

Original Research Article

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

Abstract

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 djalensis* 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 djalensis* 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 djalensis* 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 µg/mL range) of the chromatographic fractions from acetone root extract of *Anthocleista djalensis* were tested for antimalarial activity against *Plasmodium falciparum* (*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 IC₅₀ value of 0.031 ± 0.001, 75.214 ± 2.035, 80.100 ± 1.272, 0.013 ± 0.001, and 60.012 ± 0.817 µg/mL respectively. CC₅₀ values of 95.12 ± 4.67, 100.02 ± 0.64, 135.46 ± 2.96, 78.51 ± 1.39, 80.21 ± 1.77 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 ± 0.020, 1.68 ± 0.009 and 1.30 ± 0.015 and as active (A1, A4,) exhibiting SI of 441.25 ± 3.21, 1560.03 ± 1.589 respectively. A1 and A4 showed SI > 10 and IC₅₀ < 10 µg/mL. Chloroquine, used as a reference antimalarial drug, tested in parallel had an IC₅₀ of 0.0125 ± 0.0001 µM and was comparable with A1 and A4.

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

12 **Keywords:** Antiplasmodial activity; Cytotoxicity; IC50; Fractionation; *Anthocleista*
13 *djalonenensis*

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17 **1. INTRODUCTION**

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19 Medicinal plants contain chemical substances or constituents that have pharmacological activities [1,
20 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7]. These activities include anti-cancer [8,9] anti-tumor [10] anti-oxidant [11] and anti-
21 microbial activities [12, 2]. Healing with medicinal plants is as old as mankind itself. The connection
22 between man and his search for drugs in nature dates from the far past. Awareness of medicinal plants
23 usage is a result of the many years of struggles against illnesses due to which man learned to pursue
24 drugs in barks, seeds, fruit bodies, and other parts of the plants [13]. Contemporary science has
25 acknowledged their active action, and it has included in modern pharmacotherapy a range of drugs of
26 plant origin, known by ancient civilizations and used throughout the millennia. The knowledge of the
27 development of ideas related to the usage of medicinal plants as well as the evolution of awareness
28 has increased the ability of pharmacists and physicians to respond to the challenges that have emerged
29 with the spreading of professional services in facilitation of man's life [13].
30 The medicinal plant *Anthocleista djalonenensis*, A. Chev –Gentianaceae is a large tree which grows up
31 to 20 feet; bole up to 4cm in diameter, stilt-rooted, twig sometimes erect, spines above the leaf axils
32 and with white flowers that are scented [14]. Traditionally, the plant is used to treat wound, malaria,
33 constipation, dysentery, diarrhoea, hepatitis, skin infection, and inflammation [15]. Ethnobotanical
34 investigation revealed the use of *Anthocleista djalonenensis* for the treatment of cancer [16]. Three
35 compounds (monoterpene diol, djalonenol and iridoid glucoside djalonenoside) were isolated
36 from *Anthocleista djalonenensis* [17]. These compounds when tested in addition with six
37 semisynthetic derivatives for cytotoxicity of constituents, djalonenol and iridoid glucoside
38 demonstrated cytotoxic effect on the brain tumor fibroblasts (18). The root of *A. djalonenensis*
39 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 djalensis* 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.

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55 2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

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2.1. Plant materials

58 The roots of *Anthocleista djalensis* was obtained from Arochukwu, Abia state, Nigeria. The
59 taxonomic 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
62 Michael Okpara University of Agriculture Umudike, Abia State, Nigeria. The roots were dried
63 under shade for three weeks.

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.

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. Eluates were collected in several bottles of 50 mL, each of which was given a number then analysed by TLC. The spots separated in TLC were observed with 254 nm UV light. The R_f and eluates which had the same pattern spots appearance on TLC were combined as one fraction then concentrated. Percentages of fractions were calculated using the formula:

$$\% \text{ Fraction} = \text{Weight of Fraction (g)} / \text{Weight of plant extract} \times 100$$

2.4. *HeLa* cell culture and treatment[26]

Human cervix adenocarcinoma cells (*HeLa*) obtained (from ATCC CCL-2 LGC standard Wesel, Germany) were cultured in a 5%CO₂ incubator at 37°C in DMEM medium supplemented with 10% 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), and 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 ($1\text{--}1000\text{ }\mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$) was used for 24 h treatment for the determination of 50% cytotoxic concentration (CC_{50}).

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 CC_{50} value of the cytotoxicity of chromatographic fractions from *Anthocleista djalensis*. 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 $0.2\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ filter into a sterile, light protected container. The resazurin solution was stored and protected from light at $4\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ for frequent use or at $-20\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ for long term storage. Cells and test compounds were prepared in opaque-walled 96-well plates containing a final volume of $100\text{ }\mu\text{L/well}$. 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. $20\text{ }\mu\text{L}$ resazurin solution was added to each well. This was incubated for 1 to 4 hours at $37\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$. 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 Grahamstown, South Africa was kept in continuous *in vitro* culture

117 according to the modified candle-jar method of Trager and Jensen [28]. Human red blood
118 cells (blood type A+) in RPMI 1640 medium (Sigma Chemical Co., USA) supplemented with
119 25 mM HEPES 4-(2-hydroxyethyl)-1-piperazineethanesulphonic acid (Sigma), 0.2 per cent
120 sodium bicarbonate (Sigma), and 15 per cent complement inactivated human AB+ serum
121 were used for parasite culture.

122 **2.7. *In vitro* antiplasmodial assay**

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

135 **2.8. Data analysis**

136 All experiments were performed in duplicates and presented as the Mean ± SD. Statistical
137 analysis of the data was carried out by one way ANOVA (Graph Pad Prism 5.02 Software).
138 A value of p< 0.05, p<0.01, p<0.0001 were considered to be significant, very significant and
139 highly significant, respectively. Linear regression analysis was used to calculate CC₅₀ and
140 IC₅₀. The antiplasmodial activities of fractions were expressed by the inhibitory
141 concentrations (IC₅₀) of the drug that induced 50% reduction in parasitaemia compared to

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

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153 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

154 3.1. Fractionation of acetone extract

155 Fractionation of the acetone extract using column chromatography produced five fractions
156 (Table 1). Fraction grouping was based on the TLC analysis using hexane, dichloromethane
157 and methanol as eluents. Based on Table 1, the yield of fractions obtained ranged from
158 0.05-26.66%. Fraction number A2 and A5 had the highest yield of 26.66% followed by
159 fraction A3, A1 and A4. The smallest yield was fraction A4 (0.05%). From the TLC analysis
160 all fractions had many number of spots and none with a single spot. The fractions were
161 observed to have different colours visually. This may be due to different types of constituents
162 found in each fraction.

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167 Table 1: Yield of Fractions of *A.djalensis* Acetone root extract

Fractions	Weight(g)	% Yield	Colour of Fraction	Rf
A1	3.90	13.02	White	0.66
A2	8.00	26.66	light yellow	0.56
A3	7.43	24.70	Yellow	0.62
A4	1.50	0.05	Brown	0.70
A5	8.00	26.66	Dark brown	0.61

168 3.2. *In vitro* assays

169 Cytotoxicity and antimalarial activity was determined from CC₅₀ and IC₅₀ value of the
 170 fractions. The CC₅₀ and IC₅₀ value is always inversely proportional to the cytotoxicity and anti
 171 plasmodial activity respectively. This meant the higher the CC₅₀ and IC₅₀ values, the lower
 172 the activities and *vice versa*. The results showed that there was a positive correlation
 173 between the concentrations of fractions with the percentage of *HeLa* cells and *P. falciparum*
 174 parasite cell viability (Fig. 6 and 12).

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

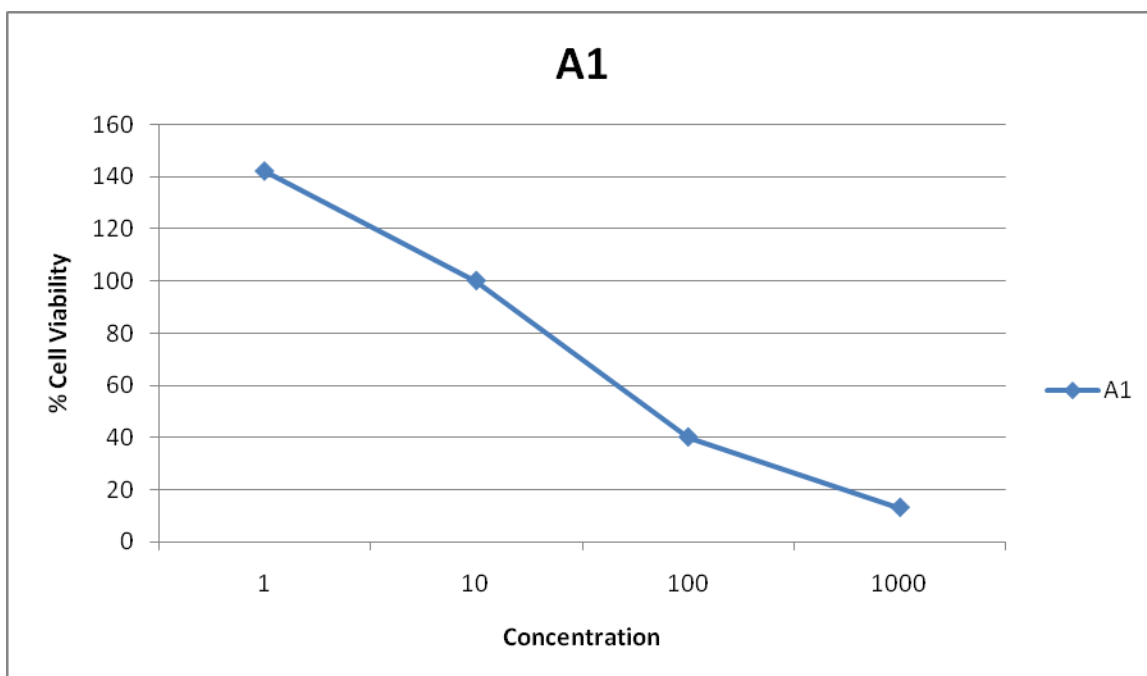
Fractions	<i>P.falciparum</i> (IC_{50})	HeLa Cells(CC_{50})	SI	Classification
	$\mu\text{g/mL}$	$\mu\text{g/mL}$		
A1	0.031 \pm 0.001	95.12 \pm 4.67	441.25 \pm 3.210	Active
A2	75.214 \pm 2.035	100.03 \pm 0.64	1.33 \pm 0.020	Marginally Active
A3	80.100 \pm 1.272	135.46 \pm 2.96	1.68 \pm 0.009	Marginally Active
A4	0.013 \pm 0.001	78.51 \pm 1.39	1560.03 \pm 1.589	Active
A5	60.020 \pm 0.817	80.21 \pm 1.77	1.30 \pm 0.015	Marginally Active

183 Data are expressed as mean \pm SD

184 3.2.1 *In vitro* Cytotoxicity assay

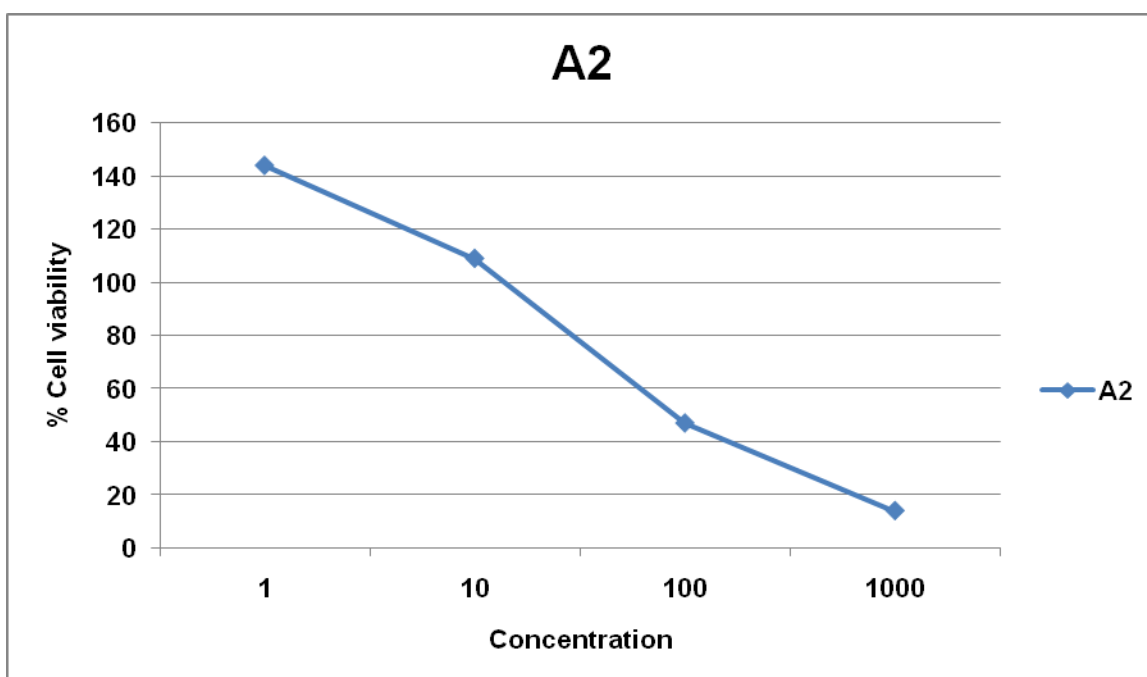
185 The test results on *HeLa* cells indicated growth inhibition by the fractions of acetone root
 186 extract from *A.djalensis*. Fractions A1, A2, A4 and A5 had $CC_{50} \leq 100$, while $CC_{50} > 100$
 187 was observed for fraction A3. The highest cytotoxicity activity was demonstrated by A4 with
 188 CC_{50} value of 78.51 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ followed by A5, A1, and A2 with CC_{50} value of 80.21 $\mu\text{g/mL}$,
 189 95.12 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ and 100.02 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ respectively. Fraction A3 showed the lowest cytotoxicity with
 190 CC_{50} value of 135.46 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ (fig1,2,3,4,5,6).

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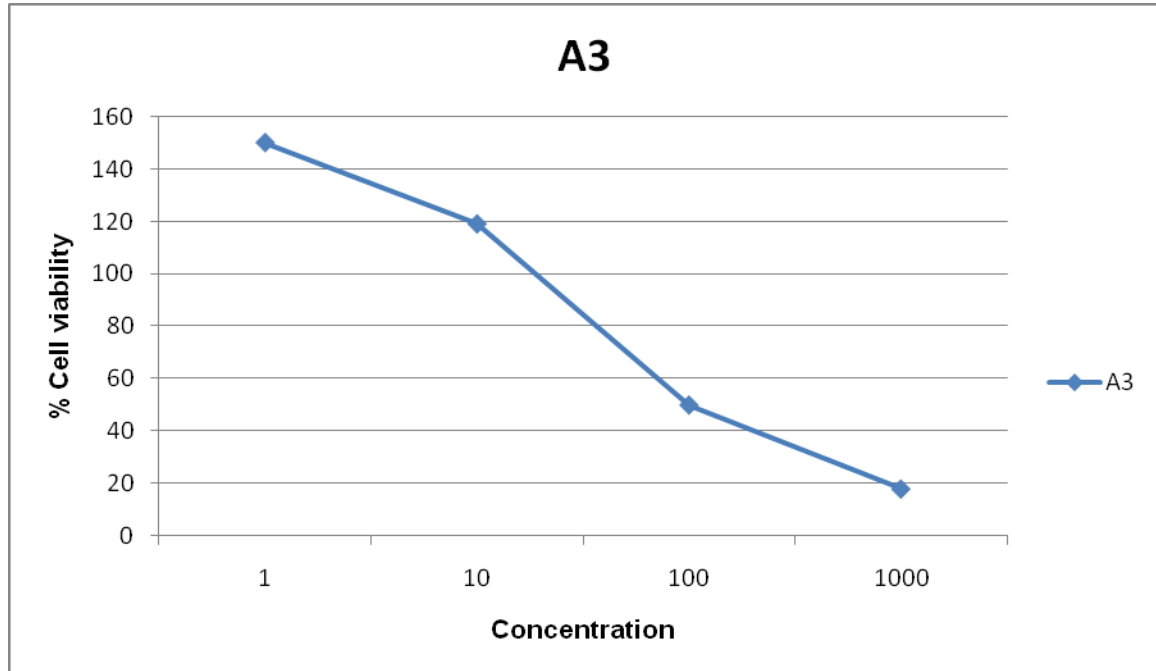
Fig 1: Cytotoxicity of fraction A1 against *HeLa* cells



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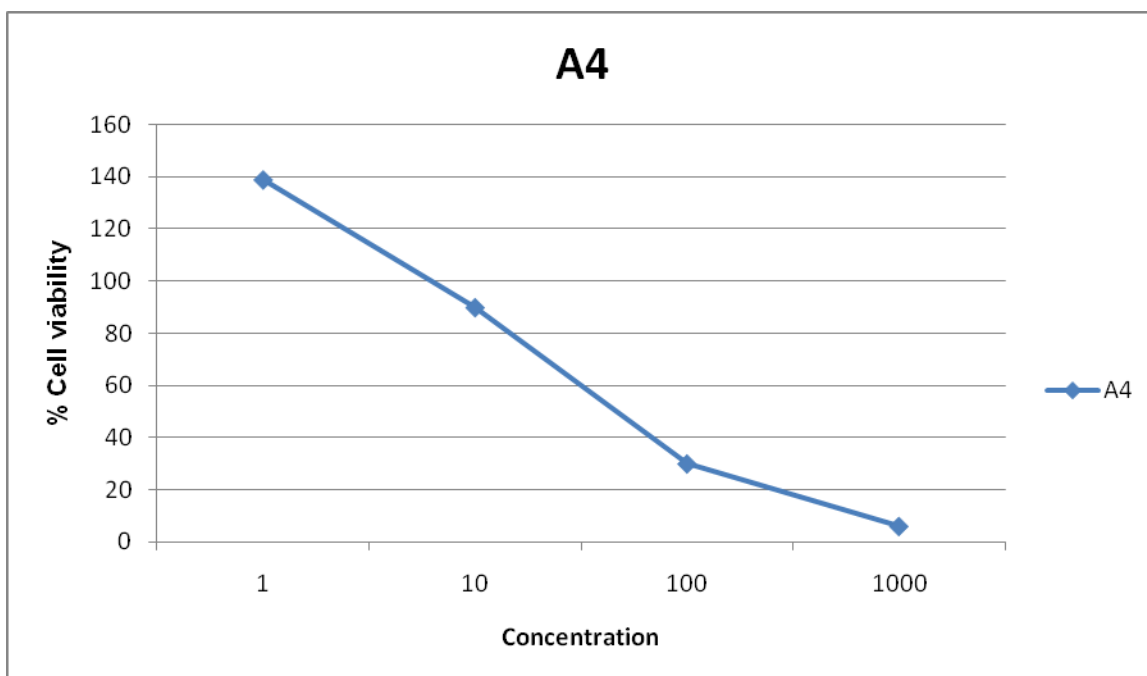
Fig 2: Cytotoxicity of fraction A2 against *HeLa* cells.

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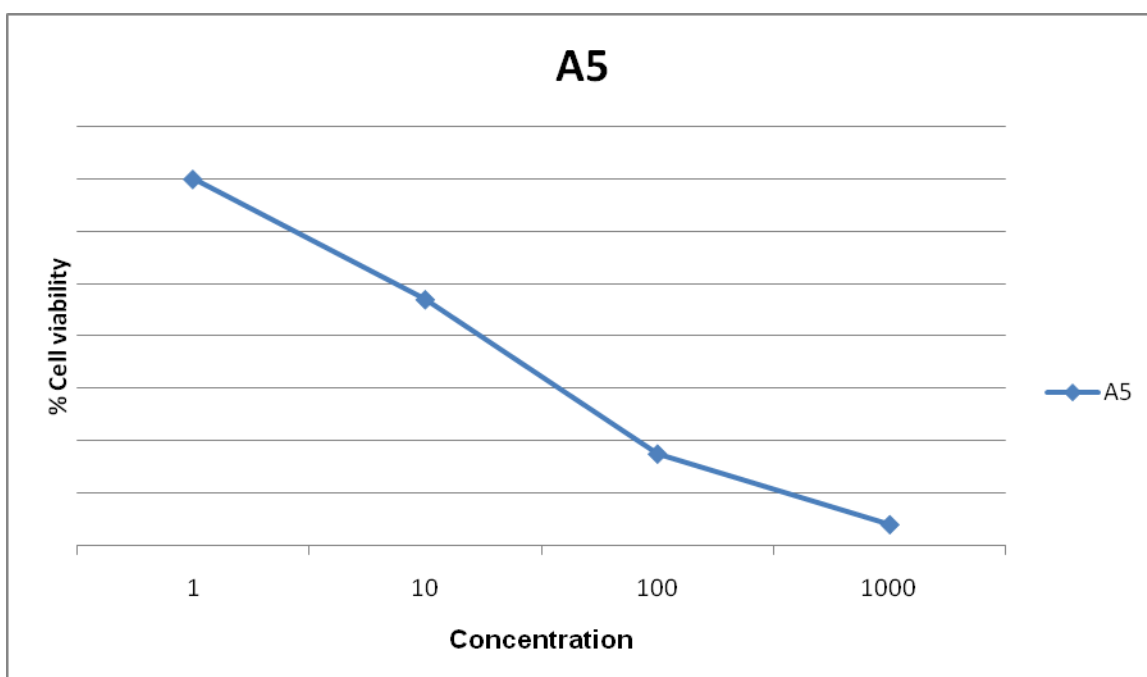
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Fig 3: Cytotoxicity of fraction A3 against *HeLa* cells.



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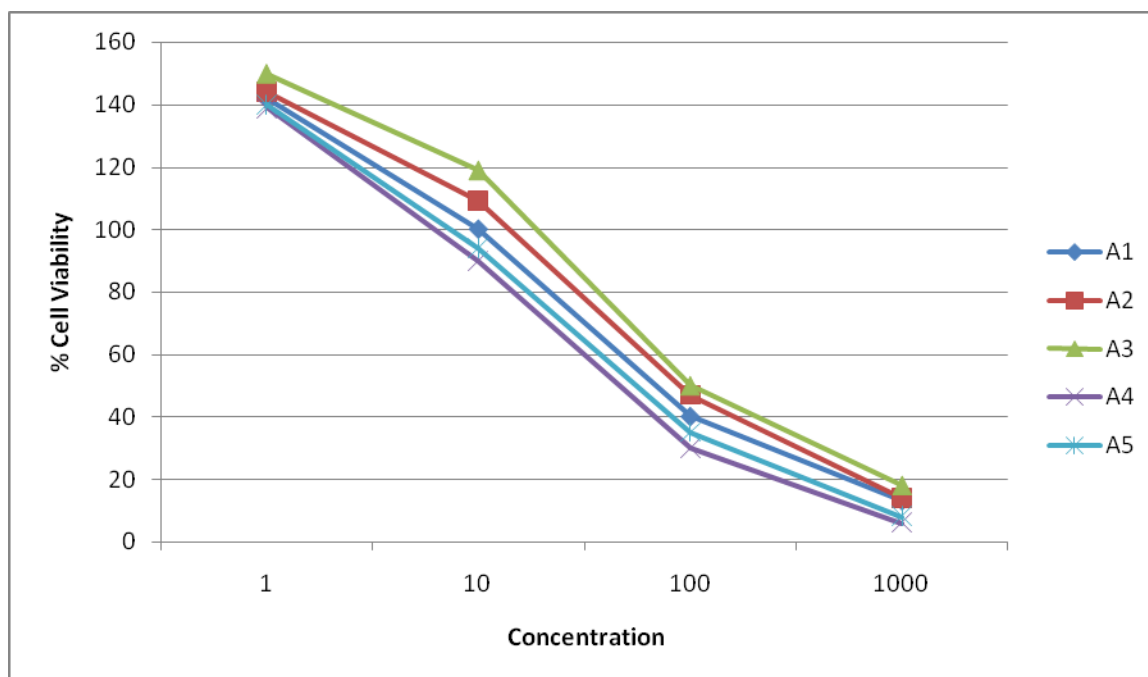
Fig 4: Cytotoxicity of fraction A4 against *HeLa* cells.



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Fig 5: Cytotoxicity of fraction A5 against *HeLa* cells.

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

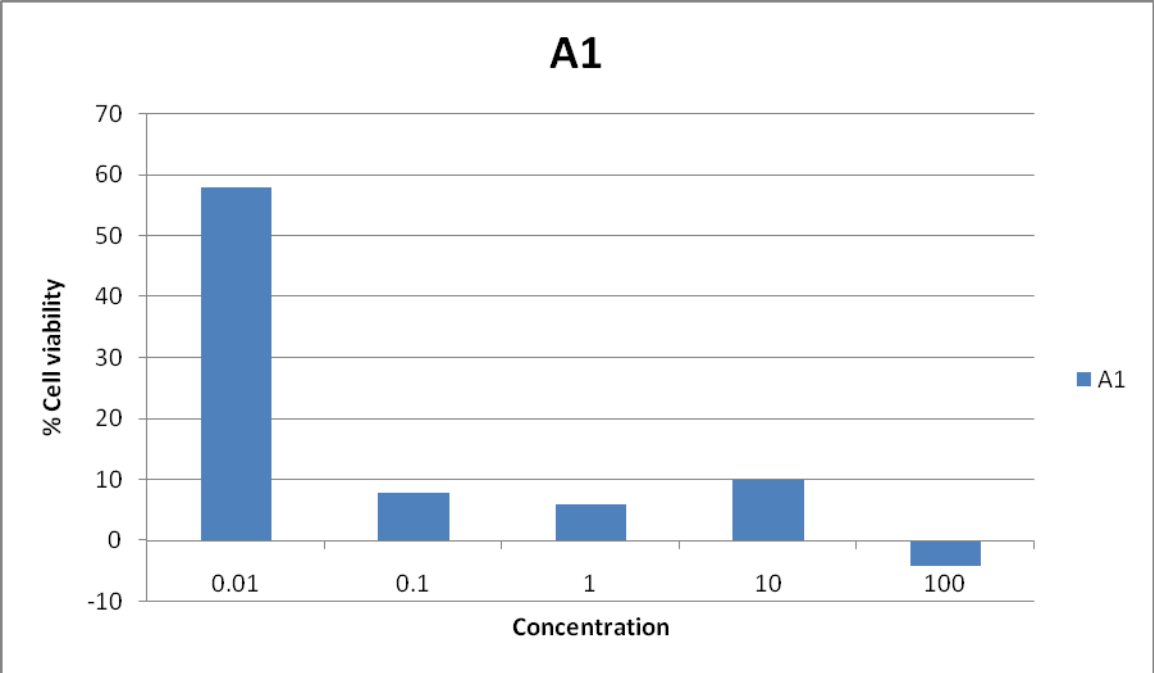
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225 3.2.2. *In vitro* antimalarial activity

226 The test results of *in vitro* antimalarial activity showed that all fractions of *A.djalensis*
 227 acetone extract had the ability to inhibit the growth of *P. falciparum* (fig 7,8,9,10,11,12). The
 228 IC_{50} values and selectivity indices (SI = ratio of cytotoxicity to antimalarial activity) of extracts
 229 are shown in Table 2. The IC_{50} values for fractions A1, A2, A3, A4, and A5 were 0.031
 230 μ g/mL, 75.214 μ g/mL, 80.100 μ g/mL, 0.013 μ g/mL and 60.020 μ g/mL respectively. Fractions
 231 were classified as marginally active (A2, A3 and A5) showing SI of 1.33, 1.68 and 1.30 and
 232 as active (A1 and A4) exhibiting SI of 441.25 and 1560.03 respectively. Furthermore, A1 and
 233 A4 showed SI > 10 and IC_{50} < 10 μ g/mL. Chloroquine, used as a reference anti-malarial
 234 drug, tested in parallel had an IC_{50} of 0.0125 μ M and was comparable with A1 and A4 (IC_{50} :

235 0.031ugm/L and 0.013 ug/mL). This showed A1 and A4 as being very prospective fractions
236 to be developed as an anti-malarial agents.

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

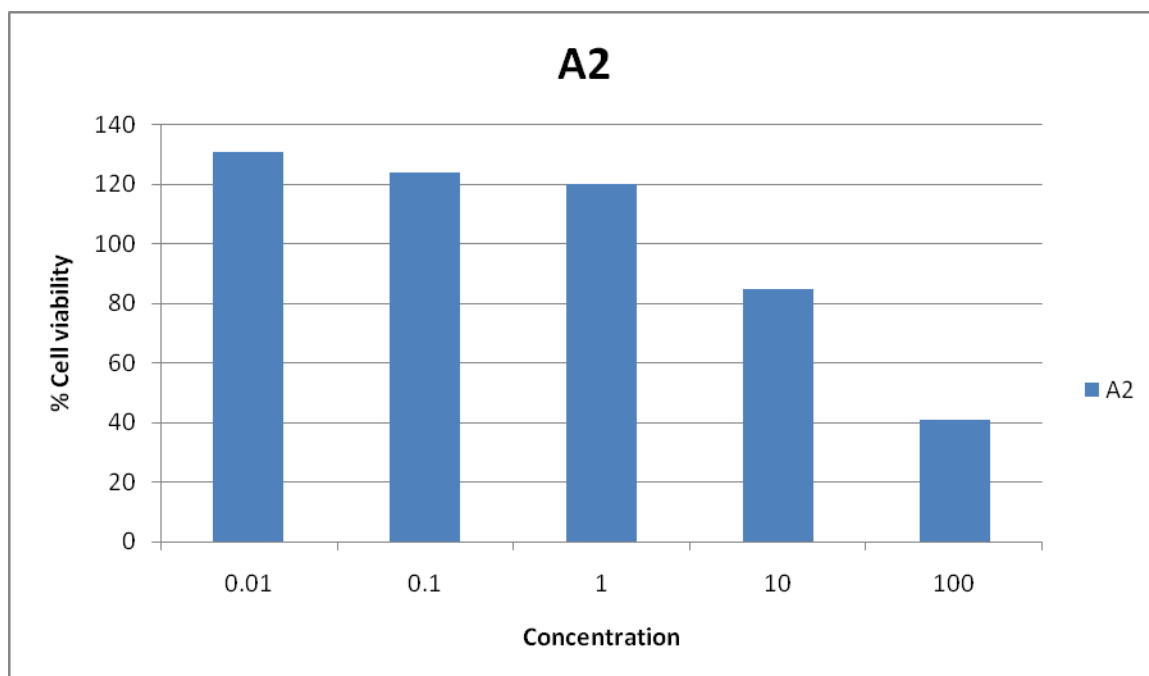


Fig 8: Activity of fraction A2 against *P.falciparum*

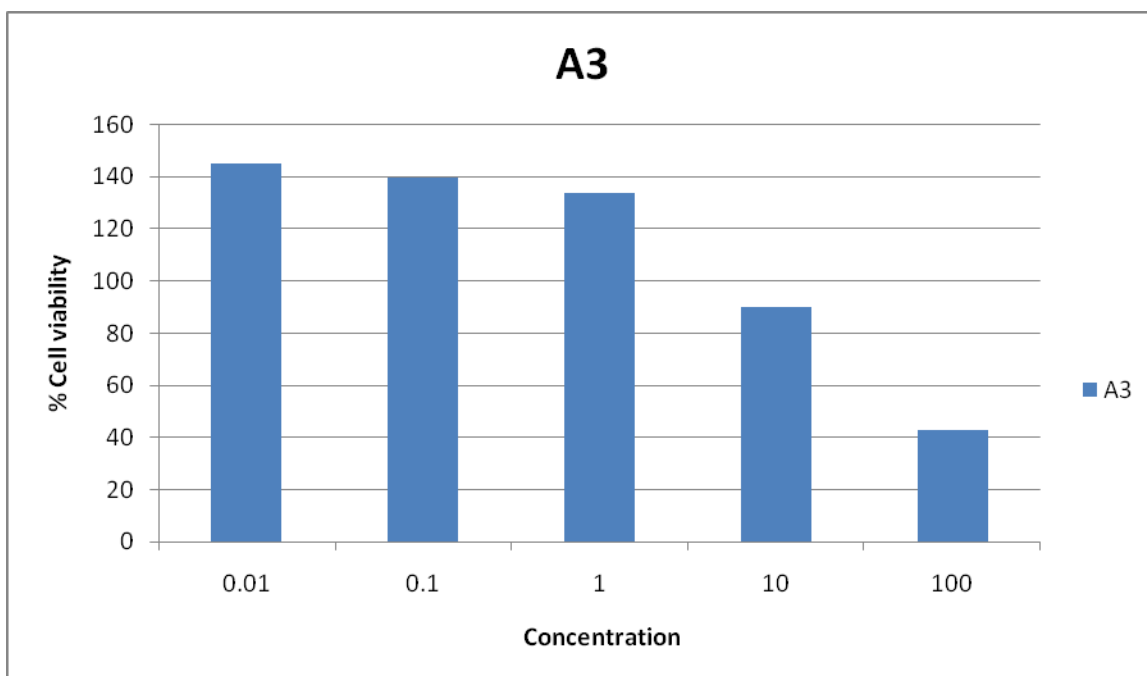


Fig 9: Activity of fraction A3 against *P.falciparum*

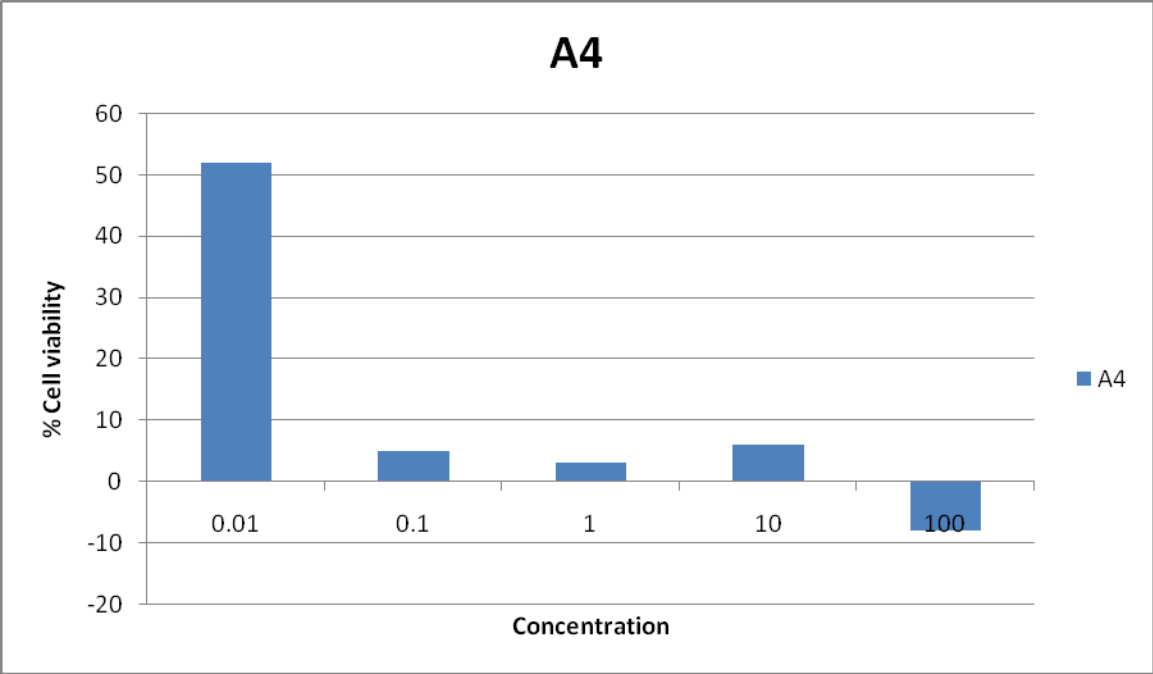


Fig 10: Activity of fraction A4 against *P.falciparum*

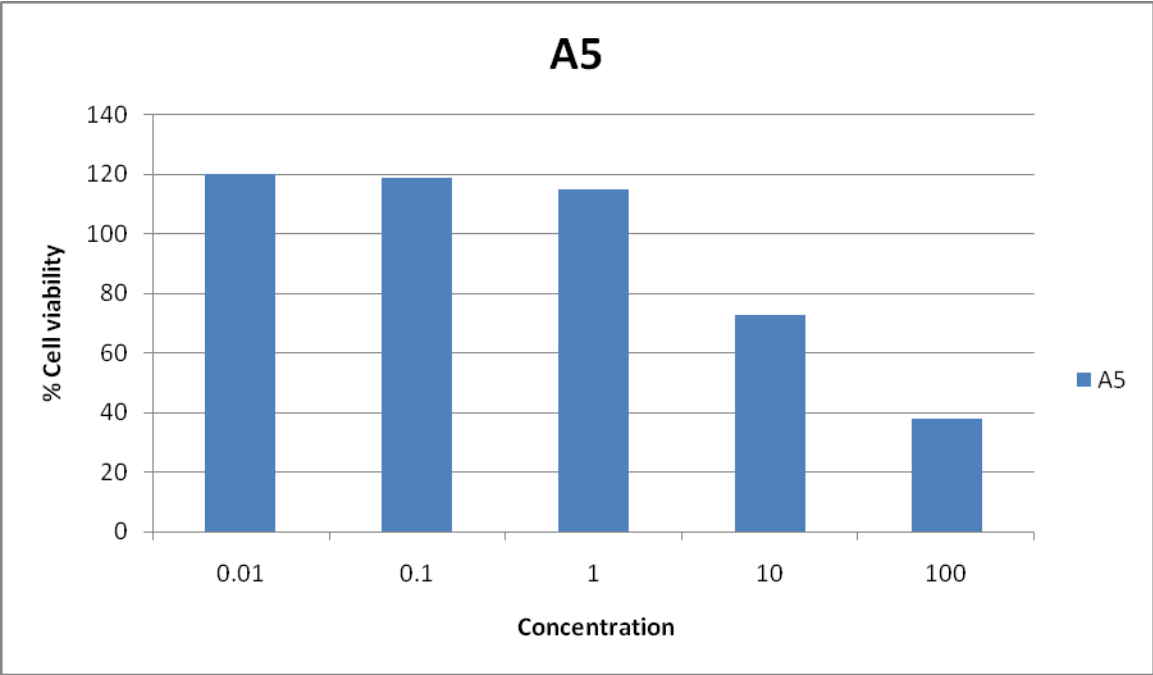


Fig 11: Activity of fraction A5 against *P.falciparum*

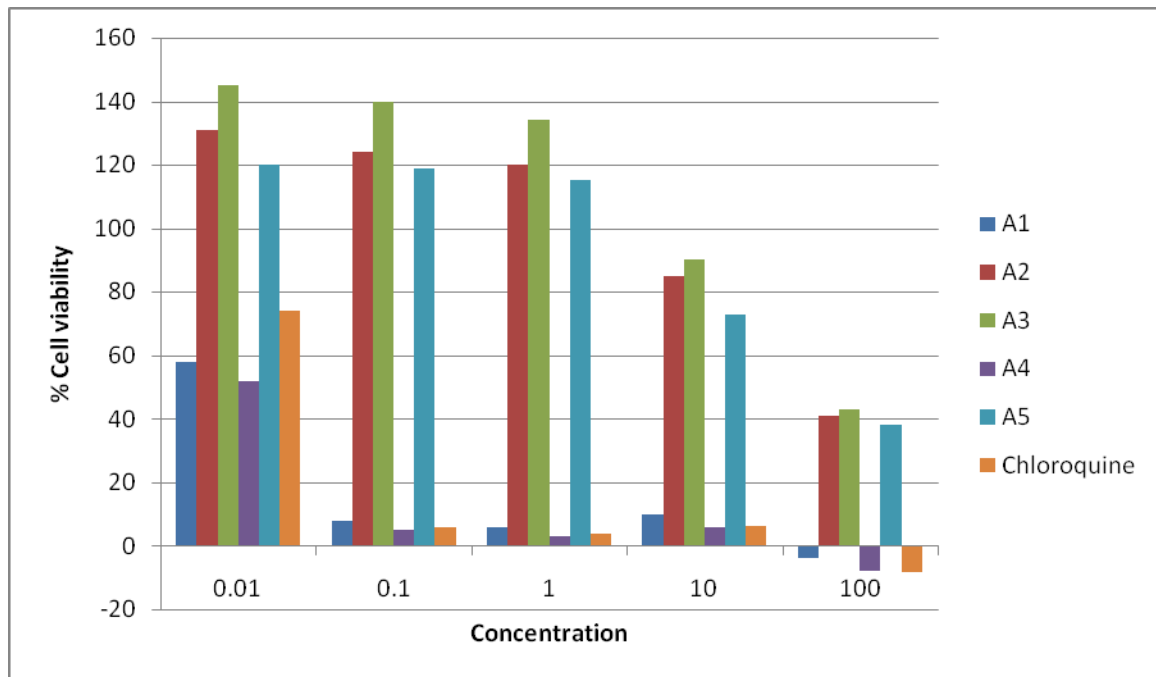


Fig 12: Activity of all fractions and Chloroquine (Positive control) against *P.falciparum*

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]. Anti-malarial 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

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

332 *In vivo* activity of the root extracts and fractions against *P. berghei* may have been reported
333 [21], yet this is the first scientific study of the fractions from the root of *Anthocleista*
334 *djalensis* on *Plasmodium falciparum* (the parasite responsible for human malaria). In this
335 study we investigated the antimalarial and cytotoxicity activity of acetone chromatographic
336 fractions of *A.djalensis*. Fractions A2, A3, and A5 with low SI (1.33, 1.68 and 1.30)
337 revealed that the antimalarial activity was dependent on the cytotoxicity and independent on
338 the activity against the parasites. While A1 and A4 with high SI (441.25 and 1560.03) meant
339 that activity against the parasites was attributed to the parasites themselves and not
340 cytotoxicity. According to Soh,[37], high selective index means safer therapy. Hence a cutoff
341 point of 4 certified safe anti-malarial use. Whereas, SI greater than 10 and IC₅₀ values
342 below 10 µg/mL should be promising sources of anti-malarial molecules. Activity against
343 *HeLa* cells and *P. falciparum* in a high percentage of tested fractions were observed. Activity

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

346 Although, anti-malarial activity has been detected in some parts of *A.djalensis* plants like
347 the stem and leaves[22]. This is the first report for the chromatographic fractions of acetone
348 root of *A.djalensis plant*. Phytochemical analysis of these fractions from acetone root
349 extract of *A.djalensis* suggests the presence of triterpenoids, flavonoids and
350 anthraquinones [17] as chemical classes with widely demonstrated effective antimalarial
351 activity [39]. Flavonoids act by inhibiting the fatty acid biosynthesis (FAS II) of the parasite
352 [40,41] as well as inhibiting the influx of L-glutamine and myoinositol into infected
353 erythrocytes [43]. Antimalarial activity of anthoquinone could be due to nitric oxide
354 generation from macrophages using polysaccharide. In combination of high concentration of
355 this oxide with sub-optimal doses of chloroquine, the parasitaemia in chloroquine resistant
356 malarial infection was suppressed [43]. While triterpenoids mechanism of action is in the
357 arresting of parasite development, inhibition of the hemozoin polymerization on the parasite
358 [44, 45] and the lactase dehydrogenase of the *Plasmodium falciparum* (an essential enzyme
359 used to generate energy within the parasite) [46, 47].

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

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365 4. CONCLUSION

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

369 The remarkable anti malarial activity of *A.djalensis* encourages the investigation of native
370 and naturalized African plants to explore as a potential source of anti malarial drugs.
371 However, fractions were selected for further purification, isolation and identification of active
372 chemical classes with proved efficacy against *P. falciparum*.

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377 **COMPETING INTERESTS**

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379 Authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

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