

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Research in natural products:

One of the most important areas of chemical research in modern organic chemistry is natural products. This is easily understandable from the fact that many of the important chemicals, the life saving drugs and medicines are natural products. For example, the drug taxol, **paclitaxel (1)**, a powerful anticancer drug known, isolated from the bark of the yew tree *Taxus brevifolia* has yielded two approved drugs for breast and ovarian cancer (*Pazdur and Kudelka, 1993*). Paclitaxel is a mitotic inhibitor used in cancer chemotherapy.

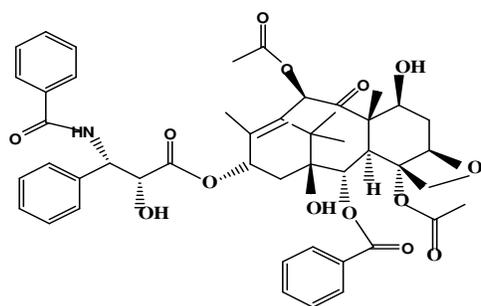
Rein anthraquinone (2) is an antineoplastic anticancer drug found in rhubarb (*Rheum* sp.) and other purgative (*Iosi et al., 1993*).

Arteether (3), an antimalarial agent, has been developed from artemisinin, a sesquiterpene lactone isolated from *Artemisia annua* (Asteraceae), a plant used in traditional Chinese medicine as a remedy for chills and fevers. Other derivatives of artemisinin are in various stages of clinical trial as antimalarial drugs in Europe (*Balunas and Kinghorn, 2005, Van et al., 1999*).

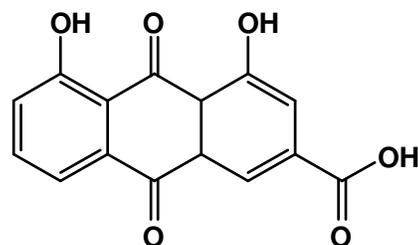
Quinine (4), natural white crystalline alkaloids from the cinchona bark is used for the effective treatment for malaria caused by *Plasmodium falciparum* (*Dorndorp et al., 2005*).

Exenatide (5) (*Malhotra et al., 1992, Keating, 2005*) is a synthetic analog of exenadin-4, which is originally isolated as a 39

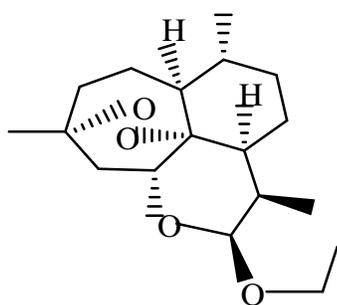
amino acid peptide from the saliva of the Gila monster (*Heloderma suspectum*), and the first insulin mimetic found to improve glycemic control.



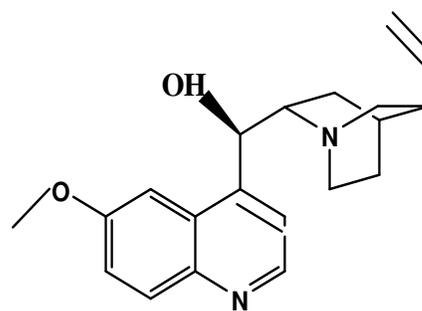
(1)



(2)



(3)



(4)

L-His-L-Gly-L-Glu-Gly-L-Thr-L-Phe-L-Thr-Ser-L-Asp-L-Leu-L-Ser-L-Lys-L-Gin-L-Met-L-Glu-L-Glu-L-Glu-L-Alv-L-Val-L-Arg-L-Leu-L-Phe-Ile-L-Glu-L-Trp-L-Leu-L-Lys -L-Asn-Gly-Gly-L-Pro-L-Ser-L-Ser-L-Ser-Gly-L-Ala-L-Pro-L-Pro-L-Pro-L-Ser-NH₂

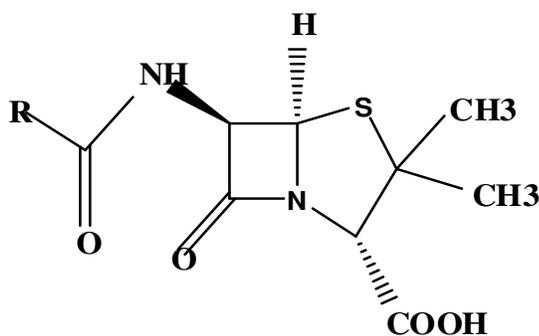
(5)

The natural products may also be obtained from microorganisms, animal sources, marine life origin, and the plants.

1.1.1 Natural products from microorganisms:

Terrestrial microorganisms are very good sources of structurally different bioactive substances, and have contributed to the discovery of antibacterial agents such as penicillins, cephalosporins, aminoglycosides, tetracyclines, and polyketides (*Dewick, 2002*).

The discovery of **Penicillin (6)**, a powerful antibiotic by Alexander Fleming in 1928 from *Penicillium fungi* gave a boost towards the area of drug discovery from microorganisms.



(6)

Current therapeutic uses of metabolites from microorganisms have played an excellent role in the development of immunosuppressive agents (eg, cyclosporins and rapamycin), cholesterol-lowering agents (eg, lovastatin and mevastatin), antihelmintic agents (eg, ivermectin), an antidiabetic agent (acarbose), and anticancer agents (eg, pentostatin, peplomycin, and epirubicin) (*Newnam et al., 2000, Butler, 2005, Sneader, 2005*).

Tigecycline (7) is the 9-*tert*-butyl-glycylamido derivative of minocycline, which is a semi-synthetic product of chlortetracycline

isolated from *Streptomyces aureofaciens*. Tigecycline exhibited antibacterial activity similar to other tetracyclines and typically active against tetracycline-resistant organisms (*Zhanel et al., 2004*).

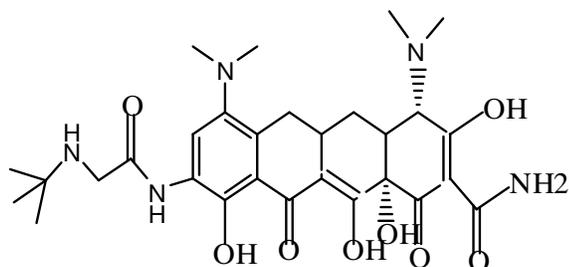
Miglustat (8) is a therapeutic drug in lies of enzyme replacement therapy. Miglustat is an analog of nojirimycin. It is obtained from the broth filtrate of *Streptomyces lavendulae*. It inhibits reversibly glucosylceramide synthase, a ceramide-specific glucosyltransferase that catalyzes the formation of glucocerebroside, and thereby decreases tissue storage of glucosyl ceramide (*Pastores et al., 2005, Weinreb et al., 2005*).

Biapenem (9), isolated from *Streptomyces cattleya*, is an antibacterial agent effective against both Gram-negative and Gram-positive bacteria including species producing β -lactamases (*Perry and Ibbotson, 2002*).

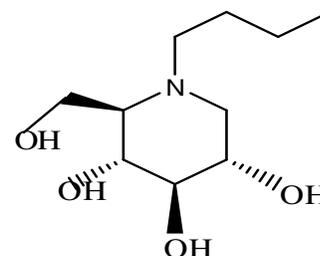
Ertapenem (10), isolated from *Streptomyces cattleya* is a new 1 β -methylcarbapenem based on thienamycin. It possesses broad-spectrum antibacterial activity and improved the stability to hydrolysis by renal dehydropeptidase enzymes located in the brush border of the kidneys (*Sader and Gales, 2001*).

A novel analog of ascomycin, isolated as a fermentation product of *Streptomyces hygroscopicus* var *ascomyceticus* is **Pimecrolimus (11)**. This can prevent the dephosphorylation of the cytoplasmic component of the nuclear factor of activated T cells (*Gupta and Chow., 2003*).

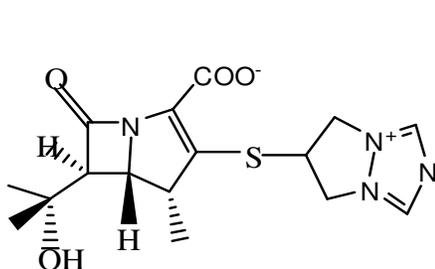
A α -bromoacryloyl derivative of distamycin A is **Brostallicin (12)**, which was isolated from the culture mycelium of *Streptomyces distallicus*. This is a DNA minor groove binding anticancer agent (*DiMacro et al., 1962, Brogginini et al., 2004*).



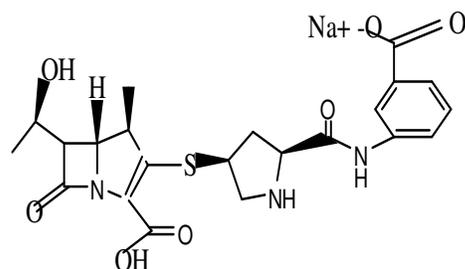
(7)



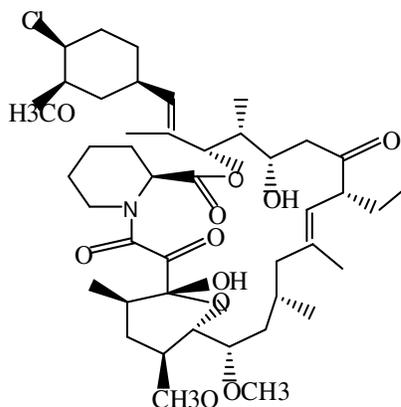
(8)



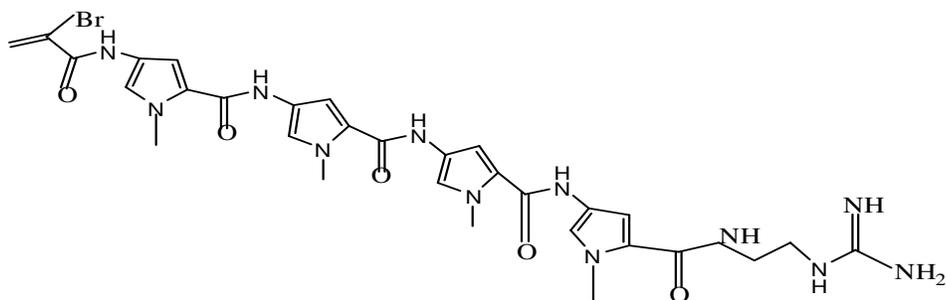
(9)



(10)



(11)



(12)

1.1.2 Natural products from animal sources:

Animals can sometimes be a source of new lead compounds. For example, a series of antibiotic peptides were extracted from the skin of the African clawed frog and a potent analgesic compound called epibatidine was obtained from the skin extracts of the Ecuadorian poison frog (*Dossey and Aaron, 2010*).

1.1.3 Natural products from venoms and toxins:

Venoms and toxins from animals, plants, snakes, spiders, scorpions, insects, and microorganisms are extremely potent because they often have very specific interactions with a macromolecular target in the body. As a result, they have proved important tools in studying receptors, ion channels, and enzymes. Many of these toxins are polypeptides (e.g. α -bungarotoxin from cobra). However, non-peptide toxins such as tetrodotoxin from the puffer fish are also extremely potent.

Venoms and toxins have been used as lead compounds in the development of novel drugs. For example, teprotide, a peptide isolated

from the venom of the Brazilian viper, was the lead compound for the development of the antihypertensive agent's cilazapril and captopril.

The neurotoxins from *clostridium botulinum* are responsible for serious food poisoning (botulism), but they have a clinical use as well. They can be injected into specific muscles (such as those controlling the eyelids) to prevent muscle spasm. These toxins prevent cholinergic transmission and could well prove a lead for the development of novel anticholinergic drugs (*Dossey and Aaron, 2010*).

1.1.4 Natural products from marine life origin:

There has been a great interest in finding lead compounds from marine life origin. Natural products obtained from marine life origin are utilized in the treatment and/or prevention of human disease.

For example, **Ziconotide (13)** is currently used in Pain Management (*Schroeder et al., 2004*). This is one of the ω -conotoxins isolated from cone snail (*Conus magus*) venom, and are 24–27 residue peptides members of the cyclic cysteine knot family was developed for the treatment of severe chronic pain.

HTI-286 (14), a synthetic analog of the tripeptide, hemiasterlin, originally isolated from the South African sponge *Hemiasterella minor*, has shown antitumor activity in human tumor xenograft murine models (*Newman and Cragg, 2004, Loganzo et al., 2004*).

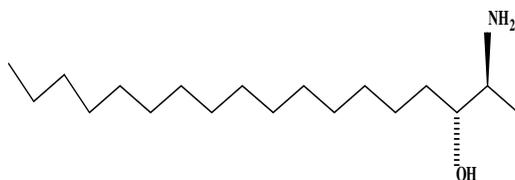
Spisulosine (15) has been isolated from *Spisula polynyma*, Spisulosine shows antiproliferative activity against various human cancer cell lines (colon, gastric, pancreas, pharynx, and renal tumors), and inhibits tumor growth of human renal tumors, melanoma and

prostate tumors in vivo mouse studies (*Jimeno et al, 1999, Cuadros et al, 2000*).

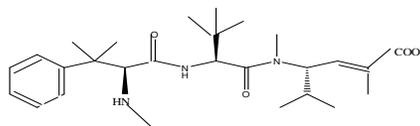
Squalamine (16) is an aminosterol. It is obtained from the dogfish shark, *Squalus acanthias*. This is a potent inhibitor of growth factor-mediated endothelial cell proliferation and migration and angiogenesis (*Moore et al, 1993, Hao et al, 2003*)



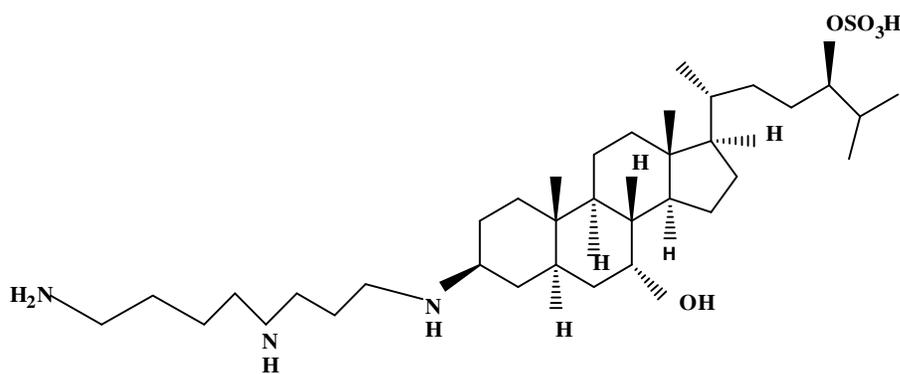
(13)



(14)



(15)



(16)

1.1.5 Natural products from plant kingdom:

Plant kingdom has been the major source of natural products. Chinese, Indian, Arabian and other traditional systems of medicines make extensive use of about 5000 plants. India is proud to be rich in biological diversity and tenth among the plant rich countries of Asia, sixth as far as centers of diversity especially agro diversity are concerned. Nearly, three fourth of the drugs and perfumery products used in the world are available in natural state in the country (*Sharma et al., 1991*).

India possesses almost 8% of the estimated biodiversity of the World with around 1, 26,000 species. There are about 400 families in the world of flowering plants; at least 315 are represented in India. According to WHO, around 21,000 plant species have the potential for being used as medicinal plants (*Sharma et al., 1991*). Some of the plant species with their therapeutic value under different plant groups are given below the table.

Table 1.1.5(a). Plant species with therapeutic value under different plant groups (*Jiaxiang, 1997*).

| | |
|--------------------|------|
| Thalophytes | 230 |
| Bryophytes | 39 |
| Pteridophytes | 382 |
| Gymnospermae | 55 |
| Angiospermae | |
| a) Monocotyledones | 676 |
| b) Dicotyledones | 3495 |
| Total | 4877 |

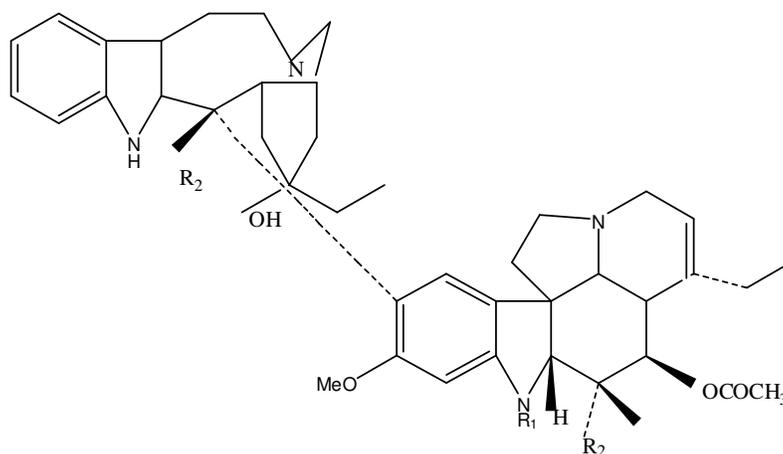
Table 1.1.5(b): Plant families containing over 100 species with therapeutic value (*Jiaxiang, 1997*).

| Family | Genera | Species |
|----------------|--------|---------|
| I. Monocot | | |
| Liliaceae | 45 | 165 |
| II. Dicots | | |
| Compositae | 89 | 331 |
| Leguminosae | 91 | 313 |
| Ranunculaceae | 31 | 208 |
| Laminaceae | 46 | 189 |
| Rosaceae | 28 | 146 |
| Umbelliferae | 34 | 123 |
| Rubiaceae | 35 | 118 |
| Euphorbiaceae | 30 | 104 |
| Asclepiadaceae | 29 | 101 |

1.2 Natural product as antineoplastic agent:

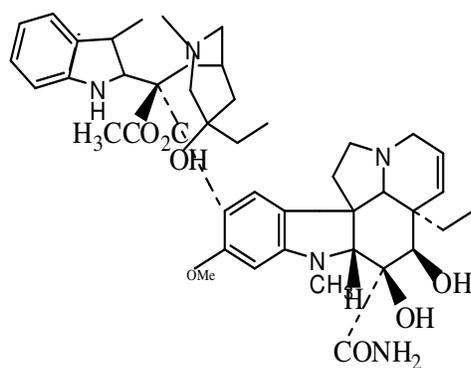
The plant kingdom has prospective and fruitful hunting grounds for new tumor inhibitors. This has been illustrated by the isolation of vinka alkaloids **vinblastine (17)**, **vincristine (18)** **Vindesine (19)** from the Madagascar periwinkle, *Catharanthus roseus* (Linn.) G. Don, Apocynaceae, known in Thailand as Phaeng phuai farang (*Cragg et al., 1993*). The epipodophyllotoxins [**Etoposide (20)**, **Teniposide (21)**], the taxanes [**Taxotere (22)**], and the camptothecin derivatives [**Camptothecin (23)** and **Irinotecan (24)**] (*Evans, 2002*). So far,

pharmaceutical companies have screened more than 25,000 plants for anti-cancer drugs (*Saxe, 1987*)

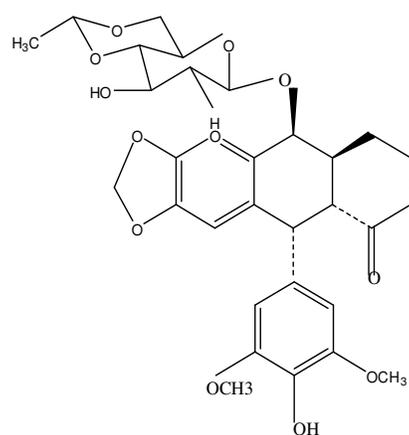


Vinblastine (**17**) R₁=CH₃, R₂=CO₂CH₃

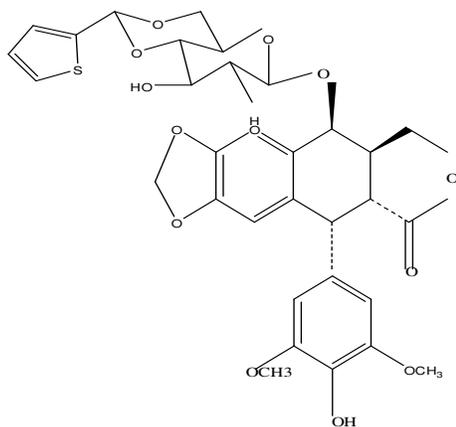
Vincristine (**18**) R₁=CHO, R₂=CO₂CH₃



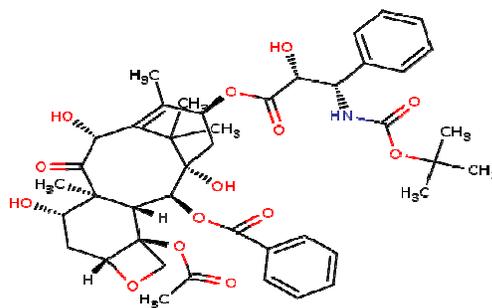
(19)



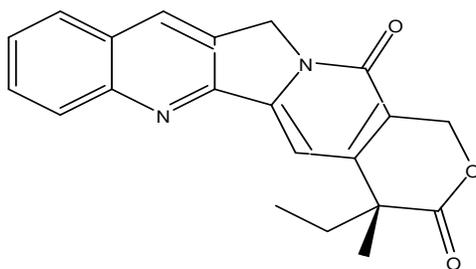
(20)



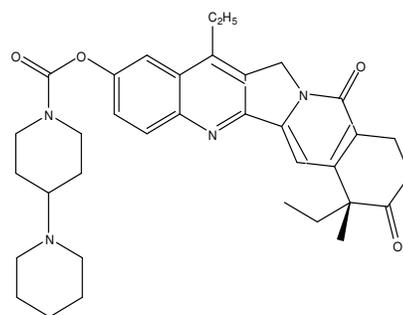
(21)



(22)



(23)



(24)

Phytoconstituents derived from the herbs/plants have been used in various formulations to enhance activity of immune cells of the body that promotes production of cytokines including interleukin, interferon, tumor necrosis factor and colony stimulating factor.

For example, **Homoharringtonine (25)**, a cephalotaxus alkaloid from the tree *Cephalotaxus harringtonia* (Powell *et al.*, 1970), is an inhibitor of protein synthesis and is reported to have activity against hematologic malignancies (Kantarjian *et al.*, 2001).

Ingenol 3-O-angelate (26), which was obtained from *Euphorbia peplus* (known as “petty spurge” in England), is a potential topical chemotherapeutic agent for skin cancer and exhibits its action through activation of protein kinase (*Kedei et al., 2004, Ogbourne et al., 2004*).

Phenoxdiol (27), a synthetic analog of daidzein, a well known isoflavone from soybean (*Glycine max*) and found in several other folk-medicines, is being developed as a therapy for cervical, ovarian, prostate, renal, and vaginal cancers (*Kamsteeg et al., 2003*).

Phenols and polyphenols, the flavonoids and their derivatives, are ubiquitous in plants and more than 8,000 different compounds are included in this group and many of them are antioxidants. They have been associated with the inhibition of atherosclerosis and cancer (*Martinez-Valverde et al., 2000*) and other biological activities.

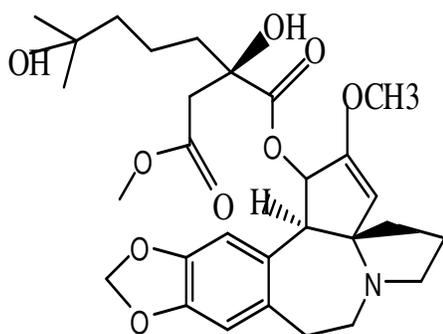
Solanum pseudocapsicum L. (Solanaceae) leaves have been reported to have antitumor activity for the total alkaloid fraction of this plant (*Badami et al., 2003*).

Anthraquinone (28), natural products like rubidianin, isolated from alcoholic extract of *Rubia cordifolia* has demonstrated significant antioxidant activity. It prevented lipid peroxidation induced by ferrous sulphate and t-butylhydroperoxide (*Tripathi et al., 1997*).

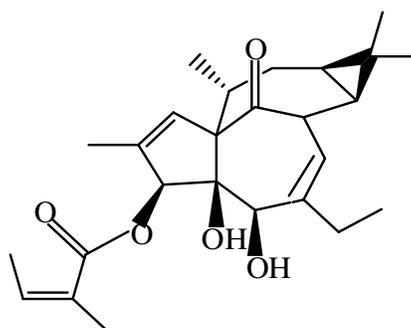
Withanolides (29), the active phytochemical constituents of *Withania somnifera* Dunal (Solanaceae) are group of pharmacologically active compounds present in the whole plant. Withanolides are similar to ginsenosides (the active constituents of

Panax ginseng) in structure and activity. They are believed to be immunomodulator having anticancer activity. (Ali and Shuaib, 1997).

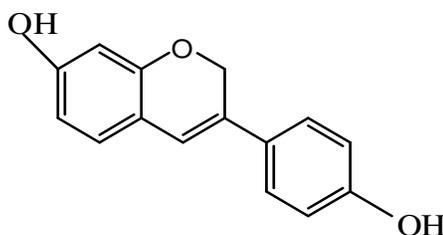
Protopanaxadiol (30), a derivative of a triterpene aglycone of several saponins from ginseng (*Panax ginseng*), and exhibits its apoptotic effects on cancer cells through various signaling pathways, and is also reported to be cytotoxic against multidrug resistant tumors (Jia et al., 2004, Kiviharju et al., 2002).



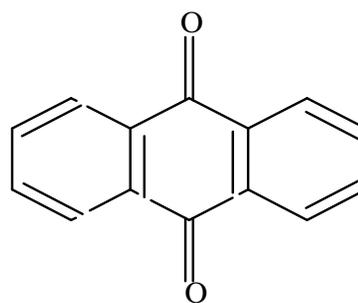
(25)



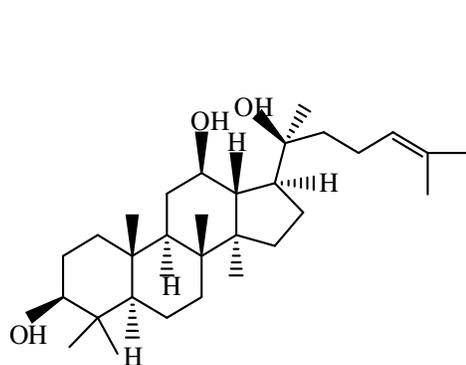
(26)



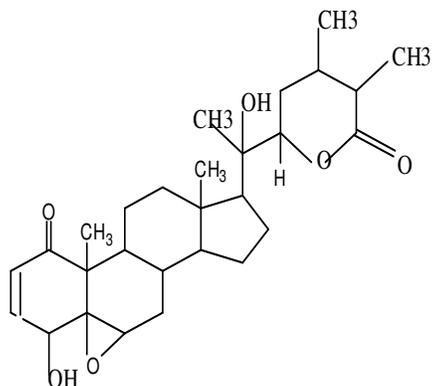
(27)



(28)



(29)



(30)

Some of the plants/herbs with their antineoplastic/anticancer activity are given below the table which helps the body to fight cancer more effectively and toxic side effects of chemotherapy and radiotherapy stages of cancer (*Farnsworth et al, 1985*).

Table1.2: Some of the plants/herbs with their antineoplastic/anticancer activity.

| Botanical Name | Common Name | Active constituents and properties |
|------------------------|-------------|--|
| <i>Allivum sativum</i> | Garlic | S-allylcysteine (SAC), diallyldisulphide (DADS) diallyltrisulphide (DATS) have anticarcinogenic property. (<i>Lau et al., 1990, Steinmetz et al., 1994, Milner, 1996.</i>) |

| | | |
|------------------------------------|-----------|--|
| <i>Aloe ferox, Aloe arbadensis</i> | Aloe vera | Aloe vera found to contains Aloe-emodin, emodin, aloin acemannan, which activates the macrophase to fight cancer and enhance the activity of the immune system and found to inhibit metastages (<i>Pecere et al.,2000</i>). |
| <i>Catharanthus roseus</i> | Vinca | Vinblastine, vincristine (leurocristine), alstonine, ajmalicine and reserpine used in the treatment of cancers of the breast, lung, bladder and the cervix (<i>Jean Bruncton, 1993</i>). |
| <i>Camellia sinensis</i> | Green tea | <i>Camellia sinensis</i> contains polyphenolics which are known to possess antimutagenic and anticanceractivity. Some evidence suggests that tea has a protective effect against stomach and colon cancers (<i>Dreosti, 1996</i>). |

| | | |
|---------------------------------------|-----------------|--|
| <p><i>Curcuma longa</i> Linn.</p> | <p>Turmeric</p> | <p><i>Curcuma longa</i> contains curcumin, which inhibits the growth of cancer by preventing production of harmful eicosanoid such as PGE-2 (<i>Kikuzaki and Nakatani, 1993</i>).</p> |
| <p><i>Glycine max</i></p> | <p>Soyabean</p> | <p>Genistein, one of the isoflavones found in higher concentrations in soya products, strengthening immune system of the body and reducing toxic effects of chemotherapy and radiotherapy (<i>Kleijnen and Knipschild, 1992</i>).</p> |
| <p><i>Gyrophora esculenta</i></p> | <p>Mushroom</p> | <p>Contains Polysaccharides β-glucans, α-glucans, and galactomannans <i>Gyrophora esculenta</i> is a mushroom that inhibits growth of cancer by enhancing activity of the natural killer cells. A study revealed that it inhibits carcinogenesis and metastases (<i>Ambasta et al., 2000</i>).</p> |

| | | |
|----------------------------|--------|--|
| <i>Mentha species</i> | Pudina | <i>Mentha species</i> such as <i>Mentha piperita</i> , <i>Mentha longifolia</i> and <i>Mentha aquatica</i> contain phenolic antioxidants that prevent recurrence of cancer (<i>Attele et al., 1999</i>). |
| <i>Zingiber officinale</i> | Ginger | Ginger rhizomes offer a rich package of gingerols-phenolic antioxidants that possess pronounced anti-inflammatory activity-that inhibit various cancers. (<i>Katiyar et al.,1996</i>) |

1.3 Natural products in Medicine:

The importance of natural products, the plant kingdom derived medicines in modern medicine is often underestimated. Fossil records date human use of plants as medicines at least to the Middle Paleolithic age some 60,000 years ago (*Solecki and Shanidar,1975*). From that point, the development of traditional medical systems incorporating plants as a means of therapy can be traced back only as far as recorded documents of their likeness.

Medicinal herbs of folk-origin are significant sources of synthetic and herbal drugs. In the commercial market, folk-medicinal

herbs are used as raw drugs, extracts or tinctures. Natural products or related substances or extracts of folk medicine accounted for 30% of the top 35 worldwide natural product-based drugs sold (**Butler, 2004**) in recent years. Isolated active constituents are used for applied research for finding their bioactivity.

In many countries modern medicines have replaced plants with many synthetic products but almost 30% pharmaceutical preparations are still obtained directly or indirectly from plants, majority of them based on ethnobotanical information (**Marino-Bettolo, 1980**).

There are 121 drugs in current use in the USA derived from plant, with 95 species acting as sources, more than one drug being obtained from some species. Approximately 25% of all prescriptions dispensed in the United States contain plant extracts or active ingredients obtained from, or patterned after, plant materials (**Anonymous, 1994**).

Over three-quarters of the world population relies mainly on plants and plant extracts for health care. More than 30% of the entire plant species, at one time or other was used for medicinal purpose. Of the 2, 50,000 higher plant species on earth, more than 80,000 are medicinal (**Thomas, 1997**). Most of the powerful drugs used in modern medicines originated in plants. **Oliver-Bever (1986)** has cited several examples of West African species of plants, including *Erythroxylum coca*, whose traditional therapeutic properties were evaluated pharmacologically.

Rauvolfia serpentina, *Cannabis sativa*, *Papaver somniferum*,
Gymnema sylvestre, *Picrorrhiza kurrooa*, *Azadirachta indica*,

Curcuma longa, etc., are some Indian examples of modern pharmacological confirmation of traditional uses of plants. Discovery of reserpine from a traditional medicinal plant (*Rauvolfia serpentina*) is very interesting. This plant which is called Chotachand in Hindi, have been used by local people of Himalayan Mountains for snakebite (**Balick and Cox., 1996**).

The Male fern (*Dryopteris filix-mas*) in Europe, the Kamala dye tree (*Mallotus philippinensis*, Euphorbiaceae) in South Asia, the Gemma Agrimoniae (winter bud tree) (*Agrimonia pilosa*, Rosaceae) in East Asia, and the Flores Koso tree, (*Hagenia abyssinica*, Rosaceae) in East Africa, are all botanically unrelated; yet they were used as teaniafuge in the traditional medical systems of these far off regions of the globe (**Xiao, 1981**).

A crude drug from even a single plant species used in traditional medicine, simultaneously contains several chemical compounds, each with a different therapeutic effect. For example, neem or gingers have many different chemical compounds which exert over a dozen different therapeutic effects (**Sharon, 1994, Shubharani, 1995**). The Indian Ayurvedic Formulary (**Anonymous, 1978**) lists about 350 single plant drugs and the rest are formulations that contain several species of plants. For example, *Dashamoolaristha* has 68 species, *Mahaavishagarbhataila* 64 species, *Mahaanaarayanataila* 55 species and *Karpuraadiyarka* 52 species (**Anonymous, 1978**). WHO has estimated conservatively that between 60 and 90 percent of the population of the non-industrialized countries rely on medicinal plants to meet their health care needs, either totally or partially and 80% of

the world's populations rely primarily on traditional medicine (*WHO,1978, Okerele, 1992.*).

With the scarcity of doctors and paucity of hospitals and clinics, the large majorities of these populations have to rely on sources other than allopathic medicine for their health care. For example, in Ghana there is one traditional doctor for approximately every 400 people, while the ratio of allopathic doctors to patients is 1 for 12,000 (*Joyce, 1992, Boye and Oku, 1987.*).

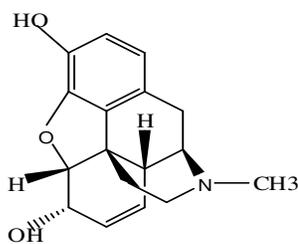
Various reports from the United Nations (UNCTAD and GATT) have indicated that 33 percent of drug products in the highly industrialized countries are derived directly from higher plants; most of these are tropical plants growing in equatorial countries. The market for plant-based drugs is growing every year throughout the world. These drugs now account for over \$US 50 billion of the total worldwide drug market now totaling over \$US 173 billion (*UNEP, 1992*). Today's plant based drugs treat a range of diseases from headache to cancer. The CDRI (Central Drug Research Institute, Lucknow, India) evaluated approximately 2,000 plant species for several biologic activities, including antibacterial, antidiabetic, antifungal, antifertility, antihypercholesteremic, anti-inflammatory, antitumor, cardiovascular, central nervous-system depressant, cytotoxicity, diuretic, and others (*Dhar et al., 1968*).

For example, the alkaloids drug morphine (**31**) derived from *Papaver somniferum* L, is regarded as the gold standard, or benchmark, in clinical medicine, is used as analgesics to relieve severe or agonizing pain and suffering. Like other opioids, such as

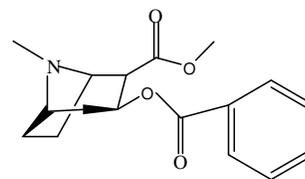
oxycodone, hydromorphone, and diacetylmorphine (heroin), morphine acts directly on the central nervous system (CNS) to relieve pain (*Solecki and Shanidar, 1975*).

Cocaine (32) (benzoylmethylecgonine) is a crystalline tropane that is obtained from the leaves of the coca plant (*Aggrawal and Anil, 1995*). Cocaine is a powerful nervous system stimulant, increases alertness, feelings of well-being and euphoria, energy and motor activity, feelings of competence and sexuality. Athletic performance may be enhanced in sports where sustained attention and endurance is required (*WHO, 2004, WHO, 2007*).

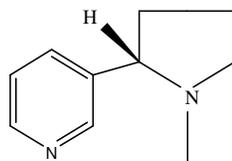
Nicotine (33) is an alkaloids found in the nightshade family of plants (Solanaceae) that constitutes approximately 0.6–3.0% of the dry weight of tobacco (*Solecki and Shanidar, 1975*). It can be quantified in blood, plasma, or urine to confirm a diagnosis of poisoning or to facilitate a medicolegal death investigation. Careful interpretation of results is important, since passive exposure to cigarette smoke can result in significant accumulation of nicotine, followed by the appearance of its metabolites in various body fluids (*Benowitz et al., 2009, Baselt, 2008*). Nicotine use is not regulated in competitive sports programs, yet the drug has been shown to have a significant beneficial effect on athletic performance (*Mündel and Jones, 2006*).



(31)

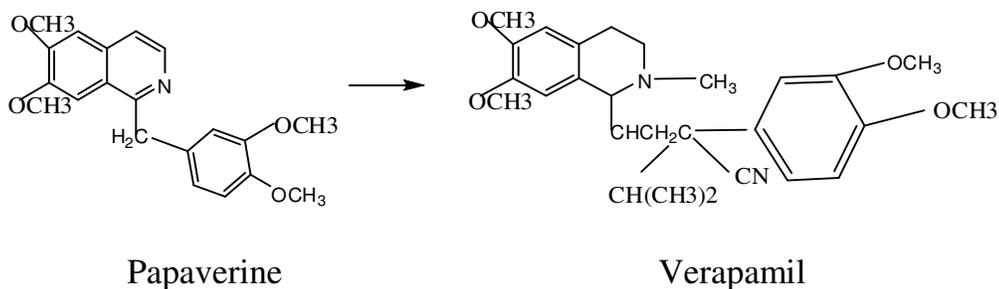


(32)



(33)

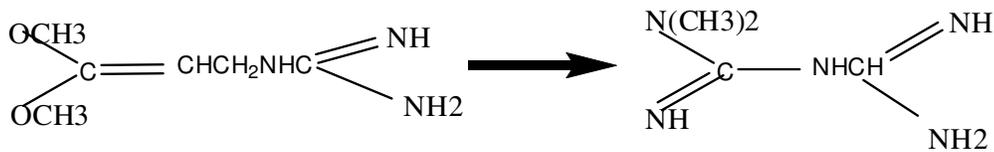
Some drugs from plants that served as model for the next generation drugs. For examples, **Papaverine (34)**, useful as a smooth muscle relaxant, provided the basic structure for verapamil, a drug used to treat hypertension (*Sneader, 1985*). **Galegine (35)** was isolated as an active antihyperglycemic agent from the plant *Galega officinalis* L. This plant was used ethnomedically for the treatment of diabetes. Galegine provided the template for the synthesis of metformin and opened up interest in the synthesis of other biguanidine-type antidiabetic drugs (*Sneader, 1985*).



Papaverine

Verapamil

(34)



Galegine

Metformin

(35)

Some drugs derived from plant with their clinical action and plant sources are given below (*Farnsworth et al., 1985*).

Table1.3: Drugs derived from plants, with their ethnomedical correlations and sources. Drug Action or clinical use Plant source.

| Drugs | Clinical action | Plant source |
|--------------|---|---|
| Adoniside | Cardiotonic | <i>Adonis vernalis</i> L. |
| Aescin | Anti-inflammatory | <i>Aesculus hippocastanum</i> L. |
| Agrimophol | Anthelmintic | <i>Agrimonia eupatoria</i> L. |
| Anisodine | Anticholinergic | <i>Anisodus tanguticus</i> (Maxim.) Pascher |
| Atropine | Anticholinergic | <i>Atropa belladonna</i> L. |
| Berberine | Bacillary dysentery | <i>Berberis vulgaris</i> L. |
| Bromelain | Anti-inflammatory; proteolytic agent | <i>Ananas comosus</i> (L.) Merrill |
| Caffeine | CNS stimulant | <i>Camellia sinensis</i> (L.) Kuntze |
| (+)-Catechin | Haemostatic | <i>Potentilla fragaroides</i> L. |
| Cocaine | Local anaesthetic | <i>Erythroxylum coca</i> Lamk. |

| | | |
|-------------|---|--|
| Codeine | Analgesic; antitussive | <i>Papaver somniferum</i> L. |
| Deserpidine | Antihypertensive; tranquilizer | <i>Rauwolfia canescens</i> L. |
| Digitalin | Cardiotonic | <i>Digitalis purpurea</i> L. |
| Digoxin | Cardiotonic | <i>Digitalis lanata</i> Ehrh |
| Gitalin | Cardiotonic | <i>Digitalis purpurea</i> L. |
| Hydrastine | Hemostatic; astringent | <i>Hydrastis canadensis</i> L. |
| Khellin | Bronchodilator | <i>Ammi visnaga</i> (L.) Lamk. |
| Kawain | Tranquilizer | <i>Piper methysicum</i> Forst. f. |
| Kainic Acid | Ascaricide | <i>Digenea simplex</i> (Wulf.) Agardh |
| Lobeline | Smoking deterrent; respiratory stimulant | <i>Lobelia inflata</i> L. |
| Morphine | Analgesic | <i>Papaver somniferum</i> L. |
| Noscapine | Antitussive | <i>Papaver somniferum</i> L. |
| Ouabain | Cardiotonic | <i>Strophanthus gratus</i> Baill. |

| | | |
|---------------------|-----------------------------|---|
| Papain | Proteolytic; mucolytic | <i>Carica papaya</i> L. |
| Pseudoephedrine | Sympathomimetic | <i>Ephedra sinica</i> Stapf. |
| Quisqualic Acid | Anthelmintic | <i>Quisqualis indica</i> L. |
| Rhomitoxin | Antihypertensive | <i>Rhododendron molle</i> G. Don |
| Rotenone | Pesticide | <i>Lonchocarpus nicou</i> (Aubl.) DC |
| Rotundine | Analgesic; sedative | <i>Stephania sinica</i> Diels |
| Santonin | Ascaricide | <i>Artemisia maritima</i> L. |
| Silymarin | Antihepatotoxic | <i>Silybum marianum</i> (L.) Gaertn. |
| Stevioside | Sweetener | <i>Stevia rebaudiana</i> Bertoni |
| Strychnine | CNS stimulant | <i>Strychnos nux-vomica</i> L. |
| Teniposide | Antitumor agent | <i>Podophyllum peltatum</i> L. |
| Tetrahydropalmatine | Analgesic; sedative | <i>Corydalis ambigua</i> (Pallas) Cham. & Schltal |
| Theophylline | Diuretic; bronchodilator | <i>Camellia sinensis</i> (L.) Kuntze |

| | | |
|---------------|----------------------|--|
| Valepotriates | Sedative | <i>Valeriana officinalis</i> L. |
| Vincamine | Cerebral stimulant | <i>Vinca minor</i> L. |
| Xanthotoxin | Leukoderma; vitiligo | <i>Ammi majus</i> L. |
| Yohimbine | Aphrodisiac | <i>Pausinystalia yohimbe</i> (K. Schum.) Pierre |
| Yuanhuacine | Abortifacient | <i>Daphne genkwa</i> Seib. & Zucc. |
| Yuanhuadine | Abortifacient | <i>Daphne genkwa</i> Seib. & Zucc. |

Enzymes and proteins from plant origin also have been used as drugs since ancient times and many of them were available before the development of biotechnology. Proteins and enzymes used as drugs fit into many therapeutic categories (*Kokate et al., 2001*).

| Name of drugs | Chemical constituents | uses |
|---------------|--------------------------------|---|
| Papain | Papain and chymopapain | Proteolytic, meat tenderizer, clarification of beverages. |
| Bromelin | Mixture of proteolytic enzymes | Anti inflammatory for soft tissues, and clotting agents. |

1.4 Natural products with hepatoprotective activity:

Liver is the main organ which regulates many important metabolic functions. Hepatic injury is directly associated with these altered metabolic functions (*Mitra et al., 1998*). Several studies have been carried out to examine the effect of plants used to support normal liver function and treat diseases of liver.

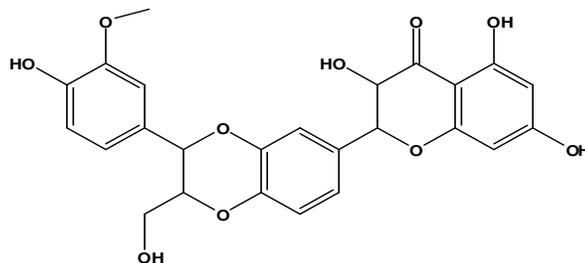
About 600 commercial preparations with claimed liver protecting activity are available all over the world. About 100 Indian medicinal plants belonging to 40 families are used for herbal formulation (*Handa et al., 1986*).

For example, plants such as *Silybum marrium* (milk thistle), *Curcuma longa* (turmeric) (*Luper, 1999*), *Nymphaea stellata* (*Bhandarkar and Khan, 2004*), *Andrographis lineate*, (*Sangameswaran et al., 2008*), *Andrographis paniculata* (*Handa and Sharma, 1990*), *Azadirachta indica* (*Chattopadhyay et al., 1992*), *Careya arborea* (*Senthilkumar et al., 2008*), *Cassia fistula* (*Senthilkumar et al., 2008*), *Cleome viscosa* (*Gupta and Dixit, 2009*), *Fumaria indica* (*Saxena et al., 1993*) Linn are safe for effective treatment of liver disorders.

Liver protective plants contain a variety of chemical constituents like phenols, coumarins, lignans, essential oil, monoterpenes, carotinoids, glycosides, flavanoids, organic acids, lipids, alkaloids and xanthenes. Recent experience has shown that plant drugs are relatively non-toxic, safe and even free from serious side effects (*Momin, 1987*).

Silymarin (**36**), a flavanolignan isolated from *Silybum marianum* is the single herbal drug formulation which is mostly used in liver diseases amounts to about 180 million US dollars in Germany alone. It is interesting to note that herbal drug sale are tripled between 1992 and

1996 in Germany and nearly one third of out-patients attending liver clinics use natural remedies (*Schuppan et al., 1999*).



(36)

1.5 Medicinal plants of Manipur:

Manipur, a state in North East India (23⁰50' to 25⁰42' N latitudes and 92⁰58' to 94⁰45' longitudes) being a part of Indo-Myanmar Hot spots of bio-diversity (*Myers et al., 2000*), possesses rich flora and fauna. The flora of this region includes aromatic and medicinal plants with a number of bioactive compounds (*Myers et al., 2000*).

In Manipur, plants have been the source of medicine from time immemorial to treat different ailments and are associated with various folklore and ritual, which is performed by *Maiba* (traditional herbal healer or priest). History reveals that in the beginning of the 14th century there has been a good description of medicinal plants and herbal treatment for many diseases. A number of works on ethnobotany of Manipur has been done since **1980s**. For example, work done by *Sinha, 1987, Devi, 1990, Ghosh, 1994, Sinha, 1996, Singh, 1997, Sharma et al., 1999, Ghosh, 2000, Singh et al., 2000, Sharma et al., 2003, Sharma et al., 2004, Sharma et al., 2005, Warjeet et al., 2006, Potsangbam et al., 2008 etc.*

The Manipuri people even now, use some of the plants, plant products, animal products minerals etc for domestic purposes for utilizing their traditional knowledge, which had been developed by their forefather through trial and error methods and passed on to them through oral tradition from one generation to another. Unfortunately, due to lack of written documents, most of the traditional knowledge about medicinal plants and their uses survived only by words of mouth from generation to generation and are being slowly lost. For example, *Terminalia citrina* Roxb.ex Flem, *Glycasmis arborea* Roxb(DC), *Achyranthus aspera* Linn, *Melothria maderaspatana* Linn, Cogn.and *Costus speciosus* (koenig) Sm, are used especially for the treatment of dog bites (***Singh and Singh, 2000***).

The products of *Flacourtia jangomas* (Lour). Rauch and *Gardenia campanulata* are used for the preparation of traditional soap and detergents by people of Manipur (***Singh and Singh, 2002***).

The exploration of the plant kingdom and research in natural products has been going on in various part of the globe (***Akpulu et al., 1994, Balasooriya et al., 1982, Edeoga et al., 2005, Faraz et al., 2003, Atata et al., 2003.***) and in different laboratories of our country (***Perumalsamy and Ignacimuthu, 2000, Vedavathy and Rao, 1991, Jayashree and Maneemegalai, 2008, Devi, S and Paul, S.B, 2011, Choudhury et al., 2011, Paul et al., 2010, 2009, 2007 Nath et al., 2011, Choudhury et al., 2011, 2007, Paul and Roy, 2009***). The forest of Manipur and Silchar, Assam remains to be explored at least from the point of view of chemical research. Whereas some ethno botanical works had been done in the region by some botanists, the chemical investigation of these plants is yet to be done in the real sense.

The present investigation is an attempt to put a step forward towards the chemical and biological examination of the plants for their natural products. So, some plants are collected and have been subjected to preliminary examinations for their medicinal properties. From these, a few are selected, among these plants *Phyllanthus acidus* (L)Skeel and *Croton caudatus* Geiseler assumes an important significance and selected for exhaustive investigation.

1.6: Bibliography

1. Aggrawal, Anil. (1995). Narcotic drugs: National Book Trust, India.52-3.
2. Akpulu, I. N., Dada, J. D., Odama, L. E. and Galadima, M. (1994). Antibacterial activity of aqueous extracts of some Nigerian medicinal plants, Nigerian J Botany, 7:45-48.
3. Ali, M., Shuaib, M. (1997). Withanolides from the stem bark of *Withania somnifera*. Phytochemistry, 44:1163-168.
4. Ambasta, S. P. E. D. (2000). The useful plant of India, Fourth Edition, National Institution of Sci. Communication, Delhi, 253.
5. Anonymous. (1978). The Ayurvedic formulary of India. Ed.I, Pt.I, Government of India, New Delhi.
6. Anonymous. (1994). Interest increases in plant as medicine. Industrial 4:17-19.
7. Atata, R. F, Sani, A and Ajewole, S. M. (2003). Effect of stem bark extracts of *Enantia chloranta* on some clinical isolates, Biochemistri, 15(2):84-92.
8. Attele, A. S., Wu, J. A. and Yuan, C. S. (1999). Ginseng pharmacology: multiple constituents and multiple actions. Biochem Pharmacol, 58(11):1685–1693.
9. Badami, S., Shrishailappa, S. A., Manohara, Reddy, E. P. Kumar, P. Vijayan, P and Suresh, B. (2003). Antitumor activity of total alkaloid fraction of *Solanum pseudocapsicum* leaves, Phytother Res, 9:1001-1004.
10. Balasooriya, S. J., Sotheeswaran, S. and Balasubramanium, S.(1982). Economically useful plants of Srilanka, J of Nat Sci Congress Sri Lanka. 10:213-219.

11. Balick, M. J. and Cox. P. A. (1996). Plants, people, and culture: the science of ethnobotany Scientific American Library series 60. New York: Scientific American Library, 2-3.
12. Balunas, M. J. and Kinghorn, A. D. (2005). Drugdiscovery from medicinal plants. Life Sci. 78:431-441.
13. Baselt. (2008). Disposition of Toxic Drugs and Chemicals in Man, 8th edition, Biomedical Publications, Foster City, CA, 1103-1107.
14. Benowitz, N. L., Hukkanen. J. and Jacob, P. (2009). Nicotine chemistry, metabolism, kinetics and biomarkers. Handb. Exp. Pharmacol, 192:29-60.
15. Bhandarkar, S M. R and khan, A. (2004). Antihepatotoxic effect of *Nymphaea stellata* willd, against carbon tetrachloride- induced hepatic damage in albino rats. Journal of Ethnopharmacology, 91:61-64.
16. Brogini, M., Marchini. S, Fontana, E., Moneta, D., Fowst, C., Geroni, C. Brostacillin. (2004). A new concept in minor groove DNA binder development. Anticancer Drugs 15:1-6.
17. Bruneton, J. (1993). Pharmacognosy, phytochemistry medicinal plants, Lavoisier Publisher, France, 832.
18. Boye, G. L. and Oku Ampofo. (1987). "The Role of Traditional Medicine in Primary Health Care in Ghana," in Use of Herbal Medicines in Primary Health Care; Proceedings of a Meeting of C.M.C., Lome, Togo, Amonoo-Lartson, R. (ed.) (Geneva: World Council of Churches Medical Commission).
19. Butler, M. S. (2005). Natural products to drugs: natural products derived compounds in clinical trials. Nat Prod Rep, 22:162-195.

20. Butler, M. S. (2004). The role of natural product chemistry in drug discovery. *J Nat Prod*, 67:2141-2153.
21. Chattopadhyay, R. R., Sarkar, S. K, Ganguly S, Banerjee, R. N, Basu, T. K and Mukherjee, A. (1992). Hepatoprotective activity of *Azadirachta indica* leaves on paracetamol induced hepatic damage in rats. *Indian J Exp Biol.*, 30(8):738-40.
22. Choudhury, Swarnali. N. Paul, S. B. and De, Biplab. (2011). Preliminary phytochemical Evaluation and Antimicrobial Screening of leaves extract of *Neptunia prostrate* L.J of Pure and Applied Microbiology, 15(2), 987-991.
23. Choudhury, M. D., Nath, D and Talukdar, A. D. (2011). Antimicrobial activity of *Melastoma malabathricum* L. Assam University Journal of Science & Technology:Biological and Environmental Sciences.7 (1):76-78.
24. Choudhury, M. D., Choudhury, R., De, B. and Paul, S. B. (2007). Pytochemical and Medicinal impotrance of edible patrs of certain plants used by Tribal people of Tripura, India. *Indian J of Traditional knowledge (NISCOM, CSIR)*.
25. Cragg, G. M., Schepartz, S. A., Suffness, M. and Grever, M. R. (1993). The taxol supply crisis. New NCI policies for handling the large-scale production of novel natural product anticancer and anti-HIV agents. *J. Nat. Prod*, 56:1657 -1668.
26. Cuadros, R., Garcini, E. M., Wandosell, F., Faircloth, G., Fernández-Sousa, J. M. and Avila, J. (2000). The marine compound spisulosine, an inhibitor of cell proliferation, promotes the disassembly of acting stress fibers. *Cancer Lett*, 152:23-29.
27. Devi, L. D. (1990). Folklore medicines of ethnobiological importance in Manipur. Vol-1. Dhanapati Devi, Imphal.

28. Devi, S.Saraju and Paul, S. B. (2011). An overview on *Cicca acida* (*Phyllanthus acidus*), Assam University Journal of Science & Technology: Biological and Environmental Sciences. 7(1):156-160.
29. Dewick, P. M. (2002). Medicinal Natural Products: A Biosynthetic Approach.2nd edn. Chichester, UK, John Wiley & Sons.
30. Dhar, M. L., Dhar, M. M., Dhawan, B. N., Mehrotra, B. N. and Ray, C. (1968). Screening of Indian plants for biological activity. I. Indian J. Exp Biol, 6:232–247.
31. Dimarco, A., Gaetani, M., Orezzi, P., Scotti, T, Arcamone, F. F. (1962). Experimental studies on distamycin A – a new antibiotic with cytotoxic activity. Cancer Chemother Rep, 18:15-19.
32. Dorndorp, A., Nosten, F., Stepniewska, K., Day. N. P., White, N. J., (2005): "Artesunate versus quinine for treatment of severe falciparum malaria: a randomized trial", Lancet 366:717–25.
33. Dossey, Aaron. (2010). “Insects and their chemical weaponry: New potential for drug discovery”. Natural Product Reports 27:1737-1757.
34. Dreosti, I. E. (1996). Bioactive ingredients: antioxidants and polyphenols in tea. Nutr Rev, 54:S51–8.
35. Edeoga, H. O., Okwu, D. E. and Mbaebie, B. O. (2005). Phytochemical constituents of some Nigerian medicinal plants, African J of Biotechnology.4:685-688.
36. Evans, W. C. (2002). Trease and Evans Pharmacognosy 15 edn, 394-402.

37. Faraz, M., Mohammad, K., Naysaneh, G. and Hamid, R. V. (2003). Phytochemical screening of some species of Iranian plants, Iranian J of pharmaceutical Research, 77-82.
38. Farnsworth, N. R., Akerele, O., Bingel, A. S., Soejarto, D. D., Guo, Z. (1985). Medicinal plants in therapy. Bull WHO, 63:965–981.
39. Ghosh, G. K. (2000), Herbs of Manipur, H.P.H. Publishing Corporation Delhi, 2:1068-1069.
40. Ghosh, G. K. (1994). Herbs of Manipur, Ashish Publishing House, New Delhi.1.5.
41. Gupta, A. K. and Chow, M. (2003). Pimecrolimus: a review. J Eur Acad Dermatol Venereol 17:493-503.
42. Gupta, N. K. and Dixit, V. K. (2009). Evaluation of hepatoprotective activity of *Cleome viscosa* Linn. Extract. Indian journal of pharmacology.41:36-40.
43. Handa, S. S and Sharma, A. (1990). Hepatoprotective activity of andrographolide from *Andrographis paniculata* against carbontetrachloride. Indian J Med Res. 92:276-83.
44. Handa, S. S., Sharma, A. and Chakarborti, K. K. (1986). Natural products and plants as liver protecting drugs. Fitoterapia 57 (5):307–351.
45. Hao, D., Hammond, L. A., Eckhardt, S. G., Patnaik, A, Takimoto, C. H., Goetz, A. D., Tolcher, A. W., Mc Creery, H. A., Mamun, k., Williams, J. I., Holroyd, K. J. and Rowinsky, E. K. (2003). A phase I and pharmacokinetic study of squalamine, an aminosterol angiogenesis inhibitor. Clin Cancer Res, 9:2465-2471.

46. Iosi, F., Santini, M. T. and Malorni, W. (1993). Membrane and Cytoskeleton are intracellular targets of rein in A 431 Cells, *Anticancer Res*, 13, 545.
47. Jayashree, A. and Maneemegalai, S. (2008). Studies on the antibacterial activity of the extracts from *Tridax procumbens* L and *Ixora coccinea* L, *Biomedicine* 28: 190-194.
48. Jia, W., Yan, H., Bu, X., Liu, G. and Zhao, Y. (2004). Aglycone protopanaxadiol, a ginseng saponin, inhibits P-glycoprotein and sensitizes chemotherapy drugs on multidrug resistant cancer cells. *J Clin Oncol*, 22:9663.
49. Jiexiang, S. (1997). Introduction to the Chinese Materia Medica. In UNDP, 1997.
50. Jimeno, J. M., Garcia-ravalos, D., Avila, J., Smith, B., Grant, W., Faircloth, G. T. (1999). ES-285, a marine natural product with activity against solid tumors. *Clin Cancer Res*, 5:3792s.
51. Joyce, C, (1992). "Western Medicine Men Return to the Field," *Bioscience*, 42:5-399.
52. Kamstee, M., Rutherford, T., Sapi, E. (2003). Phenoxodiol - an isoflavone analog -induces apoptosis in chemoresistant ovarian cancer cells, *Oncogene*, 22: 2611- 2620.
53. Kantarjian, H. M., Talpaz, M., Santini, V., Murgu, A. Cheson, B and O. Brian, S.M. (2001). Homoharringtonine: history, current research, and future direction, *Cancer*, 92:591-1603.
54. Katiyar, S. K., Agarwal, R. and Mukhtar, H. (1996). Inhibition of tumor promotion in cancer mouse skin by ethanol extract of *Zingiber officinale* rhizome. Department of Dermatology, Skin Diseases Research Center, University Hospitals of Cleveland,

Case Western Reserve University, Ohio 44106, USA, *Cancer Res*,1;56(5): 1023-30.

55. Kedei, N., Lundberg, D. J., Toth, A., Welburn, P., Garfield, S. H. and Blumberg, P. M. (2004). Characterization of the interaction of ingenol 3-angelate with protein kinase C, *Cancer Res*, 64:3243-3255.
56. Kikuzaki, H. and Nakatani, N. (1993). Antioxidant effects of some ginger constituents. *J Food Sci*, 58:1407–10.
57. Kiviharju, T. M., Lecane, P. S., Sellers, R. G. and Peehl, D. M. (2002). Antiproliferative and proapoptotic of triptolide (PG490), a natural product entering clinical trials, on primary cultures of human prostatic epithelial cells. *Clin Cancer Res*,8:2666-2674.
58. Kleijnen, J. and Knipschild, P. (1992). *Gingko biloba*. *Lancet*, 340:1136–9.
59. Kokate, C. K., Purohit, A. P. and Gokhale, S. B. (2001). *Parmacognosy*, 420.
60. Kumar, R. S., Ponmozhi, M. and Nalini, M. (2002). Effect of *Cassia auriculata* leaf extract on lipids in rats with alcoholic liver injury, *Asia Pacific J of Clinical Nutrition*.11: 157-163.
61. Kumar, R. S., Ponmozhi, M., Viswanathan, P. and Nalini, N. (2003). Activity of *Cassia auriculata* leaf extract in rats with alcoholic liver injury, *J. of Nutritional Biochemistry*, 14: 452-458.
62. Kumaran, A. and Joel Karunakaran, R. (2007). Antioxidant activity of *Cassia auriculata* flowers, *Fitoterapia*, 78: 46-47.
63. Lau, B. H. S., Tadi, P. P. and Tosk, J. M. (1990). *Allium sativum* (garlic) and cancer prevention. *Nutr Res*, 10:937–48.

64. Loganzo, F., Hari, M., Annable, T., Tan, X., Musto, S., Morilla, D. B., Musto, S., Zask, A., Kaplan, J., Minnick, A. AJr., May, M. K., Ayrál-kaloustian, S., Poruchynsky, M. S., Fojot, Greenberger, L. M. (2004). Cells resistant to HT-286 do not overexpress P-glycoprotein but have reduced drug accumulation and a point mutation in α -tubulin. *Mol Cancer Ther*, 3:1319-1327.
65. Luper, S. (1999). A review of plants used in the treatment of liver disease: part two, *Alternative Medicine Review*, 4:178-188.
66. Malhotra, R., Singh, L., Eng, J. and Raufman, J. P. (1992). Exendin-4, a new peptide from *Heloderma suspectum* venom, potentiates cholecystokinin-induced amylase release from rat pancreatic acini. *Regul Pept*, 41:149-156.
67. Marino-Bettolo, G. B. (1980). Present aspect of the use of plants in traditional medicine. *J Ethnopharmacol*, 2:5-7.
68. Martínez-Valverde, I., Periago, M. J. and Ros, G. (2000). Nutritional importance of phenolic compounds in the diet, *Arch Latinoam Nutr*, 5:5-18.
69. Milner, J. A. (1996). Garlic: its anticarcinogenic and antitumorigenic properties. *Nutr Rev*, 54:S82-6.
70. Mitra, S. K., Venkataranganna, M. V., Sundaram, R. Gopumadhavan, S. (1998). Protective effect of HD-03, a herbal formulation, against various hepatotoxic agents in rats, *Journal of Ethnopharmacology* 63:181-186.
71. Momin, A. (1987). Role of indigenous medicine in primary health care. 1st International Seminar on Unani Medicine, New Delhi, India.54.

72. Moore, K. S, Wehrli, S., Roger, H. Rogers, M., Forrest, J. N., Jr, McCrimmom, D. (1993). Squalamine: an aminosterol antibiotic from the shark. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA*, 90:1354-1358.
73. Mündel, T. and Jones, D. A. (2006). "Effect of transdermal nicotine administration on exercise endurance in men".*Exp Physiol*, 91(4):705– 713.
74. Myers, N., Mittermeier, R. A., Mittermeier, C. G., da Fonseca, G. A. and Kent, J. (2000). Biodiversity hotspots for conservation priorities. *Nature*.403: 853 – 856.
75. Narayanan, S. S., Ramkumar, K. M., Latha, M. and Rajeshkanna, V.(2007). Antimicrobial and free radical scavenging activity of *Cassia auriculata* L flowers, *International J of natural and Applied Sciences* 3: 39-43.
76. Nath, B., Dutta, B. K. and Paul, S. B. (2011). Medicinal plants used in curing major ailments by the Jaintia and Rongmai naga tribes settled in Barak valley. *Assam University Journal of Science & Technology: Biological and Environmental Sciences*.7 (1):27-35.
77. Newman, D. J. and Cragg, G. M. (2004). Marine natural products and related compounds in clinical and advanced preclinical trials. *J Nat Prod*, 67:1216- 1238.
78. Newman, D. J., Cragg, G. M. and Snader, K. M. (2000). The influence of natural products upon drug discovery. *Nat Prod Rep*, 17:215-234.
79. Ogbourne, S. M., Suhrbier, A. and Jones, B. (2004). Antitumor activity of ingenol 3- angelate:plasma membrane and mitochondrial disruption and necrotic cell death, *Cancer Res*, 64:2833-2839.

80. Oliver-Bever, B. E. P. (1986). Medicinal plants of tropical West Africa. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
81. Okerele, O. (1992). WHO Guidelines for the Assessment of Herbal Medicines, *Fitoterapia*, 63 (2): 99-110.
82. Pastores, G. M., Barnett, N. L. and Kolodny, E. H. (2005). An open-label, non comparative studies of miglustat in type I Gaucher disease: efficacy and tolerability over 24 months of treatment, *Clin Ther*, 27:1215-1227.
83. Paul, S. B. and Singha, S. (2010). Isolation and Identification of physiologically important sterols and sterol glucoside from *Basella rubra* Linn. *Assam University Journal of Science & Technology: Biological and Environmental Sciences*.5 (1):120-122.
84. Paul, S. B. and Roy, S. (2009). Constituents of Hydrodistillate of *Cleome gynandra* L. of Indian Origin. *Int. J. Cem. Sci.* 7(2):969-975.
85. Paul, S. B., Choudhury, M. D., Choudhury, R. and De, Biplab (2009). Structure Elucidation and Analgesic activities of separated active compounds from the methanolic extract of *Solanum torvum*. *Asian J Chemistry*, 21(1):581-588.
86. Paul, S. B., Mazumdar, A. H., Gogoi, H. K., Gogoi, B. J., Chaurasia, A. K., Singh, L. and Srivastava, R. B. (2010). Evaluation of In vitro Antioxidant activity of some plants of Cachar District, Assam. *Pharmacology Journal*, 2(9):289-292.
87. Paul, S. B., Choudhury, R., De, Biplab and Choudhury, M. D. (2007). LD 50 determination and hypnotic activity of methanolic extracts of certain ethnomedicinal plants of state Tripura, India. *Adv. in Pharmacology and Toxicology*, 8(2):13-16.

88. Pazdur, R. and Kudelka, A. P. (1993). The taxoids: paclitaxel (Taxol) and docetaxel (Taxotere), *Canc. Treat.Rev*19, 351.
89. Pecere, T., Gazzola, M. V., Mucigent, C., Parolin, C., Vecchia, F. D., Cavaggioni, A., Basso, G., Diaspro, A., Salvato, B., Carli, M., Palu, G. (2000). Aloe-emodin is a new type of anticancer agent with selective activity against neuro-ectodermal tumors. *Cancer Res*, 60:2800-2804.
90. Perry, C. M. and Ibbotson, T. (2002). Biapenem. *Drugs*. 62:2221-2234.
91. Perumalsamy, R. and Ignacimuthu, S. (2000). Antibacterial activity of some folklore medicinal plants used by tribals in Western Ghats of India, *J of Ethnopharmacology*, 69: 63-71.
92. Potsangbam, L., Ningombam, S. and Laitonjam, W. S. (2008). Natural dye yielding plants and indigenous knowledge of dying in Manipur, Northeast India, *Ind. J. Traditional Knowledge*, 7(1):141.
93. Powell, R. G., Weisleder, D., Smith, C. R. and Rohwedder, W. K. (1970). Structures of harringtonine, isoharringtonine, and homoharringtonine. *Tetrahedron Lett*, 11:815-818.
94. Prakash, S. K. (2006). Effects of herbal extracts towards microbicidal activity against pathogenic E.coli in poultry, *International J of Poultry Sciences*, 5: 259-261.
95. Sabu, M. C. and Subburaju, T. (2002). Effect of *Cassia auriculata* Linn. On serum glucose level, glucose utilization by isolated rat hemi diaphragm, *J of Ethnopharmacology*, 80:203-206.
96. Sader, H. S. and Gales, A. C. (2001). Emerging strategies in infectious diseases: new carbapenem and trinem antibacterial agents. *Drugs*, 61:553-564.

97. Sangameswaran, B., Reddy, T. C. and Jayakar, B. (2008). Hepatoprotective effect of leaf extracts of *Andrographis lineata* on liver damage caused by carbon tetrachloride in rats. *Phytother Res.* 22 (1):124-6.
98. Saxe, T. G. (1987). Toxicity of medicinal herbal preparations. *Am Fam Physician*, 35:135-42.
99. Saxena, A. K., Singh, B. and Anand, K. K. (1993). Hepatoprotective effect of the ethanol /water extract of *Eclipta Alba*. *J Ethnopharmacol.* 40(3):155-61.
100. Schroeder, C. I., Smythe, M. L. and Lewis. R. J. (2004). Development of small molecules that mimic the binding of ω -conotoxins at the N-type voltage-gated calcium channel. *Mol Divers*, 8:127-134.
101. Schuppan, D., Jia, J., Brinkhaus, B. and Hahn, E. G. (1999). Herbal products for liver diseases. A therapeutic challenge for the new millennium. *Hepatology*, 30:1099-104.
102. Senthilkumar, N., Badami, S., Dongre, S. H. and Bhojraj, S (2008). Antioxidant and hepatoprotective activity of the methanol extract of *Careya arborea* bark in Ehrlich ascites carcinomabearing mice. *J. Ethnopharmacol.* 116(1):1-6.
103. Sharma, H. M., Dwivedi, C., Salter, B. C. and Aboulssa, H. (1991). Antineoplastic Maharashi Amrit Kalash an Ayurvedic food properties of supplement against 7, 12-dimethyl Benz (a) anthracene-induced mammary tumours in rats. *Journal of research and Education in Indian Medicine*, 10(3):1-8.
104. Sharma, H. M. and Devi, A. R. (2004): Ethnomedicinal use of plants in the treatment of Urinary tract diseases by the Meiteis of

- Manipur. pp. 151-159. In: PC. Trivedi and N.K. Sharma (eds.).
Ethnomedicinal Plants. Poinetr Publishers, Jaipur (India).
105. Sharma, H. M., Sharma, B. M. and Devi, A. R. (1999).
Contribution to the edible fruits of Manipur. *Journal of Economic
and Taxonomic Botany*, 23(2):615- 623.
 106. Sharma, H. M., Devi, A. R. Sharma, B. M (2003):
Ethnomedicinal uses of Monocotyledonous plants by the Meitais
of Manipur. 473-480.
 107. Sharma, H. M., Devi A. R., Sharma, B. M. (2005). Vegetable
dyes used by the Meitei community of Manipur, *Ind. J.
Traditional Knowledge*, 4(1) 39.
 108. Singh, P. K. and Singh, K. I. (2000). Traditional medicinal
knowledge of Dog-bite: Need for, conservation and research,
proceeding of the Seminar on Ethnobotany Northeast India: Past,
present and future. Dept. of Forestry, Northeastern Hill
University, Mizoram Campus, 6.
 109. Singh, L. S., Singh, P. K. and Singh, E. J.(2001). Ethno botanical
uses of some Pteridophytes species in Manipur, *Indian Fern J*,
1814.
 110. Singh, K. I., Singh, P. K. and Singh, S. S.(2002). An
ethnobiological approach to the indigenous soaps and detergents
of Meitei community of Manipur, *J Econ Taxon Bot*, 25(3)547.
 111. Singh, B. K. H. (1996). Plants used in medico-sexual purposes by
Meitei community in Manipur state, India, *J Econ Taxon Bot*
(Addl.series) 12(364).
 112. Singh, B. K. H. (1997). Studies on medico-botany of Meitei
community in Manipur state (III), 9(27).

113. Singh, H. B. K., Singh, R. S. and Sandhu, J. S. (2003). Herbal medicine of Manipur: A colour Encyclopedia (Daya Publishing House, New Delhi, India),
114. Singh, N. P., Chauhan, A. S., Mondal, M. S. (2000). Flora of Manipur. Vol.I (Ranunculaceae-Asteraceae). Botanical Survey of India, Kolkata.
115. Sinha, S. C. (1987). Ethnobotanical Study of Manipur. Ph.D. Thesis, Manipur University.
116. Soetan, K. O., Oyekunle, M. A., Aiyelaagbe, O. O. and Fafunso, M. A. (2006). Evaluation of the antimicrobial activity of saponins extract of *Sorghum bicolor* L. Moench, African J Biotechnology, 5:2405-2407.
117. Solecki, R. and Shanidar, IV. (1975). Neanderthal flower burial in northern Iraq. Science, 190:880–881.
118. Steinmetz, K. A., Kushi, L. H., Bostick, R. M., Folsom, A. R. and Potter, J. D. (1994). Vegetable, fruit, and colon cancer in the Iowa women's health study. Am J Epidemiol, 139:1–15.
119. Thomas, J. (1997). Medicinal and aromatic plant research in India, In UNDP.
120. Tripathi, Y. B. Sharma, M. and Manickam, M. (1997). Rubiadin, a new antioxidant from *Rubia cardifolia*. Indian J Biochem Biophys, 34(3):302-6.
121. Tsuchiya, H., Sato, M., Miyazaki, T., Fujiwara, S., Tanigaki, S., Ohyama, M., Tanaka, T. and Iinuma, M. (1996). Comparative study on the antibacterial activity of phytochemical flavones against methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*, J of Ethnopharmacology. 50:27-34.

122. Umadevi, P., Selvi, S., Suja, S., Selvam, K. and Chinnaswamy, P.(2006). Antidiabetic diabetic rats, International J of Pharmacology, 2:601-607.
123. United Nations Environmental Program (UNEP, 1992), Saving Our Planet: Challenges and Hopes Nairobi (Kenya: UNEP).
124. Van Agtmael, M. A., Eggelte, T. A., van Boxtel, C. J. (1999). Artemisinin drugs in the treatment of malaria: from medicinal herb to registered medication. Trends Pharmacol Sci. 20:199-205.
125. Vedavathy, S. and Rao, K. N. (1991). Antipyretic activity of six indigenous medicinal plants of Tirumala hills, J of Ethanopharmacology. 33: 193-196.
126. Warjeet, L. S., Vankar, P. S., Tiwari, V., Swapana, N. (2006). Antioxidantn properties of some exclusive species of Zingiberaceae family of Manipur. Electron. J. Environ, Agric. Food Chem 1318-1322.
127. Weinreb, N. J., Barranger, J. A., Charrow, J., Grabowski, G. A., Mankin, H. J. and Mistry, P. (2005). Guidance on the use of miglustat for treating patients with type 1Gaucher disease. Am J Hematol, 80:223-229.
128. World Health Organization. (2004). Neuroscience of psychoactive substance use and dependence.
129. World Health Organization. (2007). International medical guide for ship 17.
130. WHO. (1978). The Promotion and Development of Traditional Medicine. WHO Technical Report Series, No. 622:8, Geneva, Switzerland.
131. Xiao, P. G. (1981). Traditional experience of Chinese herb medicine, its applications in drug research and new drug

searching. In Natural products as medicinal agents. (eds.) Beal, J.L. and Reinhard, E. Suppl. Planta medica, Hippokrates Verlag, Stuttgart. 351-394.

132. Zhanel, G. G., Homenuik, K and Nichol, K. (2004). The glycylcyclines: a comparative review with the tetracyclines *Drugs*, 64:63-88.
133. Zhanel, G. G., Walters, M., Noreddin, A., Vercaigne, L. M., Wierzbowski, J. M. and Embil, A. S. (2002). The ketolides: a critical review *Drugs*, 62: 1771-1804.