

Antimicrobial Properties of Traditional Medicine Used for Treatment of HIV/AIDS and its Opportunistic Infections

Nhlanhla David L Jwara

Submitted in fulfillment of the academic requirements for the degree of

MASTERS IN MEDICAL SCIENCE

School of Nursing and Public Health

Department of Occupational and Environmental Health

Traditional Medicine Laboratory

University of KwaZulu-Natal



Durban

August 2012

STUDENT'S DECLARATION

Antimicrobial Properties of a Traditional Medicine Used for the Treatment of HIV/AIDS and its Opportunistic Infections

I, Nhlanhla L.D Jwara, student number: 951057240 declare that:

- a) The research reported in this dissertation, except where otherwise indicated, is the result of my own work that was carried out in the Nelson R. Mandela School of Medicine, School of Pathology and Laboratory Medicine, Faculty of Medical Sciences Dept. of Medical Microbiology, University of KwaZulu-Natal;
- b) This dissertation has not been submitted for any degrees or examination at any other University;
- c) This dissertation does not contain data, figures or writing, unless specifically acknowledged, copied from other researchers; and
- d) Where I have reproduced a publication of which I am an author or co-author, I have indicated which part of the publication was contributed by me.

Signed at on the day
of..... 2012.

SIGNATURE:.....

Plagiarism:

DECLARATION

I, Nhlanhla L.D. Jwara, student number: 951057240, declare that

(i). The research reported in this dissertation, except where otherwise indicated, is my original research.

(ii). This dissertation has not been submitted for any degree or examination at any other university.

(iii). This dissertation does not contain other persons' data, pictures, graphs or other information, unless specifically acknowledged as being sourced from other persons.

(iv). This dissertation does not contain other persons' writing, unless specifically acknowledged as being sourced from other researchers. Where other written sources have been quoted, then:

a) Their words have been re-written but the general information attributed to them has been referenced

b) Where their exact words have been used, then their writing has been placed in italics and inside quotation marks, and referenced.

(v). This dissertation does not contain text, graphics or tables copied and pasted from the Internet, unless specifically acknowledged, and the source being detailed in the dissertation and in the References sections.

Signed.....Date.....

Supervisor.....Date.....

ABSTRACT

This study was conducted to establish the scientific basis of the reported ethnomedicinal use of *Ihlamvu laseAfrika* (*IHL*) against Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV) and Acquired Immunodeficiency Virus (AIDS) related infections. *IHL* is believed to have a positive effect on AIDS however this has neither been clinically nor laboratory proven. Such effect can either be directly due to *IHL*'s inhibition of the virus causing AIDS or indirectly by the inhibition of organisms causing opportunistic infections. Experiments were carried out to test for the effect of *IHL* against *Cryptococcus neoformans*, *Candida albicans*, Herpes Simplex Virus (HSV), *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (*MTB*) and HIV.

The toxicity of *IHL* was determined by means of three assays. Using the Trypan Blue Dye exclusion test, an aqueous mixture of *IHL* was tested on Vero cells (African Green Monkey) for acute toxicity at two concentrations. Cell membranes compromised by *IHL* would take up dye and eventually spill their contents. Vero cells that were exposed to 1µg/mL and 100µg/mL concentrations of *IHL* for 7 hours resulted in (8.9±0.15) % and (98.7±0.84) % cell viability (n=3), respectively. When the duration of incubation increased to 48 hours, percentage cell viability of 1µg/mL and 100µg/mL concentrations were (98.3±0.50) and (98.2±0.50) respectively.

The second cytotoxicity test involved incorporation an aqueous mixture of *IHL* onto 3-(4,5-Dimethylthiazol-2-Yl)-2,5-Diphenyltetrazolium Bromide (MTT). Cells were incubated in *IHL* for 24 and 48 hours resulting in a decrease in cell viability in a dose-dependent manner. At the lowest *IHL* concentration (0.1µg/mL) the cell viability was 80% and 78.5% after 24 and 48 hours incubations, respectively whereas at the highest concentration (1000µg/mL) was used in 24 and 48 hours incubation, cell viability was 50% and 80% respectively.

The third cytotoxicity test called glutathione (GSH) focused on antioxidant level. The aim was to determine the highest concentration at which cells starts dying, concentrations used

were 0.23; 0.46; 0.94; 1.88; 3.75; 7.50; 15.0 and 30.0 mg/mL. The results showed that the antioxidants levels were reduced in proportions relative to *IHL* concentration levels. The safe and effective dose of *IHL* obtained was 1.88mg/mL.

The second objective of the study was to determine *IHL*'s active principle that is capable of inhibiting growth of *C. albicans* and *C. neoformans*, HSV, *MTB* and HIV. Solvents such as methanol, ethanol and acetone were utilized including an aqueous extract to extract it. The most suitable extract to inhibit the proliferation of the aforementioned organisms needed to be established. Upon its establishment, it was then used to determine the minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC). This was done in all susceptibility tests except for HIV whereby a 'neat substance' was used. In the case of HSV a causative agent for herpes, its susceptibility towards several *IHL* extracts was assessed with real-time polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR). PCR attenuates specific site of DNA and quantifies viral load and the focus was the UL30 position which is targeted by most drugs. When comparing all solvent extracts as well as an aqueous extract of similar concentration, it was found that the methanol extract emerged as the strongest viral inhibitor with the lowest viral yield, and its threshold value, $Ct = 18.4 \pm 0.86$ while the *IHL* concentration was 1.88mg/mL. The MIC of the methanol extract was 1.25mg/mL and $Ct=18.9 \pm 1.14$. An acetone extract proved to be the weakest thus its viral load was the highest, its $Ct= (8.50 \pm 1.33)$ whilst *IHL* concentration was 1.88mg/mL.

Cryptococcus neoformans known for causing meningitis and encephalitis in AIDS patients and *C. albicans* a causative agent for vaginal and oral thrush were two opportunistic infections tested for susceptibility towards *IHL*. The disk diffusion method was used for both fungal organisms. The best suited solvent extract was established and then used to determine the MIC. An aqueous extract showed the best activity with the inhibition zones of (10.5 ± 1.642) mm when tested against *C. albicans* followed by ethanol extract (9.2 ± 0.676) mm while acetone

extract (8.80 ±1.21) mm had the lowest activity. The MIC of *IHL*'s aqueous extract was 1.0mg/mL and the corresponding zone of inhibition was (10.6±1.34) mm.

When *C. neoformans* was tested for susceptibility against various *IHL* solvent extracts, the *IHL*'s aqueous extract had inhibition zones of (21.1±2.40) mm thus emerged as the strongest followed by methanol extract (10.3±0.43) mm while ethyl acetate extract was least active (7.13±0.33) mm. The MIC of the aqueous extract was 1.0mg/mL and its corresponding zone of inhibition was (11.4±0.55) mm. Furthermore, the growth inhibition of both *C. neoformans* and *C. albicans* by *IHL*'s aqueous extract were confirmed in liquid media with broth microdilution method. This technique tends to mimic what is likely to happen in a biological fluid. The results obtained depicted a dose-dependent response and both organisms shared a common MIC of 2.0mg/mL. From the broth microtitre plate aliquots samples were plated onto agar and used to further determine the minimum lethal concentration (MLC). The MLC essentially determines the antifungal concentration of an agent at which no colonies displayed visible growth. The MLC's of *IHL* towards *C. albicans* and *C. neoformans* were 32 and 8 mg/mL respectively. *IHL* proved fungicidal at higher concentrations and fungistatic at low concentrations.

Further susceptibility tests of *IHL* extracts were carried out on bacterial pathogens such as the *MTB*, a causative agent for Tuberculosis with 1% proportion method. This method seeks to determine if isolates are resistant if colonies grown in the presence of drugs are greater or equal to 1% of colonies grown in drug-free control quadrant. The best solvent extract was determined and then used to determine the MIC. Acetone extract results were 0.2% meaning that it strongly inhibited growth of *MTB* better than ethyl acetate (5%) and others the worst results were that of an aqueous extract (113%). A confirmation exercise was done with an agar dilution method. All extracts were incorporated onto agar and *MTB* colonies growing relative to negative controls after 21 days of incubation meant resistance while no growth meant susceptible. The *MTB* strain again proved susceptible towards the acetone extract but resistant towards methanol, ethanol, and

aqueous extracts. The dichloromethane and ethyl acetate extracts seemed to have damaged the polypropylene plates rendering results null and void. Using agar dilution method, an MIC of an acetone extract was 16mg/mL.

An aqueous extract was used for assessing HIV for susceptibility towards *IHL*. The quantitation of viral results were carried out on a spectrophotometer and a second generation tetrazolium dye (XTT) was used. The results showed that approximately -3.29 dilution of the aqueous extract did not protect cells. On the contrary, it proved to be toxic to both uninfected and infected cells. Moreover at low doses the extract demonstrated 50% protection towards uninfected cells.

The third objective entailed the assessment of reproducibility of *IHL* that is routinely prepared by the Traditional Health Practitioner (THP). Batch to batch reproducibility is always a concern especially since traditional medicine is manufactured without any traceable set of standards. Two *IHL* samples that were prepared on different dates were assessed. Using a thin layer chromatography (TLC) a striking resemblance in the two samples was established visually by way of fractions produced. However, since TLC is a qualitative tool, it was incumbent that an instrument that doesn't separate sample's chemical constituents was used. The results produced by nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) confirmed similarities in the two batch of *IHL* samples produced on different dates as it was the case with TLC. Peak intensity and the number of peaks in the chromatogram was a mirror image of the other thus confirming consistency in *IHL* preparation.

The susceptibility tests of *IHL* towards viruses, bacteria and fungal pathogens present reasons why *IHL* is regarded as a non-specific repressor of pathogens people living with AIDS (PLWA) present with. The fourth objective of the study entailed the establishment of active principles responsible for the aforementioned activities. The acquisition of chemical fingerprints

and their analysis was carried out on an Ultra Performance Liquid Chromatography Mass Spectrometer (UPLC-MS). The substances thought to be responsible for antimicrobial activities included:- thalebanin B, methyllukumbin A, kuguacin J, mauritine H, 2-methyl-3-(piperidin-1-yl) naphthalene-1,4-dione, isoferuloylpeol, diosindigo A, kuguacin R, verbascoside, kuguacin B and nuciferin. Further confirmation studies are needed on fractions to identify their chemical makeup as well as their activities on all of the aforementioned microorganisms.

Acknowledgements

The author of this thesis would like to express an immense gratitude and appreciation to people who have directly and indirectly contributed much to make this work possible.

My sincere gratitude goes to my supervisors Prof N. Gqaleni and Prof A.W. Sturm for giving me an opportunity to do this project.

My heartfelt gratitude also goes to my sponsors, *Lifelab*, National Research Foundation (NRF) and Department of Science and Technology (DST) and Indigenous Knowledge System (IKS) Award.

I owe special thanks to Baba E.B Thabethe (THP) the provider of *IHL*, the traditional medicine that was subjected to the study.

Moreover, I really treasure the time I spent in the laboratory at CSIR (Tshwane) and friendship that transpired out of that visit, however briefly it may have been but it was refreshing. Furthermore I also would like acknowledge the contribution CSIR made towards my study especially with chemical profiling of my specimen as well as their sponsorship.

I had a pleasure of meeting Dr P Govender at UKZN-Westville department of biochemistry and two PhD students I met at UNP who took time and assisted with freeze-drying and lyophilisation of *IHL* when our lyophilizer was out of commission.

My heartfelt gratitude also goes to Mr Logan Pillay for advises, guidance and organizing me material support much needed to do my project.

I owe great thanks to Virology Department at Inkosi Albert Luthuli Central Hospital (IALCH) who also provided with materials support.

I have friends who have turned family because of their undying support through thick and thin whom I couldn't make it without, Mlu (my chyna), Noksy, Poopedi, Dolly Ikanyeng, Metse, Rene Myburg, Nonhlanhla, Lindo and Mona. If by any chance I left someone out by mistake, please charge on my heart!

I would like to thank Dr Street for her inputs and her proofreading of my scripts.

I have a family that would see to it that I live the life of a success, my mother and sisters (esp Tiza), my later brother, VK, Naledi, Ayanda, AbdulMalik and Ms Shezi you're priceless irreplaceable! Until most recently, Maryam Iddi Salim-Jwara my true love and my wife, I'm grateful for.

My late father *Mbelu, Sjekula, Maqabaqaba, Mphowenu, Mnangwe, Msuthu!*

Above all, *Alhamdulillah Rabbil alamin, Ar Rahmanir Rahim*, (All praise is due to ALLAH, the Most Gracious the Most Merciful) without WHOM nothing exists!

Table of Contents

Student's Declaration.....	ii
Plagiarism.....	ii
Abstract.....	iv
Acknowledgements.....	ix
Table of contents.....	xi
List of Abbreviations.....	xx
List of Figures.....	xxvi
List of Tables.....	xxx

Chapter 1: Introduction.....	1
Chapter 2: Literature Review	4
2.1 Background.....	5
2.1 What is Traditional Medicine?	5
2.2 Benefits from Traditional Medicines.....	7
2.3 Plant-derived drugs.....	7
2.4 Treatment with traditional medicine.....	10
2.4.1 Use of traditional medicine (TM) to treat Herpes Simplex Virus.....	12
2.4.2 Use of TM to treat <i>Mycobacterium tuberculosis (MTB)</i>	12
2.4.3 Use of TM to treat Fungal Infections (<i>Candida albicans</i>).....	12
2.4.4 Use of TM to treat Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome.....	13
2.5 HIV/AIDS treatment options.....	14
2.6 Globalization and Traditional medicine.....	15
2.7 Research into Traditional Medicine in South Africa.....	18
2.8 Biodiversity and legislation.....	22
2.9 Intellectual Property Rights.....	23
2.10 Bio-prospecting and legislation.....	24
2.11 Trends in traditional medicine.....	24
2.12 Safety assessment of Traditional Medicines.....	25
2.13 References.....	28

Chapter 3: Chemical Profile analysis of *IHL*

3.0 Abstract.....	45
3.1 Introduction.....	46
3.1.1 Metabolites Profiling (UPLC-MS) and Quality Control.....	46
3.1.2 Secondary metabolites.....	47
3.1.3 Analytical techniques applied in metabolomics studies.....	48
3.1.4 Quality Control with Thin Layer Chromatography (TLC).....	48
3.2 The study's objective.....	49
3.3 Materials and Methods.....	49
3.3.1 TLC Chemicals.....	49
3.3.1.1 Sample Preparation and Plate Development.....	50
3.3.2 Quality Control with Nuclear Magnetic Resonance 600 Varian.....	50
3.3.2.1 Principle.....	50
3.3.2.2 Methods NMR Sample Preparation.....	50
3.3.2.3 NMR parameters.....	51
3.3.3 Chemical Profiling with Ultra-Performance Liquid Chromatography-Mass Spectrometer (UPLC-MS).....	51
3.3.3.1 Principle:.....	51
3.3.3.2 UPLC-MS: Instrumentation and Software.....	51
3.3.3.4 Sample Preparation.....	52
3.3.3.5 The UPLC parameters.....	52
3.3.3.6 Diode Array Detector.....	52
3.3.3.7 Time of Flight (TOF) parameters.....	53

3.3.3.8 High Resolution Mass Spectrometry (HRMS).....	53
3.4 Results and Discussion.....	54
3.4.1 Batch-to-batch reproducibility with TLC.....	54
3.4.2 Batch-to-batch reproducibility with NMR.....	56
3.4.3 Chemical fingerprinting with UPLC-TOF-DAD-MS.....	58
3.4.4 Chemical fingerprints and Proposed Structures of Identified Compounds.....	60
3.6 References.....	93

Chapter 4: An investigation into the safety of *IHL*, *in vitro*

4.0 Introduction..... 103

4.1 Aim of these tests.....105

4.2 Materials and Methods.....105

4.2.1 Reagents and Chemicals..... 105

4.2.1.1 Chemicals..... 105

4.2.2 Cells..... 105

4.2.3 Plant extracts preparation..... 105

4.2.4 MTT stock preparations..... 106

4.2.5 Cell Viability Assay..... 106

4.2.6 GSH Assay.....107

4.3 Results..... 107

4.4 Discussion.....110

4.5 Conclusion.....112

4.6 References..... 112

**Chapter 5: Antiviral Properties of a Traditional Medicine (*IHL*) Used
for the Treatment of Herpes Simplex Virus Infections**

5.0 Abstract.....	116
5.1 Introduction.....	117
5.2 Materials and Method.....	119
5.2.1 Plant extract	119
5.2.2 Preparation of plant extract.....	119
5.2.3 Acyclovir preparation.....	119
5.2.4 Cells and Viruses.....	120
5.2.5 Cytotoxicity Assay.....	120
5.2.6 Viral Inoculation and treatment.....	120
5.2.7 Cultivation of virus for extraction.....	121
5.2.8 Viral RNA Extraction with TriZol.....	121
5.2.9 DNase Treatment (manufacturer’s instruction).....	122
5.2.10 cDNA synthesis.....	122
5.2.11 Real-time PCR Quantification.....	122
5.2.12 Statistical analysis.....	123
5.3 Results.....	123
5.4 Discussion.....	126
5.5 Conclusion.....	129
5.6 Acknowledgments.....	129
5.7 References.....	130

Chapter 6: Antifungal Properties of a Traditional Medicine (*IHL*)

Used for the Treatment of *Candida albicans* and *Cryptococcus neoformans* Infections

6.0 Abstract.....	136
6.1 Introduction.....	137
6.2 Materials and Method.....	139
6.2.1 Plant extract.....	139
6.2.2 Preparation of plant extracts.....	139
6.2.3 Micro-organisms.....	140
6.2.4 Antimicrobial susceptibility testing.....	140
6.2.5 Minimum Inhibitory Concentration (MIC).....	147
6.2.5.1. Disk Diffusion.....	147
6.2.5.2. Broth Microdilution.....	141
6.2.5.3 Minimum Lethal Concentration (MLC):.....	142
6.2.5.4 Statistical analyses.....	143
6.3 Results.....	143
6.4 Discussion.....	148
6.5 Conclusion.....	153
6.6. Acknowledgements.....	154
6.7 References.....	154

Chapter 7: An investigation into antimycobacterium properties of

IHL, in vitro

7.0 Abstract.....	162
7.1 Introduction.....	163
7.2 Aim of the study.....	166
7.3 Materials and Methods.....	166
7.3.0 Chemicals and Reagents.....	166
7.3.1 Chemicals.....	166
7.3.2 Microorganisms.....	166
7.3.3 Anti- <i>MTB</i> drugs.....	166
7.3.4 Plant Extraction.....	167
7.3.5 Plates Preparation.....	167
7.3.6 Susceptibility testing.....	167
7.3.7 Minimum Inhibitory Concentration (MIC).....	168
7.3.8 MIC (Agar Dilution method).....	168
7.4 Results.....	169
7.5 Discussion.....	173
7.6 Conclusion.....	176
7.7 References.....	177

Chapter 8: An investigation into anti-HIV properties of *IHL*,

in vitro

8.0 Abstract.....	184
8.1 Introduction.....	185
8.2 Materials and methods.....	187
8.2.1 Reagents and Chemicals.....	187
8.2.2 Chemicals.....	187
8.2.3 Viruses.....	187
8.2.4 Cytotoxicity Testing.....	188
8.3 Results.....	189
8.4 Discussion.....	191
8.5 Conclusion.....	193
8.6 References.....	193

Chapter 9

9.1 Overall Discussion and Conclusion.....	199
9.2 Conclusion.....	205
9.3 References.....	207

List of Abbreviations

+ve.....	positive
°C.....	Degrees Celsius
µL.....	microliter
¹³ C.....	Carbon isotope
¹ H.....	Hydrogen
ABC.....	ATP-binding cassette
Acet.....	acetone
ACV.....	Acyclovir
AIDS.....	Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome
Alu Si.....	Aluminium silicone
AMB.....	Amphotericin B
AR.....	Analytical Reagent
ARV.....	antiretrovirals
ATM.....	African Traditional Medicine
AZT.....	Azidothymidine/Zidovudine
BMLE.....	bitter melon leaf extract
CA.....	Capsid
CBD.....	Conventional of Biological Diversity
cDNA	complementary deoxyribonucleic acid
CFU.....	Colony forming units
CO ₂	Carbon Dioxide
COSY.....	Correlation spectroscopy

CPE.....	cytopathic effect
CsA.....	Cyclosporine A
<i>Ct</i>	cycle threshold
CYP ₄₅₀	Cytochrome P450
DAD.....	Diode Array Detector
DCM.....	Dichloromethane
DNA.....	Deoxyribonucleic acid
DNAse.....	deoxyribonuclease
EA.....	Ethyl acetate
EC ₅₀	Median Effective Concentration
EDTA.....	Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid
ELISA.....	Enzyme-Linked Immuno Assay
EMEM.....	Minimum essential medium eagle
Et ₂ O.....	Diethyl ether
EtOAc.....	Ethyl ethanoate
EtOH.....	Ethanol
FCS.....	Fetal Calf Serum
GC.....	Gas Chromatography
GSH.....	Reduced glutathione
H ₂ O.....	Water
HAART.....	Highly Active Antiretroviral Therapy
HDMS.....	High Definition Mass Spectrometer
HIV.....	Human Immunodeficiency Virus

HMBC.....	Heteronuclear Multiple Bond Correlation
HMQC.....	Heteronuclear Multiple Quantum Coherence
HRESIMS.....	High Resolution Electrospray Interface Mass Spectrometry
HSV.....	Herpes Simplex Virus
IALCH.....	Inkosi Albert Luthuli Central Hospital
IC ₅₀	Median Inhibitory Concentration
IC ₅₀ /EC ₅₀	Selectivity index
IKS.....	Indigenous Knowledge Systems
IN.....	Integrase
INH.....	Isoniazid
IUATLD.....	International Union against Tuberculosis and Lung Disease
kV.....	kilovoltage
L/h.....	liters per hour
m/z.....	mass to charge ratio
MA.....	Matrix
MDR.....	Multidrug resistant
MeOH.....	Methanol
mg/mL.....	milligrams per millimeters
MgCl ₂	magnesium chloride
MIC.....	Minimum Inhibitory Concentrations
mL.....	millimeters

MLC.....	Minimum Lethal Concentration
mM.....	millimolar
MOPS.....	Morpholinepropanesulfonic acid
MOU.....	Memorandum of Understanding
<i>MTB</i>	<i>Mycobacterium tuberculosis</i>
MTT.....	Methylthiazol tetrazolium
N.....	No
N.....	Nitrogen
Na.....	Sodium
NC.....	Nucleocapsid
NEMA.....	National Environment Management Act
NIAID.....	National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases
NIH.....	National Institute of Health
NMR.....	Nuclear Magnetic Resonance
NRF.....	National Research Foundation
O.....	Oxygen
OADC.....	Oleic acid albumen dextrose catalase
OD.....	Optical density
PBS.....	Phosphate buffer saline
PCR.....	Polymer Chain Reaction
PEPFAR.....	President's Emergency Plan for AIDS Relief
P-gp.....	P-glycoprotein

PLWA.....	People Living With AIDS
PR.....	Protease
PRA.....	plaque reduction assay
PTFE.....	Polytetrafluoroethylene
R.....	resistant
RIF.....	rifampicin
RIF/Solv.....	Rifampicin in solvent
RNA.....	Ribonucleic acid
RPML.....	Roswell Park Memorial Institute
RT.....	Reverse Transcriptase
RT.....	room temperature
RT-PCR.....	Real Time Polymer Chain Reaction
S.....	susceptible
S.....	Sulphur
SADC	Southern African Development Countries
SDA.....	Sabourad dextrose agar
Spp.....	species
STD.....	Sexually transmitted diseases
STI.....	Sexually Transmitted Infections
SU	Surface unit
TAACF.....	Tuberculosis Antimicrobial Acquisition and Coordination Facility
TCID ₅₀	Median Tissue Culture Infective Dose

TCM.....	Traditional Chinese medicine
THP.....	Traditional Health Practitioner
TLC.....	Thin Layer Chromatography
TM.....	Transmembrane unit
TM/Solv.....	Traditional medicine in solvent
TMs/CAMs.....	Traditional Medicine/Complementary Alternative Medicine
TOCSY.....	Total Correlation Spectroscopy
TOF.....	Time of flight
TRIP.....	Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property
UK.....	United Kingdom
UKZN.....	University of KwaZulu-Natal
UPLC-MS.....	Ultra Performance Liquid Chromatography Mass Spectrometer
USA.....	United States of America
UV.....	Ultra Violet
-ve.....	negative
WHO.....	World Health Organization
XDR-TB.....	Extreme drug resistant tuberculosis
XTT.....	Methylthiazol tetrazolium (water soluble)

List of Figures

Chapter 1

Chapter 2

Chapter 3

Figure 3.1: Fractions of <i>IHL</i> eluted onto TLC plate a test done to compare sample E and F.....	55
Figure 3.2: The NMR spectrum verifying similarities between sample E and F....	56
Figure 3.3: Chromatogram representing 12 major peaks of <i>IHL</i> as identified on the UPLC-MS chromatogram.....	59
Figure 3.4: High resolution ESI-TOF-MS spectrum in positive mode.....	60
Figure 3.4.1: Proposed structure of Thalebanin B.....	61
Figure 3.5: High Resolution ESI-TOF-MS spectrum in negative mode.....	62
Figure 3.5.1: Proposed structure of 2-methyl-3-(piperidin-1-yl) naphthalene-1,4-dione.....	63
Figure 3.6: High resolution ESI-TOF-MS spectrum in negative mode.....	64
Figure 3.6.1: Proposed structure of Kuguacin B.....	65
Figure 3.7: High resolution ESI-TOF-MS spectrum in negative mode.....	66
Figure 3.7.1: Proposed structure of Kuguacin R.....	67
Figure 3.8: High resolution ESI-TOF-MS spectrum in negative mode.....	68
Figure 3.8.1: Proposed structure of Methylillukumbin A.....	69
Figure 3.9: High resolution ESI-TOF-MS spectrum in negative mode.....	70
Figure 3.9.1: Proposed structure of 3,5-dihydroxy-4,7-dimethoxyhomoisoflavonone.....	71

Figure 3.10: High resolution ESI-TOF-MS spectrum in negative mode.....	72
Figure 3.10.1: Proposed structure of Anhydrocochlioquinone A.....	73
Figure 3.11: High resolution ESI-TOF-MS spectrum in negative mode.....	74
Figure 3.11.1: Proposed structure of Kuguacin J.....	75
Figure 3.12: High resolution ESI-TOF-MS spectrum in positive mode.....	76
Figure 3.12.1: Proposed structure of Verbascoside.....	77
Figure 3.13: High resolution ESI-TOF-MS spectrum in negative mode.....	78
Figure 3.13.1: Proposed structure of Quercetin 3-O- β -D-Glucopyranoside.....	79
Figure 3.14: High resolution ESI-TOF-MS spectrum in negative mode.....	80
Figure 3.14.1: Proposed structure of Isoferuloylpeol.....	81
Figure 3.15: High resolution ESI-TOF-MS spectrum in negative mode.....	82
Figure 3.15.1: Proposed structure of Mauratine H.....	83
Figure 3.16: High resolution ESI-TOF-MS spectrum in negative mode.....	84
Figure 3.16.1: Proposed structure of Astragalinal.....	85
Figure 3.17: High resolution ESI-TOF-MS spectrum in positive mode.....	86
Figure 3.17.1: Proposed structure of Nuciferin.....	87
Figure 3.18: High resolution ESI-TOF-MS spectrum in negative mode.....	88
Figure 3.18.1: Proposed structure of Narcissidine.....	89
Figure 3.19: High resolution ESI-TOF-MS spectrum in positive mode.....	90
Figure 3.19.1: Proposed structure of Diosindigo A.....	91

Chapter 4

Figure 4.0: The effect of *IHL* on cell viability using MTT assay after 24 and 48hours incubation respectively. 109

Figure 4.1: The effect of concentration of an aqueous extract of *IHL* on GSH-Glo™ levels after 24 hours incubation using vero cell lines..... 109

Chapter 5

Figure 5.2: The results depicted in the above graph display solvents' extraction potential.....124

Figure 5.3: The above graph displays MIC (IC₅₀) of the methanol extract of *IHL*..... 125

Chapter 6

Figure 6.1: Results of antifungal screening of extracts of *IHL* against *Cryptococcus neoformans* using the disk diffusion..... 144

Figure 6.2: Results of antifungal screening of several extracts of *IHL* tested against *Candida albicans* with disk diffusion assay..... 145

Figure 6.3: The dose dependant response curve of *C. neoformans* and *C. albicans* after treating with an aqueous extracts of *IHL*..... 146

Figure 6.4: The above graph displays MIC results obtained with broth microdilution method..... 147

Chapter 7

Figure 7.0: The effect of different *IHL* solvents' extracts on *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* growth inhibition using 1% proportion method..... 170

Chapter 8

Figure 8.1: HIV susceptibility results with Azidothymidine (AZT) applied to both infected and uninfected cells..... 189

Figure 8.2: HIV susceptibility results of an aqueous extract of *IHL* also known as *Imbiza kababa uThabethe* 190

List of Tables

Chapter 2

Table 2.0: A display of some prolific authors whose research has been cited severally	21
Table 2.1: Consumption of traditional medicine per country.....	22

Chapter 3

Table 3.0: Summary of the 16 proposed compounds that were identified with UPLC-MS.....	92
--	----

Chapter 4

Table 4.0: Tabulated trypan blue exclusion test results showing time and dose effect of <i>IHL</i> on vero cell lines.....	107
--	-----

Chapter 6

Table 6.1: In the above table the MLC results of both <i>C. albicans</i> and <i>C. neoformans</i> against neat extract of <i>IHL</i> are illustrated.....	148
---	-----

Chapter 7

Table 7.0: The effect of solvent type used to extract <i>IHL</i> using an agar dilution method.....	171
---	-----

Table 7.1: MIC results for an acetone-based extract of *IHL* using Agar dilution method.....172

Table 7.2 (left) and 7.3 (right) displays rounded off figures of results for an acetone-based extract of *IHL* using 1% proportion method. 173

Chapter 9

Table 8.0: Summary of active compounds isolated from *IHL* and their respective antimicrobial properties..... 205

Appendix

Appendix 1

Chemical Preparations.....	213
----------------------------	-----

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

Chapter 1

Introduction

Infection with Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV) an etiologic agent of the Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (AIDS) is a global phenomenon (Gurib-Fakim, 2006). AIDS can be described as a complex array of disorders due to deterioration of the immune system caused by the HIV leading the individual being susceptible to opportunistic infections and tumours (Marx, 1982). HIV targets the immune system especially macrophages and helper T cells wherein proliferation takes place before dispersal into new viral host. During viral replication the immune system is severely damaged by production of new virions and more so with every infection hence millions of new virions are produced each day. The production of antibodies and T cells to fight infections remains ineffective against the rate of viral production with subsequent appearance of cancer associated with AIDS and secondary opportunistic infections (Gurib-Fakim, 2006).

Current treatment options be it orthodox drugs or even vaccines do not cure AIDS, however, retards its progression. Previous studies attribute antimicrobial activities to secondary metabolites. At present from 36 000 extracts that have been screened by the National Cancer Institute of USA, approximately 3600 displayed anti-HIV activity (Gurib-Fakim, 2006).

Traditional medicine practice is most prevalent amongst South African population for managing the physical and psychological and social health needs (Rabe and van Staden,

1997). Natural products have become the subject of intense investigation recently in relation to conservation and as to whether their application are supported by their intended pharmacological effects or merely based on tales of the ancient (Cunningham, 1988; Locher *et al*, 1995; Williams, 1996). Undoubtedly traditional medicine's application is quickly gaining momentum as an alternative means of health care. Hence there is a need to screen medicinal plants for activity. The purpose of this study was to investigate South African medicinal plant product known as *Ihlamvu laseAfrika (IHL)* for potential antimicrobial activity by preliminary bioassay screening and metabolites profiling.

The dissertation is written such that each chapter explores antimicrobial properties of *IHL* on a specific organism/s. There are three sections/chapters such as literature review (Chapter 2), Chapter 3 (investigated secondary metabolites possibly responsible for the aforementioned antimicrobial properties) and Cytotoxicity assay on Chapter 4 which are the only exceptions. However, Chapter 5 investigated antiherpes properties of our test substance. In chapter 6 the antifungal properties of the test substance were also investigated. *Cryptococcus neoformans* and *Candida albicans* were two microorganisms tested for *IHL* susceptibility. Antimycobacterium properties tested on *MTB* strain with two techniques such as 1% proportion method and agar dilution was covered on chapter 7. In chapter 8 the anti-HIV properties were the last susceptibility assay to be explored. The last chapter gave an overall discussion and conclusion.

Briefly the study aimed at investigating the following *IHL* properties:-

- (a) anti-HSV
- (b) antifungal (*C. albicans* and *C. neoformans*)
- (c) antimycobacterial tuberculosis (*MTB*)
- (d) anti-HIV and
- (e) chemical profile of essential compounds possibly responsible for antimicrobial activities of *IHL*.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

Literature Review

2.1 Background

2.1.1 What is traditional medicine?

The World Health Organization (WHO) gave the following definition to African traditional medicine:

“The sum total of all knowledge and practices, whether explicable or not, used in diagnosis, prevention and elimination of physical, mental, or societal imbalance, and relying exclusively on practical experience and observation handed down from generation to generation, whether verbally or in writing” (WHO, 2008).

This definition sets an immediate distinction between science-based approaches to treatment to the traditional way. According to Steinglass (2002), an African approach to healing is holistic such that an ill person’s spiritual and physical well-being are simultaneously treated. According to Ayurveda and Traditional Chinese medicine (TCM) systems, the focus is also on the affected individual rather than on the disease (Patwardhan *et al*, 2005). Alternately, the science-based approach or biomedicine would label traditional medicine as phytotherapy. Hence, the medical anthropologists would associate traditional medicine and its practitioners with ethnomedicine (Nitchter, 1992). Nevertheless, practitioners of medicine are generally subdivided into diviners (mediums) and healers (Joles *et al*, 2000; Steinglass, 2002). Diviners diagnose the sickness through spiritual interventions (ancestral) whereas healers

provide medicines (Jolles *et al*, 2000). Healing is approached as a calling that is passed down from generation to generation and it would turn into a family business (Pujol, 1990; Liu, 2005). However, only one individual within the family would receive the gift also referred to as “*isikhwama*” – the bag. Direct translation takes away the essence to description since the bag is rather a trust that becomes a closely guarded secret. Scientific studies simply tap into isolating or perhaps modify the plant’s active compounds (Gilani *et al*, 2005; Patwardhan, 2005; van Vuuren, 2008). Research into traditional medicine is done in a bid to further add into the information pool hence setting a stage to a more novel entity discovery. More therapeutics are necessary in the midst of drugs shortage inadvertently attributed to drug-resistance especially seen with Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome (AIDS) and treatment defaults patients.

The abolishment of the traditional medicine practice by the colonial and apartheid regimes in South Africa altered a cultural landscape setting up a platform through which sadistic practices by some charlatans under the banner of traditional medicine also flourished. The two legislations, the Witchcraft Suppression Act of 1957 and Witchcraft Suppression Amendment of 1970 vehemently prohibited traditional health practices, however its abolishment could be backtracked to 1891 (Jolles *et al*, 2000). Meanwhile the encroachment of western healthcare system nullified its competition which saw traditional health practices slowly becoming extinct (Jolles *et al*, 2000).

2.2 Benefits of Traditional Medicines

From prerecorded history until recently, southern African people especially the rural and peri-urban dwellers would mostly derive health benefits, nutrition and material resources from indigenous plants (Pujol, 1990). Health challenges which include coughs, wounds, cuts and abrasions, intestinal and gut disorders, migraine, skin infections, snake and insects bites etc have been managed with natural product be it fauna or flora based products. (Pujol, 1990; Liu, 2005).

2.3 Plant-derived drugs

Medicinal plant products including their derivatives and analogs contributed over 50% of clinically used drugs in which 25% of that total is a contribution from higher-plants (Balandrin *et al*, 1993). According to folklore, records sampled from several cultures around the world, give crucial leads to active therapeutic properties (Bohonos *et al*, 1966; Swain, 1972; Goldstein *et al*, 1974; Lewis *et al*, 1977; Balandrin *et al*, 1985; Duke *et al*, 1985; Balandrin *et al*, 1988; Tyler *et al*, 1988; Kinghorn, 1992; Kinghorn, 1993).

Paclitaxel (also called Taxol®) is a classic example of a plant derived drug that is commercially available. It was discovered in 1982 from Pacific yew and is presently used as a refractory ovarian cancer drug (Cragg *et al*, 1993). Paclitaxel is a taxane diterpenoid. Etoposide is another example of a semisynthetic antineoplastic agent that is also commercially available and it is derived from podophyllotoxin, a mayapple

constituent (Balandrin *et al*, 1993). The mayapple plant (*Podophyllum peltatum* L.) species is applied in chemotherapy for refractory testicular cancer treatment, small cell lung cancer, nonlymphocytic leukemias and non-Hodgkin's lymphoma (Horwitz *et al*, 1977; Cabanillas, 1979; Issell *et al*, 1979; Radice *et al*, 1979; Budavari *et al*, 1989; Hussar, 1984). Atracurium besylate adds to the list of new plant derived drugs. It soothes skeletal muscle and it is both structurally and functionally closely linked to curare alkaloids (Budavari *et al*, 1989; Hussar, 1984). The Δ^9 -tetrahydrocannabinol is a drug that is derived from *Cannabis sativa* L. commonly known as marijuana plant or dagga and has found useful application in cancer chemotherapy (Duke *et al*, 1985; Budavari *et al*, 1989; Anon, 1985). Furthermore, a steroid called digitoxin that is derived from *Digitalis purpure* L. plant and *Digitalis lanata* Ehrhart (foxgloves) is used clinically as cardiotonic glycoside. Opium which is an alkaloid also known clinically as codeine or morphine, is derived from *Papaver somniferum* L. and is used for pain management. The second commercially available alkaloid drug is reserpine which is extracted from *Rauwolfia serpentina* L. (East India snakeroot) is used as an antihypertensive psychotropic drug. The third alkaloid drug is vinblastine or vincristine which is derived from *Caranthus roseus* L. (Madagascar rosy periwinkle) plant and is used as an anticancer drug. Physostimine is a forth alkaloid drug taken from *Physostigma venenosum* Balfour (Calabar bean) and it functions as a cholinergic or a parasympathomimetic drug. Another plant-derived drug that acts as a parasympathomimetic is pilocarpine which is derived from *Pilocarpus jaborandi* Holmes and other related species.

Furthermore there is an antimalarial and cardiac antiarrhythmic drug known as quinine or quinidine that is manufactured from *Cinchona* species whose bark is richly filled with alkaloids. Other than synthetic drugs, gout has been treated with a plant-derived drug called colchicine. Colchicine comes from the *Colchicine autumnale* L species. Another drug which is used as a recreational drug besides marijuana and morphine is cocaine. Cocaine is derived from the leaves of *Erythroxylum coca* Lamarck and its intended function was to find application as a local anesthetic. (Lewis *et al*, 1977; Tyler *et al*, 1988; Farnsworth, 1973; Farnsworth *et al*, 1976; Farnsworth, 1977; Farnsworth *et al*, 1977; Farnsworth, 1966). The last but not least alkaloid drug is d-Tubocurarine, another drug for soothing muscles that is derived from plant such as *Strychnos toxifera* Bentham and *Chondodendron tomentosum* Ruizet Pavon (curare) (Budavari *et al*, 1989; Hussar, 1984). The Chinese developed *Qinghaosu* also known as artemisinin drug which acts as an antimalaria agent and it is taken from *Atermisia annua* L. plant (Klayman *et al*, 1984; Klayman, 1985; Nair *et al*, 1986). There are also compounds such as organosulphur that were investigated from plants such as garlic and onions for their potential utilization as cardiovascular agents (Block *et al*, 1984; Block , 1985) as well as ellagic acid, *p-carotene* and vitamin E (tocopherol) that were investigated for further usage as prototype antimutagenic and anticancer properties (Budavari *et al*, 1989).

Secondary metabolites have in some cases been used as models or templates through which absolute synthesis of new drug entities were based. These entities include belladonna alkaloids such as atropine, physostigmine, quinine, cocaine, gramine,

opiates (examples are codeine and morphine), papaverine, salicylic acid were all derived from these models. Another class feature includes anticholinergics, anticholinesterases, antimalaria agents, benzoicaine, procaine, lidocaine (xylocaine), and local anesthetics, analgesics (Talwin), propoxyphene (Darvon) methadone and meperidine, verapamil and aspirin (acetylsalicylic acid) (Lewis *et al*, 1977; Roche, 1977; Cassady *et al*, 1980; Gund *et al*, 1980). Similarly in the United States (US) the furanochromone analogue that is derived from *Ammi visnaga* (L.) Lam fruit which was commercialized as bronchodilator and coronary medicine led to sodium chromoglycate synthesis also referred to as chromolyn sodium. Chromolyn is currently marketed as a bronchodilator however the main advantage with chromolyn is its antiallergenic properties (Sneider, 1985). In a similar example, the galegine alkaloid also an active ingredient of *Galega officinalis* L. was clinically prescribed for diabetic patients. However, due to its toxicity to humans, several compounds synthesized led to metformin which is structurally and pharmacologically similar to galegine and thus is used as an antidiabetic drug (Sneider, 1985). Hence the abovementioned secondary metabolites illustrate the importance of traditional medicine, their secondary metabolites, especially the active principles, and the role they play in modern drug synthesis.

2.4 Treatment with traditional medicine

According to African tradition, diseases are believed to be inflictions from supernatural beings, through spiritual, entities or ancestral spirit, living people, animals, plants and “pollutants”. Disobedience manifests into disorder or entropy in

one's life coupled to a host of misfortunes. Sacrificing of animals, and administration of some medicinal plants that are specially formulated by well renowned healers, help restore normality (Kale, 1995). It is important to note that THPs treat symptoms as opposed to disease entity. Healers lack pathology and patterns of diseases progression hence they control symptoms (Leung, 2004). Alternately, diseases can also be naturally occurring such as sexually transmitted but to manage symptoms even for minor breakout can be a daunting task. Failure to do so can lead one to sort counsel from the elders however, one has to contend with discipline. Inability to sort out the problem, the elders would make reference to a THP who is endowed with signs and symptoms who would then apply the appropriate intervention.

Euclea natalensis is shrub that is mostly found inland and the coastal regions or generally in southern Africa (van Wyk *et al*, 1997). Medicines derived from root infusions were taken for bacterial infections by indigenous people of southern Africa (Watt *et al*, 1962). However, the plant's medicinal properties includes treatment of urinary tracts infections, sexually transmitted diseases and dysmenorrhoea. In some parts of the country it is used as a "miswak" or toothbrush (Stander *et al*, 1991). The indigenous people of KwaZulu-Natal, use the root portion for Tuberculosis (TB)-related symptoms which include, bronchitis, pleurisy and asthma (Watt *et al*, 1962). Activity of this plant is attributed to secondary metabolites for example, the naphthoquinones, dihydroxyursanoic acids (lactones derivatives), triterpenoids and tetrahydroxyflavanone arabinopyranoside (van der Vijver *et al*, 1974, Ferreira *et al*, 1977, Lall *et al*, 2001).

2.4.1 Use of traditional medicine (TM) to treat Herpes Simplex Virus

According to World Health Organization (WHO) traditional medicine can either be composed of a single plant or a combination of several plants, animals and minerals (WHO, 2008). In order to manage Herpes Simplex Virus (HSV) breakouts, local THPs have a wide variety of medicinal plants to choose from, depending on their geographic location. *Helichrysum aureonitens* Sch Bip. (*Asteraceae*) is one medicinal plant that is predominantly found in southern Africa, particularly in KwaZulu-Natal region (Hilliard, 1983). According to Meyer *et al* (1996), an extract of this plant would be topically applied to affected areas. Herpes zoster has been treated with exudates of *H. aureonitens* which treated skin infections by topically applying it to affected areas.

2.4.2 Use of TM to treat *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (MTB)

To offer relief from symptoms due to *MTB* which may include incessant coughing, weight loss, loss of appetite and night sweats, the traditional healer may administer extracts made from leaf, bark and root of *Acacia nilota* or *Combretum kraussii* and *Euclea Natalensis* species to patients (Lall *et al*, 1999).

2.4.3 Use of TM to treat Fungal Infections (*Candida albicans*)

Common infections that are closely linked to *C. albicans* clinically manifest as pseudomembraneous (thrush), erythematous and hyperplastic variants to linear gingival erythema that often occur to immunocompromized individuals (Thamburan

et al, 2006). *C. albicans* is a commensal organism that is not particularly associated with morbidity however, upon exceeding one third of mouth and gut flora which is an acceptable level to normal hosts, it can intervene with nutritional intake (Fichtenbaum *et al*, 2000). At this point a THP may opt for extracts taken from *Tubalghia alliacea* (Thamburan *et al*, 2006) of South African origin.

2.4.4 Use of TM to treat Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome (AIDS)

When immunocompromized patients present with clinical symptoms befitting AIDS, the most trusted phytotherapeutic agent that is highly recommended would most probably be *Hypoxis hemerocallidea* and *Sutherlandia frutescens* extracts. The two plants extracts were endorsed by the South African Health Ministries in a fight against HIV since it displayed extensive immunostimulation properties (SADC, 2002).

Treating of symptoms constitute one branch of traditional medicine involving a healer (*inyanga*). The second branch entails seeking the main cause of illness and dispensing treatment and it involves a consultation with a diviner (*Isangoma*). *Sangomas* would diagnose by “throwing bones” which would tell of the past and present and foretell the future events (Pujol, 1990). Hence traditional medicine substantially introduces intricate relations that unite the living with the unseen and ultimately gives guidance that would ensure safe passage in life.

2.5 HIV/AIDS treatment options

As it is observed in treatment of several chronic disorders with traditional interventions, a trend is also noticeable in traditional medicine usage against Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV)/AIDS (Sukati *et al*, 2005; Bodeker *et al*, 2000; Josephs *et al*, 2007; Manfredi, *et al*, 1999). The reasons vary from developed to developing countries.

Lack of access to antiretrovirals (ARV)'s created much dependency towards natural products amongst people living with AIDS (PLWA) in order to manage symptoms. High cost of drugs also became a contentious issue however as soon as they became available, high cost price made them inaccessible due to high levels of unemployment. This therefore meant high viral load was to go rampant on the resource poor communities (Ivers *et al*, 2005). This prompted WHO to introduce a 3 by 5 initiative which essentially meant to ensure that 3 million PLWA would have access to ARV's by 2005. The initiative was coupled to ARV's price reduction (Peres-Casas *et al*, 2001) as a result of the World Trade Organization signing an agreement on Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property rights (TRIPs) that would ensure increased access to ARV's an aid geared for Southern African Development Community (SADC) region.

Notwithstanding the aforementioned initiative by the WHO, reliance on natural products remained a formidable challenge to the Highly Active Antiretrovirals Therapy (HAART) program (Langewitz *et al*, 1994; Dahab *et al*, 2008). Media would report on potential immunostimulants with absolutely no side effects. Subsequently

patients on ARVs would terminate HAART regimen only to ensue with traditional medicine/complementary and alternative medicine (TMs/CAMs) interventions due to perceived lack of side effects. Such statements remain invalid with most TM/CAM that have not been clinically tested hence it only remains a marketing gimmick on the part of some THPs. When patients suddenly stop taking ARV's and switch to TMs it becomes a serious life threatening undertaking. The presence of regulatory bodies would therefore serve as a deterrent to such a robust and irresponsible marketing tactic (WHO, 2005). A combination of both therapeutic agents, TM/CAM and HAART has been taken up by another group living with HI virus for viral suppression disregarding negative impact this might have on their livelihood and as well as the impact of dual therapeutics effect on drug metabolism (Josephs *et al*, 2007; Babb *et al*, 2007; Mill *et al*, 2005). General studies revealed overwhelming evidence that proves drug interaction between two therapeutic agents (Mills *et al*, 2004) which therefore prompt for TM-HAART interaction studies to be conducted immediately.

2.6 Globalization and Traditional medicine

With globalization of all human aspects saw floodgates of trade being widely opened and information exchange on an increase, traditional medicine has also undergone total revolution. The suppressive laws previously used to deny custom practices were abolished and governments embraced change and reinstated traditional health practices as a right enshrined in the constitution of the land, as the "right to health". As a result a number of organizations such as KwaZulu-Natal Traditional Healers

Council (eThekweni Local Branch), *Mwelela Kweliphesheya & Umgogodla Wesizwe*, and African Dingaka Association etc freely practiced the trade. Instead of seeing THP totally collapsing, traditional medicine made a robust return. It gained momentum rather and acquired more attention than previous practices, HIV/AIDS is held accountable. Furthermore traditional medicine is a system that is deeply entrenched within African culture despite westernization even amongst the youth (Sherrif, 1996). Households continue to utilize traditional medicine as a primary health care (Hardon *et al*, 2008). The youth especially those in trouble with the law would seek counsel from THP's to win major cases. Teenage pregnancy which is most prevalent in townships strongly relied on local THPs which prompted government to legalize abortion otherwise illegal abortion became another "assisted suicide" in African townships. Almost 60% of babies were delivered with the help of local midwives (Karim *et al*, 1994). I would argue however, that traditional medicine utilization is presently most prevalent in urban areas as opposed to rural areas. It is cultivated and prepared in rural areas but most utilization is found in urban areas. With urbanization and globalization of the entire country, rural areas are becoming obsolete, hence the mushrooming of informal settlement in cities which subsequently introduces rural practices to major cities including informal trade (Dauskart, 1990).

Job seekers migrate to urban areas for career opportunities whereby THPs would dispense lucky charms for career opportunities and recreational medicine to help maintain family life (aphrodisiacs). Zimbabweans have coined a term, "Central Lock System". It is a spell that is cast to unsuspecting party thus discourages extramarital

affairs (Mail and Guardian, 2001). It is not unusual on every street corner to observe flyers dispensed or pasted on robots advertising services of a powerful healer from distant shores. Scales have drastically tilted in favour of traditional practices which saw its support rising in scales of 200 000: 25 000, THP's vs general practitioners (GP's) respectively (Karim *et al*, 1994). Monies injected to boost country's economy and stimulate job creation through the trade were estimated to 3.4 USD through sales of 525 tonnes of plant materials (Mander, 1998; Dold *et al*, 2002).

Further development which appeals to the trade support includes digital migration from word of mouth to most robust marketing tool involving popular gadgets i.e. cellphones. Other means THP's have employed to reach the masses include the internet, newspaper and radio (Bonora, 2001). Local newspapers are richly filled with adverts and often disturbing news involving slaughtering for human body part constituting “*muthi* killings”, a practice that is spiraling out of control. “*Muthi*” killings are motivated by numerous factors practiced by dubious characters that seek to undermine the trade. Such atrocities are countrywide however they are most prevalent in Limpopo, southern KwaZulu-Natal and the Eastern Cape and until recently in the Midlands (Pietermaritzburg) judging from publicity in the news. “*Muthi*” simply means a substance that could be of either fauna or flora origins which is administered to patients in distress by an experienced THP (Ashforth, 2005). The infiltration of traditional health practices with witchcraft (*abathakathi*) who openly advertise such services to public is a disservice not only the trade but to the spirit of “*ubuntu*” which is inherent in African traditional medicine which mocks the

country's constitution. The use "tokoloshes" to fetch money is tantamount to theft and robbery. "Tokoloshes" are "small boys like creatures" that are only visible to children of tender age which witches use to execute a special task which is usually rewarded by spilling of blood (Ndhlala, 2009).

2.7 Research into Traditional Medicine in South Africa

Southern Africa is home to 30 000 plant species of which 3 000 species have medicinal properties (van Wyk *et al*, 1997). Furthermore, South Africa has culturally diverse societies each having unique customs however, despite cultural diversity, traditional medicine plays a pivotal role nonetheless. In addition to this, the preservation of indigenous knowledge systems that is prevalent through all the cultures is oral and it has been incessantly practiced without fail from generation to generation (Hutchings *et al*, 1994; van Wyk *et al*, 1997). Hence there are currently 200 000 THP who render services to their respective communities (van Wyk *et al*, 1997). Traditional medicine traded annually can be estimated to 20 000 tons. Furthermore, the informal trading with traditional medicine at low cost gives the practice an added advantage as opposed to the western system (Taylor *et al*, 2001). As a result there are 80% South Africans who derive benefits from use of traditional medicines despite the improved availability of orthodox drugs (Shale *et al*, 1999).

South African botanists have compiled a list of indigenous plant species, however critical information related to efficacy and medicinal properties has still been minimal. Countries such as Germany and China developed ways of classifying

traditional medicines that have proved useful over time. China developed a pharmacopeia on traditional medicines whereas Germany established monographs (Keller, 1991). South Africa compiled a list of medicinal products and their constituents, a work done by Nair *et al* (Nair *et al*, 2006). Data compiled from product is crucial for their commercialization.

Research done on natural products in South Africa focuses both on *in vitro*, *in vivo* studies as well as on safety and efficacy (Cocks *et al*, 2002). A new trend is developing worldwide that seeks to integrate traditional medicine with primary health care (Fennell *et al*, 2004).

The streamlining of traditional health practices into mainstream healthcare system in South Africa started in the 90's post apartheid era. A group of scientists were allotted a task of evaluating the health system and they proposed a model (Freeman *et al*, 1992).

The period between 1999 and 2006 had had a tremendous research output that provided clinical evidence of phytotherapeutic nature. Contribution towards knowledge production by South African scientists as witnessed in Journal of Ethnopharmacology publications from 1980 to 1994 was c.a 10-20%. However, there has been dramatic change in contributions recently; the percentage contribution has reached an alarming 55% (Light *et al*, 2005). Claims made by some THPs that they treat HIV/AIDS (City Press, 2001; Mercury, 2000) and their preparedness into submitting their medicines to be scientifically validated for antimicrobial and

properties raised a serious curiosity to science communities. The subsequent research validated some claims and it was observed that traditional medicines have antimicrobial properties. In case of AIDS, it remained to be proven whether TMs exerts their activities by inhibiting growth of HIV causing AIDS or indirectly through inhibition of microbes causing secondary opportunistic diseases. Some publications made by a number of research institutes and laboratories garnered interest into the subject, marking growing interest into research of TMs (Hutchings *et al*, 1994; van Wyk *et al*, 1997). South African government through National Research Foundation (NRF) answered a call and made a generous contribution (R15 million/pa) towards research into Indigenous Knowledge Systems (IKS) (Mulholland, 2005). More contributions have been received from the international communities such as President's Emergency Plan for AIDS Relief (PEPFAR) based in the US. PEPFAR's mandate is to help in a fight against AIDS, malaria and TB to impoverished nations of the world.

According to statistics less than 5% investigations have been conducted regarding “plants and antimicrobial” of South African origins (table 2.0), according to Scopus and Science Direct. Hence more research is required for knowledge production especially in the field of antimicrobial properties, otherwise South Africa research input on a global scale is minimal (Light *et al*, 2005).

Table 2.0: A display of some prolific authors whose research have been severally cited.

Publications	Authors
Antimicrobials research	van Wyk (2002)
Antimicrobial Screening	Rabe and van Staden (1997); Lin <i>et al</i> , 1999; McGaw <i>et al</i> , 2000; Kelmanson <i>et al</i> , 2000; Motsei <i>et al</i> , 2003; Eldeen <i>et al</i> , 2005; Buwa and van Staden, 2006; McGaw and Eloff, 2005
Antimicrobial Reports	Meyer and Afolayan, 1995; Meyer and Dilika, 1996; Meyer <i>et al</i> , 1997; Dilika <i>et al</i> , 1997; Afolayan and Meyer, 1995; Mathekgga and Meyer, 1998; Lourens <i>et al</i> , 2004; van Vuuren <i>et al</i> , 2006
Antimicrobial (STD)	Tshikalange <i>et al</i> , 2005; Lall and Meyer 1999
Antimicrobial Activities	Eloff, 1999; Martini <i>et al</i> , 2004; Eloff <i>et al</i> , 2005
MIC	Eloff 1998a
Chemical Profiling	Rabe and van Staden 2000; Drewes <i>et al</i> , 2005; Drewes <i>et al</i> , 2006
Antimicrobial	Louw <i>et al</i> , 2002; Lewu <i>et al</i> , 2006

The amount of research done on South African plant species still remains insufficient for the World Health Organization to establish monographs upon which guidelines for phytotherapeutics could be based upon.

Studies revealed a dramatic increase in traditional medicine usage reaching an alarming \$60 billion figure the world over (WHO Fact Sheet *No. 134*, 2008). Further consumption per country is also outlined in the table 2.1 below:

Table 2.1: Consumption of traditional medicine per country

Country	TM % Use	Annual Spending	Frequency of Use
China	30-50	N/A	N/A
Europe	>50	N/A	>1
North America	>50	N/A	>1
Dev Countries	>50	N/A	>1
Germany	90	N/A	>1
UK	N/A	\$320m	>1
Ghana	60	N/A	>1
Mali	60	N/A	>1
Nigeria	60	N/A	>1
Zambia	60	N/A	>1
USA	N/A	\$150m	>1
RSA*	75	\$76.9m	>1

(* Food Agricultural Organization, 1998; WHO fact sheet No. 134, 2008, more than once is abbreviated: >1).

2.8 Biodiversity and legislation

Ethno-botanical knowledge has been the source to sizeable drug discoveries (Kartal, 2007). Over the past plenty of national corporations have exploited indigenous resources through which drugs of commercial value have been produced without compensating IKS holders for knowledge transferred. Statutory bodies such as Conventional of Biological Diversity (CBD) have thus been mandated to assign ownership of biodiversity to individuals or community and to accord rights to protect this knowledge (Ng'etich, 2005).

In South Africa an act also referred to as the National Environment Management Act (NEMA), the Biodiversity Act of 2004 as set out in the Government Gazette of 2008 No: 30739 seeks to regulate the following:-

-
- i) To further regulate the permit system since the system applies to bio-prospecting that involves any indigenous biological resources or export from the Republic of any indigenous biological resources for the purpose of bio-prospecting or any other kind of research;
 - ii) To set out the content of the requirements and the criteria for benefit-sharing and material transfer agreement.

2.9 Intellectual Property Rights

Whether new products, new technologies or even active compounds are derived from use of indigenous knowledge, legislation needs to ensure that those communities who have historical guardianship will reap benefits derived from their products or new discoveries. The indigenous knowledge holders may have been previously excluded on opportunities that realize full value of their indigenous resources but current legislation (NEMA) protects and also unlock future benefits in a way that ensures sustainable development of the respective communities. Otherwise bio-piracy would run unabated. Bio-piracy applies to commercially viable products that are derived from traditional knowledge without returns accorded to indigenous knowledge holders. This act is rife in developing countries (Udgaonkar, 2004).

The South African government issued explicit definition to IK as set out in the Government Gazette No: 30739 issue of 2008 where it is defined as, “indigenous use or knowledge” include knowledge of, discoveries about or the traditional use of indigenous biological resources, if that knowledge, discovery or use has initiated or

will contribute to or form part of a proposed bio-prospecting or research project to which an application for a permit relates.

2.10 Bio-prospecting and legislation

Bio-prospecting is interpreted as a process whereby local or foreign researchers, intentionally seek amongst the wealth of a country's indigenous resource, those opportunities represented by species' and active compounds contained in a species which will result in successful commercial exploitation, most often and tragically so, outside the country of its origin, an exclusive benefit of a few people unrelated to that country (MBB Consulting *et al*, 2006).

The NEMA act seeks to act against overexploitation of the countries' natural resources also whilst ensuring that indigenous knowledge holders reap benefits in cases where commercial benefits arise from the utilization of indigenous resources.

2.11 Trends in traditional medicine

South Africa is one of the countries in the world experiencing an increased usage of traditional medicine in recent years as it can be observed on informal street vendors and some pharmacies marketing these products. Traditional medicines application is widespread (Thring *et al*, 2006). It is probably because it is firstly a cultural practice dating from time immemorial before the encroachment of western system of healing and practice. Secondly, the shortage of medical personnel attributed to its widespread use. At present there is 1:40000, doctor to patient ratio whereas regarding THPs it is estimated at 50:400 which means easy access to traditional healers (Karim *et al*, 1994).

Contrary to popular belief, the market for these products is not poverty driven as it has been reported elsewhere but accessibility and affordability dictate trends instead (Mander, 1998). Sales volume of these products proves it to be a very lucrative although informal business. The Eastern Cape is one of low socio developed region in South Africa. People in this region rely on traditional medicine mostly for diseases treatment as well as personal well-being hence traditional medicine finds most uses in this region (Cocks *et al*, 2002). The annual revenue generated by this sector is estimated at R500million. Recent statistical findings have estimated a 54% increase in the trade of medicines in this region leading on sales is *Hypoxis hemerocallidea* (African potato) used by people living with AIDS (Dold *et al*, 2002). Not only has this generated much research on African potato but to traditional medicine at large and South Africa is also one of the leading researchers (Light *et al*, 2005).

The THP Bill remains South Africa's health initiative to curb the scourge of AIDS. The SADC leaders also adopted and ratified a health strategy in a fight against AIDS (Baleta, 1998). The collaborative work began to see THPs acquiring skills such as educators, counselors and disseminate information on HIV and STI's to their respective communities and amongst their peers (King, 2000; McMillen *et al*, 1999; Nakyanzi, 1999).

2.12 Safety assessment of Traditional Medicines

General safety evaluation in traditional medicine is purely based on the long historical period of use. Traditional medicine in South Africa was banned by previous apartheid

regime. As a matter of fact this is a turning point in traditional medicine history because the two acts enacted, Witchcraft Suppression Act of 1957 and Witchcraft Suppression Amendment Act of 1970 explicitly prohibited traditional healing practices (Jolles *et al*, 2000). Ironically the trade now suffers hangover from past degradation seeing that it now often carries horror stories associated to witchcraft that further tarnish the trade by the very people who are supposed to benefit from it. This explains the secrecy even unto the level of consumers benefiting from these aids (Martin-Facklam *et al*, 2004). This makes data collection impossible especially for treatment efficacy studies.

The increased research on TMs/CAMs saw WHO Western Pacific region stipulating guidelines to follow for safety and efficacy evaluation (WHO Western Pacific region, 2008). Many countries seem to display a serious lack of vigilance with regards to traditional healthcare practices due to unstructured regulatory bodies (Schilter *et al*, 2003; Bast *et al*, 2002). A comprehensive approach towards the subject should cover the following viz:- medicinal usage, chemical data, toxicological studies, pharmacological studies, intervention trials, epidemiological studies, patients profiles/case records, and post- marketing surveillance (Schilter *et al*, 2003). Had there been sufficient regulation of TMs/CAMs, post-marketing surveillance could be readily available had products been registered. Safety and efficacy on commonly used natural products, especially in developed countries, is accessible via literature (refer table 2.0). Hence some aspects such as adverse health risks, side effects and treatment interaction are sufficiently covered (Magee, 2005). Studies on side effects and

adverse reactions on TMs/CAMs were compiled based on fatal cases previously reported on some plant products (Steward *et al*, 1999).

Ihlamvu laseAfrika (IHL) is a polyherbal mixture (courtesy of Baba Thabethe) that is regarded as a non-specific growth repressor of pathogens a person infected with HIV/AIDS presents with. However, certain factors need careful consideration regarding TM intended benefits. Seasonal changes, for example may affect pharmacological profile of medicinal plants. These changes can be exhibited within changes in the genome, the transcription, expression and post-translation modifications of proteins as well as secondary metabolites (Moco *et al*, 2007). Chemical consistency is important in ensuring efficacy and consumer safety (Sahoo *et al*, 2010). In the next chapter, cytotoxicity studies regarding use of *IHL* would be dealt with. The chapter aims at establishing cytotoxicity of *IHL* on the basic functions of the cell that can be quantified relative to levels of cellular damage. The second aim serves to determine the safe and effective dose to be used throughout the Glutathione (GSH) assay.

2.13 References:

1. **Afolayan A.J, Meyer J.J.M.** 1997. The antimicrobial activity of 3,5,7-trihydroxyflavone isolated from the shoots of *Helichrysum aureonitens*. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology* **57**: 177-181
2. **Anon.** 1985. *Am Pharm NS* 25(12): 10
3. **Ashforth A.** 2005. *Muthi, Medicine and Witchcraft: Regulating, African Science* in Post-Apartheid South Africa? *Social Dynamics* **31**: 211-242
4. **Babb D.A, Charalambous S, Pemba L, Seatlanyane P, et al.** 2007. Use of traditional medicine by HIV-infected individuals in South Africa in the era of antiretroviral therapy. *Psychology, Health and Medicine* 12 (3): 314-320
5. **Balandrin M.F, Klocke J.A.** 1988. In *Medicinal and Aromatic Plants* 1; Bajaj Y.P.S Ed; *Biotechnology in Agriculture and Forestry* 4; Springer-Verlag: Berlin, FRG **4**: 3-36
6. **Baladrin M.F, Bollinger W.H, Klocke J.A, Wurtele E.S.** 1985. *Science* **228**: 1154-1160
7. **Baladrin M.F, Farnsworth N.R, Kinghorn A.D.** 1993. Plant-derived Natural Products in Drug Discovery and Development. *American Chemical Society* 1-11
8. **Baleta A.** 1998. South Africa to bring traditional healers into mainstream medicine. *Lancet* 352 (9127): 554
9. **Bast A, Chandler R.F, Choy P.C, Delmulle L.M, et al.** 2002. Botanical health products, positioning and requirements for effective and safe use. *Environmental Toxicology and Pharmacology* 12 (4):195-211

-
10. **Block E, Ahmad S, Apitz-Castro R, Cruz M. R, Crecey R.W, Jain M.K.** 1984. *J.Am. Chem. Soc* **106**: 8295-8296
 11. **Block E.** 1985. *Scient. Am* 252(3): 114-119
 12. **Bodeker G, Homsy J, Kabatesi D, King R.** 2000. A regional task force on traditional medicine and AIDS. *Lancet* 355 (9211): 1284
 13. **Bonora F.** 2001. The Modernity/Traditional Interface amongst Urban Black South Africans: An Investigation of the Current Themes. MSc Thesis, University of South Africa, Johannesburg
 14. **Bohonos N, Piersma H.D.** 1966. *Bioscience* **16**: 706-729
 15. **Budavari S, Heckelman P.E. Eds, O'Neil M.J, Smith A.** 1989. The Merck Index, 11th Ed. Merck: Rahwan N.J
 16. **Buwa L.V, van Staden J.** 2006. Antibacterial and antifungal activity of traditional medicinal plants used against venereal diseases in South Africa. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology* **103**: 139-142
 17. **Cabanillas F.** 1979. *Drugs Fut* **4**: 257-261
 18. **Cassady J.M.Eds.** 1980. *Anticancer Agents Based on Natural Products Models.* Academic Press: New York, NY **Dilika F., Afolayan A.J., Meyer J.J.M.** 1997. Comparative antimicrobial activity of two *Helichrysum* species used in male circumcision in South Africa. *South African Journal of Botany* **63**: 158-159
 19. **Cocks M, Møller V.** 2002. Use of indigenous and indigenised medicines to enhance personal well-being: a South African case study. *Social Science & Medicine* 54(3): 387-397

-
20. **Cragg G. M, Grever M. R, Schepartz S. A, Suffness M.** 1993. The taxol supply crisis. New NCI policies for handling the large-scale production of novel natural product anticancer and anti-HIV agents. *Journal of Natural Products* **56**: 1657-1668
 21. **Cunningham A.B.** 1988. *An investigation of the herbal medicine trade in Natal/KwaZulu*. Investigational Report No. 29. Institute of Natural Resources, Scottsville, South Africa
 22. **Dahab M, Charalambous S, Fielding K, Hamilton R, et al.** 2008. That is why I stopped the ART": Patients' & providers' perspectives on barriers to and enablers of HIV treatment adherence in a South African workplace programme", *BMC Public Health* (**8**)
 23. **Dauskardt R.P.A.** 1990. The changing geography of traditional medicine: Urban herbalism on the Witwatersrand, South Africa. *Geo-Journal* **22**: 275-283
 24. **Dilika F, Afolayan A.J, Meyer, J.J.M.** 1997. Comparative antibacterial activity of two *Helichrysum* species used in male circumcision in South Africa. *South African Journal of Botany* **63**: 158-159
 25. **Dold A.P, Cocks M.L.** 2002. The trade in medicinal plants in the Eastern Cape province, South Africa. *South African Journal of Science* **98**: 589-597
 26. **Drewes S.E, Khan F, van Vuuren S.F, Viljoen A.M.** 2005. Simple 1,4-benzoquinones with antibacterial activity from stems and leaves of *Gunnera perpensa*. *Phytochemistry* **66**:1812-1816
 27. **Drewes S.E, Madau K.E, van Vuuren S.F, Viljoen A.M.** 2006. Antimicrobial monomeric and dimeric diterpenes from the leaves of *Helichrysum tenax* var *tenax*. *Phytochemistry* **67**:716-722
 28. **Duke J.A, Balandrin M.F, Klocke J.A.** 1985. *Science* **229**: 1036-1038

-
29. **Eldeen I.M.S., Elgorashi E.E., van Staden J.** 2005. Antibacterial, anti-inflammatory, anti-cholinesterase and mutagenic effects of extracts obtained from some trees used in South African traditional medicine. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology* **102**: 457-464
 30. **Eloff J.N.** 1998a. A sensitive and quick microplate method to determine the minimal inhibitory concentration of plant extracts for bacteria. *Planta Medica* **64**: 711-713
 31. **Eloff J.N.** 1999. The antibacterial activity of 27 southern African members of the Combretaceae. *The South African Journal of Science* **95**: 148-152
 32. **Eloff J.N, Famakin J.O, Katerere D.R.P.** 2005. *Combretum woodii* (Combretaceae) leaf extracts have high activity against Gram-negative and Gram-positive bacteria. *African Journal of Biotechnology* 4 (**10**): 1161-1166
 33. **Farnsworth N.R.** 1973. *Phytochemistry*. Miller L.P. Ed, van Nostrand Rheinhold: New York, NY **3**: 351-380
 34. **Farnsworth N.R, Morris R.W.** 1976. *Am J Pharm.* **148**: 46-52
 35. **Farnsworth N.R.** 1977. In *Crop Resources*. Seigler D.S. Ed. Academic Press: New York, 61-73
 36. **Farnsworth N.R, Bingel A.S.** 1977. In *New Products and Plant Drugs with Pharmacological, Biological or Therapeutical Activity*. Wagner H, Wolff P. Eds. Springer-Verlag: Berlin, FRG and New York, NY 1-22
 37. **Farnsworth N.R.** 1966. *J.Pharm. Sci* **55**: 225-276
 38. **Fennell C.W, Elgorashi E.E, Grace O.M,Lindsey K.L, McGaw L.J, Sprag S.G, Stafford G.I, van Staden J.** 2004. Assessing African medicinal plants for

-
- efficacy and safety: pharmacological screening and toxicology. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology* **94**: 205–217
39. **Ferreira A, Alves A.C, Costa M.A.C, Paul M.I.** 1977. Naphthoquinone dimmers and trimers from *Euclea natalensis*. *Phytochemistry* **12**: 433-435
40. **Fichtenbaum C.J, Koletar S, Yiannoutsos C et al.** 2000. Refractory mucosal candidiasis in advanced human immunodeficiency virus infection. *Clin Infect Dis* **30**:749-756
41. **Food Agricultural Organisation.**1998. *Marketing of Indigenous Medicinal Plants in South Africa - A Case Study in Kwazulu-Natal*: Rome, Italy
42. **Freeman M. Motsei M.** 1992. Planning health care in South Africa - Is there a role for traditional healers? *Social Science and Medicine* 34(**11**): 1183-1190.
43. **Gilani A.H, Rahman A.** 2005. Trends in ethnopharmacology. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology* **100**: 43-49
44. **Goldstein A, Aronow L, Kalman S.M.** 1974. *Principles of Drug Action: The Basis of Pharmacology*, 2nd Ed. John Wiley and Sons: New York, NY. 741-761
45. **Goldstein A, Aronow L, Kalman S.M.** 1974. *Principles of Drug Action: The Basis of Pharmacology* 2nd Ed John Wiley and Sons: New York NY, 741-761
46. **Government Gazette.** 2008. No: 30739
47. **Gund P, Andose J.D, Rhodes J.B, Smith G.M.** 1980. *Science*. **208**: 1425-1431
48. **Gurib-Fakim A.** 2006. Medicinal plants: Traditions of yesterday and drugs of tomorrow. *Molecular Aspect of Medicine* **27**:1-93
49. **Hardon A, Desclaux A, Egrot M, Micollier E, Kyakuwa M, Simon E.** 2008. Alternative medicines for AIDS in resource-poor settings: Insights from

-
- exploratory anthropological studies in Asia and Africa. *Journal of Ethnobiology and Ethnomedicine* **4**: 16-16
50. **Hilliard, O.M.** 1983. *Flora of Southern Africa (Asteraceae)*, Ed. O.A. Leistner, Botanical Research Institute of South Africa, pp. 96-97.**SADC.** 2002. SADC Ministerial Consultative meeting on Nutrition and HIV/AIDS. Johannesburg.
51. **Horwitz S.B, Loike J.D.** 1977. *Lloydia* **40**: 82-89
52. **Hussar D.A.** 1984. *Am Pharm NS* **24(3)**: 23-40
53. **Hutchings A, van Staden J.** 1994. Plants used for stress-related ailments in traditional Zulu, Xhosa and Sotho medicine. Part 1: Plants used for headaches. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology* **43**: 89-124
54. **Issell B.F, Crooke S.T.** 1979. *Cancer Treat. Rev* **6**: 107-124
55. **Ivers L.C, Doucette K, Kendrick D.** 2005. Efficacy of antiretroviral therapy programs in resource-poor settings: A meta-analysis of the published literature. *Clinical Infectious Diseases* **41(2)**: 217-224
56. **Jolles F; Jolles S.** 2000. 'Zulu Ritual Immunisation in Perspective' in Africa **70(2)**: 230
57. **Jolles F; Jolles S.** 2000. 'Zulu Ritual Immunisation in Perspective' in Africa **70(2)**:237
58. **Jolles F; Jolles S.** 2000. 'Zulu Ritual Immunisation in Perspective' in Africa **70(2)**: 239
59. **Jolles F; Jolles S.** 2000. 'Zulu Ritual Immunisation in Perspective' in Africa **70(2)**: 241-242

-
60. **Josephs J.S, Fleishman J.A, Gaist P. Gebo K.A.** 2007. Use of complementary and alternative medicines among a multistate, multisite cohort of people living with HIV/AIDS. *HIV Medicine* 8 (5): 300-305
61. **Kale R.** 1995. Traditional healers in South Africa: a parallel health care system. *British Medical Journal* 310: 1182-1185
62. **Karim A.S.S, Arendse R, Ziqubu-Page T.T.** 1994. Bridging the gap: Potential for health care partnership between African traditional healers and biomedical personnel in South Africa. Report of the South African Medical Research Council. *South African Medical Journal Insert*
63. **Kartal M.** 2007. Intellectual property protection in the natural product drug discovery, traditional hebal medicine and herbal medicinal products. *Phytother Res* 21(2): 113-119
64. **Keller K.** 1991. Legal requirements for the use of phytopharmaceutical drugs in the Federal Republic of Germany", *Journal of Ethnopharmacology* 32 (1-3): 225-229
65. **Kelmanson J.E, Jäger A.K, van Staden J.** 2000. Zulu medicinal plants with antibacterial activity. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology* 69: 241-246
66. **King R.** 2000. Collaboration with traditional healers in HIV/AIDS prevention and care in sub-Saharan Africa: A literature Review. UNAIDS Best Practice Collection.http://data.unaids.org/Publications/IRC-Pub01/jc299tradheal_en.pdf. Published November 6. 2000. Accessed May 12, 2008.
67. **Kinghorn A.D.** 1992. In *Phytochemical Resources for Medicine and Agriculture*; Nigg, H.N; Seigler D. Eds. Plenum Press: New York, NY 75-94

-
68. **Kinghorn A.D.** 1993. In *Discovery of Natural Products with Therapeutic Potential*, Gullo V.P, Ed; Butterworths: Boston, M.A
69. **Klayman D.L, Acton N, Hoch J.M, Milhous W.K, Lin A.J, Scovill J.P.** 1984. *J.Nat. Prod* **47**: 715-717
70. **Klayman D.L.** 1985. *Science* **228**: 1049-1055
71. **Lall N, Meyer J.J.M.** 1999. In vitro inhibition of drug-resistant and drug sensitive strains of *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* by ethnobotanically selected South African plants. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology* **66**: 347-354
72. **Lall N, Meyer J.J.M.** 2001. Inhibition of drug sensitive and drug resistant strains of *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* by diospyrin, isolated from *Euclea natalensis*. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology* **78**: 213-216
73. **Langewitz W, Laifer G, Maurer P, Ru'ttiman S, et al.** 1994. The intergration of alternative treatment modalities in HIV infection- The patient's perspective. *Journal of Psychosomatic Research* **38(7)**: 687-693
74. **Leung P.C.** 2004. Can Traditional Medicine Coexist with Modern Medicine in the Same Health Care System? In Packer, L., Ong, C.N. and Halliwell, B. (Eds.). *Herbal traditional medicine: Molecular aspects*. Marcel Dekker, New York.
75. **Lewis W.H, Elvin-Lewis M.P.F.** 1977. *Medical Botany*; John Wiley and Sons (Wiley- Interscience): New York NY
76. **Lewu F.B, Afolayan A.J, Grierson D.S.** 2006. The leaves of *Pelargonium sidoides* may substitute for its roots in the treatment of bacterial infections. *Biological Conservation* **128**: 582-584

-
77. **Light M.E, Sparg S.G, Stafford G.I, van Staden J.** 2005. Riding the wave: South Africa's contribution to ethnopharmacological research over the last 25 years. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology* **100**: 127-130
78. **Lin J, Opoku A.R, Geheeb-Keller M, Hutchings A.D, Jäger A.K, Terblanche S.E, van Staden J.** 1999. Preliminary screening of some traditional Zulu medicinal plants for anti-inflammatory and anti-microbial activities. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology* **68**: 267-274
79. **Liu H.H.** 2005. History of Application of Medicinal plants in China. In Yaniv, Z. and Bachrach, U. (Eds.). Handbook of Medicinal Plants. The Haworth press, Inc., New York
80. **Locher C.P, Burch M.T, Mower H.F, Berestecky J, Davis H, Van Poel B, Lasure A, Vanden Berghe D.A, Vlietinck A.J.** 1995 Anti-microbial activity and anticomplement activity of extracts obtained from selected Hawaiian medicinal plants. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology* **49**: 23-32
81. **Lourens A.C.U, Baser K.H.C, Reddy D, van Vuuren S.F, Viljoen A.M.** 2004. *In vitro* biological activity and essential oil composition of four indigenous South African *Helichrysum* species. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology* **95**: 253-258
82. **Louw C.A.M, Korsten L, Regnier T.J.C.** 2002. Medicinal bulbous plants of South Africa and their traditional relevance in the control of infectious diseases. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology* **82**: 147-154
83. **Magee K.** 2005. Herbal therapy: a review of potential health risks and medicinal Interactions. *Orthodontics & Craniofacial Research* **8(2)**: 60-74

-
84. **Mander M.** 1998. Marketing of Indigenous Medicinal Plants in South Africa a Case Study in KwaZulu-Natal. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, Rome
85. **Manfredi R. Chiodo F.** 1999. Non-conventional treatments and HIV disease: Determining factors and consequences. *Medecine et Maladies Infectieuses* 29(2):125-129
86. **Mathekga D.M., Meyer J.J.M.** 1998. Antibacterial activity of South African *Helichrysum* species. *South African Journal of Botany* 64: 293-295
87. **Martin-Facklam M, Burhenne J, Riedel K, Rieger K, et al .**2004. Undeclared exposure to St. John's Wort in hospitalized patients", *British journal of clinical pharmacology* 58 (4): 437-441
88. **Martini N.D, Eloff J.N, Katerere D.R.P.** 2004. Biological activity of seven antibacterial flavonoids isolated from *Combretum erythrophyllum* (Combretaceae). *Journal of Ethnopharmacology* 93: 207-212
89. **Marx J.L.** 1982. New disease baffles medical community. *Science* 217 (4560): 618-621
90. **MBB Consulting Services South (Pty) Ltd Stellenbosch, South Africa In association with African Business Access Cape Town, South Africa.** 2006. Report on A Study into the Potential of Aromatic Plants for Essential Oils in Mozambique: Project No. J1002/2 p.1-188
91. **McGaw L.J, Eloff J.N.** 2005. Screening of 16 poisonous plants for antibacterial, antihelmintic and cytotoxic activity *in vitro*. *South African Journal of Botany* 71: 302-306

-
92. **McGaw L.J, Jager A.K, van Staden J.** 2000. Antibacterial, antihelmintic and anti-amoebic activity in South African medicinal plants. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology* **72**: 247-263
93. **McMillen H, Scheinman D.** 1999. *AIDS Action* (**46**):5
94. **Meyer J.J.M, Afolayan A.J, Engelbrecht L, Taylor M.B.** 1996. Inhibition of Herpes Simplex Virus Type 1 by Aqueous Extracts from Shoots of *Helichrysum aureonitens* (Asteraceae). *Journal of Ethnopharmacology* **52**: 41-43
95. **Meyer J.J.M., Afolayan A.J.** 1995. Antibacterial activity of *Helichrysum aureonitens* (Asteraceae). *Journal of Ethnopharmacology* **47**: 109-111
96. **Meyer J.J.M, Dilika F.** 1996. Antibacterial activity of *Helichrysum pedunculatum* used in circumcision rites. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology* **53**: 51-54
97. **Meyer J.J.M, Afolayan A.J, Erasmus D, Taylor M.B.** 1997. Antiviral activity of galangin isolated from the aerialparts of *Helichrysum aureonitens*. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology* **56**: 165-169
98. **Michalets E.L.** 1998. Update clinically significant cytochrome P450 drug interactions. *Pharmacotherapy* **18**: 84-112
99. **Mills E, Gallicano K, Montori V.M, Wu P, et al.** 2004. Interaction of St John's wort with conventional drugs: Systematic review of clinical trials. *British Medical Journal* **329 (7456)**: 27-30
100. **Mills E, Foster B.C, Phillips E, Van Heeswijk R, et al.** 2005. Impact of African herbal medicines on antiretroviral metabolism. *AIDS* **19(1)**: 95-97

-
101. **Moco S, Bino R. J, De Vos R.C.H, Vervoort J.** 2007. Metabolomics Technologies and Metabolite Identification. *Trends in Analytical Chemistry in press*
102. **Motsei M.L., Jäger A.K, Lindsey K.L, van Staden J.** 2003. Screening of traditionally used South African plants for antifungal activity against *Candida albicans*. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology* **86**: 235-241
103. **Mulaudzi H.** 2000. "Traditional 'AIDS healer' silenced" City Press, 31/01/2000;
104. **Mulholland D.A.** 2005. The future of ethnopharmacology: A southern African perspective. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology* **100**:124-126
105. **Nair M.S.R, Acton N, Basile D.V, Kendrick K, Klayman D.L, Mante S.** 1986. *J.Nat.Prod* **49**: 504-507
106. **Nair V.D.P, Kanfer I.** 2006. High-performance liquid chromatographic method for the quantitative determination of hypoxoside in African potato (*Hypoxis hemerocallidea*) and in commercial products containing the plant material and/or its extracts. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry* **54(8)**: 2816-2821.
107. **Nakyanzi T.** 1999. Promoting collaboration. *AIDS* (**46**): 4
108. **Ndhala A.R.** 2009. Pharmacological, Phytochemical and Safety Evaluation of Commercial Herbal Preparations Common in South Africa. PhD Thesis.
109. **Ng'etich K.A.** 2005. Indigenous Knowledge, Alternative Medicine and Intellectual Property Rights Concerns in Kenya. 11th General Assembly, Maputo, Mozambique, 6-10 December 2005. Egerton Univ. Njoro: Kenya
110. **Nichter M.** (ed.). 1992. Anthropological approaches to the study of Ethnomedicine Tucson, Arizona: Gordon and Breach Science Publishers, p.ix.

-
111. **Patwardhan B, Bhatt N, Pushpangadan, Warude D.** 2005. Ayurveda and Traditional Chinese Medicine: A Comparative Overview. *Ayurveda and traditional Chinese Medicine. eCAM.* 2(4): 465-473
112. **Patwardhan B.** 2005. Ethnopharmacology and drug discovery. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology* 100: 50-52
113. **Perez-Casas C, Ford N, Herranz E.** 2001. Pricing of drugs and donations: Options for sustainable equity pricing. *Tropical Medicine & International Health,* 6(11): 960-964
114. **Pujol J.** 1990. The Herbalist Handbook: *African flora, medicinal plants.* Natur Africa, Durban
115. **Radice P.A, Bunn P.A. Jr, Ihde D.C.** 1979. *Cancer Treat. Rep* 63: 1231-1240
116. **Rabe T, van Staden J.** 1997. Antibacterial activity of South African plants used for medicinal purposes. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology* 56: 81-87
117. **Rabe T, van Staden J.** 2000. Isolation of an antibacterial sesquiterpenoid from *Warburgia salutaris*. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology* 73: 171-174
118. **Roche E.B. Ed.** 1977. *Design of Biopharmaceutical Properties through Prodrugs and Analogs.* American Pharmaceutical Association, Academy of Pharmaceutical Science: Washington DC
119. **SADC.** 2008. *Potocol on Health:* Southern African Development Community. Available at: <http://www.sadc.int/index/browse/page/152> [2008, 07/25]
120. **Sahoo N, Dey S, Manchikanti P.** 2010. Herbal Drugs: Standards and regulation. *Fitoterapia* 81: 462-471

-
121. **Schilter B, Andersson C, Anton R, Constable A, et al.** 2003. Guidance for the safety assessment of botanicals and botanical preparations for use in food and food supplements. *Food and Chemical Toxicology* 41(12): 1625-1649
122. **Shale T.L, Strik W.A, van Staden J.**1999. Screening of medicinal plants used in Lesotho for antibacterial and anti-inflammatory activity. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology*. **67**: 347-354. **Steiner R.P Ed.** 1986. Folk Medicine: The Art and the Science. *American Chemical Society*: Washington DC
123. **Sheriffs, P.** 1996. Truths and tradition. *Femina* **113**: 62-65
124. **Sneider W.** 1985. *Drug Discovery: The Evolution of Modern Medicine*. John Wiley and Sons: Chichester, UK, 165-177, 192-226
125. **Stander I, van Wyk C.W.** 1991. Toothbrushing with root of *Euclea natalensis*. *Journal de Biologie Buccale* **19**: 1667-172
126. **Steinglass M.** 2002. "It takes a village healer – Anthropologists believe traditional medicines can remedy Africa's AIDS crisis. Are they right?" *Lincua Franca*. p.32
127. **Stewart M.J, Kokot M, Moar J.J, Steenkamp P.** 1999. Findings in fatal cases of poisoning attributed to traditional remedies in South Africa", *Forensic Science International* 101(3): 177-183
128. **Sukati N.A, Makoa E.T, Mndebele S.C, Ramukumba T.S, et al.** 2005. HIV/AIDS symptom management in Southern Africa. *Journal of Pain and Symptom Management* 29(2): 185-192
129. **Swain T. Ed.** 1972. Plants in the development of Modern Medicine; Harvard University Press: Cambridge, M.A

-
130. **Taylor J.L.S, Jäger A.K, McGaw L.J, Rabe T, van Staden J.** 2001. Towards the scientific validation of traditional medicinal plants. *Plant Growth Regulation* **34**: 23-37
131. **Thamburan S, Cannon J.F, Folk, Johnson Q. Klaasen J, Mabusela W.T.** 2006. *Tubalghia alliacea* Phytotherapy: A Potential Antiinfective remedy for Candidiasis. *Phytother. Res* **20**: 000-000
132. **Tshikalange T.E, Hussein A.A, Meyer J.J.M.** 2005. Antimicrobial activity, toxicity and the isolation of a bioactive compound from plants used to treat sexually transmitted diseases. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology* **96**: 515-519
133. **Thring T.S.A, Weitz F.M.** 2006. Medicinal plant use in the Bredasdorp/Elim region of the Southern Overberg in the Western Cape Province of South Africa", *Journal of Ethnopharmacology* 103(2): 261-275
134. **Tyler V.E, Brady L.R, Robbers J.E.** 1988. Pharmacognosy 9th Ed. Lea and Febiger: Philadelphia, PA
135. **Udgaonkar S.** 2004. The protection of medical plants in India. <http://envis.frlht.org.in/sangeeta.htm>; (21 September 2004)
136. **van Vuuren S.F.** 2008. Antimicrobial activity of South African medicinal plants. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology* **119**: 462-472
137. **Van der Vijver L.M, Gerritsma K.W.** 1974. Naphthaquinones of *Euclea* and *Diospyros* species. *Phytochemistry* **13**: 2322-2323
138. **van Vuuren S.F, Baser K.H.C, Viljoen A.M, van Heerden F.R, van Zyl R.L.** 2006. The antimicrobial, antimalarial and toxicity profiles of helihumulone, leaf essential oil and extracts of *Helichrysum cymosum* (L.) subsp. *cymosum*. *South African Journal of Botany* **72**: 287-290

-
139. **van Wyk B-E.** 2002. A review of ethnobotanical research in southern Africa. *South African Journal of Botany* **68**: 1-13
140. **Van Wyk B-E, van Wyk P.** 1997. Field guide to trees of southern Africa. Struik, Mackenzie Street, Cape Town. ISBN: 1-86825-922-6, pp 184-185
141. **Watt J.M, Breyer-Brandwijk M.G.** 1962. The medical and poisonous plants of southern and eastern Africa, 2nd Ed. Livingstone, London. ISBN: B0000E-GKU-O, p. 390
142. **Williams V.L.** 1996. The Witwatersrand muti trade. *Veld and Flora* **82**: 12-14
143. **World Health Organisation.** WHO Centre for Health Development. "Planning for cost-effective traditional medicines in the new century – a discussion paper"
"Accessible: http://www.who.or.jp/tm/research/bkg/3_definitions.html
144. **World Health Organisation.** 2005. *National policy on traditional medicine and regulation of herbal medicines: Report of a WHO global survey*: Geneva, Switzerland
145. **World Health Organisation.** 2008. *WHO Fact Sheet No. 134*: Available at: <http://www.who.int/mediacentre/factsheets/fs134/en/> [2008, 06/10]
146. **World Health Organisation.** 2008. WHO Regional office for the Western Pacific: *Research guidelines for evaluating the safety and efficacy of herbal medicines*: Available at: <http://whqlibdoc.who.int/wpro/-1993/9290611103.pdf> [2008, 06/17]

Chapter 3

Chemical Profile analysis of *IHL*

3.0 Abstract

Introduction: New chemical entities with novel mechanism of action that prove useful against multi-drug resistant organisms are mostly plant based and they present as secondary metabolites (Ballel *et al*, 2005; Pereira *et al*, 2005). Plants utilize secondary metabolites for protection however, these chemical entities have also been utilized by man from time immemorial. Lack of standardized TM preparation, inconsistencies may set in and also material used may become extinct. Hence to sustain life certain measures need to be taken to preserve and sustain them.

Objective: To verify batch to batch reproducibility using thin layer chromatography (TLC) and nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) and to profile secondary metabolites using UPLC-MS.

Materials and Methods: Samples E and F would be analyzed with TLC and visualized under UV at 254 and 366nm and furthermore confirm with NMR. After establishing similarities, one sample would undertake chemical profiling with UPLC-MS.

Results: TLC established striking similarities with samples E and F. Further resemblance was confirmed with NMR. Chemical profiling of *IHL* enabled establishment of the following chemical entities viz:- thalebanin B, methyllukumbin A, Kuguacin J, mauritine H, 2-methyl-3-(piperidin-1-yl) naphthalene-1,4-dione, Kuguacin J, Isoferuloyllpeol, Diosindigo A, Kuguacin R, verbascoside, Kuguacin B and nuciferin

Conclusion: It has been proven that *IHL* possesses antimicrobial properties that could possibly be used to manage HIV/AIDS and its secondary opportunistic infections. Furthermore despite serious lack of standardized operational processes and techniques

utilized by THPs during their medicinal preparations, consistency within batches manufactured on different dates was established.

3.1 Introduction

3.1.1 Metabolites Profiling (UPLC-MS) and Quality Control (NMR and TLC)

There is a growing interest and a great potential for drug development from plants (Cox *et al.*, 1994; Farnsworth, 1993). This is necessitated by drug resistance experienced with current drug interventions especially witnessed with HIV/AIDS and TB patients. Resistance however inadvertently exhausts current drug regimen such that new options need exploration. New chemical entities with novel mechanism of action that proves useful against multi-drug resistant organisms are mostly plant based (Ballel *et al.*, 2005; Pereira *et al.*, 2005).

A traditional medicine called *IHL* that is of anecdotal use by HIV/AIDS patients in KwaZulu-Natal province was studied. Plants utilize secondary metabolites for protection, however, the secondary metabolites have also found useful role to man although not all plants have been researched. Successful screening for antimicrobial activity against test plant as well as biosafety assays led to further tests. One of the objectives of this chapter is to identify the bioactive components present in *IHL* that are thought to have antimicrobial activities.

3.1.2 Secondary metabolites

Metabolites can be divided into two, namely primary and secondary metabolites. The plant primary metabolites are responsible for plant growth and development whereas secondary metabolites are species specific such that in tissues, cells they are involved in plant development (Verpoorte *et al*, 2007). To withstand changing seasons, secondary metabolites curtail for such changes. As an adaptation strategy, plants have developed a complex machinery responsible for abiotic (light, UV, water) and biotic (parasites, herbivores and attacks from pathogens) stress factors (Hall, 2006). Furthermore, primary metabolites serve metabolic functions (agricultural yields) whereas secondary metabolites are responsible for colours, flavours and also circumvent stress factors (Verpoorte *et al*, 2007). Moreover, it is secondary metabolites that man derive health-benefits from, presented as diospyrins and others in various plant species. In order to establish the type of metabolites present, several analytical techniques have been employed. Firstly there is “metabolic fingerprinting”. This is high throughput qualitative screening for metabolic constituents. Sample preparation and analysis is relatively rapid and it is a simple technique. Alternatively, there is “metabolic profiling” technique involving identification, quantification of secondary metabolites. To be borne to mind that the data presented with this technique represents a “snapshot” of metabolic information confined to time and space. Stress factors contribute largely to different expression of different secondary metabolites. Notwithstanding the fact that samples taken from different sources can still compare however, the conclusion reached should be clearly based on the initial sample differences (Hall, 2006).

3.1.3 Analytical techniques applied in secondary metabolites studies

There are five major techniques that are presently utilized for profiling viz:- H/UPLC-MS, GC-MS, TLC-UV, MSⁿ and NMR (Verpoorte *et al*, 2007). NMR and mass spectrometers are regarded as the primary tools that can be universally applied. However, the two technologies display some distinctive characteristics as well as disadvantages considering a wide array of metabolites detected, their resolution and sensitivity (Verpoorte *et al*, 2007). As a result, the current techniques fall short in detecting both qualitative and quantitative data presented by all metabolites in tissue extract. Hence, a “profile” of a specific group is subsequently identified and quantified if not, “fingerprint” of a particular metabolite is subjected to pattern analysis (Ratcliffe *et al*, 2005). In this investigation, the chemical profiling would be carried out on UPLC-MS, hence this technique is emphasized.

3.1.4 Quality Control with Thin Layer Chromatography (TLC)

TLC is one of the important technique used in secondary metabolites studies however, its importance is fading with time (Merfort, 2002). This technique however, provides crucial information about the type of metabolites present. In order to visualize TLC fractions, numerous reagents can be utilized such as vanillin/o-phosphoric acid, anisaldehyde or p-dimethylaminobenzaldehyde-sulfuric acid, sulfuric acid, resorcin-sulfuric or phosphoric acid, aluminium chloride or hydroxyl-amine (Kery *et al*, 1987; Kelsey *et al*, 1973; Drozd *et al*, 1978; Picman *et al*, 1980; Villar *et al*, 1984; Nowak, 1993)

Preliminary TLC screening of two sample batches was done in order to establish reproducibility, an important quality control exercise.

3.2 The study's objective:

1. To verify batch to batch reproducibility with:
 - a) Thin Layer Chromatography (TLC)
 - b) Nuclear Magnetic Resonance (NMR)
2. To do chemical fingerprinting of *IHL* with UPLC-MS

3.3 Materials and Methods

3.3.1 TLC Chemicals

1. Methanol, gradient grade (Merck).
2. Formic acid, spectroscopic grade (Fluka).
3. Water, triple deionized, from the Milli-Q purification system (Millipore, Bedford, MA), resistivity 18.0 M Ω -cm, filtered through 0.2 μ m membrane filter.
4. Acetonitrile, ultra gradient HPLC grade (Merck).
5. Sulphuric acid (Merck)
6. Vanillin Spray (Sigma-Aldrich)

3.3.1.1 Sample Preparation and Plate Development

The two lyophilized products of equal quantities were reconstituted in aqueous medium. The two sample assigned labels UKZN-201-12001E and UKZN-201-12001F were shortened to E and an F respectively. The two samples were subjected to thin layer chromatography (TLC) analysis. TLC is regarded as the simplest and rapid method for detecting plant constituents in metabolomics studies. Approximately 5 μ L of compound mixtures E and F were neatly applied onto silica gel plate (Alu Si G/UV254).The plate

was hairdried to eliminate streaking due to aqueous medium. A mobile phase composed of (90: 9.5:0.5) chloroform/methanol/acetic acid was used. The plate was furthermore sprayed with vanillin (1% alcoholic vanillin and 10% sulphuric acid). For improved visualization the plate was heated in the oven for almost 20 minutes at 100°C. The plates were viewed under UV 254 and 366nm.

3.3.2 Quality Control with Nuclear Magnetic Resonance 600 Varian (NMR)

3.3.2.1 Principle

Nuclear magnetic resonance principle is based upon nuclei spin in an external magnetic field. In the absence of the magnetic field, there's a random orientation of nuclei spins. However, in case of a strong magnetic field, the nuclei spin is reoriented such that it is aligned with the field or against it. Orientation that's parallel to alignment of applied forces has lower energy. When nuclei are irradiated with RF radiation, the lower energy nuclei move to high state and it is said to be in resonance, hence the term nuclei magnetic resonance.

3.3.2.2 Methods NMR Sample Preparation

Ten milliliters of methanol-CD₃OD (Sigma-Aldrich Grade) were used to rehydrate lyophilized products (E and F). Each of the two products was transferred onto NMR capillary tubes that was then placed into NMR port and analyzed for protons ¹H presence.

3.3.2.3 NMR parameters

The sample analysis was done with an Inova spectrometer operating at 8445.0Hz for ^1H frequency (Varian). Spectra were collected via solvent suppression pulse sequence based on one dimensional nuclear Overhauser effect done to saturate residual [^1H] water proton signal (acquisition time - 1.94 min, tof - 1199.4 and tpwr - 54). Transients were collected over spectral width of 10ppm at 25°C.

3.3.3 Chemical Profiling with Ultra-Performance Liquid Chromatography-Mass Spectrometer (UPLC-MS)

3.2.3.1 Principle:

High performance liquid chromatography mass spectroscopy is basically the separation of a mixture with HPLC system preferably using reverse-phase column. In such an instance, the analyte is ionized with an appropriate ion source by various methods (ESI or electron spray ionization, APCI or chemical ionization under atmospheric pressure or in multi-mode source by various methods) followed by partial fragmentation. Soon after acceleration they are deflected by a magnetic field which resolves them according to their mass.

3.3.3.2 UPLC-MS: Instrumentation and Software

The UPLC-TOF-DAD-MS system: UPLC Waters Acquity instrument was coupled to an Acquity DAD (diode array detector) and a Synapt HDMS detector (tandem Time-of-flight mass spectrometer). The mass spectrometer detector used an electrospray ion source (ESI). The Synapt HDMS system was operated on positive and negative

ionization modes. An aquity UPLC BEH C₁₈ column of 1.7µm particle size and 1.0X50mm column dimensions, with a column pre-filter were used. The system used the MassLynx 4.1 instrument software (Waters).An XCMS program for mass peaks extraction and alignment is an incorporated program used for data analysis.

3.3.3.4 Sample Preparation

Random collections of fresh samples from a traditional healer took place on different dates and these were tested for consistency. From each batch a sample was aliquoted into 50mL centrifuge tube, filtered through a 0.22µm PTFE filters and labeled. Quality checks of the two aqueous samples labeled UKZN-201-12001E and UKZN-201-12001F were done on Ultra Performance Liquid Chromatography- Time of Flight- Diode Array Detector-Mass Spec (UPLC- TOF-DAD-MS).

3.3.3.5 The UPLC parameters

There was a 30 minutes sample runtime. The system mobile phase was set as discussed above. A sample injection volume of 1µL was used. The pump flow rate was 0.3mL/min. The temperature of an autosampler was set to 12°C. The column temperature was set to 35°C. The injection needle washed with 200µL of the strong needle wash solution and 600µL weak solution. The column was equilibrated for at least an hour before use.

3.3.3.6 Diode Array Detector

The diode array (DAD) detector was connected in series with Synapt HDMS that was fitted with an ESI 3000 which operated on a V-mode. UV-Visible absorbance spectra

complemented the MS with regards to compounds identification. An Acquity UPLC DAD detector was operated within 220 to 500 nm range.

3.3.3.7 Time of Flight (TOF) parameters

The TOF was operated in the V-mode at a high mass resolution. Spectral acquisition was set from 100 to 1000 m/z with no preset target with scan duration of 0.4 sec. The MS parameter were set such that the capillary voltage was 3.2kV, cone voltage 35kV, source temperature 120°C, the source temperature was 120°C and the desolvation temperature 300°C. Nitrogen had a flow rate of 25L/h.

3.3.3.8 High Resolution Mass Spectrometry (HRMS)

The high resolution mass spectra could be found on a Micromass-LCT Premier Time of Flight (TOF) mass spectrometry (Waters, MA, USA). It is normally equipped with an electrospray interface hence it also sometimes referred to as High Resolution Electrospray Interface Mass Spectrometry (HRESIMS) which is coupled to an Aquity UPLC-MS (Waters, MA, USA). The electrospray interface conditions are as follows:

Voltage: 2800, Cone voltage: 40V, MCP Detector voltage: 2650V, Source temperature 120°C, Desolvation gas flow: 550 l/h, Desolvation temperature 250°C, Cone gas flow: 10 l/h. Both positive and negative modes were used for detection in m/z range of 100 to 1000 and scan time was set to 0.25 s in centroid mode.

3.4 Results and Discussion

3.4.1 Batch-to-batch reproducibility with TLC

In order to ensure sample reproducibility for every batch of *IHL* produced, quality control check was incumbent. Local traditional practitioners often do not adhere to aseptic practices since they have no laboratories. Sample preparations and chemical constituents of traditional medicines remain undisclosed thus making important documents such as standard operation procedures non-existent. Hence some governments took unilateral decision to streamline traditional medicines into the mainstream healthcare system in order to regulate them as public entities. That entailed research initiations that would amicably introduce policy issues and quality control measures regarding product development. A bioassay such as thin layer chromatography (TLC) was amongst the techniques adopted for the establishment of batch-to-batch reproducibility, particularly for this product. The TLC technique displayed optimal sample reproducibility hence it proved to be an effective and reliable qualitative tool (figure 3.1).

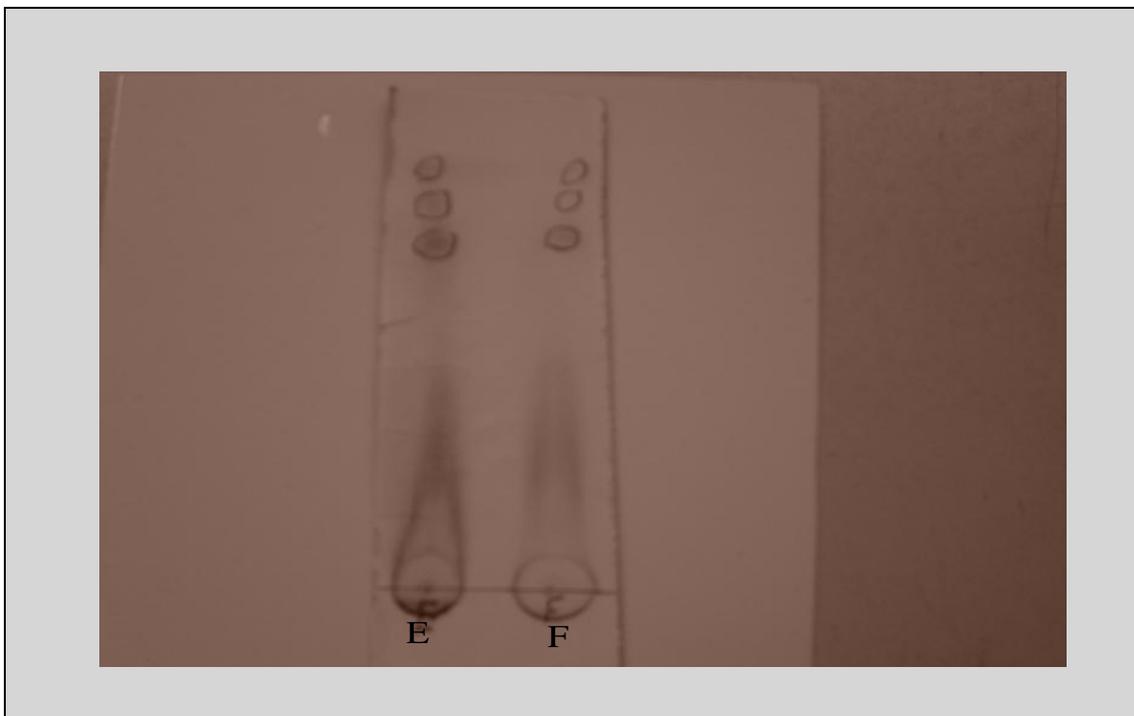


Figure 3.1: Fractions of *IHL* eluted onto TLC plate a test done to compare sample E and F. Batch to batch reproducibility of *IHL* with this technique revealed strong similarities of the two samples denoted by E and F. The two samples were apparently prepared on different dates. The letters E and F were conveniently used otherwise the two samples were identified as UKZN-201-12001(**E**) and UKZN-201-12001 (**F**).

Sample E and F migrated equal distances from the solvent front suggesting that the polarities of the two samples to be identical. Furthermore, when the TLC plates were sprayed with vanillin, the brownish purple fractions became apparent. The darker the sample spot the more concentrated the sample as less UV tends to be more adsorbed (Hess, 2004).The bioautographic technique is capable of producing useful data which helps identify bioactive principle which can be identified by their unique staining

reagents. Major details such as medicinal types used could further be deduced. However, it is important to note that TLC is only a qualitative tool (Hess, 2004) hence the utilization of NMR which does not separate chemical constituents had to suffice (Negussie, 2009). As the samples were loaded onto TLC plate, an identical and clear separation of compounds from the component mixtures suggested definite samples of the same source.

3.4.2 Batch-to-batch reproducibility with NMR

Further confirmation test testing for similarity between sample E and F was also carried out on an NMR and results were deduced chromatographically.

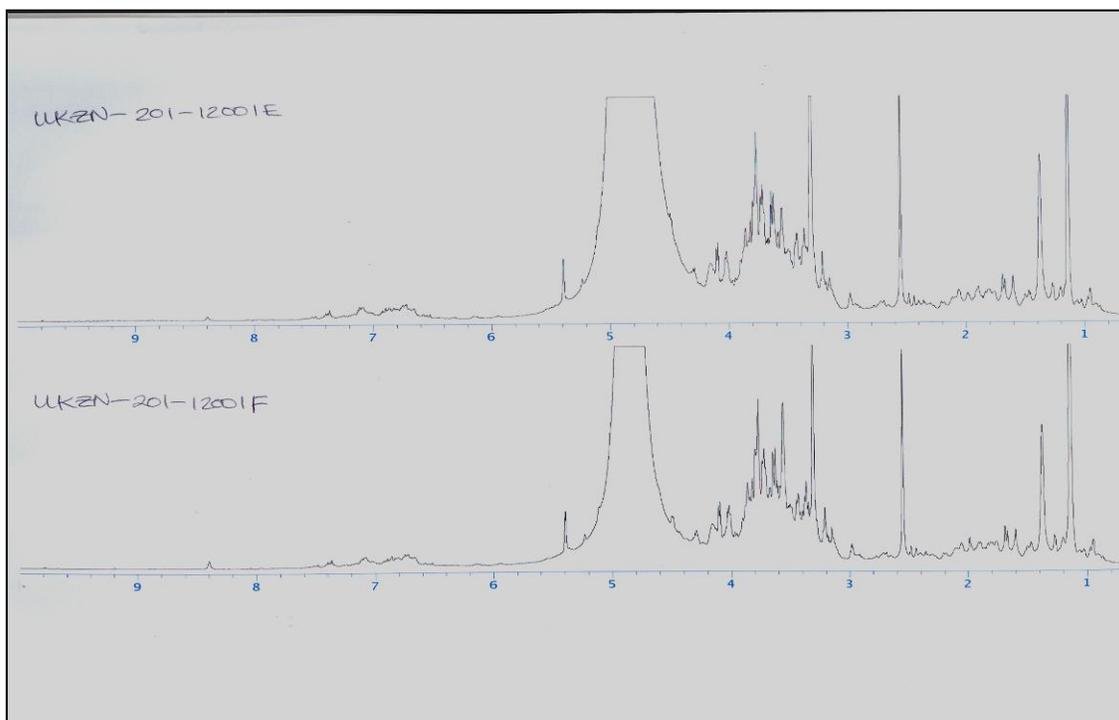


Figure 3.2: The NMR spectrum verifying similarities between sample E and F.

Through visual assessment of the two superimposed sample chromatograms, there appeared similar reproducible peak intensity and peak characters, the retention times and peaks' magnitude also concurred with one another (figure 3.2).

NMR technique is an ideal tool for structural elucidation since it does not separate the analyte hence it remains reusable. As a result NMR is closely identified as a universal detector (Negussie, 2009) and therefore can be ideal for quality control situation.

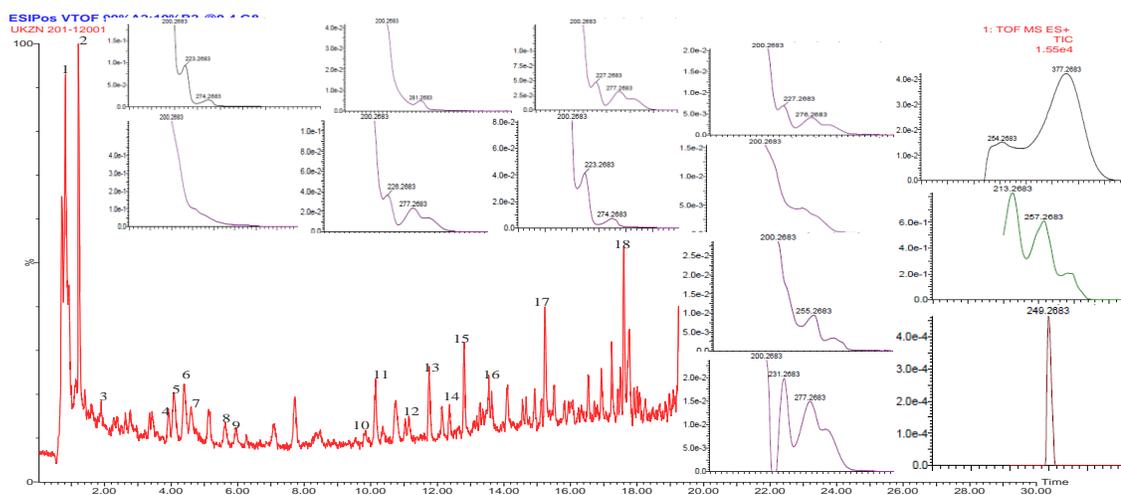
The process involving structural elucidation entails an output signal identified as a characteristic spectrum which is unique for individual atoms and molecules. NMR is not quite sensitive such that a substantial amount of a sample (> 1mg of 1000Da substance) is needed for structural elucidation (Neuhof *et al*, 2005). Another major setback with NMR is its inability to detect low abundant molecules and subsequent detection of stereochemistry. Hence, for effective utilization of NMR it has to be supported by mass spectrometers and chiral chromatography tools (Neuhof *et al*, 2005). Important data that is incumbent for structural elucidation is based on homonuclear NMR, heteronuclear NMR, HMQC-TOCSY and HMBC variables. The homonuclear NMR would provide details on spin characteristics hence it grouped together parts of molecule. Heteronuclear NMR would furnish with fingerprint details of a molecule thus provide data on multiplicity. A HMQC-TOCSY would put together particularly the spin details with dispersion of the heteronuclear spectra. Eventually ^1H , ^{13}C , COSY, HMQC and HMBC would determine the compound which would eventually be conferred to mass spectroscopy output (Neuhof *et al*, 2005).

The reproducibility of the prepared samples was excellent and the NMR spectral analysis of these samples suggested they share the same grouping, spins, bonds and subsequently structures that characterize secondary metabolites to be revealed in UPLC-MS chemical profiling. The ^1H -NMR revealed all characteristic resonances for both E and F samples of *IHL*. The high resolution mass provided by homonuclear NMR is ideally suited for molecular weight higher than 800 otherwise results tends to be ambiguous. The molecular weights (221 - 656) for active compounds of *IHL* did not contradict one another.

In conclusion, NMR was shown to represent a rapid and effective technique for the characterization of complex mixtures similar to that of *IHL*. There was an apparent ease of detection of many compounds that were present in different amounts, with relatively less and quick sample preparation.

3.4.3 Chemical fingerprinting with UPLC-TOF-DAD-MS

Having established similarities of the two samples, one of them (samples E) was submitted for chemical profiling and the chromatogram generated is shown. Furthermore snapshots of individual peaks constituting the chromatogram were highlighted. The chemical fingerprints were generated by highlighting the apex of individual peak and these were used to elucidate the possible structure of each peak with the highest precision.



3.4.4 Chemical fingerprints and Proposed Structures of Identified Compounds

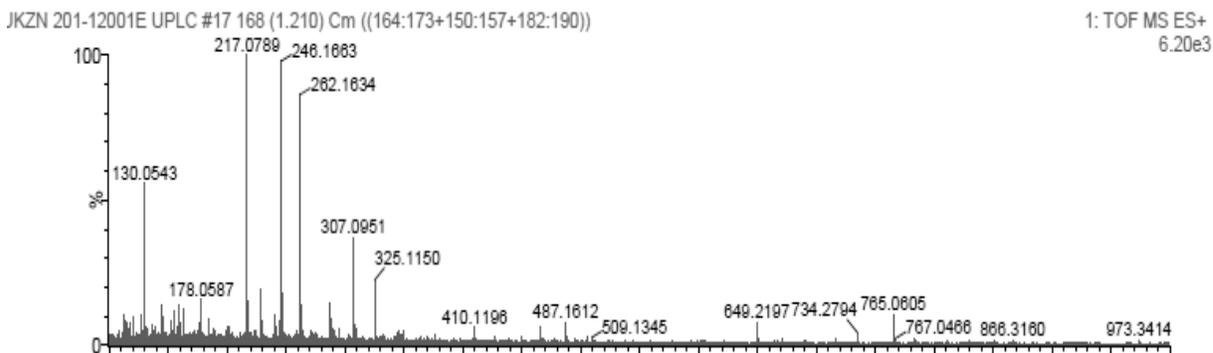


Figure 3.4: High resolution ESI-TOF-MS spectrum in positive mode

Compound 1

Name:	Thalebanin B
Synonym(s):	3-Methylbutanoic acid <i>N</i> -methyl- <i>N</i> -(2-phenylethenyl)amide.
Molecular Formula:	C ₁₄ H ₁₉ NO
Molecular Weight:	217.310
Accurate Mass:	217.146664
Percentage Composition:	C 77.38%; H 8.81%; N 6.45%; O 7.36%
HRESIMS <i>m/z</i>	217.0789, [M] ⁺ , -(calculated for C ₁₄ H ₁₉ NO, 217.1467).

Compound 1: The high resolution mass spectrum HRESIMS in positive mode provided a pseudomolecular ion at m/z 217.0789 $[M]^+$, calculated for $C_{14}H_{19}NO$, 217.1467. The deduced molecular formula of $C_{14}H_{19}NO$ corresponds to the pseudo-molecular ion of compound 1 in the UPLC/UV/ESIMS analysis of the aqueous extract. According to the literature, this molecular formula corresponds to that of several Thalebanin B, a glycomis amide that was isolated from *Glycosmis crassifolia* plant (Greger *et al*, 1996)

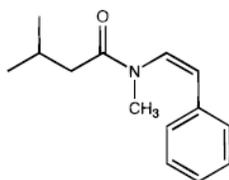


Figure 3.4.1: Proposed structure of Thalebanin

Thalebanin B is a one of the secondary metabolites found present in *IHL*. Thalebanin is a new phenethyl/styrylamine-derived amide isolated from lipophilic leaf extracts of *Glycosmis cf. mauritiana*, *Glycosmis cf. cyanocarpa*, and *Glycosmis crassifolia*. Thalebanin B extraction from dried leaves was first carried out with EtOAc and later purified with EtOAc in hexane. Thalebanin B displayed significant antifungal as well as insecticidal activity against *Cladosporium herbarum* and *Spodoptera littoralis*, respectively (Greger *et al*, 1996).

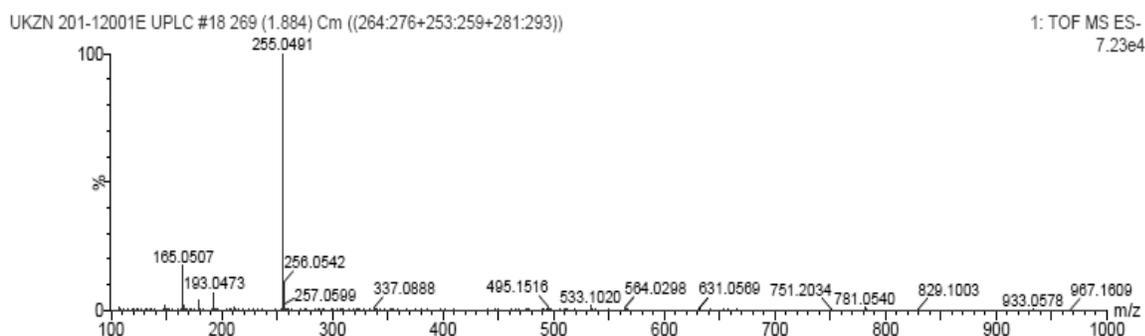


Figure 3.5: High Resolution ESI-TOF-MS spectrum in negative mode

Compound 2

Name:	2-methyl-3-(piperidin-1-yl) naphthalene-1,4-dione
Molecular formula:	$C_{16}H_{17}NO_2$
Molecular mass:	255.2914
Accurate mass:	255.3142
HRESIMS m/z :	256.322 $[M+H]^+$, (calculated for $C_{16}H_{18}NO_2$, 256.322)

Compound 2: The high resolution mass spectrum HRESIMS in negative mode provided a pseudomolecular ion at m/z 256.322 $[M+H]^+$, calculated for $C_{16}H_{18}NO_2$, 255.322. The deduced molecular formula of $C_{13}H_{17}NOS$ corresponds to the pseudo-molecular ion of compound 2 in the UPLC/UV/ESIMS analysis of the aqueous extract. According to the literature, this molecular formula corresponds to that of several *2-methyl-3-(piperidin-1-*

yl) naphthalene-1,4-dione, a naphthoquinone that was isolated from *E. natalensis* plant (Mital *et al*, 2010).

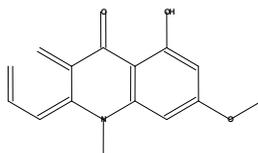


Figure 3.5.1: Proposed structure of 2-methyl-3-(piperidin-1-yl) naphthalene-1,4-dione

2-methyl-3-(piperidin-1-yl) naphthalene-1,4-dione: A new in vitro technique utilized for antimycobacterial tuberculosis screening for new drug research and development was carried out on Tuberculosis antimicrobial acquisition and coordination facility (TAACF)(Collins *et al*, 1997). When anti-*MTB* agent recorded $IC_{90} < 10 \text{mg/mL}$, it was considered active. 2-methyl-3-(piperidin-1-yl) naphthalene-1,4-dione displayed antitubercular activity within 2.40 to 10.88mg/mL range (Mital *et al*, 2010) This compound isolated from *E. natalensis* plant (Mital *et al*, 2010), constituted one of active principles found in *IHL*.

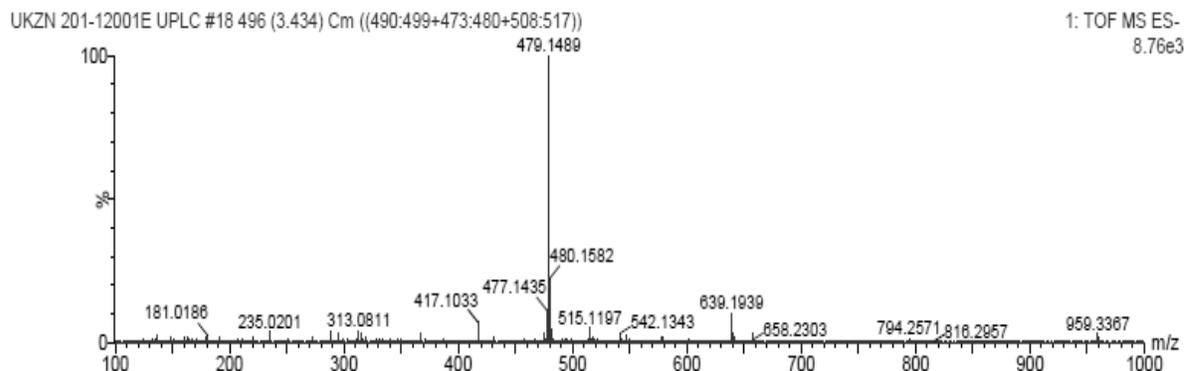


Figure 3.6: High resolution ESI-TOF-MS spectrum in negative mode

Compound 3

Name:	Kuguacin B
Synonym(s):	3,25-Dihydroxycucurbita-5,23-dien-7-one.
Molecular Formula:	$C_{30}H_{48}O_3$
Molecular Weight:	456.707
Accurate Mass:	456.360345
Percentage Composition:	C 78.90%; H 10.59%; O 10.51%
Physical Description:	Crystal.
HRESIMS m/z	479.3511 $[M+Na]^+$, (calculated for $C_{30}H_{48}O_3Na$, 479.3501).

Compound 3: The high resolution mass spectrum HRESIMS in negative mode provided a pseudomolecular ion at m/z 479.3511 $[M+Na]^+$, calculated for $C_{30}H_{48}O_3Na$, 479.3501.

The deduced molecular formula of $C_{30}H_{48}O_3$ corresponds to the pseudo-molecular ion of compound 3 in the UPLC/UV/ESIMS analysis of the aqueous extract. According to the literature, this molecular formula corresponds to that of several **Kuguacin B**, a cucurbitacins that was isolated from *Momordica charantia*, (Chen *et al*, 2008).

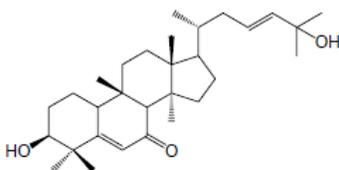


Figure 3.6.1: Proposed structure of Kuguacin B

Compound 3: Kuguacin B is one of the five potentially bioactive cucurbitacins that was extracted with MeOH from the root of *Momordica charantia* L. that proved to possess anti-HIV properties. The study was done in Yunnan, China by Chen and co-workers utilizing indigenous *Momordica charantia* L. species. An *in vitro* investigation into anti-HIV properties of Kuguacin B on C8166 cells however revealed weak anti-HIV activity ($EC_{50} = 12.08 \mu\text{g/mL}$), its selectivity index and cytotoxicity were both 30.9 and $37.35 \mu\text{g/mL}$ respectively (Chen *et al*, 2008).

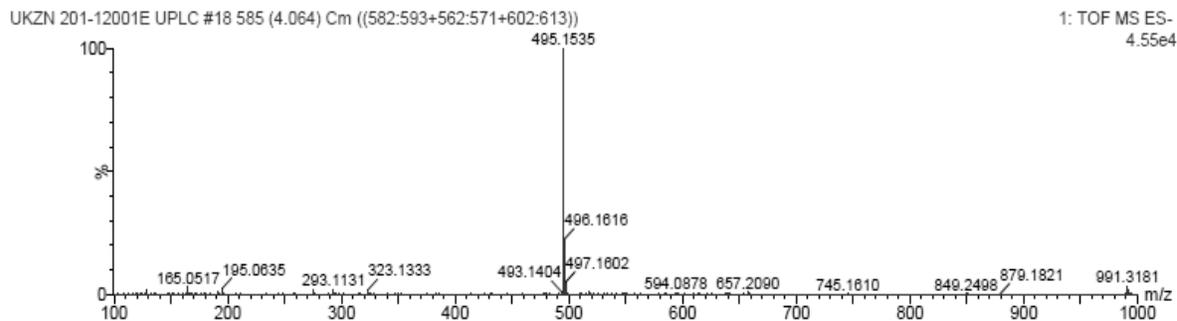


Figure 3.7: High resolution ESI-TOF-MS spectrum in negative mode

Compound 4

Name:	Kuguacin R
Synonym:	5 β , 19-epoxycucurbita-6,23-diene-3 β , 19,25-triol
Molecular Formula:	C ₃₀ H ₄₈ O ₄
Molecular Weight:	472.707
Accurate Mass:	472.35526
Percentage Composition:	C 76.23%; H 10.23%; O 13.54%
HRESIMS <i>m/z</i>:	472.35526 [M+Na] ⁺ , -(calculated for C ₃₀ H ₄₈ O ₄ Na, 495.1535).

Compound 4: The high resolution mass spectrum HRESIMS in negative mode provided a pseudomolecular ion at *m/z* 472.3553 [M-Na]⁻, calculated for C₃₀H₄₈O₄Na, 495.1535. The deduced molecular formula of C₃₀H₄₈O₄ corresponds to the pseudo-molecular ion of compound 4 in the UPLC/UV/ESIMS analysis of the aqueous extract. According to the

literature, this molecular formula corresponds to that of several **Kuguacin R**, a cucurbitane triterpenoid that was isolated from *Momordica foetida Schum* (Mulholland *et al*, 1997).

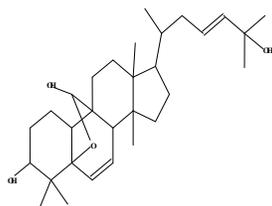


Figure 3.7.1: Proposed structure of Kuguacin R

Kuguacin R is cucurbitane triterpenoid compound that was isolated from *Momordica charantia* (Chen *et al*, 2009). 407mg, 0.000457% fraction obtained over silica gel CC were achieved with CHCl₃/MeOH from 40:1 to 20:1 and MeOH/H₂O in 60:40 to 75: 25 ratios and then Sephadex LH-20 (MeOH). Kuguacin B together with three other cucurbitans displayed antiviral activity *in vitro* that was measured at 23.7µg/mL. The selectivity index (IC₅₀/EC₅₀) and cytotoxicity were both 8.4 and >200 µg/mL, respectively (Chen *et al*, 2009). It was noticed that some literature cited in this work would elaborate on solvents as well as portions of plants used while some could not.

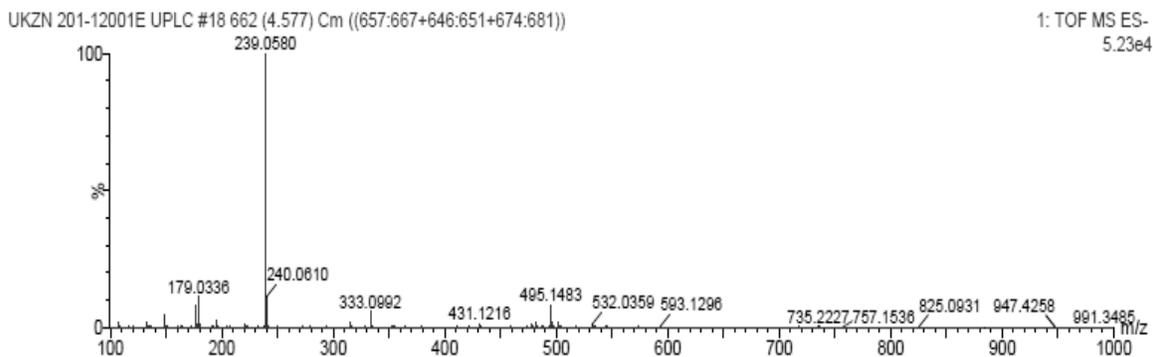


Figure 3.8: High resolution ESI-TOF-MS spectrum in negative mode

Compound 5

Name:	Methylillukumbin A.
Molecular Formula:	$C_{13}H_{15}NOS$
Molecular Weight:	233.334
Accurate Mass:	233.087434
Percentage Composition:	C 66.92%; H 6.48%; N 6.00%; O 6.86%; S 13.74%
HRESIMS m/z :	239.0580 $[M+6H]^+$, (calculated for $C_{13}H_{21}NOS$, 239.134234)

Compound 5: The high resolution mass spectrum HRESIMS in negative mode provided a pseudomolecular ion at m/z 239.0580 $[M+6H]^-$, calculated for $C_{13}H_{21}NOS$, 239.134234. The deduced molecular formula of $C_{13}H_{15}NOS$ corresponds to the pseudomolecular ion of compound 5 in the UPLC/UV/ESIMS analysis of the aqueous extract. According to the literature, this molecular formula corresponds to that of several

Methylillukumbin A, a amide that was isolated from *Glycomis mauritiana* (Greger *et al*, 1996).

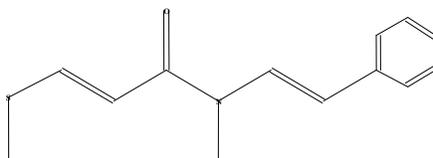


Figure 3.8.1: Proposed structure of Methylillukumbin A

Compound 5: Methylillukumbin A is active principle that was isolated from *Glycomis mauritiana*. The isolated fractions of *G. mauritiana* prepared with Et₂O in hexane, displayed antifungal characteristics according to a study that was done in Sri Lanka (Greger *et al*, 1996). The study further revealed that all amides derived from methylthiopropenoic acid that were joined to styryl were strongly antifungal than phenethyl-amine. The flower of this plant was chewed for toothaches and pyorrhea by Xhosas (Watt and Breyer-Brandwijk, 1962).

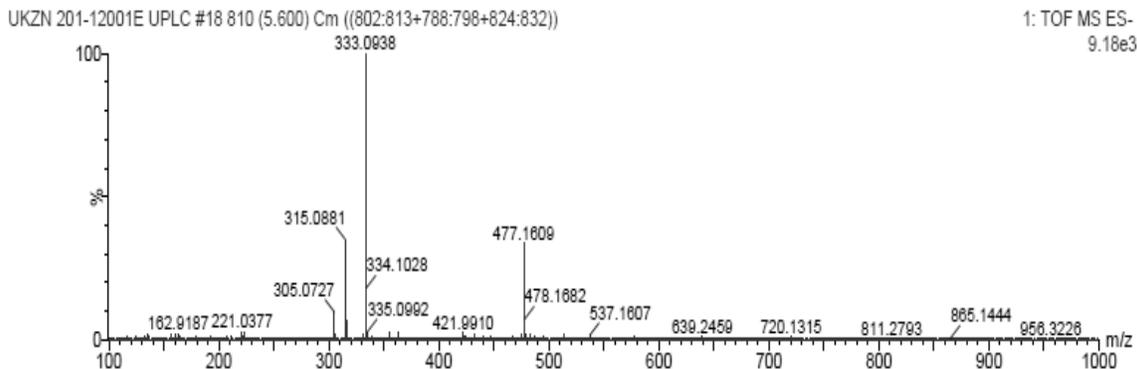


Figure 3.9: High resolution ESI-TOF-MS spectrum in negative mode

Compound 6

Name:	3,5-Dihydroxy-4',7-dimethoxyhomoisoflavanone.
Molecular Formula:	$C_{18}H_{18}O_6$
Molecular Weight:	330.337
Accurate Mass:	330.11034
Percentage Composition:	C 65.45%; H 5.49%; O 29.06%
Physical Description:	Amorphous.
HRESIMS m/z :	333.0938 $[M+3H]^+$, calculated for $C_{18}H_{21}O_6$, 333.13374

Compound 6: The high resolution mass spectrum HRESIMS in negative mode provided a pseudomolecular ion at m/z 333.0938 $[M+3H]^-$, calculated for $C_{18}H_{21}O_6$, 333.13374. The deduced molecular formula of $C_{18}H_{18}O_6$ corresponds to the pseudo-molecular ion of

compound 6 in the UPLC/UV/ESIMS analysis of the aqueous extract. According to the literature, this molecular formula corresponds to that of several **3,5-Dihydroxy-4',7-dimethoxyhomoisoflavanone**, a homoisoflavanoid that was isolated from *Eucomis bicolor* (Jiang *et al*, 2007, Bangani *et al*, 1999, Crouch *et al*, 1999).

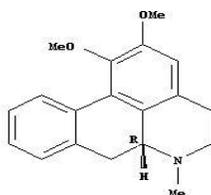


Figure 3.9.1: Proposed structure of 3,5-dihydroxy-4,7-dimethoxyhomoisoflavanone

Compound 6: Homoisoflavanoids such as 3,5-dihydroxy-4,7-dimethoxyhomoisoflavanone forms a special type of flavonoids that are commonly found in Liliaceae family with several biological functions. Homoisoflavanoids have been identified amongst family of Liliaceae such as *Ophiopogon*, *Polygonatum*, *Scilla*, *Eucomis* (*E. bicolor*) and *Muscari* (Jiang *et al*, 2007, Bangani *et al*, 1999, Crouch *et al*, 1999). 3,5-dihydroxy-4,7-dimethoxyhomoisoflavanone is amongst several homoisoflavanoids that have been extracted with pure hot ethanol by refluxing and it was proven to possess several biological function that may include anti-inflammatory, antibacterial, antihistaminic, antimutagenic and angioprotective activities (Jiang *et al*, 2007). However, homoisoflavanoids have also displayed potential phosphodiesterase inhibition (Jiang *et al*, 2007). In Chinese medicine such as *Mai-Dong*, homoisoflavanoids identified from *Ophiopogon japonicus* are specially featured as clinical tonic drug because of their therapeutic effect (Zhou *et al*, 2008, Kou *et al*, 2005, Kou *et al*, 2006).

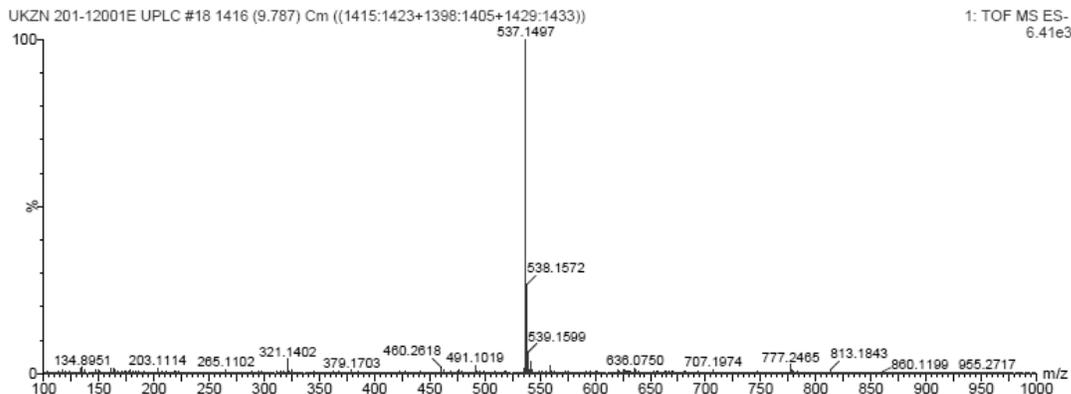


Figure 3.10: High resolution ESI-TOF-MS spectrum in negative mode

Compound 7

Name:	Anhydrocochlioquinone A
Molecular Formula:	$C_{30}H_{42}O_7$
Molecular Weight:	514.658
Accurate Mass:	514.293055
Percentage Composition:	C 70.01%; H 8.23%; O 21.76%
Physical Description:	Amorphous red solid
HRESIMS m/z	537.2826 $[M+Na]^+$, calculated for $C_{30}H_{42}O_7Na$, 537.2826

Compound 7: The high resolution mass spectrum HRESIMS in negative mode provided a pseudomolecular ion at m/z 537.1497 $[M+Na]^+$, calculated for $C_{33}H_{54}O_4 Na$, 537.4016). The deduced molecular formula of $C_{30}H_{42}O_7$ corresponds to the pseudo-molecular ion of compound 7 in the UPLC/UV/ESIMS analysis of the aqueous extract. According to the

literature, this molecular formula corresponds to that of several Anhydrocochlioquinone A, a quinone that was isolated from *Bipolaris oryzae* (Phuwapraisirisan *et al*, 2007).

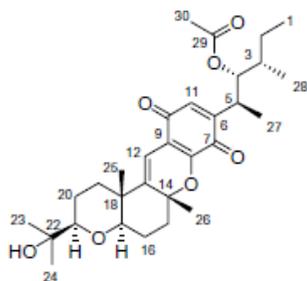


Figure 3.10.1: Proposed structure of Anhydrocochlioquinone A

Anhydrocochlioquinone A: A study conducted on *Bipolaris oryzae* led to the discovery of new antitumour properties for the first time (Phuwapraisirisan *et al*, 2007). Amongst compounds isolated through bioassay-guided fractionation of the EtOAc, anhydrocochlioquinone A was one of the antitumour compounds. Previous studies have reported on cochlioquinones as anti-angiogenic agents (Jung *et al*, 2003) as well as antagonists for human chemokine receptor CCR5, the important drug targets of most anti-HIV agents (Yoganathan *et al*, 2004). Cochlioquinones however displayed moderate to weak cytotoxicity hence displaying anti-cancer activity which could be achieved either via anti-angiogenesis or apoptosis. Nevertheless, cochlioquinone A inhibited diacylglycerol kinase enzyme that is crucial for the induction of apoptosis in melanoma cells (Machida *et al*, 1995, Yanagisawa *et al*, 2007).

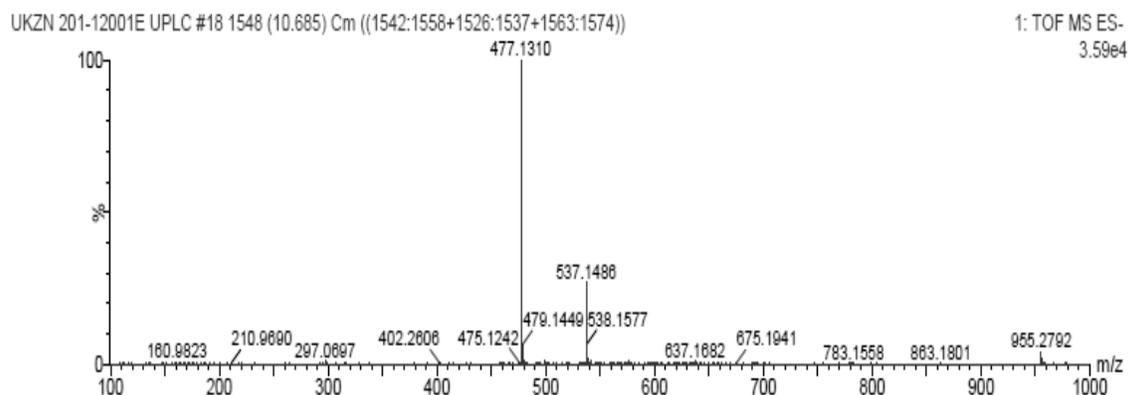


Figure 3.11: High resolution ESI-TOF-MS spectrum in negative mode

Compound 8

Name:	Kuguacin J
Synonym	(23E)-3b-hydroxy-7b-methoxycucurbita- 5,23,25-trien-19-al
Molecular Formula:	$C_{30}H_{46}O_3$
Molecular Weight:	456.707
Accurate Mass:	456.360345
Percentage Composition:	C 78.90%; H 10.59%; O 10.51%
Physical Description:	Crystal (MeOH)
HRESIMS m/z	477.3603 $[M+Na]^+$, (calculated for $C_{30}H_{45}O_3Na$, 477.3603)

Compound 8: The high resolution mass spectrum HRESIMS in negative mode provided a pseudomolecular ion at m/z 477.1310 $[M+Na]^-$, calculated for $C_{30}H_{45}O_3Na$, 477.3603. The deduced molecular formula of $C_{30}H_{46}O_3$ corresponds to the pseudo-molecular ion of compound 8 in the UPLC/UV/ESIMS analysis of the aqueous extract. According to the literature, this molecular formula corresponds to that of several Kuguacin J, a sterol that was isolated from *Momordica charantia* (Kimura *et al*, 2005).

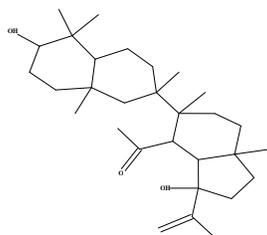


Figure 3.11.1: Proposed structure of Kuguacin J

Kuguacin J: The current drug regimen seems to lose potency when particularly managing multidrug resistance especially witnessed in cancer patients who undergo chemotherapy (Pitchakarn *et al*, 2011). Resistance displayed by patients undergoing chemotherapy is mainly associated with the overexpression of ATP-binding cassette (ABC) drug transporters such as P-glycoprotein (P-gp) that is responsible for effluxing drugs from cancerous cells (Anuchapreeda *et al*, 2002, Larsen *et al*, 2000, Lehnert, 1998, Schoenlein *et al*, 1992). Pitchakarn and co-workers have previously established that *Momordica charantia*, bitter melon leaf extract (BMLE) could reverse MDR phenotype through onsite upregulation of intracellular accumulation of chemotherapeutic drugs. Kuguacin J has proved to be the main principle found in BMLE also established that enhanced sensitivity to vinblastine and paclitaxel in KB-V1 cells (Pitchakarn *et al*, 2011) through inhibition of drug transport activity of P-gp thereby upregulated onsite accumulation of rhodamine and calcein Am in cells. The study further revealed that

kuguacin J which was subfractionated with 95% EtOH also inhibited [125I]-iodoarylazidoprazosin into P-gp in a dose-dependant manner which signifies that kuguacin J directly interact with the agent's drug binding site.

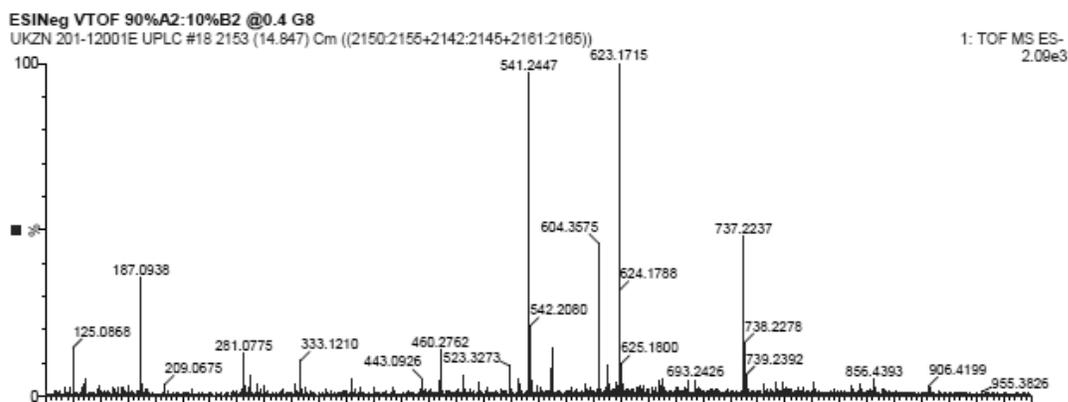


Figure 3.12: High resolution ESI-TOF-MS spectrum in positive mode

Compound 9

Name:	Verbascoside
Synonym(s):	Acteoside/Kusagin. in.
Molecular Formula:	C ₂₉ H ₃₆ O ₁₅
Molecular Weight:	624.594
Accurate Mass:	624.205425
Percentage Composition:	C 55.77%; H 5.81%; O 38.42%
Physical Description:	Yellow powder
HRESIMS m/z	623.1489 [M-H] ⁻ , calculated for C ₂₉ H ₃₅ O ₁₅ , 623.1976

Compound 9: The high resolution mass spectrum HRESIMS in negative mode provided a pseudomolecular ion at m/z 623.1489, $[M-H]^-$, calculated for $C_{29}H_{35}O_{15}$, 623.1976. The deduced molecular formula of $C_{29}H_{35}O_{15}$ corresponds to the pseudo-molecular ion of compound 9 in the UPLC/UV/ESIMS analysis of the aqueous extract. According to the literature, this molecular formula corresponds to that of several Verbascoside, a phenolic antioxidant that was isolated *Clerodendrum hirsutum* (Cooper *et al*, 1980, Pardo *et al*, 1993).

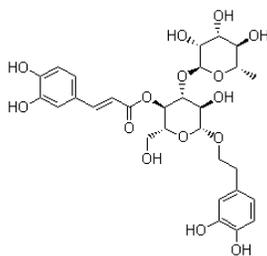


Figure 3.12.1: Proposed structure of Verbascoside

Verbascoside is an active principle that was isolated from *Clerodendrum hirsutum* species exhibiting antimicrobial properties (Cooper *et al*, 1980, Pardo *et al*, 1993). Dirdry *et al.* (1999) discovered antibacterial properties of the same species whereby verbascoside proved active against both Gram positive and Gram negative bacteria. The study further demonstrated moderate antimicrobial properties against *Proteus mirabilis* and *Staphylococcus aureus* as well as to methicilin resistant strains. In southern Africa, verbascoside isolated from *Clerodendrum myricoides* proved to have antimicrobial properties (Cooper *et al*, 1980; Pardo *et al*, 1993) and the plant species was particularly used by Zulus for snakebites (Watt and Breyer-Brandwijk, 1962). Vasorelaxant (Hennebelle *et al*, 2008) and respiratory syncytial virus were amongst properties

verbascoside was known for (Chen *et al*, 1998, Kernan *et al*, 1998). However it has been recently established that verbascoside also bear antiviral activity against both HSV-1/2. Verbascoside was extracted from *Lepechinia speciosa* with ethanol and later fractionated with EtOAc: MeOH (6:1) yielding 212mg powder. The concentrations of the compound required to reduce HSV-1 and 2 by 50% were 58µg/mL and 8.9µg/mL respectively (Martins *et al*, 2009).

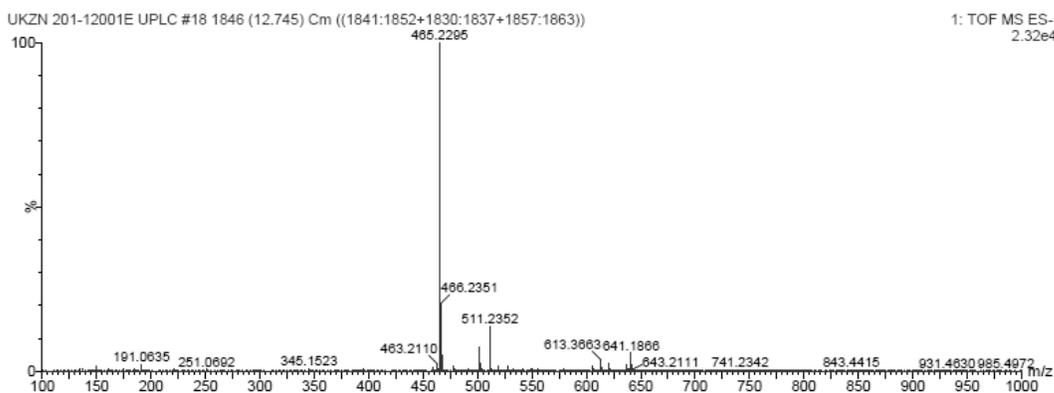


Figure 3.13: High resolution ESI-TOF-MS spectrum in negative mode

Compound 10

Name:	Quercetin 3-O-β-D-glucopyranoside
Molecular Formula:	C ₂₁ H ₂₁ O ₁₂
Molecular Weight:	465.390
Accurate Mass:	465.103305
Percentage Composition:	C 54.20%; H 4.55%; O 41.25%
HRESIMS <i>m/z</i>	465.1033 [M+H] ⁺ , calculated for C ₂₁ H ₂₁ O ₁₂ , 465.1033

Compound 10: The high resolution mass spectrum HRESIMS in negative mode provided. The deduced molecular formula of $C_{21}H_{21}O_{12}$ corresponds to the pseudo-molecular ion of compound 10 in the UPLC/UV/ESIMS analysis of the aqueous extract. According to the literature, this molecular formula corresponds to that of several Quercetin 3-O- β -D-glucopyranoside, an amide that was isolated from *C. infortunatum* (Roy *et al*, 1996).

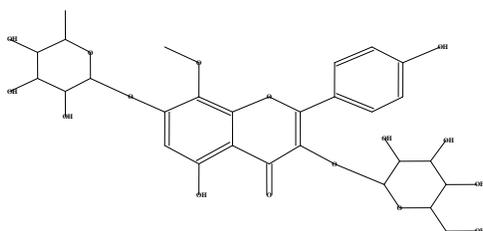


Figure 3.13.1: Proposed structure of Quercetin 3-O- β -D-Glucopyranoside

One compound in our tonic matched a flavanoid identified as **Quercetin 3-O- β -D-Glucopyranoside** or 7-O- β -L-Rhamnopyranoside according to an antifungal research conducted by Roy *et al.* (1996). The quercetin flavanoid was isolated from the root of *C. lerodendrum infortunatum* to which the bioassay displayed strong antifungal activity when tested against *Alternaria carthami* and *Helminthosporin oryzae* at concentrations 200, 500 and 1000mg/mL (Roy *et al*, 1996). Furthermore, the methanol extract of the root exudate of *Rhodolia rosea* proved to be active (MIC=50 μ g/mL) against *S. aureus*. The bioactivity-guided fractionation of the stem of *R. rosea* yielded gossypetin 7-O- β -L-rhamnopyranoside as one of the active compounds. When antibacterial and anticancer (prostate cell line) evaluation were done, this compound displayed inhibitory activity at 50 μ g/mL and 100 μ g/mL concentrations respectively. 7-O- β -L-rhamnopyranoside exhibited cytotoxicity at 50 μ g/mL (Ming *et al*, 2005).

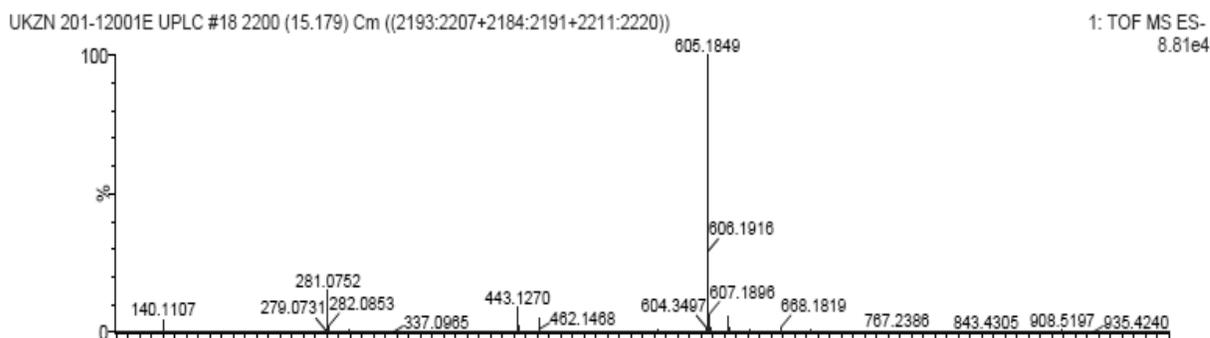


Figure 3.14: High resolution ESI-TOF-MS spectrum in negative mode

Compound 11

Name:	Isoferuloyllupeol
Synonym(s):	3-(3-Hydroxy-4-methoxy-E-cinnamoyl)
Molecular Formula:	$C_{40}H_{58}O_4$
Molecular Weight:	602.896
Accurate Mass:	602.43351
Percentage Composition:	C 79.69%; H 9.70%; O 10.62%
Physical Description:	Crystal.
HRESISM m/z	605.1849 $[M+3H]^+$, - (calculated for $C_{40}H_{61}O_4$, 605.1849)

Compound 11: The high resolution mass spectrum HRESIMS in negative mode provided a pseudomolecular ion at m/z 605.1849 $[M-3H]^-$, calculated for $C_{40}H_{61}O_4$, 605.1849. The deduced molecular formula of $C_{40}H_{58}O_4$ corresponds to the pseudo-

molecular ion of compound 11 in the UPLC/UV/ESIMS analysis of the aqueous extract. According to the literature, this molecular formula corresponds to that of several Isoferuloyllupeol, a triterpenoid that was isolated from *Euclea natalensis* (Weigenand *et al.*, 2004).

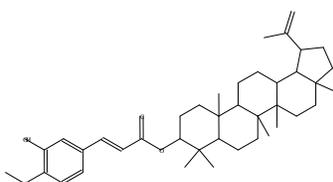


Figure 3.14.1: Proposed structure of Isoferuloyllupeol

Isoferuloyllupeol: *Euclea natalensis* revealed one of its active principles extracted with ethanol as isoferuloyllupeol together with other triterpenoids. Other compounds such as shinanolone, lupeol and betulin that were also extracted with ethanol displayed activity (MIC=100µg/mL) against *MTB* H37RV strain. This compound showed activity when tested against *Bacillus pumilus* at 100µg/mL in which streptomycin sulfate as a positive control displayed growth inhibition against bacterial strain at 10µg/mL with the exception of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* when the radiometric Bactec system was used (Weigenand *et al.*, 2004).

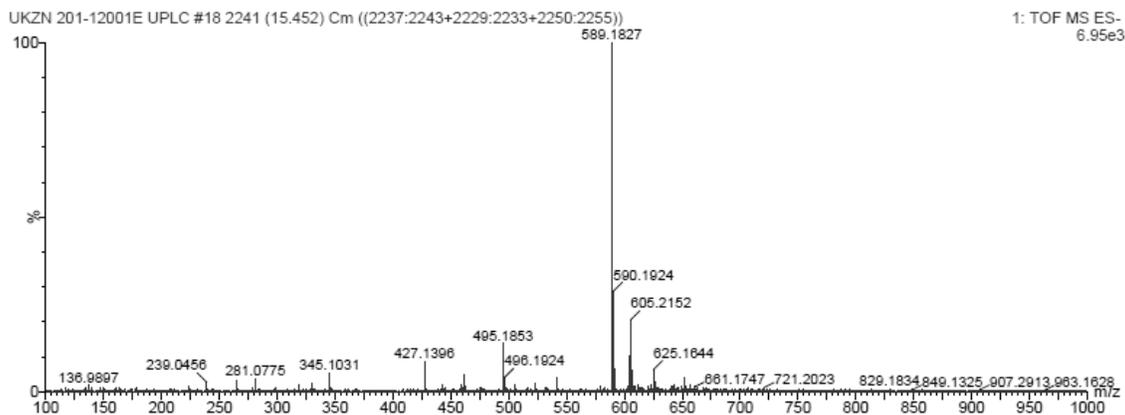


Figure 3.15: High resolution ESI-TOF-MS spectrum in negative mode

Compound 12

Name:	Mauritine H
Molecular Formula:	$C_{33}H_{43}N_5O_5$
Molecular Weight:	589.733
Accurate Mass:	589.32642
Percentage Composition:	C 67.21%; H 7.35%; N 11.88%; O 13.56%
Physical Description:	Cryst. (MeOH/petrol)
HRESIMS m/z	589.1827 $[M]^-$, -(calculated for $C_{33}H_{43}N_5O_5$, 589.1827)

Compound 12: The high resolution mass spectrum HRESIMS in negative mode provided a molecular ion at m/z 589.1827 calculated for $C_{33}H_{43}N_5O_5$, 589.1827. The deduced molecular formula of $C_{33}H_{43}N_5O_5$ corresponds to the pseudo-molecular ion of

compound 12 in the UPLC/UV/ESIMS analysis of the aqueous extract. According to the literature, this molecular formula corresponds to that of several Mauritine H, a cyclopeptide alkaloid that was isolated from *Zizyphus mauritiana* (Pandey *et al*, 1990; Tschesche *et al*, 1977).

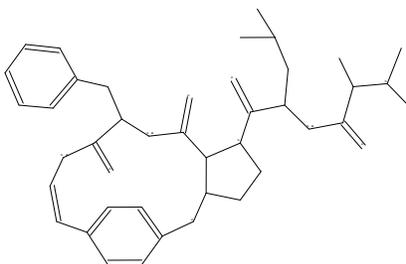


Figure 3.15.1: Proposed structure of Mauritine H

Mauritine H: Previous studies have revealed the presence of mauritine H that was isolated from *Zizyphus mauritiana*. Mauritine H possesses sedative, analgesic, anti-inflammatory, hypoglycaemic, antibacterial and antifungal properties (Pandey *et al*, 1990; Tschesche *et al*, 1977). Some of the active compounds isolated in *Z. mauritiana* included cyclopeptides alkaloids, mauritine A and B (Tschesche *et al*, 1977).

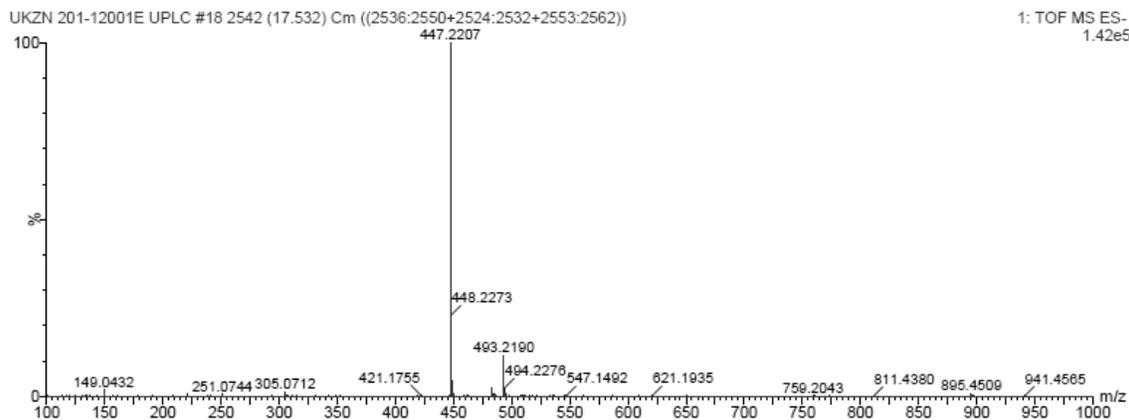


Figure 3.16: High resolution ESI-TOF-MS spectrum in negative mode

Compound 13

Name:	Kaempferol 3-β-D-glucoside.
Synonym:	Astragalin
Molecular Formula:	$C_{21}H_{20}O_{11}$
Molecular Weight:	448.382
Accurate Mass:	448.100565
Percentage Composition:	C 56.25%; H 4.50%; O 39.25%
HRESIMS m/z	447,0928 $[M-H]^-$, calculated for $C_{21}H_{19}O_{11}$, 447.0928

Compound 13: The high resolution mass spectrum HRESIMS in negative mode provided a pseudomolecular ion at m/z 447,0928 $[M-H]^-$, calculated for $C_{21}H_{19}O_{11}$, 447.0928. The deduced molecular formula of $C_{24}H_{34}O_7$ corresponds to the pseudomolecular ion of compound 13 in the UPLC/UV/ESIMS analysis of the aqueous extract.

According to the literature, this molecular formula corresponds to that of several **Kaempferol**, a flavanoid that was isolated from *Clerodendrum infortunatum* (Shrivastava and Patel, 2007).

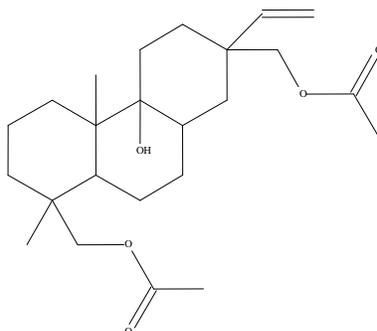


Figure 3.16.1: Proposed structure of Astragalin

Compound 13: Astragalin also known as Kaempferol-3-*O*-Glucoside is an astragalus flavanoid that is found in *Astragalus corniculatus* Bieb, *A. vesicarius* L, *A. ponticus* Pall all belong to *Fabaceae* family. Astragals is particularly used by Bulgarian folk medicine as a diuretic for managing hypertension, renal disorder, nervous disease and rheumatism. Strong antioxidant activities and immune boosting qualities particularly the renewal of immune cells was also observed. Because of the plant's antimicrobial activities, it finds wide application especially to PLWA (Ivancheva *et al*, 2006). However, other feature such as diuretic effect makes it useful to individuals with high blood pressure. Mild antiviral activity has been attributed to astragalin however several prominent compound including quercetin, luteolin and rutin synergistically enhanced the anticipated health benefits (Krasteva *et al*, 2000). In another study kaempferol was isolated from *Clerodendrum* species where it is most prevalent as a flavanoid (Shrivastava and Patel, 2007).

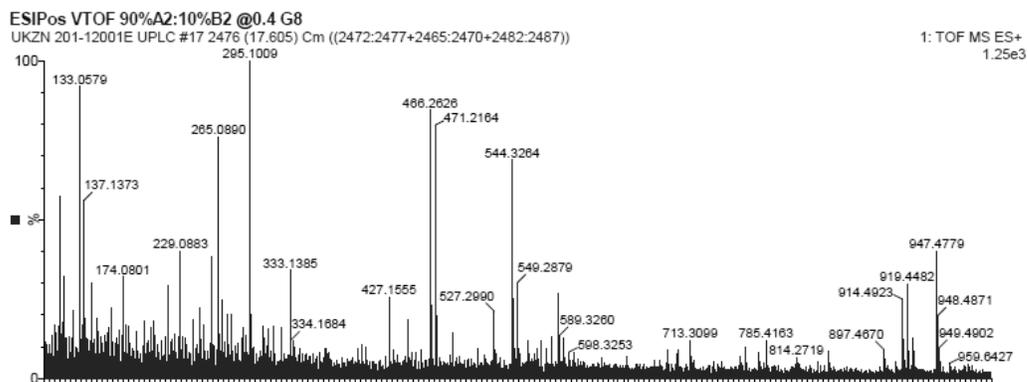


Figure 3.17: High resolution ESI-TOF-MS spectrum in positive mode

Compound 14

Name:	Nuciferine
Synonym(s):	1,2-Dimethoxyaporphine/Sanjoinine E.
Molecular Formula:	$C_{19}H_{21}NO_2$
Molecular Weight:	295.380
Accurate Mass:	295.157229
Percentage Composition:	C 77.26%; H 7.17%; N 4.74%; O 10.83%
HRESIMS m/z	295.1572 $[M]^+$, calculated for $C_{19}H_{21}NO_2$, 295.1572.

Compound 14: The high resolution mass spectrum HRESIMS in negative mode provided a pseudomolecular ion at m/z 295.1572 $[M]^+$, calculated for $C_{19}H_{21}NO_2$, 295.1572. The deduced molecular formula of $C_{19}H_{21}NO_2$ corresponds to the pseudo-

molecular ion of compound 14 in the UPLC/UV/ESIMS analysis of the aqueous extract. According to the literature, this molecular formula corresponds to that of several **Nuciferine**, a alkaloid from *Nelumbo lutea* (Nelumbonaceae) and *Colubrina faralaotra* (Rhamnaceae), also from the Araceae, Berberidaceae, Lauraceae, Menispermaceae, Papaveraceae, Magnoliaceae and Annonaceae (Watt and Breyer-Brandwijk, 1962).

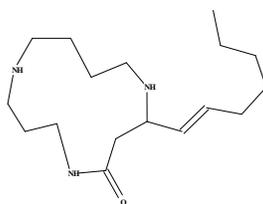


Figure 3.17.1: Proposed structure of Nuciferin

Nuciferin was isolated from *Croton gratissimus*. Burnt powder bark of *C. gratissimus* was used by Sothos for bleeding gums and leaves mixture for smoking rheumatism in patients (Watt and Breyer-Brandwijk, 1962). Nuciferin occurrence is widespread, it has also been isolated from (*Nelumbo nucifera* Gaertn.) leaves, a perennial species that is most prevalent in southern China where it is considered as foodstuff (Xu *et al*, 2011). Chinese traditional medicine has applied the species for heat resolution as well as to stop bleeding (Kashiwada *et al*, 2005). Previous studies revealed active alkaloids as some useful components with antioxidants (Cho *et al*, 2003) antimicrobial (Agnihotri *et al*, 2008) and anti-HIV (Kashiwada *et al*, 2005) properties.

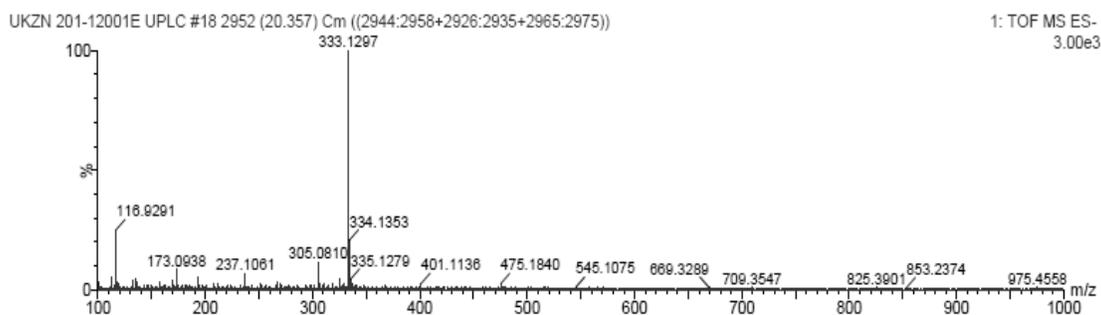


Figure 3.18: High resolution ESI-TOF-MS spectrum in negative mode

Compound 15

Name:	Narcissidine
Molecular Formula:	$C_{18}H_{23}NO_5$
Molecular Weight:	333.383
Accurate Mass:	333.157624
Percentage Composition:	C 64.85%; H 6.95%; N 4.20%; O 24.00%
HRESIMS m/z	333.0140 $[M]^+$, (calculated for $C_{18}H_{23}NO_5$, 333.0140)

Compound 15: The high resolution mass spectrum HRESIMS in positive mode provided a pseudomolecular ion at m/z 333.1297 $[M]^+$, calculated for $C_{18}H_{23}NO_5$, 333.0140. The deduced molecular formula of $C_{18}H_{23}NO_5$ corresponds to the pseudo-molecular ion of compound 15 in the UPLC/UV/ESIMS analysis of the aqueous extract. According to the literature, this molecular formula corresponds to that of several Narcissidine, an

amaryllidaceae alkaloid that was isolated from *Narcissus poeticus* (many other spp. in the Amaryllidaceae) (Martin, 1987).

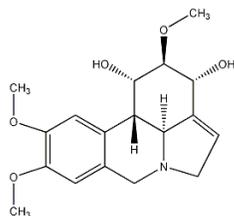


Figure 3.18.1: Proposed structure of Narcissidine

Narcissidine is an amaryllidaceae alkaloid that was isolated from *Narcissus* cultivar species (Martin, 1987). These types of alkaloids have biological function ranging from antiviral (Martin, 1987, Gabrielsen *et al*, 1999, Ghosal *et al*, 1988), immunostimulant (Ghosal *et al*, 1984), analgesic (Kametani *et al*, 1971), antimalarial (Likhitwitayawuid *et al*, 1993) and insect antifeedant (Martin, 1987, Ghosal *et al*, 1984). In another study, narcissidine that was isolated from *Narcissus tazetta* used to treat JE virus infected mice, displayed no difference between control and treated mice which experienced prolonged survival term (Furusawa *et al*, 1970).

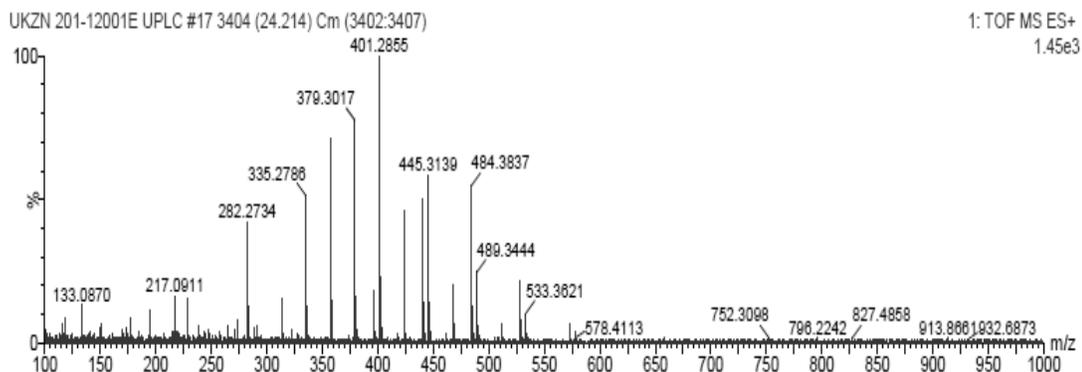


Figure 3.19: High resolution ESI-TOF-MS spectrum in positive mode

Compound 16

Name:	Diosindigo A
Molecular Formula:	$C_{24}H_{20}O_6$
Molecular Weight:	404.418
Accurate Mass:	404.12599
Percentage Composition:	C 71.28%; H 4.98%; O 23.74%
Physical Description:	Blue needles (petrol)
HRESIMS m/z	217.1027 $[M+H]^+$, (calculated for $C_{24}H_{20}O_6$, 217.1027)

Compound 16: The high resolution mass spectrum HRESIMS in positive mode provided a pseudomolecular ion at m/z 217.1027 $[M+3H]^+$, calculated for $C_{14}H_{27}NO$, 217.1027. The deduced molecular formula of $C_{14}H_{23}NO$ corresponds to the pseudo-molecular ion of

compound 16 in the UPLC/UV/ESIMS analysis of the aqueous extract. According to the literature, this molecular formula corresponds to that of several Diosindigo A, a naphthoquinone that was isolated from *Euclea natalensis* (Watt and Breyer-Brandwijk, 1962).

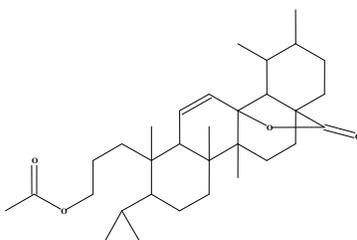


Figure 3.19.1: Proposed structure of Diosindigo A

Diosindigo A is one of the four naphthoquinones that was fractionated from root macerate of *Euclea natalensis* (van der Vijver, 1975). Furthermore, diosindigo A forms one of the isolated compounds from the root bark of *Diospyros usambarensis* that exhibited antifungal and molluscicidal properties (Marston *et al*, 1984). Death associated with the administration of *E. natalensis* is specifically confined to the utilization of the stem bark which is thought to possess strong cathartic effects (Cunningham, 1988).

Table 3.0: Summary of the 16 proposed compounds that were identified with UPLC-MS.

Peak	Ret time (min)	M/Z [M] ⁺	Assignment
1.	1.19	217	Thalebanin B
2.	1.9	255	2-methyl-3-(piperidin-1-yl) naphthalene-1..
3.	3.4	479	Kuguacin B
4.	4.38	495	Kuguacin R
5.	4.58	233	Methylillukumbin A.
6.	5.6	333	3,5-Dihydroxy-4',7....
7.	9.8	537	Anhydrocochlioquinone A
8.	10.8	477	Kuguacin J
9.	12.3	624	Verbascoside
10.	12.8	465	Quercetin
11.	15.2	602	Isoferuloyllupeol
12.	15.5	589	Mauritine H
13.	17.5	447	Kaempferol
14.	17.6	295	Nuciferine
15.	20.5	333	Narcissidine
16.	27.8	404	Diosindigo A

[M]⁺ denotes a molecular ion

The UPLC-MS system is an alternate method of choice for structural elucidation especially when co-eluting contaminants intervene. Although NMR and other chemical profiling techniques may suffice, an MS however remains the main tool geared for such purposes. Hence the fragmentation patterns or chemical fingerprints that can only be achieved in the presence of a high mass accuracy, MSⁿ fragmentation still remains very crucial (Technical Report vol 20). LCMS-TOF helps separate analytes from impurities. From the MSⁿ data acquired, structural composition and fragment patterns can be determined. Thus the UPLC-MS system has proven ideal for metabolites studies owing to

its utilization of several data analysis techniques that include peak picking, putative identification and alignment. Results confirmation was thereby made possible by variables such as retention times, mass and intensity that are derived from a full mass spectrum of a chromatogram (Negussie, 2009).

3.5 References:

1. **Agnihotri V.K, El Sohly H.N, Jacob M.R, Joshi V.C, Khan I.A, Khan S.I, Smillie T, Walker L.A.** 2008. Constituents of *Nelumbo nucifera* leaves and their antimalarial and antifungal activity. *Phytochem. Lett.* **1**: 89-93
2. **Anuchapreeda S, Ambudkar S.V, Leechanachai P, Limtrakul P.N, Smith M.M.** 2002. Modulation of P-glycoprotein expression and function by curcumin in multidrug-resistant human KB cells. *Biochem Pharmacol* **64**:573–82
3. **Ballell L, Duncan K, Field R.A, Young R.J.** 2005. New small-molecule synthetic antimycobacterials. *Antimicrob. Agents* **49**: 2153-2163.
4. **Bangani V, Crouch N.R, Mulholland D.A.** 1999. *Phytochemistry* **51**: 947.
5. **Chen J, Lu L, Qui M, Tian R, Zhang Z, Zheng Y.** 2008. Trinorcucurbitane triterpenoids from the root of *Momordica charantia*. *Phytochemistry* **69**: 1043-1048
6. **Chen J.L, Balick M, Blanc P, Bogan M, Cooper R, Kernan M.R, Nanakorn W, Parkinson N, Rozhon E.J, Stoddart C.A, Ye Z.** 1998. New iridoids from the medicinal plant *Barleria prionitis* with potent activity against respiratory syncytial virus. *Journal of Natural Products* **61**:1295-1297

-
7. **Chen J.S, Li Z.R, Liu W.Q, Lu L, Qui M.H, Yang L.M, Zhang X. M, Zheng Y, T, Zhou L.** 2009. Kuguacins F-S, cucurbitane triterpenoids from *Momordica charantia*. *Phytochemistry* **70**: 133-140
 8. **Cho E.J, Kim S.C, Park J.C, Rhyu D.Y, Shibahara N, Yokozawa T.** 2003. Study on the inhibitory effects of Korean medicinal plants and their main compounds on the 1,1-diphenyl-2-picrylhydrazyl radical. *Phytomedicine* **10**: 544-551
 9. **Collins L. A, Franzblau S. G.** 1997. *Antimicrob. Agents Chemother* **41**: 1004
 10. **Cooper R, Kubo I, Nakanisht K, Occolowitz J.L, Shoolery J.N, Solomon P.H.** 1980. Myricoides and African armyworm antifeedant separation by droplet countercurrent chromatography. *Journal of American Chemical Society* **102**: 7953-7955
 11. **Cox P.A, Ballick M.J.** 1994. The ethnobotanical approach to drug discovery. *Scientific American* **270**: 60-65
 12. **Crouch N.R, Bangani V, Mulholland D.A.** 1999. *Phytochemistry* **51**: 943.
 13. **Cunningham A.B.** 1988. An investigation of the herbal medicine trade in Natal/KwaZulu. University of Natal, Institute of Natural Resources, Pietermaritzburg.
 14. **Didry N, Bailleul F, Dubreuil L, Tillequin F, Seidel V.** 1999. Isolation and antibacterial activity of phenylpropanoid derivatives from *Ballota nigra*. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology* **67**: 197-202
 15. **Drozd B, Bloszyk E.** 1978. *Planta Med.* **33**:379.

-
16. **Farnsworth N.R. 1993.** Ethnopharmacology and future drug development. The North American experience. *Journal of ethnopharmacol* **38**: 45-152
 17. **Furusawa E, Cutting W.** 1970. *Ann. N. Y. Acad. Sci* 173: 668
 18. **Gabrielsen B, Hollingshead M, Huggins J. W, Kirsi J. J, Monath T. P, Pettit G. R, Shannon W. M.** 1992. In *Natural Products as Antiviral Agents*, **Chu C. K, Cutler H. G**, Eds. Plenum Press: *New York* 121-135
 19. **Ghosal S, Chattopadhyay S, Kumar Y, Singh S. K, Unnkrishnan S.** 1988. *Planta Med* **54**: 114-116
 20. **Greger H, Zechner G.** 1996. Bioactive Amides from *Glycomis* species. *J.Nat. Prod.* **59**: 1163-1168
 21. **Hall RD.** 2006. Plant metabolomics: from holistic hope, to hype, to hot topic. *New Phytologist* **169**: 453 – 468
 22. **Hennebelle T, Bailleul F, Joseph H, Sahpaz S.** 2008. Ethnopharmacology of *Lippia alba* - *Journal of Ethnopharmacology* **116**:211–222
 23. **Hess A.V.I.** 2004. Digitally-Enhanced Thin Layer Chromatography: An Inexpensive, New Technique for Qualitative and Quantitative Analysis. 1-20
 24. **Ivancheva S, Nikolova M, Tsvetkova R.**2006. Pharmacological activities and biologically active compounds of Bulgarian medicinal plants. *Phytochemistry: Advances in Research* 87-103
 25. **Jiang H.B, Guo M.J, Huang J, Tian X.Q, Zou P.** 2007. *Acta Pharm. Sin* **42**: 118
 26. **Jung H. J, Kim, C.-J, Kwon H.J, Lee H. B, Lim C-H.** 2003. *Bioorg. Med. Chem* **11**: 4743–4747

-
27. **Kametani T, Fukumoto K, Hayasaka T. J, Hiiragi M, Kigasawa K, Satoh F, Seino C, Shibuya S, Yamaki K.** 1971. *Chem. Soc* 1043-1047
 28. **Kasiwada Y, Aoshima A, Chen Y.P, Consentino L.M, Fujioka T, Furukawa H, Ikeshiro Y, Itoigawa M, Lee K.H, Mihashi J, Morris-Natschke S.L.** 2005. Anti-HIV benzyloquinoline alkaloids and flavonoids from the leaves of *Nelumbo nucifera* and structure-activity correlation with related alkaloids. *Bioorg. Med. Chem* **13**: 443-448
 29. **Kelsey R.G, Bhadane N.R, Morris M.S, Shafizadeh F.**1973. *Phytochemistry* 12:1345
 30. **Kernan M.R, Amarquaye A, Bales C, Barrett M, Blanc P, Chan J, Chen J.L, Limbach C, Mrisho S, Parkinson N, Rozhon E.J, Sesin D.F, Sloan B, Stoddart C.A, Ye Z.** 1998. Antiviral phenylpropanoid glycoside from the medicinal plant *Markhamia lutea*. *Journal of Natural Products* **61**:564-570.
 31. **Ke'ry A. Turia'k G.Y, Za'mbo' I. Te'te'nyi P.** 1987. *Acta Pharm. Hung* **57**: 228.
 32. **Kimura Y, Akihisa T, Motohashi S, Suzuki T, Tokuda H, Toriyama M, Ukiya M, Yuasa N.** 2005. Cucurbitane-type triterpenoids from the fruit of *Momordica charantia*. *J. Nat Prod* **68**: 807-809
 33. **Kou J.P, Cheng Z.H, Lin Y.W, Sun Y, Xu Q, Yu B.Y, Zheng W.** 2005. *Bio. Pharm. Bull* **28**: 1234
 34. **Kou JP, Tian YQ, Yan J, Yu BY.** 2006. *Biol. Pharm. Bull* **29**:1267.

-
35. **Larsen A.K, Escargueil A.E, Skladanowski A.** 2000. Resistance mechanisms associated with altered intracellular distribution of anticancer agents. *Pharmacol Ther* **85**:217–29
36. **Lehnert M.** 1998. Chemotherapy resistance in breast cancer. *Anticancer Res*:18.
37. **Likhitwitayawuid K, Angerhofer C. K, Chai H, Cordell G, Pezzuto J.M.A.** 1993. *J. Nat. Prod* **56**: 1331-1338
38. **Machida T, Higashi K, Ogawara H. J.** 1995. *Antibiot* **48**: 1076–1080.
39. **Marston A, Hostettman K, Msonthi J.D.** 1984. *Planta Med*, 279
40. **Martin S. F.** 1987. In *The Alkaloids, Chemistry and Pharmacology*; Brossi A, Ed, Academic Press: New York **30**: 251-376
41. **Martins F.O, Barbi N.S, Esteve P.F, Mendes G.S, Menezes F.S, Romanos M.T.V.** 2009. Verbascoside isolated from *Lepechinia speciosa* has inhibitory activity against HSV-1 and HSV-2 *in vitro*. *Natural Product Communications* **4(12)**: 1693-1696
42. **Merfort I.** 2002. Review of the analytical techniques for sesquiterpenes and sesquiterpene lactones. *Journal of Chromatography A* **967**: 115–13
43. **Ming D.S, Eberding A, Guns E.S, Hillhouse B.J, Towers G.H.N, Vimalanathan S, Xie S.** 2005. Bioactive Compounds from *Rhodiola rosea* (*Crassulaceae*). *Phytotherapy Research* **19**: 740-743
44. **Mital A, Bindal S, Mahlavat S, Negi V, Sonawane M.** 2010. Synthesis and biological evaluation of alkyl/arylamino derivatives of naphthalene-1,4-dione as antimycobacterial agents. *Der Pharma Chemica* **2(5)**: 53-59

-
45. **Mulholland A.D, Connolly J.D, Osborne R, Pegel K.H, SewramV.** 1997. Cucurbitane triterpenoids from leaves of *Momordica foetida*. *Phytochemistry* 45(2): 391-395
 46. **Negussie Y.** 2009. Separation and Detection Techniques in Metabolomics Data 1-17
 47. **Neuhof T, Bartl F, Dieckmann R, Hassallidin A. Pham H, Preussel K, Schmieder P, von Döhren, H.** 2005. A glycosylated lipopeptide with antifungal activity from the cyanobacterium *Hassallia* sp. *J. Nat.Prod* 68: 695-700.
 48. **Nowak G.** 1993. *Chromatographia* 35: 325.
 49. **Pandey V.B, Devi S.** 1990. *Planta Med* 56: 649
 50. **Pardo F, Perich F, Villarroel L, Torres R.**1993. Isolation of verbascoside, an antimicrobial constituent of *Buddleja globosa* leaves. *J Ethnopharmacol* 39 (3): 221–2.
 51. **Pereira M, Tripathy S, Inamdar V, Ramesh K, Bhavsar M, Date M et al.** 2005. Drug resistance patterns of *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* in seropositive and seronegative HIV-TB patients in Pune, India. *Indian J Med Res* 121 (4):235-239.
 52. **Phuwapraisirisan P, Sawang K, Siripong P, Tippyanga S.** 2007. Anhydrocochlioquinone A, a new antitumor compound from *Bipolaris oryzae*. *Tetrahedron Letters* 48: 5193–5195
 53. **Picman A.K, Lam. J, Ranieri R.L, Towers G.H.N.** 1980. *J. Chromatogr* 189: 187.

-
54. **Pitchakarn P, Ambudkar S. V, Limtrakul P, Ohnuma S, Pintha K, Pompimon W.** 2011. Kuguacin J isolated from *Momordica charantia* leaves inhibits P-glycoprotein (ABCB1)-mediated multidrug resistance. *Journal of Nutritional Biochemistry* 1-9
55. **Radloff R.J, Deck L.M, Royer R.E, van der Jagt D.L.** 1986. Antiviral activities of gossypol and its derivatives against herpes simplex virus type II. *Pharmacol.Res.Commun* **18**: 1063-1073
56. **Ratcliffe FG, Shachar-Hill Y.** 2005. Revealing metabolic phenotypes in plants: inputs from NMR analysis. *Biol. Rev.* **80**: 27 – 43
57. **Roy R, Pandey V.B, Prithiviraj B, Singh U.P.** 1996. Antifungal activity of the flavanoids from *C. infortunatum* roots. *Fitoterapia* **67**: 473-474
58. **Schoenlein P.V, Barrett J.T, Gottesman M.M, Pastan I, Shen D.W.** 1992. Double minute chromosomes carrying the human multidrug resistance 1 and 2 genes are generated from the dimerization of submicroscopic circular DNAs in colchicines selected KB carcinoma cells. *Mol Biol Cell* **3**:507–20
59. **Shrivastava N, Patel T.** 2007. *Clerodendrum* and Healthcare: An Overview. *Medicinal and Aromatic Plant Science and Biotechnology* 1(1): 142-150
60. **Tschesche R, Kaussmann E.U.** 1975. The Alkaloids (Manske R.H.F, ed) **15**: 165-205. *Academic Press, New York*
61. **Van der Vijver L.M, Gerritsma K.W.** 1974. Naphthaquinones of *Euclea* and *Diospyros* species. *Phytochemistry* **13**: 2322-2323
62. **Verpoorte R, Choi YH, Kim HK.** 2007. NMR-based metabolomics at work in phytochemistry. *Phytochem Rev* **6**: 3 – 14

-
63. **Villar A, Rios J.L, Simeo´n S, Zafra-Polo M.C.**1984. *J. Chro-matogr.* **303**: 306.
 64. **Weigenand O, Hussein A. A, Lall N, Meyer J.J.M.** 2004. Antibacterial Activity of naphthoquinones and Triterpenoids from *Euclea natalensis* Root Bark. *J.Nat.Prod* **67**: 1936-1938
 65. **Xu X, Dai X, Hu R, Pan Y, Sun C, Yang Z.** 2011. LC/MS Guided Isolation of Alkaloids from Lotus Leaves by pH-Zone-Refining Counter-Current Chromatography. *Molecules* **16**: 2551-2560
 66. **Yanagisawa K, Imai S, Jimbow K, Kai M, Kanoh H, Sakane F, Yamada K, Yamashita T, Yasuda S.,** 2007. *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* **1771**: 462–474
 67. **Yoganathan K, Buss A. D. J, Butler M. S, Huang Y, Ng S, Rossant C, Yang L-K.**2004. *Antibiot* **57**: 59–63
 68. **Zhou Y.X, Chin. J. Qi J, Yu B.Y. Zhu D.N,** 2008. *Nat. Med* **6**:201.



Chapter 4

An investigation into the
safety of *IHL*, *in vitro*

4.0 Introduction

Seasonal changes affect pharmacological profile of medicinal plants. However this is not the only factor affecting efficacy, several other conditions such as cultivation, manufacturing, marketing and distribution also contribute. Physiological, genetic and environmental factors can drastically alter plant's biochemical content. Secondary metabolites are said to be time dependant, storage, drying, extraction, processing, handling and managing plant medicine requires skill. Chemical consistency is important for ensuring efficacy and consumer safety (Sahoo *et al*, 2010).

In vitro cytotoxicity assays are useful in that they measure the effect of toxic chemicals on the basic functions of cells, and that the toxicity can be measured by assessing cellular damage. Chemosensitivity tests are commonly utilized in both research and clinical environments to determine the effect of compounds on tumour cells (Mossman, 1983). The cytotoxicity tests conducted seeks to establish the dosage that proves deleterious to cells using 3-[4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl]-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide (MTT) and GSH-Glo which measures intracellular glutathione levels.

Methylthiazol tetrazolium assay is an important colorimetric assay used to assess activity of succinate dehydrogenase enzymes that reduce MTT salt. Essentially MTT or a 3-[4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl]-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide is yellow tetrazolium salt that is reduced to purple formazan crystals in viable cells (Mosman, 1983). The MTT assay offers a quantitative, convenient method for evaluating cell population's response to external factors, whether it is increased in neither cell growth, nor effect or a decrease in

growth due to necrosis or apoptosis (Cooke and O’Kennedy, 1999). In order to assess cell viability, formazan measured in treated cells was compared to untreated cells or negative control and dose-response curve was produced.

Reduced glutathione (GSH) the most abundant non-protein thiol, is an antioxidant found in eukaryotic cells. Oxidative stress and free radicals can cause a decrease in GSH levels either by oxidation or reaction with thiol group. A change in GSH levels is important for assessing toxicological responses and can promote oxidative stress, potentially leading to apoptosis and cell death (Promega, 2007). The GSH-Glo™ is a luminescence-based assay for the detection and quantification of glutathione. The assay is based on the conversion of luciferin derivative into luciferin in the presence of GSH, catalysed glutathione transferase (GST). The signal generated in a couple reactions with firefly luciferase is proportional to the amount of GSH present in the sample. The assay generates stable luminescent signal and is simple, fast and easily adaptable to multiwell format such as 96-well plates. This assay can be used for detection and quantification of GSH in cultured cells or various biological samples. The GSH-Glo™ Glutathione assay can be applied for measuring glutathione levels as an indicator of cells viability or oxidative stress. It can also be applied for screening drugs and new chemical entities for their capacity to modulate glutathione levels in cells (Promega, 2007).

In this assay, cyclosporine A (CsA), a positive control was used. Cyclosporine A is an immunosuppressive drug that act by binding onto intracellular receptor and inhibit cytokines production. The medicinal concentration above that of positive control is taken

as a concentration in which cytotoxicity ensues, hence medicinal concentration dosage to be used especially in cell culture assay therefore must not exceed that marker.

4.1 Aim of these tests:

1. To determine cytotoxicity of *IHL* with regards to safe *in vitro* dosage and the effect of extended exposure.
2. To determine safe and effective medicinal concentration to be used throughout *in vitro* assays.

4.2 Materials and Methods

4.2.1 Reagents and Chemicals

4.2.1.1 Chemicals

MTT salt was purchased from Sigma Aldrich. RPMI 1640, EMEM and FCS were all purchased from LONZA, USA. GSH-Glo™ Kit was acquired from Promerger.

4.2.2 Cells

Vero cells (African Green Monkey) were provided by the Department of Microbiology. These were maintained in Minimum Eagle's Medium supplemented with 10% fetal calf serum (FCS).

4.2.3 Plant extracts preparation

Traditional medicinal extract was filter-sterilized through 0.2µm filter and lyophilized. The lyophilized product was weighed out and 1000µg/mL of aqueous extract was made.

From the stock solution several working matrix-concentration in a range of 1000, 800, 400, 200, 100, 80, 50, 20, 10, 1 and 0.1µg/mL were made.

4.2.4 MTT stock preparations

A 5mg/mL MTT stock was made by dissolving MTT salt in RPMI-1640. The stock was filtered through 0.2µm filter and stored in 2-8°C. A working solution was further diluted ten-folds in RPMI without phenol red.

4.2.5 Cell Viability Assay

The assay was conducted following Wilson's MTT instructions. Vero cells were cultured in EMEM supplemented with 10% fetal calf serum and incubated in 5% CO₂ humidified incubator at 37°C. When cells became 90% confluent, they were washed three times in PBS and trypsinized using trypsin-versene solution. Trypan-blue exclusion was carried out in hemacytometer in order to determine viable cells. A 200µL volume cell suspension contained an average of 15000 cells and these were added in 96 well microtitre plates and incubated until they became confluent. Supernatant was removed and each well was treated with 100µL of medicinal extracts of each serial dilution and this was done in triplicates. For negative controls only 5% cell culture media was added and incubated. After 24 and 48 incubation, the supernatant was removed. Thereafter ten microliter of MTT working solution was added to each well followed by another addition of 5% EMEM and incubation at 37°C for 4 hours. After the incubation period, the supernatant was removed and 100µL dimethyl sulphoxide (DMSO) was added in order to dissolve formazan crystals and this was furthermore incubated for an hour. The plates were later

read on Beckman DU-600 Spectrophotometer at 570nm wavelength and background subtraction at 650nm.

4.2.6 GSH Assay

The GSH-Glo™ reagent was prepared by diluting the Luciferin-NT substrate and Glutathione-S-Transferase 1:50 in GSH-Glo™ reaction buffer. Each reaction (well) of a 96-well plate required 50µL of the GSH-Glo™ reagent; the total volume of the reagent prepared was adjusted according to the number of assay wells. The GSH-Glo™ reagent needed to be prepared immediately before use and could not be stored for future use.

The luciferin detection reagent was prepared by transferring the contents of one bottle of luciferin detection buffer to the bottle of lyophilized luciferin detection reagent. The contents were mixed by inversion several times until the substrate was thoroughly dissolved. Each reaction (well) of a 96-well plate required 100µL of the luciferin detection reagent meaning the luciferin detection reagent needed to be 2:1 with the GSH-Glo™ reagent for the reaction to work properly. The luciferin detection reagent could be stored for up to 4 weeks at -20°C.

4.3 Results

The dye exclusion test was used to determine the number of viable cells present in a cell suspension. It is based on the principle that live cells possess intact cell membranes that exclude certain dyes, such as trypan blue, eosin, or propidium, whereas dead cells do not. In this test, a cell suspension was mixed with dye and it was visually examined to

determine whether cells would take up or exclude dye. The effect of the increasing concentration of *IHL* on cultured Vero cell line according to Trypan Blue dye test, showed that the extract to have no effect on cell viability following 7, 28 and 48 hour incubation with this extract (table 4.0). Phenotypically viable cell presented with a clear cytoplasm whereas a nonviable cell had a blue cytoplasm.

Table 4.0: Tabulated trypan blue exclusion test results showing time and dose effect of *IHL* on Vero cell lines.

#	Conc in µg/mL	% Cell viability in aqueous medium		
		7 Hrs	28 Hrs	48 Hrs
	control	100±0	100±0	100±0
1	1	98.9±0.15	99.1±0.49	98.3±0.50
2	50	99.0±0.31	98.4±1.27	98.6±0.70
3	100	98.7±0.84	99.3±0.15	98.2±0.50

With regards to cytotoxicity results of an aqueous extract of *IHL* as assessed by an MTT assay, it was established that there existed dose dependant activity. An aqueous extract as applied on uninfected Vero cell lines displayed an increasing trend of viable cells at lower concentration while high concentration decreased cell viability (figure 4.0). This trend was also proved to be time-dependant. The highest concentrations proved to be cytotoxic after 24hrs of incubation but this cytotoxicity was not shown over 48 hour incubation. The percentage cell viability was measured against untreated control. The highest concentration displaying cell viability above 80% after 24 hours was at 40µg/mL and the minimum concentration displaying cell viability that is less or equal to 50% was

obtained at 100µg/mL. After 48 hours the highest cell viability concentration was achieved at 10µg/mL (>90%).

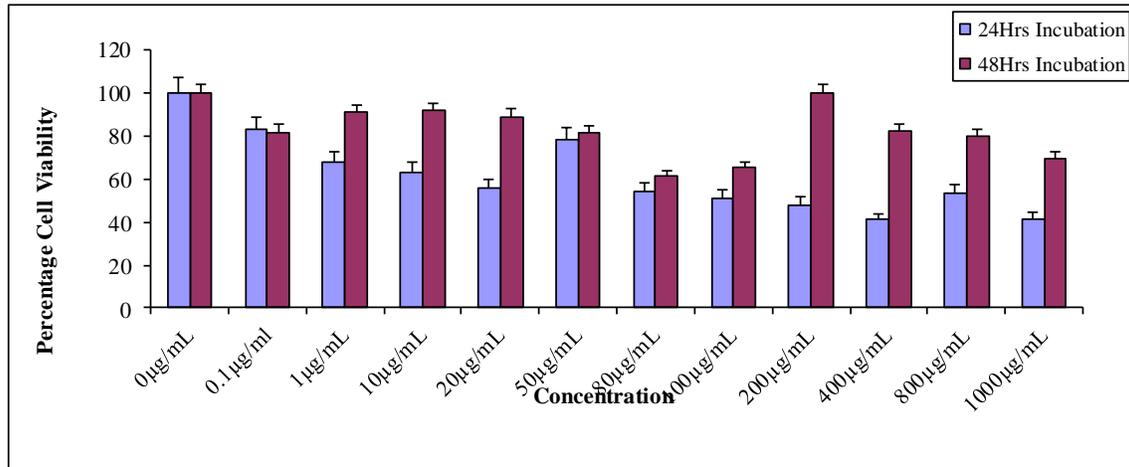


Figure 4.0: The effect of *IHL* on cell viability using MTT assay after 24 and 48hours incubation respectively.

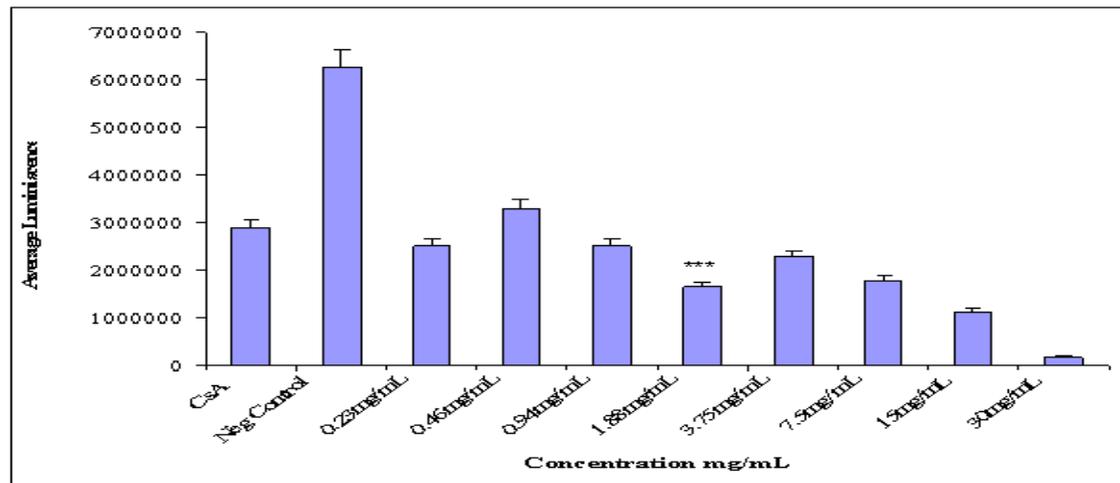


Figure 4.1: The effect of *IHL* aqueous extract's concentration on GSH-Glo™ level after 24 hours incubation period

The GSH assay using higher concentrations of traditional medicine was done to further verify the cytotoxicity of *IHL* on Vero cells. *IHL*'s effect on antioxidants was shown to be dose dependent (figure 4.1) as seen in recordings taken 24 hours post treatment. Antioxidants levels were reduced in proportion relative to concentration levels. Luciferase was determined in terms of relative light unit (RLU) detected in the measured period. Luciferase assay is basically a cytotoxicity assay however its significance was made possible by positive control, cyclosporin whose dosage was used to eliminate interference without compromising on activity. Hence the presence of cyclosporin is to act as a biomarker that determines the extracts' concentration which once it is exceeded, cells start dying. This therefore makes luciferase assay such an important assay as applied to crude extract since it apparently addresses the fact that extract can cause non-specific reduction in luminescence (some as high as 98% interference) which could lead to erroneous interpretation (Shawar *et al*, 1997). Therefore in all forthcoming cell-based assays the safest dosage below that of a positive control is recommended to assess susceptibility of an organism (e.g. HSV) to a traditional medicine extract especially *IHL*.

4.4 Discussion

The aim of this study was to establish whether an aqueous extract of *IHL* would prove cytotoxic towards human epithelial cell lines as assessed by an MTT and GSH assays. The MTT assay tests for metabolic competence as well as assess mitochondrial performance (Fry and Hammond, 1993; Freshney, 2000). It is basically a colorimetric test that is based on the conversion of yellow tetrazolium bromide (MTT) to purple formazan derivative by mitochondrial succinate dehydrogenase in live cells (Mossman,

1983). Glutathione assay (GSH) assesses toxicological responses therefore GSH levels as expressed in luminescence indicate a number of live cells.

It would have been interesting had the assay been conducted on both infected and uninfected cell lines. This is particularly based on the effect of *IHL* on cell growth stimulation which was observed in the 48 hours post treatment assay particularly with the MTT assay. The inclusion of both infected and uninfected cells would establish whether *IHL* protects cells meanwhile killing the pathogen as well as to establish the safest dosage whereby cells would be preserved while pathogens would be killed. Nonetheless, we have established MTT activity on uninfected cell after 24 hours and what became apparent was the mitochondrial gradual retarded performance. This retardation was increased with an increase in traditional medicine concentration until a 50% decrease compared to the control was noted at 1000 μ g/mL. It is interesting to note that upon prolonged exposure of cells to *IHL* there is a derived health benefits accorded to cells that could probably be associated with the presence of flavonoids. In a study conducted by Singh *et al* (2005) on medicinal plants used to manage AIDS-related symptoms it was found to be constituted of this compound. Flavonoids contain antioxidants that scavenge free radical thus inhibiting tissue damage that is associated with the onset of AIDS. Furthermore, after 48 hours post treatment with *IHL*, the mitochondrial performance was significantly increased (30%) generally across all major concentrations i.e. from 80 μ g/mL to 1000 μ g/mL when compared to 24 hours exposure.

The most likely mechanism of action of extract includes its ability to scavenge reactive oxidative species or alternately, its ability to upregulate endogenous antioxidants levels. (Shtukmaster *et al*, 2010). Shtukmaster *et al* (2010) used an aqueous extract of *Teucrium polium* to display an ability to augment levels of important intracellular antioxidants. It is therefore safe to assume that the mechanism of extracts health benefit could be due to its ability to suppress oxidative stress thus strike a balance with endogenous antioxidant levels.

The study has proven that cellular integrity is not immensely compromised at low concentrations as it was maintained over prolonged periods of exposure of cells to the extract despite nonsignificant increase in GSH level that culminated at 0.94mg/mL concentration.

4.5 Conclusion

From data acquired, it was concluded that at low concentrations, an aqueous extract of *IHL* is not toxic. That may partly explain the elevated glutathione levels at such low concentrations.

4.6 References:

1. **Cooke D, O’Kennedy R.** 1999. Comparison of the Tetrazolium Salt Assay for Succinate Dehydrogenase with the Cytosensor Microphysiometer in the Assessment of Compound Toxicities. *Analytical biochemistry* **274**: 188-194

-
2. **Freshney R.I.** 2000. Culture of Animal Cells: A Manual of Basic Technique, John Wiley & Sons, New York, NY, USA.
 3. **Fry J.R, Hammond A.H.** 1993. "Assessment of the functional integrity of hepatocytes: a brief review", *Alternatives to Laboratory Animals* **21**: 324-329
 4. **Mossman T.** 1983. Rapid colometric assay for cellular growth and survival: application to proliferation and cytotoxicity assay. *Journal of Immunological Methods* **65(1-2)**: 55-63
 5. **Promerga.** 1997. Technical Manual. GSH/GSSG-Glo™ Assay. Instruction for use of products V6611 and V6612
 6. **Sahoo N, Dey S, Manchikanti P.** 2010. Herbal Drugs: Standards and regulation. *Fitoterapia* **81**: 462-471
 7. **Shawar R, Baker W, Hickey M.J, Humble D.J, Mitscher L.A Steele S, Stover C.K, van Daltsen J.M.** 1997. Rapid Screening of Natural Products for Antimicrobial Activity by Using Luciferase-Expressing Strains of Mycobacterium bovis BCG and Mycobacterium intracellulare. *Antimicrobial Agents and Chemotherapy* **41(3)**: 570-574
 8. **Shtukmaster S, Bomzon A, Ljubuncic P.** 2010. The Effect of an Aqueous Extract of *Teucrium polium* on Glutathione Homeostasis *in vitro*: A Possible Mechanism of its Hepatoprotectant Action. *Advances in Pharmacological Sciences* 1-7
 9. **Singh I.P, Bharate S.B, Bhutani K.K.** 2005. Anti-HIV natural products. *Cur Science* **89(2)**:269-289

Chapter 5

ANTIVIRAL PROPERTIES OF A TRADITIONAL MEDICINE (*IHL*) USED FOR THE TREATMENT OF HERPES SIMPLEX VIRUS INFECTIONS

*Submitted for consideration for publication in the
African Journal of Traditional, Complementary and
Alternative medicines*

ANTIVIRAL PROPERTIES OF A TRADITIONAL MEDICINE (*IHL*) USED FOR THE TREATMENT OF HERPES SIMPLEX VIRUS INFECTIONS

N Jwara¹, EB Thabethe², N Gqaleni¹ and W Sturm³

Traditional Medicine Laboratory¹, Traditional Health Practitioner², Department of Medical Microbiology³, Nelson Mandela School of Medicine, University of KwaZulu-Natal, Durban, South Africa

5.0 Abstract

Introduction: *Ihlamvu laseAfrika (IHL)* is believed to have positive effects on HIV/AIDS patients however, this has not been proven in clinical or laboratory tests. Such effects can either be directly due to inhibition of the virus causing AIDS or indirectly by inhibition of organisms causing opportunistic infections.

Objective: To investigate antiviral properties of *IHL* against Herpes Simplex Virus (HSV) and its effect on GSH level.

Materials and Methods: A crude extract of *IHL* was lyophilised and reconstituted into stock standards that were prepared in either aqueous or solvents (methanol, ethanol, acetone, dichloromethane, cyclohexane and ethyl acetate) of differing polarities. Amongst the seven solvents used for extraction, the search for best solvent was conducted. The viral susceptibility of herpes simplex virus (HSV) towards solvent extract of *IHL* was assessed and quantified with real-time polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) and minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) was then concluded.

Results: The methanol extract displayed the lowest viral yield ($Ct = 19$, $p = 0.2473$) as quantified with RT-PCR and an MIC of the extract proved to be 1.25mg/mL.

Conclusion: *IHL* has antiviral properties and RT-PCR is the best tool for quantifying viral yield.

Keywords: *IHL*, reduced glutathione (GSH), cytotoxicity

5.1 Introduction

Herpes simplex virus types 1 and 2 (HSV-1 and HSV-2) present several clinical manifestations to mankind (Greco *et al*, 2007). The most common HSV-1 infections are cold sores and gingivostomatitis (Villareal, 2001). Usually symptoms wear after a week of viral shedding in immunocompetent individuals without taking antiviral drugs. Alternately, in immunocompromised individuals, life-threatening diseases may occur that might prompt infected host to take up antiviral therapy. Serious manifestations may present as encephalitis due to virus spreading to the central nervous system (Whitley *et al*, 1998).

Forty years have passed since the approval of a number of systemic licensed antiviral drugs for HSV treatment. These drugs primarily target the viral DNA polymerase. The examples of which feature guanosine analogues e.g acyclovir (ACV), famciclovir, valacyclovir VCV and ganciclovir, the acyclic nucleotide analogue cidofovir and finally the pyrophosphate analogue e.g. foscarnet (Villareal, 2001). The efficacy of these antivirals has been limited by development of drug resistance especially witnessed with immunocompromised patients if not the recurrence of latent viruses (Field, 2001). This therefore necessitates the development of new anti-HSV treatment drugs that will prove safe and effective.

Over the years traditional medicines have played a major role in a fight against infectious diseases essentially proving to be an alternate source of treatment meanwhile

displaying active leads for potent drug discovery (Kamatenesi-Mugisha *et al*, 2008). Traditional medicine use has become widespread (Thring *et al*, 2006). Treating human infectious diseases with traditional medicines (TMs/CAMs) is prevalent to most countries including South Africa, China, India and others. Screening tests done *in vitro* so far attest to presence of potent antiviral activities with no or limited adverse effects (McCutcheon *et al*, 1995; Vlietinck *et al*, 1995; Namba *et al*, 1998, Ma *et al*, 2002; Fernandez-Romero *et al*, 2003). Plants therapeutic activity can be attributed to the presence of secondary metabolites. Amongst secondary metabolites known to have shown antiviral activity *in vitro* include tannins, flavonoids, terpenoids, saponins and caffeic acid derivatives (Wyde *et al*, 1993; Namba *et al*, 1998, Kinjo *et al*, 2000, Chiang *et al*, 2002; Ma *et al*, 2002). Previous studies have revealed that *Punica granatum* had anti-HSV properties (Namba *et al*, 1998). Chemical analysis showed that some medicinal plants such as *Agrimonia pilosa*, *Pithecellobium clypearia* and *Punica granatum* had a high content of polyphenolics (Li *et al*, 2004). Some medicinal plants bearing anti-HSV properties attribute their activities to tannins (Chen, 1994; Zhao *et al*, 2000; El-Toumy *et al*, 2002).

Ihlamvu laseAfrika (IHL) is an indigenous medicinal extract that has been formulated such that it addresses the deleterious effect of HIV/AIDS and its secondary opportunistic infections. Opportunistic infections are regarded as a common complication in people living with HIV and AIDS (Jaffe *et al*, 1983; Selik *et al*, 1982). It was hypothesized that *IHL* has botanical constituents that have antiviral, antifungal and antimycobacterial properties. Moreover, some of its properties include immunomodulation according to traditional health practitioner (THP).

In this investigation we aimed at using several polar solvents that would compete for relative extraction activity. Studies have shown that the type of solvent used for the extraction determines the ultimate compound extracted (Hughes, 2002). The best solvents would present with highest threshold (*Ct*) value. *Ct* is inversely proportional to viral yield (Namvar *et al*, 2005). The best solvent extract would finally determine MIC.

5.2 Materials and Methods

5.2.1 Plant extract: *IHL* was received as a gift donated by the THP, Mr E.B Thabethe. The Intellectual Property/Confidentiality Agreement were reviewed and validated by the Research Legal Officer and University of KwaZulu-Natal (UKZN) Innovation. The study was approved by the ethics committee of the UKZN (ref. BF069/07).

5.2.2 Preparation of plant extract: Approximately 1kg of a mixture of plant material was mixed with about 6L of water and boiled for more than 6 hours. After cooling, it was filtered with muslin cloth and bottled. A 2L solution of this crude extract of *IHL* was further filtered, freeze-dried and lyophilized. An aqueous medium and solvents (90% v/v) of differing polarities were used to extract the product. The solutions were rigorously shaken and centrifuged at 3500rpm until the filtrate finally yielded a standard concentration of 30mg/mL for each extract.

5.2.3 Acyclovir preparation: Acyclovir (ACV) was purchased from GlaxoSmithKline. Stock solution of acyclovir (2mg/mL) was prepared by dissolving the drug in triple distilled water and storing it in the fridge until further use. ACV stock was further diluted

in solvents to obtain different working solution of 1mg/mL concentration. Diluted stocks were used as positive control, deionised water and drug-free solvents were used as vehicle controls.

5.2.4 Cells and Viruses: HSV was a donation received from Inkosi Albert Luthuli Central Hospital (IALCH). Human epithelial (HeLa) cells were provided by Medical Microbiology Department (UKZN). HeLa cells were cultured in minimum essential medium eagle (EMEM, LONZA, USA) supplemented with 10% fetal calf serum (FCS, Gibco BRL, USA) and 1% L Glutamine and 0.1% streptomycin. During transfections cells were grown in 5% FCS without drugs in a 6 well plate. Cell cultures were passaged regularly and maintained on 5% FCS without drugs. Cell cultures were incubated in 5% CO₂ humidified incubator at 37°C.

5.2.5 Viral Inoculation and treatment: HSV2 was propagated on HeLa epithelial cells. Virus stock was rapidly thawed and vortexed for 1-2 min. Virus suspension was inoculated onto confluent monolayer of HeLa cells at a volume of 500μL of tissue culture medium. Cultures were incubated at 37°C in a 5% CO₂ incubator overnight. Cytopathic effect (CPE) was observed after 1-2 days for HSV2. Cultures were treated with *IHL* 15hours post inoculation as cells started detaching from the surface, taking a round shape and lysis as observed under the microscope. Treatment with medicinal extracts enabled brief reattachment of cultures however, HSV infected cell lysate had to be harvested for viral extraction.

5.2.6 Cultivation of virus for extraction: HSV infected cell lysate was submitted for centrifugation. The 6 well plate was gently shaken several times and the supernatant including cell cultures were harvested in a sterile centrifuge tube. In order to release adenovirus from cells, supernatant with cells was thrice subjected to freeze/thaw cycle and centrifuged at 1500 X g for 10 min to pellet the cell debris. The supernatant was aliquoted into sterile tubes and stored at -80°C for further analysis.

5.2.7 Viral RNA Extraction with TriZol: The medium was transferred into a 2mL eppendorf and 400µL of TriZol was added into 1600µL sample. The sample mixture was vortexed for 10 s. Eighty microliter of chloroform was added to each sample and vortex for 30 s. The samples were then spun at 12000xg for 15 min @ 4°C to ensure phase separation. An aqueous phase containing RNA was transfer into fresh tube and 200µL of ice-cold isopropanol was added. All samples were allowed to precipitate at -20°C overnight. In order to pellet, RNA was centrifuged at 12000xg for 15 min @ RT. The supernatant was decanted and the pellet washed with 200µL of 70% ethanol and then centrifuged at 12000 for 10 min at RT. The supernatant was discarded and the RNA pellet dried. In order to reconstitute the pellet, 40µL of DNase-free water was used. This was followed by incubation for 10 min for 60°C (in water bath). All RNA samples were then stored at -70°C until further use or temporarily put on ice. The quantity of the extracted RNA was read on the NanoDrop 1000 Spectrophotometer (Thermo Fischer Scientific, USA) at 260nm (A260).

5.2.8 DNase Treatment: Based on the [RNA] readings, the calculated volume of 10X the reaction buffer was added (see appendix). This was followed by addition of equal volumes of DNase-1 and RNase free. A 30 min incubation at 37°C was followed by addition of 25mM EDTA which was used to stop the reaction and this was followed by a 10 min incubation at 65°C. The purified RNA was read on NanoDrop in order to verify its yield and it was then ready for cDNA synthesis or storage at -70°C.

5.2.9 cDNA synthesis: Reverse transcription was done with first strand High Capacity cDNA synthesis Kit by Applied Biosystems. The complementary DNA (cDNA) was reverse-transcribed from single strand RNA using random hexamer primers. Briefly, 10µL of RNA samples were placed in 96-well reaction plate. Ten microliter of 2XRT master mix was put onto each well and was homogenized by pipetting up and down. Plate was sealed and then briefly centrifuged to eliminate air bubbles. The plate was then loaded onto thermal cycler and cycling conditions set at four step temperature program and reaction volume set at 20µL. The DNA quantification was read on NanoDrop Spec reader 1000 (Thermo Fischer Scientific, USA) and then stored a -25°C until further use.

5.2.10 Real-time PCR Quantification: Quantitative real-time chain reaction (RT-PCR) was performed on transcribed cDNA product from HSV-2 treated with several extracts of *IHL*, acyclovir and negative controls. The test was run in triplicate on thermal cycler (ABI Prism 7000; Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA) and each well contained cDNA, TaqMan 10X Universal PCR mix (Applied Biosystems) and target-specific TaqMan labeled dye primers (Applied Biosystems). The primers used for quantitative RT-PCR

were for the expression of the early HSV-2 gene UL30. Each sample was measured quantitatively by RT-PCR and known standards of both HSV-2 were used. Primers used for HSV-2:- primers were: - 5'-CTG CCG GAC ACC CAG GGG CG-3' (forward), 5'-CGA CCT CCT CGC GCT CGT CC-3'.

The cycling parameter were initial denaturing at 94°C for three minutes, followed by cycles of denaturing at 94°C for 30 seconds, annealing at 65°C for 30 seconds, extension at 72°C for 45 seconds and 10 minutes final extension at 72°C. The PCR reaction mixture contained 0.5µM of each primer, 2.5mM MgCl₂, 8% Glycerol, 25µL Mastermix (Applied Biosystems, Courtaboeuf, France) and 10µL of cDNA product. Fluorescence measurements were recorded at each cycle, which enabled the detection of cycle threshold (*Ct*) value for every DNA sample. The detection threshold was set at 10 copies per run. IC₅₀ was defined as the concentration of the antiviral agent that reduced the amount of DNA copies by 50% compared to the virus drug-free control (Thi *et al*, 2006).

5.2.11 Statistical analysis: The Student *T*-test was used to compare growth inhibition. All values were quoted as the mean ± SEM (standard error of the mean) and were considered significant at $p < 0.05$.

5.3 Results

PCR-based susceptibility: Four out of seven solvents were chosen as the less polar solvents namely dichloromethane, cyclohexane and ethyl acetate tended to “burn” the 6-well flat bottom plate (Becton Dickson). The RT-PCR-based HSV susceptibility was

done with the four most polar solvent extracts and the results were expressed in terms of virus quantity as given by the Ct value.

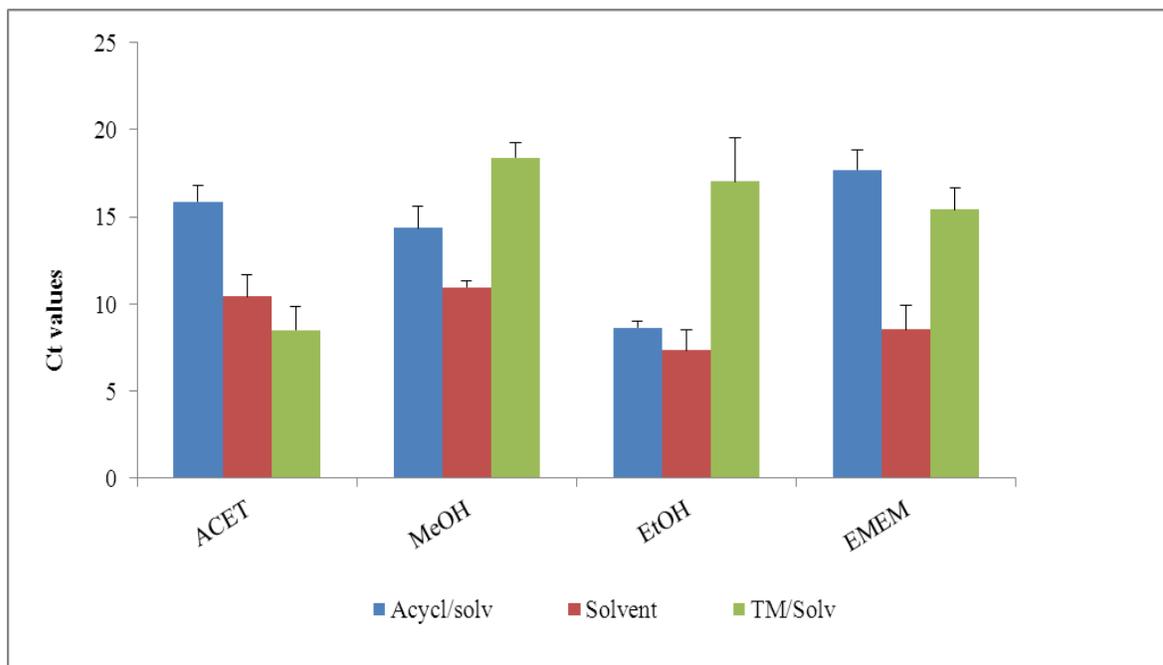


Figure 5.2: The graph display solvents' extraction potential.

An HSV growth inhibitory potential was tested on solvents (burgundy), acyclovir extracts (blue) and finally on traditional medicine extracts (green). The extraction potential was determined in terms of viral yield, the lesser the viral concentration the better the inhibitory potential. However, with regards to the Ct value, the higher the Ct value the lesser the viral yield, therefore the best inhibitor. Hence Ct value has an inverse relation to viral growth inhibition. In the case of a positive control, the fluconazole in EMEM achieved best HSV growth inhibition and fluconazole in ethanol recorded the least inhibition. In the case of *IHL* extracts, *IHL* in methanol yielded less virus quantity than the rest thus proving best activity, its Ct value was at its highest at (18.4 ± 0.86) . The

least viral quantity as seen with the methanol extract of *IHL* serves to confirm that HSV proliferation was inhibited more than in any other solvent extracts. An *IHL* extract with the least activity was with *IHL* in acetone (8.50 ± 1.33). Finally in the case of the four vehicle solvents, the one with the best and the least extraction potential, were methanol and ethanol respectively.

Minimum Inhibitory Concentration (MIC): Concentrations ranging from 2.00mg/mL to 0.1 mg/mL of the methanol extract of *IHL* were used to determine MIC (IC_{50}). The cytotoxicity assay helped to determine the safe dosage that had to be used during the investigation.

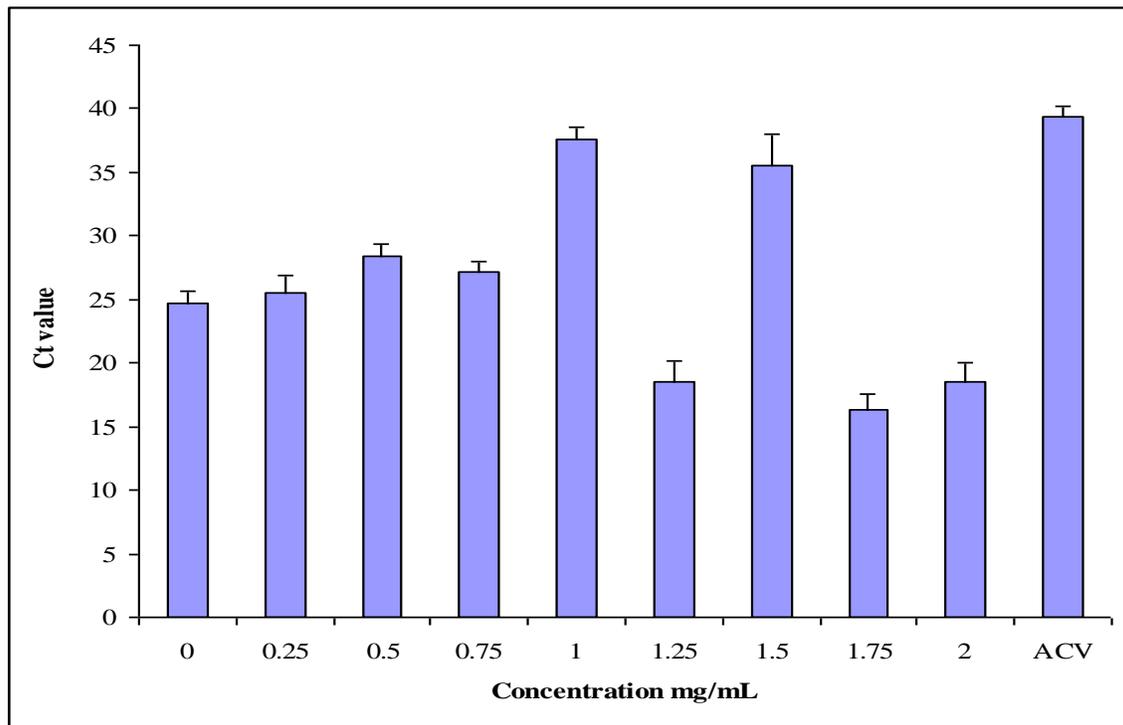


Figure 5.3: The above graph displays MIC (IC_{50}) of the methanol extract of *IHL*.

The Ct value rises as viral load decreases (inverse relation) therefore an increase in concentration corresponds to HSV growth inhibition increase, it is a dose dependant response. The IC_{50} of methanol extract is 1.25mg/mL. The trend followed in the graph shows an increase from left (0.25mg/mL) to right, the maximum point is reached at 1mg/mL ($Ct = 36.7 \pm 0.78$), (n=3) followed by a steep decline reaching the lowest ($Ct = 18.9 \pm 1.14$) at 1.25mg/mL, thus marking our IC_{50} . IC_{50} can be defined as an antiviral concentration that is required to reduce copies of DNA by 50% of the virus drug-free control. ACV concentration was 5.0mg/mL and the corresponding Ct values were (38.5 ± 1.19).

5.4 Discussion

PCR-based susceptibility: In this investigation we explored quantitative real-time PCR technique as used for quantifying viral concentration taken from supernatants of infected and cell cultures that were treated with different solvent extracts of *IHL*. The procedure was comprised of DNA extraction with TriZol and detection using Taqman label probes in a 96-well format on an ABI 7000 real-time PCR instrument. The PCR data acquired was based on Ct value of each sample that was calculated by determining the point at which the fluorescence exceeded background limit of 0.04. Sample preparation in a quantitative PCR assay is an extremely cumbersome process that is prone to gross errors. During viral lytic cycle, some viruses were released from cells onto supernatant. However, some infected cell cultures after treating with test substance tended to adhere onto tissue culture flasks more than the others. That could probably be attributed to the

fact that *IHL* is concentration-dependent. Nevertheless, the PCR is still regarded as the most sensitive and efficient analytical technique.

The efficiency of all solvent extract of *IHL* were interpreted in terms of viral concentration that were expressed as threshold cycles (*Ct*). The *Ct* value is described as cycle when fluorescence has become detectable and is in exponential phase of amplification and the *Ct* value is inversely proportional to the log concentration of the target DNA (Namvar *et al*, 2005). With the *Ct* < 20 the corresponding viral copies should be above 10⁸ copies/mL (Namvar *et al* (2005). As a guide standards were set which were used for quantitative purposes.

Reoviral infection establishes perturbation in host cell cycle progression. Their actions are known to activate cellular transcription factor (Connolly *et al*, 2000). For the purpose of this study, alteration in cell cycle was investigated in relation to gene expression by focusing on the UL30 gene. Primers and probes used targeted the DNA polymerase gene (UL30) that as mostly targeted by anti-HSV drugs (Greco *et al*, 2007).

The Taqman detection tool proved quite sensitive to all cultured specimen since it sufficiently identified differences between positive and negative controls as well as variations in different concentrations of standards. Based on the results it becomes obvious that the negative control should have a low *Ct* value which is indicative of high viral titre (Namvar *et al*, 2005). The efficiency of drug-free solvents and the respective solvent extracts of *IHL* were denoted by *Ct* values that ranged between 8 and 18 (figure 5.2) and also between 15 and 38 (figure 5.3). Furthermore, the results from previous

studies concur with our findings. In studies conducted by Espy *et al*, 2001 and van Doornum *et al*, 2003, the culture-positive samples had *Ct* values that were below 30 meanwhile negative-cultures that had also been proved positive by Taqman had their *Ct* values above 30. The MIC's of this study were determined within a tight margin, the medicinal concentration laid between 0.1 mg/mL and 2 mg/mL (figure 5.4). As a result, the *Ct* values for the negative and positive control lay between 35 and 38 respectively. The two samples in figure 5.3, the 1.75 and 2.00mg/mL are samples whose viruses were not wholly released into the supernatant. Infected viruses experience cytopathic effect detach and start floating. The introduction of an antiviral drug tend to reinforce cells attachment to the surface whether it is concentration dependant it is unproven, however we observed an unease of virus released onto the supernatant with the abovementioned concentrations. According to Namvar *et al* (2005), the viral concentration can be estimated based on assumption that the *Ct* value of 30 corresponds to approximately 100,000 copies/mL of DNA. In order to confirm a positive culture 20,000 virions are required.

Previous works recognizing RT-PCR for HSV analysis with Taqman includes Ryncarz *et al* (1999), whereby they targeted a conserved part of gB and gG for typing. Weidmann *et al* in 2003 used Taqman probes for the identification of different amplicons of HSV-1 and HSV-2.

The methanol, ethanol and aqueous extracts of *IHL* showed antiviral activity although methanol extract showed relatively best activity. A study by Nikomtat (2008) revealed that the antiviral effect of *Cissus repanda* Vahl plant extract on HSV had the best

activities for both methanol and dichloromethane extracts at various stages of HSV multiplication cycle i.e. attachment, penetration and multiplication. From that study the methanol extract of *C. repanda* showed highest inhibition.

5.5 Conclusion

HSV detection and quantification with Taqman after extraction with TriZol is quite sensitive and it has proven most susceptible to methanol-based extract of *IHL* which displayed anti-HSV properties. Caution should be taken however during harvesting of the infected lysate that all viral particles are released into the supernatant especially when viral quantification is incumbent. The active principle extracted with the methanol warrants further investigation into its chemical profile. Nonetheless, *IHL* has proven to have antiviral properties.

5.6 Acknowledgments:

Department of Science and Technology, National Research Foundation, *Lifelab* and Mr E.B Thabethe (Traditional health practitioner), Inkosi Albert Luthuli Central Hospital (IALCH) and Indigenous Knowledge System (IKS) Funding.

5.7 Reference:

1. **Chen L.J.** 1994. Isolation and identification of an acid component from *Pithecelobium clypearia*. *J Guangdong Med Coll* **12**: 40-41
2. **Chiang L.C, Chang M.Y, Chiang W, Ng L.T, Lin C.C.** 2002. Antiviral activity of *Plantago major* extracts and related compounds *in vitro*. *Antiviral Res* **55**: 53-62
3. **Connolly J, Ballard D.W, Clarke P, Dermody T, Kerr L.D, Rodgers S, Tyler K.L.** 2000. Reovirus-Induced Apoptosis Requires Activation of Transcription Factor NK-kB. *J.Virol* **74(7)**: 2981-2989
4. **El-Toumy S.A.A, Rauwald H.W.** 2002. Two ellagitannins from *Punica granatum* heartwood. *Phytochemistry* **61**:971-974
5. **Espy M.J, Cockerill F.R, Ilstrup D.M, Jenkins G.D, Rys P.N, Smith T.F. Sloan L.M, Wold A.D, Uhl J.R, Patel R. 3rd, Rosenblatt J.E.** 2001. Detection of herpes simplex virus DNA in genital and dermal specimens by LightCycler PCR after extraction using the IsoQuick, MagnaPure and BioRobot 9604 methods. *J. Clin. Microbiol* **39**: 2233-2236
6. **Fernandez-Romero J.A, Alvarez B, Barakat H.H, del Barrio-Alonso G, Gutierrez Y, Merfort I, Nawwar M.A.M, Romen- Hussein S.A.M.** 1997. Tannins from leaves of *Punica granatum*. *Phytochemistry* **45**: 819-889
7. **Field H.J.** 2001. Herpes simplex virus antiviral drug resistance current and future prospects. *J Clin. Virol* **21**:261-269

-
8. **Greco A, Diaz J.J, Morfin F, Thouvenot D.** 2007. Novel Targets for the Development of Anti-Herpes Compounds. *Infectious Disorders-Drug Targets* 7: 11-1811
 9. **Hughes I.** 2002. Isoprenoid compounds and phenolic plant constituents. *Elsevier, New York, N.Y. Sci Afr. Mag* 9(56)
 10. **Jaffe H.W, Bergman D.J, Selik R.M.** 1983. Acquired immune deficiency syndrome in the United States: first 1000 cases. *J. Infect Dis* 148: 339-45
 11. **Kamatenesi-Mugisha M, Makawiti D.W, Odyek O, Oryem-Origa H.** 2008. Medicinal plants used in the treatment of fungal and bacterial infections in and around Queen Elizabeth Biosphere Reserve, western Uganda. *Afric. J. Ecol* 46(1): 90-97
 12. **Kinjo J, Hirakawa T, Nahara T, Shii Y, Uyeda M, Yokomizo K.** 2000. Studies on antiherpetic drugs- Part2. Anti-Herpes virus activity of fabaceous triterpenoidal saponins. *Biol Pharma Bull* 23:887-889
 13. **Li Y, But P.P.H, Ooi L.S.M, Ooi V.E.C, Wang H.** 2004. Antiviral activities of Medicinal Herbs Traditionally Used in Southern Maimland China. *Phytother Res* 18: 718-722
 14. **Ma S.C, But P.P.H, Du J, et al.** 2002. Antiviral Chinese medicinal herbs against respiratory syncytial virus. *J. Ethnopharmacol* 79: 203-211
 15. **McCutcheon A.R, Roberts T.E, et al.** 1995. Antiviral screening of British Colombian medicinal plants. *J. Ethnopharmacol* 49:101-110
 16. **Namba T, Kurkawa M, Shiraki K.** 1998. Development of antiviral agents from traditional medicines. In *Towards Natural Medicine Research in the 21st*

Century, Ageta H, Aimi N, Ebizuka Y, Fujita T, Honda G (eds). *Elsivier Science: Amsterdam*, 67-87

17. **Namvar L, Bergstrom O. T, Lindh M.** 2005. Detection and Typing of Herpes Simplex Virus (HSV) in Mucocutaneous Samples by Taqman PCR Targeting a gB Segment Homologous for HSV Type 1 and 2. *Journal of Clinical microbiology* 43(5): 2058-2064
18. **Nikomtat J, Lumyong S, Thongwai N, Tragoolpua Y.** 2008. Anti-Viral Activity of *Cissus repanda Vahl*. Plant Extract on Herpes Simplex Virus. *Research Journal of microbiology* 3(9): 588-594
19. **Ryncarz A.J, Corey L, Goddard J, Huang M.L, Roizman B, Wald A.** 1999. Development of a high throughput quantitative assay for detecting herpes simplex virus DNA in clinical samples. *J. Clin. Microbiol* 37: 1941-1947
20. **Thi T.N, Deback C, Malet I, Bonnafous P, Ait-Arkoub Z, Agut H.** 2006. Rapid detection of antiviral drug susceptibility of herpes simplex virus type 1 and 2 by real-time PCR. *Antiviral Research* 69: 152-157
21. **Thring T.S, Weitz F.M.** 2006. Medicinal plants use in the Bredasdorp/Birm region of southern Overberg in the Western Cape Province of South Africa. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology* 103:261-275
22. **Selik R.M, Curre J.W, Haverkis H.W.** 1982. Acquired immune deficiency syndrome (AIDS) trends in the United States. *Am J Med.* 1984(76): 493-579

-
23. **Van Doornum G.J, Guldemeester J, Niesters H.G, Osterhaus A.D.** 2003. Diagnosis herpesvirus infections by real-time amplification and rapid culture. *J.Clin. Microbiol* **41**: 576-580
 24. **Villarreal E.C.**2001. Current and potential therapies for the treatment of herpesvirus infections. *In Antiviral Agents: Advances and Problems, Ernst Jucker (eds) Birkhauser Verlag: Basel Switzerland*, 187-228
 25. **Vlietnick A.J, Hoof L.V, Totte J et al.**1995. Screening of hundred Rwandese medicinal plants for antimicrobial and antiviral properties. *J. Ethnopharmacol* **46**: 31-47
 26. **Weidmann M, Hufert F.T, Meyer-Konig U.** 2003. Rapid detection of herpes simplex virus and varicella-zoster infections by real-time PCR. *J. Clin. Microbiol* **41**:1565-1568
 27. **Whitely R.J, Kimberlin D.W, Roizman B.** 1998. Herpes simplex viruses. *J Clin Infect Dis* **26**: 97-109
 28. **Wyde P.R, Ambrose M.W, Gilbert B.E, Meyerson L.R.** 1993. The antiviral activity of SP-303, a natural polyphenolic polymer, against respiratory syncytial and parainfluenza type 3 viruses in cotton rats. *Antiviral Res* **20**:145-154
 29. **Zhao L.F, Zhang X.L.** 2000. Extraction of tannins from herbal agrimoniae. *Baoji Wenli Xueyuan Xuebao, Ziran Kexueban* **20**:196-197 (in Chinese).

Chapter 6

ANTIFUNGAL PROPERTIES OF A TRADITIONAL MEDICINE (*IHL*) USED FOR THE TREATMENT OF *CANDIDA ALBICANS* AND *CRYPTOCOCCUS* *NEOFORMANS* INFECTIONS

*Submitted for consideration for publication in the
African Journal of Traditional, Complementary and
Alternative medicines*

ANTIFUNGAL PROPERTIES OF A TRADITIONAL MEDICINE (*IHL*) USED FOR THE TREATMENT OF *CANDIDA ALBICANS* AND *CRYPTOCOCCUS NEOFORMANS* INFECTIONS

N Jwara¹, EB Thabethe², N Gqaleni¹ and W Sturm³

Traditional Medicine Laboratory¹, Traditional Health Practitioner², Department of Medical Microbiology³, Nelson R Mandela School of Medicine, University of KwaZulu-Natal, Durban, South Africa

6.0 Abstract

Traditional medicines are anecdotally claimed to have positive effects on human immunodeficiency virus or Acquired Immunodeficiency syndrome (HIV/AIDS) patients though there has not been scientific validation of such claims. They could either act directly against the HIV or indirectly by inhibition of organisms causing opportunistic infections. To investigate antifungal properties of a traditional medicine, *Ihlamvu laseAfrika (IHL)*, used for treatment of AIDS related infections. A crude extract of *IHL* was lyophilised and reconstituted into stock standards that were prepared using seven solvents of differing polarities. The disk diffusion technique was used to assess growth inhibition of these extracts against *Candida albicans* and *Cryptococcus neoformans*. Using the extract displaying the greatest activity, several working matrix-equivalent concentrations made were used to determine minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC). Confirmatory test of MIC's was done with broth microdilution method. The minimum lethal concentration (MLC) was the subsequent test conducted after broth microdilution.

Results: *C. albicans* displayed extreme susceptibility towards an aqueous extract of *IHL* (30 mg/mL) than *C. neoformans* ($p < 0.001$). The corresponding zone of inhibition for *C. albicans* was (10.5±1.64) mm and for *C. neoformans* was (21.3±2.34) mm on agar

culture. Both organisms had MIC's of 1mg/mL. The MIC's recorded for both *C. Albicans* and *C. neoformans* with broth microdilution technique was 2mg/mL, The MLC's recorded against *C. albicans* and *C. neoformans* were 32.0 and 8.00 mg/mL respectively. *IHL* proved fungicidal at higher concentrations and fungistatic at low concentrations.

Conclusion: *IHL* displayed antifungal activity and the broth microdilution method proved to be a sensitive tool for growth detection.

Keywords: *IHL*, *Cryptococcus neoformans*, *Candida Albicans*, broth microdilution

6.1 Introduction

Opportunistic fungal infections account for 58% to 81% prevalence and 10% to 20% morbidity and mortality rate (Drouhent *et al*, 1989) especially in immunocompromised hosts including organ transplant patients (Fischer-Hoch *et al*, 1995). Candidiasis is an example of nosocomial infections as a result of organ transplant (Cox *et al*, 1993; Holmstrup *et al*, 1990, Odds, 1988). Current antifungal treatment options are lacking in efficacy whilst showing high level of toxicity. Drug resistance has been greatly enhanced with AIDS epidemic highlighting the need to develop new classes of antifungal drugs (Sheehan *et al*, 1999). Both *Candida albicans* and *Cryptococcus neoformans* have recently displayed azole-resistant associated with AIDS epidemic (Poeta *et al*, 1998).

Antibiotics were discovered in 1940 as synthesized drugs either by man or microorganisms that act to inhibit growth of other microorganisms or kill them (Ritter *et al*, 1996). At present, Amphotericin B (AMB) is regarded as the “gold standard” for

treating fungal infection. Its efficacy however has been thwarted by its serious side effects that may be life-threatening including nephrotoxicity, chills and fever. Fluconazole and itraconazole are also two useful antifungal treatment drugs classified as azole (Graybill, 1989). It is such limitations that bring about the need for new antifungal agents (Salama *et al*, 2001).

Infectious diseases have been treated with plant extracts in Africa for centuries. Sexually transmitted diseases (STD) always responded well to such treatments. In 1999 there was an estimated 340 million new cases of STD reported (WHO, 2001). The prevalence of STD has been rife in South and East Asia followed by sub-Saharan Africa, Latin America, and the Caribbean (WHO, 2001). The organisms would prefer warm, moist and dark places such as the mouth, genitals and anus. The infecting organisms would vary from bacteria, viruses and fungi. There is growing evidence that prove that these pathogens facilitate acquisition and AIDS transmission (Wasserheit, 1992; Fleming *et al*, 1999). It is believed and thus proven that STD regulation may greatly control HIV infections (Grosskurt *et al*, 1995; Gilson *et al*, 1997; Mayaud *et al*, 1997).

IHL is the traditional medicine that is currently anecdotally used by people living with AIDS (PLWA). It is a polyherbal remedy consisting, among others, *Terminalia L* spp which has been investigated for antifungal activity (Baba-Moussa *et al*, 1999; Silva *et al*, 1996). According to Baba-Moussa *et al* in a study conducted in 1999, its antifungal activity was mainly attributed to tannins present. In another study by Masoko *et al*

(2005), on antifungal properties of *Combretaceae*, it displayed an MIC as low as 0.02mg/mL.

In this study, the disk diffusion method was used to determine both pathogens' susceptibility towards *IHL* and also establish MICs. The disk diffusion method had previously been used to determine antimicrobial activity (Salie *et al*, 1996; van Staden, 1997; Kelmason *et al*, 2000; McGaw *et al*, 2000; Madomombe *et al*, 2003; Samie *et al*, 2005). Further confirmatory test with the broth microdilution technique would also determine species susceptibility as well as its MIC. Broth microdilution has proved useful for antimicrobial screening (Espinell-Ingroff *et al*, 1995). As a spectroscopic technique, broth microdilution best mimics dynamics of fungus in a biological fluid (Thamburan *et al*, 2006).

6.2 Materials and Methods

6.2.1 Plant extract. The traditional medicine, *IHL*, was obtained from Mr E.B Thabethe, a local traditional health practitioner (THP). The materials transfer agreement was reviewed and validated by the Research Legal Officer and the University of KwaZulu-Natal (UKZN) Innovation. The study received ethical approval from the UKZN ethics committee (ref. BF069/07).

6.2.2 Preparation of plant extracts. Approximately 1kg of a mixture of herbs was mixed with about 6L of water and boiled for more than 6 hours. After cooling, it was filtered with muslin cloth and bottled. A 2L solution of this crude extract of *IHL* was filtered, freeze-dried and lyophilized. Different solvents such as methanol (EtOH),

ethanol (EtOH), acetone, ethyl acetate (EA), cyclohexane, dichloromethane (DCM) and water were used to extract the product. The solutions were rigorously shaken and centrifuged at 3500rpm until the filtrate finally yielded a standard concentration of 30mg/mL for each extract.

6.2.3 Micro-organisms. An isolate of *C. albicans* was obtained from Inkosi Albert Luthuli Central Hospital (IALCH) and *C. neoformans* was obtained from the Medical Microbiology Department, UKZN. The *C. neoformans* isolates were suspended in water and kept at ambient temperature until further use.

6.2.4 Antimicrobial susceptibility testing. The disk diffusion method was performed according to M44-P specifications. Overnight broth cultures were adjusted to match 1 and 0.5 McFarland standards for *C. neoformans* and *C. albicans* respectively. Molten Sabourad Dextrose Agar (SDA) was allowed to cool to 45°C. This was transferred into sterile Petri dishes and allowed to solidify. Three drops of the inoculum were put on plate's surface and these were streaked with sterile loop to ensure uniform growth of cultures. Susceptibility was carried out with 30mg/mL concentration of the six extracts per organism. Three disks were delivered onto each plate's surface and tests were done in triplicates. Disks impregnated with drug-free solvents were assayed along as negative controls and fluconazole (2mg/mL) (Hexal Pharma) served as positive control. Plates were incubated at 37°C for 24 and 48 hours for *C. albicans* and *C. neoformans* respectively. After incubation, zones of inhibition around disks measured and recorded in

millimeters. The defining criteria would be the measure of the zones diameter hence solvent extract displaying best activity would have largest zones of inhibition.

6.2.5 Minimum Inhibitory Concentration (MIC)

6.2.5.1. Disk Diffusion: The medicinal extract displaying largest zones of inhibition from the aforementioned test was used to determine MIC. That extract was serially diluted from 60mg/mL to 0.01mg/mL concentrations. Fluconazole was used as positive control and drug-free solvent served as a negative control. A loopful of fungal organisms previously diluted was used to inoculate each plate. These plates were incubated at 35°C for 24 and 48 hours for *C. albicans* and *C. neoformans* respectively. Zones of inhibition were recorded in millimeters. The MIC of an extract was defined as the lowest concentration that would not permit growth of test organisms.

6.2.5.2. Broth Microdilution: To mimic fungus dynamics within bodily fluids, MIC in broth was determined (Thamburan *et al*, 2006). Minimum inhibitory concentration was performed with broth microdilution assay as defined in NCCLS guidelines document M27-A12 however, with slight adjustments. In brief, RPMI 1640 (Sigma) was supplemented with 0.3g of glutamine/L buffered with 0.165M morpholinepropanesulfonic acid (MOPS, Gibco Laboratories) and its pH was adjusted to 7.0 and 2g of glucose was added. One hundred microliters of fluconazole and drug-free medium (controls) and serially diluted traditional medicine were dispensed into a 96 well microtitre plate (Falcon 3072; Becton Dickson). The concentration of traditional medicine extract after addition of inoculum ranged from 32mg/mL to 0mg/mL. Fungi

inocula (100 μ L) were adjusted spectrophotometrically. Briefly, an inoculum was prepared from each isolate taken from 24 hours old culture grown at 35°C and the turbidities of the resulting yeast suspension were adjusted spectrophotometrically from 1 X10⁶ to 5 X 10⁶ at 530nm. The adjustments were done such that *C. Albicans* had a percent transmission matching 0.5 McFarland and *C. neoformans* matched 1 McFarland. Plates were incubated for 24 to 48 hours for both species respectively. The drug-free and yeast-free controls were also added. Plates were briefly shaken at 250rpm at ambient temperature and absorbance read with microplate reader (Perkin Elmer) at 630nm followed by incubation for 24 and 48 hrs, *C. albicans* and *C. neoformans* respectively. After incubation, the species proliferation was reassessed spectrophotometrically and the second absorbance readings recorded. Hence, proliferation was determined by subtracting the absorbance values acquired before and after incubation (Das *et al*, 2010). The MIC was determined with reference to density of drug-free control and it was defined as the lowest antifungal concentration required to inhibit 50% or 80% of the control growth (Lozano-Chiu *et al*, 1999; Nguyen and Yu, 1999; Odds *et al*, 1995; Pfaller *et al*, 1995).

6.2.5.3 Minimum Lethal Concentration (MLC): The advantage with broth microdilution assay is its ability to further determine fungicidal/fungistatic activity. The minimum lethal concentration of each dilution was determined by plating 100 μ L extract sample displaying no observable growth onto SDA. According to definition, MLC is the lowest concentration of the drug at which no colonies displayed visible growth, hence at the established concentrations fungi is completely killed.

6.2.5.4 Statistical analyses: The Student T-test was used to compare zones of inhibition. All values were quoted as the mean \pm SEM (standard error of the mean) and were considered significant at $p < 0.05$

6.3 Results

Figure 6.1 shows results of antifungal activities of seven solvents of differing polarities used to extract antifungal compounds from *IHL*, and tested against *C. neoformans* using the disk diffusion assay compared with fluconazole as a positive control. In the case of fluconazole, triple distilled H₂O (tdH₂O) was the best solvent to yielding a zone of inhibition of about (39.7 \pm 0.94) mm, followed by ethanol (29.7 \pm 3.68) mm, and the least was cyclohexane which results in no inhibition. All the solvents used to extract *IHL* resulted in an inhibition zone of less than 10mm, with the exception of tdH₂O with (21.1 \pm 2.40) mm. Acetone, dichloromethane and ethanol resulted in equivalent zones of inhibition of *C. neoformans* making them not suitable solvents to use. Furthermore, the zones of inhibition by *IHL* extracted with these solvents may not reflect its efficacy against *C. neoformans* but rather that of the solvents. On the one hand, tdH₂O, methanol, ethyl acetate and cyclohexane supported antifungal activities of *IHL*. However, tdH₂O resulted in significantly high inhibitions zones than the rest ($p < 0.005$).

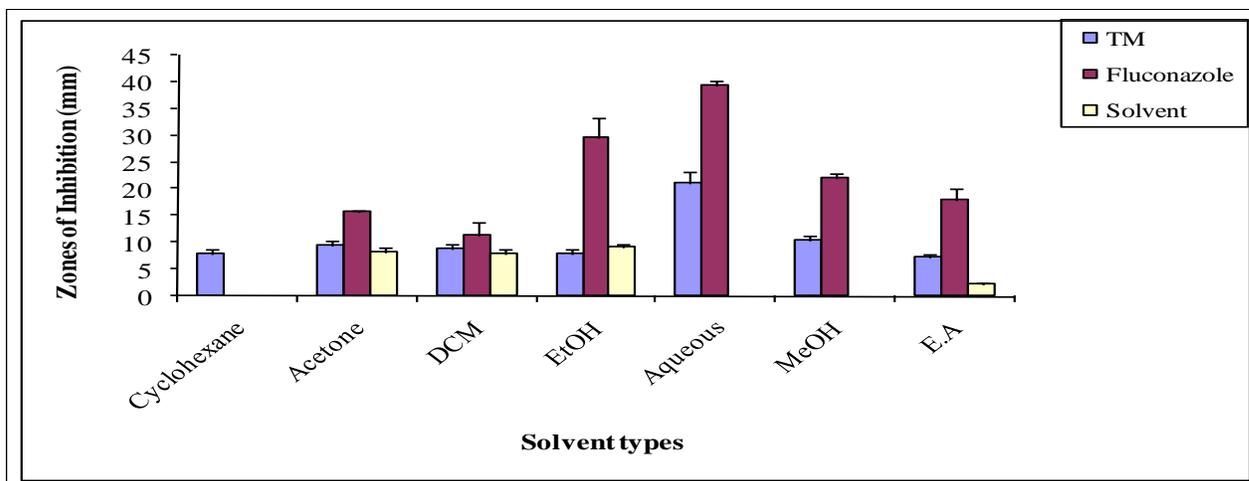


Figure 6.1: Results of antifungal screening of extracts of *IHL* against *Cryptococcus neoformans* using the disk diffusion assay and fluconazole as the positive control. Tests were done fifteen times for statistical purposes.

The seven extracts of *IHL* traditional medicine extracts were also tested against *C. albicans* as indicated in figure 6.2 using fluconazole as a positive control. The results were similar to those of *C. neoformans* in that, triple distilled H₂O (tdH₂O) was the best solvent to use with fluconazole yielding a zone of inhibition of about (30.67±0.57) mm, followed by ethanol (26.0±1.00) mm, and the least was cyclohexane which resulted in no inhibition. All the solvents used to extract *IHL* resulted in an inhibition zone of less than 10mm, with the exception of cyclohexane and ethanol where *IHL* was not efficacious making them not suitable solvents to use.

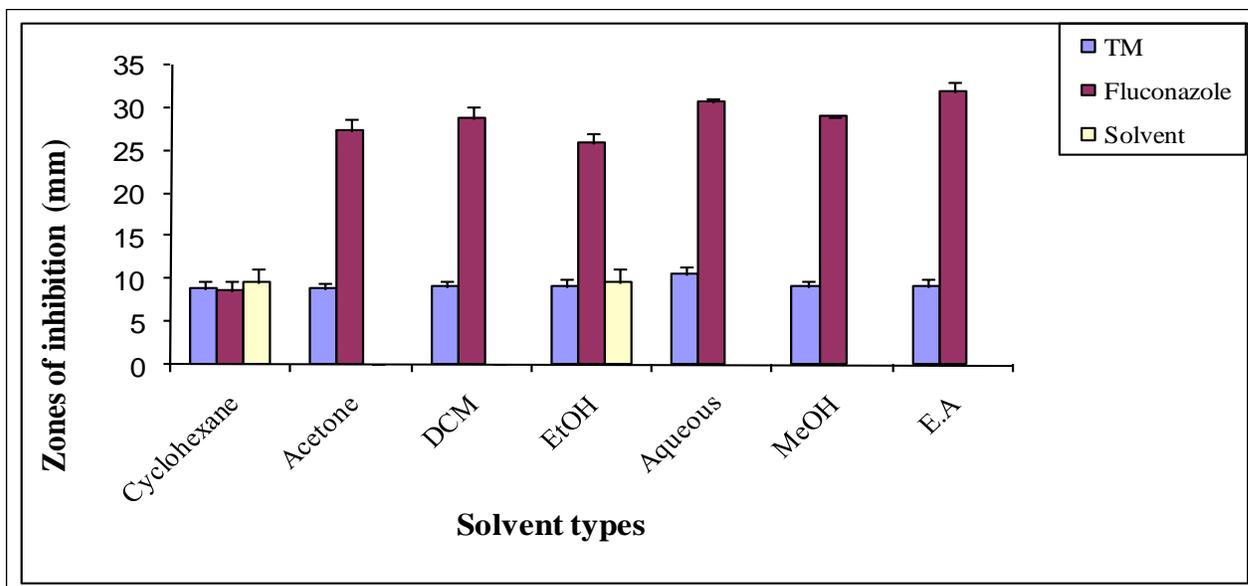


Figure 6.2: Results of antifungal screening of several extracts of *IHL* tested against *Candida albicans* with disk diffusion assay are displayed. Fluconazole was used as a positive control and tests were also done in replicates of fifteen. In the case of fluconazole extracts, it displayed largest zones of inhibition than most *IHL* extracts and controls alike. In this instance the positive control with the largest zone (32.0 ± 1.00) mm was achieved with ethyl acetate (E.A) followed by an aqueous extract (30.7 ± 0.58) mm and the least was the cyclohexane extract (8.67 ± 1.15) mm. The two negative controls, cyclohexane (9.67 ± 1.53) mm and ethanol (9.67 ± 1.53) mm displayed antimicrobial properties with similar inhibitory potential making their contributions towards growth inhibition impossible to ignore ($p < 0.05$). Finally, amongst *IHL* extracts, it was noticed that an aqueous extract displayed the largest zones of inhibition (10.5 ± 1.64) mm and the least zone of inhibition produced by DCM was (9.00 ± 0.00) mm.

Having established the aqueous extract as the most active, it was therefore used to determine MIC of *IHL* for both organisms. The disk diffusion results in figure 6.3 depict the MIC of *IHL* against *C. neoformans* and *C. albicans* to be both 1mg/ml.

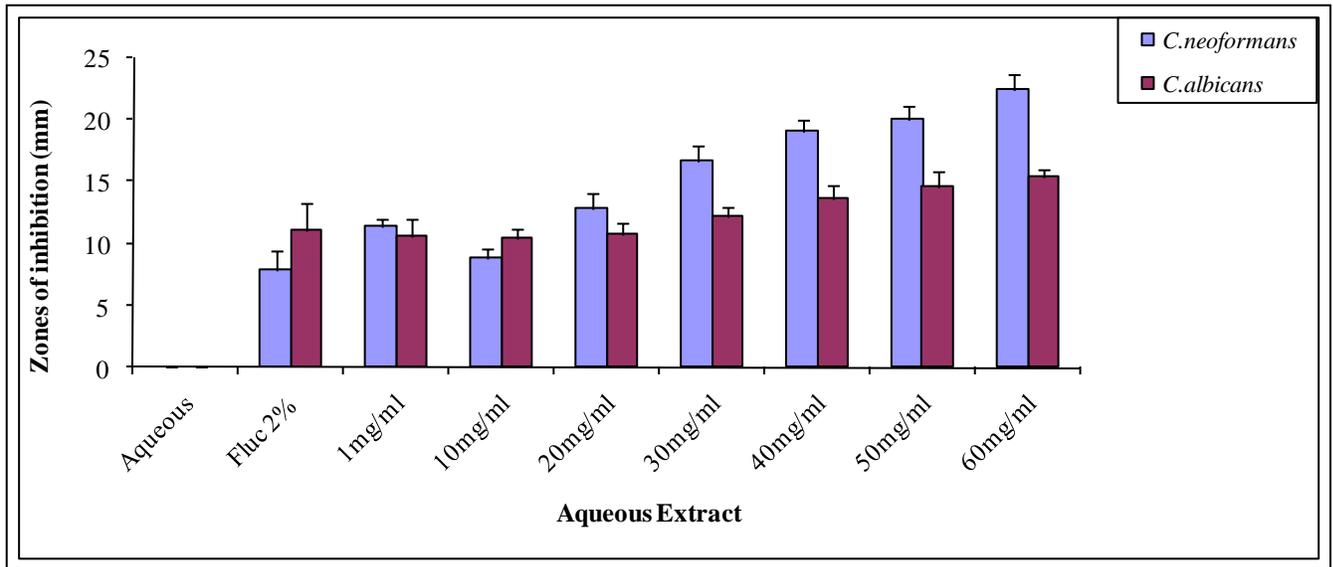


Figure 6.3: The dose dependant response curve of *C. neoformans* and *C. albicans* after treating with an aqueous extracts of *IHL* in which the MICs were concluded using the disk diffusion assay. Fluconazole was used as a positive indicator and tests were also carried out in replicates of fifteen in each organism. *C. neoformans* proved to be the most susceptible towards *IHL* against *C. albicans*. However, both organisms achieved similar MIC at 1mg/ml however, *C. neoformans* had the largest zones of inhibition (11.4 ± 0.55) mm confirming its sensibility whereas (10.6 ± 1.34) mm for *C. albicans* was produced (*- significant $p < 0.05$ and ***- extremely significant $p < 0.0001$). All results compare to a negative control.

The broth microdilution results are graphically as displayed in the figure 6.4.

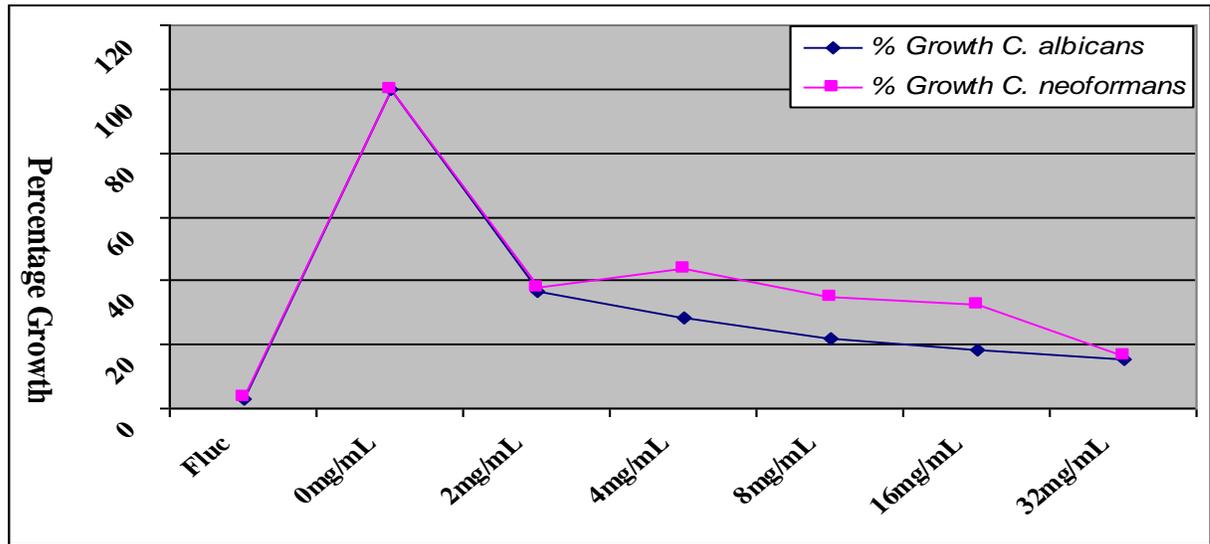


Figure 6.4: The above graph displays MIC results obtained with broth microdilution method. In this graph an apparent proliferation decrease in both *C. neoformans* and *C. albicans* that is dose-dependant was depicted. Both *C. albicans* and *C. neoformans* shared a common MIC at 2mg/mL. The corresponding percentage growth at 2mg/mL was $(36.7 \pm 2.924)\%$ and tests were done in triplicates.

The broth microdilution test gave way to the determination of the minimum lethal concentration (MLC) of the neat extract of *IHL* which helped ascertain the extract's fungicidal or fungistatic nature.

Table 6.1: In the above table the MLC results of both *C. albicans* and *C. neoformans* against neat extract of *IHL* are illustrated. Y represented a “yes” and N represented a “no” to growth. The MLC of *IHL* acquired when tested against *C. albicans* and *C. neoformans* was 32 mg/mL and 8 mg/mL respectively. Tests were done in triplicates.

Medicinal Concentration	Species Growth (Y/N)	
	<i>Candida albicans</i>	<i>Cryptococcus neoformans</i>
32mg/mL	N	N
16mg/mL	Y	N
8mg/mL	Y	N
4mg/mL	Y	Y
2mg/mL	Y	Y
-ve control	Y	Y
+ve control (0.1mg/mL)	N	N

6.4 Discussion

Disk Diffusion: *IHL* is hypothesized to act as a non-specific repressor of pathogens a person living with HIV and AIDS presents with. The antifungal properties of *IHL* has been confirmed thus further justifies its utilization by people living with AIDS (PLWA) who present with opportunistic infections due to *C. albicans* and *C. neoformans*, depending on severity of damage to the immune system.

The agar disk diffusion method has gained a wide appreciation and reputed for best determining plant’s antimicrobial properties (Freixa *et al*, 1996; Salie *et al*, 1996; Ergene

et al, 2006) and most particularly, antifungal properties. The agar disk technique has proven most appropriate for preliminary screening of trace substances or small sample (Rios *et al*, 1988). It was also established that antifungal properties of *IHL* varies with solvent utilized. Previous studies also concur with the notion that in order to extract biological active principle from plant material, the choice of solvent used for extraction plays a crucial (Parekh *et al*, 2005). Water represents a universal solvent that can extract active compounds having antimicrobial properties that most THP's use. Complementary to the work done by THP's, research into medicinal plants have revealed even the most effective means of extraction involving solvents (Parekh *et al*, 2005). The choice of solvent utilized should be such that it should not partake in the bioassay (Ncube *et al*, 2007). An aqueous control displayed no growth inhibition hence, the result output was zero. However, solvents such as acetone*, dichloromethane*** cyclohexane and ethanol* with growth inhibition recordings that are above 5mm, they play a significant role (*-significant, $p < 0.05$, ***- extremely significant, $p < 0.001$ respectively) to be ignored.

Ethanol, isopropyl and propanol proved to possess broad-spectrum antimicrobial activities against vegetative bacteria, viruses and non-sporicidal fungi (Morton, 1983). The results due to an ethanol extract of *IHL* seem to concur with the said statement. For instance in figure 6.1, there is significant and obvious contributions attributed to ethanol, DCM, acetone and cyclohexane controls. It has also been established that *IHL* possess antimicrobial properties hence, it is incumbent that potentiation or synergism of antimicrobial properties should be anticipated. However, the ethanol extract output seems to contradict these expectations. There is strong probability however that the given set of

ethanol extract results might be as a result of denaturation of certain proteins (Larson *et al*, 1991, Morton, 1983) thus lessening antimicrobial effect of *IHL* as it was observed during plant extraction which resulted in the formation of two layers.

In a study done by Thamburan *et al* (2006), the susceptibility of *C. albicans*, *Candida glabrata*, *Candida Krusei* and *C. neoformans* towards *Tulbaghia alliacea*, *Allium sativum* and *Tulbaghia violacea* that was extracted with an aqueous, methanol and chloroform solvents on an agar plate method was established. From the study it was concluded that the chloroform extract of *T. alliacea* was the most potent than *A sativum* and *A violacea* in inhibiting growth of *C. albicans*. It therefore seems that *C. albicans* proved most sensitive to test substances than most organisms. According to the THP, *IHL* is composed of several plants. The active components whether working singularly or in unison in inhibiting fungal growth, only the fractionated components could confirm, however the results seemed to have displayed synergism as observed with both strains in which *C. albicans* proved most sensitive (figure 6.3).

Broth microdilution: The microtitre plate or broth microdilution technique has proven most useful in determining MIC in large scales. The presentation of *IHL* posed a serious challenge especially when proliferation had to be visually assessed. In general, species proliferation after incubation has been assessed with changes in turbidity, a marker of species growth. The wells that seem clear would denote an MIC of an agent (Das *et al*, 2010). However, some researchers chose indicators such as tetrazolium salts or resazurin dye (Umeh *et al*, 2005), or spectrophotometric techniques to gauge proliferation

(Devienne *et al*, 2002; Matsumoto *et al*, 2001). Spectrophotometric assessment was chosen because *IHL* presented as a dark and viscous substance which upon serially dilutions introduced colour variance thus giving ‘phenotypic’ inconsistencies. Subsequently, to determine organisms’ proliferation the absorbance values were subtracted from those acquired before incubation. That was done to eliminate the interference of the test substance (Das *et al*, 2010). MIC’s were thus spectrophotometrically determined by comparing against density of the drug-free control since MIC’s is defined as the lowest antifungal concentration that inhibit 50 or 80% of the drug-free control (Lozano-Chiu *et al*, 1999; Nguyen and Yu, 1999; Odds *et al*, 1995; Pfaller *et al*, 1995).

It was incumbent that the negative control displayed 100% proliferation of species with broth technique in order to enable distinguish the activity of the test substance. *IHL* markedly decreased species proliferation in a dose dependant manner. A sharp decline that resulted in 80% growth inhibition of *C. albicans* when compared to the negative control, befitting definition of an MIC was observed.

Susceptibility testing using broth microdilution method proved quite sensitive and reproducible as well reputed as best tool since the test displayed good correlation *in vitro-in vivo* clinical findings in oropharyngeal candidiasis patients infected with HIV (Revankar *et al*, 1998). The MIC’s established with both broth microdilution (2mg/mL) and agar plate disk assay (1mg/mL) on *C. albicans* showed slight difference. The study has managed to show that the solid medium (disk assay) when compare to broth assay, it

is the most sensitive. However, according to Revankar *et al* (1998) in a similar study they felt that such deduction was most unlikely and they subsequently dubbed their results as inconclusive.

Minimum lethal concentration: The advantage of performing broth microdilution assay is that it gives way to the agar dilution method which helps determine agent's lethal activity. The minimum lethal concentration (MLC) of *IHL* was determined on SDA plates. The MLC can be defined as an antifungal concentration of an agent at which no colonies displayed visible growth after 24hrs and 48hrs incubations of *C. albicans* and *C. neoformans* respectively. The MLC assay was performed by aliquoting 100µL of each sample and plated that onto agar followed by species incubation. Normally samples would be taken where no growth displayed on microtitre plate. The results as seen in table 6.1 proved *C. neoformans* to be the most sensitive of the two organisms. Apparently with the two disks assays (MIC and MLC), a trend was noticed whereby *C. neoformans* again proved relatively sensitive towards *IHL*. *C. neoformans* and *C. albicans* were both killed at 8mg/mL and 32mg/mL respectively. Resilience displayed by *C. albicans* lead to an observation that it doesn't readily respond to medication be it orthodox drugs or traditional medicines as witnessed in both figures 6.1 and 6.2 (aqueous extracts).

When comparing the effect of *IHL* against *T. alliicae*, in a study by Thamburan *et al* (2006) it was shown that *T. alliicae* extract was capable of reducing cell densities (colony forming units) 5 hours post-treatment and an additional 1000 fold reduction after 24 hours exposure, virtually displaying its fungicidal activity. *IHL* displayed fungicidal

activity towards *C. albicans* and *C. neoformans* at 32 mg/mL and 8mg/mL, respectively. Both fungicidal concentrations (8mg/mL and 32mg/mL) as sampled on the microtitre plate fall below the percentage growth rate (20%) (figure 6.4) which confers fungicidal characteristics to *IHL*. Furthermore the agar disk diffusion MIC's should thus be also considered to be fungistatic as well since these concentrations rather inhibit proliferation as opposed to killing these pathogens. It can be argued that the MLC of *IHL* could not have been realized had only concentrations displaying no growth were considered. Such a hypothesis is viewed to be limited to test substances that introduce no colour changes upon utilization. The MLC exercise had previously been limited to concentration that prohibited growth (Falahati *et al*, 2006). However, in this investigation what became apparent is that at higher concentrations *IHL* proved fungicidal and fungistatic at lower concentrations.

6.5 Conclusion

IHL displayed positive activity with regards to growth inhibition towards *C. neoformans* and *C. albicans*, they both proved susceptible towards it. Further fractionation and identification of active components is warranted.

6.6 Acknowledgements:

The authors wish to acknowledge funding from the Department of Science and Technology, National Research Foundation, Indigenous Knowledge Systems and LifeLab.

6.7 References:

1. **Baba-Moussa F, Akpagana K, Bouchet P.** 1999. Antifungal activities of seven West African Combretaceae used in traditional medicine. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology* **66**: 335-338
2. **Cox G, Perfect J.R.** 1993. Fungal infections. *Curr. Opin. Infect. Dis* **6**: 422-426
3. **Das K, Shrivastana D.K, Tiwari R.K.S.** 2010. Techniques for evaluation of medicinal plant products as antimicrobial agent: Current methods and future Trends. *Journal of Medicinal Plants Research* Vol. 4(2), pp. 104-111
4. **Devienne K.F, Raddi M.S.G.** 2002. Screening for antimicrobial activity of natural products using a microplate photometer. *Braz. J. Microbiol* 33(2): 97-105
5. **Drouhent E, Dupont B.** 1989. Fluconazol for the treatment of fungal diseases in immunosuppressed patients. *Ann N Y Acad Sci* 544-570
6. **Ergene A, Guler P, Hamzaoglu E.D, Mirici S, Tan S.** 2006. Antimicrobial and antifungal activity of *Heracleum sphondylium* subsp. *Artvinense*. *Afr.J.Biotechnol* 5(11): 1087-1089

-
7. **Espinel-Ingroff A, Pfaller M.A.** 1995. Antifungal agents and susceptibility testing. In: Tenover, F.C., Yolken, R.H., Murray, P.R., Baron, E.J., Pfaller, M.A. (Eds.), *Manual of Clinical Microbiology*. ASM Press, Washington, DC, pp. 1405–1414
 8. **Falahati M, Bagheri K.P, Ebrahimi A. S, Jahaniani F, Rodaki M, Shabani M.** 2006. Interaction between Ketoconazole, amphotericin B and Terbinafin and three Diazenumdiolates in concomittant uses against some fungal species. *Daru Vol 14(2)*: 87-92
 9. **Fischer-Hosch S.P, Hutwagner L.** 1995. Opportunistic candidiasis: an epidermic of the 1980's. *Clin. Infect. Dis* **21**: 897-904
 10. **Fleming D.T, Wasserheit J.N.** 1999. From epidemiology synergy to public health policy and practice: the contribution of other sexually transmitted diseases to sexual transmission of HIV infection. *Sexually Transmitted Infections* **75**: 3–17
 11. **Freixa B, Adzet T, Caniguera S, Lozano N, Villa R, Vargas L.** 1996. Screening for antifungal activity of nineteen Latin American plants. *Phytotherapy. Res* **12(6)**: 427-430
 12. **Gilson L, Fransen L, Gavyole A, Grosskurth H, Hayes R, Mabey D, Mayaud P, Mills A, Mkanje R, Mosha F, Picard J, Swai R, Todd J.** 1997. Cost-effectiveness of improved STD treatment services as a preventive intervention against HIV in Mwanza Region, Tanzania. *Lancet* **350**: 1805–1809

-
13. **Graybill J.R.** 1989. New antifungal agents. *Eur. J.Clin. Microbiol. Infect. Dis* **5**: 402-412
 14. **Grosskurth H, Changalucha J, Hayes R, Mabey D, Mayaud P, Meugeye K, Mosha F, Mwijarubi E, Ka-Gina F, Klokke A, Nicoll A, Newell J, Senkoror K, Todd J.** 1995. Impact of improved treatment of sexually transmitted diseases on HIV infection in rural Tanzania: randomized controlled trial. *Lancet* **346**: 530–536
 15. **Holmstrup P, Samaranayake L.P.** 1990. Acute AIDS Related Oral Candidosis. In: Oral Candidosis, (L.P. Samaranayake and T.W. McFarlane, Eds) Butterworth, London
 16. **Kelmanson J.E, Jager A.K, van Staden J.** 2000. Zulu medicinal plants with antibacterial activity. *Journal of Ethnopharmacol* **69**: 241-246
 17. **Larson E. L, Morton H. E.** 1991. In S. S. Block (ed.), Disinfection, sterilization, and preservation, 4th ed. Lea & Febiger, Philadelphia, Pa. *Alcohols* p. 191–203
 18. **Lozano-Chiu M, Arikian S, Anaissie E.J, Paetznick V.L, Rex J.H.** 1999. Optimizing voriconazole susceptibility testing of *Candida*: effect of incubation time, endpoint rule, species of *Candida*, and level of fluconazole susceptibility. *J. Clin. Microbiol* **37**: 2755-2759
 19. **Madomombe I.T, Afolayan A.J.** 2003. Evaluation of antimicrobial activity of extracts from South African *Usnea barbata*. *Pharmaceutical Biology* **41**: 199-202

-
20. **Masoko P, Eloff J.N, Picard J.** 2005. Antifungal activities of six African *Terminalia* species (*Combretaceae*). *J. Ethnopharmacol* **99**: 301-308
 21. **Matsumoto M, Asaoka T, Ishida K, Konagai A, Maebashi K.** 2001. Strong antifungal activity of SS750, a new Triazole derivative, is based on its selective binding affinity to cytochrome P450 of fungi. *Antimicrob.Agents Chemother* **46(2)**: 308-314
 22. **Mayaud P, Balira R, Gabone R, Gavyole A, Grosskurth H, Hayes R, Mosha F, Mgara J, Mwijarubi E, Rusizoka M, Todd J, West B.** 1997. Improved treatment services significantly reduce the prevalence of sexually transmitted diseases in rural Tanzania: results of a randomized controlled trial. *AIDS* **11**: 1873–1880
 23. **McGaw L.J, Jäger A.K, van Staden J.** 2000. Antibacterial, anthelmintic and antiamoebic activity in South African medicinal plants. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology* **72**: 247–263
 24. **Morton H. E.** 1983. In S. S. Bloch (ed.), Disinfection, sterilization, and preservation, 3rd ed. Lea & Febiger, Philadelphia, Pa. *Alcohols*. p. 225–239
 25. **Ncube N.S, Afolayan A.J, Okoh A.I.** 2008. Assessment techniques of antimicrobial properties of natural compounds of plant origin; current methods and future trends. *African Journal of Biotechnology* **7(12)**: 1797-1806
 26. **Nguyen M. H, Yu C. Y.** 1999. Influence of incubation time, inoculum size, and glucose concentration on spectrophotometric endpoint determinations for amphotericin B, fluconazole, and itraconazole. *J. Clin. Microbiol* **37**:141–145

-
27. **Odds F.C.** 1988. *Candida* and Candidosis: A Review and Bibliography, 2nd ed., Balliere Tindall, London
 28. **Odds F. C, Vranckx L, Woestenborghs F.** 1995. Antifungal susceptibility testing of yeasts: evaluation of technical variables for test automation. *Antimicrob. Agents Chemother* **39**:2051–2060
 29. **Parekh J, Chanda S, Jadeia D.** 2005. Efficacy of aqueous and methanol extracts of some medicinal plants for potential antibacterial activity. *Turk. J. Biol* **29**: 203-210
 30. **Pfaller M. A, Coffman S, Messer S. A.** 1995. Comparison of visual and spectrophotometric methods of MIC endpoint determinations by using broth microdilution methods to test five antifungal agents, including the new triazole D0870. *J. Clin. Microbiol* **33**:1094–1097
 31. **Poeta M.D, Bajic M, Czarny A, Dykstra C.C, Jones S, Perfect J.R, Schell W.A, Tidwell R.R.** 1998. Structure *in vitro* activity relationships of pentamidine analogues and dication-substituted Bis-benzimidazoles as new antifungal agents. *Antimicrobial agents and chemotherapy* **42**: 2495-250
 32. **Revankar S.G, Dib O.P, Kirkpatrick W.R, et al.** 1998. Clinical evaluation and microbiology of oropharyngeal infection due to fluconazole-resistant *Candida* in human immunodeficiency virus-infected patients. *Clinical Infectious Diseases* **26**:960–3
 33. **Rios J.L, Recio M.C, Villar A.** 1988. Screening methods for natural products with antimicrobial activity: a review of the literature. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology* **23**: 127- 149

-
34. **Ritter B, Coombs R.F, Drysdale R.B, Gardner G.A, Lum D.T.** 1996. Biology. *Nelson Canada, British Colombia Edition, Ontario, Canada*
 35. **Salama S.M, Atwal H, Furukawa T, Gandhi A, Khan J.K, Micetich R.G, Montaseri H, Poglod M, Simon J, Saito H.** 2001. *In vitro* and *in vivo* activities of *Syn2836, Syn2869, Syn2903, Syn2903 and Syn2921*: New series of triazole antifungal agents. *Antimicrobial Agents and Chemotherapy* **45**: 2420-2426
 36. **Salie F, Eagles P.F.K, Lens H.M.J.** 1996. Preliminary antimicrobial screening of four South African *Asteraceae* species. *J. Ethnopharmacol* **52(1)**: 27-33
 37. **Samie A, Bessong P.O, Namrita L, Obi C.L.** 2005. Activity profiles of fourteen selected plants from rural Venda communities in South Africa against fifteen clinical bacterial species. *African Journal of Biotechnology* **4**: 1443-1451
 38. **Sheehan D.J, Hoelscher A.C, Sibley M.C.** 1999. Current and emerging azole antifungal agents. *Clin. Microbiol. Rev* **12**: 40-79
 39. **Silva O, Cabrita J, Diniz A, Duarte A, Gomes E, Pimentel M.** 1996. Antimicrobial activity of Guinea-Bissau traditional remedies. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology* **59**: 55–59
 40. **Thamburan S, Cannon J.F, Folk W, Johnson Q, Klaasen J, Mabusela W.T.** 2006. *Tulbaghia alliaca* Phytotherapy: A Potential Antiinfective Remedy for Candidiasis. *Phytother Res* **20**: 000-000

-
41. **Umeh E.U, Igoli O, Oluma H.O.A.** 2005. Antibacterial screening of four local plants using an indicator-based microdilution technique. *Afr.J. Tradit. Complement. Altern. Med* 2(3): 238-243
 42. **Rabe van Staden J.** 1997. Antibacterial activity of South African plants used for medicinal purposes. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology* **56**: 81-87
 43. **Wasserheit, J.N.** 1992. Epidemiological synergy: Interrelationships between human immunodeficiency virus infection and other sexually transmitted diseases. *Sexually Transmitted Diseases* **19**: 61–77
 44. **WHO.** 2001. Global prevalence and incidence of selected curable sexually transmitted infections, overview and estimates. In: WHO/HIV AIDS/2001.02, World Health Organization, Geneva

Chapter 7

An investigation into
antimycobacterium properties of *IHL*,
in vitro

7.0 Abstract

Introduction: *Ihlamvu laseAfrika (IHL)* is traditional medicine (TM) that is currently used for human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) and Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome (AIDS) related infections in KwaZulu-Natal. Several properties characterize *IHL* since immunocompetent and patients co-infected with *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* draw benefit. Research revealed immense antimycobacterial properties *Euclea natalensis* plant species had displayed irrespective of portions of the plant used (Lall *et al*, 2000). These may singularly or together with other plants species constituting *IHL* treat tuberculosis.

Objective: To investigate antimycobacterial properties of *IHL* used for control tubercular infection.

Materials and Methods: A crude extract of *IHL* was prepared as previously stated. 1% proportion method and the agar dilution technique were used to measured growth inhibition of H37Rv against several extracts of *IHL*. The plant extract capable of displaying the strongest activity was used to determine MIC.

Results: H37RV strain proved susceptible towards *IHL* since visible growth less than 1% of the control was observed. Similarly, the agar dilution results concurred with 1% proportion results. The acetone extract of *IHL* displayed best activity, the MIC of 16mg/mL was common in both methods.

Conclusion: The acetone extract of *IHL* displayed antimycobacterial properties despite method utilized.

7.1 Introduction

The Southern African region is enriched with a wide array of plant species (Arnold and de Wit, 1993). A multitude of these plants-bearing-health-benefits have been utilized for centuries by indigenous people (Watt and Breyer-Brandwijk, 1962; Iwu, 1993; Hutchings *et al*, 1996; Eldeen *et al*, 2005). It is only after lab-based research ensued that diseases treated with medicinal plants were identified and classified according to their symptoms. For instance, investigation into the following plant species viz:- *Acacia nilotica*, *Cassine papillosa*, *Chenopodium ambrosioides*, *Combretum molle*, *Croton sylvaticus*, *Cryptocarya latifolia*, *Ekebergia capensis*, *Protasasparagus africanus*, *Rapanea melanophloeos* etc, used to treat symptoms such as coughs, fever and blood in sputum of which these symptoms were later identified as classic Tb-related symptoms (Watt *et al*, 1932, Pujol, 1990; Hutchings, 1996).

Several health benefits may be found in one plant species however, these active compounds can be evenly spread throughout. In the Eastern Cape (South Africa), *Pelargonium reniforme* Curtis is one indigenous multipurpose plant that is a classical example (Latte *et al*, 2004). Investigation into *P. reniforme* aerial part displayed presence of benzoic, cinnamic acid derivatives, flavonoids and tannins as its phenolic content. Tannins play an active role in wound healing (Kolodziej, 2007). Tannins have been also been featured by most healers in their regimen used to treat gastrointestinal disorders for example, diarrhea. The root infusion of *P. reniforme* in Southern Africa features quite prominently because of its curative and palliative effects in respiratory tract infections, gastrointestinal disorders, hepatic disorders and menstrual complaints (Watt and Breyer-

Brandwijk, 1962; Hutchings 1996). Also found in the root portion also are proanthocyanidins that are included in the treatment of several ailments (Scholz, 1994; Hor *et al*, 1995). Furthermore in the root are phenolic compounds, phenolics have scavenging effect on hepatic disorders (Latte and Kolodziej, 2004; Kolodziej, 2007). Phenolic compounds as well as coumarins have moderate antibacterial effect and strong immunomodulatory effects (Kayser and Kolodziej, 1997). Other studies revealed its antibacterial, antifungal and antitubercular properties based on the root part which explains its utilization in tuberculosis (TB) and coughs treatment (Mativandlela *et al*, 2006).

It has been reported elsewhere that traditional medicine usage is widespread. In Rwanda, mycobacterium showed susceptibility towards *Tetradenia riparia* and *Bidens pilosa*, *in vitro*. When the active ingredient was isolated, it inhibited *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (*MTB*) growth at 100mg/mL (van Puyvelde *et al*, 1994). In China, a traditional drug known as A-ji-ba-mo used for *MTB* treatment is derived from the root of *Dipsacus asperoides* (Zhou *et al*, 1994).

The properties of an *MTB* bacillus may include anaerobic, non-motile bacillus with an estimated 21 to 28 days growth period *in vitro* as well as *in vivo*. It is characterized by its thick waxy cell wall that enables it survival within harsh conditions including toxic conditions with macrophages (Bowler and Chou, 2004; Weatherrall *et al*, 1988). Its ability to lie dormant makes it hard to eradicate, hence it latent effect especially amongst undeveloped countries population (Bowler and Chou, 2004).

Reliance on traditional medicine is inevitable since it spans long history of use and the emergence of resistant strains further justifies its use.

Effective TB treatment is required however not only due to co-infection in the case of AIDS patients however just so that TB is effectively controlled as a health concern affecting immunocompromised and immunocompetent alike (WHO: IUATLD Working Group, 1989).

The emergence of drug resistance calls for development and search for new therapeutic agent that effectively control *MTB* infection (Suksamram *et al*, 2003; Lee *et al*, 2006; Jimenez-Arellanes *et al*, 2007). Treating drug-resistance TB is difficult and very expensive. Worst TB treatment would require surgery to remove some infected portion of the lung drugs couldn't access (National Jewish Medical and Research Centre, 1994). For some case treated in the USA and other resourceful region, the cost attached to drug-resistance can amount to US\$ 250 000 per case involving a long course of rather toxic drugs (WHO, 1997).

Currently South Africa is faced with massive multi-drug resistance and extreme-drug resistance case of TB (Gandhi *et al*, 2006). Antimicrobials taken from natural sources according to research have huge impact on human health as it has been observed in undeveloped countries. These interventions have been greatly improved in developed countries as a result a number of drugs have been synthesized and developed from natural plants (Irobi *et al*, 1994).

7.2 Aim of the study

1. To investigate antimycobacterial activity of extracts of *IHL*, in vitro.
2. To validate results obtained with 1% proportion versus agar dilution's regarding activity of the choice of solvent.
3. To determine MIC with best extracting solvent.

7.3 Materials and Methods

7.3.0 Chemicals and Reagents

7.3.1 Chemicals

All chemicals (acetone, methanol, ethanol, ethyl acetate, hexane and dichloromethane) were of AR grade and were all purchased from Sigma Aldrich Company. Isoniazid (INH) and rifampicin (RIF) were purchased from Sigma Aldrich Company.

7.3.2 Microorganisms

The H37Rv strain was donated by the Medical Microbiology department, TB laboratory. The *mycobacterium tuberculosis* strain was cultured in Middlebrook 7H10 supplemented with casitone and (oleic acid + albumen + dextrose + catalase) (OADC).

7.3.3 Anti-MTB drugs

Two anti-MTB drugs of masses 0.1605g of INH and 0.100g of RIF were extracted with 20mL of each of the six solvents and distilled water. They constituted a positive control and drug-free solvents made up a vehicle control whilst water made up negative controls.

7.3.4 Plant Extraction

IHL (courtesy of E.B Thabethe) was assessed for its antimycobacterial properties. Approximately 9.00mg of lyophilized medicinal product was dissolved in 300mL deionized water and extracted with both aqueous and solvent media.

7.3.5 Plates Preparation

For susceptibility testing Middlebrook 7H10 (Difco, Becton, Dickson & Company, Sparks, USA) agar was used to prepare plates. Approximately 7.6 g of 7H10 agar base, 2mL of glycerol, 0.4 g of casitone and 360 mL of deionised water were homogenously mixed in 500mL Schott bottles. The mixture was autoclaved at 121°C for 15 min and allowed to cool to 52-56°C. Forty milliliters of OADC was added followed by further addition of controls and 10mg/mL of the seven different medicinal extracts at a ratio of (1: 4 v/v, plant extract: culture medium). Quadrant plates to be used for susceptibility testing were configured such that there was drug-free quadrant and quadrants 2, 3 and 4 contained 5mL of INH, RIF and traditional medicine respectively.

7.3.6 Susceptibility testing

An H37Rv suspension was prepared and adjusted into liquid suspension that matches 1 McFarland standard. One McFarland made from H37Rv suspension was reported to be equivalent to 1mg/mL (Kent *at al*, 1985). The suspension was diluted ten-fold and was streaked onto plate's surface with and without plant extracts in order to determine colony forming units. After 21 days incubation, CFU were determined with the aid of Quebec colony count device. Susceptibility was determined by comparing number of colony

counts on extracts containing quadrant versus extract-free quadrant. The second determinant was the solvent extractant displaying relatively best colony inhibitory activity.

7.3.7 Minimum Inhibitory Concentration (MIC)

One thousand milligrams of lyophilized product was made up into 100mL of distilled water. This was shaken and centrifuged at 3500rpm. The filtrate was used to constitute a stock. From the stock, several working matrix-equivalent concentrations were made and used for MIC exercise. Plates were prepared in similar fashion to susceptibility assay except that various concentrations were incorporated onto each of the plates. A plant extract exhibiting strong CFU inhibitory activity was used to determine MIC and the concentrations used ranged from 25mg/mL to 2.5µg/mL. Quadrants displaying 1% growth or more to growth in the control were considered resistant to that concentration. The MIC was regarded as that concentration that inhibited 100% colony growth.

7.3.8 MIC (Agar Dilution method)

Several concentrations of the test substance were serially diluted to match concentration ranges of 0 to 64 mg/mL and these were incorporated onto agar and left to dry. The dilutions made such that the concentration was made in 10mL of the medium and 5mL of the medium at each concentration was then poured into quadrant corresponding to concentration in petri dishes. There was also a growth control or drug-free medium.

The standard inoculum size matching 1 McFarland standard were inoculated onto plate surfaces and incubated for 21 days. After incubation the effect of the tests substance was measured in terms of growth inhibition. The MIC was defined as the lowest concentration of the extract inhibiting visible growth of each microorganism on the agar plate (Nostro *et al*, 2000; Hammer *et al*, 1999). Alternately, the number of colonies in drug containing quadrant were counted and compared to those in drug-free quadrants and expressed in percentages.

7.4 Results

Isolates are considered resistant if colonies grown in drug presence are greater or equal to 1% of colonies growing in drug-free control quadrant. The results of an aqueous extract (113%) as depicted in figure 7.0, the number of colonies counted in drug containing quadrant was well above 50 counts which far exceeded 1% of colony growth in drug-free control, thus proving existence of resistant.

The second set in graph represent ethyl acetate solvent (negative control), rifampicin solvent extract (positive control) and a medicinal ethyl acetate extract, the test substance. From this set of results, it becomes clear that the H37Rv displays resistance towards *IHL*, since growth of 5% was observed.

The third set of results as depicted in the bar graph shows acetone solvent (negative control), the acetone extract (positive control) and the traditional medicine extract (test substance). According to tabulated results featured on the left hand side table, it becomes

clear that acetone extract had the greatest inhibitory activity. This is so because colonies counted on the acetone extract quadrant were 0.2% less than colonies counted on the control quadrant, essentially rendering acetone extract when compared to ethyl acetate extract (5%), the best. The methanol extract results also proved resistance (50%). In the case of DCM extracts (100%), resistance was again experienced and the positive control displayed alarming H37Rv growth. Ethanol extracts (110%) also displayed strong resistance since growth experienced in all quadrants could not fulfill the definition of the 1% proportion method.

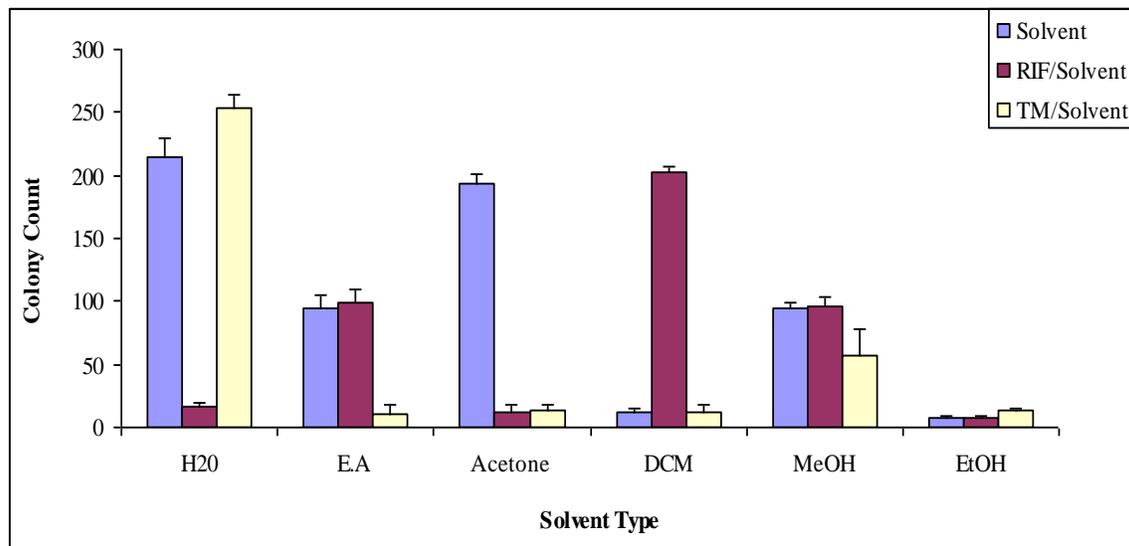


Figure 7.0: The effect of different *IHL* solvents' extracts on *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* growth inhibition using 1% proportion method (n=9).

The concentration of *IHL* remained at 30mg/mL for comparative reasons. [MeOH= methanol; E.A= ethyl acetate; Acet= acetone; DCM= dichloromethane; EtOH= ethanol; solv =solvent type; RIF/Solv= rifampicin in solvent and TM/Solv=*IHL* in extraction

solvent]. All negative controls are depicted in blue, the positive control are coloured in burgundy and all *IHL* extracts are given in white.

Table 7.0: The effect of solvent type used to extract *IHL* using an agar dilution method.

MIC H37Rv (30mg/mL)						
	DCM	Acet	MeOH	EtOH	E.A	H2O
-ve contrl	*	R	R	S	*	R
+ve contrl	*	S	R	S	*	S
T/M	*	S	R	S	*	R

(-ve contrl = negative control of a given solvent used, +ve contrl = fluconazole used as a positive control, T/M = traditional medicine extract and * denotes no results as plates were damaged by the solvent, R = resistant and S = susceptible. Above are results of an agar dilution assay. Similarly, the *IHL* concentration remained at 30mg/mL for comparative reasons, (n=3).

Solvents such as dichloromethane and ethyl acetate and their relative *IHL* extracts and RIF extracts when brought onto a plate surface they virtually destroyed the plate, hence the results were declared null and void. The H37Rv strain once more proved to be susceptible towards all acetone extracts (table 7.0), no growth was observed with *IHL* extract in as much as it was observed in the negative control. In the case of all methanol extracts, the *MTB* strain proved resistant towards methanol extract of *IHL* and its positive control, growth was observed. However, with regards to ethanol extracts, growth was

observed with *IHL* extract as well as in its positive control. In the case of ethyl acetate, the results were also declared null and void, all plates reacted with the solvent. Finally, an aqueous extract, recorded an alarming growth in both *IHL* extract and the negative control. From the above findings, it was concluded that the acetone-based extract of *IHL* achieved the best *MTB* growth inhibitory activity than other solvent-based extracts. The growth inhibition activity of the acetone extract of *IHL* when agar dilution method was used to determine MIC, proved that *MTB* could not grow at MIC of 32 mg/mL (table 7.1).

Table 7.1: MIC results for an acetone-based extract of *IHL* using Agar dilution method.

MIC Medicinal Concentration (acetone extracts)	<i>MTB</i> Growth (Y/N)
64 mg/mL	S
32 mg/mL	S
16 mg/mL	R
8 mg/mL	R
4 mg/mL	R
2 mg/mL	R
1 mg/mL	R
0 mg/mL (neg control)	R
RIF (pos control)	N

(*R represents resistant strains which therefore means there was positive growth and *S means susceptible strains therefore no growth observed). The results were done in triplicates to ensure statistical significance, (n=3).

7.5 Discussion

The susceptibility test performed on *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* H37Rv was done according to a 1% proportion method in which the search for best extracting solvent was also carried out. The results as depicted in figure 7.1 portrayed acetone-based extract of *IHL* as the one with relatively best growth inhibitory activity. The set of results displayed in tables 7.2 and 7.3, seek to establish why acetone-based extract of *IHL* and its negative control both qualify the definition of a 1% proportion method. The vehicle control showed colony counts in excess of 200 whereas no growth was observed in a quadrant bearing acetone extract. In a study done by Manjunathan *et al* (2010) on solvent based effectiveness of antibacterial activity of edible mushroom *Lentinus tuberregium*, it was observed that the antibacterial activity of a mushroom sample varied according to solvent used. According to Moore *et al*, (1999) an isolate is considered susceptible to an anti-*MTB* agent if the number of colonies counted in the presence of a drug are less than 1% of the colonies grown in drug-free control quadrant.

Table 7.2 (left) **and 7.3** (right) displays rounded off figures of results for an acetone-based extract of *IHL* using 1% proportion method.

T/M in Medium	+ve control		-ve control
	INH	Rif	Acetone
<20	<20	<20	2+
<20	<20	<20	3+
<20	<20	<20	3+

Ratings	Colony Count
Scanty	<20
1+	20-100
2+	100-200
3+	>200

Water and methanol are highly recommended for this type of research (Akihisa *et al*, 2005; Jimenez-Arellanes *et al*, 2003; Rai and Acharya, 1999). Other research has been carried out using non-polar solvents a choice necessitated by structural feature of *MTB* mycolic cell wall (Gomez-Flores *et al*, 2008). However, in other areas of research low polar solvents such as hexane and acetone based extracts have proved quite effective *MTB* inhibitors (Torrado-Truiti *et al*, 2003; Jimenez-Arellanes *et al*, 2003; Molina Salinas *et al*, 2006) these findings seems to concur.

An argument was raised related to 1% percent proportion method's application especially when one has to differentiate between growing 1% of a strain on a certain drug concentration versus an MIC test whereby a small quantity of inoculum is used. Apart from pyrazinamide which is an exception, there is no evidence suggesting that using smallest inoculum concentration would enhance the ability to differentiate between sensitive and resistant strain (Zhang *et al*, 2003). It was recommended that if one wants to establish the proportion of susceptible and resistant organisms in a heterogenous mixture, one should therefore setup a decreasing order of drug concentrations to be incorporated onto an agar as opposed to calculating inaccurate from dilutions on negative controls or drug-free medium (Matchison, 2005). We experienced similar argument hence we took to the suggestion and validated the 1% proportion results with an agar dilution method and results in table 7.1 show concurrency.

Because of the concurrency shown, an acetone-based extract therefore had to be used to determine MIC. The agar dilution is not particularly geared for small a sized product

which makes it disadvantageous to use however the results obtained are easy to interpret and are quite repeatable.

The Rifampicin used as a positive control gave results that matched those of an acetone extract of *IHL* proving that our extraction technique worked efficiently, they both displayed no growth. The aqueous extract results are disconcerting though for a traditional medicine that is supposed to benefit Tuberculosis patients particularly given that the results are based from 30mg/mL concentration which is supposedly high. It is generally known that to culture *MTB* it takes more than 3 weeks, treating TB takes even longer. In HIV positive patient's reemergence of TB as an opportunistic disease is most likely to happen. Treatment default by patients is one of the leading courses to MDR-TB and XDR-TB development (Morozova *et al*, 2003). The fact that an aqueous extract did not display growth inhibition meanwhile an acetone extract did, still makes traditional medicine an important intervention not only for its therapeutic benefits, but also as a strong lead for new drug discovery (Dimayuga and Garcia, 1991).

In a study done by Eloff (1998a) in which several solvents were examined for their extraction potential by way of a) solubilizing antimicrobials from plants, b) rate of extraction, c) ease of removal and d) toxicity in bioassays, acetone was overall ranked high on that solvent list.

In another study by Lall and Meyer (2000) that seek to establish antibacterial activity of water and acetone extracts of the root of *E. natalensis*, it was concluded that acetone

extract best yield compounds that are active against gram positive bacteria at 5.0 mg/mL concentration.

The traditional medicine activity may sometimes appear inactive *in vitro* however become active when applied *in vivo* such as prodrugs. Prodrugs are initially metabolized prior to becoming active *in vivo* (Tangyuenyongwatana *et al*, 2009). Thus there is a possibility that an aqueous extract of *IHL* may have acted like prodrugs.

High medicinal concentrations may be required to bring about activity. An extract isolated of *T. riparia* showed antimycobacterium activity at 100 mg/mL (van Puyvelde *et al*, 1994).

7.6 Conclusion

IHL has displayed antimycobacterial activity an activity only realized with acetone-based extract as opposed to what should readily be displayed by an aqueous extract. The results acquired with an agar dilution method compare to those obtained with 1% proportion method. The acetone-based results of *IHL* give an indication that it may possibly give an active lead with antimycobacterial properties and possibly a novel compound for treatment of MDR/XDR-TB. Nevertheless, further investigations are warranted to isolate and identify an active principle of this extract.

7.7 References:

1. **Akihisa T, Frazblau S.G, Kimura Y, Okuda F, Suzuki T, Ukiya M, Yasukawa K, Zhang F.** 2005. Antitubercular activity of triterpenoids from Astaraceae flowers. *Boil. Pharm. Bull* **28**: 158-160.
2. **Arnold T.H, De Wet B.C** (Eds) 1993. Plants of Southern Africa: Names and distribution. *Memoirs of the Botanical Survey of Southern Africa* No.62. Government Printer, Pretoria.
3. **Bowler S, Chou T.** 2004. Modelling the emergence of the 'hot zones': tuberculosis and the amplification dynamics of drug resistance. *Nature Medicine* **10(10)**: 1111-1116
4. **Dimayuga R.E, Garcia S.K.** 1991. Antimicrobial screening of medicinal plants from Baja California Sur. Mexico. *J Ethnopharmacol* **31**: 181-192
5. **Eldeen I.M.S, Elgorashi E.E, van Staden J.** 2005. Antibacterial, anti-inflammatory anticholinesterase and mutagenic effects of extracts obtained from trees used in South African traditional medicine. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology* **102**: 457-464
6. **Eloff J.N.** (1998a). A sensitive and quick microplate method to determine the minimum inhibitory concentration of plant extracts for bacteria. *Plant. Med.* **64**: 711-713
7. **Gandhi N.R, Moll A, Sturm A.W, Pawinski R, Govender T, Lalloo U Zeller, K, Andrews J et al.** 2006. Extensively drug-resistant tuberculosis as a

cause of death in patients co-infected with tuberculosis and HIV in a rural area of South Africa. *The Lancet* **368**: 1575–80

8. **Gomez-Flores I.R, Arzate-Quintana I.C, Monreal-Cuevas I.E, Quintanilla-Licea R, Rodriguez-Padilla I.C, Tamez-Guerra I.P, Tamez-Guerra I.R.** 2008. Antimicrobial activity of *Persea Americana* Mill (Lauraceae) (ovacado) and *Gymnosperma glutinosum* (Spreng). Less (Asteraceae) Leaf extracts and Active Fractions against *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*. *American-Eurasian Journal of Scientific Research* **3(2)**: 188-194.
9. **Hammer K.A, Carson C.F, Riley T.V.** 1999. Antimicrobial activity of essential oils and other extracts. *J. Appl. Microbiol* **86(6)**: 985
10. **Hör M, Heinrich M, Rimpler H.** 1995. Inhibition of intestinal chloride secretion by proanthocyanidins from *Guazuma ulmifolia*. *Planta Med* **61**: 208-212.
11. **Hutchings A, Johnson C.T.** 1986. Glimpse of a Xhosa herbal. *Veld and Flora* **72**: 59-62
12. **Hutchings A.** 1996. Zulu Medicinal Plants, University of Natal Press, Pietermaritzburg.
13. **Irobi O.N, Anderson WA, Daramola S.O, Moo-Young M.** 1994. Antimicrobial activity of bark extracts of *Bridelia ferruginea*. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology* **43**: 185-190
14. **Iwu M.M.** 1993. Handbook of African Medicinal Plants. CRC Press, Boca Raton, Florida, USA.

-
15. **Jimenez-Arellanes A, Luna-Herrera J, Meckes M, Ramirez R, Torres.** 2003. Activity against multidrug-resistant *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* in Mexican plants used to treat respiratory diseases. *Phytother. Res* **17**: 1-6
 16. **Jiminez-Arellanes A, Luna-Herrera J, Meckes M, Torres J.** 2007. Antimycobacterial triterpenoids from *Lantana hispida* (Verbenaceae). *Journal of Ethnopharmacology* **111**: 202-205
 17. **Kayser O, Kolodziej H.**1997. Antibacterial activity of extracts and constituents of *Pelargonium sidoides* and *Pelargonium reniforme*. *Planta Med* **63**:508–510.
 18. **Kent P.T, Kubica G.P.** 1985. *Antituberculosis chemotherapy and drug susceptibility testing in public health mycobacteriology: a guide for the level III laboratory*. Atlanta GA: US Department of Health and Human Services, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, p. 159-84.
 19. **Kolodziej H.** 2007. Fascinating metabolic pools of *Pelargonium sidoides* and *Pelargonium reniforme*, traditional and phytomedicinal sources of the herbal medicine Umckaloabo. *Phytomedicine* **14**: 9-17
 20. **Lall N, Meyer J.J.M.** 2000. Antibacterial activity of water and acetone extracts of the roots of *Euclea natalensis*. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology* **72**: 313-316
 21. **Latte K.P, Kolodziej H.** 2004. Antioxidants properties of phenolic compounds from *Pelargonium reniforme*. *J.Agric. Food Chem.* **52**: 4899-4902
 22. **Lee S, Chang C.L, Franzblau S.G, Lee E.Y, Lee K.P, Kong D.H, Yun S.H.** 2006. Evaluation of a modified antimycobacterial susceptibility test using

-
- Middlebrook 7H10 agar containing 2,3-diphenyl-5-thienyl-(2)-tetrazolium chloride. *Journal of Microbiological Methods* **66**: 548-551
23. **Manjunathan J, Kaviyarasan V.** 2010. Solvent based effectiveness of antibacterial activity of edible mushroom *Lentinus tuberregium*. *International Journal of PharmTech Research* 2 (3): 1910-1912
24. **Matchison D. A.** 2005. Drug Resistance in *Tuberculosis*: Series “Controversial Issues in *Tuberculosis*. Edited by A. Torres and J Caminero. Number 3 in this series. *Eur Respir J* **25**: 376-379.
25. **Mativandlela S.P.N, Lall N, Meyer J.J.M.** 2006. Antibacterial, antifungal and antitubercular activity of the roots of *Pelargonium reniforme* (CURT) and *Pelargonium sidoides* (DC) (Geraniaceae) roots extracts. *South African Journal of Botany* **72**: 232-237
26. **Molina Salinas G.M, Becerril-Montes P, Mata-Cardenas B.D, Ramos-Guerra M.C, Said-Fernandez S, Vargas-Villarreal J.** 2006. Bactericidal activity of organic extracts from *Fluorensia cernua* DC against strain of *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*. *Arc. Med. Res* **37**: 49-54.
27. **Moore A.V, Callister S.M, Kirk S.M, Mazurek G.H, Schell R.F.** 1999. Safe determination of susceptibility of *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* to antimycobacterial agent by Flow Cytometer. *Journal of Clinical Microbiology* **37** (3): 479-483
28. **Morozova I, Leimane V, Riekstina V, Sture G, Wells C.** 2003. Impact of the growing HIV-I epidemic on multidrug-resistant tuberculosis control in Latvia. *Int J Tuberc Lung Dis* **7**: 903-6.

-
29. **National Jewish Medical and Research Centre.** 1994. Medfacts from the National Jewish Centre for Immunology and Respiratory Medicine and Research Centre, Colorado
 30. **Nostro A, Cannatelli M.A, D'Angelo V, Germano M.P, Marino A.** 2000. Extraction methods and bioautography for evaluation of medicinal plant antimicrobial activity. *Lett. Microbiol* 30(1): 379-384.
 31. **Pujol J.** 1990. Natur Africa. The Herbalist Handbook. Jean Pujol Natural Foundation, Durban 40-57.
 32. **Rai M.K, Archarya.** 1999. Screening of some Asteraceous plants for antimicrobial activity. *Compositae Newsletter* 34: 37-43
 33. **Scholz E.** 1994. Pflanzliche Gerbstoffe-*Pharmakologie and Toxicologie.* *Dtsch. Apoth. Ztg* 34: 3167-3179
 34. **Suksamrarn S, Chimnoi N, Phakhodee W, Ratananukul P, Suksamrarn A, Suwannapoch N, Thanuhiranlert J.** 2003. Antimicrobial activity of prenylated xanthenes from the fruit of *Garcinia mangostana*. *Chemical and Pharmaceutical Bulletin* 51: 857-859
 35. **Tangyuenyongwantanal P, Gritsanapan W, Kowapradit J, Opanasopit P.** 2009. Cellular transport of anti-inflammatory prodrugs originated from herbal formulation of *Zingiber cassumunar* and *Nigella sativa*. *Chinese Medicine* 4:19
 36. **Torrado-Truiti M.C, Abreu-Filho B.A, Dias-Filho B.P, Sarragiatto M.H, Vataru-Nakamura C.** 2003. In vitro antibacterial activity of a 7-O-.D-glucopyranosyl-nutanocoumarin form *Chaptalia nutans* (Asteraceae). *Mem. Inst. Oswaldo Cruz* 98: 283-286

-
37. **Van Puyvelde L, Ntawukiliyayo J.D, Porteals F.** 1994. *In vitro* inhibition of mycobacteria by Rwandese medicinal plants. *Phytotherapy Research* **8**: 65-69
 38. **Watt J.M, Breyer-Brandwijk K.M.** 1962. The medicinal and Poisonous Plants of Southern and Eastern Africa, 2nd Ed. Livingstone, London.
 39. **Watt J.M, Breyer-Brandwijk M.G.** 1932. The Medicinal and Poisonous Plants of Southern Africa, Livingstone, Edinburgh.
 40. **Weatherall D. Ledingham J, Warrell D.** 1988. Oxford textbook of medicine, Oxford medical publications 2nd Ed (1), Section 5. *Infections. Mycobacterium Tuberculosis* 5(278-5): 299
 41. **WHO: IUATLD Working Group.** 1989. Tuberculosis and AIDS Bulletin of the International Union Against Tuberculosis and Lung Disease **64**: 8-11
 42. **World Health Organization.** 1997. Anti-tuberculosis Drug-Resistance in the world. The WHO:IUATLD Project on Anti-tuberculosis Drug Resistance Surveillance. World Health Organisation Global Tuberculosis Programme Geneva.
 43. **Zhang Y, Matchison D.A.** 2003. The curious characteristics of pyrazinamide: a review. *Int. J Tuberc Lung Dis* **7**: 6-21
 44. **Zhou G.C, Komatsu K, Namba T, Yamaji S.** 1994. Pharmacognostical studies on the traditional drugs used by Chinese minority race, called Yi (I) or 'A-ji-ba-mo' derived from *Dipsacus* plants. *Natural Medicines* 48(2): 131-140.

Chapter 8

An investigation into anti-
HIV properties of *IHL*, *in*
vitro

AN INVESTIGATION INTO AN ANTI-HIV PROPERTIES OF *IHL*, *in vitro*

N Jwara¹, EB Thabethe², N Gqaleni¹, R. Parboosing³, A. Naidoo³

Traditional Medicine Laboratory¹, Traditional Health Practitioner², Nelson Mandela School of Medicine, University of KwaZulu-Natal, Durban, South Africa, Department of Virology, Inkosi Albert Luthuli Central Hospital³

8.0 Abstract

Introduction: Plants products are rapidly gaining recognition as possible anti-HIV agents (van Wyk and Gericke, 2000; Scott *et al*, 2004). Clinical cases of patients displaying signs of improvement after taking traditional medicines are amongst some of reasons that generated interest into their properties.

Objective: We conducted an *in vitro* investigation into the anti-HIV properties of *Ihlamvu laseAfrika* (*IHL*) that is currently used by people living with AIDS (PLWA) for managing viral replication, *in vivo*.

Materials and Methods: A “neat” aqueous extract of *IHL* was diluted 5 folds until -8th. An XTT technique was used to assess cell viability of viral infected MT-4 cells cultures after exposing to several concentration of *IHL*, azidovidine (AZT) served as a positive control.

Results: Results showed that at high doses, the *IHL* increased proliferation of uninfected and infected cells, cell protection reached maximum. At approximately -3.29 dilution, *IHL* proved to be toxic to both uninfected and infected cells, below -3.29, most cells became non-viable.

Conclusion: *IHL* did not demonstrate an antiviral effect at these concentrations. However, what become apparent was the toxic effect of *IHL* displayed at (IC₅₀=-3.29).

8.1 Introduction

Plants products are rapidly gaining recognition as possible anti-HIV agents (van Wyk and Gericke, 2000; Scott *et al*, 2004). Clinical cases of patients displaying signs of improvement after taking traditional medicines are amongst some of reasons that generated interest into their medicinal properties. Resolution of HIV/AIDS symptoms may include improvement in appetite, exercise tolerance, mood, sense of well-being, and weight gain and upregulated CD⁴ T-cell count after taking traditional medicine for six weeks (Gericke *et al*, 2001). Moreover, there are also serious claims made by some traditional health practitioners (THPs) that they cure HIV. Hence in order to validate these claims and regulate the informal and booming traditional medicine industry, research into these products is therefore necessitated. Subsequently traditional medicines that often get selected for scientific research are based on anecdotal use by AIDS patients hence it had to show relative anti-HIV activity *in vivo* (Farnsworth, 1994; Fabricant and Farnsworth, 2001). Most often *in vitro* research is usually superseded by the *in vivo* application of medicines within public domain, therefore no scientific proof or conclusion could be made regarding the efficacies of these medicines making for what could be termed reverse pharmacology.

Some plants have proven useful against infectious organism e.g. tuberculosis (TB) which indicate that they may have antibacterial, or immunomodulatory properties (van Wyk *et al*, 2000; Bouic, 1996; Yang *et al*, 2004; Malini and Vanithakumari, 1990). *Hypoxis hemerocallidea* is a typical example of plant species that has proved beneficial to HIV and AIDS patients (Malini and Vanithakumari, 1990). *H. hemerocallidea* antimicrobial

activity is attributed to its macerated rhizome that was used for wound healing and multiple AIDS related opportunistic infections (Bouic, 1996; Ojewole, 2002).

In another study done by Klos *et al* (2009) on South African medicinal plants, the ethanol extract of *Leonotis leonurus* significantly inhibited HIV-1 by 33% while both aqueous and ethanol extracts of *Bulbine alooides* displayed greater than 50% inhibition. Some traditional medicinal products have displayed activity at different points of drug intervention in HIV's life cycle (Masutse *et al*, 1999). A methanolic extract of the root of *Bridelia micrantha* (Hochst) Baill (Euphorbiaceae), an RNA-dependant-DNA (RDDP) also displayed activity of HIV-1 RT with an IC₅₀ of 7.3µg/mL (Bessong *et al*, 2006).

The possibility of inhibiting reverse transcription catalytic activity can result in failure of the virus to transcribe its genetic information that regulates translation of viral protein into provirus formation. This is a key step since the viral DNA is copied into cell's DNA hence, the cellular machinery manufacture new viral DNA as programmed in the form of RNA. T-cell could only get infected once viral RNA has been transcribed into DNA and that is enabled by reverse transcriptase enzymes (AIDSMED, 2001). Nucleoside analogues are that class of drugs responsible for inhibiting HIV active replication. However, challenges often faced with highly active antiretrovirals therapy (HAART) regimen include toxicity, development of resistance, limited availability, requires strict adherence to therapy, high cost and serious lack of curative effect (Friedland, 1997; Romanelli, 2005). South Africa is incredibly rich in biodiversity and hence medicinal plants with promising anti-HIV activity (van Wyk and Gericke, 2000; Scott *et al*, 2004).

It is plants' lowcost that enable possible production of biomedicine and vaccines (Karasev *et al*, 2005). These activities could be based on phenylcoumarins and plant proteins that displayed best anti-HIV activity with regards to NF- α B and Tat protein inhibition (Akesson *et al*, 2003; Reddy *et al*, 2004; Marquez *et al*, 2005).

IHL is hypothesized to act as a non-specific inhibitor of opportunistic pathogens in persons infected with HIV/AIDS. In the previous chapters, *IHL* was screened for anti-*MTB*, anti-fungal and anti-HSV activities and for this section it would be screened for its anti-HIV property.

8.2 Materials and methods

8.2.1 Reagents and Chemicals

8.2.2 Chemicals

Colourless RPMI-1640

In vitro toxicological assay kit XTT based (Sigma-Aldrich, Missouri, USA)

Phosphate buffer saline (PBS)

8.2.3 Viruses

MT4 cell line used was obtained from the AIDS Research and Reference Reagent Program, Division of AIDS, NIAID, NIH. HIV Viral load assay was performed with the Nuclisens EasyQ® HIV-1 V1.2, Product number: 285036, Lot number: 080812

Virus isolate HTLVIII B was used (AIDS Research and Reference Reagent Program, Division of AIDS, NIAID, NIH). The XTT Assay was performed with the *In vitro* toxicology kit, XTT Based (Sigma), Lot #. 126K8418.

8.2.4 Cytotoxicity Testing

Viral propagation was carried out on MT-4 cells. Cells were maintained on phenol red RPMI 1640 supplemented with 10% heat inactivated fetal calf serum, 1% L-glutamine and antibiotics. A 96 well flat bottom plate (Costar, Cambridge, MA) was used for susceptibility testing. In preparation for susceptibility, cells were spun at 1000rpm and at RT for 5min, supernatant discarded and the colourless RPMI was added. Fifty microliters of MT-4 cells at 6×10^5 cells/mL concentration was added into each well. Furthermore, 50 μ L of colourless RPMI was also added onto row B-D, columns 2-10 (depending on number of dilutions). It is important to note that these rows contained mock infected (uninfected) cultures. Virus was thawed, diluted (100-300 TCID₅₀) and added on the rows E-G, columns 2-10 (depending on the number of dilutions). These rows contained virus stock that was tested against traditional medicine that was five-fold diluted from neat, 100% (5^0 to 5^8) and a blank. In order to assess possibility of cytotoxicity, the virus-free control wells contained dilutions well mentioned above for medicinal extract. Drug susceptibility plate was incubated at 37°C in a humidified 5% CO₂. After 5 days plates were read in spectrophotometer (Molecular Devices, Menlo Park, CA). Fifty microliters of XTT was added to each well and plate was gently agitated in a rotator for an even distribution and then incubated for 4 hours. After incubation plates were read in

spectrophotometer at 450nm wavelength and reference wavelength of 650nm. Results were tabulated on excel template and both IC₅₀, EC₅₀ and selectivity index calculated.

Wells were taken as positive for HIV if the optical density was less than OD of the control wells. Effect of medicinal dilutions on cell viability was assessed. Its effect was expressed as the amount of traditional medicine required to prevent a reduction OD compared to mock infected cultures. The concentration of *IHL* required to prevent 50% reduction OD was defined as IC₅₀.

8.3 Results

The results displayed in figure 8.1 and 8.2 given below were acquired through an antiviral screening protocol that was derived from cytotoxicity assay with tetrazolium salt, the XTT.

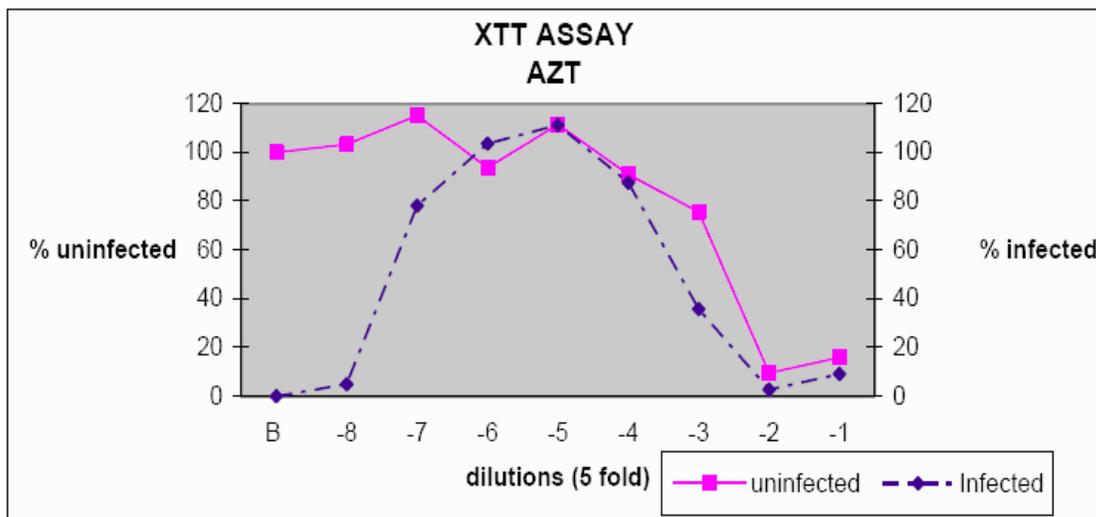


Figure 8.1: HIV susceptibility results with Azidothymidine (AZT) applied to both infected and uninfected cells.

(Dilutions expressed in \log_5 i.e. 5-fold dilutions. B represents the ‘Blank’ or a negative control i.e. the culture medium (RPMI) without tests substance. 0 represents ‘neat’ substance. -1 to -8 represents the successive 5-fold dilutions on a logarithmic scale i.e. 1/5, 1/25, 1/125, 1/625, 1/3125, 1/15625, 1/78125)

The positive control, AZT (figure 8.1) tested demonstrated the expected antiviral activity towards uninfected cell, high cell viability at low dilutions and less cell viability at high dilutions. The reported selectivity index approximates the published selectivity index of 1027. As AZT become diluted cell protection is enhanced and so is cell viability. Meanwhile the infected cells lose their viability as AZT becomes more diluted thus becoming weak.

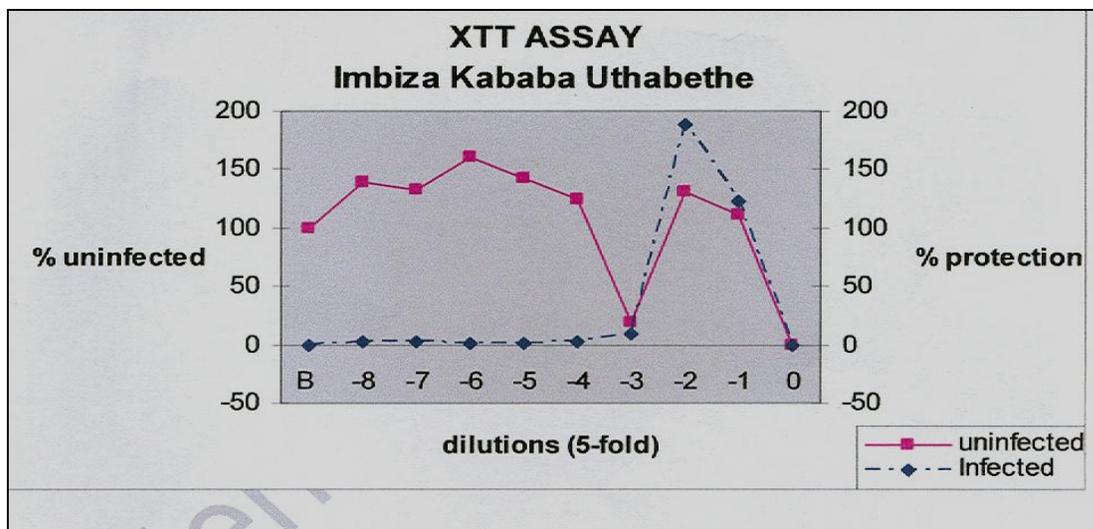


Figure 8.2: HIV susceptibility results of an aqueous extract of *IHL* also known as *Imbiza kababa uThabethe*.

According to results displayed in figure 8.2, it can be noticed that at high doses of *IHL* there is an increased number of uninfected and infected cells. At approximately -3.29 concentrations (based on fig 8.2 above it is represented by -3) it has proven to be toxic to both uninfected and infected cells. Below a -3 concentration, most cells were killed. As per explanation given previously, what became apparent is that lower doses did not kill uninfected cells but killed infected cells only. Hence, the test substance therefore demonstrates greater or equal to 50% protective effect.

8.4 Discussion

In the previous chapters tests conducted to establish antimicrobial susceptibility towards *IHL* as well as MIC, the *IHL* was initially lyophilized, weighed and reconstituted and extracted with several solvents of varying polarities. That may or may not present a great possibility that *IHL* could either be overly concentrated or diluted, hence give a misguided impression on *IHL*'s efficacy. Hence in the test for anti-HIV properties, the *IHL* was presented as a "neat substance" thus in its original formulation as presented to us by our THP, suffice to say that it was destined for public consumption despite laboratory tests and clinical trials being conducted. Nevertheless, it had been hypothesized that *IHL* is a non-specific repressor of opportunistic infections in people living with HIV and AIDS related infections. Traditional medicines are known to have a positive effect on AIDS patients. They could either exert their activity by suppressing virus causing AIDS or microorganisms causing opportunistic infections.

The antitumour XTT protocol as designed by Weislow *et al* (1989) ensured preliminary evaluation of cells growth characteristics in microtiter trays, and drug dilutions. Firstly, it was made certain that there would be sufficient time during the test, for the virus to target cells or modulate cell growth. Secondly, it had to be ensured that time was sufficient for antiviral activity of the test substance and finally, it had to be determined that cell culture growth and hence XTT formazan production would not exceed the limit set for its measurement with the spectrophotometer used.

The XTT protocol makes use of chronically infected H9 cells as a virus source. In theory mock-infected cells (uninfected controls) would normally give out a soluble orange XTT formazan colour and therefore yield high optical densities (Weislow *et al*, 1989) and these are drug protected cells. On the contrary, those cells not protected by drugs are killed by virus hence not allowed to proliferate thus presents a low optical density. The 50% cytotoxicity concentration (CC_{50}) is defined as that concentration of the test substance that reduces the absorbance of uninfected control by 50%. Meanwhile, the effective concentration at 50% (EC_{50}) is defined as that concentration of test substance that achieves 50% protection in infected cultures (Weislow *et al*, 1989).

It has been established that AZT is toxic at higher concentrations (Mir & Costello, 1988; Duesberg, 1992; Freiman *et al.*, 1993; Tokars *et al.*, 1993; Bacellar *et al.*, 1994; Goodert *et al.*, 1994; Seligmann *et al.*, 1994) which subsequently explained cell viability that was below 20% for both uninfected and infected

XTT is thus a relatively simple and reliable assay used for measuring of *in vitro* antiviral activity and cytotoxicity. Hence the technique determines both infection and subsequent viral replication in target cells that is correlated to formazan produced (Weislow *et al*, 1989). Although the technique may have proved useful it is however not without limitations. False positive results have been said to be due to the following: a) non-specific reduction of XTT by tests compound, b) poorly understood drug-cell-XTT interaction and c) human error.

8.5 Conclusion

IHL did not demonstrate an antiviral effect at the concentrations tested. However, what become apparent with these tests is the toxic effect the substance seems to have ($IC_{50}=3.29$). This warrants further studies that are necessary to give explanation to the apparent increase in percentage mockinfected and infected cells between dilutions -2 and -1. The EC_{50} cannot be calculated since the 1% protection is always below 50%.

8.6 References:

1. **AIDSMED**. 2001. The HIV life cycle. AIDSMEDS.COM.
2. **Akesson C, Ivars F, Leanderson T, Lindgren H, Pero R.W.** 2003. An extract of *Uncaria tomentosa* inhibiting cell division and NF-kB activity without inducing cell death. *International Immunopharmacology* **3**: 1889-1900
3. **Bacellar H.A, Becker J.T, Besley O.A, Cohen D, McArthur J.C. Miller B.A. Munoz E.N.** 1994. Temporal trends in the incidence of HIV-I -related neurologic diseases: Multicenter AIDS Cohort Study, 1985-1992. *Neurology* **44**: 1892-1900.

-
4. **Bessong P. O, Rojas L. B, Obi L.C, Tshisikawe P. M, Igunbor E. O.** 2006. Further screening of Venda medicinal plants for activity against HIV type 1 reverse transcriptase and integrase. *African Journal of Biotechnology* Vol. 5 (6): 526-528
 5. **Bouic P.J.D, Etsebeth S, Liebenberg R.W, Albrecht C.F. et al .**1996, "Betasitosterol and beta-sitosterol glucoside stimulate human peripheral blood lymphocyte proliferation: Implications for their use as an immunomodulatory vitamin combination", *International Journal of Immunopharmacology* 18 (12): 693-700.
 6. **Duesberg RH.** 1992. AIDS acquired by drug consumption and other noncontagious risk factors. *Pharmacology & Therapeutics* **55**: 201-277.
 7. **Fabricant D.S, Farnsworth N.R.** 2001. The value of plants used in traditional medicine for drug discovery. *Environ. Health Persp.* **109**: 69–75.
 8. **Farnsworth N.R.** 1994. Ethnopharmacology and drug development. Ethnobotany, drug development and biodiversity conservation exploring the linkages. In Ciba Foundation Symposium Ethnobotany and the Search for New Drugs. *John Wiley and Sons: Chichester* **185**: 42–59.
 9. **Freiman, J.R, Hamrell M.R, Helfert K.E, Stein D.S.** 1993. Hepatomegaly with severe steatosis in HIV-seropositive patients. *AIDS* **7**: 379-385.
 10. **Friedland G.H.** 1997. Adherence: The achilles' heel of highly active antiretroviral therapy. Improving the management of HIV disease. *International AIDS Society – USA* **5**:13-5.

-
11. **Gericke N, Albrecht C.F, Van Wyk B, Mayeng B, Mutwa C, Hutchings A.** 2001. *Sutherlandia frutescens*. *Australian Journal of Medical Herbalism* **13**: 9–15.
 12. **Goedert J.J, Aledort L.M, Cohen A.R, Eichinger S, Kessler C.M, Rabkin C.S, Rosenberg R.S, Seremetis S.V, Yellin F.J.** 1994. Risks of immunodeficiency, AIDS, and death related to purity of factor VIII concentrate. *Lancet* **344**: 791-792.
 13. **Karasev A.V, Foulke S, Hone D, Koprowski H, Reitz M Rich A, Shon K.J, Wellens C, Zwierzynski I.** 2005. Plant based HIV-1 vaccine candidate: Tat protein produced in spinach. *Vaccine* **23**: 1875-1880
 14. **Klos M, Meyer D, Milne P.J, Oosthuizen V, Traore H.N, van de Venter M.** 2009. *In vitro* anti-HIV activity of five selected South African medicinal plant extracts. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology* **124**:182–188.
 15. **Malin T, Vanithakumari G.**1990. Rat toxicity studies with Betasitosterol. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology* **28**: 221-234.
 16. **Marquez N, Alcami J, Bedoya L.M, Feliciano A.S, Feliciano A.S, Fiebich B.L, Lopez-Perez J.L, Munoz E, Sancho R.** 2005. Mesual, a naturaloccurring 4-phenylcoumarin, inhibit HIV-1 replication by targeting the NF-kB pathway. *Antiviral Research* **66**: 137-145
 17. **Matsuse I.T, Correa M, Gupta M.P Hattori M, Lim Y.A.** 1999. A search for antiviral properties in Panamian medicinal plants. The effect on HIV and its essential enzymes. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology* **64**:15-22.

-
18. **Mir, N. & C. Costello**, 1988. Zidovudine and bone marrow. *Lancet ii*: 1195-1196.
 19. **Ojewole J.**2002. Anti-inflammatory properties of *Hypoxis Hemerocallidae* corm extracts in rats. *Clinical Pharmacology* 24 (10): 685-7
 20. **Reddy A.M, Kim Y, Kim Y, Kim Y.S, Sup M.I.N, Ryu S.Y, Seo J.H.**, 2004. Cinnamedehyde and 2-methoxycinnamaldehyde as NF-kB inhibitors from *Cinnamomum cassia*. *Planta Medica* 70: 823-827
 21. **Romanelli F.** 2005. The pharmacotherapy of the modern day epidemic infection with Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV). *American Journal of Pharmaceutical Education* 69(4): 72
 22. **Scott G, Coldrey N, Springfield E.P.** 2004. A pharmacognostical study of 26 South African plant species used as traditional medicines. *Pharmaceutical Bio.* 42: 186–213.
 23. **Seligmann M, Aber V.R, Aboulker J-R, Babiker A.G, Carbon C, Darbyshire J.H, Dormont J, Eschwege E, Gelmon K, Girling D.J, James D.R, Lafon E, Levy J-R, Lhoro S, Nunn A.J, Peto R.T.A, Schwarz D, Stone A.B, Swart A.M, Vray M, Warrell D. A, Weller I.V.D, Withnall R.** 1994. Concorde: MRC/ANRS randomised double-blind controlled trial of immediate and deferred zidovudine in symptom-free HIV infection. *Lancet* 343: 871-881.
 24. **Tokars J.I, Bandea C.I, Bell D.M, Culver D.H, Marcus R, McKibbe R.S, Schable C.A.** 1993. Surveillance of HIV infection and zidovudine use among health care workers after occupational exposure to HIV-infected blood. *Ann. Intern. Med* 118: 913-919

-
25. **van Wyk B.E, Gericke N.** 2000. People's plants: A guide to useful plants of southern Africa, Briza Publications, Pretoria, ISBN 1-875093-19-2
26. **Weislow O.S, Bader J, Boyd M.R, Fine D.L, Kiser R, Shoemaker R.H.** 1989. New Soluble-formazan assay for HIV-1 cytopathic effects: Application to high flux-screening of synthetic and natural products for AIDS-antiviral activity. *Journal of the National Cancer Institute* 81(8): 577-586.
27. **Yang D.H, Cai S.Q, Liang H, Zhao Y.Y.** 2004. A new alkaloid from *Dysoxylum binectariferum*. *J. Asian Nat. Prod. Res* 6: 233-236.

Chapter 9

Overall Discussion and Conclusion

Chapter 9

9.1 Overall Discussion and Conclusion

The incessant challenge of antimicrobial drug resistance presents a serious challenge to current drug regimen hence the continuous search for novel entities from medicinal plant is important (Kueete *et al*, 2010). Medicinal products play a crucial role in drug discovery and new products development (Newman *et al*, 2007). Some regard plants as a significant source of highly active antimicrobial metabolites (Gibbons, 2005, Pauli *et al*, 2005). The continuous scientific search for antimicrobial entities from traditional medicine, led us to investigate the antifungal, antiviral and the antimycobacterial properties of *IHL*. *IHL* is botanically constituted of plants mostly found in the southern African region both coastal and inland, according to our THP. *IHL* is currently used by immunocompromised patients as a non-specific repressor of pathogens AIDS patients usually present with.

The preliminary cytotoxicity assays (MTT) revealed *IHL* as not toxic to mock-infected cells despite prolonged exposure to the traditional medicine. This is crucial because of the duration it takes for some cultures to grow such as *MTB* is prolonged. Moreover, AIDS bestows lifelong sentence to treatment, cells should therefore be protected from death. In retrospect HeLa cell line that was exposed to *IHL* experienced superb cell growth enhancement. Cell viability that was done according to trypan blue test on HeLa cells displayed insignificant cell death (table 4.0) after exposing cells to several concentrations of *IHL* for 24hours. When considering damaged caused in the event of toxic medicinal substance ingested, cell numbers become drastically reduced. For HIV assay, chronically infected H9 cell lines were used. It had to be ascertained whether cell proliferation would

persist despite being infected with HIV or die. Alternately the virus would be killed whilst cells remain viable. It was noticed however, that *IHL* could not demonstrate anti-HIV effect at the concentrations tested. Instead the toxic effect of *IHL* particularly at ($IC_{50}=3.29$) was noticed. In essence, HIV conferred deleterious effect onto cells since acute viral infected cells had undergone apoptosis. A similar phenomenon could have been experienced with HSV infected cells since HSV would also confer cytopathic effect.

Necrotic cell damage can be intrinsically linked to damage in genetic material due to mutagens found in man as well as organisms. Development of most cancers is attributed to these mutations including degenerative disorders and genetic defects in offsprings (Carino-Cortes *et al*, 2007). South African plants have been subjected to mutagenic studies (Elgorashi *et al*, 2003, Verschaeve *et al*, 2004, Reid *et al*, 2006, Verschaeve *et al*, 2008). Plant poisoning on the other hand, has not been well recorded due to serious lack of report by the consumers (Steenkamp *et al*, 2006).

IHL has indeed proved to have positive effects on HIV/AIDS. However, we had to establish whether such effects could either be directly due to inhibition of HIV causing AIDS or indirectly due to its inhibition of organisms causing secondary opportunistic diseases.

Previously it was mentioned that HIV susceptibility assay was carried out on ‘neat’ concentration of *IHL*, in order to preempt and compare the would-be *in vivo* clinical trials results to *in vitro* results. The working concentration of the ‘neat’ substance remained unknown since was donated in aqueous form for research purposes. We formulated our

working concentrations relative to the amount of medicinal product we could freeze-dry and lyophilize hence we could not possibly achieve the original concentration since small aliquots were used. Our aim was to standardize the traditional medicine in order to achieve certainty in our experiments. It was realized that our standardized concentrations were relatively weaker however they proved effective against microorganisms it was tested against. For example, an MIC of *IHL* as tested against *Candida albicans* and *Cryptococcus neoformans* was 1.0mg/L on solid media (with the disk diffusion method) but on liquid media (with broth microdilution assay) MIC's were 1.0 mg/mL and 2.0 mg/mL, respectively. Furthermore, the MIC of the test substance as tested against *MTB* cultured on Middlebrook agar was 16mg/mL. The last MIC acquired with PCR technique obtained on HSV susceptibility assay was 1.25mg/mL. All concentrations were compared against the activity of the 'neat' substance which was tested against HIV. When considering activities of the above MIC's they reveal that 16mg/mL becomes the effective dosage required to formulate *IHL* that might circumvent cytotoxicity and possibly mutagenicity assuming that treatment is a lifelong process as witnessed with the HAART program.

The solvents used to extract the bioactive compounds from *IHL* varied from one microorganism to the next. An active principle or the target compound in an extract that bears antimicrobial properties is highly influenced by the solvent used for its extraction (Ncube *et al*, 2006). It was established that both *C. albicans* and *C. neoformans* were strongly inhibited with an aqueous extract of *IHL*. Hence it is safe to deduce that water exhibited relatively best extraction potential than other most solvents used. In a previous

study done by Steenkamp *et al.* (2007) it was revealed that a crude methanol and water extracts of *Combretum molle* (root), *Piper capense* (bark), *Solanum aculeastrum* (fruit), *Syzygium cordatum* (bark) and *Zanthoxylum davyi* (bark) and aqueous bark of *Afzelia quanzensis* and root extract of *Tabernaemontana elegans* contained antifungal compounds that inhibited growth of *C. albicans* at < 1mg/mL. Furthermore, bioassays resulted in the identification of active principles with antifungal properties from these extracts for example, tannins and saponins were isolated from *Terminalia* species (Baba-Mousa *et al.*, 1999), tannins were also isolated from *Combretum* species (Kolodziej *et al.*, 1999) and ecodysteroids was isolated from *Asparagus* species (Dinan *et al.*, 2001).

In our study the main constituents of the aqueous extracts identified with an UPLC-MS comprised 16 compounds that were identified as steroid, alkaloids, phenols, binaphthoquinone, homoisoflavonoids, terpenoids, triterpenoids, coumarins and saponins. This study was however limited to antimicrobial properties of *IHL*, but there exist secondary metabolites with other properties such as immunomodulation, antioxidants, analgesics etc found within this tonic.

Schmourlo and co-workers (2005) conducted a study in which antifungal agents precipitated with ethanol according to bioautographic method, resulted in an aqueous extract of *Mormodica charantia* totally losing its antifungal activity against *Candida albicans* and *Cryptococcus neoformans* after fractionation. Lost of activity was attributed to some proteins that possessed hyperglycaemic, antitumour, antileukemic and antiviral properties such as lectins (MAP30), charantins, trypsin-inhibitors and elastase inhibitors

(Yeung *et al*, 1988; Hara *et al*, 1989; Arazi *et al*, 2002; Parkash *et al*, 2002) found in *M. charantia* that may have been lost during precipitation. It was therefore deduced that antifungal activity may have been attributed to the aforementioned proteins. Such an observation also explains the reduction in antifungal activity of an aqueous extract of *IHL* which was upon its extraction with several organic solvents of differing polarities compromised activity. The water-soluble compounds for example fabatin, polysaccharides, proteins and some lectins have displayed favourable inhibitory activity on viruses that would adsorb to their host (Zhang and Lewis, 1997). This also concurs with 70% methanol extract which practically dissolved a lyophilised product of *IHL* when less polar solvents couldn't. Herpes simplex virus II was strongly inhibited by methanol extract of our traditional medicine (figure 5.2) than other solvents' extracts which coincide with the above findings.

The test for antimycobacterial properties of *IHL* yielded peculiar findings especially since an aqueous extract did not show activity. The aqueous extract represent 'neat' sample that is available to the public. However, upon its extraction with solvents of differing polarities, some activity was noted in which an acetone extract gave the best *MTB* growth inhibition than the rest (Figure 7.1). It can be then be concluded that acetone best extract naphthoquinones as it was the case with diosindigo A, an active principle isolated from *Euclea natalensis* (van der Vijver, 1974). This was further confirmed in study conducted by Lall and Meyer. (2000), that water and acetone showed relatively best antimycobacterial results when used to extract an active principle in *Euclea natalensis*. Furthermore the presence of compounds such as isoferuloylpeol that was isolated with

EtOH justifies activity of the ethanol extract of *IHL*, but acetone extract remained unsurpassed.

Research has established that anti-HSV properties of *IHL* are attributed to verbascoside. In previous studies done by Martins *et al* (2009), verbascoside extracted with ethanol displayed the best anti-HSV-1 and 2 growth inhibition results which concur with our findings. In our anti-HSV assay, we observed an insignificant variation ($p = 0.2473$) between methanol and ethanol extracts of *IHL* (figure 5.2).

Amides such as methylillukumbin A that were isolated from *Mauritine* species displayed antifungal activity. Moreover, compounds such as thalebanin B (Greger *et al*, 1996), kuguacin J (Kimura *et al*, 2005) and quecertin (Roy *et al*, 1996) also possess antifungal activity, despite several solvents used for extraction. The presence of the aforementioned compound presented a significant fungal growth inhibition when compared to viral and mycobacterial organisms with regards to MICs.

It has been established that during chemical profiling of *IHL* that it would provide with specific secondary metabolites responsible for antimicrobial activities plus further useful properties not intended for this study such are immunostimulation, anti-inflammatory, analgesics and antioxidants. The established secondary metabolites this tonic presents ranged from amides, flavanoids, terpenoids, triterpenoids, sterols, quinones, alkaloids and naphthoquinones (table 3.0). The compounds that do not possess antimicrobial properties however remain useful to PLWA such as may have immunostimulating, analgesic and

antioxidants properties. Some compounds were unintentionally unidentified as it can be seen from the chromatogram.

Table 9.0: Summary of isolated principles with their respective antimicrobial properties

Secondary Metabolite	Compound	Biological function	Reference:
phenethyl/styrylamine-derived amides	Thalebanin B	Antifungal	Greger <i>et al</i> , 1996
Naphthoquinone	2-methyl-3-(piperidin-1-yl)..	Anti-MTB	Mital <i>et al</i> , 2010
Cucurbitacins	Kuguacin B	Anti-HIV	Chen <i>et al</i> , 2008
Cucurbitane-type triterpenoid	Kaguacin R	Antiviral	Chen <i>et al</i> , 2009
Amides	Methylillukumbin A	Antifungal	Greger <i>et al</i> , 1996
Homoisoflavonoids	3,5-Dihydroxy-4,7-dimethoxyhomoisoflavonone	Antimicrobial	Jiang <i>et al</i> , 2007
Quinone	Anhydrocochlioquinone A	Antitumour	Jung <i>et al</i> , 2003
Cucurbitane-type triterpenoid	Kuguacin J	Antibacterial, antifungal	Kimura <i>et al</i> , 2005
Phenolic antioxidant	Verbascoside	Anti-HSV	Martins <i>et al</i> , 2009
Flavonoid	Quecertin	Antifungal	Roy <i>et al</i> , 1996
Triterpenoids	Isoferuloyllpeol	Anti-MTB	Weigenand <i>et al</i> , 2004
Cyclopeptides alkaloids	Mauritine H	Antifungal, antibacterial	Pandey <i>et al</i> , 1990; Tschesche <i>et al</i> , 1977
Flavonoid	Kaempferol	Anti-oxidant, immunostimulant	Shrivastava and Patel, 2007
Alkaloid	Nuciferine	Anti-HIV, antimicrobial	Cho <i>et al</i> , 2003, Kashiwada <i>et al</i> , 2005
Amaryllidaceae alkaloid	Narcissidine	Antiviral	Furusawa <i>et al</i> , 1970
Naphthoquinone	Diosindigo A	Antimycobacterial	van der Vijver, 1974

9.2 Conclusion

It has been scientifically validated and proven that the pharmacological properties present in *IHL* warranted its use against HIV/AIDS and its secondary opportunistic diseases. However, the results do not agree with the hypothesis initially presented. It was hypothesized that *IHL* might exert its activity through its inhibition of the HIV causing

AIDS or via inhibiting microorganisms causing opportunistic diseases. According to results, it was established that *IHL* is capable of inhibiting growth of microorganism causing opportunistic infections. This overrides the presence of secondary metabolites such as kuguacin B and nuciferin with anti-HIV activities established. Such inability to initiate anti-HIV activity might probably be dose-dependent since in literature their anti-HIV activities were established.

The study further revealed the important role played by THP not only to their respective community but the scientific community at large regarding their contributions. Traditional medicine is undoubtedly infested with some charlatans who exploit the poor in a bid to get rich creating “AIDS opportunism” (Richter, 2003). These findings further add to the call already made to respective governments to streamline traditional health practices into the mainstream. The efficacy displayed by *IHL* offers a steppingstone towards the construction and development of pharmacopeia of TM’s and monographs. Published clinical results of traditional medicines are currently minimal in South Africa despite strides being taken to validate most TMs currently marketed. Such information would assist in the development of sound policies that can pave a way for the regulation of production, quality testing, safety standards, efficacy as well as preservation of natural resources. The need for quality and safety assessment ranks high in Africa and Latin America that have approximately 80% depending on traditional medicines (WHO Fact Sheet No. 134, 2008). The research output that has been offered by world renowned scientist such as van Staden, Afolayan, Lall, Dilika, Meyer, Eloff and others on South African traditional medicine has laid grounds for smooth transition to modern medicine

that can eventually afford status enjoyed by western medicine. However, the aim is not competition but to increase affordable healthcare and social benefits to respective communities.

9.3 References:

1. **Arazi T, Gal-On A, Huang P.L, Lee-Huang P, Lee-Huang S, Shibolet Y.M, Zang L.** 2002. Production of antiviral and antitumor proteins MAP 30 and GAP 31 in cucurbits using the plant virus vector ZYMV-AG II. *Biochemical and Biophysical Research Communications* **292**: 441–448
2. **Baba-Moussa F, Akpagana K, Bouchet P.** 1999. Antifungal activities of seven West African Combretaceae used in traditional medicinal. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology* **66**: 335-338
3. **Carino-Cortes R, Arriaga-Alba M, Gonzales-Avilla M, Hernandez-Ceruelos A, Madrigal-Bjaidar E, Torres-Valencia J.M.** 2007. Antimutagenicity of *Stevia pilosa* and *Stevia eupatoria* evaluated with the Ames test. *Toxicology In Vitro* **21**: 691-697
4. **Chen J, Lu L, Qiu M, Tian R, Zheng Y, Zhang Z.** 2008. Trinorcucurbitane and cucurbitane triterpenoids from the roots of *Momordica charantia*. *Phytochemistry* **69**: 1043-1048

-
5. **Chen J.S, Li Z.R, Liu W.Q, Lu L, Qui M.H, Yang L.M, Zhang X. M, Zheng Y, T, Zhou L.** 2009. Kuguacins F-S, cucurbitane triterpenoids from *Momordica charantia*. *Phytochemistry* **70**: 133-140
 6. **Cho E.J, Yokozawa T, Kim S.C, Park J.C, Rhyu D.Y, Shibahara N.** 2003. Study on the inhibitory effects of Korean medicinal plants and their main compounds on the 1,1-diphenyl-2-picrylhydrazyl radical. *Phytomedicine* **10**: 544-551
 7. **Dinan L, Savchenko T, Whiting P.** 2001. Phytoecdysteroids in the genus *Asparagus* (Asparagaceae). *Phytochemistry* **56**: 569-576
 8. **Elgorashi E.E, De Kimpe N, Maes A, Taylor J.L.S, van Staden J, Verschaeve L.** 2003. Screening of medicinal plants used in South African traditional medicine for genotoxic effects. *Toxicology Letters* **143**: 195-207
 9. **Furusawa E, Cutting W.** 1970. *Ann. N. Y. Acad. Sci* **173**: 668
 10. **Gibbons S.** 2005. Plants as a source of bacterial modulators and anti-infective agents. *Phytochemistry Reviews* **4**: 63-78
 11. **Greger H, Zechner G.** 1996. Bioactive Amides from *Glycomis* species. *J. Nat. Prod* **59**: 1163-1168.
 12. **Hara S, Ikenaka T, Makino J.** 1989. Amino acids sequences and disulfide bridges of serine proteinase inhibitors from bitter gourd (*Momordica charantia* Linn.) seeds. *Journal of Biochemistry* **105**: 88-91.
 13. **Jiang H.B, Guo M.J, Huang J, Tian X.Q, Zou P.** 2007. *Acta Pharm. Sin* **42**: 118.

-
14. **Jung H. J, Kim, C-J, Kwon H.J, Lee H. B, Lim C-H.** 2003. *Bioorg. Med. Chem.* **11**: 4743–4747.
 15. **Kashiwada Y, Aoshima A, Chen Y.P, Consentino L.M, Fujioka T, Furukawa H, Ikeshiro Y, Itoigawa M, Mihashi J, Morris-Natschke S.L, Lee K.H.** 2005. Anti-HIV benzyloisoquinoline alkaloids and flavonoids from the leaves of *Nelumbo nucifera* and structure-activity correlation with related alkaloids. *Bioorg. Med. Chem* **13**: 443-448
 16. **Kimura Y, Akihisa T, Motohashi S, Suzuki T, Tokuda H, Toriyama M, Ukiya M, Yuasa N.** 2005. Cucurbitane-type triterpenoids from the fruit of *Momordica charantia*. *J. Nat Prod* **68**: 807-809.
 17. **Kolodziej H, Ferreira D, Kayser O, Latte K.P.** 1999. Evaluation of the antimicrobial potency of tannins and related compounds using the microdilution broth method. *Planta Medica* **65**: 444-446
 18. **Kuete V, Guedem A.N, Ngadjui B.T, Poumale Poumale H.M, Randrianasolo R. Shiono Y.** 2010. Antimicrobial, antibacterial and antifungal activities of the methanol extracts and compounds from *Thecacoris annabonae* (Euphorbiceae) *South African Journal of Botany* **76**: 536-542
 19. **Lall N, Meyer J.J.M.** 2000. Antibacterial activity of water and acetone extracts of the roots of *Euclea natalensis*. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology* **72** : 313–316
 20. **Martins F.O, Barbi N.S, Esteve P.F, Mendes G.S, Menezes F.S, Romanos M.T.V.** 2009. Verbascoside isolated from *Lepechinia speciosa*

has inhibitory activity against HSV-1 and HSV-2 *in vitro*. *Natural Product Communications* 4(12): 1693-1696

21. **Mital A, Bindal S, Negi V, Mahlavat S, Sonawane M.** 2010. Synthesis and biological evaluation of alkyl/arylamino derivatives of naphthalene-1,4-dione as antimycobacterial agents. *Der Pharma Chemica* 2(5): 53-59
22. **Ncube N.S, Afolayan A.J, Okoh A.I.** 2006. Assessment techniques of antimicrobial properties of natural compounds of plant origin: current and future trends. *African Journal of Biotechnology* 7(12): 1797-1806
23. **Newman D.J, Cragg G.M.** 2007. Natural products as a source of new drugs over the last 25 years. *Journal of Natural products* 70: 461-477
24. **Pandey V.B, Devi S.** 1990. *Planta Med* 56: 649
25. **Parkash A, Ng T.B, Tso W.W.** 2002. Purification and characterization of charantin, a napin-like ribosome inactivating peptide from bitter melon (*Momordica charantia*) seeds. *Journal of Peptide Research* 59:197–202.
26. **Pauli G.F, Case R.J, Cho S, Fischer N.H, Franzblau S.G, Inui T, Wang Y.** 2005. New perspectives on natural products in TB drug research. *Life Sciences* 78: 485-494
27. **Reid K.A, De Kimpe N, Maes A, Maes J, Mulholland D.A, van Staden J, Verschaeve L.** 2006. Evaluation of the mutagenic and antimutagenic effects of South African plants. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology* 106: 44-50
28. **Richter M.** 2003 .Traditional Medicines and Traditional Healers in South Africa. Discussion paper prepared for the Treatment Action Campaign and AIDS Law Project. Researcher: *AIDS Law Project* 1-29

-
29. **Roy R, Pandey V.B, Prithiviraj B, Singh U.P.** 1996. Antifungal activity of the flavanoids from *C. infortunatum* roots. *Fitoterapia* **67**: 473-474
 30. **Schmourlo G, Alviano C.S, Costa S.S, Mendonca-Filho R.R.** 2005. Screening of antifungal agents using ethanol precipitation and bioautography of medicinal and food plants. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology* **96**: 563-568
 31. **Shrivastava N, Patel T.** 2007. Clerodendrum and Healthcare: An Overview. *Medicinal and Aromatic Plant Science and Biotechnology* **1(1)**: 142-150
 32. **Steenkamp V, Fernandes A. C, van Rensburg C.E.J.** 2007. Screening of Venda medicinal plants for antifungal activity against *Candida albicans*. *South African Journal of Botany* **73**: 256-258
 33. **Steenkamp V, Gouws M.C.** 2006. Cytotoxicity of six South African medicinal plant extracts used in the treatment of cancer. *South Africa Journal of Botany* **72**: 630-633
 34. **Tschesche R, Kaussmann E.U.** 1975. The Alkaloids (Manske R.H.F, ed) **15**: 165-205. *Academic Press, New York*
 35. **Van der Vijver L.M, Gerritsma K.W.** 1974. Naphthaquinones of Euclea and Diospyros species. *Phytochemistry* **13**: 2322-2323
 36. **Verschaeve I, De Kimpe N, Elgorashi E.E, Kestens V, Maes A, Taylor J.L.S, van Puyvelde L.** 2004. Investigation of the antimutagenic effects of selected South African medicinal plants extracts. *Toxicology in vitro* **18**: 29-35

-
37. **Verschaeve L, van Staden J.** 2008. Mutagenic and antimutagenic properties of extracts from South African medicinal plants. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology* **119**: 575-587
 38. **Weigenand O, Hussein A. A, Lall N, Meyer J.J.M.** 2004. Antibacterial Activity of naphthoquinones and Triterpenoids from *Euclea natalensis* Root Bark. *J.Nat.Prod* **67**: 1936-1938
 39. **World Health Organisation.** 2008. WHO Fact Sheet No. 134: Available at:<http://www.who.int/mediacentre/factsheets/fs134/en/> [2008, 06/10].
 40. **Yeung H.W, Barbieri L, Feng Z, Li W.W, Stirpe F.** 1988. Trichosanthin, alpha-momorcharin and beta-momorcharin: identity of abortifacient and ribosome-inactivating proteins. *International Journal of Peptide and Protein Research* **31**: 265–268.
 41. **Zhang Y, Lewis K.** 1997. Fabatins: new antimicrobial plant peptides. *FEMS Microbiology Letters* **149**: 59–64.

Appendix 1

Chemical Preparations:

Trypsin :

- 25g trypsin dissolved in 1 litre distilled water (2.5% solution)
- Filter sterilize using 0.1um filter
- 20ml of 2.5% soln made up to 200ml with PBS (0.25% solution)
- Aliquoted 1ml into each vial and stored at -20°C

EDTA: 0.5M

- Weigh 2g NaOH pellets, add 80ml water
- Place on magnetic stirrer, dissolve
- Add 18.6g of EDTA to dissolved NaOH soln
- Soln must look clear
- pH soln to pH 8. this will help clear up the soln
- Once dissolved, make up to 100ml.
- Autoclave. Dilute 1:5 with PBS/ autoclaved water
- Alternatively make up initial soln to 500ml and autoclave
- Aliquote 1ml into each vial and store at -20°C

Trypan Blue:

- 4g of trypan blue powder is dissolved in 100ml PBS

Freezing Fluid:

- Add 20ml foetal calf serum, 60ml of media used for cell line and 20ml of DMSO in the above order
- Filter through a 0.22um filter and store in 20ml at -20° C
-

McFarland Standard

- A 0.5 McFarland standard is prepared by mixing 0.05 mL of 1.175% barium chloride dihydrate ($\text{BaCl}_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$), with 9.95 mL of 1% sulfuric acid (H_2SO_4). Store in dark or cover glass bottle with aluminium foil.

Preparation of 10% FCS

- Aliquote 500µL of FCS into 4.5mL culture medium