

2022, 28 (4) : 583 - 591 Journal of Agricultural Sciences (TarimBilimleriDergisi)

> J AarSci-Tarim Bili e-ISSN: 2148-9297 jas.ankara.edu.tr



DOI: 10.15832/ankutbd.883842



Genoprotective Role of Purslane Methanol Extract Against Somatic Mutations Induced by Bifenthrin, a Third Generation Prethyroid Insecticide

Halit KIZILET^a, Handan UYSAL^{b*}

^aDepartment of Cardiology, Erzurum Training and Research Hospital, 25100, Erzurum, TURKEY ^bDepartment of Biology, Faculty of Science, Atatürk University, 25240, Erzurum, TURKEY

ARTICLE INFO

Research Article

Corresponding Author: Handan UYSAL, E-mail:hauysal@atauni.edu.tr Received: 20 February 2020 / Revised: 20 October 2021 / Accepted: 20 October 2021 / Online: 15 October 2022

Cite this article

KIZILET H, UYSAL H (2022). Genoprotective Role of Purslane Methanol Extract Against Somatic Mutations Induced by Bifenthrin, a third Generation Prethyroid Insecticide. Journal of Agricultural Sciences (Tarim Bilimleri Dergisi), 28(4):583-591. DOI: 10.15832/ankutbd.883842

ABSTRACT

In this study, in vitro and in vivo genotoxic effects of Bifenthrin (BIF), an important insecticide used in agricultural production, storage and processing, were investigated. The genoprotective properties of purslane (Portulaca oleracea L.) against the genotoxic effects of BIF were also determined by using the methanol (POmet) extract of this plant. In vivo experiments were performed with somatic mutation and recombination test (SMART) in Drosophila melanogaster. In in vitro studies, human peripheral blood cultures were prepared and different concentrations of BIF were applied to lymphocyte cells in accordance with the procedure of both the micronucleus (MN) and sister chromatid exchange (SCE) assay. The results obtained from all applied tests showed that BIF is

genotoxic and induces chromosomal mutations. Later, another experiment was conducted and it was determined that the genotoxic effects of BIF were reduced with POmet (1:1 v/v). This result, which was observed in all in vivo and in vitro tests, shows that purslane plant is a potent radical scavenger. Due to the healing properties of POmet, gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GS-MS) method was used to determine the components in its content. Some of the components found in the highest ratio in this extract are γ -sitosterol (21.86%), 13docosenamide, (13.30%), palmitic acid (12.85%), stigmasteol (6.64%), campesterol (5.69%), linoleicacid (5.46%) and 2-methyl-1-hexadecanol (3.88%).

Keywords: Drosophila melanogaster, Portulaca oleracea, Household insecticides, Human peripheral blood cultures, Gas chromotography-mass spectrometry

1. Introduction

In cases where agricultural products cannot be protected from diseases and pests, it becomes difficult to obtain healthy and sufficient food. Today, about 20% of the world's grain production is lost in the pre-harvest and post-harvest stages (Durmuşoğlu et al. 2010). One of the most important causes of these losses is pests that infect agricultural products and reduce yield. Pesticides are still used as the most effective method to fight with pests (Singh et al. 2020).

Pesticides are chemicals that are used to reduce the devastating effects of live forms on human and animals and on crops such as insects, rodents, wild weeds and fungi to damage inflicted or reduced nutritional value for the food resources production, storage and consumption (Meister 1999; Pazır & Turan 2017). The pesticides group most widely used against pests are insecticides. Insecticides, which are a sub-group of pesticides used in many areas and providing control of harmful organisms, are chemical compounds used in agricultural production, in the storage of products and at homes for the purpose of killing harmful insects or preventing their reproduction. Insecticides are of great help in controlling harmful insects, which can increase product loss up to 100%. However, since insecticides are not specific, they affect not only target organisms but also non-target organisms (Sayılı & Akman 1994; Özyurt et al. 2018). The unconscious use of insecticides has been shown to cause the destruction of beneficial organisms and endanger genetic diversity (Güngör 2003).

Wild plant and animal populations are decreased as a result of intensive use of insecticides in agriculture. Therefore, it was found to be endangered and started destruction of the beneficial organisms and genetic diversity. Insecticides are poisonous compounds that are purposely released into the environment for the specific purpose of killing insects. The broad use of insecticides represents a potential risk to humans and the environment (Cantelli-Forti et al. 1993; Tiryaki et al. 2010). 30% of the world synthetic insecticides consist of pyrethroids and they are often preferred because despite being highly toxic to the target organisms, they are less toxic to birds and mammals (Mazmancı et al. 2008). Pyrethroid is an organic compound similar to natural pyrethrins formed by pyrethrum flowers (*Chrysanthemum cinerariaefolium* and *C. coccineum*). Pyrethroids are now the bulk of commercial house hold insecticides (Robert 2002; Dev 2017).

Bifenthrin (BIF), a member of the synthetic pyrethroid family of pesticides, is a third generation insecticide used extensively in agricultural production. This group of pyrethroids is not found naturally and is more resistant to light and exhibits higher toxic activity (Mokrey & Hoagland 1989). BIF, with a half-life of approximately 7 days to 8 months, is insoluble in water or very slightly soluble, leaving a lot of residues in the soil (EXTOXNET 1996). In our country and in the world, they are used especially against aphids, fire ants, lice, fleas, spiders, ticks and flies, against ornamental plants, hops, raspberry, corn and cotton pests, as well as in homes, workplaces and schools (EPA 2010).

DNA disruption and oxidative stress play an important role in numerous cancers and pathological disorders, including carcinogenesis and aging (Soltani et al. 2009; Jacobsen-Pereira et al. 2018). Numerous experiments have shown that plantderived natural compounds demonstrate defensive behaviors against genotoxicity caused by oxidative stress (Plazar et al. 2008; El-Nekeety et al. 2017; Rahmouni et al. 2018). Fruits and vegetables include many types of phytochemicals with antioxidant, anti-mutagenic and anti-carcinogenic properties (Arora et al. 2002; Shahidi & Ambigaipalan 2015; Janet al. 2018). Despite the development of medical science in a tremendous way in the 20th century, plants are still used in traditional medicine (Jain et al. 2007; Izquierdo-Vega et al. 2017).

Purslane (*Portulaca oleracea* L.) is a wide spread wild edible plant with green leaves and is used as a medicinal plant. It is used as salad, vegetable and medicinal plants in all parts of the world. Purslane contains more omega-3 fatty acids (α -linolenic acid in particular) than any other leafy vegetable plant. Since it is used to cure many diseases, the World Health Organisation named the plant "Global Panacea", which means "good for every disease" (K1z1let & Uysal 2018).

In this study, the genoprotective of methanol extracts of purslane (POmet) against the possible genotoxic effects of BIF were investigated. BIF is a powerful insecticide used against insects, their eggs and larvae, especially in agricultural areas and warehouses where agricultural products are stored. However, this insecticide is also used against insects in crowded environments such as homes, schools and workplaces where people live. In this case, humans as well as insects are exposed to insecticides in both agricultural and living areas. In this study, it was aimed to determine the genotoxic effects of BIF in both *Drosophila melanogaster*, an invertebrate insect species, and humans. The genotoxic effects of BIF were determined in Drosophila by in vivo Somatic Mutation and Recombination Test (SMART). In vitro Sister Chromatid Exchange Test (SCE) and Micronucleus Test were also used to determine the genotoxic effects of BIF in the highest application group of all three testing techniques. Additionally, the chemical contents of the methanol extracts of *Portulaca oleracea* was also defined by gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GS-MS) method.

2. Material and Methods

2.1. Chemicals

The Bifenthrin (CAS No:82657-04-3, state powder purity 96%), methanol (CAS No:67-56-1),dimethyl sulfoxide (CAS No:67-68-5), ethyl methane-sulfonate (CAS No:62-50-0), 5–bromo–2–deoxyuridine (CAS No: 59-14-3), potassium chloride (CAS No: 7447-40-7), giemsa (CAS No: 51811-82-6), bisbenzimide H 33342 (CAS No:23491-52-3), sodium citrate (CAS No: 6132-04-3), sodium chloride (CAS No:7647-14-5), acetic acid (CAS No: 64-19-7),chromosome medium (CAS No: F 5023), colchicine (CAS No: L 6221) and cytochalasin-B (CAS No: 14930-96-2) were purchased from the Sigma-Aldrich Company while Drosophila Instant Medium has been acquired from the Carolina Biological Supplies Company.

2.2. Preparation of the methanol extracts of Portulaca oleracea L.

Purslane plant, which was determined to be used as an antigenotoxic agent in the experiments, was collected from the vicinity of Hasancık village in Adıyaman province and from an altitude of 600-900 meters. Methanol extract (POmet) was prepared with all of the above-ground organs of the purslane plant, such as stem, leaves and flowers, which were collected in its natural environment, during the flowering period and from lands far from agriculture (Uysal et al. 2015). POmet extract was dissolved with DMSO in the course of applications.

2.3. GC-MS System and conditions

Chromatographic analyzes were conducted on the Agilent 7820 A gas chromatography system. Various temperature programs have been studied for the GC-MS process. Components determined according to POmet spectrum. GS-MS analysis of POmet according to K121let et al. (2019).

2.4. Experimental animals and laboratory condition

The selected two Drosophila strains (mwh and flr³) were used in a previous study for somatic mutation and recombination test

(SMART) (Kızılet & Uysal 2019). The flies were kept according to Uysal et al. (2006) laboratory condition.

2.5. Somatic mutation and recombination test (SMART)

The method for somatic mutation and recombination test (SMART) was determined by Graf et al. (1984). According to this protocol, it was adapted to our laboratory conditions and applied. For this purpose, 4, 5, 6 and 7 ppm BIF application groups have been created and highest (7 ppm) BIF concentration was tested antigenotoxically with 1% POmet. The data is analyzed in compliance with the multiple-decision protocol of Frei &Würgler (1995).

2.6. Donors for peripheral blood assays

All donors were determined according to K1zılet et al. (2019). Permission for the study was sought from the Erzurum Provincial Training and Research Hospital Local Ethics Committee (Number: 37732058-53/2467/BEAH KAEK 2015/9-67) and the rules of the committee were observed during the inquiry. Documented informed consent was received from all patients who engaged in the study.

2.7. Sister chromatid exchange (SCE) assay

To determine the genotoxic effects of BIF at different concentrations (50, 100, 250 and 500 ppm) and equal concentration of 500 ppm BIF + POmet by SCE, 1–2.5 mL of human peripheral blood was added to 5 mL chromosome media. Different sets were prepared for each concentration and each donor. 5–bromo–2–deoxyuridine (BrdU) was added to all experiment sets at a final concentration of 10-4M. All substances added to the tubes were sterilized to prevent contamination during the experimental stage. The experimental sets were incubated for 72 hours at 37 °C in dark incubators. At 70 hours of the experiment, colchicine was added to the medium at a final concentration of 0.5 μ g/mL to stop the mitosis at the metaphase stage. At the end of the 72 hours incubation, the tubes were centrifuged and removed the supernatants. Hypotonic solution (0.075 M KCl) was added onto pellet and incubated for 30 minutes in dark incubator at 37 °C. At the end of the time, the supernatant was removed after centrifugation. The remaining pellet was washed with a fixative consisting of a methanol/acetic acid (3:1 v/v) mixture. This procedure was repeated three times.

Peripheral blood smears were then prepared from the remaining pellet and allowed to dry in the dark for 3 days. These preparations were stained according to Rooney & Czepulkowski 1986 fluorescence plus Giemsa method. For this purpose, preparations were wetted with 0.5 μ g/mL bisBenzimide (Hoechst 33342) for 20 minutes. Wet preparations were incubated for 1 hour under 366 nm UV. The preparations were then kept in a 2 X SSC (1:1 v/v 0.03 M sodium citrate/0.03 M sodium chloride) solution in a 65 °C water bath for 1 hour. Finally, the preparations were stained with 5% giemsa.

Preparations were examined at 1000 X magnification and sister chromatid changes were recorded on chromosomes in metaphases. The data obtained were analyzed with SPSS package program.

2.8. Micronucleus (MN) assay

Experimental setups for MN test were prepared by adding 5 mL chromosome medium to the test tubes containing 50, 100, 250 and 500 ppm BIF and equal concentrations of BIF+POmet (only for 500 ppm BIF). All test tubes were allowed to incubate for 72 hours. In the experimental procedure, unlike SCE, BrdU was not added to the tubes. All solutions added to the tubes were sterilized to prevent contamination. Cytochalasin-B was added to the tubes at a final concentration of 3 μ g/mL at 48 hours of incubation (In order to have binucleated cells). The tubes were centrifuged at the end of the incubation and hypotonic fluid was applied to the pellet (0.075 M KCl) and incubated for 15 minutes at 37 °C. At the end of the period, the tubes were centrifuged and remaining pellets washed with fixative solution (1:3 v/v acetic acid-methanol) 3 times. Then, the supernatant was discarded and smear preparations were made from the pellet and stained with 4% giemsa. 1000 cells from each preparation were counted and investigated under a light microscope at 400 X magnification. The data obtained were analyzed with SPSS package program.

3. Results

3.1. SMART findings

The findings obtained from distilled water, dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO), EMS, BIF and 7 ppm BIF+1% POmet application groups for the normal wings (mwh/flr³) and serrate wings (mwh/TM3) phenotypes are shown in Table 1. As shown in Table 1, there were no significant differences between the values, which were obtained with distilled water and 1ppm DMSO applications for both normal and serrate wing phenotypes. When the BIF application groups (4, 5 and 6 ppm) were compared with the DMSO application group, inconclusive (i) results were observed for all spots, although increased mutation frequency in two phenotypes.

Compound concentration	Number of wings	Small single spots (1–2 cells) (m = 2)		Large single spots (>2 cells) (m = 5)		Twin spots $(m = 5)$		Total mwh Spots (m = 2)			Total spots $(m = 2)$			Clone induction frequency			
(ppm)	(N)	No	Fr.	D	No	Fr.	D	No	Fr.	D	No	Fr.	D	No	Fr.	D	(CIF)
Normal wings (mv	vh/flr³)																
Distilled water	80	8	(0.10)		1	(0.01)		0	(0.00)		9	(0.11)		9	(0.11)		0.46
DMSO	80	9	(0.11)	i	1	(0.01)	i	0	(0.00)	i	10	(0.13)	i	10	(0.13)	i	0.51
EMS	80	29	(0.36)	+	11	(0.14)	+	3	(0.04)	i	39	(0.49)	+	43	(0.54)	+	2.00
4 BIF	80	11	(0.14)	i	0	(0.00)	-	0	(0.00)	-	11	(0.14)	i	11	(0.14)	i	0.56
5 BIF	80	12	(0.15)	i	1	(0.01)	i	0	(0.00)	-	13	(0.16)	i	13	(0.16)	i	0.66
6 BIF	80	18	(0.23)	i	0	(0.00)	-	0	(0.00)	-	18	(0.23)	i	18	(0.23)	i	0.92
7 BIF	80	21	(0.26)	+	0	(0.00)	-	0	(0.00)	-	21	(0.26)	+	21	(0.26)	+	1.07
7BIF+%1POmet	80	12	(0.15)	i	0	(0.00)	-	0	(0.00)	-	12	(0.15)	i	12	(0.15)	i	0.61
Serrate wings (mv	vh/TM3)																
Distilled water	80	7	(0.09)		0	(0.00)					7	(0.09)		7	(0.09)		0.35
DMSO	80	7	(0.09)	i	0	(0.00)	i	Bala	ncer		7	(0.09)	i	7	(0.09)	i	0.35
EMS	80	19	(0.24)	-	10	(0.13)	+	chro	mosome		29	(0.36)	+	29	(0.36)	+	1.49
4 BIF	80	9	(0.11)	i	0	(0.00)	-	TM.	3 does		9	(0.11)	i	9	(0.11)	i	0.46
5 BIF	80	9	(0.11)	i	0	(0.00)	-	not	carry		9	(0.11)	i	9	(0.11)	i	0.46
6 BIF	80	10	(0.13)	i	0	(0.00)	-	the f	lr3		10	(0.13)	i	10	(0.13)	i	0.51
7 BIF	80	11	(0.14)	i	0	(0.00)	-	muta	ation.		11	(0.14)	i	11	(0.14)	i	0.56
7BIF+%1POmet	80	9	(0.11)	i	0	(0.00)	-				9	(0.11)	i	9	(0.11)	i	0.46

No: number of clones; Fr: frequency; D: statistical diagnosis +: positive; -: negative; i: inconclusive; m:multiplication factor

However, positive (+) results were observed in the highest BIF application group (7 ppm) due to the increase in the number of mutant clones for the normal wing phenotype (P<0.05). The clone induction frequency (CIF) was also calculated according to the values obtained in this study. While the CIF value for mwh/flr³ genotype (normal wing phenotype) in the application of 7 ppm BIF was 1.07, this value for the distilled water and DMSO control groups was measured as 0.46 and 0.51 (Table 1).

In addition, as shown in Table 1, 1% POmet application reduced the frequency of mutations in all spots. Important variations were found between the values obtained with 7 ppm BIF and 7 ppm BIF+1% POmet applications for both normal and serrate wing phenotypes (P<0.05). The CIF calculated as 1.07 for mwh/flr³ genotype (normal wing phenotype) in the 7 ppm BIF application was found to be 0.61 for 7 ppm+1% POmet application group. In the mwh/TM3 genotype (serrate wing phenotype), the CIF values were found to be 0.46 and 0.56 for the same application groups (Table 1). The decrease in CIF values in both normal and serrate wing phenotype was found statistically significant in 7 ppm+1% POmet application group.

3.2. SCE findings

The SCE values, as a result of the application to human peripheral lymphocyte cells at 50, 100, 250 and 500 ppm BIF concentrations, were detected as 4.13 ± 0.01 , 4.62 ± 0.01 , 6.50 ± 0.03 and 7.05 ± 0.02 respectively. The results were statistically significant (P<0.05). These values were determined at 3.60 ± 0.02 for distilled water, 3.70 ± 0.01 for negative control group DMSO and 25.96 ± 0.02 for EMS (positive control group) (Table 2). The difference between positive control group and negative control groups are statistically significant (P<0.05). While the replication index (RI) values were accounted, these values decreased in all the application groups. The SCE value of BIF + POmet application at the rate of 1:1 to determine the therapeutic effect of purslane has decreased from 7.05 ± 0.02 to 3.80 ± 0.01 (Table 2). According to these values obtained from BIF + POmet application, the decrease observed for SCE was statistically significant (P<0.05).

Table 2- Statistical significance of SCE induction after exposure to four concentrations of BIF and BIF + POmet

Application Groups	Concentration	RI	SCE/cell (Average)	MinMax. SCE 1-11	
Distilled Water	-	2.41±0.03	3.60±0.02		
DMSO	%2	$2.24{\pm}0.07$	3.70±0.01	1-10	
EMS	2mM	2.25±0.09	25.96±0.02	8-36	
	50	2.33 ± 0.08	4.13±0.01*	1-9	
$\mathbf{D}^{\prime}(\mathbf{u})$	100	2.01±0.07*	4.62±0.01*	1-13	
Bifenthrin (ppm)	250	1.95±0.06*	6.50±0.03*	1-11	
	500	$1.90{\pm}0.04*$	7.05±0.02*	4-13	
BIF + POmet	1:1	2.25±0.11**	3.80±0.01**	1-10	

*: Statistical difference is significant according to DMSO at the 0.05 level, **: Statistical difference is significant according to 500 ppm BIF at the 0.05 level.

3.3. MN findings

MN frequencies measured after exposure to varying concentrations (50, 100, 250 and 500 ppm) of BIF in human peripheral lymphocyte cells were detected as 1.100 ± 0.73 , 1.475 ± 0.85 , 1.850 ± 0.44 and 2.050 ± 0.68 , respectively. These values were determined at 0.700 ± 0.38 for distilled water, 0.825 ± 0.65 for DMSO and 3.175 ± 1.40 for EMS (Table 3). The results were statistically significant between the application and all control groups (P<0.05). In addition, as shown in Table 3 NBI decreased in all BIF application groups. NBI was found to be 1.54 ± 0.17 in the DMSO negative control group. In the highest BIF application group, this value decreased to 1.25 ± 0.18 (P<0.05).

In the BIF + POmet application, the MN frequency decreased from 2.050 ± 0.68 to 0.875 ± 0.72 (P<0.05). In this application NBI value increased from 1.25 ± 0.18 to 1.56 ± 0.19 (P<0.05).

Application Groups	Concentration	Investigated of binucleated cells	Number of MN within binucleat (1) (2) (3)			MN frequency±S.E.	Nuclear division index (NDI)±S.E.	
Distilled water	-	4000	28	-	-	0.700±0.38	1.52±0.15	
DMSO	%2	4000	33	-	-	0.825 ± 0.65	1.54±0.17	
EMS	2mM	4000	88	12	5	3.175±1.40	1.48 ± 0.18	
	50	4000	38	3	-	$1.100{\pm}0.73$	1.55±0.13	
Bifenthrin (ppm)	100	4000	51	4	-	1.475±0.85*	1.46 ± 0.21	
Bitenui in (ppin)	250	4000	66	4	-	1.850±0.44*	1.38±0.20*	
	500	4000	71	4	1	2.050±0.68*	1.25±0.18*	
BIF+POmet	1:1	4000	35	-	-	0.875±0.72**	1.56±0.19**	

Table 3- Statistical significance of MN induction after exposure to four concentrations of BIF and BIF + POmet

*: Statistical difference is significant according to DMSO at the 0.05 level, **: Statistical difference is significant according to 500 ppm BIF at the 0.05 level.

3.4. C-MS findings

In this study, the components found in P. oleracea were determined by GC/MS method and listed in Table 4. 23 components (99.305%) were identified for POmet. The most common compounds in POmet are γ -sitosterol (peak no. 22), 13-docosenamide (peak no. 13), (Z) and palmitic acid (peak no. 5). The total amount of these three compounds is 48.001%. Compounds such as phytol, linoleic acid, campesterol and stigmasterol were also found in different rates in the content of POmet at All of these compounds induce antigenotoxicity. Therefore, POmet can be considered as a strong radical scavenger against BIF insecticide.

Table 4- Chemical compositions of the POmet

Peak number	Retantion time(min)	Component	Molecular formula	Molecular weight (g/mol)	% ratio in total component		
1	16.137	2,4 dihydroxy-2,4,6-trimethylcyclohexylidene- acetic acid 8-lactone	C11H16O3	196.10	2.034		
2	16.727	2-cis-9-octadecenloxyethanol	C20H40O2	312.30	0.863		
3	16.856	Hexahydrofamecyl acetone	C18H36O	268.27	1.067		
4	18.188	Palmitic acid methyl ester	C17H34O2	270.25	0.768		
5	19.104	Palmitic acid	C16H32O2	256.24	12.848		
6	21.420	Phytol	C20H40O	296.30	4.101		
7	22.121	Linoleic acid	C18H32O2	280.24	5.455		
8	29.612	Behenicalchol	C22H46O	326.35	2.008		
9	30.026	Dipalmitin	C35H63O5	568.50	1.301		
10	30.481	Diisoactyl phthalate	C24H38O4	390.27	2.352		
11	31.281	Docosyl acetate	C24H48O2	368.36	2.745		
12	32.264	2-methyl-1-hexadecanol	C17H36O	256.27	3.880		
13	33.233	13-docosenamide,(Z)=(Erucylamide)	C22H43NO	337.33	13.297		
14	33.423	2-bromo octadecanol	C18H35BrO	346.18	2.177		
15	33.870	Methyl epoxystearate	C19H36O3	312.26	0.917		
16	34.069	Dihyaroxanthin	C17H24O5	308.16	1.303		
17	35.163	14-octadecenal	C18H34O	266.26	1.247		
18	36.502	α-tocopherol	C29H50O2	430.38	1.245		
19	37.714	Campesterol	C28H48O	400.37	5.692		
20	38.113	Stigmasterol	C29H48O	412.37	6.642		
21	38.245	Ethyl iso-allocholate	C26H44O5	436.31	2.157		
22	38.949	γ-sitosterol	C29H50O	414.38	21.856		
23	39.467	Olean-12-en-3-one	C30H48O	424.37	3.350		
Total component percentage ratio99.305							

4. Discussion

Physical factors such as solar radiation, x-rays and a wide variety of chemicals can affect cellular DNA. Oxidative stress can cause damage to lipids, proteins, and nucleic acids, resulting in improvements in signal transduction path ways, gene expression, cell mutation, and cell death (Demirci et al. 2008; Popracet et al. 2017). Pesticides are a significant group of human-made hazardous chemicals. Their probable synergistic or antagonistic side effects on humans have not yet been thoroughly studied (Demsia et al. 2007). Over the three decades since the launch of the first compounds with adequate photostability for agricultural use, synthetic pyrethroids have been valuable instruments for pest control in agriculture, public health and a wide range of household applications.

However, pyrethroids are not only neurotoxic to plants, but also to mammals (Soderlund et al. 2002; Costa 2015). Synthetic pyrethroids are neuropoisons that function on axons in peripheral and central nervous systems by interfering with sodium channels in mammals or insects (IPCS 1990). BIF is chemically classified as a pyrethroid. BIF interferes with the nervous system of the insect when it is eaten or touched (Miller & Salgado 1985; Yanget et al. 2018). It is more harmful to insects than it is to humans, since insects have lower body temperatures and smaller body sizes. Therefore, it can show toxic effects at high doses.

In this study, while 7 ppm BIF was showing genotoxic effects on *D. melanogaster*, upwards of 50 ppm BIF were showing genotoxic effects on human peripheral blood cells. In conclusion; the higher concentrations of BIF were caused by somatic mutation and chromosomal defects in this study. Our findings are in accordance with other research performed in a similar fashion.

BIF was determined reduce the motor activity in rats at high doses (Wolansky et al. 2007; Scollon et al. 2011). BIF alone is not harmful to rodent nerve cells at a concentration of 10-3 M. However, a house hold use substance containing BIF has been found to be neurotoxic at concentrations between 10-6 and 10-7 M. The house hold formulation of the BIF insecticide decreased the viability of rodent nerve cell cultures, while the BIF did not. Both the formulation and the active ingredient decreased the development of neuritis in vitro, although the effect of the formulation was more extreme (Tran et al. 2006). These findings indicate that inert ingredients would strengthen the developmental neurotoxic effects of BIF. According to Walker & Keith (1992) evidence of mutagenic effects from exposure to BIF are inconclusive. Studies of mouse white blood cells were positive for gene mutation. However, other tests of BIF's mutagenic effects, including the Ames test and experiments in liver rat bone marrow cells, were negative.

Sadowska-Woda (2010) has shown that BIF-induced oxidative stress induces increased lipid peroxidation and reduced antioxidant function in human peripheral blood. DNA disruption and oxidative stress play an important role in numerous cancers and pathological disorders, including carcinogenesis and aging (Soltani et al. 2009; Birch-Machin & Bowman 2016). There has lately been a great deal of interest in the anti-mutagenic and anti-carcinogenic ability of plant-derived compounds and natural food ingredients (Bhuvaneswari 2005; Xu et al. 2007; Shahidi 2009). The mechanism of defence of these structurally very diverse compounds may be multifactorial, since the anti-mutagenic behaviour of most of these chemicals is linked to their scavenging properties (Larson 1988). *P. oleracea* is a rich source of omega-3 fatty acids, gallotannins, kaempferol, quercetin, apigenin, and glutathione (Sharmaet et al. 2009; Gharneh & Hassandokht 2012; Naeem & Khan 2013). Purslane contains in large quantities 1-norepinephrine (in fresh leaf 0.25%) that neurohormone of helpful to brain fatigue. It has the highest omega-3 fatty acid content of all leafy vegetables (Kumlay et al. 2010). Antioxidant and antimutagenic functions of extracts of *P. oleracea* have been previously demonstrated and are proposed to be linked to their constituents, such as A, B1, B2, C, niasinamid, nicotinic acid, α -tocopherol, β -carotene, β -alanin, β -cyanine, magnesium, calcium, potassium, iron, omega-3 fatty acids, gallotannins, kaempferol, quercetin, apigenin, flavonoids, ascorbic acid and glutathione (Simopoulos 2004).

In our study was determined that POmet, which was used in the experiment, inhibited somatic mutation in *D. melanogaster* and decreased the SCE and MN rate in human peripheral lymphocytes. Our result is supported by similar studies of purslane. Water extract of purslane significantly inhibited the DNA breakage (Behravan et al. 2011) and it's leaves stems and roots showed very strong antioxidant at in vivo and in vitro experiments on rabbits (Yu et al. 2007). Yen et al. (2001) have demonstrated that *P. oleracea* extract has antimutagenic activity against 2-amino-3-methylimidazo (4,5-f) quinoline (IQ) as a mutagenagent.

In POmet sample (Table 4), 99.305% of the total extract was identified, predominating γ -sitosterol (21.856%), 13-docosenamide, (Z) (13.297%), palmitic acid (12.848%), stigmasteol (6.642%) campesterol (5.692%), linoleic acid (5.455%) and 2-methyl-1-hexadecanol (3.880%).

 β -sitosterol and γ -sitosterol are most widely found sterols in the plant. It has also been documented that the volume and function of components of the extrinsic apoptic pathway in human lung and breast adenocarcinoma cells can be impaired by γ -sitosterol (Balamurugan et al. 2011). γ -sitosterol and 13-docosenamide, (Z) also shows high antimicrobial activity (Kanimozhi & Bai 2012; Rukshana et al. 2017). Palmitic acid is the most common saturated fatty acid present in animals and plants. It is the first synthesized fatty acid in the formation of fatty acids in living things and the longer fatty acids are produced from it.

Palmitic acid, like other fatty acids, is not free in nature. Reduces hydrogen peroxide formation (Aydın 2009). Stigmasterol and campesterol are a group of phytosterols. Stigmasterol is an unsaturated plant sterol. It is also useful for the treatment of many tumours, including ovarian, lung, breast and colon cancers. It also has strong antioxidant, hypoglycaemic and thyroid inhibiting effects (Panda et al. 2009). Linoleic acid is an unsaturated essential fatty acid. Linoleic acid exhibits potent antioxidant activity as opposed to α -tocopherol (vitamin E), a known antioxidant (Ha et al. 1990).

Consequently, the higher concentration of BIF caused somatic mutation and chromosomal defects in this study. As a result of our study, the increase in mutations in SMART, and SCE and MN in in vitro tests, respectively, can be assumed as a marker of damage in genetic material. As seen above in similar studies, this genetic damage is caused by oxidative stress. Our results and previously conducted studies indicate that the effect of natural components of purslane is radically scavenging on the genotoxicagent BIF. Additionally, the repair of this damage by POmet indicates that purslane can be a strong antigenotoxic agent. This scavenger effect is due to the high concentration on the content of the compound in POmet.

References

- Arora A, Sairam R K & Srivastava G C (2002). Oxidative stress and antioxidative systems in plants. *Current Science* 82: 1227-1238. https://www.jstor.org/stable/24107045
- Aydın S (2009). The identification of antioxidant, antimicrobial effects and fatty acids composition of *Terfezia boudieri chatin* and *Lactarius vellereus* (Fr.). Master thesis (Published), Selçuk University, TR
- Balamurugan R, Duraipandiyan V & Ignacimuthu S (2011). Antidiabetic activity of γ-sitosterol isolated from *Lippianodiflora* L. in streptozotocin induced diabetic rats. *European Journal of Pharmacology* 667(1-3): 410-418.https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ejphar.2011.05.025
- Behravan J, Mosafa F, Soudmand N, Taghiabadi E, Razavi B M & Karimi G (2011). Protective effects of aqueous and ethanolic extracts of Portulacaoleracea L. Aerial parts on H2O2- induced DNA damage in Lymphocytes by comet assay. Journal of Acupuncture and Meridian Studies 4: 193-197.https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jams.2011.09.008
- Bhuvaneswari V, Phil M, Abraham S K & Nagini S (2005). Combinatorial antigenotoxic and anticarcinogenic effects of tomato and garlic through modulation of xenobiotic-metabolizing enzymes during hamster buccal pouch carcinogenesis. Nutrition 21: 726-731.https://doi.org/10.1016/j.nut.2004.05.024
- Birch-Machin M A & Bowman A (2016). Oxidative stres and ageing. British Journal of Dermatology 175: 26-29. https://doi.org/10.1111/bjd.14906
- Cantelli-Forti G, Paolini M & Hrelial P (1993). Multiple end point procedure to evaluate risk from pesticides. *Environmental Health Perspectives* 101: 15-20.https://doi.org/10.1289/ehp.93101s315
- Costa L G (2015). The neurotoxicity of organochlorine and pyrethroid pesticides. *Handbook of Clinical Neurology* 131: 135-48.https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-444-62627-1.00009-3
- Demirci M, Hiller K A, Boslb C, Gallerb K, Schmalzb G & Schweiklb H (2008). The induction of oxidative stress, cytotoxicity, and genotoxicity by dental adhesives. *Dental Materials* 24: 362-371.https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dental.2007.06.009
- Demsia G, Vlastosa D, Goumenoub M & Matthopoulos D P (2007). Assessment of the genotoxicity of imidacloprid and metalaxyl in cultured human lymphocytes and rat bone-marrow. *Mutation Research/Genetic Toxicology and Environmental* 634: 32-39.https://doi.org/10.1016/j.mrgentox.2007.05.018
- Dev S (2017). Insecticides of natural origin.1st Edition. Available on Taylor & Francis eBooks, Routledge, London. ISBN 9783718659135
- Durmuşoğlu E, Tiryaki O & Canhilal R (2010). Pesticide Use, Residue and Persistence Problems in Turkey, In: VII. Türkiye Ziraat Mühendisliği Teknik Kongresi, 11-15 Ocak, Ankara, Bildiriler Kitabı 2: pp. 589-607 (In Turkish)
- El-Nekeety A A, Abdel-Wahhab K G, Abdel-Aziem S H, Mannaa F A, Hassan N S & Abdel-Wahhab M A (2017). Papaya fruits extracts enhance the antioxidant capacity and modulate the genotoxicity and oxidative stress in the kidney of rats fed ochratoxin A-contaminated diet. *Journal of Applied Pharmaceutical Science* 7(07): 111-121. DOI: 10.7324/JAPS.2017.70718
- EPA (2010). Environmental Protection Agency. Bifenthrin Summary Document. http://www.regulations.gov/search/Regs/home.html
- EXTOXNET (1996). Extension Toxicology Network. Pesticide Information Profiles Bifenthrin. http://extoxnet.orst.edu/pips/bifenthr.htm Frei H & Würgler F E (1995). Optimal experimental design and sample size for the statistical evaluation of data from somatic mutation and recombination test (SMART) in *Drosophila. Mutation Research* 334: 247-258.https://doi.org/10.1016/0165-1161(95)90018-7
- Gharneh H A A & Hassandokht M R (2012). Chemical composition of some Iranian purslane (Portulacaoleracea) as a leafy vegetable in south parts of Iran. *Acta Horticulturae* 944: 41-44. DOI: 10.17660/ActaHortic.2012.944.4
- Graf U, Würgler F E, Katz A J, Frei H, Juon H, Hall C B & Kale P G (1984). Somatic mutation test in Drosophila melanogaster. *Environmental and Molecular Mutagenesis* 6: 153-188.https://doi.org/10.1002/em.2860060206
- Güngör B Ö (2003). Agricultural pollution and removal methods, In: V. Ulusal Çevre Mühendisliği Kongresi, Ankara, 1- 4 Ekim 2003 (In Turkish)
- Ha Y L, Storkson J & Pariza M W (1990). Inhibition of benzo(a) pyrene-induced mouse forestomach neoplasia by conjugated dienoic derivatives of linoleic-acid. *Cancer Research* 50(4): 1097-1101
- IPCS (International Programme on Chemical Safety) (1990). International Programme on Chemical Safety Environmental Health Criteria 98 Tetrametrin. World Health Organization, Geneva. https://www.who.int/ipcs/en/
- Izquierdo-Vega J, Morales-González J, Sánchez Gutiérrez M, Betanzos-Cabrera G, Sosa-Delgado S, Sumaya-Martínez M, Morales-González Á, Paniagua-Pérez R, Madrigal-Bujaidar E & Madrigal-Santillán E (2017). Evidence of some natural products with antigenotoxic effects. Part 1: fruits and polysaccharides. *Nutrients* 9(2): 102.https://doi.org/10.3390/nu9020102
- Jacobsen-Pereira C H, DosSantos C R, Maraslis F T, Pimentel L, Feijó A J L, Silva C I, Medeiros G S, Zeferino R C, Pedrosa R C & Maluf S W (2018). Markers of genotoxicity and oxidative stress in farmers exposed to pesticides. *Ecotoxicology and Environmental Safety* 148: 177-183.https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecoenv.2017.10.004

Jain S, Shrivastava S, Nayak S & Sumbhate S (2007). Recent trends in Curcuma longa Linn. Pharmacognosy Reviews 1: 119-128

- Jan S A, Shinwari Z K & Malik M (2018). Antioxidant and anticancer activities of *Brassica rapa*: a review. *Med Crave Online Journal of Biology and Medicine (MOJBM)* 3(5): 175-178. DOI: 10.15406/mojbm.2018.03.00094
- Kanimozhi D & Bai V R (2012). Evaluation of antimicrobial activity of Cynodondactylon. International Journal of Research in Pharmaceutical Sciences (IJRPS) 2(2): 34-43

- Kızılet H & Uysal H (2018). Induced Genotoxicity in Human Lymphocytes by Neonicotinoids. Cumhuriyet Science Journal 39(1): 201-210 (In Turkish). DOI: 10.17776/csj.406158
- K1ztlet H & Uysal H (2019). Induced somatic mutation during chronic exposure of chlorfenson on *Drosophila melanogaster* Oregon R (wild type). *Drosophila Information Service* 102:4-8. https://www.ou.edu/journals/dis/DIS102/DIS102.pdf
- Kızılet H, Yilmaz B & Uysal H (2019). Herbal medicine against genotoxicity of dimethoate, an insecticide, in mammalian somatic cells. *Heliyon* 5(3): e01337. doi:10.1016/j.heliyon.2019. e01337
- Kumlay A M, Yıldız Ö, Yurt B & Zengin H (2010). Some wild edible plants consumed traditionally in IğdırTürkiye. 1. In: 1. Traditional Foods from the Adriatic to the Caucasus Symposium 15-17 April, Tekirdağ, pp. 904
- Larson R A (1988). The antioxidants of higher plants. Phytochemistry 27: 969-978.https://doi.org/10.1016/0031-9422(88)80254-1
- Mazmancı B, Tamer L & Aşkın A (2008). Investigation of acute toxic effects of lambda-cyhalothrin in rats. *Mersin Üniversitesi Sağlık Bilimleri Dergisi* 1: 15-9 (In Turkish). https://dergipark.org.tr/tr/pub/mersinsbd/issue/19517/207886
- Meister R T (1999). Farm chemicals handbook '99. Meister Publishing Company. Willoughby, Ohio ISSN: 0430-0750
- Miller T A & Salgado V L (1985). The mode of action of pyrethroids on insects. In: J P Leahey (Eds), Pyrethroid Insecticides, Taylor & Francis, London pp. 43-97
- Mokrey L E & Hoagland K D (1989). Acute toxicities offive synthetic pyrethroid insecticides to *daphniamagna and ceriodaphniadubia*. Environmental Toxicology and Chemistry 9: 1045-1051.https://doi.org/10.1002/etc.5620090811
- Naeem F & Khan S H (2013). Purslane (Portulacaoleracea L.) as phytogenic substance a review. Journal of Herbs, Spices & Medicinal Plants 19: 216-232 https://doi.org/10.1080/10496475.2013.782381
- Özyurt E, Kızılet H & Uysal H (2018). Bio-Interaction of Chlordane on Non-Target Organisms. Commagene Journal of Biology 2(1): 48-54 (In Turkish).https://doi.org/10.31594/commagene.418411
- Panda S, Jafri M, Kar A & Meheta B K (2009). Thyroid inhibitory, antiperoxidative and hypoglycemic effects of stigmasterol isolated from Butea monosperma. Fitoterapia 80(2): 123-126.https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fitote.2008.12.002
- Pazır F & Turan F (2017). Various removal methods of some pesticide residues in fruits and vegetables. *Journal of Food and Health Science* 3(3): 109-116 (In Turkish).doi: 10.3153/JFHS17014
- Plazar J, Filipic M & Groothuis G M (2008). Antigenotoxic effect of xanthohumol in rat liver slices. *Toxicology in Vitro* 22: 318-327.https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tiv.2007.09.009
- Poprac P, Jomova K, Simunkova M, Kollar V, Rhodes C J & Valko M (2017). Targeting free radicals in oxidative stress-related human diseases. *Trends in pharmacological sciences* 38(7): 592-607 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tips.2017.04.005
- Rahmouni F, Saoudi M, Amri N, El-Feki A, Rebai T & Badraoui R (2018). Protective effect of *Teucriumpolium* on carbon tetrachloride induced genotoxicity and oxidative stress in rats. *Archives of Physiology and Biochemistry* 124(1): 1-9.https://doi.org/10.1080/13813455.2017.1347795
- Robert L (2002). Metcalf "Insect Control" in Ullmann's Encyclopedia of Industrial Chemistry" Wiley-VCH, Weinheim. doi:10.1002/14356007.a14_263
- Rooney D E & Czepulkowski B H (1986). Human Cytogenetics: a practicalapproach. First ed, IRL Press, Oxford, London
- Rukshana M S, Doss A & KumariPushpa Rani T P (2017). Phytochemical screening and GC-MS analysis of leaf extract of Pergulariadaemia (Forssk) Chiov. Asian Journal of Plant Science & Research (AJPSKY) 7(1): 9-15
- Sadowska-Woda I, Popowicz D & Karowicz-Bilińska A (2010). Bifenthrin-induced oxidative stress in human erythrocytes in vitro and protective effect of selected flavonols. *Toxicology in Vitro* 24: 460-464.https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tiv.2009.09.024
- Scollon E J, Starr J M, Crofton K M, Wolansky M J, DeVito M J & Hughes M F (2011). Correlation of tissue concentrations of the pyrethroidbifenthrin with neurotoxicity in the rat. *Toxicology* 290: 1-6.https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tox.2011.08.002
- Shahidi F & Ambigaipalan P (2015). Phenolics and polyphenolics in foods, beverages and spices: Antioxidant activity and health effects-A review. *Journal of Functional Foods* 18: 820-897.https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jff.2015.06.018
- Shahidi F (2009). Nutraceutical and functional foods: whole versus processed foods. *Trends in Food Science and Technology* 20: 376-387 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tifs.2008.08.004
- Sharma A, Vijayakumar M, Rao C V, Unnikrishnan M K & Reddy G D (2009). Action of *Portulacaoleracea* against streptozotocin-induced oxidative stress in experimental diabetic rats. *Journal of Complementary and Integrative Medicine* 6: 1-12.https://doi.org/10.2202/1553-3840.1181
- Simopoulos A P (2004). Omega-3 fatty acids and antioxidants in edible wild plants. *Biological Research* 37: 263-277. http://dx.doi.org/10.4067/S0716-97602004000200013
- Singh R, Kumar N, Mehra R, Kumar H & Singh V P (2020). Progress and challenges in the detection of residual pesticides using nanotechnology based colorimetric techniques. *Trends in Environmental Analytical Chemistry* 26: e00086. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.teac.2020.e00086
- Soderlund D M, Clarkb J M, Sheetsc L P, Mullind L S, Piccirilloe V J, Sargentf D, Stevensg J T & Weiner M L (2002). Mechanisms of pyrethroid neurotoxicity: implications for cumulative risk assessment. *Toxicology* 171: 3-59.https://doi.org/10.1016/S0300-483X(01)00569-8
- Soltani F, Mosaffa F, Iranshahi M, Karimi G, Malekaneh M, Haghighi F & Behravan J (2009). Evaluation of antigenotoxicity effects of umbelliprenin on human peripheral lymphocytes exposed to oxidative stres. *Cell Biology and Toxicology* 25: 291-296.https://doi.org/10.1007/s10565-008-9083-9
- Tiryaki O, Canhilal R & Horuz S (2010). The use of pesticides and their risks. *Erciyes University Journal of the Institute of Science and Technology* 26(2): 154-169 (In Turkish). https://dergipark.org.tr/tr/download/article-file/236259
- Tran V, Hoffman N, Mofunanaya A, Pryor S C, Ojugbele O, McLaughlin A, Gibson L, Bonventre J A, Flynn K & Weeks B S (2006). Bifenthrin inhibits neurite outgrowth in differentiating PC12 cells. *Medical Science Monitor* 12: 57-62. https://www.medscimonit.com/abstract/index/idArt/445228/act/2
- Uysal H, Kızılet H, Ayar A & Taheri A (2015). The use of endemic Iranian plant, *Echiumamoenum* against the ethyl methanesulfonate and the recovery of mutagenic effects. *Toxicology and Industrial Health* 31(1): 44-51.https://doi.org/10.1177/0748233712468019
- Uysal H, Şişman T & Aşkın H (2006). *Drosophila* Biology and Crossover Methods (Extended 2nd Edition). Atatürk University Publications, ISBN: 975-442-111-0, No: 941, 53 s, Erzurum, Türkiye
- Walker M M & Keith L H (1992). EPA's pesticide fact sheet database. CRC Press, Chelsea. ISBN 0-87371-663-9

- Wolansky M J, Mc Daniel K L, Moser V C & Crofton K M (2007). Influence of dosing volume on the neurotoxicity of bifenthrin. *Neurotoxicology and Teratology* 29: 377-384.https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ntt.2007.01.007
- Xu B J, Yuan S H & Chang S K C (2007). Comparative studies on the antioxidant activities of nine common food legumes against copper induced human low-density lipoprotein oxidation *in vitro*. *Journal of Food Science* 72: 522-527. DOI: 10.1111/j.1750-3841.2007.00464.x
- Yang Y, Wu N & Wang C (2018). Toxicity of the pyrethroidbifenthrin insecticide. Environmental Chemistry Letters 16(4): 1377-1391.https://doi.org/10.1007/s10311-018-0765-0
- Yen G C, Chen H Y & Peng H H (2001). Evaluation of the cytotoxicity, mutagenicity and antimutagenicity of emerging edible plants. *Food and Chemical Toxicology* 39: 1045-1053.https://doi.org/10.1016/S0278-6915(01)00053-9
- Yu Q, Wang X & Xiong Z (2007). Comparative study of in vitro and in vivo anti-oxygen free radical effects of different parts of *Portulacaoleracea L. Practical Preventive Medicine* 2: 346-348



© 2022 by the author(s). Published by Ankara University, Faculty of Agriculture, Ankara, Turkey. This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.