Journal of Applied Pharmaceutical Science Vol. 3 (12), pp. 057-062, December, 2013 Available online at http://www.japsonline.com DOI: 10.7324/JAPS.2013.31210 ISSN 2231-3354 CC) BY-NC-5A

In vitro Anti-plasmodial Activity of Rubia cordifolia, Harrizonia abyssinica, Leucas calostachys Olive and Sanchus schweinfurthii Medicinal Plants

Nyambati G.K.^{1,2*}, Lagat Z.O.¹, Maranga R.O.¹, Samuel M.¹, Ozwara H.³

¹Department of Zoology, Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology, Nairobi, Kenya. ²School of Health Sciences and Technology, Technical University of Kenya. ³Department of Tropical Diseases, Institute of Primate Research, Kenya.

ARTICLE INFO

Article history: Received on: 09/10/2013 Revised on: 13/11/2013 Accepted on: 16/12/2013 Available online: 30/12/2013

Key words: Anti-plasmodial, extracts, lethal dose, parasites, IC₅₀.

ABSTRACT

Plasmodium falciparum is becoming increasingly resistant to conventional antimalaria drugs. Rapid increase of parasite resistant strains, resistance of the vector to insecticides and the difficulty in creating efficient vaccines has lead to an urgent need for new anti-malarial drugs. To determine anti-plasmodial activity of *Rubia cordifolia*, *Harrizonia abyssinica, Sachus schweinfurthii* and *Leucas calostachys* Olive plants. Aqueous and methanolic crude extracts were prepared from *R. cordifolia*, *H. abyssinica, S. schweinfurthii* and *L. calostachys* plants. The extracts were then prepared into appropriate concentrations for anti-plasmodial activities. In vitro anti-plasmodial activities of herbal drugs were analysed according to the methods of Tona et al., 1999. Methanolic extracts were more efficacious than aqueous extracts. *S. schweinfurthii* and *L. calostachys* had IC₅₀ (Inhibition Concentration) of between $1.10\mug/ml$ and $3.45\mug/ml$ and had highest parasite inhibition ranging between 3.5% and 5.2%. *R. cardifolia* and *H. abyssinica* had IC₅₀ of between $1.5\mug/ml$ and $3.0\mug/ml$ and it had moderate parasitaemia ranging between 5.20% and 7.22%. *Vernonia lasiopa* and *Erythrina abysinica* had insufficient yields. *S. schweinfurthii* and *L. calostachys* had the highest parasite inhibition while *R. cardifolia* and *H. abyssinica* had moderate inhibition.

INTRODUCTION

Plasmodium falciparum is the most widespread etiological agent of human malaria. This parasite is becoming increasingly resistant to conventional antimalaria drugs hence necessitating a continuous effort in search of new drugs (Tran *et al.*, 2003). In Sub-Saharan Africa, over 50% of all outpatient visits and 30% - 50% of all hospital admissions are attributed to malaria (WHO, 2005; Muregi, 2007). It is estimated that economic loses due to malaria in Africa is about \$12 billion annually (DFID, 2005). Although an effective vaccine is the best long term control option for malaria, current work on vaccine development largely remains at preclinical stage. The declining efficacy of classical drugs due to increase of parasite resistant strains, resistance of vectors to insecticides and the difficulty in creating efficient vaccines has lead to an urgent need for new

anti-malarial drugs (Bloland, 2001; Ridley, 2002). While synthetic pharmaceutical agents continue to dominate in research, attention has been increasingly directed to natural products (Atkin, 2003). Anti-malarial properties of Cinchona bark has been known for more than 300 years (Muthaura et al., 2007). Currently, the commonly used anti malarial drugs, quinolines and the peroxide antimalarial (artemisinin derivatives) are modeled upon the plant based compounds, quinine and artemisinin respectively. The success of artemisinin and its derivatives for the treatment of resistant malaria has focused attention to plants as a source of anti-malarial drugs (Tran et al., 1998). Malaria is prevalent among the world's poorest population, who treat themselves with traditional herbal drugs. Herbal drugs are available and affordable to majority of the infected. These drugs are sometimes perceived as more effective than convectional anti-malarial drugs (Merlin, 2004). Studies on anti-malarial activity of Kenyan traditional medicinal plants shows that extracts from plants such as Hagenia abysinica, Artemisia rehani and Ajuga remota (Kassa et al., 1998) as well as Withania

© 2013 Nyambati G.K et al. This is an open access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License -NonCommercial-ShareAlikeUnported License (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-sa/3.0/).

st Corresponding Author

Nyambati Grace, School of Health Sciences and Technology, Technical University of Kenya, P.O Box 52428-00200, Nairobi, Kenya.

somenifer and Vernonia amygdalina (Benoit, 1996) Vernonia brachycalyx (Oketch-Rabah et al., 1997; 1998; 2007), have significant anti-malarial activity against *Plasmodium falciparum*. Other *in vitro* studies on African medicinal plants have also indicated promising anti-plasmodial activities (O'Neill et al., 1985; WHO, 1993) although no remarkable *in vivo* studies have been reported so far to strengthen the preclinical study profile.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Collection and preparation of plant materials

Leaves, roots, stem barks and flowers of eight medicinal plants from five families (Table 1) were collected from Transmara, Suba and Kuria districts, Kenya. Voucher specimens of the plant parts were taken to the East African Herbarium in Nairobi for identification and future referencing. The harvested parts were air dried at room temperature for 10 days. The parts were then powdered using food processor/blender (Multi-purpose Kanchan, Tornado) into a fine powder. Plant materials were then packed into air tight plastic containers, stored in the dark before being transported to the phytochemistry laboratory for further processing.

Extraction of plant crude extracts

The sample extraction procedure was carried out as described by Harbone 1994. Briefly, 150gms of powdered plant material was soaked in 250mls of methanol at room temperature for 48 hours. The materials were filtered with Whatman filter paper No. 1 and were further soaked in 250ml methanol for for 48 hours until the filtrate remained clear. The filtrate was then concentrated under vacuum by rotary evaporation at 40°C. The concentrate was weighed and transferred to an air tight sample bottle and stored at -20°C in the cold room until required for bioassay. Aqueous extracts were obtained by weighing 150gms of the sample and soaking in 250ml of distilled water that was placed in a water bath at 60°C for 24 hrs. The extracts were obtained through vacuum filtration using Whitman's filter papers No. 1 after which the aqueous filtrates were lyophilized for 48hours. Drying was achieved through sublimation under vacuum where the extracts were subjected to a temperature of -10°C to avoid any qualitative and quantitative change. The extracts were concentrated to crystalline powder form, weighed and stored at 4°C in the cold room until required for bioassays (Tona et al., 2004; Bourdy et al., 2004). Stock solutions of 50mg/ml were made with de-ionized water and filtered through 0.45 µm and 0.22 µm microfilters in the laminar flow hood. Insoluble aqueous extracts were first dissolved in 50µl of Dimethylsulfoxide (DMSO) solvent then vortexed for one minute to dissolve the extract. The extract was then dissolved in 50µl RPMI 1640 culture medium.

In vitro anti-Plasmodial Assays with Plasmodium knowlesi

Anti-plasmodial assays were carried out at the Institute of Primate Research of the National Museums of Kenya. The *in vitro* anti-plasmodial activities were evaluated according to the method described by Tona *et al.*, 1999. Briefly, assays were performed in duplicate in 96-well microtiter flat-bottomed plates (Coster Glass Works Cambridge, UK). Aliquots of culture medium (100 μ l) were added to all the wells of the 96 plate. Then, 100 μ l of the test solutions were added in duplicates to the first well and a Titertik motor hand diluter was used to make two-fold serial dilution.

For assays, serial dilutions were made by first dispensing 100 μ l of complete RPMI into each well followed by 100 μ l of 100ug/ml extract concentration as a start concentration in the first well (AI) of a 96-well microtiter plate. Using a micropipette, 100 μ l was then drawn from the first well and used to make eight-fold serial dilutions down the plate, giving a concentration range of 50 μ g/ml, 25 μ g/ml, 12.5 μ g/ml, 6.25 μ g/ml, 3.2 μ g/ml, 1.6 μ g/ml, 0.8 μ g/ml, 0.4 μ g/ml.

A suspension of $(10\mu$ l, 1.5v/v) of parasitized erythrocytes at 1.6% parasitaemia were dispensed to each well, bringing the total volume per well to 110µl. The plates were transferred into an air tight chamber gassed for 3 minutes then incubated in CO₂ condition at 37°C for 24-30 hours. After 48hrs of incubation, contents of the wells were harvested into eppendorf tubes, centrifuged for 3 seconds and the pellet was sucked onto a microscope slide to make a smear. This was Giemsa stained after which, the developed schizonts were counted against the total 2000 erythrocytes. Microscopic examination of Giemsa stained smears was done after every 48hrs to check for the viability of parasites.

The differential counts were done to determine the parasitaemia levels for each extract in each well. The average IC_{50} values were calculated as a fraction of the starting parasitaemia relative to growth in extract free wells (Jansen *et. al.* 2006). Negative control consisted of the solvent while positive controls were carried out using WHO approved herbal drug *Artemisia annua* which is used for treatment of malaria.

Determination of IC₅₀ of Extracts on Plasmodium knowlesi

The concentration of each herbal extract that inhibited 50% of parasite growth was calculated as a fraction of the starting parasitaemia relative to the growth in the control wells. From the starting parasitaemia of 1.6%, parasitaemia was determined through examination of Giemsa-stained thin smears. The percentage growth in each test well was therefore calculated from individual parasitaemia and growth inhibition determined as the difference between the mean percentage growth in control wells and percentage growth of each test well. The IC₅₀ values were selected for extracts that displayed 50% growth inhibitions at very low concentrations.

Data Analysis

The collected data on anti-plasmodial activity and parasitaemia were transferred into Microsoft Excel spreadsheet which was used to determine the IC₅₀. Analysis was done using Chi Square and ANOVA, Windows SPSS, Version 8. *P* value of < 0.05 was considered significant.

Table. 1: Medicinal plants selected for anti – plasmodial activity.

Family Name	Plant name	Vernacular name	Part used	Region harvested
Compositae	R. cardifolia	Urumurwa (Luo)	Leaves/seeds/stem	Suba
Compositae	Vernonia brachycalyx lasiopa (Lam)	Irisabakwa (Kuria)	Leaves/bark/root	Kuria
		Olusia (Luo)		Suba
		Osiro (Luo)		Suba
Simaroubaceae	H. abyssinica	Ol-gigiriri(M)	Bark/roots /stem	TransMara
		Omangoriwe(K)		Kuria
Libiatae	L. calostachys Olive	Bware (Luo)	Whole plant	Suba
Leguminosae	S. schwein furthii	Egesemi (Kuria)	Bark/roots	Kuria
		Ol-gigiri(M)		TransMara
Leguminosae	Cassia didymobotrya	Irebeni (Kuria)	Leaves/root	Kuria
		Bseunete (Maasai)		TransMara
Canellaceae	Waburgia salutaris	Olosogoni (Maasai)	Bark/roots/ leaves	TransMara

Plant name	extracts	IC ₅₀ μg/ml	Parasitaemia %
Artemisia annua	Methanol	6.8	0.01
Artemisia annua	Aqueous	5.18	0.00
Rubia cardifolia	Methanol	1.20	7.20
κασια caraijona	Aqueous	2.50	5.50
Harrizonia abyssinica	Methanol	2.25	3.25
narrizonia adyssinica	Aqueous	1.00	2.50
Saushus solution funthii	Methanol	2.10	0.00
Sanchus schwein furthii	Aqueous	3.00	0.00
Lauran anlantanhun Oliva	Methanol	3.45	4.25
Leucas calostachys Olive	Aqueous	0.79	1.70
Negative control	RPMI 1640	23.35	29.11

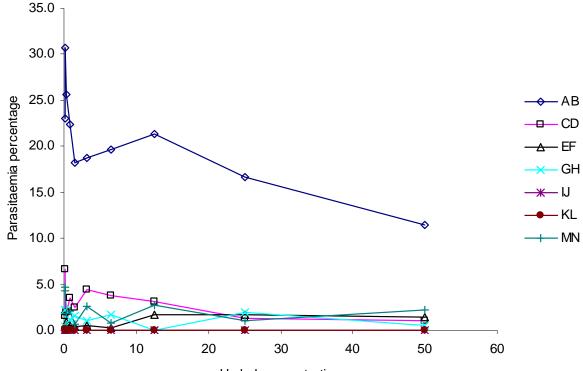




Fig. 1: Mean Plasmodium knowlesi parasitaemia after treatment with methanol herbal extracts at different concentrations.

Key AB: RPMI 1640 (Negative Control)

CD: Vernonia brachycalyx O. Hoffm.

EF: Rubia cordifolia L.

GH: Harrizonia abyssinica Oliv.

IJ: Sanchus schweinfurthii Oliv. & Hiern.

KL: Leucas calostachys Oliv.

MN: Artemisia annua L. (Positive control)

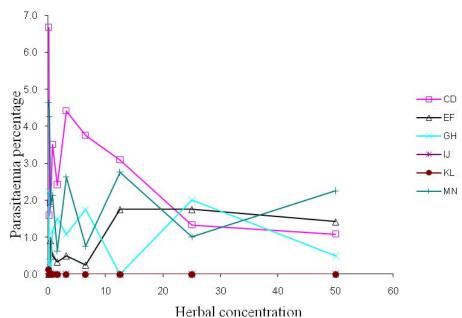


Fig. 2: Mean parasitaemia of Plasmodium knowlesi treated with aqueous extracts of different herbal plants.

Key

AB: RPMI 1640 (Negative Control) CD: *Vernonia brachycalyx* O. Hoffm.

EF: Rubia cordifolia L.

GH: Harrizonia abyssinica Olive

IJ: Sanchus schweinfurthii Oliv. & Hiern.

KL: Leucas calostachys Oliv.

MN: Artemisia annua L. (Positive control)

RESULTS

The crude extracts of Rubia cordifolia, Harrizonia abyssinica, Leucas calostachys Olive and Sanchus schweinfurthii showed anti-plasmodial activity out of the eight medicinal plants used. Methanolic extract of R. cordifolia had IC₅₀ of 1.20 mg/ml while H. abyssinica had IC_{50} 2.25mg/ml. The IC_{50} for R. cordifolia and H. abyssinica aqueous extracts was 2.50 mg/ml and 1.00 mg/ml respectively. These crude extracts showed significant effect on Plasmodium knowlesi parasites as compared to the positive and negative controls (Artemisia annua 6.8 mg/ml and negative control (RPMI 1640) 23.35 mg/ml). However, R. cardifolia methanol extract was more effective in the mortality of P. knowlesi than H. abyssinica extract. Also, the aqueous extracts of R. cardifolia were more efficacious on P. knowlesi compared to the aqueous extracts of L. calostachys and S. schweinfurthii although this extract was less effective compared to the methanol extract. There was a significant difference between the various herbal extracts and their anti-plasmodial activities (P<0.001). The extracts of S. schweinfurthii exhibited properties almost similar to those of H. abyssinica but mortality of P. knowlesi increased with increase in concentration of the extract. The methanol crude extracts of S. schweinfurthii had IC₅₀ of 2.30 mg/ml. This was not significant compared to the positive control (P<0.05). L. calostachys had the least effect on P. knowlesi parasites. The methanol crude extract had IC_{50} 3.45 mg/ml (Table 2). Aqueous extracts showed weaker effects as compared to methanol extracts.

S. schweinfurthii exhibited weaker properties with IC50 of 3.00 mg/ml while L. calostachys extract had IC₅₀ of 0.79 mg/ml. Aqueous crude extracts of S. schweinfurthii had moderate antiplasmodial activity while methanolic extracts had low antiplasmodial activity. In all the four plant extracts used, parasitaemia decreased with increase in extract concentration. Highest parasite inhibition was seen in S. schweinfurthii methanol extract followed by L. calostachys methanol extract. Moderate inhibition of the parasites was indicated by R. cardifolia and H. abyssinica while V. lasiopa and E. abysinnica had insufficient yields (Fig. 1). Analysis of variance (ANOVA) showed that there was a significance difference between IC₅₀ of herbal extracts S. schweinfurthii, L. calostachys and the anti-plasmodial activity of parasite inhibition (F_[13,192] =29.747, p<0.001). Significant difference was noted when comparing methanol and aqueous extracts on Plasmodium knowlesi parasites. In aqueous extracts, parasitaemia was highest in the parasites treated with Vernonia brachycalyx O. Hoffm extracts. Comparable parasitaemia values were obtained when P. knowlesi parasites were treated with Rubia cordifolia L. extract. Harrizonia abyssinica Oliv. extract had a moderate effect on P. knowlesi parasites while Sanchus schweinfurthii Oliv. & Hiern had the least effect (Fig. 2)

DISCUSSION

Plants have been used as folk remedies for various ailments and research has shown that these plants have potent effects. This study shows that extracts from *Rubia cordifolia* had significant anti-plasmodial activity against *P. knowlesi*. This plant has been studied by several groups and some of the results shows that the root extracts of *R. cordifolia* was promisingly cytotoxic and had antitumor activity against myeloid leukemia and Histolytic lymphoma (Parag *et al.*, 2010). This finding also explains why *R. cordifolia* high antiplasmodial activities compared to the other medicinal plants used in the study. This plant may have acted on *P. knowlesi* by inhibiting their development or killing them all together. Investigations have shown that medicinal plants used in traditional medicine in various regions of the world as resources that can be relied on to provide effective, accessible and affordable basic healthcare to the local communities (Mainen *et al.*, (2010)

IC₅₀ analysis showed that methanolic extracts from *L.* calostachys was least effective while aqueous extract from the same herbal plant were most effective against *P. knowlesi*. This result shows that methanol extracted more active compounds than the aqueous extract. This may explain why parasitaemia was highest in the aqueous extracts of *L. calostachys*. This indicates that *L. calostachys* has weak chemotherapeutic properties. However, this medicinal plant is used for treating colds and headache (Okello *et al.*, 2010).

Extracts from five herbs showed evident anti-malarial activity with IC₅₀ values ranging from 3.5 to 8.1μ g/ml; *Kalopanax pictus* Nakai revealed moderate anti-malarial activity of 4.6μ g/ml with no cytotoxicity. These findings are similar to what is reported in this study using local herbs as *R. cardifolia* and *S. schweinfurthii*. The herbal medicines used in the assays were effective *in vitro* as they inhibited the growth of *Plasmodium* parasites. Based on the above findings, both the aqueous and methanol extracts of the four herbal plants tested in this study had IC₅₀ of less than10µg/ml thus qualify in gas having good ant-plasmodial activity.

Reports on use of malaria herbal medicines, preparation and administration by herbalists from parts of Tanzania have been documented by Gessler *et al.*, (1994). Similar work from Central Africa on traditional herbs for treatment of malaria has been reported from Democratic Republic of Congo (Mesia *et al.*, 2005). In addition the various plants with anti-malarial potency provide a large reservoir for further development of pharmaceuticals against malaria. *In vitro* analysis described here is the first step towards malaria drugs from herbal extracts. It requires that further characterization be done *in vivo* to fully validate anti-plasmodial activity of the crude extracts.

Sanchus schweinfurthii had significant anti-plasmodial activity against *P. knowlesi*. Aqueous extracts were more effective than methanolic ones. According to parasitaemia analysis, extracts from. *R. cardifolia* and *S. schweinfurthii* were least and most effective respectively. The herbal medicines used in the assays were effective *in vitro* as they inhibited the growth of *Plasmodium* parasites. The standards used to determine IC_{50} were similar to Gessler *et al.*, 1994. Studies by Muregi *et al.* (2004), concluded that *Vernonia lasiopus* was locally used by herbalists for treatment

of malaria. This shows that communities use more than one plant as source for anti-malaria treatment. Reports on use of malaria herbal medicines, preparation and administration by herbalists from parts of Tanzania have been documented by Gessler *et al.*, (1994) when treatment using multiple as opposed to single herbs was preferred. Similar work from Africa on traditional herbs for treatment of malaria has been reported from Democratic Republic of Congo (Mesia *et al.*, 2005), in which three herbs were reported to treat malaria; *Croton mubango, Nauclea pobeguinii and Pyrenacantha staudii.* This suggests that there are plants that can be used synergistically to develop more potent anti-malarials. In addition the various plants with anti-malarial potency provide a large reservoir for further development of pharmaceuticals against malaria.

CONCLUSION

These results show that some herbal plants used as antimalarials in Kuria, Suba and Trans Mara districts have potency against malaria. The findings can be used to improve the community's use of herbs by recommending the most efficacious herbal medicines and to contribute towards the development of herbal remedy for malaria in line with WHO concern.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Special thanks to East Africa Herbarium staff at the Museums of Kenya for identifying the herbs and for technical assistance. My gratitude and appreciation to Dr. Yole, Onkoba, Maamun, and Kithome from the Department of Tropical and Infectious Diseases (TID) for their technical assistance.

REFERENCES

Azas N, Laurecin N, Delmas F. Synergistic in vitro anti-malaria activity of plant extracts used as traditional herbal remedies in Mali. Parasitol Res, 2001; 88:165-171.

Benoit vical Françoise. Anti malarial activity in vitro of Vegel extracts used in West Africa. Americ J of Trop Medic Hygie, 1996; 54:67-71.

Bloland PB. 2001. Drug resistance in malaria. Malaria Epidemiology Branch, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. WHO: Geneva. 1-23.

Bourdy G, Oporto P, Gemenez A, Deharo E. A search for natural bioactive products in Bolivia through multidisciplinary approach. Part VI. J of Ethnopharmac, 2004; 93, 269-277.

Chansuda W, Khin L, Faiz MA, Herald N, Anintita L. In vitro susceptibility of *Plasmodium falciparum* isolates from Myanmar to anti malarial drugs. Americ J of Tropic Medic and Hygie 2001; 65:450-455.

Clarkson C, Maharaj VJ, Crouch NR, Grace OM, Pillay P, and Matsabisa,MG. In vitro anti-plasmodial activity of medicinal plants native to naturalised in South Africa. J of Ethnopharm, 2004; 92: 177–91

DFID. Millenium development goal 6. To combat HIV/AIDS malaria and other diseases. Malaria fact sheet 1-4.

Effati S, Mehdi N, Hassan F, Sahra K, Yaghob H, Massoud A. In vitro activity of mefloquine and its enentiomers against *Plasmodium falciparum*. Iranian J of Pharmacol and Theraup, 2002; 1:17-19

Gakungu DN, Mbure EK, Gray I, Watenman PG, Wallins, WM. Potent anti-malarial activity of the alkaloid nitidine, isolated from a Kenyan herbal remedy. Antimicro Agen Chemother, 1995; 39(12): 2606-2609. Gessler MC, Nkunya MHH, Mwasumbi LB, Heinrick M, Tanner M. Screening medicinal plants for anti- malarial activity. Acta Tropica, 1994; 56:429-432.

Gessler MC, Nkunya MHH, Chollet J, Heinric M, Tanner M. Tanzania medicinal plants used traditionally for treatment of malaria: in vivo ant-malaria and in vitro cytotoxic activities. Phytotherap Res, 1995; 9:504-508.

Mainen JM, Donald FO, Pamela KM, Anke W. Ethnomedicine of the Kagera Region, north western Tanzania. Part 2: The medicinal plants used in Katoro Ward, Bukoba District. J of Ethnobio and Ethnomed, 2010; 6:19

Muregi FW, Chabra SC, Njagi ENM. In vitro antiplasmodial activity of some plants used in Kisii, Kenya against malaria and their chloroquine potentiation effects. J of Ethnopharmacol, 2003; 84: 235-240

Muregi WF, Akira I, Tohru S, Hideto K, Teruaki A, Mkonji GM, Toshio M, Terada M. In vivo anti-malarial activity in Aqueous extracts from Kenyan Medicinal Plants and their quinine (CQ) pontetiation effects against a Blood induced CQ – resistance Rodent parasite in mice. Phytotherap Res, 2007; 21: 337 – 343.

Mengesha T, Seboxa T. Amodiaquine: The exempted antimalarial drug in Ethiopia. Ethiopian Med J, 1998; 36(4): 277-8.

Mengesha T, Makonnen E. Comparative efficacy and safety of chloroquine and alternative anti-malarial; Arial drugs. A meta analysis from six African countries. East Africa Med J, 1998; 76:314-319.

Muthaura CN, Rukungu GM, Chhabra SC, Omar SA, Guantai AN, Githirwa JW. Anti-malarial Activity of some plants traditionally used in Meru district of Kenya. Phytother Res, 2007; 21: 860-867.

Okello SV, Nyunja RO, Netondo, GW, Onyango JC. Ethnobotanical study of medicinal plants used by sabaots of mt. Elgon, Kenya. Afr. J. Trad. CAM, 2010; 1: 1-10

Oketch-Rabah HA. 1996. Anti- malarial and anti-leishmanial compounds from Kenyan medicinal plants. Ph. D. Thesis. Royal Danish School Pharmacy, Copenhagen, 80-82.

Oketch-Rabah HA, Brogger CS, Frydenvang K. Anti-protozoal properties of 16,17-dihydrobrachycalyxolide Vernonia brachcalyx. Planta Medica, 1998; 64:559-562.

Oketch-Rabah HA, Lemmich E, Dossaji SF. Two new antiprotozoal 5-methycoumarins Vernonia brachyx J of Natur prod, 1997; 60:458-461.

Oketch-Rabah HA, Mwangi JW, Lisagarten J, Mberu EK. A new antiplasmodial coumarin from Toddalia asiatica. Fitoterapia, 2000; 71: 636-640.

Omulokoli E, Khan B, Chhabra SC. Anti-plasmodial activity of four Kenyan medicinal plants. J of Ethnopharmacol 1997; 56: 133–137.

O'Neill MJ, Bray DH, Boardman P. Phillipson JD. Plants as sources of anti-malarial drugs. Part 1. In vitro test method for evaluation of crude extracts from plants. Planta Medica. 1985; 61:394-398.

Ozwara H, Jan AM, Langermmans MJ, Farah IO, Yole DS, Mwenda JM, Weiler H, Thomas AW. Experimental infection of the olive

baboon (Paplio anubis) with Plasmodium knowlesi: severe disease accompanied by cerebral involvement. Amer J of Trop Med and Hyg, 2003; 69(2): 188-194.

Parag RP, Bhuvan PR, Hamsraj AK, Vishal RP. Potent antitumor activity of Rubia cordifolia. Intern J of Phytomed, 2010; 2: 44-46. Quattara Y, Sanon S, Traore Y, Mahiou V, Azas N, Sawadogo L. Antimalarial activity of Swarttzia madagascariensis desv (Leguminosae). Combretum glutinosum Guill and Perr (Combretaceae) and Tinospora Bakis Miers. (Menispermaceae). Burkina Faso Medicinal Plants. Afric Jof Tradi CAM, 2003; 1: 75-81.

Shamahy A, Salah F, Mohammed A, Ramsi A, Hassan A, Aisilami ,Ulrike L. Assessment of antimalarial activity against plasmodium falciparum and Phytochemical screening of some yemen medicinal plants. Afri J of Trad Medic CAM, 2007; 18: 600-613.

Soejarto D. Koch A, Tamez P, Pezzuto J. Evaluation of plants used for anti-malaria treatment by Masaai of Kenya. J of Ethnopharmacol, 2005; 101: 95-99

Sofowora BN, 1982. Medicinal plants and traditional medicines in Africa. John wiley & sons. New York U.S.A.

Tran RX, Zheng WF, Tang HQ. Biologically active substances from the genus. Artemisia. Planta Med, 1998; 64:295–302.

Tona L, Ngimbi NP, Tsakala M, Mesia K, Cimanga K, Apers S, de Bruyne T, Peters L, Totte J, Viletinek A J. Anti-malarial activity of 20 extracts from nine African medicinal plants used in Kinshasa Congo. J. of Ethnophamacol, 1998; 68: 193-195.

Tona L, Mesia K, Ngimbi NP, Chrimwami B, Oknod'ahoka A, Cimanga K, De Bruyne T, Appers S, Hermans N, Totte J, Peters L, Vietinck A. In vivo anti-malarial activity of Cassia accidentalis, Morinda morindoides and Phyllanthus mirur. Ann of Tropi Med and Parasitol, 2001; 65: 47-57.

Trager, W. and Jensen J.B. Human malaria parasites in continuous culture. Science, 1976;193: 673 – 675.

Trager W, Jensen JB. Cultivation of malarial parasites. Nature, 1978; 273, 621-622.

Wagner H, Bladt S. 1996. Plants Drug Analysis: A Thin Layer Chromatography Atlas, 2nd edn. Berlin: Springer, 306–64.

Wellems T, Plowe C. Chloroquine resistance malaria. J Infect Dis 2001; 184:770-776.

World Health Organization. Assessment of therapeutic efficacy of antimalarial drugs for uncomplicated falciparum malaria in areas with intense transmission. Geneva. WHO/MAL/96, 1077, 1996.

World Health Organization. 1993. Fact sheet No.94, revised October 1998; Geneva.

World Health Organization. 2001. In vitro micro test (MarkIII) for the assessment of the response of P. falciparum to chloroquine, mefloquine, quinine, amodiaquine, sulfadoxine/ pyrimethamine and artemisinin. Geneva: WHO/CTD/MAL/97, 20.

World Health Organization. 2005. Susceptability of P. falciparum on anti-malarial drugs: Report on global monitoring 1996-2004. WHO/HTM/MAL/2055.

How to cite this article:

Nyambati G.K. Lagat Z.O.Maranga R.O.Samuel M.Ozwara H. *Invitro* Anti-plasmodial Activity of *Rubia cordifolia, Harrizonia abyssinica, Leucas calostachys* Olive *and Sanchus schweinfurthii* Medicinal Plants. J App Pharm Sci, 2013; 3 (12): 057-062.