



Guava leaf extraction used for oral care

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Abstract :-

1.1. Pharmacognostic Profile:

In many tropical and subtropical areas, guavas are grown as a common tropical fruit. Native to Mexico, Central America, the Caribbean, and northern South America, the common guava, *Psidiumguajava*, often known as lemon guava or apple guava, is a tiny tree in the Myrtle family (Myrtaceae). Other species in the genus *Psidium*, including the pineapple guava, *Feijoaellowiana*, and strawberry guava, are also referred to as guava.

- Biological Source (of leaves): dried extract of *Psidiumguajava* leaves;
- Scientific Name: *Psidiumguajava*;
- Synonyms: Jaam, Peru, Amrood, Amrutam;
- Family: Myrtaceae;
- Geographic Source: India, Indonesia, Pakistan, Bangladesh, Mexico, Central America, Northern America
- Uses: Antimicrobial, Anticancer, Antidiabetic, Antioxidant, and Prevent Dental Caries • Chemical Constituents: Quercetin, Avicularin, Hyperin, Gallic Acid, Catechin, Epicatechin, Epigallocatechingallate, and Caffeic Acid

1.2. Characteristics: Guava trees are resilient, long-lived, and bear a lot of fruit. It is very important commercially. Growing guavas is incredibly profitable and little maintenance.

INTRODUCTION

1.3. Microscopic Analysis :-

- Shape :Quadrangular, Oval
- Size: 7.6 cm (3 inches)
- Texture: Elliptic Long Rough Textured
- Colour: Deep Green
- Odour: Aromatic
- Taste: Slightly Bitter, Herbaceous Drink

1.4. Producing States :

Guavas are grown throughout India. Uttar Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, Bihar, Andhra Pradesh, Haryana, Punjab, Maharashtra, West Bengal, Chhattisgarh, Gujarat, and Karnataka are the main states that produce guava. The most significant state for guava production is Uttar Pradesh. The highest-quality guavas in India and the world are renowned to be produced in Allahabad.

According to a National Horticulture Board (NHB) data, 983.59 ('000 MT) of guavas were produced in Uttar Pradesh alone, with a 21.78% share.

Bangladesh, the Netherlands, the United Arab Emirates, the United Kingdom, Nepal, Iran, Russia, Saudi Arabia, Oman, and Qatar are among the nations to which India exports guava fruits.

1.5. Climate Required :

Tropical and subtropical climates can also support guava cultivation. Its highest point is 5,000 feet (1500 meters) above sea level.

June through September, when there is less than 1000 mm of yearly rainfall, is when guavas bloom the most. Young plants need extra attention since they are more vulnerable to dry, cold conditions.

1.6. Soil Required :

A resilient plant, guava grows well in a range of soil types. It grows best in thick, well-drained soils. However, it is vulnerable to waterlogging. The ideal soil for guava is deep, friable, well-drained soil with rich topsoil because it is surface-rooted.

The surface of the soil should be rich. It has a pH between 4.5 and 8.2. Alkaline or saline soils are not suitable for guava cultivation.

India's guava exports have increased by 260% since 2013. From April-January 2013-14 to April 2021-22, exports increased from USD 0.58 million to USD 2.09 million.

1.7. Excipients :

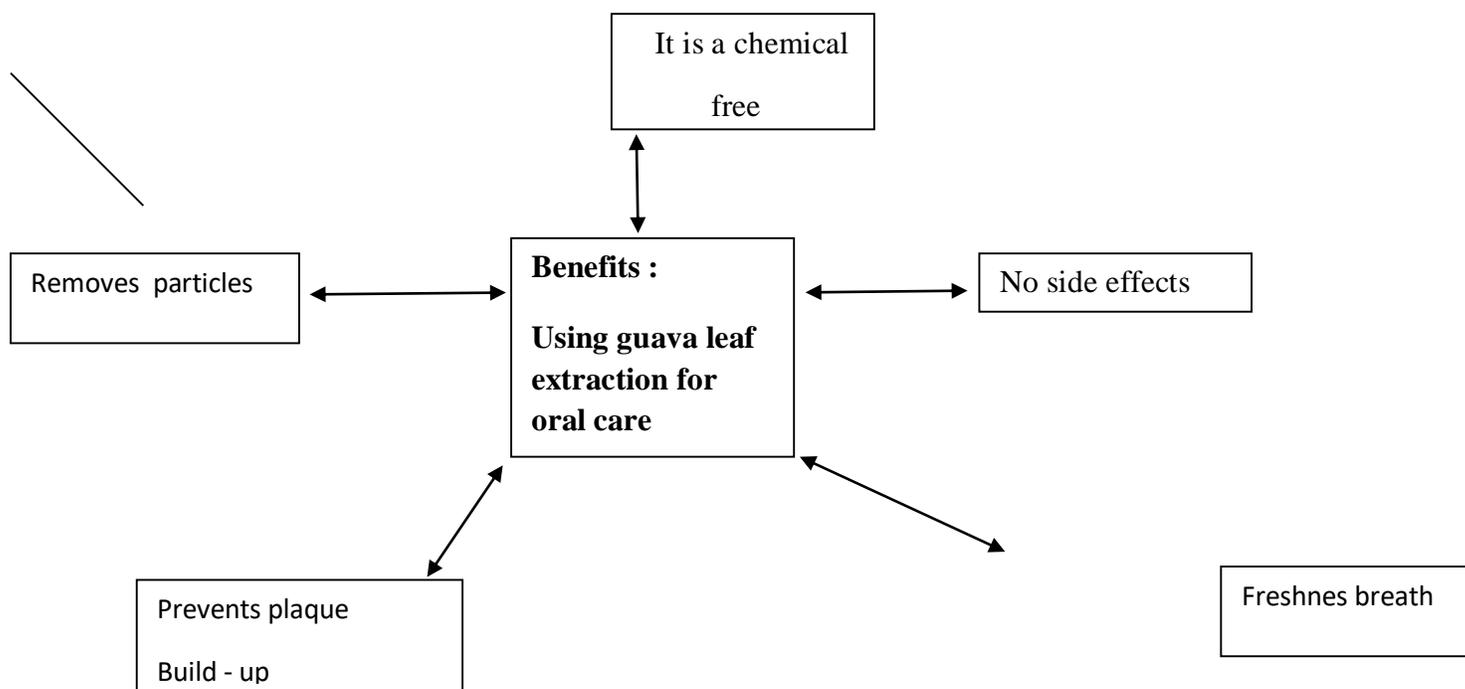
Ingredients	Use of the Ingredient
Water	As a base
Alcohol	As a vehicle

Menthol	As a breath freshner
Sorbitol	For hydration and sweetness
Sucralose	As a sweetner
Sodium Benzoate	To adjust the pH of the product
Benzoic Acid	Prevents microbial growth
Guava Leaves Extract	Provides antimicrobial, antioxidant and flavouring properties to the formulation.

1.8.Evaluation Parameters :

- Visual Inspection
- pH Test (Range 4.0 – 7.5)
- Viscosity
- Leakage Test
- Sterility Test
- Sucrose Concentration
- Alcohol Content
- Clarity Test

1.9. Benefits (Using Guava Leaf Extraction For Oral Care) :



2.DIFFERENT METHODS OF AUTHENTICATION OF PLANT:

- Macroscopic examinations
- Microscopic examinations
- Spectroscopy
- Chromatography etc.

3.DIFFERENT EXTRACTION METHODS:

- a. Plant Tissue Homogenization:** Researchers have employed plant tissue homogenization in solvent on a large scale. Fresh plant components, either wet or dried, are ground into tiny particles in a blender, added to a specific amount of solvent, and agitated rapidly for 5–10 minutes or left for 24 hours. The extract is then filtered. To find the concentration, the filtrate can then be dried at lower pressure and redissolved in the solvent. However, in order to clarify the extract, some researchers centrifuged the filtrate.
- b. Serial Exhaustive Extraction:** In order to guarantee that a broad range of compounds with varying polarities can be extracted, this popular extraction technique entails serial extraction using solvents of increasing polarity, starting with a non-polar solvent (hexane) and ending with a more polar solvent (methanol). Using an organic solvent, some researchers use Soxhlet extraction to remove dried plant material.

Since prolonged heating may cause the compounds to degrade, this approach cannot be applied to thermolabile chemicals.

- c. Soxhlet extraction:** (hot continuous extraction): This technique involves putting a finely ground crude medication in a porous bag, or "thimble," constructed of sturdy filter paper, and placing it within the Soxhlet equipment' chamber. After heating the extracting solvent in the flask, its fumes condense in the condenser. The crude medicine is extracted by contact with the condensed extractant that drips into the thimble. The liquid contents of the chamber esiphon into the flask when the liquid level reaches the top of the siphon tube. Until a drop of solvent from the siphon tube evaporates without leaving any residue, this process is repeated continuously. This approach has the benefit of recycling a single batch of solvent rather than passing numerous portions of heated solvent through the sample. Compared to other techniques, a significantly smaller volume of solvent is needed to extract large amounts of medication.

Maceration In Maceration: In a stoppered container, whole or coarsely ground plant material is kept in contact with the solvent for a predetermined amount of time (at least three days) while being frequently stirred until the soluble material dissolves (for fluid extract). The combination is then strained, the combined liquids are purified by filtration or decantation after standing, and the wet solid material is compressed. When it comes to thermolabile medications, this approach works well.

- d. Decoction:** By boiling a crude drug in a given volume of water for a predetermined amount of time (at least 15 minutes), cooling, straining, or filtering, and then passing enough cold water through the drug to create the necessary volume, this method is used to extract the water-soluble and heat-stable constituents from the drug. This process works well for extracting components that are heat stable and soluble in water. Usually, decoction is used to make "quath" or "kawath," two Ayurvedic extracts. The first crude drug to water ratio, for as 1:4 or 1:10, is set. During the extraction process, the volume is then boiled until it is just one-fourth of its initial volume. After filtering, the concentrated extract is either used straight away or undergoes additional processing.
- e. Infusion:** It is a dilute solution of the readily soluble components of the crude drugs. Fresh infusions are prepared by macerating the solids for a short period of time with either cold or boiling water. Fresh infusions are prepared by macerating the crude drug for a short period of time with cold or boiling water. These are dilute solutions of the readily soluble constituents of crude drugs.
- f. Digestion:** This type of maceration involves applying a small amount of heat throughout the extraction process. It is employed when a slightly higher temperature is acceptable and the menstrual fluid's solvent efficiency is improved.
- g. Percolation:** When making tinctures and fluid extracts, this is the method most commonly employed to extract the active components. The most common type is a percolator, which is a narrow, cone-shaped jar

that is open at both ends. The mass is packed and the percolator's top is sealed after the solid ingredients are moistened with a suitable quantity of the designated menstrum and left to stand for around four hours in a tightly sealed container. The mixture is left to macerate in the closed percolator for 30 hours after more menstrum is added to create a shallow layer above the mass. After that, the percolator's outlet is opened, allowing the liquid inside to slowly trickle. As needed, more menstrum is added till the percolate.

- h. Sonication:** Ultrasound with frequencies between 20 kHz and 2000 kHz is used in the operation; this causes cavitation and enhances the permeability of cell membranes. The procedure can be helpful in certain situations, such as when a root needs to be extracted, but its widespread use is constrained by its higher expenses. One drawback of the process is the known but infrequent harmful impact of ultrasonic energy (more than 20 kHz) on the active ingredients of medicinal plants, which results in the production of free radicals and unfavorable alterations in the drug molecules.
- i. Supercritical Fluid Extraction (SFE):** The most sophisticated extraction technique in terms of technology is this one. Super Critical Fluid Extraction (SFE) is the process of compressing gases—typically CO₂—into a dense liquid. After that, the liquid is forced through a cylinder that holds the substance that has to be removed. The liquid containing the extract is then pushed into a separation chamber, where the gas is collected for further use and the extract is separated from it. By altering the temperature and pressure at which one operates, one can control and modify the solvent characteristics of CO₂. The flexibility SFE provides in identifying the components you wish to extract from a particular material and the fact that your product has almost no solvent residues remaining (CO₂ evaporates entirely) are its benefits. The pricey nature of this technology is a drawback. When under pressure, a variety of different gases and liquids function quite effectively as extraction solvents.
- j. Alcoholic Extraction:** The extracts were made by soaking 5 g of giloy stem powder in 100 ml of each of methanol, ethanol, petroleum ether, and water and shaking thoroughly. The solution was allowed to sit at room temperature.
- k. 1**
- l.** Temperature for 72 hours prior to filter paper filtering. Further phytochemical analysis was conducted using the filtrate.

4.ISOLATION AND PURIFICATION TECHNIQUE:

4.1.Thin Layer Chromatography (TLC): Chromatography of Thin Layers (TLC) Silica gel G (250 µm thick) was applied on top of thin glass plates (20 × 20 cm). The freshly made plates were allowed to air dry at room temperature before being activated for 30 minutes at 1000 C and then allowed to cool to room temperature. Analysis was conducted using the recently manufactured and activated plates. Using real flavonoids as a marker, each extract was co-chromatographed. (Quercetin).An airtight chromatographic chamber filled with a solvent mixture (benzene, acetic acid, and water: 125:72:3) was used to produce these plates. After being exposed to ammonia fumes and allowed to air dry, the generated plates were examined under UV light. Fluorescent spots that matched those of conventional markers were marked when the lip of a 100 mL container filled with concentrated NH₄OH was held

in contact with each area for five to ten seconds. Additionally, 5% FeCl₃ and 0.1% alcoholic AlCl₃ were sprayed on the formed plates, which were then stored separately in an I₂ chamber. Each spot's R_f value was determined after the colored spots were noted.

4.2.Preparative Thin Layer Chromatography (PTLC) : PTLC of flavonoid extracts was performed by spotting the extract and standard markers (quercetin) on silica gel G coated plates (BDH; 500µm in thickness). These plates were air dried, developed in a benzene, acetic acid, and water (125:72:3) solvent mixture, and then inspected under a UV lamp. Every area that matched the standard markers was identified, scraped off of 200 plates, and then eluted using 50% methanol. To check their purity, the eluted fractions were filtered, allowed to air dry, and then co-chromatographed once more with standard markers. Separate crystallization tests were performed on the eluted fractions to determine their melting points (MP) and mixed melting points (mmp). Additionally, spectral analyses in the ultraviolet and infrared ranges were performed on the isolates. HPLC analyses were also performed on this purified substance.

4.3.High Performance Liquid Chromatography (HPLC) :

The following parameters were used: 1 ml/min flow rate, 20 µl of sample injected, detection at λ 202 nm, and HPLC crude methanol (100) as the eluent. The analysis binary pump assembly (Elico Private Limited with C-18 Column) was used.

The extract was dissolved in one milliliter of 100% methanol before to injection. All test parameters covering the range of samples and concentrations involved were used to evaluate the method's validity. Three separate tests were conducted. The integrated peak area and concentration of the same standard, reported as the sample's recovery percentage, were used to create a standard curve.

Because it is simple to learn and use and is not impacted by the stability or volatility of the sample chemical, HPLC is a widely used technology for the analysis of herbal medicines. Generally speaking, practically every chemical found in herbal medications may be analyzed using HPLC. Thus, HPLCS analysis has been used over the previous few decades.

HPLC is a widely used technique for analyzing herbal medicines because it is simple to understand and apply, and it is not constrained by the stability or volatility of the sample ingredient. Generally speaking, practically every chemical found in herbal medications may be analyzed using HPLC. As a result, it has been used the most in the analysis of herbal remedies in recent decades. Perhaps the most widely utilized columns for the analytical separation of herbal medications are reversed-phase (RP) columns. It is important to note that a variety of parameters, including the various mobile phase compositions, pump pressures, and pH adjustments, affect the HPLC's ideal separation conditions. Therefore, it appears that a good experimental design is often required for the best separation.

Recently, various new methods have been created in the field of liquid chromatography research to achieve greater separation. These include reversed phase ion-pairing HPLC (RPIP-HPLC), low-pressure size-exclusion chromatography (SEC), high-speed counter current chromatography (HSCCC), micellar electrokinetic capillary chromatography (MECC), and strong anion-exchange HPLC (SAX-HPLC).

They will offer fresh chances for effective separation for certain herbal medicinal components. However, since many of the chemical compounds in herbal medicines are non-chromophoric, the commonly used HPLC detector, such as a single wavelength UV detector, appears to be unable to perform the task. On the other hand, the benefits of HPLC lie in its versatility for the analysis of the chemical compounds in herbal medicines. As a result, the utilization of HPLC analysis in conjunction with evaporative light scattering detection (ELSD) has significantly increased in the last ten years, proving that ELSD is a great detection technique for non-chromophoric substance analysis.

Since ELSD's response is solely dependent on the size, shape, and quantity of eluate particles—rather than the analysis structure and/or chromophore of analytes, as UV detectors do—this new detector opens the door to the

direct HPLC analysis of numerous pharmacologically active ingredients in herbal medicines. In particular, this method works well for creating the fingerprints of herbal medications. Furthermore, because they rely on the use of hyphenated HPLC techniques, such as HPLC-IR, HPLC-MS, and HPLC-NMR, for the analysis of herbal medicines, it is not feasible to do a qualitative analysis or provide a structural explanation of the chemical components in herbal drugs using basic HPLC.

4.4 High Performance Thin Layer Chromatography (HPTLC): It is a typical fingerprint that is primarily used to analyze substances with low or moderate polarity. In the pharmaceutical business, the HPTLC technology is frequently utilized for process development, adulterant and substitute detection, pesticide content identification, mycotoxin detection, and quality control of herbal and health goods. Gallic acid, rutin, and quercetin were all simultaneously estimated using the HPTLC approach. Additionally, the HPTLC approach for phytoconstituents in herbal formulations or crude medications.

4.5. Super Critical Fluid Chromatography (SFC): Combining some of the best aspects of gas and liquid chromatography, supercritical fluid chromatography is a hybrid. A set of substances that are difficult for gas or liquid chromatography to handle can be separated and determined using SFC. Natural goods, medications, food, and pesticides are just a few of the things to which SFC has been applied. These substances lack a functional group that would enable identification by the spectroscopic or electrochemical methods used in LC, or they are non-volatile or thermally labile, rendering GC processes useless.

4.6. Electrophoretic Methods: Capillary zone electrophoresis (CZE), capillary gel electrophoresis (CGE), and capillary isoelectric focusing (CIEF) are the most often utilized methods. Because it requires very few standards and can analyze samples quickly with excellent separation capabilities, CE holds promise for the separation and analysis of active components in herbal medicines. Additionally, because it shares technical features with liquid chromatography, it is an effective tool for creating the chemical fingerprints of herbal medicines. Alkaloids and flavonoids are two types of medicinal compounds that have been the subject of numerous recent studies pertaining to herbal medicines.

4.7. Mass Spectroscopy: Liquid secondary ion mass spectroscopy and later laser mass spectroscopy with 600 MHz provide precise identification of molecular weight proteins and peptides. Other recent developments include electrospray, thermospray, and ion spray ionization techniques, which offer special benefits of high detection sensitivity and specificity. This method can be used to identify isotope patterns. In several phases of drug development, LC-MS has emerged as the preferred technique. Using LC-MS, 20 chemical components acting as reference markers were produced by chemically standardizing an aqueous extract of the mixture of the 20 herbs. Additionally, aminoglycosides' LC-MS study revealed that they were more than 90% eliminated by the kidney, had little plasma protein binding, and were highly soluble in water. Additionally, this method aids in the ion pairing chromatography analysis of aminoglycosides in plasma samples.

4.8. Nuclear Magnetic Resonance: Structure elucidation and molecular weight information are improved by the recent advent of the pulsed field gradient technique in high resolution NMR and three-dimensional technology. The fields of pharmacokinetics, toxicology research, drug metabolism, and the drug discovery process can all benefit from these novel hyphenated approaches. One of the most effective and efficient methods for the separation and structural elucidation of unknown compounds and mixtures is the combination of chromatographic separation technology and NMR spectroscopy, particularly for the structure elucidation of substances that are sensitive to light and oxygen.

5.QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS OF PHYTOCHEMICALS:

PREPARATION SOLUTION:The test solution was prepared by taking 1 g of the extract in 25 ml of methanol.

A. Test for carbohydrates:

There are some tests performed for carbohydrates.

a) *Molisch's test*: Sample of plant extract was taken in a test tube. Then 20% alcoholic solution and concentrated sulphuric acid, which is freshly prepared is added in to test tube along the sides. This test developed reddish violet and purple colour at junction between two liquids if carbohydrates present in the sample extracts.

b) *Benedict's test*: Taken a test tube, which contain small amount of plant extracts sample. In a test tube added small quantity of benedict's solution and mix properly. Then boiled this sample mixture for two minutes and cool it. If carbohydrates present in the sample, it formed red precipitate.

c) *Barfoed's test*: The barfoed's solution added to 0.5 ml of solution under examination, heated to boil. If carbohydrates present in the sample extracts, it formed red precipitate of copper oxide.

B. Test for alkaloids

a) *Dragendorff's test*: Taken a few mg of extracts sample and dissolved in 5ml water. Then 2 M hydrochloric acid added until an acid reaction developed. In this mixture, 1ml of dragendorff's reagent (potassium bismuth iodine solutions) was added. If alkaloids present in sample extracts, it formed orange red precipitate.

b) *Wagner's test*: Acidify the plant extract sample with hydrochloric acid (1.5% v/v) and added a few drop of Wagner's reagent (iodine potassium iodide solution) in the test tube. It formed reddish brown precipitates which indicate the presence of alkaloids. c) *Mayer's test*: 2ml of plant extracts sample was taken and 2 - 3 drops of Mayer's reagent was added (potassium mercuric iodine solution) in the test tube. If alkaloids present in the sample, it formed dull white precipitate.

C.Test for glycosides

a) *Legal's test*: Taken a extracts sample and dissolved in pyridine then added sodium nitroprusside solution. Make this solution completely alkaline. Presence of glycosides produced pink red colour.

b) *Baljet's test*: Taken a plant extracts sample in the test tube and added sodium picrate solution. Presence of glycosides produced yellow to orange colour.

c) *Borntrager's test*: The test solution of plant extract was added in few ml of dilute sulphuric acid solution. This solution was filtered. Then Chloroform and ether was added in to filtrate and shaken well. In this solution ammonia was added and separated the organic layer. Organic layer showed pink, red or violet colour due to the presence of glycosides.

D. Test of saponins

a) 1ml of alcoholic sample extract was taken and diluted with 20ml of distilled water. This solution was shaken for 15 min in graduated cylinder. If saponins present in the extracts, it generate foam layer of 1cm.

E. Test for flavonoids

a) *Shinoda test*: Taken the alcoholic sample extract in the test tube and 5-10 drops of hydrochloric acid added in the sample. Then small pieces of magnesium added in tubes. Reddish pink or brown colour was indicated the presence of flavonoids.

b) *Alkaline reagent test*: Plant extracts sample was mixed with 2ml of 2% NaOH solution. It produced yellow colour. In this solution, 2 drops of diluted acids was added. If flavonoids present in the extracts, yellow colour changed into colourless.

F. Test for tannins

a) Taken the sample of plant extracts in the test tube and added ferric chloride solution. If tannin present in the sample, dark blue or greenish black colour appeared.

b) Taken the sample extracts and added potassium cyanide. It produced deep red colour, which indicate the presence of tannins

c) Potassium dichromate was added in to sample extracts. Yellow precipitate was formed indicate the presence of tannins.

G. Test for protein and amino acid

a) *Biuret's test*: Taken 2-3 ml of sample extract and added 1 ml sodium hydroxide solutions (40%) and 2 drops of copper sulphate solution (1%) and mixed properly. Presence of proteins showed a pinkish - violet and purple - violet colour

b) *Ninhydrin's test*: Plant extracts sample mixed with freshly prepared 2 drops of 0.2% ninhydrin solution and heated to boiling for 1-2 min and allowed cooling. Blue colour appearance indicates the presence of amino acids, proteins, peptides.

c) *Xanthoprotein test*: Extracts sample was taken in test tube and added conc. nitric acid. A white precipitate was obtained and upon heating turns to yellow and cool the solution carefully. 20% sodium hydroxide solution added in excess, which produce orange colour that indicate the presence of amino acids.

H. Test of fats or fixed oils

a) *Using sodium hydroxide*: The extract was mixed in one ml 1 % of copper sulphate solution then 10% sodium hydroxide solution was added. Blue colour appeared in the solution, which showed the presence of glycerine.

b) *Saponification*: plant extracts was taken and mixed with 2% sodium carbonate solution. Shaked vigorously and boiled. A clean soapy solution was formed cooled and few drops of conc. HCl was added and observed that fatty separate out and float up. Estimation of total flavonoids content (TFC) Estimation of total flavonoids component was based on aluminium chloride (AlCl₃) method¹⁸. Taken 50 mg quercetin component and dissolved in 50 ml methanol. Then different aliquots of 5-25µg/ml were prepared in methanol. Quercetin was used as a standard. 10gm of dried extracts of plant were dissolved with 10ml methanol and filter. Three ml (1 mg/ml) of this extract was used for the estimation of flavonoids. Take 3 ml of extract or standard and added 1 ml of 2% AlCl₃ methanolic solution, then allowed this mixture to stand at room temperature for 60 min. Then absorbance was measured at 420 nm by spectrophotometer.

6.PHYTOCHEMICAL SCREENING :

Leaf extract shows presence of :

- a) Flavonoids [quercetin]
- b) proteins
- c) saponins,
- d) aminoacids
- e) sugars.
- f) Alkaloids.

• Leaf and stem extracts were obtained using three distinct solvents (ethanol, chloroform, and organic solvent) in order to screen plants for qualitative phytochemicals using common phytochemical techniques. The majority of the phytochemicals were found in the stem's alcoholic extract.

7.METHODS FOR STANDARDIZATION OF HERBAL DRUGS :

The application of Good Manufacturing Practices (GMP) is necessary for the standardization of herbal formulation. Furthermore, it is thought to be crucial to investigate a number of factors, including pharmacodynamics, pharmacokinetics, dose, stability, self-life, toxicity assessment, and chemical profiling of the herbal formulations. Equally significant are additional elements including pesticide residue, aflatoxin level, heavy metal contamination, and Good Agricultural Practices (GAP) in the standardization of herbal drugs. The application of Good Manufacturing Practices (GMP) is necessary for the standardization of herbal

formulation. Furthermore, it is thought to be crucial to investigate a number of factors, including pharmacodynamics, pharmacokinetics, dose, stability, self-life, toxicity assessment, and chemical profiling of the herbal formulations. Equally significant are additional elements including pesticide residue, aflatoxin level, heavy metal contamination, and Good Agricultural Practices (GAP) in the standardization of herbal drugs.

8.WHO GUIDELINES FOR QUALITY STANDARDIZED HERBAL FORMULATION :

- 1) Quality control of crude drugs material, plant preparations and finished products.
- 2) Stability assessment and shelf life.
- 3) Safety assessment; documentation of safety based on experience or toxicological studies.
- 4) Assessment of efficacy by ethno- medical information and biological activity evaluations.

The chromatographic fingerprints (TLC, HPTLC, HPLC, and GC) and active principles or main chemicals should be used to standardize the bioactive extract. In general, all medications should meet the fundamental criteria of being both safe and effective, regardless of whether they are synthetic or derived from plants. Plants or plant parts that have been transformed into phytopharmaceuticals through straightforward procedures including harvesting, drying, and storage are referred to as "herbal drugs."

8.1. Quality control : Is a phrase used to describe procedures used to preserve a manufactured product's validity and quality. Generally speaking, three crucial pharmacopeial factors form the basis of quality control:

- a. Identity or authenticity: it should include a single herb
- b. Purity: it should just contain herbs and no other contaminants.
- c. Content or Assay: The active ingredients must fall within the specified ranges.

Both macro and microscopical exams can be used to establish identity. Furthermore, identity tests are required, including chromatographic and basic chemical tests like color or precipitation. By showing the profile of some common plant elements like flavonoids, alkaloids, and terpenes, the chromatogram can be used as a "fingerprint" for the herbal ingredient. These chemical and chromatographic tests also aid in batch-to-batch comparability.

Criteria including preparation type, sensory characteristics, physical constants, adulteration, pollutants, moisture, ash content, and solvent residues must be examined in order to demonstrate identity and purity. Voucher specimens are trustworthy sources of information. Plant disease outbreaks can alter a plant's morphological characteristics and result in inaccurate identification. Purity, which addresses elements like ash values, contaminants (such as foreign matter in the form of other herbs), and heavy metals, is intimately related to the safe use of medications. However, modern purity evaluation also takes into account pesticide residues, radioactivity, aflatoxins, and microbiological contamination because of the use of better analytical techniques. techniques for analysis like photometric analysis, To determine the consistent content of herbal remedies, techniques such as gas chromatography (GC), high performance thin layer chromatography (HPTLC), high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC), and thin layer chromatography (TLC) can be used. Different concepts, such as

"normalization versus standardization," must be utilized in order to develop pertinent criteria for consistency, depending on whether the active principles of the preparation are known or unknown.

Since the active ingredients in the majority of herbal medications are unknown, content or assay is the most challenging aspect of quality control to carry out. Markers can be used occasionally. The proportion of extractable substance using a solvent may be employed as an assay in all other situations, where no active ingredients or marker can be identified for the herbal medication. This method is frequently found in pharmacopeia. The identification of essential oils using steam distillation is a unique type of assay. Many contemporary chemical analytical techniques, including ultraviolet/visible spectroscopy (UV/VIS), TLC, HPLC, HPTLC, GC, mass spectrometry, or a combination of GC and MS (GC/MS), can be used when active constituents (like sennosides in Senna) or markers (like alkyd amides in Echinacea) are known.

8.2. Stability Assessment and Shelf Life prolonged : A substance's safety is typically attested by its seemingly uneventful use. However, in a few cases, research into the possible toxicity of naturally occurring chemicals that are frequently utilized as constituents in therapeutic treatments has shown previously unanticipated potential for systemic toxicity, carcinogenicity, and teratogenicity. These findings must be promptly and accurately communicated to regulatory authorities. They should also be able to react quickly to these alarms by rescheduling the medications to only be used with a prescription or by removing or changing the licenses of registered products that contain questionable substances.

It is necessary to include a mechanism for identifying the plant preparation and, if feasible, for testing it. In the event that an active principle cannot be identified, identifying a characteristic component or combination of chemicals should be adequate to guarantee the preparation's constant quality. Final Product A thorough description of the production process and formula, including the quantity of excipients, should be included. To guarantee a constant level of product quality, a finished product specification needs to be established. The final product must meet the general specifications for certain dosage forms. Stability: The product's chemical and physical stability in the container where it will be sold should be evaluated under specific storage circumstances, and its shelf life should be determined.

8.3. Safety Assessment : Because herbal remedies have been used for a long time in many different cultures, they are generally thought to be safe. Nonetheless, there have been documented instances of severe side effects following the use of herbal remedies. The toxicity has frequently been linked to adulteration and pollutants. But some of the plants that are used to make herbal remedies can also be quite harmful. In general, if herbal medications are not adequately evaluated, there may be a chance of negative side effects and interactions between drugs and foods. Therefore, the primary goal of herbal research is to evaluate the safety of herbal products. Comprehensive phytochemical and pharmacological research is necessary to assess the harmful effects of the plant ingredients in herbal formulations.

Though recent reports of toxicity may be mostly due to misidentification and overdose of specific elements, it is safe to presume that the usage of dangerous plant ingredients has already been substantially eliminated based on human experiences in diverse cultures. Another significant problem is the adulteration of botanical preparations. According to a number of investigations, a lot of herbal items may include heavy metals and unreported medications. It is conceivable for medicinal adulterants to be used purposefully. The purpose of agrochemicals is to shield plants from unprocessed plant matter. Furthermore, many herbs' pharmacokinetics, mechanism of action, and drug-drug

interactions are still in their infancy. The necessity for national regulation, registration, and safety monitoring of herbal medicines is also being heightened by an increasing number of reports regarding the harmful or fatal consequences of herbal preparations. Herbal medicines that have not been proven to be beneficial should not be prescribed or recommended by clinicians as though they were pharmaceuticals that have undergone extensive research.

Since the analysis by itself is unlikely to identify the contributions to toxicity itself, an assessment of the toxicity inquiry will also be necessary. The dosage used is crucial for determining the toxicity of a natural remedy.

8.4. Assessment Of Efficacy Herbal medicines: are fundamentally distinct from traditional pharmaceutical therapies, but as of right now, the only technique to evaluate their effectiveness is through the currently employed conventional clinical trial methodologies, where effectiveness is often evaluated by clinical, laboratory, or diagnostic results: Improved morbidity, less pain or discomfort, increased appetite and weight gain, decreased blood pressure, decreased tumor size or extent, and enhanced quality of life are examples of clinical outcomes. Parameters including decreased blood glucose, improved hemoglobin status, decreased opacity as determined by imaging or radiological methods, and improved electrocardiogram (ECG) results are examples of laboratory and other diagnostic outcomes.

Biological Evaluation: Some medications have been evaluated and standardized based on their pharmacological activity. The potency of the medication or its preparations can be determined by assays conducted on living animals and their intact or isolated organs. Identification, quality, and relative potency can all be ascertained with the aid of analytical methods. Sample preparation is the most crucial stage in the creation of analytical techniques for botanical and herbal medicines. In order to produce a homogeneous sample and frequently enhance the kinetics of constituent extraction, the basic procedure entails processes like pre-washing, drying plant materials or freeze-drying, and grinding.

While techniques like sonication, heating under reflux, Soxhlet extraction, and others are frequently employed in pharmacopoeial monographs, they can be laborious, utilize a lot of organic solvent, and have poorer extraction efficiency. This problem is always being addressed with new approaches. The appropriateness of the extraction techniques must be taken into account because the target chemicals may be polar or nonpolar and even thermally labile. Newer sample preparation techniques, such as microwave-assisted extraction (MAE), supercritical fluid extraction (SFE), accelerated solvent extraction (ASE), or pressurized liquid extraction (PLE), have been introduced for the extraction of specific constituents present in plant materials in an effort to decrease or eliminate the use of organic solvents and enhance the extraction processes.

Chromatography: The crucial stage in enabling identification and bioactivity assessment is the separation of distinct components from the herbal mixture. Chromatography is a potent analytical technique that may be used to separate and quantify a large number of chemicals, even those that are present in a complicated matrix. These consist of capillary electrophoresis (CE), gas chromatography (GC), thin-layer chromatography (TLC), paper chromatography (PC), and high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC).

9. CONCLUSION:

- This study found that the presence of alkaloids, glycosides, flavonoids, and saponins was a phytochemical. The chemicals were found in the extracts, according to the results of the TLC examination.
- These findings so unequivocally show that this herb has therapeutic potential.
- Be familiar with the various traditional and contemporary techniques for extracting and isolating herbal medications.
- Describe the various isolation and purification methods, both chromatographic and non-chromatographic.
- Provide an overview of WHO guidelines for herbal medication quality control.
- Describe the various parameter limits that are employed in standardization.

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