# Protective Effects of *Cyphomandra betacea* Extract Against Hydrogen Peroxide-induced Oxidative Stress in 3T3 Cells and Synergistic Anticancer Properties in HepG<sub>2</sub> and MDA-MB-231 Cell Lines

# Maisarah Abdul Mutalib<sup>a</sup>\*, Asmah Rahmat<sup>b</sup>, Muhammad Shuaib Khan<sup>c</sup>, Ali Zaman<sup>c</sup>, Muhammad Inamullah Malik<sup>c</sup>\*, Khalid Muhammad<sup>c</sup>, Shabnam Razzaq Khan<sup>d</sup>, Shomaila Noreen Malik<sup>e</sup> and Saqib Ali Rustam<sup>c</sup>

 <sup>a</sup>International Medical School, Management and Science University, University Drive, Off Persiaran Olahraga, Section 13, 40100 Shah Alam, Selangor, Malaysia
<sup>b</sup>Faculty of Science, Technology and Human Development, Universiti Tun Hussein Onn Malaysia (UTHM), 86400 Parit Raja Batu Pahat, Johor, Malaysia
<sup>c</sup>Faculty of Veterinary and Animal Sciences, Gomal University D.I.Khan, Pakistan
<sup>d</sup>Institute of Research and Education, Gomal University, D.I. Khan, Pakistan
<sup>e</sup>Department of Gaynocology and Obstetrics, District Teaching Hospital, D.I.Khan, Pakistan

(received January 4, 2022; revised May 23, 2023; accepted May 29, 2023)

**Abstract.** Using the MTT 3-(4, 5-dimethylthiazol-2yl-2, 5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide) assay induced by hydrogen peroxide ( $H_2O_2$ ) and the ability to increase the cytotoxicity of doxorubicin in HepG<sub>2</sub> and MDA-MB-231 cells, the protective effects of ethanolic extract of tamarillo were assessed in the current study. The cells were pre-treated with tamarillo ethanolic extract at 10 g/mL for 4 h before being exposed to 0.6 mM  $H_2O_2$  for 3 h showed the greatest protection, with a significant increase (P 0.05) in cell viability of 79% compared to the control (57%). The results support a role that cyto-protective effect of tamarillo and doxorubicin which low in toxicity opens a new possible approach for possible future use in conventional chemotherapeutic drugs and radiation therapy.

Keywords: chemotherapeutic, radiation therapy, hydrogen peroxide, Cyphomandra betacea, synergistic

#### Introduction

Recently, anticancer therapies have gained increasing attention as a potentially significant tool in controlling the disease because it is now possible to examine the mechanisms at the molecular level. Commonly, traditional chemotherapy is still the most predominant way of treating cancer despite the short and long term adverse side effects such as pain, nausea, fatigue, vomiting and anaemia and nerve problems by Hassan (2012). However, currently the concept of chemoprevention is receiving great interest as an alternative to conventional cancer treatment.

Chemoprevention is mainly the use of naturally occurring or synthesised chemicals in pharmacology to postpone, suppress or reverse the development of carcinogenesis, Domenico *et al.* (2012). It is also sometimes referred to as inhibition of tumor angiogenesis and metastasis, as well as direct killing of cancer cells Lewandowska *et al.* (2014). Several studies have been done recently to examine the possible anticancer effects of natural

\*Author for correspondence; E-mail:malikinamgu@gmail.com maisarah\_abdulmutalib@msu.edu.my antioxidants, especially dietary polyphenols. For its prospective therapeutic uses as chemo-preventive agents in the treatment of carcinogenesis, the use of natural extract may represent an alluring and affordable strategy.

It is well recognised that plant-derived polyphenols have a variety of pharmacological properties as antiproliferative, pro-apoptotic and anti-angiogenic activities that could be used in both prevention and therapy of various cancers, Sporn et al. (1976). The cyto-protective effect (the cancer blocking effect) of dietary polyphenolic substances on normal cells and their cytotoxic effect on cancer cells may work together to explain their antiproliferative activity (cancer suppressing action). Besides, polyphenols may work together with one another or with natural or synthetic drugs by additively, synergistically or antagonistically, Colon and Nerin (2016). The combination of the said interactions is looked upon as it may give room for more effective yet less toxic therapeutics, a cost effective alternative as well as minimization of the side effects.

Tamarillo (*Cyphomandra betacea*) is a small plant belonging to the family Solanaceae, originating from

south America, Lim (2013). There are three types while the most commonly known type is the red fruit, Richardson and Patterson (1993). When ripe, it has a skin that is reddish to orange with thin, green to brown stripes. It has an oval shape and orange-coloured skin. The golden fruit is the second kind. It has bright yellow skin and flesh with barely perceptible longitudinal brown to green stripes that are oval shaped. The other kind is purple, commonly referred to as dark-red or black. It has vividly dark red skin with extremely faint vertical stripes of green. Its flesh is purple and has an oval to circular shape, Morton (1987). The kind that is sold in Malaysia is egg shaped, measuring 9-12 cm in diameter, with thin reddish-brown peel, dark red seed mucilage and orange pulp, Gannasin et al. (2015). Tamarillos are an excellent source of carotenoids like carotenes and xanthins, which work as co-factors for enzymes in the metabolism of body and other synthetic processes, Hassan and Abu Bakar (2013), vitamins such as ascorbic acid and tocopherol, which make them a significant immune boosting antioxidant power. The phenolics, flavonoids and anthocyanin present in tamariol fruits in large amounts support its antioxidant function, Athar et al. (2003). Tamarillo contained 17 carotenoids and 3 important anthocyanins, Wrolstad and Heatherbell (1974). By giving hydrogen to highly reactive species, especially the peroxyl radicals and anthocyanins function as antioxidants and stop the creation of new radicals, Ignat et al. (2010). In order to demonstrate the combined impact of tamarillo with commercial chemotherapy treatment and to give higher anticancer characteristics, and this study intends to demonstrate the protective benefits of tamarillo on hydrogen peroxide-induced cell death.

## **Materials and Methods**

**Fruit sampling.** Cameron Highland, Pahang, Malaysian workers gathered tamarillo fruit in June 2013. The identified herbarium specimens were placed in Borneensis at the University of Malaysia, Sabah in Malaysia. To get rid of any impurities the fruits were cleaned thoroughly before being weighed and sliced into standard sizes. After being freeze-dried, 500g sample was grinded into a powder. The sieved powdered samples were then stored in a freezer (20 °C) pending for further analysis.

**Preparation of sample.** Tamarillo dry powder was extracted three times with 80% ethanol at room temperature over the course of 24 h. The residue (dried

50 mg) was dissolved in the DMSO (1 mL) after being dried by evapouration at 50 °C to produce a working solution of 1 mg/mL. A 0.45 m nylon membrane syringe filter was used to filter these final extracts before usage.

**Cell culture.** The cells were raised in RPMI-1640 culture media with 10% FBS and 1% penicillin/ streptomycin in 75 cm<sup>2</sup> flasks. Cell lines were maintained at 37 °C in a humidified 5% CO<sub>2</sub> incubator. With 0.25% (w/v) trypsin-EDTA, confluent monolayer cells that were 80% confluent were harvested.

Protective effects against  $H_2O_2$  induced oxidative stress. Before assessing the protective impact of tamarillo, dose-response tests were conducted to determine the highest nontoxic concentration of tamarillo that may be used. 96-well plates with 1 105 3T3 cells/mL of seed were incubated for 24 h. Subsequently, various quantities of tamarillo ethanolic extract (0–200µ g/mL) were applied to the plates. The MTT test, which was previously published, was used to count the number of live cells after 24 h.

MTT assay protocol. Discard media from cell cultures; Add 50  $\mu$ L of serum-free media and 50  $\mu$ L of MTT solution into each well; Incubate the plate at 37 °C for 3 h; After incubation, add 150  $\mu$ L of MTT solvent into each well; Wrap plate in foil and shake on an orbital shaker for 15 min; Read absorbance at OD=590 nm.

In 3T3 cells, Park *et al.* (2014). examined the defenceenhancing potential of tamarillo extracts against hydrogen peroxide-induced cell death. In order to identify the major reduction in cell viability, the 3T3 cells were first tested for their cell viability activity with concentrations of  $H_2O_2$  ranging from 0.1 to 1 mM for 3 h, then treated with different exposure times (0 to 5 h). In 96-well plates, 3T3 cells (1 105 cells/mL) were planted. The cells were given different amounts of tamarillo extract (0–200 µg/mL) for 4 h after 24 h of incubation and then each well received the addition of 0.8 mM of  $H_2O_2$ . Number of viable cells was counted with the help of MTT assay after 3 h of incubation.

Drug combination studies. *Measurement of inhibition* of  $HepG_2$  and MDA-MB-231 cell proliferation in *isolation*. Tamarillo and doxorubicin's effects were assessed using the MTT assay, as previously mentioned. In the 96-well plates, cells (1 105 cells/mL) were planted and given the night to adhere. Several quantities of tamarillo extract (0–200 µg/mL) and doxorubicins (0.1–0.8 µg/mL) were applied to cells either separately or in combination. The CI<sub>50</sub> values of the isolated treatments were determined firstly. Based on each CI<sub>50</sub> value achieved in isolation treatment, a series of concentrations were designed for the combination effect that comprise of a range of Doxorubicin concentration and combined with the CI<sub>50</sub> values of MDA and HepG<sub>2</sub> cells:  $0.2 \times CI_{50}$ ,  $0.4 \times CI_{50}$ ,  $0.6 \times CI_{50}$ ,  $0.8 \times CI_{50}$  and  $1.6 \times CI_{50}$  (µg/mL).

**Combination index for determining addition, synergism and antagonism.** For the assessment of synergism, the combination index (CI) was performed, Chou and Talalay (1984) following combination Index equation:

Combination index (CI) =  $\frac{(D)_1}{(Dx)_1} + \frac{(D)_2}{(Dx)_2} + \frac{(D)_1 (D)_2}{(Dx)_1 (Dx)_2} \dots$ 

where:

 $(D)_1$  and  $(D)_2$  represents the concentrations of tamarillo and doxorubicin, when administered to the cells concurrently, have the determined effect and  $(Dx)_1$  and  $(Dx)_2$  are the concentrations of same medications, when administered separately, have the same determined impact. The CI values show an additive effect when = 1, a synergistic effect when 1, and an antagonistic effect when >1.

Statistical analysis. Three copies of each experiment were used, and the findings were presented as mean standard deviation, using SPSS for Windows version 22.0. (S.D.). One-way analysis of variance was employed with Tukey's test to statistically analyse the data. Statistical significance was deemed to exist when P < 0.05 was reached.

## **Results and Discussion**

**Cyto-protective effect of tamarillo against hydrogen peroxide-induced oxidative stress in 3T3 cells.** The US NIEHS, interagency coordinating committee in the validation of alternative methods for determining basal cytotoxicity, National Institute of Environmental Health Sciences, NIEHS (2001) recommends the lowest cytotoxic dose of tamarillo ethanolic extract on nontumorigenic 3T3 mouse fibroblast, which is identified in the first section of the study. Findings showed that treatment with tamarillo at doses ranging from 0 to 200µg/mL didn't significantly change the viability of cells. Cell viability was about 79% at 200 µg/mL concentration level (Fig. 1). At the greatest dosage of tamarillo ethanolic extract, no harmful effect on 3T3 cells was seen, indicating that tamarillo is a selective anticancer agent. After that, it was determined how well tamarillo ethanolic extracts protected 3T3 cells from oxidative stress brought on by hydrogen peroxide. According to Fig. 2 and 3, after being exposed to 0.6 mM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> for three hours, the viability of the cells dropped in a manner; with a significant (P < 0.05) decrease in viability relative to the control cells of about 62%. Contrarily, 3T3 cells pre-treated with tamarillo extract for 4 h before being exposed to 0.6 mM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> for 3 h had higher vitality than cells that had not received this pre-treatment (Fig. 4). The most protective effect was observed at 10 µg/mL of tamarillo ethanolic extract with a significant increment (P < 0.05) in cell viability

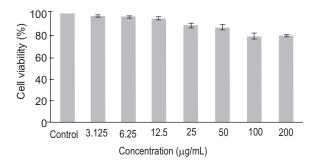


Fig. 1. Cell viability of 3T3 cells exposed to tamarillo ethanolic extract at different doses  $(0-200 \ \mu g/mL)$ . The MTT assay was used to measure cell viability. The results are shown as mean (n = 3) standard deviation of mean.

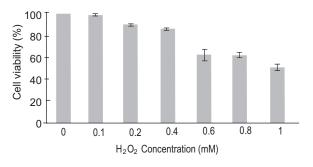


Fig. 2. Viability of 3T3 cells after being exposed to  $H_2O_2$  at varied doses (0.1–1 mM) for three hours. The MTT assay was used to measure cell viability. The results are shown as mean (n = 3) standard deviation of mean. From untreated cells, \*P < 0.05.

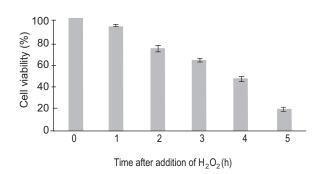


Fig. 3. Cell viability of 3T3 cells exposed to 0.6 mM  $H_2O_2$  for various exposure times (0–5 h). The MTT assay was used to measure cell viability. The results are shown as mean (n = 3) standard deviation of mean. From untreated cells, \*P < 0.05.

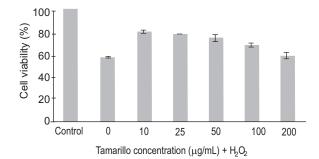


Fig. 4. Tamarillo's defence against  $H_2O_2$ -induced toxicity in 3T3 cells. Tamarillo ethanolic extract (0–200 µg/mL) was applied to the cells for 4 h and 0.6 mM  $H_2O_2$  was applied for 3 h. The MTT assay was used to measure cell viability. The results are shown as mean (n = 3) standard deviation of mean. From untreated cells, \*P < 0.05.

by 79% compared to the control (57%). It was evaluated that  $H_2O_2$  induced-3T3 cells were treated with different concentrations of the tamarillo ethanolic extracts significantly reversed the  $H_2O_2$ -induced cytotoxicity and resulted in the prevention of cell death, which suggests the protective role of tamarillo against oxidant induced damage. It is well recognised that hydrogen peroxide, a precursor of many ROS, can operate as a powerful inducer of ROS and cause cell damage both *in vitro* and *in vivo* by Park *et al.* (2014). It is widely acknowledged that excessive ROS production in cells results in the breakdown of cellular homeostasis, oxidative stress and ultimately the death of organ cell populations. By scavenging free radicals, the antioxidant defence of the cell which consists of naturally occurring antioxidant molecules and enzymes prevents damage brought on by oxidative stress. However it may not be sufficient that will lead to extensive damage to the macromolecules and ultimately leading to cell death and tissue damaged, Halliwell (2011). Therefore, inducing antioxidant defence machinery through dietary polyphenols would be an effective strategy in maintaining the oxidative stress at low levels. Tamarillo ethanolic extracts have earlier been shown to possess good antioxidant activities with chemical antioxidant assays (DPPH scavenging and beta-carotene bleaching assays). Thus, the present study suggests that protective effect of tamarillo is more like its antioxidant potential in cyto-protective activity against hydrogen peroxideinduced toxicity in 3T3 normal cells.

Isolated effects of doxorubicin and tamarillo on HepG<sub>2</sub> and MDA-MB-231 cell viability. The viability of the cell was assessed after 72 h of the culture for HepG<sub>2</sub> and MDA-MB-231 cell lines, which were exposed to various doses of doxorubicin and tamarillo in isolation. The results showed that in HepG<sub>2</sub> and MDA-MB-231 cells, tamarillo and doxorubicin both lowered cell viability in a dose-dependent manner. Most sensitive cell line, HepG<sub>2</sub> showed just 40% of the cell viability at highest dose of doxorubicin that was examined (1.6  $\mu$ g/mL) (Fig. 5). On comparison with untreated cells, statistical significances (P < 0.05) were established in two cell lines examined at doses between 0.4 and 1.6  $\mu$ g/mL.

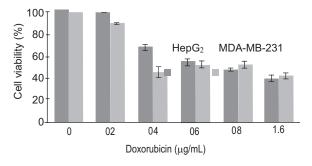


Fig. 5. MTT assay was used to determine the isolated effect of doxorubicin (0.2 - 1.6  $\mu$ g/mL) on the viability of HepG<sub>2</sub> and MDA-MB-231 cells. The results are shown as mean (n = 3) standard deviation of mean. From untreated cells, \*P < 0.05.

However, treatment with the tamarillo ethanolic extract resulted in a concentration dependent inhibitory effect on the cell survival, with a striking similarity in the pattern of reaction between HfepG<sub>2</sub> and MDA-MB-231 cells (Fig. 6). Most resilient cell type, the HepG<sub>2</sub> cell, saw a 33% drop in viability at the higher concentration used (200  $\mu$ g/mL). When compared to untreated cells, statistically significant values were reported in the two cell lines examined (P < 0.05).

Combined effects of doxorubicin and tamarillo on HepG<sub>2</sub> and MDA-MB-231 cell viability. The combination treatment of HepG<sub>2</sub> and MDA-MB-231 cells with 30 µg/mL and 80 µg/mL of the tamarillo ethanolic extract respectively, with Doxorubicin (0.2, 0.4, 0.6, 0.8 and 1.6 µg/mL) decreased the cell viability (P < 0.05) when compared to exposure to treatment in isolation (Fig. 7). The HepG<sub>2</sub> survival rates were 33%, 17%, 21%, 19% and 15% for this combination, compared to 54%, 42%, 42%, 45% and 44% for MDA-MB-231. Even at the lowest tested dose of doxorubicin (0.2 µg/mL), the HepG<sub>2</sub> cell exhibited the greatest sensitivity to the associated medication. When compared to the control group, all combinations are statistically significant (P < 0.05).

**Combination index.** The MATLAB approach was used to analyse type of interaction (synergistic, additive or antagonistic) between doxorubicin and tamarillo ethanolic extract when they were combined for 72 h on HepG<sub>2</sub> and MDA-MB-231 cells, Chou and Talalay (1984). The CI values demonstrate an impact that is additive when it is equal to 1, antagonistic when it is

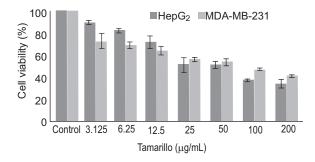


Fig. 6. Using the MTT test, the isolated effects of tamarillo ethanolic extract (0–200  $\mu$ g/mL) on the viability of HepG<sub>2</sub> and MDA-MB-231 cells were measured. The results are shown as mean (n=3) standard deviation of mean. From untreated cells, \*P < 0.05.

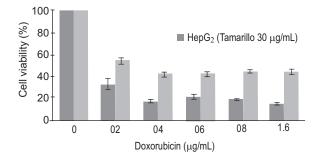


Fig. 7. Using the MTT test, the combined effects of tamarillo ethanolic extract and doxorubicin (0.2 - 1.6  $\mu$ g/mL) on the viability of HepG<sub>2</sub> (30  $\mu$ g/mL) and MDA-MB-231 (80  $\mu$ g/mL) cells were determined. The results are shown as mean (n = 3) standard deviation of mean. From untreated cells, \*P < 0.05.

larger than 1 and synergistic when it is less than 1. Table 1. lists the combination index  $(CI_{50})$  values computed for HepG<sub>2</sub> and MDA-MB-231 cells. Doxorubicin (0.2, 0.4, 0.6, 0.8 and 1.6  $\mu$ g/mL) and tamarillo (30  $\mu$ g/mL) together had a synergistic impact on slowing the development of HepG2 cells, with CI50 values of 0.86, 0.51, 0.58, 0.54 and 0.45, respectively. The best combination for inhibiting the development of HepG<sub>2</sub> cells was 1.6 µg/mL of doxorubicin and 30 µg/mL of tamarillo ethanolic extract (CI values = 0.45) (Table. 1). The dose reduction index 50 (DRI<sub>50</sub>) indicates percentage of dosage reduction for combination medicine's 50% growth inhibitory impact as compared to each agent alone. Findings showed that DRI50 values for doxorubicin and tamarillo in combination for HepG<sub>2</sub> cells were 1.55 and 4.64, 2.25 and 16.27, 2.02 and 11.24, 2.15 and 14.03 and 2.45 and 21.60, respectively. However, in MDA-MB-231 cells, no synergistic induction of suppression of cell growth was seen (Table. 1).

These findings imply that the anticancer drugs doxorubicin and tamarillo ethanolic extract jointly limit growth of HepG<sub>2</sub> cancer cell line. Chou and Talalay (1984) examined the synergistic effect of tamarillo and doxorubicin on the HepG<sub>2</sub> and MDA-MB-231 cell lines. In HepG<sub>2</sub> cells with reduced cell viability when compared to each medication administered alone, a synergistic interaction (CI one) was achieved with a combination schedule of doxorubicin and tamarillo ethanolic extract. Most significantly, combining the two at low doses results in a marked reduction in cell

| Cell lines        | Doxorubicin<br>( µg/mL) | Tamarillo<br>( CI50 μg/mL) | CI <sub>50</sub> | DRI <sub>50</sub>                   | Interpretation |
|-------------------|-------------------------|----------------------------|------------------|-------------------------------------|----------------|
| HepG <sub>2</sub> | 0.2                     | 30.0                       | 0.86             | Doxorubicin: 1.55; Tamarillo: 4.64  | Synergism      |
|                   | 0.4                     | 30.0                       | 0.51             | Doxorubicin: 2.25; Tamarillo: 16.27 | Synergism      |
|                   | 0.6                     | 30.0                       | 0.58             | Doxorubicin: 2.02; Tamarillo: 11.24 | Synergism      |
|                   | 0.8                     | 30.0                       | 0.54             | Doxorubicin: 2.15; Tamarillo: 14.03 | Synergism      |
|                   | 1.6                     | 30.0                       | 0.45             | Doxorubicin: 2.45; Tamarillo: 21.60 | Synergism      |
| MDA-MB-           | 0.2                     | 80.0                       | 3.07             | Doxorubicin: 2.18; Tamarillo: 0.38  | Antagonism     |
| 231               | 0.4                     | 80.0                       | 1.02             | Doxorubicin: 3.38; Tamarillo: 1.39  | Antagonism     |
|                   | 0.6                     | 80.0                       | 1.04             | Doxorubicin: 3.34; Tamarillo: 1.35  | Antagonism     |
|                   | 0.8                     | 80.0                       | 1.33             | Doxorubicin: 3.02; Tamarillo: 1.00  | Antagonism     |
|                   | 1.6                     | 80.0                       | 1.22             | Doxorubicin: 3.13; Tamarillo: 1.11  | Antagonism     |

Table 1. Combination index<sup>a</sup> (CI) and dose reduction index (DRI) values of Doxorubicin and tamarillo combination.

aCI50 is a combination index for 50% effect, used for quantifying synergism, additivity and antagonism.

viability. To date, chemotherapy is still remains the most popular way of treating cancer, despite many side effects, Sak (2012). However, an alternative approach with use of the polyphenolic compound in treatment of different types of the cancer holds promise for better anticancer competencies, Aggarwal *et al.* (2013). The combination of common cancer therapies with chemopreventive agents may enhance the anticancer activity through synergic action, Sarkar and Li (2006). The combination therapeutic synergy between the individual compounds that works at physiologically relevant doses may result in the reduction of the individual concentrations and is important to minimize the undesirable doserelated toxicity, this type of tamarillo extract does not present toxicity, Suarez *et al.* (2021).

#### Conclusion

The cyto-protective effect of tamarillo ethanolic extract with its low toxicity which fosters further evaluation on its potential as a promising active ingredient for possible future use in conventional chemotherapeutic drugs and radiation therapy. Although this is a preliminary study that involves a synergistic action between tamarillo and Doxorubicin, the chemopreventive phytochemicals present in tamarillo demonstrated significant effectiveness with minimized toxicity, less expensive and more environmental friendly than the synthetic drugs.

#### Acknowledgement

The University Putra Malaysia's Research University Grants programme provided funding for this project (RUGS) (04-02-12-1759RU). **Conflict of Interest.** The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

## References

- Aggarwal, B., Prasad, S., Sung, B., Krishnan, S., Guha, S. 2013. Prevention and treatment of colorectal cancer by natural agents from mother nature. *Current Colorectal Cancer Reports*, **9**: 37-56.
- Athar, N., McLaughlin, J., Taylor, G. 2003. *The Concise* New Zealand Food Composition Tables. Palmerston North: NZ Institute for Crop & Food Research Ltd, pp. 177, New Zealand.
- Chou, T.C., Talalay, P. 1984. Quantitative analysis of dose-effect relationships: the combined effects of multiple drugs or enzyme inhibitors. *Advances in Enzyme Regulation*, 22: 27-55.
- Colon, M., Nerin, C. 2016. Synergistic, antagonistic and additive interactions of green tea polyphenols. *European Food Research and Technology*, **242**: 211-220.
- Domenico, D.F., Foppoli, C., Coccia, R., Perluigi, M. 2012. Antioxidants in cervical cancer: Chemopreventive and chemotherapeutic effects of polyphenols. *Bio-chimica et Bio-physica Acta (BBA)- Moleculare Basis of Disease*, **1822**: 737-747.
- Gannasin, S.P., Adzahan, N.M., Hamzah, M.Y., Mustafa, S., Muhammad, K. 2015. Physico-chemical properties of tamarillo (*Solanum betaceum* Cav.) hydrocolloid fractions. *Food Chemistry*, **182**: 292-301.
- Halliwell, B. 2011. Free radicals and antioxidants quo vadis? *Trends in Pharmacological Sciences*, **32**: 125-130.
- Hassan, B.A.R. 2012. Main critical side effects associated with chemotherapy used in cancer

treatment. Pharmaceutica Analytica Acta, 3: e113.

- Hassan, S.H.A., Abu Bakar, M.F. 2013. Antioxidative and anticholinesterase activity of *Cyphomandra betacea* fruit. *The Scientific World Journal*, 2: 78071.
- Ignat, I., Volf, I., Popa, V.I. 2010. A critical review of methods for characterisation of polyphenolic compounds in fruits and vegetables. *Food Chemistry*, 126: 1821-1835.
- Lewandowska, U., Gorlach, S., Owczarek, K., Hrabec, E., Szewczyk, K. 2014. Synergistic interactions between anticancer chemo-therapeutics and phenolic compounds and anticancer synergy between polyphenols. *Postepy Hig Med Dosw* (Online). 2: 528-540.
- Lim, T.K. 2013. Edible Medicinal and Non-Medicinal Plants, In: *Solanum betaceam*. Springer, pp, 326-332, Natherland.
- Morton, J.F. 1987. Tree tomato, In: *Fruits of Warm Climates*, Julia, F., Morton, pp, 437-440, Miami, USA.
- NIEHS (National Institute of Environmental Health Sciences). 2001. Report of the International Workshop on In vitro Methods for Assessing Acute Systemic Toxicity, US Public Health Science, USA.
- Park, I.Y., Lee, J.S., Lee, K.R., Ha, S.J., E. K., Hong, S.J. 2014. *Cordyceps militaris* extract protects

human dermal fibroblasts against oxidative stressinduced apoptosis and premature senescence. *Nutrients*, **6:** 3711-3726.

- Richardson, A., Patterson, K. 1993. Tamarillo growth and management. *The Orchardist of New Zealand*, 66: 33-35.
- Sak, K. 2012. Chemotherapy and dietary phytochemical agents. *Chemotherapy Research and Practice*, 7: 282570.
- Sarkar, F.H., Li, Y. 2006. Using chemo-preventive agents to enhance the efficacy of cancer therapy. *Cancer Research*, **66**: 3347-3350.
- Sporn, M.B., Dunlop, N.M., Newton, D.L., Smith, J.M. 1976. Prevention of chemical carcinogenesis by vitamin A and its synthetic analogs (retinoids). *Federation Proceedings*, **35**: 1332-1338.
- Suarez-Montenegro, Z.J., Ballesteros-Vivas, D., Gallego, R., Valdes, A., Sanchez-Martinez, J.D., Parada-Alfonso, F., Ibanez, E., Cifuentes, A. 2021. Neuroprotective potential of tamarillo (cyphomandra betacea) epicarp extracts obtained by sustainable extraction process. *Frontiers in Nutrition*, 8: 769617. doi: 10.3389/fnut.2021.769617
- Wrolstad, R.E., Heatherbell, D.A. 1974. Identification of anthocyanins and distribution of flavonoids in tamarillo fruit (*Cyphomandra betaceae* (Cav. Sendt.). *Journal of the Science of Food and Agriculture*, 25: 1221-1228.