



Revisión / Review

Cuban flora species as a potential source of DNA protective compounds

[Especies de la flora cubana cómo fuente potencial de compuestos protectores del DNA]

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Abstract: Environmental exposure to genotoxic agents represents a major health concern for modern society. DNA damage could lead to mutations, which accumulative effect is closely related to degenerative and lethal diseases, such as cancer. Because of their structural and chemical diversity natural products play a fundamental role in pharmaceutical sciences for novel drug discovery. The present review article focuses on pre-clinical studies done with some species from Cuban flora that have been tested with positive antigenotoxic properties against different genotoxins. Special emphasis regarding molecular mechanisms suggested, from antioxidant activity to DNA repair modulation, a critical discussion of the state of art and the perspectives in the use of these plants as a new and promising strategy for genoprotection in the 21st Century are included.

Keywords: genoprotection, *Cymbopogon citratus*; *Mangifera indica*, *Phyllanthus* spp, *Pinus caribaea*, *Punica granatum*.

Resumen: La exposición ambiental a agentes genotóxicos representa un problema de salud significativo en la sociedad actual. El daño al ADN puede generar mutaciones, cuyo efecto acumulativo se encuentra estrechamente relacionado con enfermedades degenerativas y letales como el cáncer. Debido a su diversidad estructural y química los productos naturales juegan un papel fundamental en las ciencias farmacéuticas en el descubrimiento de nuevas drogas. El presente artículo de revisión puntualiza estudios pre-clínicos realizados con determinadas especies de la flora cubana que han sido estudiadas con una respuesta antioxidante positiva frente a diferentes genotoxinas. Se enfatizan especialmente los mecanismos moleculares sugeridos, desde actividad antioxidante hasta modulación de la reparación del ADN, así como una discusión crítica del estado del arte y las perspectivas en el empleo de estas plantas como una estrategia nueva y prometedora para la genoprotección en el siglo 21.

Palabras clave: genoprotección, *Cymbopogon citratus*; *Mangifera indica*, *Phyllanthus* spp, *Pinus caribaea*, *Punica granatum*.

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INTRODUCTION

Genotoxins constitute physical, chemical or biological agents that are capable to damage DNA. They could also be considered as a mutagen, carcinogen, or teratogen if produce mutations in DNA, trigger cancer, or cause a birth defect, respectively. Environmental genotoxic agents such as γ and Ultraviolet (UV) radiation, aromatic amines, hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2), among many others, represent a major health concern for modern society. Hence, the search for compounds with antimutagenic capacity is an area of increasing research.

Chemoprevention of mutation-related diseases such as cancer is supported by the use of chemical drugs from natural or synthetic sources to reverse, delay, and/or prevent the development or recurrence of cancer (Landis-Piwowar & Iyer, 2014; Kotecha *et al.*, 2016). To achieve this purpose, the search for chemopreventive agents, the assessment of their efficacy and safety, and the knowledge of the mechanisms involved are highly relevant (Seebode *et al.*, 2016).

Many naturally occurring compounds such as flavonoids, coumarins, carotenoids, anthraquinones, and tannins have shown antimutagenic properties. Depending on their mode of action, antimutagens can be classified as desmutagens or bioantimutagens (Bhattacharya, 2011). The former are able to inactivate the mutagens by interacting with it (physical, chemical or biochemically) before it reaches the DNA. Meanwhile the latter suppress the process of mutation after the damage has occur, by modulating DNA repair and replication processes, and hence are able to decrease the frequency of induced, but also spontaneous mutations in the cell (De Flora & Ferguson, 2005). Bioantimutagens could act increasing the DNA polymerase fidelity; inhibiting the error-prone and enhancing the error-free DNA repair mechanisms; inhibiting the expression of mutated genes by epigenetic mechanisms; or by inducing apoptosis.

The therapeutic use of plants is part of the universal humankind culture. Since the isolation of morphine from opium poppy at the beginning of 19 Century (Krishnamurti & Rao, 2016), a revolution in the discovery of new active ingredients from natural sources, especially plant secondary metabolites, has taken place. Currently, medicinal plants and dietary components are considered as excellent sources of chemopreventive agents (Saewan & Jimtaisong, 2015; Kotecha *et al.*, 2016; Montes de Oca *et al.*, 2017) and phytotherapy is considered a key

alternative to mitigate the side effects due to indiscriminate use of synthetic drugs.

Cuban flora is extremely rich. Insularity and geologic diversity had created a scenario for a high endemism and extensive habitat variety. In addition, cultural mix of aboriginal settings from pre-columbines times, Spanish conquerors, African slaves, as well as Chinese culture, made traditional medicine based in plant remedies a current and fundamental health tool. More than the 50% of the total medicinal plants reported in Cuba (1241 species, 97 of them endemic) are known or employed, showing a broad use of traditional medicine by Cuban population (Fuentes, 2008). Moreover, government efforts to include complementary and alternative medicine into medical school curricula, so that graduates will be able to advise their patients in their correct use, have been acknowledge by several Latin-American and U.S. medical practitioners as an example to follow and incorporate in their educational systems (Appelbaum *et al.*, 2008). Several species commonly used in Cuba folk medicine are approved by Cuban Ministry of Public Health as complementary medicine or raw material for the production of phytopharmaceuticals. However, for quite a few, there is a lack of pharmaceutical studies to sustain the properties attributed by the population. On the other hand, sometimes lab research has shown biological properties beyond their current use in folk medicine, enhancing their bioactive use.

Among the herbal medicines used the most by Cuban population in recent years are syrup and cream based in *Cymbopogon citratus* diuretic, antihypertensive, and anti-inflammatory properties, and a fluid extract from *Pinus caribaea* with antifungal activity (González-Ramírez *et al.*, 2007). Also, it have been proposed to incorporate the species *Mangifera indica* with proved anti-inflammatory and antioxidant properties to the list of medicinal plants in Cuban Pharmacopeia (González-Ramírez *et al.*, 2007). Other plants such as *Punica granatum* and several endemic species of *Phyllanthus* have been employed by its antiviral and antioxidant properties (del Barrio *et al.*, 1995; Sanchez-Lamar *et al.*, 2005; Del Barrio *et al.*, 2014; Sanchez-Lamar *et al.*, 2015). Although there are a few species from Cuban flora that have been studied for its antimutagenic properties (Ramos *et al.*, 2003), we consider that the mentioned plants have a more complete genoprotective profile as have been the target for decades of research on their potentialities as a source of antigenotoxic compounds.

In this review, an up-dated discussion of the genoprotective properties of selected species is presented, essentially focused in the antigenotoxic studies conducted in the country. International databases such as Pubmed Central, as well as national journals, were exhaustively searched for significant data gathering. Possible molecular mechanisms responsible for such activity are discussed and future perspectives outlined.

Toxicological evaluation of some Cuban plants with genoprotective effects

In order to assess the potential genoprotective properties of plant extracts, it is mandatory to first investigate their cyto- and genotoxicity. Every plant extract with antigenotoxic activity that is reviewed in this article has been extensively study by a serial of toxicological tests with different endpoints, from primary structural DNA damage to more complexes levels such as cell or organism viability. This approach allows conducting the genoprotective studies at concentrations that have proven not to be toxic in the particular experimental model, and hence support their safety.

Different formulations and chemical fractions from *C. citratus* have been evaluated in plasmid DNA (González-Pumariega et al., 2016), bacterial cells (Vernhes et al., 2016; Fuentes-León et al., 2017a; Fuentes-León et al., 2017b), and eukaryotic organisms (Cápiro et al., 2001; Fernández-Calienes et al., 2009), showing no toxic effects.

In *M. indica* low toxicity (Fernández-Calienes et al., 2009; Garrido et al., 2009) and lack of DNA primary damage effect, mutagenicity and clastogenicity, have been reported in several *in vitro* and *in vivo* experimental models (Martínez et al., 2000; Cancino-Badías et al., 2001; Rodeiro et al., 2006; Rosario et al., 2009; Rodeiro et al., 2012; Rodeiro et al., 2014).

Acute and sub-chronic toxicity studies proved that *P. orbicularis* aqueous extract did not exert any toxic effect by oral administration at doses recommended for using as antiviral in humans (Rivero & Vidal, 1998), as well as not irritant properties were detected on dermis and ophthalmic tests (Gutiérrez et al., 2002). Likewise, it did not induce either primary DNA damage or mutation when *ex vivo* experiments with plasmid DNA, SOS gene induction, gene reversion and conversion, and SMART assays were performed in different experimental models such as *Escherichia coli*, *Salmonella typhimurium*, *Sacharomyces cerevisiae*,

and *Drosophila melanogaster* (Sánchez-Lamar et al., 1999; Sánchez-Lamar et al., 2002; Cuétara et al., 2012; Vernhes et al., 2013a; Vernhes et al., 2013b; Vernhes et al., 2016). *P. williamioides* and *P. chamaecristoides* extracts, showed no toxicity when assessed in human lung cancer cell line A549, neither acute toxicity in *Artemia salina* (Wong, 2013). Recently, we proved that the aqueous extract of *P. williamioides*, *P. chamaecristoides* and *P. microdictyus* are not cytotoxic nor genotoxic (< 2.0 mg/mL) in *Caulobacter crescentus* cells (Menéndez-Perdomo et al., 2016).

In *ex vivo* experiments, *P. caribaea* aqueous extract did not exert genotoxic effects (Vernhes et al., 2017) and did not induce primary DNA damage (with and without enzymatic activation) in *E. coli* cells (Fuentes et al., 2006b; Cuétara et al., 2012). Additionally, no toxicity was detected in CHO cells exposed to the tannins rich fraction (manuscript in preparation).

Pomegranate whole fruit extract does not affect cells proliferation, neither produce DNA-primary damage in different cells lines measure by Sister Chromatids Exchange (SCE) and DNA fragmentation assays (Sánchez-Lamar et al., 2005; Casadelvalle et al., 2006), and the detected toxic effects of *Punica granatum* fruit extract occurred at higher doses than those used in Cuban folk medicine (Vidal-Novoa et al., 2003).

Selected Cuban flora species with genoprotective properties

Cymbopogon citratus

Cymbopogon citratus (DC) Stapf, known in Cuba as “Caña Santa”, is a monocot plant that belongs to the Poaceae Family (Order Poales). The name *Cymbopogon* is derived from the Greek words “kymbe” (boat) and “pogon” (beard), referring to the flower spike arrangement (Shah et al., 2011). The lemongrass is one of the most frequently used plants in Cuban traditional medicine. It is consumed as decoction for treat kidney and respiratory disorders, stomach pains, and also as analgesic, diuretic and anti-inflammatory, although only some of these pharmacological properties have been tested (González-Ramírez et al., 2007; Volpato et al., 2009; Pérez-Machín et al., 2011b). It has been proved that leaves’ decoction acts as hypotensive (Carbajal et al., 1989) and antispasmodic (Moron et al., 2000) and the essential oils possesses insecticidal, antimicrobial (Hernández & Rodríguez, 2001) and antifungal activities (Guerra et al., 2004; Pinto et al., 2015).

Antigenotoxic studies using Chromosome Aberrations in CHO cells and Somatic Mutation and Recombination Test (SMART) assay in *Drosophila* showed that *C. citratus* decoction possesses protective properties when tested in co-treatment against alkylating and oxidant agents such as Etilnitrosourea (ENU), Metilmetanesulfonate (MMS), Juglone (JG), 7-12-dimetilbenzoantracene (DMBA) and H₂O₂ (Cápiro *et al.*, 2001; Cápiro *et al.*, 2005). According to the dose-effect curves obtained for each mutagen, authors suggested that *C. citratus* phytochemicals act as desmutagens. In this sense, different mechanisms like chemical or enzymatic inactivation, prevention of formation of active species or antioxidant free radical scavenging, could be involved. Furthermore, aqueous extract showed radioprotective properties in *E. coli* PQ-37 cells, only in the pre-treatment or co-treatment approach (Fuentes *et al.*, 2006a). A possible explanation proposed by these authors was based on free radical scavenging mechanisms in concordance to Cápiro *et al.* (2001) hypothesis. More recently, *Cymbopogon* was tested against the DNA damage induced by UVC light in different experimental models. Aqueous extract from 0.5-4.0 mg/mL reduced CPD formation in co and pre-treatment approaches, using plasmid model (González-Pumariega *et al.*, 2016). Also, when *E. coli* PQ-37 cells were continuously incubated with *C. citratus* extract (before, during and after UVC irradiation), the damage, measured by SOS Chromotest, was significantly reduced. In all concentrations tested 0.1-4.0 mg/mL, a drop of genotoxicity close to 40-50% was found. *E. coli* cells treated after UVC irradiation, decrease the remaining genotoxicity only to 60% (Vernhes *et al.*, 2016). Similar results were found evaluating *Cymbopogon* essential oils in this bacterial model (0.1-2.0 mg/mL). Continuous application reduces UVC genotoxicity, not being that way the incubation after UVC irradiation (Montano-Pérez, 2011). Interestingly, in *C. crescentus* cells same concentrations of essential oils and aqueous fraction didn't reduce primary UVC-induced DNA damage, but showed antimutagenic capacity (Fuentes-León *et al.*, 2017b). Those last results also indicate bioantimutagenic properties in this plant compounds.

C. citratus is widely distributed, extensively used and studied worldwide. There are evidences about its DNA protective capacity in studies conducted around the world. For instance, inhibited chromosomal aberration in human lymphocytes exposed to mitomycin C (Meevatee *et al.*, 1993),

micronucleus formation in rats exposed to cyclophosphamide (Pinsaeng, 1993), mutagenesis against several agents in *S. typhimurium* (Vinitketkumnuen *et al.*, 1994), and decreases the DNA adducts induced by azoxymethane (AOM) in rat colon (Suaeyun *et al.*, 1997). Also, the hydroalcoholic and aqueous extracts showed radioprotective potential, decreasing clastogenic damage chinese hamster lung fibroblast cells (V79) using micronucleus assay and plasmid DNA *ex vivo* assay, respectively (Rao *et al.*, 2009; Kanatt *et al.*, 2014). Both authors demonstrated a significant scavenging ability, using several *in vitro* assay systems. These results are in concordance to Balakrishnan *et al.* (2014) who proved that chloroform, methanol and water extracts of *C. citratus* leaves effectively decreased the extent damage caused by H₂O₂ in DNA isolated from human blood serum. Moreover it was reported that lemongrass essential oil exhibited protective action against N-methyl-N-nitrosourea-induced DNA damage (Bidinotto *et al.*, 2011), and particularly Citral (it's main component) is effective in counteracting the chromosomal aberrations induce by Arsenic in bone marrow mice cells (De *et al.*, 2015). These DNA protective results are in concordance with the findings in the Cuban plants.

Mangifera indica

Known as mango, *Mangifera indica* Linn is a tree from the Family Anacardiaceae (Order Sapindales). Bark and leaves of mango are used in Cuba to treat diabetics, hypertension, digestive, gastrointestinal, and respiratory problems and also as anti-inflammatory, diuretic and antioxidant (González-Ramírez *et al.*, 2007; Volpato *et al.*, 2009; Pérez-Machín *et al.*, 2011a; Machín *et al.*, 2011b). Vimang is a natural product obtained in Cuba from an aqueous extract of this plant bark. This is a complex mix rich in polyphenols, and Mangiferin (**Figure 1**) is the predominant component. This glucosylxanthone is found in large quantities not only in the stem bark but also in leaves and fruit of *M. indica*. (Núñez-Sellés *et al.*, 2002; Núñez-Sellés *et al.*, 2007). Chemical, pharmacological and toxicological studies reinforce Vimang as anti-inflammatory (Garrido *et al.*, 2001; 2004a; Garrido *et al.*, 2004b), analgesic or anti-nociceptive (Garrido *et al.*, 2001; Garrido-Suárez *et al.*, 2010; Garrido-Suarez *et al.*, 2011b; Garrido-Suarez *et al.*, 2011a), immune-modulator (García *et al.*, 2002), antioxidant (Martínez *et al.*, 2000; Pardo-Andreu *et al.*, 2006a;

Pardo-Andreu *et al.*, 2006b; Pardo-Andreu *et al.*, 2008; Garrido *et al.*, 2008) and anti-allergic (García *et al.*, 2006). Furthermore, Vimang inhibited DNA damage caused by copper-phenanthroline and bleomycin systems (Martínez *et al.*, 2000) but not in front of cyclophosphamide in mice pretreated (Cancino-Badías *et al.*, 2001). Also patients with cancer, diabetes mellitus, prostatic hyperplasia, bronchial asthma, psoriasis, lupus erythematosus and dermatitis improved their quality of life with therapeutic use of this extract (Guevara *et al.*, 2004; Guevara *et al.*, 2007).

M. indica bark extract showed antigenotoxic capacity in co-treatment approach, against the damage induced by γ radiation, measure by SOS Chromotest in *E. coli* (250, 500 y 1000 $\mu\text{g/mL}$) (Rosario *et al.*, 2009) and comet assay in primary human lymphocytes and lymphoblastoid cells (25 and 50 $\mu\text{g/mL}$) (Rodeiro *et al.*, 2014). Also,

concentrations between 50 and 500 $\mu\text{g/plate}$ significantly reduced the mutagenicity mediated by chemical agents like 1-nitropyrene (1-NP), 2-acetylaminofluorene (2-AAF), benzo[a]pyrene (BP), bleomycin, cisplatin, cyclophosphamide, dimethylnitrosamine (DMNA), mitomycin C, and picrolonic acid, and a inhibition of CYP1A1 microsomal activity was observed at 10–20 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ (Morffi *et al.*, 2012). Mangiferin have been proved to be responsible for these antimutagenic properties against chemical agents in *S. typhimurium* assay (Rodeiro *et al.*, 2012) and for the desmutagenic effects of Vimang in human cells (5–25 $\mu\text{g/mL}$) (Rodeiro *et al.*, 2014). All this authors suggest that DNA protective activity could be explain by antioxidant properties, acting as an oxygen free radicals scavenger, and in addition the capacity of mangiferin to inhibit CYP1 enzymes (Martínez *et al.*, 2000; Rosario *et al.*, 2009; Rodeiro *et al.*, 2012).

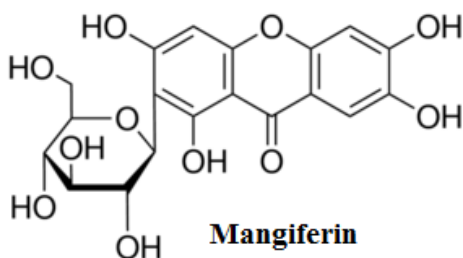


Figure 1
Mangiferin, principal bioactive compound detected in *Mangifera indica*.

Mango is widely used as a food supplement in the form of a pickle, and the fruit is eaten as such or is drunk in the form of juice worldwide. In this sense it has been demonstrated that mango wine and juice are able to protect plasmid DNA against UV, H_2O_2 and γ -irradiation induced DNA damage (Naresh *et al.*, 2014, Naresh *et al.*, 2015). Furthermore treatment of HepG2 cells with mango peel extract prior to oxidative stress was found to inhibit DNA damage in Comet Assay (Kim *et al.*, 2010). It has been proved that mangiferin (50 $\mu\text{g/mL}$) reduced the γ radiation-induced DNA damage in a concentration-dependent manner in human peripheral blood lymphocytes (Jagetia & Venkatesha, 2006). These authors as Cuban findings confirm mango's protective *in vitro* actions and thus could be a valuable source of antioxidants. Vascular, cardiac and intestinal effects of an extract of *Mangifera indica* have been studied (Bustamante *et al.*, 1998).

Phyllanthus spp.

Phyllanthus species were described for the first time in 1737 by Linnaeus and belongs to the largest genus of the Family Phyllanthaceae (Order Malpighiales) comprising approximately 1270 species (Hoffmann *et al.*, 2006). *Phyllanthus* plants possess a remarkable diversity and their major significance relies in their multiple ethnomedicinal properties (Sarin *et al.*, 2014). Preclinical and clinical studies carried out with the extracts and purified compounds from these plants support most of their reported uses in folk medicine for the treatment of a wide variety of pathological conditions, particularly their DNA photoprotective properties (Menéndez-Perdomo & Sánchez-Lamar, 2017).

Over the past couple of decades, our research group in the Laboratory of Toxicological Genetics at the University of Havana has studied the genotoxic

and genoprotective properties of Cuban endemic specie *Phyllanthus orbicularis* Kunth, commonly known as “Alegría”. *P. orbicularis* is used in folk medicine and several studies conducted with the aqueous extract have proved its antiviral (del Barrio & Parra, 2000; Fernandez *et al.*, 2003; Álvarez *et al.*, 2009; del Barrio *et al.*, 2014) and antioxidant activities (Sánchez-Lamar *et al.*, 1999; Ferrer *et al.*, 2002; Sanchez-Lamar *et al.*, 2015). Phytochemical characterization had revealed the presence of flavonoids, tannins, antocianidins, coumarins, gallic acid-derivates, catechin, epicatechin, and others (Gutiérrez *et al.*, 2011).

P. orbicularis aqueous extract exhibits genoprotective effects against several chemical mutagens. In CHO cells treated with the extract at concentrations ≤ 0.1 mg/mL, it significantly reduced the H₂O₂-induced chromosome aberrations, probably through its antioxidant activity (Sánchez-Lamar *et al.*, 1999). A similar result was detected using the *Salmonella* assay at a dose of 200 μ g/plate, and the better antimutagenic effects (less than 30% of remaining mutagenesis) were shown for the pre-treatment approach, when bacterial cells and the extract were incubated before the addition of H₂O₂ (Ferrer *et al.*, 2002). Moreover, through a bioactive-directed fractionation it has been isolated and identified by Gas Chromatography/Mass Spectrometry three phytochemicals responsible for the aqueous extract antimutagenesis against H₂O₂

using the *Salmonella* retromutation assay (Sánchez-Lamar *et al.*, 2015).

Furthermore, when tested by the Ames assay this plant extract produced a significant decrease of the mutagenesis mediated by several aromatic amines, such as *m*-phenylenediamine, 2-aminofluorene, 1-aminopyrene, 2-aminoanthracene, and 9-aminophenanthrene (Ferrer *et al.*, 2001). The authors proposed an inhibition/competition for S9 enzymes, as well as chemical modification into non-promutagenic derivatives, as the possible antimutagenic mechanisms depending on the amine tested. Additionally, the plant extract was effective in reducing the mutagenesis of two procarcinogenic aromatic amines (2-amino-1-methyl-6-phenylimidazo[4,5-b]pyridine and 4-aminobiphenyl) when assessed by the *Salmonella* assay (Ferrer *et al.*, 2004). The best results were obtained when both amines were metabolized by human liver microsomal enzymes in the presence of 1.0 mg/plate of the extract, with more than a 75% reduction of the mutagenicity. The results indicated an inhibition/modulation of the CYP1A subfamily, responsible for the activation of these promutagenic amines. We were able to link both last activities to 2,4-di-*tert*-butylphenol, OO'-diphenol-4,4',6,6'-tetra-*tert*-butyl and 2,6-di-*sec*-butylphenol (Figure 2), and currently studies are being taken in order to modeling *in silico* their molecular action mechanism.

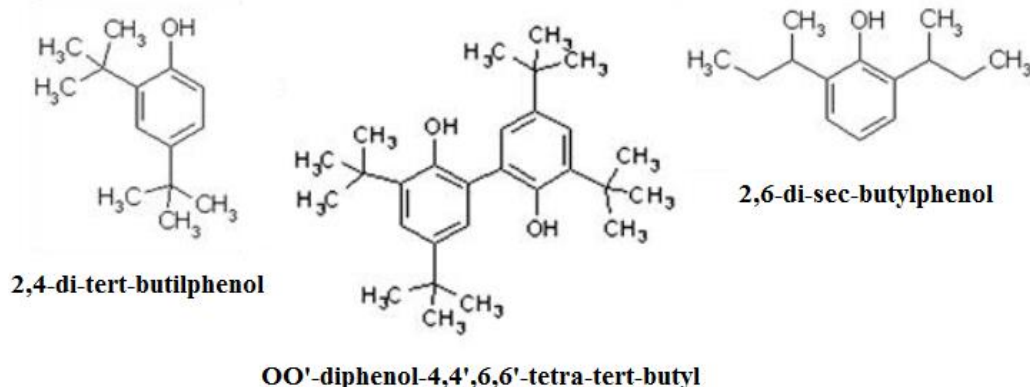


Figure 2

2,4-di-*tert*-butylphenol, OO'-diphenol-4,4',6,6'-tetra-*tert*-butyl and 2,6-di-*sec*-butylphenol principal bioactive compound detected in *Phyllanthus orbicularis*.

P. orbicularis aqueous extract also displays radioprotective effects. The highest antigenotoxic

properties of the extract on *E. coli* cells γ -irradiated was reached at a concentration of 2.0 mg/mL (Alonso

et al., 2005). By means of SOS transcriptional-fusion-based assay and using different approaches (pre, co, post-treatment) the authors were able to suggest as the antimutagenic mechanisms implicated in the radioprotection the synergism of a free radicals scavenging mechanism and modulation of DNA repair systems. These results were supported by latter studies using the *Salmonella* reversion assay (Alonso *et al.*, 2010), in which the remaining mutagenesis percentage significantly decrease when cells were irradiated in the presence of the extract at doses ≤ 0.5 mg/mL.

Also, *P. orbicularis* aqueous extract protected DNA against UV-B (≥ 0.1 mg/mL) and UV-C radiation (≥ 0.5 mg/mL) in *ex vivo* experiments using cell-free plasmid DNA (Vernhes *et al.*, 2013b). In the cited study, the transmittance quantification data showed that for 0.1 mg/mL around 50% of UV radiation was blocked by the extract, and 100% of it for higher concentrations tested. These results suggest that there are some phytochemicals in the extract capable of absorbing short- and medium-wave UV radiation and inhibiting bipyrimidine photoproducts formation; although it is also possible that antioxidant components were able to decrease the Reactive Oxygen Species (ROS) induced by UV-B, in a synergic UV absorption/antioxidant photoprotective mechanism. In another study, the photoprotective effect of the extract was also associated to non UV absorption mechanisms. When *P. orbicularis* aqueous extract (1 μ g/mL) was tested in DNA repair proficient (MRC5-SV) and deficient (XP4PA, complementation group XPC) human cell lines, it enhanced the removal of cyclobutane pyrimidine dimers (CPD) from genomic DNA in a time-dependent manner, possibly by means of a positive modulation of Nucleotide Excision Repair (NER) system, suggesting the bioantimutagenic capacity of this extract against UV radiation-induced DNA damage (Vernhes *et al.*, 2013a). Additionally, using the SOS Chromotest assay it was demonstrated that *P. orbicularis* aqueous extract (0.1-2.0 mg/mL) applied after irradiation protected DNA from primarily damage induced by UV-C light in *E. coli* cells deficient in NER system, which is indicative that the enhancement of other DNA repair mechanisms, such as Base Excision Repair (BER) and recombination-based repair, could be involved in a bioantimutagenic response (Vernhes *et al.*, 2016).

We also investigated the antimutagenic properties of *P. chamaecristoides*, *P. microdictyus*,

and *P. williamioides* aqueous extracts against UV-C artificial light by the Rif^R Assay at concentrations non-toxic in *C. crescentus* cells. All the three aqueous extracts showed DNA photoprotection as they significantly diminish SOS response, meaning that they protect DNA from primary structural damage induced by UV-C radiation, an effect that could be due in part to a possible enhancement of DNA repair systems (Menéndez-Perdomo *et al.*, 2017). *P. chamaecristoides* and *P. microdictyus* extracts significantly decreased the frequency of mutations induced by UV-C radiation, and the relative mutagenicity detected was under 5% at a concentration of 1.0 mg/mL. Moreover, these extracts seemed to act through a bioantimutagenic pathway as 1-1000 μ g/mL concentrations permitted the passage of 100% of UV-C radiation indicating low absorption (hence, did not exert the photoprotective action through desmutagenic mechanisms). Nevertheless, for the extracts at 1.0 mg/mL, a 100% (*P. chamaecristoides* and *P. williamioides*) and 50% (*P. microdictyus*) of UV-B absorption was detected, suggesting that some desmutagenic effects may occur for longer UV wavelengths exposure (Menéndez-Perdomo *et al.*, 2017). Currently, some experiments are being carried out in order to unveil the molecular mechanism by which the extracts exert their bioantimutagenic action.

These results are in agreement with worldwide works on *Phyllanthus* species antigenotoxic properties against physical mutagens, such as γ and ultraviolet radiation (Singh *et al.*, 2005; Harikumar & Kuttan, 2007; Londhe *et al.*, 2009; Majeed *et al.*, 2010; Majeed *et al.*, 2011; Thakur *et al.*, 2011; Raja *et al.*, 2011), as well as chemical mutagens like benzopyrene, lead, aluminium, arsenic, cyclophosphamide, aflatoxin B1, dimethylnitrosamine, 2-aminofluorene, 2-aminoanthracene, and 4-nitroquinolone-1-oxide (Dhir *et al.*, 1990; Nandi *et al.*, 1997; Kumar & Kuttan, 2005; Madhavi *et al.*, 2007; Ahmad *et al.*, 2015; Sayed *et al.*, 2015). Moreover, *Phyllanthus* spp. chemopreventive properties against skin carcinogenesis have also been well established in different experimental models, including human skin melanoma MeWo cells (Sancheti *et al.*, 2005; Tang *et al.*, 2010; 2014, 2015).

Pinus caribaea

Known as Caribbean pine (or “Pino macho” in Cuba), *Pinus caribaea* Morelet belongs to the Pinaceae Family (Order Pinales) and is native to

Central America, The Bahamas, the Turks and Caicos Islands and Cuba. In Cuban traditional medicine it is used as a potent antifungal in liquid formulations (González-Ramírez *et al.*, 2007). Scientific evidence refer its antiviral capacity (Rubial *et al.*, 2003) and *in vitro* antioxidant properties through lipid peroxidation inhibition (Santana *et al.*, 2002).

P. caribaea aqueous extract at concentrations ≥ 1.0 mg/mL possesses antigenotoxic properties in *E. coli* cells under irradiation with γ rays (Fuentes *et al.*, 2006a). It have been proven that a tannins fraction obtained from the plant bark aqueous extract is responsible for the radioprotective properties in *E. coli* cells irradiated with γ -rays (Fuentes *et al.*, 2006b). These authors found a significant decrease of genotoxicity (around 70% at 1 mg/mL) when the cells were in contact with the extract before, during, and after the irradiation, but this effect was higher at lower doses when the cells were incubated with the extract only before the irradiation and no significant effect was found for cells treated with the extract only after the irradiation. Together these results suggested a possible antigenotoxic action based on free radical scavenging mechanisms, although more experimental data is needed to understand the underlying molecular interactions.

Recently it was assessed the protective effect of the aqueous extract of *Pinus caribaea* against the damage induced by the UV-B (3000 J/m²) and UV-C (100 J/m²) radiation with the cell-free plasmid DNA assay (Vernhes *et al.*, 2017). These experiments are based in the use of the enzyme T4 endonuclease V to detect (and cut) DNA sites where CPDs are formed, generating the open circular (if only cuts one strand) and lineal (if cuts both strands) forms of the original covalent close circular plasmid. At concentrations ≥ 0.1 mg/mL the extract inhibited the photolesions formation due to UV irradiation. Because for concentrations ≥ 0.5 mg/mL transmittance values reflected a complete blocking of UV radiation, the authors suggested that at least in part, the extract exerts its photoprotective effect by a desmutagenic mechanism, by blocking the UV-DNA interaction. The observed protective effect at lower concentrations could be related with the antioxidant

properties described for this extract previously, acting by synergism with its desmutagenic potential.

Punica granatum

Called commonly as pomegranate (Granada), *Punica granatum* is a tree native to Asia that belongs to the Lythraceae Family (Order Myrtales). Pomegranate is a fruit consumed fresh or in beverage. It has been widely used in traditional medicine in several parts of the world. In Cuba, is used to treat throat problems and asthma. Some reports have suggested that *Punica* has several important effects on human health, including, antiviral (Casadelvalle *et al.*, 2006; Morffi *et al.*, 2006), antibacterial, anti-malarial (Fernández-Calienes *et al.*, 2010) and antioxidant properties (Sánchez-Lamar *et al.*, 2005). In this sense, whole fruit extract could sequester reactive oxygen species caused by H₂O₂, a mechanism that allows it to protect the DNA. In combined treatment (H₂O₂ + punica extract) Sister Chromatid Exchange decrease and Mitotic Index is reestablish to control levels (Sánchez-Lamar *et al.*, 2005).

Investigations conducted in other countries showed that *Punica* extracts or components are effective against several mutagenic agents associated to antioxidant properties. Different extracts have been proved to inhibit DNA damage against sodium azide, cyclophosphamide, pentachlorophenol and hexavalent chromium using *Salmonella* test, MN frequency and chromosomal aberrations in mice, probably due to its free radical scavenging capability (Ghasemian *et al.*, 2006; Valadares *et al.*, 2010; Dassprakash *et al.*, 2012; Agha *et al.*, 2013; Ávila *et al.*, 2013). Also seed oil nanoemulsion entrapping polyphenol-rich ethyl acetate fraction, protected the DNA against UVB-induced damage (Baccarin *et al.*, 2015). Punicalagin and ellagic acid are *Punica granatum* major constituents. They showed antimutagenic potential against sodium azide, methyl methanesulfonate, 2-aminoflourine and benzo[a]pyrene in Ames test and also inhibited benzo[a]pyrene and oxidative-induced DNA adducts (Aqil *et al.*, 2012; Zahin *et al.*, 2014). These results agree with findings in pomegranate Cuban plants.

Table 1
Selected Cuban flora species with genoprotective properties

| Species | Positively tested targets | Assay (experimental model) | Molecular mechanism (biactive compound) | References |
|--|--|---|---|---|
| <i>Cymbopogon citratus</i> (Poaceae) | 7-12-dimetilbenzoantracene; H ₂ O ₂ ; etilnitrosourea; juglone; metilmetanesulfonate | Chromosome Aberrations (CHO cells); SMART (<i>D. melanogaster</i>) | Desmutagen | Cápiro <i>et al.</i> , 2001; Cápiro <i>et al.</i> , 2005 |
| | γ radiation | SOS Chromotest (<i>E. coli</i>) | | Fuentes <i>et al.</i> , 2006a |
| | UV radiation | <i>Ex vivo</i> (plasmid DNA); transmittance quantification | Bioantimutagen | González-Pumariega <i>et al.</i> , 2016 |
| | | SOS Chromotest (<i>E. coli</i> ; <i>C. crescentus</i>) | | Montano-Pérez, 2011; Vernhes <i>et al.</i> , 2016; Fuentes-León <i>et al.</i> , 2017 |
| <i>Mangifera indica</i> (Anacardiaceae) | γ radiation | SOS Chromotest (<i>E. coli</i>); Comet assay (human lymphocytes, lymphoblastoid) | Free radical scavenging | Rosario <i>et al.</i> , 2009; Rodeiro <i>et al.</i> , 2014 |
| | 1-nitropyrene; bleomycin; cisplatin; mitomycin C; 2-acetylaminofluorene; picrolonic acid; cyclophosphamide; benzo[a]pyrene; dimethylnitrosamine | Ames test (<i>S. typhimurium</i>) | Bioantimutagen and desmutagen (mangiferin) | Morffi <i>et al.</i> , 2012; Rodeiro <i>et al.</i> , 2012; Rodeiro <i>et al.</i> , 2014 |
| <i>Phyllanthus orbicularis</i> (Phyllanthaceae) | H ₂ O ₂ | Chromosome Aberrations (CHO cells); Ames test (<i>S. typhimurium</i>) | Free radical scavenging (2,4-di-tert-butylphenol; OO'-diphenol-4,4',6,6'-tetra-ter-butyl; 2,6-di-sec-butylphenol) | Ferrer <i>et al.</i> , 2002; Sánchez-Lamar <i>et al.</i> , 1999; Rodeiro <i>et al.</i> , 2015 |
| | <i>m</i> -phenylenediamine; 2-aminofluorene; 1-aminopyrene; 2-aminoanthracene; 9-aminophenanthrene; 2-amino-1-methyl-6-phenylimidazo[4,5-b]pyridine; 4-aminobiphenyl | Ames test (<i>S. typhimurium</i>) | inhibition/competition for S9 enzymes; bioantimutagen | Ferrer <i>et al.</i> , 2001; Ferrer <i>et al.</i> , 2004 |
| | γ radiation | SOS Chromotest (<i>E. coli</i>); Ames test (<i>S. typhimurium</i>) | Free radical scavenging and DNA repair systems modulation | Alonso <i>et al.</i> , 2005; Alonso <i>et al.</i> , 2010 |
| | UV radiation | <i>Ex vivo</i> (plasmid DNA); transmittance quantification | UV absorption and free radical scavenging | Vernhes <i>et al.</i> , 2013b |
| | | CPD removal (human fibroblasts) | Bioantimutagen, NER modulation | Vernhes <i>et al.</i> , 2013a |
| SOS Chromotest (<i>E. coli</i>) | Bioantimutagen, BER and recombination-based repair modulation | Vernhes <i>et al.</i> , 2016 | | |
| <i>Phyllanthus chamaecristoides</i> <i>P. microdictyus</i> (Phyllanthaceae) | UV radiation | SOS Chromotest; Rif ^R Assay (<i>C. crescentus</i>); transmittance quantification | Biantimutagen | Menéndez-Perdomo <i>et al.</i> , 2017 |
| <i>Phyllanthus williamoides</i> (Phyllanthaceae) | | SOS Chromotest (<i>C. crescentus</i>) | SOS response modulation | |

| | | | | |
|--|-------------------------------|--|--|----------------------------|
| <i>Pinus caribaea</i> (Pinales) | γ radiation | SOS Chromotest (<i>E. coli</i>) | Free radical scavenging (tannins fraction) | Fuentes et al., 2006a; b |
| | UV radiation | <i>Ex vivo</i> (plasmid DNA); transmittance quantification | UV absorption | Vernhes et al., 2017 |
| <i>Punica granatum</i> (Lythraceae) | H ₂ O ₂ | Sister Chromatid Exchange (CHO cells) | Free radical scavenging | Sánchez-Lamar et al., 2005 |

Concluding Remarks

Cuban flora is vast in species, endemic or not, widely or moderately used in traditional medicine, that constitute a potential source of antigenotoxic compounds (Table 1). Even though Cuban folk culture and government policy are positive in the use of plants principles as complementary medicine, few toxicological tests have been performed in order to validate the safety of such practice. Moreover, a fairly limited number of species have been tested for their genoprotective properties, and for those that have been more exhaustively studied such as *Cymbopogon citratus*, *Mangifera indica*, *Phyllanthus spp.*, *Pinus caribaea*, and *Punica granatum*, there is still need of more data about the particular molecules and mechanisms underlying their biological activity. In the present review we examined different molecular mechanisms suggested to date, from antioxidant activity to DNA repair modulation, and critically discussed the state of art and perspectives in the use of these plants as a new and promising strategy for genoprotection in the 21st Century. We conclude that there is a long road to drive in order to fulfill this goal, but we consider that important steps have been done in the past couple of decades of research in the nation.

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