

**How to Cite:**

Mercija, J., & Nevaditha, N. T. (2022). GC-MS analysis of bioactive phytochemicals of gum exudates of *Mangifera indica*. linn. *International Journal of Health Sciences*, 6(S2), 1873–1891. <https://doi.org/10.53730/ijhs.v6nS2.5413>

## **GC-MS analysis of bioactive phytochemicals of gum exudates of *Mangifera indica*. linn.**

**J. Mercija**

Research Scholar, Reg. No.: 18213112032033, Nesamony Memorial Christian College, Marthandam, Affiliated to Manonmaniam Sundaranar University, Abishekapatti, Tirunelveli – 627012  
Email: [mercywonder@gmail.com](mailto:mercywonder@gmail.com)

**N. T. Nevaditha**

Associate Professor, Department of Chemistry, Nesamony Memorial Christian College, Marthandam, Affiliated to Manonmaniam Sundaranar University, Abishekapatti, Tirunelveli – 627012

**Abstract**--The aim of this study was to verify the potential of *Mangifera indica* gum (MIG) as a bioactive agent. Plant gum was collected from the bark of *Mangifera indica* and was, purified and characterized with Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy and gas chromatography (GC) analyses. Purified gum was tested for its antimicrobial, antioxidant, antidiabetic, and anti-inflammatory. IR and GC analyses of gum showed the presence of several types of bioactive components in *Mangifera indica* gum. The gum showed potent antibacterial activity against Gram-positive bacteria *Staphylococcus aureus* (63%) and *Enterococcus faecalis* (58%). The antioxidant activity of MIG was investigated by 2,2-diphenyl 2-picrylhydrazyl hydrate (DPPH) radical scavenging and the MIG shows good activity when compared with the standard ascorbic acid. The anti-inflammatory activity of the MIG was estimated by the bovine serum albumin denaturation (BSA) method and showed significant activity against the standard drug. The anti-diabetic activity of the MIG was determined by the dinitro salicylic acid (DNSA) method displayed significant anti-diabetic activity. These findings confirmed that MIG has a potential source for the formulation of new therapeutic drugs.

**Keywords**--*Mangifera indica* gum, effective, pathogens, antibacterial activity.

## Introduction

Natural polymers lately raise huge interest, this is mainly because they are easily available, cheap, and biocompatible also they are non-toxic, non-irritant, and have soothing effects [1]. Due to these features over semi-synthetic and synthetic one natural polymers are significantly used in pharmaceutical industries as a disintegrant, diluents, binders, and many other applications [2]. Demand for these substances is increasing, and new sources are being developed because of their geographical and environmental position, which have traditionally been a good source for such products among the African countries still, large quantities are imported from Europe to meet increasing demand [3]. *Mangifera indica* tree belongs to the genus *Mangifera* of the family Anacardiaceae [4]. In demotic medicine, the *Mangifera indica* tree has been used as a therapy against chronic dysentery, also in the prevention of cancer, scabies, asthma, and bacteria [5]. *Mangifera indica* gum resins spurt outside the mango tree's trunk by the act of the wind, fire, or any small injury on the trunk surface, that gum resin is collected and then purified [6].

The gums exude from trees and shrubs in tear-like, striated nodules or amorphous lumps, and then dry in the sun, forming hard, glassy, different-colored exudates [7]. Gum production increases under high temperatures and limited moisture, and yields can be increased by making incisions in the bark or stripping it from the tree or shrub. Exudate gums have been utilized in food applications for years, for emulsification, thickening, and stabilization [7]. Tree gum exudates are also used in non-food applications, such as pharmaceuticals, cosmetics, textiles, lithography, and minor forest products [8, 9]. The Negritos of the Philippines utilize the gum-resin of the tree mixed with coconut oil to apply directly to scabies and other parasitic diseases of the skin. The gum-resin is also used for curing aphthae and for healing sores caused by herpes and venereal diseases such as syphilis [10].

The gum consists mainly of terpenes but it also contains phenols and protein-carbohydrate mucilage [11]. The fruit gum-resin is a skin-irritant. The exudate is transparent, reddish-brown to black, and is slightly soluble in water [13]. The exudate contains 78% resin (terpenes and phenols) and 15% gum, in addition to tannic acid [14, 15] (Joel and Fahn, 1980b; <http://www.rajans.com>). Various parts of the plant are used as a dentifrice, antiseptic, astringent, diaphoretic, stomachic, vermifuge, tonic, laxative, and diuretic and to treat diarrhea, dysentery, anaemia, asthma, bronchitis, cough, hypertension, insomnia, rheumatism, toothache, leucorrhoea, haemorrhage and piles [16, 17, 18]. All parts are used to treat abscesses, broken horn, rabid dog or jackal bite, tumour, snakebite, stings, datura poisoning, heatstroke, miscarriage, anthrax, blisters, wounds in the mouth, tympanitis, colic, diarrhea, glossitis, indigestion, bacillosis, bloody dysentery, liver disorders, excessive urination, tetanus, and asthma [19 – 22]. Ripe mango fruit is considered to be invigorating and freshening [23]. The juice is a restorative tonic and is used in heatstroke [24]. The seeds are used in asthma and as an astringent [24]. Fumes from the burning leaves are inhaled for relief from hiccups and affections of the throat [25]. The bark is astringent, it is used in diphtheria and rheumatism, and it is believed to possess a tonic action on the mucus membrane [26, 27]. The gum is used in dressings for cracked feet and

for scabies [28-30]. It is also considered anti-syphilitic [31]. The kernels are converted into flour after soaking in water and eliminating the astringent principles [32]. Most parts of the tree are used medicinally and the bark also contains tannins, which are used for the purpose of dyeing [33].

## **Material and Methods**

### **Collection and Purification of Gum**

The MIG resin was collected from *Mangifera indica* trees (by injuring the trunk site). It was dried, ground, and passed through sieve no 80. Dried gum (85g) was stirred in distilled water (500ml) for 6-8 h at room temperature. The supernatant was obtained by centrifugation. The residue was washed with water and the washings were added to separate a supernatant. The procedure was repeated four more times. Finally, the supernatant was made up to 500 ml and treated with twice the volume of acetone by continuous stirring. The precipitated material was washed with distilled water and dried at 50-60°C under vacuum. The dried gum was pulverized and stored in tightly closed containers [34, 35].

### **Phytochemical analysis**

The phytochemical component present in the *Mangifera indica* gum was determined as per the standard protocol [36].

### **FTIR Spectroscopy Analysis**

The IR spectrum of the *Mangifera indica* gum was recorded in the range 4500 $\text{cm}^{-1}$ -400 $\text{cm}^{-1}$  on a Shimadzu FTIR-470 infra-red spectrophotometer by the KBr disc technique.

### **GC- MS analysis**

GC-MS analysis was carried out on a GC Clarus 500 Perkin Elmer system comprising an AOC-20i autosampler and gas chromatograph interfaced to a mass spectrometer (GC-MS) employing the following conditions: column Elite-1 fused silica capillary column (30 x 0.25 mm ID x 1 $\mu\text{M}$  df, composed of 100% Dimethyl poly diloxane), operating in electron impact mode at 70 eV; helium (99.999%) was used as carrier gas at a constant flow of 1 mL/min and an injection volume of 0.5  $\mu\text{L}$  was employed (split ratio of 10:1) injector temperature 250°C; ion-source temperature 280 °C.

### **Antimicrobial Activity**

Bacterial strains such as *Klebsiella pneumoniae* (MTCC 432), *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (MTCC 420) (Gram-negative bacteria), *Staphylococcus aureus* (MTCC 497), *Bacillus cereus* (MTCC 430), and *Enterococcus faecalis* (MTCC 439) (Gram-positive bacteria) and fungal strains such as *Aspergillus niger* (MTCC 1344), *Aspergillus Oryzae* (MTCC 262), *Aspergillus flavus* (MTCC 277), *Candida albicans* (MTCC 183) and *Actinomyces* (MTCC 160) are used for this study. All these strains are procured from the Microbial Type Culture Collection and Gene Bank

(MTCC), Chandigarh, India. These bacterial and fungal strains are subcultured frequently in nutrient agar and potato dextrose agar slants and stored at 4°C for further studies [37, 38].

Antibacterial sensitivity assay of MIG is carried out by the disc diffusion method and the MIG is tested against the selected test bacterial strains. The test bacterial cultures are evenly spread over Mueller Hinton agar plates using a sterile cotton swab. The sterile discs are impregnated with MIG and placed in an inoculated agar. The plates are then incubated at 37°C for 24 hours. After the incubation period is over, the plates are observed for the zone of inhibition (ZI) measured in millimeters (mm). From the results, the Activity index is calculated using the following formula.

$$\text{Activity Index (AI)} = \frac{\text{Inhibition Zone of the sample}}{\text{Inhibition Zone of the standard}}$$

The antifungal activity of the MIG is measured using the disc diffusion method. The fungal cultures to be tested are evenly spread over potato dextrose agar plates using a sterile cotton swab. Then the sterile paper impregnated with the MIG is placed on an agar plate. Inhibition zones are determined after incubation at 25°C for 48 hours. After the incubation period is over, the plates are observed for the zone of inhibition (ZI) measured in millimeters (mm). From the results, the Activity Index is calculated using the following formula.

$$\text{Activity Index (AI)} = \frac{\text{Inhibition Zone of the sample}}{\text{Inhibition Zone of the standard}}$$

### **Antioxidant Activity**

Antioxidant activity of the MIG against stable 2,2- diphenyl 2- picryl hydrazyl hydrate (DPPH) is determined according to the method of Brand-William et al., (1995) with slight modification [39]. For DPPH assay the ascorbic acid is used as the reference standard. The ascorbic acid stock solution is prepared in distilled water (1 mg/ ml; w/v). A 60µM solution of DPPH in methanol is freshly prepared and a 3.9ml of this solution is mixed with 100µl of the test sample at various concentrations (6.25, 12.5, 25, 50, 100 µg/ml). The tubes are kept in the dark for 15 minutes at room temperature and the decrease in absorbance is measured at 515 nm. Control is prepared with DPPH solution only, without any extract or ascorbic acid. 95% methanol is used as blank. Scavenging activity is expressed as the percentage inhibition calculated using the following formula:

$$\text{Percentage inhibition} = \frac{(\text{Absorbance of Control at 0 min} - \text{Absorbance of test}) \times 100}{\text{Absorbance of control at 15 min}}$$

### **Anti-Inflammatory Activity**

The anti-inflammatory activity of the MIG is evaluated by the bovine serum albumin denaturation (BSA) method [40,41]. The reaction mixture (0.5 ml) consisted of 0.4 ml bovine serum albumin (3% aqueous solution) and varying concentrations of test sample (6.25,12.5,25,50,100 µg). The samples are

incubated at 37°C for 20 min and 2.5 ml phosphate-buffered saline (pH 6.3) is added to each tube and then heated at 80°C for 10 min. The absorbance is measured using a spectrophotometer at 660nm. The percentage inhibition of protein denaturation is calculated as follows:

$$\text{Percentage of inhibition} = \frac{[(\text{Abs Control} - \text{Abs Sample}) / \text{Abs control}] \times 100}{1}$$

### Anti-Diabetic Assay

The anti-diabetic activity of the MIG is determined using a modified assay that is described in the Worthington Enzyme Manual [42, 43]. A total 500µL of 0.02 M sodium phosphate buffer (pH 6.9 with 0.006 M NaCl) containing 0.5 mg/mL of α-amylase and different concentrations (in µg) of gum powder as inhibitor are pre-incubated at 37°C for 10 min. After the pre-incubation, 500 µL of a 1% starch solution in 0.02 M sodium phosphate buffer (pH 6.9) is added to each tube and incubated at room temperature for 5 mins. The reaction is stopped using 1mL of dinitro salicylic acid (DNSA) colour reagent. Then, the test tubes are incubated in a boiling water bath for 5 min and then cooled to room temperature. Make up the volume of the reaction mixture to 10mL by adding distilled water, and the absorbance is measured at 540 nm using a UV-Visible light spectrophotometer. The absorbance readings are compared with the control and blank that contained buffer instead of sample extract.

$$\% \text{ of Inhibition} = \frac{(B - A) * 100}{(B - C)}$$

C- Absorbance of the Control with starch and without alpha-amylase

B- Absorbance of the Control with starch and alpha-amylase

A-Absorbance of the Test.

### Result and Discussion

#### Phytochemical analysis

The phytochemical analysis of the Mangifera indica gum in water shows the secondary metabolites such as carbohydrates, alkaloids, phenols, phytosterols, xanthoproteins, carboxylic acids, saponins, tannins, etc is given in Table 1.

Table 1 Phytochemical analysis of MIG (G3)

Sl. No	Tests	MIG
1	Carbohydrates	+
2	Proteins	-
3	Alkaloids	+
4	Phenols	+
5	Flavonoids	-
6	Phytosterols	+
7	Quinones	-
8	Xanthoproteins	+

9	Coumarins	=
10	Carboxylic acids	+
11	Saponins	+
12	Tannins	+

### FTIR Spectroscopy Analysis

The Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) analysis confirmed the functional group found in the *Mangifera indica* gum. FTIR Spectra of *Mangifera indica* Gum ( $G_3$ ) displayed in Figure 1 shows a broad and intense peak at  $3417\text{ cm}^{-1}$  was obtained due to hydrogen-bonded  $-\text{OH}$  stretching of alcohols and phenols. The peak at  $2924\text{ cm}^{-1}$  indicates the C-H stretching which is attributed to the presence of alkenes. An intense and narrow peak at  $1627\text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  $1728\text{ cm}^{-1}$  represents N-H bending and C=O stretching of amide linkages; this is expected to be due to the proteinaceous content of the *Mangifera indica* gum i.e., amino acids present in gum like alanine, asparagine, glycine, etc. and sugars present viz. fructose, galactose, etc. respectively. A minor peak at  $1041\text{ cm}^{-1}$  depicts the C-O bonding of alcohol.

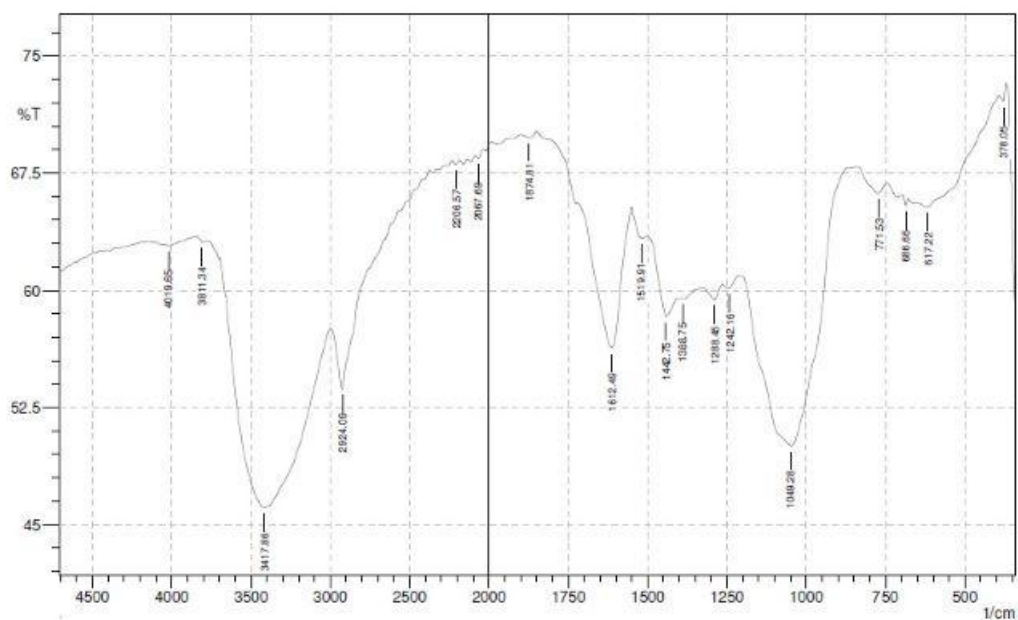


Figure 1 FTIR Spectrum of MIG ( $G_3$ )

### GC- MS analysis

The GC-MS spectrum of the *Mangifera indica* gum reveals the presence of ten constituents. The constituents of MIG are presented in Table 2 and the total mass spectrum of MIG is depicted in Figure 2. The major constituents present are 2,6,10-Trimethyl Dodecane, 1-Dodecanol, Eicosane, 1,2-Benzene dicarboxylic acid diethyl ester, Arabinitol, 3-Trimethyl Cholest-5-ene, 3-Thiophene Carboxylic

acid, 12-Hydroxy Stearic acid, Pregnane-3,11-dione and, 9,12-Octadecadienoic acid.

Table 2 The Constituents of MIG (G3)

S. No	Retention Time	Compound Name	Mol. Formula	Mol. Wt.	Area %
1	14.289	2,6,10-Trimethyl Dodecane	C <sub>15</sub> H <sub>32</sub>	212	10.7
2	38.60	1-Dodecanol	C <sub>12</sub> H <sub>26</sub> O	186	22.53
3	38.747	Eicosane	C <sub>20</sub> H <sub>42</sub>	282	22.23
4	38.765	1,2-Benzene dicarboxylic acid diethyl ester	C <sub>12</sub> H <sub>14</sub> O <sub>4</sub>	222	19.73
5	38.855	Arabinitol	C <sub>15</sub> H <sub>22</sub> O <sub>10</sub>	362	16.41
6	38.860	3-Trimethyl Cholest-5-ene	C <sub>30</sub> H <sub>54</sub>	458	18.62
7	38.985	3-Thiophene Carboxylic acid	C <sub>21</sub> H <sub>22</sub> O <sub>6</sub> S <sub>3</sub>	466	23.05
8	38.995	12-Hydroxy Stearic acid	C <sub>18</sub> H <sub>36</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	300	20.05
9	39.015	Pregnane-3,11-dione	C <sub>21</sub> H <sub>30</sub> O <sub>2</sub>	318	15.46
10	39.025	9,12-Octadecadienoic acid	C <sub>27</sub> H <sub>54</sub> O <sub>4</sub>	313	19.43

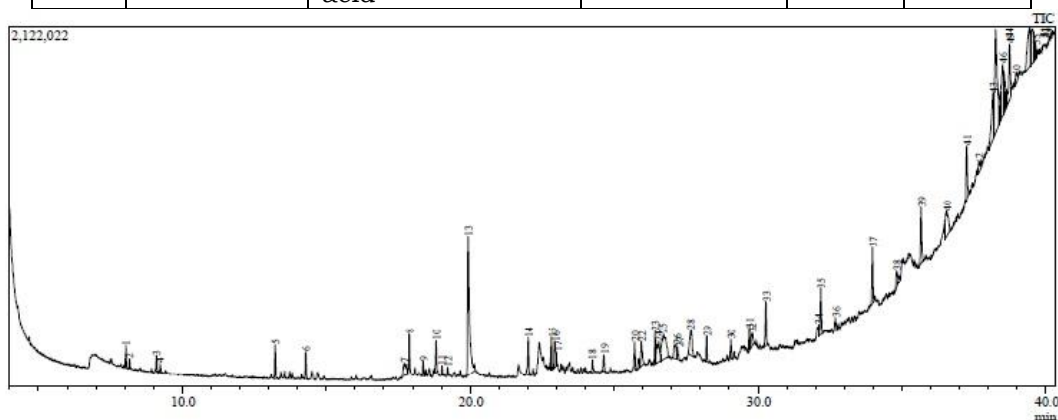


Figure 2 Chromatogram of MIG (G<sub>3</sub>)

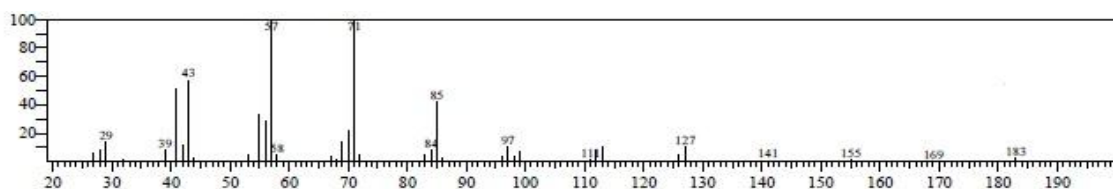


Figure 3 EI mass spectrum of 2,6,10-Trimethyl Dodecane

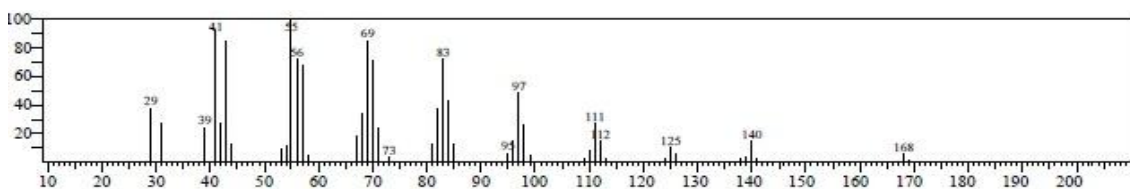


Figure 4 EI mass spectrum of 1-Dodecanol

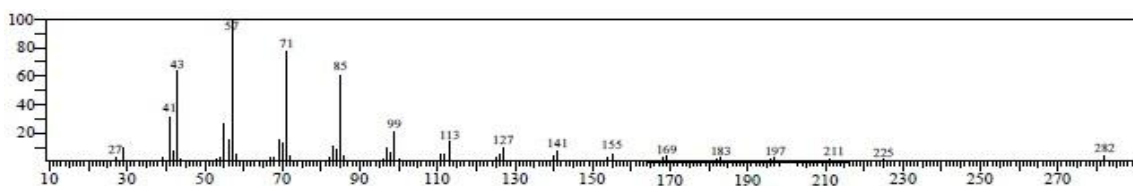


Figure 5 EI mass spectrum of Eicosane

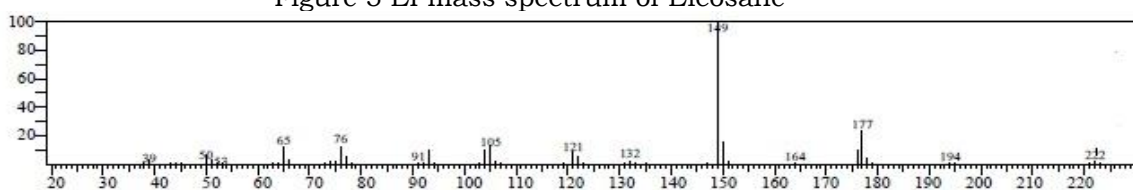


Figure 6 EI mass spectrum of 1,2-Benzene dicarboxylic acid diethyl ester

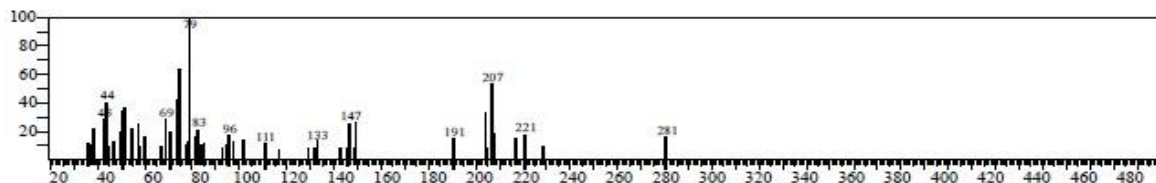


Figure 7 EI mass spectrum of Arabinitol

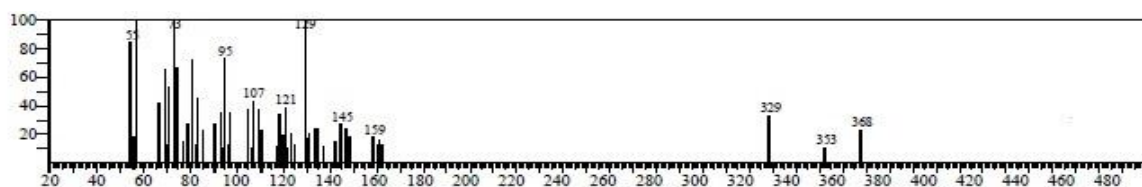


Figure 8 EI mass spectrum of 3-Trimethyl Cholest-5-ene

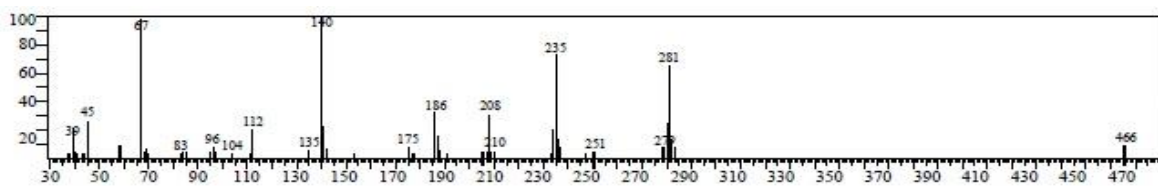


Figure 9 EI mass spectrum of 3-Thiophene Carboxylic acid

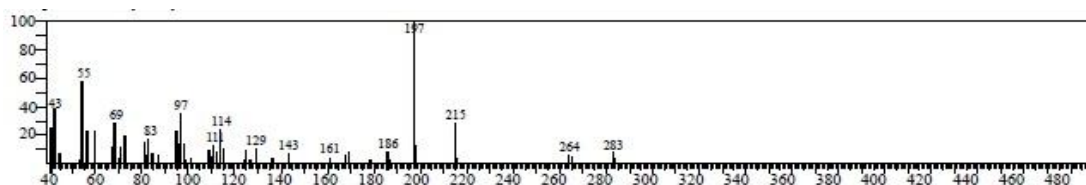


Figure 10 EI mass spectrum of 12-Hydroxy Stearic acid

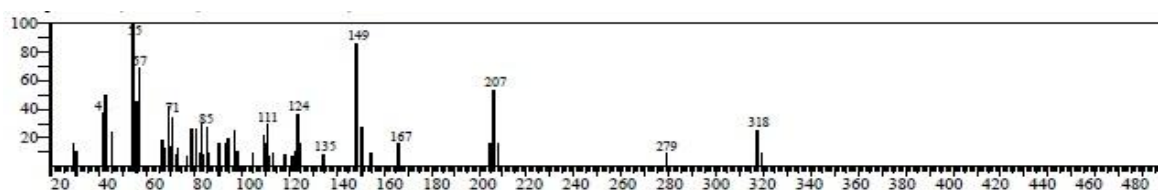


Figure 11 EI mass spectrum of Pregnane-3,11-dione

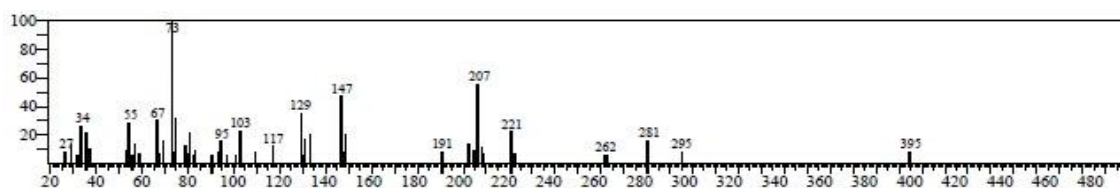
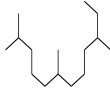


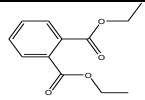
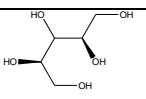
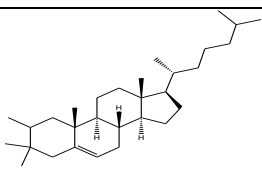
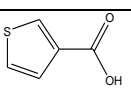
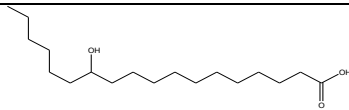
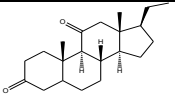
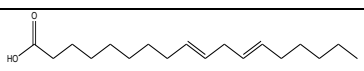


Figure 12 EI mass spectrum of 9,12-Octadecadienoic acid

The EI mass spectrum of 2,6,10-Trimethyl Dodecane is shown in Figure 3. The peak at  $m/z$  212, which appeared at R.T. 14.289 in the total mass chromatogram, corresponds to  $C_{15}H_{32}$ . The EI mass spectrum of 1-Dodecanol is displayed in Figure 4. The peak at  $m/z$  186 with R.T. 38.6 is due to  $C_{12}H_{26}O$ . Figure 5 shows the EI mass spectrum of Eicosane. The peak  $m/z$  282 with R.T. 38.747 was detected in the spectrum. It corresponds to  $C_{20}H_{42}$ . Figure 6 displayed the EI mass spectrum of 1,2-Benzene dicarboxylic acid diethyl ester. The peak at  $m/z$  222 with R. T. 38.765 attributes to  $C_{12}H_{14}O_4$ . The EI mass spectrum of Arabinitol is shown in Figure 7. The peak at  $m/z$  362, which appeared at R.T. 38.855 in the total mass chromatogram, corresponds to  $C_{15}H_{22}O_{10}$ . The EI mass spectrum of 3-Trimethyl Cholest-5-ene is displayed in Figure 8. The peak at  $m/z$  458 with R.T. 38.86 is due to  $C_{30}H_{54}$ . Figure 9 shows the EI mass spectrum of 3-Thiophene Carboxylic acid. The peak  $m/z$  466 with R.T. 38.985 was detected in the spectrum. It corresponds to  $C_{21}H_{22}O_6S_3$ . Figure 10 displayed the EI mass spectrum of 12-Hydroxy Stearic acid. The peak at  $m/z$  300 with R. T. 38.995 attributes to  $C_{18}H_{36}O_3$ . The EI mass spectrum of Pregnane-3,11-dione is shown in Figure 11. The peak at  $m/z$  318, which appeared at R.T. 33.015 in the total mass chromatogram, corresponds to  $C_{21}H_{30}O_2$ . The EI mass spectrum of 9,12-Octadecadienoic acid is shown in Figure 12. The peak at  $m/z$  313, which appeared at R.T. 33.025 in the total mass chromatogram, corresponds to  $C_{27}H_{54}O_4$ .

Table 3 Applications of Bioactive components of MIG

Sl . No	Compound Name	Structure of Compound	Applications	References
1.	2,6,10-Trimethyl Dodecane		Antibacterial, Anti-oxidant	44, 45
2.	1-Dodecanol		used to treat diabetes and malaria	46, 47
3.	Eicosane		Antibacterial activity	48
4.	1,2-Benzene dicarboxylic acid diethyl ester		Bronchitis, colds, and inflammation	49
5.	Arabinitol		Mouth sores, tooth pain, cancer, diabetes, asthma, gastric disorders, and lupus	50
6.	3-Trimethyl Cholest-5-ene		Diarrhoea, ulcers, diabetes, dysentery, cough, gall bladder and kidney diseases,	51,52
7.	3-Thiophene Carboxylic acid		Anti-inflammatory	53
8.	12-Hydroxy Stearic acid		Antimicrobial activity	54
9.	Pregnane-3,11-dione		Asthma, bronchitis, cough, and throat problems	55,56
10 .	9,12-Octadecadienoic acid		Hemorrhages, wounds, diseases in throat and hiccups, burns, and scalds	57,58

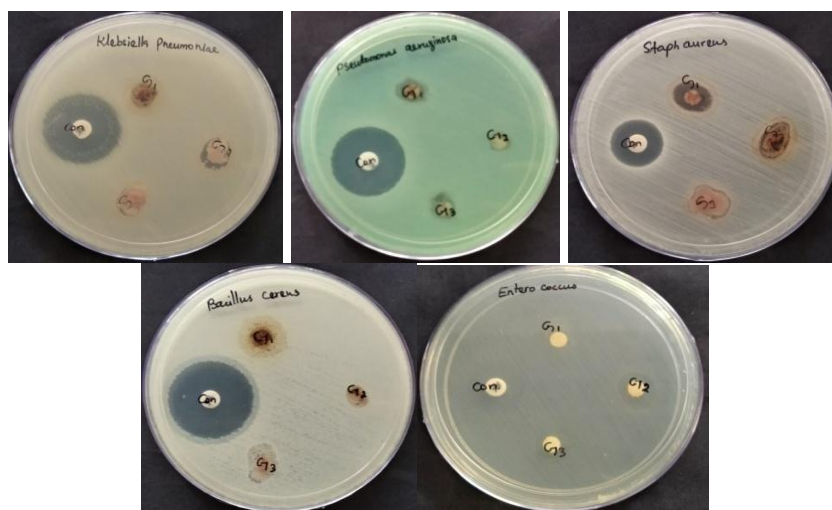
### Antibacterial activity

The bioassay result for antibacterial activity of the MIG is presented in table 3. The MIG exhibits a varying degree of antibacterial activities against the test organisms. The MIG shows the highest activity with the zone of inhibition 12 mm and 11 mm against *Staphylococcus aureus* and *Enterococcus faecalis*. The results are also expressed using the Activity Index in Table 3. The antibacterial activities of MIG against the studied pathogenic strains are shown in Figure 13.

Table 3 Antibacterial activity of MIG (G<sub>3</sub>)

Name of the Organisms	Zone of the Inhibition (mm)		Control (Amikacin) mm
	G <sub>3</sub>		
	ZI (mm)	AI (mm)	
<i>Klebsiella pneumoniae</i>	10	0.38	26
<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i>	11	0.44	25
<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	12	0.63	19
<i>Bacillus cereus</i>	-	-	29
<i>Enterococcus faecalis</i>	11	0.58	19

ZI - Zone of Inhibition      AI - Activity Index



Con - Control      G<sub>3</sub> - Mangifera indica gum

Figure 13 Antibacterial activity of MIG (G<sub>3</sub>) against antibacterial strains

### Antifungal Activity

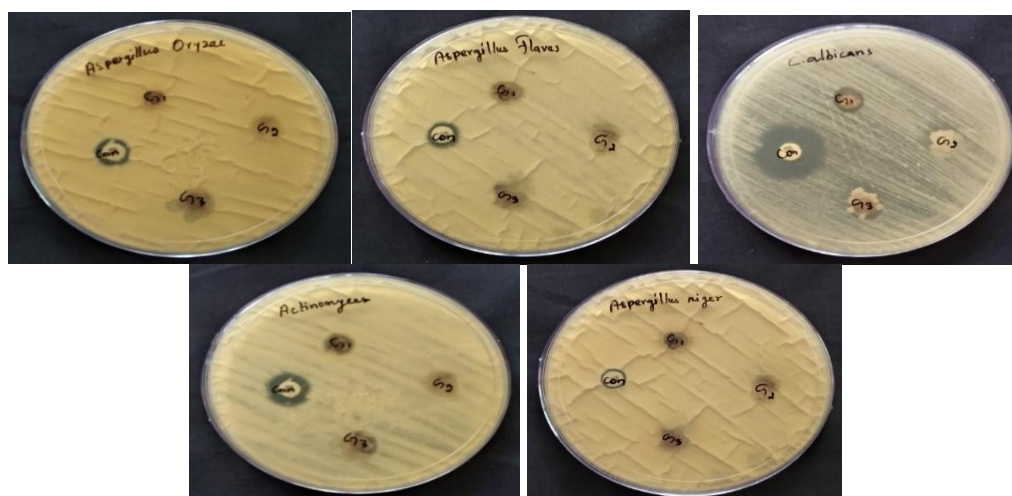
Table 4 Antifungal activity of MIG (G<sub>3</sub>)

Name of the Organisms	Zone of the Inhibition (mm)		Control (Nystatin) mm
	G <sub>3</sub>		
	ZI (mm)	AI (mm)	

<i>Aspergillus niger</i>	9	0.75	12
<i>Aspergillus Oryzae</i>	11	0.79	14
<i>Aspergillus flavus</i>	10	0.91	11
<i>Candida albicans</i>	12	0.5	24
<i>Actinomyces</i>	12	0.8	15

ZI - Zone of Inhibition    AI – Activity Index

The antifungal activity of the MIG is presented in Table 3. The MIG exhibits a varying degree of antifungal activities against the test organisms. The MIG shows the highest activity against all the fungal strains used in this study. The results are also expressed using the Activity Index in Table 4. The antibacterial activities of MIG against the studied pathogenic fungal strains are shown in Figure 14.



Con – Control                      G<sub>3</sub> – Moringa gum

Figure 14 Antifungal activity of MIG (G<sub>3</sub>) against antibacterial strains

### Antioxidant Activity

The anti-oxidant effect of moringa oleifera gum by using DPPH radicals. Different concentrations (3, 6.25, 12.5, 25, 50 µg/ml) of MIG and Ascorbic acid is used as a standard in this study. Table 5 shows the DPPH radical scavenging activity of MIG. In this assay, the maximum inhibition is noted at 50 µg/ml and minimum inhibition is noted at 3 µg/ml of MIG and standard ascorbic acid. In Figure 15 A graph is plotted between the percentage of inhibition and concentration. In the graph, the percentage of inhibition increases when the concentration of MIG and standard increases. The IC<sub>50</sub> value for *Mangifera indica* is 12.96 and for ascorbic acid is 21.79. The MIG shows better antioxidant activity than ascorbic acid.

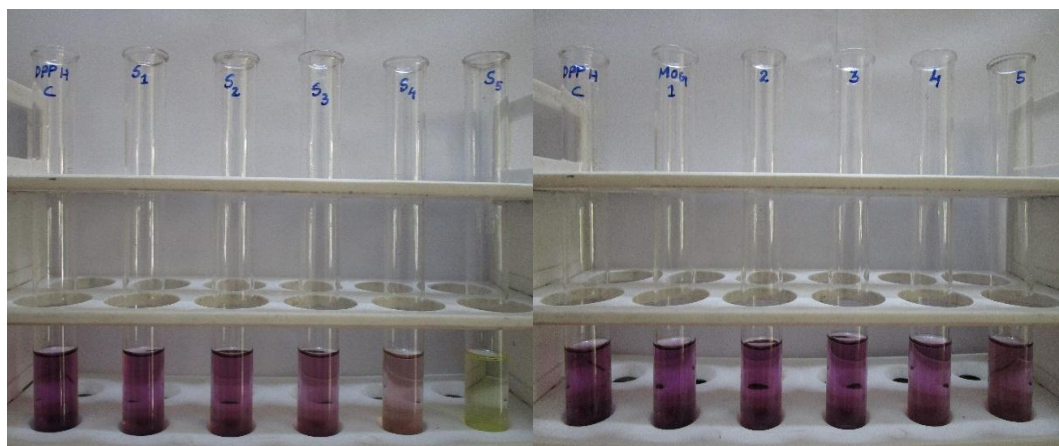


Figure 4 Antioxidant activity of Standard and MIG

Table 4 Antioxidant activity of MIG

Concentration (µg)	ASCORBIC ACID (STANDARD)		MIG	
	Optical Density at 515nm	Percentage of Inhibition	Optical Density at 515nm	Percentage of Inhibition
3	0.737	8.25	0.682	10.39
6.25	0.665	17.46	0.604	27.97
12.5	0.519	35.95	0.466	40.56
25	0.279	66.45	0.249	70.64
50	0.024	98.55	0.013	99.44
<i>IC</i> <sub>50</sub>	<b>21.79</b>		<b>12.96</b>	

### Anti-Inflammatory Activity

The mechanism of the anti-inflammatory activity investigates the ability of *Moringa oleifera* gum (MIG) by the inhibition of protein denaturation assay. The inhibitory effect of the sample was shown in Table 5. The maximum inhibition of protein denaturation for the sample and standard (Diclofenac) at 100 µg/mL is found to be 45.68% and 48.65% respectively. The *IC*<sub>50</sub> value for the sample and the standard is observed as 106.6 and 146.6 respectively. From the above results, it is identified that the sample is having less protein denaturation.

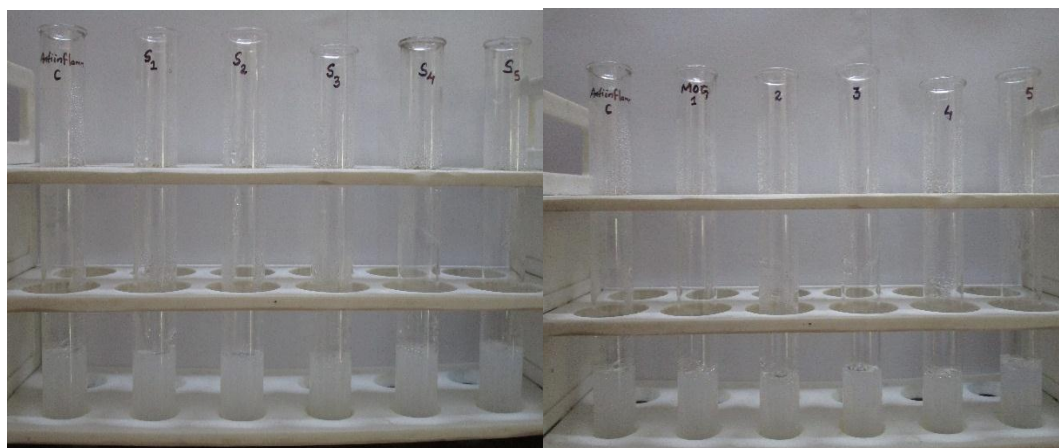


Figure 5 Plot of Anti-Inflammatory activity of Standard and MOG

Table 5 Anti-Inflammatory activity of MOG

Concentration (µg)	Diclofenac (Standard)		MOG	
	Optical Density at 660 nm	Percentage of Inhibition	Optical Density at 660 nm	Percentage of Inhibition
6.25	0.579	0.17	0.656	10.5
12.5	0.574	1.05	0.654	10.77
25	0.500	13.9	0.592	15.65
50	0.444	23.44	0.517	25.62
100	0.315	45.68	0.351	48.65
<b>IC50</b>	<b>106.6</b>		<b>146.6</b>	

### Anti-diabetic Activity

The in vitro anti-diabetic activities of various concentrations (6.25, 12.5, 25, 50, 100 µg/ml) of Moringa gum with the standard drug acarbose by an inhibitory activity of α-amylase enzymes. The percentage of inhibition of α-amylase is increased in higher concentrations (100 µg/ml) of moringa oleifera gum. The inhibition of moringa gum and acarbose of α-amylase is 60.5% at 12.5µg, 75.64% at 25µg, 85.75% at 50µg and 97.23µg% at 100µg/ml and 27.31% at 6.25µg, 55.09% at 12.5µg, 70.37% at 25µg, 82.87% at 50µg and 87.03µg% at 100µg/ml and the IC50 values are 10.23 for moringa gum and 61.8 for acarbose. The anti-diabetic activity of *Moringa oleifera* gum is shown in Table. 6.

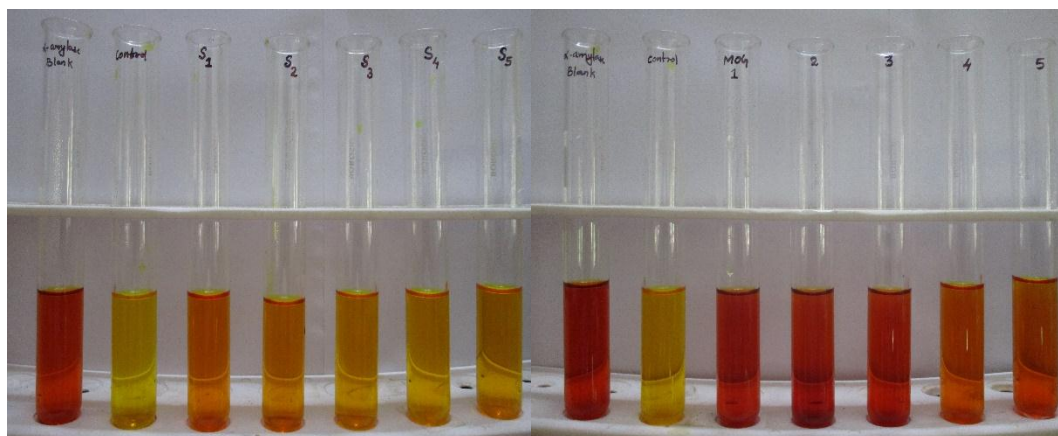


Figure 6 Anti-diabetic activity of Standard and MOG

Table 6 Anti-diabetic activity of MOG

Concentration ( $\mu\text{g}$ )	Acarbose (Standard)		MOG	
	Optical Density at 540 nm	Percentage of Inhibition	Optical Density at 540 nm	Percentage of Inhibition
6.25	0.222	27.31	1.470	-
12.5	0.162	55.09	0.145	60.5
25	0.129	70.37	0.105	75.64
50	0.102	82.87	0.095	85.75
100	0.093	87.03	0.056	97.23
<b>IC50</b>	<b>10.23</b>		<b>61.8</b>	

### Conclusion

MIG has screened for secondary metabolites and this indicates the presence of Carbohydrates, Alkaloids, Phenols, Phytosterols, Xanthoproteins, Carboxylic acids, Saponins, and Tannins. The Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) analysis has studied the functional biomolecules present in the gum. GCMS analysis shows the presence of important compounds like 2,6,10-Trimethyl Dodecane, 1-Dodecanol, Eicosane, 1,2-Benzene dicarboxylic acid diethyl ester, Arabinitol, 3-Trimethyl Cholest-5-ene, 3-Thiophene Carboxylic acid, 12-Hydroxy Stearic acid, Pregnane-3,11-dione and, 9,12-Octadecadienoic acid. The gum showed potent antibacterial activity against Gram-positive bacteria *Staphylococcus aureus* (63%) and *Enterococcus faecalis* (58%). It is concluded that this study would lead to the establishment of some valuable compound that has to be used to formulate new, different, and more potent antibacterial drugs of natural origin.

## References

1. Scartezzini P, Speroni E. Review on some plants of Indian traditional medicine with antioxidant activity. *J Ethnopharmacol.* 2000;71:23–43.
2. Khan MN, Nizami SS, Khan MA, Ahmed Z. New saponins from *Mangifera Indica*. *J Nat Prod.* 1993;56:767–70.
3. Shankarnarayanan D, Gopalakrishman C, Kameswaran L, Arumugum S. The effect of mangostin, mangostin-3, 6-di-O-glucoside and Mangiferin in carbon tetrachloride liver injury. *Mediscope.* 1979;22:65.
4. Khan MA, Khan MN. Alkyl gallates of flowers of *Mangifera Indica*. *Fitoterapia.* 1989;60:284.
5. Ross IA. Vol. 1. New Jersey Totowa: Human Press; 1999. Medicinal plants of the world; pp. 199–200.
6. Shibahara A, Yamamoto K, Shinkai K, Nakayama T, Kajimoto G. Cis9, cis-15-octadecadienoic acid: a novel fatty acid found in higher plants. *Biochim Biophys Acta.* 1993;1170:245–52.
7. Nunez Selles AJ, Vélez Castro HT, Agüero-Agüero J, Gonzalez analysis of phenolic antioxidants, free sugars, and polyols from Mango (*Mangifera Indica* L.) stem bark aqueous decoction used in Cuba as a nutritional supplement. *J Agric Food Chem.* 2002;50:762–6.
8. Andreas S, Wieland U, Reinhold C. Characterization of polyphenols in mango puree concentrate by HPLC with diode array and mass spectrometric detection. *Int J Food Sci Nutr.* 2000;1:161–6.
9. Pott I, Marx M, Neidhart S, Mühlbauer W, Carle R. Quantitative determination of beta-carotene stereoisomers in fresh, dried, and solar-dried mangoes (*Mangifera Indica* L.) *J Agric Food Chem.* 2003;51:4527–31.
10. Chen JP, Tai CY, Chen BH. Improved liquid chromatographic method for determination of carotenoids in Taiwanese mango (*Mangifera Indica* L.) *J Chromatogr A.* 2004;1054:261–8.
11. Knödler M, Berardini N, Kammerer DR, Carle R, Schieber A. Characterization of major and minor alk(en)ylresorcinols from mango (*Mangifera Indica* L.) peels by high-performance liquid chromatography/atmospheric pressure chemical ionization mass spectrometry. *Rapid Commun Mass Spectrom.* 2007;21:945–51.
12. Ornelas-Paz Jde J, Yahia EM, Gardea-Bejar A. Identification and quantification of xanthophyll esters, carotenes, and tocopherols in the fruit of seven Mexican mango cultivars by liquid chromatography-atmospheric pressure chemical ionization-time-of-flight mass spectrometry [LC- (APCI(+))-MS] *J Agric Food Chem.* 2007;55:6628–35.
13. Subha R, Pandey MM, Singh AK. A new, convenient method for determination of mangiferin: An anti-diabetic compound, in *Mangifera Indica* L. *J Planar Chromatogr.* 2007;20:317–320.
14. Muruganandan S, Gupta S, Kataria M, Lal J, Gupta PK. Mangiferin protects the streptozotocin-induced oxidative damage to cardiac and renal tissues in rats. *Toxicology.* 2002;176:165–73.
15. Desai PD, Ganguly AK, Govindachari TR, Joshi BS, Kamat VN, Manmade AH, et al. Chemical investigation of some Indian plants: Part II. *Indian J Chem.* 1966;4:457–549.

16. Subbarayan C, Cama HR. Isolation & characterization of a carotenoidprotein complex from *Mangifera indica* (mango) Indian J Biochem. 1966;3:225–7.
17. Seifried HE, Anderson DE, Fisher EI, Milner JA. A review of the interaction among dietary antioxidants and reactive oxygen species. J Nutr Biochem. 2007;18:567–79.
18. Diplock AT, Charleux JL, Crozier-Willi G, Kok FJ, Rice-Evans C, Roberfroid M, et al. Functional food science and defense against reactive oxidative species. Br J Nutr. 1998;80:S77–112.
19. Maxwell SR. Anti oxidant therapy: Does it have a role in the treatment of human disease? Expert Opin Investig Drug. 1997;6:211–36.
20. Martinez G, Delgado R, Perez G, Garrido G, Nunez Selles AJ, Leon OS. Evaluation of the in-vitro antioxidant activity of *Mangifera indica* L: Extract (Vimang) Phytother Res. 2000;14:424–7.
21. Pardo-Andreu GL, Sanchez-Baldoquín C, Avila-González R, Yamamoto ET, Revilla A, Uyemura SA, et al. Interaction of Vimang (*Mangifera indica* L. extract) with Fe(III) improves its antioxidant and cytoprotecting activity. Pharmacol Res. 2006;54:389–95.
22. Rocha Ribeiro SM, Queiroz JH, Lopes Ribeiro ME, Campos FM, Pinheiro Santana HM. Antioxidant in mango (*Mangifera indica* L.) pulp. Plant Foods Hum Nutr. 2007;62:13–7.
23. Gabino G, Deyarina G, Cheyla R, Nunez-Selles AJ, Rene D. Scavenger effect of a mango (*Mangifera indica* L.) food supplement's active ingredient on free radicals produced by human polymorphonuclear cells and hypoxanthine-xanthine oxidase chemiluminescence systems. Food Chem. 2008;107:1008–14.
24. Pardo Andreu G, Delgado R, Velho J, Inada NM, Curti C, Vercesi AE. *Mangifera Indica* L. extract (Vimang) inhibits Fe<sup>2+</sup>- citrate-induced lipoperoxidation in isolated rat liver mitochondria. Pharmacol Res. 2005;51:427–35.
25. Sanchez GM, Re L, Giuliani A, Nuñez-Selles AJ, Davison GP, Leon Fernandez OS. Protective effects of *Mangifera indica* L. extract, mangiferin and selected antioxidants against TPA-induced biomolecules oxidation and peritoneal macrophage activation in mice. Pharmacol Res. 2000;42:565–73.
26. Sharma SR, Dwivedi SK, Swarup D. Hypoglycemic potential of *Mangifera indica* leaves in rats. Int J Pharmacol. 1997;35:130.
27. Aderibigbe AO, Emudianughe TS, Lawal BA. Antihyperglycaemic effect of *Mangifera indica* in rat. Phytother Res. 1999;13:504–7.
28. Aderibigbe AO, Emudianughe TS, Lawal BA. Evaluation of the antidiabetic action of *Mangifera indica* in mice. Phytother Res. 2001;15:456–8.
29. Perpétuo GF, Salgado JM. Effect of mango (*Mangifera indica*, L.) ingestion on blood glucose levels of normal and diabetic rats. J Plant Foods Hum Nutr. 2003;58:1–12.
30. Ojewole JA. Antiinflammatory, analgesic and hypoglycemic effects of *Mangifera indica* Linn. (Anacardiaceae) stem-bark aqueous extract. Methods Find Exp Clin Pharmacol. 2005;27:547–54.
31. Amrita B, Liakot A, Masfida A, Begum R. Studies on the antidiabetic effects of *Mangifera indica* stem-barks and leaves on nondiabetic, type 1 and type 2 diabetic model rats. Bangladesh J Pharmacol. 2009;4:110–4.

32. Muruganandan S, Scrinivasan K, Gupta S, Gupta PK, Lal J. Effect of mangiferin on hyperglycemia and atherogenicity in streptozotocin diabetic rats. *J Ethnopharmacol.* 2005;97:497–501.
33. Rolo AP, Palmeira CM. Diabetes and mitochondrial function: Role of hyperglycemia and oxidative stress. *Toxicol Appl Pharmacol.* 2006;212:167–78.
34. Zhu XM, Song JX, Huang ZZ, Whu YM, Yu MJ. Antiviral activity of mangiferin against herpes simplex virus type 2 in vitro. *Zhongguo Yao Li Xue Bao.* 1993;14:452–4.
35. Zheng MS, Lu ZY. Antiviral effect of mangiferin and isomangiferin on herpes simplex virus. *Chin Med J.* 1990;103:160–5.
36. J.B. Harborne *Phytochemical Methods* Chapman Hall, London (1998) pp 60–66
37. A. Khan, S. Sarkar, D. Sarkar Bactericidal activity of 2-nitroimidazole against activereplicating stage of *Mycobacterium bovis* BCG and *M. tuberculosis* with intracellular efficacy in THP-1 macrophage Int. J. Antimicrob. Agents, 32 (2008), pp. 40-45.
38. G.B. Bagihalli, P.G. Avaji, S.A. Patil, P.S. Badami Synthesis, spectral characterization, in vitro antibacterial, antifungal and cytotoxic activities of Co(II), Ni(II) and Cu(II) complexes with 1,2,4-triazole Schiff bases *Eur. J. Med. Chem.*, 43 (2008), pp. 2639-2649
39. W. Brand-William, ME. Cuvelier, C. Berset, “Use of free radical method to evaluate antioxidant activity” *LebensmWiss Technology*, 28, 25-30, 1995.
40. Mizushima Y and Kobayashi M. Interaction of anti-inflammatory drugs with sermproteins, especially with some biologically active proteins. *Journal of Pharma Pharmacol.* 1968; 20:169- 173.
41. Sakat S, Juvekar AR, Gambhire MN. In vitro antioxidant and anti-inflammatory activity of methanol extract of *Oxalis corniculata* Linn. *International Journal of Pharma and Pharmacological Sciences* 2010; 2(1):146-155.
42. M.S. Iqbal, A.H. Khan, B.A. Loothar, I.H. Bukhari Effect of derivatization of sulfamethoxazole and trimethoprim with copper and zinc on their medicinal value *Med. Chem. Res.*, 18 (2009), pp. 31
43. Worthington Biochemical Corp., 1993a. Alpha-amylase. In: V. Worthington (Eds.), *Worthington Enzyme Manual*. Freehold, pp. 36–41.
44. Naoko T, Akiko S, Miki N, Keisuke M, Kazutoyo E, Hajime H, Yoshihiro I. Antibacterial activity of long-chain fatty alcohols against *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Molecule.* 2007;12:139–148. doi: 10.3390/12020139.
45. Usha Nandhini S, Sangareshwari S, Lata K. Gas chromatography-mass spectrometry analysis of bioactive constituents from the marine *Streptomyces*. *Asian J Pharm Clin Res.* 2015;8:244–246.
46. . P. Khare, *Indian Medicinal Plants: An Illustrated Dictionary*, Springer Science & Business Media, 2008.
47. C. Williams, “Medicinal Plants in Australia: Plants, Potions and Poisons,” vol. 3, p. 226, Rosenberg Publishing, 2002. View at: Google Scholar
48. Boussaada O, Ammar S, Saidana D, Chriaa J, Chraif I, Daami M, Helal AN, Mighri Z. Chemical composition and antimicrobial activity of volatile components from capitula and aerial parts of *Rhaponticum acaule* DC growing wild in Tunisia. *Microbiol Res.* 2008;163:87–95. doi: 10.1016/j.micres.2007.02.010.

49. S. S. Tirtha, "The Ayurveda Encyclopedia," in *Natural Secrets to Healing, Prevention, and Longevity*, Sat Yuga Press, 2007. View at: Google Scholar
50. Yogeswari S, Ramalakshmi S, Neelavathy R, Muthumary J. Identification and comparative studies of different volatile fractions from *Monochaetia kansensis* by GCMS. *Glob J Pharmacol*. 2012;6:65–71. View at: Google Scholar
51. T. Agarwal, G. Kochar, and S. Goel, "Impact of iron supplementation on anemia during pregnancy," *Age*, vol. 4500, no. 7000, 10 pages, 2008. View at: Google Scholar
52. M. S. Khandare, "Mango (*Mangifera indica* Linn) A medicinal and holy plant," *Journal of Medicinal Plants Studies*, vol. 4, no. 4, pp. 44–46, 2016. View at: Google Scholar
53. E. U. Etuk, S. O. Bello, S. A. Isezuo, and B. J. Mohammed, "Ethnobotanical survey of medicinal plants used for the treatment of Diabetes mellitus in the north western region of Nigeria," *Asian Journal of Experimental Biological Sciences*, vol. 1, no. 1, pp. 55–59, 2010. View at: Google Scholar
54. A. C. Ene and S. E. Atawodi, "Ethnomedicinal survey of plants used by the Kanuris of North-eastern Nigeria," *Indian Journal of Traditional Knowledge*, vol. 11, no. 4, pp. 640–645, 2012. View at: Google Scholar
55. A. H. Memon, F. M. A. Rind, M. G. H. Laghari et al., "Common folk medicinal and ethnomedicinal uses of thirty medicinal plants of districts Dadu and Jamshoro, Sindh, Pakistan," *Sindh University Research Journal (Science Series)*, vol. 40, no. 2, pp. 89–108, 2008. View at: Google Scholar
56. M. F. Nisar, S. Ismail, M. Arshad, A. Majeed, and M. Arfan, "Ethnomedicinal flora of District MandiBahaudin, Pakistan," *Middle-East Journal of Scientific Research*, vol. 9, no. 2, pp. 233–238, 2011. View at: Google Scholar
57. R. W. Bussmann and D. Sharon, "Traditional medicinal plant use in Northern Peru: Tracking two thousand years of healing culture," *Journal of Ethnobiology and Ethnomedicine*, vol. 2, article no. 47, 2006. View at: Publisher Site | Google Scholar
58. N. Wauthoz, A. Balde, E. S. d. Balde, M. Van Damme, and P. Duez, "Ethnopharmacology of *Mangifera indica* L. bark and pharmacological studies of its main C-glucosylxanthone, mangiferin," *International Journal of Biomedical and Pharmaceutical Sciences*, vol. 1, no. 2, pp. 112–119, 2007. View at: Google Scholar