PP
3	0.72	yellow-green	brown	red	HC, PP
4	0.74	yellow-green	brown	red-orange	CR, IC
5	0.82	yellow-green	brown	red	HC, CR, PP
6	0.86	yellow-green	brown	red-orange	IC
7	0.86	yellow-green	brown	blue-white	HC
8	0.92	yellow-green	brown	red	PP, HC, CR

Notes: *Pennisetum purpureum* S. (PP); *Imperata cylindrica* L. (IC); *Hedyotis corymbosa* L. (HC); *Cyperus rotundus* L. (CR)

Table 4: Antibacterial activity

Plant	Extract concentration (mg/ml)	Diameter of Inhibition (mm)			
		ATCC	Isolate 1	Isolate 2	Isolate 3
<i>P. purpureum</i> S.	500	11.6±0.06	13.9±0.06	14.9±0.02	13.9±0.14
	400	11.9±0.01	13.2±0.06	14.1±0.06	13.2±0.21
	300	12.0±0.00	12.7±0.12	11.9±0.12	12.1±0.10
	200	12.0±0.10	12.0±0.00	11.1±0.11	12.0±0.00
<i>I. cylindrica</i> L.	500	14.0±0.00	14.9±0.16	16.1±0.14	13.0±0.21
	400	15.0±0.08	14.1±0.03	15.1±0.21	12.9±0.14
	300	14.1±0.04	13.1±0.12	14.9±0.21	12.9±0.14
	200	12.9±0.13	11.2±0.12	13.1±0.16	11.3±0.06
<i>H. corymbosa</i> L.	500	13.2±0.01	13.0±0.00	12.8±0.02	12.1±0.06
	400	12.4±0.02	12.2±0.01	11.6±0.10	11.9±0.06
	300	11.5±0.05	11.9±0.01	11.5±0.00	11.4±0.28
	200	11.2±0.02	11.5±0.02	10.9±0.07	11.9±0.21
<i>C. rotundus</i> L.	500	11.4±0.02	12.7±0.02	12.6±0.28	14.0±0.06
	400	12.1±0.01	12.2±0.00	12.2±0.21	13.9±0.14
	300	11.4±0.20	12.1±0.03	11.3±0.14	13.8±0.21
	200	11.0±0.00	12.0±0.01	11.0±0.14	13.0±0.28

*diameter of perforator = 9 mm

The resulted anti-shigellosis showed that all weed extracts produced higher inhibition to sensitive than resistant strains, shown in table 4. However, the resulting inhibition zones against all resistant isolates lead all weed extracts as a natural anti-shigellosis with a wide-spectrum and can be prospected to overcome the resistance cases of the disease.

The MIC is interpreted as the endpoint concentration of the extract in the first tube where bacterial suspension appears as a clear solution visually, compared to negative control which only contain MHB sterile without extract or bacterial inoculum. But, when the

tubes representing the MIC at least two of the more tubes are sub-cultured and enumerated which is the lowest concentration showing no colony growth or 99.9% of the original colonies was killed, then this concentration is termed as the MBC value of the extract. The MBC test determines the lowest concentration at which an antimicrobial agent will kill a particular microorganism. In this study, the MIC-MBC values of each weed on sensitive and resistant bacterial strains, respectively, were as follow: *P. purpureum* S ($S \geq 12.5$; $R \geq 25$ mg/ml); *I. cylindrica* ($S \geq 50.0$; $R \geq 25-100$ mg/ml); *H. corymbosa* ($S \geq 25$; $R \geq 25-100$ mg/ml); and *C. rotundus* ($S \geq 25-50$; $R \geq 50-100$ mg/ml), presented in table 5.

Table 5: MIC and MBC values

Plant	MIC (mg/ml)				MBC (mg/ml)			
	ATCC	S1	S2	S3	ATCC	S1	S2	S3
<i>P. purpureum</i> S	12.5	25.0	25.0	25.0	12.5	25.0	25.0	25.0
<i>I. cylindrica</i> L.	50.0	50.0	50.0	20.0	50.0	25.0	25.0	100.0
<i>H. corymbosa</i> L.	25.0	50.0	100.0	100.0	25.0	25.0	50.0	50.0
<i>C. rotundus</i> L.	50.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	25.0	50.0	50.0	50.0

Notes: ATCC= sensitive strain; resistant strain isolate against: ampicillin (S1), chloramphenicol (S2), and cotrimoxazole (S3)

DISCUSSION

The *S. dysenteriae* isolates used in this study were used because they are related with the source of gastrointestinal infections. Moreover, the effect of the extracts would describe their potent as effective and natural anti-shigellosis to overcome all isolate *S. dysenteriae* included the resistant bacteria. The result of this study considered to be important, in the light of concurrent with the increased case of *S. dysenteriae* resistance to antibiotics. In Indonesia, *S. dysenteriae* have been reported to be resistant against ampicillin (82%), cotrimoxazole (84%), and chloramphenicol (82%) [8]. In the US, *Shigella*'s resistance rate to fluoroquinolones was 87% during 2014-2015 [27]. In most of the world, several *Shigella* strains have now been resistant to several drugs with various mechanisms and these mechanisms pose limitations of therapeutic options for shigelosis [28, 29]. Mutation or absence of ~39 kDa porin in the membrane of *Shigella* spp. mainly influences susceptibility to slow penetration of β -lactams [30, 31]. Resistance *S. dysenteriae* to chloramphenicol was related mainly with the activity of Chl acetyltransferase [32]. The resistance of *Shigella* isolates to fluoroquinolones is mainly due to mutational changes in the QRDRs DNA gyrase and topoisomerase IV genes, but PMQR may facilitate the selection of isolates that exhibit higher levels of resistance through extra-chromosomally encoded mechanisms and reduced susceptibility to quinolones (or fluoroquinolones) [33]. To date, there has been a corresponding decline in antimicrobial discovery [6, 7, 9-12]. The alternative treatment strategy is important to be developed and considered by WHO to be the greatest challenge facing medicine [34, 35]. This has lead researchers toward alternative drugs, including traditional plant-based medicines and combinational therapies [36].

In this study, inhibition of *S. dysenteriae* by agar diffusion method: all weed extracts showed that these extracts provided antibacterial activity, which was supported by the discovery of antibacterial compounds in the extracts. Secondary metabolite compounds produced by plants, not only function for their primary metabolism, but are also needed to adapt plants to adverse environments [37]. During evolution, the structure of these secondary metabolites has been optimized so that they can contribute to the plant defense system by inhibiting microbial molecular targets [38]. The phytochemical content in various plant extracts is able to inhibit protein-protein interactions leading to certain modifications. These modifications affect the process of microbial pathogenicity, even leading to microbial death. Thus, the diversity of compounds contained in these plant extracts can interact with protein domains in microbes so that they can reduce potency the resistance developed by microbes [39]. The response of the tested bacteria to each extract can be said to be different. In general, all extracts were more effective at inhibiting ampicillin-resistant *S. dysenteriae* isolates compared to other resistant antibiotics, thus acting as a broad

spectrum. *P. purpureum* and *C. rotundus* extract were potent to inhibit the resistant strain than the ATCC, however *H. corymbosa* extract revealed to provide higher antibacterial activity against the ATCC strain than the resistant. Among of the extracts, *H. corymbosa* extract demonstrated the highest inhibition against isolate 2 (chloramphenicol-resistant bacteria). From these various result towards the resistant bacteria, we can hypothesize that the phytochemical substances of each extract have main bacterial resistant target to inactivate or to inhibit and possibly related to the content of antibacterial phytochemical compounds in each extract. Of course, these results could provide an important contribution to replace or complete the shigellosis treatment considering the the extended use of antibiotics has led to drug resistance. Thus, all these weeds ethanolic extracts have the potential to complement antibiotics that are no longer effective in the treatment of shigella infections. The phytochemicals detected in these extracts have been reported to inhibit the growth of *S. dysenteriae*. The results of phytochemical analysis showed that the extract contained different phytochemicals that included flavonoids, saponins, polyphenol, steroid, and quinones. Phytochemical screening describes the content of active substances in the extract while the number and properties of active substances can be identified efficiently based on TLC. The number of substances found with the same eluent will be different for each extract. It was reported that alkaloids, flavonoids and phenol compounds could be successfully detected in different extracts using TLC [39]. Similarly, in another study, the TLC profile of *Euphorbia thymifolia* extract could detect several good-quality flavonoid compounds [40]. It is affected by the difference in the polarity level of the phytochemical substance. This phenomenon is in accordance with the principle of like dissolved like, where polar substances can be attracted to polar solvents and vice versa. The visible colored spots exhibit the presence of chemical substances dissolved by the eluent used. The profile TLC, as displayed in table 2, showed the compounds separated by n-hexane: ethyl acetate (40: 60) as the non-polar mobile phase. There were four spots with the same Rf value and color in each weed extract. Based on TLC results, it is concluded that there are at least four relatively nonpolar compounds contained in each extract. The chromatography results in table 3 showed the compounds separated by ethyl acetate: methanol (60: 40) as the polar mobile phases. There were four spots with Rf and the same color in some extracts. So, it can be concluded that there are at least four relatively polar compounds in the extract of *H. corymbosa* and *P. purpureum*, three compounds in the extract of *C. rotundus*, and two in the extract of *I. cylindrica*. Based on the polarity, it can be assumed that the polar compounds referred to in the TLC results were flavonoids, polyphenols, quinones and tannins. The hydroxyl group of flavonoids makes it easily soluble in polar solvents but insoluble in non-polar compounds. Similarly, polyphenols are categorized as polar compounds because of the

presence of glycosides, namely sugar bonds with phenolics in cell vacuoles [41]. Those substance have been reported their efficacy as antimicrobial and resistance modifiers [42]. Among those weed extracts, *P. purpureum* provide the most complete antibacterial phytochemicals. This fact was related to its stronger antibacterial activity than other extracts. Flavonoids are phytochemical compounds that have been shown to have a broad antibacterial spectrum with different mechanisms [43-46]. Several studies had been reported various antibacterial mechanism of flavonoids including the inhibition of nucleic acid synthesis, interfere the function of cytoplasmic membrane and energy metabolism, reduce bacterial adhesion to form biofilm, interrupt porin, and reduce membrane permeability [47-51]. Flavonoids have a broad antibacterial spectrum against various bacteria by acting on microbial cell membranes by interacting with membrane proteins present in bacterial cell walls [52-56]. Phenolic substances have been reported to have antibacterial activity against *Shigella* [57]. Tannins extracts also have been reported to inhibit biofilm formation of *S. dysenteriae* and inactivate transport protein on cell envelopes and bacterial adhesin [58-61]. From the mode of action, tannins compounds are very important considering that recently, much attention has been paid to biofilm formation in bacteria, as microbial cells grown in biofilms are less sensitive to antimicrobial agents and more resistant to environmental stressors such as dehydration and oxidation. Microbe infection caused by *Shigella* spp. is a challenge for the world of health [62]. While the antibacterial mechanism of alkaloids occurs by intercalating DNA, which inhibits bacterial cell division and cell death [63]. Alkaloids such as cryptolepine and quindoline from *Sida acuta* are reported to be active against *S. dysenteriae* [64]. The targets of quinones are adhesin proteins located on the cell surface, polypeptides on the cell wall, and membrane-bound enzymes [65]. Then the mode of antibacterial action of saponins is focused on the decreasing permeability of bacterial membrane cells [66-70]. Several important function of those secondary metabolites found in the weed extracts makes bacteria unable to form resistance properties easily.

MIC is considered a standard value for assessing the susceptibility of organisms to antimicrobials. The MIC values obtained can confirm the limited resistance of bacteria if other methods are used or the results of the diffusion method are not suitable [68]. In the concentration range of 20 to 1.25 % w/v, the growth of all strains *S. dysenteriae* was inhibited. MBC test results demonstrated that at a range concentration of 10 to 1.25 % w/v, 99.9% of the tested bacteria were killed. Among on those MIC-MBC data, *P. purpureum* has the largest anti-shigellosis potential with the smallest MBC value among all the test weeds extracts. However, the ratio of MBC/MIC values of all tested extracts against sensitive and four resistant *S. dysenteriae* isolates were ≤ 4 ; thus, all extracts may be classified as bactericidal agent [72, 73].

CONCLUSION

Our findings revealed that the weeds extract used in this study provide effective treatment modalities to face *S. dysenteriae* resistant to conventional antibiotic treatments. Therefore, the findings of the extract's ability to inhibit *S. dysenteriae* resistant has become a novelty in the discovery of anti-shigellosis drugs, which in the future can be further investigated to overcome the resistance of other bacteria to the same antibiotics.

FUNDING

Nil

AUTHORS CONTRIBUTIONS

All the authors have contributed equally.

CONFLICT OF INTERESTS

Declared none

REFERENCES

- Williams PCM, Berkley JA. Guidelines for the treatment of dysentery (shigellosis): A systematic review of the evidence. *Paediatr Int Child Health*. 2018;38(Suppl 1):S50-65. doi: 10.1080/20469047.2017.1409454, PMID 29790845.

- Bengtsson RJ, Simpkin AJ, Pulford CV, Low R, Rasko DA, Rigden DJ. Pathogenomic analyses of *Shigella* isolates inform factors limiting shigellosis prevention and control across LMICs. *Nat Microbiol*. 2022;7(2):251-61. doi: 10.1038/s41564-021-01054-z, PMID 35102306.
- Tacconelli E, Carrara E, Savoldi A, Harbarth S, Mendelson M, Monnet DL. Discovery, research, and development of new antibiotics: the WHO priority list of antibiotic-resistant bacteria and tuberculosis. *Lancet Infect Dis*. 2018;18(3):318-27. doi: 10.1016/S1473-3099(17)30753-3, PMID 29276051.
- Khalil IA, Troeger C, Blacker BF, Rao PC, Brown A, Atherly DE. Morbidity and mortality due to *shigella* and enterotoxigenic *Escherichia coli* diarrhoea: the Global Burden of Disease Study 1990-2016. *Lancet Infect Dis*. 2018;18(11):1229-40. doi: 10.1016/S1473-3099(18)30475-4, PMID 30266330.
- Griffin PM, Tauxe RV. The epidemiology of infections caused by *Escherichia coli* O157:H7, other enterohemorrhagic *E. coli*, and the associated hemolytic uremic syndrome. *Epidemiol Rev*. 1991;13:60-98. doi: 10.1093/oxfordjournals.epirev.a036079, PMID 1765120.
- World Health Organization. Guidelines for the control of shigellosis, including epidemics due to *Shigella dysenteriae* 1. Switzerland: WHO document production services; 2005.
- Jawetz E, Melnick JL, Adelberg EA. *Jawetz, Melnick, and Adelberg's medical microbiology*. New York: McGraw-Hill Medical; 2010.
- Health technology assessment Indonesia. Penggunaan Siprofloksasin di Indonesia. Indonesia: HTA; 2005.
- Rahman M, Shoma S, Rashid H, El Arifeen S, Baqui AH, Siddique AK. Increasing spectrum in antimicrobial resistance of *Shigella* isolates in Bangladesh: resistance to azithromycin and ceftriaxone and decreased susceptibility to ciprofloxacin. *J Health Popul Nutr*. 2007;25(2):158-67. PMID 17985817.
- Bhattacharya D, Sugunan AP, Bhattacharjee H, Thamizhmani R, Sayi DS, Thanasekaran K. Antimicrobial resistance in *Shigella*-rapid increase & widening of spectrum in Andaman Islands, India. *Indian J Med Res*. 2012;135:365-70. PMID 22561624.
- Puzari M, Sharma M, Chetia P. Emergence of antibiotic-resistant *Shigella* species: A matter of concern. *J Infect Public Health*. 2018;11(4):451-4. doi: 10.1016/j.jiph.2017.09.025, PMID 29066021.
- Niyogi SK. Shigellosis. *J Microbiol*. 2005;43(2):133-43. PMID 15880088.
- Hedge MM, Lakshman K, Girija K, Kumar BSA, Lakshmiarasanna V. Assessment of anti-diarrhoeal activity of *Desmostachya bipinnata* L. (Poaceae) root extracts. *Bol Latinoam Caribe Plant Med Aromat*. 2010;9:312-8.
- Chaudhari Y, Mody HR, Acharya VB. Antibacterial activity of *Cyanodon dactylon* on different bacterial pathogens isolated from clinical samples. *Int J Pharm Sci*. 2011;11:16-20.
- Igoli JO, Ogaji OG, Tor-Anyiin TA, Igoli NP. Traditional medicine practice amongst the Igede people of Nigeria. Part II. *Afr J Trad Compl Alt Med*. 2005;2(2):134-52. doi: 10.4314/ajtcam.v2i2.31112.
- Rahmatullah M, Al-Mahmud A, Rahman MdA, Uddin MdF, Hasan M, Khatun Mst A. An ethnomedicinal survey conducted amongst folk medicinal practitioners in the Two Southern districts of Noakhali and feni, Bangladesh. *Am Eurasian J Sustain Agric*. 2011;5:115-31.
- Kumar RP, Rajesh K, Yogender M, Dharmesh S. Standardization and preliminary phytochemical investigation on *Cyperus rotundus* linn rhizome. *Int J Ayurveda Res*. 2010;1:536-42.
- Chaulya NC, Haldar PK, Mukherjee A. Antidiarrhoeal activity of methanol extract of the rhizomes of *Cyperus Tegetum* Roxb. *Int J Pharm Pharm Sci*. 2010;3:133-5.
- Sharma D, Lavania AA, Sharma A. *In vitro* comparative screening of antibacterial and antifungal activities of some common plants and weeds extracts. *Asian J Exp Sci*. 2009;23:169-72.
- Udayaprakash NK, Bhuvaneshwari S, Aravind R, Kaviyaran V, Sekarbabu H. A comparative study on antibacterial activity of common weeds. *Int J Pharm Biol Sci*. 2011;2:677-83.
- Singh G, Kumar P. Phytochemical study and screening for antimicrobial activity of flavonoids of *Euphorbia hirta*. *Int J*

- Appl Basic Med Res. 2013;3(2):111-6. doi: 10.4103/2229-516X.117082, PMID 24083146.
22. Sarker SD, Latif Z, Gray AJ. Methods in biotechnology: natural product isolation. 2nd ed. NJ: Humana Press; 2006.
 23. Farnsworth NR. Biological and phytochemical screening of plants. J Pharm Sci. 1966;55(3):225-76. doi: 10.1002/jps.2600550302. PMID 5335471.
 24. Mgbeahuruike EE, Vuorela H, Yrjonen T, Holm Y. Optimization of thin-layer chromatography and high-performance liquid chromatographic method for piper guineense extracts. Nat Prod Commun. 2018;13(1):25-8. doi: 10.1177/1934578X1801300109.
 25. Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute. Performance standards for antimicrobial susceptibility testing; twenty-third informational supplement. *CLSI M100-S23*. Wayne, PA: Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute; 2013.
 26. International standard. ISO 20776-1. Susceptibility testing of infectious agents and evaluation of performance of antimicrobial susceptibility test devices-part 1: Broth micro-dilution reference method for testing the *in vitro* activity of antimicrobial AGENTS against rapidly growing aerobic bacteria involved in infectious diseases. 2nd ed. Geneva, Switzerland: International Organization for Standardization; 2019.
 27. Bowen A, Hurd J, Hoover C, Khachadourian Y, Traphagen E, Harvey E. Importation and domestic transmission of *Shigella sonnei* resistant to ciprofloxacin-United States. MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep. 2015;64(12):318-20. PMID 25837241.
 28. Traa BS, Walker CLF, Munos M, Black RE. Antibiotics for the treatment of dysentery in children. Int J Epidemiol. 2010;39Suppl 1:i70-i84i70-4. doi: 10.1093/ije/dyq024, PMID 20348130.
 29. Qiu S, Wang Y, Xu X, Li P, Hao R, Yang C. Multidrug-resistant atypical variants of shigella flexneri shigella flexneri in China. Emerg Infect Dis. 2013;19(7):1147-50. doi: 10.3201/eid1907.111221, PMID 23763754.
 30. Raja SB, Murali MR, Devaraj SN. Differential expression of OmpC and OmpF in multidrug-resistant *Shigella dysenteriae* and *Shigella flexneri* by aqueous extract of *Aegle marmelos*, altering its susceptibility toward beta-lactam antibiotics. Diagn Microbiol Infect Dis. 2008;61(3):321-8. doi: 10.1016/j.diagmicrobio.2008.02.006, PMID 18358664.
 31. Kar AK, Ghosh AS, Chauhan K, Ahamed J, Basu J, Chakrabakrti P. Involvement of A 43-kilodalton outer membrane protein in beta-lactam resistance of *Shigella dysenteriae*. Antimicrob Agents Chemother. 1997;41(10):2302-4. doi: 10.1128/AAC.41.10.2302, PMID 9333070.
 32. Mandomando I, Jaintilal D, Pons MJ, Valles X, Espasa M, Mensa L. Antimicrobial susceptibility and mechanisms of resistance in *Shigella* and salmonella isolates from children under five years of age with diarrhea in rural Mozambique. Antimicrob Agents Chemother. 2009;53(6):2450-4. doi: 10.1128/AAC.01282-08, PMID 19332670.
 33. Zhu Z, Cao M, Zhou X, Li B, Zhang J. Epidemic characterization and molecular genotyping of *Shigella flexneri* isolated from calves with diarrhea in Northwest China. Antimicrob Resist Infect Control. 2017;6:1-1192. doi: 10.1186/s13756-017-0252-6, PMID 28878891.
 34. WHO. Antimicrobial resistance. Switzerland: WHO document production services; 2016.
 35. Narayanan AS, Raja SS, Ponnurugan K, Kandekar SC, Natarajaseenivasan K, Maripandi A. Antibacterial activity of selected medicinal plants against multiple antibiotic resistant uropathogens: A study from Kolli Hills, Tamil Nadu, India. Benef Microbes. 2011;2(3):235-43. doi: 10.3920/BM2010.0033, PMID 21986363.
 36. Cheesman MJ, Ilanko A, Blonk B, Cock IE. Developing new antimicrobial therapies: are synergistic combinations of plant extracts/compounds with conventional antibiotics the solution? Pharmacogn Rev. 2017;11(22):57-72. doi: 10.4103/phrev.phrev_21_17, PMID 28989242.
 37. Stefanovic O, Comic L. Synergistic antibacterial interaction between *Melissa officinalis* extracts and antibiotics. J Appl Pharm Sci. 2012;2:1-5.
 38. Wink M, Ashour ML, El-Readi MZ. Secondary metabolites from plants inhibiting ABC transporters and reversing resistance of cancer cells and microbes to cytotoxic and antimicrobial agents. Front Microbiol. 2012;3:1-15130. doi: 10.3389/fmicb.2012.00130, PMID 22536197.
 39. Yahaya ES, Cordier W, Steenkamp PA, Steenkamp V. Effect of ethnomedicinal extracts used for wound healing on cellular migration and intracellular reactive oxygen species release in SC-1 fibroblasts. S Afr J Bot. 2018;118:11-7. doi: 10.1016/j.sajb.2018.06.003.
 40. Vaid PK, Kumar A, Singh M, Tyagi V, Kushwaha A. Studies on macroscopic, microscopic, and TLC based phytochemical analysis of *Euphorbia thymifolia* Linn. Int J Life Sci Scient Res IJLSSR. 2018;4(3):1744-52. doi: 10.21276/ijlssr.2018.4.3.2.
 41. Marliana SD, Suryanti V, Suyono S. The phytochemical screenings and thin layer chromatography analysis of chemical compounds in ethanol extract of Labu Siam fruit (*Sechium edule* Jacq. Swartz.). Biofarmasi J Nat Prod Biochem. 2005;3:26-31.
 42. Gupta PD, Daswani PG, Birdi TJ, Birdi T, Gupta P, Daswani P. Approaches in fostering quality parameters for medicinal botanicals in the Indian context. Indian J Pharmacol. 2014;46(4):363-71. doi: 10.4103/0253-7613.135946.
 43. Wang TY, Li Q, Bi KS. Bioactive flavonoids in medicinal plants: structure, activity and biological fate. Asian J Pharm Sci. 2018;13(1):12-23. doi: 10.1016/j.ajps.2017.08.004, PMID 32104374.
 44. Kumar S, Pandey AK. Chemistry and biological activities of flavonoids: an overview. Scientific World Journal. 2013;2013:162750. doi: 10.1155/2013/162750. PMID 24470791.
 45. Juca MM, Cysne Filho FMS, de Almeida JC, Mesquita DDS, Barriga JRM, Dias KCF. Flavonoids: biological activities and therapeutic potential. Nat Prod Res. 2020;34(5):692-705. doi: 10.1080/14786419.2018.1493588. PMID 30445839.
 46. Kusuma SAF, Mita SR, Ermawati RF. Effect of maltodextrin ratio to Klutuk banana fruit extract (*Musa Balbisaniana Colla*) combined with its pseudostem extract on anti-dysentery granule performance and effectivity. Int J App Pharm. 2018;10(6):187-93. doi: 10.22159/ijap.2018v10i6.29305.
 47. Xie Y, Yang W, Tang F, Chen X, Ren L. Antibacterial activities of flavonoids: structure-activity relationship and mechanism. Curr Med Chem. 2014;22(1):132-49. doi: 10.2174/0929867321666140916113443, PMID 25245513.
 48. Cushnie TPT, Lamb AJ. Antimicrobial activity of flavonoids. Int J Antimicrob Agents. 2005;26(5):343-56. doi: 10.1016/j.ijantimicag.2005.09.002, PMID 16323269.
 49. Gorniak I, Bartoszewski R, Kroliczewski J. Comprehensive review of antimicrobial activities of plant flavonoids. Phytochem Rev. 2019;18(1):241-72. doi: 10.1007/s11101-018-9591-z.
 50. Donadio G, Mensitieri F, Santoro V, Parisi V, Bellone ML, De Tommasi N. Interactions with microbial proteins driving the antibacterial activity of flavonoids. Pharmaceutics. 2021;13(5):1-23. doi: 10.3390/pharmaceutics13050660, PMID 34062983.
 51. Wu T, Zang X, He M, Pan S, Xu X. Structure-activity relationship of flavonoids on their anti-*Escherichia coli* activity and inhibition of DNA gyrase. J Agric Food Chem. 2013;61(34):8185-90. doi: 10.1021/jf402222v, PMID 23926942.
 52. Cazarolli LH, Zanatta L, Alberton EH, Figueiredo MS, Follador P, Damazio RG. Flavonoids: prospective drug candidates. Mini Rev Med Chem. 2008;8(13):1429-40. doi: 10.2174/138955708786369564, PMID 18991758.
 53. Locher CP, Burch MT, Mower HF, Berestecky J, Davis H, Van-Poel B. Anti-microbial activity and anti-complement activity of extracts obtained from selected Hawaiian medicinal plants. J Ethnopharmacol. 1995;49(1):23-32. doi: 10.1016/0378-8741(95)01299-0, PMID 8786654.
 54. Zeng F, Wang W, Wu Y, Dey M, Ye M, Avery MA. Two prenylated and C-methylated flavonoids from *Tripterygium wilfordii*. Planta Medica. 2010;76(14):1596-9. doi: 10.1055/s-0029-1241017, PMID 20309799.
 55. Davidson PM, Naidu AS. Phytophenols. Natural food antimicrobial systems. CRC Press; 2000.

56. Munyendo WLL, Orwa JA, Rukunga GM, Bii CC. Bacteriostatic and bactericidal activities of *Aspilia mossambicensis*, *Ocimum gratissimum* and *Toddalia asiatica* extracts on selected pathogenic bacteria. *Res J Med Plants*. 2011;5(6):717-27. doi: 10.3923/rjmp.2011.717.727.
57. Tapas R, Sakarkar DM, Kakde RB. Flavonoids as nutraceuticals: a review. *Trop J Pharm Res*. 2008;7:1089-99.
58. Klug TV, Novello J, Laranja DC, Aguirre TAS, de Oliveira R, Ade Oliveira Rios A, Tondo EC. Effect of tannin extracts on biofilms and attachment of *Escherichia coli* on lettuce leaves. *Food Bioprocess Technol*. 2017;10(2):275-83. doi: 10.1007/s11947-016-1812-0.
59. Dettweiler M, Lyles JT, Nelson K, Dale B, Reddinger RM, Zurawski DV. American Civil War plant medicines inhibit growth, biofilm formation, and quorum sensing by multidrug-resistant bacteria. *Sci Rep*. 2019;9(1):1-12:7692. doi: 10.1038/s41598-019-44242-y, PMID 31118466.
60. Saura Calixto F, Perez Jimenez J. Tannins: bioavailability and mechanisms of action. In: Knasmuller S, DeMarini DM, Johnson I, Gerhauser C. editors. *Chemoprevention of cancer and DNA damage by dietary factors*. Weinheim, Germany: Wiley-VCH Press; 2009.
61. Haslam E. Natural polyphenols (Vegetable tannins) As rugs: possible Modes of Action. *J Nat Prod*. 1996;59(2):205-15. doi: 10.1021/np960040+, PMID 8991956.
62. Kang J, Liu L, Liu M, Wu X, Li J. Antibacterial activity of gallic acid against *Shigella flexneri* and its effect on biofilm formation by repressing *mdoH* gene expression. *Food Control*. 2018;94:147-54. doi: 10.1016/j.foodcont.2018.07.011.
63. Savoia D. Plant-derived antimicrobial compounds: alternatives to antibiotics. *Future Microbiol*. 2012;7(8):979-90. doi: 10.2217/fmb.12.68, PMID 22913356.
64. Oyekunle MA, Aiyelaagbe OO, Fafunso MA. Evaluation of the antimicrobial activity of saponins extract of *Sorghum bicolor* L. Moench. *African J Biotechnol*. 2006;5:31-9.
65. Ciocan D, Bara I. Plant products as antimicrobial agents. *Analele Stiintifice Ale Univ Alexandru Ioan Cuza Din Iasi II A Genet si Biol Mol*. 2007;8:151-6.
66. Khan MI, Ahhmed A, Shin JH, Baek JS, Kim MY, Kim JD. Green tea seed isolated saponins exerts antibacterial effects against various strains of gram positive and gram negative bacteria, a comprehensive study *in vitro* and *in vivo*. *Evid Based Complementary Alternat Med*. 2018;1-12:3486106. doi: 10.1155/2018/3486106, PMID 30598684.
67. Winter WP. American Society of Hematology. 36th annual meeting. December 2-6, 1994, Nashville, Tennessee. Abstracts. *Blood*. 1994;84(10)Suppl 1:1-743, PMID 7949116.
68. Romo MR, Perez Martinez D, Ferrer CC. Innate immunity in vertebrates: an overview. *Eur J Immunol*. 2016;148:125-39.
69. Arabski MS, Wasik KS, Dworecki WK, Kaca W. Laser interferometric and cultivation methods for measurement of colistin/ampicillin and saponin interactions with smooth and rough of *proteus mirabilis* lipopolysaccharides and cells. *J Microbiol Methods*. 2009;77(2):179-83178-83. doi: 10.1016/j.mimet.2009.01.020, PMID 19318050.
70. Sakagami H, Kushida T, Makino T, Hatano T, Shirataki Y, Matsuta T. Functional analysis of natural polyphenols and saponins as alternative medicines. *Complement Med Resources*. 2012;2012:269-302.
71. Andrews JM. Determination of minimum inhibitory concentrations. *J Antimicrob Chemother*. 2001;48Suppl 1:5-16. doi: 10.1093/jac/48.suppl_1.5, PMID 11420333.
72. Gatsing D, Adoga GI. Antisalmonellal activity and phytochemical screening of the various parts of cassia *petersiana* bolle (Caesalpiniaceae). *Res J Microbiol*. 2007;2:876-80.
73. Ashok PK, Upadhyaya K. Tannins are astringent. *J Pharmacogn Phytochem*. 2012;1:2-6.