

Prophylactic *In vivo* Neutralization Efficacy of Chitosan-Encapsulated Seed Extract of *Tamarindus indica* Against *Naja nigricollis* Venom-Induced Lethality and Coagulopathy

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ABSTRACT

Naja nigricollis is a medically significant venomous snake in Nigeria, particularly in the Northern regions, where it causes hundreds of annual deaths and permanent disabilities in rural communities. This study evaluated the prophylactic neutralization efficacy of chitosan-encapsulated extract of *Tamarindus indica* seed against *N. nigricollis* envenomation in mice. *In vivo* neutralization of venom-induced lethality and coagulopathy were determined using standard methods. Lethality neutralization study revealed that encapsulated unencapsulated extracts dose-dependently neutralized the venom lethality. At 400 mg/kg, LD₅₀ and 5 LD₅₀, respectively conferred 100% survival in the envenomed mice at venom doses of 3 and 5 LD₅₀, respectively. Furthermore, encapsulated extract achieved 75% and 50% at 3 LD₅₀ clotting time (1.00 min and 1.50 min, respectively). Remarkably, the efficacy of the encapsulated extract was comparable (p > 0.05) to Echitab plus at 100 mg/kg body weight and normal control. In contrast, unencapsulated extract showed higher levels of bleeding time and clotting time (1.42 min and 2.25 min, respectively) compared to these groups. Similarly, encapsulated extract exhibited higher protective efficacy against venom-induced haemorrhage (82% inhibition) which was significantly higher (p < 0.05) than unencapsulated extract (73% inhibition). The efficacy of encapsulated extract was comparable to that of Echitab plus with 83% inhibition. To our knowledge this is the first study evaluating the neutralization efficacy of chitosan-encapsulated extract of *T. indica* see against *N. nigricollis*. The chitosan-encapsulated extract shows promise as a phytotherapeutic candidate for adjunctive snakebite therapy.

Keywords: *Naja nigricollis*, *Tamarindus indica*, antivenom, chitosan nanoparticles, lethality coagulopathy

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INTRODUCTION

Snakebites represent a public health hazard that leads to high morbidity and mortality especially in the African continent and Indian subcontinent. This tropical disease is classified under class

one of abandoned global health issues the World Health Organization (WHO) (Sofyantoro *et al.*, 2022). Malik *et al.* (2021) reported an annual incidence snakebite of 497/100,000 and a mortality of 12.2% in Savannah Region of North Nigeria. Although, the data available

epidemiology statistics for occurrence and death as a result of snakebite incidence are said to be underestimated, this is due to inadequate computer-based and instant research software and tools needed in Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa where snakebite incident is endemic (Farooq *et al.*, 2022). Another reason for the perceived low data estimation record of snakebite injuries, especially in Africa, is limited attendance to health facilities by most of the snakebite victims and this practice is against the WHO guidelines on first aid treatment of snakebite for Africa (Chippaux, 2021).

The cobras originated from Africa and belonged to the family Elapidae, this snake species is the most regular snake associated with snakebite cases in hospitals (Deikumah *et al.*, 2023). Generally, these spitting cobras have active venom that causes ulceration and necrosis within the bite site, accompanied by systemic neurotoxic effects. Hospital records revealed that the black-necked spitting cobra (*Naja nigricollis*) is the most urbanized and clinically essential snake in Northern Nigeria (Musah *et al.*, 2022). Administration of serum-based antivenoms remain the cornerstone for the treatment of snakebites. However, challenges such as limited available, cold transport chain, allergic reactions, and exorbitant cost limited the use of these antivenoms (Gamulin *et al.*, 2023). Thus, it is imperative to search for generally available, effective, and cost-friendly alternatives such as medicinal plants extracts.

Tamarindus indica of the Fabaceae, subfamily Caesalpinioideae, is an important food in the tropics. Asian countries such as India and Myanmar have used *Tamarindus indica* for the treatment of snakebite (Ghaly *et al.*, 2023). Although

this plant extracts have been explored for the treatment of snakebites, its effectiveness is believed to be reduced due to poor solubility and stability resulting from lower concentration of bioactive principles at the target site (Faria *et al.*, 2024).

Nanotechnology has enabled significant improvements in the pharmacokinetic profiles, pharmacodynamic properties, and therapeutic efficacy of plant-derived bioactive compounds through controlled and targeted delivery systems. Nanocarrier encapsulation of plant extracts has demonstrated enhanced efficacy against diverse snakebite pathologies including snakebite envenomation. Chitosan nanoparticles exhibit low toxicity, high biocompatibility, tunable degradability, positioning it among the most promising nanocarriers for plant bioactive compounds (Kulabhusan *et al.*, 2020). This study aimed to evaluate the neutralization efficacy of chitosan encapsulated extract of *T. indica* against *N. nigricollis* venom-induced lethality and coagulopathy.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Collection and identification of plant material

The whole parts *Tamarindus indica* were collected from Bosso, Minna, Niger state, Nigeria (Latitude 13° 4' 48.84" N, Longitude 13° 18' 37.08" E) on the 17th of September 2024. The plant material was identified at the Department of Plant Biology, Federal University of Technology, Minna, Nigeria with voucher number FUT.MIN/SLS/PB-020-024 and the specimen was deposited at the herbarium unit of the University.

Chemicals and reagents

Chemicals and reagents

The chemicals and reagents used in this study were of analytical grade, and products of Central Drug House (CDH)-India. The chemicals and reagents employed in this study include distilled water, phosphate buffer, chitosan, acetic acid, phosphate-buffered saline, sodium tripolyphosphate, potassium hexacyanoferrate (III), among others.

Preparation of chitosan nanoparticles

Chitosan solution concentration of 1% w/v was prepared by dissolving 1 g of chitosan with deacetylation degree of 90 in 100 mL of 1% acetic acid. The mixture was stirred on a magnetic stirrer at a temperature of 37 °C until the chitosan had completely dissolved (indicated by appearance of clear solution). Then, 5 mL of tripolyphosphate (TPP) solution (0.5% w/v) was slowly added to the chitosan solution at the rate 0.2 mL/minute with continuous stirring. Afterwards, the solution was further stirred for 1 hour at room temperature (37 °C) to ensure homogeneity. Finally, the chitosan nanoparticles were separated by centrifugation at a speed of 20,000 g and temperature of 4 °C for 30 minutes (Farid *et al.*, 2024).

Encapsulation of *T. indica* seed extract in chitosan nanoparticles

To encapsulate the *T. indica* seed extract in chitosan nanoparticles, 3 g of the synthesized chitosan nanoparticles were dissolved in 30 mL of 1% acetic acid and stirred on a magnetic stirrer until complete dissolution. Thereafter, 15 mL of *T. indica* seed extract (10 mg/mL) was added to the solution of chitosan nanoparticles. The mixture was stirred for 1 hour to ensure the extract was maximally entrapped (Farid *et al.*, 2024).

Experimental animals

A total of one hundred and fifty (150) mice weighing 31 ± 2.00 g were purchased from Murine Top Farms, Minna, Niger State, Nigeria. The animals were kept in polypropylene cages under environmental conditions of temperature 27 ± 2 °C and relative humidity 46-53%. The animals were given free access to water and fed with pelletized commercial grower feed (Vital Feeds, Jos Nigeria) *ad libitum*. The experiment was performed following the review protocol (1997) of Canadian Council on Animal care and use guidelines. Ethical clearance number 00021 was issued by FUT, MINNA/Nigeria Ethical Review Committee.

Animal grouping in anti-antivenin studies

There was execution of a fully randomized design experiment in which animals of equal number (n= 4), body weight, and gender were randomly allocated to different experimental groups as shown below:

Group 1 (Naive control): administered 2 mL/kg body weight normal saline

Group 2 (Positive control): envenomed and administered 100 mg/kg body weight of echitab plus

Group 3 (Negative control): intoxicated and administered 2 mL/kg body weight normal saline

Group 4: envenomed and administered 100 mg/kg body weight encapsulated extract

Group 5: envenomed and administered 200 mg/kg body weight encapsulated extract

Group 6: envenomed and administered 400 mg/kg body weight encapsulated extract

Group 7: envenomed and administered 100 mg/kg body weight unencapsulated extract

Group 8: envenomed and administered 200 mg/kg body weight unencapsulated extract

Group 9: envenomed and administered 400 mg/kg body weight unencapsulated extract

Group 10: envenomed and administered 400 mg/kg body weight chitosan nanoparticles

Neutralization of Lethality

The prophylactic neutralization of *N. nigricollis* venom lethality by the encapsulated and unencapsulated extracts of *T. indica* seed was carried out following the method described by Muhammad *et al.* (2022) with slight modifications. The *in vivo* neutralization potencies of the extracts were assessed by intraperitoneal (i.p) administration of 3 LD₅₀ and 5 LD₅₀ doses of the venom into different groups of mice. The 3 LD₅₀ and 5 LD₅₀ doses of the venom were respectively administered one hour (1 h) after the oral administration of various doses of the encapsulated and unencapsulated extracts.

Determination of bleeding time

The bleeding time of the mice envenomed with 5LD₅₀ of the venom was measured using the method of Deshpande *et al.* (2022) with slight modifications. Thirty minutes after respectively administering the extracts (i.e encapsulated and unencapsulated extracts), the venom (at dose of 5LD₅₀) was intraperitoneally injected into the mice. Pressure was built

at the tail of the animal by stroking it with fingers after thirty minutes (30 min) of venom administration. Then a sterile needle was used to puncture one of the blood vessels lying alongside the tail. Gently but completely with filter paper every 20 sec until bleeding ceases. The time of the first appearance of blood stopping of the blood flow was taken as bleeding time.

Determination of clotting time

The clotting time of the mice envenomed with 5LD₅₀ of the venom was evaluated using capillary coagulation method as described by Deshpande *et al.* Mice were respectively administered different doses of encapsulated and unencapsulated extracts thirty minutes prior to venom injection. Non-heparinized capillary tube was used to collect blood from the retro-orbital plexus of the mice. The tube was filled with blood through capillary action until within 10-15 intervals, one half of the capillary tube was carefully broken off at one end and pulled apart to look for the appearance of a fibrin clot which is an indication of clotting. The breaking of the tube was done at 20 sec intervals until fibrin clot was seen. The time it took the thrombus to form was taken as the clotting time.

Determination of anti-haemorrhagic activity

The minimum haemorrhagic dose (MHD) of *N. nigricollis* venom was determined using the method described by Muhammad *et al.* (2022). The minimum haemorrhagic dose is defined as the least amount of venom which when injected intraperitoneally into mice results in a haemorrhage of 10 mm diameter in a prophylactic study, the MHD

was intradermally injected in to the shaved dorsal skin of the mice in their respective groups 30 min following oral administration of different doses of the encapsulated and unencapsulated extracts.

RESULTS

Figure 1 shows the prophylactic venom-induced lethality neutralization efficacy of *T. indica* seed extract in both encapsulated (EE) and unencapsulated (UE) forms against *N. nigricollis* at venom at 3 LD₅₀. All envenomed mice and in the untreated group (negative control) exhibited 100% mortality (0% survival). Treatment with either EE or UE increased survival rates,

though EE demonstrated higher neutralization capacity compared to UE. UE exhibited higher neutralization potential compared to the unencapsulated extract. Both extracts showed dose-dependent effects. At 400 mg/kg, UE achieved 75% survival against 3 LD₅₀ venom, while EE at the same dose conferred 100% survival. The positive control (Echitab plus, 100 mg/kg) also showed 100% survival. In contrast, chitosan nanoparticles (CNPs) alone (400 mg/kg) conferred no protection (0% survival), confirming that neutralization requires bioactive compounds rather than nanocarrier materials.

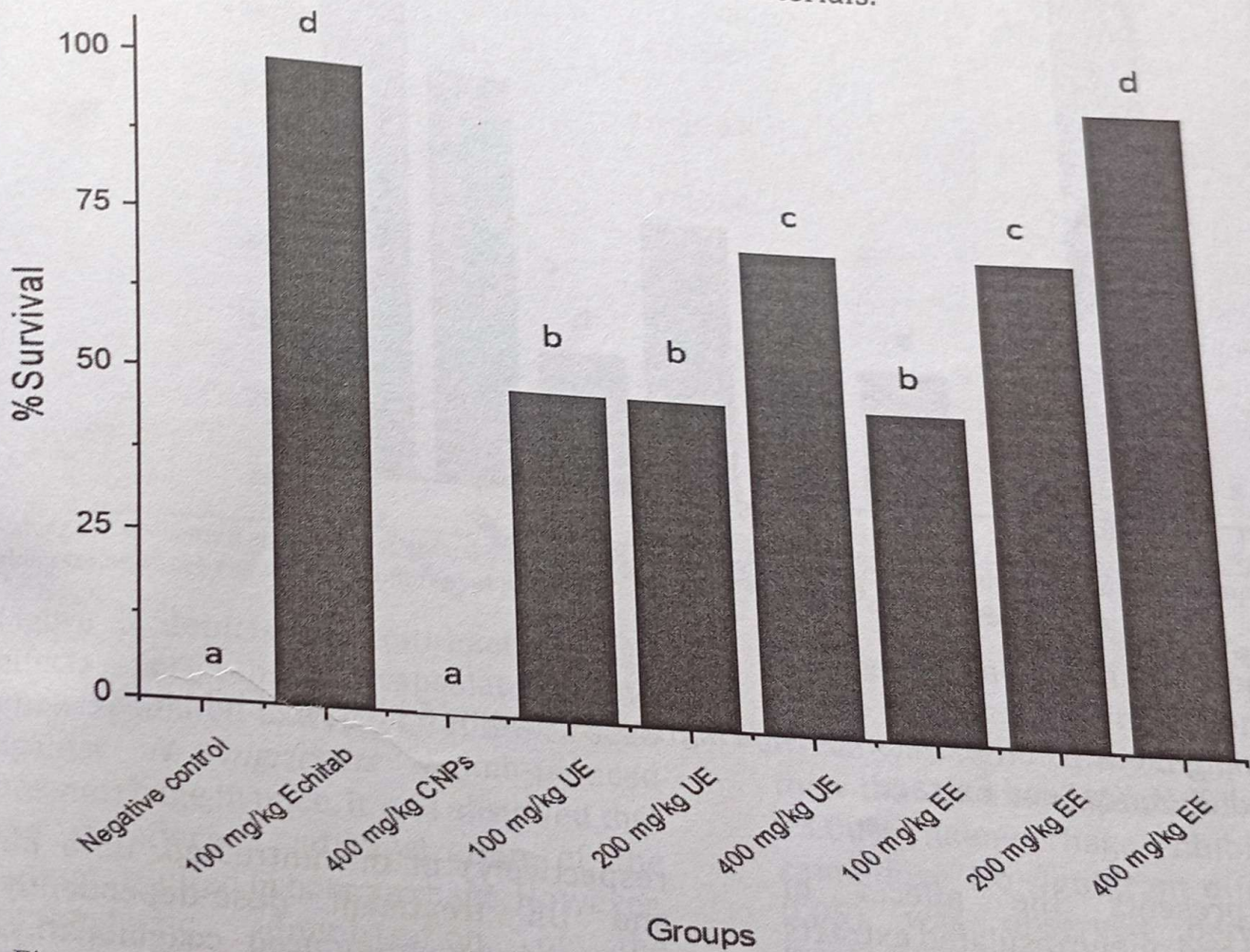


Figure 1: Prophylactic Neutralization of *Naja nigricollis* venom (3 LD₅₀) by Chitosan-Encapsulated *indica* Seed Extract

Figure 2 illustrates the dose-dependent neutralization efficacy of encapsulated and unencapsulated extract of *T. indica* seed against *N. nigricollis* venom at 5LD₅₀. All untreated envelopes experienced 100% mortality (0% survival). However, the administration of either EE or UE significantly reduced percentage mortality (increased % survival rate), though EE exhibited higher efficacy. Consistent with

results at 3 LD₅₀, survival increased with extract dosage, with the highest survival being obtained at 400 mg/kg. EE showed 100% survival at 400 mg/kg, while 50% survival was obtained for UE at the same dose. In addition, mice for UE recorded 100% survival while 0% survival was obtained for CNPs.

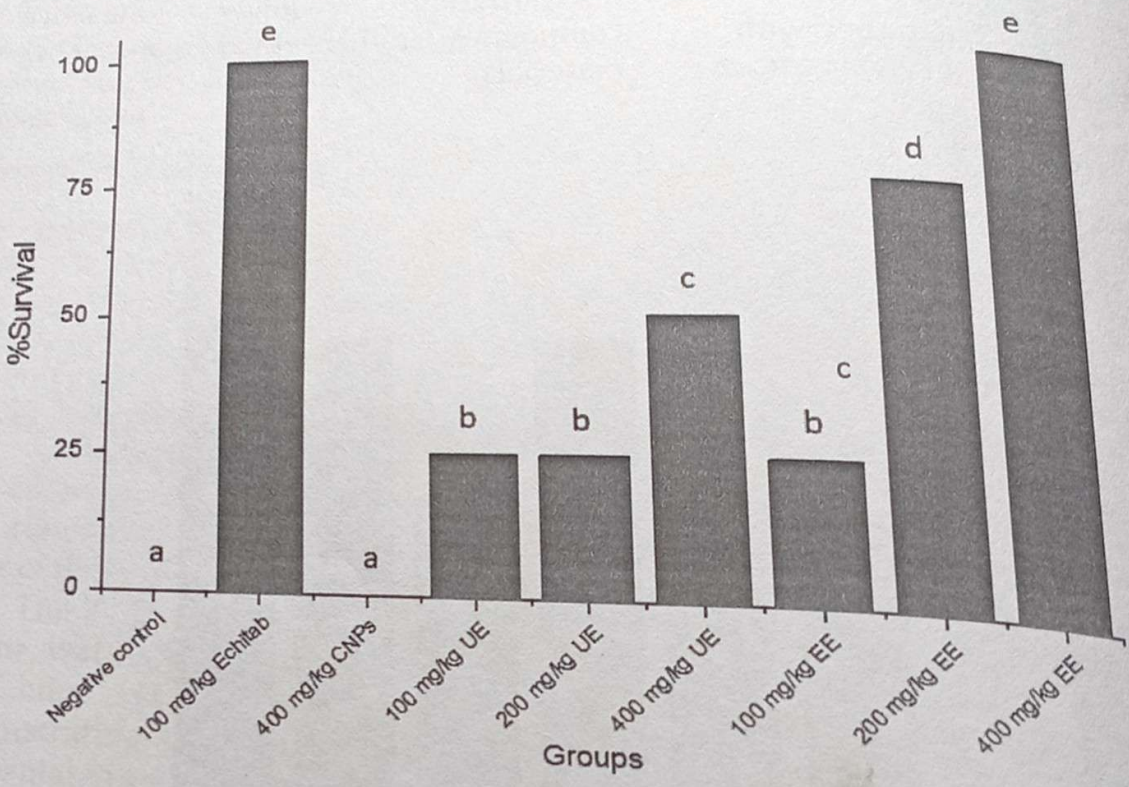


Figure 2: Prophylactic Neutralization of *Naja nigricollis* venom (5 LD₅₀) by Encapsulated *T. indica* Seed Extract

Table 1 presents the effects of encapsulated and unencapsulated extracts of *T. indica* seed on bleeding time (BT) and clotting time (CT) in mice envenomed with *N. nigricollis* venom (5 LD₅₀). Intraperitoneal venom injection significantly prolonged ($p < 0.05$) in BT and CT (4.08 min and 4.58 min,

respectively) in the untreated and UE treatment dose. Encapsulated extract significantly mitigated venom-induced BT and CT with maximal protection at 400 mg/kg (normalized BT and CT (1.00 min, respectively)). Note that 400 mg/kg showed comparable results to Echinacea plus (1.00 min

respectively) and normal control (1.00 min and 1.33 min, respectively) ($p > 0.05$). Conversely, UE (1.42 min and 2.25 min, respectively) remain significantly elevated compared to these groups ($p <$

0.05). Chitosan nanoparticles alone reduced BT (3.42 min) and CT (4.08 min), which were significantly lower than the untreated ($p < 0.05$) but significantly higher than the treated groups ($p < 0.05$).

Table 1: Prophylactic Efficacy of Chitosan-Encapsulated Extract of *T. indica* Seed on *Naja nigricollis*-induced coagulopathy in Mice

Treatment group	Bleeding time (minutes)	Clotting time (minutes)
Normal control	1.00±0.00 ^a	1.33±0.08 ^a
Negative control	4.08±0.08 ^e	4.58±0.08 ^f
Echitab plus	1.00±0.00 ^a	1.42±0.08 ^a
400 CNPs	3.42±0.08 ^d	4.08±0.08 ^e
100 UE	2.83±0.08 ^c	3.58±0.08 ^d
200 UE	2.67±0.08 ^c	3.08±0.08 ^c
400 UE	1.42±0.08 ^b	2.25±0.14 ^b
100 EE	1.50±0.00 ^b	3.08±0.08 ^c
200 EE	1.17±0.17 ^a	1.58±0.08 ^a
400 EE	1.00±0.00 ^a	1.50±0.14 ^a

Values are presented as mean ± standard error of mean (SEM) of three replicates. Values with different superscript along columns are significantly different at $p < 0.05$.

Figure 3 depicts the anti-haemorrhage effects of the encapsulated and unencapsulated extracts of *T. indica* seed against *N. nigricollis* venom-induced haemorrhage in mice. It was observed that the intradermal administration of the venom resulted in haemorrhage. However, prophylactic administration of the extracts mitigated the venom-induced haemorrhage. The effects of the extracts were observed to be dose dependent. Groups treated with 400 mg/kg body weight of the encapsulated extract showed

the highest haemorrhage-suppress with a haemorrhage inhibition of 8 which was significantly higher (p than that of unencapsulated extra 73.00% haemorrhage inhibition same dose. No significant difference (0.05) was observed between treated with encapsulated extract group treated with 100 mg/kg plus. Groups treated with 400 mg inhibited haemorrhage by only which was the least haemorrhage among treated groups.

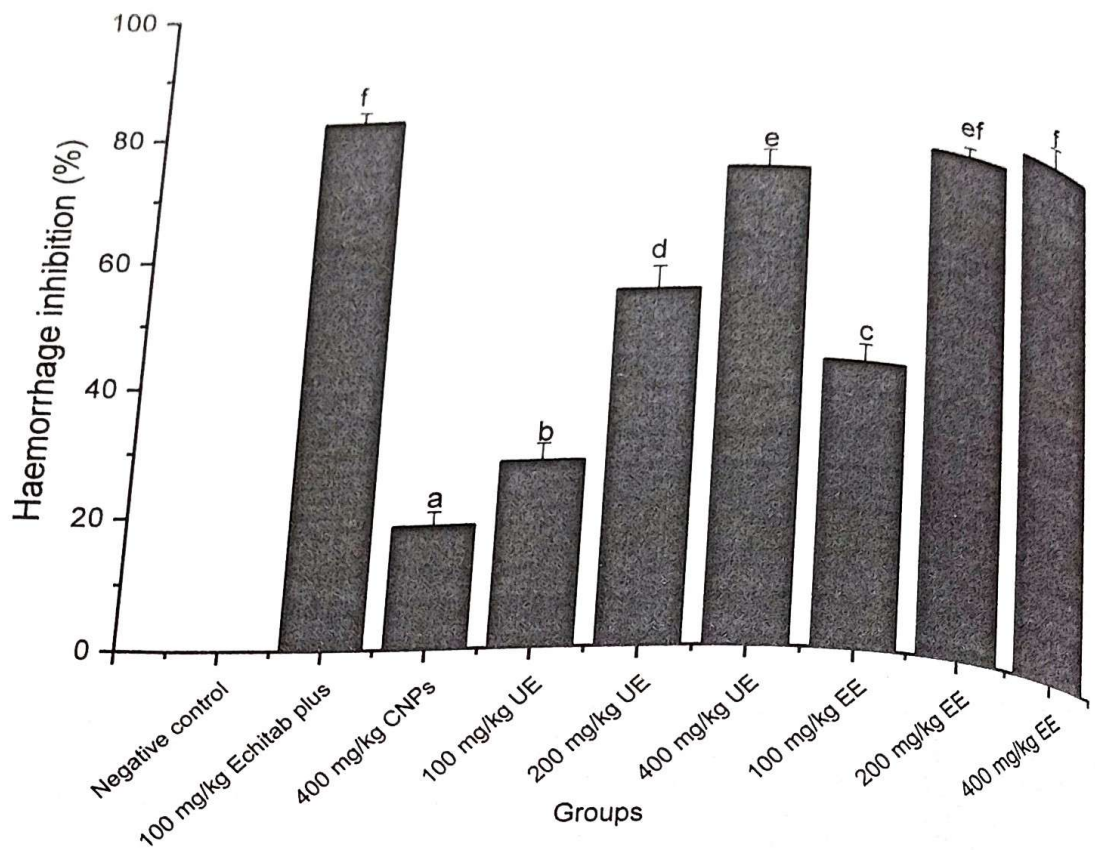


Figure 3: Prophylactic Efficacy of Chitosan-Encapsulated Extract of *T. indica* Seed on *N. nigricollis* Venom-induced haemorrhage.

DISCUSSION

This study revealed that both encapsulated and unencapsulated extract significantly neutralized the *N. nigricollis* venom-induced lethality, with encapsulated achieving 100% protection against the venom at 400 mg/kg body weight. To our knowledge, this is the study valuating the neutralization potentials of encapsulated and unencapsulated extracts of *T. indica* seed against *N. nigricollis* venom-induced lethality. *N. nigricollis* venom like other snake venoms contains

diverse array of toxins contributing to lethality through enzymatic hydrolysis (metalloproteinases, serine proteases, phospholipase A₂) or three-fingered and other non-enzymatic toxins that cause haemorrhage, coagulopathy, tissue damage ultimately resulting in death (Oliveira *et al.*, 2022). The mechanisms through which plant-derived antivenoms elicited their effects have been postulated including protein precipitation, enzyme inactivation/inhibition, chelation, adjuvant action, and antioxidant activity (Ravi *et al.*, 2024; Melo *et al.*, 2020).

such, the neutralization potential of the extracts against this snake venom could be attributed to one or combinations of these mechanisms.

Treatment of the envenomed mice with encapsulated and unencapsulated extracts of *T. indica* seed respectively mitigated the prolonged bleeding time and clotting time induced by the venom of *N. nigricollis*. Bleeding determines platelet function and vascular integrity by measuring primary haemostasis, which is the time for bleeding to stop after skin incision (Metkar & Saraf, 2023). Clotting time on the other hand measures secondary haemostasis (coagulation cascade) which is an essential tool for detecting life-threatening coagulopathy in snakebites. Venomous Snakes from the family 'Elapidae' have been shown to alter primary haemostasis by inhibiting platelet aggregation or destroying platelets using metalloproteinases, blocking platelets receptors (e.g GPIIb, α IIb β 3 integrin), or vascular damage by metalloproteinases (Alvitigala *et al.*, 2025). Furthermore, the secondary haemostasis is disturbed by direct conversion of fibrinogen to fibrin by the venom components resulting in rapid depletion of clotting factors, inhibition of blood clotting factors such as X, IX V, or thrombin, degradation of fibrin clots by metalloproteinases, and destruction of fibrinogen (Metkar & Saraf, 2023). Hence, the protective effects of the extracts could stem from their abilities to potently inhibit venom toxins, especially the activity of metalloproteinases resulting in restored primary and secondary haemostasis. Furthermore, the encapsulated and unencapsulated extracts of *T. indica* seed significantly mitigated venom-induced haemorrhage. However, the encapsulated extract was found to exert higher protective effect. Hemorrhage is said to be

an exceptional characteristic of haematotoxic snake venom brought about by the activity of proteases on the vascular endothelium (Tan *et al.*, 2021). Thus, the abilities of the extracts to significantly subdued the haemorrhagic effect of the venom could be attributed to their inhibitory effects on the activity of protease contained in the venom. In addition, the higher neutralization potential elicited by the encapsulated compared to unencapsulated extract is not a surprise since nanoencapsulation has been reported to shield plant extracts from oxidative degradation, improve pharmacokinetics and stability of plant extracts (Soltanzadeh *et al.*, 2021).

Conclusion

The encapsulated and unencapsulated extracts of *T. indica* seed exhibited significant in vivo antivenom effects, with encapsulated extract exhibiting higher neutralization effects. By implication, the encapsulated extract can be employed in the treatment or management of *N. nigricollis* envenomation or used as a drug lead for the development of efficacious antivenom against *N. nigricollis* envenomation. Further studies should be focused on isolation of bioactive compounds and in vivo antivenom evaluation of such compounds.

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