

Global Journal of Cardiology Vol. 5 (3), pp. 001-014, March 2020. Available online at www.internationalscholarsjournals.org © International Scholars Journals

Author(s) retain the copyright of this article.

Full Length Research Paper

Cell protective antioxidants from the root bark of Lannea velutina A. Rich., a Malian medicinal plant

Ababacar Maiga^{1,2}, Karl Egil Malterud¹, Gro H. Mathisen³, Ragnhild E. Paulsen³, Jane Thomas-Oates⁴, Ed Bergström⁴, Leon Reubsaet⁵, Drissa Diallo² and Berit Smestad Paulsen^{1*}

¹Section Pharmacognosy, Department of Pharmaceutical Chemistry, School of Pharmacy, University of Oslo, Norway

²Department of Traditional Medicine, Bamako, Mali.

Department of Pharmaceutical Bioscience, School of Pharmacy, University of Oslo, Norway. Department of Chemistry, University of York, Heslington, United Kingdom.

⁵Section Pharmaceutical Analysis, Department of Pharmaceutical Chemistry, School of Pharmacy, University of Oslo, Norway

Accepted 20 May, 2020

Antioxidants (radical scavengers and 15-lipoxygenase inhibitors) in semipolar extracts of root bark from the Malian medicinal plant *Lannea velutina* have been investigated. A series of proanthocyanidins with degree of polymerization from 2 to more than 12 have been isolated, in addition to the monomeric substance, catechin. The major constituents have a degree of polymerization of ten or more. Most structures are proposed to be derived from a common biosynthetic route in which catechin is introduced as the terminal unit and epicatechin units are extenders. Catechin, dimeric, trimeric, decameric and dodecameric proanthocyanidins have been assayed as scavengers of the stable free radical diphenylpicrylhydrazyl and as inhibitors of the peroxidizing enzyme 15-lipoxygenase. All of them were shown to be effective radical scavengers (50% radical scavenging at concentrations of 5-7 microgram/mL) and 15-lipoxygenase inhibitors (50% inhibition at 10 - 18 microgram/mL). When epicatechin and trimeric proanthocyanidin were tested as antioxidants in cells, they gave a significant reduction in endogenously produced reactive oxygen species (ROS).

Key words: *Lannea velutina*, Anacardiaceae, medicinal plant, antioxidant, radical scavenging, 15-lipoxygenase, proanthocyanidins, electrospray mass spectrometry.

INTRODUCTION

Peroxidative processes and free radicals have been the subject of intense research in recent years, since they have been implicated in numerous diseases, including cardiovascular disease, some forms of cancer, inflammatory ailments, neurodegenerative disorders etc. (Bagchi et al., 2000; Coyle et al., 1993; Halliwell, 1999; Thomas and Kalyanaraman, 1997; Vendemiale et al., 1999). This has led to a widespread search for new antioxidants and radical scavengers, since compounds with this activity might help in the prevention and cure of important illnesses. Many medicinal plants have been shown to contain large amounts of effective antioxidants, and the search for antioxidants and radical scavengers from natural sources is pursued worldwide, and is a key focus of our rese-

Lannea species (Anacardiaceae) are native to tropical Africa. Some Lannea species yield timber that is used locally; others are employed for a variety of purposes in indigenous medicine (Watt and Breyer- Brandwijk, 1962). L. velutina Rich. is a shrub or tree 15 m high of the wooded savanna from Senegal to Ghana. The leaves are very fluffy, pubescent (hairy) on top and with dense tomenta on the lower surface. The roots and bark are recorded to be used against diarrhoea and for treatment of rachitic children and strained muscles (Kerharo and Adams, 1974). In the Ivory Coast the bark is used for treatment of

arch group (Maiga et al., 2006; Malterud et al., 1993; Malterud and Rydland, 2000; Mathisen et al., 2002; Wangensteen et al., 2004). African medicinal plants, which are often more or less unknown scientifically and therefore of potential interest as new sources of medicinally active antioxidants, have recently been reviewed in this respect (Atawodi, 2005).

^{*}Corresponding author. E-mail: b.s.paulsen@farmasi.uio.no. Phone: +4722856572. Fax: +4722854402

diarrhoea, oedema, paralysis, epilepsy, and insanity (Burkhill, 1997). In Mali *L. velutina* is used in treatments for chest pain, gastric ulcer, wounds, skin diseases, respiretory tract diseases and fever (Maiga et al., 2006).

In our earlier studies (Maiga et al., 2006) on the radical scavenging and 15-lipoxygenase (15-LO; an enzyme which catalyzes peroxidation of polyunsaturated fatty acids) inhibitory activity of some medicinal plants from Mali, ethanol and methanol extracts of L. velutina and Diospyros abyssinica showed the highest radical scavenging and 15- LO inhibition (IC50 <20 microgram/mL) activities. These plants have been chosen for further investigation. In this paper we present ethnopharmacological information on the medicinal uses of L. velutina in Mali. We describe our studies of the constituents of the alcohol extracts of the root bark of L. velutina, and also report on the radical scavenging and 15-LO inhibitory activities of the extracts. Cellular antioxidant activity was shown in cultured cerebellar granule neurons, a cell type which produces free radicals in response to glutamate, a trigger of neurodegenerative disorders in humans.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Ethnomedical information

Interviews with traditional healers were carried out in November 2002 in two different areas of Mali. The study areas were Dioila and Bandiagara. Another study was made in Kolokani in 2004. A multi-disciplinary team consisting of an agro-forester, a medical doctor or nurse, a pharmacist and an interpreter was involved in the interviews. Local names, traditional uses, preparation, and administration method of the plant were recorded.

Plant materials

The root bark of *L. velutina* was collected in Blendio, Mali, in February 2002. Plant materials were identified in the Department of Traditional Medicine, air dried and pulverized. Herbarium voucher samples (voucher number 1014/DMT) are deposited in the Department of Traditional Medicine, Bamako.

General chemical methods

¹H-NMR and ¹³ C-NMR spectra were recorded on a Varian Gemini-200 instrument (Varian, Palo Alto, CA, USA) at 200 MHz and 50 MHz, respectively, in deuterated acetone with two drops of deuterium oxide.

For UV and absorbance measurements, a Shimadzu 160A instrument equipped with a Shimadzu CPS240A thermostatted cell changer (Shimadzu, Kyoto, Japan) was employed.

Analytical HPLC was carried out on a Varian ProStar system equipped with two ProStar Model 210 pumps, a ProStar 510 column thermostat and a ProStar 325 UV/V is detector, using a Varian Chrompack column (RP, C-18 on Microsorb- MV 100, 250 x 4.6 mm). Aliquots of 20 microL of aqueous methanol solutions were injected after filtration through a Millex RHA 0.45 micrometer filter (Millipore, Ireland). A water/1% formic acid (A)- acetonitrile (B) grad-ient was employed for component elution {0 - 2 min, 95%A - 5%B, 2

- 32 min, 5 - 17%B in A, 32 - 50 min, 17 - 70% B, 50 - 60 min, 70%B, followed by reconditioning of column (Karonen et al., 2004); flow rate 1 mL/min, detection at 280 nm}.

ES-MS experiments were performed on an Applied Biosystems QStar pulsar / quadrupole orthogonal acceleration Time-of-Flight

mass spectrometer (Foster City, CA, USA). The samples were solvated in methanol:water:formic acid (50:50:1, v/v/v) and were infused into the source of the mass spectrometer at a rate of 0.1 micro L/min (spray voltage -4kV). All experiments were performed in the negative mode. Nitrogen was used as the collision gas in all product ion experiments.

The LC-MS system consisted of a Tsp SCM1000 vacuum degasser, Tsp SpectraSystem P4000 quaternary gradient pump and a Tsp SpectraSystem AS3000 auto-sampler. Detection was using a Finnigan LCQ^{duo} ion trap mass spectrometer. Xcalibur™ version 1.3 software was used to control this system and to perform data acquisition (all Thermo Electron Corporation, Waltham, MA, USA).

Separation was performed on a 250 x 4.6 mm (100 Å, 5 micrometer) Varian Microsorb[®] C18 column coupled to a precolumn at a flow rate of 1.00 mL/min. Gradient elution was carried out. Mo-bile phase A consisted of 1% formic acid, mobile phase B of acetonitrile. From t = 0 min to t = 2 min the mobile phase composition was constant at 95% mobile phase A / 5% mobile phase B. From t = 2 min to t = 32 min the mobile phase composition changed linear-ly from 95% mobile phase A / 5% mobile phase B to 83% mobile phase A / 17% mobile phase B. From t = 32 min to t = 50 min, the mobile phase composition changed linearly from 83% mobile phase A / 17% mobile phase B to 30% mobile phase A / 70% mobile phase B. After isocratic elution with 30% mobile phase A / 70% mobile phase B (from t = 50 min. to t = 60 min) the mobile phase composition changed back to starting conditions. The start/end composition was held for at least 5 column volumes to re-equilibrate the stationary phase.

The HPLC was connected to the MS equipped with an APCI interface. The MS was operated in both positive and negative ion modes using alternating scan events. Sheath gas (N2) flow was set at 60 units, auxiliary gas (N2) flow at 10 units. The APCI vaporizer was set at 450°C, the capillary temperature at 150°C. A discharge current of 5 microA was used. Full scan mass analysis was carried out over the range m/z 300 - 2000.

Oxidative depolymerisation of proanthocyanidins was carried out as described by Porter et al., 1986, using NH₄ Fe (SO₄)₂ .12 H₂O and HCl in n-butanol. After depolymerisation samples were subjected to two-dimensional TLC on cellulose coated foils (Polygram CEL300, 0.1mm thickness, Macherey-Nagel, Düren, Germany). In the first dimension, conc. HCl –formic acid –water (7:71:22, v/v) was used as mobile phase, in the second dimension methanolconc. HCl-water: 109:1:10 was used (Mathisen et al., 2002). Cyanidin chloride (Sigma- Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) was used for comparison. For some samples, absorbance at 550 nm was Registered as a semi-quantitative measure of proanthocyanidin content.

Determination of total phenolics (as gallic acid equivalents) was carried out with Folin-Ciocalteu reagent as described by Singleton and Rossi (1965). Test solutions were measured at concentrations of 10 and 20 mg/mL, and results were compared to a standard curve constructed by measurements of gallic acid at concentrations from 0 to 5 mg/mL.

Phloroglucinol degradation was carried out as described by Foo et al. (1996). Proanthocyanidin samples (usually 20 mg) were reacted with phloroglucinol (28 mg) in 1% HCl in Et OH (700 microL) with continuous shaking until complete dissolution. For hig-her polymers, larger amounts were used with corresponding increa-ses in the other reagents. The time taken for complete dissolution was *ca* 30 min. The resulting solution was fractionated on a Sepha-dex LH20 column (30 x 200 mm) using EtOH as eluent. Fractions were combined according to monitoring by TLC and visualization by UV irradiation and by spraying with methanolic DPPH solution. ¹H and in some cases ¹³C NMR spectra were recorded.

Extraction and separation of the crude extracts

The dried pulverized materials (0.30 - 0.37 kg) were extracted in a Soxhlet apparatus with different solvents, followed by extraction

with water 50 and 100°C as described previously (Maiga et al., 2006).

The methanolic fraction and ethanolic fraction (ca. 20 g of each) were dissolved in 40 mL of methanol /water (50/50) and chromatographed on a 44 x 530 mm Diaion HP20 (Supelco, Bellefonte, PA, USA) column with methanol-water (50/50), methanol 100%, and acetone. Fractions were combined as indicated by their DPPH radical scavenging activity (TLC) or UV spectra to give 11 fractions. The fractions were assayed for DPPH scavenging activity, and subjected to $^1{\rm H}$ NMR and $^{13}{\rm C}$ NMR.

Purification and isolation of the proanthocyanidins

Fractions selected for further work, based on fraction weight, DPPH scavenging ability and NMR data, were submitted to further column chromatography on the same Diaion column, or a Sephadex LH20 column (Pharmacia, Uppsala, Sweden), 30 x 450 mm, or a reverse phase Si gel column (LiChroprep RP-18; Merck, Darmstadt, Germany), 30 x 300 mm. As eluent, water- methanol gradients (from 1:1 to pure methanol) followed by acetone were employed. In some experiments, crude extracts were applied directly to the Sephadex column.

Fractions from the columns were taken to dryness *in vacuo* and weighed. They were monitored by qualitative DPPH scavenging assay, ¹H and ¹³C NMR spectroscopy and, for selected fractions, by quantitative DPPH scavenging assay and 15-lipoxygenase inhibit-ion assay.

Assays for radical scavenging and inhibition of 15-lipoxygenase

Qualitative determination of radical scavenging on TLC plates

The samples were applied to pre-coated plates (Silica gel 60F254, Merck) and visualized by spraying with a methanolic 1,1-diphenyl-2-picrylhydrazyl (DPPH) solution at a concentration sufficient to give a violet color to the plate (approx. 0.4 mg/mL). Radicals scavengers were visible as yellow spots.

Quantitative determination of radical scavenging activity (Malterud et al., 1993; Mathisen et al., 2002).

The dried extracts or fractions were dissolved in dimethyl sulfoxide to a concentration of 10 mg/mL, and dilutions were made to 5, 2.5, 1.25 and 0.625 mg/mL.

To 2.95 mL of a methanolic solution of DPPH (A_{517} 1.0) was added 50 microL of the test solution. The mixture was stirred and the decrease in absorbance at 517 nm was measured over a period of 5 min. Per cent radical scavenging was calculated from the decrease in A_{517} . Calculation of results was carried out as previously described.

Inhibition of 15-LO

Inhibition of 15-lipoxygenase (15-LO) was carried out as described by Lyckander and Malterud (1992), using soybean lipoxygenase type 1-B (Sigma, or Fluka, Büchs, Switzerland). Measurements of increase in absorbance at 234 nm for 30 to 90 s after enzyme addition were carried out in 0.2 M borate buffer (pH 9.00) with linoleic acid (134 microM) as substrate and an enzyme concentration of 167 U/mL, using test substance solutions in DMSO or (for blanks) DMSO alone. Enzyme inhibitory activity was calculated from the values for absorption increase per time unit, as supplied from the software of the spectrometer. Six or more parallels for blanks and

three or more parallels for samples were measured. Calculations were carried out as previously described (Malterud et al., 1993; Lyckander and Malterud, 1992).

Assays in cellular systems

Cerebellar granule neurons were obtained from 7 – 8 days old albi-no rats (Gallo et al., 1987; Ciani et al., 1996). Neurons were seeded on plastic dishes coated with 20 microgram/mL poly-L-lysine (cell density of 2 x 10⁵ cells/cm²) and cultured in basal Eagle's medium supplemented with 10% fetal calf serum, 25 mM KCl, 2 mM gluta-mine, and 100 microgram/mL gentamicin. To prevent growth of non-neuronal cells, cytosine arabinofuranoside (10 microM final concentration) was added to the cultures 16 - 18 h after seeding. After 6 - 7 days in vitro, cultures were washed in Locke's buffer (154 mM NaCl, 5.6 mM KCl, 3.6 mM NaHCO₃, 2.3 mM CaCl₂, 5.6 mM glucose, 5 mM HEPES, pH 7.4) and pre-incubated in the same buffer for 15 min before they were exposed to 100 microM gluta-mate (in the presence of 10 microM glycin as coagonist) at room temperature for 15 min in Mg ²⁺- free Locke's buffer. Control cultu-res were either untreated or exposed to physiological buffer in the absence of glutamate. At the end of glutamate exposure, cultures were washed and incubated in serum-free basal medium (25) mM KCl). The substances aimed at neuroprotection (3 microgram/mL epicatechin or 9 microgram/mL P.A. trimer) were present for the preincubation time of 15 min as well as during glutamate exposure. Cell death was measured after 24 h by a trypan blue assay.

To detect reactive oxygen species (ROS), neurons were loaded with dihydroethidium (HE, 0.2 microM for 60 min) directly in the medium prior to glutamate exposure. Media were aspirated and the cultures were washed with Locke's buffer before glutamate exposure. Immediately after glutamate exposure, neurons were harvested and fluorescence was read on a fluorescence plate reader (Perkin Elmer HTS 7000 Plus, Bio Assay Reader, Perkin Elmer, Boston, MA, USA) for 30 min at 37°C. Oxidation of HE by ROS was read at excitation 485 nm and emission 595 nm. Blanks in the absence of fluorescent probe were subtracted from readings, and a BCATM Protein Assay (BCATM Protein Assay Kit, Pierce, IL, USA) was carried out in order to correct for the amount of protein. The slopes were calculated and then presented as percentage of the slope for the oxidation of HE in the glutamate-exposed cultures.

Statistical treatment

All values are given as averages \pm SD or SEM. Student's t-test or one way ANOVA on ranks followed by Dunn's posthoc test were was employed for calculation of statistical significance, using a P value of less than 0.05 as a significance criterion.

RESULTS

Ethnopharmacological information

L. velutina is widely used as a medicinal plant in Mali. In our survey we noted that 40 of the 50 healers interviewed used L. velutina for a multitude of ailments. Among those are: gastrointestinal tract disease [dysentery (5 reports), gastric ulcer (4), flatulence (2), abdominal pain (1) diarrhea (1)]; skin diseases [dermatitis (3)]; pains [chest pain (3), back pain (2), muscular pain (3), tooth ache (1)]; eye diseases [3]; parasites [(malaria (1), blinding sick-ness (1), toxoplasmosis (1)]; sprains (2); others [cough (1), gonorrhea (1), unspecified diseases (2)]. All the parts (leaves, bark, fiber, roots) as well as Loranthus spp. growing

parasitically on the tree were used alone or in addition to other plants in different ways and in different forms (decoction, macerate, powders) for these purposes. In a survey performed in 2004 in the Kolokani area (Mali) the following uses were recorded: dermatitis, dysentery, wound, chronic gastric ulcer, boils, inflammations and haemorrhoids, infertility, and convulsions with fever. However, during our survey in the Bandiagara area (Dogonland) the species *L. velutina* appeared to be unknown.

The different uses of *L. velutina* in traditional medicine in the Dioila and Kolokani areas are summarized in Table 1.

Studies on the crude extracts

The methanol and 80% ethanol extracts of the root bark of *L. velutina* are rich in antioxidants, both radical scavengers and 15- lipoxygenase inhibitors (Maiga et al., 2006). Assay for total phenolic compounds with Folin-Ciocalteu reagent yielded values of 80% (calculated as gallic acid equivalents) of the total weight for the MeOH extract and 64% for the 80% EtOH extract. From the UV, ¹H NMR and ¹³C NMR spectra of the extracts, it appeared that the major part of both consisted of proanthocya-nidins.

Depolymerization of the extracts with Porter's reagent (Porter et al., 1986) furnished an intensely red-coloured solution. E $^{1\%}$ $_{1\ cm}$ at 550 nm (calculated as averages of measurements at 5 - 30 microgram/mL) was determined as 252 \pm 13 and 207 \pm 9 for the MeOH and the 80% EtOH extracts, respectively. This corresponds to a proanthocyanidin content of 50 - 80%, dependent on the degree of polymerization (DP) (Porter et al., 1986; Porter, 1989).

¹³C NMR is well suited for determination of the average DP of proanthocyanidins, since the starter unit of the molecule exhibits a C-3 signal at ca. 67 ppm, while C-3 in extender units resonates at ca. 72 ppm. Likewise, information about stereochemistry is obtained, since catechintype monomers (or, more precisely, 2,3- trans configured monomers) show C-2 signals at 82 - 83 ppm, while epicatechin-type monomers (2,3-cis) have this signal at 76 -77 ppm (Eberhardt and Young, 1994). Assuming that the C-3 atoms in starter and extender units have similar relaxation times and nuclear Overhauser factors, and that this is the case for the epimeric C-2 carbons as well, integration of the signals between 65 and 85 ppm will give quantitative information both about average DP and the amount of each steroisomer in the molecule. For the crude Lannea extracts, it appears that epicatechin-type stereochemistry is predominant and that the average DP is fairly large (>6), but the presence of interfering signals in this region which probably come from carbohydrates makes exact calculations impossible.

Isolation and identification of substances

Initially, the extracts were fractionated by repeated colu-

mn chromatography (CC) using Diaion HP20, followed by CC on Sephadex LH-20 and/or reverse phase (C_{18}) Si gel. In the following, fractions are denoted by the letters D (Diaion), S (Sephadex) and R (reverse phase) and numbers, so that fraction D2D3S4 means that fraction 2 from a Diaion column has been chromatographed on another Diaion column, and fraction 3 from this second column has been rechromatographed over Sephadex LH20, giving fraction 4. In some later experiments, fractionation on Diaion HP20 was omitted. An example of the isolation procedure is shown in Figure 1.

Chromatographic fractions were combined based on absorbance and radical scavenging activity determined qualitatively by application of the fraction to a TLC plate and spraying with a methanolic DPPH solution (Glavind and Holmer, 1967). Combined fractions were taken to dryness in a rotary evaporator and monitored by ¹H and ¹³C NMR spectroscopy, and most of them were assayed quantitatively for radical scavenging activity and inhibition of 15-lipoxygenase. Some fractions (D1S6, D2D3S3 and D2D8S4) were subjected to Porter degradation followed by 2-D TLC on cellulose (Mathisen et al., 2002). In all cases, only one red spot was obtained. This corresponded to cyanidin chloride (used as standard for comparison), demonstrating that catechin and/or epicate-chin are the main monomers, although the presence of minor amounts of other catechins (below the detection limit) cannot be excluded.

Identification of major constituents

From spectroscopic data, it appeared that the following species were present in the fractions from *L. velutina* extracts:

Catechin (in fractions (from MeOH extract) S3R2, 31.4 mg and S3R4, 75.7 mg) was identified by direct comparison (TLC, ¹H NMR, ¹³C NMR) with the authentic substance. From ¹H NMR, it appeared that several other fractions contained smaller amounts of catechin in mixture with other polyphenols.

Epicatechin (4beta->8) catechin (procyanidin B1) was found in MeOH extract fraction S3R1 (19.5 mg) and EtOH extract fractions S3 (64.1 mg) and D8S8 (16.2 mg), and less pure in other fractions. Integration of the ¹³C NMR spectrum in the 65-85 ppm region showed a 1:1 ra-tio between starter and extender units and between catechin and epicatechin-type monomers. The substance was identified by comparison of NMR spectra with literature data (Foo et al., 1997). This was corroborated by data from HPLC, which showed a t_R value relative to catechin that was consistent with procyanidin B1 and not in accord with the published value for epicatechin(4beta->6) catechin (procyanidin B7) (Ricardo da Silva et al., 1991). Phloroglucinol degradation of fraction S4R2 from the EtOH extract (which had this dimer as a major constituent) yielded catechin and epicatechin (4beta->2) phloroglucinol, separated by column chromatography and identified by ¹H NMR spectroscopy. This shows that catechin

Table 1a. Traditional uses of *Lannea velutina* in the Dioila region.

| Part used | Preparation / administration | | Traditional indications | | |
|--|------------------------------|----------------------------|--|--|--|
| Leaves | Decoction | Body bath | Dermatitis | | |
| | | Steam bath of chest and | Chest pain | | |
| | | body bath | | | |
| | | Steam bath and massage | Back pain | | |
| | | of the back | | | |
| | | Face washing | Eye infections | | |
| | | Drunk | Fever, dentition, gastric ulcer | | |
| Leaves | Macerate | Body bath | Dermatitis | | |
| Leaves and roots | Decoction | Drunk and as body bath | Unknown disease | | |
| Leaves mixed with Parinaria curatellifolia and Entada africana | Decoction | Drunk with body bath | Colitis | | |
| Leaves with salt | Decoction | Drunk | Flatulence | | |
| Leaves with those of Saba senegalensis | Decoction | Drunk | Dysuria, unknown disease | | |
| Leaves with droppings of goat | Decoction | Steam bath of the head | Migraine | | |
| Stem bark | Powder | Eaten | Cough, toxoplasmosis | | |
| | Macerate + salt | Drunk | Gastric ulcer | | |
| | Macerate + salt | Drunk | Gastric ulcer | | |
| | Decoction | Drunk | Dysentery, gastric ulcer, chest pains, abdominal pains, prolonged menstruation | | |
| | | Drunk, steam and body bath | Dermatitis, weakness, back pain | | |
| | | Bath | Dermatitis | | |
| Stem bark and leaves | Decoction | Bath | Dermatitis | | |
| Stem bark and Strychnos spinosa | Decoction | Bath | Diarrrhoea in children | | |
| Fibres of trunk | Powder + sugar | Eaten | Flatulence | | |
| | Decoction +grease or butter | Massage and bath | Weakness, sprains, muscular pains | | |
| | Decoction | Drunk | Gonorrhoea, dysentery | | |
| | Decoction | Anal bath | Anal prolepsis | | |
| | Macerate | Drunk | Dysentery, flatulence | | |
| Root bark | Macerate | Drunk | Malaria | | |
| | Decoction | Wash | Eye infections | | |
| | Decoction + pork meat | Eaten | Onchocerciasis | | |
| Loranthus spp. | Powder | Applied topically | Dermatitis | | |
| | Macerate | Drunk and body bath | Measles | | |

is the starter unit and epicatechin the extender unit, in accord with the results above. A trimeric proanthocyanidin was isolated from MeOH extract fraction D4S(4-12)S(2-4)R4 (50.6 mg) and from MeOH extract fraction S5 (247.5 mg). The ¹³C NMR spectrum showed starter: extender and catechin:epicatechin ratios of 1:2. Phloroglucinol degradation gave catechin and epicatechin (4 beta->2) phloroglucinol, demonstrating that the mole-cule is epicatechin->epicatechin->catechin. From the NMR data, however, it appears difficult to assign the bonds between monomers to either the 4->6 or 4->8 type (Shoji et al., 2003).

Similarly, tetramer (MeOH fraction D3D4, 82.9 mg), hexamer (MeOH fraction D5, 853.5 mg), heptamer (MeOH

fraction D4, 1519.6 mg; EtOH fraction S(6+7)S3, 564.3 mg) and nonamer fractions (EtOH fraction D7S11, 129.4 mg) were isolated, in all instances seeming to contain one catechin unit, the rest of the oligomer being epicatechin. Phloroglucinol degradation of fraction D7S11 from the EtOH extract yielded catechin andepicatechin(4beta>2)phloroglucinol, so it might seem that in general, the proanthocyanidins of L. velutina have catechin as a starter unit and epicatechin as extender units.

A considerable proportion of the total tannins in the extracts, however, appear to be high MW compounds with average degree of polymerization (DP) between 10 and 17, although determination of DP becomes progressively less exact with increasing molecular size. Some of these

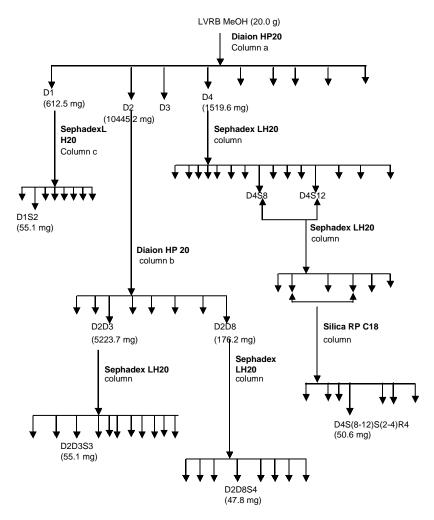


Figure 1. Fractionation and purification of *Lannea velutina* root bark MeOH proanthocyanidins, shown as an example of the fractionation and purification process.

Table 1b. Traditional uses of Lannea velutina in the Kolokani district

| Part used | Preparati | on / administration | Traditional indications | |
|----------------------|------------------------|-----------------------------------|---|--|
| Leaves | Decoction | Topical application after washing | Small boils | |
| | | Steam bath and head washing | Headache | |
| | | Face washing | Eye infections | |
| Stem bark | Powder mixed with salt | Eaten | Gastric ulcer | |
| | Powder | Topical application | Wounds | |
| | Powder mixed in water | Drunk | Female infertility | |
| | Juice | Topical application | Inflammation | |
| | Decoction | Drunk | Dysentery, hemorrhoids | |
| | | Drunk and bath | Boils, itching | |
| | | Bath | Dermatitis, variola, itching, boils on the body | |
| Stem bark and leaves | Decoction | Drunk and body bath | Disease with fever and convulsions | |

these seem to diverge from the figure suggested above: MeOH fraction D1S2 (12-mer, 55.1 mg) appears to contain only epicatechin, while another 12-mer, EtOH fraction S7 (743 mg) contained one catechin unit. MeOH fraction S9 (12-mer, 2180.2 mg) gave on phloroglucinol

degradation mostly epicatechin(4beta->2) phloroglucinol, but in addition yielded minor amounts of catechin (starter unit) and epiafzelechin(4beta->2)phloroglucinol. Epiafzelechin is the 3'-deoxy analogue of epicatechin, so this proanthocyanidin can be regarded as a propelargonidin,

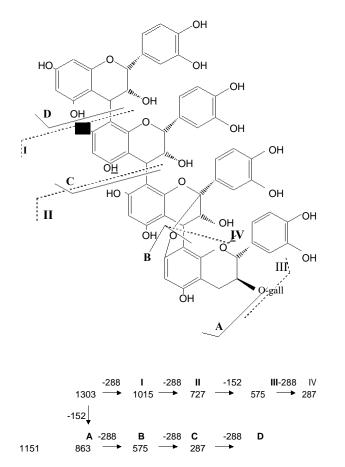


Figure 2. Possible fragmentation routes for the compound P4G1 (M-H at m/z = 1303). The different mass losses are suggested to take place as shown and give rise to fragments **I-IV** and **A-D**, see figure 1.

a less common type of proanthocyanidin than the procyanidins, which only contain catechin and epicatechin.

It should be realized that, especially for the higher polymers, the above data represent average values. It is highly likely that the fractions are heterogenous and that one fraction may contain several closely related substances, both structural isomers and homologues and rotamers. It may also contain small or trace amounts of other polyphenols, occurring in amounts below the detection limit for ¹³C NMR spectroscopy.

Dimeric, trimeric and tetrameric proanthocyanidins are well known natural products. Procyanidins with a catechin starter unit and epicatechin extender units have been reported up to a DP of 10 (Awika et al., 2003). Apparently, none of the dodecamers isolated by us ((epicatechin)₁₁ – catechin; (epicatechin)₁₂ and (epicatechin)_{11-n} (epiafzelechin)_n –(catechin)) have been reported previously. As mentioned above, however, at this high degree of polymerization, isolates represent an average and not one specific structure.

Studies on minor constituents

From mass spectrometry, the presence of numerous min-

or constituents in the fractions was demonstrated (Figure 3a). A highly complex pattern of substances was evident (Table 2), comprising regular proanthocyanidin oligomers, A-type proanthocyanidins (with an additional ether bond between monomer units and thus a mass of two less than the corresponding B- type proanthocya-nidins which form the major part of the fractions), desoxy compounds (16 mass units less than the major compounds epiafzelechin, reported above, is one example of this). methyllated compounds (14 mass units more than the major compounds), and gallovlated compounds (152 units more). An ES mass spectrum of fraction MeOH D4S (8-12) S (2-4)R4 is shown in Figure 3a. A proposed structure of one galloylated oligomer containing A-type structure with the MS/MS data based on the fragmentation pattern shown in Figure 3b, is given in Figure 2.

Several of the fractions obtained from *L. velutina* were analyzed by LC -MS revealing different types of products, amongst these two different dimers, both giving ions at m/z 579 in the positive mode and 577 in the negative, and one galloylated dimer (m/z 729 in the negative mode). The dimers are most probably epimers as they are eluted at different retention times in the LC system. In addition, some of the fractions revealed by HPLC one in homogeneous peak that may comprise closely related compounds or a population of rotamers and numerous minor ones, which are likely to represent the compounds demonstrated by ES-MS experiments. In a study of proanthocyanidins in *Lannea coromandelica*, a related plant species (Islam et al., 2002), a similar complex pattern of proanthocyanidins as described above was observed.

DPPH radical scavenging and 15-LO inhibition activities

We have shown previously (Maiga et al., 2006) that the MeOH and 80% EtOH extracts of *L. velutina* root bark show high activity in both the DPPH radical scavenging assay and the 15-lipoxygenase inhibition assay. In Table 3, the concentrations of extracts and fractions that give 50% radical scavenging and 50% enzyme inhibition are shown. Activities of different substances are shown in Figures 4 and 5, and concentration-activity dependence in Figures 6 and 7.

It appears that all substances show high activity both as radical scavengers and 15-LO inhibitors. The DPPH scavenging activity of proanthocyanidins is well known (Mathisen et al., 2002; Rao et al., 2004), and 15-LO inhibition for this class of substances has also been reported previously (Mathisen et al., 2002). Thus, it seems reasonable to assume that the antioxidant properties of *L. velutina* root bark can be explained mainly based on the basis of its proanthocyanidin content.

The minor constituents observed in the mass spectra were not isolated. From the relatively scant literature on antioxidant activity of these subtypes of proanthocyanidins, it appears that antioxidant activity is decreased by B-ring methylation, while galloylation increases activity

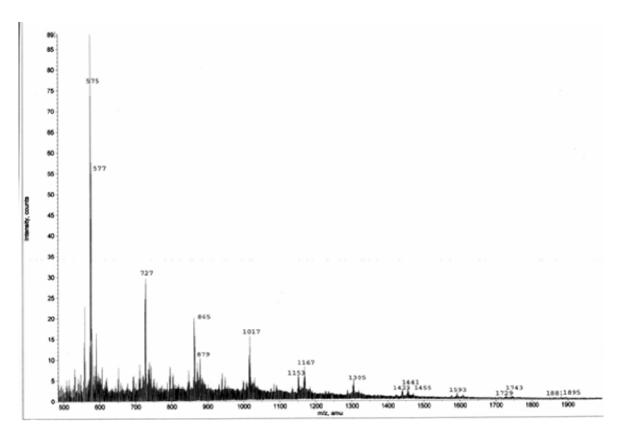


Figure 3a. Negative ion mass spectrum (ES-MS) of fraction MeOH D4S(8-12)S(2-4)R4.

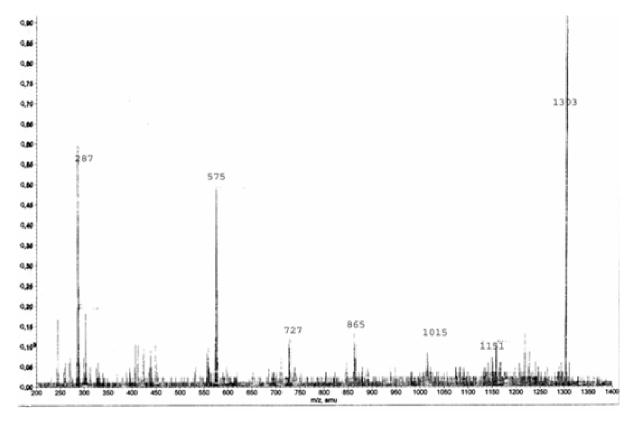


Figure 3b. Negative ion ES-MS/MS of compound with M-H $^{-}$ at m/z = 1303 in figure 1a.

Table 2. Tentative assignments of structures of the proanthocyanidins present as minor components in *L. velutina* bark based on molecular weights. All species are singly charged.

| | Proposed identity ¹ | | | | | | |
|--------------|--------------------------------|--------------|-----------|------------|---------|---------|--------------|
| m/z-1 | | | G1 | -2 | G2 | -2 | |
| 287 | P1-2 | | | | | | |
| 289 | P1 | | | | | | |
| 559 | | P2-2-16 | | | | | 1A1B |
| 575 | | P2-2 | | | | | |
| 577 | P2 | | | | | | |
| 591 | P2+14 | | | | | | |
| 727 | | | | P2G1-2 | | | |
| 729 | | | P2G1 | | | | |
| 845 | | P3-2-2-16 | _ | | | | 1A2B |
| 863 | | | | | | | |
| 865 | P3 | | | | | | |
| 879 | P3+14 | | | | | | |
| 1015 | | | | P3G1-2 | | | |
| 1017 | | | P3G1 | | | | |
| 1135 | | P4-16-2 | 1001 | | | | 1A3B |
| 1137 | P4-16 | 11102 | | | | | 1A3B |
| 1151 | ' ' ' | P4-2 | | | | | 17.05 |
| 1153 | P4 | 172 | | | | | |
| 1167 | P4+14 | | | | | P3G2-2 | |
| 1169 | ' 47 4 | | | | P3G2 | 1 302-2 | |
| 1287 | | | | P4G1-2-16 | 1302 | | 1A3B |
| 1289 | | | P4G1-16 | 1 401-2-10 | | | 1A3B |
| 1303 | | | 1 401-10 | P4G1-2 | | | IASD |
| 1305 | | | P4G1 | 1 401-2 | | | |
| 1315 | | | 1 701 | | | | |
| 1319 | | | P4G1+14 | | | | |
| 1423 | | P5-16-2 | 1 401+14 | | | | 1A4B |
| 1425 | P5-16 | F3-10-2 | | | | | 1A4B 1A4B |
| 1423 | 53-10 | P5-2-2 | | | | | IA4D |
| 1437 | | P5-2-2 | | | | | |
| 1441 | P5 | F3-2 | | | | | |
| 1455 | P5+14 | | | | | | |
| | P5+14 | | | | P4G2 | | |
| 1457 1459 | 50+10 | | | | | | |
| | | DE 130/30 3\ | | | P4G2+2 | | |
| 1471 | | P5+30(2O-2) | DEC1 22.2 | | P4G2+14 | | |
| 1559 | | | P5G1-32-2 | DEC1 14 0 | | | |
| 1577 | | | | P5G1-14-2 | | | |
| 1591 | | | DEC 4 | P5G1-2 | | | |
| 1593 | _ | | P5G1 | | | | |
| 1729 | P6 | | | | | | |
| 1743 | P6+14 | | | | DECC | | |
| 1745 | | | | | P5G2 | | |
| 1759 | | | B00. | | P5G2+14 | | |
| 1881 | | | P6G1 | | | | |
| 1883 | | | P6G1+2 | | | | |
| 1895 | | | P6G1+14 | 1 | | | |

¹Abbreviations: P1- proanthocyanidin momomer, M-H at m/z=289, P2 – proanthocyanidin dimer etc., G1 – monogallate mass increment of 152 Th, etc., A = P - 16, i.e. -OH, B = P M-H at m/z 289.

Table 3. Concentrations (in microgram/mL) to give 50% scavenging of the DPPH radical and 50% inhibition of 15-lipoxygenase. *Data from Maiga et al. (2006) . In all cases, the effect is statistically significant (P<0.05) at all concentrations measured (down to 2.6 microgram/mL).

| Extracts and compounds | DPPH scavenging | 15-LO inhibition | |
|--|-----------------|------------------|--|
| MeOH crude extract | 12±2 | 14±1 | |
| 80% EtOH crude extract | 17±2 | 18±2 | |
| Catechin | 6.2±0.1 | 17±1 | |
| Dimer (procyanidin B1; EtOH fr. D8S8) | 4.6±0.1 | 16±2 | |
| Trimer (MeOH fr. D4D(8-12)S(2-4)R4) | 5.1±0.1 | 14±2 | |
| 10-mer (MeOH fr. D2D3S3; catechin + epicatechin) | 6.3±0.3 | 18±2 | |
| 10-mer (EtOH fr. D7S11; catechin + epicatechin) | 5.4±0.4 | 10±1 | |
| 12-mer (MeOH fr. S9; catechin + epicatechin) | 4.9±0.1 | 12±1 | |
| Quercetin (positive control)* | 3.4±0.3 | 11.5±0.6 | |

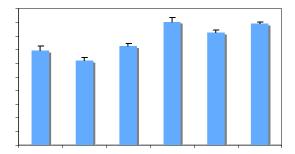


Figure 4. Scavenging of the diphenylpicrylhydrazyl radical by *Lannea velutina* root bark (LVRB) crude extracts and purified proanthocyanidin at a concentration of 21 microgram/mL. 1:LVRB MeOH crude extract, 2: LVRB EtOH crude extract, 3: Procyanidin B1 (dimeric), 4: Trimeric proanthocyanidin, 5: 10-meric proantho-cyanidin (epicatechin/catechin 9:1), 6: 12-meric proanthocyanidin (only epicatechin).

(Cren- Olivé et al., 2003; Plumb et al., 1998; Pollard et al., 2006). This is in accord with general considerations for antioxidant properties of proanthocyanidins (Bors et al., 2001). These effects differ, however, in different assays. Atype and B-type proanthocyanidins appear to be fairly similar as radical scavengers (Hatano et al., 2002).

Very little is known about the influence of galloylation and methylation of proanthocyanidins on 15-lipoxygenase inhibition. By comparing data from our previous investigations (Mathisen et al., 2002; Utenova et al., 2007), it does not appear that the enzyme inhibitory activity is drastically changed by such substitution.

Considering the investigations discussed above, it appears unlikely that the minor proanthocyanidin constituents in *L. velutina* are influencing the radical scavenging and lipoxygenase inhibiting properties of the extracts to any significant degree.

Epicatechin and trimeric proanthocyanidin as antioxidants in cerebellar granule cells

The biological activity has been tested for epicatechin,

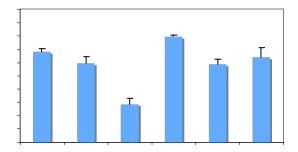


Figure 5. Inhibition of 15-lipoxygenase by *Lannea velutina* root bark (LVRB) crude extracts and purified proanthocyanidin at a concentration of 21 microgram/mL. 1:LVRB MeOH crude extract, 2: LVRB EtOH crude extract, 3: Procyanidin B1 (dimeric), 4: Trimeric proanthocyanidin, 5: 10-meric proanthocyanidin (epicatechin/catechin 9:1), 6: 12-meric proanthocyanidin (only epicatechin).

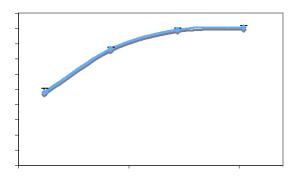


Figure 6. Concentration dependence of diphenylpicrylhydrazyl radical scavenging by proanthocyanidin 10-mer (epicatechin / catechin 9:1)

the major building block of proanthocyanidins, and trimeric proanthocyanidin, present in root bark of L. velutina and small enough to cross the plasma membranes of

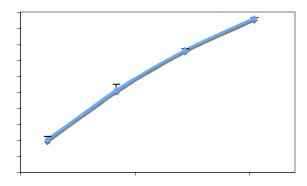


Figure 7. Concentration dependence of 15-lipoxygenase inhibition by proanthocyanidin 10-mer (epicatechin / catechin 9:1).

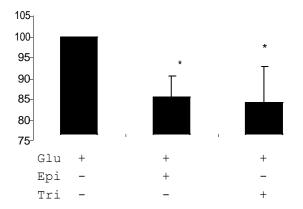


Figure 8. ROS production in cerebellar granule neurons induced by glutamate in the absence or presence of epicatechin (Epi, 3 microgram/mL) or proanthocyanidin trimer (Tri, 9 microgram/mL). Readings in untreated cells were 76%, as shown on the y axis. The results are mean +/- SEM, N = 8 (4 independent experiments with duplicates). * P< 0.05, One way ANOVA on ranks followed by Dunn's posthoc test, comparing antioxidant treatments to glutamate (glu) alone.

cells, as antioxidants in cultures of cerebellar granule neurons (Figure 8). This cell type produces free radicals in response to glutamate, which is a trigger of neurodegenerative disorders in humans. Glutamate-induced production of ROS, as measured by its ability to oxidize HE to a fluorescing compound, was strongly reduced by both antioxidants. The concentrations of the antioxidants were chosen to lie on the dose-effect curve for antioxidative effect in vitro (Figure 6). Since superoxide is involved in mediating the toxicity induced by glutamate, we measured cell death induced by glutamate in the absence or presence of the antioxidants (Figure 9). The best protective effect was seen with the trimeric proanthocyanidin, consistent with its in vitro antioxidant capacity which is three times higher than that of the epicatechin dose given.

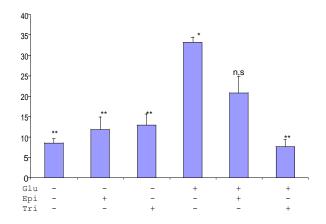


Figure 9. Cell death in percent of the total cell count in cerebellar granule neurons treated with glutamate (glu) in the absence or presence of epicatechin (Epi, 3 microgram/mL) or proanthocyanidin trimer (Tri, 9 microgram/mL) from the root bark of *Lannea velutina*. The results are mean +/- SEM, N=8 (4 independent experiments with duplicates). P< 0.05, one way ANOVA on ranks followed by Dunn's posthoc test, comparing treatments to control (first bar, *) or to glutamate treatment (**). n.s = not significantly different from control or glutamate treatments.

DISCUSSION

There is considerable interest in the therapeutic potential of antioxidants and radical scavengers and in their ability to take part in the prevention or amelioration of several degenerative and other diseases. Cellular pro-oxidant states with increased concentrations of reactive oxygen species (ROS) and free radicals are believed to be implicated in the pathology of several major chronic diseases such as atherosclerosis, some forms of cancer, inflammatory diseases, and also in the aging process. The body normally controls oxidative stress through protective enzymes such as superoxide dismutase, catalase and glutathione peroxidase, in addition to antioxidants which are constituents of the diet, such as vitamin C and vitamin E. If the natural antioxidant defense of the body is overwhelmed, however, illness may result. Peroxidation induced by 15-lipoxygenase may be important in the formation of atherosclerotic lesions, since 15-LO is able to oxidize low density lipoprotein, a process that is believed to be a key step in the atherosclerotic process (Steinberg, 1999).

Many naturally occurring compounds, such as flavonoids and carotenoids, are antioxidants. Proanthocyanidins and other flavonoids are polyphenols, a class of substance that seems particularly effective in this respect, and conceivably may play an important role as dietary antioxidants. It has been suggested that in many cases, proanthocyanidins are the active principles in medicinal plants (De Bruyne et al., 1999). For these reasons, polyphenols have attracted widespread attention in the fields of nutrition and health, and it has been suggested that they may modulate key biological pathways *in vivo* in mammals (Rice-Evans and Packer, 2003).

Proanthocyanidins have been reported to have a broad spectrum of biological, pharmacological and therapeutic activities against free radicals and oxidative stress (Ariga. 2004; Cos et al., 2004; Dixon et al., 2005; Fine, 2000; Prior and Gu, 2005; Scalbert et al., 2000; Scalbert et al., 2002). Dysentery and diarrhoea are among the major indications for L. velutina bark preparations (Table 1). It is therefore noteworthy that proanthocyanidin-rich plants have a long tradition of use as antidiarrhoeals in folk medicine (Lewis and Elvin-Lewis, 2003). The efficacy of this has been shown in several recent investigations (Adzu et al., 2003; Agbor et al., 2004; Atta and Moneir, 2004; Bizimenyera et al., 2005), and a proanthocyanidin preparation from Croton lechleri has been in development as a commercial drug (Fischer et al., 2004). Interestingly, Shigella dysenteriae toxin (Kaur et al., 1998) and Entamoeba histolytica lectin (Rawal et al., 2004) have been reported to increase oxidative stress in intestinal cells. Both of these organisms are well known inducers of dysentery. A similar pro- oxidative effect has been reported for chronic diarrhoea (Nieto et al., 2000).

Gastric ulcer is also among the diseases that are treated with *L. velutina* bark preparations. An antioxidant polyphenol mixture, thearubigin from black tea (Maity et al., 2003), bark extracts from *Rhizophora mangle*, which are rich in antioxidant tannins (Berenguer et al., 2006), tempol, a radical scavenger (Cuzzocrea et al., 2000) and synthetic antioxidants (Choudhary et al., 2001) have all been shown to counteract gastric ulcers and colitis. Purified proanthocyanidins show this effect as well (Iwasaki et al., 2004).

Ailments such as dermatitis and itching are treated topically with *L. velutina* bark preparations. Proanthocyanidins (Deters et al., 2001) as well as other antioxidants, e.g. vitamin E (Thiele et al., 2005) are used extensively in therapy of skin diseases.

Conclusion

The 80% ethanol and methanol extracts of root bark of L. velutina are excellent radical scavengers in non-cellular and cellular systems. They are also effective 15lipoxygenase inhibitors. This effect is mainly due to their high content of proanthocyanidins. These compounds have not been previously reported in L. velutina. From the above discussion, it appears reasonable that some of the traditional medicinal usages of this plant in Mali can rationally be ascribed to its content of proanthocyanidins with strong antioxidant properties. From the studies referred to above, it appears that our results can explain the use of L. velutina in ailments such as gastric ulcer, dysentery and dermatitis (Tables 1a and 1b). Efficacy in other reported use, such as against malaria and gonorhea, will probably depend on the uptake of active constituents from the gastrointestinal tract, as will activity against diseases in which oxidative stress is involved, such as atherosclerosis. So far, no studied on bioavailability of L. velutina preparations have been performed.

Controlled clinical studies are needed to elucidate the efficacy of *L. velutina* bark preparations and constituents *in vivo*.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We should like to express our deep gratitude to the traditional healers of Mali for sharing their experience and knowledge with us. The NMR Laboratory of the Chemistry Department, University of Oslo, is acknowledged for access to the NMR spectrometer.

This project is a part of the NUFU project PRO 22 / 2002, "Medicinal plants from Mali". We are also indebted to the Norwegian Quota programme for a grant to AM.

JTO and ETB gratefully acknowledge funding from the Analytical Chemistry Trust Fund, the RSC Analytical Division and EPSRC.

We are not aware of any financial or personal relationships for any of the authors that might bias our results. No experiments on animals or humans were performed during the study, making approval by ethical committees superfluous. This work has not been submitted for publication elsewhere.

REFERENCES

- Adzu B, Amos S, Amizan MB, Gamaniel K. (2003). Evaluation of the antidiarrhoeal effects of *Zizyphus spina-christi* stem bark in rats. Acta Trop 87: 245-250.
- Agbor GA, Léopold T, Jeanne NY. (2004). The antidiarrhoeal activity of *Alchornea cordifolia* leaf extract. Phytother. Res. 18:873-876.
- Ariga T. (2004). The antioxidative function, preventive action on disease and utilization of proanthocyanidins. BioFactors. 21:197-201.
- Atawodi SE. Antioxidant potential of African medicinal plants. (2005). Afr. J. Biotechnol. 4: 128-133.
- Atta AH, Mouneir SM. (2004). Antidiarrhoeal activity of some Egyptian medicinal plant extracts. J. Ethnopharmacol. 92: 303-309.
- Awika JM, Dykes L, Gu L, Rooney LW, Prior R. (2003). Processing of Sorghum (*Sorghum bicolor*) and sorghum products alters procyanidin oligomer and polymer distribution and content. J. Agric. Food. Chem. 51: 5516-5521.
- Bagchi D, Bagchi M, Stohs JS, Das DK, Ray SD, Kuszynski CA, Joshi SS, Preuss HG. (2000). Free radicals and grape seed proanthocyanidin extract: importance in human health and disease prevention. Toxicology 148: 187-197.
- Berenguer B, Sánchez LM, Quílez A, López-Barreirio M, de Haro O, Gálvez J, Martín MJ. (2006). Protective and antioxidant effects of *Rhizophora mangle* L. against NSAID-induced gastric ulcers. J. Ethnopharmacol.103:194-200.
- Bizimenyera SE, Swan GE, Chikoto H, Eloff JN. (2005). Rationale for using *Peltophorum africanum* (Fabaceae) extracts in veterinary medicine. J South Afr. Vet. Assoc. 76:54-58.
- Bors W, Michel C, Stettmaier K. (2001). Structure-activity relationships governing antioxidant capacities of plant polyphenols. Meth. Enzymol. 335: 166-180.
- Burkill H (1997). M. The useful plants of West Tropical Africa, Vol.4. Royal Botanic Gardens, Kew, pp 636.
- Choudhary S, Keshavarzian A, Yong S, Wade M, Bocckino S, Day BJ, Banan A. (2001).Novel antioxidants Zolimid and AEOL11201 ameliorate colitis in rats. Dig. Dis. Sci. 46: 2222-2230.
- Ciani E, Grøneng L,Voltattorni M, Rolseth V, Contestabile A, Paulsen RE. (1996). Inhibition of free radical production or free radical scavenging protects from the excitotoxic cell death mediated by glutama-

- te in cultures of cerebellar granule neurons. Brain. Res. 728: 1-6. Cos P, De Bruyne T, Hermans N, Apers S, Berghe DV, Vlietinck AJ. (2004). Proanthocyanidins in health care: current and new trends. Curr. Med. Chem. 11:1345-1359.
- Coyle JT, Puttfarcken P. (1993). Oxidative stress, glutamate and neurodegenerative disorders. Science 262: 689-693.
- Cren-Olivé C, Teissier E, Duriez P, Rolando C. (2003). Effect of catechin O-methylated metabolites and analogues on human LDL oxidation. Free Radical. Biol. Med. 34: 850-855
- Cuzzocrea S, McDonald MC, Mazzon E, Fugo L, Lepore V, Fonti MT, Ciccolo A, Terranova ML, Caputi AP, Thiemermann C. (2000). Tempol, a membrane-permeable radical scavenger, reduces nitrobenzene sulfonic acid-induced colitis. Eur. J. Pharmacol. 406:127-137.
- De Bruyne T, Pieters L, Deelstra H, Vlietinck A. (1999). Condensed vegetable tannins: Biodiversity in structure and biological activities. Biochem. Syst. Ecol. 27: 445-459.
- Deters A, Dauer A, Schnetz E, Fartasch M, Hensel A. (2001). High molecular compounds (polysaccharides and proanthocyanidins) from *Hamamelis virginiana* bark: Influence on human skin keratinocyte proliferation and differentiation and influence on irritated skin. Phytochemistry 58: 949-958.
- Dixon RA, Xie DY, Sharma SB. (2005). Proanthocyanidins A final frontier in flavonoid research? New Phytologist. 165:9-28. Eberhardt TL, Young RA. (1994). Conifer seed cone proantho-cyanidin polymers: Characterization by ¹³C NMR spectroscopy and determination of antifungal activities. J. Agric. Food Chem. 42:1704-1708.
- Fine AM (2000). Oligomeric proanthocyanidin complexes: history, structure and phytopharmaceutical application. Alt. Med. Rev. 5: 44-151.
- Fischer H, Machen T, Widdicombe JH, Carlson TJS, King SR, Chow JWS, Illek B. (2004). A novel extract SB-300 from the stem bark latex of *Croton lechleri* inhibits CFTR-mediated chloride secretion in human colonic epithelial cells. J. Ethnopharmacol. 93:351-357.
- Foo LY, Lu Y, McNabb WC, Waghorn G, Ulyatt MJ. (1997). Proanthocyanidins from *Lotus pedunculatus*. Phytochemistry 45:1689-1696.
- Foo LY, Newman R, Waghorn G, McNabb WC, Ulyatt MJ (1996). Proanthocyanidins from Lotus corniculatus. Phytochemistry 41: 617-24.
- Gallo V, Kingsbury A, Balász R, Jorgensen OS. (1987). The role of depolarization in the survival and differentiation of cerebellar granule cells in culture. J. Neurosci. 7:2203-2213.
- Glavind J, Holmer G.(1967). Thin-layer chromatographic determination of antioxidants by the stable free radical alpha, alpha-diphenyl-beta-picrylhydrazyl. J. Am. Oil. Chem. Soc. 44:539-542.
- Halliwell B. (1999) Free radicals and other reactive species in disease. Encyclopedia of Life Sciences, www.els.net, Islam MT, Ito T, Sakasai M, Tahara S. (2002). Zoosporicidal activity of polyflavonoid tannin identified in *Lannea coromandelica* stem bark against phytopathogenic oomycete *Aphanomyces cochlioides*. J. Agric. Food. Chem. 50:6697-6703.
- Hatano T, Miyatake H, Natsume M, Osakabe N, Takizawa T, Ito H, Yoshida T. (2002) Proanthocyanidin glycosides and related polyphenols from cacao liquor and their antioxidant effects. Phytochemistry 59: 749-758.
- Islam MT, Ito T,Sakasai M, Tahara S (2002). Zoosporicidal activity of polyflavonoid tannin identified in Lannea coromandelica stem bark against phytopathogenic oomycete Aphanomyces cochlioides. J. Agric. Food.Chem. 50:6697-6703.
- Iwasaki Y, Matsui T, Arakawa Y. (2004). The protective and hormonal effects of proanthocyanidin against gastric mucosal injury in Wistar rats. J Gastroenterol 39:831-837.
- Karonen M, Loponen J, Ossipov V, Pihlaja K (2004). Analysis of procyanidins in pine bark with reversed-phase and normal-phase high-performance liquid chromatography-electrospray ionization mass spectrometry. Anal Chim Acta 552:105-112.
- Kaur T, Singh S, Dhawan V, Ganguly NK. (1998). Shigella dysenteriae type 1 toxin induced lipid peroxidation in enterocytes isolated from rabbit ileum. Mol. Cell. Biochem. 178:169-179.
- Kerharo J, Adam JG. (1974). La pharmacopée Senegalaise traditionelle. Vigot Freres, Paris, pp 1011.
- Lewis WH, Elvin-Lewis, MPF. (2003). Medical Botany: Plants Affecting Human Health, 2. ed. Wiley, Hoboken, pp 472.

- Lyckander IM, Malterud KE (1992). Lipophilic flavonoids from *Orthosi*phon spicatus as inhibitors of 15-lipoxygenase. Acta. Pharm. Nord. 4:159-166.
- Maiga A, Malterud KE, Diallo D, Paulsen B S. (2006). Antioxidant and 15-lipoxygenase inhibitory activities of the Malian medicinal plants *Diospyros abyssinica* (Hiern) F. White (Ebenaceae), *Lannea velutina* A. Rich (Anacardiaceae) and *Crossopteryx febrifuga* (Afzel) Benth. (Rubiaceae). J. Ethnopharmacol. 104:132-137.
- Maity S, Ukil A, Karmakar S, Datta N, Chaudhuri T, Vedasiromoni J.R, Ganguly DK, Das PK. (2003). Thearubigin, the major polyphenol of black tea, ameliorates mucosal injury in trinitrobenzene sulfonic acidinduced colitis. Fur. J. Pharmacol. 470:103-112
- induced colitis. Eur. J. Pharmacol. 470:103-112.

 Malterud KE, Farbrot TL, Huse AE, Sund RB. (1993). Antioxidant and radical scavenging effects of anthraquinones and anthrones. Pharmacology 47: Suppl 1, 77-85.
- Malterud KE, Rydland KM (2000). Inhibitors of 15-lipoxygenase from orange peel. J Agric Food Chem. 48: 5576-5580.
- Mathisen E, Diallo D, Andersen ØM, Malterud KE (2002). Antioxidants from the bark of *Burkea africana*, an African medicinal plant. Phytother. Res. 16:148-153.
- Nieto N, López-Pedrosa JM, Mesa MF, Torres MI, Fernández MI, Ríos A, Suárez MD, Gil Á. (2000). Chronic diarrhea impairs intestinal antioxidant defense system in rats at weaning. Dig Dis. Sci. 45: 2044-2050.
- Plumb GW, de Pascual-Teresa S, Santos-Buelga C, Cheynier V, Williamson G. (1998) Antioxidant properties of catechins and proanthocyanidins: Effect of polymerisation, galloylation and glycosylation. Free Rad. Res. 29: 351-358.
- Pollard SE, Kuhnle GGC, Vauzour D, Vafeiadou K, Tzounis X, Whiteman M, Rice-Evans C, Spencer JPE. (2006). The reaction of flavonoid metabolites with peroxynitrite. Biochem Biophys. Res. Commun. 350: 960-968.
- Porter LJ, Hrstich LN, Chan BG (1986). The conversion of procyanidins and prodelphinidins to cyanidin and delphinidin. Phytochemistry 25: 223-230.
- Porter LJ (1989). Tannins. In Methods in Plant Biochemistry, Plant phenolics. Dey, P.M., Harborne, J.B., Eds. Academic Press, London, 1: 389-419
- Prior RL, Gu L .(2005). Occurrence and biological significance of proanthocyanidins in the American diet. Phytochemistry 66:2264-2280.
- Rao LJM, Yada H, Ono H, Ohnishi-Kameyama M, Yoshida M. (2004). Occurrence of antioxidant and radical scavenging proanthocyanidins from the Indian minor spice nagkesar (*Mammea longifolia* planch and *triana* syn). Bioorg. Med. Chem. 12: 31-36.
- Rawal S, Majumdar S, Dhawan V, Vohra H.(2004). Entamoeba histolytica Gal/GalNAc lectin depletes antioxidant defences of target epithelial cells. Parasitology 128: 617-624.
- Ricardo da Silva JM, Rigaud J, Cheynier V, Cheminat A, Moutounet (1991). M. Procyanidin dimers and trimers from grape seeds. Phytochemistry 30:1259-1264.
- Rice-Evans CA, Packer L. 2003. Eds,. Flavonoids in Health and Disease, 2. Ed. Marcel Dekker, New York, pp 467.
- Scalbert A, Deprez S, Mila I, Albrecht AM, Huneau JF, Rabot S. (2000). Proanthocyanidins and human health: Systemic effects and local effects in the gut. BioFactors 13:115-120.
- Scalbert A, Morand C, Manach C, Remesy C. (2002). Absorption and metabolism of polyphenols in the gut and impact on health. Biomed Pharmacother 56:276-282.
- Shoji T, Mutsuga M, Nakamura T, Kanda T, Akiyama H, Goda Y. (2003). Isolation and structure elucidation of some procyanidins from apple by low-temperature nuclear magnetic resonance. J. Agric. Food. Chem. 51: 3806-3813.
- Singleton VL, Rossi JA. (1965). Colorimetry of total phenolics with phosphomolybdic-phosphotungstic acid reagents. Am. J. Enol. Viticult. 37: 144-158.
- Steinberg D. (1999). At last, direct evidence that lipoxygenases play a role in atherogenesis. J. Clin. Invest. 103: 1487-1488.
- Thiel JJ, Hsieh SN, Ekanayke-Mudiyanselage S (2005). Vitamin E: Critical review of its current use in cosmetic and clinical dermatology. Dermatol. Surg. 31:805-813.
- Thomas CE, Kalyanaraman B (1997). Oxygen radicals and the disease

process. Harwood Academic Publishers, Amsterdam, p. 282.

Utenova BT, Malterud KE, Rise F (2007). Antioxidant activity of O-protected derivatives of (-)-epigallocatechin-3-gallate: Inhibition of soybean and rabbit 15-lipoxygenases. Arkivoc ix:6-16.

Vendemiale G, Grattagliano I, Altomare E. (1999). An update on the role of free radicals and antioxidant defense in human disease. Int. J. Clin. Lab. Res. 29:49-55.

Wangensteen H, Samuelsen AB, Malterud KE. (2004). Antioxidant activity in extracts from coriander. Food Chem. 88:293-297.

Watt JM, Breyer-Brandwijk MG (1962). The medicinal and poisonous plants of Southern and Eastern Africa. E. and S. Livingstone, Edinburgh and London, p. 1457.