Original Research Article

1 2 3

4

In vitro Cytotoxicity and Antiplasmodial activity of fractions from Anthocleista djalonensis A. Chev. Acetone root extract

5 6 7

8 9

Abstract

10

AIM: Malaria caused by plasmodium falciparum is one of the killer diseases in Africa today and the uncontrollable spread of drug resistance and limited drugs with therapeutic efficacy makes it necessary to discover agents against this deadly parasite. Traditionally Anthocleista djalonensis root extract is used in the treatment of Malaria in many parts of Africa and has demonstrated to be a source of antiplasmodial agents. This study aims at identifying possible antiplasmodial agents from chromatographic root fractions of Anthocleista djalonensis of the Genatianceae family as well as to evaluate their cytotoxicity against HeLa cells.

Place **and Duration of study**: The study was carried in the department of organic chemistry, Rhodes University, Grahamstown, South Africa. The duration period was between March - July 2016.

Methodology: The *Anthocleista djalonensis* roots were collected from Arochukwu, Abia State, Nigeria. The acetone extract was obtained from successive maceration of the methanolic crude extract with hexane, ethyl acetate and acetone. The concentration (0.01-100 ug/mL range) of the chromatographic fractions from acetone root extract of *Anthocleista djalonensis* were tested for antimalarial activity against *Plasmodium falciparium* (*P.falciparum*). Cytotoxicity against *HeLa* cells was also evaluated using resazurin based assay.

Results: The Five fractions obtained from the chromatographic fractionation of acetone extract labelled A1, A2, A3, A4, and A5 with percentage yield (13.02, 26.66, 24.70,0.05 and 26.66 % respectively) showed excellent antiplasmodial activity. The antimalarial bioassay test showed fractions A1, A2, A3, A4 and A5 with IC $_{50}$ value of 0.031, 75.214, 80.100, 0.013, and 60.012 µg/mL respectively. CC $_{50}$ values of 95.12, 100.02,135.46, 78.51, 80.21 µg mL $^{-1}$ were recorded for fractions A1, A2, A3, A4 and A5 respectively. Fractions were classified as marginally active (A2, A3, A5) showing SI of 1.33, 1.68 and 1.30 and as active (A1, A4,) exhibiting SI of 441.25,1560.03 respectively. A1 and A4 showed SI > 10 and IC $_{50}$ < 10 µg/mL. Chloroquine, used as a reference antimalarial drug, tested in parallel had an IC $_{50}$ of 0.0125 µM and was comparable with A1 and A4.

Conclusion: The chromatographic fractions from acetone root extract of *Anthocleista djalonensis* are potential sources for antimalarial agents of lead compounds for the development of antiplasmodial drugs and anticancer drugs.

12 Keywords: Antiplasmodial activity; Cytotoxicity; IC50; Fractionation; Anthocleista dialonensis

14 15 16

13

1. INTRODUCTION

17 18 19

20

21

22

23

24

25

26

27

28

29

30

31

32

33

34

35

36

37

38

39

Medicinal plants contain chemical substances or constituents that have pharmacological activities [1,] 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7]. These activities include anti-cancer [8,9] anti-tumor [10] anti-oxidant [11] and antimicrobial activities 12, 21 Healing with medicinal plants is as old as mankind itself. The connection between man and his search for drugs in nature dates from the far past. Awareness of medicinal plants usage is a result of the many years of struggles against illnesses due to which man learned to pursue drugs in barks, seeds, fruit bodies, and other parts of the plants [13]. Contemporary science has acknowledged their active action, and it has included in modern pharmacotherapy a range of drugs of plant origin, known by ancient civilizations and used throughout the millennia. The knowledge of the development of ideas related to the usage of medicinal plants as well as the evolution of awareness has increased the ability of pharmacists and physicians to respond to the challenges that have emerged with the spreading of professional services in facilitation of man's life [13]. The medicinal plant Anthocleista djalonensis, A. Chev -Gentianaceae is a large tree which grows up to 20 feet; bole up to 4cm in diameter, stilt-rooted, twig sometimes erect, spines above the leaf axils and with white flowers that are scented [14]. Traditionally, the plant is used to treat wound, malaria, constipation, dysentery, diarrhoea, hepatitis, skin infection, and inflammation [15]. Ethnobotanical investigation revealed the use of Anthocleista djalonensis for the treatment of cancer [16]. Three compounds (monoterpene diol, djalonenol and iridoid glucoside djalonenoside) were isolated from Anthocleista djalonensis [17]. These compounds when tested in addition with six semisynthetic derivatives for cytotoxicity of constituents, dialonenol and iridoid glucoside demonstrated cytotoxic effect on the brain tumor fibroblasts (18). The root of A. dialonensis are used traditionally to treat malaria jaundice, diabetes and abscesses [15] Reports of 40 antibacterial and wound healing activity[19,15], in vitro anthelmintic [20] and antimalarial 41 activity[21, 22] of the plant have been published. 42 Malaria, the most prevalent and most pernicious parasitic disease of humans, is estimated to kill 43 between one and two million people, mainly children, each year [23]. One of the greatest obstacles to 44 the control of malaria has been the spread of resistance to drugs used on a large scale [24]. 45 Chloroquine, though effective as a blood schizontocidal drug, is ineffective or partially effective in 46 resistant cases [25]. The emergence of strains of *Plasmodium falciparum* resistant to chloroquine and 47 many other drugs in succession has stimulated efforts to identify new antimalarial agents [25]. 48 Previous pharmacological and bioactivity study of *Anthocleista djalonensis* root extracts has 49 necessitated this investigation. In this study, the activity of chromatographic fractions from the 50 acetone root extract against P. falciparum was assayed and the cytotoxicity on HeLa cells was also 51 evaluated in order to determine the selectivity of antimalarial action. Plasmodium falciparum 52 responsible for malaria in human was quite suitable for this study. 53 54 55 2. MATERIAL AND METHODS 56 57 2.1. Plant materials 58 The roots of Anthocleista dialonensis was obtained from Arochukwu, Abia state, Nigeria. The 59 taxanomic classification of the selected plant was established by Mr Ibe Ndukwe of the 60 Taxonomy Section, Forestry department, Michael Okpara University of Agriculture Umudike, 61 Abia state, Nigeria. Voucher samples of the plants are deposited in the Herbarium of Michael 62 Okpara University of Agriculture Umudike, Abia state, Nigeria. The roots were dried under shade for three weeks. 63 64 2.2. Acetone extract preparation 65 The dried plant samples were pulverized to coarse powder using a laboratory mill (Model 4 66 Arthur Thomas, USA). The 93 g (AF00) was extracted successively with Hexane (4 x 100 67 mL), Ethyl acetate (4 x 100 mL), acetone (4 x 100 mL) by maceration. The extracts were

concentrated individually with rota vapor at 35°C to give AF01, AF02, AF03, respectively with AF00 as the crude extract.

70

71

72

73

74

75

76

77

78

79

80

81

68

69

2.3. Fractionation of Acetone extract

Acetone extract being the most active of all the extracts was made candidate for column chromatography (The activity of this extract will be Published elsewhere). About 30 g of concentrated acetone extract was fractionated using chromatography column. Packaging was done using an 80 g column of silica gel. Best eluent (hexane,dichloromethane and methanol) were used as mobile phase with a gradient system. Eluate was collected in several bottles of 50 mL, each of which was given a number then analysed by TLC. The spots separated in TLC was observed with 254 nm UV light. The Rf and eluate which have the same pattern spots appearance on TLC were combined as one fraction then concentrated. Percentage of fractions were calculated using the formula:

% Fraction = Weight of Fraction (g)/Weight of plant extract x 100

82

83

84

85

86

87

88

89

90

91

92

93

94

2.4. HeLa cell culture and treatment[26]

Human cervix adenocarcinoma cell (HeLa) obtained (from ATCC CCL-2 LGC standard Wesel, Germany) were cultured in a 5%CO2 incubator at 37°C in DMEM medium 10% supplemented with fetal bovine serum and antibiotics (penicillin/streptomycin/fungizone). The cells were split every 3-5 days (when the cells have reached close to full confluency): the cells were detached from the culture flask surface using trypsin/EDTA, and the majority aspirated off. Medium was added to the flask and the remainder of the cells, and the flask returned to incubation. The confluency and state of the cells were regularly assessed using an inverted light microscope. Cells were cryopreserved by detaching the cells from the culture flask in trypsin/EDTA, pelleting the cells, transferring them to cryotubes in 10% DMSO in fetal bovine serum, and placing the tubes in a -80 freezer. For the cytotoxicity assay a range of concentrations of extract (1-1000 μ g mL⁻¹) was used for 24 h treatment for the determination of 50% cytotoxic concentration (CC₅₀).

97

98

99

100

101

102

103

104

105

106

107

108

109

110

111

112

113

114

115

116

95

96

2.5. *In vitro* Cytotoxicity assay

Cytotoxic activity was determined by resazurin reduction based assay[27]. HeLa cells were used for the determination of the CC₅₀ value of the cytotoxicity of chromatographic fractions from Anthocleista djalonensis. To assess the overt cytotoxicity of the compounds, extracts were incubated at various concentrations in 96-well plates containing HeLa (human cervix adenocarcinoma) cells for 24 hours. The numbers of cells surviving on drug exposure were also determined by using the resazurin based reagent and reading resorufin fluorescence in a multiwell plate reader. Reagent was prepared by dissolving high purity resazurin in DPBS (pH 7.4) to 0.15 mg/mL. The resazurin solution was filtered and sterilized through a 0.2 μm filter into a sterile, light protected container. The resazurin solution was stored and protected from light at 4 °C for frequent use or at -20 °C for long term storage. Cells and test compounds were prepared in opaque-walled 96-well plates containing a final volume of 100 μL/well. An optional set of wells were prepared with medium only for background subtraction and instrument gain adjustment. This was incubated for desired period of exposure. 20 µl resazurin solution was added to each well. This was incubated for 1 to 4 hours at 37 °C. The fluorescence was recorded using a 560 nm excitation / 590 nm emission filter set.

2.6. Plasmodium falciparum cultivation

Chloroquine sensitive and resistant strains of *P. falciparum* 3D7, respectively, obtained from Rhodes University Gramhamstown, South Africa was kept in continuous *in vitro* culture

according to the modified candle-jar method of Trager and Jensen [28]. Human red blood cells (blood type A+) in RPMI 1640 medium (Sigma Chemical Co., USA) supplemented with 25 mM HEPES 4-(2-hydroxyethyl)-1-piperazineethanesulphonic acid (Sigma), 0.2 per cent sodium bicarbonate (Sigma), and 15 per cent complement inactivated human AB+ serum were used for parasite culture.

2.7. In vitro antiplasmodial assay

Antimalarial test was carried out using the Immunocapture parasite lactate dehydrogenase (IcpLDH) assay method as described by Makler et al., [29]. Extracts with concentration (0.01-100 ug/mL) were added to parasite cultures in 96-well plates and incubated for 48 h in a 37 $^{\circ}$ C CO₂ incubator. After 48 h the plates were removed from the incubator. Twenty μ L of culture was removed from each well and mixed with 125 μ L of a mixture of Malstat solution and NBT/PES solution in a fresh 96-well plate. These solutions measure the activity of the parasite lactate dehydrogenase (pLDH) enzyme in the cultures. A purple product was formed when pLDH was present, and this product was quantified in a 96-well plate reader by absorbance at 620 nm (Abs₆₂₀). The Abs₆₂₀ reading in each well is thus an indication of the pLDH activity in that well and also the number of parasites in that well. Each sample was tested in duplicates. For each concentration, % parasite viability – the PLDH activity in treated wells relative to untreated controls was calculated.

2.8. Data analysis

Data represent the mean±standard error (SEM) of the indicated number of experiments. Graphs were prepared by Prism software. Statistical analysis of the data was carried out by one way ANOVA (Graph Pad Prism 5.02 Software). A value of p< 0.05, p<0.01, p<0.0001 were considered to be significant, very significant and highly significant, respectively. Linear regression analysis was used to calculate CC_{50} and IC_{50} . The antiplasmodial activities of fractions were expressed by the inhibitory concentrations (IC_{50}) of the drug that induced 50%

reduction in parasitaemia compared to the control (100 %) parasitaemia. The activity was analysed according to the classification for antiplasmodial activity by Valdes,[30]. Therefore extract exhibiting IC_{50 P.falciparum} > 100 μ g/mL was considered inactive. Extract showing IC_{50 P.falciparum} < 100 μ g/mL was classified as follows: Marginally active at SI < 4, partially active at SI 4-10 and active at SI > 10. Active extract showing IC_{50 P.falciparum} < 10 μ g/mL was to be selected for further bioassay-guided fractionation. Selectivity index was calculated as the ratio of cytotoxicity of extract on *HeLa* cell line (cytotoxicity) to the IC₅₀ of the extract against *P. falciparum* (antiplasmodial activity) strains.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1. Fractionation of acetone extract

Fractionation of the acetone extract using chromatography produced five fractions (Table 1). Fraction grouping was based on the TLC analysis using hexane, dichloromethane and methanol as eluents. Based on Table 1, the yield of fractions obtained ranged from 0.05-26.66%. Fraction number A2 and A5 had the highest yield of 26.66% followed by fraction A3, A1 and A4. The smallest yield was fraction A4 (0.05%). From the TLC analysis all fractions had many number of spots and none with a single spot. The fractions were observed to have different colours visually. This may be due to different types of constituents found in each fraction.

Table 1: Yield of fractions of A.djalonensis acetone root extract

FRACTIONS	WEIGHT(G)	% YIELD CO	DLOUR OF FRACTION	RF
A1	3.90	13.02	WHITE	0.66
A2	8.00	26.66	LIGHT YELLOW	0.56
А3	7.43	24.70	YELLOW	0.62
A4	1.50	0.05	BROWN	0.70
A5	8.00	26.66	DARK BROWN	0.61

3.2. *In vitro* assays

Cytotoxicity and antimalarial activity was determined from CC_{50} and IC_{50} value of the fractions. The CC_{50} and IC_{50} value is always inversely proportional to the cytotoxicity and anti plasmodial activity respectively. This meant the higher the CC_{50} and IC_{50} values, the lower the activities and vice versa. The results showed that there was a positive correlation between the concentrations of fractions with the percentage of *HeLa* cells and *P. falciparum* parasite cell viability (Fig. 6 and 12).

Table 2 shows the CC_{50} and IC_{50} values of all five chromatographic fractions of *A.djalonensis* acetone extract.

Fractions	P.falciparum (IC ₅₀₎	HeLa Cells(CC50) SI		Classification	
	ug/mL	ug/mL			
A 1	0.031	95.12	441.25	Active	
A2	75.214	100.03	1.33	Marginally Active	
А3	80.100	135.46	1.68	Marginally Active	
A4	0.013	78.51	1560.03	Active	
A5	60.020	80.21	1.30	Marginally Active	

3.2.1. In vitro Cytotoxicity assay

The test results on HeLa cell indicated growth inhibition by the fractions of acetone root extract from A.djalonensis. Fractions A1, A2, A4 and A5 had $CC_{50} \le 100$, while $CC_{50} > 100$ was observed for fraction A3. The highest cytotoxicity activity was demonstrated by A4 with CC_{50} value of 78.51 ug/mL followed by A5, A1, and A2 with CC_{50} value of 80.21 ug/mL, 95.12 ug/mL and 100.02 ug/mL respectively. Fraction A3 showed the lowest cytotoxicity with CC_{50} value of 135.46 ug/mL (fig1,2,3,4,5,6).

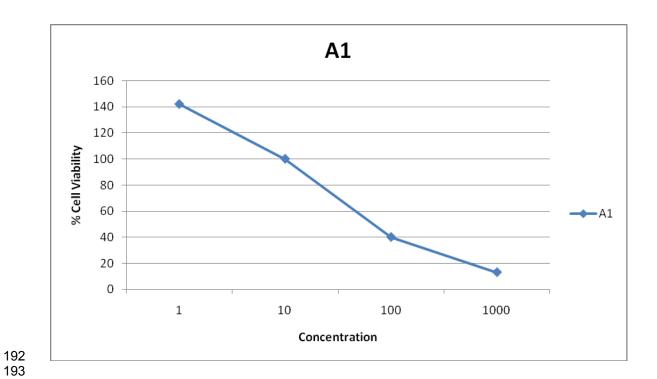


Fig 1:Cytotoxicity of fraction A1 against HeLa cells

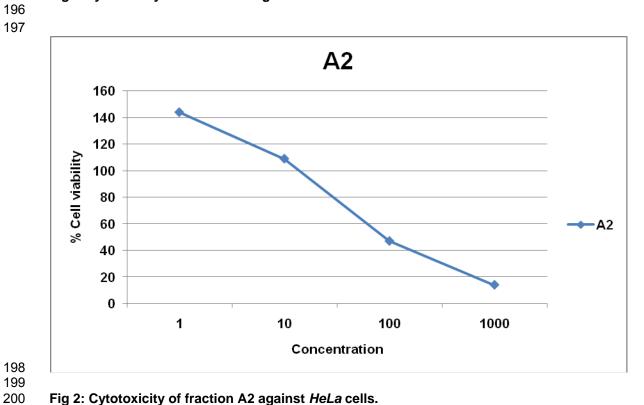


Fig 2: Cytotoxicity of fraction A2 against HeLa cells.

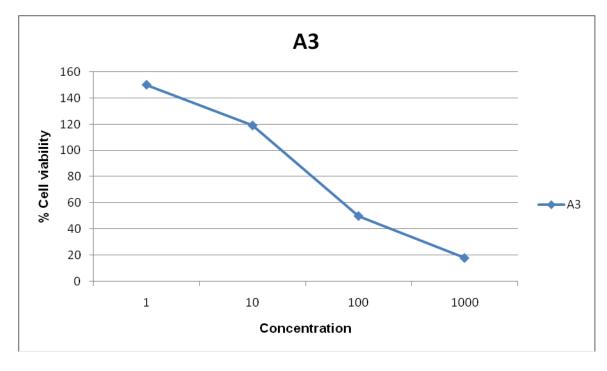


Fig 3: Cytotoxicity of fraction A3 against *HeLa* cells.

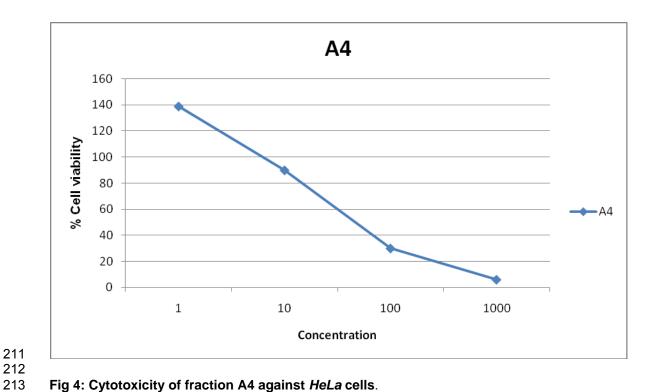


Fig 4: Cytotoxicity of fraction A4 against HeLa cells.

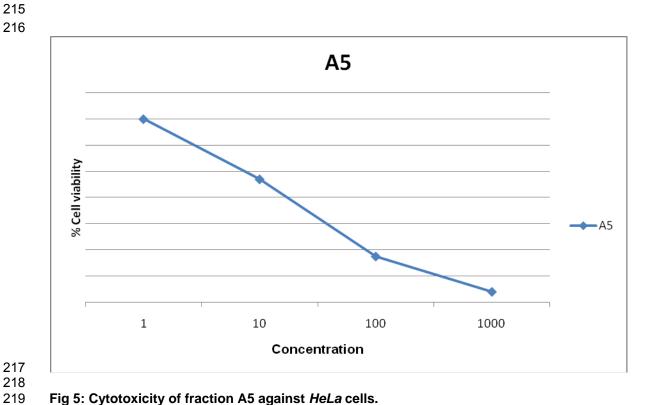


Fig 5: Cytotoxicity of fraction A5 against HeLa cells.

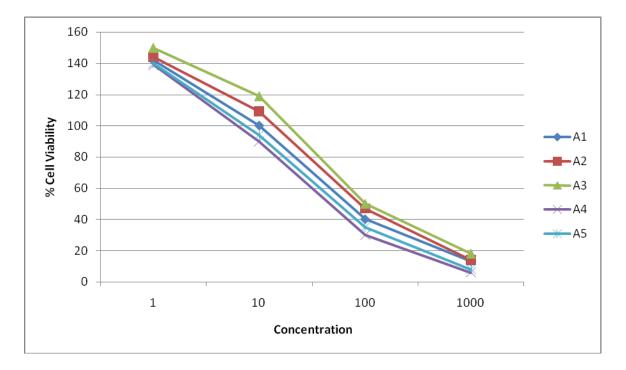


Fig 6: Cytotoxicity of all five fractions against HeLa cells.

3.2.2. *In vitro* antimalarial activity

The test results of *in vitro* antimalarial activity showed that all fractions of *A.djalonensis* acetone extract had the ability to inhibit the growth of *P. falciparum* (fig 7,8,9,10,11,12). The IC₅₀ values and selectivity indices (SI = ratio of cytotoxicity to antimalarial activity) of extracts are shown in Table 2. The IC₅₀ values for fractions A1, A2, A3, A4, and A5 were 0.031 ug/mL, 75.214 ug/mL, 80.100 ug/mL, 0.013 ug/mL and 60.020 ug/mL respectively. Fractions were classified as marginally active (A2, A3 and A5) showing SI of 1.33, 1.68 and 1.30 and as active (A1and A4) exhibiting SI of 441.25 and 1560.03 respectively. Furthermore, A1 and A4 showed SI > 10 and IC₅₀ < 10 ug/mL. Chloroquine, used as a reference anti-malarial drug, tested in parallel had an IC₅₀ of 0.0125 μ M and was comparable with A1 and A4 (IC50:

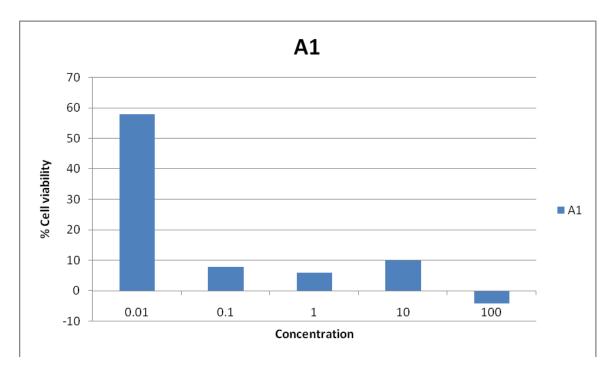


Fig 7: Activity of fraction A1 against P.falciparum.

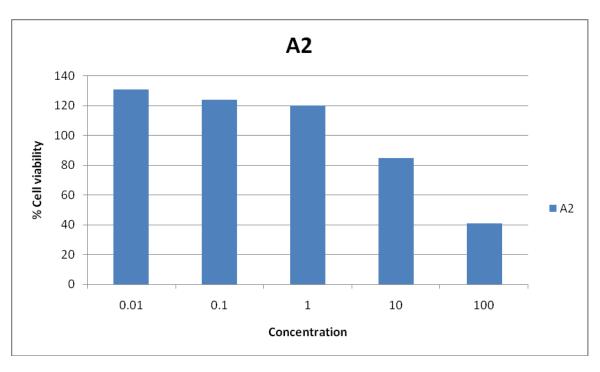


Fig 8: Activity of fraction A2 against P.falciparum

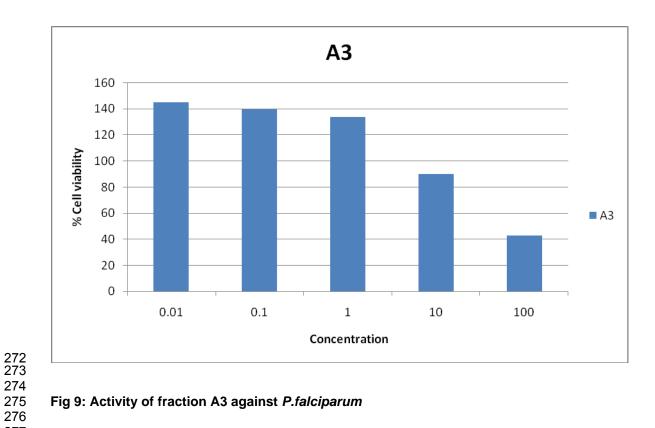


Fig 9: Activity of fraction A3 against *P.falciparum*

282

284 285

287 288

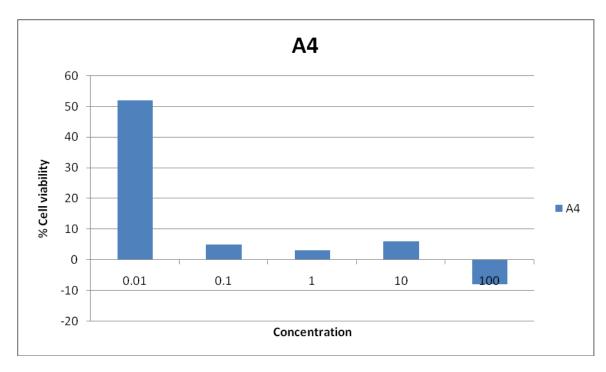


Fig 10: Activity of fraction A4 against *P.falciparum*

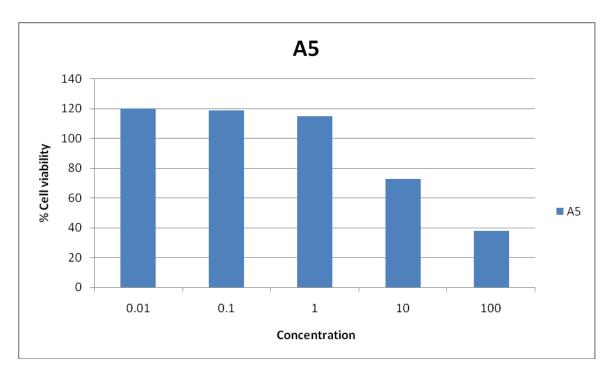


Fig 11: Activity of fraction A5 against P.falciparum

307

308

309

310

311

312

313

314

315

316

317

318

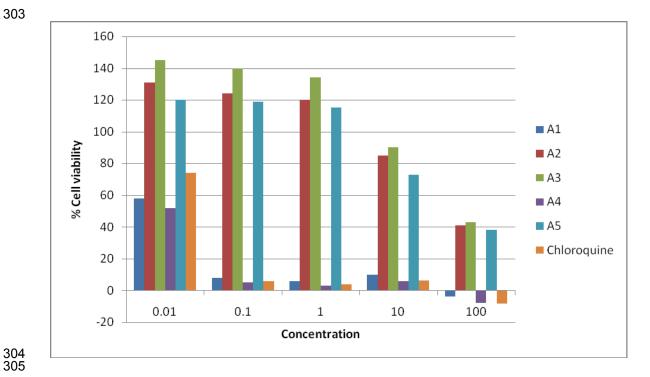


Fig 12: Activity of all fractions and Chloroquine (Positive control) against P.falciparum

3.3 Discussion

Resistance to anti-malarial drugs has often threatened malaria elimination efforts and historically has led to the short-term resurgence of malaria incidences and deaths [31]. Antimalarial drug resistance develops when spontaneously occurring parasite mutants with reduced susceptibility are selected, and are then transmitted[32]. Chloroquine resistance is associated with mutations in the polymorphic gene encoding aputative chloroquine transporter and located on chromosome "7" [31]. Chloroquine-resistant Plasmodium falciparum malaria is a major health problem. P. falciparum infections acquired in most of Africa, and some parts of Asia and South America cannot be treated with chloroquine [33]. Increasing drug resistance in plasmodium falciparum and a resurgence of malaria in tropical areas have effected a change in treatment of malaria [34]. A combination of antimalarial drugs is responsive to P.falciparum with high grade resistance to chloroquine. Artemisinin

and its semi-synthetic derivatives are anti-malarial drugs effective against CQ-resistant *P. falciparum* as single therapeutic agents. However, to minimize the risks of recrudescence and the development of resistance, a combination treatment with a second antimalarial drug is recommended [35]. Newer drug combination of compounds from biodiversity to combat malarial disease and drug resistant strand are urgently needed. The long-established use of quinine and the more recent introduction of artemisinin and its derivatives as highly effective antimalarials demonstrates that plant species are an important resource for the discovery of new antimalarial agents[36]. *Anthocleista djalonensis* of Gentianceae family is one plant with diverse medicinal uses. Some activity of the leaf stem[22] and roots[15, 21] parts of the plant against malaria has been reported. The phytochemical screening of the root extract of *Anthocleista djalonensis* carried out indicated the presence of saponins, flavonoids, tannins, reducing sugar, steroids, phlobatanins, volatile oils and alkaloids which are active components present in the plant that makes it medicinal [36].

In vivo activity of the root extracts and fractions against P. berghei may have been reported [21]. Yet this is the first scientific study of the fractions from the root of *Anthocleista djalonensis* on *Plasmodium falciparum* (the parasite responsible for human malaria). In this study we investigated the antimalarial and cytotoxicity activity of acetone chromatographic fractions of *A.djalonensis*. Fractions A2, A3, and A5 with low SI (1.33, 1.68 and 1.30) revealed that the antimalarial activity was dependent on the cytotoxicity and independent on the activity against the parasites. While A1and A4 with high SI (441.25 and 1560.03) meant that activity against the parasites was attributed to the parasites themselves and not cytotoxicity. According to Soh,[37], high selective index means safer therapy. Hence a cutoff point of 4 certified safe anti-malarial use. Whereas, SI greater than 10 and IC₅₀ values below10 ug/mL should be promising sources of anti-malarial molecules. Activity against *HeLa* cells and *P. falciparum* in a high percentage of tested fractions were observed. Activity

was directly proportional to the concentration. Obviously, *in vitro* study presumes a direct action on the parasite[38].

Although, anti-malarial activity has been detected in some parts of *A.djalonensis* plants like the stem and leaves[22]. This is the first report for the chromatographic fractions of acetone root of *A.djalonensis plant*. Phytochemical analysis of these fractions from acetone root extract of *A.djalonensi* suggests the presence of triterpenoids, flavonoids and anthraquinones [17] as chemical classes with widely demonstrated effective antimalarial activity [39]. Flavonoids act by inhibiting the fatty acid biosynthesis (FAS II) of the parasite [40,41] as well as inhibiting the influx of *L*-glutamine and myoinositol into infected erythrocytes [43]. Antimalarial activity of anthoquinone could be due to nitric oxide generation from macrophages using polysaccharide. In combination of high concentration of this oxide with sub-optimal doses of chloroquine, the parasitaemia in chloroquine resistant malarial infection was suppressed [43]. While triterpenoids mechanism of action is in the arresting of parasite development, inhibition of the hemozoin polymerization on the parasite [44, 45] and the lactase dehydrogenase of the *Plasmodium falciparium* (an essential enzyme used to generate energy within the parasite) [46, 47].

The high activity of fraction A1 and A4 is an indication that these fractions are promising sources as antimalarial agents.

4. CONCLUSION

The chromatographic root fractions of *Anthocleista djalonensis* showed potent antimalarial and cytotoxic activities. The results highlighted the safety in the use of the plant of which can become a source of lead compounds of high therapeutic efficacy for malarial diseases.

The remarkable antimalarial activity of A.djalonensis encourages the investigation of native and naturalized African plants to explore as a potential source of antimalarial drugs. However, fractions were selected for further purification, isolation and identification of active chemical classes with proved efficacy against *P. falciparum*. **COMPETING INTERESTS** Authors have declared that no competing interests exist. REFERENCES 1. Tyler V. Herb of Choice:The Therapeutic Use of Phytomedicinals, Pharmaceutical Products Press: New York, NY, 1994; p.119. 2. Wink M1, Ashour ML, El-Readi MZ. Secondary Metabolites from Plants Inhibiting ABC Transporters and Reversing Resistance of Cancer Cells and Microbes to Cytotoxic and Antimicrobial Agents. Front. Microbiol., 2012; 3:130. Doi: 10.3389/fmicb.2012.00130; 3. Kumar S, Malhotra R, Kumar D. Euphorbia hirta: Its chemistry, traditional and medicinal uses, and pharmacological activities. Pharmacogn Rev. 2010; 4(7): 58-61. Doi: 10.4103/0973-7847.65327; PMCID: PMC3249903;

401	4. Atanasov AG, Waltenberger B, Pferschy-Wenzig E, Linder I, Wawrosch C, Unrin
402	P, et al. Discovery and resupply of pharmacologically active plant-derived natural
403	products: A review. Biotechnol Adv. 2015 ; 33(8): 1582-1614. doi:
404	10.1016/j.biotechadv.2015.08.001;PMCID: PMC4748402;EMSID: EMS65118
405 406	5. Thimmappa R, Geisler K, Louveau T, O'Maille P, Osbourn A. "Triterpene
407	biosynthesis in plants". Annu Rev Plant Biol.2014; 65: 225-
408	57.doi:10.1146/annurev-arplant-050312-120229;PMID 24498976;
409	6. Augustin JM, Kuzina V, Andersen SB, Bak S. "Molecular activities, biosynthesis and
410	evolution of triterpenoid saponins". Phytochemistry. 2011;72 (6): 435–57.
411	PMID 21333312; doi:10.1016/j.phytochem.2011.01.015;
412	
413	7. Dhami N. "Trends in Pharmacognosy: A modern science of natural medicines".
414	Journal of Herbal Medicine.2013; 3 (4): 123–131.
415	doi:10.1016/j.hermed.2013.06.001;
416 417	
418	8. Greenwell M, Rahman P.K.S.M. Medicinal Plants: Their Use in Anticancer
419	Treatment.Int J Pharm Sci Res. 2015; 6(10): 4103–4112. doi:
420	10.13040/IJPSR.0975-8232.6(10).4103-12; PMCID: PMC4650206; EMSID:
421	EMS65383
422	
423	9. Mohammad S. Anti-cancer agents from medicinal plants Bangladesh Journal of
424	Pharmacology 2006;Vol 1, No 2
425	
426	10. Melo JG, Santos AG, Amorim ELC, Nascimento SC, Albuquerque UP. Medicinal
427	Plants Used as Antitumor Agents in Brazil: An Ethnobotanical Approach Evid

428		Based Complement Alternat Med. 2011; 2011:1-14. PMID 365359;
429		http://dx.doi.org/10.1155/2011/365359;
430 431		
432	11.	Van Wyke BE, Wink C, Wink M. Phytomedicines, Herbal Drugs and Plant Poisons
433		of the World. Royal Botanic Gardens, Kew, UK; University of Chicago Press,
434		USA,2015; pp 52-80.
435		
436	12.	Ortega-Ramirez LA, Rodriguez-Garcia I, Leyva JM, Cruz-Valenzuela MR, Silva-
437		Espinoza BA, Gonzalez-Aguilar GA. Potential of medicinal plants as antimicrobial
438		and antioxidant agents in food industry: a hypothesis. J Food Sci. 2014
439		;79(2):R129-37. doi: 10.1111/1750-3841.12341.
440		PMID:24446991DOI:10.1111/1750-3841.12341;
441 442		
443	13.	Petrovska BB. Historical review of medicinal plants usage.Pharmacogn Rev,
444		2012; 6(11): 1–5 Doi: 10.4103/0973-7847.95849; PMCID: PMC3358962
445 446	14.	Jensen SR, Schripsema J. Chemotaxonomy and pharmacology of Gentianaceae.
447		In book: Gentianaceae - Systematics and Natural History, Chapter: 6, Publisher:
448		Cambridge Univ. Press.2002; pp.573-631
449 450	15.	Okoli AS, Iroegbu CU. Evaluation of extracts of Anthocleista djalonensis, Nauclea
451		latifolia and Uvaria afzalii for activity against bacterial isolates from cases of non-
452		gonococcal urethritis. Journal of Ethnopharmacology, 2004; 92(1):135-44 . DOI:
453		10.1016/j.jep.2003.12.015;
454 455	16.	Gbadamosi, Idayat Titilayo and Erinoso, Sakiru Morenikeji. A review of twenty
456		ethnobotanicals used in the management of breast cancer in Abeokuta, Ogun

457		State, Nigeria. African Journal of Pharmacy and Pharmacology, 2016; Vol. 10(27),
458		pp. 546-564, DOI:
459		10.5897/AJPP2015.4327;http://www.academicjournals.org/AJPP;
460 461	17.	Onocha PA, Okorie, DA, Conolly JD, Croft DSJ. Monoterpene diol, iridoid,
462		glucoside and dibenzoaldpha-pyrone from Anthocleeista djalonensis.
463		Photochemistry, 1995; 40(4), 1183-1189
464 465	18.	Onocha PA, Okorie DA, Connolly JD, Krebs HC, Meier B, Habermehl GG.
466		Cytotoxic activity of the constituents of Anthocleista djalonensis and their
467		derivatives. Nigerian Journal of Natural Products and Medicine.2003; 7:58-
468		60.http://dx.doi.org/10.4314/njnpm.v7i1.11710
469 470	19.	Chah KF, Eze CA, Emuelosi CE, Esimone CO. Antibacterial and wound healing
471		properties of methanolic extracts of some Nigerian Medicinal Plants. J
472		Ethnopharmacol. 2006;104:164–7.
473 474		
475 476 477	20.	Nweze NE, Ngongeh LA. <i>In vitro</i> Anthelmintic Activity of <i>Anthocleista djalonensis</i> . Nig Vet J. 2007;28:9–13.
478	21.	Akpan EJ, Okokon JE, and Etuk IC. Antiplasmodial and antipyretic studies on root
479		extracts of Anthocleista djalonensis against Plasmodium berghei. Asian Pacific
480		Journal of Tropical Disease, 2012; Doi:10.1016/S2222-1808(12)60009-7;
481 482	22.	Bassey AS, Okokon JE, Etim EI, Umoh FU, Bassey E. Evaluation of the <i>in vivo</i>
483		antimalarial activity of ethanolic leaf and stembark extracts of Anthocleista
484		djalonensis Indian J Pharmacol. 2009 ; 41(6): 258-261. Doi: 10.4103/0253-
485		7613.59924 PMCID: PMC2846499;
486 487		

488	23. White NJ. Antimalarial drug resistance J Clin Invest. 2004 Apr 15; 113(8): 1084-
489	1092. Doi: 10.1172/JCI200421682;PMCID: PMC385418;
490	
491	24. Travassos MA and Miriam K. Laufer. Resistance to antimalarial drugs: molecular,
492	pharmacological and clinical considerations Pediatr Res. 2009 ; 65(5 Pt 2): 64R-
493	70R. Doi: 10.1203/PDR.0b013e3181a0977e; PMCID: PMC2837525;NIHMSID;
494	NIHMS108692;
495 496	25. Bickii J, Njifutie N, Foyere JA, Basco LK, Ringwald P. <i>In vitro</i> antimalarial activity
497	of limonoids from Khaya grandifoliola C.D.C. (Meliaceae) J. Ethnopharmacol,
498	2000; 69: 27-33. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0378-8741(99)00117-8;
499	
500	26. Paul J. Methods in enzymology, Vol. LVIII, Cell culture.edited by Jakoby WB,
501	Pastan IH, Academic Press, New York, San Francisco and London, 1979 (642
502	pages) ISBN 0 12 1819582.
503	
504 505	27. Pesch K L, Simmert U. "Combined assays for lactose and galactose by enzymatic
	27. Pesch K L, Simmert U. "Combined assays for lactose and galactose by enzymatic reactions". Milchw. Forsch., 1929; 8 : 551.
505	
505506507	reactions". Milchw. Forsch., 1929; 8 : 551.
505 506 507 508	reactions". Milchw. Forsch., 1929; 8 : 551. 28. Trager W, Jensen JB. Human parasites in continuous culture. Sciences1976; 193:
505 506 507 508 509 510	reactions". Milchw. Forsch., 1929; 8 : 551. 28. Trager W, Jensen JB. Human parasites in continuous culture. Sciences1976; 193: 673- 5.
505 506 507 508 509 510 511	reactions". Milchw. Forsch., 1929; 8 : 551. 28. Trager W, Jensen JB. Human parasites in continuous culture. Sciences1976; 193: 673- 5. 29. Makler MT, Piper RC, Milhous WK. Lactate Dehydrogenase and the Diagnosis of
505 506 507 508 509 510 511	reactions". Milchw. Forsch., 1929; 8 : 551. 28. Trager W, Jensen JB. Human parasites in continuous culture. Sciences1976; 193: 673-5. 29. Makler MT, Piper RC, Milhous WK. Lactate Dehydrogenase and the Diagnosis of Malaria. Trends in parasitology,1998;Volume 14, Issue 9, p376–377, 1. Doi:

517		medicinal plants, Rev. Inst. Med. trop. S. Paulo, 2010;vol.52 no.4.
518		http://dx.doi.org/10.1590/S0036-46652010000400006;
519 520	31.	Petersen I, Eastman R, Michael lanzer. Drug-resistant malaria: Molecular
521		mechanisms and implications for public health. FEBS Letters 2011; Volume 585,
522		Issue 11, Pages 1551-1562 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.febslet.2011.04.042;
523 524	32.	White N. Antimalarial drug resistance and combination chemotherapy. Philos Trans
525		R Soc Lond B Biol Sci.1999; 354:739-749. PMID:10365399;
526		PMCID:PMC1692562; DOI:10.1098/rstb.1999.0426;
527 528	33.	White NJ. The treatment of malaria. N Engl J Med., 1996 ;335(11):800-
529		6Doi:10.1056/NEJM199609123351107;PMID:8703186;
530 531	34.	WHO. WHO briefing on Malaria Treatment Guidelines and artemisinin
532		monotherapies.Geneva: WHO, 2009 [online]
533		Availablefrom:http://www.who.int/malaria/publications/atoz/meetingbriefing19april.p
534		df
535 536	35.	Wright CW. Plant derived antimalarial agents: New leads and challenges
537		Phytochemistry Reviews (2005) 4: 55–61Springer 2005.DOI: 10.1007/s11101-005-
538		3261-7
539 540	36.	Leke L, Onaji RA, Ahmad G, Uchenna OM. Phytochemical Screening and Anti-
541		Microbial Activity Studies of the Root Extract of Anthocleista Djalonensis (Cabbage
542		Tree) International Journal of Chemistry, 2012; Vol. 4, No. 4.
543		doi:10.5539/ijc.v4n4p37;
544 545		

546	37.	Soh PN, Benoit-Vical F. Are West African plants a source of future antimalarial
547		drugs? J Ethnopharmacol.2007;114:130-40.
548		https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jep.2007.08.012
549 550	38.	Benoit-Vical F. Ethnomedicine in malaria treatment. I Drugs. 2005;8:45-52 Krettli
551		AU.
552 553		
554	39.	Batista R, Silva AJ, and Oliveira AB. Plant-Derived Antimalarial Agents: New Leads
555		and Efficient.Phytomedicines. Part II. Non-Alkaloidal Natural Products Mol. 2009;
556		14, 3037-3072; doi:10.3390/molecules14083037;
557		
558	40.	Freundlich JS, Anderson JW, Sarantakis D, Shieh HM, Yu M, Valderramos JC, et
559		al. Synthesis, biological activity, and X-ray crystal structural analysis of diaryl ether
560		inhibitors of malarial enoyl acyl carrier protein reductase: part 1: 4'-substituted
561		triclosan derivatives. Bioorg Med Chem Lett. 2005; 15: 5247-5252. Doi
562		10.1016/j.bmcl.2005.08.044;
563 564		
565	41.	Perozzo R, Kuo M, Sidhu ABS, Valiyaveettil JT, Bittman R, Jacobs WR. Structural
566		elucidation of the specificity of the antibacterial agent triclosan for malarial enoyl
567		acyl carrier protein reductase. Biol Chem. 2002; 277: 13106-13114.
568		Doi10.1074/jbc.M112000200.
569		
570	42.	Elford BC. L-Glutamine influx in malaria-infected erythrocytes: a target for
571		antimalarials?. Parasitol Today. 1986; 2: 309-312. Doi 10.1016/0169-
572		4758(86)90126-2.
573		

574	43.	Awasthi A, Kumar A, Upadhyay S-N, Yamada T, Matsunaga Y. Nitric oxide
575		protects against chloroquine resistant Plasmodium yoelii nigeriensis parasites in
576		vitro. Exp. Parasitol. 2003;105. 3-4: Pp. 184-91.
577 578		
579	44.	Shuaibu MN, Wuyep PA, Yanagi T, Hirayama K, Tanaka T, et al. The use of
580		microfluorometric method for activity-guided isolation of antiplasmodial compound
581		from plant extracts. Parasitology Research 2008;102: 1119-1127.
582		
583	45.	Onyeibor O, Croft SL, Dodson HI, Feiz-Haddad M, Kendrick H, et al. Synthesis of
584		some cryptolepine analogues, assessment of their antimalarial and cytotoxic
585		activities, and consideration of their antimalarial mode of action. Journal of
586		Medicinal Chemistry 2005;48: 2701-2709.
587		
	46	Kirby CC Daine A Warburst DC Neamone DK Dhillingen ID In vitre and in vitre
588	40.	Kirby GC, Paine A, Warhurst DC, Noamese BK, Phillipson JD. In vitro and in vivo
589		antimalarial activity of cryptolepine, a plant-derived indoloquinoline. Phytotherapy
590		Research 1994;9: 359-363.
591		
592	47	Royer RE, Deck IM, Campos NM, Hunsaker LA, Vander Jagt DL. Biologically
593		active derivates of Gossypol: Synthesis and Antimalarial activities of Peri-
594		acylatedgossylic Nitriles. Journal of Medicinal Chem.1986; 29: 1799-1801.