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APPENDIX - A

Chemicals used

Chemicals	Company
Acetic acid (glacial)	SRL Pvt. Ltd., Mumbai, India
Acetic anhydride	Sigma Aldrich Chemicals Pvt. Ltd., India
Acetone	SRL Pvt. Ltd., Mumbai, India
Agar powder, Certified	HiMedia Laboratories Ltd, Mumbai, India
Agarose	SRL Pvt. Ltd., Mumbai, India
Aluminium chloride	Sigma Aldrich Chemicals Pvt. Ltd., India
Aluminium oxide (Neutral) for column chromatography	SRL Pvt. Ltd., Mumbai, India
Ammonia	SRL Pvt. Ltd., Mumbai, India
Ammonium oxalate	Sigma Chemical Company, St. Louis, Missouri, USA
Ammonium sulphate	HiMedia Laboratories Ltd., Mumbai, India
Ascorbic acid	SRL Pvt. Ltd., Mumbai, India
Barbituric acid	HiMedia Laboratories Ltd, Mumbai, India
Benzene	SRL Pvt. Ltd., Mumbai, India
Coomassie blue	Sigma Chemical Company, St. Louis, Missouri, USA
Crystal violet	Sigma Chemical Company, St. Louis, Missouri, USA
Dextrose	HiMedia Laboratories Ltd., Mumbai, India
Diethyl ether	SRL Pvt. Ltd., Mumbai, India
Dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO)	Sigma Chemical Company, St. Louis, Missouri, USA
1,1-diphenyl-2-picryl-hydrazil (DPPH)	HiMedia Laboratories Ltd., Mumbai, India
EDTA	Sigma Chemical Company, St. Louis, Missouri, USA

APPENDIX

Ethidium bromide	Bangalore Genei (India) Pvt. Ltd.
Ethyl acetate	SRL Pvt. Ltd., Mumbai, India
Ferric chloride	HiMedia Laboratories Ltd., Mumbai, India
Foetal bovine sera	Sigma Chemical Company, St. Louis, Missouri, USA
Formazan	Sigma Chemical Company, St. Louis, Missouri, USA
Gallic acid	Sigma Aldrich Chemicals Pvt. Ltd., India
GIEMSA	Sigma Chemical Company, St. Louis, Missouri, USA
Glutamine	Sigma Chemical Company, St. Louis, Missouri, USA
HEPES	Sigma Chemical Company, St. Louis, Missouri, USA
Hexane	SRL Pvt. Ltd., Mumbai, India
Hydrochloric acid	SRL Pvt. Ltd., Mumbai, India
Iodine	HiMedia Laboratories Ltd, Mumbai, India
Lactophenol- cotton blue	HiMedia Laboratories Ltd, Mumbai, India
Leishman's stain	Sigma Chemical Company, St. Louis, Missouri, USA
Lipophilic Sephadex	Sigma Aldrich Chemicals Pvt. Ltd., India
Magnesium chloride	HiMedia Laboratories Ltd., Mumbai, India
Magnesium ribbon	ISOCHEM, India
Methanol A.R.	SRL Pvt. Ltd., Mumbai, India
Medium-199	GIBCOBRL, Gaithersburg, Maryland, USA
Molecular Biology Grade Chloroform	SRL Pvt. Ltd., Mumbai, India
Molybdate	Sigma Aldrich Chemicals Pvt. Ltd., India
MTT	Sigma Chemical Company, St. Louis, Missouri, USA

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Nitro-blue tetrazolium	Sigma Chemical Company, St. Louis, Missouri, USA
Olive Oil	BIO VEDA ACTION RESEARCH CO., HARYANA, INDIA
Percoll	Pharmacia Fine Chemicals, Sweden
Petroleum ether	SRL Pvt. Ltd., Mumbai, India
Picric acid	Sigma Aldrich Chemicals Pvt. Ltd., India
Potassium mercuric iodide	Sigma Aldrich Chemicals Pvt. Ltd., India
Quercetin	HiMedia Laboratories Ltd., Mumbai, India
RPMI-1640 medium	GIBCO Lab, Grand Island, New York, USA
Riboflavin	Sigma Chemical Company, St. Louis, Missouri, USA
Safranin	Sigma Chemical Company, St. Louis, Missouri, USA
SGOT-SGPT kit	Dr. Reddy's Laboratory, Hyderabad, India
Silica Gel GF-254 (60-120 mesh)	SRL Pvt. Ltd., Mumbai, India
Silica gel (100-200 mesh) for column chromatography	SRL Pvt. Ltd., Mumbai, India
Silica gel (60-120 mesh) for column chromatography	SRL Pvt. Ltd., Mumbai, India
Sodium antimony gluconate (SAG)	Sigma Chemical Company, St. Louis, Missouri, USA
Sodium carbonate	HiMedia Laboratories Ltd., Mumbai, India
Sodium chloride	Merck Specialities Pvt. Ltd., Mumbai, India
Sodium stibogluconate	Gluconate Health Ltd., Sweden
Sodium sulphate	HiMedia Laboratories Ltd., Mumbai, India
Sodium thioglycolate	GIBCO Lab, Grand Island, New York, USA
Sucrose	SRL Pvt. Ltd., Mumbai, India
Sulphuric acid	SRL Pvt. Ltd., Mumbai, India

APPENDIX

Superoxide dismutase (SOD)	Sigma Chemical Company, St. Louis, Missouri, USA
TEMED	Sigma Chemical Company, St. Louis, Missouri, USA
Trichloroacetic acid	Merck, Germany
Vanillin	SRL Pvt. Ltd., Mumbai, India
0.22 µm pore size millipore filter	Millipore Corporation, USA
Gel loading buffer (6X)	Bangalore Genei (India) Pvt. Ltd.
TLC Silica gel 60 F254 aluminium sheets	Merck, Germany
100 µg/ml streptomycin sulphate	Sigma Chemical Company, St. Louis, Missouri, USA
100U/ml peniciline G-Sodium	Sigma Chemical Company, St. Louis, Missouri, USA

APPENDIX-B

1. **Mayer's reagent (potassium mercuric iodide)**

Mixture A: 1.358 g of mercury (II) chloride dissolved 60 mL of distilled water

Mixture B: 5 g of potassium iodide dissolved in 10 mL of distilled water.

Mixture A was poured into Mixture B, and the final volume was made up to 100 mL with distilled water.

2. **Wagner's reagent (iodine in potassium iodide)**

Two grams of iodine and 6 g of KI dissolved in 100 mL of distilled water.

3. **Hager's reagent (saturated picric acid solution)**

Picric acid(1g) dissolved in 100 mL of distilled water.

4. **Molisch's reagent**

15 g of 1-naphthol dissolved 100 mL of 95% (vol/vol) ethanol or chloroform.

5. **Benedict's reagent (qualitative)**

Solution A:173 g sodium citrate and 100 g of sodium carbonate dissolved in 800 mL of distilled water, filtered, and diluted to 850 mL with distilled water.

Solution B: 17.3 g of copper (II) sulphate pentahydrate in 100 mL of distilled water.

Solution B was poured, with constant stirring, into Solution A and diluted to 1 L with distilled water.

6. **Fehling's A and B solutions**

Fehling's Reagent A: 70g of copper sulphate and concentrated sulphuric acid 1ml dissolved in distilled water (200 ml) and made up to volume 1 litre with distilled water.

Fehling's Reagent B: 352 g of sodium potassium tartrate and 154 g sodium hydroxide dissolved in 200 ml distilled water and made up to volume 1 litre with distilled water.

7. Folin-Ciocalteu reagent

Hetero-polyphospho tungstate-molybdate diluted with distilled water in 1:1 ratio

8. Phosphate buffered saline (PBS) (0.15M)

Solution A: Na_2HPO_4 4.2588 g, Distilled water 200ml.

Solution B: $\text{Na}_2\text{HPO}_4, 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ 9.3606 g, Distilled water 400ml.

140 ml A was mixed with 360 ml of Solution B, and 4 g of NaCl and 100 mg of KCl was added.

9. Potassium phosphate buffer (50mM, pH7.2)

Solution A: 0.1 M solution of Na_2HPO_4 1.42 g, Distilled water 100ml

Solution B: 0.1M solution of $\text{Na}_2\text{HPO}_4, 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ 1.56 g, Distilled water 100ml

Solution A and Solution B were separately autoclaved and stored at 40°C.

81 ml of Solution A were mixed with 19 ml of Solution B, diluted to 200 ml with distilled water to make final phosphate buffer.

10. EDTA (0.1 mM, pH 8.0)

Disodium EDTA - dihydrate 18.6g

Distilled water 100ml

Measured amount of disodium EDTA-dihydrate was dissolved in distilled water and mixed vigorously on a magnetic stirrer. The pH was adjusted to 8.0 with NaOH. Solution was sterilized by autoclaving at 15 lbs psi pressure for 15 min at 121°C.

11. Turk's fluid

Glacial acetic acid 1.5 ml, gentian violet 1% solution 1.5 ml, and distilled water 100 ml.

12. Pyrogallol

0.2 mM Pyrogallol in air equilibrated, 50mM Tris-cacodylic acid buffer, and 1 mM diethylene triamine penta acetic acid, (pH 8.2)

13. Crystal violet stain

Solution A- Crystal violet 2g, 95% Ethanol 20ml

Solution B- Ammonium oxalate 0.8 g, Distilled water 80 ml

Solution A and B was mixed for 30-60 seconds.

14. Lugol's iodine

Iodine 1.0 g

Potassium iodide 2.0 g

Distilled water 300 ml

15. Lactophenol Cotton-Blue (LPCB)

Phenol 200.0 gm

Cotton Blue 0.5 gm

Glycerol 400 ml

Lactic Acid 200 ml

Deionized Water 200 ml

16. Safranin solution

Stock solution - Safranin O 2.5 gm, 95% Ethanol 100 ml

Working solution - Stock solution 10 ml, distilled water 90 ml

17. 1,1-diphenyl-2-picryl-hydrazil (DPPH) solution (0.2 mM)

3.94 mg of DPPH was dissolved in 50 ml methanol to make a solution, fresh each time.

18. Richard's medium

KH ₂ PO ₄	5 g
KNO ₃	10 g
FeCl ₃	0.02 g
MgSO ₄ .7H ₂ O	2.5 g
Sucrose	50 g
Distilled water	1000 ml

All the constituents were taken and mixed with required distilled water by stirring and sterilized at 15 lb psi for 15 minutes.

19. Potato Dextrose Broth (PDB)

Peeled Potato 40 g

Dextrose 2g

Distilled water 100ml

The potato was peeled and boiled in double volume distilled water of required amount. The potato broth was filtered through cheese cloth and then required amount of dextrose was added. Finally, the medium was sterilized at 15 lb psi for 15 minutes in autoclave.

20. Potato dextrose agar (PDA)

Peeled potato 40 g

Dextrose 2 g

Distilled water 100 ml

Peeled potato was boiled and filtered through cheese cloth. The required amount of dextrose and 2% agar powder were added in filtrate. The agar was completely melted by heating the media before sterilization. Finally, the medium was sterilized as 15 pb psi for 15 min in autoclave.

21. RPMI-1640

About 0.584 g L-glutamine, 5.95 HEPES buffer, 100 mg/ ml streptomycin and 100 IU/ml penicillin, supplemented with 10% (v/v) heat inactivated fetal calf serum (FCS) was used.

22. Medium-199 (pH 7.4)

Supplemented with 10% heat inactivated foetal bovine serum, 2mM glutamine, 25mM N-2-ethansulfonic acid (HEPES), 100U/ml peniciline G-sodium, 100 µg/ml streptomycin sulphate.

23. Ray's solid medium

Brain heart infusion 3.7%, Sodium chloride (w/v) 0.1%, Agar 1.5%; pH was maintained at 7.4. The ingredients were dissolved in glass-distilled water

and autoclaved. To this, 1% glucose (w/v) and 1% blood (v/v), drawn from normal rabbit heart, was added.

24. Complex-forming reagent (For protein estimation following Lowry's method) (Lowry, 1951)

This reagent was prepared by mixing three stock solutions in the proportion of 100:1:1 (vol / vol).

Solution A: 2% (w/v) Na_2CO_3 in distilled water.

Solution B: 1% (w/v) $\text{CuSO}_4 \cdot 5\text{H}_2\text{O}$ in distilled water.

Solution C: 2% (w/v) sodium potassium tartrate in distilled water.

25. Polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (PAGE):

Stock solutions

Solution A: Acrylamide stock solution (resolving gel)

For preparing acrylamide stock solution, 29.2 g of acrylamide and 0.8 gm of N N' methylene bisacrylamide were dissolved in 100 ml of warm distilled water. The stock solution was filtered with Whatmann No.1 filter paper in dark and stored in dark bottle at 4°C.

Solution B: Acrylamide stock solution (stacking gel)

For the preparation of acrylamide stock solution for the stacking gel, 10 gm acrylamide and 2.5 gm of bisacrylamide was dissolved in 100 ml warm distilled water. The stock solution was then filtered with Whatmann No.1 filter paper and stored at 4°C in dark bottle.

Solution C: Tris-HCl (resolving gel)

Tris HCL buffer was prepared by dissolving 36.6 gm of Tris base in distilled water and 0.25 ml of TEMED was added. The pH of the solution was adjusted to 8.9 with conc. HCl. The final volume of the solution was made upto 100 ml with distilled water. The solution was then stored at 4°C for further use.

Solution D: Tris HCl (stacking gel)

5.98 gm of Tris base was mixed with distilled water and 0.46 ml of TEMED was added to it. Finally the pH of the solution was adjusted to 6.7 with conc. HCl. The final volume of the solution was made upto 100 ml with distilled water and stored at 4⁰C for further use.

Solution E: Ammonium per sulphate

Ammonium per sulphate was prepared by dissolving 0.15 g of APS in distilled water. The final volume was made up to 10 ml. This was prepared fresh each time.

Solution F: Riboflavin solution

Fresh riboflavin solution was prepared by dissolving 2 mg of riboflavin in 2 M sucrose (100 ml). The solution was kept in dark bottle to protect it from light.

Solution G: Electrode buffer (pH 8.4)

Fresh electrode buffer was prepared by dissolving 6 g of Tris base and 28.8 g of glycine in 1000 ml distilled water.

Preparation of gel**Resolving gel (10%)**

30% Acrylamide 2.55 ml
1.5 M Tris (pH 8.8) 1.95 ml
10% SDS 0.075 ml
10% APS 0.075 ml
TEMED 0.003 ml
Water 2.85 ml

Stacking gel (5%)

30% Acrylamide 0.5 ml
1.0 M Tris (pH 6.8) 0.38 ml
10% SDS 0.030 ml
10% Ammonium persulphate 0.030 ml
TEMED 0.030 ml
Water 2.1 ml

Protocol:

Polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (PAGE) was done following the method as described by Davis (1964) with some modifications. A mini slab gel (8 X 5 cm) was prepared for which, two glass plates were thoroughly cleaned with dehydrated alcohol to remove any traces of grease and air-dried. Spacers (1.5 mm) were placed between the two glass plates on three sides and sealed with 1% agar solution. The slabs were tightly clipped to prevent any leakage of the gel solution while casting the gel. A 10% resolving gel was prepared by mixing the acrylamide stock solution (for resolving gel), Tris-HCl (pH 8.9, for resolving gel), APS (freshly prepared) and distilled water in the ratio 1:1:4:1 and carefully dispensing the mixture by a pasture pipette between the glass slabs leaving sufficient space for the stacking gel (1.5 cm). After pouring the resolving gel solution, it was immediately overlaid with water and allowed to polymerize for 1.5 - 2 h. After polymerization was complete, the water over layer was poured off and the gel was washed with water to remove any unpolymerized acrylamide.

The stacking gel (4%) solution was prepared by mixing the acrylamide stock solution (for stacking gel), Tris HCl (pH 6.7, for stacking gel), riboflavin (freshly prepared) and distilled water in the ratio 2:1:1:4. The mixture was poured over the resolving gel and the comb was inserted leaving a gap of approximately one cm below the well in the stacking gel. The gel was kept under bright sunlight or fluorescent light for polymerization. After solidification of the stacking gel, the comb was removed and the wells were washed thoroughly. Following casting, the gel with the glass slabs was fitted into the electrophoresis apparatus. Chilled tris-glycine running buffer (pH 8.4) was added sufficiently in both upper and lower reservoirs of the gel apparatus. Any bubbles, trapped at the bottom of the gel, were carefully removed with a bent syringe. The gel was loaded with protein/enzyme samples and incubated at 4°C supplying a constant current of 2.5 mA per well continuously for 3-4 h until the dye front reached the bottom of the gel. After electrophoresis, the gel was removed from the glass plates and then the stacking gel was cut off

from the resolving gel and finally proceeded for activity staining of superoxide dismutase.

26. Sodium dodecyl sulphate-Polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE)

Stock solutions:

Stock solution A: Acrylamide/Bis-acrylamide

Acrylamide 87.6 g

N`N`-bis-methylene acrylamide 2.4 g

The ingredients were dissolved in deionized water and the volume was adjusted to 300 ml. thereafter the solution was filtered and stored at 4°C in the dark (30 days maximum).

Stock solution B: 10% (w/v) SDS

10 g SDS was dissolved in 90 ml water with gentle stirring and made to 100 ml with deionized water.

Stock solution C: 10% (w/v) APS

20 mg of APS was dissolved in 2 ml of deionized water.

Stock solution D: 1.5M Tris-HCl, (pH 8.8)

Tris base 27.23 g Deionized water 80 ml The ingredients were mixed and adjusted to pH 8.8 with 6N HCl. The final volume was made upto 150 ml with deionized water and store at 4°C.

Stock solution E: 0.5M Tris-HCl, (pH 6.8)

Tris base 6 g

Deionized water 60 ml

These chemicals were adjusted to pH 6.8 with 6N HCl and the total volume made upto 100 ml with deionized water and store at 4°C.

Stock solution F: Sample buffer

Deionized water 3.55 ml

0.5M Tris-HCl (pH 6.8) 1.23 ml

Glycerol 2.5 ml 10% (w/v) SDS 2.0 ml

0.5% (w/v) Bromophenol blue 0.2 ml

Total volume 9.5 ml

Finally the solution was stored at room temperature.

β -mercaptoethanol (50 μ l) was added to 950 μ l sample buffer prior to use and the sample was diluted to at least 1:2 with sample buffer and heated at 95^oC for 4 minutes.

Stock solution G: 10X Electrode (running) buffer, (pH 8.3)

Tris base 30.3 g

Glycine 144.0 g

SDS 10.0 g

The ingredients were dissolved and total volume made upto 1000 ml with deionized water and stored at 4^oC. Use: Diluted 50 ml 10X stock with 450 ml deionized water for each electrophoresis run.

SDS-PAGE protocol:

Protein samples were mixed with equal volume of sample buffer and heated for 5 min at 95^oC. Gel was made according to the method of Laemmli (1970). Separating gel (10%) was used for resolving the polypeptides whereas a 4% stacking gel was used to concentrate the polypeptides. Test samples as well as pure Fe-SOD (kindly provided by Dr. Syamal Roy, IICB, Kolkata) were loaded on the gel and electrophoresis was accomplished in electrode buffer at 30mA for 4h using a Bio-Rad, Mini PROTEAN Tetra Cell Electrophoresis system. Following electrophoresis, the gel was stained with Coomassie Brilliant Blue R-250 (Sigma) for overnight and destained. The gel was finally photographed.



Phytochemical analysis of two medicinal plants of North Bengal

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ABSTRACT

Medicinal plants have been used as a source of remedies since ancient times in India. Traditional medicine systems consist of large numbers of plants with medicinal and pharmacological importance. *Rouwolfia Serpentina* and *Moringa Olifera* are two such important medicinal plants traditionally used in India for their immense therapeutic properties. In this present study plants leaf extracts are screened for the presence of major phytochemical groups which are plants primary and secondary metabolites and known for their therapeutic values. These compounds are reported to have antiaging, anticarcinogen, antiinflammation, antiatherosclerosis, cardiovascular protective and antimicrobial activities. Qualitative analysis showed the presence of metabolites such as glycosides, phenolic compounds, alkaloids, flavinoids, tannins, saponins, steroids for both the plants ensuring their potentiality as therapeutic agent.

Key Words: *Rouwolfia Serpentina*, *Moringa Olifera*, medicinal plants, therapeutic properties, phytochemical

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1. INTRODUCTION

The use of herbal medicine for the treatment of diseases and infections is as old as mankind. The World Health Organization supports the use of traditional medicine provided they are proven to be efficacious and safe (WHO, 1985). In the last few decades there has been an exponential growth in the field of herbal medicine. It is getting popularized in developing and developed countries owing to its natural origin, lesser side effect and cost

effective qualities (Report of seminar on Herbal Drug, 2001). Medicinal plants have been used as a source of remedies against many pathological conditions since ancient times in India. Traditional medicine systems consist of large numbers of plants with medicinal and pharmacological importance and hence represent an invaluable reservoir of new bioactive molecules.

The plant kingdom is a treasure house of potential therapeutic compounds and in the recent years there has been an increasing awareness about the importance of these compounds of medicinal plants and uses them as therapeutic agents because compounds from the plants are easily available, less expensive, safe, and efficient and proven to have side effects. Recently some plants have been selected for examination and proven therapeutically effective new drugs such as anticancer drugs (Dewick 1996), antimicrobial drugs (Phillipson and Wright 1996), antihepatotoxic compounds. Some organic compounds from medicinal plants which are by primary or rather secondary metabolites provide definite physiological action on the human body. These bioactive substances include tannins, alkaloids, carbohydrates, protein, glycosides terpenoids, steroids and flavonoids (Mann 1978; Edoga et al. 2005). They are widely used in the human therapy, as well as veterinary, agriculture, scientific research and many other different areas of human interest (Vasu et al. 2009). A large number of phytochemicals also have been shown to have inhibitory effects on all types of microorganisms in vitro and in animal models (Cowan 1999).

Among The secondary plant metabolites, phenol compounds such as flavonoid, phenolic acids, tocopherols etc are most ubiquitous groups of (Singh et al. 2007). Studies revealed that plant rich in phenolic compounds possess biological properties such as antiapoptotic, antiaging, anticarcinogen, antiinflammation, antiatherosclerosis, cardiovascular protection and improvement of endothelial function, as well as inhibition of angiogenesis cell proliferation activities antioxidant properties and (Brown and Rice-Evans 1998; Krings and Berger 2001; Han et al. 2007; Ali et al. 2008). In response to microbial infection plants synthesize a hydroxylated phenolic substance, flavonoids having activities against wide array of microorganisms in vitro, which may be due to their ability to complex with extracellular and soluble proteins and to complex with bacterial cell wall (Marjorie. 1996). Another metabolite, tannins interfere with protein synthesis by binding with proline rich protein. The plant extracts containing saponins, have anti inflammatory (Just et al. 1998) hemolytic (Okwu 2004) activities. Studies show that, Glycosides lower the blood pressure (Nyarko and Addy 1990). Steroids are very important compounds, having relationship with sex hormones (Okwu 2001). They also have antibacterial activities (Raquel 2007). Alkaloids have been used for centuries for their medicinal value. They have cytotoxic (Nobori et al. 1994), analgesic antispasmodic and antibacterial (Stray, 1998; Okwu and Okwu 2004) properties. The mechanism of action of some phytochemicals are shown below (Table 1)

Table 1: Mechanism of action of some phytochemicals (Tiwari et al. 2011)

Phytochemicals	Activity	Mechanism of action
Quinones	Antimicrobial	Binds to adhesins, complex with cell wall, inactivates enzymes
Flavonoids	Antimicrobial Antidiarrhoeal	Complex with cell wall, binds to adhesins Inhibits release of autocoids and prostaglandins, Inhibits contractions caused by spasmogens, Stimulates normalization of the deranged water transport across the mucosal cells, Inhibits GI release of Acetylcholine
Polyphenols and Tannins	Antimicrobial Antidiarrhoeal Anthelmintic	Binds to adhesins, enzyme inhibition, substrate deprivation, complex with cell wall, membrane disruption, metal ion complexation Makes intestinal mucosa more resistant and reduces secretion, stimulates normalization of deranged water transport across the mucosal cells and reduction of the intestinal transit, blocks the binding of B subunit of heat-labile enterotoxin to GM1, resulting in the suppression of heat-labile enterotoxin-induced diarrhea, astringent action Increases supply of digestible proteins by animals by forming protein complexes in rumen, interferes with energy generation by uncoupling oxidative phosphorylation, causes a decrease in G.I. metabolism
Phytochemicals	Activity	Mechanism of action
Coumarins	Antiviral	Interaction with eukaryotic DNA
Terpenoids and essential oils	Antimicrobial Antidiarrhoeal	Membrane disruption Inhibits release of autocoids and

		Prostaglandins
Alkaloids	Antimicrobial Antidiarrhoeal Anthelmintic	Intercalates into cell wall and DNA of parasites Inhibits release of autocooids and prostaglandins Possess anti-oxidating effects, thus reduces nitrate generation which is useful for protein synthesis, suppresses transfer of sucrose from stomach to small intestine, diminishing the support of glucose to the helminthes, acts on CNS causing Paralysis
Lectins and Polypeptides	Antiviral	Blocks viral fusion or adsorption, forms disulfide bridges
Glycosides	Antidiarrhoeal	Inhibits release of autocooids and Prostaglandins
Saponins	Antidiarrhoeal Anticancer Anthelmintic	Inhibits histamine release in vitro Possesses membrane permeabilizing properties Leads to vacuolization and disintegration of teguments
Steroids	Antidiarrhoeal	Enhance intestinal absorption of Na ⁺ and water

Plant products having phytomedicinal properties, can be derived from barks, leaves, flowers, roots, fruits, seeds of the plant (Criagg and David 2001). So for synthesis of complex chemical substances, knowledge of the chemical constituents of plants is essential (Mojab et al. 2003; Parekh and Chanda 2007; Parekh and Chanda 2008).

The present study investigates the fundamental scientific basis for the use of *Rouvolfia Serpentina* and *Moringa Olifera* plants leaf as therapeutic agent by defining the presence of crude phytochemical constituents .

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1. Collection of plant materials

The leaves of the plants were collected from different uncultivated farmlands of Jalpaiguri District, West Bengal. The sample leaves of two plants were identified by the authors. The leaves were air-dried and ground into uniform powder using a REMI Mixer grinder machine and kept in air tight container. The aqueous extract of each sample was

prepared by soaking 100 g of dried powdered samples in 200 ml of distilled water for 12 h. The extracts were filtered using Whatman filter paper No 42 (125 mm).

2.2. Phytochemical screening

Chemical tests were carried out on the aqueous extract and on the powdered specimens using standard procedures as described by Sofowara (1993), Trease and Evans (1989) and Harborne (1973) to identify the constituents phytochemicals.

2.3. Test for tannins

About 0.5 g of the dried powdered samples was boiled in 20 ml of water in a test tube and then filtered. A few drops of 0.1% ferric chloride was added and observed for brownish green or a blue-black coloration.

2.4. Test for phlobatannins

Deposition of a red precipitate when an aqueous extract of each plant sample was boiled with 1% aqueous hydrochloric acid was taken as evidence for the presence of phlobatannins.

2.5. Test for saponin

About 2 g of the powdered sample was boiled in 20 ml of distilled water in a water bath and filtered. 10ml of the filtrate was mixed with 5 ml of distilled water and shaken vigorously for a stable persistent froth. The frothing was mixed with 3 drops of olive oil and shaken vigorously, then observed for the formation of emulsion.

2.6. Test for flavonoids

5 ml of dilute ammonia solution were added to a portion of the aqueous filtrate of each plant extract followed by addition of concentrated H₂SO₄. A yellow coloration observed in each extract indicated the presence of flavonoids. The yellow coloration disappeared on standing. Few drops of 1% aluminium solution were added to a portion of each filtrate. A yellow coloration was observed indicating the presence of flavonoids. A portion of the powdered plant sample was in each case heated with 10 ml of ethyl acetate over a steam bath for 3 min. The mixture was filtered and 4 ml of the filtrate was shaken with 1 ml of dilute ammonia solution. A yellow coloration was observed indicating a positive test for flavonoids.

2.7. Test for steriods and terpenoids

Libermann Burchard's test

Extracts were treated with chloroform and filtered. The filtrates were treated with few drops of acetic anhydride, boiled and cooled. Conc. sulphuric acid was added to the solution. Formation of brown ring at the junction and green upper layer indicates the presence of phytosterols and formation of deep red colour indicates the presence of triterpenoids.

2.8. Test for cardiac glycosides (Keller-Killani test)

Five ml of each extracts was treated with 2 ml of glacial acetic acid containing one drop of ferric chloride solution. This was underlayed with 1 ml of concentrated sulphuric acid. A brown ring of the interface indicates a deoxysugar characteristic of cardenolides. A violet

ring may appear below the brown ring, while in the acetic acid layer, a greenish ring may form just gradually throughout thin layer.

2.9. Detection of alkaloids

Extracts were dissolved individually in dilute Hydrochloric acid and filtered.

2.9.1. Mayer's Test: Filtrates were treated with Mayer's reagent (potassium mercuric iodide). Formation of a yellow colour precipitate indicates the presence of alkaloids.

2.9.2. Wagner's Test: Filtrates were treated with Wagner's reagent (Iodine in Potassium Iodide). Formation of brown/reddish precipitate indicates the presence of alkaloids.

2.9.3. Hager's Test: Filtrates were treated with Hager's reagent (saturated picric acid solution). Presence of alkaloids confirmed by the formation of yellow colored precipitate.

2.10. Detection of carbohydrates

Extracts were dissolved individually in 5 ml distilled water and filtered. The filtrates were used to test for the presence of carbohydrates.

2.10.1. Molisch's Test: Filtrates were treated with 2 drops of alcoholic α -naphthol solution in a test tube. Formation of the violet ring at the junction indicates the presence of Carbohydrates.

2.10.2. Benedict's Test: Filtrates were treated with Benedict's reagent and heated gently. Orange red precipitate indicates the presence of reducing sugars.

2.10.3. Fehling's Test: Filtrates were hydrolysed with dilute HCl, neutralized with alkali and heated with Fehling's A & B solutions. Formation of red precipitate indicates the presence of reducing sugars.

2.11. Detection of organic acids

2.11.1. Oxalic acid test: To the test solution few drops of 1% KMnO_4 and dilute H_2SO_4 is added, if the colour disappears, shows the presence of organic acid.

2.11.2. Malic acid test: To the test solution 2-3 drops of 40% FeCl_3 is added, appearance of yellowish colour proves the presence of organic acid.

3. RESULT

The leaf extract and the dried powder of leaf of *Rouvolfia Serpentina* and *Moringa Olifera* showed the presence of tannin, phlobatannin, saponin, flavonoids, sterols, alkaloids, carbohydrate, protein and organic acids. Both the leaf extract tested negative for the presence of triterpenoids, while only the leaf extract of *Rouvolfia Serpentina* tested negative for the presence of cardiac glycosides. The phytochemical constituents of *Rouvolfia Serpentina* and *Moringa Olifera* are represented in the following table (Table 2).

Table 2: Phytochemical constituents of Rouvolfia Serpentina and Moringa Olifera

Sl. no.	Phytoconstituents	Rouvolfia Serpentina	Moringa Olifera
1.	Alkaloids	++	+
2.	Flavonoids	+	+
3.	Tannin	+	+
4.	phlobatannin	++	++
5.	Saponin	+	++
6.	Steroid	+	++
7.	Triterpinoid	-	-
8.	Cardiac Glycoside	-	++
9.	Organic acid	+	+
10.	Carbohydrate	+	+
11.	Protein	+	+

4. DISCUSSION

The result obtained in this study suggests that the selected plants leaves are source of many phytochemical compounds and bioactive constituents and these plants are proving to be an increasingly valuable reservoir of bioactive compounds of substantial medicinal merit. They are highly recommended for further quantitative analysis of phytochemicals present and their potentiality as therapeutic agent.

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***In vitro* Antifungal Activity of Plant Extracts against Pathogens of Clinical and Agricultural Importance and Phytochemical Analysis of the Active Compounds**

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Bikramjit Raychaudhury**

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Abstract This study was carried out with an objective to investigate the antifungal potentials of 14 plants known for medicinal properties against the human pathogen, *Candida albicans* and the tea pathogen, *L. theobromae*. Soxhlet extracts prepared from leaves in various organic solvents were first screened for their antifungal activity by agar diffusion method. While all tested plants showed antifungal activity, evident from distinct inhibition zones on PDA plates, extracts from *Clausena excavata*, *Ocimum sanctum*, *Piper betle*, *Polyalthia longifolia* and *Xanthium strumarium* exhibited higher activities and were selected for phytochemical analysis. *L. theobromae* was found to be more susceptible than *C. albicans*. Bioautography with the test pathogens revealed the presence of antifungal compounds which appeared as clear zones of inhibition against fungus growth on developed TLC plates. *X. strumarium* and *C. excavata* showed two antifungal zones each while each of the other 3 extracts produced single antifungal zone. Application of spray reagents on TLC revealed

the chemical nature of all active compounds. Both compounds from *X. strumarium* were sesquiterpenes and those from *C. excavata* were furano-coumarins. Bioactive compounds from *O. sanctum*, *P. longifolia* and *P. betle* were found to be monoterpene, diterpene and phenolic respectively. The results form the basis for further characterization and development of newer fungicidal compounds.

Keywords Antifungal, Bioautography, *Clausena excavata*, *X. strumarium*, *P. betle*.

Introduction

Plant extracts has been traditionally used in India for treating various ailments and forms part of the cultural practice of this country. Scientific reports indicate that plants are an immense reservoir of valuable source of molecules with strong antimicrobial potential and considered as the prime source for the discovery of novel drugs. Different types of compounds produced by plants, particularly the secondary metabolites, may possess antifungal activity and some have successfully been utilized for clinical application (Atanasov

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et al. 2015). In addition, many such antifungal compounds are now used in agriculture because synthetic chemical fungicides are unpopular for their residual toxicity, non targeted environmental impacts and direct or indirect effects on animal health system (Saha et al. 2012). Plant products are safer and eco-friendly in comparison to synthetic fungicides, as they have no deleterious effect on environment and on non target organisms in nature.

In recent years, *Candida* infections pose a serious threat to immunocompromised patients, especially those tested HIV positive and those who are receiving immunosuppressive drugs (Sanglard 2016, Campoy and Adrio 2017). Fungal infections lead to 1.5 to 2 million deaths per year, which is higher than either malaria or tuberculosis related deaths (Denning and Bromley 2015). Moreover, increasing resistances towards synthetic antifungal drugs are being reported (Cowen et al. 2014). *Lasiodiplodia theobromae*, a pathogen causing several crop diseases including diplodia disease in tea has also exhibited resistance against the fungicide thiophanate methyl (Al-Jabri

et al. 2017). Since tea is an important contributor to the economy of North East India, it is essential to look for effective alternatives for controlling diseases in tea plants.

The present study reports the antifungal activity of 14 plant extracts against the human pathogen, *Candida albicans* and the tea pathogen, *L.theobromae*. The chemical nature of the antifungal compounds present in the botanical extracts was determined following separation by thin layer chromatography and bioautography.

Materials and Methods

Selection and collection of plant materials

The plant materials were selected on the basis of literature reports of their traditional ethnomedicinal uses and bioactivity as well as availability in sub-Himalayan region of West Bengal. Altogether 14 plant

Table 1. List of plants used in this study.

Name of plants	Local/English name	Family	Traditional application and biological activity
<i>Bidens pilosa</i> Linn.	Spanish needle	Asteraceae	Leaf extract used for treatment of cough, laryngitis, headache, conjunctivitis, rheumatism, infection, digestive and stomach disorder including peptic ulcer
<i>Clausea excavata</i> Burm. f.	Agnijal	Rutaceae	Used in cold, malaria, abdominal pain, snake-bite, preliminary stage of AIDS and dermatopathy
<i>Datura stramonium</i> L.	Datura	Solanaceae	Smoke of leaves is used for asthma, causes sleepiness. Roots are good for tooth-ache
<i>Datura innoxia</i> Mill.	Safed dhatura, Indian-apple	Solanaceae	Leaves are used as repellent and vermicide, used in asthma, wound, malaria and Leishmaniasis. Seed are grind and cooked in mustard oil to cure scabies
<i>Emblica officinalis</i> Gaertn.	Amla	Phyllanthaceae	Fruits used to promote longevity, enhance digestion, strengthen heart, purify blood, stimulate hair growth and enhance intellect. Used against constipation, fever and cough
<i>Eucalyptus globules</i> Labill.	Eucalyptus	Myrtaceae	Leaf essential oil used as antiseptic, against coughs and colds, sore throats and other infections. Used as mouthwash toothpaste. Leaf extracts used in anti-bacterial, antioxidant and anti-inflammation deodorant
<i>Lantana camara</i> L. var aculeate Moldenke	Raimuniya, Guye genda	Verbenaceae	Used in bronchitis, stomach problems, rheumatism and to clean teeth
<i>Leonurus sibiricus</i> L.	Guma & Raktadron	Lamiaceae	Anti-inflammatory and anti-diarrhoea. Leaf extract used in hemorrhage, weakness
<i>Measa indica</i> (Roxb.) A. DC.	Ramjani	Primulaceae	Leaves used as an agent for clearing the throat/vocal cord for producing a melodious sound

Table 1. Continued.

Name of plants	Local/English name	Family	Traditional application and biological activity
<i>Ocimum sanctum</i> L.	Tulsi	Lamiaceae	Leaf juice with honey is given for 3-7 days for cough and cold. 1 : 1 ratio of tulsi leaf and neem leaf paste is very effective for diabetes
<i>Polyalthia longifolia</i> var <i>pendula</i>	Ashok tree	Annonaceae	Powder of stem bark mixed with curd and sugar and mixture is given orally thrice a day to cure diarrhoea. Stem bark is dried, powdered and given orally in the treatment of gout
<i>Piper betle</i> L.	Paan	Piperaceae	Leaf paste with <i>Acacia catchu</i> bark paste massaged on the skin of children in maggots. Herbal dye, antipyretic, antioxidant, anticancer, antiulcer, anti-inflammatory, pain reliever and immunomodulating
<i>Syzygium cumini</i> (L.) Skeels	Jamun	Myrtaceae	Hypoglycaemic, diuretics, analgesic, anti-inflammatory, antiplaque, antimicrobial antidiarrhoeal, antioxidant and gastroprotective
<i>Xanthium strumarium</i> L.	Chotagokhru	Asteraceae	Dry fruits kept on dried stem of <i>Calotropis procera</i> are burnt and the smoke is inhaled

species were studied for their biological activity and phytochemical analysis. Table 1 shows a list of the plants along with their local names, families and traditional uses (Rastogi and Mehrotra 1995, Chatterjee and Pakrashi 1997). Most of the plant materials were collected from local areas within and outside campus of University of North Bengal. Some of the plants were collected from forest areas of Sukna located in the Terai region of the Eastern Himalayas. Fresh disease free leaves of different plant species were collected. Voucher specimen of each species was deposited in the herbarium of Department of Botany, University of North Bengal.

Fungal pathogens

Two pathogens of clinical and agricultural importance were used in this study. A virulent strain of *Lasiodiplodia theobromae* (ITCC 5446.02) was earlier isolated in the laboratory from young tea plants showing diplodia disease from a nursery in the Darjeeling district of West Bengal and its identity was authenticated by IARI, New Delhi. *Candida albicans* (MTCC 183) which is an opportunistic human pathogen causes candidiasis especially in immunocompromised patients. This strain was obtained from Institute of Microbial Technology (IMTECH), Chandigarh, India.

Soxhlet extraction

Fresh leaves of fourteen different plant species (Table 1) were thoroughly washed with distilled water and shade dried at room temperature for 5 to 10 days. The dried leaves (120 g) of each plant were ground to moderately fine powder (1mm) and extracted in a soxhlet apparatus using appropriate solvents (Table 2), for fifteen h at 35–45°C. The extract was concentrated to dryness under vacuum in a rotary evaporator (Eyela, Japan). The residue (15 g) obtained as a gummy solid mass was dissolved in proper solvent at 3 different concentrations (100 mg/ml, 10 mg/ml and 1 mg/ml) and used for further studies.

Agar cup bioassay

The plant extracts were screened for antifungal activity by agar cup diffusion method. Potato dextrose agar (PDA) medium was autoclaved at 121°C for 15 min, cooled to 45 °C and 1ml of pure cell suspension or spore suspension (10⁶/ml) or of the test pathogen was mixed with 19 ml of molten medium and poured into sterile petriplates of 9 cm diameter. Agar cups were prepared with sterile cork-borer (4 mm diameter) in the PDA plates after solidification of the medium seeded with spores of the test fungi. Plant extracts (50 µl) were introduced into each well and the plates were incubated for 48-72 h at 28°C. The antifungal activity

Table 2. Screening of antifungal potential of crude soxhlet extracts of leaves from different plant species against *Candida albicans* and *Lasiodiplodia theobromae* by agar diffusion assay.* The inhibition zone includes the diameter of the agar cup (6 mm).

Name of plants	Solvent for extraction	Diameter of inhibition zone (mm) obtained at different concentrations of leaf extracts (mg/ml)*					
		<i>C. albicans</i>			<i>L. theobromae</i>		
		100	10	1	100	10	1
<i>Bidens pilosa</i>	Ethyl acetate	21.3 ± 3.0	15.0 ± 1.7	9.3 ± 1.5	25.0 ± 2.6	16.6 ± 2.1	11.3 ± 2.5
<i>Clausena excavata</i>	Ethyl acetate	24.3 ± 3.5	17.3 ± 2.5	7.6 ± 0.6	34.6 ± 3.2	22.3 ± 3.0	14.3 ± 2.1
<i>Datura stramonium</i>	Benzene	17.0 ± 4.5	10.6 ± 1.2	0	26.3 ± 2.5	15.0 ± 2.6	0
<i>Datura innoxia</i>	Ethanol	18.6 ± 3.8	12.0 ± 2.6	8.3 ± 0.6	28.6 ± 3.2	18.3 ± 2.3	8.6 ± 1.1
<i>Emblica officinalis</i>	Ethyl acetate	13.3 ± 2.1	7.6 ± 0.5	0	17.6 ± 3.8	13.3 ± 2.1	0
<i>Eucalyptus globulus</i>	Ethanol	18.3 ± 1.5	9.3 ± 2.1	0	21.6 ± 3.2	14.6 ± 2.1	9.0 ± 1.0
<i>Lantana camara</i>	Ethanol	11.6 ± 1.1	0	0	15.6 ± 2.5	10.6 ± 1.5	0
<i>Leonurus sibiricus</i>	Ethanol	15.6 ± 2.1	10.6 ± 0.6	0	20.3 ± 2.3	14.0 ± 3.6	7.3 ± 0.6
<i>Maesa indica</i>	Dichloromethane	18.6 ± 2.9	14.3 ± 3.0	8.3 ± 0.6	25.6 ± 2.5	15.6 ± 2.5	10.3 ± 2.1
<i>Ocimum sanctum</i>	Ethyl acetate	22.0 ± 2.6	13.6 ± 2.1	9.6 ± 1.5	26.3 ± 1.5	18.3 ± 4.6	11.6 ± 3.0
<i>Polyalthia longifolia</i>	Ethyl acetate	31.3 ± 2.5	16.3 ± 2.3	11.0 ± 2.6	28.3 ± 2.3	23.3 ± 3.2	15.6 ± 3.0
<i>Piper betle</i>	Dichloromethane	29.6 ± 3.2	17.3 ± 1.5	12.6 ± 1.5	36.3 ± 2.9	24.6 ± 4.0	14.3 ± 1.5
<i>Syzygium cumini</i>	Ethyl acetate	15.3 ± 3.0	9.6 ± 1.5	0	22.3 ± 3.8	13.6 ± 0.6	11.0 ± 1.0
<i>Xanthium strumarium</i>	Benzene	24.6 ± 3.0	18.3 ± 2.1	9.6 ± 1.5	35.3 ± 3.5	24.3 ± 2.5	15.6 ± 3.0

was evaluated by measuring zones of inhibition of fungal growth around the plant extracts. Complete antifungal assay was carried out under strict aseptic conditions. The zones of inhibition were measured in mm and the experiment was carried out in triplicate. The average of 3 replications and standard deviation were computed by MS Excel 2007.

Thin layer chromatography

Thin layer chromatography was used both for detection of antifungal compounds and their phytochemical analysis. Antifungal activities were tested by bioautography following the method of Kumar et al. (2012). Phytochemical analysis was performed using ultraviolet light and different spray reagents (Wagner and Bladt 1996). Precoated silica gel 60 F254 aluminium TLC plate (Merck, India) was activated by heating at 70°C for 45 minutes prior to sample-loading. Each concentrated extract (10 mg/ml) was loaded on the activated TLC plate at 2 different spots (20 µl each) 2 cm apart and developed either in hexane : ethyl acetate : methanol (60 : 40 : 1 v/v) or in hexane : ethyl acetate (70 : 30 or 80 : 20 v/v) as solvent. The plates were air-dried until the solvent evaporated completely and subsequently cut symmetrically into 2 parts to separate the 2 developed chromatograms. These were used independently for phytochemical analysis and

bioautography and the results were compared in order to determine the nature of antifungal compound.

Bioautography

For bioautography with *L. theobromae*, spore suspension (10⁶ spores/ml) was prepared from 7 d old culture in Richard's medium and sprayed with an atomizer on dried TLC plates (Kumar et al. 2012). The plates were incubated in a humid chamber at 28°C for 2-5 days. For *C. albicans* developed chromatograms were placed in sterile petri plates. Molten PDA medium was mixed with phenol red (0.02%) and an inoculum of cell suspension of *Candida albicans*, at tolerable temperature. The mixture was poured evenly over developed TLC plates, covered with lid and incubated at 28°C for 24 h. Inhibition zones, which appeared as clear spots on a background of fungal growth, indicated the presence of antifungal compounds. R_f values of the inhibition zones and the zone diameters were noted.

Phytochemical analysis

For phytochemical analysis, the developed chromatogram was viewed under UV light (254 and 365 nm) and sprayed with vanillin-sulfuric acid, anisaldehyde-sulfuric acid or Folin ciocalteu's reagent. The color of the developed spots, if any, was noted and

Table 3. Antifungal activity of crude soxhlet extracts of leaves from potential plant species against *Candida albicans* and *Lasiodiplodia theobromae* assessed by bioautography technique and phytochemical detection of antifungal compounds.

Plants	No. of zones	R _f	Antifungal activity Zone of inhibition (mm)		Chemical nature of active compound
			<i>C. albicans</i>	<i>L. theobromae</i>	
<i>C. excavata</i>	2	0.39	18	25	Furano-coumarin
			0.30	15	22
<i>O. sanctum</i>	1	0.85	10	15	Monoterpene
<i>P. betle</i>	1	0.64	30	38	Phenolic
<i>P. longifolia</i>	1	0.73	15	27	Diterpene
<i>X. strumarium</i>	2	0.56	32	38	Sesquiterpene
			0.25	24	32

the R_f was matched with that of the active compound. The result of chemical analysis was determined based on color of the spots (Wagner and Bladt 1996, Harborne 2005).

Results and Discussion

Screening of botanicals for antifungal activity

Agar cup bioassay showed that all 14 plants were active against both the tested fungal pathogens (Table 2). But overall *L. theobromae* was found to be more susceptible than *C. albicans*. *Piper betle* and *Xanthium struaitium* was found to be the most active plants as it produced largest inhibition zones of 36.3 mm and 35.3 mm respectively at 100 mg/ml against *L. theobromae*. Other plants showing strong antifungal activity were *Polyalthia longifolia*, *Clausena excavata* and *Ocimum sanctum*. Besides *Datura innoxia* and *D. stramonium* also showed good antifungal activity and 100mg/ml which however reduced greatly at 1 mg/ml. *Emblica officinalis* and *Lantana camara* were less effective. Reports of antifungal activity of *Maesa indica* and *Leonurus sibiricus* is extremely rare (Yashoda et al. 2014). Considering the overall performances of the plant species, 5 plants, viz. *P. betle*, *O.sanctum*, *P.longifolia*, *C. excavata* and *X. strumarium* were selected for further phytochemical analysis.

Activity monitoring and phytochemical analysis of active compounds

Bioautography of the concentrated crude extracts prepared from *C.excavata*, *X. strumarium*, *P. longifolia*, *P.betle* and *O. sanctum* revealed antifungal activity against *C. albicans* and *L. theobromae* (Table 3). The occurrence of antifungal components was evident by the presence of clear zones of inhibition on TLC plates. *X. strumarium* and *C. excavata* showed 2 antifungal zones each while the other 3 plant extracts produced single antifungal zone each. The largest inhibition zone of 38 mm was produced by *X.strumarium* (R_f 0.56) and *P. betle* (R_f 0.64) extracts against *L.theobromae*. *X. strumarium* showed 2 antifungal compounds both of which produced green fluorescence under UV₂₅₄. The compounds produced reddish brown spots when sprayed with anisaldehyde-sulfuric acid and brown spots with vanillin-sulfuric acid which indicated presence of sesquiterpene derivatives. *X. strumarium* has been reported to contain an antimicrobial sesquiterpene lactone named xanthatin (Saha et al.2012). Another sesquiterpene lactone, deacetyl xanthumin, has been reported but this also structurally resembles xanthatin (Kim et al. 2002). Occurrence of a second antifungal compound in our extract indicates that this plant contains yet undetected bioactive compounds which warrants further study.

The single antifungal compound of *P. betel* produced green fluorescence under UV₂₅₄ and deep blue and brown spots when sprayed with Folin ciocaltu's and vanillin-sulfuric acid respectively indicating phenolic compound. Row and Ho (2009) studied the chemical compositions of the crude oil by GC/MS analysis and identified 36 compounds including eugenol (36.2%) and chavibetol acetate (16.9%) both of which are antifungal phenolic compounds or their derivatives (Kumar et al. 2010b). In this study, only one large antifungal zone was observed possibly because the compounds failed to separate under the current experimental conditions.

P. longifolia (27 mm) and *C. excavata* (25 mm) also exhibited large inhibition zones against *L. theobromae*, however, zone diameters produced by *O. sanctum* (15 mm) were much lower than other

extracts. The two antifungal compounds from *C. excavata* showed intense quenching under UV₂₅₄ but fluoresced with a bright blue color under UV₃₆₅. Both produced blackish blue spot upon spraying with anisaldehyde-sulfuric acid indicating presence of furano-coumarins. Literature review has revealed that root of *C. excavata* have diverse group of coumarins with broad range of biological activities (Wang et al. 2008). However, till date, very few studies have been done concerning the antifungal activity of phytochemicals of *C. excavata* leaves. We earlier reported a new compound excavarin A (Kumar et al. 2012) from dichloromethane extract. Characterization of this second compound with antifungal activity in the ethyl acetate extract is in progress.

The antifungal compound from *P.longifolia* appeared as a single blue spot on TLC plates upon spraying with anisaldehyde reagent and heating at 110°C which indicated the presence of diterpene. The occurrence of clerodane and halimane diterpenes in *P. longifolia* has been reported by several authors (Katkar et al. 2010, Bhattacharya et al. 2015). The antifungal compound from *O. sanctum* produced brown spots when sprayed with vanillin sulfuric acid indicating monoterpene derivative. Essential oils from *O.sanctum* leaves have been found to possess antifungal properties (Kumar et al. 2010 a). Eugenol, which is also a monoterpene has been reported to be the major compound (43%) in essential oil extract by GC-MS analysis (Devendran and Balasubramanian 2011). Thus it is most probable that the antifungal compound detected in this study is eugenol, but further studies are necessary to ascertain this.

Conclusion

The studies showed that extracts from several plants, especially, *X. strumarium* and *P. betle* has strong antifungal activity against *L. theobromae* and *C. albicans*. The phytochemical analysis coupled with bioautography revealed occurrences of several types of antifungal compounds which may form basis for further characterization and development of newer fungicidal compounds.

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**IDENTIFICATION AND PURIFICATION OF FE CONTAINING SUPEROXIDE
DISMUTASE FROM LEISHMANIA DONOVANI****Bikramjit Raychaudhury*¹, R. Jyoti¹, Kakuli Chakraborty¹, Anindita Chakraborty², Moushree Palroy¹ and Rajen Haldar³**¹Department of Physiology, Ananda Chandra College, Jalpaiguri 735101.²Department of Physiology, ABN Seal College, Coochbehar 736101.³Department of Physiology, University Colleges of Science and Technology, University of Calcutta, Kolkata, India.***Corresponding Author: Bikramjit Raychaudhury**

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ABSTRACT

Leishmaniasis is a parasitic disease which infects as many as 400,000 people per year. Because the infective agent—a protozoan—inhabits phagolysosomes in host macrophages, the parasites are partially protected from chemotherapeutic agents. Thus, treated patients often relapse or experience toxic reactions to the drugs. In order to develop new leishmanicidal agents, studies have been conducted to understand the interactions of the parasite with the macrophage. Ordinarily, microorganisms which are taken up by macrophages are destroyed by oxygen-dependent and oxygen-independent antimicrobial systems. The oxygen-dependent antimicrobial activity of macrophages is dependent on the generation of superoxide (O_2^-) by the one-electron reduction of molecular oxygen. This O_2^- can then undergo a series of reactions to produce hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2), hydroxyl radicals ($\cdot OH$), and perhaps, singlet oxygen (1O_2), which may be responsible for destroying the ingested microorganism. Some microorganisms, such as *Toxoplasma gondii*, block the generation of superoxide by macrophages in order to survive phagocytosis. It is found that this was not the case for *Leishmania*. The uptake of *Leishmania tropica* promastigotes by mouse peritoneal macrophages was accompanied by the generation of high levels of superoxide and other activated forms of oxygen. The possibility that parasites might survive phagocytosis by efficient enzymatic decomposition of H_2O_2 and O_2^- has also been investigated. The parasites were found to lack or contain low levels of enzymes capable of decomposing H_2O_2 (glutathione peroxidase and catalase) but to contain relatively high levels of superoxide dismutase, which degrades O_2^- . Evidence was obtained that the leishmanial superoxide dismutase was substantially different from the superoxide dismutase found in its host and therefore made a potential target for the design of parasite-specific enzyme inhibitors. The leishmanial superoxide dismutase activity was found to be insensitive to inhibition by cyanide, but sensitive to inhibition by azide and peroxide, properties which suggest an Fe containing superoxide dismutase. In contrast, the mammalian host has only Cu/Zn-containing and Mn-containing superoxide dismutases. In order to further characterize the leishmanial superoxide dismutase, we have isolated superoxide dismutase from *Leishmania donovani*.

KEYWORDS: *Leishmania donovani*, Superoxide dismutase, Antioxidant.**INTRODUCTION**

The superoxide radical is an intermediate reduction product of oxygen produced by a variety of biological reactions. The superoxide radical (O_2^-) and other reactive derivatives have received recent attention as agents of oxygen toxicity in cells. Most organisms, therefore, have defense systems, such as metallo-enzymes, to protect themselves from toxic oxygen species. Metallo-enzymes that catalyze the disproportionation of superoxide free radicals (O_2^-) to hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) and oxygen (O_2), are known as superoxide dismutases (SODs). SODs play an important role in the protection of cells from the oxidative damage of superoxide radicals. Cell damage may also be due to the superoxide itself or, indirectly, even more reactive oxygen species, such as hydroxyl

radicals ($\cdot OH$), formation of which, via the Fenton reaction, is favoured by excess superoxide^[1] SODs have subunit molecular weights ranging from 16 kDa to 26 kDa and are divided into three classes on the basis of their active site metals: copper and zinc (Cu/Zn-SOD), manganese (Mn-SOD), and iron (Fe-SOD). Cu/Zn-SOD is found widely in the cytoplasm and certainly in the mitochondrial inter-membrane space of the eukaryotic cells and chloroplasts of plants. Mn-SOD is located in prokaryotes and in the mitochondria of eukaryotes^[2] while Fe-SOD has been found in bacteria, blue-green algae and protozoa^[3] Recent reports also indicated that the enzyme was present in higher land plants^[4] In addition, Ni-SOD has been isolated from some microorganisms.^[5]

NADPH oxidase, also referred to as phox, is expressed in professional phagocytes such as neutrophils and macrophages. It catalyzes the production of large amounts of O_2^- (~10 mM inside the phagosome) upon activation. The neutrophil is particularly efficient and produces levels 2-3 times higher than those of macrophages. The important role of phox to the immune defense is exemplified by the fact that a defective enzyme results in chronic granulomatous disease (CGD)^[6]. People with CGD have a genetic deficiency of phox components and suffers from recurrent infections. There are also other cellular sources of O_2^- , including xanthine oxidoreductase and homologues of the gp91phox subunit of phox. In addition, the mitochondria and certain metabolic pathways generate O_2^- .

Superoxide dismutases (SODs) represent a family of metalloenzymes, found in organisms ranging from bacteria to humans.^[7] SODs exist in several different isoforms that differ in their structure and prosthetic ion/ions but all isoforms catalyze the dismutation of O_2^- to hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) and oxygen (O_2). Iron-SOD (Fe-SOD) and Manganese-SOD (Mn-SOD) are located in the cytoplasm of prokaryotes whereas Cu/Zn-SOD is located in the periplasm of gram-negative bacteria, anchored to the outer membrane, or secreted^[8]. Thus, Cu/Zn-SOD in bacteria has the potential to protect against reactive oxygen species (ROS) generated from external sources. Accordingly, it has also been shown to be a virulence mechanism of many bacteria. The amino acid sequences of Cu/Zn-SOD from different bacterial species show extensive variation^[9] and is predicted to affect the architecture of the active site channel and subunit assembly and, hence, enzyme activity. Thus, the SOD activity may vary substantially between bacterial species.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Reagents

Brain heart infusion broth was obtained from Acumedia Manufactures, Baltimore, Maryland, USA. Bactoagar was procured from DIFCO laboratories, Detroit, Michigan, USA. The culture media Medium 199, fetal bovine serum, penicillin-streptomycine, HEPES buffer and L-glutamine were purchased from GIBCO Laboratories, Grand Island, New York, USA. Alkaline phosphatase conjugated anti-rabbit and mice IgG (whole molecule) were from Sigma Immunochemicals. TRITC and FITC coupled anti rabbit and mice IgG were obtained from Bangalore Genei, India. Other reagents were of highest purity available from Sigma Chemical Company, St. Louis, Missouri, USA.

DEAE-52 was purchased from Whatman, and Sephadex G-75 from Amersham Pharmacia Biotech Corporation (Sweden). Molecular weight markers for gel electrophoresis were obtained Amersham Pharmacia Biotech Corporation (Sweden). The other chemicals were analytical reagents.

Parasite

Leishmania donovani strain MHOM/IN/AG/83 was obtained from kala-azar patient^[10] and maintained by intracardial passage in every 8 weeks in Syrian golden hamster. Promastigotes were obtained by transforming amastigotes isolated from infected spleen^[11] and maintained in medium -199 supplemented with 10% fetal calf serum *in vitro*. The strain was also maintained at 22° C in modified Rays medium.^[12]

Purification of Fe-SOD from *Leishmania donovani*

Preparation of cell lysate

A total of 25 gm *Leishmania* cells were taken at this stage for purification of Fe-SOD. Cells were dissolved in x 2 volume ice-cold buffer A containing 50 mM potassium phosphate, 10mM TES, 1mM EDTA, 0.5 mM phenylmethylsulfonyl (in 0.1% ethanol) fluoride and 0.25 mM leupeptin at pH 7.6 and were sonicated by giving 5-6 strokes of 20 sec in an MSE sonicator at 4°C on a setting of 6 and centrifuged at 100,000g for 60 min in a Sorvall centrifuge. The supernatant cell free extract obtained was then used in subsequent steps of purification. .

(NH₄)₂SO₄ precipitation

The cell-free extract was treated with (NH₄)₂SO₄ in three steps. First, solid (NH₄)₂SO₄ was added to the extract to 30% saturation at 4°C, then the mixture was stirred for 15 min at 4°C, and left at 4°C for 60 min. The precipitate was removed by centrifugation at 9,000 rpm for 10 minutes. In the second step, the supernatant was treated with solid (NH₄)₂SO₄ to 60% saturation at 4°C, stirred for 15 min at 4°C, and left at 4°C for 60 min. The precipitate was removed by centrifugation at 9,000 rpm for 10 minutes. In the third step, the supernatant was treated with solid (NH₄)₂SO₄ to 90% saturation at 4°C, stirred for 15 min at 4°C, and left at 4°C for 60 min. The precipitate with SOD activity was centrifuged at 9000 rpm for 10 min (Hettich, Universal 30RF centrifuge) and then dissolved in a minimal volume of 20 mM potassium phosphate (pH 7.6 buffer B) and dialyzed overnight at 4°C against the same buffer. The SOD solution was concentrated to 0.5 ml by a Amicon PM – 30 (30,000-molecular weight cut off).

Ion-exchange Chromatography

The concentrated enzyme solution was loaded on to a DEAE-52 column (2.6 cm x 60 cm) and equilibrated with buffer B for 5 h at 0.25 ml / min. The column was eluted with a 0–500 mM NaCl linear gradient and fractions of 3 ml were collected. The SOD active fractions were pooled, concentrated by Amicon PM–30 (30,000-molecular weight cut off) at 4°C to 10 ml and dialyzed against 10 mM phosphate buffer (buffer C, pH 7.6) for 24 h (4°C).

Gel Chromatography

The concentrated enzyme solution was applied on to a Sephadex G-75 column (2.6 cm x 100 cm), equilibrated with PBS at pH 7.2. The column was eluted with the

same buffer at a flow rate of 0.25 ml/min. The fraction with SOD activity was eluted with 55 ml PBS and dialyzed against 0.01M phosphate buffer pH 7.2 over night and concentrated with Amicon PM-30 (30,000-molecular weight cut off) and stored at -20°C until used.

SOD activity assay

Superoxide dismutase activity was assayed after each purification step by measuring the inhibition of pyrogallol autoxidation rate.^[13] The assay mixture contained 0.2mM pyrogallol in air equilibrated 50mM tris-cacodylic acid buffer, pH 8.2, and 1mM diethylene triamine penta acetic acid. The rate of autoxidation was obtained by monitoring the increase in absorbance at 420 nm in a Hitachi spectrophotometer, No U2000. SOD has the ability to inhibit the autoxidation and the extent of inhibition is taken as the measure of enzymic activity.

Molecular Weight Determination

The determination of the molecular weight by gel filtration was carried out on Sephadex G-200 column equilibrated with 0.05 M phosphate buffer pH 7.2, and calibrated with the following molecular weight standards: immunoglobulin G (160 000 D), human serum albumin (67 000 D), β -lactoglobulin (35 000 D), cytochrome c (12 400 D), vitamin B12 (1355 D), cytidine (246 D).

Protein Estimation

Proteins were determined by the method of Bradford,^[14] using bovine serum albumin as the standard.

Activity staining for SOD

Purified SOD was separated on a 10% non-denaturing polyacrylamide gel^[15] for activity staining^[16] Solution A was prepared by dissolving 10 mg nitroblue tetrazolium and 4 mg riboflavin in 10 ml glass distilled water. Solution B contained 600 μ l TEMED in 10 ml glass distilled water. At the end of electrophoresis, gels were first incubated in Solution A for 20 min and then in Solution B for another 20 min to finally illuminate till the appearance of white bands against a blue background was observed.

This assay depends on the ability of SOD to inhibit the reduction of nitroblue tetrazolium to blue coloured formazan by O_2^- generated by reoxidation of photochemically reduced riboflavin. Thus regions containing active SOD appear colourless against a blue background. The band intensity is roughly proportional to the amount of SOD protein.^[16]

SDS-Polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis

SDS-PAGE of different fractions was done as described by Laemmli.^[15]

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Purification of SOD

After each purification step, the protein content and the enzyme activity were determined. According to our results, ammonium sulphate precipitation to 30% and 60% saturation eliminated 50% of the blast protein, without loss in SOD activity and the third precipitation step at 90% ammonium sulfate saturation resulted in a SOD preparation of higher specific activity.

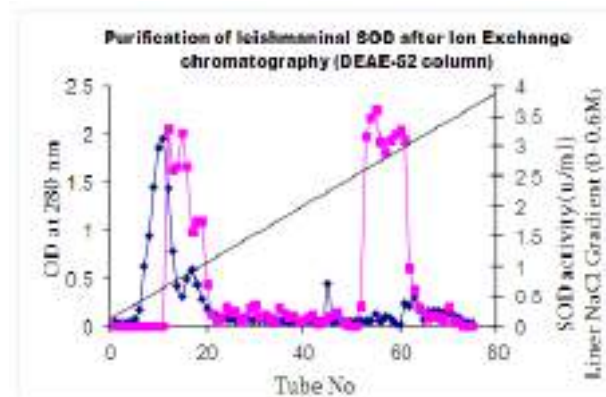


Fig. 1: Ion-exchange chromatography on a DEAE-52 column; protein concentration (-▲-), superoxide dismutase activity (-●-), concentration of NaCl (-).

After that, ion-exchange chromatography on DEAE-52 column with a concentration gradient of NaCl (0–0.6 M) was performed which resulted in elimination of 90% of the blast protein with a loss of SOD activity of about 57 %. Results of this chromatographic procedure are shown in Fig. 1.

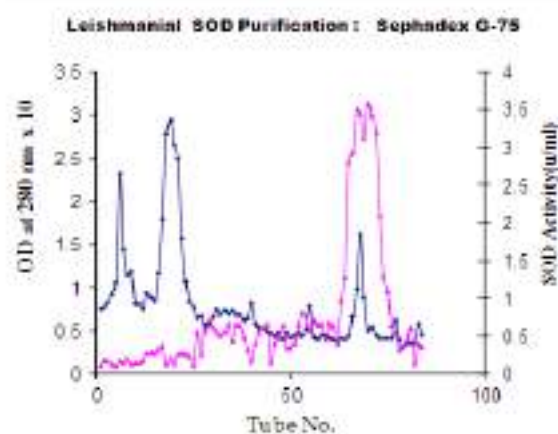


Fig. 2: Gel chromatography on a Sephadex G-75 column; protein concentration (-▲-), superoxide dismutase activity (-●-).

In Ion-exchange chromatography, the 28-44 eluted fraction detected at 280 nm presented an SOD activity and corresponds therefore to the SOD fractions. [Column Volume: 88 ml, Sample charged: 2 ml, Protein content of the sample: 0.47mg/ml, Active Fraction: Tube No. 65 to 72, Flow Rate: 1ml/min, Vol. of each tube: 2 ml].

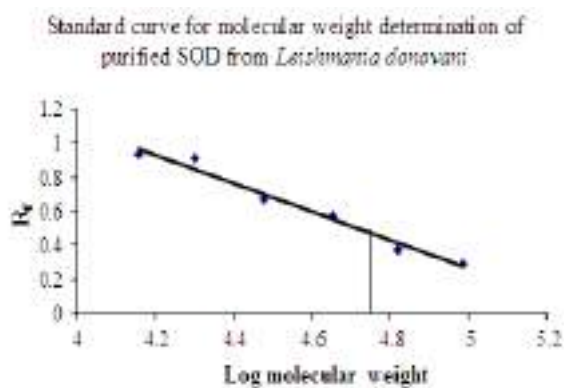


Fig 3: Plot for determination of molecular weight of leishmanial SOD.

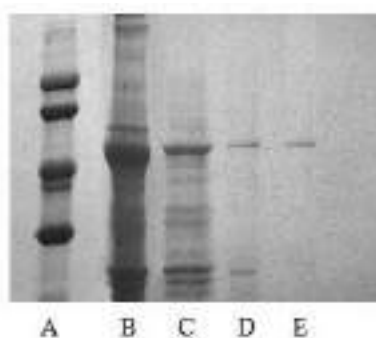


Figure 4: SDS PAGE : A-Protein markers, B-Leishmania cell-free extract, C-Pellet after ammonium sulfate precipitation at 90% saturation, D-Fractions with SOD activity after ion-exchange chromatography, E-Fractions with SOD activity after gel chromatography

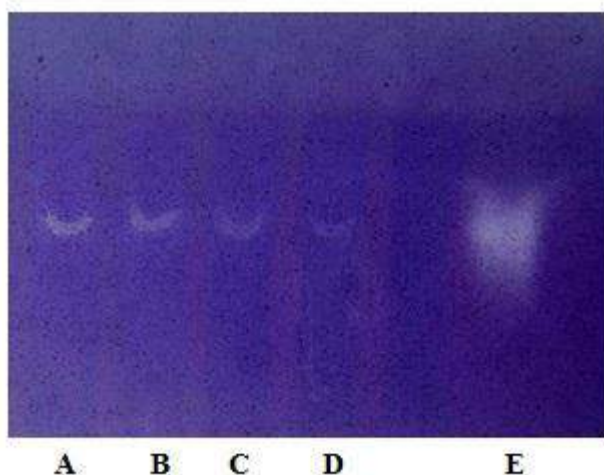


Fig 5: Activity staining of leishmanial SOD after separating by native PAGE in a 10% gel. 60 micrograms of protein was loaded in each lane. A-Leishmania cell-free extract, B-Pellet after ammonium sulfate precipitation at 90% saturation, C-Fractions with SOD activity after ion-exchange chromatography, D-Fractions with SOD activity after gel chromatography, E-Pure Fe SOD.

The SOD was then eluted from a Sephadex G-75 column. Figure 2 presents the results of the gel chromatography on Sephadex G-75 column. The pooled fraction had a volume of 20 ml and was concentrated to a 1.5 ml volume. The SOD fraction showed only one band of SDS-PAGE after gel chromatography. It can be concluded that the SOD was purified to homogeneity after three-step ammonium sulphate precipitation, ion exchange chromatography and gel chromatography. The final sample was applied on SDS-PAGE to determine its molecular weight (Fig 3). The molecular weight of SOD by SDS-PAGE was 37200 dalton. Figure 4 shows the electrophoretic pattern of SOD obtained during different steps of SOD purification. The total purification achieved by the procedure was 105 fold over the first soluble extract, with a yield of 15%. The specific activity of the purified enzyme was 9191 U/mg. Figure 5 shows the activity staining of leishmanial SOD after separating by native PAGE in a 10% gel. Activity staining of native polyacrylamide gels clearly showed the SOD activity obtained during different steps of SOD purification. SOD catalyzes dismutation of toxic superoxide radicals.^[17] It is one of the key enzymes of oxygen defence system is known to be an essential factor in mediating normal cellular functions.^[18] As a result, the enzyme has been found to be targeted for the treatment of several diseases.^[19-21] SOD also plays a vital role during host-parasite interaction.

Its activity is elevated when Leishmania parasite infects host cells.^[22] In a recent report, SOD has been demonstrated to be a key enzyme to play a vital role in the survival of intracellular parasites.^[23] Importance of this enzyme in the host-parasite interaction was established by generating SOD-deficient *Leishmania donovani*. An earlier report suggested that the enzyme that was present in leishmanial glycosomes isolated by the classical sucrose gradient technique was of the Cu/Zn type.^[16] In this present work, SOD was purified from *Leishmania donovani* promastigotes. The total purification achieved by the procedure was 105 fold over the first soluble extract, with a yield of 15%. The specific activity of the purified enzyme was 9191 U/mg. The molecular weight was estimated as 37200 dalton. SOD activity was observed in crude extracts of *Leishmania donovani* cells grown anaerobically. This finding indicates that these enzymes are being constitutively expressed during the growth of this organism in the absence of oxygen. Results elucidated the important roles of Fe-SOD in the cellular stress responses and anti-oxidative processes of the parasite *Leishmania donovani*. Future studies will be necessary to investigate functions of more antioxidant enzymes to gain a better understanding of the antioxidant mechanism in the *Leishmania* species under various stresses.

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