BIOACTIVE NATURAL PRODUCTS FROM THE SOFT CORAL, SINULARIA SP.

LIM FEI SHEN

MASTER OF SCIENCE

FACULTY OF ENGINEERING AND SCIENCE UNIVERSITI TUNKU ABDUL RAHMAN MAY 2014

BIOACTIVE NATURAL PRODUCTS FROM THE SOFT CORAL, SINULARIA SP.

ΒY

LIM FEI SHEN

A dissertation submitted to the Department of Science Faculty of Science and Engineering UniversitiTunku Abdul Rahman In partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science May 2014

ABSTRACT

BIOACTIVE NATURAL PRODUCTS FROM THE SOFT CORAL, Sinularia sp.

Lim Fei Shen

Soft coral is a rich source of bioactive secondary metabolites and one of the most prolific sources of new marine natural products. In this study, the soft coral, Sinularia sp. was chosen to study its photo-toxicity, antifungal and antibacterial activities. Lyophilized samples of Sinularia sp. were subjected to sequential extraction using organic solvents of increasing polarity, i.e. hexane, diethyl ether, chloroform, ethyl acetate, acetone, methanol and water at a ratio of 1 g: 10 mL. Microculture tetrazolium (MTT) test with light irradiation was used to study its photo-toxicity activity towards the leukemia cell line, HL 60. Chloroform extract with the highest photo-toxicity activity (2.25% of cell viability) was subjected to isolation using flash chromatography. However, the fractions were unstable and lost its activitiy after fractionation. In antimicrobial assay, a colorimetric broth microdilution method using *p*-iodonitrotetrazolium violet (INT) as growth indicator was employed to determine the minimum inhibitory concentrations (MICs) towards medically-important bacteria and fungi. Hexane extract which exhibited the strongest inhibitory effect towards Cryptococcus neoformans (MIC= 0.03 mg/mL, n=3) was selected for further in vitro bioassay-guided fractionation. It was purified using silica gel impregnated

with silver nitrate and semi-preparative thin layer chromatography (TLC). Fuscol (C₂₀H₃₂O, MW = 288) which was identified by gas chromatography mass spectrometry (GCMS) and nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) analysis had a mean of MIC value 0.064 mg/mL towards *C. neoformans*. Fraction 1 from the hexane extract which demonstrated anti-fungal activity (MIC = 0.13 mg/mL) contains a mixture of hydrocarbons and eight other compounds identified using GCMS. Fraction 6, a white powder, was found to be a mixture of sterols (MIC = 0.06 mg/mL).

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank my supervisor, Dr. Khoo Kong Soo and cosupervisor, Dr. Sit Nam Weng for their valuable help and guidance throughout the whole research. Their comments and suggestions had made this research possible.

Besides, I would like to thank my friends in University Malaya, Dr. Lee Guan Serm, Dr. Hong Sok Lai and Dr. Tan Kong Wai for their help. I appreciate the information shared generously by them.

I also acknowledge Dr. Lee Hong Boon and her students in CARIF, Sime Darby Medical Center for their help. I thank all my lab mates in Universiti Tunku Abdul Rahman for being supportive and helpful all the time.

Finally and especially, I would like to express gratitude to my beloved family.

FACULTY OF SCIENCE

UNIVERSITI TUNKU ABDUL RAHMAN

Date: _____

SUBMISSION OF THESIS

It is hereby certified that LIM FEI SHEN (ID No: 08UEM01996) has completed this thesis entitled "BIOACTIVE NATURAL PRODUCTS FROM THE SOFT CORAL, SINULARIA SP." under the supervision of Assoc. Prof. Dr. Khoo Kong Soo (Supervisor) from the Department of Chemical Science, Faculty of Science, and Assist. Prof. Dr. Sit Nam Weng (Co-supervisor) from Department of Biomedical Science, Faculty of Science.

I understood that the University will upload softcopy of my thesis in pdf format into UTAR Institutional Repository, which may be made accessible to UTAR community and public.

Yours truly,

(LIM FEI SHEN)

APPROVAL SHEET

This thesis entitled "**BIOACTIVE NATURAL PRODUCTS FROM THE SOFT CORAL,** *SINULARIA* **SP.**" was prepared by LIM FEI SHEN and submitted as partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science at Universiti Tunku Abdul Rahman.

Approved by:

Date:....

(Assoc. Prof. Dr. KHOO KONG SOO) Supervisor Department of Chemical Science Faculty of Science Universiti Tunku Abdul Rahman

(Assist. Prof. Dr. SIT NAM WENG) Co-supervisor Department of Biomedical Science Faculty of Science Universiti Tunku Abdul Rahman Date:....

DECLARATION

I ______ hereby declare that the thesis/dissertation is based on my original work except for quotations and citations which have been duly acknowledged. I also declare that it has not been previously or concurrently submitted for any other degree at UTAR or other institutions.

(LIM FEI SHEN)

Date _____

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iv
PERMISSION SHEET	V
APPROVAL SHEET	vi
DECLARATION	vii
TABLE OF CONTENTS	viii
LIST OF TABLES	ix
LIST OF FIGURES	Х
LIST OF ABBREVIATION	XV

CHAPTER

1.0	INT	RODUCTION	1
	1.1 1.2 1.3 1.4 1.5 1.6 1.7	Natural Products Marine Natural Products <i>Sinularia</i> sp. Antimicrobial Photodynamic Therapy Hypothesis Objectives	1 2 3 5 6 7 7
2.0	LIT	ERATURE REVIEW	9
	2.1 2.2	 Natural Products Research on <i>Sinularia</i> sp. 2.2.1 Research on <i>Sinularia dissecta</i> 2.2.2 Research on <i>Sinularia flexibilis</i> 	9 11 16 21
	2.3	 Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing Methods 2.3.1 Disc Diffusion Method 2.3.2 Broth Dilution Method 2.3.3 Bio-autography Method 	22 23 23 24
	2.4	Fungi2.4.1Cryptococcus neoformans2.4.2Candida species2.4.3Aspergillus niger2.4.4Trichophyton mentagrophytes	25 25 26 26 27
	2.5	Bacteria	28

		2.5.1 Staphylococcus aureus	28
		2.5.2 Bacillus cereus	29
		2.5.3 Pseudomonas aeruginosa	29
		2.5.4 Escherichia coli	30
		2.5.5 Klebsiella pneumoniae	30
	2.6	Photodynamic Therapy	30
3.0	MA	TERIALS AND METHODS	32
	3.1	Sample Collection and Extraction	32
	3.2	Microbial Susceptibility Testing	33
		3.2.1 Sample Extract Preparation	34
		3.2.2 Growth Indicator Preparation	35
		3.2.3 Antibacterial Testing	35
		3.2.3.1 Bacterial Strains	37
		3.2.3.2 Bacterial Inocula Preparation	37
		3.2.3.3 Chloramphenicol Preparation	38
		3.2.3.4 Broth Medium Preparation	38
		3.2.4 Antifungal Testing	38
		3.2.4.1 Fungal Strains	40
		3.2.4.2 Fungal Inocula Preparation	41
		3.2.4.3 Fluconazole Preparation	42
		3.2.4.4 Broth Medium Preparation	42
	3.3	Solvent Toxicity Testing	43
	3.4	Photo-toxicity Assay	46
		3.4.1 Preparation of Cell Line	48
		3.4.2 Photosensitizer Preparation	48
		3.4.3 Isolation of Active Photo-cytotoxic Compounds	49
	3.5	Isolation and Identification of Antifungal Compounds	50
		3.5.1 Gas Chromatography Mass Spectrometry Analysis	53
		3.5.2 ¹ H Nuclear Magnetic Resonance and ¹³ C Nuclear	54
		Magnetic Resonance Spectroscopic Analysis on	
		the Isolated Antifungal Compound	
4.0	RES	SULTS AND DISCUSSION	55
	4.1	Collection of Sinularia sp.	55
	4.2	Sequential Extraction of Sinularia sp.	56
	4.3	Solvent Toxicity	57
	4.4	Antimicrobial Activities	63
		4.4.1 Antibacterial Testing	64
		4.4.2 Antifungal Activities	68

	4.4.3	Photo- toxicity Activities	72
4.	5 Isol of S	ation of Antifungal Components from Hexane Extract <i>inularia</i> sp.	74
4.	6 Fusc	ol, Isolated Antifungal Compound from <i>Sinularia</i> sp.	82
4.	7 Sum	mary	101
4.	8 Sugg	gestions for Further Work	101
5.0 CONCLUSIONS REFERENCES		102 103	
APPENDICES 1			109

LIST OF TABLES

Table		Page
2.1	Drugs developed from natural sources.	10
3.1	Mobile phases used in the isolation of active photo-toxicity chloroform extract.	50
3.2	Mobile phases used in the isolation of active antifungal hexane extract.	52
4.1	Dry weights of <i>Sinularia</i> sp. collection on four different days.	56
4.2	Yield of seven extracts from 1.58 kg of dried sample of <i>Sinularia</i> sp	57
4.3	Percentage of the organic solvents that inhibited the growth of the tested bacteria.	60
4.4	Percentage of the organic solvents that inhibited the growth of the tested fungi.	62
4.5	Mean MIC values (mg/mL) of the seven extracts of <i>Sinularia</i> sp. towards tested bacteria.	66
4.6	Total activity (mL) of the seven extracts of <i>Sinularia</i> sp. towards tested bacteria	67
4.7	Mean MIC values (mg/mL) of the seven extracts of <i>Sinularia</i> sp. towards tested fungi.	70
4.8	Total activity (mL) of the seven extracts of <i>Sinularia</i> sp. towards tested fungi. ¹ H NMR data of isolated fuscol and those reported in the literature.	71
4.9	¹ H NMR data of isolated fuscol and those reported in the literature	90

4.10	¹³ C NMR data of isolated fuscol and those reported in the literature.	95
4.11	HSQC and HMBC data of the isolated fuscol.	99

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure		Page
1.1	Adenine arabinoside, Ara-A and cytosine arabinoside, Ara-C.	3
1.2	Sinularia sp.	4
2.1	Yonarolide isolated from Sinularia sp.	12
2.2	Four novel diterpenoids isolated from Sinularia sp.	12
2.3	Six marine sterols isolated from Sinularia sp.	13
2.4	Six compounds isolated from Sinularia sp.	15
2.5	Sinulamide isolated from Sinularia sp.	16
2.6	Fifteen steroids isolated from Sinularia dissecta.	17
2.7	Five steroids isolated from Sinularia dissecta.	18
2.8	α -keto-2-methylene- β -alanine methyl esters and 4,5-seco- african-4,5-dione isolated from <i>Sinularia dissecta</i> .	19
2.9	Diterpenes isolated from Sinularia dissecta.	20
2.10	Thirteen sterols isolated from Sinularia flexibilis.	21
2.11	Biscembranoid diterpene isolated from Sinularia flexibilis.	22
2.12	Principle of photodynamic treatment.	31
3.1	Design of the 96- well microplate for antibacterial testing.	36
3.2	Design of the 96-well microplate for antifungal testing.	40
3.3	Design of the 96- well plate for solvent toxicity testing.	45
3.4	Principle of the MTT assay. The reduction of MTT into its formazan product is catalyzed by mitochondrial dehydrogenases.	46
4.1	An example of microtitre plates showing the result of the organic solvents against <i>C. parapsilosis</i> (ATCC 22019).	63

4.2	Percentage of cell viability of HL 60 versus Sinularia sp. extracts.	72
4.3	Percentage of cell viability of HL 60 versus Sinularia sp. fractions.	73
4.4	Total ion chromatogram of fraction AgN1.	75
4.5	Chemical structure of undecane.	76
4.6	Chemical structure of prehnitol	76
4.7	Chemical structure of durol.	76
4.8	Chemical structure of tridecane.	77
4.9	Chemical structure of dodecane.	77
4.10	Chemical structure of tetradecane.	78
4.11	Chemical structure of palmityl palmitate	78
4.12	Total ion chromatogram of subfraction AgN6.	79
4.13	Chemical structure of lanol	81
4.14	Chemical structure of ergost-5,8(14)-dien-3-ol.	81
4.15	Chemical structure of campesterol.	82
4.16	AgN27-1 (C20H32O, MW=288)	83
4.17	Total ion chromatogram of subfraction AgN27-1.	84
4.18	Mass spectrum of compound AgN27-1.	85
4.19	¹ H NMR spectrum of fuscol, isolated from <i>Sinularia</i> sp.	87
4.20	Expanded ¹ H NMR spectrum of fuscol, isolated from <i>Sinularia</i>	88
	sp.	

- 4.21 Expanded ¹H NMR spectrum of fuscol, isolated from *Sinularia* 88 sp..
- 4.22 Expanded ¹H NMR spectrum of fuscol, isolated from *Sinularia* 89 sp.
- 4.23 ¹³C (CDCl₃) NMR broadband spectrum of fuscol, isolated 94 from *Sinularia* sp.
- 4.24 ¹³C (CDCl₃) NMR DEPT broadband spectrum of fuscol, 96 isolated from *Sinularia* sp.

4.25 HSQC broadband spectrum of fuscol. 97

4.26 HMBC broadband spectrum of fuscol. 98

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AIDS	Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndromes
ATCC	American Type Culture Collection
CFU	Colony forming unit
CLSI	Clinical and Laboratory Standard Institute
DEPT	Distortionless Enhancement by Polarization Transfer
DMSO	Dimethyl sulphoxide
FDA	Food and Drug Administration
GCMS	Gas Chromatography Mass Spectrametry
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
HPLC	High Performance Liquid Chromatography
INT	<i>p</i> -Iodonitrotetrazolium violet
MHA	Mueller-Hinton Agar
MHB	Mueller-Hinton Broth
MIC	Minimum inhibitory concentration
MOPS	3-(N-morpholino) propanesulfonic acid
MTT	3-[4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl]-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium
	bromide
NMR	Nuclear Magnetic Resonance
PDA	Potato dextrose agar
PDT	Photodynamic therapy
Pha	Pheophorbide-A

RPMI	Roswell Park Memorial Institute
SARS	Severe acute respiratory syndrome
TIC	Total ion chromatogram
TLC	Thin layer chromatography
UV	Ultraviolet

CHAPTER 1.0

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Natural Products

Natural products are secondary metabolites from various source materials including terrestrial plants, terrestrial microorganisms, marine organisms and marine microorganisms (Chin et al., 2006). These compounds usually have molecular weights of less than 2000 amu. Examples of secondary metabolites are alkaloids, flavonoids, coumarins, glycosides, lignins, steroids, terpenoids and many more. They can be obtained after a number of processes accordingly which are extraction, fractionation and isolation (Sarker et al., 2006).

For thousands of years, natural products have played an important role in treating and preventing human diseases. The contribution of natural product is evidenced by approximately 75% of drugs for infectious diseases and 60% of anticancer compounds are either natural products or natural product derivatives. According to World Health Organization, roughly two-thirds to three quarters of the world's population relies upon medicinal plants for its primary pharmaceutical care (McChesney et al., 2007). Natural products provide a starting point for new synthetic compounds, with diverse structures and often with multiple stereo centers (Balunasand Kinghorn2005).

1.2 Marine Natural Products

Among the natural products, marine compounds provide numerous of sources of natural products since the oceans cover more than 70% of the earth's surface and represent greatest biodiversity in the world. There are thousands of marine life identified and millions more unknown (Murray et al., 1999). Among the known groups of organisms are such as coral, sponges, mollusks, tunicates, echinoderms, and algae.

These marine organisms produce valuable natural products that are useful to mankind. Ecological pressures, including predation, competition for space, the fouling of the surface and successfully reproducing have led to the evolution of secondary metabolites with various bioactivities (Donia and Hamann 2003). Among the natural sources, marine organisms such as sponges, sea cucumbers, mollusks and corals have a great potential for producing new drugs. They are potential sources of bioactive substances and have provided novel lead compounds for the pharmaceutical industry (Mayer et al., 2009).

Since early 1950s, the search for drugs in marine began when the first spongouridine and spongothymidine were isolated from the Caribbean sponge, *Cryptothecacrypta*. They were approved as an anticancer drug (cytosine arabinoside, Ara-C) and an antiviral drug (adenine arabinoside, Ara-A), which received FDA approval in 1969 and 1976, respectively (Figure 1.1) (Jimeno et al., 2004; Chin et al., 2006; Glaser and Mayer 2009).



Adenine arabinoside, Ara-A

Cytosine arabinoside, Ara-C

NH-

Figure 1.1: Adenine arabinoside, Ara-A and cytosine arabinoside, Ara-C.

1.3 Sinularia sp.

Coral reefs are a rich source of food and livelihood. They play a key role in stabilizing coastlines and also provide us with goods and services (Moberg and Folke, 1999). Coral reefs are made up of hard and soft coral. Corals acquire the majority of their energetic and nutrient requirements by two mechanisms either develop a symbiotic relationships with tiny yellow brown plants called zooxanthellae, or the direct ingestion of zooplankton and other organic particles in the water column by the cnidarian host (Lesser 2004). Hard corals have a very hardy-like appearance and made of rigid calcium carbonate (limestone) with hard calcium skeletons. While the soft corals have a soft and leathery feel. Soft corals do have some rigid calcium carbonate but it is blended with protein, so it is less rigid compared to hard coral (Haider and Khan 2012).



Figure 1.2: Sinularia sp.

The soft coral *Sinularia* sp. (Figure 1.2) was used for this research. *Sinularia* is a soft coral in the kingdom of Animalia, phylum *Cnidaria*, class *Anthozoa*, order *Alcyonacea* and family *Alcyoniidae*. *Sinularias*p. also referred as "thin finger leather coral", and it can be green, yellow or brown coloured. It is a slow growing coral. Although sessile, it is free from fouling organisms. Relatively high number of coral species in coral reef systems and the abundance of *Sinularia* sp. show that it has some mechanisms to compete for space and resist invasion by faster growing organisms. Although this soft coral is lacking in a physical defense system, it appears to be remarkably free of predators. Since the last two decades,

*Sinularias*p. attracts considerably attention because it produces a wide range of secondary metabolites including sesquiterpenes, diterpenes, polyhydroxylated steroids, and polyamine compounds. These metabolites were shown to possess a range of biological activities such as antimicrobial (Kelman et al., 2006), anti-inflammatory (Williams and Faulkner 1996), antipredator (Alstyne et al., 1994) and cytotoxic activities (Sheuet al., 1999).

1.4 Antimicrobial

Over the years, antimicrobial resistance is a major health problem and challenges worldwide. New infectious diseases keep emerging and the use of certain antibiotics had caused undesirable side effects. Even though many antimicrobial compounds are marketed, the ability of microbes to develop resistance to antimicrobial compounds is amazingly rapid (Jayaraman et al., 2008). Besides antibiotic resistance, humankind is faced with the emergence of new epidemics threats such as severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS), human immunodeficiency virus - human acquired immune deficiency syndrome (HIV-AIDS) and bird flu (Minh et al., 2005).

Fungal infections are a major cause of diseases and mortality for the past decade, in part as a consequence of the increase in AIDS, the greater use of immunosuppressive drugs in transplantation and chemotherapeutic agents in cancer, long term use of corticosteroids and even the indiscriminate use of antibiotics. The common antifungal drugs available in the market are polyenes (such as amphotericin B and nystatin), echinocandins (such as caspofungin and micafungin), allylamines (such as niftifine and terbinafine), and azoles (such as fluconazole, ketoconazole, itraconazole, etc) (Aher et al., 2009). Besides, the development of vaccines against fungal pathogens is less advanced than bacterial pathogens due to the similar eukaryotic nature with humans and the target patients to be vaccinated are often immunocompromised (Segal and Elad 2006).

1.5 Photodynamic Therapy

Cancer is still a medical enigma that has yet to be solved.Surgery, radiotherapy and chemotherapy are the three major methods used by clinicians in the treatment of cancer. These methods are useful in some forms of cancer but there is no single method can be used against all forms of cancer.Photodynamic therapy (PDT) has been proposed as a promising new approach of medical treatment of cancer diseases and non-oncological disorders (Buytaert et al., 2007). The treatment is based upon the interaction of visible light with the photosensitizing molecules in target cells. Subsequent photochemical reactions result in the production of reactive oxygen species (ROS) inducing the cell death. PDT can induce both modes of cell death, apoptosis and necrosis in target cells (Plaetzer et al., 2003).

Photofrin is a photosensitizer approved by the European Union, the United States FDA and Asian countries use in PDT. Hypocrellin A, which is isolated from natural fungus sacs of *Hypocrellabambusae*, causes cell damage by photodynamic reactions (Chio-Srichan et al., 2008). Due to the cytotoxicity activities reported, many researchers have focused on the search for phototoxic compounds from marine sources.

1.6 Hypothesis

Among the marine invertebrates, soft corals continue to be one of the most prolific sources of new marine natural products. The secondary metabolites found in soft corals have diverse bioactivities, including anti-infective, anti-predatory, allelopathic, anti-fouling and cytotoxic properties (Wang, 2008). Since the soft coral, *Sinularias*p. is a rich source of bioactive secondary metabolites (Wang, 2008) this research is focused on whether extracts from it could be used as antimicrobial drug.

1.7 Objectives

The objectives of this study were to extract antimicrobial compounds from *Sinularia* sp. Isolation and identification of the antifungal active extract were conducted by using flash chromatography impregnated with silver nitrate and gas chromatography mass spectrometer (GC-MS). This research is also focused on

whether extracts from it could be used as photosensitisers in photodynamic therapy (PDT) which exhibited minimally invasive therapeutic modality in the threatment of cancer diseases and non-oncological disorders (Buytaertet al., 2007). Besides, the toxicity of solvent on the microbes used was also carried out.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Natural Products

Natural products are compounds that are obtained from living organisms which include plants, microorganisms and animals from land and marine (Table 2.1). The compounds can be obtained from the entire or part of the organism. For example, leaves, bark and stem of a plant or an individual organ of an animal. In chemistry, natural products are often referred as secondary metabolites or pure compounds that are extracted from the entire or part of the organism. The examples of secondary metabolites are alkaloids, coumarins, glycosides, lignins, flavonoids and terpenoids (Sarker et al., 2006).

Marine natural products are gaining more attention in the research field as many compounds are found to be useful from medical to bio-fuel industries. Many reviews and journals have published highlighting the promising future of marine natural products as the main source in drug development (Mayer et al., 2009; Nobili et al., 2009).

Drug	Medical use	Mechanism of action	Source
Aspirin	Analgesic, anti-	Inhibition of	Plant
	inflammatory,	cyclooxygenase	
	antipyretic		
Atropine	Pupil dilator	Antagonistof	Plant
		acetylcholine at	
		muscarinic receptors at	
		post-ganglionic	
		parasympathetic	
		neuroeffector sites	
Caffeine	Stimulant	Adenosine receptor	Plant
0.1:	A 1 '	antagonist	
Codeine	Analgesic,	Opioid receptor agonist	Plant
Digovin	Eor striel fibrillation	Inhibition of the Ne^+/V^+	Dlant
Digoxili	and congestive heart	ATPase membrane	Flain
	failure	nump	
Eugenol	Toothache	Reduces excitability of	Plant
Lugenor	Tootilidelite	sensory nerves	1 funt
Morphine	Analgesic	Opioid receptor agonist	Plant
Pilocarpine	Glaucoma	Muscarinic receptor	Plant
1		agonist	
Quinine	Malaria prophylaxis	Inhibition of protein	Plant
		synthesis in the malarial	
		parasite	
Taxol	Anticancer agent	Antimitotic (binds to and	Plant
		stabilizes microtubules)	
Penicillin	Antibiotic	Inhibition of the	Microbe
		synthesis of cell wall	
		peptidoglycogen	
Tetracycline	Antibiotic	Inhibition of protein	Microbe
		synthesis by binding to	
Cualosporin A	Immunoquinnragant	Inhibition of clonal	Miaraha
Cyclosporiii A	minunosuppressant	proliferation of T	Microbe
		lymphocytes	
Aurantosides	Antifungal	Inhibition of tubulin	Marine
- 101011001000	- murungui	polymerization	organism
Spongistatin 1	Antifungal	Inhibition of tubulin	Marine
1 0	\mathcal{O}^{+}	polymerization	organism
Manoalide	Analgesic, anti-	Inhibition of	Marine
	inflammatory	phospholipase A2	organism

Table 2.1: Drugs developed from natural sources.

(da Rocha et al.,2001)

2.2 Research on Sinularia sp.

Soft corals, or Alcyonacea, are included in the subclass Octacorallia because they have tentacles and internal body divisions in multiples of eight. They belong to the class of Anthozoa of phylum Cnidaria, the stinging-celled animals. They are found in parts of the reef with the greatest current, facing the open ocean. This is due to the fact that soft corals rely on currents to bring them food and oxygen, and carry away their wastes. Soft corals tend to produce smooth mucous coating and it is colonized by bacteria. Some bacteria can be pathogenic and cause disease but some bacteria could serve as beneficial symbionts. However, corals are able to get rid of the bacteria by self cleansing of mucus from their surface (Kelman et al., 2006).

The Genus *Sinularia* is one of the most widely distributed soft coral in the tropical reef. During the past decade, many bioactive metabolites have been reported and it hasyielded many new skeletal structures such as unusual sesquiterpenes, cembranediterpenes and sterols.

To date, not much researches that have been done on the soft coral *Sinularia* sp. although a large variety of natural products is expected from the soft coral.Iguchi et al. (1995) isolated a norditerpenoid, named yonarolide (Figure 2.1) from *Sinularia* sp. Yonarolide has a novel tricycle tetradecane skeleton.



Figure 2.1: Yonarolide isolated from Sinularia sp. by Iguchi et al. (1995).

Anjaneyuluet al. (1997) successfully isolated nine compounds from Sinulariasp. in which four of them (Figure 2.2) are novel diterpenoids having aromadendrane skeleton. This class of diterpenoids was only found once from terrestrial source, *Cneorumtricoccon* and *Neochemaeleapulverulenta*.



 4β -hydroxyl-15–(3-methyl-2butenyl)aromadendr- Δ 10(12)-en



 4β -hydroxyl- 10α -methoxy-15-(3-methyl-2-butenyl)-aromadendrane

H HO H

4α,10α-dihydroxyl-15–(3-methyl-2butenyl)alloromadendrane



4β-hydroxyl-10,12-α–epoxy-15–(3methyl-2-butenyl)-aromadendrane

Figure 2.2: Four novel diterpenoids isolated from *Sinularia* sp. by Anjaneyuluet al. (1997).

Sheuet al. (1999) found a new marine sterol, 7β -hydroperoxy-24methylenecholesterol from *Sinularia* sp. Besides, five known compounds (Figure 2.3) were also isolated. All these six compounds showed significant cytotoxicity activities against P-388 (leukemic cell line), KB, A-549 (human lung adenocarcinoma) and HT-29 (human colon adenocarcinoma) cancerous cell lines.



7β-hydroperoxy-24methylenecholesterol



Sarchophytol A



(Z)-N-[2-(4-hydroxyphenyl)ethyl]-3methyldodec-2-enamide



24-methylenecholesterol



 5α , 7α H-eduesm-11(13)en-4\alpha-ol



 1β -hydroxy- α -cyperone



Sinularioperoxides A-D and sinularianins A (Figure 2.4) found by Chao et al. (2006(a)) and Chao et al. (2006(b)), respectively, are not active against a panel of cancer cell lines, including A549 (human lung adenocarcinoma), HepG2

(human hepatocellular carcinoma), MCF7 and MAD-MB-231 (both human breast carcinoma) cells although cyclic peroxides often exhibit a wide spectrum of biological activities including cytotoxic against cancer cells and antiparasitic activities. Both sinularioperoxides and sinularianins A are sesquiterpenoids. Sinularioperoxides possess a cyclic peroxide and a γ -alkylidene- α -methyl- α , β -unsaturated γ -lactone moieties.While, sinularianins A, possesses a bicyclic skeleton, sinulariolane.SinularianinB found by Chao et al. (2006(b)) has a valerenane skeleton, with a spiro-butenolide moiety, which had been reported to occur in plants. Due to low yield of sinularianins B, the cytotoxicity of this metabolite toward the above cell lines has not been determined.





Sinularioperoxide A

Sinularioperoxide B





Sinularioperoxide C



Sinularianins A

Sinularioperoxide D



Sinularianins B

Figure 2.4: Six compounds isolated from *Sinularia* sp. by Chao et al. (2006).

Sataet al. (1999) reported *Sinularias*p. containsacylatedspermidine derivatives. Bioassay-guided isolation done by Sataet al., yielded an active substance named sinulamide (Figure 2.5), which is an inhibitorof gastric H^+ , K^+ -ATPase.



Figure 2.5: Sinulamide isolated from Sinularia sp. by Sataet al.(1999).

2.2.1 Research on Sinularia dissecta

*S. dissecta*has been found as a rich source of polyhydroxylated steroids by Jin et al. (2005). Of fifteen polyhydroxylated steroids (Figure 2.6), six are C-18 steroids. All the compounds possess 1, 3, 11-trioxygenated nucleus, except compound 6. The nature of side chains of the isolated steroids could be classified into gorgosterol-type (1-3, 7, 8), ergosterol-type (4, 5, 9), and 24methylenecholesterol-type (10-15) derivatives. Compounds 2, 3, and 8 showed weak activity against HL-60 (leukemia cell line) and A-549, while the rest showed no inhibitory activities.



Figure 2.6: Fifteen steroids isolated from Sinulariadissectaby Jin et al.(2005).

Ramesh and Venkateswarlu (1999)isolated five steroids from this species, which include four new polyhydroxy steroids (compounds 1-4) and a novel polyoxygenated epoxy steroid (compound 5) (Figure 2.7). The steroid mixture was acetylated by using an acetic anhydride-pyridine mixture and then the acetylated mixture was separated on a silver nitrate-impregnated silica gel column to obtain those steroids.


1a. 24(S)-methyl-3,6-diacetatecholestan-3β,5α,6β,25-tetrol
1b. 24(S)-methyl-3,6,25-triacetatecholestan-3β,5α,6β,25-tetrol



3a. 24,methylene-1,3,6,11-tetraacetatecholestan-1β,3β,5α,6β,11α-pentol



2a. 1,3,6,11-tetraacetate-cholestan- 1β ,3 β ,5 α ,6 β ,11 α -pentol



4a. 24,methylene-1,3,6,11-tetraacetatecholestan-1β,3β,5α,6α,11α-pentol



5a. 24(R)-methyl-11 α , 12 α -epoxy-1, 3, 6 triacetate-cholestan-1 α , 3 β , 6 β -triol



18

Ramesh et al. (1999) also isolated a homogeneous mixture of α -keto-2methylene- β -alanine methyl esters and 4, 5-seco-african-4, 5-dione from *S*. *dissecta*. The mixture of α -keto-2-methylene- β -alanine methyl estersshowed mild activity against brine shrimp assay. Although 4, 5-seco-african-4, 5-dione was previously isolated from the plant *Lippiaintegrifolia*, but it wasisolated from marine source for the first time. The bioactivity of the compound was not reported.



 α -keto-2-methylene- β alaninemethyl esters

4,5-seco-african-4,5-dione

Figure 2.8: Two compounds isolated from *Sinulariadissecta*by Ramesh et al.(1999).

Rameswaralide, a novel diterpene possessed a 5-7-6 tricyclic skeleton was isolated from *S.dissecta* (Ramesh et al., 1998). A single isomer, dihydrorameswaralide was formed by selective reduction of enolic group with NaBH4. Three new diterpenes, furanocembranediester, mandapamate and isomandapamate (Figure 2.9) were also isolated.



Rameswaralide

Dihydrorameswaralide





Mandapamate

Isomandapamate



Furanocembranediester



2.2.2 Research on Sinularia flexibilis

Yu et al. (2006) identified four new sterols 5α , 8α -epidioxygorgosta-6-en-3 β -ol(1), 5α , 8α -epidioxygorgosta-6, 9(11)-dien-3 β -ol(2), 22α , 28α -epidioxycholesta-5,23(*E*)-dien-3 β -ol(3) and its C-22 epimer (4), along with nine known sterols (Figure 2.10) from S. *flexibilis*, however the bioactivities of these compounds are yet to be explored.



5,8-epidioxy-24-methylcholesta-6-5. 11. 4(28)-dien-3β-ol ergosterol peroxide 6. 7. 5,8-epidioxy-24-methylcholesta-6en-3_β-ol 5,8-epidioxy-23,24-methylene-24-8. methylcholesta-6-en-3β-ol 5,8-epidioxy-23,24-9. dimethylcholesta-6,22dien-3β-ol 10. 5,8-epidioxy-24-methylcholesta-

6,9(11),24(28)-trien-3β-ol

11. 5,8-epidioxy-24-methylcholesta-6,9(11),22-trien- 3β -ol

12. 24-methylcholesta-5,24(28)-dien- 3β -ol

13. 24-methylcholesta-5,24(28)-diene-3,7-diol

Figure 2.10: Thirteen sterols isolated from *Sinulariaflexibilis*by Yu et al. (2006).

S. *flexibilis* is a rich source of cembranoidditerpene.Duh et al. (1998) isolated a novel cytotoxic biscembranoidditerpene, sinuflexin(Figure 2.11) from *S.flexibilis*, which exhibited cytotoxicity against P-388 (leukemic cell line) with ED_{50} of 1.32 µg/mL.



Sinuflexin

Figure 2.11: Biscembranoidditerpene isolatedfrom *Sinulariaflexibilis* by Duh et al. (1998).

2.3 Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing Methods

Antimicrobial activity of a compound can be detected by observing the growth response of the microbes to samples that are placed in contact with them. Several *in vitro*antimicrobial susceptibility testing methods can be performed to detect the antimicrobial activity, the most common being disk diffusion, agar dilution, broth macrodilution and broth microdilution and bio-autography.

2.3.1 Disc Diffusion Method

The antimicrobial activity of different extracts and pure compounds can be measured using numerous *in vitro*assays, but discdiffusion methodremains the most commonly used method. It is based on the measurement of zones of growth inhibition from the effect of known concentrations of an antimicrobial agent diffuse from impregnated discs onto an agar plate, which has previously been inoculated with the test organism. The result obtained provides information whether the organism is sensitive, intermediate or resistant to the antimicrobial agent after suitable incubation period (McGrillet al., 2009). This method is technically easy to perform, relatively inexpensive, reproducible, and the drug combinations can be changed easily (Lestari et al., 2008).

2.3.2 Broth Dilution Method

Broth macrodilution andmicrodilution methods are recommended by Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute (CLSI) for minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) determination (NCCLS, 2003).Broth dilution is a method in which a predetermined concentration of suspension of bacterium is tested against varying concentrations of an antimicrobial agent in a liquid medium. The broth macrodilution method is performed in tubes containing a minimum volume of 2 mL while microdilutionis performed in smaller volumes using microtitration plates. It is usually performed as serial dilution. Broth dilution method is a more complicated and expensive method compared with discdiffusion method but it is useful to quantify antimicrobial activity of various extracts for comparative purposes (Teffoet al., 2010). Besides, this method can avoid the problems associated with agar diffusion techniques, for example difficulties in diffusion of non-polar extracts through an aqueous agar matrix (Eloffet al., 2008). The use of microplates also allows various concentrations to be assessed in the same time. The MIC could be assessed either spectrophotometrically or with the aid of colorimetric growth indicator, the indicator commonly used are p-Iodonitrotetrazolium violet or resazurin (Eloff et al., 2007;Liu et al., 2007).

2.3.3 Bio-autography Method

Three approaches are used in bio-autographic method: (a) direct bioautography in which the microorganism grow directly on the thin layer chromatographic (TLC) plate, (b) contact bio-autography in which the antimicrobial compounds are transferred from TLC plate onto an agar plate which contains the microorganism, (c) agar-overlay bio-autography in which the TLC plate places directly onto an agar plate which contains the microorganism (Cos et al., 2006). This method is useful in detecting the number of bioactive compounds present in an extract. However, this method is problematic with fungi as fungi grow more slowly than bacteria and thus it increases the contamination rate (Eloff et al., 2008).

2.4 Fungi

Fungi are eukaryotic microorganisms which include yeast, mould and dimorphism.Dimorphic fungi are fungi which can grow as a mould or as yeast (Gerard et al., 2012). Fungi are ubiquitous in the environment, and infection due to fungal pathogens has become more frequent. Fungal diseases can be divided clinically into superficial mycoses, subcutananeous mycoses, systemic mycoses and opportunistic mycoses. Clinically, candidiasis, aspergillosis and cryptococcosis are the three major infections in the immune-compromised patients.

2.4.1 Cryptococcus neoformans

Cryptococcus neoformans is a fungal pathogen and the causative agent of cryptococcosis. This organism produces a unique capsule which is a complex polymer, the major component of the capsule mass is glucuronoxylomannan (Heiss et al., 2009). Pigeon droppings and soil contaminated with fecal material are considered the reservoir of *C. neoformans* in nature. The primary disease caused by *C. neoformans* is chronic meningitis. The onset is slow, with a low-grade fever and headache progressing to altered mental state. Most patients are immune compromised, although some show no immune defect. This fungus is found throughout the world. The disease is transmitted through inhalation of the yeast cells. It is the most common fungal infection seen in acquired

immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS) (Mader 2010). *C. neoformans* also causes infections in a wide range of domestic and wild animals, for example, cryptococcosis is the most common fungal disease in cats (Jacobs and Medleau, 1998).

2.4.2 CandidaSpecies

*Candida albicans*exists in the yeast form as normal flora but becomes invasive in the filamentous form.Infection caused by*Candida* sp. is referred to as candidiasis and is the most common cause of opportunistic mycoses worldwide. *Candida* sp. is a normal inhabitant of human gastrointestinal and genital tract. *Candida* infection is a common disease of lower genital tract in women, young age, pre-menopausal status, use of oral contraceptives, and history of diabetes are associated with an increased risk (Parazziniet al., 2000). Besides, colonization of the mouth by *Candida* sp. has also been well known since the age of Hippocrates, isolated from various oral sites including tongue, cheek and palatal mucosa, and from dental plaque, dental caries, and the subgingival flora. Some have important roles in the development of oral and dental diseases (Senet al., 1997).

2.4.3Aspergillusniger

The genus of *Aspergillus* is moulds which arewidespread in the environment, being found in the soil, in the air, on plants and on decomposing

organic matter. *Aspergillus* sp. is also opportunistic pathogens that cause aspergillosis especially in immune-compromised patients. Besides, otomycosis is another fungal infection caused by *Aspergillus* sp. particularlyby *A. fumigatus*, *A. niger* and *A. flavus*. Otomycosis or fungal otitis external is described as fungal infection of the external auditory canal with infrequent complications involving the middle ear. Although otomycosisrarely life-threatening, but the disease requires long term treatment and follow-up, yet the recurrence rate remains high. This infection distributes worldwide but it is more common in tropical and subtropical regions and occurs in adults of both sexes but children are less commonly affected (Aktas and Yigit2009).

2.4.4 Trichophytonmentagrophytes

Epidermophyton, Microsporum and *Trichophyton* are the three genera of dermatophytes that affect keratinous tissue of humans and of other vertebrates, causing superficial infections (Karaca and Koc 2004). These fungi are highly adapted to the non-living, keratinized tissues of nail, hair and the stratum corneum of the skin. Production of keratinase allows dermatophytes to digest keratin in skin, nail and hairs. Dermatophytoses are slowly progressive eruptions of the skin and its appendages which are not painful or life-threatening, but typically involve induration, itching, erythema and scaling. Dermatophytoses are common skin infections in domestic animals, especially dogs and cats. The transmission of dermatophytes to humans from dogs and cats usually occurs through direct

contact or indirectly through fungus-bearing hair and scales from infected animals (Ateset al., 2008).

2.5 Bacteria

Bacteria are a large group of unicellular, prokaryotemicroorganisms. They are classified based on their cell wall characterization by Gram staining method. Gram staining methods are designed to make a staining agent binds to the bacteria's cell wall. The classification is largely based on the difference of cell wall structure. Gram-positive bacteria are classified as bacteria that retain a crystal violet dye during the Gram stain process and will appear blue or violet under microscope, whereas Gram-negative bacteria will appear red or pink (Mader 2010).

2.5.1 Staphylococcusaureus

Staphylococcus aureus is a Gram-positive, spherical bacterium. S. aureus frequently lives as commensal on human skin or in the nose of a healthy person. It also occurs in the throat and less commonly, may be found in the colon and urine. The most common infections are those of the skin and soft tissues, including cellulitis, impetigo and soft tissue abscesses. S. aureus also the most common cause of bone and joint infections such as acute and vertebral osteomyelitis. The bacterial infection is also the cause of morbidity and mortality in renal patients aleading cause ofhaemodialysis related bacteraemia (Casey et al., 2007; Rowe et al., 2002).

2.5.2Bacillus cereus

Bacillus cereus is a Gram-positive, aerobic, rod-shaped bacterium.It is commonly found in soil with low nutrient requirement. *B. cereus* is a common food poisoning organism; it can cause two types of food poisoning: a diarrheal type which is associated with consumption of contaminated milk product, meat and vegetables. While the emetic type is due to the consumption of contaminated rice and pasta.It is known to create heavy nausea, vomiting, and abdominal pain. These foodborne illnesses occur due to survival of the *B. cereus* spores. It is an opportunistic pathogen that caused variety of infections, such as endophthalmitis, bacteremia, septicemia, endocarditis, salpingitis, cutaenous infections, pneumonia and meningitis in immunocompromised patients (Kotirantaet al., 2000; Rasko et al.,2005).

2.5.3Pseudomonas aeruginosa

Pseudomonas aeruginosa is a Gram-negative, aerobic, rod-shaped, and glucose-nonfermentativebacterium. It typically infects the pulmonary tract, urinary tract, burns, wounds, and also causes other blood infections. It is also one of the most prevalent pathogens in nosocomial pneumonia (Fujimura et

al.,2009).

2.5.4Escherichia coli

*Escherichia coli*is a Gram-negative, aerobic and facultative anaerobic, non-spore-forming, rod-shaped bacterium. It generally causes several intestinal and extra-intestinal infections such as urinary tract infections, meningitis, peritonitis, mastitis, septicemia and pneumonia(Madigan and Martinko 2006).

2.5.5Klebsiellapneumoniae

K. pneumoniae is a Gram-negative, lactosefermenting, facultative anaerobic, rod shaped bacterium distributed widely in the natural environment. It is also found in the normal flora of the skin, and intestines (Legakis et al., 1995). *K. pneumoniae* is an opportunistic pathogen that infects immune-compromised and immune-suppressed patients. Besides, these bacterial infections can also lead to human urinary or respiratory tractinfections (Huang et al., 2009).

2.6PhotodynamicTherapy

Cancer is a disease in which involves with changes or mutations in the genomes of cells. It causes a group of cells grow uncontrollably regardless the normal processes of cell division. There are two groups of factors result cancer:

external factors in the environment (chemical, tobacco, radiation and infectious microorganisms) and factors within the cell (hormones, mutations and immune condition) (Reddy et al., 2003).



Figure 2.12: Principle of photodynamic treatment (Plaetzer et al., 2003).

Among the established treatments used by clinicians in the treatment of cancer, photodynamic therapy (PDT) is a promising new form of treatment against a variety of tumors and non-oncological disorders. In PDT treatment, photosensitizer, light of appropriate wavelength and molecular oxygen are the three main components. It involves the selective uptake of the photosensitizer into the cytoplasm of the cells and followed by the activation by irradiation of light with appropriate wavelength. The activated sensitizer then exchanges an electron or hydrogen atom with a nearby molecule to produce reactive oxygen species (ROS, type I photochemical reaction) or transfer energy to adjacent molecules yielding singlet-oxygen (type II photochemical reaction). These reactive species induce cellular damage or lead to cell death via apoptosis or necrosis (Buytaert et al., 2007;Chio-Srichan et al., 2008;Plaetzer et al., 2003).

CHAPTER 3.0

MATERIAL AND METHODS

3.1 Sample Collection and Extraction

The chemicals used were:

Hexane (Merck, AR grade), diethyl ether (Merck, AR grade), chloroform (Merck, AR grade), ethyl acetate (Merck, AR grade), acetone (Merck, AR grade), methanol (Merck, AR grade)

*Sinularias*p. was collected from Tanjung Tuan Port Dickson, Negeri Sembilan on four different days, 13th May 2008, 28th April 2009, 12th December 2009 and 13th April 2012. The specimens were washed thoroughly with sea water to remove soil and debris and it was kept in the ice box while on the way to the laboratory. They were later frozen immediately and stored.

The soft coral was thawed before extraction was carried out, they were cut into small pieces and subjected to freeze drying (Model: Martin Christ, Alpha 1-4, LD plus). 1.58kg of lyophilized sample was blended into a fine powder.Lyophilized samples of *Sinularia* sp. were subjected to sequential extraction using organic solvents of increasing polarities, i.e. hexane (0), diethyl ether (2.8), chloroform (4.1), ethyl acetate (4.4), acetone (5.1), methanol (5.1) and water (9) at a ratio of 1g: 10mL. The sample was immersed in hexane and left on an orbital shaker (Model: IKA) at 120 rpm overnight. The extract was filtered with Whatman 542 filter paper. The filtrates were kept while the sample was added with hexane again and shook for another night. The steps were repeated two to three times and continued with the next solvent. The steps were monitored by thin layer chromatography. The extracts collected were concentrated under vacuum by rotary evaporator (Model: BuchiRotavapor R-200) to remove the solvent and further dried using a vacuum concentrator. The seven different extracts were screened for their cytotoxicity, antibacterial and antifungal activities.

3.2 Microbial Susceptibility Testing

Principle:

The antimicrobial activity of compounds can be assessed by observing the growth response of the microbes that are in contact with them. Several *invitro* susceptibility testsmay be used for detecting antimicrobial activity, the most common being disk diffusion, agar dilution, broth macrodilution and broth microdilution and bio-autographic.

A colorimetric broth microdilution method was used in solvent toxicity testing, antibacterial and antifungal assays. Broth microdilution allows varied concentrations to be assessed at the same time on the same microplate(Liu *et al.*,

2007). This avoids the problems associated with agar diffusion techniques, for example difficulty in the diffusion of non-polar extracts through an aqueous agar matrix (Eloff*et al.*, 2008). The MIC value could also be quantified easily either spectrophotometrically or with the aid of a colorimetric growth indicator (Liu *et al.*, 2007).

Procedures:

The test was performed on sterile and untreated 96 U-bottom well plate. It was performed as serial two-fold dilutions, performed by removing 50μ L of contents from wells in the second column and transferring these to the wells in the third column. Serial dilution was repeated until the eleventh column was reached. *p*-Iodonitrotetrazolium violet (INT) was used as the growth indicator in the assay. The MIC was defined as the lowest concentration of solvent/ extract/ fraction in which there was no microbial growth, indicated by the absence of colour change. The total activity (mL) of each fraction was calculated as the total mass (mg) of the extract divided by the MIC value (mg/mL). The total activity value indicates the volume to which an extract or a fraction derived from 1g of sample material can be diluted and still inhibits the growth of microbial cells (Eloff, 2004).

3.2.1 Sample Extract Preparation

Methanol (Merck, HPLC grade).

Procedures:

20mg of each dried extract was dissolved in 1 mL of methanol and water mixture (2:1, v/v). The sample was filter-sterilized using a 0.2 μ m nylon syringe filter.

3.2.2 Growth Indicator Preparation

The chemical used was *p*-iodonitrotetrazolium violet (Sigma Aldrich).

Procedures:

The *p*-iodonitrotetrazolium violet (INT) solution was prepared by dissolving 40 mg of INT in 100 mL of distilled water and further sterilized by using 0.2 μ m nylon syringe filter and stored at 4°C until required.

3.2.3Antibacterial Testing

The antibacterial test wasperformed on 96 well plates. The layout of the plate is shown in Figure 3.1. 100 μ L of broth medium was added to sterility control wells to ensure the sterility of the broth medium. 75 μ L of broth medium and 25 μ L of each extract were added to negative control wells to ascertain sterility of each extract. The viability of the microbes was assessed by adding 50 μ L of the tested microbes to 50 μ L of the broth medium in the growth control wells. For antibacterial testing and drug control, 50 μ L of broth medium was

added from column 2 to column 11, then 50 μ L of drug was added to well H2 while 50 μ L of each extract tested was added to the respective wells of A2 to G2, after which a serial two fold dilution was performed from columns 2 to 11 followed by adding 50 μ L of the bacterial inocula. The plates were incubated for 24 h, after which 20 μ L of the *p*- iodonitrotetrazolium violet (INT) indicator was added to determine the MIC value of each extract towards the bacteria.



Figure 3.1: Design of the 96- well microplate for antibacterial testing.

3.2.3.1 Bacterial Strains

Both Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria were used in the study. The Gram-positive bacteria were *Staphylococcus aureus* (ATCC 29213) and *Bacillus cereus* (ATCC 11778). The Gram-negative bacteria were *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (ATCC 27853), *Klebsiellapneumoniae*(ATCC 13883), *Escherichia coli*- penicillin sensitive strain (ATCC 25922) and *E. coli*-penicillin resistant strain (ATCC 35218).

3.2.3.2 BacterialInocula Preparation

The chemicals used were:

Mueller-Hinton Agar(Oxoid), Mueller-Hinton Broth(Oxoid)

Procedures:

The bacteria were cultured using Mueller-Hinton agar at 37 °C, incubation times were between 18 to 24 h. Mueller-Hinton Broth (MHB) was used as the broth medium and the concentrations of bacteria inocula were adjusted and measured using UV-Vis spectrophotometer set at 625 nm. A few colonies of bacteria were transferred to MHB and the optical density of the bacteria inoculum

was adjusted to fall between 0.08 to 0.10 absorbance units, where the concentration of bacteria is 1×10^8 CFU/mL. The dilution was carried out to obtain a final concentration of 1×10^6 CFU/mL.

3.2.3.3 Chloramphenicol Preparation

The chemical used was Chloramphenicol (Oxoid).

Procedures:

Chloramphenicol was dissolved in distilled water to concentration of 512 μ g/mL and sterilized by filtration through a 0.2 μ m syringe filter. The concentration rangeused as the positive control was between 0.25 to 128 μ g/mL.

3.2.3.4 Broth Medium Preparation

The chemical used was MHB powder (Oxoid).

Procedures:

10.5 g of MHB powder was dissolved in 500 mL distilled water. The medium was sterilized by autoclaving at 121 °C for 15 min.

3.2.4 Antifungal Testing

The antifungal test wasperformed using 96 well plates. The layout of the plate is illustrated in Figure 3.2. 100 μ L of broth medium was added to sterility control wells to ensure the sterility of the broth medium. 75 μ L of broth medium and 25 μ L of each extract were added to negative control wells to check the sterility of each extract. Besides, the viability of the fungi was assessed by adding 50 μ L of the tested fungi to 50 μ L of the broth medium in the growth control wells. For the antifungal testing and drug control, 50 μ L of broth medium was added from column 2 to column 11, after which 50 μ L of drug was added to well H2 while 50 μ L of each extract tested was added to the respective wells of A2 to G2, followed by a serial two-fold dilution was performed from column 2 to 11 followed by adding 50 μ L of the fungal inocula. The plates were incubated accordingly to the incubation time of each fungus and lastly 20 μ L of the *p*-iodonitrotetrazolium violet (INT) indicator was added to determine the MIC value of each extract.



Figure 3.2: Design of the 96-well microplate for antifungal testing.

3.2.4.1 Fungal Strains

The yeast species used were *Candida albicans* (ATCC 90028), *Candida parapsilosis* (ATCC 22019) and *Cryptococcus neoformans*(ATCC 90112). The

mouldsspecies used were *Aspergillusniger* (ATCC 16404) and *Trichophytonmentagrophytes* (ATCC 9533).

3.2.4.2 Fungal Inocula Preparation

The chemicals used were:

Potato dextrose agar(Merck),RPMI-1640 with L-glutamine, without bicarbonate (Sigma Aldrich), 3-(N-morpholino) propanesulfonic acid (Merck)

Procedures:

The fungi were cultured using potato dextrose agar. Different incubation times were required for different species of fungus. *Candida* species was incubated for 24h while *C. neoformans* and *A. niger*were incubated for 48h. A 120h incubation period was used for *T. mentagrophytes*. RPMI-1640 with L-glutamine, without bicarbonate and 3-(N-morpholino) propanesulfonic acid at pH 7 was used as the broth medium. Similar to bacterial inocula, fungalinocula were prepared by transferring a few colonies of fungi to the medium broth. The concentrations of fungalinocula were adjusted by its optical density using a UV-Vis spectrophotometer set at 530 nm. The absorbance of inocula of *Candida* species and *C. neoformans*were adjusted within the range of 0.12 to 0.15, while the absorbance of inocula of *A. niger* and *T. mentagrophytes*were adjusted within the range of 0.09 to 0.11, whereby the concentration of fungi was 1-5 x 10^6 CFU/mL.Dilution was carried out to obtain a final concentration of fungal

inocula, *Candida* species at 0.5-2.5 x 10^3 CFU/mL, *C. neoformans*at 0.5-2.5 x 10^4 CFU/mL and *A. niger* and *T. mentagrophytes* at 0.5-2.5 x 10^5 CFU/mL.

3.2.4.3 Fluconazole Preparation

The chemicals used were:

Fluconazole (Merck), Dimethyl sulfoxide (Merck)

Procedures:

Fluconazole (Merck)was dissolved in dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) to a concentration of 6.4mg/mL. This was further diluted to a ratio of 1:50 in broth mediumand sterilized by filtration through a 0.2 μ m filter. The concentrations tested were between 0.63 to 32 μ g/mL.

3.2.4.4 Broth Medium Preparation

The chemicals used were:

RPMI-1640 medium supplemented with glutamine and phenol red (Sigma Aldrich), 3-(N-morpholino) propanesulfonic acid (MOPS) (Merck)

Procedures:

One liter of the broth medium was prepared as follows: 20.8 g of RPMI-1640 medium supplemented with glutamine and phenol red, without bicarbonate, 69.06 g of 3-(N-morpholino) propanesulfonic acid (MOPS) were dissolved in 800mL distilled water, adjusting the pH to 7.0 at 25°C with 1 mol/L sodium hydroxide solution. Water was added to make up the final volume to 1 L.The medium was filtered-sterilized and stored at 4°C.

3.3 Solvent Toxicity Testing

The solvents used were:

Hexane (Merck, HPLC grade), diethyl ether (Merck, HPLC grade), chloroform (Merck, HPLC grade), ethyl acetate (Merck, HPLC grade), methanol (Merck, HPLC grade), dimethyl sulfoxide (Merck, AR grade), ethanol (Merck, HPLC grade), butanol (Merck, HPLC grade), dichoromethane (Merck, HPLC grade), acetone (Merck, HPLC grade)

Procedures:

Solvent toxicity test was performed to investigate the toxicity of ten different organic solvents (hexane, diethyl ether, chloroform, ethyl acetate, methanol, dimethyl sulfoxide, ethanol, butanol, dichloromethane and acetone) towards fungi and bacteria. The concentrations of the solvent used varied from 0.05 to 25% (v/v). Chloramphenicol was used as positive control in antibacterial assay and fluconazole was used in antifungal assay.

The tests were performed on 96 well plates and the design of the plate was

arranged as in Figure 3.3. 100 μ L of broth medium was added to the sterility control wells to check the sterility of the broth medium. 75 μ L of broth medium and 25 μ L of each selected solvent were added to negative control wells to check the sterility of each solvent. The viability of the microbes was assessed by adding 50 μ L of the tested microbes to 50 μ L of the broth medium to the growth control wells. For solvents testing and drug control wells, 50 μ L of broth medium was added from column 2 to column 11, followed by 50 µL of drug was added to well H2 while 50 µL of each solvent tested was added to the respective wells of A2 to G2. Serial two fold dilution was then performed from column 2 to 11 followed by adding 50 µL of the microbial inocula. The plates for bacterial inocula were incubated at 37 °C for 24 h. The plates for Candida species were incubated for 24h while C. neoformans and A. nigerwere incubated for 48h. A 120h incubation period was used for T. mentagrophytes. All the plates for fungal inocula were incubated at 37 °C. Finally 20 µL of the *p*-iodonitrotetrazolium violet (INT) indicator was added and MIC value was determined.



Figure 3.3: Design of the 96- well plate for solvent toxicity testing.

3.4 Photo-toxicity Assay

The chemicals used were:

3-[4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl]-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide (MTT) (Sigma Aldrich), dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) (Sigma Aldrich, HPLC grade)

Principle:

A microculturetetrazolium assay using MTT salt (3-[4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl]-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide) was developed by Mossman (1983) for rapid cytotoxic screening. The reduction of MTT into its formazan product is catalyzed by mitochondrial dehydrogenases which are active in living cells. The amount of formazan formed is directly proportional to the number of living cells and the amount is quantified spectrophotometrically at 550nm (Young et al., 2005).

2NADH 2NAD⁺

Insoluble formazan Soluble MTT salt dehydrogenases (dark purple crystal) (Yellow solution)

Figure 3.4: Principle of the MTT assay. The reduction of MTT into its formazan product is catalyzed by mitochondrial dehydrogenases.

Procedure:

The MTT test was performed in sterile, untreated 96 flat-bottom well plates. Sterility controls, positive controls, negative controls and growth controls were included. The seven extracts were dissolved inDMSO and the stock concentration was 100 mg/mL. The working stocks were vortexed and diluted to 40 mg/mL with RPMI medium without phenol red prior to addition to the cell suspension. 50 mL of the cells (approx. 15,000 cells/well) was added to each well, followed by 50 μ L of the extracts. The plate was subjected to light irradiation for 10min at 9.6 J/cm after 2h of incubation. After 24h incubation, 20 μ L of MTT solution at 5 mg/mL was added to each well and left for another 4 h for crystal formation. 75 μ L of supernatant was removed and 100 μ L of DMSO was added and mixed thoroughly to dissolve the purple coloured crystal. The absorbance of the wells was read immediately on a microplate reader at a wavelength of 570 nm. The average absorbance was calculated and used to determine the percentage of cell viability using the formula:

Cell viability (%) =
$$\frac{S(average) - B(average)}{A(average) - B(average)} \times 100$$

Where, S = Absorbance of the cells treated with extract

A = Absorbance of the cells without extract

B = Absorbance of the medium only

3.4.1 Preparation of Cell Line

The chemicals used were:

Roswell Park Memorial Institute (RPMI) 1640 medium supplemented with 1% (v/v) L-glutamine and 10% (v/v) Fetal Bovine Serum (Gibco®), HL 60 cell line (NCI).

Procedures:

A promylocytic leukemia cell line HL 60 was obtained from National Cancer Institute, Maryland, USA. The cells were maintained in the Roswell Park Memorial Institute (RPMI) 1640 supplemented with 1% (v/v) L-glutamine and 10% (v/v) Fetal Bovine Serum (Gibco) at 37 °C and 5% CO₂atmosphere.

3.4.2 Photosensitizer Preparation

The chemicals used were:

Pheophorbide-A (Pha) (Frontier Scientific), dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) (Sigma Aldrich, HPLC grade)

Procedures:

Pheophorbide-A (Pha) (Frontier Scientific), a commercially available photo-cytotoxic compound was dissolved in DMSO to a concentration of 1mg/mL. The stock solution was kept at -20 °C in the dark. It was directly diluted in medium to obtain the desired initial working concentration at 20 μ g/mL.

3.4.3 Isolation of Active Photo-cytotoxic Compounds

The chemicals used were:

Silica gel 230-400 mesh (Merck), hexane (Merck, HPLC grade), ethyl acetate (Merck, HPLC grade)

Procedures:

Activity-guided fractionation was performed on active chloroform extract. It was subjected to silica gel flash chromatography fitted with a 40 x 150 mm silica cartridge which was packed with silica gel 230-400 mesh. The column was eluted with five mobile phases (Table 3.1). Fractions of 50 mL each were collected and monitored by thin layer chromatography (TLC). Fractions with similar TLC patterns were combined and screened for photo-cytotoxicity activity. To avoid the active compounds being degraded by light, the procedure was performed under dim light.

Number of	Solvents used in mobile phases	Volume of the mobile phases	Number of fraction
mobile	I	<u>r</u>	collected
phases			
1	100% Hexane	50mL	1-2
2	90% Hexane: 10% Ethyl acetate	50mL	3-5
3	80% Hexane: 20% Ethyl acetate	50mL	6-9
4	70% Hexane: 30% Ethyl acetate	50mL	10-12
5	50% Hexane: 50% Ethyl acetate	100mL	13-15

 Table 3.1: Mobile phases used in the isolation of active photo-toxicity chloroform extract.

3.5Isolation and Identification of Antifungal Compounds

Principle:

Ion exchange chromatography is a type of column chromatography performed by solid-liquid partition using the principle of ion charge. The charge of ionic resin was used to separate classes of components by differential adsorption between the stationary phase and the mobile phase.

In the study, flash chromatography was used to separate the compounds. It

is a very convenient and fast technique compared to conventional column chromatography. Briefly, a column is dry filled with silica gel, a sample is introduced, and then solvent is forced through the column under pressure. As the hexane extract is oily, a modified flash chromatography using silica gel impregnated with 1 % of silver nitrate as reported by Li et al. (2005) was used.

The chemicals used were:

Silica gel 230-400 mesh (Merck), preparative thin layer chromatography, silver nitrate, hexane (Merck, HPLC grade), ethyl acetate (Merck, HPLC grade)

Procedures:

The silica gel mixture was prepared by mixing 100 g silica gel (230-400mesh ASTM) with an aqueous solution of 11 g of silver nitrate dissolved in 60 mL of distilled water. The mixture was ground and then dried in oven for overnightat 70 °C. The dimension of the column used was 80mm x 150mm. The column was eluted first with nine mobile phases (Table 3.2). 200 mL fractions were collected and monitored by gas chromatography mass spectrometry (GCMS). Fractions with similar TIC patterns were combined and screened for antifungal activity.

Number of mobile phases	Solvents used in mobile phases	Volume of the mobile phases	Number of fraction collected
1	100% Hexane	200mL	1-5
2	98% Hexane: 2% Ethyl acetate	200mL	6-10
3	96% Hexane: 4% Ethyl	200mL	11-15
4	acetate 94% Hexane: 6% Ethyl acetate	200mL	16-19
5	92% Hexane: 8% Ethyl	200mL	20-24
6	acetate 90% Hexane: 10% Ethyl acetate	200mL	25-28
7	85% Hexane: 15% Ethyl	200mL	29-34
8	acetate 80% Hexane: 20% Ethyl acetate	200mL	35-40
9	100% Ethyl acetate	200mL	41-42

 Table 3.2: Mobile phases used in the isolation of active antifungal hexane extract.

The active fraction AgN27 (fraction 18-23) was further isolated using preparative thin layer chromatography to yield fraction AgN27-1. The fraction was developed with the solvent system hexane:ethyl acetate (80:20, v/v) to yield the isolated compound, fuscol.

3.5.1 Gas Chromatography Mass SpectrometryAnalysis

The chemical used was methanol (Merck, GC grade).

Procedures:

GC-MS is a chromatographic technique to identify the volatile compounds of a sample. The sample was dissolved in methanol, followed by filtration using 0.45 µm syringe filter prior to injection into GCMS. GCMS analysis was performed on an Agilent Technologies 6890N GC System equipped with Agilent Technologies 5975 inert Mass Selective Detector (70 eV direct inlet) on fused silica capillary column HP–5ms (30 m, ID 0.25 mm, 0.25 µm film thickness) with helium as carrier gas at a flow rate of 1 mL/min. The column temperature was programmed initially at 100°C, then increased 5°C min⁻¹ to 300°C and was kept isothermally for 10min.The total ion chromatogram obtained was auto integrated by Chemstation and the constituents were identified by comparison with published mass spectra databases (Wiley 9N Mass Spectral Library).
3.5.2¹H Nuclear Magnetic Resonance and ¹³C Nuclear Magnetic Resonance Spectroscopic Analysis on the Isolated Antifungal Compound

The chemical used was deuterated methanol D4.

Procedures:

The isolated antifungal compound was air dried and dissolved in deuterated methanol D4. The solution was then transferred to a NMR tube (Norell, 400 MHz) to a height of 4 cm. The compound was subjected to¹H nuclearmagnetic resonance (NMR) and ¹³C NMR (Model: Bruker, JOEL, Japan, 270 MHz) for structural elucidation.

CHAPTER 4.0

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Collection of *Sinulariasp.*

The soft coral, *Sinularias*p., was collected from Tanjung Tuan PortDickson, Malaysia. The site offers a combination of high biological diversity and density of marine organisms including algae, sponges, mollusks, corals and fishes. After collection of sample, it was rinsed with sea water and kept in an ice box immediately. It is because the sample might die upon the exposure to air and rapidly decompose and cause the compounds present in the sample rapidly degraded by oxidative, enzymatic, or polymerization process. This will also lower the overall yield. After it was sent to the laboratory, immediate storage in the freezer was necessary to inactivate the enzymatic activity and reduce the possible degradation.

Freeze drying was chosen to prepare the sample instead of air drying. It eliminates water molecules and prevents the potential active constituents altered or lost. Many marine organisms including *Sinularia* sp. contain significant quantities of water and often cause the extracts contain surface active agents which will initiate foaming and bubbling during the concentration process by rotary evaporator. The hardening of the sample simplified the crushing work of corals and allowed for easier breakage of the cell, which would then release the substances present. Pounding the samples into powder form allows a larger surface area exposed to a solvent for more efficient extraction. The dry weights of sample which were collected on four different days are shown in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Dry weights of *Sinularia* sp. collected on four different days.

Date of sample collection	Dry weight of sample
13 th May 2008	430 g
28 th April 2009	290 g
12 th December 2009	465 g
13 th April 2012	395 g

4.2 Sequential Extraction of Sinularia sp.

Compounds active in antimicrobial and cytotoxic tests, are expected to be of low solvent polarity. However, the sample was extracted sequentially using seven solvents, ranged from non-polar to polar, i.e. hexane, diethyl ether, chloroform, ethyl acetate, acetone, methanol and finally water. The use of solvents of ranging polarities permits better discrimination between extracts that show bioactivity (Cos et al., 2006). 1.58 kg of freeze dried sample was extracted in the same solvent for 2-3 times and the extract was analysed by TLC to ensure complete extraction of the compounds with solvent of same polarity.

The yield of the extracts for each solvent and the colour of the extracts are summarized in Table 4.2.

Solvent	Yield (g)	Colour of the extracts
Hexane	25.870	Dark brown
Diethyl ether	23.582	Dark brown
Chloroform	3.860	Brown
Ethyl acetate	0.0317	Green
Acetone	0.577	Light green
Methanol	43.436	Light green
Water	60.949	Green
Total	158.306	

Table 4.2: Yield of seven extracts from 1.58 kg of dried sample of Sinularia sp.

4.3Solvent Toxicity

It is often necessary to dissolve natural compounds in organic solvents as some compounds have limited solubility in water. While it is desirable to use solvents that are non-toxic to the microorganisms used for bioassays, but there is no standard method for defining the most suitable solvent or the optimal solvent concentration to be used. Hence, a suitable method must be employed to determine the conditions that result in the lowest degree of toxicity on the microorganisms used for bioassays as some solvents may affect biological membranes of the microbes (Sikkemaet al., 1995).

For this purpose, a colorimetric broth microdilution assay was performed, using *p*-iodonitrotetrazolium violet (INT) as the growth indicator. The inhibition was indicated by the lack of colour change while microbial growth was indicated by a colour change to red. The concentrations of solvent tested were varied from 0.05 to 25%. Among the 10 solvents tested, only DMSO exhibited some degree of inhibitory activity (Table 4.3).*K. pneumoniae*was the strain that was least sensitive to DMSO, with an MIC value of 25% while *E. coli*, penicillin-resistant strain, was the most sensitive towards DMSO, with MIC value of 6.25%. The susceptibility of *S. aureus*, *B. cereus*, *P. aeruginosa* and *E. coli* (penicillin-sensitive strain) towards DMSO was approximately equal, with MIC values of 12.5%. Gram-positive bacteria appear to be more sensitive than Gram-negative bacteria towards DMSO. This could be due to the lack of the outer membrane which acts as a barrier against hydrophobic molecules (Denyer andMaillard, 2002).

The effects of organic solvents on fungi were also studied and the results are summarized in Table 4.4. The MIC was defined as the lowest concentration of solvent in which there was no microbial growth, indicated by the absence of colour change (Figure 4.1). The same MIC values (12.5%) were obtained for *C. albicans* and *C. parapsilosis* when DMSO was used. A lower MIC value of 6.5% was obtained for *C. neoformans*. The same degree of inhibition towards the growth of *A. niger* and *T. mentagrophytes* for which MIC values of 6.5% were recorded.

Inhibition of growth of the microorganisms might be due to the accumulation of solvents in the cytoplasmic membrane which would affect its structural properties thus preventing the cell from performing essential functions such as dissipation of pH and electrical potentials, disruption of the normal flow of ions, proteins, lipids and endogenous metabolites, and the effects on membrane protein (Sikkemaet al., 1994 & 1995). Some microorganisms have the ability to modify the physical properties of cellular membranes by increasing the rigidity of the cellular membrane thus making the cell less permeable to toxic compounds such as solvents, drugs and antibiotics (Fernandeset al., 2003).

Percentage of solvent that inhibited the growth of bacteria (%, v/v)										
Solvents	Hexane	Diethyl	Chloroform	Ethyl	Dimethyl	Ethanol	Methanol	Acetone	Butanol	Dicholomethane
		Ether		Acetate	sulfoxide					
Gram- positive	bacteria									
S.aureus	-	-	-	-	12.5	-	-	-	-	-
B. cereus	-	-	-	-	12.5	-	-	-	-	-
Gram- negative	e bacteria									
P.aeruginosa	-	-	-	-	12.5	-	-	-	-	-
K.pneumoniae	-	-	-	-	25	-	-	-	-	-
E.colipenicillin	1 -	-	-	-	12.5	-	-	-	-	-
sensitive strain										
E.colipenicillin	nr -	-	-	-	6.25	-	-	-	-	-
esistant strain										

 Table 4.3: Percentage of the organic solvents that inhibited the growth of the tested bacteria.

All values are expressed as mean of three replicates "- " : no inhibition

The solvent chosen for the bioassay must be miscible with the broth medium and the inoculum since these are water-based. DMSO, acetone, ethanol and methanol were water-miscible. The effect of organic solvent on the materials used in the assay should also be taken into account. Chloroform, diethyl ether, dichloromethane and acetone exhibit some degree of corrosiveness towards the polystyrene microplate, thus those solvents would not be a good choice for dissolving the dry extracts for further bioassay screening, unless compatible materials such as polypropylene microplates are used.

A mixture of methanol and water at the ratio 2:1 was selected to dissolve the crude extracts prior to antimicrobial testing. The mixture was able to dissolve all the crude extracts completely. In addition, it may help to maintain the stated concentration of the stock solution by reducing the rapid evaporation of methanol.

	Percentage of solvent that inhibited the growth of fungi $(\%, v/v)$										
Solvents	Hexane	Diethyl	Chloroform	Ethyl	Dimethyl	Ethanol	Methanol	Acetone	Butanol	Dicholoromethane	
		Ether		Acetate	sulfoxide						
Yeast											
C. albicans	-	-	-	-	12.5	-	-	-	-	-	
C. parapsilosis	-	-	-	-	12.5	-	-	-	-	-	
C. neoformans	-	-	-	-	6.25	-	-	-	-	-	
Mould											
A. niger	-	-	-	-	6.25	-	-	-	-	-	
T. mentagrophyt	tes -	-	-	-	6.25	-	-	-	-	-	

Table 4.4: Percentage of the organic solvents that inhibited the growth of the tested fungi.

All values are expressed as mean of three replicates "- " : no inhibition

Concentration of solvents, %



Figure 4.1: An example of microtitre plates showing the result of the organic solvents against *C. parapsilosis* (ATCC 22019).

4.4 Antimicrobial Activities

A colorimetric broth microdilution method was employed for quantifying the MIC value of each extract and fractions towards various microorganisms in the study since it has good reproducibility and well-defined end-points (Liu et al., 2007).This method overcomes the difficulties caused by the diffusion of non-polar extracts in disc diffusion method and thereby reducing the contamination rate encountered in the bio-autography method (Eloffet al., 2008). According to Aligianniset al., (2001), the extracts are considered to exhibit strong inhibition if the MIC value is between 0.5 mg/mL and below; moderately inhibition if the MIC value is between 0.6 and 1.5 mg/mL and weak inhibition if the MIC value is more than 1.6 mg/mL.

4.4.1 Antibacterial Testing

In antibacterial testing, two Gram-positive bacteria, *S. aureus* and *B. cereus* and four Gram-negative bacteria, *K. pneumoniae*, *P. aeruginosa* and *E. coli* penicillin-resistant and sensitive-type were used. Chloramphenicol with concentrations ranging from 0.25 to 128 μ g/mL was used as the positive control.

Table 4.5 summarizes the results of the extracts towards the six medicallyimportant bacteria. All extracts except water demonstrated inhibition towards *S. aureus*, *B. cereus*, *K. pneumoniae* and *P. aeruginosa* with MIC values ranging from 0.08 to 5.00 mg/mL. The methanol extract only showed weak inhibition towards *S. aureus*, *K.pneumoniae* and *P. aeruginosa* with MIC values of 5 mg/mL, 2.5 mg/mL and 4.17 mg/mL. Among the extracts, only ethyl acetate extract showed inhibition towards both *E. coli* penicillin sensitive and penicillin resistant strains with MIC value of 5 mg/mL. The water extract showed no inhibition toward all the bacteria tested. Table 4.6 shows the total activities of seven extracts towards tested bacteria. Diethyl ether extract showed highest total activity (186.57 mL/g) towards *K. pneumoniae*, this shows that 1 g of the extract can be dissolved in 186.57 mL of solvent and still have inhibitory activity towards *K. pneumoniae*.

		MIC (mg/mL)									
Extracts	Hexane	Diethyl	Chloroform	Ethyl	Acetone	Methanol	Water	Chloramphenicol			
		ether		acetate							
Gram-positive b	acteria										
S.aureus	2.5	2.5	1.25-2.50	0.63-1.25	1.25-2.5	5	-	8			
B.cereus	5	1.25	1.25	0.63	1.25	-	-	8			
Gram- negative	<u>bacteria</u>										
K.pneumoniae	0.16	0.08	0.31	0.16-0.31	0.63	2.5	-	4			
P.aeruginosa	0.31	0.31	0.31	0.16-0.63	1.25	2.50-5.00	-	4			
E.coli penicillin	ı -	-	-	5	-	-	-	4			
sensitive strain											
E.colipenicillin	-	-	-	5	-	-	-	4			
resistant strain											

Table 4.5: Mean MIC values (mg/mL) of the seven extracts of *Sinularia* sp. towards tested bacteria.

All values are expressed as mean or rangeof three replicates "- " : no inhibition

	Total activity (mL/g)									
Extracts	Hexane	Diethyl	Chloroform	Ethyl	Acetone	Methanol	Water			
		ether		acetate						
Gram positive ba	<u>icteria</u>									
S.aureus	6.5	5.97	0.98	0.02	0.15	5.50	-			
B.cereus	3.27	11.94	1.95	0.03	0.29	-	-			
Gram negative ba	acteria									
K.pneumoniae	102.33	186.57	7.88	0.06	0.58	11.00	-			
P.aeruginosa	52.82	48.15	7.88	0.03	0.29	5.50	-			
E.coli penicillir	n -	-	-	0.004	-	-	-			
sensitive strain										
E.coli penicillir	n -	-	-	0.004	-	-	-			
resistant strain										

Table 4.6: Total activity (mL/g) of the seven extracts of *Sinularia* sp. towards tested bacteria.

All values are expressed as mean of three replicates "- " : no inhibition

4.4.2 Antifungal Activities

The seven extracts were subjected to antifungal testing using colorimetric broth microdilution. Five medically-important fungi including yeasts and moulds were used in the testing. The yeasts used were *Calbicans*, *C. parapsilosis* and *C. neoformans* while the moulds used were *A. niger* and *T. mentagrophytes*. The antifungal drug, fluconazole with concentrations from 0.63 to 32 μ g/mL was used as the positive control.

Table 4.7 summarizes the results of the extracts towards the five medically-important fungi. Hexane and diethyl ether extracts showed inhibitory activity towards yeasts and moulds, the MIC values towards *C.parapsilosis* and *C.neoformans* were ranged from 0.02 to 0.31 mg/mL. However, both extracts showed no inhibition towards *A. niger*. The MIC values of acetone and methanol extracts obtained were between 0.16 and 5 mg/mL. Acetone and ethyl acetate extracts showed good inhibition, but the yield from these two extracts were too little for further isolation (<0.05%). Water extract showed weak inhibition towards *Candida* species with MIC values ranged from 2.5 to 5 mg/mL.

The total activities of seven extracts towards fungi tested are summarised in Table 4.8. Hexane extract showed the highest total activity with a value of 409.34 mL/g towards *C. neoformans*, i.e. that 1 g of extract dissolved in 409.34 mL of solvent has inhibitory activity towards *C.neoformans*. Due to its strong inhibitory activity and sufficient quantity, hexane extract was selected for bioassay-guided isolation to identify the bioactive compounds.

MIC (mg/mL)								MIC
Extracts	Hexane	Diethyl ether	Chloroform	Ethyl acetate	Acetone	Methanol	Water	Fluconazole
Yeast								
C.albicans	2.5-5	2.5-5	-	1.25	0.63	2.5-5	2.5	4
C.parapsilosis	0.04-0.16	0.16-0.31	2.5	0.08-0.16	0.16	0.31	2.5-5	8
C.neoformans	0.02-0.04	0.04-0.08	2.5-5	0.16-0.63	0.31-0.63	0.63-1.25	-	16
Mould								
A.niger	-	-	0.31-0.63	0.31-0.63	-	0.63-1.25	-	4
T.mentagrophytes	1.25	0.63-1.25	1.25-2.50	5	2.5-5	0.63-1.25	-	4

Table 4.7: Mean MIC values (mg/mL) of the seven extracts of *Sinularia* sp. towards tested fungi.

All values are expressed as mean or range of three replicates "- " : no inhibition

	Total activity (mL/g)									
Extracts	Hexane	Diethyl	Chloroform	Ethyl	Acetone	Methanol	Water			
		ether		acetate						
Yeast										
C.albicans	3.27	2.99	-	0.02	0.58	5.50	15.43			
C.parapsilosis	102.33	48.15	0.98	0.13	2.28	88.68	7.72			
C.neoformans	<mark>409.34</mark>	186.57	0.49	0.03	0.60	21.99	-			
Mould										
A.niger	-	-	3.88	0.03	-	21.99	-			
T.mentagrophytes	13.10	11.94	0.98	0.004	0.07	21.99	-			

Table 4.8: Total activity (mL/g) of the seven extracts of *Sinularia* sp. towards tested fungi.

All values are expressed as mean or range of three replicates "- " : no inhibition

4.4.3 Photo- toxicity Activities

A MTT assay with light treatment was performed in order to assess the potential of *Sinularia* sp. as photosensitizer in photodynamic therapy. In the assay, the seven crude extracts were subjected to MTT assay with and without light treatment. The cytotoxicity activities of the crude extracts towards leukemia cell, HL 60 are shown in Figure 4.2. Diethyl ether, chloroform, ethyl acetate and acetone extracts showed good cytotoxicity activities without irridiation.



Sinularia sp. extracts 20µg/mL



Diethyl ether, chloroform, ethyl acetate and acetone extracts showed high photo-toxicity activities towards HL 60 cell line among these extracts. However, only chloroform extract with highest photo-toxicity activities (2.25% of cell viability) was subjected to isolation using flash chromatography. The weight of the ethyl acetate and acetone extracts were not sufficient for isolation.

Three grams of the chloroform extract was further isolated to yield five fractions (3-3-1 to 3-3-5) and subjected to MTT test. However, all of the fractions lost its activities and the test was terminated. This phenomenon may have been due to synergistic effect where several fraction working together to show inhibition. A fraction by itself does not show cytotoxicity properties. The fraction might have lost its activity after exposure to air, or it was unstable.



Sinularia sp. fractions 20 µg/mL



4.5 Isolation of Antifungal Components from Hexane Extract of Sinulariasp.

The hexane extract of *Sinularias*p. was found to exhibit strong antifungal activity and thus was subjected to isolation techniques to obtain its active components. The hexane extract was subjected to modified column chromatography techniques described by Li et al., (2005). The hexane extract was fractionated into 30 fractions (AgN1 to AgN30) that were then subjected to another round of antifungal activity screening. All 30 fractions were subjected to GCMS analysis on an Agilent Technologies 6890N GC System. The total ion chromatogram obtained was auto integrated by Chemstation and the constituents were identified by comparison with published mass spectra databases (Wiley 9N Mass Spectral Library).

A few fractions were found to exhibit strong antifungal activities towards *C. neoformans* including AgN1 (MIC value 0.13 mg/mL), AgN6 (MIC value 0.06 mg/mL) and AgN27 (MIC value 0.016mg/mL). Fraction AgN1 is an oily mixture of hydrocarbons and eight other compounds in this fraction. These are waxy compounds common for protection and to prevent desiccation. The total ion chromatogram is shown in Figures 4.4 - 4.11 and Appendix A. This is the first report of waxy substances from the soft coral, *Sinularias*p.



Figure 4.4: Total ion chromatogram of fraction AgN1.



Figure 4.5: Chemical structure of undecane.

Undecane: m/z 156 [M⁺], 127 [M⁺– C_2H_5], 98 [M⁺– C_2H_5 – C_2H_5], 85, 71, 57 [100%, base peak]



Figure 4.6: Chemical structure of prehnitol.

Prehnitol: m/z 134 $[M^+]$, 119 $[M^+ - CH_3, 100\%$, base peak], 105, 95, 91, 77, 65



Figure 4.7: Chemical structure of durol. Durol: m/z 134 [M⁺], 119 [M⁺– CH₃, 100%, base peak], 105, 91, 77, 69



Figure 4.8: Chemical structure of tridecane. Tridecane: m/z 184 [M⁺], 155 [M⁺– C_2H_5], 141 [M⁺– C_2H_5 – CH_2], 126 [M⁺– C_2H_5 – C_2H_5], 99, 85, 71, 57 [100%, base peak]



Figure 4.9: Chemical structure of dodecane.

Dodecane: m/z 170 [M⁺], 141 [M⁺– C₂H₅], 128, 112 [M⁺– C₂H₅– C₂H₅], 98, 85, 71, 57 [100%, base peak]

Figure 4.10: Chemical structure of tetradecane.

Tetradecane: m/z 198 [M⁺], 169 [M⁺– C_2H_5], 155 [M⁺– C_2H_5 – CH_2], 141 [M⁺– C_2H_5 – C_2H_4], 99, 85, 71, 57 [100%, base peak]



Figure 4.11: Chemical structure of Palmitylpalmitate.

Palmitylpalmitate: m/z 480 [M⁺], 257, 239, 224, 196, 125, 111, 97, 83, 57 [100%, base peak]

Sterol, an abundant component was also found in the fraction because it is an essential component in the membranes of all eukaryotic organisms (Tang et al., 2012). Fraction AgN6, a whitish powder, was found to be a mixture of sterols by GC–MS analysis. It consisted of mainly lanol, ergost-5,8(14)-dien-3-ol, and campesterol. This is the first report of these sterols from the soft coral, *Sinularias*p. The total ion chromatogram is shown in Figure 4.12 and Appendix B.



Figure 4.12: Total ion chromatogram offraction AgN6.



Figure 4.13: Chemical structure of lanol.

Lanol: m/z 386 [M⁺], 368 [M⁺– H₂O], 353 [M⁺– H₂O – CH₃], 301, 275, 255, 207, 159, 145, 133, 105 [100%, base peak], 81, 67, 55.



Figure 4.14:Chemical structure of ergost-5,8(14)-dien-3-ol.

Ergost-5,8(14)-dien-3-ol: m/z 398 [M⁺], 380 [M⁺– H₂O], 365 [M⁺– H₂O – CH₃], 337, 300, 271, 255, 213, 159, 145, 133, 119, 105, 93, 81, 69, 55 [100%, base peak].



Figure 4.15: Chemical structure of campesterol.

Campesterol: m/z 400 [M⁺], 382 [M⁺– H₂O], 367 [M⁺– H₂O – CH₃], 315, 289, 273, 255, 213, 159, 145, 133, 119, 105, 81, 67, 55 [100%, base peak].

4.6 Fuscol, Isolated Antifungal Compound from Sinulariasp.

AgN27-1, a colourless oil, was isolated from fraction AgN27 byflash chromatography and preparative thin layer chromatography. 42 fractions were collected from flash chromatography using hexane and ethyl acetate combination as mobile phase. Combined active fractions 18 to 23 were further purified on preparative TLC. The fraction was developed with the solvent system hexane:ethyl acetate (80:20) to yield 28.5 mg AgN27-1 (Figure 4.16).



Figure 4.16: AgN27-1 ($C_{20}H_{32}O$, MW = 288).

The total ion chromatogram from GCMS analysis (Figure 4.17) showed AgN27-1 as a major peak at retention time of 23.780min and the mass spectrum indicated the presence of a molecular ion at m/z 288. The presence of molecular ion at m/z 288 of AgN27-1 is consistent with the molecular formula of fuscol, $C_{20}H_{32}O$ (Figure 4.18). AgN27-1 showed inhibition towards *C. neoformans* with MIC = 0.064 mg/mL.

Fuscol was first isolated by Gopichand and Schmitz in year 1978 (Gopichand and Schmitz, 1978). In the research, the compound was isolated from gorgonians, *Euniceafusca*. However, no research on the bioactivity of the compound was performed.

In 2012, Govindamet al. (2012) isolated fuscol from soft coral, *Lopophytumpauciflorum*.In their study, fuscol showed cytotoxic with IC50 of 0.52 µM towards human epidermoid carcinoma A431 cells.



Figure 4.17: Total ion chromatogram of subfraction AgN27-1.



Figure 4.18: Mass spectrum of compound AgN27-1.

The ¹H NMR spectral data is consistent with those reported by the literature (Govindamet al., 2012) (Table 4.9).The ¹H NMR indicated the presence of one broad singlet peak at δ 4.59 and one triplet peak at δ 4.82 (J = 1.5 Hz) representing the *exo*-methylene protons for H4 while Govindam et al. (2012) reported two singlet peaks at δ 4.58 and δ 4.81 instead. The triplet peak with a small coupling constant value of 1.5 Hzobserved at δ 4.82may due to the long range coupling of proton H_b4 with the methyl protons H16. The multiplicity of the peak was different from those reported by Govindam et al. (2012), and the discrepancy could be due to the variation in experimental condition and sensitivity of NMR equipment used during the study. The ¹H NMR also showed the presence of two overlapped doubletpeaks at δ 4.92 (J = 16.9 Hz) and at δ 4.91 (J = 11.5 Hz) representing the *exo*-methylene protons for H5.Whilst Govindam et al. (2012)

Hz)representing the *exo*-methylene protons for H5.Govindam et al. (2012) also reported the presence of five singlet peaks at δ 1.00, 1.35, 1.35, 1.70 and 1.79 representing the methyl protons of H16, H17, H18, H19 and H20, respectively, consistent with the ¹H NMR spectral data of this study which showed the presence of five singlet peaks at δ 1.02, 1.36, 1.36, 1.71 and 1.80.



Figure 4.19: ¹HNMR spectrum of fuscol, isolated from *Sinularia* sp. (400 MHz, CDCl₃)



Figure 4.20: Expanded ¹H NMR spectrum of fuscol, isolated from *Sinularia* sp. (400 MHz, CDCl₃)



Figure 4.21: Expanded ¹H NMR spectrum of fuscol, isolated from *Sinularia* sp. (400 MHz, CDCl₃)



Figure 4.22: Expanded ¹H NMR spectrum of fuscol, isolated from *Sinularia* sp. (400 MHz, CDCl₃)
Position	Sample	Reference	
	(δ, CDCl ₃ , 400 MHz)	(δ, CDCl ₃ , 400 MHz) ^a	
H1	1.60 – 1.20 (m, CH ₂ , 2H)	1.60 – 1.20 (m, CH ₂ , 2H)	
H2	2.00 (m, CH, 1H)	2.00 (m, CH, 1H)	
H4	4.59 (br s, CH_2 , $1H_a$) 4.82 (t, $J = 1.5$ Hz, CH_2 , $1H_b$)	4.58 (s, CH ₂ , 1H _a) 4.81 (s, CH ₂ , 1H _b)	
Н5	4.91 (d, <i>J</i> = 11.5 Hz, CH ₂ , 1H _a) 4.92(d, <i>J</i> = 16.9 Hz, CH ₂ , 1H _b)	4.90 (d, $J = 11.6$ Hz, CH ₂ , 1H _a) 4.91 (d, $J = 16.8$ Hz, CH ₂ , 1H _b)	
H6	5.83 (dd, <i>J</i> = 17.9, 10.5 Hz, CH, 1H)	5.82 (dd, <i>J</i> = 16.8, 11.6 Hz, CH, 1H)	
H8	1.60 – 1.20 (m, CH ₂ , 2H)	1.60 – 1.20 (m, CH ₂ , 2H)	
H9	1.60 – 1.20 (m, CH ₂ , 2H)	1.60 – 1.20 (m, CH ₂ , 2H)	
H10	2.00 (m, CH, 1H)	2.00 (m, CH, 1H)	
H12	5.86 (d, <i>J</i> = 12.2 Hz, CH, 1H)	5.87(d, <i>J</i> = 11.0 Hz, CH, 1H)	
H13	6.49 (dd, <i>J</i> = 15.4, 10.8 Hz, CH, 1H)	6.49 (dd, <i>J</i> = 15.2, 11.0 Hz, CH, 1H)	
H14	5.77 (d, <i>J</i> = 15.4 Hz, CH, 1H)	5.76(d, <i>J</i> = 15.2 Hz, CH, 1H)	
H16	1.71(s, CH ₃ , 3H)	1.70 (s, CH ₃ , 3H)	
H17	1.02 (s, CH ₃ , 3H)	1.00 (s, CH ₃ , 3H)	
H18	1.80 (s, CH ₃ , 3H)	1.79 (s, CH ₃ , 3H)	
H19	1.36 (s, CH ₃ , 3H)	1.35 (s, CH ₃ , 3H)	
H20	1.36 (s, CH ₃ , 3H)	1.35 (s, CH ₃ , 3H)	

Table 4.9:¹H NMR data of isolated fuscol and those reported in the literature.

^aGovindam et al., 2012

The ¹³C NMR broadband spectrum (Figure 4.23) showed the presence of 20 carbons consisting of five methyl carbons at δ 15.4, 16.7, 24.8, 29.9, 29.9, three methylene carbons at δ 26.5, 32.6, 39.8, two *exo*-methylene carbons at δ 109.9, 112.1, six methine carbons at δ 47.6, 52.7, 122.4, 123.0, 139.2, 150.2 and four quaternary carbons at δ 39.3, 70.9, 143.4, 147.6. The assignment of the carbon types was confirmed through the DEPT analysis (Figure 4.24).

The structure of fuscol was further confirmed by the heteronuclear single quantum coherence (HSQC) and heteronuclear multiple bond coherence (HMBC) data as shown in Table 4.11. HSQC spectrum (Figure 4.25)showed the direct ¹H–¹³C correlation in fuscol, while HMBC spectrum showed long range connectivity of proton to carbons separated by one or two atoms away and also correlate quaternary carbons with nearby protons in fuscol (Figure 4.26) (Silverstein and Webster, 1998).

Quaternary carbon C3 showed ${}^{2}J$ correlations with methine proton H2, *exo*-methylene protons H4 and methyl proton H16. There are ${}^{2}J$ correlations between quaternary carbon C7 and methyl proton H17 and methine protons H2 and H6, whilst it also showed ${}^{3}J$ correlation with *exo*-methylene protons H5. Quaternary carbon C11, on the other hand, showed ${}^{2}J$ correlation with methyl proton H18 and ${}^{3}J$ correlation with methine proton H13. As for quaternary carbon C15, it showed ${}^{3}J$ correlation with methine proton H13 and ${}^{2}J$ correlation with methine proton H14 and both methyl protons H19 and H20. *Exo*-methylene carbonC4 showed ${}^{3}J$ correlations with methine proton H2 and methyl proton H16, whilst its protons exhibited ${}^{3}J$ correlation with methine carbonC2 and methyl carbonC16. The *exo*-methylene protonH4 showed ${}^{2}J$ correlation with quaternary carbon C3.

Methyl carbon C16 has ${}^{3}J$ correlation with methine proton H2 and *exo*methylene protons H4. Methyl proton H16 showed ${}^{2}J$ correlation with quaternary carbon C3, ${}^{3}J$ correlation with methine carbonC2 and *exo*-methylene carbon C4. As for methyl carbon C17, it showed ${}^{3}J$ correlation with methine protons H2 and H6 whilst its protons showed ${}^{2}J$ correlation with quaternary carbon C7, ${}^{3}J$ correlation with methine carbonsC2 and methylene carbon C8. There are ${}^{3}J$ correlations between methyl carbon C18 and methine protons H10 and H12 while methyl proton H18 has ${}^{2}J$ correlations with quaternary carbon C11 and ${}^{3}J$ correlations with methine carbons C10 and C12. Both methyl carbons C19 and C20 showed ${}^{3}J$ correlations with mehine proton H14 and each other protons. Both methyl protons of H19 and H20 exhibited ${}^{2}J$ correlation with quaternary carbon C15 and ${}^{3}J$ correlation with methine carbons C14. Both methyl protons of H19 and H20 also showed ${}^{3}J$ correlation with each other carbon.

The methine carbon C12 showed ${}^{2}J$ correlation with methine proton H13 and ${}^{3}J$ correlation with methyl protons H18. There are ${}^{3}J$ correlation between methine proton H12 with methine carbon C10 and methyl carbon C18. Methine proton H12also found to have ${}^{2}J$ correlation with methine carbon C13. Methinecarbon C13 has ${}^{2}J$ correlation with methine protons H12 and H14. As for its methine proton, H13 showed ${}^{2}J$ correlation with methine carbons C12 and C14, ${}^{3}J$ correlation with quaternary carbons C11 and C15. Methine proton H14 showed ${}^{2}J$ correlation with methine carbon C13 and quaternary carbon C15. It also showed ${}^{3}J$ correlation with methine carbon C13 and both methyl carbons C19 and C20. Whilst its methine carbon C14 showed ${}^{2}J$ correlation with methine proton H13 and ${}^{3}J$ correlations with methine proton H12 and both methyl protons H19 and H20.



Figure 4.23: ¹³CNMR broadband spectrum of fuscol.(400 MHz, CDCl₃)

D:.	Sample	Reference	
Position	(δ, CDCl ₃ , 125 MHz)	(δ, CDCl ₃ , 100 MHz) ^a	
C1 (CH ₂)	32.7	32.5	
C2 (CH)	52.7	52.6	
C3 (Cq)	147.6	147.5	
C4 (CH ₂)	112.1	112.0	
C5 (CH ₂)	109.9	109.6	
C6 (CH)	150.2	150.1	
C7 (Cq)	39.8	39.6	
C8 (CH ₂)	39.9	39.7	
C9 (CH ₂)	26.5	26.4	
C10 (CH)	47.7	47.5	
C11 (Cq)	143.5	143.2	
C12 (CH)	122.3	122.9	
C13 (CH)	123.1	123.0	
C14 (CH)	139.3	139.1	
C15 (C–OH, Cq)	71.0	70.9	
C16 (CH ₃)	24.8	24.7	
C17 (CH ₃)	16.7	16.4	
C18 (CH ₃)	15.4	15.3	
C19 (CH ₃)	29.9	29.8	
C20 (CH ₃)	29.9	29.8	

Table 4.10: ¹³C NMR data of isolated fuscol and those reported in the literature.

^aShin and Fenical, 1991



Figure 4.24:DEPT broadband spectrum of fuscol.(400 MHz, CDCl3)



Figure 4.25: HSQC broadband spectrum of fuscol.(400 MHz, CDCl₃)



Figure 4.26:HMBC broadband spectrum of fuscol.(400 MHz, CDCl₃)

Position	HSQC		HMBC	
	¹³ C (δ)	¹ Η (δ)	$^{1}\mathrm{H}$ – $^{13}\mathrm{C}$ (δ)	
2, CH	52.7	2.00	32.7 (C1), 147.6 (C3), 112.1 (C4), 150.2 (C6), 39.8 (C7), 39.9 (C8), 26.5 (C9), 47.7 (C10), 24.8 (C16), 16.7 (C17)	
3, Cq	147.6	-	-	
4, CH ₂	112.1	4.59 4.82	52.7 (C2), 147.6 (C3), 39.8 (C7), 24.8 (C16)	
5, CH ₂	109.9	4.91 4.92	150.2 (C6), 39.8 (C7)	
6, CH	150.2	5.83	52.7 (C2), 39.8 (C7), 39.9 (C8), 16.7 (C17)	
7, Cq	39.8	-	-	
10, CH	47.7	2.00	32.7 (C1), 39.9 (C8), 26.5 (C9), 15.4 (C18)	
11, Cq	143.5	-	-	
12, CH	122.3	5.86	47.7 (C10), 123.1 (C13), 139.3 (C14), 15.4 (C18)	
			143.4 (C11), 122.3 (C12), 139.3 (C14),	
13, CH	123.1	6.49	71.0 (C15)	

Table 4.11: HSQC and HMBC data of the isolated fuscol.

14, CH	139.3	5.77	122.3 (C12), 123.1 (C13), 71.0 (C15), 29.9 (C19), 29.9 (C20)
15, Cq	71.0	-	-
16, CH ₃	24.8	1.71	52.7 (C2), 147.6 (C3), 112.1 (C4)
17, CH ₃	16.7	1.02	52.7 (C2), 39.8 (C7), 39.9 (C8)
18, CH ₃	15.4	1.80	47.7 (C10), 143.4 (C11), 122.3 (C12)
19, CH ₃	29.9	1.36	139.3 (C14), 71.0 (C15), 29.9 (C20)
20, CH ₃	29.9	1.36	139.3 (C14), 71.0 (C15), 29.9 (C19)

4.7 Summary

*Sinularias*p. exhibited antifungal and antibacterial activities. Fuscol is the compound responsible for the antifungal activities. Fuscol was reported for the first time from the *Sinularias*p. A mixture of sterols and hydrocarbons were also found from the active antifungal fractions. These compounds were also reported for the first time from *Sinularias*p. The chloroform extract of *Sinularias*p. showed photo-toxicity activity towards HL 60. However, the fractions of chloroform extract lost its activities after exposed to air or it was unstable.

4.8 Suggestions for Further Work

Fuscol, an isolated antifungal compound from *Sinulariasp.* is not as potent as standard antifungal drug. Chemical modification should be carried out in order to obtain a new compound with higher potency. Collection of sample at different locations should be performed to assess the effects of environment towards the antifungal activity of fuscol.

The isolation of antibacterial compound from diethyl ether extract should be carried out to elucidate the structure of antibacterial compounds. Characterization of the isolated antibacterial compounds should be also studied.

CHAPTER 5.0

CONCLUSION

The active antifungal hexane extract of *Sinularia* sp. was purified by bioassay-guided fractionation towards *C. neoformans*(ATCC 90112). Fuscol($C_{20}H_{32}O$, MW = 288), an antifungal compound with MIC value of 0.064 mg/mL was isolated from the extract. Besides, an oily mixture of hydrocarbons and seven other compounds (fraction AgN1) with MIC value of 0.13 mg/mL was also found. They are undecane, prehnitol, durol, tridecane, dodecane, tetradecane, and palmitylpalmitate. A whitish powder (fraction AgN6) consisted of cyclopropa [5,6]-33-norgorgostan-3-ol, lanol, ergost-5,8(14)-dien-3-ol, campesterol and stigmasterol were also found. The MIC value was 0.06 mg/mL. All these compounds were first time reported from the soft coral, *Sinularias*p.

Diethyl ether extract exhibited strong inhibition towards *C. neoformans* and *K.pneumoniae*. However, bioassay-guided fractionation was not performed due to time constraint.

Chloroform extract showed positive result in photo-cytotoxicity test towards leukemia cell line HL 60. However, all of the fractions lost their activities after fractionation. It maybe due to synergistic effect where several fractions working together to show inhibition, or the fraction might have lost its activity after exposure to air, or it was unstable.

REFERENCES

Aher, N.G. et al., 2009. Synthesis and antifungal activity of 1,2,3- triazole containing fluconazole analogues. *Bioorganic and Medicinal Chemistry Letters*, 19, pp. 759-763.

Aktas, E. and Yigit, N., 2009. Determination of antifungal susceptibility of Aspergillus spp. Responsible for otomycosis by E-test method. *Journal de MycologieMedicale*, 19, pp. 122-125.

Aligiannis, N. et al., 2001. Composition and antimicrobial activity of the essential oils of two Origanum species. *Journal of AgrculturalAnd Food Chemistry*, 40, pp. 4168-4170.

Alstyne, K. L.V., Wylie, C. R. and Paul, V. J., 1994. Antipredator defenses in tropical Pacific soft corals (Coelenterata: Alcyonacea) II. The relative importance of chemical and structural defenses in three species of Sinularia. *Journal Experimental Marine Biology Ecological*, 178, pp.17-34.

Anjaneyulu, A.S.R., Krishnamurthy, M.V.R. and Rao, G.V., 1997. Rare aromadendranediterpenoids from a new soft coral species of *Sinularia* genus of the Indian ocean. *Tetrahedron*, 53 (27), pp. 9301-9312.

Ates, A. et al., 2008. Dermatophytes isolated from asymptomatic dogs in Adana, Turkey: A preliminary study. *Journal de MycologieMédicale*, 18, pp. 154—157.

Balunas, M. J. and Kinghorn, A. D., 2005. Drug discovery from medicinal plants. *Life Sciences*, 78, pp. 431-441.

Buytaert, E., Dewaele, M. and Agostinis, P., 2007. Molecular effectors of multiple cell death pathways initiated by photodynamic therapy. *Biochimia et BiophysicaActa*1776, pp. 86-107.

Casey, A.L., Lambert, P.A. and Elliott, T.S.J., 2007. Staphylococci. *International Journal of Antimicrobial Agents*, 29 (3), pp. 23–32.

Chao, C.H. et al., 2006a. Novel cyclic sesquiterpene peroxides from the Formasan soft coral *Sinularia* sp. *Tetrahedron Letters*, 47, pp. 2175-2178.

Chao, C.H. et al., 2006b. Sinularianins A and B, novel sesquiterpenoids from the Formasan soft coral *Sinularia* sp.. *Tetrahedron Letters*, 47, pp. 5889-5891.

Chin, Y.W. et al., 2006. Drug discovery from natural sources. The AAPS Journal 2006; 8(2) Article 28.

Chio-Srichan, S. et al., 2008. Photosensitizer effects on cancerous cells: A combined study using synchrotron infrared and fluorescence microscopies. *Biochimica et BiophysicaActa*, 1780, pp. 854-860.

Cos, P. et al., 2006. Anti-infective potential of natural products: How to develop a stronger *in vitro* ' proof-of-concept'. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology*, 106, pp. 290-302.

da Rocha, A. B., Lopes, R.M. and Schwartsmann, G., 2001. Natural products in anticancer therapy. *Current opinion in Pharmacology*, 1, pp. 364-369.

Denyer, S.P. and Maillard, J.Y., 2002. Cellular impermeability and uptake of biocides and antibiotics in Gram-negative bacteria. *Journal of Application Microbiology*, 92 (Suppl. 1), pp. 35-45.

Donia, M. and Hamann, M.T., 2003. Marine natural products and their potential applications as anti-infective agents. *Lancet Infectious Diseases*, 3(6), pp. 338-48.

Duh, C.Y. et al., 1998. A novel cytotoxic biscembranoid from the Formosan soft coral *Sinulariaflexibilis*. *Tetrahedron Letters*, 39, pp. 7121-7122.

Eloff, J. N., 2004. Quantification the bioactivity of plant extracts during screening and bioassay guided fractionation. *Phytomedicine*, 11, pp.370-371.

Eloff, J.N., Masoko, P. and Picard, J., 2007. Resistance of animal fungal pathogens to solvents used in bioassays. *South African Journal of Botany*, 73, pp. 667-669.

Eloff, J.N., Katerere, D.R. and McGaw, L.J., 2008. The biological activity and chemistry of the southern African Combretaceae. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology*, 119, pp. 686–699.

Fernandes, P. et al., 2003. Solvent tolerance in bacteria: role of efflux pumps and cross-resistance with antibiotics. *International Journal of Antimicrobial Agents*, 22, pp. 211-216.

Fujimura, T. et al., 2009. Susceptibility of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*clinical isolates in Japan to doripenem and other antipseudomonal agents. *International Journal of Antimicrobial Agents*, 34, pp. 523–528.

Gerard, J.T. et al., 2012. *Microbiology: An Introduction*, 11th ed. USA: Pearson.

Glaser, K. B. and Mayer, A. M. S., 2009. A renaissance in marine pharmacology: From preclinical curiosity to clinical reality. *Biochemical Pharmacology*, 78, pp. 440-448.

Gopichand, Y. and Schmitz, F. J., 1978. Marine natural products: Fuscol, a new elemene-type diterpene alcohol from the gorgonian *Euniceafusca*. *Tetrahedron Letters*, 39, pp. 3641-3641.

Govindam, S.V.S. et al., 2012. Cyclolobatriene, a novel prenylatedgermacrenediterpene, from the soft coral *Lopophytumpauciflorum*. *Bioorganic & Medicinal Chemistry*, 20, pp 687-692.

Heiss, C. et al., 2009. The structure of *Cryptococcus* neoformansgalactoxylomannan contains β -D-glucuronic acid. *Carbohydrate Research*, 334, pp. 915-920.

Huang, Y. J. et al., 2009. MrkF is a component of type 3 fimbriae in *Klebsiella pneumonia*. Research in Microbiology, 160, pp. 71-79.

Iguchi, K., Kajiyama, K. and Yamada, Y., 1995. Yonarolide: a new marine norditerpenoid possessing a novel tricyclic skeleton, from the Okinawan soft coral of the genus, *Sinulariasp. Tetrahedron Letters*, 36 (48), pp. 8807-8808.

Jacobs, G.J and Medleau, L., 1998. Cryptococcosis. In Greene CE editors, *Infectious Diseases of the Dog and Cat.* (pp. 383-390). Philadelphia: WB Saunders.

Jayaraman, S. K., Manoharan, M. S. and Illanchezian, S., 2008. Antibacterial, Antifungal and Tumor Cell Suppression Potential of *Morindacitrifolia* Fruit Extracts, *International Journal of Integrative Biology*, 3 (1), pp. 44-49.

Jimeno, J. et al., 2004. Review: New marine derived anticancer therapeutics- A journey from the sea to clinical trials. *Marine Drugs*, 2, pp. 14-29.

Jin, P. et al., 2005. Polyhydroxylated steroids from the soft coral *Sinulariadissecta*. *Steroids*, 70, pp. 487-493.

Karaca, N. and Koc, A.N., 2004. *In vitro* susceptibility testing of dermatophytes: comparison of diskdiffusion and reference broth dilution methods.*Diagnostic Microbiology and Infectious Disease*, 48, pp. 259–264.

Kelman, D. et al., 2006. Antimicrobial activity of red sea corals. *Marine Biology*, 149, pp. 357-363.

Kotiranta, A., Lounatmaa, K. and Haapasalo, M., 2000. Epidemiology and pathogenesis of *Bacillus cereus* infections. *Microbes and Infection*, 2, pp. 189-198

Legakis, N.J. et al., 1995. *Klebsiellapneumoniae* infections in Greek hospitals. Dissemination of plasmids encoding an SHV-5 type beta-lactamase. *Journal of Hospital Infection*, 31, pp. 177-187.

Lesser, M. P., 2004. Experimental biology of coral reef ecosystems. *Journal of Experimental Marine Biology and Ecology*, 300, pp. 217-252.

Lestari, E.S., et al., 2008. Comparison of the accuracy of disk diffusion zone diameters obtained by manual zone measurements to that by automated zone measurements to determine antimicrobial susceptibility. *Journal of Microbiological Methods*, 75, pp. 177–181.

Li, T. S., Li, J.T. and Li, H. Z., 2005. Modified and convenient preparation of silica impregnated with silver nitrate and its application to the separation of steroids and triterpenes. *Journal of Chromatography A*, 715, pp. 372-375.

Liu, M. et al., 2007. Colorimetric broth microdilution method for the antifungal screening of plant extracts against yeasts. *Methods*, 42, pp. 325-329.

Mader, S.S., 2010. *Biology*, 10th ed. London: McGraw Hill.

Madigan, M.T. and Martinko, J.M., 2006. *Microbial growth control*, 11th ed. USA: Pearson.

Mayer, A.M.S. et al., 2009. Review: Marine pharmacology in 2005-6: marine compounds with anthelmintic, antibacterial, anticoagulant, antifungal, antiinflammatory, antimalarial, antiprotozoal, antituberculosis, and antiviral activities; affecting the cardiovascular, immune and nervous systems, and other miscellaneous mechanisms of action. *Biochimica et BiophysicaActa*, 1790, pp. 283-308.

McChesney, J.D., Venkataraman, S.K. and Henri, J.T., 2007. Plant natural products: Back to the future or into extinction? *Phytochemistry*, 68, pp. 2015-2022.

McGrill, K. et al., 2009. Comparison of disc diffusion and epsilometer (E-test) testing techniques to determine antimicrobial susceptibility of Campylobacter isolates of food and human clinical origin. *Journal of Microbiological Methods*, 79, pp. 238–241.

Minh, C. V., Kiem, P. V. and Dang, N. H., 2005. Marine natural products and their potential application in the future. *AJSTD*, 22 (4), pp. 297-311.

Moberg, F. and Folke, C., (1999). Analysis ecological goods and services of coral reef ecosystems. *Ecological Economics*, 29, pp. 215-233.

Mossman, T., 1983. Rapid calorimetric assay for cellular growth and survival: application to proliferation and cytotoxicity assay. *Journal of Immunological Methods*, 65, pp. 55-63.

Murray, H.G.M. et al., 1999. The discovery and development of marine compounds with pharmaceutical potential. *Journal of Biotechnology*, 70, pp. 15-25.

Nobili, S. et al., 2009. Natural compounds for cancer treatment and prevention. *Pharmacological Research*, 59, pp. 365-378.

Parazzini, F. et al., 2000. Determinants of different *Candida* species infections of the genital tractin women. *European Journal of Obstetrics & Gynecology and Reproductive Biology*, 93, pp. 141–145.

Plaetzer, K. et al., 2003. The modes of cell death induced by PDT: An overview. *Medical Laser Application*, 18, pp. 7-19.

Ramesh, P. and Venkateswarlu, Y., 1999. Novel steroid constituents of the soft coral *Sinulariadissecta*. *Steroids*, 64, pp. 785-789.

Ramesh, P. et al., 1999. A 2-methylene- β -alanine methyl ester derivative from the soft coral *Sinulariadissecta*. *Biochemical Systematics and Ecology*, 27, pp. 661-662.

Ramesh, P., Reddy, N.S. and Venkateswarlu, Y., 1998. Rameswaralide, a novel diterpenoid from the soft coral *Sinulariadissecta*. *Tetrahedron Letters*, 39, pp. 8217-8220.

Rasko, D.A. et al., 2005. Genomics of the *Bacillus cereus* group of organisms. *FEMS Microbiology Reviews*, 29, pp. 303-329.

Reddy, L. et al., 2003. Natural products for cancer prevention: a global perspective. *Pharmacology & Therapeutics*, 99, pp. 1-13.

Sarker, S.D. et al., 2006. *Methods in Biotechnology: Natural Products Isolation*, 2nd ed. Humana Press.

Sata, N.U. et al., 1999. Sinulamide: a H,K-ATPase inhibitor from a soft coral *Sinularias*p. *Tetrahedron Letters*, 40, pp. 719-722.

Segal, E. and Elad, D., 2006. Fungal vaccines and immunotherapy. *Journal de MycologieMedicale*, 16, pp. 134-151.

Sen, B.H., Safavi, K.V. and Spangberg, L.S.W., 1997. Colonization of *Candida albicans* on cleaned human dental hard tissues. *Archives of Oral Biology*, 42 (7), pp. 513-520.

Sheu, J.H. et al., 1999. Chemical constituents of a formasan soft coral Sinularia sp. *Journal of the Chinese Chemical Society*, 46, pp. 253-257.

Shin, J. and Fenical, W., 1991. Fuscosides A-D: Antiinflammatoryditerpenoid glycosides of new structural classes from the Caribbean gorgonian *Euniceafusca*. *Journal of Organic Chemistry*, 56 (9), pp. 3153-3158.

Sikkema, J. et al., 1994. Cellular toxicity of lipophilic compounds: mechanisms, implications and adaptations. *Biocatalysis*, 10, pp. 113-122.

Sikkema, J., Jam, D.B. and Poolman, B., 1994. Interactions of cyclic hydrocarbons with biological membranes. *Journal of Biological Chemistry*, 269, pp. 8022 -8028.

Sikkema, J., Jam, D. B. and Poolman, B., 1995. Mechanisms of membrane toxicity of hydrocarbons. *Microbiology Reviews*, 59, pp. 201-222.

Tang, Y., Li, H.M. and Tang, Y.J., 2012. Comparison of sterol composition between Tuber fermentation myceliaand natural fruiting bodies. *Food Chemistry*,132,pp. 1207–1213.

Teffo, L.S., Aderogba, M.A. and Eloff, J.N., 2010. Antibacterial and antioxidant activities of four kaempferol methyl ethers isolated from *Dodonaeaviscosa*Jacq. var. angustifolia leaf extracts. *South African Journal of Botany*, 76, pp. 25–29.

Wang, G.H. et al., 2008. Cytotoxic effect of the Genus Sinularia extracts on human SCC25 and HaCaT cells. *Journal of Toxicology*. 2009, pp. 1-8.

Wiley 9th Edition/NIST 2011 MS Library. 2011. USA.

Williams, D.H. and Faulkner, D.J., 1996. Two practical syntheses of an antiinflammatory sesquiterpenefuroic acid from *Sinulariaspp. Tetrahedron*, 52 (12), pp. 4245-4256.

Young, F.M., Phungtamdet, W. and Sanderson, B.J.S., 2005. Modification of MTT assay conditions to examine the cytotoxic effects of amitraz on the human lymphoblastoid cell line, WIL2NS. *Toxicology in Vitro*, 19, pp. 1051-1059.

Yu, S. et al., 2006. 5,8-Epidioxysterols and related derivatives from a Chinese soft coral *Sinulariaflexibilis*. *Steriods*, 71, pp. 955-959.

Appendix A

Total ion chromatogram for fraction AgN1 integrated by Chemstation and the constituents identified by camparison published mass spectra databases (Wiley 9N Mass Spectral Library).



Figure 1: Undecane obtained fromfraction AgN1.



Figure 2: Prehnitolobtained fromfraction AgN1.



Figure 3: Durol obtained from fraction AgN1.



Figure 4: Tridecane obtained fromfraction AgN1.



Figure 5: Dodecane obtained from fraction AgN1.



Figure 6: Tetradecane obtained from fraction AgN1.



Figure 7: Palmitylpalmitate obtained from fraction AgN1.

Appendix B

Total ion chromatogram for fraction AgN6 integrated by Chemstation and the constituents identified by camparison published mass spectra databases (Wiley 9N Mass Spectral Library).







Figure 2: Ergost-5, 8(14)-dien-3-ol obtained from fraction AgN6.



Figure 3: Campesterolobtained fromfraction AgN6.

Appendix C





Appendix E



Expanded DEPT spectrum of fuscol, isolated from *Sinularia* sp.

Appendix D



Expanded HMBCspectrum of fuscol, isolated from Sinularia sp.



SGH-M2.013.001.2m.esp





Appendix E



Expanded HSQC spectrum of fuscol, isolated from Sinularia sp.

