

## PLANTS WITH ANTICONVULSANT POTENTIAL

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### Abstract

Epilepsy is a brain disease that affects the central nervous system, which has become a serious public health problem. This disorder is characterized by involuntary movements, called seizures, but it must be taken to find that not all seizures are related to epilepsy. Antiepileptic drugs are used for its treatment, which, despite having proven clinical effects, only 2 thirds of the population with epilepsy manage to control the seizures, but with the advances that have recently been made, new treatments are being developed that improve the quality of life of patients. Medicinal plants have been gaining relevance in recent years, mainly because they continue to be a primary treatment for mild to moderate discomfort, in addition to its easy application and being a treatment used ancestrally. Medicinal plants remain an essential source of chemical structures and active principles; therefore, they have an important place in the search and development of new treatments for epilepsy (as well as other disorders). Some of the families of secondary metabolites with anticonvulsant activity are flavonoids, alkaloids, some saponins and essential oils, however, there are few studies that mention which is the metabolite responsible for the anticonvulsant activity, this becomes important, since anticonvulsant drugs have a hormesis effect, which could occur in secondary metabolites with anticonvulsant activity. The investigation on medicinal plants become important, this in order to find safer, effective and affordable treatments, this mainly because according to World Health Organization About 80% of the population with epilepsy is in low- to middle-income countries.

**Keywords:** *medicinal plants, anticonvulsants, epilepsy, secondary metabolites, hormesis.*

## Introduction

Epilepsy is a chronic brain disease that affects 50 million people in the world, being one of the most common neurological disorders. Epilepsy is characterized by excessive or hypersynchronous brain activity, called seizures, which are treated or controlled with antiepileptic drugs, in turn, these are divided into first generation drugs (carbamazepine, phenobarbital and phenytoin), second generation (lamotrigine and gabapentin), third generation (retigabine and perampamil) and orphan drugs (rufinamide and stiripentol) [1-3]. Pharmacological treatment must be individualized, as well as an assessment of time, dose, and combination with other drugs, which gives infinite treatment results, so you must act taking some background, such as genetic predisposition, comorbidities, adulthood, lack of drug adherence, patient sex, and minimization of adverse effects, followed by optimization of the administration regimen [4]. Although antiepileptic drugs have proven clinical efficacy, they are not exempt from having side effects such as hepatotoxicity, drowsiness, gastrointestinal effects, impaired concentration, depressed mood, irritability, behavioral effects, psychiatric effects, among others that are related to a low quality of life, in addition to the aforementioned, a third of patients are resistant to these drugs [5-8]. Therefore, it is important to look for alternatives that are more effective, safe, and economical, an example can be found in medicinal plants, which have an important place in the discovery of new chemical structures with anticonvulsant potential [9]. We will explore this alternative, in the present review work.

## Methods

Internet resources, advanced search using SciFinder, PubMed, google academic, Springer, Science Direct and Scopus.

## Results and discussion

### Epilepsy

Epilepsy is a common neurological condition that affects around 5 to 8 people per 1000 in developed

countries, while in Mexico about 3 million Mexicans have been reported with this pathology; In relation to this, treatments can have very high costs, because they are for life and in some cases, surgery is required to control seizures, having a great economic impact on families. In addition, epilepsy is associated with symptoms of anxiety, depression, and increased mortality [10-12]. Epilepsy is a chronic neurological disorder distinguished by involuntary and spontaneous movements, called epileptic seizures, which are divided in those that affect a one hemisphere of the brain (focal seizures) or both hemispheres (generalized seizures) and the classification of unknown origin will also be added, on some occasions, the seizure is accompanied by loss of consciousness and sphincter control; sometimes a focal seizure may become bilateral, as in generalized seizures. Seizures are caused by a sudden imbalance of signals between the excitatory and inhibitory systems in the brain. Epilepsy is diagnosed when the following conditions occur: 1) two seizures or reflexes with a range of less than 24 hours, 2) one unprovoked (or reflex) seizure and a probability of new seizures similar to the risk of general recurrence (at minus 60%) after two unprovoked seizures, occurring over the next 10 years, 3) Diagnosis of epilepsy syndrome. Epilepsy is considered to result when a person with epilepsy syndrome has not had seizures in the last 10 years and has not needed anticonvulsant drugs in the last 5 years. [3,13-15]. In this sense, it is necessary to mention "The International League Against Epilepsy (ILAE)", which is aimed at the study, classification, and terminology of seizures practically since its creation in 1909. Additionally, in 2017 was an important change in the classification of seizures (Figure 1). There are several reasons for the need to improve the 1981 classification, among which are: 1) some types of seizures may have a focal or generalized origin, 2) previously used terms lack community acceptance or are confusing for staff non-clinical, 3) some types of seizures excluded in the 1981 version are added, 4) lack of knowledge about seizure onset makes classification difficult in the 1981 system, and 5) improve seizure-related communication between the medical and non-medical community and researchers [3,16].

### Treatment of epilepsy

The main objective of antiepileptic drugs is the control of seizures; these have improved in the last 3 decades. Among these, carbamazepine, ethosuccimide, phenobarbital, phenytoin and valproic acid can be highlighted [17,18]. Antiepileptic drugs (AEDs) have a wide variety of mechanisms of action, some examples are blockade of Na<sup>+</sup> channels, blockade of Na<sup>+</sup> and Ca<sup>2+</sup> channels, allosteric modulation of the GABAA receptor, increased levels of GABA by inhibiting GABA transaminase or the transporters GABA, glutamate receptor agonist  $\alpha$ -amino-3-hydroxy-5-methyl-4-isoxazole propionic acid (AMPA) and modulation of synaptic vesicle protein 2A. [19-21]. However, only in 75-80% of patients are these treatments effective in controlling seizures, the rest of the people with epilepsy (20-25%) remain without an adequate therapeutic regimen. In addition to this, antiepileptic drugs do not affect epileptogenesis and are associated with side effects such as: teratogenicity, chronic toxicity, effects on cognition, hepatotoxicity, gastrointestinal and behavioral problems, they are also related to drug interactions, making it difficult to control seizures convulsive [18,22,23]. At the economic level, innovative antiepileptic drugs become more expensive in relation to their generic counterpart, placing them in most cases out of reach of the majority of the population with epilepsy, even if the prices are negotiated. Prices for national health systems, becomes a growing burden for developed countries [24]. Therefore, it is necessary to search for alternative or complementary treatments, more effective and with fewer side effects, which can support their effectiveness supported by animal models.

### Plants with anticonvulsant activity

Natural products have been a primary treatment for a wide variety of diseases; therefore, medicinal plants have an important role in the search and development of new drugs [9,25]. Some of the metabolites that exert anticonvulsant actions are found in polar extracts. For example, the ethanolic extract of *Aegle marmelos*, *Alternanthera basiliiana* (L.), *Berberis integerrima*, *Crassula arborecens* (Mill)

and the methanolic extract of *Melissa parviflora* [26,27,28,29,69], currently the validation of anticonvulsant plants is continuing, as an example we have the *Euphorbia nivulia* plant and *Cocculus laurifolius* [30,31], other examples of plants with anticonvulsant activity can be observed in Table 1.

On the other hand, regarding the panorama of the investigation of plants with anticonvulsant potential in Latin America, a study was carried out by Auditeau et al., in 2018 [32], the article compares the reports of plants with anticonvulsant activity between Asia, Africa and Latin America, it mentions that in the latter only 66 species are mentioned in comparison with the other continents that together have 431 reported species, this may be due to the fact that in these continents, traditional medicine is included in the health system. In this sense, the study of plants with anticonvulsant activity is important, especially in Latin America, for in the future, with sufficient rigorously applied scientific evidence; it can be inserted into the public health system. In Mexico for the regulation of medicinal plants, we have the herbal pharmacopoeia of the United Mexican States of 2013, which contains the monograph of 213 species recognized for their pharmacological utility [33], however, there are still many medicinal plants, to which, their pharmacological activity has not been validated. It should also be considered that medicinal plants can be adjuvants in the treatment of epilepsy, as an example, there is the report made by Hijikata et al., in 2006 [34] of three cases, in which the seizures could not be controlled. Due to this, it was decided to resort to traditional Chinese medicine along with conventional treatments to achieve any improvement They concluded that the application of traditional medicine alongside conventional treatments reduced the frequency and severity of seizures in all three cases. This type of success case shows us the importance of traditional medicine; therefore, we must also focus on its possible use as an adjuvant in the treatment of seizures, as well as determined if there are any adverse effects during seizures, or its co-administration, to obtain a more effective and safe therapy.

## Secondary metabolites with anticonvulsant activity

Chemistry is important in the study of medicinal plants, it allows us to identify and group plants by their components (flavonoids, alkaloids, tannins, etc.), giving us a guide in the search for new drugs to treat various diseases. In the past decade, a large amount of evidence has emerged that supports the potential of natural products; in this review we will highlight the reports of various plants that contain secondary metabolites with anticonvulsant activity [35,36]. Some examples are the alkaloid (+)-erythravine, (+)-11- $\alpha$ -hydroxy-erythravine, piperine and sparteine, which delayed the time of onset of seizures, protected against the death of research animals and in some tested doses, they avoided the appearance of seizures in different animal models [35,37,38]. In some cases, mechanisms of action have been proposed, for example, there is nantenine that acts as a modulator of NMDA receptors and montanin with a possible interaction with the GABAergic system [39,40].

Flavonoids are a family of metabolites with anticonvulsant activity, within these; quercetin, isoquercitrin, hispidulin, ororylin A and rutin have been observed. As a mechanism of action, flavonoids bind allosterically to the benzodiazepine site, modulating the GABAA receptor, favoring the flow of Cl<sup>-</sup> ions, therefore, the cell is hyperpolarized, reducing the propagation of electrical signals [41-44]. Other examples of secondary metabolites with anticonvulsant activity are: Saikosaponins A, the essential oil of *Ducrosia anethifolia* with its major constituent  $\alpha$ -pinene, diterpene phytol, monoterpenes, finally the coumarin schoolletin [45-48,108]. As can be seen, efforts are being added around the world to discover new molecules with anticonvulsant activity, however, it is necessary to continue with more in-depth investigations, which allow us to identify the families and structures of the secondary metabolites responsible for their pharmacological activity, as well as its mechanisms of action, with the aim of being able to synthesize them in the future and obtain the maximum benefits, with the least possible risk. In Figure 2, some chemical structures of secondary metabolites with anticonvulsant activity are observed.

## Animal models in the study of epilepsy

In the last 80 years, research animals have been an important tool for evaluating new molecules with anticonvulsant potential; this led to the advancement of first, second and third generation antiepileptic drugs. In general, the experimental models of epilepsy in rats or mice can be divided into pro-epileptic agents of the chemical type (tetanus toxin, kainic acid, pentylenetetrazole, etc.), physical (electric shocks, hyperthermia, etc.) and genetic (modified animals prone to seizures). Two of the most used models in the search for new treatments for epilepsy are maximal electroshock seizure (MES, physical type) and pentylenetetrazole (PTZ, chemical type), in these models use rats or mice as a standard procedure [49-51]. In 1975, the Anticonvulsant Screening Project (ASP) was established in the United States, whose main goal is the development of new anticonvulsant drugs. With this tool, the pharmaceutical industry was able to evaluate many new antiepileptic compounds in rodents. The ASP allowed the development of many drugs endorsed by FDA (Food and Drug Administration), these include felbamate, topiramate and retigabine [51,52]. As can be seen, animal models allow us the development and validation of new antiepileptic drugs, with fewer and more effective side effects, therefore improving the quality of life of patients with epilepsy. However, it must be recognized that no animal model fully represents the condition, mainly due to the different etiologies of epilepsy [53].

## Hormesis

To understand this concept, we must relate that biological stress such as intellectual (critical thinking, etc.), physical (light, radiation, physical exercise, etc.) or chemical (food, medications, etc.), produce adaptive responses. At low doses, these responses produce a protective effect by stimulating mechanisms such as macrophage production, ion channel openings, autophagy, protein-related heat shock response pathways, etc. On the other hand, when applying this concept in research, we relate it to a relatively large number of different doses to be tested, which results in a biphasic dose-response relationship; In general, we

can say that hormesis is characterized by a beneficial effect at low doses and that high doses generate a negative effect, this phenomenon can be associated with a quantitative measure of biological plasticity (adaptive response) under stress conditions. This effect has gained relevance in the last 20 years [54-57]. This phenomenon has been observed in pharmaceutical products such as anticonvulsants, anxiolytics, newly created molecules for the therapy of Parkinson's and Huntington's, in drugs to treat diabetes, infections and cancer [57-61]. Hormesis is also described in plants and is caused by stress (abiotic and biotic), which triggers an adaptation process under adverse conditions, to maintain homeostasis [62]. Health benefits have been reported in small amounts As an example of the aforementioned, we have nicotine, cocaine, morphine and strychnine, which lose efficacy with increasing doses; sulforaphane protects mesenchymal stem cells from oxidative stress and apoptosis in low doses (1  $\mu$ M), while at doses High doses (20  $\mu$ M) produce damage to the genetic material (DNA) and cytotoxic effects; resveratrol reduces stomach ulcers and inflammation in mice at doses of 2 mg/Kg while high doses (5 and 10 mg/Kg) produce the opposite effect [63-67]. For all the effort mentioned, it is important to continue studying in depth the properties of medicinal plants.

## Conclusions

The use ancestral of medicinal plants had served as a primary treatment for multiple diseases, especially in developing countries. In recent years the use of medicinal plants has increased, in the same way the number of investigations is increasing, giving the opportunity to explore new families of chemical structures with anticonvulsant capacity, to develop a drug or adjuvant in treating epilepsy (like other conditions), this search becomes important, since it is necessary to develop new anticonvulsant drugs that are safer, more effective, affordable and with fewer side effects. There is still a long way to walk, especially the chemical characterization of the metabolites of medicinal plants and the mechanisms of action; however,

progress is still being made to increase the quality of life of people with epilepsy.

## Conflict of Interest

All authors confirm that they have no conflict of interest.

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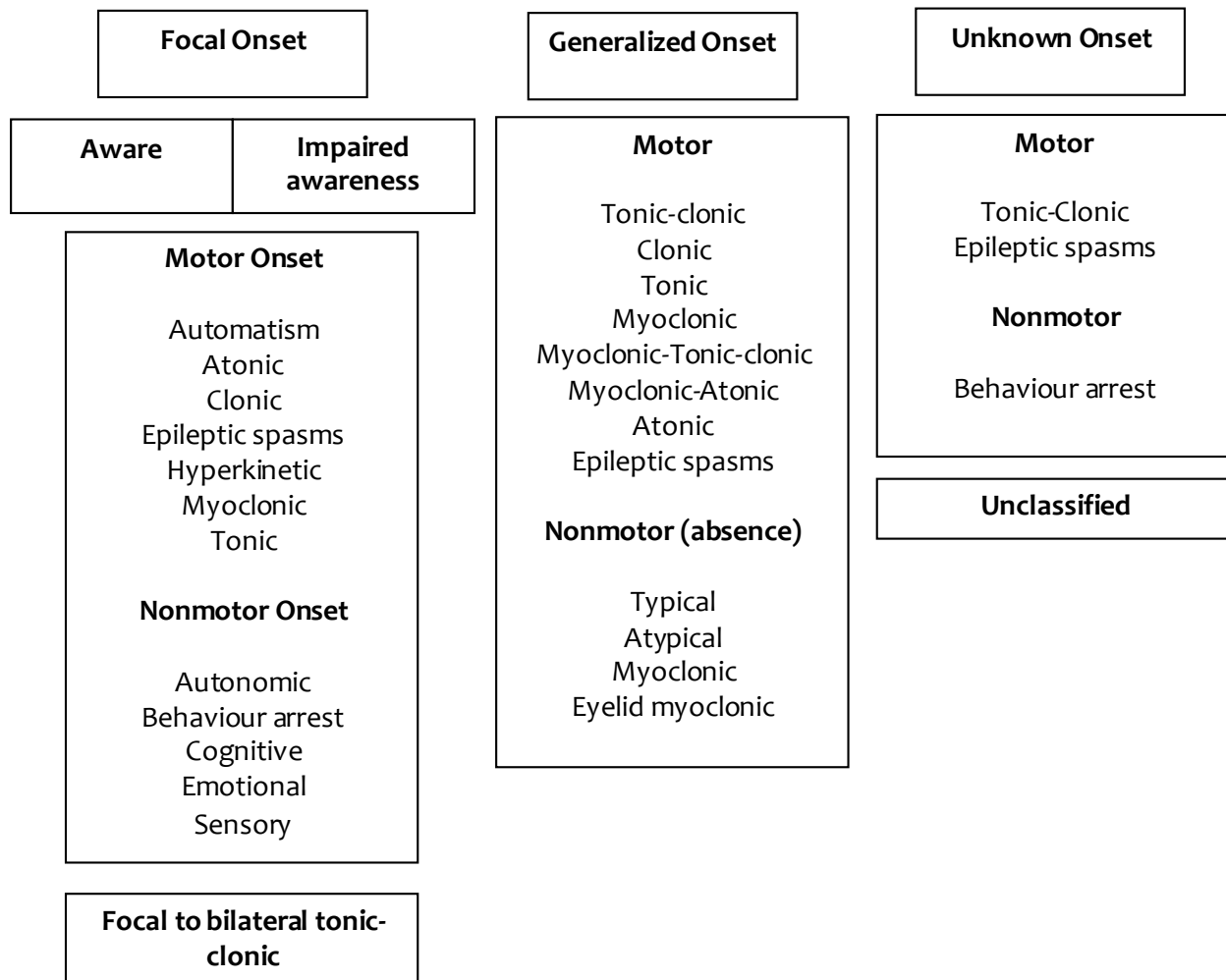


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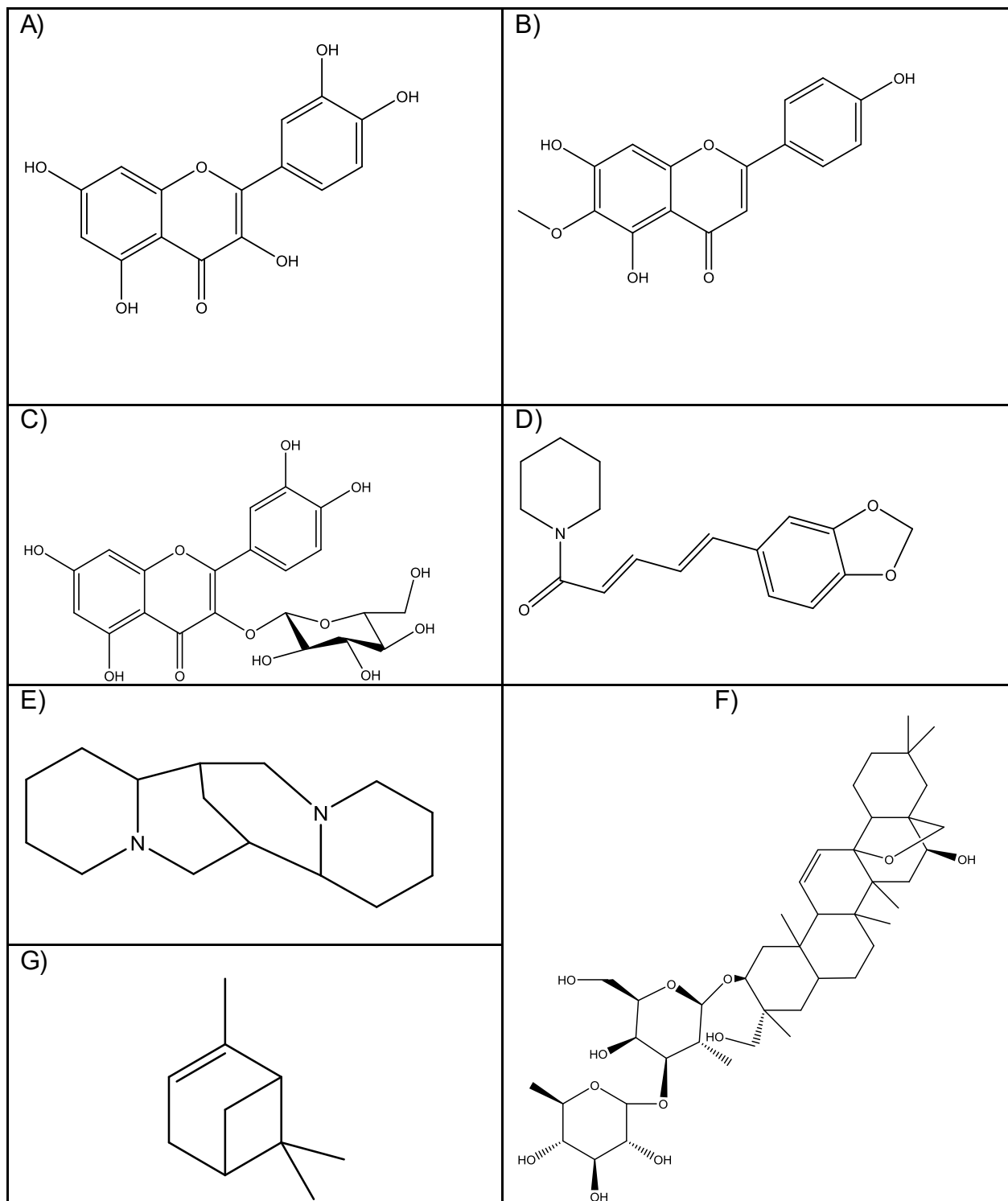
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**Figure 1.-** New extended classification of types of seizures released in 2017 by the ILAE, triggered by the need to improve the 1981 classification. The new classification covers children and adults. Adapted from Fisher et al., 2017.



**Figure 2.-** The structures of secondary metabolites with anticonvulsant activity are observed. A) Quercetin, B) Hispidulin, C) Isoquercitrin, D) Piperine, E) Sparteine, F) Saikosaponin A and G)  $\alpha$ -pinene

Table 1. Plants with anticonvulsant activity

Vegetable sources	Extract / Fraction / Isolates	Dose (mg/Kg)	Research animal / animal models	Phytochemical sieve	Proposed mechanisms	Ref.
<i>Acarus gramineus</i>	$\alpha$ -asarone	50-200	Swiss albino mouse and Rat Wistar / MES, LI-PILO (lithium-pilocarpine), PTZ			68
<i>Aegle marmelos</i>	Ethanollic (Leaf)	100, 200	Albino mouse / MES, PTZ	Saponins, tannins, flavonoids	GABAergic activity	69
<i>Alternanthera basiliana</i> (L.)	Methanollic (Leaf)	100, 300, 600	Swiss albino mouse / PTZ, MES	Triterpenes, alkaloids, steroids	GABAergic activity	70
<i>Allium cepa</i> L.	Aqueous (Bulb)	50, 100, 200, 400	Rat and mouse / PTZ, MES	Saponins, tannins, alkaloids, cardiac glycosides	Inhibition mediated by GABA	71
<i>Anethum graveolens</i>	Hydroalcoholic (Leaf)	100, 250, 400	Albino mouse BALB/c / PTZ	D-limonene, D-carvone, quercetin 3-O-beta-D-glucuronide y isoharmentin 3-O-beta-D-glucuronide		72
<i>Annona selegalensis</i> Pers.	Aqueous (Root bark)	200, 300, 400	Rat and mouse / Pilocarpine, picrotoxin	Triterpenes, anthocyanins, glycosides, coumarins, alkaloid flavonids.		73
<i>Artemisia indica</i> Linn	Methanol (Complete plant): Isolates, ursolic acid, camasol and oleanolic acid	1, 10, 30, 100	Swiss mouse / PTZ	Essential oils, flavonoids, triterpenes, coumarins, phenolic compounds and carotenoids	GABAergic activity	74
<i>Berberis integerrima</i>	Methanollic, Fraction Hydroalcoholic and chloroform (Root)	20, 80, 140, 200	Mouse / PTZ, MES	Alkaloids, flavonoids, tannins and saponins	Inhibition of Ca <sup>+2</sup> channels	75

<i>Carissa edulis</i>	Fraction and aqueous, ethanolic (Root bark)	150, 300, 600	Swiss albino mouse and Wistar rat / PTZ, MES, Picrotoxin, Strychnine, NMDA, INH (isoniazid), Kindling	Anthraquinones, tannins, flavonoids, carbohydrates and sterols.	Activity on sodium channels	76
<i>Carum carvi L.</i>	Aqueous and essential oil (Seed)	Aqueous: (200, 400, 800, 1600, 3200) essential oil (25, 50, 100, 200, 400)	Albino mouse / PTZ	Tannins, alkaloids, saponins, flavonoids, terpenoids and anthraquinones		77
<i>Coriandrum sativum</i>	Hydroalcoholic, ethyl acetate and n-butanol fraction (Leaf, stem y branch)	25, 100	Wistar rat / PTZ		GABAergic activity	78
<i>Clitoria ternatea Linn.</i>	Ethanolic extract (Leaf)	200, 400	Albino mouse / PTZ, MES			79
<i>Crassula arborescens (Mill)</i>	Methanolic (Leaf)	25, 50, 100, 200	Albino mouse / PTZ, bicuculine, picrotoxin, NMDLA (N-methyl-DL-aspartic acid), strychnine	Steroids, saponin, tannins and flavonoids		80
<i>Cichorium intybus</i>	Ethanolic extract (Flower)	125, 250, 500	Rat / MES, PTZ		GABAergic activity	81
<i>Cyperus tegetum Roxb</i>	Methanolic (Rhizome)	250, 500, 750	Swiss albino mouse / PTZ	Alkaloids, Flavonoids, tannins, saponins.	GABAergic activity	82
<i>Erythrina variegata (L)</i>	Cloroform (Bark and root)	500	Wistar rat and albino mouse/MES, PTZ	Steroids, glycosides, tannins, saponins and flavonoids		83
<i>Feretia apodanthera Del.</i>	Iridoid glycosides: Feretoside, gardenoside, Apodantoside, geneposodic acid, deacetylasperulosidic acid (Stem bark)	15, 30, 60, 90	Albino mouse / PTZ, bicuculine		Increased GABA concentration in the brain	84



<i>Ficus carica</i> L.	Aqueous - acetonic (Aerial parts)	250-500	Swiss albino mouse / PTZ, MES	Psoralen, bergapten, taraxasterol, $\beta$ -sitosterol, lupeol, $\beta$ -amyryn, coumarins, xanthotoxin, xanthoxol, ficusin, tyrosine, and marmesin	Norepinephrine, 5-HT and GABA mediated activity	85
<i>Flemingia strobilifera</i>	Ethanollic extract and ethyl acetate, ether, chloroform and aqueous fraction	200, 400, 600	Swiss albino mouse / PTZ, MES	Steroids, flavonoids, tannins, and carbohydrates		86
<i>Globimetula braunii</i>	Ethyl acetate fraction (Leaf)	75, 150, 300	Swiss albino mouse / PTZ, MES, 4-aminopyrimidine	Saponins, flavonoids, tannins, anthraquinones and steroids	GABAergic interaction, blocked glutamatergic activity or inhibition of $Ca^{+2}$ current	87
<i>Hypericum scabrum</i> L.	Aqueous (Aerial parts)	125, 250 and 500	Swiss albino mouse / PTZ, picrotoxin		GABA or nitric oxide mediated activity	88
<i>Melanthera scandens</i>	Ethanollic and aqueous (Leaf)	250, 500 1000	Wistar rat / PTZ	Phytosterols, glycosides, tannins, phenols, saponins, terpenes and flavonoids	Interaction with GABA transmission	89
<i>Melissa parviflora</i>	Methanollic and Aqueous Extracts (Complete plant)	250, 500	Swiss albino mouse / PTZ, MES	Alkaloids, Flavonoids, Sterols, Glycosides and saponins	GABAergic interaction, glutamatergic interaction or Inhibition of sodium channels	90
<i>Pseudospondias microcarpa</i>	Hydroalcoholic (Leaf)	30, 100, 300	Male mouse ICR		GABAergic, Glycergic, NMDA, $K^+$ Channels and GMP Nitric Oxide-Cyclic Activity	91

<i>Nerium oderum</i>	Petroleum ether, Methanolic and Aqueous Extracts. (Flower)	400	Swiss albino mouse and Wistar rat / MES, PTZ		GABAergic interaction	92
<i>Peperomia tetraphylla</i>	Methanolic and chloroformic (Complete plant)	250, 500	Wistar rat / MES	Alkaloids, glycosides, tannin, phenolic compounds, saponins and flavonoids		93
<i>Pinus roxburghii Sarg.</i>	Alcoholic (Stem bark)	100, 300, 500	Wistar rat / MES, PTZ	Bioflavonoids , Chlorogenic Acid, Quercitin and Rutin	Gabergic regulation or on glutamate receptors	94
<i>Piper umbellatum Linn.</i>	Aqueous y Chloroformic fraction (Leaf)	200, 400, 600	Swiss albino mouse / Picotroxin, strychnine	Cardiotonic glycosides, tannins, anthracenes and saponins		95
<i>Taraxacum serotinum</i>	Ethanolic extract (flower)	125, 250, 500	Albina rat/ MES, PTZ		GABAergic regulation or blocking of glutamatergic activity	96
<i>Teucrium polium</i>	Aqueous, Ethanolic and Fractions of petroleum ether, chloroform, ethyl acetate, n-butanol (Aerial parts)	Aqueous: 10, 25, 50 Fraction- es: 25, 50 and 100/ 50, 100 and 200	Mouse NMRI/PTZ, MES	Aqueous extract: Flavonoids and tannins ethanolic extract: terpenoids		97
<i>Tilia americana var.</i>	Methanolic, hexanic and aqueous (Flower)	100, 300, 600	Mouse / PTZ		Flavonoid- mediated activity and its antioxidant effect	98
<i>Rosa damascena</i>	Hydroalcoholic (Flower)	50, 100, 200	Wistar rat / PTZ		Interaction with the GABAergic system	99

<i>Sapindus mukorossi</i>	Aqueous and Methanolic (Fruit)	100, 200, 400	Wistar rat/MES, PTZ	Glycosides, saponins, flavonoids, tannins, phenolic compounds, sterols and steroids		100
<i>Satureja hortensis</i>	Aqueous and Ethanolic (Aerial parts)	200, 400, 600	Swiss albino mouse / PTZ, MES		Interaction with nitric oxide and the GABAA-BZD receptor complex.	101
<i>Swertia corymbosa</i> Griseb	Methanolic (Aerial parts)	125-250, 500	Swiss albino mouse and Wistar rat/PTZ, MES, isoniazid	Gentiopicroside and swertianine	Increased GABA levels	102
<i>Viola betonicifolia</i>	Hexanolic (Complete plant)	300, 400, 500	Balb c mouse / PTZ, strychnine		GABAA receptor stimulation	103
<i>Viola tricolor</i>	Hydroalcoholic / Ethyl acetate and n-butanol fractions (Leaf)	100, 200, 400 / 50, 100, 200	Albino mouse	flavonoids, saponins, antiocyanins, coumarins, carotenoids, tannins, salicylic acid, and phenolic acids		104
<i>Abrus Precatorius</i> (Linn.)	Methanolic (Leaf)	200, 400, 800	Albino Swiss mice / PTZ, Picotroxin, strychnine	Alkaloids, tannins, saponins and flavonoids	Modulation of the GABAA receptor-chloride	105
<i>Maerua angolensis</i> DC.	Petroleum ether and ethyl acetate mixture (Bark Extract)	100, 300, 1000	Sprague-Dawley rats / PTZ		Anti-seizure activity by affecting GABAergic and nitric oxide-cGMP pathways	106
<i>Aspilia africana</i>	Dichloromethane (Leaf)	25, 50, 100, 200	Mice/MES, Strychnine, PTZ		GABAergic activity	107