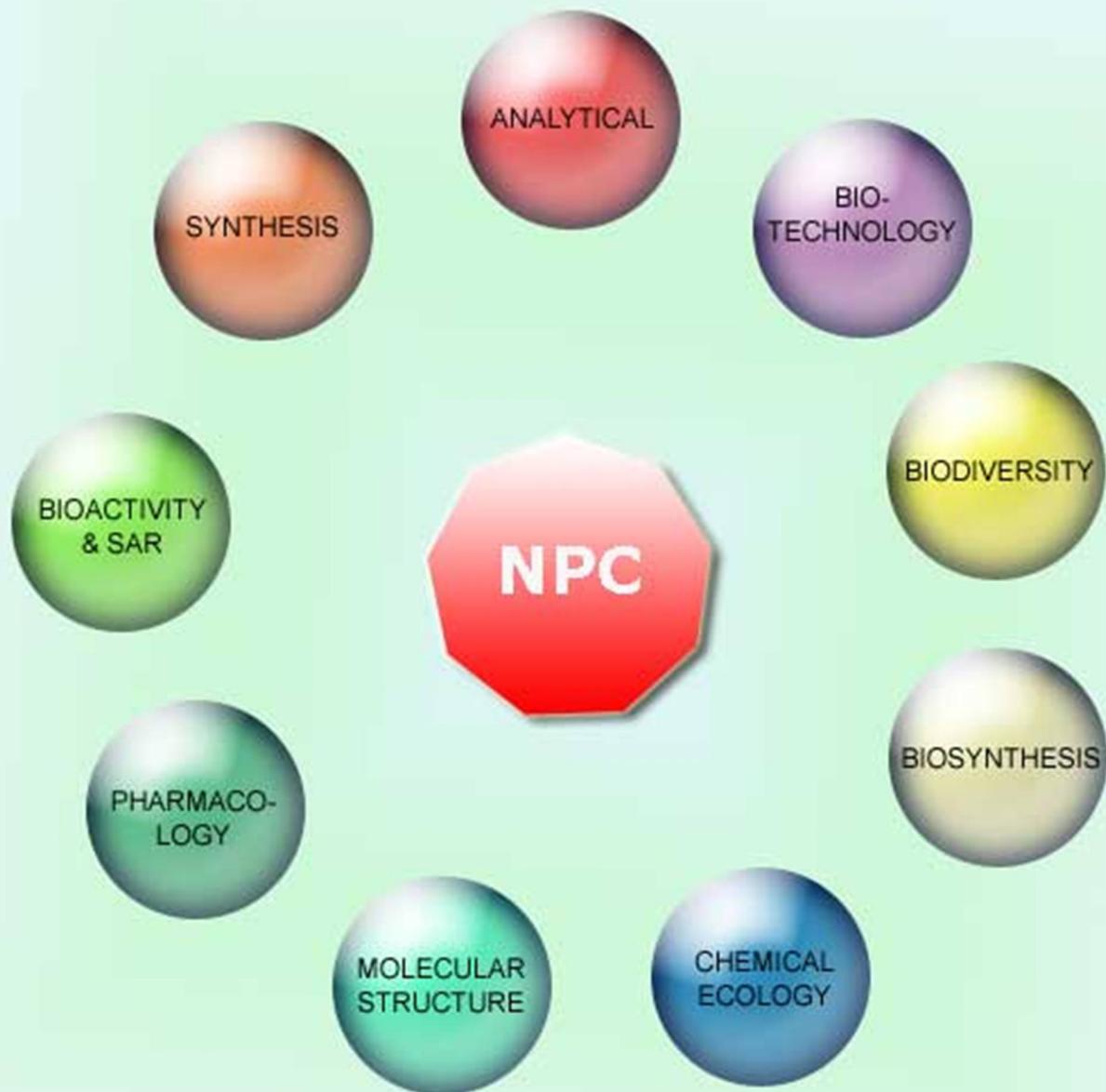


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A Comparative Study of the Antioxidant/Prooxidant Effects of Carvacrol and Thymol at Various Concentrations on Membrane and DNA of Parental and Drug Resistant H1299 Cells

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Carvacrol and thymol, both used as flavor agents in cosmetic and food products, have prooxidant and antioxidant activities. To clarify the mechanisms of their cytotoxicity and the factors affecting their antioxidant/prooxidant activities, we investigated cell membrane and DNA damage induced by carvacrol and thymol in parental and drug-resistant human lung cancer cell lines. After 24 and 48 hour incubation periods, the cytotoxicity of carvacrol (IC_{50} 380 and 244 μM) was found to be higher than that of thymol (IC_{50} 497 and 266 μM) in parental cells. However, thymol showed higher cytotoxic effects in drug resistant H1299 cells for three incubation periods. Also, carvacrol and thymol, at higher concentrations, increased malondialdehyde (MDA) levels causing membrane damage and 8-hydroxy deoxyguanosine (8-OHdG) levels, causing DNA damage to both parental and drug resistant cells. On the other hand, carvacrol and thymol protected the cells against H_2O_2 -induced cytotoxicity, and membrane and DNA damage when the cells were preincubated with these two compounds at lower concentration ($<IC_{50}$) before H_2O_2 incubation. These findings suggest that carvacrol and thymol exhibit protective/damaging effects depending on cell resistance, concentration and time.

Keywords: Carvacrol, Thymol, DNA, Membrane, Anticancer, Antioxidant.

Monoterpene hydrocarbons are highly hydrophobic substances that exert a wide spectrum of biological actions of great importance in many different areas [1,2]. Thymol (5-methyl-2-(1-methylethyl) phenol) is an isomer of carvacrol (5-isopropyl-2-methyl phenol), having the hydroxyl group at a different location on the phenolic ring. The hydrophobic nature of carvacrol and thymol enables them to react with the lipids of the cell membrane and mitochondria, rendering them permeable and leading to leakage of cell components [3].

Natural antioxidants are considered useful agents for the prevention of diseases [4-7]. Many studies have shown that phenolic compounds in plant essential oils display antioxidant activity as a result of their capacity to scavenge free radicals [8-10]. On the other hand, effects of antioxidant concentrations on oxidation reactions depend on many factors such as structure of the antioxidant, oxidation conditions and changing of the oxidized structure. Phenolic antioxidants lose their antioxidant effects at higher concentrations and gain a prooxidant structure. They can either protect DNA and membranes against oxidants as an antioxidant at lower concentrations or damage DNA and membranes as a prooxidant at higher concentrations. Recent studies reveal that anti-/pro-oxidant and toxic properties of these molecules change depending on concentration, the kind of cells and organism, and so are not safe for human being [11].

Tumors are heterogeneous in many respects, including chemotherapeutic susceptibility [12]. Resistance to chemotherapeutic agents is a major problem in the treatment of patients with small cell (SCLC) and non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC). Acquired multidrug resistance is the main obstacle for the cure of SCLC. A group of drug resistance cells can occur in tumors during chemotherapy. The development of drug resistance and detoxifying mechanisms in human and mice microsome enzymes CYP3A4 used eucalyptol as a substrate [13,14]. We tried to prove the ability of carvacrol and thymol in preventing cytotoxicity, membrane damage

and DNA damage induced by the oxidative agent H_2O_2 , while they also have cytotoxic and damaging effects in parental and drug resistant H1299 cells because many phenolic components have shown various protective/damaging activities in different biological systems dependant on concentration.

Thymol and carvacrol showed cytotoxic effects on parental and drug resistance H1299 cells (Figure 1 and 2). After 24 and 48 hour incubation periods, the cytotoxicity of carvacrol was found to be higher {380 and 244 μM (IC_{50}) concentrations} than that of thymol (IC_{50} 497 and 266 μM) in parental cells. However, thymol showed higher cytotoxic effects in drug resistant H1299 cells for three incubation periods. The viability of cells decreased between 25-1000 μM carvacrol and 10-1000 μM thymol concentrations. The cytotoxic effect was close to that of the control until 25 μM concentrations for carvacrol and 5 μM concentrations for thymol. So, neither compound had either an effective cytotoxic or antitumor effect on cancer cells at lower concentrations. Carvacrol and thymol exhibited dose- and incubation time-dependent cytotoxic effects on parental and drug resistant H1299 cells. Also, the effects changed depending on the drug resistance capacity of the target cells. In one study, carvacrol and thymol had a dose-dependent antiproliferative effects on Hep G2 cells, which make them potentially interesting for adjuvant experimental cancer treatments.

Both compounds induced membrane damage and cytotoxicity in hepatoma G2 at relatively higher concentrations than those that mediate its anticancer activities. The induction of cytotoxic cell death can be accompanied by membrane damage [2]. Koparal and Zeytinoglu [15] also observed that carvacrol was a very potent inhibitor of cell growth in the A549 cancer cell line. In another study, carvacrol and thymol had dose-dependent antiproliferative effects on human uterine carcinoma cells [16]. Also, carvacrol and thymol differed in their cytotoxic effects on K562 cells [17]. All these studies support our results.

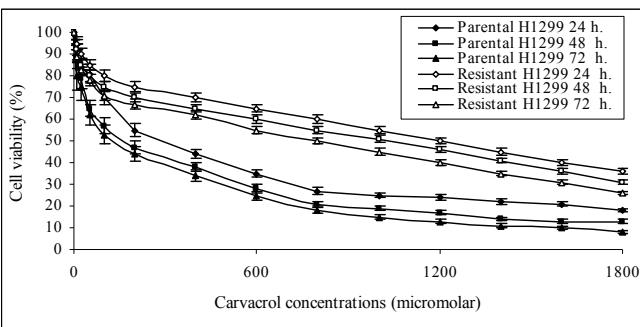


Figure 1: Cytotoxic effects of carvacrol on parental and drug-resistant H1299 cells.

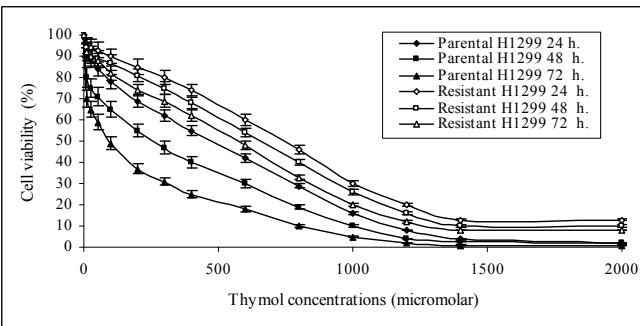
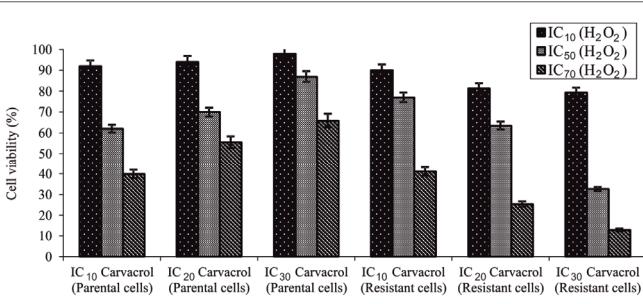


Figure 2: Cytotoxic effects of thymol on parental and drug-resistant H1299 cells.

Figure 3: Cytoprotective effects of carvacrol against H_2O_2 cytotoxicity on parental and drug-resistant H1299 cells.

We measured the cytoprotective (antioxidant) effect of carvacrol and thymol against the cytotoxicity of the strong oxidant H_2O_2 in parental and drug-resistant H1299 cells. Figures 3 and 4 show the levels of H_2O_2 -induced cytotoxicity in the cells pre-incubated with different concentrations of carvacrol and thymol. Carvacrol had a strong antioxidant effect at an IC_{30} concentration for parental cells and an IC_{10} concentration for resistant cells against H_2O_2 cytotoxicity (Figure 3).

Also, thymol decreased H_2O_2 cytotoxicity in both cells. The maximum antioxidant effect of thymol was found at an IC_{20} concentration for parental cells and IC_{10} concentration for resistant cells (Figure 4). So, resistant cells can protect themselves with lower concentrations of thymol and carvacrol against H_2O_2 cytotoxicity than parental cells. We can assume that drug resistant cells show more resistance to cytotoxicity than parental cells.

In this study, carvacrol and thymol increased malondialdehyde (MDA) and 8-OHdG levels in both parental and drug resistant cells at different concentrations (Table 1). While increasing MDA amounts cause membrane damage, increases in 8-OHdG show the DNA damaging effect of carvacrol and thymol on the cells. The membrane and DNA damaging effect of the compounds on both

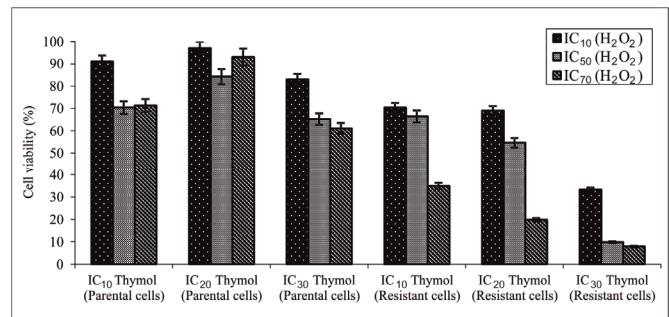
Figure 4: Cytoprotective effects of thymol against H_2O_2 cytotoxicity on parental and drug-resistant H1299 cells.

Table 1: Membrane and DNA damaging effects of carvacrol and thymol on parental and drug resistant H1299 cells

Concentrations	MDA (nmol/mg protein) $X \pm SE$	8-OHdG (ng/mL) $X \pm SE$
IC ₁₀ Carvacrol (P)	0.35 ± 0.02 a	0.09 ± 0.03 a
IC ₅₀ Carvacrol (P)	0.60 ± 0.03 ab	0.10 ± 0.04 a
IC ₇₀ Carvacrol (P)	1.67 ± 0.07 bc	0.15 ± 0.03 ab
IC ₁₀ Carvacrol (R)	0.31 ± 0.05 a	0.08 ± 0.03 a
IC ₅₀ Carvacrol (R)	0.56 ± 0.08 ab	0.09 ± 0.02 a
IC ₇₀ Carvacrol (R)	1.12 ± 0.12 b	0.12 ± 0.09 ab
IC ₁₀ Thymol (P)	0.70 ± 0.13 ab	0.08 ± 0.04 a
IC ₅₀ Thymol (P)	1.90 ± 0.21 bc	0.08 ± 0.03 a
IC ₇₀ Thymol (P)	2.71 ± 0.44 cd	0.10 ± 0.02 a
IC ₁₀ Thymol (R)	0.62 ± 0.45 ab	0.08 ± 0.04 a
IC ₅₀ Thymol (R)	1.14 ± 0.47 b	0.09 ± 0.06 a
IC ₇₀ Thymol (R)	2.70 ± 0.85 cd	0.15 ± 0.11 ab
Control	0.31 ± 0.02 a	0.08 ± 0.04 a
0.5% DMSO	0.33 ± 0.03 a	0.08 ± 0.03 a

Results are means of five different experiments. Values that are followed by different letters within each column are significantly different ($p \leq 0.05$). df_t=2, df_F=95, F=11.96. SE: Standard Error. P; parental, R; resistant cells

cells was found to be close to that of the control at IC_{10} concentrations. The differences between the data are given in Table 1 ($p \leq 0.05$). The higher concentration of carvacrol and thymol caused statistically important membrane and DNA damage to the cells ($p \leq 0.05$). Parental cells were found to be more sensitive than resistant cells to the membrane damaging effects of both compounds. They induced membrane and DNA damage and cytotoxicity in H1299 cells at relatively higher concentrations than those that mediate its anticancer activities.

The induction of cytotoxic cell death can be accompanied by membrane and DNA damage. Koparal and Zeytinoglu [15] also observed that carvacrol was a very potent inhibitor of cell growth in the A549 cancer cell line. In another study, carvacrol and thymol had dose-dependent antiproliferative effects on human uterine carcinoma cells [16].

The present studies show that phenolic compounds have antioxidant/prooxidant properties under different conditions. Carvacrol and thymol significantly decreased membrane and DNA damage in H_2O_2 treated H1299 cells (Table 2). The selected protective concentrations are those that showed the highest protective effect against H_2O_2 cytotoxicity. In the cytoprotective study, while carvacrol had a strong antioxidant effect at IC_{30} concentration for parental cells and IC_{10} concentration for resistant cell, thymol showed maximum antioxidant effect at IC_{20} concentration for parental cells and IC_{10} concentration for resistant cells against H_2O_2 cytotoxicity (Figures 3, 4). Also, at these cytoprotective concentrations, carvacrol and thymol showed different membrane and DNA protective effects against H_2O_2 oxidation (Table 2). The most effective membrane protective effect of three concentrations (IC_{10} , IC_{50} , and IC_{70}) was found at IC_{10} for

Table 2: Protective effects of carvacrol and thymol against H₂O₂ membrane and DNA damaging effects on parental and drug resistant H1299 cells

Concentrations	MDA (nmol/mg prot.) X ± SE	8-OHdG (ng/ml) X ± SE
IC ₂₀ Thymol + IC ₁₀ H ₂ O ₂ (P)	0.86 ± 0.03 ab	3.09 ± 0.44 d
IC ₂₀ Thymol + IC ₅₀ H ₂ O ₂ (P)	0.90 ± 0.08 ab	8.00 ± 0.56 hi
IC ₂₀ Thymol + IC ₇₀ H ₂ O ₂ (P)	1.10 ± 0.65 b	11.70 ± 0.98 lm
IC ₁₀ Thymol + IC ₁₀ H ₂ O ₂ (R)	0.95 ± 0.13 ab	3.45 ± 0.22 d
IC ₁₀ Thymol + IC ₅₀ H ₂ O ₂ (R)	1.14 ± 0.82 b	7.60 ± 0.32 hi
IC ₁₀ Thymol + IC ₇₀ H ₂ O ₂ (R)	1.78 ± 0.96 bc	10.76 ± 0.67 kl
IC ₁₀ Carvacrol+ IC ₁₀ H ₂ O ₂ (R)	0.56 ± 0.09 ab	2.35 ± 0.24 c
IC ₁₀ Carvacrol+ IC ₅₀ H ₂ O ₂ (R)	0.68 ± 0.07 ab	7.10 ± 0.34 h
IC ₁₀ Carvacrol+ IC ₇₀ H ₂ O ₂ (R)	0.96 ± 0.08 ab	10.45 ± 0.99 k
IC ₃₀ Carvacrol + IC ₁₀ H ₂ O ₂ (P)	0.93 ± 0.08 ab	2.60 ± 0.14 cd
IC ₃₀ Carvacrol + IC ₅₀ H ₂ O ₂ (P)	1.10 ± 0.32 b	8.00 ± 0.36 hi
IC ₃₀ Carvacrol + IC ₇₀ H ₂ O ₂ (P)	1.70± 0.51 bc	12.00 ± 0.35 lm
IC ₁₀ H ₂ O ₂ (Control P)	1.30 ± 0.03 b	2.62 ± 0.03 cd
IC ₅₀ H ₂ O ₂ (Control P)	1.80 ± 0.12 bc	7.79 ± 0.50 hi
IC ₇₀ H ₂ O ₂ (Control P)	2.40 ± 0.14 c	11.97 ± 0.41 lm
IC ₁₀ H ₂ O ₂ (Control R)	1.20 ± 0.23 b	2.51 ± 0.14 cd
IC ₅₀ H ₂ O ₂ (Control R)	1.60 ± 0.34 bc	6.65 ± 0.31 gh
IC ₇₀ H ₂ O ₂ (Control R)	2.10 ± 0.98 c	10.55 ± 0.82 kl
Control	0.31 ± 0.05 a	0.10 ± 0.01 a
0.5% DMSO	0.32 ± 0.03 a	0.11 ± 0.01 a

Results are means of five different experiments. Values that are followed by different letters within each column are significantly different ($p \leq 0.05$). df₁=2, df₂=95, F=11.96. SE: Standard Error. P; parental, R; resistant cells.

carvacrol in resistant cells against H₂O₂ damage. Also, the IC₁₀ concentration of carvacrol had the highest DNA protective effect in resistant cells against H₂O₂ damage. This means that resistant cells have more membrane protective ability than parental cells.

Carvacrol and thymol have effective DNA protective effects in both cells at different concentrations. Aydin *et al.* [18] also observed that these compounds, at concentrations below 0.2 and 0.1 mM, respectively, significantly reduced the oxidative damage in human lymphocytes. In another study, the incubation of Hep G2 and Caco-2 cells in the presence of a range of concentrations of either carvacrol or thymol led, in both cases, to a significant protection of the cells studied from DNA strand breaks induced by the potent oxidant hydrogen peroxide [19]. Epigallocatechin-3-gallate (1 μM), a polyphenol abundant in tea, was shown to significantly reduce MDA production due to H₂O₂/Fe²⁺ exposure, indicating a protection of cells from oxidative stress [20]. The malondialdehyde level increased in H₂O₂ exposed (IC₅₀ and IC₇₀) hepatoma G2 cells, but decreased in these cells preincubated with carvacrol and thymol before H₂O₂ exposure [2]. Carvacrol and thymol differed in their cytotoxic and genotoxic effects on K562 cells, and reduced the level of DNA damage induced by the strong oxidation of H₂O₂ [17]. Further understanding of the underlying mechanism of their protective effects in reducing intracellular oxygen radicals in H1299 cell death may lead to the development of new therapeutic treatments for cancer, since carvacrol and thymol provide protection against H₂O₂ insult. Their lung protective effects against H₂O₂ toxicity might be of importance and may contribute in part to their clinical efficacy for the treatment of lung carcinoma. These results suggest that carvacrol and thymol may be potentially valuable sources of natural therapeutic agents. Thus, it is becoming increasingly evident that certain phytochemicals, particularly those included in our daily diet, have important cancer chemopreventive properties. In the present study, carvacrol and thymol induced DNA and membrane damage, and cytotoxicity in H1299 cells at relatively higher concentrations than those that mediate its anticancer activities. These findings suggest that carvacrol and thymol exhibit anticancer/antioxidant effects dependant on cell resistance, concentration and time.

Experimental

Cancer cell culture: The H1299 cell line was purchased from the American Type Culture Collection (Rockville, MD). Cells were routinely cultured in RPMI 1640 medium supplemented with 10% fetal calf serum, 1% antibiotic-antimycotic solution in a humidified atmosphere containing 5% CO₂ at 37°C. For subculturing, cells were harvested after trypsin/EDTA treatment at 37°C. Cells were used when monolayer confluence had reached 75%. The drug resistant (Epirubicin-resistant) H1299 tumor cells were derived from the parental line by stepwise selection in increasing concentrations of Epirubicin until the cells were capable of propagating in 220 ng/mL drug, as described previously [21,22].

Cell viability assay: The cancer cells (10,000 cells/well, monolayer) were plated in a 96-well plate. The next day, the cells were treated with different concentrations of carvacrol and thymol in the medium for 24, 48 and 72 h. At the end of the incubation periods, the cytotoxicity of thymol and carvacrol on cancer cells was determined by the the cell titer-blue-cell viability assay. The assay is based on the ability of living cells to convert a redox dye (resazurin) into a fluorescent end product (resorufin). Nonviable cells rapidly lose metabolic capacity and thus do not generate a fluorescent signal [23]. Following cellular reduction, fluorescence is recorded at 560 nm excitation / 590 nm emission. The data were expressed as average values obtained from 8 wells for each concentration. The IC₅₀ value was calculated from the equation of the graph. H₂O₂ cytotoxicity on cancer cells was measured in the same way. For measuring the antioxidant effect of carvacrol and thymol against H₂O₂ cytotoxicity, the cells were preincubated with them at different concentrations (10–150 μg/mL) for 1 h, before hydrogen peroxide treatment for 24 h.

Determination of malondialdehyde level: The cells were plated at a density 5–10 × 10⁵ cells/100 mm dish. The cells were preincubated with maximum cytoprotective concentrations of carvacrol and thymol for 1 h, before hydrogen peroxide treatment (IC₁₀, IC₅₀ and IC₇₀) for 24 h. Cells were scraped off the culture plates with culture medium and centrifuged at 400 × g for 10 min. The cell pellets were washed with PBS and then sonicated (3 × 15 sec) in 50 mM potassium phosphate, pH 7.2, containing 1 mM PMSF (Sigma) and 1 μg/mL of leupeptin (Sigma) and centrifuged at 150,000 × g for 1 h. The supernatant was used for the determination of malondialdehyde level, as described by Wasowicz *et al.* [24]. This fluorometric method for measuring thiobarbituric acid-reactive substances (TBARS) in supernatant is based on the reaction between malondialdehyde and thiobarbituric acid. The product of this reaction was extracted into n-butanol and measured spectrofluorometrically at 525 nm (excitation) and 547 nm (emission). Protein was determined by the Bradford method [25] with bovine serum albumin as a standard.

Determination of 8-OHdG level: After DNA purification [26] from the cultured cells (Genomic DNA Mini Kit, Invitrogen), the genomic DNA samples were used to determine 8-OHdG with a competitive ELISA kit (Highly sensitive 8-OHdG Check New, Japan Institute for Control of Aging, Fukuroi, Shizuoka, Japan). Micro titer ELISA plates were precoated with 8-OHdG. Fifty μL of the sample and primary antibody were added to each well and incubated at 4°C overnight. The wells were washed 3 times. Then 100 μL secondary antibody was added to each well and incubated for 1 h at room temperature. The wells were again washed 3 times. After that, enzyme substrate solution was added and the wells incubated at room temperature for 15 min. Terminating solution stopped the reaction. The absorbance was read at a wavelength of 450 nm [27,28].

Data analysis: The results of the replicates were pooled and expressed as mean \pm standard error. Analysis of variance and Student's t-test were carried out. Significance was accepted at $p \leq 0.05$ [29].

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New Secoiridoid Glycosides from the Buds of *Lonicera macranthoides*Jiang Liu^a, Jing Zhang^b, Feng Wang^a and Xingfu Chen^{a,*}^aDivision of Pharmaceutical Botany, College of Agronomy, Sichuan Agricultural University, Chengdu 611130, P. R. China^bCollege of Horticulture, Sichuan Agricultural University, Ya'an 625014, P. R. China

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Two new secoiridoid glycosides, named ethyl secologanoside (**1**) and 6'-O- α -L-arabinopyranosyl demethylsecologanol (**2**), together with three known ones, secologanoside (**3**), secoxyloganin (**4**), and loniceroside (**5**), were isolated from the dried buds of *Lonicera macranthoides*. The structures of the new compounds were determined on the basis of detailed spectroscopic analyses and acidic hydrolysis.

Keywords: *Lonicera macranthoides*, Caprifoliaceae, Secoiridoid glycosides, Ethyl secologanoside, 6'-O- α -L-arabinopyranosyl demethylsecologanol.

Lonicera is one of the most important genera in the Caprifoliaceae family. *L. macranthoides* Hand.-Mazz. has long been traditionally used in China and south-east Asia to treat acute fever, headache, pharyngodynia, respiratory infection, pyocutaneous disease and epidemic disease [1]. Earlier chemical studies on *L. macranthoides* led to the isolation of a series of phenolic acids, iridoids and saponins [2]. In this article, we present the isolation and structure elucidation of two new secoiridoid glycosides (**1**) and (**2**), as well as three known compounds: Secologanoside (**3**) [3a], secoxyloganin (**4**) [3a], and loniceroside (**5**) [3b] from the methanol extract of the buds of *L. macranthoides* (Figure 1a)

In the positive-ion FAB-MS of ethyl secologanoside (**1**), quasi-molecular ion peaks were observed at *m/z* 419 ($M+H$)⁺ and *m/z* 441 ($M+Na$)⁺, consistent with the molecular formula $C_{18}H_{26}O_{11}$. The ¹H NMR and ¹³C NMR spectra (Table 1) showed signals that indicated the presence of the olefinic proton of β -alkoxyacrylic acid at δ 7.45 (d, *J*=2.0 Hz, H-3), a set of three protons on the vinyl group at δ 5.63 (ddd, *J*=17.4, 9.7, 9.7 Hz, H-8), 5.23 (d, *J*=9.7 Hz, H-10A) and 5.28 (d, *J*=17.4 Hz, H-10B), an acetal proton at δ 5.47 (d, *J*=4.1 Hz, H-1), and one sugar unit containing a β -linked anomeric proton at δ 4.64 (d, *J*=8.3 Hz, H-1'), which were characteristic of secoiridoid-type monoterpene glycosides. Furthermore, DEPT, HMQC and HMBC experiments (Figure 1b) revealed the 18 carbons, including two carboxyl carbons (δ 176.4, C-7 and δ 168.5, C-11), four alkenyl carbons [δ 154.2 (C-3) and δ 110.4 (C-4) due to the β -alkoxyacrylic acid group, and δ 134.5 (C-8) and δ 120.5 (C-10) due to the vinyl group], one anomeric carbon (δ 99.9, C-1'), one acetal carbon (δ 97.5, C-1), and two hydroxymethyl carbons (δ 61.2, C-12 and δ 62.7, C-6'). The above data indicated that **1** was a lactone open form of iridoid. The ¹³C NMR spectra of **1**, and **3** and **4** were also in good agreement, except for the signal arising from the ethyl group (δ 61.2, C-12 and 14.5, C-13) of the carbethoxy function at C-11. The anomeric proton H-1' (δ 4.64, d, *J*=8.3 Hz) and the splitting pattern of the other sugar protons gave evidence of a β -glucose unit. Finally, the absolute configuration of glucose was determined to be of the D-series by HPLC analysis of the hydrolyzate of **1** using an optical rotation detector. On the basis of this evidence, the structure of compound **1** was elucidated to be 2H-pyran-4-acetic acid, 3-ethenyl-2-(β -D-glucopyranosyloxy)-3,4-dihydro-5-(ethoxycarbonyl), and named as ethyl secologanoside.

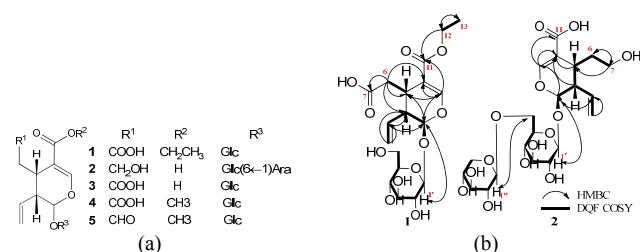


Figure 1: (a) Structures of compounds **1-5**; (b) Selected HMBC and DQF correlations of compounds **1** and **2**.

Table 1: ¹H NMR and ¹³C NMR data for **1** in methanol-*d*₄

	δ_{H}	δ_{C}
1	5.47 (d, <i>J</i> =4.1)	97.5
3	7.45 (d, <i>J</i> =2.0)	154.2
4		110.4
5	3.20 (m)	28.6
6 A	2.25 (dd, <i>J</i> =8.9, 16.5)	35.2
B	2.92 (dd, <i>J</i> =4.8, 16.5)	
7		176.4
8	5.63 (ddd, <i>J</i> =17.4, 9.7, 9.7)	134.5
9	2.80 m	45.3
10 A	5.23 (d, <i>J</i> = 9.7)	120.5
B	5.28 (d, <i>J</i> = 17.4)	
11		168.5
12	4.12 (m)	61.2
13	1.25 (t, <i>J</i> = 6.9)	14.5
Glu-1'	4.64 (d, <i>J</i> =8.3)	99.9
2'	3.20 (t, <i>J</i> =8.3)	74.6
3'	3.34 (t, <i>J</i> =8.3)	78.0
4'	3.28 (overlap)	71.5
5'	3.28 (overlap)	78.4
6' A	3.65 (dd, 5.5, 11.7)	62.7
B	3.88 (dd, 2.0, 11.7)	

6'-O- α -L-arabinopyranosyl demethylsecologanol (**2**), an amorphous powder, exhibited quasi-molecular ion peaks at *m/z* 509 ($M+H$)⁺ and *m/z* 531 ($M+Na$)⁺, consistent with $C_{21}H_{32}O_{14}$. The NMR spectra (Table 2) and HMQC, HMBC, and DQF data (Figure 1b) showed signals that indicated the presence of β -alkoxyacrylic acid, acetal, a vinyl group, and two sugar units, which were also characteristic of secoiridoid-type monoterpene glycosides, like compound **1**. Furthermore, the ¹H NMR and ¹³C NMR spectra of **2** were quite similar to those of demethylsecologanol [3c], except for a set of signals due to an additional α -arabinopyranoside unit. The downfield shift of the glucosyl C-6' signal (δ 68.9) suggested that the arabino-pyranosyl unit was at the C-6' position of the inner glucose, which was confirmed by the HMBC correlations between

Table 2: ^1H NMR and ^{13}C NMR data for **2** in methanol- d_4 .

No.		2	δ_{C}
1		5.51 (d, $J=6.2$)	97.6
3		7.42 (brs)	152.8
4			110.8
5		2.85 (m)	31.0
6 A		1.75 (m)	30.9
B		2.07 (m)	
7 A		3.66 (dd, $J=5.5, 11.7$)	62.8
B		3.89 (overlap)	
8		5.76 (ddd, $J=17.2, 10.3, 10.3$)	136.0
9		2.64 (m)	45.4
10 A		5.23 (d, $J=10.3$)	119.3
B		5.27 (d, $J=17.2$)	
11			170.2
Glu- 1'		4.67 (d, $J=7.6$)	100.0
2'		3.19 (t, $J=7.6$)	74.7
3'		3.36 (t, $J=8.3$)	77.9
4'		3.26 (t, $J=9.6$)	71.6
5'		3.29 (overlap)	78.4
6' A		3.50 (overlap)	68.9
B		3.89 (overlap)	
Ara- 1"		4.16 (d, $J=6.9$)	104.9
2"		3.50 (overlap)	72.4
3"		3.50 (overlap)	74.2
4"		3.79 (brs)	69.5
5" A		3.50 (overlap)	66.6
B		3.82 (dd, 2.8, 12.4)	

the anomeric proton of the terminal arabinose at δ H 4.16 (H-1") and the C-6' of the inner glucose. Finally, the absolute configuration of glucose and arabinose were determined as D and L, respectively on HPLC analysis of the hydrolyzate of **2** using an optical rotation detector. Accordingly, the structure of compound **2** was elucidated to be 2H-pyran-5-carboxylic acid, 3-ethenyl-2-(α -L-arabinopyranosyl(1'-6')- β -D-glucopyranosyloxy)-3,4-dihydro-4-(2-hydroxyethyl), and named as 6'-O- α -L-arabinopyranosyl demethylsecologanol.

Experimental

General: The following instruments were used to obtain physical data: JEOL spectrometer (600 MHz for ^1H NMR, 150 MHz for ^{13}C NMR); FAB-MS, JEOL JMS-SX 102A mass spectrometer; CC, Diaion HP-20; TLC: pre-coated silica gel 60F264.

Plant material: The buds of *Lonicera macranthoides* were collected from Suining, Sichuan province, China in 2011, and identified by Prof. Xingfu Chen (Sichuan Agricultural University, China). A voucher specimen of this plant was deposited with the College of Agronomy, Sichuan agricultural University.

Extraction and isolation: The buds of *L. macranthoides* (2 Kg) were extracted 3 times with MeOH under reflux for 3 h. Evaporation of the solvent under reduced pressure provided the MeOH extract (202.1 g), which was fractionated by Diaion HP-20 CC, sequentially eluted with H_2O and MeOH to give H_2O -eluted (80.5 g) and MeOH-eluted fractions (120.5 g). The MeOH-eluted

fraction (120.5 g) was chromatographed on ODS columns using a gradient of MeOH: H_2O (20: 80→40: 60→60: 40→80: 20)→MeOH to give 15 fractions (1-15). Fraction 1 (2.0 g) was repeatedly chromatographed on RP-C₁₈ [MeOH: H_2O (30: 70)] to give **2** (16.0 mg), **3** (12.3 mg) and **4** (10.3 mg). Fraction 4 (1.0 g) was repeatedly chromatographed on RP-C₁₈ [MeOH: H_2O (35: 65)] to give **5** (7.7 mg). Fraction 6 (2.0 g) was repeatedly chromatographed on Sephadex LH-20 columns (MeOH) and RP-C₁₈ [MeOH: H_2O (40: 60)] to give **1** (28.9 mg).

Ethyl secologanoside (**1**)

White amorphous powder.

$[\alpha]_D^{30} -130.83$ (*c* 0.29, MeOH).

IR (film, MeOH): 3413, 1684, 1617, 1617, 1268, 1075 cm^{-1} .

UV (MeOH) λ_{max} (log ϵ): 228 (4.17) nm.

^1H and ^{13}C NMR: Table 1.

HR-FAB-MS: 441.1571 ($[M+\text{Na}]^+$, $\text{C}_{18}\text{H}_{26}\text{O}_{11}\text{Na}^+$; calc. 441.1568).

6'-O- α -L-Arabinopyranosyl demethylsecologanol (**2**)

White amorphous powder.

$[\alpha]_D^{30} -79.21$ (*c* 0.12, MeOH).

IR (film, MeOH): 3413, 1739, 1693, 1251, 1073, 592 cm^{-1} .

UV (MeOH) λ_{max} (log ϵ): 227 (4.16) nm.

^1H and ^{13}C NMR: Table 2.

HR-FAB-MS: 531.1870 ($[M+\text{Na}]^+$, $\text{C}_{18}\text{H}_{26}\text{O}_{11}\text{Na}^+$; calc. 531.1867).

Acid hydrolysis of **1 and **2**:** Solutions of **1** (3.0 mg) and **2** (3.0 mg) in 5% H_2SO_4 -1,4-dioxane (1:1, v/v, 1.0 mL) were heated under reflux for 1 h. After cooling, the reaction mixture was neutralized with Amberlite IRA-400 (OH form), and the resin removed by filtration. On removal of the solvent from the filtrate under reduced pressure, the residue was partitioned in an EtOAc- H_2O (1:1, v/v) mixture, and the solvent removed *in vacuo* from the EtOAc-soluble fraction. The aqueous layer was subjected to HPLC analysis under the following conditions: HPLC column, Kaseisorb LC NH₂-60-5, 4.6 mm i.d.250 mm (Tokyo Kasei Co., Ltd., Tokyo, Japan); detection, optical rotation [Shodex OR-2 (Showa Denko Co., Ltd., Tokyo, Japan); mobile phase, $\text{CH}_3\text{CN}-\text{H}_2\text{O}$ (17:3, v/v); flow rate 1.0 mL/min]. Identification of D-glucose from **1** and **2**, and L-arabinose from **2** present in the aqueous layer was carried out by comparison of their retention times and optical rotations with those of authentic samples. *tR*: 7.1 min (L-arabinose, positive optical rotation), 11.6 min (D-glucose, positive optical rotation), respectively.

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Chemical Constituents from the Aerial Parts of *Gynura bicolor*

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Gynura bicolor (Willd.) DC., is used in folk recipes for the treatment of diabetes mellitus in Jiangsu, Zhejiang and Sichuan province in the south of China. A previous pharmacological study proved that the plant showed significant hypoglycemic activity on normal and alloxan-diabetic mice. In this study, two terpenes, four megastigmane-type norisoprenoids and two glycosides were isolated from the aqueous ethanolic extract of the aerial parts of *Gynura bicolor* and characterized mainly by NMR spectroscopy and mass spectrometry. These compounds were isolated for the first time from this plant, and no evidence could be found for the previous reported presence of megastigmane-type norisoprenoids in the genus *Gynura*.

Keywords: *Gynura bicolor*, Terpenes, Norisoprenoids, Glycosides, Diabetes mellitus.

The genus *Gynura* belongs to the family Asteraceae, comprising approximately 40 species mainly distributed in Asia, Africa and Australia, of which 10 species were recorded in the south of China [1]. In the literature, the presence of some interesting components in plants of the *Gynura* genus, such as volatiles [2,3], phenolics [4a], chromanes [4b], chromanones [4c,d], coumarins [4e], steroids [4d,f] and cerebrosides [5-7a], together with pyrrolizidine alkaloids [7b-10], which are hepatotoxic and could cause hepatic veno-occlusive disease [11a], is reported.

Gynura bicolor, which has been cultivated as a popular vegetable, is not only known to be nutritive but is also used for the treatment of diabetes in the south of China. Our previous pharmacological tests proved that the ethyl acetate and *n*-butanol extracts of aerial parts of the plant had significant effects on lowering blood glucose level in normal and alloxan-diabetic mice [11b]. To our knowledge, only three studies investigated the volatiles [3a-c] and one research reported on some anthocyanins [11c] from this plant. In the present study, two terpenes, four megastigmane-type norisoprenoids and two glycosides were obtained by combined chromatographic methods from the aqueous ethanolic extract of the aerial parts of *Gynura bicolor*. By comparison of their ¹H, ¹³C NMR and ESI-MS spectral data with those reported, these isolated compounds (**1-8**) were unambiguously identified as: ficus acid (**1**) [12a], loliolide (**2**) [12b], dehydrovomifoliol (**3**) [12c], vomifoliol (**4**) [13a], boscialin (**5**) [13b], (6S,9S)-roseoside (**6**) [13c], benzyl-β-D-glucopyranoside (**7**) [14a-b], 2-phenylethyl-β-D-glucopyranoside (**8**) [14b]. Noteworthy, the ¹H and ¹³C NMR spectral data of compound **2**, which were in correspondence with loliolide [12b], were also nearly identical with those of a compound, named pubinervoid A, which was isolated from *Schisandra pubescens* var. *pubinervis* [14c]. The structure proposal for pubinervoid A, with the same molecular formula as loliolide, was (4S*,6R*)-4-hydroxy-4,8,8-trimethyl-9-oxabicyclo[4.2.1]non-1-en-3-one, with an atypical value of 183.2 ppm for the chemical shift of the keto group. However, upon comparing GC-MS spectral data with data available in the WILEY6N database, compound **2** was identified as loliolide.

Chemotaxonomic significance: Pyrrolizidine alkaloids are widely found and are characteristic secondary metabolites in the tribe

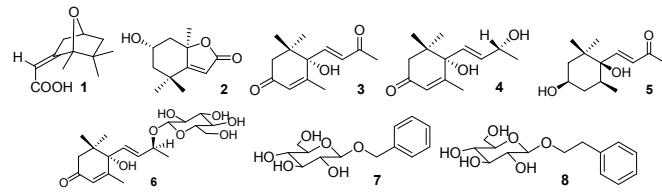


Figure 1: Structures of isolated compounds (1-8).

Senecioneae, belonging to the Asteraceae family [14d]. In this study, chemical constituents of *G. bicolor* from the same tribe are assigned as terpenes (**1-2**), megastigmane-type norisoprenoids (**3-6**) and glycosides (**6-8**). It should be noted that all these compounds were isolated for the first time from this plant, and no evidence could be found of the previous reported presence of megastigmane-type norisoprenoids in the genus *Gynura*. Roseoside (**6**) was firstly isolated from *Vinca rosea* in 1974 [14e], and together with their stereoisomers, they were found in many plant sources. It is interesting to note that (6S,9R)-roseoside, which is an isomer of (6S,9S)-roseoside (**6**) currently isolated, has previously been shown to increase insulin secretion from INS-1 β-cells [14f]. Vomifoliol (**4**), the aglycone of an isomer of (6S,9S)-roseoside (**6**), and its analogue, dehydrovomifoliol (**3**), were identified for the first time in the fruits from *Vitis vinifera* [15]. Boscialin (**5**) can be regarded as a reduced analogue of dehydrovomifoliol (**3**). The occurrence of C13-type norisoprenoids in *Gynura bicolor*, as demonstrated in this paper, is noteworthy.

Experimental

Plant material: The aerial parts of *Gynura bicolor* (Willd.) DC. were collected in June 2010 in Nanjing Botanical Garden Memorial Sun Yat-Sen, in the south of the Zijin Mountain, Nanjing, China. The plant (voucher specimen No. 510310-1) was identified by Professor Guo Rong-lin of Institute of Botany, Jiangsu Province and Chinese Academy of Sciences.

Extraction and isolation: Dry aerial parts of *G. bicolor* (2.9 kg) were extracted with 80% aqueous ethanol at 70 °C twice to afford 295 g of crude extract after evaporation in vacuo of the solvent. The

extract was coated on silica gel, and then successively extracted with *n*-hexane, CH₂Cl₂, EtOAc and MeOH to give four fractions. The CH₂Cl₂ extract (3.4 g) was further fractionated by column chromatography over silica gel, eluted with CH₂Cl₂ containing increasing concentrations of MeOH to obtain seven fractions (Fr. B1-B7). Fr. B2 (600 mg) was fractionated with an automatic flash chromatography system on a reversed-phase column (C-18) eluted by a gradient of water and MeOH (50-100%) to get four fractions (Fr. B2-1~4). Fr. B2-1 (248 mg) and B2-2 (175 mg) were further subjected to column chromatography over MCI gel CHP20P eluted by a gradient of water and MeOH (20-100%). Upon further silica gel column chromatography (CH₂Cl₂/MeOH, 100:1 to 10:1) and prep-HPLC (H₂O/CH₃CN, 75:25), ficusic acid **1** (2.2 mg) was obtained. Following silica gel column chromatography (petroleum ether/EtOAc, 10:1 to 1:1) and prep-HPLC (H₂O/CH₃CN, 75:25), loliolide **2** (4.0 mg) and dehydrovomifoliol **3** (0.5 mg) were isolated. Fr. B3 (655 mg) was successively fractionated by automatic flash chromatography (C-18, H₂O/MeOH, 50:50 to 0:100), MCI gel column chromatography (H₂O/MeOH, 80:20 to 0:100), prep-HPLC (H₂O/MeCN, 75:25) to give vomifoliol **4** (1.2 mg) and boscialin **5** (0.8 mg). The EtOAc extract (7.7 g) was fractionated by chromatography on a C-18 column, eluted with a gradient of water and MeOH (20-100%), to give five fractions (Fr.

C1-C5). Fr. C2 (724 mg) was further separated with automatic flash chromatography on a reverse phase column (C-18) eluted with a gradient of water and MeOH (20-100%). Four fractions (Fr. C2-1~4) were obtained and Fr. C2-2 (510 mg) was subjected to chromatography on a silica gel column eluted with a CHCl₃/MeOH gradient (100:1 to 6:1) to give six fractions (C2-2-1~6). The C2-2-3 fraction (12 mg) and C2-2-4 fraction (20 mg) were finally purified by prep-HPLC eluted with MeOH/H₂O (36:64) to yield pure (6S,9S)-roseoside **6** (2.2 mg) and benzyl- β -D-glucopyranoside **7** (1.3 mg). Fr. C3 (2.1 g) was purified successively via automatic flash chromatography (C-18, H₂O/MeOH 80:20 to 0:100), silica gel column chromatography (CH₂Cl₂/MeOH 10:1 to 4:1) and prep-HPLC (MeOH/H₂O 35:65) to afford 2-phenylethyl- β -D-glucopyranoside **8** (1.1 mg).

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Chemical Constituents of *Ligularia nelumbifolia* and *L. subspicata* Hybrid Collected in Shangrila County, Yunnan Province of China

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Four *Ligularia* individuals possessing morphological characters of both *L. nelumbifolia* and *L. subspicata* were discovered in Shangrila County, Yunnan Province, China. DNA sequencing showed that the specimens were hybrids of the two species and their maternal parent was *L. subspicata*. The chemical composition of the root extract was examined for three of them as well as *L. nelumbifolia* and *L. subspicata* collected sympatrically. Nelumol was isolated from *L. nelumbifolia*, and furanoeremophilanes from *L. subspicata*. While nelumol and furanoeremophilanes were detected in two of the hybrid samples, only furanoeremophilanes were detected in the others.

Keywords: Hybrid, *Ligularia nelumbifolia*, *Ligularia subspicata*, Furanoeremophilanes, Sesquiterpenoids, ITS, *atpB-rbcL*.

The genus *Ligularia* (Asteraceae) is highly diversified in the Hengduan Mountains area of China [1], providing suitable materials for the study of plant evolution. We have been studying the chemical diversity of *Ligularia* by combining two different approaches; analyses of chemical composition in root, and nucleotide sequences of evolutionarily neutral DNA regions. To date, we have found that there are several different modes of intra-specific diversity in *Ligularia*, implying that the mechanism(s) of generation of chemical diversity is complex [2]. For example, some species, such as *L. pleurocaulis* (Franch.) Hand.-Mazz. [3], and *L. virgaurea* (Maxim.) Mattf. [4] were separated into two distinct groups, while *L. dictyoneura* (Franch.) Hand.-Mazz. [5] and *L. kanaitzensis* (Franch.) Hand.-Mazz. [6,7] showed complex diversity. Chemical and genetic analyses of these species suggested that hybridization is one of the major pathways of evolution of *Ligularia* [2], supporting reticulate evolution within and among *Ligularia* and related genera [8]. Some natural *Ligularia* hybrids have actually been found in the Hengduan Mountains area [9].

We previously reported that *L. duciformis* and related species (*L. nelumbifolia* and *L. kongkalingensis*) in the Hengduan Mountains region mostly produced phenylpropenoids [10]. However, other classes of compounds, such as eremophilane- and oplopane-type sesquiterpenoids, were found in a limited number of samples. DNA sequencing strongly suggested hybridization in the plants, implying that the ability to produce sesquiterpenoids may have been brought about by introgression. However, there was no evidence showing that hybridization takes place between *L. duciformis* (or related species) and a plant that produces sesquiterpenoids.

In the course of our continuous field searches, we found several *Ligularia* individuals possessing morphological characters of both

L. nelumbifolia and *L. subspicata* at Shangrila (Zhongdian) County, Yunnan Province of China [11]. Phylogenetic analyses of these samples indicated that some individuals were possibly F2 or a later generation, although most of them were F1 [11]. Since natural hybridization is an important pathway of evolution, as described above, we analyzed root chemicals of four putative hybrid samples. *L. nelumbifolia* is a dominant species at the place [11]. Chemical constituents of the species have been reported to include 4-O-geranylsinapyl alcohol (nelumol; 1) and related phenylpropenoid derivatives [10,12]. Although major *Ligularia* species in the Hengduan Mountains area produce furanoeremophilanes [2-6], *L. nelumbifolia* and related species do not, whereas *L. subspicata* produces furanoeremophilanes. Subspicatin A (2), ligularol (3), furanoeremophilane-10β-ol (= tetradymol; 4), and other furano- and non-furano-eremophilanes were isolated from the roots of *L. subspicata* collected in Yunnan and Sichuan Provinces, China [13]. To the best of our knowledge, no chemical study of a natural hybrid of *Ligularia* has been reported.

Samples were collected at Xiaoxueshan, Shangrila (Zhongdian) County, Yunnan Province of China in August, 2009 and 2011. In 2009, two samples of *L. nelumbifolia* (samples N1 and N2), one of *L. subspicata* (sample S), and three samples of putative hybrids (samples A-C) were collected within 10 m from each other. In 2011, one putative hybrid (sample D) was collected at almost the same place as in 2009.

DNA sequencing was carried out to confirm that samples A-D were hybrids of *L. nelumbifolia* and *L. subspicata* [11]. The results for the ITS1-5.8S-ITS2 region of the nuclear rRNA gene are summarized in Table 1. As can be clearly seen, the sequences of samples A-D are basically a superposition of those of *L. nelumbifolia* (N1 and N2)

Table 1: ITS1-5.8S-ITS2 sequences of *L. nelumbifolia*, *L. subspicata*, and putative hybrids^a.

a Only the differences among the samples are shown. The base numbering is for *L. nelumbifolia*. K=G+T; M=A+C; R=A+G; S=G+C; W=A+T; Y=C+T.

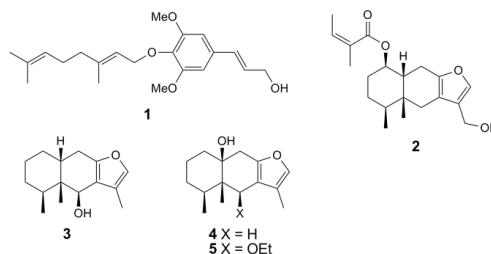
Because of the presence of an indel, the sequence in the upstream part of ITS1 and the downstream part were determined separately only for either strand. The bases shown in Table 1 are as read from upstream and downstream toward the 222nd base position.

and *L. subspicata* (S), showing that samples A-D were very likely to be hybrids between the two species. In order to determine the maternal parent of samples A-D, sequences of *rpl32-trnL* and *atpB-rbcL* intergenic regions of the plastid genome were determined [11,14]. The *rpl32-trnL* sequences of the present *L. nelumbifolia* and *L. subspicata* samples were exactly the same as determined previously (database accession JF767242 for *L. nelumbifolia* and JF767237 for *L. subspicata*) [11]. Samples A-D had the *L. subspicata* sequence. The *atpB-rbcL* sequence was A-A9, 344G for the *L. nelumbifolia* samples (N1 and N2) and G-A9, 409T for the *L. subspicata* sample (S) under our nomenclature [10,13,14]. The sequence was G-A9, 409T for samples A-D. Thus, the maternal parent was deduced to be *L. subspicata*.

For a rough examination of the composition of root chemicals in each sample, a small amount of fresh root was extracted with EtOH and compounds therein were analyzed by Ehrlich's test on TLC [15], which has been used as a powerful method to detect furan compounds in our previous works [3-7, 13, 14]. *L. subspicata* (sample S) showed many Ehrlich-positive spots, showing that the sample was furanoeremophilane-producing type [13]. All hybrid samples were also Ehrlich-positive. In contrast, two *L. nelumbifolia* samples were negative to the test, suggesting the absence of furanoeremophilanes.

Isolation and structure determination of major constituents in each sample was carried out using air-dried roots. Each sample was extracted with EtOH at room temperature and the extract was submitted to silica gel column chromatography. From *L. subspicata* (sample S), three furanoeremophilanes, subspicatin A (**2**) [13], ligularol (**3**) [16], and 6 β -ethoxyfuranoeremophilan-10 β -ol (**5**) [6], were isolated. Compound **5** may be an artifact generated from the corresponding diol during EtOH extraction [6]. From the EtOH extract of *L. nelumbifolia* (samples N1 and N2), nelumol (**1**) [17] was obtained as the major component.

Furanoeremophilanes were found in the extracts of all four hybrid samples. The EtOH extract of sample B yielded subspicatin A (2) and tetradymol (4) [18], together with nelumol (1). In contrast, sample C yielded only furanoeremophilanes, i.e., subspicatin A (2) and ligularol (3). The chemical composition of sample D was very similar to that of sample C, yielding subspicatin A (2) and ligularol (3). Although isolation of chemical components from sample A was attempted, this was not successful (see experimental section). The chemical composition of sample A was deduced by TLC. Ligularol



(3) was detected by Ehrlich's test as a pink spot at R_f 0.63 (*n*-hexane-EtOAc 7:3). Nelumol (**1**) was also detected at R_f 0.15 when visualized by UV and phosphomolybdic acid. The results of the chemical analysis are summarized in Table 2.

Table 2: Compounds in *L. nelumbifolia*, *L. subspicata*, and putative hybrids^a

Sample (species)	1	2	3	4	5
N1 (<i>L. nelumbifolia</i>)	+				
N2 (<i>L. nelumbifolia</i>)	+				
S (<i>L. subspicata</i>)		+	+		+
A (hybrid)	(+)		(+)		
B (hybrid)	+	+			+
C (hybrid)		+	+		
D (hybrid)		+	+		

a +, isolated; (+), detected on TLC

It is obvious that the ability to produce furanoeremophilanes originated from the *L. subspicata* parent, because *L. nelumbifolia* at this place did not produce them, and because subspicatin A, found in hybrid samples B, C, and D, was a compound characteristic of *L. subspicata*. In contrast, nelumol (**1**), the major component of *L. nelumbifolia*, was detected only in samples A and B, and the compound or a related phenylpropenoid was not detected in the extracts of samples C and D. These data show that samples A and B produced root chemicals of both parents, while the samples C and D produced mainly *L. subspicata* components. Such chemical variety among offspring had been reported previously [19]. At any rate, the present results show that hybridization between *L. nelumbifolia* and an eremophilane-producing *Ligularia* is possible and that offspring can produce eremophilanes.

The composition of furanoeremophilanes in sample B was noteworthy; namely, tetradyomol (**4**) was included as a major component in the sample, but was absent in the other three hybrid samples. Interestingly, tetradyomol (**4**) was not detected in the *L. subspicata* sample collected sympatrically, although the compound had been isolated as a minor component of the species collected at a different place [13]. We previously proposed a hypothesis that the production of furanoeremophilanes was ecologically advantageous [2]. Among a number of furanoeremophilane-producing *Ligularia* plants, tetradyomol-producing plants were ecologically more predominant [7]. If a furanoeremophilane-producing hybrid can backcross with *L. nelumbifolia* (or related species), the advantage would select furanoeremophilane-producing offspring, thereby introgressing the ability to produce furanoeremophilanes into *L. nelumbifolia*.

Experimental

General: NMR, JEOL AL 400 or JEOL ECX-400 spectrometer (400 MHz for ^1H ; 100 MHz for ^{13}C); IR, JASCO FT/IR-230 spectrometer; Mass spectra (MS) (EI+), JEOL JMS-700 MStation. Column chromatography was carried out on silica gel (either Kanto silica gel 60 N (spherical neutral) or Wakogel C-200 or C-300). Analytical TLC was carried out on Merck Kieselgel 60 F₂₅₄ (layer thickness 0.2 or 0.25 mm) using either Ehrlich's reagent (*p*-dimethylaminobenzaldehyde and HCl) [15] or *p*-anisaldehyde/

AcOH/H₂SO₄ as visualizing agents. HPLC was carried out on a Shimadzu LC-20AT pump, SPD-20A Prominence UV/VIS detector, Kanto Mightysil Si60 (10 × 250 mm) ODS column. Purification of DNA from dried leaves, amplification of the ITS1-5.8S-ITS2 and the *atpB-rbcL* intergenic regions by polymerase chain reaction, and DNA sequencing of the regions were carried out as described earlier [13]. Amplification and sequencing of the *rpl32-trnL* intergenic region was carried out with rpL32-F and trnL^(UAG) primers [20].

Plant materials: Samples were collected at Xiaoxueshan (Mt. Xiaoxue), Shangrila County, Yunnan Province of China. Each sample was identified by XG (author). Voucher specimens were deposited in the Herbarium of Kunming Institute of Botany (No. 2009-07 (sample N1, *L. nelumbifolia*), 2009-12 (sample N2, *L. nelumbifolia*), 2009-08 (sample S, *L. subspicata*), 2009-09 (hybrid A), 2009-10 (hybrid B), 2009-11 (hybrid C), and 2011-113 (hybrid D)).

Extraction and purification: Dried roots of sample S (*L. subspicata*) (4.6 g) was extracted with EtOH at room temperature and the extract concentrated under reduced pressure to give an oily product (113 mg). Part of this (45.6 mg) was submitted to CC (SiO₂ 3 g; eluent: *n*-hexane-EtOAc 20:1 to 5:1) to give subspicatin A (**2**) (6.1 mg, 13%) and ligularol (**3**) (7.3 mg, 16%). From less polar fractions, 6β-ethoxyfuranoeremophil-10β-ol (**5**) (1.5 mg, 3.3%, *R*_f 0.80) was isolated after further chromatography (SiO₂ 1 g; eluent: *n*-hexane-EtOAc 100:1).

Dried root samples of N1 (*L. nelumbifolia*; 39.1 g) and N2 (*L. nelumbifolia*; 21.3 g) were extracted and the extracts concentrated as described above to give oily products (251 mg and 826 mg, respectively). Part of these (122 mg and 102 mg) were submitted to

CC (SiO₂ 10 g; eluent: *n*-hexane-EtOAc 20:1 to 5:1) to give nelumol (**1**) (12.1 mg, 9.9%; and 4.7 mg, 4.7%, respectively).

Dried roots of sample A (hybrid) (3.1 g) was also extracted with EtOH at room temperature and the extract concentrated under reduced pressure to give an oily product (99 mg). Isolation of chemical components was attempted using silica gel CC, but was not successful. Although TLC of the extract showed two spots (see text), isolation of the products, presumably ligularol (**3**) and nelumol (**1**), was not successful due to the paucity of the component and severe contamination by some other components.

Dried roots of sample B (hybrid) (12.6 g) was extracted with EtOH at room temperature and the extract concentrated under reduced pressure to give an oily product (257 mg). Part of this (166 mg) was submitted to CC (SiO₂ 15 g; eluent: *n*-hexane-EtOAc 20:1 to 1:1) to give tetradyomol (**4**) (11.4 mg, 6.9%), subspicatin A (**2**) (9.9 mg, 6.0%), and nelumol (**1**) (4.2 mg, 2.5%).

Dried root samples of C and D (hybrids) (25.5 g, 12.3 g, respectively) were separately extracted and the extracts concentrated as described above to give oily products (582 mg and 1050 mg, respectively). Part of the C extract (182 mg) was submitted to CC (SiO₂ 10 g; eluent: *n*-hexane-EtOAc 20:1 to 10:1) to give ligularol (**3**) (19.4 mg, 11%) and subspicatin A (**2**) (5.1 mg, 2.8%). The D extract was submitted to CC (SiO₂ 20 g; eluent: *n*-hexane-EtOAc 0:1 to 1:0) to give ligularol (**3**) (2.0 mg, 0.2%) and subspicatin A (**2**) (3.3 mg, 0.3%).

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A Practical, Enantiospecific Synthesis of (*S*)-*trans*- γ -Monocyclofarnesol

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An expedient and concise synthesis of (*S*)-*trans*- γ -monocyclofarnesol is here described. The aforementioned sesquiterpene was prepared starting from enantioenriched (*S*)- γ -dihydroionone, which was in turn obtained from racemic α -ionone through the combined use of two previously developed processes. Key steps of the presented synthesis are the stereoselective Horner-Wadsworth-Emmons reaction between triethyl phosphonoacetate and γ -dihydroionone and the effective fractional crystallization of the γ -monocyclofarnesol-3,5-dinitrobenzoate esters. By these means the target compound was obtained in good yield and with very high stereoisomeric purity.

Keywords: Sesquiterpenes, Stereoselective synthesis, Enzyme-mediated resolution, Horner-Wadsworth-Emmons reaction, Fractional crystallization.

The general monocyclofarnesyl framework **1** (Figure 1) occurs in a large number of terpenic natural products.

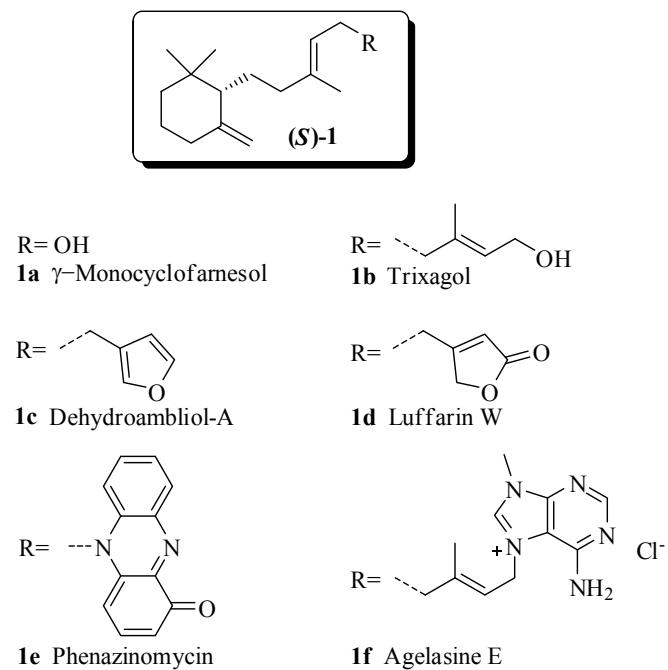


Figure 1: The (*S*)-*trans*- γ -monocyclofarnesyl framework **1** and some relevant natural products featuring this structure.

The simplest compound belonging to this class is *trans*- γ -monocyclofarnesol **1a** (R=OH), which was first identified [1] among the minor metabolites formed by the mycelia of the fungus *Helminthosporium siccans* in the biosynthetic process that affords the antibiotic siccamin. More than twenty years after, the same alcohol was extracted from the liverwort *Diplophyllum serrulatum* [2], confirming definitively its natural occurrence, albeit from two natural sources only.

Beside the rarity of **1a**, a large number of its homologues (e.g. **1b-f**) were isolated [3-7], and the biological activity of some of these

compounds [6-10] greatly increased the synthetic interest for the γ -monocyclofarnesyl structure.

It is noteworthy that all the aforementioned products are usually present in their corresponding natural sources as a single stereoisomeric form. More specifically, they show an enantiocentre of (*S*) configuration and a (*E*)-trisubstituted double bond. Since their biological activity is strictly related to their stereochemistry, chemical syntheses providing a high level of stereocontrol were particularly sought-after. For such purposes, (*S*)-*trans*- γ -monocyclofarnesol is the most suitable chiral building block, having all the steric requirements already present in the molecular scaffold and allowing the preparation of higher homologues by exploiting the chemical reactivity of the hydroxy group.

Such a kind of approach was successfully employed for the synthesis of the alkaloid phenazinomycin **1e** [9]. In this process the key intermediate **1a** was prepared by means of an elegant, highly stereospecific, synthesis. Unfortunately, this alcohol was obtained through a very lengthy path, thus hampering the general use of this approach.

Two different syntheses [11,12] afforded either **1a** or the corresponding alkyl bromide starting from the enantiopure (*S*)- γ -dihydroionone, which was in turn obtained by degradation of the natural triterpenes ambreine and sclareol, respectively. In these procedures the (*E*)-trisubstituted double bond was built up stereoselectively, although close to a minority amount of the (*Z*)-isomer.

Recently, we have described [13] a very useful chemo-enzymatic synthesis of the enantioenriched (*4R,6S*)-acetoxy- γ -ionone (**2**) starting from racemic ionone alpha (Figure 2). The following palladium-catalysed reductive elimination of the acetate functional group allows the preparation of (*S*)- γ -ionone (**3**), both in high enantiomeric and stereoisomeric purity. In addition, we have previously demonstrated that enantiopure γ -ionone isomers could be selectively reduced to the corresponding γ -dihydroionone derivatives by means of Bu₃SnH and catalytic (Ph₃P)₂PdCl₂ [14]. The combination of these findings offers a reliable synthetic access to (*S*)- γ -dihydroionone (**4**), not strictly depending upon natural sources.

With this chiral building block in hand, we looked for an effective and stereoselective C-2 homologation process.

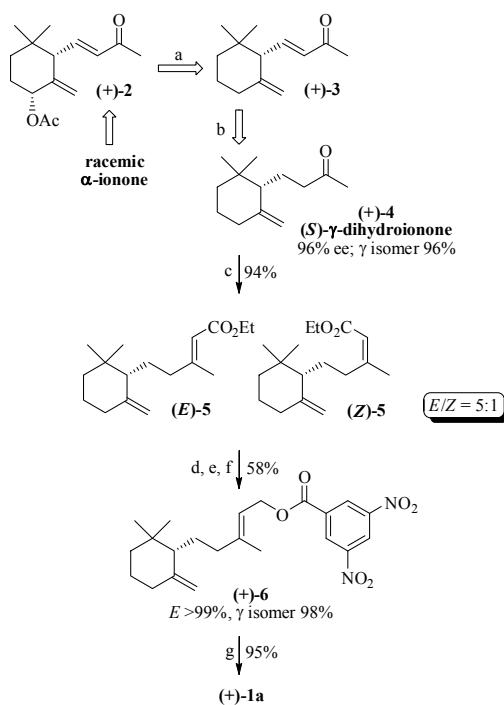


Figure 2: Synthesis of (*S*)-*trans*- γ -monocyclofarnesol (+)-1a starting from (4*R*,6*S*)-acetoxy- γ -ionone. Reagents and conditions: a) Et₃N, HCO₂H, (Ph₃P)₂PdCl₂ cat., THF reflux; b) Bu₃SnH, NH₄Cl, H₂O, (Ph₃P)₂PdCl₂ cat., THF at rt; c) (EtO)₂POCH₂CO₂Et, NaH, THF, from 0° to 50° C; d) DIBAH in toluene, THF, -10° C; e) 3,5-dinitrobenzoyl chloride, pyridine, DMAP cat., CH₂Cl₂; f) three crystallizations from *n*-hexane; g) NaOH, MeOH, rt.

It was previously demonstrated [11] that Horner-Wadsworth-Emmons reaction between methyl diethylphosphonoacetate and γ -dihydroionone affords a 63:27 mixture of the (*E*)- and (*Z*)- γ -monocyclofarnesyl methyl esters, respectively, which could be reduced to the corresponding γ -monocyclofarnesol isomers. Since neither the latter alcohols nor the starting esters are separable by chromatography, the fractional distillation of the isomeric mixture of the esters was employed in the stereoselective preparation of **1a**. Otherwise, we found that the latter tricky separation can be avoided by combining an improvement in the condensation stereoselectivity with the direct purification of the obtained *E/Z* isomeric mixture of alcohols **1a**, through fractional crystallization of their 3,5-dinitrobenzoate esters. More specifically, we observed a considerable increasing in the *E/Z* selectivity when the Horner-Wadsworth-Emmons reaction was performed both by using an excess of triethylphosphonoacetate instead of methyl diethylphosphonoacetate and by a carefully control of the reaction temperature (see experimental).

According to our protocol, (+)-4 was converted into an 83:17 mixture of the γ -monocyclofarnesyl ethyl esters (*E*-5 and (*Z*)-5, respectively, in 94% overall yield. The latter isomeric mixture was then reduced with DIBAH to give the corresponding allylic alcohols, which were directly treated with 3,5-dinitrobenzoyl chloride and pyridine. Thus, the obtained esters mixture was crystallized three times from *n*-hexane. The collected crystals were obtained in 58% overall yield and turned out to be free of the (*Z*)-isomer. Indeed, neither the NMR analysis of (+)-6 nor the GC analysis of the alcohol **1a** obtained from the aforementioned dinitrobenzoate ester revealed the presence of the unwanted isomer.

Furthermore, the purity of the γ -isomer increased from 96% to 98%, thus indicating that the fractional crystallization is in many respects a very effective purification procedure. As a final point, the basic hydrolysis of the ester (+)-6 afforded pure alcohol (+)-1a whose analytical data agree both with those reported for the natural product and with those described for the synthetic material.

Noteworthy is that the reported overall procedure was tested on a small scale (starting from a few hundred milligrams of γ -dihydroionone) and on a multi-gram scale, and analogous results were obtained. This flexibility corroborates the reliability of the process.

The exploitation of the obtained isomerically pure (*S*)-*trans*- γ -monocyclofarnesol for the synthesis of further natural products is ongoing and the results will be presented in due course.

Experimental

General: All moisture-sensitive reactions were carried out under a static atmosphere of nitrogen. All reagents were of commercial quality. TLC: Merck silica gel 60 F₂₅₄ plates. Column chromatography: silica gel. GC-MS analyses: HP-6890 gas chromatograph equipped with a 5973 mass detector, using a HP-5MS column (30 m × 0.25 mm, 0.25 μm film thickness; Hewlett Packard) with the following temp. program: 60° (1 min) – 6°/min – 150° (1 min) – 12°/min – 280° (5 min); carrier gas, He; constant flow 1mL/min; split ratio, 1/30; t_R given in min: t_R(**1a**) 21.79, t_R(**4**) 16.00, t_R(**E-5**) 22.71, t_R(**Z-5**) 21.93; mass spectra: m/z (rel.%). Mass spectrum of compound (+)-6 was recorded on a Bruker ESQUIRE 3000 PLUS spectrometer (ESI detector). Optical rotations: Jasco-DIP-181 digital polarimeter, measured at 20°C. ¹H and ¹³C Spectra: CDCl₃ solns. at rt; Bruker-AC-400 spectrometer at 400 and 100 MHz, respectively; chemical shifts in ppm rel to internal SiMe₄ (=0 ppm), J values in Hz.

(S)- γ -Dihydroionone (+)-4: Compound (+)-4 (98% chemical purity; 96% ee; isomers ratio γ : α : β = 96:3.5:0.5) was obtained by reduction of (*S*)- γ -ionone, in turn prepared from (4*R*,6*S*)-acetoxy- γ -ionone, according to our previously reported procedures [13, 14].

[α]_D = +16.5° (c = 1, CHCl₃); Lit. [14]: [α]_D = +19.4° (c = 1.2, CHCl₃)

¹H NMR, ¹³C NMR, MS in accordance with those previously reported [14].

(S)-Ethyl 5-(2,2-dimethyl-6-methylenecyclohexyl)-3-methylpent-2-enoate 5: Triethyl phosphonoacetate (7 g, 31.2 mmol) was added dropwise under nitrogen over a period of 1 h to a stirred suspension of NaH (60% in mineral oil; 1.25 g, 31.2 mmol) in dry THF (25 mL) at 0°C. To the resulting mixture was slowly added a solution of (+)-4 (2 g, 10.3 mmol) in dry THF (5 mL). When the addition was complete, the reaction was slowly heated at 50°C, stirring until the starting ketone was no longer detectable by TLC analysis (3 h). After cooling, the reaction was poured onto a mixture of crushed ice and a saturated solution of NH₄Cl aq. (100 mL). The mixture was extracted with diethyl ether (2 × 100 mL). The organic phase was washed with brine, dried (Na₂SO₄), and concentrated under reduced pressure. The residue was chromatographed using *n*-hexane/diethyl ether (95:5–9:1) as eluent to afford pure **5** (2.55 g, 94% yield) as an *E/Z* mixture of isomers (*E/Z* ratio 5:1, by NMR analysis).

(E)-5: ¹H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl₃): 0.84 (3H, s), 0.92 (3H, s), 1.18–1.27 (1H, m), 1.28 (3H, t, *J* = 7.2 Hz), 1.41–1.58 (4H, m), 1.58–1.69 (1H, m), 1.70 (1H, dd, *J* = 11.4, 3.3 Hz), 1.85–1.96 (1H, m), 1.97–2.16 (3H, m), 2.15 (3H, d, *J* = 1.3 Hz), 4.15 (2H, q, *J* = 7.2 Hz), 4.55 (1H, m), 4.78 (1H, br s), 5.65 (1H, br q, *J* = 1.3 Hz).

^{13}C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl_3): 14.3 (Me), 18.9 (Me), 23.6 (CH_2), 24.4 (CH_2), 26.2 (Me), 28.3 (Me), 32.4 (CH_2), 34.9 (C), 36.2 (CH_2), 39.6 (CH_2), 53.7 (CH), 59.4 (CH_2), 109.3 (CH_2), 115.4 (CH), 148.9 (C), 160.6 (C), 166.9 (C).

GC-MS (EI): m/z (%) = 264 [M^+] (3), 249 (25), 219 (8), 203 (14), 191 (9), 176 (100), 161 (69), 141 (39), 128 (76), 121 (31), 109 (99), 95 (66), 81 (87), 69 (69), 55 (28).

(Z)-**5**: ^1H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl_3): 0.84 (3H, s), 0.93 (3H, s), 1.18-2.52 (11H, m), 1.26 (3H, t, J = 7.2 Hz), 1.87 (3H, d, J = 1.3 Hz), 4.13 (2H, q, J = 7.2 Hz), 4.60 (1H, m), 4.78 (1H, br s), 5.63 (1H, br s).

^{13}C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl_3): 14.3 (Me), 23.6 (CH_2), 25.1 (CH_2), 25.3 (Me), 26.4 (Me), 28.3 (Me), 32.2 (CH_2), 32.6 (CH_2), 34.9 (C), 36.1 (CH_2), 54.5 (CH), 59.3 (CH_2), 109.2 (CH_2), 115.9 (CH), 149.0 (C), 160.8 (C), 166.2 (C).

GC-MS (EI): m/z (%) = 264 [M^+] (3), 249 (23), 218 (7), 203 (10), 191 (7), 176 (76), 161 (47), 137 (78), 128 (100), 121 (30), 109 (72), 95 (64), 81 (82), 69 (58), 55 (27).

(S)-(E)-5-(2,2-dimethyl-6-methylenecyclohexyl)-3-methylpent-2-enyl 3,5-dinitrobenzoate (+)-6: DIBAH (14.5 mL of 1.7 M solution in toluene) was added dropwise under nitrogen to a stirred solution of ester **5** (*E/Z* ratio 5:1, 2.64 g, 10 mmol) in dry THF (40 mL) at -10°C . The reaction was stirred at 0°C for 1 h, then diluted with diethyl ether (100 mL) and quenched with a saturated solution of NH_4Cl aq. (50 mL). The mixture was acidified with diluted HCl aq. and extracted with diethyl ether (2×100 mL). The combined organic phases were washed with brine, dried (Na_2SO_4) and concentrated under reduced pressure. The residue was dissolved in CH_2Cl_2 (10 mL) and treated with pyridine (2 mL), DMAP (15 mg, 0.1 mmol) and a solution of 3,5-dinitrobenzoyl chloride (3 g, 13 mmol) in CH_2Cl_2 (5 mL). After complete transformation of the starting alcohol the mixture was diluted with water (200 mL) and extracted with diethyl ether (2×150 mL). The combined organic phases were washed with aq. NaHCO_3 (5% solution), brine and then dried (Na_2SO_4). Concentration at reduced pressure gave an oil that was purified by CC (*n*-hexane/ Et_2O 9:1) and crystallized 3 times from *n*-hexane. The ester (+)-**6** (2.4 g, 58% yield) was obtained as colorless crystals showing 99% chemical purity, free of *Z*-isomer and showing a γ/α isomeric ratio of 98:2 (by NMR analysis).

MP: 82-83°C.

$[\alpha]_D$: +10.5 (c 2.1, CHCl_3).

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^1H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl_3): 0.85 (3H, s), 0.92 (3H, s), 1.18-1.28 (1H, m), 1.42-1.58 (4H, m), 1.57-1.67 (1H, m), 1.71 (1H, dd, J = 11.4, 3.3 Hz), 1.80 (3H, s), 1.87 (1H, ddd, J = 14.3, 10.5, 6.1 Hz), 1.95-2.14 (3H, m), 4.55 (1H, m), 4.78 (1H, br s), 4.97 (2H, d, J = 7.2 Hz), 5.48 (1H, br t, J = 7.2 Hz), 9.16 (2H, d, J = 2.1 Hz), 9.21 (1H, t, J = 2.1 Hz).

^{13}C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl_3): 16.7 (Me), 23.6 (CH_2), 24.3 (CH_2), 26.3 (Me), 28.3 (Me), 32.4 (CH_2), 34.9 (C), 36.2 (CH_2), 38.1 (CH_2), 53.6 (CH), 63.7 (CH_2), 109.1 (CH_2), 116.7 (CH), 122.2 (CH), 129.4 (CH), 134.3 (C), 145.1 (C), 148.6 (C), 149.0 (C), 162.5 (C).

MS (ESI): m/z (positive ion) = 439 [$\text{M}^+ + \text{Na}$].

(S)-Trans- γ -monocyclofarnesol = (S,E)-5-(2,2-dimethyl-6-methylenecyclohexyl)-3-methylpent-2-en-1-ol (+)-1a: The 3,5-dinitrobenzoate (+)-**6** (0.5 g, 1.2 mmol) was dissolved in methanol (5 mL) and treated with NaOH (1 g, 25 mmol) in methanol (5 mL) stirring at rt until the starting ester was no longer detected by TLC analysis. The mixture was diluted with water (50 mL) and extracted with diethyl ether (2 x 50 mL). The organic phase was washed with brine, dried (Na_2SO_4) and concentrated *in vacuo*. The residue was roughly chromatographed (*n*-hexane/ Et_2O 9:1) to give (+)-**1a** (255 mg, 95% yield) as a colorless oil showing 97% chemical purity (by GC) and a γ/α isomeric ratio of 98:2 (by NMR analysis). $[\alpha]_D$: +17.2 (c 2.3, CHCl_3).

The recorded optical rotation value is slightly inferior to those previously reported: $[\alpha]_D$: +18.2 (c 0.3, CHCl_3) [2]; $[\alpha]_D$: +21.1 (CHCl_3) [11]. Since the (*S*)- α -ionone isomers usually show a higher optical rotation value and opposite sign than their corresponding γ -isomers, the amount of about 2% of the (*S*)- α -monocyclofarnesol might take into account the discrepancy observed.

^1H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl_3): 0.84 (3H, s), 0.92 (3H, s), 1.17-1.26 (1H, m), 1.36-1.64 (6H, m), 1.67 (3H, s), 1.69 (1H, dd, J = 11.4, 3.2 Hz), 1.78 (1H, ddd, J = 14.3, 10.8, 6.2 Hz), 1.93-2.12 (3H, m), 4.14 (2H, d, J = 6.9 Hz), 4.54 (1H, m), 4.76 (1H, br s), 5.40 (1H, tq, J = 6.9, 1.3 Hz).

^{13}C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl_3): 16.3 (Me), 23.6 (CH_2), 24.5 (CH_2), 26.2 (Me), 28.3 (Me), 32.4 (CH_2), 34.8 (C), 36.2 (CH_2), 38.0 (CH_2), 53.7 (CH), 59.3 (CH_2), 108.9 (CH_2), 123.0 (CH), 140.3 (C), 149.1 (C).

GC-MS (EI): m/z (%) = 222 [M^+] (1), 207 (22), 204 (11), 189 (47), 177 (9), 161 (14), 148 (13), 133 (23), 121 (31), 109 (100), 95 (49), 81 (79), 69 (57), 55 (30).

Supplementary data: Copies of the ^1H NMR, ^{13}C NMR and DEPT NMR spectra of the (*S*)- γ -monocyclofarnesol **1a** are available.

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ACAT Inhibitory Activity of Exudates from *Calocedrus macrolepis* var. *formosana*

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Cholesterol acyltransferase (ACAT) is an enzyme controlling cholesterol esterification in cells. Large amounts of cholesterol esters accumulate in macrophages and smooth muscle cells of blood vessel walls resulting in the initial stages of atherosclerosis. Thus, atherosclerosis might be inhibited through inhibition of the activity of ACAT. In the present study, we identified by spectral analysis and chromatographic quantification that ferruginol was the most abundant component of exudates secreted from the wounding site of *Calocedrus macrolepis* Kurz var. *formosana*. Results obtained from the cholesterol absorption assay revealed that ferruginol exhibited a significant inhibitory activity on cholesterol absorption in mice macrophages (RAW 264.7 cell). Based on the results from analyzing the ratio of cholesterol esterification, ferruginol dose-dependently suppressed cholesterol esterification and the IC₅₀ value was 2.0 µg/mL. In conclusion, ferruginol revealed strong inhibitory activities that retarded the absorption and esterification of cholesterol in cells. Our finding indicates that ferruginol might possess a potential for development as a pharmaceutical product for preventing arteriosclerosis.

Keywords: Ferruginol, Arteriosclerosis, Acyl-CoA, Cholesterol acyltransferase, *Calocedrus macrolepis* Kurz var. *formosana*.

Calocedrus macrolepis Kurz var. *formosana* (Cupressaceae) is an endemic conifer in Taiwan. More than 100 compounds have been isolated from the plant, including monoterpenoids, diterpenoids, lignans and steroids [1-6]. The resin produced by plants, consisting mainly of sesquiterpenoids and diterpenoids, is a vital defense system against insect and pathogen attacks [7]. In this study, we collected exudates from the bark surface of 20-year-old *C. macrolepis* and 7 diterpenoids, including ferruginol [8], trans-communic acid [9], isopimaric acid [10], isopimarol [11], 6α-hydroxysugiol, sugiol, and secoabietane dialdehyde [5] were identified using chromatographic separation and spectroscopic analyses. Ferruginol (Figure 1) was the most abundant compound identified in the exudates, forming approximately 77%, w/w, of the total.

ACAT is an enzyme which catalyzes the conversion of free cholesterol and fatty acyl CoA to a storage form of cholesterol, cholestryler ester (CE) [12]. Atherosclerosis results from an excess accumulation of cholesterol and macrophages that deposit on the blood vessel wall and eventually narrow the artery [13]. In the present study, we utilized NBD-cholesterol, a fluorescent sterol analog, to mimic the absorption and esterification of native cholesterol in cultured cells [14].

RAW 264.7 cells pre-treated with ferruginol for 1 h significantly suppressed cholesterol absorption in a dose-dependent manner (Table 1). The inhibitory activity was 62.5% at a concentration of 20 µg/mL and the IC₅₀ value was 9.5 µg/mL. Sandoz 58-035, a known inhibitor of cholesterol acyltransferase [15], showed 45.8% inhibition. Our data revealed that ferruginol has a higher potential

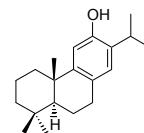


Figure 1: The dominant compound, ferruginol, in the exudates secreted from *Calocedrus macrolepis* var. *formosana*.

Table 1: Inhibition effect of ferruginol on cholesterol absorption

Compounds	Concentration (µg/mL)	Inhibition of cholesterol absorption (%)
Sandoz 58-035	10	45.8
Ferruginol	5	41.4
Ferruginol	10	52.5
Ferruginol	20	62.5

RAW 264.7 cells were incubated in medium containing ferruginol at indicated dosages for 1 h and further treated with 1 µg/mL NBD-cholesterol for 6 h. 10 µg/mL Sandoz 58-035 (Sigma St. Louis MO) was used as a reference compound. The inhibitory effect was compound-treated group compared with vehicle control (DMSO).

for suppressing cholesterol absorption than Sandoz 58-035 and the working mechanism is worth further investigation.

To decipher whether the inhibitory effect of cholesterol absorption by ferruginol is correlated with ACAT activity, we isolated the lipid contents from ferruginol treated cells and detected the levels of NDB-cholesterol and NBD-cholesterol ester, respectively, using high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC). Our data showed that ferruginol dose-dependently suppressed the level of NBD-cholesterol ester, which dramatically decreased from 25.3% to 1.4%

at a concentration of 10 µg/mL (Table 2). By comparison with control, cells treated with 10 µg/mL ferruginol suppressed 94.4% of cholesterol esterification. From these findings we suggest that ferruginol efficiently inhibits the ACAT activity of converting free cholesterol to CE by macrophages. In conclusion, ferruginol revealed a strong retarding activity for the absorption and esterification of cholesterol in cells. Our finding indicates that ferruginol might possess the potential to be developed as a pharmaceutical product for preventing arteriosclerosis.

Table 2: Inhibitory activity of cholesterol esterification by ferruginol.

Ferruginol dosages (µg/mL)	Ratio of NBD-cholesteryl esters	Inhibition of cholesterol esterification (%)
Control	25.3	0.0
1.0	20.2	20.4
2.5	9.2	63.6
5.0	3.4	86.7
10.0	1.4	94.4

RAW 264.7 cells were incubated in medium containing ferruginol at indicated dosages for 1 h and further treated with 1 µg/mL NBD-cholesterol for 6 h. Isolated lipid contents and detected the levels of NBD-CE and NBD-cholesterol respectively using HPLC. The inhibitory effect was ferruginol-treated group compared with control.

Experimental

Materials: The exudates secreted from the wounding site of 20-year-old *C. macrolepis* were dissolved in ethyl acetate and separated by HPLC using a Luna silica column (250 × 10 mm; 5 µm, Phenomenex, Torrance, CA) eluted with *n*-hex/EtOAc (*n*-hex/EtOAc = 88/12, flow rate = 2.5 mL/min). Compounds 1 to 7 were obtained at the retention times of 10.8, 16.0, 19.3, 21.6, 24.6, 33.5, and 38.3 min, respectively. The structures of the compounds were elucidated using spectroscopic analysis. The amount of the major compound (ferruginol) in exudates was further analyzed by

the same HPLC system. The peak area of ferruginol in the chromatogram of the exudates (with known loading concentration) was then defined and its content in the exudates calculated based on the quantity calibrated from the standard calibration curve.

Cell culture: RAW264.7 cells were maintained in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium supplemented with 100 units/mL penicillin, 100 µg/mL streptomycin and 10% fetal bovine serum (GIBCO Carlsbad, CA) at 37°C in a 5% CO₂ humidified incubator.

Cholesterol absorption assay: RAW 264.7 cells were plated in 24-well culture plates at a density of 1 × 10⁶ cells/well and allowed to recover for 24 h. Cells were incubated in medium containing ferruginol at various concentrations (5, 10 and 20 µg/mL) for 1 h and further treated with 1 µg/mL NBD-cholesterol for 6 h. 10 µg/mL Sandoz 58-035 (Sigma St. Louis MO) was used as a reference compound. After incubation, the cells were washed thrice with phosphate buffered saline (PBS). Fluorescence was detected using a Chameleon V Multilabel Microplate Reader (Hidex) with 485 nm excitation and 535 nm emission filters [16].

Cholesterol esterification assay: RAW 264.7 cells were plated in 6 cm culture dishes at a density of 5 × 10⁶ cells/well and allowed to recover for 24 h. Cells were incubated in medium containing ferruginol at various concentrations (1, 2.5, 5 and 10 µg/mL) for 1 h and further treated with 1 µg/mL NBD-cholesterol for 6 h. Cells were collected and the lipid contents isolated using *n*-hex/2-propanol (3:2) solution. The ratio of NDB-cholesterol and NBD-cholesterol ester was determined from the absorbance at 443 nm using HPLC (Luna Silica 250 mm × 10 mm, 5 µm).

$$\text{Inhibition\%} = \left(1 - \frac{\text{ratio of NBD-CE}_{\text{sample}}}{\text{ratio of NBD-CE}_{\text{control}}}\right) 100$$

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Cucurbitane-Type Triterpenoids from the Fruit Pulp of *Momordica charantia*

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Three new cucurbitane-type triterpenoids, $5\beta,19$ -epoxy- $23(R)$ -methoxycucurbita-6,24-dien- 3β -ol (**1**), $5\beta,19$ -epoxy- $23(S)$ -methoxycucurbita-6,24-dien- 3β -ol (**2**), and 3β -hydroxy- $23(R)$ -methoxycucurbita-6,24-dien- $5\beta,19$ -olide (**3**), were isolated from the fruit pulp of *Momordica charantia*. Their structures were established on the basis of extensive NMR (1H , ^{13}C , COSY, HMQC, HMBC, and NOESY) and EI-MS studies. Compound **1** exhibited cytotoxic activity against the SK-Hep 1 cell line.

Keywords: *Momordica charantia*, Cucurbitaceae, Fruit, Triterpenoid, Cucurbitane.

Momordica charantia L. (Cucurbitaceae), commonly known as bitter melon, is a slender-stemmed tendril climber and is cultivated throughout the world as a vegetable crop. Tissues of this plant have extensively been used in folk medicine as a remedy for diabetes in Asia. Previous investigations have shown that the extracts and compounds of tissues of *M. charantia* possess cytotoxic, anti-diabetic, and anti-inflammatory activities [1-4] and more than seventy cucurbitane-type triterpenes have been isolated from the fruits [4-13], seeds [14,15], root [16], and leaves and vines [17,18] of *M. charantia*. In the course of our research for bioactive secondary metabolites from Taiwanese *M. charantia*, we have reported the isolation and structure elucidation of twenty-five cucurbitane-type triterpenoids from the MeOH extract of the stems of this plant [19-23].

In the continuing phytochemical investigation of *M. charantia*, we further identified three new cucurbitane-type triterpenoids, $5\beta,19$ -epoxy- $23(R)$ -methoxycucurbita-6,24-dien- 3β -ol (**1**), $5\beta,19$ -epoxy- $23(S)$ -methoxycucurbita-6,24-dien- 3β -ol (**2**), and 3β -hydroxy- $23(R)$ -methoxycucurbita-6,24-dien- $5\beta,19$ -olide (**3**) from the fruit pulp of *M. charantia*. In this paper, we report the extraction, isolation, purification, and structure elucidation of compounds **1-3** and the cytotoxic activity of compound **1**.

The MeOH extract of the fruit pulp of *M. charantia* was suspended in water and then successively partitioned with EtOAc and *n*-BuOH. The combined *n*-BuOH soluble layer was subjected to Diaion HP-20 and silica gel column chromatography and further purification by normal phase semi-preparative HPLC to yield compounds **1-3**. The structures of the three new cucurbitane-type triterpenoids were elucidated as follows.

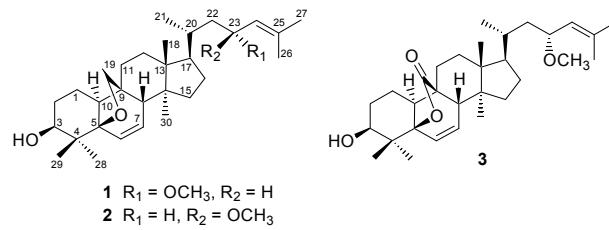


Figure 1: Structures of compounds **1-3** from *M. charantia*.

The molecular formula of compound **1** was assigned as C₃₁H₅₀O₃ based on the molecular ion at *m/z* 470.3767 in the HR-EI-MS. The IR spectrum showed absorption for a hydroxyl group (3463 cm⁻¹). The ¹H and ¹³C NMR spectra of **1** (Tables 1 and 2) displayed signals characteristic of the presence of four methyl singlets [δ_H 0.83, 0.86, 0.87, 1.18 (3H each, s)], one methyl doublet [δ_H 0.91 (3H, d, *J* = 6.4 Hz)], two vinylic methyls [δ_H 1.65 (3H, d, *J* = 1.2 Hz), 1.71 (3H, d, *J* = 1.2 Hz)], a methoxy [δ_H 3.19 (3H, s)], an oxymethylene [δ_H 3.48 (1H, d, *J* = 8.4 Hz), 3.64 (1H, d, *J* = 8.4 Hz); δ_C 80.1 (t)], one allylic oxymethine [δ_H 3.93 (1H, dt, *J* = 3.2, 9.2 Hz)], one olefinic methine [δ_H 5.00 (1H, dt, *J* = 1.2, 7.6 Hz)], and an allylic ABX system of *cis*-oriented cyclohexene [δ_H 6.00 (1H, dd, *J* = 2.4, 10.0 Hz, H-6), 5.61 (1H, dd, *J* = 3.6, 10.0 Hz, H-7), 2.32 (1H, brt, *J* = 3.6 Hz, H-8); δ_C 131.8 (d), 131.9 (d), 52.2 (d)]. The ¹³C NMR spectrum of **1** revealed 31 carbon signals, which were assigned by DEPT experiments as seven aliphatic methyl, one methoxy, seven aliphatic methylene, four aliphatic methine, four aliphatic quaternary, three olefinic methine, one quaternary olefinic, one secondary oxygenated, two tertiary oxygenated, and one quaternary oxygenated carbons. The spectroscopic characteristics were similar to the known compound (23*E*)- $5\beta,19$ -epoxycucurbita-6,23-diene- $3\beta,25$ -diol [19], except for the signals of C-20—C-27.

Table 1: ^1H NMR data for **1-3** (400 MHz in CDCl_3).

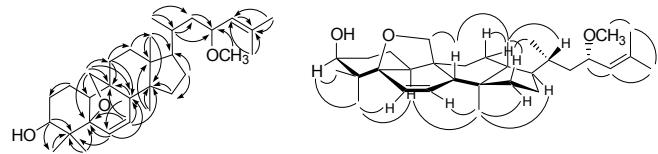
No.	1	2	3
1	1.44 m	1.42 m	1.26 m, 1.60 m
2	1.76 m	1.76 m	1.76 m
3	3.39 brd (10.0) ^a	3.38 brd (10.0)	3.44 brd (8.0)
6	6.00 dd (2.4, 10.0)	6.01 dd (2.4, 10.0)	6.17 dd (2.4, 10.0)
7	5.61 dd (3.6, 10.0)	5.61 dd (3.6, 10.0)	5.70 dd (3.6, 10.0)
8	2.32 brt (3.6)	2.30 brt (3.6)	2.50 brt (3.6)
10	2.24 dd (7.6, 11.2)	2.25 dd (7.2, 11.6)	2.62 dd (5.6, 12.0)
11	1.50 m, 1.72 m	1.50 m, 1.74 m	1.70 m, 2.20 m
12	1.60 m	1.60 m	1.56 m, 1.72 m
15	1.28 m	1.34 m	1.30 m
16	1.34 m, 1.92 m	1.27 m, 1.94 m	1.36 m, 1.90 m
17	1.38 m	1.41 m	1.40 m
18	0.86 s	0.81 s	0.92 s
19	3.48 d (8.4), 3.64 d (8.4)	3.48 d (8.4), 3.64 d (8.4)	
20	1.68 m	1.24 m	1.71 m
21	0.91 d (6.4)	0.88 d (7.2)	0.93 d (7.6)
22	0.96 m, 1.66 m	1.34 m, 1.52 m	0.94 m, 1.65 m
23	3.93 dt (3.2, 9.2)	3.90 dt (3.6, 9.2)	3.92 dt (3.6, 9.6)
24	5.00 dt (1.2, 9.2)	4.90 dt (1.2, 9.2)	5.00 dt (1.2, 9.6)
26	1.65 d (1.2)	1.68 d (1.2)	1.65 d (1.2)
27	1.71 d (1.2)	1.76 d (1.2)	1.71 d (1.2)
28	1.18 s	1.18 s	0.82 s
29	0.87 s	0.87 s	1.24 s
30	0.83 s	0.84 s	0.92 s
3-OH	4.00 d (10.0)	3.98 d (10.0)	
23-OCH ₃	3.19 s	3.20 s	3.19 s

^aCoupling constants are presented in Hz.

Table 2: ^{13}C NMR data for **1-3** (100 MHz in CDCl_3).

No.	1	2	3	No.	1	2	3
1	17.8	17.6	18.4	17	51.2	50.9	51.1
2	27.6	27.3	26.5	18	15.2	14.8	14.6
3	76.4	76.2	75.3	19	80.1	79.8	181.5
4	37.4	37.2	37.0	20	32.7	33.1	32.5
5	87.8	87.5	85.4	21	18.9	19.3	18.7
6	131.9	131.5	131.1	22	43.0	42.2	42.8
7	131.8	131.7	133.4	23	74.9	75.9	74.6
8	52.2	52.0	44.4	24	127.2	126.1	126.9
9	45.7	45.4	51.0	25	134.9	136.6	134.6
10	39.0	38.8	39.9	26	18.4	18.5	18.1
11	23.8	23.6	21.6	27	26.1	25.9	25.8
12	31.1	30.8	29.9	28	20.7	20.5	19.2
13	45.6	45.2	45.1	29	24.8	24.5	23.5
14	48.8	48.6	47.7	30	20.2	20.0	20.3
15	33.4	33.1	33.1	23-OCH ₃	56.0	55.3	55.7
16	28.3	28.2	27.6				

Thus, compound **1** was presumed to exhibit a $5\beta,19$ -epoxycucurbita-6-en-3 β -ol skeleton. The HMBC spectrum (Figure 2) of **1** showed long-range correlations between H-3 (δ_{H} 3.39) and C-1 (δ_{C} 17.8), C-4 (δ_{C} 37.4), and C-5 (δ_{C} 87.8), and this suggested that one hydroxyl group was located at C-3. The HMBC correlations between H-6 (δ_{H} 6.00)/C-4 (δ_{C} 37.4), C-5 (δ_{C} 87.8), C-8 (δ_{C} 52.2), and C-10 (δ_{C} 39.0); between H-7 (δ_{H} 5.61)/C-5 (δ_{C} 87.8), C-8 (δ_{C} 52.2), C-9 (δ_{C} 45.7) and C-14 (δ_{C} 48.8); and between H-19 (δ_{H} 3.48, 3.64)/C-5, C-8, C-9, C-10, and C-11 (δ_{C} 23.8) confirmed that the oxymethylene (C-19) was linked via an oxygen atom to C-5. The relative configurations of stereogenic carbon atoms in the tetracyclic rings were determined by significant NOE correlations between H-3 (δ_{H} 3.39)/Me-28 (δ_{H} 1.18), H-3/Me-29 (δ_{H} 0.87), H-8 (δ_{H} 2.32)/Me-18 (δ_{H} 0.86), H-8/H-19 (δ_{H} 3.48), H-10 (δ_{H} 2.24)/Me-28, H-10/Me-30 (δ_{H} 0.83), Me-18/H-20 (δ_{H} 1.68), and H-12 (δ_{H} 1.60)/Me-21 (δ_{H} 0.91) in the NOESY spectrum (Figure 2). The ^{13}C chemical shifts from C-20 to C-27 in the side chain were similar to those of cornusalterin G [24]. The ^1H NMR signals of the side chain include a secondary methyl [δ_{H} 0.91 (3H, d, J = 6.4 Hz)], two vinylic methyls [δ_{H} 1.65 and 1.71 (3H each, d, J = 1.2 Hz)], one O-methyl [δ_{H} 3.19 (3H, s)], one allylic oxymethine [δ_{H} 3.93 (1H, dt, J = 3.2, 9.2 Hz)], and one olefinic methine [δ_{H} 5.00 (1H, dt, J = 1.2, 7.6 Hz)]. The above data as well as the HMBC correlations (Figure 1) between Me-21 (δ_{H} 0.91)/C-20 (δ_{C} 32.7) and C-22 (δ_{C} 43.0); H-20 (δ_{H} 1.68)/C-22 (δ_{C} 43.0) and C-23 (δ_{C} 74.9); 23-OMe (δ_{H} 3.19)/C-23; H-23 (δ_{H} 3.93)/C-25 (δ_{C} 134.9); Me-26 (δ_{H} 1.65)/C-24 (δ_{C} 127.2) and C-25 permitted assignment of the side chain structure as a 23-methoxy- Δ^{24} C8

**Figure 2:** Selected HMBC and NOESY correlations of **1**.

moiety [24]. The stereochemistry at C-23 of **1** and its epimer, compound **2**, were determined to be *R* and *S*, respectively, by comparison of the ^{13}C NMR signals of the side-chain with those of two pairs of 23-epimer compounds, charantosides II/VI [25] and cornusalterin G/H [24]. The $\Delta\delta_{\text{C}}$ values [δ_{C} (**1**)− δ_{C} (**2**)] for the side-chain signals were calculated as −0.4 (C-20), −0.4 (C-21), +0.8 (C-22), −1.0 (C-23), +1.1 (C-24), and −1.7 (C-25) from the ^{13}C NMR data of compounds **1** and **2** (Table 2), which were consistent with the $\Delta\delta$ values [δ_{C} (23*R*)− δ_{C} (23*S*)] between charantosides II/VI and cornusalterin G/H. The results indicated that the absolute configuration of C-23 was *R* in **1** and *S* in **2**. Accordingly, compound **1** was determined to be $5\beta,19$ -epoxy-23(*R*)-methoxycucurbita-6,24-dien-3 β -ol.

The HR-EI-MS of **2** showed a molecular ion at m/z 470.3762, which corresponded to the molecular formula, $\text{C}_{31}\text{H}_{50}\text{O}_3$, indicating seven degrees of unsaturation. The IR spectrum indicated the presence of a hydroxyl group (3467 cm^{-1}). The ^1H and ^{13}C NMR spectra of **2** (Tables 1 and 2) showed resonances for four methyl singlets [δ_{H} 0.81, 0.84, 0.87, 1.18 (3H each, s)], one methyl doublet [δ_{H} 0.88 (3H, d, J = 7.2 Hz)], two vinylic methyls [δ_{H} 1.68 (3H, d, J = 1.2 Hz), 1.76 (3H, d, J = 1.2 Hz)], a methoxy [δ_{H} 3.20 (3H, s)], an oxymethylene [δ_{H} 3.48 (1H, d, J = 8.4 Hz), 3.64 (1H, d, J = 8.4 Hz); δ_{C} 79.8 (t)], one allylic oxymethine [δ_{H} 3.90 (1H, dt, J = 3.6, 9.2 Hz)], one olefinic methine [δ_{H} 4.90 (1H, dt, J = 1.2, 9.6 Hz)], and an allylic ABX system of *cis*-oriented cyclohexene [δ_{H} 6.01 (1H, dd, J = 2.4, 10.0 Hz, H-6), 5.61 (1H, dd, J = 3.6, 10.0 Hz, H-7), 2.30 (1H, brt, J = 3.6 Hz, H-8); δ_{C} 131.5 (d), 131.7 (d), 52.0 (d)]. The ^{13}C NMR spectrum of **2** revealed 31 carbon signals, which were differentiated by DEPT experiments into seven aliphatic methyl, one methoxy, seven aliphatic methylene, four aliphatic methine, four aliphatic quaternary, three olefinic methine, one quaternary olefinic, one secondary oxygenated, two tertiary oxygenated, and one quaternary oxygenated carbons. The ^1H and ^{13}C NMR spectra of **2** were similar to those of compound **1**, except for the ^{13}C NMR signals from C-20 to C-27. As mentioned above, comparison of the side-chain ^{13}C NMR data with those of 23-epimer compounds, charantosides II/VI and cornusalterin G/H [24,25] permitted us to assign the absolute configuration of C-23 in **2** as *S*. The structure of **2** was consequently characterized as $5\beta,19$ -epoxy-23(*S*)-methoxycucurbita-6,24-dien-3 β -ol.

By HR-EI-MS, compound **3** revealed a molecular formula of $\text{C}_{31}\text{H}_{48}\text{O}_4$ from the molecular ion at m/z [M]⁺ 484.3556. The IR spectrum showed a band attributable to a lactone carbonyl group (1742 cm^{-1}). The ^1H and ^{13}C NMR spectra of **3** (Tables 1 and 2) indicated the presence of four methyl singlets [δ_{H} 0.82, 1.24 (3H each, s), 0.92 (3H×2, s)], one methyl doublet [δ_{H} 0.93 (3H, d, J = 7.6 Hz)], two vinylic methyls [δ_{H} 1.65 (3H, d, J = 1.2 Hz), 1.71 (3H, d, J = 1.2 Hz)], a methoxy [δ_{H} 3.19 (3H, s)], an oxymethine [δ_{H} 3.44 (1H, brd, J = 8.0 Hz)], one allylic oxymethine [δ_{H} 3.92 (1H, dt, J = 3.6, 9.6 Hz)], and one olefinic methine [δ_{H} 5.00 (1H, dt, J = 1.2, 8.4 Hz)]. Thirty-one carbon signals were observed in the ^{13}C NMR spectrum of **3**, and were resolved by DEPT experiments as seven aliphatic methyl, one methoxy, seven aliphatic methylene, four aliphatic methine, four aliphatic quaternary, three olefinic methines, one quaternary olefinic, two tertiary oxygenated, one

quaternary oxygenated, and one ketone carbonyl carbons. Comparison of the ¹H and ¹³C NMR spectra of **3** with those of **1** revealed that the two compounds are structurally very similar in rings A, C, and D and the side chain. The only difference was that the oxymethylene [δ_H 3.48 (1H, d, J = 8.4 Hz), 3.64 (1H, d, J = 8.4 Hz); δ_C 80.1 (t)] in **1** was replaced by a lactone carbonyl [δ_C 181.5 (s)] [21]. This proposed structure was further suggested by the fragment ion peak at m/z 440 [M - CO₂]⁺ in the EI-MS of **3** and the HMBC correlations between H-10 (δ_H 2.62)/C-19 (δ_C 181.5 s) and H-11 (δ_H 2.20)/C-19. Thus, compound **3** was formulated as 3 β -hydroxy-23(R)-methoxycucurbita-6,24-dien-5 β ,19-olide.

Compound **1** was evaluated for cytotoxic activity against human hepatoma SK-Hep-1 cells with an IC₅₀ value of 26.6 μ M. 5-FU (Fluorouracil) was used as positive control (IC₅₀ = 1.0 μ M).

Experimental

General experimental procedures: Optical rotations were measured using a JASCO DIP-180 digital spectropolarimeter. The IR spectra were obtained on a Nicolet 510P FT-IR spectrometer. The NMR spectra were recorded in CDCl₃ at room temperature on a Varian Mercury plus 400 NMR spectrometer, and the solvent resonance was used as internal shift reference (TMS as standard). The 2D NMR spectra were recorded using standard pulse sequences. EI-MS and HR-EI-MS were recorded on a Finnigan TSQ-700 and a JEOL SX-102A spectrometer, respectively. TLC was performed using silica gel 60 F₂₅₄ plates (200 μ m, Merck). Diaion HP-20 (Mitsubishi) and silica gel (230–400 mesh ASTM, Merck) were used for column chromatography. HPLC was performed on a Hitachi L-7000 chromatograph with a Lichrosorb Si gel 60 column (5 μ m, 250 \times 10 mm).

Plant material: The fruits of *Momordica charantia* were collected in Pingtung County, Taiwan, in July 2006. The plant material was identified by Prof. Sheng-Zehn Yang, Curator of the Herbarium, National Pingtung University of Science and Technology. A voucher specimen (no. BT114) was deposited in the Department of Biological Science and Technology, National Pingtung University of Science and Technology, Pingtung, Taiwan.

Extraction and isolation: Oven-dried pieces of fruit pulp of *Momordica charantia* (35.7 kg) were extracted 3 times with methanol (100 L) at room temperature (7 days each). The MeOH extract was evaporated *in vacuo* to afford a black residue, which was suspended in H₂O (6 L), and then partitioned sequentially using EtOAc and *n*-BuOH (4L \times 3). The *n*-BuOH fraction (937 g) was chromatographed over Diaion HP-20, using mixtures of water and MeOH of reducing polarity as eluents. Twenty-five fractions were collected as follows: fr. 1 [6000 mL, water-MeOH (40:10)], fr. 2 [4000 mL, water-MeOH (38:12)], fr. 3 [3000 mL, water-MeOH (36:14)], fr. 4 [5000 mL, water-MeOH (34:16)], fr. 5 [5000 mL, water-MeOH (32:18)], fr. 6 [3000 mL, water-MeOH (30:20)], fr. 7 [4000 mL, water-MeOH (28:22)], fr. 8 [6000 mL, water-MeOH (26:24)], fr. 9 [4000 mL, water-MeOH (24:26)], fr. 10 [5000 mL, water-MeOH (22:28)], fr. 11 [3000 mL, water-MeOH (20:30)], fr. 12 [3000 mL, water-MeOH (18:32)], fr. 13 [5000 mL, water-MeOH (16:34)], fr. 14 [4000 mL, water-MeOH (14:36)], fr. 15 [4000 mL, water-MeOH (12:38)], fr. 16 [2000 mL, water-MeOH (10:40)], fr. 17 [3000 mL, water-MeOH (9:41)], fr. 18 [3000 mL, water-MeOH (8:42)], fr. 19 [3000 mL, water-MeOH (7:43)], fr. 20 [2000 mL, water-MeOH (6:44)], fr. 21 [3000 mL, water-MeOH (5:45)], fr.

22 [3000 mL, water-MeOH (4:46)], fr. 23 [4000 mL, water-MeOH (3:47)], fr. 24 [3000 mL, water-MeOH (1:49)], fr. 25 [8000 mL, MeOH]. Fraction 16 was further chromatographed on a silica gel column (5 \times 45 cm), eluted with CH₂Cl₂-MeOH (20:1 to 0:1), to obtain 5 fractions (each about 800 mL), 16A-16E. Fraction 16D was separated by semi-preparative HPLC on a Merck Lichrosorb Si 60 column (5 μ m, 250 \times 10 mm) with CH₂Cl₂-isopropylalcohol (20:1) as eluent, 2 mL/min, to yield **1** (13.5mg, t_R = 23.8 min) and **2** (1.1 mg, t_R = 24.8 min). Fraction 20 was further purified through a silica gel column (5 \times 45 cm), eluted with CH₂Cl₂-MeOH (20:1 to 0:1) to obtain 6 fractions (each about 600 mL), 20A-20F. Fraction 20A was separated by a silica gel column (2 \times 40 cm), eluted with *n*-hexane-acetone (10:1) to give 5 sub-fractions 20Aa-20Ae. 20Ab was further purified by semi-preparative HPLC on a Merck Lichrosorb Si 60 column (5 μ m, 250 \times 10 mm) with CH₂Cl₂-Isopropylalcohol (20:1) as eluent, 2 mL/min, to yield **3** (1.8 mg, t_R = 21.4 min).

Cytotoxicity assay: The cytotoxicity of compound **1** was evaluated by the MTT [3-(4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide] colorimetric method based on the described procedures [26]. SK-Hep 1 cell lines were maintained in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM) supplemented with 10% (v/v) fetal bovine serum, L-glutamine 2 mM, 1% penicillin/streptomycin (penicillin 10000 U/mL and streptomycin 10 mg/mL) in a humidified atmosphere of 5% CO₂ at 37 °C. A volume of SK-Hep 1 cells 100 μ L at a density of 1 \times 10⁵ cells/mL was incubated under the same conditions for 24 h in a 96-well flat-bottomed microplate. Test samples dissolved in DMSO were added to the cultures. After a 48 h incubation period, the wells were incubated with the MTT (100 μ L/well concentrated at 5 mg/mL) at 37°C for 4 h. 200 μ L of DMSO was added to redissolve the formazan crystals after removing the supernatant. The absorbance of the resulting formazan was measured by an enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay plate reader at 550 nm. The results were assayed in triplicate. The ratio of cell viability (%) was calculated by using the following formula: [(experimental absorbance - background absorbance)/(control absorbance - background absorbance)] \times 100. The activity is shown as IC₅₀ value, which the concentration (μ M) of the tested sample that results in 50% inhibition of cell growth.

5 β ,19-Epoxy-23(R)-methoxycucurbita-6,24-dien-3 β -ol (1)

Amorphous white powder.

[α]_D²⁵ -37.0 (c 0.68, CHCl₃).

IR (KBr) ν_{max} : 3463, 3026, 2970, 2937, 2873, 2814, 1663, 1645, 1466, 1415, 1376, 1106, 1080, 1055, 999, 948, 911, 771 cm⁻¹.

¹H NMR: Table 1.

¹³C NMR: Table 2.

EI-MS (70 eV) m/z (rel. int.): 470 [M]⁺ (3), 421 (2), 391 (1), 354 (1), 323 (4), 281 (2), 255 (1), 171 (4), 109 (4), 99 (100), 69 (3).

HR-EI-MS: m/z 470.3767 (calcd for C₃₁H₅₀O₃) 470.3762, [M]⁺.

5 β ,19-Epoxy-23(S)-methoxycucurbita-6,24-dien-3 β -ol (2)

Amorphous white powder.

[α]_D²⁵ -48.6 (c 0.10, CHCl₃).

IR (KBr) ν_{max} : 3467, 3030, 2988, 2962, 2924, 2873, 2809, 1665, 1648, 1449, 1376, 1106, 1084, 940, 915, 775, 741 cm⁻¹.

¹H NMR: Table 1.

¹³C NMR: Table 2.

EI-MS (70 eV) m/z (rel. int.): 470 [M]⁺ (4), 438 (10), 421 (2), 408 (3), 390 (15), 354 (1), 323 (6), 309 (21), 281 (23), 255 (1), 239 (7), 211 (7), 185 (12), 171 (21), 109 (48), 99 (100), 81 (42), 69 (3), 55 (38).

HR-EI-MS: m/z 470.3762 (calcd for C₃₁H₅₀O₃) 470.3762, [M]⁺.

3 β -Hydroxy-23(R)-methoxycucurbita-6,24-dien-5 β ,19-olide (3)

Amorphous white powder.

[α]_D²⁵: -64.5 (*c* 0.12, CHCl₃).IR (KBr) ν _{max}: 3573, 3505, 2965, 2940, 2936, 2877, 2814, 1742, 1470, 1450, 1372, 1280, 1187, 1163, 1090, 1041, 939, 900, 749 cm⁻¹.¹H NMR: Table 1.¹³C NMR: Table 2.EI-MS (70 eV) *m/z* (rel. int.): 484 [M]⁺ (3), 440 (3), 408 (1), 375 (1), 309 (3), 281 (2), 241 (1), 213 (1), 171 (4), 109 (6), 99 (100), 55 (7).HR-EI-MS: *m/z* 484.3556 (calcd for C₃₁H₄₈O₄ 484.3554, [M]⁺).**References**

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Two Novel Phenethylamine Alkaloids from *Streptomyces* sp. YIM10049Xueqiong Yang^{a,1}, Guangwei He^{a,1}, Lixing Zhao^b, Yabin Yang^a, Yun Liu^a, Lihua Xu^b and Zhongtao Ding^{a,*}^aKey Laboratory of Medicinal Chemistry for Natural Resource, Ministry of Education, School of Chemical Science and Technology, Yunnan University, Kunming 650091, China^bYunnan Institute of Microbiology, Yunnan University, Kunming 650091, China¹The authors contributed equally to this paper

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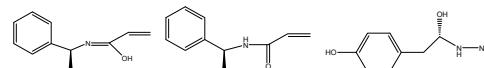
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Two novel phenethylamine alkaloids were isolated from *Streptomyces* sp. YIM 10049. On the basis of spectral data, their structures were determined as (*S*)-*N*-(α -phenylethyl)-2-hydroxyl-acrylimine (**1**) and (*S*)-*N*-nitroso-1-amino-*p*-hydroxy phenylethanol (**2**). Three known compounds, indole-3-carboxylic acid (**3**), cyclo(L-Ala-L-Tyr)(**4**), and bis(2-ethylhexyl) phthalate (**5**), were also isolated and characterized. Compound **1** is a rare enol tautomer, and compound **2** an unusual phenethylamine alkaloid with a N-NO group.

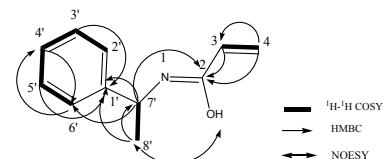
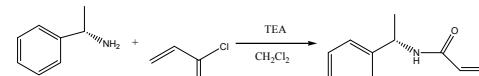
Keywords: *Streptomyces* sp., Alkaloid, Phenethylamine.

The genus *Streptomyces* is recognized as the most important bacterial source of clinically used therapeutic agents, including lifesaving antibiotics and antifungal, anticancer, and immunosuppressive agents [1a]. The alkaloids are reported to possess broad spectrum antimicrobial, antiradical, antioxidant, antiplasmoidal, anticancer and antimutagenic activities [1b]. Phenethylamines (PEA) are well known for their psychotropic effects and have been isolated from a variety of organisms, including octocorals, the edible mushroom *Laetiporus sulphureus*, *Streptomyces* sp., *Enterococcus* sp. and other species of cyanobacteria [1c]. *Streptomyces* sp. YIM 10049 was isolated from the excrement of alpaca, and a primary bioactivity screening indicated that this strain showed some cytotoxicity to A549 and Raji cell lines, and antibacterial activity to *Fusarium oxysporum* and *F. solani*. As a part of our persistent search for new and active natural products from actinomycetes, the chemical investigation of *Streptomyces* sp. YIM 10049 led to the isolation of two novel phenethylamines, (*S*)-*N*-(α -phenylethyl)-2-hydroxyl-acrylimine (**1**) and (*S*)-*N*-nitroso-1-amino-*p*-hydroxy phenylethanol (**2**) (Figure 1), together with three known compounds, indole-3-carboxylic acid (**3**) [2a], cyclo(L-Ala-L-Tyr) (**4**) [2b], and bis(2-ethylhexyl) phthalate (**5**) [3].

Compound **1** had a molecular formula of C₁₁H₁₃NO according to HRESIMS analysis. The ¹³C NMR and DEPT spectra of **1** showed 11 carbon signals for one methyl, one olefinic methylene, seven methines (six for an olefinic group), and two quaternary carbons. The 2D NMR spectrum identified monosubstituted phenethyl, allyl units (Figure 2). That C-7' connected to C-1' was elucidated by the HMBC correlations from H-7' and H-8' to C-1', and H-7' to C-6'. The connection of C-2 to N-1 and C-3 was elucidated by the correlations from H-3, H-4 and H-7' to C-2 in the HMBC. Because of the overlap of signals for H-3, 4, and 7' in the ¹H NMR spectrum in C₅D₅N, the 2D NMR spectrum was measured again in MeOD, and the results were consistent. The structure of **1** was similar to that of *N*-(α -phenylethyl)-acrylamide (**1a**), but its IR spectrum showed no obvious CO absorption peak. In order to identify the structure of **1**, **1a** was synthesized (Figure 3). The NMR spectroscopic data of **1** and **1a** were similar, but **1a** showed, in its

Figure 1: Structures of compounds **1**, **2** and **1a**Table 1: ¹³C NMR (125 MHz) and ¹H NMR (500 MHz) data of compound **1** in C₅D₅N.

Position	δ_{H}	δ_{C}
OH	9.31 (1H, brs)	
2		165.8
3	6.55 (1H, m)	133.3
4	5.53 (1H, m), 6.55 (1H, m)	126.4
1'		145.9
2'	7.48 (1H, d, 7.6Hz)	127.6
3'	7.30 (1H, t, 7.6Hz)	129.7
4'	7.22 (1H, d, 7.4Hz)	128.1
5'	7.30 (1H, t, 7.6Hz)	129.7
6'	7.48 (1H, d, 7.6Hz)	127.6
7'	5.53 (1H, m)	49.8
8'	1.46 (3H, d, 7.0Hz)	23.1

Figure 2: ¹H-¹H COSY, HMBC and NOESY correlations for **1**.Figure 3: Synthesis of compound **1a**.

IR spectrum, carbonyl and amino signals at 1660 and 3286 cm⁻¹, but **1** a hydroxyl signal at 3434 cm⁻¹. The two compounds also had different TLC chromatographic characteristics [e.g. color development reaction, R_f value: 0.2 for **1** and 0.4 for **1a** with CHCl₃/CH₃OH (3:1) as developing solvent]. Therefore, compound **1** was determined as *N*-(α -phenylethyl)-2-hydroxyl-acrylimine, the enol tautomer of **1a**. The *cis* configuration between N-1 and C-2 was determined by NOESY from 2-OH to H-8'. The stereochemistry of compound **1** was confirmed as *S* ([α]_D²⁵ -218.0) by comparison with the optical rotation of **1a** ([α]_D²³ -207) [4].

Compound **2** had a molecular formula of $C_8H_{10}N_2O_3$. The ^{13}C NMR and DEPT spectra of **2** showed eight carbon signals for one methylene, five methines (4 olefinic) and two quaternary carbons, respectively. Four aromatic protons [δ 6.72 (2H, d, 7.6 Hz), 7.10 (2H, d, 7.6 Hz)] were identified, one a *para*-substituted phenyl, which was confirmed by the 2D NMR spectrum (Figure 4). The HMBC correlations from H-2 to C-1' and COSY correlation between H-1 and H-2 indicated that C-2 was connected to C-1', and C-1 to C-2. The 1H NMR spectrum in C_5D_5N exhibited a NH signal at δ 7.39, and the IR spectrum showed a nitroso signal at 1567 cm^{-1} . So, compound **2** was determined as *N*-nitroso-1-amino-*p*-hydroxy phenylethanol. The configuration of **2** was determined as *S* ($[\alpha]_D: -4.2$) by comparison with the optical rotation of the analogue, (*S*)-2-hydroxy-3-(4-hydroxyphenyl) propionic acid (**2a**) ($[\alpha]_D: -10$) [5]. A novel protein tyrosine phosphatase inhibitor, 2-(*N*-methyl-*N*-nitroso) hydroquinone, with a *N*-nitroso phenyl group like compound **2** was also isolated from a *Streptomyces* [6].

Table 2: ^{13}C NMR and 1H NMR data of compound **2** in MeOD.

Position	δ_H	δ_C
1	4.28 (1H, brs)	73.7
2	2.84, 3.02 (2H, m)	41.3
1'		130.2
2'	7.10 (1H, d, 7.6 Hz)	132.0
3'	6.72 (1H, d, 7.6 Hz)	116.5
4'		157.5
5'	6.72 (1H, d, 7.6 Hz)	116.5
6'	7.10 (1H, d, 7.6 Hz)	132.0

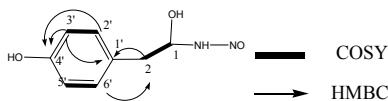


Figure 4: 1H - 1H COSY, HMBC correlations for **2**

Experimental

General experimental procedures: Optical rotations, Jasco P-1020; 1D and 2D NMR, Bruker DRX-500 MHz; MS, G3250AA and AutoSpec Premier P776 spectrometer; IR, Nicolet magna-IR 550; silica gel (Qingdao Marine Chemical Group Co.) and Sephadex LH-20 (GE Healthcare Co.) were used for column chromatography.

Biological material and cultivation of actinomycete strain: The bacterial strain, isolated from the excrement of alpaca from a zoo in Yunnan province, China, was identified as *Streptomyces* sp. (YIM 10049) by complete 16S rRNA gene sequence. This bacterium was cultivated on a 40 L scale using 1L Erlenmeyer flasks containing 250 mL of seed medium (yeast extract 0.4%, glucose 0.4%, malt extract 0.5%, decavitamin 0.01%, pH 7) and the fermentation medium (soluble starch 0.5%, glucose 2%, soybean powder 0.2%, peptone 0.2%, NaCl 0.4%, CaCO₃ 0.2%, K₂HPO₄ 0.05%, MgSO₄ 0.05%, pH 7) at 28°C for 10 days on rotary shakers (250 rpm).

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Antibacterial and antitumor cell assays: The cytotoxicity of this strain towards A549 and Raji cells was determined *in vitro* by the MTT method for an inhibition ratio at 40%-60%, while cisplatin was used as a positive control. The primary antibacterial activity of the culture of this strain to *Fusarium oxysporum* and *F. solani* was measured using the agar diffusion method. Inhibition was measured by the size of zones of inhibition (10 and 12 mm).

Extraction and isolation of compounds: The fermentation broth (40 L) for the *Streptomyces* sp. YIM 10049 was filtered, the filtrate extracted with ethyl acetate, and the solvent removed under vacuum. The resulting extract was separated into 4 fractions by silica gel CC, eluting with CHCl₃ /CH₃OH (100%-0%). The first part (CHCl₃) was separated by repeated CC on silica gel and Sephadex LH-20, to yield compounds **1** (2.5 mg), **4** (6.7 mg), and **5** (4.7 mg). The third part (CHCl₃ /CH₃OH =3:1) was separated by repeated CC on silica gel and Sephadex LH-20, to yield compounds **2** (2.4 mg), and **3** (4.5 mg).

Compound 1

White needles (CH₃OH).

MP: 99.4 -101.7°C

$[\alpha]_D^{25}: -218.0$ (*c* 0.02, C₅H₅N).

IR (KBr): 3434 (OH), 2925 (CH), 2354, 1557 (C=N) cm^{-1} ;

1H NMR and ^{13}C NMR: Table 1.

HR-ESI *m/z*: [M+H]⁺ Calcd for C₁₁H₁₄NO 176.1075, Found: *m/z* 176.1054.

Compound 1a

White needles (CH₃OH).

MP: 92.3-94.6°C

IR (KBr): 3286(NH), 2355, 1660(CO), 1544 cm^{-1} .

^{13}C NMR (CHCl₃, 75MHz) δ : 164.7, 143.1, 131.0, 128.6, 127.3, 126.4, 126.2, 48.8, 21.7.

ESI *m/z*: 176[M+H]⁺.

Compound 2

White needles (CH₃OH).

MP: 94.7-96.3°C

$[\alpha]_D^{25}: -4.2$ (*c* 0.05, CH₃OH).

IR (KBr): 3409 (OH), 2351, 1567 cm^{-1} .

1H NMR and ^{13}C NMR: Table 2.

HR-ESI *m/z*: [M-H]⁻ Calcd for C₈H₉N₂O₃ 181.0613; found: *m/z* 181.0616.

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Alkaloids from *Cinnamomum philippinense*

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A new pyridine, 2-(4'-hydroxypyridin-3'-yl)-acetic acid (**1**), along with five known alkaloids, cinnaretamine (**2**), crykonisine (**3**), corydaldine (**4**), glaziovine (**5**) and zenkerine (**6**), were isolated from the roots of *Cinnamomum philippinense* (Lauraceae). Their structures were characterized and identified by spectral analysis.

Keywords: *Cinnamomum philippinense*, Lauraceae, Pyridine.

Cinnamomum philippinense (Merr.) Chang (Lauraceae) is a medium-sized tree distributed widely in the Philippines and the southern part of Taiwan. The chemical constituents of this species have been studied by Wu *et al.* [1]. In the course of screening for biologically and chemically novel agents from Formosan plants in the family Lauraceae [2a-2q], *C. philippinense* was chosen for further phytochemical investigation. In this study, the MeOH extract of its roots was subjected to chromatographic separation to afford six alkaloids, including a pyridine, 2-(4'-hydroxypyridin-3'-yl)-acetic acid (**1**), an amide, cinnaretamine (**2**) [2g], a benzylisoquinoline, crykonisine (**3**) [3a], an isoquinolone, corydaldine (**4**) [3b], a proaporphine, glaziovine (**5**) [3c] and an aporphine, zenkerine (**6**) [3d]. Among them, **1** was a new compound and all of these compounds were isolated for the first time from this species.

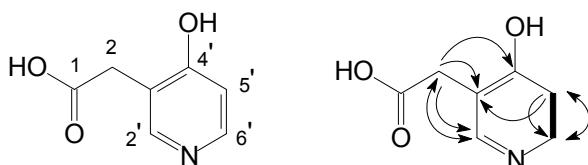


Figure 1: COSY (—), HMBC (→) and NOESY (↔) Correlations of **1**.

2-(4'-Hydroxypyridin-3'-yl)-acetic acid (**1**) was obtained as a white amorphous powder and its molecular formula was deduced as C₇H₇NO₃ by HRESIMS (*m/z* 177.0401 [M + Na + H]⁺; calc. 177.0402). The UV spectrum of **1** showed intense absorption bands at 220, 265 and 280 nm, which were typical of a pyridine skeleton [4]. The IR spectrum of **1** exhibited absorption bands at λ 3100 and 1660 cm⁻¹, indicating hydroxyl and carbonyl groups, respectively. The structure was confirmed from the ¹H NMR spectrum, which contained signals at δ 6.38 (1H, d, *J* = 6.0 Hz, H-5'), 7.78 (1H, d, *J* = 6.0 Hz, H-6') and 7.87 (1H, s, H-2') on the pyridine ring, and δ 3.34 (2H, s, H-2). The ¹³C NMR and DEPT experiments for **1** showed seven resonance lines consisting of one methylene, three methines, and three quaternary carbons (including a carbonyl signal at δ 172.2). The structure of **1** was also confirmed by 2D NMR experiments. A COSY correlation was observed between H-5' and H-6' (Figure 1). The HETCOR experiment showed that the carbon signals at δ 116.5 for C-5', 154.4 for C-2', 156.0 for C-6' and 30.9 for C-2 were correlated to the proton signals at δ 6.38 for H-5',

δ 7.87 for H-2', δ 7.78 for H-6' and δ 3.34 for H-2, respectively. The NOESY correlations between H-5' and H-6' and between H-2' and H-2 established the connective sites as shown in structure **1** (Figure 1). Thus, **1** is a new pyridine alkaloid, which was further confirmed by HMBC experiment (Figure 1).

Experimental

General: IR, Hitachi 260-30 spectrophotometer; 1D and 2D NMR, Varian (Unity Plus) NMR spectrometer; Low-resolution ESI-MS, API 3000 (Applied Biosystems); High-resolution ESI-MS, Bruker Daltonics APEX II 30e spectrometer; Silica gel 60 for CC and precoated silica gel plates (Merck) were used for TLC, visualized with 10% H₂SO₄.

Plant material: The roots of *C. philippinense* were collected from Taipei County, Taiwan in May 2008 and the plant material was identified by Dr Yen-Ray Hsui (Chungpu Research Center, Taiwan Forestry Research Institute). A voucher specimen (Cinnamo. 8) was deposited at the School of Medical and Health Sciences, Fooyin University, Kaohsiung, Taiwan.

Extraction and isolation: The air-dried roots of *C. philippinense* (3.7 kg) were extracted with MeOH (5 L x 6) at room temperature. A MeOH extract (54.3 g) was obtained by concentration under reduced pressure. The MeOH extract, suspended in H₂O (1 L), was partitioned with CHCl₃ (2 L x 5) to give fractions soluble in CHCl₃ (34.4 g) and H₂O (8.8 g). The CHCl₃-soluble fraction (34.4 g) was chromatographed over silica gel (950 g, 70-230 mesh) using *n*-hexane-EtOAc-MeOH as eluent to produce 6 further fractions. Part of fraction 6 (6.23 g) was subjected to silica gel CC, eluting with CH₂Cl₂-MeOH (40:1) and enriched gradually with MeOH, to obtain 5 fractions (6-1-6-5). Fraction 6-1 (0.33 g) was further separated by silica gel CC using the same solvent system and purified by preparative TLC to yield cinnaretamine (**2**) (4 mg). Fraction 6-2 (0.42 g) was further separated by silica gel CC, and purified by preparative TLC (CH₂Cl₂-MeOH, 30:1) to give crykonisine (**3**) (12 mg) and corydaldine (**4**) (17 mg), respectively. Fraction 6-3 (0.29 g) was further separated by silica gel CC using the same solvent system and purified by preparative TLC (CH₂Cl₂-MeOH, 50:1) to yield 2-(4'-hydroxypyridin-3'-yl)-acetic acid (**1**) (6 mg). Fraction 6-4 (0.52 g) was further separated by silica gel CC, and purified by preparative TLC (CH₂Cl₂-MeOH, 20:1) to give glaziovine (**5**) (5 mg) and zenkerine (**6**) (4 mg), respectively.

2-(4'-Hydroxypyridin-3'-yl)-acetic acid (1)

White amorphous powder.

IR (neat) ν_{max} : 3100 (br, OH), 1660 (C=O), 1300, 950 cm^{-1} .
 UV/Vis (CH_3CN): λ_{max} ($\log \epsilon$): 280 (3.52), 265 (2.54), 220 (2.21) nm .
 ^1H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl_3): 3.34 (2H, s, H-2), 6.38 (1H, d, J = 6.0 Hz, H-5'), 7.78 (1H, d, J = 6.0 Hz, H-6'), 7.87 (1H, s, H-2').

^{13}C NMR (125 MHz, CDCl_3): 30.9 (C-2, CH_2), 116.5 (C-3', CH), 124.0 (C-3', C), 154.4 (C-2', CH), 156.0 (C-6', CH), 172.2 (C-1, C=O), 178.4 (C-4', C).

MS (ESI): m/z (%): 177 [M + Na + H]⁺

HRMS-ESI: m/z [M + Na + H]⁺ calcd for $\text{C}_7\text{H}_8\text{O}_3\text{NNa}$: 177.0402; found: 177.0401.

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Conversional Synthesis of Heteratisine

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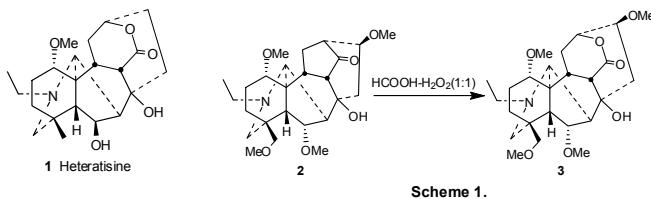
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The first conversional synthesis of heteratisine has been accomplished in 14 steps and 3.2% overall yield from deltaline, mainly including deoxygenation at C-10, removal of the dioxymethylene moiety, *O*-demethylation, as well as Baeyer-Villiger oxidation.

Keywords: C₁₉-Diterpenoid Alkaloids, Deltaline, Heteratisine.

Heteratisine (**1**) was first isolated by Jacobs and Craig from *Aconitum heterophyllum* Wall. (Ranunculaceae) in 1942 [1]. The structure and absolute configuration of **1** were established by Pelletier's Group [2a-2b] and Przybylska's Group [2c-2d]. As far as we know, besides *Aconitum heterophyllum* Wall., heteratisine was isolated from only four other plants, *A. tanguticum* (Maxim.) Stapf [3a], *A. palmatum* Don. [3b], *A. zeravshanicum* Steimb.[3c], and *A. pulchellum* Hand.-Mazz. [3d]. In 1996, Dzhakhangirov *et al.* reported that heteratisine and its analogues had pronounced antiarrhythmia activity [4]. However, although the antiarrhythmia index of these alkaloids is quite high, the activity of these phytoagents is insufficient for their use in medicine because of their limited availability [5].

Recently, our research group has successfully completed the conversional synthesis of the lactone-type alkaloid **3** from the aconitine-type C₁₉-diterpenoid alkaloid **2** via Baeyer-Villiger oxidation (Scheme 1) [6]. In this paper, we wish to report the conversional synthesis of heteratisine (**1**), using deltaline (**4**) as starting material, which is abundant in *Delphinium bonvalotii* Franch. (Ranunculaceae).



Compound **5** was prepared from deltaline (**4**) by the literature method [7]. Hydrogenation of **5** yielded reduction product **6**. *O*-Demethylation of **6** at C-14 with 6.5% HBr-HOAc produced **7**. Hydrolysis of **7** with 5% NaOH-MeOH generated **8**. Protection of **8** with TBSOTf, catalyzed by 2,6-lutidine and DMAP in CH₂Cl₂ afforded **9**. Compound **10** was obtained by acetylation of **9** with Ac₂O/TsOH. Deprotection of **10** with TBAF, followed by oxidation with Jones reagent generated the ketone **12**. Treatment of **12** with formic acid - hydrogen peroxide led to 6-acetylhetertatisine (**13**) in 46% yield. Finally, hydrolysis of **13** with ammonium hydroxide afforded the target compound heteratisine (**1**) (Scheme 2). The NMR spectra for **13** and **1** were identical with those of the natural alkaloids respectively, as reported in the literature [8].

In conclusion, the first conversional synthesis of heteratisine (**1**) is reported in 14 steps and 3.2% overall yield from deltaline (**4**), which makes it a useful, practical method for the synthesis of heteratisines and its analogues.

Experimental

General methods: Optical rotations, PE-314 polarimeter; IR, Nicolet 200 SXV spectrometer; ESIMS, VG-Autospec-3000 mass spectrometer; HRMS, Bruker BioTOFQ mass spectrometer; NMR, Varian INOVA-400/54 spectrometer; silica gel GF₂₅₄ and H (10–40 μm, Qingdao, China) were used for TLC and CC.

Preparation of compound 6: To a solution of compound **5** (140 mg, 0.36 mmol) in 95% EtOH/EtOAc (1:1, 10 mL) were subsequently added acetic acid (3 mL) and 10% Pd/C (50 mg), and the reaction was allowed to proceed with stirring in the presence of hydrogen at 50 °C for 24 h. The insoluble material was filtered off, and the filtrate was concentrated to give a residue, which was diluted with water (5 mL). The subsequent mixture was basified with conc. ammonium hydroxide to pH>9 and extracted with dichloromethane (5 mL×3). The combined extracts were dried over anhydrous sodium sulfate, and concentrated in vacuo to generate a reduced product **6** (white amorphous powder, 138 mg, 98%).

[α]_D²⁰ = +6.4 (c 0.50, CHCl₃).

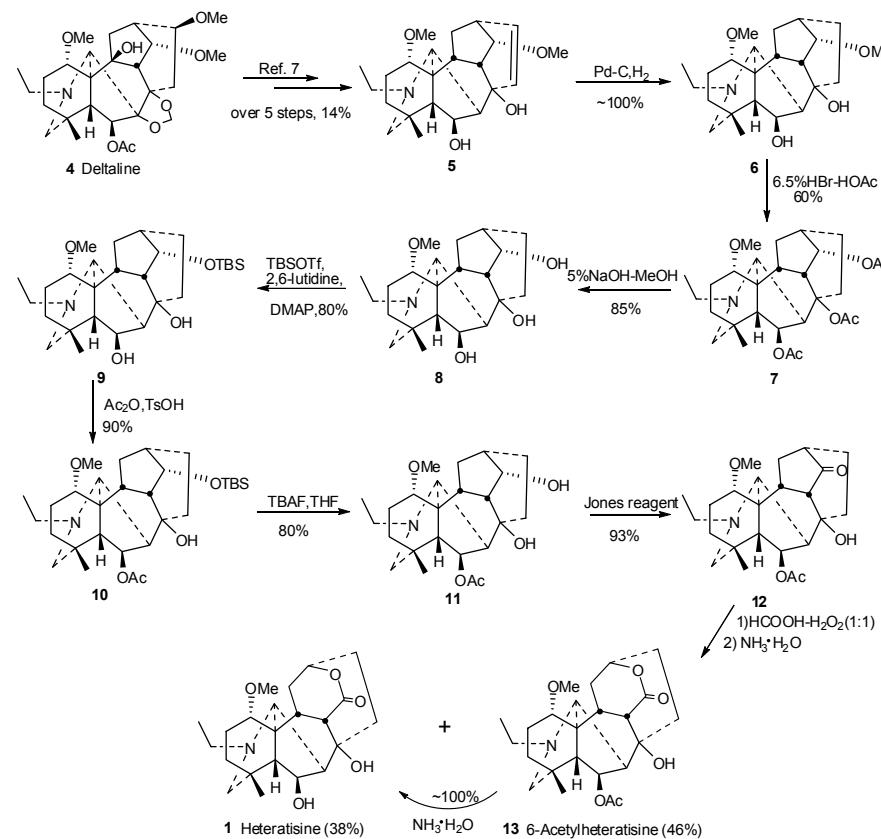
IR (KBr): 3444, 3390, 2934, 2817, 2193, 1459, 1377, 1193, 1164, 1120, 1074, 1030 cm⁻¹.

¹H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl₃): 0.95 (3H, s, H-18), 1.04 (3H, t, *J* = 7.2 Hz, H-22), 3.08 (1H, dd, *J* = 10.8, 6.8 Hz, H-1), 3.30, 3.36 (each 3H, s, OCH₃ × 2), 3.57 (1H, d, *J* = 2.0 Hz, H-17), 3.58 (1H, t, *J* = 5.2 Hz, H-14β), 4.33 (1H, d, *J* = 7.2 Hz, H-6α).

¹³C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl₃): Table 1.

HRMS-ESI: *m/z* [M + H]⁺ calcd for C₂₃H₃₈NO₄: 392.2801; found: 392.2801.

Preparation of compound 7: Compound **6** (300 mg, 0.77 mmol) was dissolved in a solution of 6.5% HBr in acetic acid (10 mL), and the reaction solution was kept stirring at 80 °C for 19 h prior to being poured into ice water (10 mL). The subsequent mixture was basified with conc. ammonium hydroxide to pH > 9, and extracted with dichloromethane (10 mL×3). The combined extracts were dried over anhydrous sodium sulfate, and concentrated under reduced pressure to furnish a residue. Column chromatography of



Scheme 2.

Table 1: ^{13}C NMR data for compounds 1, 6-13 (100 MHz, CDCl_3).

Position	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	1
1	86.0 d	84.5 d	85.9 d	86.2 d	85.8 d	85.6 d	85.3 d	82.2 d	83.4 d
2	22.8 t	25.2 t	22.7 t	23.2 t	22.8 t	22.2 t	25.8 t	26.7 t	26.7 t
3	37.4 t	31.0 t	37.3 t	37.4 t	37.2 t	37.1 t	36.9 t	36.3 t	36.5 t
4	37.8 s	34.2 s	34.8 s	34.9 s	34.8 s	34.9 s	34.7 s	34.7 s	34.6 s
5	58.4 d	56.6 d	58.8 d	58.4 d	55.6 d	55.9 d	55.6 d	55.4 d	58.1 d
6	73.0 d	73.9 d	73.4 d	73.0 d	74.2 d	74.5 d	74.0 d	74.0 d	72.7 d
7	49.3 d	45.6 d	50.4 d	49.3 d	48.0 d	49.7 d	49.5 d	49.6 d	50.6 d
8	77.2 s	87.3 s	77.2 s	77.5 s	75.2 s	76.2 s	84.9 s	75.1 s	75.6 s
9	44.9 d	40.5 d	45.8 d	45.5 d	45.2 d	44.2 d	44.1 d	48.5 d	49.3 d
10	31.5 d	32.4 d	34.9 d	35.2 d	35.1 d	34.8 d	42.7 d	42.7 d	42.6 d
11	49.0 s	48.4 s	49.0 s	49.0 s	48.6 s	48.5 s	48.7 s	48.6 s	49.1 s
12	29.9 t	26.3 t	29.1 t	30.0 t	29.5 t	29.5 t	30.7 t	29.3 t	29.0 t
13	45.8 d	45.2 d	46.0 d	46.3 d	45.7 d	46.0 d	54.0 d	75.2 d	75.7 d
14	83.6 d	75.7 d	74.7 d	75.8 d	75.9 d	74.6 d	221.0 s	174.0 s	176.1 s
15	30.9 t	29.5 t	29.9 t	31.0 t	31.1 t	30.9 t	33.4 t	35.7 t	32.9 t
16	25.9 t	26.1 t	25.8 t	26.0 t	25.9 t	25.8 t	26.6 t	28.8 t	28.9 t
17	64.3 d	64.7 d	64.3 d	64.4 d	64.6 d	65.0 d	65.1 d	62.4 d	62.1 d
18	25.8 q	25.7 q	25.9 q	25.8 q	25.6 q	25.7 q	25.7 q	25.9 q	26.1 q
19	58.2 t	57.2 t	58.0 t	58.2 t	57.7 t	57.7 t	57.6 t	57.2 t	57.7 t
21	49.4 t	49.2 t	49.4 t	49.4 t	49.2 t	49.3 t	49.1 t	48.7 t	48.9 t
22	13.7 q	13.4 q	13.6 q	13.7 q	13.6 q	13.6 q	13.5 q	13.4 q	13.5 q
1-OCH ₃	56.4 q	56.0 q	56.4 q	56.4 q	56.3 q	56.3 q	56.1 q	54.9 q	55.2 q
14-OCH ₃	57.1 q	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
6-OAc	—	170.9 s	—	—	170.8 s	171.1 s	171.0 s	170.9 s	—
8-OAc	—	22.7 q	—	—	21.6 q	21.7 q	21.7 q	21.7 q	—
14-OAc	—	169.4 s	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
14-OTBS	—	21.3 q	—	—	18.0 s 25.8 q x3 -4.8 q -5.3 q	17.9 s 25.7 q x3 -4.9 q -5.3 q	—	—	—

the residue over silica gel, employing petroleum ether/acetone (30:1) as eluent, gave compound **7** (white amorphous powder, 232 mg, 60%).

$[\alpha]_D^{20} : -35.0$ (*c* 0.50, CHCl₃).

IR (KBr): 2936, 2818, 1737, 1370, 1260, 1241, 1086 cm⁻¹.

¹H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl₃): 0.80 (3H, s, H-18), 1.04 (3H, t, *J* = 7.2 Hz, H-22), 1.89, 2.03, 2.05 (each 3H, s, OAc_x 3), 3.08 (1H, dd, *J* = 10.0, 6.8 Hz, H-1), 3.27 (3H, s, OCH₃), 3.50 (1H, br s, H-17), 3.56 (1H, t, *J* = 5.6 Hz, H-9), 3.61 (1H, d, *J* = 7.2 Hz, H-7), 4.63 (1H, t, *J* = 4.8 Hz, H-14 β), 5.08 (1H, d, *J* = 7.2 Hz, H-6 α).

¹³C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl₃): Table 1.

HRMS-ESI: *m/z* [M + H]⁺ calcd for C₂₈H₄₂NO₇: 504.2961; found: 504.2962.

Preparation of compound 8: A solution of compound **7** (232 mg, 0.46 mmol) in of 5% NaOH (7 mL) in methanol was stirred at room temperature for 5 h. After removal of methanol under reduced pressure, the residue was suspended with water (10 mL), and the subsequent mixture was extracted with dichloromethane (10 mL \times 3). The combined extracts were dried over anhydrous sodium sulfate, and concentrated under reduced pressure to give a residue. Column chromatography of the residue, using petroleum ether/acetone (5:1) as eluent, afforded **8** (a white amorphous powder, 147 mg, 85%).

$[\alpha]_D^{20} : -5.8$ (*c* 0.50, CHCl₃).

IR (KBr): 3371, 2929, 2809, 1453, 1202, 1164, 1099 cm⁻¹.

¹H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl₃): 0.91 (3H, s, H-18), 1.03 (3H, t, *J* = 7.2 Hz, H-22), 3.06 (1H, overlapped, H-1), 3.28 (3H, s, OCH₃), 3.55 (1H, d, *J* = 2.0 Hz, H-17), 3.98 (1H, t, *J* = 5.2 Hz, H-14 β), 4.38 (1H, d, *J* = 7.2 Hz, H-6 α).

¹³C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl₃): Table 1.

HRMS-ESI: *m/z* [M + H]⁺ calcd for C₂₂H₃₆NO₄: 378.2644; found: 378.2643.

Preparation of compound 9: To a solution of **8** (100 mg, 0.26 mmol) in CH₂Cl₂ (2 mL) under argon, 2,6-lutidine (57 mg, 0.53 mmol), DMAP (7 mg, 0.05 mmol), and TBSOTf (140 mg, 0.53 mmol) were added. The resulting mixture was stirred for 45 min at ambient temperature. The reaction was quenched with methanol (0.5 mL), diluted with water (5 mL), and extracted with CH₂Cl₂ (5 mL \times 3). The combined organic layers were dried (Na₂SO₄), and evaporated *in vacuo* to yield a residue. Column chromatography of the residue, using cyclohexane/acetone (20:1) as eluent, afforded **9** (a white amorphous powder, 102 mg, 80%).

$[\alpha]_D^{20} : -6.4$ (*c* 0.50, CHCl₃).

IR (KBr): 3454, 2930, 2860, 2815, 1460, 1254, 1097 cm⁻¹.

¹H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl₃): 0.09, 0.10 (each 3H, s, TBS), 0.91 (9H, s, TBS), 0.95 (3H, s, H-18), 1.04 (3H, t, *J* = 7.2 Hz, H-22), 3.06 (1H, dd, *J* = 10.4, 6.4 Hz, H-1), 3.28 (3H, s, OCH₃), 3.54 (1H, br s, H-17), 4.02 (1H, t, *J* = 5.2 Hz, H-14 β), 4.32 (1H, d, *J* = 7.2 Hz, H-6 α).

¹³C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl₃): Table 1.

HRMS-ESI: *m/z* [M + H]⁺ calcd for C₂₈H₅₀NO₄Si: 492.3509; found: 492.3503.

Preparation of compound 10: A solution of compound **9** (102 mg, 0.21 mmol) and TsOH (19 mg, 0.11 mmol) in Ac₂O (2 mL) was heated at 50 °C for 2 h prior to being poured into ice water (10 mL). The mixture was basified with conc. ammonium hydroxide to pH > 9 and extracted with dichloromethane (10 mL \times 3). The extracts were dried over anhydrous sodium sulfate and concentrated. Column chromatography of the residue, using petroleum ether/acetone (30:1) as eluent, afforded **10** (a white amorphous powder, 100 mg, 90%).

$[\alpha]_D^{20} : -5.0$ (*c* 0.50, CHCl₃).

IR (KBr): 3535, 2931, 2859, 2818, 1741, 1466, 1363, 1251, 1099 cm⁻¹.

¹H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl₃): 0.09, 0.11 (each 3H, s, TBS), 0.83 (3H, s, H-18), 0.91 (9H, s, TBS), 1.05 (3H, t, *J* = 7.6 Hz, H-22), 1.99 (3H, s, OAc), 3.08 (1H, dd, *J* = 10.4, 6.4 Hz, H-1), 3.30 (3H, s, OCH₃), 3.66 (1H, br s, H-17), 4.00 (1H, t, *J* = 5.2 Hz, H-14 β), 5.19 (1H, d, *J* = 6.8 Hz, H-6 α).

¹³C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl₃): Table 1.

HRMS-ESI *m/z* [M + H]⁺ calcd for C₃₀H₅₂NO₅Si: 534.3615; found: 534.3619.

Preparation of compound 11: A solution of compound **10** (100 mg, 0.19 mmol) and tetrabutylammonium fluoride trihydrate (151 mg, 0.48 mmol) in THF (2 mL) was heated at 50 °C for 17 h. The mixture was diluted with water (5 mL), basified with conc. ammonium hydroxide to pH > 9 and extracted with dichloromethane (5 mL \times 3). The extracts were dried over anhydrous sodium sulfate and concentrated. Column chromatography of the residue, using cyclohexane/acetone (9:1) as eluent, afforded **11** (a white amorphous powder, 64 mg, 80%).

$[\alpha]_D^{20} : -1.5$ (*c* 0.50, CHCl₃).

IR (KBr): 3418, 2930, 2876, 2823, 1735, 1644, 1256, 1094 cm⁻¹.

¹H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl₃): 0.85 (3H, s, H-18), 1.05 (3H, t, *J* = 7.2 Hz, H-22), 2.05 (3H, s, OAc), 3.09 (1H, dd, *J* = 10.4, 6.4 Hz, H-1), 3.29 (3H, s, OCH₃), 3.68 (1H, d, *J* = 2.0 Hz, H-17), 3.97 (1H, t, *J* = 4.0 Hz, H-14 β), 5.24 (1H, d, *J* = 6.8 Hz, H-6 α).

¹³C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl₃): Table 1.

HRMS-ESI: *m/z* [M + H]⁺ calcd for C₂₄H₃₈NO₅: 420.2750; found: 420.2751.

Preparation of compound 12: To a solution of **11** (37 mg, 0.09 mmol) in acetone (3 mL) was added Jones reagent (0.1 mL) and the mixture was kept stirring at 0 °C for 15 min before being quenched with saturated Na₂SO₃ solution. The insoluble material was filtered off, and the acetone was removed from the filtrate under reduced pressure. The concentrated filtrate was diluted with water (5 mL), basified with conc. ammonium hydroxide to pH > 9, and extracted with dichloromethane (3 \times 5 mL). The combined extracts were dried over anhydrous sodium sulfate and concentrated to yield **12** (a white amorphous powder, 35 mg, 93%).

$[\alpha]_D^{20} : +8.5$ (*c* 0.50, CHCl₃).

IR (KBr): 3425, 2927, 1738, 1464, 1367, 1248, 1095 cm⁻¹.

¹H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl₃): 0.87 (3H, s, H-18), 1.08 (3H, t, *J* = 7.2 Hz, H-22), 2.08 (3H, s, OAc), 3.20 (1H, dd, *J* = 10.4, 6.4 Hz, H-1), 3.33 (3H, s, OCH₃), 3.92 (1H, d, *J* = 2.0 Hz, H-17), 5.32 (1H, d, *J* = 6.8 Hz, H-6 α).

¹³C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl₃): Table 1.

HRMS-ESI: *m/z* [M + H]⁺ calcd for C₂₄H₃₆NO₅: 418.2593; found: 418.2597.

Preparation of compounds 13 and 1: Compound **13** (26 mg, 0.06 mmol) was dissolved in a solution of HCOOH-H₂O₂ (1:1), and the reaction solution was kept stirring at room temperature for 30 min prior to being poured into ice water (5 mL). The subsequent mixture was basified with conc. ammonium hydroxide to pH > 9, and extracted with dichloromethane (5 mL \times 3). The combined extracts were rinsed with brine, dried over anhydrous sodium sulfate, and concentrated under reduced pressure to give a residue. Column chromatography of the residue, using cyclohexane/acetone (10:1) as eluent, gave compounds **13** (a white amorphous powder, 12 mg, 46%) and **1** (a white amorphous powder, 9 mg, 38%).

Compound 13

$[\alpha]_D^{20} : +8.7$ (*c* 0.50, CHCl_3).

IR (KBr): 3452, 2928, 2872, 1742, 1715, 1266, 1213, 1085, 1053 cm^{-1} .

^1H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl_3): 0.87 (3H, s, H-18), 1.05 (3H, t, *J* = 7.2 Hz, H-22), 1.44 (1H, br s, H-5), 2.09 (3H, s, OAc), 3.15 (1H, t, *J* = 9.2 Hz, H-1), 3.27 (3H, s, OCH_3), 3.58 (1H, br s, H-17), 3.82 (1H, d, *J* = 8.0 Hz, H-9), 4.74 (1H, m, H-13), 5.31 (1H, d, *J* = 7.6 Hz, H-6 α).

^{13}C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl_3): Table 1.

HRMS-ESI: *m/z* [M + H]⁺ calcd for $\text{C}_{24}\text{H}_{36}\text{NO}_6$: 434.2543; found: 434.2541.

Compound 1

$[\alpha]_D^{20} : +12.8$ (*c* 0.50, CHCl_3).

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IR (KBr): 3456, 3405, 2965, 2917, 2985, 2788, 2559, 2525, 1738, 1443, 1216, 1068, 975 cm^{-1} .

^1H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl_3): 0.96 (3H, s, H-18), 1.04 (3H, t, *J* = 7.2 Hz, H-22), 1.35 (1H, br s, H-5), 2.09 (3H, s, OAc), 3.14 (1H, dd, *J* = 9.6, 7.6 Hz, H-1), 3.27 (3H, s, OCH_3), 3.50 (1H, br s, H-17), 3.97 (1H, d, *J* = 7.6 Hz, H-9), 4.48 (1H, m, H-6 α), 4.74 (1H, m, H-13).

^{13}C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl_3): Table 1.

HRMS-ESI: *m/z* [M + H]⁺ calcd for $\text{C}_{22}\text{H}_{34}\text{NO}_5$: 392.2437; found: 392.2435.

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Flavonoids and Triterpenes from the leaves of *Artocarpus fulvicortex*Shajarahtunnur Jamil^{a,*}, Muhammad Taher^b, Hasnah M. Sirat^a and Nur Azlin Othman^a^aDepartment of Chemistry, Faculty of Science, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, 81310 Johor Bahru, Johor, Malaysia^bKuliyah of Pharmacy, P.O. Box 141, International Islamic University Malaysia, Kuantan Campus, Jalan Istana, Bandar Indera Mahkota, 25200 Kuantan, Pahang, Malaysia

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Five flavonoids, 5-hydroxy-(6:7,3':4')-di(2,2-dimethylpyrano)flavone **1**, carpachromene **2**, cycloartocarpesin **3**, norartocarpetin **4** and 2'-hydroxy-4,4',6'-trimethoxychalcone **5**, along with three triterpenes, friedelin **6**, lupeol **7** and β -sitosterol **8** were isolated for the first time from the leaves of *Artocarpus fulvicortex* F.M. Jarrett. The structures of these compounds were established by analysis of their spectroscopic (1D and 2D NMR) and spectrometric (MS) data, as well as by comparison of these with those reported in the literature.

Keywords: *Artocarpus fulvicortex*, Moraceae, Flavonoids, Triterpenes.

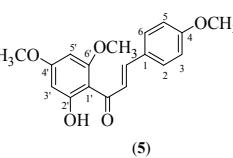
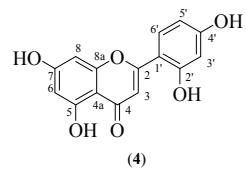
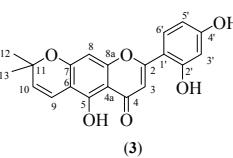
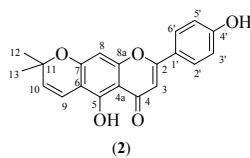
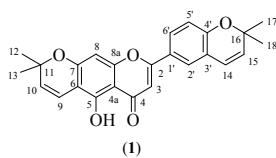
The genus *Artocarpus* of the family Moraceae consists of approximately 50 species of which 11 are known to produce edible fruits and most species are indigenous to the tropical rain forests of Malaysia, Indonesia and Philippines [1a]. *Artocarpus fulvicortex* F.M. Jarret is one of Malaysia's rare *Artocarpus* species and can be found only in the rainforests of Besut situated at the East Coast of Peninsular Malaysia. This plant is locally known as 'keledang tampang gajah'. It is a medium-sized tree with orange brown or reddish brown bark [1b]. Previous phytochemical work on the genus *Artocarpus* has resulted in the isolation of numerous phenolic compounds especially flavonoids [2a-2d]. Flavonoids isolated from *Artocarpus* species showed interesting biological activities including, antiplatelet [2e, 2f], antimicrobial [2g], antioxidant [2h], antiinflammatory [2i] and also exhibited cytotoxic effects [2j]. In continuing research on Malaysian *Artocarpus* plants, we investigated the leaves of *A. fulvicortex* F.M. Jarrett. Here, we wish to report for the first time the chemical constituents of this species.

The powdered leaves of *A. fulvicortex* were sequentially extracted with petroleum ether (PE), CH_2Cl_2 , EtOAc and MeOH at room temperature. The MeOH crude extract was further suspended in water before partitioned with CH_2Cl_2 and EtOAc to yield CH_2Cl_2 -soluble extract and EtOAc-soluble extract. The chromatographic separations using vacuum liquid chromatography (VLC) and column chromatography (CC) on silica gel of the PE extract, followed by recrystallization afforded **1**, **5**, **6** and **7**. Purification by VLC and CC of the CH_2Cl_2 extract furnished **2** and **8**. Purification using VLC and repeated CC of EtOAc and EtOAc-soluble extracts yielded **3** and **4**. The structures of **1-8** were elucidated by comparison of the spectroscopic data with respective literature [2a-2c]. Compound **1** was found to be a new pyranoflavone.

Compound **1** (2.0 mg, 0.01%) was obtained as a pale yellow solid with m.p. 215-217°C. The TLC of **1** gave a yellow spot after spraying with vanillin sulphuric acid reagent suggestive of a

flavone-type structure. The molecular formula was determined to be $C_{25}H_{22}O_5$ from its HREIMS. The ^1H NMR of **1** showed signals at δ 6.41 (1H, d, $J = 10.0$ Hz, H-14), δ 5.73 (1H, d, $J = 10.0$ Hz, H-15) and δ 1.49 (6H, s, H-17 and H-18); δ 6.74 (1H, d, $J = 10.0$ Hz, H-9), δ 5.64 (1H, d, $J = 10.0$ Hz, H-10) and δ 1.48 (6H, s, H-12 and H-13), characteristic of two sets of 2,2-dimethylpyrano moieties, as well as three signals at δ 7.65 (1H, dd, $J = 8.8$ and 2.4 Hz, H-6'), δ 7.49 (1H, d, $J = 2.4$ Hz, H-2') and δ 6.89 (1H, d, $J = 8.8$ Hz, H-5') corresponding to an ABX spin system of ring B. Other signals observed were at δ 13.14 (OH, s), characteristic of a chelated hydroxyl group, as well as at δ 6.53 (1H, s, H-3) and δ 6.41 (1H, s, H-8) for isolated aromatic protons. In the ^{13}C NMR spectrum, a resonance for a carbonyl group at δ 182.4 was observed together with resonances for four methyl groups (δ 28.2, δ 28.3, δ 29.6 and δ 30.9). NMR data comparison with carpachromene (**2**) [3a,b] and other pyranoflavonoids [3c] was carried out to confirm the position of both 2,2-dimethylpyrano moieties in the structure. Thus, compound **1** was deduced as 5-hydroxy-(6:7,3':4')-di(2,2-dimethylpyrano)flavones. To the best of our knowledge, the isolation of **1** from *A. fulvicortex* or other plant has not been reported elsewhere.

This is also the first report on the presence of 2'-hydroxy-4,4',6'-trimethoxychalcone **5** in *Artocarpus* species. Previously, **5** has been encountered from *Goniothalamus gardneri* (Annonaceae) [4a] and *Andrographis lineata* (Acanthaceae) [4b]. Carpachromene **2** has been previously isolated from *A. bracteata* [2b] and *A. heterophyllus* [3a] while cycloartocarpesin **3** has been previously identified from *A. heterophyllus* [3a] and *A. elasticus* [5a]. The occurrence of **3** was also reported in *Machura pomifera*, one of the Moraceae species [5b]. Norartocarpetin **4** was previously isolated from *A. champeden* [6a], *A. scorchedii*, *A. kemando*, and *A. gomezianus* [2b], *A. heterophyllus* [6b], and *A. dadah* [6c]. Friedelin **6**, lupeol **7** and β -sitosterol **8** are commonly found in plants [7a-7c].



Experimental

Plant material: The leaves of *Artocarpus fulvicortex* J.M. Jarrett were collected from Besut, Terengganu in September 2007. A voucher specimen (HTBP 962) has been deposited at Putrajaya Botanical Garden Herbarium, Malaysia.

Isolation procedure: Sequential extraction of the dried powdered leaves (1.5 kg) of *A. fulvicortex* at room temperature using different polarity of organic solvents for 48 h each afforded the PE extract (16.1 g, 1.1%), the CH_2Cl_2 extract (18.0 g, 1.2%), the EtOAc extract (17.9 g, 1.2%), and the MeOH extract (78.5 g, 4.2%). The MeOH extract was further suspended in water, then sequentially partitioned with CH_2Cl_2 and then EtOAc to yield the CH_2Cl_2 -soluble extract (AFLMD) (1.1 g, 1.4%) and the EtOAc-soluble extract (AFLME) (1.2 g, 1.5%). Fractionation of the leaves PE extract (15.0 g) by silica gel VLC afforded twenty five fractions of 100 mL each. Fractions with a similar TLC profile were combined to give six major fractions AFLP 1 - AFLP 6. Repeated CC of AFLP 3 (1.7 g), followed by PLC with hexane/Et₂O (7:3) as the solvent system gave **1** (2.0 mg, 0.01%) as a pale yellow solid. Successive purification of AFLP 4 (3.4 g) using silica gel CC yielded **6** (115.8 mg, 0.72%) as white needles; **7** (23.6 mg, 0.15%) as a white powder and **5** (9.3 mg, 0.06%) as a yellow solid. Fractionation of the leaves CH_2Cl_2 extract (12.0 g) by VLC yielded seven major fractions. Purification of fraction 5 (1.6 g) by silica gel CC gave 446 fractions. Fractions 187-264 were combined and washed with hexane to afford **8** (112.2 mg, 0.62%) as white crystalline needles. Purification of fraction 6 (2.8 g) by silica gel CC yielded carpachromene **2** (99.2 mg, 0.55%) as pale yellow needles. Fractionation of the EtOAc extract (10.0 g) by

silica gel VLC afforded twenty fractions which were combined to yield seven major fractions (AFLE 1 - AFLE 7). Purification of AFLE 3 (0.9 g) by silica gel CC afforded **3** (21.2 mg, 0.12%) as pale yellow needles. Purification of the EtOAc-soluble fraction of the MeOH extract (1.0 g) using silica gel CC and hexane/EtOAc (7:3) as the solvent yielded **5** (13.6 mg, 0.14%) as a yellow solid.

5-Hydroxy-(6:7,3':4')-di(2,2-dimethylpyrano)flavone (**1**)

MP: 215–217°C.

IR (KBr): 3441, 2923, 1655, 1606, 1127 cm^{-1} .

¹H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl_3): 1.49 (6H, s, H-17 and H-18), 1.48 (6H, s, H-12 and H-13), 5.64 (1H, d, J = 10.0 Hz, H-10), 5.73 (1H, d, J = 10.0 Hz, H-15), 6.41 (1H, d, J = 10.0 Hz, H-14), 6.41 (1H, s, H-8), 6.53 (1H, s, H-3), 6.74 (1H, d, J = 10.0 Hz, H-9), 6.89 (1H, d, J = 8.8 Hz, H-5'), 7.49 (1H, d, J = 2.4 Hz, H-2'), 7.65 (1H, dd, J = 8.8 Hz, 2.4 Hz, H-6'), 13.14 (1H, s, 5-OH).

¹³C NMR (CDCl_3 , 100 MHz): δ 28.2 (CH_3), 28.3 (CH_3), 29.6 (CH_3), 30.9 (CH_3), 72.6 (C), 77.9 (C), 94.9 (CH), 104.0 (CH), 105.4 (C), 105.5 (C), 109.3 (C), 115.5 (CH), 116.9 (CH), 121.5 (CH), 123.5 (C), 124.3 (CH), 127.4 (CH), 128.0 (CH), 131.6 (CH), 157.4 (C), 156.4 (C), 159.7 (C), 161.5 (C), 163.8 (C), 182.4 (C=O).

MS (EI, 70 eV): m/z (%) 402 (27) [M^+], 387 (100), 219 (29), 203 (13), 186 (32), 131 (12); HREIMS: m/z [M+] calcd. for $\text{C}_{25}\text{H}_{22}\text{O}_5$: 402.14574; found 402.14618.

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Dihydrospinochalcone-A and Epi-flemistrictin-B, Natural Isocordoin Derivatives from the Root Extract of *Lonchocarpus xuul*

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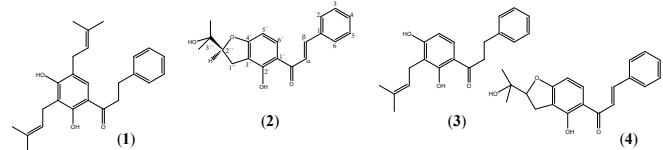
Purification of the root extract of *Lonchocarpus xuul* resulted in the isolation and identification of dihydrospinochalcone A (**1**) and epi-flemistrictin B (**2**) as additional natural isocordoin derivatives. Identification was based on the analysis of their spectroscopic data and by comparing these with those of previously reported metabolites.

Keywords: *Lonchocarpus xuul*, Leguminosae, Chalcone, Isocordoin, Dihydroisocordoin, Dihydrospinochalcone A, Epi-flemistrictin B.

Lonchocarpus xuul Lundell (Leguminosae) is a tree endemic to the Yucatan Peninsula where it is known as “xuul”, “kanxuul” or “yaax-xuul” [1]. Previous phytochemical investigations of the root extract resulted in the isolation and identification of a number of flavonoids [2a-2c], some with antiprotozoal and cytotoxic activity [3]. In continuing our search for bioactive metabolites from the Yucatan native flora, we report herein the isolation and identification of dihydrospinochalcone A (**1**), and epi-flemistrictin B (**2**), as two additional natural isocordoin derivatives from the root extract of *L. xuul*.

Concentration of the *n*-hexane extract of the roots of *L. xuul* yielded a pure metabolite whose ¹H and ¹³C NMR spectra showed a number of similarities with those of dihydroisocordoin (**3**), a previously reported chalcone from *L. xuul* [1]; the similarities included signals for a monosubstituted aromatic ring B and for a saturated ketone. However, a two vinylic-proton multiplet at δ 5.26, together with four signals for methyl groups bonded to quaternary sp^2 carbons (δ 1.69, 1.77, 1.78, and 1.82), and an isolated aromatic proton singlet at δ 7.35, indicated the presence of two isoprenyl groups in a pentasubstituted ring A. These findings were confirmed by both the parent ion peak (*m/z* 378) and the suggested molecular formula ($C_{25}H_{30}O_3$) obtained from the mass spectrum of the purified metabolite. On the basis of these data, and by comparison with those reported in the literature, the isolated metabolite was identified as dihydrospinochalcone A (**1**), a new natural chalcone whose unsaturated relative, spinochalcone A, has been previously reported from the roots of *Tephrosia spinosa* (Leguminosae) [4].

The second metabolite showed a protonated parent ion peak at *m/z* 325 in its mass spectrum, indicating a molecular formula of $C_{20}H_{20}O_4$ for the parent metabolite, and suggesting it having a structure with eleven unsaturation sites. The ¹H and ¹³C NMR data of the purified metabolite proved to be very similar to those reported for flemistrictin B (**4**), a natural derivative of isocordoin first isolated from the leaves of *Flemingia stricta* [5] and recently reported from the roots of *L. xuul* [1]. However, while the ¹H NMR spectrum of **4** shows the H-2'' signal as a doublet of doublets



($J = 8.4, 9.6$ Hz) at δ 4.78 [1], the same proton appears as an AB quartet ($J = 5.2$ and 17.4 Hz) centered at δ 2.98 in the ¹H NMR spectrum of the new metabolite. These differences in both chemical shift and coupling pattern suggested that the two metabolites were epimeric in their C-2'' stereochemistry and, on the basis of these results, we propose the name of epi-flemistrictin B for the new metabolite.

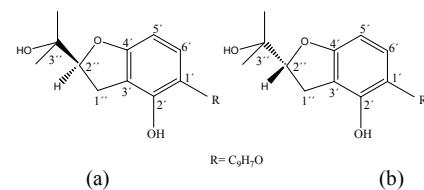


Figure 1: Suggested stereochemistry at C-2'' for epiflemistrictin B (a) and flemistrictin B (b).

The fact that the stereochemistry at the C-2''position of flemistrictin B (**3**) has not yet been established has been attributed to the possibility of its occurring naturally as a racemic mixture, resulting from the non-stereospecific cyclization between the phenolic hydroxyl group at C-4' and the epoxidized prenylated chain at C-3' [1]. In order to define the stereochemistry at the C-2'' position of the epimeric chalcones, a theoretical calculation of the H-2'' chemical shift was carried out using DFT [B3LYP/6-311+G(d,p)] and GIAO methodologies. The results obtained confirmed the significant differences in the chemical shift value for H-2'' in each of the epimeric structures (Figures 1a and 1b), and showed that the H-2'' in the alpha orientation (Figure 1a) appears at a significantly higher field (δ 3.41) when compared to that of the H-2'' in the beta orientation (δ 4.72; Figure 1b). On the basis of

these calculations, the stereochemistry at the C-2'' position of the epimeric chalcones could be assigned as those shown in Figures 1a and 1b for epi-flemistictin B and flemistictin B, respectively, and the structure of epi-flemistictin B could be established as that depicted in **2**.

Experimental

General: IR, FT-IR Nicolet Magna Protégé 460 instrument; NMR, Bruker AMX-400 NMR spectrometer; GC-MS, Agilent Technologies 6890 N gas chromatograph coupled to a 5975B mass selective detector.

Theoretical calculations: All quantum chemical calculations were performed using the Spartan'06 program [6]. Calculations were carried out and geometries were optimized without geometry constraints within the DFT [7] methodology using the B3LYP [8] functional. The triplet split valence polarized and diffuse 6-311+G(d,p) basis set was used for geometry optimization and frequency calculations. In addition, the stationary points were characterized with frequency calculations [8]; no imaginary frequencies were present in final geometries. Calculations of the isotropic shielding constant (σ) for the corresponding equilibrium geometries were carried out at the same level of calculation within the GIAO [9] methodology. Finally, the J couplings were calculated using the PC model software [10].

Plant material: Roots of *L. xuul* were collected in December 2008 from plants growing in a field located at Sierra Papacal in Yucatán, Mexico. The plant material was washed with tap water and dried, first for a week at room temperature, and then for 72 h in an oven at 55°C.

Extraction and isolation: Dry and ground roots (4 Kg) of *L. xuul* were extracted 3 times first with *n*-hexane (each 14 L) and then with ethanol (each 14 L). Evaporation of the combined *n*-hexane extracts under reduced pressure produced 18.34 g (0.46 %) of crude extract and 1.6 g (0.04 %) of a yellow precipitate identified as dihydrosinochalcone A (**1**). Similarly, evaporation of the combined ethanol extracts yielded 166.95 g (5.22%) of crude extract, which was suspended in 1.25 L of a 3:2 water-methanol mixture and subjected to a liquid-liquid partition procedure with *n*-hexane (3 times; 2:1, 1:1, 1:1; v:v) to produce 5.1 g of a low-polarity fraction. Successive purifications of the low-polarity

fraction using VLC (column diameter: 7 cm; height: 7 cm), eluting with increasing amounts of acetone in *n*-hexane, followed by open column chromatography eluting with a mixture of *n*-hexane/acetone 8:2, resulted in the isolation of epi-flemistictin B (**2**, 47.4 mg) in pure form.

Dihydrosinochalcone A (**1**)

Yellow powder.

Rf: 0.34 (*n*-hexane-ethyl acetate 8:2); GC: t_R 20.78 min.

IR ν_{max} (film): 3395 (OH), 2929 (C-H), and 1618 (C=O) cm^{-1} .

^1H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl_3): 6.77 (2H, d, H-2/H-6), 7.10 (3H, m, H-3,4,5), 7.35 (1H, s, H-6'), 3.42 (2H, d, J = 7.2 Hz, H-1''), 3.25 (2H, d, J = 6.8 Hz, H-1'''), 5.20 (2H, m, H-2''/H-2'''), 1.69 (3H, s, CH_3), 1.78 (3H, s, CH_3), 1.82 (3H, s, CH_3), 1.77 (3H, s, CH_3), 3.17 (2H, t, J = 7.6 Hz), 2.97 (2H, t, J = 7.8 Hz), 6.20 (1H, s, OH-4'), 12.99 (1H, s, OH-2').

^{13}C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl_3): 133.14 (C-1), 115.35 (C-2/C-6), 129.50 (C-3/C-4/C-5), 112.88 (C-1'), 161.17 (C-2'), 118.90 (C-3'), 159.95 (C-4'), 114.26 (C-5'), 128.70 (C-6'), 21.80 (C-1''), 121.74 (C-2''), 135.14 (C-3''), 28.90 (C-1'''), 121.30 (C-2'''), 134.70 (C-3'''), 17.88 (CH_3), 17.90 (CH_3), 25.80 (CH_3/CH_3) 40.01 (C- α), 29.80 (C- β), 203.91 (C=O).

MS: m/z 378 [M $^+$].

Epi-flemistictin B (**3**)

Yellow oil.

Rf: 0.34 (*n*-hexane-ethyl acetate 8:2); GC: t_R 22.81 min.

^1H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl_3): 7.65 (2H, m, H-2/H-6), 7.42 (3H, m, H-3,4,5), 6.44 (1H, d, J = 8.9 Hz, H-5'), 7.73 (1H,d, J = 9 Hz, H-6'), 3.89 (1H, t, H-2''), 2.98 (2H,qAB, J = 5.2 Hz, 17.36, H-1''), 1.35 (3H, s, CH_3), 1.49 (3H, s, CH_3), 7.59 (1H, d, J = 15.48 Hz), 7.88 (1H, d, J = 15.48 Hz), 13.81 (1H, s, OH-2').

^{13}C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl_3): 134.94 (C-1), 128.6 (C-2/C-6), 129.1 (C-3/C-5), 130.7 (C-4), 120.4 (C-1'), 164.5 (C-2'), 107.3 (C-3'), 159.7 (C-4'), 109.14 (C-5'), 129.1 (C-6'), 69.01 (C-2''), 25.8 (C-1''), 78.3 (C-3''), 22.2 (CH_3), 24.9 (CH_3), 120.4 (C- α), 144.3 (C- β), 192.0 (C=O).

MS: m/z 324 [M $^+$].

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Phenolic Compounds, Including Novel C-glycosylflavone, from the Flowers of the Tall Bearded Iris Cultivar ‘Victoria Falls’

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A new C-glycosylflavone, luteolin 7-methyl ether 6-C-[β -arabinopyranosyl-(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -glucopyranoside] (swertiajaponin 2"-O-arabinoside) (**1**) was isolated and identified from the violet blue colored flowers of the tall bearded iris (*Iris* hybrid) cultivar ‘Victoria Falls’, together with five known flavonoids, swertisin 2"-O-arabinoside (**2**), schaftoside (**3**), isoschaftoside (**4**), swertiajaponin (**5**), swertisin 2"-O-glucoside (**6**) and a C-glycosylxanthone, mangiferin (**7**). Of these compounds, **1** and **2** were elucidated from NMR spectroscopic data, which revealed the rotameric pairs. C-Glycosylflavone O-arabinosides were isolated from the genus *Iris* for the first time.

Keywords: Iridaceae, Bearded iris, C-glycosylflavones, Mangiferin, Rotamers.

Tall bearded irises are ornamental plants belonging to sect. *Iris* of the genus *Iris* (Iridaceae). Bearded iris plants (subgenus *Iris*) grow to more than 70 cm tall and are the largest and most glamorous of the *Iris* taxa, and the last group to bloom. Bearded irises have been bred by interspecific crossing using such species as *Iris pallida* Lam., *I. variegata* L. and *I. kashmiriana* Baker. [1]. Phytochemical investigations of *Iris* species have resulted in the isolation of compounds including flavonoids, isoflavonoids and their glycosides, benzoquinone, terpenoids and stilbene glycosides [2, 3]. Flavonols, quercetin and kaempferol glycosides and the xanthone, mangiferin, have been reported from the flowers of the bearded iris group [4]. However, further chemical investigation of the flowers of this iris group has not been performed. The tall bearded iris cultivar ‘Victoria Falls’, which has violet blue flowers, was the Dykes memorial medal winner, USA in 1984 [1]. In this paper, we describe the isolation and identification of six C-glycosylflavones, including a novel flavone, and a C-glycosylxanthone from the flowers of the tall bearded iris cultivar ‘Victoria Falls’ and discuss the phytochemical significance of these findings in the genus *Iris*.

Compounds **1**–**7** were isolated from the flowers of the iris cultivar ‘Victoria Falls’ as pale yellow powders. The chemical structures of **1** (*ca.* 15 mg) and **2** (*ca.* 40 mg) were elucidated by UV spectra, LC-MS, HR-ESI-MS, acid hydrolysis, and ¹H and ¹³C NMR spectroscopy. A mixture of schaftoside (**3**) and isoschaftoside (**4**) (small amount), swertiajaponin (**5**, 6 mg), swertisin 2"-O-glucoside (**6**, 8 mg) and mangiferin (**7**, *ca.* 30 mg) were identified by UV spectroscopy, LC-MS, acid hydrolysis, and direct TLC and HPLC comparisons with authentic samples.

UV spectral properties of **1** were measured according to reference [5]. Absorption maxima were observed at λ_{max} 347 nm (Band I) and 271 nm (Band II) in MeOH, showing that **1** is a luteolin glycoside. In addition to shift reagents (NaOMe, AlCl₃, AlCl₃/HCl, NaOAc

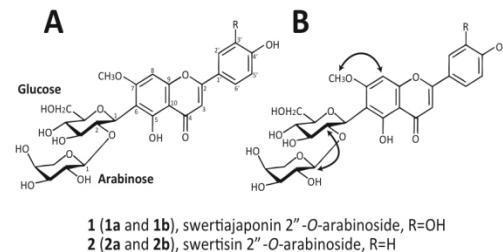


Figure 1: (A) Chemical structures of **1** (**1a** and **1b**) and **2** (**2a** and **2b**) from the flowers of the tall bearded iris cultivar ‘Victoria Falls’. (B) Observed important NOESY correlations of **1** (**1a** and **1b**) and **2** (**2a** and **2b**) are indicated by arrows.

and NaOAc/H₃BO₃), it was shown that **1** is a luteolin glycoside having free 5-, 3'- and 4'-hydroxyl groups (see compound data of **1**). Acid hydrolysis of **1** liberated swertiajaponin (luteolin 7-methyl ether 6-C-glucoside) and arabinose. Attachment of 1 mol arabinose to swertiajaponin was determined by LC-MS (molecular ion peak at *m/z* 595 [M+H]⁺) and HR-ESI-MS (*m/z* 617.1471 [M+Na]⁺). Proton and carbon signals of **1** occurred as rotameric pairs by ¹H and ¹³C NMR analysis in DMSO-*d*₆ (Table 1). Rotamers had previously been found for several X"-acetylated and O-glycosylated C-glycosylflavones [6]. The signal duplication reveals two conformational isomers created by rotational hindrance at the C(sp³)-C(sp²) glycosylflavone linkage [7]. The proton and carbon signals were assigned by ¹H-¹H COSY, NOESY, HMQC and HMBC. The proton signals of **1a** and **1b** appeared at δ_{H} 7.47/7.47 (1H, d, H-2'), 6.89/6.89 (1H, d, H-5'), 7.46/7.46 (1H, d, H-6'), 6.74/6.74 (1H, s, H-3) and 6.75/6.76 (1H, s, H-8). The carbon signals were revealed at δ_{C} 181.95/182.20 (C-4), 159.80/160.95 (C-5), 145.95/145.95 (C-3') and 150.04/150.04(C-4'), showing that either carbonyl (C-4) or hydroxy groups are attached to the

Table 1: ^1H (500 MHz) and ^{13}C NMR (125 MHz) spectral data (DMSO- d_6) of **1a**, **1b***, **2a** and **2b*** from the flowers of the tall bearded iris cultivar ‘Victoria Falls’.

Position	1a		1b*		2a		2b*	
	δ ^1H (J in Hz)	δ ^{13}C	δ ^1H (J in Hz)	δ ^{13}C	δ ^1H (J in Hz)	δ ^{13}C	δ ^1H (J in Hz)	δ ^{13}C
<i>Aglycone</i>								
2		164.18		165.46		165.59		164.09
3	6.74 (s)	103.18	6.74 (s)	103.12	6.87 (s)	103.28	6.85 (s)	103.22
4		181.95		182.20		182.18		182.43
5		159.80		160.95		159.90		161.05
6		108.71		108.76		108.82		108.88
7		164.03		163.90		164.03		163.96
8	6.75 (s)	90.66	6.76 (s)	90.12	6.80 (s)	90.91	6.81 (s)	90.36
9		157.10		156.99		157.24		157.12
10		104.15		104.43		104.27		104.56
1'		121.37		121.37		121.93		121.93
2'	7.47 (d, 2.3)	113.64	7.47 (d, 2.3)	113.59	7.97 (d, 9.2)	128.81	7.97 (d, 9.2)	128.78
3'		145.95		145.95	6.90 (d, 9.2)	116.21	6.90 (d, 9.2)	116.21
4'		150.04		150.04		161.53		161.53
5'	6.89 (d, 8.5)	116.11	6.85 (d, 8.5)	116.11	6.90 (d, 9.2)	116.12	6.90 (d, 9.2)	116.12
6'	7.46 (d, 8.5)	119.16	7.46 (d, 8.5)	119.21	7.97 (d, 9.2)	128.81	7.97 (d, 9.2)	128.78
7-OMe	3.87 (s)	56.29	3.88 (s)	56.61	3.87 (s)	56.43	3.88 (s)	56.74
<i>6-C-Glucose</i>								
1	4.67 (d, 11.0)	70.81	4.64 (d, 10.0)	71.19	4.67 (d, 9.7)	70.93	4.65 (d, 9.9)	71.31
2	4.43 (t, 19.5)	81.39	4.25 (t, 19.5)	80.89	4.41 (t, 18.5)	81.50	4.25 (t, 18.0)	81.00
3	3.40 (m)	78.84	3.40 (m)	78.39	3.40 (m)	78.96	3.40 (m)	78.51
4	3.13 (m)	70.49	3.13 (m)	70.46	3.14 (m)	70.56	3.14 (m)	70.59
5	3.14 (m)	82.15	3.14 (m)	81.83	3.14 (m)	82.28	3.14 (m)	81.95
6	3.67 (d, 11.5)	61.55	3.67 (d, 11.5)	61.60	3.68 (d, 12.2)	61.66	3.68 (d, 12.2)	61.69
		3.33 (m)			3.35 (m)		3.35 (m)	
<i>2"-O-Arabinose</i>								
1	4.15 (d, 7.5)	106.10	4.10 (d, 8.0)	106.16	4.15 (d, 7.6)	106.21	4.10 (d, 7.6)	106.28
2	2.82 (m)	74.22	2.82 (m)	74.17	2.83 (m)	74.29	2.83 (m)	74.34
3	2.98 (m)	76.44	2.98 (m)	76.27	2.98 (m)	76.56	2.98 (m)	76.39
4	3.01 (m)	69.35	3.01 (m)	69.41	3.00 (m)	69.51	3.00 (m)	69.47
5	3.22 (m)	65.91	3.22 (m)	65.74	3.22 (dd, 4.5, 11.5)	66.03	3.15 (m)	65.86
	3.01 (m)		3.01 (m)		2.73 (m)		2.51 (m)	

* Rotameric forms of **1** and **2**.

respective position. The attachment of a methoxyl group to the 7-position was shown by the occurrence of crosspeaks at 3.87/3.88 (3H, s, OMe) and 164.03/163.90 (C-7) in the long-range ^1H - ^{13}C HMBC spectrum. Thus, **1a** and **1b** were shown to be swertiajaponin, glycosylated with arabinose. The C-C linkage between the aglycone and glucose at the 6-position was confirmed by the occurrence of crosspeaks at δ_{H} 4.67/4.64 (1H, d, Glc-1) and δ_{C} 108.71/108.76 (C-6), 164.03/163.90 (C-7) and 159.80/160.95 (C-5) in the HMBC spectrum. Since the anomeric protons of C-glucose at δ_{H} 4.67/4.64 exhibited large coupling constants ($J = 11.0/10.0$ Hz), the sugars were of the β -pyranose type. The $^3J_{\text{H,C}}$ correlations between δ_{H} 4.67/4.64 (Glc-1) and δ_{C} 82.15/81.83 (Glc-5) supported the pyranose structure of the C-glucosyl group. The β -pyranose structures of arabinose were shown by the $^3J_{\text{H,C}}$ correlation of δ_{H} 4.15/4.10 (1H, d, Ara-1) with δ_{C} 65.91/65.74 (Ara-5) and the large coupling constants ($J = 7.5/8.0$ Hz) of the anomeric protons of **1a** and **1b**, respectively. Moreover, HMBC correlation between the Ara-1 proton and Glc-2 carbon at δ_{C} 81.39/80.89 showed that the glucose-arabinose linkages are 1→2. Thus, **1** (**1a** and **1b**) was identified as luteolin 7-methyl ether 6-C-[β -arabinopyranosyl-(1→2)- β -glucopyranoside] (swertiajaponin 2"-O-arabinoside), which is a new natural flavonoid [8]. The chemical structure of **1** (**1a** and **1b**) and significant NOESY signals are shown in Figure 1.

The absorption maxima of **2** at λ_{max} 334 nm (Band I) and 272 nm (Band II) in MeOH, showed that **2** is an apigenin glycoside. In addition to shift reagents, it was shown that **2** is an apigenin glycoside with free 5- and 4'-hydroxyl groups (see compound data

of **2**). Furthermore, swertisin (apigenin 7-methyl ether 6-C-glucoside) and arabinose were liberated by acid hydrolysis. Attachment of 1 mol arabinose to swertisin was confirmed by LC-MS (molecular ion peak at m/z 579 [$\text{M}+\text{H}^+$]) and HR-ESI-MS (m/z 601.1535 [$\text{M}+\text{Na}^+$]). These data suggested that **2** is swertisin 2"-O-arabinoside. The proton and carbon signals of **2** (**2a** and **2b**) appeared as rotameric pairs and were assigned by ^1H - ^1H COSY, NOESY, HMQC and HMBC. Since the anomeric protons of C-glucose in the axial position occurred as a doublet with a large coupling constant ($J = 9.7/9.9$ Hz), the C-glucosyl groups were determined to be in the β -pyranose form. The $^3J_{\text{H,C}}$ correlations between δ_{H} 4.67/4.65 (Glc-1) and δ_{C} 82.28/81.95 (Glc-5) supported the pyranose structure of the C-glucosyl group of **2a** and **2b**. The $^3J_{\text{H,C}}$ correlations of δ_{H} 4.15/4.10 (1H, d, Ara-1) with δ_{C} 66.03/65.86 (Ara-5) and the large coupling constant ($J = 7.6/7.6$ Hz) of the Ara-1 protons of **2a** and **2b** showed that the arabinose had β -pyranose structures. HMBC correlations of δ_{H} 4.15/4.10 (Ara-1) to δ_{C} 81.50/81.00 (Glc-2) confirmed the arabinosyl-(1→2)-glucosyl linkages. Finally, the chemical structure of **2** (**2a** and **2b**) was determined as apigenin 7-methyl ether 6-C-[β -arabinopyranosyl-(1→2)- β -glucopyranoside] (swertisin 2"-O-arabinoside), which has only been reported from the leaves of *Achillea fragrantissima* (Forssk) Sch. Bip (Asteraceae) [9]. However, since chemical data of the compound have not been reported, ^1H and ^{13}C NMR spectroscopic characteristics are recorded in Table 1. The chemical structure of **2** (**2a** and **2b**) and significant NOESY signals are shown in Figure 1.

Four known C-glycosylflavones and a C-glycosylxanthone were also isolated from the flowers. They were identified as schaftoside (apigenin 6-C-glucosyl-8-C-arabinoside, **3**), isoschaftoside (apigenin 6-C-arabinosyl-8-C-glucoside, **4**), swertiajaponin (**5**), swertisin 2"-O-glucoside (**6**) and mangiferin (**7**). Characterization was achieved by UV spectroscopy, LC-MS, acid hydrolysis and direct TLC and HPLC comparisons with authentic samples. Although another two xanthones, xanthone C-glycoside and mangiferin X"-O-glucoside, were also isolated, they could not be characterized because of the very small amounts obtained.

To the best our knowledge, this is the first report of the isolation of luteolin 7-methyl ether 6-C-[β -arabinopyranosyl-(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -glucopyranoside] in nature. Five known C-glycosylflavones, swertisin 2"-O-arabinoside, schaftoside, isoschaftoside, swertiajaponin and swertisin 2"-O-glucoside and a xanthone, mangiferin, were also found in the flowers of the tall bearded iris cultivar 'Victoria Falls'. Flavones and xanthones are known as co-pigment substances with anthocyanins [10]. We presumed that the isolated flavones and xanthone contribute to the flower color of the tall bearded iris cultivar 'Victoria Falls'.

The distribution of flavonoids in the genus *Iris* has been reviewed [11]. More recently, flavonoids, including new ones, were reported from a few *Iris* species [2,12]. However, C-glycosylflavone O-arabinosides have not been found previously in the genus *Iris*. In this study, we isolated and identified two C-glycosylflavone O-arabinosides (**1** and **2**) from the flowers of the tall bearded iris for the first time. These C-glycosylflavone O-arabinosides are presumed to be contained only in the bearded iris group, e.g. *Iris pallida* and *I. variegata*, but further flavonoid investigations are necessary.

Experimental

General experimental procedures: The isolated flavones and xanthone were identified by UV spectral survey, LC-MS, HR-ESI-MS, acid hydrolysis and direct TLC using: BAW (*n*-BuOH/HOAc/H₂O = 4:1:5, upper phase), 15% HOAc, and BEW (*n*-BuOH/EtOH/H₂O = 4:1:2.2), and HPLC comparisons with authentic samples. UV spectra were measured on a Shimadzu MPS-2000 multipurpose recording spectrophotometer (220–500 nm) according to Mabry *et al.* [5]. LC-MS were measured by a Shimadzu LC-MS system using a *L*-column 2 ODS (I.D. 2.1 × 100 mm, Chemical Evaluation and Research Institute, Japan), at a flow-rate of 0.2 mL min⁻¹, a detection wavelength of 350 and 300 nm, and FMW (HCOOH/MeCN/H₂O = 1:12:87) as eluent, ESI⁺ 4.5 kV, ESI⁻ 3.5 kV, 250°C. Compounds **1** and **2** were analyzed by HR-MS using a microTOF-Q system (Bruker Daltonic, Bremen, Germany) in electrospray ionization (ESI) mode. Acid hydrolysis was performed in 12% aq. HCl for 30 min at 100°C. After cooling in water, the solution was shaken with diethyl ether. The aglycone and sugars were identified by HPLC (flavones) and PC (sugars) by comparison with authentic samples using BBPW (*n*-BuOH/benzene/pyridine/H₂O = 5:1:3:3) and BTPW (*n*-BuOH/toluene/pyridine/H₂O = 5:1:3:3) for sugars; **3–5** and **7** could not be hydrolyzed. Authentic samples of schaftoside, isoschaftoside, swertiajaponin, swertisin and mangiferin were obtained from the flowers and leaves of *Iris rossii* Baker [12] and swertisin 2"-O-glucoside (flavoayamenin) from the flowers of *I. setosa* Pallas var. *nasuensis* Hara [13]. HPLC comparisons with authentic specimens were performed using a Shimadzu HPLC system with a *L*-column2 ODS (I.D. 6.0×150 mm, Chemical Evaluation and Research Institute), at a flow-rate of 1.0 mL min⁻¹, detection: 190–400 nm and eluent: MeCN/H₂O/H₃PO₄ (12:88:0.2). NMR spectra (¹H and ¹³C NMR, ¹H-¹H COSY, NOESY, HMBC

and HMQC) were measured on a JEOL JNM-ECA500 spectrometer (JEOL Ltd., Tokyo, Japan). Chemical shifts (δ) of ¹H (500 MHz) and ¹³C (125 MHz) NMR are given in parts per million (ppm) relative to δ_{H} 2.49 / δ_{C} 39.6 for DMSO-*d*₆.

Plant material: The tall bearded iris (*Iris* hybrid) cultivar 'Victoria Falls' was cultivated at the nursery of the Faculty of Agriculture, University of Miyazaki, Miyazaki Pref., Japan. Voucher specimen was deposited in the herbarium of the National Museum of Nature and Science, Japan (TNS).

Extraction and isolation: The dried perianths were extracted with 0.1% HCl in MeOH. After concentration, the extracts were separated by preparative paper chromatography using as development systems: BAW, 15% HOAc and BEW. The isolated flavonoids and xanthone were purified by Sephadex LH-20 CC using 70% MeOH, and were further purified by preparative HPLC using Inertsil ODS-4 (I.D. 10×250 mm, GL-science Inc., Japan) at a flow-rate of 3.0 mL/min, injection of 300–350 μ L, detection wavelength 340 nm, and an eluent of FMW2 (HCOOH/MeCN/H₂O=1:18:81).

Luteolin 7-methyl ether 6-C-[β -arabinopyranosyl-(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -glucopyranoside] (swertiajaponin 2"-O-arabinoside) (**1**)

TLC: R_f 0.59 (BAW), 0.72 (15% HOAc), 0.51 (BEW); Color UV (365 nm)—dark purple, UV/NH₃—yellow.
HPLC: R_t 25.1 min.

UV λ_{max} (nm): MeOH 244, 258, 271, 347; +NaOMe 271, 396 (inc.); +AlCl₃ 277, 425; +AlCl₃/HCl 260sh, 279, 295sh, 363, 390sh; +NaOAc 268, 402; +NaOAc/H₃BO₃ 265, 374.

¹H and ¹³C NMR: Table 1.

LC-MS: *m/z* 595 [M+H]⁺, 593 [M-H]⁻.

HR-ESI-MS: *m/z* 617.1471 [M+Na]⁺ (Calcd for C₂₇H₃₀O₁₅Na = 617.1477).

Apigenin 7-methyl ether 6-C-[β -arabinopyranosyl-(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -glucopyranoside] (swertisin 2"-O-arabinoside) (**2**)

TLC: R_f 0.49 (BAW), 0.54 (15% HOAc), 0.40 (BEW); Color UV (365 nm)—dark purple, UV/NH₃—dark yellow.
HPLC: R_t 49.7 min.

UV λ_{max} (nm): MeOH 272, 334; +NaOMe 275, 387 (inc.); +AlCl₃ 280, 303, 354, 380sh; +AlCl₃/HCl 281, 302, 350, 370sh; +NaOAc 270, 390; +NaOAc/H₃BO₃ 272, 340.

¹H and ¹³C NMR: Table 1.

LC-MS: *m/z* 579 [M+H]⁺ and 577 [M-H]⁻.

HR-ESI-MS: *m/z* 601.1535 [M+Na]⁺ (Calcd for C₂₇H₃₀O₁₄Na = 601.1528).

Mixture of schaftoside and isoschaftoside (**3** and **4**)

TLC: R_f 0.29 (BAW), 0.33 and 0.44 (15% HOAc), 0.23 (BEW); Color UV (365 nm)—dark purple, UV/NH₃—dark yellow.
HPLC: R_t 19.8 (schaftoside) and 20.9 (isoschaftoside) min.

UV λ_{max} (nm): MeOH 273, 332; +NaOMe 283, 333, 400 (inc.); +AlCl₃ 278, 305, 353, 380sh; +AlCl₃/HCl 278, 305, 351, 375sh; +NaOAc 282, 396; +NaOAc/H₃BO₃ 275sh, 285, 321, 350sh, 405.

LC-MS: *m/z* 565 [M+H]⁺ and 563 [M-H]⁻.

Swertiajaponin (**5**)

TLC: R_f 0.47 (BAW), 0.41 (15% HOAc), 0.51 (BEW); Color UV (365 nm)—dark purple, UV/NH₃—yellow.
HPLC: R_t 23.7 min.

UV λ_{max} (nm): MeOH 243, 260sh, 270, 347; +NaOMe 274, 399 (inc.); +AlCl₃ 274, 422; +AlCl₃/HCl 260sh, 277, 295sh, 364, 384sh; +NaOAc 266, 401; +NaOAc/H₃BO₃ 266, 374.

LC-MS: *m/z* 463 [M+H]⁺ and 461 [M-H]⁻.

Swertisin 2"-O-glucoside (6)

TLC: R_f 0.41 (BAW), 0.85 (15% HOAc), 0.54 (BEW); Color UV (365 nm)—dark purple, UV/NH₃—dark yellow.

HPLC: R_t 39.9 min.

UV λ_{max} (nm): MeOH 272, 334; +NaOMe 275, 384 (inc.); +AlCl₃ 260sh, 280, 301, 351, 380sh; +AlCl₃/HCl 260sh, 282, 302, 350, 380sh; +NaOAc 269, 392; +NaOAc/H₃BO₃ 272, 340.

LC-MS: m/z 609 [M+H]⁺ and 607 [M-H]⁻.

Mangiferin (7)

TLC: R_f 0.36 (BAW), 0.37 (15% HOAc), 0.54 (BEW); Color UV (365 nm)—orange, UV/NH₃—bright yellow.

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HPLC: R_t 10.0 min.

UV λ_{max} (nm): MeOH 241, 258, 316, 365; +NaOMe 273, 300sh, 350sh, 394; +AlCl₃ 268, 285sh, 352, 407; +AlCl₃/HCl 263, 310sh, 336, 400; +NaOAc 271, 304, 387; +NaOAc/H₃BO₃ 263, 285sh, 323, 359, 414.

LC-MS: m/z 423 [M+H]⁺ and 421 [M-H]⁻.

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Two New Biisoflavanoids from the Roots of *Daphne oleoides*

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Phytochemical investigation of the ethyl acetate soluble fraction of the methanol soluble extract of the roots of *Daphne oleoides* resulted in isolation and identification of two new isomeric biisoflavanoids characterized as 8,8''-bi-6-hydroxyorobol (**1**) and 8,8''-bi-6, 2'-dihydroxygenistein (**2**). The structures of these compounds were established by analysis of their 1D and 2D NMR and HRMS data.

Key words: *Daphne oleoides*, Biisoflavanoids, 8,8''-Bi-6-hydroxyorobol, 8,8''-Bi-6, 2'-dihydroxygenistein.

Daphne oleoides Linn. is a medicinally important xerophytic shrub belonging to the family *Thymelaeaceae* [1a]. It grows in the Western Himalaya, from Garhwal westward to Murree, occurring at an altitude of 3000 to 9000 feet. The roots are used as a purgative. An infusion of its leaves is used in the treatment of gonorrhea and applied to abscesses, while the bark and leaves are applied to skin diseases [1b]. Previous phytochemical studies on the genus *Daphne* have resulted in the isolation of different classes of compounds, including coumarins [2a,2b], lignans [2c], flavonoids [2d] and terpenes [2b, 2e]. The chemotaxonomic and ethnopharmacological importance of *D. oleoides* prompted us to carry out further studies on this species. Herein we report the isolation and structure of two new isomeric biisoflavanoids characterized as 8,8''-bi-6-hydroxyorobol (**1**) and 8,8''-bi-6, 2'-dihydroxygenistein (**2**), from the ethyl acetate soluble fraction of the methanolic extract. The structures of these compounds were established by analysis of their 1D and 2D NMR and HRMS data.

Compound **1**, obtained as a yellow amorphous powder, m.p 266-268°C, gave a violet coloration for a phenol with FeCl₃. The IR spectrum revealed the presence of hydroxyl (3490 cm⁻¹), conjugated ketone (1670 cm⁻¹), and an aromatic moiety (1616, 1530, 1505 cm⁻¹). The UV spectrum showed characteristic absorptions at 273 and 343 nm for an isoflavone [3a,3b]. On addition of AlCl₃ and AlCl₃/HCl, a bathochromic shift of 28 nm in band II, revealed the presence of a chelated hydroxyl group at C-5. The positive mode fast atom bombardment mass spectrum (FAB-MS) of **1** showed a quasimolecular ion peak at *m/z* 603, while the negative mode FAB-MS showed a quasimolecular ion peak at *m/z* 601. The molecular formula was established as C₃₀H₁₈O₁₄ on the basis of elemental analysis and HREI-MS showing a molecular ion peak [M]⁺ at *m/z* 602.0691 (Calcd. for C₃₀H₁₈O₁₄: 602.0697). The broad band decoupled (BB) and distortionless enhancement by polarization transfer (DEPT) ¹³C NMR spectra showed 15 signals attributed to four methine and eleven quaternary carbons, each assigned to two carbons, indicating that compound **1** is a symmetrical biisoflavanoid derivative. The signals at δ 152.4, 122.3, 179.7, 165.5 and 102.7 were characteristic of C-2/2'', C-3/3'', C-4/4'', C-9/9'' and C-10/10'' of a symmetric biisoflavanone derivative. Five other oxygenated carbon signals (Table 1), each attributed to two carbons, were due to ten hydroxyl bearing aromatic carbons in **1**.

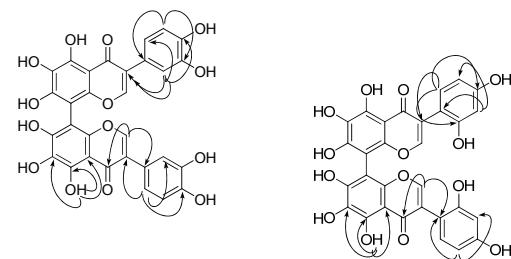


Figure 1: HMBC correlations of compounds **1** and **2**.

In the ¹H NMR spectrum the chelated hydroxyl group appearing as a singlet at δ 12.09 and corresponding to two protons was assigned to C-5/5'' hydroxyl groups as they showed ²J correlation with C-5/5'' (δ 149.2), ³J correlations with C-10/10'' (δ 102.7) and C-6/6'' (δ 127.7). A two-proton downfield singlet at δ 8.43, which showed HMQC correlation with the carbon at δ 152.4 and HMBC correlation with C-4 (Figure 1), was assigned to H-2/2'' of the bisoflavanoid moiety [4]. The 1,3,4-trisubstituted ring B gave signals at δ 7.01 (1H, d, *J* = 2.7 Hz, H-2'), 6.50 (1H, d, *J* = 9.0 Hz, H-5') and 6.77 (1H, dd, *J* = 9.0, 2.7 Hz, H-6'), respectively. The ¹H-¹H COSY and HMBC correlations (Figure 1) were in complete agreement with those of 5,6,7,3',4'-pentahydroxy isoflavone (6-hydroxyorobol) [5a,5b]. The absence of a proton at C-8 indicated that compound **1** is an 8,8'' linked biisoflavanoid. The signal for C-8 showed a downfield shift of 6 ppm compared with the monomer, allowing us to characterize compound **1** (Figure 1) as 8,8'' linked bi[4H-1-benzopyran-4-one,5,6,7-trihydroxy-3-(3,4 dihydroxyphenyl)] or 8,8''-bi-6-hydroxyorobol.

Compound **2** was obtained as a yellow amorphous powder, m.p 280-282°C, which gave a violet coloration with FeCl₃ for a phenol. The UV and IR spectra were very similar to those of **1**. The FAB-MS in positive and negative modes showed quasimolecular ion peaks at *m/z* 603 and 601, respectively. Its molecular formula was established as C₃₀H₁₈O₁₄ on the basis of elemental analysis and HREI-MS showing a molecular ion peak [M]⁺ at *m/z* 602.0693 (Calcd. for C₃₀H₁₈O₁₄: 602.0697). The BB and DEPT ¹³C NMR spectra exhibited 15 signals, attributed to four methine and eleven quaternary carbons, each assigned to two carbons, which indicated

Table 1: ^1H - and ^{13}C -NMR (DMSO-d₆) data of compounds **1** and **2** at 400 and 100 MHz, respectively; δ in ppm, J in Hz.

position	1 δ_{H} (J = Hz)	2 δ_{C}	1 δ_{H} (J = Hz)	2 δ_{C}
2/2''	8.43 (s)	152.4	8.59 (s)	151.5
3/3''	-	122.3	-	123.1
4/4''	-	179.7	-	180.7
5/5''	-	149.2	-	148.7
6/6''	-	121.7	-	122.5
7/7''	-	156.1	-	155.7
8/8''	-	98.3	-	98.4
9/9''	-	165.5	-	166.3
10/10''	-	102.7	-	103.1
1'/1'''	-	124.3	-	113.6
2'/2'''	7.01 (d, J = 2.7)	115.3	-	156.2
3'/3'''	-	145.5	7.16 (d, J = 2.1)	106.3
4'/4'''	-	143.2	-	160.8
5'/5'''	6.50 (d, J = 9.0)	117.5	7.09 (dd, J = 8.7, 2.1)	109.2
6'/6'''	6.77 (dd, J = 9.0, 2.7)	120.6	7.81 (d, J = 8.7)	131.4
5/5''-OH	12.09 (s)	-	12.15 (s)	-

that compound **2** is a symmetrical biisoflavanoid derivative. It showed close similarity to those of **1**, except for minor differences in the chemical shifts of the carbons of ring B/ring E. The ^1H NMR spectrum of **2** was also very similar to that of **1** except for the notable differences in the chemical shifts of ring B/ring E, as well as HMBC correlations [δ 7.81 (1H, d, J = 8.7 Hz), 7.16 (1H, d, J = 2.1 Hz) and 7.09 (1H, dd, J = 8.7, 2.1 Hz)]. The ^1H - ^1H COSY and HMBC correlations (Figure 1) were in conformity to a 1,2,4-trisubstituted ring B. The spectral data showed close agreement to those of 6-hydroxygenestein and 5,6,7,2',4'-pentahydroxy isoflavone (6, 2'-dihydroxygenistein) [6] thereby indicating that compound **2** is a regioisomer of compound **1**. Compound **2** could therefore be characterized as 8,8'' linked bi [4H-1-benzopyran-4-one,5,6,7-trihydroxy-3-(2,4-dihydroxyphenyl)] or 8,8''-bi-6,2'-dihydroxygenistein.

Experimental

General: UV measurements were obtained on a Hitachi-UV-3200 spectrophotometer, and IR spectra on a Jasco-302-A spectrophotometer. Aluminum sheets 4.5 x 10 cm, coated with silica gel 60 F₂₅₄ were used for analytical TLC and compounds were visualized under UV light and detections were made at 254 nm and by spraying with ceric sulfate reagent. Column and flash chromatography were carried out on silica gel (230-400 mesh E. Merck). HPLC analyses were carried out on a JAIGEL using an ODS-M 80 column. Melting points (m.p.) were recorded on a Gallenkamp apparatus and were uncorrected. NMR experiments were performed on a Bruker AMX 400 MHz spectrometer. Chemical shifts (δ in ppm) are referenced to the carbon (δ_{C} 39.52) and residual proton (δ_{H} 2.50) signals of (CD₃)₂SO. FAB-MS were recorded on a Jeol-JMS HX-110 mass spectrometer. EI-MS and HREI-MS were conducted on a Jeol JMS-DA-500 mass

spectrometer. Elemental analyses were performed on a Carlo Elba MOD-1106 Elemental Analyzer.

Plant material: The roots of *Daphne oleoides* (15 kg) were collected from Peshawar (Pakistan) in May 2010 and identified by Prof. Manzoor Husain, Plant Taxonomist, Govt. Postgraduate College-1, Abbottabad, KPK, Pakistan, where a voucher specimen has been deposited.

Extraction and isolation: Dried and ground roots (15 kg) of *Daphne oleoides* were extracted with MeOH (3 x 50 L) at room temperature. The combined MeOH extracts were filtered and concentrated under reduced pressure to yield 800 g of gummy residue, which was suspended in H₂O and fractionated into *n*-hexane (40 g), ethyl acetate (EtOAc) (60 g), and *n*-BuOH (80 g) soluble fractions. The EtOAc soluble fraction was subjected to column chromatography (CC) over silica gel eluting with mixtures of *n*-hexane and CHCl₃, in increasing order of polarity. The fraction obtained from CHCl₃-MeOH (9:1) was subjected to recycling HPLC (ODS-M 80 column, 2 mL/min) and eluted with H₂O/MeOH (1:1) resulting in the isolation of compounds **1** (10 mg) and **2**, (13 mg).

8,8''-Bi-6-hydroxyorobol (1)

Yellow amorphous powder.

MP: 266-268°C.

IR (KBr) ν_{max} cm⁻¹: 3490 (OH), 1670 (conjugated ketone), 1616, 1530, 1505 (aromatic C=C).

UV (MeOH) (λ_{max}) (log ϵ): 273 (4.17), 343 (3.92) (sh) nm

^1H and ^{13}C NMR: Table 1

(+)-FAB-MS m/z : 603 [M+H]⁺; (-)-FAB-MS m/z : 601 [M-H]⁻

HREI-MS m/z : [M]⁺ calcd. for C₃₀H₁₈O₁₄: 602.0697; found: 602.0691

Elemental analysis: Calcd. C 59.81, H 3.01, O 37.18; found C 59.79, H 3.04, O 37.09

8,8''-Bi-6, 2'-dihydroxygenistein (2)

Yellow amorphous powder.

MP: 280-282°C.

IR (KBr) ν_{max} cm⁻¹: 3510 (OH), 1675 (conjugated ketone), 1610, 1530, 1510 (aromatic C=C).

UV (MeOH) (λ_{max}) (log ϵ): 275 (4.29), 347 (3.52) (sh) nm

^1H and ^{13}C NMR: Table 1

(+)-FAB-MS m/z : 603 [M+H]⁺; (-)-FAB-MS m/z : 601 [M-H]⁻

HREI-MS m/z : [M]⁺ calcd. for C₃₀H₁₈O₁₄: 602.0697; found: 602.0693

Elemental analysis: Calcd. C 59.81, H 3.01, O 37.18; found C 59.76, H 3.07, O 37.15.

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Biflavonoids from the Unripe Fruits of *Clusia paralicola* and their Antioxidant Activity

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Investigation of the green fruits of *Clusia paralicola* (Clusiaceae) led to the isolation and characterization of two 3,8"-biflavonoids, 2*R*, 3*S*, 2"*R*, 3"*R*-GB1-7"-O-β-glucoside (**1**) and 2*R*, 3*S*, 2"*R*, 3,8"-binaringenin-7"-O-β-glucoside (**2**), together with four known compounds: β-sitosterol, stigmasterol, β-amyrin, and epicatechin. The structures were established from the IR, LC-ESI-MS and NMR spectral data, including 2D-NMR experiments. The absolute configurations of **1** and **2** were determined by CD spectra. The total extract and the biflavonoids demonstrated significant antioxidant activity in DPPH, ABTS, and β-carotene/linoleic acid tests.

Keywords: Clusiaceae, *Clusia paralicola*, Biflavonoid glucosides, Antioxidant activity.

The genus *Clusia* (Clusiaceae) occurs in the neotropical region and comprises around 250 species of semi-epiphytes, vines, shrubs and trees [1, 2]. *C. paralicola* G. Mariz Cunha is native and endemic to northeastern Brazil, such as in the states of Paraíba, Pernambuco, Bahia and Alagoas, in areas of Caatinga and Atlantic Forest [3], and is popularly known as pororoca. Previous studies of *C. paralicola* showed the presence of xanthone, an uncommon prenylated dihydrophenanthrene, paralycoline A [4, 5] and new biphenyls with DNA strand-scission activity [6].

In the present investigation, fractionation of an extract of the unripe fruits of *C. paralicola* led to the isolation of compounds **1-6**. We report herein the isolation and structure elucidation of biflavonoids **1** and **2**. Although a wide variety of compounds, both aromatic and nonaromatic, including biflavonoids of the *Garcinia* type [4] have been isolated from *Clusia* species earlier, to our knowledge this is the first report of these biflavonoids from this source. In our continuing search for potent antioxidants from natural sources [7,8], we found that the ethanolic extract, the fractions thereof, and compounds **1** and **2** displayed antioxidant activity.

The UV spectra of compounds **1** and **2** were typical of biflavonones with an absorption maximum at 285 nm, followed by a shoulder at 330 nm [9], and showed an [M+H]⁺ ion at *m/z* 721 and 705 in its ESI-MS, corresponding to the molecular formula, C₃₆H₃₂O₁₆ and C₃₆H₃₂O₁₅, respectively. In addition, the ESI-MS fragments at *m/z* 559 and 543 for **1** and **2**, revealed the loss of glucose in each case. The structure of **1** was deduced from detailed analysis of ¹H and ¹³C NMR data aided by 2D NMR experiments (¹H-¹H COSY, HSQC, and HMBC) (Table 1). Duplication of signals (in a ratio 1:0.6) in the ¹H NMR spectrum of the optically active **1** in DMSO-*d*₆ suggests the existence of two conformers at room temperature. This observation has been previously reported for the biflavanone GB-1 and could be attributed to the hindered rotation between the flavanone and the flavanol moieties around the C-3/C-8 axis [10]. For this type of molecules, the existence of rotational isomers at

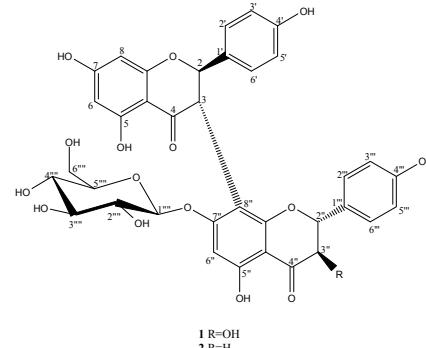


Figure 1: Structures of biflavonoids **1** and **2** from fruits of *Clusia paralicola*.

ambient temperature is explained by the strong intra- and intermolecular H-bonding that occurs due to the many OH groups present [11].

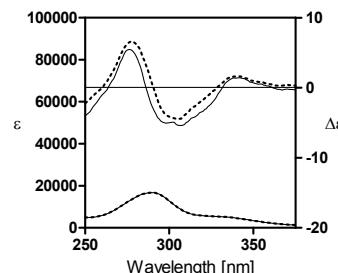
Biflavonoid **1** (Figure 1) showed singlets for OH protons, two at low fields at δ_H 12.12 and 11.66, attributed to the H-bonded OH-(C5) and OH-(C5''), respectively (Table 1). The doublets at δ_H 7.23, 7.18, and 6.68, 6.60 ($J=8.5$ Hz) could be assigned to the AA'BB' spin system of the para-substituted B rings H-2'''/6''', H-2'/6', H3'''/5'', and H-3'/5', respectively. Two doublets for two protons at δ_H 5.89 and 5.75 ($J=2.0$ Hz) were accordingly located at H-6 and H-8, respectively. H-6'' exhibited a singlet at δ_H 6.21. In the same way, the remaining three doublets at δ_H 5.45 ($J=12$ Hz), 5.06 ($J=12$ Hz) and 5.03 ($J=11$ Hz), and one doublet of doublets at δ_H 4.30 ($J=11$ and 6 Hz) for one proton each were assigned to H-2, H2'', H-3, and H-3'', respectively. The vicinal coupling constants (11-12 Hz) J [H-C(2), H-C(3)] and J [H-C(2''), H-C(3'')] established the *trans*-diaxial arrangements of these pairs. The resonances of the β-glucose moiety were observed as follows: an anomeric proton H-1''' at δ_H 4.73 ($d, J=7.5$ Hz), with methylene protons H-6''' at δ_H 3.44 (m) and 3.70 ($d, J=11$ Hz) and the other

Table 1: ^1H (500 MHz) and ^{13}C NMR (125 MHz) spectroscopic data for **1** and **2** (major conformer) (DMSO- d_6 , δ in ppm).

Position	1				2	
	δ_{C}	δ_{H}	$^2J_{\text{CH}}$	$^3J_{\text{CH}}$	δ_{C}	δ_{H}
2	82.1	5.45 (d, 12.0)			81.8	5.55 (d, 12)
3	46.7	5.06 (d, 12.0)			46.6	5.09 (d, 12)
4	196.9		H-3	H-2	196.9	
5	163.6			H-6	163.5	
6	95.9	5.89 (d, 2.0)		H-8	95.9	6.18 (s)
7	168.9			H-6, H-8	166.5	
8	94.8	5.75 (d, 2.0)			94.9	5.79 (d, 2.0)
9	163.2		H-8		163.1	
10	101.1			H-6, H-8	101.3	
1'	127.0		H-3', H-5'		128.4	
2'', 6'	129.8	7.18 (d, 8.5)		H-2	128.5	7.25 (d, 8.5)
3'', 5'	114.8	6.60 (d, 8.5)			115.1	6.60 (d, 8.5)
4'	157.6		H-3', H-5'	H-2', H- 6'	157.9	
2''	82.7	5.06 (d, 11.0)			78.4	5.48 (dd; 12.5, 3.0)
3''	72.4	4.30 (dd; 11.0, 6.0)			42.1	3.05 (dd; 17.5, 13.0) 2.75 (dd; 17.5, 3.0)
4''	198.2		H-3	H-2	197.6	
5''	161.8		H-6		162.0	
6''	96.0	6.21 (s)			95.9	6.18 (s)
7''	162.8		H-6	H-1'''', H-3	162.8	
8''	102.7		H-3	H-6''	103.3	
9''	158.6			H-3	160.1	
10''					102.7	
1'''	127.4	H-2''	H-3'', H-3''', H-5'''		128.1	
2''', 6'''	128.3	7.23 (d, 8.5)			128.0	7.19 (d, 8.5)
3''', 5'''	114.9	6.68 (d, 8.5)			115.1	6.68 (d, 8.5)
4'''	157.5		H-3''', H-5'''	H-2''', H-6'''	157.6	
1''''	99.9	4.73 (d, 7.5)			99.9	4.72 (d, 7.0)
2''''	73.0	3.18 (m)			73.0	3.17 (m)
3''''	77.1	3.66 (m)			77.1	3.37 (m)
4''''	69.6	3.09 (m)			69.6	3.11 (m)
5''''	76.1	3.15 (m)			76.8	3.16 (m)
6''''	60.6	3.70 (m) 3.44 (m)			60.5	3.66 (m) 3.44 (m)
OH-		12.12 (s)				12.14 (s)
C(5)/C(5'')		11.66 (s)				
OH-C(3)		5.85 (d, 6.5)				

protons absorbing at δ_{H} 3.15-3.66. The APT spectrum displayed low field signals at δ_{C} 198.2 and 196.9, typical of carbonyl groups of flavanone and flavananol. The signals at δ_{C} 129.8, 128.3, 114.8, and 114.9 could be assigned to the carbons 2'', 6'', 2''', 6''', 3'', 5'', 3''', and 5''' to IB and IIB rings in the AA'BB' system, respectively. The signals at δ_{C} 72.4 and 46.7 represented the aliphatic C-atoms of the 3-hydroxyflavanone and flavanone moieties, respectively. Similarly, the signals at δ_{C} 82.7 and 82.1 were assigned to C-2'' and C-2, respectively. By comparison with ^{13}C NMR data of other related 3,8''-biflavonoids, I-3,II-8-binaringenin or GB-1a (*Garcinia* biflavonoid) [10], the measured resonances of **1** could be attributed to a 3,8''-biflavonoid consisting of 3-hydroxyflavanone and flavanone moieties. The connectivity in the molecule, particularly the 3,8''-linkage of the flavonoid, was confirmed by HMBC correlations (Table 1). The glycosidic linkage site of β -D-glucose at C-7 was further verified by the HMBC experiments in which the anomeric proton at δ_{H} 4.73 showed a cross peak with the δ_{C} C-7 at 168.9. Detailed analyses of the HSQC and HMBC spectra allowed for the assignments of all the ^1H - and ^{13}C -NMR signals for both the glucosyl and aglycone moieties. The ^1H - and ^{13}C -NMR data for compound **2** (Figure 1) were similar to those of **1**, except for the signals at δ_{H} 5.48 (H-2''; dd, $J=12.5$ and 3.0 Hz), δ_{H} 3.05 (H α -3''; dd, $J=17.5$ and 13.0 Hz), δ_{H} 2.75 (H β -3''; dd, $J=17.5$ and 3.0 Hz) and δ_{C} 42.1 (C-3''). The absolute configurations of the two biflavonoids were determined by CD spectra. The CD spectrum of biflavonoid **1** revealed Cotton effects due to the electronic n \rightarrow p*

and $\pi\rightarrow\text{p}^*$ transitions of the two constituent structural moieties: the 3-substituted flavanone upper unit (I) and the flavananol lower unit (II) (Figure 2). The observed Cotton effects were similar to those observed for the flavonoids *ent*-naringeninyl-(1 α ,II-8)-4'-O-methylnaringenin [12] and GB1 [13]. The positive Cotton effect near 330 nm for the n \rightarrow p* transition and the negative Cotton effect near 300 nm for the $\pi\rightarrow\text{p}^*$ transition may be assigned to the lower flavananol unit. Similarly, the negative Cotton effect (shoulder) near 325 nm for the n \rightarrow p* transition and the positive Cotton effect near 280 nm for the $\pi\rightarrow\text{p}^*$ transition may be assigned to the upper flavanone unit. Application of Gaffield's rule then permits assignment of (2R, 3S) and (2''R, 3''R) absolute configurations for the flavanone and flavananol moieties, respectively [14]. Therefore, the structure of compound **1** could be established unambiguously as 2R, 3S, 2''R, 3''R-GB1-7''-O- β -glucoside. The CD spectrum of **2** was similar to biflavonoid **1** (Figure 2) and the absolute configuration was established as 2R, 3S, 2''R, 3,8''-binaringenin-7''-O- β -glucoside. GB1-7''-O- β -glucoside was reported to exist in *Garcinia kola*, but no data for structural identification was published previously. Although 3,8''-binaringenin-7''-O- β -glucoside was earlier isolated from *Garcinia multiflora* [16], the ^{13}C NMR and CD presented here are, to our knowledge, new data. 3,8''-Biflavonoids have been isolated mainly from *Garcinia*, *Rheedia*, and *Allanblakia* species (Clusiaceae), and have recently been isolated from *Clusia columnaris* [17]. Compounds **3** (epicatechin) [18], **4** (β -sitosterol) [19], **5** (stigmasterol) [19], and **6** (β -amyrin) [20] were identified by comparison with published spectroscopic data.

**Figure 2:** Upper curves: CD spectra of **1** (dotted line) and **2** (solid line). Lower curves: UV spectra of **1** (dotted line) and **2** (solid line).**Table 2:** Total phenolics and antioxidant activity of extracts, fractions and biflavonoids from *Clusia paralicola*.

Sample	Total phenolic content (mg GAE/g \pm SD)	DPPH (EC ₅₀) ^a	ABTS (EC ₅₀)	β -Carotene bleaching (%) O.I. ^b
EtOH extract	132.1 \pm 1.3	12.7 \pm 0.1	7.4 \pm 0.4	65.6 \pm 3.8
<i>n</i> -Hexane fraction	42.9 \pm 3.2	17.4 \pm 0.1	18.6 \pm 0.1	68.3 \pm 9.8
AcOEt fraction	135.4 \pm 3.2	10.8 \pm 0.1	6.2 \pm 0.3	70.6 \pm 3.2
MeOH:H ₂ O fraction	94.8 \pm 3.3	13.9 \pm 0.2	13.9 \pm 0.2	82.4 \pm 2.3
Biflavonoids		60.2 \pm 1.6	26.7 \pm 3.3	53.2 \pm 2.7
Ascorbic acid		2.1 \pm 0.0	2.8 \pm 0.2	
Trolox				77.4 \pm 1.8

Mean value \pm standard deviation: n=3

^aConcentration of antioxidant required to reduce the original amount of radicals by 50%.

^bOxidation inhibition at 60 min.

The total phenolic content and the antioxidant activity of the EtOH extract, *n*-hexane, EtOAc, and MeOH: H₂O fractions were evaluated by DPPH and ABTS radical scavenging, as well as β -carotene/linoleic acid system activity assays and the data were compared with those of the reference antioxidants, ascorbic acid and Trolox (Table 2). The extract and fractions tested displayed antioxidant activity in all of the test methods. Biflavonoids **1** and **2** displayed moderate antioxidant activity in all the assays. The

EtOAc fraction showed activity similar to that of the EtOH extract in all tests. The EtOH extract and fractions showed correlation (Pearson correlation, r , data not shown) with the total phenolic content (Table 2).

Experimental

General: Melting points were determined on a Kofler hot stage and are uncorrected. The infrared absorption spectra were recorded in KBr pellets, using a Varian 640 FT-IR spectrophotometer with a PIKE ATR accessory operating in the 4000-400 cm^{-1} range. The LC-ESI-MS was obtained in positive electrospray mode using an Esquire 3000 Plus (Bruker). Silica gel 60 was used for CC, and silica gel 60 F₂₅₄ (E. Merck) for TLC plates. Sephadex® LH-20 (Sigma) was employed for gel permeation chromatography. ¹H and ¹³C NMR spectra were obtained using a Bruker DRX 500 (500 MHz for ¹H and 125 MHz for ¹³C) and Bruker DPX300 (300 MHz for ¹H and 75 MHz for ¹³C) in DMSO-*d*₆. The CD was recorded with a Jasco J-515 CD spectrometer. The optical rotation was determined in a KRUSS OPTRONIC spectrometer. All solvents used were of commercial HPLC grade.

Plant material: The unripe fruits of *Clusia paralicola* were collected in Santa Rita city, State of Paraíba, Brazil in May 2010. The plant was identified by Maria de Fátima Agra. Voucher specimen (M. F. Agra *et al.* 7455) is deposited at the Herbarium Lauro Pires Xavier, Universidade Federal da Paraíba.

Extraction and isolation: The plant material (280.0 g) was extracted successively with EtOH to give 40.0 g of dry extract. This was dissolved in MeOH: H₂O (1:1) and successively fractionated with *n*-hexane and AcOEt. The AcOEt fraction (8.0 g) was successively submitted to CC using Sephadex® LH-20 and silica gel to yield **1** (50.0 mg), **2** (20.0 mg) and **3** (25.0 mg), as yellow amorphous solids. The *n*-hexane fraction (10.0 g) was subjected to CC using Sephadex® LH-20. Fractions 4 and 5 were submitted to CC on silica gel using *n*-hexane, EtOAc and MeOH to furnish the mixture of **4** and **5** (11.0 mg) and **6** (35.0 mg).

2R, 3S, 2”R, 3”R-GB1-7”-O-β-glucoside (1)

MP: 223-225°C.

[α]_D: -11.9 (*c* 0.23, MeOH).

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IR (KBr) ν_{\max} : 3400 (OH), 1640 (C=O), 1600, 1520 (C=C from aromatic rings).

¹H and ¹³C NMR (DMSO-*d*₆): Table 1.

LC-ESI-MS (positive mode) *m/z*: 721 [M+H]⁺ (C₃₆H₃₂O₁₆).

2R, 3S, 2”R, 3,8”-binaringenin-7”-O-β-glucoside (2)

MP: 218-220°C;

[α]_D: -35.1 (*c* 0.67, MeOH).

IR (KBr) ν_{\max} : 3400 (OH), 1640 (C=O), 1600, 1520 (C=C from aromatic rings).

¹H and ¹³C NMR (DMSO-*d*₆): Table 1.

LC-ESI-MS (positive mode) *m/z*: 705 [M+H]⁺ (C₃₆H₃₂O₁₅).

Determination of total phenolic content: Total soluble phenolic contents of the EtOH extract, and the *n*-hexane, AcOEt, and MeOH: H₂O fractions (1 mg/mL) was determined with the Folin-Ciocalteu reagent according to the method of Slinkard & Singleton [21], with modification by using gallic acid as a standard phenolic compound.

DPPH[•] radical scavenging assay, ABTS⁺ radical cation decolorisation assay, and antioxidant activity in linoleic acid oxidation: The free radical-scavenger activity (DPPH) [7], the radical cation decolorization assay (ABTS) [22], and antioxidant activity in linoleic acid oxidation [23] of the EtOH extract, and *n*-hexane, AcOEt, MeOH:H₂O fractions and the biflavanoids was determined as described previously.

Statistical analysis: All samples were analyzed in triplicate unless stated otherwise and the results are expressed as average \pm standard deviation. All statistical analyses were carried out using the Microsoft Excel software package (Microsoft Corp., Redmond, WA). Correlation analysis of antioxidant activity versus the total phenolic content was carried out using the correlation and regression program in Graphpad Prism 5.0 DEMO (GraphPad Software, San Diego, California USA).

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Ochnaflavone and Ochnaflavone 7-O-methyl Ether two Antibacterial Biflavonoids from *Ochna pretoriensis* (Ochnaceae)

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The acetone extract of *Ochna pretoriensis* was evaluated for antibacterial activity using bioautography and serial microplate dilution methods against four nosocomial bacterial pathogens namely: *Escherichia coli*, *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Enterococcus faecalis* and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. A bioassay-guided fractionation of the crude extract led to the isolation of two antibacterial biflavonoids, ochnaflavone and ochnaflavone 7-O-methyl ether. Gram-negative bacteria were more sensitive to the isolated compounds than the Gram-positive bacteria (MIC values: 31.3 µg/mL for *P. aeruginosa* and 62.5 µg/mL for *S. aureus*). In addition, the isolated compounds were assessed for their potential toxic effects in the MTT toxicity assay using monkey kidney vero cells and Ames genotoxicity test using *Salmonella typhimurium* strain TA98. LC₅₀ values were 125.9 µg/mL for ochnaflavone and 162.0 µg/mL for ochnaflavone 7-O-methyl ether. The isolated compounds have selectivity index values ranging from 1.29 to 4.03. Selectivity index values higher than one indicate that test samples are less toxic to the host cells than to the pathogens. The biflavonoids did not have any mutagenic effects in the *Salmonella*/microsome assay without metabolic activation.

Keywords: *Ochna pretoriensis*, Antibacterial activity, Ochnaflavone, Ochnaflavone 7-O-methyl ether.

Antibiotic resistance and the ever increasing development of multi-drug resistant by pathogenic microbes are of concern. This resistance has resulted in an increased incidence of infectious diseases leading to high morbidity and mortality [1]. As a result the search for new antimicrobial/anti-infective drugs (from plants) is imperative to counter resistance development and to avert or delay the arrival of a post-antibiotic era [2]. Plants have been used throughout history to cure and prevent infectious diseases and thus present an obvious source of new antimicrobial compounds [3].

The genus *Ochna*, (Ochnaceae) comprises 86 species of evergreen trees and shrubs and occurs widely in Africa, Asia and Madagascar. Biflavonoids isolated from this genus have diverse biological and pharmacological properties, which include antiviral, antihepatotoxic, anticancer and immune suppressive activities [4-6]. While several pharmacological activities have been reported for members of the genus *Ochna*, there has been no previous report of the antibacterial activity of members of this genus. In a previous study, we investigated the antibacterial potential of several *Ochna* species from which we identified the most active ones [7]. This study was an attempt, to isolate the antibacterial constituents of *O. pretoriensis*. Two main antibacterial compounds were isolated using bioassay-guided fractionation and chemically characterised. Moreover, the potential toxic effects (cytotoxic and genotoxic effects) of the isolated compounds were evaluated using a tetrazolium based colorimetric assay (MTT assay) on Vero monkey kidney cells, and a bacterial based mutagenicity test in *S. typhimurium* (Ames tests), respectively.

Bioassay-guided fractionation of the crude extract of the dried leaves of *O. pretoriensis*, followed by column chromatography, yielded two compounds identified as ochnaflavone (1) and ochnaflavone 7-O-methyl ether (2) using ¹H and ¹³C NMR spectroscopic and mass spectrometric analysis. The structures were confirmed by comparison of the NMR data with that in the literature [8].

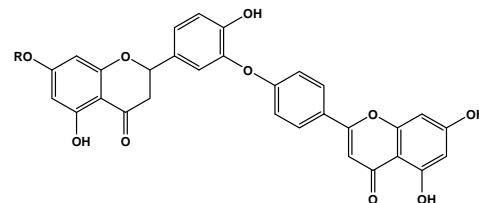


Figure 1: Chemical structures of the two compounds isolated from *O. pretoriensis*. 1: R = H = ochnaflavone, 2: R = CH₃ = ochnaflavone 7-O-methyl ether.

The MIC of the tested crude extracts, different solvent-solvent fractions and the biflavonoids ochnaflavone and ochnaflavone 7-O-methyl ether are presented in Table 1. The most sensitive organism to both biflavonoids was *P. aeruginosa* with an MIC value of 31.3 µg/mL. *E. faecalis* was more sensitive to ochnaflavone. Ochnaflavone had higher activity than its methoxy derivative.

The cytotoxic potential of ochnaflavone (1) and ochnaflavone 7-O-methyl ether (2) was tested in the MTT assay using Vero monkey kidney cells. Ochnaflavone and ochnaflavone 7-O-methyl ether had low cytotoxicity compared with berberine. The LC₅₀ values were 125.9 µg/mL for ochnaflavone and 162.0 µg/mL for ochnaflavone 7-O-methyl ether. Berberine, the positive control, had a LC₅₀ of 39.0 µg/mL. To evaluate potential efficacy, tolerability and therapeutic antibacterial activity of the two compounds, selectivity index (SI) was calculated by dividing the LC₅₀ in mg/mL by MIC in mg/mL. The selectivity Index (SI) values of the isolated compounds are presented in Table 2. The isolated compounds had positive, but low, selectivity indices ranging from 1.29 to 4.03.

Results obtained from the mutagenicity and antimutagenicity test of ochnaflavone and ochnaflavone 7-O-methyl ether using the *Salmonella typhimurium* strain TA98, based on the number of induced revertant colonies, are presented in Table 4. Test samples are considered mutagenic when the number of induced revertant

Table 1: Minimal inhibitory concentrations (MIC) ($\mu\text{g/mL}$) of the crude extract, solvent-solvent fractions and compounds isolated from *O. pretoriensis*.

Bacteria	Crude extract	Chloroform	Ethyl acetate	1	2	Gentamycin
<i>E. coli</i>	65 \pm 0.002	156 \pm 0.00	39 \pm 0.00	41.6 \pm 0.02	125 \pm 0.00	7
<i>P. aeruginosa</i>	104 \pm 0.004	78 \pm 0.00	39 \pm 0.00	31.3 \pm 0.00	31.3 \pm 0.00	8
<i>S. aureus</i>	104 \pm 0.004	39 \pm 0.00	39 \pm 0.00	62.5 \pm 0.00	125 \pm 0.00	8.3
<i>E. faecalis</i>	39 \pm 0.00	39 \pm 0.00	39 \pm 0.00	31.3 \pm 0.00	62.5 \pm 0.00	10

Table 2: Cytotoxic effects against vero cells LC₅₀ ($\mu\text{g/mL}$) and selectivity index values of compounds isolated from *O. pretoriensis*.

Compounds	LC ₅₀	<i>E. coli</i>	<i>P. aeruginosa</i>	<i>S. aureus</i>	<i>E. faecalis</i>	Average
1	125.9 \pm 0.00	3.02	4.03	2.10	4.02	3.27
2	162.0 \pm 0.00	1.29	5.18	1.29	2.59	2.28

Table 3: Mutagenic and antimutagenic activity of compounds isolated from *O. pretoriensis* in the frame shift of *Salmonella typhimurium* TA98 \pm standard deviation.

Compound	MUTAGENICITY			ANTIMUTAGENICITY		
	1000 $\mu\text{g/mL}$	500 $\mu\text{g/mL}$	50 $\mu\text{g/mL}$	1000 $\mu\text{g/mL}$	500 $\mu\text{g/mL}$	50 $\mu\text{g/mL}$
1	32.0 \pm 0.00	37.3 \pm 4.9	32.7 \pm 3.0	182.7 \pm 5.8	167.3 \pm 4.9	178.7 \pm 4.2
2	30.7 \pm 0.00	40.7 \pm 2.1	29.0 \pm 4.0	166.7 \pm 0.0	181.0 \pm 3.2	178.3 \pm 1.5
Solvent blank	28.8 \pm 0.00			4-NQO (2 $\mu\text{g/mL}$)	210.0 \pm 12.3	

colonies is at least double that of the negative control. Both ochnaflavone and ochnaflavone 7-*O*-methyl ether had no potential mutagenic effect. Neither of the biflavonoids tested significantly modified the mutagenicity of the known mutagen 4-NQO. However, the slight reduction in the number of revertants was not dose dependent and indicative of toxicity.

Ochnaflavone had been isolated previously from several members of the Ochnaceae family including *O. squarrosa* [9], *O. pumila* [10], and *O. obtusata* [8] among others while its methyl ether ochnaflavone 7-*O*-methyl ether had been isolated from *O. squarrosa* [9]. Ochnaflavones have a wide range of biological activities including inhibition of cyclooxygenase-2 and 5-lipoxygenase in mouse bone marrow derived mast cells [11] and inhibition of arachidonate release by phospholipase A₂ from rat peritoneal macrophage [12]. The flavonoid has also antioxidant activity, inhibits lipopolysaccharide-induced iNOS expression lipopolysaccharide-induced nitric oxide production and inhibits TNF- α [6,13].

Although many biflavonoids have been isolated from the family Ochnaceae, this is the first report of the isolation of ochnaflavone and ochnaflavone 7-*O*-methyl ether from *Ochna pretoriensis* and it is also the first report of their antibacterial activity. The compounds isolated in this study may have synergistic and/or combined antibacterial activity since on average, the chloroform and ethylacetate fractions in some cases had a higher activity than the pure compounds. The isolated compounds had better antibacterial activity than the crude extract.

The assumption that herbal medicine and pure phytocompounds are safer than synthetic compounds is certainly an overstatement, as many natural products are cytotoxic, mutagenic and carcinogenic. Ochnaflavone and ochnaflavone 7-*O*-methyl ether did not have substantial toxicity towards vero cells. However, they had low specific/selective antibacterial activity with selectivity indices ranging from 1.29 to 4.03. A selectivity index of higher than 10 is preferred to ensure that an overdose does not harm the host. A high selectivity index is an indication of a large safety margin between a beneficial and toxic dose. At these relatively low selectivity indices the compounds would only be useful in topical applications. The first assumption is that cellular toxicity approximates *in vivo* toxicity, but this may not necessarily be true.

Even though the numbers of revertant colonies obtained in the Ames test for each compound at differing concentrations were more

than that in the negative control, the two compounds tested are considered to be non-mutagenic. Test substances are only considered mutagenic when the number of revertant colonies in the test sample is more than twice that in the negative control. Moreover, a dose-response should be evident for the various concentrations of the mutagen [14]. At the highest concentration tested for each compound, the number of revertants seemed to decrease as compared with the lower concentrations tested. This may be a result of toxicity to the bacteria since the compounds being tested have proven to have antibacterial activity.

Antimutagenic effects of the compounds were less than 25% in each case, thus all the compounds may be considered to have weak or no antimutagenic activity. Verschaeve and Van Staden [14] explained that when the antimutagenic effects of a substance is more than 25%, then the test sample may be considered to have moderate antimutagenic effects and that it can be concluded that a test sample has a strong antimutagenic effect when the percentage of antimutagenicity is higher than 40%. Since the compounds tested in this experiment have demonstrated antibacterial activity, then their toxicity towards the test strain used may mask the genotoxic response.

In conclusion, the potential antibacterial activity of *O. pretoriensis* was demonstrated for the first time and its most active constituents shown to be ochnaflavone and ochnaflavone 7-*O*-methyl ether. The isolated compounds were not mutagenic in the Ames test and did not have substantial toxicity towards Vero cells. However, given the low selectivity index values of the isolated compounds, herbal preparations from this plant should probably be used only as topical applications for treating external microbial infections.

Experimental

Plant material collection: Leaves of *Ochna pretoriensis* E. Phillips were collected from the National Botanical Garden in Pretoria, South Africa. A voucher specimen (HGJ Schweickerdt Herbarium, UP 114801/2) was deposited at the Herbarium of the University of Pretoria. The leaves were dried in the dark at room temperature, pulverized into fine powder and stored in closed glass bottles until use.

Extraction and bioassay-guided fractionation of biflavonoids: The powdered leaves (100 g) were extracted with 1 L of acetone overnight. The extract was filtered through Whatman No.1 filter paper and concentrated under reduced pressure to yield 10.46 g

crude extract, which was subjected to solvent-solvent fractionation using *n*-hexane, carbon tetrachloride, chloroform, ethyl acetate, 70% water in methanol, water and *n*-butanol [15]. Aliquots of the fractions were separated by TLC and tested in the bioautographic antibacterial assay described below. The most active ethyl acetate fraction (250 mg) was subjected to CC using silica gel 60 (Merck) and eluted with an isocratic system of chloroform and methanol [90:10→0:100] at 10% increments. Fractions were collected and combined based on TLC. All fractions were analysed again for bioactivity using the antibacterial bioautographic method. Fractions 2&3 were the most active (with 6 yellow lanes of bacterial growth inhibition) and were subjected to further purification using a Sephadex LH20 column with ethyl acetate as eluent to give compounds **1** (30 mg) and **2** (10 mg).

Qualitative antibacterial assay by bioautography: The antibacterial bioautographic assay was carried out according to the method of Begue and Kline [16]. Briefly, overnight cultures of *Enterococcus faecalis* (ATCC 29212), *Staphylococcus aureus* (ATCC 29213), *Escherichia coli* (ATCC 27853) and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (ATCC 25922), which were grown in Müller-Hinton broth at 37°C, were centrifuged at 3000 × g for 10 min. The pellets were resuspended 10 mL of fresh MH broth and sprayed onto a TLC plate spotted with 100 µg of each test sample. The plate was then incubated under 100% humidity conditions at 37°C overnight. Thereafter, the plates were sprayed with 2 mg/mL aqueous solution of *p*-iodonotrotetrazolium violet (INT, Sigma) solution and incubated for a further 30 min. Clear zones against a pinkish background on the plates indicated inhibition of bacterial growth by antibacterial compounds present in the fractions.

Quantitative antibacterial assay by serial microdilution: The serial dilution assay described [17] was used to determine the minimum inhibitory concentrations of the crude extract and the isolated biflavonoids against *Enterococcus faecalis* (ATCC 29212), *Staphylococcus aureus* (ATCC 29213), *Escherichia coli* (ATCC 27853) and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (ATCC 25922). Each compound was dissolved in acetone (1 mg/mL) and serially diluted two-fold in a 96-well microplate with equal volumes of water for

each of the 4 bacteria used. One hundred µL of each bacterial culture were added to each well. Acetone was used as negative control and gentamicin as the positive control. The plates were then incubated overnight at 37°C. To indicate bacterial growth, 40 µL of 0.2 mg/mL INT was added to each well after incubation and the plates incubated further at 37°C for 30 min. The MIC was recorded as the lowest concentration of the compounds at which the bacterial growth was inhibited. The MIC values were also determined after 12 h and 24-36 h incubation with the compounds to determine if they possess either bacteriostatic or bactericidal activity. The experiment was performed in triplicate and repeated twice.

Tetrazolium-based cytotoxicity test: Cytotoxic effects of the isolated compounds were determined using the tetrazolium-based colorimetric assay (MTT assay) against Vero monkey kidney cells using the methods described by Mosmann, [18]. Briefly, the cells were maintained in minimal essential medium supplemented with 5% fetal calf serum and 0.1% gentamycin. Cell suspensions were prepared from confluent monolayer cultures and plated at a density of 0.5×10^3 cells into each well of a 96-well microtiter plate. After incubation at 37°C in a 5% CO₂ incubator, the subconfluent cells in the microtiter plate were used in the cytotoxicity assay. The test

compounds were assayed at concentrations ranging from 10 to 200 µg/mL. Berberine chloride was used as positive control. The intensity of color is directly proportional to the number of surviving cells. Tests were carried out in quadruplicate and each experiment was repeated 3 times.

Genotoxicity testing (Ames test): The potential genotoxic effect of **1** and **2** was investigated using the Ames test [19], performed with *Salmonella typhimurium* test strain TA98. 4-Nitroquinoline 1-oxide (4-NQO) was used as a positive control at a concentration of 2 µg/mL.

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Factors Affecting the Separation and Bioactivity of Red Clover (*Trifolium pratense*) Extracts Assayed against *Clostridium sticklandii*, a Ruminal Hyper Ammonia-producing Bacterium

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Red clover (*Trifolium pratense*) is rich in phenolic compounds. Both the crude phenolic extract and biochanin A, an isoflavonoid component of the extract, suppress growth of *Clostridium sticklandii*, a bovine, Gram-positive, ruminal hyper-ammonia producing bacterium (HAB). The purpose of this study was to determine if other components of red clover extract contributed to its anti-HAB activity. Extracts of the Kenland cultivar of red clover, collected 0 h and 24 h after cutting, were separated by normal-phase thin-layer chromatography (TLC) in either ethyl acetate-hexanes (9:1, v/v) or ethyl acetate-methanol (4:1, v/v). Bands on TLC plates were assayed by either overlaying the plates with agar seeded with *C. sticklandii*, or setting the excised bands face-down onto plates of bacteria-seeded agar. Biochanin A inhibited *C. sticklandii* growth on TLC plates when as little as 8 nmol was present in the extract. An antimicrobial band, seen in a previous bioassay, was not found, suggesting that this second compound may be more labile than biochanin A.

Keywords: *Trifolium pratense*, Phenolic, Isoflavonoid, Thin-layer chromatography, HAB.

The phenolic compounds of red clover (*Trifolium pratense* L.) have been extensively studied because of their varied roles in human [1,2], plant [3], and animal health. In the last area, some red clover isoflavones have adverse effects on reproduction in sheep [4,5]. However, at least one red clover isoflavone, biochanin A, may promote growth in cattle by decreasing loss of protein nitrogen as ammonia, thus improving assimilation of protein from forages. Both crude red clover phenolic extracts and biochanin A inhibited growth of *Clostridium sticklandii* SR, a bovine, Gram-positive, ruminal hyper ammonia-producing bacterium, or HAB [6]. Because red clover extracts differing 10-fold in biochanin A concentrations inhibited *C. sticklandii*, and about 10 peaks were consistently present in high-performance liquid chromatographic (HPLC) separations of extracts [6], it seemed possible that other red clover phenolics might contribute to the observed anti-HAB activity. The purpose of this study was to test that hypothesis.

Red clover phenolic extracts from plants collected 24 h after cutting (Figure 1) had an HPLC profile similar to that of red clover collected immediately after cutting: the same peaks were present at both times, as could be ascertained from the minimal shifts in peak retention times (t_R ; Table 1). However, concentrations of phenolics differed by as much as 15-fold between the 0-h and 24-h sampling periods (Table 1). These differences may reflect the changes occurring in tissue over the 24-h wilting period. In dying plant cells, organelle integrity is destroyed, allowing the soluble phenolics (normally in the vacuole) to be exposed to oxidases and hydrolytic enzymes [7]. The 14-fold decrease in phaselic acid content between 0 and 24 h (Table 1) may indicate oxidation by polyphenol oxidase (PPO) [8]. The decreases in glucoside malonates of formononetin and biochanin A (FGM and BGM) may indicate that they were hydrolyzed to aglycones during the 24-h wilting period, given the 9- to 15-fold increases, respectively, in formononetin and biochanin A (Table 1). Such reactions have been found to occur readily in damaged clover tissue, due to endogenous glucosidases [9].

Table 1: Quantification of compounds a-i (see Figure 1) in crude extracts of red clover tissue collected 0 and 24 h after cutting. Amounts are means \pm average absolute deviations of duplicate extractions. Mean retention times are the averages of the four injections (two per timepoint).

Compound	t_R on HPLC (min), mean \pm std deviation (N=4)	nmol/gdw in total sample, mean \pm avg. absolute deviation	
		0 h after cutting (N=2)	24 h after cutting (N=2)
a (phaselic acid)	30.8 \pm 0.01	7800 \pm 760	540 \pm 49
b (clovamide)	32.0 \pm 0.01	18000 \pm 2200	3200 \pm 110
c (<i>p</i> -coumaroyl malate)	35.0 \pm 0.02	1500 \pm 160	790 \pm 20
d (ononin)	43.4 \pm 0.01	590 \pm 120	482 \pm 36
e (FGM)	47.0 \pm 0.00	10200 \pm 1200	5600 \pm 210
f (sissotrin)	48.1 \pm 0.00	2400 \pm 120	1600 \pm 49
g (BGM)	50.8 \pm 0.01	10300 \pm 1100	2400 \pm 86
h (formononetin)	53.6 \pm 0.01	810 \pm 23	7400 \pm 230
i (biochanin A)	57.4 \pm 0.01	480 \pm 34	7400 \pm 220

Abbreviations: t_R , retention time; avg., average; FGM, formononetin glucoside malonate; BGM, biochanin A glucoside malonate.

Extracts of clover from both timepoints were separated by normal-phase thin-layer chromatography (TLC) and bioassayed, in case antibacterial activity might exist in compounds more abundant at one timepoint than at the other. Separations in EtOAc-MeOH (4:1, v/v) revealed a few prominent clusters of bands on TLC plates viewed under short-wave UV light (254 nm, Figures 2A and 2B). Because bands on TLC plates were eluted in zones, HPLC retention times of most compounds could not be matched to exact retention factor (R_f) values. HPLC analysis of eluates demonstrated that the most polar compounds (phaselic acid, clovamide, *p*-coumaroyl malate, FGM, and BGM) eluted in a zone ranging from R_f =0 to R_f =0.096 in EtOAc-MeOH (4:1, v/v; zone 6 on Figure 2B) and in a zone from R_f =0 to R_f =0.029 in EtOAc-hexanes (9:1, v/v). The 7-O-glucosides of formononetin and biochanin A (ononin and sissotrin, respectively) migrated to an R_f of 0.37-0.43 in EtOAc-MeOH (4:1, v/v; zone 3 on Figure 2B), although small amounts were detected in eluates from the most polar zone. In EtOAc-hexanes (9:1, v/v), ononin and sissotrin were at highest concentrations in the zone with

an R_f value of 0.0-0.029, although small amounts were found in a zone with an R_f value of 0.08-0.31. Other compounds also were eluted from more than one zone: biochanin A (R_f =0.67) and formononetin (R_f =0.63), which formed somewhat diffuse bands in EtOAc-MeOH (4:1, v/v; zone 1 on Figure 2B), formed distinct, well-resolved bands in EtOAc-hexanes (9:1, v/v), with R_f values at 0.48 and 0.44, respectively. However, both were present in eluates expected to contain only one or the other. This result suggests that even on a 0.2-mm layer of silica, compounds may diffuse beyond the zone immediately detectable under UV light.

Table 2: Amounts of compounds a-i (see Figure 1) on bioassayed TLC plates, based on concentrations determined in crude extracts (Table 1).

Compound	nmol compound on bioassayed TLC plates	extract 1 (0 h post cutting) 14% loaded	extract 2 (24 h post cutting) 5% loaded	extract 3 (24 h post cutting) 10% loaded
a (phaselic acid)	120		3.2	5.9
b (clovamide)	280		19	33
c (<i>p</i> -coumaroyl malate)	23		4.7	8.0
d (ononin)	9.2		2.9	4.4
e (FGM)	160		33	57
f (sissotrin)	37		9.4	16
g (BGM)	160		14	25
h (formononetin)	12		44	76
i (biochanin A)	7.5		44	75

The only TLC plate zones consistently eliciting an antimicrobial response (Figure 2C) were those containing biochanin A, found in zone 1 on Figure 2B. HPLC quantification of peaks in unseparated extracts indicated that antimicrobial zones were formed in response to 7.5-75 nmol biochanin A (Table 2). HPLC analysis of most eluates encompassing all or part of this zone revealed three peaks with retention times of 49.4, 50.4, and 53.2 min, respectively (data not shown). Because these peaks represented 2% to 11% of the biochanin A concentrations, their potential role in bacterial inhibition seemed unlikely. The peak at 49.4 min had a t_R very similar to that of genistein, an isoflavone of red clover [10], but 20 nmol genistein had no effect on *C. sticklandii* growth (data not shown). Formononetin, which was poorly resolved from biochanin A in the TLC plate bioassayed in Figure 2C, had been found previously to lack activity against *C. sticklandii* [6].

In bioassays of the TLC plate shown in Figure 2B, zone 2 also elicited a small zone of inhibition, which was not consistently present, even in extracts of tissue in which it had been observed previously [6] (data not shown). This second antimicrobial zone

may have been due to the presence of an unstable compound, or to diffusion of biochanin A into that zone, as mentioned previously.

Despite high concentrations of conjugates of caffeic acid, formononetin and biochanin A (Table 1), none of these inhibited *C. sticklandii*. One of the reasons for using EtOAc-MeOH (4:1, v/v) as a TLC solvent was to see if slightly separating the most polar compounds might reveal an active compound previously masked by high concentrations of co-eluting compounds. Incubation of bands face-down onto agar was expected to maximize diffusion of compounds into the medium. The lack of observed activity indicates that *C. sticklandii* may be relatively insensitive to glycosylated phenolics. The antimicrobial properties of isoflavones are generally associated with aglycones instead of glycosides [11], and the same may be true of other phenolics as well.

In summary, the activity of red clover phenolic extracts against *C. sticklandii* may be due almost entirely to biochanin A, with occasional contributions from less stable compounds. The fact that biochanin A was active over a 10-fold range of concentrations indicates that it could account entirely for the activity against *C. sticklandii* observed in this study and in previous work [6]. This conclusion is in contrast with effects of biochanin A on other bacteria. Biochanin A inhibited the efflux of ethidium bromide from *Mycobacterium smegmatis*, which indicates inhibition of one or more drug-efflux pumps [12]. This latter result leads to the hypothesis that biochanin A potentiates the antimicrobial activity of other drugs, and does not necessarily have antimicrobial activity in the absence of other inhibitors. However, it is important to note that mycobacteria and clostridia have distinctly different cell envelopes. Recent research demonstrates that different Gram-positive bacteria, including clostridia, are sensitive to biochanin A, even when other inhibitors are not present [2,13]. Our results support the conclusions of these latter research groups, and indicate that biochanin A has an additional mechanism of action against *Firmicutes* that have the classical Gram-positive cell envelope, such as clostridia.

Experimental

Plant material: Seed from the Kenland cultivar of red clover, an older cultivar that is still grown widely in Kentucky [14], was planted on April 16, 2004, at the University of Kentucky's Spindletop Farm in Lexington, KY. Plants were cut to a 5-cm

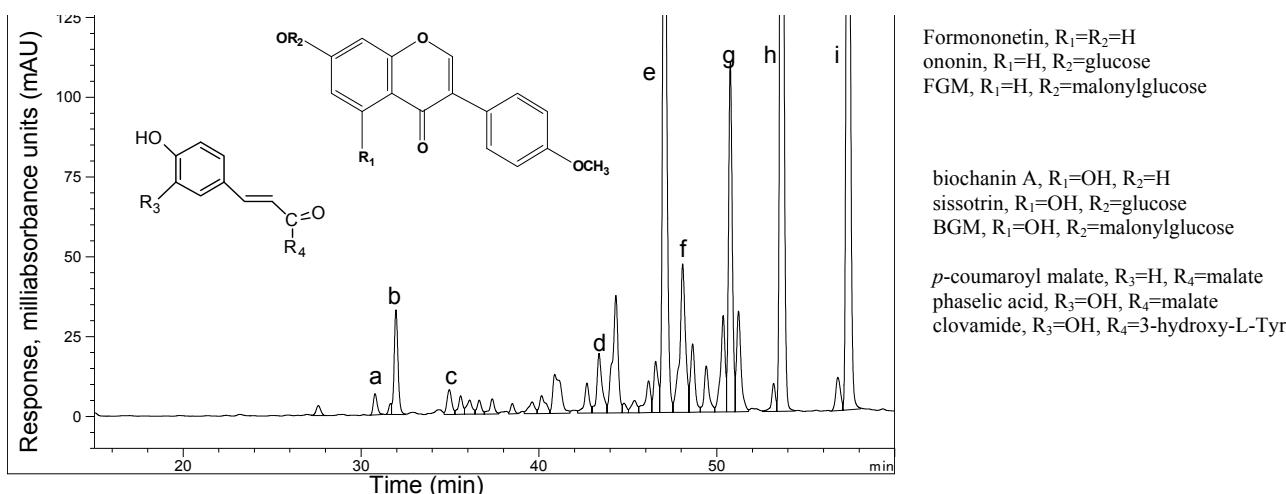


Figure 1: HPLC chromatogram of an extract of Kenland red clover collected 24 h after cutting. The compounds indicated by lowercase letters (a: phaselic acid, b: clovamide, c: *p*-coumaroyl malate, d: ononin, e: FGM, f: sissotrin, g: BGM, h: formononetin, and i: biochanin A) were found in eluates of zones from TLC plates. General structures are shown within the chromatogram, and relationships of general structures to individual compounds are shown at right.

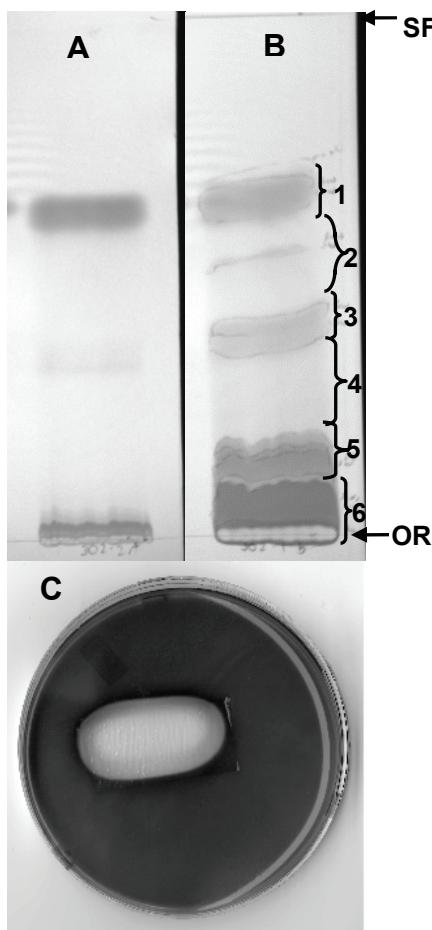


Figure 2: TLC plates of red clover extract collected 24 h (A) and 0 h (B) after cutting and developed in EtOAc-MeOH (4:1, v/v). Plates, photographed under short-wave ultraviolet light (254 nm), are aligned at the origin (OR) and solvent front (SF). Five percent and 14% of the 24-h and 0-h extracts were loaded, respectively. Brackets indicate zones that were cut out from both plates and assayed by laying face-down onto agar seeded with *C. sticklandii*. The zone of inhibition shown (C) was from zone 1 of the 0-h extract, comprising both formononetin ($R_f=0.63$, 12 nmol) and biochanin A ($R_f=0.67$, 7.5 nmol). Zone 2 in the 0-h extract gave a small, inconsistent zone of inhibition. No other antimicrobial zones were found in bioassays.

stubble on July 13, 2004. Plants used in the hydrolysis studies described below (part of a separate study in preparation) were cut on September 20, 2004. Some leaves and stems were put on dry ice immediately in order to assess the phenolic profiles at the time of harvest. Other plants were collected 24 h after harvest, in order to assess changes in the phenolic profiles during wilting. All samples were transported on dry ice to freezer storage (-20°C). Frozen material was lyophilized (Model DX48SA freeze-dryer, Botanique Preservation Equipment, Peoria, AZ, USA) and ground to pass a 1-mm mesh (Wiley mill, Thomas Scientific, Swedesboro, NJ, USA).

Reagents and chemicals: Biochanin A, formononetin, sissotrin (biochanin A 7-O-glucoside), ononin (formononetin 7-O-glucoside), and genistein were purchased from Indofine Chemical Company (Hillsboro, NJ, USA). Clovamide (caffeoylel-3-hydroxy-L-tyrosine) was purchased from Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Inc. (Santa Cruz, CA, USA). Phaselic acid (caffeoylel malic acid) and *p*-coumaroyl malic acid were generously provided by Drs Wayne Zeller and Paul Schatz (USDA-ARS Dairy Forage Research Center, Madison, WI, USA). The synthesis of phaselic acid has been described by Zeller [15], and the synthesis of *p*-coumaroyl malate by Sullivan and Zarnowski [8]. Tetrazolium red and ethyl ether

(Et₂O) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. Ethyl acetate (EtOAc), acetic acid (HOAc), and hydrochloric acid (HCl) were purchased from Thermo Fisher Scientific (Waltham, MA, USA). Methanol was purchased from EMD Chemicals (Gibbstown, NJ, USA).

Phenolic extractions: The extractions were made as described by Kagan [16], with the following changes. After filtration of 6.5 mL of extract (in MeOH-HOAc-water 60:0.35:40), all filtrates were diluted with an equal volume of water and acidified to pH 1-2 with 3 M HCl before being partitioned with 3 × 0.5 volume EtOAc-Et₂O (1:1, v/v). Organic phases, after being dried over MgSO₄, were evaporated to dryness under reduced pressure at ambient temperature, resuspended in EtOAc-Et₂O (1:1, v/v), dried in vials under nitrogen, and stored at -20°C.

Separation of phenolic compounds by TLC: Aluminum-backed silica F₂₅₄ plates 0.2 mm thick (EMD Chemicals, Gibbstown, NJ, USA) were used. These were washed in EtOAc-MeOH (3:1, v/v) and activated for 10-15 min at 100°C prior to use. Extracts were resuspended in 0.25-0.30 mL MeOH, and 5% to 14% was loaded for bioassays. For isolation of bands, 30% to 60% of the extract was loaded, depending on plate size. Plates were developed either once in EtOAc-MeOH (4:1, v/v), or once in EtOAc-hexanes (9:1, v/v). Bands were visualized under ultraviolet light (254 and 365 nm) using a portable 4-Watt lamp (UVP, Upland, CA, USA) in a viewing cabinet (Chromato-Vue model C-10E, UVP).

Elution and HPLC of bands: To minimize sample loss from chipped-off silica, TLC plates were cut into zones corresponding to one or more of the bands visualized under long-wave or short-wave UV light. These zones were covered with either MeOH or EtOAc-Et₂O (1:1, v/v) and stirred several times while incubating for 1.5 h to overnight (16-23 h). The eluates were gravity-filtered through #1 filter paper (Whatman, Piscataway, NJ, USA), concentrated under reduced pressure (25-35°C for MeOH eluates, ambient for EtOAc-Et₂O eluates), dried under nitrogen for long-term storage, and resuspended in 0.2 to 0.5 mL for HPLC. Eluates were mixed with MeOH and 0.86% aqueous acetic acid (3:2, final proportions). A 15 μL aliquot was separated on an HPLC system (model 1100, Agilent Technologies, Wilmington, DE, USA), equipped with a C₁₈ column (LiChrospher RP-18 endcapped, 250 mm length × 4.6 mm i.d.) at 28°C and 0.8 mL/min. Samples were separated by the following program (A=1.5% HOAc in water, B=MeOH): 0-3 min, 8% B; 3-18 min, linear gradient to 21% B; 18-40 min, linear gradient to 54% B; 40-55 min, linear gradient to 79% B; 55-61 min, held at 79% B; 62-75 min, wash at 100% B; 76-104 min, reequilibration at 8% B. Separations were monitored with a single-wavelength detector at 260 or 300 nm (the absorbance maxima of most eluates). For quantification, separations were monitored at 270 nm, the wavelength used for standard curves in concurrent work. Peaks whose spectra resembled those of phenolic acids (maxima at ~260 and ~300 nm) were quantified as equivalents of caffeic acid, and peaks whose spectra resembled those of isoflavones (maximum at 260 nm) were quantified as equivalents of biochanin A. Peak spectra in *T. pratense* extracts had been obtained previously with a photodiode array detector [16].

Compound identification: Phaselic acid, *p*-coumaroyl malate, clovamide, ononin, sissotrin, formononetin, and biochanin A were identified by spiking red clover extracts with standards and looking for increases in the corresponding peaks. The glucoside malonates of formononetin and biochanin A were identified by a mild hydrolysis patterned after the method of de Rijke *et al.* [17]. Extracts, diluted five-fold (0.7 mL volume; 60% MeOH in 0.35% acetic acid), were heated for 75 min at 80-87°C before HPLC

analysis. Peak areas were compared in heated and unheated samples, to verify that the glucoside malonates had decreased after hydrolysis, and that the glucosides (ononin and sissotrin) had increased by a similar magnitude.

Bacterial strains and growth conditions: The strain of *Clostridium sticklandii* SR, and the basal medium, were the same as those used by Flythe and Kagan [6] and described by Chen and Russell [18]. The basal medium was prepared by adding the following to 1 L deionized water: 600 mg cysteine hydrochloride, 292 mg K₂HPO₄, 292 mg KH₂PO₄, 480 mg Na₂SO₄, 480 mg NaCl, 100 mg MgSO₄·7H₂O, and 64 mg CaCl₂·2H₂O. The pH was adjusted to 6.7 with 20% NaOH. The mixture was autoclaved (121°C, 15 min), and cooled under O₂-free CO₂. When the solution was at room temperature the following additions were made: 4g Na₂CO₃, 2 mg pyridoxamine dihydrochloride, 2 mg riboflavin, 2 mg thiamine hydrochloride, 2 mg nicotinamide, 2 mg calcium pantothenate, 2 mg lipoic acid, 0.1 mg *p*-aminobenzoic acid, 0.5 mg folic acid, 0.5 mg biotin, and 0.5 mg coenzyme B₁₂. The broth was anaerobically dispensed into serum bottles with butyl rubber stoppers and aluminum crimp seals. The bottles were autoclaved for sterility (121°C, 15 min).

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Bioassays for anti-HAB activity: Bioassays with *C. sticklandii* were conducted in an anaerobic chamber (95% CO₂, 5% H₂; Coy, Grass Lake, MI, USA). The bioassays consisted of cutting bands, or clusters of bands, from TLC plates, and laying them face-down onto Petri plates containing basal medium with 0.75% agar and seeded with *C. sticklandii*. Bacteria were added to molten agar while in early stationary phase or late in exponential phase. After a 24 h anaerobic incubation at 39°C, the TLC bands were removed and the agar was stained with 1% tetrazolium red, which stains living cells [19].

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Exploitation of the Antioxidant Potential of *Geranium macrorrhizum* (Geraniaceae): Hepatoprotective and Antimicrobial Activities

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In this study we evaluated *in vitro* (radical scavenging) and *in vivo* (hepatoprotective effect) antioxidant activities and antimicrobial properties of the extracts of the above- and underground parts of *Geranium macrorrhizum* L. (Geraniaceae), an ethnopharmacologically renowned plant species. The antioxidant activity and total phenol and flavonoid contents of four different solvent extracts were evaluated by seven different methods. The methanol extracts, administered *i.p.* to rats (120-480 mg/kg), were evaluated for hepatoprotective activity in a CCl₄-induced hepatotoxicity model. The same extracts were tested for antimicrobial activity against seven bacterial and two fungal species. The administered methanol extracts with the highest antioxidant potential showed a significant dose-dependent hepatoprotective action against CCl₄-induced liver damage in both decreasing the levels of liver transaminases and bilirubin and in reducing the extent of morphological malformations of the liver. The leaf methanol extract displayed a very strong antibacterial activity, especially against *Staphylococcus aureus*, with low minimal inhibitory and bactericidal concentrations. These results justify the frequent use of this plant species in folk medicine. Besides the known astringent effect, one can expect that the observed antimicrobial activity against several human pathogens contributes to the wound healing properties of this plant.

Keywords: *Geranium macrorrhizum* L., Radical scavenging, CCl₄-induced liver damage, Antimicrobial activity, Methanol extract.

Geranium species (Geraniaceae L.), commonly known as cranesbills, are flowering annual to perennial plants that are common throughout temperate regions and used in many different places as popular folk remedies [1]. To a great extent, it is believed that the content of hydrolysable and condensed tannins determines the diuretic, antidiarrheal and haemostatic effects of a number of species of this genus [2]. More recently, various *Geranium* species have been used as antiinfective agents [1,3], and antioxidant activity has also been demonstrated [4,5].

In Serbia, *G. macrorrhizum* L. (*Zdravac*, in Serbian, a word that can be translated into English as ‘giver of health’) is a common plant, possessing a long and large rhizome, which occurs sporadically on calcareous soil, in shaded locations, in mountainous terrain [6]. Both the rhizome and the herb have been used since antiquity for medicinal purposes to treat diarrhea, and externally for wounds, excessive bleeding, and sores [2,7]. Additionally, an ethnobotanical study conducted in Montenegro [8] revealed that *G. macrorrhizum* is utilized for treating inflammatory conditions of gallbladder and its ducts, kidney, bladder and liver. Similarly, in the Kopaonik region of Serbia, *zdravac* is used for the treatment of intestinal ailments in animals [9]. The hepatoprotective effect of a related plant species, *G. thunbergii* Sieb et Zucc., used traditionally in Japan as a remedy for liver disorders, is well known and corroborated in a number of experimental models of hepatic injury in rats [10]. A considerable amount of research has been undertaken on a tannin, geraniin, isolated from this and other *Geranium* species, which is believed to exert this protective effect [10,11].

Phytochemical studies of *G. macrorrhizum* have concentrated mostly on volatile constituents (essential oil) and polyphenolic compounds. The oils were shown to possess a very high and selective antibacterial activity against *Bacillus subtilis* with minimum inhibitory concentrations (MIC) of 0.4–1.0 µg/mL [1]. Polyphenolic compounds such as gallic, ellagic and 4-galloyl quinic acids, the flavonoid quercetin and three of its glycosides, were identified in the extracts of *G. macrorrhizum* [5]. Due to the antioxidant properties of these compounds, they suggested a new possible use of *zdravac* extracts in food (sausage) preservation [12].

Bearing all of the above in mind, the aim of this study was to evaluate the possible protective effect of *G. macrorrhizum* extractable matter in a CCl₄-induced hepatotoxicity model in rats by biochemical assays and histopathological observations in the hope of providing a possible explanation for the use of this plant in the traditional medicine of Balkan peoples. To minimize the number of animals used in the *in vivo* assays, we decided to perform a number of different *in vitro* antioxidant experiments prior to the *in vivo* ones to pinpoint the best candidate extract expected to show the highest hepatoprotective effect. HPLC profiles of the best radical scavenger extracts were additionally acquired and the total phenol and flavonoid contents of all extracts were correlated to their antioxidant potential in order to try to corroborate the starting assumption that the polyphenolic compounds are the ones responsible for the observed activities. An additional goal of this work was to verify whether a possible antimicrobial effect of *G. macrorrhizum* non-volatile extracts on wound healing exists and not only the above mentioned astringent properties.

Table 1: Yields, total phenolic and flavonoid contents, and results of antioxidant assays of different solvent extracts of *G. macrorrhizum*.

solvent	% extraction	TP ^a	TF ^b	DPPH ^c	ABTS ^c	IRA ^a	FRAP ^d	CUPRAC ^c
methanol (leaf)	51.2 ± 0.3	160.2 ± 3.1	44.9 ± 1.1	178.7 ± 1.8	323.3 ± 1.2	84.2 ± 0.2	1347.9 ± 46.7	466.0 ± 4.1
ethanol (leaf)	42.7 ± 0.3	109.5 ± 3.8 ^e	30.1 ± 0.2 ^e	71.0 ± 0.5 ^c	205.9 ± 1.0 ^c	17.83 ± 0.3 ^c	936.6 ± 26.3 ^c	355.0 ± 6.5 ^c
acetone (leaf)	9.9 ± 0.2	13.8 ± 0.5 ^e	9.0 ± 0.02 ^c	9.50 ± 0.09 ^c	11.3 ± 0.09 ^c	4.0 ± 0.3 ^e	79.5 ± 3.7 ^c	30.5 ± 0.4 ^c
ethyl acetate (leaf)	7.9 ± 0.2	6.2 ± 0.4 ^e	4.1 ± 0.05 ^e	4.2 ± 0.09 ^c	5.7 ± 0.08 ^e	2.1 ± 0.03 ^e	30.4 ± 1.3 ^c	21.1 ± 0.3 ^c
methanol (rhizome)	45.8 ± 0.2	85.7 ± 1.3 ^c	27.5 ± 0.7 ^c	106.4 ± 1.8 ^c	169.5 ± 1.1 ^c	42.4 ± 0.2 ^c	632.1 ± 9.0 ^c	268.9 ± 2.2 ^c
ethanol (rhizome)	21.3 ± 0.2	50.6 ± 2.0 ^c	14.9 ± 0.3 ^c	50.0 ± 0.5 ^c	72.2 ± 1.0 ^c	11.6 ± 0.3 ^c	355.3 ± 4.0 ^c	207.5 ± 3.2 ^c
acetone (rhizome)	6.0 ± 0.1	22.4 ± 0.8 ^c	5.8 ± 0.2 ^c	20.4 ± 0.7 ^c	20.3 ± 0.1 ^c	8.5 ± 0.4 ^c	108.3 ± 6.0 ^c	49.8 ± 0.6 ^c
ethyl acetate (rhizome)	4.8 ± 0.1	5.5 ± 0.06 ^c	2.5 ± 0.03 ^c	4.1 ± 0.2 ^c	4.4 ± 0.05 ^c	2.1 ± 0.07 ^c	24.6 ± 0.8 ^c	14.8 ± 0.08 ^c

^amg gallic acid equivalents per g dry weight (mg GAE/g d.w.); ^bmg catechin equivalents per g dry weight (mg CE/g d.w.); ^cmg Trolox equivalents per g dry weight (mg TE/g d.w.); ^dμmol Fe²⁺ equivalents per g dry weight (μmol Fe²⁺/g d.w.); ^esignificantly different from the value for the leaf methanol extract, at $p < 0.001$.

Table 2: Correlation coefficients between the values of antioxidant equivalents obtained in different *in vitro* assays.

TF	DPPH	ABTS	IRA	FRAP	CUPRAC
TP	0.9922	0.9572	0.9965	0.8928	0.9973
TF	1	0.9634	0.9928	0.9045	0.9881
DPPH		1	0.9632	0.9761	0.9425
ABTS			1	0.9095	0.9958
IRA				1	0.9813
FRAP					1
					0.9855

Thus, in the continuation of our work on the antibacterial and antifungal activity of *Geranium* spp. [1,13,14], we screened the mentioned extracts in a microdilution assay against 7 bacterial and 2 fungal species.

Of the four solvent extracts prepared by ultrasound-aided exhaustive maceration, the best one in terms of yield was the methanol one, followed closely by ethanol, whereas acetone and ethyl acetate gave low extractable values for *G. macrorrhizum* (Table 1). The extraction efficiency of methanol in combination with ultrasound was extraordinary: 45.8 and 51.2%, w/w, for the rhizome and aboveground parts (mostly leaves), respectively. The leaves proved to be a better source of total extractable matter in comparison with the rhizome with, in some cases, double the yield (Table 1).

The total phenolic (TP) content of *G. macrorrhizum* methanol extracts (Table 1), with 160.2 ± 3.1 and 85.7 ± 1.3 mg of gallic acid equivalents per g of dry plant material (for leaves and rhizomes, respectively), make this plant and these extracts a very rich resource of natural phenolics. Similar results, though not as good as the ones presented here, were reported for *G. macrorrhizum* by Miliauskas *et al.* [15]. Ethanol extracts contained a lower, but still significant, amount of phenolics. Extraction with the other solvents, however, did not result in such high values of TP (Table 1). In addition to TP content, the total flavonoid (TF) content was also the highest for the methanol extracts (44.9 ± 1.1 and 27.5 ± 0.7 mg of catechin equivalents per g dry plant material for leaves and rhizomes, respectively). In general, the leaf extracts had a higher TF content than the corresponding rhizome extracts (Table 1). The very high correlation coefficient ($r^2=0.9922$, Table 2) between TP and TF contents suggests that the flavonoid-type compounds are the ones responsible for the total antioxidant capacity (chemical species capable of reducing Mo(VI) to Mo(V) heteropolyacids) of the mentioned extracts.

The methanol extracts showed higher scavenging properties towards the stable 1,1-diphenyl-2-picrylhydrazyl (DPPH) radical (Table 1) compared with other solvent extracts, which can be related to the previous two assays (TP and TF). The reductive capacity of the methanol extracts towards DPPH, compared with Trolox, is shown in Figure 1. The leaf extracts had a higher DPPH scavenging capacity than the corresponding rhizome extracts (except for the acetone extract). Again, the methanol extracts had the strongest 2,2'-azino-bis(3-ethylbenzothiazoline-6-sulfonic acid) (ABTS) radical-scavenging capacity: 323.3 ± 1.2 (leaf) and 169.5 ± 1.1 (rhizome) mg TE per g dry weight (Table 1). Both the rhizome and

leaf extracts possessed a strong activity, as presented in Figure 1. As expected, the value of Trolox equivalents obtained in this assay per g of the same plant material compared with the one from the DPPH test were much higher due to the less stable nature of the ABTS cation radical. These results also agree with those of Miliauskas *et al.* [15].

The iron(III) to iron(II) reduction assay (IRA) provides further data on the reducing capacity of a sample and may be a significant indicator of its potential antioxidant activity [16]. The reducing power ability of *G. macrorrhizum* extracts were compared with the gallic acid standard (the methanol extract activity presented in Figure 1). Once again, the leaf extracts had a higher reducing power than the corresponding rhizome extracts (acetone was once more the exception). This assay confirmed that methanol presents the best extraction medium (Table 1). As expected from the notion that the flavonoid-like compounds are responsible for the observed activities, the reducing power of the extracts decreased in order of their polarity decrease: methanol > ethanol > acetone > ethyl acetate.

The results of a related method to the previous one, the ferric reducing antioxidant power (FRAP), for the methanol, ethanol, acetone and ethyl acetate extracts of *G. macrorrhizum* follow a similar trend of this capacity ($r^2=0.8802$, Table 2), and these are presented in Table 1. The methanol extracts yet again had the highest reduction efficiency, 1347.9 ± 46.7 (leaf) and 632.1 ± 9.0 (rhizome) μmol of Fe²⁺ per g dry weight (Figure 1). As was the case with the previous full spectrum of *in vitro* antioxidant tests, the final one performed in this work, the cupric ion reducing antioxidant capacity (CUPRAC) method (466.0 ± 4.1 and 268.9 ± 2.2 mg TE per g dry weight, for leaf and rhizome, respectively), also demonstrated the strongest reducing capacity of the methanol extracts (Table 1, Figure 1). The same order of reducing power was observed: methanol > ethanol > acetone > ethyl acetate. High correlation was observed between total phenol content and individual antioxidant assays. The highest correlation of TP was noted with FRAP ($r^2=0.9973$), followed by ABTS ($r^2=0.9966$), CUPRAC ($r^2=0.9906$), and DPPH ($r^2=0.9572$), whereas the lowest one (but still significant) was between TP and IRP ($r^2=0.8928$).

This demonstrates that the expected high total phenolic content is directly linked to the *in vitro* and most probably *in vivo* antioxidant activities. Since there are high values of r^2 (Table 2) between all the performed antioxidant tests covering almost the whole span of radical scavenging activities (stable and reactive radicals) and redox potentials (ferro/ferric and cuprous/cupric, fine tuned by ligation) and the total phenol and flavonoid contents, one can assume that no other compounds but those that are phenolic in nature are responsible for the activity. All the *in vitro* tests performed point to the methanol extract as the best (showing several fold higher activity than the other ones) in its radical scavenging ability, total content of phenols and flavonoids, and also having the highest yield of extractable matter per g of dry plant material.

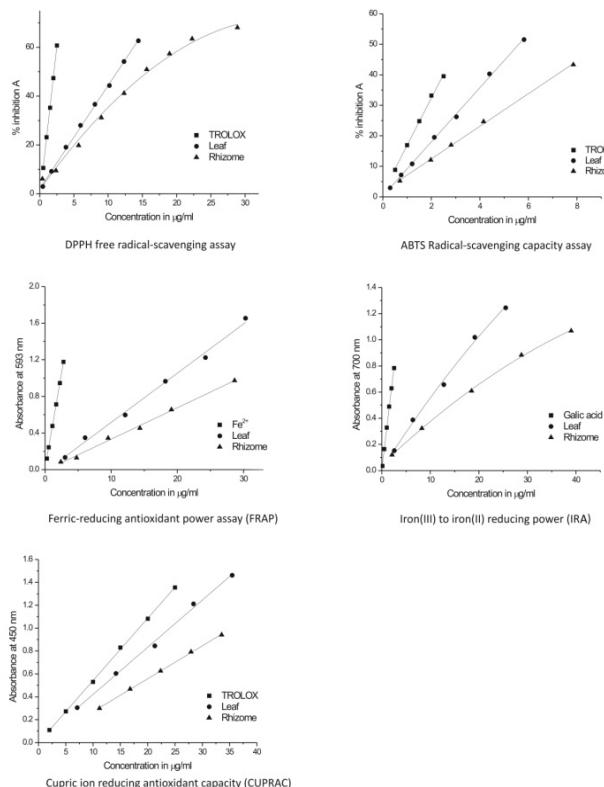


Figure 1: *Geranium macrorrhizum* methanol extracts antioxidant activity vs. concentration plots from five different *in vitro* antioxidant assays.

For these reasons, we decided to make detailed compositional analyses, as well as determine hepatoprotective and antimicrobial activities of the methanol extracts of the leaf and rhizome of *G. macrorrhizum*.

HPLC analysis of the leaf and rhizome methanol extracts revealed that they mostly consist of glycosidically bound phenolics, most probably possessing gallic and ferulic acid moieties (from UV spectra gathered during these analyses). In order to corroborate this, a portion of the extracts was acid hydrolyzed and analyzed (the chromatographic conditions were optimized for free phenolic acids determination). Both gallic and ferulic acids were identified by co-injection of the pure substances and quantified. Free gallic acid was also present in the rhizome extract, but only in minute amount (*c.a.* 3 mg per g dry weight, whereas the leaf extract was completely devoid of the free acid). This indicates that the determined total phenolics are for the most part bound.

In the present study, the hepatoprotective activity of *G. macrorrhizum* leaf and rhizome methanol extracts was assessed in a CCl_4 -induced hepatotoxicity model in rats [17]. The administration of CCl_4 significantly increased the levels of AST, ALT, ALP, γ -GT, PCHE and TB in the rat serum when compared with the control group. The increase of enzyme activity is a characteristic of liver injury, especially the rise in ALT levels [18]. Although the serum levels of these enzymes and TB in the groups of animals that were treated with either of the methanol extracts and CCl_4 were significantly elevated when compared with the control group, these parameters were significantly decreased when compared with the CCl_4 group (Table 3, Figure 2). Increase in total serum bilirubin concentration after CCl_4 administration might be attributed to the failure of normal uptake, conjugation and excretion by the damaged hepatic parenchyma and is a very sensitive test to substantiate the

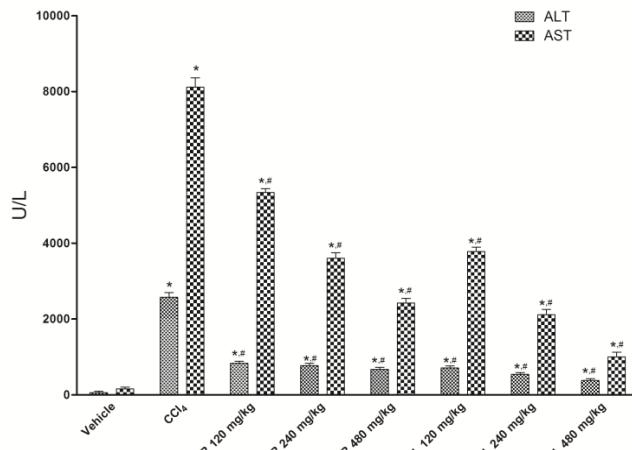


Figure 2: Effect of *G. macrorrhizum* rhizome (GMR) and leaf (GML) extracts on plasma ALT and AST levels. * $p<0.001$ vs. Control; ** $p<0.001$ vs. CCl_4 .

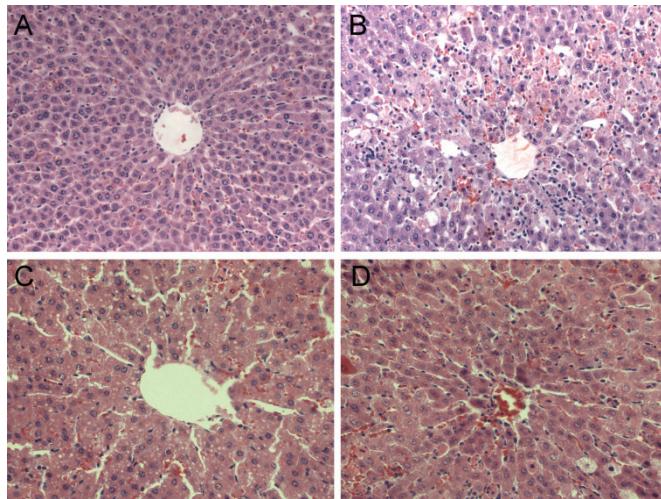
functional integrity of the liver and severity of necrosis [19,20]. Thus, the observed dose-dependent normalization of bilirubin levels in the groups treated with both methanol extracts indicates that these extracts have the potential of restoring liver synthetic function (Table 3). These biochemical analysis results suggest a positive effect of the extracts on the reduction of liver damage.

The obtained histological results were in agreement with the measured serum parameters. Microscopic examination of the control group livers (Fig. 3A) showed a normal morphology with the central vein in the centre of the lobule. The liver cells are radially arranged to form sheets. The venous sinusoids converge upon the central vein. Administration of CCl_4 induced severe histopathological deformations of the liver. Normal architecture of the liver was completely lost with the appearance of centrilobular necrosis with tiny vacuoles, lymphocytes infiltration of the periportal area and around the central vein, also fatty changes and sinusoidal congestion were observed. Additionally, the histopathological examinations showed diffuse, numerous, ballooning degenerations. These ballooned hepatocytes were of different sizes and much larger than normal hepatocytes and occasionally appeared as confluent areas. Liver histology of the animals treated with CCl_4 + leaf or rhizome methanol extract (Figure 3C and 3D) shows a normalization of the hepatic cells, central vein and portal triad. The extract treatments decreased focal necrosis, vacuolation and reduced the lymphocytic infiltration in the liver and presented regenerative effects. This can be considered as an expression of the functional improvement of hepatocytes, which might be due to accelerated regeneration of parenchymal cells or limited damage in the presence of the two *G. macrorrhizum* extracts.

The trichloromethyl radical, which is generated in the presence of CCl_4 , binds to tissue macromolecules and thus induces peroxidative degradation of membrane lipids and disturbs Ca^{2+} homeostasis, which leads to hepatocellular injury and/or depletes antioxidant defenses. Thus, the antioxidant activity or the inhibition of free radical formation must be important in the protection against CCl_4 -induced hepatopathy [21]. However, the reversal of increased serum enzyme levels in CCl_4 -induced liver damage by these substances may be due to the prevention of the leakage of intracellular enzymes by its membrane stabilizing activity. This is in agreement with the commonly accepted view that serum levels of transaminases return to normal with the healing of hepatic parenchyma and the regeneration of hepatocytes [22].

Table 3: Effect of *G. macrorrhizum* rhizome and leaf extracts on plasma ALP, γ -GT, PCHE and TB levels.

Groups	Dose (mg/kg)	ALP (U/L)	γ -GT (U/dl)	PCHE (KU/dl)	TB ($\mu\text{mol/L}$)
Vehicle 10 mL/kg	-	101.0 \pm 8.4	90.1 \pm 4.2	24.3 \pm 2.8	2.3 \pm 0.4
CCl ₄ ^a	-	446.4 \pm 12.5 ^b	215.3 \pm 10.7 ^b	72.1 \pm 5.8 ^b	23.2 \pm 1.2 ^b
<i>G. macrorrhizum</i>	root extract 120	305.3 \pm 9.9 ^{b,c}	182.5 \pm 9.3 ^{b,c}	54.0 \pm 2.7 ^{b,c}	13.1 \pm 0.9 ^{b,c}
	240	256.7 \pm 9.6 ^{b,c}	156.8 \pm 7.4 ^{b,c}	39.5 \pm 3.3 ^{b,c}	8.3 \pm 0.7 ^{b,c}
	480	201.2 \pm 9.5 ^{b,c}	122.7 \pm 8.6 ^{b,c}	35.5 \pm 1.4 ^{b,c}	7.9 \pm 0.6 ^{b,c}
	leaf extract 120	246.6 \pm 9.2 ^{b,c}	148.4 \pm 8.5 ^{b,c}	49.6 \pm 3.7 ^{b,c}	10.5 \pm 0.8 ^{b,c}
	240	189.8 \pm 5.6 ^{b,c}	131.7 \pm 9.7 ^{b,c}	33.5 \pm 4.1 ^{b,c}	8.1 \pm 0.7 ^{b,c}
	480	123.4 \pm 8.1 ^{b,c}	102.5 \pm 7.3 ^c	25.8 \pm 2.1 ^c	6.2 \pm 0.5 ^{b,c}

^a 2.5 mL/kg of 50% CCl₄ solution in olive oil (v/v). ^b p<0.001 vs. Control.^c p<0.001 vs. CCl₄.**Figure 3:** Effect of *G. macrorrhizum* rhizome and leaf extracts on the histological changes in the liver of the CCl₄-treated rats (HE \times 200). A: Control group: normal lobular architecture and cell structure; B: CCl₄-treated group: extensive hepatocellular damage with the presence of portal inflammation, centrilobular necrosis, and Kupffer cell hyperplasia; C: Liver section of rats treated with CCl₄ and 480 mg/kg of *G. macrorrhizum* leaf extract showing almost normal liver architecture. Regeneration of hepatocytes around the central vein; D: Liver section of rats treated with CCl₄ and 480 mg/kg of *G. macrorrhizum* rhizome extract showing: minimal inflammatory cellular infiltration, congestion of blood vessels.

The efficacy of any hepatoprotective drug is essentially dependent on its capability to either reduce the harmful effects or maintain the normal hepatic physiological mechanisms that have been altered by a hepatotoxin [23]. On the other hand, there is growing evidence that activation of the antioxidant system is required to attenuate the inflammatory response in several diseases, including CCl₄-induced hepatotoxicity [24]. Hepatotoxins, such as CCl₄ or endotoxin, rapidly induce proinflammatory cytokines, such as TNF- α and IL-1 β by Kupffer cells, and recruit stromal cells of the liver (endothelial cells, stellate cells and hepatocytes) to participate in this inflammatory response via paracrine production of cytokines, as well as chemokines to attract circulating immune cells, further amplifying an inflammatory response [25].

The antimicrobial activity of the two methanol extracts (leaf and rhizome) was evaluated against seven bacterial and two fungal strains. The results obtained by a microdilution assay (Table 4) showed a significant inhibiting activity of the extracts, for which the MIC values ranged from 15.6 to 500 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ (leaves) and from 15.6 to 5000 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ (rhizomes). The leaf extract exhibited inhibitory activity against six bacterial and one fungal strain.

Table 4: Antimicrobial activity of *G. macrorrhizum* leaf and rhizome extracts ($\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$).

Bacterial/fungal strain	ATCC	Leaf extract		Rhizome extract		Positive control
		MIC	MBC	MIC	MBC	
G⁺						
<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	25923	15.6	62.5	620.5	1250	0.09 ^a
<i>Bacillus subtilis</i>	6633	250	>500	150.6	2500	0.39 ^a
<i>Listeria innocua</i>	51742	500	>500	5000	5000	0.39 ^a
G⁻						
<i>Proteus vulgaris</i>	8427	500	>500	620.5	5000	0.19 ^a
<i>Escherichia coli</i>	8739	>500	>500	5000	>5000	1.56 ^a
<i>Salmonella enteritidis</i>	13076	125	>500	310.2	>5000	0.19 ^a
<i>Klebsiella pneumoniae</i>	10031	500	>500	620.5	>5000	0.39 ^a
Fungi						
<i>Candida albicans</i>	10231	>500	>500	310.2	1250	0.78 ^b
<i>Aspergillus niger</i>	16404	500	>500	2500	>5000	6.25 ^b

^a tetracycline, ^b nystatin

The most resistant bacterial strain, whose growth was not inhibited by the extracts in the tested concentration range, was the Gram-negative *Escherichia coli*.

Additionally, confirmation of this higher resistance of all tested Gram-negative strains can be found in the fact that all strains, except *Salmonella enteritidis*, were inhibited only by the extracts' highest tested concentration - 500 $\mu\text{g/mL}$. On the other hand, Gram-positive strains showed a higher sensitivity with *Staphylococcus aureus* being inhibited by only 15.6 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ of the extracts (Table 4). Although having a good inhibitory effect against bacteria, a microbicidal one was not observed, even at the highest tested concentrations, except in the case of the most sensitive strain, *S. aureus*, with a minimum bactericidal concentration of 62.5 $\mu\text{g/mL}$. Antifungal activity of the leaf extract of *G. macrorrhizum* was only detected against *Aspergillus niger*, with an inhibitory effect displayed at 500 $\mu\text{g/mL}$. The yeast *Candida albicans* was not susceptible to this extract in the tested concentration range (Table 4).

The rhizome extract of *G. macrorrhizum*, with ten times higher MIC values, showed lower activity than the one obtained from the leaves extract. This extract also showed an inhibitory effect against all the tested strains, whereas microbicidal activity was exhibited against five strains. In accordance with the results for the leaf extract, the more resistant strains belonged to the Gram-negative bacteria. The results for the rhizome extract indicated the highest sensitivity of the Gram-positive *Bacillus subtilis*, while the most resistant one was, once again, *E. coli*. The rhizome extract showed an antifungal effect against both tested fungal strains, but this time the yeast *C. albicans* showed a much higher susceptibility than the tested mold, *A. niger*.

Generally speaking, the obtained activity of the two tested extracts isolated from *G. macrorrhizum* is very significant bearing in mind that in most cases, essential oils are the main carriers of the plant's antimicrobial activity, while extracts usually possess lower activity. The present leaf extract and essential oil [1] of the aerial parts showed very similar active concentrations, except in the case of *B. subtilis*. Since both studies utilized four strains with the same ATCC number (*S. aureus*, *E. coli*, *B. subtilis* and *C. albicans*), closer comparison of these results is discussed herein. The extracts from the present study showed higher activity against *C. albicans* (rhizome extract in comparison with the rhizome essential oil) and *S. aureus* (both extracts in comparison with the oil from the same plant parts). On the other hand, activity of the essential oil was slightly higher in the case of *E. coli* and much higher in the case of *B. subtilis*, as mentioned above. In total, we must highlight very similar active ranges of concentrations of the extracts in comparison with the essential oils isolated from the same part of *G. macrorrhizum*.

The *in vitro* analyses performed in this work included a wide variety of antioxidant activity methods: TP, TF, DPPH, ABTS, IRA, FRAP

and CUPRAC. The antioxidant activities of *G. macrorrhizum* extracts presented here were significantly higher than those determined by other authors [5]. Whether this is a consequence of a different extraction method or climatic conditions favoring *G. macrorrhizum* development is a question that needs further consideration. This study showed that among the methanol, ethanol, acetone and ethyl acetate extracts of *G. macrorrhizum*, the methanol one of both the leaves and rhizomes demonstrated the highest antioxidant activities. The antioxidant potency in all performed assays decreased in the order of decreasing solvent polarity: methanol > ethanol > acetone > ethyl acetate. Overall, the methanol extracts of *G. macrorrhizum* were the most potent in scavenging the DPPH and ABTS radicals, as well as in reducing ferric and cupric ions and were for that reason chosen for the *in vivo* test (hepatoprotective activity) and antimicrobial assays. The last two can be connected to the ethnopharmacological uses of this medicinal plant. The presence of high levels of phenolic compounds in the methanol extracts significantly contributed to the observed antioxidant activities and dose dependent hepatoprotective effect of the extracts in the CCl₄-induced liver damage model. There are at least three possible mechanisms of action that can be envisaged: 1) the radical scavenging effect (the formed CCl₃[•] radicals are quenched by the phenolic groups of *G. macrorrhizum* constituents), 2) inhibitory action of the extract constituents on the enzymes producing the before mentioned radical from CCl₄, and 3) cell membrane strengthening effect and the prevention of cell lysis and leakage of cellular content that can induce further liver damage. These *modi operandi* have all been established for a compound named geranin isolated from a Japanese *Geranium* species (*G. thunbergii*) and may well be operational here, but need confirmation [10,11]. All of the above provides a justification for the popular use of this plant species in folk medicine (the stimulative properties and positive general health effects) and especially for the liver restoring action. One more usage of this plant species is in wound healing, and besides the known astringent effect, we have demonstrated that it also possesses antimicrobial activity against human pathogens that is likewise beneficial in this respect. In addition to the activity of the polar (methanol) extracts of *G. macrorrhizum* with a high phenol content, the essential oil of this species was also found to be active against a number of bacterial and fungal strains [1]. This gives another argument for the total antibacterial and antifungal effect observed for this plant species extracts.

Experimental

General: Extractions were made using an ultrasonic bath (Bandelin SONOREX® Digital 10 P, Sigma, USA). UV measurements were obtained on an Agilent 8453 (Agilent Technologies, USA) spectrophotometer. An Agilent Technologies 1200 HPLC system (Agilent Technologies, USA) equipped with a quaternary pump, autosampler and diode array detector was used for the identification and quantification of phenolic acids and flavonoids. All chromatographic separations were performed on an analytical column ZORBAX Eclipse XDB-C18 (4.6 × 150 mm, 5 µm, Agilent Technologies, USA). A gradient of acetonitrile (A) and deionized water containing 0.1%, v/v, of formic acid (B) mixtures of decreasing polarity were used for elution: 0–15 min 10% A, 15–35 min 10–30% A. The flow rate was set at 0.8 mL/min, column temperature at 30°C, and 20 µL of the above prepared solutions was injected. Data were acquired in the spectral range of 200–600 nm and integrated at 260, 280 and 320 nm.

Plant material: Aerial and underground parts of *G. macrorrhizum* L. (Geraniaceae) were collected from the mountain range Svrliške planine, in the vicinity of the city of Svrlijig, south-eastern Serbia.

Preparation of the extracts for *in vivo* experiments and microbiological assays: Two batches of 100 g of the aerial and underground parts were exhaustively extracted with methanol to afford *c.a.* 5.0 g and 4.5 g of extractive, respectively, after evaporation of the solvent in a gentle stream of nitrogen. The resulting oily residues were dissolved in physiological saline at a concentration of 300 mg/mL for evaluation of the hepatoprotective effect, and another portion was dissolved in dimethylsulfoxide to give a solution containing 100 mg/mL of extractable matter for the *in vitro* microdilution microbiological tests.

Phytochemical and *in vitro* antioxidant studies: The total phenolic content of the extracts was determined using Folin-Ciocalteau assay [26a], whereas the total flavonoid content was determined by a colorimetric method [26b]. The antioxidant capacity was studied through the evaluation of the extracts' free radical-scavenging effect on DPPH [26b] and ABTS [26c] radicals. Iron(III) to iron(II) reduction assay [26d], ferric-reducing antioxidant power assay [26e] and cupric ion reducing antioxidant capacity [26f] were also performed.

Evaluation of the hepatoprotective effect: Male Wistar rats weighing 200–250 g, obtained from our own animal facilities, were housed in large spacious cages at 27±2°C with 12 h light and dark cycle throughout the period of the experiment. The animals were provided with a standard laboratory diet and given tap water *ad libitum*. On the day of the experiment, the animals were divided into 8 experimental groups consisting of 6 animals each. Two groups served as the positive and negative controls and received CCl₄ (2.5 mL/kg of 50%, v/v, CCl₄ solution in olive oil) and olive oil (10 mL/kg) by intraperitoneal injection (*i.p.*), respectively. Test groups of rats, 3 groups per extract, were *i.p.* treated with *G. macrorrhizum* extracts (leaf and rhizome) prepared as previously mentioned in doses of 120, 240 and 480 mg/kg (body weight). Sixty min after the application of the 2 extracts all animals received 2.5 mL/kg of the 50% CCl₄ solution in olive oil. Twenty-four h after the toxin administration, blood samples were withdrawn by cardiac puncture and rats sacrificed with an overdose of ketamine (Ketamidor 10%, Richter Pharma AG, Wels, Austria). Additionally, the liver of each rat was promptly removed and small sections were collected for histological analysis. All experimental procedures with animals were conducted in compliance with The European Council Directive of November 24th, 1986 (86/609/EEC) and approved by the local Ethics Committee (number 01-2857-3) given on 27th April, 2012.

Biochemical measurements: The blood was centrifuged at 1500 rpm at 4°C for 15 min to obtain the serum. Aspartate transferase (AST), alanine transaminase (ALT), serum alkaline phosphatase (ALP), γ-glutamate transpeptidase (γ-GT), pseudocholinesterase (PCHE) and total bilirubin (TB) activities were assayed using an Olympus AU680® Chemistry-Immuno Analyzer (Olympus America Inc, USA).

Histopathological observation: The liver tissue specimens separated for histopathological examination were fixed in buffered formaldehyde solution (10%, w/w). The fixed tissue was then dehydrated with different aqueous ethanol solutions from 50–100%, v/v, embedded in paraffin, cut into 4–5 µm thick sections, stained with hematoxylin and eosin, and examined with an Olympus BH2 light microscope (Olympus America INC, USA).

Evaluation of antimicrobial activity: *G. macrorrhizum* extracts (leaf and rhizome) were tested against a panel of microorganisms, see Table 4.

Microdilution antimicrobial assay: Antimicrobial activity was evaluated using a broth microdilution method [1]. Stock solutions of the extracts were made in DMSO (100%) and then serially diluted (the diluting factor 2). The final concentrations of *G. macrorrhizum* extracts (rhizome and leaf) in the media were in the ranges 2.00–5000 µg/mL and 0.200–500 µg/mL, respectively. All experiments were conducted in triplicate and repeated twice.

Statistical analysis: Results were expressed as the mean ± standard deviation. Statistically significant differences were determined by

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one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by Tukey's post hoc test for multiple comparison (Graph pad Prism version 5.03, San Diego, CA, USA). Probability values (*p*) less than 0.05 were considered to be statistically significant.

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Differential Expression of Benzophenone Synthase and Chalcone Synthase in *Hypericum sampsonii*

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cDNAs encoding *Hypericum sampsonii* benzophenone synthase (*HsBPS*) and chalcone synthase (*HsCHS*) were isolated and functionally characterized. Differential expressions of *HsBPS* and *HsCHS* were monitored using quantitative polymerase chain reaction (PCR). In the vegetative stage, *HsBPS* was highly expressed in the roots; its transcript level was approx. 100 times higher than that of *HsCHS*. Relatively high transcript amounts of *HsBPS* were also detected in older leaves, whereas the youngest leaves contained higher transcript amounts of *HsCHS*. In the reproductive stage, maximum *HsCHS* expression was detected in flowers, the transcript level being approx. 5 times higher than that of *HsBPS*. The inverted situation with a 10-fold difference in the expression levels was observed with fruits. High transcript amounts for both proteins were found in roots.

Keywords: Benzophenone synthase, Chalcone synthase, Gene expression, *Hypericum sampsonii*, Quantitative PCR, Sampsoniones.

Hypericum sampsonii Hance is used as a traditional Chinese herbal medicine in the treatment of numerous disorders such as hematemesis, epistaxis, menstrual irregularity, external traumatic injury, snakebite and swellings [1]. In recent years, the plant has aroused further scientific interest for its anticancer activity [2]. Extensive phytochemical studies demonstrated that *H. sampsonii* contains an array of sampsoniones (A-Q), which are polyprenylated benzophenones characterized by complex caged tetracyclic skeletons (Figure 1). These compounds possess profound cytotoxic activity [3]. Despite their pharmaceutical importance, biosynthesis of these benzophenone derivatives remains poorly understood. The nucleus of sampsoniones is benzophenone, which is biosynthesized by benzophenone synthase (BPS; EC 2.3.1.151), a new member of the type III polyketide synthase (PKS) [4]. The first published *BPS* (*HaBPS*) cDNA was from elicitor-treated *Hypericum androsaemum* cell cultures, which served as a model system for studying benzophenone metabolism [5]. Recently, the second BPS cDNA was cloned and characterized from *Garcinia mangostana* [6]. However, no information about expression of *BPS* in *planta* is so far available. Here we have cloned and functionally characterized a cDNA encoding *H. sampsonii* benzophenone synthase (*HsBPS*). The organ-specific expression pattern of *HsBPS* was analyzed by quantitative polymerase chain reaction (PCR). For comparison, the same studies were carried out for chalcone synthase (*HsCHS*), which is a well studied ubiquitous type III PKS in all higher plants.

The cDNAs for *HsBPS* and *HsCHS* were cloned by the homology-based cloning strategy. The ORF of the *HsBPS* cDNA was 1188 bp long and encoded a 42.7 kDa protein (395 amino acids) with a calculated pI of 5.91. The *HsCHS* cDNA contained a 1173 bp ORF encoding a 42.7 kDa protein (390 amino acids) with a calculated pI of 6.55. *HsBPS* and *HsCHS* shared around 57.0% identity at the

nucleotide as well as at the amino acid sequence level. *HsBPS* and *HsCHS* were expressed as *N*-terminally His₆-tagged proteins in *Escherichia coli* and purified by affinity chromatography. Protein bands of approximately 43 kDa each were observed after SDS-PAGE (Figure 2).

Table 1: Substrate specificities of recombinant *HsBPS* and *HsCHS* ^a

Substrate	Enzyme activity (% of max)	
	HaBPS	HsCHS
Benzoyl-CoA	100	11
2-Hydroxybenzoyl-CoA	5	0
3-Hydroxybenzoyl-CoA	66	0
4-Hydroxybenzoyl-CoA	0	0
Cinnamoyl-CoA	0	65
2-Coumaroyl-CoA	0	0
3-Coumaroyl-CoA	0	0
4-Coumaroyl-CoA	0	100
Acetyl-CoA	0	0

^aData are means of two independent experiments.

HsBPS preferred benzoyl-CoA as a starter substrate (Table 1). The enzymatic product was identified as 2,4,6-trihydroxybenzophenone by liquid chromatography-UV spectroscopy (LC-UV) and liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry (LC-MS) in comparison with a sample of authentic reference compound. The pH and temperature optima were 6.5-7.0 and 40°C, respectively. There were also traces of a side product, 6-phenyl-4-hydroxy-2-pyrone. Beside benzoyl-CoA, *HsBPS* also accepted 3-hydroxybenzoyl-CoA as starter substrate to form 2,3',4,6-tetrahydroxybenzophenone and a small amount of 6-(3'-hydroxyphenyl)-4-hydroxy-2-pyrone as a derailment product. 4-Hydroxybenzoyl-CoA, acetyl-CoA, and CoA esters of cinnamic acids were not accepted by *HsBPS* as starter molecules (Table 1).

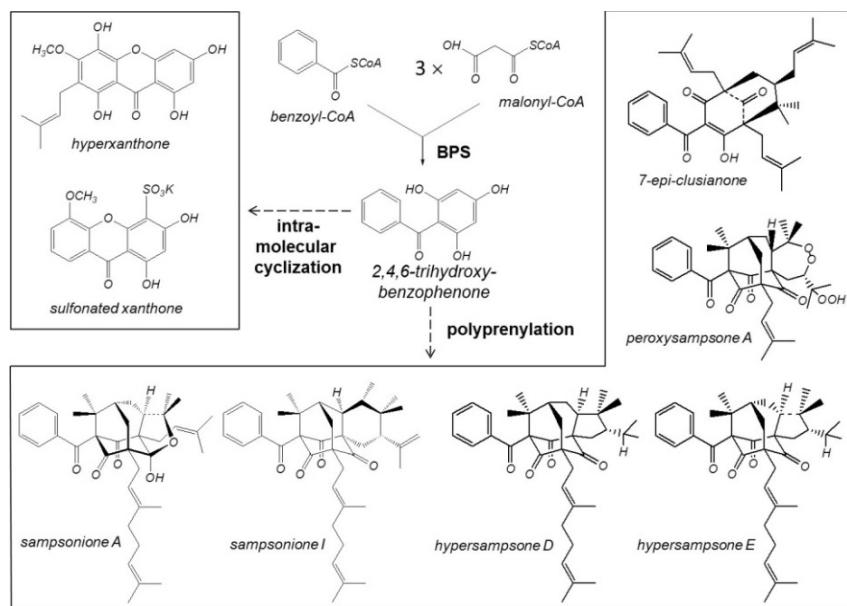


Figure 1: Examples and biosynthetic origin of polyprenylated polycyclic benzophenone derivatives isolated from *Hypericum sampsonii*. BPS, benzophenone synthase.

Table 2: Steady-state kinetic parameters of HsBPS and HsCHS^a

	Benzoyl-CoA	4-Coumaroyl-CoA			Malonyl-CoA		
	k_{cat} (min ⁻¹)	K_m (μM)	k_{cat}/K_m (M ⁻¹ s ⁻¹)	k_{cat} (min ⁻¹)	K_m (μM)	k_{cat}/K_m (M ⁻¹ s ⁻¹)	K_m (μM)
HsBPS	23.7	15.8	25028	-	-	-	92.5
HsCHS	-	-	-	1.4	5.4	4365	12.7

^a Data are means of two independent experiments

The k_{cat} and K_m values of HsBPS were about seven times and twice, respectively, higher than those of HaBPS as *N*-terminally His₆-tagged protein [7]. The catalytic efficiency (k_{cat}/K_m) of HsBPS was around 4 times higher than that of HaBPS and recently published BPS from *Garcinia mangostana* [6]. The substrate preference of HsBPS for benzoyl-CoA well correlates with the observation that *H. sampsonii* contains an array of polyprenylated benzophenone derivatives that share an unsubstituted benzoyl moiety (Figure 1).

HsCHS exhibited highest activity with 4-coumaroyl-CoA (Table 1). The enzymatic product was naringenin, as identified by LC-UV and LC-MS in comparison with a sample of authentic reference compound. Cinnamoyl-CoA was also a starter substrate for HsCHS and the product formed was pinocembrin. The optimum pH and temperature values for HsCHS were 7.0 and 40°C, respectively. Side products were not detected. HsCHS also accepted benzoyl-CoA as a starter molecule with around 10% relative activity, and produced, like HsBPS, 2,4,6-trihydroxybenzophenone (Table 1). The kinetic data of HsCHS are indicated in Table 2.

The expression patterns of *HsBPS* and *HsCHS* were analyzed in various organs harvested at both the vegetative and reproductive stages. Quantitative PCR was used to monitor the transcript levels of *HsBPS* and *HsCHS* (Figure 3). *HsBPS* and *HsCHS* were differentially regulated. In the vegetative stage (Figure 3a), the expression level of *HsBPS* in roots was approx. 100 times higher than that of *HsCHS*. In stems, both transcript levels were low, but similar. In leaves, expression of both genes was developmentally regulated. The *HsCHS* transcript level was high in the youngest leaves (L1) and decreased upon aging. In contrast, the *HsBPS* expression level was low in the youngest leaves, but significantly increased in older leaves (L3 and L4). The *HsBPS* expression level in leaves was, however, only around one third of that in roots.

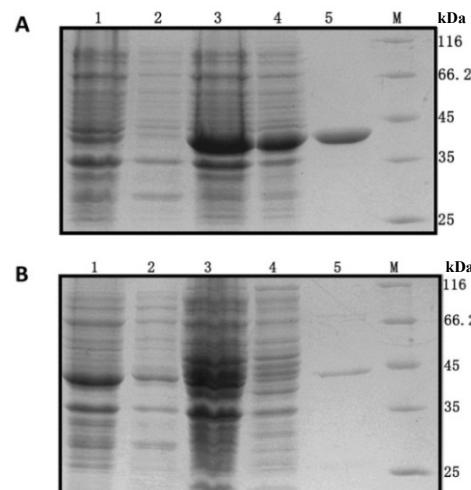


Figure 2: SDS-PAGE analysis of recombinant HsBPS (A) and HsCHS (B) after staining with coomassie brilliant blue. Lane 1, total protein isolated from *Escherichia coli* strain BL21 (DE3) harboring the corresponding plasmid prior to IPTG treatment; Lane 2, soluble proteins from *E. coli* strain BL21(DE3) harboring the corresponding plasmid prior to IPTG treatment; Lane 3, total protein from BL21 (DE3) cells harboring the corresponding plasmid after induction with IPTG for 8 h at 28°C. Lane 4, soluble proteins from BL21 (DE3) cells harboring the corresponding plasmid after induction with IPTG for 8 h at 28°C; Lane 5, recombinant HsBPS or HsCHS protein after Ni²⁺-chelating chromatography; M, molecular mass markers with masses indicated in kDa.

In the reproductive stage (Figure 3b), the expression level of *HsBPS* in roots was comparable with that in the vegetative stage. However, the expression level of *HsCHS* was markedly increased and reached almost that of *HsBPS*. Highest expression of *HsCHS* was observed in flowers, where the transcript level was approx. five times higher than that of *HsBPS*. The inverse situation was found in fruits, where expression of *HsBPS* was approx. ten times higher than that of *HsCHS*. The transcript amounts for both genes were relatively low in stems and leaves.

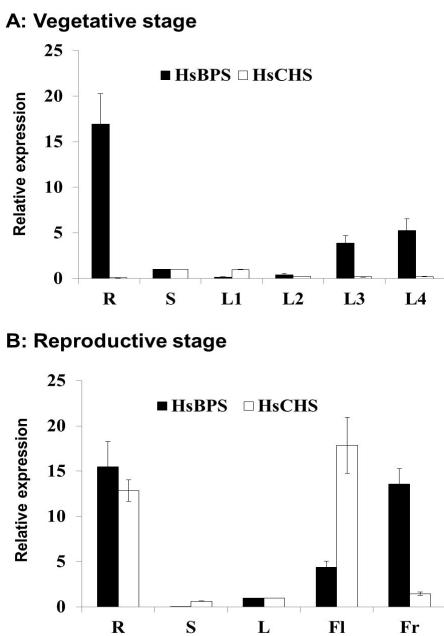


Figure 3: Quantitative PCR analysis of the transcript levels of *HsBPS* and *HsCHS* in various organs of *H. sampsonii* at the vegetative stage (A) and the reproductive stage (B). Primers specific for *HsBPS* and *HsCHS* were used to measure the transcript levels of the two genes. The *H. sampsonii* 18s rRNA gene (AY573011.1) was used as an internal standard. Relative quantification used the stem values in the vegetative stage and the leaf values in the reproductive stage as calibrators, which were set to a nominal value of 1. Error bars represent the standard deviations (SD, n=3). R, roots; S, stems; L, the first leaf pair under the inflorescence; L1-4, the first, second, third and fourth leaf pairs from the shoot tip in the vegetative stage; Fl, flowers; Fr, fruits.

In most organs, the expression level of *HsBPS* was higher than that of *HsCHS*, which is consistent with the finding that polyphenylated benzophenones and xanthones are typical and dominant secondary products of Hypericaceae plants, whereas the concentration of flavonoids in these plants is lower [3, 8]. *HsBPS* was most highly expressed in the roots at both the vegetative and reproductive stages, while its expression in the upper parts of the plant was lower. This expression pattern well correlated with the distribution of polyphenylated benzophenones in the plant. The concentration of polyphenylated benzophenones in the roots is much higher than that in the aerial parts. For example, the 7-*epi*-clusianone content in the roots of *H. sampsonii* is about 0.1% of dry weight, which is around 100 times higher than the maximum concentration of sampsoniones in the aerial parts [3]. Another reason for the high *HsBPS* expression level in roots may be that xanthones also appear to mainly accumulate in the underground organs of many *Hypericum* species [9]. The *HsBPS* expression results suggested that roots of *H. sampsonii* may be the better parts to be used as a herbal remedy because of the high amounts of benzophenone derivatives.

The differential expression pattern of *HsBPS* and *HsCHS* in *H. sampsonii* is interesting and should be related to the function of the corresponding end products, benzophenones and flavonoids, respectively. It has been proved that flavonoids serve as flower pigments, UV protectants and signal molecules in plants [10]. The expression pattern of *HsCHS* can be well explained by these functions, especially, the high transcript level of *HsCHS* in flowers is likely to be related to pigmentation for insect attraction. Constituents that are widely distributed in species of Hypericaceae are polyphenylated benzophenones and xanthones and their antimicrobial properties suggest that they may also have a defensive

role against pathogens. In *H. calycinum*, polyphenylated acyl and benzoyl phloroglucinols made up to approx. 20% of the dry weight of anthers and ovarian walls and were presumed to protect the developing seeds against herbivores and microorganisms [11]. In *H. perforatum* cell cultures, *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* as a biotic stress factor activated xanthone biosynthesis, which resulted in a rapid up-regulation of *BPS* expression and a 12-fold increase in the total xanthone concentration [12]. These compounds were supposed to act as both phytoalexins and antioxidants to help the host prevent disease development. It is reasonable to assume a similar function of benzophenone derivatives in *H. sampsonii*. The differential expression patterns of *HsBPS* and *HsCHS* might indicate that benzophenone derivatives serve in a complementary way, in addition to flavonoids, to protect the plant from biotic stress.

The results of this work provided the first insight into the *in planta* expression pattern of *HaBPS*, which was clearly different from that of *HaCHS* in *H. sampsonii*. These data are the solid basis for further deep investigations of the biosynthesis of these polyphenylated benzophenone derivatives.

Experimental

Chemicals: All the CoA esters of cinnamic acids and benzoic acids, apart from benzoyl-CoA, were synthesized as described in the literature [13]. Malonyl-CoA, acetyl-CoA, benzoyl-CoA and naringenin were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (St Louis, MO, USA), 2,4,6-trihydroxybenzophenone from ICN (Meckenheim, Germany), and 6-phenyl-4-hydroxy-2H-pyran-2-one (benzoyl-diacetic acid lactone) from Aurora Fine Chemicals (Graz, Austria).

Plant materials: *Hypericum sampsonii* Hance (Hypericaceae) seeds were kindly provided by Professor Hongfei Lv (Zhejiang Normal University, Jinhua, China). A voucher specimen of this plant (No. 01262860) was deposited in the Herbarium of the Institute of Botany, the Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing, China. The seeds were germinated in petri dishes covered with filter paper and grown at 25°C with a photoperiod of 16/8 h (light/dark). Three-week-old seedlings were transferred to 1.5-L pots filled with a mixture of mineral soil and humus in a greenhouse with the same temperature and photoperiod. When plants were 6-8 weeks old (vegetative stage), roots, stems, and leaves were harvested. The leaves were divided into unopened leaf pair (L1), the second leaf pair (L2), the third leaf pair (L3) and the fourth leaf pair (L4). In the reproductive stage, leaf (L) was the first leaf pair under the inflorescence, the fully opened flower heads (Fl) and green fruits (Fr) were harvested. All the samples were divided into 0.2 g-samples and immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C.

Cloning of *HsBPS* and *HsCHS* cDNAs: Total RNA was isolated from roots and leaves of *H. sampsonii* using the Universal Plant Total RNA Extraction Kit (Bioteke, Beijing, China). Reverse transcription was carried out at 42°C with M-MLV Reverse Transcriptase (Promega, Madison, WI, USA), and the oligo (dT)-adaptor primer RRP (primer sequences and PCR conditions are provided in supplementary data). Gene specific primers were designed from the 5' untranslated region (5' UTR) of *HaBPS* (Pr-1) and *HaCHS* (Pr-2) of *H. androsaemum* [5]. For *HsCHS*, the full-length cDNA sequence was amplified using primer pair Pr-2 and the adaptor of RRP and the reverse-transcription product of leaf mRNA as template. For *HsBPS*, we were not able to amplify the full-length *HsBPS* with primer pair Pr-1 and the adaptor of RRP, but the core cDNA fragment was amplified by PCR using primers Pr-F and Pr-R derived from the ORF of *HaBPS* [5]. Full-length cDNA was obtained by rapid amplification of cDNA ends (RACE) using the protocol of the SMARTer™ RACE cDNA Amplification kit

(Clontech, Beijing, China). The PCR product was purified, cloned into pMD18-T vector (Takara) and sequenced by a commercial sequencing company. Sequence data of this article can be found in the GenBank/EMBL data libraries under the following accession numbers: *HsBPS*, JQ670939; *HsCHS*, JQ670940.

Heterologous expression and enzyme purification: The ORFs encoding HsBPS and HsCHS were reamplified by PCR using Pfu DNA polymerase. The amplified DNA was cloned to pRSET B (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA) with *Nhe* I/*Kpn* I site. After sequencing of the ORFs on both strands, the recombinant plasmids were introduced into *E. coli* BL21-CodonPlus (DE3)-RIL (Stratagene, Amsterdam, Netherlands) for overexpression as N-terminally His₆-tagged proteins. HsBPS and HsCHS were purified to homogeneity using Ni-NTA agarose according to the manufacturer's instructions (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany). The purification efficiency was monitored by SDS-PAGE (Figure 2).

Enzyme assay and kinetic data determination: The standard assay (250 μL) contained 54 μM starter CoA, 324 μM malonyl-CoA, 0.1 M potassium phosphate (pH 7.0) and 2 μg protein. After incubation at 30°C for 10 min, the enzymatic products were extracted and detected as described previously [5]. Kinetic constants were determined using 8 substrate concentrations covering the range of 0.2-12 K_m , the concentration at which the second substrate was

saturated. The amount of enzyme added to the assay was 2 μg. The incubation time was limited to 5 min for HsBPS and 10 min for HsCHS at the optimum reaction conditions.

Quantitative polymerase chain reaction: Total RNA was isolated from 100 mg of the above mentioned materials using Plant Total RNA Isolation Kit (BioTeck) according to the manufacturer's instructions. All of the total RNA preparations were treated with DNase I and reverse-transcribed using the M-MLV Reverse Transcriptase (Invitrogen) and the oligo d(T) primers. The quantitative PCRs were performed with the Applied Biosystems StepOne Real-time PCR System using FastStart Universal SYBR Green Master (Roche, Mannheim, Germany) in 3 technical replicates (primer sequences and PCR conditions are provided in supplementary data). Relative quantification used the stem value in the vegetative stages and the leaf value in the reproductive stages as calibrators, which were set to a nominal value of 1.

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Efficient Preparation of Hangekobokuto (Banxia-Houpo-Tang) Decoction by Adding Perilla Herb before Decoction is Finished

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Hangekobokuto (banxia-houpo-tang) is a Kampo (traditional Japanese) medicine used mostly for anxiety disorder and consists of Pinellia Tuber, Poria Sclerotium, Magnolia Bark, Perilla Herb and Ginger. Perilla Herb contains an essential oil rich in perillaldehyde, which has a pleasant flavor, but this is easily lost due to heating. We therefore investigated how the major constituents of hangekobokuto, namely perillaldehyde, rosmarinic acid, magnolol and [6]-gingerol, varied with time during decoction and approached an optimal condition for decoction. Rosmarinic acid at 15 min after boiling, and magnolol and [6]-gingerol at 30 min were mostly extracted, while 0.09 mg of perillaldehyde remained at 15 min, but was not detected at 30 min. From these results, a decoction was prepared by adding Perilla Herb 1, 2, 5 and 10 min prior to the termination time of decoction at 30 min. When Perilla Herb was added 1 min beforehand, perillaldehyde was abundant (1.58 mg) and the amount of rosmarinic acid was already the same as that in the conventional decoction at 30 min, but the amount of total extract was inadequate. When Perilla Herb was added 5 min beforehand, perillaldehyde remained to some extent (0.61 mg) and rosmarinic acid was significantly increased compared with that in the conventional decoction at 30 min. From these results, we can conclude that the decoction should be prepared by boiling for not more than 30 min and, if possible, Perilla Herb should be added 5 min prior to the termination time. Considering the antidepressant-like activity of perillaldehyde and rosmarinic acid, the suggested method will not only achieve better treatment for anxiety, but also provide an effective use of crude drugs in the resource-limited environment.

Keywords: Kampo medicine, Hangekobokuto, Perilla Herb, Perillaldehyde, Rosmarinic acid.

Hangekobokuto (banxia-houpo-tang) is a Kampo (traditional Japanese) medicine composed of five crude drugs: Pinellia Tuber, Poria Sclerotium, Magnolia Bark, Perilla Herb and Ginger. It was described in Jinkuiyaolue, the Chinese traditional literature established in the 3rd century that describes major chronic diseases and treatments. This text suggests that when having a foreign-body sensation such as a lump in the throat, called Plum-pit Qi in China, hangekobokuto is suitable. According to Kampo medicine, Pinellia Tuber and Poria Sclerotium remove stagnating water in the stomach to improve nausea, Ginger improves gastrointestinal activity, Magnolia Bark relaxes muscle tension to improve vitality stasis, and Perilla Herb also improves vitality stasis. Hangekobokuto is widely used for anxiety disorder, dyspepsia, asthma and foreign-body sensation in the throat. Hangekobokuto Extract is newly listed in the Japanese Pharmacopoeia (JP), 16th edition, and is regulated by three compounds: rosmarinic acid from Perilla Herb, magnolol from Magnolia Bark and [6]-gingerol from Ginger (Figure 1) [1]. Several case reports and research papers about the effectiveness of this treatment for anxiety [2], deglutition disorder [3, 4] and throat dysesthesia disease [5] have been previously published. Perilla Herb contains perillaldehyde, shisonin, apigenin, luteolin and rosmarinic acid [6]. JP Perilla Herb should contain not less than 0.08% perillaldehyde [6]. Perillaldehyde has a variety of biological properties such as antibacterial [7], antimicrobial [8] and antidepressant-like activity [9]. It is also reported that the flavors of crude drugs themselves have biological activities like essential oils [10, 11]. So, the pleasant flavor of Perilla Herb, derived from perillaldehyde, may contribute to the effectiveness of hangekobokuto in this regard. Perillaldehyde is easily volatilized during decoction, but its behavior has not been studied. Thus, the aim of our study was to clarify the optimal decoction time of

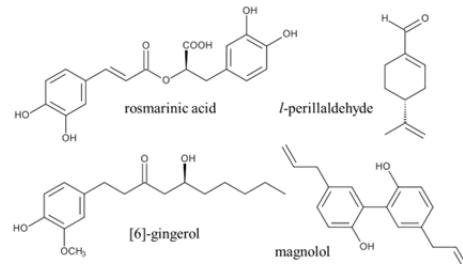


Figure 1: Structure of main principle compounds in hangekobokuto.

hangekobokuto by varying the chemical constituents with time and determining the effect of adding Perilla Herb 1, 2, 5 or 10 min prior to the termination time of decoction to maintain a high level of perillaldehyde, along with non-volatile rosmarinic acid.

In the first experiment, we investigated how the quantities of major constituents of hangekobokuto varied with time during decoction. A daily dose of hangekobokuto was decocted with 400 mL of water. About 13 min passed until boiling occurred, and each decoction was prepared by continuous boiling for 0, 15, 30, 45 and 60 min, respectively. Perillaldehyde, rosmarinic acid, magnolol and [6]-gingerol from Ginger in each decoction were measured by HPLC (Table 1). Perillaldehyde was detected in the decoction at 0 min (1.55 ± 0.35 mg), but its level greatly decreased until 15 min (0.09 ± 0.04 mg) and was not detected after 30 min. On the other hand, rosmarinic acid was mostly extracted by 15 min, and the amount did not show any significant difference from that in the decoctions at 30, 45 and 60 min. Magnolol and [6]-gingerol contents did not change in the decoction after 30 min. Thus, it is

Table 1: Comparison of constituents and extract of hangekobokuto during decoction.

decoction time (min)	0	15	30	45	60					
extract (g)	1.43±0.21	c*	1.88±0.06	b	2.09±0.13	ab	2.12±0.11	ab	2.26±0.18	a
decoction volume (mL)	361±6		318±6		287±1		262±8		228±2	
magnolol (mg)	2.81±0.60	c	6.84±1.09	b	7.79±0.80	ab	9.50±0.63	a	8.63±1.20	ab
[6]-gingerol (mg)	1.10±0.06	c	2.19±0.15	b	2.36±0.31	ab	2.61±0.10	a	2.56±0.09	a
rosmarinic acid (mg)	11.3±1.0	b	14.8±1.2	a	14.4±1.6	ab	14.9±0.9	a	13.6±0.4	ab
perillaldehyde (mg)	1.55±0.35		0.09±0.04		n.d.		n.d.		n.d.	

Each value represents mean±SD. n.d.: not detected. * The results of the Tukey-Kramer test (within lines) are indicated by different letters where values differ significantly at $p<0.05$. n=4, 5 (constituents at 0 and 15 min).

Table 2: Comparison of constituents and extract of hangekobokuto when Perilla Herb was added before the termination time of decoction.

	perillaldehyde (mg)	rosmarinic acid (mg)	extract (g)	magnolol (mg)	[6]-gingerol (mg)				
Pe1*	1.58±0.07	14.9±0.6	b*	1.63±0.12	b	-			
Pe2*	1.18±0.04	15.4±0.7	b	1.65±0.17	b	-			
Pe5*	0.61±0.04	18.3±0.8	a	2.25±0.11	a	7.69±0.71	a	2.60±0.34	a
Pe10*	0.15±0.01	20.3±1.5	a	1.95±0.22	ab	8.90±1.23	a	2.22±0.25	a
decoction at 30 min	n.d.	14.4±1.6	b	2.09±0.13	a	7.79±0.80	a	2.36±0.31	a

* Pe1, Pe2, Pe5, Pe10: decoction when Perilla Herb was added 1, 2, 5 and 10 min prior to the termination time of decoction, i.e., 30 min, respectively (n=4). Each value represents mean±SD. n.d.: not detected. -: no data. x The results of the Tukey-Kramer test (within columns) are indicated by different letters where values differ significantly at $p<0.05$.

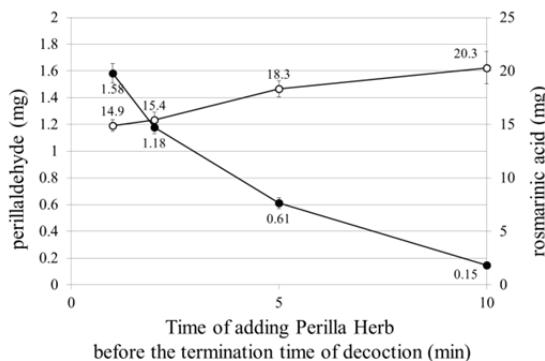


Figure 2: Perillaldehyde decrease and rosmarinic acid increase when Perilla Herb was added before the termination time of decoction. Each value represents mean±SD (n=4). Filled circles: perillaldehyde, open circles: rosmarinic acid.

sufficient to prepare the hangekobokuto decoction with continuous boiling for 30 min, and there seems to be no justification to decoct it for more than that time if we are not concerned with the amount of perillaldehyde in the decoction.

Considering the biological activities of perillaldehyde in Perilla Herb, the crude drugs in hangekobokuto other than Perilla Herb were decocted, and Perilla Herb was added either 5 min (decoction : Pe5) or 10 min (Pe10) prior to the termination time of decoction, i.e., at 30 min, to maintain a high level of perillaldehyde content in the decoction. The constituents and total extract were compared with those in the conventional decoction at 30 min (Table 2). Perillaldehyde in Pe5 was observed at an amount of 0.61 ± 0.04 mg, but had almost disappeared in Pe10 (0.15 ± 0.01 mg). The rosmarinic acid levels in Pe5 and Pe10 were 18.3 ± 0.8 mg and 20.3 ± 1.5 mg, respectively. They were significantly higher than that in the decoction at 30 min (14.4 ± 1.6 mg). The total extract, magnolol and [6]-gingerol contents were the same as those in the conventional decoction at 30 min.

To determine the changes in greater detail, Perilla Herb was added 1 min (decoction: Pe1) and 2 min (Pe2) prior to the termination time of the decoction and the total extract, perillaldehyde and rosmarinic acid contents were measured (Figure 2, Table 2). Perillaldehyde was abundant (1.58 ± 0.07 mg) in Pe1, but decreased to 1.18 ± 0.04 mg in Pe2. On the other hand, rosmarinic acid was extracted sufficiently in Pe1 (14.9 ± 0.6 mg) and Pe2 (15.4 ± 0.7 mg). Each amount of rosmarinic acid was the same as that in the decoction at 30 min (14.4 ± 1.6 mg), though each amount of total extract was significantly less than that in the decoction at 30 min.

To clarify the increase of rosmarinic acid in Pe5 and Pe10, only Perilla Herb was decocted for 30 min, and the results were compared with those obtained when Perilla Herb was added to boiling water prior to the termination time of decoction. When Perilla Herb was added 5 and 10 min beforehand, the amounts of rosmarinic acid were 20.2 ± 0.7 mg (n=4) and 22.1 ± 0.9 mg (n=4), respectively. Both amounts were significantly large compared with that in the Perilla Herb decoction at 30 min (16.0 ± 1.0 mg, n=4), as determined by the Tukey-Kramer test.

In summary, when Perilla Herb was added 1, 2, 5 and 10 min beforehand, perillaldehyde decreased within 15 min, but rosmarinic acid had been extracted sufficiently after 1 min. In Pe1 and Pe2, perillaldehyde was abundant and the amount of rosmarinic acid was the same as that in the decoction at 30 min, but the total extract amount was inadequate compared with that obtained in the conventional way. In Pe5, perillaldehyde remained to some extent, but rosmarinic acid was significantly increased compared with the amount obtained in the conventional way, and the amount of total extract was adequate. Since rosmarinic acid has a number of interesting biological activities such as antiviral, antibacterial, anti-inflammatory, antioxidant [12] and antidepressant-like properties [13], our study sought to increase it by adding Perilla Herb before finishing the decoction. When Perilla Herb itself was decocted, the rosmarinic acid level was significantly increased when Perilla Herb was added prior to the termination time of decoction, as is the case with the hangekobokuto decoction. From these results, it is suspected that the increase in rosmarinic acid is not influenced by other constituents and boiling water may cause more cellular destruction than gradually warming water and may promote the release of chemical constituents in the case of Perilla Herb. We also found that rosmarinic acid linearly increased from 0 to 15 min by checking the amount in each conventional decoction at 5 and 10 min, respectively (data not shown).

In conclusion, considering its active constituents, Perilla Herb should be added 5 min prior to the termination time of the decoction. If it is not possible to separate Perilla Herb from the crude drugs of hangekobokuto when prescribed as a mixture, a decoction time of not more than 30 min is sufficient. The decoction method in which Perilla Herb is added before the decoction is finished could increase the constituents, i.e. perillaldehyde and rosmarinic acid, and may lead to a better treatment for anxiety in particular. This method is worth trying if the medicine does not work well or if greater effectiveness is desired. The effective dosage of perillaldehyde when administered orally or nasally to humans is not clear, but it is known that the antidepressant-like

activity is greater with nasal than with oral administration in mice [9]. Since perillaldehyde easily evaporates during decoction, better treatment can also be expected if patients themselves prepare the decoction and then inhale the vapor or take in the warm decoction by smelling it. In this study, the empirical effect of adding a specific crude drug such as fragrant leaves or flowers before the decoction was finished was experimentally clarified in the case of hangekobokuto.

Experimental

Plant materials: The hangekobokuto (daily dose) used in this experiment was composed of 5 crude drugs: Pinellia Tuber (*Pinellia ternata* Breitenbach, 6 g), Poria Sclerotium (*Wolfiporia cocos* Ryvarden et Gilbertson, 5 g), Magnolia Bark (*Magnolia obovata* Thunberg, 3 g), Perilla Herb (*Perilla frutescens* Britton var. *acuta* Kudo, 3 g) and Ginger (*Zingiber officinale* Roscoe, 1 g). Crude drugs were sealed and kept in the refrigerator at 6°C. Pinellia Tuber (Sichuan, China, Lot. 009110012), Poria Sclerotium (Yanbian, China, Lot. 009511014) and Perilla Herb (Zhejiang, China, Lot. 006910004) were purchased from Tochimoto Tenkaido (Osaka, Japan). Magnolia Bark (Nagano, Japan, Lot. A5H0140) and Ginger (Yunnan, China, Lot. OBK0227) were purchased from Uchida Wakanyaku (Tokyo, Japan). The Perilla Herb used in this experiment contained 0.14% perillaldehyde according to the analysis sheet from Tochimoto Tenkaido; that is, 4.2 mg perillaldehyde was contained in 3 g. All crude drugs met the criteria of the JP.

Reagents: Authentic specimens of *l*-perillaldehyde, rosmarinic acid, magnolol, and [6]-gingerol were purchased from Wako Pure Chemical Industries, Ltd. (Osaka, Japan). Phosphoric acid from Wako and acetic acid from Kanto Chemical Co., Inc. (Tokyo, Japan) were used. Acetonitrile of high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) grade was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (Tokyo, Japan). Methanol of HPLC grade was purchased from Wako. Distilled water was prepared by the purification system of Millipore. Tap water was used for preparing decoctions (pH 7.2, Ca²⁺: 24.7 mg/L, Mg²⁺: 6.3 mg/L, measured using a polarized Zeeman atomic absorption spectrophotometer, Z-5300, HITACHI).

Preparation of decoction: In the first experiment, a daily dose of hangekobokuto and 400 mL of tap water were added to a heat-resistant glass pot with a lid. The pot was heated on a heater

(350W, EK-SA10, Tochimoto Tenkaido, Osaka, Japan). The decoction time (time after boiling) was set at 0, 15, 30, 45 and 60 min. The decoction was filtered through paper, and a portion was freeze-dried and weighed. Another portion was mixed with an equal amount of methanol and filtered through a Millipore filter for HPLC analysis. In the second experiment, the crude drugs other than Perilla Herb were decocted with 400 mL of tap water for 30 min with Perilla Herb then added 1, 2, 5 and 10 min prior to the termination time.

HPLC analysis: HPLC analysis was conducted using the following instruments. Column: TSK gel ODS-80TM (4.6 i.d. x 150 mm, TOSOH), Column oven: L-5025 (HITACHI), Pump: L-2130 (HITACHI), UV detector: L-4000 (HITACHI), Integrator: D-2500 Chromato-Integrator (HITACHI).

HPLC conditions: The conditions were based on the method of hangekobokuto described in the JP. Rosmarinic acid, magnolol and [6]-gingerol are listed as principal compounds for the quality control of hangekobokuto. Perillaldehyde is a guiding component of Perilla Herb. Rosmarinic acid (mobile phase, flow rate, wave length, column temperature, observed retention time): H₂O/CH₃CN/H₃PO₄=800/200/1, 1 mL/min, 330 nm, 30°C, 13.6 min; magnolol: H₂O/CH₃CN/acetic acid =50/50/1, 1 mL/min, 289 nm, 40°C, 17.0 min; [6]-gingerol : H₂O/CH₃CN/H₃PO₄=620/380/1, 1 mL/min, 282 nm, 30°C, 15.9 min; perillaldehyde: H₂O/CH₃CN=40/60, 1 mL/min, 230 nm, 40°C, 17.6 min. Injection volume was 10 µL. All calibration curves showed good linearity ($r^2 > 0.999$) within the test ranges (rosmarinic acid and magnolol: 1-50 µg/mL, [6]-gingerol: 1-20 µg/mL, perillaldehyde: 0.1-10 µg/mL). Limit of detection (LOD) of perillaldehyde (0.06 µg/mL) was calculated according to the formula: 3.3SD/S, based on the standard deviation (SD) of the response and the slope (S) of the calibration curve at a level approximating to the LOD.

Statistical analysis: Each value represents the mean ± SD, n=4-5. Differences were considered to be statistically significant when the *p* value was less than 0.05 according to the Tukey-Kramer test.

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Anti-neutrophilic Inflammatory Secondary Metabolites from the Traditional Chinese Medicine, Tianskuizi

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Through bioassay-guided fractionation, thirteen compounds (**1-13**) were isolated from the dry root of *Semiaquilegia adoxoides*, known as Tianskuizi in traditional Chinese medicine (TCM). Among these, four benzoic acid derivatives (**1, 2, 4, 5**), one 4,6-dimethoxy-5-methyl-2H-pyran-2-one (**10**) and one 1,2,3-propanetriol (**13**) were found for the first time in *S. adoxoides*. This is the first record of compound **10** from a natural source. 4-Hydroxybenzoic acid (**1**) and 3,4-dihydroxybenzoic acid (**2**) showed selective inhibition against elastase release and superoxide anion generation, with IC₅₀ values of 3.20 and 6.21 µg/mL, respectively. Compound **1** had 7-fold better activity than the positive control against elastase release induced by human neutrophils. Overall, our studies demonstrated Tianskuizi (*S. adoxoides*) as a potential TCM and isolates **1** and **2** as promising lead compounds for neutrophilic inflammatory diseases.

Keywords: *Semiaquilegia adoxoides*, Tianskuizi, Ranunculaceae, Anti-neutrophilic inflammatory activity.

Semiaquilegia adoxoides (DC.) Makino, family Ranunculaceae, distributed mainly in mainland China, Japan and Korea, is the only species in the genus *Semiaquilegia*. The dry roots of this plant, called Tianskuizi in traditional Chinese medicine (TCM), have been used for their anti-inflammatory, anti-neoplastic, and antibacterial activities, and for the treatment of snakebite in folk medicine [1-6]. Thirty compounds have been reported from *S. adoxoides* to date, including six cyano-compounds [1,6,7], three alkaloids [1,4,8], three benzoic acid derivatives [4,8], three benzofuranones [1,7], three diterpenes [5,6], three steroids [1,2], three fatty acids [8], two simple benzene derivatives [8], one nitro-compound [2], one flavonoid [1], one amide [9] and one furan [9]. However, it is interesting that the bioactive constituents from this plant have not been evaluated in a systematic manner.

Tianskuizi, especially, is often included in many multiple TCM formulas to cure cancer patients. In our preliminary study, a MeOH extract of Tianskuizi was separated into EtOAc-, *n*-BuOH- and water-soluble fractions, respectively. The three extracts were screened for cytotoxic activity against human lung (A549, H1299), breast (MDA-MB-231), ovarian (SKOV3), colon (HCT116, HT29), pancreas (AsPC-1) and oral (Ca922) cancer cell lines. All were inactive, with IC₅₀ values of > 100 µg/mL. However, during the course of an anti-neutrophilic inflammatory screening program on natural products, it was found that the EtOAc- and *n*-BuOH-extracts of Tianskuizi were active against superoxide anion generation and elastase release induced by human neutrophils.

Table 1: Effects of Tianskuizi extract on superoxide anion generation and elastase release by human neutrophils in response to FMLP/CB.

Extract	Superoxide anion			Elastase release				
	Inh %			Inh %				
SAE	84.8	±	1.0	***	106.4	±	0.2	***
SAB	54.4	±	1.4	***	15.9	±	3.2	*
SAW	26.8	±	1.5	**	5.5	±	2.0	

SAE: EtOAc-soluble fraction; SAB: *n*-BuOH-soluble fraction; SAW: water-soluble fraction. Percentage of inhibition (Inh %) at 10 µg/mL concentration. Results are presented as mean ± S.E.M. (n = 2). * p < 0.05; ** p < 0.01; *** p < 0.001 compared with the control value.

Respiratory system diseases always have the severe problem of mucus hypersecretion, in which superoxide anion and elastase are produced in large amounts by activated neutrophils. In such a situation, neutrophil inflammation will lead to deterioration of the disease and a high mortality rate. Therefore, finding potential new drugs to treat neutrophilic inflammatory diseases has become a necessity. Therefore, the TCM, Tianskuizi, was first selected as a lead to be investigated for anti-neutrophilic inflammatory activity through bioassay-guided fractionation.

A MeOH extract of Tianskuizi was partitioned between EtOAc-H₂O (1:1), and then the aqueous layer between *n*-BuOH and H₂O (1:1) to obtain EtOAc (SAE), *n*-BuOH (SAB) and water (SAW) fractions, respectively. As shown in Table 1, the EtOAc- and *n*-BuOH-soluble fractions possessed inhibitory effects of 84.8% and 54.4% against superoxide anion generation, respectively at the concentration of 10 µg/mL. In addition, only the EtOAc-soluble fraction produced significant inhibition of elastase release. Fractionation of the EtOAc

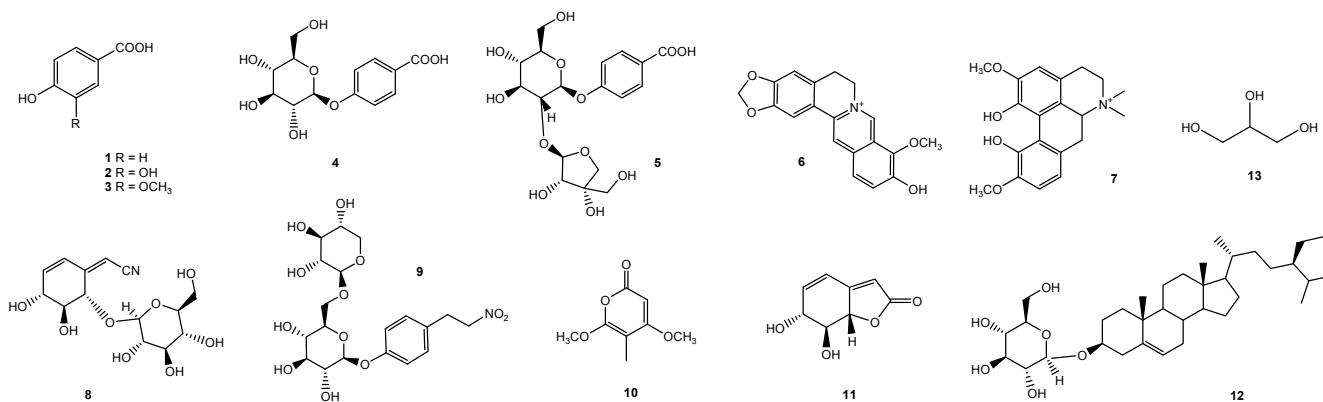
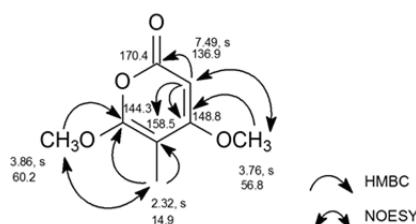


Figure 1: All structures of compounds 1-13 isolated from Tiansuizi.

and *n*-BuOH extracts led to the isolation of thirteen compounds, including five benzoic acid derivatives, 4-hydroxybenzoic acid (**1**), 3,4-dihydroxybenzoic acid (**2**), 3-methoxy-4-hydroxybenzoic acid (**3**), *p*- β -D-glucosyloxybenzoic acid (**4**) [10], monordicophenoide A (**5**) [11], three alkaloids, thalifendine (**6**) [8], magnoflorine (**7**) [1], and 4-hydroxy-1-(2-nitroethyl) benzene 4-*O*-(6'-*O*- β -D-xylopyranosyl)- β -D-glucopyranoside (**9**) [2], one cyano-compound, lithospermaside (**8**) [1], one 4,6-dimethoxy-5-methyl-2*H*-pyran-2-one (**10**) [12,13], one benzofuranone, griffonilide (**11**) [1], sitosterol-3- β -D-glucoside (**12**) [1], and 1,2,3-propanetriol (**13**). All structures were identified by NMR spectroscopic and MS data interpretation.

Figure 2: Key correlations of HMBC and NOESY, along with ¹H and ¹³C NMR data for compound 10.

¹H, ¹³C and HSQC NMR spectra of compound **10** indicated three singlet methyl groups (δ_H 2.32/ δ_C 14.9, δ_H 3.76/ δ_C 56.8 and δ_H 3.86/ δ_C 60.2) and one olefinic proton (δ_H 7.49, δ/δ_C 136.9). In the ¹³C NMR spectrum, there are four quaternary carbons (144.3, 148.8, 158.5, 170.4) in addition. As Figure 1 shows, the HMBC and NOESY spectra suggested the structure of **10** as 2*H*-pyran-2-one, 4,6-dimethoxy-5-methyl. This was synthesized in 1989 by Venkataraman and Cha [12,13], but clear spectral data and biological properties of **10** were never reported. Compound **10** is reported by us for the first time as a naturally occurring substance.

Of the thirteen compounds isolated from Tiansuizi, the four benzoic acid derivatives (**1**, **2**, **4**, **5**), and compounds **10** and **13** are reported for the first time for *S. adoxoides*. Although, the crude extracts of Tiansuizi did not have cytotoxicity, all isolates were tested for cytotoxicity toward eight human cancer cell lines (A549, H1299, MDA-MB-231, SKOV3, HCT116, HT29, AsPC-1 and Ca922), but all were inactive, with IC₅₀ values of > 100 μ g/mL.

All the isolates, excluding **10**, were tested in the anti-neutrophilic inflammation assay based on their effects against superoxide anion generation and elastase release by human neutrophils in response to formyl-L-methionyl-L-leucyl-L-phenylalanine (FMLP)/cytochalasin B (CB) (Table 2). Diphenyleneiodonium (DPI) and phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride (PMSF) were used as the positive controls, respectively. Compounds **1** and **2** showed selective inhibition

Table 2: Effects of compounds isolated from Tiansuizi on superoxide anion generation and elastase release in FMLP/CB-induced human neutrophils.

compd	Superoxide anion		Elastase release	
	IC ₅₀ (μ g/mL) ^a	Inh %	IC ₅₀ (μ g/mL) ^a	Inh %
1	>10	32.4 ± 2.1 ***	3.2 ± 0.7	75.1 ± 2.1 ***
2	6.2 ± 1.9	59.2 ± 5.5 ***	>10	25.4 ± 4.0 **
3	>10	23.7 ± 3.6 **	>10	19.1 ± 2.4 **
4	>10	13.9 ± 1.6 ***	>10	2.4 ± 1.0
5	>10	2.3 ± 0.8 *	>10	2.0 ± 1.3
6	>10	34.4 ± 2.0 ***	>10	20.1 ± 5.9 *
7	>10	18.6 ± 5.5 *	>10	15.8 ± 5.4 *
8	>10	5.0 ± 3.3	>10	7.0 ± 4.7
9	>10	10.7 ± 2.8 **	>10	3.3 ± 0.9 *
10	NT ^{b)}	NT ^{b)}	NT ^{b)}	NT ^{b)}
11	>10	6.9 ± 3.9	>10	1.7 ± 2.8
12	>10	29.0 ± 6.9 *	>10	3.7 ± 4.8
13	>10	7.9 ± 3.1	>10	8.7 ± 3.1
DPI ^{c)}	0.22±0.13			22.8±5.1
PMSF ^{c)}				

Percentage of inhibition (Inh %) at 10 μ g/mL concentration. Results are presented as mean±S.E.M. (n=3 or 4). * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$ compared with the control value. ^{a)} Concentration necessary for 50% inhibition (IC₅₀). ^{b)} NT means not tested. ^{c)} Diphenyleneiodonium (DPI) and phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride (PMSF) were used as positive controls for superoxide anion generation and elastase release, respectively.

against elastase release and superoxide anion generation with IC₅₀ values of 3.2 and 6.2 μ g/mL, respectively. Compound **1** had a 7-fold better activity than the positive control, PMSF, against elastase release by human neutrophils. Among the benzoic acid derivatives **1-5**, the main differences in their structures are the *para*-(OH, glucopyranosyl, furanosyl-glucopyranosyl) and *meta*-substituents (H, OH, OMe). The data for compounds **1**, **4**, and **5** in Table 2, suggest that the free OH *para*-substituent of benzoic acid is more favorable. In addition, the potency of a *meta*-substituent H or OH is better than that of OMe among the *p*-hydroxy benzoic acids **1-3**. The alkaloids and other compounds showed no anti-neutrophilic inflammatory property. Overall, our studies indicated Tiansuizi (*S. adoxoides*) as a potential natural source and 4-hydroxybenzoic acid (**1**) and 3,4-dihydroxybenzoic acid (**2**) as promising compounds for further study of neutrophilic inflammatory diseases, like asthma.

Experimental

General: 1D (¹H, ¹³C, DEPT) and 2D (COSY, NOESY, HSQC, HMBC) NMR spectra were measured on Bruker ULTRASHIELDTM 500 and 600 PLUS instruments. Chemical shift (δ) values are given in ppm with C₅D₅N, CDCl₃, CD₃OD, and DMSO-*d*₆ as internal standards, and coupling constants (*J*) are in

Hz. Low-resolution ESIMS were measured on a Bruker Daltonics EsquireHCT ultra high capacity trap mass spectrometer. TLC was performed on either Kieselgel 60 F₂₅₄ (0.25 mm, Merck) or RP-18 F_{254S} (0.25 mm, Merck) plates, and compounds were detected under UV light at 254 nm and 356 nm before being stained by spraying with 10% H₂SO₄ and heating on a hot plate. For CC, silica gel (SiliCycle® 70-230 and 230-400 mesh), RP-18 (LiChroprep® 40-63 µm, Merk), Sephadex™ LH-20 (GE Healthcare, Sweden) and Diaion® HP-20 (SUPELCO™) were used.

Plant material: TCM Tiankuizi, the dry root of *Semiaquilegia adoxoides*, was purchased from a Chinese medicine shop in Tainan, Taiwan, in February, 2011 and identified by one author, Prof. Y.-S. Chang. A voucher specimen (SA201102) was deposited at the Natural Medicinal Products Research Center, CMUH, Taiwan.

Extraction and isolation: Tiankuizi (260.5 g) was extracted 3 times with MeOH (700 mL each) at room temperature to obtain a crude extract. The MeOH extract (94.7 g) was partitioned between EtOAc and H₂O (400 mL/400 mL, 5 times) to give an EtOAc-soluble fraction (4.4 g) and the aqueous phase (89.3 g), which was further partitioned with n-BuOH-H₂O (500 mL/500 mL, 3 times) to give n-BuOH- (16.7 g) and H₂O-soluble fractions (69.7 g). The EtOAc-soluble fraction (4.4 g) was subjected to open CC on silica gel (70-230 mesh, column: 5 × 19 cm), using gradients of n-hexane-CHCl₃-MeOH to give 12 subfractions (SAE1~SAE12). Fraction SAE94 (27.6 mg) was further purified by preparative TLC to obtain **1** (2.4 mg). SAE9 (98.8 mg) was fractionated by Sephadex LH-20 CC (column diameter: 3 cm, length: 29 cm; CHCl₃-MeOH, 1:1) to yield 5 fractions (SAE91~SAE95). Subfraction SAE10 (872.9 mg) was divided into 5 fractions by silica gel CC (230-400 mesh, column: 2.5 × 25 cm) using gradients of CHCl₃-MeOH (10:1; 8:1; 6:1; 4:1; 1:1). A precipitate, obtained from subfraction SAE103 (293.3 mg), using MeOH, afforded **12** (60.4 mg). The residue (232.9 mg) of SAE103 was subjected to Sephadex LH-20 CC (column diameter: 3 cm, length: 28.5 cm; CHCl₃-MeOH, 1:1) to give 6 subfractions. Subfraction SAE1034 (109.7 mg) was chromatographed on a silica gel column (230-400 mesh, column: 2 × 26 cm), using EtOAc-MeOH (100:0; 50:1; 30:1; 5:1; 0:100). Subfraction SAE10344 (28.8 mg) was purified subsequently by preparative TLC with CHCl₃-MeOH (10:1) to obtain **11** (10.5 mg). Subfraction SAE1035 (39.8 mg) was purified by preparative TLC (CHCl₃-MeOH, 8:1) to give **2** (8.5 mg). Fraction SAE7 (104.9 mg) was subjected to Sephadex LH-20 CC (column diameter: 3 cm, length: 28 cm; CHCl₃-MeOH, 1:1) and subfraction SAE73 (47.9 mg) to preparative TLC (n-Hexane-EtOAc, 1:2) to give **3** (4.6 mg). Fraction SAE3 (48.2 mg) was purified by preparative TLC (n-Hexane-EtOAc, 1:1) to give **10** (2.0 mg). The n-BuOH-soluble fraction (16.7 g) was chromatographed over Diaion® HP-20 (column: 5 × 25.5 cm; H₂O-MeOH-Acetone, 100:0:0; 75:25:0; 50:50:0; 25:75:0; 0:100:0; 0:0:100) to give 6 subfractions (SAB1~SAB6). Subfractions SAB4 (110.0 mg) and SAB5 (140.0 mg) were combined and subjected to open CC on silica gel (230-400 mesh, column: 2.5 × 25 cm), using gradients of CHCl₃-MeOH (8:1; 6:1; 4:1; 2:1; 0:1) to obtain 8 subfractions (SAB41~SAB48). Subfraction SAB48 (68.0 mg) was separated by RP-18 chromatography (column: 2.5 × 26 cm; MeOH)

and silica chromatography (230-400 mesh, column: 2.5 × 27 cm; CHCl₃-MeOH, 8:1; 6:1) to obtain **6** (8.0 mg). Fraction SAB2 (1.4 g) was separated into 7 subfractions by CC on silica gel (column: 2.5 × 25 cm; EtOAc-MeOH, 5:1). Subfraction SAB22 (168.0 mg) was subjected to silica gel chromatography (230-400 mesh, column: 2 × 25 cm; EtOAc-MeOH, 100:0; 10:1; 5:1; 1:1; 0:100) and subfraction SAB29 (30.9 mg) was further purified by preparative TLC (CHCl₃-MeOH, 3:1) to give **4** (11.6 mg). Fraction SAB23 (235.0 mg) was purified by Sephadex LH-20 (column diameter: 3 cm, length: 24 cm; MeOH) and silica gel CC (230-400 mesh, column: 2 × 22 cm; CHCl₃-MeOH, 3:1) to give **5** (18.7 mg). Compound **8** (3.9 mg) was precipitated and purified from subfraction SAB24 (120.0 mg) using MeOH. Fraction SAB27 (106.0 mg) was divided by RP-18 CC (column: 2.5 × 28 cm; MeOH-H₂O, 80:20) into 7 fractions (56.0 mg). Subfraction SAB3 (413.0 mg) was separated by silica gel (230-400 mesh, column: 2.5 × 7 cm; CHCl₃-MeOH, 8:1; 1:1; 0:1) and Sephadex LH-20 CC (column diameter: 2.5 cm, length: 26 cm; MeOH) to give subfraction SAB313 (69.7 mg), which was further purified by preparative TLC (CHCl₃-MeOH, 3:1; EtOAc-MeOH, 4:1) to give **9** (10.9 mg).

4,6-dimethoxy-5-methyl-2H-Pyran-2-one (10)

¹H NMR (600 MHz, CDCl₃) δ: 2.32 (3H, s), 3.76 (3H, s), 3.86 (3H, s), 7.49 (1H, s).

¹³C NMR (150 MHz, CDCl₃) δ: 14.9, 56.8, 60.2, 136.9, 144.3, 148.8, 158.5, 170.4.

ESI-MS m/z: 170.9 [M+H]⁺.

Cytotoxicity: Compounds were tested against human lung (A549, H1299), breast (MDA-MB-231), ovarian (SKOV3), colon (HCT116, HT29), pancreas (AsPC-1) and oral (Ca922) cancer cell lines using an established colorimetric MTT assay protocol [14]. The absorbance was measured at 550 nm using a microplate reader. The IC₅₀ is the concentration of agent that reduced cell viability by 50% under the experimental conditions.

Measurement of superoxide anion generation: The assay of the generation of superoxide anions was carried out according to established protocols by monitoring the reduction of ferricytochrome c that could be inhibited by superoxide dismutase [15]. N-Formyl-Met-Leu-Phe (FMLP, 100 nM)/cytochalasin B (CB, 1 µg/mL) was used as a stimulant to activate neutrophils to produce superoxide anions. The positive control was diphenyleneiodonium (DPI), which is a NADPH oxidase inhibitor.

Elastase release assays: Elastase release was measured by degranulation of azurophilic granules, as described previously [15]. Neutrophils were activated by 100 nM FMLP and 0.5 µg/mL CB to release elastase. Phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride (PMSF), a serine protease inhibitor, was used as the positive control.

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DART MS Based Chemical Profiling for Therapeutic Potential of *Piper betle* Landraces

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Piper betle Linn. leaves are traditionally used as a folk medicine in India and other Asiatic countries. Twenty-one *P. betle* landraces were analyzed using a Direct Analysis in Real Time (DART) mass spectral technique and evaluated on the basis of molecules detected in the leaves. Clustering of landraces based on three well known biologically active phenols (*m/z* 151,165,193) showed two broad groups with high and low phenol contents suggesting differences in their therapeutic potential. Findings of this study could be useful in rapid screening of the landraces for determining their medicinal potential and optimum utilization of the bioresource.

Keywords: DART-MS, *Piper betle*, Landraces, Profiling.

Piper betle Linn. (PB) is a pan-Asiatic cultural plant and, according to estimates, nearly 600 million people consume it daily in one form or another [1]. In terms of consumption it ranks next only to coffee and tea. The plant is a native of tropical Asia and grows wild in these regions. Traditional uses of this plant are well known in India and many others countries of South East and Far East Asia. It is widely used in the treatment of coughs and colds, wound healing, oral hygiene and many other ailments. It is also known to have digestive, carminative, anti-inflammatory, and cardiotonic properties. The Indian system of medicine, Ayurveda, recognized the importance of PB and some thirteen properties were ascribed to it [2]. In recent years several properties have been demonstrated in PB like pro-apoptotic, anti-amoebic, anti-oxidant, larvicidal, anti-allergic, anti-fungal, anti-bacterial, anti-inflammatory, hepatoprotective, anti-diabetic, wound healing and suppression of halitosis [3 and references therein].

PB is a shade loving climber and cultivated widely in tropical and some subtropical regions of India. In India more than a hundred PB landraces have been recognized [3]. Biodiversity within a species is represented by landrace and/ or variety. No extensive systematic studies on characterizing these landraces have been made in the past. Some work on the essential oil has shown that most of the PB landraces fall into five broad groups, Bangla, Kapoori, Khasi, Sanchi and MeethaPatta [4]. Studies conducted on molecular taxonomy using random amplified polymorphic DNA (RAPD) using seventy landraces have also shown the existence of major groups as Bangla, Kapoori and others [5,6]. Recently DART-MS was used for studying some PB landraces and the method was found to be useful for screening [7]. Since PB is an important cultural and medicinal plant it is important to explore the available biodiversity for its therapeutic potential. In this communication we have screened twenty-one PB landraces using DART-MS and shown its utility in predicting their therapeutic potential.

DART-MS profiles of twenty-one *P. betle* landraces showed characteristic differences, as illustrated by the spectra shown in Figure 1. The representative spectra of three landraces, namely

Jagarnathi Green, Bangla Mahoba and MeethaPatta, showed intraspecific variations within the landraces (spectra of other landraces are given as supplementary data). The peaks at *m/z* 193, 207, 235 and 252 were common to all the landraces, which makes these peaks constitutive for PB. Other major peaks seen in the spectra at *m/z* 104, 118,132,135,151,163,165,166,175,177 and 205 were not constitutive making them useful as markers for landraces. The DART mass spectra did not show peaks attributable to terpenes, except for a small peak at *m/z* 205 corresponding to sesquiterpenes. Peaks were observed at *m/z* values that corresponded to several reported phenols and their acetates in PB leaf. The peaks at *m/z* 135, 151, 165, 177, 193, 207 and 235 could be due, respectively, to chavicol, allylpyrocatechol (APC) and/or carvacrol, eugenol and/or chavibetol (CHV), chavicol acetate, allylpyrocatechol acetate, chavibetol acetate and allylpyrocatechol diacetate. Since some of the phenols have the same molecular weight it was not possible to distinguish them from DART mass spectra alone, as in the case of the peaks at *m/z* 151 and 165. A peak at *m/z* 135, corresponding to chavicol, was detected only in landraces Saufia and MeethaPatta. From the spectra it can be seen that APC and/or carvacrol was present in all landraces, except Desawari, whereas eugenol and/or CHV was absent in Desawari, Mahoba and Sanchi*. Chavicol acetate was present only in Bangla, MeethaPatta and Saufia, as it could not be detected in other landraces. The structures of the bioactive molecules giving the ions at *m/z* 151 and 165 are shown in Figure 2.

The chemical constituents of betel essential oil consist mainly of terpenes and phenols [4], and the characteristic flavor of betel is due to phenols. The terpenoids include 1,8-cineole,cadinene, camphene, caryophyllene, limonene, and pinene. Chavicol, allylpyrocatechol, carvacrol, safrole, eugenol and chavibetol and their acetates are commonly found in PB. Bioactive molecules reported in the literature are mainly eugenol, methyl eugenol, chavibetol, APC, APC acetate, carvacrol and methyl chavicol. However, APC is the most active constituent [3 and references there in], and its concentration is correlated with biological activity [3,8]. The importance of chavicol [8], and total phenol content has also been

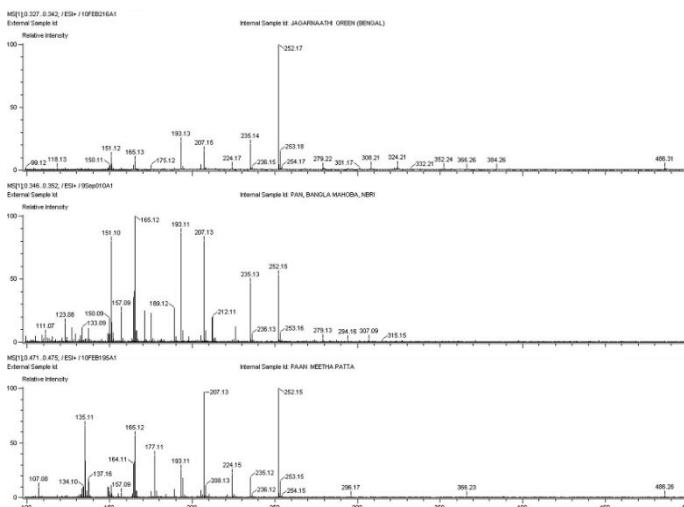


Figure 1: Leaf DART MS of *Piper betle* landraces Jalesar Green, Bangla Mahoba and MeethaPatta.

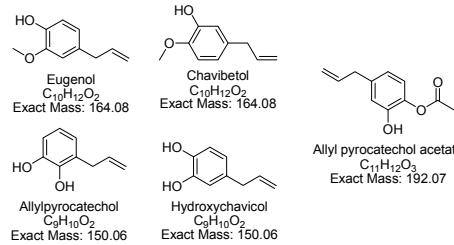


Figure 2: Structures of purified active molecules reported from *Piper betle* leaf.

reported [10]. Thus the biological activity in PB is mainly due to various phenols [3]. The DART mass spectra of PB showed peaks at m/z values corresponding to several of the reported phenols and their acetates in PB leaf; these are in agreement with earlier findings [7]. Peaks corresponding to chavicol, APC, chavibetol, chavicol acetate, APC acetate, chavibetol acetate and allylpyrocatecholdiacetate were detected in PB landraces. Due to the same molecular weight of some of the phenols it was not possible to distinguish them from the DART mass spectra alone, as in the case of the peaks at m/z 151 and 165, which could be respectively due to APC and /or carvacrol and eugenol and /or chavibetol.

The percent ionization of the peaks at m/z 151, 165 and 193 is shown in Table 1. Based on total phenolic content (sum of these three peaks) the top four landraces in descending order were Jalesar Green>Kalkatiya>Sirugamani>Deshi. Most of the earlier findings suggested that the biological activity of PB was due to APC [3 and references therein] and possibly its acetate, which was detected unambiguously in the present study. The level of APC and /or carvacrol varied in landraces and the highest value was observed in landrace Mahoba; other notable landraces with high contents were Sirugamani>Jalesar Green >Deshi Bangla. Based on eugenol and /or CHV, the landraces may be graded as Saufia> Bangla Mahoba>MeethaPatta>Deshi Bangla >Deshi>the rest.

Most of the studies of PB were made using a crude extract of one or two landraces [3]. Significant differences in total phenol content and antioxidant activity in five PB landraces, mainly BanglaMahoba, Deshi Bangla, Kaker, KapooriVellaikodi and Madras PanKapoori were reported by Tripathi [10]. Our findings based on DART-MS also show marked differences in phenols, which are in agreement with the reported findings [10].

Table 1: Percent ionization of three biologically active phenols allylpyrocatechol /carvacrol (m/z 151), eugenol/chavibetol (m/z 165), and allylpyrocatechol acetate (m/z 193) in the leaf of *Piper betle* landraces obtained from different locations in India. (Mean \pm SD, n=5).

S.No.	<i>P. betle</i> landraces	Allylpyrocatechol /Carvacrol (m/z 151)	Eugenol/Chavibetol (m/z 165)	Allylpyrocatechol acetate (m/z 193)
1	Bangla	11.8 \pm 1.5	7.2 \pm 1.4	16.5 \pm 3.3
2	Bangla Meetha	7.7 \pm 1.0	6.5 \pm 2.1	12.3 \pm 1.5
3	Bangla Mahoba	13.3 \pm 1.7	13.1 \pm 1.0	17.2 \pm 0.8
4	Deshi Bangla	16.3 \pm 1.8	10.4 \pm 1.1	18.6 \pm 1.08
5	Desawari	nd	nd	20.8 \pm 0.9
6	Deshi	14.4 \pm 1.6	10.4 \pm 1.6	21.1 \pm 0.7
7	Ganzaam	6.2 \pm 1.5	1.6 \pm 0.5	10.3 \pm 2.0
8	Jalesar Green	17.2 \pm 0.7	8.1 \pm 0.5	23.1 \pm 0.6
9	Jalesar White	13.2 \pm 0.7	4.8 \pm 1.4	21.6 \pm 1.0
10	Jagarnathi Green	6.7 \pm 4.0	5.2 \pm 0.8	15.0 \pm 2.6
11	Jagarnathi White	6.5 \pm 1.2	3.0 \pm 0.5	11.3 \pm 1.3
12	Kalkatiya	15.5 \pm 3.3	7.2 \pm 0.6	24.7 \pm 0.8
13	Maghi White	9.5 \pm 2.2	5.2 \pm 2.3	15.2 \pm 1.6
14	Maghi	5.1 \pm 2.7	4.6 \pm 1.8	8.7 \pm 0.6
15	Mahoba	20.1 \pm 1.5	nd	22.6 \pm 1.4
16	MaiharDeshi	9.8 \pm 1.3	4.8 \pm 2.0	12.8 \pm 0.3
17	MeethaPatta	4.9 \pm 1.0	12.7 \pm 2.6	6.2 \pm 1.1
18	Sanchi *	5.0 \pm 0.8	2.5 \pm 0.9	15.7 \pm 2.7
19	Sanchi**	7.0 \pm 2.1	1.9 \pm 1.1	16.6 \pm 3.2
20	Saufia	1.2 \pm 0.4	18.2 \pm 1.4	6.5 \pm 0.8
21	Sirugamani	19.7 \pm 2.5	5.0 \pm 0.2	22.2 \pm 0.5

* (V) Varanasi, **(WB) West Bengal; nd- not detected

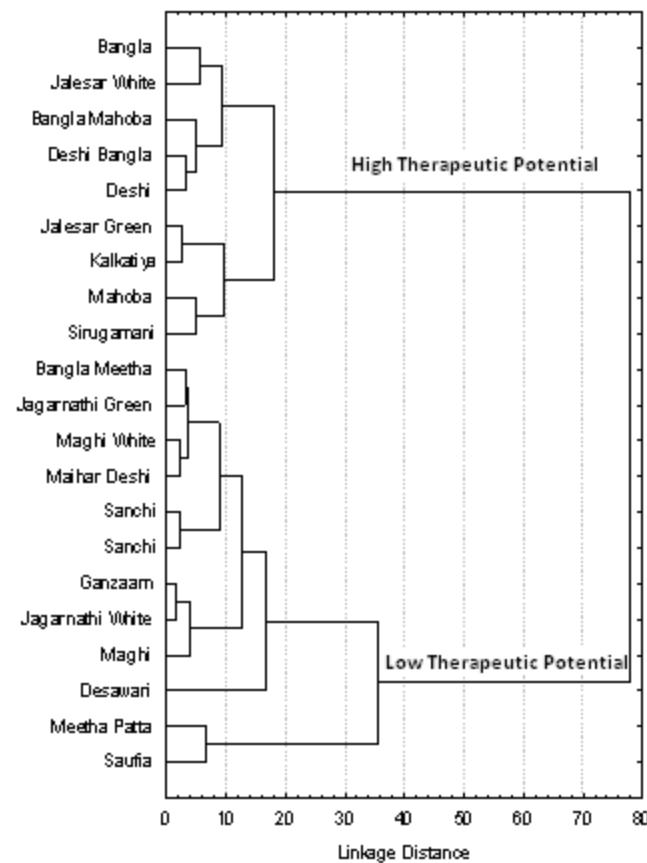


Figure 3: Tree view of *P. betle* landraces according to average of three biologically active ions (m/z 151, 165 and 193) estimated by DART MS. Upper cluster from Bangla to Sirugamani and the lower cluster from Bangla Meetha to Saufia, respectively, represent higher and lower therapeutic potential of the landraces.

The clustering of twenty-one PB landraces was based on three ions (Table 1) and summarised in Figure 3. The average of the three ions clustered twenty-one landraces into two broad groups. Landraces Bangla, Bangla Mahoba, Deshi Bangla, Deshi, Jalesar Green, Jalesar White, Kalkatiya, Mahoba, and Sirugamani, with higher

APC and/or carvacrol contents, clustered in one group. The other group comprised landraces Bangla Meetha, Desawari, GanzaamUdisa, Jagarnathi Green, Jagarnathi White, Maghi white, Maghi, MaiharDeshi, MeethaPatta, Sanchi*, Sanchi**, and Saufia, with low APC and/or carvacrol or higher eugenol and/or CHV content. Considering the importance of APC in biological activity, groups with high and low APC were, respectively, designated as high and low therapeutic potential groups. Thus, the DART-MS profiles for APC and CHV is a good predictor of the therapeutic potential of *P. betle* landraces. Percent ionization of bioactive molecules can be taken as a parameter to compare the relative biological activity of landraces based on the assumption that ions are directly related with molecules. Further studies on quantification and biological activity are required to authenticate these findings. It is estimated that in India nearly one hundred PB landraces are in cultivation [3]. Thus, in order to select the most suitable ones for medicinal uses, it is important to screen the available biodiversity by generating their chemical profile. Thus screening of the landraces will not only validate existing information, but will also yield new data on their chemical constituents for predicting biological activity. It will also help in optimizing mass cultivation of the best suited landraces for obtaining drug(s) leading to the best utilization of natural resource.

Statistical analysis: Neighbor joining (NJ) tree for PB landraces was generated from the *m/z* peak data such that only the polymorphic peaks are included in the analysis. The binary state criterion (present/ absent) was used for generating the NJ tree by FREETREE software using the Jaccard coefficient and the NJ method. Four peaks present in all PB landraces screened were not included in this analysis. Cluster analysis was based on three known biologically active ions (*m/z* 151, *m/z* 165 and *m/z* 193) after standardization (mean=0, SD=1). All statistical analyses were performed on STATISTICA windows version 7.0 (StatSoft, Inc., USA).

Experimental

Twenty-one PB Indian landraces, namely Bangla, Bangla Mahoba, Deshi Bangla, Desawari, Deshi, Jalesar Green, Jalesar White, Kalkatiya, Mahoba and Sirugamani (from Lucknow); GanzaamUdisa, Jagarnathi Green, Jagarnathi White, Maghi White, MaiharDeshi, and Sanchi* (from Varanasi); and Bangla Meetha, Maghi, MeethaPatta, Sanchi** and Saufia (from Kolkata); were used in the study. The leaves were collected from different markets and institutions in India and were washed and wiped dry before use. The mass spectrometer (JMS-T100 LC; AccuTof, atmospheric pressure ionization time-of-flight mass spectrometer, Jeol, Tokyo, Japan) fitted with a DART ion source was used in the study. The mass spectrometer was operated in positive-ion mode with a resolving power of 6000 (full-width at half-maximum). The orifice 1 potential was set to 28 V, resulting in minimal fragmentation. The ring lens and orifice 2 potentials were set to 13 and 5 V, respectively. Orifice 1 was set at 100°C. The RF ion guide potential was 300 V. The DART ion source was operated with helium gas flowing at approximately 4.0 L/min. The gas heater was set to 300°C. The potential on the discharge needle electrode of the DART source was set to 3000 V; electrode 1 was 100 V and the grid was at 250 V. Freshly cut pieces of betel leaf were positioned in the gap between the DART source and mass spectrometer for measurements. Data acquisition was from *m/z* 10 to 1050. Exact mass calibration was accomplished by including a mass spectrum of neat polyethylene glycol (PEG), as well as a 1:1 mixture of PEG 200 and PEG 600 in the data file. *m*-Nitrobenzyl alcohol was also used for calibration. The mass calibration was accurate to within \pm 0.002 *m/z* and the elemental composition was determined on selected peaks using the Mass Center software.

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Total Phenolic Content and Antioxidative Properties of Commercial Tinctures Obtained from Some Lamiaceae Plants

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The antioxidant level of commercial tinctures from three Lamiaceae plants, *Salvia officinalis*, *Mentha piperita*, and *Melissa officinalis*, have been determined by the Folin-Ciocalteu method, the 2,2-diphenyl-2-picrylhydrazyl hydrate (DPPH) radical scavenging technique and ABTS assay. Total phenolic content was expressed as GAE (gallic acid equivalent) and ranged from 0.24 to 3.99 mg/mL. Antioxidant activity in the ABTS assay, calculated as TEAC (Trolox equivalent antioxidant capacity), ranged from 23.5 to 35.6 µmol Trolox/mL, while in the DPPH method, the EC₅₀ value ranged from 0.04 to 0.07 mL/assay. Radical scavenging activity was correlated with total phenolic content. Correlations between ABTS and F-C methods, DPPH and F-C methods and ABTS and DPPH methods were calculated. The obtained results can be useful as additional information about the antioxidant activity of galenical preparations.

Keywords: Antioxidant activity, DPPH, ABTS, Total phenolic content, *Salvia officinalis*, *Mentha piperita*, *Melissa officinalis*, Galenical preparations.

Natural antioxidants play a very important role in the prevention of different diseases such as cancer, arteriosclerosis and neurodegenerative diseases [1-3]. Therefore, there is an increasing interest in the antioxidant effects of natural compounds from medicinal plants and pharmaceutical products for health [4-8]. In particular, a great number of different species and aromatic herbs have been investigated for their antioxidant activity [9,10]. Lamiaceae plants are widely cultivated and mainly used in medicine and as culinary herbs. *Salvia officinalis*, one of the best known plants from the family, is rich in flavonoids (luteolin and apigenin glycoside), tannins (e.g., rosmarinic acid, caffeoate oligomers) phenolic glycosides and triterpenes [11-18]. Sage is frequently used by people suffering from gastrointestinal problems and excessive perspiration, as well as a gargle for inflammation in the mouth or throat [19]. Peppermint (*Mentha × piperita*) contains, for example, caffeoic acid derivatives, flavonoids, phenolic acids, volatile oil, and terpenoids. Peppermint leaves have spasmolytic, analgesic and carminative activities [20,21]. The leaves of lemon balm (*Melissa officinalis*), a herb found in southern Europe and the Mediterranean region, contain caffeoate oligomers, flavonoids, terpenoids and volatile oil. Lemon balm has spasmolytic and sedative properties and is commonly used in the form of tea infusions [22-24], and in extract form given orally to treat gastrointestinal troubles and nervous disorders.

One of the easiest forms of pharmaceutical formulation is either an alcoholic extract of leaves or other plant material. It is easy for production and usage by patients, and this, therefore, is a reason of its popularity. The pharmaceutical formulations, e.g. extracts or tinctures, have an impact on the pharmacokinetics, pharmacodynamics and the safety profile of medicaments.

The objective of this work was to evaluate the antioxidant activity of commercial alcoholic extracts of *Salvia officinalis*, *Mentha piperita* and *Melissa officinalis* and to correlate these results with their total phenolic content. All products were produced by pharmaceutical companies and can be obtained as OTC preparations in a dispensing pharmacy or herbal shop. This kind of galenical formulation is easily available on the market and is very popular

among patients. Because of this it is worth confirming if it has antioxidative properties and in this way whether it can be of added benefit for health.

Total phenolic content and antioxidant activity: The total phenolic content (TPC), determined by the Folin-Ciocalteau method, expressed in gallic acid equivalents (GAE), ranged from 2.12 (± 0.03) to 3.00 (± 0.03) for lemon balm samples, from 2.02 (± 0.02) to 3.99 (± 0.03) for sage samples, and from 0.24 (± 0.01) to 0.80 (± 0.02) for peppermint samples (Table 1).

Table 1: Total phenolic contents (TPC) of analyzed samples (n=3). All values are expressed as mean \pm SD for three determinations.

Lemon balm samples	TPC, GAE (mg /mL)	Sage samples	TPC, GAE (mg /mL)	Peppermint samples	TPC, GAE (mg /mL)
MoIntr1	3.00 \pm 0.03	SoTinc1	3.69 \pm 0.05	MpGtt1	0.73 \pm 0.02
MoIntr2	2.46 \pm 0.04	SoTinc2	2.08 \pm 0.05	MpGtt2	0.64 \pm 0.01
MoIntr3	2.57 \pm 0.04	SoTinc3	2.02 \pm 0.02	MpGtt3	0.24 \pm 0.01
MoIntr4	2.12 \pm 0.03	SoTinc4	3.48 \pm 0.01	MpGtt4	0.35 \pm 0.01
MoIntr5	2.53 \pm 0.02	SoTinc5	3.01 \pm 0.03	MpGtt5	0.80 \pm 0.02

The average lowest phenol concentration was estimated for extracts from peppermint, while the highest was for sage preparations. Differences in total phenolic content between samples are due to the differences in the plant materials, and also might be caused by the method of production. *Intractum* is a galenical preparation obtained by extraction of fresh plant material with 70% ethanol in water after its stabilization, while tincture is a 70% ethanol extract produced from the dried plant material.

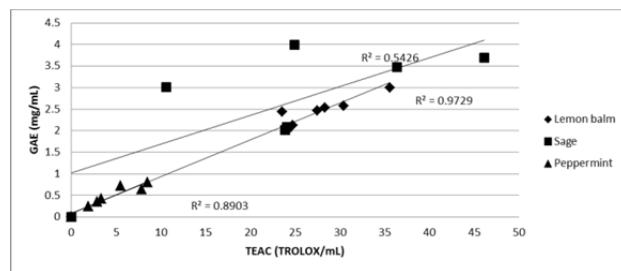
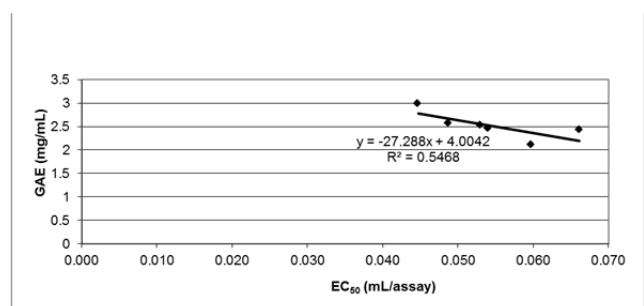
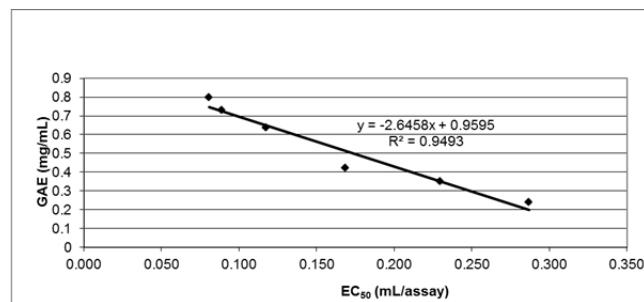
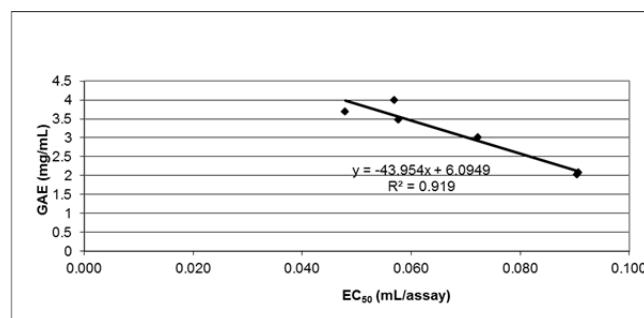
Two methods were used for antioxidant activity estimation. The results from the ABTS method are expressed as TEAC (Trolox equivalents antioxidant capacity) (Table 2). According to this assay, the best antioxidant of all the tested preparations was the lemon balm samples. The lowest antioxidant properties were obtained for peppermint preparations.

The antioxidant properties of the tested preparations were correlated with total phenolic content (Figure 1). The highest correlation was obtained for lemon balm ($R^2 = 0.973$), and the lowest for sage ($R^2 = 0.543$).

Table 2: Antioxidant capacity of analyzed samples measured in the ABTS radical scavenging assay (n=3).

TEAC ($\mu\text{mol TROLOX/mL}$)					
Sage samples	Peppermint samples	Lemon balm samples			
So Tinc 1	46.13	MpGtt 1	5.50	Mo Intr 1	35.59
S oTinc 2	24.09	MpGtt 2	7.83	Mo Intr2	27.47
S oTinc 3	23.87	MpGtt 3	1.91	Mo Intr 3	30.45
S oTinc 4	36.36	MpGtt 4	2.88	Mo Intr4	24.75
S oTinc 5	10.60	MpGtt 5	8.49	Mo Intr 5	28.35
S oTinc 6	24.93	MpGtt65	3.37	Mo Intr 6	23.56

Positive correlations between antioxidant activity and phenol content were found suggesting that the antioxidant capacity of the analyzed products was due, to a great extent, to their polyphenols.

**Figure 1:** Total phenolic content and ABTS methods correlation**Figure 2a:** Radical scavenging activity in DPPH test correlated with total phenolic content in lemon balm samples.**Figure 2b:** Radical scavenging activity in DPPH test correlated with total phenolic content in peppermint samples.**Figure 2c:** Radical scavenging activity in DPPH test correlated with total phenolic content in sage samples.**Table 3:** Antioxidant capacity in analyzed samples measured in DPPH radical scavenging assay (n=3).

EC ₅₀ (mL/assay)					
Lemon balm samples	Sage samples	Peppermint samples			
Mo Intr 1	0.04	S oTinc 1	0.05	MpGtt 1	0.09
Mo Intr 2	0.05	S oTinc 2	0.09	MpGtt2	0.12
Mo Intr 3	0.05	So Tinc 3	0.09	MpGtt3	0.29
Mo Intr 4	0.06	S oTinc 4	0.06	MpGtt4	0.23
Mo Intr 5	0.05	S oTinc 5	0.07	MpGtt5	0.08
Mo Intr 6	0.07	S oTinc 6	0.06	MpGtt6	0.17

The second method used for the estimation of antioxidant properties of the tested preparations was the DPPH radical scavenging assay. The results are expressed as EC₅₀ (mL/assay) (Table 3). The lowest values were obtained for lemon balm and the highest for peppermint, which means that lemon balm preparations were stronger antioxidants in this test compared with the sage and peppermint samples.

Radical scavenging activity from this test was also correlated with total phenolic content (Figures 2a,b,c). The highest correlation was observed for peppermint preparations ($R^2 = 0.9493$).

Additionally, the correlation between ABTS and DPPH methods was estimated (Table 4). ABTS and DPPH radical scavenging activities correlated very well for lemon balm samples ($R^2=0.897$), while for sage samples this correlation was the lowest ($R^2=0.364$).

Table 4: Correlation between two radical scavenging assays: ABTS and DPPH assays.

Sample	y	R ²
Lemon balm	$y = -532.93x + 57.35$	$R^2 = 0.897$
Peppermint	$y = -28.908x + 9.69$	$R^2 = 0.767$
Sage	$y = -403.75x + 55.69$	$R^2 = 0.364$

Galenical preparations, based on traditional recipes, are produced in many countries. The pharmacological activity connected with the plant material can be extended also by their antioxidant properties, which are closely linked with the way of production – either extracts or tinctures.

The results obtained in the present study exhibit that high antioxidant and free radical scavenging activities depend both on the plant material and the form of the product. Therefore, studies on pharmaceutical preparations would be of great importance. Pharmaceutical products from Lamiaceae plants are widely used in medicine. Therefore, they seem to have additional benefits for health as antioxidants.

Experimental

Chemicals and reagents: Organic solvents and reagents used were of analytical grade. Water was glass-distilled and deionised. Methanol (MeOH) was obtained from Merck (Germany), Folin-Ciocalteu (F-C) reagent (POCH) from Sigma Aldrich, and ABTS (2,2'-azinobis(3-ethylbenzothiazoline-6 sulfonic acid) diammonium salt) and potassium persulfate (di-potassium peroxodisulfate) from Sigma-Aldrich.

Standards: Gallic acid was purchased from Koch-Light Laboratories, UK, and Trolox (6-hydroxy-2,5,7,8-tetramethyl-chroman-2-carboxylic acid) from Hoffman-La Roche.

Plant material: The following commercial methanolic extracts, obtained from a dispensing pharmacy as over the counter products, were analyzed: five different extracts (*intractum*) of lemon balm - **MoIntr1, MoIntr2, MoIntr3, MoIntr4, MoIntr5, MoIntr6** - (PhytoPharmKlękaSA, Poland), 10 different tinctures (*tinctura*)

from peppermint – **MpGtt1, MpGtt2, MpGtt3, MpGtt4, MpGtt5, MpGtt6** (Hasco-Lek SA, Wrocław Poland, Aflofarm Sp. z o.o., Poland, “Gemi” Karczew, Poland), and sage **SoTinc1, SoTinc2, SoTinc3, SoTinc4, SoTinc5, SoTinc6** (HerbapolKraków S.A., Poland, PhytoPharm, Klęka S.A., Poland). All products differed from one another by serial number and expiry date.

Total phenols determination: Total phenolic content was determined spectrophotometrically according to the method of Singleton & Rossi [25]. Briefly, 250 µL of the galenical preparation as methanolic solutions were added to tubes. Next, 250 µL F-C reagent, 500 µL of saturated sodium carbonate and 4 mL of distilled water were added immediately. Samples were vortexed and left for 30 min. incubation at room temperature away from light. After 20 min incubation, the samples were centrifuged for 5 min at 4000 rpm. Supernatants were used for spectrophotometric determination at 725 nm. The assay was calibrated against gallic acid standard solutions of different concentrations (0.025 – 0.15 mg/mL) and the results were expressed as GAE (gallic acid equivalents). Data presented are average of 3 measurements.

DPPH radical scavenging activity: The experimental method followed that of Brand-Williams *et al.* [26]. A methanolic solution of DPPH (concentration 0.25 mg/mL) was prepared 2 h before the analysis and left at room temperature in the dark. 0, 20, 40, 60, 80, 100 µL of methanolic samples of each galenical preparation were added to tubes and filled with methanol to 100 µL. Next, 2 mL of methanol and 0.25 mL DPPH solution were added to all tubes, vortexed and left for 20 min in a dark place; the absorbance was

then taken at 517 nm. Methanol was used as a blank solution. Results are the average of 3 measurements.

ABTS radical scavenging assay: Experiments were conducted according to Re *et al.* [27], with small modifications. Trolox (2.5 mM) was prepared in methanol for use as a stock standard. Working standards were prepared daily on the dilution with methanol. ABTS and potassium persulfate were dissolved in distilled water to a final concentration: 7 mM and 2.45 mM, respectively. These 2 solutions were mixed and kept in the dark at room temperature for 16 h before use in order to produce the ABTS radical (ABTS⁺). For the study of phenolic compounds, the ABTS radical solution was diluted with distilled water to an absorbance of 0.700 at 734 nm. 20 µL of methanolic samples of the galenical preparations (diluted 10, 20 or 30 times) or Trolox standards (final concentration 0.2 – 1.757 µmol/mL) were added to 2 mL diluted ABTS⁺ solution and the absorbance reading taken after mixing and a 6 min incubation at room temperature. Distilled water was used as blank solution. All determinations were carried out in triplicate. The percentage of inhibition of absorbance at 734 nm was calculated and plotted as a function of concentration of either antioxidants or Trolox. The results were expressed as TEAC (Trolox equivalents).

Statistical analysis: All data were the average of triplicate analyses. Mean values, standard deviations (SD), medians, and both minimum and maximum contents of all achieved results have also been determined. Correlation analysis of antioxidant activity was carried out using the correlation and regression program in the Microsoft EXCEL program.

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Synthesis, Antifungal Activity and Structure-Activity Relationships of Vanillin oxime-N-O-alkanoates

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Vanillin oxime-N-O-alkanoates were synthesized following reaction of vanillin with hydroxylamine hydrochloride, followed by reaction of the resultant oxime with acyl chlorides. The structures of the compounds were confirmed by IR, ¹H, ¹³C NMR and mass spectral data. The test compounds were evaluated for their *in vitro* antifungal activity against three phytopathogenic fungi *Macrophomina phaseolina*, *Rhizoctonia solani* and *Sclerotium rolfsii* by the poisoned food technique. The moderate antifungal activity of vanillin was slightly increased following its conversion to vanillin oxime, but significantly increased after conversion of the oxime to oxime-N-O-alkanoates. While vanillin oxime-N-O-dodecanoate with an EC₅₀ value 73.1 µg/mL was most active against *M. phaseolina*, vanillin oxime-N-O-nonanoate with EC₅₀ of value 66.7 µg/mL was most active against *R. solani*. The activity increased with increases in the acyl chain length and was maximal with an acyl chain length of nine carbons.

Keywords: Vanillin, Oxime esters, Structure activity relationships, Antifungal activity, *Macrophomina phaseolina*, *Rhizoctonia solani*, *Sclerotium rolfsii*.

Naturally occurring vanillin (4-hydroxy-3-methoxybenzaldehyde) is one of the most abundant aroma ingredients of the *Vanilla* plant. It contributes a great deal to the typical vanilla flavor and is widely used in the perfume, fragrance and food industry. Vanillin is produced by a multistep curing process of the green pods of *V. planifolia*, *V. pompona* and *V. tahitiensis* [1]. The ethyl acetate extract of leaves and stem of *V. fragrans* has been reported to be toxic to mosquito larvae [2]. Vanillin has been shown to exhibit moderate antifungal [3,4] and antioxidant activity [5]. It showed minimal inhibitory concentrations (MICs) of 1250 and 738 µg/mL and minimal fungicidal concentrations (MFCs) of 5000 and 1761 µg/mL against *Candida albicans* and *C. neoformans*, respectively [6]. Structure activity relationship studies on vanillin and related aldehydes revealed that the aldehyde moiety plays a significant role in imparting antifungal activity [7].

Oxime ether groups of compounds are known for their insecticidal synergistic and insecticidal activity [8]. Among the large number of oxime compounds, piperonal oxime N-O-alkyl ether exhibited insecticide synergistic activity far greater than that of piperonyl butoxide [9]. Several of these also exhibited anti-insect properties against *Dysdercus kocnigii* [10] and *Schistocerca gregaria* [11]. Chowdhury *et al.* synthesized alkoxy-substituted benzaldoxime ethers and evaluated their IGR activity against the desert locust (*S. gregaria*) [11]. On topical application (at 20 µg/nymph), the most active 3-methoxy-4-ethoxybenzaldoxime-N-methyl ether, caused 100% deformity. Very recently, the activity of benzoylphenylureas (BPUs) containing oxime ether and oxime ester groups were found effective against larvae of oriental armyworm and mosquito [12]. In another study, oxime esters of 2-tridecanone exhibited significant nematicidal activity against the root knot nematode *Meloidogyne incognita* [13]. Essential oil based citral oxime esters also exhibited significant antifungal activity against *Rhizoctonia solani* and *Sclerotium rolfsii* [14].

Macrophomina phaseolina, *Sclerotium rolfsii* and *Rhizoctonia solani* are major soilborne pathogens of many important crops

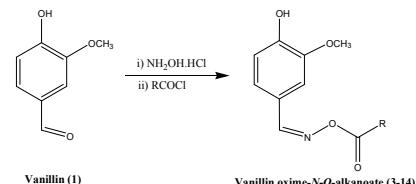


Figure 1: Synthesis of vanillin oxime-N-O-alkanoates

worldwide. They cause damping-off of seedlings, and rot and collar rot on young and mature plants [15]. Control of these fungi is rather difficult in soil because of the extensive host range, their fast growing capacity, and the production of sclerotia that may persist in the soil for many years.

Table 1: % age yield of synthesized compounds.

S. No.	Compounds	% Yield
2	R = H	98.6
3	R = COCH ₃	88.5
4	R = COCH ₂ CH ₃	87.4
5	R = COCH ₂ CH ₂ CH ₃	84.4
6	R = COCH(CH ₃) ₂	82.3
7	R = COCH ₂ (CH ₂) ₂ CH ₃	65.7
8	R = COCH ₂ CH(CH ₃) ₂	83.7
9	R = COC(CH ₃) ₃	79.7
10	R = COCH ₂ (CH ₂) ₃ CH ₃	79.2
11	R = COCH ₂ (CH ₂) ₄ CH ₃	80.6
12	R = COCH ₂ (CH ₂) ₆ CH ₃	89.6
13	R = COCH ₂ (CH ₂) ₇ CH ₃	90.3
14	R = COCH ₂ (CH ₂) ₉ CH ₃	80.2

Esters of vanillin and vanillin oxime are also known for their fragrance properties [16]. Since naturally occurring vanillin exhibits moderate antifungal activity, efforts were made to enhance the activity by chemical modifications of the lead molecule. The present paper reports the synthesis, antifungal activity and structural

activity relationship (SAR) of naturally occurring vanillin and its oxime esters against *M. phaseolina*, *R. solani* and *S. rolfsii*.

Vanillin, on reaction with hydroxylamine hydrochloride, yielded vanillin oxime (**2**), which is usually a 1:1 mixture of *E* and *Z* isomers. The structure of vanillin oxime was confirmed by IR, NMR and mass spectral data. The IR spectra of the compound showed presence of absorption bands at 3600, 1665 and 945 cm⁻¹ confirming formation of oxime moiety. In the ¹H NMR spectrum, the aldehyde peak in vanillin recorded at δ 9.8 was absent in vanillin oxime. Appearance of an additional peak at δ 8.10 due to the H-1 proton indicated the presence of the aldehyde oxime moiety. Vanillin oxime also showed an additional D₂O exchangeable proton singlet at δ 2.03 corresponding to the oxime proton. The ¹³C NMR spectra of vanillin and vanillin oxime exhibited almost similar patterns of carbon resonances except that the oxime carbon (C-1) appeared downfield at δ 150.39 and the peak appearing at δ 191.02 for the aldehydic group was absent. The mass spectrum of vanillin oxime showed protonated and sodiated molecular adduct ion peaks at *m/z* 168.0 [M+H]⁺ and 189.9 [M+Na]⁺.

Vanillin oxime-*N*-O-alkanoates were prepared following the reaction of compound **2** with different acid chlorides (Figure 1). The compounds were purified by either column chromatography or preparative TLC. The percentage yield of the different products is given in Table 1. The IR spectra of the compounds showed sharp band at 1760 cm⁻¹ confirming formation of oxime ester. The ¹H NMR spectra of the synthesized compounds (**3-14**) exhibited peaks characteristic of the vanillin oxime ester moiety. The pattern of the proton peaks was almost the same in a homologous series, but differed from each other with respect to the number of peaks corresponding to the methylene or methyl protons constituting the alkanoyl moiety. The ¹H NMR spectrum of the representative vanillin oxime-*N*-O-heptanoate (**11**) showed two doublets at δ 6.93 and δ 7.45, and one doublet at δ 7.04 corresponding to aromatic protons. Compound **2** has two hydroxyl functions and either of them could have been acylated. Since a peak at δ 6.03, corresponding to a phenolic OH in vanillin, remained intact and an oxime proton detected at δ 2.03 in compound **2** was absent in the oxime ester molecule, it was inferred that only the oxime function had been acylated. Beside the oximine proton (H-1) at δ 8.26, triplet and multiplet peaks at δ 2.45 (H-2') and δ 1.71 (H-3'), respectively, were characteristic of the molecules. Compound **11**, in its ¹³C NMR spectrum, exhibited 15 peaks. The characteristic carbon resonances at δ 171.52, 156.11 and 56.22 correspond to acyl carbon (C-3'), oxime carbon (C-1) and a methoxy group (C-8) respectively while peaks at δ 149.24, 147.02, 124.40, 122.38, 114.40 and 107.57 were attributed to aromatic carbons, those at δ 31.44, 24.89, 32.91, 22.49 and 14.05 corresponded to carbons of the heptanoyl chain.

The mass fragmentation pattern of compound **11** is depicted in Figure 2. It showed a sodiated molecular adduct ion peak at *m/z* 302 along with another potassiated adduct ion peak at *m/z* 319. MS-MS of the sodiated ion peak resulted in fragment ion peaks at *m/z* 189.1 and 171.9 due to sequential loss of CH₃(CH₂)₅CO- and CH₃(CH₂)₅COOH, and at *m/z* 150.0 due to the loss of CH₃(CH₂)₅COOH from the parent ion. On the basis of NMR and mass spectral data, the compound was identified as vanillin oxime-*N*-heptanoate. The NMR and mass spectra of other oxime alkanoates exhibited patterns of peaks characteristic of vanillin oxime-*N*-O-alkanoates.

The test compounds were assayed for their antifungal activity against the phytopathogenic fungi *M. phaseolina*, *R. solani* and

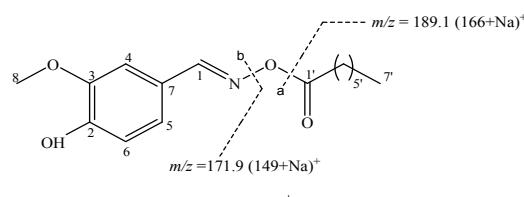


Figure 2: Mass fragmentation pattern of compound **11**.

Table 2: Antifungal activity of test compounds.

Compounds	<i>M. phaseolina</i>	<i>R. solani</i>	<i>S. rolfsii</i>
1	566.0	382.0	633.6
2	401.6	346.1	495.1
3	179.8	207.7	384.4
4	101.6	199.6	375.5
5	199.9	143.0	345.9
6	174.7	129.8	321.2
7	142.6	94.6	227.7
8	105.4	74.9	210.7
9	139.3	91.4	190.1
10	119.2	86.9	188.2
11	91.8	80.7	171.4
12	85.5	66.7	161.5
13	79.9	97.5	205.7
14	73.1	205.6	218.0
Bavistin®	12.2	10.4	15.5

S. rolfsii (Table 2). The test compounds exhibited significant antifungal activity. The activity was slightly increased following conversion of vanillin to vanillin oxime, but significantly increased after conversion of the oxime to oxime esters. Among the various oxime esters, vanillin oxime-*N*-O-dodecanoate (**14**) and vanillin oxime-*N*-O-decanoate (**13**), with respective EC₅₀ values of 73.1 μ g/mL and 79.9 μ g/mL were the most active. However, compared with the standard reference, Bavistin® (EC₅₀ 12.2 μ g/mL against *M. phaseolina*), the oxime esters were less active.

A similar trend was evident with *R. solani*. Vanillin oxime-*N*-O-nonanoate (**12**) and vanillin oxime-*N*-O-isovalerate (**08**) with respective EC₅₀ value of 66.7 μ g/mL and 74.9 μ g/mL were most effective. Vanillin oxime-*N*-O-dodecanoate (**14**) and vanillin oxime-*N*-O-acetate (**03**), with respective long and short acyl chains, were moderately active (EC₅₀ 205–208 μ g/mL).

Vanillin oxime-*N*-O-nonanoate (**12**) was found to be the most active (EC₅₀ = 161.5 μ g/mL) against *S. rolfsii*. Other oxime esters (heptyl, hexyl, pivovyl and decanoyl) with EC₅₀ values ranging from 171.4 μ g/mL to 205.7 μ g/mL, were moderately active. On the basis of structure-activity relationships, it was revealed that the activity was dose dependent and increased with increase in acid chain length up to C-9 or C-10 and decreased thereafter for *R. solani* and *S. rolfsii*. However, in the case of *M. phaseolina*, the activity increased till the acyl chain length reached C-12. It was thus concluded that vanillin and related compounds bearing carbonyl functions can be a good template for developing ecologically sound pest control chemicals. Because of their environmentally benign nature, such compounds could gain considerable importance.

Experimental

Chromatography: TLC was performed on 200 μ m thick plastic or aluminum TLC plates (silica gel 60 F₂₅₄). Purification of compounds was achieved either by Prep-TLC or CC over silica gel (60–120 mesh) preactivated at 110°C.

Spectroscopy: ¹H NMR and ¹³C NMR spectra were recorded on a Bruker Avance^{II} 400 Spectrometer (400 MHz). Samples were dissolved in either CDCl₃ or DMSO (D-6). Tetramethyl silane (TMS) was used as internal standard. Chemical shifts were recorded

in δ (ppm) values relative to TMS and J values are expressed in Hertz. MS were recorded using a Thermo LC-MS-MS Spectrometer (Thermo Electron Corporation USA) equipped with a P-2000 binary pump. Mass was determined using an ESI source with a Finnigan LCQ tune plus program fitted with a MAX-detector. Xcalibur Software was used for the purpose of identification, quantification and fragmentation of the required masses. IR spectra were recorded in Nujol with a Nicolet Impact 700 FT-infra-red-spectrophotometer.

Preparation of vanillin oxime: An equimolecular quantity of vanillin (4 g) in methanol (50 mL), hydroxylamine hydrochloride (1.35 g) and anhydrous potassium carbonate (4 g) was placed in a 250 mL round bottomed flask and the contents refluxed for 1 h. The progress of the reaction was monitored by TLC. After completion of the reaction, the mixture was cooled, filtered and the solvent removed by distillation under vacuum. Ice chilled water (100 mL) was then added and the resultant oxime was extracted with ethyl acetate (3×50 mL). The organic phase was passed through anhydrous sodium sulfate to remove traces of water and the solvent evaporated under vacuum to obtain solid vanillin oxime (2). The product crystallized from methanol as fine powder.

Compound 2

R_f : 0.4 (*n*-hexane-acetone, 7:3);

IR: 3600 (OH), 3310, 3167, 2890, 1423, 1460, 1665 (C=N), 1250, 945 (N-O), 780 cm^{-1} .

^1H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl_3): δ 2.03 (s, 1H, NOH-1), 3.90 (s, 3H, H-8), 6.03 (s, 1H, OH-2), 6.99 (d, 1H, H-6, $J = 8$ Hz), 7.01 (dd, 1H, H-4, $J = 8$ Hz and 1.8 Hz), 7.21 (d, 1H, H-5, $J = 1.8$ Hz), 8.10 (s, 1H, H-1).

^{13}C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl_3): δ 55.98 (C-8), 107.57 (C-7), 114.40 (C-6), 122.38 (C-5), 124.4 (C-4), 146.9 (C-3), 147.63 (C-2), 150.39 (C-1).

ESI-MS: m/z 168.0 [(M+H) $^+$, 100%], 189.9 [(M+Na) $^+$, 20%].

MS-MS: m/z 151 [168-OH, 100%].

General procedure for the preparation of vanillin oxime-N-O-alkanoates: To a solution of vanillin oxime (2) (0.05 mM) in dichloromethane (30 mL) in a 100 mL round bottomed flask, 2-3 drops of triethylamine (TEA) was added. An equimolar quantity of the respective acid chloride (0.05 mM), dissolved in dichloromethane (1:2), was added drop wise. The reaction mixture was stirred for 3 h with a magnetic stirrer at 0-5°C and the progress of the reaction was monitored by TLC. After completion, cold water (100 mL) was added and the mixture extracted with dichloromethane (3×50 mL). The organic phase was then washed with water (2×50 mL) and the resultant organic phase passed through anhydrous sodium sulfate to remove traces of water. The solvent was removed under vacuum at a temperature not exceeding 40°C to obtain the desired oxime-N-O-alkanoate. The products were further purified by either CC over silica gel using *n*-hexane and *n*-hexane/acetone as the eluting solvent or by prep-TLC.

Compound 11

R_f : 0.6 (*n*-hexane-acetone, 7:3).

IR: 3310 (OH), 3167, 2890, 1760 (C=O), 1650 (C=N), 1515, 1460, 1423, 780 cm^{-1} .

^1H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl_3): δ 0.88 (t, 3H, H-7', $J = 7.2$ Hz), 1.30-1.41 (m, 6H, H-4', 5', 6'), 1.71 (m, 2H, H-3'), 2.45 (t, 2H, H-2', $J = 7.6$ Hz), 3.95 (s, 3H, H-8), 6.03 (s, 1H, OH-2), 6.93 (d, 1H, H-6,

$J = 8$ Hz), 7.04 (dd, 1H, H-4, $J = 8$ Hz and 1.8 Hz), 7.45 (d, 1H, H-5, $J = 1.6$ Hz), 8.26 (s, 1H, H-1).

^{13}C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl_3): δ 14.05 (C-7'), 22.49 (C-6') 32.91 (C-5'), 28.82 (C-4'), 24.89 (C-3'), 31.44 (C-2'), 56.22 (C-8), 107.57 (C-7), 114.40 (C-6), 122.38 (C-5), 124.4 (C-4), 147.02 (C-3), 149.24 (C-2), 156.11 (C-1), 171.52 (C-1').

ESI-MS: m/z 302.0 [(M+Na) $^+$, 100%], 319.0 [(M+H+K) $^+$, 8%].

MS-MS: m/z 189.6 [302.0-CO(CH_2)₅CH₃, 75%], 171.9 [302-CH₃(CH_2)₅COOH, 30%], 150 [280.0-CH₃(CH_2)₅COOH, 20%]

Bioassay

Fungicidal activity: *Macrophomina phaseolina* (ITCC 6267), *Rhizoctonia solani* (ITCC 4502), and *Sclerotium rolfsii* (ITCC 6263) were procured from the Indian Type Culture Collection (ITCC) center, Division of Mycology and Plant Pathology, IARI, New Delhi, India. The cultures were maintained on potato dextrose agar (PDA) slants at 27±1°C and were subcultured prior to testing. Antifungal activity of the compounds was carried out employing the poisoned food technique using 4% PDA medium by the macrodilution method [17]. A stock solution of each compound was prepared by dissolving 130 mg in 2 mL acetone. An appropriate quantity of the test compound in acetone was added to molten PDA medium in order to obtain the desired concentration. The medium of each concentration and control was poured into a set of 3 Petri-dishes (3-replications) under aseptic conditions in a laminar flow chamber. The dishes were then kept under UV light in the laminar flow chamber till the medium partially solidified. A 5 mm thick disc of fungus (spore and mycelium) cut from earlier sub-cultured Petri-dishes was put at the centre of the semi solid medium in the test Petri-dishes and the lids of the dishes were fixed. Both treated and control dishes were kept in a BOD incubator at 28±1°C till the fungal growth in the control dishes was complete (4-6 days), after which the readings were taken. The mycelial growth (cm) in both treated (T) and control (C) Petri-dishes was measured diametrically in 3 different directions. From the mean results of the above readings, the percentage inhibition of growth (I) and corrected inhibition (IC) were calculated using Abbott's formula:

$$I (\%) = [(C-T)/C] \times 100$$

Percent inhibition (I) was converted to corrected per cent inhibition (IC) using the following formula.

$$IC = \{[I(\%)-C.F.] / (100-C.F.)\} \times 100$$

IC = corrected percent inhibition, CF = correction factor

$$C.F. (\text{Correction Factor}) = [(90-C)/C] \times 100$$

Where, 90 mm is the diameter of the Petri-dishes and C is the growth of the fungus in mm in control.

Statistical analysis: EC₅₀ ($\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$) (effective concentration for 50 percent inhibition of mycelial growth) was calculated from the concentration ($\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$) and corresponding IC data of each compound, with the help of Statistical Package (GW BASIC) using a personal computer (PC) [18].

Supplementary data: The spectral data of all compounds is included in a "Supplementary Data" section.

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Cinnamic Acid Derivatives Acting Against *Aspergillus* Fungi. *Taq* Polymerase I a Potential Molecular Target

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Some members of a series of cinnamic acid derivatives possess promising inhibitory activities in cellular assays against fungi of the *Aspergillus* genus. In order to search for a possible molecular target of such compounds, their role as *Taq* polymerase I inhibitors was studied. Four of the compounds studied displayed IC₅₀ values within the range of those considered active as DNA polymerase inhibitors when searching for new cytotoxic molecules. The results obtained in our molecular modeling study appear to show that the inhibitory activity depends on the presence of a stabilizing interaction between the phenylpropanoid derivatives and the residues Asp610, Thr664, Phe667, Tyr671, and Asp785 located in the active site of *Taq* polymerase I. Also, it is possible to assert that the polymerization of DNA would be the molecular target of cinnamic acid derivatives with antifungal activity, which correlates with the inhibition of *Taq* polymerase I and the quantitative descriptor for the lipophilicity (ClogP).

Keywords: Drupamine, *Aspergillus*, *Taq* polymerase I, Molecular dynamics.

Over the last twenty years the interest in natural products as sources of lead structures has resurfaced. Of the various reasons for this fact the uniqueness of their structures may be considered as one of the most important. Natural compounds and their derivatives could potentially serve as effective alternatives to conventional antifungal agents. Several phenolic compounds and derivatives have been reported to possess antifungal activity. Among others, gallic acid has been reported to prevent aflatoxin biosynthesis by *A. flavus* [1]. Two new natural products {1-(3'-methoxypropanoyl)-2-4-5-trimethoxybenzene and 2-(2Z)-(3-hydroxy-3,7-dimethylocta-2,6-dienyl)-1,4-benzenediol} isolated from the root bark of *Cordelia alliodora* have been reported as antifungal and larvicidal compounds [2]. More recently, Kim *et al.* [3] reported antifungal effects of several phenolic compounds, including cinnamic acid (**1**), *m*-coumaric acid (**12**), *p*-coumaric acid (**3**) and caffeoic acid (**6**). Antimicotic effects towards the dermatophytes *Microsporum canis*, *Epidermophyton floccosum*, *Trichophyton mentagrophytes* and *Trichophyton rubrum* were reported for 3-(3,3-dimethylallyl)-*p*-coumaric acid isolated from the aerial parts of *Baccharis grisebachii* collected in the Province of Mendoza, Argentina [4]. However, this compound did not show antifungal activity against *Aspergillus fumigatus*, *A. flavus* and *A. niger* [5].

Aspergillus was first reported in 1729 by the Italian biologist Micheli. Nowadays, more than 189 species of this genus have been described; they are among the most abundant fungi in natural environments, such as soils, plants and decomposing organic waste [6]. Several species are phytopathogenic and cause, among other kinds of damages, severe losses to cereal crops. Moreover, this genus is one of the leading producers of aflatoxins, which are highly toxic and carcinogenic compounds [7].

The *Aspergillus* genus includes saprophytic and opportunistic species; the latter may cause important infections that have become

relevant in recent years. In fact, along with *Candida* and *Fusarium* they are considered as the major opportunistic pathogens in humans [8]. The number of persons at risk has increased in the last two decades. Thus, AIDS and transplant patients, and those who receive chemotherapy with cytotoxic drugs, corticosteroids and other immunosuppressive agents are the most likely to develop such infections. In spite of the increasing knowledge about *Aspergillus* infection epidemiology, mortality caused by invasive aspergillosis still remains very high [9]. Spore inhalation significantly increases the risk of lung infections in immunocompromised patients and/or in persons who are particularly exposed, such as horticulturists or gardeners [10]. Besides, invasive aspergillosis is frequent in cancer patients [11,12]. Although *A. fumigatus* is the species most frequently isolated in clinical cases, *A. flavus*, *A. terreus* and *A. niger* are also frequent [13].

Currently, there are four classes of bioactive compounds against *Aspergillus* spp: polyenes, which include amphotericin B and their lipidic formulations; azoles and triazoles, such as fluconazole, voriconazole, itraconazole and posaconazole; aminocandines, such as caspofungin and micafungine, and allyl amines, such as terbinafin [14]. Acute toxicity and development of resistance are two drawbacks shared by these four groups which significantly restrict their applicability and fully justify the search and design of new antifungal drugs [15].

In a previous work [16] we studied the antifungal activity of a series of cinnamic acid-derived phenylpropanoids against *A. flavus*, *A. terreus* and *A. niger* (Table 1). In that study two compounds were observed to have the most significant antifungal activity: the methoxylated derivatives of the natural product drupanin (**15**) and the ubiquitous metabolite, ferulic acid (**6**). The first presented a Minimal Inhibition Concentration (MIC) similar to that of miconazol against the three tested fungal strains, while compound **6**

Table 1: Structural profile of the cinnamic acid derivatives studied.

Compound	Type	R ₁	R ₂	R ₃	A		B	
					A. terreus	A. niger	A. flavus	% 500 μM
1	A	H	H	H	250	125	250	27.6
2	A	CH ₃	H	H	>250	>250	>250	100
3	A	H	H	OH	125	125	>250	1.28
4	A	CH ₃	H	OH	>250	>250	>250	59.2
5	A	CH ₃	H	OCH ₃	>250	125	>250	68.1
6	A	H	OH	OH	125	>250	>250	nd
7	A	CH ₃	OH	OH	>250	>250	>250	nd
8	A	CH ₃	OCH ₃	OCH ₃	>250	>250	>250	nd
9	A	H	OCH ₃	OCH ₃	31.25	1.95	62.5	100
10	A	CH ₃	OCH ₃	OH	125	>250	250	184.2
11	A	H	OH	H	>250	>250	>250	nd
12	A	CH ₃	OH	H	>250	>250	>250	nd
13	A	H	γ,γ-dimethylallyl	OH	125	>250	250	193.1
14	A	CH ₃	γ,γ-dimethylallyl	OCH ₃	>250	>250	>250	nd
15	A	H	γ,γ-dimethylallyl	OCH ₃	>250	>250	>250	nd
16	A	CH ₃	γ,γ-dimethylallyl	OH	>250	>250	>250	nd
17	A	H	γ,γ-dimethylallyl	OAcOH	>250	>250	>250	nd
18	B	CH ₃	isopentyl	OH	>250	>250	>250	nd
19	B	H	OCH ₃	OH	>250	>250	>250	nd
20	B	CH ₃	H	OH	>250	>250	>250	nd
21	B	H	OH	H	>250	>250	>250	nd

was active mostly against *A. niger* and *A. terreus*. However, the possible action mechanism at a molecular level of these phenylpropanoids was not addressed in that study.

Enzymes involved in the metabolism of nucleic acids, such as polymerases, topoisomerases and girases, are molecular targets in the search for new antimicrobial drugs [17]. This strategy could be considered analogous to the screening of DNA polymerase inhibitors in the search of new potential anticancer compounds, which is now widely accepted. Plant natural products of different biogenetic origins, such as terpenes, fatty acids, and phenolics have been reported as promising inhibitors. Among them, the iridoid catalpol, isolated from *Budleja cordobensis*, and catechins, phenolic compounds from *Camellia sinensis*, are good inhibitors of DNA polymerase from the thermophilic bacillus *Thermus aquaticus* (*Taq*) [18-20]. This enzyme is currently one of the most extensively used in PCR applications because of its ability to replicate DNA at high temperatures. DNA polymerases are highly conserved proteins in respect of their active sites throughout different phylogenies [21]. On the basis of such concepts, it would be reasonable to hypothesize that if a compound inhibits a bacterial polymerase activity, it might also have a similar effect against a fungal one. In this context, the aim of our study was to determine a possible molecular target for phenylpropanoids that showed antifungal activities in cellular assays by assessing their inhibitory activity toward *Taq* DNA polymerase. Moreover, an approach to such putative molecular mechanisms was simulated using molecular modeling techniques.

Previously reported phenylpropanoids [16] were evaluated as possible *Taq* polymerase I inhibitors at a concentration of 500 μM (Table 2). Compounds 2, 3, 4, 5, 9, 10, 11, 12, 17, 18, 20 and 21 did not show any activity at such concentration. In contrast, compounds 1, 8, 13, 14 and 19 displayed inhibitory effects lower than 100%

Table 2: Antifungal activity toward *Aspergillus* [12], inhibition of *Taq* polymerase I and ClogP of selected compound.

Compound	MIC ^a (μg/mL)			Inhibition of <i>Taq</i> polymerase I		ClogP
	<i>A.</i> <i>terreus</i>	<i>A.</i> <i>niger</i>	<i>A.</i> <i>flavus</i>	% 500 μM	IC ₅₀ μM	
1	250	125	250	27.6	nd	2.115
6	>250	>250	>250	100	1.57	-1.207
7	125	125	>250	100	1.28	-0.415
8	>250	>250	>250	59.2	nd	1.111
13	>250	125	>250	68.1	nd	2.533
14	125	>250	>250	62.6	nd	4.04
15	31.25	1.95	62.5	100	184.2	3.249
16	125	>250	250	100	193.1	3.324
19	>250	>250	>250	97.5	nd	-0.444

^a Minimum inhibitory concentration according to reference [12].

nd = not determined

(Figure 1, supplementary data). Interestingly, compounds 6, 7, 15 and 16 showed 100% inhibitory activity. IC₅₀ values of those compounds displaying a 100% inhibitory effect (6, 7, 15 and 16) were then evaluated. Compounds 15 and 16 displayed IC₅₀ values of 184.2 +/- 2.5 μM and 193.1 +/- 1.9 μM, respectively. IC₅₀ values obtained for caffeic acid (6) and its methylester (7) were 1.57 +/- 0.31 μM and 1.28 +/- 0.27 μM, respectively. These results are particularly interesting considering that compounds previously reported as DNA polymerase inhibitors displayed IC₅₀ values ranging from 400 to 0.7 μM [14].

By comparing the results of *Taq* polymerase I inhibition with the MIC values previously reported for antifungal activity (Table 2), interesting conclusions can be drawn. Compound 15 displayed inhibitory activity against *Taq* polymerase I, as well as significant antifungal activity against *Aspergillus* fungi. This result suggests that the molecular mechanism of action of this compound could be the inhibition of that enzyme. Compound 16 displayed an enzymatic inhibitory effect similar to 15, but did not show antifungal activity. However, we have previously demonstrated that this phenolic compound is metabolized into 2-(2-hydroxypropan-2-yl)-2,3-dihydrobenzofuran-5-carboxylic acid by *A. terreus* [16], which could explain the lack of antifungal activity.

A more striking observation is that compound 7, which had the strongest inhibitory activity against *Taq* polymerase I, displayed just a marginal antifungal activity. A similar result was observed for compounds 6 and 19, which did not show any antifungal effect. In order to find an explanation for the discrepancy between the results of the cellular and the molecular assays, ClogP, a lipophilic quantitative molecular descriptor, was calculated for each compound {Table 2 and Table 1 (supplementary data)}. Compound 6 displayed a ClogP value of -1.207; this molecule possesses two phenolic groups and a carboxylic moiety in the side chain and, therefore, it is reasonable to assume that it is unable to pass through the cellular membrane by simple diffusion. A similar result was obtained for compounds 7 and 19, which displayed Clog P values of -0.415 and -0.444, respectively. On the contrary, drupanine derivatives (14-16) (all substituted by isoprenoid moieties in the aromatic ring) displayed ClogP values ranging from 4.041 to 3.249.

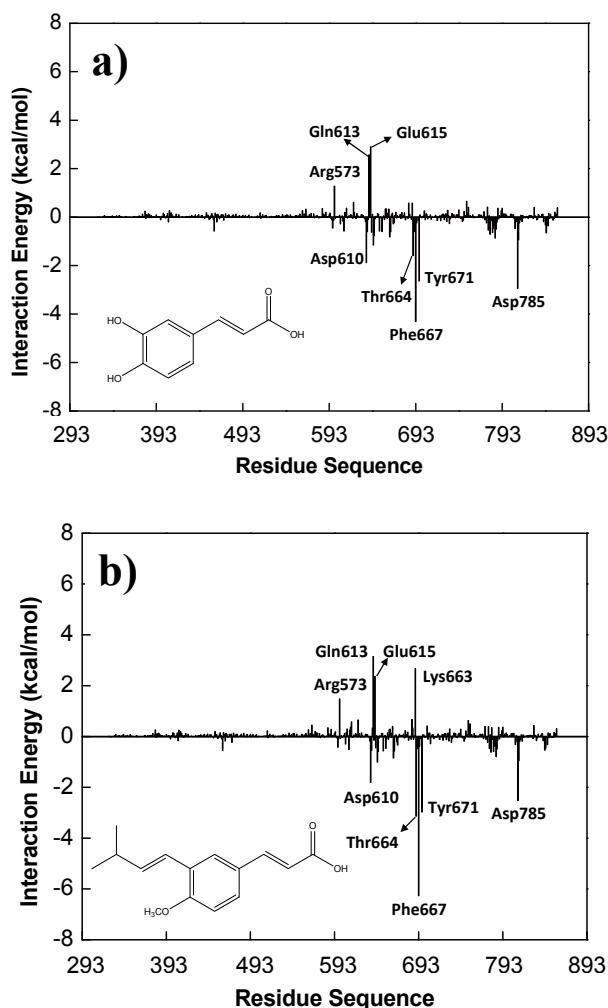


Figure 1: Inhibitor-residue interaction spectra of (a) **Tag-6** and (b) **Tag-15**, according to the MM-GBSA method. The x-axis denotes the residue number of *Taq* Polymerase I and the y-axis denotes the interaction energy between the inhibitor and specific residues.

To acquire a more-detailed insight into the mechanisms driving the bindings of cinnamic acid derivatives to the active site of *Taq* polymerase I, the structure-affinity relationship was analysed to complement the experimental results. The information obtained from these calculations is very important for quantitative analyses and is highly useful to the understanding of the binding mechanism.

Figure 1 shows the inhibitor-residue interaction spectra calculated by free energy decomposition, which suggests that the interaction spectra of compounds **6** and **15** with *Taq*-polymerase are almost the same and reflect their similar binding modes (note that the disfavoured interaction of Lys 663 with compound **15** is the only difference obtained when comparing both spectra). Closely related spectra were obtained for compounds **7** and **16** (data not shown), indicating that all the compounds possessing a significant inhibitory effect displayed very similar interaction spectra. For these compounds, the favourable residues can be divided into five groups around Asp610, Thr664, Phe667, Tyr671, and Asp785. The contribution to binding of an individual residue varies in the range of 3.1 to -6.2 kcal/mol. The dominant favourable interactions come from residues Thr664 and Asp785 performing stabilizing hydrogen bonds, as well as from residues Phe667 and Tyr671 making pi stacking interactions with the aromatic ring of the ligand. Figure 2 displays the relative spatial positions of inhibitors **6** and **15** in their

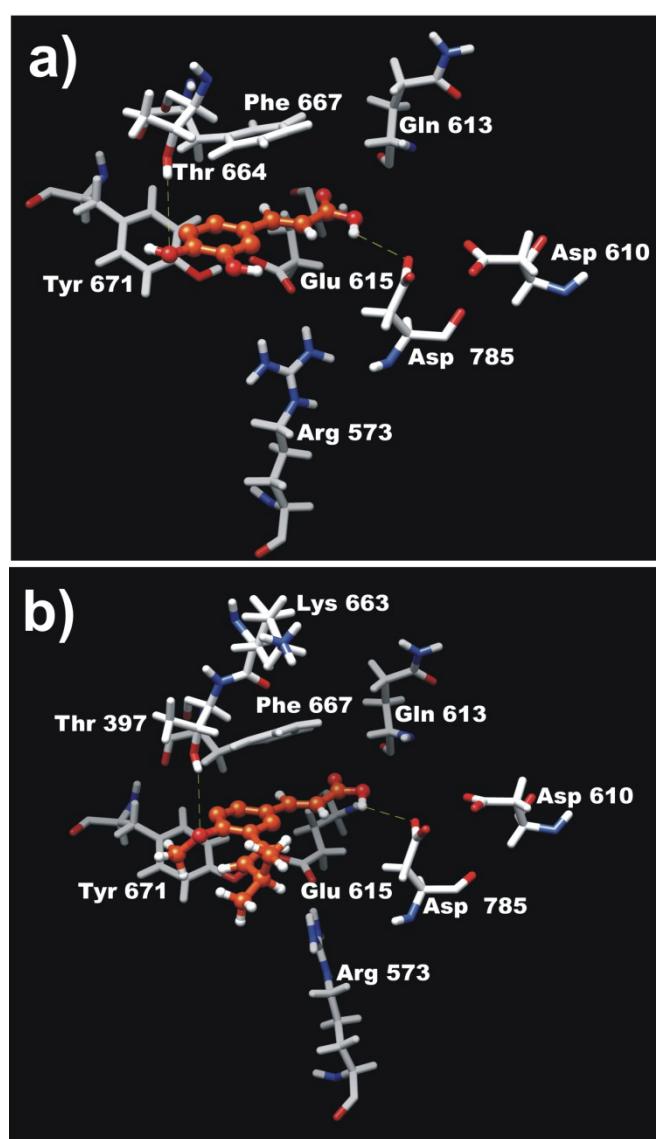


Figure 2: Spatial view of the stabilizing and destabilizing interactions obtained for compounds **6** (a) and **15** (b) interacting with *Taq* polymerase I. The different amino acids involved in this complex are shown.

lowest-energy structures at the binding complexes extracted from MD simulations. Figure 2 also shows the different stabilizing and destabilizing interactions.

It is interesting to note that the interaction spectra obtained for compounds **17** and **18** are different from those observed for compounds possessing an inhibitory effect (Figure 3). In the case of compound **17** (Figure 3a), there are three strong destabilizing interactions, namely with residues Arg573 (5.4 kcal/mol), Lys663 (7.2 kcal/mol) and Gln754 (7.4 kcal/mol). These destabilizing contributions make the binding energy obtained for compound **17** markedly higher than that obtained for compound **6**. Figure 4a displays the relative spatial positions of compound **17** in the lowest-energy structure of the binding complexes extracted from MD simulations. The main stabilizing and destabilizing interactions can be well observed in this figure. Although the residues stabilizing the complex are very similar to those observed in the complexes obtained for compounds **6** and **15**, in this case the distances between compound **17** and the stabilizing residues are larger and, therefore,

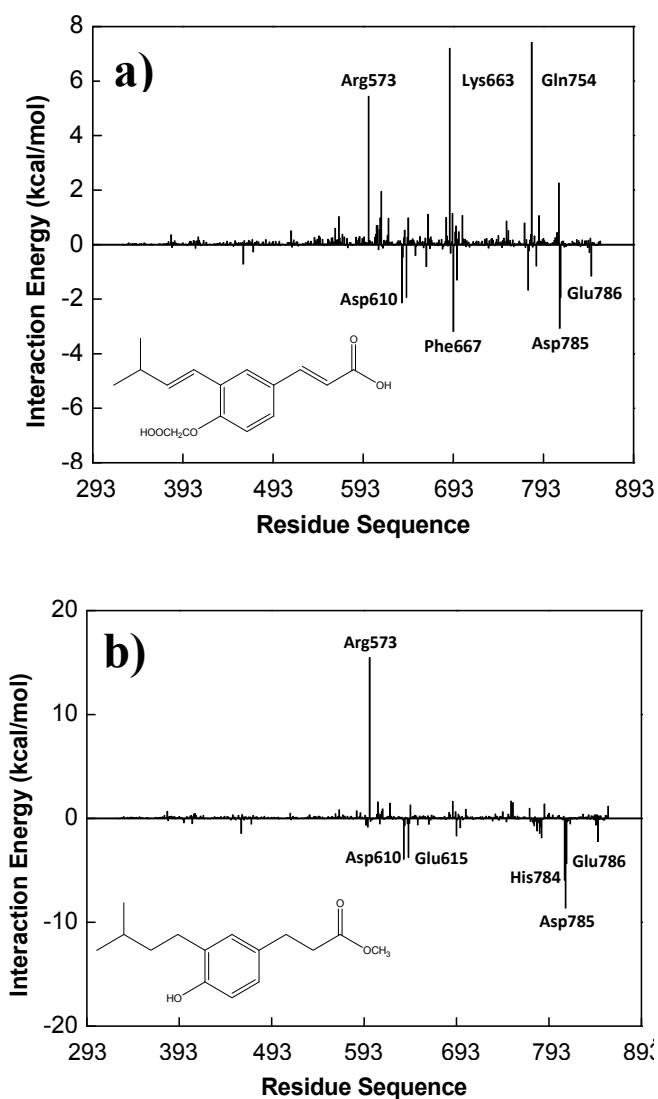


Figure 3: Inhibitor-residue interaction spectra of (a) **Tag-17** and (b) **Tag-18** according to the MM-GBSA method. The x-axis denotes the residue number of *Taq* Polymerase I and the y-axis denotes the interaction energy between the inhibitor and specific residues.

the stabilizing energies are weaker (compare Figures 2a and 4a). In addition, it should be noted that in this complex the stabilizing interaction of Thr664 disappears. The strongest destabilizing interaction was obtained for compound **18**, namely the interaction between compound **18** and Arg573, which displays about 15.4 kcal/mol (Figures 3b and 4b). This important destabilizing interaction, together with other minor ones, is responsible for the high binding energy obtained for compound **18** in comparison with those for compounds **6** and **15**, which possess inhibitory effects.

These theoretical results are in a complete agreement with our experimental data. Thus the results obtained in our molecular modelling study make it clear that it is possible to discriminate between compounds possessing significant inhibitory effects (**6**, **7**, **15** and **16**) from those which are inactive toward *Taq* polymerase I (**17** and **18**).

On the basis of our experimental and theoretical results, it is reasonable to assume that the cinnamic acid derivatives here reported are candidates to be leading structures in the design of new *Taq* polymerase I inhibitors.

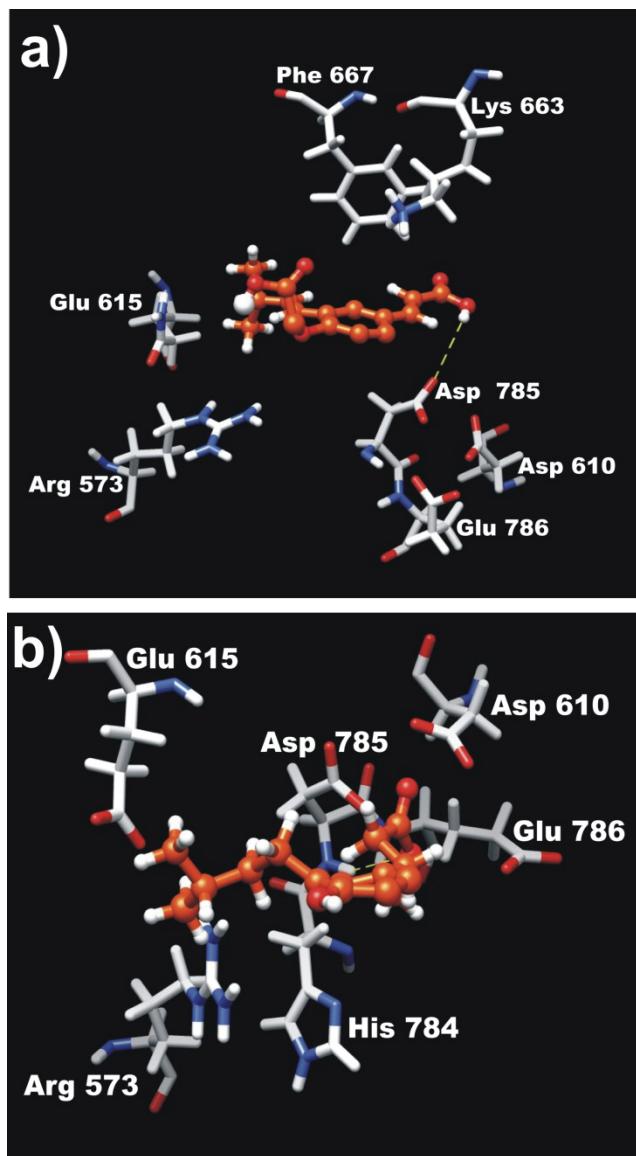


Figure 4: Spatial view of the stabilizing and destabilizing interactions obtained for compounds **17** (a) and **18** (b) interacting with *Taq* polymerase.

Taq polymerase I may be the molecular target for the antifungal activity displayed by the studied derivatives, but it is evident that a ClogP value of about 3 is also necessary to produce the antifungal effect at a cellular level.

The strong antifungal activity, the relatively low acute toxicity previously reported, and the molecular mechanism here reported indicate that the methoxylated derivative of drupanin (**15**) is a very good candidate on which to perform further studies in the search for new agents to control *Aspergillus* infections.

Experimental

Test compounds: Compounds **1**, **2**, **3**, **6**, and **11** were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich Co. Drupanin (**13**) was isolated as colorless crystals (mp 147–148°C) from aerial parts of *B. grisebachii* Hieron. Its chemical identity was confirmed by spectroscopic data, compared with previous reports [4]. Compounds **4**, **5**, **6**, **7**, **8**, **9**, **10**, **12**, **14–21** were prepared as previously described by Bisogno and coworkers [16].

***Taq* polymerase I inhibition assays:** Inhibition of *Taq* polymerase I from *Thermusaquaticus* (Sigma-Aldrich) was studied by PCR. The assayed compounds were dissolved in DMSO (1 mg/mL) and inhibition studies were carried out at a screening concentration of 500 μ M. The PCR master mixture consisted of 1.8 μ M MgCl₂, 0.2 μ MdNTPs, 1 μ M primer sense (5'GGATCCATGAGCGGGACCATCTCCA), and 1 μ M primer antisense (5'TCAAAACTCGTAGTCCTCATAG). DNA concentration was 0.013 mg/mL and all PCR reactions were made in 20 μ L. Thermocycling conditions consisted of 35 cycles of denaturation at 94°C for 30s followed by primer annealing at 53°C for 30s and primer extension at 72°C for 1 min 30s. Catapol 100 μ M was used as positive control. Assays were made in triplicate.

Compounds that displayed 100% inhibition at the screening concentration were further evaluated at lower concentrations by serial dilution (500 μ M to 0.95 μ M) in order to obtain the IC₅₀ value.

Analysis of PCR products: Relative intensities of ethidium bromide stained PCR products were analyzed using an optical scanner. The digitized band images were processed using the Image processing software Scion Image, a public domain program. IC₅₀ values were determined by the GraphPad Prism software.

Molecular modeling: The coordinate of *Taq* polymerase I was downloaded from Brookhaven Protein Data Bank (www.rcsb.org). The PDB code entry is 3KTQ. To explore the dynamic stability of the *Taq*-inhibitor complexes reported here, root mean square deviation (RMSD) values for the protease C_α atoms during the MD simulations (relative to the docking structure) were calculated. The RMSD values of the *Taq-6*, *Taq-15*, *Taq-17* and *Taq-18* complexes are 1.60±0.031, 2.13±0.59, 1.96±0.34 and 1.80±0.31 Å, respectively, showing a deviation lower than 0.6 Å from the mean. These results suggest that the stability of the dynamic equilibriums of these complexes is reliable.

Molecular docking: In order to search for the preferable conformation, AutoDock 4.0 software [22] was used for docking calculations, combined with Lamarckian genetic algorithm (LGA). The center of the grid box was the active site and the size of the box was 50 x 45 x 55 grid points, with grid spacing of 0.375 Å. During the docking experiment, the receptor was kept rigid and the ligand was set flexible. The maximum number of energy evaluations was set to 25 x 10⁶; the initial population of trial ligands consisted of 250 individuals; for the rest of the docking parameters the default values were used. Fifty docking runs were performed to find the preferable conformation. The docking results were clustered according to the RMSD of 2 Å. Structures with relative lower binding free energy and most cluster members were chosen, which were then subjected to molecular dynamics simulations (MD).

Molecular dynamics simulations: To relax the binding complexes and investigate their dynamics, three-nanosecond MD simulations were performed for the different *Taq*-inhibitor systems using Amber software [23]. The protein force field was taken from ff99SBilnd [24]. The general Amber force field (GAFF) [25] was used to handle small organic molecules and the force field parameters of the inhibitors were produced by the antechamber program in Amber. Each *Taq*-inhibitor complex was soaked in a truncated octahedral periodic box of TIP3P water molecules. The distance between the

edges of the water box and the closest atom of the solutes was at least 10 Å. Na⁺ ions were added to neutralize the systems charge. The entire system was subjected to energy minimization in two stages to remove bad contacts between the complex and the solvent molecules. First, the water molecules were minimized by holding the solute fixed with harmonic constraints of 100 kcal/mol Å² strength. Secondly, conjugate gradient energy minimizations were performed repeatedly 4 times using positional restraints to all heavy atoms of the receptor with 15, 10, 5 and 0 kcal/mol Å². The system was then heated from 0 to 300 K in 300 ps and equilibrated at 300 K for another 200 ps. After minimization and heating, 2.5 ns dynamics simulations were performed at a constant temperature of 300 K and a constant pressure of 1 atm. During minimization and MD simulations, the particle mesh Ewald (PMD) method was employed to treat the long-range electrostatic interactions in a periodic boundary condition. The SHAKE method was used to constrain hydrogen atoms. The time step for all MD is 2 fs, with a direct-space, non-bonded cutoff of 8 Å. Initial velocities were assigned from a Maxwellian distribution at the initial temperature.

The MM-GBSA method: In MM-GBSA [26], the binding free energy (ΔG_{bind}) resulting from the formation of a RL complex between a ligand (L) and a receptor (R) is calculated as

$$\Delta G_{\text{bind}} = \Delta E_{\text{MM}} + \Delta G_{\text{sol}} - T\Delta S \quad (1)$$

$$\Delta E_{\text{MM}} = \Delta E_{\text{internal}} + \Delta E_{\text{electrostatic}} + \Delta E_{\text{vdw}} \quad (2)$$

$$\Delta G_{\text{sol}} = \Delta G_{\text{GB}} + \Delta G_{\text{SA}} \quad (3)$$

where ΔE_{MM} , ΔG_{sol} and $-T\Delta S$ are the changes of the gas phase MM energy, the solvation free energy, and the conformational entropy upon binding, respectively. ΔE_{MM} includes $\Delta E_{\text{internal}}$ (bond, angle, and dihedral energies), $\Delta E_{\text{electrostatic}}$ (electrostatic), and ΔE_{vdw} (van der Waals) energies. ΔG_{sol} is the sum of electrostatic solvation energy (polar contribution), ΔG_{GB} , and the non-electrostatic solvation component (nonpolar contribution), ΔG_{SA} . Polar contribution is calculated using the GB model, while the nonpolar energy is estimated by solvent accessible surface area (SASA). The conformational entropy change, $-T\Delta S$, is usually computed by normal-mode analysis, but in this study the entropy contributions were not calculated due to the computational cost involved in such calculations.

ClogP calculations: All geometries of the compounds reported here were optimized from DFT calculations using the Becke3-Lee-Yang-Parr [27-29] (B3LYP) functional with the 6-31G(d) basis set. These calculations were carried out using the Gaussian 03 [30] program. Once the different optimized geometries were obtained, ClogP values were calculated using Chem Office Ultra 4.5 (CambridgeSoft Corp 1988) software.

Supplementary data: Theoretical ClogP values for compounds 1-21 (Table 1). Image of the *Taq*polymerase I inhibition assay (Figure 1).

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Insecticidal Effects of Acetogenins from *Rollinia occidentalis* Seed Extract

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From the methanol seed extract of *Rollinia occidentalis* five acetogenins were isolated, sylvaticin (**1**), rolliniastatin-1 (**2**), rolliniastatin-2 (**3**), motrilin (**4**) and desacetylluvaricin (**5**), and evaluated for their toxicity and nutritional alterations on *Spodoptera frugiperda* Smith (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae). All but one of the compounds produced more than 90% mortality on early larval instars at 50 and 100 µg per g of diet. Sylvaticin caused 15 and 60% mortality at 50 and 100 µg/g, respectively, while the methanol seed extract reached 35 and 50% at 100 and 250 µg/g, respectively. The addition of *R. occidentalis* methanolic seed extract (100 and 250 µg/g) and sylvaticin (100 µg/g) to the larval diet brought about significant changes to the nutritional indices in connection with larvae fed the control diet. This is the first report on the isolation of acetogenins from *R. occidentalis* and their insecticidal effects on *S. frugiperda*.

Keywords: Plant metabolites, Polyphagous lepidopteran, Toxicity, Nutritional alterations.

Rollinia occidentalis Fries (Annonaceae) is a tree commonly found in northwest Argentina. Characteristic constituents of these plants are the annonaceous acetogenins that possess unique structures and anticancer [1a,b], cytotoxic [2], insecticidal [3a,b], and antiparasitic activities. Previous results from our laboratory indicated that the acetogenins from *Annona cherimolia* and *A. montana* have larvicidal effects on the *Spodoptera frugiperda* (Lepidoptera) corn pest [4a,b], nymphal and adult mortality on the *Oncopeltus fasciatus* (Hemiptera) cotton pest[4c],and insecticidal activity against *Ceratitis capitata* Wiedemann (Diptera) [4d].

This is the first report on the isolation and identification of 5 known and structurally related bistetrahydrofuran acetogenins from the methanolic seed extract of *R. occidentalis*: sylvaticin (**1**) [5], rolliniastatin-1 (**2**) [6], rolliniastatin-2 (**3**) [7a], motrilin (**4**) [7b] and desacetylluvaricin (**5**)[7c]. Continuing with our search for natural insecticides from Annonaceae plants, we evaluated the toxic effects produced by the methanol seed extract and annonaceous acetogenins (ACG) isolated from *R. occidentalis* on *S. frugiperda*. Additionally, Consumption Index (CI), Growth (GR), and Efficiency in the Consumption Index (ECI) were also assessed. The "fall armyworm", *S. frugiperda* Smith (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae), is a widely distributed pest in America. It causes serious economic damage to many crops even though its host preference is corn. Toxicity was determined by evaluating *S. frugiperda* larval and pupal mortality and malformations of larvae, pupa and adults. They were fed an artificial diet treated with different ACG at a final concentration of 50 and 100 mg ACG/g of diet. An untreated diet was used as control.

The methanolic seed extract of *R. occidentalis* at 50 µg/mL did not have a significant toxic effect under the experimental conditions. However, at 100 and 250 µg/mL it had a toxic effect on *S. frugiperda* with a larval mortality of 45 and 50%, respectively. Sylvaticin (100 µg/mL) produced a significant toxic effect on *S. frugiperda* with 70% mortality while rolliniastatin-1, rolliniastatin-2, motrilin and desacetylluvaricin caused 100% larval mortality under the experimental conditions. Most of the tested compounds produced significant larval and pupal mortality with malformations of larvae, pupa and adults.

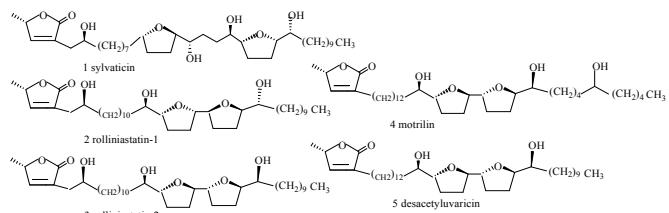


Figure 1: Annonaceous acetogenins from *R. occidentalis* methanolic seed extract.

The addition of methanolic seed extract and sylvaticin to the diet affecting the early instar larvae in their growth and nutrition could not be quantified in the remaining rolliniastatin-1, rolliniastatin-2, motrilin and desacetylluvaricin as larvae mortality occurred within 10 days.

Toxicity of annonaceous acetogenins: *R. occidentalis* methanolic seed extract (50 µg/mL) did not have a significant toxic effect under the experimental conditions; 100 and 250 µg/mL had a slight toxic effect on *S. frugiperda* with larval mortality of 45 and 50%, respectively. However, sylvaticin (100 µg/mL) produced significant toxic effects on *S. frugiperda* with 70% mortality and malformed adults (20%), while rolliniastatin-1, rolliniastatin-2, motrilin and desacetylluvaricin were the most toxic (100% larval mortality) under the experimental conditions, as shown in Table 1. Pupal mortality was apparently related to deficient melanization and malformation in wings, legs and antenna cover. Remarkably, every surviving adults were abnormal in abdomen and wings. We analyzed the nutritional effects produced by the addition of the above mentioned extract and ACG to the 2nd instar larval diet of *S. frugiperda* to assess how treatment induced mortality. Larvae fed with *R. occidentalis* (50 µg/g) and sylvaticin (50 µg/g) methanolic seed extract presented physiological indices similar to those of control larvae. The addition of *R. occidentalis* (100 and 250 µg/g) and sylvaticin (100 µg/g) methanolic seed extract to the larval diet caused significant changes to the nutritional indices compared with those of larvae fed the control diet (Table 2). This resulted in an important larval growth decrease and subsequent 100% larval mortality at very early stages in their life cycle and would reveal the

Sylvaticin (50 µg/g) had the lowest intake percentage and the poorest nutrient absorbed conversion. Nutritional indices for rolliniastatin-1, rolliniastatin-2, motrilin and desacetylluvaricin could not be measured as mortality occurred at an early stage.

As shown in Figure 1, all the tested acetogenins carry two THF rings and the THF are adjacent in four of them. Our results indicated that acetogenins **2**, **3**, **4** and **5** had killed more than 90% of *S. frugiperda* larvae at 120 h after the start of the assay, while the remaining acetogenin **1**, had a lower effect at the doses tested. The most important toxic action was observed on larval instar. In fact, all acetogenins produced more than 70% larval mortality with no dependence on the position of the THF rings or the number and location of the OH groups. The evaluation of food consumption indicated that the tested acetogenins were not antifeedant agents because there were no significant differences related to the control. The high ECI values for sylvaticin (100 µg/g) are due to the very low larval weight even when larvae consume the diet regularly, suggesting that sylvaticin reduces the efficiency to convert food into biomass. The influence of chemical agents and their toxic effects on insects and their nutritional behaviour can be used in the development of environmentally friendly pest control agents.

Experimental

Plant material: *R. occidentalis* fruits were collected in Tucumán, Argentina, in March 2005. A voucher sample (No. 604639) was deposited at the Herbarium of Instituto Lillo of Tucumán.

Acetogenin extraction and purification: Dried and powdered seeds of *R. occidentalis* were percolated with methanol. Evaporation of the solvent yielded a crude MeOH extract which was further partitioned between CHCl₃ and H₂O. The solvent was then evaporated from the chloroform extract under reduced pressure and the residue was chromatographed on a silica gel column by using chloroform and increasing amounts of ethyl acetate (0-100%) and finally methanol as eluents. Chromatographic fractions containing acetogenins (TLC detection by Kedde's reagent) were further processed by high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) using a Beckman C 18 column (25 cm x 1 cm i.d., 5 µm particle size) and mixtures of methanol and water to yield pure acetogenins. Acetogenins represented around 0.05% of the seed weight.

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Table 1: Toxicity produced by *R. occidentalis* methanolic seed extract and ACG on larvae of *S. frugiperda*.

Compounds	(%) Larval Mortality	(%) Pupal Mortality	Malformed Adults (%)
Extract Ro 50 ppm	5	30	-
Extract Ro 100 ppm	35	45	20
Extract Ro 250 ppm	50	50	-
Sylvaticin 50 ppm	15	70	15
Sylvaticin 100 ppm	70	10	20
Rolliniastatin-1 50 ppm	90	10	-
Rolliniastatin-1 100 ppm	100	-	-
Rolliniastatin-2 50 ppm	100	-	-
Rolliniastatin-2 100 ppm	100	-	-
Motrilin 50 ppm	100	-	-
Motrilin 100 ppm	100	-	-
Desacetylluvaricin 50 ppm	100	-	-
Desacetylluvaricin 100 ppm	100	-	-

Test insects: *S. frugiperda* larvae were obtained from our laboratory population and maintained with an artificial diet. Toxicity tests were recorded for treatments with all acetogenins (50 and 100 µg/mL) and control experiments [7d]. Determination of Consumption (CI), Growth (GR), and Efficiency in the Consumption Index (ECI) were carried out. For comparison purposes, rates are expressed as a relationship between treatment and control; the latter are considered 100%. Values are expressed as (GR_T/GR_C) 100%, (CI_T/CI_C) 100% and (ECI_T/ECI_C) 100% in Table 2 [7d],

Table 2: Nutritional alterations produced by *R. occidentalis* methanolic seed extract and ACG on larvae of *S. frugiperda*.

Compounds	GR _T /GR _C %	CI _T /CI _C %	ECI _T /ECI _C %
Extract Ro 50 ppm	88	103	102
Extract Ro 100 ppm	62	54	51
Extract Ro 250 ppm	47	50	43
Sylvaticin 50 ppm	89	97	97
Sylvaticin 100 ppm	57	78	78

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Conservation and Multiplication of Encapsulated Micro Shoots of *Rauvolfia vomitoria* - an Endangered Medicinal Tree: ISSR and RAPD based Evaluation of Genetic Fidelity of Converted Plantlets

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The *in vitro* grown axillary micro shoots of *Rauvolfia vomitoria* were encapsulated in alginate beads. Following 6 months of normal storage at $25 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$ the re-growth of encapsulated micro shoots, reached 95.2% within 40 days of incubation on MS medium containing 1.0 mg/L BAP and 0.1 mg/L NAA. Among the responding encapsulated explants 69.6% showed emergence of multiple shoots. The developing shoots showed rhizogenesis in two weeks following their transfer to rooting medium. Healthy plants were established in a glass house with 95% survival. Of the 50 RAPD primers tested, 10 produced 23 clear and reproducible amplicons, with an average of 2.3 bands per primer. Eleven ISSR primers produced a total of 42 bands, with a size range of 0.1-1.9 kb. The number of scorable bands for each primer varied from 2 to 6, with an average of 3.81. The similarity matrix, calculated individually from the results obtained from ISSR and RAPD analysis, showed similarity coefficients ranging from 1.0 for RAPD and 0.85 to 1.0 for ISSR.

Keywords: Encapsulation, *Rauvolfia vomitoria*, Germplasm conservation, Genetic fidelity, ISSR, RAPD analysis.

Rauvolfia vomitoria Afzelius, a tree species native to the African continent, is found in wet Guineo-Congolian forests in association with the palms, *Trema* and *Combretum*. The medicinal properties of *R. vomitoria* are attributed to compounds that are predominantly present in the underground parts of the plant [1]. Roots, the natural source of reserpine, are used in the treatment of hypertension, high blood pressure and illness related to the central nervous system. Besides reports showing sedative, aphrodisiac and antispasmodic properties of the roots, a US patent also exists for antidiabetic properties of *R. vomitoria* root extract [2]. The plant belongs to the endangered category due to unsystematic collection for medicinal uses, as well as the growth of other invasive plant species. In spite of the extensive exploitation of *R. vomitoria* for the extraction of pharmaceutically active compounds, the biodiversity and conservation aspect of this species have not been passably noticed, and no conventional or unconventional attempt has been made for multiplication and conservation of this important species. Recognizing the loss of the natural germ resource due to hasty and reckless exploitation, biotechnology based conservation and multiplication of *R. vomitoria* germplasm has drawn the attention of this current research.

Synthetic seed technology or alginate encapsulation of explants (embryogenic / non-embryogenic) is a well established practice and has been employed in conjunction with micropropagation to establish *in vitro* gene banks of various pharmaceutically important species [3-9]. The efficiency of using alginate encapsulated propagules lies in their small size and relative ease of handling and transportation. Besides, increased productive potential and ease of long or short term storage gives additional significance. The main idea behind utilizing synthetic seed technology in the present study is that the technique is endowed with the shared advantages of clonal multiplication and germplasm storage and conservation.

However, in response to normal / cryogenic storage, the occurrence of somaclonal variation as a possible snag necessitates assurance

about genetic stability of the upcoming progeny plants. This has drawn attention to PCR based techniques to assess the molecular conformity of plants obtained from encapsulated explants. Though there are many reports available on utilization of synthetic seed technology for mass micro multiplication, along with short and long term storage, only a few recent studies are available on confirmation of the genetic integrity of syn-seed derived plantlets [11-14]. This paper reports, for the first time, that alginate encapsulation provides a secure and stable *in vitro* clonal repository for the germplasm of *R. vomitoria* to ensure multiplication, conservation and year round supply of genetically uniform quality plant material. Besides, the genetic integrity of re-grown plants was assessed by RAPD and ISSR based markers.

Synthetic seeds of *R. vomitoria* stored under moist conditions and at $25 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$ for 6 months showed re-growth within 10 days upon transferring to solidified MS medium supplemented with 0.1 mg/L NAA and 1.0 mg/L BAP (Fig.1a-b). Encapsulated explants exhibited 95.3% re-growth frequency in terms of both single and multiple shoots during a 40 day culture period (Table 1). This result was in concurrence with previous studies of *Cineraria maritima* and *Glycyrrhiza glabra*, where alginate encapsulated micro shoots showed about 82% and 98% re-growth after six months of storage at room temperature and under moist conditions [14-15]. Among the responding encapsulated micro shoots 69.6% showed emergence of multiple shoots while only 30.4% explants exhibited the formation of a single shoot after 40 days of culture (Figure 1b). No major difference in shoot regeneration frequency was observed in cultures incubated for 20 or 40 days. Multiple shoots from encapsulated single nodal explants may develop due to the formation of more than one lateral primordium from actively dividing meristematic cells after obtaining the desired nutrition from the MS alginate complex of the bead. This is desirable, especially when the intention is not only to preserve the plant material, but also to mass multiply it after storage.



Figure 1(a-f): Encapsulated micro shoots of *R. vomitoria* and its response. Micro shoots in calcium alginate beads (a); Multiple shoot formation from alginate beads on MS medium containing 0.1 mg/L NAA and 1.0 mg/L BAP (b); Multiple shoot growth from encapsulated beads (c); Rooting in multiple shoots derived from alginate encapsulated micro shoots (d); Complete rooted plant (e); Healthy plants derived from encapsulated micro shoots growing in glass house (f).

Table 1: Percentage re-growth response of encapsulated explants after six months of storage

Experimental set	Number of explants encapsulated	Number of explants re-grown	% Re-growth frequency	
			Multiple shoot	Single shoot
I	100	96	68.0±2.0	32.0±1.8
II	100	95	69.7±1.9	30.2±2.0
III	100	95	71.1±2.2	28.9±2.1

Emergence of multiple shoots with increased number of nodes from alginate encapsulated axillary micro cutting after storage could serve as the best option for an integrated conservation procedure. The results also substantiate earlier reports in which alginate-encapsulated shoot tips of *Spilanthes sacmella* and *Eclipta alba* showed noteworthy re-growth potential, with multiple shoots after 60 days storage at 4°C [16,17]. The present findings also corroborate a previous report of encapsulation of shoot tips of *R. serpentina* and their regeneration followed by storage at 4 °C for up to 14 weeks [18]. Reports of encapsulation, cryopreservation and germination of micro shoots of some shrubs [19, 20], medicinal herbs [8,21], and trees [22-24] also validate the present results. However, in the current study, encapsulated beads stored under sterile moist conditions at 25 ± 2°C reduced the overall cost of this protocol and made it easy to handle. This kind of simple low cost method would be especially useful when developing a low temperature or cryostorage method that requires species-based complex protocols and when the test plant is perennial and woody for which *in vitro* multiplication and rooting is difficult.

The developing shoots showed rhizogenesis in two weeks following their transfer to rooting medium (half strength MS containing 2% sucrose and 1.0 mg/L NAA; Fig 1c-e). Approximately 95% plant survival was observed during acclimatization of syn-seed derived plants of *R. vomitoria*, which again correlates with previous reports [13,15] (Figure 1f). It is relevant to mention that, in the present work, axillary micro cuttings were taken as explants as, of the various methods for plant micropagation and conservation, these are described as being particularly useful due to their simplicity and the relatively high propagation rates. Furthermore, axillary meristem culture is normally believed to have a low risk of genetic precariousness due to the existence of organized meristems, which are less sensitive to genetic variations that might occur during cell division or differentiation under *in vitro* conditions. Moreover, the utilization of stem micro cuttings obtained from aseptically

Table 2: Total number and size range of amplified fragments and number of polymorphic fragments generated by RAPD and ISSR analysis of *R. vomitoria*.

Primer	Total no. of amplified products	No. of polymorphic bands	Size range (kb)	% polymorphic bands
OPI-07	2	0	0.1-1.4	0
OPI-10	3	0	0.1-1.9	0
OPT-12	2	0	0.5-1.6	0
OPT-13	2	0	0.1-1.6	0
OPT-15	4	0	0.5-1.4	0
OPT-17	4	1	0.6-1.8	25
OPO-06	1	0	1.7-1.8	0
OPO-09	2	0	0.5-1.8	0
OPO-12	1	0	1.0-1.3	0
OPO-17	2	0	0.5-1.8	0
UBC 810	5	0	0.5-1.7	0
UBC 826	3	0	0.5-1.7	0
UBC 828	5	1	0.6-1.9	20
UBC 841	4	1	0.1-1.1	25
UBC 848	2	0	0.6-1.9	0
UBC 855	4	0	0.6-1.5	0
UBC 845	5	0	0.1-1.6	0
UBC 843	2	0	0.6-1.9	0
UBC807	2	0	0.1-1.5	0
UBC844	6	1	0.6-1.9	16
UBC823	4	0	0.4-1.4	0

Table 3: Summary of RAPD and ISSR amplified products from *R. vomitoria*.

Description	RAPD	ISSR
Total bands scored	23	42
Number of monomorphic bands	22	39
Number of polymorphic bands	1	3
Percentage of polymorphism	4.34	7.14
Number of primers used	10	11
Average polymorphism per primer	0.1	0.27
Average number of fragments per primer	2.3	3.81
Size range of amplified fragments (kb)	0.1-1.9	0.1-1.9

established cultures provides an excellent source of plant material during storage as they are free from infection.

A total of 50 RAPD primers from OPO (01-20), OPT (01-20) and OPI (1-10) series were tested for the assessment of genetic integrity among syn-seed derived plants, *in vitro* established shoot cultures, and source plants of *R. vomitoria*. Amongst the 50, a total of 10 primers produced 23 clear and reproducible bands from genomic DNA (Table 2), out of which 95.7% were monomorphic in nature, whereas only 4.3 were polymorphic obtained from primer OPT 17. A low degree of occurrence of polymorphic bands indicated a higher similarity scale amongst the sampled plants. An average of 2.3 fragments per primer was amplified with 10 RAPD primers, which were in a size range of 0.1-1.9 kb. On the other hand, after an initial screening of 13 ISSR primers, eleven primers amplified and produced a total of 42 amplification bands, out of which 39 monomorphic bands were obtained revealing 92.8% similarities among the tested plants.

The number of scorable bands for each primer varied from 2 (UBC 848, 843 and 807) to 6 (UBC 844), with an average of 3.81 bands per primer. The number of bands per primer was greater in ISSR (3.81) than RAPD (2.3) (Table 3). The possible reason for this difference could be the high melting temperature for ISSR primers, which allows much more rigorous annealing conditions and, consequently, more precise and repeatable amplification. Moreover, the ISSRs are widely distributed throughout the genome and make amplification of genomic DNA possible in much larger numbers of fragments per primer.

Research reports are available which pragmatically support that ISSR fingerprints sense more polymorphic loci in comparison with RAPD fingerprinting [14,25,26]. A monomorphic pattern was observed in the overall banding profile obtained from RAPD and ISSR. The similarity matrix calculated individually from the results obtained from ISSR and RAPD analysis showed similarity

coefficients of 1.0 for RAPD and 0.85 to 1.0 for ISSR. This strongly indicated a similar genetic stature among sampled and source plants and revealed that the plants derived from the alginate encapsulated micro shoots stored for six months under moist conditions were not affected during storage.

The result is in agreement with recent studies where RAPD based markers revealed a higher similarity scale in syn-seed derived plants after moist storage [9-12]. However, in the present study, two PCR-based techniques, RAPD and ISSR, were chosen because of their simplicity and cost-effectiveness. Having the ability to amplify different regions of the genome, both ISSR and RAPD markers allow better analysis of genetic affinity/diversity among the samples. Besides the advantage of higher reproducibility and relatively low cost, the higher amplification efficiency of ISSRs makes the genetic inferences much clearer at inter and even intra specific levels.

This paper also signifies the use of ISSR markers for the first time for genetic profiling in *Rauvolfia* species. In a recent report, the clonal fidelity assessment of synthetic seed derived plants of *Glycyrrhiza glabra* was also assessed by the use of two types of DNA markers [14]. ISSRs and RAPD assisted assessment of genetic similarity was also reported in the long term for *in vitro* maintained shoot cultures of *Gerbera jamesonii* [26], *Vanilla planifolia* [27] and banana [28].

In conclusion, the reported protocol involving axillary micro shoots of *R. vomitoria* for alginate encapsulation proves to be a simple, cost effective method for standard storage and further recovery of genetically stable and high quality plants. In addition, it ensures year round supply of genetically uniform germplasm for commercial cultivation without any climatic and geographical limitation.

Experimental

Plant material: Nodal segments of *Rauvolfia vomitoria* Afzelius (field book number 7202 as per CIMAP herbarium) obtained from a 10 year old tree growing in CIMAP farm (26.5° N latitude, 80.5° E longitude and 120 M altitude) at Lucknow, Uttar Pradesh, (India) were used as explants to initiate and establish the aseptic cultures according to the protocol described earlier for *R. serpentina* [29]. For encapsulation purposes, 3-5 mm micro cuttings were used having apical or axillary buds dissected from 2 month old *in vitro* shoot cultures maintained on MS medium containing 1.0 mg/L BAP and 0.1 mg/L NAA.

Encapsulation and storage of axillary/apical micro cuttings: Encapsulation of micro cuttings having apical or axillary buds was performed by using 4% sodium alginate in MS medium as gelling mixture and 100mM CaCl₂ as solution for ion exchange, autoclaved at 120°C for 18 min under 15 lb pressure. Micro shoots of *R. vomitoria* were suspended in the gelling mixture and drop wise dispensed to ion exchange solution under continuous shaking with a magnetic stirrer. The resultant beads were allowed to remain in CaCl₂ for 20-30 min for ion exchange and the formation of the Ca-alginate complex. Beads were then thoroughly washed with pre sterilized distilled water and immediately kept for storage in sterile Petridishes (10 beads / Petridishes) under moist conditions maintained by placing sterile filter paper lining soaked with sterile distilled water at 25 ± 2°C. To maintain moist conditions, the filter paper lining was frequently (20 d interval) sprayed with sterile distilled water. Data on re-growth (single or multiple shoot) response of the stored encapsulated explants was recorded after 20

and 40 d of incubation on solidified MS medium supplemented with 0.1 mg/L NAA and 1.0 mg/L BAP. Developing shoots were further transferred to half strength MS medium containing 2% sucrose and 1.0 mg/L NAA for rhizogenesis. The experiment was repeated thrice with 10 Petridishes each time.

Hardening of regenerated plants: Synthetic seed derived plantlets were transplanted to earthen pots containing a mixture of sand: soil: FYM in the ratio of 1:2:1. Initially the plants were covered with transparent polythene to maintain humidity (80-90%). Covers were temporarily withdrawn for 2 to 3 h every day after the second week for further acclimatization, and were completely withdrawn after the fourth week. Then these plants were kept in a green house for 1 month to check the survival rate.

Assessment of genetic stature of in vitro regenerated plantlets: Three randomly-selected plants, derived from encapsulated micro shoots from each of the 3 sets, 2 month old *in vitro* established shoot cultures and field grown mother plants were analyzed for their genetic stature through RAPD and ISSR analysis. Approximately 200 mg of leaves was ground and powdered in liquid nitrogen and subjected to DNA isolation. Quantity and quality of DNA was measured using a Nanodrop spectrophotometer (Nanodrop, ND-1000, Nanodrop Technologies, USA), as well as by electrophoresis on 0.8%, w/v, Agarose gel. Fifty RAPD decamer primers from OPJ (01-10), OPO (01-20) and OPT (01-20) series from Operon Tech., Alameda, CA, USA and 13 ISSR primers (UBC-807, UBC-810, UBC-823, UBC-826, UBC-828, UBC-834, UBC-835, UBC-841, UBC-843, UBC-844, UBC-845, UBC-848, and UBC-855) from the University of British Columbia, Vancouver, Canada were used for DNA amplification. Amplification was performed using 25 μL PCR mixture comprised of 2.5 μL buffer, 1.0 μL dNTPs (10 μM: 2.5 μM each of the dNTPs viz. dCTP, dATP, dGTP, and dTTP), 0.2 μL Taq polymerase (all procured from GeNei™, Bangalore, India), 1.0 μL DNA (approximate concentration 25 ng/μL), 1.0 μL (5 pM) primer, and 19.2 μL Mili Q water (Millipore, India). Amplifications were carried out in a thermal Cycler (*i*-cycler™, model 4.006, Bio-Rad, USA). The initial denaturation of DNA was at 94°C for 5 min, followed by 1 min denaturation at 94°C, 1 min annealing at 35°C, and 2 min extension at 72°C. The reaction continued for 35 cycles, followed by a final extension of 3 min at 72°C.

Similar amplification conditions were maintained for ISSR primers, except that the annealing temperature was 52°C. PCR products were loaded with 5 μL of bromophenol blue, and separated on a 1.2% agarose gel slab (Hi-Media, India) in 1.0% TAE buffer (40 mM Tris acetate, pH 8.2; 1 mM EDTA) using a Minipack-250 electrophoresis system (GeNeiTM,) at 50 V for 3 h. A 1 kb λ DNA marker, double-digested with *EcoRI* and *HindIII* was used as a molecular standard. Gels were documented using an Image Master VDS, Thermal Imaging System, FTI- 500 (Amersham Pharmacia Biotech., USA).

Statistical analysis data scoring: The data obtained on re-growth frequencies of encapsulated micro shoots from repeated experiments were analyzed using the statistical analysis tool box MAT LAB 7.7 version through mean, standard error and one way ANOVA. The significance of results was checked for *p*< 0.05. The RAPD profiles were analyzed by recording the presence and absence of bands in sampled plants. Similarity indices were generated using Nei and Li's coefficient [30]. The average similarity matrix was used to generate a tree for cluster analysis by UPGMA (Unweighted Pair Group Method with Arithmetic average) using the NTSYS 2.0j software package.

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Bioactivities of Volatile Components from Nepalese *Artemisia* Species

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The essential oils from the leaves of *Artemisia dubia*, *A. indica*, and *A. vulgaris* growing wild in Nepal were obtained by hydrodistillation and analyzed by GC-MS. The major components in *A. dubia* oil were chrysantheneone (29.0%), coumarin (18.3%), and camphor (16.4%). *A. indica* oil was dominated by ascaridole (15.4%), isoascaridole (9.9%), *trans*-*p*-mentha-2,8-dien-1-ol (9.7%), and *trans*-verbenol (8.4%). The essential oil of Nepalese *A. vulgaris* was rich in α -thujone (30.5%), 1,8-cineole (12.4%), and camphor (10.3%). The essential oils were screened for phytotoxic activity against *Lactuca sativa* (lettuce) and *Lolium perenne* (perennial ryegrass) using both seed germination and seedling growth, and all three *Artemisia* oils exhibited notable allelopathic activity. *A. dubia* oil showed *in-vitro* cytotoxic activity on MCF-7 cells (100% kill at 100 μ g/mL) and was also marginally antifungal against *Aspergillus niger* (MIC = 313 μ g/mL). DFT calculations (B3LYP/6-31G*) revealed thermal decomposition of ascaridole to be energetically accessible at hydrodistillation and GC conditions, but these are spin-forbidden processes. If decomposition does occur, it likely proceeds by way of homolytic peroxide bond cleavage rather than retro-Diels-Alder elimination of molecular oxygen.

Keywords: *Artemisia dubia*, *Artemisia indica*, *Artemisia vulgaris*, Allelopathy, Antimicrobial, Cytotoxicity, α -Thujone, 1,8-Cineole, Camphor, Ascaridole, Density functional theory.

The genus *Artemisia* (Asteraceae) is made up of around 350 species of aromatic shrubs and herbs distributed over the northern hemisphere, many of which are used as traditional herbal medicines [1]. In this work we have examined the essential oil compositions of three species of *Artemisia* growing wild in Nepal: *A. dubia* Wall. ex Besser, *A. indica* Willd. and *A. vulgaris* L. In Nepal, the leaf juice of *A. dubia* is used to treat cuts and wounds while the plant paste is used against fever; *A. indica* leaf juice is used to treat ringworm [2], and *A. vulgaris* for digestive problems, intestinal worms [3], nose bleeds, neurological disorders [4], and as incense [5].

The composition of the essential oil of *A. dubia* from China has been previously studied [6]. The major components were 1,8-cineole, α -bergamotene, (*E*)-caryophyllene, and τ -cadinol. *A. dubia* extract [7] and essential oil [8] from Nepal have shown antimicrobial activity. *A. indica* essential oil from China was found to be largely composed of 1,8-cineole, camphor, borneol, germacrene D, (*E*)-caryophyllene, and caryophyllene oxide [9]. *A. vulgaris* oils have been extensively studied [10] and show a wide variation in chemical composition. *A. vulgaris* oils have demonstrated allelopathic [11], insecticidal, repellent [12], antioxidant [13], and antimicrobial activities [10,14].

Essential oil compositions: *Artemisia* essential oils were obtained in 0.04%, 0.05%, and 0.8% yield from *A. dubia*, *A. indica*, and *A. vulgaris*, respectively. The chemical compositions of the oils are summarized in Table 1. *A. dubia* oil from Nepal was dominated by chrysantheneone (29.0%), coumarin (18.3%), and camphor (16.4%), with lesser amounts of verbenone (5.2%) and borneol (3.1%), in marked contrast to *A. dubia* essential oil from China [6]. *A. herba-*

alba essential oils from Algeria [15] and Morocco [16] have been characterized as having high concentrations of both chrysantheneone and camphor. Chrysantheneone is known to be a photoisomerization product of verbenone [17] and filifolone has been shown to be a thermal decomposition product of chrysantheneone [18].

Likewise, Nepalese *A. indica* essential oil was notably different from that from China [9]. The *A. indica* oil in this present study showed high concentrations of ascaridole (15.4%) and isoascaridole (9.9%), along with *trans*-*p*-mentha-2,8-dien-1-ol (9.7%), *trans*-verbenol (8.4%), *cis*-*p*-mentha-1(7),8-dien-2-ol (6.0%), α -terpineol (5.6%), and menthol (5.4%). The essential oil of *A. molinieri* from France has been reported to contain high levels of ascaridole [19], as did the essential oil of *A. persica* from Iran [20]. Ascaridole is the active component of *Chenopodium ambrosioides* oil and is responsible for the antiparasitic effects of that oil [21]. The compound is known to be thermally labile, however, and isomerizes to isoascaridole [22]. Because of the reported heat-sensitivity of ascaridole, possible thermal decomposition reactions were investigated using density functional theory, DFT (see below).

Because of the great degree of chemical variability in *A. vulgaris* oils [23], a numerical cluster analysis based on the 36 most abundant components was carried out (Figure 1). *A. vulgaris* oils are generally dominated by the monoterpenoids camphor, 1,8-cineole, borneol, α -thujone and β -thujone, as well as the sesquiterpene hydrocarbons α -humulene and (*E*)-caryophyllene, but the relative abundance of these constituents and the presence and abundance of other components is variable and likely depends on geographical, ecological, and phenological factors. The cluster analysis indicates that the sample from Nepal in this study is more

Table 1: Chemical compositions of *Artemisia* essential oils from Nepal.

RI ^a	Compound	Percent Composition			RI ^a	Compound	Percent Composition		
		<i>A. dubia</i>	<i>A. indica</i>	<i>A. vulgaris</i>			<i>A. dubia</i>	<i>A. indica</i>	<i>A. vulgaris</i>
869	1-Hexanol	tr ^b	---	---	1286	Unidentified	---	0.8	---
931	Tricyclene	---	---	tr	1289	<i>p</i> -Cymen-7-ol	0.1	---	0.2
935	α -Thujene	---	---	tr	1291	Lavandulyl acetate	0.8	---	1.0
941	α -Pinene	---	---	0.4	1296	Perilla alcohol	0.3	---	tr
952	α Fenchene	---	---	0.6	1301	Isoascaridole	---	9.9	---
953	Camphene	---	---	0.9	1301	Carvacrol	0.1	---	0.1
964	Benzaldehyde	tr	---	---	1317	Unidentified	0.1	---	0.9
976	Sabinene	---	---	0.6	1343	Unidentified	0.5	---	---
978	β -Pinene	0.1	---	0.5	1356	Eugenol	1.2	---	---
981	1-Octen-3-ol	1.9	---	0.3	1366	Piperitenone oxide	---	1.1	---
988	3-Octanone	---	---	tr	1375	α -Copaene	---	---	0.1
989	6-Methyl-5-hepten-2-one	---	1.7	---	1379	<i>trans</i> -Sobrol	---	---	tr
992	Dehydro-1,8-cineole	---	---	tr	1396	4-Methyl-2-prenylfuran ^c	0.9	---	---
994	Mesitylene	---	---	tr	1412	<i>cis</i> -3-Hydroxy- <i>p</i> -menth-1-en-6-one ^c	0.3	---	---
996	3-Octanol	0.1	---	0.1	1419	(<i>E</i>)- <i>B</i> -Caryophyllene	0.9	0.9	0.1
1004	α -Phellandrene	tr	---	---	1436	Coumarin	18.3	---	---
1016	α -Terpinene	---	---	tr	1443	(<i>Z</i>)- β -Farnesene	---	---	0.2
1021	1,2,4-Trimethylbenzene	---	---	tr	1453	α -Humulene	0.2	---	---
1024	<i>p</i> -Cymene	0.3	---	3.7	1460	<i>allo</i> -Aromadendrene	0.1	---	0.1
1028	Limonene	tr	---	0.2	1482	Germacrene D	0.3	---	0.8
1030	1,8-Cineole	1.1	1.8	12.4	1486	β -Selinene	---	---	0.2
1032	Benzyl alcohol	tr	---	---	1495	<i>epi</i> -Cubebol	---	---	0.1
1038	(<i>Z</i>)- β -Ocimene	0.1	---	---	1501	α -Muurolene	---	---	0.1
1048	(<i>E</i>)- β -Ocimene	tr	---	---	1514	γ -Cadinene	---	---	0.2
1058	γ -Terpinene	0.1	---	0.1	1524	δ -Cadinene	0.1	---	0.1
1062	Artemisia ketone	---	---	tr	1553	(<i>Z</i>)-Caryophyllene oxide ^c	---	---	0.5
1066	<i>cis</i> -Sabinene hydrate	1.2	2.1	0.4	1568	Palustrol	---	---	0.2
1071	1-Octanol	tr	---	---	1576	Germacrene D-4-ol	1.6	0.7	---
1098	<i>trans</i> -Sabinene hydrate	0.6	1.9	0.4	1578	Spathulenol	---	---	0.6
1101	Linalool	0.2	---	---	1583	Caryophyllene oxide	1.2	---	3.5
1103	Filifolone	0.6	---	---	1590	Unidentified	---	1.4	---
1107	α -Thujone	---	3.6	30.5	1603	Ledol	0.1	---	0.4
1110	Isochrysanthenone ^c	0.8	---	---	1609	Humulene epoxide II	---	---	0.5
1114	2-Phenethanol	0.1	---	---	1628	1- <i>epi</i> -Cubenol	---	---	tr
1117	β -Thujone	---	1.1	7.1	1629	Eremoligenol	0.4	---	---
1120	Ispophorone	---	---	0.5	1631	γ -Eudesmol + (<i>E</i>)-Sesquilavandulol	1.4	---	---
1121	<i>cis</i> - <i>p</i> -Menth-2-en-1-ol	---	---	0.1	1635	Caryophylla-4(12),8(13)-dien-5-ol	0.6	0.8	tr
1121	<i>trans</i> - <i>p</i> -Menth-2,8-dien-1-ol	---	9.7	---	1642	τ -Muurolol	tr	---	0.2
1123	Unidentified	---	0.9	---	1645	α -Muurolol	0.1	---	0.1
1126	Chrysanthene	29.0	---	3.7	1650	β -Eudesmol	0.2	---	0.6
1134	<i>cis</i> - <i>p</i> -Menth-2,8-dien-1-ol	---	2.7	---	1654	α -Cadinol	0.4	---	0.4
1135	<i>iso</i> -3-Thujanol	---	---	0.6	1669	14-Hydroxy-3- <i>epi</i> -(<i>E</i>)- β -caryophyllene	---	---	0.5
1138	<i>trans</i> -Pinocarveol	0.2	1.6	0.5	1676	(<i>Z</i>)- α -Santalol	---	---	0.2
1139	<i>trans</i> -Sabinol	---	1.0	---	1684	<i>epi</i> - α -Bisabolol	---	1.4	---
1140	<i>trans</i> - <i>p</i> -Menth-2-en-1-ol	---	---	0.2	1685	Germacre-4(15),5,10(14)-trien-1 α -ol	tr	---	---
1144	<i>trans</i> -Verbenol	---	8.4	---	1741	Oplopanone	---	---	0.3
1144	Camphor	16.4	---	10.3	1751	(<i>6S,7R</i>)-Bisabolone	---	---	0.2
1155	Isoborneol	0.3	---	0.2	1809	Cryptomeridiol	0.1	---	---
1157	Sabina ketone	---	---	0.1	2108	(<i>E</i>)-Phytol	0.1	---	---
1162	Pinocarvone	0.5	0.8	0.1		Total Identified	95.9	96.8	93.9
1164	Borneol	3.1	---	2.7					
1166	δ -Terpineol	---	---	0.1					
1167	Lavandulol	---	---	0.1					
1172	Menthol	---	5.4	---					
1173	<i>cis</i> -Pinocamphone	---	---	0.1					
1176	Terpinen-4-ol	0.5	0.9	0.8					
1183	<i>p</i> -Methylacetophenone	---	---	0.1					
1184	<i>p</i> -Cymen-8-ol	---	---	0.3					
1186	<i>trans</i> - <i>p</i> -Menth-1(7),8-dien-2-ol	---	3.5	---					
1189	α -Terpineol	1.0	5.6	0.4					
1195	Myrtenol	0.8	0.7	0.4					
1197	Unidentified	---	---	0.6					
1207	Verbenone	5.2	4.3	0.7					
1217	<i>trans</i> -Carveol	0.3	1.9	0.2					
1218	<i>cis</i> -Sabinene hydrate acetate	---	---	0.1					
1225	Bornyl formate	---	---	0.3					
1225	<i>m</i> -Cumenol	0.3	---	---					
1225	<i>cis</i> - <i>p</i> -Menth-1(7),8-dien-2-ol	---	6.0	---					
1228	<i>cis</i> -Carveol	0.2	---	---					
1233	<i>trans</i> -Chrysanthenyl acetate	---	---	0.2					
1235	Ascaridole	---	15.4	---					
1236	Cuminaldehyde	---	---	0.1					
1238	Unidentified	0.9	---	---					
1240	Carvone	---	2.1	0.2					
1246	Carvotanacetone	---	---	0.1					
1250	<i>cis</i> -Myrtanol	0.1	---	---					
1252	<i>trans</i> -Myrtanol	0.3	---	---					
1252	Piperitone	---	---	tr					
1254	Chavicol	0.1	---	---					
1261	<i>cis</i> -Chrysanthenyl acetate	---	---	tr					
1265	<i>iso</i> -3-Thujanol acetate	---	---	tr					
1267	<i>trans</i> -Ascaridol glycol	---	---	0.1					
1270	Unidentified	0.9	---	tr					
1272	Perilla aldehyde	0.4	---	tr					
1281	neiso-3-Thujanol acetate	---	---	0.1					
1285	Bornyl acetate	0.2	---	0.7					

^a RI = "Retention Index" with respect to a series of normal alkanes on a HP-5ms column. ^b tr = "trace" (< 0.05%). ^c Identification based on MS only.

closely related, chemically, to a sample from Turkey [10r] and a sample from India [10d] and represents an α -thujone-rich chemotype (Figure 1). In addition to α -thujone (30.5%), the Nepalese *A. vulgaris* oil was also rich in 1,8-cineole (12.4%) and camphor (10.3%).

Allelopathic activity: The allelopathic potentials of *Artemisia* essential oils from Nepal have been assessed in terms of inhibition of seed germination as well as inhibition of seedling growth against a representative dicot (lettuce, *Lactuca sativa*) and a representative monocot (perennial ryegrass, *Lolium perenne*). The allelopathic activities of *A. dubia*, *A. indica*, and *A. vulgaris* essential oils are summarized in Table 2. *Lactuca sativa* seed germination is notably inhibited by all three essential oils: *A. dubia* IC₅₀ = 160 μ g/mL, *A. indica* IC₅₀ = 250 μ g/mL, and *A. vulgaris* IC₅₀ < 125 μ g/mL. *Lolium perenne* was less susceptible to germination inhibition (IC₅₀ = 657, 1015, and 1000 μ g/mL, respectively, for *A. dubia*, *A. indica*, and *A. vulgaris*).

Both root (radicle) and shoot (hypocotyl) growth of *L. sativa* and *L. perenne* were notably inhibited by the three *Artemisia* essential oils. *A. dubia* and *A. indica* oils significantly inhibited growth of both seedlings at concentrations of 250 μ g/mL or higher. *A. vulgaris* oil, however, was somewhat less active in terms of growth inhibition, with significant activity at 500 μ g/mL or higher.

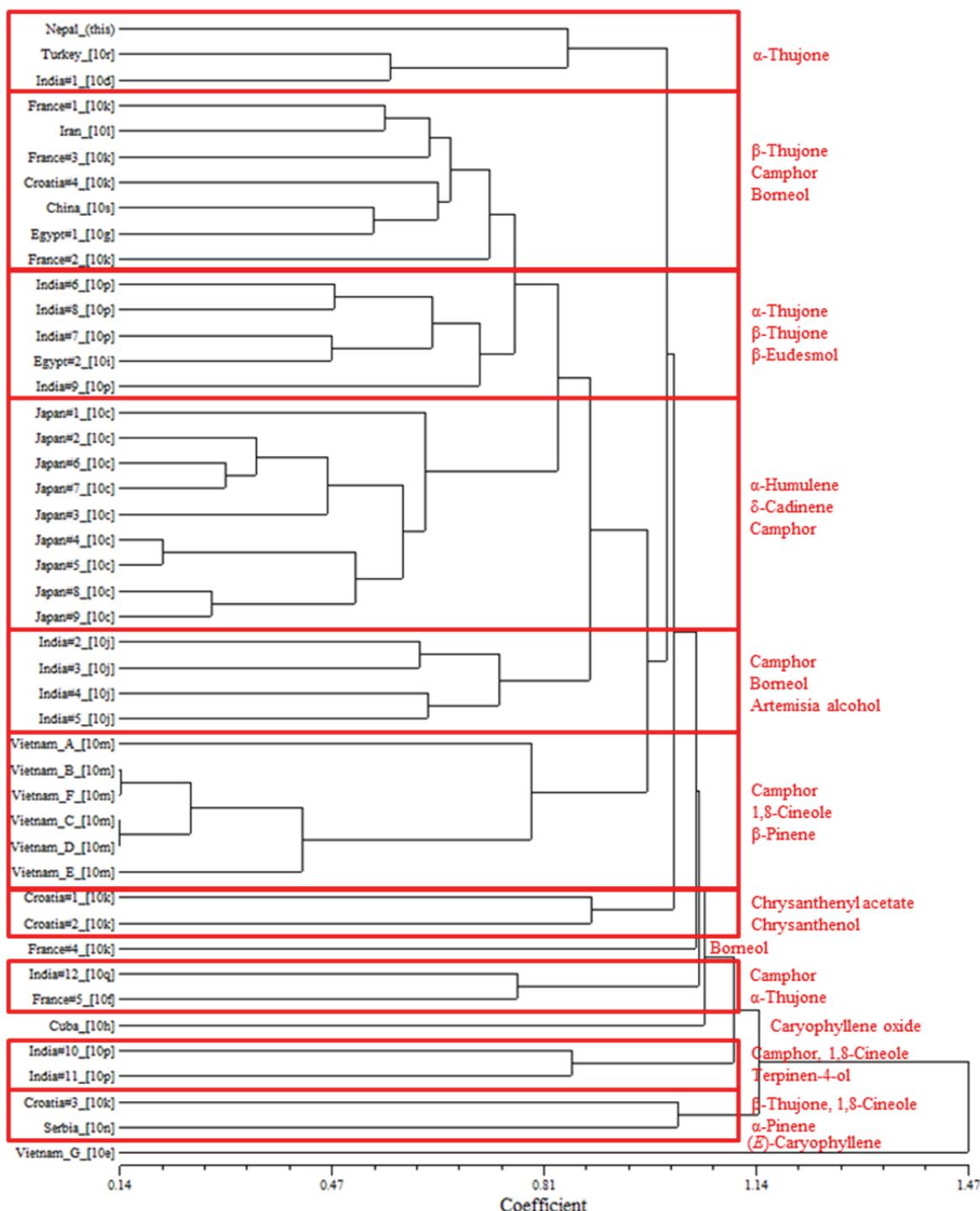


Figure 1: Dendrogram obtained by cluster analysis of the percentage composition of essential oils from *A. vulgaris* samples, based on correlation and using the unweighted pair-group method with arithmetic average (UPGMA). Chemotypes are indicated in red.

The allelopathic activity of *A. dubia* essential oil can be attributed to the high concentrations of coumarin and camphor. Coumarin has previously shown allelopathic potential against *Zoysia japonica* (seedling growth inhibition) [24], *Daucus carota* (*in-vitro* cell culture) [25], and *Zea mays* (root growth and morphology) [26]. In this present work, we have found that coumarin inhibits both seed germination of *L. sativa* and *L. perenne* ($IC_{50} = 51.4$ and 265 $\mu\text{g/mL}$, respectively), as well as seedling growth (significant inhibition of radicle and hypocotyl elongation of both species at 62.5 $\mu\text{g/mL}$). Additionally, camphor has demonstrated allelopathic

activity on *Brassica campestris* seedlings [27] and *Oryza sativa* seedlings [28], as well as germination inhibition and seedling growth of *L. sativa* and *L. perenne* [29].

The allelopathic activity of *A. indica* essential oil from Nepal is likely due to the high concentration of ascaridole (15.4%), a compound that has demonstrated broad bioactivity [30], as well as allelopathic activity [67]. α -Terpineol (5.6%) is also allelopathic [29,32] and may contribute to the activity of *A. indica* oil.

Table 2: Allelopathic activity of Nepalese *Artemisia* essential oils on lettuce (*Lactuca sativa*) and perennial ryegrass (*Lolium perenne*).

Concentration ($\mu\text{g/mL}$)	Germination Inhibition (%)		Seedling Growth (% of Controls)			
	<i>Lactuca sativa</i>	<i>Lolium perenne</i>	radicle	<i>Lactuca sativa</i> hypocotyl	radicle	<i>Lolium perenne</i> hypocotyl
<i>A. dubia</i>						
1000	100	100	---	---	---	---
500	76.7	13.3	18.3 ^a	55.2 ^a	30.4 ^a	71.3 ^b
250	65.0	15.0	41.4 ^a	79.2 ^a	56.2 ^a	74.0 ^c
125	46.7	15.0	70.0 ^a	> 100 ^c	96.8 ^c	> 100 ^c
<i>A. indica</i>						
1000	96.7	48.3	41.2 ^a	0.0 ^a	16.8 ^a	3.0 ^a
500	53.3	20	73.4 ^b	74.2 ^c	48.3 ^a	38.7 ^a
250	50.0	13.3	81.2 ^c	77.3 ^c	53.2 ^a	29.1 ^a
<i>A. vulgaris</i>						
2000	100	60.0	---	---	47.1 ^a	15.9 ^a
1000	96.7	50.0	74.4 ^b	36.8 ^a	51.1 ^a	18.7 ^a
500	58.3	43.3	96.3 ^c	64.0 ^b	70.2 ^c	56.8 ^c
250	58.3	36.7	> 100 ^c	> 100 ^c	> 100 ^c	67.9 ^d
125	63.3	nt ^f	> 100 ^c	> 100 ^c	---	---
Coumarin						
500	100	100	---	---	---	---
250	93.3	43.3	21.8 ^a	42.0 ^a	41.7 ^a	24.7 ^a
125	85.0	30.0	29.1 ^a	48.1 ^a	59.9 ^a	33.7 ^a
62.5	73.3	21.7	52.5 ^a	88.6 ^d	78.5 ^c	58.1 ^a
α/β -Thujones						
3000	98.3	78.3	15.3 ^a	0.0 ^a	44.0 ^a	0.0 ^a
1500	93.3	60.0	62.4 ^a	22.2 ^a	67.4 ^a	12.3 ^a
750	90.0	40.0	96.3 ^c	71.1 ^b	76.3 ^c	20.5 ^a
375	35.0	35.0	> 100 ^c	97.1 ^c	> 100 ^c	65.1 ^c

^a Significantly inhibited compared with controls ($P < 0.001$). ^b Significantly inhibited compared with controls ($0.001 < P < 0.01$). ^c Significantly inhibited compared with controls ($0.01 < P < 0.05$). ^d Significantly inhibited compared with controls ($0.5 < P < 0.1$). ^e Not significantly inhibited. ^f “nt” = not tested.

Table 3: Cytotoxic and antimicrobial activity of Nepalese *Artemisia* essential oils.

Sample	MCF-7 Cytotoxicity (% kill at 100 $\mu\text{g/mL}$)	<i>B. cereus</i>	<i>S. aureus</i>	<i>E. coli</i>	<i>P. aeruginosa</i>	<i>A. niger</i>
<i>A. dubia</i>	100	1250	625	1250	2500	313
<i>A. indica</i>	15.0 (2.8) ^a	625	1250	625	625	625
<i>A. vulgaris</i>	33.6 (2.8)	2500	2500	2500	2500	2500

^a Standard deviations in parentheses.

The allelopathy of *A. vulgaris* has been reported previously [11] and this current work complements that previously reported. The phytotoxic activity of *A. vulgaris* oil against *L. sativa* and *L. perenne* in this study can be attributed to relatively high concentrations of the known allelopathic agents 1,8-cineole [27,29,33], α - and β -thujone [34], and camphor [27-29,32]. In the present work, we found that a mixture of α - and β -thujones weakly inhibited *L. sativa* and *L. perenne* germination with IC₅₀ values of 448 and 1060 $\mu\text{g/mL}$, respectively.

Cytotoxic and antimicrobial activities: Of the three *Artemisia* oils examined in this study, only *A. dubia* showed notable *in vitro* cytotoxic activity with 100% killing of MCF-7 human breast adenocarcinoma cells at a concentration of 100 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ (Table 3). Neither *A. dubia* nor *A. vulgaris* essential oils showed notable antimicrobial activity in our assays (Table 3). *A. dubia* was marginally active against *Staphylococcus aureus* (MIC = 625 $\mu\text{g/mL}$) and *Aspergillus niger* (MIC = 313 $\mu\text{g/mL}$), while *A. indica* oil was marginally active against *B. cereus*, *E. coli*, *P. aeruginosa*, and *A. niger* (MIC = 625 $\mu\text{g/mL}$). The crude ethanol extract of *A. dubia* had shown weak antibacterial activity against *S. aureus* and *S. epidermidis* (MIC = 800 $\mu\text{g/mL}$) [7], while *A. dubia* essential oil showed weak antifungal activity against *Alternaria brassicicola* (64% growth inhibition at 10 $\mu\text{L/mL}$) [8], consistent with our present results. A thujones-rich *A. vulgaris* oil from Turkey had shown antibacterial and antifungal activity in a zone-of-inhibition assay, but minimum inhibitory concentrations were not determined [10r].

Thermal decomposition of ascaridole: Thermal decomposition reactions of ascaridole were investigated using density functional theory at the B3LYP/6-31G* level. The retro-Diels-Alder reaction of ascaridole (singlet ground state) to give α -terpinene and molecular oxygen (triplet ground state) had a calculated free energy

of reaction (ΔG°) of 8.8 kJ/mol. Decomposition reactions of ascaridole, either retro-Diels-Alder reaction or homolytic peroxide O-O bond cleavage, are both spin-forbidden processes. That is, on the first step of either reaction, ascaridole is a singlet ground state but dissociation by retro-Diels-Alder reaction would ultimately lead to triplet-ground-state O₂ as a product. Likewise, homolytic cleavage of singlet ascaridole would lead to a triplet diradical intermediate (Fig. 2). In either of these decomposition processes, high-energy transition structures could be avoided by crossing from the singlet to the triplet potential energy surface. The activation energies are estimated to be where the energies of the two spin-state processes are equal in energy (*i.e.*, where the energies cross with concomitant singlet-to-triplet crossing). It is assumed that the rate of intersystem crossing and the rate of bond cleavage must be similar, and calculating the transition probabilities between the singlet and triplet surfaces can presumably be estimated using the Landau-Zener formula [35], but are beyond the scope of this present study. The free energy of activation (ΔG^\ddagger) for the retro-Diels-Alder reaction was estimated to be the point where the energies for the singlet reaction profile and the triplet reaction profile are the same (Fig. 3). This point corresponds to an average C-O distance of 2.184 Å with a free energy, $G^\ddagger = -540.757851$ au, corresponding to an activation energy, $\Delta G^\ddagger = 170.1$ kJ/mol. Homolytic bond cleavage of the ascaridole peroxide bond with subsequent ring closure to give the diepoxide isoascaridole was calculated to be very exergonic ($\Delta G^\circ = -130.1$ kJ/mol), but with activation energies of 111.9 and 90.2 kJ/mol for the O-O bond cleavage and the epoxide ring closure, respectively (see Figs. 2 and 4). There is another triplet-singlet crossing in the final epoxide ring closing, corresponding to $\Delta G^\ddagger = 93.8$ kJ/mol, to give finally isoascaridole. The free energy of activation for the retro-Diels-Alder reaction is much higher than that of homolytic O-O bond cleavage, suggesting the retro-Diels-Alder reaction to be a less likely pathway for decomposition of ascaridole.

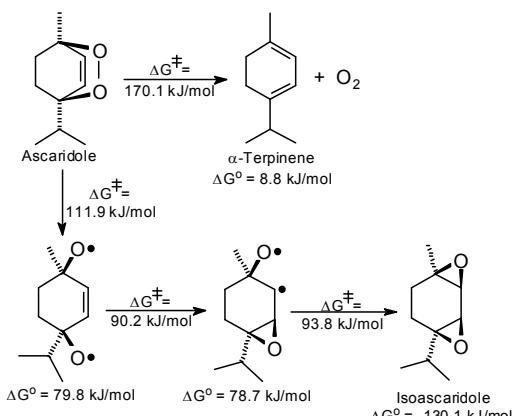


Figure 2: B3LYP/6-31G* free energy differences for decomposition reactions of ascaridole. All energies are relative to the free energy of ascaridole.

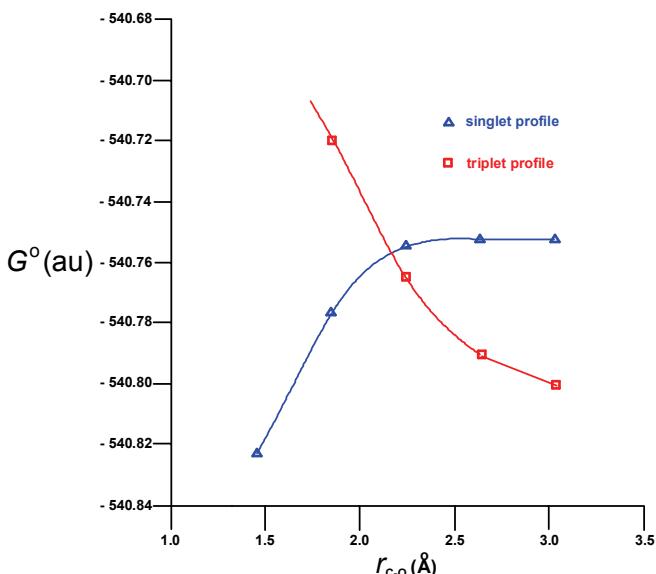


Figure 3: Energy profile for retro-Diels-Alder elimination of O₂. The singlet-triplet potential surface crossing point corresponds to an average C-O distance of 2.184 Å with a free energy, G° = -540.757851 au.

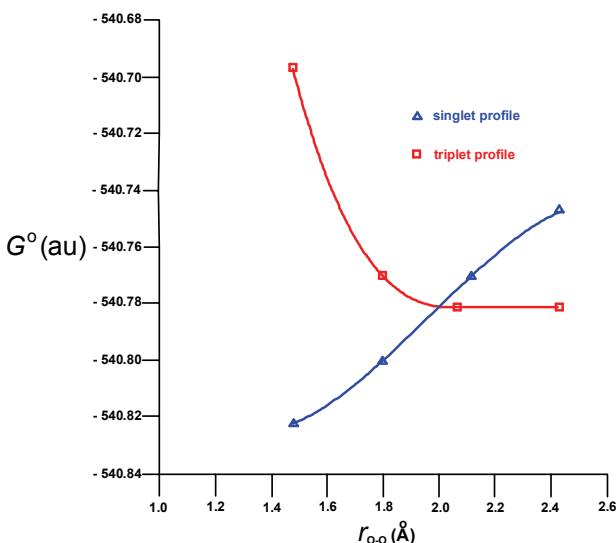


Figure 4: Energy profile for homolytic O—O bond cleavage. The transition structure (singlet-triplet potential surface crossing) corresponds to a free energy, G° = -540.780011 au and O—O bond length of 2.010 Å.

In general, essential oils rich in ascaridole are also rich in both α-terpinene and isoascaridole [19b,30b-e,36], consistent with the reported thermal lability of ascaridole [22,37]. In contrast, neither the essential oil of *Artemisia indica* (this work) nor the essential oil of *Achillea biebersteinii* [38] had detectable quantities of α-terpinene, suggesting that thermal decomposition by way of retro-Diels-Alder reaction either during hydrodistillation or GC injection is not an important decomposition pathway. Additionally, Toncer and co-workers did not detect isoascaridole in their ascaridole-rich sample of *Achillea biebersteinii* [38], suggesting also that decomposition of ascaridole to form isoascaridole is not an important pathway during either hydrodistillation or gas chromatography. It seems reasonable, then, that the presence of α-terpinene and isoascaridole in essential oils rich in ascaridole are not due to thermal decomposition during essential oil isolation or analysis.

Experimental

Plant material: *A. dubia* was collected on 16th May, 2011, from the Kirtipur Municipality (27.67° N, 85.28° E, 1360 m above sea level), Kathmandu, Nepal. The plant was identified by Dr. Krishna Shrestha and a voucher specimen (number TUCH 49) has been deposited in the Tribhuvan University Central Herbarium. Fresh leaves (60.0 g) were shredded and hydrodistilled for 4 h using a Clevenger apparatus to give 0.025 g essential oil.

A. indica was collected on 1st July, 2011, from Dhulikhel (27.61° N, 85.55° E, 1550 m above sea level), Kavre, Nepal. The plant was identified by Sameer Thapa and a voucher specimen (number NH5401) has been deposited in the National Herbarium and Plant Laboratories. Fresh leaves (80.0 g) were shredded and hydrodistilled for 4 h using a Clevenger apparatus to give 0.042 g essential oil.

A. vulgaris was collected on 21st May, 2011, from Hetauda Makwanpur (27.42° N, 85.03° E, 1550 m above sea level), Nepal. The plant was identified by Tilak Gautam and a voucher specimen (number 1204) has been deposited in the Botany Department, Tribhuvan University, Post-Graduate Campus, Biratnagar. Fresh leaves (100.0 g) were shredded and hydrodistilled for 4 h using a Clevenger apparatus to give 0.8 g essential oil.

Gas chromatographic/mass spectral analysis: The *Artemisia* essential oils were analyzed by GC-MS using an Agilent 6890 GC with an Agilent 5973 mass selective detector [MSD, operated in the EI mode (electron energy = 70 eV), scan range = 45–400 amu, and scan rate = 3.99 scans/sec], and an Agilent ChemStation data system. The GC column was a HP-5ms fused silica capillary with a (5% phenyl)-polymethylsiloxane stationary phase, film thickness of 0.25 μm, a length of 30 m, and an internal diameter of 0.25 mm. The carrier gas was helium with a column head pressure of 48.7 kPa and a flow rate of 1.0 mL/min. Injector temperature was 200°C and interface temperature 280°C. The GC oven temperature program was used as follows: 40°C initial temperature, held for 10 min; increased at 3°C/min to 200°C; increased 2°/min to 220°C. A 1% w/v solution of the sample in CH₂Cl₂ was prepared and 1 μL was injected using a splitless injection technique.

Identification of the oil components was based on their retention indices determined by reference to a homologous series of *n*-alkanes, and by comparison of their mass spectral fragmentation patterns with those reported in the literature [39] and stored on the MS library [NIST database (G1036A, revision D.01.00)/ChemStation data system (G1701CA, version

C.00.01.080)]. The percentages of each component are reported as raw percentages based on total ion current without standardization.

Allelopathic activity assays: An allelopathic bioassay based on lettuce (*Lactuca sativa*) and perennial rye grass (*Lolium perenne*) germination and subsequent radicle and hypocotyl growth was used to study the effects of the *Artemisia* essential oils. Stock solutions of each essential oil (2.0 g/L essential oil and 1.0 g/L Tween-80 in water) were prepared and used for the assays. Two-fold serial dilutions of stock test solutions were prepared to give test concentrations of 4000, 2000, 1000, 500, and 250 µg/mL with the control being 1.0 g/L aqueous Tween-80. Seeds were placed in 6-well test plates (10 seeds per well) each well lined with two layers of Whatman No. 1 filter paper moistened with test solution and the test plates were sealed with Parafilm®. The test plates were incubated at room temperature in the dark for 5 days, after which the number of germinated seeds was determined and the root (radicle) and shoot (hypocotyl) lengths were measured. Student's *t*-test [40] was used to compare radicle and hypocotyl test means with controls. Seed germination IC₅₀ values were determined using the Reed-Muench method [41].

Antimicrobial screening: The essential oils were screened for antimicrobial activity against Gram-positive bacteria, *Bacillus cereus* (ATCC No. 14579), *Staphylococcus aureus* (ATCC No. 29213); and Gram-negative bacteria, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (ATCC No. 27853) and *Escherichia coli* (ATCC No. 10798). Minimum inhibitory concentrations (MIC) were determined using the microbroth dilution technique [42]. Dilutions of the essential oil were prepared in cation-adjusted Mueller Hinton broth (CAMHB) beginning with 50 µL of 1% w/w solutions of essential oil in DMSO plus 50 µL CAMHB. The extract solutions were serially diluted (1:1) in CAMHB in 96-well plates. Organisms at a concentration of approximately 1.5 × 10⁸ colony forming units (CFU)/mL were added to each well. Plates were incubated at 37°C for 24 h; the final minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) was determined as the lowest concentration without turbidity. Geneticin was used as a positive antibiotic control; DMSO was used as a negative control. Antifungal activity against *Aspergillus niger* (ATCC No. 16888) was determined as above using potato dextrose broth inoculated with *A. niger* hyphal culture diluted to a McFarland turbidity of 1.0. Amphotericin B was the positive control.

Cytotoxicity screening: Human MCF-7 breast adenocarcinoma cells (ATCC No. HTB-22) [43] were grown in a 3% CO₂ environment at 37°C in RPMI-1640 medium, supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum, 100,000 units penicillin and 10.0 mg streptomycin per L of medium, 15 mM of Hepes, and buffered with 26.7 mM NaHCO₃, pH 7.35. Cells were plated into 96-well cell culture plates at 2.5 × 10⁴ cells per well. The volume in each well was 100 µL. After 48 h, supernatant fluid was removed by suction and replaced with 100 µL growth medium containing 1.0 µL of

DMSO solution of the essential oil (1% w/w in DMSO), giving a final concentration of 100 µg/mL for each well. Solutions were added to wells in 4 replicates. Medium and DMSO controls (10 µL DMSO/mL) were used. Tingenone [44] was used as a positive control. After the addition of compounds, plates were incubated for 48 h at 37°C in 5% CO₂; medium was then removed by suction, and 100 µL of fresh medium was added to each well. In order to establish percent kill rates, the MTT assay for cell viability was carried out [45]. After colorimetric readings were recorded (using a Molecular Devices SpectraMAX Plus microplate reader, 570 nm), average absorbances, standard deviations, and percent kill ratios (%kill_{compd}/%kill_{DMSO}) were calculated.

Numerical cluster analysis: A total of 45 *Artemisia vulgaris* essential oil compositions from this work and the published literature were treated as operational taxonomic units (OTUs). The percentage composition of 36 principle essential oil components (camphor, 1,8-cineole, α-thujone, α-humulene, borneol, β-thujone, δ-cadinene, (*E*)-caryophyllene, α-pinene, β-pinene, terpinen-4-ol, caryophyllene oxide, α-murolene, sabinene, *trans*-chrysanthenyl acetate, α-terpineol, germacrene D, artemisia alcohol, *p*-cymene, camphene, α-phellandrene, chrysanthenol, spathulenol, γ-cadinene, β-eudesmol, β-elemene, γ-terpinene, *trans*-sabinene hydrate, chrysanthenone, α-copaene, methyl eugenol, bornyl acetate, linalool, β-selinene, lyratol, and *trans*-isoelemicin) was used to determine the chemical relationship between the different *A. vulgaris* essential oil samples by cluster analysis using the STSISpc software, version 2.2 [46]. Correlation was selected as a measure of similarity, and the unweighted pair-group method with arithmetic average (UPGMA) was used for cluster definition.

Density functional theory calculations: All calculations were carried out using Spartan '10 for Windows [47]. The hybrid B3LYP functional [48] and the 6-31G* basis set [49] were used for the optimization of all stationary points in the gas phase. Frequency calculations were employed to characterize stationary points as minima or first-order saddle points. All reaction and activation enthalpies reported are zero-point (ZPE) corrected and thermally corrected. Entropies were calculated using the linear harmonic oscillator approximation. Two reaction profiles were modeled: A retro-Diels-Alder elimination of dioxygen and a homolytic O-O peroxide cleavage with subsequent diepoxyde ring closure. In order to model these decomposition reactions, the reaction profiles were calculated stepwise for both the singlet and triplet spin states at the B3LYP/6-31G* level.

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Chemical Compositions, Antioxidant and Antimicrobial Activity of the Essential Oils of *Piper officinarum* (Piperaceae)

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This study was designed to investigate the antioxidant and antimicrobial activities of the essential oils from *Piper officinarum* C. DC. GC and GC/MS analysis of the leaf and stem oils showed forty one components, representing 85.6% and 93.0% of the oil, respectively. The most abundant components in the leaf oil were β -caryophyllene (11.2%), α -pinene (9.3%), sabinene (7.6%), β -selinene (5.3%) and limonene (4.6%), while β -caryophyllene (10.9%), α -phellandrene (9.3%), linalool (6.9%), limonene (6.7%) and α -pinene (5.0%) were the main components of the stem oil. The antioxidant activities were determined by using complementary tests: namely β -carotene-linoleic acid, DPPH radical scavenging and total phenolic assays. The stems oil showed weak activity ($IC_{50} = 777.4 \mu\text{g/mL}$) in the DPPH system, but showed moderate lipid peroxidation inhibition in the β -carotene-linoleic acid system ($88.9 \pm 0.35\%$) compared with BHT ($95.5 \pm 0.30\%$). Both oils showed weak activity against *P. aeruginosa* and *E. coli* with M IC values of $250 \mu\text{g/mL}$.

Keywords: Chemical composition, *Piper officinarum*, Essential oils, Antioxidant, Antimicrobial.

P. officinarum C. DC is locally known as ‘lada panjang’ or ‘kechundai’ in the Malaysian region. It is a climber that grows in Malaysia, India, China, Indonesia and the Philippines. Pepper obtained from this species has been used as an adulterant for *P. longum*. In Cambodia, Laos and Vietnam, the plant is used to treat fever, jaundice, rheumatism and neuralgia. In the Philippines, the roots are chewed to promote digestion and externally to heal wounds [1].

Previous phytochemical studies on *P. officinarum* have resulted in the isolation of a number of amide and lignan compounds [2-5]. In addition, studies on the extracts of this species showed antibacterial, interceptive, antiatherosclerotic and hypolipidaemic activities [6,7]. To the best of our knowledge there is no previous report on the chemical composition of the essential oil of *P. officinarum*. Here we report the chemical composition, antioxidant and antimicrobial activities of the leaf and stem oils of *P. officinarum*, collected from Sarawak, Malaysia.

Hydrodistillation of the fresh leaves and stems of *P. officinarum* gave pale yellow oils in yields of 0.26% and 0.22%(w/w), respectively. The chemical compositions of these oils are listed in Table 1. GC and GC-MS analysis successfully detected forty-one components each, which accounted for 85.6% and 93.0%, respectively of the chromatographic components. Sesquiterpene hydrocarbons were the major components in the leaf (41.1%) and stem (43.6%) oils, with β -caryophyllene (11.2% and 10.9%) being the most substantial compound in both oils. Other major compounds were α -pinene (9.3%), sabinene (7.6%), β -selinene (5.3%) and limonene (4.6%) for the leaf oil, and α -phellandrene (9.3%), linalool (6.9%), limonene (6.7%) and α -pinene (5.0%) for the stem oil. Monoterpene hydrocarbons were present in high concentration in both the leaf (31.7%) and stem oils (30.4%). Oxygenated monoterpenes made up a minor fraction (9.2-12.4%), while oxygenated sesquiterpenes formed 3.0-3.6% of the total oil. Nine

components of the stem oil were not detected in the leaf oil. These were α -terpinolene, eugenol, α -ylangene, methyl eugenol, α -cedrene, α -bergamotene, δ -selinene, (*E*)-nerolidol and α -cadinol. On the other hand, nine components of the leaf oil were not detected in the stem oil (camphene, δ -3-carene, α -terpinene, camphor, β -cubebene, γ -elemene, (*E*, *E*)- α -farnesene, germacrene B and globulol).

The DPPH free radical scavenging activity and β -carotene/linoleic acid tests were carried out on the essential oils, together with the Folin-Ciocalteu assay, which evaluated the total phenolic content of the essential oils. The results are given in Table 2. The antioxidant activity in the DPPH radical scavenging test is due to the hydrogen donating ability of the test material. The capability of substances to donate hydrogen to convert DPPH into the non-radical form of DPPH can be followed spectrophotometrically [8]. Both oils exhibited weak DPPH radical scavenging activity (IC_{50} leaf oil, 622.2 $\mu\text{g/mL}$; stem oil, 777.4 $\mu\text{g/mL}$) compared with the standard antioxidant, BHT ($IC_{50} = 124.4 \mu\text{g/mL}$). The low activity was attributed to the low phenolic content of the essential oils. This was supported by the results of the Folin-Ciocalteu assay on both oils. In the β -carotene/linoleic acid assay, oxidation of linoleic acid produces hydroperoxyl radicals which simultaneously attack the chromophore of β -carotene resulting in bleaching of the reaction emulsion [9]. The effectiveness of the leaf (85.9%) and stem (88.9%) oils was compared with that of BHT (125.5%), but the inhibition values observed were significantly lower than that of BHT.

The antimicrobial activity of the essential oils was evaluated against Gram-positive bacteria, Gram-negative bacteria and fungi. Their activity potentials were assessed qualitatively and quantitatively by the presence of inhibition zones, zone diameters and minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) values. The results are presented in Table 3. The inhibition zones were in the range of 7.0-11.2 mm.

Table 1: Constituents identified in *P. officinarum* leaf and stem oils.

Components	KI ^b	Percentage ^a	
		Leaves	Stems
α -Pinene	930	9.3 ± 0.02	5.0 ± 0.01
Camphene	945	1.5 ± 0.04	-
Sabinene	969	7.6 ± 0.01	3.3 ± 0.02
Myrcene	988	1.5 ± 0.11	1.9 ± 0.10
α -Phellandrene	1002	2.2 ± 0.06	9.3 ± 0.02
δ -3-Carene	1008	0.7 ± 0.02	-
α -Terpinene	1014	0.4 ± 0.04	-
Limonene	1024	4.6 ± 0.1	6.7 ± 0.03
1,8-Cineole	1026	1.0 ± 0.07	1.7 ± 0.06
(Z)- β -Ocimene	1030	0.3 ± 0.05	0.7 ± 0.01
γ -Terpinene	1055	3.6 ± 0.01	2.8 ± 0.05
α -Terpinolene	1086	-	0.7 ± 0.01
Linalool	1092	3.4 ± 0.02	6.9 ± 0.09
Camphor	1142	0.7 ± 0.04	-
Terpinen-4-ol	1175	3.6 ± 0.01	3.5 ± 0.03
α -Terpineol	1186	0.5 ± 0.12	0.3 ± 0.06
α -Cubebene	1345	0.3 ± 0.08	1.1 ± 0.02
Eugenol	1356	-	1.1 ± 0.04
α -Ylangene	1372	-	0.8 ± 0.03
α -Copaene	1374	1.7 ± 0.03	3.4 ± 0.05
β -Cubebene	1386	2.7 ± 0.02	-
β -Elemene	1389	1.3 ± 0.10	1.0 ± 0.04
Methyl eugenol	1403	-	2.5 ± 0.01
α -Gurjunene	1405	2.2 ± 0.02	0.1 ± 0.10
α -Cedrene	1410	-	0.1 ± 0.12
α -Bergamotene	1412	-	0.2 ± 0.05
β -Caryophyllene	1417	11.2 ± 0.02	10.9 ± 0.03
γ -Elemene	1434	0.2 ± 0.05	-
Aromadendrene	1440	0.5 ± 0.02	0.4 ± 0.01
α -Humulene	1452	3.2 ± 0.01	3.1 ± 0.04
Dehydroaromadendrene	1460	0.5 ± 0.04	0.2 ± 0.02
α -Amorphene	1483	3.2 ± 0.03	3.1 ± 0.1
Germacrene D	1485	0.7 ± 0.01	2.1 ± 0.04
β -Selinene	1490	5.3 ± 0.1	2.4 ± 0.1
δ -Selinene	1492	-	0.3 ± 0.05
Cadin-1,4-diene	1495	0.5 ± 0.08	0.3 ± 0.01
α -Selinene	1498	2.5 ± 0.05	2.8 ± 0.01
Bicyclogermacrene	1500	1.2 ± 0.02	5.4 ± 0.02
α -Murolene	1502	0.2 ± 0.02	0.6 ± 0.08
(E,E)- α -Farnesene	1508	0.7 ± 0.05	-
δ -Cadinene	1520	0.2 ± 0.02	2.5 ± 0.02
cis-Calamenene	1528	0.2 ± 0.04	0.2 ± 0.04
α -Calacorene	1545	0.1 ± 0.01	0.1 ± 0.11
Germacrene B	1560	2.5 ± 0.1	-
(E)-Nerolidol	1562	-	0.1 ± 0.04
Spathulenol	1578	1.3 ± 0.01	1.3 ± 0.01
Caryophyllene oxide	1582	0.4 ± 0.03	0.4 ± 0.02
Globulol	1592	1.8 ± 0.07	-
Viridiflorol	1595	0.1 ± 0.02	0.3 ± 0.03
α -Cadinol	1652	-	0.9 ± 0.05
Group components			
Phenylpropanoids		-	3.6 ± 0.2
Monoterpene hydrocarbons		31.7 ± 0.2	30.4 ± 0.2
Oxygenated monoterpenes		9.2 ± 0.2	12.4 ± 0.2
Sesquiterpene hydrocarbons		41.1 ± 0.2	43.6 ± 0.2
Oxygenated sesquiterpenes		3.6 ± 0.2	3.0 ± 0.2
Identified components (%)		85.6 ± 0.2	93.0 ± 0.2

^a Each value is expressed as means ± SD of three injections.^b Retention indices on Ultra-1 capillary column.**Table 2:** Antioxidant activity of *P. officinarum*^a leaf and stem oils.

Samples	β -Carotene/linoleic acid (%)	DPPH IC ₅₀ (μ g/mL)	TPC (mg GA/g)
Leaf oil	85.9 ± 0.4	622.2 ± 0.3	30.4 ± 0.4
Stem oil	88.9 ± 0.3	777.4 ± 0.2	44.1 ± 0.4
BHT	125.5 ± 0.3	124.8 ± 0.2	ND

^a Data represent mean ± SD of three independent experiments; ND – not determined.

The leaf oil was found to have a weak antimicrobial activity against *B. subtilis*, *P. aeruginosa* and *E. coli*, with MIC values of 250 μ g/mL. The stem oil showed similar weak activity against *P. aeruginosa* and *E. coli*, with MIC values of 250 μ g/mL. Components such as α -pinene, 1,8-cineole, γ -terpinene, linalool and α -terpineol have been found to have relatively strong antimicrobial properties [10]. These components were present in both the leaf and stem oils and, therefore, may have contributed to this antimicrobial activity. Generally, essential oils that contain high proportions of oxygenated monoterpenes have stronger antifungal activities [11]. However, the leaf and stem oils showed only weak antifungal activity against *A. niger*, with a MIC value of 500 μ g/mL. The weak

Table 3: Antimicrobial activity of *P. officinarum* leaf and stem oils^a

Test microbes	Leaf oil	Stem oil	SS	NYS
<i>Bacillus subtilis</i>	DD 10.5 ± 0.4	11.2 ± 0.3	17.6 ± 0.2	ND
	MIC 250	500	7.8	ND
<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	DD 8.9 ± 0.4	8.6 ± 0.4	17.8 ± 0.2	ND
	MIC 500	500	7.8	ND
<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i>	DD 8.7 ± 0.3	8.8 ± 0.5	17.2 ± 0.2	ND
	MIC 250	250	7.8	ND
<i>Pseudomonas putida</i>	DD 8.6 ± 0.5	8.5 ± 0.4	17.3 ± 0.2	ND
	MIC 500	500	7.8	ND
<i>Escherichia coli</i>	DD 8.2 ± 0.5	8.2 ± 0.4	17.5 ± 0.2	ND
	MIC 250	250	7.8	ND
<i>Candida albicans</i>	DD 7.0 ± 0.4	8.0 ± 0.5	ND	15.2 ± 0.2
	MIC 1000	1000	ND	7.8
<i>Aspergillus niger</i>	DD 7.4 ± 0.4	8.3 ± 0.4	ND	15.3 ± 0.2
	MIC 500	500	ND	7.8

^a Data represent mean ± SD of three independent experiments.DD – Disc diffusion (zone of inhibition including the diameter of disc: 6 mm); MIC – Minimum inhibitory concentration (μ g/mL); SS – streptomycin sulfate; NYS – nystatin; ND – not determined.

antifungal activity of both oils was due to the small amount of oxygenated monoterpenes. Previous studies have reported that the antimicrobial activity of an essential oil results from a complex interaction between different components which may produce additive, synergistic or antagonistic effect [12].

Experimental

Plant materials: A sample of *P. officinarum* C. DC was collected from Lundu, Sarawak, Malaysia, in January 2010 and identified by Mdm Mohizar Mohamad. The voucher specimen (UiTMKS3004) was deposited at the Natural Products Research & Development Centre (NPRDC), UiTM Sarawak.

Solvents and chemicals: β -Carotene, linoleic acid, 1,1-diphenyl-2-picrylhydrazyl (DPPH), gallic acid and butylated hydroxytoluene (BHT) were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich Chemie (Steinheim, Germany). Analytical grade methanol, ethanol and dimethylsulfoxide (DMSO), HPLC grade chloroform, Folin-Ciocalteu's reagent, anhydrous sodium sulfate, sodium carbonate and polyoxyethylene sorbitan monopalmitate (Tween-40) were purchased from Merck (Darmstadt, Germany).

Extraction of essential oils: The fresh leaves and stems were subjected to hydrodistillation in an all glass Dean-Stark apparatus for 8 h. The oils obtained were dried over anhydrous magnesium sulfate and stored at 4–6°C.

Gas chromatography (GC): GC analyses were performed on a Hewlett Packard 6890 series II A gas chromatograph equipped with an Ultra-1 column (100% polymethylsiloxanes) (25 m long, 0.33 μ m thickness and 0.20 mm inner diameter). Helium was used as carrier gas at a flow rate of 0.7 mL/min. Injector and detector temperatures were set at 250 and 280°C, respectively. Oven temperature was kept at 50°C, then gradually raised to 280°C at 5°C/min and finally held isothermally for 15 min. Diluted samples (1/100 in diethyl ether, v/v) of 1.0 μ L were injected manually (split ratio 50:1). The injection was repeated 3 times and the peak area percentages were reported as means ± SD of triplicates. Calculation of peak area percentage was carried out using GC HP Chemstation software (Agilent Technologies).

Gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC-MS): GC-MS chromatograms were recorded using a Hewlett Packard Model 5890A gas chromatography and a Hewlett Packard Model 5989A mass spectrometer. The GC was equipped with an Ultra-1 column (25 m long, 0.33 μ m thickness and 0.20 mm inner diameter). Helium was used as carrier gas at a flow rate of 1 mL/min. Injector temperature was 250°C. Oven temperature was programmed from 50°C (5 min hold) at 10°C/min to 250°C and finally held

isothermally for 15 min. For GC-MS detection, an electron ionization system, with ionization energy of 70 eV was used. A scan rate of 0.5 s (cycle time: 0.2 s) was applied, covering a mass range from 50–400 amu.

Identification of components: The constituents of the oil were identified by comparison of their MS with reference spectra in the computer library (Wiley), and also by comparing their retention indices with those of either authentic compounds or data in the literature [13]. The quantitative data were obtained electronically from FID area percentage without the use of correction factor.

Antioxidant activity - DPPH radical scavenging: The free radical scavenging activity was measured by the DPPH method [14], with minor modifications. Each sample of stock solution (1.0 mg/mL) was diluted to a final concentration of 1000, 500, 250, 125, 62.5, 31.3, 15.6 and 7.8 µg/mL. Then, a total of 3.8 mL of 50 µM DPPH methanolic solution (1 mg/50 mL) was added to 0.2 mL of each sample solution and allowed to react at room temperature for 30 min. The absorbance of the mixtures was measured at 517 nm. A control was prepared without sample or standard and measured immediately at 0 min. The percent inhibitions (%) of DPPH radical were calculated as follows:

$$I\% = [(A_{\text{blank}} - A_{\text{sample}}) / A_{\text{blank}}] \times 100$$

where A_{blank} is the absorbance value of the control reaction (containing all reagents except the test compound) and A_{sample} is the absorbance value of the test compounds. The sample concentration providing 50% inhibition (IC_{50}) was calculated by plotting inhibition percentages against concentrations of the sample. All tests were carried out in triplicate and IC_{50} values were reported as means \pm SD of triplicates.

Total phenolic content (TPC): Total phenolic contents of the essential oils were determined as described by Slinkard and Singleton [15]. A sample of stock solution (1.0 mg/mL) was diluted in methanol to final concentrations of 1000, 800, 600, 400, and 200 µg/mL. A 0.1 mL aliquot of sample was pipetted into a test tube containing 0.9 mL of methanol, then 0.05 mL Folin-Ciocalteu's reagent was added, and the flask thoroughly shaken. After 3 min, 0.5 mL of 5% Na_2CO_3 solution was added and the mixture allowed to stand for 2 h with intermittent shaking. Then, 2.5 mL of methanol was added and left to stand in the dark for 1 h. The absorbance measurements were recorded at 765 nm. The same procedure was repeated for the standard gallic acid solutions and a standard curve obtained with the following equation:

$$y = 0.0021x - 0.0223, r^2 = 0.9928$$

The concentration of total phenolic compounds in the oils was expressed as mg of gallic acid equivalent per g of sample. Tests were carried out in triplicate and the gallic acid equivalent value was reported as mean \pm SD of triplicate.

β -Carotene-linoleic acid: The β -carotene-linoleic acid bleaching assay described by Miraliakbari and Shahidi [16] was used, with minor modifications. A mixture of β -carotene and linoleic acid was prepared by mixing together 0.5 mg β -carotene in 1 mL chloroform (HPLC grade), 25 µL linoleic acid and 200 mg Tween 40. The chloroform was then completely evaporated under vacuum and 100 mL of oxygenated distilled water was subsequently added to the residue and mixed gently to form a clear yellowish emulsion. The essential oils and BHT (positive control) were individually dissolved in methanol (2 g/L) and 350 µL volumes of each of them were added to 2.5 mL of the above emulsion in test tubes and mixed thoroughly. The test tubes were incubated in a water bath at 50°C

for 2 h, together with a negative control (blank) containing the same volume of methanol. The absorbance values were measured at 470 nm on an ultraviolet-visible (UV-vis) spectrophotometer. Antioxidant activities (percentage inhibitions, %) of the samples were calculated using the following equation:

$$I\% = (A_{\beta\text{-carotene after 2 h}} - A_{\text{initial } \beta\text{-carotene}}) \times 100$$

where $A_{\beta\text{-carotene after 2 h}}$ is the absorbance value of β -carotene after 2 h and $A_{\text{initial } \beta\text{-carotene}}$ is the absorbance value of β -carotene at the beginning of the experiment. All tests were carried out in triplicate and percentage inhibitions were reported as means \pm SD of triplicates.

Antimicrobial activity: Microbial strains: *Staphylococcus aureus* (ATCC29737), *Bacillus subtilis* (ATCC6633), *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (ATCC9027), *Pseudomonas putida* (ATCC49128), *Escherichia coli* (ATCC10536), *Candida albicans* (ATCC10231), and *Aspergillus niger* (ATCC16888) were purchased from Mutiara Scientific, Cheras, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia. The strains were grown on nutrient agar (Oxoid, Italy) for the bacteria, and potato dextrose agar (PDA) for yeasts and fungi. For the antimicrobial tests, nutrient broth (Oxoid, Italy) for bacteria, and potato dextrose broth (PDB) for yeasts and fungi were used.

Disc diffusion: Antimicrobial activity of the essential oils of *P. officinarum* was determined by the agar disc diffusion method. The essential oils were dissolved in DMSO (4 mg/mL). Antimicrobial tests were carried out by the disc diffusion method [17] using 400 µL of suspension containing 10^8 CFU/mL of bacteria and 10^6 CFU/mL of fungi, spread on the nutrient agar (NA) and potato dextrose agar (PDA) mediums, respectively. The disc (6 mm diameter) impregnated with 10 µL of the essential oils and DMSO (negative control) was placed on the inoculated agar, which was incubated for either 24 h at 37°C (bacteria) or 48 h at 30°C (fungi). Streptomycin sulfate (10 µg/mL) and nystatin (100 IU) were used as the positive controls for bacteria and fungi, respectively. Clear inhibition zones around the discs indicated the presence of antimicrobial activity. All tests and analyses were carried out in triplicate.

Minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC): The MIC was determined by the broth micro dilution method using 96-well microplates [18]. The inoculate of the microbial strains was prepared from 24 h broth cultures and suspensions were adjusted to 0.5 McFarland standard turbidity. Essential oil (1 mg) was dissolved in DMSO (1 mL) to obtain 1000 µg/mL stock solution. A number of wells were reserved in each plate for positive and negative controls. Sterile broth (100 µL) was added to the well from row B to H. The stock solutions of samples (100 µL) were added to the wells in rows A and B. Then, the mixture of samples and sterile broth (100 µL) in row B was transferred to each well in order to obtain a twofold serial dilution of the stock samples (concentration of 1000, 500, 250, 125, 62.5, 31.3, 15.6 and 7.8 µg/mL). The inoculum (100 µL) was added to each well. The final volume in each well was 200 µL. Streptomycin sulfate for bacteria and nystatin for fungi were used as positive controls. Plates were incubated at 37°C for 24 h. Microbial growth was indicated by the presence of turbidity and a pellet at the bottom of the well.

Statistical analysis: Data obtained from essential oil analysis, antioxidant and antimicrobial activity are expressed as mean values. Statistical analyses were carried out by employing one way ANOVA ($p > 0.05$). A statistical package (SPSS version 11.0) was used for the data analysis.

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Chemical Composition, Antimicrobial and Antioxidant Properties of the Volatile Oil and Methanol Extract of *Xenophyllum poposum*

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The essential oil and methanol extract of northwestern Argentina medicinal plant *Xenophyllum poposum*, collected in Catamarca province, were investigated. GC and GC-MS analyses of the essential oil identified 56 compounds accounting for 92.9%. The main components of the oil were δ -cadinene (16.5%), 6-hydroxytremetone (14.7%), *epi*- α -cadinol (12.0%), α -cadinol (8.8%), γ -cadinene (7.5%), 1-*epi*-cubenol (4.2%) and α -muurolene (3.0%). The essential oil exhibited antibacterial activities against five pathogenic strains as well as antifungal activities against two pathogenic fungi. The methanol extract showed antibacterial activity against two strains of *Staphylococcus aureus* and two pathogenic fungal strains. The main components isolated from the methanol extract were the antifungal 4-hydroxy-3-(isopenten-2-yl)-acetophenone, 6-hydroxytremetone, and tremetone. 6-Hydroxytremetone showed activity against all the fungal strains and one of the *S. aureus* strains assayed. Antioxidant and radical-scavenging properties of the methanol extract and essential oil were determined using the 2,2'-diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl assay and β -carotene bleaching (BCB) test. The methanol extract and the essential oil showed, respectively, moderate and weak antioxidant activity when compared to butylated hydroxytoluene.

Keywords: *Xenophyllum poposum*, *Werneria poposa*, Asteraceae, Essential oil, New chemotype, Methanol extract, Prenylated *p*-hydroxyacetophenone, 6-Hydroxytremetone, Antimicrobial activity.

Xenophyllum poposum (Philippi) V.A. Funk (syn. *Werneria poposa* Philippi) is a perennial rhizomatous plant belonging to the Asteraceae family and one of 21 species of the Andean genus *Xenophyllum* that has recently been extracted from the genus *Werneria* s.l. [1]. *X. poposum* is a fetid sub-shrub known under the common names “poposa”, “pupusa” or “fosfosa” that grows in the high mountains of Northern Argentina, Northern Chile, Bolivia and Southern Peru at 4600-5300 m above sea level [2]. Infusions of its aerial parts are used in folk medicine for the treatment of hypertension, altitude sickness and digestive disorders, such as indigestion, intestinal inflammation, intestinal colics, and diarrhoea [3]. Also, it is used for abdominal pain, rheumatism, and as a food condiment for pneumonia convalescents [3,4]. This herb together with the “chachacoma” (*Senecio nutans* Sch. Bip.) and the “copacopa” (*Artemisia copa* Phil.) are the most common Asteraceae in the Northwestern Argentina folk pharmacopeia [4]. *Xenophyllum poposum* is frequently confused with *X. incisum* and, in folk medicine, the uses for both species are essentially the same [5].

Previous investigations on *X. poposum* (under the old *Werneria poposa* label) reported the presence of (-)kaur-16-en-19-al from petrol extract, 4-hydroxy-3-(isopenten-2-yl)-acetophenone (**1**) and 4-hydroxy-3-(3'-hydroxyisopentyl)-acetophenone from the methylene chloride extract [6a], and the coumarins aesculetin, fraxetin, isoscopoletin, and dihydroisoscopoletin along with the flavonoid isorhamnetin from the methanol extract (ME) [6b]. Recently, the phytotoxic activities of the benzofuran (2*R*)-6-hydroxytremetone (**2**) isolated from this plant have been reported [7].

Following our investigations on herbs used in Andean traditional medicine [8], we report here the chemical composition, antimicrobial and antioxidant activities of both the essential oil and the methanol extract of *Xenophyllum poposum*.

GC and GC/MS analyses of the essential oil led to the identification of 56 compounds accounting for 92.9% of the oil. Table 1 shows the identified constituents, their percentages, retention indices and method of identification. The essential oil was dominated by sesquiterpenoids (72.2%) with almost equal amounts of sesquiterpene hydrocarbons (36.0%) and oxygenated sesquiterpenes (36.2%). The amount of monoterpenoids was very low representing barely 3.6% of the oil. Interestingly, the essential oil contains significant amounts of 6-hydroxytremetone (**2**) (14.7%) and tremetone (1.7%). Other major components of the volatile oil were: δ -cadinene (16.5%), **2** (14.7%), *epi*- α -cadinol (T-cadinol) (12.0%), α -cadinol (8.8%), γ -cadinene (7.5%), 1-*epi*-cubenol (4.2%) and α -muurolene (3.0%) and an unidentified sesquiterpene alcohol C₁₅H₂₆O (5.8%) (Table 1).

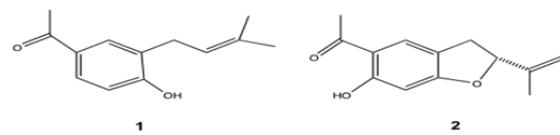
A previous investigation on *X. poposum* collected at an undisclosed location of the Argentine Puna [9] yielded a qualitative very different volatile oil, dominated by monoterpenes (76.4%), with β -pinene (21.8%), α -pinene (5.5%), terpinen-4-ol (5.3%) and α -terpinene (5.2%), as major components. The total amount of sesquiterpenoids was low (6.2%) and neither tremetone analogs nor other benzofuran derivatives were detected [9]. The dissimilar chemical composition exhibited by the essential oil of our collection strongly suggests that we are dealing with a different chemotype, a

Table 1: Chemical composition of *Xenophyllum poposum* essential oil.

Compound	%	RI _{Exp}	RI _{Lit} [13]	Identification
α-Pinene	< 0.1	933	932	a,b,c
β-Pinene	< 0.1	976	974	a,b,c
α-Phellandrene	< 0.1	1004	1002	a,b
α-Terpinene	< 0.1	1016	1014	a,b,c
p-Cymene	< 0.1	1023	1020	a,b,c
Limonene	< 0.1	1027	1024	a,b,c
β-Phellandrene	< 0.1	1028	1025	a,b
γ-Terpinene	< 0.1	1056	1054	a,b
Undecane	< 0.1	1100	1100	a,b,c
endo-Fenchol	0.2	1114	1114	a,b
cis-para-Menth-2-en-1-ol	0.1	1120	1118	a,b
1-Terpineol	0.1	1131	1130	a,b,c
Camphepane hydrate	0.1	1145	1145	a,b
Isoborneol	0.1	1157	1155	a,b,c
Borneol	0.6	1167	1165	a,b,c
Terpinen-4-ol	0.5	1174	1174	a,b,c
p-Cymen-8-ol	0.1	1180	1179	a,b
α-Terpineol	1.2	1188	1186	a,b,c
Piperitone	0.2	1252	1249	a,b,c
α-Cubebene	0.1	1349	1345	a,b
α-Copaene	1.1	1377	1374	a,b
β-Caryophyllene	0.1	1420	1417	a,b,c
β-Copaene	0.1	1428	1430	a,b
Aromadendrene	0.1	1441	1439	a,b
α-Humulene	0.3	1454	1452	a,b,c
allo-Aromadendrene	1.0	1459	1458	a,b,c
cis-Muurola-4(14),5-diene	0.1	1467	1465	a,b
γ-Muurolene	0.9	1477	1478	a,b
α-Amorphene	1.1	1482	1483	a,b
trans-Muurola-4(14),5-diene	0.1	1493	1493	a,b
cis-Cadin-1,4-diene	0.5	1496	1495	a,b
α-Muurolene	3.0	1499	1500	a,b
γ-Cadinene	7.5	1511	1513	a,b,c,d
δ-Cadinene	16.5	1523	1522	a,b,c,d
trans-Cadin-1,4-diene	0.8	1533	1533	a,b
α-Cadinene	1.2	1536	1537	a,b,c
α-Calacorene	1.1	1545	1544	a,b
Spathulenol	0.4	1578	1577	a,b,c
Viridiflorol	0.1	1591	1592	a,b
β-Oplopnone	0.4	1606	1607	a,b
1,10-di-epi-Cubenol,	1.1	1616	1618	a,b
Dehydrotremetone	0.1	1622	-	b,c
1-epi-Cubenol	4.2	1626	1627	a,b
Sesquiterpene alcohol C ₁₅ H ₂₀ O*	5.8	1634	-	a,b
epi-α-Cadinol (T-cadinol)	12.0	1638	1638	a,b,c,d
epi-α-Muurolol	1.7	1641	1640	a,b,c
α-Muurolol	1.7	1645	1644	a,b,c
α-Cadinol	8.8	1652	1652	a,b,c,d
Cadalone	0.4	1672	1675	a,b
Tremetone	1.7	1727	-	b,c,d
6-Hydroxytremetone	14.7	1854	-	b,c,d
Nonadecane	0.2	1900	1900	a,b
Eicosane	0.1	2000	2000	a,b
Heneicosane	0.2	2100	2100	a,b
Docosane	< 0.1	2200	2200	a,b
Tricosane	0.1	2300	2300	a,b
Monoterpene hydrocarbons	0.4			
Oxygenated monoterpenes	3.2			
Sesquiterpene hydrocarbons	36.0			
Oxygenated sesquiterpene	36.2			
p-hydroxyacetophenone derivatives	16.5			
Others	0.6			
TOTAL IDENTIFIED	92.9			

* Retention index (RI) on an HP-5 capillary column; ^b Mass spectrum; ^c Co-injection with an authentic sample; ^d ¹H NMR; * EIMS m/z (rel. abund. %): 222 [M⁺] (3); 207 (7); 204 (23); 189 (24); 161 (55); 147 (8); 133 (20); 121 (28); 109 (100); 93 (44); 81 (28); 69 (23); 55 (26); 43 (32); 41 (40).

trait frequently found in aromatic plants. It is worth to note that later collections of *X. poposum* performed by us in December 2005, March 2009 and March 2011 at the same location (Cerro Pabellón, Catamarca province) yielded volatile oils with chemical compositions essentially identical to the March 2003 collection. The stability of the chemical profile during several years of plants gathered at the same place strongly supports that our collection represents a true chemotype. The essential oil composition of the samples collected in 2005, 2009 and 2011 is available on request to the corresponding author.



Besides, GC-MS analysis of another sample of *X. poposum* purchased at an herbal store in Tucumán city (see *Plant Material*) showed that it belonged to the same chemotype of our Cerro Pabellón collection as its essential oil was dominated by sesquiterpenoids (72.8%), with δ-cadinene (18.8%), *epi*-α-cadinol (10.0%), γ-cadinene (9.1%), α-cadinol (5.7%), α-muurolene (3.3%) and 1-*epi*-cubenol (1.8%) as main components, which were accompanied by a significant amount of 2 (11.8%).

Most of the relevant components of the essential oil from *X. poposum* are bioactive compounds. Thus, **2** (14.7% in the essential oil) displays potent anticancer activity against HL-60 human leukaemia and HeLa cell lines [10a], plant growth inhibitory [10b], anti HIV-1 [10c] and allergenic [10d] activities. In turn, *epi*-α-cadinol (T-cadinol) (12.0%) induces dendritic cells from human monocytes and drive Th1 polarization [11a]. It has also been shown that T-cadinol inhibits induced intestinal hypersecretion in mice and electrically induced contractions of the isolated guinea pig ileum [11b], and possesses calcium antagonist properties [12a]. T-cadinol (12%) and α-cadinol (8.8%) were also reported to suppress the nitric oxide production induced by lipopolysaccharides and possess significant anti-inflammatory activity [12b]. α-Cadinol also exhibits strong antimite activity against *Dermatophagoides pteronyssinus* and *D. farinae* [12c].

The methanol extract (ME) of *X. poposum* exhibited a moderated scavenging effect in comparison to butylated hydroxytoluene (BHT) (IC₅₀ = 160 ppm for ME; 17 ppm for BHT), while the essential oil and compounds **1** and **2** were inactive (Figure 1). With the β-carotene bleaching method, both the ME and the essential oil showed a moderate antioxidant activity (35.9% and 27.1% resp.) in comparison to BHT (Figure 2).

The antibacterial screening of essential oil (Table 2) showed antibacterial activities against *P. aeruginosa* and both *E. coli* and *S. aureus* strains assayed. In addition, it showed antibacterial activity against the clinical strains *B. cepacia* and *H. alvei*, but at concentrations of 1.1 mg/mL. Furthermore, a strong antifungal activity against filamentous fungi was observed with minimal inhibitory concentrations (MICs) varying between 0.025-0.05 mg/mL. The ME was only active against both *S. aureus* strains assayed, but also showed similar antifungal activities as the essential oil against filamentous fungi. Interestingly, **2** exhibited weak antibacterial and antifungal activities, but a significant antifungal activity against *A. fumigatus*.

In conclusion, *X. poposum* contains significant amounts of several powerful bioactive compounds. The known inhibitory effects of T-cadinol on intestinal hypersecretion and ileum contractions [11b] as well as its calcium antagonist properties [12a] are consistent with the use of *X. poposum* in folk medicine to treat digestive disorders such as indigestion, intestinal inflammation, intestinal colics, abdominal pain and hypertension [3,4]. In addition, because of the co-occurrence of so many bioactive compounds, it should be expected that the consumption of this herb has powerful effects that deserve to be investigated in depth. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first study reporting the antioxidant and antimicrobial activities of *X. poposum* and the existence of a well-defined essential oil chemotype.

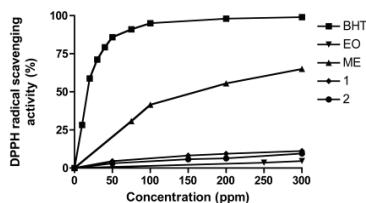


Figure 1: Scavenging effect of essential oil (EO) and methanol extract (ME) of *X. poposum*, compounds **1** and **2** and BHT. Free radical scavenging activity was determined by 2,2-diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl (DPPH) radical assay. BHT was used as a control. Shown is the mean \pm SD of three independent experiments.

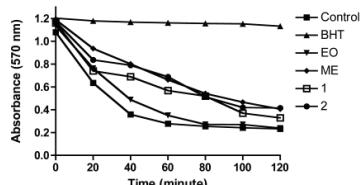


Figure 2: Antioxidant activity of essential oil (EO) and methanol extract (ME) of *X. poposum*, compounds **1** and **2**, and BHT at 1000 ppm in β -carotene-linoleate model system. Shown is the mean \pm SD of three independent experiments.

Table 2: Minimal Inhibitory Concentrations (mg/mL) of essential oil and ME from *X. poposum*.

Organism	Essential Oil	ME	2
Bacteria			
<i>Acinetobacter baumannii</i>	1.0	R	1.0
<i>Burkholderia cepacia*</i>	1.17	NA	NA
<i>Enterobacter gergoviae*</i>	R	NA	NA
<i>Escherichia coli</i> ATCC 35218	0.74	NA	NA
<i>Escherichia coli</i> ATCC 25922	0.95	R	1.0
<i>Hafnia alvei*</i>	1.11	NA	NA
<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i>	0.71	NA	NA
<i>Salmonella typhimurium</i>	R	R	1.0
<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	0.5	0.25	R
<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i> MRSA	0.25	0.25	0.75
Fungi			
<i>Aspergillus fumigatus</i>	0.025	0.25	0.025
<i>Candida albicans</i>	R	R	0.75
<i>Cryptococcus neoformans</i>	R	R	1.0
<i>Trichophyton rubrum</i>	0.05	0.05	0.75

R= resistant. *Clinical isolate. NA= Not assayed.

Experimental

Plant Material: Aerial parts of wild growing *X. poposum* (Philippi) V.A. Funk were collected at Cerro Pabellón at 4600 m above sea level, Andalgalá Department, province of Catamarca, Argentina, in March 2003 during the flowering period. A voucher specimen has been deposited in the herbarium of Miguel Lillo Institute (LIL 29301), Tucumán, Argentina. Later collections carried out in December 2005, March 2009 and March 2011 at the same place yielded essential oils (GC-MS analysis) practically identical to the 2003 collection. Also, a commercial sample of aerial parts of *X. poposum* purchased in February 2006 at a herbal store in Tucumán city and supposedly gathered in the Calchaquí mountains, Tafi del Valle Department, Tucumán province, belonging to the same phytogeographical region of our collections in Catamarca province, was hydrodistilled to yield an essential oil with a chemical composition (see below) resembling the collection at Cerro Pabellón (Table 1).

Methanol extract preparation and essential oil preparation: Air-dried aerial parts of *X. poposum* (100 g) were macerated with MeOH for 4 days. After filtering, the solvent was evaporated at reduced pressure to yield 13.2 g of ME, which was used for the antioxidant and antimicrobial assays. The essential oil was obtained by hydrodistillation of aerial parts (200 g) for 3 h in a Clevenger-type apparatus. A yield of 1.3 mL 0.65% (v/w) was obtained.

Qualitative and quantitative analyses of the essential oil were carried out using a Hewlett-Packard 5890 series II GC with flame ionization detector (FID), equipped with a capillary HP-5 column (5% phenyl methyl silicone, 30 m x 0.32 mm; 0.25 μ m film thickness) with nitrogen as carrier gas (1.1 mL/min). The oven was programmed for 75°C (4 min), 75°–180° (2°C/min) and 220°–280° (10°C/min). Injection volume was 0.1 μ L, split mode. Injector and detector temperatures were maintained at 250°C and 270°C, respectively. The relative amounts of individual components are based on the peak areas obtained with an integrator HP 3395 without FID response factor correction. Retention indices (RI) were obtained by co-injection of a series of standard *n*-hydrocarbons C₈–C₁₈ and the oil sample using the oven temperature program suggested by Adams [13] (60°C to 246°C at 3 °C/min). The GC-MS analysis was carried out with a 5973 Hewlett Packard selective mass detector (quadrupole), source 70 eV, coupled to a HP 6890 GC fitted with a HP-5MS column (5% phenylmethyl siloxane, 30 m x 0.25 mm; film thickness 0.25 μ m) with helium as carrier gas (1.0 mL/min; constant flow). Injection port was maintained at 250°C, GC-MS interphase at 275°C, ion source 230°C, and MS Quad at 150°C. The oven was programmed as above. The injection volume was 0.1 μ L (split 1:80). The identification of the individual components was based on: (a) Computer matching with commercial mass spectra libraries (NBS75K, NIST, WILEY) and comparison with mass spectra available in our files, (b) Comparison of GC retention indexes (RIs) on an HP-5 column [13]. RIs were obtained by co-injection of a series of *n*-hydrocarbons C₈–C₁₈ with the oil sample. For RI measurements, an oven temperature program of 60°C to 246°C at 3 °C/min was used [13]; (c) Co-injection with authentic samples (whenever available), (d) Tremetone and **2** were also isolated from the ME by column chromatography on Sigel 230–400 Mesh using hexane-EtOAc mixtures of increasing polarity as eluting solvent and characterized by NMR spectroscopy.

Isolation of 4-hydroxy-3-(isopenten-2-yl)-acetophenone (1**), tremetone and 6-hydroxytremetone (**2**):** A portion of ME (2.1 g) was subjected to column chromatography over Si gel (105 g; Merck 70–230 mesh) using *n*-hexane with increasing amounts of EtOAc (0–40%) to yield 67 fractions, which were monitored and reunited on the basis of their TLC profiles and analyzed by GC-MS. Frs. 17–21 were reunited (96 mg) and re-chromatographed over Si gel (Merck 230–400 mesh) using *n*-hexane-EtOAc mixtures of increasing polarity to give 77 mg of **2**. Frs. 28–30 (14 mg) after preparative TLC (hexane-EtOAc 4:1; two developments) gave 8 mg of tremetone. Frs. 39–52 (915 mg) gave a solid residue, which on recrystallization from *n*-heptane-ethyl acetate afforded 672 mg of crystalline 4-hydroxy-3-(isopenten-2-yl)-acetophenone (**1**), mp 96°C. The structure of compounds **1** and **2** was confirmed by NMR spectroscopy. Compound **1** possesses significant antifungal properties [14] and was by far the main component in the ME of *X. poposum*.

Antioxidant activity: The antioxidant activities of the essential oil and ME of *X. poposum* as well as compounds **1** and **2**, were measured in terms of hydrogen donating or radical scavenging capability using the stable radical DPPH as reagent. The method described by Wei and T. Shibamoto [15] with slight modifications was used. The assay was carried out in triplicate. DPPH inhibition (I%) by the samples was calculated according to the formula: I% = $(A_{\text{blank}} - A_{\text{sample}})/A_{\text{blank}}$ \times 100, where A_{blank} is the absorbance of the control reaction (containing all reagents except the test compound), and A_{sample} is the absorbance of the blank plus test compound. Extract concentration providing 50% inhibition (IC₅₀) was calculated from the graph by plotting inhibition percentage against extract concentration. The antioxidant activity was determined

according to the β -carotene bleaching method [16]. Absorbance was measured at 20 min intervals until the color of β -carotene disappeared in the control reaction ($t=120$ min). Relative antioxidant activities (RAA%) of the extract and oil were calculated from the equation: $RAA\% = (A_{\text{Sample}}/A_{\text{BHT}}) \times 100$, where A_{BHT} is the absorbance of the positive control BHT, and A_{Sample} is the absorbance of the extract and oil. Experiments were performed in triplicate. Antioxidant capacities of the samples were compared with those of BHT and the control.

Antimicrobial activity: Antibacterial assays were performed using the agar diffusion method against *Acinetobacter baumannii* (ATCC BAA-747), *Escherichia coli* (ATCC 35218 and 25922), *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (ATCC 27853), *Salmonella typhimurium* (ATCC 13311), *Staphylococcus aureus* (ATCC 25923) and Methicillin-Resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) (ATCC 700698). Multi-resistant clinical isolates of *Burkholderia cepacia*, *Enterobacter gergoviae*, and *Hafnia alvei* provided by Dr. Cristina Estrella, Hospital Centro de Salud, San Miguel de Tucumán, Argentina, were also assayed. Antifungal activities were performed using the yeast-like *Candida albicans* (provided by Vancouver General Hospital, BC, Canada) and *Cryptococcus neoformans* var. *grubii* (kindly provided by Dr. Karen Bartlet, University of British Columbia, BC, Canada), while *Aspergillus fumigatus* (ATCC 1022) and *Trichophyton rubrum* (ATCC 18758) represented filamentous fungi. Bacteria were grown in Brain Heart Infusion broth fungi (Laboratories Britania, Argentina) at 37°C for 18 h, and resuspended in sterile physiological saline with reference to the value 0.5 of the McFarland scale (1.5×10^8 colony forming unit /mL). Briefly,

plates were prepared with a base layer of Müller–Hinton agar (10 mL) and wells (6 mm of diameter) were made on the surface of the media. Different concentrations (50 μL) of essential oil and ME were placed in the wells. 25 μL of gentamicin and amphotericin B (0.05 mg/mL) were used as positive control for bacteria and fungi, respectively. Fungal strains were grown in Sabouraud broth (B&D), and the antifungal activity against filamentous fungi was assessed from spores obtained as reported Spores were harvested by rubbing the top of sporulated colonies in 2 mL Sabouraud broth containing 10% glycerol. Spores were aliquoted and kept at -20°C. For yeast-like fungi, the same protocol used for bacterial strains was used, but using Sabouraud broth. The microorganisms were incubated at 37°C aerobically and after 24 h of incubation, the zones of inhibition were measured. Bacterial growth inhibition was determined as the diameter of the inhibition zones around the well. The growth inhibition diameter was an average of four measurements, taken in 90 degrees apart. MIC values were determined by conventional agar plate dilution method [17]. All tests were performed in triplicate.

Statistical Analysis: A *t*-student test was used for statistical analysis. A *P* value <0.05 was considered significant.

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Phytochemical and Micromorphological Traits of Endemic *Micromeria pseudocroatica* (Lamiaceae)

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Micromeria pseudocroatica Šilić is an endemic species distributed in southern Croatia. Chemical composition of the essential oil (analysed by GC and GC-MS), and the content of macroelements and trace elements analysed by ICP-AES was conducted. Additionally, a study on the types and distribution of trichomes was done by scanning electron microscopy. The essential oil was characterized by a high concentration of oxygenated monoterpenes, whose major compounds are borneol (22.7% and 24.8%) and camphor (16.1% and 13.9%). The content of Ca was highest (13202.69 mg/kg and 13223.83 mg/kg) among the investigated macroelements, while Fe was the most represented element (100.68 and 326.48 mg/kg) among the micronutrients. The content of potentially toxic elements that is Se, Cu, and Hg was below the limit of quantification. Non-glandular trichomes, peltate trichomes, and two types of capitate trichomes (type 1: one basal epidermal cell, one head cell with subcuticular space; type 2: one basal epidermal cell, two stalk cells, and one head cell with subcuticular space) were observed on leaves, bracteoles, calyx, corolla and stem.

Keywords: *Micromeria pseudocroatica*, Borneol, Macroelements, Trace elements, Trichomes.

The family Lamiaceae is one of the largest groups among dicotyledons, comprising more than 240 genera. Many species which belong to this family are highly aromatic due to the presence of external glandular structures that produce essential oil [1]. One of the less investigated genera in this family is *Micromeria* Benth. The essential oil composition of the *Micromeria* species is variable. The major constituents of the oil of *M. croatica* (Pers.) Schott, an endemic Illyric-Balcanic species were caryophyllene oxide and β-caryophyllene [2]. Pulegone and piperitone oxide were the main compounds in the essential oils of *M. albanica* (Griseb. ex K. Maly) Šilić and *M. thymifolia* (Scop.) Fritsch.. Spathulenol was the dominant compound in *M. parviflora* (Vis.) Rchb. [3]. The major constituents of the oil of *M. libanotica* Boiss., a species endemic to Lebanon, were isomenthone (44.5%), pulegone (13.5%) and isopulegone (6.5%) [4].

Glandular trichomes occurring in the Lamiaceae are the site of essential oil biosynthesis, secretion and accumulation and their structure has been studied by many authors [1, 5-8]. Glandular trichomes of *Micromeria fruticosa* (L.) Druce and *M. croatica* were investigated by Werker et al. [5] and Kremer et al. [2], respectively.

Although the biological activity of *Micromeria* species could be attributed to some constituents of the essential oil [9-11], the presence of other biologically active compounds such as microelements could have a synergistic effect with the essential oils. Only few literature data about the content of macroelements and trace elements in *Micromeria* species are available [2,12].

The genus *Micromeria* includes 70–90 herbs, sub-shrubs and shrubs distributed throughout the temperate belt [13-15]. Twenty one *Micromeria* species have been described for Europe [13] and nine (*M. croatica*, *M. dalmatica* Benth., *M. fruticulosa* (Bertol.) Šilić,

M. graeca (L.) Benth., *M. juliana* (L.) Benth., *M. kernerii* Murb., *M. microphylla* (Dum.-Urv.) Benth., *M. pseudocroatica* Šilić, and *M. thymifolia* (Scop.) Fritsch.) species for Croatia [16]. *M. pseudocroatica* is an endemic species distributed in the Mediterranean part of Croatia (Pelješac Peninsula, Korčula Islands) [17,18]. It is a perennial plant with several to numerous stems up to 30 cm long, and single, pink-purple flowers [17]. *M. pseudocroatica* grows in the crevices of calcareous rocks at altitudes up to about 500 m.

The aim of the presented study is to obtain additional knowledge on the genus *Micromeria* in general, and particularly on *M. pseudocroatica*, since no data on essential oil, macroelements and trace elements, and micromorphological traits are available for *M. pseudocroatica*.

Aerial parts of wild-growing *M. pseudocroatica* were analyzed on two different localities, Pijavičino (Pi) and Prapatno (Pr) on Pelješac Peninsula (Croatia). Fifty-two components representing 86.4% of the total oil were identified in the oil from locality Pi and forty-seven components representing 90.4% of the total oil were characterized in oil from Pr. Total yield of the oil was 0.3% and 0.2% for oils from Pi and Pr, respectively. The identified components listed in order of their elution from the VF-5MS column are given in Table 1 together with their percentages of the total mass fraction of the oil. Identified components are classified on the basis of their chemical structures in seven classes.

Both samples contained higher concentration of oxygenated monoterpenes (47.3% in Pi and 43.7% in Pr) with borneol (22.7% in Pi and 24.8% in Pr) and camphor (16.1% in Pi and 13.9% in Pr) as the major components of the both oil. Similarly to our results borneol was identified as one of major compounds in the oil

Table 1: Phytochemical composition (%) of essential oils of *M. pseudocroatica* Šilić from the localities Pijavičino (Pi) and Prapratno (Pr).

Component	RI	<i>M. pseudocroatica</i>		Identification
		(Pi)	(Pr)	
Monoterpene hydrocarbons		1.9	3.2	
Camphene	962	0.5	1.9	RI, MS
β -Pinene	982	0.2	0.2	RI, MS, S
p-Cymene	1021	0.2	0.1	RI, MS
Limonene	1032	0.1	-	RI, MS, S
γ -Terpinene	1057	0.1	0.1	RI, MS
Terpinolene	1089	0.8	0.9	RI, MS
Oxygenated monoterpenes		47.3	43.7	
β -Thujone	1121	-	0.3	RI, MS
<i>trans</i> -Pinocarveol	1147	0.1	0.3	RI, MS
Camphor	1151	16.1	13.9	RI, MS, S
Borneol	1176	22.7	24.8	RI, MS
Cymene-8-ol	1179	2.1	0.9	RI, MS
Terpinen-4-ol	1184	0.6	0.2	RI, MS
Myrtenol	1197	0.6	0.2	RI, MS
Verbenone	1204	0.6	0.4	RI, MS
Fenchyl acetate	1218	0.1	0.3	RI, MS
Thymol methyl ether	1230	0.2	0.1	RI, MS
Pulegone	1234	0.5	-	RI, MS
Carvacrol methyl ether	1241	0.1	0.2	RI, MS
Piperitone	1248	0.3	0.4	RI, MS
Bornyl acetate	1285	0.4	0.2	RI, MS
α -Terpenyl acetate	1349	0.1	0.2	RI, MS
Piperitone oxide	1364	2.8	1.3	RI, MS
Sesquiterpene hydrocarbons		23.9	32.8	
α -Cubebene	1345	1.5	3.5	RI, MS
α -Copaene	1377	0.6	0.3	RI, MS
β -Bourbonene	1383	0.3	0.3	RI, MS
α -Gurjunene	1407	tr	0.5	RI, MS
β -Caryophyllene	1424	11.9	17.8	RI, MS, S
β -Copaene	1429	0.2	0.3	RI, MS
(Z)- β -Farnesene	1454	0.2	0.2	RI, MS
α -Humulene	1456	0.6	0.1	RI, MS
<i>allo</i> -Aromadendrene	1465	0.2	0.3	RI, MS
β -Chamigrene	1477	0.1	0.2	RI, MS
Germacrene D	1481	2.1	2.1	RI, MS
β -Bisabolene	1494	0.2	0.2	RI, MS
Bicyclogermacrene	1500	0.1	0.3	RI, MS
δ -Cadinene	1517	5.9	6.7	RI, MS
Oxygenated sesquiterpenes		10.7	9.2	
Spathulenol	1577	0.1	0.3	RI, MS
Caryophyllene oxide	1581	9.3	7.4	RI, MS, S
γ -Eudesmol	1632	0.2	0.3	RI, MS
α -Cadinol	1655	0.1	-	RI, MS
α -Bisabolol	1688	0.8	0.3	RI, MS
Bisabolol oxide	1748	0.2	0.9	RI, MS
Phenolic compounds		1.0	0.2	
Thymol	1290	0.3	-	RI, MS, S
Carvacrol	1298	0.4	-	RI, MS, S
Eugenol	1370	0.3	0.2	RI, MS, S
Carboxylic compounds		0.5	0.5	
3-Octanol acetate	1125	0.3	0.2	RI, MS
β -Ionone	1487	0.2	0.3	RI, MS
Hydrocarbons		1.1	0.8	
Docosane	2200	0.1	0.2	RI, MS, S
Tricosane	2300	0.3	0.2	RI, MS, S
Tetracosane	2400	0.2	0.1	RI, MS, S
Pentacosane	2500	0.1	0.2	RI, MS, S
Hexacosane	2600	0.1	-	RI, MS, S
Heptacosane	2700	0.3	0.1	RI, MS, S
Total identified (%)		86.4	90.4	
Yield (%)		0.3	0.2	

RI = VF-5MS, identification by comparison with literature [25] and/or homemade library; MS = identification by NIST02 and Wiley 7 spectral databases; S = identification confirmed with reference compound; tr-traces (mean value below 0.1%); - = not identified.

of *M. carminea* P.H. Davis, an endemic species of Turkey with percentage of 26.02%, and in the oil of *M. cristata* (Hampe) Griseb. subsp. *phrygia* P. H. Davis collected from three different localities (27–39%) [19,20]. Other main components of oil in *M. cristata* subsp. *phrygia* were camphor (9–15%) and caryophyllene oxide (4–6%) [20].

The oil from Pr contained higher concentration of sesquiterpene hydrocarbons (32.8%) than the oil from Pi (23.9%), with

β -caryophyllene (11.9% in Pi and 17.8% in Pr) as the dominant component among this class. Caryophyllene oxide was identified as major compound of the both oil in oxygenated sesquiterpenes class with percentages of 9.3% in Pi and 7.4% in Pr. Caryophyllene-oxide was one of major compound in the oil of *M. juliana* from Croatia [9,21], *M. graeca* in Greece [22], *M. croatica* from Serbia [3] and in the oil of *M. croatica* from Croatia [2].

Groups of monoterpene hydrocarbons, phenolic compound, carboxylic compounds and hydrocarbons represented 4.5% (oil from Pi) and 4.7% (oil from Pr) of the total oil.

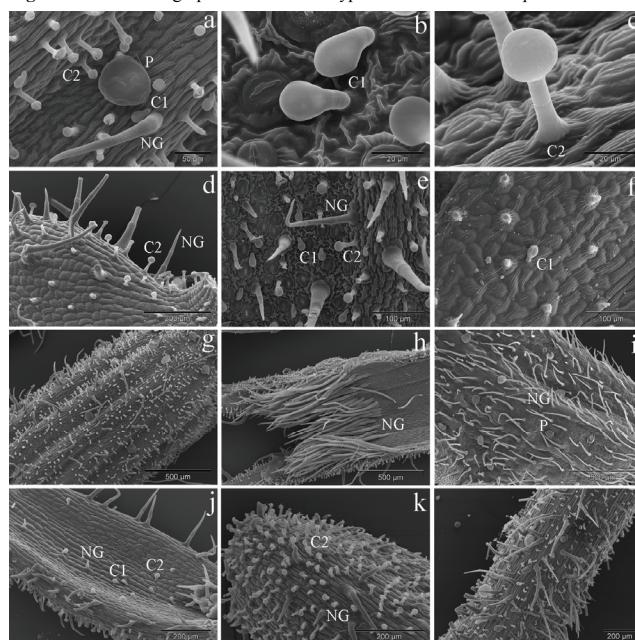
The contents of macroelements (K, Na, Ca, Mg) and trace elements (Al, Fe, Sr, Zn, B, Mn, Ba, Ni, Pb, V, Cr, Cd, Co, Se, Cu, Hg) in *M. pseudocroatica* from localities Pijavičino (Pi) and Prapratno (Pr) are shown in Table 2. Among the investigated macroelements the content of Ca was highest (13223.83 mg/kg and 13202.69 mg/kg from locality Pi and Pr, respectively) while the content of Na was lowest (109.54 mg/kg and 243.11 mg/kg from locality Pi and Pr, respectively). Among the micronutrients (B, Fe, Cu, Mn, Zn), the most represented element was Fe (100.68 mg/kg and 326.48 mg/kg from locality Pi and Pr, respectively). Among other trace elements, the most abundant was Al (102.49 mg/kg and 232.29 g/kg from locality Pi and Pr, respectively). The content of several toxic and potentially toxic minerals (Se, Cu, Hg) was below detection limits.

According to Kremer et al. [2] *M. croatica* had the very high potassium content (8275.00–10075.00 mg/kg), which suggests that the accumulation of this macroelement in *M. croatica* is possible affected by genetic particularity. The content of other macroelements in *M. croatica* were significantly lower than in samples of *M. pseudocroatica*. The content of Al (48.13–56.13 mg/kg) and Fe (68.63–78.00 mg/kg) in *M. croatica* was also significantly lower than in *M. pseudocroatica*. Contents of other trace elements in *M. croatica* were not significantly different [2]. Shallari et al. [12] found a significantly higher content of Zn (118 mg/kg), Pb (13 mg/kg), Cr (10 mg/kg), Cd (2 mg/kg), Co (2 mg/kg), and Ni (52 mg/kg) in *M. graeca* shoots collected at a mining site Rubik (northern Albania). These differences could be explained by high influence of environmental conditions.

Table 2: Content of macroelements and trace elements in herba of *M. pseudocroatica*.

Element	Pijavičino		Prapratno	
	Contents*	RSD	Contents*	RSD (%)
	Macroelements (mg/kg)			
Na	109.54 ± 0.00	0.00	243.11 ± 0.03	0.01
K	1922.21 ± 0.02	0.00	2034.38 ± 0.13	0.01
Ca	13223.83 ± 0.46	0.00	13202.69 ± 0.23	0.00
Mg	2244.54 ± 0.25	0.01	2636.84 ± 0.25	0.01
	Trace elements (mg/kg)			
Al	102.49 ± 9.42	9.19	322.29 ± 42.06	18.11
Fe	100.68 ± 1.27	1.27	326.48 ± 6.17	1.89
Sr	7.88 ± 0.54	6.86	121.99 ± 3.78	3.1
Zn	23.04 ± 0.05	0.23	22.55 ± 0.37	1.65
B	14.41 ± 0.29	2.01	12.52 ± 1.27	10.15
Mn	10.08 ± 0.02	0.02	12.67 ± 0.17	1.31
Ba	4.92 ± 0.31	6.21	5.52 ± 0.81	14.61
Ni	0.82 ± 0.38	45.95	0.85 ± 0.11	13.02
Pb	0.57 ± 0.08	13.98	1.64 ± 0.22	13.12
V	0.29 ± 0.02	6.87	0.96 ± 0.15	15.49
Cr	0.20 ± 0.01	4.34	0.58 ± 0.08	14.32
Cd	0.09 ± 0.03	34.13	0.14 ± 0.04	30.09
Co	0.05 ± 0.01	25.22	0.13 ± 0.02	17.27
Se	BLQ	—	BLQ	—
Cu	BLQ	—	BLQ	—
Hg	BLQ	—	BLQ	—

*values are means ± SD (n = 2); RSD, (relative standard deviation); BLQ, below limit of quantitation

Figure 1: SEM micrographs with different types of trichomes on *M. pseudocroatica*.

Non-glandular trichomes (NG), peltate trichome (P), Type 1 capitate trichomes (C1) and Type 2 capitate trichomes (C2) on outer side of calyx (a); C1 (b) and C2 (c) trichome on the lower leaf side; distribution of the trichomes on the upper (d) and lower (e) leaf surface; C1 trichome on the upper leaf surface (f); outer side of calyx with NG, P, C1, and C2 trichomes (g); inner side of calyx with long NG trichomes (h); NG, and P trichomes on the outer side of corolla (i); NG, C1, and C2 trichomes on the adaxial (j) and abaxial (k) side of bracteole; stem with NG and P trichomes (l).

Table 3: Occurrence and frequency of trichomes on aerial parts of *M. pseudocroatica* from the localities Pijavičino (Pi) and Prapratno (Pr).

Type	Leaf		Bracteole		Calyx		Corolla		Stem	
	Ad	Ab	Ad	Ab	Ou	In	Ou	In	Ou	In
Pi	attenuate*	+	+	±	+	+	±	+	±/+	+
	peltate	-	+//+	-	-	+	-	±/+	-	+
	Cap C1	±	+//+	±	+	+	±	-	-	+
	cap C2	±	+//+	±	++	++	-	-	-	+
Pr	attenuate	+	+	±	+	+//+	+	+//+	±/+	+//+
	peltate	-	++	-	-	+	-	+	-	+
	cap C1	±	+//+	±	+	+	±	-	-	+
	cap C2	-/±	++	±	+//+	++	-/±	-	-	+//+

cap – capitate; Ad – adaxial; Ab – abaxial; Ou – outer; In – inter trichomes; - missing, ± rare, + present, ++ abundant; *attenuate, non-glandular hairs

Both non-glandular and glandular trichomes could be observed on investigated parts (leaves, bracteoles, calyces, corollas, and stems) of *M. pseudocroatica* (Figure 1). The occurrence and frequency of trichomes on the adaxial and abaxial side of leaves and bracteoles, outer and inner side of the calyx and corolla, and stem is shown in Table 3.

Non-glandular trichomes (Figure 1a, e) were bi-cellular to multicellular, unbranched, uniseriate and folded at different levels. The length of these trichomes varied distinctly from very short hairs on the upper leaf surface (Figure 1f) to very long hairs on the edge of inner calyx side (Figure 1h). Parts of the surface of these trichomes revealed a warty appearance due to the occurrence of cuticular micropapillae (Figure 1a). According to Payne's [23] plant hair terminology, they could be noted as attenuate hairs. These hairs were identical to non-glandular trichomes found by Kremer et al. [2] in *M. croatica*.

The glandular trichomes could further be divided into peltate and capitate types. Peltate trichomes consisted of a basal cell, a short unicellular stalk, and a multicellular head with a large subcuticular space (Figure 1a and i). They occurred on the abaxial leaf side, on the outer side of the calyx and corolla, and on the stem. Their

presence in Lamiaceae is well documented [1, 5-8, 24]. Two types of capitate trichomes could be observed in *M. pseudocroatica*. Type one capitate trichome (C1) is composed of one basal epidermal cell and one elliptically formed head cell. C1 trichome was not upright but could be described as clinging to the surface (Figure 1b). This hair type was found on both on the adaxial as well as on the abaxial side of leaves and bracteoles, on the outer and inner side of calyx, and on the stem (Table 3). According to Kremer et al. [2] this type of trichomes was common in *Micromeria croatica* and it was found on the abaxial leaf surface, on stem, and on calyx. These hairs were also noticed in micrographs of *Thymus capitatus* (L.) Hoffmanns. (syn. *Coridotymus capitatus* (L.) Rchb. f.), *Majorana syriaca* (L.) Rafin., and *Satureja thymbra* L. presented by Werker et al. [5]. But, the micrographs presented by Werker et al. [5] did not show this hair type in *Micromeria fruticosa* (L.) Druce.

Type two capitate trichome (C2) is composed of one basal epidermal cell, two stalk cells and a single celled head with a subcuticular space (Figure 1c). C2 trichome was upright and quite short. It was found on both adaxial and abaxial side of leaves and bracteoles, on outer and inner side of calyx, and on stem (Table 3). This hair type was reported by Kremer et al. [2] for *M. croatica*, where it was observed on adaxial and abaxial leaf surface, on calyx, and on stem.

Comparison with literature data showed significant difference in chemical traits between in here presented *M. pseudocroatica* and closely related *M. croatica*, while micromorphological traits (trichome types) were the same. Presented results give worthy additional knowledge about chemical and micromorphological traits on the genus *Micromeria*.

Experimental

Herbal material and extraction: Randomly selected samples of wild growing plants *M. pseudocroatica* Silić were collected during the blooming period in July of 2011 on *locus classicus* near settlement Pijavičino (GPS coordinates: 42°57'01.5" N; 17°21'52.2" E; 443 m a.s.l.), and on locality Prapratno (GPS coordinates: 42°49'28.1" N; 17°40'23.7" E; 159 m a.s.l.), both on Pelješac Peninsula, Croatia.

Dried aerial parts (100 g) were subjected to hydrodistillation for 3 h in Clevenger type apparatus and also used for determination of macroelements and trace elements.

Gas chromatography and mass spectrometry (GC, GC/MS): Gas chromatography (GC) analyses were performed on gas chromatograph (model 3900; Varian Inc., Lake Forest, CA, USA) equipped with flame ionization detector, mass spectrometer (model 2100T; Varian Inc.) and capillary column VF-5MS (30 m × 0.25 mm i.d., coating thickness 0.25 µm; Varian Inc.). The chromatographic conditions were as follows: helium was carrier gas at 1 mL·min⁻¹, injector temperature was 250 °C, and FID detector temperature was 300 °C. VF-5MS column temperature was programmed at 60 °C isothermal for 3 min, and then increased to 246 °C at a rate of 3 °C·min⁻¹ and held isothermal for 25 min. The injected volume was 1 µL and the split ratio was 1:20. The mass spectrometry (MS) conditions were: ionization voltage 70 eV; ion source temperature 200 °C; mass scan range: 40–350 mass units. The analyses were carried out in duplicate. The individual peaks were identified by comparison of their retention indices (relative to C8-C25 n-alkanes for VF-5MS) to those of authentic samples and literature [25], as well as by comparing their mass spectra with the Wiley 7 MS library (Wiley, New York, NY, USA) and NIST02 (Gaithersburg, MD, USA) mass spectral database.

Inductively coupled plasma atomic emission spectroscopy (ICP-AES): For determination of macroelements (K, Na, Ca, Mg) and trace elements (Al, Fe, Sr, Zn, B, Mn, Ba, Ni, Pb, V, Cr, Cd, Co, Se, Cu, Hg), duplicates of 2 g ± 0.0005 of homogenized herbal material were wet digested with concentrated HNO₃ (5 mL) and 30% H₂O₂ (2 mL) in the microwave digestion unit (MLS-1200 MEGA Microwave Digestion Systems, Milestone, Bergamo, Italy). The digestion conditions were: 1 min at 250 W (smooth oxidation of organic matter), 1 min at 0 W (proceeding of reaction without addition of energy to avoid run-away temperatures and overpressures), 5 min at 250 W (termination of the soft oxidation of the organic compounds), 5 min at 400 W and 5 min at 600 W (final termination of oxidation processes by applying higher power). After cooling, the digested samples were diluted to 50 mL using deionised water and obtained solutions were used for further investigation.

The content of mercury was determined by atomic absorption spectrometry (AAS) on a Perkin-Elmer 4100 Zeeman ZL/FIMS 400 atomic absorption spectrometer (Perkin Elmer, Ueberlingen,

Germany) using flow injection/hydride technique [26], while the content of other investigated elements was determined using inductively coupled plasma atomic emission spectrometry (ICP-AES) on Trace Scan Thermo (Thermo Jarrel Ash Corporation, Franklin, USA) using the standard technique [27].

Micromorphological traits: For SEM-investigation samples (stem, leaf, bracteoles, calyx) were transferred from 70% ethanol to 70% acetone, then dehydrated (70%, 90% and 100% acetone) and subjected to critical point drying using CO₂ as the drying medium (CPD030; Baltec). After that, samples were sputter coated with gold (Sputter Coater, AGAR) and examined under the scanning electron microscope XL30 ESEM (FEI) with 20 kV acceleration voltages in high vacuum mode. Common terminology was used in the description of micromorphology [23].

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Composition and Variability of the Essential Oil of *Salvia nemorosa* (Lamiaceae) from the Vienna Area of Austria

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The volatiles present in the aerial parts of *Salvia nemorosa* L. (Lamiaceae), grave sage, were analysed by GC/MS and GC in plants growing at different sites in the outskirts of Vienna, Austria. The flower oils contained mainly sabinene (37-44%), germacrene D (9-14%), β -caryophyllene (8-12%) and caryophyllene oxide (2.6-4.4%). Leaf samples had β -caryophyllene (14-41%), germacrene D (14-38%) and caryophyllene oxide (5-20%) as main compounds, while stem oils were characterized by an high hexadecanoic acid percentage besides germacrene D and β -caryophyllene.

Keywords: *Salvia nemorosa*, Lamiaceae, Sabinene, β -Caryophyllene, Germacrene D.

Salvia nemorosa L., grave sage, (Lamiaceae), a perennial with sessile leaves, purple bracts and lilac flowers in whorls, originally occurred from Eastern and Southeastern Europe eastwards to Central Asia. The natural distribution in Europe is the subcontinental dry parts of the Pannonian, Bohemian and Hercynian floral region [1a]. In the area of Vienna, Austria, the plant reaches the western border of its range [1b]. The plant bears glandular and covering trichomes [1c], and essential oils from the aerial parts rich in sesquiterpenoids [2]. As the mentioned references did not differentiate between the plant organs, the present study reports the composition of the essential oil from stem, leaves and flowers of plants collected at five different sites in the urban area of Vienna (Table 1).

The oil content of all plant parts was below 0.05%, but they had distinct oil patterns, as shown in Table 2. The oil from the flowers was dominated by sabinene (37-44%), followed by germacrene D (9-14%), β -caryophyllene (8-12%) and caryophyllene oxide (2.6-4.4%). α -Thujene (5-8%) and γ -terpinene (2-8%) were further prominent monoterpenes, while β -pinene, α -terpinene, limonene and *p*-cymene were minor compounds (0.8-3.4% each). The leaf oils were rich in the sesquiterpenes β -caryophyllene (14-41%), germacrene D (14-38%) and caryophyllene oxide (5-20%). Leaf oils contained also some sabinene (up to 6.6%), other monoterpenes less than 1% each and further sesquiterpenes less than 2% each, including farnesene, α -humulene, γ -murolene and δ -cadinene. Hexadecanoic acid (56-60%) was the main compound in the stem volatile fractions. The already mentioned sesquiterpenes β -caryophyllene and germacrene D were also major compounds in the stems. The monoterpenes sabinene and γ -terpinene were present in three out of the four stem oil samples. However, based on the composition of the oil samples, one cannot differentiate between plants of the different collecting sites.

The plants of all five locations represent the same chemotype and had similarities with plants from Serbia with caryophyllene oxide (13.4%), β -caryophyllene (10.1%) and germacrene D (5.7%) as main components. These plants had also sabinene (4.7%) and terpinen-4-ol (3.7%) as prominent monoterpenes in the oil [2a]. However, other *S. nemorosa* plants from the same country were characterized by an essential oil dominated by caryophyllene oxide

(23.1%), followed by spathulenol (11.2%), and with appreciable proportions of γ -terpinene (8.6%), *E*-anethol (7.8%) and humulene epoxide II (5.2%), but devoid of sabinene [2b]. A further type of *S. nemorosa* essential oil was reported from Iran with β -caryophyllene (41.6%) and germacrene B (21.3%) as main compounds, and further sesquiterpenes such as caryophyllene oxide, spathulenol, *cis*- β -farnesene and germacrene D (each 5-7%) [2c].

Experimental

Plant material: The plants were collected during July and August 2008 at five locations in the northern and eastern part of Vienna, Austria (Table 1). Most plants were fully flowering. In each case, at least 15 plants were taken together and separated into leaf, stem and flower samples. The plant material was dried in a room in ambient air. The “Exkursionsflora für Österreich, Liechtenstein und Südtirol” [1b] was used to identify the plants. Voucher specimens were deposited in the Herbarium of the University of Vienna (WU-Generale, <http://herbarium.univie.ac.at>).

Hydrodistillation: Leaf and stem samples were subjected to hydro-distillation in a Clevenger-type apparatus for 3 h using about 15 g of the plant parts and 200 mL of double distilled water. One mL *n*-hexane was added to the distillation apparatus to collect the oil.

Microdistillation: The distillation of the flower samples was carried out using the automatic microdistillation unit MicroDistiller from Eppendorf (Hamburg, Germany), which allows the simultaneous distillation of 6 samples. About 0.2 to 0.3 g of finely crushed dried plant material and 10 mL distilled water were filled into the sample vial. The collecting vial containing 1 mL water, 0.5 g NaCl and 300 μ L *n*-hexane was connected with a capillary to the sample vial. The heating program applied to the sample vial was 15 min at 108°C and then 45 min at 112°C. The collecting vial was kept at -2°C, where the volatiles were trapped in 0.3 mL *n*-hexane. All essential oils were stored at -18°C until GC and GC/MS analysis.

Gas chromatography: The distilled oils and microdistillates were analyzed with an Agilent Technologies 6890 N GC equipped with a FID. The separation was conducted on a DB-5 narrow bore column 10 m x 0.10 mm i.d. with 0.17 μ m film thickness. The

Table 1: Location of the sampling sites in the urban area of Vienna (Austria).

Location	Biotope	Coordinates	Alt.
A Danube border	Dry riverbank	N 48° 11' 29"	166 m
B Donauinsel	Dry meadow	N 48° 13' 24"	168 m
C Wien 21, Thayagasse	Field border	N 48° 16' 42"	160 m
D Stammersdorf, Alte Schanzen	Meadow	N 48° 18' 49"	220 m
E Bisamberg, Elisabethhöhe	Meadow	N 48° 19' 15.5"	360 m

Table 2: Composition of the essential oils from *Salvia nemorosa* samples collected in the Vienna Region (Austria).

Compound	Site	A		B		C		D		E		A		C		D		E	
		RI	Stem	Stem	Stem	Leaf	Leaf	Leaf	Leaf	Leaf	Leaf	Flower							
<i>α</i> -Thujene	928				0.5	0.7	0.2	0.4	1.0		4.8	7.6	5.9	5.3					
<i>α</i> -Pinene	936				0.1				0.2		0.4	0.8	0.7	0.3					
Sabinene	973	5.2		7.9	3.0	3.9	2.0	2.2	6.6		2.3	43.0	43.1	36.6	44.1				
1-Octen-3-ol	978							0.3											
<i>β</i> -Pinene	978				0.6	1.0	0.3		0.5		0.2	1.0	0.8	1.9	1.5				
Myrcene	989				0.3		0.1	0.1	0.4		0.4	1.2	1.8	1.6	1.3				
<i>α</i> -Phellandrene	1000											0.1							
<i>α</i> -Terpinene	1015							0.2	0.3			0.8	2.0	1.2	1.0				
<i>p</i> -Cymene	1028				1.3	0.8	0.1	0.2	1.8		0.2	0.3	3.4	2.9	0.6				
Limonene	1028					0.8		0.2	0.6		0.3	0.9	1.6	1.5	1.1				
1,8-Cineole	1030											0.1							
<i>γ</i> -Terpinene	1058		3.3		2.0	2.1	0.2	0.9	2.5		0.3	1.7	8.4	5.5	1.9				
<i>cis</i> -Sabinene hydrate	1066											0.5	0.7	0.6	0.6				
<i>α</i> -Terpinolene	1086							0.2	0.2			0.3	0.5	0.4					
<i>trans</i> -Sabinene hydrate	1098						0.3	0.1				0.6	0.5	0.2	0.5				
Nonanal	1109											0.0	1.4	1.6					
Terpen-4-ol	1175		5.4		0.5			0.1	1.1	0.4		1.7	1.6						
<i>α</i> -Terpineol	1187										0.1	0.1							
<i>α</i> -Cubebene	1349						0.1	0.2			0.3		0.1						
<i>α</i> -Ylangene	1370						0.1	0.2											
<i>α</i> -Copape	1375			0.4			0.4	0.9	0.6	0.8	1.0	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.5				
<i>E</i> - <i>β</i> -Damascenone	1380						0.3												
<i>β</i> -Bourbonene	1383		6.1	0.8	1.3		0.9	1.6	0.8	1.2	0.9	1.1	0.4	1.4	0.6				
<i>β</i> -Cubebene	1388					0.3	0.5	0.2	0.4	0.6	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.1				
<i>β</i> -Elemene	1390					0.3					0.3	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1				
<i>β</i> -Caryophyllene	1422	12.1	25.6	9.4	8.9	34.0	30.4	14.4	41.0	25.5	11.8	6.9	10.5	8.6					
<i>β</i> -Copape	1428			0.4			0.4	0.9	0.5	0.8	0.5	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.4				
Geranylacetone	1449						0.4					0.3							
Farnesene	1453			0.4				1.9		0.8		1.3	0.3	0.4	0.2	0.5			
<i>α</i> -Humulene	1455			0.2	0.8		1.0	1.7	0.5	2.3	1.4	2.0	0.4	1.0	0.7				
<i>γ</i> -Murolene	1476			0.6			0.9	2.4	1.0	2.0	1.3	0.2	0.4	0.2	0.7				
Germancrene D	1481	7.1		8.0	6.6	4.7	14.0	20.1	15.4	28.3	38.3	12.9	8.7	13.0	13.4				
<i>β</i> -Selinene	1487					0.3		0.6	0.8	0.6	0.6	0.1				0.1			
<i>γ</i> -Amorphene	1492						1.0		1.0	1.1	0.1			1.1	0.6				
Bicyclogermacrene	1494						0.6	0.7	0.2		0.5	0.1							
<i>α</i> -Murolene	1497					0.2	0.5	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.1	0.2							
Germancrene A	1503			0.4	0.7		0.5	0.8	1.4	0.7	0.2		0.2	0.3					
<i>γ</i> -Cadinene	1514				0.7		0.5	1.3		1.1	1.0	0.1	0.4	0.2	0.5				
<i>δ</i> -Cadinene	1525			1.1			1.1	2.9	1.7	2.2	0.3	0.5	0.7	0.7	1.0				
Spathulenol	1577		4.6		1.5		0.2	0.2	0.4	1.7	0.3	0.1	1.5	0.6					
Caryophyllene oxide	1586	7.2	25.2	2.7	2.9	13.2	19.5	5.3	7.6	5.4	4.4	2.1	2.6	3.2					
Salvia-4(14)-en-1-one	1593			13.9	0.4		0.6	2.0	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.2	0.3	0.5					
Hexahydro-farnesyl-acetone	1844		0.8		2.2	2.3	1.0		2.1	0.9	0.9	0.2		0.2					
Hexadecanoic acid	1971		59.8		56.3	58.1	9.6		24.4	2.2	4.5	1.8		1.5					

analytical conditions were: carrier gas He, initial flow 0.5 mL/min (42 cm/sec), constant pressure 45.78 psi; injector temperature 250°C, split ratio 40:1, temperature program: 1 min at 60°C, with 8°C/min up to 85°C, then with 12°C/min to 280°C and held for 5 min at 280°C. The injector temperature was set at 250°C, and the injection volume was 1 µL. The FID was operated at 260°C with an air flow of 350 mL/min and a hydrogen flow of 35 mL/min. The percentage compositions of the essential oil constituents were calculated from the FID response, without any correction.

Gas chromatography/mass spectrometry: To identify the volatile components, the samples were also analysed by GC/MS using a HP 6890 GC coupled to a HP 5972 quadrupole mass selective detector.

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Separation was accomplished with a HP5-MS fused silica column (30 m x 0.25 mm i.d., film thickness 0.25 µm). The analytical conditions were: carrier gas He 1.3 mL/min constant flow; injector temperature 250°C, split ratio 40:1, temperature program: 2 min at 40°C, with 3°C/min up to 180°C, then with 4°C/min to 280°C and held for 4 min at 280°C. The injection volume was 1 µL. The transfer line to the MS was set at 280°C. The total ion current (*m/z* 40 to 350) was recorded and the individual compounds were identified according to their MS and their retention indices [3].

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Essential oil Composition of *Ficus benjamina* (Moraceae) and *Irvingia barteri* (Irvingiaceae)

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Essential oils obtained by hydrodistillation of leaves of two Nigerian species were analyzed for their constituents by gas chromatography (GC) and gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC-MS). The leaf oil of *Ficus benjamina* L. (Moraceae), collected during the day, contained high contents of α -pinene (13.9%), abietadiene (9.7%), *cis*- α -bisabolene (8.2%) and germacrene-D-4-ol (8.4%), while the night sample was dominated by germacrene-D-4-ol (31.5%), 1,10-di-*epi*-cubenol (8.8%) and hexahydrofarnesylacetone (8.3%). This could be a possible indication of differences in emissions of volatiles by *F. benjamina* during the day and night. The main compounds of *Irvingia barteri* Hook. f. (Irvingiaceae) were β -caryophyllene (17.0%), (*E*)- α -ionone (10.0%), geranial (7.6%), (*E*)- β -ionone (6.6%) and β -gurjunene (5.1%).

Keywords: *Ficus benjamina*, *Irvingia barteri*, Essential oil, α -Pinene, Germacrene-D-4-ol, β -Caryophyllene.

In continuation of extensive research on the different volatile emissions from *Ficus* species [1-3] and other plant from Nigeria, we report herein the volatile compounds of *F. benjamina* and *Irvingia barteri*. *F. benjamina* L. is one of hundreds of species of figs, dozens of which are very common in cultivation. Figs are members of the family Moraceae, a huge family of plants with over 1000 species. Most Moraceae are tropical plants, and *F. benjamina* is no exception, being native to the tropics of south Asia and northern Australia. However, this is probably the most common of all the *Ficus* species. The plant is credited with many biologically active compounds and uses [4,5]. α -Copanene, cyclosativene and β -ocimene were the major compounds of its volatile oil [6]. The chemical composition of essential oils of some *Ficus* species growing in Nigeria have been reported [1-3,7-10]. Phytol and 6,10,14-trimethyl-2-pentadecanone have been described as chemical markers of Nigerian grown *Ficus* oils [2,3,8-10].

Wild mango, *Irvingia barteri* O'Rorke Bail (syn *Irvingia gabonensis*), family Irvingiaceae, is native to some Central and West African countries. The fruit is succulent and available between July and October. Due to the pleasant aroma, the roasted seeds are commonly used in Africa as flavoring in traditional dishes. *I. barteri* is known in the Nigerian languages by various names such as 'biri' or 'goron' (Hausa), 'oro' (Yoruba) and 'obono' (Igbo). The fruits have been reported to be rich in vitamin C and are widely consumed as a desert fruit or snack throughout Western and Central Africa with various nutritional and dietary aspects [11,12]. Extracts of the plant have been reported to possess antimicrobial activities and to be used as a painkiller for toothache. Some antimicrobial agents such as 3-friedelanone, betulinic acid, oleanolic acid, 3,3',4'-tri-*O*-methylellagic acid, 3,4-di-*O*-methyl-ellagic acid and hardwickiic acid have been isolated from the plant [13]. Literature information is scanty about the volatile constituents except for the key odorant compounds of the seeds and fruits [14-16].

The plant samples yielded low contents of essential oils: 0.1% (v/w; *F. benjamina*; colorless) and 0.23% (v/w; *I. barteri*; light yellow), calculated on a dry weight basis. Forty-seven and thirty-eight components respectively were identified from the day and night samples of *F. benjamina*. The main compounds of the day sample were α -pinene (13.9%), abietadiene (9.7%), germacrene-D-4-ol (8.4%) and *cis*- α -bisabolene (8.2%). Isobornyl acetate (5.0%) and abietatriene (4.9%) were also present in sizeable quantity. However, germacrene-D-4-ol (31.5%) was the most singly abundant compound of the night sample. Other significant constituents were 1,10-di-*epi*-cubenol (8.8%), hexahydrofarnesyl-acetone (8.3%), *E*-geranyl acetone (6.2%), cubenol (5.5%) and 1, 8-cineole (4.2%). Significant differences were observed in the major classes of compounds of the day and night samples of *F. benjamina* (Table 1). Oxygenated sesquiterpenoids were the dominant class of compounds in the night sample. On the other hand, the day sample contained equal proportions of monoterpene hydrocarbons and oxygenated monoterpenes. However, diterpenoids and sulfur compounds, which were present in the day sample, could not be identified in the night sample. The volatiles emitted by plants depend on factors such as climatic conditions, morphology of the plant, and time of collection. The present result is an indication of the possible difference in emissions of volatiles by *F. benjamina* during the day and night. This is the first report of different volatile emissions of *F. benjamina*. Previous investigation into the volatiles of this plant [6] identified significant amounts of α -copaene, cyclosativene and β -ocimene. These compounds are conspicuously absent in the present study. Moreover, compounds such as phytol, 6, 10, 14-trimethyl-2-pentadecanone, and acorenone B, which are characteristics of other *Ficus* species from Nigeria [1-3, 8], were not detected in the present investigation (Table 2).

The thirty-six essential oil components of *I. barteri* were dominated by oxygenated monoterpene (34.0%) and sesquiterpene hydrocarbons (41.5%) (Table 3). The main compounds identified in

Table 1: Components of *F. benjamina* essential oil.

Constituents	LRI ^a	Percent % (day)	Percent % (night)
(<i>E</i>)-2-Hexenal	856	-	0.9
α -Pinene	939	13.9	1.2
Camphepane	953	1.1	0.4
Thuja-2,4(10)-diene	957	0.8	-
Benzaldehyde	961	0.1	0.4
Sabinene	976	3.7	-
β -Pinene	980	-	0.6
6-Methyl-5-hepten-2-one	985	-	0.5
Myrcene	991	0.8	0.6
α -Phellandrene	1005	0.7	-
δ -3-Carene	1011	tr	-
α -Terpinene	1018	0.1	-
<i>p</i> -Cymene	1027	1.2	tr
Limonene	1031	2.0	0.4
1,8-Cineole	1034	2.1	4.2
Phenylacetaldehyde	1045	-	0.5
γ -terpinene	1062	0.1	-
<i>cis</i> -Linalool oxide (furanoid)	1076	0.3	-
Dehydro- <i>p</i> -cymene	1088	2.0	-
Linalool	1099	0.8	1.6
Nonanal	1103	tr	1.3
Dipropyl disulfide	1107	1.2	-
α -Campholenal	1127	1.4	-
<i>trans</i> -Pinocarveol	1140	2.5	-
Camphor	1145	1.2	1.2
Isoborneol	1156	-	1.4
Pinocarvone	1164	1.2	-
<i>p</i> -Mentha-1,5-dien-8-ol	1166	2.1	-
4-Terpineol	1179	2.5	-
<i>p</i> -Cymen-8-ol	1185	0.2	-
α -Terpineol	1190	-	0.4
Myrtenal	1194	2.4	-
Safranal	1200	tr	0.9
Verbenone	1207	2.2	-
<i>trans</i> -Carveol	1218	0.2	-
β -Cyclocitral	1219	0.5	0.8
Methyl carvacrol	1244	0.2	-
Carvone	1245	tr	-
3,7-Dimethyl-2,6-octadienal	1268	tr	-
Isobornyl acetate	1286	5.0	1.0
Carvacrol	1299	-	0.6
Undecanal	1306	-	0.5
Dipropyl trisulfide	1328	1.5	-
α -Copaene	1376	-	tr
(<i>E</i>)- β -Damascone	1409	-	0.5
β -Caryophyllene	1418	0.9	2.3
(<i>E</i>)- α -Ionone	1428	0.2	1.3
(<i>E</i>)-Geranyl acetone	1454	1.2	6.3
(<i>E</i>)- β -Farnesene	1458	0.8	-
9- <i>epi</i> -(<i>E</i>)-Caryophyllene	1467	-	0.2
(<i>E</i>)- β -Ionone	1485	-	1.5
β -Bisabolene	1509	-	1.6
δ -Cadinene	1524	0.2	tr
<i>cis</i> - α -Bisabolene	1555	8.2	-
<i>trans</i> -Nerolidol	1565	-	0.5
Germacrene D-4-ol	1575	8.4	31.5
Caryophyllene oxide	1581	-	2.6
<i>n</i> -Hexadecane	1600	-	0.3
1,10-di- <i>epi</i> -Cubenol	1614	0.3	8.8
Cubenol	1638	-	5.5
Pentadecanal	1717	-	1.2
Hexahydrofarnesylacetone	1845	1.2	8.3
Abietatriene	2054	4.9	-
Abietadiene	2080	9.7	-
Total	90.0	91.0	
Monoterpene hydrocarbons	26.4	3.2	
Oxygenated monoterpenes	26.2	21.2	
Sesquiterpene hydrocarbons	10.1	4.6	
Oxygenated sesquiterpenes	9.9	57.2	
Diterpenes	14.6	-	
Sulfur compounds	2.7	-	
Others	0.1	5.6	

^a Retention indices on HP-5MS capillary column
tr, trace amount < 0.1%
-, not identified

Table 2: Major compounds of *Ficus* species from Nigeria.

Species	Major compounds	Ref
<i>F. exasperata</i>	1, 8-cineole (13.8%), (<i>E</i>)-phytol (13.7%), ρ -cymene (11.4%)	7
<i>F. exasperata</i>	α -terpineol (33.7%), α -pinene (10.8%), sabinene (5.6%)	9
<i>F. mucosa</i>	β -caryophyllene (37.0%), ethyl octanate (13.9%), methyl octanate (8.6%), caryophyllene oxide (6.0%)	1
<i>F. thonningii</i>	6, 10, 14-trimethyl-2-pentadecanone (18.8%), phytol (14.7%), acorenone B (7.6%), β -gurjunene (6.3%)	2
<i>F. lutea</i>	acorenone (20.7%), phytol (16.2%), demethoxygeratochromene (6.0%), 6, 10, 14-trimethyl-2-pentadecanone (5.1%), zingiberene (5.2%)	2
<i>F. polita</i>	phytol (23.3%), 6, 10, 14-trimethyl-2-pentadecanone (15.0%), (<i>E</i>)-6, 10-dimethyl-5,9-undecadien-2-one (7.3%), drimenol (5.8%)	2
<i>F. ovata</i>	(<i>E</i>)-phytol (24.5%), hexadecanoic acid (10.0%), caryophyllene oxide (7.6%), 6, 10, 14-trimethyl-2-pentadecanone (6.1%)	8
<i>F. elasticoides</i>	(<i>E</i>)-phytol (20.9%), 6, 10, 14-trimethyl-2-pentadecanone (8.7%), $\alpha\beta$ -caryophyllene (6.8%)	8
<i>F. natalensis</i> subsp. <i>lepturiae</i>	(<i>E</i>)-phytol (37.6%), 6, 10, 14-trimethyl-2-pentadecanone (24.9%)	8
<i>F. elastica</i>	6, 10, 14-trimethyl-2-pentadecanone (25.9%), geranyl acetone (9.9%), heneicosene (8.4%), 1, 8-cineole (8.2%)	3
<i>F. capensis</i>	α -pinene (9.3-36.7%), β -pinene (4.5-14.9%), α -cadinol (10.6%), <i>n</i> -hexanedecanoic acid (15.5-33.3%)	10

Table 3: Essential oil composition of *I. barteri*.

Constituents	LRI ^a	Percent %
Sabinene	976	0.7
6-Methyl-5-hepten-2-one	985	tr
2-Pentyl furan	991	0.7
<i>o</i> -Cymene	1022	tr
Limonene	1031	2.6
1,8-Cineole	1034	tr
Dehydro- <i>p</i> -cymene	1088	tr
Nonanal	1103	1.4
2,4-Dimethyl benzaldehyde	1180	tr
Naphthalene	1182	tr
Safranal	1197	tr
β -Cyclocitral	1219	2.1
Neral	1240	2.9
<i>p</i> -Menth-4-en-3-one	1251	1.0
β -Homocyclocitral	1254	1.3
Geranal	1272	7.6
1,2,3,4-Tetrahydro-1,5,7-trimethyl naphthalene	1310	tr
1,2-Dihydro-1,1,6-trimethyl naphthalene	1354	2.1
β -Caryophyllene	1418	17.0
(<i>E</i>)- α -Ionone	1428	10.0
β -Gurjunene	1432	5.1
<i>trans</i> - α -Bergamotene	1439	1.4
(<i>E</i>)-Geranyl acetone	1453	2.5
α -Humulene	1455	1.6
γ -Muurolene	1477	2.9
(<i>E</i>)- β -Ionone	1488	6.6
Valencene	1492	1.9
α -Muurolene	1499	3.7
Pentadecane	1500	1.5
<i>trans</i> - γ -Cadinene	1513	2.8
δ -Cadinene	1524	3.6
<i>trans</i> -Nerolidol	1565	1.5
Caryophyllene oxide	1581	2.9
Selin-11-en-4- α -ol	1652	tr
Hexahydrofarnesylacetone	1845	1.7
Abietatriene	2054	0.9
Total		90.0%
Monoterpene hydrocarbons		3.3
Oxygenated monoterpenes		34.0
Sesquiterpene hydrocarbons		41.5
Oxygenated sesquiterpenes		6.1
Diterpenes		0.9
Others		4.2

^a Retention indices on HP-5MS capillary column; tr, trace amount < 0.1%

the oil were β -caryophyllene (17.0%), (*E*)- α -ionone (10.0%), geranial (7.6%), (*E*)- β -ionone (6.6%) and β -gurjunene (5.1%). Previous studies of the volatile contents have been concentrated on fruit samples. There were remarkable differences between this oil composition and previous studies [14-16]. The key aroma compounds in the Nigerian grown species were methional, 2-acetyl-1-pyrrolidine, butan-2,3-dione, pentan-2,3-dione, 2-ethyl-3,5-dimethylpyrazine and 2,3-diethyl-5-methylpyrazine [14]. Samples from Cameroon [15,16] were found to comprise mainly of ethyl-2-methylbutyrate (11.9-14.2%), methyl-2-methylbutyrate (28.6-31.6%), zingiberene (12.4-15.7%), nerolidol (5.1-8.5%), terpinen-4-ol (8.4-7.9%) and α -terpineol (7.9-8.7%). Except for *trans*-nerolidol, the present oil lacked several of the compounds mentioned above.

Experimental

Plant materials: Fresh leaves of *Ficus benjamina* were collected from Lagos State University, Ojo, Nigeria, in June 2010. The day samples were collected at about noon on sunny days; the night samples were harvested at about 11.30 pm during darkness. The leaves of *Irvingia barteri* were harvested from Ijede Area, Ikorodu, Lagos, Nigeria, in January 2011. The plants were authenticated by Curators at the Herbarium of the Botany Department, University of Lagos, Nigeria. Voucher specimens LUH 3223 (*F. benjamina*) and LUH 3323 (*I. barteri*) were deposited at the Herbarium for future reference. All samples were air-dried under laboratory shade prior to extraction of the oils.

Extraction of essential oils: Air-dried leaves (300 g) were subjected to separate hydrodistillation in an all-glass Clevenger type apparatus for 4 h in accordance with British Pharmacopoeia [17].

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Cytotoxic Agents of the Crinane Series of Amaryllidaceae Alkaloids

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In the alkaloid galanthamine, the plant family Amaryllidaceae has endowed the pharmaceutical community with a potent and selective inhibitor of the enzyme acetylcholinesterase (AChE), of prominence in the chemotherapeutic approach towards motor neuron diseases. Following on the commercial success of this prescription drug in the treatment of Alzheimer's disease, it is anticipated that other drug candidates will in future emerge from the family. In this regard, the phenanthridones, exemplified by narciclasine and pancratistatin, of the lycorine series of Amaryllidaceae alkaloids have shown much promise as remarkably potent and selective anticancer agents, with a drug target of the series destined for the clinical market within the next decade. Given these interesting biological properties and their natural abundance, plants of the Amaryllidaceae have provided a diverse and accessible platform for phytochemical-based drug discovery. The crinane series of Amaryllidaceae alkaloids are also enriched with a significant array of biological properties. As a consequence of their close structural similarity to the anticancer agents of the lycorine series, the cytotoxic potential of crinane alkaloids has been realized through structure-activity relationship (SAR) studies involving targets of both semi-synthetic and natural origin, which has identified several members as leads with promising antiproliferative profiles. As the first of its kind, this review seeks to collate such information from the past few decades in advancing the crinane group as a viable platform for anticancer drug discovery.

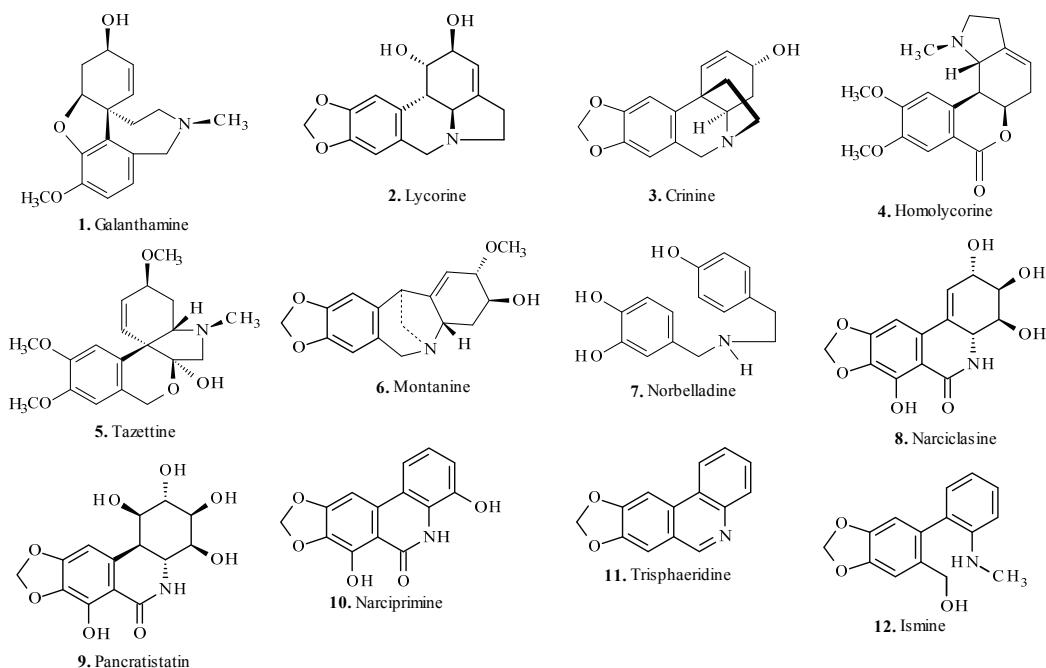
Keywords: Alkaloids, Amaryllidaceae, Anticancer, Crinane, Cytotoxic.

Amongst the diverse array of biological properties known for the plant family Amaryllidaceae [1], two themes are recurrent: acetylcholinesterase (AChE) inhibition and cytotoxicity. Of significance in the progression of neurodegeneration associated with motor neuron diseases, the former of these has gained much prominence in both the secular and scientific media after commercialization of the Alzheimer's drug galanthamine **1** [2], derived chiefly from the Amaryllidaceous species *Galanthus nivalis* (snowdrop) and *Narcissus pseudonarcissus* (daffodil). More recently, the chemotherapeutic potential of the family has been extended to include members of the lycorine **2** series due to their potent anticancer properties [3]. Galanthamine **1**, lycorine **2** and crinine **3** are representative of the three major structural-types for these alkaloids (Scheme 1), while homolycorine **4**, tazettine **5** and montanine **6** make up the minor series of compounds discernible within the Amaryllidaceae [1c]. Other less-conspicuous members include degraded, oxidized and truncated variants such as trisphaeridine **11** and ismine **12** [1c]. Biogenetically, all of these compounds are related as a consequence of their common amino acid-derived precursor norbelladine **7** [1c].

As a distinct niche within the lycorine series, the phenanthridones exemplified by narciclasine **8** and pancratistatin **9** (Scheme 1) are known for their potent and cell line-specific anticancer activities, and are presently at various stages of development, with a clinical candidate earmarked for commercialization within the next decade [4]. Mechanistically, these phenanthridones are known to initiate cell death via the apoptotic pathway, as indicated by early activation of caspase-3 followed by flipping of phosphatidyl serine, selectively in mitochondria of cancer cells with minimal effect on normal cells [5]. Given these promising biological properties, accompanied by their synthetically-challenging molecular structures, as well as their limited availability from natural sources, these alkaloids have served to fuel sustained efforts in order to deliver a potent, selective

and readily bioavailable drug target with facile synthetic access [6a-c]. Furthermore, a stronger case could be made for development of these compounds into commercially viable entities by the low interaction of narciclasine and pancratistatin with the cytochrome P450 3A4 isoenzyme, which accounts for the majority of drugs metabolized in humans [6d-f]. In addition, structure-activity relationship (SAR) studies invoking these potential drug targets have collectively facilitated the elucidation of elements of the apoptosis-inducing pharmacophore innate to these molecules [7].

Crinane alkaloids of the Amaryllidaceae, such as crinine **3** (Scheme 1), are a large and expanding group with a host of biological properties [1,8]. Structurally, they comprise the basic phenanthridine nucleus with varying degrees of oxygenation in ring-A, but usually with a methylenedioxy moiety straddling C-8 and C-9 [1c,d]. The presence of the *N*- to C-10b ethano-bridge is a diagnostic feature of their makeup, and may be either α - or β -orientated leading to two stereodefined subgroups: α - and β -crinanes (Schemes 2 and 3) [1c,d]. As a consequence, the C-10b spiro-junction may adopt one of two possible absolute configurations depending on the orientation of the ethano-bridge [1c,d]. In addition, oxygen-related substituents are usually found at various positions in ring-C and at C-11 of the bridge, while a C-1/C-2 double bond is common for many analogues of both subgroups [1c,d]. Given their close structural proximity to the potent anticancer agents of the lycorine group and their biogenesis from a common precursor, crinane compounds have recently emerged as interesting targets for cytotoxicity-based studies [1a,b]. As such, low micromolar activities in several instances were uncovered for representatives of the group, which has subsequently garnered significant interest in these alkaloids as potential leads in the chemotherapeutic approach towards cancer malignancy [1a,b].



Scheme 1: Diverse alkaloid structures of the Amaryllidaceae, including major group representatives **1-3** as well as the common biosynthetic precursor norbelladine **7**.

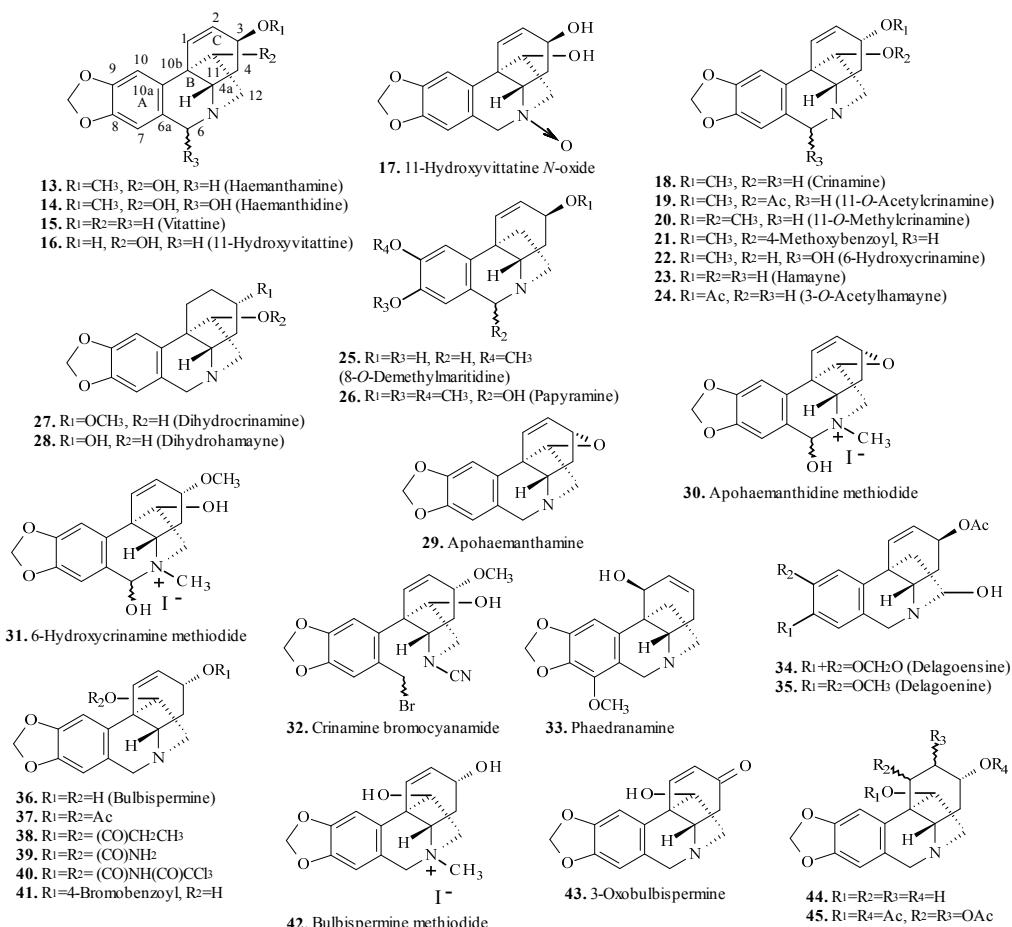
While several reviews have dedicated attention to the cytotoxic properties of the lycorine series of compounds [3e,h,4d,e,6], especially the phenanthridones of the series, a comprehensive overview with the crinane series members as the focal point is absent from the literature. To this extent, we here present a detailed chronological account of such agents within the crinane series of Amaryllidaceae alkaloids, as well as their allied cytotoxic activities, taking into consideration the contributions we have made in this area over the past few years together with those of others. Core areas that will be covered include: 1) *in vitro* and *in vivo*-based studies of crinane alkaloids; 2) SAR studies utilizing both natural and synthetically-derived targets; 3) elements of the anticancer pharmacophore unraveled through these studies; and 4) mechanistic insights to the mode of operation of these cytotoxic agents.

Based on prior observations for narciclasine **8** [9a], the seminal work of Jimenez et al. (1976) [9b] sought clarity on the antiproliferative effects of a library of structurally diverse Amaryllidaceae alkaloids in cervical adenocarcinoma (HeLa) cells. Of the four crinane compounds screened (Tables 1 and 2), the α -crinane haemanthamine **13** was the most active (MIC 4 μ M), while the β -crinanes crinine **3**, buphanidrine **46** and ambelline **47** exhibited no inhibitory effect on cell growth at concentrations up to 0.4 mM [9b]. It was suggested by these authors that the underlying mechanism of action of haemanthamine involved inhibition of protein synthesis by blocking the peptide bond formation step on the peptidyl transferase centre of the 60S ribosomal subunit. This dichotomy in antiproliferative activity between α - and β -crinanes is a theme commonly encountered in the literature, and will be elaborated on in several instances of this survey.

Not long after these findings, Furusawa and coworkers [10] examined various structures of the Amaryllidaceae, including several of the crinane series, for cytotoxic effects in Rauscher virus-carrying NIH/3T3 cells. During the investigation, haemanthamine **13**, crinamine **18** and 6-hydroxycrinamine **22** all exhibited minimum toxic dose (MTD) levels of 0.2 μ g/mL, while crinamine

bromocyanamide **32** was the next active at 5 μ g/mL, and 6-hydroxycrinamine methiodide **31** was identified as the pick of these crinanes with MTD of 0.05 μ g/mL. The highly strained ring system in apohaemanthidine methiodide **30** was seen to be detrimental to cytotoxicity as the compound had a MTD of 100 μ g/mL, while 6-hydroxybuphanidrine methiodide **58** also exhibited the same MTD value. Again, the dichotomous behavior of α -and β -crinanes are apparent from the activity of **58** compared with the other compounds screened. Amongst the early findings on antineoplastic agents from the Amaryllidaceae, bulbs of *Amaryllis belladonna* were shown by Pettit et al. (1984) to contain two crinane compounds; ambelline **47** and undulatine **62** [11]. Of these, only ambelline was active in the murine P-388 lymphocytic leukemia assay (ED_{50} 1.6 μ g/mL), indicating that the compound may be more amenable towards animal models of study as it was previously shown to be inactive in human adenocarcinoma (HeLa) cells [9b].

Also in 1984, Ghosal et al. [12] isolated 1,2-epoxyambelline **61** for the first time from bulbs of *Crinum latifolium*, and subsequent cytotoxicity studies showed that at 5 μ g/mL it produced moderate activation of mouse spleen lymphocytes (MSL). Furthermore, the closely-related analogue ambelline **47** in a 1:1 mixture with **61** (at 5 μ g/mL) had a marked synergistic effect, producing pronounced activation of the lymphocytic cells with a stimulation index of 3.12, comparable to that of concanavalin A (stimulation index 3.23) [12]. As an extension to the work on *Crinum latifolium*, Ghosal and Singh (1986) then isolated a further two novel alkaloids crinafoline **69** and crinafolidine **71** from mature fruits of the plant [13]. Structurally, crinafoline is the 6 α -hydroxy epimer corresponding to ambelline **47**, notably with the *endo* disposition for the 11-hydroxy group, while crinafolidine is the first identified natural truncated member of the crinane series, in this case with a *seco*-B-ring construction. *In vitro* studies on both compounds showed significant reductions in the viability of sarcoma 180 ascites (68.12% and 43.5% for crinafoline **69** and crinafolidine **71**, respectively) [13]. Interestingly, the B-*seco* analogue **71** was shown to be less active than the corresponding fully-cyclized crinafoline **69**, highlighting

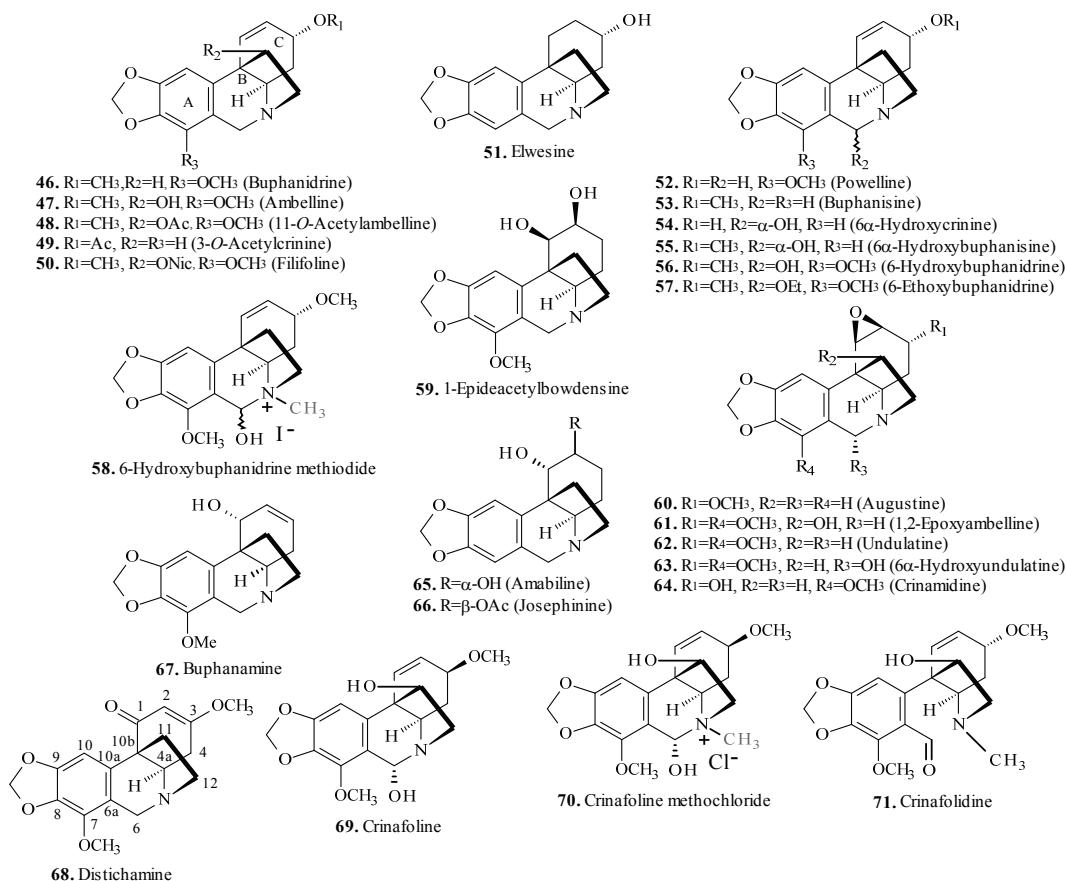
Scheme 2: Cytotoxic α -crinane alkaloids of the Amaryllidaceae.

the requirement of an intact phenanthridine nucleus for activity. Furthermore, quaternization of the nitrogen atom was seen to potentiate activity, as the semisynthetically-derived methochloride **70** was twice active as crinafoline **69**, with 32.31% viability shown for the sarcoma cells [13]. This work is also significant in that it represents the first demonstration of *in vivo* effects of crinane alkaloids. In this regard, compounds **69-71** produced marked reductions in growth of sarcoma 180 ascites tumors in mice with cell count values of 10.04×10^6 , 5.08×10^6 and 6.14×10^6 shown for the three compounds respectively, compared to untreated control animals (15.88×10^6) [13]. *In vivo*, quaternization of the nitrogen atom was also seen to be ameliorative towards activity (**69** versus **70**), and **70** was identified as the choice of this set of compounds.

A few years later in 1991, Abd El Hafiz et al. [14] examined the constituents of *Crinum augustum* and *Crinum bulbispernum* for activity against human leukemic Molt 4 cells. Of the three crinanes (powelline **52**, 6α -hydroxycrinine **54** and 6α -hydroxybuphanisine **55**) tested, only **55** was moderately active, causing a steady decline (up to ~20%) in the viability of leukemia cells over the three-day treatment period at a dosage of 71 μ g/mL [14] (Table 2). Since **54** and **55** are differentiated by their C-3 substituents, it may be construed that a small hydrogen bond acceptor (such as the methoxyl in **55**) as opposed to a donor-acceptor (hydroxyl) in this vicinity is essential for activity against Molt 4 cells. Substituent placement and geometry, as will become increasingly apparent during the course of this survey, have commonly been shown to have a distinctive influence on the cytotoxic abilities of crinane alkaloids.

The work of Likhitwitayawuid et al. (1993) stands out for the multi-cell line approach adopted by the authors in assessing the cytotoxic activities of alkaloid principles of *Crinum amabile* [15]. In the screen against ten cancers, including both human and animal cells, augustine **60** and crinamine **18** were prominent in most cases, with the best response (ED_{50} 0.6 μ g/mL) observed in human oral epidermoid carcinoma KB cells and vinblastine-resistant KB cells for the two compounds, respectively (Tables 1 and 2) [15]. Augustine **60** was noticeably selective against KB cells as opposed to vinblastine-resistant KB cells ($ED_{50} > 20$ μ g/mL). Buphanisine **53** and amabiline **65** were conspicuous in that they exhibited ED_{50} values > 20 μ g/mL in most of the cells tested [15]. The fact that α - and β -crinane representatives were here indistinguishable based on cytotoxic outcomes suggests that there may be other more subtle features, as will be encountered later in the manuscript, attending the crinane alkaloid anticancer pharmacophore.

Soon after this, during the course of the phytochemical investigation of *Hymenocallis expansa*, Antoun et al. (1993) identified haemanthidine **14** as one of the cytotoxic constituents in the screen against eleven cancer cells [16]. Although the compound exhibited non-selective behavior, of note were the activities against prostate LNCaP (ED_{50} 0.7 μ g/mL) and P-388 murine lymphocytic leukemia (ED_{50} 0.4 μ g/mL) cells. Two years later in 1995, Lin et al. examined *Hymenocallis littoralis* and uncovered *inter alia* the presence of the crinane alkaloids crinine **3**, haemanthamine **13** and 8-O-demethylmaritidine **25** [17]. Of these, only haemanthamine was screened for cytotoxic activity and found to be indiscriminate in a panel comprising eleven cell lines with ED_{50} values ranging



Scheme 3: Array of cytotoxic β-crinane members of the Amaryllidaceae.

from 0.3 to 1.3 μ g/mL, but was markedly potent against HT-1080 human fibrosarcoma cells. The same year, we entered the cytotoxic evaluation arena via a study of 25 diverse alkaloid structures of the Amaryllidaceae against two human tumoral cell lines (Molt4 and HepG2) and one murine non-tumoral cell line (LMTK) [18]. Interestingly, α -crinanes in the library could be distinguished from their β -congeners based on activities against the above tumors [18]. Buphanidine **46** and ambelline **47** exhibited low inhibitory interaction ($ED_{50} > 50$ μ g/mL) with both Molt4 and HepG2 cells [18], as also previously seen in adenocarcinoma HeLa cells [9b], while the α -crinanes, on the other hand, were markedly more responsive towards the tumor cells. As such, haemanthamine **13** and crinamine **18** both had ED_{50} values of 0.5 μ g/mL in LMTK cells, while papyramine **26** exhibited an ED_{50} of 1.5 μ g/mL in the same cell line [18].

Although no specific literature reference to cytotoxic properties of crinane compounds was found between 1996 and 1997, the period 1998 to 2000 saw three pieces of work from our groups pertaining to such activities of alkaloids of the South African Amaryllidaceae [19-21]. Firstly, while lycorine **2** was significantly active ($ED_{50} = 1.8$ μ g/mL), crinine **3** and ambelline **47** from bulbs of *Brunsvigia littoralis*, as well as their respective synthesized acetyl derivatives **49** and **48** were notably inactive ($ED_{50} > 100$ μ g/mL) against BL-6 mouse melanoma cells [19]. We next showed that 6-hydroxycrinamine **22** from *Crinum delagoense* was active in the same cell line, in contrast to its other α -crinane co-constituents hamayne **23**, delagoensine **34** and delagoenine **35** [20]. The 12-hydroxy crinane analogues **34** and **35** are structurally unique as they have never been

identified in any other species of Amaryllidaceae. Furthermore, these findings were significant in that they allowed for the first time a direct comparison of the cytotoxicities of C-6 and C-12 substituted crinanes, by which the former were seen to be preeminent. Finally, around this time *Brunsvigia radulosa* was examined for its phytochemical composition and cytotoxic ability against BL-6 cells [21]. Of the three crinanes assayed, the α -crinanes crinamine **18** ($ED_{50} = 1.8$ μ g/mL) and hamayne **23** ($ED_{50} = 9.4$ μ g/mL) were markedly more active than the β -crinane 1-epideacetylbowldensine **59** ($ED_{50} > 100$ μ g/mL). Furthermore, apohaemanthamine **29**, synthesized during the course of the study from crinamine **18** under strongly acidic conditions, exhibited low inhibitory interaction ($ED_{50} > 100$ μ g/mL) [21], which again could be explained in terms of ring strain generated through C-3 to C-11 etherification in **29**, as also seen for apohaemanthidine methiodide **30** and its low activity against NIH/3T3 cells [10].

A total of nine alkaloids were reported by Abou-Donia et al. (2002) from *Pancratium sickenbergeri* [22]. Of these, only haemanthidine **14** and 11-hydroxyvittatine **16** were assayed against the NCI 60-cell line library and shown to be inactive. The finding for haemanthidine **14** was surprising given the prior observations of Antoun et al. (1993) [16]. This anomaly was further highlighted by the investigation of Hohmann et al. [23] in the same year on alkaloid isolates of *Sprekelia formosissima* and *Hymenocallis x festalis*, during which haemanthamine **13** and haemanthidine **14** were noted for their pronounced antiproliferative properties in L5178 mouse lymphoma cells (IC_{50} s of 0.27 and 0.41 μ g/mL for the two alkaloids, respectively). Equally impressive was the potency of both compounds in the multidrug resistant form of L5178 mouse

Table 1: Activities of α -crinane alkaloid representatives of the Amaryllidaceae in miscellaneous cancer cell line screens.

Compound	No.	Cell line (Cytotoxicity index) ^a																		Reference				
		L6	BL6	KB	A549	OE21	Hs683	U373	SKMEL	B16F10	Jurkat	HeLa	Vero	LOVO	6T-CEM	HL-60	HT29	H460	RXF393	5123tc	3T3			
Haemanthamine	13	7.41 ^b		0.7 ^b	4.5	6.8	7.0	3.5 ^b	8.5	6.8	22 ^d	4	32 ^c			active				15	0.2 ^b	3e,f,9b,10,17,26,31, 33,35,36,38		
Haemanthidine	14			3.6 ^b	4.0	3.7	4.3	3.8	4.2	3.1		nd				active						16,31,35,36		
Vittatine	15										70 ^d						21.91	15.88	29.57			27,29		
11-Hydroxyvittatine	16										4 ^d	72 ^c	64 ^c									3e,f		
	17	>90 ^b		>50 ^b																		33		
Crinamine	18		1.8 ^b	1.0 ^b	15.9 ^b			0.9 ^b						4.30 ^b	2.82 ^b	1.70 ^b				12.5	0.2 ^b	10,15,21,26,28		
11-Acetylcrinamine	19																			na		26		
11-Methylcrinamine	20				9.15 ^b								81.0 ^b	14.4 ^b	6.16 ^b								28	
	21																			na		26		
6-Hydroxycrinamine	22		active																		0.2 ^b	10,20		
Hamayne	23		9.4 ^b									na										21,29		
3-O-Acetylhamayne	24				15.8 ^b									5.49 ^b	3.45 ^b	4.27 ^b						28		
	25	>90 ^b		>50 ^b							4 ^d	82 ^c	82 ^c									3e,f,33		
Dihydrocrinamine	27											na										29		
Dihydrohamayne	28										active											29		
Apohaemanthamine	29		>100 ^b																			21		
	30																			100 ^b		10		
	31																			0.05 ^b		10		
	32																			5 ^b		10		
Phaedranamine	33	na																				32		
Delagoensine	34	na																				20		
Delagoenine	35	na																				20		
Bulbispermine	36					11	38					8										36		
	37					63	nd					90										36		
	38					>100	nd					>100										36		
	39					50	>100					46										36		
	40					>100	nd					>100										36		
	41					>100	nd					>100										36		
	42					>100	nd					>100										36		
3-Oxobulbispermine	43					>100	nd					>100										36		
	44					>100	nd					>100										36		
	45					>100	nd					>100										36		
		BCA-1	HT-1080	LUC-1	MEL-2	COL-1	KB-V1	P-388	A-431	LNCaP	ZR-75-1	L5178	L5178mdr	Molt4	LMTK	HepG2	COL-2	BC1	HT	Lu1	HSC-2			
Haemanthamine	13	0.7 ^b	0.3 ^b	3.6 ^b				1.3 ^b	5.0 ^b	1.3 ^b	0.6 ^b	0.5 ^b	0.27 ^b	0.30 ^b	1.2 ^b	0.5 ^b	>50 ^b	0.6 ^b		active		17,18,23,35		
Haemanthidine	14							1.9 ^b	8.4 ^b	0.4 ^b	3.0 ^b	0.7 ^b	2.6 ^b	0.41 ^b	0.40 ^b			6.0 ^b	>20 ^b	1.6 ^b	2.1 ^b	active	16,23,35	
Crinamine	18	1.4 ^b	1.3 ^b	1.4 ^b	5.0 ^b	1.0 ^b	0.6 ^b	0.7 ^b	6.9 ^b	1.5 ^b	0.8 ^b			0.5 ^b	0.5 ^b	10 ^b						15,18		
Papyramine	26														15.8 ^b	1.5 ^b	17 ^b						18	
		T98G	U87	CEM	K562	MCF-7	G-361						SH-SY5Y											
Haemanthamine	13	8	6	2.1	3.4	8.1	3.7																36,38	
Haemanthidine	14	14	6											54.5										36
6-Hydroxycrinamine	22																						37	
Bulbispermine	36	9	9																				36	
	37	98	74																				36	
	38	>100	>100																				36	
	39	91	15																				36	
	40	>100	>100																				36	
	41	>100	>100																				36	
	42	>100	>100																				36	
3-Oxobulbispermine	43	>100	>100																				36	
	44	>100	>100																				36	
	45	>100	>100																				36	

^a Cytotoxicity index values expressed as ED₅₀, GI₅₀, IC₅₀, MIC or MTD₅₀ in micromolar (μM) units unless otherwise stated. ^b Values are in $\mu\text{g/mL}$. ^c Indicates % cell viability. ^d Indicates % apoptosis. For compounds indicated as "active", no cytotoxicity indices were presented in the original work (na=not active, nd=not detected).

lymphoma cells, exhibiting IC₅₀ values of 0.3 and 0.40 $\mu\text{g/mL}$, respectively [23] (Table 1). Around this time, findings by Phan et al. (2003) revealed that while lycorine **2** was strongly active on HepG2,

RD and FL cells, no such activity was detectable for the β -crinanes crinine **3** and crinamidine **64** isolated from the Vietnamese species *Crinum asiaticum* and *Crinum latifolium* [24]. Crinamidine is the

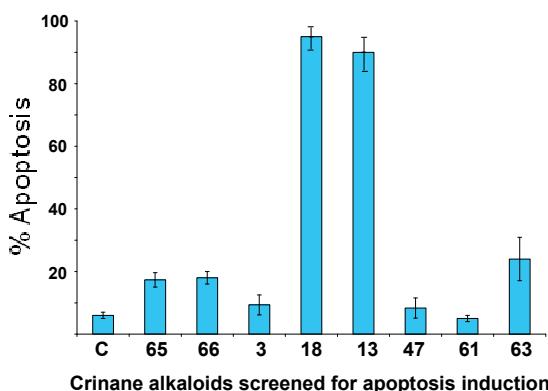


Figure 1: Apoptotic indices determined in rat hepatoma (5123tc) cells showing the efficacy of crinamine **18** and haemanthamine **13** at 25 μM after a 48 h treatment (after McNulty et al., 2007).²⁶

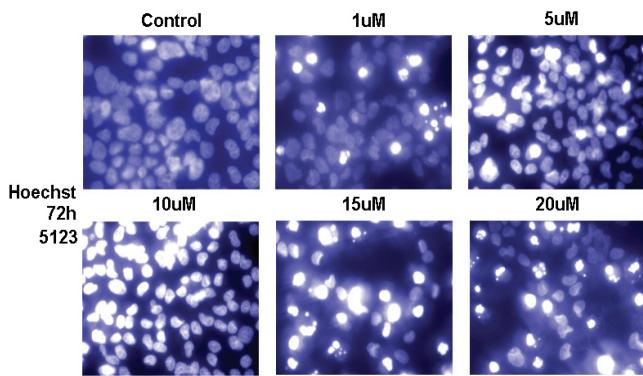


Figure 2: Hoechst staining of 5123tc cells 72 h after treatment with various concentrations of crinamine **18**. Apoptotic nuclei appear brighter and more fragmented than healthy nuclei (seen in control cells) (after McNulty et al., 2007).²⁶

3-hydroxy analogue corresponding to undulatine **62**, previously shown to be inactive in the P-388 cell line [11]. Apart from this, during the phytochemical investigation of *Nerine filifolia*, a species of the Amaryllidaceae endemic to eastern and southeastern regions of South Africa, we identified several crinanes of the β -series, including 6α -hydroxybuphanidine, 6α -methoxybuphanidine, ambelline, 11-*O*-acetylambelline and filifoline [25]. Of these, only filifoline **50** was screened against rat myoblast (L6) cells and shown to be inactive [25].

The year 2007 is notable in the Amaryllidaceae alkaloid cytotoxicity calendar as it saw the first demonstration of apoptotic effects for crinane-based alkaloid structures [26]. In this regard, we examined a mini-library comprising natural and semi-synthetic derivatives of both series of crinane compounds for apoptosis-inducing effects in rat hepatoma (5123tc) cells [26]. As shown in Figure 1, the α -crinanes haemanthamine **13** and crinamine **18** were prominent amongst the other test substrates, with apoptotic indices of 90% and 95%, respectively, after a 48 h treatment at 25 μM [26]. Apoptosis induction was indicated by Hoechst staining as shown in Figure 2, by which apoptotic nuclei appeared brighter and more fragmented than healthy nuclei, in this case upon treatment with crinamine **18**. Furthermore, respective ED₅₀ values were established at 15 μM and 12.5 μM for haemanthamine and crinamine (Figure 3) [26]. Of the other compounds screened, only the activity of 6α -hydroxyundulatine **63** was noteworthy (25% apoptotic at the same concentration and treatment period) [26]. These results were even more impressive considering the selectivities of haemanthamine **13** and crinamine **18**, both of which were seen to exhibit negligible

apoptotic effects in normal human embryonic kidney (293t) cells (Figure 4).

Apart from uncovering these novel effects in hepatoma cells, this work was also significant in shedding light on the underlying structural elements of the pharmacophore resident within these crinanes [26]. These were seen to include: 1) α -orientation for the 5,10b-ethano bridge, which renders the B,C-ring junction conformationally similar to the phenanthridone drug target pancratistatin **9**. As such, the α -crinanes crinamine and haemanthamine were clearly far superior to the other β -crinanes screened; 2) the stereochemistry at C-3 may not be significant given the relative configurations of the methoxyl group in crinamine and haemanthamine; and 3) requirement of a free hydroxyl at the C-11 position, the function of which may involve hydrogen bond donor-acceptor interactions, as acyl-derivatives (acetate and benzoate) were notably inactive [26].

However, as will be discussed later, the apoptosis-inducing pharmacophore is shown to incorporate other essential structural ingredients. The only work in 2008 on cytotoxicity studies of crinanes was that of Silva et al. [27] in which vittatine **15** from *Hippeastrum vittatum* was shown to be active against HT29, H460 and RXF393 cells with IC₅₀ values of 21.91, 15.88 and 29.57 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ in the three cells, respectively. Interestingly, the dichloromethane and butanol extracts of the plant were markedly more active than neat vittatine **15** in all three cell lines. For example, the best IC₅₀ value for the butanol extract was ascertained in RXF393 cells (2.93 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$), while that for the dichloromethane extract was 0.62 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ in H460 cells.

The year 2009 saw a flurry of activity in the cytotoxicity field pertaining to crinane alkaloids. The first two related to major works involving a diverse Amaryllidaceae alkaloid library screen against HeLa, Vero and Jurkat cells [3e,f]. Of the crinane alkaloids evaluated (Tables 1 and 2), including 11-hydroxyvittatine **16**, 8-*O*-demethylmaritidine **25**, ambelline **47**, buphanamine **67** and buphanisine **53**, only haemanthamine **13** stood out for significantly reducing the viability of HeLa and Vero cells to 21% and 32%, respectively, over a 24 h period at a treatment dose of 25 μM [3e,f]. Furthermore, amongst these crinanes, only haemanthamine **13** was capable of apoptosis induction in Jurkat cells (22% over the same period and dosage) [3e,f]. Another important aspect of these investigations was the discovery that buphanamine **67** was the most potent of the twenty-nine compound library in the collagen type 1 invasion assay [3e,f]. At 25 μM it produced only ~2% invasion of collagen type 1 by HeLa cells [3e,f], and given its low cytotoxicity, even at relatively high dosages, it may play a significant future chemoprotective role in combination with the phenanthridone anticancer drug targets narciclasine **8** and pancratistatin **9**.

The work of Sun et al. (2009) on the chemical constituents of *Crinum asiaticum* from Yunnan province of China revealed *inter alia* the presence of the α -crinanes crinamine **18**, 11-*O*-methylcrinamine **20** and 3-*O*-acetylhamayne **24** [28]. Subsequent cytotoxicity studies in four cell lines (A549, LOVO, 6T-CEM and HL-60) showed, as expected, crinamine to be superior to the other functionalized analogues [28]. For comparison purposes, in the HL-60 cell line IC₅₀ values determined were 1.70, 6.16 and 4.27 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ for the three compounds, respectively [28]. As mentioned above, and again seen here for this crinamine subset, the direct influence of substituents on the cytotoxic ability of crinane alkaloids is quite pronounced, and should thus guide SAR studies aimed at identifying a possible clinical candidate. Finally, the year closed out with further apoptotic studies by our research group on selected

Table 2: Activities of β -crinane alkaloid representatives of the Amaryllidaceae in miscellaneous cancer cell line screens.

Compound	No.	Cell line (Cytotoxicity index) ^a																		Reference					
		L6	BL6	SKW-3	HL-60	HL-60/Dox	MDA-MB-231	A549	OE21	Hs683	U373	SKMEL	B16F10	Jurkat	HeLa	Vero	5123tc	Molt4	LMTK	HepG2	FI	RD			
Crinine	3	>100 ^b	16.95	20.86	14.04	68.11											na	9 ^d		na	na	na	9b,19,24,26,34		
Buphanidrine	46																na		>50 ^b	>50 ^b	>50 ^b		9b,18,38		
Ambelline	47	>100 ^b	>100	>100	>100	>100		>10	86	>10	>10	>10	>10	4 ^d	79 ^c	89 ^c	8 ^d	>50 ^b	>50 ^b	>50 ^b		3e,f,18,19,26,31,34			
11-Acetylambelline	48	>100 ^b																					19		
3-O-Acetylcrinine	49	>100 ^b																					19		
Filifoline	50	na																					25		
Elwesine	51		>100	>100	>100	>100																	34		
Powelline	52																	na					14		
Buphanisine	53							>10	97	>10	>10	>10	>10	>10	5 ^d	99 ^c	79 ^c						3e,f,15,31,36		
6 α -Hydroxyocrinine	54																	na					14		
	55																	active					14		
	56		45.03	95.95	76.69	>100																	34		
	57		59.43	>100	95.22	>100																	34		
	59		>100 ^b																				21		
Augustine	60													0.6 ^b										15	
1,2-Epoxyambelline	61																	5 ^d						26	
Hydroxyundulatine	63																	25 ^d						26	
Crinamidine	64																			na	na	na		24	
Amabiline	65													>20 ^b					17 ^d					15,26	
Josephinine	66																		18 ^d					26	
Buphanamine	67													>10	>10	>10	>10	>10	3 ^d	96 ^c	90 ^c				3e,f,31,36
Distichamine	68																	2.2						38	
	BCA-1	HT-1080	LUC-1	MEL-2	COL-1	KB-V1	KB	P-388	A-431	LNCaP	ZR-75-1	MSL	CEM	K562	MCF-7	G-361	3T3	S-180	T98G	U87					
Buphanidrine	46																>50	>50	>50	>50				38	
Ambelline	47													1.6			active							11,12,36	
Buphanisine	53	>20 ^b	>20 ^b	>20 ^b	>20 ^b	>20 ^b	19.8 ^b	>20 ^b	>5 ^b	>20 ^b	>20 ^b	>20 ^b											15,36		
	58																		100					10	
Augustine	60	2.8 ^b	1.2 ^b	3.7 ^b	3.2 ^b	2.4 ^b	>20 ^b	0.6 ^b	0.6 ^b	4.9 ^b	1.7 ^b	1.8 ^b											15		
1,2-Epoxyambelline	61															active								12	
Undulatine	62													na										11	
Amabiline	65	>20 ^b	>20 ^b	>20 ^b	>20 ^b	>20 ^b	>20 ^b	>20 ^b	>5 ^b	>20 ^b	>20 ^b	>20 ^b											15		
Buphanamine	67																							36	
Distichamine	68																4.5	4.1	2.3	14.7				38	
Crinafoline	69																			68.12 ^c				13	
	70																			32.31 ^c				13	
Crinafolidine	71																			43.5 ^s				13	

^a Cytotoxicity index values expressed as ED₅₀, GI₅₀, IC₅₀, MIC or MTD₅₀ in micromolar (μ M) units unless otherwise stated. ^b Values are in μ g/mL. ^c Indicates % cell viability. ^d Indicates % apoptosis. For compounds indicated as "active", no cytotoxicity indices were presented in the original work (na=not active, nd=not detected). Cell line abbreviations are as follows: A-431 (human epidermoid carcinoma), A549 (human lung carcinoma), BC1 (human breast cancer), BCA-1 (human breast cancer), B16F10 (mouse melanoma), BL6 (mouse melanoma), CEM (human lymphoblastic leukemia), COL-1 (human colon cancer), COL-2 (human colon cancer), FI (human cervical adenocarcinoma), G-361 (human melanoma), H460 (human lung carcinoma), HeLa (human cervical adenocarcinoma), HepG2 (human hepatoma), HL-60 (human promyelocytic leukemia), HL-60/Dox (human leukemia/doxorubicin resistant), Hs683 (human neuronal glioma), HSC-2 (human squamous carcinoma), HT (human sarcoma), HT29 (human colon adenocarcinoma), HT-1080 (human fibrosarcoma), Jurkat (human lymphoblast), K562 (human myelogenous leukemia), KB (human oral epidermoid carcinoma), KB-V1 (vinblastine-resistant KB), L6 (rat myoblast), L5178 (mouse lymphoma), L5178mdr (multidrug resistant L5178), LMTK (murine fibroblast), LNCap (hormone-dependent human prostatic cancer), LOVO (human colon adenocarcinoma), Lu1 (human lung cancer), LUC-1 (human lung cancer), MCF-7 (human breast cancer), MDA-MB-231 (human adenocarcinoma), MEL-2 (human melanoma), Molt4 (human T lymphoma), MSL (mouse spleen lymphocyte), OE21 (oesophageal squamous carcinoma), P-388 (murine lymphoid neoplasm), RD (human rhabdomyosarcoma), RXF393 (human renal carcinoma), S-180 (mouse ascites tumor), SH-SY5Y (human neuroblastoma), SKMEL (human skin melanoma), SKW-3 (human T-cell leukemia), 5123tc (rat hepatoma), 6T-CEM (human T-lymphoblastic leukemia), T98G (human glioblastoma), U87 (human glioblastoma), U373 (human glioblastoma astrocytoma), Vero (monkey kidney epithelial), ZR-75-1 (hormone-dependent breast cancer).

crinane alkaloids [29], based on the initial discovery for α -crinanes of the series [26]. This work is notable for demonstrating the apoptosis-inducing ability of the α -crinane vittatine **15** in Jurkat cells and for highlighting further structural features attending the crinane alkaloid pharmacophore. In this case, vittatine induced apoptosis in Jurkat cells in a dose dependent manner, notably with ~70% of cells exhibiting characteristic apoptotic morphology, as indicated by Hoechst staining, Annexin-V binding and caspase-3 activation, after 24 h with a single 20 μ M dose [29]. The other pharmacophoric elements uncovered in the process include: 1) the modulatory

effect of the C-1/C-2 double bond as shown by the markedly lower activities for dihydro-analogues of crinamine **18** and hamayne **23**; and 2) the presence of a small substituent at C-11 (H or OH), the function of which does not appear to involve hydrogen bonding but is subject to steric constraints alone [29].

About 90% of cancer patients die from tumor metastases [30]. Metastatic cancer cells are intrinsically resistant to apoptosis and therefore unresponsive to a large majority of anticancer drugs, most of which function through apoptosis induction [30]. Recent findings by Van Goitsenoven et al. (2010) are thus significant in

focusing on the cytotoxic abilities of diverse Amaryllidaceae alkaloids in apoptosis-resistant cancer cells [31]. Of the five crinane alkaloids evaluated, ambelline **47**, buphanamine **67** and buphanisine **53** exhibited low activities against both apoptosis-resistant (A549, OE21, U373 and SKMEL) and apoptosis-sensitive (Hs683 and B16F10) cells [31]. On the other hand, haemanthamine **13** and haemanthidine **14** were markedly active in both cell-forms (IC_{50} s 3.1–8.5 μ M) with the best activity seen for the latter in B16F10 cells (IC_{50} = 3.1 μ M) [31]. Also in 2010, phaedranamine **33**, the enantiomer of buphanamine, was isolated for the first time from the South American Amaryllidaceae species *Phaedranassa dubia* and shown to be inactive towards L6 cells (IC_{50} > 300 μ M) [32].

In 2011, two further Amaryllidaceous species (*Galanthus trojanus* and *Crinum zeylanicum*) were examined by our group for cytotoxic effects in various cell lines [33,34]. Firstly, 11-hydroxyvittatine-N-oxide **17** and 8-O-demethylmaritidine **25** from *Galanthus trojanus* were both weakly active in L6 cells (IC_{50} s > 90 μ g/mL) and KB cells (IC_{50} s > 50 μ g/mL) in contrast to the co-constituent haemanthamine which exhibited IC_{50} s of 7.41 and 0.97 μ g/mL in the two cell lines, respectively [33]. The result for 8-O-demethylmaritidine is in accordance with previous findings by Lin et al. (1995), who showed that the compound was unresponsive in a multi-cell line screen [17], and thus emphasizes the significance of the A-ring attached 1,3-dioxolane moiety to the crinane anticancer pharmacophore.

Secondly, bulbs of *Crinum zeylanicum* were shown to contain *inter alia* the crinane alkaloids crinine **3**, ambelline **47**, elwesine **51**, 6-hydroxybuphanidrine **56** and 6-ethoxybuphanidrine **57**, all of the β -subgroup [34] (Table 2). In the four cell lines screened, only crinine was notably active with IC_{50} s of 16.95, 20.86, 14.01 and 68.11 μ M in SKW-3, HL-60, HI-60/Dox and MDA-MB-231 cells, respectively [34]. The role of the double bond to the integrity of the crinane pharmacophore could be gauged directly by comparison of these responses to those of elwesine **51**, the dihydro-analogue of crinine, which exhibited IC_{50} s > 100 μ M across the four cells [34]. Further mechanistic tests on the active compound crinine via oligonucleosomal DNA fragmentation revealed the apoptotic cell death mode as responsible for its cytotoxicity [34]. Apart from this, Jitsuno et al. (2011) showed that haemanthamine **13** and haemanthidine **14** from *Lycoris albiflora* were active against HL-60 and HSC-2 cells (Table 1) [35].

The year 2012 has already seen three detailed studies of the cytotoxic properties of crinane alkaloids [36–38]. Firstly, Luchetti et al. (2012) uncovered the cytotoxic ability of bulbispermine **36**, the 11-*endo* analogue corresponding to hamayne **23**, in various cells including apoptosis-resistant and apoptosis-sensitive forms [36]. For example, in the apoptosis-resistant line T98G the compound had a GI_{50} of 9 μ M, matched closely by its activity in apoptosis-sensitive HeLa cells (GI_{50} of 8 μ M) [36]. Further results showed as expected, the prominence of haemanthamine **13** and haemanthidine **14**, as well as the low activity of buphanamine **67**, buphanisine **53** and ambelline **47** in these cells [36]. SAR studies revealed that the semi-synthetic transformation products (37–45) of bulbispermine, with the exception of **39** (GI_{50} 15 μ M in U87 cells), were weakly active (GI_{50} s > 100 μ M) in most test screens. Secondly, work by Adewusi et al. (2012) on the South African amaryllid *Boophone disticha* uncovered 6-hydroxycrinamine **22** as the cytotoxic agent in neuroblastoma (SH-SY5Y) cells with IC_{50} s of 54.5 and 61.7 μ M, as determined by the MTT and neutral red assays, respectively [37]. Finally, we

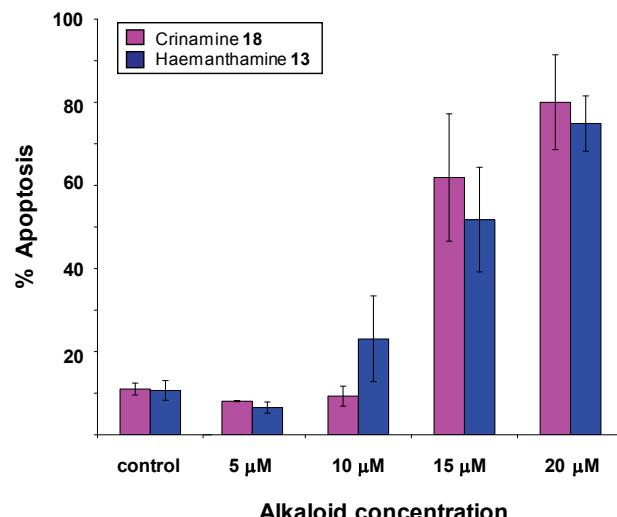


Figure 3: Apoptosis responses in 5123tc cells treated over 72 h with various concentrations of crinamine and haemanthamine. Effective dose (ED_{50}) was calculated as the concentration inducing apoptosis in 50% of cells (after McNulty et al., 2007).²⁶

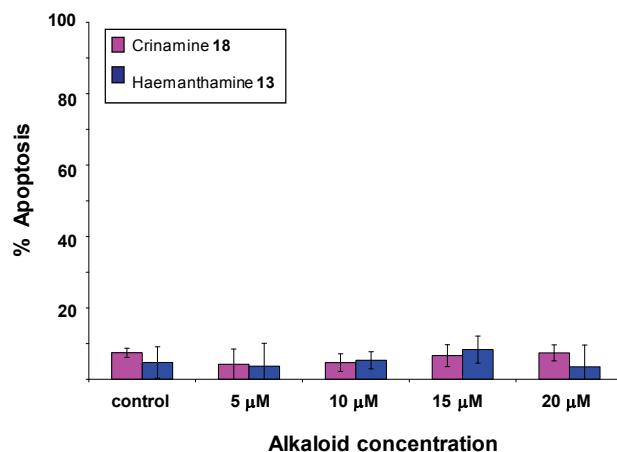


Figure 4: Normal human embryonic kidney (293t) cells are unaffected by treatment with various doses of crinamine and haemanthamine after 72 h (after McNulty et al., 2007).²⁶

very recently revealed the antiproliferative properties of the rare Amaryllidaceae crinane constituent distichamine **68** in a mini-panel of cancer cells comprising acute lymphoblastic leukemia (CEM), chronic myelogenous leukemia (K562), breast adenocarcinoma (MCF7), malignant melanoma (G-361) and cervical adenocarcinoma (HeLa), in addition to the normal human fibroblast (BJ) cell line [38]. By means of the Calcein AM assay, distichamine **68** was seen to be active against all cancer cell lines (IC_{50} s 2.2–14.7 μ M), with the adherent cell line HeLa shown to be the most sensitive (IC_{50} 2.2 μ M) to this alkaloid [38].

Mechanistic studies then invoked flow cytometry to quantify the distribution of CEM cells across the different phases of the cell cycle, and to determine the sub-G₁ fraction as a measure of the proportion of apoptotic cells [38]. The analysis showed that treatment with distichamine **68** increased the proportion of G₂/M phase cells in a dose-dependent manner, with concomitant reductions in the proportion of G₀/G₁ and S cells (Figure 5) [38]. In addition, the proportion of cells with sub-G₁ amounts of DNA (apoptotic cells) increased (up to 23.7 %) following a 24 h

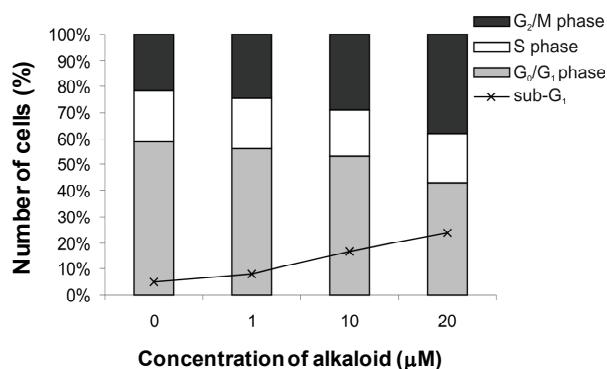


Figure 5: Histograms obtained by flow cytometric analysis showing the distributions of CEM cells across the G₀/G₁, S and G₂/M phases of the cell cycle after 24 h treatment with distichamine **68**, and the sub-G₁ fraction of cells (relative to untreated controls). The bars show the percentage of cells in the corresponding phase (after Nair et al., 2012).³⁸

treatment with **68**, relative to that observed in untreated cells, indicating that the compound was clearly capable of cell cycle disturbance and apoptosis induction in CEM cells [38].

Furthermore, distichamine induced a 12.5-fold increase in the activity of caspase-3/7 after 24 h at the highest concentration (20 μM) compared to untreated controls (Figure 6). In addition, Western blot analysis was used to detect changes in expression of apoptosis-related proteins in CEM leukemia cells after treatment with distichamine. As shown in Figure 7, treatment with **68** (at 10 and 20 μM) induced cleavage of PARP (89 kDa fragment) after 24 h which also corresponded with decreased levels of procaspase-3. As described above, increased caspase-3 activity was observed over the same treatment period and dosage (Figure 6). Expression of the tumor suppressor protein p53 was discernible in the CEM cell line control, and **68** caused its enhanced expression after 24 h, notably at 10 and 20 μM (Figure 7). No change in the expression of the antiapoptotic protein Bcl-2 was observed, but at 20 μM, a decreased level of the antiapoptotic protein Mcl-1 was detected, indicating the onset of apoptosis. Mcl-1 is necessary for cell viability, and its decreased expression has been suggested as the cause of cell death in CEM cells [39a]. It also plays a crucial role in regulating the apoptosis of T-cells [39b].

Western blot analysis here demonstrated the dose-dependent decrease of procaspase-3 and cleavage of PARP after 24 h treatment with distichamine **68** in CEM leukemia cells (Figure 7), indicating that the compound induces caspase-3 activated apoptosis [38]. Given the unique C-ring structural formulation for distichamine, involving shift of the double bond to C-2/C-3 with concomitant vinylization of the C-3 methoxy group and oxidation at C-1, these findings point at further attendant structural features of the crinane apoptosis-inducing pharmacophore. It now appears that a *sp*²-hybridised C-3 centre is tolerated at the active site, since most other cytotoxic crinane alkaloids possess a C-1/C-2 double bond.

Furthermore, oxygenation at C-1, as is characteristic of the anticancer phenanthridone pancratistatin **9**, was here shown to be amenable towards activity. Interestingly, in the case of distichamine, a keto-group is positioned at C-1, as a consequence of which three contiguous *sp*²-centres are formed in ring-C, similar to that seen for the active phenanthridone narciprimine **10** [38].

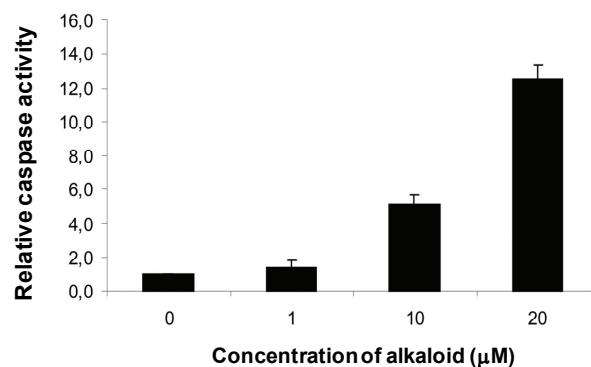


Figure 6: Increases in the activities of caspase-3 and 7 in CEM cells treated with distichamine **68** for 24 h, relative to untreated controls. The data shown represent averages from at least three independent experiments performed in triplicate (after Nair et al., 2012).³⁸

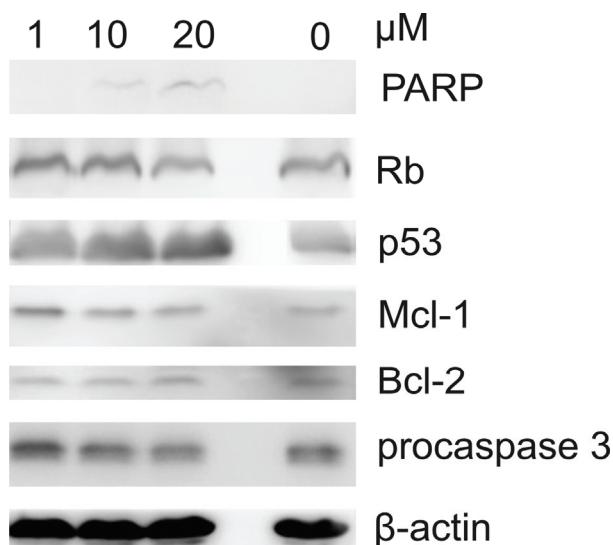


Figure 7: Western blot analysis of apoptosis-related proteins (PARP fragment 89 kDa, Rb, p53, Mcl-1, Bcl-2 and procaspase 3) in leukemia (CEM) cells treated with distichamine **68** compared to their expression in untreated control cells. The expression of β-actin was monitored as a protein loading control (after Nair et al., 2012).³⁸

In summary, a more comprehensive view has emerged of crinane alkaloids of the Amaryllidaceae as potent and selective cytotoxic agents with significant potential for preclinical development. This promising status was drawn out of multi-cell line approaches invoking targets of synthetic as well as natural origin. As such, both *in vitro* and *in vivo* models of study support the ameliorative effects of crinane compounds as anticancer agents. This survey has accounted for 54 cancer cell lines (Tables 1 and 2), including human and animal forms, against which the cytotoxic abilities of a total of 71 crinane alkaloids have been measured. As also shown in Tables 1 and 2, of the α-series, not surprisingly, haemanthamine **13**, haemanthidine **14** and crinamine **18** are the most commonly targeted agents in such studies. Within the β-series, ambelline **47** and buphanisine **53** appear routinely across most of the cell lines screened. In terms of potency, synthetic 6-hydroxycrinamine methiodide **31** is the most active crinane identified to date with a MTD of 0.05 μg/mL in NIH/3T3 cells. In animal models of study, the natural α-crinanes, haemanthamine **13**, crinamine **18** and 6-hydroxycrinamine **22** were the most active each with MTD of 0.2 μg/mL in NIH/3T3 cells. In human cancers, haemanthamine was again the most

potent compound with an ED₅₀ of 0.3 µg/mL in HT-1080 fibrosarcoma cells. Furthermore, selective cytotoxic abilities have been demonstrated for crinamine and haemanthamine, both of which, for example, targeted rat hepatoma (5123tc) cells as opposed to normal human embryonic kidney (293t) cells. Of the β-crinanes evaluated, augustine **60** was the most active with an ED₅₀ of 0.6 µg/mL in both KB (human oral epidermoid carcinoma) and U373 (human glioblastoma astrocytoma) cells. Given the close structural proximity of these alkaloids to the potent phenanthridone anticancer agents of the family, such as narciclasine and pancratistatin, as well as their common biogenetic origin, it is possible that a common, though still elusive, biological target may be operable for these agents.

Structure-activity relationship studies, again involving natural as well as synthetically-derived targets, have provided useful insights to the structural details of the anticancer pharmacophore attending these molecules. Features that have come to light from such studies include: 1) an intact phenanthridine nucleus is essential since truncated analogues were markedly less active, as seen for crinafoline **69** against crinafolidine **71**; 2) presence of the A-ring methylenedioxypyphenyl moiety since structures incorporating other substituents (as in 8-O-demethylmaritidine **25**) were seen to be less active; 3) B-ring modification effects such as quaternization of the nitrogen atom were shown to be

deleterious; 4) small substituents with hydrogen bond donor/acceptor capability at C-11 (β to the nitrogen atom) with either *exo*- or *endo*-disposition were ameliorative (as in crinamine **18** and bulbispermine **36**, respectively), but less so for substitutions α to the nitrogen atom at C-6 (6-hydroxycrinamine **22**) or C-12 (delagoensine **34**); 5) stereochemistry at C-3 may not be significant given the relative configurations of the methoxyl group in crinamine **18** and haemanthamine **13**, as well as its planar geometry in distichamine **68**; 6) additional oxygenation of ring-A, reminiscent of the potent anticancer phenanthridones narciclasine **8** and pancratistatin **9**, is viewed as beneficial to the pharmacophore, as shown for distichamine **68**; and 7) although active compounds were found across both α- and β-members of the series, the geometry of the 5,10b-ethano bridge appears to play a significant role given the consistent potency of the former series across most of the cell lines screened. In addition, mechanistic studies have recently uncovered the apoptotic mode of death as responsible for the cytotoxicity of several crinane compounds. These distinctive features should prove useful in guiding the development of a clinical drug target. As such, efforts to further refine the active pharmacophore associated with these molecules are an ongoing concern in our laboratories.

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Modeling of the Distribution of Heavy Metals and Trace Elements in Argan Forest Soil and Parts of Argan Tree

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