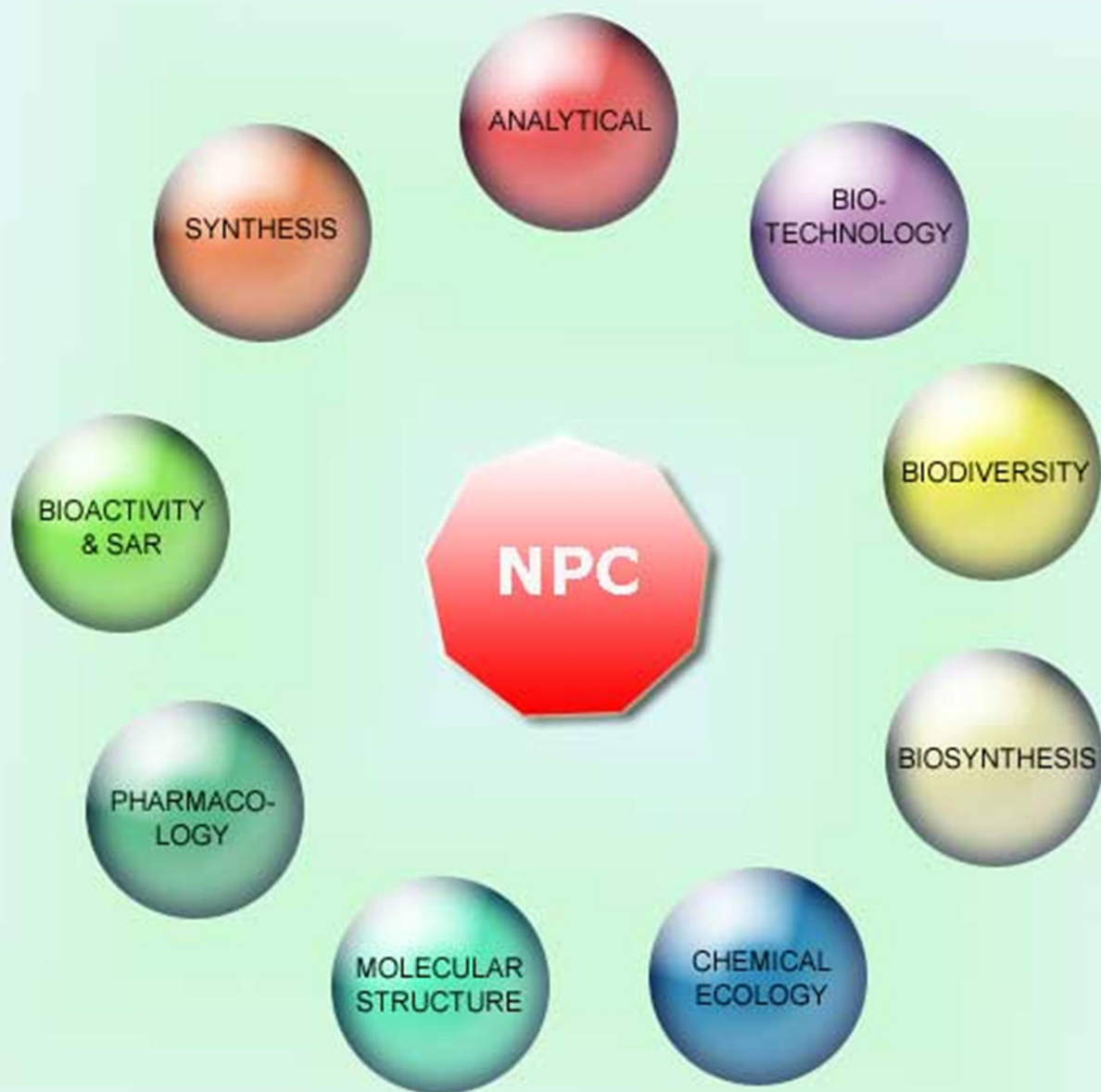


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Natural Product Communications

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Contents

<u>Original Paper</u>	<u>Page</u>
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 Aysun Ozkan and Ayse Erdogan	1557
New Secoiridoid Glycosides from the Buds of <i>Lonicera macranthoides</i> Jiang Liu, Jing Zhang, Feng Wang and Xingfu Chen	1561
Chemical Constituents from the Aerial Parts of <i>Gynura bicolor</i> Jian Chen, Sven Mangelinckx, An Adams, Wei-lin Li, Zheng-tao Wang and Norbert De Kimpe	1563
Chemical Constituents of <i>Ligularia nelumbifolia</i> and <i>L. subspicata</i> Hybrid Collected in Shangrila County, Yunnan Province of China Ryo Hanai, Hiroka Yamada, Yurika Suzuki, Hajime Nagano, Takayuki Kawahara, Jiao-Jun Yu, Xun Gong and Chiaki Kuroda	1565
A Practical, Enantiospecific Synthesis of (<i>S</i>)-<i>trans</i>-γ-Monocyclofarnesol Stefano Serra	1569
ACAT Inhibitory Activity of Exudates from <i>Calocedrus macrolepis</i> var. <i>formosana</i> Yu-Hsin Hsieh, Kuan-Jung Chen, Shih-Chang Chien, Wen-Ling Cheng, Jun-Hong Xiao and Sheng-Yang Wang	1573
Cucurbitane-Type Triterpenoids from the Fruit Pulp of <i>Momordica charantia</i> Yun-Wen Liao, Chiy-Rong Chen, Yueh-Hsiung Kuo, Jue-Liang Hsu, Wen-Ling Shih, Hsueh-Ling Cheng, Tzou-Chi Huang and Chi-I Chang	1575
Two Novel Phenethylamine Alkaloids from <i>Streptomyces</i> sp. YIM10049 Xueqiong Yang, Guangwei He, Lixing Zhao, Yabin Yang, Yun Liu, Lihua Xu and Zhongtao Ding	1579
Alkaloids from <i>Cinnamomum philippinense</i> Hsing-Tan Li, Wei-Jen Li, Hui-Ming Wu and Chung-Yi Chen	1581
Conversional Synthesis of Heteratisine Ling Wang, Qi-Feng Chen and Feng-Peng Wang	1583
Flavonoids and Triterpenes from the leaves of <i>Artocarpus fulvicortex</i> Shajarahtunnur Jamil, Muhammad Taher, Hasnah M. Sirat and Nur Azlin Othman	1587
Dihydrospinochalcone-A and Epi-flemistricin-B, Natural Isocordoin Derivatives from the Root Extract of <i>Lonchocarpus xuul</i> Fabiola Escalante-Erosa, Brenda González-Morales, Ramiro F. Quijano-Quñones, Gumersindo Miron-López and Luis M. Peña-Rodríguez	1589
Phenolic Compounds, Including Novel C-glycosylflavone, from the Flowers of the Tall Bearded Iris Cultivar ‘Victoria Falls’ Takayuki Mizuno, Tsutomu Yabuya, Nobuhiro Sasaki and Tsukasa Iwashina	1591
Two New Biisoflavonoids from the Roots of <i>Daphne oleoides</i> Shazia Yasmeen, Muhammad Aijaz Anwar, Sadia Ferheen, Nighat Afza, Abdul Malik and Lubna Iqbal	1595
Biflavonoids from the Unripe Fruits of <i>Clusia paralicola</i> and their Antioxidant Activity Rafaela Ferreira Oliveira, Celso Amorim Camara, Maria de Fátima Agra and Tania Maria Sarmento Silva	1597
Ochnaflavone and Ochnaflavone 7-O-methyl Ether two Antibacterial Biflavonoids from <i>Ochna pretoriensis</i> (Ochnaceae) Tshepo J. Makhaola, Babatunde B. Samuel, Esameldin E. Elgorashi and Jacobus N. Eloff	1601
Factors Affecting the Separation and Bioactivity of Red Clover (<i>Trifolium pratense</i>) Extracts Assayed against <i>Clostridium sticklandii</i>, a Ruminant Hyper Ammonia-producing Bacterium Isabelle A. Kagan and Michael D. Flythe	1605
Exploitation of the Antioxidant Potential of <i>Geranium macrorrhizum</i> (Geraniaceae): Hepatoprotective and Antimicrobial Activities Niko S. Radulović, Milan B. Stojković, Snežana S. Mitić, Pavle J. Randjelović, Ivan R. Ilić, Nikola M. Stojanović and Zorica Z. Stojanović-Radić	1609
Differential Expression of Benzophenone Synthase and Chalcone Synthase in <i>Hypericum sampsonii</i> Lili Huang, Hong Wang, Hechun Ye, Zhigao Du, Yansheng Zhang, Ludger Beerhues and Benye Liu	1615
Efficient Preparation of Hangekobokuto (Banxia-Houpo-Tang) Decoction by Adding Perilla Herb before Decoction is Finished Megumi Sumino, Yuko Saito, Fumio Ikegami, Yoshiro Hirasaki and Takao Namiki	1619
Anti-neutrophilic Inflammatory Secondary Metabolites from the Traditional Chinese Medicine, Tiankuizi Chia-Lin Lee, Tsong-Long Hwang, Chieh-Yu Peng, Chao-Jung Chen, Yuan-Shiun Chang and Yang-Chang Wu	1623
DART MS Based Chemical Profiling for Therapeutic Potential of <i>Piper betle</i> Landraces Vikas Bajpai, Renu Pandey, Mahendra Pal Singh Negi, Nikhil Kumar and Brijesh Kumar	1627
Total Phenolic Content and Antioxidative Properties of Commercial Tinctures Obtained from Some Lamiaceae Plants Adam Kowalczyk, Izabela Biskup and Izabela Fecka	1631
Synthesis, Antifungal Activity and Structure-Activity Relationships of Vanillin oxime-<i>N</i>-<i>O</i>-alkanoates Vivek Ahluwalia, Nandini Garg, Birendra Kumar, Suresh Walia and Om P. Sati	1635
Cinnamic Acid Derivatives Acting Against <i>Aspergillus</i> Fungi. Taq Polymerase I a Potential Molecular Target Lucas J. Gutierrez, Maria L. Mascotti, Marcela Kurina-Sanz, Carlos R. Pungitore, Ricardo D. Enriz and Fernando A. Giannini	1639
Insecticidal Effects of Acetogenins from <i>Rollinia occidentalis</i> Seed Extract Diego Tolosa, Olga Álvarez Colom, Alicia Bardón and Adriana Neske	1645

Continued Overleaf

Conservation and Multiplication of Encapsulated Micro Shoots of <i>Rauvolfia vomitoria</i> - an Endangered Medicinal Tree: ISSR and RAPD based Evaluation of Genetic Fidelity of Converted Plantlets Shakti Mehrotra, Liaq Ur Rahman, Jahnvi Mishra and Arun K. Kukreja	1647
Bioactivities of Volatile Components from Nepalese <i>Artemisia</i> Species Prabodh Satyal, Prajwal Paudel, Ananad Kafle, Suraj K. Pokharel, Bimala Lamichhane, Noura S. Dosoky, Debra M. Moriarity and William N. Setzer	1651
Chemical Compositions, Antioxidant and Antimicrobial Activity of the Essential Oils of <i>Piper officinarum</i> (Piperaceae) Wan Mohd Nuzul Hakimi Wan Salleh, Farediah Ahmad, Khong Heng Yen and Hasnah Mohd Sirat	1659
Chemical Composition, Antimicrobial and Antioxidant Properties of the Volatile Oil and Methanol Extract of <i>Xenophyllum poposum</i> Ana M. González, María I. Tracanna, Sara M. Amani, Carola Schuff, Miguel J. Poch, Horacio Bach and César A. N. Catalán	1663
Phytochemical and Micromorphological Traits of Endemic <i>Micromeria pseudocroatica</i> (Lamiaceae) Dario Kremer, Ivna Dragojević Müller, Edith Stabentheiner, Dubravka Vitali, Martina Kopričanec, Mirko Ruščić, Ivan Kosalec, Nada Bezić and Valerija Dunkić	1667
Composition and Variability of the Essential Oil of <i>Salvia nemorosa</i> (Lamiaceae) from the Vienna Area of Austria Remigius Chizzola	1671
Essential oil Composition of <i>Ficus benjamina</i> (Moraceae) and <i>Irvingia barteri</i> (Irvingiaceae) Isiaka A. Ogunwande, Razaq Jimoh, Adedoyin A. Ajetunmobi, Nudewhenu O. Avoseh and Guido Flamini	1673

Review/Account

Cytotoxic Agents of the Crinane Series of Amaryllidaceae Alkaloids Jerald J. Nair, Jaime Bastida, Francesc Viladomat and Johannes van Staden	1677
--	-------------

Cummulative Index

Contents	<i>i-xvii</i>
Author Index	<i>i-vii</i>
Keywords Index	<i>i-vi</i>

<u>Manuscripts in press</u>	1689
------------------------------------	-------------

LIST OF AUTHORS

Adams, A.....	1563	Fecka, I.....	1631	Liao, YW.....	1575	Serra, S.....	1569
Afza, N.....	1595	Ferheen, S.....	1595	Liu, B.....	1615	Setzer, WN.....	1651
Agra,MF.....	1597	Flamini, G.....	1673	Liu, J.....	1561	Shih, WL.....	1575
Ahluwalia, V.....	1635	Flythe, MD.....	1605	Liu, Y.....	1579	Silva, TMS.....	1597
Ahmad, F.....	1659					Sirat, HM.....	1587
Ajetunmobi, AA.....	1673	Garg, N.....	1635	Makhafola, TJ.....	1601	Sirat, HM.....	1659
Amani, SM.....	1663	Giannini, FA.....	1639	Malik, A.....	1595	Stabentheiner, E.....	1667
Anwar, MA.....	1595	Gong, X.....	1565	Mangelinckx, S.....	1563	Stojanović, NM.....	1609
Avoseh, NO.....	1673	González, AM.....	1663	Mascotti, ML.....	1639	Stojanović-Radić, ZZ.....	1609
		González-Morales, B.....	1589	Mehrotra, S.....	1647	Stojković, NB.....	1609
Bach, H.....	1663	Gutierrez, LJ.....	1639	Miron-López, G.....	1589	Sumino, M.....	1619
Bajpai, V.....	1627			Mishra, J.....	1647	Suzuki, Y.....	1565
Bardón, A.....	1645	Hanai, R.....	1565	Mitić, SS.....	1609		
Bastida, J.....	1677	He, G.....	1575	Mizuno, T.....	1591	Taher, M.....	1587
Beerhues, L.....	1615	Hirasaki, Y.....	1619	Müller, ID.....	1667	Tolosa, D.....	1645
Bezić, N.....	1667	Hsieh, YH.....	1573			Tracanna, MI.....	1663
Biskup, I.....	1631	Hsu, JL.....	1575	Nagano, H.....	1565		
		Huang, L.....	1615	Nair, JJ.....	1677	van Staden, J.....	1677
Camara, CA.....	1597	Huang, TC.....	1575	Namiki, T.....	1619	Viladomat, F.....	1677
Catalán, CAN.....	1663	Hwang, TL.....	1623	Negi, MPS.....	1627	Vitali, D.....	1667
Chang, CI.....	1575			Neske, A.....	1645		
Chang, YS.....	1623	Ikegami, F.....	1619			Walia, S.....	1635
Chen, CJ.....	1623	Ilić, IR.....	1609	Ogunwande, IA.....	1673	Wang, F.....	1561
Chen, CR.....	1575	Iqbal, L.....	1595	Oliveira, RF.....	1597	Wang, FP.....	1583
Chen, CY.....	1581	Iwashina, T.....	1591	Othman, NA.....	1587	Wang, H.....	1615
Chen, J.....	1563			Ozkan, A.....	1557	Wang, L.....	1583
Chen, KJ.....	1573	Jamil, S.....	1587			Wang, SY.....	1573
Chen, QF.....	1583	Jimoh, R.....	1673	Pandey, R.....	1627	Wang, Z.....	1563
Chen, X.....	1561			Peña-Rodríguez, LM.....	1589	Wu, HM.....	1581
Cheng, HL.....	1575	Kagan, IA.....	1605	Peng, CY.....	1623	Wu, YC.....	1623
Cheng, WL.....	1573	Kawahara, T.....	1565	Poch, MJ.....	1663		
Chien, SC.....	1573	Kopričanec, M.....	1667	Pungitore, CR.....	1639	Xiao, JH.....	1573
Chizzola, R.....	1671	Kosalec, I.....	1667			Xu, L.....	1579
Colom, OÁ.....	1645	Kowalczyk, A.....	1631	Quijano-Quñones, RF.....	1589		
		Kremer, D.....	1667			Yabuya, T.....	1591
De Kimpe, N.....	1563	Kukreja, AK.....	1647	Radulović, NS.....	1609	Yamada, H.....	1565
Ding, Z.....	1579	Kumar, B.....	1627,1635	Rahman, LU.....	1647	Yang, X.....	1575
Du, Z.....	1615	Kumar, N.....	1627	Randjelović, PJ.....	1609	Yang, Y.....	1575
DunkiĆ, V.....	1667	Kuo, YH.....	1575	Ruščić, M.....	1667	Yasmeen, S.....	1595
		Kurina-Sanz, M.....	1639			Ye, H.....	1615
Elgorashi, EE.....	1601	Kuroda, C.....	1565	Saito, Y.....	1619	Yen, KH.....	1659
Eloff, JN.....	1601			Salleh, WMNHW.....	1659	Yu, J.....	1565
Enriz, RD.....	1639	Lee, CL.....	1623	Samuel, BB.....	1601		
Erdogan, A.....	1557	Li, HT.....	1581	Sasaki, N.....	1591	Zhang, J.....	1561
Escalante-Erosa, F.....	1589	Li, W.....	1563	Sati, OP.....	1635	Zhang, Y.....	1615
		Li, WJ.....	1581	Schuff, C.....	1663	Zhao, L.....	1575

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 (IC₅₀ 380 and 244 μ M) was found to be higher than that of thymol (IC₅₀ 497 and 266 μ M) 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 malonaldehyde (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 H₂O₂-induced cytotoxicity, and membrane and DNA damage when the cells were preincubated with these two compounds at lower concentration (<IC₅₀) before H₂O₂ 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.

Monoterpenes 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 H₂O₂, 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 μ M (IC₅₀) concentrations} than that of thymol (IC₅₀ 497 and 266 μ M) 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 μ M carvacrol and 10-1000 μ M thymol concentrations. The cytotoxic effect was close to that of the control until 25 μ M concentrations for carvacrol and 5 μ M 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.

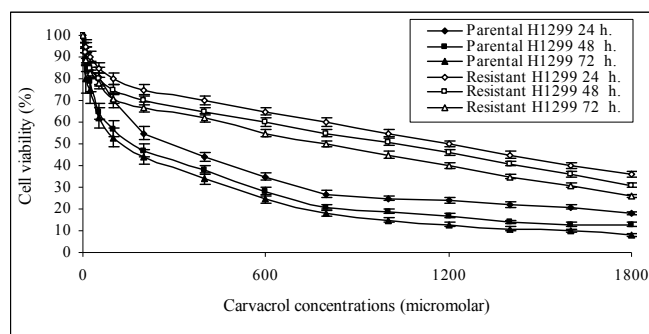


Figure 1: Cytotoxic effects of carvacrol on parental and drug-resistant H1299 cells.

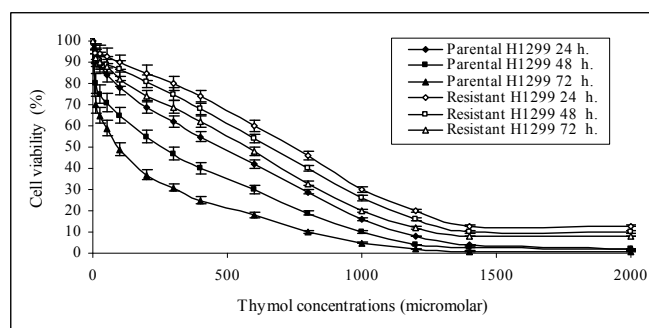


Figure 2: Cytotoxic effects of thymol on parental and drug-resistant H1299 cells.

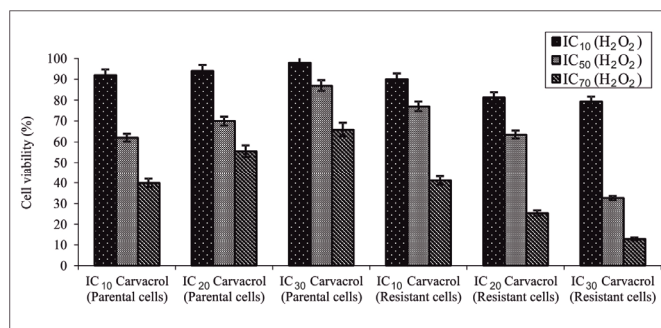


Figure 3: Cytoprotective effects of carvacrol against H_2O_2 cytotoxicity on parental and drug-resistant H1299 cells.

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

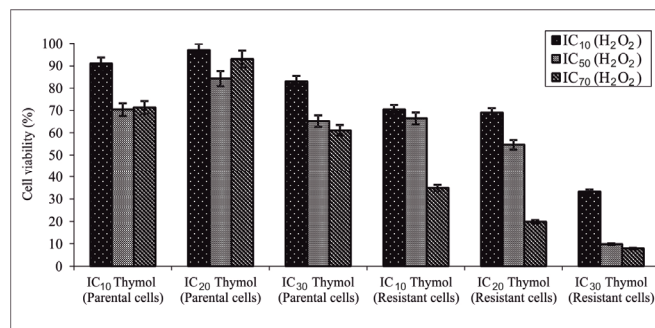


Figure 4: Cytoprotective effects of thymol against H_2O_2 cytotoxicity on parental and drug-resistant H1299 cells.

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

Concentrations	MDA (nmol/mg protein)	8-OHdG (ng/mL)
	$\bar{X} \pm SE$	$\bar{X} \pm SE$
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 ($p \leq 0.05$). $df_1=2$, $df_2=95$, $F=11.96$. 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 ($p \leq 0.05$). $df_1=2$, $df_2=95$, $F=11.96$. 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 μ M), 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 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 μ g/mL) for 1 h, before hydrogen peroxide treatment for 24 h.

Determination of malondialdehyde level: The cells were plated at a density 5–10 $\times 10^5$ 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 $\times g$ for 10 min. The cell pellets were washed with PBS and then sonicated (3 \times 15 sec) in 50 mM potassium phosphate, pH 7.2, containing 1 mM PMSF (Sigma) and 1 μ g/mL of leupeptin (Sigma) and centrifuged at 150,000 $\times g$ 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 μ L 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 μ L 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 loniceroid (**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 loniceroid (**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 C₁₈H₂₆O₁₁. 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 carboxy 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.

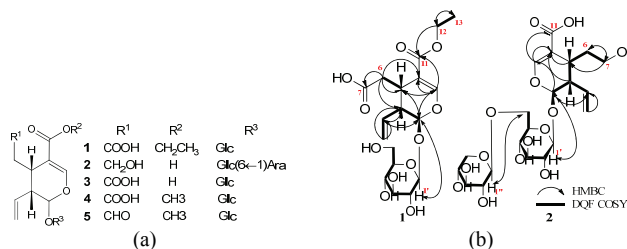


Figure 1: (a) Structures of compounds **1-5**; (b) Selected HMBC and DQF correlations of compounds **1** and **2**.

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

	δ_H	δ_C
1	5.47 (d, $J=4.1$)	97.5
3	7.45 (d, $J=2.0$)	154.2
4		110.4
5	3.20 (m)	28.6
6 A	2.25 (dd, $J=8.9, 16.5$)	35.2
B	2.92 (dd, $J=4.8, 16.5$)	
7		176.4
8	5.63 (ddd, $J=17.4, 9.7, 9.7$)	134.5
9	2.80 m	45.3
10 A	5.23 (d, $J=9.7$)	120.5
B	5.28 (d, $J=17.4$)	
11		168.5
12	4.12 (m)	61.2
13	1.25 (t, $J=6.9$)	14.5
Glu- 1'	4.64 (d, $J=8.3$)	99.9
2'	3.20 (t, $J=8.3$)	74.6
3'	3.34 (t, $J=8.3$)	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 C₂₁H₃₂O₁₄. 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 arabinopyranosyl 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.	δ_{H}	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.

$[\alpha]_{\text{D}}^{30}$: -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.

$[\alpha]_{\text{D}}^{30}$: -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, CH_3CN - H_2O (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. *t*R: 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*Jian Chen^{a,b,c}, Sven Mangelinckx^b, An Adams^b, Wei-lin Li^c, Zheng-tao Wang^{a*} and Norbert De Kimpe^{b*}^aDepartment of Pharmacognosy, China Pharmaceutical University, Nanjing 210009, China^bDepartment of Sustainable Organic Chemistry and Technology, Faculty of Bioscience Engineering, Ghent University, Coupure links 653, B-9000 Ghent, Belgium^cInstitute of Botany, Jiangsu Province and Chinese Academy of Sciences, Nanjing 210014, China

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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: fusic acid (**1**) [12a], loliolide (**2**) [12b], dehydrovomifoliol (**3**) [12c], vomifoliol (**4**) [13a], boscialin (**5**) [13b], (6*S*,9*S*)-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 pubinernoid A, which was isolated from *Schisandra pubescens* var. *pubinervis* [14c]. The structure proposal for pubinernoid A, with the same molecular formula as loliolide, was (4*S**,6*R**)-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

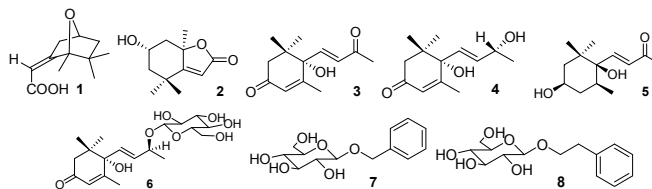


Figure 1: Structures of isolated compounds (**1-8**).

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 (6*S*,9*R*)-roseoside, which is an isomer of (6*S*,9*S*)-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 (6*S*,9*S*)-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), fusic 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 boscalin **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 (6*S*,9*S*)-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 phenylpropanoids [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 phenylpropanoid 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**), furanoeremophilan-10 β -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.

no.	Species	ITS1												5.8S	ITS2																						
		1	4	5	6	7	8	0	2	2	2	3	5	8	1	1	2	2	2	2	3	1	2	3	4	7	0	0	1	4	7	8	9	9	0		
		3	4	4	8	7	3	8	5	6	7	2	4	4	4	7	8	1	2	4	0	3	3	5	1	7	3	6	6	0	4	6	9	4	6	1	9
N1	<i>L. nelumbifolia</i>	T	T	Y	C	R	R	A	C	T	A	T	C	C	G	T	G	C	C	T	T	Y	C	C	C	A	C	G	T	C	G	A	C	R	M	Y	T
N2	<i>L. nelumbifolia</i>	T	T	Y	C	T	R	A	C	T	A	T	C	C	G	T	G	C	C	T	T	Y	C	C	C	A	C	G	T	C	G	A	C	R	M	Y	T
S	<i>L. subspicata</i>	A	A	C	Y	T	G	G	T	C	C	C	A	T	C	G	T	T	C	C	C	Y	T	G	G	T	T	C	Y	T	G	G	T	G	C	C	C
A	Hybrid	W	W	Y	Y	T	R	R	Y	Y	M	Y	M	Y	S	K	K	^b Y	Y	Y	Y	C	Y	C	R	Y	K	Y	Y	R	R	Y	R	M	Y	Y	
B	Hybrid	W	W	Y	Y	T	R	R	Y	Y	M	Y	M	Y	S	K	K	^b Y	Y	Y	Y	C	Y	C	R	Y	K	Y	C	R	R	Y	R	M	Y	Y	
C	Hybrid	W	W	Y	Y	T	R	R	Y	Y	M	Y	M	Y	S	K	K	^b Y	Y	Y	Y	C	Y	C	R	Y	K	Y	Y	G	R	Y	R	M	Y	Y	
D	Hybrid	W	W	Y	Y	T	R	R	Y	Y	M	Y	M	Y	S	K	K	^b Y	Y	Y	Y	C	Y	C	R	Y	K	Y	Y	G	R	Y	R	M	Y	Y	

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.

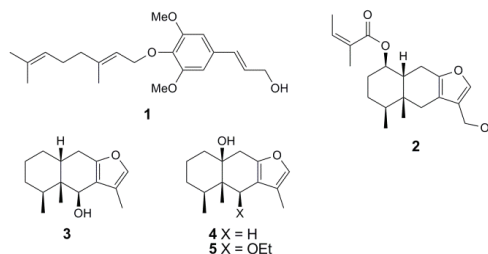
b Because of the presence of an indel, the sequence in the upstream part of ITS1 and the downstream part were determined separately only for either strand. The bases shown in Table 1 are as read from upstream and downstream toward the 222nd base position.

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, tetradymol (4) was included as a major component in the sample, but was absent in the other three hybrid samples. Interestingly, tetradymol (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, tetradymol-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, 6 β -ethoxyfuranoeremophilan-10 β -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 tetradymol (**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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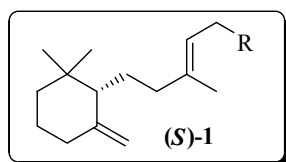
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An expedient and concise synthesis of (*S*)-*trans*- γ -monocyclofarnesol is here described. The aforementioned sesquiterpene was prepared starting from enantioenriched (*S*)- γ -dihydroionone, which was in turn obtained from racemic α -ionone through 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.



R = OH
1a γ -Monocyclofarnesol

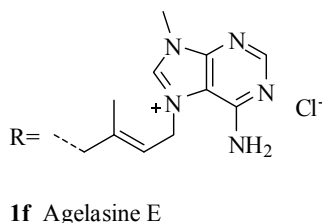
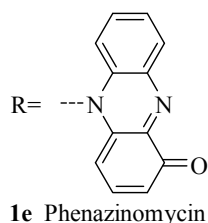
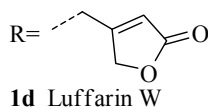
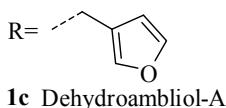
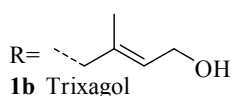


Figure 1: The (*S*)-*trans*- γ -monocyclofarnesyl framework **1** and some relevant natural products featuring this structure.

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 siccantin. 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 (4*R*,6*S*)-acetoxo- 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.

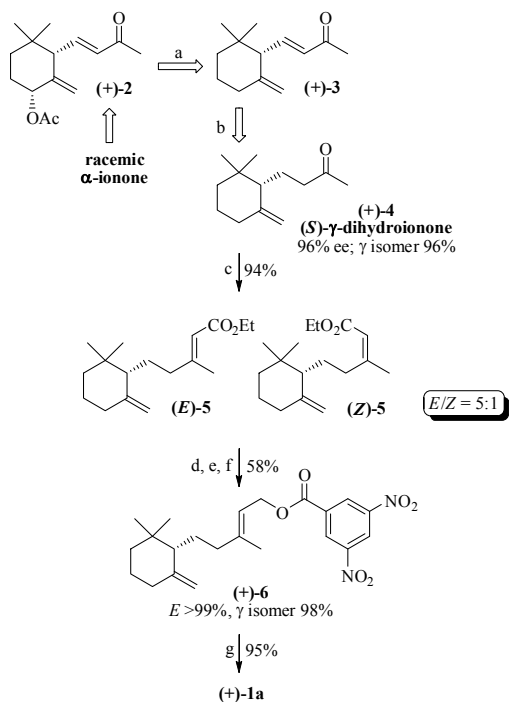


Figure 2: Synthesis of (*S*)-*trans*- γ -monocyclofarnesol (+)-**1a** starting from (*4R,6S*)-acetoxyl- γ -ionone. Reagents and conditions: a) Et_3N , HCO_2H , $(\text{Ph}_3\text{P})_2\text{PdCl}_2$ cat., THF reflux; b) Bu_3SnH , NH_4Cl , H_2O , $(\text{Ph}_3\text{P})_2\text{PdCl}_2$ cat., THF at rt; c) $(\text{EtO})_2\text{POCH}_2\text{CO}_2\text{Et}$, NaH , THF, from 0° to 50°C ; d) DIBAH in toluene, THF, -10°C ; e) 3,5-dinitrobenzoyl chloride, pyridine, DMAP cat., CH_2Cl_2 ; 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 F_{254} 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 \times 0.25 mm, 0.25 μm film thickness; Hewlett Packard) with the following temp. program: 60° (1 min) – $6^\circ/\text{min}$ – 150° (1 min) – $12^\circ/\text{min}$ – 280° (5 min); carrier gas, He; constant flow 1 mL/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 ^{13}C Spectra: CDCl_3 solns. at rt; Bruker-AC-400 spectrometer at 400 and 100 MHz, respectively; chemical shifts in ppm rel to internal SiMe_4 ($=0$ 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 (*4R,6S*)-acetoxyl- γ -ionone, according to our previously reported procedures [13, 14]. $[\alpha]_D^{20} = +16.5^\circ$ ($c = 1$, CHCl_3); Lit. [14]: $[\alpha]_D^{20} = +19.4^\circ$ ($c = 1.2$, CHCl_3) ^1H NMR, ^{13}C 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 NH_4Cl aq. (100 mL). The mixture was extracted with diethyl ether (2 \times 100 mL). The organic phase was washed with brine, dried (Na_2SO_4), 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, CDCl_3): 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.

$[\alpha]_D^{25} +10.5$ (c 2.1, CHCl_3).

^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 (2×50 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).

$[\alpha]_D^{25} +17.2$ (c 2.3, CHCl_3).

The recorded optical rotation value is slightly inferior to those previously reported: $[\alpha]_D^{25} +18.2$ (c 0.3, CHCl_3) [2]; $[\alpha]_D^{25} +21.1$ (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*)-*trans*- γ -monocyclofarnesol **1a** are available.

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ACAT Inhibitory Activity of Exudates from *Calocedrus macrolepis* var. *formosana*Yu-Hsin Hsieh^{a,c}, Kuan-Jung Chen^b, Shih-Chang Chien^f, Wen-Ling Cheng^b, Jun-Hong Xiao^b and Sheng-Yang Wang^{a,b,d,e,f,g,*}^aMolecular and Biological Agricultural Sciences Program, Taiwan International Graduate Program, National Chung-Hsing University and Academia Sinica, Taiwan^bDepartment of Forestry, National Chung-Hsing University, Taichung, Taiwan^cGraduate Institute of Biotechnology, National Chung-Hsing University, Taichung, Taiwan^dAgricultural Biotechnology Research Center, Academia Sinica, Taipei, Taiwan^eAgricultural Biotechnology Center, National Chung-Hsing University, Taichung, Taiwan^fExperimental Forest Management Office, National Chung-Hsing University, Taichung, Taiwan

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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], 6 α -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, cholesteryl 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

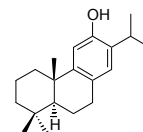


Figure 1: The dominant compound, ferruginol, in the exudates secreted from *Calocedrus macrolepis* var. *formosana*.

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 NBD-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 β ,19-epoxy-23(*R*)-methoxycucurbita-6,24-dien-3 β -ol (**1**), 5 β ,19-epoxy-23(*S*)-methoxycucurbita-6,24-dien-3 β -ol (**2**), and 3 β -hydroxy-23(*R*)-methoxycucurbita-6,24-dien-5 β ,19-olide (**3**), were isolated from the fruit pulp of *Momordica charantia*. Their structures were established on the basis of extensive NMR (¹H, ¹³C, 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 β ,19-epoxy-23(*R*)-methoxycucurbita-6,24-dien-3 β -ol (**1**), 5 β ,19-epoxy-23(*S*)-methoxycucurbita-6,24-dien-3 β -ol (**2**), and 3 β -hydroxy-23(*R*)-methoxycucurbita-6,24-dien-5 β ,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.

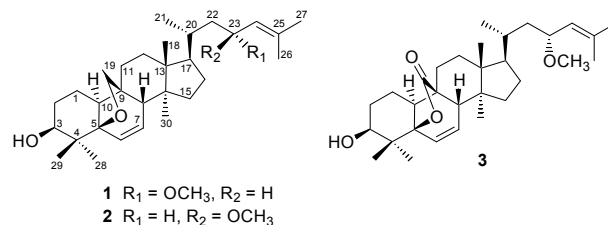


Figure 1: Structures of compounds 1-3 from *M. charantia*.

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 β ,19-epoxycucurbita-6,23-diene-3 β ,25-diol [19], except for the signals of C-20—C-27.

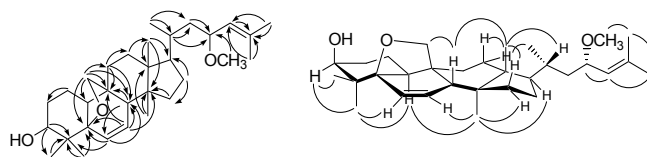
Table 1: ^1H NMR data for **1-3** (400 MHz in CDCl_3).

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

^{a)} Coupling 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 β ,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^4 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 β ,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 β ,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 \times 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 ^{13}C 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 $[\text{M}-\text{CO}_2]^+$ 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 IC_{50} value of 26.6 μM . 5-FU (Fluorouracil) was used as positive control (IC_{50} = 1.0 μM).

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 CDCl_3 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 F_{254} plates (200 μm , 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 μm , 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 H_2O (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 CH_2Cl_2 –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 μm , 250 \times 10 mm) with CH_2Cl_2 –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 CH_2Cl_2 –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 μm , 250 \times 10 mm) with CH_2Cl_2 –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% CO_2 at 37 $^\circ\text{C}$. A volume of SK-Hep 1 cells 100 μL at a density of 1×10^5 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 μL /well concentrated at 5 mg/mL) at 37 $^\circ\text{C}$ for 4 h. 200 μL 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 IC_{50} value, which the concentration (μM) 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.

$[\alpha]_{\text{D}}^{25}$: -37.0 (c 0.68, CHCl_3).

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.

^{13}C NMR: Table 2.

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

HR-EI-MS: m/z 470.3767 (calcd for $\text{C}_{31}\text{H}_{50}\text{O}_3$ 470.3762, $[\text{M}]^+$).

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

Amorphous white powder.

$[\alpha]_{\text{D}}^{25}$: -48.6 (c 0.10, CHCl_3).

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.

^{13}C NMR: Table 2.

EI-MS (70 eV) m/z (rel. int.): 470 $[\text{M}]^+$ (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 $\text{C}_{31}\text{H}_{50}\text{O}_3$ 470.3762, $[\text{M}]^+$).

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]⁺).

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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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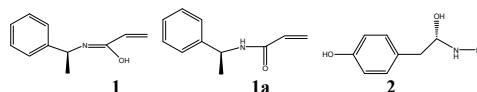
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Two novel phenethylamine alkaloids were isolated from *Streptomyces* sp. YIM 10049. On the basis of spectral data, their structures were determined as (*S*)-*N*-(α -phenylethyl)-2-hydroxyl-acrylimine (**1**) and (*S*)-*N*-nitroso-1-amino-*p*-hydroxy 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.

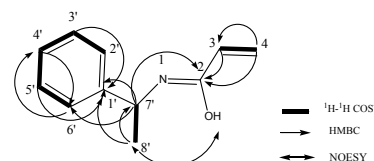
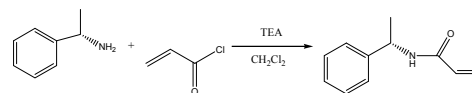
Keywords: *Streptomyces* sp., Alkaloid, Phenethylamine.

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, antiplasmodial, 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 (125M Hz) and ¹H NMR (500 MHz) data of compound **1** in C₅D₅N.

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

**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 **1a** 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]_D²⁵ -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* ($[\alpha]_D^{25}$: -4.2) by comparison with the optical rotation of the analogue, (*S*)-2-hydroxy-3-(4-hydroxyphenyl) propionic acid (**2a**) ($[\alpha]_D^{25}$: -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

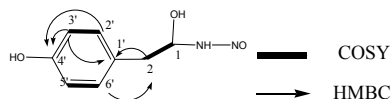


Figure 4: 1H - 1H COSY, HMBC correlations for **2**

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%, $CaCO_3$ 0.2%, K_2HPO_4 0.05%, $MgSO_4$ 0.05%, pH 7) at $28^\circ C$ 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 $CHCl_3/CH_3OH$ (100%-0%). The first part ($CHCl_3$) 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 ($CHCl_3/CH_3OH$ = 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 (CH_3OH).

MP: 99.4-101.7 $^\circ C$

$[\alpha]_D^{25}$: -218.0 (*c* 0.02, C_5H_5N).

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 $C_{11}H_{14}NO$ 176.1075, Found: m/z 176.1054.

Compound 1a

White needles (CH_3OH).

MP: 92.3-94.6 $^\circ C$

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

^{13}C NMR ($CHCl_3$, 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 (CH_3OH).

MP: 94.7-96.3 $^\circ C$

$[\alpha]_D^{25}$: -4.2 (*c* 0.05, CH_3OH).

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

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

HR-ESI m/z : $[M-H]^-$ Calcd for $C_8H_9N_2O_3$ 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 benzyloquinoline, crykonisine (**3**) [3a], an isoquinoline, 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.

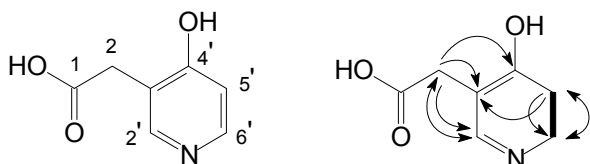


Figure 1: COSY (—), HMBC (---) and NOESY (····) Correlations of **1**.

2-(4'-Hydroxypyridin-3'-yl)-acetic acid (**1**) was obtained as a white amorphous powder and its molecular formula was deduced as $C_7H_7NO_3$ 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 ϵ): 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 $[\text{M} + \text{Na} + \text{H}]^+$ HRMS-ESI: m/z $[\text{M} + \text{Na} + \text{H}]^+$ calcd for $\text{C}_7\text{H}_8\text{O}_3\text{NNa}$: 177.0402.1422; found: 177.0401.**Acknowledgments** - This investigation was supported by a grant from the Fooyin University.**References**

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Conversional Synthesis of Heteratisine

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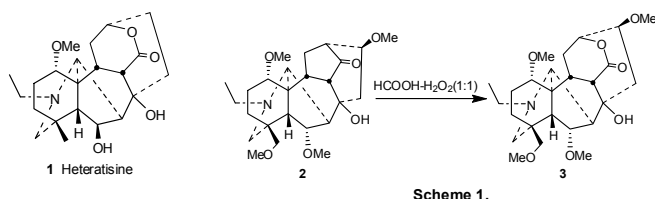
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The first conversional synthesis of heteratisine has been accomplished in 14 steps and 3.2% overall yield from deltaline, mainly including deoxygenation at C-10, removal of the dioxymethylene moiety, *O*-demethylation, as well as Baeyer-Villiger oxidation.

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. zeravschanicum* Steinb. [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).



Scheme 1.

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-acetylheteratisine (**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 heteratisine 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 μ m, 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 \times 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%).

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

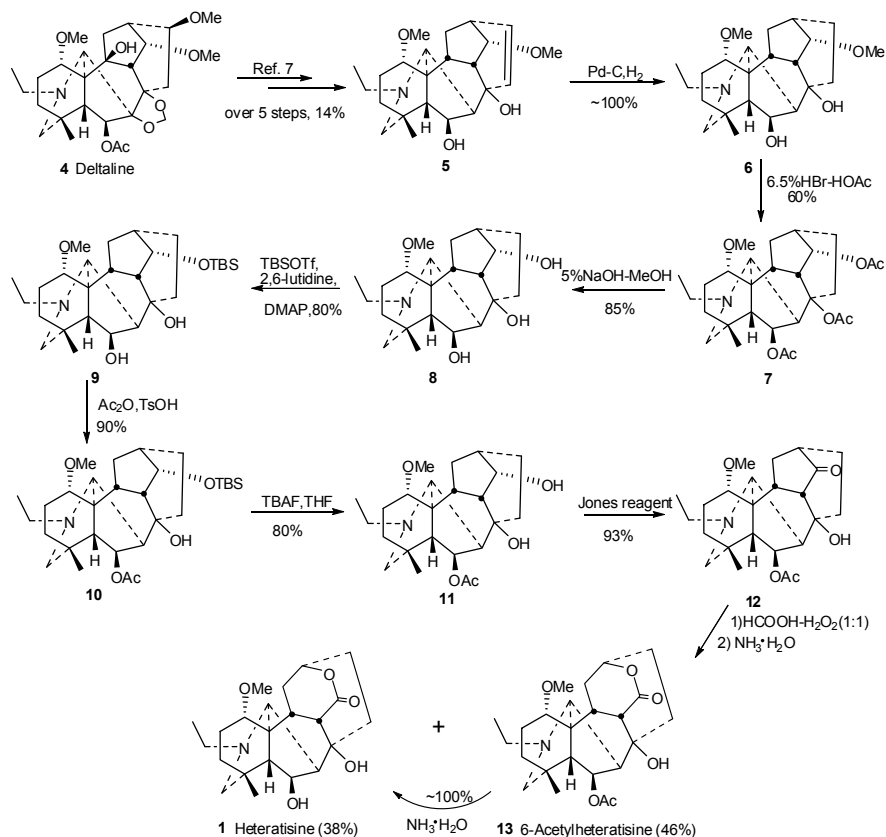
IR (KBr): 3444, 3390, 2934, 2817, 2193, 1459, 1377, 1193, 1164, 1120, 1074, 1030 cm⁻¹.

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 \times 2), 3.57 (1H, d, *J* = 2.0 Hz, H-17), 3.58 (1H, t, *J* = 5.2 Hz, H-14 β), 4.33 (1H, d, *J* = 7.2 Hz, H-6 α).

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 \times 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	—	170.8 s	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
14-OTBS	—	21.6 q	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	—	169.4 s	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	—	21.3 q	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	—	—	—	18.0 s	17.9 s	—	—	—	—
	—	—	—	25.8 q	25.7 q	—	—	—	—
	—	—	—	×3	×3	—	—	—	—
	—	—	—	-4.8 q	-4.9 q	—	—	—	—
	—	—	—	-5.3 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 × 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-14β), 5.08 (1H, d, *J* = 7.2 Hz, H-6α).

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 5% NaOH (7 mL) in methanol was stirred at room temperature for 5h. 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 × 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, 147mg, 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-14β), 4.38 (1H, d, *J* = 7.2 Hz, H-6α).

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 × 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-14β), 4.32 (1H, d, *J* = 7.2 Hz, H-6α).

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 × 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-14β), 5.19 (1H, d, *J* = 6.8 Hz, H-6α).

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 × 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-14β), 5.24 (1H, d, *J* = 6.8 Hz, H-6α).

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 × 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-6α).

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 × 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, CHCl₃).

IR (KBr): 3452, 2928, 2872, 1742, 1715, 1266, 1213, 1085, 1053 cm⁻¹.

¹H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl₃): 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, OCH₃), 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-6a).

¹³C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl₃): Table 1.

HRMS-ESI: *m/z* [M + H]⁺ calcd for C₂₄H₃₆NO₆: 434.2543; found: 434.2541.

Compound 1

$[\alpha]_D^{20}$: +12.8 (c 0.50, CHCl₃).

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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, CDCl₃): 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, OCH₃), 3.50 (1H, br s, H-17), 3.97 (1H, d, *J* = 7.6 Hz, H-9), 4.48 (1H, m, H-6a), 4.74 (1H, m, H-13).

¹³C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl₃): Table 1.

HRMS-ESI: *m/z* [M + H]⁺ calcd for C₂₂H₃₄NO₅: 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.

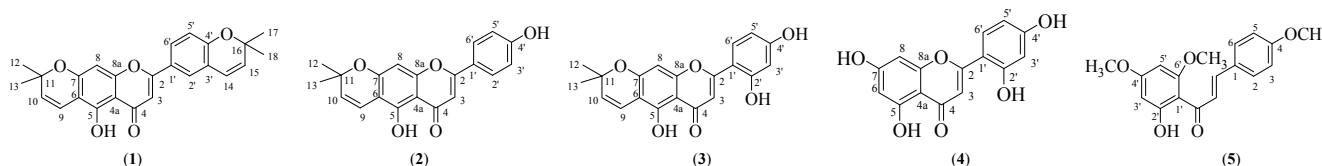
The genus *Artocarpus* of the family Moraceae consists of approximately 50 species of which 11 are known to produce edible fruits and most species are indigenous to the tropical rain forests of Malaysia, Indonesia and Philippines [1a]. *Artocarpus fulvicortex* F.M. Jarrett is one of Malaysia's rare *Artocarpus* 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), CH₂Cl₂, EtOAc and MeOH at room temperature. The MeOH crude extract was further suspended in water before partitioned with CH₂Cl₂ and EtOAc to yield CH₂Cl₂-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 CH₂Cl₂ 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-7c]. 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 C₂₅H₂₂O₅ 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 ¹³C 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 *Goniiothalamus gardneri* (Annonaceae) [4a] and *Andrographis lineate* (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 *Maclura pomifera*, one of the Moraceae species [5b]. Norartocarpetin **4** was previously isolated from *A. champeden* [6a], *A. scortechinii*, *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 CH₂Cl₂ 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 CH₂Cl₂ and then EtOAc to yield the CH₂Cl₂-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 CH₂Cl₂ 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, CDCl₃): 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 (CDCl₃, 100 MHz): δ 28.2 (CH₃), 28.3 (CH₃), 29.6 (CH₃), 30.9 (CH₃), 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 C₂₅H₂₂O₅: 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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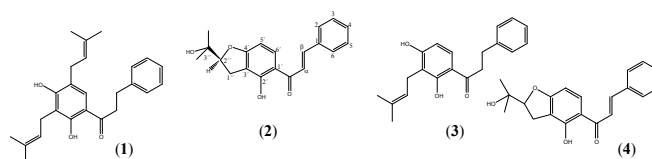
Purification of the root extract of *Lonchocarpus xuul* resulted in the isolation and identification of dihydrospinochalcone A (1) and epi-flemistrictin B (2) as additional natural isocordoin derivatives. Identification was based on the analysis of their spectroscopic data and by comparing these with 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 sp² 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 (C₂₅H₃₀O₃) 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 C₂₀H₂₀O₄ 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.

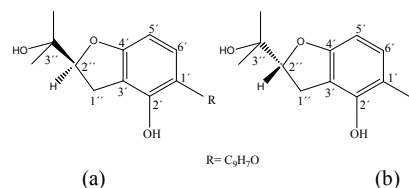


Figure 1: Suggested stereochemistry at C-2'' for epiflemistrictin B (a) and flemistrictin B (b).

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 epoxidated 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-flemistricitin B and flemistricitin B, respectively, and the structure of epi-flemistricitin 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 dihydropinochalcone 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-flemistricitin B (2, 47.4 mg) in pure form.

Dihydropinochalcone A (1)

Yellow powder.

R_f: 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, CDCl₃): 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, CH₃), 1.78 (3H, s, CH₃), 1.82 (3H, s, CH₃), 1.77 (3H, s, CH₃), 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').

¹³C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl₃): 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 (CH₃), 17.90 (CH₃), 25.80 (CH₃/CH₃) 40.01 (C- α), 29.80 (C- β), 203.91 (C=O).

MS: m/z 378 [M⁺].

Epi-flemistricitin B (3)

Yellow oil.

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

¹H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl₃): 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, CH₃), 1.49 (3H, s, CH₃), 7.59 (1H, d, J = 15.48 Hz), 7.88 (1H, d, J = 15.48 Hz), 13.81 (1H, s, OH-2').

¹³C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl₃): 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 (CH₃), 24.9 (CH₃), 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. kashimiriana* 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

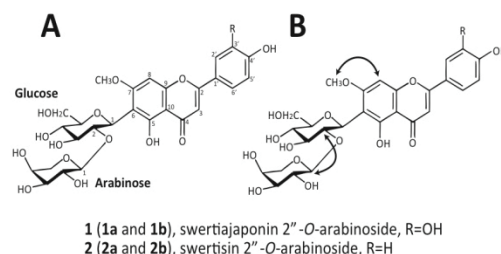


Figure 1: (A) Chemical structures of **1** (**1a** and **1b**) and **2** (**2a** and **2b**) from the flowers of the tall bearded iris cultivar 'Victoria Falls'. (B) Observed important NOESY correlations of **1** (**1a** and **1b**) and **2** (**2a** and **2b**) are indicated by arrows.

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 *	
	$\delta^1\text{H}$ (J in Hz)	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$	$\delta^1\text{H}$ (J in Hz)	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$	$\delta^1\text{H}$ (J in Hz)	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$	$\delta^1\text{H}$ (J in Hz)	$\delta^{13}\text{C}$
<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)		3.33 (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 \rightarrow 2. Thus, **1** (**1a** and **1b**) was identified as luteolin 7-methyl ether 6-C-[β -arabinopyranosyl-(1 \rightarrow 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 [M+H] $^{+}$) and HR-ESI-MS (m/z 601.1535 [M+Na] $^{+}$). These data suggested that **2** is swertisin X"-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 \rightarrow 2)-glucosyl linkages. Finally, the chemical structure of **2** (**2a** and **2b**) was determined as apigenin 7-methyl ether 6-C-[β -arabinopyranosyl-(1 \rightarrow 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 of 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 \times 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 eluant, 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*-column 2 ODS (I.D. 6.0 \times 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 \times 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][–].

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][–].

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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Two New Biisoflavonoids from the Roots of *Daphne oleoides*Shazia Yasmeen^a, Muhammad Aijaz Anwar^a, Sadia Ferheen^a, Nighat Afza^{a*}, Abdul Malik^b and Lubna Iqbal^a^aPharmaceutical Research Centre, PCSIR Labs. Complex Karachi, Karachi-75280, Pakistan^bInternational Center for Chemical and Biological Sciences, HEJ Research Institute of Chemistry, University of Karachi, Karachi-75270, Pakistan

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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 biisoflavonoids 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*, Biisoflavonoids, 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 biisoflavonoids 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 biisoflavonoid 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 biisoflavone derivative. Five other oxygenated carbon signals (Table 1), each attributed to two carbons, were due to ten hydroxyl bearing aromatic carbons in **1**.

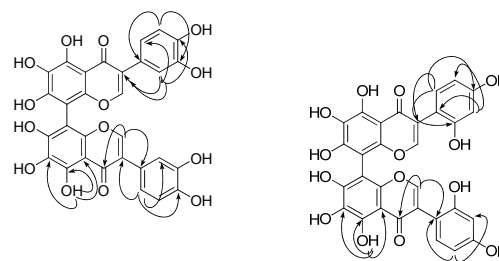


Figure 1: HMBC correlations of compounds **1** and **2**.

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 bisisoflavonoid 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 biisoflavonoid. 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- d_6) data of compounds **1** and **2** at 400 and 100 MHz, respectively; δ in ppm, J in Hz.

position	1 $\delta_{\text{H}} (J = \text{Hz})$	δ_{C}	2 $\delta_{\text{H}} (J = \text{Hz})$	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 biisoflavonoid 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-hydroxygenistein 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 Erba 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, Abbotabad, 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, $C_{36}H_{32}O_{16}$ and $C_{36}H_{32}O_{15}$, 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 ^{13}C 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 flavanonol moieties around the C-3/C-8 axis [10]. For this type of molecules, the existence of rotational isomers at

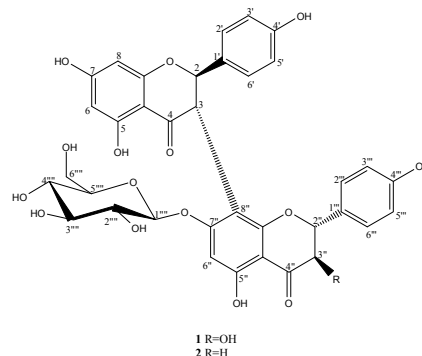


Figure 1: Structures of biflavonoids **1** and **2** from fruits of *Clusia paralicola*.

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

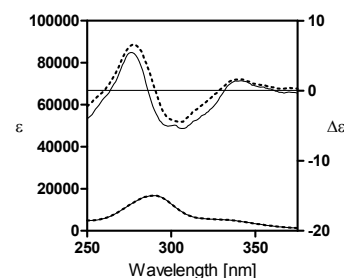
Biflavonoid **1** (Figure 1) showed singlets for OH protons, two at low fields at δ_H 12.12 and 11.66, attributed to the H-bonded OH- (C5) and OH-(C5''), respectively (Table 1). The doublets at δ_H 7.23, 7.18, and 6.68, 6.60 ($J=8.5$ Hz) could be assigned to the *AA'*/*BB'* spin system of the *para*-substituted 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}	$^3J_{\text{CH}}$	$^3J_{\text{CH}}$	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)			60.5	3.66 (m)
		3.44 (m)				3.44 (m)
OH-C(5)/C(5'')		12.12 (s)				12.14 (s)
		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 flavanonol. 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 $n \rightarrow \pi^*$

and $\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$ transitions of the two constituent structural moieties: the 3-substituted flavanone upper unit (I) and the flavanonol lower unit (II) (Figure 2). The observed Cotton effects were similar to those observed for the flavonoids *ent*-naringenyl-(I-3 α ,II-8)-4'-*O*-methylnaringenin [12] and GB1 [13]. The positive Cotton effect near 330 nm for the $n \rightarrow \pi^*$ transition and the negative Cotton effect near 300 nm for the $\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$ transition may be assigned to the lower flavanonol unit. Similarly, the negative Cotton effect (shoulder) near 325 nm for the $n \rightarrow \pi^*$ transition and the positive Cotton effect near 280 nm for the $\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$ transition may be assigned to the upper flavanone unit. Application of Gaffield's rule then permits assignment of (2*R*, 3*S*) and (2''*R*, 3''*R*) absolute configurations for the flavanone and flavanonol moieties, respectively [14]. Therefore, the structure of compound **1** could be established unambiguously as 2*R*, 3*S*, 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 2*R*, 3*S*, 2''*R*, 3''*R*-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 Koeffler 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 ^{13}C NMR spectra were obtained using a Bruker DRX 500 (500 MHz for ^1H and 125 MHz for ^{13}C) and Bruker DPX300 (300 MHz for ^1H and 75 MHz for ^{13}C) in DMSO- d_6 . The CD was recorded with a Jasco J-515 CD spectrometer. The optical rotation was determined in a KRUESS 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.

$[\alpha]_D$: -11.9 (c 0.23, MeOH).

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

^1H and ^{13}C NMR (DMSO- d_6): Table 1.

LC-ESI-MS (positive mode) m/z : 721 $[\text{M}+\text{H}]^+$ ($\text{C}_{36}\text{H}_{32}\text{O}_{16}$).

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

MP: 218-220°C;

$[\alpha]_D$: -35.1 (c 0.67, MeOH).

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

^1H and ^{13}C NMR (DMSO- d_6): Table 1.

LC-ESI-MS (positive mode) m/z : 705 $[\text{M}+\text{H}]^+$ ($\text{C}_{36}\text{H}_{32}\text{O}_{15}$).

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 biflavonoids 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].

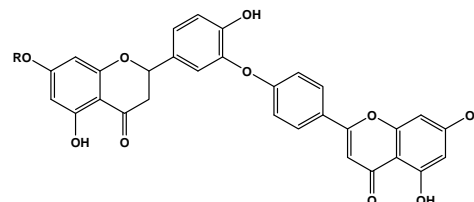


Figure 1: Chemical structures of the two compounds isolated from *O. pretoriensis*. 1: R = H= ochnaflavone, 2: R = CH₃ = ochnaflavone 7-*O*-methyl ether.

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 LC_{50} ($\mu\text{g/mL}$) 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 A_2 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 (HGWJ Schweichkerdt 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 Mueller-Hinton broth at 37°C, were centrifuged at 3000 x *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*-iodonototetrazolium 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 0-0.029, 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)	extract 2 (24 h post cutting)	extract 3 (24 h post cutting)
	14% loaded	5% loaded	10% loaded
a (phasic 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

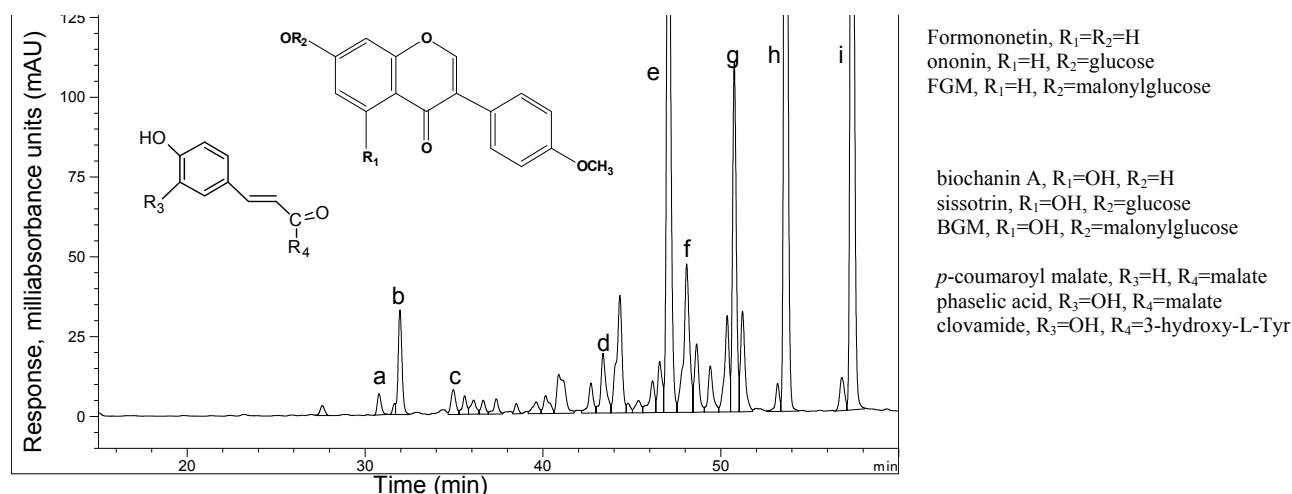


Figure 1: HPLC chromatogram of an extract of Kenland red clover collected 24 h after cutting. The compounds indicated by lowercase letters (a: phasic acid, b: clovamide, c: *p*-coumaroyl malate, d: ononin, e: FGM, f: sissotrin, g: BGM, h: formononetin, and i: biochanin A) were found in eluates of zones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

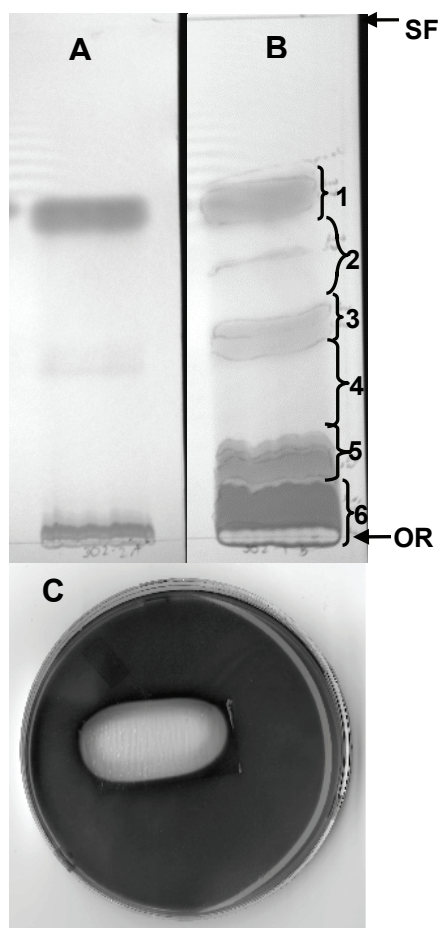


Figure 2: TLC plates of red clover extract collected 24 h (A) and 0 h (B) after cutting and developed in EtOAc-MeOH (4:1, v/v). Plates, photographed under short-wave ultraviolet light (254 nm), are aligned at the origin (OR) and solvent front (SF). Five percent and 14% of the 24-h and 0-h extracts were 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 (caffeoyl-3-hydroxy-L-tyrosine) was purchased from Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Inc. (Santa Cruz, CA, USA). Phaselic acid (caffeoyl 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

(Et_2O) 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- Et_2O (1:1, v/v). Organic phases, after being dried over MgSO_4 , were evaporated to dryness under reduced pressure at ambient temperature, resuspended in EtOAc- Et_2O (1:1, v/v), dried in vials under nitrogen, and stored at -20°C .

Separation of phenolic compounds by TLC: Aluminum-backed silica F_{254} 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- Et_2O (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 ($25-35^{\circ}\text{C}$ for MeOH eluates, ambient for EtOAc- Et_2O 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 C_{18} column (LiChrospher RP-18 endcapped, 250 mm length \times 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 $80-87^{\circ}\text{C}$ 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).

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].

Disclaimer: Mention of trade names or commercial products in the article is solely for the purpose of providing specific information and does not imply recommendation or endorsement by the USDA.

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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 anti-infective 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 ^e	205.9 ± 1.0 ^e	17.83 ± 0.3 ^e	936.6 ± 26.3 ^e	355.0 ± 6.5 ^e
acetone (leaf)	9.9 ± 0.2	13.8 ± 0.5 ^e	9.0 ± 0.02 ^e	9.50 ± 0.09 ^e	11.3 ± 0.09 ^e	4.0 ± 0.3 ^e	79.5 ± 3.7 ^e	30.5 ± 0.4 ^e
ethyl acetate (leaf)	7.9 ± 0.2	6.2 ± 0.4 ^e	4.1 ± 0.05 ^e	4.2 ± 0.09 ^e	5.7 ± 0.08 ^e	2.1 ± 0.03 ^e	30.4 ± 1.3 ^e	21.1 ± 0.3 ^e
methanol (rhizome)	45.8 ± 0.2	85.7 ± 1.3 ^e	27.5 ± 0.7 ^e	106.4 ± 1.8 ^e	169.5 ± 1.1 ^e	42.4 ± 0.2 ^e	632.1 ± 9.0 ^e	268.9 ± 2.2 ^e
ethanol (rhizome)	21.3 ± 0.2	50.6 ± 2.0 ^e	14.9 ± 0.3 ^e	50.0 ± 0.5 ^e	72.2 ± 1.0 ^e	11.6 ± 0.3 ^e	355.3 ± 4.0 ^e	207.5 ± 3.2 ^e
acetone (rhizome)	6.0 ± 0.1	22.4 ± 0.8 ^e	5.8 ± 0.2 ^e	20.4 ± 0.7 ^e	20.3 ± 0.1 ^e	8.5 ± 0.4 ^e	108.3 ± 6.0 ^e	49.8 ± 0.6 ^e
ethyl acetate (rhizome)	4.8 ± 0.1	5.5 ± 0.06 ^e	2.5 ± 0.03 ^e	4.1 ± 0.2 ^e	4.4 ± 0.05 ^e	2.1 ± 0.07 ^e	24.6 ± 0.8 ^e	14.8 ± 0.08 ^e

^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	0.9905
TF	1	0.9634	0.9928	0.9045	0.9881	0.9812
DPPH		1	0.9632	0.9761	0.9425	0.9397
ABTS			1	0.9095	0.9958	0.9813
IRA				1	0.8802	0.8530
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 Miliuskas *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 Miliuskas *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 IRA ($r^2=0.8928$).

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.

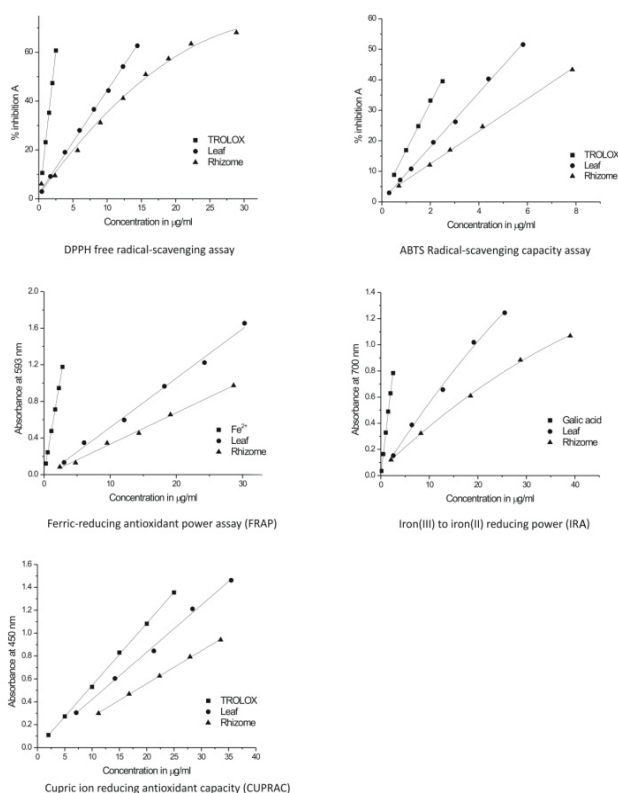


Figure 1: *Geranium macrorrhizum* methanol extracts antioxidant activity vs. concentration plots from five different *in vitro* antioxidant assays.

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

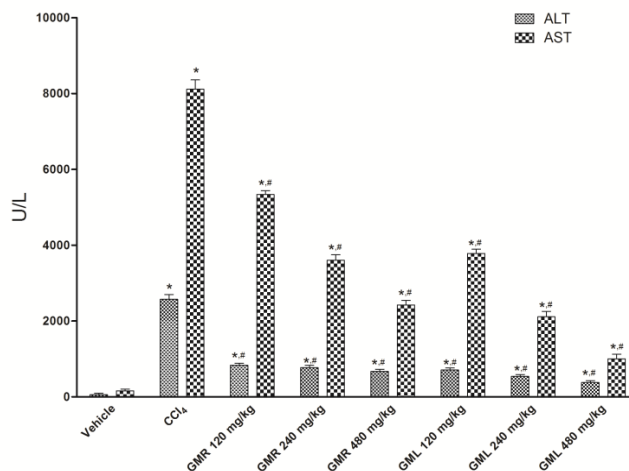


Figure 2: Effect of *G. macrorrhizum* rhizome (GMR) and leaf (GML) extracts on plasma ALT and AST levels. * $p < 0.001$ vs. Control; # $p < 0.001$ vs. CCl_4 .

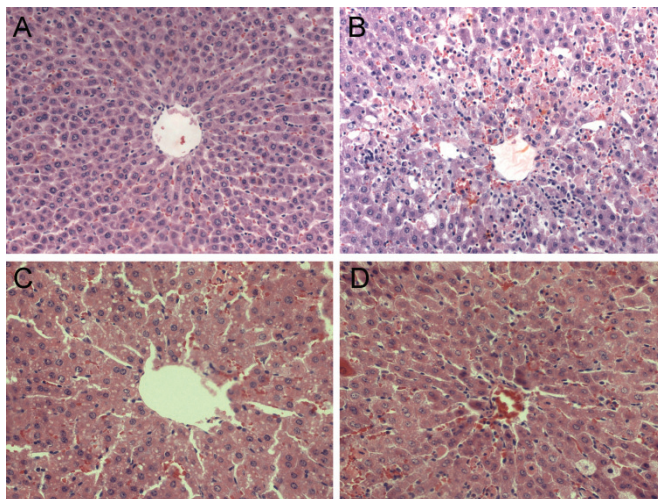
functional integrity of the liver and severity of necrosis [19,20]. Thus, the observed dose-dependent normalization of bilirubin levels in the groups treated with both methanol extracts indicates that these extracts have the potential of restoring liver synthetic function (Table 3). These biochemical 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 (μ mol/L)
Vehicle	-	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}
		240	256.7 \pm 9.6 ^{b,c}	156.8 \pm 7.4 ^{b,c}	39.5 \pm 3.3 ^{b,c}
		480	201.2 \pm 9.5 ^{b,c}	122.7 \pm 8.6 ^{b,c}	35.5 \pm 1.4 ^{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}
		240	189.8 \pm 5.6 ^{b,c}	131.7 \pm 9.7 ^{b,c}	33.5 \pm 4.1 ^{b,c}
		480	123.4 \pm 8.1 ^{b,c}	102.5 \pm 7.3 ^c	25.8 \pm 2.1 ^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×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 μ g/mL (leaves) and from 15.6 to 5000 μ 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 (μ g/mL).

Bacterial/fungal strain	ATCC	Leaf extract		Rhizome extract		Positive control
		MIC	MBC	MIC	MBC	
<i>G⁺</i>	<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	25923	15.6	62.5	620.5	0.09 ^a
	<i>Bacillus subtilis</i>	6633	250	>500	150.6	0.39 ^a
	<i>Listeria innocua</i>	51742	500	>500	5000	0.39 ^a
<i>G⁻</i>	<i>Proteus vulgaris</i>	8427	500	>500	620.5	0.19 ^a
	<i>Escherichia coli</i>	8739	>500	>500	5000	1.56 ^a
	<i>Salmonella enteritidis</i>	13076	125	>500	310.2	0.19 ^a
	<i>Klebsiella pneumoniae</i>	10031	500	>500	620.5	0.39 ^a
	<i>Candida albicans</i>	10231	>500	>500	310.2	0.78 ^b
<i>Fungi</i>	<i>Aspergillus niger</i>	16404	500	>500	2500	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 μ g/mL. On the other hand, Gram-positive strains showed a higher sensitivity with *Staphylococcus aureus* being inhibited by only 15.6 μ 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 μ g/mL. Antifungal activity of the leaf extract of *G. macrorrhizum* was only detected against *Aspergillus niger*, with an inhibitory effect displayed at 500 μ 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 Svrljiške planine, in the vicinity of the city of Svrljig, 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 extractible 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-Ciocalteu 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 (Ketamidol 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-glutamyl 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

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 inversed 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 hematemesia, 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	HaCHS
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

^a Data 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).

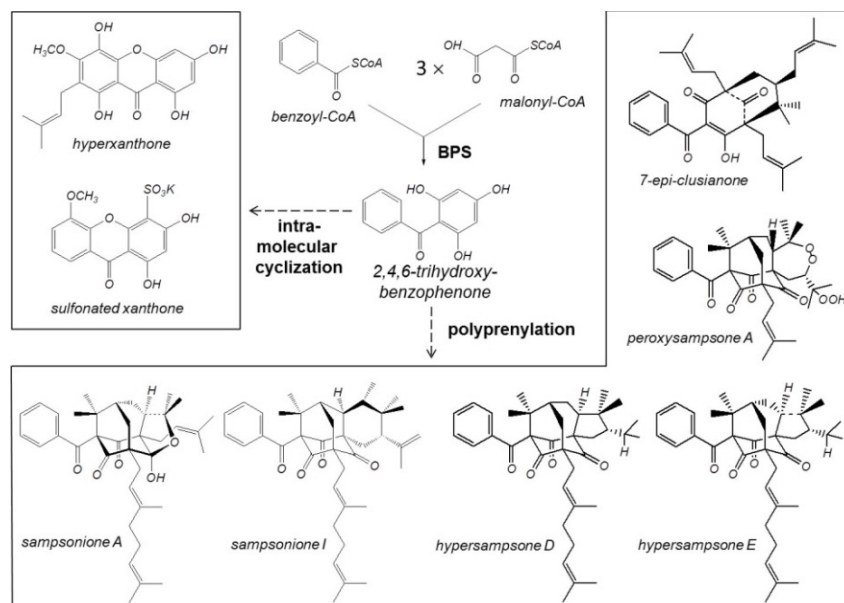


Figure 1: Examples and biosynthetic origin of polyprenylated polycyclic benzophenone derivatives isolated from *Hypericum sampsonii*. BPS, benzophenone synthase.

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 ($\text{M}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$)	k_{cat} (min^{-1})	K_m (μM)	k_{cat}/K_m ($\text{M}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$)	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.

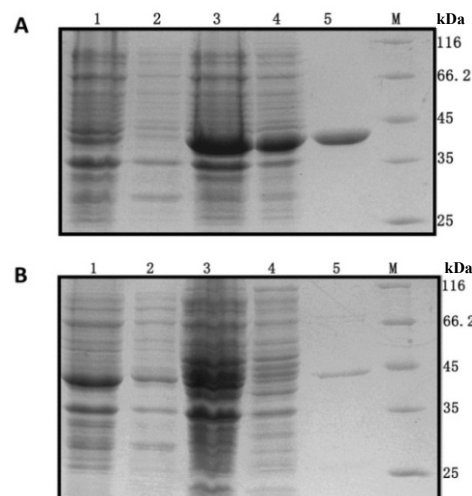


Figure 2: SDS-PAGE analysis of recombinant HsBPS (A) and HsCHS (B) after staining with coomassie brilliant blue. Lane 1, total protein isolated from *Escherichia coli* strain BL21 (DE3) harboring the corresponding plasmid prior to IPTG treatment; Lane 2, soluble proteins from *E. coli* strain BL21(DE3) 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.

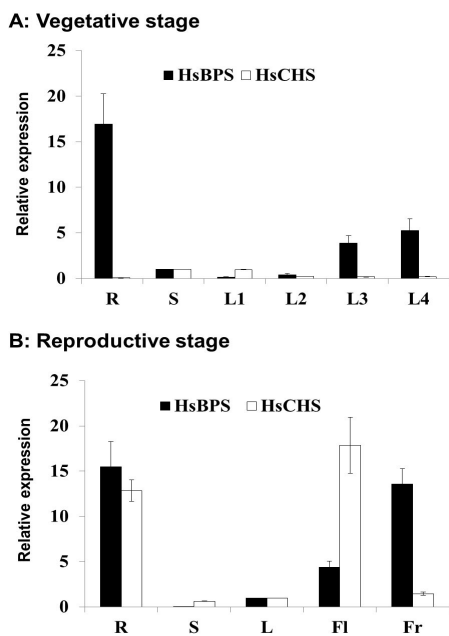


Figure 3: Quantitative PCR analysis of the transcript levels of *HsBPS* and *HsCHS* in various organs of *H. sampsonii* at the vegetative stage (A) and the reproductive stage (B). Primers specific for *HsBPS* and *HsCHS* were used to measure the transcript levels of the two genes. The *H. sampsonii* 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; FI, flowers; Fr, fruits.

In most organs, the expression level of *HsBPS* was higher than that of *HsCHS*, which is consistent with the finding that polyprenylated benzophenones and xanthenes 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 polyprenylated benzophenones in the plant. The concentration of prenylated 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 xanthenes 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 polyprenylated benzophenones and xanthenes and their antimicrobial properties suggest that they may also have a defensive

role against pathogens. In *H. calycinum*, polyprenylated acyl and benzoyl phlorogucinols 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 polyprenylated 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 florescence, the fully opened flower heads (FI) 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 (Biotek, 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 μ L) contained 54 μ M starter CoA, 324 μ M malonyl-CoA, 0.1 M potassium phosphate (pH 7.0) and 2 μ g 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 μ g. 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

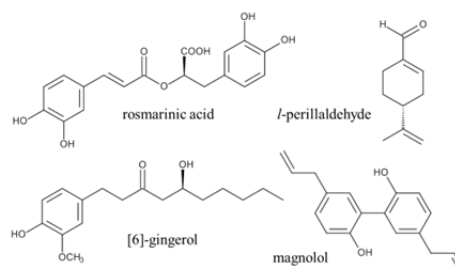


Figure 1: Structure of main principle compounds in hangekobokuto.

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 $p < 0.05$.

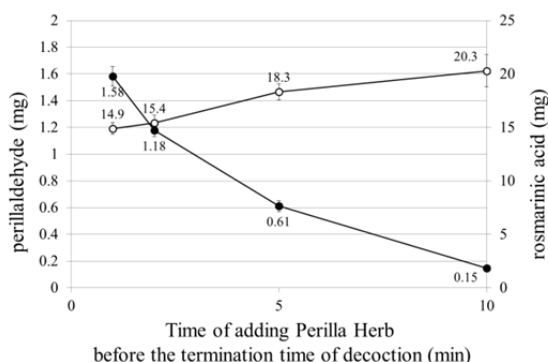


Figure 2: Perillaldehyde decrease and rosmarinic acid increase when Perilla Herb was added before the termination time of decoction. Each value represents mean±SD (n=4). Filled circles: perillaldehyde, open circles: rosmarinic acid.

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, Tiankuizi

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Through bioassay-guided fractionation, thirteen compounds (**1-13**) were isolated from the dry root of *Semiaquilegia adoxoides*, known as Tiankuizi 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 Tiankuizi (*S. adoxoides*) as a potential TCM and isolates **1** and **2** as promising lead compounds for neutrophilic inflammatory diseases.

Keywords: *Semiaquilegia adoxoides*, Tiankuizi, 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 Tiankuizi 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.

Tiankuizi, especially, is often included in many multiple TCM formulas to cure cancer patients. In our preliminary study, a MeOH extract of Tiankuizi 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 Tiankuizi were active against superoxide anion generation and elastase release induced by human neutrophils.

Table 1: Effects of Tiankuizi 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, Tiankuizi, was first selected as a lead to be investigated for anti-neutrophilic inflammatory activity through bioassay-guided fractionation.

A MeOH extract of Tiankuizi 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

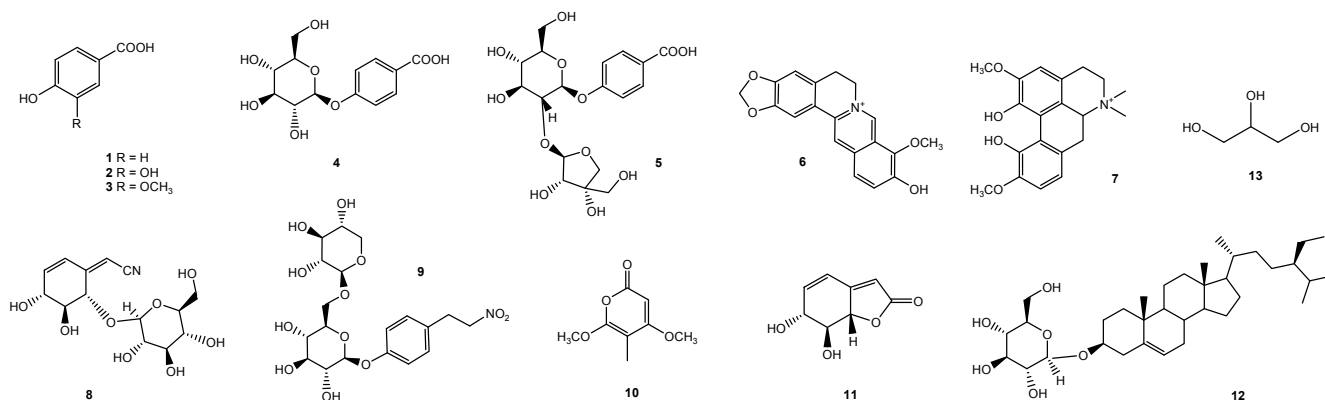
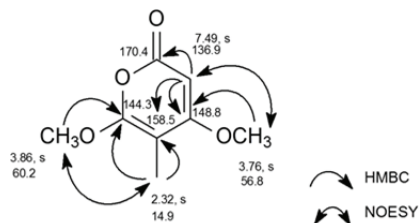


Figure 1: All structures of compounds 1-13 isolated from Tiankuizi.

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], monordicophenolide 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, lithospermide (**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-glucose (**12**) [1], and 1,2,3-propanetriol (**13**). All structures were identified by NMR spectroscopic and MS data interpretation.

Figure 1: 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, s/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 Tiankuizi, 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 Tiankuizi 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 $\mu\text{g/mL}$.

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 Tiankuizi on superoxide anion generation and elastase release in FMLP/CB-induced human neutrophils.

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

Percentage of inhibition (Inh %) at 10 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ concentration. Results are presented as mean \pm 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 $\mu\text{g/mL}$, 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 Tiankuizi (*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 ULTRASHIELD™ 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 F₂₅₄S (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 (SPELCO[™]) 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 SAB229 (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 other 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 cardiogenic 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 Meetha [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, saffrole, 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 therein], and its concentration is correlated with biological activity [3,8]. The importance of chavicol [8], and total phenol content has also been

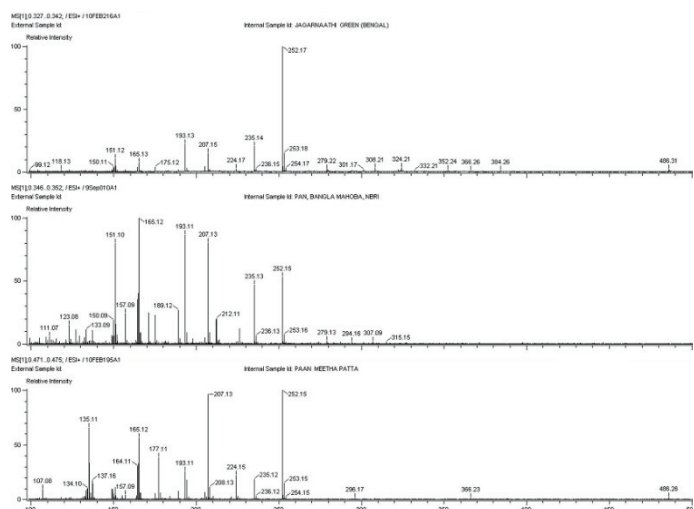


Figure 1: Leaf DART MS of *Piper betle* landraces Jalesar Green, Bangla Mahoba and MeethaPatta.

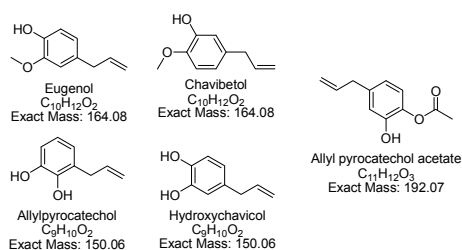


Figure 2: Structures of purified active molecules reported from *Piper betle* leaf.

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 onDART-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), andallylpyrocatechol 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

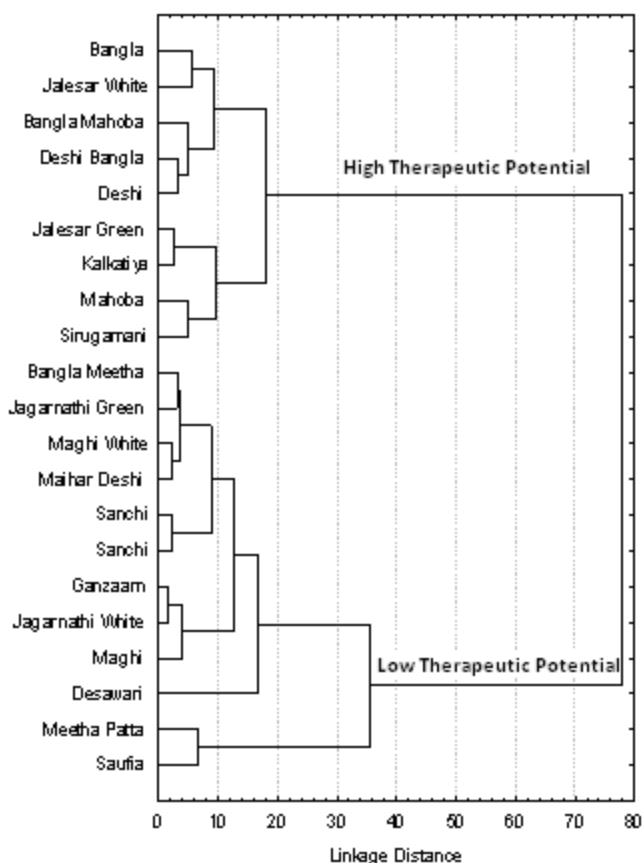


Figure 3: Tree view of *P. betle* landraces according to average of three biologically active ions (m/z 151, 165 and 193) estimated by DART MS. Upper cluster from Bangla to Sirugamani and the lower cluster from Bangla Meetha to Saufia, respectively, represent higher and lower therapeutic potential of 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 ± 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 μ mol 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, caffeate 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, caffeic 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 caffeate 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-Ciocalteu 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)
Molntr1	3.00 \pm 0.03	SoTinc1	3.69 \pm 0.05	MpGtt1	0.73 \pm 0.02
Molntr2	2.46 \pm 0.04	SoTinc2	2.08 \pm 0.05	MpGtt2	0.64 \pm 0.01
Molntr3	2.57 \pm 0.04	SoTinc3	2.02 \pm 0.02	MpGtt3	0.24 \pm 0.01
Molntr4	2.12 \pm 0.03	SoTinc4	3.48 \pm 0.01	MpGtt4	0.35 \pm 0.01
Molntr5	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.

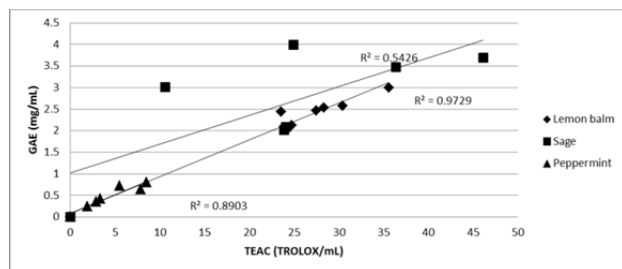
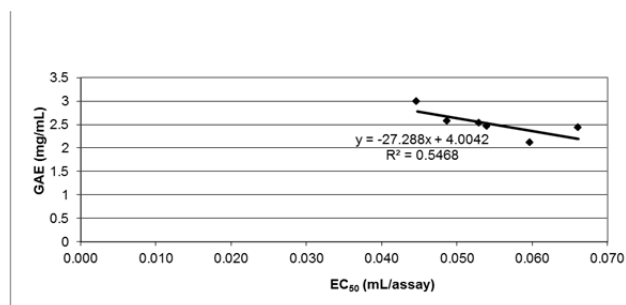
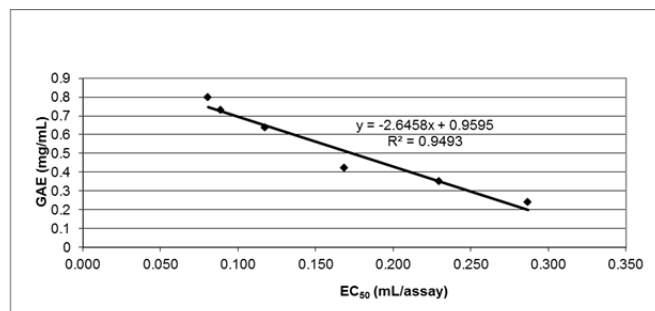
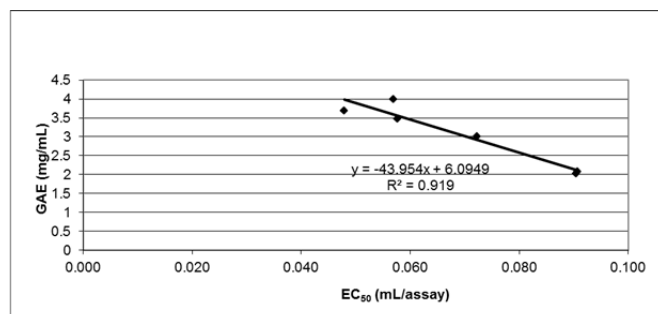
Two methods were used for antioxidant activity estimation. The results from the ABTS method are expressed as TEAC (Trolox equivalents antioxidant capacity) (Table 2). According to this assay, the best antioxidant of all the tested preparations was the lemon balm samples. The lowest antioxidant properties 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	MpGutt 1	0.09
Mo Intr 2	0.05	S oTinc 2	0.09	MpGutt2	0.12
Mo Intr 3	0.05	S oTinc 3	0.09	MpGutt3	0.29
Mo Intr 4	0.06	S oTinc 4	0.06	MpGutt4	0.23
Mo Intr 5	0.05	S oTinc 5	0.07	MpGutt5	0.08
Mo Intr 6	0.07	S oTinc 6	0.06	MpGutt6	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-tetramethylchroman-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 (*intracutum*) of lemon balm - **MoIntr1, MoIntr2, MoIntr3, MoIntr4, MoIntr5, MoIntr6** - (PhytoPharmKlekaSA, 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, Kłęka 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 μ L of the galenical preparation as methanolic solutions were added to tubes. Next, 250 μ L F-C reagent, 500 μ L 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 μ L of methanolic samples of each galenical preparation were added to tubes and filled with methanol to 100 μ L. 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 *at 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 μ L of methanolic samples of the galenical preparations (diluted 10, 20 or 30 times) or Trolox standards (final concentration 0.2 – 1.757 μ mol/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 oximine 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 kochigii* [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-ethoxybenzadoxime-*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 nematocidal 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

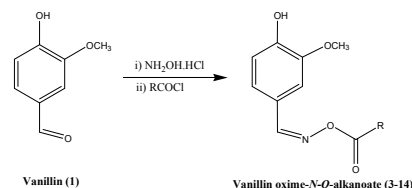


Figure 1: Synthesis of vanillin oxime-*N*-*O*-alkanoates

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. rolfii*.

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 D_2O exchangeable proton singlet at δ 2.03 corresponding to the oxime proton. The ^{13}C 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 $[\text{M}+\text{H}]^+$ and 189.9 $[\text{M}+\text{Na}]^+$.

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 double 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 oxime 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 ^{13}C 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 potassium 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 $\text{CH}_3(\text{CH}_2)_5\text{CO}-$ and $\text{CH}_3(\text{CH}_2)_5\text{COOH}$, and at m/z 150.0 due to the loss of $\text{CH}_3(\text{CH}_2)_5\text{COOH}$ 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 alkanates 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

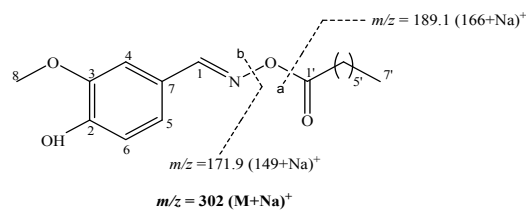


Figure 2: Mass fragmentation pattern of compound **11**.

Table 2: Antifungal activity of test compounds.

Compounds	EC_{50} ($\mu\text{g/mL}$)		
	<i>M. phaseolina</i>	<i>R. solani</i>	<i>S. rolfii</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. rolfii (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 EC_{50} values of 73.1 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ and 79.9 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ were the most active. However, compared with the standard reference, Bavistin® (EC_{50} 12.2 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ 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 EC_{50} value of 66.7 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ and 74.9 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ 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 (EC_{50} 205–208 $\mu\text{g/mL}$).

Vanillin oxime-*N*-*O*-nonanoate (**12**) was found to be the most active (EC_{50} = 161.5 $\mu\text{g/mL}$) against *S. rolfii*. Other oxime esters (heptyl, hexyl, pivoyl and decanoyl) with EC_{50} values ranging from 171.4 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ to 205.7 $\mu\text{g/mL}$, 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. rolfii*. 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 μm thick plastic or aluminum TLC plates (silica gel 60 F_{254}). 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 ^{13}C NMR spectra were recorded on a Bruker Avance^{II} 400 Spectrometer (400 MHz). Samples were dissolved in either CDCl_3 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, CDCl₃): 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).

¹³C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl₃): 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, CDCl₃): 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 = 8Hz), 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).

¹³C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl₃): 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(CH₂)₅CH₃, 75%], 171.9 [302-CH₃(CH₂)₅COOH, 30%], 150 [280.0-CH₃(CH₂)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 (μg/mL) (effective concentration for 50 percent inhibition of mycelial growth) was calculated from the concentration (μg/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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*IARI contribution No. 1108.

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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 caffeic acid (6). Antimicrobial 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 micofungine, 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
1	A	H	H	H
2	A	CH ₃	H	H
3	A	H	H	OH
4	A	CH ₃	H	OH
5	A	CH ₃	H	OCH ₃
6	A	H	OH	OH
7	A	CH ₃	OH	OH
8	A	CH ₃	OCH ₃	OCH ₃
9	A	H	OCH ₃	OCH ₃
10	A	CH ₃	OCH ₃	OH
11	A	H	OH	H
12	A	CH ₃	OH	H
13	A	H	γ,γ -dimethylallyl	OH
14	A	CH ₃	γ,γ -dimethylallyl	OCH ₃
15	A	H	γ,γ -dimethylallyl	OCH ₃
16	A	CH ₃	γ,γ -dimethylallyl	OH
17	A	H	γ,γ -dimethylallyl	OAcOH
18	B	CH ₃	isopentyl	OH
19	B	H	OCH ₃	OH
20	B	CH ₃	H	OH
21	B	H	OH	H

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 μ M (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 (μ g/mL)			Inhibition of Taq polymerase I		ClogP
	<i>A. terreus</i>	<i>A. niger</i>	<i>A. flavus</i>	% 500 μ M	IC ₅₀ μ M	
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 \pm 2.5 μ M and 193.1 \pm 1.9 μ M, respectively. IC₅₀ values obtained for caffeic acid (**6**) and its methylester (**7**) were 1.57 \pm 0.31 μ M and 1.28 \pm 0.27 μ M, respectively. These results are particularly interesting considering that compounds previously reported as DNA polymerase inhibitors displayed IC₅₀ values ranging from 400 to 0.7 μ M [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.

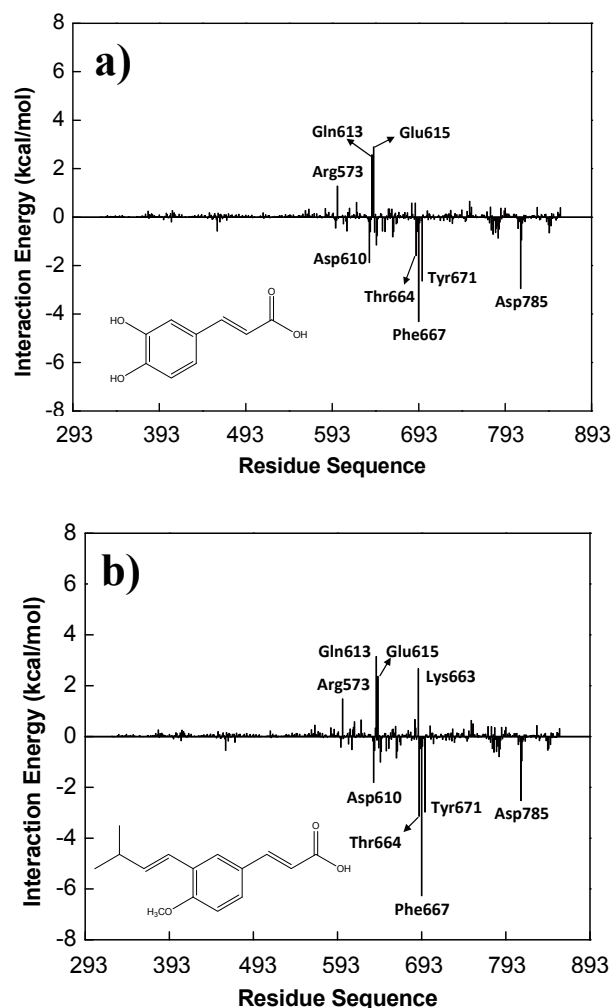


Figure 1: Inhibitor-residue interaction spectra of (a) *Taq-6* and (b) *Taq-15*, according to the MM-GBSA method. The x-axis denotes the residue number of *Taq* Polymerase I and the y-axis denotes the interaction energy between the inhibitor and specific residues.

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

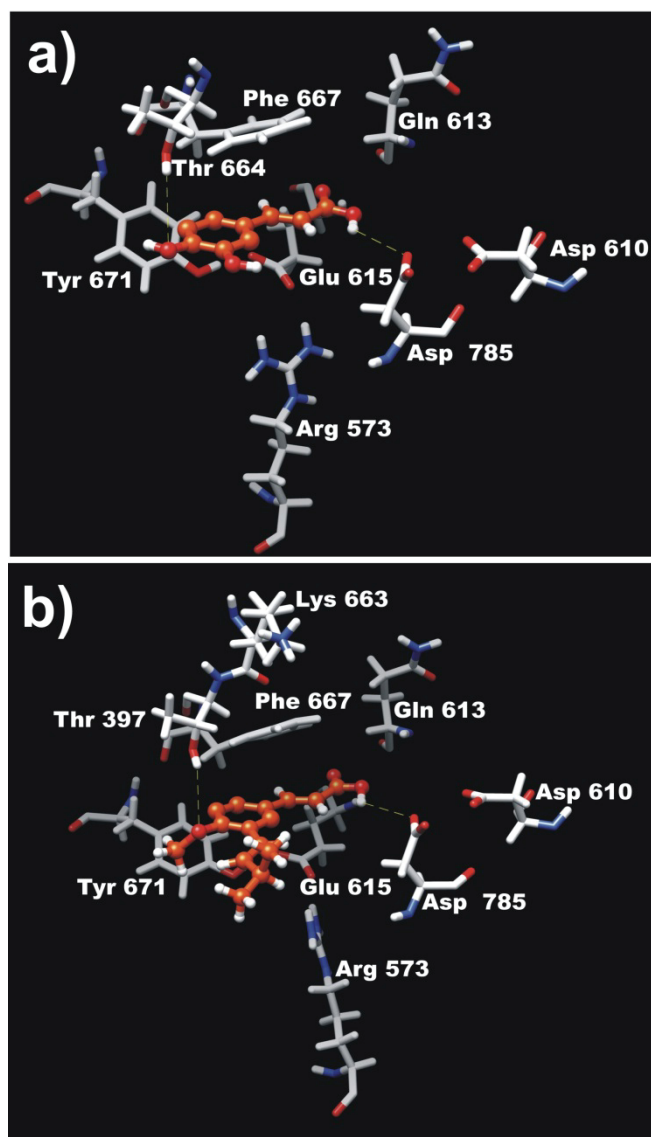


Figure 2: Spatial view of the stabilizing and destabilizing interactions obtained for compounds **6** (a) and **15** (b) interacting with *Taq* polymerase I. The different amino acids involved in this complex are shown.

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,

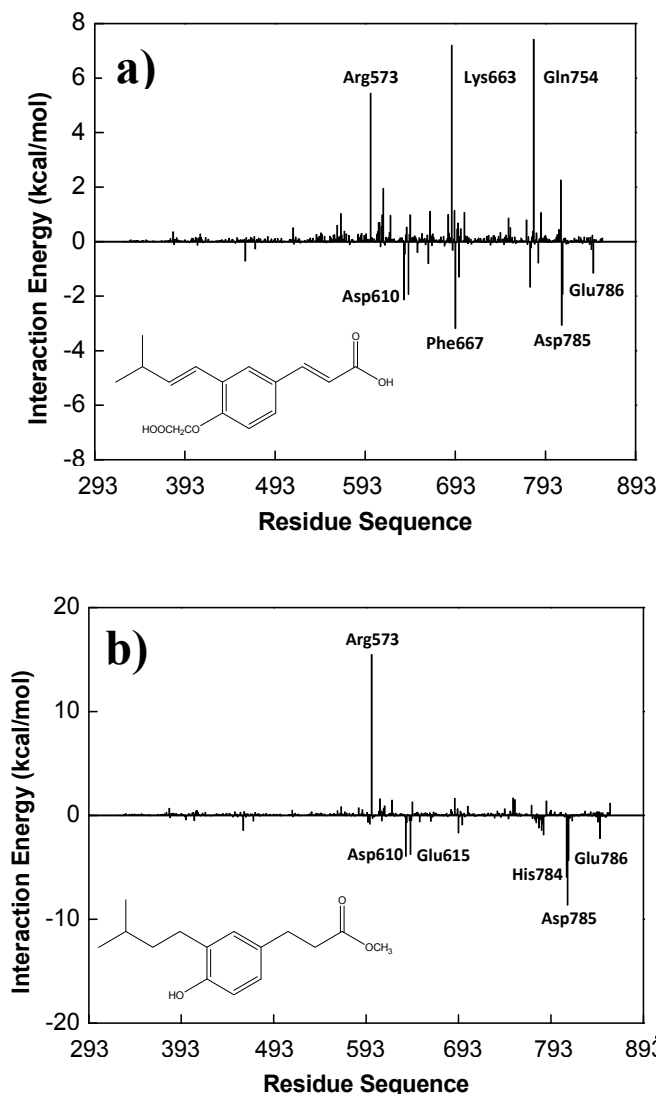


Figure 3: Inhibitor-residue interaction spectra of (a) *Taq-17* and (b) *Taq-18* according to the MM-GBSA method. The x-axis denotes the residue number of *Taq* Polymerase I and the y-axis denotes the interaction energy between the inhibitor and specific residues.

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.

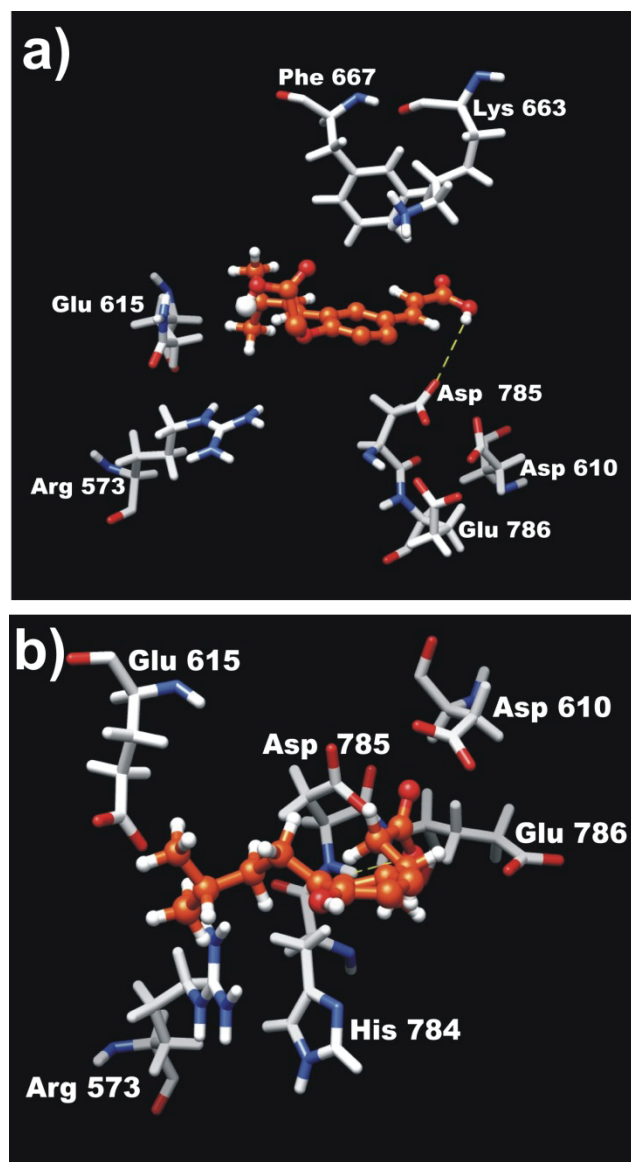


Figure 4: Spatial view of the stabilizing and destabilizing interactions obtained for compounds **17** (a) and **18** (b) interacting with *Taq* polymerase.

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 M dNTPs, 1 μ M primer sense (5'-GGATCCATGAGCGGGGACCATCTCCA), and 1 μ M primer antisense (5'-TCAAACTCGTAGTCCTCATAG). 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 \pm 0.031, 2.13 \pm 0.59, 1.96 \pm 0.34 and 1.80 \pm 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 2Å. 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 10Å. 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/molÅ² 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/molÅ². 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 (PME) 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 8Å. 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 (Cambridge-soft. Corp 1988) software.

Supplementary data: Theoretical ClogP values for compounds 1-21 (Table1). Image of the *Taq* polymerase I inhibition assay (Figure1).

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Insecticidal Effects of Acetogenins from *Rollinia occidentalis* Seed ExtractDiego Tolosa^a, Olga Álvarez Colom^a, Alicia Bardón^{a,b} and Adriana Neske^{*a}^aInstituto de Química Orgánica, Facultad de Bioquímica, Química y Farmacia, Universidad Nacional de Tucumán, Ayacucho 471, Tucumán 4000, Argentina; ^bINQUINOA-CONICET, Tucumán, Argentina

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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 desacetylurvaricin (**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 in 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 desacetylurvaricin (**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 desacetylurvaricin 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.

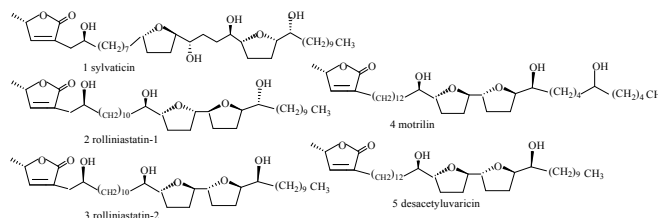


Figure 1: Annonaceous acetogenins from *R. occidentalis* methanolic seed extract.

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 desacetylurvaricin 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 desacetylurvaricin 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 desacetylvaricin 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	-	-
Desacetylvaricin 50 ppm	100	-	-
Desacetylvaricin 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); Single and 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 *Spilanthe 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 micropropagation 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
OPJ-07	2	0	0.1-1.4	0
OPJ-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 OPJ (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 *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 Milli 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 mMTris acetate, pH 8.2; 1 mM EDTA) using a Minipack-250 electrophoresis system (GeNei™), 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* SpeciesPrabodh Satyal^a, Prajwal Paudel^a, Ananad Kafle^b, Suraj K. Pokharel^c, Bimala Lamichhane^d,
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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 chrysanthenone (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 chrysanthenone (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 chrysanthenone and camphor. Chrysanthenone is known to be a photoisomerization product of verbenone [17] and filifolone has been shown to be a thermal decomposition product of chrysanthenone [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		
		<i>A. dubia</i>	<i>A. indica</i>	<i>A. vulgaris</i>
869	1-Hexanol	tr ^b	---	---
931	Tricyclene	---	---	tr
935	α -Thujene	---	---	tr
941	α -Pinene	---	---	0.4
952	α -Fenchene	---	---	0.6
953	Camphene	---	---	0.9
964	Benzaldehyde	tr	---	---
976	Sabinene	---	---	0.6
978	β -Pinene	0.1	---	0.5
981	1-Octen-3-ol	1.9	---	0.3
988	3-Octanone	---	---	tr
989	6-Methyl-5-hepten-2-one	---	1.7	---
992	Dehydro-1,8-cineole	---	---	tr
994	Mesitylene	---	---	tr
996	3-Octanol	0.1	---	0.1
1004	α -Phellandrene	tr	---	---
1016	α -Terpinene	---	---	tr
1021	1,2,4-Trimethylbenzene	---	---	tr
1024	<i>p</i> -Cymene	0.3	---	3.7
1028	Limonene	tr	---	0.2
1030	1,8-Cineole	1.1	1.8	12.4
1032	Benzyl alcohol	tr	---	---
1038	(<i>Z</i>)- β -Ocimene	0.1	---	---
1048	(<i>E</i>)- β -Ocimene	tr	---	---
1058	γ -Terpinene	0.1	---	0.1
1062	Artemisia ketone	---	---	tr
1066	<i>cis</i> -Sabinene hydrate	1.2	2.1	0.4
1071	1-Octanol	tr	---	---
1098	<i>trans</i> -Sabinene hydrate	0.6	1.9	0.4
1101	Linalool	0.2	---	---
1103	Filifolone	0.6	---	---
1107	α -Thujone	---	3.6	30.5
1110	Ischrysanthenone ^c	0.8	---	---
1114	2-Phenethanol	0.1	---	---
1117	β -Thujone	---	1.1	7.1
1120	Isophorone	---	---	0.5
1121	<i>cis-p</i> -Menth-2-en-1-ol	---	---	0.1
1121	<i>trans-p</i> -Menth-2,8-dien-1-ol	---	9.7	---
1123	Unidentified	---	0.9	---
1126	Chrysanthenone	29.0	---	3.7
1134	<i>cis-p</i> -Menth-2,8-dien-1-ol	---	2.7	---
1135	<i>iso</i> -3-Thujanol	---	---	0.6
1138	<i>trans</i> -Pinocarveol	0.2	1.6	0.5
1139	<i>trans</i> -Sabinol	---	1.0	---
1140	<i>trans-p</i> -Menth-2-en-1-ol	---	---	0.2
1144	<i>trans</i> -Verbenol	---	8.4	---
1144	Camphor	16.4	---	10.3
1155	Isoborneol	0.3	---	0.2
1157	Sabina ketone	---	---	0.1
1162	Pinocarvone	0.5	0.8	0.1
1164	Borneol	3.1	---	2.7
1166	δ -Terpineol	---	---	0.1
1167	Lavandulol	---	---	0.1
1172	Menthhol	---	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-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-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> -Myrtenol	0.1	---	---
1252	<i>trans</i> -Myrtenol	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	neois-3-Thujanol acetate	---	---	0.1
1285	Bornyl acetate	0.2	---	0.7

RI ^a	Compound	Percent Composition		
		<i>A. dubia</i>	<i>A. indica</i>	<i>A. vulgaris</i>
1286	Unidentified	---	0.8	---
1289	<i>p</i> -Cymen-7-ol	0.1	---	0.2
1291	Lavandulyl acetate	0.8	---	1.0
1296	Perilla alcohol	0.3	---	tr
1301	Isoascaridole	---	9.9	---
1301	Carvacrol	0.1	---	0.1
1317	Unidentified	0.1	---	0.9
1343	Unidentified	0.5	---	---
1356	Eugenol	1.2	---	---
1366	Piperitenone oxide	---	1.1	---
1375	α -Copaene	---	---	0.1
1379	<i>trans</i> -Soberol	---	---	tr
1396	4-Methyl-2-prenylfuran ^c	0.9	---	---
1412	<i>cis</i> -3-Hydroxy- <i>p</i> -menth-1-en-6-one ^c	0.3	---	---
1419	(<i>E</i>)- β -Caryophyllene	0.9	0.9	0.1
1436	Coumarin	18.3	---	---
1443	(<i>Z</i>)- β -Farnesene	---	---	0.2
1453	α -Humulene	0.2	---	---
1460	<i>allo</i> -Aromadendrene	0.1	---	0.1
1482	Germacone D	0.3	---	0.8
1486	β -Selinene	---	---	0.2
1495	<i>epi</i> -Cubebol	---	---	0.1
1501	α -Muuroleone	---	---	0.1
1514	γ -Cadinene	---	---	0.2
1524	δ -Cadinene	0.1	---	0.1
1553	(<i>Z</i>)-Caryophyllene oxide ^c	---	---	0.5
1568	Palustrol	---	---	0.2
1576	Germacone D-4-ol	1.6	0.7	---
1578	Spathulenol	---	---	0.6
1583	Caryophyllene oxide	1.2	---	3.5
1590	Unidentified	---	1.4	---
1603	Ledol	0.1	---	0.4
1609	Humulene epoxide II	---	---	0.5
1628	1- <i>epi</i> -Cubanol	---	---	tr
1629	Eremoligenol	0.4	---	---
1631	γ -Eudesmol + (<i>E</i>)-Sesquilandulol	1.4	---	---
1635	Caryophylla-4(12),8(13)-dien-5-ol	0.6	0.8	tr
1642	τ -Muurolol	tr	---	0.2
1645	α -Muurolol	0.1	---	0.1
1650	β -Eudesmol	0.2	---	0.6
1654	α -Cadinol	0.4	---	0.4
1669	14-Hydroxy-9- <i>epi</i> -(<i>E</i>)- β -caryophyllene	---	---	0.5
1676	(<i>Z</i>)- α -Santalol	---	---	0.2
1684	<i>epi</i> - α -Bisabolol	---	1.4	---
1685	Germa-4(15),5,10(14)-trien-1 α -ol	tr	---	---
1741	Oplopanone	---	---	0.3
1751	(6 <i>S</i> ,7 <i>R</i>)-Bisabolone	---	---	0.2
1809	Cryptomeridiol	0.1	---	---
2108	(<i>E</i>)-Phytol	0.1	---	---
Total Identified		95.9	96.8	93.9

^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.

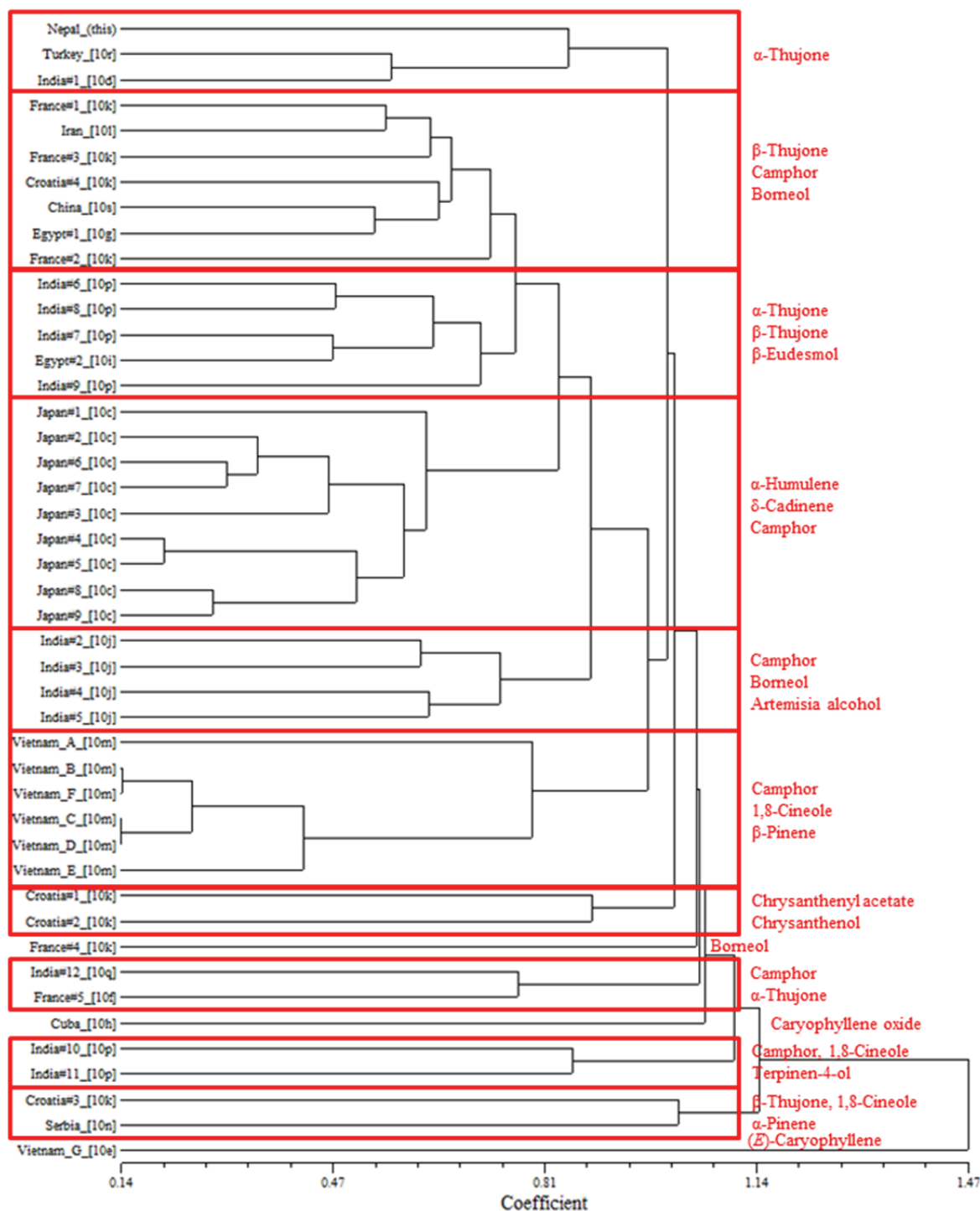


Figure 1: Dendrogram obtained by cluster analysis of the percentage composition of essential oils from *A. vulgaris* samples, based on correlation and using the unweighted pair-group method with arithmetic average (UPGMA). Chemotypes are indicated in red.

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 μ g/mL, respectively), as well as seedling growth (significant inhibition of radicle and hypocotyl elongation of both species at 62.5 μ 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>	<i>Lactuca sativa</i>		<i>Lolium perenne</i>	
			radicle	hypocotyl	radicle	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 ^b	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 µg/mL)	Antimicrobial Activity (MIC, µg/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 IC_{50} 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 O_2 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, $G^\circ = -540.757851$ 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.

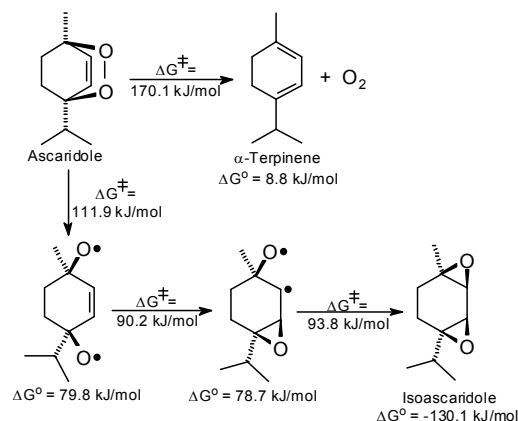


Figure 2: B3LYP/6-31G* free energy differences for decomposition reactions of ascaridole. All energies are relative to the free energy of ascaridole.

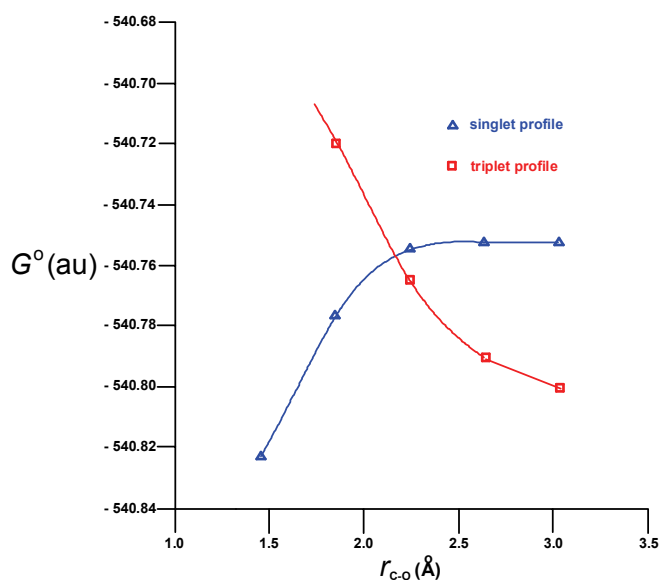


Figure 3: Energy profile for retro-Diels-Alder elimination of O₂. The singlet-triplet potential surface crossing point corresponds to an average C-O distance of 2.184 Å with a free energy, $G^\circ = -540.757851$ au.

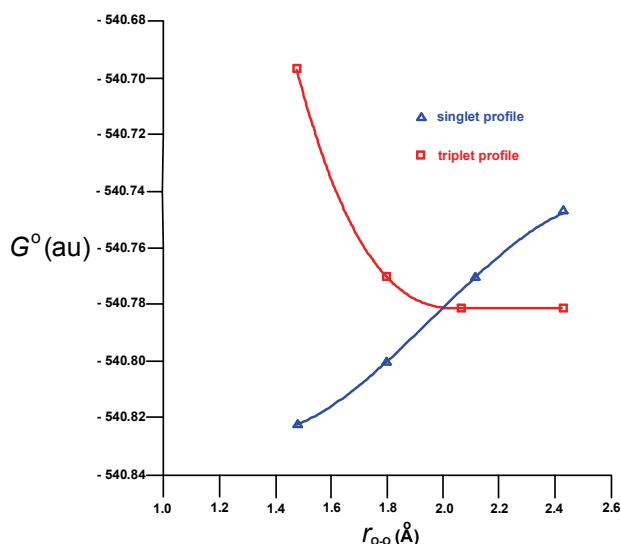


Figure 4: Energy profile for homolytic O—O bond cleavage. The transition structure (singlet-triplet potential surface crossing) corresponds to a free energy, $G^\circ = -540.780011$ au and O-O bond length of 2.010 Å.

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 μ m, 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°C/min to 220°C. A 1% w/v solution of the sample in CH₂Cl₂ was prepared and 1 μ L 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 1.5×10^8 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 2.5×10^4 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_{empd}/%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, lylatol, and *trans*-isoelemicin) was used to determine the chemical relationship between the different *A. vulgaris* essential oil samples by cluster analysis using the STSYSp 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 diepoxide 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 MIC 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 \pm 0.02	5.0 \pm 0.01
Camphene	945	1.5 \pm 0.04	-
Sabinene	969	7.6 \pm 0.01	3.3 \pm 0.02
Myrcene	988	1.5 \pm 0.11	1.9 \pm 0.10
α-Phellandrene	1002	2.2 \pm 0.06	9.3 \pm 0.02
δ -3-Carene	1008	0.7 \pm 0.02	-
α -Terpinene	1014	0.4 \pm 0.04	-
Limonene	1024	4.6 \pm 0.1	6.7 \pm 0.03
1,8-Cineole	1026	1.0 \pm 0.07	1.7 \pm 0.06
(Z)- β -Ocimene	1030	0.3 \pm 0.05	0.7 \pm 0.01
γ-Terpinene	1055	3.6 \pm 0.01	2.8 \pm 0.05
α -Terpinolene	1086	-	0.7 \pm 0.01
Linalool	1092	3.4 \pm 0.02	6.9 \pm 0.09
Camphor	1142	0.7 \pm 0.04	-
Terpinen-4-ol	1175	3.6 \pm 0.01	3.5 \pm 0.03
α -Terpineol	1186	0.5 \pm 0.12	0.3 \pm 0.06
α -Cubebene	1345	0.3 \pm 0.08	1.1 \pm 0.02
Eugenol	1356	-	1.1 \pm 0.04
α -Ylangene	1372	-	0.8 \pm 0.03
α -Copaene	1374	1.7 \pm 0.03	3.4 \pm 0.05
β -Cubebene	1386	2.7 \pm 0.02	-
β -Elemene	1389	1.3 \pm 0.10	1.0 \pm 0.04
Methyl eugenol	1403	-	2.5 \pm 0.01
α -Gurjunene	1405	2.2 \pm 0.02	0.1 \pm 0.10
α -Cedrene	1410	-	0.1 \pm 0.12
α -Bergamotene	1412	-	0.2 \pm 0.05
β-Caryophyllene	1417	11.2 \pm 0.02	10.9 \pm 0.03
γ -Elemene	1434	0.2 \pm 0.05	-
Aromadendrene	1440	0.5 \pm 0.02	0.4 \pm 0.01
α -Humulene	1452	3.2 \pm 0.01	3.1 \pm 0.04
Dehydroaromadendrene	1460	0.5 \pm 0.04	0.2 \pm 0.02
α -Amorphene	1483	3.2 \pm 0.03	3.1 \pm 0.1
Germacrene D	1485	0.7 \pm 0.01	2.1 \pm 0.04
β-Selinene	1490	5.3 \pm 0.1	2.4 \pm 0.1
δ -Selinene	1492	-	0.3 \pm 0.05
Cadina-1,4-diene	1495	0.5 \pm 0.08	0.3 \pm 0.01
α -Selinene	1498	2.5 \pm 0.05	2.8 \pm 0.01
Bicyclogermacrene	1500	1.2 \pm 0.02	5.4 \pm 0.02
α -Murolene	1502	0.2 \pm 0.02	0.6 \pm 0.08
(E,E)- α -Farnesene	1508	0.7 \pm 0.05	-
δ -Cadinene	1520	0.2 \pm 0.02	2.5 \pm 0.02
cis-Calamenene	1528	0.2 \pm 0.04	0.2 \pm 0.04
α -Calacorene	1545	0.1 \pm 0.01	0.1 \pm 0.11
Germacrene B	1560	2.5 \pm 0.1	-
(E)-Nerolidol	1562	-	0.1 \pm 0.04
Spathulenol	1578	1.3 \pm 0.01	1.3 \pm 0.01
Caryophyllene oxide	1582	0.4 \pm 0.03	0.4 \pm 0.02
Globulol	1592	1.8 \pm 0.07	-
Viridiflorol	1595	0.1 \pm 0.02	0.3 \pm 0.03
α -Cadinol	1652	-	0.9 \pm 0.05
Group components			
Phenylpropanoids		-	3.6 \pm 0.2
Monoterpene hydrocarbons		31.7 \pm 0.2	30.4 \pm 0.2
Oxygenated monoterpenes		9.2 \pm 0.2	12.4 \pm 0.2
Sesquiterpene hydrocarbons		41.1 \pm 0.2	43.6 \pm 0.2
Oxygenated sesquiterpenes		3.6 \pm 0.2	3.0 \pm 0.2
Identified components (%)		85.6 \pm 0.2	93.0 \pm 0.2

^a Each value is expressed as means \pm 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 \pm 0.4	622.2 \pm 0.3	30.4 \pm 0.4
Stem oil	88.9 \pm 0.3	777.4 \pm 0.2	44.1 \pm 0.4
BHT	125.5 \pm 0.3	124.8 \pm 0.2	ND

^a Data represent mean \pm 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 \pm 0.4	11.2 \pm 0.3	17.6 \pm 0.2	ND
	MIC	250	500	7.8	ND
<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	DD	8.9 \pm 0.4	8.6 \pm 0.4	17.8 \pm 0.2	ND
	MIC	500	500	7.8	ND
<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i>	DD	8.7 \pm 0.3	8.8 \pm 0.5	17.2 \pm 0.2	ND
	MIC	250	250	7.8	ND
<i>Pseudomonas putida</i>	DD	8.6 \pm 0.5	8.5 \pm 0.4	17.3 \pm 0.2	ND
	MIC	500	500	7.8	ND
<i>Escherichia coli</i>	DD	8.2 \pm 0.5	8.2 \pm 0.4	17.5 \pm 0.2	ND
	MIC	250	250	7.8	ND
<i>Candida albicans</i>	DD	7.0 \pm 0.4	8.0 \pm 0.5	ND	15.2 \pm 0.2
	MIC	1000	1000	ND	7.8
<i>Aspergillus niger</i>	DD	7.4 \pm 0.4	8.3 \pm 0.4	ND	15.3 \pm 0.2
	MIC	500	500	ND	7.8

^a Data represent mean \pm 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 polyoxyethylenesorbitan 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 \pm 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 (*I*%) 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, *I*%) 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 “copa-copa” (*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).

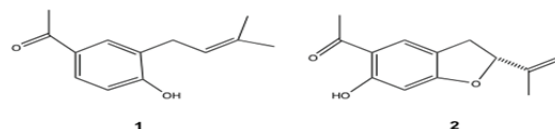
A previous investigation on *X. poposum* collected at an undisclosed location of the Argentine Puna [9] yielded a qualitative very different volatile oil, dominated by monoterpenes (76.4%), with β -pinene (21.8%), α -pinene (5.5%), terpinen-4-ol (5.3%) and α -terpinene (5.2%), as major components. The 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
<i>p</i> -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
<i>endo</i> -Fenchol	0.2	1114	1114	a,b
<i>cis</i> - <i>para</i> -Menth-2-en-1-ol	0.1	1120	1118	a,b
1-Terpineol	0.1	1131	1130	a,b,c
Camphene 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
<i>p</i> -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
<i>allo</i> -Aromadendrene	1.0	1459	1458	a,b,c
<i>cis</i> -Muurolo-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
<i>trans</i> -Muurolo-4(14),5-diene	0.1	1493	1493	a,b
<i>cis</i> -Cadina-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
<i>trans</i> -Cadina-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 -Oplophenone	0.4	1606	1607	a,b
1,10- <i>di</i> - <i>epi</i> -Cubenol,	1.1	1616	1618	a,b
Dehydrotremetone	0.1	1622	-	b,c
1- <i>epi</i> -Cubenol	4.2	1626	1627	a,b
Sesquiterpene alcohol C ₁₅ H ₂₆ O*	5.8	1634	-	a,b
<i>epi</i> - α -Cadinol (T-cadinol)	12.0	1638	1638	a,b,c,d
<i>epi</i> - α -Muurolo	1.7	1641	1640	a,b,c
α -Muurolo	1.7	1645	1644	a,b,c
α -Cadinol	8.8	1652	1652	a,b,c,d
Cadalene	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			
<i>p</i> -hydroxyacetophenone derivatives	16.5			
Others	0.6			
TOTAL IDENTIFIED	92.9			

^a 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 lipopolisaccharides 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.

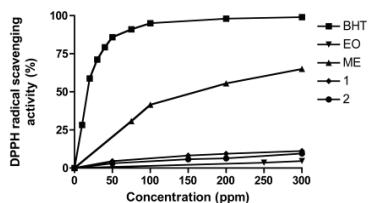


Figure 1: Scavenging effect of essential oil (EO) and methanol extract (ME) of *X. poposum*, compounds **1** and **2** and BHT. Free radical scavenging activity was determined by 2,2-diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl (DPPH) radical assay. BHT was used as a control. Shown is the mean \pm SD of three independent experiments.

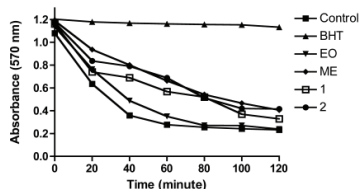


Figure 2: Antioxidant activity of essential oil (EO) and methanol extract (ME) of *X. poposum*, compounds **1** and **2**, and BHT at 1000 ppm in β -carotene-linoleate model system. Shown is the mean \pm SD of three independent experiments.

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 Bartlett, 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 Müeller–Hinton agar (10 mL) and wells (6 mm of diameter) were made on the surface of the media. Different concentrations (50 μ L) of essential oil and ME were placed in the wells. 25 μ L 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.

Statistic 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-Balkan 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.) Rechb. [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 Prapatno (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
<i>p</i> -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
(<i>Z</i>)- 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
Germacone 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
Carbonylic 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, carbonylic compounds and hydrocarbons represented 4.5% (oil from Pi) and 4.7% (oil from Pr) of the total oil.

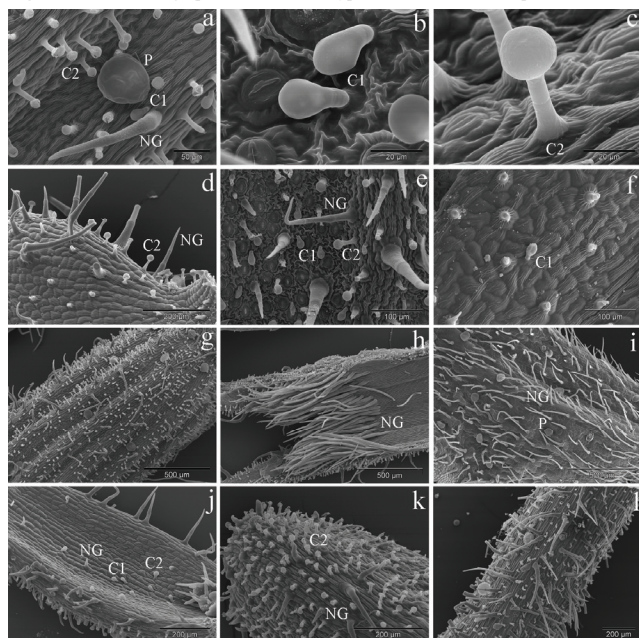
The contents of macroelements (K, Na, Ca, Mg) and trace elements (Al, Fe, Sr, Zn, B, Mn, Ba, Ni, Pb, V, Cr, Cd, Co, Se, Cu, Hg) in *M. pseudocroatica* from localities Pijavičino (Pi) and Prapatno (Pr) are shown in Table 2. Among the investigated macroelements the content of Ca was highest (13223.83 mg/kg 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 traceelements in herba of *M. pseudocroatica*.

Element	Pijavičino		Prapatno	
	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	232.29 ± 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 Prapatno (Pr).

Type	Leaf		Bracteole		Calyx		Corolla		Stem
	Ad	Ab	Ad	Ab	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, calyxes, 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.) Rechb. 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* Šilić 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 Prapatno (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 $2 \text{ g} \pm 0.0005$ of homogenized herbal material were wet digested with concentrated HNO_3 (5 mL) and 30% H_2O_2 (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 CO_2 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 -muurolene 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 hydrodistillation 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	Biotop	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	A	B	C	D	E	A	C	D	E
	RI	Stem	Stem	Stem	Stem	Leaf	Leaf	Leaf	Leaf	Leaf	Flower	Flower	Flower	Flower
α -Thujene	928			0.5	0.7	0.2	0.4	1.0			4.8	7.6	5.9	5.3
α -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							
β -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
α -Phellandrene	1000											0.1		
α -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			
γ -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
α -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
Terpinen-4-ol	1175		5.4	0.5		0.1	1.1	0.4			1.7	1.6		
α -Terpineol	1187										0.1	0.1		
α -Cubebene	1349					0.1	0.2			0.3		0.1		
α -Ylangene	1370					0.1	0.2							
α -Copaene	1375			0.4		0.4	0.9	0.6	0.8	1.0	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.5
<i>E</i> - β -Damascenone	1380						0.3							
β -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
β -Cubebene	1388					0.3	0.5	0.2	0.4	0.6	0.1	0.2		0.3
β -Elemene	1390					0.3				0.3	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1
β -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
β -Copaene	1428			0.4		0.4	0.9	0.5	0.8	0.5	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.4
Geranylacetone	1449									0.3				
Farnesene	1453			0.4		1.9		0.8		1.3	0.3	0.4	0.2	0.5
α -Humulene	1455			0.2	0.8	1.0	1.7	0.5	2.3	1.4	2.0	0.4	1.0	0.7
γ -Murolene	1476			0.6		0.9	2.4	1.0	2.0	1.3	0.2	0.4	0.2	0.7
Germacrene 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
β -Selinene	1487					0.3		0.6	0.8	0.6		0.1		0.1
γ -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		
α -Murolene	1497					0.2	0.5	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.1	0.2		0.1
Germacrene A	1503			0.4	0.7	0.5		0.8	1.4	0.7	0.2		0.2	0.3
γ -Cadinene	1514				0.7	0.5	1.3		1.1	1.0	0.1	0.4	0.2	0.5
δ -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
Salvial-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 μ L. 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.

Separation was accomplished with a HP5-MS fused silica column (30 m x 0.25 mm i.d., film thickness 0.25 μ m). 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 μ L. 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%), geranyl (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 -Copaene, 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
Camphene	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%), <i>p</i> -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%), demethoxyageratochromene (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>lepreurii</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
Geranial	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-pyrroline, 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].

Chemical analysis: GC analysis was accomplished with a HP-5890 series II instrument equipped with HP-wax and HP-5 capillary columns (both 30 m x 0.25 mm, 0.25 μ m film thickness) with the following temperature program; 60°C for 10 min, rising from 5°C/min to 220°C. Both injector and detector temperatures were maintained at 250°C; carrier gas, nitrogen (2 mL/min); detector, FID; ratio, 1:30. The volume injected was 0.5 μ L. The relative proportions of the oil constituents were percentages obtained (% area) by FID peak-area normalization, without the use of response factor.

Gas chromatography-electron ionization mass spectrometry (GC-EIMS) analysis was performed with a Varian CP-3800 gas chromatograph equipped with a HP-5 capillary column (30 m x 0.25 mm; film thickness 0.25 μ m) and a Varian Saturn 2000 ion trap mass detector. Analytical conditions; injector and transfer line temperature were 220°C and 240°C, respectively. Oven temperature programmed from 60°C- 244°C at 3°C/min; carrier gas was helium at a flow rate of 1 mL/min; injection of 0.2 μ L (10% *n*-hexane solution); split ratio 1:30. MS were recorded at 70 eV. The acquisition mass range was 30-300 m/z at a scan rate of 1 scan/s.

Compound identification: Identification of the constituents was based on comparison of the retention times with those of authentic samples, and by comparison of their linear indices with a series of *n*-alkanes. Further identification was also made possible by the use of a MS homemade library built up from pure substances and components of known oils and MS literature data [18, 19].

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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.

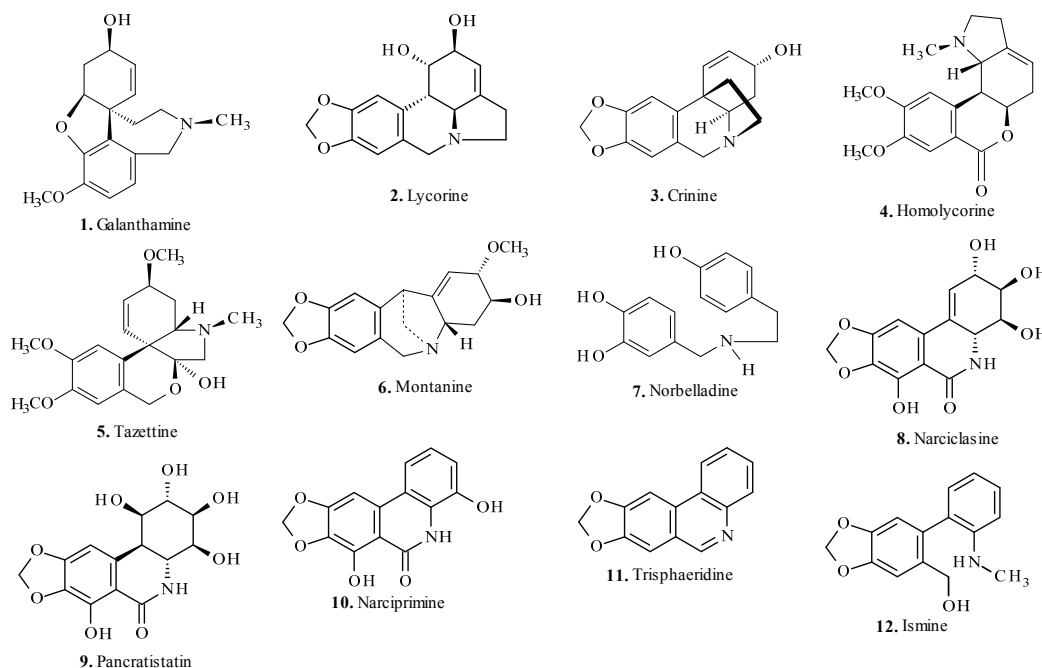
Keywords: Alkaloids, Amaryllidaceae, Anticancer, Crinane, Cytotoxic.

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**.

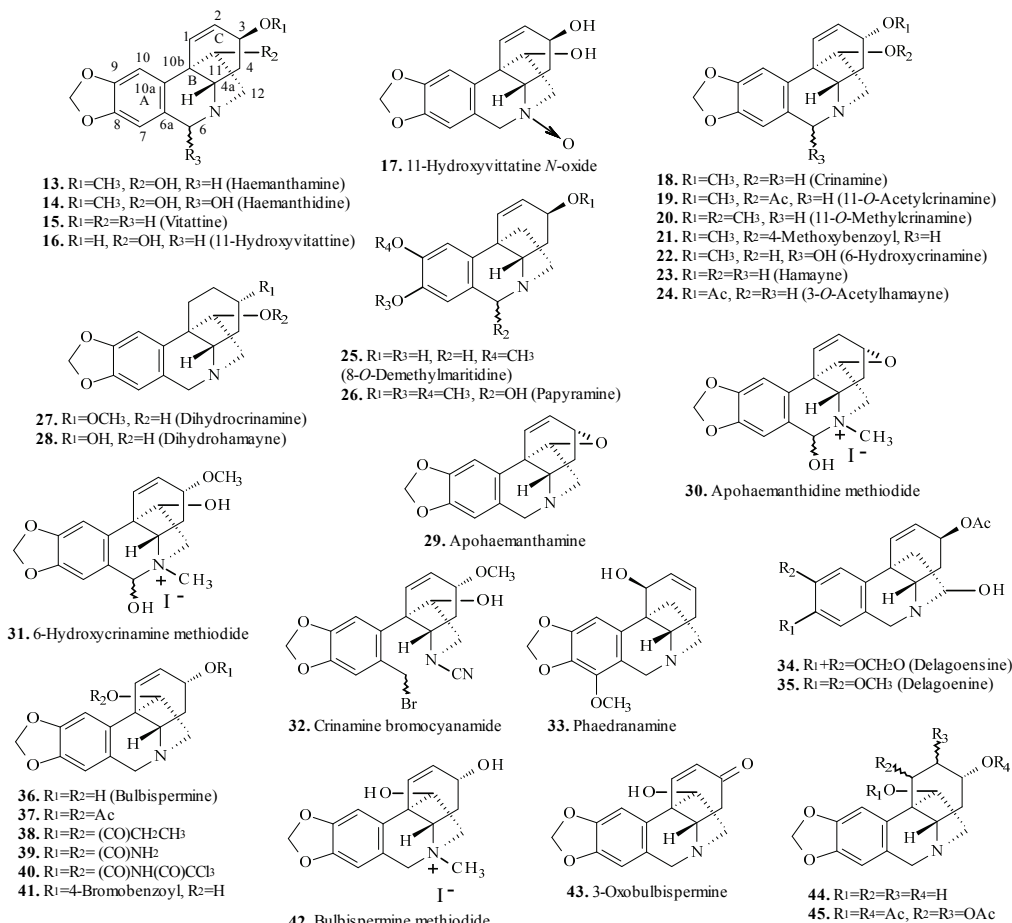
While several reviews have dedicated attention to the cytotoxic properties of the lycorine series of compounds [3e,h,4d,e,6], especially the phenanthridones of the series, a comprehensive overview with the crinine series members as the focal point is absent from the literature. To this extent, we here present a detailed chronological account of such agents within the crinine 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 crinine 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 crinine compounds screened (Tables 1 and 2), the α -crinine 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 crinine 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 crinine compounds; ambelline **47** and undulatine **62** [11]. Of these, only ambelline was active in the murine P-388 lymphocytic leukemia assay (ED₅₀ 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 crinine 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

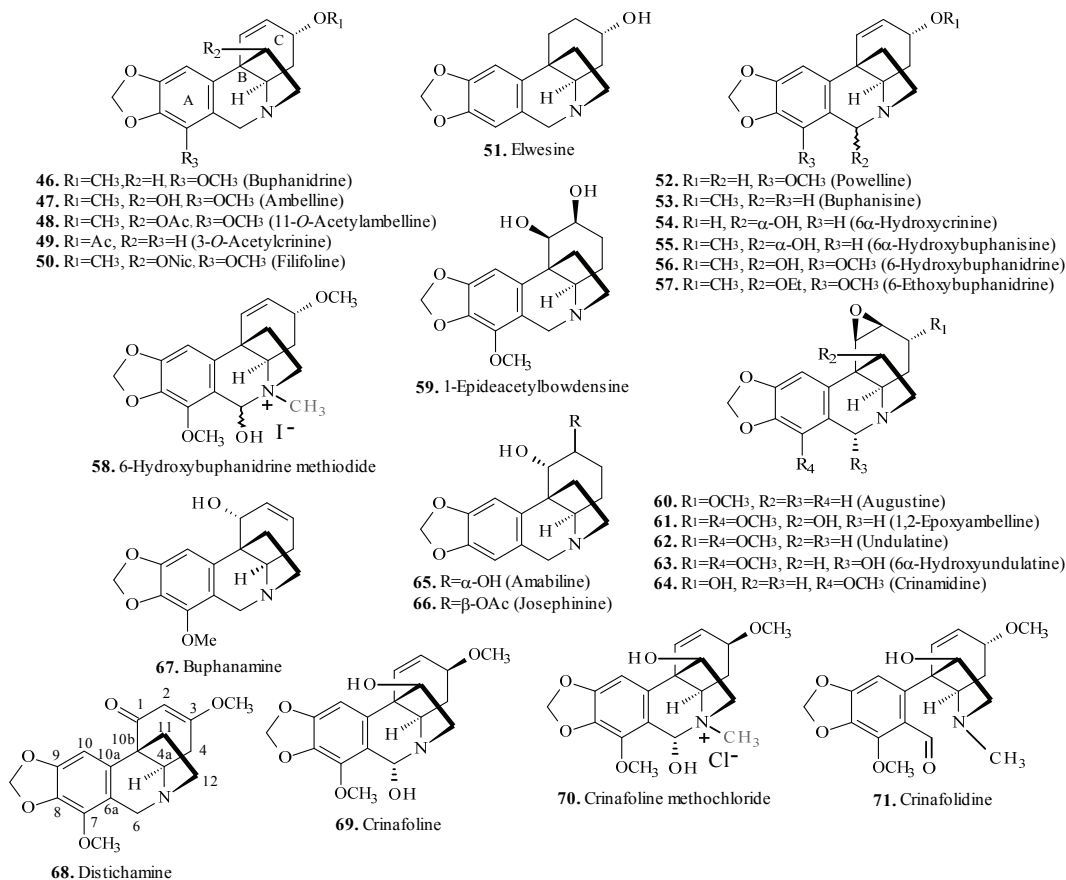
Scheme 2: Cytotoxic α -crinane alkaloids of the Amaryllidaceae.

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 crinine 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 bulbispermum* for activity against human leukemic Molt 4 cells. Of the three crinanes (powelline **52**, 6 α -hydroxycrimine **54** and 6 α -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 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ [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 crinine 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 crimamine **18** were prominent in most cases, with the best response (ED_{50} 0.6 $\mu\text{g/mL}$) observed in human oral epidermoid carcinoma KB cells and viblastine-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 ($\text{ED}_{50} > 20 \mu\text{g/mL}$). Buphanisine **53** and amabiline **65** were conspicuous in that they exhibited ED_{50} values $> 20 \mu\text{g/mL}$ 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 crinine 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 $\mu\text{g/mL}$) and P-388 murine lymphocytic leukemia (ED_{50} 0.4 $\mu\text{g/mL}$) cells. Two years later in 1995, Lin et al. examined *Hymenocallis littoralis* and uncovered *inter alia* the presence of the crinine 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 $\mu\text{g/mL}$, 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]. Buphanidrine **46** and ambelline **47** exhibited low inhibitory interaction ($ED_{50} > 50 \mu\text{g/mL}$) 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 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ in LMTK cells, while papyramine **26** exhibited an ED_{50} of 1.5 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ 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 ($ED_{50} = 1.8 \mu\text{g/mL}$), crinine **3** and ambelline **47** from bulbs of *Brunsvigia littoralis*, as well as their respective synthesized acetyl derivatives **49** and **48** were notably inactive ($ED_{50} > 100 \mu\text{g/mL}$) against BL-6 mouse melanoma cells [19]. We next showed that 6-hydroxy-crinamine **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** ($ED_{50} = 1.8 \mu\text{g/mL}$) and hamayne **23** ($ED_{50} = 9.4 \mu\text{g/mL}$) were markedly more active than the β -crinane 1-epideacetylbowdensine **59** ($ED_{50} > 100 \mu\text{g/mL}$). Furthermore, apohaemanthamine **29**, synthesized during the course of the study from crinamine **18** under strongly acidic conditions, exhibited low inhibitory interaction ($ED_{50} > 100 \mu\text{g/mL}$) [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 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ 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	LS178	LS178mdr	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																			36
6-Hydroxycrinamine	22												54.5									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 (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).

lymphoma cells, exhibiting IC₅₀ values of 0.3 and 0.40 μ 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

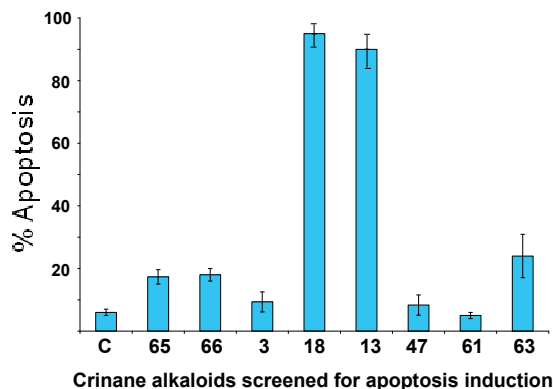


Figure 1: Apoptotic indices determined in rat hepatoma (5123tc) cells showing the efficacy of crinamine **18** and haemanthamine **13** at 25 μ M after a 48 h treatment (after McNulty et al., 2007).²⁶

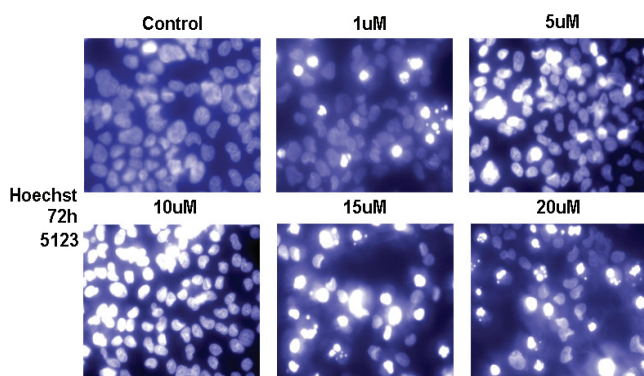


Figure 2: Hoechst staining of 5123tc cells 72 h after treatment with various concentrations of crinamine **18**. Apoptotic nuclei appear brighter and more fragmented than healthy nuclei (seen in control cells) (after McNulty et al., 2007).²⁶

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 6 α -hydroxybuphanidrine, 6 α -methoxybuphanidrine, 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 μ M [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 μ M and 12.5 μ M for haemanthamine and crinamine (Figure 3) [26]. Of the other compounds screened, only the activity of 6 α -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 RFX393 cells with IC₅₀ values of 21.91, 15.88 and 29.57 μ g/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 RFX393 cells (2.93 μ g/mL), while that for the dichloromethane extract was 0.62 μ g/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 μ M [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 μ M 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 μ g/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 -crinine 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-Acetylbambelline	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	5 ^d	99 ^c	79 ^c						3e,f,15,31,36	
6α-Hydroxycrinine	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	
Hydroxyundulatin	63															25 ^d						26	
Crinamidine	64																		na	na	na	24	
Amabiline	65										>20 ^b					17 ^d						15,26	
Josephine	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						>100	>100		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							>100	>100		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	
Undulatin	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																		>100	>100		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 ^c			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), 3T3 (mouse embryonic fibroblast), 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).

crinine 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 -crinine vittatine **15** in Jurkat cells and for highlighting further structural features attending the crinine 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 Goietsenoven 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 crinine 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, phaedaranamine **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 crinine anticancer pharmacophore.

Secondly, bulbs of *Crinum zeylanicum* were shown to contain *inter alia* the crinine 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 crinine 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 crinine 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

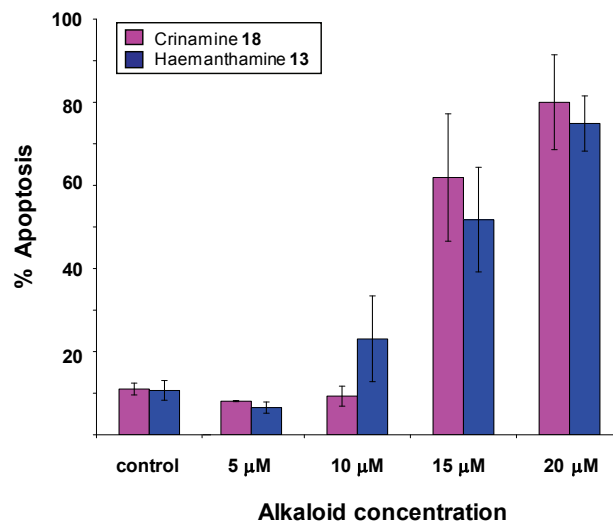


Figure 3: Apoptosis responses in 5123tc cells treated over 72 h with various concentrations of crinamine and haemanthamine. Effective dose (ED_{50}) was calculated as the concentration inducing apoptosis in 50% of cells (after McNulty et al., 2007).²⁶

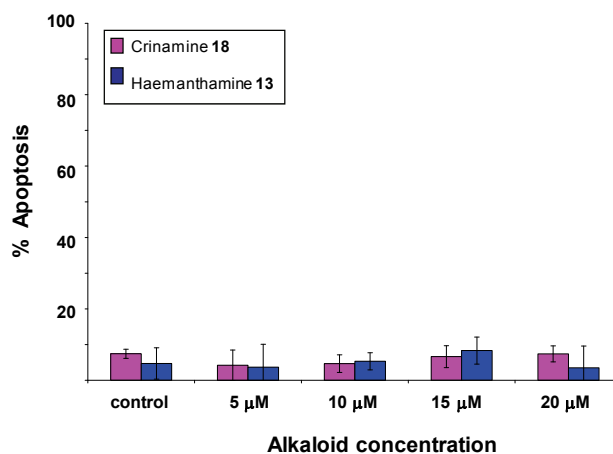


Figure 4: Normal human embryonic kidney (293t) cells are unaffected by treatment with various doses of crinamine and haemanthamine after 72 h (after McNulty et al., 2007).²⁶

very recently revealed the antiproliferative properties of the rare Amaryllidaceae crinine 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- G_1 fraction as a measure of the proportion of apoptotic cells [38]. The analysis showed that treatment with distichamine **68** increased the proportion of G_2/M phase cells in a dose-dependent manner, with concomitant reductions in the proportion of G_0/G_1 and S cells (Figure 5) [38]. In addition, the proportion of cells with sub- G_1 amounts of DNA (apoptotic cells) increased (up to 23.7 %) following a 24 h

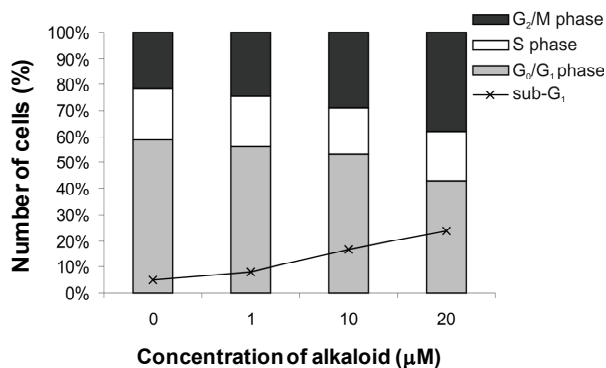


Figure 5: Histograms obtained by flow cytometric analysis showing the distributions of CEM cells across the G₀/G₁, S and G₂/M phases of the cell cycle after 24 h treatment with distichamine **68**, and the sub-G₁ fraction of cells (relative to untreated controls). The bars show the percentage of cells 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 crinine apoptosis-inducing pharmacophore. It now appears that a *sp*²-hybridised C-3 centre is tolerated at the active site, since most other cytotoxic crinine 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].

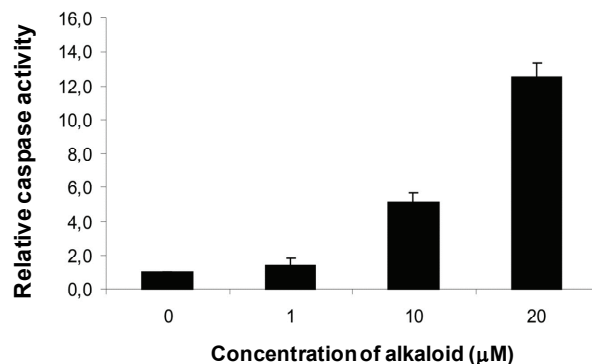


Figure 6: Increases in the activities of caspase-3 and 7 in CEM cells treated with distichamine **68** for 24 h, relative to untreated controls. The data shown represent averages from at least three independent experiments performed in triplicate (after Nair et al., 2012).³⁸

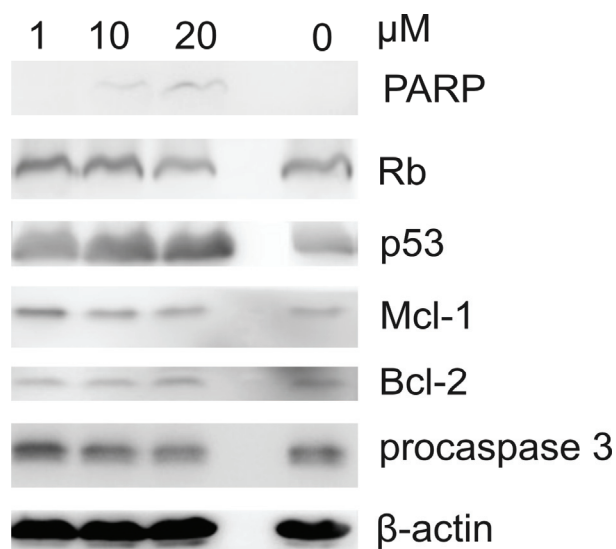


Figure 7: Western blot analysis of apoptosis-related proteins (PARP fragment 89 kDa, Rb, p53, Mcl-1, Bcl-2 and procaspase 3) in leukemia (CEM) cells treated with distichamine **68** compared to their expression in untreated control cells. The expression of β-actin was monitored as a protein loading control (after Nair et al., 2012).³⁸

In summary, a more comprehensive view has emerged of crinine 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 crinine 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 crinine 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 crinine 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 ED_{50} of 0.3 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ 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 ED_{50} of 0.6 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ 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 methylenedioxyphenyl 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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Natural Product Communications

Contents of Volume 7 2012

Number 1

New Iridoid from Aerial Parts of <i>Mussaenda roxburghii</i> Utpal Chandra De, Ranjit Ghosh, Sanjib Chowdhury and Biswanath Dinda	1
A New Megastigmane Glycoside, Phoenixoside A, from <i>Phoenix dactylifera</i> Sumbul Azmat, Aqib Zahoor, Rehana Ifzal, Viqar Uddin Ahmad and Faryal Vali Mohammed	3
New 3,4-Seco-ent-kaurene Dimers from <i>Croton micans</i> Elsa Mateu, Katuska Chavez, Ricarda Riina, Reinaldo S. Compagnone, Franco Delle Monache and Alirica I. Suárez	5
Diacarperoxide S, New Norterpene Cyclic Peroxide from the Sponge <i>Diacarnus megaspinorhabdosa</i> Sabrin R. M. Ibrahim	9
Constituents of Kenyan <i>Gardenia volkensii</i> Esther W. Kinuthia, Moses K. Langat, Elizabeth M. Mwangi and Peter K. Cheplogoi	13
Oral Administration of <i>Cimicifuga racemosa</i> Extract Attenuates Immobilization Stress-Induced Reactions Isao Nadaoka, Kazuki Watanabe, Masaaki Yasue, Manabu Sami, Yasushi Kitagawa and Yoshihiro Mimaki	15
Complete NMR Assignments of Tubulosine Venkata Siva Satyanarayana Kantamreddi and Colin W. Wright	19
Application of Mixture Analysis to Crude Materials from Natural Resources (III)^[1]: NMR Spectral Studies to Analyze Chalcones from <i>Angelica keiskei</i> Eriko Fukuda, Masaki Baba, Yoshihiro Uesawa, Osamu Kamo, Kazunori Arifuku, Koji Tsubono and Yoshihito Okada	21
A Validated Chromatographic Method for the Determination of Flavonoids in <i>Copaifera langsdorffii</i> by HPLC João Paulo B. de Sousa, Ana Paula S. Brancalion, Milton G. Júnior and Jairo K. Bastos	25
Luteolin Induces Mitochondria-dependent Apoptosis in Human Lung Adenocarcinoma Cell Qing Chen, Shengming Liu, Jinghong Chen, Qianqian Zhang, Shijie Lin, Zhiming Chen and Jianwei Jiang	29
Diuretic Activity of <i>Lophophytum leandri</i> Antonio Bracci, Anibal G. Amat, Francesco Maione, Carla Cicala, Nicola Mascolo and Vincenzo De Feo	33
Evaluation of the Hypocholesterolemic Effect and Phytochemical Screening of the Hydroethanolic Extract of <i>Crataegus aronia</i> from Jordan Entisar K. Al-Hallaq, Fatma U. Afifi and Shtaywy S. Abdalla	35
Secondary Metabolites, Cytotoxic Response by Neutral Red Retention and Protective Effect Against H₂O₂ Induced Cytotoxicity of <i>Sedum caespitosum</i> Didem Şöhretoğlu and Suna Sabuncuoğlu	39
Effect of <i>Hibiscus sabdariffa</i> and its Anthocyanins on some Reproductive Aspects in Rats Badreldin H. Ali, Intisar Al-Lawati, Sumyia Beegam, Amal Ziada, Suhail Al salam, Abderrahim Nemmar and Gerald Blunden	41
New Galloyl Derivative from Winged Sumac (<i>Rhus copallinum</i>) Fruit Hang Ma, Tao Yuan, Antonio González-Sarrias, Liya Li, Maxwell E. Edmonds and Navindra P. Seeram	45
Phytochemical Analysis and Antioxidant Capacity of BM-21, a Bioactive Extract Rich in Polyphenolic Metabolites from the Sea Grass <i>Thalassia testudinum</i> Erik L. Regalado, Roberto Menendez, Olga Valdés, Ruth A. Morales, Abilio Laguna, Olivier P. Thomas, Yasnay Hernandez, Clara Nogueiras and Anake Kijjoa	47
Herbicidal Activity of Curvulinic Acid Isolated from <i>Nimbya alternantherae</i> Jun Li, Yonghao Ye, Xiaoyang Wang and Liyao Dong	51
Xanthones with Antiproliferative Effects on Prostate Cancer Cells from the Stem Bark of <i>Garcinia xanthochymus</i> Feng Ji, Zhanlin Li, Gaofeng Liu, Shengli Niu, Nan Zhao, Xiaoqiu Liu and Huiming Hua	53
Aromatic Hydroxyl Group Plays a Critical Role in Antibacterial Activity of the Curcumin Analogues Mi Kyoung Kim, Jun Cheol Park and Youhoon Chong	57
Analysis of Danshen and Twelve Related <i>Salvia</i> Species Luyang Lu, Yuan Liu, Zhifeng Zhang and Hao Zhang	59
Meliloester, a New Melilotic Ester from <i>Melilotus alba</i> Rasheeda Khatoon, Nikhat Saba, Aqib Zahoor, Shazia Summer and Viqar Uddin Ahmad	61
A New Long-Chain Unsaturated Ester and Other Constituents of <i>Hypericum tomentosum</i> Ouassila Touafek, Zahia Kabouche, Joël Boustie and Christian Bruneau	63
Microbial Conversion of Tomato by a Plant Pathogenic Bacterium <i>Pectobacterium atrosepticum</i>: a Plant-Microbial Approach to Control Pathogenic <i>Candida</i> Species Vivek K. Bajpai, Sun Chul Kang, Soon-Gu Lee and Kwang-Hyun Baek	65
Antibacterial and Antiparasitic Effects of <i>Bothropoides lutzi</i> venom Ramon R.P.B. de Menezes, Alba F. C. Torres, Thiala S. J. da Silva, Daniel F. de Sousa, Danya B. Lima, Diva B. Norjosa, Nádia A. P. Nogueira, Maria F. Oliveira, Márcia R. de Oliveira, Helena S. A. Monteiro and Alice M. C. Martins	71

Ternary Liquid-Liquid Equilibria Measurement for Epoxidized Soybean Oil + Acetic Acid + Water Shuang-Fei Cai, Li-Sheng Wang, Guo-Qing Yan, Yi Li, Yun-Xia Feng and Rong-Gang Linghu	75
Chemical Constituents of the Essential Oil from Aerial Parts and Fruit of <i>Anisosciadium orientale</i> Vahid Rowshan, Ahmad Hatami, Atefeh Bahmanzadegan and Mahnaz Yazdani	79
GC-MS Analysis of <i>Ziziphora clinopodioides</i> Essential Oil from North Xinjiang, China Xiaoying Zhou, Qian Yu, Haiyan Gong and Shuge Tian	81
Analysis of the Essential Oil of <i>Teucrium polium</i> ssp. <i>capitatum</i> from the Balkan Peninsula Violeta Mitić, Olga Jovanović, Vesna Stankov-Jovanović, Bojan Zlatkovic and Gordana Stojanovic	83
Composition of the Essential Oil of <i>Pogostemon travancoricus</i> var. <i>travancoricus</i> Ramar Murugan and Gopal Rao Mallavarapu	87
Liquid CO₂ Extraction of <i>Jasminum grandiflorum</i> and Comparison with Conventional Processes Om Prakash, Deeptanjali Sahoo and Prasant Kumar Rout	89
Chemical Composition of Volatile Oils from the Pericarps of Indian Sandalwood (<i>Santalum album</i>) by Different Extraction Methods Xin Hua Zhang, Jaime A. Teixeira da Silva, Yong Xia Jia, Jie Tang Zhao and Guo Hua Ma	93
Fast Quality Assessment of German Chamomile (<i>Matricaria chamomilla</i> L.) by Headspace Solid-Phase Microextraction: Influence of Flower Development Stage Mohammad Rafieiohossaini, An Adams, Hamid Sodaeezadeh, Patrick Van Damme and Norbert De Kimpe	97
Floral Scent Composition of <i>Plumeria tuberculata</i> Analyzed by HS-SPME Disnelys Báez, Jorge A. Pino and Diego Morales	101
Identification and Quantification of the Antimicrobial Components of a Citrus Essential Oil Vapor Carol A. Phillips, Konstantinos Gkatzionis, Katie Laird, Jodie Score, Avinash Kant and Mark D. Fielder	103
Composition, Antioxidant and Antimicrobial Activities of the Leaf Essential Oil of <i>Machilus japonica</i> from Taiwan Chen-Lung Ho and Yu-Chang Su	109
Chemical Composition, Antiradical, Antiradical and Anticholinesterase activity of the Essential Oil of <i>Pulicaria stephanocarpa</i> from Soqatra Nasser A. Awadh Ali, Rebecca A. Crouch, Mohamed A. Al-Fatimi, Norbert Arnold, Axel Teichert, William N. Setzer and Ludger Wessjohann	113
Composition of the Essential Oils and Antibacterial Activities of <i>Hymenocrater yazdianus</i>, <i>Stachys obtusirena</i> and <i>Nepeta asterotricha</i> Three Labiatae Herbs Growing Wild in Iran Shiva Masoudi, Abdolhossein Rustaiyan, Razieh Mohebat and Mohammad Hossein Mosslemine	117
Antibacterial Activities of Essential Oils Extracted from Leaves of <i>Murraya koenigii</i> by Solvent-Free Microwave Extraction and Hydro-Distillation Naciye Erkan, Zhou Tao, H. P. Vasantha Rupasinghe, Burcu Uysal and Birsen S. Oksal	121
Chemical Composition, Antifungal and Herbicidal Effects of Essential oil Isolated from <i>Chersodoma argentina</i> (Asteraceae) Rosana Alarcón, Soledad Ocampos, Adriana Pacciaroni and Virginia Sosa	125
Essential Oil Composition and Acaricidal Activity of <i>Schinus terebinthifolius</i> from Atlantic Forest of Pernambuco, Brazil against <i>Tetranychus urticae</i> Aline Fonseca do Nascimento, Claudio Augusto Gomes da Camara, Marcilio Martins de Moraes and Clécio Souza Ramos	129
Evaluation of the Anti-<i>Leishmania major</i> Activity of <i>Satureja bakhtiarica</i> Essential Oil in vitro Ghasem Mohammadpour, Eisa Tahmasbpour Marzony and Mahin Farahmand	133
<i>Spartium junceum</i> Aromatic Water: Chemical Composition and Antitumor activity Teresa Cerchiara, Serafina V. Straface, Giuseppe Chidichimo, Emilia L. Belsito, Angelo Liguori, Barbara Luppi, Federica Bigucci and Vittorio Zecchi	137

Additions/Corections

The Chemical Composition of the Essential Oils of <i>Euphorbia caracasana</i> and <i>E. cotinifolia</i> (Euphorbiaceae) from Venezuela Janne Rojas, Shirley Baldovino, Marietta Vizcaya, Luis B. Rojas and Antonio Morales <i>Natural Product Communications</i> , 4 (4), 571 (2009)	141
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Number 2

Antiviral Furanosquiterpenes from <i>Commiphora erythraea</i> Elio Cenci, Federica Messina, Elisabetta Rossi, Francesco Epifano and Maria Carla Marcotullio	143
Sesquiterpenes from the Inner Bark of the Silver Birch and the Paper Birch Roderick J. Weston and Gerald J. Smith	145
Two New Ballonigrin-type Diterpenoids from the Roots of <i>Ballota limbata</i> Umar Farooq, Afsar Khan, Ather Farooq Khan, Saleha Suleman Khan, Rizwana Sarwar, Viqar Uddin Ahmad and Amir Waseem	149
A Novel Anticancer Diterpenoid from <i>Jatropha gossypifolia</i> Abiodun Falodun, Udo Kragl, Serge-Mithérand Tengho Touem, Alexander Villinger, Thomas Fahrenwaldt and Peter Langer	151
Antihpatitis B Virus Constituents of <i>Solanum erianthum</i> Shen-Chieh Chou, Tsurng-Juhn Huang, En-Hung Lin, Chun-Huei Huang and Chang-Hung Chou	153
Physical Properties and Molecular Conformations of Indole Alkaloids and Model Protein Interactions – Theoretical vs. Experimental Study Bojidarka Ivanova and Michael Spiteller	157

Antiparasitic and Anticancer Constituents of the Endophytic Fungus <i>Aspergillus</i> sp. strain F1544	
Sergio Martinez-Luis, Lilia Cherigo, Elizabeth Arnold, Carmenza Spadafora, William H. Gerwick and Luis Cubilla-Rios	165
Chemical and Bioactivity Evaluation of the Bark of <i>Neonauclea purpurea</i>	
Netiya Karaket, Kanyaratt Supaibulwatana, Supatsara Ounsuk, Valérie Bultel-Poncé, Van Cuong Pham and Bernard Bodo	169
Antifeedants from Chinese Medicinal Herb, <i>Erythrina variegata</i> var. <i>orientalis</i>, Against Maize Weevil <i>Sitophilus zeamais</i>	
Zhi Long Liu, Sha Sha Chu, Guo Hua Jiang and Shao Liang Liu	171
Kaempferol Tri- and Tetraglycosides from the Flowers of <i>Clematis</i> Cultivar	
Keisuke Sakaguchi, Junichi Kitajima and Tsukasa Iwashina	173
Flowers from <i>Kalanchoe pinnata</i> are a Rich Source of T Cell-Suppressive Flavonoids	
Marcela A. S. Coutinho, Michelle F. Muzitano, Elaine A. Cruz, Maria C. Bergonzi, Carlos R. Kaiser, Luzineide W. Tinoco, Anna R. Bilia, Franco F. Vincieri, Bartira Rossi-Bergmann and Sônia S. Costa	175
Novel Flavanes from <i>Livistona halongensis</i>	
Tran Van Loc, Pham Duc Thang, Nguyen The Anh, Pham Thi Ninh, Trinh Thi Thuy and Tran Van Sung	179
Chemical Profiling of Constituents of <i>Smilacis glabrae</i> Using Ultra-high Pressure Liquid Chromatography Coupled with LTQ Orbitrap Mass Spectrometry	
Xiong Li, Yu Feng Zhang, Liu Yang, Yi Feng, Yuan Hui Deng, Yi Ming Liu and Xing Zeng	181
Phenolic Constituents from the Heartwood of <i>Artocarpus altilis</i> and their Tyrosinase Inhibitory Activity	
Mai Ha Khoa Nguyen, Hai Xuan Nguyen, Mai Thanh Thi Nguyen and Nhan Trung Nguyen	185
Chemical Constituents of two Sages with Free Radical Scavenging Activity	
Omur L. Demirezer, Perihan Gurbuz, Ayşe Kuruuzum-Uz, Zuhail Guvenalp Cavit Kazaz and Ali A. Donmez	187
Synthesis of Uliginosins A and B	
George A. Kraus and Feng Liu	191
Eucleanal: A New Naphthalene Derivative from <i>Euclea divinorum</i>	
Margaret Mwihaki Ng'ang'a, Hidayat Hussain, Sumesh Chhabra, Caroline Langat-Thoruwa, Karsten Krohn, Javid Hussain, Ahmed Al-Harrasi and Ivan Robert Green	193
A Double-blind, Randomized, Clinical Trial on the Antileishmanial Activity of a <i>Morinda citrifolia</i> (Noni) Stem Extract and its Major Constituents	
Fouzia A. Sattar, Fayaz Ahmed, Nadeem Ahmed, Samina A. Sattar, Muhammad A. K. Malghani and Muhammad I. Choudhary	195
Biotransformation of Gambogenic Acid by <i>Chaetomium globosum</i> CICC 2445	
Si-Jia Tao, Yang Wang, Xing Zhang, Shu-Hong Guan and De-An Guo	197
Between Species Diversity of <i>Hypericum perforatum</i> and <i>H. maculatum</i> by the Content of Bioactive Compounds	
Edita Bagdonaite, Valdimaras Janulis, Liudas Ivanauskas and Juozas Labokas	199
Total Phenolic Content and Antioxidant Activity of <i>Salvia</i> spp. Exudates	
Laura Giamperi, Anahi Bucchini, Angela Bisio, Emanuela Giacomelli, Giovanni Romussi and Donata Ricci	201
An Efficient Microwave Assisted Extraction of Phenolic Compounds and Antioxidant Potential of <i>Ginkgo biloba</i>	
Pushpinder Kaur, Abha Chaudhary, Bikram Singh and Gopichand	203
Synthesis and Anti-tumor Activity Evaluation of Rhein-Aloe Emodin Hybrid Molecule	
Ye-fei Yuan, Xiang-yu Hu, Ying He and Jia-gang Deng	207
A New Peptide Isolated from a Marine Derived <i>Streptomyces bacillaris</i>	
Youcai Hu and John B. MacMillan	211
Biological Activity and Tissue Specific Accumulation of Fluorescently Labeled Methyl Jasmonate	
Naoki Kitaoka, Yuzou Sano, Seizo Fujikawa, Kensuke Nabeta and Hideyuki Matsuura	215
A New Resin Glycoside from <i>Ipomoea maxima</i>	
Kazune Koryudzu, Midori A. Arai, Firoj Ahmed, Samir K. Sadhu and Masami Ishibashi	219
Hypoglycemic Constituents of <i>Gynura divaricata</i> subsp. <i>formosana</i>	
Shen-Chieh Chou, Lee-Ming Chuang and Shoei-Sheng Lee	221
Constituents of South Indian Vetiver Oils	
Gopal Rao Mallavarapu, Kodakandla V. Syamasundar, S. Ramesh and Bhaskaruni R. Rajeswara Rao	223
Composition of Seed Essential Oils of <i>Rhododendron tomentosum</i>	
Asta Judzentiene, Rita Butkiene, Jurga Budiene, Félix Tomi and Joseph Casanova	227
The Leaf Essential Oils of Five Vietnamese <i>Desmos</i> Species (Annonaceae)	
Do Ngoc Dai, Tran Minh Hoi, Tran Dinh Thang and Isiaka A. Ogunwande	231
Essential Oil Composition of <i>Cachrys cristata</i> – a rare and Endangered Species in the Flora of Serbia	
Jelena S. Matejić, Ana M. Džamić, Mihailo S. Ristić, Vladimir N. Randelović and Petar D. Marin	235
Volatiles from <i>Magnolia grandiflora</i> Flowers: Comparative Analysis by Simultaneous Distillation-Extraction and Solid Phase Microextraction	
Disnelys Báez, Jorge A. Pino and Diego Morales	237
Essential Oil Composition, Cytotoxic and Antibacterial Activities of Five <i>Etilingera</i> Species from Borneo	
Charles Santhanaraju Vairappan, Thilaghavani Nagappan and Kishneth Palaniveloo	239
Essential Oil Composition and Antibacterial Activity of <i>Monticalia greenmaniana</i> (Asteraceae)	
José Cárdenas, Janne Rojas, Luís Rojas-Fermin, María Lucena and Alexis Buitrago	243
Bioactivity of the Essential Oil of an Argentine Collection of <i>Acanthospermum hispidum</i> (Asteraceae)	
Mariana Alva, Susana Popich, Susana Borkosky, Elena Cartagena and Alicia Bardón	245
Antibacterial Activity and Comparison of the Volatile Constituents Obtained by Several Extraction Methods from the Flowers, Stems and Leaves of <i>Astrodaucus orientalis</i>	
Marzieh Torabbeigi, Parviz Abrooomand Azar, Anousheh Sharifan and Zahra Aghaei Meibodi	249

<i>In vitro</i> Inhibitory Activity of Essential Oil Vapors against <i>Ascosphaera apis</i> Pavel Kloucek, Jakub Smid, Jaroslav Flesar, Jaroslav Havlik, Dalibor Titera, Vojtech Rada, Ondrej Drabek and Ladislav Kokoska	253
Chemical Composition and Biological Activity of Essential Oil from <i>Pulicaria undulata</i> from Yemen Nasser A. Awadh Ali, Farukh S. Sharopov, Mehdi Alhaj, Gabrielle M. Hill, Andrea Porzel, Norbert Arnold, William N. Setzer, Jürgen Schmidt and Ludger Wessjohann	257
Composition, Antioxidant, Antimicrobial and Anti-wood-decay Fungal Activities of the Twig Essential Oil of <i>Taiwania cryptomerioides</i> from Taiwan Chen-Lung Ho, Su- Sing Yang, Tsong-Min Chang and Yu-Chang Su	261
Essential Oil from the Leaves of <i>Annona vepretorum</i>: Chemical Composition and Bioactivity Emmanuel Vilaça Costa, Lívia Macedo Dutra, Paulo Cesar de Lima Nogueira, Valéria Regina de Souza Moraes, Marcos José Salvador, Luis Henrique Gonzaga Ribeiro and Fernanda Ramos Gadelha	265
Chemical Composition and Insecticidal Activity of the Essential Oil of <i>Artemisia eriopoda</i> Against Maize Weevil, <i>Sitophilus zeamais</i> Guo Hua Jiang, Quan Ru Liu, Sha Sha Chu and Zhi Long Liu	267
The Chemical Composition of the Essential Oils of <i>Cirsium palustre</i> and <i>C. rivulare</i> and their Antiproliferative Effect Jolanta Nazaruk, Ewa Karna and Danuta Kalembe	269
<u>Review/Account</u>	
Phytotherapy of Alcoholism Michał Tomczyk, Marijana Zovko-Končić and Lech Chrostek	273

Number 3

Efficient Preparation of Incensole and Incensole Acetate, and Quantification of These Bioactive Diterpenes in <i>Boswellia papyrifera</i> by a RP-DAD-HPLC Method Michael Paul and Johann Jauch	283
A Comparison Investigation on the Solubilization of Betulin and Betulinic Acid in Cyclodextrin Derivatives Hai Ming Wang, Codruta M. Șoica and Gerhard Wenz	289
Two New Antimicrobial Metabolites from the Endophytic Fungus, <i>Seimatosporium</i> sp. Hidayat Hussain, Karsten Krohn, Barbara Schulz, Siegfried Draeger, Mamona Nazir and Muhammad Saleem	293
Simulation of Intramolecular Hydrogen Bond Dynamics in Manzamine A as a Sensitive Test for Charge Distribution Quality Dmitry A. Shulga, Dmitry I. Osolodkin, Vladimir A. Palyulin and Nikolay S. Zefirov	295
A Quinoline Based bis-Urea Receptor for Anions: A Selective Receptor for Hydrogen Sulfate Tiffany H. Russ, Avijit Pramanik, Maryam E. Khansari, Bryan M. Wong and Md. Alamgir Hossain	301
DNA Binding Studies of Vinca Alkaloids: Experimental and Computational Evidence Prateek Pandya, Surendra P. Gupta, Kumud Pandav, Ritu Barthwal, B. Jayaram and Surat Kumar	305
Natural Flavonoids Interact with Dinitrobenzene System in Aprotic Media: An Electrochemical Probing Nasima Arshad, Naveed K. Janjua, Athar Y. Khan, Azra Yaqub, Torsten Burkholz and Claus Jacob	311
Live Cell Imaging of a Fluorescent Gentamicin Conjugate Jorge O. Escobedo, Yu-Hsuan Chu, Qi Wang, Peter S. Steyger and Robert M. Strongin	317
Molecular Recognition of Carbohydrates: Evaluation of the Binding Properties of Pyrazole-based receptors and their Comparison with Imidazole- and Indole-based Systems Claudia Sonnenberg, André Hartmann and Monika Mazik	321
Transformations of Griseofulvin in Strong Acidic Conditions – Crystal Structures of 2'-Demethylgriseofulvin and Dimerized Griseofulvin Barbara Leśniewska, Said Jebors, Anthony W. Coleman and Kinga Suwińska	327
Rapid Acyl Migration Between Pyrogallyl 1,2- and 1,3-Dipivaloates Yaming Shan, Jimmy (Jingyue) Liu, Nigam P. Rath and George W. Gokel	333
Toward Engineering Intra-Receptor Interactions Into Bis(crown ethers) Martin R. Krause and Stefan Kubik	337
Monitoring Stepwise Proteolytic Degradation of Peptides by Supramolecular Domino Tandem Assays and Mass Spectrometry for Trypsin and Leucine Aminopeptidase Garima Ghale, Nikolai Kuhnert and Werner M. Nau	343
Intracellular Localization of PNA in Human Cells upon its Introduction by Electroporation Eri Noguchi, Narumi Shigi and Makoto Komiyama	349
Fliposomes: pH-controlled Release from Liposomes Containing New <i>trans</i>-2-Morpholinocyclohexanol-based Amphiphiles that Perform a Conformational Flip and Trigger an Instant Cargo Release upon Acidification Yu Zheng, Xin Liu, Nataliya M. Samoshina, Vyacheslav A. Chertkov, Andreas H. Franz, Xin Guo and Vyacheslav V. Samoshin	353
Competition of Ester, Amide, Ether, Carbonate, Alcohol and Epoxide Ligands in the Dirhodium Experiment (Chiral Discrimination by NMR Spectroscopy) Jens T. Mattiza, Vera Meyer, Gülsüm Özüdüru, Tanja Heine, Joerg Fohrer and Helmut Duddeck	359
Synthesis of Acetylene Bridged Germanium Phthalocyanines Felicitas Plenzig, Alexey Lyubimtsev and Michael Hanack	363
Host-Guest Chemistry of Alkaloids Anatoly K. Yatsimirsky	369

Proanthocyanidins: Oligomeric Structures with Unique Bio-chemical Properties and Great Therapeutic Promise Zhanjie Xu, Peng Du, Peter Meiser and Claus Jacob	381
Aurones: Interesting Natural and Synthetic Compounds with Emerging Biological Potential Clemens Zwergel, François Gaascht, Sergio Valente, Marc Diederich, Denyse Bagrel and Gilbert Kirsch	389
Sulfur and Sulfur Compounds in Plant Defence Ifeanyi D. Nwachukwu, Alan J. Slusarenko and Martin C. H. Gruhlke	395
The Effect of Diallyl Polysulfanes on Cellular Signaling Cascades Mathias Montenarh and Nathaniel. E. B. Saidu	401
Interactions of Calix[n]arenes with Nucleic Acids Miao Li, Max Sena Peters and Thomas Schrader	409

Number 4

Determination of the Absolute Stereochemistry of Limonene and α-Santalol by Raman Optical Activity Spectroscopy Akira Sakamoto, Nao Ohya, Toshio Hasegawa, Hiroaki Izumi, Nakako Tokita and Yoshiaki Hamada	419
Four New Eremophilane-Type Alcohols from <i>Cremanthodium helianthus</i> Collected in China Yoshinori Saito, Mayu Ichihara, Yasuko Okamoto, Xun Gong, Chiaki Kuroda and Motoo Tori	423
Culcitiolides A-D, Four New Eremophilane-Type Sesquiterpene Derivatives from <i>Senecio culcitioides</i> Hiroshi Nozaki, Ken-ichiro Hayashi, Mikiko Kawai, Taichi Mitsui, Masahiro Kido, Hiroyuki Tani, Daisuke Takaoka, Hidemitsu Uno, Susumu Ohira, Atsuto Kuboki and Nobuyasu Matsuura	427
Complex Diversity in <i>Ligularia kanaitzensis</i> Anna Shimizu, Yurika Suzuki, Atsushi Torihata, Ryo Hanai, Yoshinori Saito, Motoo Tori, Xun Gong, and Chiaki Kuroda	431
Chemical Constituents from <i>Farfugium japonicum</i> var. <i>formosanum</i> Sung-Fei Hsieh, Tain-Jye Hsieh, Mohamed El-Shazly, Ying-Chi Du, Chin-Chung Wu, Tsong-Long Hwang, Yang-Chang Wu and Fang-Rong Chang	435
Transannular Cyclization of (4S,5S)-Germacrone-4,5-epoxide into Guaiane and Secoguaiane-type Sesquiterpenes Masanori Kuroyanagi, Osamu Shiota, Setsuko Sekita and Takahisa Nakane	441
Four New Guaianolides and Acetylenic Alcohol from <i>Saussurea katochaete</i> Collected in China Yoshinori Saito, Yuko Iwamoto, Yasuko Okamoto, Xun Gong, Chiaki Kuroda and Motoo Tori	447
Four New Bisabolane-type Sesquiterpenes from <i>Ligularia lankongensis</i> Hiroshi Hirota, Yurie Horiguchi, Satoru Kawaii, Chiaki Kuroda, Ryo Hanai and Xun Gong	451
Enantioselective Synthesis of the Bisabolane Sesquiterpene (+)-1-Hydroxy-1,3,5-bisabolatrien-10-one and Revision of its Absolute Configuration Stefano Serra	455
Stereoselective Synthesis of Bicyclo[3.1.1]heptane Derivatives via Intramolecular Photocycloaddition Reaction Kiyoshi Honda, Mari Konishi, Manabu Kawai, Akihisa Yamada, Yasuhiko Takahashi, Yujiro Hoshino and Seiichi Inoue	459
Acaricidal and Repellent Activity of Terpenoids from Seaweeds Collected in Pernambuco, Brazil Flávia Souza Born, Éverson Miguel Bianco and Claudio Augusto Gomes da Camara	463
Glucosylated Sesquiterpene Alcohols from <i>Fraxinus griffithii</i> Rene Angelo Macahig, Liva Harinantenaina, Sachiko Sugimoto, Katsuyoshi Matsunami, Hideaki Otsuka, Yoshio Takeda and Takakazu Shinzato	467
Chemical Constituents of the Aerial Parts of <i>Scutellaria lateriflora</i> and their α-Glucosidase Inhibitory Activities Minpei Kuroda, Katsura Iwabuchi and Yoshihiro Mimaki	471
Phorbol Esters with Wnt Signal-Augmenting Effects Isolated from <i>Excoecaria indica</i> Tatsuhiro Yamaguchi, Kazufumi Toume, Midori A. Arai, Firoj Ahmed, Samir K. Sadhu and Masami Ishibashi	475
Triangulene C, a New Cubitane-based Diterpenoid from the Soft Coral <i>Sinularia triangula</i> Huey-Jen Su, Nai-Lun Lee, Mei-Chin Lu and Jui-Hsin Su	479
Cladieunicellin H, a New Hemiketal Eunicellin-based Diterpenoid from the Octocoral <i>Cladiella</i> sp. Yung-Husan Chen, Chia-Ying Tai, Tsong-Long Hwang and Ping-Jyun Sung	481
A New Diterpene from the Leaves of <i>Andrographis paniculata</i> Nees Parvataneni Radhika, Yejella Rajendra Prasad and Kattupalli Sowjanya	485
New Meroterpenoids from the Marine Sponge <i>Aka coralliphaga</i> Larisa K. Shubina, Anatoly I. Kalinovskiy, Tatyana N. Makarieva, Sergey N. Fedorov, Sergey A. Dyshlovoy, Pavel S. Dmitrenok, Irina I. Kapustina, Ernesto Mollo, Natalia K. Utkina, Vladimir B. Krasokhin, Vladimir A. Denisenko and Valentin A. Stonik	487
New Triterpenoid Saponins from Leaves of <i>Panax japonicus</i> (3). Saponins of the Specimens Collected in Miyazaki Prefecture Kouichi Yoshizaki and Shoji Yahara	491
Oropheayunnol, an Unusual 22,23-epoxy Apotirucallane Triterpenoid from <i>Orophea yunnanensis</i> Wen-Jian Lan, Jun Wang, Yan-Qiong Guo and Sheng Yin	495
New Metabolites from the Marine-derived Fungus <i>Aspergillus fumigatus</i> Shamil Sh. Afyatallov, Olesya I. Zhuravleva, Alexandr S. Antonov, Anatoly I. Kalinovskiy, Michail V. Pivkin, Ekaterina S. Menchinskaya and Dmitry L. Aminin	497
A New Unusual $\Delta^{11(12)}$-Oleane Triterpene and Anti-complementary Triterpenes from <i>Prunella vulgaris</i> Spikes Dongsheng Du, Zhihong Cheng and Daofeng Chen	501
Anilides and Toluidides of 3β-Acetyloleanolic Acid Barbara Bednarczyk – Cwynar	507

Putralone, a Novel 10α-Hydroxy-25-nor D:A friedo-oleanane Triterpenoid from <i>Putranjiva roxburghii</i> Tulika Mukherjee, Tapas Sarkar, Piyali Paul, Ajit K. Chakraborty, Parasuraman Jaisankar and Siba Brata Mukhopadhyay	511
Ardisikivuoside, a New Triterpenoid Saponin from <i>Ardisia kivuensis</i> (Myrsinaceae) Blanche L. Ndontsa, Alembert Tchinda, Rémy B. Teponno, James S. Mpetga, Michel Frédérick and Pierre Tane	515
Triterpene Glycosides from the Sea Cucumber <i>Eupentacta fraudatrix</i>. Structure and Biological Action of Cucumariosides A₁, A₃, A₄, A₅, A₆, A₁₂ and A₁₅, Seven New Minor Non-sulfated Tetraosides and Unprecedented 25-Keto, 27-Norholostane Aglycone Alexandra S. Silchenko, Anatoly I. Kalinovsky, Sergey A. Avilov, Pelageya V. Andryjaschenko, Pavel S. Dmitrenok, Ekaterina A. Martyyas and Vladimir I. Kalinin	517
A New Geranylated Aromatic Compound from the Mushroom <i>Hericium erinaceum</i> Yasunori Yaoita, Shiori Yonezawa, Masao Kikuchi and Koichi Machida	527
Formation of Tetrahydrocurcumin by Reduction of Curcumin with Cultured Plant Cells of <i>Marchantia polymorpha</i> Kei Shimoda, Naoji Kubota, Hirotaaka Hirano, Masahiro Matsumoto, Hatsuyuki Hamada and Hiroki Hamada	529
Regioselective Formation of Silybin-23-β-D-glucoside by Glucosylation of Silybin with Cultured Plant Cells of <i>Eucalyptus perriniana</i> Kei Shimoda, Hiroya Imai, Tadakatsu Mandai and Hiroki Hamada	531

Review/Account

Terpenoids and Related Compounds from Plants of the Family Compositae (Asteraceae) Yasunori Yaoita, Masao Kikuchi and Koichi Machida	533
Diversity of Furanoterpenoids in Major <i>Ligularia</i> Species in the Hengduan Mountains Chiaki Kuroda, Ryo Hanai, Hajime Nagano, Motoo Tori and Xun Gong	539

Number 5

Gerald Blunden Award (2011)

On-line (HPLC-NMR) and Off-line Phytochemical Profiling of the Australian Plant, <i>Lasiopetalum macrophyllum</i> Michael Timmers and Sylvia Urban	551
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Original Paper

Iridoid and Phenolic Glycosides from the Roots of <i>Prismatomeris connata</i> Shixiu Feng, Jijiang Bai, Shengxiang Qiu (Samuel), Yong Li and Tao Chen	561
Effect of some <i>ent</i>-Kaurenes on the Viability of Human Peripheral Blood Mononuclear Cells Yndra Cordero, Grecia M. Corao, José A. Cova and Alfredo Usabillaga	563
Steroidal Glycosides from <i>Veronica chamaedrys</i> L. Part I. The Structures of Chamaedrosides C, C₁, C₂, E, E₁ and E₂ Alexandra Marchenko, Pavel Kintya, Bozena Wyrzykiewicz and Elena Gorincioi	565
Identification of the Plant Origin of the Botanical Biomarkers of Mediterranean type Propolis Milena Popova, Boryana Trusheva, Simone Cutajar, Daniela Antonova, David Mifsud, Claude Farrugia and Vassya Bankova	569
Alkaloids from Some Amaryllidaceae Species and Their Cholinesterase Activity Lucie Cahliková, Nina Benešová, Kateřina Macáková, Radim Kučera, Václav Hrstka, Jiří Klimeš, Luděk Jahodář and Lubomír Opletal	571
Phytochemical and Biological Activity Studies of the Bhutanese Medicinal Plant <i>Corydalis crispa</i> Phurpa Wangchuk, Paul A. Keller, Stephen G. Pyne, Thanapat Sastraruji, Malai Taweechotipatr, Roonglawan Rattanajak, Aunchalee Tonsomboon and Sumalee Kamchonwongpaisan	575
On the Biosynthetic Pathway of Papaverine via (<i>S</i>)-Reticuline – Theoretical vs. Experimental Study Bojidarka Ivanova and Michael Spiteller	581
Diversification of Exudate Flavonoid Profiles in Further <i>Primula</i> spp. Tshering Doma Bhutia and Karin M. Valant-Vetschera	587
Three New Biflavonoids from Chinese Dragon's Blood, <i>Dracaena cochinchinensis</i> Jing Guan and Shun-Xing Guo	591
Secondary Metabolites from Polar Fractions of <i>Piper umbellatum</i> Turibio Kuiate Tabopda, Anne-Claire Mitaine-Offer, Tomofumi Miyamoto, Chiaki Tanaka, Bonaventure Tchaleu Ngadjui and Marie-Aleth Lacaille-Dubois	595
A New Antimycobacterial Furanolignan from <i>Leucophyllum frutescens</i> Blanca Alanís-Garza, Ricardo Salazar-Aranda, Rosalba Ramírez-Durón, Elvira Garza-González and Noemí Waksman de Torres	597
Water-soluble Constituents of the Heartwood of <i>Streblus asper</i> Jun Li, Mao-Tong Tang, Qiang Wu, Hong Chen, Xiao-Tao Niu, Xin-Lan Guan, Jian Li, Sheng-Ping Deng, Xiao-Jian Su and Rui-Yun Yang	599
Lichen Depsides and Depsidones Reduce Symptoms of Diseases Caused by Tobacco Mosaic Virus (TMV) in Tobacco Leaves Ingrid Ramírez, Soledad Araya, Marisa Piovano, Marcela Carvajal, Alvaro Cuadros-Inostroza, Luis Espinoza, Juan Antonio Garbarino and Hugo Peña-Cortés	603
Antioxidant, Hemolytic and Cytotoxic Activities of <i>Senecio</i> Species used in Traditional Medicine of Northwestern Argentina Emilio Lizarraga, Felipe Castro, Francisco Fernández, Marina P. de Lampasona and César A. N. Catalán	607

Isolation of Antitrypanosomal Compounds from <i>Vitis repens</i>, a Medicinal Plant of Myanmar Khine Swe Nyunt, Ahmed Elkhateeb, Yusuke Tosa, Kensuke Nabata, Ken Katakura and Hideyuki Matsuura	609
Evaluation of Analgesic Activities of Tremetone Derivatives Isolated from the Chilean Altiplano Medicine <i>Parastrephia lepidophylla</i> Julio Benites, Eunices Gutierrez, José López, Mauricio Rojas, Leonel Rojo, Maria do Céu Costa, Maria Pilar Vinardell and Pedro Buc Calderon	611
Ajuganane: A New Phenolic Compound from <i>Ajuga bracteosa</i> Javid Hussain, Naeema Begum, Hidayat Hussain, Farman Ullah Khan, Najeeb Ur Rehman, Ahmed Al-Harrasi and Liaquat Ali	615
Base-mediated Transformations of 3,5-Dibromoverongiaquinol from the Sponge <i>Aplysina</i> sp. to Cavernicolins-1, -2 and a Suberectensin Analogue Elena A. Santalova	617
The Origin of Virgin Argan Oil's High Oxidative Stability Unraveled Said Gharby, Hicham Harhar, Dominique Guillaume, Aziza Haddad and Zoubida Charrouf	621
Chemical Composition of Essential Oils from a Multiple Shoot Culture of <i>Telekia speciosa</i> and Different Plant Organs Anna Wajs-Bonikowska, Anna Stojakowska and Danuta Kalemba	625
Evaluation of Volatile Constituents of <i>Cochlospermum angolense</i> Michele Leonardi, Silvia Giovanelli, Pier Luigi Cioni, Guido Flamini and Luisa Pistelli	629
GC-MS Analysis of Aroma of <i>Medemia argun</i> (Mama-n-Khanen or Mama-n-Xanin), an Ancient Egyptian Fruit Palm Arafa I. Hamed, Michele Leonardi, Anna Stochmal, Wieslaw Oleszek and Luisa Pistelli	633
Composition of the Essential Oil of Wild Growing <i>Artemisia vulgaris</i> from Erie, Pennsylvania Jack D. Williams, Ayman M. Saleh and Dom N. Acharya	637
Chemical Composition of the Essential Oils from the Flower, Leaf and Stem of <i>Lonicera japonica</i> Nenad Vukovic, Miroslava Kacaniova, Lukas Hleba and Slobodan Sukdolak	641
<i>Jasminum sambac</i> Flower Absolutes from India and China – Geographic Variations Norbert A. Braun and Sherina Sim	645
<i>In vitro</i> Bioactivity of Essential Oils and Methanol Extracts of <i>Salvia reuterana</i> from Iran Javad Safaei Ghomi, Reihaneh Masoomi, Fereshteh Jookar Kashi and Hossein Batooli	651
Investigation of the Volatile Constituents of Different <i>Gynura</i> Species from Two Chinese Origins by SPME/GC-MS Jian Chen, An Adams, Sven Mangelinckx, Bing-ru Ren, Wei-lin Li, Zheng-tao Wang and Norbert De Kimpe	655
Volatiles from <i>Michelia champaca</i> Flower: Comparative analysis by Simultaneous Distillation-Extraction and Solid Phase Microextraction Disnelys Báez, Diego Morales and Jorge A. Pino	659
Chemical Composition and Antibacterial Activity of the Essential Oil of <i>Espeletia nana</i> Alexis Peña, Luis Rojas, Rosa Aparicio, Liliba Alarcón, José Gregorio Baptista, Judith Velasco, Juan Carmona and Alfredo Usabillaga	661
The Composition and Antimicrobial Activities of <i>Cyperus conglomeratus</i>, <i>Desmos chinensis</i> var. <i>lawii</i> and <i>Cyathocalyx zeylanicus</i> Essential Oils Abdulkhader Hisham, Koranappallil B. Rameshkumar, Neelam Sherwani, Salim Al-Saidi and Salma Al-Kindy	663
Composition, Antimicrobial and Free-radical Scavenging Activities of the Essential Oil of <i>Plectranthus marrubatus</i> Kaleab Asres, Solomon Tadesse, Avijit Mazumder and Franz Bucar	667
Constituents and Antimicrobial Activity of the Essential Oils from Flower, Leaf and Stem of <i>Helichrysum armenium</i> Khodam-Ali Oji and Ali Shafaghat	671

Review/Account

Plant Essential Oils and Mastitis Disease: Their Potential Inhibitory Effects on Pro-inflammatory Cytokine Production in Response to Bacteria Related Inflammation Ibrahim Taga, Christopher Q. Lan and Illimar Altosaar	675
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Number 6

Distribution of Drimane Sesquiterpenoids and Tocopherols in Liverworts, Ferns and Higher Plants: Polygonaceae, Canellaceae and Winteraceae Species Yoshinori Asakawa, Agnieszka Ludwiczuk, Liva Harinantenaina, Masao Toyota, Mayumi Nishiki, Alicia Bardon and Kaeko Nii	685
A Novel Isopimarane Diterpenoid with Acetylcholinesterase Inhibitory Activity from <i>Nepeta sorgerae</i>, an Endemic Species to the Nemrut Mountain Anıl Yılmaz, Pınar Çağlar, Tuncay Dirmenci, Nezhun Gören and Gülaçtı Topçu	693
Synthesis of Taxane ABC Tricyclic Skeleton from Lycotriene Xiao-Xia Liang, Pei Tang, Qiao-Hong Chen and Feng-Peng Wang	697
Two Antiproliferative Saponins of <i>Tarenna grevei</i> from the Madagascar Dry Forest Liva Harinantenaina, Peggy J. Brodie, Martin W. Callmeyer, L. Jérémie Razafitsalana, Vincent E. Rasamison, Etienne Rakotobe and David G. I. Kingston	705
Revisit to 25R/25S Stereochemical Analysis of Spirostane-type Steroidal Sapogenins and Steroidal Saponins via ¹H NMR Chemical Shift Data Pawan K. Agrawal, Torsten Burkholz and Claus Jacob	709
Structure-Cardiac Activity Relationship of C₁₉-Diterpenoid Alkaloids Xi-Xian Jian, Pei Tang, Xiu-Xiu Liu, Ruo-Bing Chao, Qiao-Hong Chen, Xue-Ke She, Dong-Lin Chen and Feng-Peng Wang	713

Unusual Reactions of a 7,17-<i>seco</i>-type C₁₉-Diterpenoid Alkaloid Derived from Deltaline Ling Wang, Qiao-Hong Chen, and Feng-Peng Wang	721
Cytotoxic and Anti-HIV Phenanthroindolizidine Alkaloids from <i>Cryptocarya chinensis</i> Tian-Shung Wu, Chung-Ren Su and Kuo-Hsiung Lee	725
New Indole Alkaloid from <i>Peschiera affinis</i> (Apocynaceae) Allana Kellen L. Santos, Luciana L. Machado, Ayla Marcia C. Bizerra, Francisco José Q. Monte, Gilvandete M. P. Santiago, Raimundo Braz-Filho and Telma L. G. Lemos	729
Indole Alkaloids from <i>Vinca major</i> and <i>V. minor</i> Growing in Turkey Fatemeh Bahadori, Gülaçtı Topçu, Mehmet Boğa, Ayla Türkekul, Ufuk Kolak and Murat Kartal	731
Determination of the Absolute Configuration of 19-OH-(<i>-</i>)-eburnamonine Using a Combination of Residual Dipolar Couplings, DFT Chemical Shift Predictions, and Chiroptics Pablo Trigo-Mouriño, Roxana Sifuentes, Armando Navarro-Vázquez, Chakicherla Gayathri, Helena Maruenda and Roberto R. Gil	735
Unusual Nitrogenous Derivatives from <i>Alstonia</i> Shin-Jowl Tan, G. Subramaniam, Noel F. Thomas and Toh-Seok Kam	739
Photoactivated [3+2] Addition of 6,7-<i>seco</i>-angustilobine B to Fullerene [C₆₀] Allan Patrick G. Macabeo, Dietmar Gehle, Karsten Krohn, Scott G. Franzblau and Alicia M. Aguinaldo	743
Flavone C-glycosides from <i>Anthurium andraeanum</i> Benjamin R. Clark, Jon Y. Suzuki, Barbara J. Bliss and Robert P. Borris	747
LC-PDA-ESI/MS Identification of the Phenolic Components of Three Compositae Spices: Chamomile, Tarragon, and Mexican Arnica Long-Ze Lin and James M. Harnly	749
Cinnamoylphenethyl Amides from <i>Polygonum hyrcanicum</i> Possess Anti-Trypanosomal Activity Fahimeh Moradi-Afrapoli, Nargues Yassa, Stefanie Zimmermann, Soodabeh Saeidnia, Abbas Hadjiakhoondi, Samad N. Ebrahimi and Matthias Hamburger	753
Comparative Study of the <i>in vitro</i> Bioactivities of <i>Bupleurum rigidum</i> and <i>B. frutescens</i> Jose M. Prieto, Makanjuola O. Ogunsina, Andrea Novak, Amit Joshi, Judit Kokai, Ines Da Costa Rocha and Manuel Pardo de Santayana	757
Influence of Nutrient Medium Composition on <i>in vitro</i> Growth, Polyphenolic Content and Antioxidant Activity of <i>Alchemilla mollis</i> Marina Stanilova, Rossen Gorgorov, Antoaneta Trendafilova, Milena Nikolova and Antonina Vitkova	761
Saracoides: A New Lignan Glycoside from <i>Saraca indica</i>, a Potential Inhibitor of DNA Topoisomerase IB Tulika Mukherjee, Sayan Chowdhury, Ashish Kumar, Hemanta K Majumder, Parasuraman Jaisanka and Sibabrata Mukhopadhyay	767
Secondary Metabolite Production by the Basidiomycete, <i>Lentinus strigellus</i>, under Different Culture Conditions Bartholomeu A. Barros-Filho, Maria C. F. de Oliveira, Jair Mafezoli, Francisco G. Barbosa and Edson Rodrigues-Filho	771
Phenylethanoid Glycosides isolated from <i>Paraboea paniculata</i> Tan Hor Yue, Anthony Ho Siong Hock, Lim Chan Kiang and Lim Yang Mooi	775
Villarinol, a new Alkenoyloxyalkenol Derivative from the Endemic Philippine Rubiaceae species <i>Villaria odorata</i> Allan Patrick G. Macabeo, Jalil A. Avila, Grecebio Jonathan D. Alejandro, Scott G. Franzblau, Simeon F. Kouam, Hidayat Hussain and Karsten Krohn	779
Isolation and Characterization of New Ceramides from Aerial Parts of <i>Lepidaploa cotoneaster</i> Edlene O. dos Santos, Marilena Meira, Ademir E. do Vale, Jorge M. David, Luciano P. de Queiróz and Juceni P. David	781
<i>cis</i>-Aconitic Anhydride Ethyl Ester and Phenolic Compounds from the Seeds of <i>Alisma orientale</i> Ming Zhao, Jing-ying Chen, Li-jia Xu, Tanja Goedecke, Xiao-qí Zhang, Jin-ao Duan and Chun-tao Che	785
Suppression of Nitric Oxide Synthase by Thienodolin in Lipopolysaccharide-stimulated RAW 264.7 Murine Macrophage Cells Eun-Jung Park, John M. Pezzuto, Kyoung Hwa Jang, Sang-Jip Nam, Sergio A. Bucarey and William Fenical	789
<u>Review/Account</u>	
Structural Characterization and Biological Effects of Constituents of the Seeds of <i>Alpinia katsumadai</i> (Alpina Katsumadai Seed) Joo-Won Nam and Eun-Kyoung Seo	795
Inventory, Constituents and Conservation of Biologically Important Sumatran Plants Dayar Arbain	799
Herbal Medicine in Healthcare-An Overview Mohammed Mosihuzzaman	807

Number 7

Chemical Constituents of <i>Blumea balsamifera</i> of Indonesia and Their Protein Tyrosine Phosphatase 1B Inhibitory Activity Azis Saifudin, Ken Tanaka, Shigetoshi Kadota and Yasuhiro Tezuka	815
A New Sesquiterpene from an Endophytic <i>Aspergillus versicolor</i> Strain Xiang-Hong Liu, Feng-Ping Miao, Xiao-Dong Li, Xiu-Li Yin and Nai-Yun Ji	819
Skin Permeation of Cacalol, Cacalone and 6-<i>epi</i>-Cacalone Sesquiterpenes from a Nanoemulsion María Luisa Garduño-Ramírez, Beatriz Clares, Valeri Domínguez-Villegas, Concepción Peraire, María Adolfinia Ruiz, María Luisa García and Ana C. Calpena	821
Compounds with Antiproliferative Activity on Five Human Cancer Cell Lines from South Korean <i>Carpesium triste</i> Hyung-In Moon	825

Biogenetic-type Synthesis of 2-Hydroxy-4,4,7-trimethyl-1(4H)-naphthalenone, a Modified Apocarotenoid from <i>Ipomoea pes-caprae</i> Kamalesh P. Pai Fondekari, Shashikumar K. Paknikar, Savia Torres and Shrivallabh P. Kamat	827
Ixoroid: A New Triterpenoid from the Flowers of <i>Ixora coccinea</i> Muhammad Ali Versiani, Ambreen Ikram, Salman Khalid, Shaheen Faizi and Iftikhar Ahmed Tahiri	831
Distinguishing Between <i>R</i>- and <i>S</i>-Antein C and Their Cytotoxicity Ting-Yu Lin, Shih-Chang Chien, Yueh-Hsiung Kuo and Sheng-Yang Wang	835
Chemical Investigation of Saponins from Twelve Annual <i>Medicago</i> Species and their Bioassay with the Brine Shrimp <i>Artemia salina</i> Aldo Tava and Luciano Pecetti	837
Inhibition of cPLA₂ and sPLA₂ Activities in Primary Cultures of Rat Cortical Neurons by <i>Centella asiatica</i> Water Extract Patrícia P. DeFillipo, André H. Raposo, Alessandra G. Fedoce, Aline S. Ferreira, Hudson C. Polonini, Wagner F. Gattaz and Nádia R. B. Raposo	841
Triterpene Glycosides from the Sea Cucumber <i>Eupentacta fraudatrix</i>. Structure and Cytotoxic Action of Cucumariosides A₂, A₇, A₉, A₁₀, A₁₁, A₁₃ and A₁₄, Seven New Minor Non-Sulfated Tetraosides and an Aglycone with an Uncommon 18-Hydroxy Group Alexandra S. Silchenko, Anatoly I. Kalinovskiy, Sergey A. Avilov, Pelageya V. Andryjaschenko, Pavel S. Dmitrenok, Ekaterina A. Martyyas and Vladimir I. Kalinin	845
Two New Asterosaponins from the Far Eastern Starfish <i>Lethasterias fusca</i> Natalia V. Ivanchina, Anatoly I. Kalinovskiy, Alla A. Kicha, Timofey V. Malyarenko, Pavel S. Dmitrenok, Svetlana P. Ermakova and Valentin A. Stonik	853
Corylucine, a new Alkaloid from <i>Corydalis cava</i> (Fumariaceae), and its Cholinesterase Activity Zdeněk Novák, Jakub Chlebek, Lubomír Opletal, Pavel Jiroš, Kateřina Macáková, Jiří Kuneš and Lucie Cahliková	859
Improved Method for Isolation of Lycopsamine from Roots of Comfrey (<i>Symphytum officinale</i>) Damjan Janeš, Boštjan Kalamar and Samo Kreft	861
Trigonelline and other Betaines in Species of Laminariales Gerald Blunden, Michael D. Guiry, Louis D. Druehl, Kazuhiro Kogame and Hiroshi Kawai	863
Anticomplement and Antimicrobial Activities of Flavonoids from <i>Entada phaseoloides</i> Ke Li, Shihua Xing, Mengyue Wang, Ying Peng, Yuqiong Dong and Xiaobo Li	867
Antioxidant Compounds from Algerian <i>Convolvulus tricolor</i> (Convolvulaceae) Seed Husks Nassira Kacem, Anne-Emmanuelle Hay, Andrew Marston, Amar Zellagui, Salah Rhouati and Kurt Hostettmann	873
Quality Control and Analytical Test Method for <i>Taxus baccata</i> Tincture Preparation Pamela Vignolini, Beatrice Gehrmann, Matthias Friedrich Melzig, Leonardo Borsacchi, Arianna Scardigli and Annalisa Romani	875
Chalcones in Bioactive Argentine Propolis Collected in Arid Environments Eliaana Solórzano, Nancy Vera, Soledad Cuello, Roxana Ordoñez, Catiana Zampini, Luis Maldonado, Enrique Bedascarrasbure and María I. Isla	879
Inhibitory Effect of Hexahydrocurcumin on Human Platelet Aggregation Huei-Ping Dong, Rei-Cheng Yang, I-Chun Chunag, Li-Ju Huang, Hsing-Tan Li, Hsin-Liang Chen and Chung-Yi Chen	883
Biotransformation of Salvianolic acid B by <i>Fusarium oxysporum</i> f. sp. <i>Cucumerinum</i> and Its Two Degradation Routes Shidong Kan, Huimin Lin, Ji'an Li, Lei Shao and Daijie Chen	885
Phytopathogenic Fungal Inhibitors from Celery Seeds Tao Liu, Fu-Guang Liu, Hui-Qin Xie and Qing Mu	889
Synthesis and Antimicrobial Activities of Some Sulphur Containing Chromene Derivatives Tuba Şerbetçi, Seher Birteksöz, Soizic Prado, Sylvie Michel and François Tillequin	891
Effect of Polyamines on Shoot Multiplication and Furanocoumarin Production in <i>Ruta graveolens</i> Cultures Renuka Diwan and Nutan Malpathak	895
Antihyperglycemic agents from <i>Ammannia multiflora</i> Harish C. Upadhyay, Natasha Jaiswal, Akhilesh K. Tamrakar, Arvind K. Srivastava, Namita Gupta and Santosh K. Srivastava	899
Free Radical Scavenging Activities of Naturally Occurring and Synthetic Analogues of Sea Urchin Naphthazarin Pigments Natalia K. Utkina and Natalia D. Pokhilo	901
<i>Drynariae Rhizoma</i> Increases Immune Response in Mice Hyo-Jin An, Gil-Goo Lee and Kyung-Tae Lee	905
Antioxidant, Antimicrobial and Wound Healing Activities of <i>Boesenbergia rotunda</i> Rungrat Jitvaropas, Suphakot Saenthaweesuk, Nuntiya Somparn, Amornnat Thuppia, Seewaboon Sireeratawong and Waranyoo Phoolcharoen	909
Revisit to (<i>Z</i>)-Civetone Synthesis Hisahiro Hagiwara, Teppei Adachi, Tomomi Nakamura, Takashi Hoshi and Toshio Suzuki	913
Search for Bioactive Compounds from <i>Cantharellus cibarius</i> Włodzimierz Maria Daniewski, Witold Danikiewicz, W. Marek Gołębiowski, Mirosław Gucma, Agnieszka Lysik, Jacek Grodner and Elżbieta Przybysz	917
Fatty Acid Composition of <i>Juniperus</i> Species (<i>Juniperus</i> Section) Native to Turkey Ayşegül Güvenç, Nurgün Küçükboyacı and Ahmet Ceyhan Gören	919
c-AMP Dependent Protein Kinase A Inhibitory Activity of Six Algal Extracts from South Eastern Australia and Their Fatty Acid Composition Ana Zivanovic and Danielle Skropeta	923

Quantitative and Physical Evaluation of Patchouli Essential Oils Obtained from Different Sources of <i>Pogostemon cablin</i> Norma Hussin, Luigi Mondello, Rosaria Costa, Paola Dugo, Nik Idris Nik Yusoff, Mohd Ambar Yarmo, Ahmad Ab.Wahab and Mamot Said	927
Essential Oil Composition of <i>Prasium majus</i> from Croatia Igor Jerković, Marko Šuste, Željan Maleš and Kroata Hazler Pilepić	931
Composition and Antipathogenic Activities of the Twig Essential Oil of <i>Chamaecyparis formosensis</i> from Taiwan Chen-Lung Ho, Kuo-Feng Hua, Kuan-Ping Hsu, Eugene I-Chen Wang and Yu-Chang Su	933
<i>In vitro</i> Antimicrobial Properties and Chemical Composition of <i>Santolina chamaecyparissus</i> Essential Oil from Algeria Samah Djeddi, Khadidja Djebile, Ghania Hadjbourega, Zoubida Achour, Catherine Argyropoulou and Helen Skaltsa	937
Chemical Composition and <i>in vitro</i> Antimicrobial Activity of the Essential Oil of the Flowers of <i>Tridax procumbens</i> Rajesh K. Joshi and Vijaylaxmi Badakar	941
Chemical Composition and Antimicrobial Activity of Essential Oil of <i>Heracleum rigens</i> Nataraj Jagannath, Hanumanthaiah Ramakrishnaiah, Venkatarangaiah Krishna and Prameela Javarayi Gowda	943
Chemical Composition and <i>in vitro</i> Evaluation of Antimicrobial and Anti-acetylcholinesterase Properties of the Flower Oil of <i>Ferula lutea</i> Mansour Znati, Aymen Jabrane, Hafedh Hajlaoui, Fethia Harzallah-Skhiri Jalloul Bouajila, Joseph Casanova and Hichem Ben Jannet	947
Determination of Antioxidant Properties of 26 Chilean Honeyes and a Mathematical Association Study with their Volatile Profile Elizabeth Sánchez, Marisa Piovano, Erika Valdés, Manuel E. Young, Cristian A. Acevedo and Mauricio Osorio	951
Chemical Constituents and Antioxidant and Biological Activities of the Essential Oil from Leaves of <i>Solanum spirale</i> Sukanya Keawsa-ard, Boonsom Liawruangrath, Saisunee Liawruangrath, Aphiwat Teerawutgulrag and Stephen G. Pyne	955
<u>Review/Account</u>	
Acetylcholinesterase Inhibition within the Lycorine Series of Amaryllidaceae Alkaloids Jerald J. Nair and Johannes van Staden	959
Alkaloids Produced by Endophytic Fungi: A Review Yanyan Zhang, Ting Han, Qianliang Ming, Lingshang Wu, Khalid Rahman and Luping Qin	963
Number 8	
Terpenoids from <i>Cichorium intybus</i> Chang-Xin Zhou, Li Zou, Zong-Zheng Zhao, Hong Zhu, Qiao-Jun He, Bo Yang and Li-She Gan	971
(6<i>R</i>,9<i>S</i>)-6''-(4''-Hydroxybenzoyl)-Roseoside, a New Megastigmane Derivative from <i>Ouratea polyantha</i> and its Effect on Hepatic Glucose-6-phosphatase Jairo Bermúdez, María Rodríguez, Masahisa Hasegawa, Freddy González-Mujica, Sandra Duque and Yoichiro Ito	973
The Cytotoxic Activity of Diterpenoids from <i>Isodon</i> species Ayumi Ohsaki, Masaaki Ozawa, Kanki Komiyama, Akio Kishida and Takahiko Isobe	977
Anti-proliferative Activity and Apoptotic Potential of Britannin, a Sesquiterpene Lactone from <i>Inula aucheriana</i> Maryam Hamzeloo Moghadam, Homa Hajimehdipoor, Soodabeh Saeidnia, Azadeh Atoofi, Roxana Shahrestani, Roger W. Read and Mahmoud Mosaddegh	979
Betulin as an Antitumor Agent Tested <i>in vitro</i> on A431, HeLa and MCF7, and as an Angiogenic Inhibitor <i>in vivo</i> in the CAM Assay Cristina Adriana Dehelean, Stefana Feflea, Judit Molnár, Istvan Zupko and Codruta Soica	981
Constituents of Twig Bark of Pear Cultivars (<i>Pyrus</i> species) Hideyuki Tomosaka, Hideaki Tamimoto, Yuki Tsukagoshi, Yasutsugu Suzuki, Hisako Ooka and Michiya Ota	987
Bio-assay Guided Isolation of α-Glucosidase Inhibitory Constituents from <i>Eclipta alba</i> Deepak Kumar, Raghuvir H. Gaonkar, Rina Ghosh and Bikas C. Pal	989
Chromolithc Method Development, Validation and System Suitability Analysis of Ultra-Sound Assisted Extraction of Glycyrrhizic Acid and Glycyrrhetic Acid from <i>Glycyrrhiza glabra</i> Suphla Gupta, Rajni Sharma, Pankaj Pandotra, Sundeep Jaglan and Ajai Prakash Gupta	991
Furostanol Saponin and Diphenylpentendiol from the Roots of <i>Asparagus racemosus</i> Upendra Sharma, Neeraj Kumar and Bikram Singh	995
Quinolizidine Alkaloids from <i>Sophora velutina</i> subsp. <i>zimbabwensis</i> (Fabaceae: Sophoreae) Erick Korir, Joyce J. Kiplimo, Neil R. Crouch, Nivan Moodley and Neil. A. Koornanally	999
Flavonoids from the Japanese Monotypic Genus, <i>Nipponanthemum</i> Ayumi Uehara and Tsukasa Iwashina	1005
The Inhibitory Effects of Representative Chalcones Contained in <i>Angelica keiskei</i> on Melanin Biosynthesis in B16 Melanoma Cells Enos Tangke Arung, Shoko Furuta, Kazuhiro Sugamoto, Kuniyoshi Shimizu, Hiroya Ishikawa, Yoh-ichi Matsushita and Ryuichiro Kondo	1007
Flavonoid Constituents of <i>Pistacia integerrima</i> Zia Ullah, Rashad Mehmood, Muhammad Imran, Abdul Malik and Rehana A. Afzal	1011
Antioxidant and Anti-cholinesterase Activity of <i>Globularia meridionalis</i> Extracts and Isolated Constituents Rosa Tundis, Marco Bonesi, Federica Menichini, Monica R. Loizzo, Filomena Conforti, Giancarlo Statti, Filippo M. Pirisi and Francesco Menichini	1015
Antioxidant Activities and Total Phenolic and Flavonoid Contents in Three Indigenous Medicinal Vegetables of North-east India Jyotirekha G. Handique, Manas Pratim Boruah and Dipika Kalita	1021

***In Vitro* Antiviral Activity of *Heterophyllaea pustulata* Extracts**

Brenda S. Konigheim, Mauricio Beranek, Laura R. Comini, Javier J. Aguilar, Juliana Marioni, José L. Cabrera, Marta S. Contigiani and Susana C. Núñez Montoya 1025

Re-investigation of the Anthraquinone Pool of *Rhamnus* spp.: Madagascin from the Fruits of *Rhamnus cathartica* and *R. intermedia*

Francesco Epifano, Salvatore Genovese, Dario Kremer, Marco Randic, Giuseppe Carlucci and Marcello Locatelli 1029

Two New Phloroglucinol Derivatives and Five Photosensitizing Pheophorbides from *Syzygium polyanthum* Leaves (Salam)

Lee Wei Har, Khozirah Shaari, Lee Hong Boon, Fadzly A. Kamarulzaman and Intan S. Ismail 1033

Production of Curcuminoids in Different *in vitro* Organs of *Curcuma longa*

Laura Pistelli, Alessandra Bertoli, Federica Gelli, Laura Bedini, Barbara Ruffoni and Luisa Pistelli 1037

Two New Alkylresorcinols from *Homalomena wendlandii* and Their Cytotoxic Activity

Luis A. Sánchez, Dionisio Olmedo, José Luis López-Pérez, Todd D. Williams and Mahabir P. Gupta 1043

Amides and an Alkaloid from *Portulaca oleracea*

Tetsuo Kokubun, Geoffrey C. Kite, Nigel C. Veitch and Monique S. J. Simmonds 1047

Synthesis and Biological Evaluation of Combretastatin A-4 and Three Combretastatin-Based Hybrids

Miguel A. González, David Pérez-Guaita, Lee S. Agudelo-Gómez, Verónica Tangarife-Castaño, Bibiana Zapata and Liliana Betancur-Galvis 1051

Two New *p*-Terphenyl Derivatives from the Marine Fungal Strain *Aspergillus* sp. AF119

Shao-Song Liu, Bao-Bing Zhao, Chun-Hua Lu, Jing-Jing Huang and Yue-Mao Shen 1057

Quantitative Analysis of Fructo-oligosaccharides in *Gynura divaricata* subsp. *formosana* by High Performance Anion Exchange Chromatography–Pulsed Amperometric Detection

Shen-Chieh Chou and Shoei-Sheng Lee 1063

Polyketide Metabolites from the Endophytic Fungus *Microdiplodia* sp. KS 75-1

Yoshihito Shiono, Taiji Hatakeyama, Tetsuya Murayama and Takuya Koseki 1065

Muscone Exerts Neuroprotection in an Experimental Model of Stroke via Inhibition of the Fas Pathway

Gang Wei, Dong-Feng Chen, Xiao-Ping Lai, Dong-Hui Liu, Ru-Dong Deng, Jian-Hong Zhou, Sai-Xia Zhang, Yi-Wei Li, Hui Li and Qiong-Dan Zhang 1069

Cytokinin and Auxin Effect on the Terpenoid Profile of the Essential Oil and Morphological Characteristics of Shoot Cultures of *Artemisia alba*

Kalina Danova, Milka Todorova, Antoaneta Trendafilova and Ljuba Evstatieva 1075

Variation in the Volatile Constituents of Different Plant Parts of *Ligusticopsis wallichiana* from Western Himalaya, India

Rajendra C. Padalia, Ram S. Verma, Amit Chauhan, Chandan S. Chanotiya and Anju Yadav 1077

Determination of Chemical Constituents of Leaf and Stem Essential Oils of *Artemisia monosperma* from Central Saudi Arabia

Merajuddin Khan, Ahmad A. Mousa, Kodakandla V. Syamasundar and Hamad Z. Alkhatlan 1079

Chemical Composition of the Essential Oils of *Centaurea formanekii* and *C. orphanidea* ssp. *thessala*, Growing Wild in Greece

Mariem Ben Jemia, Carmen Formisano, Svetlana Bancheva, Maurizio Bruno and Felice Senatore 1083

Phytochemical Profiles of Volatile Constituents from *Centaurea ragusina* Leaves and Flowers and their Antimicrobial Effects

Olivera Politeo, Mirjana Skocibusic, Ivana Carev, Franko Burcul, Igor Jerkovic, Mladenka Sarolic and Mladen Milos 1087

Chemical Composition and Antimicrobial Activity of Essential Oil of Different Parts of *Seseli rigidum*

Mirjana Marčetić, Dragana Božić, Marina Milenković, Branislava Lakušić and Nada Kovačević 1091

Chemical Composition, Olfactory Analysis and Antibacterial Activity of *Thymus vulgaris* Chemotypes Geraniol, 4-Thujanol/Terpinen-4-ol, Thymol and Linalool Cultivated in Southern France

Erich Schmidt, Jürgen Wanner, Martina Höferl, Leopold Jirovetz, Gerhard Buchbauer, Velizar Gochev, Tania Girova, Albena Stoyanova and Margit Geissler 1095

Chemical Composition, Antimicrobial, Antioxidant and Cytotoxic Activity of Essential Oils of *Plectranthus cylindraceus* and *Meriandra benghalensis* from Yemen

Nasser A. Awadh Ali, Martina Wurster, Annika Denkert, Norbert Arnold, Iman Fadail, Gamal Al-Didamony, Ulrike Lindequist, Ludger Wessjohann and William N. Setzer 1099

Electrophysiological Responses of the *Naupactus bipes* Beetle to Essential Oils from Piperaceae Species

Clécio S. Ramos, Marisi G. Soares, Adalberto M. da Silva, Luciane G. Batista-Pereira, Arlene G. Corrêa and Massuo J. Kato 1103

Inhibition of Essential Bacterial Peptidyl-tRNA Hydrolase Activity by Tropical Plant Extracts

Hana McFeeters, Morgan J. Gilbert, Rachel M. Thompson, William N. Setzer, Luis R. Cruz-Vera, and Robert L. McFeeters 1107

Review/Account**Analytical Profiling of Bioactive Constituents from Herbal Products, using Metabolomics - A Review**

Nanjappan Satheshkumar, Narayanan Nisha, Nirmal Sonali, Jayabalan Nirmal, Gaurav K. Jain, and Vudataneni Spandana 1111

Number 9**Catalytic and Molecular Properties of Rabbit Liver Carboxylesterase Acting on 1,8-Cineole Derivatives**

María del H. Loandos, Ana C. Muro, Margarita B. Villecco, Marcelo F. Masman, Paul G.M. Luiten, Sebastian A. Andujar, Fernando D. Suvire and Ricardo D. Enriz 1117

Antiparasitic and Anticancer Carvotacetone Derivatives of *Sphaeranthus bullatus*

Francis Machumi, Abiy Yenesew, Jacob O. Midiwo, Matthias Heydenreich, Erich Kleinpeter, Babu L. Tekwani, Shabana I. Khan, Larry A. Walker and Ilias Muhammad 1123

Naturally Occurring Limonene to Cinnamyl-type γ-Butyrolactone Substituted Aldol Condensation Derivatives as Antioxidant Compounds	
Pushpinder Kaur, Pralay Das, Abha Chaudhary and Bikram Singh	1127
Sesquiterpenes from <i>Onopordum illyricum</i> and their Antifeedant Activity	
Sergio Rosselli, Antonella Maria Maggio, Marisa Canzoneri, Monique S. J. Simmonds and Maurizio Bruno	1131
Three New Lactarane Sesquiterpenoids from the Mushroom <i>Russula sanguinea</i>	
Yasunori Yaoita, Moe Hirao, Masao Kikuchi and Koichi Machida	1133
Royleanumin, a New Phytotoxic neo-Clarodane Diterpenoid from <i>Teucrium royleanum</i>	
Shabir Ahmad, Muhammad Arfan, Naheed Riaz, Riaz Ullah, Ziarat Shah and Azhar Ul-Haq Ali Shah	1137
Bioactive-guided Identification of Labdane Diterpenoids from Aerial Parts of <i>Aristeguietia glutinosa</i> as anti-<i>Trypanosoma cruzi</i> agents	
Javier Varela, María L. Lavaggi, Mauricio Cabrera, Alejandra Rodríguez, Patricio Miño, Ximena Chiriboga, Hugo Cerecetto and Mercedes González	1139
Characterization of Yew Tree (<i>Taxus</i>) Varieties by Fingerprint and Principal Component Analyses	
Kalle Truus, Merike Vaher, Maria Borissova, Marju Robal, Tuuli Levandi, Rando Tuvikene, Peeter Toomik and Mihkel Kaljurand	1143
Identification of Triterpenes from Milkweed (<i>Asclepias syriaca</i>)	
Erzsébet Háznagy-Radnai, Edit Weber, Szilvia Czige and Imre Máthé	1147
Evaluation of the Anti-angiogenic Activity of Saponins from <i>Maesa lanceolata</i> by Different Assays	
Kenn Foubert, Annelies Breynaert, Mart Theunis, Rita Van Den Bossche, Guido R. Y. De Meyer, André Van Daele, Ahmad Faizal, Alain Goossens, Danny Geelen, Edward M. Conway, Arnold Vlietinck, Luc Pieters and Sandra Apers	1149
Conversion of Protopanaxadiol Type Saponins to Ginsenoside Rg3 by Lemon	
Cheng-Peng Sun, Wei-Ping Gao, Bao-Zhong Zhao and Le-Qin Cheng	1155
Triterpene Glycosides from the Sea Cucumber <i>Eupentacta fraudatrix</i>. Structure and Biological Activity of Cucumariosides B₁ and B₂, Two New Minor Non-Sulfated Unprecedented Triosides	
Alexandra S. Silchenko, Anatoly I. Kalinovsky, Sergey A. Avilov, Pelageya V. Andryjaschenko, Pavel S. Dmitrenok, Ekaterina A. Martyyas and Vladimir I. Kalinin	1157
Osteoclastogenesis Inhibitory Effect of Ergosterol Peroxide Isolated from <i>Pleurotus eryngii</i>	
Satoru Yokoyama, Tran Hai Bang, Kuniyoshi Shimizu and Ryuichiro Kondo	1163
A Novel Sterol Sulfate and New Oligosaccharide Polyester from the Aerial Parts of <i>Polygala sibirica</i>	
Yue Lin Song, Si Xiang Zhou, He Lin Wei, Yong Jiang and Peng Fei Tu	1165
Angustinine – A New Benzopyridoquinolizine Alkaloid from <i>Alangium lamarkii</i>	
Mumu Chakraborty and Sibabrata Mukhopadhyay	1169
Antifungal Activity of Hydrochloride Salts of Tylophorinidine and Tylophorinine	
Mini Dhiman, Rajashri R. Parab, Sreedharannair L. Manju, Dattatraya C. Desai and Girish B. Mahajan	1171
Evaluation of Antibacterial and Anti-biofilm Activities of Cinchona Alkaloid Derivatives against <i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	
Malena E. Skogman, Janni Kujala, Igor Busygin, Reko Leino, Pia M. Vuorela and Adyary Fallarero	1173
Simultaneous Determination of Alkaloids and Flavonoids from Aerial Parts of <i>Passiflora</i> Species and Dietary Supplements using UPLC-UV-MS and HPTLC	
Bharathi Avula, Yan-Hong Wang, Chidananda Swamy Rumalla, Troy J. Smillie and Ikhlās A. Khan	1177
Chemical Fingerprinting by RP-RRLC-DAD and Principal Component Analysis of <i>Ziziphora clinopodioides</i> from Different Locations	
Shuge Tian, Qian Yu, Lude Xin, Zhaohui Sunny Zhou and Halmuurt-Upur	1181
Simultaneous Determination of Four Major Constituents of Semen Vaccariae Using HPLC-DAD	
Haijiang Zhang, Wei Yao, Yunyun Chen, Peipei He, Yao Chen, Peipei Chen, Jia Han and Xiaoyu Li	1185
Biological Activity of Isoflavonoids from <i>Azorella madreporica</i>	
Luisa Quesada, Carlos Areche, Luis Astudillo, Margarita Gutiérrez, Beatriz Sepúlveda and Aurelio San-Martín	1187
Analysis of Homoisoflavonoids in <i>Caesalpinia digyna</i> by HPLC-ESI-MS, HPLC and Method Validation	
Somendu K. Roy, Amit Srivastava and Sanjay M. Jachak	1189
Oligonol-induced Degradation of Perilipin 1 is Regulated through Lysosomal Degradation Machinery	
Junetsu Ogasawara, Kentaro Kitadate, Hiroshi Nishioka, Hajime Fujii, Takuya Sakurai, Takako Kizaki, Tetsuya Izawa, Hitoshi Ishida and Hideki Ohno	1193
Plant Growth Inhibitor from the Malaysian Medicinal Plant <i>Goniothalamus andersonii</i> and Related Species	
Tomoko Takemura, Tsunashi Kamo, Raihan Ismil, Baki Bakar, Naoya Wasano, Syuntaro Hiradate and Yoshiharu Fujii	1197
Furanone Derivatives from Terrestrial <i>Streptomyces</i> spp.	
Muhammad Arfan, Khaled A. Shaaban, Anja Schöffler and Hartmut Laatsch	1199
Cytotoxicity Analysis of Active Components in Bitter Melon (<i>Momordica charantia</i>) Seed Extracts Using Human Embryonic Kidney and Colon Tumor Cells	
Elizabeth S. Chipps, Renuka Jayini, Shoko Ando, April D. Protzman, M. Zubayed Muhi, M. Abdul Mottaleb, Ahmed Malkawi and M. Rafiq Islam	1203
Phytochemical and Biological Studies on Some Egyptian Seaweeds	
Khaled N. M. Elsayed, Mohamed M. Radwan, Sherif H. M. Hassan, Mohamed S. Abdelhameed, Ibraheem B. Ibraheem, and Samir A. Ross	1209
Electrochemical Characterization of the Marine Antioxidant Gadusol	
Ernesto Maximiliano Arbeloa, Cristina Luján Ramírez, Raúl Ariel Procaccini and María Sandra Churio	1211
Insecticidal Properties of Annonaceous Acetogenins and Their Analogues. Interaction with Lipid Membranes	
Lilian Di Toto Blessing, Juan Ramos, Sonia Diaz, Aída Ben Altabef, Alicia Bardón, Margarita Brovetto, Gustavo Seoane and Adriana Neske	1215

Activity of Alkanediol Alkanoates against Pathogenic Plant Fungi <i>Rhizoctonia solani</i> and <i>Sclerotium rolfsii</i>	1219
Paraj Shukla, Suresh Walia, Vivek Ahluwalia, Balraj S. Parmar and Muraleedharan G. Nair	
A Somaclonal Variant of Rose-Scented Geranium (<i>Pelargonium</i> spp.) with Moderately High Content of Isomenthone in its Essential Oil	1223
Swaroop S Kulkarni, Nagawara S Ravindra, Kalavagunta V N S Srinivas and Raghavendra N Kulkarni	
Comparative Study of the Chemical Composition of Essential Oils of Five <i>Tagetes</i> Species Collected in Venezuela	1225
Kaylin Armas, Janne Roja, Luis Rojas and Antonio Morales	
Chemical Composition and Antiphytoviral Activity of Essential Oil of <i>Micromeria graeca</i>	1227
Elma Vuko, Valerija Dunkić, Nada Bezić, Mirko Ruščić and Dario Kremer	
Chemical Composition and Biological Activity of the Essential Oil from Jamaican <i>Cleome serrata</i>	1231
Megil J. McNeil, Roy B. R. Porter and Lawrence A. D. Williams	
Chemical Compositions and Biological Activities of <i>Amomum subulatum</i> Essential Oils from Nepal	1233
Prabodh Satyal, Noura S. Dosoky, Brittany L. Kincer and William N. Setzer	
Chemical Composition and Antimicrobial Activity of <i>Salvia x jamensis</i> Essential Oil	1237
Daniele Fraternali, Guido Flamini, Angela Bisio, Maria Cristina Albertini and Donata Ricci	
Antimicrobial and Antioxidant Activities of <i>Stachys lavandulifolia</i> subsp. <i>lavandulifolia</i> Essential Oil and its Infusion	1241
Gökalp Işcan, Betül Demirci, Fatih Göger, Neşe Kırimer, Yavuz B. Köse and Kemal Hüsnü Can Başer	
Composition, Anticancer, and Antimicrobial Activities <i>in vitro</i> of the Heartwood Essential Oil of <i>Cunninghamia lanceolata</i> var. <i>konishii</i> from Taiwan	1245
Yu-Chang Su, Kuan-Ping Hsu, Eugene I-Chen Wang and Chen-Lung Ho	

Review/Account

Secondary Metabolites of <i>Eichhornia crassipes</i> (Waterhyacinth): A Review (1949 to 2011)	1249
Pottail Lalitha, Shubashini.K.Sripathi and Ponnusamy Jayanthi	

Number 10

HPLC Analysis and Cytotoxic Activity of <i>Vernonia cinerea</i>	1259
Mom Khay, Phiroom Toeng, Valérie Mahiou-Leddé, Fathi Mabrouki, Kim Sothea, Evelyne Ollivier, Riad Elias and Sok-Siya Bun	
Antiplasmodial Activity of the Ethnobotanical Plant <i>Cassia fistula</i>	1263
Mary H. Grace, Carmen Lategan, Rocky Graziose, Peter J. Smith, Ilya Raskin and Mary Ann Lila	
Trichilone, a New C₂₁ Steroid from <i>Trichilia connaroides</i>	1267
Qiang Zhang, Yu Zhang, Hong-Ping He, Ying-Tong Di and Xiao-Jiang Hao	
Three Novel Immunosuppressive Steroidal Glycosides from the Stems of <i>Stephanotis mucronata</i>	1269
Xiao-yu Li, Shu-ling Zong, Feng-yang Chen, Shi-fang Xu and Yi-ping Ye	
Optimization of Carbon Source for Hairy Root Growth and Withaferin A and Withanone Production in <i>Withania somnifera</i>	1271
Ganeshan Sivanandhan, Manoharan Rajesh, Muthukrishnan Arun, Murugaraj Jeyaraj, Gnanajothi Kapil Dev, Markandan Manickavasagam, Natesan Selvaraj and Andy Ganapathi	
Quantitative Analysis of Substituted <i>N,N</i>-Dimethyl-tryptamines in the Presence of Natural Type XII Alkaloids	1273
Bojidarka Ivanova and Michael Spiteller	
HPLC Analysis of Stemokerrine and Oxystemokerrine in the Thai Medicinal Plant <i>Stemona kerrii</i>	1277
Sumet Kongkiatpaiboon, Vichien Keeratinijakal and Wandee Gritsanapan	
Identification of Pavinane Alkaloids in the Genera <i>Argemone</i> and <i>Eschscholzia</i> by GC-MS	1279
Lucie Čahlíková, Radim Kučera, Anna Hošťálková, Jiří Klimeš and Lubomír Opletal	
Effect of Piperine on the Pharmacokinetics and Pharmacodynamics of Glimepiride in Normal and Streptozotocin - induced Diabetic Rats	1283
Ciddi Veeresham, Samala Sujatha and Thatipamula Sandya Rani	
<i>In Silico</i> Prediction of the Cosmetic Whitening Effects of Naturally Occurring Lead Compounds	1287
Pedro Fong and Henry H. Y. Tong	
Profiling Flavonoid Cytotoxicity in Human Breast Cancer Cell Lines: Determination of Structure-Function Relationships	1295
Sina Yadegarynia, Anh Pham, Alex Ng, Duong Nguyen, Tetiana Lialiutska, Anthony Bortolazzo, Valentin Sivryuk, Martina Bremer and J. Brandon White	
Two New Flavonoids from the Seeds of <i>Derris scandens</i>	1305
Rachakunta Munikishore, Aluru Rammohan, Adivireddy Padmaja, Duvvuru Gunasekar, Alexandre Deville and Bernard Bodo	
Dihydroflavonol and Flavonol Derivatives from <i>Macaranga recurvata</i>	1309
Mulyadi Tanjung, Euis H. Hakim, Elfahmi, Jalifah Latip and Yana M. Syah	
Flavonoids Bearing an <i>O</i>-arabinofuranosyl-(1→3)-rhamnoside Moiety from <i>Cladocolea micrantha</i>: Inhibitory Effect on Human Melanoma Cells	1311
Anderson C. Guimarães, Alvicler Magalhães, Marcos J. Nakamura, Antonio C. Siani, Christina Barja-Fidalgo and André L. F. Sampaio	
Effect of Seasonality on Chemical Composition and Antibacterial and Anticandida Activities of Argentine Propolis. Design of a Topical Formulation	1315
Maria Inés Isla, Yanina Dantur, Ana Salas, Carolina Danert, Catiana Zampini, Myriam Arias, Roxana Ordóñez, Luis Maldonado, Enrique Bedascarrasbure and María Inés Nieva Moreno	

Larvicidal Activity of Isoflavonoids from <i>Muelleria frutescens</i> Extracts against <i>Aedes aegypti</i> Charlotte Nirma, Alice M S. Rodrigues, Charlie Basset, Lionel Chevolot, Romain Girod, Christian Moretti, Didier Stien, Isabelle Dusfour and Véronique Eparvier	1319
Phenolic Compounds in Five <i>Epilobium</i> Species Collected from Estonia Indrek Remmel, Lauri Vares, Lauri Toom, Vallo Matto and Ain Raal	1323
A New Prenylated Acetophenone from the Root Bark of <i>Derris indica</i> Naushad Edayadulla and Penugonda Ramesh	1325
Phytotoxic Furanocoumarins from the Shoots of <i>Semenovia transiliensis</i> Shobha Sondhia, Stephen O. Duke, Solomon Green III, Nadezhda G. Gemejiyeva, Leonid K. Mamonov and Charles L Cantrell	1327
Chemoenzymatic Synthesis of Two New Halogenated Coumarin Glycosides as Potential Antifungal Agents Liangbin Zhou, Ling Liu, Tian Tian, Bailin Xue and Rongmin Yu	1331
Two New Naphthoquinone Derivatives from the Stem Bark of <i>Callicarpa maingayi</i> Sumayah Mohammed Asiri, Khozirah Shaari, Faridah Abas, Nabil Ali Al-Mekhlafi and Nordin H. Lajis	1333
Novel Sorbicillin Analogues from the Marine Fungus <i>Trichoderma</i> sp. Associated with the Seastar <i>Acanthaster planci</i> Wen-Jian Lan, Yang Zhao, Zhong-Liang Xie, Li-Zhen Liang, Wei-Yan Shao, Long-Ping Zhu, De-Po Yang, Xiao-Feng Zhu and Hou-Jin Li	1337
Cytotoxic Bioactivity of some Phenylpropanoic Acid Derivatives Guillermo F. Reta, Carlos E. Tonn, Carla Rios-Luci, Leticia G. León, Eduardo Pérez-Roth, José M. Padrón, and Osvaldo J. Donadel	1341
Anti-<i>Helicobacter pylori</i> Activities of Natural Isopentenylloxycinnamyl Derivatives from <i>Boronia pinnata</i> Cécile Ribeiro da Silva, Valérie Michel, Salvatore Genovese, Marie-Christine Prévost, Francesco Epifano and Eliette Touati	1347
Thymofoloinates A and B, New Cinnamic Acid Derivatives from <i>Euphorbia thymifolia</i> Riaz Hussain, Bakhat Ali, Muhammad Imran and Abdul Malik	1351
Efficient Counter-current Chromatographic Isolation and Structural Identification of Two New Cinnamic Acids from <i>Echinacea purpurea</i> Ying Lu, JiaYin Li, MiLu Li, Xia Hu, Jun Tan and Zhong Hua Liu	1353
Norlignans from <i>Asparagus cochinchinensis</i> Xing-Nuo Li, Chu Chu, Dong-Ping Cheng, Sheng-Qiang Tong and Ji-Zhong Yan	1357
Novel Application of Mahua (<i>Madhuca</i> sp.) Flowers for Augmented Protease Production from <i>Aeromonas</i> sp. S1 Amrik Bhattacharya, Vandana Saini and Anshu Gupta	1359
Chemical Composition of the Fatty Oils of the Seeds of <i>Cleome viscosa</i> Accessions Rashmi Kumari, Gopal Rao Mallavarapu, Vinod Kumar Jain and Sushil Kumar	1363
Essential Oil and other Constituents from <i>Magnolia ovata</i> Fruit Letícia F. L. Barros, Carlos Augusto Ehrenfried, Dilamara Riva, Andersson Barison, Renato de Mello-Silva and Maria Elida A. Stefanello	1365
Chemical Composition of the Essential Oil of <i>Zingiber zerumbet</i> var. <i>darcyi</i> Virendra S. Rana, Mercedes Verdeguer and Maria A. Blazquez	1369
Compositions of the Volatile Oils of <i>Citrus macroptera</i> and <i>C. maxima</i> Virendra S. Rana and Maria A. Blazquez	1371
Chemical Compositions of Essential Oils from <i>Xyloselinum vietnamense</i> and <i>X. selinum leonidii</i> Tran Huy Thai, Nguyen Sinh Khang, Nguyen Thi Hien, Tran Minh Hoi and Nguyen Tien Dat	1373
Chemotaxonomical Markers in Essential Oil of <i>Murraya koenigii</i> Thilaghavani Nagappan, Perumal Ramasamy and Charles Santhanaraju Vairappan	1375
Essential Oil Composition and Antibacterial Activity of <i>Anthemis mixta</i> and <i>A. tomentosa</i> (Asteraceae) Carmen Formisano, Daniela Rigano, Felice Senatore, Francesco Maria Raimondo, Antonella Maggio and Maurizio Bruno	1379
Antifungal and Antibacterial Activity of the Essential oil of <i>Chamaecyparis lawsoniana</i> from Spain Jesús Palá-Paúl, Jaime Usano-Aleman, Elena Granda and Ana-Cristina Soria	1383
Chemical Composition and Biological Activities of Essential Oil from <i>Hyptis crenata</i> Growing in the Brazilian Cerrado Ivana Maria Póvoa Violante, Walmir Silva Garcez, Carolina da Silva Barbosa and Fernanda Rodrigues Garcez	1387
Larvicidal Activity against <i>Aedes aegypti</i> of Essential Oils from Northeast Brazil Patrícia L. Lavor, Gilvandete M. P. Santiago, Roberto W. da Silva Gois, Leôncio M. de Sousa, Gabrieli da P. Bezerra, Nirla R. Romero, Ângela M. C. Arriaga, Telma L. G. Lemos, Péricles B. Alves and Paulo C. S. Gomes	1391
Composition and Antipseudomonal Effect of Essential Oils Isolated from Different Lavender Species Anna Végh, Tímea Bencsik, Péter Molnár, Andrea Böszörményi, Éva Lemberkovics, Krisztina Kovács, Béla Kocsis and Györgyi Horváth	1393
Essential Oil of <i>Croton argyrophylloides</i>: Toxicological Aspects and Vasorelaxant Activity in Rats Aldair de França-Neto, Ana Carolina Cardoso-Teixeira, Thiago Coutinho Medeiros, Maria do Socorro Quinto-Farias, Celia Maria de Souza Sampaio, Andreлина Noronha Coelho-de-Souza, Saad Lahlou and José Henrique Leal-Cardoso	1397
Antimicrobial Activity of Blended Essential Oil Preparation Sarin Tadtong, Supatcha Supawat, Anchalee Tintawee, Phanida Saramas, Suchada Jareonvong and Tapanee Hongratanaworakit	1401

Number 11

Conformational Analysis of Antistaphylococcal Sesquiterpene Lactones from <i>Inula helenium</i> Essential Oil Polina D. Blagojević and Niko S. Radulović	1407
Ophiobolin O and 6-Epi-ophiobolin O, Two New Cytotoxic Sesterterpenes from the Marine Derived Fungus <i>Aspergillus</i> sp. Dahai Zhang, Seketsu Fukuzawa, Masayuki Satake, Xianguo Li, Takafumi Kuranaga, Ai Niitsu, Kentaro Yoshizawa and Kazuo Tachibana	1411

Anti-Human Coronavirus (anti-HCoV) Triterpenoids from the Leaves of <i>Euphorbia neriifolia</i> Fang-Rong Chang, Chiao-Ting Yen, Mohamed El-Shazly, Wen-Hsun Lin, Ming-Hong Yen, Kuei-Hsiang Lin and Yang-Chang Wu	1415
30-Normedicagenic Acid Glycosides from <i>Chenopodium foliosum</i> Paraskev T. Nedialkov, Zlatina Kokanova-Nedialkova, Daniel Bücherl, Georgi Momekov, Jörg Heilmann, and Stefan Nikolov	1419
A New Monodesmosidic Triterpenoid Saponin from the Leaves of <i>Pometia pinnata</i> Faryal Vali Mohammad, Mushtaq Noorwala, Viqar Uddin Ahmad, Aqib Zahoor and Nordin HJ. Lajis	1423
Antiproliferative Oleanane Saponins from <i>Dizygotheca elegantissima</i> Antonio Vassallo, Mariasabina Pesca, Letizia Ambrosio, Nicola Malafronte, Nadia Dekdouk Melle, Fabrizio Dal Piaz and Lorella Severino	1427
New Holostan-type Triterpene Glycosides from the Sea Cucumber <i>Apostichopus japonicus</i> Zenglei Wang, Wei Gong, Guoquan Sun, Hua Tang, Baoshu Liu, Ling Li, Yanghua Yi and Wen Zhang	1431
Freshwater Clam Extract Inhibits Inflammatory Responses in LPS-activated Macrophages by Reducing the Activation of Mitogen-activated Protein Kinases and NF-κB Kuo-Feng Hua, Guan-Ming Chen, Chen-Lung Ho, Ming-Chung Chen, Yi-Lin Sophia Chen, Wei-Jung Chen, Jeng-Fang Huang, Yuan-Shing Perng and Chai-Ching Lin	1435
A New Monoterpenoid Oxindole Alkaloid from <i>Hamelia patens</i> Micropropagated Plantlets David Paniagua-Vega, Carlos M. Cerda-García-Rojas, Teresa Ponce-Noyola and Ana C. Ramos-Valdivia	1441
Preparation of <i>O</i>-Methyl Substituted 2-Oxofuro- and 2-Oxopyrrolidinoindolines by Reductive Lactonization of Oxindol-3-ylacetic Acids Martha S. Morales-Ríos, Ernesto Rivera-Becerril, Perla Y. López-Camacho, Nadia A. Pérez-Rojas and Oscar R. Suárez-Castillo	1445
Classification Using NMR-based Metabolomics of <i>Sophora flavescens</i> Grown in Japan and China Ryuichiro Suzuki, Yuriko Ikeda, Akari Yamamoto, Toyoe Saima, Tatsuya Fujita, Tatsuo Fukuda, Eriko Fukuda, Masaki Baba, Yoshihito Okada and Yoshiaki Shirataki	1453
Treatment of Licorice Seeds with Colchicine: Changes in Seedling DNA Levels and Anthocyanin and Glycyrrhizic Acid Contents of Derived Callus Cultures Françoise Bernard, Nahid Moghbel and Sahar Hassannejad	1457
Effects of Anhydroicaritin and 2''-Hydroxy-3''-en-anhydroicaritin on the Proliferation and Differentiation of MC3T3-E1 Osteoblasts Yanping Li, Xuehui Zhang, Hui Peng, Rongtao Li and Xuliang Deng	1461
Chemical and Biological Investigation of Some Secondary Metabolites in <i>Atriplex halimus</i> Growing in Egypt Amal Kabbash and Nagwa Shoeib	1465
Flavonoids in Selected <i>Primula</i> spp.: Bridging Micromorphology with Chemodiversity Tshering Doma Bhutia, Karin M. Valant-Vetschera, Wolfram Adlassnig and Lothar Brecker	1469
Neohesperidin Induces Cellular Apoptosis in Human Breast Adenocarcinoma MDA-MB-231 Cells via Activating the Bcl-2/Bax-mediated Signaling Pathway Fei Xu, Jia Zang, Daozhen Chen, Ting Zhang, Huiying Zhan, Mudan Lu and Hongxiang Zhuge	1475
Rotenoid Derivatives from <i>Derris trifoliata</i> with Nitric Oxide Production Inhibitory Activity Chihiro Ito, Tomiyasu Murata, Hugh T.-W. Tan, Norio Kaneda, Hiroshi Furukawa and Masataka Itoigawa	1479
Bioactive Compounds and Antioxidative, Antileukemic and Anti-MMPs Activity of <i>Eleutherococcus</i> Species Cultivated in Poland Daniel Zafuski, Helena D. Smolarz and Urszula Gawlik-Dziki	1483
Chemical Profile, Radical Scavenging and Cytotoxic Activity of Yellow Gentian Leaves (<i>Genitaneae luteae folium</i>) Grown in Northern Regions of Montenegro Jasmina Baljagić, Teodora Janković, Gordana Zdunić, Jelena Bošković, Katarina Šavikin, Dejan Godevac, Tatjana Stanojković, Miodrag Jovančević and Nebojša Menković	1487
<i>Thymus mastichina</i>: Chemical Constituents and their Anti-cancer Activity Joana Gordo, Patricia Máximo, Eurico Cabrita, Ana Lourenço, Abel Oliva, Joana Almeida, Mariana Filipe, Pedro Cruz, Rita Barcia, Miguel Santos and Helder Cruz	1491
Bioactive Lipids Metabolites in <i>Amanita virosa</i> Francesca Cateni, Marina Zacchigna, Bojan Doljak, Marko Anderluh, Giuseppe Procida and Andrej Piltaver	1495
Glycoglycerolipids from <i>Stellera chamaejasme</i> Liping Liu, Junqi Zhang, Xiaoyang Wang and Hongbing Wang	1499
Effect of 1,5-Anhydro-D-Fructose on the Inhibition of Adipogenesis in 3T3-L1 Adipocytes Akiko Kojima-Yuasa, Yohei Deguchi, Yotaro Konishi and Isao Matsui-Yuasa	1501
Preparation of a Novel Glucuronomannan from <i>Auricularia auricula</i> and its Immunological Activity Zonghong Li, Dan Jiang, Hongtao Bi, Dazheng Liu, Sungju Jang and Yifa Zhou	1507
Microwave-Assisted Isolation of Essential Oils from <i>Nepeta crispa</i> and <i>N. racemosa</i> and Comparisons with the Conventional Method Amenah Porgham Daryasari, Mojtaba Soleimani, Azam Ghorbani, Homayon Kheiri and Mohammad Porgham Daryasari	1511
Composition of the Essential Oils from <i>Peucedanum cervaria</i> and <i>P. alsaticum</i> Growing Wild in the Urban Area of Vienna (Austria) Remigius Chizzola	1515
Volatile Oil Constituents of Different Parts of <i>Artemisia chamaemelifolia</i> and the Composition and Antibacterial Activity of the Aerial Parts of <i>A. turcomanica</i> from Iran Shiva Masoudi, Abdolhossein Rustaiyan and Maryam Vahedi	1519

Volatile Composition and Biological Activity of Key Lime <i>Citrus aurantifolia</i> Essential Oil Federica Spadaro, Rosaria Costa, Clara Circosta and Francesco Occhiuto	1523
Chemical Composition, Antioxidant Properties and Antimicrobial Activity of the Essential Oil of <i>Murraya paniculata</i> Leaves from the Mountains of Central Cuba Elisa Jorge Rodríguez, Guillermo Ramis-Ramos, Yvan Vander Heyden, Ernesto F. Simó-Alfonso, María Jesús Lerma-García, Yanelis Saucedo-Hernández, Urbano Monteagudo, Yeni Morales, Beatriz Holgado and José Manuel Herrero-Martínez	1527
Chemical Composition and Anti-proliferative Properties of <i>Bursera graveolens</i> Essential Oil Lianet Monzote, Gabrielle M. Hill, Armando Cuellar, Ramón Scull and William N. Setzer	1531
Caryophyllene-Rich Essential Oil of <i>Didymocarpus tomentosa</i>: Chemical Composition and Cytotoxic Activity Prameela Javarayi Gowda, Hanumanthaiah Ramakrishnaiah, Venkatarangaiah Krishna, Sivakrishna Narra and Nataraj Jagannath	1535
Effects of Inhaled Lavender Essential Oil on Stress-Loaded Animals: Changes in Anxiety-Related Behavior and Expression Levels of Selected mRNAs and Proteins Mizuho Takahashi, Akiharu Yoshino, Ayako Yamanaka, Chihiro Asanuma, Tadaaki Satou, Shinichiro Hayashi, Yoshinori Masuo, Kiyomi Sadamoto and Kazuo Koike	1539

Review/Account

<i>Trichoderma</i> Secondary Metabolites that Affect Plant Metabolism Francesco Vinale, Krishnapillai Sivasithamparam, Emilio L. Ghisalberti, Michelina Ruocco, Sheridan Woo and Matteo Lorito	1545
An Inside to the Better Understanding of the Ethnobotanical Route to Drug Discovery- the Need of the Hour Vivekananda Mandal, Velmani Gopal and Subhash C. Mandal	1551

Number 12

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 Aysun Ozkan and Ayse Erdogan	1557
New Secoiridoid Glycosides from the Buds of <i>Lonicera macranthoides</i> Jiang Liu, Jing Zhang, Feng Wang and Xingfu Chen	1561
Chemical Constituents from the Aerial Parts of <i>Gynura bicolor</i> Jian Chen, Sven Mangelinckx, An Adams, Wei-lin Li, Zheng-tao Wang and Norbert De Kimpe	1563
Chemical Constituents of <i>Ligularia nelumbifolia</i> and <i>L. subspicata</i> Hybrid Collected in Shangrila County, Yunnan Province of China Ryo Hanai, Hiroka Yamada, Yurika Suzuki, Hajime Nagano, Takayuki Kawahara, Jiao-Jun Yu, Xun Gong and Chiaki Kuroda	1565
A Practical, Enantiospecific Synthesis of (<i>S</i>)-<i>trans</i>-γ-Monocyclofarnesol Stefano Serra	1569
ACAT Inhibitory Activity of Exudates from <i>Calocedrus macrolepis</i> var. <i>formosana</i> Yu-Hsin Hsieh, Kuan-Jung Chen, Shih-Chang Chien, Wen-Ling Cheng, Jun-Hong Xiao and Sheng-Yang Wang	1573
Cucurbitane-Type Triterpenoids from the Fruit Pulp of <i>Momordica charantia</i> Yun-Wen Liao, Chiy-Rong Chen, Yueh-Hsiung Kuo, Jue-Liang Hsu, Wen-Ling Shih, Hsueh-Ling Cheng, Tzou-Chi Huang and Chi-I Chang	1575
Two Novel Phenethylamine Alkaloids from <i>Streptomyces</i> sp. YIM10049 Xueqiong Yang, Guangwei He, Lixing Zhao, Yabin Yang, Yun Liu, Lihua Xu and Zhongtao Ding	1579
Alkaloids from <i>Cinnamomum philippinense</i> Hsing-Tan Li, Wei-Jen Li, Hui-Ming Wu and Chung-Yi Chen	1581
Conversional Synthesis of Heteratisine Ling Wang, Qi-Feng Chen and Feng-Peng Wang	1583
Flavonoids and Triterpenes from the leaves of <i>Artocarpus fulvicortex</i> Shajarahtunnur Jamil, Muhammad Taher, Hasnah M. Sirat and Nur Azlin Othman	1587
Dihydrospinochalcone-A and Epi-flemistricin-B, Natural Isocordoin Derivatives from the Root Extract of <i>Lonchocarpus xuui</i> Fabiola Escalante-Erosa, Brenda González-Morales, Ramiro F. Quijano-Quñones, Gumersindo Miron-López and Luis M. Peña-Rodríguez	1589
Phenolic Compounds, Including Novel C-glycosylflavone, from the Flowers of the Tall Bearded Iris Cultivar ‘Victoria Falls’ Takayuki Mizuno, Tsutomu Yabuya, Nobuhiro Sasaki and Tsukasa Iwashina	1591
Two New Biisoflavonoids from the Roots of <i>Daphne oleoides</i> Shazia Yasmeen, Muhammad Aijaz Anwar, Sadia Ferheen, Nighat Afza, Abdul Malik and Lubna Iqbal	1595
Biflavonoids from the Unripe Fruits of <i>Clusia paralicola</i> and their Antioxidant Activity Rafaela Ferreira Oliveira, Celso Amorim Camara, Maria de Fátima Agra and Tania Maria Sarmiento Silva	1597
Ochnaflavone and Ochnaflavone 7-O-methyl Ether two Antibacterial Biflavonoids from <i>Ochna pretoriensis</i> (Ochnaceae) Tshepiso J. Makhafole, Babatunde B. Samuel, Esameldin E. Elgorashi and Jacobus N. Eloff	1601
Factors Affecting the Separation and Bioactivity of Red Clover (<i>Trifolium pratense</i>) Extracts Assayed against <i>Clostridium sticklandii</i>, a Ruminant Hyper Ammonia-producing Bacterium Isabelle A. Kagan and Michael D. Flythe	1605
Exploitation of the Antioxidant Potential of <i>Geranium macrorrhizum</i> (Geraniaceae): Hepatoprotective and Antimicrobial Activities Niko S. Radulović, Milan B. Stojković, Snežana S. Mitić, Pavle J. Randjelović, Ivan R. Ilić, Nikola M. Stojanović and Zorica Z. Stojanović-Radić	1609

Differential Expression of Benzophenone Synthase and Chalcone Synthase in <i>Hypericum sampsonii</i> Lili Huang, Hong Wang, Hechun Ye, Zhigao Du, Yansheng Zhang, Ludger Beerhues and Benye Liu	1615
Efficient Preparation of Hangekobokuto (Banxia-Houpo-Tang) Decoction by Adding Perilla Herb before Decoction is Finished Megumi Sumino, Yuko Saito, Fumio Ikegami, Yoshiro Hirasaki and Takao Namiki	1619
Anti-neutrophilic Inflammatory Secondary Metabolites from the Traditional Chinese Medicine, Tiankuizi Chia-Lin Lee, Tsong-Long Hwang, Chieh-Yu Peng, Chao-Jung Chen, Yuan-Shiun Chang and Yang-Chang Wu	1623
DART MS Based Chemical Profiling for Therapeutic Potential of <i>Piper betle</i> Landraces Vikas Bajpai, Renu Pandey, Mahendra Pal Singh Negi, Nikhil Kumar and Brijesh Kumar	1627
Total Phenolic Content and Antioxidative Properties of Commercial Tinctures Obtained from Some Lamiaceae Plants Adam Kowalczyk, Izabela Biskup ^a and Izabela Fecka	1631
Synthesis, Antifungal Activity and Structure-Activity Relationships of Vanillin oxime-<i>N-O</i>-alkanoates Vivek Ahluwalia, Nandini Garg, Birendra Kumar, Suresh Walia and Om P. Sati	1635
Cinnamic Acid Derivatives Acting Against <i>Aspergillus</i> Fungi. Taq Polymerase I a Potential Molecular Target Lucas J. Gutierrez, Maria L. Mascotti, Marcela Kurina-Sanz, Carlos R. Pungitore, Ricardo D. Enriz and Fernando A. Giannini	1639
Insecticidal Effects of Acetogenins from <i>Rollinia occidentalis</i> Seed Extract Diego Tolosa, Olga Álvarez Colom, Alicia Bardón and Adriana Neske	1645
Conservation and Multiplication of Encapsulated Micro Shoots of <i>Rauvolfia vomitoria</i> - an Endangered Medicinal Tree: ISSR and RAPD based Evaluation of Genetic Fidelity of Converted Plantlets Shakti Mehrotra, Liaq Ur Rahman, Jahnvi Mishra and Arun K. Kukreja	1647
Bioactivities of Volatile Components from Nepalese <i>Artemisia</i> Species Prabodh Satyal, Prajwal Paudel, Ananad Kafle, Suraj K. Pokharel, Bimala Lamichhane, Noura S. Dosoky, Debra M. Moriarity and William N. Setzer	1651
Chemical Compositions, Antioxidant and Antimicrobial Activity of the Essential Oils of <i>Piper officinarum</i> (Piperaceae) Wan Mohd Nuzul Hakimi Wan Salleh, Farediah Ahmad, Khong Heng Yen and Hasnah Mohd Sirat	1659
Chemical Composition, Antimicrobial and Antioxidant Properties of the Volatile Oil and Methanol Extract of <i>Xenophyllum poposum</i> Ana M. González, María I. Tracanna, Sara M. Amani, Carola Schuff, Miguel J. Poch, Horacio Bach and César A. N. Catalán	1663
Phytochemical and Micromorphological Traits of Endemic <i>Micromeria pseudocroatica</i> (Lamiaceae) Dario Kremer, Ivna Dragojević Müller, Edith Stabenheiner, Dubravka Vitali, Martina Kopričanec, Mirko Ruščić, Ivan Kosalec, Nada Bezić and Valerija Dunkić	1667
Composition and Variability of the Essential Oil of <i>Salvia nemorosa</i> (Lamiaceae) from the Vienna Area of Austria Remigius Chizzola	1671
Essential oil Composition of <i>Ficus benjamina</i> (Moraceae) and <i>Irvingia barteri</i> (Irvingiaceae) Isiaka A. Ogunwande, Razaq Jimoh, Adedoyin A. Ajetunmobi, Nudewheni O. Avoseh and Guido Flamini	1673
<u>Review/Account</u>	
Cytotoxic Agents of the Crinane Series of Amaryllidaceae Alkaloids Jerald J. Nair, Jaime Bastida, Francesc Viladomat and Johannes van Staden	1677

Natural Product Communications

Volume 7 (1-12)

2012

Author Index

Abas, F.....	1333	Arai, MA.....	219,475	Bednarczyk – Cwynar, B.....	507	Buitrago, A.....	243
Abdalla, SS.....	35	Araya, S.....	603	Beegam, S.....	41	Bultel-Poncé, V.....	169
Abdelhameed, MS.....	1209	Arbain, D.....	799	Beerhues, L.....	1615	Bun, SS.....	1259
Acevedo, CA.....	951	Arbeloa, EM.....	1211	Begum, N.....	615	Burcul, F.....	1087
Acharya, DN.....	637	Areche, C.....	1187	Belsito, EL.....	137	Burkholz, T.....	311,709
Achour, Z.....	937	Arfan, M.....	1137,1199	Bencsik, T.....	1393	Busygin, I.....	1173
Adachi, T.....	913	Argyropoulou, C.....	937	Benešová, N.....	571	Butkiene, R.....	227
Adams, A.....	97,655,1563	Arias, M.....	1315	Benites, J.....	611		
Adlassnig, W.....	1469	Arifuku, K.....	21	Beranek, M.....	1025	Cabrera, JL.....	1025
Affifi, FU.....	35	Armas, K.....	1225	Bergonzi, MC.....	175	Cabrera, M.....	1139
Afiyatullof, SS.....	497	Arnold, E.....	165	Bermúdez J,.....	973	Cabrita, E.....	1491
Afza, N.....	1595	Arnold, N.....	113,257,1099	Bernard, F.....	1457	Çağlar, P.....	693
Afzal, RA.....	1011	Arriaga, AMC.....	1391	Bertoli, A.....	1037	Cahliková, L.....	1279
Agra, MF.....	1597	Arshad, N.....	311	Betancur-Galvis, L.....	1051	Cahliková, L.....	571
Agrawal, PK.....	709	Arun, M.....	1271	Bezerra, GP.....	1391	Cahliková, L.....	859
Agudelo-Gómez, LS.....	1051	Arung, ET.....	1007	Bezić, N.....	1227,1667	Cai, SF.....	75
Aguilar, JJ.....	1025	Asakawa, Y.....	685	Bhattacharya, A.....	1359	Calderon, PB.....	611
Aguinaldo, AM.....	743	Asanuma, C.....	1539	Bhutia, TD.....	587,1469	Callmender, MW.....	705
Ahluwalia, V.....	1219,1635	Asiri, SM.....	1333	Bi, H.....	1507	Calpena, AC.....	821
Ahmad, F.....	1659	Asres, K.....	667	Bianco, EM.....	463	Camara, CA.....	1597
Ahmad, S.....	1137	Astudillo, L.....	1187	Bigucci, F.....	137	Camara, CAG.....	463
Ahmad, VU.....	3,61,149,1423	Atoofi, A.....	979	Bilia, AR.....	175	Cantrell, CL.....	1327
Ahmed, F.....	195,219,475	Avila, JA.....	779	Birtekşöz, S.....	891	Canzoneri, M.....	1131
Ahmed, N.....	195	Avilov, SA.....	517,845,1157	Bisio, A.....	201,1237	Cárdenas, J.....	243
Ajetunmobi, AA.....	1673	Avoseh, NO.....	1673	Biskup, I.....	1631	Cardoso-Teixeira, AC.....	1397
Al salam, S.....	41	Avula, B.....	1177	Bizerra, AM.....	729	Carev, I.....	1087
Alanis-Garza, B.....	597	Awadh Ali, NA.....	257,1099	Blagojević, PD.....	1407	Carlucci, G.....	1029
Alarcón, L.....	661	Azar, PA.....	249	Blazquez, MA.....	1369,1371	Carmona, J.....	661
Alarcón, R.....	125	Azmat, S.....	3	Blessing, LDT.....	1215	Cartagena, E.....	245
Albertini, MC.....	1237			Bliss, BJ.....	747	Carvajal, M.....	603
Al-Didamony, G.....	1099	Baba, M.....	21,1453	Blunden, G.....	41,863	Casanova, J.....	227,947
Alejandro, GJD.....	779	Bach, H.....	1663	Bodo, B.....	169,1305	Castro, F.....	607
Al-Fatimi, MA.....	113	Badakar, V.....	941	Boğa, M.....	731	Catalán, CAN.....	607,1663
Alhaj, M.....	257	Baek, KH.....	65	Bonesi, M.....	1015	Cateni, F.....	1495
Al-Hallaq, EK.....	35	Báez, D.....	101,237,659	Boon, LH.....	1033	Cenci, E.....	143
Al-Harrasi, A.....	193,615	Bagdonaite, E.....	199	Borisova, M.....	1143	Cerchiara, T.....	137
Ali, B.....	1351	Bagrel, D.....	389	Borkosky, S.....	245	Cerda-Garcia-Rojas, CM.....	1441
Ali, BH.....	41	Bahadori, F.....	731	Born, FS.....	463	Cerecetto, H.....	1139
Ali, L.....	615	Bahmanzadegan, A.....	79	Borris, RP.....	747	Chakraborty, AK.....	511
Ali, NAA.....	113	Bai, J.....	561	Borsacchi, L.....	875	Chakraborty, M.....	1169
Alkhathlan, HZ.....	1079	Bajpai, V.....	1627	Bortolazzo, A.....	1295	Chang, CI.....	1575
Al-Kindy, S.....	663	Bajpai, VK.....	65	Boruah, MP.....	1021	Chang, FR.....	435,1415
Al-Lawati, I.....	41	Bakar, B.....	1197	Bošković, J.....	1487	Chang, TM.....	261
Almeida, J.....	1491	Balijagić, J.....	1487	Bossche, RVD.....	1149	Chang, YS.....	1623
Al-Mekhlafi, NA.....	1333	Bancheva, S.....	1083	Bösörményi, A.....	1393	Chanotiya, CS.....	1077
Al-Saidi, S.....	663	Bang, TH.....	1163	Bouajila, J.....	947	Chao, RB.....	713
Altabef, AB.....	1215	Bankova, V.....	569	Boustie, J.....	63	Charrouf, Z.....	621
Altosaar, I.....	675	Baptista, JG.....	661	Božić, D.....	1091	Chaudhary, A.....	203,1127
Alva, M.....	245	Barbosa, CS.....	1387	Bracci, A.....	33	Chauhan, A.....	1077
Alves, PB.....	1391	Barbosa, FG.....	771	Brancaion, APS.....	25	Chavez, K.....	5
Amani, SM.....	1663	Barcia, R.....	1491	Braun, NA.....	645	Che, CT.....	785
Amat, AG.....	33	Bardón, A.....	245,685,1215,1645	Braz-Filho, R.....	729	Chen, CJ.....	1623
Ambrosio, L.....	1427	Barison, A.....	1365	Brecker, L.....	1469	Chen, CR.....	1575
Aminin, DL.....	497	Barja-Fidalgo, C.....	1311	Bremer, M.....	1295	Chen, CY.....	883,1581
An, HJ.....	905	Barros, LFL.....	1365	Breynaert, A.....	1149	Chen, D.....	501,885
Anderluh, M.....	1495	Barros-Filho, BA.....	771	Brodie, PJ.....	705	Chen, DF.....	1069
Ando, S.....	1203	Barthwal, R.....	305	Brovetto, M.....	1215	Chen, DL.....	713
Andryjaschenko, PV.....	517,845,1157	Başer, KHC.....	1241	Bruneau, C.....	63	Chen, FY.....	1269
Andujar, SA.....	1117	Basset, C.....	1319	Bruno, M.....	1083,1131,1379	Chen, GM.....	1435
Anh, NT.....	179	Bastida, J.....	1677	Bucar, F.....	667	Chen, H.....	599
Antonov, AS.....	497	Bastos, JK.....	25	Bucarey, SA.....	789	Chen, HL.....	883
Antonova, D.....	569	Batista-Pereira, LG.....	1103	Bucchini, A.....	201	Chen, J.....	29,655,1563
Anwar, MA.....	1595	Batooli, H.....	651	Buchbauer, G.....	1095	Chen, JY.....	785
Aparicio, R.....	661	Bedascarrasbure, E.....	879,1315	Bücherl, D.....	1419	Chen, KJ.....	1573
Apers, S.....	1149	Bedini, L.....	1037	Budiene, J.....	227	Chen, MC.....	1435

- Chen, P 1185
 Chen, Q 29
 Chen, QF 1583
 Chen, QH 697,713,721
 Chen, T 561
 Chen, WJ 1435
 Chen, X 1561
 Chen, Y 1185
 Chen, YH 481
 Chen, YLS 1435
 Chen, Z 29
 Chen, D 1475
 Cheng, DP 1357
 Cheng, HL 1575
 Cheng, LQ 1155
 Cheng, WL 1573
 Cheng, Z 501
 Cheplogoi, PK 13
 Cherigo, L 165
 Chertkov, VA 353
 Chevolot, L 1319
 Chhabra, S 193
 Chidichimo, G 137
 Chien, SC 835,1573
 Chihiro Ito, C 1479
 Chipps, ES 1203
 Chiriboga, X 1139
 Chizzola, R 1515,1671
 Chlebek, J 859
 Chong, Y 57
 Chou, CH 153
 Chou, SC 153,221,1063
 Choudhary, MI 195
 Chowdhury, S 1,767
 Chrostek, L 273
 Chu, C 1357
 Chu, SS 171,267
 Chu, YH 317
 Chuang, LM 221
 Chunag, IC 883
 Churio, MS 1211
 Cicala, C 33
 Cioni, PL 629
 Circosta, C 1523
 Clares, B 821
 Clark, BR 747
 Coelho-de-Souza, AN 1397
 Coleman, AW 327
 Colom, OÁ 1645
 Comini, LR 1025
 Compagnone, RS 5
 Conforti, F 1015
 Contigiani, MS 1025
 Conway, EM 1149
 Corao, GM 563
 Cordero, Y 563
 Corrêa, AG 1103
 Costa, EV 265
 Costa, MDC 611
 Costa, R 927,1523
 Costa, SS 175
 Coutinho, MAS 175
 Cova, JA 563
 Crouch, NR 999
 Crouch, RA 113
 Cruz, EA 175
 Cruz, H 1491
 Cruz, P 1491
 Cruz-Vera, LR 1107
 Cuadros-Inostroza, A 603
 Cubilla-Rios, L 165
 Cuellar, A 1531
 Cuello, S 879
 Cutajar, S 569
 Czigle, S 1147
 da Camara, CAG 129
 da Silva, AM 1103
 da Silva, CR 1347
 da Silva, JAT 93
 da Silva, TSJ 71
 Daele, AV 1149
 Dai, DN 231
 Damme, PV 97
 Danert, C 1315
 Daniewski, WM 917
 Danikiewicz, W 917
 Danova, K 1075
 Dantur, Y 1315
 Daryasari, AP 1511
 Daryasari, MP 1511
 Das, P 1127
 Dat, NT 1373
 David, JM 781
 David, JP 781
 de França-Neto, A 1397
 De Kimpe, N 1563
 De Kimpe, N 655
 de Lampasona, MP 607
 de Mello-Silva, R 1365
 de Menezes, RRPB 71
 de Moraes, MM 129
 de Oliveira, MCF 771
 de Oliveira, MR 71
 de Sousa, DF 71
 de Sousa, JPB 25
 de Torres NW 597
 De, UC 1
 Defillipo, PP 841
 Deguchi, Y 1501
 Dehelean, CA 981
 Demirci, B 1241
 Demirci, F 1241
 Demirezer, OL 187
 Deng, JUG 207
 Deng, RD 1069
 Deng, SP 599
 Deng, X 1461
 Deng, YH 181
 Denisenko, VA 487
 Denkert, A 1099
 Desai, DC 1171
 Dev, GK 1271
 Deville, A 1305
 Dhiman, M 1171
 Di, YT 1267
 Diaz, S 1215
 Diederich, M 389
 Dinda, B 1
 Ding, Z 1579
 Dirmenci, T 693
 Diwan, R 895
 Djebile, K 937
 Djeddi, S 937
 Dmitrenok, PS 487,517
 Dmitrenok, PS 845,853,1157
 do Nascimento, AF 129
 Doljak, B 1495
 Domínguez-Villegas, V 821
 Donadel, OJ 1341
 Dong, HP 883
 Dong, L 51
 Dong, Y 867
 Donmez, AA 187
 dos Santos, EO 781
 Dosoky, NS 1233
 Drabek, O 253
 Draeger, S 293
 Druhl, LD 863
 Du, D 501
 Du, P 381
 Du, YC 435
 Du, Z 1615
 Duan, JA 785
 Duddeck, H 359
 Dugo, P 927
 Duke, SO 1327
 Dunkić, V 1227,1667
 Duque, S 973
 Dusfour, I 1319
 Dutra, LM 265
 Dyshlovoy, SA 487
 Džamić, AM 235
 Ebrahimi, SN 753
 Edayadulla, N 1325
 Edmonds, ME 45
 Ehrenfried, CA 1365
 El-Shazly, M 1415
 Elfahmi 1309
 Elgorashi, EE 1601
 Elias, R 1259
 Elkhateeb, A 609
 Eloff, JN 1601
 Elsayed, KNM 1209
 El-Shazly, M 435
 Enriz, RD 1117,1639
 Eparvier, V 1319
 Epifano, F 143,1029,1347
 Erdogan, A 1557
 Erkan, N 121
 Ermakova, SP 853
 Escalante-Erosa, F 1589
 Escobedo, JO 317
 Espinoza, L 603
 Evstatieva, L 1075
 Fadail, I 1099
 Fahrenwaldt, T 151
 Faizal, A 1149
 Faizi, S 831
 Fallarero, A 1173
 Falodun, A 151
 Farahmand, M 133
 Farooq, U 149
 Farrugia, C 569
 Fecka, I 1631
 Fedoce, AG 841
 Fedorov, SN 487
 Feflea, S 981
 Feng, S 561
 Feng, Y 181
 Feng, YX 75
 Fenical, W 789
 Feo, VD 33
 Ferheen, S 1595
 Fernández, F 607
 Ferreira, AS 841
 Fielder, MD 103
 Filipe, M 1491
 Flamini, G 629,1237,1673
 Flesar, J 253
 Flythe, MD 1605
 Fohrer, J 359
 Fondekar, KPP 827
 Fong, P 1287
 Formisano, C 1083
 Formisano, C 1379
 Foubert, K 1149
 Franz, AH 353
 Franzblau, SG 743,779
 Fraternal, D 1237
 Frédéric, M 515
 Fujii, H 1193
 Fujii, Y 1197
 Fujikawa, S 215
 Fujita, T 1453
 Fukuda, E 21,1453
 Fukuda, T 1453
 Fukuzawa, S 1411
 Furukawa, H 1479
 Furuta, S 1007
 Gaascht, F 389
 Gadelha, FR 265
 Gan, LS 971
 Ganapathi, A 1271
 Gao, WP 1155
 Gaonkar, RH 989
 Garbarino, JA 603
 Garcez, FR 1387
 Garcez, WS 1387
 García, ML 821
 Garduño-Ramírez, ML 821
 Garg, N 1635
 Garza-González, E 597
 Gattaz, WF 841
 Gawlik-Dziki, U 1483
 Gayathri, C 735
 Geelen, D 1149
 Gehle, D 743
 Gehrmann, B 875
 Geissler, M 1095
 Gelli, F 1037
 Gemejiyeva, NG 1327
 Genovese, S 1029,1347
 Gerwick, WH 165
 Ghale, G 343
 Gharby, S 621
 Ghisalberti, EL 1545
 Ghomi, JS 651
 Ghorbani, A 1511
 Ghosh, R 1,989
 Giacomelli, E 201
 Giamperi, L 201
 Giannini, FA 1639
 Gil, RG 735
 Gilbert, MJ 1107
 Giovanelli, S 629
 Girod, R 1319
 Girova, T 1095
 Gkatzionis, K 103
 Gochev, V 1095
 Godevac, D 1487
 Goedecke, T 785
 Göger, F 1241
 Gois, RWS 1391
 Gokel, GW 333
 Golebiewski, WM 917
 Gomes, PCS 1391
 Gong, H 81
 Gong, W 1431
 Gong, X 423,431,447,451,539,
 Gong, X 1565
 González, AM 1663
 González, M 1139
 González, MA 1051
 González-Morales, B 1589
 González-Mujica, F 973
 González-Sarrias, A 45
 Goossens, A 1149
 Gopal, V 1551
 Gopichand 203
 Gordo, J 1491
 Gören, AC 919
 Gören, N 693
 Gorgorov, R 761
 Gorincioi, E 565
 Gowda, PJ 1535
 Gowda, PJ 943
 Grace, MH 1263
 Granda, E 1383
 Graziose, R 1263
 Green III, S 1327
 Green, IR 193
 Gritsanapan, W 1277
 Grodner, J 917
 Gruhlke, MCH 395
 Guan, J 591
 Guan, SH 197
 Guan, XL 599
 Gucma, M 917
 Guillaume, D 621
 Guimarães, AC 1311
 Guiry, MD 863
 Gunasekar, D 1305

- Guo, DA197
 Guo, SX591
 Guo, X353
 Guo, YQ495
 Gupta, A1359
 Gupta, AP991
 Gupta, MP1043
 Gupta, N899
 Gupta, S991
 Gupta, SP305
 Gurbuz, P187
 Gutierrez, E611
 Gutierrez, LJ1639
 Gutiérrez, M1187
 Güvenç, A919
- Haddad, A621
 Hadjbourega, G937
 Hadjiakhoondi, A753
 Hagiwara, H913
 Hajimehdiipoor, H979
 Hajlaoui, H947
 Hakim, EH1309
 Hamada, H529,531
 Hamada, Y419
 Hamburger, M753
 Hamed, AI633
 Han, J1185
 Han, T963
 Hanack, M363
 Hanai, R431,451,539,1565
 Handique, JG1021
 Hao, XJ1267
 Har, LW1033
 Harhar, H621
 Harinantenaina, L467,685,705
 Harnly, JM749
 Hartmann, A321
 Harzallah-Skhiri, F947
 Hasegawa, M973
 Hasegawa, T419
 Hassan, SHM1209
 Hassannejad, S1457
 Hatakeyama, T1065
 Hatami, A79
 Havlik, J253
 Hay, AE873
 Hayashi, K427
 Hayashi, S1539
 Háznagy-Radnai, E1147
 He, G1575
 He, HP1267
 He, P1185
 He, QJ971
 He, Y207
 Heilmann, J1419
 Heine, T359
 Hernandez, Y47
 Herrero-Martínez, JM1527
 Heyden, YV1527
 Heydenreich, M1123
 Hien, NT1373
 Hill, GM257,1531
 Hiradate, S1197
 Hirano, H529
 Hirao, M1133
 Hirasaki, Y1619
 Hirota, H451
 Hisham, A663
 Hleba, L641
 Ho, CL109,261,933, 1245,1435
 Hock, AHS775
 Höferl, M1095
 Hoi, TM231,1373
 Holgado, B1527
 Honda, K459
 Hongratanaworakit, T1401
 Horiguchi, Y451
 Horváth, G1393
- Hoshi, T913
 Hoshino, Y459
 Hossain, MA301
 Hošťálková, A1279
 Hostettmann, K873
 Hrstka, V571
 Hsieh, SF435
 Hsieh, TJ435
 Hsieh, YH1573
 Hsu, JL1575
 Hsu, KP933,1245
 Hu, X1353
 Hu, XY207
 Hu, Y211
 Hua, H53
 Hua, KF933,1435
 Huang, CH153
 Huang, JF1435
 Huang, JJ1057
 Huang, L1615
 Huang, LJ883
 Huang, TC1575
 Huang, TJ153
 Hussain, H193,293,615,779
 Hussain, J193,615
 Hussain, R1351
 Hussin, N927
 Hwang, TL435,481,1623
- Ibraheem, IB1209
 Ibrahim, SRM9
 Ichihara, M423
 Ifzal, R3
 Ikeda, Y1453
 Ikegami, F1619
 Ikram, A831
 Ilić, IR1609
 Imai, H531
 Imran, M1011,1351
 Inoue, S459
 Iqbal, L1595
 İçcan, G1241
 Ishibashi, M219,475
 Ishida, H1193
 Ishikawa, H1007
 Isla, MI879,1315
 Islam, MR1203
 Ismail, IS1033
 Ismil, R1197
 Isobe, T977
 Ito, Y973
 Itoigawa, M1479
 Ivanauskas, L199
 Ivanchina, NV853
 Ivanova, B157,581,1273
 Iwabuchi, K471
 Iwamoto, Y447
 Iwashina, T173,1005,1591
 Izawa, T1193
 Izumi, H419
- Jabrane, A947
 Jachak, SM1189
 Jacob, C311,381,709
 Jagannath, N943,1535
 Jaglan, S991
 Jahodář, L571
 Jain, GK1111
 Jain, VK1363
 Jaisanka, P767
 Jaisankar, P511
 Jaiswal, N899
 Jamil, S1587
 Janeš, D861
 Jang, KH789
 Jang, S1507
 Janjua, NK311
 Janković, T1487
 Jannet, HB947
- Janulis, V199
 Jareonvong, S1401
 Jauch, J283
 Jayanthi, P1249
 Jayaram, B305
 Jayini, R1203
 Jebors, S327
 Jemia, MB1083
 Jerković, I931,1087
 Jeyaraj, M1271
 Ji, F53
 Ji, NY819
 Jia, YX93
 Jian, XX713
 Jiang, D1507
 Jiang, GH171,267
 Jiang, J29
 Jiang, Y1165
 Jimoh, R1673
 Jiroš, P859
 Jirovetz, L1095
 Jitvaropas, R909
 Joshi, A757
 Joshi, RK941
 Jovančević, M1487
 Jovanović, O83
 Judzentiene, A227
 Júnior, MG25
- Kabbash, A1465
 Kabouche, Z63
 Kacaniova, M641
 Kacem, N873
 Kadota, S815
 Kagan, IA1605
 Kaiser, CR175
 Kalamar, B861
 Kalemba, D269,625
 Kalinin, VI517,845,1157
 Kalinovskiy, AI487,497,517
 Kalinovskiy, AI845,853,1157
 Kalita, D1021
 Kaljurand, M1143
 Kam, TS739
 Kamarulzaman, FA1033
 Kamat, SP827
 Kamchonwongpaisan, S575
 Kamo, O21
 Kamo, T1197
 Kan, S885
 Kaneda, N1479
 Kang, SC65
 Kant, A103
 Kantamreddi, KSS19
 Kapustina, II487
 Karaket, N169
 Karma, E269
 Kartal, M731
 Kashi, FJ651
 Katakura, K609
 Kato, MJ1103
 Kaur, P203,1127
 Kawahara, T1565
 Kawai, H863
 Kawai, M427,459
 Kawaii, S451
 Kazaz, ZGC187
 Keawsa-ard, S955
 Keeratinijakal, V1277
 Keller, PA575
 Khalid, S831
 Khan, A149
 Khan, AF149
 Khan, AY311
 Khan, FU615
 Khan, IA1177
 Khan, M1079
 Khan, SI1123
 Khan, SS149
- Khang, NS1373
 Khansari, ME301
 Khatoon, R61
 Khay, M1259
 Kheiri, H1511
 Kiang, LC775
 Kicha, AA853
 Kido, M427
 Kijjoa, A47
 Kikuchi, M527,533,1133
 Kim, MK57
 Kimpe, ND97
 Kincer, BL1233
 Kingston, DGI705
 Kintya, P565
 Kinuthia, EW13
 Kiplimo, JJ999
 Kirimer, N1241
 Kirsch, G389
 Kishida, A977
 Kitadate, K1193
 Kitagawa, Y15
 Kitajima, J173
 Kitaoka, N215
 Kite, GC1047
 Kizaki, T1193
 Kleinpeter, E1123
 Klimeš, J571,1279
 Kloucek, P253
 Kocsis, B1393
 Kogame, K863
 Koike, K1539
 Kojima-Yuasa, A1501
 Kokai, J757
 Kokanova-Nedialkova, Z1419
 Kokoska, L253
 Kokubun, T1047
 Kolak, U731
 Komiyama, K977
 Komiyama, M349
 Kondo, R1007,1163
 Kongkiatpaiboon, S1277
 Konigheim, BS1025
 Konishi, M459
 Konishi, Y1501
 Koorbanally, NA999
 Kopričanec, M1667
 Korir, E999
 Koryudzu, K219
 Kosalec, I1667
 Köse, YB1241
 Koseki, T1065
 Kouam, SF779
 Kovačević, N1091
 Kovács, K1393
 Kowalczyk, A1631
 Kragl, U151
 Krasokhin, VB487
 Kraus, GA191
 Krause, MR337
 Kreft, S861
 Kremer, D1029,1227,1667
 Krishna, V943
 Krohn, K193,293,743,779
 Kubik, S337
 Kuboki, A427
 Kubota, N529
 Kučera, R571,1279
 Küçükboyacı, N919
 Kuhnert, N343
 Kujala, J1173
 Kukreja, AK1647
 Kulkarni, RN1223
 Kulkarni, SS1223
 Kumar, A767
 Kumar, B1627,1635
 Kumar, D989
 Kumar, N995,1627
 Kumar, S305,1363

- Kumari, R 1363
 Kuneš, J 859
 Kuo, YH 835,1575
 Kuranaga, T 1411
 Kurina-Sanz, M 1639
 Kuroda, C 423,431,447,451,539
 Kuroda, C 1565
 Kuroda, M 471
 Kuroyanagi, M 441
 Kuruzum-Uz, A 187

 Laatsch, H 1199
 Labokas, J 199
 Lacaille-Dubois, MA 595
 Laguna, A 47
 Lahlou, S 1397
 Lai, XP 1069
 Laird, K 103
 Lajis, NH 1333
 Lajis, NHJ 1423
 Lakušić, B 1091
 Lalitha, P 1249
 Lan, CQ 675
 Lan, WJ 495,1337
 Langat, MK 13
 Langat-Thoruwa, C 193
 Langer, P 151
 Lategan, C 1263
 Latip, J 1309
 Lavaggi, ML 1139
 Lavor, PL 1391
 Leal-Cardoso, JH 1397
 Lee, CL 1623
 Lee, GG 905
 Lee, KH 725
 Lee, KT 905
 Lee, NL 479
 Lee, SG 65
 Lee, SS 221,1063
 Leino, R 1173
 Lemberkovics, E 1393
 Lemos, TLG 1391
 Lemos, TLG 729
 León, LG 1341
 Leonardi, M 629
 Leonardi, M 633
 Lerma-García, MJ 1527
 Leśniewska, B 327
 Levandi, T 1143
 Li, H 1069
 Li, HJ 1337
 Li, HT 883,1581
 Li, J 51,599,885
 Li, JY 1353
 Li, K 867
 Li, L 45,1431
 Li, ML 1353
 Li, R 1461
 Li, W 655,1563
 Li, WJ 1581
 Li, X 181,867,1185,1411
 Li, XD 819
 Li, XN 1357
 Li, XY 1269
 Li, Y 75,561,1461
 Li, YW 1069
 Li, Z 53,1507
 Lialitska, T 1295
 Liang, LZ 1337
 Liang, XX 697
 Liao, YW 1575
 Liawruangrath, B 955
 Liawruangrath, S 955
 Liguori, A 137
 Lila, MA 1263
 Lima, DB 71
 Lin, CC 1435
 Lin, EH 153
 Lin, H 885
 Lin, KH 1415
 Lin, LZ 749
 Lin, S 29
 Lin, TY 835
 Lin, WH 1415
 Lindequist, U 1099
 Linghu, RG 75
 Liu, B 1431,1615
 Liu, D 1507
 Liu, DH 1069
 Liu, F 191
 Liu, FG 889
 Liu, G 53
 Liu, J 333,1331,1499,1561
 Liu, QR 267
 Liu, S 29
 Liu, SL 171
 Liu, SS 1057
 Liu, T 889
 Liu, X 53,353
 Liu, XH 819
 Liu, XX 713
 Liu, Y 59,1579
 Liu, YM 181
 Liu, ZH 1353
 Liu, ZL 171,267
 Lizarraga, E 607
 Loandos, MH 1117
 Loc, TV 179
 Locatelli, M 1029
 Loizzo, MR 1015
 López, J 611
 López-Camacho, PY 1445
 López-Pérez, JL 1043
 Lorito, M 1545
 Lourenço, A 1491
 Lu, CH 1057
 Lu, L 59
 Lu, M 1475
 Lu, MC 479
 Lu, Y 1353
 Lucena, M 243
 Ludwiczuk, A 685
 Luiten, PGM 1117
 Luppi, B 137
 Łysik, A 917
 Lyubimtsev, A 363

 Ma, GH 93
 Ma, H 45
 Mabrouki, F 1259
 Macabeo, APG 743,779
 Macahig, RA 467
 Macáková, K 571,859
 Machado, LL 729
 Machida, K 527,533,11333
 Machumi, F 1123
 MacMillan, JB 211
 Mafezoli, J 771
 Magalhães, A 1311
 Maggio, A 1379
 Maggio, AM 1131
 Mahajan, GB 1171
 Mahiou-Leddett, V 1259
 Maione, F 33
 Majumder, HK 767
 Makarieva, TN 487
 Makhafola, TJ 1601
 Malafronte, N 1427
 Maldonado, L 1315
 Maldonado, L 879
 Maleš, Z 931
 Malghani, MAK 195
 Malik, A 1011,1351,1595
 Malkawi, A 1203
 Mallavarapu, GR 87,223,1363
 Malpathak, N 895
 Malyarenko, TV 853
 Mamonov, LK 1327
 Mandai, T 531
 Mandal, SC 1551
 Mandal, V 1551
 Mangelinckx, S 655,1563
 Manickavasagam, M 1271
 Manju, SL 1171
 Marčetić, M 1091
 Marchenko, A 565
 Marcotullio, MC 143
 Marin, PD 235
 Marioni, J 1025
 Marston, A 873
 Martínez-Luis, S 165
 Martins, AMC 71
 Martyas, EA 517,845,1157
 Maruenda, H 735
 Marzony, ET 133
 Mascolo, N 33
 Mascotti, ML 1639
 Masman, MF 1117
 Masoomi, R 651
 Masoudi, S 117,1519
 Masuo, Y 1539
 Matejić, JS 235
 Mateu, E 5
 Máthé, I 1147
 Matsui-Yuasa, I 1501
 Matsumoto, M 529
 Matsunami, K 467
 Matsushita, Y 1007
 Matsura, H 215,609
 Matsuura, N 427
 Mattiza, JT 359
 Matto, V 1323
 Máximo, P 1491
 Mazik, M 321
 Mazumder, A 667
 McFeeters, H 1107
 McFeeters, RL 1107
 McNeil, MJ 1231
 Medeiros, TC 1397
 Mehmood, R 1011
 Mehrotra, S 1647
 Meibodi, ZA 249
 Meira, M 781
 Meiser, P 381
 Melle, ND 1427
 Melzig, MF 875
 Menchinskaya, ES 497
 Menendez, R 47
 Menichini, F 1015
 Menković, N 1487
 Messina, F 143
 Meyer, GRY 1149
 Meyer, V 359
 Miao Li, M 409
 Miao, FP 819
 Michel, S 891
 Michel, V 1347
 Midiwo, JO 1123
 Mifsud, D 569
 Milenković, M 1091
 Milos, M 1087
 Mimaki, Y 15,471
 Ming, Q 963
 Miño, P 1139
 Miron-López, G 1589
 Mishra, J 1647
 Mitaine-Offier, AC 595
 Mitić, SS 1609
 Mitić, V 83
 Mitsui, T 427
 Miyamoto, T 595
 Mizuno, T 1591
 Moghadam, MH 979
 Moghbel, N 1457
 Mohammad, FV 1423
 Mohammadpour, G 133
 Mohammed, FV 3
 Mohebat, R 117
 Mollo, E 487
 Molnár, J 981
 Molnár, P 1393
 Momekov, G 1419
 Monache, FD 5
 Mondello, L 927
 Monte, FJQ 729
 Monteagudo, U 1527
 Monteiro, HSA 71
 Montenarh, M 401
 Monzote, L 1531
 Moodley, N 999
 Mooi, LY 775
 Moon, HI 825
 Moradi-Afrapoli, F 753
 Moraes, VRS 265
 Morales, A 1225
 Morales, D 101,237,659
 Morales, RA 47
 Morales, Y 1527
 Morales-Rios, MS 1445
 Moreno, MIN 1315
 Moretti, C 1319
 Mosaddegh, M 979
 Mosihuzzaman, M 807
 Mosslemin, MH 117
 Mottaleb, MA 1203
 Mousa, AA 1079
 Mpetga, JS 515
 Mu, Q 889
 Muhammad, I 1123
 Muhi, MZ 1203
 Mukherjee, T 511
 Mukherjee, T 767
 Mukhopadhyay, S 767,1169
 Mukhopadhyay, SB 511
 Müller, ID 1667
 Munikishore, R 1305
 Murata, T 1479
 Murayama, T 1065
 Muro, AC 1117
 Murugan, R 87
 Muzitano, MF 175
 Mwangi, EM 13

 Nabata, K 609
 Nabeta, K 215
 Nadaoka, I 15
 Nagano, H 539,1565
 Nagappan, T 239,1375
 Nair, JJ 959,1677
 Nair, MG 1219
 Nakamura, MJ 1311
 Nakamura, T 913
 Nakane, T 441
 Nam, JW 795
 Nam, SJ 789
 Namiki, T 1619
 Narra, VKS 1535
 Nau, WM 343
 Navarro-Vázquez, A 735
 Nazaruk, J 269
 Nazir, M 293
 Ndontsa, BL 515
 Nedialkov, PT 1419
 Negi, MPS 1627
 Nemmar, A 41
 Neske, A 1215,1645
 Ng, A 1295
 Ng'ang'a, MM 193
 Ngadjui, BT 595
 Nguyen, D 1295
 Nguyen, HX 185
 Nguyen, MHK 185
 Nguyen, MTT 185
 Nguyen, NT 185
 Nii, K 685
 Niitsu, A 1411

Nikolov, S.....	1419	Peña-Rodríguez, LM.....	1589	Ramos, J.....	1215	Salas, A.....	1315
Nikolova, M.....	761	Peng, CY.....	1623	Ramos-Valdivia, AC.....	1441	Salazar-Aranda, R.....	597
Ninh, PT.....	179	Peng, H.....	1461	Rana, VS.....	1369,1371	Saleh, AM.....	637
Nirma, C.....	1319	Peng, Y.....	867	Randelović, VN.....	235	Salleh, WMNHW.....	1659
Nirmal, J.....	1111	Peraire, C.....	821	Randic, M.....	1029	Salvador, MJ.....	265
Nisha, N.....	1111	Pérez-Guaita, D.....	1051	Randjelović, PJ.....	1609	Sami, M.....	15
Nishiki, M.....	685	Pérez-Rojas, NA.....	1445	Rani, TS.....	1283	Samoshin, VV.....	353
Nishioka, H.....	1193	Pérez-Roth, E.....	1341	Raposo, AH.....	841	Samoshina, NM.....	353
Niu, S.....	53	Perng, YS.....	1435	Raposo, NRB.....	841	Sampaio, ALF.....	1311
Niu, XT.....	599	Pesca, M.....	1427	Rasamison, VE.....	705	Sampaio, CMS.....	1397
Noguchi, E.....	349	Peters, MS.....	409	Raskin, I.....	1263	Samuel, BB.....	1601
Nogueira, NAP.....	71	Pezzuto, JM.....	789	Rath, NP.....	333	Sánchez, E.....	951
Nogueira, PCL.....	265	Pham, A.....	1295	Rattanajak, R.....	575	Sánchez, LA.....	1043
Nogueiras, C.....	47	Pham, VC.....	169	Ravindra, NS.....	1223	San-Martin, A.....	1187
Noorwala, M.....	1423	Phillips, CA.....	103	Razaftisalama, LJ.....	705	Sano, Y.....	215
Norjosa, DB.....	71	Phoolcharoen, W.....	909	Read, RW.....	979	Santalova, EA.....	617
Novak, A.....	757	Piaz, FD.....	1427	Regalado, EL.....	47	Santayana, MP.....	757
Novák, Z.....	859	Pieters, L.....	1149	Remmel, I.....	1323	Santiago, GMP.....	1387
Nozaki, H.....	427	Pilepić, KH.....	931	Ren, B.....	655	Santiago, GMP.....	729
Núñez Montoya, SC.....	1025	Piltaver, A.....	1495	Reta, GF.....	1341	Santos, AKL.....	729
Nwachukwu, ID.....	395	Pino, JA.....	101,237,659	Rhouati, S.....	873	Santos, M.....	1491
Nyunt, KS.....	609	Piovano, M.....	603,951	Riaz, N.....	1137	Saramas, P.....	1401
Ocampos, S.....	125	Pirisi, FM.....	1015	Ribeiro, LHG.....	265	Sarkar, T.....	511
Occhiuto, F.....	1523	Pistelli, L.....	629,633,1037	Ricci, D.....	201,1237	Sarolic, M.....	1087
Ogasawara, J.....	1193	Pivkin, MV.....	497	Rigano, D.....	1379	Sarwar, R.....	149
Ogunsina, MO.....	757	Plenzig, F.....	363	Riina, R.....	5	Sasaki, N.....	1591
Ogunwande, IA.....	231,1673	Poch, MJ.....	1663	Rios-Luci, C.....	1341	Sastraruij, T.....	575
Ohira, S.....	427	Pokhilo, ND.....	901	Ristić, MS.....	235	Satake, M.....	1411
Ohno, H.....	1193	Politeo, O.....	1087	Riva, D.....	1365	Satheeshkumar, N.....	1111
Ohsaki, A.....	977	Polonini, HC.....	841	Rivera-Becerril, E.....	1445	Sati, OP.....	1635
Ohya, N.....	419	Ponce-Noyola, T.....	1441	Robal, M.....	1143	Satou, T.....	1539
Oji, KA.....	671	Popich, S.....	245	Rocha, IDC.....	757	Sattar, FA.....	195
Okada, Y.....	1453	Popova, M.....	569	Rodrigues, AMS.....	1319	Sattar, SA.....	195
Okada, Y.....	21	Porter, RBR.....	1231	Rodrigues-Filho, E.....	771	Satyal, P.....	1233
Okamoto, Y.....	423,447	Porzel, A.....	257	Rodriguez, A.....	1139	Saucedo-Hernández, Y.....	1527
Oksal, BS.....	121	Prado, S.....	891	Rodriguez, EJ.....	1527	Šavikin, K.....	1487
Oleszek, W.....	633	Prakash, O.....	89	Rodriguez, M.....	973	Scardigli, A.....	875
Oliva, A.....	1491	Pramanik, A.....	301	Rojas, J.....	243,1225	Schmidt, E.....	1095
Oliveira, MF.....	71	Prasad, YR.....	485	Rojas, L.....	661,1225	Schmidt, J.....	257
Oliveira, RF.....	1597	Prévost, MC.....	1347	Rojas, M.....	611	Schrader, T.....	409
Ollivier, E.....	1259	Prieto, JM.....	757	Rojas-Fermin, L.....	243	Schuff, C.....	1663
Olmedo, D.....	1043	Procaccini, RA.....	1211	Rojas, L.....	611	Schüller, A.....	1199
Ooka, H.....	987	Procida, G.....	1495	Romani, A.....	875	Schulz, B.....	293
Opletal, L.....	571,859,1279	Protzman, AD.....	1203	Romero, NR.....	1391	Score, J.....	103
Ordoñez, R.....	879,1315	Przybysz, E.....	917	Romussi, G.....	201	Scull, R.....	1531
Osolodkin, DI.....	295	Pungitore, CR.....	1639	Ross, SA.....	1209	Seeram, NP.....	45
Osorio, M.....	951	Pyne, SG.....	575,955	Rosselli, S.....	1131	Sekita, S.....	441
Ota, M.....	987	Qin, L.....	963	Rossi, E.....	143	Selvaraj, N.....	1271
Othman, NA.....	1587	Qiu (Samuel), S.....	561	Rossi-Bergmann, B.....	175	Senatore, F.....	1083,1379
Otsuka, H.....	467	Queiróz, LP.....	781	Rout, PK.....	89	Seo, EK.....	795
Ounsuk, S.....	169	Quesada, L.....	1187	Rowshan, V.....	79	Seoane, G.....	1215
Ozawa, M.....	977	Quijano-Quñones, RF.....	1589	Roy, SK.....	1189	Sepúlveda, B.....	1187
Ozkan, A.....	1557	Quinto-Farias, MS.....	1397	Ruffoni, B.....	1037	Şerbetçi, T.....	891
Özüdüru, G.....	359	Raal, A.....	1323	Ruiz, MA.....	821	Serra, S.....	455,1569
Pacciaroni, A.....	125	Rada, V.....	253	Rumalla, CS.....	1177	Setzer, WN.....	113,257, 1099,1107
Padalia, RC.....	1077	Radhika, P.....	485	Ruocco, M.....	1545	Setzer, WN.....	1233, 1531,1651
Padmaja, A.....	1305	Radulović, NS.....	1407	Rupasinghe, HPV.....	121	Severino, L.....	1427
Padrón, LM.....	1341	Radulović, NS.....	1609	Rušćić, M.....	1227,1667	Shaaban, KA.....	1199
Paknikar, SK.....	827	Radwan, MM.....	1209	Russ, TH.....	301	Shaari, K.....	1033,1333
Pal, BC.....	989	Rafieiolhossaini, M.....	97	Rustaiyan, A.....	117,1519	Shafaghath, A.....	671
Palaniveloo, K.....	239	Rahman, K.....	963	Saba, N.....	61	Shah, AUA.....	1137
Palá-Paúl, J.....	1383	Rahman, LU.....	1647	Sabuncuoğlu, S.....	39	Shah, Z.....	1137
Palyulin, VA.....	295	Raimondo, FM.....	1379	Sadamoto, K.....	1539	Shahrestani, R.....	979
Pandav K.....	305	Rajesh M.....	1271	Sadhu, SK.....	219	Shan, Y.....	333
Pandey, R.....	1627	Rajeswara Rao, BR.....	223	Sadhu, SK.....	475	Shao, L.....	885
Pandotra, P.....	991	Rakotobe, E.....	705	Saeidnia, S.....	753	Shao, WY.....	1337
Pandya, P.....	305	Ramakrishnaiah, H.....	943,1535	Saeidnia, S.....	979	Sharifan, A.....	249
Paniagua-Vega, D.....	1441	Ramasamy, P.....	1375	Saenthaweesuk, S.....	909	Sharma, R.....	991
Parab, RR.....	1171	Ramesh, P.....	1325	Sahoo, D.....	89	Sharma, U.....	995
Park, EJ.....	789	Ramesh, S.....	223	Said, M.....	927	Sharopov, FS.....	257
Park, JC.....	57	Rameshkumar, KB.....	663	Saidu, NEB.....	401	She, XK.....	713
Parmar, BS.....	1219	Ramírez, CL.....	1211	Saifudin, A.....	815	Shen, YM.....	1057
Paul, M.....	283	Ramírez, I.....	603	Saima, T.....	1453	Sherwani, N.....	663
Paul, P.....	511	Ramírez-Durón, R.....	597	Saini, V.....	1359	Shigi, N.....	349
Pecetti, L.....	837	Ramis-Ramos, G.....	1527	Saito, Y.....	423,431,447,1619	Shih, WL.....	1575
Peña, A.....	661	Rammohan, A.....	1305	Sakaguchi, K.....	173	Shimizu, A.....	431
Peña-Cortés, H.....	603	Ramos, CS.....	129,1103	Sakamoto, A.....	419	Shimizu, K.....	1007,1163
				Sakurai, T.....	1193	Shimoda, K.....	529,531
						Shinzato, T.....	467

- Shiono, Y 1065
 Shirataki, Y 1453
 Shiota, O 441
 Shoeib, N 1465
 Shubina, LK 487
 Shukla, P 1219
 Shulga, DA 295
 Siani, AC 1311
 Sifuentes, R 735
 Silchenko, AS 517,845,1157
 Silva, TMS 1597
 Sim, S 645
 Simmonds, MSJ 1047,1131
 Simó-Alfonso, EF 1527
 Singh, B 203,995,1127
 Sirat, HM 1587,1659
 Sireeratawong, S 909
 Sivanandhan, G 1271
 Sivasithamparam, K 1545
 Sivryuk, V 1295
 Skaltsa, H 937
 Skocibusic, M 1087
 Skogman, ME 1173
 Skropeta, D 923
 Slusarenko, AJ 395
 Smid, J 253
 Smillie, TJ 1177
 Smith, GJ 145
 Smith, PJ 1263
 Smolarz, HD 1483
 Soares, MG 1103
 Sodaiezhadeh, H 97
 Şöhretoğlu, D 39
 Soica, C 981
 Şoica, CM 289
 Soleimani, M 1511
 Solórzano, E 879
 Somporn, N 909
 Sonali, N 1111
 Sondhia, S 1327
 Song, YL 1165
 Sonnenberg, C 321
 Soria, AC 1383
 Sosa, V 125
 Sothea, K 1259
 Sousa, LM 1391
 Sowjanya, K 485
 Spadafora, C 165
 Spadaro, F 1523
 Spandana, V 1111
 Spiteller, M 157,581,1273
 Srinivas, KVNS 1223
 Sripathi, SK 1249
 Srivastava, A 1189
 Srivastava, AK 899
 Srivastava, SK 899
 Stabentheiner, E 1667
 Stanilova, M 761
 Stankov-Jovanović, V 83
 Stanojković, T 1487
 Statti, G 1015
 Stefanello, MEA 1365
 Steyger, PS 317
 Stien, D 1319
 Stochmal, A 633
 Stojakowska, A 625
 Stojanovic, G 83
 Stojanović, NM 1609
 Stojanović-Radić, ZZ 1609
 Stojković, NB 1609
 Stonik, VA 487,853
 Stoyanova, A 1095
 Straface, SV 137
 Strongin, RM 317
 Su, CR 725
 Su, HJ 479
 Su, JH 479
 Su, XJ 599
 Su, YC 109,261,933,1245
 Suárez, AI 5
 Suárez-Castillo, OR 1445
 Subramaniam, G 739
 Sugamoto, K 1007
 Sugimoto, S 467
 Sujatha, S 1283
 Sukdolak, S 641
 Sumino, M 1619
 Summer, S 61
 Sun, CP 1155
 Sun, G 1431
 Sung, PJ 481
 Sung, TV 179
 Supaibulwatana, K 169
 Suppawat, S 1401
 Šuste, M 931
 Suvire, FD 1117
 Suwińska, K 327
 Suzuki, Y 1565
 Suzuki, JY 747
 Suzuki, R 1453
 Suzuki, T 913
 Suzuki, Y 431,987
 Syah, YM 1309
 Syamasundar, KV 1079,1309
 Tabopda, TK 595
 Tachibana, K 1411
 Tadesse, S 667
 Tadtong, S 1401
 Taga, I 675
 Taher, M 1587
 Tahiri, IA 831
 Tai, CY 481
 Takahashi, M 1539
 Takahashi, Y 459
 Takaoka, D 427
 Takeda, Y 467
 Takemura, T 1197
 Tamimoto, H 987
 Tamrakar, AK 899
 Tan, SJ 739
 Tan, HTW 1479
 Tan, J 1353
 Tanaka, C 595
 Tanaka, K 815
 Tane, P 515
 Tang, H 1431
 Tang, MT 599
 Tang, P 697,713
 Tangarife-Castaño, V 1051
 Tani, H 427
 Tanjung, M 1309
 Tao, SJ 197
 Tao, Z 121
 Tava, A 837
 Taweechotipatr, M 575
 Tchinda, A 515
 Teerawutgulrag, A 955
 Teichert, A 113
 Tekwani, BL 1123
 Teponno, RB 515
 Tezuka, Y 815
 Thai, TH 1373
 Thang, PD 179
 Thang, TD 231
 Theunis, M 1149
 Thomas, NF 739
 Thomas, OP 47
 Thompson, RM 1107
 Thuppia, A 909
 Thuy, TT 179
 Tian, S 81,1181,1331
 Tillequin, F 891
 Timmers, M 551
 Tinoco, LW 175
 Tintawee, A 1401
 Titera, D 253
 Todorova, M 1075
 Toeng, P 1259
 Tokita, N 419
 Tolosa, D 1645
 Tomczyk, M 273
 Tomi, F 227
 Tomosaka, H 987
 Tong, HHY 1287
 Tong, SQ 1357
 Tonn, CE 1341
 Tonsomboon, A 575
 Toom, L 1323
 Toomik, P 1143
 Topcu, G 693,731
 Torabbeigi, M 249
 Tori, M 423,431,447,539
 Torihata, A 431
 Torres, AFC 71
 Torres, S 827
 Tosa, Y 609
 Touafek, O 63
 Touati, E 1347
 Touem, ST 151
 Toume, K 475
 Toyota, M 685
 Tracanna, MI 1663
 Trendafilova, A 761,1075
 Trigo-Mouriño, P 735
 Trusheva, B 569
 Truus, K 1143
 Tsubono, K 21
 Tsukagoshi, Y 987
 Tu, PF 1165
 Tundis, R 1015
 Türkecul, A 731
 Tuvikene, R 1143
 Uehara, A 1005
 Uesawa, Y 21
 Ullah, R 1137
 Ullah, Z 1011
 Uno, H 427
 Upadhyay, HC 899
 Upur, H 1181
 Ur Rehman, N 615
 Urban, S 551
 Usano-Aleman, J 1383
 Usubillaga, A 563,661
 Utkina, NK 487
 Utkina, NKI 901
 Uysal, B 121
 Vahedi, M 1519
 Vaher, M 1143
 Vairappan, CS 239,1375
 Valant-Vetschera, KM 587,1469
 Valdés, E 951
 Valdés, O 47
 Vale, AE 781
 Valente, S 389
 van Staden, J 959,1677
 Varela, J 1139
 Vares, L 1323
 Vassallo, A 1427
 Veeresham, C 1283
 Végh, A 1393
 Veitch, NC 1047
 Velasco, J 661
 Vera, N 879
 Verdegue, M 1369
 Verma, RS 1077
 Versiani, MA 831
 Vignolini, P 875
 Viladomat, F 1677
 Villecco, MB 1117
 Villinger, A 151
 Vinale, F 1545
 Vinardell, MP 611
 Vincieri, FF 175
 Violante, IMP 1387
 Vitali, D 1667
 Vitkova, A 761
 Vlietinck, A 1149
 Vuko, E 1227
 Vukovic, N 641
 Vuorela, PM 1173
 Wahab, AA 927
 Wajs-Bonikowska, A 625
 Walia, S 1219
 Walia, S 1635
 Walker, LA 1123
 Wang, EIC 1245
 Wang, F 1561
 Wang, FIC 933
 Wang, FP 697,713,721,1583
 Wang, H 1499,1615
 Wang, HM 289
 Wang, J 495
 Wang, L 721,1583
 Wang, LS 75
 Wang, M 867
 Wang, Q 317
 Wang, SY 835,1573
 Wang, X 51,1499
 Wang, Y 197
 Wang, YH 1179
 Wang, Z 655,1431,1563
 Wangchuk, P 575
 Wanner, J 1095
 Wasano, N 1197
 Waseem, A 149
 Watanabe, K 15
 Weber, E 1147
 Wei, G 1069
 Wei, HL 1165
 Wenz, G 289
 Wessjohann, L 113,257,1099
 Weston, RJ 145
 White, JB 1295
 Williams, JD 637
 Williams, LAD 1231
 Williams, TD 1043
 Wong, BM 301
 Woo, S 1545
 Wright, CW 19
 Wu, CC 435
 Wu, HM 1581
 Wu, L 963
 Wu, Q 599
 Wu, TS 725
 Wu, YC 435,1415,1623
 Wurster, M 1099
 Wyrzykiewicz, B 565
 Xiao, JH 1573
 Xie, HQ 889
 Xie, ZL 1337
 Xin, L 1181
 Xing, S 867
 Xu, F 1475
 Xu, L 1579
 Xu, LJ 785
 Xu, SF 1269
 Xu, Z 381
 Xue, B 1331
 Yabuya, T 1591
 Yadav, A 1077
 Yadegarynia, S 1295
 Yahara, S 491
 Yamada, A 459
 Yamada, H 1565
 Yamaguchi, T 475
 Yamamoto, A 1453
 Yamanaka, A 1539
 Yan, GQ 75
 Yan, JZ 1357
 Yang, B 971

Yang, DP.....	1337	Yilmaz, A.....	693	Zecchi, V.....	137	Zhao, Y.....	1337
Yang, L.....	181	Yin, S.....	495	Zefirov, NS.....	295	Zhao, ZZ.....	971
Yang, RC.....	883	Yin, XL.....	819	Zellagui, A.....	873	Zheng, Y.....	353
Yang RY.....	599	Yokoyama, S.....	1163	Zeng, X.....	181	Zhou, CX.....	971
Yang, SS.....	261	Yonezawa, S.....	527	Zhan, H.....	1475	Zhou, JH.....	1069
Yang, X.....	1575	Yoshino, A.....	1539	Zhang, D.....	1411	Zhou, L.....	1331
Yang, Y.....	1575	Yoshizaki, K.....	491	Zhang, H.....	59	Zhou, X.....	81
Yao, W.....	1185	Yoshizawa, K.....	1411	Zhang, J.....	1499,1561	Zhou, Y.....	1507
Yaoita, Y.....	527,533,1133	Young, ME.....	951	Zhang, Q.....	29,1267	Zhu, H.....	971
Yaqub, A.....	311	Yu, J.....	1565	Zhang, QD.....	1069	Zhu, LP.....	1337
Yarmo, MA.....	927	Yu, Q.....	81,1181	Zhang, SX.....	1069	Zhu, XF.....	1337
Yasmeen, S.....	1595	Yu, R.....	1331	Zhang, T.....	1475	Zhuge, H.....	1475
Yassa, N.....	753	Yuan, T.....	45	Zhang, W.....	1431	Zhuravleva, OI.....	497
Yasue, M.....	15	Yuan, YF.....	207	Zhang, X.....	197,1461	Ziada, A.....	41
Yatsimirsky, AK.....	369	Yue, TH.....	775	Zhang, XH.....	93	Zimmermann, S.....	753
Yazdani, M.....	79	Yusoff, NIK.....	927	Zhang, XQ.....	785	Zivanovic, A.....	923
Ye, H.....	1615			Zhang, Y.....	963,1267,1615	Zlatkovic, B.....	83
Ye, Y.....	51	Zacchigna, M.....	1495	Zhang, YF.....	181	Znati, M.....	947
Ye, YP.....	1269	Zahoor, A.....	3,61,1423	Zhang, Z.....	59	Zong, SL.....	1269
Yen, CT.....	1415	Zaluski, D.....	1483	Zhang, BB.....	1057	Zou, L.....	971
Yen, KH.....	1659	Zampini, C.....	879,1315	Zhao, JT.....	93	Zovko-Končić, M.....	273
Yen, MH.....	1415	Zang, J.....	1475	Zhao, L.....	1575	Zupko, I.....	981
Yenesew, A.....	1123	Zapata, B.....	1051	Zhao, M.....	785	Zwergel, C.....	389
Yi, Y.....	1431	Zdunić, G.....	1487	Zhao, N.....	53		

Natural Product Communications

Volume 7 (1-12) 2012 Keywords Index

- A2780 705
A549 29
Abiodone 151
Absolute 89
Absolute configuration 419,835
ABTS 901,1211,1631
Acanthaceae 485
Acanthospermum hispidum 245
Acaricidal activity 129,463
Acetic acid 75
Acetophenone 1325
Acetylcholinesterase 571,859,959
Acetylene bridged oligomers 363
Acetylenic 1077
Acetylenic alcohol 447
Acid-triggered leakage 353
Aconitine-type alkaloid 713
Actein 15
Acteoside 775
Acute toxicity 1397
Acyl migration 333
Acyl phloroglucinol 191
Acyl-CoA 1573
Acylglycerols 917
Adulteration 807
Aedes aegypti 1319,1391
Aerial parts 1165
Aeromonas sp. S1 1359
Agathisflavone 973
Ajuga bracteosa 615
Ajunganane 615
Aka coralliphaga 487
Alangiaceae 1169
Alangium alkaloids 19
Alangium lamarckii 19,1169
Alantolactone 1407
Albican-11 819
Alcoholism 273
Alcohols, Ethers 359
Aldol condensation 1127
Algae 923
Alisma orientale 785
Alkaloid 959,1169,1579
Alkaloids 369,739,799,963,
1177,1249,1365,1677
Alkanediol dialkanoates 1219
Alkanes 1363
Alkenyloxy alkenol 779
Alkylresorcinol 1043
Allelochemicals 1327
Allelopathy 1137,1233,1651
Allicin 395
Aloe-emodin 207
Alpinia katsumadai 795
Alstonia 739
Alzheimer's disease 571,859,959
Amanita virosa 1495
Amaryllidaceae 959,1677
Amazonian mistletoe 1311
Amide alkaloids 595
Amides 359
Aminobutyric acid betaine 863
Aminoglycosides 317
Ammaniol 899
Ammannia multiflora 899
AMP-activated protein kinase 1501
Ampelopsis japonica 1287
Anacardiaceae 1011
Analgesic activity 611
Analysis of hallucinogens 1273
Andrographis paniculata 485
Angelica keiskei 21,1007
Angiogenesis 1149
Angustinine 1169
Anhydro-D-fructose 1501
Anhydroicaritin 1461
Anilides 507
Anion coordination 301
Anion selectivity 301
Anisosciadium orientale 79
Annona vepretorum 265
Annonaceous acetogenins 1215
Annual *Medicago* spp 837
Anthemis mixta 1379
Anthemis tomentosa 1379
Anthocyanins 41,1457
Anthraquinone extracts 1025
Anthraquinones 1029
Anthurium 747
Antiangiogenic effect 981
Antibacterial 597,891,1107
Antibacterial activity 57,121,239,
243,245,249,661,955,1095,1187,
1315,1383,1387,1393,1519,1601
Anti-bacterial compounds 1347
Antibacterial effect 71
Antibiotic 1107
Anticancer 1123,1557,1677
Anticancer activity 1245
Anticholinesterase activity 575,
693,731,947,1015
Antcin C 835
Anticomplement 867
Anti-complementary activity 501
Antifeedant 171
Antifeedant activity 245,1131
Antifungal 891,1171
Antifungal activity 125,1051,1219
Antifungal activity
1315,1383,1387,1431,1635
Anti-HBV599
Anti-hepatitis B virus 153
Antihypercholesterolemic agents 35
Antihyperglycemic 899
Anti-inflammatory 435,575,675,757,
Antileishmanial 1123,1465
Antimalarial 1209
Anti-melanoma activity 1311
Antimicrobial 103,113,867,909,947,
1099,1171,1173,1209,1231,
Antimicrobial 1233,1241,1401,1651,
1659
Antimicrobial activity 109,261,293,
381,485,663,667,937,941,943,1065,
1087,1091,1237,1245,1379,1527,
1609,1663
Antimicrobial effect 671
Antimicrobial 9
Anti-multidrug resistance 1465
Antimycotic effect 65
Anti-neutrophilic inflammatory
activity 1623
Antinutritional effects 381
Antioxidant 47,203,607,757,909,
1021,1099,1127,1241,1373,1483,
1557,1659
Antioxidant activity 109,201,261,
611,693,731,875,951,955,1015,
1527,1597,1631
Antioxidants 381
Antiparasite effect 71
Antipathogenic activity 933
Antiplasmodial 575,1123,1263,
Antiproliferative 705
Anti-proliferative activity 269
Antiradical activity 875
Anti-*Trypanosoma cruzi* activity
1139
Antitrypanosomal activities 609
Antitumor 1341
Antitumor activity 137
Antiviral 1025
Antiviral activity 143,603,1051
Anti-wood-decay fungal activity 261
Antrodia cinnamomea 835
Anxiolytic-like effect 1539
Apiaceae 79,235,1077,1373,1515
Apium graveolens 889
Aplysina 617
Apocarotenoid 827
Apocynaceae 101,729
Apoptosis 29,401,1203,1295
Apostichopus japonicus 1431
Apotirucallane 495
Aqueous extract 41
Arabidopsis thaliana root inhibition
assay 215
Arabinopyranosyl dimethyl-
secologanol 1561
Araceae 3
Araceae 1043
Araliaceae 1427
Ardisia kivuensis 515
Ardisikivuoside 515
Argentine propolis 879
Argentinean propolis 1315
Arid environments 879
Aristeguietia glutinosa 1139
Aroma compounds 633
Aromatic water 137
Artemia salina 837
Artemisia alba 1075
Artemisia chamaemelifolia 1519
Artemisia dubia 1651
Artemisia eriopoda 267
Artemisia indica 1651
Artemisia monosperma 1079
Artemisia turcomanica 1519
Artemisia vulgaris 637,1391,1651
Arteriosclerosis 1573
Artocarpus altilis 185
Artocarpus fulvicortex 1587
Ascaridol 227
Ascaridole 1651
Asclepiadaceae 1269
Asclepias syriaca 1147
Asparagus cochinchinensis 1357
Asparagus racemosus 995
Aspergillus 1639
Aspergillus fumigatus 497
Aspergillus sp 1057,1411
Aspergillus sp. strain F1544 165
Aspergillus versicolor 819
Asteraceae 243,423,431,435,447,
451,533,611,625,671,941,1005,
1079,1083,1123,1131,1225,1379,
1407,1663
Asterosaponins 853
Astrodaucus orientalis 249
Atomic charges 295
Atorvastatin 35
atpB-rbcL 1565
atpB-rbcL 451
Atriplex halimus L 1465
Auricularia auricala 1507
Aurones 389
Autofluorescence 1469
Azorella madreporica 1187
B lymphocyte proliferations 1507
B16 melanoma cells 1007
Ballonigrin lactone A and B149
Ballota limbata 149
Basidiomycete 771
Basidiomycetes 1495
Bax-mediated signaling pathway
1475
Bayogenin 837
Bearded iris 1591
Benzenoids 89
Benzoic acid hexyl ester 651
Benzophenone synthase 1615
Benzylidenebenzofuran-3(2H)-ones
389
Bergapten 1327
Betaines 863
Betula papyrifera 145
Betula pendula 145
Betulin 289,981
Betulinic Acid 289
Bhutanese traditional medicine 575
Bicyclogermacrene 651
Bicyclogermacrene 87
Bicyclo[3.1.1]heptane ring system
459
Biflavonoid glucosides 1597
Bi-hydroxyorobol 1595
Bisoflavonoids 1595
Binding sites 359
Bioactivity 879
Bioassay-guided isolation 1327
Biocontrol 1545
Biofilms 1173
Bioflavonoids 591
Biological activities 963
Biological activity 265,389,795
Biomarkers 1539
Biossay 837
Biosynthetic pathway 581

- Biotherapy 675
 Biotransformation 197,885
 Bis(crown ethers) 337
 Bisabolane 451
 Bisabolane sesquiterpenes 455
 Bisabolol 117
 Bitter Melon 1203
 Black cardamom 1233
 Blended essential oil 1401
Blumea balsamifera 815
 BM-21 47
Boesenbergia rotunda 909
 Bone regenerative medicine 1461
 Borneo 239
 Borneol 671,1667
 Bornyl acetate 943
Boswellia papyrifera 283
Bothropoides lutzi 71
 Bridged cyclobutanes 459
 Brine shrimp lethality 1233
 Britannin 979
 Bud absolute 645
Bupleurum 757
Bursera graveolens 1531
 Butyrolactone 1127
 Butyrylcholinesterase 571,859

 C₁₉ –Diterpenoid Alkaloids 697,721, 713,1583
 Cacalol 821
 Cacalone 821
Cachrys cristata 235
 Cadambine 169
 Cadinene 671
 Cadinol 261,629,671,933
Caesalpinia digyna 1189
 Caffeoylequinic acids 607,749,873
 Calceolarialoside E 775
 Calixarenes 409
Callicarpa maingayi 1333
 Callicarpaquinone A 1333
 Callicarpaquinone B 1333
Calocedrus macrolepis Kurz var. *formosana* 1573
 Camalexin 395
 Cambodian biodiversity 1259
 Camphor 937,1651
 Cancer 401
 Cancer prevention 789
Candida species 65
Canisctrocarpus cervicornis 463
 Cantharellaceae 917
Cantharellus cibarius 917
 Cappariaceae 1363
 Caprifoliaceae 1561
Caprifoliaceae 641
Capsella bursa-pastoris 51
 Carbohydrate receptors 321
 Carbon source 1271
 Carbonates 359
 Cardioactive evaluation 713
 Carotene 827
Carpesium triste 825
 Carvacrol 109,1557
 Carvotacetones 1123
 Carvotanacetone 257
 Caryophyllene 117,629,1375,1535, 1671,1673
 Caryophyllene oxide 117,1083
 Caryophyllene 8*R*,9*R*-oxide 815
 Caspases 401
Cassia fistula 1263
 Catalytic reaction 1411
 Catechin derivatives 181
 Cavernicolin 617
 CCl₄-induced liver damage 1609
 CD 735
 Cedrol 1245
 Celery seed 889

 Cell apoptosis 1475
 cell cycle arrest 1295
 Cell division 349
 Cell growth inhibition 53
 Cell morphology 137
 Cell proliferation 401
Centaurea formanekii 1083
Centaurea orphanidea ssp. *Thessala* 1083
Centaurea ragusina L. 1087
Centella asiatica 841
 Ceramides 781
 Cerebral ischemia 1069
 C-glycosylflavones 1591
Chaetomium globosum CICC 2445 197
 Chalcone 1589
 Chalcone synthase 1615
 Chalcones 879,1007
 Chalkbrood disease 253
Chamaecyparis formosensis 933
Chamaecyparis lawsoniana 1383
 Chamomile 97,749
 Chanterelle 917
 ChemGPS-NP 1173
 Chemical composition 103,947, 1531,1659
 Chemical constituents 795,955
 Chemistry 799
 Chemodiversity 587
 Chemoenzymatic synthesis 1331
 Chemotaxonomy 1375
 Chemotype 1095
Chenopodium foliosum 1419
Chersodoma argentina 125
 Chikusetsusaponin 491
 Chiral differentiation 359
 Chiral dirhodium complexes 359
 Chiral resolution 369
 Chlorocoumarin-glucopyranoside 1331
 Cholesterol acyltransferase 1573
 Chorioallantoic membrane 981
 Chromenes 891
 Chromolith-100,
Cichorium intybus 971
Cimicifuga racemosa 15
 Cimicracemose F 15
 Cinchona alkaloid 1173
 Cineole 117,1117,1233,1651
 Cinnamamides 1047
 Cinnamic acid derivatives 1351
 Cinnamic acids 1353
Cinnamomum philippinense 1581
Cinnamosma 685
 Cinnamoyl phenylethylamides 1047
 Cinnamoylphenethyl amide 753
 circular dichroism 591
Cirsium palustre 269
Cirsium rivulare 269
cis-Aconitic anhydride ethyl ester 785
 Citronellol 1223
 Citronelol 101
Citrus aurantifolia 1523
Citrus macroptera 1371
Citrus maxima 1371
 Civetone 913
Cladiella 481
 Cladieunicellin H 481
Cladocolea micrantha 1311
 Clary sage oil 1401
Clematis 173
Cleome serrate 1231
Cleome viscosa 1363
 Cleomeaceae 1231
 Clonogenic assay 853
 Clusiaceae 63
 Clusiaceae, *Clusia parvicola* 1597

 Cochlospermaceae 629
Cochlospermum angolense 629
Codium fragile 819
 Colon cancer 1491
 Combretastatin A-4 1051
 Comfrey 861
Commiphora erythraea (Burseraceae) 143
 Compositae 221,533,781,1063,1519
 Computer-aided drug discovery 1287
 Concrete 89
 Conformational Analysis 735,1407
 Conformational switch 353
 Conservation 799
 Constituent 533
 Contact toxicity 267
 Controlled release 353
 Conversion 1155
 Convolvulaceae 219
Convolvulus tricolor 873
Copaifera langsdorffii 25
Corbicula fluminea 1435
Corydalis cava 859
Corydalis crispa 575
 Corylucine,
 Counter-current chromatography 973
 Crassulaceae 175
Crataegus aronia 35
Cremathodium helianthus 423
 Crinane 1677
Croton argyrophyllodes 1397
Croton micans 5
Cryptocarya chinensis 725
 Crystal structure 327
 Cubenol 937
 Cubitane 479
 Cucumariosides 517,845,1157
 Cucumber mosaic virus 1227
 Cucurbitaceae 1575
 Cucurbitane 1575
 Cucurbituril 343
 Culcitilide A-D 427
 Cultured plant cells 529
 Cultured plant cells 531
Cunninghamia lanceolata var. *konishii* 1245
 Cupressaceae 261,919,933
Cupressus sempervirens 569
 Curcumin 529,1037
 Curcumin analogue 57
 Curry leaf 121
 Curvulinic acid 51
Cyathocalyx zeylanicus Champ 663
 Cyclic voltammetry 311,1211
 [3+2] Cycloaddition 743
 Cyclodextrin Derivatives 289
Cymbopogon flexuosus 1391
 CYP2C9 1283
Cyperus conglomeratus Rott 663
 Cytokines 675
 Cytotoxic 9,239,891,1099,1677
 Cytotoxic activity 1051
 Cytotoxic activity 607,825,955, 1057,1333,1499,1535
 Cytotoxicities 1337
 Cytotoxicity 39,45,495,835,853,971, 977,979, 1025,1043,1203,1233, 1259,1263,1411,1419,1487,1531, 1651

 Dammarane type saponin 491
 Danshen 59
Daphne oleoides 1595
 DART-MS 1627
 Date palm 3
 Degradation 1193
 Deltaline 1583

 Demethoxycurcumin, *bis*-*Demethoxycurcumin* 1037
 Demethylgriseofulvin 327
 Density functional theory 1651
 Deoxyactein 15
 Depsides 603
 Depsidones 603
 Dereplication 1033
 dereplication 551
Derris indica 1325
Derris scandens 1305
Derris trifoliata 1479
Desmos chinensis 231
Desmos chinensis var. *lawii* 663
Desmos cochinchinensis 231
Desmos dumosus 231
Desmos penduculosus var. *tonkinensis* 231
Desmos penduculosus 231
 Deuteration experiment 721
 DFT 735
 Diabetes 815
 Diabetes mellitus 989,1563
Diacarnus megaspinorhabdosa 9
 Diacarpoxide S 9
 Diallyl polysulfanes 401
 Dibenzothioophenes 891
 Dibromoverongiaquinol 617
 Dichlorophthalocyanine 363
 Diclofenac acid 821
Didymocarpus tomentosa 1535
 Dietary Supplements 1177
 Diethylene glycol diesters 1219
 Differentiation 1461
 Dihydrocadambine 169
 Dihydrocurcumin 529
 Dihydroenmein 977
 Dihydroflavonol 1309
 Dihydroisocordoin 1589
 Dihydrospinochalcone A 1589
 Dihydroxygambogenic acid 197
 Dihydroxylupanine 999
 Dihydroxyolic-11-ene-28-oic acid 501
 Dihydroxyphenethyl-apiofuranosyl-glucopyranoside 775
 Diiminoisindoline 363
 Dimers 5
 Dimethoxybenzoquinone 169
 Dimethoxycinnamoyl-embinin 747
 Dimethoxysesamin 597
 Dinitrobenzene 311
 Diosphenol 827
 Diphenylpentendiol 995
 Diplophyllin 1407
 Direct micelles 1211
 Disaccharides 595
 Disc Diffusion assay 1087
 Diterpene glucoside 471
 Diterpenoid 475
 Diterpenoid 479
 Diterpenoids 149
 Diuretic activity 33
 Diversity 451
Dizygotheca elegantissima 1427
 DNA 409,1557
 DNA binding constants 305
 DNA double-strand break 1057
 DNA interaction 305
 DNA topoisomerase IB 767
 Docking 1117
 Documentation 807
 DOSY 21
 DPPH 113,901,1021,1127,1631
 DPPH free radical scavenging assay 775
 DPPH radical scavenging 1465
 DPPH radical-scavenging activity 487

- Dracaena cochinchinensis* 591
 Drimanes 685
 Drug discovery 1111,1551
 Drug-DNA binding 305
 Drupamine 1639
Drynariae Rhizoma 905
 DSC 1215
 D-Valine 211

 Ebenaceae 193
Echinacea purpurea 1353
 Eclalbasaponins 989
Eclipta alba 989
 Efficacy 807
Eichhornia crassipes 1249
 Elastase 481
 Electroantennography 1103
 Electroporation 349
 Elemanes 1131
 Elemene 237,659,1083
 Elemental sulfur 395
Eleutherococcus 1483
 Eleutherosides 1483
 Enantioselective synthesis 455
 Encapsulation 1647
 Endophytic fungi 293,963
 Enlargement of B ring 697
Entada phaseoloides 867
 Enthalpy-entropy compensation 337
ent-Labdane diterpenes 485
 Enzyme assay-guided fractionation 471
 Enzyme assays,
 Enzyme inhibition 381
 Enzyme inhibitors 923
 Enzyme-mediated resolution 1569
 Enzymes 343
 Epi-flemistricin B 1589
 Epi-ophiobolin O 1411
 Epoxides 359
 Epoxidized soybean oil 75
 Eremophilane 423
 Eremophilane 427
 Ergosterol peroxide 1163
 Erysopine 171
 Erysovine 171
Erythrina variegata 171
Eschscholzia pulchella 1279
Espeletia nana 661
 Essential enzyme inhibition 1107
 Essential oil 1083,1091,1095,1103,
 Essential oil 79,81,87,89,109,113,
 117,125,133, 239,245,257,261,269,
 625,629,637, 661,667, 931,933,937,
 943,955,1225,1227,1231,1237,1241,
 1245,1365,1369,1371,1373,1375,
 1379,1383,1387,1397,1511,1515,
 1527,1531,1535,1663,1673
 Essential oil composition 83, 129
 223,227,235,243,249,265,651,663,
 671,941,1519
 Essential oil profile 1075
 Essential oil, Bark 145
 Essential oils 103,253,641,675,1077,
 1099,1391,1393,1659
 Esters 359
 Ethnobotanical 1551
 Ethnomedicine 1551
 Ethyl secologanocide 1561
 Ethylene glycol diesters 1219
Etlingera 239
Eucalyptus perriniana 531
Euclea divinorum 193
 Eucleanal 193
 Eudesmanes 1131
 Eudesmol 261
 Euniceillin 481
Eupentacta fraudatrix 517,845,1157
Euphorbia nerifolia 1415

Euphorbia thymifolia 1351
 Euphorbiaceae 5,475,1309,1351,
 1415
 Expression analysis 1539
 Extract 151
 Extraction 203
 Exudate 1469
 Exudate Flavonoids 587
 Exudates 201

 Fabaceae 61,999,1305
 Falcariol 941,1091,1077
 Farnesene 97
Farfugium japonicum 435
 Farina 587
 Fas death pathway 1069
 Fatty acids 919,923
 Fatty oil composition 1363
 Ferns 685
 Ferruginol 261,1573
 Ferruloyl-embinin 747
Ferula lutea 947
Ficus benjamina 1673
 Fingerprint 1181
 Fingerprint analysis 1143
 Fingerprinting 807
 Flavanol 1309
 Flavanones 1491
 Flavone 153,747
 Flavone glycosides 595,1491
 Glycoside 747
 Flavones 1005
 Flavonoid 1469
 Flavonoid glycosides 551,1011,1185
 Flavonoids 33,179,187,199,311,749,
 761,867, 1015,1177,1249,1305,
 1311,1323,1487,1587
 Flavonol glycosides 173,1465
 Flavonols 25,1005
 Flipsomes 353
 Floral scent 101,237
 Flower 659
 Flower absolute 645
 Flower development stage 97
 Flower essential oil 947
 Flowers 175,1087
 Fluorescence 305,343
 Fluorescence microscopy 1173
 Fluorescence staining 981
 Fluorescent-labeled compound 215
 Folk medicine 675
 Forced swimming test 905
 Fractional crystallization 1569
 Fragmentation pathway 1279
 Fragrance ingredient 913
 Frankincense resins 283
Fraxinus griffithii 467
 Free radical scavenging activity
 187,667
 French Guiana 1319
 Freshwater clam 1435
 Friedelane-type 987
 Fructo-oligosaccharides 221,1063
 Fruit 1575
 Fruit oil 1515
 FTIR 1215
 Fullerene[C₆₀], Photoaddition 743
 Fumigant 267
 Fumiquinazolines 497
 Fumoquinone 165
 Furanocoumarin production 895
 Furanocoumarins 1327
 Furanodienone 143
 Furanoteremophilanes 431,539,1565
 Furanones 1199
 Furospirostane 565
 Furostane 565
 Spirostane 565

Fusarium oxysporum f. sp.
Cucumerinum 885

 Gadusolate 1211
 Galenical preparations 1631
 Gallic acid 1051
 Gambogenic acid 197
Garcinia xanthochymus 53
Gardenia volkensii 13
 Gastroprotective activity 1187
 GC (FID, RI, MS) 227
 GC 81,641,931
 GC/FID 1535
 GC/GC-MS analysis 93
 GC/MS 89,101,237,571,641,659,
 931,941,947,1237,1241,1527,1535
 GC/MS analysis 79
 GC-EIMS analysis 987
 GC-FID 89,1523
 GC-FID response factor 927
 GC-MS 81,113,257,629,633,637,
 655, 889,919,1087,1099,1279,1523
 GC-MS analyses 937
 GC-MS, Patchouli 927
 Gene expression 1615
 Genetic fidelity 1647
 Gentamicin 317
Gentiana lutea leaves 1487
 Geographic variations 645
 Geranial 101,237,1223
Geranium macrorrhizum 1609
 Geranylated aromatic compound 527
 Germacrene 441,1131
 Germacrene B 87
 Germacrene D 87,117,235,237,243,
 629,651,1671
 Germacrene-D-4-ol 1673
 Germacrene-4,5-epoxide 441
 Germination 51
 Germplasm conservation 1647
Ginkgo biloba 1287
Ginkgo biloba 203,1287
 Ginsenoside Rg3 1155
 Glandular Trichome 1469
 Glimepiride 1283
Globularia meridionalis 1015
 Glucose uptake 899
 Glucose-6-phosphatase 973
 Glucosidase 471,989
 Glucosinolates 395
 Glucosylation 531
 Glucuronomannan 1507
 Glycerol 2-phosphate
 dehydrogenase (GPDH) 1501
 Glycinebetaine 863
 Glycoglycerolipid 1499
 Glycolipid 1263
 Glycosides 1427,1563
 Glycyrrhetic acid 991
Glycyrrhiza glabra 991,1457
 Glycyrrhizic acid 99,1457
 Goniotalamin 1197
Goniotalamus 1197
 Griseofulvin dimerization 327
 Growth inhibition 41
 Growth phase dependent addition
 895
 Guaiane 441
 Guaianolides 447
 Guest 369
 Guttiferae 53
Gynura bicolor 655,1563
Gynura divaricata subsp. *Formosana*
 221,1063
Gynura divaricata 655
Gynura medica 655

 HAB 1605
 Hairy roots 1271

Hamelia patens 1441
 Hangekobokuto 1619
 HCA 1181
 Head space solid-phase
 microextraction 249
 Hederagenin 837,1423
 HeLa cell 349
Helichrysum armenium 671
Helicobacter pylori infection 1347
 Hengduan Mountains 539
 HEp-2 cells 143
 HER2 1295
Heracleum rigens 943
 Herbal medicine 807
 Herbicidal activity 51,125
 Hericaceae 527
Hericum erinaceum 527
 Heteratisine 1583
Heterophyllaea pustulata 1025
 Hexadecanoic acid 1083
 Hexahydrocurcumin 883
 Hexose transport assay 221
Hibiscus sabdariffa 41
 High-speed counter-current
 chromatography 1353
 Holistic approach 807
Homalomena wendlandii 1043
 Homoisoflavonoids 1189
 Honey 951
 Horner-Wadsworth-Emmons
 reaction 1569
 Host 369
 Host-guest complex 301
 Hot-taste 685
 HPAEC-PAD 1063
 HPLC 25,59,199,283,1021,1185,
 1189
 HPLC analysis 1259,1277
 HPLC/DAD/MS 875
 HPLC-ESI/MS 873
 HPLC-ESI-MS 1189
 HPLC-NMR 551
 HS-SPME 101,629,633
 Human coronaviruses (HCoV)s
 1415
 Human mononuclear cells 563
 Human platelets 883
 Human tumor cell lines 825
 Humulene 1375
 HUVEC 1149
 Hybrid 1565
 Hydrocharitaceae 47
 Hydro-distillation 121,249,637,1523
 Hydrogel 1315
 Hydroxycurcumin 57
 Hydroxy-3"-en-anhydrocaritin 1461
 Hydroxy-trifluoromethylcoumarin-
 glucoside 1331
 Hydroxybenzaldehyde 779
 Hydroxybenzoyl-roseoside 973
 Hydroxyderricin 21
 Hydroxyisovaleric acid 211
 Hydroxy-olean-12-en-28-oic acid 13
 Hydroxy-olivacine 729
 Hydroxypolynuridine 731
 hydroxytremetone 1663
Hymenocrater yazdianus 117
Hypericum maculatum 199
Hypericum perforatum 199
Hypericum sampsonii 1615
Hypericum tomentosum L 63
Hyptis crenata 1387

 Ichthyotoxic 1033
 Immobilization stress 15
 Immunohistochemical staining 1539
 Immunosuppressive activities 1269
 Immunosuppressive effect 175
In vitro cultures 1441

- Incensole 283
 Incensole acetate 283
 Indian sandalwood 93
 Indole 659
 Indole alkaloids 157,735
 Inducible nitric oxide synthase 789
 Induction of plant resistance 1545
 Inflammation 675,789,1435
 Infusion 1241
 Inhibitors 1495
 Insecticidal 1233
 Insecticides 1319
 Intellectual property rights 807
 Interleukin-2 1419
 Intracellular localization 349
 Intramolecular Hydrogen bond 295
 Intra-receptor interactions 337
Inula aucheriana 979
Inula helenium L 1407
 Ionones 827
Ipomoea maxima 219
Ipomoea pes-caprae 827
 Iridaceae 1591
 Iridoid 1,13
 Iridoid glycosides 561
 Irregular monoterpenoids 1075
Irvingia barteri 1673
 Isoalantolactone 1407
 Isoalantolactone 625
iso-Ascaridol 227
 Isocordoin 1589
Isodon 977
 Isoflavones 1187
 Isoflavonoids 1319,1605
 Isolation 861,917
 Isolithospermic acid 885
 Isomenthone 1223
 Isopimarane diterpene 693
 Isoquinoline alkaloids 575,581
 Isorhamnetin-3-*O*-glycosides 873
 Isothermal titration calorimetry 337
 isovalencenol 223
 Isovallesiachotamine 731
 ISSR 1647
 ITS 1565
 ITS 431,451,539,1565
Ixora coccinea 831
 Ixoroid 831

 Jasmine oil 1401
Jasminum grandiflorum L. 89
Jasminum sambac 645
Jatropha gossypifolia 151
Juniperus 919
Juniperus chinensis 455
Juniperus communis var. *Communis* 919
Juniperus communis var. *Saxatilis* 919
Juniperus drupacea 919
Juniperus formosana 455
Juniperus oxycedrus subsp.
Macrocampa 919
Juniperus oxycedrus subsp.
Oxycedrus 919
 Jurkat 45 1483

 Kaempferol glycoside 173
Kalanchoe pinnata 175
 Kamebanin 977
 Kampo medicine 1619
 Kaurene derivatives 563
 Khusimol 223

 Labdane diterpenoids 1139
 Labiatae 615
 Lactarane sesquiterpenoid 1133
 Lady's mantle 761

 Lamiaceae
 83,87,117,149,187,471,667,
 1137,1387,1671
 Laminariales 863
 Landraces 1627
 Larvicidal activity 1391
 Lathyrane diterpenes 151
 Lauraceae 109,1581
Laurencia dendroidea 463
Lavandula officinalis 1539
 Lavender oil 1401
 Lavender species 1393
 LC-DAD-ESI-MS 1037
 LC-MS/MS 181
 LC-PDA-ESI/MS 749
 Lead compound discovery 1107
 Leaf 491
 Leaves 1079,1087
 Leguminosae 1325,1479,1589
Leishmania amazonensis 1531
Leishmania donovani 165
Leishmania major 133
 Leishmanicidal activity 195
 Lemon 1155
Lentinus strigellus 771
Lepidaploa cotoneaster 781
Lethasterias fusca 853
Leucophyllum frutescens 597
 Lichen compounds,
 Light petroleum extract 889
 Lignan glycosides 767
 Lignans 597,1043,1357
 Lignoids 1365
Ligularia 539
Ligularia kanaitzensis 431
Ligularia lankongensis 451
Ligularia nelumbifolia 1565
Ligularia subspicata 1565
Ligusticopsis wallichiana 1077
 Liliaceae 1357
 Lime Mexicana 1523
 Limonene
 79,419,671,943,1079,1127,1371,138
 3
 α -Santalol 419
Lindera aggregate 1287
 Linear retention index (LRI) 927
 Linoleic acid 1363
 Lipids 1495
 Liquid CO₂ extract 89
 Liquid-liquid equilibria 75
Listeria innocua 121
 Liverworts 685
Livistona halongensis 179
 L-Lactic acid 211
Lonchocarpus xuul 1589
 Long-chain unsaturated esters 63
Lonicera japonica 641
Lonicera macranthoides 1561
Lophophytum leandri,
 Loranthaceae 1311
 Low-density lipoproteins 35
 LPS 1435
 Lupane-type 987
 Lupenyl acetate 1147
 Lutein 1263
 Luteolin 29
 L-Valine 211
 Lycoctonine 697
 Lycoctonine type 721
 Lycoctonine-type alkaloid 713
 Lycopsamine 861
 Lycorine 959
 Lymphocyte proliferation 175
 Lysosome 1193

Macaranga recurvate 1309
 Macarecurvatins A and B 1309
Machilus japonica 109

 Macroalgae 1209
 Macrocycles 343
 Macroelements 1667
 Macrophages 789,1507
Macrophomina phaseolina 1635
 Madagascin 1029
Maesa lanceolata 1149
Magnolia grandiflora 237
Magnolia ovate 1365
 Magnoliaceae 237,1365
 Mahua flower 1359
 Mangiferin 1591
 Manzamine A 295
 MAPK 1435
Marchantia polymorpha 529
 Marfey's method 211
 Marine fungus 1337
 Marine products 1211
 Marine sponge 487
 Marine-derived fungus 497
 Mass spectrometry
 157,343,581,637,1295
 Mastitis 675
 MCF-7 165
 MDA-MB-231 cells 1475
Medemia argun 633
 Media optimization 1359
 Medicagenic acid 837
 Medicinal plants 799,1323
 Megastigmane glycoside 3
 Megastigmane sesquiterpene 785
 Megastigmanes 973
 Melanin inhibition 1007
 Meliloster 61
 Melilotic ester 61
Melilotus alba 61
Melissa officinalis 1631
 Membrane 1557
Mentha piperita 1631
Meriandra 1099
 Metabolomics 1111,1453
 Metal chelation 381
 Metalloproteinases 1483
 Methanol extract 1609,1663
 Method validation 1189
 Methoxytremetone 611
 Methyl benzoate 659
 Methyl jasmonate 215
 Methyl octanoate 633
 Methylene linker 305
 Mexican arnica 749
Michelia champaca 659
 Microbial conversion 65
 Microdilution assay 1087
Microdiplodia sp 1065
Micromeria graeca 1227
Micromeria pseudocroatica 1667
 Microrhizomes 1037
 Microwave 203
 Microwave assisted HS-SPME 249
 Microwave extraction, 121
 Microwave hydrodistillation 1511
 Minor fatty acids 1363
 Mitochondria 29
 Mitochondrial Toxicity 1295
 Mixture analysis 21
 Molecular dynamics 295,1639
 Molecular Modeling 1117
 Molecular recognition 321,337,409
 Molluscicidal activity 245
Momordica charantia 1203,1575
 Monensin 1199
 Monoterpenes 231
 Monotypic genus 1005
Monticalia greenmaniana 243
 Moraceae 599,1587
Morinda citrifolia 195
 Morindicone 195
 Morinthone 195

 Morphological characteristics 1075
 Mosher's reagents 211
 Mouse model 1347
 Mouse peritoneal macrophage 905
 MTT assay 775,979,981
Muelleria frutescens 1319
 Multiple shoots 625
Murraya koenigii (L.) Spreng 1375
Murraya koenigii L 121
Murraya paniculata 1527
 Muscone 1069
 Mushrooms 527,1133,1495
 Musk xylene 1083
Mussaenda roxburghii 1
 Muurolol 933
Mycobacterium tuberculosis 597
 Myrcene 661
 Myristicin 79
 Myrrhone 143
 Myrsinaceae 515

 Nanoemulsion 821
 Naphthazarins 901
 NAPRALERT 1551
Narcissus poeticus var *recurvus* 571
 Natural antibacterial 675
 Natural antioxidants 311
 Natural products
 191,293,551,735,1111
Naupactus bipes 1103
 Nebularine 9
 Nematocidal 1233
 Neohesperidin 1475
Neonauclaea purpurea 169
Nepeta asterotricha 117
Nepeta crispa 1511
Nepeta racemosa 1511
Nepeta sorgerae 693
Nerine filamentosa 571
Nerine filifolia 571
 Neuronal apoptosis 1069
 Neurons 841
 Neutral red assay 39
 New chemotype 1663
 NF- κ B 1435
Nicotiana tabacum 603
Nimbya alternantherae 51
Nipponanthemum 1005
 Nitric oxide 789,905,1479,1507
 Nitrogenous compounds 739
 Nivefuranone 1065
N-methylenehydroxycytisine 999
 NMR 3,19,173,193,227,289,359,
 487,511,591,615,709,729,767,831,
 873,1169,1423,1427,1453
 NMR analysis 565
 NMR data 1147
 NMR spectroscopy 1441
 Nonadyne 1077
 Nootkatone 1371
 Nordammarane 497
 Nor-friedo-oleanane 511
 Norisoprenoids 1563
 Norlignan glycoside 1357
 Normedicagenic acid 1419
 Norsesterpene 9
 Novel target 1107
 NTFP 1359
 Nuclear factor κ B 427
 Nutraceuticals 47
 Nutritional alterations 1645
 Nystose 221

 Obesity 815
Ochna pretoriensis 1601
 Ochnaflavone 1601
 Ochnaflavone 7-*O*- methyl ether
 1601

- Octaalkoxyphthalocyaninatogermanium dichlorides 363
Octaalkylphthalocyaninatogermanium dichlorides 363
Octanoic acid 633
Ocimene 237
Odor evaluation 645
Oleaceae 467,645
Oleanolic acid 507
Olefin metathesis 913
Oleic acid 913,1363
Oligonol 1193
Oligosaccharide polyester 1165
Olivacine 729
Olivacine-2*N*-oxide 729
O-Methylneocaryachine 1279
Onopordum illyricum 1131
Ophiobolin O 1411
Opioid receptors 1209
Optical spectroscopy 157,581
Optimized tube dilution method 1393
Organic semisynthesis 283
Oropheia yunnanensis 495
Osteoclastogenesis inhibitory effect 1163
Otoxic drugs 317
Ouratea polyantha 973
Oxidative stability 621
Oxime 1203
Oxime esters 1635
Oxindole alkaloids 1441
Oxofuroindolines 1445
Oxopyrrolidinoindolines 1445
Oxygenated oleanane saponin 705
Oxyprenylated derivatives 1347
Oxyprenylated secondary metabolites 1029
Oxystemokerrine 1277
- P-388 cells 1309
p53 1295
Palmitic acid 1363
Panax japonicas 491
Papaveraceae 1279
Paraboea paniculata (Gesneriaceae) 775
Parainfluenza type 3 virus 143
Parastrephia lepidophylla 611
Passiflora incarnate 1177
Passiflora species 1177
Pavinane alkaloids 1279
Pavine alkaloids 725
PC-3 cell line 53
PCA 1181,1453
p-Coumaric acid 185
p-Cymene 667
Pear 987
Pectobacterium atrosepticum 65
Pelargonium 1223
Peptide 211
Peptidyl-tRNA Hydrolase 1107
Pericarp 93
Perilipin 1 1193
Perilla Herb 1619
Perillaldehyde 1619
Peripheral blood 563
Permeation 821
Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor (PPAR) γ 1501
Peschiera affinis 729
Petigrain oil 1401
Peucedanum alsaticum 1515
Peucedanum cervaria 1515
Pharmacodynamics 1283
Pharmacokinetics 1283
Phellandrene 1515
Phenalenones 1249
Phenanthroindolizidine 1171
- Phenanthroindolizidine alkaloid 725
Phenethylamine 1579
Phenolic 185,1605
Phenolic acids 187
Phenolic compounds 47,785,1143
Phenolic glycosides 561
Phenolics 45,471
Phenylethanoid glycosides 775
Phenylethanoids 1015
Phenylglycine methyl ester 835
Phenylpropanoic acids 1341
Phenylpropanoid glycosides 181
Pheophorbides 1033
Phloroglucinol derivatives 1033
Phoenix dactylifera 3
Phoenixoside A 3
Phospholipase A₂ 841
Phospholipid 621
Photocycloaddition 459
Photocytotoxic 1033
pH-Sensitive liposomes 353
Physical properties 157
Phytochemical analysis 47,1111
Phytochemical screening 1107
Phytochemicals 1249
Phytochemistry 757,1469
Phytol 1231,1263
Phytopathogenic fungus 889
Phytotherapy 273
Phytotoxin 1327
Pinacol rearrangement 697,721
Pinene 117,237,243,661,671,943, 1079,1515,1673
Piper betle 1627
Piper officinarum 1659
Piper tuberculatum 1391
Piper umbellatum 595
Piperaceae 595,1103
Piperine 1283
Pistacia integerrima 1011
Pistacide A 1011
Pistacide B 1011
Pivalic acid 333
Plant 1551
Plant defence 395
Plant extracts 273
Plant growth inhibitory 1197
Plant growth promotion 1545
Plant growth regulators 761,1075
Plant hormone 215
Plant metabolites 1645
Plant origin 569
Plant secondary metabolites 1347
Plasmid relaxation 767
Plasmodium falciparum 165
Platelet aggregation 883
Plectranthus 1099
Plectranthus marrubatus 667
Pleurotus eryngii 1163
Plumeria tuberculata 101
p-Menthane 81
PNA 349
Pogostemon 87
Pogostemon cablin 927
Pogostone 87
Polyamines 895
Polygala sibirica 1165
Polygalasibiricose I 1165
Polygalasterol A 1165
Polygonaceae 753
Polygonum 685
Polygonum hyrcanicum 753
Polygonum multiflorum 1331
Polyketide 1065
Polyphagous lepidopteran 1645
Polyphenol mixture 1193
Polyphenols 875,1323,1483
Polyploidy 1457
Poly-unsaturated fatty acid 153
- Pometia pinnata* 1423
Pongamia glabra 1325
POPC 1215
Portulaca oleracea 1047
Portulacaceae 1047
Portulacaldehyde 1047
Prasium majus L 931
Pregnane 1267
Prenylated *p*-hydroxyacetophenone 1663
Preparative chromatography 1147
Preservation 621
Primary culture 841
Primula 1469
Primula 587
Dionysia 587
Principal component analysis 1143
Prismaconnatoside 561
Prismatomeris connate 561
Proanthocyanidins 381
Proaporphine alkaloids 725
Processing 1185
Profiling 1627
Projection to latent structures 951
Proliferation 1461
Propolis 569
Propylene glycol diesters 1219
Protease 1359
Proteases 343
Protecting group 333
Protein kinase A 923
Protein tyrosine phosphatase 1B (PTP1B) 815
Protopanaxadiol-type saponins 1155
Prunella vulgaris 501
Pseudomonas aeruginosa 1393
Pseudowintera 685
Pseurotins 165
Pulegone 81
Pulicaria 113,257
Purine-pyrimidine specificity 305
Putranjiva roxburghii 511
Pyridine 1581
Pyrogallol 333,1051
Pyrogallol[4]arene 333
Pyrrolizidine alkaloids 861
Pyrus communis 987
Pyrus serotina 987
- Quantitative analysis 927
Quantitative PCR 1615
Quantum chemistry 157,581
Quercetin glycosides 175
Quercetin-glucopyranoside 33
- Rabbit liver carboxylesterase 1117
Radical scavenging 311,609,1609
Radical scavenging activity 901
Raman optical activity (ROA) 419
Ranunculaceae 1623
RAPD analysis 1647
Rat aorta ring assay 1149
Rat reproductive system 41
Rauvolfia vomitoria 1647
RAW 264.7 1479
RDC 735
3T3-L1 cells 1501
Reactive oxygen species 401,1501
Rearrangement 1445
Recognition 369
Reduction 529
Relationship 963
Resin glycoside 219
Rhamnus 1029
Rhein 207
Rhein-aloe emodin hybrid molecule 207
Rhipicephalus (Boophilus) microplus 1387
- Rhizoctonia solanii* 1219,1635
Rhododendron tomentosum 227
Rhus copallinum 45
Roasting 621
Root 991
ROS 1057
Rosmarinic acid 1619
ROSY 21
Rotamers 1591
Rotenoid derivatives 1479
Royleanum 1137
RP-HPLC-UV/VIS 1029
RT-PCR 1539
Rubiaceae 1,561,705,779,831
Russula sanguinea 1133
Russulaceae 1133
Ruta graveolens 895
Rutaceae 1371,1523
Rutaceae 1523
- sabinene 1515
Sabinene 1515,1671
Safety 807
Salvia 187
Salvia nemorosa 1671
Salvia officinalis 1631
Salvia przewalskii 59
Salvia reuterana 651
Salvia species 59,201
Salvia x jamensis 1237
Salvianolic acid B 885
Sampsoniones 1615
Santalaceae 93
Santalum album 93
Santolina chamaecyparissus L 937
Sapindaceae 1423
Sapogenins 837
Saponins 837,1149
SAR 899
Saracoside 767
Satureja bakhtiarica 133
Saussurea katochaete 447
Schinus terebinthifolius 129
Sclerotium rolfsii 1219
Sclerotium rolfsii 1635
Screening 253
Scrophulariaceae 565
Scutellaria lateriflora 471
SDE 237
SDSE 97
Sea cucumbers 517,845,1157,1431
Sea urchins 901
Seasonality 1315
Seaweeds 1209
Seco-angustilobine B 743
seco-ent-Kaurene 5
Secoguaiane 441
Secoiridoid glycosides 1561
Secoiridoids 1487
Secondary metabolites 771,1545
Sedum caespitosum 39
Seed oil 227,621,919
Seeds 13,785,1305
Seimatosporium sp 293
Selectivity index 1025
Semen Vaccariae 1185
Semenovia transiliensis 1327
Semiaquilegia adoxoides 1623
Senecio culcitoides 427
Senecio nutans 607
Senecio spagazzinii 607
Senecio viridis
Separation 1353
Seseli rigidum 1091
Sesquiterpene 441,451,819
Sesquiterpene alcohol 467
Sesquiterpene hydroquinones 487
Sesquiterpene lactone 1259
Sesquiterpenes 231,423,435,447,

- 815,1365,1535,1569
 Sesquiterpenoids 145,431,539,971, 1565
 Sesterterpene 1411
 Shanzhiol 1
 Shatavarol 995
 Shatavaroside C 995
 Shoot cultures 1075
 Shoot multiplication 895
 Shoot oil 227
 Siderophores 1545
 Silybin 531
 Silybin glucoside 531
Sinularia triangula 479
Sitophilus zeamais 171,267
 Sitosterol 779
 Small molecules 1069
Smilacis glabrae 181
 Solanaceae 65,153
Solanum erianthum 153
Solanum spirale 955
 Solubilization 289
 Solvent effect 333
 Somaclonal variant 1223
Sophora flavescens 1453
Sophora velutina subsp.
Zimbabwensis 999
 Soqotra 113
 Sorbicillin analogues 1337
Spartium junceum L 137
 Spasmolytic activity 1523
Sphaeranthus bullatus 1123
 Spiro-indole diketopiperazines 497
 Spirostanes 709
 SPME 97,237,655
 SPME-GCMS 145
 Sponge 617
 Square-wave voltammetry 1211
 SRB 825
Stachys lavandulifolia 1241
Stachys obtusicrena 117
 Standardization 807
Staphylococcus aureus 1173
 Starfish 853
 Stearic acid 1363
Stellera chamaejasme 1499
 Stem 1079
 Stem extract 195
 Stemokerrine 1277
Stemona kerrii 1277
 Stemonaceae 1277
Stephanotis mucronata 1269
 Stereochemistry 709,1441
 Stereoselective synthesis 1569
Sternbergia lutea 571
 Steroidal alkaloid glycoside 153
 Steroidal glycosides 565,1269
 Steroidal sapogenins 709
 Steroidal saponin 995
 Steroidal saponins 709
 Sterol sulfate 1165
 Sterols 1209
 Storage 621
 Strebluslignan-ol-glucopyranoside 599
Streblus asper Lour. 599
Streptomyces 211
Streptomyces sp 1199,1579
 Stress 1539
 Structural Elucidation 735
 Structure 533
 Structure activity relationships 1635
 Structure elucidation 193,591
 Structure identification 1353
 Structure-activity relationships 57,901,1341,1415
 Subereatensin 617
 Suberosin 235
 Submerged fermentation 1359
 Substituted tryptamines 1273
 Sulfates 487
 Sumatra 799
 Superoxide anion 481,1021
 Supramolecular chemistry 321,343
Symphytum officinale L 861
 Synergistic interactions 245
 Synthesis 191,389,1445
Syzygium polyanthum 1033
 Tagetes 1225
Taiwania cryptomerioides 261
 Tannins 761,1323
 Tanshinones 59
Taq polymerase I 1639
Tarenna 705
 Tarragon 749
 tau-cadinol 633
 Taxoids 697,1143
Taxus varieties 1143
 Tea tree oil 675
Telekia speciosa 625
 Terpenes 973,1563
 Terpenoid 533,831
 Terphyl acid 1057
 Terphyl diacid 1057
 Terpinene 117,667
 Terpinen-4-ol 117
 Terpinolene 79,1079
 Terrefuranone 1065
 Trichloromethyl-dihydropalmatine 859
 Tetrahydrocurcumin 529
 Tetrahydroxy-methoxyflavane 179
 Tetranor-labd-7-en-17 1139
Tetranychus urticae 463
Teucrium polium L. ssp. *Capitatum* 83
Teucrium royleanum 1137
Thalassia 47
 Thienodolin 789
 Thin-layer chromatography 1605
 Thrombin 1495
 Thujone 1651
 Thyme 253
 Thymofoloinates A and B 1351
 Thymol 109,667,1557
 Thymol derivatives 625
Thymus mastichina L 1491
Thymus vulgaris 1095
 Tiankuizi 1623
 Tissue culture 1457
 TLC 875,1147
 Tobacco mosaic virus 603
 Tocopherols 685
 Toluidides 507
 Tomato (*Solanum esculentum*) 65
 Topical ointment 195
 Total cholesterol 35
 Total flavonoid 1021
 Total phenolic 1021
 Total phenolic content 201,203,951,1631
 Total phenolics 607
 Toxicity 837,1215,1645
 Trace elements 1667
 Traditional plant uses 33
trans-Anethole 1225
 Transannular cyclization 441
 Transfection 409
 Transgenic hairy roots 1331
trans-Ocimenone 1225
 Tremetone 611
Trichilia connaroides 1267
 Trichilone 1267
Trichoderma 1545
Trichoderma sp 1337
 Trichomes 1667
 Trichorabdal B 977
Tridax procumbens L 941
Trifolium pretense 1605
 Trigonelline 863
 Trimethyl-1(4*H*)-naphthalenone 827
 Triterpene glycosides 517,845,1157,1431
 Triterpene saponin 1419
 Triterpenes 187, 501,507,987,1147,1427,1491,1587
 Triterpenic amides 507
 Triterpenoid 13,495,497,511,1575
 Triterpenoid saponin 491,515,1423
 Triterpenoids 693,1415
 Tropical plant extracts 1107
brucei rhodesiense 753
Trypanosoma cruzi 165
Trypanosoma evansi 609
 Tubulosine 19
 Tumor cell 1531
 Tumor necrosis factor alpha 905
 Turmeric, *In vitro* shoots 1037
 Twig bark 987
 Two spotted spider mite 129
Tylophora indica 1171
 Tylophorinidine 1171
 Tylophorinine 1171
 Type XII indole alkaloids 1273
 Tyramine 889
 Tyrosinase 1287
 Tyrosinase inhibitory activity 185
 Uliginosin 191
 Umbelliferae 841
 Unsaturated compounds 1127
 UPLC-UV 1177
 Urea receptor 301
 UV-Vis titrations 301
Vaccaria hispanica 1185
 Validated chromatographic method 25
 Vallesiachotamine 731
 Vanillin 1635
 Vascular smooth muscles 1397
 Vasorelaxant effect 1397
 Velutinine 999
Vernonia cinerea 1259
Vernonia cotoneaster 781
 Verongida 617
Veronica chamaedrys L. 565
 vetiselinol 223
Vetiveria zizanioides 223
 Vetivones 223
Villaria odorata 779
Vinca minor 731
 Vincristine-resistant P388 977
Vitis repens 609
 VLC 1147
 Volatile 655
 volatile constituents 629
 Volatile oil 93
 Volatile organic compounds 951
 Volatile screening 97
 Volatiles 659
 Vulgarole 637
 Water 75
 Waterhyacinth 1249
Werneria poposa 1663
 Winged Sumac 45
 Withaferin A 1271
Withania somnifera 1271
 Withanone 1271
 Wnt signal 475
 Wound healing 909
 X-ray crystallography 511
 Xanthine/xanthine oxidase 1021
 Xanthoangelol 21
 Xanthone 53
 Xanthotoxin 1327
Xenophyllum poposum 1663
Xyloselinum leonidii 1373
Xyloselinum vietnamense 1373
 Ylang ylang oil 1401
 Zebrafish assay 1149
 Zerumbone 1369
 Zingiberene 637
Zingiber officinale 883
Zingiber zerumbet var. *darcyi* 1369
 Zingiberaceae 795,1369
Ziziphora clinopodioides 81,1181

Natural Product Communications

Manuscripts in Press Volume 7, Number 12 (2012)

Effect of Argan and Olive Oil Consumption on the Hormonal Profile of Androgens Among Healthy Adult Moroccan Men

Abdelfettah Derouiche, Ali Jafri, Issam Driouch, Mohammed El Khasmi, Ahmed Adlouni, Nada Benajiba, Youssef Bamou, Rachid Saile and Mohammed Benouhoud

The Social and Environmental Context of Argan Oil Production

Yann le Polain de Waroux

Triterpenoids from *Argania spinosa*: 20 Years of Research

Imane Chafchaoui-Moussaoui, Zoubida Charrouf and Dom Guillaume

Modeling of the Distribution of Heavy Metals and Trace Elements in Argan Forest Soil and Parts of Argan Tree

Faez A. E. Mohammed, Rahma Bchitou, Mohamed Boulmane, Ahmed Bouhaouss and Dominique Guillaume

Argan Oil-contained Antioxidants for Human Mitochondria

Luis C. López, Carmen Cabrera-Vique, Carmen Venegas, Laura García-Corzo, Marta Luna-Sánchez, Darío Acuña-Castroviejo and Germaine Escames

Volatile Compound Formation During Argan Kernel Roasting

Hanae El Monfalouti, Zoubida Charrouf, Manuela Giordano, Dominique Guillaume, Badreddine Kartah, Hicham Harhar, Said Gharby, Clément Denhez, and Giuseppe Zeppa

Climatic Conditions and Herbivory Effects on Morphological Plasticity of *Argania spinosa*

Fatima Ain-Lhout, María Zunzunegui, Mari Cruz Díaz Barradas, Juan Jáuregui, Tarik Tagma and Said Boutaleb

Chemical Changes in Extra Virgin Argan Oil after Thermal Treatment

Said Gharby, Hicham Harhar, Badr Eddine Kartah, Dom Guillaume and Zoubida Charrouf

Some Secrets of *Argania spinosa* Water Economy in a Semiarid Climate

Mari Cruz Díaz Barradas, María Zunzunegui, Mari Paz Esquivias, Said Boutaleb, Javier Valera-Burgos, Tarek Tagma and Fátima Ain-Lhout

Can Fruit-form be a Marker for Argan Oil Production?

Said Gharby, Hicham Harhar, Badr Eddine Kartah, Hanae El Monfalouti, Clément Denhez, Miloudi Hilali, Dom Guillaume and Zoubida Charrouf

Argan Oil and Postmenopausal Moroccan Women: Impact on the Vitamin E Profile

Hanae El Monfalouti, Zoubida Charrouf, Asma El Hamdouchi, Hanae Labraimi, Imane Chafchaoui-Moussaoui, Badreddine Kartah, Khalid El Kari, Yahya Bensouda, Abdelfettah Derouich, Sylvie Dodin, Clément Denhez, Dom Guillaume and Hassan Agnaou

Germination Success and Seedling Development of *Argania spinosa* under Different Climatic Conditions and Browsing Intensity

María Zunzunegui, Juan Jáuregui, Fatima Ain-Lhout, Said Boutaleb, Leonor Álvarez-Cansino and MariPaz Esquivias

Quality Parameters for Cold Pressed Edible Argan Oils

Bertrand Matthäus

Headspace, Solid-phase Micro-extraction, Gas Chromatographic-Mass

Spectrometric Analysis of Terpenoids in the Latex of *Euphorbia* Species
Asmita V. Patel, Stephen Sumner, H. Leslie Thompson, Gerald Blunden, David Wright, Liu Jun-feng³ and Zan Jun-feng

Fusaodavinvin, a Novel Metabolite Containing Sulfur from the Endophytic Fungus *Fusarium sp.* (CTGU-ZL-34)

Liang Zhang, Yanhui Liu, Zhangshuang Deng, Zhiyong Guo, Jianfeng Chen, Xuan Tu and Kun Zou

Anti-metastatic Activities of Bibenzyls from *Dendrobium pulchellum*

Pithi Chanvorachote, Akkarawut Kowitdamrong, Thidarat Ruanghirun, Boonchoo Sritularak, Chutichot Mungmee and Kittisak Likhitwitayawuid

Antifeedant Activity of Spin-Labeled Derivatives of Deoxypodophyllotoxin against *Brontispa longissima* Larvae

Gang Feng, Jing Zhang, Liu Yang, Ying-Qian Liu, Zhi-Wei Zhang, Xuan Tian, Qi-An Jin and Zheng-Qiang Peng

Trichodermaerin, a New Diterpenoid Lactone from the Marine Fungus *Trichoderma erinaceum* Associated with the Sea Star *Acanthaster planci*

Zhong-Liang Xie, Hou-Jin Li, Lai-You Wang, Wan-Ling Liang, Wei Liu and Wen-Jian Lan

Two New Amides from *Streptomyces michiganensis*

Jinghua Xue, Liangxiong Xu, Zi-Hua Jiang and Xiaoyi Wei

Chemical Composition and Antibacterial Activity of Essential Oils from *Myrcia alagoensis* (Myrtaceae)

Aline do N. Silva, Ana Paula T. Uetanabaro and Angélica M. Lucchese

Microbial Transformations of Isophorone by *Alternaria alternata* and *Neurospora crassa*

Ismail Kiran, Özge Özşen, Turgay Çelik, Semra İlhan, Bükay Yenice Gürsu and Fatih Demirci

Chemical Composition and Biological Activities of the Essential Oil from *Calamintha nepeta* Plants from the Wild in Southern Italy

Emilia Mancini, Laura De Martino, Hanna Malova and Vincenzo De Feo

Chemical Compositions and Antimicrobial and Antioxidant Activities of the Essential Oils from *Magnolia grandiflora*, *Chrysactinia mexicana*, and *Schinus molle* Found in Northeast Mexico

Laura Guerra-Boone, Rocío Álvarez-Román, Ricardo Salazar-Aranda, Anabel Torres-Cirio, Verónica Mayela Rivas-Galindo, Noemí Waksman de Torres, Gloria María González González, and Luis Alejandro Pérez-López

Challenges of Curcumin Bioavailability: Novel Aerosol Remedies

Parasuraman Aiya Subramani and Venkata R. Narala

Pancreatic Lipase Inhibitory Activity of Cassiamin A, a Bianthraquinone from *Cassia siamea*

Dilip Kumar, Aniket Karmase, Sneha Jagtap, Ruchi Shekhar and Kamlesh K. Bhutani

Summation Solute Hydrogen Bonding Acidity Values for Hydroxyl Substituted Flavones Determined by NMR Spectroscopy

William L. Whaley, Ekua M. Okoso-amaa, Cody L. Womack, Anna Vladimirova, Laura B. Rodgers, Margaret J. Risher and Michael H. Abraham

Inhibition of *In Vitro* Leukotriene B₄ Biosynthesis in Human Neutrophil Granulocytes and Docking Studies of Natural Quinones

Premysl Landa, Zsofia Kutil, Veronika Temml, Jan Malik, Ladislav Kokoska, Ute Widowitz, Marie Pribylova, Marcela Dvorakova, Petr Marsik, Daniela Schuster, Rudolf Bauer and Tomas Vanek

Norcucurbitane Triterpenoids from the Fruits of *Momordica charantia* var. *abbreviata*

Yun-Wen Liao, Chiy-Rong Chen, Jue-Liang Hsu, Yun-Sheng Lin, Hsueh-Ling Cheng, Wen-Ling Shih, Yueh-Hsiung Kuo and Chi-I Chang

Phenolic Content and DPPH Radical Scavenging Activity of the Flowers and Leaves of *Trifolium repens*

Agnieszka Kicel and Maria Wolbiś

Effect of Nine Plant Volatiles in the Field on the Sex Pheromones of *Leguminivora glycinivorella*

Daihua Hu, Juntao Feng, Zhihui Wang, Hua Wu and Xing Zhang

Molecular Analysis of *Vitex* Species Using Candidate DNA Barcoding and PCR-RFLP of the *matK* Gene for Authentication of *Vitex glabrata*

Waranyoo Phoolcharoen and Suchada Sukrong

Evaluation of the Quality of Chinese and Vietnamese Cassia Using LC-MS and Multivariate Analysis

Ken Tanaka, Feng Li, Yasuhiro Tezuka, Shiro Watanabe, Nobuo Kawahara and Hiroaki Kida

Conservation and Multiplication of Encapsulated Micro Shoots of <i>Rauvolfia vomitoria</i> - an Endangered Medicinal Tree: ISSR and RAPD based Evaluation of Genetic Fidelity of Converted Plantlets Shakti Mehrotra, Liaq Ur Rahman, Jahnvi Mishra and Arun K. Kukreja	1647
Bioactivities of Volatile Components from Nepalese <i>Artemisia</i> Species Prabodh Satyal, Prajwal Paudel, Ananad Kafle, Suraj K. Pokharel, Bimala Lamichhane, Noura S. Dosoky, Debra M. Moriarity and William N. Setzer	1651
Chemical Compositions, Antioxidant and Antimicrobial Activity of the Essential Oils of <i>Piper officinarum</i> (Piperaceae) Wan Mohd Nuzul Hakimi Wan Salleh, Farediah Ahmad, Khong Heng Yen and Hasnah Mohd Sirat	1659
Chemical Composition, Antimicrobial and Antioxidant Properties of the Volatile Oil and Methanol Extract of <i>Xenophyllum poposum</i> Ana M. González, María I. Tracanna, Sara M. Amani, Carola Schuff, Miguel J. Poch, Horacio Bach and César A. N. Catalán	1663
Phytochemical and Micromorphological Traits of Endemic <i>Micromeria pseudocroatica</i> (Lamiaceae) Dario Kremer, Ivna Dragojević Müller, Edith Stabenheiner, Dubravka Vitali, Martina Kopričanec, Mirko Ruščić, Ivan Kosalec, Nada Bezić and Valerija Dunkić	1667
Composition and Variability of the Essential Oil of <i>Salvia nemorosa</i> (Lamiaceae) from the Vienna Area of Austria Remigius Chizzola	1671
Essential oil Composition of <i>Ficus benjamina</i> (Moraceae) and <i>Irvingia barteri</i> (Irvingiaceae) Isiaka A. Ogunwande, Razaq Jimoh, Adedoyin A. Ajetunmobi, Nudewhenu O. Avoseh and Guido Flamini	1673

Review/Account

Cytotoxic Agents of the Crinane Series of Amaryllidaceae Alkaloids Jerald J. Nair, Jaume Bastida, Francesc Viladomat and Johannes van Staden	1677
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Natural Product Communications

2012

Volume 7, Number 12

Contents

<u>Original Paper</u>	<u>Page</u>
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 Aysun Ozkan and Ayse Erdogan	1557
New Secoiridoid Glycosides from the Buds of <i>Lonicera macranthoides</i> Jiang Liu, Jing Zhang, Feng Wang and Xingfu Chen	1561
Chemical Constituents from the Aerial Parts of <i>Gynura bicolor</i> Jian Chen, Sven Manginckx, An Adams, Wei-lin Li, Zheng-tao Wang and Norbert De Kimpe	1563
Chemical Constituents of <i>Ligularia nelumbifolia</i> and <i>L. subspicata</i> Hybrid Collected in Shangrila County, Yunnan Province of China Ryo Hanai, Hiroka Yamada, Yurika Suzuki, Hajime Nagano, Takayuki Kawahara, Jiao-Jun Yu, Xun Gong and Chiaki Kuroda	1565
A Practical, Enantiospecific Synthesis of (S)-trans-γ-Monocyclofarnesol Stefano Serra	1569
ACAT Inhibitory Activity of Exudates from <i>Calocedrus macrolepis</i> var. <i>formosana</i> Yu-Hsin Hsieh, Kuan-Jung Chen, Shih-Chang Chien, Wen-Ling Cheng, Jun-Hong Xiao and Sheng-Yang Wang	1573
Cucurbitane-Type Triterpenoids from the Fruit Pulp of <i>Momordica charantia</i> Yun-Wen Liao, Chiy-Rong Chen, Yueh-Hsiung Kuo, Jue-Liang Hsu, Wen-Ling Shih, Hsueh-Ling Cheng, Tzou-Chi Huang and Chi-I Chang	1575
Two Novel Phenethylamine Alkaloids from <i>Streptomyces</i> sp. YIM10049 Xueqiong Yang, Guangwei He, Lixing Zhao, Yabin Yang, Yun Liu, Lihua Xu and Zhongtao Ding	1579
Alkaloids from <i>Cinnamomum philippinense</i> Hsing-Tan Li, Wei-Jen Li, Hui-Ming Wu and Chung-Yi Chen	1581
Conversional Synthesis of Heteratisine Ling Wang, Qi-Feng Chen and Feng-Peng Wang	1583
Flavonoids and Triterpenes from the leaves of <i>Artocarpus fulvicortex</i> Shajarahtunnur Jamil, Muhammad Taher, Hasnah M. Sirat and Nur Azlin Othman	1587
Dihydrospinochalcone-A and Epi-flemistricin-B, Natural Isocordoin Derivatives from the Root Extract of <i>Lonchocarpus xuul</i> Fabiola Escalante-Erosa, Brenda González-Morales, Ramiro F. Quijano-Quinones, Gumersindo Miron-López and Luis M. Peña-Rodríguez	1589
Phenolic Compounds, Including Novel C-glycosylflavone, from the Flowers of the Tall Bearded Iris Cultivar ‘Victoria Falls’ Takayuki Mizuno, Tsutomu Yabuya, Nobuhiro Sasaki and Tsukasa Iwashina	1591
Two New Biisoflavonoids from the Roots of <i>Daphne oleoides</i> Shazia Yasmeen, Muhammad Aijaz Anwar, Sadia Ferheen, Nighat Afza, Abdul Malik and Lubna Iqbal	1595
Biflavonoids from the Unripe Fruits of <i>Clusia paralicola</i> and their Antioxidant Activity Rafaela Ferreira Oliveira, Celso Amorim Camara, Maria de Fátima Agra and Tania Maria Sarmento Silva	1597
Ochnaflavone and Ochnaflavone 7-O-methyl Ether two Antibacterial Biflavonoids from <i>Ochna pretoriensis</i> (Ochnaceae) Tshepo J. Makhaola, Babatunde B. Samuel, Esameldin E. Elgorashi and Jacobus N. Eloff	1601
Factors Affecting the Separation and Bioactivity of Red Clover (<i>Trifolium pratense</i>) Extracts Assayed against <i>Clostridium sticklandii</i>, a Ruminant Hyper Ammonia-producing Bacterium Isabelle A. Kagan and Michael D. Flythe	1605
Exploitation of the Antioxidant Potential of <i>Geranium macrorrhizum</i> (Geraniaceae): Hepatoprotective and Antimicrobial Activities Niko S. Radulović, Milan B. Stojković, Snežana S. Mitić, Pavle J. Randjelović, Ivan R. Ilić, Nikola M. Stojanović and Zorica Z. Stojanović-Radić	1609
Differential Expression of Benzophenone Synthase and Chalcone Synthase in <i>Hypericum sampsonii</i> Lili Huang, Hong Wang, Hechun Ye, Zhigao Du, Yansheng Zhang, Ludger Beerhues and Benye Liu	1615
Efficient Preparation of Hangekobokuto (Banxia-Houpo-Tang) Decoction by Adding Perilla Herb before Decoction is Finished Megumi Sumino, Yuko Saito, Fumio Ikegami, Yoshiro Hirasaki and Takao Namiki	1619
Anti-neutrophilic Inflammatory Secondary Metabolites from the Traditional Chinese Medicine, Tiankuizi Chia-Lin Lee, Tsong-Long Hwang, Chieh-Yu Peng, Chao-Jung Chen, Yuan-Shiun Chang and Yang-Chang Wu	1623
DART MS Based Chemical Profiling for Therapeutic Potential of <i>Piper betle</i> Landraces Vikas Bajpai, Renu Pandey, Mahendra Pal Singh Negi, Nikhil Kumar and Brijesh Kumar	1627
Total Phenolic Content and Antioxidative Properties of Commercial Tinctures Obtained from Some Lamiaceae Plants Adam Kowalczyk, Izabela Biskup and Izabela Fecka	1631
Synthesis, Antifungal Activity and Structure-Activity Relationships of Vanillin oxime-N-O-alkanoates Vivek Ahluwalia, Nandini Garg, Birendra Kumar, Suresh Walia and Om P. Sati	1635
Cinnamic Acid Derivatives Acting Against <i>Aspergillus</i> Fungi. Taq Polymerase I a Potential Molecular Target Lucas J. Gutierrez, Maria L. Mascotti, Marcela Kurina-Sanz, Carlos R. Pungitore, Ricardo D. Enriz and Fernando A. Giannini	1639
Insecticidal Effects of Acetogenins from <i>Rollinia occidentalis</i> Seed Extract Diego Tolosa, Olga Álvarez Colom, Alicia Bardón and Adriana Neske	1645

Continued inside backcover