BIOACTIVITY-GUIDED ISOLATION AND STRUCTURE ELUCIDATION OF ANTIMALARIAL TRITERPENES FROM *Combretum zenkeri*ENGL & DIELS AND *Combretum racemosum*P. BEAUV. LEAVES

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ABSTRACT

Medicinal plants are rich sources of antimalarial compounds. Combretaceae family is known from ethnobotanical survey to possess broad spectrum of activities against different diseases including malaria. The increasing trend of resistance to many antimalarial agents including artemisinin and its derivatives has necessitated the need for new drug candidates. This study was, therefore, designed to validate the antimalarial potential of selected Combretaceae species, investigate the most active plant extracts by bioactivity-guided isolation and structure elucidation of the active principles.

Methanol and acetone extracts of the leaves of ten Combretaceae species, collected from the University of Ibadan Botanical Garden, were obtained by Soxhlet method. These extracts were screened for inhibition of β -hematin synthesis monitored with UV-Visible spectrophotometer at 405 nm. The most active methanol extracts, *Combretum racemosum* (CRM) [FHI/108887] and *Combretum zenkeri* (CZM) [FHI/110277] were screened against chloroquine-sensitive D10 and chloroquine-resistant W2 *Plasmodium falciparum* strains using lactate dehydrogenase assay with chloroquine as the standard. Both extracts were successively partitioned into chloroform and *n*-butanol by solvent-solvent partitioning, fractions obtained were also investigated for anti-plasmodial activity. The chloroform fractions were subjected to flash and column chromatographic techniques for bioactive compound isolation. Isolated compounds were characterised by NMR and MS techniques (1D and 2D NMR, ESI-MS and HR-ESIMS) and subjected to anti-plasmodial screening. Structure-activity relationship (SAR) study of the isolated compounds was conducted. The IC₅₀ was calculated by curve-fitting analysis. Statistical analyses were conducted using a two-tailed Student's t test at $\alpha_{0.05}$.

The CZM (IC₅₀: 2.92±0.846 mg/mL) and CRM (IC₅₀: 3.96±0.132 mg/mL) crude extracts had significant activities. The CRM [D10: IC₅₀= 64.18±2.69 µg/mL ($R^2 = 0.99$); W2: IC₅₀= 65.80±14.85 µg/mL ($R^2 = 0.96$)] and CZM [D10: IC₅₀= 68.98±1.00 µg/mL ($R^2 = 0.95$); W2: IC₅₀= 69.68±3.09 µg/mL ($R^2 = 0.99$)] crude extracts showed antiplasmodial activity. The CRM chloroform fraction (D10: IC₅₀= 33.80±1.52 µg/mL; W2: IC₅₀= 27.82±2.85 µg/mL) showed higher activity relative to the n-butanol fraction (D10: IC₅₀= 78.08±7.29 µg/mL; W2: IC₅₀= 78.12±14.98 µg/mL). The chloroform fraction of CZM (D10: IC₅₀= 12.57±1.57 µg/mL; W2: IC₅₀= 12.14±0.95 µg/mL); also had higher activity than n-butanol fraction (D10: IC₅₀=

61.98±3.25 µg/mL; W2: IC₅₀= 61.26±8.64 µg/mL). Phytochemical isolation from the *C. racemosum* chloroform fraction led to the identification of four ursane-type triterpenes: 19α-hydroxyasiatic acid, 6β, 23-dihydroxytormentic acid, madecassic acid, nigaichigoside F1; four oleanane-type triterpenes: arjungenin, combregenin, terminolic acid, arjunglucoside I, and abscisic acid. All isolated compounds exhibited antiplasmodial activity (17.19±4.34 ≤ IC₅₀ ≤ 134.70±13.21 µg/mL) with madecassic acid showing significant activity [D10: IC₅₀= 27.62±11.56 µg/mL (R² = 0.96); W2: IC₅₀= 17.19±4.34 µg/mL (R² = 0.98)]; however, chloroquine standard showed higher activity (D10: IC₅₀= 0.01±0.002 µg/mL; W2: IC₅₀= 0.22±0.03 µg/mL) than madecasic acid. The chloroform fraction of *C. zenkeri* led to the isolation of two triterpenes, ursolic and oleanolic acids, with known antimalarial activities. The SAR showed that dehydroxylation at 6β- and/or 19α-positions in these triterpenes increased the antiplasmodial activity, while the geminal-dimethyl substitutions at position C-20 did not significantly impact the bioactivity.

The antiplasmodial potential of *Combretum racemosum* and *Combretum zenkeri* was validated. Madecassic acid showed potential for antimalarial drug development.

Keywords: Combretum zenkeri, Combretum racemosum, Antiplasmodial activity, Triterpenes, Madecassic acid Word count: 500

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This research work is dedicated to:

- 1. The Almighty God, the creator of heaven and earth; my help in the time of need.
- 2. My extraordinary mother, Mrs. Victoria Aduke Oluyemi, who has been my godmother and instrument in God's hand to help my academic pursuit to this highest degree.

CERTIFICATION

This is to certify that this project work was carried out byWande MichaelOLUYEMI in the Department of Pharmaceutical Chemistry, Faculty of Pharmacy, University of Ibadan, under my supervision.

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Date

Supervisor Dr. B.B. Samuel B.Pharm, M.Sc, Ph.D, MPSN Pharmaceutical Chemistry Department Faculty of Pharmacy University of Ibadan

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CHAPTER ONE

1.0 GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1.1 RESEARCH CONTEXT AND OBJECTIVES

Malaria is an ancient infection and hasbeen enlistedamong the most fatal parasite-causing diseases in the globe since antiquity. Ithas remained, over previous decades, one crucial health complication which affects the health oflots of persons, predominantly in sub-Saharan Africadeveloping countries(Njoroge and Bussmann, 2006). The women with pregnancy and below age fivechildren are most prone to the malaria burden as a result of their weak immune system. The blood is infected when the female Anopheles mosquitoes transferPlasmodium parasite from one person to another, thereby leading to the epidemicity of the disease. This epidemic is characterised by factors such as hot and humid climate, frequently combined with bad environmental habits, which are particularly associated with tropical regions. In 2015, a concerted effort was ensued to fight against malaria to accelerate progress towards malaria elimination and improve the situation for more robust investment towards malaria with 2016-2030 as set target for actualisation (WHO GST and WHO RBM AIM, 2015). However, in 2016 an estimated cases of *falciparum* malaria grew to 216 million cases globally from 211 million in 2015; a 2.4% increase which has caused a draw-back in the recent progress made in malaria eradication (WHO, 2017). Likewise in same 2016, more than 20% decrease in malaria cases was estimated in 16 countries out of the 91 countries endemic with malaria burden compared with 2015, however, an estimated rise of the same magnitude was observed in 25 countries with Africa and Latin America regions accounting for the largest proportion of these countries (WHO, 2017). The occurrence of malaria cases in 2017 was showed to be about 219 million, and consequently led to the death of nearly 435,000 persons corresponding toincidence in the preceding year (WHO, 2018). Severe anaemia and cerebral malaria is responsible for elevated degree of lethal outcome in young children.

Malaria infection has thrived for centuries, also, the efforts to control the widespread of the menace has increased over the years. The control of malaria has involved different approaches, examples include, insecticide treated bed nets (ITNs), effective drugs therapy usage as well asindoor residual spraying of insecticide (IRS)(Babamale *et al.*, 2015; WHO, 2017). Presently, Artemisinin-based combination therapies (ACTs) remains the initial treatments for cases of malariathat is uncomplicated in many of the prevalent regions(WHO, 2015). Though, ACTs are expensive for the endemic low income region people (Mutabingwa, 2005), and the low-cost monotherapies like chloroquine and sulphadoxine has developed orare rapidly developing resistance from malaria parasite, resulting to increased mortality rate (RBM-WHO, 2006).Unfortunately, it has been reported that artemisinin as well as its derivativesare susceptible to increasing situations of resistance of *Plasmodium* parasite (Dondorp *et al.*, 2009).

The herbal medicines, which are sourced from medicinal plants, form major parts of therapies that are formulated to treat malaria. Apparently, some patients resort to the use of herbal preparations as their first choice of medication and some use them complementarily with the orthodox drugs. Meanwhile, it is well known that ethnomedicinal practice has shown to be a successful way the people living in developing countries readily access healthcare, where medicinal plants is being used for malaria prevention and treatment (Willcox and Bodeker, 2004; Willcox, 2011). The prominent use of herbal products may be hinged on the fact of its availability, relative affordability, as well as therapeutic effectiveness (Willcox and Bodeker, 2004). In Nigeria, the use of herbs is an age-long practice in which several of these plants are employed in the malaria management and cure as well as several other infections or ailments and they are documented appropriately(Adebayo and Krettli, 2011). Preparation of several of these plants into formulated herbal products are presently being carried out by accredited trado-medical practitioners, who marketed them in herbal clinics, retail outlets and pharmacy storeslocated mostly in the cities. As a result of this, the traditional method to the treatment of malaria is brought closer to people dwelling in urban areas that have no direct access to the plant products as a result of urbanisation, ethno-diversification among several reasons.

1.1.1Statement of the problem

Malaria has continued to show to be a crucial general health problem which affects several lots ofpersons, especiallythose in the sub-Sahara African developing countries. Many of the drug products in malaria treatment including artemisinin have suffered resistance, because of this, development of alternative treatment is necessary and very urgent. Plants of medicinal use, including those of the Combretacae family, have been utilised in ethnomedicine fortreating malaria and a number of other diseases by huge numbers of people in sub-Saharan African countrieswho get some recovery by their use.All the same,there is little or no scientifical information to support the therapeutic claims of greater number of these plants. In the same effect, just a little number ofplants from Combretaceae family have demonstrated to beusefulin treating malaria; only few were so far explored to be able to derive useful activeingredients for treating malaria.

1.1.2Research question

It should be mentioned that the effect of malaria ismajor acrossAfrica, Asia as well as Latin America. Asia provided artemisinin forthe people and quinine was given by Latin America. The question on the minds of many researchers is that when will Africa utilise its biodiversitycoupled with a very large ethnomedicine to offer a new antimalarial drug to humanity?Following this fundamental question, answers will be provided to the two major research questions of this study.

Medicinal plants from thefamily of Combretaceae have been used in treating malaria, and several persons get some relief in their use in spite of the unavailability of scientific proof of antimalarial effect of many of these plants. Do the extracts of these medicinal plantsunder investigation have antiplasmodial property? What are the antiplasmodial principles present in these extracts?

1.1.3Research aim and the objectives

This research work was designed to validate the antimalarial efficacy of selected ethnomedicinally important plants from Combretaceae family, investigate the promising ones by abioactivity-guided isolation and structure elucidation of their active principles. The objectives included to:

- i. to collect and authenticate plants of the Combretaceae family
- ii. screen acetone and methanol crude extracts of selected plants from Combretaceae family for antimalarial efficacy by application of the β-hematin synthesis inhibition
- iii. select the most promising extract(s) from (i) and validate the antimalarial activity of its/their organic fractions
- iv. carry out the isolation, characterisation and structure elucidation of the compounds from the most potent fractions and carry out their antiplasmodial test.

CHAPTER TWO

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1MALARIA

The Italian originated the word malaria'mala aria' which signifies 'bad air'. The English calledit malaria, 'ague' and 'marsh fever'. Malaria has been known since antiquity; the records of showing its identifiable accounts were documented in several Egyptian Papyri. Fever, splenomegaly, as well as the usage of oil of the Balamites tree as repellant of mosquitoes were mentioned in the Ebers Papyrus (3550 BC). *Plasmodium* parasites are the cause of malaria infection, showing acute symptoms ranging from recurrent fever, headache, muscle and joint pain, vomiting, jaundice and anaemia to critical complications likesevere anaemia,acidosis, kidney failure, respiratory distress and cerebral malaria.

2.1.1 Malaria parasites of humans

Female Anopheles mosquitoes which are the causative vector of malaria through blood infection transmitPlasmodium parasites from one person toanother.Four of the five species of *Plasmodium* parasites (*P. falciparum*, *P. malariae*, *P. vivax* as well as *P. ovale*), which are the reason for human malaria, are known to be the *Plasmodium* species in people transfered from one individual to the other through female Anophelesmosquitoe's bite. *Plasmodium knowlesi*, the fifth *Plasmodium* species, is found in persons when an Anopheles mosquito transfer infection through a bite from monkey to humans, so is not transmittedfrom human to human. *Plasmodium falciparium* showed to be the most deadly among the five *Plasmodium* species that human malaria originates from(WHO, 2015).*Plasmodium vivax* and *P. malariae* have among others almost obviously becomethe most widely distributed in the world. They have been recognized and identifiedby Europeans ever sinceprehistoriceras as theepisodic fevers(Anderson, 1927). These wereunconnected with the critical and frequently deadlyappearances of the recurring fevers (*P. falciparum*), which is characterised with display of asevere febrile occurrence, or paroxysm(Dobson, 1994).Currently, *P. malariae* no longer has the prevalence it used to show but *P. vivax* as well as*P. falciparum* are now parasites of

malariafrequently encountered.*Plasmodium vivax* is sometimes still located in few temperate regions, where its prevalence was widely present in the past. However, itsoccurrence remains frequentacross most of the tropics and subtropics. Due to the limitation of temperature on *P. falciparum* transmission, the occurrence is usually in temperate, tropical and subtropicalregions.Presently, *P. falciparum* has remained widely prevalent in the tropics.

Thereason for virulent malaria in humans which originated from *P. falciparum*, has been linked to *Gorilla gorilla*, thereby indicating that infections in human originated from this species (Liu*etal.*, 2010).

2.1.2The economic and social burden of malaria

The human malaria disease is due to Plasmodium parasites, when it is transferred by Anophelesmosquitoes from one individual to the other. In adults, its frequent manifestations are high body temperature, aches and pains, headaches, weaknessand loss of appetite. It may show additional signs in children like nausea and vomiting. It is a severeailmentthat affectsall categories of persons but its effects are severer among pregnant women andchildren. Historically, malaria killed more warriors than warfare. Malaria has indeed contributed major part in the rise and falls of nations and has caused the death of numerous of people globally. It is estimated that human societies have shown lesser growth and development where malaria thrives most. The remarkable link between poverty and malaria is demonstrated by the spread of lower economic growth incountries where malaria is most prevalent. Malaria hampers development through many ways, includingworkers' productivity, investment and savings, fertility problem, growth rate of population, absenteeism, premature death and medical costs (Sachs and Malaney, 2002). Although, progress has been made in the last few years through several programmes and interventions towards eliminating the parasite (WHO, 2017). However, with the rapidly growing population in malaria-endemic regions, and in the absence of proactive political will from government, and sustaining of the current active intervention approaches, the sum of malaria incidence may likely increase over the succeeding twenty years. It is estimated that malaria shows economic burden in most endemic developing countries, due to the incurring of non-private as well as privatemedical expensesconnected with the illness as a main focus, as well as amount of the earnings that is foregone due to death from malaria. Private medical expenses areindividualexpenses on prophylaxis, diagnosis, and disease treatment.Factors considered as private medical cost include the expenses on bed nets,

price of antimalarial drugs, transportation expenses to medical facilities, doctor's feesas well as the requiredcare provided. Public expenses on both prevention and disease treatment is showed as non-private medical costs. Thesecontain governmentexpenses on mosquitoes control, facilities for healthcare, research and education. The estimation of the foregone earnings is calculated by the rate of absent workdays due to malaria and ailment related to malaria, based on estimation of wages. In the instance of premature death as a result of the infection, estimation of the foregone earnings is done based on the cumulativeworth of future salaries of the victim based on projected incomes if he/she should be alive. Beyond direct medical costs and foregone earnings, malaria can enforce economic burdens through other ways. The first is the occurrence that lead to changes in household behavior as a result of the illness, which may causewide social burdenleading to adverse effect on demography, migration, schooling and savings. Secondly, macroeconomic costs that is as a result of the prevalent manner of the disease. These among others include effect of malaria on commercial activities, foreign direct investment and tourism. These burdens are consequential and particularly critical for the people in the lowest income categories. Malaria is one among primary reasons of preventable death, predominantly among pregnant women and children, and this has raised serious health concern in Africa. Africa possesses the largest percentage of cases of malaria in the world, it shares a huge economic burden(Oluyole et al., 2011). Each month, malarial treatment cost between \$2 and \$25 and between \$15 and \$20 on prevention among family circles in Africa with consequent loss of resources (Oluyole et al., 2011). Thereduced production output and lost incomes due to declined quality of life, hospitalisations, treatment and other occurrences which are all human and economic costslinked to malaria are huge(Erhun et al., 2005). Malaria set limitationson the socio-economic growth of a country prevalent with it apart frombeing a challenge to the health of many (Sachs and Malaney 2002).

In Nigeria, available documentations showed that around 50% of the populace is down withat least one incident of malaria yearly while 2–4 attacks of malariaon the average is observed in under 5 children (Adedotun *et al.*, 2010). About 7% of average family's monthly incomeis consumed because of cost of treatingmalariaas well as other ailments, and treatingmalaria casesonly constituted 2.91% to these; this alluded to the reality that more than 40% of the overallcost of health incurred by homes monthlyin Nigeria in comparison with other illnesses put together is because of malaria(Onwujekwe *et al.*, 2000).

2.1.3The life cycle of malariaPlasmodium

The *Plasmodium*utilises two kinds of host (Figure 2.1): an invertebrate such as mosquitoes and a vertebrate such as reptiles, birds, or mammals. Theultimate host is the invertebrate where thesexual reproduction actualises. The intermediate host is the tissues of the vertebrate where the asexual reproduction occur.

Vertebrate phases: there is injection of saliva having sporozoites into the bloodstream of a vertebrate by mosquito with the infection whenin the process of taking blood-meal. After injection into the blood circulation, sporozoites cease to be visible in the circulating blood within one hour and infiltrate the parenchyma of the liver within one or two days(Figure 2.2). The reason sporozoites penetrate hepatocytes and never any other body cells is because a protein (circumsporozoite protein) which covers the surface of the sporozoite carries a ligand which attaches to receptors on basolateral domain of the membrane of liver cell. A series of asexual reproduction identified as the preerythrocytic cycle is initiated at the entry into the hepatocyte. The parasite metamorphosises into a feeding trophozoite in the liver cell. Schizogony begins after about a week, depending on species, at the maturation of trophozoites. There is first the formation of numerous daughter nuclei, converting the parasitesinto schizonts.

The amount of merozoites formed at the completion of the cycle is as well dependent on species: the estimation shows*P.malariae* forms 2,000 whereas*P.vivax* or *P.ovale* forms 10,000then30,000 is formed for *P.falciparum*(Garnham,1966). Erythrocytic cycle is initiated by the time merozoites depart from hepatic cells andinfiltrateerythrocytes. Entering the erythrocyte, the merozoite again converts into a trophozoite. A large food vacuole is formed by a host cytoplasm ingested by a trophozoite, making the young plasmodium have the look of a ring of cytoplasm (signet ring stage Figure 2.3) with the nucleus displaced to one side (like a signet ring). The food vacuoles of the trophozoite become less noticeable as it grows, but hemozoin pigment granules are deposited. The parasite quickly develops into a schizont. At a phase (segmenter stage) in the erythrocytic schizogony the nucleus divides several times and cytoplasm surrounds each nuclei. When merozoites finish developing, there

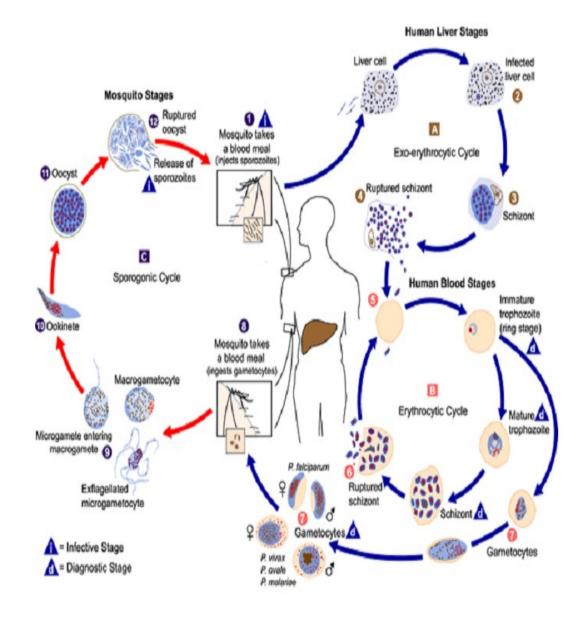


Figure 2.1: Life cycle of the malaria parasite (National Center of Infectious Disease, 2006).

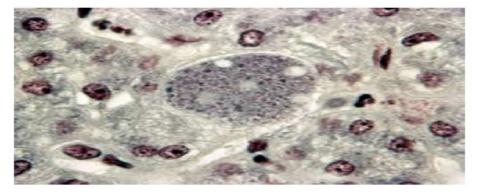


Figure 2.2: Exoerythrocytic stages of malaria in liver parenchymal cell.

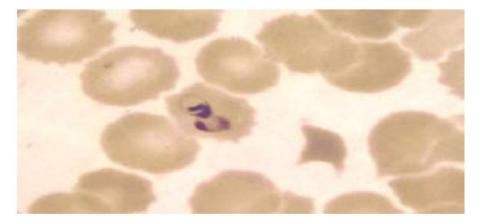


Figure 2.3: Signet ring stage of Plasmodium spp

is rupture of the host cell, parasite metabolic wastes and residual body, including hemozoin is released. Malaria symptoms are partly characterised by the metabolic wastes released. The rupture of the parasitised cells is synchronised such that they all rupture at definite intervals. It is this periodicity which accounts for the bouts of fever at regular intervals, caused by a metabolic waste.

Invertebrate phases: Some of the merozoites, after some time, move into the erythrocytes and develop into gametocytes (microgametocytes and macrogametocytes). No further development occurs until theiringestion by a mosquito while it is sucking blood of an individual with infection. In the stomach of the mosquito, the development of the gametocytes into gametes takes place after emerging from the erythrocytes. Macrogametocyte matures to produce a single macrogamete, recognisable by a more peripherally located nucleus. The nucleus of the microgametocyte divides three times, each nucleus passing into the membrane surrounding the axoneme of each of eight flagella which have developed from the microgametocyte surface. This development is known as exflagellation, results in the formation of eight flagella-like microgametes which now break free from the gametocyte. The whole process takes place within 15 to 20 minutes.

A macrogamete is fertilised by one microgamete resulting in the formation of a zygote called an ookinete which enters between the stomach wall's cells and migrate facing the hemocoel, where it develops and form an oocyst. The nucleus of the oocyst splits several times, the first division being a reduction division to produce a number sporoblasts. This then divides further producing several sporozoites in thousands. Theformed oocyst spurts at maturation and there isrelease of sporozoites into the mosquito's hemocoel. Some of them penetrate the salivary gland and are injected with saliva into the bloodstream when the mosquito bites man to suck blood. They then invade the liver cells and the life cycle starts all over again (White *et al.*, 2014).

2.1.4The pathogenesis, pathology and pathophysiology of malaria

The intracellular occupation of *Plasmodium* in the environment of the host cell allows asignificant modification. At the end of exo-erythrocytic schizogony, which ushers in the start of erythrocytic phase, there is asexual multiplication and discharge of merozoites into the blood circulation from hepatocytes and directed to host erythrocytes after the red blood cells ruptured. Thefresh merozoites produced undergo a repeat of similar process in the newerythrocytes (Bousema *et al.*, 2014). There is need for egress of infected erythrocyte before reinvasion of fresh erythrocyte. Between the merozoites surface proteins (MSPs) andhost erythrocytes receptors, there is occurrence of numerous molecular interactionsduring

egress and internalisation process (Cowman et al., 2012). Moreover, when the parasite enters into the host cell there is modulation of the host environment to make it suitable and avoid the host defense. There are well-defined signaling mechanism which are employed by the parasite to mediate the modulation processes, and the description of this is shown at molecular and cellular levels (Parker et al., 2004). During disease pathogenesis, the roles and participation of cytokines in signaling pathways is already resolved; in spite ofthis, some proteins still remained uncharacterised. From drug discovery point of view, it will be helpful to understand the tactics employed by parasite to flourish well in the host by thestudy of diverse signaling mechanism in the course of the asexual erythrocytic phase (Miller et al., 2002), which affords novel contribution in developing an efficient antimalarial therapeutic strategy. In knockout study conductedon P. bergheiPKG (PfPKG), it was demonstrated that at late liver sporozoites (LS) phase, hepatic cell lines (HePG2) can be infected by the parasite, but it was unsuccessful for it to be released as merosome from the hepatocytes. There is induction of protective immune response in the host by sporozoites at this stage(Falae et al., 2010). Thus, it reveals the importance of cyclic guanosine monophosphate (cGMP) signaling when merosome isformed and released. The exact function of protein kinase G (PKG) and what prompts its stimulation is not clear up till now. A thorough understanding of the signaling implicated in liver sporozoites would afford opportunity for disease pathologies controlin erythrocytic phase which could be an advantage in the preerythrocytic vaccine development and the search forfuture malaria medication (Falae et al., 2010). Cyclic guanosine monophosphate (cGMP) showed to demonstrate a crucial function in gametogenesis; coupled with this, it has been established thatits functionality is well expressed during the ring and schizogony stage (Deng and Baker, 2002).

Changes in membrane permeability and thorough modification in erythrocytes are part of major processes involved during malaria (Sherman *et al.*, 2004). The level of parasitemia in the host is established to be rightlyconnected to adenosine triphosphate (ATP) level released (Eaton and Brewer, 1969). The *Plasmodium*parasite becomes ineffectual to infect the new erythrocytes when there is any decrease in the level of ATP in the medium (Glushakova *et al.*, 2013). The prevention of the parasite entrance via inhibitor-mediated purinergic receptor blockade and apyrase addition established the importance of ATP in the host invasion by parasite. The phosphorylation of skeleton protein such as spectrin which is existing in

erythrocyte mediates purinergic signaling response (Glushakova *et al.*, 2013). The new permeation pathway is induced by purinoceptor signaling, therefore, there is reduction of membrane permeability via purinoceptors antagonist, suramin, and this leads to decline in parasite growth in*in vivo* as well as*in vitro*(Tanneur *et al.*, 2006). After the host is infected with malaria, host-induced inflammation is mediated by ATP (Cruz *et al.*, 2012).

The development of future antimalarial agentis possible by targeting the human kinase. This serves as an advantage as several kinase inhibitors had showed to be successful as anti-cancer agents in clinical trials stages. If this type of inhibitors showto kill the parasite, therefore they can serve as antimalarial agents at alesser cost, thereby reducing the wholeprolongeddrug development process. Also, the circumvention of the problem of drug resistance could be aided by targeting host protein (Sicard *et al.*, 2011).

Calcium ion (Ca^{2+}) is one of the keymolecules that serve as secondary messenger which is required in the signal transduction. Several of its functionality in various facets of parasite lifecycleare for instance indevelopment, secretion, invasion, egress, growth and motility (Glushakova *et al.*, 2013). Consequently, maintenance of Ca^{2+} homeostasis is important to the continued existence of the parasite. Ca^{2+} ions help in the regulation of diverse cellular actions when they bind to the effector molecules. However, the characterisation of the Ca^{2+} -dependent signaling components is not easy because of the absenceof effector molecules homology betweenhigher eukaryotes and *Plasmodium*(Prole and Taylor, 2011).

Malaria severity is accompanied with pathological symptoms which correspond to the increase in pro-inflammatory cytokines level. At the release of liver schizonts, infected persons indicated rise in the pro-inflammatory cytokines production, includinginterferon (IFN)- γ , interleukin (IL)-8 as well as IL-12(Schofield and Grau, 2005). Therefore, flaw in the inflammatory response will lead to disease severity(Schofield and Grau, 2005). In a severe malaria case study, increased levels of Toll-like receptor TLR2, TLR4as well as TLR8 were observed (Sobota *et al.*, 2016). As a result of this, they could be good candidates for elucidatinginherent immune response mechanism in the process of parasite infection; inthis case, TLR ligands can be employed in therapeutic intervention (Gowda, 2007). Majority of thepathologies involved in malaria are connected with the cellular interaction between parasitic proteins and host (Miller *et al.*, 2002; Ho and White, 1999).So, paying attention to the cytoadhesion response will assist in review of pathogenesis mechanisms. A huge stock of proteins is transmitted on the surface of infected red blood cell (RBC) at the trophozoite phase. The attachement of these proteins to the endothelial cell, other infected RBC or new RBCs is what leadstosequestration of infected red blood cell in different tissue. Consequentially, it decreases the blood movement and circumvents the main movement to avoid the splenic clearance (Dondorp *et al.*, 2000). The association of infected RBCs with intercellular adhesion molecule 1 (ICAM-1)in *P. falciparum* infectionis part of the explanations for progression in cerebral pathologies(Turner, 1997; Gray *et al.*, 2003). There is increased level of the expression of ICAM-1during the inflammatory response. The infected RBCgrouping as well as their sticking to ICAM-1 has beenproposed as the reason whychildren that show severe malaria indicate intestinal bacterial infection(Church, 2016). Therefore, the development of anti-adhesion therapeutic agents combined with antimalarial agents are necessary to fight the infection (Bell and Boehm, 2013). The use of anti-adhesion therapeutic agents couldafford a noveloutlook in the decrease of the interactions associated with severe pathologies of malaria.

2.2Therapeutic potential of medicinal plants for drug discovery

The use of medicinal herbs for therapeutic purpose has evolved over several decades. Indigenous plants and herbs have been used for centuries across the world by traditional practitioners for treatingnumerous diseases and they have demonstrated strong pharmacological actions. Medicinal plants have been useful to humans since many centuries in the past for diverse diseases have delivered valuable likecardiotonics and drugs (digoxin), antihypertensives (reserpine), antineoplastics (vinblastine and taxol), analgesics (morphine), antitussives (codeine) and antimalarials (quinine and artemisinin). Medicinal plantsdrug discovery remain a means of providing novel and vital agents against several ailments including cancer, cardiovascular diseases, neurological disordersas well as malaria (Ramawat et al., 2009).

For thousands of years, they have undergone development and adaptation to resistinsects, bacteria, fungi as well as weather to yieldcharacteristic secondary metabolites. Bioactive constituents from them were utilised as primary source of drugs(McRae *et al.*, 2007).Traditional medicines from plant source is still dependent upon by eighty percent (80%)

of general publicas means of primary health management, and eighty percent of the drugs resulting from plants justified the original traditional application of the plant source (Fabricant and Farnsworth, 2001). The traditional use of medicinal plantsfor treating several diseases have been for ages(Dias et al., 2012). They are considered to be the source of many active ingredients of drugs. In the application to discovery of drug, this is generally acknowledged to be correct (Sneader, 1996). Despite the dominance of chemical synthesislately as a mode of discovering and producing medicines, the prospect of plants with bioactivity to offer new agents for treating and preventing diseases is still huge (Raskin et al., 2002). The persistence of killer diseases like diabetes and arthritis, coupled with the harmful side effects of synthesised drugs, prompted a change in interest from allopathy to natural/alternative systems of medicine. Ghosh et al. (2008) opined that natural products discovered from plantsrepresent astriking source of bioactive molecules compared with chemical synthesis, as they are from natural source and not costly. Likewisedrugs from plants may not possessthe same mechanisms like synthetic ones, also could be of medical relevance in health managementenhancement (Eloff, 1998). Successful development of natural products and synthetic products of natural origin for treating human diseases in nearly all therapeutic areas has been achieved (Newman and Cragg, 2007). Morphine turned out to be the foremost bioactive molecule derived purely from a plant in 1805, though its structure unknowntill 1923.Atropa belladonna, *Coffeaarabica*, Erythroxylum coca, Ephedra species, Papaversomniferum, Physostigma venenosum and Cinchona succirubra are plant species from where some alkaloids such as atropine, caffeine, cocaine, ephedrine, morphine, physostigmine andquinine, respectively were among several others isolated in the 19th century.As a result of this, biologically active agentsderived from plants werewidely used later, both in their modified as well as original forms, as drugs (Salim et al., 2008). Medicinal plants are enriched withsecondary metabolites, and it is due to the existence of these compounds in them that they are called 'drug/medicinal' plants. These secondary plant products apply anintense physiological action on human biological systems; therefore ecognised as the active principles of plants. Presently, there are 125 isolated drugs from roughly 100 plant species that are useful clinically. It was shown that around 5000 plants have been investigated extensively as potential origins of new drugs (Tantry, 2009). Majority of the world's biodiversities are not

yetexplored for pharmacological potentials, therefore, several beneficial lead compounds areexpected to be discovered from plants (Cragg and Newman, 2005).

2.2.1Ethnomedicinal healthcare practices

Ethnomedicinal practices were the backbone of majority of drugs in early times; laterchemical, pharmacological and clinical studies became necessary for drug development (Butler, 2004). The isolation of quite a lot of alkaloid compounds including morphine was from Papaver somniferum L. (opium poppy). Digitalis purpurea L. (foxglove) was in the 10th century recorded to be in use in Europe, but digitoxin, a cardiotonic glycoside, which is the active ingredient was isolated in the 1700s. This compound showed to increase cardiac conduction, thus enhancing cardiac contractibility strength. Quinine, an antimalarial agent from the bark of C. succirubra, for many yearswas used for treating malaria, cancer, throat as well as mouth diseases among others. A global cultivation of the plant was done by the British in the mid-1800s which led to the bark to be formally used for malaria treatment. Medicinal plants are said to be bases of several types of biologically active molecules having different therapeutic properties. Traditional medicine is indigenous to diverse cultures and is as a result of practices based on experiences and beliefs utilised in preventing diseases and health maintenance. The use of traditional medicine is widespread and it is based on centuries-old practices based on beliefs and local traditions at the time when modern scientific medicine had not become popular and accepted. Plant utilised in treating a specific disease was often identified by "signature codes" earlier before it was realised that molecules with pharmacological activity available in medicinal plants are responsible for their observed efficacy. For instance, jaundice was cured using goldenrod with a yellow colour, liverworts were utilised for ailments of the liver, herbs with red colour were utilised in treating diseases of the blood, toothworts for toothache, also pileworts for hemorrhoids (Sneader, 2005).

Based on traditional and ethnobotanical use, medicinal plants provide source of information for active components isolation, for example, some as direct therapeutic agents, starting molecule for semisynthesis and also as taxonomic markers for identification (Balunas and Kinghorn, 2005; Gurib-Fakim, 2006). Traditional medicine is continually in high demand to treat several diseases, which is accessed through the traditional medicine practitioners and herbalists. Traditional medicinal drug comprises only medicines which predominantly utilise medicinal plants concoction for treatment; this preparation comprises medicinal plants, minerals and organic matters among others (Samy and Gopalakrishnakone, 2007). The management and cure of ailments have been one of the major concerns of mankind over the years (Tantry, 2009). In developing countries, traditional system of healing is fundamentally centered on the use of phytomedicines, which showed to be avital aspect of their history and culture (Arif *et al.*, 2009). In the traditional systems of medicine (TSM),the use of plants with medicinal properties has played significant role, particularly as means to discover novel drugable molecules. Isolation of compounds with the aid of several separation procedures, chemical properties and spectra characterisation are necessary to determine its chemical nature (Ramawat *et al.*, 2009).The prospect of plants for therapeutic effect has been thoroughlyexploredover long decades (Raina *et al.*, 2014).

2.2.2Natural products derived from medicinal plants

For several decades, most of the new drugs have showed to be generated from natural products and their derivatives (Lahlou, 2007). Natural products have been long shown to be developed source for new drug molecules discovery as a result of their possession of chemical diversity whichshow action on numeroustargets in the biological system (Bhutani and Gohil, 2010). Moleculesknown to be the major natural products are categorised as secondary metaboliteswhich include flavonoids, terpenes, alkaloids, sterols, lignins, essential oils, tannins, phenolics, e.t.c., are known as results of secondary metabolism (Ramawat et al., 2009). The individuality of plant species is expressed by organism-specific mechanism of biosynthesis of compounds known as secondary metabolites by organism(Maplestone et al., 1992). Colegate and Molyneux (2008) alluded that secondary metabolites are generated either due to adaptation of organism to its surroundings or are generated for them as potentialmechanism of defense in combating predators and helpsupport thoseorganismsto survive. The secondary metabolites biosynthesis resulted from photosynthesis, Krebs cycle and glycolysis, which arefundamental processes yielding intermediates which, in the end, afford the production of secondary metabolites similarlyidentified as natural products. Two major biosynthetic pathways are responsible for the synthesis of most secondary metabolites: (1) a collection of aromatic amino acids, which are transformed to become different molecules likealkaloids and phenolics (lignins, quinones, tannins), are generated through shikimic acid pathway(Mustafa and Verpoorte, 2007), also (2) a huge collection of terpenoids are generated through acetyl-CoA mevalonic acid pathway (Eisenreich et al., 2004). These compounds of plant source, according to Wood-Sheldon et al.(1997), play good roles for elucidating their functions in managing and treatingdiverse diseases. Anthriscus sylvestris roots for instanceafforded a lignin which displayed effect against insects (Kozawa et al., 1982). Natural products have provided distinct structural diversity compared to normal combinatorial chemistry, which offers potentials for the discovery ofmostly newlead compounds with low molecular weights (Dias et al., 2012). One important feature of products from natural source are the huge structure and chemical diversity. As a matter of fact, natural products or their derivatives provide 45% of today's most purchased drugs. Several plants of medicinal properties have been subjected to detailed chemical investigations for isolation of pure bioactive molecules which have specific pharmacological potentials. This has afforded the discovery of drugs along with their applications (Table 2.1). These biologically active compounds are used as therapeutic agents, starting materials and new reagents for molecular biology research (Phillipson, 2007). Discovering drugs from plants is an herculeanprocess and one which consumes time. The typical examples of drugs discovered from plant such as quinine, morphine, digoxin, etc., which substituted the extracts of their individual plants largely show the point that a single potent agent was responsible for the biological activity (Bhutani and Gohil, 2010). Once the medicinal plant is chosen for a single drug molecule based on a literature survey and known phytochemical relationships, collection and botanical identification follows. The plant material is dried in a coolroom withairflow orin a controlled temperature oven. The dried plant material should then be pulverised to give a satisfactory mesh size and made to undergo a suitable extraction process as per standard operating procedures. Forbioactive studies, different extracts of varying polarities are prepared and subjected to a preliminary screening programme. The extracts are made to undergo standard chromatographic techniques for fractionation and isolation of bioactive molecules (Tantry, 2009).

Arteether was introduced as artemotil in 2000. It was derived from artemisinin previously isolated from *Artemisia annua* and both are approved antimalarial medicines (Newman and Cragg, 2007). Apomorphine, an effective dopamine agonistused in treating Parkinson's disease was derived from morphine from *P. somniferum* (Deleu *et al.*, 2004). Alkaloids (Facchini, 2001), terpenoids (Trapp and Croteau, 2001) and phenylpropanoids (Dixon and Paiva, 1995) have been shown to possess antitumor properties among several other plant-

derived natural products. It is already known that sixty percent of drugs used in treating tumour and infectious diseases currently available commercially or going through clinical trials are from natural source (Hamburger and Hostettmann, 1991). Paclitaxel (Taxol®), the most commonly used drug in treating breast cancer is derived from Taxus brevifolia bark. Taxol® is not available in abundantamounts from natural sources. The efforts for its synthesis was challenging and with huge financial cost, though successful (Nicolaou et al., 1994). From the needles of *T. brevifolia*, baccatin III is easily and abundantly isolated and is an instance of a structural analogue that is effectively converted into Taxol® (Dewick, 2002). Severalbig drug manufacturing companies minimised natural products usein screening for drug discovery in last few decades in spite of the advantages and the past accomplishments. This isdue to supposed drawbacks of natural products such as the issues with inability of working fastly due to its complexities, accessibility and supply, and worries relating to intellectual property rights, as well ashopefulnessrelated to the useof pools of molecules made available through combinatorial chemistry approaches (Harvey, 2008). The process of discovery of drug through natural productsgenerally demanded a series of separation rounds as well as structure elucidation and therefore time consuming. Nevertheless, because of the use of newly placed technologies that assure improved profits, discovery of drugs from natural product source has regained the Pharmaceutical company reception and thus on the brink of a comeback. The application of new technologies has reformed natural productsscreening procedures in new drug discovery,together with their chemical structure diversity as well as their biodiversity. The innatenatural products limitations require the application of these technologies of give a distinct chance to again demonstrate their importance indrug discovery. For new, safe and cost effective drug discovery and development programme, natural products are seen to continueas important constituents (Lahlou, 2013).

 Table 2.1: Important biologically active compounds from medicinal plants and their bioactivity

Drug	Plant	Biological activity	
Achyranthine	Achyranthes aspera	Diuretic	
Aegelin, Marmelosin	Aegle marmalos	Bowel diseases	
Ajmalicine	Rauwolfia canesocence	Hypotensive	
Allicin	Allium sativum	Hypolipidemic	
Aloin	Aloe vera	Demulcent, Skin diseases	
Andrographolide	Andrographis paniculata	Hepatoprotective	
Arboreol	Gmelina arborea	Tonic, Stomachic	
Artemisinin	Artemisia annua	Antimalarial	
Asiaticoside	Centella asiatica	Memory enhancer	
Asparanin A, Asparanin B,	Asparagus adscendens	Fertility enhancer	
Sarasapogenin			
Atropine	Solanaceae spp.	Anticholinergic	
Bacoside	Bacopa monneri	Memory enhancer	
Berberine	Berberis lycium	Antiemetic	
Boeravinones	Boerrhavia diffusa	Hepatoprotective	
Boswellic acid	Boswellia seratta	Antiinflammatory	
Caffeine	Camellia sinensis	CNS stimulant	
Camptothecin	Camptotheca acuminata	Anticancer	
Cocaine	Erythroxylum coca	Anaesthetic	
Codeine	Papaver somniferum	Antitussive	
Colchicine	Colchicum luteum	Antiinflammatory	
Curcumin	Curcuma longa	Antioxidant	
Embelin	Embelia ribes	Anthelmintic	

Ephedrine

Ephedrae herba

Galantamine

Galanthusworonowii

Hypertensive

Dementia, Anticholinesterase

Glycyrrhizin	Glycyrrhiza glabra	Antiviral
Hypericin	Hypericum perforatum	Anti-HIV
Liquiritigenin,	Pterocarpus marsupium	Anti-diabetic
Isoliquiritigenin		
Lycopene	Lycopersicon esculentum	Antioxidant
Monoterpenes,	Ocimum sanctum	Respiratory diseases,
Sesquiterpenes		Immunomodulatory
Morphine/Papaverine	Papaver somniferum	Anagelsic
Polyphenolics, Tannins	Phyllanthus emblica	Antioxidant
Protodioscin	Tribulus terrestris	Diuretic, Anabolic, Aphro-
		disiac
Quinine/Quinidine	Cinchona officinalis	Antimalarial
Reserpine	Rauwolfia serpentina	Hypotensive
Sennoside	Cassia angustifolia	Laxative
Silymarin	Ilybium marianum	Hepatoprotective
Taxol	Taxus wallichiana	Anticancer
Tinosporic acid,	Tinospora cordifolia	Immunomodulatory
Cordifolioside		
Trigonellin	Trigonella foenum-graecum	Anti-diabetic
Tubocurarine	Chondodendron tomentosum	Muscle relaxant

Tylophorine	Tylophora indica	Bronchodilator
Vasacine	Adhatoda vasica	Vasodilatory
Vinblastine/ Vincristine	Cathranthus roseus	Anticancer
Valepotriates	Valeraina wallachi	Sedative
Withanolides	Withania somnifera	Immunomodulatory

Source: Tantry, 2009; Bhutani and Gohil, 2010; Kumar et al., 2015

2.3Biological activity and antimalarial agents from plant sources

Quassinoids, alkaloids and sesquiterpene lactones have shown to possess the most significant ffect and have diverse bio-effectiveness among the various groups of secondary metabolites in plant responsible for antimalarial effect. Several classes of secondary metabolites which wereevaluated for either *in vivo* action to inhibit *P. berghei* or *in vitro* action to inhibit *P. falciparum* are highlighted below:

Alkaloids

Alkaloids are known to be among the main classes of compounds showing antimalarial effect. Quinine, also among the foremostantimalarial drugs with utmost importance one of the compounds in this family of compounds and still has relevance. Alkaloids are nitrogenous bases which possess physiological activityresulting from several biogenetic precursors. Described below are some of the alkaloids from natural source which belong to diverse classes:

Naphthylisoquinoline alkaloids

Thiskindof alkaloids show to have aremarkable*in vitro* and *in vivo*inhibition of malariaparasites. *Ancistrocladus korupensis*, was reported to yield korundamine A, a novel dimeric antiplasmodial napthylisoquinoline alkaloid. It is one of thenaphthylisoquinoline dimers from plant source having high antiplasmodial effect using*in vitro* test against *P*. *falciparum* and showed EC_{50} = 1.1 µg/mL (Hallock *etal.*, 1997). Dioncopeltine A, dioncophylline B and C identified in *Triphophyllum peltatum*, a species belonging to the same family, as well as its extractsaltogether displayed appreciably high antiplasmodial action, with dioncopeltine A showing very high and nearly total parasitaemia suppression while dioncophylline C administered (50 mg/kg daily dose for 4 days) showed complete cure onmice with infection without visible toxicity (Francois *et al.*, 1997).

Quinoline alkaloids

Chimanine B, 2-*n*-propylquinoline and 2-*n*-pentylquinoline, which are other quinoline derivatives from plant sources possess anti-leishmania activities with $EC_{50}25-50 \mu g/mL$ (Kayser *et al.*, 1998).Quinine, belonging to this class, has shown to be a useful drug for treating malaria, but became very important again with the development and widespreadof *Plasmodium falciparum* chloroquine-resistant strains(Kayser *et al.*, 1998). Chloroquine and mefloquine, though with higher antimalarial activity, was discovered as synthetic derivatives from the chemical modification of quinine as lead compound.

Bisbenzylisoquinoline alkaloids

Reports have shown the identification of many different bisbenzylisoquinolines which have antiprotozoal activity. Antimalarial activity*in vitro* (IC₅₀) of majority of bisbenzylisoquinolines have showed to be less than 1.0 μ g/mL.For example, IC₅₀value of 0.15 μ g/mL was reported for Pycnamine from *Trichilia sp*. But antiplasmodial effect was lacking in monomeric benzylisoquinolines, while antiplasmodial activity of isoguattouredigine, an aporhinoidisolated from *Guatteria foliosa* was determined (Kayser *et al.*, 1998).

Indole alkaloids

Indole consists of a set of alkaloids which showeddiverse biological activity, and its substructure is broadlyspread in plant. Certain indole alkaloidsshowed antiprotozoal activity. From *Cryptolepis sanguinolenta*, Cryptolepine and related indole-quinolines,for example, showed activity*in vitro*with IC_{50s} ranging from 27-41 ng/mLagainstW2, D6 and K1*P*. *falciparum* strains (Kayser *etal.*, 1998).

Phenanthridine and benzophenanthridine

Papaveraceae, Fumariaceae and Rutaceae are the families of plant where these class of alkaloids are mostly found (Krane *et al.*, 1984). Fagaronine and nitidine with antimalarial activities against *P. falciparum* ranging from $IC_{50}9$ -108 ng/mLare certain examples of benzophenanthridine alkaloids got from plant sources (Gakunju *et al.*, 1995).

Quassinoids

The quassinoids are lactones saturated with oxygen atoms showing majorly20 carbon skeleton termedpicrasane. But quassinoids with 18, 19 as well as 25 carbon skeletons have as well been discovered. They possess differingamounts of unalike groups containing oxygen atoms showing anextensive biological activity reported for them. From biosynthesis point of view, they are similar to triterpenoids and sharesimilar metabolic precursors. Simalikalactone D, of this class of compound, isolated from *Simaba guianensis* (Simaroubaceae) had antiplasmodial activity showing $IC_{50} < 1.7$ ng/mL. The antimalarial potential of some other isolated compounds from this class, for example, brucein A, B and C, bruceantin as well as brusatol was determined. The methylene-oxygen bridge in this classof compounds is responsible for their antiplasmodial action(Cabral *et al.*, 1993).

Terpenoids

Monoterpenes

Monoterpenes are types known as antiprotozoal drugs. From *Oxandra espinata*, Piquerol A $(IC_{50}= 100 \ \mu g/mL)$ isolatedshowedrelatively very low efficacyagainst *P. falciparum* compared to several other compounds (Kayser *et al.*, 1998).

Sesquiterpenes

The discovery of artemisinin, an antimalarial sesquiterpene lactone with endoperoxide component, motivated the antiplasmodial investigation of other peroxides from plant source.

The 1,2,4 trioxane ring of artemisinin plays a vital part in its antiplasmodial action. The actual mechanism of activity of this class of drugs is yet to be elucidated. After being administeredit forms a free radicalat the release of singlet oxygen, as active cytotoxins become toxic to the *Plasmodium* and cause its death. Other sesquiterpenes that show antiplasmodial activity have also been reported in addition to sesquiterpene endoperoxides.Francois *et al.*(1996) reported the antimalarial activity of neurolenin A and B, germacranolide sesquiterpene lactonesisolated from *Neuroleaena lobata* (Asteraceae).

Diterpenes

Diterpenes from many medicinal plant are part of the most widely spread terpenoids in plant and are also well-known for possession of various biological activity (Kayser *et al.*, 1998).A number of these diterpenes, according to Oketch-Rabah *et al.* (1998), have together high antiparasitic effect but highlytoxic to mammalian cells.From *Vernonia brachycalyx* (Asteraceae), 16, 17-dihydrobrachy-calyxolide, a macrocyclic germacrane dilactone, isolated possessed antiplasmodial activity ($IC_{50} = 17 \mu g/mL$ on *P. falciparum*) but as wellshowed human lymphocytes proliferation inhibition atsimilar concentration signifyingoverall toxicity (Oketch-Rabah *et al.*, 1998).From *Microglossa pyrifolia* (Asteraceae), theisolated antiplasmodial diterpenes are 6-*E*-geranylgeraniol-19-oic acid (IC_{50} :12.9 µg/mL) and phytol(IC_{50} :8.5 µg/mL) with high antiplasmodial activity reported for these compounds (Kohler *et al.*, 2002).

Triterpenes

Naturally occurring triterpenes and saponins have been reported to possess biological activity, likewise have showed human toxicity.Regardless of the fact that the bioactivity of triterpenes has been established, Kayser *et al.*(1998) reported that it was until the late 1970s before the first antiprotozoal activity was documented. Betulinic acid which wasidentified as the antiplasmodial compoundisolated from *Ancistrocladus heyneanus* (Ancistrocladaceae) and *Triphyophyllum peltatum* (Dioncophyllaceae)also shown to possess antineoplastic activity. Bringmann *et al.*(1997) reported it to showagainst *P. falciparum* an *in vitro* activity (IC₅₀ 10.46 μ g/mL)and (CC₅₀>20 μ g/mL) moderate toxicity. Factors such as low bioavailability, haemolytic toxicity when administered orally as well as decreased gastrointestinal tract absorption are said to be responsible for the limitations for the use of saponins as drug molecules.A steroidal saponin known as muzanzagenin which was isolated from *Asparagus africanus* (Liliaceae)showed to exhibit antiplasmodial effect of EC₅₀61 μ M against *P. falciparum* K39 strain (Oketch-Rabah *et al.*, 1997a).

Limonoids

Limonoids are class of compounds that are richly found in plant family, Meliaceae. Nimbolide tested against *P. falciparum* K1 with activity ($IC_{50} = 0.95$ ng/mL) was isolated from *Azadirachta indica*, a plant commonly utilised for malaria treatment. This was the first antiplasmodial compound from this plant (Rochanakij *et al.*, 1985). Gedunin ($IC_{50}0.72-1.74$ µg/mL) showed afterwards to also possess *in vitro* activity against *P. falciparum*(McKinnon *et al.*, 1997).

Phenolics

From *Vernonia brachycalyx* (Asteraceae), Oketch-Rabah *et al.*(1997b) reported the isolation of phenols like 2'-epicycloisobrachycoumarinone epoxide and its stereoisomer and these showedactivity against *P. falciparum* chloroquine-resistant and chloroquine-sensitive strains to possess comparable antiplasmodial activity (IC₅₀= 0.11 and 0.15 μ g/mL, respectively).

Flavonoids

A number of flavonoids have been reported from numerous plant species with their antimalarial potential established. Renewed interest was shown in this class of compoundafter

antiplasmodial flavonoids was identified from *Artemisia annua* (Asteraceae). As part of intense effort towards antiplasmodial drugs research programme, additional *Artemisia* species were screened in Thailand. As a result of this,from *Artemisia indica* (Asteraceae), Chanphen *et al.*(1998) reported that there was isolation of exiguaflavanone A (EC₅₀= 4.6µg/mL) and B (EC₅₀= 7.1 µg/mL)which showed*in vitro* activityagainst *P. falciparum*.

Chalcones

A Chalcone glycoside- phlorizidin,was reported by Kayser *et al.* (1998) to have been isolated from *Micromelum tephrocarpum* (Rutaceae) and showed to display antiparasitic action. *Micromelum tephrocarpum*,due to its bitter taste, is traditionallyutilised in malaria treatment. This bitter taste islikewise characteristics of quinine as well as many other plants used in treating malaria. Licochalcone A, a very promising compound first identified from *Glycyrrhiza glabra* (Fabaceae), showedagainst *P. falciparum* 3D7 and Dd2 strains antiplasmodial effect of IC₅₀ 0.1 µg/mL and 0.5 µg/mL, respectively;alsowent throughrigorous preclinical studies (Chen *et al.*, 1994).

Naphthoquinones

Plumbagin, a napthoquinone from *Plumbago zeylanica*, has showed to possess against resistant (W2) and chloroquine-sensitive (D6) strains of *P. falciparum* antiplasmodial activity with $IC_{50}=188.8$ ng/mL and 178.12 ng/mL, respectively (Lin *et al.*, 2003).

Anthraquinones and xanthonones

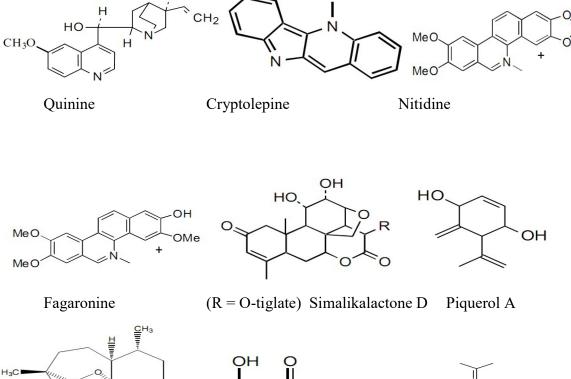
Anthraquinones and xanthonones are similar to naphthoquinones in structure and biological activity.Tricyclic aromatic skeleton with a *para*-quinoid substitution is seen to be the major chemical difference between the groups.Sittie *et al.*(1999) showed *in vitro* antimalarial effect (EC50 ~ 21.4 - 82.9 μ M) for anthraquinones-digitolutein, rubiadin-1-methyl ether and damnacanthal-from *Morinda lucida* (Rubiaceae)on chloroquine-resistant *P. falciparum* strain. Isolated from *Psychotria camponutans* (Rubiaceae), was benzoisoquinoline-5-10-dione, a rare anthraquinones which was reported to have against *P. falciparum* an antiplasmodial activity(EC₅₀0.84 μ g/mL)(Solis *et al.*, 1995).

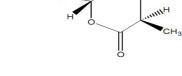
Xanthones was as well reported for their antiplasmodial potential. Likhitwitayawuid *et al.*(1998) reported five prenylated xanthones from *Garcinia cowa* (Guttiferae)which showed significant *in vitro*action(IC₅₀ 1.5-3.0 μ g/mL)against *P. falciparum*. Cowaxanthone among

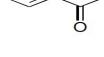
them demonstrated the highest antiplasmodial effect (EC₅₀ = $1.5 \mu g/mL$)more than pyrimethamine (IC₅₀2.8 $\mu g/mL$). Examples of biologically active antimalarial agents derived from plant sources are shown below in Figure 2.4.

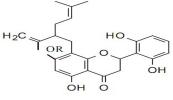
2.4 Review of Nigerian medicinal plants with antimalarial potential

Various parts of the world have for many decades utilise traditional herbal medicines for the treating malaria. Quinine, alkaloid, which was the foremost drug to treat malaria, and was isolated from the bark of the Cinchona species (Rubiaceae); it is still in use until now. Baird et al. (1996) reported that malaria was treated with the bark of the plant by infusions as far back as 1632. Several decades after, quinine was isolated and its structure identified (Saxena et al., 2003), it became the foremost and very important and most widely used antimalarial drug. Artemisia annua, re-discovered in China in 1970s is another useful and important medicinal herb for treating malaria and from where antimalarial artemisinin was isolated (Klayman, 1985). From 2005 onwards, the adoption of Artemisinin-combination therapies (ACTs) in Nigeria as first-line drugs for uncomplicated malaria treatment was established (Mokuolu et al., 2007). Though, the use of ACTs has limitationsbecause of its high costs, toxicity and limitation in artemisinin derivatives production (Afonso et al., 2006). The two most effective drugs, artemisinin and quinine were respectively isolated from the medicinal plants Artemisia annua and Cinchona species, but neither of them is native to sub-Saharan Africa. Plants from tropicshave been shown to possess greater amounts of naturally occurring chemical defenses and a largerbiodiversity than the plants belonging to any other flora, hence they showed to be possible sources for novel drugs with greater effectiveness (Balick et al., 1996). It looks rational then to cheer the courage for researches on plants belonging to these regions, particularly since malaria and death from malaria majorlyaffects the population of sub-Saharan African counties (Figure 2.5).



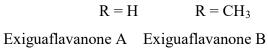


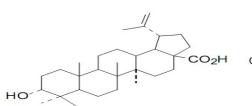


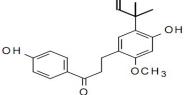


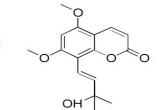
Artemisinin (Qinghaosu)

Plumbagin





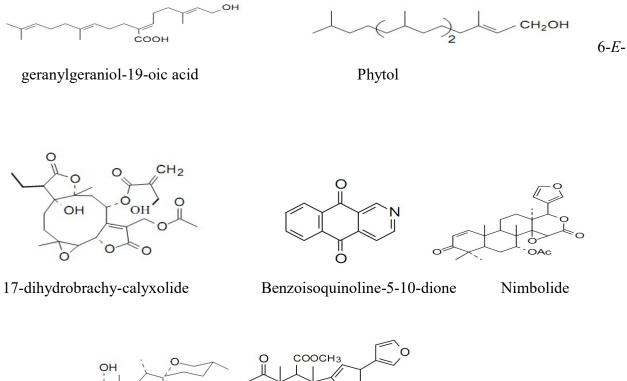


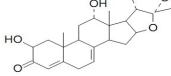


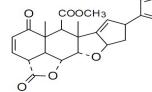
Betulinic acid

Licochalcone A

Coumarin







Muzanzagenin

Gedunin

O HO CH Hac OH а

Cowaxanthone

Figure 2.4: Bioactive antimalarial agents from plant sources

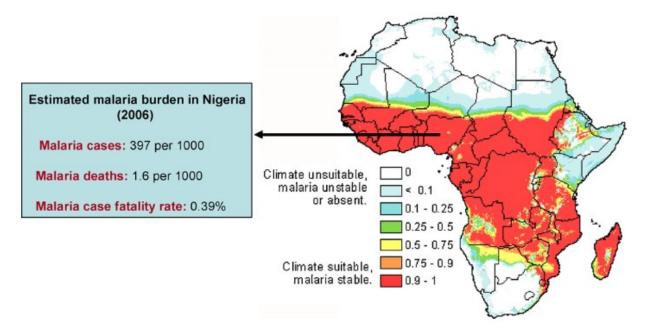


Figure 2.5: Human malaria distribution in Africa and its estimated burden in Nigeria.

(http://www.mara.org.za)

2.4.1 Treatment of malaria with Nigerian medicinal plants

Nigeria has a richbiodiversity with numerous of these plant species utilised for medicinal purpose by the local communities. In Southern Nigeria with existence of rain forests which is a source ofhumid climate, the perfectenvironments for continuousmalaria spread all round the year (Figure 2.6), there is high use of several of these medicinal plants for malaria treatment. Certain plantsare made useof in treatingmalaria throughout all ethnicsets in the country, for instance, Azadirachta indica (Meliaceae) and Alstonia boonei (Apocynaceae). Among the medicinal plants utilised for treating malariain Nigeria are listed in Table 2.2 and Figure 2.7. In Nigeria, plants species from Meliaceae familysuch as Khaya senegalensis, Azadirachta indica and Khaya grandifoliola are also utilised in treating malaria. Azadirachta *indica*commolyreferred to as "neem tree" is an ever popular tree, about25 m in height and is utilised in ethnomedicineagainst malaria by subjecting the leaves, stem bark or root to an aqueous decoction (Obih and Makinde, 1985). This plant is one of the very important species for treating malaria infection in Nigeria, because of this, it was determined that the tablet suspensions of the leaf and bark should be made. Meanwhile, Isah et al. (2003) reported that it reduced curative, moderate suppressive and showed а very high preventive antimalarialoutcomeagainst P. berghei. Khava grandifoliolaas well asK. senegalensiswhich frequentlyserved as shades are widely utilised for medicinal purpose. For the purpose of malaria illness treatment, the stem barks are subjected to decoctions though they appear to show adverse effects (Bumah et al., 2005).

Morinda lucida (Rubiaceae), is a plant mostly utilised for treatingmalaria in Nigeria (Avwioro *et al.*, 2005). Generally utilised in Western part of Africa formalaria treatmentand many diseases of the tropics are the root bark, stem bark and aerialparts of the plant. Earlier report has showed seasonal difference in its activity against malaria (Makinde *et al.*, 1994). The root bark of *Nauclea latifolia*, another plant of Rubiaceae family principally from the savannah, in a aqueous decoctionis utilised in treatingmalaria.

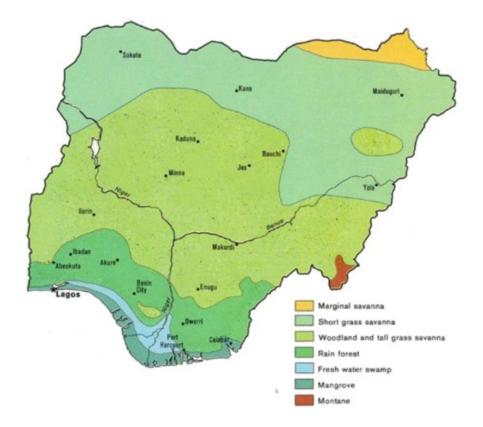


Figure 2.6: Vegetation map of Nigeria (<u>http://www.lib.utexas.edu/maps/nigeria.html</u>)].

Plant species	Part used	Geographical region	Reference
(Family)			
Azadirachta indica	Leaves	All regions	Ehiagbonare (2007)
A. Juss. (Meliaceae)			
Fagara	Root	Southwest	Kassim <i>et al</i> . (2005)
<i>zanthoxyloides</i> Lam.			
(Rutaceae)			
Khaya grandifoliola	Stem bark	Middle Belt,	Agbedahunsi et al.
C.DC. (Meliaceae)		Southwest	(1998)
Morinda lucida	Leaves, stem bark	Middle Belt,	Tor-Anyiin <i>et al</i> .
Benth. (Rubiaceae)		Southwest	(2003)
<i>Nauclea latifolia</i> Sm.	Stem bark, root	Middle Belt,	Ajaiyeoba et al.
(Rubiaceae)		Southern	(2006a)
		regions	
Picralima nitida	Stem bark, seed	Southeast	Ezeamuzie <i>et al</i> .
(Staph) Th. &			(1994)
H.Dur.			
(Apocynaceae)			
<i>Quassia amara</i> Linn.	Leaves, Stem	Southwest	Ajaiyeoba et al.
(Simaroubaceae)			(1999)
Terminalia latifolia	Leaves	Middle Belt	Ajaiyeoba et al.
Blanco			(2006b)
(Combretaceae)			
Tithonia diversifolia	Leaves	Southwest	Elufioye
(Hemsl.) A.Gray			and Agbedahunsi
(Compositae)			(2004)

 Table 2.2: Some medicinal plants in Nigeria used for treating malaria

Source: Adebayo and Krettli, 2011



Azadirachta indica (Meliaceae)



Quassia amara (Simaroubaceae)



Tithonia diversifolia (Compositae)



Morinda lucida (Rubiaceae)



Picralima nitida (Apocynaceae)



Sida acuta (Malvaceae)

Figure 2.7:Nigerian medicinal plant parts scientifically validated for their antimalarial potential

2.4.2Antimalarials isolated from Nigerian medicinal plants

Compounds with antimalarial activity have been isolated from some plant used for treating malaria in Nigerian traditional medicine. Majority of the bioactive principles isolated (Table 2.2, Figure 2.8) are alkaloids, next are limonoids. Several of the bioactive principles isolated were only screened*in vitro* against *P. falciparum*, possibly due to lack of sizeable amounts isolated. Several medicinal plants had been reported to have afforded various antimalarial alkaloids: (a) from the root of *Fagara zanthoxyloides*,Kassim *et al.* (2005) testedfagaronine (IC₅₀= 0.018 µg/mL), a benzophenanthridine alkaloidwith *in vitro* activity against*P. falciparum*; (b) from *Enantia chlorantha*,Vennerstrom and Klayman(1988) reported the isolation of jatrorrhizine and palmatine, protoberberine alkaloids; (c) from *Picralima nitida*,Ansa-Asamoah *et al.*(1990) reported that some alkaloids were identified such as alstonine,picraline, akuammiline, akuammine,akuammidine, akuammicine,akuammigine, picraline, as well as alstonine. Activity similar to chloroquine and quinine against *P. falciparum* was reported for some of these alkaloids (IC₅₀ 0.01 to 0.9 µg/mL) from *Picralima nitida* with alstonine showing the highest activity (Okunji *et al.*, 2005).

Limonoids have as well showed activities against malaria parasites, for instance, gedunin isolated from A. indica plants (MacKinnon et al., 1997). According to Bray et al.(1990) the activity looks to be due to the occurrence of an α , β -unsaturated ketone in ring A, as well due to 7α -acetate group; the observed activity is likewise contributed to by the furan ring. ButagainstP. berghei, gedunin did not show activity. Meldenin showed highest effect against P. falciparum among four other limonoids identified from A. indica leaves(Joshi et al., 1998). From K. grandifoliola, Bickii et al. (2000) reported there was isolation of limonoids that showed activity against malaria parasites (methylangolensate, gedunin, 7-deacetylkhivorin, 6acetylswietenolideas well as 1-deacetylkhivorin). Three limonoids of mexicanolide type were identified from the barks, roots and seeds of K. senegalensis, of which fissinolide showing activity against P. falciparum(Khalid et al., 1998). Some more antimalarial compounds from plant sources in Nigerian ethnomedicinal are: (a) azadirachtin (a tetranortriterpenoid) (Butterworth and Morgan, 1968), which showed in vitro activity against the development of mobile microgametes; (b) from Spathodea campanulata stem bark, Amusan et al.(1996) reported the isolation of ursolic acid which protracted the survival of mice infected with P. bergheiand repressed infection; (c) damnacanthal, anthraquinones isolated from Morinda

lucida, showed to have the highest activity.Improved activity was observed against *P*. *falciparum*by the addition of an aldehyde moiety at C-2 position as well as a phenolic hydroxy moiety at position C-3 in a structure–activity relationship studies(Sittie *et al.*, 1999); (d) from the leaves of *Tithonia diversifolia*,Tagitinin C, sesquiterpene lactone isolated showed against *P. falciparum*activity (Goffin *et al.*, 2002); (e) from*Allium sativum*,Perez *et al.*(1994)reported isolation of Ajoene whichshowed activity against *P. berghei*; (f) isolation of Simalikalactone D from *Quassia amara* leaves as the possible antimalarial principle (Bertani *et al.*, 2006).

2.5 Plants selected for antiplasmodial investigation

2.5.1Combretum racemosum

Combretum racemosum(Figure 2.9) is a liane or sometimes a scandent shrub which is widely spread in the west tropical Africa and commonly known as Christmas rose. The leaves are between 2-5 cm wide also up to 6 cm long. It is refer to as belegwe in Ivory Coast and Balanta part of Senegal call it kinde kinde. In Nigeria, it is called okoso among Edo, alagame in Igbo land and ogan pupa among Yoruba.

Onocha *et al.* (2005) reported *Combretum racemosum*as very useful medicinal plant in ethnomedicine intreating numerous diseases. In earlier ethnopharmacological investigations, this planthas indicatedantimalarial actionamong certain Combretum species utilised for treating malaria in folk medicine in some part of West Africa (Atindehou *et al.*, 2004; De Morais Lima *et al.*, 2012), which was also established recently in our report on antimalarial activity of selected Combretaceae plants (Wande and Babatunde, 2017). It equally showed reputation in the Nigerian traditional medicine as source of treatment for certain parasitic diseases and fever (Mgbemena *et al.*, 2016).Thesereported potentials therefore becamethe motivation for this research work aiming atdefining the bioactive principles in this plant by validating its antiplasmodial properties against the strains of *P. falciparum*. Meanwhile,the active principles responsible for the antimalarial properties in this plant are yet to be known.

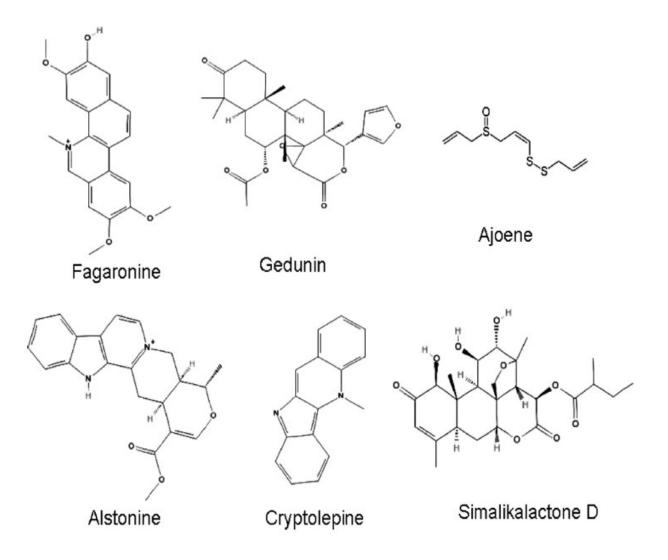


Figure 2.8: Antimalarial agents isolated from some Nigerianplants for treating malaria.



Figure 2.9: Combretum racemosum plant

2.5.2Combretum zenkeri

Combretum zenkeri Engl & Diels (Figure 2.10) is a widely distributed climbing shrub of about 3.5 to 4.5 m used in tropical West Africa from Guinea to Southern Nigeria and Cameroon. It is called ogan ibule in the South west part of Nigeria. The leaves of this plant is utilised as purgative by decoction preparation, the twig is chewed by Ivory Coast women to relieve menstrual pain, treating intestinal worms and malaria treatment (Ujowundu et al., 2010). Combretum zenkeri leaves are, in Western Nigeria, utilised for treating inflammatory diseases like rheumatoid-arthritis, and the roots used frequently in recipes for managing cancer (Gbolade et al., 2010; Sowemimo et al., 2009). In previous studies, several pharmacological investigations for Combretum zenkeri such as nephro-protective effect (Ogbonna et al., 2016), hepatoprotective effect (Okwu et al., 2014), anti-oxidative activity and neuroprotectiveeffect (Ujowundu et al., 2015) as well as cytotoxic action (Sowemimo et al., 2009) was validated. In our more recent report, preliminary screening of 10 Combretaceae species showed that Combretum zenkeri possessed antimalarial activity (Wande and Babatunde, 2017). All these pharmacological effects show Combretum zenkeri as a promising and important phyto-agent in the search of bioactive compounds for treating diseases. Until now, no bioactive constituent is reported to have been isolated from Combretum zenkeri, which prompted the investigation of its active principles in this work.



Figure 2.10: Combretum zenkeri plant

CHAPTER THREE

3.0 MATERIALS AND METHODS

3.1 Equipment, reagents and consumables

3.1.1 Equipment

Oven, incubator, Rayto RT-6100 microplate reader, centrifuge, pH meter, fume cupboard, micro-pipettes (10-100 μ L and 100-1000 μ L), weighing balance, flat bottom 96-well plates (300 μ L), 2 mL eppendorf's tube, 96-well eppendorf tube racks, Buchi rotary evaporator, desiccators, Soxhlet apparatus, Laboratory blender, 5 μ L capillary tubes, separatory flask, glass column chromatograph (1 cm x 100 cm, 500 mL volume), glass column chromatograph (1 cm x 60 cm, 250 mL volume), electronic automatic CC fraction collector, HPLC system (Schimadzu Corporation), Analytical HPLC Luna C₁₈ column (5 μ m, 250 mm x 4.6 mm ID) purchased from Phenomenex, HPLC vials, PuriFlash column 25 silica HC (120 g, 20 bar), Flash chromatography system (InterchimpuriFlash 4250), in connection with an evaporative light scattering detector (ELSD), also a photodiode array detector (PDA), as well as a Interchim software-controlled fraction collector, maXis UHR ESI-Qq-TOF mass spectrometer (Bruker Daltonics, Bremen, Germany), Avance III HDX 700 MHz NMR spectrometer (Bruker BioSpin, Germany).

3.1.2 Reagents and consumables

Methanol, ethyl acetate, chloroform, hexane, toluene, acetone, formic acid, glacial acetic acid, sulphuric acid,Acetonitrile, pre-coated TLC plates (Merck Germany), pre-coated preparative TLC plates (Merck, Germany), silica gel 60 (230-400 mesh size), Vanillin, anisaldehyde, deutarated chloroform, deuterated methanol, pyridine, bovine hemin, hydroxyethylpiperazine-N-[2-ethanesulfonic acid] (HEPES) (Sigma Aldrich, USA), HEPES (Euroclone, Celbio), Albumax (Invitrogen, Milan, Italy), L-glutamine (Euroclone, Celbio), hypoxanthine (Sigma, Italy), RPMI-1640 medium, sodium hydroxide, hydrochloric acid, sodium acetate,abscisic acid

(Sigma Aldrich, Art. no. 90769), madecassic acid (VWR, Art. no. CAYM11854). Arjungenin was generously supplied by Professor Ikhlas Khan, University of Mississippi, USA.

3.2 Preliminary investigation of medicinal plants of Combretaceae family for their antimalarial potential

3.2.1 Collection of plant and identification

The leaves of ten Combretaceae species; eight *Combretum*: *C. racemosum*, *C. zenkeri*, *C. sordidum*, *C. paniculatum*, *C. dolicopetalum*, *C. hispidum*, *C. confertum*, *C. platypterum* and two *Terminalia*: *T. mentalis*, *T. ivorensis*, were collected around the Botanical Garden, University of Ibadan and identified by Mr. Owolabi, the Curator of the Botanical Garden, University of Ibadan, Nigeria.

3.2.2 Preparation of extracts

The leaves of all the plants collected were air-dried for about 3 weeks. The air-dried leaves were milled to powder with laboratory blending machine.Extraction of fifty grams (50 g) each of the pulverized plant was carried out independently with acetone and methanol using Soxhlet apparatus. Whatman No 1 filter paper was used to filter all extracts and concentration was done under reduced pressure with Buchi rotary evaporator at 40°C. The amounts of all plant extracts were determined and they were kept in a cool and dry place till needed for analysis.

3.3 Preliminary bioactivity screening (Beta-hematin inhibition assay)

The antimalarial property of the 10 Combretaceae plants was evaluated. Eighteen extracts were tested in all. Using the method adapted by Vargas *et al.* (2011), the ability of the extracts to show *in vitro* inhibition of beta-hematin synthesis was determined.

3.3.1 Preparation of solutions and reagents

Stock concentration (50 mg/mL)of the plant extracts was prepared by weighing 500 mg of extracts of acetone and methanol in and were made up with 10 mL of acetone and methanol, respectively in volumetric flasks. Preparation of fresh bovine hematin solution was carried out (6.8 mg of bovine hemin was weighedand dissolved in 10 mL of 0.1M NaOH to become 0.68 mg/mL used for each determination). Preparation of HEPES solution was carried out(238 mg

of HEPES was weighed, 50 mL distilled water used to dissolve it to become 4.76 mg/mL and controlled to pH 7.5 used for each determination). Fifteen percent pyridine (15%) used for the assay was prepared by adding 15 mL of pyridine into 85 mL of HEPES solution. The preparation of saturated acetate solution was carried out by weighing 36 g of sodium acetate and dissolved in 20 mL of distilled water with the addition of 48 mL of acetic acid, and pre-warmed at 60 °C before each use.

3.3.2 Qualitative determination of inhibition of beta-hematin formation

Each of the plant extracts (25 mg/mL) was tested in the beta-hematin synthesis inhibition. Briefly, 10 μ L of each of the plant extract and chloroquine was dispensed into wells in columns of 96-well plates and were tested.Furthermore, 10 μ L of 1M HCl was added to all plant extracts in the 96-well plates. Hematin solution (100 μ L)freshly prepared was added into the wells in row A and B. The test plate was shaken at 900 rpm for 10 minutes, followed by addition of pre-warmed (60 °C)saturated acetate solution (60 μ L) (pH 5.0) to all the wells. The test plate was further incubated at 60 °C for 90 minutes. Afterward, 750 μ L of 15% pyridine was added to wells in the row A and C whereas 750 μ L HEPES (pH 7.5) was added into wells in row B and D. Thereafter, the test plate was shaken for 10 minutesat 900 rpm, alsoleft for 15 minutes to settle down. For each sample, aliquot of 100 μ L was taken out and moved in triplicate to non-sterilized 96-well plates. AUV-spectrophotometer absorbance was measured with a Rayto scientific RT-6100 microplate reader at 405 nm.

3.3.3 Beta-hematin inhibition determination

Beta-hematin synthesis inhibition assay was carried out following the process shown below. For all sample tested, there is $A_{Analysis}$ (contained all prepared solutions) which represented the sample for analysis in row A of the test plate; there is $A_{Analysis;Blank}$ (different from $A_{Analysis}$ by adding 750 µL of HEPES (4.76 mg/mL) instead of pyridine, after incubation) which represented the control in row B of the test plate. Also, for all sample tested, there was preparation of $A_{CLT;Blank}$ (in the absence of hematin and HEPESbut with 750 µL of 15% pyridine)which represented a blank control in row C and its blank ($A_{CLTBlank;Blank}$) in the absence of hematin and 750 µL of 15% pyridine but with 750 µL of HEPES which was presented in row D of the test plate.

The residual absorbance ($\Delta A_{Analysis}$) of the sample due to β -hematin inhibition was determined by the following formula:

$\Delta A_{Analysis} = A_{Analysis} - A_{Analysis;Blank}$

The sample residual absorbance ($\Delta A_{CLT;Blank}$) independent from the β -hematin inhibition complex was determined by the following formula:

 $\Delta A_{CLT;Blank} = A_{CLT;Blank} - A_{CLTBlank;Blank}$

The resulting β -hematin synthesis inhibition as shown by the analysed sample was determined by the following formula:

 $I_{Analysis} = \Delta A_{Analysis} - \Delta A_{CLT;Blank}$

A positive value for $I_{Analysis}$ showed positive assay (sample was active) while a value that showed negative demonstrated no inhibition (not active sample).

3.3.4 Determination of 50% inhibitory concentration (IC₅₀)

The above experiment was repeated for six other concentrations (12.5 to 0.39 mg/mL) in seven prominently active extracts tested and chloroquine. The extracts and chloroquine were tested in triplicates in 96-well plates. Non-linear regression in a commercially available statistical package Prism Graphpad® (7.0) was used to determine the IC₅₀ values.

3.3.5 Statistical analysis

Results were communicated as means \pm SEM and the analysis conducted using prism Graphpad® (7.0). Comparisons were made between positive control (chloroquine) and treatment groups of various concentrations using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by Dunnett's multiple comparison tests. The mean of IC₅₀ values obtained for the extracts were compared with the IC₅₀ value obtained for chloroquine using paired t-test. P-values of 0.05 were considered statistically significant.

3.4 Bulk collection, identification and preparation

Combretum racemosum and *Combretum zenkeri* were taken for further phytochemical investigations based on their appropriate antiplasmodial properties to elicit the main biologically active compounds.

3.4.1 Bulk collection, identification and authentication

The fresh leaves of *Combretum racemosum*(voucher number: 108887) and *Combretum zenkeri*(voucher number: 110277) were collected from the University of IbadanBotanical Curator. The plants identification wasdone by Mr. Owolabi, the Botanical Garden warden. The Voucher specimens were submitted to Forestry Research Institute of Nigeria (FRIN), Ibadan for authentication and documentation.

3.4.2 Preparation of extracts

The *C. racemosum* and *C. zenkeri* leaves collected were air-dried for about 3 weeks. The airdried leaves were milled to powder with milling machine. Methanol with the aid of Soxhlet apparatus was used to extract the pulverised*C. racemosum*leaves (1.5 kg) and *C. zenkeri*leaves (1.5 kg).All extractswere filtered by Whatman No 1 filter paper and concentration to dryness was done under reduced pressure with Buchi rotary evaporator at 40°C. The extracts were placed in desiccators to remove residual solvents. The weight of the crude methanol extracts was determined andthey were kept in a cool and dry place till needed for analysis.

3.5 TLC profiling of the methanol extracts of C. racemosum and C. zenkeri

The TLC spray reagents was prepared according to the following procedures: (a) natural products (NP) reagent was prepared by dissolving 0.5 g diphenylboric acid aminoethyl ester in 50 mL methanol, (b) polyethylene glycol (PEG) reagent was prepared by dissolving 2.5 g PEG in 50 mL ethanol (spraying was done with 10 mL of NP and 8 mL of PEG reagents one after the other), (c) anisaldehyde reagent was prepared by taking 1.5 mL anisaldehyde, 30 mL glacial acetic acid, 255 mL methanol, 15 mL concentrated sulphuric acid, all added in that order. The extracts were dissolved in methanol for TLC analysis. Theextracts (5 μ L) each were loaded on pre-coated TLC plates F₂₅₄ silica gel 60. The two mobile phases: toluene/ethyl acetate 90/10 and ethyl acetate/methanol/water 100/13.5/10 were prepared inside TLC chambers, left for about 20 minutes to saturate the tank and thereafter the extracts were developed. Anisaldehyde-sulphuric acid detecting reagent was used to spray the TLC plates and subjected to heat at 110 °C for optimal visualization of the chromatograms at visible light. The analysis was repeated with the same mobile phases and TLC chromatogram sprayed with natural product/polyethylene glycol 4000 detecting reagent and visualized at 366 nm.

3.6 Antiplasmodial test of methanol extracts of C. racemosum and C. zenkeri

3.6.1 In vitroculture of the strains of Plasmodium falciparum

Two *P. falciparum*strains namely: Chloroquine-resistant (W2)and chloroquine-sensitive (D10)were utilised for the chemosensitivity assay. The two strains were cultured based on the procedure described by Trager and Jensen in 1976 with minoradjustments(Ilboudo*et al.*, 2013). The culturing of the parasites wasdonein a standard gas mixture consisting of 1% O_2 , 5% CO_2 , 94% N_2 in human type A-positive erythrocytes at 5% hematocrit at 37°C. RPMI-1640was the medium used, and added to the medium were20mM Hepes,1% AlbuMax(lipid-rich bovine serum albumin), 2mM L-glutamineand 0.01% hypoxantine. The parasitemia was considered in between 1% and 5% for repetitive growth of parasite, and estimated in Giemsa coloured smears, as the number of infected red blood cellrelating to the total number of erythrocytes counted.

3.6.2 Plant extracts sensitivity assay

For the drug sensitivity assay, a colorimetric method was used based on the detection of parasite LDH (Markler et al., 1993). The dissolution of the MeOH extracts of C. zenkeri and C. racemosumwas done in DMSO to a 10mg/mL concentration. The extracts were placed in 96 wells flat-bottom microplates in duplicate (Costar) and seven 1:2 serial dilutions were made directly into the plate in a volume of 100 μ L (1.6 to 200 μ g/mL were the final concentrations used for the extracts and $\leq 1\%$ was final concentration of DMSO used, which showed no toxicity to the parasite). Asynchronous cultures with parasitemia of 1-1.5% and 2% hematocrit (1% final) were aliquoted into the plates and incubated for 72 h, in a final volume of 200 μ L/well. The negative control was cultures without drugs while chloroquine (CQ) was utlised as reference compound. Using a modified method (Markler et al., 1993), the parasite growth was determined by measuring the P. falciparum lactate dehydrogenase (pfLDH)activity. By the usage of 3-acetyl pyridine adenine dinucleotide (APAD) to be a co-factor, the pfLDH activity could be easily distinguished from that of the host LDH. Briefly, the cultures were carefully resuspendedat the end of the incubation, and aliquots of 20 µL were taken out and added toa 96well microplate that contained 100 μ L of the Malstat reagent and 25 μ L of NBT/PES (Nitro Blue Tetrazolium/ Phenazineethylsulphate). The Malstat reagent is a combination of 0.125% v/v Triton X-100, 130 mM L-lactate, 30 mM Tris buffer and 0.62 mMAPAD and controlled to

pH 9 using1 M HCl. The NBT/PES reagent is made up of 1.96 mM NBT and 0.24 mM PES. Nitro Blue Tetrazolium is reduced to blue formazan and is spectrophotometrically (OD₆₅₀) read as a measure of pLDH activity and thus of parasite viability. The values of the % parasite growthagainst their concentrations were plotted. The IC₅₀were determined by curve-fitting analysis which was achieved using non-linear regression equation of the sigmoidal dose-response data through a four-parameter variable slope method. The analysis was performed on a Graphpad prism[®] (7.0). Antiplasmodial activities were determined and demonstrated to be 50% inhibitory concentrations (that is concentrations of drug that can achieve inhibition of parasite growth by 50%). Each IC₅₀ value was calculated to be mean \pm standard deviation of no less than three different analyses measured in duplicate.

3.7Preliminary solvent-solvent partitioning

Liquid-liquid fractionation was carried out on *C. racemosum* and *C. zenkeri* methanol extracts. The extracts (5 g) each were partitioned successively in a separating funnel between chloroform, ethyl acetate, n-butanol and water to produce four fractions.

3.8The TLC analysis of partitioned fractions of C. racemosum and C. zenkeri

The TLC analysis was carried out for *C. racemosum* ethyl acetate fraction (CRE), *C. racemosum* butanol fraction (CRB), *C. zenkeri* ethyl acetate fraction (CZE) and *C. zenkeri* butanol fraction (CZB). The fractions (5 μ L) each were loaded on pre-coated TLC plates F₂₅₄ silica gel 60. The mobile phase ratio 100/11/11/24 of ethyl acetate/acetic acid/formic acid/water was used to develop the fractions inside TLC chambers. Anisaldehyde-sulphuric acid detecting reagent was used to spray the TLC plate and was subjected to heat at 110 °C for optimal visualization of the chromatograms at visible light. The analysis was repeated with the same mobile phase and natural product/polyethylene glycol 4000 detecting reagent was used to spray the TLC chromatogram and visualized under UV at 366 nm. The TLC analysis was likewise carried out for *C. racemosum* chloroform fraction (CRC) and *C. zenkeri* chloroform fraction (CZC). The fractions (5 μ L) each were loaded on pre-coated TLC plates F₂₅₄ silica gel 60. The mobile phase ratio 95/1.5/0.10f chloroform/methanol/water was used to develop the fractions inside TLC chambers. Anisaldehyde-sulphuric acid detecting reagent was used to spray the TLC plate and was subjected to heat at 110 °C for optimal visualization of the chromatogram and visualized under UV at 366 nm. The TLC analysis was likewise carried out for *C. racemosum* chloroform fraction (CRC) and *C. zenkeri* chloroform fraction (CZC). The fractions (5 μ L) each were loaded on pre-coated TLC plates F₂₅₄ silica gel 60. The mobile phase ratio 95/1.5/0.10f chloroform/methanol/water was used to develop the fractions inside TLC chambers. Anisaldehyde-sulphuric acid detecting reagent was used to spray the TLC plate and was subjected to heat at 110 °C for optimal visualization of the chromatograms at visible light. A repetition of the TLC analysis was conductedusing mobile

phase chloroform/methanol 97/5 and anisaldehyde-sulphuric acid detecting reagent was used to spray the TLC plate and was subjected to heat at 110 \degree C for optimal visualization of the chromatograms at visible light and also viewed under UV at 366 nm.

3.9 Antiplasmodial activity investigation of the C. racemosum and C. zenkeri fractions

In vitro maintenance of *Plasmodium falciparum* strains was done according to procedure reported earlier in session 3.6.1.

3.9.1 Sensitivity assay of fractions

For the fractions sensitivity assay, a colorimetric method was used on the basis of parasite LDH detection (Markler et al., 1993). Combretum zenkeri and C. racemosumfractions were dissolved in DMSObecoming 10 mg/mL concentration. Thesolution of fractions were transfered into 96 wells flat-bottom micro-well plates in duplicate (Costar) and seven 1:2 serial dilutions were made directly in the plate in a volume of 100 μ L (1.6 to 200 μ g/mL were the final concentrations used for the fractions and $\leq 1\%$ was final concentration of DMSO used, which showedno toxicity to the parasite. Asynchronous cultures with parasitemia of 1-1.5%and 2% hematocrit (1% final) were aliquoted into the plates and incubated for 72 h, in a final volume of 200 µL/well. The negative control was cultures without drugs while chloroquine (CQ) was utilised as reference compound. Using a modified method (Markler et al., 1993), the parasite growth was determined by measuring the P. falciparum lactate dehydrogenase (pfLDH) activity. By the usage of 3-acetyl pyridine adenine dinucleotide (APAD) to be a cofactor, the pfLDH activity could be easily distinguished from that of the host LDH.Briefly, the cultures were carefully re-suspendedat the end of the incubation, and aliquots of 20 µL were taken out and added to a 96-well microplate that contained 100 µL of the Malstat reagent and 25 µL of NBT/PES (Nitro Blue Tetrazolium/ Phenazineethylsulphate). The Malstat reagent is made of 0.125% v/v Triton X-100, 130 mM L-lactate, 30 mM Tris buffer and 0.62 mM APAD and controlled to pH 9 using 1 M HCl. The NBT/PES reagent is made up of 1.96 mM NBT and 0.24 mM PES. Nitro Blue Tetrazolium is reduced to blue formazan and is spectrophotometrically (OD₆₅₀) read as a measure of pLDH activity and thus of parasite viability. The values of the % parasite growth against their concentrations were plotted. The IC₅₀were determined by curve-fitting analysis which was achieved using non-linear regression equation of the sigmoidal dose-response data through a four-parameter variable slope method.

The analysis was performed on a Graphpad prism[®] (7.0). Antimalarial activity was determined and demonstrated to be 50% inhibitory concentrations (that is concentrations of drug that can achieve the inhibition of parasite growth by 50%). Each IC₅₀ value was calculated to be mean \pm standard deviation of no less than three different analyses measured in duplicate. Statistical analyses were determined by means of a two-tailed Student t test and statistical significance was set at $\alpha_{0.05}$.

3.10Combretum racemosum methanol extract (large scale) solvent-solvent partition

The fractionation of *C. racemosum* methanol extract (25 g) through solvent-solvent partition was carried out. This was a scale-up of the initial solvent-solvent partition previously done on *C. racemosum* methanol extract. This was carried out to get more chloroform portion for further investigation. The extract was partitioned between chloroform, n-butanol and water in a 1000 ml separatory flask. The chloroform fraction was filtered with Whatman No 1 filter paper and dried by evaporation under reduced pressure with Buchi rotary evaporator at 40 $^{\circ}$ C. The fraction was placed in a desiccator to remove residual solvents. The *C. racemosum* chloroform (CRC) fraction was weighed to determine the amount and was stored in a cool and dry place till needed for analysis.

3.11 Chromatographic fractionation of C. racemosum chloroform (CRC) fraction

To search for the real biologically active component(s) in this plant, 4.5 g of the chloroform fraction was fractionated using silica column flash CC (PuriFlash column 25 silica HC 120G 20 bar) using mobile phase of CHCl₃/MeOH/H₂O (30 mins 98%:2%:0%; 20 mins 95%:5%:0%; 11 mins 90%:9%:1%; 14 mins 52%:45%:3%; 15 mins 50%:45%:5%) in a gradient manner to yield 307 fractions pooled thereafter based on the similarities in their TLC profile to afford 20 fractions (FCR1 to FCR20). The fractions were dried under reduced pressure with Buchi rotary evaporator at 40 °C. The fractions were placed in desiccator to remove residual solvents. The amount of the fractions were determined wellkept in the refrigerator till needed for analysis. The elution, detection and collection procedures are shown in Figure 3.1 below:

	00 s	4	10.0	98					
	00.00		0 s 46.0			00	Dir		
	20:00	0:00 46.0 98					00 Dir.		
	30:00		46.0	95	05	00	Dir.		
	40:00		46.0	95	05	00 D			
	50:00		46.0	90	09	01	01 Dir.		
0	1:00:00		46.0	90	09	01	Dir.		
0	1:01:00		46.0	52	45	03	Dir		
0	1:10:00		46.0	52	45	03	Dir	Dir.	
0	01:15:00		46.0	50	45	05	Dir		
0	1:20:00		46.0	50	45	05 C			
0	1:25:00		46.0	50	45	05	Dir		
0	:30:00 46.0 50 45 05						Dir	Dir.	
						Calleat	Threshold	F1	
		> 254 nm						1	
00 5								1	
								1	
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Figure 3.1: Separation and elution procedure for *C. racemosum* chloroform fraction

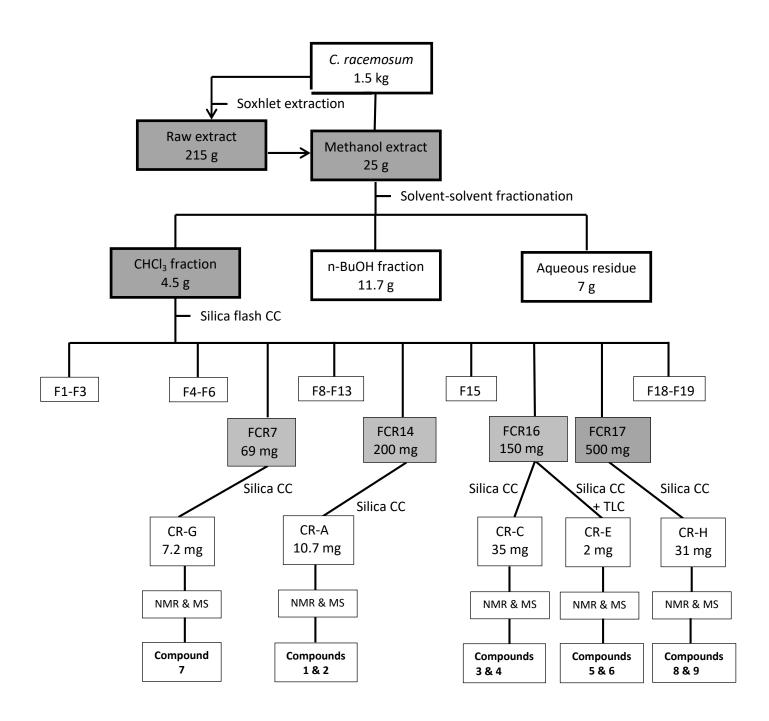


Figure 3.2: Diagramatic representation of extraction and fractionation of C. racemosum

3.12 Chromatographic isolation of compound CR-A

The FCR14 (200 mg) was investigated further by means of chromatographic separation on a silica glass column (1cm x 100cm; 500 mL column vol.) filled with silica gel 60 (70-230 mesh) (Merck) and eluted with gradient mobile phase ratio in an increasing polar mixture of CHCl₃/MeOH/H₂O 95+1.5+0.1 (46.5 hours) \rightarrow 90:3:0.1 (70.5 hours) \rightarrow 85:8:0.5 (75.5 hours) \rightarrow 75:15:1.5 (11.5 hours) \rightarrow 60:30:2.5 (17 hours). The collection tubes were arranged inside automatic electronic fraction collector with the flow rate set at 2 mL per 30 minutes for the collection of fractions. This produced 18 fractions (FCR14_1 to FCR14_18). The fractions were dried by evaporation under reduced pressure with Buchi rotary evaporator at 40 °C. The fractions were placed in desiccator to remove residual solvents. These were weighed to determine their amount and were stored in a cool and dry place till needed for analysis. The TLC of all 18 fractions was carried out. The fractions (5 µL) each were loaded on pre-coated TLC plates F₂₅₄ silica gel 60. The fractions were developed inside TLC chambers using mobile phase ratio 80/20 of chloroform/methanol. Anisaldehyde-sulphuric acid detecting reagent was used to spray the TLC plate and was subjected to heat at 110 °C for optimal visualisation of the chromatograms at visible light. From the TLC profiles, FCR14_12 afforded compound CR-A.

Gradient		Duration Fractionscollect		ed Eluent volume	
CHCl ₃	MeOH	Water	ofcollection (h)		used (mL)
95	1.5	0.1	46.5	F1-93	186
90	3	0.1	70.5	F94-234	282
85	8	0.5	75.5	F235-385	302
75	15	1.5	11.5	F386-408	46
60	30	2.5	17	F409-442	68

Table 3.1: Elution and separation procedures for compound CR-A

Note:

Column specification: 1cm diameter, 100cm length and 500mL column volume

Stationary phase: silica gel 60 (70-230 mesh size)

Flow rate: 2mL per 30 minutes

Sample amount: 200 mg

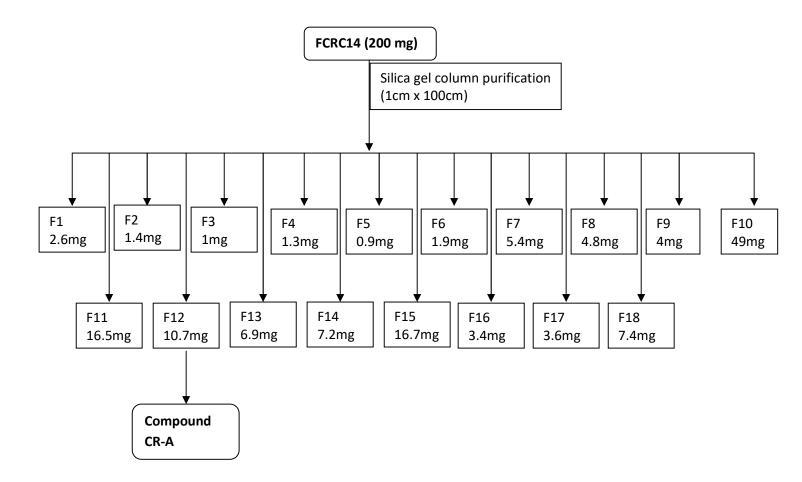


Figure 3.3: Diagramatic representation of isolation of compound CR-A

3.13 Chromatographic isolation of compound CR-C

The FCR16 (300 mg) was fractionated using silica columnflash CC (PuriFlash column 30 silica HP 25G 22 bar) with a gradient mobile phase in an increasing polar mixture of CHCl₃/MeOH/H₂O (10 mins 98%:2%:0%; 20 mins 95%:5%:0%; 21 mins 90%:9%:1%; 4 mins 52%:45%:3%; 19.51 mins 50%:45%:5%; 9.79 mins 0%:100%:0%) to yield 128 fractions pooled thereafter based on the similarities in their TLC profile to afford 5 fractions (FCR16 1 to FCR16 5). The fractions were dried by evaporation under reduced pressure with Buchi rotary evaporator at 40 °C. The fractions were placed in desiccator to remove residual solvents. The amounts of the fractions were determined as wellkept in the refrigerator till needed for analysis. The TLC of all 5 fractions was carried out. The fractions (5 µL) each were loaded on pre-coated TLC plates F₂₅₄ silica gel 60. The fractions were developed inside TLC chambers using mobile phase ratio 80/20 of chloroform/methanol. Anisaldehyde-sulphuric acid detecting reagent was used to spray the TLC plate and was subjected to heat at 110 °C for optimal visualisation of the chromatograms at visible light. The FCR16 3 (150 mg) was investigated further by means of chromatographic separation on a silica glass column (1cm x 100cm; 1000 mL column vol.) filled with silica gel 60 (70-230 mesh) (Merck) and eluted with gradient mobile phase ratio in an increasing polar mixture of CHCl₃/MeOH/H₂O 100:0:0 (12 hours) \rightarrow $95:1.5:0 (12 \text{ hours}) \rightarrow 90:3:0.1 (24 \text{ hours}) \rightarrow 85:8:0.5 (166 \text{ hours}) \rightarrow 75:15:1.5 (24 \text{ hours}).$ The collection tubes were arranged inside automatic electronic fraction collector with the flow rate set at 2 ml per 30 minutes for the collection of fractions. This produced 18 fractions (FCR16 3 1 to FCR16 3 18). The fractions were dried by evaporation under reduced pressure with Buchi rotary evaporator at 40 °C. The fractions were placed in desiccator to remove residual solvents. These were weighed to determine their amount and were stored in a cool and dry place till needed for analysis. The TLC of all 18 fractions was carried out. The fractions (5 µL) each were loaded on pre-coated TLC plates F254 silica gel 60. Mobile phase chloroform/methanol 80/20 was used to develop the fractions inside TLC chambers. Anisaldehyde-sulphuric acid detecting reagent was used to spray the TLC plate and was subjected to heat at 110 °C for optimal visualisation of the chromatograms at visible light. From the TLC profiles, FCR16 3 10 to FCR16 3 14 as a result of their similarities in TLC pattern afforded compound CR-C. Also, compound CR-A was once again identified from FCR16 3 1.

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Figure 3.4: Separation and elution procedure for FCRC16

Gradient		Duration	Fractionscollected	Eluent volume	
CHCl ₃	MeOH	Water	ofcollection (h)		used (mL)
100	0	0	12	Nil	
95	1.5	0	12	Nil	
90	3	0.1	24	Nil	
85	8	0.5	166	F1-332	664
75	15	1.5	24	F333-381	98

Table 3.2: Elution and separation procedures for compound CR-C

Note:

Column specification: 1cm diameter, 100cm length& 1000mL column volume

Stationary phase: silica gel 60 (70-230 mesh size)

Flow rate: 2mL per 30 minutes

Sample amount: 150 mg

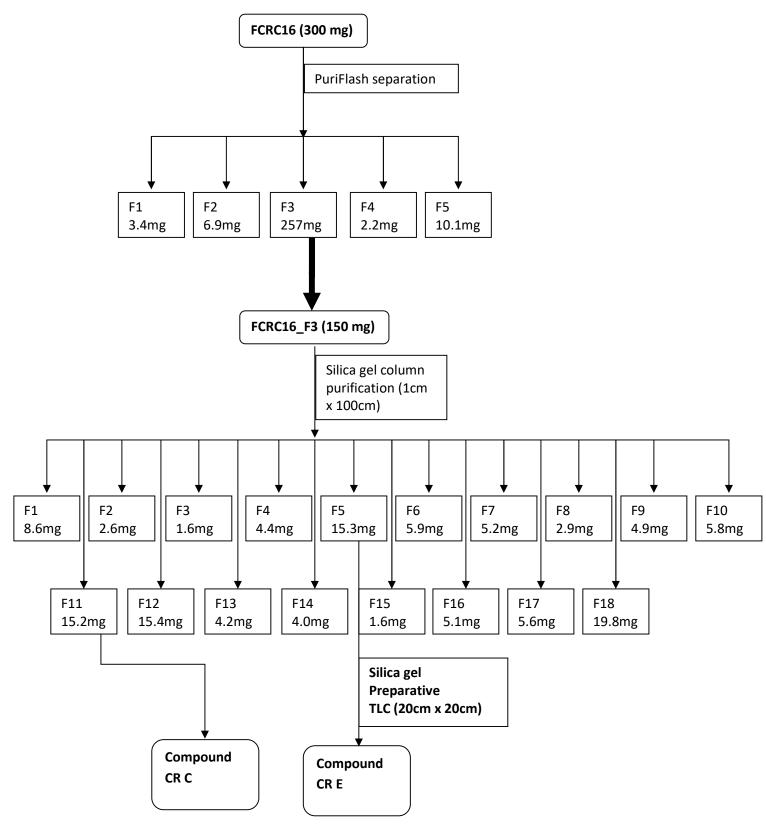


Figure 3.5: Diagramatic representation showing the isolation of compounds CR-C and CR-E

3.14 Chromatographic isolation of compound CR-E

Purification of FCR16_3_5 (15 mg) was carried out using preparative TLC plates (20cm x20cm) (Merck) under the use of aprogrammed TLC sampling machine (ATS4, CAMAG). The mobile phase toluene/ethyl acetate/formic acid (3:7:1) was used to develop the plates by making use of automated chamber(ADC2, CAMAG) for development of TLC set to 48% humidity, 24°C, and 20 minutes saturation with saturation pad. The sample applied (11 μ L) each was loaded with CAMAG TLC automated machine. A total of 198 µL of the sample was applied as band on the plate. Sample was repeated on another plate by applying 15 μ L each with CAMAG TLC automated machine. In this case, a total of 270 µL of thesample was applied as band on the plate. The two plates prepared were both left to dry under a stream of air. A preliminary TLC for mobile phase optimisation was carried out to select the appropriate mobile phase for the best separation. The fraction was developed on TLC with mobile phases: toluene/ethyl acetate/formic acid 3/7/1 and chloroform/ethyl acetate/formic acid 4/5/1. The two plates already prepared were developed with toluene/ethyl acetate/formic acid 3/7/1 being selected as best solvent system. After developing on TLC the two plates that contain the separated compounds were placed under vacuum dryer to evaporate the formic acid. The separation was not visible under UV or visible light, therefore, 2 cm of the plates was dipped into anisaldehyde/sulphuric acid detecting reagent to visualise the separation and the band of interest was carefully marked and scrapped. The purification afforded compound CR-E.

3.15 Chromatographic isolation of compound CR-G

The FCR7 (69 mg) was investigated further by means of chromatographic separation on a silica glass column (1cm x 100cm; 500 mL column vol.) filled with silica gel 60 (70-230 mesh) (Merck) and eluted with gradient mobile phase ratio in an increasing polar mixture of CHCl₃/MeOH/H₂O 100:0:0 (12 hours) \rightarrow 95:1.5:0.1 (20 hours) \rightarrow 90:5:0.2(26 hours) \rightarrow 85:8:0.5 (64 hours). The collection tubes were arranged inside automatic electronic fraction collector with the flow rate set at 2 ml per 30 minutes for the collection of fractions. This produced 11 fractions (FCR7_1 to FCR7_11). The fractions were dried by evaporation under reduced pressure with Buchi rotary evaporator at 40 °C. The fractions were placed in desiccator to remove residual solvents. These were weighed to determine their amount and was stored in a cool and dry place till needed for analysis. The TLC of all 11 fractions was carried out. The fractions (5 µL) each were loaded on pre-coated TLC plates F₂₅₄ silica gel 60.

Mobile phase chloroform/methanol 80/20 was used to develop the fractions inside TLC chambers. Anisaldehyde-sulphuric acid detecting reagent was used to spray the TLC plate and was subjected to heat at 110 °C for optimal visualisation of the chromatograms at visible light. From the TLC profiles, FCR7_9 to FCR7_11 as a result of their similarities in TLC pattern afforded compound CR-G.

3.16 Chromatographic isolation of compound CR-H

The FCR17 (500 mg) was investigated further by means of chromatographic separation on a silica glass column (2cm x 100cm; 2000 mL column vol.) filled with silica gel 60 (70-230 mesh) (Merck) and eluted with gradient mobile phase ratio in an increasing polar mixture of EtoAc/MeOH/H₂O 100:0:0 (24 hours) \rightarrow 97.5:2.5:0 (5.5 hours) \rightarrow 95:5:0(39.5 hours) \rightarrow $90:10:0.1(9.5 \text{ hours}) \rightarrow 85:15:0.1 (61.5 \text{ hours}) \rightarrow 75:25:0.1 (26.5 \text{ hours}) \rightarrow 65:30:0.2 (25)$ hours) \rightarrow and the column was washed down with 30:65:3. The collection tubes were arranged inside automatic electronic fraction collector with the flow rate set at 2 mL per 30 minutes for the collection of fractions. This produced 14 fractions (FCR17 1 to FCR17 14). The fractions were dried by evaporation under reduced pressure with Buchi rotary evaporator at 40 °C. The fractions were placed in desiccator to remove residual solvents. These were weighed to determine their amount and was stored in a cool and dry place till needed for analysis. The TLC of all 14 fractions was carried out. The fractions (5 µL) each were loaded on pre-coated TLC plates F₂₅₄ silica gel 60. Mobile phase ethyl acetate/methanol 75/25 was used to develop the FCR17 1 to FCR17 9 and ethyl acetate/methanol/water 80/15/5 to develop more polar FCR17 10 to FCR17 14 inside TLC chambers. Anisaldehyde-sulphuric acid detecting reagent was used to spray the TLC plate and was subjected to heat at 110 °C for optimal visualisation of the chromatograms at visible light. From the TLC profiles, FCR17 4 to FCR17 6 as a result of their similarities in TLC pattern afforded compound CR-H.

Gradient		Duration	Fractionscollected	Eluent volume	
CHCl ₃	Cl ₃ MeOH Water		ofcollection (h)		used (mL)
100	0	0	12	Nil	
95	1.5	0.1	20	F1-40	80
90	5	0.2	26	F41-92	104
85	8	0.5	64	F93-220	256

Table 3.3: Elution and separation procedures for compound CR-G

Note:

Column specification: 2cm diameter, 100cm length and 500mL column volume

Stationary phase: silica gel 60 (230-400 mesh size)

Flow rate: 2mL per 30 minutes

Sample amount: 69 mg

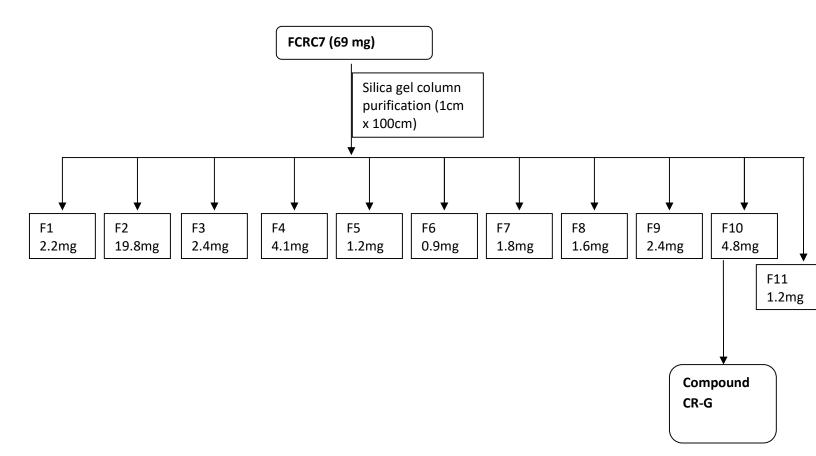


Figure 3.6: Diagramatic representation showing the isolation of compound CR-G

	Gradient	-	Duration	Fractionscollected	Eluent volume
EtOAc	MeOH	Water	ofcollection (h)		used (mL)
100	0	0	24	Nil	
97.5	2.5	0	5	F1-11	22
95	5	0	39.5	F12-90	158
90	10	0.1	9.5	F91-109	38
85	15	0.1	61.5	F110-232	246
75	25	0.1	26.5	F233-285	106
65	30	0.2	25	F286-335	100
30	65	3	Columnwash	Columnwash	

Table 3.4: Elution and separation procedures for compound CR-H

Note:

Column specification: 2.5cm diameter, 100cm lengthand 2000mL column volume

Stationary phase: silica gel 60 (70-230 mesh size)

Flow rate: 2mL per 30 minutes

Sample amount: 500 mg

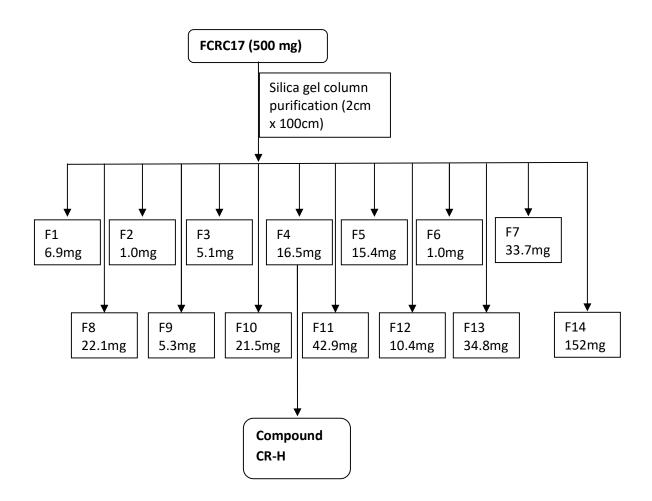
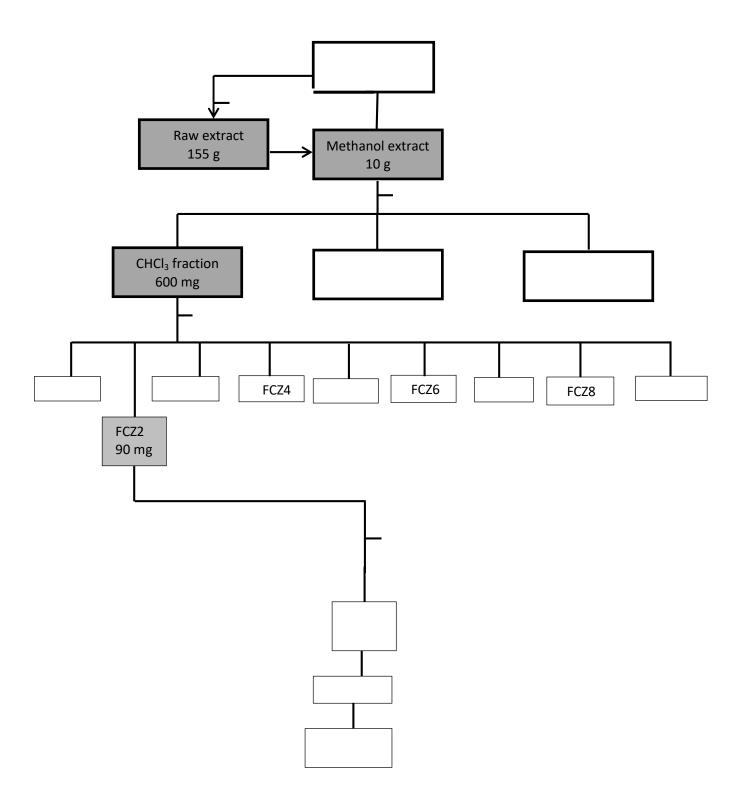


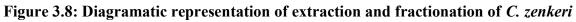
Figure 3.7: Diagramatic representation showing the isolation of compound CR-H

3.17 Chromatographic fractionation of C. zenkeri chloroform fraction

More *C. zenkeri* chloroform fraction was afforded by weighing 10 g of *C. zenkeri* methanol extract and 300 mL chloroform was added to it, was put on supersonic bath for 15 minutes to extract the chloroform portion. For more chloroform extractible, this was done two more times, supernatant was filtered and evaporated to dryness at a reduced pressure on a rotary evaporator. The fraction was put in desiccator for complete dryness of the solvent residue. Afterwards 600 mg of the chloroform fraction was used for chromatographic separation. In order to search out the actual biologically active component(s) in this plant, 600 mg of the chloroform fraction at gradient of CHCl₃/MeOH/H₂O (36.54 mins 98%:2%:0%; 36.94 mins 90%:9%:1%; 36.94 mins 80%:17%:3%; 36.94 mins 70%:25%:5%; 18.94 mins 60%:35%:5%) to yield 301 fractions pooled thereafter based on the similarities in their TLC profile to give 9 fractions (FCZ1 to FCZ9).The fractions were evaporated to dryness under reduced pressure with Buchi rotary evaporator at 40 °C. The fractions were placed in desiccator to remove residual solvents. The amounts of the fractions were determined and they were kept in a cool and dry place till needed for analysis.

The elution, detection and collection procedures for the separation are shown in Figure 3.9.





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06	0.	1:32:15	2	26.0	80	17	03	Dir			
07	0.	1:50:42	:	26.0	70	25	05	Dir.			
08	0:	2:18:23	2	26.0	70	25	05	Dir.			
09	0:	2:27:36	:	26.0	60 35 05			Dir	Dir.		
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		UV600:SCAN					Yes	10	1		
		ELSD ==> 30°-1 Yes 10							1		
						0:SIG2 ==> 330 nm No 15					

Figure 3.9: Procedure steps for separation of C. zenkeri chloroform fraction

3.18 Chromatographic isolation of compound CZ-A

The FCZ2 (90 mg) was investigated further by means of chromatographic separation on a silica glass column (1cm x 60cm; 250 mL column vol.) filled with silica gel 60 (70-230 mesh) (Merck) and separated by isocratic elution with mixture of mobile phase ratio 95/1.5/0.1 of CHCl₃/MeOH/H₂O. The collection tubes were arranged inside automatic electronic fraction collector with the flow rate set at 2 mL per 30 minutes for the collection of fractions. This produced 21 fractions (F1-F21). The fractions were dried by evaporation under reduced pressure with Buchi rotary evaporator at 40 °C. The fractions were placed in desiccator to remove residual solvents. These were weighed to determine their amount and they were stored in a cool and dry place till needed for analysis. The TLC of all 21 fractions was carried out. The fractions (5 μ L) each were loaded on pre-coated TLC plates F₂₅₄ silica gel 60. Mobile phase chloroform/methanol 97/3 was used to develop the fractions inside TLC chambers. Anisaldehyde-sulphuric acid detecting reagent was used to spray the TLC plate and was subjected to heat at 110 °C for optimal visualisation of the chromatograms at visible light. From the TLC profiles, F12-F15 as a result of their similarities in TLC pattern afforded compound CZ-A.

3.19Chemical characterization and structure elucidation

The determination of the structures of the compounds was through extensive spectroscopic methods including 1D NMR (¹H, ¹³C and DEPT), 2D NMR (HMBC, HSQC, COSY, NOESY and TOCSY), ESI-MS and HR-ESIMS, and also by comparingdata generated with related reported literature.

3.19.1 Nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectroscopy

One dimensional (1D) and 2D Nuclear Magnetic Resonance (NMR) data were obtained by using an Avance III HDX 700 MHz NMR spectrometer (Bruker BioSpin, Germany), equipped with an inverse quadruple helium cooled cryoprobe (QCI-F, ¹H, ¹³C, ¹⁹F, ¹⁵N)with z-axis gradients and automatic tuning and matchingaccessory. The samples were measured at 298 K in fully deuterated chloroform or methanolwith TMS as internal standard. The resonance frequency for ¹H was 700.40 MHz, and for ¹³C NMR 176.12 MHz. Standard 1D and gradient-enhanced 2D experiments, such as DEPTq, DQF-COSY, TOCSY, NOESY, HSQC and HMBC were used. All spectra were processed in TopSpin (Bruker BioSpin, Germany) and referenced for ¹H on the residual solvent signal ($\delta = 3.31$ ppm for MeOH-d₄, ($\delta = 7.26$ ppm for

CDCl₃), and for ¹³C on the solvent signal ($\delta = 49.0$ ppmfor MeOH-d₄, ($\delta = 77.0$ ppm for CDCl₃). Chemical shifts were measured in δ ppm and coupling constants *J* were measured in Hertz (Hz). The multiplicity of signals were given as s (singlet), d (doublet), t (triplet), m (multiplet), q (quartet), qt (quintet) or br (broad).

3.19.2 Mass Spectrometry (MS)

Low-resolution electrospray ionisation - multistage mass spectrometry (ESI-MSⁿ) experiments were performed on an amaZon speed 3D ion trap instrument and high-resolution ESI mass spectra (m/z 50-1900) were obtained on a maXis UHR ESI-Qq-TOF mass spectrometer (both Bruker Daltonics, Bremen, Germany) by direct infusion. The sum formulas of the detected ions were determined using Bruker Compass DataAnalysis 4.1 based on the mass accuracy ($\Delta m/z \le 5$ ppm) and isotopic pattern matching (SmartFormula algorithm).

3.20 Antiplasmodial activity investigation of the compounds isolated

In vitro culture of the strains of *Plasmodium falciparum* was done according to procedure reported earlier in session 3.6.1.

3.20.1 Sensitivity assay of compounds isolated

For the sensitivity assay of compounds isolated, a colorimetric method was employed based on the parasite LDH detection (Markler *et al.*, 1993). Isolated compoundswere dissolved in DMSO becoming 10mg/mL concentration. The compounds were placed in 96 wells flatbottom micro-well plates in duplicate (Costar) and seven 1:2 serial dilutions were made directly into the plate in a volume of 100 μ L (1.6 to 200 μ g/mL were the final concentrations used for the fractions and $\leq 1\%$ was final concentration of DMSO used, which showedno toxicity to the parasite). Asynchronous cultures with parasitemia of 1–1.5% and 2% hematocrit (1% final) were aliquoted into the plates and incubated for 72 h, in a final volume of 200 μ L/well. The negative control was cultures without drugs while chloroquine (CQ) was utilised as reference compound. Using a modified method (Markler *et al.*, 1993), the parasite growth was determined by measuring the *P. falciparum* lactate dehydrogenase (pfLDH) activity. By the use of 3-acetyl pyridine adenine dinucleotide (APAD) to be a co-factor, the pfLDH activity could be easily distinguished from that of the host LDH.Briefly, the cultures were carefully resuspendedat the end of the incubation, and aliquots of 20 μ L were taken out and added to a 96well microplate that contained 100 μ L ofthe Malstat reagent and 25 μ L of NBT/PES (Nitro Blue Tetrazolium/ Phenazineethylsulphate). The Malstat reagent is made of 0.125% v/v Triton X-100, 130 mM L-lactate, 30 mM Tris buffer and 0.62 mM APAD and controlled to pH 9 using 1 M HCl. The NBT/PES reagent is made up of 1.96 mM NBT and 0.24 mM PES. Nitro Blue Tetrazolium is reduced to blue formazan and is spectrophotometrically (OD₆₅₀) read as a measure of pLDH activity and thus of parasite viability. The values of the % parasite growth against their concentrations were plotted. The IC₅₀were determined by curve-fitting analysis which was achieved using non-linear regression equation of the sigmoidal dose-response data through a four-parameter variable slope method. The analysis was performed on a Graphpad prism[®] (7.0). Antiplasmodial activities were determined and demonstrated be 50% inhibitory concentrations (that is concentrations of drug that can achieve the inhibition of parasite growth by 50%). Each IC₅₀ value was calculated to be mean \pm standard deviation of no less than three different analyses measured in duplicate. Statistical analyses were determined by means ofa two-tailed Student t test and statistical significance was set at $\alpha_{0.05}$.

CHAPTER FOUR

4.0RESULTS

4.1Antimalarial activity of selected medicinal plants of Combretaceae family

4.1.1 Qualitative inhibition of beta-hematin formation

The results of the qualitative experimentation of antimalarial activities of extracts of selected members of Combretaceae family by β -hematin formation inhibition is shown in Table 4.1 and Figure 4.1. At the 25 mg/mL concentration used, methanol and acetone extracts of *Combretum confertum* and *Terminalia mentalis* among otherstested showed no activity. The *Terminalia ivorensis* methanol extract was more active than the corresponding acetone extract. Only *C. racemosum* showed the same degree of activity for both extracts. Chloroquine tested at 10 mg/mL showed activity, but out of the eighteen extracts tested in this assay, six (*C. platypterum, C. hispidum, C. racemosum, C. sordidum* acetone extracts and *C. racemosum, T. ivorensis* methanol extracts) showed higher activity than chloroquine.

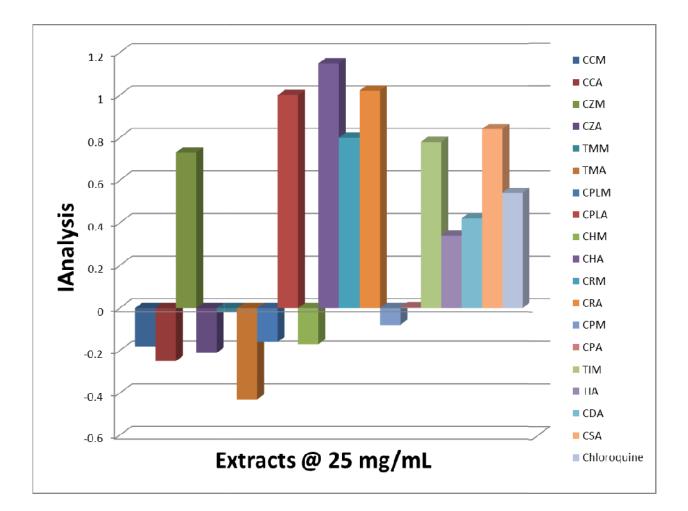


Figure 4.1: Qualitative beta-hematin formation inhibition of extract and chloroquine

Legend: CCM- Combretum confertum methanol, CCA- Combretum confertum acetone, CZM-Combretum zenkeri methanol, Combretum zenkeri acetone, Terminalia mentalis methanol, Terminalia mentalis acetone, Combretum platypterum methanol, Combretum platypterum acetone, Combretum hispidum methanol, Combretum hispidum acetone, Combretum racemosum methanol, Combretum racemosum acetone, Combretum paniculatum methanol, Combretum paniculatum acetone, Terminalia ivorensis methanol, Terminalia ivorensis acetone, Combretum dolicopetalum acetone, and Combretum sordidum acetone, extracts

Samples	Extra	action solvent	% yield		
	Acetone	Methanol	Acetone (%)	Methanol (%)	
C. confertum	-	-	8.4	6.2	
C. zenkeri	-	+++	19.1	17.4	
C. platypterum	+++	-	9.5	7.3	
C. hispidum	+++	-	3.3	2.7	
C. racemosum	+++	+++	12.5	10.9	
C. paniculatum	+	-	4.0	2.9	
C. sordidum	+++	NT	7.2	NA	
C. dolicopetalum	++	NT	7.3	NA	
T. mentalis	-	-	7.3	5.1	
T. ivorensis	++	+++	12.5	8.0	
Chloroquine	++				
(10 mg/mL)					

Table 4.1: Results of Antimalarial β-hematin synthesis inhibition and yield of plant extract

Legend: +++ = High activity, ++ = Moderate activity, + = Low activity, - = No activity

NT = Not Tested, NA = Not Available.

4.1.2 Quantitative inhibition of beta-hematin formation (IC₅₀)

The result of the quantitative determination of inhibition of β -hematin formation at different concentrations is presented in Figure 4.2. *Terminalia ivorensis* methanol extract (TIM) had the significantly highest inhibition at all concentrations compared to other plant extracts. Its inhibition was also higher than that of chloroquine even at the lowest concentration (0.39 mg/mL). *Combretum zenkeri* and *C. racemosum* methanol extracts (CZM and CRM) had medium activity but the activity was significant in comparison with chloroquine.

The results of the IC₅₀ values and P-values measured, which show how effective the extracts are, are shown in Table 4.2. As shown in Table 4.2 and Figure 4.2, in the quantitative testing of β -hematin formation inhibition at different concentrations, CPLA, CHA, CRA and CSA had no antimalarial activity while CZM, CRM and TIM showed appreciable antimalarial activity. *Combretum zenkeri* methanol, TIM and CRM showed highly significant antimalarial activity (IC₅₀ = 2.92 ± 0.846 mg/mL, IC₅₀ = 2.58 ± 0.447 mg/mL and IC₅₀ = 3.96 ± 0.132 mg/mL respectively) comparable to the antimalarial standard drug, chloroquine (IC₅₀ = 0.55 mg/mL). Butonly TIM was not significantly different when compared with chloroquine. Generally in this study, TIM (IC₅₀ =2.58 ± 0.447 mg/mL) demonstrated remarkable the most pronounced effect among all the extracts tested.

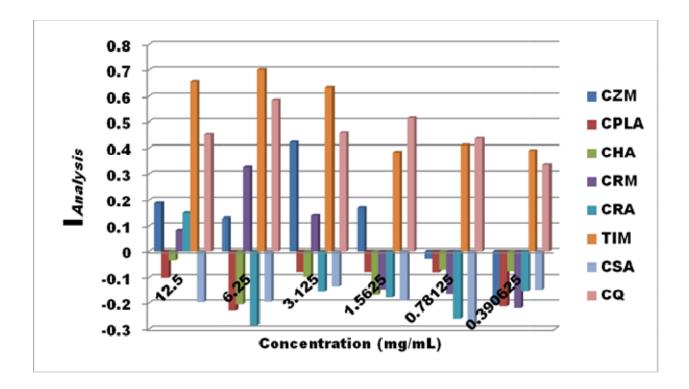


Figure 4.2: The inhibition of β-hematin formation at different concentrations determined spectrophotomically at 405 nm.

Legend: CZM = C. *zenkeri* methanol extract, CPLA = C. *platypterum* acetone extract, CHA = C. *hispidum* acetone extract, CRM = C. *racemosum* methanol extract, CRA = C. *racemosum* acetone extract, TIM = T. *ivorensis* methanol extract, CSA = C. *sordidum* acetone extract, CQ = Chloroquine

Extract	IC ₅₀ mg/mL	T-test P value
	Mean ± SEM	
CZM	2.92 ± 0.846	0.0514
CPLA	**	**
СНА	**	**
CRM	3.96 ± 0.132	0.0081
CRA	**	**
TIM	2.58 ± 0.447	0.0736
CSA	**	**
CQ	0.55 ± 0.179	

Table 4.2: IC $_{50}$ determination of β -hematin formation inhibition

Experiments were carried out in triplicate and shown as Mean±SEM.

****** Not effective

Legend: CZM = C. *zenkeri* methanol extract, CPLA = C. *platypterum* acetone extract, CHA = C. *hispidum* acetone extract, CRM = C. *racemosum* methanol extract, CRA = C. *racemosum* acetone extract, TIM = T. *ivorensis* methanol extract, CSA = C. *sordidum* acetone extract, CQ = Chloroquine.

4.2The TLC fingerprints of C. racemosum and C. zenkerimethanol extracts

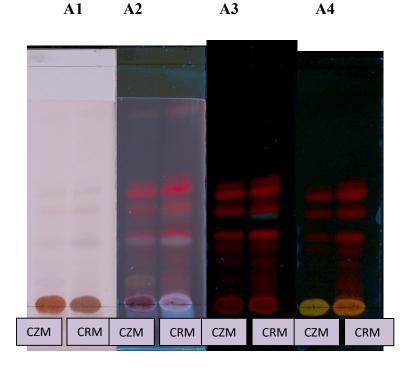
The result of the TLC chromatogram of the methanol extracts of *C. racemosum* and *C. zenkeri* are shown in Figure 4.3 on page 81. It revealed the presence of terpenoids with R_f ranging from 0.2-0.55 (Figure 4.3 A1 to A4) and flavonoids with R_f ranging from 0.3-0.6 (Figure 4.3 B1 to B4) unambiguously. The flavonoids were revealed more conspicuously in chromatogramB4 where ethyl acetate/methanol/water 40:5.4:4 was the mobile phase. The chromatograms of *C. racemosum* (CRM) and *C. zenkeri* (CZM) are both characterized in UV-366 nm by prominent yellow and yellow-green fluorescent zones. Flavonoids are polar compounds and their TLC chromatograms are more obvious in polar solvent systems. On the contrary, in the chromatogram of A4 where the solvent system was apolar- toluene/ethyl acetate 45:5 the flavonoid compounds in the extracts remained on the base line.

4.3 Antiplasmodial activity of C. racemosum and C. zenkerimethanol extracts

Antiplasmodial test was carried out to check the activities of C.zenkerimethanol (CZM) and C. racemosum methanol (CRM) extracts. They were quantitatively tested on P. falciparum lactate dehydrogenase (pLDH) and the values of the 50% inhibition (IC₅₀) resulted from a range of concentrations used in the experiment for the extracts. The plots of their percentage parasite growth against concentrations resulted in a sigmoidal curve, specific to P. falciparum lactate dehydrogenase (pLDH) activity inhibition (Figures 4.6 and 4.7). The crude extracts of C. racemosum(IC₅₀= 64.18 \pm 2.69 µg/mL) and C. zenkeri (IC₅₀= 68.98 \pm 1.00 µg/mL) was active against P. falciparum chloroquine-sensitive D10 in concentration-response data which fitted a sigmoidal equation satisfactorily with the statistical treatment results (at 95% confidence interval 56.1-65.7 μ g/mL, R² = 0.99, Sy.x = 4.9) and (at 95% confidence interval 48.3-75.5 $\mu g/mL$, $R^2 = 0.95$, Sy.x = 9.2), respectively (Table 4.3, Figure 4.6). Combretum racemosum (IC₅₀= 65.80±14.85 μ g/mL) and C. zenkeri (IC₅₀= 69.68±3.09 μ g/mL) methanol extractalso showed activity against P. falciparum chloroquine-resistant W2 in concentration-response data which fitted a sigmoidal equation satisfactorily with the statistical treatment results (at 95% confidence interval 52.8-84.0 μ g/mL, R² = 0.96, Sy.x = 7.9) and (at 95% confidence interval 56.4-68.8 μ g/mL, R² = 0.99, Sy.x = 3.4), respectively (Table 4.4, Figure 4.7).*Combretum*

racemosum methanol extract showed to be slightly more active than the methanol extract of *C*. *zenkeri* in both D10 and W2*P*. *falciparum* srains (Figures 4.6 and 4.7; Tables 4.3 and 4.4).

The chloroquine standard drug was also quantitatively tested on the *P. falciparum* lactate dehydrogenase (pLDH) andthe 50% inhibition (IC₅₀) values were carried out from a range of concentrations in ng/mL tested for the drug. The plots of their percentage parasite growth against concentrations resulted in a sigmoidal curve, specific to *P. falciparum* lactate dehydrogenase (pLDH) activity inhibition (Figures 4.4 and 4.5). Chloroquine tested against the sensitive strain D10 gave satisfactory statistical treatment results as the concentration-response data fitted a sigmoidal equation ($R^2 = 0.98$, Sy.x = 7.5) with IC₅₀= 0.013 ± 0.002 µg/mL at 95% confidence interval 0.01-0.02 µg/mL (Table 4.3 and Figure 4.4), while against the resistant strain W2, the statistical treatments satisfactorily resulted in ($R^2 = 0.97$, Sy.x = 7.8) with IC₅₀= 0.22 ± 0.03µg/mL at 95% confidence interval 0.16-0.25 µg/mL (Table 4.4, Figure 4.5). The chloroquine standard drug exhibited to substantially inhibit the activity of lactate dehydrogenase (pLDH) in both*P. falciparum* strains used.



B2

B1

Legend:

B4

CZM- *Combretum zenkeri* methanol extract

CRM- *Combretum racemosum* methanol extract

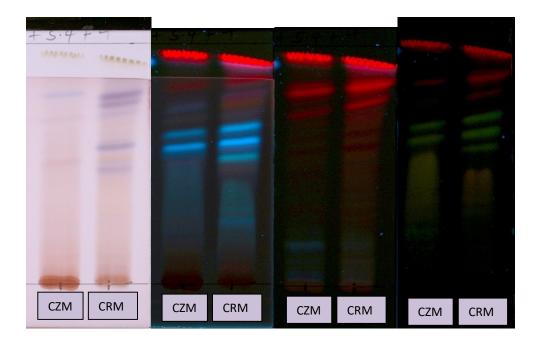


Figure 4.3: TLC of *C. racemosum* and *C. zenkeri*methanol extracts developed in (A) toluene/ethyl acetate 45:5 and (B) ethyl acetate/methanol/water 40:5.4:4; (1) derivatized with anisaldehyde/H₂SO₄ reagent and viewed under visible light (2) derivatized with anisaldehyde/H₂SO₄ reagent and viewed under UV 366 nm (3) not derivatized but viewed under UV 366 nm (4) derivatized with natural product/polyethylene glycol 4000 reagent and viewed under UV 366 nm

B3

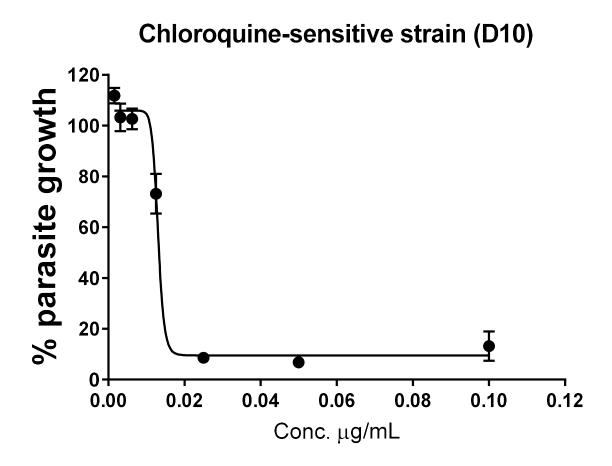


Figure 4.4: Inhibition of *Plasmodium falciparum* chloroquine sensitive strain by chloroquine standard drug

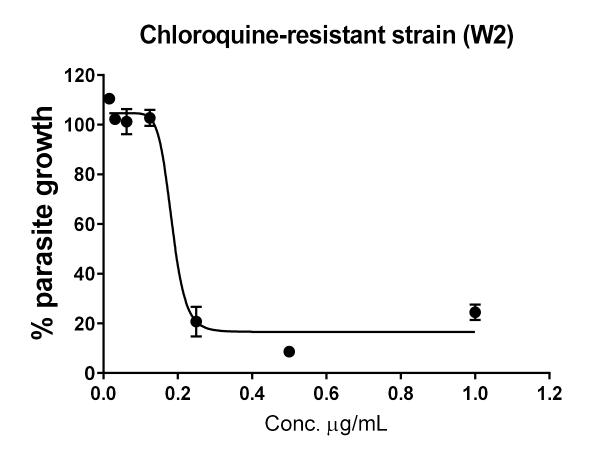


Figure 4.5: Inhibition of *Plasmodium falciparum* chloroquine resistant strain by chloroquine standard drug

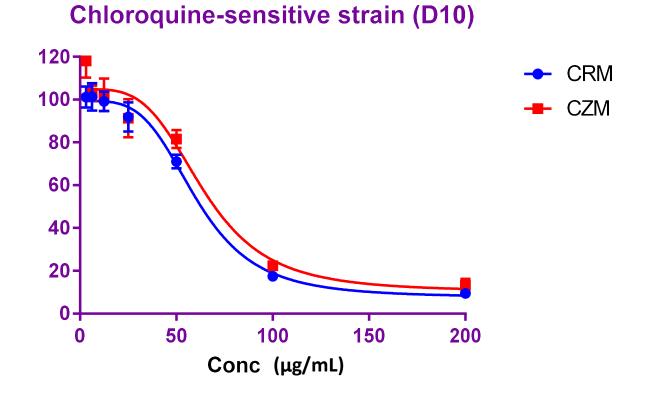


Figure 4.6: Inhibition of *P. falciparum* parasite (D10 strain) by the crude extracts

Legend: CRM- *Combretum racemosum* methanol extract, CZM- *Combretum zenkeri* methanol extract

	D10 (IC ₅₀ µg/mL) ^a	C.I (µg/mL)	\mathbf{R}^2	Sy.x
C. zenkeri MeOH extract	68.98 ± 1.00	48.3-75.5	0.95	9.2
C. racemosumMeOH extract	64.18 ± 2.69	56.1-65.7	0.99	4.9
Chloroquine	0.013 ± 0.002	0.01-0.02	0.98	7.5

Table 4.3: Antiplasmodial activity of C. zenkeri and C. racemosum methanol extracts inP. falciparumD10 strain

^aIC₅₀ values were generated, from duplicate results of three separate experiments, as mean±SD

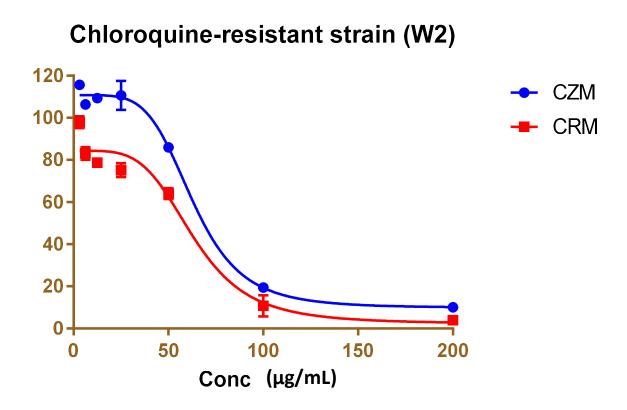


Figure 4.7: *Plasmodium falciparum* inhibition (W2 strain) by the crude extracts

Legend: CRM- *Combretum racemosum* methanol extract, CZM- *Combretum zenkeri* methanol extract

	W2 $(IC_{50} \mu g/mL)^a$	C.I (µg/mL)	\mathbf{R}^2	Sy.x
C. zenkeri MeOH extract	69.68 ± 3.09	56.4-78.8	0.99	3.4
C. racemosum MeOH extract	65.80 ± 14.85	52.8-84.0	0.96	7.9
Chloroquine	0.22 ± 0.03	0.16-0.25	0.97	7.8

Table 4.4: Antiplasmodial activity of C. zenkeri and C. racemosum methanol extracts inP. falciparumW2 strains

^aIC₅₀ values were generated, from duplicate results of three separate experiments, as mean±SD

4.4Preliminary solvent-solvent partitioning fractions

Each of the extracts (5 g) were partitioned to produce four fractions and the amounts of fractions are shown on the next page in Table 4.5.*Combretum zenkeri* showed percentage yield

of 2.2% for chloroform, 6.8% for ethyl acetate, 12.4% for n-butanolalso 42.6% for aqueous fractions. Also, *C. racemosum* showed percentage yield of 12% for chloroform, 9% for ethyl acetate, 32% for n-butanol also 41.2% for aqueous fractions. All the fractions of *C. racemosum*, except aqueous, showed higher amount fractionated than the *C. zenkeri*.

4.5The TLC fingerprints of partitioned fractions of C. racemosum and C. zenkeri

The TLC profiles of the partitioned fractions of *C. zenkeri* and *C. racemosum* were conducted and shown below in Figures 4.5, 4.6 and 4.7. From the chromatogram B in Figure 4.6, the ethyl acetate and n-butanol fractions of *C. zenkeri* as well as *C. racemosum* extracts showed to be enriched with flavonoids and phenolic compounds. This is evident by the intense green and yellow zones ranging from R_f 0.6-0.8 in both ethyl acetate and n-butanol fractions of *C. racemosum* extract. In the ethyl acetate and n-butanol fractions of *C. zenkeri*, both are characterised by the prominent yellow-green and green fluorescent zones ranging from R_f 0.6-0.9.

 Table 4.5: Yield of solvent-solvent partitioned fractions

Tractions C. center (mg) C. rucemosum (mg)	Fractions	C.zenkeri (mg)	C.racemosum (mg)
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Chloroform	110	600
Ethyl acetate	340	450
n-butanol	620	1600
Water	2130	2060

[A]

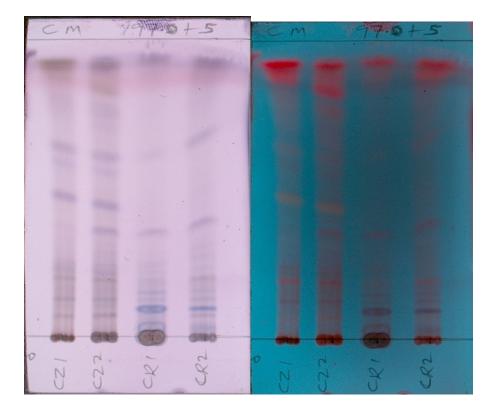


Figure 4.8:TLC of *C. zenkeri* and *C. racemosum* chloroform fractions developed in chloroform/methanol 97/5; (A)with anisaldehyde-sulphuric acid spray reagentviewed at 365nm and (B) with anisaldehyde-sulphuric acid spray reagent viewed at visible light

Legend: CZ- Combretum zenkeri, CR- Combretum racemosum

(A)(B)

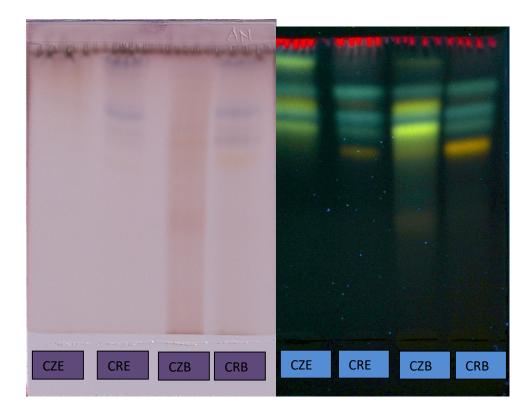


Figure 4.9:TLC of *C. zenkeri* and *C. racemosum* ethyl acetate and n-butanol fractions developed in ethyl acetate/acetic acid/formic acid/water 100/11/11/24; (A) with anisaldehyde-sulphuric acid spray reagent, (B) with natural product/polyethylene glycol 4000spray reagent

Legend: CZE- *Combretum zenkeri* ethyl acetate, CRE- *Combretum racemosum* ethyl acetate, CZB- *Combretum zenkeri* n-butanol, CRB- *Combretum racemosum* n-butanol

[A]

[B]

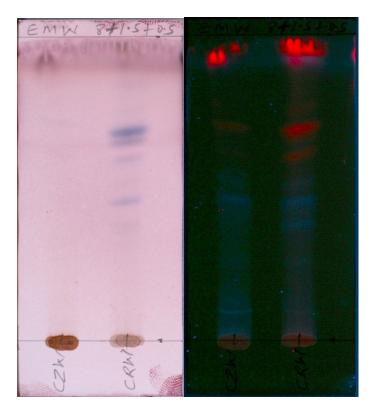


Figure 4.10: TLC of *C. zenkeri* and *C. racemosum* water fractions developed in ethyl acetate/methanol/water 8/1.5/0.5; (A) sprayed with anisaldehyde-sulphuric acid reagent viewed at visible light (B) viewed at 365nm before spraying

4.6In vitro antiplasmodial activity of the C. racemosum and C. zenkeri fractions

The fractions from *C. racemosum* and *C. zenkeri* methanol extracts were screened against D10 and W2 strains of *P. falciparum* for antiplasmodial actions. The fractions were quantitatively

tested on the P. falciparum lactate dehydrogenase (pLDH) and the 50% inhibition (IC₅₀) values were derived from a range of concentrations tested for the fractions. The plots of their percentage parasite growth against concentrations resulted in a sigmoidal curve, specific to P. falciparum lactate dehydrogenase (pLDH) activity inhibition (Figures 4.11, 4.12, 4.13 and 4.14). The result of the bioactivity investigation of fractions from solvent-solvent partition showed that chloroform fraction (D10: IC₅₀= $33.80\pm1.52 \ \mu g/mL$ and W2: IC₅₀= 27.82 ± 2.85 μ g/mL) was more potent related to n-butanol (D10: IC₅₀= 78.08±7.29 μ g/mL and W2: IC₅₀= 78.12±14.98 µg/mL) in C. racemosum at 95% confidence interval (D10: 29.0-38.4 µg/mL; W2: 27.1-30.6 µg/mL) and (D10: 73.4-95.0 µg/mL; W2: 75.4-92.0 µg/mL), respectively for the chloroform and n-butanol fractions. Their statistical treatments gave satisfactory outcome with (D10: $R^2 = 0.99$, Sy.x = 5.3; W2: $R^2 = 0.99$, Sy.x = 2.9) for the chloroform fraction and (D10: $R^2 = 0.99$, Sy.x = 4.2; W2: $R^2 = 0.98$, Sy.x = 5.2) for the n-butanol fraction (Tables 4.6 and 4.7; Figures 4.12 and 4.14). Likewise in C. zenkeri, the chloroform fraction (D10: IC₅₀= 12.57 \pm 1.57 µg/mL) and (W2: IC₅₀= 12.14 \pm 0.95 µg/mL) showed higher activity relative to nbutanol fraction (D10: IC₅₀= $61.98 \pm 3.25 \ \mu g/mL$) and (W2: IC₅₀= $61.26 \pm 8.64 \ \mu g/mL$) at 95% confidence interval for chloroform (D10: 12.6-14.9 µg/mL; W2: 12.0-15.8 µg/mL) and nbutanol (D10: 47.6-75.0 µg/mL; W2: 52.0-70.4 µg/mL). Their concentration-response data fitted a sigmoidal equation satisfactorily with (D10: $R^2 = 0.99$, Sy.x = 4.8; W2: $R^2 = 0.98$, Sy.x = 6.8) for the chloroform fraction and (D10: $R^2 = 0.96$, Sy.x = 8.5; W2: $R^2 = 0.99$, Sy.x = 4.4) for the n-butanol fraction (Tables 4.6 and 4.7; Figures 4.11 and 4.13).

The water fraction was not tested in this experiment. The chloroform fractions of both *C. zenkeri* and *C. racemosum* generally demonstrated significant inhibitory activities than the nbutanol fractions and as well showed promising activities more than the crude extracts against(pLDH) activity in both D10 and W2 strains of *P. falciparum*.

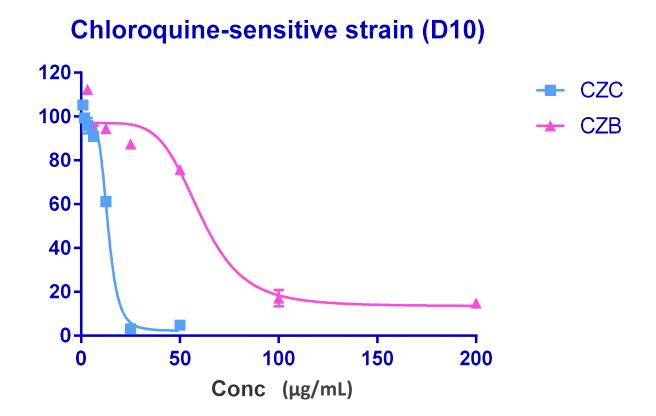


Figure 4.11: *Plasmodium falciparum* (D10 strain) inhibition by the fractions

Legend: CZC- *Combretum zenkeri* chloroform fraction, CZB- *Combretum zenkeri* n-butanol fraction

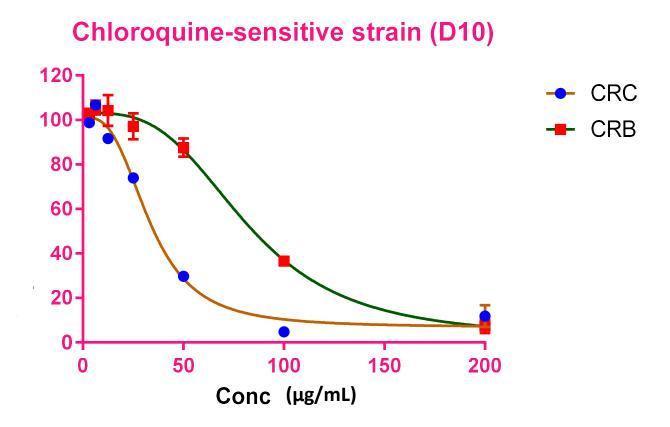


Figure 4.12: Plasmodium falciparum (D10 strain) inhibition by the fractions

Legend: CRC- *Combretum racemosum* chloroform fraction, CRB- *Combretum racemosum* nbutanol fraction

Table 4.6: Antiplasmodial activity of C. zenkeri and C. racemosum partitioned fractions in P. falciparumD10strains

D10 $(IC_{50} \mu g/mL)^{a}$	C.I (µg/mL)	\mathbf{R}^2	Sy.x

C. zenkeri CHCl ₃ (CZC)	12.57 ± 1.57	12.6-14.9	0.99	4.8
fraction				
C. zenkeri n-BuOH (CZB)	61.98 ± 3.25	47.6-75.0	0.96	8.5
fraction				
C. racemosum CHCl ₃ (CRC)	33.80 ± 1.52	29.0-38.4	0.99	5.3
fraction				
C. racemosum n-BuOH (CRB)	78.08 ± 7.29	73.4-95.0	0.99	4.2
fraction				

 $^{a}IC_{50}$ values were generated, from duplicate results of three separate experiments, as mean±SD

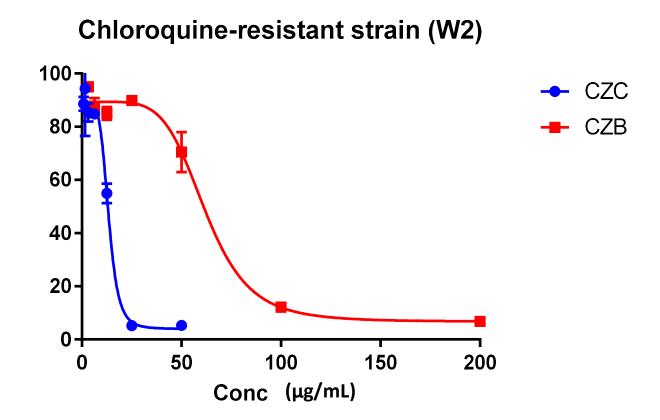


Figure 4.13: Inhibition of *P. falciparum* parasite (W2 strain) by the fractions

Legend:CZC- *Combretum zenkeri* chloroform fraction, CZB- *Combretum zenkeri* n-butanol fraction

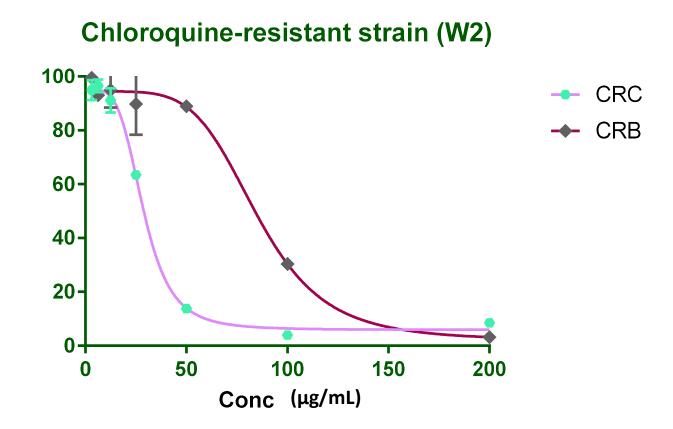


Figure 4.14: Inhibition of *P. falciparum* parasite (W2 strain) by the fractions

Legend: CRC- *Combretum racemosum* chloroform fraction, CRB- *Combretum racemosum* nbutanol fraction

Table 4.7: Antiplasmodial activity of C. zenkeri and C. racemosum partitioned fractionsin P. falciparumW2 strains

	W2 (IC ₅₀ μg/mL) ^a	С.I (µg/mL)	R ²	Sy.x
C. zenkeri CHCl ₃ (CZC) fraction	12.14 ± 0.95	12.0-15.8	0.98	6.8
C. zenkeri n-BuOH (CZB) fraction	61.26 ± 8.64	52.0-70.4	0.99	4.4
C. racemosum CHCl ₃ (CRC) fraction	27.82 ± 2.85	27.1-30.6	0.99	2.9
C. racemosum n-BuOH (CRB) fraction	78.12 ± 14.98	75.4-92.0	0.98	5.2

 $^{a}IC_{50}$ values were generated, from duplicate results of three separate experiments, as mean \pm SD

4.8Chromatographic fractionation of C. racemosumchloroform fraction

The chromatogram of the separation of *C. racemosum* chloroform fraction on flash chromatograph showed compounds ranging from non-polar to intermediate polarity between 5

to 50 minutes of elution (Figure 4.18). The fractions collected, the amounts and their TLC chromatogram are presented in Table 4.6 and Figure 4.19a, b and c.

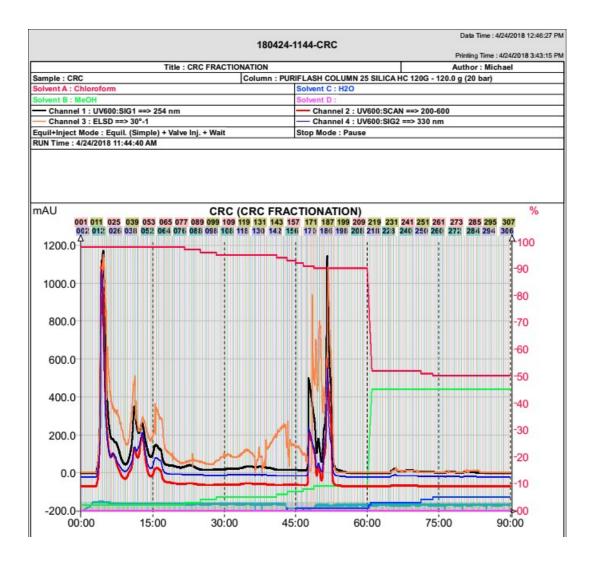


Figure 4.15: Flash chromatogram of C. racemosum chloroform fraction

 Table 4.8: Fractions collected and the amount from flash chromatographic separation of

 C. racemosum chloroform fraction

Fractions	Combined fractions	Amounts

		(mg)
FCRC1	F1-12	35
FCRC2	F13-24	968
FCRC3	F25-34	218
FCRC4	F35-44	324
FCRC5	F45-54	197
FCRC6	F55-64	242
FCRC7	F65-74	74
FCRC8	F75-84	53
FCRC9	F85-94	51
FCRC10	F95-104	59
FCRC11	F105-114	82
FCRC12	F115-124	89
FCRC13	F125-134	67
FCRC14	F135-167	368
FCRC15	F168-174	237
FCRC16	F175-184	489
FCRC17	F185-189	530
FCRC18	F190-240	36
FCRC19	F241-300	94
FCRC20	F301-307 + column	22
	wash	
Total		4235

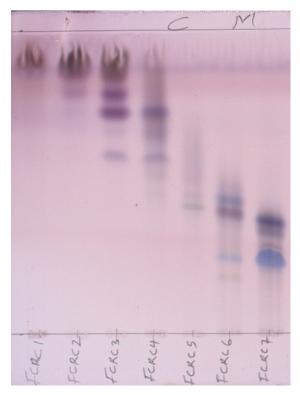


Figure 4.16a: TLC of combined FCRC1-7 (*C. racemosum*) fractionated on flash chromatography (Interchim Puriflash)

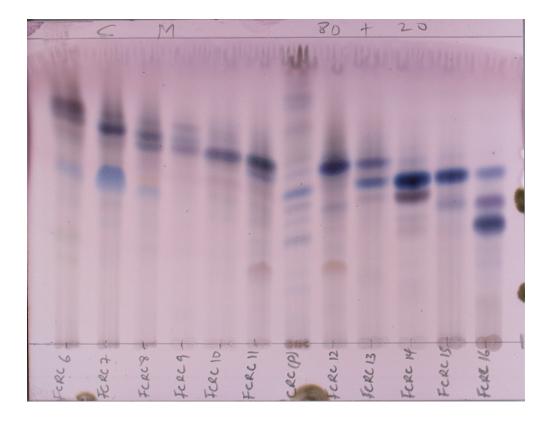


Figure 4.16b: TLC of combined FCRC6-16 (*C. racemosum*) fractionated on flash chromatography (InterchimPuriflash)

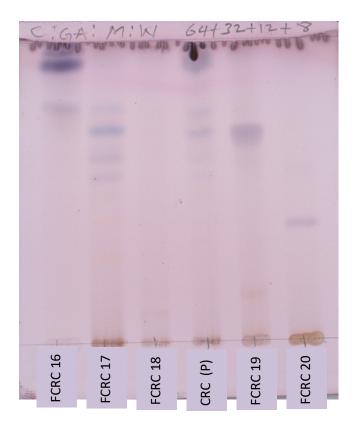


Figure 4.16c:TLC of combined FCRC16-20 (*C. racemosum*) fractionated on flash chromatography (InterchimPuriflash)

4.9Isolation of compound CR-A

The chromatographic separation of FCRC14 afforded 18 fractions (FCRC14_1 to FCRC14_18). All fractions, amount yielded and their TLC chromatogram are presented in Table 4.9 and Figure 4.17. FCRC14_12 (10.67 mg) became **CR-A**, and this isolate showed single spot on the TLC in Figure 4.18.

4.10 Isolation of compound CR-C

The flash chromatographic separation of FCRC16 afforded 5 fractions (FCRC16_1 to FCRC16_5). All fractions, amount yielded and their TLC chromatogram are presented in Table 4.10 and Figure 4.19. FCRC16_3 further fractionated on column chromatograph afforded 17 fractions (FCRC16_3_1 to FCRC16_3_17). All 17 fractions, amount yielded and their TLC chromatogram are presented in Table 4.11 and Figure 4.20. FCRC16_3_10 to FCRC16_3_14 (44.6 mg) became CR-C, and the TLC chromatogram of this compound shown in Figure 4.21.

Fractions	Combined fractions	Amounts (mg)
FCRC14_1	F1-93	2.56
FCRC14_2	F94-234	1.36
FCRC14_3	F235-243	0.96
FCRC14_4	F244-262	1.28
FCRC14_5	F263-267	0.89
FCRC14_6	F268-276	1.91
FCRC14_7	F277-288	5.4
FCRC14_8	F289-296	4.77
FCRC14_9	F297-299	4.04
FCRC14_10	F300-312	49.21
FCRC14_11	F313-317	16.47
FCRC14_12	F318-321	10.67
FCRC14_13	F322-325	6.86
FCRC14_14	F326-332	7.23
FCRC14_15	F333-385	16.67
FCRC14_16	F386-408	3.38
FCRC14_17	F409-424	3.64
FCRC14_18	F425-442	7.37
Total		144.67

 Table 4.9: Column chromatographic separation sub-fractions collected and amounts

 from FCRC14

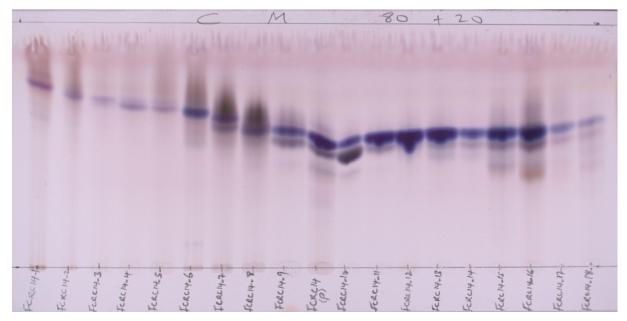


Figure 4.17: TLC of column chromatographic separation sub-fractions of FCRC14



Figure 4.18: TLC of compound CR-A

Fractions	Combined fractions	Amounts (mg)
FCRC16_F1	F1-12	3.42
FCRC16_F2	F13-17	6.88
FCRC16_F3	F18-68	256.9
FCRC16_F4	F69-88	2.21
FCRC16_F5	F89-128	10.14
Total		279.55

Table 4.10: Fractions collected and the amount from flash chromatographic separationof sub-fraction FCRC16

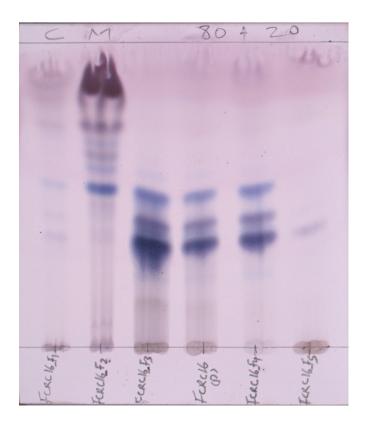


Figure 4.19:TLC of FCRC16 sub-fractions fractionated on flash chromatography (InterchimPuriflash)

Fractions	Combined fractions	Amounts (mg)
FCRC16_3_F1	F1-30	8.6
FCRC16_3_F2	F31-46	2.6
FCRC16_3_F3	F47-61	1.6
FCRC16_3_F4	F62-72	4.4
FCRC16_3_F5	F73-95	15.3
FCRC16_3_F6	F96-115	5.9
FCRC16_3_F7	F116-128	5.2
FCRC16_3_F8	F129-136	2.9
FCRC16_3_F9	F137-147	4.9
FCRC16_3_F10	F148-158	5.8
FCRC16_3_F11	F159-176	15.2
FCRC16_3_F12	F177-220	15.4
FCRC16_3_F13	F221-247	4.2
FCRC16_3_F14	F248-274	4
FCRC16_3_F15	F275-294	1.6
FCRC16_3_F16	F295-357	5.1
FCRC16_3_F17	F358-380	5.6
Total		108.3

Table 4.11: Column chromatographic separation sub-fractions collected and amountsfrom FCRC16_3

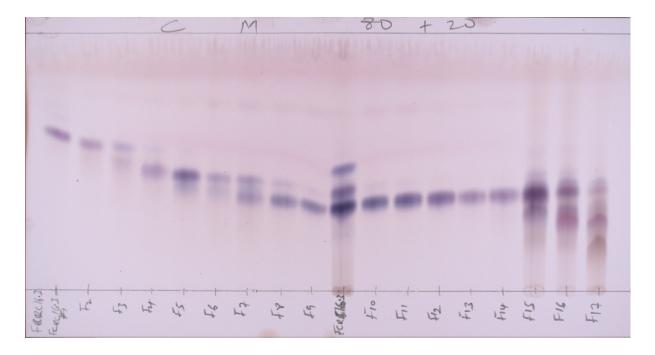


Figure 4.20: TLC of column chromatographic separation sub-fractions of FCRC16_3

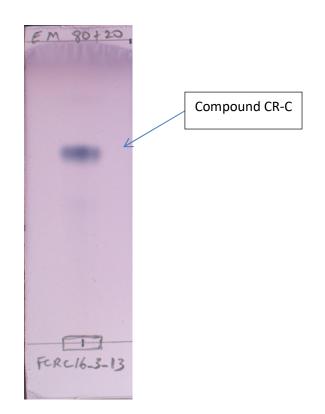


Figure 4.21: TLC of compound CR-C

4.12 Isolation of compound CR-E

Compound CR-E was afforded from preparative TLC. The chromatogram of this isolate showed a single spot on TLC(Figure 4.23). The CR-E was also developed in a TLC side by side the semi-pure fraction from where it was isolated (Figure 4.22).

4.13 Isolation of compound CR-G

The chromatographic separation of FCRC7 afforded 11 fractions (FCRC7_1 to FCRC7_11). All fractions, amount yielded and their TLC chromatogram are presented in Table 4.12 and Figure 4.24. FCRC7_9 to FCRC7_11 (8.4 mg) became CR-G, and the TLC chromatogram of this compound shown in Figure 4.25.

4.14 Isolation of compound CR-H

The chromatographic separation of FCRC17 afforded 14 fractions (FCRC17_1 to FCRC17_14). All fractions, amount yielded and their TLC chromatogram are presented in Table 4.13 and Figure 4.26a. FCRC17_4 to FCRC17_6 (32.9 mg) became CR-H, and shown in Figure 4.27 is the TLC chromatogram for this compound.



Figure 4.22: TLC of FCRC16_3_5 with compound CR-E

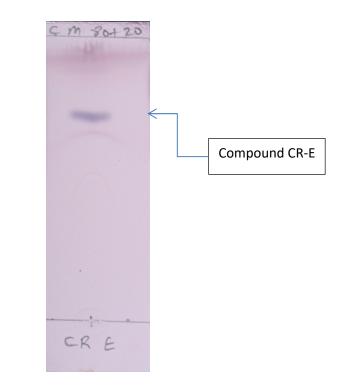


Figure 4.23: TLC of compound CR-E

Fractions	Combined fractions	Amounts (mg)
FCRC7_F1	F1-40	2.2
FCRC7_F2	F41-49	19.8
FCRC7_F3	F50-57	2.4
FCRC7_F4	F58-92	4.1
FCRC7_F5	F93-122	1.2
FCRC7_F6	F123-136	0.9
FCRC7_F7	F137-152	1.8
FCRC7_F8	F153-155	1.6
FCRC7_F9	F156-159	2.4
FCRC7_F10	F160-179	4.8
FCRC7_F11	F180-186	1.2
Total		42.4

Table 4.12: Column chromatographic separation sub-fractions collected and amountsfrom FCRC7

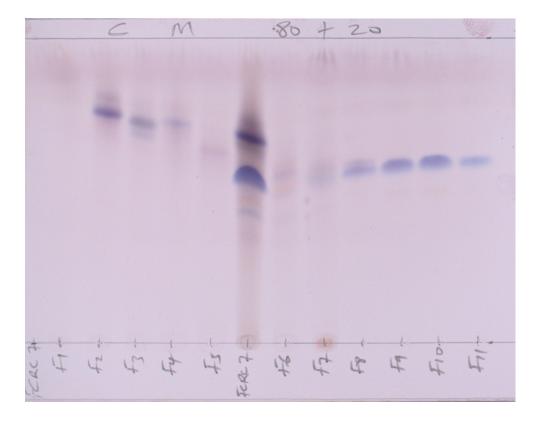


Figure 4.24: TLC of column chromatographic separation sub-fractions of FCRC7

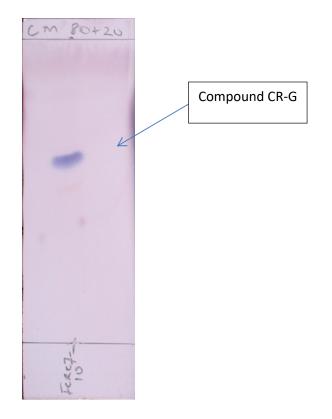


Figure 4.25: TLC of compound CR-G

Fractions	Combined fractions	Amounts (mg)
FCRC17_F1	F1-90	6.9
FCRC17_F2	F91-109	1
FCRC17_F3	F110-138	5.1
FCRC17_F4	F139-142	16.5
FCRC17_F5	F143-153	15.4
FCRC17_F6	F154-156	1
FCRC17_F7	F157-177	33.7
FCRC17_F8	F178-220	22.1
FCRC17_F9	F221-232	5.3
FCRC17_F10	F233-260	21.5
FCRC17_F11	F261-283	42.9
FCRC17_F12	F284-302	10.4
FCRC17_F13	F303-335	34.8
FCRC17_F14	Column wash	152.2
Total		368

Table 4.13: Column chromatographic separation sub-fractions collected and amountsfrom FCRC17

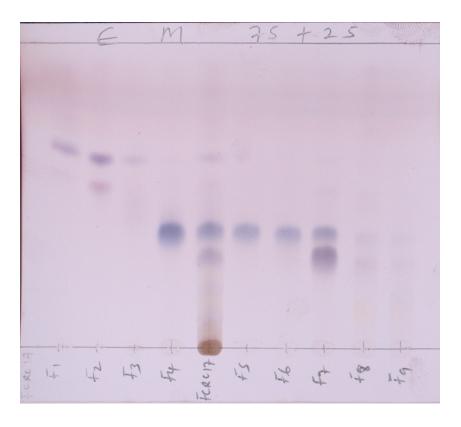


Figure 4.26a: TLC of column chromatographic separation sub-fractions of FCRC17 (1-9)

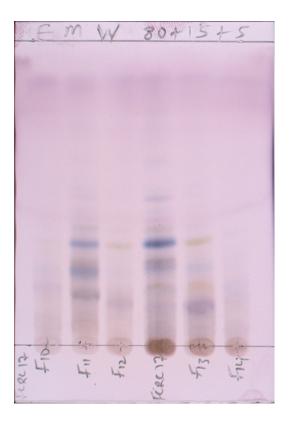


Figure 4.26b: TLC of column chromatographic separation sub-fractions of FCRC17 (10-14)

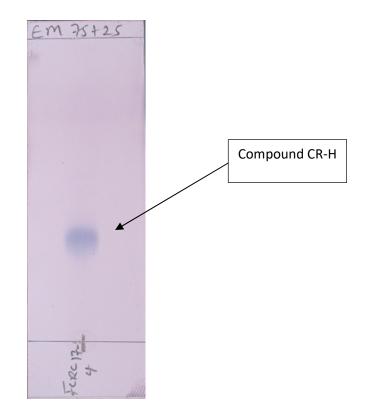


Figure 4.27: TLC of compound CR-H

4.15 Chromatographic fractionation of C. zenkeri chloroform fraction

The chromatogram of the *C. zenkeri* chloroform fraction separated with flash chromatograph is shown in Figure 4.28. This showed a lot of non-polar compounds between 5-27 minutes, which signified early elution. Some compounds shown around intermediate polarity between 95-100 minutes while the polar compounds showed around 132-152 minutes of elution. The TLC of collected fractions is shown in Figure 4.29 and amounts yielded for each fraction shown in Table 4.14.

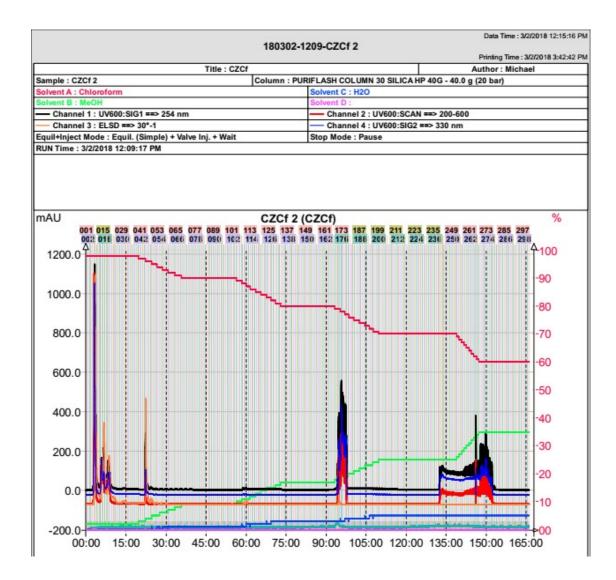


Figure 4.28: Flash chromatogram of C. zenkeri chloroform fraction

Fractions	Combined fractions	Amounts (mg)	
FCZC 1	F1-10	168	
FCZC 2	F11-15	90	
FCZC 3	F16-18	23.6	
FCZC 4	F19-33	84	
FCZC 5	F34-42	13.5	
FCZC 6	F43-58	64.7	
FCZC 7	F59-164	21.9	
FCZC 8	F165-179	13.1	
FCZC 9	F180-301	10.4	
Total		489.2	

Table 4.14: Fractions collected and the amount from flash chromatographic separation of *C. zenkeri* chloroform fraction

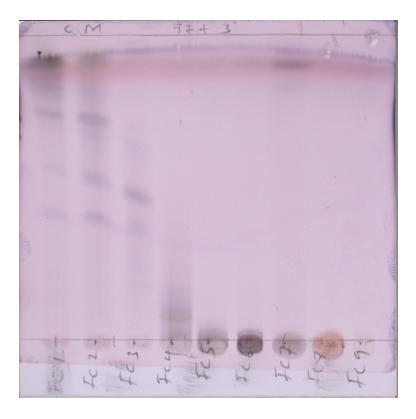


Figure 4.29: TLC of flash chromatographic separation fractions of *C. zenkeri* chloroform

4.16 Isolation of compound CZ-A

The combined fractions and amount of each fraction collected in the column separation is shown on Table 4.15. The TLC chromatogram of all the column fractions is shown in Figure 4.30. FCZC2_12 to FCZC2_15 became **CZ-A** (5 mg). The isolated**CZ-A** showed single spot on TLC in Figure 4.31.

Fractions	Combined fractions	Amounts (mg)
FCZC2_F1	F1-23	15.5
FCZC2_F2	F24-29	3.9
FCZC2_F3	F30-34	4.1
FCZC2_F4	F35-39	3
FCZC2_F5	F40-44	3.4
FCZC2_F6	F45-49	10.6
FCZC2_F7	F50-54	1.8
FCZC2_F8	F55-58	0.8
FCZC2_F9	F59-72	1.8
FCZC2_F10	F73-83	0.9
FCZC2_F11	F84-94	0.8
FCZC2_F12	F95-98	2.1
FCZC2_F13	F99-103	1
FCZC2_F14	F104-108	1
FCZC2_F15	F109-113	1
FCZC2_F16	F114-122	1.1
FCZC2_F17	F123-138	0.8
FCZC2_F18	F139-158	0.7
FCZC2_F19	F159-205	3.1
FCZC2_F20	F206-228	5.2
FCZC2_F21	F229-285	3
Total		65.6

 Table 4.15: Column chromatographic separation of fractions collected and amounts

 from FCZC2

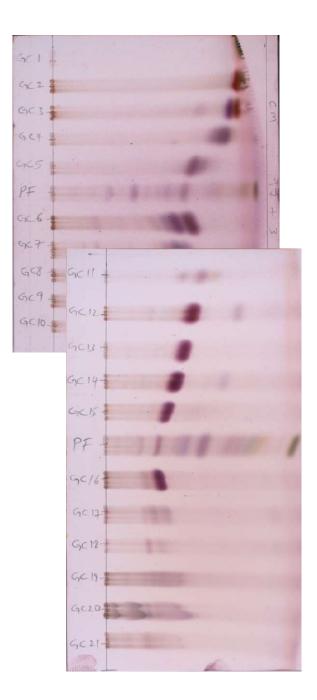


Figure 4.30: TLC of column chromatographic separation sub-fractions of FCZC2

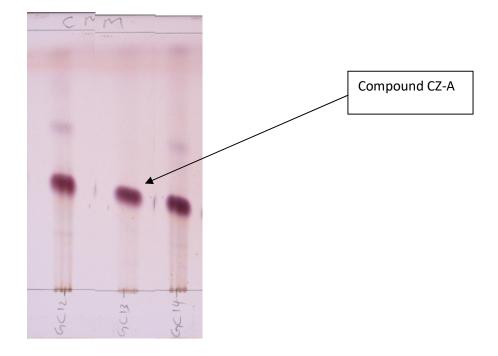


Figure 4.31: TLC of compound CZ-A

4.17 Structure elucidation of compounds isolated from C. racemosum

4.17.1 Structure elucidation of CR-A

CR-A (10.7 mg) which showed to be a mixture (1:0.7) of compounds 1 and 2(Figure 4.32) was identified as colourless powder.HRESIMS indicated a [M-H]⁻ ion at m/z 503.3388, consistent with a molecular formula of C₃₀H₄₈O₆(calculated C₃₀H₄₇O₆, with m/zshowing 503.3378, $\Delta = 2.0$ ppm).

From Table 4.16, compounds **1** and**2** showed signal patterns very alike witheach other for¹Has well as¹³C-NMR experiments. They showed signal patterns with some characteristic chemical shifts for both ¹H and ¹³C experiments (Tables 4.16). The presence of olefinic proton in **1** and **2** resulted in the chemical shift for the proton at C-12(δ_{H-12} 5.296and δ_{H-12} 5.324, respectively).The¹³C-NMR spectra signals for the olefinic carbons were δ_{C-12} 129.23 and δ_{C} . ¹³140.15for **1** and δ_{C-12} 124.70 and δ_{C-13} 144.75 for **2**. Furthermore, based on the DEPTq analyses, **1** and **2** displayed the occurrence of 30 carbon atoms (Table 4.16). Six methyl (CH₃), nine methylene (CH₂), seven methine (CH) and eight quartenary carbon atoms (C) groups were identified in **1** and **2**.Moreover, **1** and **2**exhibited distinctive chemical shifts in¹H-NMR δ_{H} 2.50 (H-18), δ_{H} 1.35 (H-20) and δ_{H} 3.06 (H-18), δ_{H} 3.26 (H-19), respectively and ¹³C-NMR δ_{C-18} 55.08, δ_{C-19} 73.57, δ_{C-20} 43.09 and δ_{C-18} 45.18, δ_{C-19} 82.43, δ_{C-20} 36.03 of **1** and **2**,respectively (Table 4.16). This difference was particularly influenced by the different substitution between positions 19 and 20. The chemical shifts of the olefinic signalsin1and **2** and saturation of up-field signals (between 0 and 2 ppm) in their spectra was a preliminary indication of a pentacyclic triterpene skeleton (Table 4.16, Appendices 2a and 2b).

Detailed analysis of 1D NMR as well as 2D NMR including HMBC, HSQC and COSY help resolved 1 as 19 α -hydroxyasiatic acid and 2 arjungenin. Compound 1and 2(Figure 4.32) from corresponding literature reports(Zebiri *et al.*, 2017) and (Gossan *et al.*, 2016) displayed spectra information similar to 19 α -hydroxyasiatic acid and arjungenin respectively.

Position	-	1		2			
	$^{1}\mathrm{H}\left(\delta\right)^{*^{1}}$	^{HH} J-coupling 13 C (δ)*	**	¹ Η (δ)*	^{HH} J-coupling ¹³ C	(δ)**	
	(Hz)			(Hz)			
1	1.937	dd, J=12.4,4.6	47.9, CH ₂	1.906	dd, J=12.4, 4.6	47.72, CH ₂	
	0.908	(m)		0.9	(m)		
2	3.696	ddd, J=11.5, 9.6, 4.6	69.7, CH	3.693	ddd, J=11.6, 9.6, 4.6	69.68, CH	
3	3.361	d, J=9.6	78.26, CH	3.358	d, J=9.6	78.25, CH	
4		-	44.13, C		-	44.14, C	
5	1.311	(m)	48.18, CH	1.310	(m)	48.33, CH	
6	1.469	(m)	19.22, CH ₂	1.469	(m)	19.25, CH ₂	
	1.414	(m)		1.414	(m)		
7	1.672	(m)	33.53, CH ₂	1.624	(m)	33.33, CH ₂	
	1.279	(m)		1.261	(m)		
8		-	41.06, C		-	40.73, C	
9	1.8	(m)	48.5, CH	1.844	t, J=8.8	49.1, CH	
10		-	39.99, C		-	39.17, C	
11	2.021	(m)	24.76, CH ₂	2.001	(m)	24.89, CH ₂	
12	5.296	t, J=3.7	129.23, CH	5.324	(t, 3.7)	124.7, CH	
13		-	140.15, C		-	144.75, C	
14		-	42.72, C		-	42.71, C	
15	1.807	(m)	29.57, CH ₂	1.634	(m)	$29.43, \mathrm{CH}_2$	
	1.006	(m)		1.005	(m)		
16	2.580	td, J=13.3, 4.7	26.59, CH ₂	2.292	(m)	$28.58, \mathrm{CH}_2$	
	1.513			1.599			
17		-	49, C		-	46.69, C	
18	2.504	(s)	55.08, CH	3.057	(m)	45.18, CH	
19		-	73.57, C	3.256	dd, J=3.9, 0.8	82.43, CH	
20	1.352	(m)	43.09, CH		-	36.03, C	

Table 4.16:Spectroscopic data from ¹H- and ¹³C-NMR of CR-A(1 &2)in CD₃OD solvent

21	1.732	(m)	27.28, CH ₂	1.578	(m)	29.49, CH ₂
	1.232	(m)		1.003	(m)	
22	1.731	(m)	39.02, CH ₂	1.786	(m)	$34.03,\mathrm{CH}_2$
	1.621	(m)		1.615	(m)	
23	3.505	d, J=11.1	66.34, CH ₂	3.505	d, J=11.1	66.33, CH ₂
	3.257	d, J=11.1		3.275	d, J=11.1	
24	0.704	(s)	13.87, CH ₃	0.704	(s)	13.8, CH ₃
25	1.035	(s)	17.51, CH ₃	1.026	(s)	17.38, CH ₃
26	0.799	(s)	17.53, CH ₃	0.770	(s)	17.8, CH ₃
27	1.352	(s)	24.88, CH ₃	1.314	(s)	25.11, CH ₃
28		-	182.31, C		-	181.36, C
29	1.197	(s)	27.05, CH ₃	0.966	(s)	28.68, CH ₃
30	0.932	d, J=6.8	16.61, CH ₃	0.908	(s)	25.11, CH ₃

** $^{13}\mathrm{C}$ NMR spectra data was generated at 176.12 MHz

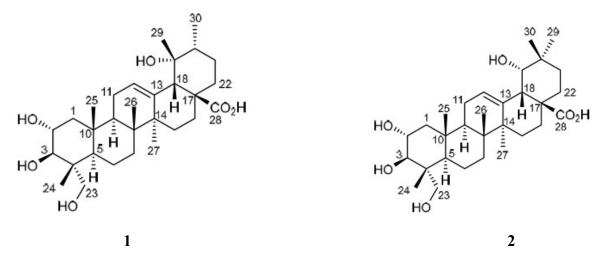


Figure 4.32: Compounds 1 and 2, isomeric mixture identified in CR-A isolated from *C*. *racemosum*

4.17.3 Structure elucidation of CR-C

CR-C (35 mg) which showed to be a mixture (1:0.9) of compounds **3** and **4** (Figure 4.33)was identified as colourless powder.HRESI-MS generated a [M-H]⁻ ion at *m/z*519.3329, consistent with a molecular formula of $C_{30}H_{48}O_7$ (calculated as $C_{30}H_{47}O_7$, with *m/z*showing 519.3327, $\Delta = 0.3$ ppm).

From Table 4.17, compounds**3** and **4** showed signal patterns with some characteristic chemical shifts in both ¹H and ¹³C experiments. The occurrence of olefinic proton in **3** and **4** resulted in the chemical shift for the proton at C-12(δ_{H-12} 5.332and δ_{H-12} 5.362, respectively).The¹³C-NMR spectra signals for the olefinic carbons were δ_{C-12} 129.54 and δ_{C-13} 139.46for **3** and δ_{C-12} 124.95 and δ_{C-13} 144.07 for **4**. Additionally, according to the DEPTq experiments, **3** and **4** showed the presence of 30 carbon atoms (Table 4.17). Six methyl (CH₃), eight methylene (CH₂), eight methine (CH) and eight quartenary carbon atoms (C)groups were identified in **3** and **4**. In the ¹H and ¹³C there were notable differences between **3** (δ_{C-19} 73.61; δ_{H-20} 1.358 (m), δ_{C-20} 43.11) and **4** (δ_{H-19} 3.271 (dd, J=3.9, 0.9 Hz), δ_{C-19} 82.47; δ_{C-20} 36.05)detected in their chemical shifts.

The chemical shifts of the olefinic signals in **3** and **4** and saturation of up-field signals (between 0 and 2 ppm) in their spectra was a preliminary indication of a pentacyclic triterpene skeleton (Table 4.17, Appendices 4a and 4b).

From extensive analysis of 1D NMR as well as 2D NMR including HMBC, HSQC and COSY, **3** and **4**(Figure 4.33) were unambiguously identified as 6β , 23-dihydroxytormentic acidcorresponding to the literature data (Dijoux *et al.*, 1993) and combregeninalso corresponding to the literature data (Ponou *et al.*, 2008), respectively.

Table 4.17:Spectroscopic data from ¹H- and ¹³C-NMRofCR-C(3 & 4) in CD₃OD solvent

Position	3				4		
	${}^{1}\mathrm{H}(\delta)^{*\mathrm{HH}}\mathrm{J}\text{-coupling}$ ${}^{13}\mathrm{C}(\delta)^{*}\mathrm{HH}^{-1}\mathrm{G}(\delta)^{*}\mathrm{HH}^{-1}\mathrm{G}(\delta)^{*}\mathrm{G}(\delta)$		¹³ C (δ)**	C (δ)** ¹ H (δ)* ^{HH} J-coupling ¹³			
	(Hz)				(Hz)		
1	1.895	dd, J=12.4, 4.6	50.09, CH ₂	1.864	(dd, 12.4, 4.6)	49.86, CH ₂	
	0.896	(m)		0.876	(m)		
2	3.742	ddd, J=11.5, 9.6, 4.6	69.71, CH	3.74	(ddd, 11.5, 9.6, 4.6)	69.69, CH	
3	3.3	d, J=9.6	78.24, CH	3.297	d, J=9.6	78.26, CH	
4		-	44.81, C		-	44.83, C	
5	1.307	d, J=2.0	48.95, CH	1.307	d, J=2.0	49.28, CH	
6	4.39	(m)	68.69, CH	4.39	(m)	68.75, CH	
7	1.833	(m)	41.4, CH ₂	1.792	(m)	41.27, CH ₂	
	1.501	(dd, 14.5, 2.7)		1.494	(dd, 14.5, 2.7)		
8		-	40.29, C		-	40, C	
9	1.828	(m)	48.93, CH	1.864	(m)	49.56, CH	
10		-	38.53, C		-	38.73, C	
11	2.07	(m)	24.72, CH ₂	2.09	(m)	24.81, CH ₂	
				2.026			
12	5.332	t, J=3.7	129.54, CH	5.362	t, J=3.7	124.95, CH	
13		-	139.46, C		-	144.07, C	
14		-	43.16, C		-	43.18, C	
15	1.885	(m)	29.54, CH ₂	1.711	(m)	29.39, CH ₂	
	1.0	(m)		1.005	(m)		
16	2.566	td, J=13.3, 4.6	$26.62,\mathrm{CH}_2$	2.277	td, J=13.3, 3.8)	28.62, CH ₂	
	1.505			1.604			
17		-	49.07, C		-	46.74, C	
18	2.525	(s)	55.15, CH	3.079	(m)	45.21, CH	
19		-	73.61, C	3.271	dd, J=3.9, 0.9	82.47, CH	
20	1.358	(m)	43.11, CH		-	36.05, C	
21	1.732	(m)	$27.3,\mathrm{CH}_2$	1.75	(m)	29.58, CH ₂	

	1.237	(m)		1.003	(m)	
22	1.73	(m)	39.03, CH ₂	1.789	(m)	34.06, CH ₂
	1.627	(m)		1.616	(m)	
23	3.583	(d, 11.1)	65.93, CH ₂	3.583	(d, 11.1)	65.93, CH ₂
	3.446	(d, 11.1)		3.452	(d, 11.1)	
24	1.068	(s)	15.23, CH ₃	1.068	(s)	15.16, CH ₃
25	1.386	(s)	19.01, CH ₃	1.377	(s)	18.82, CH ₃
26	1.084	(s)	18.49, CH ₃	1.07	(s)	18.45, CH ₃
27	1.328	(s)	24.88, CH ₃	1.288	(s)	25.07, CH ₃
28		-	182.32, C		-	182.36, C
29	1.206	(s)	27.06, CH ₃	0.94	(s)	28.66, CH ₃
30	0.933	d, J=6.7	16.6, CH ₃	0.973	(s)	25.2, CH ₃

** ¹³C NMR spectra data was generated at 176.12 MHz

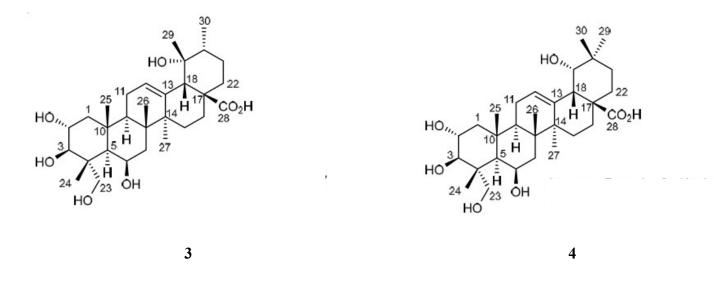


Figure 4.33: Compounds 3 and 4, isomeric mixture identified in CR-C isolated from *C*. *racemosum*

4.17.5 Structure elucidation of CR-E

CR-E (2 mg) was identified ascolourlesspowderand showed to be a mixture (1:0.74) of compounds **5** and **6**(Figure 4.34).These isomeric compounds displayed a [M-H]⁻ ion at m/z503.3384related to a molecular formula of $C_{30}H_{48}O_6$ (calculated as $C_{30}H_{47}O_6$, with m/zshowing 503.3378, $\Delta = 1.2$ ppm).

From Table 4.18, compounds **5** and **6** showed signal patternsthat were similar to each other in ¹H as well as¹³C analysis, with the carbon spectra displaying 30 signals in both. Through DEPT analysis, they were assigned as follows: eight and seven non-hydrogenated carbon (C), seven and nine methine carbons (CH), nine and eight methylene carbons (CH₂), for **6** and **5**, respectively, while showing six methyl substituents (CH₃) for each of the two compounds (Table 4.18). The signals of ¹H and ¹³Canalyses indicated distinctive shifts between **6** (δ_{H-18} 2.876 (dd, J=13.8, 3.9 Hz), δ_{C-18} 42.82; δ_{H-19} 1.71, 1.145 (m, m), δ_{C-19} 47.25; δ_{C-20} 31.61) and **5**(δ_{H-18} 2.225 (d, J=11.2 Hz), δ_{C-18} 54.47; δ_{H-19} 1.389 (m), δ_{C-19} 40.43; δ_{H-20} 0.99 (m), δ_{C-20} 40.44) (Table 4.20). The signal patterns of **5** and **6** showed some characteristic chemical shifts in both ¹H and ¹³C experiments (Tables 4.18). The presence of olefinic proton in **5** and **6** resulted in the chemical shift for the proton at C-12(δ_{H-12} 5.279and δ_{H-12} 5.295, respectively).The¹³C-NMR spectra signals for the olefinic carbons were δ_{C-12} 127.01 and δ_{C-13} 139.13for **5** and δ_{C-12} 123.72 and δ_{C-13} 144.70 for **6**.

The chemical shifts of the olefinic signals in **5** and **6** and saturation of up-field signals (between 0 and 2 ppm) in their spectra was a preliminary indication of a pentacyclic triterpene skeleton (Table 4.18, Appendices 6a and 6b).

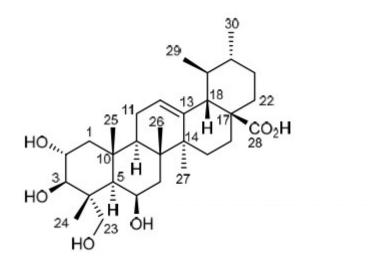
From detailed examination of 1D NMR as well as 2D NMR including HMBC, HSQC and COSY, **5** and **6**(Figure 4.34) were unambiguously identified as madecasic acid which corresponded with literature data (Van Loc *et al.*, 2018) and terminolic acid which as well corresponded with literature data (Runyoro *et al.*, 2013), respectively.

Position		5			6	
	¹ H (δ)* ^{HH} J-coupling	¹³ C (δ)**	$^{1}\mathrm{H}$	$(\delta)^{*^{HH}}$ J-coupling	¹³ C (δ)**
		(Hz)			(Hz)	
1	1.917	dd, J=12.5, 4.7	50.28, CH ₂	1.885	dd, J=12.4, 4.6	50.11, CH ₂
	0.89	(m)		0.87	(m)	
2	3.737	ddd, J=11.4, 9.7, 4.6	69.71, CH	3.73	ddd, J=11.4, 9.6, 4.6	69.68, CH
3	3.294	d, J=9.7	78.15, CH	3.289	d, J=9.6	78.15, CH
4		-	44.79, C		-	44.81, C
5	1.289	(m)	48.83, CH	1.289	(m)	48.83, CH
6	4.381	(m)	68.43, CH	4.381	(m)	68.48, CH
7	1.799	(dd, 14.5, 4.3)	41.32, CH ₂	1.772	dd, J=14.5, 4.3	41.12, CH ₂
	1.513	(dd, 14.5, 2.6)		1.492	dd, J=14.5, 2.5	
8		-	39.99, C		-	39.81, C
9	1.684	(m)	49.24, CH	1.716	(m)	49.33, CH
10		-	38.52, C		-	38.59, C
11	2.016	(m)	$24.47,\mathrm{CH}_2$	2.07	(m)	$24.58,\mathrm{CH}_2$
	2.065			1.959	ddd, J=18.2 6.4, 4.1	
12	5.279	dd, J=3.2, 4.1	127.01, CH	5.295	t, J=3.6	123.72, CH
13		-	139.13, C		-	144.7, C
14		-	43.85, C		-	43.5, C
15	2.002	(m)	29.17, CH ₂	1.852	(m)	28.8, CH ₂
	1.097	(m)		1.081	(m)	
16	2.022	(m)	25.35, CH ₂	2.008	(m)	24.08, CH ₂
	1.644			1.599		
17		-	47.24, C		-	?, C
18	2.225	d, J=11.2	54.47, CH	2.876	dd, J=13.8, 3.9	42.82, CH
19	1.389	(m)	40.43, CH	1.71	(m)	47.25, CH ₂
				1.145	(m)	

Table 4.18:Spectroscopic data from ¹H- and ¹³C-NMRofCR-E (5 & 6) in CD₃OD solvent

20	0.99	(m)	40.44, CH		-	31.61, C
21	1.508	(m)	31.81, CH ₂	1.394	(m)	$34.93, \mathrm{CH}_2$
	1.346	(m)		1.207	(m)	
22	1.693	(m)	38.16, CH ₂	1.749	(m)	33.88, CH ₂
	1.636	(m)		1.537	(m)	
23	3.582	(d, 11.1)	65.86, CH ₂	3.582	(d, 11.1)	65.86, CH ₂
	3.436	(d, 11.1)		3.436	(d, 11.1)	
24	1.06	(s)	15.26, CH ₃	1.06	(s)	15.21, CH ₃
25	1.396	(s)	19.18, CH ₃	1.384	(s)	19.03, CH ₃
26	1.113	(s)	19.11, CH ₃	1.094	(s)	18.81, CH ₃
27	1.103	(s)	24.18, CH ₃	1.147	(s)	26.47, CH ₃
28		-	181.69, C		-	181.92, C
29	0.898	d, J=6.5	17.63, CH ₃	0.912	(s)	33.56, CH ₃
30	0.966	(m)	21.56, CH ₃	0.95	(s)	23.97, CH ₃

** 13 C NMR spectra data was generated at 176.12 MHz



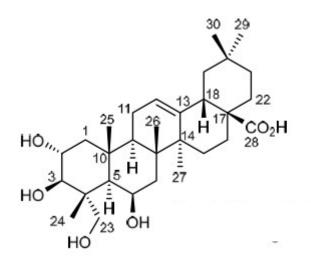


Figure 4.34: Compounds 5 and 6, isomeric mixture identified in CR-E isolated from *C. racemosum*

4.17.6 Structure elucidation of CR-G

CR-G (7.2 mg) shown as compound 7 (Figure 4.35) is a colourless amorphous powder. The MS showed molecular ion peak as m/z 264.32 [M-H] related to $C_{15}H_{20}O_4$. By means of DEPTq experiment, there were shown the presence of four methyl (CH₃), one methylene (CH₂), four methine (CH) and six quartenary carbon atoms (C) groups. Its ¹H-NMR spectrum showed the occurrence of signals due to four tertiary methyl substituents δ_{H-6} 2.022, δ_{H-7} · 1.934, δ_{H-8} · 1.064, δ_{H-9} · 1.029; a methylene group δ_{H-5} · 2.537 and δ_{H-5} · 2.182; two olefinic protons δ_{H-2} 5.759 and δ_{H-3} · 5.919; and two trans-double bond protons δ_{H-4} 7.748 and δ_{H-5} 6.206. Likewise in the ¹³C-NMR experiment, the signals due to the occurrence of an α , β - unsaturation ketone carbon δ_{C-4} · 201.05 and a carboxylic carbon δ_{C-1} 170.29 were observed. In addition, there was occurrence of three double bond groups accounting for six carbon signals (δ_{C-2} 120.75, δ_{C-3} 149.68, δ_{C-4} 129.58, δ_{C-5} 137.33, δ_{C-2} · 166.69 and δ_{C-3} · 127.52), also an oxygenated quartenary carbon δ_{C-1} · 80.60 showed (Table 4.21). The NMR data of compound 7 correlated with literature report for abscisic acid which was previously isolated and reported from Phomopsis amygdali (Ma *et al.*, 2016).

Position		7	
	${}^{1}\mathrm{H}(\delta)^{*}$	¹³ C (δ)**	
	(Hz)		
1			170.29, C
1		-	170.29, C
2	5.759	s, br	120.75, CH
2			140.69 0
3		-	149.68, C
4	7.748	d, J=16.1	129.58, CH
5	6.206	dd, J=16.1, 0.4	137.33, CH
6	2.022	d, J=1.3	21.15, CH ₃
1'		-	80.6, C
2'		-	166.69, C
3'	5.919	(m)	127.52, CH
4'		-	201.05, C
5'	2.537	d, J=15.8 br	50.68, CH ₂
	2.182	d, J=15.8, br	
6'		-	42.85, C
7'	1.934	d, J=1.4	19.62, CH ₃
8'	1.064	(s)	23.55, CH ₃
9'	1.029	(s)	24.66, CH ₃

Table 4.19:Spectroscopic data from ¹H- and ¹³C-NMR ofCR-G(7) in CDCl₃ solvent

** ¹³C NMR spectra data was generated at 176.12 MHz

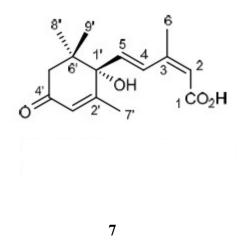


Figure 4.35: Compound 7 identified in CR-G from C. racemosum

4.17.7 Structure elucidation of CR-H

CR-H (31 mg) which showed to be a mixture (1:0.47) of compounds **8** and **9**(Figure 4.36) was identified as pale yellowish powder. The detected $[M-H]^-$ ion at *m/z*665.3929 correlated with a molecular formula of $C_{36}H_{58}O_{11}$ (calculated as $C_{36}H_{57}O_{11}^-$, with*m/z*showing 665.3906, $\Delta = 3.4$ ppm) also the MSⁿ spectra of the $[M+Na]^+$ ion at *m/z*689.5 displayed the consecutive loss of a hexosyl moiety and CO₂.

From Table 4.20, the signals of **8**as well as**9** showed some characteristic chemical shifts in both ¹H and ¹³C experiments. The presence of olefinic proton in **8** and **9** resulted in the chemical shift for the proton at C-12(δ_{H-12} 5.312and δ_{H-12} 5.336, respectively).The¹³C-NMR spectra for the olefinic carbons signals were δ_{C-12} 129.49 and δ_{C-13} 139.75for **8** and δ_{C-12} 124.78 and δ_{C-13} 144.48 for **9**.The signal patterns of the anomeric protons in **8** and **9**(δ_{H-1} , 5.322and δ_{H-1} , 1.5.375, respectively) indicated the integration of glycosides. The sugar moiety attached in**8** and **9** are connected to the oxygen of the hydroxyl moiety at position C-28.

The chemical shifts of the olefinic and anomeric proton signals in 8 and 9 and saturation of upfield signals (between 0 and 2 ppm) in their spectra was a preliminary indication of a pentacyclic triterpene skeleton with sugar moiety linkages (Table 4.20, Appendices 11a and 11b).

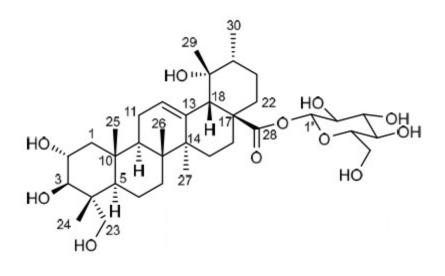
Based on detailed examination of the 1D NMR as well as 2D NMR including HMBC, HSQC and COSY information, **8** and **9** were unambiguously identified as nigaichigoside F1 corresponding to literature data (Wu *et al.*, 2007) and arjunglucoside 1 corresponding to literature data (Gossan *et al.*, 2016), respectively (Figure 4.36), which are the glycosides of 1 and 2 respectively.

Position		8			9	
	¹ Η (δ	5)* ^{HH} J-coupling	¹³ C (δ)**	$^{1}\mathrm{H}\left(\delta\right)$ *	^{HH} J-coupling	¹³ C (δ)**
		(Hz)		(Hz)		
1	1.942	dd, J=12.6, 4.5	47.97, CH ₂	1.909	dd, J=12.6, 4.5	47.79, CH ₂
	0.909	(m)		0.9	(m)	
2	3.699	ddd, J=11.5, 9.6, 4.6	69.71, CH	3.695	ddd, J=11.6, 9.6, 4.6	69.69, CH
3	3.358	d, J=9.6	78.3, CH	3.358	(m)	78.3, CH
4		-	44.12, C		-	44.13, C
5	1.297	(m)	48.23, CH	1.297	(m)	48.37, CH
6	1.446	(m)	19.24, CH ₂	1.426	(m)	19.26, CH ₂
	1.391	(m)		1.386	(m)	
7	1.653	(m)	33.51, CH ₂	1.658	(m)	33.26, CH ₂
	1.289	(m)		1.268	(m)	
8		-	41.26, C		-	40.88, C
9	1.777	(m)	48.53, CH	1.831	(m)	49.14, CH
10		-	38.99, C		-	39.16, C
11	2.022	(m)	24.8, CH ₂	2.006	(m)	24.92, CH ₂
12	5.312	t, J=3.7	129.49, CH	5.336	t, J=3.7	124.78, CH
13		-	139.75, C		-	144.48, C
14		-	42.78, C		-	42.75, C
15	1.837	(m)	29.63, CH ₂	1.671	(m)	$29.43, \mathrm{CH}_2$
	1.01	(m)		1.005	(m)	
16	2.613	td, J=13.4, 4.6	26.51, CH ₂	2.326	td, J=13.3, 3.5	$28.43, \mathrm{CH}_2$
	1.629			1.722		
17		-	49.46, C		-	47.11, C
18	2.518	(m)	54.96, CH	3.054	(m)	45.07, CH
19		-	73.63, C	3.272	(m)	82.43, CH
20	1.351	(m)	42.94, CH		-	35.95, C

Table 4.20:Spectroscopic data from ¹H- and ¹³C-NMRof CR-H(8 & 9) in CD₃OD solvent

21	1.734	(m)	27.21, CH ₂	1.766	(m)	29.5, CH ₂
	1.232	(m)		1.005	(m)	
22	1.783	(m)	38.31, CH ₂	1.784	(m)	33.29, CH ₂
	1.624	(m)		1.603	(m)	
23	3.504	d, J=11.1	66.41, CH ₂	3.504	d, J=11.1	66.39, CH ₂
	3.269	d, J=11.1		3.269	d, J=11.1	
24	0.703	(s)	13.87, CH ₃	0.703	(s)	13.79, CH ₃
25	1.038	(s)	17.6, CH ₃	1.028	(s)	17.46, CH ₃
26	0.781	(s)	17.67, CH ₃	0.751	(s)	17.82, CH ₃
27	1.344	(s)	24.73, CH ₃	1.304	(s)	25.03, CH ₃
28		-	178.54, C		-	178.58, C
29	1.205	(s)	27.06, CH ₃	0.94	(s)	28.61, CH ₃
30	0.932	d, J=6.7	16.6, CH ₃	0.951	(s)	25.16, CH ₃
1'	5.322	d, J=8.2	95.78, CH	5.375	d, J=8.2	95.81, CH
2'	3.318	(m)	73.86, CH	3.322	(m)	73.92, CH
3'	3.398	dd, J=9.2, 8.7	78.32, CH	3.404	(m)	78.32, CH
4'	3.36	(m)	71.12, CH	3.36	(m)	71.08, CH
5'	3.341	(m)	78.59, CH	3.341	(m)	78.73, CH
6'	3.798	dd, J=12.0, 2.3	$62.42,\mathrm{CH}_2$	3.82	dd, J=12.0, 2.0	62.38, CH ₂
	3.68	dd, J=12.0, 4.8		3.682	dd, J=12.0, 4.6	

** 13 C NMR spectra data was generated at 176.12 MHz



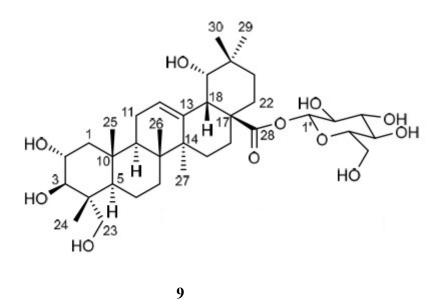


Figure 4.36:Compounds 8 and 9, isomeric mixture identified in CR-H isolated from *C*. *racemosum*

4.18 Structure elucidation of compounds isolated from *Combretum zenkeri*

4.18.1 Structure elucidation of CZ-A

The structure of **CZ-A** (5 mg) was unambiguously determined and elucidated by spectroscopic experiments including 1D NMR (¹H and ¹³C), 2D NMR (HMBC, HSQC, COSY, NOESY and TOCSY), ESI-MS and HR-ESIMS, as well asthroughliterature reports comparison. Compound **CZ-A** was found to be an isomeric mixture (1:0.4) as revealed from the spectroscopic information. The HRESIMS displayed molecular ion peak [M-H]⁻ ion at m/z 455.3535 relating to a molecular formula of $C_{30}H_{48}O_3$. The isomers were identified as ursolic acid (3β-hydroxyurs-12-en-28-oic acid) (**12**) (Venditti *et al.*, 2016) and oleanolic acid (3β-hydroxyolean-12-en-28-oic acid) (**13**) (Kipchakbaeva *et al.*, 2016) (Figure 4.37).

In both ¹H and ¹³C experiments, compound 11 showed signal pattern related to the ones in10(Table 4.21), but the difference lied in the DEPTq analysis, where 10 and 11 had seven and eight non-hydrogenated carbons(C), seven and six methine carbons (CH), nine and ten methylene carbons (CH₂), respectively, while each compoundhad seven methyl (CH₃) groups. For compound 10,¹³C NMR experiment showed at postions C-12 and C-130lefinic signals $\delta_{\rm C}$ 126.88 and $\delta_{\rm C}$ 139.66 respectively. On the other hand for compound 11, the olefinic signals at postions C-12 and C-13in¹³C experiment showed $\delta_{\rm C}$ 123.62 and $\delta_{\rm C}$ 145.25 respectively. The spectrum also showed for compound 10 ($\delta_{\rm H}$ 3.154; dd, J=11.7, 4.6) and compound 11 ($\delta_{\rm H}$ 3.147, m) at position 3. Also showed at position 18, compound 10 ($\delta_{\rm H}$ 2.203; dd, J=11.5, 1.0; $\delta_{\rm C}$ 54.38) and compound 11 ($\delta_{\rm H}$ 2.851, m; $\delta_{\rm C}$ 42.75). The chemical shifts of olefinic carbons revealed on ¹³C NMR signals help to unambiguously identify compounds 10 and 11. Previous report has confirmed that the chemical shifts of the double bond C₁₂ and C₁₃ for the olean-12ene type are around 122.0 and 144.0, respectively, while those of its isomer urs-12-ene are around 125.0 and 139.0, respectively, for the same carbons (Mahato and Kundu, 1994). This characteristic chemical sifts of oleanane and ursane triterpenes are consistent with ¹³C NMR signals generated in this study; help to establish the difference between compound 1 and 2 and elucidate their structures in the mixture.

Position		10			11	
	¹ Η (δ	6)* ^{HH} J-coupling ¹³ C	C (δ)**	${}^{1}\mathrm{H}\left(\delta\right)^{*\mathrm{H}}$	^{IH} J-coupling	¹³ C (δ)**
		(Hz)			(Hz)	
1	1.67	m, m	39.99	1.63	m, m	39.83
	1.01			0.99		
2	1.63	m	27.90	1.63	m	27.87
	1.56			1.56		
3	3.15	dd, J=11.7, 4.6	79.70	3.15	m	79.71
4	-		39.84	-		40.55
5	0.75	dd, J=11.8, 1.6	56.74	0.76	m	56.76
6	1.56	m, m	19.47	1.56	m, m	19.50
	1.42			1.42		
7	1.55	m, m	34.33	1.51	m, m	34.02
	1.34			1.32		
8	-		40.78	-		40.78
9	1.55	m	49.06	1.59	m	49.10
10	-		38.10	-		38.17
11	1.93	m	24.36	1.93	m	24.52
12	5.23	t, J=3.7	126.88	5.24	t, J=3.7	123.62
13	-		139.66	-		145.25
14	-		43.25	-		42.89
15	1.93	m, m	29.22	1.78	m, m	28.85
	1.09			1.08		
16	2.04	m	25.33	1.74	m	24.06
	1.65			1.26		
17	-		49.10	-		47.67
18	2.20	dd, J=11.5, 1.0	54.38	2.85	m	42.75
19	1.38	m	40.44	1.69	m, m	47.27
			-)	

Table 4.21: Spectroscopic information from¹H- and ¹³C-NMR generated for CZ-A (10 & 11)in CDCl₃

				1.12		
20	0.99	m	40.42	-		31.62
21	1.50	m, m	31.79	1.39	m, m	34.91
	1.35			1.20		
22	1.70	m, m	38.13	1.74	m, m	33.84
	1.63			1.54		
23	0.98	S	28.76	0.97	S	28.73
24	0.78	S	16.37	0.78	S	16.31
25	0.96	d, J=0.6	16.02	0.95	d, J=0.6	15.88
26	0.85	S	17.81	0.82	S	17.73
27	1.12	d, J=0.7	24.08	1.16	d, J=0.7	26.38
28	-		181.74	-		181.96
29	0.88	d, J=6.5	17.64	0.94	S	23.98
30	0.96	m	21.57	0.91	S	33.57

** ¹³C NMR spectra data was generated at 176.12 MHz

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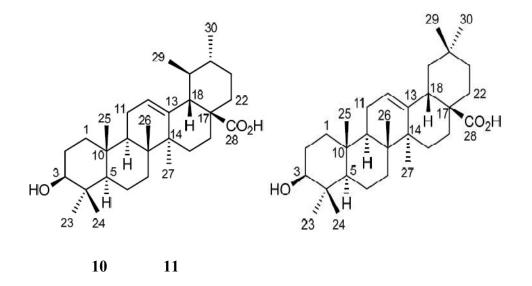
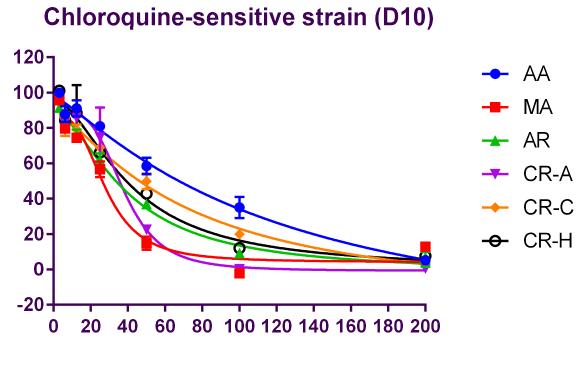


Figure 4.37: Compounds 10 and 11, isomeric mixture identified in CZ-A isolated from *C. zenkeri*

4.20 Antiplasmodial activity of isolated compounds

The compounds isolated from *C. racemosum* methanol extract, **CR-A**, **CR-C**, **CR-H**as well as single compounds arjungenin, abscisic acid, madecassic acid, were screenedagainst D10 and W2

strains forantiplasmodial action. The compounds were quantitatively tested on the P. falciparum lactate dehydrogenase (pLDH) and the values for the 50% inhibition (IC₅₀) were derived from a range of concentrations tested for the compounds. The plots of their percentage parasite growth against concentrations resulted in a sigmoidal curve, specific to P. falciparum lactate dehydrogenase (pLDH) activity inhibition (Figures 4.38 and 4.39). Compounds from C. zenkeri methanol extract, CZ-A were not tested in this experiment because the ursolic and oleanolic acidsantiplasmodial effects identified from this extract was previously reported (Cimanga et al., 2006). The isolates CR-A (IC50=33.52±12.41 µg/mL), CR-C (IC50= 49.71±18.88 µg/mL) and CR-H (IC₅₀= 41.96±15.73 µg/mL)was active against D10 strain of P. falciparum at 95% confidence interval 32.0-44.6 µg/mL, 46.9-71.0 µg/mL and 29.1-54.1 µg/mL, respectively, in concentration-response data which fitted a sigmoidal equation wellwith the statistical treatment results ($R^2 = 0.98$, Sy.x =7.1), ($R^2 = 0.98$, Sy.x = 4.9) and ($R^2 = 0.98$, Sy.x = 7.5), respectively(Table 4.22, Figure 4.38). The isolates CR-A (IC₅₀=23.08±8.17 µg/mL), CR-C (IC₅₀= $61.07\pm23.15 \ \mu g/mL$) and CR-H (IC₅₀= $33.84\pm12.53 \ \mu g/mL$)indicated activity against W2 strain of P. falciparum as well, at 95% confidence interval 13.0-24.5 µg/mL, 25.3-66.7 µg/mL and 16.2-38.0 µg/mL, respectively, their concentration-response data as well fitted a sigmoidal equation well ($R^2 = 0.95$, Sy.x =10.1), ($R^2 = 0.91$, Sy.x = 9.8) and ($R^2 = 0.97$, Sy.x = 6.5), respectively(Table 4.23, Figure 4.39). CR-A displayed the highest inhibitory action against D10 and W2 strains. The single compounds tested showed inhibition of the *P. falciparum* D10 growth, with IC₅₀ values ranging from 27.62±11.56 µg/mL to 57.04±21.81 µg/mL and they also inhibitedP. falciparum W2 growth resulted in IC50 values ranging from 17.19±4.34 µg/mL to 134.70±13.21 µg/mL.Madecassic acid was the most active compounds and its statistical treatment gave satisfactory results with $R^2 = 0.96$, Sy.x = 8.3 with IC₅₀= 27.62±11.56 µg/mL at 95% confidence interval 20.3-36 μ g/mL against the strain D10 (Table 4.22), and R² = 0.98, Sy.x = 6.6 with IC₅₀= 17.19 \pm 4.34 µg/mL at 95% confidence interval 13.9-19.5 µg/mL against the strain W2 (Tables 4.23).CR-C, abscisic acid and arjungenin showedmore potency against the D10 than against the W2, while CR-A, CR-H and madecassic acid showed less activity against D10 strain as compared to the W2 (Tables 4.22 and 4.23).



Conc µg/mL

Figure 4.38: Inhibition of *P. falciparum* parasite (D10 strain) by the isolated compounds

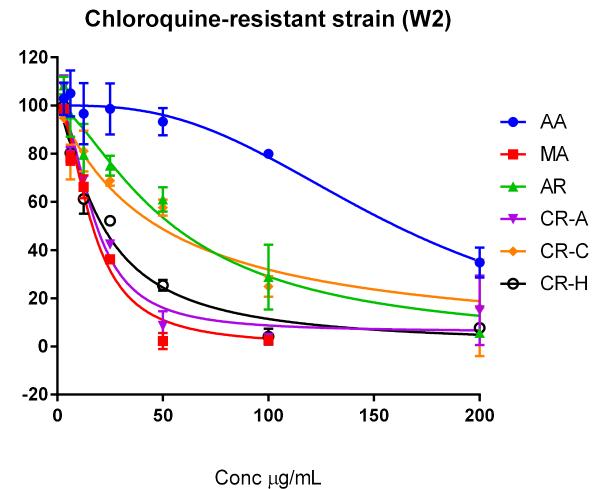
Legend:AA- absisic acid, MA- madecasic acid, AR- arjungenin, CR-A- isomeric mix of 19αhydroxyasiatic acid and arjungenin, CR-C- isomeric mix of 6β, 23-dihydroxytormentic acid+ combregenin, CR-H- isomeric mix of arjunglucoside I and nigaichigoside F1

Table 4.22: Antiplasmodial activity of compounds from C. racemosum against D10

D10 (IC ₅₀ µg/mL) ^a	C.I (µg/mL)	\mathbf{R}^2	Sy.x	_
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CR-A	33.52 ± 12.41	32.0-44.6	0.98	7.1
CR-C	49.71 ± 18.88	46.9-71	0.98	4.9
СК-Н	41.96 ± 15.73	29.1-54.1	0.98	7.5
Abscisic Acid	57.04 ± 21.81	63.6-119	0.98	4.9
Madecassic Acid	27.62 ± 11.56	20.3-36.0	0.96	8.3
Arjungenin	41.06 ± 16.92	32.4-50.4	0.99	4.0

^aIC₅₀ values were generated, from duplicate results of three separate experiments, as mean±SD



.0

Figure 4.39: Inhibition of *P. falciparum* parasite (W2 strain) by the isolated compounds

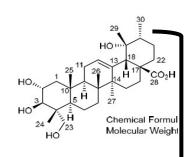
Legend:AA- absisic acid, MA- madecasic acid, AR- arjungenin, CR-A- isomeric mix of 19αhydroxyasiatic acid and arjungenin, CR-C- isomeric mix of 6β, 23 dihydroxytormentic acid and combregenin, CR-H- isomeric mix of arjunglucoside I and nigaichigoside F1

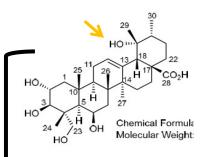
Table 4.23: Antiplasmodial activity of compounds from C. racemosum against W2 strain

$\mathbf{W}_{\mathbf{Z}} (\mathbf{I} \mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{S}}) = \mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{I}} (\mathbf{\mu}_{\mathbf{S}}) \mathbf{I} \mathbf{L} \mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{S}} (\mathbf{\mu}_{\mathbf{S}}) \mathbf{I} \mathbf{L} \mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{S}} (\mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{S}}) \mathbf{L} \mathbf{L} \mathbf{L} \mathbf{L} \mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{S}} (\mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{S}}) \mathbf{L} \mathbf{L} \mathbf{L} \mathbf{L} \mathbf{L} \mathbf{L} \mathbf{L} \mathbf{L}$		W2 (IC ₅₀		\mathbf{R}^2	Sy.x
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	μg/mL) ^a			
CR-A	23.08 ± 8.17	13.0-24.5	0.95	10.1
CR-C	61.07 ± 23.15	25.3-66.7	0.91	9.8
CR-H	33.84 ± 12.53	16.2-38.0	0.97	6.6
Abscisic Acid	134.70 ± 13.21	123.0-188.1	0.93	7.4
Madecassic Acid	17.19 ± 4.34	13.9-19.5	0.98	6.6
Arjungenin	64.36 ± 9.31	37.3-71.5	0.96	8.5

 $^{a}IC_{50}$ values were generated, from duplicate results of three separate experiments, as mean±SD





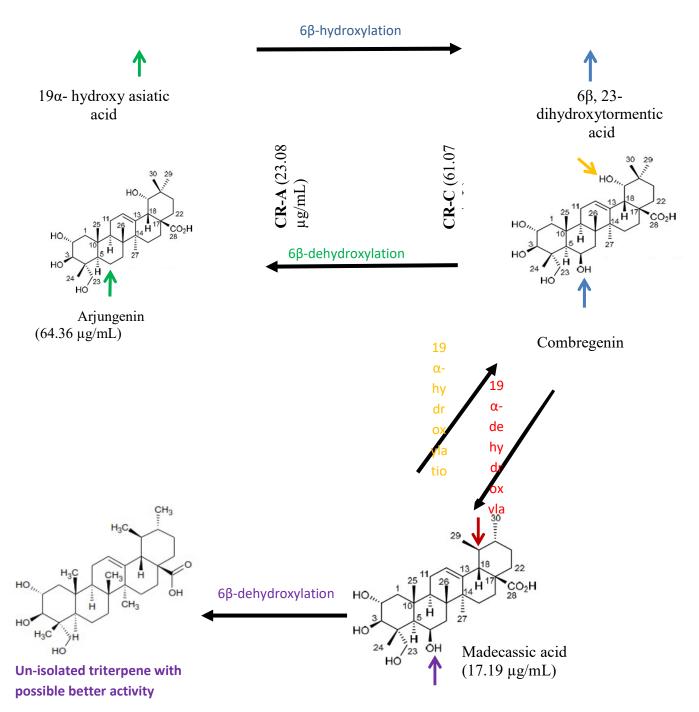


Figure 4.40: Schematic representation of structure-activity relationship (SAR) of compounds isolated

CHAPTER FIVE

5.0DISCUSSIONS

5.1 Antimalarial activity of selected medicinal plants from Combretaceae family

Antimalarial activities of different medicinal plants using the *in vitro* β -hematin (hemozoin) synthesisinhibition has been described by Vargas *et al.*(2011). All medicinal plants screened in this work are all from the plant family Combretaceae.

Malaria infectionis as a result of the invasion of human host by Plasmodium parasite through mosquito bites.Considerable amount of heme is produced in the course of intra-erythrocytic cycleas a toxic by-product due to more than 75% of the host hemoglobin being ingested by the parasite (Tekwani and Walker, 2005). Afterwards, insoluble hemozoin is bio-synthesized through an in-built mechanism of detoxification developed by the parasite inorder protect itself from the self-formed toxicity (Mojarrab et al., 2014). β-hematincomprises of cyclic heme dimers, same as hemozoin, having intermolecular hydrogen bonding configured in awellorganized crystalline structure. It is presumed to be the most confirmed sitefor detoxification. pathway is This confirmedfor а number ofantimalarials such as the 4aminoquinolines:chloroquine,quinine, amodiaquine,mefloquine; therefore considered a suitable drug target (Egan, 2003). To evaluate antimalarial activities on the basis of difference in solubility of heme and β -hematin, lots of different *in vitro* methods have been exploited (Tekwani and Walker, 2005; Vargas et al., 2011). Eighteen leaf extracts of ten Combretaceae species were investigated in this study for antimalarial activities using *in vitro* method. Our findings showed that theextracts of eight plants demonstrated hemozoin (β-hematin) formation inhibition, suggesting presence of antimalarial compounds. The results showed that extracts with different mode of extraction exhibit different degrees of antimalarial activities as shown in Table 4.1.

Many of the plants studied are prepared in ethnomedicine by alcoholic decoction, hence, the reason for the extraction methods adopted in this work (Atindehou *et al.*, 2004); also solvents of intermediate polarity have been shown to possess the highest extraction capacity for both non-polar and polar constituents of plants (Eloff *et al.*, 2005). Thus, it was revealed that the percentage yield of all the acetone extracts are higher than that of the methanol (Table 4.1),

which suggests that acetone (intermediate polar solvent) extract more phytocompounds than methanol (polar solvent) which supports the report of Eloff *et al.* (2005).

The monitoring of the complex formed in the course of the assay between pyridine and heme (Py-Fe(III)PPIX) resulting to a red colouration, was doneusing UV/visible spectrophotometer at different concentrations. The procedure for the β -hematin synthesis suitable for screening of extracts from plants, as carried out in the present study, was adapted from Vargas et al. (2011). Antimalarial potential is shown by the β -hematin synthesis inhibition of an extract, wherea high absorbance value of the sample is indicative of increased β -hematin synthesis inhibition. The inhibition of β -hematin synthesis by the extracts is dose independent as revealed in Figure 4.2. Among the seven extracts experimented for their activity using the β -hematin model, *Terminalia ivorensis* methanol extract (TIM) showed the highest activity(IC₅₀: 2.58 \pm 0.447 mg/mL) (Figure 4.2 and Table 4.2). Other polar extracts, Combretum zenkeri (CZM) and Combretum racemosum (CRM) methanol extracts were also determined as significantly potent antimalarial extracts (IC₅₀: 2.92 ± 0.846 and 3.96 ± 0.132 mg/mL, respectively). An earlier report by Komlaga et al. (2016) has also showed the potency of Terminalia ivorensis in an antiplasmodial assay indicating the occurrence of antimalarial agents in the plant. But information regarding theantimalarial activities of the other two promising Combretaceae plants is still scanty.

Cobbinah(2008) showed thattriterpenoids, saponins, steroids, flavonoids, anthraquinone glycosides, polyphenols and tanninsare present in various extracts of *Terminalia ivorensis*. Alsoreported in the leaves of *Combretum zenkeri*were flavonoids, saponins, alkaloids as well as tannins(Ujowundu *et al.*, 2010). Onocha *et al.*, 2005 reported that alkaloids, steroids, saponins and tannins were shownin different extracts of *Combretum racemosum*. Samuel *et al.* (2014) in a separate study isolated a flavonoid from the acetone extract of *C. racemosum*. This correlate with the report of Rodrigues *et al.* (2012), which described some of the identified phytochemicals in some *Combretum* species. Dibua *et al.* (2013) identified saponins, terpenoids, steroids, glycosides, and acidic compounds as possible antimalarial agents in plants used as antimalarials in ethnomedicine. Thus, it is plausible to assume that all the aforementionedclass of secondary metabolites present in these plants could contribute to the high antimalarial activity observed and maybe also in other Combretaceae used traditionally in

treating malaria. The outcomes of the preliminary study validated the traditional use of these plants as revealed from earlier reports (Atindehou *et al.*, 2004).

The mode of action responsible for antimalarial activity in beta-hematin assay can be evaluated, therefore, giving it an advantage to be informative (Vargas *et al.*, 2011).

The most suitable and regular methods for bioactive moleculesdiscovery from plants is reported to be ethnopharmacological screening(Kuria, 2001). Furthermore, the ethnopharmocological informations gathered from this study could permit forjustification in relation to the bio-prospect of the plants used in treating malaria.

5.2*Combretum racemosum*

The outcomes of the antiplasmodial screening of the fractions were earlier reported in Chapter 4(Table 4.6 and 4.7), and according to these results, CHCl₃ fraction was selected and subjected to fractionation, sub-fractionation and purification stepsusing different chromatographic techniquesleading to unequivocally identifying fourursane-type pentacyclic triterpenoids: 19 α -hydroxyasiatic acid (1), 6 β , 23-dihydroxytormentic acid (3),madecassic acid (5),nigaichigoside F1 (8); four oleanane-type pentacyclic triterpenoids: arjungenin (2), combregenin (4), terminolic acid (6), and arjunglucoside I (9) and one plant hormone: abscisic acid (7). Mixtures of two isomeric triterpenes were contained in each of the isolatesCR-A, CR-C, CR-E, CR-Gas well asCR-H.

5.2.1 Isolation of compounds

Fractionation and isolation of phytochemicals are always preceeded by the development of TLC chromatograms of extracts or fractions of interest. This is an important step to aid the selection of most appropriate solvent system for subsequent column separation. The TLC chromatogram of *C. racemosum* methanol extract in this study has shown the presence of terpenoids (R_f 0.2-0.55) when developed with toluene/ethyl acetate 90:10 (Figure 4.3A1) and when developed with ethyl acetate/methanol/water 40:4.5:4 (R_f 0.5-0.8) (Figure 4.3B1) as mobile phases. This was obvious by the characteristic violet colour of the chromatograms afterspraying of anisaldehyde-sulphuric acid reagent to visualise in the visible. This is in agreement with previous report that anisaldehyde-sulphuric acid spray reagent is suitable derivatisation reagent for optimal colour detection (violet or violet red) of TLC spots due to triterpenes (Wagner and Bladt, 1996).

The non-polar toluene/ethyl acetate 90:10 mobile phase obviously could not move some compounds up from the base line; using ethyl acetate/methanol/water 40:4.5:4 which is a relatively more polar mobile phase became necessary. This system was able to reveal the presence of compounds with prominent yellow and green fluorescent zones which indicated flavonoids by spraying with natural product/polyethylene glycol 400 detection reagent and characterised under UV-365 nm (Figure 4.3 B4). The chromatogram of *C. racemosum* n-butanol fraction showed similar pattern in its TLC synopsis evident by the intense green and yellow fluorescence, thereby revealing flavonoids (Figure 4.6 B). These characteristics support earlier report that flavonoids are characterized on TLC with the presence of green, yellow and/or orange fluorescent zones when sprayed with natural product/polyethylene glycol 400 as detection reagent and view under UV-365 nm (Wagner and Bladt, 1996). However, further investigation on these flavonoids was not included in this report as it became not the focus of this study due to the direction of the bioactivity towards chloroform fraction.

Consequent upon the bioactivity of the fractions tested, the chloroform fraction enriched with triterpenes was selected for further fractionation on silica column flash chromatography, which employs pressure, much more higher thanopen column chromatography, for elution of the fractions down the column. It gives chance for higher amounts of sample to be used and time of fractionation step reduces significantly (Roge et al., 2011). This liquid chromatographic technique using medium-pressure coupled with ELSD and DAD was used in this study to separate the fractions before further purifying on open column chromatography to afford pentacyclic triterpenes.For the selection of most suitable mobile phase for flash chromatography on silica gel,TLC is considered as the first-line and most appropriate approach (Wei et al., 2013). More reason the TLC of the chloroform fraction was carried out (Figure 4.5), and chloroform/methanol was chosen as suitable starting solvent system in the subsequent flash chromatography. Separation and purification of compounds present in plants by the use of flash column chromatography has been reported by many studies. Using chloroform/methanol as eluent, bioactive principles such as scopoletin and triterpenoids demonstratingantioxidant as well as antimicrobial activities were isolated from Acmella oleracea methanol extract (Prachayasittikul et al. 2009). Flash chromatography was used to carry out isolation of spilanthol from fractions using hexane/ethyl acetate as mobile phase (Mbeunkuiet al., 2011). Purifications were also carried out using open-column chromatography

with silica gel. This was achieved by the use of 2 mL/30 minutes (0.1 mL/min) on an automatic fraction collector. This very low flow rate was necessary to avail the compounds the opportunity for extended time of interaction with the stationary phase. This is because the TLC profiles of some of the semi-purified compounds in their respective fractions showed spots that were too close, therefore, increasing their solute-stationary phase percolation time increased their retention time thereby afforded better resolution of the various components. In cases where there were a little more complex mixtures of compounds in the fractions, the length of the column used was inceased to allow more distance travelled by the solutes by the mobile phases; this is believed to be an important factor that may influence increased separation and resolution of compounds in a mixture.

Fractions 12, 13 and 14 became the isolate CR-A (24.76 mg), a white amorphous powder obtained from a gradient elution of increasing polarity order starting from chloroform/methanol/water95:1.5:0.1 and ended at chloroform/methanol/water60:30:2.5 in a total run time of 221 hours. But CR-A was produced from F318 (FCRC14_12) to F325 (FCRC14_14) (Table 4.9, Figure 4.17); and isolation was achieved at the gradient mobile phase CHCl₃/MeOH/H₂O 85:8:0.5 between 42-45 hours 30 minutes of this gradient (Table 3.1). The TLC analysis showed it to have single spot (mobile phase chloroform/methanol 80:20; R_f 0.75; see Figure 4.18). The violet colour of the single spot was an indication of triterpene when sprayed with anisaldehyde-sulphuric acid detection reagent (Wagner and Bladt, 1996).

Fractions 10-14 (from FCRC16_3) became the isolate CR-C (44.6 mg), a white amorphous powder obtained from a gradient elution of increasing polarity order starting from CHCl₃/MeOH/H₂O 85:8:0.5 and ended at CHCl₃/MeOH/H₂O 75:15:1.5 in a total run time of 190 hours. But CR-C was produced from F148 (FCRC16_3_10) to F274 (FCRC16_3_14) (Table 4.11, Figure 4.20); and isolation was achieved at the gradient mobile phase CHCl₃/MeOH/H₂O 85:8:0.5 between 74-137 hours of this gradient (Table 3.2). TLC analysis showed it to have single spot (mobile phase ethyl acetate/methanol 80:20; R_f 0.63; see Figure 4.21). The violet colour of the single spot was a confirmation of triterpene when sprayed with anisaldehyde-sulphuric acid detection reagent (Wagner and Bladt, 1996).

CR-E was obtained from FCRC16_3_5 as a white amorphous powder from a preparative TLC. Acetone was used instead of methanol to extract CR-E from its mixture with silica gel that was

scrapped from the TLC plate. This was because using methanol may dissolve some amount of silica as impurity into the isolate. TLC analysis showed it to have single spot (mobile phase chloroform/methanol 80:20; $R_f 0.7$; see Figure 4.23). The violet colour of the single spot was an indication of triterpene when sprayed with anisaldehyde-sulphuric acid detection reagent (Wagner and Bladt, 1996).

Fractions 9-11 became the isolate CR-G (8.4 mg), a white amorphous powder obtained from a gradient elution of increasing polarity order starting from chloroform/methanol/water 95:1.5:0.1 and ended at chloroform/methanol/water 85:8:0.5 in a total run time of 110 hours. But CR-G was produced from F156 (FCRC7_10) to F186 (FCRC7_11) (Table 4.12, Figure 4.24); and isolation was achieved at the gradient mobile phase CHCl₃/MeOH/H₂O 85:8:0.5 between 32-47 hours of this gradient (Table 3.3). The TLC analysis showed it to have single spot (mobile phase chloroform/methanol 80:20; R_f 0.63; see Figure 4.25). The violet-blue colour of the single spot was an indication of triterpene when sprayed with anisaldehyde-sulphuric acid detection reagent (Wagner and Bladt, 1996).

Fractions 4-6 (from FCRC17) became the isolate CR-H (32.9 mg), a pale yellow amorphous powder obtained from a gradient elution of increasing polarity order starting from EtoAc/MeOH/H₂O 97.5:2.5:0 and ended at EtoAc/MeOH/H₂O 65:30:0.2 in anoverall run period of 167 hours 30 minutes. But CR-H was produced from F139 (FCRC17_4) to F156 (FCRC17_6) (Table 4.13, Figure 4.26a); and isolation was achieved at the gradient mobile phase EtoAc/MeOH/H₂O 85:15:0.1 between 15-23 hours 30 minutes of this gradient (Table 3.4). The TLC analysis showed it to have single spot (mobile phase ethyl acetate/methanol 75:25; R_f 0.38; see Figure 4.27). The violet-blue colour of the single spot was an indication of triterpene when anisaldehyde-sulphuric acid spray reagent was used for detection (Wagner and Bladt, 1996).

5.2.2 Structure elucidation of compounds isolated

The NMR with the MS had been useful tools in the elucidation of structures of natural compounds for many decades. The application of these techniques had been useful for identifying of compounds from several classes of secondary metabolites including triterpenoids.

The NMR and MS spectra information generated for all compounds from *C. racemosum* in this study revealed eight pentacyclic triterpenes: four ursane-type and four oleanane-type, as

well as a plant hormone. The similarities in the NMR spectra of the compounds of pentacyclic triterpenes showed that they belong to a class of chemical compounds- pentacyclic triterpenoids. They consist of six isoprene units $(C_5H_8)_6$ formed by the cyclization of the linear squalene molecule. The pentacyclic triterpenes contain five rings: A, B, C, D and E; based on their structural backbone, also are categorised intolupane, ursane and oleananetypes (Figure 5.1). The stereochemistry of these class of compounds shows the general trans-linked formation of A/B, B/C, C/D rings in oleananes as well as ursanes, whereascis-linked form are revealed in D/E rings (Algahtaniet al., 2013). The lupanes shows trans-fusedrings in A, B, C, D, E; the ring E is present as a five-membered. The molecules have all their rings saturated with too many methyl (CH₃), methylene (CH₂) and methine (CH) groups with one or more olefinic (C=C) signals present, and this is the reason for the increased degree of hydrophobicity related with these class of compounds.Polyhydroxylation at positions C -2, -3, -6, -7, -11, -15, -16, -19; the unsaturation present at C-12/13; functionalisation of the methyl substituents at positions C -23, -28 or -30 (hydroxymethylene, esters, carboxyl, aldehyde or sugar moieties) and many others, are all the main structural characterisation of these classes. The occurrence of carboxyl moiety in the aglycones orin the glycosides confers acidic properties on several of the pentacyclic triterpenoids. The compounds identified in this study demonstrated a number of these characterisation which supported their identification as triterpenes. The compounds in the pentacyclic triterpenoid group show a lot of similarities in their NMR spectra, but differ by their characteristic signals peculiar to each type under the group. In this study, only ursane and oleanane types were clearly identified. The oleananes possess a geminal-dimethyl groups onposition C-20, while the ursane-types possess methyl substituents atpostions C-19 as well as C-20. The chemical shifts of the C12/C13 double bond for oleananes are always around 122.0 and 144.0, respectively, while those of the ursanes are around 125.0 and 139.0, respectively, for the same carbons (Mahato and Kundu, 1994).

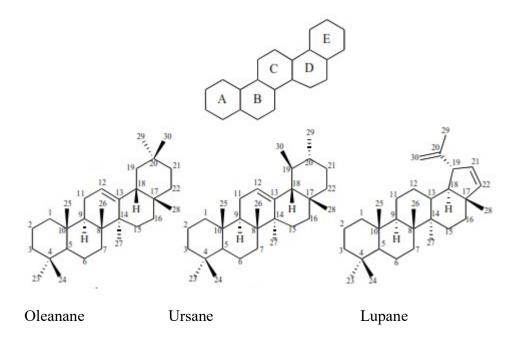


Figure 5.1: Skeletal structure of the main pentacyclic triterpenes

Compound CR-A (Figure 4.32), a colourless amorphous powder, was elucidated as isomeric mixture of 19 α -hydroxyasiatic acid (1) and arjungenin (2) by comparing with literatures(Zebiri *et al.*, 2017; Gossan *et al.*, 2016) its NMR and MS spectra information.

The HRESI-MS displayed an [M-1] peak at m/z 503.3388, consistent with a molecular formula of $C_{30}H_{48}O_6$ (calculated as $C_{30}H_{47}O_6^-$, with m/z showing 503.3378) (Appendix 1b).Also, [M+Na]⁺ and [M+COO]⁻ molecular ions were detected at m/z 527.3337 and m/z 549.3443, respectively. Fragmentation pattern at m/z 485 indicated loss of H₂O from m/z 503 in [M-H]⁻ molecular ion. From the molecular formula, seven degrees of unsaturation were obvious with one among them as a result of the occurrence of carbonyl group at C-28, and another one also as a result of one double bond in ring C and five among them as a result of pentacyclic ring system.

Compounds1 and 2 showed very similar signal patterns in their ¹H NMR spectra information(Table 4.16; Appendix 2a). They exhibited the same doublet signals (each d, J= 11.1 Hz) which integrated for 2H-atoms at δ_{H-23} 3.505 and 3.275, and accounted for the hydrogen atoms of an oxymethylene groupattached to a quartenary sp³ carbon atom. Another similar signal pattern in the ¹H NMR experiment for 1 and 2 is shown in the triple-doublet signal at δ_{H-2} 3.696 (each d, J= 11.5, 9.6 and 4.6 Hz, integrated for 1H-atom), doublet signal at δ_{H-3} 3.361 (J= 9.6 Hz, integrated for 1H-atom) in compound 1 and triple-doublet signal at δ_{H-2} 3.693 (each d, J= 11.5, 9.6 and 4.6 Hz, integrated for 1H-atom), doublet signal at δ_{H-3} 3.358 (J= 9.6 Hz, integrated for 1H-atom) in compound 2, which are attributable a hydrogen attached to an oxygenated sp^3 carbon in a cyclic system for both 1 and 2. Five tertiary methyl substituents, singlet signals at ($\delta_{H}0.704$, 1.035, 0.799, 1.352 and 1.197) which were attributable to methyl groups attached to quartenary carbon atoms were shown in the spectrum of 1, and detection of one doublet signal at $\delta_{\rm H}0.932$ (J= 6.8) of secondary methyl groupattached to a methine carbon; which indicated ursane-type triterpenes. However, the spectrum of 2 showed the detection of six singlet signals ($\delta_{\rm H}0.704$, 1.026, 0.770, 1.314, 0.966 and 0.908) of tertiary methyl groups which is attributable to methyl groups attached to quartenary carbon atoms which is indicative of oleanane-type triterpenes. The geminaldimethyl groups at position-20 in $\mathbf{2}$ is an indication of oleanane-type triterpenes.

One double bond system displayed in C-ring of both 1 and 2 corresponded to the presence of one olefinic proton signal(δ_{H-12} 5.296 and δ_{H-12} 5.324) respectively and is attributable to a

hydrogen atom attached to a vinyl carbon. This signal is indicative of both oleanane- and ursane-type triterpenes (Gossan *et al.*, 2016).

The spectra of ${}^{13}C$ as welldisplayed similarities in the signal pattern of compounds 1 and 2(Tables 4.16 and 5.1 and Appendix 2b). They exhibited signals for 30 carbons in the DEPTq experiment: Compound 1showed one carboxyl at low field (δ_{C-28} 182.31), one double bond $(\delta_{C-12} 129.23; \delta_{C-13} 140.15)$, one sp³ oxygenated methylene ($\delta_{C-23} 66.34$), two sp³ oxygenated methine (δ_{C-2} 69.7 and δ_{C-3} 78.26), one sp³ oxygenated quartenary carbon (δ_{C-19} 73.57), six methyl groups, eight sp³methylene groups, four sp³ methine groups and five quartenary carbons, and compound **2**likewise showed one carboxyl at low field (δ_{C-28} 181.36), one double bond (δ_{C-12} 124.7; δ_{C-13} 144.75), one sp³ oxygenated methylene (δ_{C-23} 66.33), three sp³oxygenated methine (δ_{C-2} 69.68, δ_{C-3} 78.25 and δ_{C-19} 82.43), six methyl groups, eight sp³ methylene groups, four sp³ methine groups and five quartenary carbons. But the actualdissimilarity in the DEPTq analysis showed that1had quartenary carbon at position 19 while 2had a methine carbon at same position, also 1 had a methine carbon at position 20 while 2possessed a quartenary carbon at this position (Table 4.16, Figure 4.32). Compound 1 and 2, based on the spectra data in this study, were proposed to belong to the ursane-and oleanane-types triterpene (Mahato and Kundu, 1994). In rings A-D, there were presence of superimposable signals in both 1 and 2 by comparing their ¹H and ¹³C data, but with differences shown only in ring E. Furthermore, 1 and 2exhibited substantial differencein chemical shifts for¹H signals $\delta_{\rm H}$ 2.50 (H-18), $\delta_{\rm H}$ 1.35 (H-20) and $\delta_{\rm H}$ 3.06 (H-18), $\delta_{\rm H}$ 3.26 (H-19) respectively, and ¹³C-NMR signals δ_{C-18} 55.08, δ_{C-19} 73.57, δ_{C-20} 43.09 and δ_{C-18} 45.18, δ_{C-19} 82.43, δ_{C-20} 36.03 of 1 and 2 respectively (Table 4.16). This difference was particularly influenced by the different substitution between positions 19 and 20. The HMBC correlations between H-18/C-19, H₂-21/C-19, H₃-30/C-19 and H₃-29/C-19 in compound 1 and 2, also H-19/C-18, H-19/C-21, H-19/C-29 and H-19/C-30 in only 2established the location of the ahydroxyl substituent at position C-19 (Appendix 2d). Moreso between δ_{H-18} (3.057) and δ_{H-19} $^{1}\mathrm{H}-^{1}\mathrm{H}$ COSY (3.256), observation of correlationin compound 2(Appendix 2c) which additionally established the occurrence of the hydroxyl moiety positioned at C-19. The α axial direction of hydroxyl moiety located at C-19 in 2was inferred by the strong NOESY correlations at the 19-B-H position with 18-B-H and 18-B-H position with 30-B-methyl position, and the small coupling constant at H-19 [$\delta_{\rm H}$ 3.256 (1H, dd, J= 3.9, 0.8 Hz)], while the hydroxyl at C-19 in 1was deduced to be α -orientation by NOESY correlation at 29- β -methyl position with 18- β -H position and 18- β -H position with 20- β -H position.

The deshielding effect observed in **2**at C-19 (δ_{C} 82.43) relative to **1**(δ_{C-19} 73.57) is believed to be due to the decrease in electron density at C-19 after the methyl substitution has moved to C-20.

The¹³C-NMR data ofring A-D signals in1showed similarities with those of asiatic acid (Masoko *et al.*, 2008) but differ in the signals of ring E, likewise, compound **2**with those of arjunolic acid were similar in ring A-D but differ also in the signals of ring E carbon atoms (Masoko *et al.*, 2008). This is suggested to be as a result of the occurrence of α -hydroxyl substitution at C-19 in ring E in both **1** and **2**;and the downfield signals of $\delta_{C-18}55.08$, $\delta_{C-19}73.57$ and $\delta_{C-20}43.09$ in 1compared to asiatic acid, and $\delta_{C-18}45.18$, $\delta_{C-19}82.43$, $\delta_{C-20}36.03$ in **2**compared to arjunolic acid was in agreement with this.

In HMBC spectra data, the correlations between H₂-11 ($\delta_{\rm H}$ 2.021) and the two vinylic carbons at C-12 and C-13 suggested a Δ^{12} -unsaturated double bond. The HSQC correlations (Appendix 2e) between H-18/ C-13 and H₂-11/C12 with also the data of¹H-¹H COSY which revealed that it was only H₂-11 that had direct correlation with the olefinic proton (H-12) further affirmed the double bond to be located at C-12 (Figure 4.32). Also, the location of double bond at C-12 was inferred by HMBC correlations between the carbons C-9, C-11, C-14, C18 and olefinic proton H-12.

In the HMBC experiment, the observation of cross-peaks in the spectra between H_3 -24 and signals at C-3 as well as C-23 showed the occurrence of a secondary hydroxyl moiety at C-3 and a C-4 hydroxymethylene. The chemical shift of C-24 confirmed that this primary hydroxyl moietywas located at C-23. Also by comparing the spectra of 13 C with the ones of asiatic acid as well as arjunolic acid (hydroxyl present at C-23) together with hyptatic acid A (hydroxyl present at C-24) (Mahato and Kundu, 1994), further agreed with the C-23 hydroxyl location.

The correlations in the HMBC between H-2/C-1, H-2/C-3, H-2/C-5, H-2/C-9, H-2/C-10, H-2/C-25 and H₂-1/C-2 with also the data of 1 H- 1 H COSY showingcorrelation between H-2 and H-3 all proposed the location of hydroxyl moiety at C-2.

In the HSQC spectrum, H-2/C-3 and H-3/C-2 exhibited correlations; and also the large vicinal coupling in the data of 1 H- 1 H COSY spectrum between H-2 (J= 11.5, 9.6 Hz) and H-3 (J= 9.6 Hz), all together proposed a *quasitrans*-diaxial relationship between them. In the

NOESY spectrum (Appendix 2f), H-3 and H-5 as well as H-9 and H-27 showed correlations which confirmed the β -axial direction of the secondary hydroxyl at postion C-3. The NOESY correlations shown between H-2 and protons at H-24 and H-25 as well as between H-25 and H-26, established the α -orientation of the C-2 hydroxyl moiety.

From a different species of the genus *Combretum (Combretum quadrangulare)*, Adnyana *et al.* (2001) had previously identified 19α -hydroxyasiatic acid (1), also Zebiri *et al.* (2017) reported it to be isolated from species of another genus(*Poraqueiba sericea*), but this study is the first report of it in *Combretum racemosum*. Arjungenin(2) was formerly identified by Ponou *et al.* (2008) from the stem bark of *Combretum molle*, andit was also identified Gossan *et al.* (2016) from the root of *Combretum racemosum*, however, this is the first time it is identified from *Combretum racemosum* leaves.

CD₃OD solvent				
Position	1		2	
	¹³ C experimental	¹³ C literature *	¹³ C experimental	¹³ C literature **
1	47.9	47.9	47.72	47.7
2	69.7	69.7	69.68	69.7
3	78.26	78.3	78.25	78.3
4	44.13	44.1	44.14	44.1
5	48.18	48.2	48.33	48.4
6	19.22	19.2	19.25	19.3
7	33.53	33.5	33.33	33.3
8	41.06	41.1	40.73	40.7
9	48.5	48.5	49.1	49.1
10	39.99	39.0	39.17	39.2
11	24.76	24.8	24.89	24.9
12	129.23	129.2	124.7	124.7
13	140.15	140.2	144.75	144.8
14	42.72	42.7	42.71	42.7
15	29.57	29.6	29.43	29.4
16	26.59	26.6	28.58	28.6
17	49	48.9	46.69	46.7
18	55.08	55.1	45.18	45.2
19	73.57	73.6	82.43	82.5
20	43.09	43.1	36.03	36.0
21	27.28	27.3	29.49	29.5
22	39.02	39.0	34.03	34.0
23	66.34	66.4	66.33	66.4
24	13.87	13.9	13.8	13.8
25	17.51	17.5	17.38	17.4
26	17.53	17.6	17.8	17.8
27	24.88	24.9	25.11	25.1

Table 5.1: The ¹³C-NMR of experimental and literature data for compounds 1 and 2 in CD₃OD solvent

28	182.31	182.3	181.36	182.4
29	27.05	27.1	28.68	28.7
30	16.61	16.6	25.11	25.1

*Zebiri et al., 2017

**Gossan *et al.*, 2016

Compound CR-C (Figure 4.33), a colourless amorphous powder, was elucidated as isomeric mixture of 6β , 23-dihydroxytormentic acid (3) and combregenin (4) by comparing with literatures (Dijoux *et al.*, 1993; Gossan *et al.*, 2016)its NMR and MS spectra information.

The HRESI-MS (Appendix 3b)displayed an [M-1] peak at m/z 519.3329, consistent with a molecular formula of $C_{30}H_{48}O_7$ (calculated as $C_{30}H_{47}O_7^-$, with m/z showing 519.3327). Also, $[M+Na]^+$ and $[M+COO]^-$ molecular ions were detected at m/z 543.3273 and m/z 565.3381 respectively. From the molecular formula, seven degrees of unsaturation were obvious with one among them as a result of the occurrence of carbonyl group at C-28, and another one also as a result of one double bond in ring C and five among them as a result of pentacyclic ring system.

From Table 4.17, ¹H information of compound 3revealed very similar signal pattern to compound 4(Appendix 4a). ¹H-NMR spectra of **3** and 4revealed similar doublet signals at (δ_{H-} $_{23}$ 3.583, 3.446) and (δ_{H-23} 3.583, 3.452), respectively, (each d, J= 11.1 Hz, which integrated for 2H-atoms), and characterized the hydrogen atoms of a oxymethylene groupattached to a quartenary sp³ carbon atom. Another similar signal pattern in the ¹H NMR experiment for **3** and **4** is shown in the triple-doublet signal at δ_{H-2} 3.742 (each d, J= 11.5, 9.6 and 4.6 Hz, which integrated for 1H-atom), doublet signal at δ_{H-3} 3.300 (J= 9.6 Hz, which integrated for 1Hatom) in compound 3, and triple-doublet signal at δ_{H-2} 3.740 (each d, J= 11.5, 9.6 and 4.6 Hz, which integrated for 1H-atom), doublet signal at δ_{H-3} 3.297 (J= 9.6 Hz, which integrated for 1H-atom) in compound 4, which are attributable to a hydrogen attached to an oxygenated sp³ carbon in a cyclic system for both **3** and **4**. Five tertiary methyl substituents, singlet signals at $(\delta_{\rm H}1.068, 1.386, 1.084, 1.328 \text{ and } 1.206)$ which were attributable to methyl groups attached to quartenary carbon atoms were shown in the spectrum of 3, and the detection of one doublet signal at $\delta_{\rm H}0.933$ (J= 6.7 Hz) of a secondary methyl substituentattributable to a methylattached to a methine carbon; which indicated ursane-type triterpenes. However, the spectrum of 4 showed the detection of six singlet signals at ($\delta_{\rm H}$ 1.068, 1.377, 1.070, 1.288, 0.940 and 0.973) of tertiary methyl groups which were attributable to methyl groups attached to quartenary carbon atoms which is indicative of oleanane-type triterpenes. The geminal-dimethyl groups at position-20 in 4 is an indication of oleanane-type triterpenes.

The presence of one olefinic proton (δ_{H-12} 5.332) and (δ_{H-12} 5.362) in both **3** and **4**, respectively corresponded to the occurrence of one double bond system in ring Cwhich was attributable to

a hydrogen atom attached to a vinyl carbon. This signal is indicative of both oleanane- and ursane-type triterpenes (Gossan *et al.*, 2016).

The spectra of ¹³C(Appendix 4b) as wellindicated similarities in the signal pattern of compounds 3 and 4(Tables 4.17 and 5.2). They exhibited signals for 30 carbons in the DEPTq experiment: Compound **3** showed one carboxyl at low field (δ_{C-28} 182.32), one double bond (δ_{C-12} 129.54; δ_{C-13} 139.46), one sp³ oxygenated methylene carbon (δ_{C-23} 65.93) attributed to carbon attached to a primary hydroxyl group, three sp³oxygenated methine carbon (δ_{C-2} $69.71, \delta_{C-3}$ 78.24 and δ_{C-6} 68.69) attributed to carbons attached to secondary hydroxyl groups, one sp³ oxygenated quartenary carbon (δ_{C-19} 73.61) attributed to a carbon attached to tertiary hydroxyl group, six methyl, seven sp³ methylene, four sp³ methine and five quartenary carbons, and compound 4likewise showed one carboxyl at low field (δ_{C-28} 182.36), one double bond (δ_{C-12} 124.95; δ_{C-13} 144.07), one sp³ oxygenated methylene carbon (δ_{C-23} 65.93) attributed to a carbon attached to a primary hydroxyl group, four sp³oxygenated methine carbon (δ_{C-2}) 69.68, δ_{C-3} 78.25, δ_{C-6} 68.75 and δ_{C-19} 82.43), six methyl, seven sp³ methylene, four sp³ methine and five quartenary carbons. But with the actual dissimilarity in the DEPTq analysis showing that **3** had quartenary carbon at position 19 while **4** had a methine carbon at same position, also 3 had a methine carbon at position 20 while 4 possessed a quartenary carbon at this position(Table 4.1; Figure 4.33). These spectra data in this study suggested that compound 3 was an ursane-type triterpenoid and compound 4 was an oleanane-type triterpenoid (Mahato and Kundu, 1994). In rings A-D, there were presence of superimposable signals in both 3 and 4 by comparing their ¹H and ¹³C data, but with differences shown only in ring E. Additionally, **3** and 4indicated considerable difference in chemical shifts for ${}^{1}H[\delta_{H} 2.525 (H-18), \delta_{H} 1.358 (H-18)]$ 20)] and $[\delta_{\rm H} 3.079 \text{ (H-18)}, \delta_{\rm H} 3.271 \text{ (H-19)}]$ respectively, and ¹³C-NMR signals $[\delta_{\rm C-18} 55.15,$ $\delta_{C-19}73.61$, $\delta_{C-20}43.11$ and [$\delta_{C-18}45.21$, $\delta_{C-19}82.47$, $\delta_{C-20}36.05$] of **3** and **4** respectively (Table 4.17). This difference was particularly influenced by the different substitution between positions 19 and 20.The HMBC correlations (Appendix 4d) between H-18/C-19, H₂-21/C-19, H₃-30/C-19 and H₃-29/C-19 in compound 3 and 4, also H-19/C-18, H-19/C-21, H-19/C-29 and H-19/C-30 in only 4 established the location of α -hydroxyl group at position C-19. Moreso, the observed correlation in the ¹H-¹H COSY spectrum (Appendix 4c) between δ_{H-18} (3.079) and δ_{H-19} (3.271) in compound 4additionally established the occurrence of hydroxyl moietypositioned at C-19. The α-axial direction of hydroxyl moiety located at C-19 in 4 was

inferred by the strong NOESY correlations at the 19- β -H position with 18- β -H and 18- β -H position with 30- β -methyl position, and the small coupling constant at H-19 [$\delta_{\rm H}$ 3.271 (1H, dd, J= 3.9, 0.8 Hz)], while the hydroxyl at C-19 in **3**was deduced to be α -orientation by NOESY correlation at 29- β -methyl position with 18- β -H position and 18- β -H position with 20- β -H position.

The deshielding effect observed in 4at C-19 (δ_{C} 82.47) relative to **3**(δ_{C-19} 73.61) is believed to be due to the decrease in electron density at C-19 after the methyl substitution has moved to C-20.

In HMBC spectra data, the correlations between H₂-11 for $3(\delta_{H}2.070)$,H₂-11 for 4 ($\delta_{H}2.090$) and the two vinylic carbons at C-12 and C-13 suggested a Δ^{12} -unsaturated double bond in both **3** and **4**. The HSQC correlations between H-18/ C-13 and H₂-11/C12with also the data of ¹H-¹H COSY showing that it was only H₂-11 that had direct correlation with the olefinic proton (H-12) further established the double bond is C-12 positioned (Figure 4.33). Also, the location of double bond at position C-12 was inferred by HMBC correlations between the carbons C-9, C-11, C-14, C-18, C-27 and olefinic proton H-12. The observation of the cross-peaks in the spectra of the HMBC experiment, between H₃-24 and signals at C-3 as well as C-23 showed the occurrence of a secondary hydroxyl moiety at C-3 also a hydroxymethylene at C-4. The chemical shift of C-24 confirmed that this primary hydroxyl moiety was located at C-23.

The HMBC correlations between H-2/C-1, H-2/C-3, H-2/C-5, H-2/C-9, H-2/C-10, H-2/C-25 and H₂-1/C-2 with the observed correlations in the¹H-¹H COSY spectrum between H-1 and H-2; taken all together proposed a hydroxyl moiety was positioned at C-2.

In the HSQC spectrum (Appendix 4e), H-2/C-3 and H-3/C-2 exhibited correlations; and also the large vicinal coupling in the data of ¹H-¹H COSY spectrum between H-2 (J= 11.5, 9.6 Hz) and H-3 (J= 9.6 Hz), all together proposed a *quasitrans*-diaxial relationship between them. In the NOESY spectrum, H-3 and H-5 as well as H-9 and H-27 showed correlations which confirmed the β -axial orientation of the secondary hydroxyl at C-3. The NOESY correlations shown between H-2 and protons at H-24 and H-25, between H-25 and H-26, confirmed the α orientation of the hydroxyl at C-2.

Compounds**3** and **4**showedthat their signal patterns have respective similarities with the ones of **1** and **2** in¹H and ¹³C analyses (Tables 4.17 and 4.16). The ¹³C-NMR information of compound **3**compared with 19 α -hydroxyasiatic acid also isolated in this study as compound

1,showed similarities in rings A and C-E signals but differ in some signals of ring B, likewise, compound 4with those of arjungeninwhich was also isolated in this study as compound 2 were similar in rings A and C-E but differ also in some signals of ring B carbon atoms. This is suggested to be as a result of α -hydroxyl substitution present at C-6 in ring B in both 3 and 4. The occurrence of hydroxyl moiety in this location in 3 and 4 is responsible for substantial increase in the chemical shifts for the protons at C-6 from δ_{H-6} 1.469 (1) and 1.414 (m, m) (2) to δ_{H-6} 4.39 (m) (3 and 4). The resonances at C-6 postion in 13 C moved from δ_{C-6} 19.22 (1)and δ_{C-6} 19.25 (2) to δ_{C-6} 68.69 (3) and δ_{C-6} 68.75 (4). Also, based on the DEPTq analyses, a methylene carbon was indicated for 1 and 2at C-6 position (Table 4.16) while methine carbon occurred at same location for 3 and 4 (Table 4.17).

The HMBC cross peaks showing the correlations between H-6/C-4, H-6/C-5, H-6/C-7, H-6/C-8, H-6/C-10, and H₂-7/C-6 with the observed correlation in the¹H-¹H COSY spectrum between H-7 and H-6 all proposed the location of a hydroxyl moiety was at C-6. The HSQC spectra data showed correlations H-6/C-7 as well as H-7/C-6; also the large vicinal coupling constant at H-7 [$\delta_{\rm H}$ 1.501 (J= 14.5)]additionally inferred the presence of hydroxyl moiety at C-6 postion in both **3** and **4**.

In the NOESY spectrum, H-6 and H-5 as well as H-9 and H-27 showed correlations which confirmed the β -axial orientation of the secondary hydroxyl at C-6.

Compound **3** identified as 6β , 23-dihydroxytormentic acid was formerly isolated from leaves of *Aphloia madagascariensis* (Dijoux *et al.*, 1993). Compound **4**identified as combregenin was earlier isolated from stem bark of *Combretum molle* (Ponou *et al.*, 2008), and also Gossan *et al.* (2016) identified it from the root of *Combretum racemosum*.

The genus *Combretum* as well as the Combretaceae family has generated several pentacyclic triterpenes, but this study represent the first time, to the best of my knowledge, 6β , 23-dihydroxytormentic acid(3) is reported to have been identified from the genus or the family. Its isomer, combregenin(4), though has already been isolated from the root of *Combretum racemosum*, but this is the first time it is identified from the leaves of *Combretum racemosum*.

Position	3	3		4	
	¹³ C experimental	¹³ C literature *	¹³ C experimental	¹³ C literature **	
1	50.09	50.4	49.86	49.9	
2	69.71	69.7	69.69	69.7	
3	78.24	78.3	78.26	78.3	
4	44.81	44.8	44.83	44.8	
5	48.95	49.4	49.28	49.3	
6	68.69	68.7	68.75	68.7	
7	41.4	40.4	41.27	41.3	
8	40.29	41.4	40.0	40.0	
9	48.93	48.9	49.56	49.5	
10	38.53	38.6	38.73	38.7	
11	24.72	24.7	24.81	24.8	
12	129.54	129.5	124.95	125.0	
13	139.46	139.5	144.07	144.0	
14	43.16	43.2	43.18	43.2	
15	29.54	29.6	29.39	29.4	
16	26.62	26.7	28.62	28.6	
17	49.07	49.5	46.74	46.7	
18	55.15	55.1	45.21	45.2	
19	73.61	73.6	82.47	82.5	
20	43.11	43.1	36.05	36.0	
21	27.3	27.3	29.58	29.6	
22	39.03	39.0	34.06	34.0	
23	65.93	66.0	65.93	66.0	
24	15.23	15.2	15.16	15.2	
25	19.01	19.0	18.82	18.4	
26	18.49	18.5	18.45	18.2	
27	24.88	24.9	25.07	25.1	

Table 5.2: The ¹³C-NMR experimental and literature data for compounds 3 and 4 in CD₃OD solvent

28	182.32	182.5	182.36	182.3
29	27.06	27.1	28.66	28.7
30	16.6	16.6	25.2	25.2

*Dijoux *et al.*, 1993

**Ponou et al., 2008; Gossan et al., 2016

Compound CR-E (Figure 4.34), a colourless amorphous powder, was elucidated as isomeric mixture of madecassic acid (5) and terminolic acid (6) by comparing with literatures(Van Loc *et al.*, 2018; Gossan *et al.*, 2016) its NMR and MS spectra data information.

The HRESI-MS (Appendix 5b) displayed [M-1] peak at m/z 503.3384, consistent with a molecular formula of $C_{30}H_{48}O_6$ (calculated as $C_{30}H_{47}O_6$, with m/z showing 503.3378). Also, $[M+Na]^+$ as well as $[M+COO]^-$ molecular ions were detected at m/z 527.33 and m/z 549.3439 respectively. From the molecular formula, seven degrees of unsaturation were obvious with one among them as a result of the occurrence of carbonyl group at C-28, and another one also as a result of one double bond in ring C and five among them as a result of pentacyclic ring system.

From Table 4.18,¹H NMR spectra information (Appendix 6a) of compound 5and 6displayed very similar signal patterns. ¹H-NMR spectra of **5** and **6**showed the same doublet signals(each d, J= 11.1 Hz) which integrated for 2H-atoms at δ_{H-23} 3.582 and 3.436, and were accounted for the hydrogen atoms of a oxymethylene groupattached to a quartenary sp³ carbon atom. Another similar signal pattern in the ¹H NMR experiment for **5** and **6**; is shown in the tripledoublet signal at δ_{H-2} 3.737 (each d, J= 11.4, 9.7 and 4.6 Hz, integrated for 1H-atom), doublet signal at δ_{H-3} 3.294 (J= 9.7 Hz, integrated for 1H-atom) in compound 5, and triple-doublet signal at δ_{H-2} 3.730 (each d, J= 11.4, 9.6 and 4.6 Hz, integrated for 1H-atom), doublet signal at δ_{H-3} 3.289 (J= 9.6 Hz, integrated for 1H-atom) in compound 6, which are typical of a hydrogen attached to an oxygenated sp^3 carbon in a cyclic system for both 5 and 6. Four tertiary methyl groups, singlet signals at ($\delta_{\rm H}$ 1.061, 1.396, 1.113 and 1.103) which were attributable to methyl groups attached to quartenary carbon atoms were shown in the spectrum of 5, and the detection of two signals [$\delta_{\rm H}0.898$ (d, J= 6.7) and $\delta_{\rm H}0.966$, m] of secondary methyl substituents ascribed to methyl groups attached to methine carbons; which indicated ursane-type triterpenes. However, the spectrum of $\mathbf{6}$ showed the detection of six singlet signals of tertiary methyl substituents at (δ_{H} 1.060, 1.384, 1.094, 1.147, 0.912 and 0.950) which areascribed to methyl groups attached to quartenary carbon atoms which is indicative of oleanane-type triterpenes. The geminal-dimethyl groups at position-20 in 6 is an indication of oleanane-type triterpenes.

The presence of one olefinic proton (δ_{H-12} 5.279) and (δ_{H-12} 5.295) in both 5 and 6 respectively corresponded to the occurrence of one double bond system in ring C which accounted for a

hydrogen atom attached to a vinyl carbon. This signal is indicative of both oleanane- and ursane-type triterpenes (Gossan *et al.*, 2016).

The ¹³C-NMR spectra (Appendix 6b) also showed similarities in the signal pattern of compounds 5 and 6(Tables 4.18 and 5.3). They exhibited signals for 30 carbons in the DEPTq experiment: Compound 5 showed one carboxyl at low field (δ_{C-28} 181.69), one double bond $(\delta_{C-12} 127.01; \delta_{C-13} 139.13)$, one sp³ oxygenated methylene carbon ($\delta_{C-23} 65.86$) attributed to carbon attached to a primary hydroxyl group, three sp³oxygenated methine carbon (δ_{C-2} 69.71, δ_{C-3} 78.15 and δ_{C-6} 68.43) attributed to carbons attached to secondary hydroxyl groups, six methyl, seven sp³ methylene, five sp³ methine and five quartenary carbons, and compound **6** likewise showed one carboxyl at low field (δ_{C-28} 181.92), one double bond (δ_{C-12} 123.72; δ_{C-13} 144.70), one sp³ oxygenated methylene carbon (δ_{C-23} 65.86) attributed to a carbon attached to a primary hydroxyl group, three sp³oxygenated methine carbon (δ_{C-2} 69.68, δ_{C-3} 78.15 and δ_{C-6} 68.48), six methyl, eight sp³ methylene, three sp³ methine and six quartenary carbons. But the actual dissimilarity in the DEPTq analysis showed that 5had methine group at position 19 while 6 had a methylene group at same position, also 5 had a methine carbon at position 20 while 6 possessed a quartenary carbon at this position(Table 4.18 and Figure 4.34). These spectra data in this study suggested that compound 5 was an ursane-type triterpenoid and compound 6 was an oleanane-type triterpenoid (Mahato and Kundu, 1994). In rings A-D, there were presence of superimposable signals in both 5 and 6 by comparing their ¹H and ¹³C data, but with differences shown only in ring E. Additionally, 5 and 6 showed slightly different chemical shifts in both ¹H-NMR spectra [δ_{H-18} 2.225 (d, J= 11.2 Hz), δ_{H-19} 1.389, δ_{H-20} 0.990] and [$\delta_{\rm H}$ 2.876 (dd, J= 13.8, 3.9 Hz) (H-18), $\delta_{\rm H}$ 1.710, 1.145(H-19)] respectively, and ¹³C-NMR spectra [δ_{C-18} 54.47, δ_{C-19} 40.43, δ_{C-20} 40.44] and [δ_{C-18} 42.82, δ_{C-19} 47.25, δ_{C-20} 31.61] of **5** and 6respectively (Table 4.18). This difference was particularly influenced by the methyl substitution between positions 19 and 20.

The deshielding effect observed in 6at C-19 (δ_{C} 47.25) relative to 5(δ_{C-19} 40.43) is believed to be due to the decrease in electron density at C-19 after the methyl substitution has moved to C-20.

In HMBC spectra data, the correlations between H₂-11 for **5** ($\delta_{\rm H}$ 2.016), H₂-11 for **6** ($\delta_{\rm H}$ 2.070) and the two vinylic carbons at C-12 and C-13 suggested a Δ^{12} -unsaturated double bond in both **5** and **6**. The HSQC correlations between H-18/C-13 and H₂-11/C12 along with the data of ¹H-

¹H COSY spectrum which showed that it was only H_2 -11 that had direct correlation with the olefinic proton (H-12) further established the double bond is positioned at C-12 (Figure 4.34). Also, the correlations in the HMBC data between the carbons C-9, C-11, C-14, C18, C-27 and olefinic proton H-12 inferred C-12 as the location of the double bond.

In the HMBC experiment (Appendix 6d), the cross-peaks observed in the spectra between H₃-24 and signals at C-3 and C-23 showed the occurrence of a secondary hydroxyl moiety at C-3 and a hydroxymethylene at C-4. The chemical shift of C-24 confirmed that this primary hydroxyl moiety was located at C-23. The HMBC correlations between H-2/C-1, H-2/C-3, H-2/C-5, H-2/C-9, H-2/C-10, H-2/C-25 as well as H₂-1/C-2 together with the observed correlation in the data of¹H-¹H COSY spectrum between H-1 and H-2; and the large vicinal coupling constant at H-1 [$\delta_{\rm H}$ 1.917 (J= 12.5)] and [$\delta_{\rm H}$ 1.917 (J= 12.4)] respectively for **5** and **6**, taken all together proposed a hydroxyl moiety was positioned at C-2.

The correlations of H-2/C-3 and H-3/C-2displayed in the HSQC spectrum proposed a *quasitrans*-diaxial relationship between them. In the NOESY spectrum, H-3 and H-5 as well as H-9 and H-27 showed correlations which confirmed the β -axial orientation of the secondary hydroxyl at C-3. The NOESY correlations shown between H-2 and protons at H-24 and H-25, as well as H-25 and H-26, established the α -orientation of the hydroxyl at C-2.

Compounds**5** and **6**showed signal patterns with respective similarities to the ones of **3** and **4** in¹H as well as¹³C analyses (Tables 4.18 and 4.17). The ¹³C-NMR information of compound **5**compared with6 β , 23-dihydroxytormentic acid also isolated in this study as compound **3**, showed similarities in rings A-D signals butdiffer in some signals of ring E, likewise, compound **6**with those of combregenin which was also isolated in this study as compound **4** were similar in rings A-D but differ also in some signals of ring E carbon atoms. This is suggested to be as a result of the occurrence of α -hydroxyl substitution at C-19 in ring E in both **3** and **4**. The occurrence of hydroxyl moiety at this position in **3**as well as**4** led to substantialchemical shift increase for the C-19position from δ_{H-19} 1.389 (m), δ_{C-19} 40.43 and δ_{H-19} 1.71, 1.145 (m, m), δ_{C-19} 47.25 respectively for **5** and **6** to δ_{C-19} 73.61 and δ_{H-19} 3.271, (dd, J=3.9, 0.9 Hz); δ_{C-19} 82.47 respectively for **3** and **4**. Furthermore, based on the DEPTq analyses, **3** and **4** showed the occurrence of quartenary carbonand methine carbon respectively at C-19 position(Table 4.17, Figure 4.33) whereas**5** and **6** in this same locationdisplayed the occurrence of methine carbon and methylene group respectively (Table 4.18, Figure 4.34).

The HMBC cross peaks showing the correlations of H-6/C-4, H-6/C-5, H-6/C-7, H-6/C-8, H-6/C-10, and H₂-7/C-6 with the observed correlation in the data of¹H-¹H COSY spectrum between H-7 and H-6 all proposed the location of a hydroxyl moiety wasC-6. HSQC spectra data showed correlations H-6/C-7 as well as H-7/C-6; also large vicinal coupling constant at H-7 ([$\delta_{\rm H}$ 1.799 (J= 14.5)] and [$\delta_{\rm H}$ 1.772 (J= 14.5)])established further the presence of hydroxyl moiety at C-6 postion in both **3** and **4** respectively.

In the NOESY spectrum, H-6 and H-5 as well as H-9 and H-27 showed correlations which confirmed the β -axial orientation of the secondary hydroxyl at C-6.

Compound 5 identified as madecassic acid was formerly isolated from *Centella asiatica* (Van Loc *et al.*, 2018).From *Combretum zeyheri* leaves, compound 6 identified as terminolic acidwas earlier isolated (Runyoro *et al.*, 2013), and was more recently identified from *Combretum racemosum*root (Gossan *et al.*, 2016).

This is the first report, to the best of my knowledge,of madecassic acid(5) to have been identified from the genus *Combretum* and the Combretaceae family and its isomer, terminolic acid(6), though has already been isolated from the root of *Combretum racemosum*, but this is the first time it is identified from the leaves of *Combretum racemosum*.

Position	5	5		6	
	¹³ C experimental	¹³ C literature *	¹³ C experimental	¹³ C literature **	
1	50.28	50.08	50.11	50.1	
2	69.71	69.68	69.68	69.7	
3	78.15	78.14	78.15	78.2	
4	44.79	44.77	44.81	44.8	
5	48.83		48.83	48.8	
6	68.43	68.45	68.48	68.5	
7	41.32	41.29	41.12	41.1	
8	39.99	39.96	39.81	39.8	
9	49.24		49.33	49.3	
10	38.52	38.97	38.59	38.6	
11	24.47	24.45	24.58	24.6	
12	127.01	127.0	123.72	123.7	
13	139.13	139.08	144.7	144.7	
14	43.85	43.82	43.5	43.5	
15	29.17	29.15	28.8	28.8	
16	25.35	25.33	24.08	24.6	
17	47.24		?	48.5	
18	54.47	54.42	42.82	42.8	
19	40.43	40.40	47.25	47.3	
20	40.44	40.40	31.61	31.6	
21	31.81	31.79	34.93	34.9	
22	38.16	38.13	33.88	33.9	
23	65.86	65.86	65.86	65.9	
24	15.26	15.26	15.21	15.2	
25	19.18	19.19	19.03	18.9	
26	19.11	19.09	18.81	19.1	
27	24.18	24.20	26.47	26.5	

Table 5.3: The ¹³C-NMR showing experimental and literature data for compounds 5 and 6 in CD₃OD solvent

28	181.69	182.64	181.92	181.9
29	17.63	17.65	33.56	33.6
30	21.56	21.59	23.97	24.0

*Van Loc *et al.*, 2018

**Gossan *et al.*, 2016; Runyoro *et al.*, 2013

Compound CR-G (Figure 4.35), a colourless powder, was elucidated as absisic acid by comparing with literature its NMR and MS spectra information (Ma*et al.*, 2016).

The HRESI-MS (Appendix 7b) displayed a [M-1] peak at m/z 263.1288 relating to a molecular formula of $C_{15}H_{20}O_4$. From the molecular formula, six degrees of unsaturation were obvious with one among them as a result of the occurrence of lone ring, and another one also as a result of double bond in ring, two due to carbonyl group at C-1 and C-4', and two among them as a result of double bonds in the aliphatic chain.

By means of DEPTq experiment, there were shown the presence of four methyl (CH₃), one methylene (CH₂), four methine (CH) and six quartenary carbon atoms (C). Its ¹H-NMR spectrum showed the occurrence of signals due to four tertiary methyl substituents δ_{H-6} 2.022, $\delta_{H-7'}$ 1.934, $\delta_{H-8'}$ 1.064, $\delta_{H-9'}$ 1.029; a methylene group $\delta_{H-5'}$ 2.537, (d, J=15.8 Hz, br) and $\delta_{H-5'}$ 2.182, (d, J=15.8 Hz, br); two trans-double bond protons δ_{H-4} 7.748, (d, J=16.1 Hz) and δ_{H-5} 6.206, (dd, J=16.1, 0.4 Hz); and two olefinic protons δ_{H-2} 5.759, (s, br) and $\delta_{H-3'}$ 5.919, (m). Likewise in the data of ¹³C-NMR spectrum, the resonance due to the occurrence of an α , β -unsaturation ketone carbon $\delta_{C-4'}$ 201.05 and a carboxylic carbon δ_{C-1} 170.29 were observed. In addition, six olefinic carbons attributed to three double bonds (δ_{C-2} 120.75, δ_{C-3} 149.68, $\delta_{C-4'}$ 129.58, δ_{C-5} 137.33, $\delta_{C-2'}$ 166.69 and $\delta_{C-3'}$ 127.52) were present, including one oxygenated quartenary carbon $\delta_{C-1'}$ 80.60 shown (Table 4.19). NMR information of compound 7 correlated with the ones reported in literature for abscisic acid (Table 5.4) which was previously identified and reported from *Phomopsis amygdali* (Ma *et al.*, 2016).

Although the NMR spectrum of CR-G (Appendice 8a to 8h) showed mixture of other signals suggested to be due to triterpenoid isomers, but complete assignment of these signals were not possible (Appendix 9) as a result of signals were very broad, no carbon signals in the direct ¹³C NMR, very broad cross peaks in the HSQC and HMBC spectra. Nevertheless, the signals due to abscisic acid were unambiguously identified and assigned completely.

Position	Compound 7		
	¹³ C experimental	¹³ C literature *	
1	170.29	167.2	
2	120.75	118.6	
3	149.68	151.1	
4	129.58	128.6	
5	137.33	138.4	
6	21.15	19.2	
1'	80.6	80.0	
2'	166.69	163.2	
3'	127.52	127.3	
4'	201.05	197.4	
5'	50.68	50.3	
6'	42.85	42.2	
7'	19.62	21.2	
8'	23.55	23.5	
9'	24.66	24.7	

 Table 5.4: The ¹³C NMR of experimental and literature data for compound 7 in CDCl₃ solvent

*Ma et al., 2016

Compound CR-H (Figure 4.36), a pale yellow powder, was elucidated as isomeric mixture of nigaichigoside F1 (8) and arjunglucoside I (9) by comparing with literatures(Wu *et al.*, 2007; Gossan *et al.*, 2016) its NMR and MS spectra information.

The HRESI-MS (Appendix 10b) displayed a [M-1] peak at m/z 665.3929, consistent with a molecular formula of $C_{36}H_{58}O_{11}$ (calculated as $C_{36}H_{57}O_{11}$, with m/z showing 665.3906). Also, [M+Na]⁺ as well as [M+COO]⁻ molecular ions were detected at m/z 689.38 and m/z 711.3983 respectively. From the molecular formula, seven degrees of unsaturation were obvious with one among them as a result of the occurrence of carbonyl group at C-28, and another one also as a result of one double bond in ring C and five among them as a result of pentacyclic ring system. The ¹H-NMR spectra (Appendix 11a) information of compound **8**exhibited very similar signal patterns to compound 9 (Table 4.20). ¹H NMR spectra of 8 and9showed the same doublet signal (each d, J= 11.1 Hz) which integrated for 2H-atoms at δ_{H-23} 3.504 and 3.269 and were attributable to hydrogen atoms of a oxymethylene groupattached to a quartenary sp³ carbon atom. Another similar signal pattern in the ¹H NMR experiment for 8 and **9** is shown in the triple-doublet signal at δ_{H-2} 3.699 (each d, J= 11.5, 9.6 and 4.6 Hz, which integrated for 1H-atom), doublet signal at δ_{H-3} 3.358 (J= 9.6 Hz, which integrated for 1Hatom) in compound 8, and triple-doublet signal at δ_{H-2} 3.695 (each d, J= 11.6, 9.6 and 4.6 Hz, which integrated for 1H-atom), doublet signal at δ_{H-3} 3.358 (J= 9.6 Hz, which integrated for 1H-atom) in compound 9, and aretypical of a hydrogen attached to an oxygenated sp³ carbon in a cyclic system for both 8 and 9. Five tertiary methyl substituents, singlet signals at $(\delta_{\rm H}0.703, 1.038, 0.781, 1.344 \text{ and } 1.205)$ which were attributable to methyl groups attached to quartenary carbon atoms were shown in the spectrum of 8, and detection of one doublet signalat $\delta_{\rm H}0.932$ (J= 6.7) of secondary methyl group accountable for a methyl substituentattached to a methine carbon; which indicated ursane-type triterpenes. However, the spectrum of 9 showed the detection of six singlet signals at ($\delta_{\rm H}0.703$, 1.028, 0.751, 1.304, 0.940 and 0.951) of tertiary methyl substituents which were attributable to methyl substituents attached to quartenary carbon atoms which is indicative of oleanane-type triterpenes. The geminal-dimethyl groups at position-20 in 9 is an indication of oleanane-type triterpenes.

The presence of one olefinic proton (δ_{H-12} 5.312) and (δ_{H-12} 5.336) in both 8 and 9 respectively corresponded to the occurrence of one double bond system in ring C, also were typical of a

hydrogen atom attached to a vinyl carbon. This signal is indicative of both oleanane- and ursane-type triterpenes (Gossan *et al.*, 2016).

The spectra of ¹³C(Appendix 11b) as welldisplayed similarities in the signal pattern of compounds 8 and 9(Tables 4.20 and 5.5). They exhibited signals for 36 carbons in the DEPTq experiment: Compound 8 showed one carboxyl at low field (δ_{C-28} 178.54), one double bond $(\delta_{C-12} 129.49; \delta_{C-13} 139.75)$, one sp³ oxygenated methylene ($\delta_{C-23} 66.41$), two sp³oxygenated methine carbon (δ_{C-2} 69.71 and δ_{C-3} 78.30), one sp³ oxygenated quartenary carbon (δ_{C-19} 73.63), six methyl, eight sp³ methylene, four sp³ methine, five quartenary carbons, one glycosidic methylene carbon and five glycosidic methine carbons, and compound 9likewise showed one carboxyl at low field (δ_{C-28} 178.58), one double bond (δ_{C-12} 124.78; δ_{C-13} 144.48), one sp³ oxygenated methylene (δ_{C-23} 66.39), three sp³oxygenated methine carbon (δ_{C-2} 69.69, δ_{C-3} 78.30 and $\delta_{C_{2}19}$ 82.43), six methyl, eight sp³ methylene, four sp³ methine, five quartenary carbons, one glycosidic methylene carbon and five glycosidic methine carbons. But the actual dissimilarity in the DEPTq analysis showed that 8 had quartenary carbon at position 19 while 9 had a methine carbon at same position, also 8 had a methine carbon at position 20 while 9 possessed a quartenary carbon at this position(Table 4.20; Figure 4.36). These spectra data in this study suggested that compound $\mathbf{8}$ was an ursane-type triterpenoid and compound $\mathbf{9}$ was an oleanane-type triterpenoid (Mahato and Kundu, 1994). In rings A-D, there were presence of superimposable signals in both 8 and 9 by comparing their ¹H and ¹³C data, but with differences shown only in ring E. Additionally, 8 and 9exhibited substantial difference in chemical shifts for <code>^1Hsignals \delta_H 2.518</code> (H-18), $\delta_H 1.351$ (H-20) and $\delta_H 3.054$ (H-18), $\delta_H 3.272$ (H-19) respectively, then¹³C-NMR signals δ_{C-18} 54.96, δ_{C-19} 73.63, δ_{C-20} 42.94 and δ_{C-18} 45.07, δ_{C-19} 82.43, δ_{C-20} 35.95 of **8** and **9** respectively (Table 4.20). This difference was particularly influenced by the different substitution between positions 19 and 20. The HMBC (Appendix 11d) correlations between H-18/C-19, H₂-21/C-19, H₃-30/C-19 and H₃-29/C-19 in compound 8 and 9, also H-19/C-18, H-19/C-21, H-19/C-29 and H-19/C-30 in only 9 confirmed the location of α -hydroxyl group at C-19. Moreso, the observed correlation of the data of ¹H-¹H COSY spectrum between δ_{H-18} (3.054) and δ_{H-19} (3.272) in compound 9 additionally established the occurrence of hydroxyl moietypositioned at C-19. The α -axial direction of hydroxyl moiety located at C-19 in9 was inferred by the strong NOESY correlations at the 19-β-H position with 18-β-H and 18-β-H position with 30-β-methyl position, while the hydroxyl at C-

19, while the hydroxyl at C-19 in**8**was deduced to be α -orientation by NOESY correlation at 29- β -methyl position with 18- β -H position and 18- β -H position with 20- β -H position.

The¹³C-NMR information of**8** with asiatic acid (Masoko *et al.*, 2008) showed similarities in ring A-D signals but differ in the signals of ring E, likewise, compound **9** with those of arjunolic acid were similar in ring A-D but differ also in the signals of ring E carbon atoms (Masoko *et al.*, 2008). This is suggested to be as a result of the occurrence of α -hydroxyl substitution at C-19 in ring E in both **8** and **9**. The downfield signals of δ_{C-18} 54.96, δ_{C-19} 73.63 and δ_{C-20} 42.94 in **8** compared to asiatic acid, and δ_{C-18} 45.07, δ_{C-19} 82.43, δ_{C-20} 35.95 in **9** compared to arjunolic acid was in agreement with this.

In HMBC spectra data, the correlations between H₂-11 ($\delta_{\rm H}2.022$) and the two vinylic carbons at C-12 and C-13 suggested a Δ^{12} -unsaturated double bond. The HSQC correlations between H-18/ C-13 and H₂-11/C12along with the ¹H-¹H COSY data which showed that it was only H₂-11 that had direct correlation with the olefinic proton (H-12) further inferred double bond is situated at C-12 (Figure 4.36). Also, the correlations observed in the HMBC spectrum between carbons C-9, C-11, C-14, C18 and the olefinic proton H-12 inferred the location of the double bond at C-12.

In the HMBC experiment, the cross-peaks observed in the spectra between H_3 -24 and signals at C-3 and C-23 showed the occurrence of a secondary hydroxyl moiety at C-3 as well as a hydroxymethylene at C-4. The chemical shift of C-24 confirmed that this primary hydroxyl moiety was located at C-23.

The HMBC correlations of H-2/C-1, H-2/C-3, H-2/C-5, H-2/C-9, H-2/C-10, H-2/C-25 and H₂-1/C-2 with the ¹H-¹H COSY correlation observed between H-1 and H-2, also large vicinal coupling constant present at H-1 (J= 12.6), all proposed a hydroxyl moiety was positioned at C-2.

In the NOESY spectrum, H-3 and H-5 as well as H-9 and H-27 showed correlations which confirmed the β -axial orientation of the secondary hydroxyl at C-3. The NOESY correlations shown between H-2 and protons at H-24 and H-25, between H-25 and H-26, established the α -orientation of the hydroxyl at C-2.

From all the spectra analyses discussed above, it was evident that compounds8and 9showed signal patterns with considerable similarities to the ones of 1 and 2, resepectivelyin¹H and ¹³C analyses (Tables 4.20and 4.16), except for the glycoside linkages present in 8 and 9(Figure

4.36). Analysis of ¹H and ¹³C spectra of **8**and **9**showed the occurrence of anomeric protons at δ_{H-1} .5.322 (d, J=8.2) and δ_{H-1} .5.375 (d, J= 8.2) whichin the HSQC spectrum showed correlation with anomeric carbons at δ_{C-1} . 95.78 and δ_{C-1} .95.81, respectively (Table 4.20). Complete assignment of the glycoside protons and carbons in **8** and **9**leading to a β -D-glucopyranoside unit was possible by analysis of the COSY and HSQC experiments (Gossan *et al.*, 2016; Agrawal, 1992).

The ¹H signals of oxymethine groups $\delta_{H-2^{\circ}}$ 3.318, $\delta_{H-3^{\circ}}$ 3.398, $\delta_{H-4^{\circ}}$ 3.360, $\delta_{H-5^{\circ}}$ 3.341 and oxymethylene group $\delta_{H-6^{\circ}}$ 3.798, $\delta_{H-6^{\circ}}$ 3.680 (dd, J=12.0, 4.8 Hz) as well as ¹³C signals of the oxygenated methine ($\delta_{C-2^{\circ}}$ 73.86, $\delta_{C-3^{\circ}}$ 78.32, $\delta_{C-4^{\circ}}$ 71.12 and $\delta_{C-5^{\circ}}$ 78.59) and oxygenated methylene ($\delta_{C-6^{\circ}}$ 62.42), all together established the possibility of a glycosidic linkage in compound **8**. Likewise, the ¹H signals of oxymethine groups $\delta_{H-2^{\circ}}$ 3.322, $\delta_{H-3^{\circ}}$ 3.404, $\delta_{H-4^{\circ}}$ 3.360, $\delta_{H-5^{\circ}}$ 3.341 and oxymethylene group $\delta_{H-6^{\circ}}$ 3.820, $\delta_{H-6^{\circ}}$ 3.682 as well as ¹³C signals of the oxygenated methine ($\delta_{C-2^{\circ}}$ 73.92, $\delta_{C-3^{\circ}}$ 78.32, $\delta_{C-4^{\circ}}$ 71.08 and $\delta_{C-5^{\circ}}$ 78.73) and oxygenated methylene ($\delta_{C-6^{\circ}}$ 62.38), all together established also the possibility of a glycosidic linkage in compound **9**. From the ¹³C-NMR information (δ_{C-3} 78.30; δ_{C-28} 178.54) and (δ_{C-3} 78.30; δ_{C-28} 178.58), C-28 glycosylation of **8** and **9** was proposed as a result of C-3 as well as C-28 of aglycone resonance signals (Mahato and Kundu, 1994).Theobserved correlation in the HMBC spectrum between the anomeric proton of thesugar moiety and the C-28 of the aglycone further confirmed a C-28 glycosylation of **8** and **9**.

Compound **8**(Figure 4.36) identified asnigaichigoside F1 was formerly isolated from leaves of *Ilex oblonga* (Wu *et al.*, 2007).Previous work by Adnyana *et al.* (2001) isolated from seeds of *Combretum quadrangulare*, compound **9**(Figure 4.36) identified asarjunglucoside 1,also Gossan *et al.* (2016) isolated it of recentfrom*Combretum racemosum* root.

From other species of the genus *Combretum (Combretum quadrangulare)*,nigaichigoside F1(8), had been formerly isolated (Adnyana *et al.* 2001), but this is the first report showing its occurrence in *Combretum racemosum*, and its isomer, arjunglucoside 1(9), though has already been isolated from the root of *Combretum racemosum*, but this is the first time it is identified from the leaves of *Combretum racemosum*.

CD₃OD solvent				
Position	8		9	
	¹³ C experimental	¹³ C literature *	¹³ C experimental	¹³ C literature **
1	47.97	47.1	47.79	47.8
2	69.71	69.7	69.69	69.7
3	78.3	78.7	78.3	78.7
4	44.12	41.3	44.13	44.1
5	48.23	55.0	48.37	48.4
6	19.24	19.2	19.26	19.3
7	33.51	33.5	33.26	33.3
8	41.26	42.8	40.88	40.9
9	48.53	49.0	49.14	49.0
10	38.99	39.0	39.16	39.2
11	24.8	24.8	24.92	24.9
12	129.49	129.5	124.78	124.8
13	139.75	139.7	144.48	144.5
14	42.78	42.9	42.75	42.8
15	29.63	29.6	29.43	29.4
16	26.51	26.4	28.43	28.4
17	49.46	49.8	47.11	47.1
18	54.96	55.0	45.07	45.1
19	73.63	73.8	82.43	82.4
20	42.94	44.1	35.95	36.0
21	27.21	27.2	29.5	29.5
22	38.31	38.3	33.29	33.3
23	66.41	66.6	66.39	66.5
24	13.87	13.8	13.79	13.8
25	17.6	17.4	17.46	17.5
26	17.67	17.7	17.82	17.8
27	24.73	24.7	25.03	25.0

Table 5.5: The ¹³C NMR for experimental and literature data for compounds 8 and 9 in CD₃OD solvent

28	178.54	178.6	178.58	178.6
29	27.06	27.1	28.61	28.6
30	16.6	16.6	25.16	25.2
1'	95.78	95.8	95.81	95.8
2'	73.86	73.9	73.92	73.9
3'	78.32	78.3	78.32	78.3
4'	71.12	71.2	71.08	71.1
5'	78.59	78.6	78.73	78.4
6'	62.42	62.5	62.38	62.4

*Wu et al., 2007

**Gossan *et al.*, 2016

Triterpenes, which was proposed to show oxidativeproperties comparable to artemisinin and its antimalarial derivatives, are a kind of pentacyclic phytochemicals that occur in several plants (Etkin, 2003). This way, as alluded to by Ruwende and Hill (1998), triterpenes may mimic the haemoglobinopathies effects on the red blood cells' surroundings that destroy the parasite by way of its oxidative status alteration. From the current work, C. racemosumleaves methanol extract exhibited antiplasmodial actionagainst P. falciparum strains of chloroquinesensitive and chloroquine-resistance. This showed a correlation with our previous report (Wande and Babatunde, 2017) of same extract in the assay on formation of beta-hematin inhibition, hence, thesuccessive partition, between chloroform/water, n-butanol/water, of the methanol extract for this current study. The chloroform fraction showed good antiplasmodial action against both P. falciparum strains (D10 and W2) which was more potentrelative to nbutanol fraction. But the activity showed better effect in the W2 strain than in the D10 strain; thus, the activity margin was wider between the fractions tested in the W2 compared to D10 (Figure 4.12 and 4.14). The aqueous fraction was not tested in this work. The result suggested that the occurrence of triterpenes, which are non-polar secondary metabolites, present in greater amounts inside chloroform fraction could be responsible for itsantimalarial actionrelated to the remaining fractions. Moreover, the chloroform fraction possessed antiplasmodial actiontwo-fold higher than the crude extract against the twoP. falciparum strains. This as well suggested that the activity was enhanced due to the fractionation. Therefore, it is doubtful that the water fraction (which is also from the crude methanol extract) would have been more active than the chloroform. Thus, enrichment of active compounds in the chloroform fraction was obvious, hencethe decision to focus on this fraction.

19 α -hydroxyasiatic acid (1)and arjungenin (2), 6 β , 23-dihydroxytormentic acid (3)and combregenin (4),madecassic acid (5)and terminolic acid (6) as well as nigaichigoside F1 (8)and arjunglucoside I (9)were respectively identifiedfrom isolates CR-A, CR-C, CR-E and CR-H as isomeric mixtures.

Reports showed that compounds were previously isolated as isomeric mixtures from species of *Combretum* genus. The work by Masoko *et al.* (2008) reported the isolation of Arjunolic and asiatic acid as isomeric mixtures from *C. nelsonii*. Similarly in a different study, 2α , 3β -dihydroxyurs-12-en-28-oic and maslinic acids as well as oleanolic and ursolic acids were isolated from *C. zeyheri* as isomeric mixtures (Runyoro *et al.* 2013).

Dissimilar degrees of antiplasmodial actionwere possessed by all isolates against both parasite strains used in this study (Tables 4.22 and 4.23). In a previous report by Glennon et al. (2016), abscisic acid at low nM doses exhibited antimalarial action in vivo, however, it showed a low potency on D10 and absence of activity on W2 in this current work. Though the investigation of activity mechanism of the isolates was not conducted as it was not part of the focus of this present study, but it is proposed that a likely relationship between the chemical structures of the isolates and their activities onspecific strain (D10 or W2) of the parasite may be responsible for the dissimilarity in activity. The CR-A (19a-hydroxyasiatic acid/arjungenin), CR-H (nigaichigoside F1/arjunglucoside 1) and madecasic acid exhibited higher potency against W2 (23.08 \pm 8.17, 33.84 \pm 12.53 and 17.19 \pm 4.34, respectively) but showed lesser activity against D10 (33.52 ± 12.41 , 41.96 ± 15.73 and 27.62 ± 11.56 , respectively). However, CR-C (6β, 23-dihydroxytormentic acid/combregenin), abscisic acid and arjungenin showed lesser activity against W2 (61.07 ± 23.15 , 134.70 ± 13.21 and 64.36 ± 9.31 , respectively) when compared to their better activity against D10 (49.71 \pm 18.88, 57.04 \pm 21.81 and 41.06 \pm 16.92, respectively). Also the ursane-type triterpene (madecasic acid) showed stronger inhibition against W2 (17.19 \pm 4.34) compared to the D10 (27.62 \pm 11.56). Conversely, the oleananetype triterpene (arjungenin) showed better activity against D10 (41.06 \pm 16.92) compared to W2 (64.36 ± 9.31). The differences in chemical structures of the two isomeric groups, ursaneand oleanane-type triterpenes, may be the reason for different degrees of activity against both*Plasmodium falciparum*strains (D10 and W2).

Reports have suggested that the demonstration of the activity in this class of compounds is hinged on the differences in their structures (Suksamrarn *et al.*, 2003; Cimanga *et al.*, 2006). Consequently, the structure-activity relationship (SAR) of thesepentacyclic triterpenoids(**1**, **2**, **3**, **4**, **5**, **6**, **8**, **9**) against D10 and W2 strains of *P. falciparum* was postulated (Figure 4.40). As isolate CR-A showedapproximately three-fold higher activitythan CR-C (Table 4.23),it is assumed that the addition of hydroxyl moiety at position 6 β was responsible for the decrease in CR-C activity. Madecassic acid(**5**) (17.19 ± 4.34) showed to be significantlyhigher (3.5 fold) in activity compared to CR-C (61.07 ± 23.15) containing 6 β , 23-dihydroxytormentic acid (**3**) and combregenin(**4**)against the W2 strain. Hence, this increase in activity could be due to dehydroxylation at position C-19. Based on these outcomes, it is suggested that ifhydroxyl moiety is introduced atposition-6 β and/or position-19 α in these class of pentacyclic

molecules(ursane- and/or oleanane-type triterpenoids), then there will be decreasein the antimalarial activities; while the geminal-dimethyl substitutions at positionC-20 did not significantly impact the bioactivity (Figure 4.40). A related observation was described by Runyoro et al.(2013) where it was shown that the introduction of hydroxyl moiety in 6βhydroxymaslinic acid at 6β-position decreased its anti-fungi activityrelated to maslinic acid. Based on this, it is presumed that a further removal of hydroxyl moiety at position- 6β in madecassic acid might enhance the antiplasmodial effect of the resulting compound to increase significantly. In this work, it is shown that CR-A which is the mixture of 19a-hydroxyasiatic acid and arjungenin was moderately active with better effects on W2 strain (Table 4.23).In contrast, an activity which was over 2.5 folds lesser than that of CR-A was demonstrated by arjungenin tested in this experiment as a single compound. Assingle compound showed lesser activity than the mixture, this could indicate a more active 19a-hydroxyasiatic acid related to arjungenin or an indication of synergismof these isomeric triterpenes against the P. falciparum. Based on the antiplasmodial activity result of madecassic acid (an ursane-type) as being the highest among compounds tested in current study. Also, from Morinda lucida leaves, Cimangaet al. (2006) described the antiplasmodial action of ursolic acid (an ursane-type) to be five-fold higher than oleanolic acid(oleanane-type). Therefore, it is plausible to suggest19ahydroxyasiatic acid (an ursane-type) as the one largely responsible for the increased activity in CR-A compared to arjungenin as single compound. However, this question could not be clarified in this study as a result of the lack of isolated 19α -hydroxyasiatic(1).

In general, it is possible that theursane-class triterpenesmightdemonstrate higher antiplasmodial activity related to their respective oleanane-class counterparts. Madecassic acid demonstrated the highest antipalsmodial actionamongst all single compounds as well as mixtures tested in this study with better activity on W2 strain of *P. falciparum*(Table 4.23). Also, a previous report of Cimanga *et al.* (2006)showed that ursane (an ursane-class triterpene) demonstrated 5-fold higher antiplasmodial effect than oleanane (an oleanane-class triterpene).

Schofield and Hackett (1993) showed in their report that there is initiation of proinflammatory cytokine responsesduring malaria when glycosylphosphatidylinositol (GPI) is released by intraerythrocytic *Plasmodium falciparum*in the course of merogony or death of erythrocytewhen the infected erythrocytes rupture. Prominent factors responsible for severe

malarial anaemia and death from malaria includes high release of tumour necrosis factor-a (TNF- α), IL-6 and interleukin-1 β (IL-1 β) (Kwiatkowski *et al.*, 1989). Report had shown that madecassic acid significantly inhibited TNF- α , IL-1 β and IL-6 production (Van Loc *et al.*, 2018). It has likewise been revealed from a recent report that asiatic acid, a pentacyclic triterpenoidsimilar to madecassic acid, reduced the production of IL-1β, IL-6 as well as TNFand lower anaemia in malaria parasites (P. berghei) (Mavondo et al., 2016). As a result of the ability of madecassic acid to inhibit the release of cytokines which also showed to be factors in severe malarial anaemia and cerebral malaria, it is therefore suggested that this might be partly responsible for the antiplasmodial action observed. Additionally, the activity of GPI has showed to be crucial to the survival of the *Plasmodium* parasites, simply because several functionally important parasite proteins are attached to the membrane of cells via GPI moieties (Naik et al., 2000). Since the enzyme specificity of some mainstages of parasite GPI bioformationvaries significantly from those of the host; hence the prospect of aiming the parasite GPI structures to enable the blockade of the induction of toxic responses due to the inhibition of *P. falciparum* GPIs. This suggests that GPI-based therapy is possible as another way of treating the *Plasmodium falciparum* infection (Naik *et al.*, 2000). Therefore, the inhibitors of proinflammatory cytokines (TNF- α , IL-1 β and IL-6) as well as compounds of this class of triterpene might be exerting antimalarial activity through this pathway.

This study reports for the first time the antiplasmodial activities of these pentacyclic triterpenes 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 8 and 9.

Among all the compounds isolated, 6β , 23-dihydroxytormentic acid (3), madecassic acid (5)as well asabscisic acid (7)are reported from the Combretaceae family for the first time. For the nine compounds (1-9) identified in this work, a number of bioactivities was reported in previous studies; arjungenin, combregenin, terminolic acid and arjunglucoside 1 demonstrated antioxidant and antibacterial potential (Gossan *et al.*, 2016), 19 α -hydroxyasiatic acid and nigaichigoside F1 showed antileishmanial activities as well as cytotoxic activities on fibroblasts (Zebiri *et al.*, 2016), madecassic acid also showed cytotoxic activities against carcinoma, liver and lung cancers (Van Loc *et al.*, 2018).

5.3Combretum zenkeri

Successive partitioning of the methanol extract of *C. zenkeri* leaveswas carried out using CHCl₃, n-BuOH and H₂O. According to its appropriate antiplasmodial activity (lowest IC₅₀), the CHCl₃ soluble fraction was selected for silica flash CC followed by a glass column separation done on a silica gel to yield compound **CZ-A** as a mixture of two isomers. The structure of **CZ-A** from *C. zenkeri* was unambiguously determined by spectroscopic experiments including 1D NMR (¹H and ¹³C), 2D NMR (COSY, TOCSY, NOESY, HSQC and HMBC), ESI-MS and HR-ESIMS, alsocompared with related information reported in literature. The isomers were identified as ursolic acid (3β-hydroxyurs-12-en-28-oic acid) (10) (Venditti *et al.*, 2016) and oleanolic acid (3β-hydroxyolean-12-en-28-oic acid) (11) (Kipchakbaeva *et al.*, 2016) (Figure 4.48).

5.3.1 Isolation of compounds

Fractionation and isolation of phytochemicals are always preceeded by the development of TLC chromatograms of extracts or fractions of interest. This is an important step to aid the selection of most appropriate solvent system for subsequent column separation. The TLC chromatogram of *C. zenkeri* methanol extract in this study has shown the presence of terpenoids (R_f 0.2-0.55) when developed with toluene/ethyl acetate 90:10 (Figure 4.3 A1) and when developed with ethyl acetate/methanol/water 40:4.5:4 (R_f 0.5-0.8) (Figure 4.3 B1) as mobile phases. This was obvious by the characteristic violet colour of the chromatograms after applying anisaldehyde-sulphuric acid spray reagent with clear visible light visualisation. This is in agreement with previous report that anisaldehyde-sulphuric acid spray reagent is suitable derivatisation reagent for optimal colour detection (violet or violet red) of TLC spots due to triterpenes (Wagner and Bladt 1996). This observation is clearly similar to those early reported in this study for *C. racemosum* methanol extract, which is a possible indication that the investigated compounds in these two plants could be of the same class of triterpene.

There are presence of prominent yellow bands at the start line (Figure 4.3 A4) (detection method: natural product/polyethylene glycol 4000) which the nonpolar toluene/ethyl acetate 90:10 mobile phase obviously could not move up from the base line; which necessitated the use of a relatively more polar mobile phase ethyl acetate/methanol/water 40:4.5:4. This more polar system was able to reveal the presence of compounds with prominent yellow and green

fluorescent zones which indicated flavonoids after spraying with natural product/polyethylene glycol 4000 detection reagent and characterised under UV-365 nm (Figure 4.3 B4). The chromatogram of *C. zenkeri* n-butanol fraction showed similar pattern in its TLC synopsis, evident by the intense green and yellow fluorescence, thereby revealing flavonoids (Figure 4.6 B). These characteristics support earlier report that flavonoids are characterised on TLC with the presence of green, yellow and/or orange fluorescent zones when sprayed with natural product/polyethylene glycol 4000 as detection reagent and viewed with UV at 365 nm (Wagner and Bladt, 1996). However, further investigation on these flavonoids was not included in this report as it became not the focus of this study due to the direction of the bioactivity towards chloroform fraction.

Consequent upon the bioactivity of the fractions tested, the chloroform fraction enriched with triterpenes was selected for further fractionation on silica column flash chromatographycoupled with ELSD and DAD where separation of the fractions took place before further purifying on open column chromatography to afford triterpenes.

For mobile phase selection for silica flash chromatographic separation, TLC is considered as the first-line and most appropriate approach (Wei *et al.*, 2013). More reason the TLC of the chloroform fraction was carried out (Figure 4.5), and chloroform/methanol was chosen as suitable starting solvent system in the subsequent flash chromatography.

Purifications were also carried out using open-column chromatography with silica gel. This was achieved by the use of 2 mL/30 minutes (0.1 mL/min) on an automatic fraction collector. This very low flow rate was necessary to avail the mixture of compounds the opportunity for extended time of interaction with the stationary phase. This is because the TLC profiles of some of the semi-purified compounds in their respective fractions showed spots that were too close, therefore, increasing their solute-stationary phase percolation time increased their retention time thereby afforded better resolution of the various components. In cases where there were a little more complex mixtures of compounds in the fractions, the length of the column used was increased to allow more distance travelled by the solutes by the mobile phases; this is believed to be an important factor that may influence increased separation and resolution of compounds in a mixture.

Fractions 12, 13, 14 and 15 became the isolate CZ-A (5 mg), a white amorphous powder obtained from an isocratic elution with mixture of mobile phase CHCl₃/MeOH/H₂O 95:1.5:0.1. But CR-A was produced from F318 (FCRC14_12) to F325 (FCRC14_14) (Table 4.9, Figure 4.17); and isolation was achieved at the gradient mobile phase CHCl₃/MeOH/H₂O 85:8:0.5 between 42-45 hours 30 minutes of this gradient (Table 3.1). TLC analysis showed it to have single spot (mobile phase chloroform/methanol 80:20; R_f 0.75; see Figure 4.18). The violet colour of the single spot was an indication of triterpene when sprayed with anisaldehyde-sulphuric acid detection reagent (Wagner and Bladt, 1996).

5.3.2 Structure elucidation compounds isolated

The NMR and the MS spectra information generated for all compounds from *C. zenkeri* in this study revealed two pentacyclic triterpenes: one ursane-type and one oleanane-type. The stereochemistry and chemical configuration of these compounds is similar to those of the ones discussed above in section 5.2.

Compound CZ-A (Figure 4.37), a colourless powder, was elucidated as isomeric mixture of ursolic acid (10) and oleanolic acid (11) by comparing with literatureits NMR and MS spectra information (Venditti *et al.*, 2016; Kipchakbaeva *et al.*, 2016).

The HRESI-MS displayed a [M-1] peak at m/z 455.3536, consistent with a molecular formula of $C_{30}H_{48}O_3$ (calcd for $C_{30}H_{47}O_3^-$, m/z 455.3530). Also, $[M+Na]^+$ and $[M+COO]^-$ molecular ions were detected at m/z 479.3499 and m/z 501.3588 respectively. From the molecular formula, seven degrees of unsaturation were obvious with one among them as a result of the occurrence of carbonyl group at C-28, and another one also as a result of one double bond in ring C and five among them as a result of pentacyclic ring system.

From Table 4.23, the ¹H-NMR spectra information of compound **10** revealed a very similar signal pattern to compound **11**. A prominent similar signal pattern in the ¹H NMR experiment for **10** and **11** is shown in the double-doublet signal at δ_{H-3} 3.154 (each d, J= 11.7 and 4.6 Hz, which integrated for 1H-atom) in compound **10** and multiplet signal at δ_{H-3} 3.147 (integrated for 1H-atom) in compound **10** and **11**. Five tertiary methyl groups at (δ_{H} 0.977, 0.780, 0.960, 0.851 and 1.119) which were attributable to methyl groups attached to quartenary

carbon atoms were shown in the spectrum of **10** and the detection of secondary methyl groups at $\delta_{\text{H-29}}0.932$ (J= 6.5) and $\delta_{\text{H-30}}$ 0.964which are attributable to methyl substituentsattached to methine carbon, which indicated ursane-type triterpenes. However, seven tertiary methyl groups signals at ($\delta_{\text{H}}0.974$, 0.778, 0.946, 0.819, 1.161, 0.943 and 0.908) showed in the spectrum of **11**which are attributable to methyl substituentsattached to quartenary carbon atoms which is indicative of oleanane-type triterpenes. The geminal-dimethyl groups at position-20 in **11** is an indication of oleanane-type triterpenes.

The presence of one olefinic proton (δ_{H-12} 5.228) and (δ_{H-12} 5.243) in both 10 and 11 respectively corresponded to the occurrence of one double bond system in ring C which was attributable to a hydrogen atom attached to a vinyl carbon. This signal is indicative of both oleanane- and ursane-type triterpenes (Gossan *et al.*, 2016).

The ¹³C-NMR spectra also showed similarities in the signal pattern of compounds 10 and 11(Tables 4.23 and 5.6). They exhibited signals for 30 carbons in the DEPTq experiment: Compound **10** showed one carboxyl at low field (δ_{C-28} 181.74), one double bond (δ_{C-12} 126.88; δ_{C-13} 139.66), one sp³oxygenated methine carbon (δ_{C-3} 79.70), seven methyl, nine sp³methylene carbons, five sp³ methine carbons and five quartenary carbons, and compound 11likewise showed one carboxyl at low field (δ_{C-28} 181.96), one double bond (δ_{C-12} 123.62; δ_{C-13} 145.25), one sp³oxygenated methine carbon (δ_{C-3} 79.71), seven methyl carbons, ten sp³ methylene carbons, three sp³ methine carbons and six quartenary carbons. But the actual dissimilarity in the DEPTq analysis showed that **10** had methine group at position 19 while **11** had a methylene group at same position, also 10 had a methine carbon at position 20 while 11 possessed a quartenary carbon at this position(Table 4.23 and Figure 4.48). These spectra data in this study suggested that compound 10 was an ursane-type triterpenoid and compound 11 was an oleanane-type triterpenoid (Mahato and Kundu, 1994). In rings A-D, there were presence of superimposable signals in both 10 and 11 by comparing their ¹H and ¹³C data, but with differences shown only in ring E. Additionally, 10 and 11 showed some different chemical shifts in both ¹H-NMR spectra δ_{H-18} 2.203, δ_{H-19} 1.379, δ_{H-20} 0.996 and δ_{H-18} 2.851, δ_{H-19} 1.695, 1.125 respectively, and 13 C-NMR spectra δ_{C-18} 54.38, δ_{C-19} 40.44, δ_{C-20} 40.42 and δ_{C-18} 42.75, δ_{C-19} 47.27, δ_{C-20} 31.62 of **10** and **11** respectively (Table 4.23). This difference was particularly influenced by the different substitution between positions 19 and 20. The¹³C-NMR information of compound 10 compared to α-amyrin (Vázquezet al., 2012) showed similarities

in ring A-E signals but differ by the signals at C-28 (carboxyl in **10**, but methyl group in α amyrin) likewise, compound **11**with those of β -amyrin were similar in ring A-E but differ also by the signals at C-28 (carboxyl in **11**, but methyl group in β -amyrin) (Vázquez*et al.*, 2012). This was agreed to by the lowfield signal of C-28 (δ_{C} 181.74) in **10**compared to α -amyrin, and C-28 (δ_{C} 181.96) in **11**compared to β -amyrin.

In HMBC spectra data, the correlations between H₂-11 ($\delta_{\rm H}$ 1.931) and the two vinylic carbons at C-12 and C-13 suggested a Δ^{12} -unsaturated double bond. The HSQC correlations between H-18/ C-13 and H₂-11/C12together withdata of the ¹H-¹H COSY spectrum (Appendix 13c) which showed that it was only H₂-11 that had direct correlation with the olefinic proton (H-12) further established the double bond is positioned at C-12 (Figure 4.37). Also, the observed correlations in the HMBC spectrum (Appendix 13d) between the carbons C-9, C-11, C-14, C18 and the olefinic proton H-12 establishedC-12 as the location of the double bond.

In the HMBC experiment, the cross-peaks observed in the spectra between H₃-23 and signals at C-3 showed the occurrence of a secondary hydroxyl moiety at C-3. In the NOESY spectrum, H-3 and H-5 as well as H-9 and H-27 showed correlations which confirmed the β -axial orientation of the secondary hydroxyl at C-3. Compound **10**(Figure 4.37) identified as ursolic acid was formerly identified from*Morinda lucida*leaves (Cimanga *et al.* 2006) also more recently from*Helichrysum microphyllum*subsp. *tyrrhenicum* (Venditti *et al.* 2016). Compound **11**(Figure 4.41) identified as oleanolic acid was previously identified from*Morinda lucida*leaves (Cimanga *et al.* 2016).

From other species of the genus *Combretum (Combretum zeyheri*), ursolic acid (10) and oleanolic acid (11) had been formerly isolated (Runyoro *et al.* 2013), but this is their first report in *Combretum zenkeri*.

CDCl ₃ solvent				
Position	10		1	
	¹³ C experimental	¹³ C literature *	¹³ C experimental	¹³ C literature **
1	39.99	39.0	39.83	37.6
2	27.90	27.6	27.87	26.7
3	79.70	78.4	79.71	78.5
4	39.84	39.4	40.55	39.2
5	56.74	55.3	56.76	55.5
6	19.47	18.1	19.50	18.3
7	34.33	32.9	34.02	32.6
8	40.78	41.9	40.78	39.6
9	49.06	47.6	49.10	48.1
10	38.10	38.5	38.17	37.0
11	24.36		24.52	22.7
12	126.88	125.4	123.62	122.4
13	139.66	138.1	145.25	144.1
14	43.25	41.9	42.89	42.0
15	29.22	29.4	28.85	27.7
16	25.33	25.5	24.06	22.8
17	49.10	47.5	47.67	46.7
18	54.38	52.8	42.75	41.5
19	40.44	38.9	47.27	46.1
20	40.42	38.6	31.62	30.4
21	31.79	30.5	34.91	33.7
22	38.13	36.7	33.84	32.3
23	28.76	27.8	28.73	28.8
24	16.37	16.5	16.31	14.7
25	16.02	15.2	15.88	15.1
26	17.81	20.5	17.73	16.5
27	24.08	24.0	26.38	25.2

Table 5.6: The ¹³C NMR of experimental and literature data for compounds 10 and 11 in CDCl₃ solvent

28	181.74	180.3	181.96	180.4
29	17.64	16.6	23.98	32.8
30	21.57	23.0	33.57	23.3

*Venditti et al., 2016

**Kipchakbaeva et al., 2016

Some genus Combretumhad been studied where ursolic and oleanolic acidsas isomeric mixtures were similarly isolated. In a separate work, ursolic acid with oleanolic acid were identified by Runyoro et al. (2013) as isomeric mixture from C. zeyheri. From a different genus, ursolic acid with oleanolic acid as isomeric mixture were as well identified from Salvia buchananii where they synergistically demonstrated a significant inhibitory activity on numerous Gram-positive species (Bisio et al., 2015). Compound 10 and 11 is almost ubiquitous among all species of plant. Ursolic acid is widely spread, especially in higher plants such as Rosmarinus officinalis, Glechona hederaceae, Salvia officinalis, Thymus vulgaris, Eucalyptus teretocornis, Morinda lucida and many others (Wozniak et al., 2015; Cimanga et al., 2006), but from the Combretum genus, its isolation was only reported from Combretum zeyheri, Combretum quadrangulare and Combretum vendee (Runyoro et al., 2013).Oleanolic acid is also spread across many plant species such as ginseng root, Sambucus chinensis, Viburnum nervosum, Morinda lucida, and found in more than 120 plants (Cimanga et al., 2006; Awan et al., 2013), but from genus Combretum it was only reported from Combretum zeyheri (Runyoro et al., 2013). This work is the first report showing the identification of these two compounds from *Combretum zenkeri*. The antiplasmodial activity test was not conducted for these two known compounds identified in this study as their antimalarial activities were previously investigated (Cimanga et al., 2006; Innocente et al., 2012; Awan et al., 2013). Ursolic acid from Morinda lucida was shown to exhibit goodin vivo and in vitro antimalarial activities (Cimanga et al., 2006), due to its presence in the extract of C. zenkeri, it is suggested that it could be partly or majorly implicated in the observed potency in this work. In the earlier report, ursolic acid (IC₅₀: 3.1 ± 1.3 µg/mL) exhibited good*in vitro* antiplasmodial activities against a P. falciparum chloroquine-sensitive strain, about 5-folds active more than oleanolic acid (IC₅₀: 15.2±3.4 µg/mL) (Cimanga et al., 2006). Likewise in the *in vivo* test from same study, ursolic acid produced 97.7% parasitemia chemosuppression, greater reduction in parasitemia compared to oleanolic acid 37.5% in *Plasmodium berghei berghei*infected mice. Although work is currently ongoing in our research group for other compounds from the chloroform fraction to be isolated and purified, as there may be other principles having similar activities from this extract. The activity test of their mixture (ursolic acid/oleanolic acid) was not possible in this study as a result of insufficient amount isolated. Although, the activity of their mixture is higher in few other pharmacological activities compared to the single

compounds (Bisio et al., 2015), also broad data concerning the synergistic antimalarial action of these two isomers is unavailable. Ursolic acid has recently been described as pentacyclic triterpene having broad spectrum of pharmacological actions including protecting effect on brain, liver, kidneys and lungs, anti-inflammation, anabolic effect on skeletal muscles, antiosteoporosis, antimicrobial effect against several bacteria strains, anti-virus against HIV and HCV and antimalarial among others (Wozniak et al., 2015; Liu, 2005). Consequently, it is plausible to suggest that the presence of ursolic acid in C. zenkeri contribute hugely to the different pharmacological actions (Ogbonna et al., 2016; Wande and Babatunde, 2017; Ujowundu et al., 2015; Okwu et al., 2014) exerted by the plant. However, it is important to widely explore C. zenkeri for its other bioactive constituents which may be useful lead compounds or scaffolds necessary for their synthesis for many other pharmacological investigations important. Meanwhile in a recent study, analogue of ursolic acid, N-{3-[4-(3aminopropyl)piperazinyl]propyl}-3-O-acetylursolamide, which showed better antiplasmodial activity (175 nM) than the aglycone was synthesized (Innocente et al., 2012). This report showed that the ursolic acid derivative which showed to be non-toxic demonstrated a novel effective antiplasmodial prototype that interrupts plasmodium calcium homeostasis.

CHAPTER SIX

6 CONCLUSION

TheCombretaceae family has demonstrated to be a valuable source of medicinal plants possessing broad spectrum of activities against several diseases, therefore, its exploration is vital in the search for biologically active principle useful in malaria treatment. The antimalarial potential of *Combretumzenkeri* shown in this study from a good antiplasmodial action exhibited by its chloroform fraction, and thereby justifying its use in ethnomedicine. The antimalarial potential of *Combretumracemosum* and its use in traditional medicine has also been justified with this study through the antiplasmodial effects of its chloroform fraction and the compounds elicited from it. Apparently, triterpenoids are largely responsible for the antimalarial effects manifested in theses plants as a result of the significant potency of their chloroform fractions compared to other fractions.On the other hand, future investigation should involve*in vivo* antimalarial effect of *Combretum racemosum* methanol extract as well as the compounds isolated from it as a required recommendation to further authenticate its usage in ethnomedicine. The genus *Combretum* afforded many triterpenoids from several previous reports, which made it an imperative group when searching for biologically active molecules useful in treatingseveral diseases including malaria.

Two closely related triterpenes, ursolic and oleanolic acids were identified as known antimalarial principles from *Combretumzenkeri*. The antimalarial effect exerted by the extractmight be largely as a result of the existence of ursolic acid therein. Earlier studies have shown isolation of similar isomeric mixture from other species (Runyoro *et al.*, 2013; Bisio *et al.*, 2015). This is the first report of the identification of any bioactive principles from *Combretum zenkeri*.

Madecassic acid demonstrated the most significant antiplasmodial action among all compounds derived from *C. racemosum*, even better activity was observed against the *P. falciparum* chloroquine-resistant strain (W2). Similarly, based on antiplasmodial result of

isolate CR-A in this work, 19α -hydroxyasiatic acid or in synergism with arjungenin could presumably contribute to the observed activity in*C racemosum*. Though the modes of action of isolated compounds were not conducted in this work, but it is proposedbased on literature data that the ability of these class of triterpenes for the inhibition of cytokines release which are also significantly involved in the development of cerebral malaria as well assevere malarial anaemia might be partly attributed to the observed antiplasmodial action. The inhibition of cytokines' pathways could be a mechanism of action of the antimalarial effect of this compounds. However, a further investigation into the mechanism of action of isolated compounds could help validate this claim. Madecassic acid has shown from this study potential for antimalarial drug development; and this is presented as the first report of its occurrence in the Combretaceae family.

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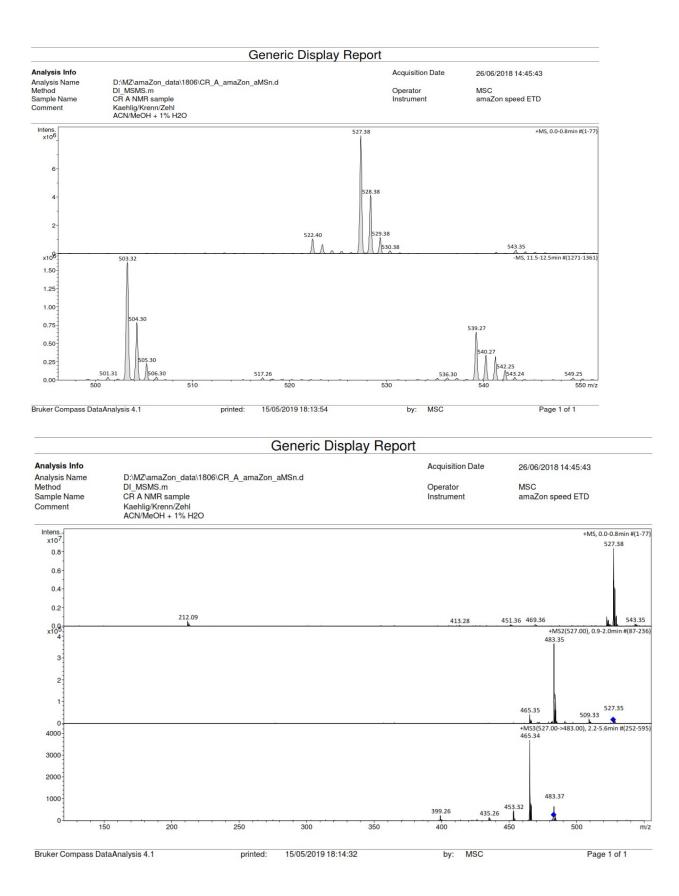
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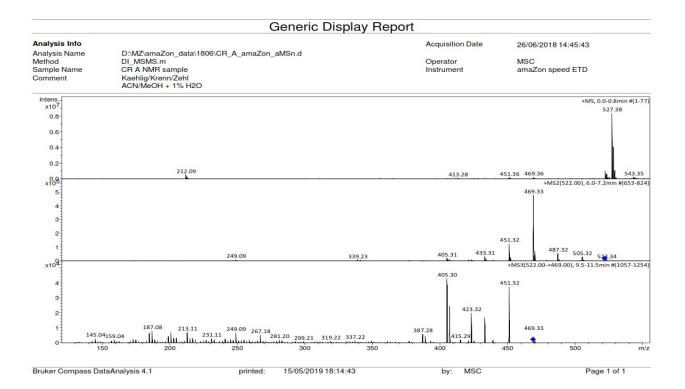
APPENDICES

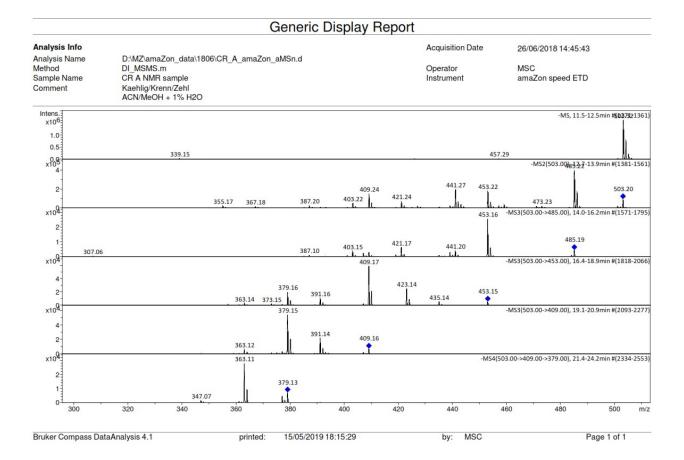
Appendix 1: Mass spectra of CR-A

Appendix 1a: ESI-MS of CR-A

			Generic I	Display Repo	ort			
Analysis Info Analysis Name Method Sample Name Comment	D:\MZ\amaZon_data\18 DI_MSMS.m CR A NMR sample Kaehlig/Krenn/Zehl ACN/MeOH + 1% H2O	06\CR_A_amaZ	on_aMSn.d		Acquisition Date Operator Instrument	26/06/2018 14:45:43 MSC amaZon speed ETD		
Intens. x106 6 4 2 2 - x108 1.50 1.25 1.00 0.75 0.50 0.25 0.00	212.09	469.36 503.32 539	599.47 		1031.69 917.60		+MS, 0.0-0.8min	
0.00	200 40	00	600	800	1000	1200	1400	m
ruker Compass Da	ataAnalysis 4.1	printed	1: 15/05/2019	18:13:41	by: MSC		Page 1 of 1	







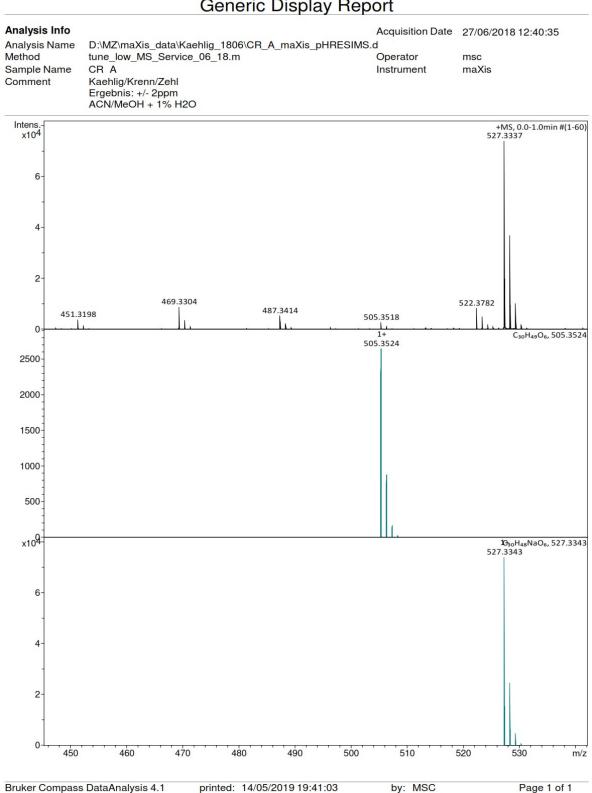
Appendix 1b: HRESI-MS of CR-A

	Di	splay Report				
D:\MZ\maXis data	Kaehlig 1806\CB A maXis nHBE	ESIMS.d	Acquisition D	Date 27/06/20	7/06/2018 13:38:48	
tune_low_MS_Ser CR A Kaehlig/Krenn/Zeh Ergebnis: +/- 2ppm	vice_06_18_neg.m		Operator Instrument	msc maXis	255552.00016	
ESI Not active 50 m/z 1900 m/z	lon Polarity Set Capillary Set End Plate Offset n/a Set Corona	Negative 4500 V -500 V n/a 0 nA		Set Nebulizer Set Dry Heater Set Dry Gas Set Divert Valve Set APCI Heater	0.4 Bar 180 °C 4.0 l/min Source 0 °C	
503.3388			621.4378		-MS, 0.0-0.6min #(1-33	
	549.3443 539.3154			653.427	76	
			611.4088			
517.3206	561.2968 571.3	243 593.3678		643.3982	665.4287 675.3397	
	tune_low_MS_Sen CR A Kaehlig/Krenn/Zeh Ergebnis: +/- 2ppm ACN/MeOH + 1% I senter ESI Not active 50 m/z 1900 m/z	D:\MZ\maXis_data\Kaehlig_1806\CR_A_maXis_nHRB tune_low_MS_Service_06_18_neg.m CR A Kaehlig/Krenn/Zehl Ergebnis: +/- 2ppm ACN/MeOH + 1% H2O The set Capillary 50 m/z Set End Plate Offset 1900 m/z n/a Set Corona 503_3388	D:MZ\maXis_data\Kaehlig_1806\CR_A_maXis_nHRESIMS.d tune_low_MS_Service_06_18_neg.m CR A Kaehlig/Krenn/Zehl Ergebnis: +/- 2ppm ACN/MeOH + 1% H2O ameter ESI Not active 50 m/z 1900 m/z Set Capillary Set Capillary Set Corona 503_3388 549_3443	Acquisition I D:MZ\maXis_data\Kaehlig_1806\CR_A_maXis_nHRESIMS.d tune_low_MS_Service_06_18_neg.m CR A Kaehlig/Krenn/Zehl Ergebnis: +/- 2ppm ACN/MeOH + 1% H2O ameter ESI for Polarity Negative 50 m/z Set Capillary 4500 V 50 m/z Set End Plate Offset -500 V n/a n/a Set Corona 0 nA 503_3388 549.3443 549.3443	D:MZ:maXis_data!Kaehlig_1806\CR_A_maXis_nHRESIMS.d tune_low_MS_Service_06_18_neg.m CR_A Kaehlig/Krenn/Zehl Ergebnis: +/-2ppm ACN/MeOH + 1% H2O Operator msc maXis msc maXis temeter Image: Set Nebulizer Not active 50 m/z Ion Polarity Set Capiliary n/a Negative 4500 V Set Dry Gas 0 nA Set Nebulizer Set Dry Gas Set Dry Gas 503,3388 621.4378 621.4378	

Analysis Info

Acquisition Date 27/06/2018 13:38:48

Analysis Name Method Sample Name Comment	D:\MZ\maXis_data\Kaehlig_1806\CR_A_maXis_nHRESIMS. tune_low_MS_Service_06_18_neg.m CR A Kaehlig/Krenn/Zehl Ergebnis: +/- 2ppm ACN/MeOH + 1% H2O						tor mso nent maž	25	255552.00016		
Acquisition Par	amete	er									
Source Type Focus Scan Begin Scan End	ES No 50			apillary nd Plate Offset	Negative 4500 V -500 V n/a 0 nA		Set Dry Set Div	Heater	r 1 4 ve 5	0.4 Bar 80 °C 4.0 I/min Source 0 °C	
Intens. x104 2.0 1.5 1.0 0.5		503.3 339.2342			1007.6823	1198,8813				-0.6min #(1-33)	
	200	400	600	800	1000	1200	1400		1600	1800 m/z	
Meas. m 503.3388/		lon Formula C31H43N4O2 C30H47O6 C27H39N10	Score 100.00 50.14 17.84	m/z 503.339150 503.337813 503.336465	err [mDa] 0.3 1.0 2.4	err [ppm] 0.6 2.0 4.7	mSigma 52.9 63.2 65.7	rdb 12.5 7.5 13.5	e [⊤] Conf even even even	N-Rule ok ok ok	



Generic Display Report

Analysis Info Acquisition Date 27/06/2018 12:40:35 Analysis Name $D:\MZ\maXis_data\Kaehlig_1806\CR_A_maXis_pHRESIMS.d$ Method tune_low_MS_Service_06_18.m Operator msc CR A Sample Name Instrument maXis 255552.00016 Kaehlig/Krenn/Zehl Ergebnis: +/- 2ppm Comment ACN/MeOH + 1% H2O **Acquisition Parameter** lon Polarity Set Capillary Set End Plate Offset Source Type Focus 0.4 Bar 180 °C 4.0 l/min ESI Positive Set Nebulizer Not active 50 m/z 1900 m/z Set Dry Heater Set Dry Gas Set Divert Valve 4500 V Scan Begin Scan End -500 V Source n/a n/a Set APCI Heater 0°C Set Corona 0 nA Intens.-x10⁵ +MS, 0.0-1.0min #(1-60) 1.0 0.8 527.3337 0.6 0.4 212.1179 0.2 1032.6817 857.6095 0.0

2	200	400	600	800	1000	1200	1400	16	500	1800 m/z
Meas. m/	z #	Ion Formula	Score	m/z	err [mDa]	err [ppm]	mSigma	rdb	e ⁻ Conf	N-Rule
505.35176	7 1	C31H45N4O2	63.23	505.353703	-1.9	-3.8	58.8	11.5	even	ok
	2	C30H49O6	100.00	505.352366	-0.6	-1.2	69.4	6.5	even	ok
	3	C27H41N10	85.96	505.351018	-0.7	-1.5	71.4	12.5	even	ok

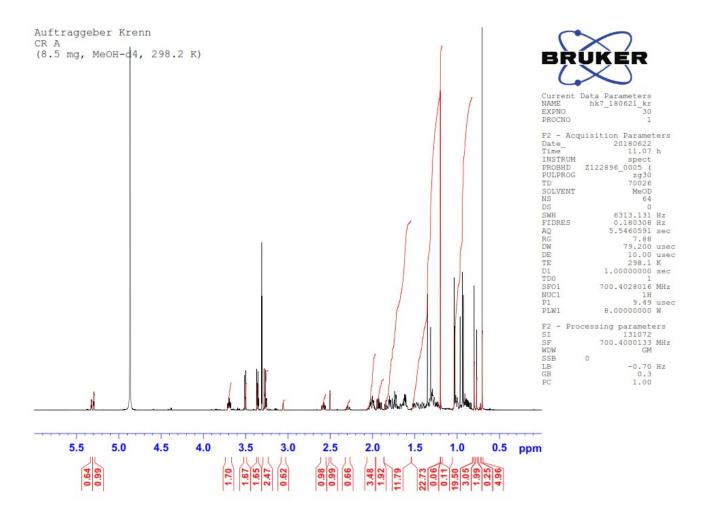
1000

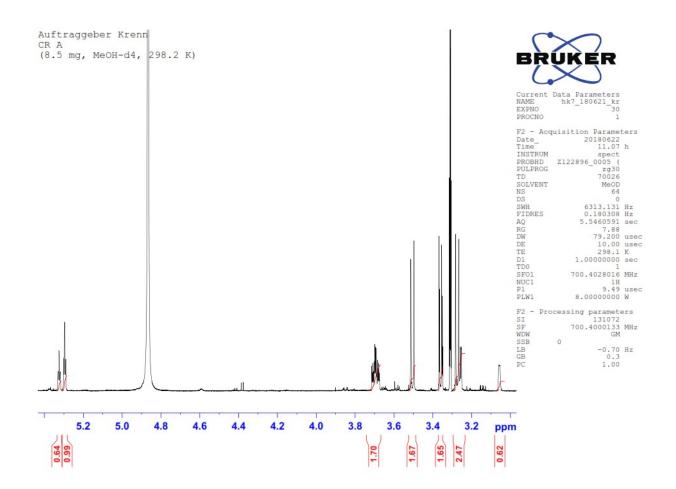
1 100

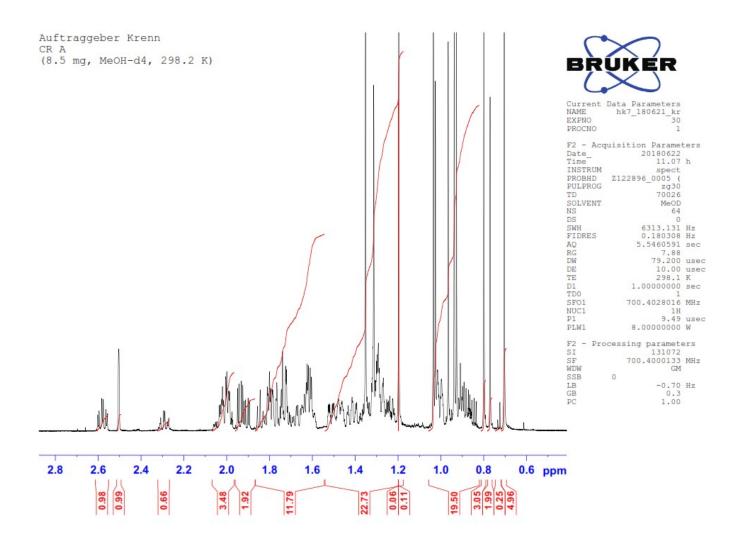
1000

1000

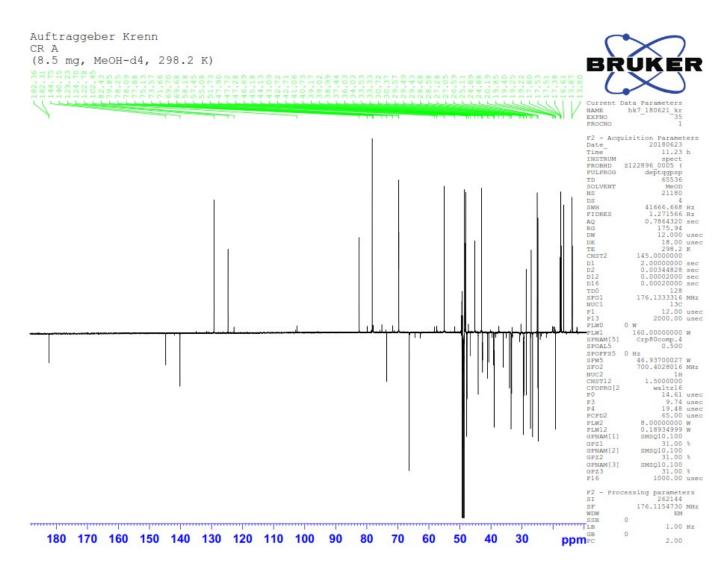
Appendix 2: 1D and 2D NMR of CR-A Appendix 2a: ¹H NMR of CR-A



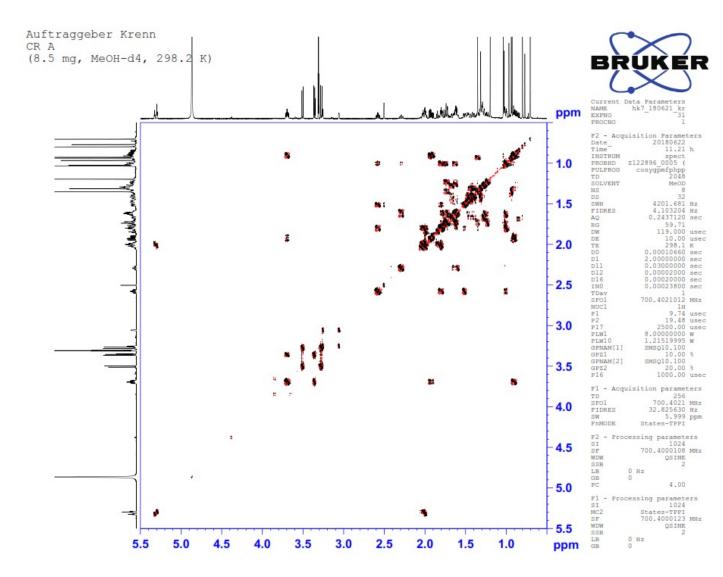




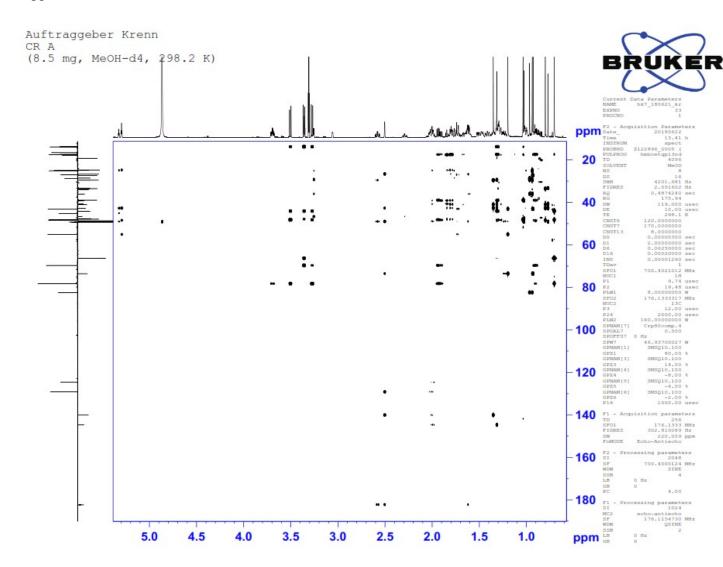
Appendix 2b:¹³C NMR of CR-A



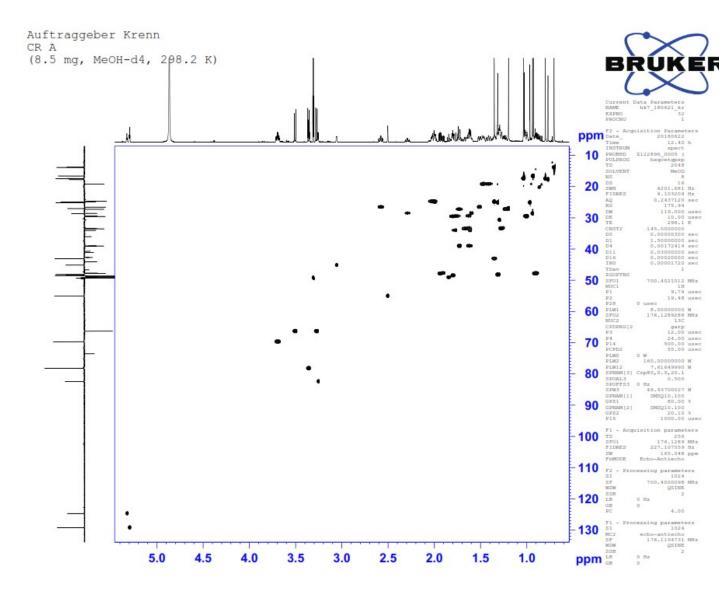
Appendix 2c: COSY of CR-A



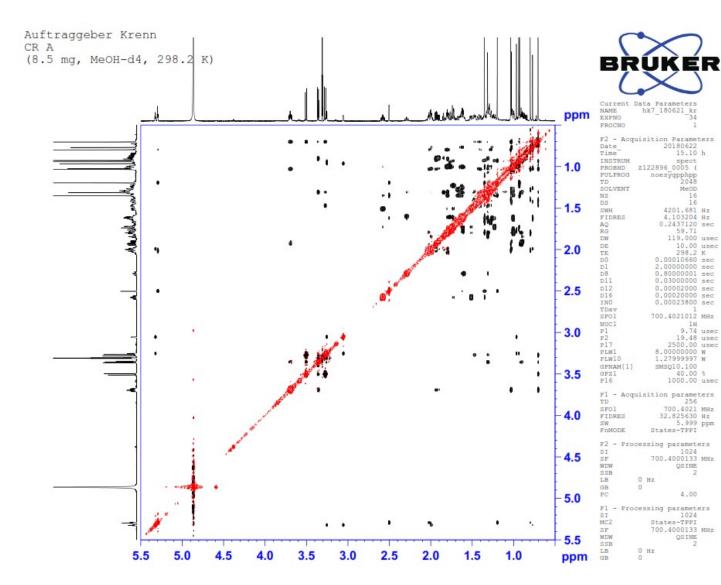
Appendix 2d: HMBC of CR-A



Appendix 2e: HSQC of CR-A

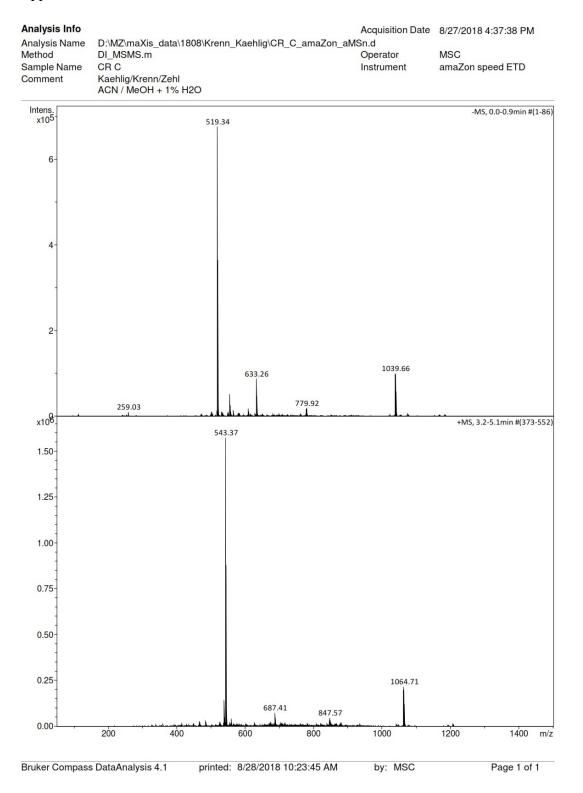


Appendix 2f: NOESY of CR-A

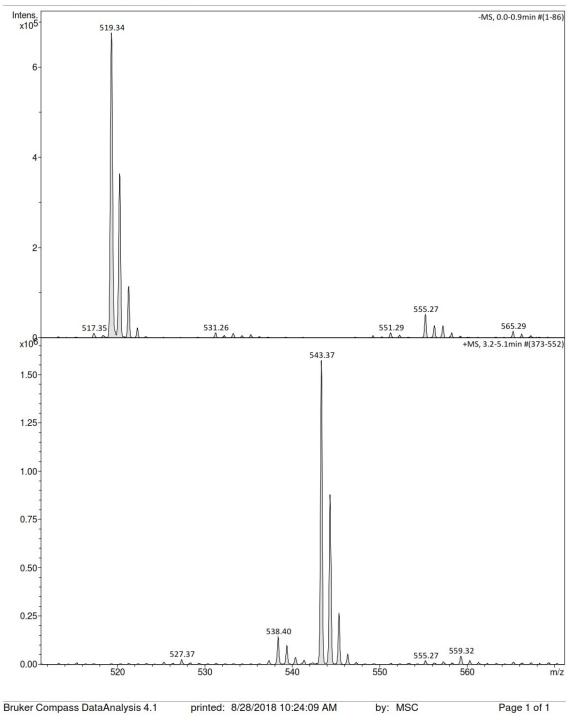


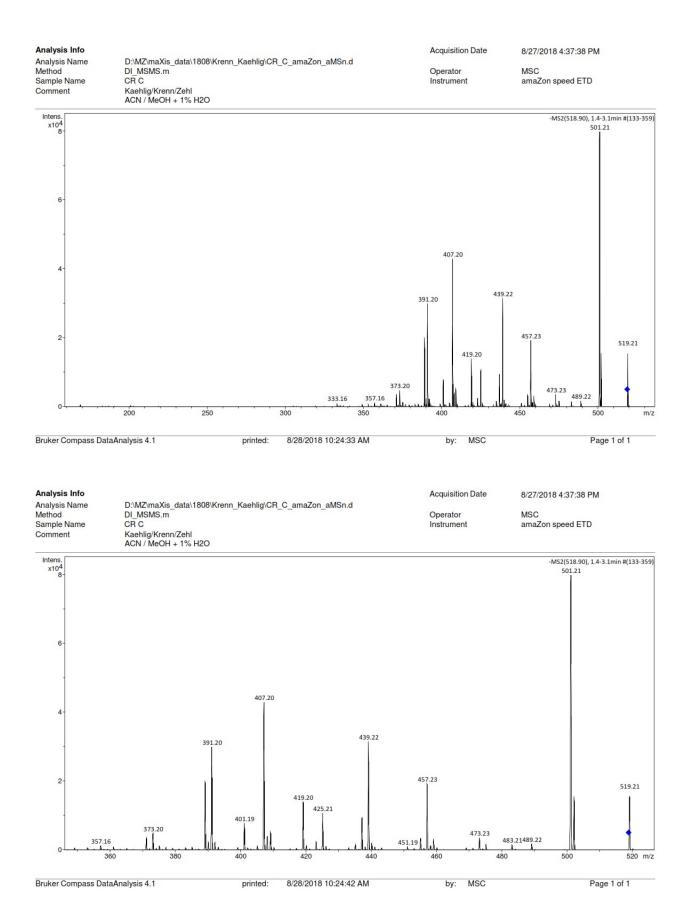
Appendix 3: Mass spectra of CR-C

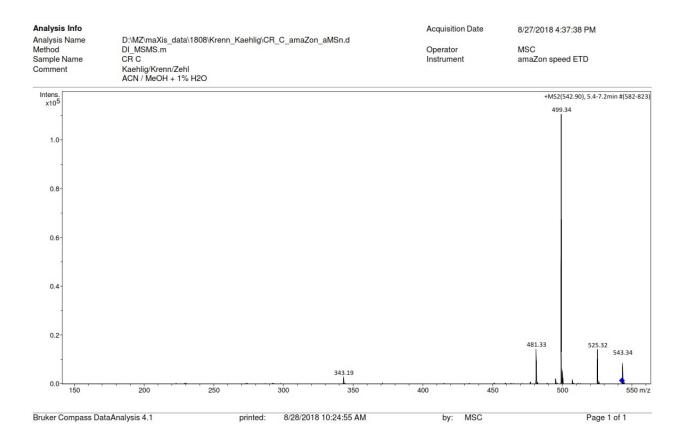
Appendix 3a: ESI-MS of CR-C



Analysis Info		Acquisition Date	8/27/2018 4:37:38 PM
Analysis Name	D:\MZ\maXis_data\1808\Krenn_Kaehlig\CR_C_amaZon_aM	/ISn.d	
Method	DI_MSMS.m	Operator	MSC
Sample Name	CRC	Instrument	amaZon speed ETD
Comment	Kaehlig/Krenn/Zehl		
	ACN / MeOH + 1% H2O		



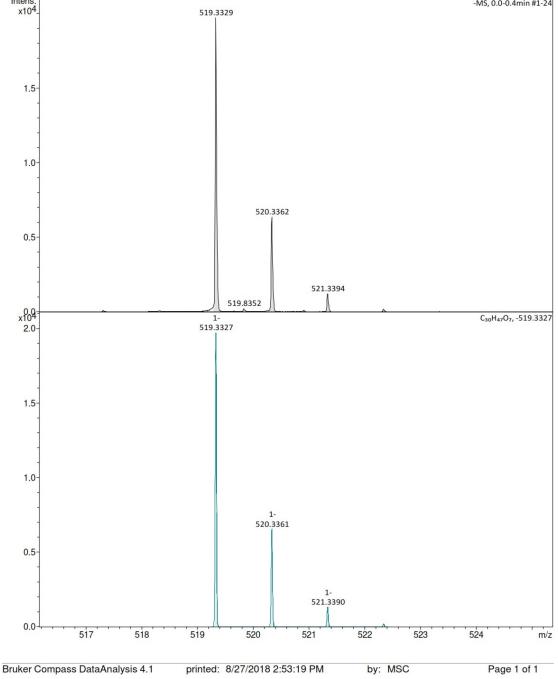




Appendix 3b: HRESI-MS of CR-C

Analysis Info

Analysis Info		Acquisition Date	8/20/2018 12:01:10 PM
Analysis Name Method Sample Name Comment	D:\MZ\maXis_data\1808\Krenn_Kaehlig\59023000001.d tune_low_MS_Service_08_18.m CRC Kaehlig-Zehl/Anorg.Chem Ergebnis: +/- 5ppm ACN/MeOH +1%H2O	Operator Instrument	msc maXis
Intens. x10 ⁴	519.3329		-MS, 0.0-0.4min #1-24



Analysis Info

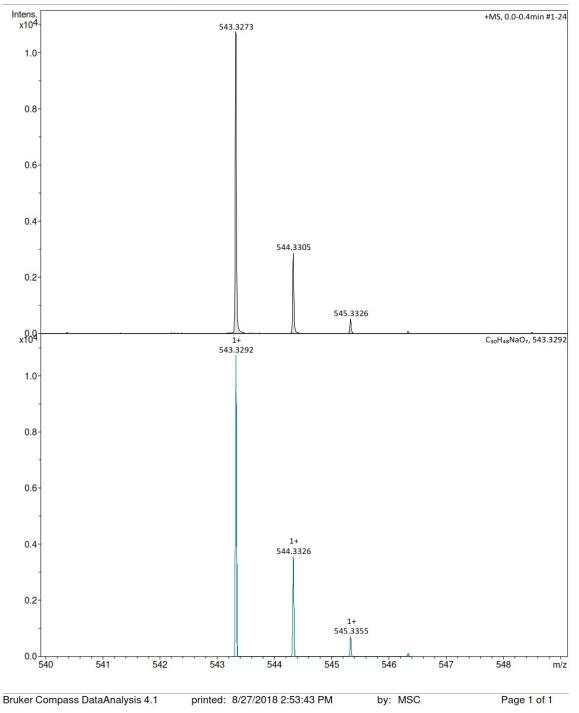
Acquisition Date 8/20/2018 12:01:10 PM D:\MZ\maXis_data\1808\Krenn_Kaehlig\5902300001.d Analysis Name Method tune_low_MS_Service_08_18.m Operator msc Sample Name CRC Instrument maXis 255552.00016 Kaehlig-Zehl/Anorg.Chem Ergebnis: +/- 5ppm ACN/MeOH +1%H2O Comment

Acquisition Parameter

Acquisition Pa	ram	ete	r										
Source Type ESI Focus Not active Scan Begin 50 m/z			Set C	olarity Capillary Ind Plate Off	45	Negative 4500 V set -500 V			et Nebul et Dry H et Dry G	eater	0.4 Bar 180 °C 4.0 I/min		
Scan End			00 m/z	Set C	Charging Volt	age 0			Se	et Divert	Valve	Source 0 °C	
Intensx10 ⁴											-MS	, 0.0-0.4min #	#1-2
3-													
2-			519.	3329									
1-													
-	249	8.95	96		734.0080	10	33,9893						
0-	200	14.	400	600	800	10	00	120	0 1	400	1600	1800	m
Meas. m		#	Ion Formula	Score	m/z	err [mDa		ppm]	mSigma		e⁻ Conf	N-Rule	
519.33	29	1	C30H47O7 C27H39N10O	100.00 47.65	519.3327 519.3314	<mark>0.</mark> 1.	5	0.3 2.9	5.5 6.2	13.5	even even	ok ok	
565.33	81	3	C31H43N4O3 C31H49O9	47.84 100.00	519.3341 565.3382	1. 0.		2.3 0.3	16.6 8.0		even	ok ok	

Analysis Info

Acquisition Date 8/20/2018 12:54:03 PM D:\MZ\maXis_data\1808\Krenn_Kaehlig\59023000002.d tune_low_MS_Service_08_18.m Analysis Name Method Operator msc Sample Name CRC Instrument maXis Kaehlig-Zehl/Anorg.Chem Ergebnis: +/- 5ppm ACN/MeOH +1%H2O Comment



Analysis Info				Acquisition Date	8/20/2018 12:54:03 PM
Analysis Name Method Sample Name Comment	D:\MZ\maXis_data\18 tune_low_MS_Servic CRC Kaehlig-Zehl/Anorg.C Ergebnis: +/- 5ppm ACN/MeOH +1%H2C	3000002.d	Operator msc Instrument maXis	s 255552.00016	
Acquisition Par Source Type Focus Scan Begin Scan End	ameter ESI Not active 50 m/z 1900 m/z	lon Polarity Set Capillary Set End Plate Offset Set Charging Voltage Set Corona	Positive 4500 V -500 V 0 V 0 nA	Set Nebul Set Dry H Set Dry G Set Divert Set APCI	leater 180 °C as 4.0 l/min t Valve Source
Intens x104 1.5	543.	3273			+MS, 0.0-0.4min #1-24
0.5-		679.3007 922.0	1063.6650		
0.0	200 400	600 800	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	1200 1400	1600 1800 m/z
Meas. m/ <mark>543.327</mark>		51.82 543.3252 100.00 543.3265	r [mDa] err [µ 2.1 -0.8 -0.6 <mark>-1.9</mark>	3.8 11.1 2 -1.4 21.5 7 -1.1 32.9 12	db e ⁻ Conf N-Rule 2.5 even ok 7.5 even ok 2.5 even ok 3.5 even ok

59023000002.d

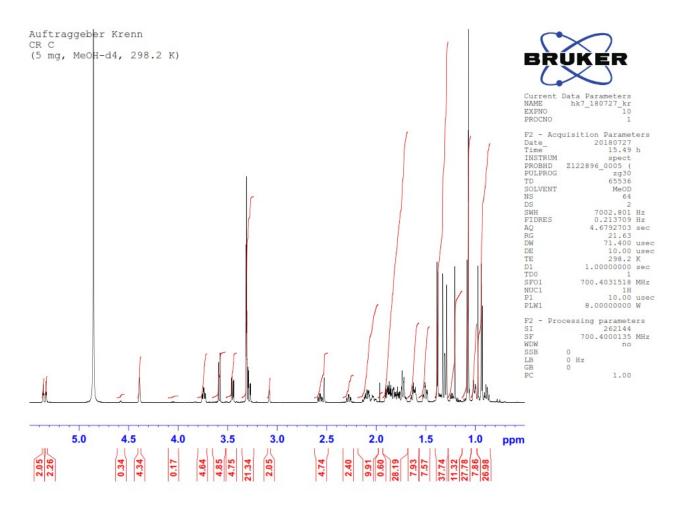
Bruker Compass DataAnalysis 4.1

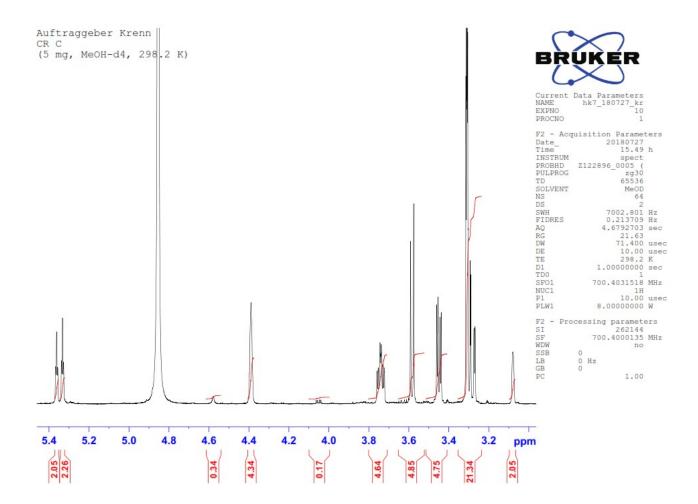
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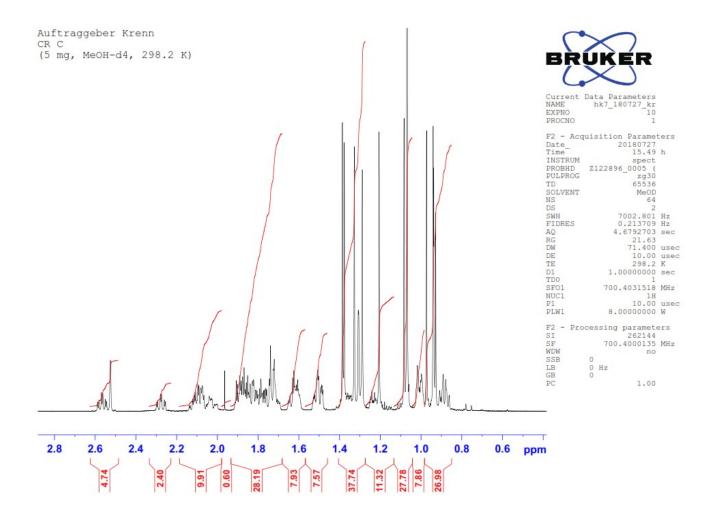
by: MSC

Page 1 of 1

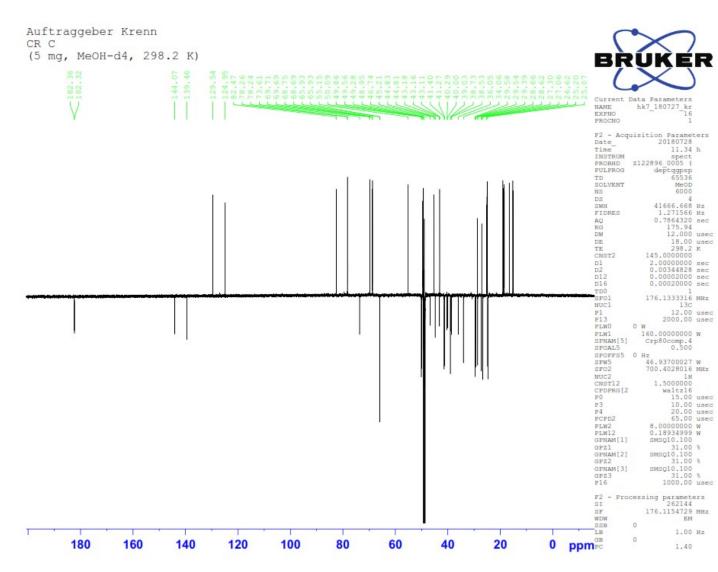
Appendix 4: 1D and 2D NMR of CR-C Appendix 4a: ¹H NMR of CR-C



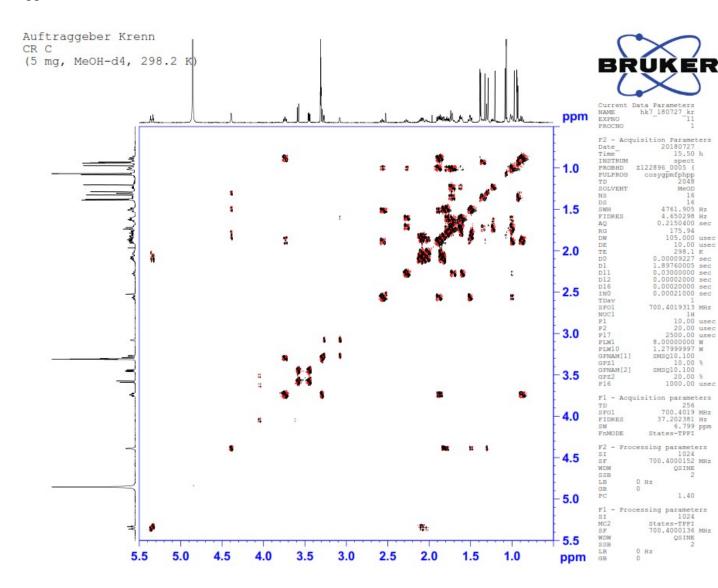




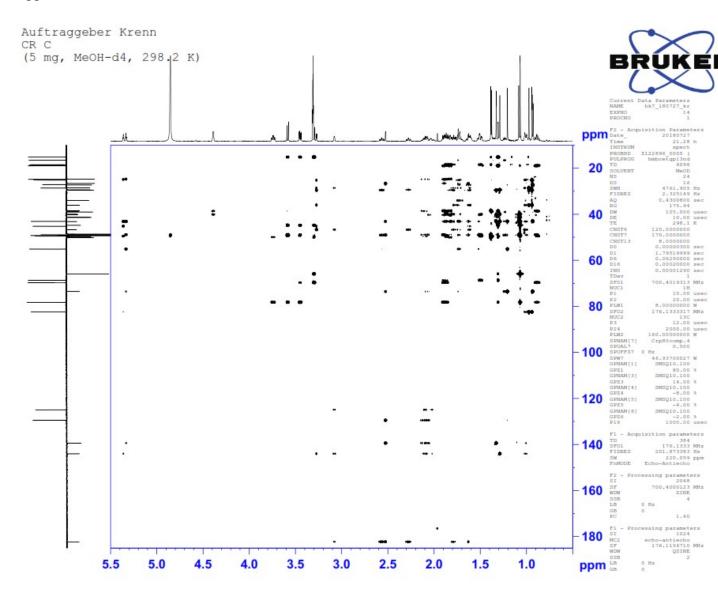
Appendix 4b: ¹³C NMR of CR-C



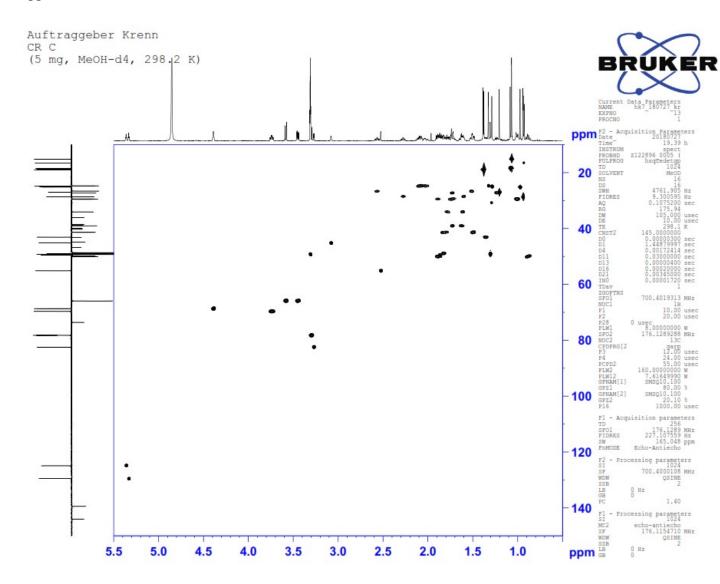
Appendix 4c: COSY of CR-C



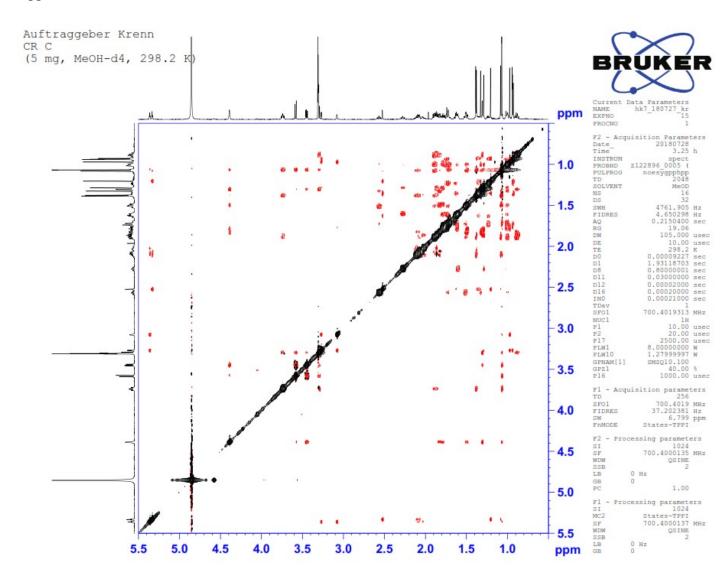
Appendix 4d: HMBC of CR-C



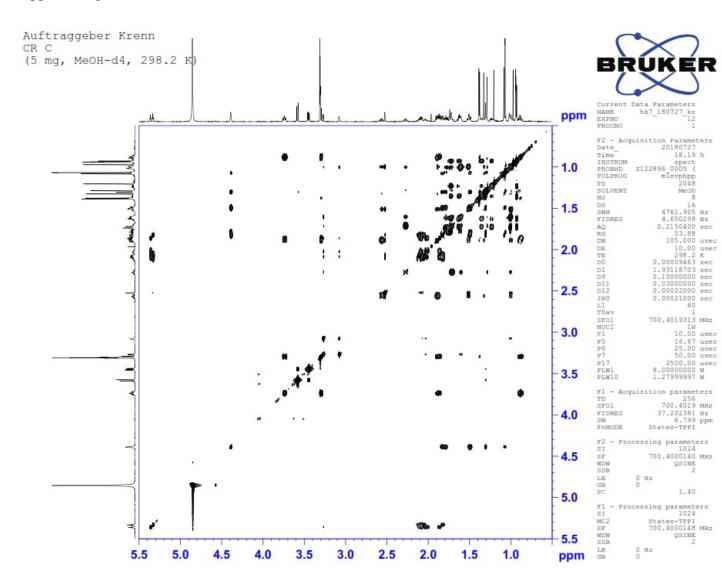
Appendix 4e: HSQC of CR-C



Appendix 4f: NOESY of CR-C



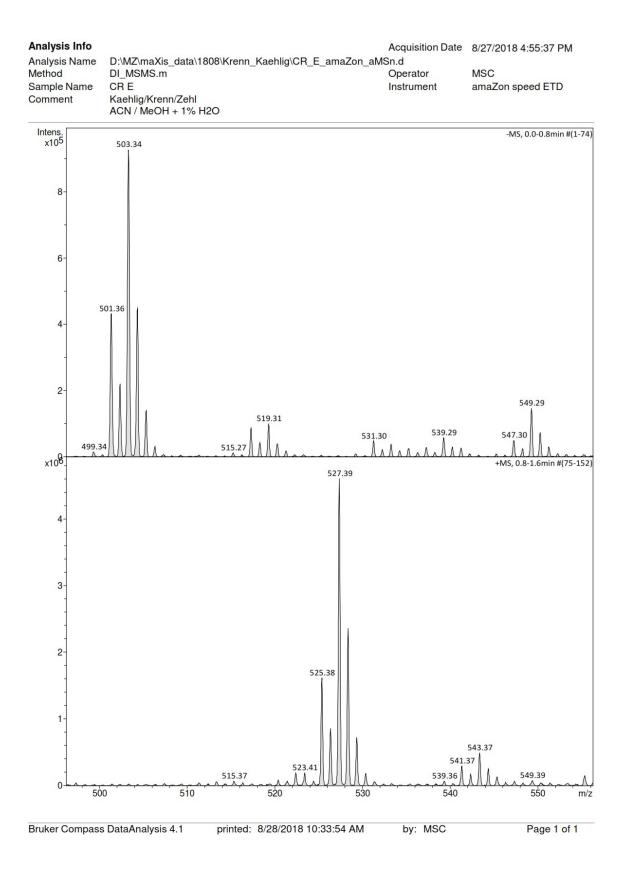
Appendix 4g: TOCSY of CR-C

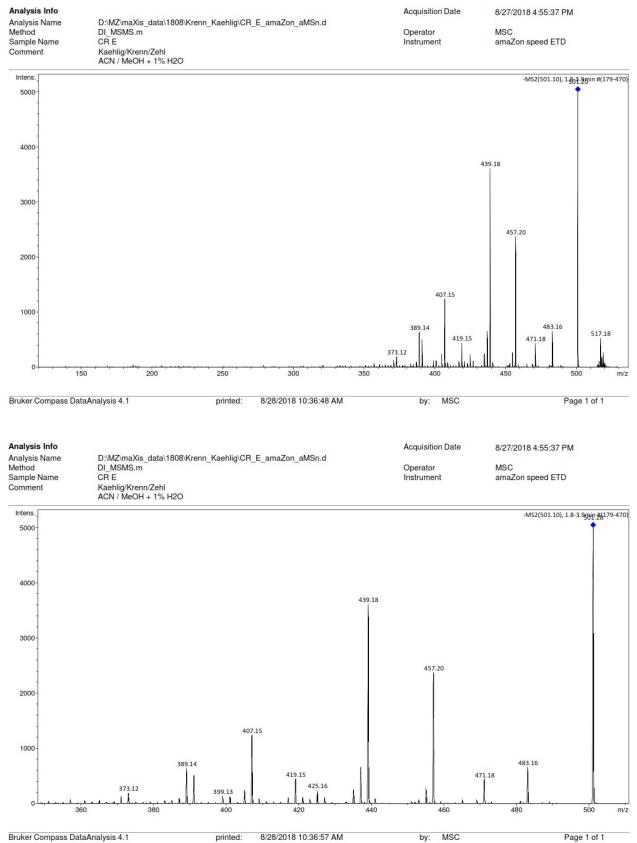


Appendix 5: Mass spectra of CR-E

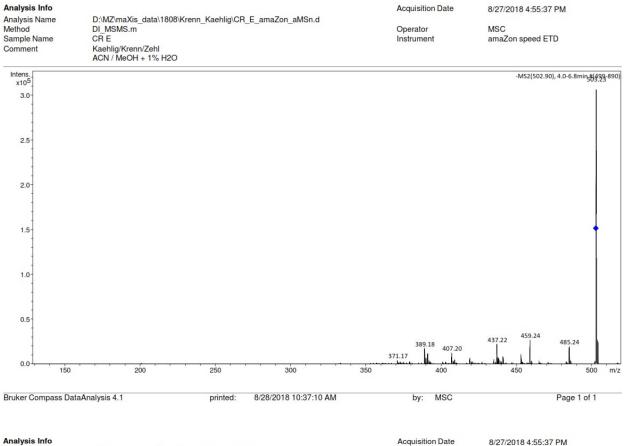
Appendix 5a: ESI-MS of CR-E

Analysis Info Analysis Name Aethod Sample Name Comment		D:\MZ\maXis_data\1808\Krenn_Kaehlig\CR_E_amaZon_aM DI_MSMS.m CR E Kaehlig/Krenn/Zehl ACN / MeOH + 1% H2O				Acquisition Date ISn.d Operator Instrument	MSC amaZon speed ETD	
ntens. x10 ⁵			50	3.34			-MS, 0.0-0.8min	#(1-7
8-								
6-								
4-								
2-				549.29		1007.64		
×10 ⁸	110.79	255.13	413.06	527.39	759.50		+MS, 0.8-1.6min #(;	75-15
4-								
3-								
2-								
- - 1- -						1031.71		
0		301.14	a an an the first state of the st	and the basis of the	805.49			
0-4		200	400	600	800	1000	1200 1400) m

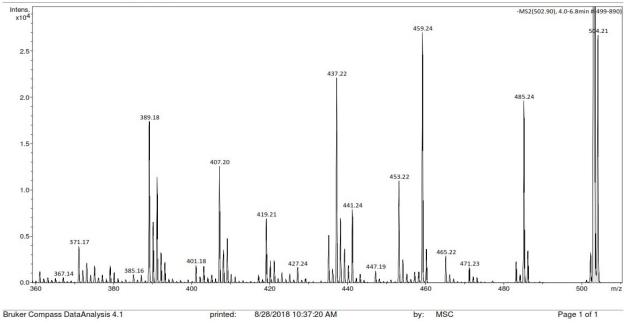


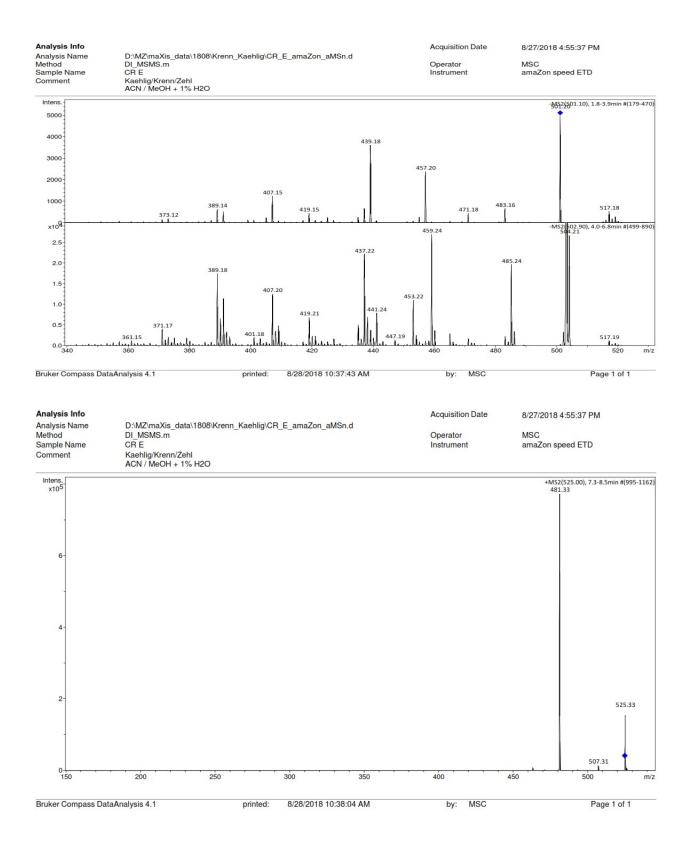


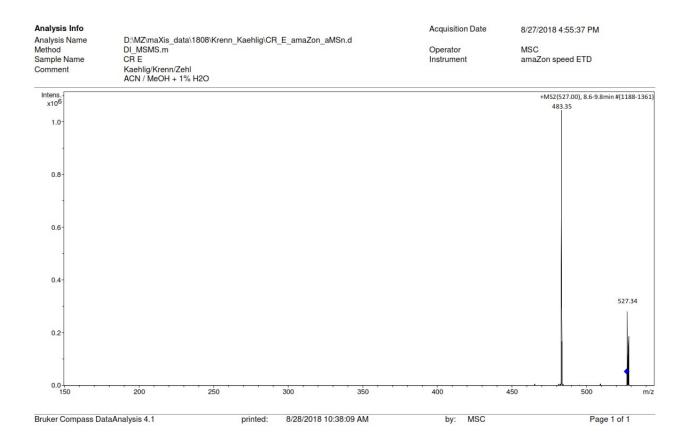
Bruker Compass DataAnalysis 4.1 8/28/2018 10:36:57 AM by: MSC printed:



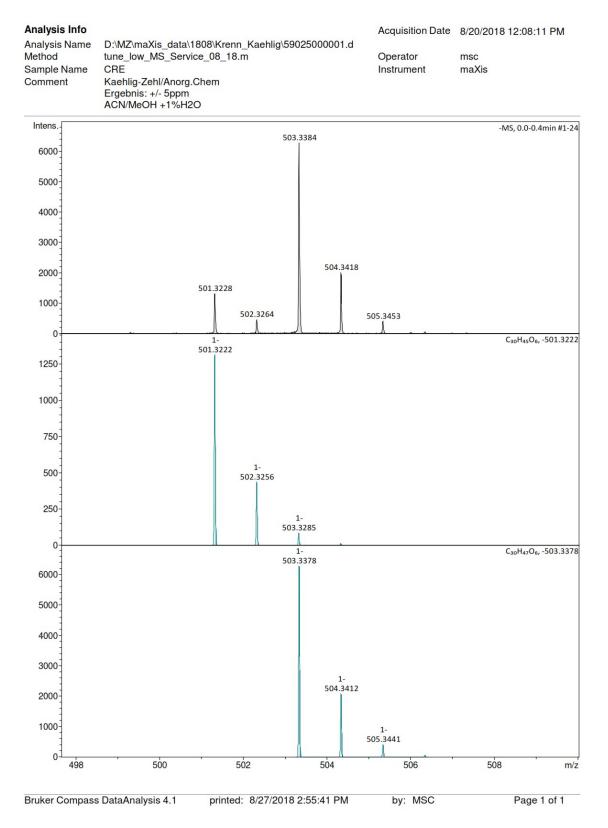








Appendix 5b: HRESI-MS of CR-E



Mass Spectrum SmartFormula Report

Analysis Info

Acquisition Date 8/20/2018 12:08:11 PM D:\MZ\maXis_data\1808\Krenn_Kaehlig\5902500001.d Analysis Name tune_low_MS_Service_08_18.m Method Operator msc Sample Name CRE Instrument maXis 255552.00016 Kaehlig-Zehl/Anorg.Chem Comment Ergebnis: +/- 5ppm ACN/MeOH +1%H2O

Acquisition Parameter 0.4 Bar 180 °C 4.0 I/min Ion Polarity Negative Set Nebulizer Source Type ESI Not active Set Capillary Set End Plate Offset 4500 V -500 V Focus Set Dry Heater Scan Begin 50 m/z 1900 m/z Set Dry Gas Set Divert Valve Set Charging Voltage 0 V Scan End Source Set APCI Heater 0°C Set Corona 0 nA Intens. -MS, 0.0-0.4min #1-24 x104 0.8 503.3384 0.6 0.4 0.2 255.2326 1033.9912 734.0098 dia. 44 0.0 400 800 1200 1400 1600 1800 m/z 200 600 1000 N-Rule mSigma Meas. m/z # Ion Formula Score err [mDa] err [ppm] rdb e⁻ Conf m/z <mark>-1.3</mark> -1.4 501.3228 12 100 50 <mark>-0.6</mark> -0.7 644.4 647.1 8.5 13.5 even C31H41N4O2 48.28 501.3235 ok even 3 C27H37N10 11.92 501.3208 2.0 4.0 649.3 14.5 even ok <mark>1</mark> 2 503.3384 C30H47O6 100.00 503.3378 -0.6 -1.2 7.5 even ok 7.7 C27H39N10 42.23 503.3365 2.0 3.9 8.8 13.5 even ok 3 C31H43N4O2 77.06 503.3392 -0.7 -1.4 18.2 12.5 even ok

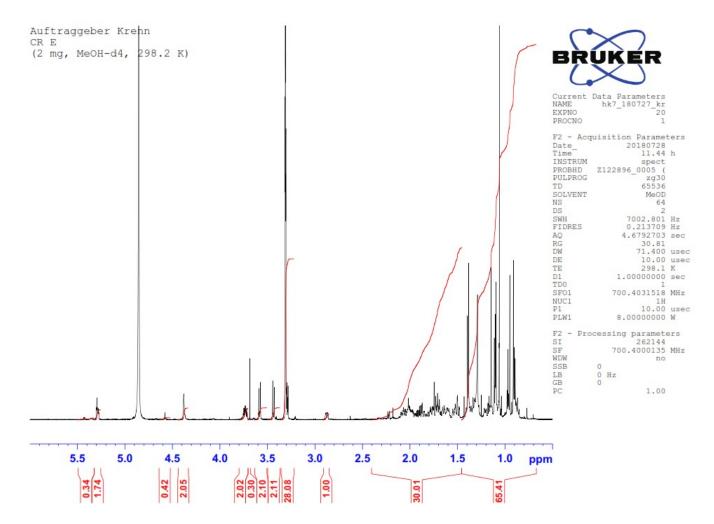
59025000001.d Bruker Compass DataAnalysis 4.1

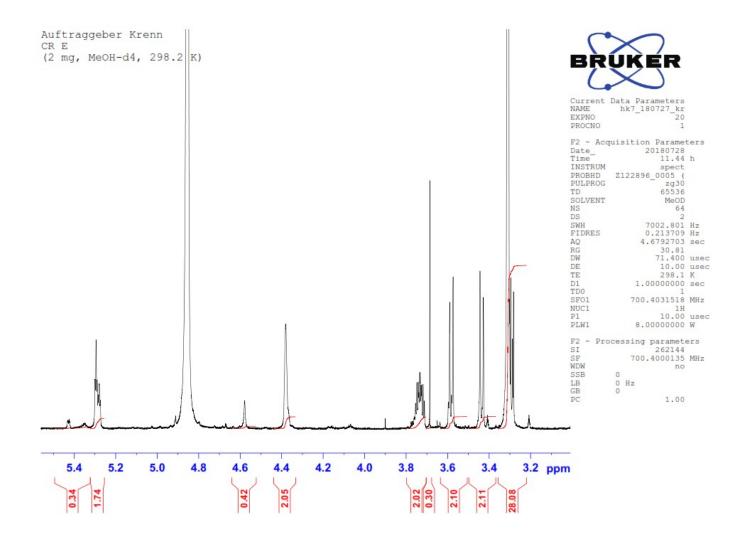
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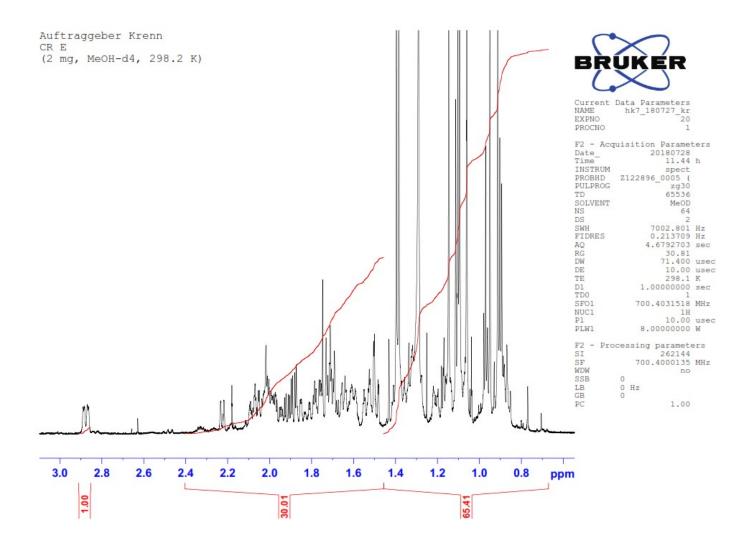
by: MSC

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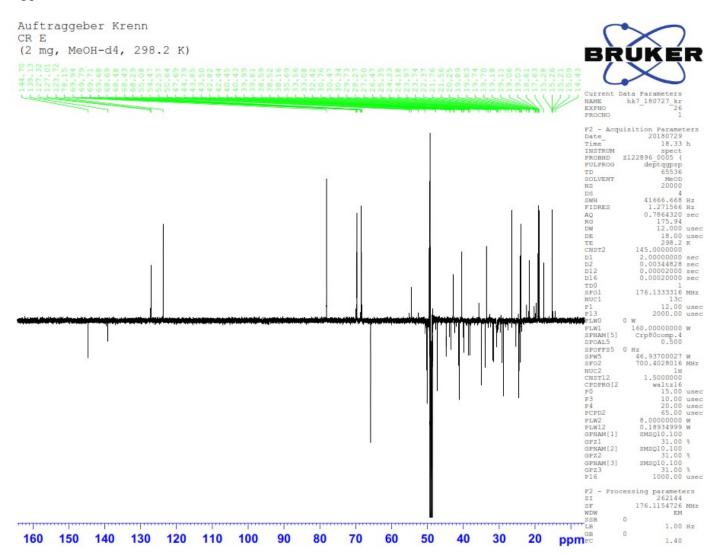
Appendix 6: 1D and 2D NMR of CR-E Appendix 6a:¹H NMR of CR-E



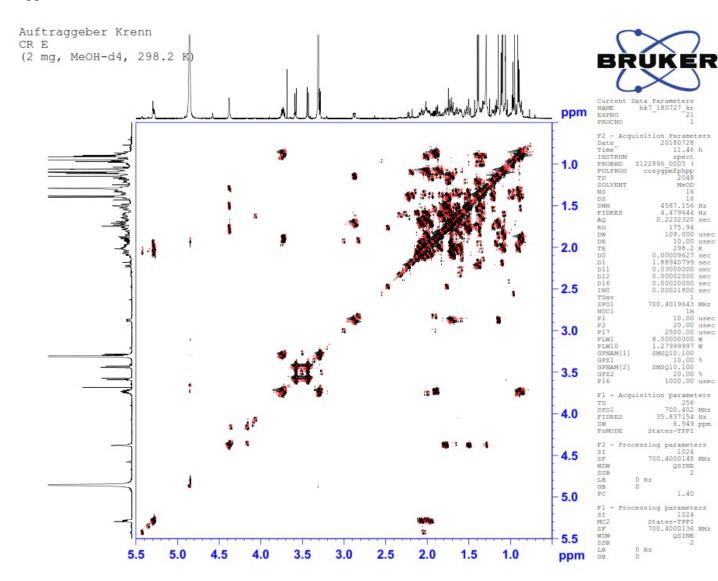




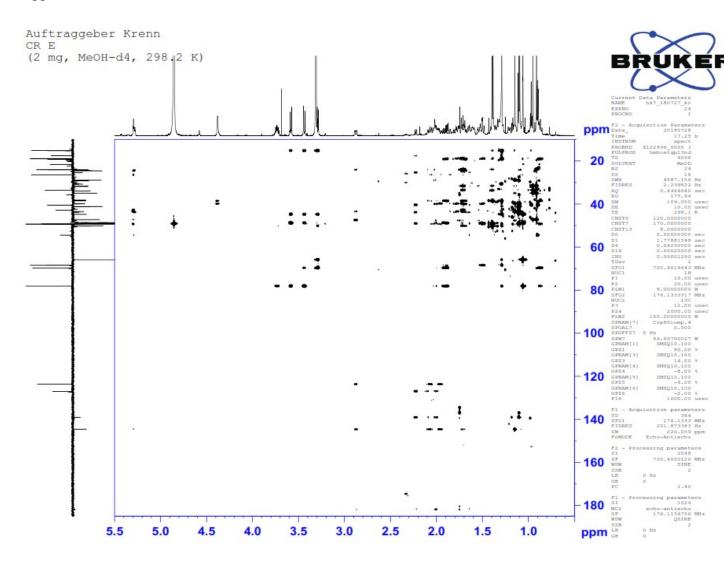
Appendix 6b: ¹³C NMR of CR-E



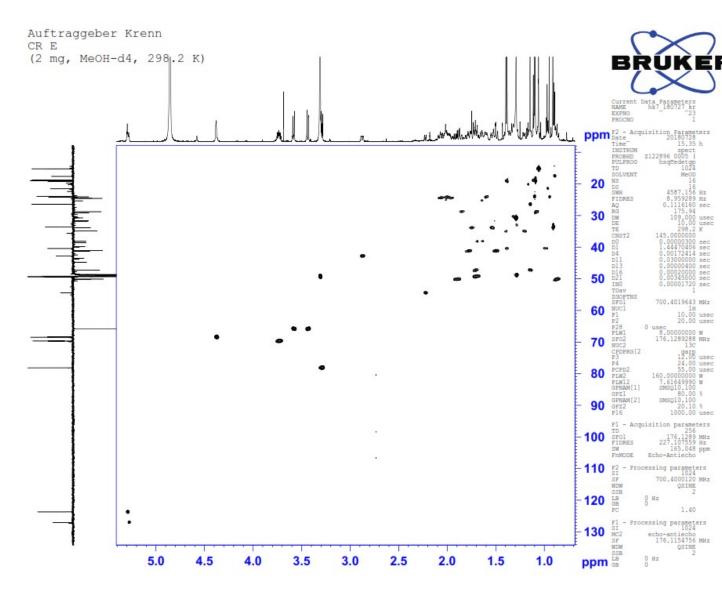
Appendix 6c: COSY of CR-E



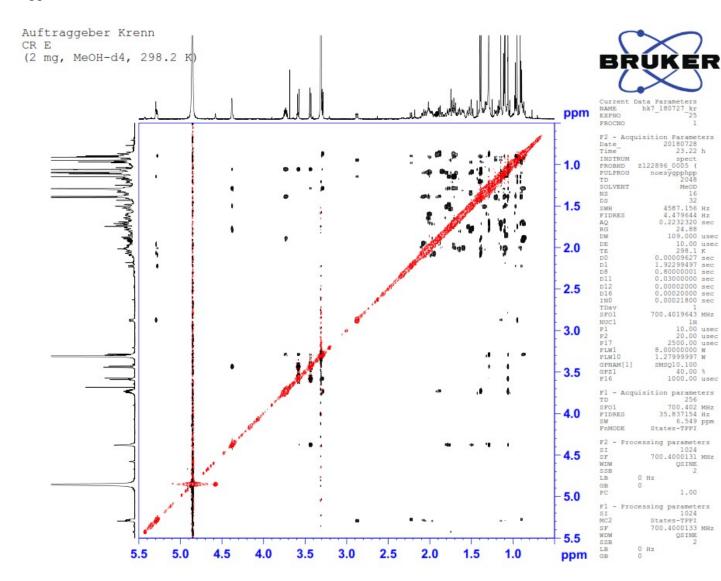
Appendix 6d:HMBC of CR-E



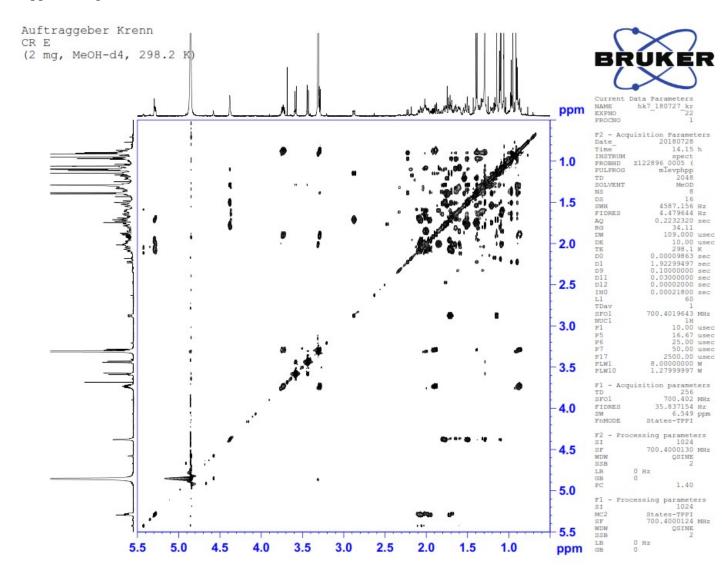
Appendix 6e: HSQC of CR-E



Appendix 6f: NOESY of CR-E

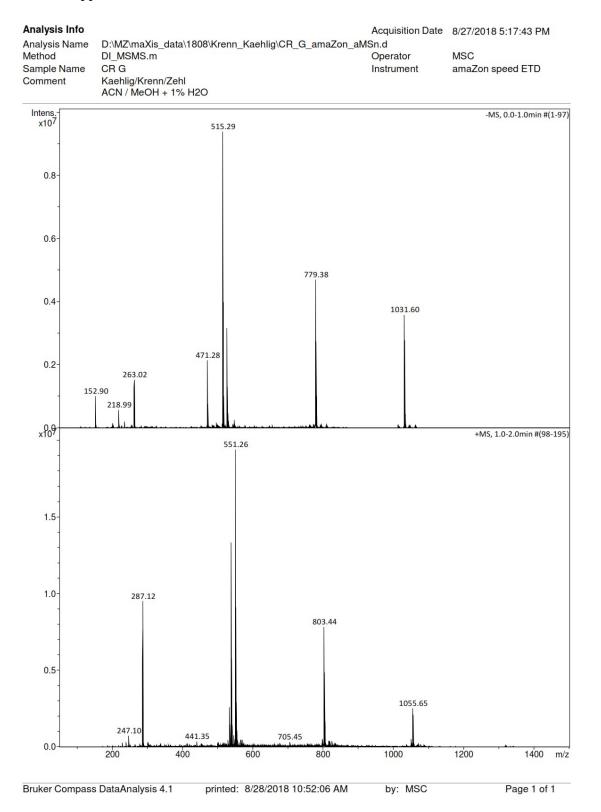


Appendix 6g: TOCSY of CR-E

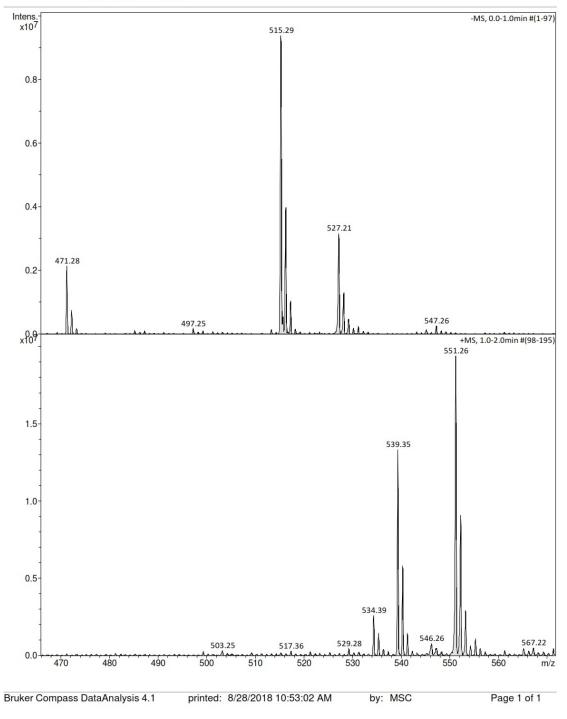


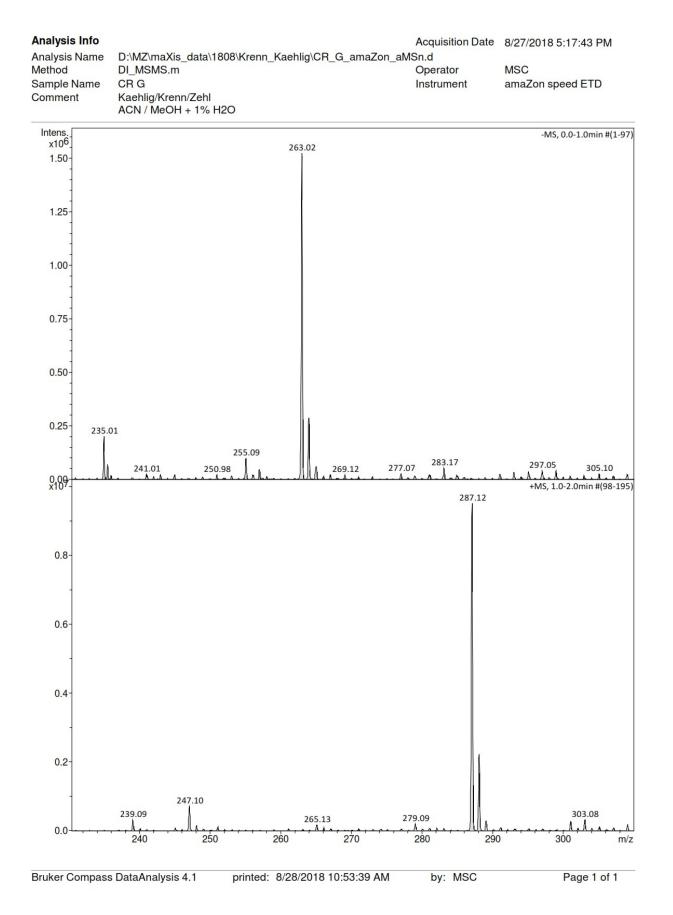
Appendix 7: Mass spectra of CR-G

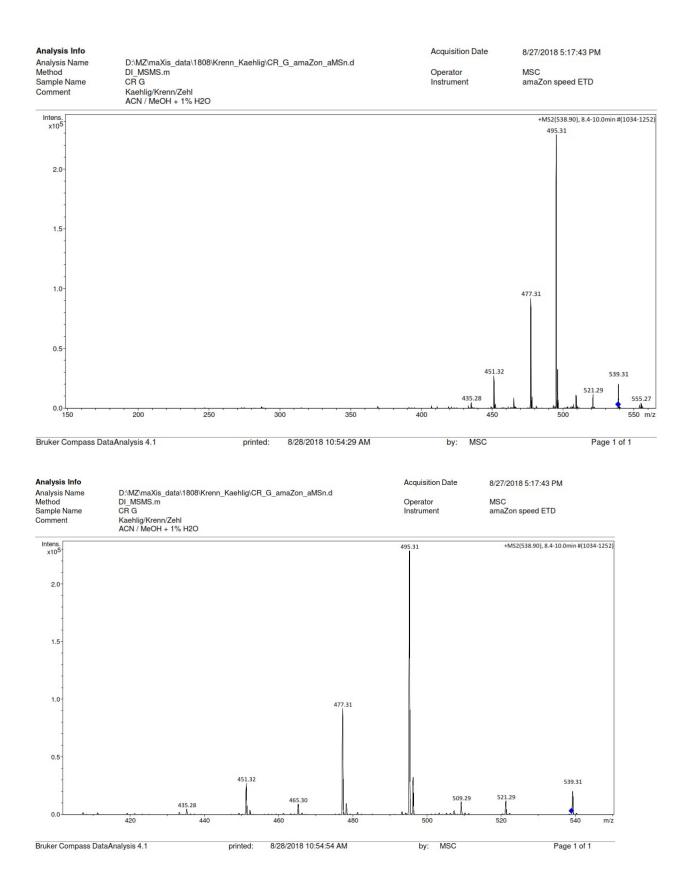
Appendix 7a: ESI-MS of CR-G

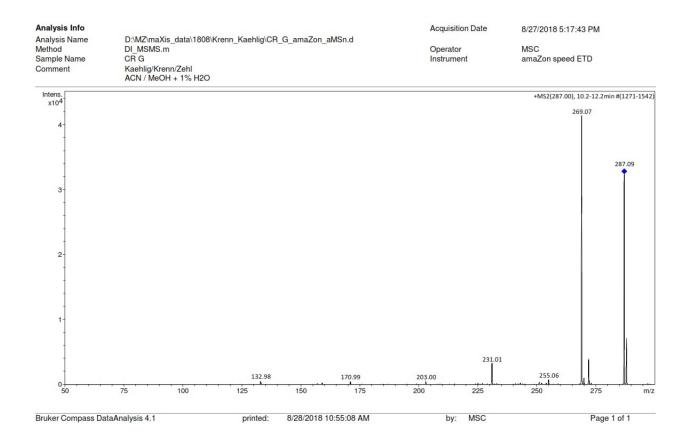


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Method	DI_MSMS.m	Operator	MSC			
Sample Name	CR G	Instrument	amaZon speed ETD			
Comment	Kaehlig/Krenn/Zehl					
	ACN / MeOH + 1% H2O					









Analysis Info Acquisition Date 8/27/2018 5:17:43 PM Analysis Name Method Sample Name D:\MZ\maXis_data\1808\Krenn_Kaehlig\CR_G_amaZon_aMSn.d DI_MSMS.m CR G Operator Instrument MSC amaZon speed ETD Kaehlig/Krenn/Zehl ACN / MeOH + 1% H2O Comment Intens +MS2(287.00), 10.2-12.2mn #(1271-1542) \$8.09 6000-4000-272.06 231.01 2000-255.06 170.99 203.00 251.09 243.06 225.05 259.02 240 11.1

260

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Page 1 of 1

m/z

220

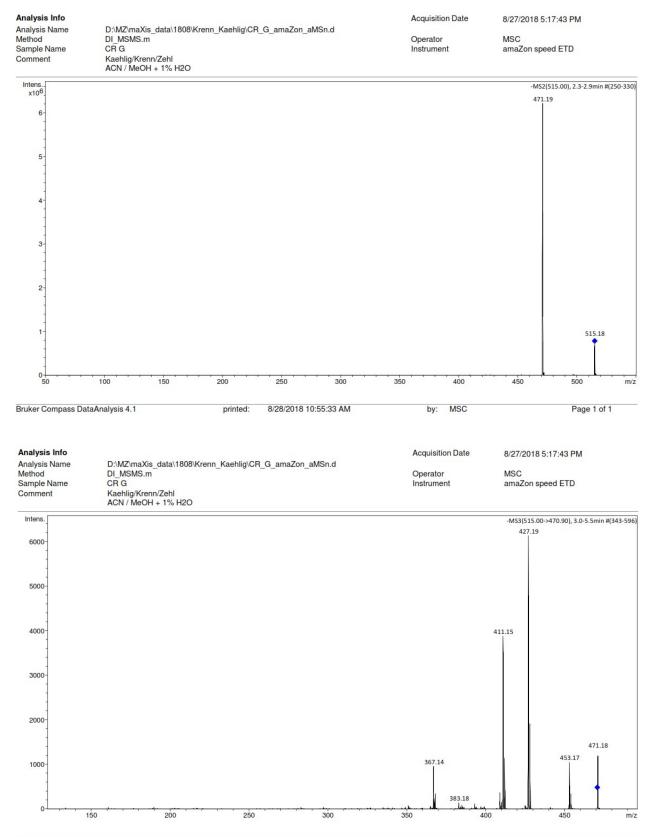
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180

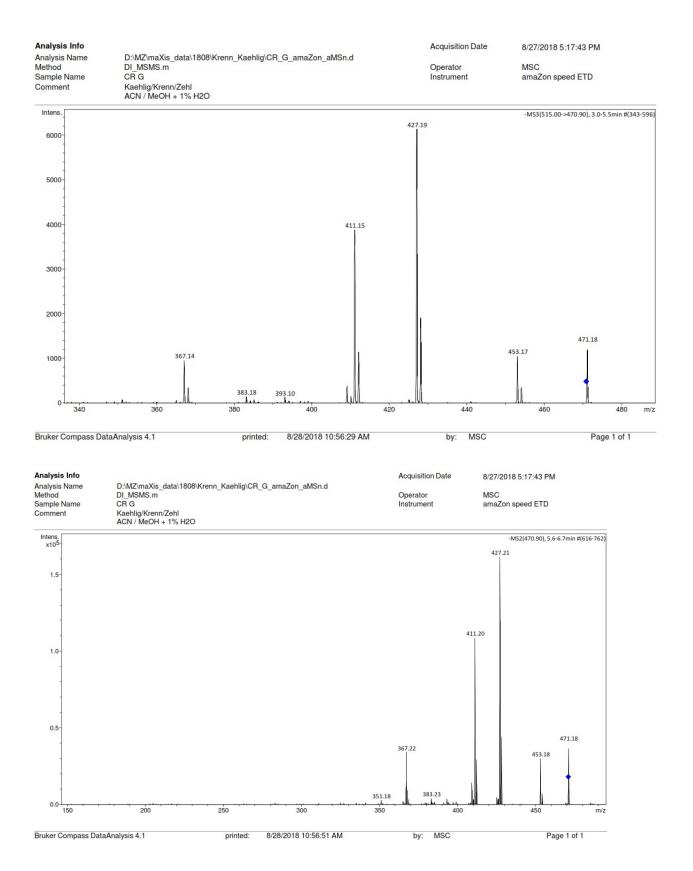
Bruker Compass DataAnalysis 4.1

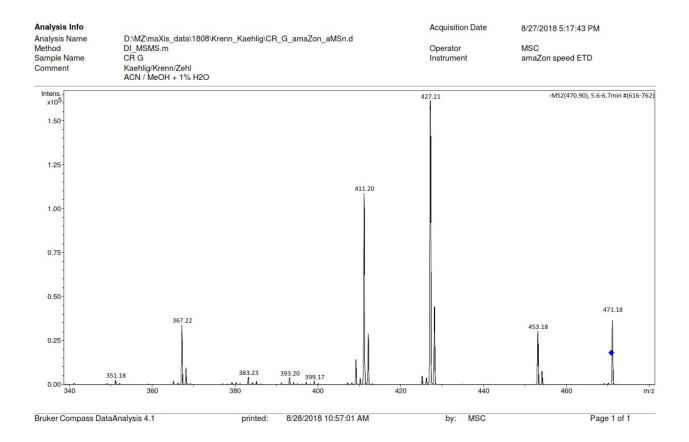
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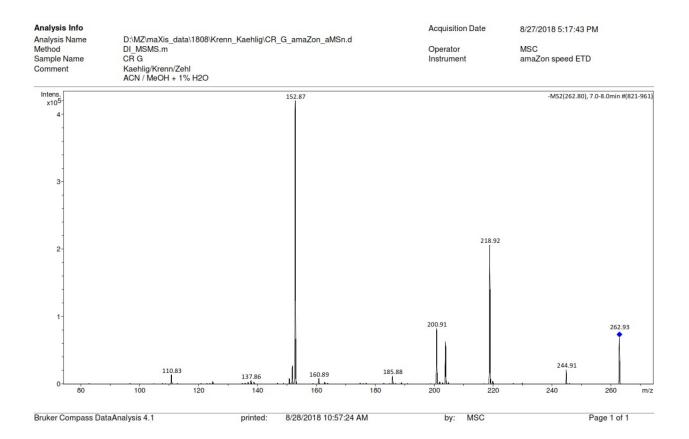


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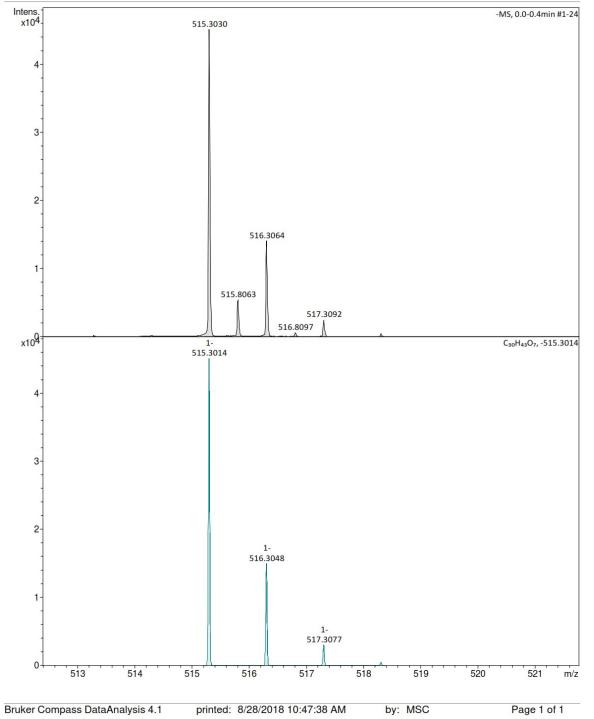


Analysis Info Acquisition Date 8/27/2018 5:17:43 PM Analysis Name Method Sample Name D:\MZ\maXis_data\1808\Krenn_Kaehlig\CR_G_amaZon_aMSn.d DL_MSMS.m CR G MSC amaZon speed ETD Operator Instrument Kaehlig/Krenn/Zehl ACN / MeOH + 1% H2O Comment Intens. 6000 427.19 -MS3(515.00->470.90), 3.0-5.5min #(343-596) 5000 411.15 4000 3000 2000 471.18 453.17 367.14 1000 383.18 393.10 x109 427.21 -MS2(470.90), 5.6-6.7min #(616-762) 1.50 1.25 411.20 1.00 0.75 0.50 471.18 367.22 453.18 0.25 351.18 383.23 393.20 399.17 0.00 380 420 440 460 340 360 400 m/z Page 1 of 1 Bruker Compass DataAnalysis 4.1 8/28/2018 10:57:08 AM MSC printed: by:



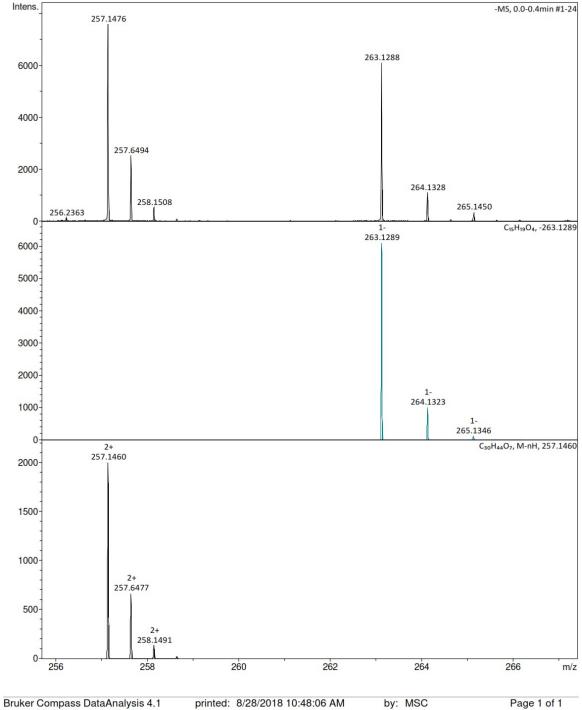
Appendix 7b: HRESI-MS of CR-G

Analysis Info		Acquisition Date	8/20/2018 12:13:25 PM
Analysis Name Method Sample Name Comment	D:\MZ\maXis_data\1808\Krenn_Kaehlig\59027000001.d tune_low_MS_Service_08_18.m CRG Kaehlig-Zehl/Anorg.Chem Ergebnis: +/- 5ppm ACN/MeOH +1%H2O	Operator Instrument	msc maXis



Analysis Info

Acquisition Date 8/20/2018 12:13:25 PM Analysis Name D:\MZ\maXis_data\1808\Krenn_Kaehlig\59027000001.d Method tune_low_MS_Service_08_18.m Operator msc Instrument Sample Name CRG maXis Kaehlig-Zehl/Anorg.Chem Ergebnis: +/- 5ppm ACN/MeOH +1%H2O Comment



Mass Spectrum SmartFormula Report

Analysis Info

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Acquisition Date 8/20/2018 12:13:25 PM

Operator msc Instrument maXis

255552.00016

Acquisition ParameterSource TypeESIFocusNot activeScan Begin50 m/zScan End1900 m/z		SI lot active 0 m/z	lon Polarity Set Capillary Set End Plate Offset Set Charging Voltage Set Corona		4500 et -500	4500 V -500 V 0 V		Set Nebulizer Set Dry Heater Set Dry Gas Set Divert Valve Set APCI Heater		0.4 Bar 180 °C 4.0 l/min Source 0 °C	
Intens x10 ⁴									-MS,	0.0-0.4min #	#1-24
6-											
		545.00	200								
4-		515.30	030								
4											
2-											
-	235.15	26		779.4397	1031.6	6133					
0-1	200	400	600	800	1000	1200	14	00	1600	1800	m/
Meas. m	/z #	Ion Formula	Score	m/z	err [mDa]	err [ppm]	mSigma	rdb	e ⁻ Conf	N-Rule	
257.14		C30H42O7	91.28	257.1471	-0.6	-2.2	5.5	10.0	even	ok	
	2	C27H34N10O C31H38N4O3	60.16 100.00	257.1464 257.1477	-1.2	-4.8 0.4	8.0 11.5	16.0 15.0	even	ok	
	4	C17H30N20	26.10	257.1477	-1.0	-4.0	48.0	13.0	even even	ok	
	5	C19H42N6O10	24.00	257.1487	-1.0	-4.0	50.7	2.0	even	ok	
	6	C16H34N16O4	32.76	257.1480	0.4	1.4	51.9	8.0	even	ok	
	7	C15H38N12O8	23.65	257.1473	-0.3	-1.2	62.7	3.0	even	ok	
	8	C12H30N22O2	11.14	257.1467	-1.0	-3.8	73.9	9.0	even	ok	
263.128	38 1	C15H19O4	100.00	263.1289	-0.1	-0.5	15.4	6.5	even	ok	
	2	C8H19N6O2S	38.09	263.1296	-0.8	-3.1	42.0	2.5	even	ok	
515.303		C30H43O7	59.84	515.3014	-1.5	-3.0 0.4	11.7	<mark>9.5</mark> 14.5	even	ok	
	2	C31H39N4O3	100.00	515.3028	0.2	0.4	22.4	14.5	even	ok	

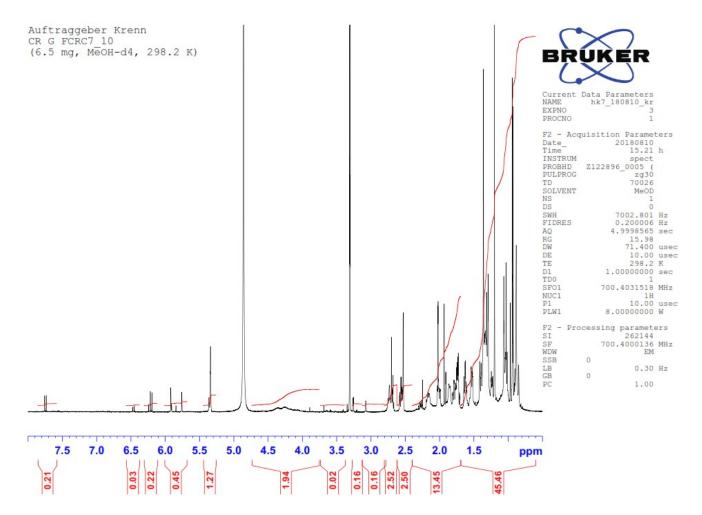
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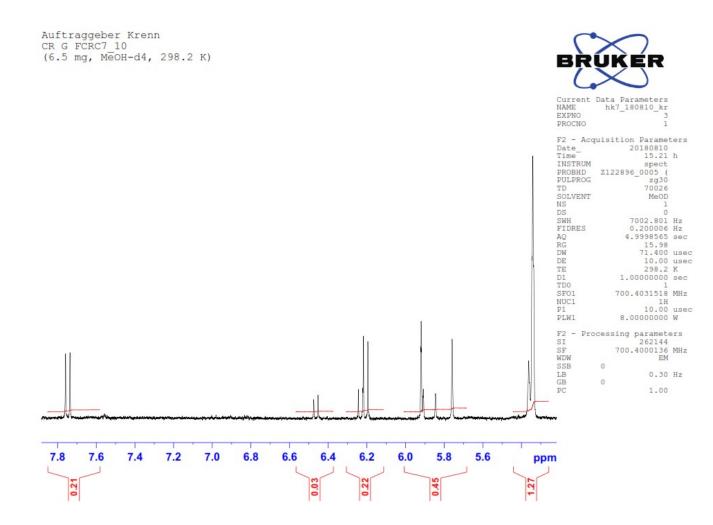
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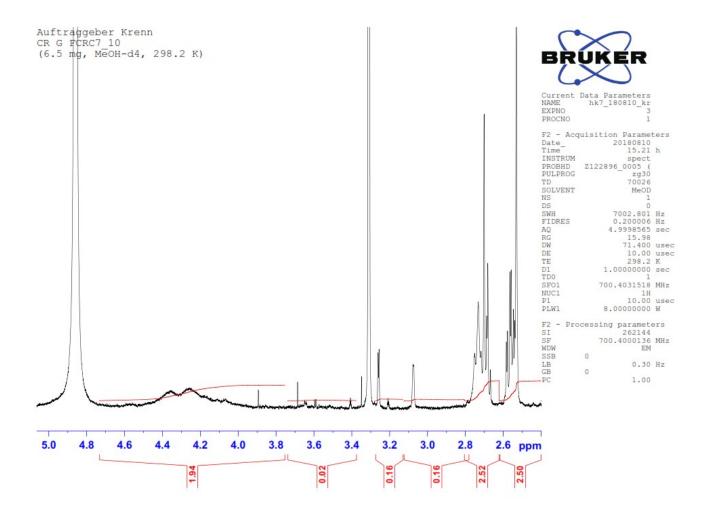
by: MSC

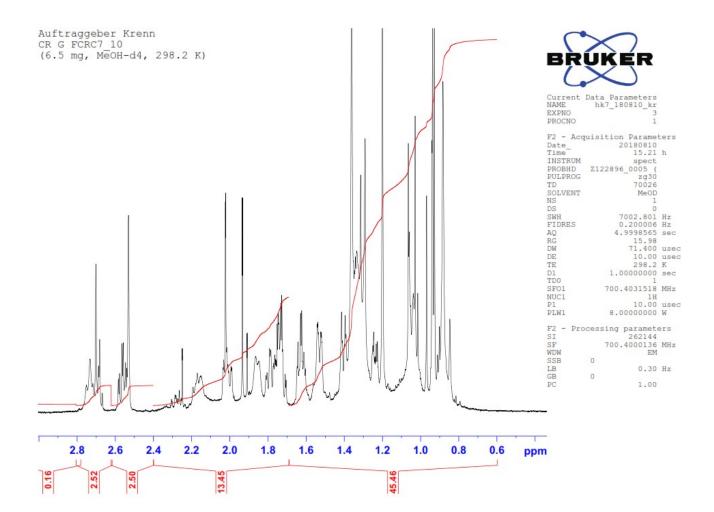
Page 1 of 1

Appendix 8: 1D and 2D NMR of CR-G Appendix 8a: ¹H NMR of CR-G

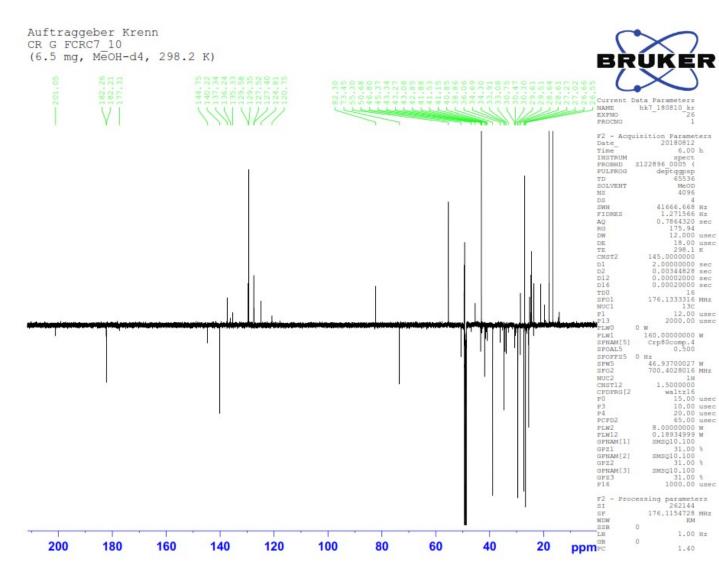


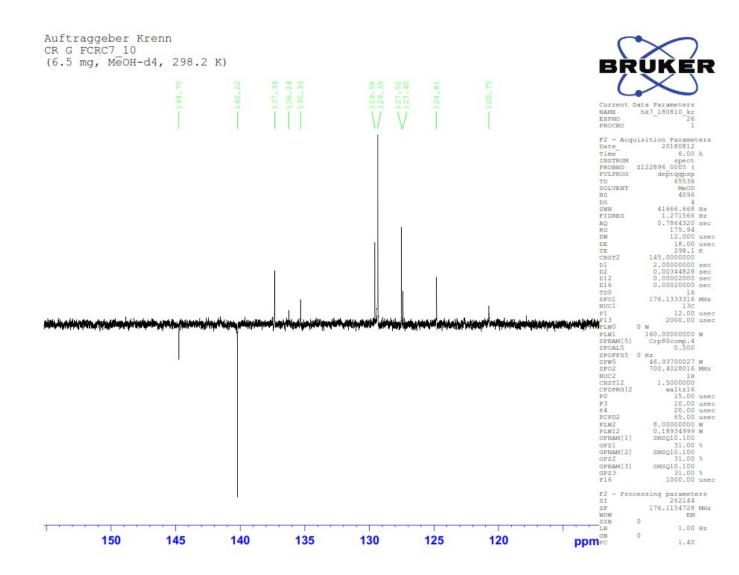


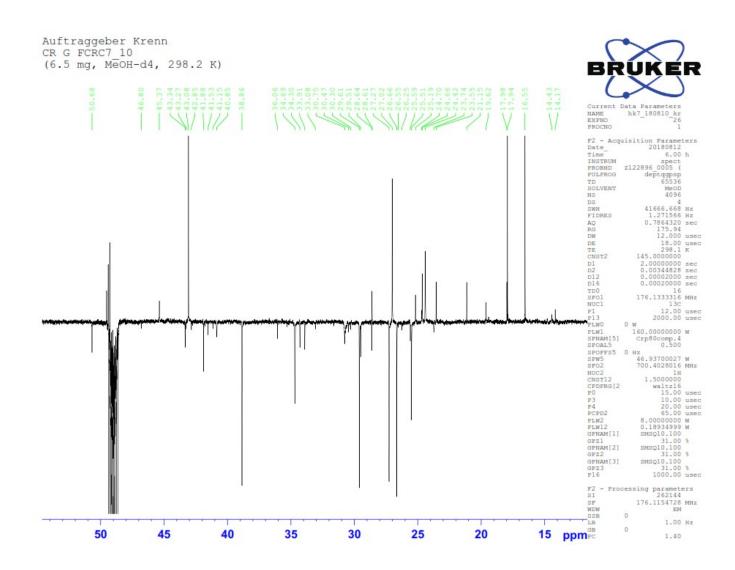




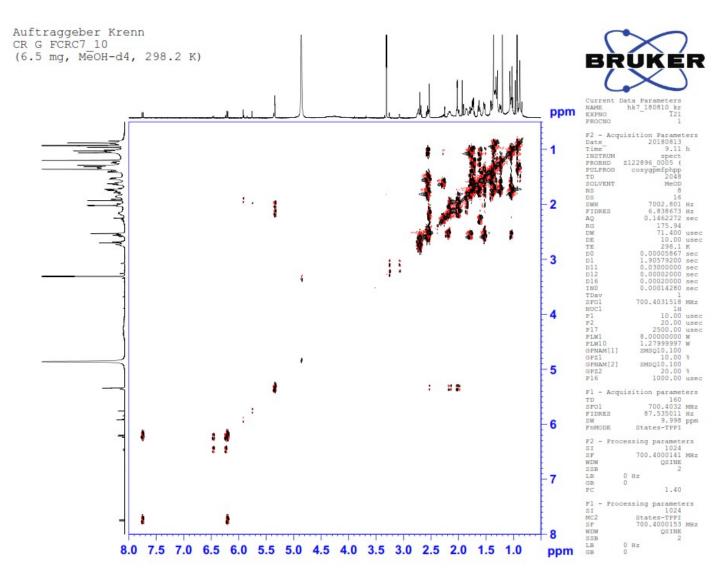
Appendix 8b: ¹³C NMR of CR-G



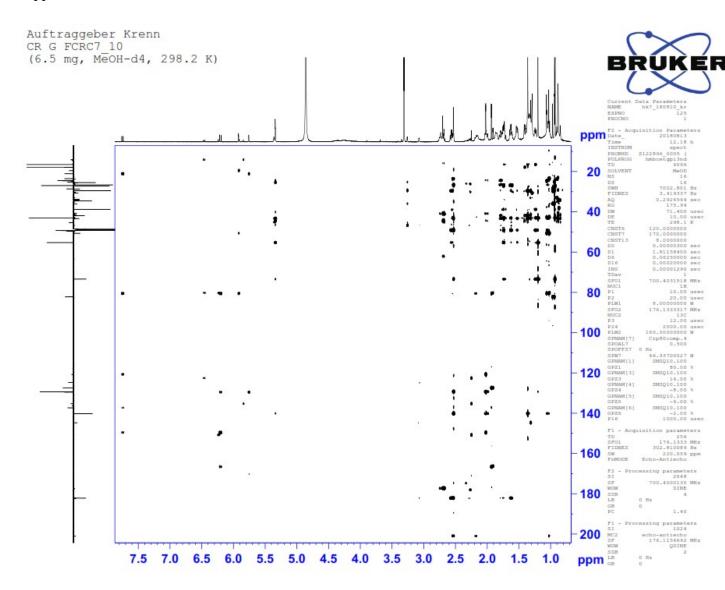




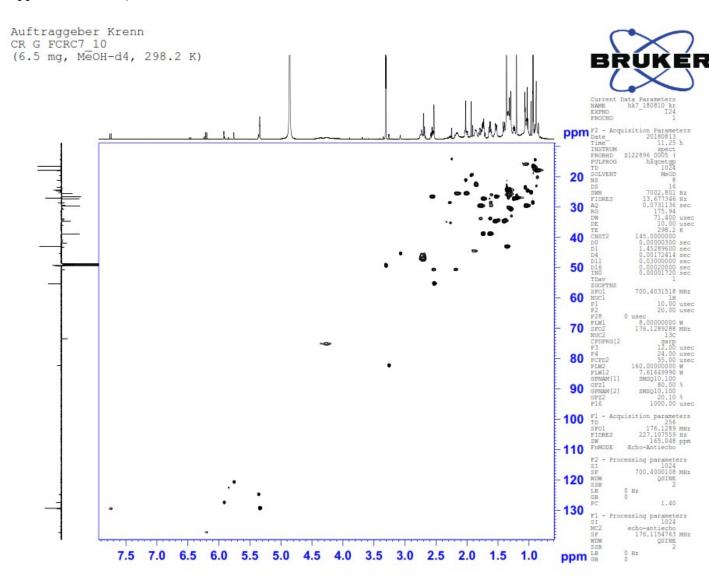
Appendix 8c: COSY of CR-G



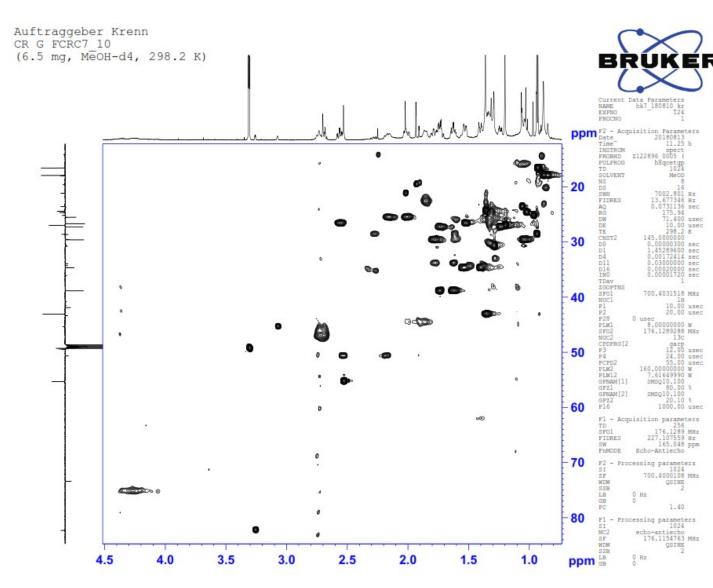
Appendix 8d: HMBC of CR-G



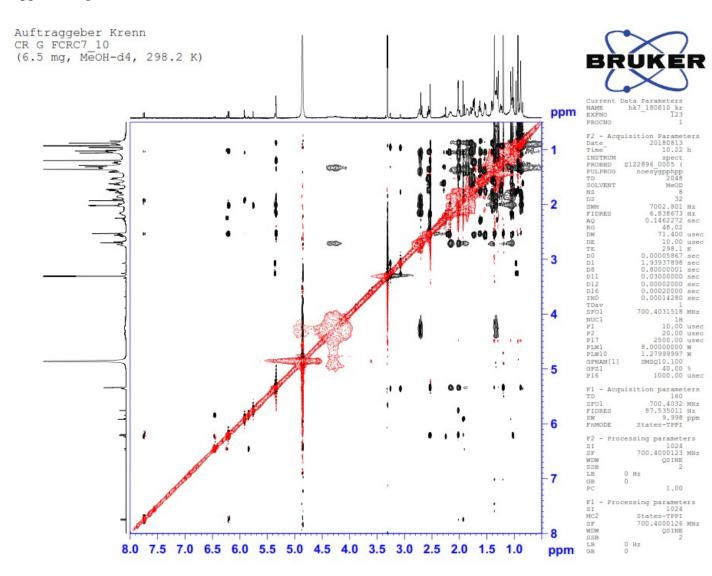
Appendix 8e: HSQC of CR-G



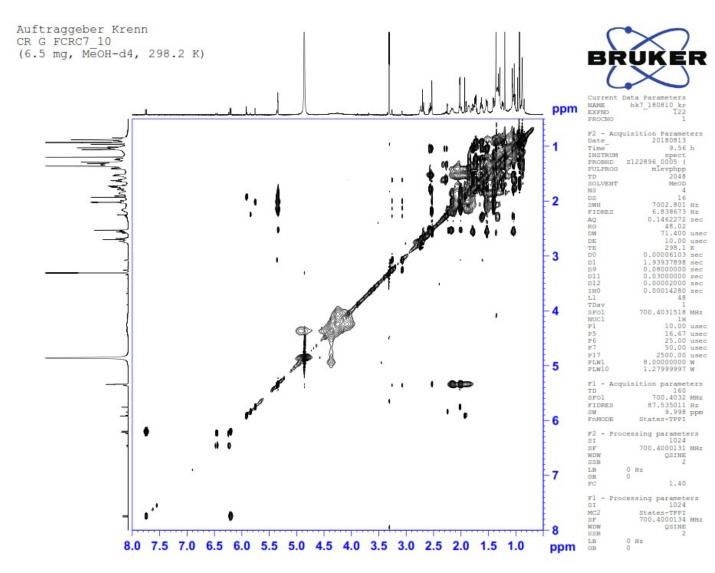
Appendix 8f: HSQC of CR-G



Appendix 8g: NOESY of CR-G



Appendix 8h: TOCSY of CR-G



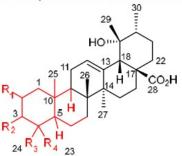
Appendix 9: Incomplete spectra data assignment of CR-G

CR G

hk7_180810_kr 3, 20-26, 120-125 (6.5 mg, MeOH-d4, 298.2 K)

Mixture, several signals in $^1\mathrm{H}$ and/or $^{13}\mathrm{C}\text{-NMR}$ broad, some $^{13}\mathrm{C}$ shifts only from HSQC or HMBC

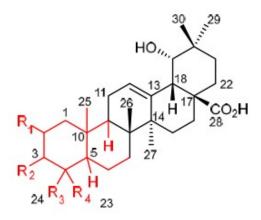
1) the red part could not be assigned, signals are very broad, no carbon signals in the direct $^{13}\rm C$ NMR, very broad cross peaks in the HSQC and HMBC spectra



		¹ H (ppm)	<mark>Јн,н (Hz)</mark>	¹³ C (ppm)
7	CH ₂	1.540	m	34.69
		1.404	m	
8	С	-	-	41.88
11	CH_2	2.164	m	25.51
10	CLI		120 hr	100.25
12	СН	5.332	t 3.2, br	129.35
13	С	-	-	140.22
14	C	-	-	43.34
15	CH ₂	1.785	m	29.61
		1.046	m	
16	CH ₂	2.562	t 13.3 / d 4.6	26.66
		1.530		
17	C	-	-	49.18
18	CH	2.531	S	55.30
19	C	-	-	73.45
20	CH	1.354	m	43.08
21	CH ₂	1.733	m	27.27
-		1.236	m	
22	CH ₂	1.740	m	38.86
	0112	1.622	m	00.00
26	CH ₃	0.883	s, br	17.94

27	CH ₃	1.362	S	24.42
28	С	-	-	182.21
29	CH ₃	1.200	S	27.02
30	CH ₃	0.933	d 6.8	16.55

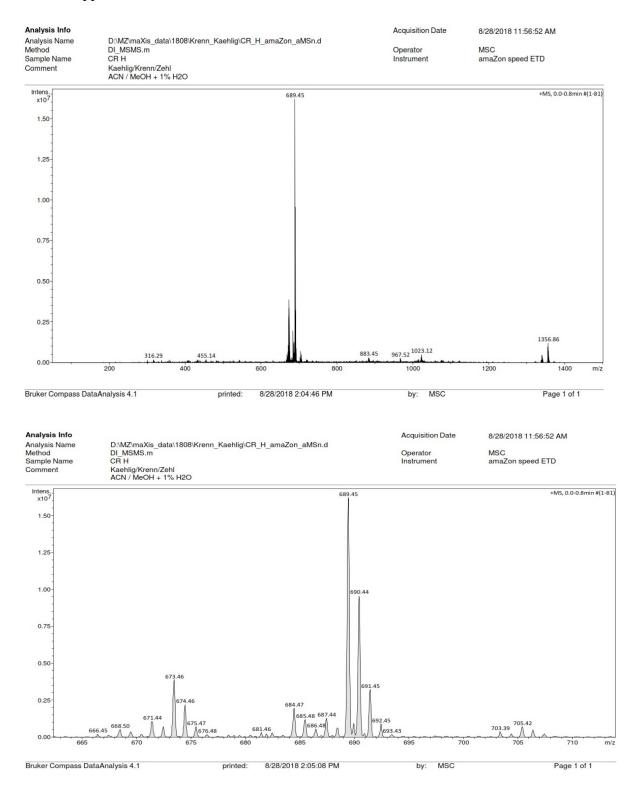
2) seems to be the isomer of 1), even less signals assigned due to low amount

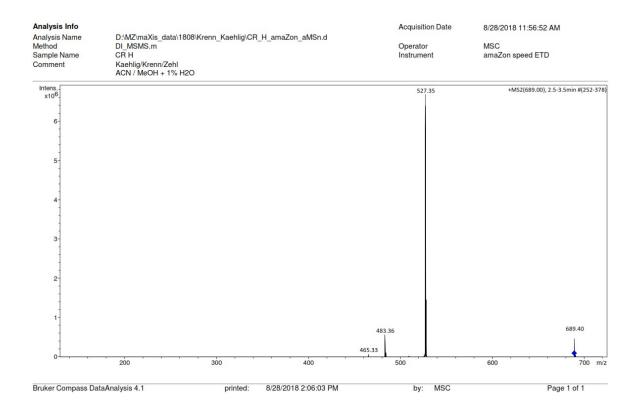


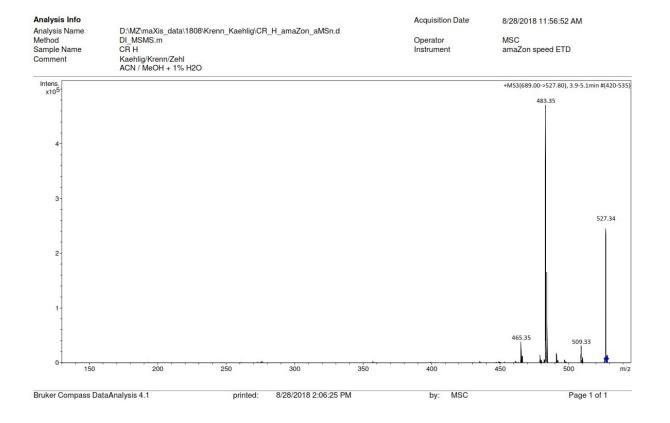
		¹ H (ppm)	Jн,н (Hz)	¹³ C (ppm)
12	СН	5.362	t 3.2, br	124.81
13	C	-	-	144.75
14	С	-	-	43.27
17	С	-	-	46.70
18	CH	3.075	m	45.37
19	CH	3.259	d 3.5	82.30
20	C	-	-	36.06
21	CH ₂	1.758	m	29.51
		1.005	m	
22	CH ₂	1.781	m	33.91
		1.631	m	
28	С	-	-	181.26
29	CH ₃	0.941	S	28.61
30	CH ₃	0.969	S	25.19

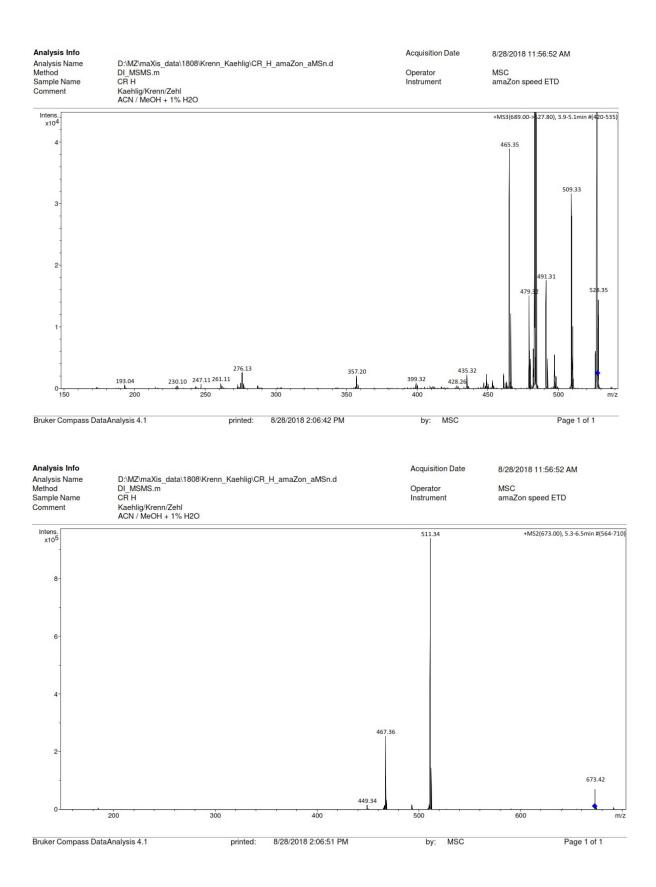
Appendix 10: Mass spectra of CR-H

Appendix 10a: ESI-MS of CR-H

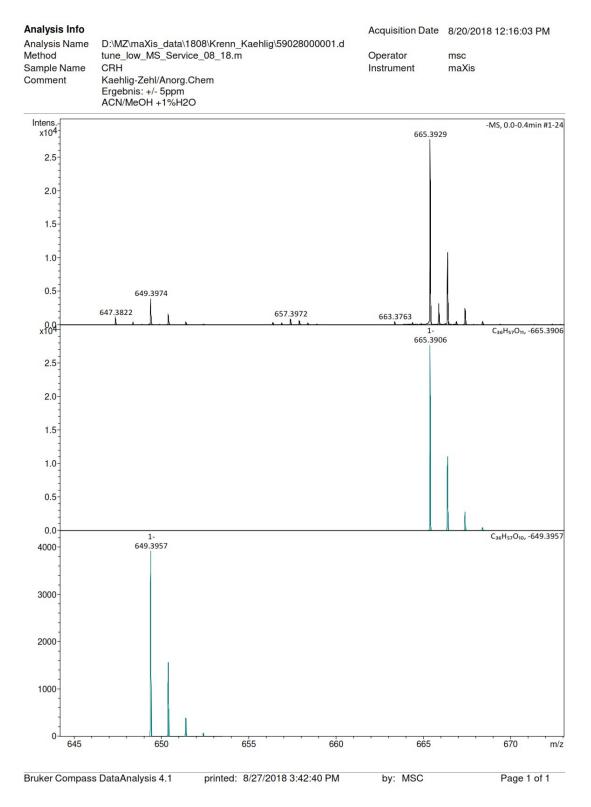








Appendix 10b: HRESI-MS of CR-H



Mass Spectrum SmartFormula Report

Analysis Info

 Analysis Name
 D:\MZ\maXis_data\1808\Krenn_Kaehlig\59028000001.d

 Method
 tune_low_MS_Service_08_18.m

 Sample Name
 CRH

 Comment
 Kaehlig-Zehl/Anorg.Chem

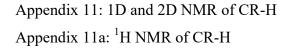
 Ergebnis: +/- 5ppm
 ACN/MeOH +1%H2O

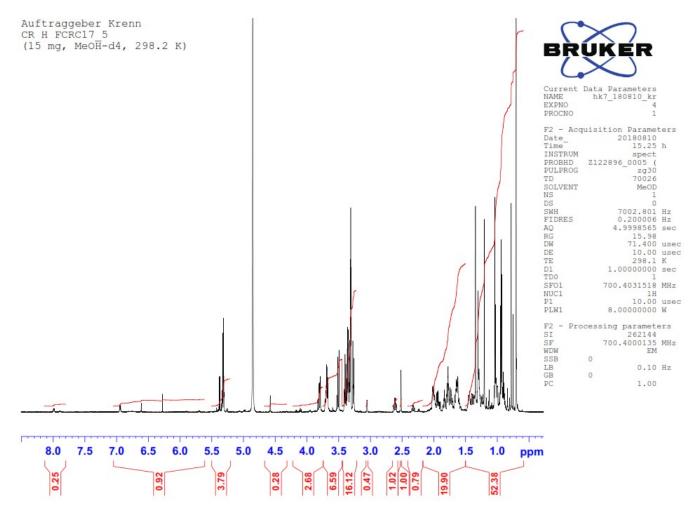
Acquisition Date 8/20/2018 12:16:03 PM

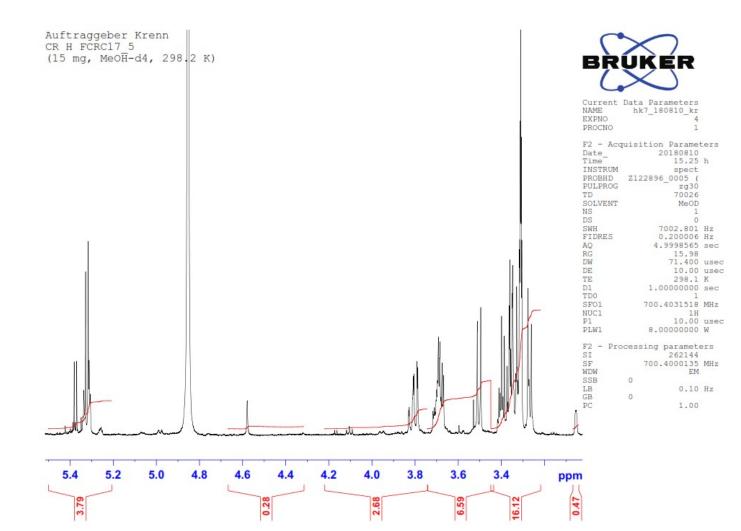
Operator msc Instrument maXis

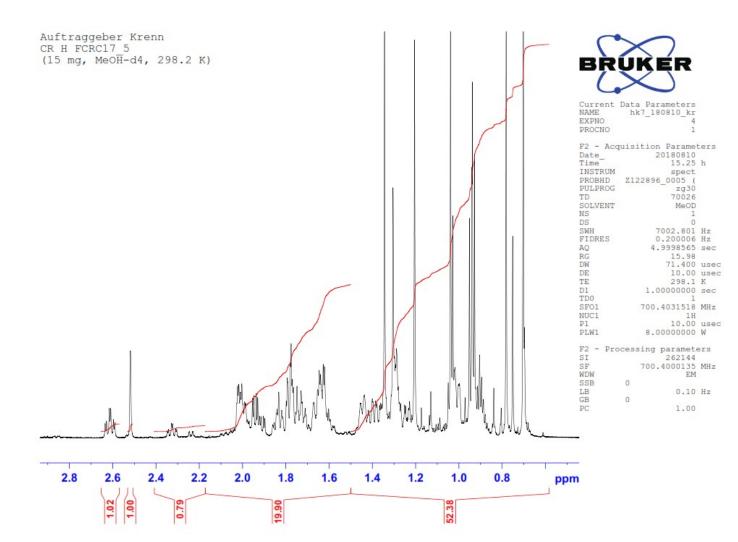
255552.00016

Acquisition Parameter Ion Polarity Source Type ESI Negative Set Nebulizer 0.4 Bar Set Capillary Set End Plate Offset Not active Focus 4500 V Set Dry Heater 180 °C -500 V 0 V Set Dry Gas Set Divert Valve Set APCI Heater Scan Begin 4.0 l/min 50 m/z Scan End 1900 m/z Set Charging Voltage Source 0 °C Set Corona 0 nA Intens. -MS, 0.0-0.4min #1-24 x104 4 3 665.3929 2 1. 431.0993 999.0998 0 200 600 1000 1200 1400 1600 1800 m/z 400 800 Meas. m/z Ion Formula Score err [mDa] mSigma rdb e⁻ Conf N-Rule # err [ppm] m/z 649.3974 1 157010 48 35 649 3957 -1.6 0.3 2.5 12.5 <mark>8.5</mark> 13.5 even ok 0.5 2 C37H53N4O6 100.00 649.3971 14.1 ok even C33H49N10O4 649.3944 3 14.01 -3.0 -4.6 18.7 14.5 even ok 4 C34H45N14 41.28 649.3957 -1.7 -2.5 20.0 19.5 even ok 5 C38H49N8O2 57.49 649.3984 -1.0 -1.6 22.7 18.5 even ok 665.3929 1 C36H57O11 49.26 665.3906 2.2 3.4 7.1 8.5 ok even

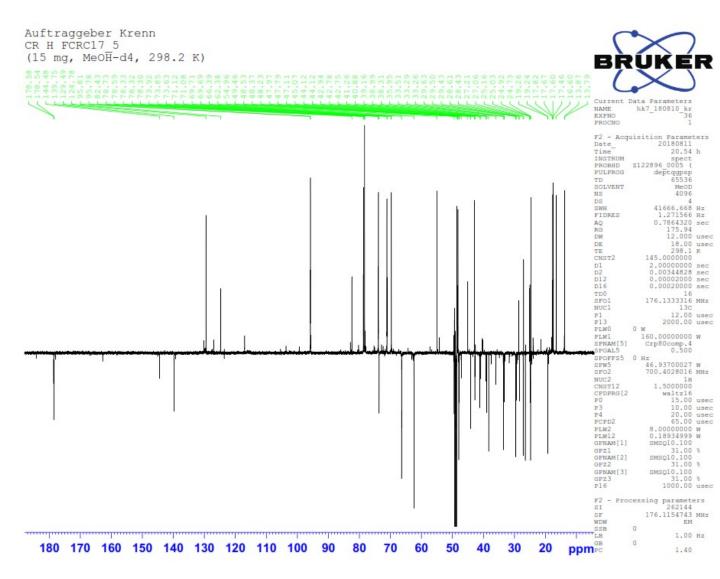




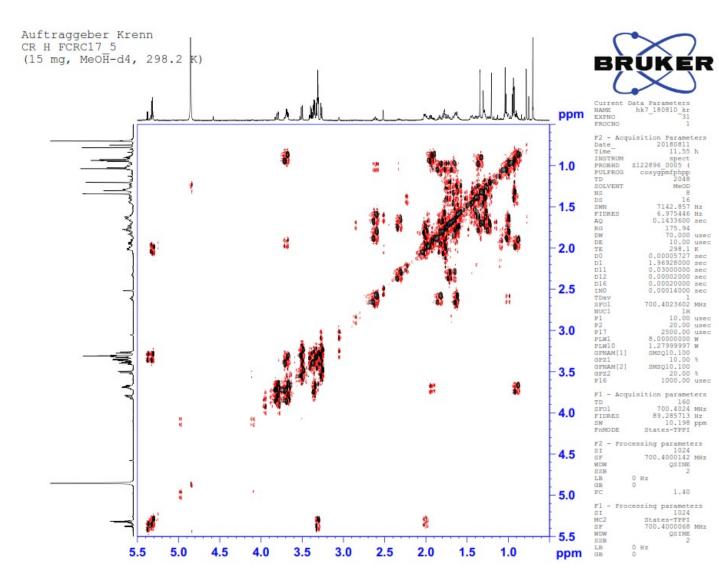




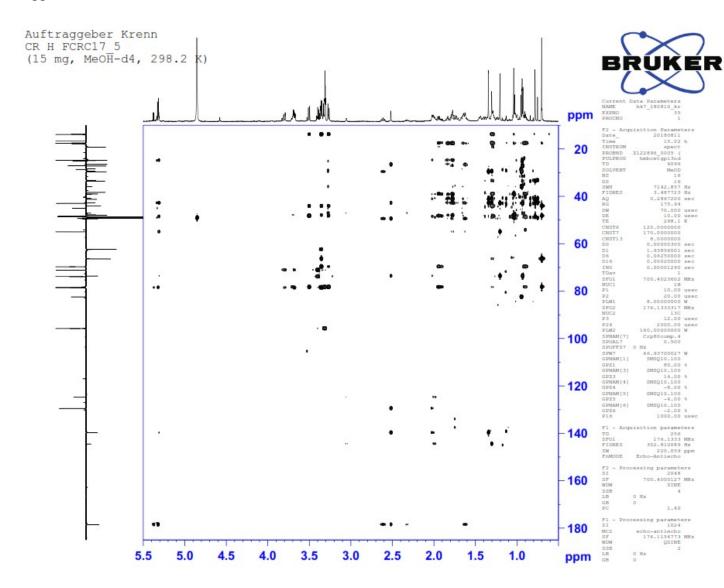
Appendix 11b: ¹³C NMR of CR-H



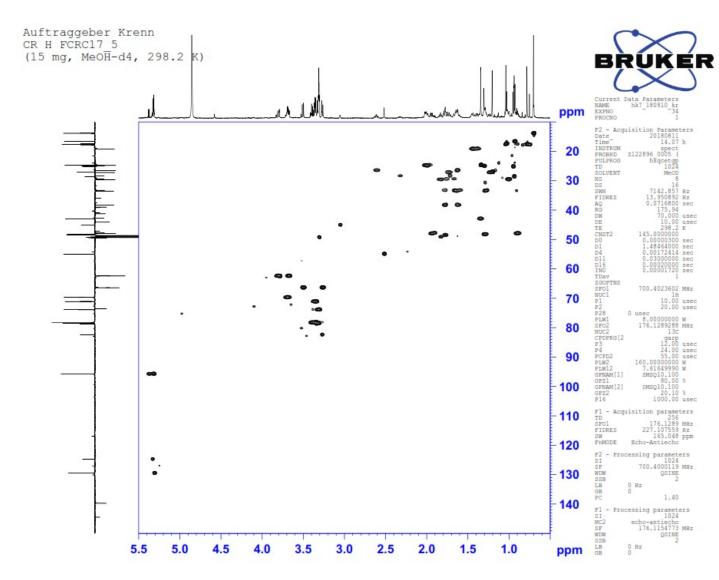
Appendix 11c: COSY of CR-H



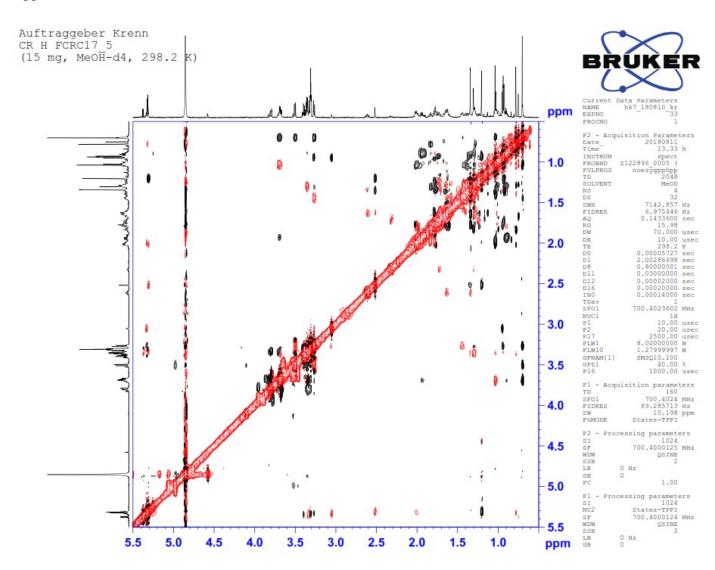
Appendix 11d: HMBC of CR-H



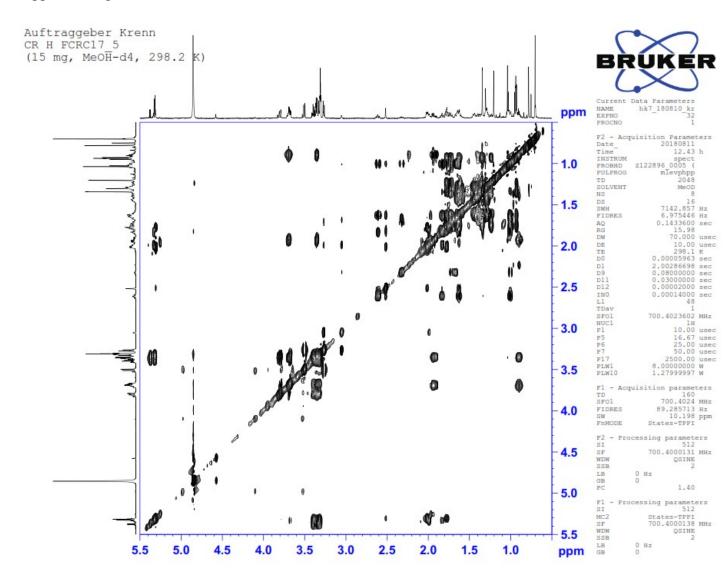
Appendix 11e: HSQC of CR-H



Appendix 11f: NOESY of CR-H

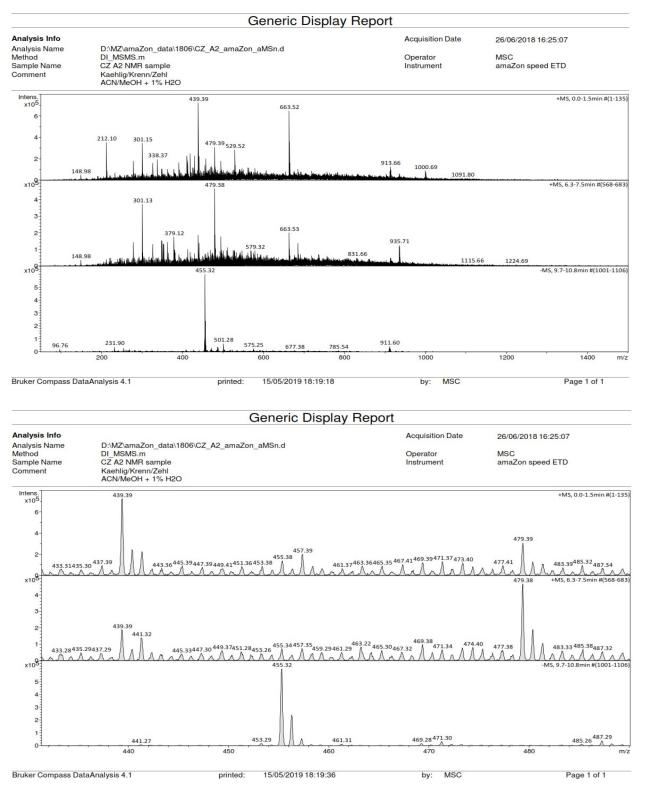


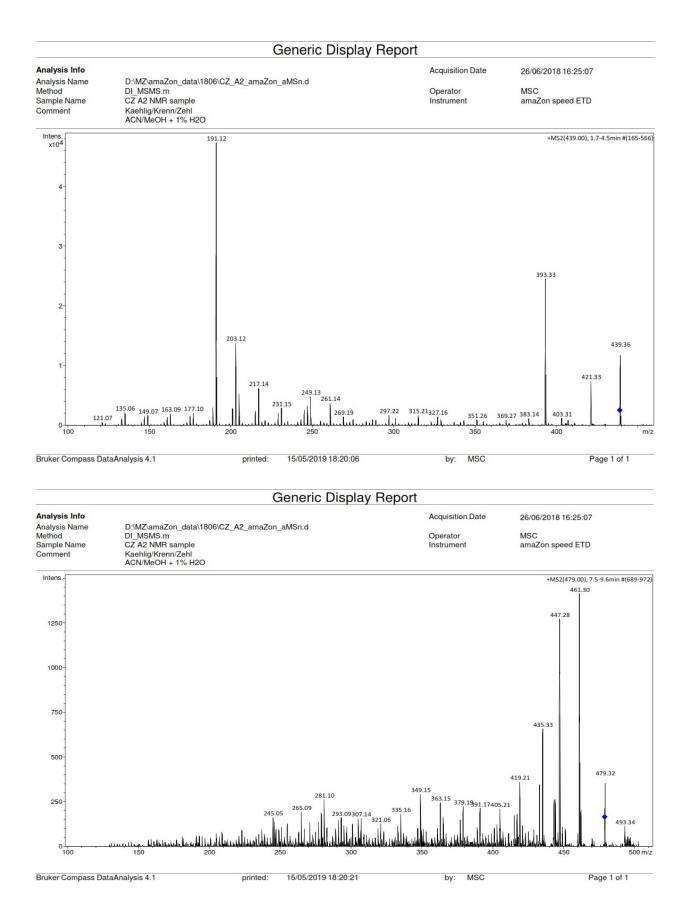
Appendix 11g: TOCSY of CR-H

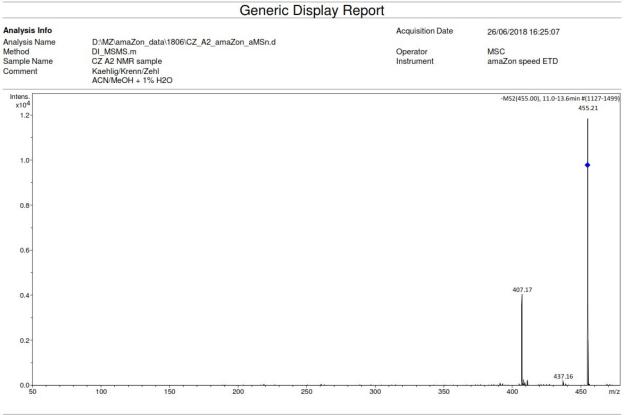


Appendix 11: Mass spectra of CZ-A

Appendix 12a: ESI-MS of CZ-A

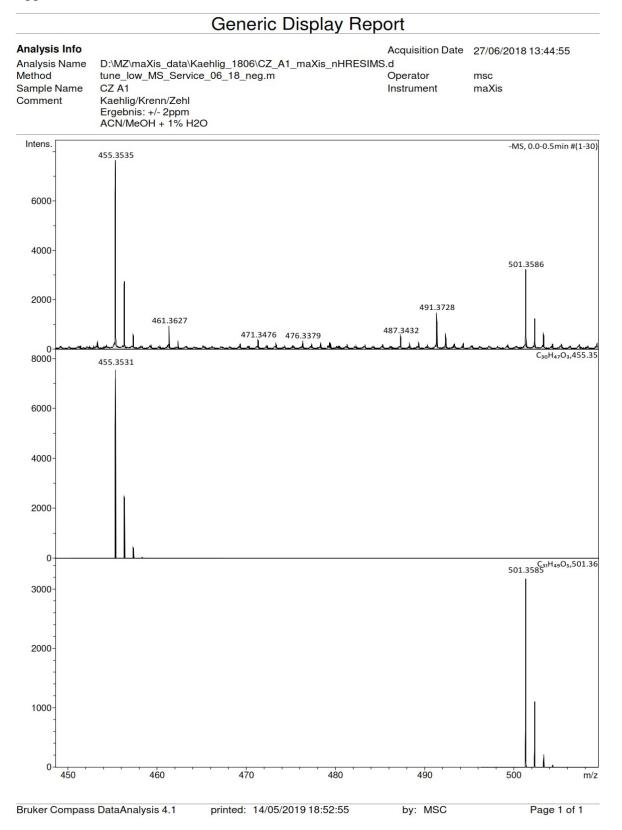






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 by:
 MSC
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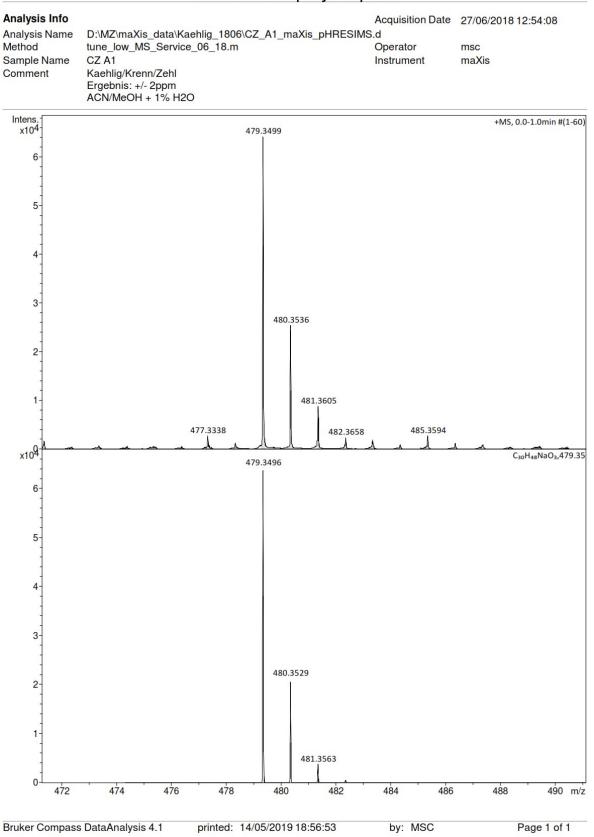
Appendix 12b: HRESI-MS of CZ-A



Mass Spectrum SmartFormula Report

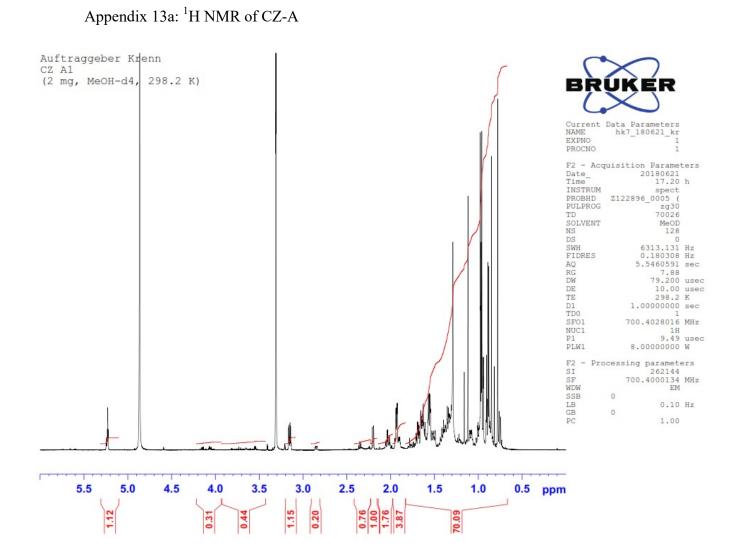
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Analysis Name	D:\M	Z\maXis_data\	Kaehlig_	1806\CZ_A1_r	maXis_nHF	ESIMS.d					
Method Sample Name Comment	D:\MZ\maXis_data\Kaehlig_1806\CZ_A1_maXis_nHRESIMS tune_low_MS_Service_06_18_neg.m CZ A1 Kaehlig/Krenn/Zehl Ergebnis: +/- 2ppm ACN/MeOH + 1% H2O						Operator msc Instrument maXis			255552.00016	
Acquisition Par	ramete	r									
Source Type Focus Scan Begin Scan End	ES No 50		Set 0 Set E n/a	Polarity Capillary End Plate Offset Corona	Negati 4500 \ -500 V n/a 0 nA	/	Set Set	Nebuliz Dry He Dry Ga Divert ^V APCI H	eater as Valve	0.4 Bar 180 °C 4.0 l/min Source 0 °C	
Intens. x104 1.0- 0.8- 0.6- 0.4- 0.2-	232.044	455.3535	5 591.4632		965.9993				-мs,	0.0-0.5min #(1-30)	
0.0	200	400	600	800	1000	1200		00	1600	1800 m/z	
Meas. m 455,35350 501,35863	09 1	Ion Formula C30H47O3 C31H49O5	Score 100.00 100.00	m/z 455.353069 501.358548	err [mDa] -0.4 -0.1	err [ppm] -1.0 -0.2	mSigma 17.4 72.5	7.5	even	f N-Rule ok ok	

Generic Display Report



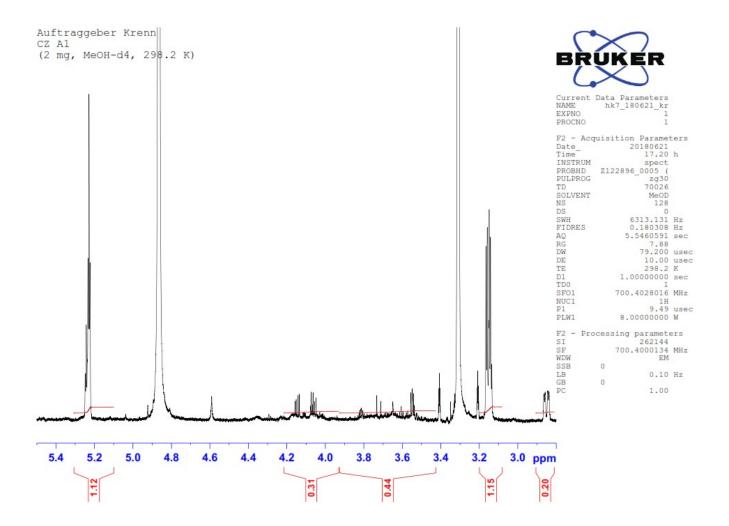
Mass Spectrum SmartFormula Report

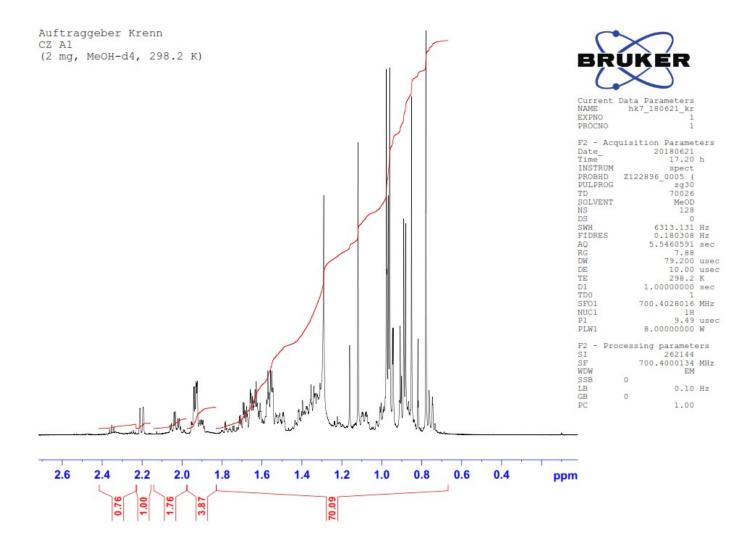
Analysis Info					Acqu	isition Date	27/06/201	8 12:54:08
Analysis Name	D:\MZ\maXis_da	ata\Kaehlig_1	806\CZ_A1_I	maXis_pHRE	SIMS.d			
Method Sample Name Comment	tune_low_MS_S CZ A1 Kaehlig/Krenn/Z Ergebnis: +/- 2p ACN/MeOH + 1	ehl pm	3.m		Oper Instr	rator msc ument maX	is	255552.00016
Acquisition Par	ameter							
Source Type Focus Scan Begin Scan End	ESI Not active 50 m/z 1900 m/z	Set C Set E n/a	olarity apillary nd Plate Offset orona	Positive 4500 V -500 V n/a 0 nA		Set Neb Set Dry Set Dry Set Dive Set APC	Heater Gas rt Valve	0.4 Bar 180 °C 4.0 I/min Source 0 °C
Intens. x10 ⁵ 0.8-							+1015	0.0-1.0min #(1-60)
0.6-	47	9.3499						
0.4-	381.2975			935.7086				
0.2-			Adver and the state					
	200 400	600	800	1000	1200	1400	1600	1800 m/z
Meas. m 479.34988			m/z 479.349566	err [mDa] -0.3	err [ppm] -0.7		db e⁻ Co 6.5 even	nf N-Rule ok

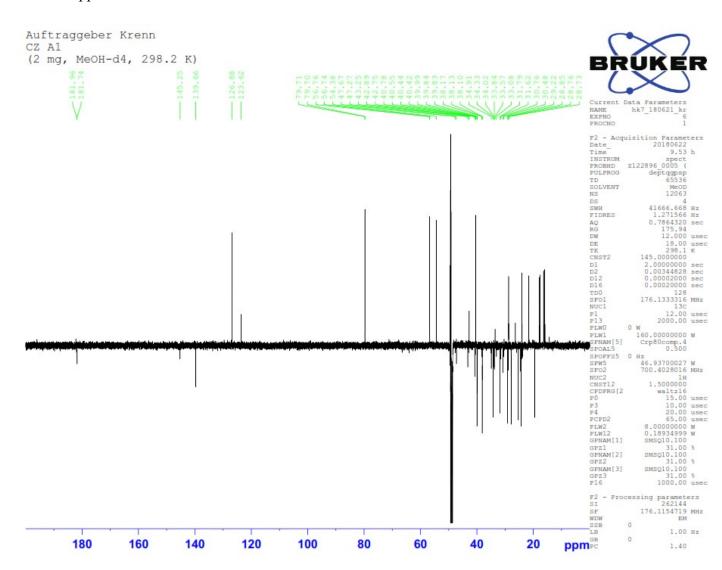


Appendix 13: 1D and 2D NMR of CZ-A

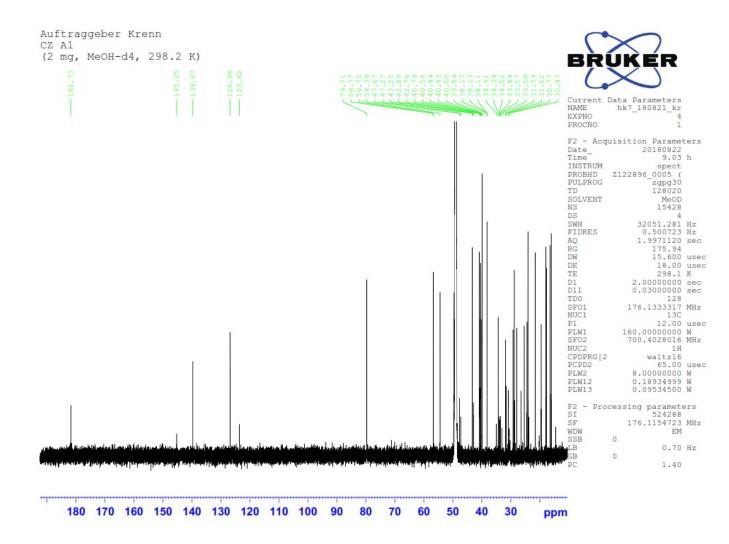
340

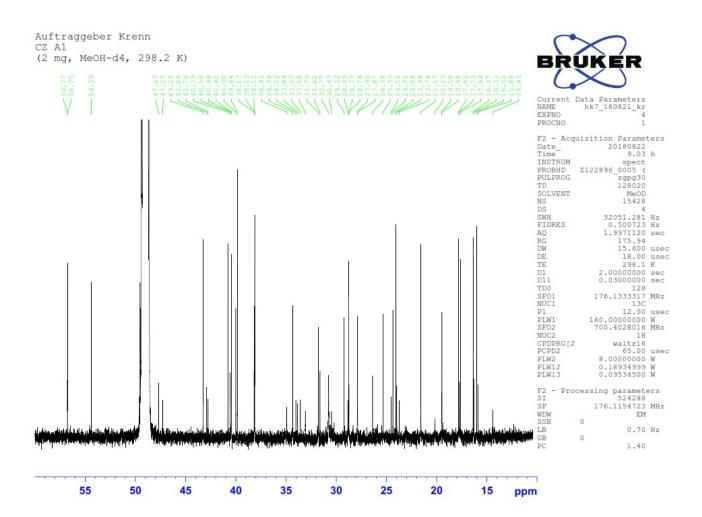


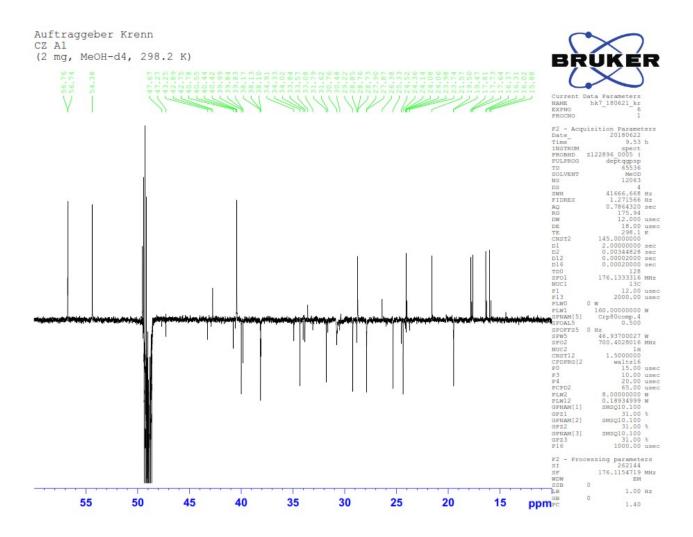




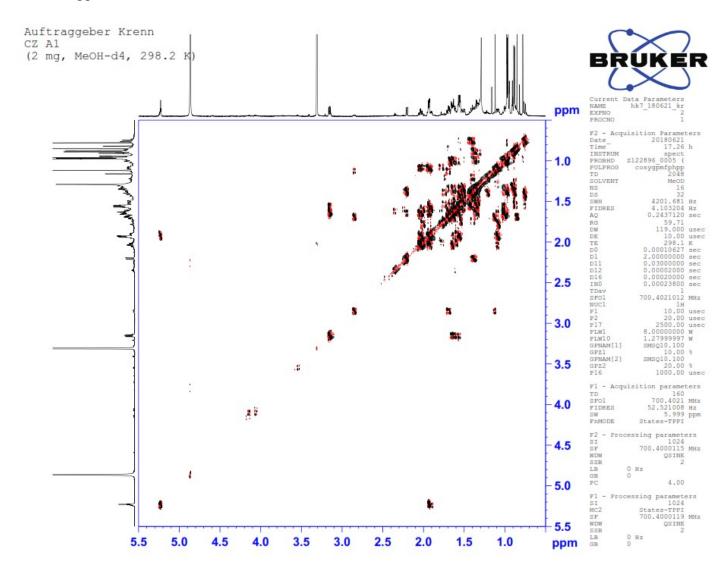
Appendix 13b: ¹³C NMR of CZ-A



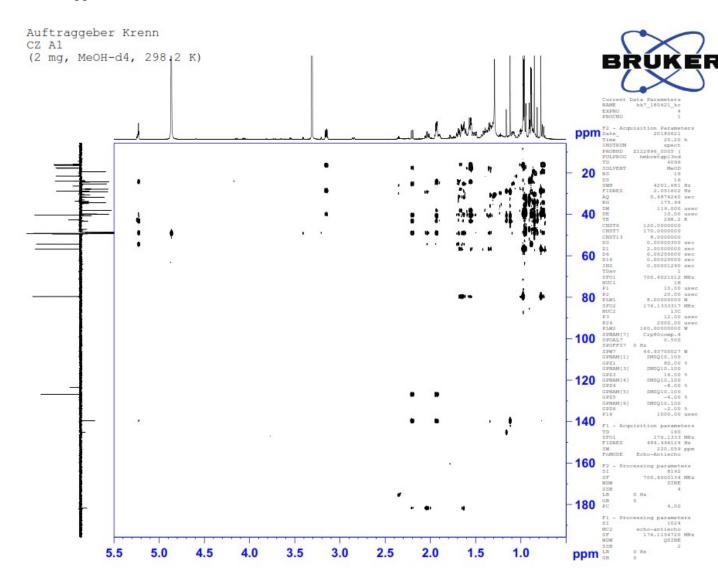


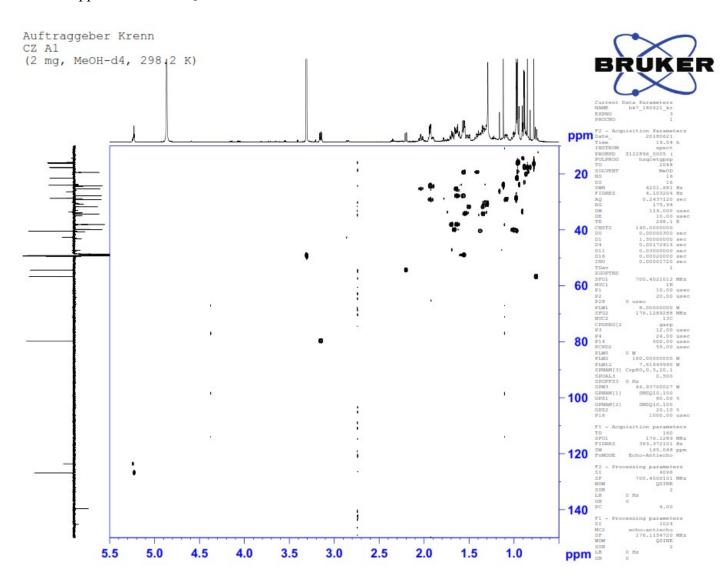


Appendix 13c: COSY of CZ-A



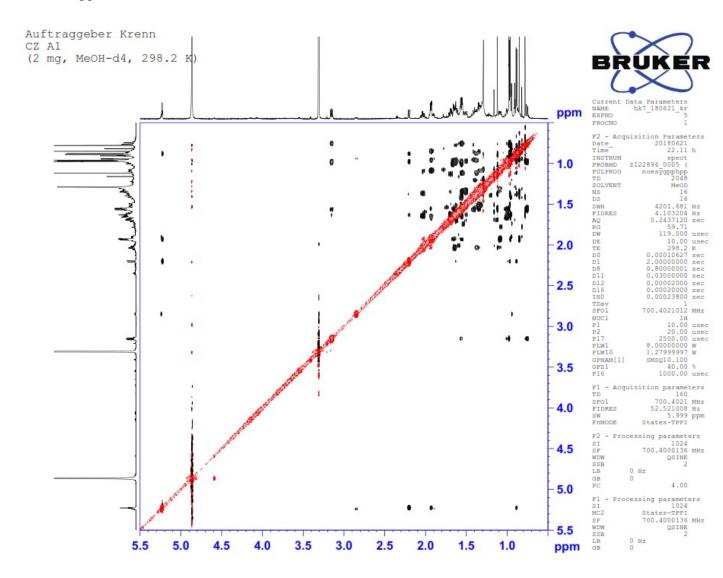
Appendix 13d: HMBC of CZ-A





Appendix 13e: HSQC of CZ-A

Appendix 13f: NOESY of CZ-A



Appendix 14: Statistical analysis details of extracts, fractions and isolated compounds

<u>Madecassic acid vs abscisic acid (D10 strain)</u>		
Table Analyzed	D10 strain	
Column B	AA	
vs.	vs.	
Column A	MA	

<u>Madecassic acid vs abscisic acid (D10 strain)</u>

Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed rank test

P value	0.0469
Exact or approximate P value?	Exact
P value summary	*
Significantly different (P < 0.05)?	Yes
One- or two-tailed P value?	Two-tailed
Sum of positive, negative ranks	26,-2
Sum of signed ranks (W)	24
Number of pairs	7
Median of differences	
Median	16.79

rs (Spearman)	0.9286
P value (one tailed)	0.0034
P value summary	**
Was the pairing significantly effective?	Yes

Madecassic acid vs arjungenin (D10 strain)

Table Analyzed	D10 strain	
Column C	AR	
VS.	VS.	
Column A	MA	

Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed rank test

P value	0.3750
Exact or approximate P value?	Exact
P value summary	ns
Significantly different (P < 0.05)?	No
One- or two-tailed P value?	Two-tailed
Sum of positive, negative ranks	20,-8
Sum of signed ranks (W)	12
Number of pairs	7
Median of differences	
Median	3.772

rs (Spearman)	0.9643
P value (one tailed)	0.0014
P value summary	**
Was the pairing significantly effective?	Yes

Madecassic acid vs CR-A (D10 strain)

Table Analyzed	D10 strain
Column D	CR-A
vs.	VS.
Column A	MA
Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed rank	test
P value	0.2188
Exact or approximate P value?	Exact
P value summary	ns
Significantly different (P < 0.05)?	No
One- or two-tailed P value?	Two-tailed
Sum of positive, negative ranks	22,-6
Sum of signed ranks (W)	16
Number of pairs	7
Median of differences	
Median	3.691
How effective was the pairing?	
rs (Spaarman)	0.0642

rs (Spearman)	0.9643
P value (one tailed)	0.0014
P value summary	**
Was the pairing significantly effective?	Yes

Madecassic acid vs CR-C (D10 strain)

Table Analyzed	D10 strain	
Column E	CR-C	
VS.	VS.	
Column A	MA	

Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed rank test

P value	0.2188
Exact or approximate P value?	Exact
P value summary	ns
Significantly different (P < 0.05)?	No
One- or two-tailed P value?	Two-tailed
Sum of positive, negative ranks	22,-6
Sum of signed ranks (W)	16
Number of pairs	7
Median of differences	
Median	4.701

rs (Spearman)	0.9643
P value (one tailed)	0.0014
P value summary	**
Was the pairing significantly effective?	Yes

Madecassic acid vs CR-H (D10 strain)

Table Analyzed	D10 strain	
Column F	CR-H	
VS.	VS.	
Column A	MA	

Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed rank test

P value	0.0781
Exact or approximate P value?	Exact
P value summary	ns
Significantly different (P < 0.05)?	No
One- or two-tailed P value?	Two-tailed
Sum of positive, negative ranks	25,-3
Sum of signed ranks (W)	22
Number of pairs	7
Median of differences	
Median	9.64

rs (Spearman)	0.9286
P value (one tailed)	0.0034
P value summary	**
Was the pairing significantly effective?	Yes

Madecassic acid vs abscisic acid (W2 strain)

Table Analyzed	W2 strain
Column B	AA
VS.	VS.
Column A	MA
Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed rank	test
P value	0.0156
Exact or approximate P value?	Exact
P value summary	*
Significantly different (P < 0.05)?	Yes
One- or two-tailed P value?	Two-tailed
Sum of positive, negative ranks	28,0
Sum of signed ranks (W)	28
Number of pairs	7
Median of differences	
Median	32.74
How effective was the pairing?	
rs (Spearman)	0.8929
B 1 ((1))	0.000

P value (one tailed)	0.0062
P value summary	**
Was the pairing significantly effective?	Yes

Madecassic acid vs arjungenin (W2 strain)

Table Analyzed	W2 strain	
Column C	AR	
VS.	VS.	
Column A	MA	

Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed rank test

P value	0.0156
Exact or approximate P value?	Exact
P value summary	*
Significantly different (P < 0.05)?	Yes
One- or two-tailed P value?	Two-tailed
Sum of positive, negative ranks	28,0
Sum of signed ranks (W)	28
Number of pairs	7
Median of differences	
Median	18.1
How effective was the pairing?	
rs (Spearman)	0.9643
P value (one tailed)	0.0014
P value summary	**
Was the pairing significantly effective?	Yes

Madecassic acid vs CR-A (W2 strain)

Table Analyzed	W2 strain	
Column D	CR-A	
VS.	vs.	
Column A	MA	

Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed rank test

P value	0.0156
Exact or approximate P value?	Exact
P value summary	*
Significantly different (P < 0.05)?	Yes
One- or two-tailed P value?	Two-tailed
Sum of positive, negative ranks	28,0
Sum of signed ranks (W)	28
Number of pairs	7
Median of differences	
Median	6.209

rs (Spearman)	0.8571
P value (one tailed)	0.0119
P value summary	*
Was the pairing significantly effective?	Yes

Madecassic acid vs CR-C (W2 strain)

Table Analyzed	W2 strain	
Column E	CR-C	
VS.	VS.	
Column A	MA	

Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed rank test

P value	0.0781
Exact or approximate P value?	Exact
P value summary	ns
Significantly different (P < 0.05)?	No
One- or two-tailed P value?	Two-tailed
Sum of positive, negative ranks	25,-3
Sum of signed ranks (W)	22
Number of pairs	7
Median of differences	
Median	14.8

rs (Spearman)	0.9286
P value (one tailed)	0.0034
P value summary	**
Was the pairing significantly effective?	Yes

Madecassic acid vs CR-H (W2 strain)

Table Analyzed	W2 strain	
Column F	CR-H	
VS.	VS.	
Column A	MA	

Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed rank test

P value	0.1094
Exact or approximate P value?	Exact
P value summary	ns
Significantly different (P < 0.05)?	No
One- or two-tailed P value?	Two-tailed
Sum of positive, negative ranks	24,-4
Sum of signed ranks (W)	20
Number of pairs	7
Median of differences	
Median	2.114

rs (Spearman)	0.8929
P value (one tailed)	0.0062
P value summary	**
Was the pairing significantly effective?	Yes

D10 strain vs W2 strain (Madecassic acid)

Table Analyzed	(D10 strain vs W2 strain)	
Column B	MA (W2)	
VS.	VS.	
Column A	MA (D10)	

Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed rank test

P value	0.1563
Exact or approximate P value?	Exact
P value summary	ns
Significantly different (P < 0.05)?	No
One- or two-tailed P value?	Two-tailed
Sum of positive, negative ranks	5,-23
Sum of signed ranks (W)	-18
Number of pairs	7
Median of differences	
Median	-8.141

rs (Spearman)	0.8929
P value (one tailed)	0.0062
P value summary	**
Was the pairing significantly effective?	Yes

D10 strain vs W2 strain (Abscisic acid)

Table Analyzed	(D10 strain vs W2 strain)	
Column D	AA (W2)	
VS.	VS.	
Column C	AA (D10)	

Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed rank test

P value	0.0156
Exact or approximate P value?	Exact
P value summary	*
Significantly different (P < 0.05)?	Yes
One- or two-tailed P value?	Two-tailed
Sum of positive, negative ranks	28,0
Sum of signed ranks (W)	28
Number of pairs	7
Median of differences	
Median	17.57

rs (Spearman)	0.8214
P value (one tailed)	0.0171
P value summary	*
Was the pairing significantly effective?	Yes

D10 strain vs W2 strain (Arjungenin)

Table Analyzed	(D10 strain vs W2 strain)	
Column F	AR (W2)	
VS.	vs.	
Column E	AR (D10)	

Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed rank test

P value	0.0313
Exact or approximate P value?	Exact
P value summary	*
Significantly different (P < 0.05)?	Yes
One- or two-tailed P value?	Two-tailed
Sum of positive, negative ranks	27,-1
Sum of signed ranks (W)	26
Number of pairs	7
Median of differences	
Median	13.23

rs (Spearman)	1
P value (one tailed)	0.0002
P value summary	***
Was the pairing significantly effective?	Yes

D10 strain vs W2 strain (CR-A)

Table Analyzed	(D10 strain vs W2 strain)
Column H	CR-A (W2)
VS.	vs.
Column G	CR-A (D10)

Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed rank test

P value	0.4688
Exact or approximate P value?	Exact
P value summary	ns
Significantly different (P < 0.05)?	No
One- or two-tailed P value?	Two-tailed
Sum of positive, negative ranks	9,-19
Sum of signed ranks (W)	-10
Number of pairs	7
Median of differences	
Median	-3.802

rs (Spearman)	0.9286
P value (one tailed)	0.0034
P value summary	**
Was the pairing significantly effective?	Yes

D10 strain vs W2 strain (CR-C)

Table Analyzed	(D10 strain vs W2 strain)
Column J	CR-C (W2)
vs.	VS.
Column I	CR-C (D10)

Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed rank test

P value	0.1563
Exact or approximate P value?	Exact
P value summary	ns
Significantly different (P < 0.05)?	No
One- or two-tailed P value?	Two-tailed
Sum of positive, negative ranks	23,-5
Sum of signed ranks (W)	18
Number of pairs	7
Median of differences	
Median	1.953

rs (Spearman)	0.9643
P value (one tailed)	0.0014
P value summary	**
Was the pairing significantly effective?	Yes

D10 strain vs W2 strain (CR-H)

(D10 strain vs W2 strain)
CR-H (W2)
VS.
CR-H (D10)

Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed rank test

P value	0.0313
Exact or approximate P value?	Exact
P value summary	*
Significantly different (P < 0.05)?	Yes
One- or two-tailed P value?	Two-tailed
Sum of positive, negative ranks	1,-27
Sum of signed ranks (W)	-26
Number of pairs	7
Median of differences	
Median	-7.883

rs (Spearman)	0.9286
P value (one tailed)	0.0034
P value summary	**
Was the pairing significantly effective?	Yes

Appendix 15: Publications in research journals produced from this study